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### **Efficient growth, employment and Decent Work in Africa: Time for a new vision**

#### **Executive summary**

This summary presents a succinct account of the key findings of the chapters of this report. The main policy guidelines derived from these findings are presented in the last chapter. Their main objective is to promote a new inclusive and job-rich growth strategy in Africa.

#### ***Growth and employment in Africa: A turning point?***

The thesis that Africa in general and sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) in particular has experienced a growth turnaround since the mid-1990s has been developed by a number of influential studies in the late 2000s. This evidence of growth acceleration together with evidence that Africa has weathered the global recession rather well has engendered new found optimism for a region that is used to negative stereotyping.

The chapter notes that a conspicuous aspect of the literature on growth revival in SSA is that it offers a selective interpretation of recent economic history. By ignoring the growth record of the 1960s, and even earlier, the current literature exaggerates the extent of the growth take-off in Africa simply because it starts from the nadir of the mid-1990s when SSA was struggling to emerge from 20 years of stagnation. Between 1950 and 1960, SSA as a whole was richer than non-African developing countries, while growth in the 1960s was reasonable, but this was succeeded by 20 years of zero or even negative per capita growth. Relatively little intellectual capital has been invested in deciphering why the “lost decades” emerged and persisted. A plausible conjecture is that external factors, such as oil shocks and the ensuing debt crisis played a significant role, as did egregious policy mistakes and poor governance. Critics have always maintained that the growth failures of the SSA prior to the mid-1990s coincided with the Bretton Woods-led structural adjustment programs of the 1980s and 1990s.

Whatever the reasons behind the “lost decades”, their devastating impact on living standards in SSA cannot simply be reversed by ten years of good growth. It is thus not surprising that the SSA as a region has a per capita GDP in the late 2000s that is barely above the level of the 1980s. This is a case of a “catch up” rather than a growth take-off from favourable initial thresholds. Using binary comparisons, the chapter notes the sharp growth divergence that has developed over time between such SSA stalwarts as Ghana and Nigeria and successful East Asian economies such as China and Indonesia. This growth

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divergence is also evident between SSA and North Africa. This reflects the fact that the latter, unlike SSA, did not become a victim of the “lost decades”.

The chapter argues that the literature on the growth revival in Africa has made an important contribution by noting that one cannot simply ascribe it to a commodity and oil price boom. On the other hand, by attributing the growth acceleration in SSA to a narrow set of factors – most notably prudent macroeconomic policies and market-oriented reforms, this literature – or at least some versions of it – appears to have overlooked some important issues even as it seeks to vindicate economic orthodoxy. These pertain to the challenges of meeting the MDGs, the global aspiration to develop and extend social protection systems in developing countries, the inadequate evaluation of the employment dimensions of growth and the lack of structural transformation as an impediment to durable and productive job creation. All of these issues highlight the deficient nature of African growth and raise some doubts about its sustainability.

Several policy implications and messages emanate from the above discussion. First, African governments would have to make a renewed commitment to domestic resource mobilization without which sustainable and predictable sources of financing both for the attainment of MDGs and national social protection floors are not going to emerge. Currently, SSA economies rely on foreign aid to a far greater extent than other non-African developing countries.

Second, monitoring and understanding the employment dimensions of growth are vital. This will require the development of regular and reliable labour statistics and an appreciation of the fact that appreciable reductions in the incidence of the working poor and vulnerable employment cannot be attained through growth alone.

Third, a much needed debate is necessary on the nature of structural transformation in Africa. Should one be worried about “de-industrialization” in SSA or should one focus on service sector led growth as both feasible and appropriate for the specific conditions of the region? Whether one focuses on the manufacturing or the services, several prerequisites need to be met in formulating sectoral strategies: (a) it is necessary to understand the impediments to productive expansion of employment at the sectoral level; (b) one should not neglect the agricultural sector; and (c) one should tap into pan-African markets that should compensate for the narrowness of domestic markets and the challenge of accessing inter-continental markets.

### ***Macroeconomic policy, growth and employment***

This chapter argues that the prevailing macroeconomic framework as it has evolved in Africa since the structural adjustment era of the 1980s and 1990s has placed a premium on governments acting as guardians of stability. This has entailed the development of a nominal targeting approach in which the essential roles of central banks and finance ministries are to attain and sustain prudential targets pertaining to debts, deficits and inflation over the medium to long run. The expected dividends from such an approach are enhanced investor confidence that can support growth and lead to durable and productive employment creation.

