

UNESCO ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK FOR INCLUSIVE POLICY DESIGN:

OF WHY, WHAT AND HOW



United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization



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**ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK FOR INCLUSIVE POLICY DESIGN:
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MOST WORKING DOCUMENT

This analytical framework is designed to support the implementation of the 2030 Agenda and, in particular, its inclusive social development pillar and the associated policy agenda. It does so by framing the upstream policy thinking on these maturing agendas and by supporting qualitative analysis and design of inclusive policies of more inclusive, equity-weighted and SDG-oriented policies.

The document was developed within the UNESCO Management of Social Transformations (MOST) programme and its Inclusive Policy Lab. In its current version, the document is ready for transmission to national counterparts, where it is to be employed for the revision and/or formulation of inclusive policy instruments.

About the document

Purpose: The primary concern of the current document is conceptual delineation and operationalization, in policy and programmatic terms, of the inclusive policy agenda.

Structure: This analytical framework is organized in three parts. The first part places inclusive social development and the associated inclusive policy in the context of longstanding international commitments and the newly adopted Global Goals. The second section grounds the aforementioned agendas in the analytical framework of the original concepts of social exclusion and inclusion. The last section puts forward a set of quality- and process-related markers of inclusive policies. Table 1 serves as a key to the entire document.

Audience: The framework is designed for the benefit of policy practitioners – a mixed audience comprising, amongst others, policy and decision makers, knowledge and data producers, and rights-holder groups.

Practical use: Produced under the UNESCO Inclusive Policy Lab, this document is to serve as both the Lab’s analytical framework and as a standalone tool. In the case of the latter, it attempts to frame the upstream policy thinking and to support qualitative analysis and design of inclusive policies at the country-level. In the spirit of inclusion and co-innovation – two primary concerns of the Lab – such processes are hoped to be collective and involve all of the aforementioned stakeholders. This framework and its content are to be equally used for further “tool kitting”, through the development of much needed capacity building and operational materials, the fields of inclusive social development and inclusive policy. As the subject matter itself, this framework is meant to be an evolving tool, adaptable to national and sectoral contexts and needs. Contextualization and customization, through consultations with national stakeholders and ultimate users of the tool, is critical in this regard.

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KEY MESSAGES

Longstanding yet unmet commitment: Striving for a world that is just, equitable and inclusive has long been a need and a commitment of the international community. From the 1995 World Summit for Social Development, to current international deliberations, this concern has only strengthened, gradually taking centre stage of debates at all levels.

Core of the 2030 Agenda: Following extensive consultations and negotiations, inclusive social development and the associated policy agenda emerged as the core of the recently adopted Sustainable Development Goals. These concerns form the base of six Goals and their targets.

Pending tasks: Despite their strength at the discourse levels, inclusive social development and inclusive policy are evolving agendas that remain largely under-analysed and non-operationalized in policy and programmatic terms. These pending tasks became urgent with the adoption and the looming implementation of the Sustainable Development Goals.

Grounds for discussion: As a mutation of social exclusion and inclusion, inclusive social development is to be grounded in the frameworks of the original concepts. The work on its operationalization through the inclusive policy agenda is to follow the same trail.

Means and ends: Inclusive policy is concerned with adequate inclusion of all parties in the process of policy design and delivery and, at the same time, with producing the outcome of inclusion. Put simply, it is inclusive in means and ends. Both concerns count equally.

Portfolio of interventions: Inclusive policy is not a sectoral intervention. No standalone policy can achieve inclusion. It is brought about through a system or a portfolio of policy interventions that operate at once and in an integrated manner along the social, economic, political, civic and cultural axes.

Transformative: This policy agenda is transformative in nature. It entails, as such, revision of the current modes of policy analysis, design and delivery at all levels.

Markers and how to's: From ample yet dispersed evidence coming from around the world, a set of parameters of inclusive policy can be derived. These are, in essence, quality- and process-related markers against which the inclusive character of a given policy or an entire portfolio of interventions can be weighed. As inclusion itself, the markers are not sectoral. They are, rather, transversal and applicable to multiple sectoral policies.

1. On commitments and urgency

Striving for a world that is just, equitable and inclusive has long been a need and a commitment of the international community. From the 1995 World Summit for Social Development in Copenhagen, where social integration was affirmed to be a part of key social development goals,¹ to current international deliberations, which place inclusive social development and equity at the heart of the newly adopted Sustainable Development Goals, this concern has only strengthened, gradually taking centre stage of debates at all levels.

The High-Level Panel of Eminent Persons on the Post-2015 Development Agenda warned that a risk to be managed in articulating such a framework lies in focusing on the past instead of turning towards future challenges, and underlines that the emphasis of the global agenda should be on issues with the greatest impact, considered, among other major concerns, in terms of their benefits for inclusion.² The report to the UN Secretary-General concerned with taking stock of the main successes and challenges associated with the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), and recommending possible post-2015 goals, called for inclusive social development to become one of four key dimensions of the new agenda.³ Perhaps even more boldly, this issue was articulated in the more recent “A Million Voices: The World We Want” report.⁴ Collecting the perspectives of over a million people around the globe on the 2030 Agenda, the document pointed out that throughout all consultations, be they thematic or national, addressing exclusion and inequalities emerged as a central issue. These documents and the negotiation process they fed into have recently culminated in the adoption of the new development framework, which considers these concerns to be essential and puts them at the core of six out of seventeen of the Sustainable Development Goals and their associated targets.⁵

In addition to reaffirming general principles, the aforementioned documents point out, by thus aligning their recommendations with the predominant expert opinion, the need for stronger interventions at the policy level and integration of equity and inclusion as:

¹ United Nations (1995), Report of the World Summit for Social Development in Copenhagen, Available at <<http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/wssd/text-version/agreements/index.html>>.

² United Nations (2013), A New Global Partnership: Eradicate Poverty and Transform Economies through Sustainable Development, The Report of the High-Level Panel of Eminent Persons on the post-2015 Development Agenda, Available at <http://www.un.org/sg/management/pdf/HLP_P2015_Report.pdf>.

³ United Nations Task Team on the Post-2015 UN Development Agenda (2011), Realizing the Future We Want for All Report to the Secretary-General, Available at <http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/pdf/Post_2015_UNTTreport.pdf>.

⁴ United Nations Development Group (2013), A Million Voices: The World We Want, Available at <<http://www.worldwewant2015.org/bitcache/cb02253d47a0f7d4318f41a4d11c330229991089?vid=422422&disposition=inline&op=view>>. See also United Nations (2014), The Road to Dignity by 2030: Ending Poverty, Transforming All Lives and Protecting the Planet, UN General Assembly, December 4, 2014, Available at <http://www.pnud.org.br/arquivos/relatorio_sintese_ods.pdf>.

⁵ See Sustainable Development Goals, otherwise known as the Global Goals, number (4) inclusive education, (8) inclusive economic growth, (9) inclusive and sustainable industrialization, (10) reduction of inequality within and among countries (11) inclusive human settlements and (16) inclusive societies and institutions. Available at <<https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/post2015/transformingourworld>>.

- i) an overarching theme and a goal that cuts across all sector policies⁶ and deals comprehensively with all axes along which exclusion operates;
- ii) a lens through which any policy and programme can be designed and implemented;⁷
- iii) an approach to investigating and addressing bottlenecks and loopholes in both the delivery of services (supply-side) and adequate access or uptake (demand-side); and
- iv) an objective of, and a step towards, integrated policy responses and policy coherence at the global, regional, national and sub-national levels.

The deliberations at global, regional and national levels left little room for doubt that inclusive social development and inclusive policy are up-and-coming areas of concern that form the core of international development work. Many point out, however, that these are evolving concepts that, although of concern to many at the conceptual level, remain largely non-operationalized in policy and programmatic terms – a task that became urgent with the adoption of the Global Goals.

⁶ UNDESA (2009), Report for the Expert Group Meeting on Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration: Lessons Learned from Existing Policies and Practices, Available at <<http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/egms/docs/2009/Ghana/ghanareport.pdf>>.

⁷ World Bank (2013), Inclusion Matters: The Foundation for Shared Prosperity (Advance Edition), Washington, DC: World Bank.

2. Unpacking social exclusion and inclusion

Increased popularity of the concept of exclusion comes with criticism of its indiscriminate use to cover features and forms of deprivation that do not belong conceptually and/or practically to a discussion on social exclusion.⁸ Calls have, therefore, been launched (and followed) for a better conceptual and operational delineation of the limits of the term.⁹ This work has resulted in the identification, though with varying emphasis, of the following common constituent elements in the meanings attached to social exclusion:

- i) **Multidimensional:** there is a general consensus amongst both academic and public policy actors that the concept comprises social, civic, political, cultural and economic dimensions.¹⁰ A different clustering of, in essence, the same dimensions is: social services, economic life, and social networks and participation;¹¹
- ii) **Dynamic:** exclusion is not a static state experienced by the same groups and in the same manner over time. Exclusionary processes happen in different ways, are experienced at different degrees and with different intensity, and operate at different social levels;¹²
- iii) **Relational:** there are two dimensions to this feature. The first refers to a rupture between people and the society resulting in disadvantage and, most importantly, inability to enjoy shared opportunities that are available to others.¹³ The second “points to exclusion as the product of unequal social relationships characterised by differential power, i.e. the product of the way societies are organized”;¹⁴
- iv) **Contextual:** exclusion is often understood as the inability to participate and enjoy economic, social and civic opportunities that are considered “normal” in a given society. Such shared opportunities vary across countries and time being shaped by cultural, institutional and socio-economic factors”;¹⁵
- v) **Multiple levels:** definitions refer to different levels along which social exclusion/inclusion operates, namely, micro (e.g., individual, household), meso (e.g., neighbourhoods), and macro (i.e., nation state and global regions) levels;¹⁶

⁸ See Oyen, E. (1997), The Contradictory Concepts of Social Exclusion and Social Inclusion. In Gore, C. and Figueiredo, J.B., (ed.) Social Exclusion and Anti-Poverty Policy, Geneva: ILO; Murard, N. (2002). Guilty victims: social exclusion in contemporary France. In Chamberlayne, P., Rustin, M., and Wengraf, T. (ed) Biography and social exclusion in Europe. Experiences and life journeys. Bristol: Policy Press.

