DISCUSSION PAPER / 2024.02

Can cash transfers really be transformative?

A literature review of the sustainability of their impacts

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March 2024

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract

Only a few sources have conducted a literature review of the (relatively scarce) evidence around the sustainability (i.e., persistence after end of exposure) of the impacts of cash transfer (CT) programs. Such tasks prove to be fundamental, especially in light of recent debates on social assistance, which extend its role beyond monetary poverty alleviation, to more structural and 'transformative' improvements. However, the existing reviews all focus on specific outcome categories, or on a particular CT design, and do not adopt a stringent definition of sustainability, typically relating to 'long-term' repercussions, even before program closure. In this context, this paper gathered all the available proofs – regardless of the variable of interest – on the sustainability of the effects of CTs of any kind. Its findings are nevertheless disaggregated by outcome domain, by the length of the timeframe elapsed since receiving the last transfer, and by program features. Particular attention was given to 'graduation' projects, given the traditional assumption that CTs are inadequate at building sustainable and resilient livelihoods in the long run. Besides disproving this hypothesis, the study suggests that cash transfers tend to yield positive and sustained effects on schooling, incomes, food security, expenditures and savings. The evidence on child labour or early marriage is more mixed.

Keywords: cash transfers, long-term effects, sustainability, graduation, literature review.

Introduction

As they gain popularity as poverty reduction programs, the debate and research around cash transfer (CT) programs' effectiveness is on the rise (Bastagli et al., 2016). Traditionally, as a consequence of their designs – and especially of their typically short-term character – CTs have been relegated to provisional social assistance interventions, often with the exclusive objective of (temporary) monetary poverty alleviation (Banerjee et al., 2015). This praxis would logically stem from the acknowledgement, or at least from the theoretical assumption, that social cash transfers are not adequate tools, by themselves, to build permanent and sustainable livelihoods and resilience against shocks (Devereux & Sabates-Wheeler, 2015). By not allowing the accumulation of human, social, or physical capital, in fact, the benefits of modest (even if regular) CTs, such as consumption smoothing and existing assets' protection, would be completely transitory (Sabates-Wheeler & Devereux, 2013). Only when coupled with complementary productive interventions, would they be able to increase incomes and assets in a sufficient way for recipients to 'graduate' (Sabates-Wheeler & Devereux, 2013) from the intervention – namely, for their livelihoods to fundamentally transform and reach self-sufficiency.

Nevertheless, impact analyses following cash transfers have demonstrated that their effects are often not only limited to consistent increases in household expenditures and reductions in poverty, but include raises in adult labour force participation, investments and savings, and improvements in women's empowerment and gender relations, amongst others (Bastagli et al., 2016; Kabeer et al., 2012). Whereas it is also recognized that effects depend on the design and implementation features of programs, less attention has been devoted to the analysis of the long-term impacts of CTs (Molina-Millán et al., 2019). In particular, notwithstanding some noticeable exceptions (Baird et al., 2019; Sabates-Wheeler and Devereux, 2013), relatively little is known about the 'sustainability' of effects (Owusu-Addo et al., 2023), namely the extent to which cash transfer impacts persist after the end of exposure (OECD, 2021). Only a few efforts were addressed at summarizing the available evidence base on the matter, and none of the accessible literature reviews either adopted such a stringent definition of 'long-term' CT effects (EPAR, 2017), or maintained a broad scope, through the encapsulation of all the possible domains on which cash transfers have proven to yield impacts (Molina-Millán et al., 2019).

Shedding additional light on the issue is fundamental, considering that recent discussions do actually consider CTs' potential to yield 'transformative' and long-lasting effects on

beneficiary communities (Daidone et al., 2015; Devereux & Sabates-Wheeler, 2004; Molyneux et al., 2016). This change in perspective reflects, in turn, debates that extend social assistance's role beyond mere poverty reduction, towards more structural development aims (Granlund & Hochfeld, 2019; Ressler, 2008; Skovdal, 2013).

In this context, this study conducted a review of the empirical literature on the sustainability of CT impacts. A general description of results by outcome domain – spanning education, employment, women's empowerment and social capital (adapted from Bastagli et al., 2016) – was juxtaposed to disagreggations on the basis of the amount of the time elapsed since the last transfer, and of the specific design of the considered intervention, both considered fundamental in evaluating the sustainability of the effects (OECD, 2021). More specifically, the performance of more conventionally designed programs – conditional (CCTs) and unconditional cash transfers (UCTs), either providing complementary support ('plus'; Roelen et al., 2017), or not – was compared with the functioning of 'graduation' transfers. The latter projects represent a relatively new wave of social protection and anti-poverty interventions (Devereux & Sabates-Wheeler, 2015) which, by providing recipients with other benefits (typically a combination of assets, training, savings and credit; Roelen & Devereux, 2019), alongside cash, attempt at tackling the mentioned concern that CTs alone would not represent an effective instrument to generate sustainable reductions in poverty and vulnerability, maintained after the end of disbursements (Hashemi & Umaira, 2011). In this sense, graduation CTs distinguish themselves from other cash 'plus' projects by providing 'productive' benefits – in accordance with their transformative goals (Hashemi & Umaira, 2011) – in addition to cash, instead of more 'protective' types of complementary interventions, such as information, sensitization, behaviour change communication (BCC), or psychosocial support (Roelen et al., 2017).

The rest of the document is structured as follows: Section 1 distinguishes different conceptualizations of 'long-term' cash transfer impacts and defines the sustainability of effects. Section 2 discusses the followed methodology. Section 3 analyses the main features of the included evidence and presents the results of the review. Finally, Section 4 concludes and suggests some of the potential implications on future research. Detailed information about each of the reviewed studies' characteristics and findings is presented in the Appendix.

1. Sustainability of effects: a definition

Before proceeding with the review of the evidence, it is necessary to operate a distinction between:

The long-term impacts of cash transfers, assessed while the intervention is still active (OECD, 2021). An evaluation assessing the effects of a (still on-going) CT several years after program inception might refer to those as the 'long-term' consequences of the transfer, even if measured during the lifespan of the intervention;

The impacts of cash transfers on variables considered to be medium or long-term[1], often cited as 'third order' or 'final' outcomes (Bastagli et al., 2016). Such consideration derives from the acknowledgement that beneficial effects on these dimensions could turn into generalized longer-run improvements in recipients' livelihood (Molina-Millán et al., 2019);

The sustained effects of cash transfers, namely their long-lasting impacts, measured after the end of exposure to a CT program (Kondylis & Loeser, 2021; Sabates-Wheeler & Devereux, 2013), which represent the focus of this review.

Sustainability is still largely overlooked by the literature on cash transfers, despite

[1] The most typical example is represented by child health proxies: enhancements on these dimensions, if attained during infancy or young childhood – while indirectly exposed to CTs transferred to one's household – could in fact later activate virtuous circles of excellent school grades, better labour outcomes, and ultimately higher achievements in adulthood. Other examples include schooling, psychosocial wellbeing and social capital, livelihood strategies' diversification and resilience (Bastagli et al., 2016).

relating to one of the six evaluation criteria adopted by the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) of the OECD – together with relevance, coherence, effectiveness, efficiency, and impact. The DAC defines sustainability[2] as "the extent to which the net benefits of the intervention continue or are likely to continue" (OECD, 2021, p. 71). The lack of attention to issues of sustainability might be attributed to measurement difficulties, given that program effects tend to rapidly fade out after the end of a program. However, interventions' design plays a key role in determining the sustainability of impacts (OECD, 2021). As already anticipated, the ability of cash transfers to yield persisting positive consequences has only recently been seriously discussed and is still subject to skepticism. It was in this context that asset-based approaches to poverty reduction and growth emerged, in the 1990s (Ellis, 2000; Sen, 1997). These new perspectives on social protection laid the foundations for the rise of livelihood-promoting interventions such as 'graduation' programs (Devereux & Sabates-Wheeler, 2015; Hashemi & Umaira, 2011), coupling (generally lump-sum) cash with either productive assets, savings and credit, training, or a combination of them (Roelen & Devereux, 2019). Through these complementary features (Roelen et al., 2017), it is forecasted that beneficiaries will be able to positively transform their livelihoods – especially in terms of labour and business practices – and to ultimately 'graduate' from programs by escaping the 'poverty trap' (Sabates-Wheeler & Devereux, 2013). While every project defines graduation differently, scholars distinguish 'threshold' (merely reaching the state of non-eligibility) and 'sustainable' graduation (incorporating resilience, in relation to the idea that 'graduates' should not fall back into poverty soon after exiting it; Devereux & Sabates-Wheeler, 2015). In this sense, individual outcomes depend on a variety of constraining and enabling factors operating beyond the household level, including market conditions, community investment, and scale effects (Devereux & Ulrichs, 2015). At the same time, theorists tend to dismiss the idea that each recipient would or could be expected to graduate from an intervention (Sabates-Wheeler & Devereux, 2013). In order to evaluate whether benefits were sustained or not, a study by Sabates-Wheeler et al. (2018) sets the ideal monitoring period for graduation interventions to at least 2 post-program years. Given the close link between the sustainability of CT impacts, program design, and graduation, this review will juxtapose the evidence derived from graduation transfers to the proofs analysing conventional CTs, which remain the focus of the investigation.

2. Methodology

2.1. Identification of studies

The search strategy resorted to two different electronic searching sources: Web of Science (more specifically, its 'Core' collection[3]) and Google Scholar[4], concurring at collecting both peer-reviewed and grey literature. Citation tracking would also be later performed. In this context, a main search term referring to CTs was combined with several keywords associated with the sustainability of effects, generating a total of four different inspections for each search engine:

(1) Cash transfers and

(2) Long term or medium term or sustained effects or graduation

[2] The present review only focuses on sustainability of effects at the individual/household level, while leaving reflections around other relevant aspects of sustainability – such as the institutional one (OECD, 2021) – out. However, such exclusion was only driven by time and scope limitations, and this source maintains that future research efforts on the sustainability of cash transfer impacts should certainly be devoted at exploring different elements of the concept.
[3] Web of Science's Core Collection is the leading world citation database, including over 21,000 high-quality academic journals.
[4] In Google Scholar's search, for each inquiry the first 200 resulting sources, ranked by relevance, were scanned (Bramer et al., 2017).

In addition, a few selection criteria were established to filter the results. Only studies published in English were scrutinized. Moreover, a specific publication timeframe was chosen, between January 1st, 1980, and February 28th, 2022. This period was deliberately selected as investigations around CTs' impacts started to be published around 1980. On the contrary, no limitation was set concerning the geographical scope and research design of papers. The described process allowed to index and identify a list of relevant papers and articles.

2.2. Selection of studies, critical appraisal, data extraction and analysis

Once the identification phase was completed, the selection step could begin. A first full-text and abstract screening of all potentially eligible studies was carried out, allowing to filter out the unrelated and irrelevant pieces of evidence. Subsequently, a backward citation tracking (i.e., checking reference lists) search was performed, in order to identify potentially still overlooked sources (Briscoe et al., 2020).

As already briefly explained, empirical papers were incorporated regardless of the nature of their analysis. The critical appraisal phase, nonetheless, had to be differentiated by adopted methodology. The risk-of-bias of experimental and quasi-experimental evidence was separately determined by applying the Revised Cochrane Risk-of-bias Tool for Randomized Trials (RoB 2), and the Risk Of Bias In Non-randomized Studies – of Interventions (ROBINS-I) assessment tools, respectively (Higgins et al., 2021). the former was almost always found to have low risk-of-bias (with one exception: Rodriguez-Oreggia & Freije, 2012), whereas quasi-experimental papers displayed moderate bias, mainly deriving from partial lack of methodological rigour or incomplete descriptions of results (4 sources were actually attributed serious risk). Still, all of the assessed papers were included, given that none reached the 'critical' threshold.

Afterwards, in-depth data on a variety of domains, including research setting, design, analysed interventions and outcomes, was extracted from the chosen sources. Concerning data analysis, the heterogeneity in study designs, effects' direction, bias and analysed indicators (generally diversified and non-standardized) made comparisons through statistical meta-analyses not meaningful (Higgins et al., 2021). On the contrary, the presentation of findings was led by thematic summaries supported by data syntheses previously constructed through 'vote-counting'-like techniques (based on the direction of effects[5]; Higgins et al., 2021; Snilstveit et al., 2012), whereby the most represented category – among positive, negative, and conflicting effects – is assumed to provide the best estimate of the 'true' effect. The limitations of vote counting (Waddington et al., 2012) – mainly derived from its failure to take effect magnitude and sample size into account – nevertheless, instructed the devise of a smoothing rule which considers the number of available studies and the relative prevalence of the most frequent effect direction(s). Moreover, the statistical significance of the drawn effect direction, by indicator, was also computed through a sign test[6] (Boon & Thomson, 2021). The latter expedients allowed avoiding the reach of excessively generalized or unvalidated conclusions, both visually (in synthesizing tables) and in-text. The precedent aggregation and summary phases were informed by a framework synthesis paradigm (Snilstveit et al., 2012), partially based on the outcome areas of CT impacts described by Bastagli et al. (2016).

More in-detail insights and characteristics from each included proof are available in the Appendix: see Tables 3 (program design characteristics), 4 (amount, frequency and purpose

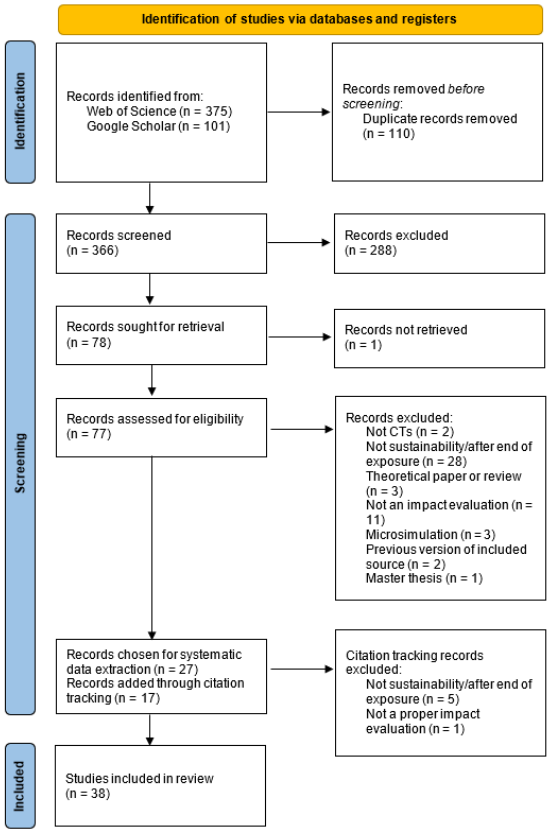
[5] In fact, other kinds of vote-counting procedures, such as the conventional analysis on the basis of the statistical significance of effects, is problematic and has serious limitations (Higgins et al., 2021). However, the statistical significance of each impact is duly indicated in Tables 6.1 and 6.2 (effect direction plot) and 8 (list of included coefficients) and acknowledged by the in-text discussion of the Results' section.
[6] The sign test nonparametrically explores whether sufficient evidence exists to reject the null hypothesis of the equivalence of positive and negative results, by comparing the number of 'successes' with the total number of trials. In this case, studies displaying conflicting impacts were excluded from the count, as they could not be deemed to represent either a positive or a negative effect (Boon & Thomson, 2021).

of programs; years of CT operation and study years), 5 (research design and risk-of-bias), 6.1 and 6.2 (effect direction plots), 7 (summary of findings, sampling information and availability of disaggregated information, per each study) and 8-14 (detail of coefficients and risk-of-bias, by outcome domain).

3. Results

Starting from an initial list of 476 identified sources, the inclusion process culminated with the extraction of data from 77 studies, which were deemed relevant on the basis of their titles and abstracts. 50 of those, nonetheless, were later excluded out of several different reasons: amongst them, investigating other interventions than cash transfers[7] (for instance, Malkova, 2018), not conducting a proper 'impact evaluation' as defined by the OECD's Development Assistance Committee[8] (DAC; OECD, s.d.; see Devereux et al., 2019; Hajdu et al., 2020; Macours & Vakis, 2017; Rasella et al., 2021), and most importantly, not measuring effects after the end of exposure to programs (noticeably, Handa et al., 2018; Mueller et al., 2020; Uchiyama, 2019). Citation tracking was performed on the 27 remaining sources, and additional papers found in such manner were also subjected to a similar screening process. Finally, 38 studies were selected to be reviewed by this investigation. The complete search strategy and source inclusion procedure is schematically presented by Figure 1, adopted from a PRISMA flow diagram.

Figure 1. Search strategy and source inclusion process of the review. Source: elaborated by the author on the basis of PRISMA's flow diagram.



[7] Any non-contributory monetary disbursement with at least a generic poverty alleviation or human development aim was considered a CT program.
[8] According to OECD's DAC, a proper quantitative evaluation of impact requires the comparison with a counterfactual.

3.1. Overview of included evidence

The recent emergence of a debate on the transformative and long-lasting effects of cash transfers is confirmed by the fact that all 38 selected studies were published after 2011. Moreover, a quite abrupt acceleration was experienced in the latest few years, with almost a third (12) of the included pool of evidence released since 2020.

Even though all sources exclusively resorted to quantitative methods, various techniques were used, equally split between experimental and quasi-experimental approaches. Regarding the geographical location of the analysed interventions, the majority of papers evaluated CTs carried out in from either Sub-Saharan Africa, Central America, or South America (all three represented by 9 studies each), but most 'low-income' regions were covered, with other articles focusing on the Near East, South and Southeast Asia. Nevertheless, 2 sources centred on programs implemented in the United States of America, providing some hints from a higher-income context, as well. The only study to analyse insights coming from multiple geographical areas was Banerjee et al. (2015), which incorporates evidence from Ethiopia, Ghana, Honduras, India, Pakistan and Peru.

Concerning the analysed CT' design, great variety was captured. In fact, even though the majority of projects were either conditional (CCT) or unconditional cash transfers (UCT) – also including enterprise grants (3 studies), lump-sum transfers generally aimed at allowing beneficiaries to start or expand small business (Bastagli et al., 2016) –, other types of social assistance programs were also represented. It is the case of the already introduced 'graduation' transfers (analysed by 8 of the included sources). In this context, it should be pointed out that the 'cash' arm of graduation programs was not conceived or conceptualized, in some cases, as the main component of the transfers. Finally, one of the included sources analysed an actual pilot of Universal Basic Income (UBI), the Seattle-Denver Income Maintenance experiment, considered as a UCT while disaggregating the findings.

3.2. Synthesis of results

This section summarizes the main findings of the review, grouping them by outcome areas (and by their indicators). In addition, a couple of criteria were used to disaggregate the insights. In particular, distinctions were made between UCT/CCTs (from now on labelled as 'conventional cash transfers') and 'graduation' transfers, and depending on the length of the timeframe elapsed since program termination[9]. The latter demarcation allowed to distinguish between long- and medium-term findings (respectively, over and up to 2 years from the end of exposure), following the already cited rule by Sabates-Wheeler et al. (2018). Other disaggregations, such as a distinction between UCT and CCT effects, were not deemed meaningful, given that individual sources often analysed multiple program designs together.

The outcome areas to which the delineated findings belong were inspired by, and almost entirely overlap with[10], the domains described by Bastagli et al. (2016) in their review of the evidence around the impacts of cash transfers. The drawn indicators, representing sub-

[9] In the majority of cases, the included pieces of evidence analysed nationwide cash transfer programs, relying on census or administrative data. The consequent uncertainty around the changes in recipient status of individuals over time (assumed by some articles to be coinciding with program eligibility) didn't allow, for many sources, to determine a fixed (or at least average) period of exposure (and, hence, a length of the timeframe elapsed since the last received transfer) valid and commonly shared by all program recipients. For the sake of accuracy, then, it was established that, in such cases, this information would be indicated by 'up to' the number of years passed since the earliest possible date of end of exposure (or since program inception). Nevertheless, determining whether a source's findings were to be categorized as 'medium' or 'long-term' evidence was always feasible, given that the shortest possible timeframe since program termination, in the case of long-term studies, was always clearly above the 2-year threshold.
[10] The only differences derive from having extended the 'Poverty' domain beyond monetary-only conceptualizations, and from having introduced a 'Social capital and agency' pillar, insertions made necessary by a thematic categorization of the evidence.

components of outcomes, were also partially informed by the same source. Table 1 lists the main outcome categories, their indicators and some of their proxies commonly analysed by the included sources.

Table 1. Selected variables used by the literature, for each outcome indicator (Bastagli et al., 2016). Source: compiled by the author based on the reviewed studies.

Outcome	*Indicator*	*Variables*
Education	Cognitive and test scores	Test scores, competencies scores, having taken exams (or not), cognitive and socio-economical scores, learning proxies, grades attained, having repeated school years (or not)
	School attainment and literacy	Years of schooling, highest grade completed, enrolment (or dropout), school attendance, completion of middle or high school, number of school days missed
	Tertiary education	Tertiary enrolment, on-time enrolment, graduation, having attended at least some university (or not)
Health and nutrition	Health status	Physical health, mental health, socio-emotional scores, psychological outlook, height, weight
	Life expectancy	Probability of having survived until 60/70/80 years old, longevity, having passed away (or not)
	Food security and nutrition	Food coping, nutrition, food consumption, macro/micronutrients' consumption
	Child health	z-scores for height- and weight-for-age, health and motor development, environment and stimulus indexes, psychosocial wellbeing, anemia, HIV, recent sickness, depression
Employment	Work status, labour supply and employment	Labour supply, labour market participation, hours worked per week, non-wage benefits, formal and informal work status, probability of working, probability of moving to a more qualified occupation
	Income and earnings	Annual income, earnings, total revenue, productive cash inflows, real profits, having earned any income (or not)
	Child labour	Labour force participation, work intensity, hours worked (for pay or not), earnings
	Migration and geographic mobility	Permanent, domestic, cross-municipality, cross-state or inter-state migration
Poverty	Expenditures and consumption	Expenditure per capita, household consumption expenditure, child expenditure, non-durable expenditure, total consumption, non-food consumption
	Living standards	Livelihood coping, rent expenditure, having spent savings to cope, being below the poverty line (or not), multidimensional poverty incidence and intensity, housing quality index
Savings, investment and production	Savings	Having savings (or not), having a bank account (or not), savings group participation
	Investment	Receiving or giving out loans (or not), financial inclusion index, productive time use, parents' discounting behavior
	Assets	Value of household, productive or non-land assets, value of sold or self-consumed livestock, value of business assets, durable goods index, tropical livestock units
Empowerment	Early pregnancy and marriage	Probability of marriage, age at marriage, probability of giving birth, age at first birth, number of children, size of household
	Decision-making power	Women's empowerment index, (autonomous) use of contraception, gender attitudes index, life skills index, control over money
	Abuse (physical and non-physical)	Sexual and physical violence, emotional violence
Social capital and agency		Crime, political involvement, social conditions, protective factors

The clearest insights concern the education and employment dimensions, which were the most frequently analysed ones, especially in the long run – and tended to show posi-

tive and sustained[11] impacts. Quite evidently positive patterns on the sustainability of effects were also deduced for what concerns food security and nutrition variables. More detailed findings (summarized by Table 2[12]) gathered from the literature review are presented as follows, distinguishing by outcome domain and its indicators.