The chapter notes that such an approach has made an important contribution by reducing the risks of growth collapses that can be engendered by macroeconomic extremes. On the other hand, one needs to go beyond a preoccupation with the risks posed by macroeconomic extremes. In Africa, macroeconomic policy managers need to act as agents of development within a framework of price stability and fiscal sustainability. This implies significant modifications to the prevailing macroeconomic framework.

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The chapter then uses a combination of Africa-wide evidence and country-level experiences to propose the following recommendations that add up to a development and employment-friendly macroeconomic framework. First, policy makers in the region should focus on the country-specific adaptations of the basic principles of price stability and fiscal sustainability. There is not much to be gained, and a good deal of policy autonomy to be lost, by mechanically sticking to predetermined inflation and fiscal targets that are uniformly applicable to all countries in the region. Second, economic volatility can adversely affect long term growth. Hence, reducing the incidence of volatility by adopting counter-cyclical policies is an important role of macroeconomic policy managers. Third, fiscal policy should not be viewed exclusively through the lens of debt sustainability. Instead, the emphasis should be on a sustainable resource mobilization strategy that can enable policy-makers to meet financing needs pertaining to nationally adapted MDGs and SPF. Finally, macroeconomic policy managers have a critical role to play in aiding and abetting the private sector to become the key actors of structural transformation and economic diversification. This will require an understanding of the binding constraints on private sector growth and using macroeconomic policy tools to alleviate such binding constraints. They pertain to access to finance, and resources to invest in infrastructure and skilling of the work-force. In addition, maintaining stable and competitive real exchange rates and engaging in prudent capital account management are essential to support the process of structural transformation and economic diversification in Africa.

### ***National employment policy and labour market institutions in Africa: Way forward***

After almost three decades of national development strategies based on growth and narrow orthodox macroeconomic policy framework, the chapter argues that a new shift in development planning is emerging which is prioritizing employment generation, especially for youth. Many African countries have already formulated or are in the process of formulating a national employment policy (NEP) which is increasingly linked to the poverty reduction strategy (PRS). Experience in many countries has shown the potential of policy interventions for restructuring the pattern of growth towards sustainable job-rich growth. The aim of NEPs is to present a clear strategic vision of the challenges facing the countries and enable to channel policy makers' efforts towards priority measures to promote employment and decent work. The chapter argues that prioritization of employment in PRS and national policy frameworks in general should be associated with explicit and quantitative employment targets in order to move beyond non-quantitative references to the importance of productive employment and decent work to the introduction of firm and measurable commitments to achieve these goals. The chapter stressed the challenge of youth employment and analyses some key components for job creation such as youth entrepreneurship, skills development, sustainable micro, small and medium enterprises or public employment programmes.

The chapter also addresses the issue of labour market institutions in Africa and how they interact with employment policies. Formal labour market institutions exist in Africa where most countries have a range of labour laws and regulations. However acknowledging the existence of formal labour market institutions is not sufficient. In particular, given the low shares of formal employment, regulations and labour laws such as minimum wages and employment protection legislation (EPL) are only applicable to a minority of workers. In Africa, it is estimated that as many as nine in ten rural and urban workers have informal jobs, and this is especially the case for women and young people, who have no other choice than the informal economy for their survival and livelihood. Moreover, formal labour market institutions in Africa must face not only the challenge of coverage but also the one of compliance.

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There is an acute controversy regarding formal labour regulations in Africa as a cause of the weakness of formal employment and growing informal employment in both the formal and informal sectors. The chapter emphasizes not only the methodological difficulties in identifying the costs of labour market institutions but also the beneficial role they can play in terms of protecting workers' employment conditions, and ultimately, improving both economy efficiency and distribution of incomes. It is indeed important to remember the goal of labour market institutions: these regulations seek to protect a particular dimension of employment because, in the absence of government intervention, the resulting market failure would be detrimental to the welfare of workers and the economy in general.

