

# **Empowering Africa's peoples with decent work**

12th African Regional Meeting  
Johannesburg, 11–14 October 2011

**Report of the Director-General**

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE

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## Director-General's foreword

In Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, in April 2007, you gave the continent the Decent Work Agenda in Africa, 2007–15, grounded on the outcomes of the 2004 African Union Extraordinary Summit of Heads of State and Government on Employment and Poverty Alleviation.

In Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso, in December 2009, at the First African Decent Work Symposium, you reaffirmed the need to implement the Global Jobs Pact as a decent work response to the crisis in order to accelerate the process of jobs recovery.

In Yaoundé, Cameroon, in October 2010, at the Second African Decent Work Symposium, you adopted a “New Vision for inclusive, job-rich growth for Africa” as well as the “Yaoundé Declaration on the Implementation of the Social Protection Floor”.

I salute with respect and admiration a committed tripartite Africa which has constantly strived for policy coherence and concerted action to place productive employment and decent work at the heart of recovery and development policies.

So, as we gather here in Johannesburg, South Africa in October 2011 for the 12th ILO African Regional Meeting, we do not assemble in a spirit of gloom.

Enormous progress has been made. Africa is strong. It is resilient. It has bounced back from the financial and economic crisis. Africa is said to be almost back to pre-crisis levels of economic growth (5.5 per cent projected in 2011).

However, daunting challenges for the continent remain with us. Across the region, the rebound of economic growth has still not reduced poverty, unemployment and underemployment. What does Africa's economic growth mean for young people if such growth is not translated into concrete opportunities for them in the labour market? Events in North Africa and the Middle East are an important reminder of why employment, and more importantly youth employment, should be at the centre of the global development agenda.

In this connection, this report, titled *Empowering Africa's peoples with decent work*, has three parts:

- Chapter 1 provides an overview of the economic, social and labour policy orientations needed to promote a job-rich and inclusive growth.
- Chapter 2 undertakes a critical mid-term review of the implementation of the Decent Work Agenda in Africa, 2007–15.
- Chapter 3 provides a framework for how best to accelerate the realization and deepen the real impact of the Decent Work Agenda on Africa's ordinary people, in particular its young people.

I invite you to assess the progress made towards achieving the targets set by the Decent Work Agenda in Africa (DWAA) during the period 2007–11. They are intentionally ambitious, as they were set in order to promote an economic and social development paradigm for building decent societies in Africa and thus anchor the achievement of the MDGs.

I congratulate tripartite Africa on the considerable work done and the substantive results achieved. The magnitude of the task ahead provides further impetus for accelerating the pace to ensure that these DWAA targets can be met in a timely way.

It is my strong belief that country ownership of the Agenda, anchored by a strong commitment to embed the Decent Work Agenda in national development strategies, policies and programmes,

is the next critical step we need to take if we want to move at the speed and on the scale required to achieve the targets set in the Decent Work Agenda in Africa, 2007–15.

The report therefore proposes the following framework for fast-tracking the mainstreaming of the Decent Work Agenda and the accelerated implementation of the Decent Work Agenda in Africa, 2007–15: building synergies between the 17 targets; strengthening capacity; managing knowledge; bridging the resource gaps; and partnering for decent work.

I remain deeply convinced that, through a speedy and successful implementation of this Agenda, a new era of social justice is dawning in Africa. Once again, I look to Africa to take the lead and to all of you to provide the direction for the years ahead.

Juan Somavia  
Director-General

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## Acronyms and abbreviations

ACLAE	Arab Centre for Labour Administration and Employment
AfDB	African Development Bank
AIP	Agriculture Investment Plan
ARLAC	African Regional Labour Administration Centre
AU	African Union
AUC	African Union Commission
BRIC	Brazil, Russian Federation, India and China
CAADP	Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme
CCA	Common Country Assessment
CIS	Commonwealth of Independent States
COMMIT	Commission Initiative against Trafficking (of the African Union)
CRADAT	Centre régional africain d'administration du travail (regional labour administration training centre)
DSA	Department of Social Affairs (of the African Union)
DWAA	Decent Work Agenda in Africa, 2007–15
DWCP	Decent Work Country Programme
EAC	East African Community
EATUC	East African Trade Union Confederation
ECA	Economic Commission for Africa
ECCAS	Economic Community of Central African States
ECOSOC	Economic and Social Council
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
FDI	foreign direct investment
GDP	gross domestic product
GESS	Global Extension of Social Security
IGAD	Intergovernmental Authority on Development
IMF	International Monetary Fund
ITUC	International Trade Union Confederation
LDC	least developed country
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MSMEs	micro-, small and medium enterprises

NAP	National Action Plan
NEDLAC	National Economic Development Labour Council (South Africa)
OATUU	Organization of African Trade Union Unity
ODA	official development assistance
OSH	occupational safety and health
PEC	Pan-African Employers' Confederation
PPP	purchasing power parity
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
RBSA	Regular Budget Supplementary Account
RCM	Regional Coordination Mechanism
REC	Regional Economic Community
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SMEs	small and medium-sized enterprises
SPF	Social Policy Framework
TVET	technical and vocational education and training
UEMOA	Union économique et monétaire ouest-africaine (West African Economic and Monetary Union)
UN	United Nations
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDAF	United Nations Development Assistance Framework
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
WED	women's entrepreneurship development
WEDGE	Women's Economic Development and Gender Equality
WHO	World Health Organization
YEN	Youth Employment Network

## Introduction

The world is still reeling from a jobless recovery. While growth in most African countries is well at pre-crisis levels, a number of key lessons have been learnt. The various crises that existed before the onset of the global financial and economic crisis remain largely unresolved. In effect the global recession has simply added to an already long list of Africa's development challenges, the main ones being poverty, the HIV/AIDS pandemic, hunger, vulnerable employment, inequalities and political strife, to name a few.

The recent political and social uprisings in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) have brought to the fore the daunting problem of youth unemployment in a number of African countries – many of which are battling with youth unemployment rates among the highest in the world. In 2009, around 25 per cent of the youth labour force in the MENA region was unable to find a job. Although few could have predicted the chain of events that have transpired across the MENA region, a number of reports (those of the ILO included) forewarned of the lack of sustainability of having such large numbers of unemployed young people in the labour force and the imminent threat this posed for social cohesion.

When African constituents adopted the Decent Work Agenda in Africa, 2007–15, at the 11th ILO African Regional Meeting (Addis Ababa, 24–27 April 2007), the continent was growing at a rate above 5 per cent, as had been the case for much of the decade. A number of factors were credited for this impressive performance: increased export earnings as a result of high commodity prices; foreign direct investment (FDI) inflows; official development assistance (ODA) support; and remittances from abroad. Internal factors, mainly political stability and better macroeconomic management, also contributed to this high growth.

However, despite the high growth the continent was experiencing, it was clear that it was not sustainable, given the external dependence of the economies. The export-oriented strategy, which much of Africa was pursuing, was largely reliant on agricultural products, minerals, and oil – all of which are vulnerable to volatility in world commodity markets, hence affecting revenue inflows. In a number of countries much of the growth had been in the extractive and primary commodity producing sectors, whose boom was often disconnected from the rest of the economy. The enclave nature of the economy, coupled with the capital-intensive production processes, meant that there were few forward and backward linkages. Moreover these sectors are known to be characterized by low employment elasticities.

The external shock caused by the global financial and economic crisis led to a slowdown in growth. The effects on growth were mainly through channels such as declining export earnings, a fall in FDI inflows and, in some cases, aid, remittances, and tourism receipts – exposing the vulnerability of African countries.

To consolidate the post-crisis economic recovery, the policy challenge for Africa is the adoption of a framework that allows coherence between the objectives of growth and the generation of employment and decent work. This message was also highlighted in the ILO report, *Growth, employment and decent work in the least developed countries*, presented at the Fourth United Nations Conference on the Least Developed Countries (LDCs)<sup>1</sup> (Istanbul, 9–13 May 2011). The

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<sup>1</sup> Thirty-three of the world's 48 LDCs are in Africa, and are confronted with daunting challenges and structural weaknesses that justify special consideration from the international development community.

report takes note of the central role of productive employment and decent work in upholding productive capacities and the economic and social resilience of people in the LDCs.

ILO actions in response to the crises continued to be guided by the Declaration, Plan of Action and Follow-up Mechanism on Employment and Poverty Alleviation in Africa, adopted by the Extraordinary Summit of the African Union Heads of State and Government on Employment and Poverty Alleviation in Africa (Ouagadougou, September 2004). Furthermore the ILO Declaration on Social Justice for a Fair Globalization, adopted at the 97th Session of the International Labour Conference (2008), came “at a crucial political moment, reflecting the wide consensus on the need for a strong social dimension to globalization in achieving improved and fair outcomes for all”. Moreover, due to the “widespread uncertainty in the world of work, continued situations of labour rights abuses, growing concerns with the course of globalization and the need for international organizations to work much better together on these issues”, the 2008 Declaration “constitutes a compass for the promotion of a fair globalization based on Decent Work, as well as a practical tool to accelerate progress in the implementation of the Decent Work Agenda at the country level”.<sup>2</sup> The Declaration is thus a useful guide for developing an effective convergence of national and international policies that lead to a fair globalization and to greater access to decent work for all.

It should be noted that the Declaration itself drew inspiration from the 2004 report of the World Commission on the Social Dimension of Globalization.<sup>3</sup> Convening at a two-day Special Meeting on an African perspective to the ILO Declaration on Social Justice for a Fair Globalization (Addis Ababa, 9–10 October 2008), African governments, employers’ and workers’ organizations represented in the ILO Governing Body, renewed their unwavering support for the Declaration. In light of the fact that Africa was already grappling with the crisis, as well as high food and fuel prices, the Meeting called for a speedy promotion, broad popularization and effective implementation of the Declaration.

In direct response to the global crisis, the International Labour Conference adopted the Global Jobs Pact at its 98th Session (2009) following the ILO Summit on the Global Jobs Crisis, which was attended by Heads of State and Government, vice-presidents and ministers of labour, workers’ and employers’ representatives and other leaders. The Global Jobs Pact is the ILO’s crisis response framework designed to guide national and international policies aimed at stimulating economic recovery, generating jobs and providing protection to working people and their families. Since its adoption, it has found resonance globally.

The First African Decent Work Symposium on “Recovering from the crisis: The implementation of the Global Jobs Pact in Africa” (Ouagadougou, 1–2 December 2009)<sup>4</sup> was the response by the African tripartite constituents and other partners to implement the Global Jobs Pact on the continent. It provided an opportunity for the real actors of the economy – workers, employers and governments – to interact to ensure an effective recovery in Africa from the global financial and economic crisis. The Symposium adopted a “Roadmap for the implementation of the Global Jobs Pact in Africa”, and urged ILO constituents to organize national dialogues on strategies for recovery, based on the Pact. A call was also made to align Decent Work Country Programmes (DWCPs) with it. The Symposium further stressed the need to be vigilant that fundamental principles and rights at work were not compromised, while identifying social dialogue as the key mechanism for African recovery strategies.

The Second Social Partners’ Forum, which preceded the First African Decent Work Symposium, met in Ouagadougou on 30 November 2009. It brought together representatives of employers’ and workers’ organizations that were members of the Pan-African Employers’ Confederation (PEC), the African Regional Organization of the International Trade Union Confederation (ITUC–Africa) and

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<sup>2</sup> ILO: *ILO Declaration on Social Justice for a Fair Globalization*, Preface by Mr Juan Somavia, International Labour Conference, 97th Session, Geneva, 2008.

<sup>3</sup> ILO: *A fair globalization: Creating opportunities for all*, World Commission on the Social Dimension of Globalization, Geneva, 2004.

<sup>4</sup> The Symposium was itself held as a follow-up to the decision of the 11th ILO African Regional Meeting which called on the ILO to organize an “African decent work symposium bringing together independent researchers, constituents, ILO field staff and partner agencies to review knowledge in selected aspects of the Decent Work Agenda ...”.

the Organization of African Trade Union Unity (OATUU). Held under the theme “Mobilizing social dialogue for the implementation of the Global Jobs Pact in Africa”, the Forum adopted the Declaration “Acting together for the ILO Global Jobs Pact”, in which the participants committed themselves to the implementation of the Global Jobs Pact in Africa.

### The Global Jobs Pact in Africa: Key steps

In Africa a number of major meetings have endorsed the Global Jobs Pact, with several follow-up actions at regional, subregional and continental levels. In addition, various follow-up activities to the Forum have been held:

1. Preparatory Meeting of Experts on the First African Decent Work Symposium (Addis Ababa, February 2009).
2. Special Meeting of the Tripartite African Members of the ILO Governing Body (Geneva, March 2009).
3. East African Trade Union Confederation (EATUC) Forum on the “Global financial crisis and its impact on the East African labour market” (Nairobi, April 2009).
4. OATUU Workshop on the “Global financial crisis, decent work and the challenges to the social partners” (Cairo, May 2009).
5. African Employers’ Forum on “The financial crisis, economic recovery and employment” (Nairobi, May 2009).
6. ITUC–Africa meeting on the recovery from the crisis and the Global Jobs Pact (Lomé, September 2009).
7. 7th Ordinary Session of the African Union Labour and Social Affairs Commission (Addis Ababa, September/October 2009).
8. Regional Consultative Forum on health *mutuelles* (Yaoundé, September/October 2009).
9. Arab Employment Forum on “A jobs pact for recovery and growth” (Beirut, October 2009).
10. ILO Conference “The social economy – Africa’s response to the global crisis” (Johannesburg, October 2009).
11. ILO stocktaking workshop on the economic crisis and the role of public employment services in the implementation of the Global Jobs Pact (Yaoundé, October 2009).
12. Regional Forum for Africa on women’s entrepreneurship development: In response to the financial crisis (Cairo, October 2009).
13. Subregional workshop on “The role of labour administration in French-speaking Africa in the implementation of the Global Jobs Pact” (Douala, October 2009).
14. OATUU “Sensitization workshop on African trade union response to the global financial and economic crisis” (Accra, October 2009).
15. Tripartite workshop on the impact of the financial crisis on finance sector workers in selected African countries (Dar es Salaam, December 2009).
16. High-level Conference “Employment and sustainable enterprises: The contribution of the African private sector to the G20 debates” (Johannesburg, April 2010).
17. ITUC–Africa forum on trade union responses to the financial and economic crisis and the Global Jobs Pact (Lomé, October 2010).
18. Subregional Conference on “What is the trade union contribution to regional integration policies?” (Bamako, December 2010).

Given that the growth revival of the 2000s in the region was not rapid enough to ensure the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), what role can macroeconomic policies play in boosting the recovery process? The available evidence suggests that countercyclical fiscal policy can play a major role in enhancing post-crisis growth, with one study suggesting that

aid-financed public investment in infrastructure of the order of US\$40 billion would be required to remove the output gap in sub-Saharan Africa caused by the global financial and economic crisis.<sup>5</sup> Whether countries in the region are capable of implementing pro-employment fiscal policy will depend a great deal on the availability of fiscal space and on the willingness of policy-makers to re-think key elements of the mainstream macroeconomic framework.

A major feature of the mainstream macroeconomic framework is the quest to attain nominal targets pertaining to inflation, debts and deficits. This has certainly contributed to improved macroeconomic stability, but this has not translated into adequate growth and employment dividends in the region. Indeed, for the sample of 29 sub-Saharan African countries with access to the Poverty Reduction and Growth Facility (PRGF), per capita income in the mid-2000s was still lower than it was in 1980 – while aggregate poverty has remained roughly constant over the last 20 years.<sup>6</sup>

With this suboptimal record of performance, the mainstream macroeconomic framework has been called into question. At institutional and governmental levels, there is an ongoing reorientation of the development thinking, which revolves around ensuring that the current growth process is more domestically driven. At their meeting in Lilongwe, Malawi, in March 2010, the African Ministers of Finance, Planning and Economic Development noted the challenge before them: “how to restart, accelerate and sustain growth and ensure that this growth creates decent jobs resulting, ultimately, in poverty eradication on the continent”.<sup>7</sup> Employment generation, trade transformation, domestic resource mobilization, food security, and the building of a democratic developmental state have equally been highlighted as key ingredients of the post-crisis African growth path.

In the same vein, the Fourth Joint Annual Meetings of the AU Conference of Ministers of Economy and Finance and ECA Conference of African Ministers of Finance, Planning and Economic Development (Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, March 2011), was convened under the theme “Governing development in Africa”. The Conference provided an opportunity for discussion on the State’s role in development, with a view to identifying an appropriate set of interventions to enhance this role in performing the key tasks necessary and essential for economic transformation in Africa. The Ministerial Statement adopted underscored the essential and constructive roles that the State could and should play in addressing development challenges, particularly in accelerating economic growth and promoting jobs creation to eradicate poverty and achieve the MDGs.

At the ILO, none of the above aspirations are new, as they are part of a consistent package of messages that the Organization has constantly been advocating. Already in 2004, the Report of the World Commission on the Social Dimension of Globalization asserted that:

All nations are increasingly interdependent, and we urgently need better and fairer global rules, policies and institutions. But before coming to those essential questions, we must start at home. People experience the problems and opportunities of an increasingly interconnected world, often different for women and men, within their own communities and countries. Policies within nations continue to be a key factor in determining whether or not countries and people benefit from globalization. We need to examine the means and instruments available to governments, and to social actors within countries, to enable citizens to participate effectively in the gains of globalization and to protect and provide assistance when adjustments are required.<sup>8</sup>

The historic IMF–ILO Conference on “The challenges of growth, employment and social cohesion” (Oslo, September 2010) called for a broad international commitment to a jobs-focused policy response to the global economic downturn. There was consensus on the central role that effective social dialogue could play in building the consensus needed to tackle the difficult

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<sup>5</sup> R. Barrell et al.: *A fiscal stimulus to address the effects of the global financial crisis on sub-Saharan Africa* (London, Overseas Development Institute and National Institute of Economic and Social Research, 2009).

<sup>6</sup> The PRGF is the main instrument used by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) to provide policy support to low-income countries.

<sup>7</sup> UN Economic Commission for Africa (ECA)/African Union (AU): *Ministerial Statement adopted by the Third Joint Annual Meetings of the AU Conference of Ministers of Economy and Finance and ECA Conference of Ministers of Finance, Planning and Economic Development* (Lilongwe, Malawi, 2010).

<sup>8</sup> ILO: *A fair globalization: Creating opportunities for all*, op. cit., para. 233, p. 54.

adjustment challenges created by the crisis, and to ensure that the social consequences of the crisis and its aftermath were taken fully into account. In order to ensure consistency between a country's labour market, social protection and employment policies with ILO standards and to support macroeconomic stabilization and sustainable growth, the IMF and ILO are exploring ways to work together with tripartite partners in selected countries – in which social dialogue could be a critical means to strengthen social cohesion – as well as identify policies to address key recovery and adjustment challenges.

### The Global Jobs Pact Country Scan

The Global Jobs Pact Country Scan is prepared by the ILO and made available to constituents as an input into their national policy dialogue and setting processes. It examines the country situation and policy responses “through the lens” of the Pact. It has three broad parts:

- Part I: Overview of crisis impact on decent work in the country
- Part II: Description of crisis response and recovery policies
- Part III: Shaping a fair and sustainable globalization

An executive summary is added to the final version of the document.

South Africa's Global Jobs Pact Country Scan, presented to the 310th Session of the ILO Governing Body (Geneva, March 2011), as an input to national policy dialogue, will also be useful for capacity-building activities and serve as an important knowledge-sharing resource for other countries facing similar decent work challenges.

It will be recalled that social dialogue has guided South Africa's efforts towards meaningful recovery through decent and productive jobs. At the onset of the global financial and economic crisis, the government and social partners, under the auspices of the National Economic Development and Labour Advisory Committee (NEDLAC), adopted the “Framework for South Africa's response to the international financial crisis” in February 2009. This national framework agreement has been the vehicle through which anti-crisis measures have been adopted and implemented. Consultations through NEDLAC have continued on further aspects of the crisis, including the Global Jobs Pact Country Scan.

The Second African Decent Work Symposium on “Building a social protection floor with the Global Jobs Pact” (Yaoundé, 2010) adopted the “New Vision for inclusive, job-rich growth for Africa”. While recognizing that “no one size fits all”, the success of the Vision is vested in the following:

- (1) due recognition to the proactive role of the developmental state;
- (2) policy coherence by mainstreaming employment targeting and employment impact assessment in economic strategies at macro, sectoral and local levels;
- (3) priority to human resources development, through improving education and skills development;
- (4) removal of binding constraints in the African economy for quality employment generation, especially through demand-side policies and a better enabling environment for sustainable enterprises;
- (5) the adoption of sustainable and responsible workplace practices and investments;
- (6) reversal of the process of de-industrialization: diversifying output and exports to generate more quality employment growth and accelerate needed structural changes;
- (7) sectoral policies that encourage economic diversification, structural change, regional integration with higher employment content and productivity growth;

- (8) a better balance between exports and domestic markets, to cushion the domestic economy from exogenous shocks and bring about sustainable growth;
- (9) a higher rate of domestic savings and investment to reduce dependence on external resources;
- (10) more investment in agriculture, combining pro-agricultural policies with strategies for non-farm development, and addressing the challenges of climate change;
- (11) the growth potential of SMEs through properly targeted reforms including measures facilitating formalization;
- (12) adequate policy space and institutions for including the working poor, informal workers and entrepreneurs, through innovative public employment schemes, employment-intensive infrastructure investments, entrepreneurship promotion and social protection, and facilitating their transition to formality;
- (13) strong labour market institutions, including labour administration and social dialogue for wage/income-led productivity growth; and
- (14) the social protection floor to protect persons and families, especially the most vulnerable and those in the informal economy.



# 1. Towards a job-rich and inclusive economic growth

## 1.1. Introduction

Africa's economic performance in the first decade of the twenty-first century was commendable, with the growth resurgence evenly spread. Of the 49 countries for which comparable data over time were available, 36 increased their GDP growth between the 1990s and the 2000s, or kept it constant, while 13 countries reduced their GDP growth between these two time periods.<sup>9</sup> Only six countries' growth dipped below 2 per cent per annum between 2000 and 2007, compared to 18 countries over the period 1990–2000.

The global financial and economic crisis was to reverse that. Given the external nature of the shock, the more open economies experienced larger drops in growth in 2009. Only two countries (Congo and Ethiopia) grew by 7 per cent or more that year. Seventeen countries managed to grow by between 3 and 5 per cent, but the majority (29) grew by 3 per cent or less.<sup>10</sup> Benefiting from an increase in oil prices, the oil-exporting countries performed better than their non-oil-producing counterparts.

Continental GDP growth fell to 2.3 per cent in 2009, before rising to 4.7 per cent in 2010. It is now expected to reach 5.0 per cent in 2011,<sup>11</sup> due to increased international demand for and higher prices of the traditional export commodities, and to a recovery in tourism, as well as rising FDI mainly to extract minerals and oil.

There were subregional variations in economic performance. In 2010, East Africa grew fastest at 6.8 per cent, followed by West Africa (6.0 per cent), North Africa (4.7 per cent), Central Africa (4.3 per cent) and southern Africa (3.3 per cent).

In West Africa, Ghana, Guinea, Liberia, Niger, Nigeria and Sierra Leone registered the fastest growth rates. Ethiopia, Rwanda, United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda were behind the impressive performance of eastern Africa – attributed mainly to expansion in their industrial and services sectors, especially the telecommunication subsector and construction. Agriculture, mining and continued investment were the main sources of this growth. In North Africa, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya and Mauritania grew fastest. In southern Africa, Malawi, Mozambique and Zambia grew at 6.0 per cent or more, with mining and agriculture being the key factors. Central Africa averaged 3.7 per cent growth in 2010.

## 1.2. Africa's growth model is largely externally dependent

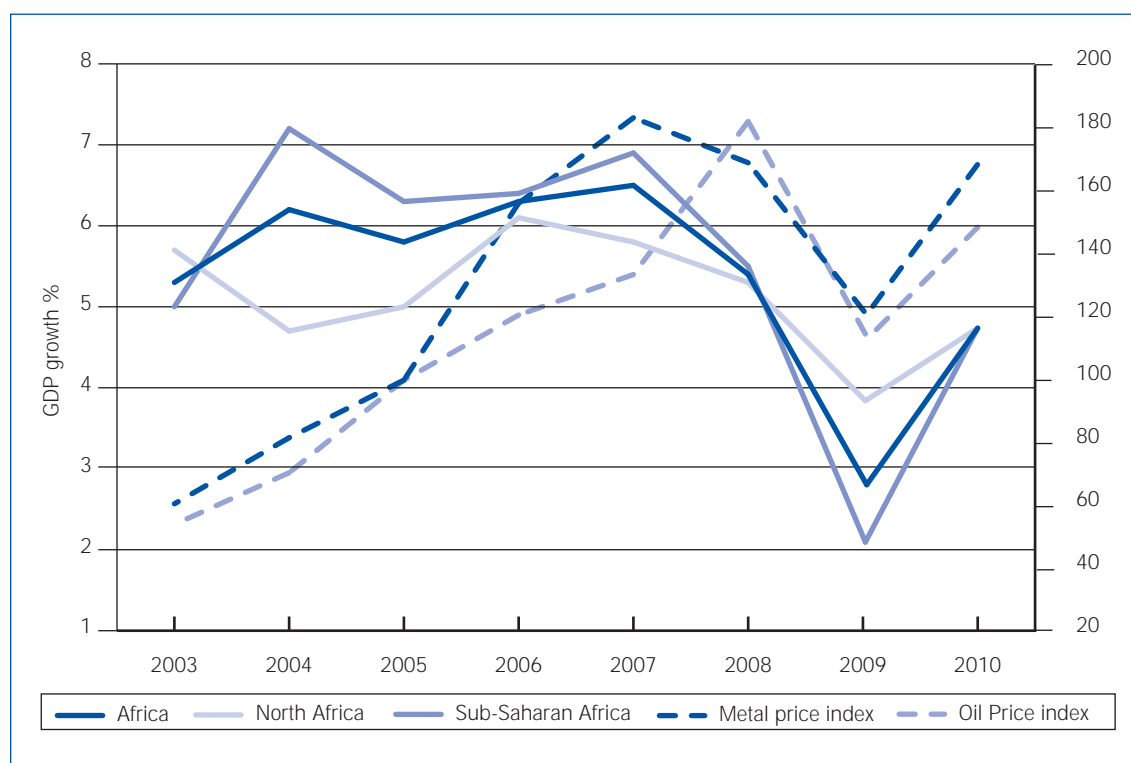
The reliance of the African growth model on exports of extractives made it vulnerable to exogenous price shocks. The collapse in global demand, triggered by the financial crisis, led to a collapse in commodity prices. The correlation between African GDP growth and oil and metal price indices is clear: GDP grew over the 2003–08 period, collapsed over 2009 and recovered again in 2010 with the increase in commodity prices (see figure 1.1).

<sup>9</sup> See details in Appendix IV, table A1.

<sup>10</sup> ECA/AU: *Economic Report on Africa 2010: Promoting high-level sustainable growth to reduce unemployment in Africa* (Addis Ababa, 2010), p. 52.

<sup>11</sup> ECA/AU: *Economic Report on Africa 2011: Governing development in Africa – The role of the State in economic transformation* (Addis Ababa, 2011).

Figure 1.1. Africa's GDP growth and the evolution of the commodity price index, 2003–10



Source: IMF: *World Economic Outlook 2010* (Washington, DC, 2010).

In 2008 sub-Saharan African exports represented only 2.2 per cent of total world exports and North African exports only 1.1 per cent. This was essentially driven by mineral fuels and lubricants, particularly for the sub-Saharan African region. A similar trend is seen for Africa's share of total world imports, with an increase by 0.8 percentage points for sub-Saharan Africa and 0.4 percentage points for North Africa between 2000 and 2009.

Indeed, the decade preceding the global crisis was one of strong trade growth, with world exports increasing at an average rate of 5.5 per cent between 2000 and 2007. This was temporarily reversed in 2009, when world trade dropped by an unprecedented 12 per cent. The contributions of African countries to world exports remained relatively stable over that period, with Africa's share corresponding to 2.3 per cent in 2000 and to 2.5 per cent in 2007. That share increased quite significantly in 2008 to 3.5 per cent, to a large extent because of the price increases in commodity markets, in particular oil. Trade within Africa represented 7.6 per cent of total African exports in 2000, rising to 9.6 per cent by 2008.

An important element of the African policy agenda is the extent to which regional trade within Africa can play a major role in export diversification (both in terms of products and trading partners) and strengthen the sustainability of growth. Trade within sub-Saharan Africa increased during most of the period, but dropped in 2008. A 2010 study jointly undertaken by the AU, ECA and the African Development Bank (AfDB) notes that only 10 to 12 per cent of total African trade takes place within the region, due to various constraints including the lack of complementarity between exports and imports, poor transport infrastructure and tariff and non-tariff barriers.<sup>12</sup> A striking change over the period has been the strong increase in importance of the BRIC countries (Brazil, Russian Federation, India and China) as a destination for sub-Saharan African exports (see table 1.1).

<sup>12</sup> ECA/AU/AfDB: *Assessing regional integration in Africa IV: Enhancing intra-African trade* (Addis Ababa, 2010), p. 87.

**Table 1.1. Sub-Saharan Africa's exports, by region of destination, 1995–2008**

Partner	1995	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008
World	100	100	100	100	100	100
BRIC	4	8	16	15	18	21
SSA	21	23	25	29	26	23
OECD	58	53	47	40	40	43
Rest of world	17	16	12	17	16	13

Note: SSA (sub-Saharan Africa) excluding South Africa.

Source: Comtrade.

The trade shock experienced during the crisis was both acute and global in that it affected all regions in the world (see table 1.2). World merchandise trade still experienced growth of around 15 per cent in 2008, but then dropped by 30 per cent in the first three quarters of 2009. All world regions experienced export drops of above 20 per cent, but the drop was particularly sharp in Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) countries and in Africa and the Middle East, regions that are important exporters of fuel and metals and that had benefited from the price increases in 2007 and 2008. In Africa and the Middle East, exports dropped by 50 per cent.

**Table 1.2. World merchandise exports and imports by region, 2008–09**  
(percentage change over preceding year, based on US\$ values)

	Exports		Imports	
	2008	2009 (Jan.–Sep.)	2008	2009 (Jan.–Sep.)
World	15.1	–30	15.2	–30
Western Europe	11.3	–30	12	–32
Asia	14.4	–24	20.4	–27
North America	10.6	–27	7.6	–30
2008	20.5	–25	30.1	–32
CIS	35.3	–45	32	–41
Africa and Middle East	31.2	–50	25.9	–21

Source: M. Finger: World trade developments before and during the financial crisis 2008/09, Study commissioned by the ILO (2010).

The lack of diversification in exports is one of the main sources of growth volatility for many African countries. Mineral fuels and lubricants represented 72 per cent of total exports for North Africa in 2007 and 60 per cent for sub-Saharan Africa. The fall in oil prices in 2009 reduced this share to 68.6 per cent for North Africa and 51.2 per cent for sub-Saharan Africa. This decline, however, had its counterpart in an increase in the food and beverages share of total exports, particularly for sub-Saharan Africa. On the other side, African countries import mainly machinery and transport equipment and other kinds of manufactured goods. While the share in total exports to North Africa for machinery and transport equipment was stable over the last decade (around 32 per cent), it dropped by 5 percentage points between 2000 and 2009 for sub-Saharan Africa.

In the area of capital inflows, Africa has become more aid-dependent in the 2000s. Net official development assistance (ODA) to Africa rose from US\$16 billion to US\$44 billion over the decade to 2008, increasing Africa's share of total ODA over this period from 31 per cent to 34 per cent. The ECA/AU report cited at the beginning of this chapter<sup>13</sup> found that this also increased the number of aid-dependent countries. Total foreign debt for Africa fell significantly

<sup>13</sup> ECA/AU: *Economic Report on Africa 2010*, op. cit.

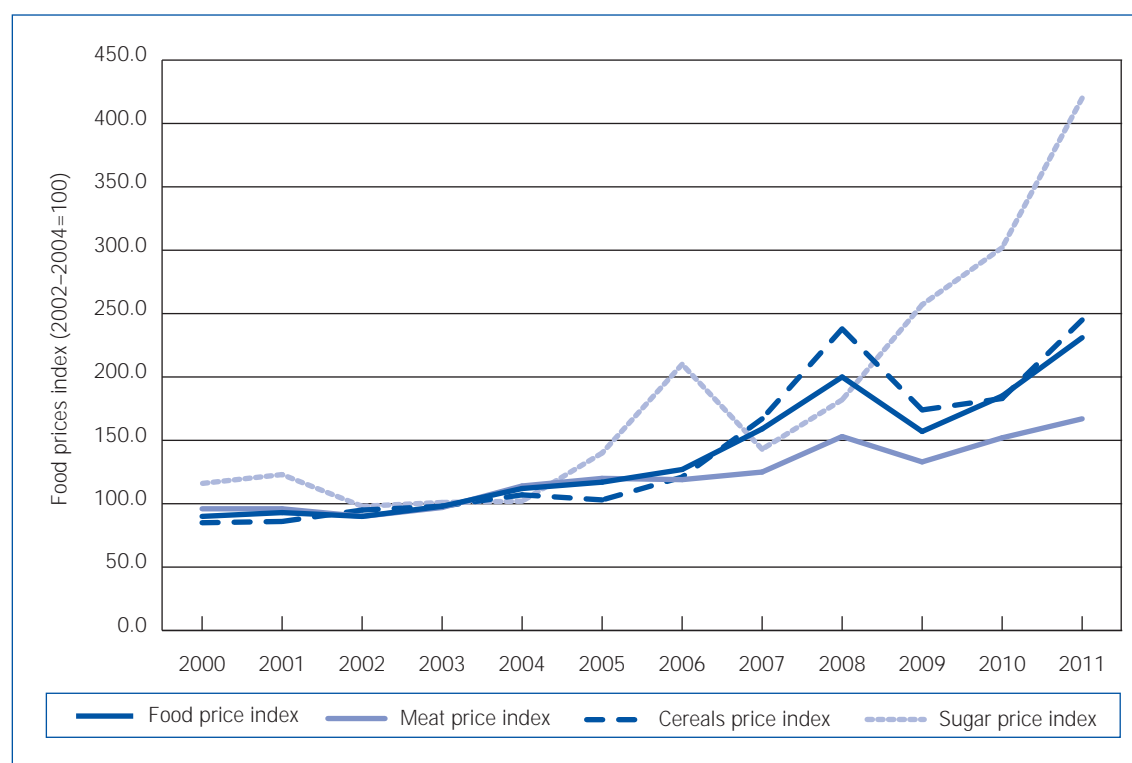
from 63 to 22 per cent of GDP over the decade to 2008; however, it increased to 25 per cent over 2009, and amounts to some 80 per cent of exports. FDI to Africa rose from US\$21 billion in 2003 to peak at US\$88 billion in 2008. Remittances peaked in 2008 at US\$41 billion. While remittance flows represent only a small portion of total world private capital flows, for a number of African countries they represent a major source of resource inflows that are essential for financing development. The 2010 ECA/AU report finds that FDI and remittances have narrow destinations and are sensitive to business cycles, as the nature of these external flows during the crisis testifies. Most FDI flows were directed towards mineral and resource-rich African countries, while the sharp drop in commodity prices constrained additional investment and implementation of projects. Government revenue also contracted considerably, with such revenues in sub-Saharan Africa declining from 25 per cent of GDP in 2008 to 21 per cent of GDP in 2009.

A key challenge to Africa's development strategy is the pace of recovery in the continent's trading and development partners. Sustainable recovery in Africa is threatened unless there is recovery in the European Union and North America. This calls for attention to be paid to a more domestically grounded growth policy in Africa.

### 1.3. *Rising food and fuel prices remain a major threat to Africa's growth and stability*

Rising food and energy prices are contributing not only to economic risks but also major political and social instability. Global food prices have been rising over the past decade and continue to do so, due to a host of factors which relate to both supply and demand. These factors include population growth, a shift in consumption patterns in developing countries, and the increased demands for biofuels by developed economies. While food prices have been rising since 2000, world market price increases since 2008 have been most remarkable (see figure 1.2).

Figure 1.2. World food prices, 2000–11



Note: Data for 2011 are for January only.  
Source: FAO statistics.

**Table 1.3. Increase in selected commodities prices, 2010**

	2009	2010	Difference (%)
Agricultural raw material index	111.22	149.62	34.5
Palm oil, US\$ per metric tonne	727.6	1171.22	61.0
Wheat, US\$ per metric tonne	206.25	306.99	48.8
Maize (corn), US\$ per metric tonne	164.58	251.02	52.5

Source: IMF commodity prices statistics.

The impacts of high food prices and food price volatility are heterogeneous across countries and population groups. Low-income food-deficit countries have been hit hard in recent years. Following this major spike, and despite the fact that the economic downturn in 2009 led to a lowering of prices, food prices still remained higher than pre-crisis levels, particularly in domestic markets. Moreover, prices are once again rising and becoming more volatile (see table 1.3). Together with recent increases, food price volatility is increasingly recognized as a major threat to food security. The poor are those most exposed, since they dedicate a significant share of their income to food (up to 70 per cent) and generally lack adequate dietary diversification. Given lags in supply response to higher prices, and immediate consumption shortfalls, the World Bank has estimated that the rise in food prices since June 2010 threatens to put another 44 million people into poverty in low- and middle-income countries.<sup>14</sup> As for farmers, who are highly dependent on commodities for their livelihoods, extreme volatility can result in large income fluctuations for which they have little recourse, such as savings and insurance.<sup>15</sup>

Following the food price and economic crises, in 2009 the number of hungry people reached 1 billion for the first time in history. Despite the FAO estimates indicating that the number decreased in 2010 to 925 million, current figures remain unacceptably high and more severe than before the crises. In sub-Saharan Africa, the “food insecure” still represent 30 per cent of the population, almost 240 million people in 2010.<sup>16</sup> Food insecurity is particularly severe in countries in protracted crisis, most of which are in Africa.<sup>17</sup> In situations of long-lasting deprivation, vulnerable households are often forced to sell productive assets in order to cope with shocks, prolonging the negative impacts of the crisis to the future. Food insecurity limits the human capital accumulation of individuals and societies in several ways. Undernutrition kills, increases morbidity and precludes people from reaching their full educational and productive potential and from productive lives that would ensure food security for them and their families.

The impact of the global crisis on food security has emphasized once more that, despite an historic shift towards urbanization, poverty remains concentrated in rural areas. In sub-Saharan Africa, the vast majority of rural households still depend on their farm income. Of the 1.4 billion people in extreme poverty, 70 per cent live in rural areas. In sub-Saharan Africa, more than 60 per cent of the rural population lives on less than US\$1.25 a day, and almost 90 per cent lives on less than US\$2 per day. Most of the ultra-poor (living on less than US\$0.75 a day) are found in Africa, mainly in rural areas.<sup>18</sup>

In the economies in transition found mainly in North Africa, rural–urban income disparities are rising. Although the contribution of agriculture to economic growth is limited it is a major employer, playing a safety-net function. Unemployment rates in North Africa continue to be among the highest in the world, especially for young people and women – estimated at 23.6 per cent and 15.0 per cent respectively. But a consideration only of the quantity of employment is

<sup>14</sup> World Bank: *Food Price Watch* (Feb. 2011). Available at: [www.worldbank.org/foodcrisis/food](http://www.worldbank.org/foodcrisis/food).

<sup>15</sup> FAO: *Price volatility in agricultural markets, ES Policy Brief, FAO Economic and Social Department* (Rome, 2010).

<sup>16</sup> FAO: *The State of Food Insecurity in the World (SOFI): Addressing food insecurity in protracted crises* (Rome, 2010).

<sup>17</sup> *ibid.* Protracted crisis situations are characterized by recurrent natural disasters and/or conflict, longevity of food crises, breakdown of livelihoods and insufficient institutional capacity to react to the crises.

