TOWARDS INCLUSIVE AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT IN AFRICA THROUGH DECENT WORK

REPORT OF THE DIRECTOR-GENERAL
Towards inclusive and sustainable development in Africa through decent work
Towards inclusive and sustainable development in Africa through decent work

13th African Regional Meeting
Addis Ababa, Ethiopia,
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Report of the Director-General

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE
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<td>AfDB</td>
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<td>EAC</td>
<td>East African Community</td>
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<td>FAO</td>
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<td>GDP</td>
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<td>International Organization for Migration</td>
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<td>JLMP</td>
<td>Joint Labour Migration Programme</td>
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<td>MDG</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goal</td>
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<td>MNE</td>
<td>multinational enterprise</td>
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<td>SADC</td>
<td>Southern African Development Community</td>
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<td>small and medium-sized enterprise</td>
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Part I. Achieving sustainable development in Africa: Prospects and key challenges

Introduction

1. The 13th African Regional Meeting convenes at a critical moment. A new era has opened up, making the achievement of sustainable growth with decent work a realistic prospect. Africa can indeed reap the benefits of a demographic dividend and draw on the energy of its young women and men, who are better trained and have easier access to new technology and knowledge networks than ever before. The continent taken as a whole enjoys high economic growth and relatively stable macroeconomic conditions. There is evidence of strong entrepreneurial spirit along with recognition of the transformative role of social protection. Africa also possesses natural resources that are in chronic shortage globally. Though much potential is going untapped, precluding more inclusive and sustainable growth, a better future is possible provided that policies move in the right direction.

2. There is growing awareness of the benefits of such a policy shift. Employment and decent work loom large in Africa’s vision of the future. A number of key events have underscored the central role of decent work for achieving a new development paradigm for Africa. Such events include the African Union (AU) Extraordinary Summit on Employment and Poverty Alleviation in Africa (Ouagadougou, September 2004); the Conference of African Ministers of Finance, Planning and Economic Development (Abuja, May 2005); the Conference of African Ministers (Ouagadougou, May 2006); and the 11th and 12th ILO African Regional Meetings held in Addis Ababa (April 2007) and Johannesburg (October 2011), respectively. More recently, the AU adopted a declaration making decent work a central goal of economic and social policies (January 2015) and it launched Agenda 2063, which provides a vision for seizing new development and investment opportunities.

3. In addition, the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development represents a major landmark for the ILO’s tripartite constituents to make the Decent Work Agenda a national, subregional and regional objective. Already, decent work is central to the post-2015 framework. The outcome of the Financing for Development Conference of July 2015 and the United Nations (UN) Climate Change Conference will also give direction to these efforts.

4. Importantly, Africa has gained greater policy space. The majority of African countries have weathered the global crisis, the prolonged recession in many advanced economies and the more recent slowdown in Asia and Latin America – key markets for African products – much better than would have been predicted on the basis of earlier experience. There is renewed interest in deepening economic integration among African countries, with a view to mobilizing internal engines of economic growth and job creation and making the continent less dependent on external factors.
5. Actively creating and using the policy space is all the more critical because, despite the strong economic gains recorded over the past decade and the many new opportunities for Africa, major challenges remain and significant decent work gaps persist. The 12th Regional Meeting in 2011 observed in its conclusions that economic growth alone was not sufficient to boost employment and certainly not decent jobs – the present situation bears this out.

6. One challenge ahead is to use tripartism more effectively to ensure that the policy space is indeed used to advance decent work and productive employment objectives.

7. Another major challenge is that many enterprises continue to suffer from low productivity, especially in the informal economy and rural areas. Tackling this challenge is of paramount importance for improving living standards for African women and men. Foreign investment and the exploitation of natural resources are unevenly connected to the rest of the economy, with the risk of narrow-based development and limited benefits to populations.

8. Progress has also been unequal across countries. In some regions, social unrest has intensified and political tensions remain acute. This has also resulted in mass emigration of talented Africans.