Table 2. Overall findings, by outcome domain and its indicators. Source: compiled by the author on the basis of the review of the included studies.

			Timeframe elapsed since program termination		*Program design*	
Outcome	***Indicator***	***Overall***	***Long term***	***Medium term***	***Conventional UCT/CCTs***	***Graduation transfers***
Education	Cognitive and test scores	▲10	▼6	▲4	▲8	▲/▼2
	School attainment and literacy	**▲25**	**▲20**	▲5	**▲23**	▲/▼2
	Tertiary education	▲5	▲5		▲5	
Health and nutrition	Health status	▲8	▲5	▲3	▲5	▲3
	Life expectancy	▲3	▲3		▲3	
	Food security and nutrition	**▲10**	▲4	**▲6**	▲4	**▲6**
	Child health	▲8	▲3	▲5	▲7	▲1
Employment	Work status, labour supply and employment	**▲13**	**▲10**	▲3	**▲10**	▲3
	Income and earnings	**▲18**	**▲15**	◄►3	**▲13**	▲5
	Child labour	▲/◄►5	▲/▼/◄►3	▲/◄►2	◄►4	▲1
	Migration and geographic mobility	▼/◄►4	▼/◄►4		▼/◄►4	
Poverty	Expenditures and consumption	**▲9**	▲4	▲5	▲3	**▲6**
	Living standards	**▲6**	▲3	▲3	▲5	▲1
Savings, investment and production	Savings	▲5	▲2	▲3	▲3	▲2
	Investment	▲5	▲3	▲/▼2	▼1	▲4
	Assets	**▲9**	▲4	▲5	▲3	**▲6**
Empowerment	Early pregnancy and marriage	▲/▼7	▲/▼5	▲/▼2	▲/▼7	
	Decision-making power	▲4	◄►1	▲3	▲3	▲1
	Abuse (physical and non-physical)	▼/◄►3	▼1	▼/◄►2	▼3	
Social capital and agency		▲4	▲1	▲3	▲2	▲/◄►2

Legend:
Effect direction (shape): △ = increase/improvement, ▽ = decrease/worsening, ◁▷ = conflicting findings (diverging effect directions).
Prevalence of most prominent effect (colour): ▲ = 80% of studies, or more, ▲ = 50%-79%, ▲ = less than 50%.

Number of studies (size): ▲ = more than 10 studies, ▲ = 6-10 studies, ▲ = 1-5 studies.

Statistical significance: findings with a p-value<0.1 in the sign test (Boon & Thomson, 2021) were highlighted in green. Conflicting findings were not included in the count of trials for the test.
The total number of studies for each indicator is mentioned in subscript.
'*Long term*': over 2 years after cessation of support (Sabates-Wheeler et al., 2018). Otherwise, '*Medium term*'.

[11] In accordance with the adopted definition of sustainability of effects, the results section will from now on refer to 'sustained' impacts in the event of the mere existence of desirable (in terms of direction, with respect to the control group) effects measured after the end of exposure to a cash transfer. As a matter of fact, given that most of the included evidence do not include previously computed impacts (measured before, during, or just after program end), comparisons between post-program consequences and effects attained at earlier stages were often not possible. Consistently, the magnitude/size of impacts, their statistical significance (even though the latter will often be mentioned) and their evolutions over time (even when known) were not taken into account for determining the sustainability of effects.
[12] It should be noted that, for the visual purposes of Table 2's construction, negative effects on "negatively" phrased variables were counted as positive (e.g., decreases in mortality were listed as positive impacts on life expectancy). At the same time, though, the direction of coefficients was not changed or inverted (when unnecessary) in the context of "negative" indicators (i.e., child labour, early pregnancy and marriage, and abuse), in order to maintain the visual immediacy and consistency of the insights conveyed by the table. As a consequence, for instance, a positive marker under child labour, or abuse, should be interpreted as a detrimental impact.

3.2.1. Education

A primary source of interest for studies was represented by education-related outcomes. The extracted evidence pointed to overall positive and sustained impacts, especially on school attainment and literacy, and particularly in the longer run and in the case of conventional cash transfers.

Concerning ***cognitive and test scores***, the evidence pool indicated overall slightly positive effects, especially in the medium term. In the longer run, on the contrary, as many as half of the (6) available proofs showed negative impacts of transfers: not only were effects not sustained, but former recipients were even doing worse than the control groups. Noticeably, an analysis of the 10-year effects of the Bono de Desarrollo Humano (BDH) in Ecuador highlighted detrimental, albeit not statistically significant, long-term consequences of the program on a proxy of school grades (Araujo et al., 2020). A 10-year investigation of the Red de Protección Social (RPS) in Nicaragua discovered more mixed program impacts on test scores: whereas the transfer seemed to have improved language and math achievements, children's cognition skills were negatively (even if in a not statistically significant manner) affected (Barham et al., 2018). As already anticipated, the medium-term evidence pool returned more optimistic insights, with 3 out of the 4 produced articles showing persisting positive CT impacts. Among these, Macours et al. (2012b) reported strongly significant and sustained positive effects on children's cognitive outcomes, providing initial confirmations for the theory that graduation grants could trigger behavioral changes by allowing beneficiary households to increase their expenditures on critical inputs (e.g., nutrient-rich foods, preventive health care) for child development. Another medium-run source, Sedlmayr et al. (2020), showed, conversely, that the Ugandan Village Enterprise Graduation Programme had yielded (not significant) aggravations in recipients' cognitive and test scores 27 months after program disbursement. In general, no definitive conclusion could be drawn on the sustainability of impacts of graduation transfers on test scores. Lastly, interesting findings derived from studies focusing on girls and female adolescents, with positive effects maintained in the medium term in Malawi (Baird et al., 2019), but negative and statistically significant long-term impacts in Colombia (Baez & Camacho, 2011), notwithstanding the comparatively higher disbursement.

The insights on ***school attainment and literacy***, grounding on the largest evidence base of all indicators, pointed at very strongly positive and sustained consequences of transfers, with the most conclusive findings related to longer timeframes and 'conventional' cash transfer programs. Alam et al. (2011) found out that, up to 5 years after receiving the Pakistani Punjab Female Stipend Program, a female-targeted CCT, beneficiary girls were (insignificantly) more likely to complete middle school, even if not more prone to transit to and complete high school. Positive (but not statistically significant) long-run effects were also recorded for Familias en Acción in Colombia, demonstrating its effectiveness in fostering school attainment (Duque et al., 2018). Even more beneficial CT impacts were found in Mexico, were the average youth exposed to 7 years of PROGRESA, had almost 3 additional years of education, in comparison to non-recipient children (Kugler & Rojas, 2018). Improvements were not only measured in the number of years of education, but also on the likelihood of completing high school. The medium term evidence is also almost only positive (4 sources out of 5), whereas more mixed intuitions were drawn from graduation transfers (2 studies). For example, the Concern Worldwide Graduation Programme in Rwanda was unable to induce additional school attendance, with the latter failure attributed by the authors to the already high pre-program levels of school presence (Sabates et al., 2019). In the case of the already cited article by Baez & Camacho (2011), despite the negative treatment effects on test scores, very positive and significantly persisting impacts were measured on school completion, with especially large coefficients for girls and for rural beneficiaries.

A total of 5 sources also provided evidence relating to the sustainability of cash

transfers' repercussions on ***tertiary education***, with slightly more mixed findings than the other education indicators. Nevertheless, most of the available proofs indicated positive and sustained effects, with the only exception coming from Colombia. Attanasio et al. (2021)'s long-run analysis of Familias en Acción, as a matter of fact, returned conflicting findings on university training, with both women and men sustainably benefitting from the program (but only men in a statistically significant way). Nevertheless, another paper from Colombia (focusing, this time, on the Subsidios Condicionados a la Asistencia Escolar program, specifically designed to foster educational outcomes) highlighted generally positive (but insignificant) CT impacts on tertiary enrolment and completion in the long term (up to 11 years after the end of exposure; Barrera-Osorio et al., 2019). The latter acknowledgement, however, was only true for the conditional arm of the program, committing families to save a portion of transfers. Finally, long-run impacts on attending university were positive regardless of recipients' gender, in the case of the Programa de Asignación Familiar (PRAF) II in Honduras (Molina Millán et al., 2020), partially reflecting the low educational levels at baseline. No medium-term or graduation program-derived proof was available when drafting this review.

3.2.2. Health and nutrition

Substantial attention was also devoted to the sustainability analysis of CT effects on health and nutrition indicators, returning rather optimistic findings. The evidence deriving from medium term and graduation investigations was clearer than the one coming from their counterparts, with more strictly positive (even if relatively scarce) insights.

The proofs regarding ***health status*** indicated positive and sustained effects, in most cases (6 out of 8 studies). The 3 available medium term sources all pointed to persisting beneficial impacts (Macours et al., 2012b), whereas the longer run evidence was less consistent. Negative long-term effects were recorded, for example, by an RCT of GiveDirectly's UCTs in Kenya (on health and psychological wellbeing; Haushofer & Shapiro, 2018) and by an investigation of the enterprise grant Youth Opportunities Program (YOP) in Uganda (on physical and mental health; Blattman et al., 2020). In general, nonetheless, it should be noted that the only statistically significant results were returned by a study on the Targeting-the-Ultra-Poor (TUP) graduation transfers in India, which generated strong improvements on proxies of physical and mental health, maintained in the long term (up to 10 years since program inception; Banerjee et al., 2021).

As only 3 studies analysed ***life expectancy*** (as possibly expected, a long term-only indicator), the related evidence was still inconclusive, besides heavily drawing on dated information from high-income contexts. The only statistically significant coefficients were computed in the context of the Mothers' Pension Program in the USA, which positively affected the longevity of male children of beneficiaries (female ones were not included in the study due to administrative issues; Aizer et al., 2016), confirming the hypothesis that short-term improvements yielded by CTs can generate long-lasting benefits over recipients' lifetime. On the contrary, a 30-year investigation on the UBI-pilot Seattle-Denver Income Maintenance Experiment (Price & Song, 2016) found that recipient adults were (even if slightly and insignificantly) more likely to having deceased, by the time of the measurement, with respect to their counterparts. Lastly, Blattman et al. (2020) reported a slight decrease in the probability that beneficiaries had passed away, 9 years after the cessation of support.

The health-related indicator with the most clearly positive findings was ***food security and nutrition***, with 9 studies (out of 10) indicating long-lasting program benefits. Insights were exclusively positive for graduation programs and medium-term papers. A notable study found positive long-term impacts on macro and micronutrients' consumption of a Mexican program explicitly designed to target food insecurity (Programa de Apoyo Alimentario; Avitabile et al., 2019). In the medium run, a graduation transfer in Rwanda also yielded positive and highly

significant effects on food security (Sabates-Wheeler et al., 2018). The only source describing negative (but insignificant) program influences on the matter analysed long-run evidence (up to 3 years after program completion; Haushofer & Shapiro, 2018).

The findings on ***child health*** were also mostly positive, with only 2 sources (of 8) highlighting negative program impacts. The only available proof from a graduation project returned positive insights. It was the case of Atención a Crisis in Nicaragua, which yielded improvements on health and motor development proxies, coherently with the observed enhancements in expenditures on child health, 2 years after program disbursement (Macours et al., 2012b). Overall negative coefficients were, instead, measured for the already mentioned Programa de Apoyo Alimentario in Mexico, with long-term (up to 9 years later) declines in anemia counterbalanced by non-significant effects on height- and weight-for-age scores, and by increases in sickness status (Avitabile et al., 2019). In the medium run, the only negative impacts were recorded in Cambodia by Filmer & Schady (2014), which measured (statistically significant) rises in the probability of scholarship beneficiaries to be depressed, compared to their control counterpart. Finally, among the optimistic sources, a medium-term investigation of a program targeted at female adolescents in Malawi found generally positive and sustained, even if overall insignificant, impacts on a height-for-age z-score, across most of the analysed program designs (Baird et al., 2019).

3.2.3. Employment

Employment patterns were also quite substantially inquired, with overall positive findings on the sustainability of effects on work status and earnings, especially in the long term. Other disaggregations returned less clear findings, together with general mixed insights on child labour and migration patterns.

The available studies on ***work status, labour supply and employment*** provided overwhelmingly positive evidence, particularly after longer timeframes since the end of exposure. Ham & Michelson (2018), for example, found positive (though, mostly insignificant) effects of PRAF II, more than a decade after the start of the transfer, on a series of labour force participation-related indicators. Interestingly, this only held valid for the program's arm including a cash component (the only one of interest, for the purposes of our study), possibly because of the enhanced investment in training spurred by the monetary transfer. Positive long-term evidence was also gathered in the context of Bolsa Familia in Brazil (Oliveira & Chagas, 2020), with improvements in formal labour market participation attributed to the observed beneficial impacts on schooling. The only long-run study finding negative results (curiously, once again from PRAF II) was Molina Millán et al. (2020), whereby (statistically insignificant) worsenings in work status could also be seen through a positive lens, in light of the simultaneous improvements on school completion and university studies. Interestingly gendered insights were derived from Bangladesh, with substantial and persisting long-term increases in labour supply (Bandiera et al., 2017), but medium-run mixed impacts on work status (Roy et al., 2019) of female-targeted transfers, in accordance with the assumption that effects on productive outcomes need a longer timeframe to become manifest (Bastagli et al., 2019), especially for women, who face higher constraining factors than men (Covarrubias et al., 2012; de Mel et al., 2012).

The proofs on ***income and earnings*** also pointed to an overall positive direction of CT effects, mostly driven by long-term evidence. Enterprise grants in Sri Lanka returned, in fact, higher (and sustained) monthly profits around 5 years after the lump-sum transfer, but, interestingly, only for male-owned businesses. The latter finding was attributed by the authors to overlapping constraining factors represented by the diversion of transfers for women to household uses, and by the lower return rates of typically female industries (de Mel et al., 2012). Noticeable long-term findings also included null impacts on profits of enterprise grants for female entrepreneurs in Ghana (potentially because of their, on average, lower profitability, and

due to the relatively low transferred amount; Fafchamps et al., 2014) and statistically significant (but for women, only, given their low starting level) decreases in incomes in Honduras (Molina Millán et al., 2020). Negative long-term impacts on earnings were also found in Brazil (Oliveira & Chagas, 2020) and, as a result of exposure to UBI in the USA (even though the effect was potentially largely driven by the high early retirement rates enabled by its reception; Price & Song, 2016). Lastly, strongly positive and statistically significant long-term effects (larger for men and for women without children, whereas the impact was null on mothers) on labour income were measured in the context of the CCT Chile Solidario (Neidhöfer & Niño-Zarazúa, 2019).

The (relatively scarce) evidence on ***child labour*** indicated overall increases (or, at least, conflicting findings), after program termination, drawing potentially alarming insights. In this context, in fact, the only source finding (not statistically significant, furthermore) sustained declines in child labour was the long-term study by Araujo et al. (2020) in Ecuador. Interestingly, a strongly significant long-run rise in the number of days worked by children on a weekly basis was measured in Mexico (Avitabile et al., 2019), and explained by the authors through recipient households' increased ability to buy productive assets and to invest in work, illustrating why children would be more involved in labour and dedicate a reduced time to learning. Nevertheless, an impact disaggregation by age could provide more definitive answers around the overall negativity of the finding. More mixed durable results were reached by the already cited analyses of female scholarships, with a (significant) long-term decline in labour force participation compensated by a (non-significant) medium-run rise in work intensity in Pakistan (Alam et al., 2011) and by inconclusive findings on similar variables from Cambodia (Filmer & Schady, 2014). The only related study on graduation transfers found a decrease in the number of days worked each month by children in Rwanda (Sedlmayr et al., 2020), even if a non-significant manner, in the medium term.

Finally, no medium-run or graduation-derived analyses were available on proxies of ***migration and geographic mobility***, but the 4 existing sources pointed to either conflicting findings or (insignificant) decreases as long-term impacts of CTs. Inconsistent long-term patterns were measured in the context of Mexico's PROGRESA by both Parker & Vogl (2018) in Mexico, where the program favoured migration at the cross-municipality and cross-state, but not at the inter-state level, and Rodriguez-Oreggia & Freije (2012). Clearer decreasing trends – consistent with enhanced living and labour market conditions – were, conversely, detected on permanent migration in Nicaragua (Barham et al., 2018), and on the probability of young people to migrate in Honduras (Molina Millán et al., 2020), more than a decade after the cessation of the respective programs.

3.2.4. Poverty

The evidence base on poverty-related indicators also suggested sustained and overall positive effects on the outcome. For both dimensions (roughly assimilable to monetary and multidimensional poverty, respectively), interestingly, the impacts seemed to be more strictly positive in the longer run, than in the medium term.

Regarding ***expenditures and consumption***, as much as 7 out of the 9 available studies indicated persisting beneficial consequences of CTs. In the medium term, another investigation on the Nicaraguan Atención a Crisis program measured (insignificant) improvements, just like most other graduation transfers, on the analysed monetary poverty proxy (in this case, on non-food and generic consumption, because of the better risk management and consumption smoothing practices allowed by the transfer; Macours et al., 2012a). Similarly, sustained (and statistically significant) medium-run improvements in per capita consumption were registered for the multi-country and multifaceted graduation program analysed by Banerjee et al. (2015). Longer-term positive insights on the sustainability of effects on consumption were derived by the analysis of another TUP intervention in India (Banerjee et al., 2021), which might have

enabled beneficiaries to escape the 'poverty trap' and its constraining factors. The only source pointing to unprolonged, and even negative post-program cash transfer impacts on the indicator was Altındağ & O'Connell (2021), returning medium-term (insignificant) declines in per capita expenditure in Lebanon, attributed by the authors to the CTs' incapability – possibly due to its relatively low monetary amount – to lift the economic and legal constraints faced by refugees.

Even if less large, the evidence base on ***living standards*** (multidimensional poverty; Alkire et al., 2015) pointed to similar conclusions, with almost exclusively positive CT impacts. In the longer run, and in the case of graduation programs (one source), the available proofs did actually only suggest sustained benefits of CTs on living standards. The only source to indicate conflicting effects, rather than positive, was once again Altındağ & O'Connell (2021), with medium-term mixed program consequences on variables such as livelihood coping, rent expenditure, having faced eviction, and having spent savings to cope. In the long run, on the contrary, an interesting paper from Peru found durable declines in both the incidence and intensity of multidimensional poverty (Borga & D'Ambrosio, 2021), up to 10 years after lastly benefitting from Juntos. Living standard enhancements were also recorded as a consequence of PROGRESA in Mexico, with statistically significant long-term raises in the analysed housing index, regardless of gender (Parker & Vogl, 2018). Finally, the only available proof from a graduation program, the TUP in Bangladesh, found significant and persistent long-run declines in multidimensional poverty (Bandiera et al., 2017).

3.2.5. Savings, investment and production

A few of the included sources also comprised medium- and long-term investigations of the sustainability of CT effects on indicators of savings, investment and production. The related evidence was mostly positive concerning savings and assets, while slightly more mixed in the case of investments. The longer run insights were more clearly positive than medium-term ones, whereas graduation programs did not prove to be comparatively more beneficial (as otherwise would be expected, by their design and focus) than conventional cash transfers on any of the indicators (possibly, with the only exception of investments), even though the latter statement was only based on a few studies' findings.

The evidence on ***savings*** mostly pointed to positive and sustained effects. The only exception was represented by Altındağ & O'Connell (2021), which measured slightly negative (but not statistically significant) medium-term program impacts on savings in Lebanon. Statistically significant positive effects on savings group participation were, on the contrary, computed in the medium term in Niger, after receiving a CT bundled with support of local saving associations (Stoeffler et al., 2020). Durable and persistent impacts were also calculated in the case of the TUP graduation transfer in Bangladesh, whereby improvements were sustained (and statistically significant; Bandiera et al., 2017) up to 7 years since the cessation of support.

Concerning ***investments***, as anticipated, the evidence base returned more mixed insights. The only proof analysing a conventional cash transfer program actually measured negative program impacts on beneficiary parents' discounting behaviour, in the long run (up to 9 years since the end of exposure; Contreras Suarez & Cameron, 2020). In the medium term, instead, Banerjee et al. (2015) found strongly positive, sustained and statistically significant TUP repercussions on financial inclusion in a variety of countries. Graduation programs, besides providing almost exclusively positive findings overall, interestingly also demonstrated to bear the potential to spur women's investment capabilities, with positive, significant, and sustained (in the long run) treatment coefficients on dummies for receiving and giving out loans registered in Bangladesh (Bandiera et al., 2017). Nevertheless, in the latter case, it was not possible to unleash the observed processes of change, given the lack of (unfeasible) disentanglements around the individual contribution of the multiple different TUP components.

The available studies on ***assets***, given the larger evidence base, provided more conclusive discernments. In particular, the effects on assets were exclusively positive, in the long-term and in the case of conventional cash transfers. Positive findings, in the long run, were derived from analyses of GiveDirectly transfers in Kenya (statistically significant improvements in non-land assets' value; Haushofer & Shapiro, 2018) and of PROGRESA in Mexico (slightly statistically significant enhancements in a durable goods index, but only for men, up to 13 years after the end of the transfer; Parker & Vogl, 2018). Interestingly, neither one of these two latter programs included a 'graduation-style' plus component. Finally, beneficial and sustained CT effects were also computed in the medium-term in the context of the Village Enterprise Graduation Programme in Uganda, with positive and strongly significant coefficients on the value of assets and of tropical livestock units (TLUs) of recipients (Sabates-Wheeler et al., 2018).

3.2.6. Empowerment

A number of studies included investigations around the sustainability of CT impacts on women's empowerment, returning a rather mixed overall picture. In this context, even though the evidence base was quite limited on all indicators, the most conflicting insights related to proxies of early pregnancy and marriage, especially in the longer run. More optimistic findings were derived from the analysis of decision-making power and abuse, but the scarce available proofs did not allow clear inferences of patterns, neither in general nor in a disaggregated manner.