Finally the chapter addresses the issue of informality which is one of the key features of African countries' labour markets. At the root of the problem of the informal economy is the inability of African economies to create sufficient numbers of formal jobs. Trends show that formal employment growth is delinked from economic growth and has lagged behind the growth of the labour force; and these trends are likely to continue in future. The informal economy is operating in an environment marked by multidimensional public policies, complex formal/informal economy linkages, global economy trends and endogenous associative dynamics which are affecting in various ways: (i) the functioning and level of vulnerability of informal economy units; and (ii) the transition path to decent work and formality. The chapter argues that the first step toward designing effective interventions in African countries to improve conditions in informal forms of employment is to recognize the heterogeneity of informal activities. To facilitate transition to formality and decent work there is no universal policy framework to implement but a set of multidimensional policies which should target simultaneously three objectives: (i) Promoting formal employment; (ii) Reducing informal employment; and (iii) Increasing decent work in the informal economy. Finally, one of the promising paths in Africa to facilitate transition to formality and decent work is the development of the social economy. In a long term prospect, the social economy can provide complementary paths to development that bring together in a coherent manner the concerns of economic sustainability, social justice, ecological balance, political stability, conflict resolution and gender equality. And as social economy enterprise and organization can be found in both the formal and informal economy, they could link – or bridge – the informal to the formal economy.

### ***Promoting productive transformation: Sectoral strategies for job-rich growth***

The employment challenge for African countries is rooted in their inability to diversify their economy and promote productive employment for a fast-growing labour force while the need for it is dire, as much for human development as for economic development. As a consequence, there is a growing interest from African countries for pro-employment sectoral policies within integrated policy frameworks aimed at generating employment and have more inclusive growth paths. Productive structural transformations are crucial for sustainable development in Africa. While self-employment plays in the short-term a key role for securing livelihood of a vast number of workers, any long-term strategy to promote better living and working conditions for people should focus on the development of wage-employment. The chapter argues that sectoral targeting goes hand in hand with employment targeting. Thus, the new generation of development strategies in Africa needs to take employment generation and labour-intensity into account as key factors in determining which sectors to prioritize in policy interventions. The chapter presented some tools to both identifying priority sectors as sectors that generate a lot of value added and employment, and have large multiplier effects and linkages to the domestic economy. From this perspective, the chapter stresses the key role of labour intensive public investment in infrastructure as well as skills and human development to

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facilitate the process of productive transformation and accumulation of domestic capabilities. Finally, the chapter emphasizes the fact that any skills development policy should consider not only formal training programmes but also non-formal vocational training systems and apprenticeship schemes within the informal economy to support some value chains development.

### ***Agricultural development and productive transformation***

There is a long history of neglect and stagnation in agriculture in Africa. For example, in 17 out of 32 countries in SSA, per capita food production actually fell between 1990 and 2005. As a result, undernourishment remains endemic in SSA.

This neglect of agriculture appears in part to be the consequence of structural adjustment programmes that swept through SSA 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 resource. Trade liberalization in agriculture meant that local producers could not withstand international competition. Real exchange rate appreciation (most notably during 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.

But a bleak past does not forebode a bleak future. Past improvements in human resources are bearing fruit, while there has been a very welcome demographic transition. At the same time, the rule of law and quality of governance has improved across the region as has the record of macroeconomic stability. The numbers of newly infected cases with AIDs are levelling off. Country-specific experiences (e.g. Rwanda, Malawi and Ethiopia) suggest a resurgence of pro-agricultural policies and agricultural growth. This development now needs to be complemented with strategies to increase non-farm employment. Such a two-pronged approach can be a basis for sustainable and job-rich growth and should be complemented by inclusive human resource development strategies. A future challenge for SSA is the need to have proactive strategies in place that can enable the region to adapt to climate change.

### ***Exports, economic diversification and employment creation***

The discourse on industrial development and structural change in Africa usually highlight the high dependence on primary commodities and insufficiently diversified production structure of many, if not most, economies in the region. A corollary message is that unless such economies are able to engage in exports of manufactures, the twin goals of economic diversification and sustainable growth will remain unfulfilled aspirations. The lack of an export-led transformation manufacturing in SSA is sometimes related to the high cost of doing business in the region. The policy message seems to be that a reduction in the cost of doing business specifically related to the tradables goods sector might be the key to unlocking the export potential of SSA in the manufacturing sector.

There are those who question whether an East-Asian style industrialization strategy can be readily replicated in African conditions within a reasonable time-frame, especially for relatively small, low income, land-locked countries. Given that the bulk of the population derives their livelihood in agriculture, and given some natural location-specific advantages, promoting non-traditional and HVA agricultural exports might be a feasible

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diversification strategy for the medium-term. The key agenda of regional integration in Africa suggests, based on the case study presented here and a complementary exercise using a “product space approach”, that regional integration does indeed promote diversification within agriculture in a number of SSA countries. Hence, regional integration and export diversification complement each other.