<sup>18</sup> International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD): *Rural Poverty Report 2011: New realities, new challenges: New opportunities for tomorrow's generation* (Rome, 2010).

insufficient. In North Africa, many new jobs are in the informal sector and vulnerable employment is widespread, with the agricultural sector still comprising 27.8 per cent of total employment.<sup>19</sup>

Despite the livelihoods that depend on agriculture, and its overall developmental role, Africa has a long history of neglect and stagnation in agriculture. For example, in 17 out of 32 countries in sub-Saharan Africa, per capita food production actually fell between 1990 and 2005. As a result, and as already noted above, 30 per cent of the population (almost 240 million people) in sub-Saharan Africa are among the “food insecure”,<sup>20</sup> and undernourishment remains endemic. This neglect of agriculture appears in part to be the consequence of the structural adjustment programmes that swept through sub-Saharan Africa in the 1980s and 1990s. Publicly funded and publicly run infrastructure for rural and agricultural development was largely dismantled in favour of market-based solutions. There was a decline in investments in rural physical infrastructure. Donor support to agriculture also waned as the focus shifted to social sectors and investments in human resources. Trade liberalization in agriculture meant that local producers could not withstand international competition. Real exchange rate appreciation (most notably from 2004 to 2010), induced by sharp inflows of external resources and macroeconomic policies, have compounded the predicament of the agricultural sector. Parallel to the dismal development of agriculture is the lacklustre development of the manufacturing sector, and both are interlinked.

Between 1990 and 2004, growth in yields of cereals was slower than rural population growth in the 19 out of 31 countries in sub-Saharan Africa<sup>21</sup> for which data are available, while the growth in production of cereals fell short of the rural population growth in some 12 countries.<sup>22</sup> There can be no doubt that the slow progress towards the halving of income poverty in sub-Saharan Africa is closely linked to the slow progress in reducing the deficit of productive employment and decent work, which in its turn can primarily be explained by the slow growth and in many instances even decline of labour productivity and returns to labour in agriculture.

High priority should be given to investments in the transition of small-scale farming towards commercially viable and sustainable family-based agriculture. This will contribute to both promoting decent work and feeding the world.

#### 1.4. *Growth and productive employment*

Despite the high growth rates before the 2008 crisis, there has been no significant dent in poverty and unemployment. In the aftermath of the crisis, poverty, unemployment and hunger continue to pose a daunting development challenge for many African countries in their bid to consolidate the nascent recovery which is necessary to spur the needed structural transformation of their economies. Given the region's high levels of poverty and labour force growth rates of 2.5 per cent, it will be important to attain the minimum yearly average growth rate of 7 per cent which is needed for Africa to cut poverty by half.<sup>23</sup>

The impact of the growth resurgence in Africa in the 2000s on poverty is difficult to discern because of lack of consistent and updated poverty estimates. However, a reduction in growth caused by the financial crisis has threatened the modest gains achieved in poverty reduction in recent years and reduced the prospects of achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). As economic growth has declined, the numbers of the unemployed as well as the poverty rates have risen, particularly among vulnerable groups. Sub-Saharan Africa (alongside western Asia and

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<sup>19</sup> ILO: *Global Employment Trends 2011: The challenge of a jobs recovery* (Geneva, 2011).

<sup>20</sup> FAO: *The State of Food Insecurity in the World*, op. cit.

<sup>21</sup> Benin, Burundi, Chad, Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Madagascar, Mali, Niger, Rwanda, Senegal, Sierra Leone, United Republic of Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

<sup>22</sup> Burundi, Côte d'Ivoire, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Eritrea, Kenya, Madagascar, Senegal, Sierra Leone, United Republic of Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe. In an additional six countries production of cereals would have fallen short of rural population growth had it not been for rural–urban migration.

<sup>23</sup> ECA: *Economic Report on Africa 2005: Meeting the challenges of unemployment and poverty in Africa* (Addis Ababa, 2005), p. 25.

parts of Eastern Europe and central Asia) is not on track towards halving the number of people in extreme poverty by 2015.<sup>24</sup>

In countries where poverty estimates are available, the impact seems moderate, and the levels of poverty in the 2000s remain quite high. The rise in food prices in the past year further threatens to undo the gains made in poverty reduction and the food security in many countries in Africa that are net consumers of food.

Table 1.4 shows, where data are available, the incidence of poverty in Africa for the period 1990 to 2007.

According to the latest updated World Bank estimates of poverty, the incidence of poverty in sub-Saharan Africa in 2005 was virtually unchanged, at about 50 per cent, from the level in 1981. Within this period, the numbers increased until the mid-1990s, with an encouraging downward trend thereafter. By the new World Bank standard of US\$1.25 a day, the number of poor almost doubled in sub-Saharan Africa between 1981 and 2005, from 200 million to over 380 million. By this measure, the share of the world's poor living in Africa rose from 11 per cent in 1981 to 27 per cent in 2005.

In terms of consumption levels, the mean consumption of Africa's poor is not only lower than in any other region; it has also shown very little increase. The mean daily consumption of those living on under US\$1.25 a day in Africa was US\$0.74 per person in 1981, falling to US\$0.73 in 2005.<sup>25</sup> In June 2010, the UNDP released its accelerated framework for the attainment of the MDGs by 2015, mainly in response to the fact that a number of countries (particularly those in the African region) are unlikely to reach these goals. It is estimated that the region will need to create almost 100 million productive jobs in order to reduce the incidence of working poverty from 51 per cent in sub-Saharan Africa in 2005 to 29 per cent by 2015. This entails creating 13.3 million productive jobs on an annual basis – a rate of progress that is historically unprecedented in sub-Saharan Africa and will require a growth rate that is double the rate observed in the 2000s.

In this context, it should be recalled that the continent's population of 1 billion in 2010 had a labour force of 413 million, with a participation rate of 67 per cent.<sup>26</sup> Africa's participation rate was higher than the global one by 3 per cent, reflecting the compulsion to work.<sup>27</sup> The participation rate in North Africa was low, at 52 per cent, while the participation rate for sub-Saharan Africa was very high, at 72 per cent. The female participation rate for North Africa was particularly low at 28 per cent, compared to 63 per cent for sub-Saharan Africa.

Unemployment rates for Africa dropped from 9.9 per cent to 8.2 per cent over the period 2000 to 2008. For sub-Saharan Africa there was a one percentage point drop from 9 per cent to 7.9 per cent, while for North Africa there was a larger drop of more than 4 per cent, but from a higher level of 14.1 per cent down to 9.6 per cent (see table 1.5).

Women's unemployment rates were almost approximate to men's unemployment rates in sub-Saharan Africa, but almost double men's unemployment rates in North Africa. Youth unemployment rates were double adult unemployment rates for Africa as a whole, but were four times higher for North Africa. Youth unemployment however was more responsive to growth over the decade leading up to the crisis, dropping from 16.5 per cent to 13.7 per cent for Africa as a whole.

It is estimated that the proportion of workers under the US\$1.25 per day poverty line fell between 2000 and 2008 from 57 to 50 per cent in Africa as a whole. In sub-Saharan Africa the working poor fell from 66 per cent to 59 per cent. In North Africa the incidence of the working poor was at much lower levels, falling from 18 per cent to 12 per cent (see table 1.6).

<sup>24</sup> UN: *The Millennium Development Goals Report 2010* (New York, 2010), p. 7.

<sup>25</sup> S. Chen and M. Ravallion: "The developing world is poorer than we thought, but no less successful in the fight against poverty", Policy Research Working Paper 4703 (Washington, DC, World Bank, 2008), pp. 23–24.

<sup>26</sup> ILO: *Global Employment Trends 2011*, op. cit.

<sup>27</sup> *ibid.*

Table 1.4. Africa: Poverty rates (US\$1.25 a day), 1990–2007 (percentages)

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
<b>North Africa</b>																		
Algeria					6.8													
Egypt	4.5				2.5	1.8										2.0		
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya																		
Morocco	2.5					6.8	6.3											2.5
Sudan																		
Tunisia	5.9				6.5	2.6												
<b>Sub-Saharan Africa</b>																		
Angola						54.3												
Benin												47.3						
Botswana					31.2													
Burkina Faso					71.2			70.0						56.5				
Burundi			84.2					86.4										81.3
Cameroon						51.5						32.8						
Cape Verde												20.6						
Central African Republic						82.8								62.4				
Chad														61.9				
Comoros														46.1				
Congo																54.1		
Congo, Dem. Rep. of the																		59.2
Côte d'Ivoire						21.1		24.1					23.3					
Equatorial Guinea					17.8													
Eritrea																		
Ethiopia						60.5												39.0
Gabon																		4.8
Gambia																	34.3	
Ghana			51.1						66.7									30.0



	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Guinea		92.6												70.1				
Guinea-Bissau		41.3		52.1									48.8					
Kenya			38.4		28.6			19.6								19.7		
Lesotho				56.4		47.6								43.4				83.7
Liberia																		
Madagascar				72.5				72.0	82.3		76.3			73.9		67.8		
Malawi									83.1									
Mali					86.1							61.2					51.4	
Mauritania				42.8			23.4				21.2							
Mauritius																		
Mozambique								81.3						74.7				
Namibia				49.1														
Niger			72.8		78.2											65.9		
Nigeria				49.2				68.5							64.4			
Rwanda											76.6							
Réunion (France)																		
Senegal						54.1						44.2				33.5		
Sierra Leone		62.8												53.4				
Somalia																		
South Africa				24.3		21.4				26.2								
Swaziland						78.6						62.9						
Tanzania, United Rep. of			72.6								88.5							
Togo																		38.7
Uganda							64.4			60.5			57.4			51.5		
Zambia		62.8		65.3			62.1		55.4					64.6	64.3			
Zimbabwe																		

Source: World Bank PovcalNet Online Database, 2009

Table 1.5. Africa: Unemployment rates by sex and for youth and adults, 2000–10 (percentages)

	2000	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010*		2011**			
								CI lower bound	Preliminary estimate	CI upper bound	CI lower bound	Preliminary projection	CI upper bound
<b>Both sexes</b>													
Africa	9.9	9.2	9.2	8.5	8.3	8.2	8.3	7.9	8.3	8.8	7.6	8.3	8.9
North Africa	14.1	11.9	11.6	10.5	10.2	9.6	9.9	9.1	9.8	10.5	8.6	9.8	10.9
Sub-Saharan Africa	9.0	8.6	8.6	8.0	7.9	7.9	7.9	7.6	8.0	8.4	7.4	7.9	8.4
<b>Male</b>													
Africa	9.2	8.4	8.4	7.8	7.7	7.5	7.7	7.3	7.7	8.1	7.0	7.6	8.2
North Africa	11.9	9.7	9.3	8.4	8.4	7.7	7.8	7.3	7.8	8.4	6.9	7.8	8.8
Sub-Saharan Africa	8.4	8.1	8.1	7.7	7.5	7.5	7.6	7.3	7.6	7.9	7.1	7.5	8.0
<b>Female</b>													
Africa	10.9	10.3	10.3	9.4	9.1	9.1	9.1	8.8	9.3	9.8	8.5	9.2	9.9
North Africa	20.5	18.1	18.0	16.2	14.9	14.8	15.3	14.1	15.0	16.0	13.3	15.0	16.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	9.6	9.2	9.2	8.5	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.1	8.5	8.9	7.9	8.4	9.0
<b>Youth</b>													
Africa	16.5	15.4	15.4	14.1	14.0	13.7	13.8	13.2	13.9	14.6	12.8	13.8	14.9
North Africa	29.5	26.0	26.7	24.4	24.3	22.6	23.4	22.1	23.6	25.1	21.0	23.7	26.5
Sub-Saharan Africa	13.8	13.2	13.1	12.2	12.1	12.1	12.1	11.7	12.3	12.9	11.5	12.2	13.0
<b>Adults</b>													
Africa	7.4	6.8	6.8	6.4	6.2	6.2	6.3	6.0	6.3	6.7	5.8	6.3	6.8
North Africa	8.8	7.3	6.7	6.2	6.1	6.0	6.2	5.8	6.2	6.7	5.5	6.3	7.1
Sub-Saharan Africa	7.0	6.7	6.8	6.4	6.2	6.2	6.3	6.1	6.4	6.7	5.9	6.3	6.7

\* Figures for 2010 are preliminary estimates \*\* Figures for 2011 are preliminary projections.

CI = confidence interval.

Source: ILO: Trends Econometric Models, October 2010.

**Table 1.6. Africa: Working poor indicators (US\$1.25 a day), 2000–09**

	2000	2008*	2009*	2000	2008*	2009*
	Number of people (millions)			Share in total employment (%)		
<b>Africa</b>	162.1	179.5	184.6	57.4	50.2	50.2
North Africa	8.9	7.7	7.8	17.7	11.9	11.8
Sub-Saharan Africa	153.2	171.8	176.8	65.9	58.6	58.7

\* Figures for 2008 and 2009 are preliminary estimates.

Source: ILO: *Trends Econometric Models*, October 2009.

Another good indicator of labour market conditions is vulnerable employment, defined as the sum of unpaid family labour and own-account workers. The share of vulnerable workers in Africa dropped from a high level of 73 per cent to 69 per cent over the decade (see table 1.7). In sub-Saharan Africa it dropped from 80 per cent to around 76 per cent, and from 42 per cent to 40 per cent in North Africa. Women in the labour force had a much higher incidence of vulnerability than men, and while this dropped with growth in sub-Saharan Africa, it actually increased in North Africa over the 2000s.

**Table 1.7. Africa: Vulnerable employment shares by sex, 2000–09 (percentages)**

	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
<b>Both sexes</b>						
<b>Africa</b>	72.8	70.8	70.1	69.7	68.9	69.4
North Africa	42.4	42.6	41.1	41.2	40.2	40.4
Sub-Saharan Africa	79.5	77.1	76.6	76.0	75.3	75.8
<b>Male</b>						
<b>Africa</b>	65.8	62.5	61.7	61.4	60.6	61.6
North Africa	38.2	37.0	35.4	35.1	34.1	34.9
Sub-Saharan Africa	74.0	70.1	69.6	69.2	68.5	69.5
<b>Female</b>						
<b>Africa</b>	83.6	83.2	82.5	81.9	81.0	80.9
North Africa	56.0	59.7	58.3	59.3	58.2	56.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	86.9	86.2	85.6	84.9	84.0	84.0

Source: ILO: *Trends Econometric Models*, April 2010.

Given the weak impact of the increase in growth on both unemployment and the working poor, sectoral change in the labour market has also been limited, particularly the impact on industry, the sector that led the increase in growth. The low levels of unemployment and the high levels of the working poor imply a large informal economy in Africa (see Appendix IV, table A8, which gives the occupational distribution of the labour market for the period 1991–2008).

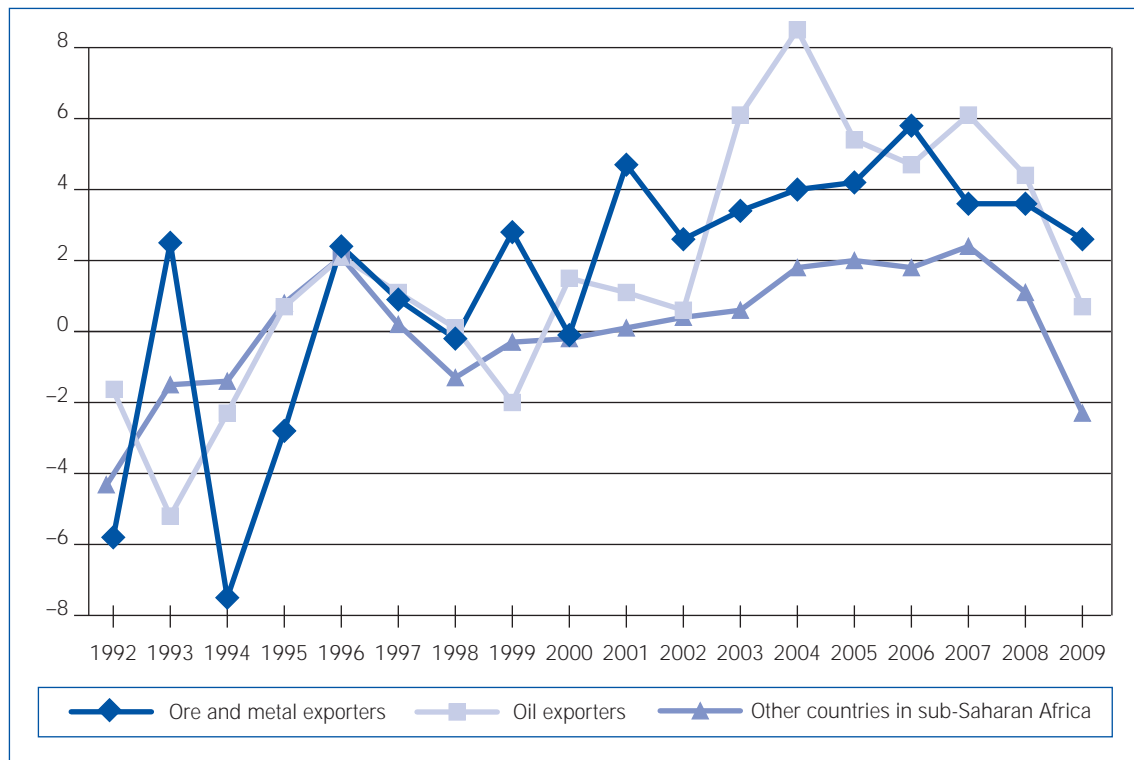
Labour productivity (defined as output per worker) is often recognized as one of the key drivers of increases in wages and living standards. It is therefore encouraging that increases in labour productivity have been higher in the 2000s than in the 1990s, especially in sub-Saharan Africa. However, these productivity increases have not translated into incomes sufficient to reduce poverty, indicating that the income gains from this growth have been narrow. This is not surprising, given the dominant pattern of growth that continues to rely heavily on resource extraction with limited employment creation. African labour productivity in 2000 stood at US\$6,159, ranking above South Asian labour productivity (US\$4,597). North African labour productivity was US\$14,263, while the figure for sub-Saharan Africa was lower at US\$4,372 (see table 1.8).

Table 1.8. Output per worker, Africa and other selected regions, 2000–09 (constant 2005 international US\$)

Region	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	Average annual change (%)	
											2000–08	2008–09
<b>Africa</b>	6 159	6 181	6 195	6 325	6 469	6 640	6 800	7 012	7 171	7 155	1.7	-0.2
<b>North Africa</b>	14 263	14 278	14 276	14 574	14 621	14 926	15 213	15 659	15 982	16 235	1.3	1.6
<b>Sub-Saharan Africa</b>	4 372	4 394	4 413	4 493	4 643	4 786	4 913	5 084	5 205	5 141	2.0	-1.2
Developed economies and European Union	65 323	65 935	67 036	67 863	69 375	70 260	71 095	71 847	71 793	70 946	1.1	-1.2
Central and south-eastern Europe (non-EU) and CIS	16 961	17 166	17 882	19 190	20 539	21 580	22 948	24 148	24 871	23 514	4.3	-5.5
East Asia	6 058	6 407	6 790	7 288	7 902	8 632	9 558	10 690	11 568	12 383	7.5	7.0
South-East Asia and the Pacific	7 092	7 163	7 410	7 701	8 059	8 419	8 759	9 102	9 301	9 263	3.1	-0.4
South Asia	4 597	4 682	4 724	4 941	5 212	5 543	5 878	6 264	6 406	6 714	3.8	4.8
Latin America and the Caribbean	21 047	20 869	20 470	20 497	20 920	21 246	21 771	22 508	22 893	22 352	0.9	-2.4
Middle East	31 898	31 664	31 741	32 200	33 060	33 578	34 259	35 294	36 299	35 822	1.4	-1.3

Source: World Bank: World Development Indicators 2010; ILO: Trends Econometric Models, October 2010.

Figure 1.3. Labour productivity growth in Africa, by export structure, 1992–2009 (percentages)



Note: "Labour productivity" refers to GDP in 2005 PPP US\$ per person employed. "Ore and metal exporters" refers to countries in which ore and metal exports accounted for at least 50 per cent of all merchandise exports in 2005 (Guinea, Mauritania, Mozambique, Niger, Zambia); "Fuel exporters" refers to countries in which fuel exports accounted for at least 50 per cent of all merchandise exports (Algeria, Angola, Chad, Congo, Egypt, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Nigeria, Sudan). Export data are from World Bank, World Development Indicators.

Source: World Bank: *World Development Indicators 2010*; ILO: *Trends Econometric Models*, October 2010.

African productivity growth from 2000 to 2008 was 1.7 per cent per annum, with a stronger performance in sub-Saharan Africa (2 per cent per annum) than in North Africa (1.3 per cent). The global economic crisis led to a substantial slowdown in 2009, with negative productivity growth on the continent (particularly in sub-Saharan Africa).

Moreover, there were remarkable differences between countries: both fuel exporters and ore and metal exporters registered substantial increases in labour productivity (2.0 and 2.5 per cent annually between 2000 and 2008, respectively, see figure 1.3).<sup>28</sup> However, since employment creation in the extractive industries is usually low, this has not translated into large increases in average wages or a marked expansion of paid employment. Labour productivity growth has remained weak in the remaining countries (1.2 per cent annually between 2000 and 2008), which can explain why improvements in wages and living standards have been modest in most countries.

### 1.5. Ratification and implementation of international labour standards

The global financial and economic crisis, the events in North Africa and the Middle East and, more generally, the ongoing need to face the growing challenges of globalization, have demonstrated the continuing relevance of international labour standards. Urgent measures need to be taken to

<sup>28</sup> See also M. Luebker: "Labour productivity", in T. Sparreboom and A. Albee (eds): *Towards decent work in sub-Saharan Africa: Monitoring MDG employment indicators* (Geneva, ILO, 2011).

address these concerns including the rights of women, migrant workers, domestic workers, workers in export-processing zones and the vast number of workers in the informal economy.

To date, all 53 African member States have ratified the Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29), the Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105), and the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111); 52 have ratified the Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98);<sup>29</sup> 51 have ratified the Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100);<sup>30</sup> 50 have ratified the Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182);<sup>31</sup> 49 have ratified the Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138);<sup>32</sup> and 48 have ratified the Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87).<sup>33</sup> Fifteen ratifications are needed for all countries from the African region to have ratified all the eight ILO fundamental Conventions. Concerning the governance Conventions, 42 African countries have ratified the Labour Inspection Convention, 1947 (No. 81), and eight the Labour Inspection (Agriculture) Convention, 1969 (No. 129); 35 have ratified the Tripartite Consultation (International Labour Standards) Convention, 1976 (No. 144), while 19 have ratified the Employment Policy Convention, 1964 (No. 122).<sup>34</sup> In the areas concerning wages, social security, occupational safety and health, migrant workers, human resource development, maritime, fishing and indigenous peoples, the ratification picture is sparse.

Since the adoption of the 1998 ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work there has been progress towards universal ratification of Conventions Nos 87 and 98. However, in spite of almost universal ratification levels in the African region, some vulnerable groups of workers are still facing particular difficulties in exercising these fundamental rights, including workers in agriculture and in export-processing zones, migrant and domestic workers and workers in the informal economy. In some countries public service employees are denied by law freedom of assembly and the right to organize. According to the supervisory bodies, recent years have also witnessed freedom of association in some countries being restricted in the name of national security. Efforts to exert political control over trade unions have resulted in excessive restrictions over their establishment and activities.

Despite the practical difficulties involved in extending the fundamental rights to organize and to bargain collectively to the informal economy, trade unions and employers' organizations are being actively involved in working with and assisting informal economy networks, thus enhancing the legitimacy and standing of local associations and providing a stronger voice for all involved. Above all, however, it is within the prerogatives of governments to create social, legal and political frameworks that cover all citizens of a country.

Action plans are also a useful tool in the fight against trafficking in persons. There is a growing new trend towards the adoption of legislation that specifically defines what constitutes the trafficking of persons, both for purposes of exploitation of their work and for sexual exploitation, and which provides for dissuasive penalties to punish perpetrators. The focus needs to be placed on awareness raising, initiation of prosecutions against perpetrators, identifying victims who are generally perceived as illegal migrants rather than victims of labour exploitation, and ensuring their protection.

Both fundamental child labour Conventions (Nos 138 and 182) contain significant programmatic aspects, meaning that their full implementation requires integration of child labour issues into national policies and programmes.

Experience and lessons learned have confirmed the ongoing challenges facing ILO constituents in addressing discrimination in employment and occupation in Africa and in other regions, such as for example: persistence and long-standing forms of discrimination and the emergence of new forms; the strength of stereotypes; the lack of a common understanding of key

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<sup>29</sup> Somalia is the only country that has not yet ratified Convention No. 98.

<sup>30</sup> Liberia and Sudan have not yet ratified Convention No. 100.

<sup>31</sup> Eritrea, Sierra Leone and Somalia have not yet ratified Convention No. 182.

<sup>32</sup> Ghana, Liberia, Sierra Leone and Somalia have not yet ratified Convention No. 138.

<sup>33</sup> Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Morocco, Somalia and Sudan have not yet ratified Convention No. 87.

<sup>34</sup> See Chapter 2, section 2.2.11, for further information on ratifications since 2007 under the DWA.

concepts; the frequent absence of coherent national equality policies; and the difficulty of measuring discrimination. The global financial and economic crisis has brought with it widening inequality and increased the marginality of vulnerable groups. The Global Report on discrimination submitted by the Director-General to the 100th Session of the International Labour Conference (Geneva, June 2011) indicates that, despite the high rate of ratification of the two core Conventions on equality in the region<sup>35</sup> and of all the activities undertaken by the ILO and its constituents in that field,<sup>36</sup> concerns linger about the general level of their implementation; yet discrimination represents a significant barrier to the attainment of decent work for all.

With regard to migration, to date nine of the 53 African member States have ratified the Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97),<sup>37</sup> and only seven have ratified the Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143).<sup>38</sup> Greater protection for African migrant workers is needed, and the ratification of these two Conventions provides an important source of protection for these workers for both sending and receiving countries.

In addition to the 19 African countries (out of the 53 member States) which have ratified the governance Convention No. 122, 18 have ratified the Employment Service Convention, 1948 (No. 88), nine have ratified the Human Resources Development Convention, 1975 (No. 142), and only three have ratified the Private Employment Services Convention, 1997 (No. 181).

There is a continued need throughout the African region to strengthen the capacity of labour administration and labour inspection systems to enable them to play their role as key actors in the elaboration and implementation of economic and social policies, including in relation to the informal economy, in line with the governance Conventions Nos 81 and 129, as well as the Labour Administration Convention, 1978 (No. 150). In many cases, the resources allocated to labour inspection are insufficient to enable inspection functions to be discharged properly, leading to a vicious cycle of neglect of workers' rights, vulnerability and exploitation which are ultimately costly both in terms of reduced profits to the enterprise and for the economy as a whole.

As reaffirmed in the context of the 2004 Ouagadougou Extraordinary Summit, improving the occupational safety, health and hygiene conditions for all men and women is a significant part of a strategy to fight against poverty.<sup>39</sup> The modern systems approach to occupational safety and health (OSH), now systematically promoted by the ILO, emphasizes the need to ensure that attention is given to OSH at the highest national policy levels and that coherent national action is taken in this respect.<sup>40</sup> National awareness of OSH and the development of a national safety and health culture are critical for supporting enterprise-level efforts to enhance working conditions and apply the central OSH standards.<sup>41</sup>

A related aspect is the recently adopted ILO Recommendation concerning HIV and AIDS and the World of Work, 2010 (No. 200), the aim of which is to ensure the ILO's enhanced efforts to achieve social justice and to combat discrimination and stigmatization with regard to HIV and AIDS in all aspects of its work and mandate. It will be recalled that the HIV and AIDS pandemic continues to be a major development challenge for Africa. Although the rate of new infections has

<sup>35</sup> As noted above, Convention No. 111 has been ratified by all ILO 53 African member States and Convention No. 100 is missing the ratifications of Liberia and Somalia.

<sup>36</sup> This assistance includes the better design and enforcement of legislation; support to the creation of strong institutions and effective mechanisms to ensure enforcement; training of judges, lawyers, labour law professors and labour inspectors on discrimination in general and gender equality in particular; the development of training tools on equal remuneration for men and women; the promotion of a better reconciliation between work and family responsibilities; the promotion of equality with respect to race and ethnicity; indigenous people (on 30 August 2010, the ILO registered the first ratification of the Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention, 1989 (No. 169), by an African member State, namely Central African Republic); migrant workers; HIV and AIDS; persons with disabilities; age discrimination.

<sup>37</sup> Algeria, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Kenya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Nigeria and Zambia have ratified Convention No. 97. The Convention is also applicable to Zanzibar, United Republic of Tanzania.

<sup>38</sup> Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Guinea, Kenya, Togo and Uganda have ratified Convention No. 143.

<sup>39</sup> Ouagadougou Extraordinary Summit 2004, Plan of Action, Priority Area 2.4.

<sup>40</sup> Including through its Global strategy on occupational safety and health, Conclusions adopted by the International Labour Conference at its 91st Session, 2003, and the Plan of Action (2010–16) to achieve widespread ratification and effective implementation of the occupational safety and health instruments (Convention No. 155, its 2002 Protocol and Convention No. 187), adopted by the Governing Body of the ILO at its 307th Session (March 2010).

<sup>41</sup> Including the Occupational Safety and Health Convention, 1981 (No. 155), its 2002 Protocol and the Promotional Framework for Occupational Safety and Health Convention, 2006 (No. 187).

decreased, globally 33.3 million people are living with HIV and AIDS – with 22.5 million of these in sub-Saharan Africa. Southern Africa remains the epicentre of the epidemic, where 31 per cent of all new infections and 34 per cent of AIDS-related deaths in 2009 were estimated to have occurred. The new standard provides new opportunities to strengthen the legal and policy frameworks in the world of work, and by so doing addresses the human rights-related barriers to the HIV and AIDS epidemic.

The role of social security in promoting development is critical, since it is a powerful instrument to ensure not only individual welfare but also broad economic growth and development by reducing poverty and improving people's lives. The ratification and effective implementation of the ILO's flagship instrument in the area of social security – the Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No. 102) – represents an efficient way for countries to consolidate social security rights in their internal legal systems through the systemic guarantees offered by international law. Although it has so far not yet been widely ratified by African member States,<sup>42</sup> this instrument represents an efficient tool in addressing one of the major sources of distrust and lack of public support in social security institutions in Africa – the mismanagement of these schemes.

The current political and social changes could very well act as a catalyst for furthering social progress and for the fuller integration of international labour standards in national policies, as these are being reviewed. These challenges call for a sustainable, post-crisis paradigm which relies on a renewed commitment to upholding international labour standards and empowering labour market institutions.

### *1.6. Trends in the share of wage earners and average wages*

The reverse side of the gradual fall in vulnerable employment is the growing importance of wage employment in Africa. Over the past two decades, the share of wage earners in total employment has grown from 22.8 per cent (1991) to 28.4 per cent (2008), which means that 100 million African workers now primarily depend on wage earnings for their livelihoods (see Appendix IV, table A8). The share of wage employment still varies greatly between countries, ranging from less than 10 per cent in Burkina Faso and Ethiopia to more than 70 per cent in Namibia and South Africa. The proportion of wage earners – counting both the formal and informal economy – has been on the rise in a majority of countries (see figure 1.4). This share is expected to increase in the future alongside economic growth. The proportion of wage earners among women workers (18 per cent in 2008), however, is substantially lower than among men (35.4 per cent), and this is an issue of concern.

Since wages represent the main source of income for some 100 million workers in Africa, the level of wages has a direct impact on the education, health and well-being of African families. The level of wages is also a positive determinant of household consumption and hence aggregate demand. The present economic crisis has led many analysts and policy-makers to pay greater attention also to the macroeconomic dimensions of wages, as reflected in the Global Jobs Pact.

Over the years 2000 to 2005, average wages grew at an annual rate of about 1.3 per cent, followed by higher growth rates in 2006 and 2007. In 2008 wage growth slowed to 0.5 per cent but recovered in 2009, most likely because of the lower inflation relative to previous years (see figure 1.5).<sup>43</sup> Although higher labour productivity has allowed for positive wage growth in Africa in recent years, one caveat relates to the difficulty of measuring wages in the informal economy. This may result in an overly optimistic picture of wage trends.

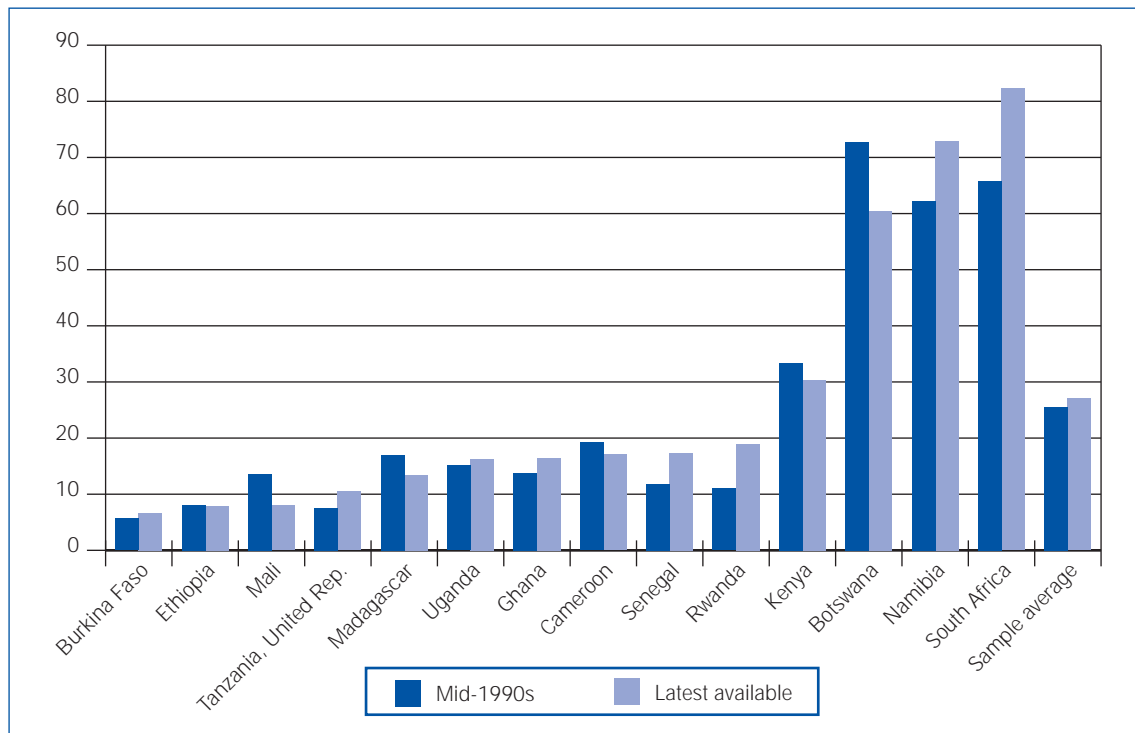
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<sup>42</sup> Convention No. 102 has been ratified by five member States: Democratic Republic of the Congo, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Mauritania, Niger and Senegal.

<sup>43</sup> It is worth emphasizing that these are estimates based on wage data for 15 African countries, which cover an estimated 57 per cent of all Africa's wage earners and about 76 per cent of the region's total wage bill. Since for even these 15 countries data are not available for every single year up to 2009, some extrapolation methods have been used for the regional estimate.



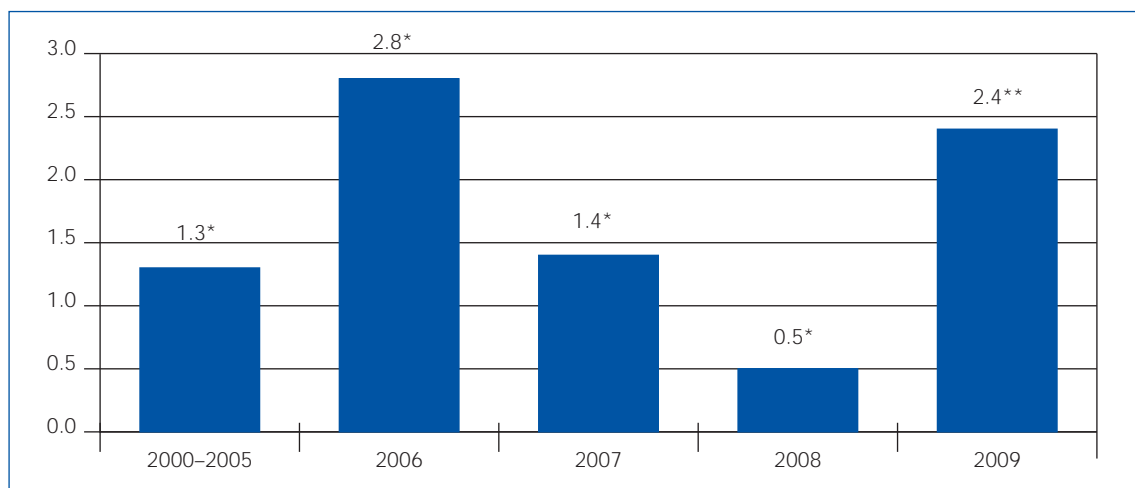
**Figure 1.4. Share of wage earners in total employment, selected African countries, mid-1990s – latest available figures (percentages)**



Note: The share of wage earners in total employment is taken or estimated from official national sources. In Botswana, the share of wage earners in 1995–96 was not available from the central statistical office and was therefore estimated as the sum of formal employment (excluding traditional agriculture) plus informal paid employment. Using the same method for 2005–06 over estimates wage employment by 4 percentage points compared with the official estimate. Hence we have adjusted our own 1995–96 estimate downwards by 4 percentage points.

Source: ILO: *Global Wage Report: Africa Brief 2010/11* (Geneva, 2011).

**Figure 1.5. Estimated growth in monthly average wages in Africa, 2000–09 (percentages)**

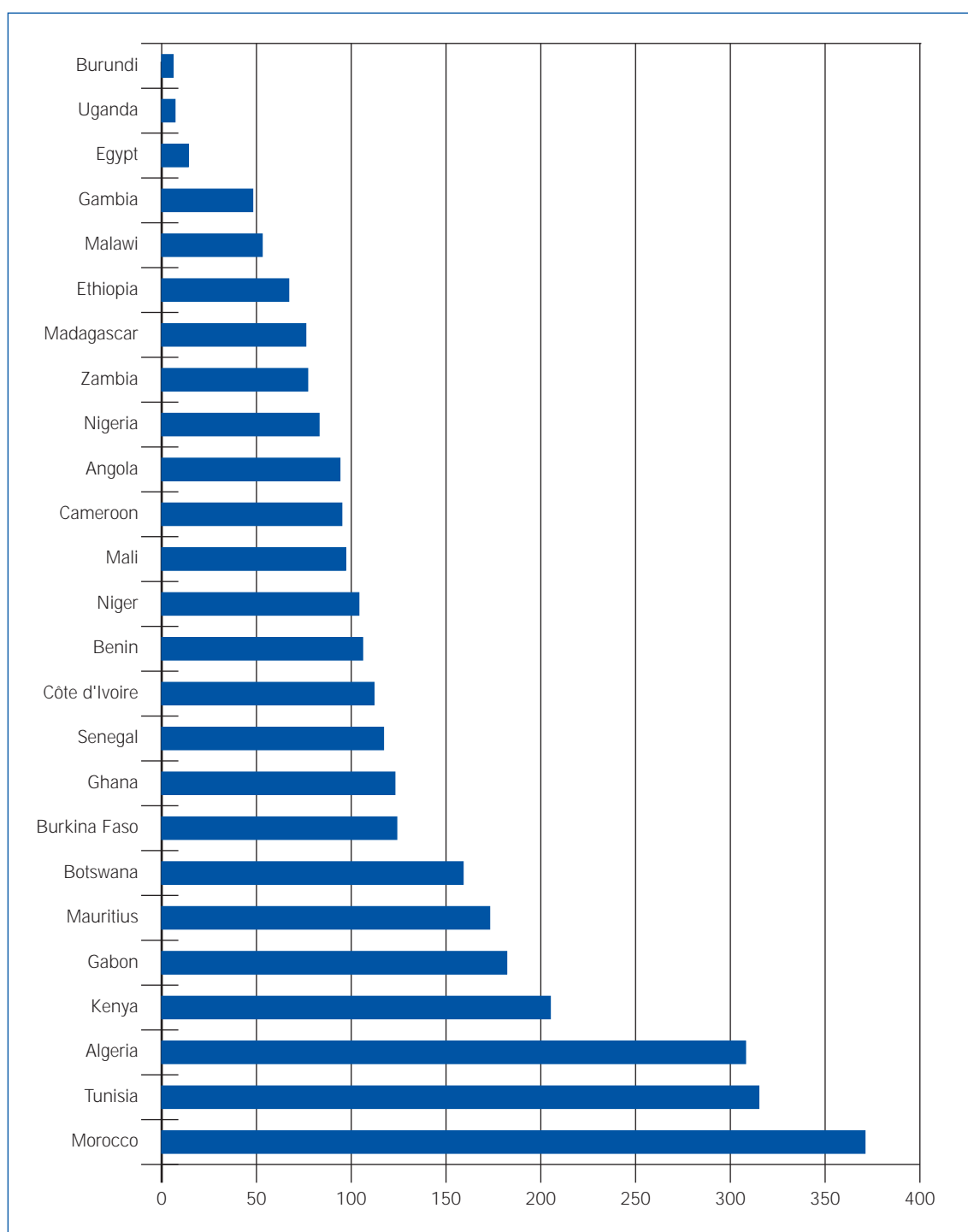


\* Provisional estimates (based on coverage of ca. 75 percent). \*\* Tentative estimates (based on coverage of ca. 40 per cent to ca. 60 per cent).