As already briefly introduced, the most numerous and mixed hints concerned ***early pregnancy and marriage***. In the long term, Alam et al. (2011) found aggregate increases in the phenomenon, with the raises in the probability of getting married and in the number of birthed children, and a decrease in the age at marriage, only partially counteracted by a decline in the probability of giving birth. The female-targeted Punjab Female Stipend Program did not seem to have benefitted young girls, in this sense, even though none of the computed coefficients were significant. The authors imputed this finding to the lack of complementary and structural interventions aimed at fostering women's educational and working achievements, in the absence of which, finishing school earlier would also mean moving into marriage earlier, for young girls unable to attend higher school cycles. On the contrary, a very similar CT-only intervention, handed out in Bangladesh, had overwhelmingly positive (and strongly statistically significant) long-run repercussions on the matter, spurred by an increase in school attainment. As a matter of fact, up to 17 years after the last transfer, beneficiary girls were more likely to get married at a later age, to have fewer children, to have their first child later in time, and to desire less children, in comparison to the control group (Hahn et al., 2018). In the medium term, Baird et al. (2019) found mixed impacts of the Schooling, Income and Health Risk transfer in Malawi, across distinct program designs (in terms of un/conditionality), on similar variables to the ones analysed by Alam et al. (2011), with an overall sustained decrease in early pregnancy and marriage, but mostly insignificant coefficients. Lastly, the initially measured positive impacts of the YOP on the indicator did not persist, in the long run: findings were conflicting, and statistically insignificant (Blattman et al., 2020).

Out of the 4 studies dedicating space to ***decision-making power proxies***, 3 focused on the medium-term, with only positive findings on effects' sustainability. First, an RCT of the Girl Empower program in Liberia detected sustained improvements in indexes of gender attitudes and life skills (together, encompassing literacy and knowledge on a variety of relevant issues[13]), both statistically significant (Özler et al., 2020) and attributed to a pure income effect – even though the program also offered a life skills curriculum, and notwithstanding the modesty of the cash benefit. Second, evidence from Bangladesh highlighted beneficial medium-

[13] The operationalized gender attitudes index comprised proxies for gender equity and attitudes towards IPV, whereas the life skills index encompassed knowledge of HIV/AIDS, health, financial literacy, knowledge of condom effectiveness and health intimate (heterosexual) relationships.

term CT effects on women's control over received money, even if those were only significant for recipients of both cash and nutrition behaviour change communication (BCC; Roy et al., 2019), in contrast to cash-only recipients. Third, medium-run positive (despite insignificant) insights were also derived from a TUP analysis on an index of women's empowerment (mainly composed of decision-making proxies; Banerjee et al., 2015). The only available long-term article described conflicting findings on all of the investigated proxies: use of contraception, the degree to which contraception was observable by the husband, and decision-making more in general, with slight differences across distinct exposure lengths (Hahn et al., 2018). The latter inconsistent result may be attributed to the program's conditional design (Cookson, 2018), on the contrary of the aforementioned unconditional transfers.

Only 3 sources were produced regarding ***abuse (physical and non-physical)***, with 1 detecting conflicting findings and 2 showing declines in the dimension. The measured sustained decreases in degree of abuse in Kenya (in the long term, slightly significant; Haushofer & Shapiro, 2018) and in sexual and physical violence in Liberia (in the medium run, but insignificant; Özler et al., 2020) were in fact counterbalanced by medium-term mixed impacts on physical violence in Bangladesh (Roy et al., 2019). In the case of the latter study, the (still diversified) effects were ascribed to simultaneously operating mechanisms – activated by the CT – of improved bargaining power, interactions with community members, and poverty status of women. No proof was available on graduation transfers.

3.2.7. Social capital and agency

The last outcome domain inquired by the included evidence pool comprised variables related to concepts of social capital and agency, analysed by 4 sources. With regards to it, the lack of clarity concerning medium-term and graduation programs was counteracted by (scarce, but) exclusively positive intuitions from long-run evidence and conventional CTs. The only long-term study, Attanasio et al. (2021), showed significant reductions in men's crime up to 8 years after having last been exposed to Familias en Acción. Positive medium-term impacts were then measured on political involvement in the various countries in which the TUP graduation program analysed by Banerjee et al. (2015) was implemented, and on protective factors (an index for social networks[14]) and gender norms (in a not statistically significant way) in Liberia (Özler et al., 2020). Finally, the only paper pointing to conflicting results was Sedlmayr et al. (2020), which registered significantly positive impacts of the Village Enterprise Graduation Programme on social conditions (an index encompassing, amongst others, senses of trust and community), but only for beneficiaries of the enterprise program arm, on the contrary of simple CT recipients.

4. Discussion

This review of the literature provided a summary of the sustainability of cash transfer effects, namely, on their persistence after program end. The main finding of the study is the dismissal of the theoretical assumption that CTs would represent a short term-only solution to poverty and vulnerability (only), generating impacts on a variety of outcomes, but at most in a transient manner (Devereux & Sabates-Wheeler, 2015; Sabates-Wheeler & Devereux, 2013). The available evidence showed, as a matter of fact, that cash transfers tend to yield sustained (and 'transformative'; Devereux & Sabates-Wheeler, 2004; Molyneux et al., 2016) beneficial effects on deprivation proxies such as school attainment, test scores, incomes, labour supply, food security, and assets. Some of these summarizing findings were also 'statistically significant' as computed through the sign test (Boon & Thomson, 2021).

The length of the elapsed timeframe since the end of exposure to programs, nev-

[14] The described protective factors index groups together variables related to social capital, gender norms, and child rearing.

ertheless, proved to represent a fundamental factor in the explanation of the diversity of the obtained insights: while impacts on test scores, labour supply, (multidimensional) poverty and incomes were more visible and consolidated in the 'long term' (coherently with theoretical expectations; Bastagli et al., 2019; Hajdu et al., 2020; and in line with the livelihood-promoting theory of the graduation approach; Sabates-Wheeler & Devereux, 2013; Sabates-Wheeler et al., 2018), positive CT repercussions on health status, food security and women's decision-making power tended to fade away after the medium run. Furthermore, even though the relatively scarce evidence on 'graduation' transfers does not allow reaching definitive conclusions, it was noticed that such programs (Devereux & Sabates-Wheeler, 2015; Hashemi & Umaira, 2011), do not necessarily yield comparatively more positive and better sustained impacts on the outcomes they are explicitly designed to allow beneficiaries to 'graduate' on – savings, investments, assets, incomes and expenditures, among others – than conventional cash transfers. Nevertheless, it was also highlighted how alternative 'asset-based' approaches (Ellis, 2000; Sen, 1997) displayed an unexpected potential to also bear positive and sustained changes on a wider range of (drawn) indicators, including (child) health status, nutrition, and women's decision making-power. In general, however, it should be remembered that, for most of the analysed outcomes and indicators, the number of existing empirical proofs is rather limited (it is the case, for instance, of child labour, early pregnancy and marriage, and social capital).

The implications drawn by the review are relevant at the policymaking, research and evaluation levels, of social protection and development. First, implementing agencies should take them into account when designing (and evaluating) their CT interventions, bearing in mind that specific long-lasting and transformative goals can be achieved through purposefully characterized, advertised, and communicated transfers, as explicated by some of the included pieces of evidence (Barrera-Osorio et al., 2019; Macours et al., 2012a; Neidhöfer & Niño-Zarazúa, 2019; Stoeffler et al., 2020). Second, researchers should positively reconsider the ability of (even conventional) cash transfers to provide their recipients with substantial advantages on a variety of outcomes, which could turn into persisting long-term benefits (Devereux & Sabates-Wheeler, 2004; Sabates-Wheeler and Devereux, 2013). In this context, further research could be devoted to a better understanding of the mechanisms driving continuous positive impacts (e.g., their constraining/enabling factors; Devereux & Ulrichs, 2015) and of the roles of the so-called 'long-term' variables (i.e., child health and education; Molina-Millán et al., 2019), of different CT design (such as, but not limited to, conditionality, targeting, and the provision of complementary support; Kondylis & Loeser, 2021; Molina-Millán et al., 2019; Roelen et al., 2017 and 2019) and beneficiary features (such as gender; Attanasio et al., 2021; de Mel et al., 2012; Oliveira & Chagas, 2020) in the process. Moreover, additional (even qualitative) attention could be drawn to figuring out how different outcomes are interrelated in determining each other's sustainability (for instance, how educational outcomes, labour and early marriage patterns interact, especially for young girls; de Mel et al., 2012; Molina-Millán et al., 2020). Finally, M&E professionals should extend, when feasible, the timeframe of program evaluations for at least 2 years after the cessation of support (Sabates-Wheeler et al., 2018), in order to produce more evidence-based knowledge on the sustainability of CT effects.

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Appendix

Table 3. Program design characteristics for each study under review. *Source:* elaborated by the author.

Study	***Country/ies***	***CT***	***Type***	***Plus***	***Targeting***
Aizer et al. (2016)	United States of America	Mother's Pension	UCT		Means-based and categorical
Alam et al. (2011)	Pakistan	Punjab Female School Stipend Program (FSSP)	CCT		Geographical and categorical
Altındağ & O'Connell (2021)	Lebanon	Multipurpose cash assistance program (cash arm)	UCT		Means-based
Araujo et al. (2020)	Ecuador	*Bono de Desarrollo Humano* (BDH)	UCT (soft conditionality)		Proxy-means
Attanasio et al. (2021)	Colombia	*Familias en Acción*	CCT+	Health education (*Encuentros de Cuidado*)	Means-based and categorical
Avitabile et al. (2019)	Mexico	*Programa de Apoyo Alimentario* (PAL) (cash arm)	UCT+ (conditionality not enforced)	Health, nutrition and hygiene classes	Categorical and means-based
Baez & Camacho (2011)	Colombia	*Familias en Acción*	CCT+	Health education (*Encuentros de Cuidado*)	Means-based and categorical
Baird et al. (2019)	Malawi	Schooling, Income and Health Risk (SIHR)	UCT and CCT		Demographical and categorical
Bandiera et al. (2017)	Bangladesh	Targeting-the-Ultra-Poor (TUP)	Graduation (UCT+)	Asset transfer, health support and training on legal, social and political rights	Proxy-means, geographical and categorical
Banerjee et al. (2015)	Ethiopia, Ghana, Honduras, India, Pakistan and Peru	Targeting-the-Ultra-Poor (TUP)	Graduation (UCT+)	Asset transfer, savings and health components	Proxy-means, geographical and categorical
Banerjee et al. (2021)	India	Targeting-the-Ultra-Poor (TUP)	Graduation (UCT+)	Asset transfer, training on income, life-skills and health information	Proxy-means, geographical and categorical
Barham et al. (2018)	Nicaragua	*Red de Protección Social* (RPS)	CCT+	Training and nutritional supplements	Geographical and household
Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	Colombia	*Subsidios Condicionados a la Asistencia Escolar* (SED)	CCT		Proxy-means and categorical
Blattman et al. (2020)	Uganda	Youth Opportunities Program (YOP)	Enterprise UCT		Means-based and categorical
Borga & D'Ambrosio (2021)	Peru	*Juntos*	CCT		Geographical, categorical and proxy-means
Contreras Suarez & Cameron (2020)	Colombia	*Familias en Acción*	CCT+	Health education (*Encuentros de Cuidado*)	Means-based and categorical
de Mel et al. (2012)	Sri Lanka	2005 Microenterprise grant	Enterprise UCT+	In-kind purchases of equipment or materials for businesses	Geographical and categorical
Duque et al. (2018)	Colombia	*Familias en Acción*	CCT+	Health education (*Encuentros de Cuidado*)	Means-based and categorical

Fafchamps et al. (2014)	Ghana	Business Grant Ghana (cash arm)	Enterprise UCT		Geographical, categorical and business-related
Filmer & Schady (2014)	Cambodia	CESSP Scholarship Program (CSP)	UCT		Proxy-means and categorical
Hahn et al. (2018)	Bangladesh	Female School Stipend Program (FSSSP)	CCT		Geographical and categorical
Ham & Michelson (2018)	Honduras	*Programa de Asignación Familiar* (PRAF) *II*	CCT+	Vouchers or clinic and school subsidies	Means-based, categorical and geographical
Haushofer & Shapiro (2018)	Kenya	GiveDirectly	UCT		Proxy-means and categorical
Kugler & Rojas (2018)	Mexico	*PROGRESA/ Oportunidades*	CCT+	Health education and nutritional supplements	Geographical and household
Macours et al. (2012a)	Nicaragua	*Atención a Crisis*	Graduation (CCT+)	Scholarship for vocational training or productive investment grant	Geographical and proxy-means
Macours et al. (2012b)	Nicaragua	*Atención a Crisis*	Graduation (CCT+)	Scholarship for vocational training or productive investment grant	Geographical and proxy-means
Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Honduras	*Programa de Asignación Familiar* (PRAF) *II*	CCT+	Vouchers or clinic and school subsidies	Means-based, categorical and geographical
Neidhöfer & Niño-Zarazúa (2019)	Chile	*Chile Solidario (*SUF*, Subsidio Unico Familiar)*	CCT+	Psychological support and employment training	Proxy-means
Oliveira & Chagas (2020)	Brazil	*Bolsa Familia*	CCT		Means-based
Özler et al. (2020)	Liberia	Girl Empower (GE+ arm only)	UCT+	Skills curriculum	Categorical
Parker & Vogl (2018)	Mexico	*PROGRESA/ Oportunidades*	CCT+	Health education and nutritional supplements	Geographical and household
Price & Song (2016)	United States of America	Seattle-Denver Income Maintenance experiment	UCT		Geographical, categorical and means-based
Rodriguez-Oreggia & Freije (2012)	Mexico	*PROGRESA/ Oportunidades*	CCT+	Health education and nutritional supplements	Geographical and household
Roy et al. (2019)	Bangladesh	Transfer Modality Research Initiative (TMRI, cash arm)	UCT+	Intensive nutrition behavior change communication (BCC)	Proxy-means
Sabates et al. (2019)	Rwanda	Concern Worldwide Graduation Programme Rwanda	Graduation (UCT+)	Livelihood training	Proxy-means
Sabates-Wheeler et al. (2018)	Rwanda	Concern Worldwide Graduation Programme Rwanda	Graduation (UCT+)	Livelihood training	Proxy-means
Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	Uganda	Village Enterprise Graduation Programme	Graduation (UCT+)	Encouragement to start a business and creation of saving groups	Participatory and proxy-means
Stoeffler et al. (2020)	Niger	*Projet Pilote des Filets Sociaux par le Cash Transfert* (PPFS-CT)	UCT+	Encouragement of women's participation in local savings group	Proxy-means

Table 4. Additional program and study design characteristics for each paper under review. *Source:* elaborated by the author.

Study	***CT***	***Amount (local currency)***	***Amount (PPP)***	***Duration***	***Frequency***	***Purpose***	***Years of program operation***	***Survey years***	***Targeted populations***	***Number of recipients***
Aizer et al. (2016)	Mother's Pension	State-legislated maximums spanning USD10-35 12-25% of family income	USD 10-35 in 1935 correspond to $ 213.62 - 747.66 in 2022	3 years	Monthly	Improving the financial conditions of orphans	1911-1935	1911-1930	Children of poor mothers and missing/incapacitated fathers; no income or property thresholds	200,000 children in 1932
Alam et al. (2011)	Punjab Female School Stipend Program (FSSP)	PKR 600 in 2003	$10 in 2003, $15.91 in 2022	3 years	Quarterly	Improving educational attainment among girls	2003-	2003-2009	Girls in districts with the lowest literacy rates and enrolled in eligible grades (6 through 8) in public schools	245,000 in 2007
Altındağ & O'Connell (2021)	Multipurpose cash assistance program (cash arm)	USD 175 to the median-sized household	$175 in 2016, $213.39 in 2022	1 year	Monthly	Multiple related to poverty and vulnerability reduction	2016-2018	2016-2019	Syrian refugees in Lebanon	55,000 families
Araujo et al. (2020)	*Bono de Desarrollo Humano* (BDH)	USD 15 in 2003	$15 in 2003, $23.86 in 2022		Monthly	Poverty reduction	2003-	2014	Poor households	
Attanasio et al. (2021)	*Familias en Acción*	COP 50,000 in 2010	$24.46 in 2010, $32.83 in 2022		Monthly	Improving health and nutrition of children	2002-	2002-2015	Low-income families: 20% poorest households in the country	2.8 million households in 2011
Avitabile et al. (2019)	*Programa de Apoyo Alimentario* (PAL) (cash arm)	MXN 150 in 2004	$15 in 2004, $23.24 in 2022		Bimonthly	Improving nutrition and food intake	2004-	2007-2013	Poor families, especially children and mothers	
Baez & Camacho (2011)	*Familias en Acción*	COP 50,000 in 2010	$24.46 in 2010, $32.83 in 2022		Monthly	Improving health and nutrition of children	2002-	2003-2009	Low-income families: 20% poorest households in the country	2.8 million households in 2011
Baird et al. (2019)	Schooling, Income and Health Risk (SIHR)	USD 10 in 2007	$10 in 2007, $14.11 in 2022	2 years	Monthly	Improving schooling and (sexual) health outcomes for young women	2007-2009	2007-2012	Adolescent girls and young women	
Bandiera et al. (2017)	Targeting-the-Ultra-Poor (TUP)	USD 1,120	$1,120 in 2007, $1,580.84 in 2022		Lump sum	Improving labour conditions of disadvantaged women	2007	2007-2014	Women in ultra-poor households	360,000 households in 2014

Banerjee et al. (2015)	Targeting-the-Ultra-Poor (TUP)	USD 437-1,228 for the productive asset transfer, depending on location	USD 437-1,228 in 2007 correspond to $ 616.81-1,733.27 in 2022	1 year for the consumption support arm	Lump sum, in the case of the productive asset transfer	Poverty reduction	2007	2007-2014	Ultra-poor households	
Banerjee et al. (2021)	Targeting-the-Ultra-Poor (TUP)	USD 437-1,228 for the productive asset transfer, depending on location	USD 437-1,228 in 2007 correspond to $ 616.81-1,733.27 in 2022	1 year for the consumption support arm	Lump sum, in the case of the productive asset transfer	Poverty reduction	2007	2007-2017	Ultra-poor households	
Barham et al. (2018)	*Red de Protección Social* (RPS)	On average, 18% of pre-program expenditures		3 years	Bimonthly	Tackling current and future poverty	2000-2006	2000-2010	Poor households	
Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	*Subsidios Condicionados a la Asistencia Escolar* (SED)	USD 20-30 in 2005	USD 20-30 in 2005 correspond to $ 29.97-44.95 in 2022		Bimonthly	Increasing student retention, reducing dropout rates, and ameliorating child labour	2005-2012	2005-2012	Poor households with school-age children	7,984 students in 2005
Blattman et al. (2020)	Youth Opportunities Program (YOP)	UGX 12.9 million in 2006 (per group)	USD 7,497 in 2008's values, corresponding to $ 10,190.45 in 2022 (per group)		Lump sum	Improving business outcomes for poor young adults	2006	2006-2015	Young adults aged 16-35	
Borga & D'Ambrosio (2021)	*Juntos*	PEN 100 in 2005	$30 in 2005, $44.95 in 2022		Monthly	Reducing poverty and fostering employment	2005-	2006-2016	Poor families in rural areas	
Contreras Suarez & Cameron (2020)	*Familias en Acción*	COP 50,000 in 2010	$24.46 in 2010, $32.83 in 2022		Monthly	Improving health and nutrition of children	2002-	2012	Low-income families: 20% poorest households in the country	2.8 million households in 2011
de Mel et al. (2012)	2005 Microenterprise grant	LKR 10,000-20,000	USD 100-200 in 2005 correspond to $ 149.85-299.70 in 2022		Lump sum	Improving labour and business (self-employment) patterns for women	2005	2005-2010	Microenterprises with no paid employees	408 microenterprises
Duque et al. (2018)	*Familias en Acción*	COP 50,000 in 2010	$24.46 in 2010, $32.83 in 2022		Monthly	Improving health and nutrition of children	2002-	2002-2017	Low-income families: 20% poorest households in the country	2.8 million households in 2011

Fafchamps et al. (2014)	Business Grant Ghana (cash arm)	GHS 150 in 2009	USD 120 in 2009 correspond to $ 163.69 in 2022		Lump sum	Improving labour patterns for small firms	2009	2008-2012	Microenterprises with no paid employees	198 firms
Filmer & Schady (2014)	CESSP Scholarship Program (CSP)	USD 45 in 2005	$45 in 2005 correspond to $67.43 in 2022	3 years	Annually	Improving school attainment of poor children	2005-	2005-2010	Students of schools in poor areas	3,800 students in 2005
Hahn et al. (2018)	Female School Stipend Program (FSSSP)	USD 18-45 in 1994	$18-45 in 1994 correspond to $35.55-88.86 in 2022		Annually	Improving school attainment of girls in rural areas	1994-	2004-2011	Secondary school girls in rural areas	More than 2 million girls
Ham & Michelson (2018)	*Programa de Asignación Familiar* (PRAF) *II*	Maximum USD 210 in 2000	$210 in 2000 correspond to $356.90 in 2022		Annually	Compensating extremely poor households for the negative impacts of the country's structural adjustment policies	2000-2005	2000-2013	Poor households	
Haushofer & Shapiro (2018)	GiveDirectly	On average, USD 709	$709 in 2011 correspond to $922.44 in 2022		Lump sum or a few monthly installments	Poverty reduction	2011-2013	2011-2014	Poor households	503 households
Kugler & Rojas (2018)	*PROGRESA/ Oportunidades*	Exact amount depending on the individual household's composition, needs and income level			Monthly or bimonthly	Reducing poverty and increasing human capital	1997-	1996-2013	Poor households	26.6 million people in 2010
Macours et al. (2012a)	*Atención a Crisis*	Over the year, a minimum of USD 145	$145 in 2005 correspond to $217.28 in 2022	1 year	Monthly	Reducing the need for adverse coping mechanisms against an unfolding severe drought, and promoting long run upward mobility	2005-2006	2005-2009	Poor households	
Macours et al. (2012b)	*Atención a Crisis*	Over the year, a minimum of USD 145	$145 in 2005 correspond to $217.28 in 2022	1 year	Monthly	Reducing the need for adverse coping mechanisms against an unfolding severe drought, and promoting long run upward mobility	2005-2006	2005-2009	Poor households	