Regional integration in SSA, once again based on the case study presented here, seem to create a trade-off between skilled and unskilled labour in the sense that deeper integration increases the demand for unskilled, rather than skilled labour. On the other hand, regional exporters at the firm-level seem to display characteristics in terms of wages, working conditions that skill profile of workers that are similar to global exporters. In any case, the appropriate policy response is not to impede the process of regional integration but to use the education and training system to alleviate potential deficits in skills. As an ILO study has shown, education and skills policies prepare the ground for new export products. Furthermore, lowering trading costs in the regional market could allow more firms to start exporting even if they are currently less productive and thus contribute to more employment generation from regional trade.

The chapter proceeds to provide a couple of sector-specific case studies from two SSA economies – Ethiopia and Rwanda – that are representative of land-locked low income countries that are heavily dependent on agriculture and export of a few primary commodities. The chapter documents some export success stories in the area of HVA agricultural commodities: cut flowers in the case of Ethiopia and specialty coffee in the case of Rwanda. In both cases, sector-specific support by the government played a role, while the lack of such support in another SSA country (Uganda) partly explains the collapse of cut flower exports after 2003.

The employment and social dimensions of these export success stories need to be probed further. Direct job creation is relatively modest in the specialty coffee sector, but the indirect benefits accruing to 500,000 Rwandan coffee producers might be significant. Incidentally, this is also the projected magnitude of job creation if Ethiopian cut flower exports double in the next few years, a feasible scenario given the extraordinary rapid growth of this nascent industry. What matters is the need to devise a “win-win” strategy by the government that will preserve the employment creating potential of the nascent exports while upholding labour and environmental standards.

### ***Challenges facing conflict-affected countries***

A number of African countries have been affected by fragility and armed conflict. They are marked by low growth rates of GDP, slow growth of agriculture and food production, slow growth of manufacturing and high levels of poverty. The chapter analyzes the specific policy approach ILO, along with its UN partners, has developed and adopted to assist country affected by armed conflict. It is the great strength of this new policy approach to conflict-affected countries to combine three concurrent or simultaneous tracks which, by their interaction, lead to income stabilization and emergency employment creation; recovery and reintegration; and sustainable employment creation along with decent work. The chapter addresses the three tracks approach and the issue of sequencing and combining: Track 1: Stabilization (stabilizing income generation and promoting emergency employment); Track 2: Local reintegration (local recovery of employment and reintegration); and Track 3: Transition (sustainable employment creation and decent work).

The chapter stresses the need in conflict-affected countries to adopt such an approach which is both context-specific and context sensitive. It aims at minimizing the negative impacts and maximizing the positive impacts of interventions, viewed from the perspective of reducing the risk of conflict. At the same time, it must move the country forward on the path to decent work when, in the aftermath of a conflict, the context begins to change,

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when there is progress towards stability, and when the other requirements for orderly policy development and implementation are in place.

### ***Social protection in Africa: Investing in people***

Sustainable economic and social development in Africa requires effective social protection policies as key investment in human development and a contribution to growth, productive employment and Decent Work. Many African countries at different levels of development have acknowledged the need to embark on more inclusive development paths which are based on a broad-based expansion of productive capacities and the well-being of the population, as reflected in various commitments at the level of the African Union, the ILO and the UN. Such efforts to create a more enabling environment for sustainable and inclusive economic growth require the investment in the human capital of the population throughout the life cycle through access to health, education and other social services, as well as at least a minimum level of income security that empowers people to engage in productive employment and income-generating investments.

The limited access to social protection mechanisms is one of the main policy challenges in achieving sustainable growth, productive employment and Decent Work in Africa. The ILO's two-dimensional strategy for the extension of social security, which includes the establishment of national social protection floors, emphasizes the importance of investing in people's social protection as a means to achieving substantial progress in poverty reduction and to realizing human right to social security for Africa's people. Such investments will help African countries to develop the full productive potential of the population, contribute to the formalization of employment, support economic and social change, foster sustainable and equitable growth, reduce vulnerability and boost economic and social development.

Various examples from a number of African countries have already embarked on the progressive extension of social security, and have included social protection as an indispensable – and feasible – element of a broad-based social and economic development strategy.