⁹ Sen, A. (2000), Social Exclusion: concept, application and scrutiny. Social Development papers 1. Asian Development Bank, Available at <<http://housingforall.org/Socialexclusion.pdf>>.

¹⁰ See for example Estivill, J. (2003), Concepts and strategies for combating social exclusion: an overview. Geneva: International Labour Organisation, Available at <<http://www.ilo.org/public/english/protection/socsec/step/download/96p1.pdf>>; UNDESA (2009).

¹¹ UNDP (2011). Beyond Transition: Towards Inclusive Societies, Regional Human Development Report, Bratislava: UNDP, Available at <<http://europeandcis.undp.org/news/show/BCD10F8F-F203-1EE9-BB28DEE6D70B52E1>>.

¹² WHO (2008). Social Exclusion Meaning, Measurement and Experience and Links to Health Inequalities: A Review of Literature, WHO Social Exclusion Knowledge Network Background Paper 1, Available at <<http://www.who.int/socialdeterminants/media/seknmeaningmeasurementexperience2008.pdf.pdf>>, pp. 11-21.

¹³ Sen (2000), note 9 above.

¹⁴ WHO (2008), p. 21, note 12 above.

¹⁵ Silver, H (2007), The Process of Social Exclusion: The Dynamics of an Evolving Concept. Chronic Poverty Research Centre, Available at <<http://www.chronicpoverty.org/uploads/publicationfiles/CP2006Silver.pdf>>.

¹⁶ WHO (2008), p. 12, note 12 above.

- vi) **Group and individual approaches:** the traditional group-based approach can be traced back to the origin of the concept of social exclusion itself and to Lenoir,¹⁷ who identified both the excluded groups (which in many cases might more helpfully be called categories) and the factors that make them prone to exclusion. More recent studies, however, go beyond the group-based or categorical approach, assuming that “each individual has a number of individual characteristics that can put him or her at risk of social exclusion. These can be related to gender, ethnicity, language, religion, age, sexual orientation, religious beliefs and disability, as well as linked to status (income, health, employment, education, resources, opportunities and assets)”;¹⁸
- vii) **Drivers:** it is considered that individual vulnerabilities and risks alone do not necessarily result in exclusion. “Whether social exclusion occurs depends on the interaction of risks with a set of drivers that can be structural, behavioural, or policy-related.”¹⁹

Figure 1: The various composite elements of exclusion



Source: Compiled by the authors

In addition to defining the aforementioned features of the concept itself, efforts have been invested into clarifying the relation between social exclusion and other associated but conceptually and practically different terms, such as poverty and deprivation. Here again, researchers and practitioners, especially those coming from the development field, who tend to deal with these various concepts in very diverse contexts and jurisdictions, are warned against a loose and often interchangeable utilization of the terms. As argued by many, while economic inequality and poverty are outcomes, social exclusion is both a process and an outcome.²⁰ To use Estivill’s analogy, the

¹⁷ Reference made to René Lenoir, former Secretary of State for Social Action of France, who is credited with popularizing the concept in 1974.

¹⁸ UNDP (2011), p. 12, note 11 above.

¹⁹ Ibid, p. 19.

²⁰ Estivill (2003), note 10 above; UNDP (2011), note 11 above; World Bank (2013), note 7 above.

“snapshot” that is poverty should not be confused with the “film” of exclusion.²¹ The latter gives a more accurate idea of the process. Or, as put by the World Bank, “social exclusion may well be about poverty, but it is often about more than poverty—and at certain times, it is not about poverty at all. At still other times, it helps explain the root causes of poverty. Exclusion can intersect with poverty, deriving from a set of multiple, interrelated disadvantages that result in both economic and social deprivation. It is also key to explaining why some groups remain trapped in poverty, failing to benefit fully from public investments in, say, education and health”.²²

Aggregated, the aforementioned elements lead to an understanding of social exclusion as a process of progressive social rupture the “practical influence of which is in forcefully emphasizing”²³, *inter alia*, the fact that such a phenomenon is multidimensional (i.e., comprising social, civic, political, cultural and economic activities), dynamic (i.e., experienced to different degrees and with different intensity by different individuals and social groups over time), and relational (i.e., being both the result and the process of the rupture between individuals, groups and societies) at the same time. Conversely, social inclusion is a multi-dimensional process geared towards the creation of conditions and, if required, lowering of economic, social and cultural barriers²⁴ for a “full and active participation of every member of the society in all aspects of life”.²⁵ Such a process pays due attention to how and for whom terms and conditions are to be improved.²⁶

Mindful of possible variations in the understanding of the social exclusion and inclusion continuums across jurisdictions, this document adopts the aforementioned definitions as these are deemed both to comprise the main elements of the concept and to be sensitive enough to different contexts.

²¹ Estivill (2003), p. 21, note 10 above.

²² World Bank (2013), p.52, note 7 above.

²³ Sen (2000), p. 8, note 9 above.

²⁴ UNDESA (2007), Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration, Final Report of the Expert Group Meeting, Paris, Available at <<http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/egms/docs/2008/Paris-report.pdf>>, p.5.

²⁵ UNDESA (2009), p. 5, note 6 above.

²⁶ World Bank (2013), p.50, note 7 above.

3. Understanding Inclusive Policy

Although a unified and widely accepted definition of inclusive policy has not yet been articulated, a common understanding of what it stands for transpires from the previously summarized discussions on the 2030 Agenda, the associated policy statements and analytical works by both social science communities and practitioners in this field. Such understanding is, however, in need of further conceptual and operational delineation to avoid its indiscriminate and “empty” use.²⁷ This pending task is the primary concern of the current document.

A mutation of the terms of social exclusion and social inclusion, inclusive social development and the associated policy agenda have to be adequately grounded in the theoretical framework of the original concepts. This is achieved here by deconstructing exclusion and inclusion into their constituent elements and by deriving, based on the above, the corresponding parameters of inclusive policy (Table 1). Such parameters are, in essence, quality- and process-related markers of inclusion against which the inclusive character of a given policy or a portfolio of interventions can be considered. These markers are not intended for ranking policies or creating typologies. They are also not contrasted here to decide which one has more weight and deserves a stronger emphasis. This is to be determined, amongst other factors, by specific patterns of exclusion in various jurisdictions, the desired inclusion outcomes, as well as institutional set-up and policy specificities.

Underlined throughout this document is the fact that inclusive policy is not a sectoral intervention. No standalone policy or intervention can achieve inclusion. It is brought about through a portfolio of policies and rightsized interventions coming from all necessary directions.²⁸ Hence, the approach and the markers put forward in this analytical framework are not sectoral; they are, rather, transversal and applicable to multiple sectoral policies.

This work does not replicate existing (yet scarce) attempts to analyse and provide concrete examples of inclusive policies. The basic questions addressed here are: What is the inclusive policy agenda? What do inclusive policies have in common? What makes them inclusive? What can policy practitioners do when they need to go outside of a standard toolbox/menu of inclusive policies and design a sectoral intervention that has not been tested so far? What should policy practitioners watch out for as pitfalls of exclusion and foster as points of inclusion in policy design and delivery?

The working definition employed throughout this document approaches inclusive policy as a framework for public action that has the two-pronged goal of adequate inclusion of all concerned parties in the process of policy design and delivery (inclusive in means) and, at the same time, of producing the outcome of inclusion (inclusive in ends). Increased attention, in this regard, is paid to the policy’s substantive provisions, the process of its design and delivery, and its format.

²⁷ Such criticism was directed, and later addressed, towards the original concepts of exclusion and inclusion at the early stages of their formation. See Oyen, E. (1997), note 8 above.

²⁸ See UNDP (2011), note 11 above; World Bank (2013), note 7 above; Silver, H. (2012), “Framing Social Inclusion policies”, Background paper draft, World Bank, Washington, DC.

TABLE 1: FROM SOCIAL INCLUSION TO INCLUSIVE POLICIES

Dimensions of Exclusion and Inclusion	Markers of Inclusive Policies	Design Considerations
<p>Multidimensional</p> 	<p>Transversal and overarching objective</p> <hr/> <p>Continuum of interventions</p> <hr/> <p>Public sector innovation</p> <hr/> <p>Integrated and policy-sensitive evidence</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • System or portfolio of interventions • Supra-goal at the priority setting level • Allocation of resources based on needs <hr/> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Integrated and multidimensional continuums • Coordinating mechanisms <hr/> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trying, testing, improving approach • Inclusion of user communities • New technologies in design and delivery <hr/> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Integrated approach to data • Equity-weighted data • Timely data
<p>Relational</p> 	<p>Equality of opportunities and outcomes</p> <hr/> <p>Delivery of services (supply-side) and adequate access or uptake (demand-side)</p> <hr/> <p>Distribution of public expenditure</p> <hr/> <p>Relation between the mainstream and the excluded populations</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Symptoms and structural causes • Efficient use of opportunities; comparable outcomes • Quick wins and long-term inclusive goals <hr/> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public service network • Causes of low uptake • Terms of inclusion <hr/> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Redirection of resources • Group distribution of benefits • Public awareness and value to society at-large • Role of international actors <hr/> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Targeting all parties • Meaningful dialogue
<p>Intersecting risks and drivers</p> 	<p>Exclusion risks and their intersections</p> <hr/> <p>Removal of drivers of exclusion</p> <hr/> <p>Tailored policy design and service delivery</p> <hr/> <p>Analysis of differentiated and distributional policy effects</p> <hr/> <p>Weighted breadth and depth of intervention</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Group conditions and individual characteristics • Differentiated yet shared risk • Cumulative disadvantage • Intra-group inequalities <hr/> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Structural, behavioural and policy-related drivers • Bottlenecks and loopholes with exclusionary potential <hr/> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Needs and preferences of intended beneficiaries • Not exclusive but fitted interventions <hr/> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inter-sectoral spillovers of risks • Group- and category-specific corollaries <hr/> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intensity, structure and persistence of exclusion • Types of risks and drivers • Depth of coverage

Dynamic



Built-in duration

- Persistence of exclusion
- Panel or longitudinal data
- Historical and contextual analysis