Molina Millán et al. (2020)	*Programa de Asignación Familiar* (PRAF) *II*	On average, 4% of total pre-program household income			Biannually	Increasing investment in human capital during early childhood ages	2000-2005	2013	Municipalities with highest malnutrition rates in the country	
Neidhöfer & Niño-Zarazúa (2019)	*Chile Solidario (*SUF*, Subsidio Unico Familiar)*	USD 8-21 in 2002	$8-21 in 2002 correspond to $13.01-34.16 in 2022	5 years	Monthly	Tackling extreme poverty	2002-	2013	Poor households	264,000 in 2011
Oliveira & Chagas (2020)	*Bolsa Familia*	Exact amount depending on the individual household's composition, needs and income level			Monthly	Reducing poverty	2003-	2004-2017	Poor households with school-age children or a pregnant woman, or extremely poor families	26.86% of the population in 2018
Özler et al. (2020)	Girl Empower (GE+ arm only)	A maximum of $40	$40 in 2016 correspond to $48.77 in 2022		Lump sum	Empowering adolescent girls	2016	2015-2018	Girls aged 13-14	402 recipients of the participation incentive payment
Parker & Vogl (2018)	*PROGRESA/ Oportunidades*	Exact amount depending on the individual household's composition, needs and income level			Monthly or bimonthly	Reducing poverty and increasing human capital	1997-	2010	Poor households	26.6 million people in 2010
Price & Song (2016)	Seattle-Denver Income Maintenance experiment		A maximum of $25,900 yearly, in 2013's values, corresponding to $32,537.18 in 2022	3-5 years	Monthly	Reducing poverty and studying the effects of a negative income tax (NIT)	1970-	1978-2013	Poor households	Around 2,400 families in 1970
Rodriguez-Oreggia & Freije (2012)	*PROGRESA/ Oportunidades*	Exact amount depending on the individual household's composition, needs and income level			Monthly or bimonthly	Reducing poverty and increasing human capital	1997-	2007	Poor households	26.6 million people in 2010

Roy et al. (2019)	Transfer Modality Research Initiative (TMRI, cash arm)	BDT 1,500 in 2012	USD 19 in 2012 correspond to $24.22 in 2022	2 years	Monthly	Empowering poor women	2012-2014	2012-2015	Women in ultra-poor households	
Sabates et al. (2019)	Concern Worldwide Graduation Programme Rwanda	RWF 18,000 in 2012	USD 22 in 2012 correspond to $28.04 in 2022	1 year	Monthly	Accelerating poverty eradication and promoting rural economic growth	2012-2013	2012-2015	Poor households	800 beneficiaries
Sabates-Wheeler et al. (2018)	Concern Worldwide Graduation Programme Rwanda	RWF 18,000 in 2012	USD 22 in 2012 correspond to $28.04 in 2022	1 year	Monthly	Accelerating poverty eradication and promoting rural economic growth	2012-2013	2012-2015	Poor households	800 beneficiaries
Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	Village Enterprise Graduation Programme	UGX 120,000 per household in 2013	USD 115.15 in 2013 correspond to $144.66 in 2022	4 months	Lump sum	Improving business and labour outcomes	2013-2014	2013-2017	Poor households	
Stoeffler et al. (2020)	*Projet Pilote des Filets Sociaux par le Cash Transfert* (PPFS-CT)	FCFA 10,000 in 2011	USD 20 in 2011 correspond to $26.02 in 2022	18 months	Monthly	Addressing food insecurity and household vulnerability, fostering savings	2011-2012	2010-2013	Poor households	2,281 households

Table 5. Nature of the analysis (on outcomes of interest only) and risk-of-bias for each study under review. *Source:* elaborated by the author.

Study	***Nature***	***Research design***	***Unit of analysis***	***Data collection methods***	***Sustainability measurement (years after end of exposure)***	***Risk-of-bias***
Aizer et al. (2016)	Quantitative	RCT	Individual	Survey and administrative data	Up to 30	Low
Alam et al. (2011)	Quantitative	RDD+DiD	Individual	Survey and administrative data	Up to 5	Moderate
Altındağ & O'Connell (2021)	Quantitative	RDD	Household	Survey and administrative data	6 months	Moderate
Araujo et al. (2020)	Quantitative	RCT and RDD	Individual	Survey data	Up to 10	Moderate
Attanasio et al. (2021)	Quantitative	RDD	Individual	Administrative data	Up to 8	Moderate
Avitabile et al. (2019)	Quantitative	RCT (ITT)	Individual	Surveys and census data	Up to 9	Low
Baez & Camacho (2011)	Quantitative	PSM+RDD	Individual and household	Survey and administrative data	Up to 9	Moderate
Baird et al. (2019)	Quantitative	RCT (ITT)	Individual	Survey data	2 years	Low
Bandiera et al. (2017)	Quantitative	DID+ANOVA	Individual and household	Survey data	Up to 7	Moderate
Banerjee et al. (2015)	Quantitative	RCT (ITT)	Individual and household	Survey data	Up to 2	Low
Banerjee et al. (2021)	Quantitative	RCT (ITT)	Individual and household	Survey data	Up to 10	Low
Barham et al. (2018)	Quantitative	RCT (ITT)	Individual	Survey and administrative data	Up to 10	Low
Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	Quantitative	RCT	Individual	Survey and administrative data	Up to 11	Low
Blattman et al. (2020)	Quantitative	RCT (ITT)	Individual	Survey data	9 years	Low
Borga & D'Ambrosio (2021)	Quantitative	DiD	Household	Survey data	Up to 10	Moderate
Contreras Suarez & Cameron (2020)	Quantitative	RDD	Household	Survey data	Up to 9	Moderate
de Mel et al. (2012)	Quantitative	RCT	Enterprise	Survey data	Up to 5	Low
Duque et al. (2018)	Quantitative	RDD	Individual	Administrative data	Uo to 15	Moderate
Fafchamps et al. (2014)	Quantitative	RCT (OLS)	Enterprise	Survey data	Up to 3	Low
Filmer & Schady (2014)	Quantitative	RDD	Individual	Survey data	2 years	Moderate
Hahn et al. (2018)	Quantitative	DiD	Individual	Administrative data	Up to 17	Moderate
Ham & Michelson (2018)	Quantitative	DiD	Individual	Survey and administrative data	Up to 13	Moderate
Haushofer & Shapiro (2018)	Quantitative	RCT	Household	Survey data	Up to 3	Low
Kugler & Rojas (2018)	Quantitative	PSM	Individual	Survey and administrative data	Up to 17	Serious
Macours et al. (2012a)	Quantitative	RCT	Individual and household	Survey data	2 years, on average	Low
Macours et al. (2012b)	Quantitative	RCT(ITT)	Individual and household	Survey data	2 years, on average	Low

Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Quantitative	RCT (ITT)	Individual	Census data	Up to 13	Low
Neidhöfer & Niño-Zarazúa (2019)	Quantitative	DiD	Household	Administrative data	Up to 10	Moderate
Oliveira & Chagas (2020)	Quantitative	RCT	Individual	Administrative data	Up to 16	Low
Özler et al. (2020)	Quantitative	RCT	Individual	Survey and census data	Up to 2	Low
Parker & Vogl (2018)	Quantitative	DiD	Individual	Census data	Up to 13	Moderate
Price & Song (2016)	Quantitative	RCT	Individual	Administrative data	More than 30	Low
Rodriguez-Oreggia & Freije (2012)	Quantitative	RCT	Household	Survey and administrative data	Up to 6	Medium
Roy et al. (2019)	Quantitative	RCT (ITT)	Individual	Survey data	6 to 10 months	Low
Sabates et al. (2019)	Quantitative	PSM	Individual and household	Survey data	Up to 2	Serious
Sabates-Wheeler et al. (2018)	Quantitative	DiD	Household	Survey data	Up to 2	Serious
Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	Quantitative	DiD	Individual and business	Survey data	27 months, on average	Moderate
Stoeffler et al. (2020)	Quantitative	DiD+PSM	Household	Survey data	18 months	Serious

Legend: RCT = Randomized Controlled Trial; RDD = Regression Discontinuity Design; DiD = Difference-in-differences; ITT = Intention-to-treat; PSM = Propensity Score Matching; ANOVA = Analysis of variance; OLS = Ordinary least squares. Risk-of-bias attributed following the RoB 2 or ROBINS-I tools, for experimental and quasi-experimental evidence, respectively (Higgins et al., 2021).

Table 6.1. Effect direction plot, per included source. *Source:* elaborated by the author.

Outcome	*Indicator*	*Number of coefficients (total = 439)*	*Number of studies*	Aizer et al. (2016)	Alam et al. (2011)	Altındağ & O' Connell (2021)	Araujo et al. (2020)	Attanasio et al. (2021)	Avitabile et al. (2019)	Baez & Camacho (2011)	Baird et al. (2019)	Bandiera et al. (2017)	Banerjee et al. (2015)	Banerjee et al. (2021)	Barham et al. (2018)	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	Blattman et al. (2020)	Borga & D'Ambrosio (2021)	Contreras Suarez & Cameron (2020)	de Mel et al. (2012)	Duque et al. (2018)
Education	Cognitive and test scores	**19**	**10**				▽		▼3	▼	▲2				◁▷2	Δ5					
	School attainment and literacy	**75**	**25**	Δ3	▽4		Δ3	▲2	Δ	▲2	▲2				▲2	Δ11	▽2	▽2	◁▷2		Δ
	Tertiary education	**22**	**5**					◁▷2								Δ15					
Health and nutrition	Health status	**17**	**8**	Δ5		Δ							Δ2	▲2	Δ		▽2				
	Life expectancy	**6**	**3**	▲4													Δ				
	Food security and nutrition	**13**	**10**			Δ			▲				▲	▲				Δ			
	Child health	**31**	**8**			Δ			▽4		Δ10						Δ				
Employment	Work status, labour supply and employment	**54**	**13**									▲2	▲		▲		◁▷3				
	Income and earnings	**56**	**18**	▲								▲	▲	▲	▲2		Δ			Δ8	
	Child labour	**11**	**5**		◁▷2		▽		▲												
	Migration and geographic mobility	**12**	**4**												▽						
Poverty	Expenditures and consumption	**16**	**9**			▽						▲	▲	▲			Δ2				
	Living standards	**16**	**6**			◁▷6						▲						▲4			
Savings, investment and production	Savings	**6**	**5**			▽						▲									
	Investment	**7**	**5**									▲2	▲	Δ2					▽		
	Assets	**20**	**9**									▲2	▲	▲							
Empowerment	Early pregnancy and marriage	**34**	**7**		Δ4			▼			▽12						◁▷2				
	Decision-making power	**11**	**4**										Δ								
	Abuse (physical and non-physical)	**8**	**3**																		
Social capital and agency		**5**	**4**					▲					▲								

Legend:
Effect direction (shape): Δ *= positive impact,* ▽ *= negative impact,* ◁▷ *= conflicting findings*
Statistical significance (colour): ▲ *= p ≤ 0.05;* ▲ *= p > 0.05;* Δ *(empty arrow) = overall not statistically significant*
The number of outcomes within each category synthesis is one unless indicated in subscript beside effect direction.
Synthesis of multiple outcomes within same outcome category:

- *Where multiple outcomes all report effects in the same direction and with the same level of statistical significance, the effect direction and overall level of statistical significance are reported;*
- *Where direction of effect varies across multiple outcomes:*
  - *When the direction of effect and statistical significance of at least 70% of outcomes are the same, similar direction and similar statistical significance are reported;*
  - *If <70% of outcomes report consistent direction of effect, indicated as conflicting findings;*
- *Where statistical significance varies: if direction of effect similar and >60% outcomes statistically significant, reported as statistically significant. Otherwise, not statistically significant.*

Procedure adapted from Thomson and Thomas (2013).

Table 6.2. Effect direction plot, per included source. *Source:* elaborated by the author.

Outcome	*Indicator*	Fafchamps et al. (2014)	Filmer & Schady (2014)	Hahn et al. (2018)	Ham & Michelson (2018)	Haushofer & Shapiro (2018)	Kugler & Rojas (2018)	Macours et al. (2012a)	Macours et al. (2012b)	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Neidhöfer & Niño-Zarazúa (2019)	Oliveira & Chagas (2020)	Özler et al. (2020)	Parker & Vogl (2018)	Price & Song (2016)	Rodriguez-Oreggia & Freije (2012)	Roy et al. (2019)	Sabates et al. (2019)	Sabates-Wheeler et al. (2018)	Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	Stoeffler et al. (2020)
Education	Cognitive and test scores		Δ						▲	▲2										∇	
	School attainment and literacy		Δ3	▲4	▲2	Δ	▲2			▲10	▲	▲4	Δ	▲6				∇2		Δ2	
	Tertiary education						▲			▲2				Δ2							
Health and nutrition	Health status					∇2														Δ2	
	Life expectancy														∇						
	Food security and nutrition					∇		▲3	▲										▲	Δ2	
	Child health		▼	Δ8					▲4				Δ2								
Employment	Work status, labour supply and employment			Δ8	Δ3		▲4			∇10		▲4		Δ6		Δ6	◁▷2			Δ4	
	Income and earnings	Δ				Δ	▲	◁▷18		◁▷2	▲	▼4		Δ4	∇4	∇3				◁▷2	
	Child labour		◁▷6																	Δ	
	Migration and geographic mobility									∇2				◁▷6		◁▷3					
Poverty	Expenditures and consumption					Δ		Δ6										▲		◁▷2	
	Living standards		Δ2											▲2							Δ
Savings, investment and production	Savings			▲2																Δ	▲
	Investment																			∇	
	Assets					▲		◁▷6						Δ2					▲2	▲2	Δ3
Empowerment	Early pregnancy and marriage		Δ2	▼8						Δ4											
	Decision-making power			◁▷6									▲2				Δ2				
	Abuse (physical and non-physical)					▼							∇				◁▷6				
Social capital and agency														Δ						◁▷2	

Legend:
Effect direction (shape): Δ = positive impact, ∇ = negative impact, ◁▷ = conflicting findings
Statistical significance (colour): ▲ = $p \leq 0.05$; ▲ = $p > 0.05$; Δ (empty arrow) = overall not statistically significant
The number of outcomes within each category synthesis is one unless indicated in subscript beside effect direction.
Synthesis of multiple outcomes within same outcome category:

- *Where multiple outcomes all report effects in the same direction and with the same level of statistical significance, the effect direction and overall level of statistical significance are reported;*
- *Where direction of effect varies across multiple outcomes:*
  - *When the direction of effect and statistical significance of at least 70% of outcomes are the same, similar direction and similar statistical significance are reported;*
  - *If <70% of outcomes report consistent direction of effect, indicated as conflicting findings;*
- *Where statistical significance varies: if direction of effect similar and >60% outcomes statistically significant, reported as statistically significant. Otherwise, not statistically significant.*

Procedure adapted from Thomson and Thomas (2013).

Table 7. Main findings and sampling information for each study under review. *Source:* elaborated by the author.

Study	***Sampling information***	***Findings***	***Availability of disaggregated findings and general comments***
Aizer et al. (2016)	Not available	The authors conclude that, three decades after its inception, the Mothers' Pension program, the first governmental welfare project in the USA (1911-1935), had overall positive effects on male children of accepted applicants. In particular, the grown-up children later had longer life expectancy (computed through the probability of having survived until 60, 70 or 80 years old; and longevity, even though only the former group's coefficients were statistically significant), had attended more years of school (significant at 10%; and were also less likely to attend only 8 years of school) and had had better education, overall. Moreover, they had earned more than their counterparts (at 10%). In addition, they were less likely to be underweight (at 10%), taller, heavier and had better BMI, but they were also more likely to be obese. Overall, nevertheless, the impacts on health were also positive. Female children were not examined because given that they typically change their name upon marriage, they were extremely difficult to track.	Findings for male (not female) children of beneficiary mothers only. Impacts are also disaggregated on the basis of the initial (predicted) family income
Alam et al. (2011)	Not available	Up to 5 years after receiving the Pakistani Punjab Female Stipend Program, a female-targeted conditional cash transfer, beneficiary young girls were more likely to complete middle school (even if the related coefficient was not statistically significant), but less prone to transit to high school, and to complete the highest grades of it (in particular, that was statistically significant at 5% for grade 10). Nevertheless, they were still working less than control individuals (significant at 5%), although their work intensity was positively affected by the transfer. Finally, the impacts on empowerment were overall negative (without any significant coefficient), with an increase in the probability of getting married and in the number of children and a decrease in the age at marriage, only partially counteracted by a decline in the probability of giving birth. In general, however, the drawn positive effects could potentially translate in human capital accumulation gains.	Program for young girls only. Heterogeneity analysis of impacts conducted for the following groups: rural setting, poverty status, parental education (none/primary), age (12-14/15-16). Spillovers on boys are also presented
Altındağ & O'Connell (2021)	Not available	The multipurpose cash arm of the CT did not have any (statistically significant) lasting impact on any of the analysed outcomes six months after the end of exposure. Overall, nevertheless, the program had negative effects on expenditure per capita, while positive consequences on child and adult health and food coping and mixed effects on living standards (measured, amongst others, by rent expenditure and whether having faced eviction or not, recently). Finally, a slightly negative treatment coefficient on savings was also computed.	Impacts on expenditure per capita, child hardship, adverse health, food coping and livelihood coping also available by previous assistance status
Araujo et al. (2020)	Not available	Evidence on the long-term (10-year) effects of the *Bono de Desarrollo Humano* (BDH) transfer in Ecuador was provided, finding positive impacts on being enrolled, having completed elementary and secondary school, even though only the latter's coefficient was statistically significant (at 1%). Despite statistically not significant, a decline in child labour was also computed, together with a decrease in total scores. The authors conclude that any effect of cash transfers on the intergenerational transmission of poverty in Ecuador is likely to be modest.	RCT coefficients differentiated by child age, gender and educational status of the mother, besides by subject for which the scores are considered. RDD coefficients are also available by gender
Attanasio et al. (2021)	Sample restricted to families with children aged between 7 and 17 in 2007	The long-run impacts of the urban version of *Familias en Acción* show a reduction in men's crime (arrest rates) of 2.7pp (significant at 5%) and a decline in teenage pregnancy of 2.3pp (at 5%, too). School dropout did also decrease in a statistically significant matter for both genders. The effects on tertiary education were, instead, unclear: whereas men benefitted from the program (significantly, at 10%), the same could not be stated for women.	Overall treatment coefficients not available, only disaggregated by gender. Effects on crime were measured for men only, on teenage pregnancy for women only. Impacts on school dropout and tertiary education disaggregated by gender. LATE (Local Average Treatment Effect) coefficients also available, alongside ITT (Intention-to-treat) estimates
Avitabile et al. (2019)	33 households selected from each of experimental villages	The paper focuses on the medium-term effects of early-life transfers (in this case, the Mexican *Programa de Apoyo Alimentario*) on children's learning. First, it finds that cash transfers led to statistically significant (at at least 10%) reductions in test scores (in math, Spanish and a third subject), but also to positive (although insignificant) repercussions on school attainment, measured through an index of parental investments in education. The effects on child health were also negative, overall, with non-significant reductions in height-for-age and weight-for-age z-scores and an increase in recent sickness, despite the declines in anemia. Nevertheless, food security and nutrition improved, as a positive and significant (at 10%) coefficient on macro and micro-nutrients was estimated. Finally, the average number of working days per week, per children, also increased by more than 1 day (significance at 5%), conveying a negative impact on child labour. Overall, the findings provide compelling evidence that an improvement in the quality of nutrition intake, in the first years of life, is not sufficient to achieve better learning outcomes, without improvements in the health stock.	Impacts on learning by household expenditure and by indigenous ethnicity also available
Baez & Camacho (2011)	Matching analysis: 6,722 households in 57 treatment municipalities and 4,562 households in 9 control municipalities, using purposive sampling. Not available for RDD	The paper measures statistically significant (at 5%) effects on school completion, both through PSM and RDD, but negative treatment effects on overall test scores (computed through RDD and significant at 1%). The positive results on educational outcomes were particularly high for girls and beneficiaries from rural areas, concerning the likelihood to finish high school.	Estimates also available by gender and by urban/rural setting. Test score coefficients are also presented for mathematics and Spanish languages, besides overall
Baird et al. (2019)	It was given an attempt to interview all involved individuals	Two years after the end of a cash transfer (both UCT and CCT) program targeted at adolescent females in Malawi, the authors found sustained (even if not statistically significant) improvements in school attainment (highest grade completed) and cognitive tests (competencies score). The statistical significance of the CT's positive impacts on HIV prevalence, pregnancy and early marriage,	The program was targeted at adolescent females only. The estimates are disaggregated by conditionality status, so