Note: For methodology see Technical appendix I of the *Global Wage Report 2010/11*.

Source: ILO: *Global Wage Report 2010/11: Wage policies in times of crisis* (Geneva, 2011).

Figure 1.6. Minimum wages per month, selected African countries, most recent year (PPP US\$)



The levels of minimum wages and the mechanism through which they are set and adjusted vary significantly across countries in the region (see figure 1.6). There is no universal formula to fix the ideal minimum wage level. Empirical evidence, nonetheless, shows that it is good practice to involve the social partners in the decision-making process, as well as independent experts with recognized competence in representing the general interests of the country, and to base negotiations on accurate and transparent statistics and other relevant information.

In 2007 and 2008, 37 out of 53 countries in Africa had a minimum wage in place, and more recently a number of countries have taken steps, often with the ILO's technical assistance, to either introduce a minimum wage where it did not exist before or to review their current minimum wage-fixing mechanism. In Cape Verde, for instance, the Government requested the ILO's technical support to carry out a study to assess the likely implications of introducing a minimum wage based on a number of socio-economic variables and explore the different possible institutional arrangements, in order to assist the Government and the social partners in taking a well-informed decision. A final decision is expected to be announced in the coming months. In Zanzibar, United Republic of Tanzania, the Government worked with the social partners and the ILO to gather data on average wages and the wage distribution. This will help to inform the planned review of the minimum wage level, by basing it on sound evidence that can be used to assess the likely cost to employers and how many workers would benefit from a given minimum wage.

### **1.7. Conclusion**

While Africa's economic growth rates are almost at pre-crisis levels, it is clear that growth alone will not deliver the promise of meeting the additional MDG target of reducing poverty through productive employment by 2015. At the same time, the various development challenges that have long confronted the continent remain unresolved. The ILO welcomes the rethinking that is taking place in Africa as well as in development community circles, in which focus is being placed on employment creation, food security, domestic resource mobilization, and intra-African trade. While adherence to these objectives does not provide complete immunity against external shocks, they ensure, to some degree, that Africa's development prospects are more domestically programmed than has previously been the case.

At the same time, there is a need to ensure that more emphasis is placed on the quality and patterns of efficient growth. Central to this endeavour is the enhanced role of the State, since growth and economic prosperity do not happen by chance, but must be planned, nurtured and sustained to bring real change in the lives of ordinary citizens. The role of the State in engineering the development path will therefore remain crucial in the post-crisis period.



## 2. Implementing the Decent Work Agenda in Africa, 2007–15: A mid-term review

### 2.1. Introduction

The Report of the Director-General to the 11th ILO African Regional Meeting, *The Decent Work Agenda in Africa: 2007–15*, was developed to support the Declaration, Plan of Action and Follow-up Mechanism on Employment and Poverty Alleviation in Africa (Ouagadougou, September 2004). The conclusions to the Meeting acknowledged that the “Ouagadougou Summit marked a major step forward in the development of continent-wide action on the agreed priority of placing employment creation for poverty alleviation as an explicit and central objective of economic and social policies at national, regional and continental levels”.<sup>44</sup>

In adopting the Decent Work Agenda in Africa, 2007–15, African tripartite constituents were committing themselves to a series of 17 ambitious targets “for the development of integrated Decent Work Country Programmes (DWCPs) and to increased collaboration with partner agencies to accelerate progress towards the agreed international development goals, including the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)”.<sup>45</sup>

Furthermore, the 11th ILO African Regional Meeting called on “the Office to assist African member States in overcoming all obstacles to progress towards the achievement of the Decent Work Agenda, including those which could derive from bilateral or multilateral economic agreements” and to “report on the implementation and achievement of these targets at the next African Regional Meeting”.<sup>46</sup> In this connection, this chapter summarizes the progress made towards achieving the 17 targets of the Decent Work Agenda in Africa.

Since a more systematic and comprehensive evaluation of the achievements of the Decent Work Agenda in Africa, 2007–15 will be carried out in 2015, this chapter constitutes a snapshot assessment of the progress made in implementing the Decent Work Agenda in Africa, for the period 2007–10.

As an instrument of accountability, the chapter also highlights how and where the ILO has supported member States in bringing about changes in each of the target areas. This is a self-assessment, based on contributions from the different units and field offices of the ILO. It is a component of the new systematic monitoring, which is an important part of the deepened results-based management framework implemented in the region. Hence the focus is on ensuring that ILO resources are effectively channelled to facilitate the achievement of the results agreed with constituents. The support provided by the Office is anchored within the DWCPs, which are designed with and governed by national-level tripartite constituents. DWCPs are aligned with national development planning frameworks and constitute the ILO’s contribution to the work of the United Nations in a country. This assessment also provides a frame for organizational learning by identifying lessons learnt as a basis for improving future performance.

Considering the notable absence of adequate baseline information when these targets were established in 2007, this assessment also provides a useful reference for measuring future progress within the defined time frame. As reflected in the conclusions of the 11th African Regional Meeting, each of the 17 targets is assessed by giving an overall regional picture of the number of countries relative to the target. This is complemented with some illustrative examples of the changes made in different countries.

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<sup>44</sup> ILO: Conclusions of the 11th African Regional Meeting: The Decent Work Agenda in Africa 2007–15, para. 5 (see Appendix I of this report).

<sup>45</sup> *ibid.*, para. 4.

<sup>46</sup> *ibid.*, paras 41 and 42.

Although the Decent Work Agenda in Africa was adopted before the ILO's current medium-term planning framework (Strategic Policy Framework, 2010–15), the 17 targets are in line with the 19 global outcomes of that framework. At the same time, the targets set for Africa are reflected in the global indicators of the ILO and captured in the outcome-based workplans (OBW) established for each of the 19 outcomes.<sup>47</sup> In addition, the targets of the Decent Work Agenda for Africa were instrumental in defining the regional priorities in the ILO programme and budget (for the 2008–09 and 2010–11 biennia). Because of this alignment, progress in achieving the Decent Work Agenda in Africa contributes to the achievement of the ILO's overall Strategic Policy Framework, 2010–15.

## 2.2. The 17 targets: A summary of progress

The ILO strategy to support constituents in achieving these targets in the region has focused on the following areas of intervention: advisory services for policy/programme design, implementation and evaluation; training and capacity building to reinforce technical competencies as well as ability to manage for results; collection, compilation and dissemination of good practices for replication and upscaling; facilitating strategic partnerships; promoting the ratification and implementation of the relevant international labour standards; and the implementation of technical cooperation programmes funded from the ILO's regular budget, Regular Budget Supplementary Account (RBSA) and extra-budgetary resources.

Progress is categorized as “significant” where specific outcomes related to the expected change in the country have been achieved. Where these have not been achieved, but important outputs have been produced by the country, this is reflected as “some progress”. Activities undertaken are not reflected in this assessment. It is expected that these activities will contribute to the achievement of the desired outputs and outcomes which will be reported in subsequent periodic reviews of the DWA.

### 2.2.1. Mainstreaming decent work into national, regional and international development strategies

*Target: Three-quarters of member States mainstream assessment of the impact on the generation and maintenance of decent work opportunities into poverty-reducing development strategies and adopt national targets for the creation of sufficient decent jobs to absorb new labour market entrants and reduce by half the numbers of working poor.*

Some **nine** member States have made significant progress in mainstreaming decent work into their national development strategies and frameworks (Egypt, Ethiopia, Ghana, Madagascar, Nigeria, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe).

**Thirty-nine** others are making progress (Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Comoros, Congo, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Eritrea, Gabon, Gambia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Morocco, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Swaziland, Tunisia, Togo and Uganda).

Most African countries have mainstreamed decent work into national development frameworks: medium-term development plans, poverty-reducing development strategies and the United Nations Development Assistance Frameworks (UNDAFs). South Africa's development framework, the New Growth Path adopted in 2010, is anchored in effectively promoting decent work. The Government plans to create 5 million jobs and aims to reduce unemployment by 10 percentage points by 2020, down from the current rate of 25 per cent. In the United Republic of Tanzania, quantifiable targets on employment are included in the National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty, 2010–15 (NSGRP). Furthermore, a National Employment Policy and

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<sup>47</sup> Appendix III of this report shows this strategic alignment of regional and global results.

**Box 2.1****Excerpts from the Ministerial Statement adopted at the Third Joint Annual Meetings of the African Union Conference of Ministers of Economy and Finance and the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa Conference of African Ministers of Finance, Planning and Economic Development**

(Lilongwe, Malawi, 29–30 March 2010)

We, the African Ministers ... recognize that without strong policy responses, including those aimed at achieving food security and reducing unemployment the continent will not achieve most of the MDGs by 2015.

We note that despite the continent's notable growth performance prior to the recent global financial and economic crises ... this growth has not been accompanied by a comparable reduction in poverty, as it has not created enough decent jobs. Therefore, we underscore the need to promote broad-based and sustainable growth that leads to employment generation and poverty eradication.

We stress, therefore, the need for special employment and protection measures for vulnerable groups. In particular, we emphasize the need to promote youth employment and gender equality in the labour market as a means to enhance long-term growth and promote political stability.

We note that the challenge before us now is how to restart, accelerate and sustain growth and ensure that this growth creates decent jobs resulting, ultimately, in poverty eradication on the continent.

While we recognize that there are many ways of reducing poverty, employment is the vehicle through which growth can translate into poverty eradication. Hence we emphasize and call for efforts to strengthen the linkages among growth, employment and the eradication of poverty.

We will promote employment through planning, employment targeting and employment mainstreaming, learning from successful experiences in African and other countries and building strategic partnerships to support our growth strategies.

We stress the critical role of private-sector investment and development in promoting high-level sustainable growth and decent employment, and therefore emphasize the need to pursue policies that foster private investment, particularly in agriculture and value-addition agro-industries and agribusiness, labour-intensive manufacturing, ICTs and service industries. We also reiterate the need to continue to promote and sustain a conducive business environment for domestic and foreign direct investment.

We note the importance of development planning and the need for our countries to adopt and implement well-articulated and coherent plans to promote economic transformation and foster economic and social development.

a National Employment Programme have been developed to realize employment-supportive targets. This renewed national focus on decent work and pro-poor growth is also well reflected in the United Nations Development Assistance Plan (UNDAP) 2010–14. Decent work has also been mainstreamed into Zambia's National Employment and Labour Market Policy (NELMP), the Fifth National Development Plan (FNDP) (2006–10) and the current Sixth National Development Plan (SNDP) (2011–15).

In Zimbabwe, employment and decent work have been mainstreamed in the Short-Term Emergency Recovery Programme (STERP I and II) and the Zimbabwe Medium-Term Plan (2010–15). Uganda's Sector Development Investment Plan (SDIP II) articulates measures towards addressing occupational safety and health (OSH) and employment services, including increasing protection of workers through capacity strengthening, compliance with labour standards, establishment of the labour management and information systems, provision of social protection to vulnerable groups and skills development for youth. In Madagascar, the National Employment

Support Programme is integrated into the priority actions within its national development strategy: Madagascar Action Plan. In the Democratic Republic of the Congo, job creation is one of the five pillars of the National Economic and Social Recovery Programme. In Cameroon, employment is a pillar of the National Strategy for Growth and Employment (adopted in 2009).

Decent work has also been incorporated into the Ghana Shared Growth Agenda (2010–13), and is also a cross-cutting theme of the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy II. In Mauritius, the creation of employment and decent work is central to the 2008 economic stimulus package. In Egypt, Ethiopia, Morocco and Tunisia, employment and labour issues have been duly addressed in the UNDAFs. The Nigeria Vision 2020 and the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy NEEDS II have incorporated employment and wealth creation as their core priorities. Youth employment is one of the priorities of the Poverty Reduction Strategy Pillar (PRSP) II in Sierra Leone. In Liberia, employment was included as one of the core priorities of the poverty reduction strategy. In Mozambique, the five-year plan published in April 2010 identifies decent work as one of its several focus areas in combination with economic policy. Moreover, the UNDAF draft incorporates decent work as a major outcome as well as a mainstreamed issue. The draft national poverty reduction plan (*Plano de Acção para a Redução da Pobreza*, PARP) includes employment promotion as one of the key priority areas.

At the continental level, African Ministers of Finance, Planning and Economic Development adopted a statement in March 2010 recognizing that “without strong policy responses, including those aimed at achieving food security and reducing unemployment the continent will not achieve most of the MDGs by 2015”. They agreed to “promote employment through planning, employment targeting and employment mainstreaming, learning from successful experiences in African and other countries and building strategic partnerships to support our growth strategies” (see box 2.1).

### **2.2.2. Investing in enterprises and decent work opportunities in Africa**

*Target: Three-quarters of African countries adopt integrated strategies for sustainable enterprise development and the generation of decent work opportunities, with a special focus on assisting women entrepreneurs. Such strategies should include targets for the registration of at least half of all enterprises currently operating informally.*

**Fifteen** member States have made significant progress in adopting integrated strategies for sustainable enterprises which especially focus on supporting women entrepreneurs (Cameroon, Comoros, Egypt, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Madagascar, Senegal, Somalia, South Africa, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Tunisia and Zambia).

Another **seventeen** member States have made some progress (Algeria, Burundi, Eritrea, Liberia, Malawi, Mali, Mauritius, Morocco, Mozambique, Nigeria, Rwanda, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Sudan, Tunisia, Uganda and Zimbabwe).

An increasing number of member States are developing integrated strategies for sustainable enterprise development, especially those that promote micro and small businesses and cooperative enterprises for women, and thereby generate decent work opportunities. In Comoros, the Strategy for Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS) promotes the development of women's entrepreneurship. In Ethiopia, a new SME development strategy is awaiting approval by the Council of Ministers. Additionally, women entrepreneurs have formed a national network which helps them exchange business knowledge, inputs and products from the different regions in the country. The United Republic of Tanzania's “*Kazi Nje Nje!*” Business Development Service (BDS) programme has mobilized and linked women entrepreneurs to access financial services from the Tanzania Women's Bank.<sup>48</sup> Some 98,276 women have been reached by the BDS programme.

To better address needs expressed by both urban and rural woman operating in the area of women's entrepreneurship development (WED), policies have been developed and adopted in Mali and Senegal: Women's Entrepreneurship Development Policy in Mali and a Women

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<sup>48</sup> The Tanzania Women's Bank (TWB), with an initial capital of TZS 2.8 billion, was formed in 2007 in order to support women's economic activities.



Entrepreneurship Development Strategy in Senegal. In Somalia, a facility to foster access to information and a range of BDS services for young women and men willing to start businesses or needing assistance in improving their businesses has been established in Bakool and Mogadishu. To cope with the crises experienced by Madagascar, the employers' organization (*Groupement des entreprises de Madagascar*) has developed a strategy to revive the economy. In Algeria, more than 6,000 craftsmen received training offered by the trainers in 48 wilayas countrywide. In Ethiopia, the ILO programme Know About Business (KAB) has been adopted as a tool to be used in technical vocational and educational training (TVET) and higher education institutions.

### 2.2.3. Decent work for Africa's youth

*Target: The adoption by three-quarters of African countries of national policies and programmes to respond to the rapid and large rise in the numbers of young jobseekers and aimed at ensuring that sufficient decent work opportunities are available to bring a fall in the numbers of young unemployed workers and the working poor. Adopted policies and programmes should lead to a significant reduction in the current youth unemployment rate for Africa of nearly 20 per cent.*

**Five** member States are making significant progress in adopting policies or programmes to curb youth unemployment (Cape Verde, Mali, Senegal, South Africa and Zambia).

**Twenty-seven** member States are making progress towards achieving the target (Algeria, Botswana, Burundi, Cameroon, Comoros, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Ethiopia, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Morocco, Mozambique,

#### Box 2.2

##### The challenge of youth employment in North Africa: The case of Tunisia

Tunisia, the country where the Arab Spring began, provides a stark example of the challenge of youth employment in the region. Unemployment rates among young people are higher than the MENA regional average, and have been increasing – even while the overall rate has been declining. In 2004, the overall unemployment rate in Tunisia stood at 14.2 per cent, but among 15–19-year-olds it was 32.4 per cent, 26.9 per cent among 20–24-year-olds, and 20.1 per cent among 25–29-year-olds. By 2009, the overall rate had decreased slightly to 13.3 per cent, but had edged up for all young people. For example, in 2009 the unemployment rate among 20–24-year-olds was 29.9 per cent (3 percentage points higher than in 2004) and among 25–29-year-olds it was 25.7 per cent (5.6 percentage points higher than in 2004).

The problem of unemployment is particularly acute for young college graduates, as they are unable to find suitable employment matching their skills once they leave school. Unemployment is greatest among those with higher education; even as unemployment was declining among the non- and primary-educated, it was rising for those with secondary and tertiary education. The unemployment rate for the college-educated rose from 14 per cent in 2005 to close to 22 per cent in 2009 relative to those without education – whose rate has been falling steadily since 2005, but rose recently to 6.1 per cent in the wake of the financial crisis.

In light of the recent political events, the Tunisian Government has taken several steps to promote employment creation, such as financing the recruitment of young people, training for reinsertion, and facilitating access to credit for those who wish to work independently. This is a welcome step, but much more needs to be done, including addressing demand- and supply-side constraints to employment, and adopting policies to foster more rapid private-sector job creation.

This increase in unemployment with higher levels of education is a shared problem throughout the oil-importing economies in the MENA region. In Egypt and Jordan, for example, unemployment among those with tertiary education exceeds 15 per cent. This is in contrast to developed economies where unemployment decreases with increased schooling.

Namibia, Nigeria, Rwanda, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Tunisia, Uganda and Zimbabwe).

Youth employment promotion is the foremost country priority or outcome identified in the DWCPs in Africa. Hence many countries are taking the necessary steps to reduce the prevalent high levels of youth unemployment.

Zambia has adopted a National Action Plan for Youth Employment in addition to the National Youth Policy which is operational. In Zimbabwe, the National Employment Policy was reviewed and subsequently adopted by the Youth Council and Ministry of Youth Development, Indigenization and Empowerment and social partners in June 2010. In the Democratic Republic of the Congo, a Youth Plan of Action is in place and a national programme for youth employment (PRO-YEN) has been set up.

In Nigeria, youth employment was incorporated into the National Employment Action Plan (NEAP) and was endorsed by the Federal Executive Council in October 2010. In Liberia, youth employment promotion has been mainstreamed into the National Poverty Reduction Strategy. Furthermore, the Draft Technical Education and Vocational Training Policy and bill provides for specific interventions targeted not only at improving the employability of young women and men but also the encouragement of private–public partnerships in creating job opportunities for them. In Madagascar, 14,000 young people were able to connect with 50 medium and large enterprises in all economic sectors through the *Grand Salon de l'Emploi*. In 2010, a law was prepared in Senegal to institutionalize the introduction of enterprise culture in the national curricula of vocational training and technical education system. Cape Verde, Mali and Senegal have also developed youth employment plans.

#### 2.2.4. Closing the skills gap

*Target: Three-quarters of all African member States critically review and implement, with the involvement of the social partners, national policies and strategies for education and training for all to facilitate their (re)integration into the labour market, as well as establish mechanisms for their implementation at national, regional, local and sectoral and enterprise levels. Such strategies should include annual targets for the provision of free universal primary education, and (re)training opportunities for the working poor, especially young people and women, with the aim of ensuring that half of Africa's workforce has obtained new or improved skills by 2015.*

**Eleven** member States are making significant progress to review and implement skills policies and strategies to facilitate integration/reintegration into the labour market (Cameroon, Egypt, Madagascar, Mauritius, Senegal, Somalia, South Africa, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe).

**Twenty-two** member States are making progress (Algeria, Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cape Verde, Comoros, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Eritrea, Ghana, Kenya, Liberia, Namibia, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mozambique, Niger, Rwanda, Sudan, Tunisia and Uganda).

Many African countries have plans to narrow the gap between the demands of the labour market and skills supply. As part of this, they are strengthening the role of the social partners in skills development. Most countries have developed or are developing (or revising) existing skills development policies and strategies in consultation with stakeholders.

Zimbabwe has drafted its first ever National Skills Development Policy to tackle the skills gap. A major national programme – Skills for Youth Employment and Rural Development – promoting skills of persons in the informal and rural economy is being implemented. Swaziland has also approved its first ever National TVET and Skills Development Policy and Strategy. In South Africa a new Ministry of Higher Education and Training was created to facilitate the integration of skills development functions. The National Skills Development Strategy III has been launched and the Skills Development Act amended to overcome the identified shortcomings of the existing system. To better focus on skills training, a new quality council for trades and

**Box 2.3****Pan-African Forum on Women's Entrepreneurship Development (WED)**

At the invitation of the ILO and in partnership with the African Development Bank (AfDB), representatives of governments and workers' and employers' organizations, educational and research institutions, associations of women entrepreneurs, women entrepreneurs' support agencies, funding agencies and bilateral and multilateral organizations, met in Cairo from 27 to 29 October 2009 to discuss ways and means to effectively support sustainable women-owned enterprises in Africa in the context of the global recession and beyond. The High-level Meeting was part of the implementation of the Global Jobs Pact in Africa to promote the role of women in business and empower women entrepreneurs, in particular in SMEs. Participants adopted the Cairo Platform for Action for the Development of Women's Entrepreneurship in Africa, structured around four objectives:

- objective 1 (national level): Establish and strengthen the institutional and legislative environment with incentives and support for the implementation of effective policies and strategies to enhance women's entrepreneurship development and generate decent employment and sustainable incomes;
- objective 2 (regional level): Integrate women's entrepreneurship development into regional policies and strategies for Africa;
- objective 3 (international level): Mobilize the donor community (bilateral and multilateral), UN agencies and international finance institutions to integrate women's entrepreneurship development into their programmes and policies of technical cooperation and support women-specific development initiatives; and
- objective 4 (at the level of the women entrepreneurs): Strengthen organizational and managerial capacities of women entrepreneurs and their representative associations to effectively lobby and advocate for the needs of their members and advocate for equality between women and men.

Participants further urged the ILO and AfDB to continue their technical collaboration and financial mobilization and support, and institutionalize the holding of the Forum and subregional annual meetings of women entrepreneurs. The Second Cairo Women's Entrepreneurship Development (WED) Forum, whose main theme is "Green Growth and WED", is scheduled to take place in 2012 and to explore effective ways and means of greening WED in Africa.

occupations has been set up. The United Republic of Tanzania has reviewed its TVET policy in response to labour market demands, including a review of the training curricula in both non-formal and formal vocational training. An apprenticeship training policy has been drafted in Zanzibar.

In Zambia, the TVET policy was reviewed in 2009 and a TVET sector plan has been developed. A training authority (TEVETA), including tripartite constituents on its board, is responsible for planning, implementing and monitoring TVET programmes in the country. Mauritius has launched an Education and Human Resources Plan for 2020. Egypt has initiated a TVET reform process that covers policy, strategy and quality aspects of skills development. The *Organisme paritaire collecteur agréé des entreprises franches*, OPCAEF (joint collecting body for duty-free companies) was established in Madagascar to promote vocational training. In Mozambique, the strategic plan for the National Institute of Vocational Training was developed in 2010. In addition, a mid-term evaluation of the impact of the Employment and Vocational Training Strategy (EVTS) was conducted in 2010. Liberia has prepared a draft TVET policy and bill.

### 2.2.5. Social inclusion through job creation for conflict prevention and reconstruction

*Target: All reconstruction and recovery programmes are discussed among the constituents and incorporate local economic development and employment-intensive investment approaches with a strong emphasis on building effective and accountable institutions for the world of work and for economic and social governance in general.*

**Five** member States have made significant progress (Democratic Republic of the Congo, Kenya, Liberia, Sierra Leone and Zimbabwe).

**Ten** member States are making progress (Burundi, Cape Verde, Comoros, Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Eritrea, Mali, Mozambique, Senegal and Somalia).

Across the region, progress on social inclusion through job creation for conflict prevention and reconstruction is still rather limited. With few exceptions, the great majority of the countries concerned do not yet have recovery programmes incorporating local economic development and employment-intensive approaches.

In Liberia, employment-intensive investment approaches were integrated into the national poverty reduction strategy focused on reconstruction, and labour-intensive construction approaches were adopted for the reconstruction of roads. In the Democratic Republic of the Congo, 6,667 ex-combatants have been reintegrated through vocational training and micro-enterprise promotion in 2009–10. In 2010, Congo adopted a labour-intensive strategy in order to increase employment in public investments.

As a means of sustaining peace, Comoros has adopted an inclusive national programme promoting youth and women's employment, *Projet d'appui à la pérennisation de la paix par la promotion de l'emploi des jeunes et des femmes aux Comores*, APROJEC. In Sierra Leone, the

#### Box 2.4

#### Conference on Employment for Peace, Stability and Development

(Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, 11–12 April 2011)

In support of the implementation of the Plan of Action adopted at the Extraordinary Summit of Heads of State and Government of the African Union on Employment and Poverty Alleviation (Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso, September 2004), and the decision taken by the Assembly of Heads of State and Government of the African Union on the need to develop a regional approach to the challenges of peace and security in the Horn of Africa (Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, 30–31 January 2011), the African Union Commission (AUC), the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD) and the ILO have developed a regional strategy for the Horn of Africa entitled "Employment for Peace, Stability and Development". This strategy aims at promoting employment creation and social justice through a "virtuous triangle" of opportunity, protection and empowerment – as a means to achieving stability, peace and development in the region.

A stakeholders' and development partners' conference was organized in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, from 11 to 12 April 2011 to finalize and validate the above strategy and to further dialogue and partnerships with the international development community in order to identify concrete and practical approaches for the implementation of the strategy. The conference brought together close to 120 high-level government officials, representatives of employers' and workers' organizations, the African Union and IGAD Partners' Forum (IPF), the international donor community, United Nations funds, programmes and agencies, as well as civil society organizations.

The conference adopted a communiqué and roadmap that call for regional integration and broad-based partnerships to mobilize resources for inclusive and sustainable peace, stability and development in the Horn of Africa.

national reconstruction agenda targets the promotion of employment and business opportunities in infrastructure rehabilitation for young women and men.

### **2.2.6. Investing in a basic social protection package for poverty reduction**

*Target: All African countries adopt coherent national social security strategies, including for the introduction or extension of a basic social security package that includes essential health care, maternity protection, child support for school-age children, disability protection and a minimum pension.*

**Thirteen** member States have made significant progress towards offering basic social protection (Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Ghana, Kenya, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Rwanda, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia).

**Nineteen** member States are making progress (Benin, Botswana, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Comoros, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Guinea-Bissau, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Morocco, Senegal, Somalia, Togo, Tunisia and Zimbabwe).

Across the continent, introducing the social protection floor as part of the strategy to extend social security to all has been widely recognized as an important tool to reduce poverty and inequality, alleviate the adverse social consequences of crises and speed up recovery and economic growth. Hence, the extension of social security protection, investing in a basic social protection package or “social protection floor” touches on many of the DWCP priorities and outcomes. Various countries have developed national social security strategies that include the introduction and extension of a basic social security package.

Mozambique adopted the Basic Social Security Strategy and Law No. 4/2007 that set out the legal framework for social protection for all, and the implementation plan is currently being developed. A national policy for social protection was adopted in Ghana (in 2007), Burundi (in 2010) and Rwanda (in January 2011). Mali adopted a national action plan on extending social protection for 2010–14. Kenya launched the process toward developing an integrated social protection policy, while Zambia is currently reviewing its social protection policy and programmes and developing a national social protection policy. In Benin, while a national social protection policy was launched in 2007, an inter-ministerial committee on the social protection floor was established by decree in December 2010.

Many countries worked on social protection strategies including Mauritius, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland and United Republic of Tanzania. Burkina Faso is reforming its social protection mechanisms to implement universal health coverage. Togo conducted a feasibility study for its Institut national d’assurance maladie, INAM (national health insurance institution) and launched the social protection floor in 2010. Rwanda has adopted a community-based health insurance (CBHI) policy which has currently reached a nearly universal coverage rate of 91 per cent of the population. Gabon established a contributory health insurance scheme in June 2008 with a view to opening health-care access to all Gabonese. In Benin a *Régime d’assurance maladie universelle*, Ramu (national health insurance scheme) is being developed.

Besides establishing national health insurance schemes for all, several countries have strengthened their social protection floor either by implementing further components of the floor or by increasing the effectiveness and coverage of existing programmes. South Africa has a social pension and a child support grant, a means-tested cash transfer programme that is currently covering around 90 per cent of eligible poor families with children (7.5 million children). Rwanda established various programmes targeting the poor and vulnerable such as the “one cow per family programme”; a programme improving the living conditions of Rwandese living in thatched houses by providing them with iron sheets; and a fund for genocide survivors in need of assistance. Also, the Ubudehe database was established to categorize households in six income categories in order to better identify, among others, those in need of cash transfers for their everyday living, children in need of scholarships and beneficiaries of the CBHI.

In 2008, Ghana launched its Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP), a poverty-targeted conditional cash transfer programme that also aims at linking beneficiaries to complementary services such as health insurance, education or agricultural programmes. In Cape Verde, there are initiatives to consolidate the social protection floor by building on existing schemes such as the 1994 tax-financed old-age and disability non-contributory pension scheme that reached 90 per cent coverage. In the Democratic Republic of the Congo, three provinces have set up mutual health insurance schemes for poor workers. Cameroon is implementing free access to malaria treatment for all children under 5 years of age. Zambia is currently extending the existing family and child cash transfers programme to cover additional districts and is in the process of developing a national pension scheme.

Additionally, social security institutions were reinforced in various countries, increasing effectiveness and contributing to the extension of social security. Cameroon prepared draft laws in 2009 to modernize and extend the national social protection system, in particular by enhancing the activities and efficiency of health *mutuelles*, creating a national health insurance fund and establishing a social security fund for public employees, as well as by creating a framework for the development of basic social protection benefits for the vulnerable population.

By reinforcing its National Health Insurance Authority, Ghana succeeded in extending coverage of its health insurance to an estimated rate of 45 per cent. In Zambia, the Social Protection Expenditure and Performance Review identified strategies for further extending social protection coverage.

At the continental level, the African Union (AU) Social Policy Framework for Africa is a landmark development. Adopted by AU member States at the 1st African Union Conference of Ministers in Charge of Social Development, Windhoek, 27–31 October 2008, on the theme “Towards a Sustainable Social Development Agenda in Africa”, the Social Policy Framework for Africa is intended to provide a structure and establish guidelines to support AU member States in their ongoing quest to address the multiple social issues facing their societies.

At the second African Decent Work Symposium, the Yaoundé Tripartite Declaration on the Implementation of the Social Protection Floor was adopted on 8 October 2010 by the tripartite delegates from 47 African member States of the ILO. The urgent need for all African member States and social partners to start the effective and rapid implementation of a social protection floor for all, in synergy with the AU Social Policy Framework for Africa, was recognized. More specifically, governments and social partners in Africa are to undertake decisive steps to improve the level of social security for all in Africa by the adoption of a two-dimensional strategy for the extension of effective social security coverage. Furthermore, member States were encouraged to give effect to the necessary budgetary allocations to realize this objective.

At the second Session of the AU Conference of Ministers of Social Development, held in Khartoum from 21 to 25 November 2010, member States called for the accelerated implementation of the Social Policy Framework. The Declaration so adopted endorses the principle of the Social Protection Floor and its implementation, as adopted by the Yaoundé Tripartite Declaration. Furthermore, the East and Central African Social Security Association (ECASSA) has also endorsed the Yaoundé Declaration (October 2010).

### **2.2.7. Tackling the HIV/AIDS crisis through workplace action**

*Target: All countries in Africa have national HIV/AIDS strategies to ensure that the workplace contributes to the overall objective of achieving universal access to prevention, treatment, care and support.*

**Eleven** member States have made significant progress in ensuring that the workplace contributes to increasing access to national HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment, care and support initiatives (Benin, Cameroon, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Malawi, Seychelles, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe).

**Eighteen** member States are making progress (Algeria, Botswana, Burundi, Chad, Comoros, Congo, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Egypt, Eritrea, Gambia, Lesotho, Liberia, Mauritius, Namibia, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, South Africa and Uganda).

One of the key priorities/outcomes of the DWCPs in the region relates to effectively tackling the HIV/AIDS crisis through workplace action.

In Cameroon, some 14,500 workers have benefited from workplace HIV/AIDS policies. In addition, a National Tripartite Declaration (2009) and a public–private partnership (2010) on fighting against HIV/AIDS at the workplace were signed. Tripartite constituents in Seychelles and Liberia have also signed policies on HIV/AIDS in the workplace and used these as national framework documents. The Employers' Confederation of Zimbabwe (EMCOZ) and the Zimbabwe Confederation of Trade Unions (ZCTU) were able to access Global Fund resources to address HIV/AIDS in the world of work. The ongoing technical assistance that is aimed at strengthening the capacities of the joint EMCOZ and ZCTU consortium to respond to the challenges of HIV/AIDS and similar health and safety issues that are intrinsic to certain industries are imparted by the ILO in Africa.

Benin, Kenya and the United Republic of Tanzania have adopted policies or codes of practice prohibiting discrimination based on HIV status. Kenya's HIV/AIDS Control and Prevention Act, which came into effect on 30 March 2009, outlaws discrimination in all its forms and subtleties against persons living with HIV/AIDS. In the United Republic of Tanzania, a national policy framework to address HIV/AIDS in the informal economy through cooperatives has been established and implemented.

Zimbabwe has developed a strategic framework for the private sector response to HIV/AIDS. In Ghana, an HIV/AIDS policy was prepared for 100 district assemblies. In Comoros, a draft revision of legislation in the fight against HIV/AIDS at the workplace has been finalized. Zambia has an HIV/AIDS national strategic framework in place, as well as a workplace policy for the public sector. A national workplace policy is being developed in the country which is expected to be in place by the end of 2011.

In Ethiopia and Malawi, national policies on HIV/AIDS in the workplace have been formulated, and corresponding implementation plans are currently being developed. The Malawi Labour Relations Act was reviewed to include HIV/AIDS issues and a policy and strategic framework of action for the transport sector was developed. In addition, tools to mainstream HIV/AIDS issues in labour inspection procedures have been developed. In Madagascar, 29 businesses have developed programmes and policies on HIV/AIDS in the workplace.

At the continental level, the ILO in Africa has responded to the requests made by four major African tertiary institutions to build their capacities and enable them to meet the increasing demands that emerging diseases such as HIV/AIDS and re-emerging ones such as tuberculosis continue to pose in the workplace.

### ***2.2.8. Implementing labour standards at the workplace***

Target: Three-quarters of all African member States develop programmes for the improvement of working conditions, with specific national targets for reducing non-compliance with laws concerning hours of work and minimum pay, the reduction of occupational accidents, diseases and days lost to illness and accidents per worker, and a progressive increase in the number of labour inspectors in relation to workers.

**Twelve** member States are making significant progress in implementing labour standards by developing programmes to improve working conditions (Botswana, Cameroon, Comoros, Egypt, Ethiopia, Lesotho, Madagascar, Namibia, Senegal, Somalia, South Africa and Swaziland).

**Twenty-three** member States are making progress (Algeria, Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cape Verde, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Eritrea, Gabon, Guinea, Kenya, Liberia, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Rwanda, Seychelles, United Republic of Tanzania, Togo, Zambia and Zimbabwe).

Many African countries have made significant progress in implementing labour standards to better protect workers at the workplace. In Cameroon the national policy on occupational health and safety was validated by the tripartite constituents and adopted in 2010. Zambia has enacted the

statutory instrument on the minimum wage and employment conditions for domestic workers have been established. In Egypt, the transition Government embarked upon a review of its minimum wage policy and of the current minimum wage fixing machinery, in order to fix a new minimum wage. There has been an increase in the number of labour inspectors working in Burkina Faso and Niger, while methodological guides for labour inspectors to improve enforcement of labour laws were completed in Benin, Mali and Togo in 2010. Besides, audits of labour administration and inspection systems have been undertaken in Kenya, South Africa and United Republic of Tanzania.

### **2.2.9. Tripartism as a key governance mechanism for inclusive poverty-reducing growth**

*Target: All African States and RECs establish or further develop tripartite social dialogue institutions. New or existing mechanisms for tripartite social dialogue are fully utilized by governments in the preparation and implementation of DWCPs and national development strategies.*

**One** country (South Africa) has made significant progress in using tripartism for inclusive poverty-reducing growth. In addition, two regional economic communities (RECs) – the East African Community (EAC) and the South African Development Community (SADC) – have established and are using tripartite social dialogue structures for DWCPs.

**Thirty** member States are making progress (Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Comoros, Congo, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Egypt, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Gabon, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Seychelles, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe).

The National Economic Development Labour Advisory Council (NEDLAC) has been effectively utilized in South Africa in fostering the national ownership of the preparation and implementation of its DWCP. A subcommittee of NEDLAC regularly monitors the progress towards the achievement of the DWCP outcomes.

The DWCP formulation process has contributed significantly to improving the practice of tripartism as a key governance mechanism. This was particularly noted in Comoros, Madagascar and Seychelles. In Mozambique, the Consultative Commission on Work (*Comissão Consultiva do Trabalho*, CCT) started the establishment of provincial forums of social reconciliation (in all the 11 provinces) in 2007. In 2010, the National Committee on Mediation (COMAL) was created to support a fast resolution of labour conflicts on an extrajudicial basis. The Mozambique DWCP is currently being finalized under the auspices of the CCT, and the CCT is expected to also guide its implementation.

Since 2007, many countries have established tripartite national institutions for social dialogue which are beginning to play important roles in the development of DWCPs and national development strategies. The Government of the Democratic Republic of the Congo has established a high-level Social Dialogue Framework (*Cadre permanent du dialogue social*, CPDS), which provides the needed national space for tripartism, and is chaired by the Prime Minister. In 2010, Mauritius initiated the creation of the tripartite national forum to build a prosperous environment for social dialogue.

The Swaziland Government now includes the social partners in dialogue on national social and economic issues through the National Steering Committee on Social Dialogue. In 2007, the National Committee for Social Dialogue (*Comité National du Dialogue Social*, CNDS) in Senegal agreed to a national social stability and economic growth pact which served as a tool for implementing national policies. It has also facilitated a number of tripartite agreements that provide a framework for wage policy. The creation of the CNDS in Togo (2007) has also institutionalized the process of tripartite social dialogue.

In Liberia, the institutional structure of the National Tripartite Council has been decentralized to four counties to facilitate access by rural-based social partners to the mechanism of social



## Box 2.5

**Excerpts from the Declaration adopted by the Second Social Partners' Forum on "Mobilizing social dialogue for the implementation of the Global Jobs Pact in Africa"**

(Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso, 30 November 2009)

We, representatives of employers' and workers' organizations, who are members of the Pan-African Employers' Confederation (PEC), the African Regional Organization of the International Trade Union Confederation (ITUC-Africa) and the Organization of African Trade Union Unity (OATUU), met in Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso, 30 November 2009, for the Second Social Partners' Forum.

Despite its undisputed relevance, the successful implementation of the Pact cannot be realized without consultations and common commitment. That is why we must ensure a better quality of social dialogue between governments and social partners. It is observed that the current practice of dialogue in many of our countries is weak and does not, both in substance and in method, measure up to the requirements for the implementation of the Pact.

Therefore, our common goal is to contribute to a renewed, strengthened and diversified form of social dialogue that is based on perennial and functional social dialogue structures, and the agreement on the agenda and timetable. We are striving for a social dialogue which makes the contracting of recommendations the rule rather than the exception. We are promoting a social dialogue regime which is free from government interference in the choice of participating social partners and which, in any event, organizations are independent and representative.