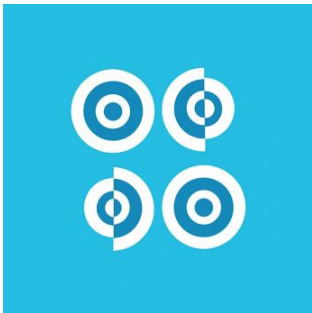
Long-term and anticipatory character

- Non-linearity; unplanned results
- Nascent and emerging areas of need
- Anticipatory policy making

Proactive and reactive functions

- Early-stage interventions
- Reactive measure

Contextual and multi-layered



In-country coherence and coordination

- Horizontal coordination
- Policy coherence
- Vertical coordination
- Capacity and institutional fit at all levels

Regional and sub-regional coordination

- Soft law mechanisms
- Non-standardized instruments

Participatory



Procedural improvements

- Participation as a normative goal
- Participation throughout the policy circle
- Guaranteed and institutionalized avenues

Transformative participation

- Susceptibility to marginalization in participatory processes
- Levelling the field
- Capacity to engage

Source: Compiled by the authors

3.1. Multi-dimensionality and related policy markers



Exclusion operates along social, civic, political, cultural and economic axes. These dimensions form a self-reinforcing circle, serving, in essence, as triggers and/or transmission channels, with precariousness and deprivation in one of them often resulting in marginalization in the rest. For example, the circle could be set in train by exclusion from social services, such as education, including life-long learning, and resulting unemployment and overall underperformance in the economic dimension – a factor that could, in return, feed into further social service deprivation in terms of health care and/or social protection, reduced participation in political and civic life, and hampered involvement in cultural affairs.

Such multi-dimensionality and progressivity are arguably among the most relevant factors making inclusion a valuable lens and approach to policy design that entails a shift in policy thinking and practice towards:

- (i) **Considering inclusion as an explicit and overarching/transversal goal that cuts across sectoral policies²⁹**

System or portfolio of policy interventions

No standalone policy can succeed in fully and sustainably releasing the exclusion trap. The built-in multidimensionality of exclusion calls for inclusive policies that are designed, unlike traditional anti-poverty agendas,³⁰ to operate at once and in an integrated manner – much like a system or a portfolio of interventions - along the social, civic, political, cultural and economic axes. Removing “just one of these axes of deprivation [...] will not unleash the grip of others”³¹.

Supra-goal at priority setting level

At a priority-setting level, this multi-dimensional take on inclusion entails that, in essence, it be approached and operationalized as a supra-goal of governmental policies rather than a sporadic sectoral concern. As such, progress made against all sectoral interventions is systematically and systemically planned for and considered, amongst other major concerns, against their contribution to inclusion. However, previous experiences warn

²⁹ This is a long-standing recommendation of the international expert community. See for example., UNDESA (2009), note 6 above.

³⁰ Stewart, F. (2005), “Social exclusion and conflict: analysis and policy implications”, Report prepared for the UK Department for International Development, London. Available at <<http://www.gsdr.org/docs/open/con34.pdf>>.

³¹ World Bank (2013), p.52, note 7 above.

against an “on paper” integration of inclusion under other sectoral policies and its gradual reduction to a residual area of concern.³²

Allocation of resources based on needs

Addressing the supra-goal of inclusion through policies does not necessarily require additional resource allocation. In many jurisdictions, considerable progress could be achieved within the existing fiscal envelope. Inclusion should not be, however, perceived, as a “zero cost” add-on to existing policies. Such an exercise requires a complex combination of political will, institutional set-up and reallocation of resources focusing on actual needs and effective joined-up planning, enforcement and impact monitoring.³³

BOX 1. INCLUSION AS A SUPRA-GOAL AND A PORTFOLIO

In 2008, the European Commission adopted a Recommendation on the active inclusion of people most excluded from the labour market. The Recommendation promotes a comprehensive strategy based on the integration of three policy pillars – adequate income support, inclusive labour markets, and access to quality services – taking due account of their joint impact on the social and economic inclusion of disadvantaged people and their possible interrelationships. While the number of EU member states to adopt this policy design remains small, countries such as Netherlands and Denmark have embarked on major reforms in this regard.³⁴

More recent efforts of setting inclusion as an overarching goal come from Malaysia, where the Government’s Eleventh Malaysia Plan (2016-2020) identifies inclusion as one of the country’s six “strategic thrusts”. In addition to making it a standalone priority, the document integrates indicators of inclusion under the rest of its major areas of concern.³⁵

(ii) Designing policy instruments through a social value chain lens

Integrated and multi-dimensional continuums

To be successful, inclusive policies put in place integrated, multidimensional, multi-stakeholder and rightsized continuums³⁶ of interventions that lead to the delivery of the final “good” of welfare and social inclusion of individuals in a given society. Such mechanisms should be made sense of only as a

³² Frazer, H., and Marlier, E. (2012), Assessment of the implementation of the European Commission Recommendation on active inclusion: A study of national policies, European Commission, Directorate General of Employment, Social Affairs and Inclusion, Brussels.

³³ UNDP (2011), p. 77, note 11 above.

³⁴ See Frazer and Marlier (2012), note 32 above; Blommesteijn, M. (2013), Assessment of the implementation of the European Commission Recommendation on Active Inclusion: A Study of National Policies: The Netherlands, European Commission, Directorate General of Employment, Social Affairs and Inclusion, Brussels.

³⁵ Malaysian Government (2015), Eleventh Malaysia Plan 2016-2020: Anchoring Growth on People, Economic Planning Unit, Prime Minister’s Department, Kuala Lumpur.

³⁶ Silver (2012), note 28 above.

coherent whole. Special consideration should be given to interventions with a chain reaction/knock-on effect on multiple axes of inclusion (i.e., economic, social, civic and cultural) and on the overall supra-goal of inclusion (see sub-section 3.1. i.).³⁷

Coordinating mechanisms for a given continuum

Such a lens also entails the existence of adequate coordinating mechanisms for facilitating effective joined-up planning and oversight of inclusive interventions across sectors (e.g., education, health, social protection, housing), levels (e.g., micro, referring to individuals and households, sub-national, and national levels), providers (e.g., public, not-for-profit, private) and time. What is at stake here is coordination and coherence to (a) provide all-round package of services on the basis of best available knowledge; (b) improve the efficiency and effectiveness of the entire chain and each of its provisions; and (c) expand the depth and breadth of benefits generated to all actors who form the chain.

BOX 2: MULTIDIMENSIONAL CONTINUUMS OF CARE AND THEIR COORDINATION

Cutting across sectors, governmental levels and time

For a better understanding of this idea, consider the example of the Multidimensional Continuum for the Homeless in the US. This complex continuum is put in place to assist “people living in shelters [to] move into transitional housing, prepare for jobs, go through drug or alcohol treatment, reunite with families, and ultimately, find a permanent home, perhaps with long-term supportive services to help them stay housed.”³⁸ Cutting across sectors, time and levels, this continuum is argued to be as multidimensional and transversal as the exclusion it strives to combat. The coordination of programmes amongst nineteen government departments and agencies, as well as non-profits and private actors, lies with the US Interagency Council on Homelessness. More specifically, the Council “[...] monitors, evaluates, and makes recommendations to improve the effectiveness of federal activities and programs for people experiencing homelessness; disseminates best practices; and provides financial, professional and technical support to state and local governments and public and private sector organizations assisting the homeless.”³⁹

³⁷ UNESCO Internal Thematic Brief (2013), Inclusion: Beyond a Goal to a Supra-goal of the Post-2015 Development Agenda.

³⁸ Silver (2012), p. 21, note 28 above.

³⁹ Ibid, p. 22.

Cutting across time and levels

Put in place in various jurisdictions around the world, the Multidimensional Continuum of Care for Reproductive, Maternal, Newborn and Child Health (RMNCH) is another example in this regard. The RMNCH includes integrated service delivery for mothers and children that pays attention to two main dimensions: time (i.e., from pre-pregnancy, including family planning services and empowerment of adolescent girls, to delivery, the immediate postnatal period, and childhood) and place or level of care (i.e., families and communities, through outpatient services, clinics and other health facilities). Linking interventions in the aforementioned ways is deemed to reduce costs, increase uptake and promote related healthcare elements for both the mother and the child.⁴⁰

(iii) Encouraging and allowing for public sector innovation

Trying, testing and improving approach	The widespread resistance to clear, tested and agreed solutions – in other words, “wicked” character – of exclusionary dynamics informs the need for a higher degree of policy innovation and an overall “trying, testing and improving” approach to inclusive policy making and service delivery. Innovation should be allowed for and stimulated at all levels. Such processes should increasingly bank on the self-organization and co-innovation capacity of policy communities, including public, private and third sectors.
Inclusion of end users; New means of approaching user groups	Of particular relevance are the involvement of, and the innovative ideas coming from, the intended beneficiary and actual user communities, as a considerable share of innovations originate at that level (Figure 2). ⁴¹ The potential of new technologies is to be fully explored in this regard. Stakeholder communities, especially the harder-to-reach user groups, can sometimes be approached through internet and technology-based tools and applications, thus supplying governments with complementary sources of policy-relevant data and enabling evidence-based inclusive policies.
New technologies in design and delivery	New technologies equally hold the promise of more effective delivery and improved uptake of services. An example is efforts to turn the rapidly increasing number of people possessing mobile phones and improved network coverage into new mechanisms of m-health and e-health. Thus, the

⁴⁰ See <http://www.who.int/pmnch/about/continuum_of_care/en/>.