		observed during the program (only for UCT recipients), nevertheless, evaporated quickly after the cessation of support. Still, the program yielded sustainable reductions in early marriage and in HIV prevalence and increases on the age of the first marriage (interestingly, for the UCT arm only, even in a statistically significant manner at 5%). Across arms, conflicting findings were also registered for early pregnancy and on the age at first birth, even though impacts were consistent on an indicator of desired fertility. Finally, concerning child health (represented by a z-score for height-for-age), effects were generally positive, with the exception of UCT recipients, when they had a child late into or just outside of the program timeframe. The latter finding demonstrates the importance of receiving cash during critical periods.	not available overall. Coefficients for baseline schoolgirls included in this source, while effects on baseline dropout were excluded
Bandiera et al. (2017)	Almost all ultra-poor and near-poor households, and a random 10% sample of higher wealth classes, were interviewed. A total of 21,000 households in 1,309 villages was covered	The article investigates the long-term effects of BRAC's Targeting-the-Ultra-Poor (TUP) transfer in Bangladesh, a skills and asset transfer. The TUP program enabled ultra-poor women to dramatically expand labour supply (more hours and days, significant at 1%) and earnings (at 1%), the value of assets, both household and productive ones (at least at 10%), savings (at 1%) and investment (measured through dummies for receiving and giving out loans, both statistically significant at 1%). As a result, household poverty decreased, with improvements in consumption expenditures (at 5%) and significant steps above the multidimensional poverty line (at 5%). The effects grew in the short term, before becoming sustained and stabilizing 7 years after the start of the program. However, given the multiple different components of the TUP transfer, it is difficult to disaggregate the contributions of each of them, and to therefore unleash the observed process of change.	Program for ultra-poor women only. Some estimates are available at 7 years after the end of the program, some after 4. A medium-term measurement at 2 years is also available, but not reported by this source
Banerjee et al. (2015)	Different sampling techniques, based on country	The authors follow a pilot multifaceted Graduation program in Ethiopia, Ghana, Honduras, India, Pakistan and Peru. The programs in Ethiopia and Honduras were food-for-work ones, but treatment coefficients are only provided overall, so it was not possible to isolate their effects from the ones of countries which did include a cash component. Two years after the end of the program, Impacts are measured also one year after the transfer, recipients showed strong and sustained treatment effects on 10 indexes: per capita consumption, food security, physical health, mental health, asset, financial inclusion (categorized as investment), time spent working, income and revenues, political involvement (meetings with local leaders, described as a social capital indicator) and women's empowerment (mainly relying on decision-making power variables). All presented coefficients were positive and statistically significant at 1%, with the exception of the ones for physical health and women's empowerment, which were not significant.	General treatment effect coefficients are provided, without country-level disaggregations (the latter, still available visually). The transfers in Ethiopia and Honduras were food-for-work programs, but it was not possible to isolate them and to disaggregate the effects for cash transfer projects only. Estimates also available by indexed family wealth quantiles
Banerjee et al. (2021)	It was given an attempt at interviewing all involved households	In a RCT following households over ten years, the beneficiaries of an Indian TUP program were shown to be still experiencing strongly positive and statistically significant impacts on indexes of consumption, food security, income and revenues, assets, investment (described through indicators of financial inclusion and of productive time use) and health (both physical and mental). The only coefficient not statistically significant at 1% (and not significant at all, actually) was the financial inclusion one. The effects grew for the first seven years following the transfer and persisted then up until year ten. One of the main mechanisms for impact persistence is explained as the treated households' income diversifying strategies, especially through migration.	Only the coefficients at 10 years were presented, leaving out the (available) ones for sustained effects 18 months, 3 years and 7 years after the transfer
Barham et al. (2018)	The survey sample included 42 households for each of the treatment localities, and 40 households for each of the 21 selected control municipalities	This source, evaluating the long-run effects (10 years after the start of the program) of the RPS in Nicaragua, measured significant (at 5%) and substantial gains both in school attainment (through an education z-score) and in literacy, while more mixed findings on cognitive and test scores, with better language and math achievements (at 5%) but worse (even if statistically insignificant) cognition outcomes. Strongly positive and statistically significant (at 1%) sustained effects were also measured on earnings (through two different z-scores) and labour market participation, whereas slight impacts on health status (socio-emotional z-score, positive) and migration (permanent migration, negative and therefore positive) were not statistically significant in the long-term.	Disaggregated findings on the basis of household income, age, marriage status and fertility, early treatment density and family network size also available
Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	Not available	A paper investigating the pilot CCT *Subsidios Condicionados a la Asistencia Escolar* (SED), conducted in Bogotá, found improved educational outcomes (enrolment in secondary school, dropout rates, tertiary enrolment and completion) 8 and 12 years after the transfer. Interestingly, the study also found substantial differences between three different implementation designs methods that were experimented by the program: Forcing families to save a portion of the transfers until they make enrollment decisions for the next academic year increases on-time enrollment in secondary school, reduces dropout rates, and promotes tertiary enrollment and completion in the long-term. Traditionally structured bimonthly transfers improve on-time enrollment and high school exit exam completion rates in the medium term, but do not affect long-term tertiary outcomes. A delayed transfer that directly incentivizes tertiary enrollment promotes secondary school on-time enrollment and enrollment— only in lower-quality tertiary institutions—in the medium term but not the long term. Almost all coefficients were positive, even though only a few were statistically significant, and only for the second and third treatment arms.	Impacts only available by treatment modality, not overall. Estimates also available by age group and by institution type
Blattman et al. (2020)	5 people were randomly sampled per each enterprise (2,677 individuals, in total) for the baseline survey	An investigation around the long-term impacts of the lump-sum entrepreneurship transfer YOP in Uganda (Blattman et al., 2020) found that the positive effects on employment, earnings and investment previously measured, had dissipated, 9 years after the start of the program. In general, the authors only computed non-statistically significant coefficients, among which, a positive impact on a standardized income index, mixed effects on labour supply and a slight decrease in the probability that the recipient had passed away (but negative consequences on physical and mental health). Child health improved but not in a significant manner, whereas results on early pregnancy were inconclusive. The measured negative impacts on school attainment were partly counteracted by decreased in poverty, measured as child expenditures (in general, and for schooling).	
Borga & D'Ambrosio (2021)	Semi-purposive random sampling based on poverty maps and geographical criteria	The paper investigates the impact of three large-scale social-protection schemes in Ethiopia, India, and Peru (being a social cash transfer in the latter country only, though), on multidimensional poverty. Both the incidence and intensity of multidimensional poverty declined (statistically significant at 1% for three of the four adopted indicators) in all countries over the period 2006-2016. In particular, the living standard indexes captured positive impacts on asset formation, livestock and resources. In addition, a slightly positive but not	Multidimensional poverty indicators are available at 3 different time points (2009, 2013 and 2016). The presented impacts are average effects over all waves

		statistically significant impact on nutrition was observed, together with surprisingly negative effects on school enrolment (not significant) and school attendance (significant at 1%).	
Contreras Suarez & Cameron (2020)	Not available	Using a regression discontinuity (RD) design, it was found that, up to 9 years after exiting the program, participation in *Familias en Acción* had negative, but insignificant, impacts on parents' discounting behaviour (categorized as investment). Effects on parents' educational aspirations for their children were, on the contrary, mixed: positive and insignificant for secondary school, while, interestingly, strongly negative and statistically significant (at 5%) for higher education.	Coefficients by urban/rural setting also available
de Mel et al. (2012)	Not available	A randomized experiment around enterprise grants in urban Sri Lanka showed, between 4.5 and 5.5 years after receiving the lump-sum transfers, $8-to-$12-per-month-higher profits for male-owned businesses, while, interestingly, female-owned businesses showed no long-term (or even short-term) impacts. All estimated coefficients were positive, but, in fact, only statistically significant for men (in terms of monthly and log real profits, truncated real profits and total labour income, at least at the 5% significance level).	The impacts are only available by gender
Duque et al. (2018)	Not available	The authors show evidence on the potential sustained impacts of *Familias en Acción* on alleviating early-life shocks. In particular, through a regression discontinuity design, a positive (but not statistically significant) effect on not dropping out of school was computed for children aged 0 to 17. The other numerous findings of the paper, including combining exposure to climate shocks and CCT beneficiary status, and differentiating impacts by early or late exposure to the cash transfer during the first years of life, were left out from this source.	Impacts derived from interactions of exposure to weather shocks and cash transfer transfer also available
Fafchamps et al. (2014)	All 793 involved firms were surveyed at baseline	Up to 3 years after the start of a business grant for female entrepreneurs in Ghana, no long-term impacts on real monthly profit was found. In fact, the related estimated treatment coefficient was positive, but not statistically significant.	Gendered coefficients are also available, together with disaggregations by low/high initial profit (the latter, for women only)
Filmer & Schady (2014)	A composite dropout-risk score and individual characteristics' data were collected for all the 26,537 scholarship applicants. An household survey was also collected for 3,020 applicants selected through purposive sampling	Five years after the start of the implementation of the CESSP Scholarship in Cambodia, the authors found the scholarships to have had substantial positive effects on school attainment (statistically significant at 1% for years of completed schooling and for enrollment in grade 10, even though not significant on enrollment in grade 11). On the contrary, nevertheless, positive but insignificant impacts were measured on test scores, living standards (measured as subjective social status, both at the village/neighbourhood and at the national level) and early marriage or pregnancy. Interestingly, a strongly positive and significant coefficient was computed on the probability to be depressed (child health), whereas findings for child labour (monthly earnings, working for pay or not) were more mixed, with the only significant effect detected on hours worked for no pay, which was negative at 1%.	Coefficients on years of completed schooling and on average test scores are also presented by gender, school quality and drop-out risk-score at cutoff
Hahn et al. (2018)	Not available	The paper found overwhelmingly positive impacts of the FSSSP program in Bangladesh: girls who received it were more likely to get married later and have fewer children (and to have the first child later and to desire less children, all statistically significant at 1%), to work in the formal sector (suggesting potential for intergenerational occupational mobility), but not to work in general (even though the latter coefficient was not significant). In addition, beneficiaries were much more likely to complete secondary school (at least at 10%) and to have longer education (at 1%), together with having a bank account (and, therefore, savings; at 1%). Estimates around intra-household decision-making were more mixed, with a reduction in the use of contraception, and inconsistent results on the degree to which the adopted contraception was observable by the husband. Finally, children of eligible women had better height- and weight-for-age scores (at 1%), more hemoglobin and less anemia (the latter two coefficients were not significant, though). The findings were rather consistent across treatment arms: one cohort received the stipend for 5 years, while the second one for 2 years only.	Program for young girls only. The coefficients are only presented for rural girls and are disaggregated by length of exposure. Treatment effects on characteristics of husband, also available, were not reported by this source
Ham & Michelson (2018)	Not available	The paper compared the efficacy of different delivering incentives added to the CCT PRAF II in Honduras: here, only results for the arm including cash (subsidies) were taken into account. It should still be said that, more than a decade after the start of the program, only a combination of 'plus' incentives led to measurable improvements in schooling and labour market participation. Indeed, strongly positive coefficients were computed for years of schooling (statistically significant at 1%) and having done at least some secondary studies (at 5%). Impacts on employment were positive for labour force participation, working outside of own's home and working in a non-farm job, but only statistically significant (at 5%) for the latter indicator.	Treatment coefficients for the voucher only treatment arm were excluded from this source: only estimates for the voucher+transfers group. A disaggregation by gender is also available
Haushofer & Shapiro (2018)	All involved 503 treatment and 505 control households were interviewed at baseline	Using a randomized controlled trial, the authors found that transfer recipients had higher levels of non-land asset holdings (statistically significant at 1%), non-durable expenditure and consumption (not significant), monthly revenues (not significant), female empowerment (modelled as degree of abuse; statistically significant at 10%) and school attainment (not significant). Even if insignificant, nevertheless, negative effects were recorded on indexes of food security, health and psychological well-being (hereby categorized as an indicator of health status). Little evidence was found of differential treatment effects on the basis of the CT design (whether transfers were made to men or women, in monthly payments or a single lump-sum, or a large or small transfer).	Reported coefficients are across-village estimates, which relied on pure control households. Within-village effects, calculated by using control households in treatment villages, were instead not listed. The source also provides disaggregations by whether transfers are made men or women, in monthly payments or a single lump-sum, or a large or small transfer
Kugler & Rojas (2018)	Not available	A source analysing the impacts of *PROGRESA* measured positive effects of the exposure to the program on education (years of education, likelihood of completing high school and of studying tertiary education; the average youth exposed to 7 years of *PROGRESA* had almost 3 additional years of education, compared to someone who was never exposed; all statistically significant at 1%) and on employment (weekly worked hours, probability of being employed, non-wage benefits and earnings; all significant at least at the 10% significance level).	Disaggregation of coefficients by age and gender, and by mother's literacy and father's employment status, also available
Macours et al. (2012a)	The sample includes all the 3,002 eligible households in the	The *Atención a Crisis* program was a one-year pilot implemented between November 2005 and December 2006 by the Ministry of the Family in Nicaragua. The program was implemented in the aftermath of a severe drought and had two objectives. First, it aimed to serve	The impacts are only available by treatment modality. Coefficients on total

	treatment communities, and a random sample of 1,019 eligible households in the control communities	as a short-run safety net by providing cash transfers to reduce the need for adverse coping mechanisms. Second, the program intended to promote long run upward mobility and poverty reduction by enhancing households' income diversification and risk-management capacity. Based on follow-up data collected two years after the end of *Atención a Crisis*, a program implemented in the aftermath of a severe drought in Nicaragua, the authors proved that complementary interventions reduced the variability of consumption and income. In fact, results differed significantly among beneficiaries eligible for the productive grant offsets, those receiving cash and training, and the ones benefitting from the basic CCT only, with mainly the former group only indicating strongly positive and statistically significant effects. In general, positive impacts were measured on food security, consumption and non-food expenditures, whereas findings for income and profits and for assets were more mixed.	consumption per capita and capital income also available by intensity of climate shocks
Macours et al. (2012b)	The sample includes all the 3,002 eligible households in the treatment communities, and a random sample of 1,019 eligible households in the control communities	This paper analyses the impact of Atención a Crisis on early childhood cognitive development. Children in eligible households had very strongly positive and significant at 1% levels of development nine months after the start of program implementation, without fade-out two years after the end of exposure to cash. In fact, all of the child health indicators taken into account showed positive impacts (health and motor development, stimulus, health and environment indexes). Similar findings were also shown for indexes of nutrition (significant at 5%) and cognitive and socio-emotional outcomes (1%). The obtained insights provide confirmations for the hypotheses that eligible households increased expenditures on critical inputs for child development, including nutrient-rich foods and preventive health care. The program then also appeared to have caused behavioural changes, persisting after program end, even if with lower magnitude than before.	
Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Not available	The paper investigates the impacts of the PRAF II transfer in Honduras on educational and human capital, 13 years after the program began for individuals who received the transfer over a 5-year period (2000-2005). The impacts were estimated across age groups and gender (amongst other characteristics): hereby, we decided to focus on beneficiaries aged 19 to 26 at the time of the analysis. The authors found positive and robust impacts on educational outcomes (such as secondary school completion rates, grades attained and university enrolment, all of them with statistically significant). The effects on early pregnancy and marriage were mixed, with negative impacts on being married (but only for women): the overall negative direction of coefficients was driven by positive, albeit not statistically significant, consequences on household size. The probability of young people to migrate decreased, even if insignificantly. The overall negative effects on work status and labour market participation could also be seen through a positive lens, in light of the positive effects on school completion and university studies. Finally, interestingly, monthly incomes statistically decreased for women, while increasing (even if insignificantly) for men of the same age. Overall, it could be stated that both early childhood and school-age years' exposures to the CCT led to sustained long-term effects on human capital.	Coefficients not available overall, but always disaggregated by age group, indigenous status and gender. A selection of coefficients (men and women, 19-26 years old at the time of measurement) is reported by this source
Neidhöfer & Niño-Zarazúa (2019)	Not available	A non-experimental study on *Chile Solidario* measured the long-term (up to 10 years later) effects of the program on educational achievements and labour income at the ages of 25 to 28. The estimated coefficients were positive and statistically significant at 1%. The average treatment effects were in the order of about 1.2 years of schooling and an additional US$200–$250 in labour income per month (at that time, 15% of the Chilean average). Interestingly, the impacts on schooling were similar among genders, but the one on income was largely driven by men. In summary, the findings show that *Chile Solidario*, and in particular its SUF arm, had positive and sustained effects among the extremely poor in the country.	DiD coefficients merged with matching or RDD techniques also available. The heterogeneity of impacts includes disaggregations by urban/rural setting, indigenous/non-indigenous origin and gender. Within the female group, differentiations were also carried out among women married or in a relationship, and single ones; and among mothers and women without biological children
Oliveira & Chagas (2020)	Not available	This study on the *Bolsa Família* CCT found positive long-term effects on proxies for schooling and formal labour market participation, while, interestingly, negative results were obtained concerning earnings in the formal labour market itself. The impacts were all strong and statistically significant at least at 5% for all of the four levels of exposure described. Furthermore, heterogeneity tests suggested that the effects were larger for boys, in smaller cities, and for parents with never formally employed parents.	The impacts are only available by amount level of transfers, not overall. An heterogeneity of impacts is conducted across genders, settings and parents' employment status
Özler et al. (2020)	Not available	Girl Empower was an intervention aimed at equipping adolescent girls (13-14 years old) with the skills to make healthy, strategic life choices and to stay safe from sexual abuse. Hereby, only the treatment arm which integrated life skills with a cash incentive was considered. Using a cluster-randomized controlled trial, at 24 months, the authors found a decrease in sexual and physical violence (even if not statistically significant) but an improvement in girl's decision-making power (described through indexes of gender attitudes and life skills, both significant at 1%). In addition, proxies of social capital (protective factors and gender norms) and schooling also showed increases, even if insignificant. Finally, the impacts on child health, measured as sexual and reproductive health and as psychological wellbeing, were overall positive, but only statistically significant (strongly, at 1%) for the former.	Program for young girls only
Parker & Vogl (2018)	A 10 percent sample was taken from the Mexican Population Census of 2010	More evidence on *PROGRESA* comes from a quasi-experiment conducted by Parker and Vogl (2018), which found that childhood exposure improved women's outcomes in early adulthood, with increases in geographic mobility, labour market performance, educational attainment and household living standards. For men, effects were generally smaller and more difficult to distinguish from spatial convergence. Summarizing the results, an improvement was measured on school attainment (for both sexes and on the wide majority of the indicators on years of education and completion of different grades, at least at the 10% significance level) and on tertiary education, even if insignificant. Proxies of working and working for a wage were always positive, even if only significant (at 1%) for women, whereas mixed findings were drawn for agricultural work. Monthly earnings increased for both genders at the individual and household levels, but never in a statistically significant manner. Migration was also made more possible, statistically at the cross-	The impacts are only available by gender

		municipality and cross-state levels, while not significantly at the inter-state one. An index of durable goods and assets also saw positive impacts, but significantly (at 10%) for men only; at the same time, living standards improved very significantly for both genders.	
Price & Song (2016)	Not available	After almost four decades, the authors investigate the long-term impacts of cash assistance for beneficiaries and their children by following up participants in the Seattle-Denver Income Maintenance Experiment. Interestingly and surprisingly, the treatment status caused adults to earn an average of $1,800 less per year after the experiment ended. Nevertheless, the latter effect was mostly driven by people in their 50s, suggesting that it could be related by retirement. Similar impacts were also measured on children of beneficiaries, even if in a not statistically significant way. Finally, the probability of recipient adults to having died by the time of measurement increased, but slightly and insignificantly.	The effects are differentiated between having been an adult, while receiving the transfers, or having been younger than 18
Rodriguez-Oreggia & Freije (2012)	All households, both eligible and non-eligible, were interviewed	Studying the labour market long-term (10 years after the implementation, up to 6 after end of exposure) effects of *PROGRESA*, the source showed very little evidence of impacts on employment (proxied as the probability of working and moving to a more qualified occupation), wages (negative, mostly insignificant coefficients except, interestingly, for exposure of at least 6 years: at 5%) or migration (mixed insignificant findings) on treated individuals. All of the variables were disaggregated by length of exposure to the program.	The coefficients are disaggregated by length of exposure. Impacts also available by gender and by educational level
Roy et al. (2019)	It was given an attempt to interview all 5,000 involved households	The authors assess rather short-term (6 to 10 months after the transfer) impacts on (mostly) intime partner violence for a women-targeted CT in Bangladesh. The impacts were differentiated by treatment modality: cash or food (the latter excluded from this analysis), with or without nutrition behaviour change communication. The estimates provided evidence of inconclusive (and statistically insignificant, except for physical violence on cash+ beneficiaries) findings on emotional and physical abuse. Coefficients for decision-making, described as control over the received money, returned positive impacts, albeit only statistically significant (at 5%) for BCC-allocated individuals. Additionally, the probability that a woman would work only increased (and it statistically significantly did, at 5%) for the 'plus' arm, once again. In summary, the analysed mechanisms suggest sustained effects of the communication component on women's "threat points," men's social costs of violence, and household well-being.	The program was targeted at women only. Coefficients were disaggregated among treatment arms. Differentiations by characteristics of men and women are also available
Sabates et al. (2019)	Participative procedure selecting 800 beneficiaries from 31 villages, and 200 households from 23 villages as a control group	This independent evaluation of the Concern Worldwide Graduation Programme in Rwanda explores the short and medium-term (2 years after the end of the cash disbursement) effects on children of beneficiary households. The findings suggest that the program enabled poor families to overcome financial constraints and to allow them to invest in education (proxy of parental investment: proportion of children with a school uniform; positive and statistically significant impact at 1%). However, since school attendance already exceeded 80% at baseline, due to Rwanda's focus on universal access to basic education, the transfer proved itself unable to induce additional access to school: the two measured coefficients on school attendance (for children 7.-12 and 13-16 years old) were both negative, although not statistically significant.	
Sabates-Wheeler et al. (2018)	Participative procedure selecting 800 beneficiaries from 31 villages, and 200 households from 23 villages as a control group	2 years after the end of the cash transfer of the Rwandan Concern Worldwide Graduation Programme, the authors find sustained positive and highly significant (statistically, at 1%) impacts of the CT on food security, value of assets, and livestock assets expressed in Tropical Livestock units (TLUs). Through an heterogeneity analysis, furthermore, the paper explains how household characteristics (e.g., gender of the household head and labour availability) substantially affect the trajectories of change. The authors therefore conclude that certain types of households need longer exposure to a social assistance program, together with additional support (through local enabling factors) to graduate from it.	Heterogeneity analysis of impacts conducted across different beneficiary trajectories: recipients were sub-grouped into "improvers", "decliners" and "late improvers"
Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	Not available	Up to 27 months after the end of its cash component transfer, a study on the Village Enterprise Graduation Programme in Uganda found out that simplifying the integrated program tended to erode its impacts. In fact, enterprise program beneficiaries had significant positive effects on nutrition (at 1%), psychological outlook (1%), social conditions (a proxy of social capital; at 5%), total consumption (5%), total net aseets (1%) and total productive cash inflows (5%). The different estimates provided by transfer-only receiving beneficiaries, with the only statistically significant effect on assets (at 1%), led to overall conflicting findings on expenditures, earnings and social capital proxies. Nevertheless, in general, the program showed sustained positive impacts on school attainment, health status, food security, employment, savings and assets. On a less bright side, even if not significant, aggravations in cognitive and test scores, child labour and investments, were also recorded.	Effects are disaggregated by treatment arm
Stoeffler et al. (2020)	In each project village, 20 beneficiaries and 20 non-beneficiaries were randomly sampled, for a total of 2,000 households	In the paper, the authors examine whether small, regular cash transfers bundled with support of local tontines (informal rotating saving groups) had sustained consequences after project termination (18 months later), in a very poor setting of rural Niger. Through a non-experimental approach, the article suggests that the impacts on assets were positive, for all drawn indicators (livestock, value of livestock and assets owned) with the first two statistically significant at 5%. A positive effect at 5% on tontine participation was also computed, together with an insignificant improved on an index of housing quality. Overall, the results indicate that small regular CTs, coupled with enhanced saving mechanisms, can generate improved saving patterns and asset accumulation among the extreme poor.	

Table 8. Summary of treatment coefficients and risk-of-bias: Education outcome. *Source:* elaborated by the author.