9. The focus of the 13th African Regional Meeting should be to draw lessons from the past and plot the way forward, notably as regards how to overcome key obstacles to the implementation of the Decent Work Agenda so as to pave the way for a better economic and social future. The result should be clear directions for ILO presence in Africa. The ILO’s Programme and Budget for 2016–17 has defined priority outcomes for the Organization. A number of the substantive areas have been identified by constituents as being particularly urgent for Africa, including those on the formalization of the informal economy, promoting sustainable enterprises, creating and extending social protection floors, and decent work in the rural economy. The Regional Meeting has the opportunity to take into account the particular circumstances in Africa, including the fragility and conflict in a number of countries, and to tailor responses to the region.

10. This Meeting also has an opportunity and responsibility to look beyond the years leading up to the ILO’s second century – and indeed the next Regional Meeting will take place in 2019, when the Organization crosses that threshold. It demands greater vision and bold action from delegates in this dynamic region, which is also one of contrasts of wealth, resources and capacity.

11. The ILO has launched centenary initiatives – on governance, the end to poverty, transition to a green economy, enterprises, women at work, the role of international labour standards, and the future of work – which are relevant to Africa. Given the ongoing transformations in the world of work, it is essential that the voice and experience of Africa are heard with respect to the Future of Work Initiative.

12. Part II of this Report focuses in detail on progress towards achieving the targets set out in the Decent Work Agenda in Africa: 2007–2015 (DWAA). Almost ten years after the launch of the DWAA, what is the overall outlook? What has been achieved and what impedes faster progress, despite higher economic growth? These broader questions are taken up in the next two sections, before presenting some considerations on future ILO activity in Africa.
Part I. Achieving sustainable development in Africa

Progress made since the start of the Decent Work Agenda in Africa: 2007–2015

13. The 11th Regional Meeting in 2007 formally adopted the DWAA, which included commitments to make decent work a reality, notably through the adoption of Decent Work Country Programmes (DWCP). It also encouraged cooperation with partner agencies with a view to achieving the UN Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), which are now ending.

Major achievements have been recorded since 2007 …

14. Since 2007, the African continent taken as a whole has made significant economic progress. It has enjoyed an unprecedentedly long spell of growth of 4.5 per cent per year on average, with 25 per cent of countries posting 6 per cent or higher average annual growth rates and another 47 per cent of countries recording growth rates of 3.5 to 6 per cent. Over the past two years, Africa has been the world’s fastest growing continent.

15. Today, on average, people in Africa enjoy 11 per cent higher incomes than in 2011 and 15 per cent higher than in 2007, when the DWAA was launched. This is the strongest increase recorded globally, after Asia. By contrast, real income had declined in the 1980s and 1990s, which came to be perceived by many as lost decades bearing the scars of the implementation of “structural adjustment” programmes.

16. New technology has made inroads into the continent, to an extent that few might have predicted. The number of Internet users has almost doubled over the past three years and, from Nigeria to South Africa, there is a burgeoning start-up scene. Some indicators suggest that entrepreneurship in Africa is more intense than in all other regions. For instance, in 2012, the percentage of Africans running a new business was significantly higher than in Asia or Latin America. ¹ On the other hand, the incidence of formal enterprises is relatively low. This suggests that Africa does not suffer from a lack of entrepreneurship. Rather, the challenge is to harness the mushrooming small businesses initiatives so that they grow, formalize, achieve a critical mass and become engines of decent work creation.

17. The stock of foreign direct investment (FDI) is one sixth higher than in 2011 and three-quarters higher than in 2007. Natural resources make for the bulk of FDI. Recently, however, agriculture and services have attracted some significant investment inflows. Countries in Africa are increasingly able to access global financial markets, which have in many instances helped to alleviate the funding requirements for much-needed public investments. FDI now exceeds official development assistance. Roughly a quarter of FDI comes from large emerging economies in Asia and Latin America, notably China – which is now Africa’s largest trading partner.