We are advocating for a social dialogue that takes into account the increasing interdependence of economic and social issues, takes cognizance of: globalization, regional integration, economic growth, the fight against poverty (Millennium Development Goals, PRSP, etc.), the competitiveness of enterprises, new forms of labour relations, freedom of association and collective bargaining, restructuring and reorganization of enterprises, layoffs, flexible contractual relationships and working hours, conditions for preservation of jobs, productivity and profit distribution, the mobility of firms and employees, etc.

We consider it imperative that organizations of workers and employers in Africa launch, as a matter of priority, substantive reforms in governance and redeployment of their activities to enable them to increase their expertise and representativeness.

dialogue for consultative and dispute resolution purposes. The mechanisms of dialogue on issues of employment and decent work are operational in Madagascar – *Conseil National du Travail* (National Labour Council), *Comité National de Suivi de Promotion de l'Emploi et de la Réduction de la Pauvreté* (National Committee for the Promotion of Employment and Poverty Reduction), *Conseils Régionaux Tripartites du Travail* (Regional Tripartite Labour Councils).

In addition to the country-level initiatives, subregional tripartite social dialogue mechanisms have been established in five RECs: EAC, SADC, UEMOA,<sup>49</sup> the Indian Ocean Commission and ECCAS.<sup>50</sup> This is aimed at enhancing the participation of employers' and workers' organizations in regional integration discussions and other policy engagements. To facilitate social dialogue, two structures have been set up within the framework of the Indian Ocean Commission: the *Confédération des Employeurs de l'Océan indien* (for employers) and the *Commission syndicale des Travailleurs de l'Océan indien* (for workers). More specifically, the EAC and SADC have established tripartite mechanisms to oversee the development and implementation of decent work programmes.

<sup>49</sup> Members of the West African Economic and Monetary Union (*Union économique et monétaire ouest-africaine*, UEMOA) are Benin, Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea-Bissau, Mali, Niger, Senegal and Togo.

<sup>50</sup> The Economic Community of Central African States (*Communauté économique des États d'Afrique centrale*) groups together the following member States: Angola, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Congo, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Rwanda and Sao Tome and Principe.

In Guinea-Bissau, Mauritania and Senegal, social dialogue committees have been strengthened in the fishing sector. The inter-ministerial tripartite National Council of Employment and Vocational Training, which also plays the role of a sectoral social dialogue framework, has been set up in Burkina Faso. Since 2007, Burkina Faso, Guinea, Kenya, Morocco, Senegal, United Republic of Tanzania and Togo have begun strategic management audits as initial steps taken towards modernizing their labour administrations, while Swaziland has started to reform its labour administration system.

Lesotho, Namibia and Swaziland completed a strategic review of labour inspection systems and are implementing the associated recommendations, including providing staff with required training. The ILO has provided strategic management audits and advisory services to assist with the implementation of recommendations. Those countries, as well as Botswana, Malawi and Zambia, have developed databases for labour inspection. Other African ILO member States also strengthened labour inspection systems through training, inspection audits and action plans (Angola, Egypt, Ethiopia, Liberia and Swaziland). In Namibia, the Government requested ILO assistance in optimizing and modernizing the existing labour inspection system with special attention to the New Labour Act 2007. In the specific field of HIV/AIDS, in Nigeria, after developing inspection tools and provision of technical assistance to strengthen capacity, labour inspectors are more responsive to the issue of HIV/AIDS at the workplace.

### **2.2.10. Freedom of association: Lifeblood of the ILO and a foundation for democracy**

*Target: All countries in the region adopt legislation to guarantee the rights to freedom of association and collective bargaining through effective and speedy administrative and judicial appeals and procedures.*

**Six** member States are making significant progress in taking concrete steps to guarantee the rights to freedom of association and collective bargaining (Botswana, Liberia, Mozambique, Senegal, South Africa and Swaziland).

**Seventeen** member States are making progress (Burundi, Cape Verde, Comoros, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Lesotho, Madagascar, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Namibia, Rwanda, Seychelles, Zambia and Zimbabwe). In addition, following its political change in January 2011, Egypt has committed, through an action plan concerning freedom of association, to amend its legislation to conform to the principles enshrined in the ILO Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87), and the Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98).

The experiences in matters of freedom of association and collective bargaining are quite similar in most African countries. All the countries in Africa have ratified Conventions Nos 87 and 98 with the exception of Guinea-Bissau (Convention No. 87), Kenya (Convention No. 87), Morocco (Convention No. 87), Somalia (Conventions Nos 87 and 98) and Sudan (Convention No. 87). In addition, many have adopted legislation to facilitate implementation of the provisions of these core instruments. The criteria for union representation were determined in Burkina Faso (2010), Mauritania (2007) and Togo (2007). Botswana, Lesotho and Namibia have adopted legislation to guarantee the rights to freedom of association and collective bargaining. In Swaziland, the texts governing the functioning of the National Steering Committee on Social Dialogue have been revised and gazetted to make it function effectively as a platform for dialogue on issues of freedom of association, among others, and the Labour Relations Act has been amended to take on board some of the comments of the Committee of Experts.

A Labour Court has been established in the Seychelles for effective judicial appeals. In the United Republic of Tanzania, the Commission for Mediation and Arbitration (CMA) commenced operations in May 2007. By August 2010, 25,000 disputes were reported to the Commission, of which 78 per cent were resolved by mediation.

### 2.2.11. *Effective implementation of fundamental principles and rights at work*

*Target: Universal continent-wide ratification, better implementation of ratified Conventions and greater effective respect for fundamental principles and rights at work.*

**Twenty-four** member States (Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Ethiopia, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Somalia, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania, Togo and Zambia) are making some progress in implementing the ratified fundamental Conventions.

**Sixteen** member States have taken initiatives towards the target (Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Gabon, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Mauritius, Rwanda, Seychelles, Swaziland, Uganda and Zimbabwe).

Since 2007, the ILO has registered 28 new ratifications from Africa (including six core Conventions and three priority/governance Conventions).<sup>51</sup> To date, almost all African countries have ratified the eight core Conventions. In West Africa, all countries have ratified the eight core Conventions, except Ghana (Convention No. 138), Guinea-Bissau (Convention No. 87), Liberia (Conventions Nos 100 and 138) and Sierra Leone (Conventions Nos 138 and 182).<sup>52</sup> SADC member States have ratified all core Conventions and there is a periodic review mechanism for implementation. Similarly, all member States of the East African Community have ratified all core Conventions with the exception of Kenya (as mentioned above). As regards the current status of ratification of the priority/governance conventions (Conventions Nos 81, 129, 122, 144) in Africa, there is still some ground to cover, since only 49 per cent of the potential ratifications have been registered to date, compared with 96 per cent for the fundamental instruments.<sup>53</sup>

The ILO Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations has formally identified a number of cases of satisfaction in respect of specific changes made by governments in response to its comments concerning specific Conventions they have ratified (Algeria, Angola, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Egypt, Gabon, Gambia, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Mauritania, Mauritius, Morocco, Mozambique, Namibia, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Togo, Tunisia, Uganda and Zambia).

The Committee has also taken note with interest of other types of action taken by governments in response to its comments concerning specific Conventions they have ratified (Algeria, Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Comoros, Congo, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Egypt, Eritrea, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Morocco, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Rwanda, Senegal, Seychelles, South Africa, Sudan, Swaziland, Togo, Tunisia, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe).

<sup>51</sup> **Burkina Faso:** Employment Policy Convention, 1964 (No. 122); Human Resources Development Convention, 1975 (No. 142); Safety and Health in Agriculture Convention, 2001 (No. 184); **Benin:** Merchant Shipping (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1976 (No. 147); **Cape Verde:** Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138); **Central African Republic:** Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention, 1989 (No. 169); **Gabon:** Conventions Nos 122 and 138; Labour Relations (Public Service) Convention, 1978 (No. 151); **Guinea-Bissau:** Convention No. 138; Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182); **Madagascar:** Night Work (Women) Convention (Revised), 1948 (No. 89), and its Protocol of 1990; Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105); Night Work Convention, 1990 (No. 171); Seafarers' Identity Documents Convention (Revised), 2003 (No. 185); **Mali:** Tripartite Consultation (International Labour Standards) Convention, 1976 (No. 144); Labour Administration Convention, 1978 (No. 150); Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183); **Morocco:** Convention No. 150; Collective Bargaining Convention, 1981 (No. 154); **Namibia:** Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100); **Niger:** Occupational Safety and Health Convention, 1981 (No. 155); Occupational Health Services Convention, 1985 (No. 161); Promotional Framework for Occupational Safety and Health Convention, 2006 (No. 187); **Nigeria:** Vocational Rehabilitation and Employment (Disabled Persons) Convention, 1983 (No. 159); **Rwanda:** Convention No. 122; and **Tunisia:** Workers' Representatives Convention, 1971 (No. 135).

<sup>52</sup> On 20 January 2011, Parliament approved the ratification of these two instruments. The ILO is now awaiting the reception of the formal instruments of ratification.

<sup>53</sup> To date, Convention No. 81 has been ratified by 42 African member States (out of 53); Convention No. 122 by 19 African member States; Convention No. 129 by eight African member States; and Convention No. 144 by 35 African member States.

In both categories of cases, measures were taken by these member States<sup>54</sup> to ensure better compliance with ratified instruments.

Between 2008 and 2011, the ILO supervisory bodies have identified some 123 areas of non-compliance in respect of ratified Conventions in certain countries in Africa. A number of member States have developed initiatives to put into practice the recommendations of the supervisory bodies. Liberia has enacted a Decent Work Act which provides for the implementation of its ratified instruments. Egypt and Zambia have enacted anti-trafficking laws in May 2010 and 2008, respectively. The Labour Law Reform Advisory Council of Zimbabwe is in the process of harmonizing the Public Service Act and the Public Order and Security Act with the Labour Act to ensure that they are in line with the provisions of ILO Conventions Nos 87 and 98.

### **2.2.12. Getting Africa's children into school and out of work**

*Target: All African States prepare by 2008 time-bound national action plans for the elimination of the worst forms of child labour by 2015. Such action plans should form an integral part of national development strategies in order to ensure close coordination between education programmes, measures to combat HIV/AIDS and its economic and social impacts, and the implementation of labour laws on the minimum age for employment. They should be supported by the ILO's DWCPs.*

**One** member State (Zambia) is making significant progress.

**Thirty-five** member States are making progress (Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Comoros, Congo, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Egypt, Ethiopia, Ghana, Guinea, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Morocco, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Togo, Uganda and Zimbabwe).

Most countries have adapted their national legislation to international standards. Some of them have tailored their programmes to the special situation of the girl child. Twenty-nine African countries have developed or are in the process of developing national action plans (NAPs) against child labour. Of these, 13 have had their drafts validated by stakeholders (Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cape Verde, Ethiopia, Kenya, Lesotho, Mali, Namibia, Niger, Senegal, Swaziland and United Republic of Tanzania (Mainland)), while Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, Madagascar, Malawi, Morocco, South Africa and United Republic of Tanzania (Zanzibar) have officially approved or adopted their NAPs.

Zambia adopted a National Child Labour Policy in 2010, and the NAP for the elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour (2010–15) was developed. A statutory instrument, containing the list of hazardous labour and acceptable light work, was completed in November 2009, but is yet to be adopted. The National Trade Union Institutional Child Labour Policy was launched in 2010 and a child labour module has been integrated into teacher training programmes. The results of these interventions include the prevention of 7,000 children from child labour through education, training and/or psychosocial support and other services, and the withdrawal of 3,500 children from child labour through education or skills training and other support.

In Madagascar, 16,475 children were prevented from child labour and 8,393 children were withdrawn from work through vocational training and formal education between 2007 and 2009.

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<sup>54</sup> At its 80th Session (November–December 2009), the Committee of Experts made the following clarifications on the general approach developed over the years for the identification of cases of progress: (1) the expression by the Committee of interest or satisfaction does not mean that it considers that the country in question is in general conformity with the Convention, and in the same comment the Committee may express its satisfaction or interest at a specific issue while also expressing regret concerning other important matters which, in its view, have not been addressed in a satisfactory manner; (2) the Committee wishes to emphasize that an indication of progress is limited to a specific issue related to the application of the Convention and the nature of the measure adopted by the government concerned; (3) the Committee exercises its discretion in noting progress, taking into account the particular nature of the Convention and the specific circumstances of the country; (4) the expression of progress can refer to different kinds of measures relating to national legislation, policy or practice; (5) if the satisfaction or interest relates to the adoption of legislation or to draft legislation, the Committee may also consider appropriate follow-up measures for its practical application; (6) in identifying cases of progress, the Committee takes into account both the information provided by governments in their reports and the comments of employers' and workers' organizations. In its 2011 report, the Committee of Experts further clarified its approach to these cases.

About 2,500 former child soldiers have been rehabilitated through access to vocational training and self-employment in the Democratic Republic of the Congo.

The list of hazardous work prohibited for children has also been adopted in Malawi, Mali and Togo. Child labour has also been introduced into the curricula of cooperative colleges in Kenya, United Republic of Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia. Botswana and Namibia are taking similar measures to strengthen legislation on child labour. A national list of hazardous occupations has been promulgated and the national regulation on hazardous work has been adopted in South Africa. Laws prohibiting trafficking and the worst forms of child labour have been enacted in Côte d'Ivoire and Egypt.

Ghana is implementing a national programme for the elimination of the worst forms of child labour in the cocoa sector, with interventions covering most of the cocoa-growing areas of the country. In Burkina Faso, in addition to the adoption of the NAP, the worst forms of child labour have been integrated into the 2008 Labour Code and the list of hazardous work prohibited for children was established in 2008.

Kenya mainstreamed Conventions Nos 138 and 182 into its employment law enacted in 2007. Regulations to guide the implementation of the Act have also been developed. The country has also revised and validated its NAP in 2008 and the list of hazardous work was finalized in the same year. This led to the prevention and withdrawal of 18,000 children from child labour. Kenya has also mainstreamed the prevention and elimination of child labour in the national policy on non-formal education. Hence, children enrolling in non-formal schools in Kenya are now eligible for support under the country's free primary education programme. Furthermore, the Federation of Kenya Employers (FKE) has started the "Adopt a School" initiative in order to tackle child labour through education using a corporate social responsibility (CSR) approach.

In 2009, the United Republic of Tanzania adopted the Law of the Child Act, which includes provisions on child labour and protects children in apprenticeship situations; Malawi adopted a five-year National Action Plan (2010–15); and Mali strengthened its institutional setting to deal with child labour by creating a child labour unit within the Ministry of Labour.

### **2.2.13. Rooting out the remnants of slavery**

*Target: All African States adopt NAPs as a matter of urgency to eradicate all forms of forced labour by 2015 as part of DWCPs and their development plans.*

**One** member State, Zambia, is making significant progress.

**Five** member States are making progress (Egypt, Ethiopia, Malawi, Nigeria and South Africa).

The recognition of the gravity of the problem is manifestly obvious in the number of African States that have ratified Conventions pertinent to the fight against forced labour and human trafficking. All African States have ratified the two ILO forced labour Conventions: the Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29), and the Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105); all but three (Eritrea, Sierra Leone and Somalia) have also ratified the Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182). In addition, all but six African States have ratified or acceded to the UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (at 31 January 2011). The continent has been actively engaged in campaigning for the introduction of appropriate policy and legal frameworks through the establishment of regional platforms on the issues of human trafficking and forced labour.

In Zambia, the Anti-Human Trafficking Act was enacted in 2008, as well as a national action plan on anti-human trafficking. Ten district stakeholder coalitions have been established to coordinate and monitor the implementation of trafficking and forced labour interventions at district level. Additionally, Zambia has developed a code of conduct for employers of domestic workers. In 2009, Ethiopia adopted the Employment Exchange Services Proclamation No. 632, to reduce irregular migration/trafficking overseas and in particular those vulnerable to forced labour such as domestic employees.

Subregional actions have been taken by the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) and SADC. The 2nd ECOWAS Conference of Ministers of Labour and Employment (Côte d'Ivoire, 6–9 April 2009) endorsed the Strategic Plan of Action for the ECOWAS Labour Policy. The Plan has, among other issues, placed the fight against human trafficking, the elimination of forced labour, and the removal of discriminatory laws and practices as priority interventions to be implemented during 2009–14. In May 2009 a SADC Ministerial Conference branded trafficking in persons as a criminal activity that requires clear and comprehensive legislation in order to be prevented and combated. The Conference adopted a ten-year Regional Strategic Plan of Action on Combating Trafficking in Persons, especially women and children (SADC Human Trafficking Communiqué, updated 18 June 2009).

At the continental level, the 2006 Ouagadougou Action Plan to Combat Trafficking in Human Beings, which was subsequently adopted by the Ministerial Conference on Migration and Development that convened in Tripoli, stipulated a three-pronged strategy of prevention, protection, and prosecution. The African Union Department of Social Affairs (DSA) was tasked with the responsibility of advocating for the implementation of the Plan. The DSA launched the AU Commission Initiative against Trafficking (AU.COMMIT) and is actively sponsoring platforms to raise regional awareness and commitment in the continent.<sup>55</sup>

#### **2.2.14. Eliminating discrimination in employment: Unlocking Africa's potential**

*Target: All African States have anti-discrimination legislation in place and have adopted policies to promote equality of opportunity and treatment in respect of employment and occupation. Such policies should target an increase by 10 per cent in the labour market participation rate of women and a 25 per cent reduction in wage differentials.*

**Fifteen** member States have made some progress in developing anti-discrimination policies and enacting supporting legislation in respect of occupation and employment (Algeria, Benin, Cameroon, Comoros, Egypt, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Seychelles, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe).

**Nine** member States have taken initiatives towards the target (Angola, Burkina Faso, Central African Republic, Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Madagascar, Rwanda, Senegal and Somalia).

A national action plan to improve the implementation of laws and policies concerning the employability and employment of persons with disabilities has been adopted and is being implemented in Ethiopia. National vocational training agencies have strengthened the employability of persons with disabilities through facilitating their participation in mainstream courses, and by improving the labour market relevance of courses in centres for disabled persons.

Benin, Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Mali and Senegal have formulated NAPs to combat discrimination in the workplace. In Zimbabwe, women workers' rights and world of work issues have been mainstreamed and integrated into national development frameworks, including the National Employment Policy, the Medium-term Plan (MTP) 2011–15, and the UNDAF 2012–15.

The Government of Southern Sudan drafted an Employment and Labour Relations Bill, 2009, which contains comprehensive provisions on maternity leave, its duration, and payment benefits and prohibits the termination of an employment contract of a female worker during her pregnancy or maternity leave. The Bill also expands on the criteria prohibiting discrimination to explicitly include non-exclusion in employment and occupation by reason of marital status and family responsibilities, disability, HIV/AIDS, trade union membership or participation in trade union activities, age or sexual orientation.

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<sup>55</sup> The Ouagadougou Action Plan was adopted by ministers for foreign affairs, ministers responsible for migration and ministers responsible for development from African and EU Member States and AU and EC Commissioners, gathered in Tripoli, 22–23 November 2006.

Congo has adopted a specific law on the promotion and protection of indigenous people's rights, while the Mauritius Employers' Federation has developed a guide for people with disabilities and disseminated it to employers and ministries in charge of labour and social security.

In addition, the Banjul Declaration on the Strategies for Accelerating the Implementation of the Dakar and Beijing Platforms for Action has adopted "economic empowerment of women through poverty reduction, employment creation, social protection and use of information and communication technology" as a key area of action. Likewise, the African Union Commission (AUC) has adopted the African Women's Decade (2010–20), under the theme "grassroots approach to gender equality and women's empowerment". The Decade centres round ten themes: fighting poverty and promoting economic empowerment of women and entrepreneurship; agriculture and food security; health, maternal mortality and HIV and AIDS; education, science and technology; environment and climate change; peace and security and violence against women; governance and legal protection; finance and gender budgets; women in decision-making positions; and mentoring young women leaders and professionals.

### 2.2.15. Escaping the informal economy trap

*Target: Three-quarters of all African States adopt strategies to formalize the informal economy and extend protection to informal economy workers. Such strategies should integrate, among other things, policies for the increased registration of informal businesses, skills development, improved and safer working conditions, the extension of social protection coverage and the encouragement of freely chosen associations of informal economy workers and employers.*

**Nine** member States have made some progress (Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Malawi, Mozambique, Senegal, South Africa, Zambia and Zimbabwe).

**Five** member States have taken initiatives towards the target (Egypt, Lesotho, Namibia, Swaziland and United Republic of Tanzania).

African countries are searching for new policies and practical responses in order to promote decent work for the significant proportion of the working population that is engaged in the informal economy. A few countries have developed strategies and mechanisms to formalize the informal sector and extend social protection to informal economy workers. The region has played a pivotal role in promoting the social economy as an effective route for escaping the informal economy trap.

Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon and Senegal have taken policy measures for the increased registration and capacity building of informal businesses. In Senegal, the number of beneficiaries of the *Union des Mutuelles du Partenariat pour la Mobilisation de l'Épargne et du Crédit au Sénégal* (UM-PAMECAS) rose from 8,000 to 20,000, with UM-PAMECAS extending its microfinance institutions to many regions of the country. In addition to the law on social security reform, Cameroon has institutionalized the "social economy" approach at the ministerial level and drafted a specific law (2010) to promote it. In Mozambique, the Regulation of Compulsory Social Security (Decree No. 53/2007) establishes compulsory social security systems for self-employed (who are largely in the informal economy) and employed workers. In Namibia, the 2008 labour force survey includes a module on the informal economy.

In Ethiopia and Zambia, national microinsurance action plans and strategic outlines have been developed which feed into a policy, regulatory and supervisory environment conducive to decent work. In Zimbabwe, the informal economy workers in the transport sector have formed business associations and received financial support from the microfinance agency, the Small Enterprise Development Corporation.

### 2.2.16. A fair deal for Africa's migrant workers

*Target: Three-quarters of all African States have policies to ensure that migrant workers have regular, authorized status and are fully protected by the labour legislation of the host country and granted equal treatment and opportunities by 2015.*

### Box 2.6

#### **Making migration a development factor: The case of North and West Africa**

The International Institute for Labour Studies (IILS) report *Making migration a development factor: The case of North and West Africa* (Geneva, ILO, 2010) sheds light on how migration, in conjunction with sound labour markets, can better support development goals, notably in Algeria, Mauritania, Morocco, Senegal and Tunisia. The report finds that migration can be a positive factor for the development of countries of origin, provided the right set of policies is put in place. These include:

##### **Leverage remittances for development**

Remittances are an important source of financial flows to North and West Africa, having tripled since 1990 to reach over US\$12 billion in 2008. For Morocco and Senegal, this amounts to 8 per cent or more of GDP. These financial flows can assist development directly by sustaining incomes in the countries of origin and indirectly to the extent that remittances help to support education, infrastructure and investment in the private sector.

##### **Strengthen links between return migration and employment creation**

The return of migrants can contribute to development through the promotion, mobilization and utilization of productive resources because many returnees gain valuable experience and knowledge through the migration process. Some returnees invest savings accumulated abroad and engage in entrepreneurial activities with significant multiplier effects. In West Africa, evidence suggests that a significant proportion of young people in the region prefer to be self-employed rather than salaried.

##### **Improve the functioning of domestic labour markets, especially as regards youth**

Remittances and return migration, however, should be viewed as a complement to development rather than a substitute for it. In the case of North and West Africa, one noteworthy characteristic of the labour market is high unemployment among youth. To achieve a sustainable development, policies to promote a well-functioning labour market, notably employment and decent work in countries of origin, are necessary because they are not only good for development but are also supportive of an environment that encourages return migration and investments in North and West Africa via remittances.

**Thirteen** member States have taken initiatives towards the target (Algeria, Egypt, Lesotho, Mali, Mauritania, Morocco, Mozambique, Nigeria, Senegal, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe).

Migration is one of the key global – and African – challenges for economic development, social cohesion and governance. The dearth of employment opportunities and decent work combined with widening disparities in incomes and human security, as well as demographic trends, have led to increased migration pressures in Africa. Overall there is a lack of a coordinated approach to labour migration in several countries in the region.

In Nigeria, a draft national labour migration policy has been developed and an international labour migration desk has been established at the Ministry of Labour and Productivity. Zimbabwe has developed database and labour migration statistical systems that facilitate and support the registering of potential jobseekers and employers. A situational analysis of the current labour migration regime in Zimbabwe has been finalized and has informed the formulation of the draft national labour migration policy. In the United Republic of Tanzania, an Inter-Ministerial Task Force with social partner representation has been set up to provide technical advice to the Ministry of Labour and Employment in the formulation of the national labour migration policy.

The ILO is implementing projects entitled “Good Governance of Labour Migration and Links with Development” in Mali, Mauritania and Senegal, aimed at facilitating orderly migration



to Spain to maximize the development benefits of migration. Guides for Malian and Senegalese migrants working in Spain were published in 2010 and 2009 respectively.

At the subregional level, the ILO, through MIGSEC,<sup>56</sup> is also providing technical assistance to the EAC secretariat in developing a legal instrument (directive or regulation) coordinating the social security systems of the EAC member States.

### 2.2.17. Improving information for better policies

*Target: By 2015, all member States are able to generate basic annual data on the size and composition of the workforce. At least half of all African member States have mechanisms in place by 2010 to produce labour market information and statistics for the monitoring of progress on the core dimensions of the Decent Work Agenda.*

**Nine** member States have made significant progress (Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Liberia, Mauritius, Morocco, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia).

**Twenty-four** member States have taken initiatives towards the target (Benin, Botswana, Cameroon, Comoros, Côte d'Ivoire, Egypt, Ethiopia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mozambique, Niger, Rwanda, Senegal, Seychelles, Swaziland, Togo, Tunisia and Zimbabwe).

Across the region, the capacity to produce reliable, policy-relevant and timely labour market information remains weak.

Progress was noted in the United Republic of Tanzania, where labour market information systems, policies and initiatives have been developed, including a national profile on job quality and a Decent Work Country Profile for Tanzania mainland; the same process is ongoing for Zanzibar. Moreover, a labour market information system unit has been established within the Ministry of Labour. Zambia conducted a labour force survey in 2008, but the results of the survey had not been published at the time of reporting. Information on the application of international standards for capturing employment and labour statistics has been incorporated in the 2010 national census. In Namibia, the 2008 labour force survey includes a module on the informal economy. Liberia conducted its first labour force survey in 2010 with a component of child labour incorporated. In Rwanda, a child labour survey was conducted in 2008–09. In 2010, Malawi undertook a pilot labour force survey, in order to inform the design and launch of a larger labour force survey.

Employment and vocational training observatories are functional in Benin, Burkina Faso, Mali and Niger. Botswana has established a labour market observatory with the Ministry of Finance and Development Planning. Guinea-Bissau and Cape Verde have initiated the process of establishing similar observatories.

Quarterly labour force surveys, particularly unemployment figures, have become more acceptable to national stakeholders in Mauritius and South Africa as a result of better compliance with international standards. Annual labour force surveys have been included as a module in the Uganda National Household Survey, and an annual stand-alone urban labour force survey has been in place since 2009. A labour market information unit has been reactivated within the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development of Uganda.

At subregional level, the UEMOA has created an observatory of employment and vocational training.

<sup>56</sup> MIGSEC: a project titled "Strategies for extending social security to migrant workers and their families from and within Africa (2008–2011)", implemented by the ILO International Migration Programme and the Social Security Department, Geneva.

### **2.3. Implementing the Decent Work Agenda in Africa through DWCPs**

Paragraph 11 of the conclusions of the 11th African Regional Meeting “calls on the ILO to work with its constituents to encourage all member States in Africa to have DWCPs by the end of 2009”, as well as on “ILO constituents to contribute actively to the development, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the programmes as well as the mobilization of the necessary resources. Collaboration with partner agencies in the United Nations and multilateral systems in order to integrate the decent work approach into policies and programmes is also called for.

**Twenty-seven** member States have finalized and are implementing DWCPs (Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Comoros, Côte d’Ivoire, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Madagascar, Mali, Mauritius, Namibia, Nigeria, Senegal, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Togo, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe).

**Twenty-one** member States are drafting their first or second phase DWCPs (Algeria, Burkina Faso (II), Congo, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Djibouti, Egypt, Gambia, Ghana (II), Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Lesotho (II), Liberia, Malawi, Mali (II), Mauritania, Mozambique, Nigeria (II), Rwanda, Senegal (II), Somalia and Tunisia).

When the Decent Work Agenda in Africa, 2007–15 was adopted in April 2007, only one of the existing DWCPs complied with the established minimum criteria established in the DWCP guidebook. Consequently, the call on the ILO to encourage all its constituents to have DWCPs by the end of 2009 has been considered very ambitious indeed. Despite this high level of ambition, the ILO in Africa has held discussions with all member States, including the newly created South Sudan. The only country where there has been no such consultation is the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya. All the 27 DWCPs which are being developed in the region comply with very stringent criteria to ensure that they constitute effective and evaluable programmes, which promote the achievement of clear decent work results, and are nationally owned. Not only are the priorities and outcomes identified by the national tripartite constituents; the implementation and monitoring and evaluation plans are increasingly developed by them.

A National Steering Committee for the South Africa DWCP comprised of representatives of the tripartite-plus constituents within NEDLAC, and the ILO has been established to drive the DWCP process and to institutionalize the oversight role of NEDLAC in the formulation, implementation and management of the DWCP. Malawi’s DWCP was written by a national tripartite drafting team, supported by the ILO. A DWCP Advisory Committee is being established to oversee its implementation as soon as it is launched. The functions of the Committee will include the oversight of implementation as well as making inputs into the development of the country’s National Employment and Labour Policy. Similarly in Zambia, the implementation of the DWCP is overseen by an Advisory Committee comprising the tripartite and other stakeholders. The Committee is currently chaired by the Zambia Federation of Employers and an implementation reporting template is in place to advise the Government through the Ministry of Labour and Social Security on progress, challenges and opportunities faced in its implementation. In Comoros, a DWCP tripartite group to oversee the implementation of the country programme has been officially set up through a ministerial order. Similar approaches have been set up in Madagascar, Mauritius and Seychelles. Kenya has decided to use the existing Labour Commission (established by Parliament to advise the Minister on labour issues) to oversee the implementation of the DWCP.

After the adoption of the finalized DWCPs by the tripartite constituents, the country programmes are now increasingly endorsed at the highest political level, including at Cabinet level, as is the case in Benin, Cape Verde, Comoros, Seychelles, Swaziland and Togo. There is also keen interest in many countries to start including DWCPs into the agenda of parliaments, as has happened in Congo and Mali; and to have national economic and social councils playing a key role in the adoption and implementation of DWCPs, as is the case in South Africa through NEDLAC.

Increasingly, DWCPs include effective arrangements to foster joint mobilization of resources involving the member States and the ILO. In addition, national tripartite constituents have invested

financial and other resources to facilitate the achievement of the outcomes agreed in the DWCPs. In Madagascar, the Government provided US\$1,131,179 and the sum of US\$419,071 was mobilized from the local communities for the outcome related to employment-intensive investment programmes (EIIP) for buildings. The Botswana Confederation of Commerce, Industry and Manpower contributed US\$11,473 towards its own restructuring (as a top-up to ILO support).

The main substantive priorities of the DWCPs assessed are clustered as follows: employment promotion with a focus on young women and men (36 per cent); enhanced social protection, especially mitigating the impact of HIV/AIDS and improving social security and health benefits (29 per cent); strengthened social dialogue mechanisms and structures for improved tripartism (23 per cent); and improved compliance with international labour standards (12 per cent).

In addition to the national DWCPs, decent work programmes are being developed by RECs such as the EAC and SADC as a key means of mainstreaming decent work in regional integration initiatives.

## **2.4. Conclusion**

The Decent Work Agenda in Africa, 2007–15 is ambitious. Owning it and delivering it are challenges that ILO constituents in the region have welcomed. Political awareness of the importance and relevance of the Decent Work Agenda, and the will to mainstream it through DWCPs, are increasingly becoming a reality. Overall, the 17 targets of the Agenda, which are in line with the 19 global outcomes, are shaping DWCP priorities and outcomes, and they are well aligned with the key objectives of national development plans, major sectoral policies and programmes, national poverty reduction strategies and UNDAFs.

Although considerable work has been done and substantive results achieved, the magnitude of the task ahead provides an impetus for accelerating the pace to ensure that the Decent Work Agenda in Africa targets can be achieved in a timely manner. This calls for effective national ownership of DWCPs, to be anchored by a strong commitment to embed the Decent Work Agenda in national development strategies, policies and programmes. Such country ownership of the Decent Work Agenda is also needed to upscale initiatives and to enhance the mobilization of local resources. It requires strengthened capacities of the constituents as well as of ILO staff, and the development of partnerships. In addition, the Office should support constituents in exploiting synergies between the various targets in order to harness policy coherence through integrated approaches.

These key measures are presented in Chapter 3 and constitute a framework for accelerating the advancement of the Decent Work Agenda in Africa during the next four years (2011–15).



## 3. Accelerating the realization of the Decent Work Agenda in Africa, 2011–15

### 3.1. Introduction

Since the adoption of the Decent Work Agenda in Africa, 2007–15, in 2007, the African region has embarked on an ambitious drive to promote the Agenda as the economic and social development paradigm for building decent societies in Africa. It is now five years to the end date, and in light of the progress achieved to date there is a need for efforts to be upscaled to accelerate the realization of the Agenda. Effective ownership and mainstreaming of the Agenda in the national policy-making process are key. Achieving visibility and recognition of the DWCPs as national development frameworks is essential to broadening and deepening successful initiatives. It is also a critical path to increasing national budgetary commitments as well as development partners' support. Both are needed to move at the speed and scale required to meet the targets set in the Agenda.

As a way of fast-tracking the mainstreaming of the Decent Work Agenda in general and the accelerated implementation of the Decent Work Agenda in Africa, 2007–15, this chapter proposes the following framework:

- **Synergies between the 17 targets:** In the spirit of the 2008 ILO Declaration on Social Justice for a Fair Globalization and of the 2009 Global Jobs Pact, the strategic interrelationship between the targets calls for a shift towards a portfolio of integrated approaches that place a premium on harnessing policy coherence.
- **Capacity:** There is a need to expand initiatives to enable ILO constituents to effectively engage in and own the overall process of the design, implementation and monitoring of gender-sensitive and results-based DWCPs; to improve their participation in global learning and knowledge-sharing activities related to the Decent Work Agenda; to further build competency to promote equality between women and men in those programmes; and to mobilize partnerships and resources to upscale them.
- **Knowledge:** A fast-track approach calls for a sustained effort to systematically harvest and continue to develop the stock of successful and effective methods, strategies and tools adapted to national and local situations, and to ensure their dissemination and scaling up.
- **Resources:** Investing in upscaled delivery of the Decent Work Agenda requires development of viable and effective resource mobilization strategies, giving priority to domestic sources of funding by taking full advantage of: development aid trends towards decentralization at country level, channelling of resources by development partners through the UN system, increased national budgetary support, increased investment by development banks in infrastructure development, and the emerging potential of South–South cooperation and private engagement through public–private partnerships.
- **Partnerships:** The depth, breadth and diversity of experience and expertise in delivering decent work are a source of a considerable yet untapped potential for learning, synergies and cooperation among national governments, social partners, international organizations, civil society and the private sector. Fast-tracking the Agenda mainstreaming and implementation requires renewed efforts to partner for decent work delivery.

### 3.2. Promoting an integrated approach

To fast-track the implementation of the Decent Work Agenda in Africa, 2007–15, there is a need for an integrated approach, in line with the ILO Declaration on Social Justice for a Fair Globalization (2008) and the Global Jobs Pact (2009).

The Declaration stresses the importance of a holistic and integrated approach by recognizing that the four strategic objectives are inseparable, interrelated and mutually supportive. Henceforth, this integrated approach will better enable our technical specialists and constituents to join forces in promoting balanced approaches that connect people to productive solutions.

Moreover, the global financial and economic crisis is a reminder of the unbalanced and unsustainable nature of the current globalization process. The recovery approach provided by the Global Jobs Pact makes it an appropriate tool for also addressing the crises that already existed in Africa before the current crisis. Therefore, much as the Decent Work Agenda in Africa was adopted before the onset of the global financial and economic crisis, its implementation for the period 2011–15 should be reinforced by the Global Jobs Pact, given that decent work responses are relevant in both good and bad times.

### ***3.3. Implementing the “New Vision for inclusive, job-rich growth for Africa”***

The “New Vision for inclusive, job-rich growth for Africa” adopted at the Second African Decent Work Symposium (Yaoundé, October 2010) is a post-crisis development paradigm designed by African constituents. Achieving this vision at national level requires better mainstreaming of employment targeting in development planning, mobilizing public and private partnerships, implementation of agreed policies and commitments, and stronger monitoring and accountability. Central to all of the above is the recognition of the need for a new macroeconomic policy framework that promotes employment-creating growth and social protection. Issues to be considered in such a pro-employment macroeconomic framework include:

- (a) Monetary and financial policies whereby:
  - (i) central banks and financial authorities aim for “reasonable price stability” with growth rather than a “one size fits all” target of low, single-digit inflation;
  - (ii) central banks and financial authorities enhance financial inclusion by (1) facilitating access to finance for the private sector, and (2) supporting the growth of microfinance institutions; and
  - (iii) it is recognized that the agenda of financial inclusion is necessary to address binding constraints on private-sector development in Africa, as revealed in enterprise surveys.
- (b) Fiscal policy and debt sustainability whereby:
  - (i) sustainable resources are identified from both external and domestic sources to meet development goals;
  - (ii) public investment in infrastructure is raised to about 7 per cent of GDP from current rates of 2–3 per cent; and
  - (iii) enhanced domestic resource mobilization is possible through an improvement in the tax-to-GDP ratio and better budgetary execution.
- (c) Exchange rate regimes and capital account management whereby:
  - (i) institutional arrangements are developed that can engender real exchange rate stability; and
  - (ii) in addition, there is a prudent approach to capital account management in cases where unrestrained short capital flows become a destabilizing force.

The ILO will henceforth support constituents in Africa to realize this vision by facilitating:

- the exchange of good practices and innovative policies;
- social dialogue; and
- capacity building of governments and social partners.

In terms of the ILO’s work at global and continental levels, it will be noted that greater policy coherence at global, regional and national levels and more active partnerships can provide the appropriate channel for member States to place an integrated approach to decent work at the

**Box 3.1****Making fiscal policy job-rich: A modelling approach**

The stability of sub-Saharan African economies has often suffered from pro-cyclical government spending. Limited fiscal space and the fact that much of government revenue has been tightly linked to volatile income components, such as commodity trade and remittances, have limited the capacity of many countries in the region to smooth economic activity and job creation over the economic cycle. This has proved vastly damaging to sustainable employment creation. Indeed, the increased volatility of economic activity from this pro-cyclical stance for public spending has destroyed on average more jobs than if there had been countercyclical public spending (i.e. public finances that do not react to cyclical conditions). Such increased volatility holds back private investment and increases the risk premia, in particular for small and medium-sized enterprises, thereby heavily weighing on job creation. For instance, had the United Republic of Tanzania – a country with a relatively high degree of pro-cyclical spending – experienced the same low degree of spending pro-cyclicality as Namibia, it could have added almost 170,000 jobs per year over the period 1991–2008, or 10 per cent of its current employment level.

Going forward, macroeconomic and job stability could be greatly enhanced in sub-Saharan countries by moving (a large) part of government spending to automatic spending programmes such as social protection systems. This would help prevent the pro-cyclical temptation that discretionary programmes bring and could improve effective stability of these economies, with beneficial consequences for formal-sector job creation. Indeed, estimates by the International Institute for Labour Studies show that in sub-Saharan Africa employment multipliers – measuring the job intensity of government spending – are particularly significant. For instance, Kenya and South Africa benefit from long-run multipliers twice that of any of the developed countries. More generally, emerging economies in sub-Saharan Africa show substantially higher multipliers than advanced economies. This might partly be related to their higher responsiveness of labour supply to positive demand shocks due to their large informal labour markets. In addition, aggregate demand is the most constraining factor in these economies, making them particularly receptive to additional public stimulus. Together, these factors allow even moderate extensions of social protection measures to stimulate durably job creation in these countries.

Source: Part of the material in this box has been adapted from International Institute for Labour Studies (IILS): *World of Work Report 2010: From one crisis to the next?* (Geneva, ILO, 2010).

heart of their economic and social policies. An effective integration of the Decent Work Agenda into the policies and programmes of the multilateral agencies, particularly the international and regional financial institutions, will facilitate the realization of this outcome.