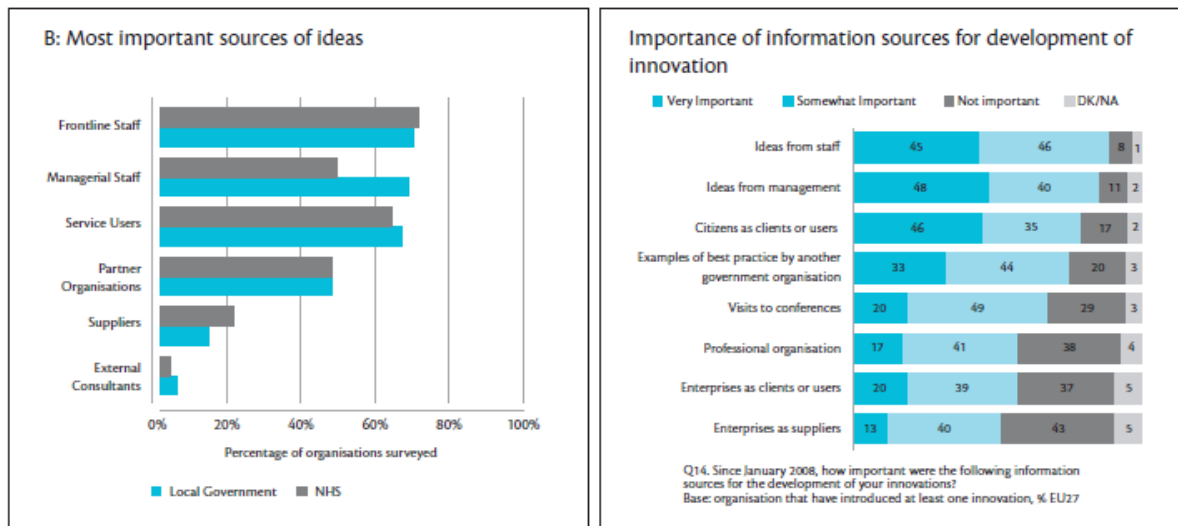
⁴¹ According to UK NESTA (2011), “Innovation in Public Sector Organisations: a pilot survey for measuring innovation across the public sector”, for the left column of Figure 3 and Gallup (2011), “Innobarometer 2010: analytical report. Innovation in Public Administration”, survey commissioned by the European Commission”, for the right column of Figure 3, as cited in OECD (2014), An Exploratory Look at Public Sector Innovation in GCC Countries, p. 12, Available at <http://www.thegovernmentsummit.ae/media/496791/GS14_OECD_English_eVersion.pdf>.

“Mwana” project in Zambia, launched in 2010 with support from the Ministry of Health and UNICEF, has reduced delays in transmitting results from HIV test laboratories to health facilities via instant SMS message from 66 days to 33 on average in the country’s rural and underserved communities. In addition to strengthening early infant diagnosis and improving the rate of postnatal follow-up, Mwana proved successful in engaging with local health workers and service users in the co-design of m-health information services.⁴²

Innovation in maturing agendas

While relevant to many areas, the need to experiment and allow for a higher degree of public sector innovation is of particular importance in the rapidly growing but still maturing field of inclusive policy design and delivery.

Figure 2: Sources of innovative ideas in the public sector, United Kingdom (left), European Union (right)



Source: OECD (2014), p. 12

(iv) Boosting the availability and usage of integrated and policy-sensitive evidence

Right modes, kind and timing of data

The case for evidence-based policy making has been exhaustively made by others and is not repeated in the current document. The points raised here refer to the need for the right modes, kind and time of data collection, compilation and usage.

Integrated approach to data

Integrated, across place and time, data collection and compilation are of the essence in the context of inclusive policy and service delivery. Take the examples of the Multidimensional Continuum of Care for Reproductive,

⁴² UN E-Government Survey 2014, pp. 58, 155 Available at <<http://unpan3.un.org/egovkb/Reports/UN-E-Government-Survey-2014>>. See also <http://www.unicef.org/partners/Partnership_profile_2012_Mwana_Zambia_V2_approved.pdf>.

Maternal, Newborn and Child Health (RMNCH) or the multidimensional continuum for the homeless (Box 2). Such continuums are put in place for populations with multidimensional needs and are delivered by different actors throughout long stretches of time. Yet data on the performance of such interventions, even if often available, is not collected and compiled in a coherent manner. It is also often housed in different agencies that are not necessarily concerned with facilitating an efficient data flow to, and usage by, other bodies. In sub-section 3.1.ii, this document talks about the need for coordinating mechanisms to address these issues. These are put in place not for centralized policy and service delivery but for integrated collection of data on the effectiveness of policy and service packages, as well as their channels of delivery, allowing for the decision and policy making process to be based on comprehensive and best available data.

Equity-weighted data

Inclusive policy and service delivery equally require collection and use of evidence sensitive to the needs of, and relevant for, the most deprived and excluded; in other words, evidence that is equity-weighted and allows for the detection and tracking of disparities.⁴³ Considerable attention should also be given to disaggregated data collection, including common and agreed ex-ante and ex-post indicators on inclusion at all levels. Such concerns are of particular relevance at the sub-national level where the data gap is especially constraining.⁴⁴

Data relevant for early stage action

Consideration is also to be given to data collection and processing systems that reduce the gap between the onset of a possible crisis or an exclusion challenge and the availability of decision-relevant information that can help protect, through the appropriate early-stage policy action, the most deprived and excluded against further regressions (see also sub-section 3.4.i and 3.4.iii). In the pursuit of such a goal is the United Nations Global Pulse. Through projects such as the SMS Survey on Emerging Risks Amongst Vulnerable Populations and the Rapid Mobile Phone Survey on Economic Conditions, the initiative collects real time data on economic conditions or risks among vulnerable populations at local levels and expedites its transmission and use, subsequently minimizing the delay in the necessary policy responses.⁴⁵

⁴³ UNICEF (2012), Equity: the litmus test for human progress in the 21st century, Draft Think Piece, Available at <http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/policy/untaskteam_undf/groupb_unicef_inequality.pdf>.

⁴⁴ UNDP (2011), note 11 above.

⁴⁵ See United Nations Global Pulse <<http://www.unglobalpulse.org/>>.

BOX 3: READING BIG DATA FOR EARLY SIGNS

Social media and early indicators of unemployment

In one of its proof-of-concept projects, Global Pulse attempted to find out whether social media can add depth to unemployment statistics. To find an answer, the initiative “[collected] digital data (social media, blogs, forums and news articles) related to unemployment; [performed] sentiment analysis to categorize the mood of these online conversations, and [correlated] volume of mood-related conversation to official unemployment statistics.” The results of such work in Ireland showed that “increased social media conversations about work-related anxiety and confusion provided a three-month early warning indicator of an unemployment spike.”⁴⁶

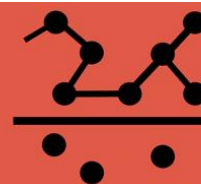
Twitter data and perceptions of crisis

Similar results came from Indonesia, where a project by the same entity revealed that “the number of tweets discussing the price of rice in Indonesia closely matched the official inflation statistics, showing how the volume and topics of Twitter conversations can reflect a population’s concerns in close to real time.”⁴⁷

⁴⁶ United Nations Global Pulse (2013) Big Data for Development: A primer, Available at <http://www.unglobalpulse.org/sites/default/files/Primer%202013_FINAL%20FOR%20PRINT.pdf>, p. 5; See also <<http://www.unglobalpulse.org/projects/can-social-media-mining-add-depth-unemployment-statistics>>.

⁴⁷ Ibid, p. 5.

3.2 Relational character and its policy markers



Social exclusion is approached by many as first and foremost a relational phenomenon that comprises both the result and the process of the rupture between individuals, groups and societies.⁴⁸ Since 2008, the WHO has used such a take on exclusion to inform the work of its Commission on Social Determinants of Health and to develop the Social Exclusion Knowledge Network (SEKN) – a policy analysis framework that aims at improving the understanding of the relational dimension of exclusion and how it can be productively used for the design of inclusive health policies. The framework treats exclusion as a social relationship of power and examines exclusionary processes in four interrelated dimensions – social, economic, political and cultural – as drivers of health inequalities. It proves useful by shedding light on how and why the excluded populations have differential access to the resources required to protect and promote their health, and by, subsequently, revealing ways to redress the situation.

In combination with the aforementioned take, exclusion can be understood not only as a position of relative deprivation of the excluded as compared to the rest of the society but also as compared to their own potential, were they not marginalized. Hence, as opposed to many traditional policy instruments, inclusive interventions have the scope of improving the conditions of the excluded individuals and groups not only in relation to “mainstream” society but also in relation to their actual and potential capabilities.⁴⁹ They do so by adequately addressing the issues of:

(i) Equality of opportunities and outcomes

Symptoms and structural causes

Inclusive policies are those that are well placed to deal with both equality of opportunities (or lack thereof) and persistent structural factors that affect equality of outcomes. Repeated warnings have been launched, especially in the context of deliberations on the post-2015 development agenda, that dealing only with “the symptoms and manifestations of poverty or exclusion (e.g. lack of income, education or health), rather than their structural causes (e.g. discrimination, lack of access to resources, lack of representation)”⁵⁰ is not the way to go.

Efficient use of equal opportunities;

To achieve truly inclusive development, interventions must extend beyond equality of opportunities since individuals with “deep disadvantages which have accumulated over time are unable to use opportunities with the same

⁴⁸ Sen (2000), note 9 above; WHO (2008), note 12 above.

⁴⁹ UNDP (2011), note 11 above.

⁵⁰ UN Task Team on the Post-2015 UN Development Agenda, Addressing Inequalities: The Heart of the Post-2015 Agenda and the Future We Want for All. Thematic think piece. Available at <http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/pdf/Think%20Pieces/10_inequalities.pdf>.

Comparable outcomes efficiency and outcomes”⁵¹. As evidence coming from various countries show, no overt discrimination is needed for the children of long-term privileged groups to do better in any competitive examinations as compared to their peers coming from disadvantaged backgrounds. The same pattern extends well into adulthood through differential access to networks, job opportunities, knowledge etc.⁵²

Quick wins and long-term inclusive goals Not factoring in the aforementioned realities leads to narrow and discretionary policy measures focusing only on provision of services and short-term amelioration of market and societal imperfections rather than on the longer-term and deeper goal of inclusive development.

(ii) **Deficits in delivery of services (supply-side) and adequate access or uptake (demand-side)**

Public services network and recourse to it The task of inclusive policies is both to provide a public services network available, accessible and affordable by all, and to boost recourse to it. While the former is a well-entrenched part of conventional approaches and policy instruments, the latter is as important and, in the context of long-term exclusion, arguably more challenging.