18. However, greater integration with the global financial and economic system also leaves the region vulnerable to developments elsewhere, including capital flow risks associated with changes in monetary policies in advanced economies or increased exposure to slowdowns in major emerging economies.

19. Some encouraging progress has also been made in terms of poverty alleviation. The incidence of extreme poverty – defined as incomes of less than US$1.25 a day – increased from 51 per cent in 1981 to 58 per cent in 1999. It has declined by almost 12 percentage points since then.

20. A middle class is emerging. According to the ILO World Employment and Social Outlook – Trends 2015 report, it has increased in size by almost half since 2000. There is a larger middle class in Northern Africa than in sub-Saharan Africa. But in most countries the evidence points to the emergence of an urban, educated and dynamic middle class. If sustained, this process will generate significant new opportunities for the economy and society.

21. Educational attainment has improved significantly, with 41 per cent of young sub-Saharan Africans attaining secondary education according to the most recent indicators, compared with 26 per cent in 2000. In Northern Africa, almost 80 per cent of young people achieve secondary education and 31 per cent tertiary education.

22. Looking ahead, Africa has the potential to become the main engine of job creation in the world. Indeed, it is critically important that it does so. Over the next 15 years, one in three new entrants to the global labour market will be African (see figure 1). If new entrants are equipped with the right skills and have access to decent work opportunities, the continent can become a magnet for sustainable enterprises, investment and business innovation. Africa can be at the vanguard in implementing the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.

Figure 1. African labour market entrants as a share of total global labour market entrants

Note: The figure presents the change in the working-age population (aged 15–64) in Africa as a share of the change in the working-age population for the world as a whole.
... aided by increased policy space

23. There are also encouraging signs that with growing recognition of the role of decent work policies in promoting balanced and sustainable development,\(^2\) Africa is becoming a source of policy innovation. *First*, there is increasing emphasis on policies to tackle low-productivity traps, which lie at the heart of underdevelopment. This includes measures to promote employment-intensive infrastructure that have the double benefit of boosting job creation and enhancing productive capacity.

24. In addition, decent work is critical for tackling low-productivity traps that arise when skilled workers and dynamic entrepreneurs are confined to situations that do not allow them to maximize their economic potential. One important challenge is the high incidence of informal and undeclared enterprises in urban areas in many African countries. Tackling informality is critical for connecting export-led sectors with the rest of the economy and improving the position of Africa in global value chains.

25. Recent years have seen several interesting attempts to address high rates of informality through innovative combinations of tax, social protection and labour market policies. Rwanda is an interesting case in point, where more than 10,000 moto-taxi drivers, who are predominately young men, belong to one of two associations for motorcyclists. These associations enable access to social protection as well as provide credit, and operate driving schools for their members. Furthermore, organizing workers from the informal economy and encouraging enterprises in the informal economy to come together in production clusters or cooperatives have proven to be effective ways to increase decent work in the informal economy.\(^3\) In the rural economies of the continent, cooperatives and their apex organizations have played a critical role not only in production, but also processing, storage, transport and marketing for export, greatly improving returns to their members.\(^4\)

26. Meanwhile, efforts have been made to boost productive employment in rural areas. Ethiopia’s Productive Safety Net Programme, though not a full employment guarantee, entitles the poorest households selected to participate in the scheme for a minimum number of days of public works for the duration of the programme or until they graduate from support. In doing so, the programme aims to develop rural infrastructure, rehabilitate land and improve watershed management, thus contributing to increased agricultural productivity. Cooperative enterprises, such as savings and credit cooperatives or burial societies, also provide complementary mechanisms of job creation and social protection.\(^5\)


27. A major challenge of such initiatives is to assure replicability and scaling up of experience. In this regard, the ILO has launched programmes to promote renewable sources of energy while boosting decent work, for example, in Côte d’Ivoire, Mozambique and Zambia.