Ensuring policy coherence will continue to be hinged on the ILO's dialogue with relevant international bodies on achieving better coherence between economic, financial and social policies at the international, regional and national levels. Such dialogue and coordination are key elements in identifying and exploiting potential synergies while preventing overlaps and contradictions. Some issues of importance will be:

- (i) addressing the imbalances in labour markets that underlie international imbalances by improving the policy dialogue between those concerned with employment and social matters and those focused on fiscal, monetary and financial questions;
- (ii) exploring whether global economic and social governance mechanisms need to be adapted or reformed to reflect shifts in the global economy, political change and the broadening of the agenda of policy coherence to include employment and social policies more prominently;
- (iii) providing guidance to constituents in promoting policy coherence, and strengthening the Organization's role in international policy coherence forums;

- (iv) engaging in joint research and policy analysis leading to policy recommendations for constituents; and
- (v) continued collaboration with the other UN agencies to ensure coordination and an integrated approach at the policy level that includes the ILO in the MDG acceleration framework; and promotion of the Toolkit for Mainstreaming Employment and Decent Work at country level.

As a follow-up to the IMF–ILO conference on “The challenges of growth, employment and social cohesion” (Oslo, 13 September 2010),<sup>57</sup> an initial consultative meeting was organized in Lusaka, Zambia on 22 February 2011 between the IMF, ILO, Ministry of Labour and Social Security, employers and trade unions. A number of possible areas of collaboration were discussed at length. Consensus however was towards the following four issues: deepening dialogue among IMF–ILO–constituents; the growth, poverty and employment nexus; social protection, particularly for vulnerable populations; and financing for labour/employment-related programmes as a means of ensuring enhanced capacity for the Ministry of Labour and Social Security. The ILO will continue to facilitate communication between the Zambian constituents and the IMF, with the aim of ensuring that the IMF will focus on policies to promote employment-creating growth.

### ***3.4. Furthering the implementation of ratified international labour standards through their integration into national policies***

International labour standards provide the indispensable normative and rights-based foundation for the implementation of the Decent Work Agenda and are central to any strategy to foster more balanced economic and social development. They are an important component of a rights-based approach to development and, as such, should be integrated into DWCPs and more generally mainstreamed into national policies and development frameworks implemented by ILO member States (such as UNDAFs, MDGs, PRSPs). International labour standards are both a decent work outcome in their own right and a key means of action of the Organization to deliver on its mandate and hence all other outcomes. As stated in the 2008 ILO Declaration on Social Justice for a Fair Globalization, they are equally instrumental in realizing the other three strategic objectives (employment promotion, social protection and social dialogue).<sup>58</sup> They are an effective guide for the governance of the world of work, and as such are used by ILO constituents as a target for labour law reform even if ratification is not envisaged.

While there is today a positive and conducive global policy environment recognizing the contribution of international labour standards to the economic and social development of countries, this international pledge has yet to be translated into national action. Therefore the ILO will:

- continue to implement a rights-based approach through the transmission of knowledge and capacity on labour standards to the tripartite constituents;
- ensure that workers and employers in the informal economy also benefit from the protection afforded by these standards, with a particular focus on the rural sector;
- continue to ensure the ratification and implementation of fundamental and governance Conventions;
- be more proactive in offering and upscaling its assistance to countries to help them to respond in a timely manner to the comments of the ILO supervisory bodies and be in a position to effectively implement ratified international labour Conventions, particularly with respect to implementing DWCPs;
- continue to ensure that all activities mainstream gender, since gender discrimination continues to be pervasive in the world of work worldwide, including in Africa;

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<sup>57</sup> See the progress report prepared for the ILO Governing Body, GB.310/WP/SDG/2/2.

<sup>58</sup> “The four strategic objectives are inseparable, interrelated and mutually supportive. The failure to promote any one of them would harm progress towards the others. To optimize their impact, efforts to promote them should be part of an ILO global and integrated strategy for decent work. Gender equality and non-discrimination must be considered to be cross-cutting issues in the abovementioned strategic objectives” (para. IB)



- continue to build partnerships within but also outside the UN system;
- devote more resources to knowledge development and sharing, notably on the economic costs and benefits of international labour standards; and
- assist member States in developing appropriate legal frameworks in line with international labour standards and principles to govern relations between employers, workers and governments, which would help expand freedom of association to more categories of workers.

### 3.5. Promoting youth employment

Providing decent work for young women and men is increasingly being heard as a clarion call to bring about economic stability, peace and social justice. Creating job opportunities for young women and men remains the focus of most African countries. According to the ILO report *Global Employment Trends for Youth 2010*, young men and women today face increasing uncertainty in their hopes of making a satisfactory transition to the labour market. By the end of 2009, there were an estimated 81 million unemployed young people in the world. The youth labour force continues to grow and adds pressure to already saturated job markets. In most regions, young women continue to be hardest hit by unemployment.

Vulnerable employment and informal economy employment has been increasing in the African region. Rural youth are particularly vulnerable in this regard, since they are often employed under informal, low-productivity and casual contracts and have limited rights and voice, both within households and in their communities. Child labour and early school drop-out are unacceptably high in rural areas. They adversely affect youth opportunities to acquire skills and education, often permanently compromising their future employment prospects. In sub-Saharan Africa, a very high youth employment-to-population ratio masks poverty and lack of social protection, forcing youth into low-productivity vulnerable employment, often in subsistence agriculture.

Africa is experiencing a “youth bulge”; it is the “youngest” continent, with those below 30 years of age constituting around 70 per cent of the continent’s entire population.<sup>59</sup> This demographic situation is not about to change in the next few years.

Young women continue to be hardest hit by unemployment and underemployment. The gender gaps in most of the labour market indicators, including youth unemployment rates and labour force participation rates, are highest in the Middle East and North Africa.<sup>60</sup> Many studies have revealed that the typical African youth resides in the rural area and is a young woman.<sup>61</sup> The situation is alarmingly worse in the Middle East and North Africa region where labour market opportunities for women are fewer, even through education levels may have increased. Young women face multiple barriers in accessing employment, including further exclusion, inequality and inequity. Therefore, female youth need specific targeted interventions.

In rural areas, the way towards more productive and satisfying employment for youth lies in implementing strategies that enhance agricultural productivity and enforce policies that attract youth into farming, while improving non-farm rural employment opportunities. Such policies will contribute to a better management of rural out-migration of young people, if complemented with other measures that seek to maximize the developmental benefits while trying to minimize the costs. It will be essential to invest in gender-sensitive education and vocational training which are tailored to the needs of rural areas and are market oriented. This should include a better targeting of extension services and investments in enhancing individual and collective capabilities of young people to give them more employment options at home and to strengthen the work skills of potential migrants. These measures should be accompanied by an enabling environment favouring increased access by youth to productive assets and markets, and the means to overcome obstacles

<sup>59</sup> ECA: *African Youth Report: Expanding opportunities for and with young people in Africa* (Addis Ababa, 2009).

<sup>60</sup> ILO: *Global Employment Trends for Youth* (Geneva, Aug. 2010).

<sup>61</sup> World Bank: *Youth and employment in Africa: The potential, the problem, the promise* (Washington, DC, 2008); ILO: *Youth: Pathways to decent work*, Report VI, International Labour Conference, 93rd Session, Geneva, 2005.

### Box 3.2

#### Decent employment for youth: The case of Egypt

The greatest threat to Egypt's tenuous economic progress is its tremendous lack of decent work opportunities for young people aged 15–29. Unemployment, which stands at 14 per cent for young men and 45 per cent for young women, is only the tip of the iceberg as many young people have to accept low productivity, low-paid and insecure jobs far below their capabilities. The lack of decent work is preventing the next generation of Egyptians from gaining the skills, experience and income necessary for the further economic, social and political development of their country. Drawing on lessons learned from numerous youth employment initiatives in Egypt and in other countries, a new project proposes an ambitious multidimensional and integrated approach to stimulating youth employment over a four-year period (2011–15). This project, titled “Decent jobs for Egypt's young people: Tackling the challenge together”, aims at increasing decent employment opportunities for young men and women, especially vulnerable groups, through five principal strategies:

- (1) Improving the performance of the Egyptian Ministry of Manpower and Migration, other relevant ministries and national partners, with a focus on implementing the recently developed National Action Plan for Youth Employment (US\$1.6 million).
- (2) A competition, selecting three Governorates which will develop a regional action plan for youth employment, and strengthening the performance of local partners in these Governorates to provide the services necessary to promote youth employment (US\$1.6 million).
- (3) Developing the capacity of training institutions to provide skills and learning experiences that can increase the likelihood of finding employment. Interventions include the development of modern apprenticeship systems for young people in the informal sector, the development and delivery of entrepreneurial skills packages in tourism, agriculture and manufacturing, specialized entrepreneurial capacity development for poor rural women and skills development and labour market integration for people with disabilities (US\$3.4 million).
- (4) Strengthening the capacity of local public employment services, youth organizations and enterprises to efficiently match skill supply and demand, allowing young people to find jobs and employers to retain badly needed workers (US\$1.7 million).
- (5) Promoting enterprise development and self-employment through a promotional campaign, improved policy environment and strengthened business services. The project will directly support the accompaniment of 500 new businesses launched through the project and at least 10,000 young people will profit from improved business services (US\$1.5 million).

The contribution to the project from the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) is CDN\$10 million (about US\$9.8 million). The Government of Egypt has agreed to make US\$5 million available through the Social Fund, which can be used by young entrepreneurs to launch entrepreneurial activities. Selected Governorates will contribute with 10 per cent of the money needed to implement their regional action plans.

to the implementation of new technologies and approaches. Another important area would be to improve access to information on rights and job opportunities for potential migrants and ensure protection and welfare for migrants, encouraging the best use of migrant remittances and know-how by rural households and communities, as well as to create viable and sustainable options upon return and reintegration.

Collaboration with the FAO and other development partners which have identified rural youth employment promotion as a priority area and have a strong comparative advantage will increase the effectiveness of the interventions proposed and promote policy and programme coherence at country level.

The ILO's youth employment initiatives fall within the broad aim of providing effective support to ILO constituents to adopt and implement employment, labour market, enterprise development and skills policies and programmes that promote decent work. The ILO approach to youth employment is built from work leading to, and streaming from, the 93rd Session of the International Labour Conference in 2005, which called on the ILO to build upon the work that was being undertaken by the UN Secretary-General's Youth Employment Network (YEN) and the 2002 UN General Assembly resolution on promoting youth employment. The ILO's approach to decent work for young people includes: (i) mainstreaming youth employment into relevant broader policies and programmes; and (ii) developing specifically targeted interventions for disadvantaged young people. Youth employment is treated as a cross-cutting concern in the ILO's Decent Work Agenda, since it requires integrated means of action drawing together a range of ILO programmatic tools and expertise into a consolidated strategy and plan of action.

The quality and quantity of youth employment in the region will therefore require further mainstreaming of decent work for youth. ILO work in Africa on youth employment, within the framework of a major AU–AfDB–ECA–ILO initiative, will continue to be developed in the following five broad areas:

- (i) policy advisory services including advice and assistance on national action plans, national policies and plans on youth employment;
- (ii) employment services including support with job placement, financial assistance for job search (e.g. stipend for job search), and labour market information sharing (including technology-based services);
- (iii) skills development and labour market training including second-chance education programmes, technical and vocational education and training, workplace training, non-formal apprenticeship schemes, formal apprenticeship schemes, core employability skills training, financial support to trainees through training subsidies and access to credit, and financial incentives to employers to cover workplace training and/or labour costs;
- (iv) employment creation including wage subsidies, public works and employment guaranteed programmes, public service programmes and voluntary service programmes, entrepreneurship/self-employment advisory services, entrepreneurship training and access to microfinance; and
- (v) others including grants for transport, childcare and other allowances, transfers (cash or in-kind) from a poverty reduction programme, other monetary and non-monetary entitlements.

### ***3.6. Achieving women's economic empowerment and gender equality***

The ILO promotes gender equality and women's economic empowerment as key development goals in themselves, as asserted in international Conventions and by the MDGs. There is also evidence that promoting women's economic empowerment and gender equality can contribute to increased economic growth, and can impact upon poverty reduction, as the pattern of consumption in the household tends to be more child-focused and oriented to meeting basic needs.

The ILO seeks to advance gender equality and women's economic empowerment in Africa via the inclusion of a gender dimension in all programmes and policies, whilst also promoting women-specific interventions to redress long-standing inequalities. As per the ILO's gender policy of 1999, the objective is to ensure gender equity in the staffing, institutional structures, and substance of the work of constituents and of the ILO itself. The Bureau for Gender Equality (GENDER) and the regional gender specialists support constituents and staff in achieving this goal, and progress is being tracked by the ILO Action Plan for Gender Equality 2010–15. According to the International Labour Conference resolution on gender equality at the heart of decent work, 2009, gender equality must be promoted across all four strategic objectives of the ILO, namely: fundamental principles and rights at work, employment, social protection, and social dialogue and tripartism.

While many ILO Conventions are important to the promotion of gender equality in the world of work, four are of particular relevance:

- Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100);
- Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111);
- Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention, 1981 (No. 156);
- Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183).

Convention No. 100 has been ratified by 51 African ILO member States, and Convention No. 111 by all 53 African member States. However, implementation remains a challenge everywhere. Consequently, most of the ILO's work in respect of these Conventions is devoted to monitoring and supporting implementation, and making recommendations for improvements. Conventions Nos 156 and 183 have far fewer ratifications. The ILO will continue to support constituents in conducting national studies on all four Conventions, and in developing advocacy platforms on the economic and social benefits of equal remuneration, anti-discrimination measures, better work–family balance and maternity protection.

In line with its gender policy, the ILO will continue to work to ensure that all employment promotion initiatives are gender-sensitive, while also taking a proactive, women-specific approach. A successful example of the latter approach is the Women's Entrepreneurship Development and Gender Equality (WEDGE) Programme, which will continue to be active throughout Africa, not least through the Women Entrepreneurs Facility being promoted in partnership with the AfDB. The Cairo Platform for Action will be promoted at national, regional and international levels, as well as at the level of individual women entrepreneurs.

The ILO will continue to strive to ensure that measures to promote occupational safety and health, to combat HIV and AIDS in the workplace, and to extend social protection for migrant workers are gender-equitable. There will also be a particular emphasis on social protection for domestic workers, the vast majority of whom are women.

The ILO will build the capacity of governments and of employers' and workers' organizations to promote gender equality in the workplace, to ensure that gender equality is on the agenda in tripartite discussions on the world of work, and to promote women's representation in decision-making positions. One means will be to continue training constituents throughout Africa in its Participatory Gender Audit methodology and to subsequently assist them to conduct the audits. In the same vein, the ILO will continue to give visibility to African women's economic empowerment in key international events.

Furthermore, the ILO will collaborate with the FAO in achieving women's economic empowerment so as to close the gender gap in agriculture and rural labour markets.

### ***3.7. Building a social protection floor***

The ILO will work with constituents to promote a social protection floor of essential social services and income security for all women and men.

National social protection floors are a key element for a sustainable and inclusive growth strategy to ensure the realization of the full economic potential of a society.

The Yaoundé Tripartite Declaration on the Implementation of the Social Protection Floor (paragraph 4) gave the ILO, in close collaboration with the African Union Commission, the task of carrying out the following actions:

- (i) to pursue its Global Campaign on Social Security and Coverage for All through all its means of action, and promote the ratification and implementation of up-to-date ILO Conventions on social security and notably Convention No. 102;
- (ii) to explore – using all its means of action – the option to introduce a new mechanism that guides countries in national implementation of the social protection floor;

- (iii) to actively assist member States, through appropriate technical advisory services and by promoting outcome oriented social dialogue, to support the national implementation of the social protection floor, and the regular evaluation of its impact, viability and sustainability;
- (iv) to develop the capacities of member countries, including national social security institutions and labour administrations, to design social security systems which are responsive to new challenges including changing demographic trends and assure the proper functioning of national social security systems;
- (v) to strengthen the capacities of employers' and workers' organizations to participate in the design, governance and implementation of comprehensive and sustainable social protection for all;
- (vi) to promote South–South cooperation to facilitate the exchange of experiences and expertise.

In addition to the above, specific activities the ILO will undertake to promote and implement the social protection floor include:

- (i) continued support to the Social Protection Floor Advisory Group;
- (ii) holding joint ILO–IMF meetings to discuss issues related to fiscal space and social protection;
- (iii) support to countries in facilitating the development of national social protection floors in Africa as well as their costing;
- (iv) developing a project facilitating South–South, South–North and triangular exchanges with African countries;
- (v) building up the existing knowledge base related to the implementation of social protection floor policies and increase documentation and sharing of experiences between countries, by making use of the Global Extension of Social Security (GESS);<sup>62</sup>
- (vi) strengthening the collaboration with the African Union to maximize the synergies between the Social Policy Framework and the social protection floor;
- (vii) supporting the modernization and reinforcement of the operational social security institutions and schemes/programmes through technical assistance in the field of policy development, actuarial valuations, IT support and legal advice; and
- (viii) providing capacity-building activities for national social policy planners, decision-makers, social partners and other stakeholders.

### ***3.8. Giving effect to the ILO Recommendation concerning HIV and AIDS and the world of work, 2010 (No. 200)***

Recommendation No. 200 is the first international labour standard on HIV and AIDS. It builds on key principles established in *An ILO code of practice on HIV/AIDS and the world of work* (2001) and reinforces the urgent role of the world of work in scaling up access to HIV prevention, treatment, care and support services, as well as the development of national tripartite-plus workplace policies and programmes on HIV and AIDS.

The ILO Regional Office for Africa was consulted to ensure that Recommendation No. 200 is adapted to the needs and priorities highlighted in the Decent Work Agenda in Africa, 2007–15. As a result, at its 310th Session in March 2011, the Governing Body of the ILO adopted a global action plan (2011–15) to promote the implementation of Recommendation No. 200. This plan is based on the ILO–AIDS Strategic Framework 2011–15 centred on positioning the workplace at the centre of the global HIV and AIDS response. The strategic objectives are:

<sup>62</sup> GESS is a global knowledge-sharing platform on the extension of social security and aims to facilitate the exchange of information and ideas, capture and document experiences, identify knowledge gaps, create new knowledge and promote innovation. To achieve this goal, GESS relies on the contributions of its users and the dialogue and exchange between them. The platform, developed and run by the ILO Social Security Department, provides an international interdisciplinary knowledge-sharing environment and technical assistance services for the extension of social security.

- (1) to promote the development of national tripartite policies/legal frameworks on HIV and AIDS and the world of work based on Recommendation No. 200;
- (2) to strengthen HIV prevention, social protection programmes and employment opportunities in the world of work, focusing on workers most at risk in key economic sectors in the formal as well as the informal economy.

The strategic approach to give effect to Recommendation No. 200 is in line with the UNAIDS strategy (2010–15) which aims to achieve zero new infections, zero discrimination and zero AIDS-related deaths by 2015.

Accordingly, key strategic areas for future action in the Africa region (2011–15) are:

- (1) Scaling up measures to protect human rights at work in the context of HIV, reducing stigma and discrimination among women and men workers, their families and dependants. Specific results include the following:
  - (a) national HIV tripartite-plus workplace policies are developed and implemented in all ILO member States in Africa in formal and informal workplaces;
  - (b) laws and regulations are developed or reviewed by incorporating the principles of Recommendation No. 200 to protect human rights at work in the context of HIV and AIDS.
- (2) Increased access for women and men workers to services on HIV prevention, treatment, care and support through the world of work. Key results include the following:
  - (a) sustainable livelihoods through the creation of employment opportunities for young people and people living with or affected by HIV, including women;
  - (b) extension of social protection schemes to include workers affected by HIV.
- (3) Scaling up measures to ensure world of work actors respond in a timely and effective manner to HIV challenges. Key results include the following:
  - (a) HIV is mainstreamed into relevant ILO departments and technical cooperation programme;
  - (b) there is greater and more urgent focus on prevention by supporting ILO constituents in “Know your HIV status” campaigns, and more information is made available on the prevention of mother-to-child transmission;
  - (c) participatory research is undertaken with ILO constituents to strengthen the collective knowledge base and to identify and address stigma and discrimination which are major impediments to greater prevention and access to treatment, care and support services;
  - (d) sector-specific research is carried out with ILO constituents to identify elements of higher risk to HIV in specific sectors including transport, mining, tourism, construction and health to inform the development of evidence-based workplace responses.

### **3.9. Ensuring food security and promoting rural employment**

Rural areas are home and workplace to nearly half the population in North Africa and as much as two-thirds in sub-Saharan Africa.<sup>63</sup> Unfortunately, most of the rural poor, and in particular women and youth, are mainly engaged in the low-productivity and informal employment segment of the rural economy, both in subsistence farming and agricultural wage labour and in non-farm self-employment.

Productive employment contributes to enhancing food security by affecting directly at least three of its four dimensions (i.e. availability, access, stability, and biological food utilization).<sup>64</sup> First, agricultural-linked employment increases local food availability through increased

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<sup>63</sup> UN: *World urbanization prospects: The 2009 revision* (New York, 2010).

<sup>64</sup> The definition of food security embodies four dimensions, namely: (i) availability of food, which is a function of supply; (ii) access to food, largely determined by purchasing power, market integration and physical access to markets, access to other assets such as land, formal safety nets and informal coping strategies; (iii) stability in food availability and access through time; and (iv) biological food utilization, which relies on sufficient energy consumption and a varied diet to provide required micronutrients.

production. Second, employment enables households to access food through income generation, purchase and consumption. Third, secure and stable employment influences food stability and access through time.

Food security is indeed a problem of local availability and access rather than global food production. The relationship between employment and food security is particularly acute because poor people rely mainly on the use of their labour – whether wage labour or self-employment – as their main productive asset for earning their livelihood. Employment is central to achieving food security simply because poor people need to work to obtain food. Furthermore, the relationship between employment and food security is reciprocal. Nutrition and health are determining factors for people's ability to work, for their labour productivity and their cognitive development, and vice versa.

Protecting the world's poor from food price shocks is crucial to avoiding a reversal of the progress made in reducing global poverty, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa. Sustainable food security strategies must include policies that provide productive jobs, decent incomes and sufficient social protection to rural populations. Food security through more and better jobs allows the rural poor to use their most abundant asset, labour, to increase their income and thus their access to food.

Approaches need to combine agriculture and non-farm sectors in a mutually reinforcing manner. The ability to diversify out of farming into productive manufacturing and services is important for household earnings, as well as for economic growth, sustained development and poverty reduction. Rural youth and women deserve special attention, given their potential as engines of innovation and growth. This includes child labour dimensions, which are tightly linked to the employment and decent work prospects of both groups. Africa's young men and women, for example, constitute some 65 per cent of its agricultural workers, although high unemployment and underemployment and the predominating precarious, low-level and low-return occupations have been driving them to cities and abroad. Women are a large and growing part of Africa's rural economy, representing some 50 per cent of its agricultural workers and producing, processing and storing up to 80 per cent of foodstuffs.<sup>65</sup> There are thus strong arguments for actively promoting their access to, and control over, essential resources.

The productivity of small-scale producers in the region is still very low, which contributed to their limited response to the price surge during 2006–08. Unleashing the full potential of small-scale farming for Africa demands increased public and private investments that enable producers to derive more value throughout the food chain and to mitigate risks. Participation in producers' organizations, and group cooperation for enhanced collective action, need to be fostered, since strong and solid producers' organizations can provide farmers with a wide range of services. They can enable their members to access markets, to advocate for their needs, to better manage natural resources, and to improve their bargaining power to compete effectively in the market and so obtain better and more stable prices as well as more favourable terms of payment. In providing important services, they can also create employment in areas such as production, marketing, credit, insurance and transportation, thereby contributing to a vibrant rural economy.

Ensuring that poor people are given higher wage opportunities in the rural non-farm economy will also be essential. Many workers and households have indeed already diversified activities, even if development of the non-farm economy remains strongly linked to agriculture. The enabling environment for micro-, small and medium enterprises and in particular agribusiness, needs to be improved, by lightening the business regulatory process and enhancing gender-equitable access to productive assets such as land, finance, training and information and business development services. Particular support should be given to the upgrading of businesses and workers in the informal economy, including by encouraging rural micro-entrepreneurs to organize collectively in cooperatives and business groups. In adopting a territorial development approach, a policy priority should be the optimization of the increasing rural–urban linkages in the production–consumption

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<sup>65</sup> UN: *Economic advancement of women*, Report of the Secretary-General, Commission on the Status of Women, Economic and Social Council, UN document E/CN.6/2006/7.

continuum where cities and small towns constitute the marketplace for rural products (e.g. supporting quality-oriented supply chains to penetrate high-value markets, and investing in transport and communication).

Raising awareness of small-scale producers and rural workers about the benefits of improving their working conditions, involving their organizations in respecting international labour standards and promoting good agricultural practices will contribute to ensuring social and economic sustainability. Although self-employment is still dominant, wage employment – with an estimated 450 million agricultural workers – accounts for over 40 per cent of the total agricultural labour force. Wage workers are often poorly paid under increasingly casualized employment relations, and often form a core part of the “food insecure”. They are also weakly protected by national labour law, which often does not cover or is not fully applicable to the agricultural sector, while inspection and enforcement also tend to be weak. The positive impact of working conditions on labour productivity is often underestimated (e.g. agricultural technologies, tools and practices that can save energy and farmers’ time by improving safety, health and productivity). Given the hazards of agricultural work, promoting occupational health and safety on farms represents a major challenge. Enforcement should be monitored through innovative mechanisms bringing together a broad range of actors, such as labour inspectorates and extension services, ministries of agriculture and of labour/employment, producers’ and workers’ organizations, as well as private companies and rural community organizations.

The goals of rural employment, decent work and food security are dimensions of the same complex and multifaceted challenge which requires good governance both at the macro and micro level, and building partnerships. Involving the private sector, supporting inter-ministerial and multi-stakeholder mechanisms (including civil society and producer organizations) and promoting UN-wide coherent approaches towards employment-centred rural development will be of foremost importance. Ensuring adequate representation of rural concerns and needs, particularly of women and youth, in social and policy dialogue will be a crucial means in this regard. This will require increasing the outreach and engagement of the social partners in rural areas as well as innovative approaches for organization and representation of rural interests. The latter will include support to the role of producers’ organizations and cooperatives as well as rural workers’ informal organizations in the institutionalization of rural labour markets. The ILO will provide specific interventions within its mandate as follows:

- working with other partners towards agricultural development and transformation;
- development of capacities of ILO constituents to intervene effectively in rural areas;
- empowerment of small producers, with special emphasis on women and youth, through entrepreneurial skills;
- promotional campaigns towards ratification and implementation of core labour standards as well as agriculture and rural-specific Conventions; and
- strengthening and developing cooperatives and other member-based organizations in the agricultural and rural areas.

The national implementation process of the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) and the Agriculture Investment Plans (AIPs) present an important instrument to mainstream rural employment and decent work. They are concrete instruments through which to integrate objective and evidence-based mechanisms and programmes to address rural employment. All four pillars of CAADP relate to employment. The first pillar aims to extend the area under sustainable land management and reliable water control systems. Land and labour are the two main productive factors in agricultural production and they are highly complementary. The second pillar, aiming at increased market access, has clear employment implications. The potential investments and engagement of individuals in activities to improve market access depend on the security of their employment status. Only if small farmers are provided with a secure and sustainable employment status will they be able to engage in (risky) expansion and diversification activities. For the third pillar, which aims at increasing food security by raising the productivity of small farmers, agricultural productivity is directly related to labour productivity, which also depends on employment status and working conditions. The fourth pillar is about improving agricultural



research and systems with a focus on disseminating appropriate new technologies. Effective dissemination of appropriate technologies needs to consider the existing and potential human capital base – the skill profiles and structure of the workforce. Agricultural research, therefore, should include in conceptual frameworks and analyses the employment status and working conditions of rural workers and small-scale farmers, as well as the composition of the rural workforce.

Through UN-wide mechanisms, CAADP clusters and the Decent Work Agenda, the FAO and the ILO will work with the ministries of labour and the ministries of agriculture to ensure that rural employment and decent work are adequately addressed throughout the CAADP process. In particular, by considering rural employment aspects at the post-Compact stage, countries can seize a unique opportunity to add value to the implementation of CAADP, because such consideration will:

- reveal the *complementarity* between investment in agricultural technologies and the existing/potential human capital base (workforce, skill profiles, age structure, gender dimension, etc.);
- have a greater socio-economic impact by adequately *reflecting* rural employment and decent work aspects in the formulation and implementation of the AIPs; and
- enable a more effective implementation through the reflection of *interdependencies* across land, labour, research, market access and food supply.

Through the strategic partnership between the FAO–ILO and the NPCA–CAADP, the FAO and the ILO will provide expert support to countries in identifying, prioritizing and developing appropriate investment programmes. Capacity development can be supported through guidelines and training on how to systematically reflect rural employment and decent work in AIPs. Other activities can include identification of best practices and programmes, and an impact analysis of adequate consideration of rural employment and decent work in AIPs. Particular attention is to be devoted to gender, youth and children in the design of AIPs.

The CAADP process and the AIPs constitute a unique opportunity to promote youth employment programmes in Africa. Youth employment is an area where agriculture should make a decisive impact, and explicit mechanisms for youth employment creation should be incorporated into the AIPs.

### 3.10. Promoting green jobs for sustainable development

Climate change and environmental degradation, although all too well known to African countries, are often still perceived as distinct and separate problems, whereas they are closely related and often exacerbate the economic, social and employment challenge Africa is facing in the twenty-first century.

The impact of climate change on Africa's economic growth and labour market is likely to be severe due to high dependency on rain-fed agriculture in which, depending on the country, up to 80 per cent of the population is employed. In some African economies the agricultural sector contributes half of GDP and export earnings. A two-degree temperature rise above pre-industrial levels (which is predicted for later this century) could result in a permanent reduction in GDP of 4 to 5 per cent for Africa.<sup>66</sup> In addition to this dependency of the African economies on the climate and its natural resource base, climate change is likely to disproportionately affect the poorest, exacerbating the social challenges. Poor people often depend on natural goods and services, notably fertile land, for food production, fuel wood for cooking and fresh water for drinking. Accordingly, their economic and employment bases are most vulnerable to external shocks such as extreme weather events, droughts and floods. In addition, water-borne diseases and malaria are likely to spread with climate change.

<sup>66</sup> N. Stern et al.: *The Stern Review Report on the economics of climate change 2006* (Cambridge University Press, 2006), Part II: Impacts of climate change on growth and development (Chapters 3–6).

### Box 3.3

#### Green youth entrepreneurship and a youth-driven green economy in East Africa

##### *Objective*

The objective of the collaboration project between the ILO's Green Jobs Programme and its Youth Entrepreneurship Facility (YEF) is to promote green youth entrepreneurship in eastern Africa. The YEF is a five-year programme financially supported by the Africa Commission, an initiative of the Government of Denmark. The vision of YEF is to enable African youth to turn their creativity, energy and ideas into business opportunities. Through the investment in young people at the same time as in the environment, the Green Jobs–Youth Entrepreneurship cooperation has as objective to address both challenges, creating a win-win situation for youth and the environment.

##### *Outcomes*

The overall intended outcome is an increasing number of youth who start green businesses which contribute towards a greener economy, employment creation and tackle poverty. The immediate outcomes include:

- (1) an increasing number of green youth entrepreneurs;
- (2) youth organizations delivering innovative green youth entrepreneurship solutions; and
- (3) employment policy-makers making evidence-based decisions on the promotion of green youth entrepreneurship.

##### *Current activities*

In early 2010 national planning workshops were held in Dar es Salaam, Nairobi and Kampala to consult with stakeholders and finalize the national programmes. Stakeholders recommended focusing on promising green sectors, not only to strengthen youth to cope with climate change and environmental degradation, but to turn environmental challenges into business opportunities. The programme is building capacity for business development services (BDS) and skills development, whilst linking youth to financial institutions for support. This is expected to create business opportunities in green sectors such as solar and recycling businesses, ecotourism, organic agriculture and agroprocessing.

At the policy level, the ILO is partnering with UNEP to support governments in the implementation of a green economy. In Kenya a "Youth-driven green economy" is in discussion to achieve economic growth and tackle youth unemployment at the same time as providing a natural resource base which sustains economic and social development. Apart from the inclusion of decent work policies, the green economy strategy in Kenya aims to include the provision of incentives for the creation of green youth entrepreneurship, public youth work programmes for climate change adaptation infrastructure and green jobs creation through skills programmes in emerging new green markets.

The potential for green jobs as an African development strategy is enormous. In their statement adopted at the Fourth Joint Annual Meetings of the AU Conference of Ministers of Economy and Finance and ECA Conference of African Ministers of Finance, Planning and Economic Development (Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, 28–29 March 2011), the Ministers pledged to "spearhead the transition to a green economy in Africa, inter alia, by supporting the necessary systemic and institutional transformations to ensure that green economies contribute to sustainable development and poverty reduction objectives, including improving welfare and the quality of life of Africa's citizens".

However, like with all transitions, preparedness is important. It is only with well-educated and skilled workers that the transition will be possible and only with inclusive social protection schemes that the transition will be just. Trends in production, consumption and employment are undergoing significant change and it is expected that they will continue to evolve over the next few years. Many aspects of the transition need strong support. Social policies need to be developed

along with environmental and economic policies. Key issues such as investing in the skills that will be needed for a low-carbon global economy will have to be considered and policies to handle the employment adjustments in sectors such as energy and transport will have to be made. Likewise, it will be imperative to put in place policies to ensure that those likely to be negatively affected are protected through income support, retraining opportunities and relocation assistance, among others. In addition, it will be necessary to address the question of how to ensure that the poor segments of the labour force can be targeted in order for them to benefit from the transition. The implementation of an effective social dialogue is a crucial starting point for any type of transition towards a green economy.

The ILO's support in ensuring a just transition will be crucial in the following areas:

- promoting productive green jobs for social development and economic growth in a green economy;
- enabling an approach centred on decent work in national climate change adaptation strategies; and
- strengthening social dialogue as a principal means of engaging key partners in policy formulation and implementation to realize development that is climate resilient and focused on green jobs.

### 3.11. *Developing the social economy*

The term “social economy” describes an astounding variety of organizational forms such as cooperatives, *mutuelles*, worker-owned enterprises, unions, informal economy associations and other forms of social institutional arrangement. In Africa the social economy is particularly widespread and important in the fields of microfinance (rotating savings and credit associations, also known as “tontines” or “stokvels”), microinsurance (often in the form of burial societies), social protection (group-based mutual assistance schemes) and collective work and associations (e.g. farmers' organizations, agricultural cooperatives, community investments and house construction). Despite their diversity, all social economy organizations and enterprises recognize and observe the same values and principles. They:

- (i) recognize the primacy of people and work over capital;
- (ii) are flexible and innovative – social economy enterprises are being created to meet changing social and economic circumstances;
- (iii) are built on the principles of solidarity, mutuality, reciprocity, cooperation and proximity;
- (iv) highlight the social, socio-political and economic benefits of activities, not solely market-based profit maximization;
- (v) are based on voluntary participation, member empowerment and commitment; and
- (vi) promote self-help and self-reliance, as well as local identity.

The ILO believes that the values, principles and characteristics of the social economy are particularly appropriate to building a bridge between informality and the formal economy. By joining a social economy organization, individual informal economy workers and operators, including those in rural areas, gain voice and representation, increase their bargaining power, realize economies of scale and scope, and provide themselves with a minimum level of social protection through mutuality and solidarity.

The social economy is gaining prominence as an alternative development strategy in a number of African countries:

- (1) South Africa (Ministry of Economic Development) in its recently published growth strategy has identified the social economy as one of the five most promising drivers of employment-intensive growth.
- (2) Cameroon has recently established a ministry for SMEs, social economy and handicraft and has drafted a bill on the social economy.
- (3) In Mali, a Department of Economic Solidarity has existed since 2006.

- (4) In Morocco, the Department of the Social Economy within the Ministry of Economic Affairs has established a strategic policy framework for the promotion of the social economy.
- (5) In Tunisia, a special bank (the Solidarity Bank) has been set up to finance social economy ventures.
- (6) In Nigeria, the Government has initiated a review of cooperatives' policy and a bill with the aim of bringing them into line with current practice.
- (7) In December 2010, the Organization for the harmonization of business law in Africa (*Organisation pour l'harmonisation en Afrique du droit des affaires*, OHADA) adopted a common law on cooperatives applicable to all 16 African member States of the organization (law based on the ILO Promotion of Cooperatives Recommendation, 2002 (No. 193)).
- (8) In July 2010, the European Economic and Social Council adopted an opinion on the advancement of the social economy in Africa (based on the ILO's plan of action).
- (9) The 14,400 credit unions established in 22 African countries bring together 15.6 million members and have accumulated US\$4.4 billion in member savings.
- (10) In Southern Africa, 152 mutual insurers provide coverage to 7 million beneficiaries.
- (11) In October 2010, national social economy networks from around the continent established the African Network of the Social and Solidarity Economy.<sup>67</sup>

Future plans include the establishment, in cooperation with African and European universities, of a continental observatory of the social economy in Africa, the design of a comprehensive technical cooperation portfolio on the promotion of the social economy, and the further development of strategies and tools for the use of constituents and development partners. The second meeting of the ILO Social and Solidarity Economy Academy will take place in October 2011 in Montreal, Canada.<sup>68</sup>

### 3.12. *Building effective minimum wage policies*

A number of labour and social policy measures are necessary to improve wage outcomes, labour market performance and overall macroeconomic results. These measures range from minimum wages, collective bargaining and pay determination in the public sector to income-support measures.

The only sustainable way to raise wages is through economic growth that brings about increases in labour productivity. A sound and well-articulated system of wage and income policies can make a positive contribution towards a more balanced and sustainable economic and social model. In particular, a coherent system of collective bargaining, minimum wages, transparent and streamlined wage structures in the public sector, and income transfers targeting low-income households, can provide additional income support to low wage earners, thereby preventing them from falling into poverty. Taken together, these measures can promote more inclusive labour markets, stabilize consumption demand and generate more sustainable economic growth.

Collective bargaining benefits all workers covered and is among the most effective means of ensuring a better articulation between wage adjustments and labour productivity improvements. This is vital both for equitable income distribution and for providing clear market signals to the direction of future industrial development. While in most African countries the coverage of collective bargaining as a proportion of total employment is limited, in a number of countries it is significant as a proportion of wage and salaried earners. Structured wage bargaining is, however, underdeveloped in many countries, and the social partners are not always well-equipped to engage in effective collective bargaining. Tripartite social dialogue can advance better working conditions, including better wages, as illustrated by the experience of the national committees for social

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<sup>67</sup> The regional network was established by national networks from Algeria, Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Mali, Mauritius, Morocco, Niger, Senegal, Togo and Tunisia.

<sup>68</sup> The first meeting was held at the ILO International Training Centre, Turin, from 25 to 29 October 2010.

dialogue (CNDS) in Senegal, in Togo and in Niger that have been involved in the negotiation of national tripartite pacts aimed at enhancing conditions for workers.

The most effective policy device to protect the most vulnerable categories of workers at the end of the pay distribution is minimum wages. By setting a floor to the wage structure, wages are prevented from falling to unduly low levels, thus protecting the most vulnerable. If fixed at a reasonable level and adjusted periodically, minimum wages send a strong signal to labour markets and help to stabilize expectations. In periods of economic crisis they can play an important role in preventing wage price deflationary spirals. Minimum wages should be transparent to workers, easy for employers to comply with and straightforward to enforce. They should take into account the needs of workers and their families as well as economic factors such as their impact on employment and price inflation.

The public administration and the public sector, more broadly, constitute the most important formal employer in the region. Public-sector wages therefore have major implications for wage level determination in, and labour supply to, the private sector. The public sector also provides essential services to national economies and societies. A streamlined, efficient and motivated civil administration, along with wider management and organizational changes, is therefore essential for balanced, equitable and sustainable development. Public-sector wages play a vital role in attracting and retaining the most talented people and discouraging red tape. During the past two decades, however, many African countries, in an attempt to increase take-home pay for particular categories of civil servants without raising the overall wage bill for the whole public service, have multiplied special allowances and bonuses in an arbitrary and disorderly manner. This has resulted in remuneration systems and payment practices that are unequal, opaque and unmanageable and that have given rise to animosities within the public service, discouraged good performance and failed to retain the most promising national talents. This has compelled many countries to engage in or consider reforming wage structures and wage payments in the public sector.