### ***International labour standards***

Fundamental values of freedom, human dignity, social justice, security and non-discrimination are essential for sustainable economic and social development and efficiency. The chapter argues that freedom of association, the right to collective bargaining, the right to equal treatment, the abolition of forced labour and child labour reflect not only fundamental human rights, but also essential conditions for stable and strong democracies and for sustainable social and economic development.

The global economic crises, the events in North Africa and the Middle East and, more generally, the ongoing need to face the growing challenges of globalization, underlines once again the continuing relevance of the international labour standards. Urgent measures need to be taken to address these concerns including the rights of women, migrant workers, domestic workers, workers in export-processing zones.

The chapter highlights that in Africa, only 12 ratifications are needed (out of 424) to reach a full regional ratification of the eight fundamental conventions. However, the major challenge for Africa remains translating commitments into effective protection and guarantees, with real enforcement of the relevant provisions. Many African countries have not yet fully developed the governance structures and institutions necessary for promoting the rule of law, implementing labour law reform and complying with international obligations, including ILO Conventions ratified by these countries. The labour inspection

systems are under-resourced, and thus function poorly. Moreover, trade unions and employers' organizations generally lack the capacity and resources necessary to enable them to function effectively and social dialogue institutions are weak.

## **Summary of policy guidelines**

<b>Policy area</b>	<b>Policy guidelines</b>
<b>Growth, employment and sectoral policies</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(1) Restructure patterns of growth toward inclusive and job-rich growth by focusing on sectoral and value chain interventions (for sectors with the highest employment generation potential).</li> <li>(2) Raise investment in manufacturing and in agriculture and promote sustainable enterprises.</li> <li>(3) Policies targeting the working poor, informal workers and micro and small entrepreneurs, through innovative public employment schemes, employment-intensive infrastructure investments, entrepreneurship promotion, minimum social protection floor schemes and transition to formality and decent work.</li> <li>(4) Foster a better balance between exports and domestic markets, to cushion the domestic economy from exogenous shocks and bring about sustainable growth.</li> <li>(5) Aim at a higher rate of domestic savings and investment to reduce dependence on external resources</li> <li>(6) Promote policy coherence by mainstreaming employment targeting and employment impact assessment in economic strategies at macro, sectoral and local levels.</li> </ol>
<b>Macroeconomic policies, job creation and poverty reduction</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(7) Devise a pro-employment and pro-poor macro-economic framework. This includes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Monetary and financial policies <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Central banks and financial authorities to aim for “reasonable price stability” with growth rather than a “one size fits all” target of low, single digit inflation.</li> <li>– Central banks and financial authorities to enhance financial inclusion by: (1) enhancing access to finance for the private sector; and (2) supporting growth of microfinance institutions.</li> </ul> </li> <li>■ Fiscal policy and debt sustainability: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Identify sustainable resources from both external and domestic sources to meet development goals.</li> <li>– Raise public investment in infrastructure to about 7% of GDP from current rates of 2% to 3%.</li> <li>– Improve the tax-to-GDP ratio and budgetary execution.</li> </ul> </li> <li>■ Exchange rate regimes and capital account management: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Develop institutional arrangements that can engender real exchange rate stability.</li> <li>– A prudent approach to capital account management in cases where unrestrained short capital flows become a destabilizing force.</li> </ul> </li> </ul> </li> </ol>
<b>Harnessing trade for growth, employment and poverty reduction</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(8) Since there is no single trade policy that is optimal, trade policy choices should depend on the level of development, the size of the market, and sequencing and timing issues.</li> <li>(9) Put in place social protection and minimum wage policies to cushion trade shocks and volatility, and protect the more vulnerable.</li> <li>(10) Strengthen regional integration and ensure that the global economy better accommodates African countries' trade needs and challenges.</li> <li>(11) Design industrial policy and sectoral strategies for export promotion where both general policies pertaining to efficient supply of public goods and services are combined with well designed sector-specific support.</li> </ol>
<b>Agriculture development</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(12) Reduce the yield gap between domestic and median global agricultural production, and invest in rural infrastructure and services.</li> <li>(13) Invest in a variety of agricultural techniques that maintain land productivity, returns and sustainability.</li> <li>(14) Promote non-traditional and high value-added agricultural exports as a core element of the export diversification strategy for the medium-term.</li> </ol>