28. Second, there is awareness that social protection not only serves to protect vulnerable members of the population, but also – if well designed – boosts domestic sources of growth and individual capabilities. The priority given to social protection for inclusive growth by the Heads of State at the 25th AU Summit in June 2015 underscores the importance of social protection on the continent, and the ILO Social Protection Floors Recommendation, 2012 (No. 202), has become central to policy debate and action in this area.

29. This, too, has been an area of considerable policy innovation in Africa. Mauritius introduced the Transitional Unemployment Benefit in 2009. This contributory unemployment insurance scheme – still unusual in Africa – provides benefits for up to one year, as well as job placement and training components, and complements an already comprehensive offer of social security for all. Rwanda’s recent conversion of community health schemes into a national health insurance scheme has resulted in near universal health coverage. Northern African countries, notably Morocco, have provided interesting examples of formalization of the informal economy through the adoption of special and subsidized social security schemes for groups normally difficult to cover, such as own-account workers and domestic workers. Algeria introduced an innovative financing mechanism through an earmarked tax.

30. Rwanda is the first country on the continent to introduce paid maternity leave. Namibia, Tunisia and Zambia are exploring similar schemes. A number of countries are in the process of introducing work injury compensation benefits.

31. Social assistance has expanded in many African countries. In South Africa, coverage of the non-contributory social pension reached 65 per cent of the population over 60 years old, while the child support grant, introduced in 1998, reached more than 10 million of the poorest children by 2010. Botswana and Namibia provide comparable universal benefits. And Niger’s 3N initiative *Les Nigériens nourissent les Nigériens* provides an innovative approach, combining social protection and job support for the rural population.

32. In Cabo Verde, meanwhile, the expansion of both non-contributory and contributory pension schemes in recent years means that more than 90 per cent of the population over 60 now receives a pension.

33. Minimum wages are also a vital mechanism for increasing demand and promoting good jobs, as reported in the ILO *Global Wage Report*. This is an area where

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Part I. Achieving sustainable development in Africa

coverage is often inadequate. Yet countries like Zambia have shown how to extend coverage of minimum wages, notably through new legislation introduced in 2011.\(^9\)

34. Third, the rights and social dialogue pillars of decent work are ends in themselves and means of empowerment for the realization of other goals, and there are encouraging signs that this has not been forgotten. Core labour standards and rights at work are enabling conditions to promote equity. In doing so, they have the potential to end poverty and alleviate inequalities. To date, 46 out of 54 countries in Africa have ratified all eight of the ILO’s fundamental Conventions,\(^10\) – a strong expression of commitment – although enforcement of these Conventions varies considerably.

35. Social dialogue, founded on a right to organize in freedom brings diverse voices to the table in a quest for balanced and just outcomes, and consequently also plays an essential role in promoting inclusive development. Experience shows that there is no one-size-fits-all, but rather a decent work strategy has to adapt to initial conditions and country circumstances. Social dialogue is a key instrument in facilitating compromise between the social partners and building reform capacity. As a recent example, the new social contract in Tunisia signed by government, union and employer representatives in 2013, on the second anniversary of the Arab Spring uprisings, has placed social dialogue at the centre of good governance in the country.

36. It is encouraging that many countries in Africa recently undertook to create a framework for tripartite social dialogue and policy concertation or to upgrade existing ones as a means to enhance participatory governance and consolidate social peace. This was the case in countries such as Senegal, with the creation of the High Council of Social Dialogue in 2014; in Burundi, with the establishment of the National Committee on Social Dialogue in 2013; in Seychelles, with the revitalization of the National Consultative on Employment and Labour in 2013; and in Malawi, with the launch of the Tripartite Labour Advisory Council in 2015. Other countries undertook to amend their legislation in order to strengthen collective bargaining, such as Rwanda in 2015.

37. To date, mechanisms for national social dialogue, including economic and social councils, have been set up in some 38 African countries, though to varying degrees.

38. Also noteworthy is that at subregional level, tripartite mechanisms for social dialogue have been put in place, notably with respect to the West African Economic and Monetary Union, the Economic Community of West African States and the Southern African Development Community (SADC).