Sustainability measurement (years after end of exposure)	***Program type***	***Risk-of-bias***	***Study***	***Variable***	***N***	***Range***	***Coefficient***	***SE***	***95% CI***
Cognitive and test scores									
Long term (up to 9)	UCT+	Low	Avitabile et al. (2019)	Test score (3rd subject)	10,432		-0.156*	0.080	(-0.236, -0.076)
Long term (up to 9)	UCT+	Low	Avitabile et al. (2019)	Test score (math)	11,006		-0.182**	0.086	(-0.278, -0.096)
Long term (up to 9)	UCT+	Low	Avitabile et al. (2019)	Test score (spanish)	11,006		-0.156*	0.093	(-0.249, -0.063)
Long term (up to 10)	CCT+	Low	Barham et al. (2018)	Cognition	906		-0.016	0.095	(-0.111, 0.079)
Long term (up to 10)	CCT+	Low	Barham et al. (2018)	Learning (math and spanish)	907		0.183**	0.070	(0.113, 0.253)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	Taking the ICFES exam, lower secondary (savings treatment)	6,586	0 to 1	0.001	0.013	(-0.012, 0.014)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	Taking the ICFES exam, lower secondary (transfers only)	6,586	0 to 1	0.020	0.014	(0.006, 0.034)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	Taking the ICFES exam, upper secondary (delayed transfers)	6,905	0 to 1	0.005	0.014	(-0.009, 0.019)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	Taking the ICFES exam, upper secondary (savings treatment)	6,905	0 to 1	0.028*	0.017	(0.011, 0.045)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	Taking the ICFES exam, upper secondary (transfers only)	6,905	0 to 1	0.021	0.016	(0.005, 0.037)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Grades attained (men, 19-26 years old)	64,663		0.351**	0.172	(0.179, 0.523)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Grades attained (women, 19-26 years old)	69,522		0.359**	0.163	(0.196, 0.522)
Long term (up to 9)	CCT+	Moderate	Baez & Camacho (2011)	Overall test scores (RDD)	17,031		-0.057***	0.009	(-0.066, -0.048)
Long term (up to 10)	UCT	Moderate	Araujo et al. (2020)	Total scores (RCT)	1,707		-0.071	0.083	(-0.154, 0.012)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT and CCT	Low	Baird et al. (2019)	Competencies score (CCT)	2,048		0.065	0.058	(0.007, 0.123)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT and CCT	Low	Baird et al. (2019)	Competencies score (UCT)	2,048		0.098	0.067	(0.031, 0.165)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012b)	Cognitive and socio-emotional outcomes	4,245		0.083***	0.029	(0.054, 0.112)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT	Moderate	Filmer & Schady (2014)	Test scores (average)	2,973		0.011	0.059	(-0.048, 0.070)

Medium term (27 months, on average)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	Repeated year (transfer programs)	6,497		0.878	0.090	(0.788, 0.968)
School attainment and literacy									
Long term (up to 3)	UCT	Low	Haushofer & Shapiro (2018)	Education index	1,129		0.090	0.090	(0.000, 0.180)
Long term (up to 9)	UCT+	Low	Avitabile et al. (2019)	Index of parental investment	283		0.343	0.319	(0.024, 0.662)
Long term (9 years)	Enterprise UCT	Low	Blattman et al. (2020)	Child age-adjusted educational attainment (6-24)	2,086		-0.012	0.037	(-0.049, 0.025)
Long term (9 years)	Enterprise UCT	Low	Blattman et al. (2020)	Mean of child enrollment	2,086		-0.016	0.013	(-0.029, -0.003)
Long term (up to 10)	CCT+	Low	Barham et al. (2018)	Education z-score	1,007		0.098**	0.043	(0.055, 0.141)
Long term (up to 10)	CCT+	Low	Barham et al. (2018)	Literacy (being able to read and write)	1,007	0 to 1	0.052**	0.021	(0.031, 0.073)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	Dropout (delayed transfers)	2,345	0 to 1	-0.036***	0.014	(-0.050, -0.022)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	Dropout (savings treatment)	9,937	0 to 1	-0.032***	0.010	(-0.042, -0.022)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	Dropout (transfers only)	9,937	0 to 1	-0.018	0.012	(-0.030, -0.006)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	Held back (delayed transfers)	2,345	0 to 1	0.005	0.009	(-0.004, 0.014)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	Held back (savings treatment)	9,937	0 to 1	-0.007	0.007	(-0.014, 0.000)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	Held back (transfers only)	9,937	0 to 1	-0.009	0.008	(-0.017, -0.001)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	On-time enrollment, lower secondary (savings treatment)	5,962	0 to 1	0.034***	0.012	(0.022, 0.046)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	On-time enrollment, lower secondary (transfers only)	5,962	0 to 1	0.035**	0.015	(0.020, 0.050)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	On-time enrollment, upper secondary (delayed transfers)	6,320	0 to 1	0.022*	0.012	(0.010, 0.034)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	On-time enrollment, upper secondary (savings treatment)	6,320	0 to 1	0.035***	0.013	(0.022, 0.048)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	On-time enrollment, upper secondary (transfers only)	6,320	0 to 1	0.004	0.017	(-0.013, 0.021)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Completed primary (men, 19-26 years old)	64,663	0 to 1	0.019	0.023	(-0.004, 0.042)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Completed primary (women, 19-26 years old)	69,522	0 to 1	0.035	0.023	(0.012, 0.058)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Completed secondary (men, 19-26 years old)	64,663	0 to 1	0.025**	0.011	(0.014, 0.036)

Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Completed secondary (women, 19-26 years old)	69,522	0 to 1	0.022**	0.011	(0.011, 0.033)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Currently enrolled (men, 19-26 years old)	64,663	0 to 1	0.024***	0.009	(0.015, 0.033)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Currently enrolled (women, 19-26 years old)	69,522	0 to 1	0.012	0.014	(-0.002, 0.026)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Four or more years of education (men, 19-26 years old)	64,663	0 to 1	0.043*	0.022	(0.021, 0.065)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Four or more years of education (women, 19-26 years old)	69,522	0 to 1	0.054***	0.017	(0.037, 0.071)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Full time student (men, 19-26 years old)	64,663	0 to 1	0.010**	0.005	(0.005, 0.015)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Full time student (women, 19-26 years old)	69,522	0 to 1	0.006	0.008	(-0.002, 0.014)
Long term (up to 16)	CCT+	Low	Oliveira & Chagas (2020)	Schooling level at 18 (BFP exposure high)	116,876	0 to 5	0.997***	0.040	(0.957, 1.037)
Long term (up to 16)	CCT+	Low	Oliveira & Chagas (2020)	Schooling level at 18 (BFP exposure low)	116,876	0 to 5	0.698***	0.035	(0.663, 0.733)
Long term (up to 16)	CCT+	Low	Oliveira & Chagas (2020)	Schooling level at 18 (BFP exposure medium)	116,876	0 to 5	1.075***	0.033	(1.042, 1.108)
Long term (up to 16)	CCT+	Low	Oliveira & Chagas (2020)	Schooling level at 18 (BFP exposure medium-low)	116,876	0 to 5	0.913***	0.033	(0.880, 0.946)
Long term (up to 30)	UCT	Low	Aizer et al. (2016)	Education	2,446		0.238	0.209	
Long term (up to 30)	UCT	Low	Aizer et al. (2016)	Has exactly 8 years of school	2,446	0 to 1	-0.036	0.032	
Long term (up to 30)	UCT	Low	Aizer et al. (2016)	Years of schooling	2,099		0.368*	0.197	(0.171, 0.565)
Long term (up to 5)	CCT	Moderate	Alam et al. (2011)	Grade 10 completion	12,831	0 to 1	-0.055**	0.025	(-0.080, 0.030)
Long term (up to 5)	CCT	Moderate	Alam et al. (2011)	Grade 9 completion	19,915	0 to 1	-0.015	0.022	(-0.037, 0.007)
Long term (up to 5)	CCT	Moderate	Alam et al. (2011)	Middle school completion	22,289		0.006	0.015	(-0.094, 0.021)
Long term (up to 5)	CCT	Moderate	Alam et al. (2011)	Middle to high school transition	22,237		-0.007	0.020	(-0.027, 0.013)
Long term (up to 8)	CCT+	Moderate	Attanasio et al. (2021)	School dropout (men)	82,647		-0.058***	0.017	(-0.075, -0.041)
Long term (up to 8)	CCT+	Moderate	Attanasio et al. (2021)	School dropout (women)	80,600		-0.058**	0.017	(-0.075, -0.041)
Long term (up to 9)	CCT+	Moderate	Baez & Camacho (2011)	School completion (PSM)	3,888	0 to 1	0.070**	0.021	(0.048, 0.091)
Long term (up to 9)	CCT+	Moderate	Baez & Camacho (2011)	School completion (RDD)	25,249	0 to 1	0.024**	0.011	(0.013, 0.035)

Long term (up to 9)	CCT+	Moderate	Contreras Suarez & Cameron (2020)	Parents' educational aspirations: higher education	3,877	0 to 100	-14.711**	6.339	(-21.050, -8.372)
Long term (up to 9)	CCT+	Moderate	Contreras Suarez & Cameron (2020)	Parents' educational aspirations: secondary school	3,945	0 to 100	1.502	4.316	(-2.814, 5.818)
Long term (up to 10)	UCT	Moderate	Araujo et al. (2020)	Completed elementary school	100,000	0 to 1	0.002	0.002	(0.000, 0.004)
Long term (up to 10)	UCT	Moderate	Araujo et al. (2020)	Completed secondary school	100,000	0 to 1	0.015***	0.006	(0.009, 0.021)
Long term (up to 10)	UCT	Moderate	Araujo et al. (2020)	Enrolled in school	100,000	0 to 1	0.005	0.005	(0.000, 0.010)
Long term (up to 10)	CCT+	Moderate	Borga & D'Ambrosio (2021)	School attendance	38,948		-0.223***	0.050	(-0.273, -0.183)
Long term (up to 10)	CCT+	Moderate	Borga & D'Ambrosio (2021)	School enrolment	37,994		-0.064	0.041	(-0.105, -0.023)
Long term (up to 10)	CCT+	Moderate	Neidhöfer & Niño-Zarazúa (2019)	Years of education	11,690		1.243***	0.355	(0.875, 1.598)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Ham & Michelson (2018)	At least some secondary studies	140	0 to 1	0.029**	0.014	(0.015, 0.043)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Ham & Michelson (2018)	Years of schooling	140		0.315***	0.111	(0.204, 0.426)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	At least some high (men)	299,906	0 to 1	0.034	0.038	(-0.004, 0.072)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	At least some high (women)	356,801	0 to 1	0.169***	0.032	(0.137, 0.201)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	At least some middle (men)	299,906	0 to 1	0.130***	0.043	(0.087, 0.173)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	At least some middle (women)	356,801	0 to 1	0.225***	0.039	(0.186, 0.264)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	Grades completed (men)	299,237		0.596*	0.315	(0.281, 0.911)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	Grades completed (women)	355,986		1.032***	0.309	(0.723, 1.341)
Long term (up to 15)	CCT+	Moderate	Duque et al. (2018)	No school drop-out (ages 0-17)	259,347	0 to 1	0.028	0.027	(0.001, 0.055)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Completion of secondary school (rural cohort 1: 5 years of transfers)	24,329	0 to 1	0.050***	0.011	(0.039, 0.061)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Completion of secondary school (rural cohort 2: 2 years of transfers)	24,329	0 to 1	0.025*	0.013	(0.012, 0.038)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Years of education (rural cohort 1: 5 years of transfers)	24,329		1.210***	0.089	(1.121, 1.299)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Years of education (rural cohort 2: 2 years of transfers)	24,329		0.666***	0.078	(0.588, 0.744)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT+	Serious	Kugler & Rojas (2018)	High school completion	14,491	0 to 1	0.029***	0.006	(0.023, 0.035)

Long term (up to 17)	CCT+	Serious	Kugler & Rojas (2018)	Years of education	14,437		0.531***	0.104	(0.427, 0.635)
Medium term (up to 2)	UCT+	Low	Özler et al. (2020)	Schooling index	1,175		0.054	0.057	(-0.003, 0.111)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT and CCT	Low	Baird et al. (2019)	Highest grade completed (CCT)	2,049		0.120	0.080	(0.040, 0.200)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT and CCT	Low	Baird et al. (2019)	Highest grade completed (UCT)	2,049		0.095	0.129	(-0.034, 0.224)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT	Moderate	Filmer & Schady (2014)	Enrollment 2008-2009 (grade 10)	2,973	0 to 1	0.081***	0.026	(0.055, 0.107)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT	Moderate	Filmer & Schady (2014)	Enrollment 2009-2010 (grade 11)	2,973	0 to 1	0.032	0.024	(0.008, 0.056)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT	Moderate	Filmer & Schady (2014)	Years of completed schooling	2,973		0.560***	0.101	(0.459, 0.661)
Medium term (27 months, on average)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	Enrolled in and attending school (transfer programs)	7,760		1.324**	0.162	(1.162, 1.486)
Medium term (27 months, on average)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	School days missed last month (transfer programs)	6,502	1 to 30	-0.227	0.156	(-0.383, -0.071)
Medium term (up to 2)	Graduation (UCT+)	Serious	Sabates et al. (2019)	School attendance (children 13-16 years old)	532	0 to 1	-0.074	0.077	(-0.151, 0.003)
Medium term (up to 2)	Graduation (UCT+)	Serious	Sabates et al. (2019)	School attendance (children 7-12 years old)	1,214	0 to 1	-0.052	0.047	(-0.099, -0.005)
Tertiary education									
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	On-time enrollment (tertiary education), lower secondary (savings treatment)	6,586	0 to 1	-0.010	0.011	(-0.021, 0.001)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	On-time enrollment (tertiary education), lower secondary (transfers only)	6,586	0 to 1	0.001	0.011	(-0.010, 0.012)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	On-time enrollment (tertiary education), upper secondary (delayed transfers)	6,905	0 to 1	0.032*	0.018	(0.014, 0.050)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	On-time enrollment (tertiary education), upper secondary (savings treatment)	6,905	0 to 1	0.039***	0.014	(0.025, 0.053)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	On-time enrollment (tertiary education), upper secondary (transfers only)	6,095	0 to 1	0.010	0.015	(-0.005, 0.025)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	Tertiary enrollment, lower secondary (savings treatment)	6,586	0 to 1	0.006	0.013	(-0.07, 0.019)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	Tertiary enrollment, lower secondary (transfers only)	6,586	0 to 1	0.012	0.013	(-0.001, 0.025)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	Tertiary enrollment, upper secondary (delayed transfers)	6,905	0 to 1	0.058***	0.021	(0.037, 0.079)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	Tertiary enrollment, upper secondary (savings treatment)	6,905	0 to 1	0.036**	0.014	(0.022, 0.050)

Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	Tertiary enrollment, upper secondary (transfers only)	6,095	0 to 1	0.007	0.016	(-0.009, 0.023)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	Tertiary graduation, lower secondary (savings treatment)	6,586	0 to 1	0.006	0.007	(-0.001, 0.013)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	Tertiary graduation, lower secondary (transfers only)	6,586	0 to 1	0.001	0.006	(0.000, 0.002)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	Tertiary graduation, upper secondary (delayed transfers)	6,586	0 to 1	0.011	0.014	(-0.003, 0.025)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	Tertiary graduation, upper secondary (savings treatment)	6,586	0 to 1	0.019*	0.011	(0.008, 0.030)
Long term (up to 11)	CCT	Low	Barrera-Osorio et al. (2019)	Tertiary graduation, upper secondary (transfers only)	6,586	0 to 1	0.016*	0.010	(0.006, 0.026)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	University studies (men, 19-26 years old)	64,663	0 to 1	0.011***	0.003	(0.008, 0.014)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	University studies (women, 19-26 years old)	69,522	0 to 1	0.011**	0.005	(0.006, 0.016)
Long term (up to 8)	CCT+	Moderate	Attanasio et al. (2021)	Tertiary education (men)	82,647		0.017*	0.009	(0.008, 0.026)
Long term (up to 8)	CCT+	Moderate	Attanasio et al. (2021)	Tertiary education (women)	80,600		0.000	0.010	(-0.010, 0.010)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	At least some university (men)	299,906	0 to 1	0.016	0.024	(-0.008, 0.040)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	At least some university (women)	356,801	0 to 1	0.017	0.020	(-0.003, 0.037)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT+	Serious	Kugler & Rojas (2018)	Tertiary education	14,483	0 to 1	0.009***	0.002	(0.008, 0.011)

Legend: * 'p-value < 0.1' ** 'p-value < 0.05' *** 'p-value < 0.01'. 95% CI = Confidence intervals at 95% confidence level. Risk-of-bias attributed following the RoB 2 or ROBINS-I tools, for experimental and quasi-experimental evidence, respectively (Higgins et al., 2021). When reported differently, statistics were rounded to the nearest three decimals.

Table 9. Summary of treatment coefficients and risk-of-bias: Health and nutrition outcome. *Source:* elaborated by the author.

Sustainability measurement (years after end of exposure)	***Program type***	***Risk-of-bias***	***Study***	***Variable***	***N***	***Range***	***Coefficient***	***SE***	***95% CI***
Health status									
Long term (up to 3)	UCT	Low	Haushofer & Shapiro (2018)	Health index	1,286		-0.060	0.060	(-0.120, 0.000)
Long term (up to 3)	UCT	Low	Haushofer & Shapiro (2018)	Psychological well-being index	2,097		-0.020	0.060	(-0.080, 0.040)
Long term (9 years)	Enterprise UCT	Low	Blattman et al. (2020)	Mental health index (z-score)	2,086		-0.056	0.047	(-0.103, -0.009)
Long term (9 years)	Enterprise UCT	Low	Blattman et al. (2020)	Physical health index (z-score)	2,086		-0.028	0.047	(-0.075, 0.019)
Long term (up to 10)	Graduation (UCT+)	Low	Banerjee et al. (2021)	Mental health index	1,229		0.203***	0.044	(0.159, 0.247)
Long term (up to 10)	Graduation (UCT+)	Low	Banerjee et al. (2021)	Physical health index	1,229		0.187***	0.040	(0.147, 0.227)
Long term (up to 10)	CCT+	Low	Barham et al. (2018)	Socio-emotional z-score	900		0.053	0.039	(0.014, 0.092)
Long term (up to 30)	UCT	Low	Aizer et al. (2016)	BMI	1,706		0.464	0.355	(0.109, 0.819)
Long term (up to 30)	UCT	Low	Aizer et al. (2016)	Height (cms)	1,844		1.142	1.229	(-0.087, 2.371)
Long term (up to 30)	UCT	Low	Aizer et al. (2016)	Obese	1,706	0 to 1	0.998	0.612	(0.386, 1.610)
Long term (up to 30)	UCT	Low	Aizer et al. (2016)	Underweight	1,706	0 to 1	-0.638*	0.336	(-0.974, -0.302)
Long term (up to 30)	UCT	Low	Aizer et al. (2016)	Weight (pounds)	1,706		3.417	2.330	(1.087, 5.747)
Medium term (up to 2)	Graduation (UCT+)	Low	Banerjee et al. (2015)	Mental health index			0.071***	0.020	(0.051, 0.091)
Medium term (up to 2)	Graduation (UCT+)	Low	Banerjee et al. (2015)	Physical health index			0.029	0.020	(0.009, 0.049)
Medium term (6 months)	UCT	Moderate	Altındağ & O'Connell (2021)	Adverse health	1,320		-0.110	0.100	(-0.210, -0.010)
Medium term (27 months, on average)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	Psychological outlook (current UGX, microenterprise programs)			0.143***	0.042	(0.101, 0.185)
Medium term (27 months, on average)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	Psychological outlook (current UGX, transfer programs)			0.107	0.067	(0.040, 0.174)

Life expectancy									
Long term (9 years)	Enterprise UCT	Low	Blattman et al. (2020)	Respondent passed away	2,086	0 to 1	-0.004	0.006	(-0.010, 0.002)
Long term (up to 30)	UCT	Low	Aizer et al. (2016)	Longevity: log(age at death)	8,255		0.010	0.007	(0.009, 0.011)
Long term (up to 30)	UCT	Low	Aizer et al. (2016)	Probability of having survived until 60 years old	16,289	0 to 1	0.192***	0.047	(0.045, 0.239)
Long term (up to 30)	UCT	Low	Aizer et al. (2016)	Probability of having survived until 70 years old	16,289	0 to 1	0.263***	0.052	
Long term (up to 30)	UCT	Low	Aizer et al. (2016)	Probability of having survived until 80 years old	16,289	0 to 1	0.229***	0.066	
Long term (more than 30)	UCT	Low	Price & Song (2016)	Having died	2,280	0 to 1	0.014	0.020	(-0.006, 0.033)
Food security and nutrition									
Long term (up to 3)	UCT	Low	Haushofer & Shapiro (2018)	Food security index	1,286		-0.050	0.100	(-0.150, 0.050)
Long term (up to 9)	UCT+	Low	Avitabile et al. (2019)	Principal component macro/micro nutrients	2,419		0.132*	0.076	(0.056, 0.208)
Long term (up to 10)	Graduation (UCT+)	Low	Banerjee et al. (2021)	Food security index	885		0.127**	0.063	(0.064, 0.190)
Long term (up to 10)	CCT+	Moderate	Borga & D'Ambrosio (2021)	Nutrition	38,707		0.031	0.047	(-0.016, 0.078)
Medium term (up to 2)	Graduation (UCT+)	Low	Banerjee et al. (2015)	Food security index			0.113***	0.022	(0.091, 0.135)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Log total food consumption per capita (cash only arm)	3,918	0 to 1	0.052*	0.028	(0.024, 0.080)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Log total food consumption per capita (productive grant arm)	3,918	0 to 1	0.093***	0.026	(0.067, 0.119)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Log total food consumption per capita (training arm)	3,918	0 to 1	0.048*	0.025	(0.023, 0.073)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012b)	Nutrition index	4,245		0.074**	0.035	(0.039, 0.109)
Medium term (6 months)	UCT	Moderate	Altındağ & O'Connell (2021)	Food coping	1,434		0.060	0.090	(-0.030, 0.150)
Medium term (27 months, on average)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	Nutrition (current UGX, microenterprise programs)			0.135***	0.034	(0.101, 0.169)