Policy area	Policy guidelines
<b>Labour market institutions and transition to formality and decent work</b>	<p>(15) Promote the transition to formality and decent work by integrated interventions that attack the multiple drivers of informality and target three objectives simultaneously:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Promoting formal employment: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(i) Pro-employment macroeconomic policies.</li> <li>(ii) Pro-employment sectoral policies.</li> <li>(iii) Supporting formal sustainable MSMEs development.</li> </ul> </li> <li>■ Reducing informal employment: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(i) Reducing the cost of the transition to formality.</li> <li>(ii) increasing the benefits of being formal.</li> <li>(iii) increasing the cost of being informal.</li> </ul> </li> <li>■ Promoting decent work in the informal economy: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(i) Increasing productivity.</li> <li>(ii) Increasing capacities of workers from the informal economy to organize themselves.</li> <li>(iii) Providing a minimum social protection floor.</li> <li>(iv) Supporting the development of social economy enterprises and organizations.</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
<b>Public investment and public employment programmes</b>	<p>(16) Enhance investment in infrastructure and ensure that these investments are designed and implemented with the specific objective of boosting employment.</p> <p>(17) Take advantage of the significant innovations in the design and implementation of effective public employment programmes.</p>
<b>Promoting productive transformation through skills and capabilities development</b>	<p>(18) Increase the level of education and reduce the share of the population without schooling.</p> <p>(19) Promote diversification into new technologies and higher value-added manufacturing for increased productivity.</p> <p>(20) Take advantage of South-South cooperation to transfer appropriate technologies, importing cheaper capital goods and exporting low-technology goods.</p> <p>(21) Attract domestic and foreign investment in non-traditional tradable and support learning networks between domestic and foreign firms, such as value chains, joint ventures, clusters, industrial parks or business incubators.</p> <p>(22) Promote exports and use government procurement to enlarge markets for locally produced goods.</p> <p>(23) Develop the potential of the informal apprenticeship system and strengthen the institutional capabilities to provide training for advanced technologies.</p>
<b>Addressing the special problems of conflict-affected countries</b>	<p>(24) Put decent work at the centre of the recovery throughout peace consolidation process until it becomes the centre of the development effort.</p> <p>(25) Follow the UN policy for post conflict employment creation, income generation and reintegration (PCEIR)'s three track approach: income stabilization and emergency employment creation; recovery and reintegration; and sustainable employment creation along with decent work.</p> <p>(26) Advocate for a comprehensive employment policy, with components on training, migration and gender equality to help strengthening national commitment to decent work.</p> <p>(27) Pay attention to the dangers of path-dependence.</p> <p>(28) Aim, when necessary, to continue short term employment creation modalities (Track A) for longer than anticipated or restarted at a later date.</p> <p>(29) Give more attention to macroeconomic policy issues.</p>
<b>Social protection: Investing in people</b>	<p>(30) Step up efforts to extend social security to larger groups of the population.</p> <p>(31) Build national social protection floors based on a careful analysis of existing structures and mechanisms to exploit synergies, increase efficiency and smooth implementation.</p> <p>(32) Use broad social dialogue, involving social partners and other stakeholders, to develop and monitor national strategies for the extension of social security.</p> <p>(33) Base the establishment of national social protection floors on a detailed assessment of existing fiscal space, and ways of ensuring sufficient fiscal space in the future.</p> <p>(34) Resource-rich countries in Africa should explore better ways to channel some of the proceeds of their commodity exports into investments in social protection.</p>

Policy area	Policy guidelines
<b>International labour standards</b>	<p>(35) Give sufficient attention to strengthening institutional capacities, including the training of staff for the design, management and administration of national social security systems, and ensuring good governance of social security programmes.</p> <p>(36) Improve the promotion of the ratification and implementation in law and practice of Fundamental and Governance Conventions;</p> <p>(37) Pursue time-bound programmes to combat forced labour and child labour.</p> <p>(38) Design innovative schemes for the extension of protection to workers in the informal economy, including through more effective labour inspection systems;</p> <p>(39) Effectively extend representation rights to all vulnerable categories of workers, including rural workers, domestic workers, women, children, migrant workers and indigenous peoples.</p> <p>(40) Make a political commitment to achieve full employment and build or strive to build institutions necessary to ensure the realization of full employment taking into account C. 122;</p> <p>(41) Take advantage of ILO technical assistance to help reduce the implementation gap on international labour standards.</p>
<b>Social dialogue and developmental governance</b>	<p>(42) Commit to formulating and implementing policies through broad-based social dialogue and to improve the quality of governance and public services.</p>