39. The ILO assisted many of these initiatives. Anchoring social dialogue in the national institutional set up and governance is a good investment for the future. If used effectively, these social dialogue institutions can help African countries to consolidate democracy, prevent social conflicts (which have been increasing in many countries, especially in the public sector), promote peace, and improve the functioning of the labour market.

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However decent work gaps remain significant …

40. The challenge confronting the 13th African Regional Meeting is to agree on the action required to convert the undeveloped potential in Africa’s current circumstances into development processes that respond to ILO principles of social justice and to give expression to its Decent Work Agenda. Not all African countries, not all citizens, are benefiting from the strong economic growth record. The disparities are great, and in some instances growing. Progress in achieving decent work is lagging behind economic success. What is clearly visible is that economic growth is not inclusive enough, excluding millions from the dignity of work, exacerbating inequalities and ultimately narrowing the foundations for sustainable development. Failure to convert these deficits will even threaten the progress already recorded.

41. Africa remains the world’s poorest continent, with 34 of the 48 UN-designated least developed countries. The fundamental principle in the ILO Constitution that “poverty anywhere constitutes a danger to prosperity everywhere” continues to resonate as a call to action. This is compounded by the presence of marked inequality. The wealthiest, and, in particular, the owners of natural resources, benefit disproportionately from the dynamic growth context. Of the 839 million working poor in the world, 214 million, that is one in four, live in Africa. And as noted earlier, progress in achieving the MDGs in Africa has been uneven (see box 1).

42. All of this reflects the imbalances that continue to plague African labour markets. Most enterprises and jobs are informal or vulnerable. In addition, the productivity gap between informal enterprises and their formal counterparts is especially wide in Africa. 11 This is a key fact that helps to explain the persistence of poverty traps for many women and men. The high incidence of informal/low productivity enterprises reflects deficiencies in general business regulations, access to finance, skills and lifelong learning and infrastructure. 12

43. Labour incomes have lagged behind economic performance. According to the Global Wage Report 2014/15, wages grew by less than 1 per cent in 2013, which is less than in Asia or Latin America. 13

44. Vulnerable employment levels – which include own-account and unpaid family work – are the highest across all regions. Nearly eight out of ten working people in sub-Saharan Africa are in vulnerable forms of employment. This is nearly twice as high as the world average, and African women are over-represented in the ranks of the vulnerable.

45. Youth unemployment has remained stubbornly high and has even increased in Northern Africa. It is a key factor in emigration pressures.

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12 For more details see www.ilo.org/eese.

13 Real wages declined by 5.5 per cent in 2011 and grew by 1.2 per cent in 2012.
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Box 1 – Progress towards the Millennium Development Goals in Africa

The North Africa region achieved MDG 1 five years earlier than planned by reducing extreme poverty (those living on less than US$1.25/day) from 5 per cent in 1990 to less than 1 per cent in 2015. By contrast, the rate of extreme poverty in Africa excluding North Africa has shown a more modest decline, thereby missing the target of halving extreme poverty. Furthermore, slow rates of poverty reduction, alongside high population growth rates, mean that the absolute number of Africans living in poverty is estimated to have increased from 290 million in 1990 to 414 million in 2010.

However, these aggregate figures mask considerable variation over time and between countries. The poverty rate in sub-Saharan Africa increased during the 1990s and did not fall below its 1990 level until 2002, while progress in poverty reduction has accelerated considerably from 2005 compared to the previous period. Furthermore, six countries had already achieved MDG 1 by 2010, namely Cameroon, Egypt, Gambia, Guinea, Senegal and Tunisia, while Ethiopia, Mauritania and Uganda were close to achieving the target by 2015. Only Angola, Ghana, Malawi and Rwanda had achieved the target on hunger reduction by 2013, although many others had made significant progress towards it.