Causes of low uptake The fact that certain services and opportunities are available does not necessarily imply that those who have been excluded for a long time will automatically accept and use them. The costs are often being blamed for inhibiting uptake, but other factors are not to be ignored. Persistent exclusion may lead those affected by it to mistrust mainstream society and to forms of self-reliance which, as many warn, should not be by default equated with self-segregation and self-exclusion.⁵³ The excluded individuals may be equally affected by the feeling of shame (whether felt or anticipated), an internal sense of inadequacy and stigma associated with the status of disadvantage and that of a welfare recipient.⁵⁴ Both of the aforementioned nuanced understandings deserve particular consideration in the context of inclusive policy design and service delivery.

Terms of inclusion Addressing such patterns and bridging the gaps between provision and uptake is a key long-term issue for inclusive interventions. However, the

⁵¹ Stewart (2005), p. 8, note 30 above; See also Ali, I., and Zhuang, J. (2007), *Inclusive Growth toward a Prosperous Asia: Policy Implications*, ERD Working Paper No. 97, Economics and Research Department, Asian Development Bank, Manila.

⁵² See for example, Stewart (2005) note 30 above; Niçaise, I. (2010, September 28–29), *A smart social inclusion policy for the EU: The role of education and training*, University of Leuven and NESSE, Presentation at the Belgian EU Presidency conference *Breaking the cycle of disadvantage- Social inclusion in and through education*, Available at <http://www.nesse.fr/nesse/activities/symposia/activities/symposia/symposium-2010/smart>; <http://www.bbc.com/news/education-18644830>.

⁵³ Silver (2012), note 28 above.

⁵⁴ Chase, E. and Walker, R. (2013), *The Co-construction of shame in the context of poverty: Beyond a threat to the social bond*, *Sociology* 47: 4 739-754, Available at <http://soc.sagepub.com/content/early/2012/10/16/0038038512453796.full.pdf+html>.

terms of inclusion must be seriously considered as any form of adverse incorporation may trigger or lead to further self-exclusion and isolation.

BOX 4: BRIDGING DELIVERY AND UPTAKE THROUGH TRANSFER PROGRAMMES

One of the mechanisms employed for overcoming the gap between provision and uptake is conditional transfers. Imagine a poor family with several school-aged children (there is a potential demand for education), living right across the street from a public school, but not enrolled. Put simply, there is no supply-side limitation (the school exists, including teachers, textbooks etc.) and the (potential) demand exists as well, but they are not coming together. Deprivation and inability to cover the required out-of-pocket expenses or other existing opportunity costs may be one of several reasons for this.⁵⁵ Conditional (and, in many cases, unconditional) transfer systems (payment of a certain amount of money to the household under the condition of school attendance) have frequently been used around the globe throughout the last two decades to bridge these gaps.⁵⁶

Concrete cases come from Mexico, where an increase in school enrolment rates ranging from 3.5 to 5.8 percentage points for boys to 7.2 to 9.3 for girls is attributed to the Education, Health, and Nutrition Program (Progresa); Nicaragua, where the average enrolment rate has increased nearly 22 percentage points after the implementation of the Social Protection Network programme; as well as Colombia, Ecuador and Brazil, where increased enrolment rates have also been reported as results of conditional transfer programmes.⁵⁷

⁵⁵ Lewis, M. and Lockheed, M. (2007), Social exclusion: The emerging challenge in girls' education, in Lewis, M. and Lockheed (Ed.) Exclusion, Gender and Education - Case studies from the developing world, Center for Global Development, Washington DC.

⁵⁶ This happens under different forms and modalities of transfer programmes and with different success rates. While these may be criticized on various parameters, their overall potential for bringing supply and demand sides together is recognised among academics and policy makers.

⁵⁷ For Nicaragua, Mexico and Colombia: Rawlings, B. L. and Rubio, M. G. (2005), Evaluating the Impact of Conditional Cash Transfer Programs, World Bank Research Observer, 20 (1): 29-55. Available at <<http://wbro.oxfordjournals.org/content/20/1/29.full.pdf>>; For Ecuador: Schady, N. and Araujo, M.C. (2006), Cash transfers, conditions, school enrollment, and child work: Evidence from a randomized Experiment in Ecuador. Impact Evaluation Series 3, World Bank. Available at <<http://elibrary.worldbank.org/doi/pdf/10.1596/1813-9450-3930>>; For Brazil: Glewwe, P. and Kassouf, L. A. (2012) The impact of the Bolsa Escola/Familia conditional cash transfer program on enrollment, dropout rates and grade promotion in Brazil, Journal of Development Economics, 9(2), 505-517.

(iii) **Distribution of public expenditure**

Redirection of resources; Group distribution of benefits	Concerns related to the nature and distribution of public expenditure are an essential part of inclusive agendas. These entail redirections of expenditures and resources towards the excluded and exclusion-prone groups and individuals. Such interventions require deep analysis of the implications of the changes in terms of group distribution of benefits. ⁵⁸ Examples of concrete measures in this regard may include gender- and child-responsive policy planning and budgeting. Participatory budgeting, especially at local levels, is another mechanism that contributes to a more equitable distribution of expenditures, provided that all groups participate on an equal footing and have the capacity to get involved in such processes. ⁵⁹
Awareness raising; Value to society as a whole	To ensure public support, it may be advisable to raise general awareness, including of the costs of exclusion for a given society, and make a case for spending on inclusion as a sound investment. ⁶⁰ Whereas the interrelated social, economic, political and environmental costs of exclusion are easier to detect at the individual and group level, they are also being paid by societies at large. For instance, due to insufficient education and participation in the labour market among Roma, the combined economic losses of four countries in Europe (Serbia, the Czech Republic, Bulgaria, and Romania) amount annually to as much as 5.7 billion Euros, while the fiscal losses are estimated at 2 billion Euros annually. ⁶¹ Exclusion is also a fertile ground for environmental degradation, insecurity and conflict, disease and disenfranchisement. Although harder to estimate, these entail considerable costs for societies and, if remain unchecked, undermine progress.
Possible role of international actors	The influence of the international community, through the distribution of aid expenditure, policy dialogues and mechanisms related to priority setting (e.g., PRSPs and public expenditure reviews), is deemed to be important in this regard and in need of further consideration. ⁶²

⁵⁸ Stewart (2005), note 30 above.

⁵⁹ Even if sometimes modest, distributional effects of participatory budgeting are associated with other important, in the context of a discussion on inclusion, outcomes such as improved sense of belonging, trust and mobilization of the concerned parties. See Silver (2012), note 28 above; Anwar, S. ed. (2007), *Participatory Budgeting*, World Bank, Available at <<http://siteresources.worldbank.org/PSGLP/Resources/ParticipatoryBudgeting.pdf>>; Hernandez-Medina, E. (2010), *Social inclusion through participation: the case of the participatory budget in São Paulo*, *International Journal of Urban and Regional research*, 34: 512-32.

⁶⁰ UNDP (2011), pp. 88-89, note 11 above.

⁶¹ UNDP (2006), *At Risk: Roma and the Displaced in Southeast Europe*, Bratislava: UNDP, Available at <<http://europeandcis.undp.org/uploads/public/File/rbecweb/vgr/vulnrepall.pdf>>; see also de Laat, J. (2010), *Roma Inclusion: An Economic Opportunity for Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Romania and Serbia*, Policy Note, Washington, DC: World Bank.

⁶² See Piron, L., and Curran, Z. (2005), *Public Policy Responses to Exclusion: Evidence from Brazil, South Africa and India*. overseas Development Institute, London; Stewart (2005), note 30 above.

(iii) **Relation between mainstream population and the excluded**

Targeting all parties

Exclusion and inclusion imply, by definition, the existence of a “mainstream” population and of individuals who are the “outsiders”/the excluded in a given society. It is a two-party relation and inclusive interventions target both. In the case of the mainstream population, the work to be done is about reverting exclusionary patterns, disabling negative beliefs and stereotypes, and triggering acceptance. Among the excluded, especially in the case of the previously discussed subjects of long-term deprivation, discrimination and historical handicap, the focus is on the ability and willingness to gain access and to use opportunities, provided that this is happening on a truly equal footing. Policies must, however, be mindful of the fact that the “price” of acceptance and admission should not be conformity or renouncing identities and practices. The ultimate goal of inclusive policies lies in recognition, reconciliation and inclusion on favourable terms.⁶³

Meaningful dialogue

Meaningful and sustainable dialogue amongst and between the aforementioned populations is crucial in this regard. The inscription process of cultural World Heritage has provided examples of recognition of identity and culture, which then transformed into a richer and more fruitful cultural dialogue. The inscription of sites on the World Heritage List, particularly those that have a history of belonging to groups that have historically been marginalized and excluded, enhances the sense of belonging and contributes towards social inclusion and social cohesion by according their narratives and stories both global and national recognition (e.g., legitimizing the historical narratives of indigenous communities in New Zealand and Australia).

⁶³ Silver (2007); Hickey, S. and du Toit, A. (2006), Adverse-incorporation, social exclusion and chronic poverty. CPRC Theme Paper. Manchester: Chronic Poverty Research Centre, available at <<http://www.chronicpoverty.org/uploads/publicationfiles/WP81HickeyduToit.pdf>>.

3.3 Intersections of risks and drivers, and related policy markers



Having originated as a group-based concept,⁶⁴ social exclusion was, until recently, concerned primarily with identification and support (through social insurance) of excluded groups vulnerable to uninsured risks and unable to participate in the basic political, economic, cultural and social functioning of the society.⁶⁵ Such exclusionary dynamics were viewed as being culturally defined, economically driven and politically motivated.⁶⁶

More recently, academics, public policy actors and development practitioners became aware that even if a policy approach is frequently based on the idea of vulnerable or excluded groups of people, the risks of exclusion intersect and are suffered at the individual level. The UNDP and EU, for example, argue that group approaches “[...] can suffer from errors of exclusion and inclusion; they are not always policy-relevant; and they may not reflect multiple inequalities or powerlessness.” The authors conclude that “the use of an individual approach to social exclusion [...] provides a stronger evidentiary basis for discussing policy options for social inclusion”.⁶⁷

Applied individually, both approaches may have their blind spots, yet a combination of the two is both feasible and often required. Recognition that some groups are at a higher risk of exclusion does not prevent the understanding that the status of the excluded often transcends a single-group affiliation and lies at the intersection of multiple affiliations and identities.⁶⁸ When it comes to inclusive policy design and delivery, the aforementioned take requires a special emphasis on:

(i) Exclusion risks and their intersections

Group conditions and individual characteristics	While being mindful of the group-specific conditions, inclusive policies capture the fact that each individual has a number of individual characteristics, or social exclusion risks, that can put him or her at risk of exclusion. ⁶⁹ These can be linked to gender, age, ethnicity, language, religion,
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⁶⁴ Reference made to René Lenoir, former Secretary of State for Social Action of France, who is credited with popularizing the concept in 1974.