Income policies unrelated to employment or earning status also have a role to play. When the economic circumstances may constrain the viability of increases in real minimum wages, income-transfer measures, by providing additional income support, can help alleviate the financial constraints of minimum wage earners. Public schemes that envisage the transfer of income – whether conditional or unconditional – to low-income families to help them address family health and education needs increase the welfare of minimum wage earners, while at the same time breaking the intergenerational transmission of poverty.

The achievement of this vision will require interventions in the short, medium and long term. While the priorities and the sequencing of policies can only be determined at the country level, it is crucial that the national stakeholders are fully aware of the interrelationships among the different policy areas mentioned above and the implications that measures in one of them may have for the other two. Regardless of national priorities, the following prerequisites will be of essence for effective wage policies:

- (1) Strengthening wage statistics, as part of broader efforts aimed at improving labour statistics in the region. This is essential to monitor progress on wage trends and wage distribution and anchor wage-related policy decisions on solid empirical grounds. Reliability and transparency of wage statistics, and equal access to and understanding of such statistics by all concerned stakeholders, are vital for effective wage negotiations.
- (2) Enhancing the capacity of existing national minimum wage-fixing machineries to set and review national minimum wages, with a view to providing a decent wage floor and maintaining or improving the purchasing power of the concerned workers. In the current context of sharp price increases, swift adjustments in the nominal minimum wages to compensate for price inflation acquire special importance for workers who spend a large proportion of their incomes on food.
- (3) The well-informed involvement of the social partners in the design and monitoring of the minimum wage-setting system and in the fixing and periodic adjustments of the minimum wage levels is vital for the social acceptance and economic viability of any minimum wage policy.

- (4) The professionalization of minimum wage setting and adjustment must go hand in hand with measures and incentives to promote collective bargaining. This entails guaranteeing the right to freedom of association and creating an enabling environment to promote collective bargaining at different levels – enterprise, industry and national, and in a coordinated fashion. Evidence around the world shows that greater efficiency and equity are associated with multilayered and highly coordinated bargaining systems. The State can also encourage the establishment of national tripartite dialogue mechanisms to address matters related to working conditions.
- (5) Reviewing the employment and pay structures in the public sector, along with wider management and organizational changes, is a long-term process. As a first step, diagnostic studies in selected countries, aimed at identifying the problems, offering initial empirical assessments and putting forward different possible scenarios of reform with their corresponding implications (including of a fiscal nature) and related timelines, could be conducted.
- (6) Ensuring a coherent articulation of the different wage policy instruments to avoid situations in which one set of policies undoes the benefits of another.

### ***3.13. Realizing employment for peace, stability and development***

The African continent is affected by multiple crises, some caused by nature, such as drought and floods, and others by people, such as wars, civil strife and coups d'état. The ILO in Africa has long been engaged in helping people to alleviate the impact of natural disasters on employment and enterprise. While the nature of such crises differs from country to country, their origin can be traced back in most cases to three fundamental causes:

- (i) the high incidence of youth unemployment, often compounded by strong population growth;
- (ii) the lack of participatory governance, hence the inability of ordinary citizens to participate in decision-making at the local and national levels; and
- (iii) a pronounced social justice deficit, characterized by the inequitable distribution of wealth and income between a privileged elite and the rest of the population.

In an effort to tackle these root causes, and building on the conviction that “universal and lasting peace can be established only if it is based upon social justice”,<sup>69</sup> the Office has developed the “Employment for Peace” concept (see figure 3.1). This strategy is built around a “virtuous triangle” of opportunity, protection and empowerment, that is:

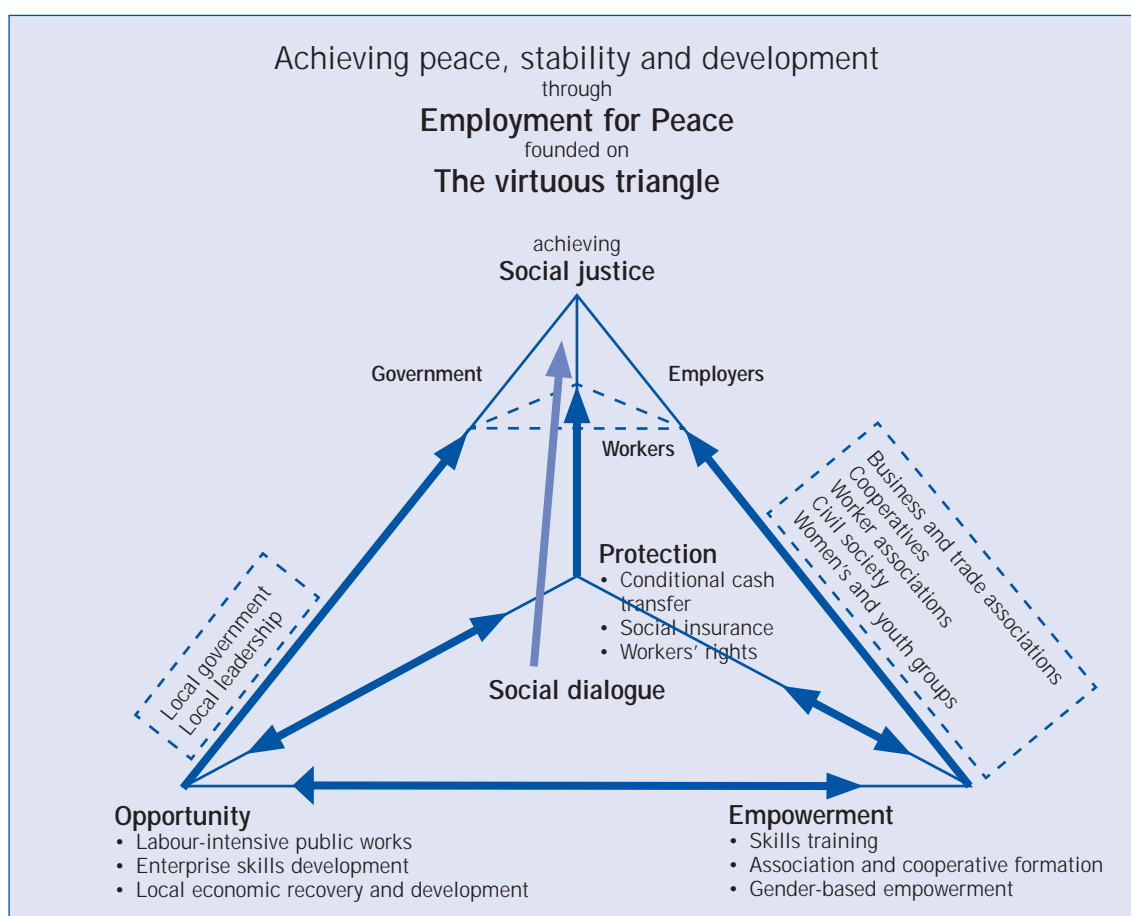
- (i) creating opportunities for people, in particular youth, to find jobs, establish enterprises or gain their own livelihoods;
- (ii) extending a minimum of social protection to people not currently covered by formal social security schemes and institutions; and
- (iii) empowering people and communities through rights, voice and organizational development so that they can actively participate in social dialogue and political processes at the local and national levels.

The strategy was first developed for, and applied in, the countries of the Horn of Africa, in partnership with the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD), the AU Commission and other development partners. Encouraged by the promising, tangible results achieved in countries such as Somalia and southern Sudan, the ILO has thereafter endeavoured to extend and adapt the strategy to other fragile and/or crisis-affected regions, such as Liberia and Sierra Leone (the Mano River Union), the countries affected by the upheaval in North Africa, and the Great Lakes region.

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<sup>69</sup> Preamble to the ILO Constitution.

Figure 3.1. Employment for Peace: The concept



The Employment for Peace Programme will become one of the key components of the ILO's technical cooperation portfolio in Africa; it will be further developed in such a way that the ILO is equipped to offer a rapid response once a crisis erupts, while at the same time laying the foundation for recovery and development.

### 3.14. *Developing appropriate national labour policies through tripartite social dialogue*

The promotion of sound labour relations is a prerequisite for decent work: there can be no decent work without good labour practices and sound labour relations at all levels. With the growth of temporary labour services alongside the long-standing existence of informal employment relationships, a disproportionately large group of workers are not protected by labour law due to the difficulty in establishing whether or not an employment relationship exists. This signals a real need for policy in this area, along the lines of what is suggested by the Employment Relationship Recommendation, 2006 (No. 198), as well as by the Private Employment Agencies Convention, 1997 (No. 181). South Africa's 2006 *Code of good practice*<sup>70</sup> is amongst the most frequently cited examples of how a country addresses some of the problems surrounding unclear employment relationships and the emergence of new patterns of work organization through which services or goods are being produced.

<sup>70</sup> South Africa, Labour Relations Act: *Code of good practice: Who is an employee* (Notice 1774 of 2006).

The increasing demand for technical assistance in the area of labour administration has confronted the Office with the need to develop a number of global tools, including new training programmes. Support to countries in conducting needs assessment audits and developing plans of action continues to prove effective in strengthening labour administrations, especially in the context of the global economic and financial crisis. ILO work in this area is expected to increase in breadth and scope in the coming years. In addition to a clearly constituted employment relationship, the development and promotion of sound and productive labour policies call for the following, and for which the ILO will support constituents:

- establishment and/or revitalization of well-resourced institutions of tripartite social dialogue;
- the promotion of sound labour relations through the establishment and effective functioning of institutions and services for dispute prevention and resolution; and
- the promotion of collective bargaining between employers and their organizations on the one hand and workers' organizations on the other as a means for regulating and governing workplaces.

### ***3.15. Strengthening capacity building to enhance implementation and effective delivery of decent work for all***

Capacity building of ILO constituents in Africa is, and will remain, the pillar of the key services provided by the Office to ensure that the Decent Work Agenda in Africa, 2007–15, will be delivered effectively and the targets achieved as expected.

The ILO has invested significant resources in Africa towards capacity enhancement geared towards the effective implementation of the Decent Work Agenda in Africa. Because most of the targets are focused on the achievement of national-level decent work results, a large portion of the capacity-building support has taken place at the country level, anchored on the direct actions undertaken by ILO country offices and Decent Work Support Teams. Although the capacity-building interventions in the region have largely focused on training, this has also involved the placement of ILO technical experts in constituent organizations, guided strategy/policy development support, institutional development and the provision of tools and guidelines as well as the provision of data processing and storage equipment. ILO support programmes (including DWCPs), projects and activities funded from a multiplicity of sources are largely designed to build or develop the capacities of institutions and individuals to achieve decent work outcomes. At the regional level, more than 70 per cent of regular budget technical cooperation (RBTC) funds are set aside to specifically build the capacities of regional and subregional institutions that play increasingly important roles in supporting the achievement of the outcomes of the Decent Work Agenda in Africa as well as facilitating the enhanced capacities for governments and social partners. The regular financial and technical contributions made to the African Regional Labour Administration Centre (ARLAC), the Arab Centre for Labour Administration and Employment (ACLAE) and the *Centre régional africain d'administration du travail*, CRADAT (regional labour administration training centre) have increased significantly. Beyond the financial contributions, the ILO is working with these institutions to ensure that the training provided to member States contributes to the achievement of the agreed decent work outcomes.

One of the issues identified in the DWCP reviews and evaluations is the limited capacity of constituents to effectively engage in the development, implementation and monitoring of the DWCPs. Significant capacity-enhancement initiatives will be undertaken to enable our offices and constituents to support the design, implementation and monitoring of results-based DWCPs in the region. This includes the guidance and training provided for directors, technical specialists and chief technical advisers (CTAs). Subregional bipartite and national tripartite workshops and meetings have also been held to provide hands-on guidance to ILO constituents in order to enhance their understanding of how to identify and articulate priorities, outcomes, outputs, indicators and implementation arrangements, as well as how to develop effective mechanisms to monitor the programme. Tripartite capacity-enhancing initiatives are now built into national DWCP formulation



and review exercises. In addition, the ILO will build the results-based management capacity of regional and subregional constituent organizations such as the Organization of African Trade Union Unity (OATUU), the Pan-African Employers' Confederation (PEC), ITUC–Africa, ARLAC, ACLAE and CRADAT.

In addition, the ILO will continue to work directly with the OATUU, ITUC–Africa and PEC to support capacity building of the employers' organizations and trade unions so as to foster the development of results-focused and strategic regional entities that make meaningful impacts. Within the context of the current biennium, the core regional outcomes for Africa have focused on building institutional capacity of the regional social partner institutions to develop, implement and monitor results-based decent work programmes. These will enable them to deliver on their core mandates.

The Office is also taking steps to develop thematic knowledge centres and is increasing the number of results-oriented programmes organized in the field by the Turin Centre, as well as the participation of African constituents in global learning and knowledge-sharing activities of the Centre. The region has re-oriented its collaboration with the Turin Centre to provide targeted training that supports tripartite national constituents in achieving the results articulated in the DWA and the DWCPs. In addition, more of these courses are now organized within the region.

Furthermore, the ILO will continue to use participatory gender audits to assist constituents and ILO offices in Africa to promote equality between women and men in their staffing and structures and in the substance of their work.

The Office has identified the following key areas for which capacity-building tools will be developed and services provided in cooperation with ILO headquarters and the Turin Centre:

- (i) integrating/mainstreaming decent work in national development policies and programmes;
- (ii) influencing macroeconomic and sector-wide policies;
- (iii) enhancing constituents' capacity to effectively use the various integrated approaches to promote policy coherence;
- (iv) undertaking comprehensive national decent work assessments which provide an excellent basis for developing and implementing results-based DWCPs and other development frameworks and programmes;
- (v) building regional/country information databases on selected indicators that capture relevant decent work information for policy and programme development and monitoring at country level;
- (vi) mobilizing resources locally and domestically; and
- (vii) working successfully with donors and UN agencies at the country level to promote the Decent Work Agenda.

### ***3.16. Developing an interregional ILO response in the Middle East and North Africa***

The situation in each of the MENA States is different and hence the ILO's response must be specific to each of them. Yet the protests, unrest and uprising in countries as diverse as Algeria, Bahrain, Egypt, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Oman, Tunisia and Yemen were triggered by similar root causes – those enumerated in section 3.13 above:

- the high incidence of youth unemployment, compounded by the rapid growth of the labour force;
- the lack of democratic governance and change, unchallenged by a civil society which is weak and dispersed, and social partners that are not fully independent from government;
- the lack of social justice in the distribution of wealth and income between the ruling elite and ordinary citizens, leading to growing inequalities and the disfranchisement of socio-economic and/or ethnic minorities.

The two ILO regional offices covering MENA, i.e. the Regional Office for Africa and the Regional Office for the Arab States, should fully develop the potential for interregional cooperation between Africa and the Arab States in finding common solutions to common problems affecting the world of work in both regions. Consequently, the ILO's immediate and long-term responses must be designed to address the above root causes individually and collectively.

The ILO response should include a number of cross-cutting considerations, such as:

- the promotion of an integrated response in the spirit of the ILO Declaration on Social Justice for a Fair Globalization, 2008, and leading to a new development paradigm;
- the reorientation of capacity-building initiatives to focus on supporting transition to pluralism and democracy, in particular with regard to labour market governance, "new" social partners and social dialogue, and the strengthening of civil society; and
- the prominence of knowledge generation, management and sharing, through research, data collection, policy briefs, country reports, regional meetings and thematic conferences.

In designing these strategies a distinction must be made of the difference between emergency response, aimed at cushioning the immediate effects of civil strife and economic downturn, and longer term developmental efforts, designed to address the root causes outlined above.

In addition to country-specific activities, there is considerable scope for a truly interregional approach to crisis situations that have a cross-border dimension, or root causes that are not confined to a single country. Hence collaboration between the African and Arab States will address:

- the promotion of youth employment, in particular with a view to vocational training, capacity building and the free movement of labour;
- enhancing social justice, including the fair sharing of wealth that workers contribute to create, and the establishment of a universal social protection floor that is financially sustainable;
- empowering trade unions and civil society actors to cooperate with a wider social movement;
- the strengthening of social dialogue structures and mechanisms throughout the Arab world; and
- migration between the two regions, including the protection of migrant workers in their countries of destination and the socio-economic reintegration of migrants in their countries of origin through skills development, enterprise development and microfinance.

### ***3.17. Promoting knowledge management***

At the 11th ILO African Regional Meeting, ILO constituents expressed a strong desire for the region to move towards a more systematic and effective approach to knowledge management. The Decent Work Agenda in Africa, 2007–15, calls for the Office to put at their service the best possible expertise, including research outcomes and evidence on effective policies and practices.

To give effect to the request from the 11th ILO African Regional Meeting, and in line with the overall objective of the ILO global knowledge management strategy and system, the African region has adopted a systematic approach towards strengthening the effective generation, exchange, processing, analysis and dissemination of knowledge in the region. Besides, the ILO has adopted a new knowledge management strategy based on an integrated set of three pillars: norms, statistics and policy inventory. The three databases will be integrated into one portal searchable by country and by theme, thereby assuring that constituents can have all necessary information when adopting a certain decision.

Steps have been taken to institutionalize knowledge building, management and sharing and to strengthen the knowledge management capacity in the regional and country offices as well as the Decent Work Support Teams. The ILO in Africa will henceforth undertake the following:

- (i) develop a regional strategy for knowledge management within the framework of the ILO Knowledge Strategy;

- (ii) support offices in the region in implementing the regional strategy and monitor their efforts against agreed outcomes, targets and quality standards;
- (iii) institutionalize the effective dissemination of and enhance learning opportunities, to support the use of knowledge generated through the evaluation system (technical cooperation projects, country programme reviews, etc.) by strengthening the monitoring and evaluation function in the region as the core pillar of the knowledge management process;
- (iv) facilitate and support the development and maintenance of knowledge networks in the region and promote the sharing of knowledge within and between regions within the framework of the ILO global Knowledge Strategy;
- (v) promote and facilitate interregional exchanges of knowledge and experience to respond to priority needs of the region;
- (vi) develop, maintain and manage databanks of policy papers, external collaboration reports and evaluation reports of technical cooperation projects, and ensure the systematic dissemination of their conclusions and recommendations internally and externally;
- (vii) for each of the targets in the Decent Work Agenda in Africa, 2007–15, develop policy briefs on “what has worked, why and how?”. This is particularly important in order to integrate lessons learnt into the development and implementation of DWCPs and all other future activities;
- (viii) build communities of practice and knowledge platforms around the Decent Work Agenda in Africa policy areas in order to promote the exchange of experiences among the countries, within the regions and across regions, as relevant;
- (ix) build partnerships with policy and knowledge networks, research institutions and “think tanks” and promote knowledge sharing across the ILO and with relevant institutions and organizations; and
- (x) renovate the ILO network of websites and documentation centres in Africa.

### ***3.18. Mobilizing resources***

Resource mobilization for technical cooperation is a key means of action in the ILO’s efforts to support constituents in effectively advancing the Decent Work Agenda in Africa. The sustained complexity of the challenges in the African region has generated an increased level of demand for support from the ILO which cannot be met solely through its regular budget. Accelerated resource mobilization for regional and country responses to such challenges will become essential.

The ILO’s strategy for resource mobilization in the African region will comprise:

- (i) ensuring accurate and appropriate estimations of the level of resources required to deliver agreed DWCP outcomes;
- (ii) integrating resource mobilization plans in DWCP implementation strategies;
- (iii) raising awareness among potential donors of the ILO’s contribution to regional, subregional and national development processes;
- (iv) targeting a broad range of potential donors, including emerging donors in the private sector;
- (v) strengthening internal resource mobilization capacity; and
- (vi) engaging constituents in resource mobilization efforts.

Whilst the ILO will continue to foster dialogue with potential donors at regional and subregional levels, increasing attention will be paid to opportunities for resource mobilization at the national and local level, including from domestic sources. Cognizant of the commitment of the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness to strengthen national ownership of development strategies, and the decision by several donors to decentralize their development assistance portfolios, the ILO has sought to improve the capacity of field offices to attract, absorb and deliver on funding at the local level and explore innovative avenues for resource mobilization through public–private partnerships, foundations and UN funds. Through close alignment of DWCPs with national

development priorities, opportunities to attract domestic resources – through national budgeting exercises – are also emerging.

Concerted and joint efforts by the ILO and its constituents to mobilize resources for agreed DWCP outcomes have proved to be a good practice in demonstrating to the donor community the broad-based national ownership of the DWCP, which also facilitates a coordinated response from the donor community's side. The ILO will continue to provide technical support on resource mobilization to constituents at country and regional levels.

### ***3.19. Partnering for decent work***

The decent work movement has taken root in Africa, as evidenced by the integration of the DWA in continental, subregional and national development frameworks and policies. Of particular relevance is the role of other partners in supporting this endeavour in order to maintain the momentum. These partnerships for decent work include continental institutions, subregional institutions, members of the UN family, think tanks, academic institutions and other multilateral and bilateral institutions.

ILO support to the AU Commission, regional economic commissions and member States in implementing the outcomes of the Third Extraordinary Summit of the African Union on Employment and Poverty Alleviation in Africa (Ouagadougou, September 2004) will continue, including in facilitating the production of the biennial and comprehensive reports.

The ILO will continue to be an active member of the cluster system, where it leads the Employment and Labour sub-cluster of the Regional Coordination Mechanism (RCM). The ILO will also continue collaboration with other UN agencies. Partnership within the UN system is increasingly centred on "Delivering as One". Working in close partnership with other UN agencies has meant that elements of employment and decent work are taken up in all the sectors and with stakeholders with whom the United Nations is directly engaging. Considering the various dimensions of the Decent Work Agenda, such partnerships will enable the ILO and its constituents to positively influence a broad range of national policies. This is indeed necessary to make a lasting impact.

## Conclusions

In adopting the Decent Work Agenda in Africa, 2007–15, the consensus of the African tripartite constituents was that “a systematic and step-by-step approach will yield the results we hope for and to which African working women and men aspire”.<sup>71</sup> Four years of implementation have borne fruit. Through decent work, which is one of the main vehicles towards attaining the MDGs, people have been able to break out of poverty.

Because decent work is a major route out of poverty, it should be at the core of every development strategy. The policy challenge for Africa is the adoption of a framework that allows coherence between the objective of growth and the objective of generating productive employment and decent work. The latter is a necessary condition for more inclusive growth, poverty reduction and development. The patterns and sources of growth, as well as the manner in which its benefits are distributed, are equally important from the point of view of achieving the goals of a fair globalization and social justice. Economic growth objectives should be part of any integrated development strategy, together with the creation of decent and productive jobs, the improvement of working and living conditions, respect for people’s rights, the meeting of basic social protection needs and sustainable development, as well as ensuring popular participation.

Particular emphasis should be paid to employment planning, employment targeting and employment mainstreaming. Recovery measures, as well as long-term growth and employment strategies, should pay special attention to vulnerable groups, including women, young people and the rural poor.

Events in North Africa and the Middle East illustrate the need to invest in people and their aspirations – particularly the youth. Youth unemployment, if not well managed, could threaten stability and development and become a major African crisis. Young people are an asset to a country’s development. We need to ensure that they feel they are part and parcel of the development of their nations and communities, through their access to productive and decent employment.

Dignity, voice, freedom, peace and equality are guaranteed through decent work. The ILO will continue to support its tripartite constituents in mainstreaming decent work in continental, subregional and national development objectives, policies and programmes. By promoting decent work in Africa, the ILO will be living up to its mandate of empowering people.

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<sup>71</sup> Conclusions of the 11th ILO African Regional Meeting, p. 10.



## *Appendices*





## Appendix I

### *Conclusions of the 11th African Regional Meeting*

#### *The Decent Work Agenda in Africa 2007–15*

Ministers and representatives of governments and leaders of employers' and workers' organizations participating in the 11th African Regional Meeting thank the Government of Ethiopia for hosting this event. Its hospitality and efficient organization have contributed greatly to its success.

The Regional Meeting was honoured by the presence of H.E. Prime Minister Meles Zenawi of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, H.E. President Blaise Compaoré of Burkina Faso, H.E. President Jakaya Mrisho Kikwete of the United Republic of Tanzania, Mr Abdoulie Jannah, Executive Secretary of the UN Economic Commission for Africa and Ms Gertrude Mongella, President of the Pan-African Parliament. In addition, Mr Kemal Derviş, Administrator of the UNDP, gave a keynote speech to the Meeting. Mr José Vieira da Silva, Minister of Labour and Solidarity of Portugal and Ms Nicole Ameline, Ambassador-at-Large in Charge of Social and Parity Issues for France also participated in the Meeting. The high-level guests' addresses made an important and substantive contribution to the debates at the Regional Meeting.

The delegates commend the Director General's Reports to the Meeting, the Decent Work Agenda in Africa 2007–15 and ILO activities in Africa 2004–06. They also welcomed the Reports prepared for the Meeting on African employment trends and *Success Africa: Partnerships for decent work – Improving peoples' lives* (Vol. 2).

In adopting these conclusions, the Decent Work Agenda in Africa 2007–15, the Regional Meeting commits the ILO's national tripartite constituents and the Office to a series of ambitious targets for the development of integrated Decent Work Country Programmes (DWCPs) and to increased collaboration with partner agencies to accelerate progress towards the agreed international development goals, including the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

The Decent Work Agenda in Africa 2007–15 also constitutes a consolidation of the actions undertaken by the ILO and its constituents to follow up on the conclusions of the Ouagadougou Summit of 2004 which adopted a Declaration, plan of action and follow-up mechanism on employment and poverty alleviation in Africa. The Ouagadougou Summit marked a major step forward in the development of continent-wide action on the agreed priority of placing employment creation for poverty alleviation as an explicit and central objective of economic and social policies at national, regional and continental levels.

#### *Mainstreaming decent work into national, regional and international development strategies*

African economies are growing at a high rate with many countries exceeding 5 per cent GDP growth per year, and few dropping below 2 per cent. This growth performance should still be improved. At the same time, the current growth rate is not yet generating sufficient decent work opportunities. The continent's recovery is too narrowly based on high prices for a number of Africa's commodity exports and is not reaching many working women and men. Extreme poverty levels remain high at 37 per cent of the population in 2006, down only 1 per cent from a decade ago and up in absolute terms by 55 million people. Registered unemployment is 10 per cent, 46 per cent of the working-age population live in families which survive on less than US\$1 per day and more than

80 per cent of the labour force is in subsistence agriculture and the large informal economy. Africa will need to create 11 million jobs each year to 2015 simply to achieve unemployment rates that match the global average of about 6 per cent. This means that Africa needs to make growth more pro-jobs and pro-poor to achieve the goal of halving extreme poverty by 2015.

The Meeting stressed that the goal of generating decent work should feature prominently in national macroeconomic policies, as well as regional and international policy frameworks such as the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), the Medium-Term Expenditure Frameworks and the World Bank's Poverty Reduction Strategies, and the IMF's Poverty Reduction and Growth Facility, and staff-monitored programmes. These macro policy vehicles must enable growth in employment and an improvement in the quality of employment, not least through the setting of appropriate minimum wage levels. If growth is broad-based, through productive employment and decent work, it generates a cycle of demand for future growth, which is based on both healthy domestic purchasing power and external demand for exports. Achieving a balance in macroeconomic policies must be addressed by increased efforts to promote policy coherence.

A number of delegates expressed apprehension about the implications of trade negotiations for non-agricultural market access (NAMA) for Africa's fragile manufacturing industries, especially the textiles and clothing sectors adversely affected by the phasing out of the Multi-Fibre Arrangement quotas. Poor policy mix and sequencing of import liberalization measures in some countries have virtually wiped out sectors that provided sustainable employment, incomes and growth, without providing for alternative employment opportunities. Furthermore, continued high protective barriers around industrialized country agricultural markets, including high tariffs on processed products, blocks expansion of sectors in which Africa has a comparative advantage. A much more integrated approach to employment policies that prepare protected sectors for global competition and promote investment in the infrastructure needed to support new export sectors is vital. Successful export promotion and investment attraction strategies are not just a matter of how much a country exports but what it exports and how integrated its export sectors are with the local economy.

Africa is in urgent need of a major improvement in the physical infrastructure for development. Progressing towards universal access to basic needs like food, shelter, water, health, education and sanitation leads to a steady improvement in worker productivity and generates employment opportunities in the construction, energy and related industries. While reaffirming the commitment to quality public services, if more choices are considered they should not be dictated by international institutions but should reflect an objective assessment of the best means of ensuring universal access efficiently and equitably. Increasing the poverty-reducing impact of greater trade requires that remote agricultural regions have access to improved means of communications and are able to get their products to export markets through better roads, rail links, airports, ports and better telecommunication networks. The development of infrastructure lends itself to more employment-intensive techniques which create opportunities for local job creation that serve as a form of social floor for low-income families. Ensuring strong linkages between infrastructure projects and local economies requires an equal investment in better social infrastructure facilities like support for rural micro, small and medium enterprises (MSMEs) and cooperatives. Africa must take full advantage of Aid for Trade initiatives to promote employment in such investments.

The role of the ILO in support of its constituents is vital to moving Africa on to a development path that massively increases the decent work opportunities for African women and men. The Regional Meeting endorses the mechanism of ILO DWCPs for the development and implementation of integrated national strategies for poverty reduction and sustainable development. It further welcomes the policy portfolio set out in the Decent Work Agenda in Africa 2007–15 as the compilation of the policy approaches and tools needed to build DWCPs. The DWCPs must be developed with the full involvement of the ILO's constituents. They are the ILO's specific contribution to the multilateral partnerships to implement agreed international development goals, including the MDGs, as well as to national growth and poverty reduction strategies and United Nations Development Assistance Frameworks (UNDAFs).

The Regional Meeting therefore calls on the ILO to work with its constituents to encourage all member States in Africa to have DWCPs by the end of 2009. It further calls on ILO constituents

to contribute actively to the development, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the programmes as well as the mobilization of the necessary resources. It requests the ILO to continue its close collaboration with partner agencies in the UN and multilateral systems to integrate the decent work approach into policies and programmes for the achievement of the MDGs making full use of the Toolkit for mainstreaming employment and decent work recently endorsed by the Secretary-General's Chief Executives Board. The Regional Meeting endorses the target of:

*Three-quarters of member States mainstream assessment of the impact on the generation and maintenance of decent work opportunities into poverty-reducing development strategies and adopt national targets for the creation of sufficient decent jobs to absorb new labour market entrants and reduce by half the numbers of working poor.*

### ***Investing in enterprises and decent work opportunities in Africa***

Investment and employment in Africa are constrained by the high cost of, and difficulty of, accessing credit, problems in securing property rights and enforcing contracts, weak energy, transport and communications infrastructure, delays in the registration of businesses, a lack of transparency in the regulatory process and deficiencies in education and skills of the labour force. Many countries have made tremendous policy efforts to establish conditions for higher growth, in terms of a better regulated financial environment, policy reforms to attract investment and development assistance, and improving the competitive environment to raise productivity and decent working conditions. Nevertheless, the bulk of African enterprises, many of which are operated by women, remain trapped in the informal economy, yielding owners and workers little more than survival-level incomes and inhibiting the exercise of their rights under labour laws and commercial laws on property rights and contracts. Africa needs a strategy for sustainable enterprise development and decent work. The strategy should include the creation of an enabling environment, measures to improve the investment climate, macroeconomic stability, respect for workers' rights, and good governance. Particular attention should be given to policies that promote MSMEs and women's participation and entrepreneurship. The Meeting expressed support for the important role MSMEs can play in employment generation and in the upgrading of working conditions.

Multinational corporations investing in Africa need to abide by the provisions of the Tripartite Declaration of Principles concerning Multinational Enterprises and Social Policy, and need to link to the local supply chains in order to provide decent work. Our target is that:

*Three-quarters of African countries adopt integrated strategies for sustainable enterprise development and the generation of decent work opportunities, with a special focus on assisting women entrepreneurs. Such strategies should include targets for the registration of at least half of all enterprises currently operating informally.*

### ***Decent work for Africa's youth***

Africa has the youngest population in the world and her young women and men represent the continent's best hope for getting on to a sustainable development path. However, the number of labour market entrants between the ages of 15 and 24 years far outpaces jobs for them, with youth unemployment at 20 per cent, a double of average unemployment. This young labour force loses out through lack of education, skills, job opportunities and experience. As a result, the region loses its tremendous potential. Such high youth unemployment also makes them vulnerable to being sucked into delinquency and conflicts and is socially destabilizing. Ensuring that young women and men get the right start in their working lives, and give them the possibility to gain experience, is a top priority for the region's DWCPs. Our target is:

*The adoption by three-quarters of African countries of national policies and programmes to respond to the rapid and large rise in the numbers of young jobseekers and aimed at ensuring that sufficient decent work opportunities are available to bring about a fall in the numbers of young unemployed workers and the working poor. Adopted policies and programmes should lead to a significant reduction in the current youth unemployment rate for Africa of nearly 20 per cent.*

### ***Closing the skills gap***

The Meeting reiterates the importance of vocational education and training and skills development in generating employment, increasing productivity and competitiveness, and improving wages and incomes. Despite the huge scale of Africa's decent work deficits the continent is suffering from shortages of skilled workers that are holding back growth and development. This is particularly the case in new information and communication technologies where a major drive to bridge the digital divides within countries and between Africa and other continents is essential. In some cases foreign investors have felt obliged to bring in expatriate workers to implement projects. This shows the need to increase the supply of qualified African workers and include investment in training and development assistance projects. The Meeting therefore agrees on the following target:

*Three-quarters of all African member States critically review and implement, with the involvement of the social partners, national policies and strategies for education and training for all to facilitate their (re)integration into the labour market, as well as establish mechanisms for their implementation at national, regional, local and sectoral and enterprise levels. Such strategies should include annual targets for the provision of free universal primary education, and (re)training opportunities for the working poor, especially young people and women, with the aim of ensuring that half of Africa's workforce has obtained new or improved skills by 2015.*

### ***Social inclusion through job creation for conflict prevention and reconstruction***

The Meeting notes some considerable progress by Africa in containing and redressing the conflicts that have held back development but expresses grave concern that widespread poverty and social exclusion in many countries are sowing the seeds for potential future conflicts. The Meeting is convinced that growth and its equitable distribution through decent work at the local level help prevent conflicts. Social institutions, especially strong and representative employers' and workers' organizations, contribute to increased inclusion, more and better jobs and the processes of dialogue that are vital to conflict prevention. Furthermore, in societies recovering from conflict, equal emphasis needs to be placed on investing in the social as well as the physical infrastructure. Tripartism is a means of combining these two objectives. Our target is that:

*All reconstruction and recovery programmes are discussed among the constituents and incorporate local economic development and employment-intensive investment approaches with a strong emphasis on building effective and accountable institutions for the world of work and for economic and social governance in general.*

### ***Investing in a basic social protection package for poverty reduction***

Social protection for the vulnerable and needy is key in reducing poverty. However, only around 10 per cent of Africa's labour force, principally those in the formal economy, are covered by statutory social security schemes, mostly old-age pensions. Extending social protection is an investment that has a very high return in terms both of poverty reduction and in raising the productive potential of the economy. The Meeting noted that ILO research on a number of African countries shows that universalizing old-age pensions and child benefits for schoolchildren and orphans could reduce poverty by as much as 40 per cent while requiring a financial transfer representing only 3.5 per cent of GDP. The Meeting therefore agrees on the following target:

*All African countries adopt coherent national social security strategies, including for the introduction or extension of a basic social security package that includes essential health care, maternity protection, child support for school-age children, disability protection and a minimum pension.*

### ***Tackling the HIV/AIDS crisis through workplace action***

Nearly 6 per cent of the African population aged between 15 and 49 years is living with HIV/AIDS. Sixteen million workers and 2 million children live with it. The annual death toll has

reached 2.4 million. The epidemic has reduced the labour force of the region by 0.5 per cent and growth by 0.7 per cent between 1992 and 2004. Antiretrovirals (ARVs) increase working life by an average of ten years, but their availability is still low and needs urgent increase. The ILO and its constituents in Africa have focused on promoting the use of the ILO code of practice on HIV/AIDS and the world of work. It is proving to be an important component in the drive for increased awareness of ways of preventing the spread of the epidemic, supporting those living with the virus, addressing stigma and discrimination and extending treatment. Furthermore, extending this vital work should feature prominently in DWCPs around the continent.

African governments, especially those invited to participate in the next G8 meeting, should propose strategies for the mobilization of more resources for HIV/AIDS programmes in Africa. In particular, resources are needed to accelerate the research for an HIV vaccine and for ARVs in order to reach a larger number of HIV-infected persons currently not on treatment. Our target is that:

*All countries in Africa have national HIV/AIDS strategies to ensure that the workplace contributes to the overall objective of achieving universal access to prevention, treatment, care and support.*

### **Implementing labour standards at the workplace**

Although many African States have comprehensive laws concerning basic working conditions including occupational health and safety standards and minimum wages, systems to ensure their observance are weak. To raise productivity and improve living and working conditions it is important that the ILO's tripartite constituents focus on bringing up to date both the content and means of implementation of laws and collective agreements concerning basic minimum conditions. The strengthening of labour inspectorates is a matter of priority. Our target is that:

*Three-quarters of all African member States develop programmes for the improvement of working conditions, with specific national targets for reducing non-compliance with laws concerning hours of work and minimum pay, the reduction of occupational accidents, diseases and days lost due to illness and accidents per worker, and a progressive increase in the number of labour inspectors in relation to workers.*

### **Tripartism as a key governance mechanism for inclusive poverty-reducing growth**

The Regional Meeting stresses that effective tripartism is a mechanism of governance that enables labour markets to function efficiently and equitably. The challenge and responsibility for the ILO and its constituents is to mobilize the potential of tripartism in Africa as a force to promote poverty-reducing and socially inclusive development in the context of competitive global markets. Tripartism furthermore can make a major contribution to improving the effectiveness and accountability of government. Ratification and application of the Tripartite Consultation (International Labour Standards) Convention, 1976 (No. 144), is an important support to the development of tripartism.

Free and independent trade unions and employers' organizations and strong institutions of social dialogue are bedrocks of democratic governance. They also have a major contribution to make to the success of regional economic communities (RECs). The involvement of employers' and workers' organizations in the development, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of DWCPs and national development frameworks is vital for their success and ensures that they promote decent work. The ILO must step up its capacity-building work with employers' and workers' organizations in accordance with the 2002 ILC resolution on tripartism and social dialogue. Constituents should in particular benefit from more training programmes by the ILO International Training Centre. Similarly, for the Decent Work Agenda to become part of national development agendas, ministries of labour will also need to play an active role in national macroeconomic policies, as well as growth and poverty reduction strategies and other development frameworks. This requires the strengthening of labour administration institutions such as employment services, labour inspectorates and the agencies responsible for gathering labour market information. Our target is that:

*All African States and RECs establish or further develop tripartite social dialogue institutions. New or existing mechanisms for tripartite social dialogue are fully utilized by governments in the preparation and implementation of DWCPs and national development strategies.*

### ***Freedom of association: Lifeblood of the ILO and a foundation for democracy***

Effective tripartism rests on the foundation of freedom of association. With a total of 100 ratifications for the Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87), and the Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98), African member States are only six short of universal continent-wide ratification. However, this creditable record must be matched in practice where considerable barriers remain in its implementation. Delegates urge the ILO to systematically examine the constraints on freedom of association and collective bargaining and to develop with countries programmes that would bring practice into conformity with ILO Conventions. Our target is therefore that:

*All countries in the region adopt legislation to guarantee the rights to freedom of association and collective bargaining through effective and speedy administrative and judicial appeals and procedures.*

### ***Effective implementation of fundamental principles and rights at work***

Fundamental principles and rights at work provide the basic rules and framework for development, have a direct impact on contributions to, and participation in, political and economic processes and thus improved governance. As the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work and its Follow-up states, "The guarantee of fundamental principles and rights at work is of particular significance in that it enables the persons concerned to claim freely and on the basis of equality of opportunity their fair share of the wealth which they have helped to generate, and to achieve fully their human potential." The pace of ratifications in Africa of the Conventions on which the Declaration is based has been particularly impressive in recent years. However, the major challenge remains translating commitments into effective protection and guarantees, with real enforcement of the relevant provisions. Our target is:

*Universal continent-wide ratification, better implementation of ratified Conventions and greater effective respect for fundamental principles and rights at work.*

### ***Getting Africa's children into school and out of work***

Nearly 50 million African children are economically active, a number that amounts to a quarter of Africa's 5–14-year-olds and is still rising despite Africa's commitment to the elimination of child labour as demonstrated by the high ratification rate of the child labour Conventions. Child labour prevents or disrupts children's education, and denies them opportunities for acquiring knowledge and developing their potential in adult life to compete in the labour market. It perpetuates a vicious cycle in which poverty is transmitted from one generation to the next. It constitutes a serious impediment to the implementation of strategies for poverty reduction, employment creation and education and training programmes. The Regional Meeting expresses particular concern over children subjected to the worst forms of child exploitation, especially children forced into armed conflicts, as well as those affected by HIV/AIDS. The Meeting pledges to continue to build the strong political support and concerted action by national and local governments, employers' and workers' organizations, civil society and the international community required for the elimination of child labour, starting with its worst forms. Our target is that:

*All African States prepare by 2008 time-bound national action plans for the elimination of the worst forms of child labour by 2015. Such action plans should form an integral part of national development strategies in order to ensure close coordination between education programmes, measures to combat HIV/AIDS and its economic and social impacts, and the implementation of labour laws on the minimum age for employment. They should be supported by the ILO's DWCPs.*

### ***Rooting out the remnants of slavery***

The Regional Meeting expressed alarm that, 200 years after the abolition of the trans-Atlantic slave trade, the ILO estimates that 660,000 people are still in forced labour in sub-Saharan Africa, some 130,000 as a result of trafficking. It often occurs in the context of the breakdown of States but some countries also have to overcome a legacy of slavery with continued reports of discrimination and forced labour against the descendants of slaves. The Meeting endorsed the ILO global action plan on forced labour which calls for a global alliance with the aim of eliminating all forms of forced labour by 2015. Our target therefore is that:

*All African States adopt national action plans as a matter of urgency to eradicate all forms of forced labour by 2015 as part of DWCPs and their development plans.*

### ***Eliminating discrimination in employment: Unlocking Africa's potential***

All discrimination in employment and occupation, whatever form it takes, restricts the freedom of human beings to develop their capabilities and to choose and pursue their professional and personal aspirations. It contributes to a sense of humiliation, frustration and powerlessness that profoundly affects society at large. The resulting waste of human talent and resources has a detrimental effect on productivity, competitiveness and the economy, as well as widening socio-economic inequalities and eroding social cohesion and solidarity and threatening political stability. The Regional Meeting highlights that elimination of discrimination at work underpins the concept of decent work for all women and men and is an indispensable part of African strategies for poverty reduction and sustainable economic development.