Medium term (27 months, on average)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	Nutrition (current UGX, transfer programs)			0.021	0.050	(-0.029, 0.071)
Medium term (up to 2)	Graduation (UCT+)	Serious	Sabates-Wheeler et al. (2018)	Food security and basic needs			1.970***	0.180	(1.790, 2.150)
Child health									
Long term (up to 9)	UCT+	Low	Avitabile et al. (2019)	Anemia	2,403		-0.024	0.030	(-0.054, 0.006)
Long term (up to 9)	UCT+	Low	Avitabile et al. (2019)	Being sick during last 4 weeks	4,266		0.001	0.032	(-0.031, 0.033)
Long term (up to 9)	UCT+	Low	Avitabile et al. (2019)	Z score height-for-age	3,817		-0.109	0.136	(-0.245, 0.027)
Long term (up to 9)	UCT+	Low	Avitabile et al. (2019)	Z score weight-for-age	3,861		-0.005	0.099	(-0.104, 0.094)
Long term (9 years)	Enterprise UCT	Low	Blattman et al. (2020)	Mean health index per child, ages 3-9, family average	2,086		0.078	0.043	(0.035, 0.121)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Anemia (rural cohort 1: 5 years of transfers)	1,257		-0.025	0.045	(-0.070, 0.020)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Anemia (rural cohort 2: 2 years of transfers)	1,257		-0.038	0.052	(-0.090, 0.014)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Height for age (rural cohort 1: 5 years of transfers)	11,951		0.143***	0.032	(0.111, 0.175)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Height for age (rural cohort 2: 2 years of transfers)	11,951		0.205***	0.038	(0.167, 0.243)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Hemoglobin (rural cohort 1: 5 years of transfers)	1,257		1.377	0.878	(0.499, 2.255)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Hemoglobin (rural cohort 2: 2 years of transfers)	1,257		0.058	0.980	(-0.922, 1.038)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Weight for age (rural cohort 1: 5 years of transfers)	11,951		0.106**	0.042	(0.064, 0.148)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Weight for age (rural cohort 2: 2 years of transfers)	11,951		0.093*	0.049	(0.044, 0.142)
Medium term (up to 2)	UCT+	Low	Özler et al. (2020)	Psychosocial wellbeing index	1,159		0.102	0.071	(0.031, 0.173)
Medium term (up to 2)	UCT+	Low	Özler et al. (2020)	Sexual and reproductive health index (SRH)	1,174		0.372***	0.084	(0.286, 0.456)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012b)	Environment index	4,245		0.073***	0.017	(0.056, 0.090)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012b)	Health and motor development	4,245		0.067***	0.026	(0.041, 0.093)

Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012b)	Health index	4,245		0.082***	0.024	(0.058, 0.106)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012b)	Stimulus index	4,245		0.121***	0.033	(0.088, 0.154)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT and CCT	Low	Baird et al. (2019)	Anemic (CCT)	1,979		0.012	0.031	(-0.019, 0.043)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT and CCT	Low	Baird et al. (2019)	Anemic (UCT)	1,979		-0.065*	0.033	(-0.098, -0.032)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT and CCT	Low	Baird et al. (2019)	HIV positive (CCT)	1,977		-0.001	0.019	(-0.020, 0.018)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT and CCT	Low	Baird et al. (2019)	HIV positive (UCT)	1,977		-0.002	0.023	(-0.025, 0.021)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT and CCT	Low	Baird et al. (2019)	Z score height-for-age (child born during program, CCT)	315		0.114	0.156	(-0.042, 0.270)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT and CCT	Low	Baird et al. (2019)	Z score height-for-age (child born during program, UCT)	315		0.534*	0.302	(0.232, 0.836)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT and CCT	Low	Baird et al. (2019)	Z score height-for-age (child born more than 9 months after program end, CCT)	506		0.257	0.179	(0.078, 0.436)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT and CCT	Low	Baird et al. (2019)	Z score height-for-age (child born more than 9 months after program end, UCT)	506		-0.123	0.183	(-0.306, 0.060)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT and CCT	Low	Baird et al. (2019)	Z score height-for-age (child born within 9 months of program end, CCT)	211		0.086	0.194	(-0.108, 0.280)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT and CCT	Low	Baird et al. (2019)	Z score height-for-age (child born within 9 months of program end, UCT)	212		-0.434**	0.193	(-0.627, -0.241)
Medium term (6 months)	UCT	Moderate	Altındağ & O'Connell (2021)	Child hardship	1,050		-0.010	0.090	(-0.100, 0.080)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT	Moderate	Filmer & Schady (2014)	Depression	2,973	0 to 1	0.118**	0.047	(0.071, 0.165)

Legend: * 'p-value < 0.1' ** 'p-value < 0.05' *** 'p-value < 0.01'. 95% CI = Confidence intervals at 95% confidence level. Risk-of-bias attributed following the RoB 2 or ROBINS-I tools, for experimental and quasi-experimental evidence, respectively (Higgins et al., 2021). When reported differently, statistics were rounded to the nearest three decimals.

Table 10. Summary of treatment coefficients and risk-of-bias: Employment outcome. *Source:* elaborated by the author.

Sustainability measurement (years after end of exposure)	***Program type***	***Risk-of-bias***	***Study***	***Variable***	***N***	***Range***	***Coefficient***	***SE***	***95% CI***
Work status, labour supply and employment									
Long term (9 years)	Enterprise UCT	Low	Blattman et al. (2020)	Average employment hours per week	1,981		0.513	1.593	(-1.080, 2.106)
Long term (9 years)	Enterprise UCT	Low	Blattman et al. (2020)	No employment hours in past month	1,981	0 to 1	-0.004	0.008	(-0.012, 0.004)
Long term (9 years)	Enterprise UCT	Low	Blattman et al. (2020)	Working over 30 hours per week in skilled trade	1,981	0 to 1	-0.029	0.011	(-0.040, -0.018)
Long term (up to 10)	CCT+	Low	Barham et al. (2018)	Labor market participation z-score	1,006		0.272***	0.075	(0.197, 0.347)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Agricultural sector (men, 19-26 years old)	64,726	0 to 1	-0.022	0.074	(-0.096, 0.052)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Agricultural sector (women, 19-26 years old)		0 to 1	-0.013	0.030	(-0.043, 0.017)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Formal worker (men, 19-26 years old)	64,726	o to 1	-0.050*	0.027	(-0.077, -0.023)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Formal worker (women, 19-26 years old)		0 to 1	-0.004	0.008	(-0.012, 0.004)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Hours worked weekly (men, 19-26 years old)	64,726		0.859	2.467	(-1.608, 3.326)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Hours worked weekly (women, 19-26 years old)			-4.369**	1.762	(-6.131, -2.607)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Labor market participation (men, 19-26 years old)	64,726	0 to 1	-0.025	0.042	(-0.067, 0.017)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Labor market participation (women, 19-26 years old)		0 to 1	-0.054	0.040	(-0.094, -0.014)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Non-agricultural sector (men, 19-26 years old)	64,726	o to 1	-0.021	0.054	(-0.075, 0.033)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Non-agricultural sector (women, 19-26 years old)		0 to 1	-0.040	0.033	(-0.033, -0.007)
Long term (up to 16)	CCT+	Low	Oliveira & Chagas (2020)	Formal labor market participation (BFP exposure high)	145,273		0.183***	0.041	(0.142, 0.224)
Long term (up to 16)	CCT+	Low	Oliveira & Chagas (2020)	Formal labor market participation (BFP exposure low)	145,273		0.078**	0.031	(0.047, 0.109)
Long term (up to 16)	CCT+	Low	Oliveira & Chagas (2020)	Formal labor market participation (BFP exposure medium)	145,273		0.175***	0.029	(0.146, 0.184)
Long term (up to 16)	CCT+	Low	Oliveira & Chagas (2020)	Formal labor market participation (BFP exposure medium-low)	145,273		0.140***	0.029	(0.111, 0.169)

Long term (up to 6)	CCT+	Medium	Rodriguez-Oreggia & Freije (2012)	Moving to a more qualified occupation (3 years' exposure)	3,584		0.080		
Long term (up to 6)	CCT+	Medium	Rodriguez-Oreggia & Freije (2012)	Moving to a more qualified occupation (3-6 years' exposure)	3,584		0.130		
Long term (up to 6)	CCT+	Medium	Rodriguez-Oreggia & Freije (2012)	Moving to a more qualified occupation (more than 6 years' exposure)	3,584		0.256		
Long term (up to 6)	CCT+	Medium	Rodriguez-Oreggia & Freije (2012)	Probability of working (3 years' exposure)	10,166	0 to 1	-0.129		
Long term (up to 6)	CCT+	Medium	Rodriguez-Oreggia & Freije (2012)	Probability of working (3-6 years' exposure)	10,166	0 to 1	0.074		
Long term (up to 6)	CCT+	Medium	Rodriguez-Oreggia & Freije (2012)	Probability of working (more than 6 years' exposure)	10,166	0 to 1	0.104		
Long term (up to 7)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Bandiera et al. (2017)	Labor supply (days, after 4 years)	20,196		61.100***	12.500	(48.600, 73.600)
Long term (up to 7)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Bandiera et al. (2017)	Labor supply (hours, after 4 years)	20,196		206.000***	73.000	(133.000, 279.000)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Ham & Michelson (2018)	Labor force participation	140	0 to 1	0.013	0.017	(-0.004, 0.030)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Ham & Michelson (2018)	Works in non-farm job	140	0 to 1	0.041**	0.019	(0.022, 0.060)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Ham & Michelson (2018)	Works outside home	140	0 to 1	0.015	0.017	(-0.002, 0.032)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	Working (men)	299,515	0 to 1	0.001	0.030	(-0.029, 0.031)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	Working (women)	357,018	0 to 1	0.093***	0.031	(0.062, 0.124)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	Working for a wage (men)	193,165	0 to 1	0.059	0.042	(0.017, 0.101)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	Working for a wage (women)	354,440	0 to 1	0.073***	0.027	(0.046, 0.100)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	Working in agriculture (men)	297,315	0 to 1	-0.050	0.035	(-0.085, -0.015)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	Working in agriculture (women)	355,898	0 to 1	0.009	0.009	(0.000, 0.018)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Work (rural cohort 1: 5 years of transfers)	24,329	0 to 1	-0.018	0.011	(-0.029, -0.007)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Work (rural cohort 2: 2 years of transfers)	24,329	0 to 1	-0.014	0.011	(-0.025, -0.003)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Work in agricultural sector (rural cohort 1: 5 years of transfers)	24,329	0 to 1	-0.028***	0.008	(-0.036, -0.020)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Work in agricultural sector (rural cohort 2: 2 years of transfers)	24,329	0 to 1	-0.006	0.008	(-0.014, 0.002)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Work in formal sector (rural cohort 1: 5 years of transfers)	24,329	0 to 1	0.012**	0.006	(0.006, 0.018)

Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Work in formal sector (rural cohort 2: 2 years of transfers)	24,329	0 to 1	0.008	0.006	(0.002, 0.014)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Work in informal sector (rural cohort 1: 5 years of transfers)	24,329	0 to 1	-0.001	0.005	(-0.006, 0.004)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Work in informal sector (rural cohort 2: 2 years of transfers)	24,329	0 to 1	-0.016**	0.006	(-0.022, -0.010)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT+	Serious	Kugler & Rojas (2018)	Contract	4,379	0 to 1	0.008*	0.005	(0.003, 0.013)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT+	Serious	Kugler & Rojas (2018)	Employment	11,830	0 to 1	0.046**	0.019	(0.027, 0.065)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT+	Serious	Kugler & Rojas (2018)	Hours worked per week	14,431		3.048***	0.457	(2.591, 3.505)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT+	Serious	Kugler & Rojas (2018)	Non-wage benefits	11,483	0 to 1	0.005**	0.002	(0.003, 0.007)
Medium term (6 to 10 months)	UCT+	Low	Roy et al. (2019)	Probability that a woman works (transfer only)	2,231		0.000	0.020	(-0.020, 0.020)
Medium term (6 to 10 months)	UCT+	Low	Roy et al. (2019)	Probability that a woman works (transfer+BCC)	2,231		0.050**	0.020	(0.030, 0.070)
Medium term (up to 2)	Graduation (UCT+)	Low	Banerjee et al. (2015)	Total time spent working, standardized			0.054***	0.018	(0.036, 0.072)
Medium term (27 months, on average)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	Active as employee or day labourer (transfer programs)	9,619		0.945	0.124	(0.821, 1.069)
Medium term (27 months, on average)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	Active in labour force (transfer programs)	9,609		1.150	0.153	(0.997, 1.303)
Medium term (27 months, on average)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	Active in microenterprise (transfer programs)	9,611		1.278**	0.151	(1.127, 1.429)
Medium term (27 months, on average)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	Active in more than one livelihood (transfer programs)	9,621		0.981	0.108	(0.873, 1.089)
Income and earnings									
Long term (up to 3)	Enterprise UCT	Low	Fafchamps et al. (2014)	Real monthly profits (cedi)	544		22.560	26.380	(-3.820, 48.940)
Long term (up to 3)	UCT	Low	Haushofer & Shapiro (2018)	Total revenue, monthly (USD)	1,286		2.670	12.300	(-9.630, 14.970)
Long term (up to 5)	Enterprise UCT+	Low	de Mel et al. (2012)	Log real profits (LKR, men)	2,201	0 to 1	0.142***	0.049	(0.093, 0.191)
Long term (up to 5)	Enterprise UCT+	Low	de Mel et al. (2012)	Log real profits (LKR, women)	2,140	0 to 1	0.050	0.064	(-0.014, 0.114)
Long term	Enterprise UCT+	Low	de Mel et al. (2012)	Monthly real profits (LKR, men)	2,212		648.200**	285.600	(362.600, 933.800)

(up to 5)									
Long term (up to 5)	Enterprise UCT+	Low	de Mel et al. (2012)	Monthly real profits (LKR, women)	2,148		94.790	265.100	(-170.310, 359.890)
Long term (up to 5)	Enterprise UCT+	Low	de Mel et al. (2012)	Total labor income (LKR, men)	2,329		799.700***	278.900	(520.800, 1078.600)
Long term (up to 5)	Enterprise UCT+	Low	de Mel et al. (2012)	Total labor income (LKR, women)	2,233		66.180	254.000	(-187.820, 320.180)
Long term (up to 5)	Enterprise UCT+	Low	de Mel et al. (2012)	Truncated real profits (LKR, men)	2,212		685.300**	272.500	(412.800, 957.800)
Long term (up to 5)	Enterprise UCT+	Low	de Mel et al. (2012)	Truncated real profits (LKR, women)	2,148		107.000	249.100	(-142.100, 256.100)
Long term (9 years)	Enterprise UCT	Low	Blattman et al. (2020)	Standardized income index	1,981		0.078	0.018	(0.060, 0.096)
Long term (up to 10)	Graduation (UCT+)	Low	Banerjee et al. (2021)	Income and revenues index	885		0.264***	0.080	(0.184, 0.344)
Long term (up to 10)	CCT+	Low	Barham et al. (2018)	Earnings z-score (five percent trim)	997		0.192***	0.067	(0.125, 0.259)
Long term (up to 10)	CCT+	Low	Barham et al. (2018)	Earnings z-score (rank of earnings)	1,006		0.194***	0.057	(0.137, 0.251)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Monthly income (men, 19-26 years old)	64,726		190.221	433.469	(-243.248, 623.690)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Monthly income (women, 19-26 years old)			-320.472***	116.659	(-437.131, -203.813)
Long term (up to 16)	CCT+	Low	Oliveira & Chagas (2020)	Earnings in the formal labor market (BFP exposure high)	113,162		-0.015**	0.006	(-0.021, -0.009)
Long term (up to 16)	CCT+	Low	Oliveira & Chagas (2020)	Earnings in the formal labor market (BFP exposure low)	113,162		-0.013***	0.004	(-0.017, -0.009)
Long term (up to 16)	CCT+	Low	Oliveira & Chagas (2020)	Earnings in the formal labor market (BFP exposure medium)	113,162		-0.012***	0.004	(-0.016, -0.008)
Long term (up to 16)	CCT+	Low	Oliveira & Chagas (2020)	Earnings in the formal labor market (BFP exposure medium-low)	113,162		-0.013***	0.004	(-0.017, -0.009)
Long term (up to 30)	UCT	Low	Aizer et al. (2016)	Annual income (last measured)	1,960		89.500*	48.461	(41.039, 137.961)
Long term (more than 30)	UCT	Low	Price & Song (2016)	Annual earnings (real USD)	52,867		-1761.000**	816.000	(-2577.000, -945.000)
Long term (more than 30)	UCT	Low	Price & Song (2016)	Annual earnings (real USD)	163,340		-356.000	601.000	(-957.000, 245.000)
Long term (more than 30)	UCT	Low	Price & Song (2016)	Having earned any income (yearly basis)	52,867	0 to 1	-0.033**	0.014	(-0.047, -0.019)

Long term (more than 30)	UCT	Low	Price & Song (2016)	Having earned any income (yearly basis)	163,340	0 to 1	0.002	0.009	(-0.007, 0.010)
Long term (up to 6)	CCT+	Medium	Rodriguez-Oreggia & Freije (2012)	Monthly labor earnings (3 years' exposure)	4,123		-0.284		
Long term (up to 6)	CCT+	Medium	Rodriguez-Oreggia & Freije (2012)	Monthly labor earnings (3-6 years' exposure)	4,123		-0.325		
Long term (up to 6)	CCT+	Medium	Rodriguez-Oreggia & Freije (2012)	Monthly labor earnings (more than 6 years' exposure)	4,123		-0.283**		
Long term (up to 7)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Bandiera et al. (2017)	Earnings (after 4 years)	20,135		87.800***	28.580	(59.220, 116.380)
Long term (up to 10)	CCT+	Moderate	Neidhöfer & Niño-Zarazúa (2019)	Labor income (USD)	8,149		268.752***	98.600	(170.152, 367.352)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	HH monthly earnings per capita (men)	292,360		34.000	148.000	(-114.000, 182.000)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	HH monthly earnings per capita (women)	356,100		0.050	0.097	(-0.047, 0.147)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	Monthly earnings (men)	288,431		268.000	261.000	(7.000, 529.000)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	Monthly earnings (women)	354,156		255.000	139.000	(116.000, 394.000)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT+	Serious	Kugler & Rojas (2018)	Hourly wage	11,362		1.181***	0.243	(0.938, 1.424)
Medium term (up to 2)	Graduation (UCT+)	Low	Banerjee et al. (2015)	Incomes and revenues index			0.273***	0.029	(0.244, 0.302)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Expected increase in profits in 12 months (cash only arm)	1,204		72.440	65.400	(7.040, 137.840)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Expected increase in profits in 12 months (productive grant arm)	1,204		164.200***	63.500	(100.700, 227.700)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Expected increase in profits in 12 months (training arm)	1,204		-56.880	54.800	(-111.680, -2.080)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Log capital income (cash only arm)	3,892	0 to 1	-0.010	0.025	(-0.035, 0.015)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Log capital income (productive grant arm)	3,892	0 to 1	0.039	0.026	(0.013, 0.065)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Log capital income (training arm)	3,892	0 to 1	-0.005	0.025	(-0.030, 0.020)

Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Non-agricultural wage income (cash only arm)	3,879		-148.800	340.000	(-488.800, 191.200)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Non-agricultural wage income (productive grant arm)	3,879		-242.400	351.000	(-593.400, 108.600)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Non-agricultural wage income (training arm)	3,879		-166.000	332.000	(-498.000, 166.000)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Non-agriculture self-employment (cash only arm)	3,918		0.040*	0.021	(0.019, 0.061)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Non-agriculture self-employment (productive grant arm)	3,918		0.126***	0.021	(0.105, 0.147)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Non-agriculture self-employment (training arm)	3,918		0.038*	0.021	(0.017, 0.059)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Non-agriculture wage employment (cash only arm)	3,918		0.022	0.022	(0.000, 0.044)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Non-agriculture wage employment (productive grant arm)	3,918		-0.021	0.023	(-0.044, 0.002)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Non-agriculture wage employment (training arm)	3,918		0.018	0.024	(-0.006, 0.042)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Profits of non-agricultural business (cash only arm)	3,878		98.510	167.000	(-68.490, 265.510)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Profits of non-agricultural business (productive grant arm)	3,878		602.800***	160.000	(442.800, 762.800)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Profits of non-agricultural business (training arm)	3,878		-296.900*	158.000	(-414.900, -138.900)
Medium term (27 months, on average)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	Total productive cash inflows (current UGX, microenterprise programs)	4,021		13483.000**	6747.000	(6736.000, 20230.000)
Medium term (27 months, on average)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	Total productive cash inflows (current UGX, transfer programs)	2,916		-8453.000	11740.000	(-20193.000, 3287.000)
Child labour									

Long term (up to 9)	UCT+	Low	Avitabile et al. (2019)	Average number of working days per week	310		1.313**	0.593	(0.720, 1.906)
Long term (up to 5)	CCT	Moderate	Alam et al. (2011)	Labor force participation	27,748	0 to 1	-0.047**	0.020	(-0.068, -0.023)
Long term (up to 5)	CCT	Moderate	Alam et al. (2011)	Work intensity (days per month)	292	1 to 30	0.897	1.671	(-0.774, 2.568)
Long term (up to 10)	UCT	Moderate	Araujo et al. (2020)	Working	100,000	0 to 1	-0.005	0.005	(-0.010, 0.000)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT	Moderate	Filmer & Schady (2014)	Hours worked for no pay	2,973		-0.325	0.971	(-1.296, 0.646)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT	Moderate	Filmer & Schady (2014)	Hours worked for pay	2,973		-2.139*	1.252	(-3.391, -0.887)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT	Moderate	Filmer & Schady (2014)	ln(monthly earnings)	2,973		0.125	0.426	(0.301, 0.551)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT	Moderate	Filmer & Schady (2014)	ln(monthly earnings) only work for pay	2,973		0.045	0.108	(-0.063, 0.153)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT	Moderate	Filmer & Schady (2014)	Works for no pay	2,973	0 to 1	-0.008	0.028	(-0.036, 0.020)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT	Moderate	Filmer & Schady (2014)	Works for pay	2,973	0 to 1	0.003	0.026	(-0.023, 0.029)
Medium term (27 months, on average)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	Days worked last month (children, transfer programs)	7,889	1 to 30	0.498	2.147	(-1.649, 2.645)
Migration and geographic mobility									
Long term (up to 10)	CCT+	Low	Barham et al. (2018)	Permanent migration out of municipality	1,007	0 to 1	-0.019	0.028	(-0.047, 0.009)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Domestic migrant (men, 19-26 years old)	64,663	o to 1	-0.037	0.025	(-0.062, -0.012)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Domestic migrant (women, 19-26 years old)	69,522	0 to 1	-0.031	0.060	(-0.091, 0.029)
Long term (up to 6)	CCT+	Medium	Rodriguez-Oreggia & Freije (2012)	Migration (3 years' exposure)	38,000		-0.142		
Long term (up to 6)	CCT+	Medium	Rodriguez-Oreggia & Freije (2012)	Migration (3-6 years' exposure)	38,000		0.136		
Long term (up to 6)	CCT+	Medium	Rodriguez-Oreggia & Freije (2012)	Migration (more than 6 years' exposure)	38,000		0.099		
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	Cross-municipality migration (men)	301,140		0.072*	0.041	(0.031, 0.113)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	Cross-municipality migration (women)	358,339		0.062**	0.029	(0.033, 0.091)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	Cross-state migration (men)	301,140		0.074**	0.036	(0.038, 0.110)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	Cross-state migration (women)	358,339		0.063**	0.026	(0.037, 0.089)

Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	Inter-state migration (men)	301,140		-0.002	0.018	(-0.020, 0.016)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	Inter-state migration (women)	358,339		-0.001	0.016	(-0.017, 0.015)

Legend: * 'p-value < 0.1' ** 'p-value < 0.05' *** 'p-value < 0.01'. 95% CI = Confidence intervals at 95% confidence level. Risk-of-bias attributed following the RoB 2 or ROBINS-I tools, for experimental and quasi-experimental evidence, respectively (Higgins et al., 2021). When reported differently, statistics were rounded to the nearest three decimals.