The sub-Saharan Africa region made great progress towards the goal of universal primary education (MDG 2). Net enrolment rates increased from 52 per cent in 1990 to 80 per cent in 2015, with the number of children enrolled more than doubling from 62 million to 149 million over the same period. Again, this masks a significant acceleration since 2000, with an increase of 20 percentage points between 2000 and 2015, compared to an increase of just 8 per cent in 1990–2000. In terms of gender equality, by 2015, 93 girls were enrolled in primary school for every 100 boys, compared with only 85:100 in 2000. North Africa has also made considerable progress in primary education, going from 80 per cent enrolment in 1990 to near universal primary education in 2015.

The percentage of workers living in poverty declined significantly. Gender inequality in access to paid employment in North Africa is the highest of all regions, with the percentage of women in non-agricultural wage employment remaining at 19 per cent since 1990. In sub-Saharan Africa, the comparable figure has increased from 24 to 34 per cent in 1990–2015.

North Africa is one of just three regions to meet target 4.A of reducing under-5 mortality by two-thirds. The mortality rate for children under 5 dropped by 67 per cent between 1990 and 2015. In sub-Saharan Africa, a reduction of 52 per cent was achieved over the same period. Large declines in maternal mortality have also been achieved in both regions, with reductions of 49 per cent in sub-Saharan Africa and 57 per cent in North Africa between 1990 and 2015, although these achievements fall short of the target of a reduction of 75 per cent.

46. Emigration rates in Africa are the highest among all regions. And there is evidence that lack of decent work opportunities – rather than low economic growth – is a major determinant of involuntary migration. When the effects of conflict and environmental degradation are added, the imperative for action to offer alternatives to involuntary migration becomes all the more compelling. In the recent migrant crisis, a large proportion of migrant flows across the Mediterranean States have been from the “Horn of Africa” countries.

47. Though remittances account for a significant share of GDP (more than 50 per cent of GDP in fragile States), their impact on local development is often weak. Remittances must be strategically set to offset the loss of human capital, as migrants are increasingly skilled but unable to find decent jobs.


48. There are also considerable concerns related to the risk of human trafficking and forced labour. Illegal trafficking of vulnerable women is unacceptable. Significant health hazards are related to the movement of persons across borders, as seen in the recent migration attempts through the Mediterranean Sea to Europe.

49. While a dynamic, export-oriented agricultural sector has emerged, the vast majority of workers in Africa are located in small unproductive subsistence farms and face the prospect of persistent poverty. Their income prospects are also strongly affected by environment degradation. Rural backwardness persists, exacerbating inequalities and depriving African economies of a major source of sustainable development.

50. Despite the considerable progress in coverage of social protection systems in Africa in recent years, large gaps remain and Africa continues to have the lowest coverage of any region across all branches of social protection. For example, in 2013, it is estimated that 35.1 per cent of the working-age population of sub-Saharan Africa were legally covered by some form of pension scheme. However, as a result of implementation failures, just 16.6 per cent were covered in practice. Unemployment insurance schemes are limited to Algeria, Egypt, Mauritius and South Africa and, for the most part, only reach formal sector employees.

51. To these general challenges, the period since the last African Regional Meeting has seen the biggest Ebola virus outbreak ever, and Africa also continues to be disproportionately affected by HIV and AIDS, accounting for 71 per cent of all people living with HIV globally. Women account for 58 per cent of all persons living with HIV in Africa and treatment is only available to four in ten people in the region. People living with HIV currently experience unemployment rates three times higher than the national average.

52. Notwithstanding the above, the number of deaths from HIV in sub-Saharan Africa fell by 39 per cent between 2005 and 2013. New infections are declining and the last three years have witnessed a rapid expansion in antiretroviral coverage. This encouraging momentum must be built on to facilitate the end of AIDS as a public health threat on the continent by 2030.

53. Building on the commitments contained in the DWAA and scaling up integrated HIV action would advance the progress made and mitigate the impact of the epidemic on the labour force. In a competitive funding environment, AIDS funding should be used as an entry point to strengthen systems while addressing broader issues of human rights, gender equality, inclusive employment, sustainable development and poverty reduction.