A special focus is needed on gender equality. The majority of African women work in rural areas in the agricultural subsistence economy, providing vital food security, and in urban areas in the informal economy. The formal economy employs less than 5 per cent of women. Social biases often pull girls out of school earlier, send them into the informal labour market an average of two years earlier than boys, paying them on average a third to a half less. Overcoming discrimination against women in the labour market, in society at large and those with family responsibilities, including through investing in education and training, would make an enormous contribution to poverty-reducing growth. Our target is that by 2015:

*All African States have anti-discrimination legislation in place and have adopted policies to promote equality of opportunity and treatment in respect of employment and occupation. Such policies should target an increase by 10 per cent in the labour market participation rate of women and a 25 per cent reduction in wage differentials.*

### ***Escaping the informal economy trap***

The Regional Meeting identified the continuing growth of the informal economy in Africa as a major barrier to poverty reduction. Women are particularly prominent in the informal economy, partly because gender discrimination prevents them from finding formal jobs. Young women and men also often end up in informal work because of the paucity of formal sector job opportunities. Too many women and men engaged in informal activities are faced with insecure incomes, often bordering on the poverty level. They work under extremely poor working conditions with very little capital and rudimentary technology or access to legal protection. Many workers face difficulties in establishing whether or not an employment relationship exists and thus their rights under employment law. The ILO's Employment Relationship Recommendation, 2006 (No. 198), provides useful guidance for strategies to extend the application of labour protection in order to remove workers from the informal economy.

Micro and small business operators also face many difficulties moving into the formal economy and securing property and contract rights. For both workers and employers, cooperatives provide an important means of strengthening productive activities and the provision of essential services. Furthermore, informal economy workers tend to have little or no access to formal mechanisms, such as insurance, pensions and social assistance, for coping with risks. This is particularly important for workers affected by HIV/AIDS who have an even greater need for a

regular and reliable source of income to maintain a healthy diet and pay for their health care. The main elements of an integrated approach to upgrading the informal economy are: enterprise upgrading; skills development; the extension of social protection; improved observance of labour laws including on safe work, and organizing workers and employers. Our target is that by 2015:

*Three-quarters of all African States adopt strategies to formalize the informal economy and extend protection to informal economy workers. Such strategies should integrate, among other things, policies for the increased registration of informal businesses, skills development, improved and safer working conditions, the extension of social protection coverage and the encouragement of freely chosen associations of informal economy workers and employers.*

### ***A fair deal for Africa's migrant workers***

Between 8 and 9 million Africans are living and working outside their countries of birth, most in Africa but many in Europe, the Gulf States and other continents. While low- or semi-skilled non-professional occupations predominate, there are also significant numbers of skilled workers and professionals among African migrants. The resulting skill drain is a major concern. A particular problem for many countries is the loss of skilled medical personnel from the health-care services of several African countries. However, labour migration also generates valuable remittances for families in the recipient countries. Increased mobility of working women and men across borders is set to become a permanent feature of the African and global economy. The treatment accorded to migrants often leads to discrimination and social exclusion. Avoiding this requires establishing explicit legislation, policy and administrative measures.

The implementation of the principles, guidelines and good practice models of the non-binding ILO Multilateral Framework on Labour Migration offers a comprehensive approach to establishing national, regional and international policies, structures, mechanisms and practices to effectively govern labour migration in Africa. The Meeting stresses that regional policy should focus on minimizing and compensating for the brain drain, through increased knowledge opportunities for migrants, enterprise development, streamlining remittance channels and investment opportunities, and the adoption and effective implementation of the ILO's core migration standards. This requires concerted promotional efforts by the ILO's tripartite constituents, including through strategic alliances with relevant civil society organizations. Our target is that:

*Three-quarters of all African States have policies to ensure that migrant workers have regular, authorized status and are fully protected by the labour legislation of the host country and granted equal treatment and opportunities by 2015.*

### ***Improving information for better policies***

Adequate information to support labour market policies and programmes is essential, but in many countries is unavailable, unreliable or outdated. In most countries, what is required is an institutionalized and sustainable data collection and dissemination system. Moreover, available data sources suffer from lack of uniformity in concepts, coverage, scope and timing, since there is little coordination among the various government units that produce information, with often limited knowledge of what exists among other agencies or potential users. The overall objective of strengthening national capacity to produce and analyse reliable labour statistics and labour market information is to contribute to the goal of employment creation and poverty reduction monitoring in Africa. The Regional Meeting supports the work of the Forum on African Statistical Development and the ILO's African Labour Market Indicators Library Network (ALMIL). African experts should also play an active role in the 2008 International Conference of Labour Statisticians. The Meeting calls for an intensification of the effort to provide solid labour market information in all countries. The target is that:

*By 2015, all member States are able to generate basic annual data on the size and composition of the workforce. At least half of all African member States have mechanisms in place by 2010 to produce labour market information and statistics for the monitoring of progress on the core dimensions of the Decent Work Agenda.*



## *Implementing the Decent Work Agenda in Africa 2007–15*

The Decent Work Agenda in Africa 2007–15 sets ambitious objectives for all ILO constituents and the Office. Implementing the targets for DWCPs will require a major mobilization of tripartism on the continent. We believe that a systematic and step-by-step approach will yield the results we hope for and to which African working women and men aspire. As an ILO contribution to the Ouagadougou follow-up mechanism, which calls for a general evaluation of the Summit decisions in 2009 and 2014, the ILO together with its constituents will regularly prepare and review progress on the road to 2015 in order to identify and share best practices and remedy shortcomings.

The Regional Meeting welcomes the African Decent Work Policy Portfolio set out in the Director-General's Decent Work Agenda in Africa 2007–15. It provides a comprehensive package of policy instruments and tools for discussion with the ILO's tripartite constituents in each country.

The Meeting further calls on the Office to develop its partnerships with other international agencies making full use of the Decent Work Toolkit. The Meeting urges all constituents and the Office to participate fully in the "One UN" pilot country initiative, and to review progress at regular intervals.

The Meeting welcomes the call by Africa's social partners for a Second Social Partners' Forum in 2008. The Meeting endorses the Forum as providing a good opportunity for African employers' and workers' organizations to contribute to the promotion of good governance as a means for effective and fair management of States and enterprises, as well as their own organizations. The Forum will also promote respect for the fundamental principles and rights at work.

The Meeting calls on the Office, working with the African Union (AU) Commission, the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA), the African Development Bank (AfDB), RECs, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the ILO's tripartite constituents to operationalize the decision of the 39th Conference of African Ministers of Finance, Planning and Economic Development (Ouagadougou, 2006) to establish a regional employment forum. The forum would provide a meeting place for all networks of unions, employers' organizations, researchers and governments to share and develop best practice solutions to Africa's employment challenges.

The Meeting requests the ILO, as its contribution to the networking process envisaged for the forum, to organize an annual African decent work symposium bringing together independent researchers, constituents, ILO field staff and partner agencies to review knowledge in selected aspects of the Decent Work Agenda with a view to ensuring that its policy portfolio stays up to date.

The Meeting calls on the ILO to develop a significant programme of support for the Decent Work Agenda in Africa 2007–15. Realizing the Agenda targets requires a strengthening of institutions from the local to the continental level in order to create conditions conducive to achieving the goal of full and productive employment and decent work for all. The ILO will therefore work with its African and international partners to develop a comprehensive approach with a special focus on improving governance of labour markets and strengthening the capacity of labour administrations and the social partners. The programme of support should also bolster the capacity of regional and continental structures such as the RECs, the AU, including the Pan-African Parliament, as well as the ILO itself.

The Meeting calls on the Office to assist African member States in overcoming all obstacles to progress towards the achievement of the Decent Work Agenda, including those which could derive from bilateral or multilateral economic agreements.

The Meeting calls on the ILO to report on the implementation and achievement of these targets at the next African Regional Meeting.



## Appendix II

### *Recovering from the crisis: A roadmap for the implementation of the Global Jobs Pact in Africa*

#### *Crisis spreads to Africa*

Crisis started in world's financial centres and spread to Africa through several channels:

- export earnings down, commodity prices fell;
- remittances down, fewer tourists;
- drop in FDI and ODA promises slipping;
- most recently, government budgets have been squeezed by fall in export tax revenues; threatening core spending on basic needs, including education and health.

#### *Weak growth hits jobs*

- Growth down, falling in per capita terms in most countries. Recovery prospects fragile with risk that jobs pickup will lag well behind output.
- Setback to poverty reduction and creation of decent work opportunities with serious long-term consequences for social development/political stability.
- Youth and women and other vulnerable groups are being hit hardest.

#### *Structural constraints to African recovery and development*

- Current crisis adds to deeper long-standing structural crisis in African development.
- National policy and fiscal space constrained in most countries by budget deficits, foreign debt, dependence on narrow commodities export base, and national capacities for effective policy implementation.
- Recovery strategies should be first step towards new approach to sustainable, resilient and balanced development.

#### *Escaping dependence, building new approach to sustainable development*

- One of main resources for recovery is political commitment of government, employers and unions to social dialogue to develop and follow through on national action for recovery; drawing on the tripartite approach of the ILO Global Jobs Pact.
- National resource mobilization must be given higher priority by:
  - (i) broadening tax base to finance essential public support for development; and
  - (ii) financing policies that secure and channel savings and channel investment to real economy and jobs.

#### *International partnerships for African recovery strategies*

- Africa must be a partner in a truly global effort to stimulate and sustain job-driven recovery. In the future, developing countries' growth must be the main driver of sustainable world development.

- Reversing African recession urgently requires a fresh round of debt cancellation and relief alongside major increase in long-term low-cost finance. Genuine policy dialogue over development strategies must replace previous conditionalities.

### *Increased vigilance on fundamental principles and rights at work*

- Crisis calls for increased vigilance to ensure that fundamental principles and rights at work are not compromised.
- Promotion of ratification and implementation of international labour standards should be intensified, especially Conventions of particular relevance in crisis conditions.
- International labour standards are an important component of a rights-based approach to development and should be integrated into Decent Work Country Programmes.
- Strategies for the transformation of the informal economy should include measures to assure implementation of international labour standards.

### *Social dialogue: Key mechanism for African recovery strategies*

- The importance of social dialogue is reinforced in times of crisis when social tensions increase.
- Inclusive dialogue to develop and implement a pact or plan of action is key for an effective and sustainable response to the crisis.
- Enhanced internal dialogue within unions and employers' organizations is vital to the preparation of effective tripartite dialogue.
- Social dialogue should be developed within regional economic communities.

### *Key elements of African recovery strategy: Rural employment*

Promotion of strengthened policy and regulatory environment for:

- employment-intensive infrastructure investment (roads, irrigation, etc.);
- improved access to finance for farmers and rural MSMEs;
- promotion of agro-processing;
- support to member-based organizations (cooperatives, farmers' unions, etc.);
- decentralized and participatory local governance.

### *Key elements of African recovery strategy: Micro, small and medium enterprises (MSMEs)*

MSMEs are engines of employment generation and thus potential motors for recovery and decent work, but face many barriers to sustainability. Priorities in creating favourable environment for sustainable enterprises, especially MSMEs are:

- improved access to finance on terms that meet their special needs;
- public procurement policies that ensure MSMEs can bid and win contracts;
- women entrepreneurs face additional barriers which call for policies to overcome discrimination (e.g. in asset ownership);
- enterprise development services should be widely available on attractive terms providing advice, training and other support;
- government policies should facilitate the entry of MSMEs into the formal economy by reducing unnecessary regulatory burdens and offering quality public services.

### *Key elements of African recovery strategy: Skills*

Continuous upgrading of skills vital to poverty-reducing development and job-intensive recovery. Key issues:

- integrated national strategies steered by a tripartite oversight council on human resource development;
- public–private partnerships to deliver skills training;
- good labour market information on skill gaps;
- systems to recognize informally acquired skills;
- strong universal education equipping young women and men with core competencies for working life.

### *Key elements of African recovery strategy: Services and information*

Most African countries have underinvested in public employment services and labour market information systems. Effective recovery strategies require these weaknesses be addressed and supported by regional and international cooperation. Priorities are:

- more and better-equipped employment centres to support employers and workers in filling job opportunities;
- stronger labour market information services undertaking/analysing regular labour force surveys.

### *Key elements of African recovery strategy: Building a social protection floor*

- Social protection floor is a global and coherent social policy concept that promotes national strategies for minimum level of access to essential services and income transfers for all.
- Political will is required to either use or extend existing fiscal space to accommodate the financing of components of the social protection floor.
- National consensus for the creation of sustainable national social floors can only be achieved in inclusive and transparent social dialogue processes.
- Donor support (including budget support) can help, but in the long run all programmes have to be financed by national means which include innovative resource mobilization.
- Promote coordination, synergies and policy coherence within a “Delivering as One UN” approach to “bundle” donor support for social protection.

### *Key elements of African recovery strategy: Sustaining social security systems*

Social protection, particularly for women and youth alleviates poverty and harsh realities of the crisis. Systems should be strengthened through:

- graduated social protection provided and extended to the informal economy;
- improved and strengthened management systems;
- enhanced tripartite governance to improve transparency, accountability and effectiveness of benefit delivery.

### *Key elements of African recovery strategy: Minimum wages*

Minimum wages can protect vulnerable workers and discourage wage deflation during the crisis. Existing systems need to be improved and where they do not exist, consideration should be given to their introduction. Key issues for review through social dialogue are:

- protecting vulnerable workers;
- extending the coverage of minimum wages;
- securing policy coherence with collective bargaining, public sector pay, social security, and other income policies;
- improved compliance.

### *Key elements of African recovery strategy: Migration policies*

Migrant working women and men are in frontline of the crisis. This calls for reinforced efforts to build national and international strategies to protect their rights and ensure that mobility of labour is economically and socially sustainable. Measures include:

- strengthened international cooperation to protect migrant workers' rights, especially women's, and, where necessary, regularize their status;
- reinforcing capacity of employers' and workers' organizations and social dialogue in respect of migrant workers;
- support the productive use of remittances;
- address problems caused by the migration of highly skilled workers particularly in the health sector;
- collect better statistics on international labour migration.

### *The Ouagadougou process: Building national recovery strategies*

- ILO's constituents will follow up this Ouagadougou Symposium on the Global Jobs Pact with national dialogues on strategies for recovery. Dialogues should include economic and social councils and parliaments. They should identify resource gaps, domestic potential and partnerships.
- Constituents, supported by the Office (e.g. with the Toolkit for mainstreaming decent work), will integrate recovery priorities into international mechanisms, e.g. UN Development Assistance Frameworks, AfDB and World Bank, bilateral cooperation.

### *The Ouagadougou process: Continental coordination*

- The ILO's Regional Office will collect and share information from constituents on recovery strategies, including estimates of resource gaps for their implementation.
- The Office will facilitate the development by constituents of employment-generating infrastructure investments to strengthen regional integration.
- The ILO will present results of the Ouagadougou Symposium and of the national dialogues to the African Union, the Pan-African Parliament, the AU/ECOSOC, the AfDB, the UNECA and regional economic communities.
- The ILO will aim to further strengthen support for promotion of decent work in continental recovery efforts.

### *The Ouagadougou process: Africa's voice on the world stage*

- A report on the Symposium and follow-up action will be presented to the next ILO Governing Body Meeting and the 12th African Regional Meeting.
- Constituents will work to ensure that African decent work recovery packages are prioritized in policy dialogues with the Bretton Woods institutions and other development partners.
- The results of the Symposium and its follow-up will feed into ILO's input to the 2010 UN General Assembly reviewing the Millennium Development Goals.

### *Mobilizing social partnership for inclusive and sustainable globalization*

- We applaud African social partners' commitment expressed in the Declaration of their Second Forum to concerted mobilization for the ILO Global Jobs Pact.
- There can be no recovery without increased employment. Full productive employment and decent work is central to Africa's recovery and its sustainable and balanced development in the future.

- Decent work is the main route to the eradication of poverty. Sustainable enterprises generate decent work. Effective systems for social protection are essential foundation for productive economies and social justice.
- Social partnership, based on full respect for fundamental principles and rights at work, offers a vital impulse to inclusive and sustainable recovery and development.

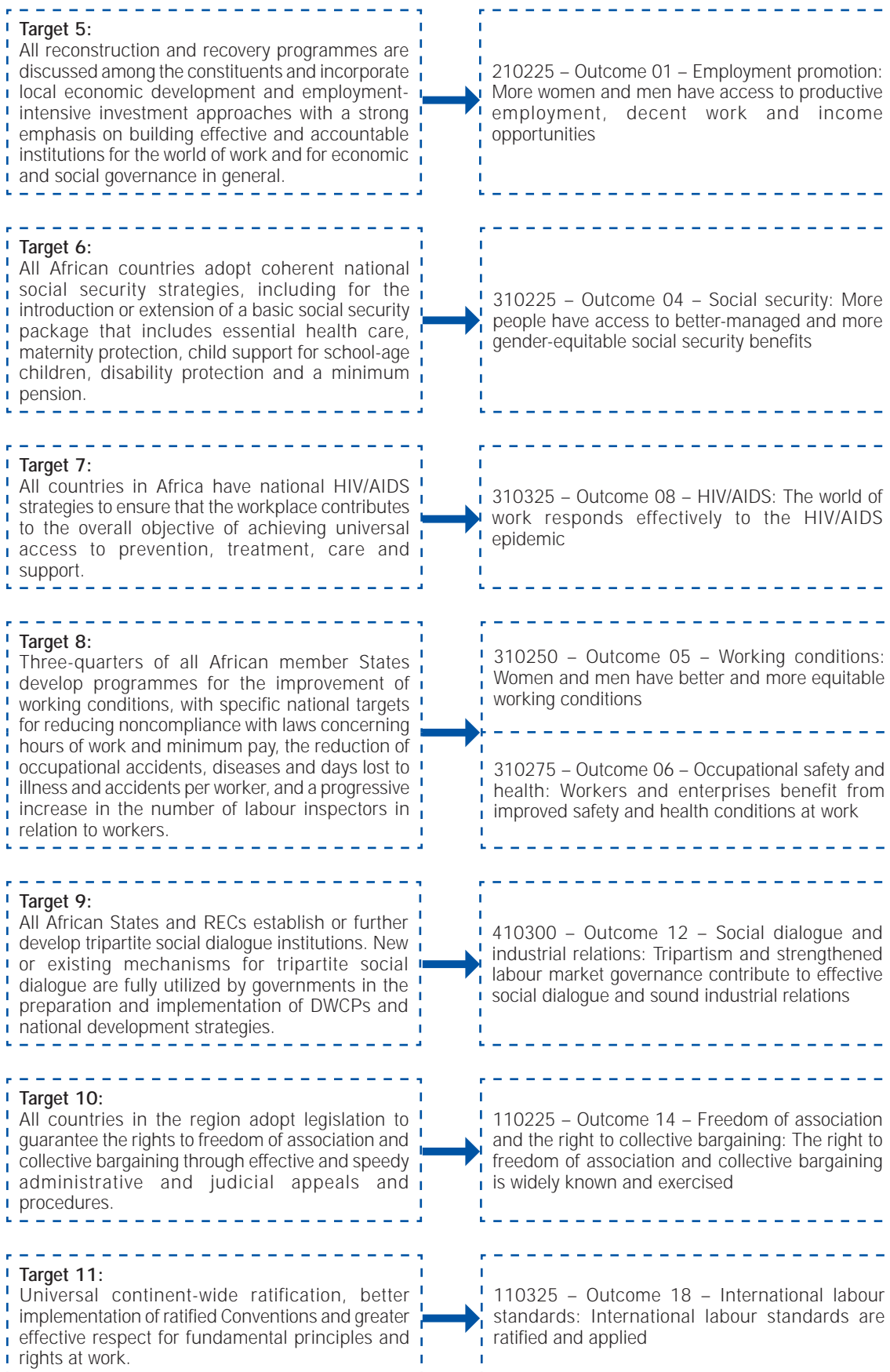




## Appendix III

### Alignment of DWAA targets with programme and budget outcomes

Targets of DWAA policy areas (2007–15)	Programme and budget outcomes
<p><b>Target 1:</b> Three-quarters of member States mainstream assessment of the impact on the generation and maintenance of decent work opportunities into poverty-reducing development strategies and adopt national targets for the creation of sufficient decent jobs to absorb new labour market entrants and reduce by half the numbers of working poor.</p>	<p>210225 – Outcome 01 – Employment promotion: More women and men have access to productive employment, decent work and income opportunities</p> <p>021225 – Outcome 19 – Mainstreaming decent work: member States place an integrated approach to decent work at the heart of their economic and social policies, supported by key UN and other multilateral agencies</p>
<p><b>Target 2:</b> Three-quarters of African countries adopt integrated strategies for sustainable enterprise development and the generation of decent work opportunities, with a special focus on assisting women entrepreneurs. Such strategies should include targets for the registration of at least half of all enterprises currently operating informally.</p>	<p>210275 – Outcome 03 – Sustainable enterprises: Sustainable enterprises create productive and decent jobs</p>
<p><b>Target 3:</b> The adoption by three-quarters of African countries of national policies and programmes to respond to the rapid and large rise in the numbers of young jobseekers and aimed at ensuring that sufficient decent work opportunities are available to bring a fall in the numbers of young unemployed workers and the working poor. Adopted policies and programmes should lead to a significant reduction in the current youth unemployment rate for Africa of nearly 20 per cent.</p>	<p>210250 – Outcome 02 – Skills development: skills development increases the employability of workers, the competitiveness of enterprises, and the inclusiveness of growth</p>
<p><b>Target 4:</b> Three-quarters of all African member States critically review and implement, with the involvement of the social partners, national policies and strategies for education and training for all to facilitate their (re)integration into the labour market, as well as establish mechanisms for their implementation at national, regional, local and sectoral and enterprise levels. Such strategies should include annual targets for the provision of free universal primary education, and (re)training opportunities for the working poor, especially young people and women, with the aim of ensuring that half of Africa's workforce has obtained new or improved skills by 2015.</p>	<p>210250 – Outcome 02 – Skills development: skills development increases the employability of workers, the competitiveness of enterprises, and the inclusiveness of growth</p>



<p><b>Target 12:</b> All African States prepare by 2008 time-bound national action plans for the elimination of the worst forms of child labour by 2015. Such action plans should form an integral part of national development strategies in order to ensure close coordination between education programmes, measures to combat HIV/AIDS and its economic and social impacts, and the implementation of labour laws on the minimum age for employment. They should be supported by the ILO's DWCPs.</p>	<p>110275 – Outcome 16 – Child Labour: Child labour is eliminated, with priority being given to the worst forms</p>
<p><b>Target 13:</b> All African States adopt national action plans as a matter of urgency to eradicate all forms of forced labour by 2015 as part of DWCPs and their development plans.</p>	<p>110250 – Outcome 15 – Forced labour: Forced labour is eliminated</p>
<p><b>Target 14:</b> All African States have anti-discrimination legislation in place and have adopted policies to promote equality of opportunity and treatment in respect of employment and occupation. Such policies should target an increase by 10 per cent in the labour market participation rate of women and a 25 per cent reduction in wage differentials.</p>	<p>110300 – Outcome 17 – Discrimination at work: Discrimination in employment and occupation is eliminated</p>
<p><b>Target 15:</b> Three-quarters of all African States adopt strategies to formalize the informal economy and extend protection to informal economy workers. Such strategies should integrate, among other things, policies for the increased registration of informal businesses, skills development, improved and safer working conditions, the extension of social protection coverage and the encouragement of freely chosen associations of informal economy workers and employers.</p>	<p>210225 – Outcome 01 – Employment promotion: More women and men have access to productive employment, decent work and income opportunities</p>
<p><b>Target 16:</b> Three-quarters of all African States have policies to ensure that migrant workers have regular, authorized status and are fully protected by the labour legislation of the host country and granted equal treatment and opportunities by 2015.</p>	<p>310300 – Outcome 07 – Labour migration: More migrant workers are protected and more migrant workers have access to productive employment and decent work</p>
<p><b>Target 17:</b> By 2015 all member States are able to generate basic annual data on the size and composition of the workforce. At least half of all African member States have mechanisms in place by 2010 to produce labour market information and statistics for the monitoring of progress on the core dimensions of the Decent Work Agenda.</p>	<p>210225 – Outcome 01 – Employment promotion: More women and men have access to productive employment, decent work and income opportunities</p>

Direct linking with P&B outcome indicator 

## Appendix IV Statistical tables

Table A1. Africa growth by sector (percentages, decade average)

Country	GDP growth (annual %)		Agriculture, value added (annual % growth)		Industry, value added (annual % growth)		Manufacturing, value added (annual % growth)		Services, value added (annual % growth)	
	1990-2000	2000-07	1990-2000	2000-07	1990-2000	2000-07	1990-2000	2000-07	1990-2000	2000-07
Algeria	1.7	4.2	3.5	6.6	1.7	3.3	-1.6	2.2	1.5	5.0
Angola	0.8	12.9	-2.8	14.9	3.1	14.3	-0.4	20.9	-2.3	7.6
Benin	4.8	4.0	5.8	-	4.4	-	6.0	-	4.1	-
Botswana	6.2	4.7	-1.1	-0.8	6.0	4.4	4.1	2.5	7.5	5.0
Burkina Faso	5.3	5.6	6.0	-	6.2	-	5.7	-	3.8	-
Burundi	-2.0	2.8	-1.6	-	-2.9	-	-6.3	-	-1.4	-
Cameroon	1.4	3.6	4.7	3.6	-1.0	0.4	2.3	-	-0.3	5.9
Cape Verde	5.8	5.4	2.4	0.8	4.9	8.1	2.5	-	6.6	5.2
Central African Republic	1.6	0.5	3.7	1.3	1.0	1.5	0.1	1.7	-1.1	-1.7
Chad	2.3	10.5	5.8	3.5	-0.9	25.2	-	-	1.4	8.6
Comoros	1.1	2.2	2.7	1.5	4.5	3.0	1.9	1.4	-1.2	-
Congo	1.4	3.7	-	-	1.7	-	-1.5	-	0.7	-
Congo, Democratic Rep. of	-5.6	4.7	0.6	0.9	-9.3	8.6	-10.0	4.6	-11.9	10.5
Côte d'Ivoire	2.3	0.3	3.6	1.1	5.1	-1.4	4.6	-2.8	0.6	0.7
Djibouti	-1.5	3.3	-0.3	-	-5.2	-	-5.1	-	-0.7	-
Egypt	4.3	4.5	3.1	3.4	5.9	4.9	6.3	4.3	3.6	4.8
Equatorial Guinea	19.7	22.4	-	4.9	-	24.1	-	70.6	-	17.2
Eritrea	3.8	1.9	-0.9	9.7	8.2	0.4	7.2	-6.2	4.9	0.9
Ethiopia	2.8	7.7	2.3	6.5	1.5	8.9	-0.2	6.5	3.5	8.6
Gabon	1.7	2.2	2.3	1.6	-0.3	1.3	2.4	4.2	3.7	3.1

Table A1. (cont.)

Country	GDP growth (annual %)		Agriculture, value added (annual % growth)		Industry, value added (annual % growth)		Manufacturing, value added (annual % growth)		Services, value added (annual % growth)	
	1990–2000	2000–07	1990–2000	2000–07	1990–2000	2000–07	1990–2000	2000–07	1990–2000	2000–07
Gambia	3.3	4.9	4.1	1.8	1.5	7.6	1.1	–	3.4	6.4
Ghana	4.3	5.4	3.3	2.6	2.9	5.0	–3.4	–	5.7	7.6
Guinea	4.1	2.8	4.1	4.4	4.3	4.1	4.5	3.2	3.2	1.0
Guinea-Bissau	1.5	–1.3	3.6	4.5	–2.7	4.7	–2.3	4.6	0.3	0.3
Kenya	1.9	4.5	1.5	3.6	0.9	4.9	1.2	4.0	3.0	4.1
Lesotho	3.8	3.8	–0.3	–3.7	5.8	6.2	8.3	11.4	3.9	2.6
Liberia	2.6	–1.0	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	–	4.0	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Madagascar	1.7	3.2	1.8	2.0	2.6	2.8	1.9	3.7	2.0	3.6
Malawi	3.4	3.0	7.5	0.3	1.8	3.1	0.4	1.4	1.2	3.7
Mali	4.0	5.7	1.7	4.9	6.5	6.0	–1.3	3.6	3.0	6.3
Mauritania	2.9	4.8	–0.2	0.5	3.2	3.4	5.6	–2.7	5.0	7.0
Mauritius	5.3	4.1	–1.7	2.6	5.5	2.1	5.2	1.0	6.3	6.0
Morocco	2.4	5.0	–1.8	4.6	2.9	4.6	2.6	3.6	3.6	5.2
Mozambique	5.5	8.4	2.6	7.8	11.2	11.6	10.7	12.0	5.0	7.0
Namibia	4.2	5.1	4.3	1.6	2.7	7.0	13.3	5.9	4.6	4.8
Niger	1.8	4.3	2.4	–	1.5	–	2.0	–	1.4	–
Nigeria	2.8	6.2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Rwanda	0.4	6.7	2.8	4.4	–4.3	8.8	–6.3	7.5	0.5	8.2
Sao Tome and Principe	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Senegal	3.1	4.3	2.8	–0.9	3.8	4.6	3.0	2.8	3.0	6.0
Seychelles	4.5	1.7	0.0	0.3	10.6	4.5	9.0	–3.4	3.0	0.5
Sierra Leone	–4.6	11.8	–	–	–7.4	–	–	–	–1.1	–
Somalia	–	–	–	–	–	–	9.8	–	–	–
South Africa	1.8	4.2	0.7	0.0	0.8	3.3	1.3	3.2	2.5	4.9

Table A1. (concl.)

Country	GDP growth (annual %)		Agriculture, value added (annual % growth)		Industry, value added (annual % growth)		Manufacturing, value added (annual % growth)		Services, value added (annual % growth)	
	1990–2000	2000–07	1990–2000	2000–07	1990–2000	2000–07	1990–2000	2000–07	1990–2000	2000–07
Sudan	5.8	7.3	6.5	2.4	10.4	10.9	7.4	3.1	2.5	9.9
Swaziland	3.7	2.5	0.7	0.6	3.0	1.8	2.5	1.7	3.7	4.0
Tanzania, United Rep. of	2.9	6.7	3.2	–	3.5	–	2.6	–	3.0	–
Togo	2.2	2.4	2.9	–	1.1	–	2.3	–	2.1	–
Tunisia	4.7	4.9	3.0	2.0	4.7	3.7	5.5	3.6	5.2	6.0
Uganda	6.8	7.2	3.7	1.6	11.1	10.1	12.8	6.4	7.9	9.6
Zambia	0.7	5.2	3.2	1.9	–3.3	9.4	1.2	5.3	2.7	6.6
Zimbabwe	0.9	–	3.2	–	–0.8	–	–1.0	–	2.2	–
<b>Africa</b>	<b>2.6</b>	<b>4.8</b>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>3.5</b>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>4.9</b>	<b>2.8</b>	<b>3.7</b>	<b>2.7</b>	<b>5.1</b>
<b>North Africa</b>	<b>3.2</b>	<b>4.5</b>	<b>2.0</b>	<b>4.1</b>	<b>3.6</b>	<b>4.1</b>	<b>4.1</b>	<b>3.8</b>	<b>3.4</b>	<b>5.1</b>
<b>Sub-Saharan Africa</b>	<b>2.3</b>	<b>5.1</b>	<b>2.8</b>	<b>3.1</b>	<b>1.6</b>	<b>5.7</b>	<b>1.9</b>	<b>3.6</b>	<b>2.3</b>	<b>5.1</b>

Source: ILO calculations based on World Bank: Africa Development Indicators 2010 (Washington, DC, 2010).

Table A2. Africa: Annual real GDP growth rates (percentages)

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011p	Average annual growth rate, 2000-07
<b>North Africa</b>														
<b>Oil exporters</b>	<b>2.6</b>	<b>3.6</b>	<b>1.9</b>	<b>3.6</b>	<b>8.2</b>	<b>5.0</b>	<b>6.4</b>	<b>4.8</b>	<b>5.5</b>	<b>3.3</b>	<b>1.9</b>	<b>5.7</b>	<b>5.0</b>	<b>5.1</b>
Algeria	3.2	2.2	2.7	4.7	6.9	5.2	5.1	2.0	3.0	2.4	2.4	3.8	4.0	4.2
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	0.4	3.7	-4.3	-1.3	1.3	4.4	10.3	6.7	7.5	2.3	-2.3	10.6	6.2	5.0
Sudan	3.1	8.4	6.2	5.4	7.1	5.1	6.3	11.3	10.2	6.8	4.5	5.5	6.2	7.3
<b>Other</b>	<b>4.9</b>	<b>4.5</b>	<b>4.5</b>	<b>3.0</b>	<b>4.2</b>	<b>4.5</b>	<b>4.1</b>	<b>6.9</b>	<b>6.1</b>	<b>6.5</b>	<b>4.5</b>	<b>4.8</b>	<b>5.2</b>	<b>4.7</b>
Egypt	6.1	5.4	3.5	3.2	3.2	4.1	4.5	6.8	7.1	7.2	4.7	5.3	5.5	4.6
Morocco	0.5	1.6	7.6	3.3	6.3	4.8	3.0	7.8	2.7	5.6	4.9	4.0	4.3	5.0
Tunisia	6.0	4.3	4.9	1.7	5.5	6.0	4.0	5.7	6.3	4.5	3.1	3.8	4.8	4.8
<b>Sub-Saharan Africa</b>														
<b>Oil resource-rich (oil exporters)</b>	<b>0.9</b>	<b>4.5</b>	<b>8.0</b>	<b>3.8</b>	<b>8.3</b>	<b>4.8</b>	<b>7.6</b>	<b>7.4</b>	<b>9.2</b>	<b>7.0</b>	<b>4.8</b>	<b>6.4</b>	<b>6.7</b>	<b>9.7</b>
Angola	3.2	3.0	3.1	14.5	3.3	11.2	20.6	18.6	20.3	13.3	0.7	5.9	7.1	12.9
Cameroon	4.4	4.2	4.5	4.0	4.0	3.7	2.3	3.2	3.3	2.9	2.0	2.6	2.9	3.6
Chad	-0.7	-0.9	11.7	8.5	14.7	33.6	7.9	0.2	0.2	-0.4	-1.6	4.3	3.9	10.5
Congo	-2.6	7.6	3.8	4.6	0.8	3.5	7.8	6.2	-1.6	5.6	7.5	10.6	8.7	3.5
Equatorial Guinea	25.7	18.2	63.4	19.5	14.0	38.0	9.7	1.3	21.4	10.7	5.3	0.9	2.1	22.5
Gabon	-8.9	-1.9	2.2	-0.3	2.5	1.4	3.0	1.2	5.3	2.7	-1.4	4.5	5.0	2.2
Nigeria	0.5	5.3	8.2	21.2	10.3	10.6	5.4	6.2	7.0	6.0	7.0	7.4	7.4	9.7
<b>Non oil resource-rich (metals, ore)</b>	<b>3.7</b>	<b>0.8</b>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>3.8</b>	<b>2.6</b>	<b>4.8</b>	<b>2.7</b>	<b>3.9</b>	<b>3.8</b>	<b>3.7</b>	<b>1.5</b>	<b>5.1</b>	<b>4.8</b>	<b>3.5</b>
Botswana	9.8	5.9	3.5	9.0	6.3	6.0	1.6	5.1	4.8	3.1	-3.7	8.4	4.8	5.2
Côte d'Ivoire	1.8	-4.6	0	-1.6	-1.7	1.6	1.9	0.7	1.6	2.3	3.8	3.0	4.0	0.4
Guinea	4.5	2.9	3.8	4.2	1.2	2.3	3.0	2.5	1.8	4.9	-0.3	3.0	3.9	2.7
Namibia	2.7	4.1	1.2	4.8	4.3	12.3	2.5	7.1	5.4	4.3	-0.8	4.4	4.8	5.3
Sierra Leone	-8.1	3.8	18.2	27.4	9.5	7.4	7.2	7.3	6.4	5.5	3.2	4.5	5.2	11.7
Zambia	2.2	3.6	4.9	3.3	5.1	5.4	5.3	6.2	6.2	5.7	6.3	6.6	6.4	5.2

Table A2. (cont.)