⁶⁵ Lenoir, R. (1974). *Les Exclues: un Français sur Dix*. Paris: Le Seuil; Silver H. (1994) ‘Social exclusion and social solidarity: Three paradigms’ International Institute for Labour Studies Discussion Paper No 69, ILO, Geneva.; Haan A. de (1998) ‘Social exclusion: An alternative concept for the study of deprivation?’, *IDS Bulletin* 29, pp. 10–19.

⁶⁶ Barry, M. (1998) ‘Social exclusion and social work: an introduction’ in Barry, M. And Hallett, C. (eds.) *Social Exclusion and Social Work*, Dorset: Russell House Publishing.

⁶⁷ UNDP and EU Fundamental Rights Agency (2013), *Measuring Intersecting Inequalities Through the Social Exclusion Index: A proposal for Europe and Central Asia*, UNECE Seminar “The way forward in poverty measurement”, December 2013, Geneva. Available at <https://www.unece.org/fileadmin/DAM/stats/documents/ece/ces/ge.15/2013/WP_22_UNDP_D_En.pdf>.

⁶⁸ See for example, World Bank (2013), note 7 above; Lewis and Lockheed (2007), note 55 above.

⁶⁹ See <http://www.unece.org/fileadmin/DAM/stats/documents/ece/ces/ge.15/2013/WP22UNDPDn.pdf>; UNDP (2011), note 11 above; World Bank (2013), note 7 above.

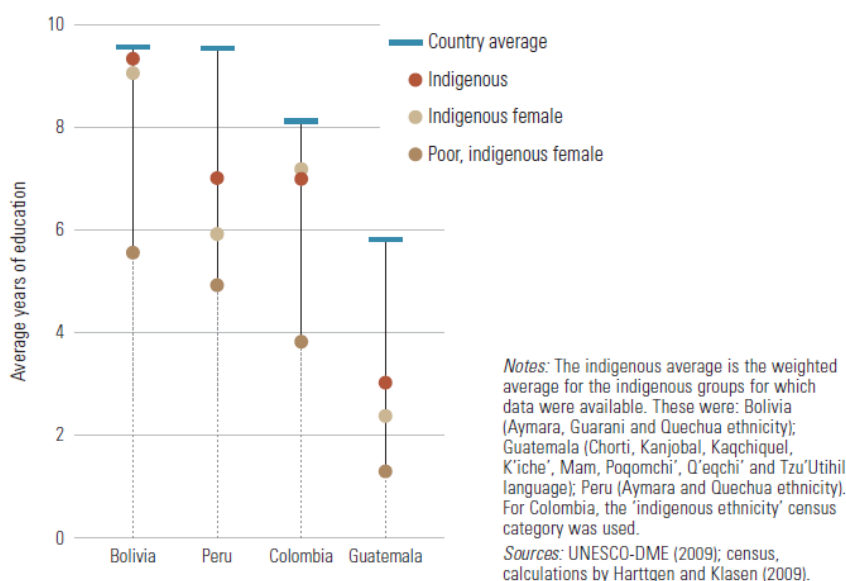
health, and/or status and its markers such as income, employment, education, place of residence etc., which may not be correlated in any straightforward way. Taken one by one, these characteristics pose a certain level of risks; the “overlap” of multiple characteristics, however, proves to have a considerably more powerful impact. Concerned with how the intersection of gender, ethnicity, age and income status has a significantly more deleterious effects on education than the effects of ethnicity alone, UNESCO points out that “[f]rom Guatemala and Peru to Cambodia and the Lao People’s Democratic Republic, indigenous young adults are far more likely than the non-indigenous to experience extreme education deprivation, especially if they are poor and female. An indigenous person aged 17 to 22 in Peru has two years less education than the national average; poor indigenous girls are two years further still down the scale” (Figure 3).⁷⁰

Differentiated yet common risk; cumulative disadvantage; within and intra-group inequalities

Understanding these dynamics has profound policy implications as it (a) entails a shift in policy thinking from perceiving exclusion as a problem faced by the traditionally marginalized and disadvantaged groups towards the analysis of exclusion as a concern for each and every individual, as everybody faces a certain level of risk; and (b) brings to daylight cumulative disadvantage and, in addition to the traditional inter-group, the within-group inequalities. “Averaging” such inequalities does not result in the design of the right policy instruments.

Figure 3: Wealth and gender widen indigenous education disparities in Latin America

Average number of years of education for indigenous people aged 17 to 22, selected countries, latest available year



Source: UNESCO Global Monitoring Report 2010, p.149

⁷⁰ UNESCO (2010a), EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010: Reaching the Marginalized. Paris: UNESCO, p. 149. Available at <<http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0018/001866/186606E.pdf>>.

(ii) Detection and removal of institutionalized drivers of exclusion

Structural, behavioural and policy-related drivers

The occurrence of exclusion depends on the interactions between risks and a set of structural, behavioural and policy-related drivers.⁷¹ Structural (institutionalized) drivers are those that operate through (public or private) institutions that allocate resources and assign value, norms and regulatory frameworks existing in a given jurisdiction.⁷² Values and behavioural drivers are those relating to discriminatory attitudes and cultural practices. Among their many individual-level impacts, this set of drivers regulates norms and behaviours in society, having a concrete impact on political culture, structures, institutions and policies.⁷³ Last but not least, policies themselves can drive exclusion by either intentionally or unintentionally perpetuating the aforementioned barriers and/or failing to respond to the needs of the excluded and exclusion-prone populations. An example that is deemed to encompass a number of the aforementioned drivers of exclusion is the legacy of institutionalized care in the post-socialist countries of Europe and Central Asia which, in part due to its path dependency and persistent attitudes, is thought to perpetuate the institutionalization of persons with disabilities and other disadvantaged groups rather than exploring alternative scenarios (e.g. integration in mainstream education, community-based housing etc.) that may lead to a better integration in society and a higher degree of independent living.⁷⁴

Bottlenecks and loopholes with exclusionary potential

In addition to actual institutionalized drivers of exclusion, inclusive interventions are tasked with detecting and neutralizing bottlenecks and loopholes in policy and regulatory frameworks that have the potential to trickle down from the upstream level to national and sub-national government planning, budgeting and programming, resulting in systemic barriers that impact the welfare of the population and push those living on the margins of our societies even closer to the edge.

(iii) Breadth and depth of an intervention

Type of risks and drivers; Degree of coverage

Inclusive policies must be considered in terms of both their breadth and depth. The breadth of an intervention, in this case, refers to the type of exclusion risks and drivers it covers. The depth, on the other hand, is about the degree to which the risks and drivers of both are addressed.

⁷¹ UNDP (2011), note 11 above.

⁷² Zeitlyn, S. (2004), *Social Exclusion in Asia: Some Initial Ideas*, Department for International Development, London. As quoted in Stewart (2005), note 30 above.

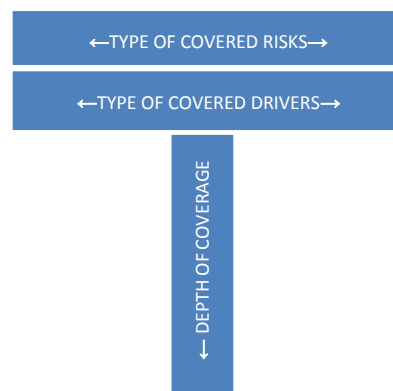
⁷³ UNDP (2011), note 11 above.

⁷⁴ See for example, UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre (2007) *Changing minds, Policies and Lives: Improving Protection of Children in Eastern Europe and Central Asia: Gatekeeping Services for Vulnerable Children and Families*. Available at <<http://www.unicef-irc.org/publications/pdf/gatekeeping.pdf>>.

Intensity, structure, and persistence of exclusion

Such a “T” approach (Figure 4) implies, in essence, a shift from a traditional mere headcount of the deprived towards a deeper consideration of the intensity, structure, and persistence of exclusion and deprivation, allowing for the design of all-round and appropriate provisions. A tool set to support such policy analysis and design is the Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI). Adopted by a number of governments, including those of Mexico, Columbia, Tunisia and Pakistan, the index identifies multiple deprivations at the household and individual levels in the dimensions of health, education and living standards – all relevant in the context of inclusive social development and the associated policy agenda. By using micro data from household surveys, the MPI classifies each person in a given household as poor or non-poor depending on the number of experienced deprivations. The results are then aggregated into a national measure. Such an exercise provides action-relevant data both on how many people experience overlapping deprivations (i.e., prevalence) and on how many deprivations they face on average (i.e., intensity). The MPI methodology equally helps to reveal the inter-connections among deprivations in the three dimensions mentioned above.⁷⁵

Figure 4: The T-Approach of inclusive policy



Source: Compiled by the authors

(iv) **Differentiated and distributional effects of policies**

Spillovers of risks; group and category-specific corollaries

Any policy intervention has the potential of having a differentiated impact – both positive and negative – on various categories and groups in a given society. Take for example the distributional concerns and possible regressive effects of policies and measures associated with environmental transition. Although it is difficult to summarise in any detail proposals for such a transition, higher carbon pricing is likely to be a part of it. In an analysis of climate change and public policy in the UK, Gough argues that, however achieved, carbon pricing will have serious social policy implications by severely impacting disadvantaged households and those in lower income brackets, putting on them a considerably higher burden of the cost as a percentage of their income, and driving even further the country’s already high fuel poverty. Yet, due to the heterogeneity of these households, which

⁷⁵ See Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative and their work on multidimensional poverty. <<http://www.ophi.org.uk/research/multidimensional-poverty/>> and <<http://www.qeh.ox.ac.uk/research/groups/ophi/>>; UNDP Human Development Reports <<http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/multidimensional-poverty-index-mpi>>.

may include people in poorly insulated housing, rural households dependent on car transport, and single-person households, compensation through social security system is problematic.⁷⁶ In such complex contexts, the role of truly inclusive interventions is to control for (a) inter-sectoral spillovers of risks, and (b) when it comes to the exclusion populations, account for possible group and category-specific negative corollaries.