Table 11. Summary of treatment coefficients and risk-of-bias: Poverty outcome. *Source:* elaborated by the author.

Sustainability measurement (years after end of exposure)	***Program type***	***Risk-of-bias***	***Study***	***Variable***	***N***	***Range***	***Coefficient***	***SE***	***95% CI***
Expenditures and consumption									
Long term (up to 3)	UCT	Low	Haushofer & Shapiro (2018)	Non-durable expenditure (USD)	1,286		17.410	12.090	(5.320, 29.500)
Long term (9 years)	Enterprise UCT	Low	Blattman et al. (2020)	Current child expenditures (clothes and school)	2,086		0.411	2.784	(-2.373, 3.195)
Long term (9 years)	Enterprise UCT	Low	Blattman et al. (2020)	Current child expenditures per child	2,086		0.502	1.071	(-0.569, 1.573)
Long term (up to 10)	Graduation (UCT+)	Low	Banerjee et al. (2021)	Per capita consumption	880		0.579***	0.175	(0.404, 0.754)
Long term (up to 7)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Bandiera et al. (2017)	Household consumption expenditure (after 7 years)	25,176		281.000**	119.600	(161.400, 400.600)
Medium term (up to 2)	Graduation (UCT+)	Low	Banerjee et al. (2015)	Total per capita consumption, standardized			0.120***	0.024	(0.096, 0.144)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Log total consumption per capita (cash only arm)	3,918	0 to 1	0.021	0.023	(-0.002, 0.044)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Log total consumption per capita (productive grant arm)	3,918	0 to 1	0.083***	0.023	(0.060, 0.106)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Log total consumption per capita (training arm)	3,918	0 to 1	0.028	0.022	(0.006, 0.050)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Log total non-food consumption per capita (cash only arm)	3,918	0 to 1	0.032	0.039	(-0.007, 0.071)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Log total non-food consumption per capita (productive grant arm)	3,918	0 to 1	0.086**	0.037	(0.049, 0.123)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Log total non-food consumption per capita (training arm)	3,918	0 to 1	0.025	0.038	(-0.013, 0.063)
Medium term (6 months)	UCT	Moderate	Altındağ & O'Connell (2021)	Expenditure per capita	1,710		-0.080	0.040	(-0.120, -0.040)
Medium term (27 months, on average)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	Total consumption (current UGX, microenterprise programs)	4,906		26601.000**	11248.000	(15353.000, 37849.000)

Medium term (27 months, on average)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	Total consumption (current UGX, transfer programs)	3,545		-17141.000	19679.000	(-36820.000, 2538.000)
Medium term (up to 2)	Graduation (UCT+)	Serious	Sabates et al. (2019)	Parents' educational investment: proportion of children with school uniforms	1,029	0 to 1	0.278***	0.061	(0.217, 0.339)
Living standards									
Long term (up to 7)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Bandiera et al. (2017)	Below poverty line (after 4 years)	18,882	0 to 1	-0.084**	0.038	(-0.122, -0.046)
Long term (up to 10)	CCT+	Moderate	Borga & D'Ambrosio (2021)	Poverty incidence (k=33%)	38,274		0.004	0.035	(-0.031, 0.039)
Long term (up to 10)	CCT+	Moderate	Borga & D'Ambrosio (2021)	Poverty incidence (k=50%)	38,601		-0.211***	0.061	(-0.272, -0.150)
Long term (up to 10)	CCT+	Moderate	Borga & D'Ambrosio (2021)	Poverty intensity (k=33%)	38,318		-0.072***	0.025	(-0.097, -0.047)
Long term (up to 10)	CCT+	Moderate	Borga & D'Ambrosio (2021)	Poverty intensity (k=50%)	38,717		-0.162***	0.038	(-0.200, -0.124)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	Housing index (men)	294,969		0.146**	0.062	(0.084, 0.208)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	Housing index (women)	351,077		0.187***	0.072	(0.115, 0.259)
Medium term (6 months)	UCT	Moderate	Altındağ & O'Connell (2021)	Having changed accommodation in the past 6 months	1,022	0 to 1	0.010	0.040	(-0.030, 0.050)
Medium term (6 months)	UCT	Moderate	Altındağ & O'Connell (2021)	Having faced eviction recently	1,126	0 to 1	-0.010	0.020	(-0.030, 0.010)
Medium term (6 months)	UCT	Moderate	Altındağ & O'Connell (2021)	Having paid any rent recently	1,542	0 to 1	0.020	0.040	(-0.020, 0.060)
Medium term (6 months)	UCT	Moderate	Altındağ & O'Connell (2021)	Having spent savings to cope	1,367	0 to 1	0.020	0.040	(-0.020, 0.060)
Medium term (6 months)	UCT	Moderate	Altındağ & O'Connell (2021)	Livelihood coping	1,146		0.040	0.100	(-0.060, 0.140)
Medium term (6 months)	UCT	Moderate	Altındağ & O'Connell (2021)	Rent expenditure	1,786		-0.840	1.510	(-2.350, 0.670)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT	Moderate	Filmer & Schady (2014)	Ladder 1 (village/neighborhood)	2,973		0.020	0.083	(-0.063, 0.103)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT	Moderate	Filmer & Schady (2014)	Ladder 2 (Cambodia)	2,973		0.021	0.078	(-0.057, 0.099)
Medium term (18 months)	UCT+	Serious	Stoeffler et al. (2020)	Index of housing quality	786		0.262		

Legend: * 'p-value < 0.1' ** 'p-value < 0.05' *** 'p-value < 0.01'. 95% CI = Confidence intervals at 95% confidence level. Risk-of-bias attributed following the RoB 2 or ROBINS-I tools, for experimental and quasi-experimental evidence, respectively (Higgins et al., 2021). When reported differently, statistics were rounded to the nearest three decimals.

Table 12. Summary of treatment coefficients and risk-of-bias: Savings, investment and production outcome. *Source:* elaborated by the author.

Sustainability measurement (years after end of exposure)	***Program type***	***Risk-of-bias***	***Study***	***Variable***	***N***	***Range***	***Coefficient***	***SE***	***95% CI***
Savings									
Long term (up to 7)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Bandiera et al. (2017)	Household cash savings (after 7 years)	26,437		21.430***	3.935	(17.495, 25.365)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Having a bank account (rural cohort 1: 5 years of transfers)	10,425	0 to 1	0.058***	0.014	(0.044, 0.072)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Having a bank account (rural cohort 2: 2 years of transfers)	10,425	0 to 1	0.062***	0.018	(0.044, 0.080)
Medium term (6 months)	UCT	Moderate	Altındağ & O'Connell (2021)	Having savings	1,617	0 to 1	-0.030	0.040	(-0.070, 0.010)
Medium term (27 months, on average)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	Savings (UGX per capita, transfer programs)	3,560		2227.000	1504.000	(723.000, 3731.000)
Medium term (18 months)	UCT+	Serious	Stoeffler et al. (2020)	Savings group (tontine) participation	786		0.093**	0.040	(0.053, 0.133)
Investment									
Long term (up to 10)	Graduation (UCT+)	Low	Banerjee et al. (2021)	Financial inclusion index	885		0.121	0.152	(-0.031, 0.273)
Long term (up to 10)	Graduation (UCT+)	Low	Banerjee et al. (2021)	Productive time use	1,229		0.148***	0.052	(0.096, 0.200)
Long term (up to 7)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Bandiera et al. (2017)	Household gives loans (after 4 years)	20,196	0 to 1	0.051***	0.010	(0.041, 0.061)
Long term (up to 7)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Bandiera et al. (2017)	Household receives loans (after 4 years)	20,196	0 to 1	0.110***	0.030	(0.080, 0.140)
Long term (up to 9)	CCT+	Moderate	Contreras Suarez & Cameron (2020)	Parents' discounting behaviour	3,065	0 to 1	-0.014	0.052	(-0.0654, 0.0382)
Medium term (up to 2)	Graduation (UCT+)	Low	Banerjee et al. (2015)	Financial inclusion index			0.212***	0.031	(0.181, 0.243)
Medium term (27 months, on average)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	Loans (UGX per capita, transfer programs)	3,560		-821.000	618.000	(-1439.000, -203.000)
Assets									
Long term (up to 3)	UCT	Low	Haushofer & Shapiro (2018)	Value of non-land assets (USD)	1,286		421.910***	57.120	(364.790, 479.030)
Long term (up to 10)	Graduation (UCT+)	Low	Banerjee et al. (2021)	Asset index	885		0.346***	0.121	(0.225, 0.467)
Long term (up to 7)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Bandiera et al. (2017)	Value of household assets (after 7 years)	26,437		27.090*	13.930	(13.160, 41.02)

Long term (up to 7)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Bandiera et al. (2017)	Value of productive assets (after 7 years)	26,435		662.000***	214.4	(447.600, 876.400)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	Durable goods index (men)	295,927		0.199*	0.103	(0.096, 0.302)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Moderate	Parker & Vogl (2018)	Durable goods index (women)	352,337		71.000	94.000	(-23.000, 165.000)
Medium term (up to 2)	Graduation (UCT+)	Low	Banerjee et al. (2015)	Asset index			0.249***	0.024	(0.225, 0.273)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Value business assets (cash only arm)	3,882		-92.680	99.900	(-192.580, 7.220)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Value business assets (productive grant arm)	3,882		235.300***	81.600	(153.700, 316.900)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Value business assets (training arm)	3,882		-17.800	90.200	(108.000, 72.400)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Value livestock sold or self-consumed (cash only arm)	3,880		-2.519	40.900	(-43.419, 38.381)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Value livestock sold or self-consumed (productive grant arm)	3,880		221.800***	46.100	(175.700, 267.900)
Medium term (2 years, on average)	Graduation (CCT+)	Low	Macours et al. (2012a)	Value livestock sold or self-consumed (training arm)	3,880		-33.570	38.500	(-72.070, 4.930)
Medium term (up to 2)	Graduation (UCT+)	Serious	Sabates-Wheeler et al. (2018)	Tropical livestock units (TLU)			0.260***	0.020	(0.240, 0.280)
Medium term (up to 2)	Graduation (UCT+)	Serious	Sabates-Wheeler et al. (2018)	Value of assets			9.430***	0.820	(8.610, 10.250)
Medium term (27 months, on average)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	Total net assets (current UGX, microenterprise programs)	3,796		16343.000***	5449.000	(10894.000, 21792.000)
Medium term (27 months, on average)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	Total net assets (current UGX, transfer programs)	2,773		15852.000*	8397.000	(7455.000, 24249.000)
Medium term (18 months)	UCT+	Serious	Stoeffler et al. (2020)	Assets owned	786		0.125		
Medium term (18 months)	UCT+	Serious	Stoeffler et al. (2020)	Livestock (TLU)	786		0.379**		
Medium term (18 months)	UCT+	Serious	Stoeffler et al. (2020)	Value of livestock (FCFA)	786		73603.500**		

Legend: * 'p-value < 0.1' ** 'p-value < 0.05' *** 'p-value < 0.01'. 95% CI = Confidence intervals at 95% confidence level. Risk-of-bias attributed following the RoB 2 or ROBINS-I tools, for experimental and quasi-experimental evidence, respectively (Higgins et al., 2021). When reported differently, statistics were rounded to the nearest three decimals.

Table 13. Summary of treatment coefficients and risk-of-bias: Empowerment outcome. *Source:* elaborated by the author.

Sustainability measurement (years after end of exposure)	***Program type***	***Risk-of-bias***	***Study***	***Variable***	***N***	***Range***	***Coefficient***	***SE***	***95% CI***
Early pregnancy and marriage									
Long term (9 years)	Enterprise UCT	Low	Blattman et al. (2020)	Mean age of children (0-15)	2,086		0.014	0.138	(-0.124, 0.152)
Long term (9 years)	Enterprise UCT	Low	Blattman et al. (2020)	Number of pregnancies 2007 or later	2,086		0.097	0.101	(-0.004, 0.198)
Long term (9 years)	Enterprise UCT	Low	Blattman et al. (2020)	Size of household	2,086		-0.127	0.162	(-0.289, 0.035)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Ever married (men, 19-26 years old)	64,663	0 to 1	0.030*	0.018	(0.012, 0.048)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Ever married (women, 19-26 years old)	69,522	0 to 1	-0.002	0.020	(-0.022, 0.018)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Household size (men, 19-26 years old)	64,663		0.069	0.154	(-0.085, 0.223)
Long term (up to 13)	CCT+	Low	Molina Millán et al. (2020)	Household size (women, 19-26 years old)	69,522		0.133	0.098	(0.035, 0.231)
Long term (up to 5)	CCT	Moderate	Alam et al. (2011)	Age at marriage	339		-0.151	0.388	(-0.539, 0.237)
Long term (up to 5)	CCT	Moderate	Alam et al. (2011)	Number of children	392		0.096	0.150	(-0.054, 0.246)
Long term (up to 5)	CCT	Moderate	Alam et al. (2011)	Probability of giving birth	392		-0.011	0.121	(-0.132, 0.110)
Long term (up to 5)	CCT	Moderate	Alam et al. (2011)	Probability of marriage	19,177		0.010	0.009	(0.001, 0.019)
Long term (up to 8)	CCT+	Moderate	Attanasio et al. (2021)	Teenage pregnancy (women)	80,600		-0.023**	0.008	(-0.031, -0.015)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Age at first birth (rural cohort 1: 5 years of transfers)	22,397		0.476***	0.097	(0.379, 0.573)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Age at first birth (rural cohort 2: 2 years of transfers)	22,397		0.304***	0.077	(0.227, 0.381)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Age at first marriage (rural cohort 1: 5 years of transfers)	24,329		0.574***	0.082	(0.492, 0.656)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Age at first marriage (rural cohort 2: 2 years of transfers)	24,329		0.340***	0.081	(0.259, 0.421)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Desired number of children (rural cohort 1: 5 years of transfers)	23,958		-0.067***	0.014	(-0.081, -0.053)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Desired number of children (rural cohort 2: 2 years of transfers)	23,958		-0.049**	0.020	(-0.069, -0.029)

Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Number of children (rural cohort 1: 5 years of transfers)	24,329		-0.285***	0.039	(-0.324, -0.246)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Number of children (rural cohort 2: 2 years of transfers)	24,329		-0.195***	0.032	(-0.227, -0.163)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT and CCT	Low	Baird et al. (2019)	Age at first birth (CCT)	998		-0.144	0.136	(-0.280, -0.008)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT and CCT	Low	Baird et al. (2019)	Age at first birth (UCT)	998		0.001	0.168	(-0.167, 0.169)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT and CCT	Low	Baird et al. (2019)	Age first marriage (CCT)	821		-0.011	0.148	(-0.159, 0.137)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT and CCT	Low	Baird et al. (2019)	Age first marriage (UCT)	821		0.486**	0.200	(0.286, 0.686)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT and CCT	Low	Baird et al. (2019)	Desired fertility (CCT)	2,048		-0.072	0.064	(-0.136, -0.008)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT and CCT	Low	Baird et al. (2019)	Desired fertility (UCT)	2,048		-0.017	0.056	(-0.073, 0.039)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT and CCT	Low	Baird et al. (2019)	Ever married (CCT)	2,049	0 to 1	-0.035	0.027	(-0.062, -0.008)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT and CCT	Low	Baird et al. (2019)	Ever married (UCT)	2,049	0 to 1	-0.010	0.046	(-0.056, 0.036)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT and CCT	Low	Baird et al. (2019)	Ever pregnant (CCT)	2,049		-0.024	0.034	(-0.058, 0.010)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT and CCT	Low	Baird et al. (2019)	Ever pregnant (UCT)	2,049		-0.001	0.042	(-0.043, 0.041)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT and CCT	Low	Baird et al. (2019)	Number of live births (CCT)	2,049		0.020	0.036	(-0.016, 0.056)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT and CCT	Low	Baird et al. (2019)	Number of live births (UCT)	2,049		-0.024	0.046	(-0.070, 0.022)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT	Moderate	Filmer & Schady (2014)	Has children	2,973	0 to 1	0.001	0.016	(-0.015, 0.017)
Medium term (2 years)	UCT	Moderate	Filmer & Schady (2014)	Married	2,973	0 to 1	0.001	0.024	(-0.023, 0.025)
Decision-making power									
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Contraception observable by husband (rural cohort 1: 5 years of transfers)	24,329	0 to 1	0.027***	0.009	(0.018, 0.036)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Contraception observable by husband (rural cohort 2: 2 years of transfers)	24,329	0 to 1	-0.005	0.011	(-0.016, 0.006)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Use of contraception (rural cohort 1: 5 years of transfers)	24,329	0 to 1	-0.007	0.011	(-0.018, 0.004)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Use of contraception (rural cohort 2: 2 years of transfers)	24,329	0 to 1	-0.013	0.013	(-0.026, 0.000)
Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Women's empowerment (rural cohort 1: 5 years of transfers)	23,792		0.039*	0.021	(0.018, 0.060)

Long term (up to 17)	CCT	Moderate	Hahn et al. (2018)	Women's empowerment (rural cohort 2: 2 years of transfers)	23,792		-0.029	0.030	(-0.059, 0.001)
Medium term (6 to 10 months)	UCT+	Low	Roy et al. (2019)	Control over money (transfer only)	2,231		0.040	0.030	(0.010, 0.070)
Medium term (6 to 10 months)	UCT+	Low	Roy et al. (2019)	Control over money (transfer+BCC)	2,231		0.100***	0.030	(0.070, 0.130)
Medium term (up to 2)	Graduation (UCT+)	Low	Banerjee et al. (2015)	Women's empowerment index			0.022	0.025	(-0.003, 0.047)
Medium term (up to 2)	UCT+	Low	Özler et al. (2020)	Gender attitudes index	1,161		0.228***	0.081	(0.147, 0.309)
Medium term (up to 2)	UCT+	Low	Özler et al. (2020)	Life skills index	1,156		0.289***	0.094	(0.195, 0.383)
Abuse (physical and non-physical)									
Long term (up to 3)	UCT	Low	Haushofer & Shapiro (2018)	Female empowerment index	943		0.150*	0.080	(0.070, 0.230)
Medium term (6 to 10 months)	UCT+	Low	Roy et al. (2019)	Emotional or physical violence (transfer only)	2,231		0.020	0.040	(-0.020, 0.060)
Medium term (6 to 10 months)	UCT+	Low	Roy et al. (2019)	Emotional or physical violence (transfer+BCC)	2,231		-0.040	0.040	(-0.080, 0.000)
Medium term (6 to 10 months)	UCT+	Low	Roy et al. (2019)	Emotional violence (transfer only)	2,231		0.030	0.040	(-0.010, 0.070)
Medium term (6 to 10 months)	UCT+	Low	Roy et al. (2019)	Emotional violence (transfer+BCC)	2,231		-0.020	0.040	(-0.060, 0.020)
Medium term (6 to 10 months)	UCT+	Low	Roy et al. (2019)	Physical violence (transfer only)	2,231		0.000	0.020	(-0.020, 0.020)
Medium term (6 to 10 months)	UCT+	Low	Roy et al. (2019)	Physical violence (transfer+BCC)	2,231		-0.070**	0.030	(-0.110, -0.040)
Medium term (up to 2)	UCT+	Low	Özler et al. (2020)	Sexual and physical violence index	1,175		-0.031	0.060	(-0.091, 0.029)

Legend: * 'p-value < 0.1' ** 'p-value < 0.05' *** 'p-value < 0.01'. 95% CI = Confidence intervals at 95% confidence level. Risk-of-bias attributed following the RoB 2 or ROBINS-I tools, for experimental and quasi-experimental evidence, respectively (Higgins et al., 2021). When reported differently, statistics were rounded to the nearest three decimals.

Table 14. Summary of treatment coefficients and risk-of-bias: Social capital and agency outcome. *Source:* elaborated by the author.

Sustainability measurement (years after end of exposure)	***Program type***	***Risk-of-bias***	***Study***	***Variable***	***N***	***Range***	***Coefficient***	***SE***	***95% CI***
Long term (up to 8)	CCT+	Moderate	Attanasio et al. (2021)	Crime (men)	82,647		-0.027**	0.009	(-0.036, -0.018)
Medium term (up to 2)	Graduation (UCT+)	Low	Banerjee et al. (2015)	Political involvement index			0.064***	0.019	(0.045, 0.083)
Medium term (up to 2)	UCT+	Low	Özler et al. (2020)	Protective factors (social capital and gender norms)	1,052		0.099	0.106	(-0.007, 0.205)
Medium term (27 months, on average)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	Social conditions (current UGX, microenterprise programs)			0.088**	0.041	(0.047, 0.129)
Medium term (27 months, on average)	Graduation (UCT+)	Moderate	Sedlmayr et al. (2020)	Social conditions (current UGX, transfer programs)			-0.025	0.061	(-0.086, 0.036)

Legend: * 'p-value < 0.1' ** 'p-value < 0.05' *** 'p-value < 0.01'. 95% CI = Confidence intervals at 95% confidence level. Risk-of-bias attributed following the RoB 2 or ROBINS-I tools, for experimental and quasi-experimental evidence, respectively (Higgins et al., 2021). When reported differently, statistics were rounded to the nearest three decimals.

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