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011p	Average annual growth rate, 2000-07
<b>Sub-Saharan Africa</b>	<b>3.2</b>	<b>3.6</b>	<b>3.9</b>	<b>3.4</b>	<b>3.6</b>	<b>5.3</b>	<b>6.0</b>	<b>6.2</b>	<b>6.0</b>	<b>4.9</b>	<b>1.4</b>	<b>4.1</b>	<b>4.9</b>	<b>4.9</b>
Other	3.2	3.6	3.9	3.4	3.6	5.3	6.0	6.2	6.0	4.9	1.4	4.1	4.9	4.9
Benin	5.3	4.9	6.2	4.4	4.0	3.0	2.9	3.8	4.6	5.0	2.5	2.8	3.6	4.1
Burkina Faso	6.2	2.9	6.6	4.4	7.8	4.5	8.7	5.5	3.6	5.2	3.2	4.4	4.7	5.8
Burundi	-1.0	-0.9	2.1	4.4	-1.2	4.8	0.9	5.1	3.6	4.5	3.5	3.9	4.5	2.8
Cape Verde	11.9	7.3	6.1	5.3	4.7	4.3	6.5	10.1	8.7	5.6	3.0	4.1	6.0	6.5
Central African Republic	3.6	1.9	0.6	-0.6	-7.1	1.0	2.4	3.8	3.7	2.0	1.7	3.3	4.0	0.5
Comoros	1.9	1.4	3.3	4.2	2.5	-0.2	4.2	1.2	0.5	1.0	1.8	2.1	2.5	2.2
Congo, Democratic Republic of	-4.3	-6.9	-2.1	3.5	5.8	6.6	7.8	5.6	6.3	6.2	2.8	5.4	7.0	4.7
Eritrea	0.2	-12.4	8.8	3.0	-2.7	1.5	2.6	-1.0	1.4	-9.8	3.6	1.8	2.8	1.9
Ethiopia	6.0	5.9	7.4	1.6	-2.1	11.7	12.6	11.5	11.8	11.2	9.9	8.0	8.5	7.7
Gambia	6.4	5.5	5.8	-3.2	6.9	7.0	0.3	3.4	6.0	6.3	5.6	5.0	5.4	3.7
Ghana	4.4	3.7	4.2	4.5	5.2	5.6	5.9	6.4	5.7	7.2	4.1	5.0	9.9	5.4
Guinea-Bissau	7.6	7.5	3.7	1.8	-3.5	3.1	5.0	2.2	0.2	3.6	3.0	3.5	4.3	1.8
Kenya	2.4	0.6	4.7	0.3	2.8	4.6	6.0	6.3	6.9	1.3	2.4	4.1	5.8	4.5
Lesotho	0.4	5.7	4.2	1.1	4.3	2.3	1.1	6.5	2.4	4.5	0.9	5.6	3.8	3.1
Liberia	-	-	2.8	3.8	-31.3	2.6	5.3	7.8	9.4	7.1	4.6	6.3	9.5	-1.0
Madagascar	4.7	4.5	6.0	-12.4	9.8	5.3	4.6	5.0	6.2	7.1	-3.7	-2.0	2.8	3.3
Malawi	3.5	0.8	-4.1	1.7	5.5	5.5	2.6	7.7	5.8	8.8	7.5	6.0	6.2	3.5
Mali	5.7	-3.3	11.9	4.3	7.6	2.3	6.1	5.3	4.3	5.0	4.4	5.1	5.4	5.9
Mauritania	6.7	1.9	2.9	1.1	5.6	5.2	5.4	11.4	1.0	3.7	-1.1	4.7	5.1	4.6
Mauritius	4.6	7.2	2.6	1.9	4.3	5.5	1.5	3.9	5.4	5.0	2.5	3.6	4.1	3.6
Mozambique	8.5	9.2	12.3	9.2	6.5	8.8	8.7	6.3	7.3	6.7	6.3	6.5	7.5	8.4
Niger	1.0	-2.6	8.0	5.3	7.1	-0.8	8.4	5.8	3.4	8.7	-1.2	3.5	5.2	5.3
Rwanda	5.1	6.5	8.5	13.2	2.2	7.4	9.4	9.2	5.5	11.2	4.1	5.4	5.9	7.9



Table A2. (concl.)

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011p	Average annual growth rate, 2000-07
Senegal	6.3	3.2	4.6	0.7	6.7	5.9	5.6	2.4	5.0	3.2	2.2	4.0	4.4	4.4
South Africa	2.4	4.2	2.7	3.7	2.9	4.6	5.3	5.6	5.5	3.7	-1.8	3.0	3.5	4.3
Swaziland	2.7	2.0	1.0	1.8	3.9	2.5	2.2	2.9	3.5	2.4	1.2	2.0	2.5	2.5
Tanzania, United Republic of	3.5	4.9	6.0	7.2	6.9	7.8	7.4	6.7	7.1	7.4	6.0	6.5	6.7	7.0
Togo	2.6	-1.0	-2.3	-0.2	5.2	2.3	1.2	3.7	1.9	2.2	3.1	3.3	3.5	1.6
Uganda	8.2	5.4	5.2	8.7	6.5	6.8	6.3	10.8	8.4	8.7	7.2	5.8	6.1	7.5
Zimbabwe	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-3.7	-3.7	-18.9	5.7	5.9	4.5	-

Note: 2011p are projections.

Source: IMF: World Economic Outlook (Washington, DC, 2010).

Table A3. Africa sectoral shares (in percentage of GDP)

Country	Trade (% of GDP)		Agriculture, value added (% of GDP)		Industry, value added (% of GDP)		Manufacturing, value added (% of GDP)		Services, etc., value added (% of GDP)		External balance on goods and services (% of GDP)	
	1995	2008	1995	2008	1995	2008	1995	2008	1995	2008	1995	2008
Algeria	55.2	83.6	9.5	9.2	45.8	72.2	10.5	4.3	35.6	23.7	-2.8	34.6
Angola	-	-	7.3	10.1	66.3	86.3	4.0	6.6	26.4	3.7	-	50.2
Benin	53.2	-	34.0	-	14.6	-	8.6	-	51.4	-	-12.9	-
Botswana	89.0	86.8	4.0	1.6	47.2	43.3	5.1	2.9	41.5	47.3	12.9	4.6
Burkina Faso	40.7	-	33.2	-	19.9	-	14.1	-	40.6	-	-12.5	-
Burundi	40.2	-	42.0	-	16.8	-	8.3	-	28.5	-	-14.4	-
Cameroon	41.4	57.4	22.0	19.1	29.1	31.9	20.1	15.9	41.8	46.4	5.8	1.1
Cape Verde	78.3	74.6	13.6	8.1	19.5	16.7	10.0	6.4	66.9	-	-40.0	-34.7
Central African Republic	48.1	37.5	43.8	50.3	20.0	13.5	9.6	7.5	31.0	30.3	-7.3	-8.7
Chad	55.7	77.7	35.1	19.0	13.3	34.9	11.0	5.5	49.4	28.6	-11.8	10.2
Comoros	64.3	49.7	40.9	45.8	11.9	12.0	4.2	4.2	47.2	-	-24.8	-24.2
Congo	-	-	10.5	-	44.9	-	8.1	-	44.7	-	1.1	-
Congo, Democratic Rep. of	52.2	56.6	56.5	-	16.9	-	-	-	25.8	-	4.8	-10.1
Côte d'Ivoire	76.2	97.3	24.7	23.7	20.8	25.3	15.0	16.8	54.5	51.0	7.3	4.8
Djibouti	90.4	-	2.8	-	13.5	-	2.5	-	71.2	-	-12.1	-
Egypt	50.2	81.9	15.7	14.3	30.2	37.0	16.3	17.2	47.7	50.4	-5.1	-6.6
Equatorial Guinea	-	-	50.7	2.0	26.8	95.0	-	12.3	20.8	2.3	-49.0	46.1
Eritrea	-	-	18.8	-	15.1	-	8.1	-	55.9	-	-60.5	-
Ethiopia	25.4	40.2	54.2	39.8	9.4	11.7	4.5	4.5	30.7	41.7	-6.0	-17.0
Gabon	95.1	-	8.0	4.6	52.4	73.7	4.5	3.8	39.6	21.7	23.6	39.0
Gambia	-	79.1	26.0	24.7	11.6	13.0	5.3	4.3	49.3	48.8	-24.1	-18.9
Ghana	57.4	-	38.8	32.2	24.3	26.1	9.3	6.9	36.9	41.7	-8.4	-26.3
Guinea	45.6	57.9	18.5	7.5	28.1	33.0	3.8	3.1	49.6	54.9	-3.4	-2.2

Table A3. (cont.)

Country	Trade (% of GDP)		Agriculture, value added (% of GDP)		Industry, value added (% of GDP)		Manufacturing, value added (% of GDP)		Services, etc., value added (% of GDP)		External balance on goods and services (% of GDP)	
	1995	2008	1995	2008	1995	2008	1995	2008	1995	2008	1995	2008
Guinea-Bissau	46.8	79.6	51.8	51.5	11.5	12.0	7.4	9.5	30.8	29.3	-23.5	-20.0
Kenya	71.7	63.9	26.3	18.9	13.6	12.0	8.4	8.1	44.7	58.1	-6.6	-14.1
Lesotho	138.7	158.1	16.0	6.5	35.8	31.4	14.5	14.4	40.9	52.3	-95.3	-63.4
Liberia	-	-	81.8	-	5.3	-	2.7	-	12.9	-	-	-
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	51.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6.8	-
Madagascar	55.8	78	24.8	23.4	8.6	16.1	7.4	14.2	59.6	53.4	-7.6	-25.3
Malawi	78.5	74.6	26.9	28.5	17.4	17.1	14.0	11.8	44.1	37.5	-17.7	-27.8
Mali	57.3	-	43.9	-	16.5	-	7.1	-	28.2	-	-15.1	-
Mauritania	82.0	-	34.1	-	23.0	-	7.6	-	34.1	-	-7.8	-
Mauritius	121.7	131.5	8.4	4.0	28.3	24.5	20.0	17.2	51.3	60.1	-5.5	-8.2
Morocco	61.4	90.7	14.6	14.2	33.0	18.4	18.4	13.3	49.3	58.5	-6.6	-9.4
Mozambique	56.6	74.0	33.8	25.4	14.1	23.0	7.4	13.5	49.2	41.3	-25.4	-10.0
Namibia	105.2	87.0	10.7	7.5	24.7	20.3	11.5	7.7	53.1	65.4	-6.2	-9.1
Niger	41.5	-	40.2	-	17.3	-	6.4	-	42.5	-	-7.2	-
Nigeria	86.5	73.9	-	31.9	-	43.1	-	-	-	29.0	2.1	13.1
Rwanda	31.0	35.6	44.0	34.6	16.0	12.3	10.2	5.2	40.0	53.1	-20.7	-19.5
Sao Tome and Principe	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Senegal	68.2	72.4	18.9	13.6	21.4	20.9	15.0	12.3	49.8	56.9	-6.5	-22.5
Seychelles	116.6	283.4	4.2	2.3	22.7	22.4	12.7	13.4	73.2	75.3	-7.2	-21.6
Sierra Leone	45.1	62.0	40.0	41.0	36.1	22.8	8.6	-	17.1	31.9	-7.9	-12.2
Somalia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
South Africa	44.9	76.7	3.5	2.3	31.8	26.1	19.4	15.4	56.0	54.8	0.7	-4.0
Sudan	14.8	44.8	37.3	24.4	10.2	32.3	4.6	5.4	49.0	38.0	-4.8	0.7
Swaziland	133.8	160.4	10.1	6.7	37.7	43.3	32.8	38.7	36.1	33.6	-13.7	0.1

Table A3. (concl.)

Country	Trade (% of GDP)		Agriculture, value added (% of GDP)		Industry, value added (% of GDP)		Manufacturing, value added (% of GDP)		Services, etc., value added (% of GDP)		External balance on goods and services (% of GDP)	
	1995	2008	1995	2008	1995	2008	1995	2008	1995	2008	1995	2008
Tanzania, United Rep. of	65.6	-	43.7	-	13.4	-	6.6	-	35.5	-	-17.4	-
Togo	69.8	-	37.8	-	22.2	-	9.9	-	40.1	-	-5.0	-27.0
Tunisia	93.7	-	11.4	10.0	29.4	28.4	19.0	16.5	59.2	61.6	-3.9	-3.1
Uganda	32.6	49.0	45.3	20.8	13.1	23.7	6.2	7.0	33.3	47.3	-9.0	-17.7
Zambia	75.8	71.1	16.2	18.1	31.5	39.5	9.9	9.9	40.4	27.8	-3.7	2.5
Zimbabwe	79.2	-	13.5	-	25.7	-	19.3	-	49.2	-	-2.7	-
<b>Africa</b>	<b>57.4</b>	<b>81.9</b>	<b>15.9</b>	<b>13.1</b>	<b>32.5</b>	<b>40.2</b>	<b>14.1</b>	<b>9.3</b>	<b>47.7</b>	<b>39.7</b>	<b>-2.0</b>	<b>6.0</b>
<b>North Africa</b>	<b>56.9</b>	<b>89.0</b>	<b>12.0</b>	<b>10.4</b>	<b>35.8</b>	<b>45.2</b>	<b>14.1</b>	<b>10.1</b>	<b>45.2</b>	<b>40.3</b>	<b>-3.0</b>	<b>9.5</b>
<b>Sub-Saharan Africa</b>	<b>57.8</b>	<b>76.9</b>	<b>18.3</b>	<b>14.6</b>	<b>30.8</b>	<b>36.9</b>	<b>14.1</b>	<b>8.8</b>	<b>48.7</b>	<b>38.8</b>	<b>-1.4</b>	<b>4.1</b>

Source: World Bank: Africa Development Indicators 2010 (Washington, DC, 2010).

Table A4. Structure of merchandise exports in Africa

Country	Merchandise exports (constant US\$, millions)		Food exports (% of merchandise exports)		Agricultural raw material exports (% of merchandise exports)		Fuel exports (% of merchandise exports)		Ores and metals exports (% of merchandise exports)		Manufactures exports (% of merchandise exports)	
	1995	2008	1995	2007	1995	2007	1995	2007	1995	2007	1995	2007
Algeria	8 888.7	42 687.9	1.2	0.2	0.1	0	95.2	98.4	0.5	0.5	3.0	0.9
Angola	4 163.2	13 902.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Benin	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Botswana	1 691.9	-	-	2.8	-	0.2	-	0.2	-	23.2	-	73.1
Burkina Faso	-	-	22.5	-	62.7	-	0.1	-	0.3	-	5.5	-
Burundi	97.4	-	59.8	35.0	2.7	4.2	-	3.8	0.7	2.1	2.2	20.7
Cameroon	1 672.3	3 539.5	27.0	-	27.5	-	29.2	-	8.4	-	7.9	-
Cape Verde	15.5	-	-	40.8	-	0	-	0	-	-	-	58.8
Central African Republic	168.0	-	4.2	-	19.8	-	0.8	-	30.1	-	44.5	-
Chad	172.0	812.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Comoros	10.4	-	76.4	13.8	0	-	-	-	-	-	23.2	6.3
Congo	640.1	805.7	1.0	-	8.3	-	87.6	-	0.3	-	2.7	-
Congo, Democratic Republic of	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Côte d'Ivoire	3 820.1	4 852.0	62.8	39.5	19.7	8.8	9.5	32.6	0.2	0.4	6.5	18.1
Djibouti	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Egypt	4 921.7	15 791.6	9.9	7.9	6.1	1.6	37.3	52.2	6.4	2.8	40.3	18.6
Equatorial Guinea	121.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Eritrea	80.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ethiopia	-	1 163.4	72.5	61.1	13.4	19.9	2.9	0	0.1	2.9	11.2	13.4
Gabon	2 918.1	3 526.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Gambia	67.3	-	59.7	81.6	0.5	6.2	0.2	-	1.0	0.5	35.9	11.7
Ghana	1 334.0	2 170.0	-	46.6	-	4.9	-	0.6	-	2.4	-	10.5
Guinea	697.7	-	7.4	-	1.1	-	0	-	65.4	-	23.7	-

Table A4. (cont.)

Country	Merchandise exports (constant US\$, millions)		Food exports (% of merchandise exports)		Agricultural raw material exports (% of merchandise exports)		Fuel exports (% of merchandise exports)		Ores and metals exports (% of merchandise exports)		Manufactures exports (% of merchandise exports)	
	1995	2008	1995	2007	1995	2007	1995	2007	1995	2007	1995	2007
Guinea-Bissau	28.9	64.6	89.1	-	10.7	-	0	-	0	-	0.2	-
Kenya	2 506.1	2 982.2	56.1	42.8	7.4	11.9	6.1	4.3	2.8	2.8	27.6	36.8
Lesotho	147.8	605.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Liberia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Madagascar	521.7	813.9	69.4	31.5	6.0	3.4	1.5	4.7	6.9	3.3	14.4	56.8
Malawi	429.7	590.3	90.4	85.6	2.1	3.8	0.1	0	0.1	0	7.3	10.6
Mali	426.9	-	-	7.0	-	13.8	-	0.5	-	0.2	-	3.2
Mauritania	350.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mauritius	-	2 106.07	28.9	31.1	0.7	0.6	0	0.1	0.2	0.8	70.2	67.1
Morocco	5 643.7	6 775.42	31.4	19.1	3.4	1.5	2.2	3.8	11.5	10.3	51.4	65.1
Mozambique	215.3	1 688.32	65.5	11.1	15.8	2.8	2.0	15.5	2.3	64.0	13.1	5.8
Namibia	1 202.7	2 361.51	-	23.6	-	0.5	-	0.4	-	34.5	-	39.1
Niger	351.0	-	18.5	14.3	0.5	2.6	0	1.5	80.0	63.3	0.9	5.6
Nigeria	11 704.0	15 972.77	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rwanda	45.3	54.57	-	44.5	-	4.6	-	0	-	46.3	-	4.6
Sao Tome and Principe	4.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Senegal	630.3	-	-	36.8	-	2.9	-	19.3	-	4.1	-	36.1
Seychelles	52.1	-	98.6	97.8	0.1	0	0	0	0.1	0	1.2	2.2
Sierra Leone	92.1	325.15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Somalia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
South Africa	28 991.2	34 126.3	7.9	6.6	4.4	2.1	8.9	10.6	8.0	29.3	42.8	50.7
Sudan	566.5	-	44.4	-	46.1	-	0.3	-	0.4	-	6.2	-

Table A4. (concl.)

Country	Merchandise exports (constant US\$, millions)		Food exports (% of merchandise exports)		Agricultural raw material exports (% of merchandise exports)		Fuel exports (% of merchandise exports)		Ores and metals exports (% of merchandise exports)		Manufactures exports (% of merchandise exports)	
	1995	2008	1995	2007	1995	2007	1995	2007	1995	2007	1995	2007
Swaziland	1 250.1	2 591.29	-	21.1	-	7.2	-	1.2	-	0.5	-	69.8
Tanzania, United Republic of	0	0	-	35.0	-	6.8	-	0.6	-	12.6	-	16.6
Togo	330.2	-	18.5	15.7	42.0	9.3	0	0	32.1	12.8	7.3	62.2
Tunisia	3 728.4	-	9.8	9.5	0.6	0.5	8.5	16.2	1.7	1.4	79.4	69.8
Uganda	304.4	862.89	86.0	62.2	4.4	7.6	0.1	1.3	0.6	2.2	4.2	20.8
Zambia	784.1	711.32	2.7	7.5	0.6	1.2	3.3	0.5	86.5	77.7	6.9	12.5
Zimbabwe	2 021.0	-	43.4	16.3	6.8	11.4	1.3	0.6	11.6	19.2	36.9	48.3
<b>Africa</b>	<b>105 448.4</b>	<b>207 440.7</b>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>North Africa</b>	<b>30 540.8</b>	<b>100 011.3</b>	<b>9.1</b>	<b>6.0</b>	<b>1.5</b>	<b>0.5</b>	<b>58.5</b>	<b>63.4</b>	<b>3.4</b>	<b>2.7</b>	<b>27.6</b>	<b>25</b>
<b>Sub-Saharan Africa</b>	<b>73 361.9</b>	<b>111 733.6</b>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Source: World Bank: Africa Development Indicators 2010 (Washington, DC, 2010).

Table A5. Structure of manufacturing in Africa

Country	Manufacturing, value added (constant 2000 US\$, millions)		Food, beverages and tobacco (% of value added in manufacturing)		Textiles and clothing (% of value added in manufacturing)		Machinery and transport equipment (% of value added in manufacturing)		Chemicals (% of value added in manufacturing)		Other manufacturing (% of value added in manufacturing)	
	1995	2008	1998	2005	1998	2005	1998	2005	1998	2005	1998	2005
Algeria	3 949.7	4 767.8	-	-	-	22.29	-	2.95	-	17.26	-	40.86
Angola	192.3	1 549.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Benin	146.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Botswana	204.8	321.5	22.7	22.0	5.31	4.59	-	-	-	-	72.02	73.38
Burkina Faso	244.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Burundi	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cameroon	1 372.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cape Verde	36.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Central African Republic	65.3	74.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Chad	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Comoros	8.9	10.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Congo	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Congo, Democratic Republic of	303.4	302.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Côte d'Ivoire	1 678.5	1 889.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Djibouti	13.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Egypt	12 091.8	26 062.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Equatorial Guinea	-	865.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Eritrea	52.3	-	54.2	34.8	13.31	16.46	0.54	4.23	9.81	10.09	22.12	34.39
Ethiopia	348.8	716.3	55.9	46.6	13.88	8.79	3.89	2.45	4.18	4.45	22.19	37.73
Gabon	147.1	262.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Gambia	18.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ghana	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-



Table A5. (cont.)

Country	Manufacturing, value added (constant 2000 US\$, millions)		Food, beverages and tobacco (% of value added in manufacturing)		Textiles and clothing (% of value added in manufacturing)		Machinery and transport equipment (% of value added in manufacturing)		Chemicals (% of value added in manufacturing)		Other manufacturing (% of value added in manufacturing)	
	1995	2008	1998	2005	1998	2005	1998	2005	1998	2005	1998	2005
Guinea	91.3	155.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Guinea-Bissau	31.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Kenya	1 312.4	1 787.9	34.0	29.6	8.79	5.89	4.67	4.1	5.17	5.24	47.39	55.12
Lesotho	62.7	187.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Liberia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Madagascar	350.4	591.1	-	45.9	-	30.93	-	1.36	-	2.06	-	19.72
Malawi	201.3	237.6	72.9	-	5.22	-	0.56	-	7.81	-	13.5	-
Mali	115.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mauritania	62.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mauritius	707.9	1 012.2	17.9	-	53.82	-	2.46	-	-	-	25.8	-
Morocco	5 040.8	7 724.3	-	36.6	-	13.95	-	8.42	-	13.14	-	27.89
Mozambique	191.1	1 077.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Namibia	157.3	959.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Niger	100.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nigeria	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rwanda	87.2	-	74.5	-	2.01	-	0.21	-	6.44	-	16.79	-
Sao Tome and Principe	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Senegal	525.2	693.0	42.7	-	3.1	-	1.24	-	30.78	-	22.18	-
Seychelles	63.2	99.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sierra Leone	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Somalia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
South Africa	20 300.1	30 241.3	16.0	17.7	5.31	3.65	16.6	16.69	6.21	6.94	55.87	55.06

Table A5. (concl.)

Country	Manufacturing, value added (constant 2000 US\$, millions)			Food, beverages and tobacco (% of value added in manufacturing)		Textiles and clothing (% of value added in manufacturing)		Machinery and transport equipment (% of value added in manufacturing)		Chemicals (% of value added in manufacturing)		Other manufacturing (% of value added in manufacturing)	
	1995	2008		1998	2005	1998	2005	1998	2005	1998	2005	1998	2005
Sudan	612.7	1 348.8		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Swaziland	429.2	559.3		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Tanzania, United Republic of	483.6			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Togo	91.7			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Tunisia	2 736.4	4 757.5		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Uganda	242.9	747.3	64.7	1.82	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	33.46	-
Zambia	273.8	496.4		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Zimbabwe	1 080.1			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>Africa</b>	<b>65 431.5</b>	<b>111 844.6</b>		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>North Africa</b>	<b>27 475.1</b>	<b>49 960.3</b>		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>Sub-Saharan Africa</b>	<b>37 956.8</b>	<b>61 825.7</b>		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Source: World Bank: Africa Development Indicators 2010 (Washington, DC, 2010); data from World Development Indicators are in italics.

Table A6. Africa: Gross domestic savings, 1999–2008 (in percentage of GDP)

Country	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Algeria	31.6	44.8	42.0	40.9	44.9	47.7	54.9	56.9	56.5	71.5
Angola	20.7	41.8	15.1	23.9	19.2	25.1	37.9	49.5	47.9	62.6
Benin	4.8	6.0	6.5	3.7	6.0	5.5	6.9	–	–	–
Botswana	43.2	53.9	55.9	52.2	50.4	50.7	52.4	52.4	51.2	49.6
Burkina Faso	3.8	0.6	-0.1	3.7	4.5	1.8	4.8	2.8	–	–
Burundi	-2.5	-6.0	-7.8	-9.7	-8.7	-11.0	-23.1	-19.9	–	–
Cameroon	19.2	20.3	19.0	19.0	17.8	18.5	18.1	18.9	18.1	19.7
Cape Verde	-17.5	-14.2	-15.1	-15.7	-15.8	-1.5	4.4	4.6	5.3	8.2
Central African Republic	11.0	5.2	3.9	4.3	1.6	0	0.1	1.4	1.5	1.6
Chad	-0.2	5.5	5.3	-40.8	18.0	24.5	35.7	43.6	34.6	25.2
Comoros	-5.7	-5.7	-5.2	-4.0	-5.8	-10.6	-12.9	-14.0	-11.4	-8.1
Congo	41.0	59.3	50.5	51.0	51.3	51.3	57.6	65.7	57.2	–
Congo, Democratic Republic of	9.1	4.5	3.2	4.0	5.0	4.0	6.4	4.5	8.8	6.9
Côte d'Ivoire	21.3	17.9	19.5	26.7	21.0	20.0	17.2	19.6	14.3	14.8
Djibouti	-2.4	-6.5	-0.6	4.9	5.3	4.3	8.6	12.2	18.1	–
Egypt	13.4	12.9	13.4	13.9	14.3	15.6	15.7	17.1	16.3	17.2
Equatorial Guinea	–	74.5	81.2	79.0	80.1	78.9	83.7	86.1	86.9	72.8
Eritrea	-31.7	-42.9	-18.5	-27.4	-40.9	-41.5	-27.2	-17.2	-17.7	–
Ethiopia	9.6	8.3	9.7	9.9	7.7	8.8	2.6	1.5	5.5	3.8
Gabon	47.7	58.3	51.7	43.7	48.2	54.6	58.3	57.4	55.0	66.3
Gambia	11.0	8.5	12.0	12.9	11.1	8.9	4.0	11.2	6.7	6.2
Ghana	3.5	5.6	7.0	7.4	7.0	7.3	4.9	5.7	7.6	5.6
Guinea	15.5	15.4	14.1	9.5	7.8	7.4	11.3	10.5	10.4	10.5
Guinea-Bissau	-1.2	-8.5	-19.3	-11.8	-1.6	14.1	11.5	-3.9	7.7	4.9
Kenya	9.0	7.3	8.7	9.8	10.5	10.8	9.4	8.1	9.0	10.6

Table A6. (cont.)

Country	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Lesotho	-22.9	-15.4	-11.3	-17.7	-23.0	-17.5	-22.3	-21.4	-23.4	-34.7
Liberia	-	-	-3.4	-3.3	-3.2	-0.7	2.4	-34.6	-30.5	-
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	17.8	32.9	23.5	26.4	-	-	-	-	-	-
Madagascar	7.2	7.7	15.3	7.7	8.9	8.5	8.0	14.1	11.1	10.4
Malawi	-0.6	3.8	3.8	-	-3.4	2.0	-1.1	-1.3	4.9	4.1
Mali	9.5	12.0	14.0	11.3	13.3	8.6	11.0	14.8	13.5	-
Mauritania	-1.2	-8.6	3.1	-1.9	-5.0	-3.1	-15.0	18.8	18.7	-
Mauritius	23.3	23.9	26.0	25.2	24.8	23.4	18.9	17.5	17.5	16.9
Morocco	21.5	20.2	23.6	23.8	24.5	24.2	23.2	24.0	23.4	23.8
Mozambique	-0.6	11.5	3.7	14.9	6.1	10.0	9.3	12.8	11.9	13.0
Namibia	12.5	13.4	15.8	16.4	10.3	16.8	19.8	26.7	19.1	13.5
Niger	3.7	3.5	4.4	5.3	5.1	4.1	13.7	-	-	-
Nigeria	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rwanda	0	1.3	2.9	-0.5	0.4	4.4	5.1	2.7	2.8	1.3
Sao Tome and Principe	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Senegal	10.9	11.2	9.4	6.8	8.8	7.9	14.1	10.7	8.5	7.7
Seychelles	25.6	21.9	19.2	24.4	21.5	14.7	3.1	8.1	-1.9	6.7
Sierra Leone	-12.1	-14.3	-11.6	-8.2	-3.7	-0.4	4.2	7.8	6.1	7.5
Somalia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
South Africa	19.0	18.9	19.3	19.9	19.2	17.3	17.2	17.1	18.3	18.4
Sudan	7.7	15.9	9.8	13.3	15.7	18.7	13.8	13.9	20.5	24.3
Swaziland	0.4	3.3	8.6	14.6	18.1	13.5	11.2	11.5	11.6	15.1
Tanzania, United Republic of	4.5	10.2	8.8	11.8	12.0	11.2	9.7	10.7	-	-
Togo	3.2	-2.2	1.0	0.6	5.3	4.5	1.5	-	-	-
Tunisia	24.1	23.7	23.3	21.4	21.2	21.2	21.4	21.5	22.4	21.9

Table A6. (concl.)

Country	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Uganda	7.6	7.7	6.6	5.9	6.7	9.7	11.3	7.6	8.2	5.8
Zambia	5.7	3.0	2.8	7.9	13.0	19.9	21.8	31.5	30.4	24.7
Zimbabwe	16.0	13.3	11.6	7.1	6.2	4.1	0.6	-	-	-
<b>Africa</b>	<b>17.7</b>	<b>22.3</b>	<b>21.6</b>	<b>23.2</b>	<b>24.2</b>	<b>26.0</b>	<b>29.0</b>	<b>31.9</b>	<b>32.0</b>	<b>38.2</b>
<b>North Africa</b>	<b>20.2</b>	<b>24.8</b>	<b>23.6</b>	<b>24.3</b>	<b>27.6</b>	<b>31.2</b>	<b>35.6</b>	<b>37.2</b>	<b>36.5</b>	<b>45.5</b>
<b>Sub-Saharan Africa</b>	<b>15.6</b>	<b>20.3</b>	<b>20.0</b>	<b>22.0</b>	<b>21.5</b>	<b>22.6</b>	<b>24.9</b>	<b>28.6</b>	<b>29.0</b>	<b>33.6</b>
<b>Sub-Saharan Africa excluding South Africa</b>	<b>12.3</b>	<b>20.6</b>	<b>18.7</b>	<b>20.2</b>	<b>22.1</b>	<b>26.2</b>	<b>29.5</b>	<b>34.1</b>	<b>33.0</b>	<b>36.6</b>
<b>Sub-Saharan Africa excluding South Africa and Nigeria</b>	<b>12.8</b>	<b>16.7</b>	<b>14.4</b>	<b>14.7</b>	<b>15.8</b>	<b>18.0</b>	<b>20.1</b>	<b>23.0</b>	<b>23.0</b>	<b>26.6</b>

Source: World Bank: Africa Development Indicators 2010 (Washington, DC, 2010).

Table A7. Africa: Total unemployment rates per country, 1991–2009 (percentages)

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	
<b>North Africa</b>																				
Algeria	20.6	23.0	23.2	24.4	27.9	–	26.4	–	–	29.8	27.3	25.9	23.7	17.7	15.3	12.3	13.8	–	–	–
Egypt	9.6	9.0	10.9	11.0	11.3	9.0	8.4	8.2	8.1	9.0	9.4	10.2	10.4	10.7	11.2	10.6	8.8	8.7	9.4	–
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Morocco	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	13.9	13.6	12.5	11.6	11.9	10.8	11.0	9.7	9.9	9.6	9.1	–
Sudan	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Tunisia	–	–	–	–	–	–	15.9	–	16.0	15.7	15.1	15.3	14.5	14.2	14.2	14.3	14.1	14.2	–	–
<b>Sub-Saharan Africa</b>																				
Angola	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Benin	–	1.5	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	0.7	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Botswana	–	–	–	21.2	21.5	21.6	–	20.9	–	–	–	–	23.8	–	–	17.8	–	–	–	–
Burkina Faso	–	–	–	2.6	–	–	–	2.4	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Burundi	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Cameroon	–	–	–	–	–	8.1	–	–	–	–	7.5	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Cape Verde	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Central African Republic	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Chad	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Comoros	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Congo	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Côte d'Ivoire	–	6.7	–	–	4.1	–	–	4.1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Equatorial Guinea	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Eritrea	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Ethiopia	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	8.4	–	–	–	–	–	5.4	–	–	–	–	–
Gabon	–	–	17.8	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Gambia	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Ghana	–	4.7	–	–	–	–	–	–	10.1	10.4	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–

Table A7. (concl.)

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Guinea	-	-	-	3.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Guinea-Bissau	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Kenya	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Lesotho	-	-	-	-	-	-	39.3	-	27.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Liberia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5.6	-	-
Madagascar	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.9	-	-	-	-	-	5.0	-	2.6	-	-	-	-
Malawi	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.8	-	-	-	-	-
Mali	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8.8	-	-	-	-	-
Mauritania	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	33.0	-	-	-	-	-
Mauritius	-	-	-	-	9.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8.5	9.6	9.1	8.5	7.2	7.3
Mozambique	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Namibia	19.0	-	-	19.4	-	-	19.5	-	-	20.3	-	-	-	22.1	-	-	-	-	-
Niger	-	-	-	-	5.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nigeria	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Réunion (France)	-	-	-	-	-	0.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rwanda	-	-	-	-	-	37.1	36.0	37.7	-	36.5	33.3	31.0	32.9	33.5	31.3	29.1	24.2	24.5	-
Senegal	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	11.1	-	-	-
Sierra Leone	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.4	-	-	-	-	-
Somalia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
South Africa	-	-	-	20.0	16.9	21.0	22.9	25.0	25.4	26.7	29.5	30.5	31.2	26.2	26.7	25.5	23.0	22.9	24.0
Swaziland	-	-	-	-	21.7	-	22.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Tanzania, United Rep. of	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	13.7	-	-	-	-	11.7	-	-	-
Togo	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Uganda	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.2	-	-	-	-	-	-
Zambia	18.9	-	19.7	-	-	15.3	-	12.0	-	12.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Zimbabwe	-	-	-	5.0	-	-	6.9	-	6.0	-	-	-	-	4.2	-	-	-	-	-

Source: KILM 8a.

Table A8. Africa: Shares of status in total employment (percentages)

Region	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	
<b>Shares of status in total employment, total (%)</b>																			
<b>Africa</b>	22.8	23.1	23.0	23.5	23.4	23.3	23.8	23.6	24.4	24.6	24.5	25.1	25.4	26.0	26.7	27.5	27.8	28.4	
Wage and salaried workers	2.6	2.7	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.4	2.4	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.6	2.5	2.4	2.5	2.8	
Employers	33.1	33.8	35.3	35.9	36.6	37.0	36.6	36.8	37.9	38.5	39.1	39.3	39.8	41.1	40.7	40.5	40.5	40.2	
Own-account workers	41.5	40.4	39.2	37.9	37.3	37.2	37.2	37.0	35.1	34.3	33.8	33.0	32.1	30.3	30.1	29.5	29.2	28.6	
Contributing family workers	43.9	45.6	45.6	45.5	46.4	45.8	47.0	46.1	47.6	47.2	47.6	48.1	47.3	45.9	47.8	49.8	49.2	50.0	
Wage and salaried workers	10.0	10.9	10.4	11.1	11.0	9.4	9.4	10.2	10.3	10.4	11.0	10.8	11.0	10.6	9.6	9.1	9.6	9.8	
Employers	19.4	19.2	19.7	20.4	19.8	18.9	18.4	18.2	18.0	18.9	18.6	18.6	19.2	20.6	21.2	20.9	21.6	22.2	
Own-account workers	26.7	24.3	24.4	22.9	22.9	25.8	25.1	25.5	24.1	23.5	22.7	22.6	22.5	22.9	21.5	20.2	19.6	17.9	
Contributing family workers	18.2	18.2	18.1	18.7	18.5	18.4	18.6	18.6	19.3	19.6	19.4	20.0	20.6	21.5	22.0	22.5	23.0	23.5	
Wage and salaried workers	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.2	
Employers	36.1	37.0	38.7	39.3	40.3	41.0	40.7	40.9	42.3	42.8	43.6	43.8	44.4	45.7	45.1	44.9	44.7	44.2	
Own-account workers	44.8	43.9	42.5	41.1	40.4	39.8	39.9	39.6	37.6	36.7	36.2	35.3	34.2	32.0	32.0	31.6	31.3	31.0	
Contributing family workers	<b>Share of status in total employment, males (%)</b>																		
<b>Region</b>	<b>1991</b>	<b>1992</b>	<b>1993</b>	<b>1994</b>	<b>1995</b>	<b>1996</b>	<b>1997</b>	<b>1998</b>	<b>1999</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>2001</b>	<b>2002</b>	<b>2003</b>	<b>2004</b>	<b>2005</b>	<b>2006</b>	<b>2007</b>	<b>2008</b>	
<b>Africa</b>	28.0	28.5	28.6	29.1	28.9	29.0	29.5	29.0	30.0	30.5	30.2	30.7	31.5	32.7	33.9	34.8	34.9	35.4	
Wage and salaried workers	3.8	4.0	3.7	4.0	3.9	3.5	3.5	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.9	3.9	4.0	3.9	3.6	3.5	3.6	4.0	
Employers	33.9	34.5	35.2	36.0	36.4	36.6	36.7	37.1	37.9	38.4	38.8	39.1	39.9	41.0	40.8	40.9	41.2	41.3	
Own-account workers	34.4	33.0	32.5	30.9	30.7	30.9	30.4	30.3	28.4	27.4	27.2	26.4	24.6	22.4	21.6	20.8	20.2	19.4	
Contributing family workers	46.0	47.5	47.5	47.7	48.4	48.0	49.1	47.3	48.5	48.9	48.4	48.2	48.5	48.5	50.9	53.1	52.7	53.5	
Wage and salaried workers	12.2	13.4	12.7	13.7	13.4	11.6	11.7	12.6	12.8	13.0	13.5	13.3	13.8	13.4	12.1	11.5	12.2	12.4	
Employers																			



Own-account workers	19.8	19.9	20.2	20.7	20.3	19.4	19.1	18.9	19.0	19.3	19.3	20.1	20.0	21.1	21.5	21.5	22.0	22.6
Contributing family workers	22.0	19.2	19.5	17.9	17.9	21.0	20.1	21.2	19.7	18.8	18.8	18.4	17.7	17.0	15.5	13.9	13.2	11.5
Wage and salaried workers	22.5	22.8	22.9	23.6	23.2	23.3	23.6	23.5	24.5	25.0	24.7	25.5	26.4	28.0	28.9	29.3	29.7	30.0
Employers	1.2	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.5
Own-account workers	38.1	38.8	39.7	40.5	41.1	41.8	41.9	42.5	43.5	44.0	44.6	44.7	45.8	47.0	46.6	46.8	46.9	46.8
Contributing family workers	38.1	37.2	36.4	34.7	34.5	33.8	33.5	33.0	31.0	30.0	29.7	28.8	26.7	24.0	23.5	22.9	22.3	21.7
<b>Region</b>	<b>1991</b>	<b>1992</b>	<b>1993</b>	<b>1994</b>	<b>1995</b>	<b>1996</b>	<b>1997</b>	<b>1998</b>	<b>1999</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>2001</b>	<b>2002</b>	<b>2003</b>	<b>2004</b>	<b>2005</b>	<b>2006</b>	<b>2007</b>	<b>2008</b>
<b>Africa</b>	14.7	14.7	14.2	14.7	14.8	14.6	15.0	15.4	15.9	15.7	15.9	16.6	16.3	15.8	16.0	16.7	17.2	18.0
Wage and salaried workers	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0
Employers	31.8	32.6	35.4	35.8	36.9	37.6	36.6	36.4	37.8	38.7	39.5	39.6	39.7	41.2	40.5	39.9	39.5	38.7
Own-account workers	52.9	52.0	49.8	48.8	47.5	47.1	47.7	47.4	45.5	44.9	43.7	43.1	43.2	42.2	42.7	42.6	42.5	42.4
Contributing family workers	36.3	38.7	38.5	37.8	39.2	38.5	40.1	42.0	44.5	41.8	45.0	47.7	43.5	38.0	38.4	40.0	38.7	39.6
Wage and salaried workers	2.1	2.2	2.1	2.2	2.6	2.1	2.2	2.6	2.7	2.3	2.9	2.6	2.2	2.2	2.0	1.7	2.0	2.2
Employers	18.2	16.6	17.9	19.3	17.9	17.2	16.2	15.9	14.7	17.3	16.6	13.6	16.6	18.9	20.0	19.2	20.6	21.2
Own-account workers	43.4	42.5	41.5	40.7	40.3	42.1	41.5	39.5	38.2	38.6	35.4	36.1	37.7	40.9	39.7	39.2	38.7	37.0
Contributing family workers	12.2	11.9	11.5	12.0	12.0	11.7	12.0	12.2	12.3	12.5	12.4	12.8	12.9	13.0	13.2	13.7	14.4	15.2
Wage and salaried workers	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8
Employers	33.3	34.5	37.3	37.7	39.1	40.0	39.1	38.9	40.7	41.3	42.3	42.7	42.6	44.0	43.1	42.6	41.9	40.9
Own-account workers	54.0	53.1	50.7	49.7	48.3	47.7	48.4	48.4	46.4	45.6	44.7	43.9	43.9	42.4	43.1	43.0	43.0	43.1
Contributing family workers																		

Source: ILO: Trends Econometric Models (Geneva, 2010).