(v) **Tailoring interventions**

Needs and preferences of beneficiaries; Not exclusive to groups

Policies dealing with matters of exclusion and inclusion should be increasingly tailored to take into consideration the needs and preferences of their intended beneficiaries. Tailored interventions are designed to increase access and uptake but, unlike targeted services, they are not exclusive to certain groups and beneficiaries.⁷⁷ They are, rather, concerned with better fitting the existing mainstream services to their needs – for example through inclusion of specific content and approaches in the mainstream education system – and provision, where required, of alternative services. An example of such tailoring comes from New Zealand, where efforts are being made to customize policies to the needs of Māori by making them more accessible, effective, and responsive. This has been done through devolution and decentralization of service delivery to iwi and Māori organisations; the participation of Māori themselves in service delivery and governance; strengthened outreach and communication; and incorporation of Māori culture, philosophy (*kaupapa*), and language into policy design and delivery.⁷⁸ Such a course of action has brought about notable success. In the field of education, “[i]ncreased involvement of Māori [...] – through school boards; community-based initiatives; and partnerships with iwi and Māori organisations – has motivated demand for quality education among Māori and raised participation levels, particularly in early childhood and tertiary education. Māori leadership and ownership of schools, starting with *kōhanga reo*, is a catalyst for parents’ interest in lifelong learning.”⁷⁹ Similarly, encouraging results were registered in the health sector, where greater involvement of Māori in the formulation of policies and delivery of service has increased awareness of critical health risks and uptake of available provisions. Such a way of tailoring policies simultaneously enhances the capacity, opportunities and dignity of the population they are serving.⁸⁰

⁷⁶ Gough, I. (2011), *Climate change and public policy futures*. A report prepared for the British Academy. Available at <<http://www.britac.ac.uk/templates/asset-relay.cfm?frmAssetFileID=10609>>, p. 25.

⁷⁷ World Bank (2013), note 7 above.

⁷⁸ Ringold, D. (2005), *Accounting for Diversity: Policy Design and Māori Development in Aotearoa New Zealand*, report prepared for Ian Axford Fellowship in Public Policy, New Zealand.

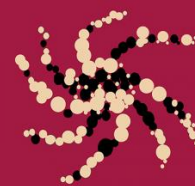
⁷⁹ *Ibid*, pp. 66-68.

⁸⁰ Ringold (2005) note 78 above; World Bank (2013), note 7 above.

**Tailoring to
common
patterns of
exclusion**

Taking this argument further, policies can be tailored not only to ethnic group needs but also to other socio-economic groups, risks, (common) intersections of such risks, and the resulting specific patterns of exclusion and deprivation.

3.4. Dynamic character and related policy makers



Exclusion is dynamic both as a process and as an outcome. Exclusion as a process denotes a series of developments that push individuals towards the margins of a given society. These exclusionary dynamics are highly time- and space-specific; they progress in different ways, are experienced at different degrees and with different intensity, and operate at different social levels.⁸¹ As a status, exclusion reflects the outcomes of that process. The fact that an individual has reached the “ultimate end of such an imagined trajectory”⁸² does not mean that there can be no further movement along the inclusion/exclusion continuum. Take the example of marginalization associated with stigmatising conditions such as HIV/AIDS. Their exclusionary power differs highly from place to place (e.g., between South Africa and the USA), between socio-economic and ethnic groups, and across time (e.g., consider the status of HIV-positive people three decades ago and today).⁸³ This dynamic character informs the need for policy responses that:

(i) **Build in duration**

Persistence of exclusion

Most of the issues inclusive policies deal with are well entrenched and persistent in a given society. Sometimes, therefore, policies need to give special consideration to those who have a historical disadvantage and/or those who, throughout their life course, have experienced particularly persistent forms of deprivation.

Panel or longitudinal data

Rather than relying on readily available and often non-contextualized instruments, policies must persevere with questions related to the resistance of certain risks and drivers of exclusion, and gradually move away from the simple tracking of aggregate cross-sectional indicators towards (increasingly available and improved) “panel or longitudinal data sets [that] are allowing more quasi-experimental, random assignment, before-after assessments of policy”.⁸⁴ Take the UK’s Sure Start. Set to tackle the cycle of social exclusion and child poverty through improved childcare, early education, health and family support, the programme utilises panel data rather than aggregate cross-sectional data in order to track the progress of the participating children. Doing so enables area-based comparisons of the

⁸¹ WHO (2008), pp. 11-21, note 12 above; Hickey, S. and du Toit, A. (2006), note 63 above.

⁸² Silver (2007), note 15 above.

⁸³ WHO (2008), note 12 above.

⁸⁴ Silver (2012), note 28 above.

rates of progress of child development over the years, resulting in the identification of disadvantaged areas and the services in need.⁸⁵

Historical and contextual analysis

Interventions must be equally underpinned by deep historical and contextual analysis of the conditions.⁸⁶ This is particularly true in cases of communities of such as previously discussed Māori in New Zealand (sub-section 3.3.v) or Roma in Central and Eastern Europe (sub-section 3.2.iii), as inclusive policies with and for these groups cannot be developed unless the analysis behind them captures specific trajectories of these exclusionary processes and their outcomes.

(ii) **Are long-term and forward-looking**

Non-linearity; unplanned results

Moving from exclusion to inclusion, especially in the aforementioned cases of well-established patterns of exclusion, requires long-term and multi-pronged interventions. Depending on the scope of such interventions, this can be a non-linear process, with results unfolding over the long-term, in some cases unplanned but nevertheless significant.⁸⁷ Such results, although susceptible to falling through the cracks of the current policy monitoring and evaluation systems, deserve to be carefully considered.

Emerging areas of need

In addition to deeply rooted patterns of exclusion, inclusive policies should attempt to detect nascent/emerging areas of need rather than let them mature and result in deep exclusion that are harder to address.⁸⁸ Much relies on rapid collection and processing systems that provide action-relevant data as soon as possible after the onset of a new crisis, thus flagging emerging challenges and helping to protect the most deprived and excluded against further regressions (see also sub-section 3.1, iv).

Anticipatory policy; critical of its capacity

In all of these scenarios, timing is of the essence. They require a long-term view of the change and anticipatory policy-making that takes, however, full account of limited capacity to predict trends and outcomes.

⁸⁵ United Kingdom, Department for Education (2010), The quality of group childcare settings used by 3-4 year old children in Sure Start Local Programme areas and the relationship with child outcomes, Available at <https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/182027/DFE-RR068.pdf>.

⁸⁶ Hickey, S. and du Toit, A. (2006), note 63 above.

⁸⁷ World Bank (2013), note 7 above.

⁸⁸ Knowledge and data collection and processing systems should be designed to reduce the gap between the onset of a possible crisis or an inclusion challenge and the availability of decision-relevant information that can help protect the most deprived and excluded against further regressions (see also sub-section 3.1, iv).

(iii) **Assume both proactive and reactive functions**

Proactive and reactive

Many existing policies and systems are designed in such a way that they turn their attention to excluded individuals too late to prevent or minimize their exclusion. For instance, young people with drug problems can readily access treatment for drug abuse once they appear on the radar of the specialized agencies, i.e. come to the attention of the criminal justice system due to repeated offending.⁸⁹ This happens despite the fact that proactive and early-stage interventions are deemed to be more cost effective, efficient and with longer-term results. Inclusive interventions are mindful of such shortcomings and blind spots, and plan for both proactive/preventive and reactive measures.⁹⁰

Preventive targeting

An example of concrete action comes from Bangladesh, where the importance of targeting children in remote and rural areas in a proactive manner has been understood. A situational analysis identified ten different categories of exclusion-prone children. Based on these findings, the country developed an Action Plan that runs in addition to the traditional educational programs but seeks to enhance the inclusion of such vulnerable populations.⁹¹

⁸⁹ Barry, M. (2005), *Youth Policy and Social Inclusion: Critical Debates with Young People*, Abingdon: Routledge.

⁹⁰ *Ibid*, p. 5.

⁹¹ UNESCO, (2010b), *Implementing the Right to Education: A compendium of practical examples*. Paris: UNESCO, 7., p. 72. Available at <<http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0019/001908/190897E.pdf>>.

3.5. Levels, Context and related policy makers



Exclusionary processes operate at different levels, namely, micro (e.g., individual, household), meso (e.g., neighbourhoods, communities), and macro (i.e., nation state and global regions).⁹² They can originate at one of these levels and trickle up and down to the other(s) or, in the case of longer-term exclusionary patterns, can be deeply rooted and “institutionalized” in core structures at all stages. Girls’ education is a telling example in this regard. Developed and developing countries alike have recognized its importance, as the worldwide surge in girls’ primary school enrolment over the past two decades proves.⁹³ In some countries (mainly Latin America, Western Europe and oil exporting Arab states), girls’ participation at the secondary level already exceeds that of boys. Yet other countries lag behind on girls’ education, including both those that trail in educating all children and those in which women have historically been marginalized. The interaction between gender and culture, which means that “girls in excluded groups suffer not only as members of the excluded group but also as girls”, is deemed to be one of the powerful factors behind the phenomenon.⁹⁴ Such an intersection of risks (see also sub-section 3.3.i) is not sporadic but systemic and systematic. As with many other exclusionary processes, it is detectable at the levels of households, schools, communities and societies at large.⁹⁵

This still frequent situation illustrates the nature of the “multi-layered” constraints on the use of education services faced by girls in many parts of the world. Such grips are hard to loosen unless inclusive interventions plan for:

(i) In-country coordination and coherence

Systemic pulls	When it comes to cases such as the above, it is not nearly enough to intervene and invest efforts only at one institutional level. Progress is brought about through systemic and coordinated pulls in the direction of inclusion.
Horizontal coordination	Meaningful coordination, in the case of inclusive policies, is bound to be both horizontal and vertical. Targeting central government ministries and bodies, horizontal coordination creates spaces – otherwise rare in sectoralized and fragmented systems – for exchange and integrated definition of policies and their fiscal spaces. ⁹⁶ An example in this regard is

⁹² WHO (2008), p. 12, note 12 above.

⁹³ Lewis and Lockheed (2007), note 55 above.

⁹⁴ Ibid, pp. 2-7.

⁹⁵ Ibid.

⁹⁶ See Schwarzer, H.; Tessier, L.; Gammage, S. (org.), 2014, Coordination institutionnelle et socles de protection sociale. Expériences en Amérique latine (Argentine, Brésil, Chili, Mexique, Uruguay), Geneva : ILO, Available at <http://www.social-protection.org/gimi/gess/RessourcePDF.action?ressource.ressourceId=43137>.

the Uruguayan Social Cabinet for Intersectoral Coordination. The Cabinet is presided by the Ministry of Social Development and brings together the Ministries of Economy and Finance, Education and Culture, Labour and Social Security, Public Health, Tourism and Sport, and Housing, Land Management and the Environment. The structure is tasked with creating and institutionalizing inter-sectoral linkages amongst the aforementioned important central-level bodies. Although to varying degrees under various governments, the structure is deemed to be overall successful in setting priorities for public social spending and in ensuring inter-sectoral coordination and cooperation.⁹⁷

Vertical coordination

Vertical coordination, on the other hand, is concerned with linking national and sub-national levels to guarantee joined-up and sustainable implementation and management of inclusive policies.⁹⁸ Traditionally focusing on the work of governmental institutions, vertical mechanisms may consider, if relevant in the context of a given jurisdiction, covering non-governmental actors and service providers at both national and sub-national levels. A case of such coordination is the previously discussed US Interagency Council on Homelessness, which cuts across different levels and coordinates the implementation of the multidimensional continuum of care for the homeless amongst nineteen government departments and agencies, as well as non-profits and private sector (see Box 1, p. 13).

Coherence, quality and efficiency

It is important to note that, although required, coordination is not an end goal in itself. It is, rather, a prerequisite for the design and provision of all-round and sustainable policies and continuums of services, creation of synergies, and reduction trade-offs.

(ii) **Regional cooperation and coordination**

“Soft law” mechanisms

Cooperation and coordination, especially through “soft law” mechanisms, across countries in a given region or sub-region are highly desirable in the context of inclusive policy. Such coordination is thought to boost, amongst others, information and policy harmonization, mutual learning, emulation of best practices, and transparency to the public.⁹⁹ The experience of EU Member States through the Open Method of Coordination (OMC) has been flagged as a good example in this regard. The OMC is an approach to governance that relies on voluntary cooperation, a key element of which

⁹⁷ Ibid, pp. 169-178.

⁹⁸ See Ibid; Frazer, H. and Marlier, E. (2008), Building a stronger EU Social Inclusion Process: Analysis and recommendations of the EU Network of independent national experts on social inclusion, Brussels: European Commission.

⁹⁹ Silver H. (2010), Understanding Social Inclusion and its Meaning for Australia, Australian Journal of Social Issues, 45(2), 183–211.

is an agreed set of indicators – the Laeken indicators – employed for monitoring of, and reporting on, the progress made by Member States towards the EU's common social inclusion objectives. Attempts to replicate this practice beyond the EU have been deemed effective. Such is the case of the Western Balkans, where “[...] the OMC has been instrumental in facilitating an exchange of knowledge and experience among countries. The OMC has focused attention on the importance of sub-regional cooperation. Such cooperation is particularly effective when buttressed by specific policies that are pursued systematically.”¹⁰⁰

**Non-prescriptive
and non-
standardized
instruments**

It is to be underlined that, as in the case of the OMC, coordination mechanisms should stay flexible enough as to allow for national differences. Given the contextuality of exclusion, instruments cannot be standardized, as those that might have worked in some jurisdictions may not be applicable or effective in others.

¹⁰⁰ UNDP (2011), p. 92, note 11 above.

3.6. Participation and related policy markers



When it comes to inclusion, participation does not refer to the mere process of voting or involvement in community affairs. It equally covers the broader “values about the nature of authority, the role of individuals or groups (e.g., women) in public life, prevailing role models”, public confidence in state institutions, and power relations.¹⁰¹ Intimately connected and often considered together with the elements is sustained and meaningful civic engagement, which refers to active citizenship.¹⁰²

If considered in its entirety, participation is not a formality. Besides being a right and deserving to be pursued on its own, participation is of particular relevance in the context of emerging and/or forming agendas (e.g., inclusive social development, climate change adaptation), as it has direct impact on the social acceptability, effectiveness, equity and legitimacy of these developments and their outcomes.¹⁰³

Translated into concrete policy markers, this dimension of social inclusion entails:

(i) **Deep and meaningful procedural improvements of policy processes**

Participation as a normative goal

Inclusive policies need to take account of legitimate (and frequently competing) interests of all potentially affected parties. Participatory or open approaches to decision making and stakeholder engagement are, therefore, a normative goal of such policy interventions.

Participation throughout the policy cycle

To be meaningful and to achieve real outcomes, however, participatory processes should not be sporadic or, as it is often the case, be limited to the policy design stage. Participation, with a particular emphasis on the excluded or exclusion-prone segments of the population, must be planned for and delivered throughout the policy cycle – i.e., at all levels and stages of priority setting, policy formulation, budgeting, implementation and, importantly, provision of feedback on what works and what does not perform at the expected level (see also sub-section 3.1. iv.). Thus, the fact that education policy is designed in a participatory manner is not enough

¹⁰¹ UNDP (2011), p. 30. See also Sen (2000), note 9 above; Popay J., Escorel S., Hernandez M., Johnston H., Mathieson J., Rispel L. on behalf of the WHO Social Exclusion Knowledge Network (2008) Understanding and Tackling Social Exclusion: Final Report of the Social Exclusion Knowledge Network of the Commission on Social Determinants of Health. Geneva: World Health Organization.

¹⁰² Levitas (2006) “The concept and measurement of social exclusion” in Pantazis, C., Gordon, D. and Levitas, R. Poverty and Social Exclusion in Britain, Bristol, Policy Press.

¹⁰³ See for example, Adger, W.N. (2003). Social Capital, Collective Action and Adaptation to Climate Change. Economic Geography 79, 387–404. Available at <<http://www.nisd.cass.cn/upload/2012/12/d20121221201040055.pdf>>.

if participation (e.g., through school boards in the governance of the system and its institutions) and ownership by all stakeholder groups are not among the normative objectives against which the policy is assessed.

Guaranteed and institutionalized avenues

Another central concern for inclusive policies is the presence or creation of necessary institutional and regulatory mechanisms for guaranteeing/institutionalizing participation rather than running it on a discretionary basis.

BOX 5. PARTICIPATION THROUGHOUT AND BEYOND A SECTORAL INTERVENTION

In 2012-2013, the *Zambian National Youth Policy* went through a thorough process of revision. The two-year effort relied on a participatory and inclusive approach. It engaged, as such, all concerned stakeholders, placing a particular focus on participation of young people. Two points make this a useful example in the content of the present discussion. First, participation of young people was enabled at national and provincial levels, and spanned from the design of the process to its implementation and articulation of the final outcomes. Deliberate efforts were also made to ensure the participation of both organized youth, through the national Youth Development Council and a number of youth associations, and non-organized young women and men. In the case of the latter, the process planned for extensive consultations and work with youth in their respective local communities and among their peers. Second, the outcome of such work – i.e., the new *National Policy on Youth* – is accompanied by a detailed Action Plan identifying key actions and responsibilities of all stakeholders engaged in the process and concerned by the implementation of the policy. Besides incorporating youth participation in its core guiding principles, the effort succeeded in mainstreaming it in a number of other sectoral policies (e.g., education, employment, health et) that are of immediate concern to young people.

(ii) **Transformative participation**

Susceptibility to marginalization in participatory processes

Although important, the mere opportunity to participate may not be enough if power is unequal and if those sitting at the table do not have a comparable level of capacity – with its human, institutional and financial aspects – to engage in policy processes. The excluded or the exclusion-prone segments of the population are, by definition, marginalized in this regard. Although to varying degrees, they generally suffer from multiple deprivations and forms of discrimination; they are

disfranchised or lack strong agency; and their individual and collective knowledge and capacity to participate in contestation, advocacy, negotiation, especially in complex and long-term policy matters, are reduced. Their resources are all too often scarce, particularly as compared to those of other better-established stakeholders. These factors make them highly susceptible to being marginalized, despite their participation, and to ultimately bearing the brunt of possible trade-offs.

**Levelling the field;
Capacity to
participate**

Inclusive policies are sensitive to the aforementioned limitations and risks. They attempt, therefore, at levelling the field among otherwise unequal participants¹⁰⁴ and at developing the capacities of those involved. By doing so, such processes become transformative in nature.¹⁰⁵ Take the example of participatory budgeting implemented from 2001 to 2004 in Sao Paolo, Brazil. The exercise is a telling example in two regards. First, by relying on an affirmative action methodology, it was institutionally designed to encourage and sustain, throughout the entire cycle, the participation of historically disadvantaged groups or segments of the population: Afro-Brazilians, senior citizens, children and adolescents, youth, the GLBT community, women, indigenous groups, the homeless and people with disabilities. Second, in addition to more traditional objectives of opening up “the political opportunity structure of the city to poor residents and other excluded populations” and of having redistributive effects, the exercise kept an eye on the issue of capacity building amongst the participating groups. By doing so, it succeeded at helping “participants expand the foundations of their decisions (their interests and preferences), improve their decision-making capabilities and gain a better understanding of the way city government works and how to have an impact on it.”¹⁰⁶

¹⁰⁴ Hernandez-Medina, E. (2010), note 59 above.

¹⁰⁵ White, S. (1996) 'Depoliticising development: the uses and abuses of participation', *Development in Practice*, 6.1, 6–15. Available at <<http://www.rrojasdatabank.info/eade142-155.pdf>>.

¹⁰⁶ Hernandez-Medina, E. (2010), note 59 above.