Part I. Achieving sustainable development in Africa

... requiring action to remove obstacles to decent work in order to ensure sustainable development

54. In short, the African growth successes of recent years are not grounds for a business-as-usual approach to the continent’s development agenda, because, without a major policy reorientation, Africa faces the prospect of unsustainable development and a failure to realize the full potential of the continent. Continuing along the established trajectory would mean growth based on a narrow set of activities, often driven by natural resources and offering limited opportunities for enterprise expansion, productivity growth and decent work.

55. Meanwhile inequalities would be exacerbated, with consequences that are already visible today, including disorderly migration and internal socio-political tensions. Certain countries could be destabilized, providing fertile ground for movements that thrive on insecurity and despair. It is important to note that half of all existing fragile States are located in Africa.

56. Africa can do better, and to do so must overcome the fundamental problems inherent in a model of economic growth that is not inclusive enough. Balanced and sustainable development entails two main challenges: boosting economic growth and ensuring broad and equitable distribution of the gains from growth. Experience shows that these challenges cannot be achieved simultaneously without decent work and that lesson is fully reflected in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. So what are the obstacles to further progress on the DWAA, and how can they be overcome?

57. First, a sufficient volume of domestic resources must be invested effectively in decent work policies. Those resources are required to establish and maintain the labour market institutions that are essential to the implementation of such policies and needed to support sustainable enterprises, extend social protection floors and invest in jobs and skills. At the same time, the realization of decent work reinforces that funding base. This investment can set off a virtuous circle in which the realization of decent work itself generates an expanded funding base.

58. Yet in many African countries government revenues do not even reach 15 per cent of GDP, which may be considered the bare minimum for a State to fulfil its most rudimentary functions, with more resources needed to finance adequately labour market policies and social security systems. The recent UN Conference on Financing for Development provided an important reminder in this respect.

59. On average, government revenues represent 21 per cent of GDP in sub-Saharan Africa, compared with almost 26 per cent in developing Asia and 30 per cent in Latin America and the Caribbean taken as a whole. Government revenues as a percentage of GDP fall as low as 11 and 12 per cent in certain countries. This is not a realistic basis for successful development, and a greater investment effort should be feasible in the light of the high growth percentage of many African countries. With official development aid constituting only 8 per cent of financial flows to developing countries, realizing decent work also depends on successful domestic resource mobilization.

60. The Ebola outbreak has aggravated the situation, with substantial deleterious effects on the economies and public finances of the affected countries. According to estimates by the United Nations Development Programme, the economic growth rate in 2014 plummeted from 4.5 to 1.6 per cent in Guinea, 5.9 to -1.8 per cent in Liberia, and
Towards sustainable and inclusive growth in Africa through decent work

11.4 to 7.4 per cent in Sierra Leone. Before the Ebola outbreak, Sierra Leone was the fastest growing economy in West Africa. At a time when there is an urgent need to boost growth and job creation, the immediate effect of declining inward capital flows will be increased pressure on external reserves and exchange rates, prompting fiscal adjustments, which could compromise investment commitments and social spending.

61. Second, despite recent efforts, Africa still lacks the institutional and implementation capacity to support productive employment and decent work. Success depends crucially on legal enforcement, protection against abusive contracts and illicit resource flows, efficacy and integrity in government. Without the necessary institutional underpinnings, labour legislation, rules and regulations are likely to remain without effect, all the more so when large enterprises of the workforce are engaged in informal activities.

62. For example, of the countries for which data are available in Africa, 90 per cent have a legal minimum wage, 18 60 per cent have legislation requiring the Government to consult with a specialized body in setting the minimum wage, 17 per cent require the Government to consult the social partners, and 8 per cent require minimum wages to be collectively bargained. In 55 per cent of countries, minimum wages are set by sector, 35 per cent of countries have a 40 weekly working hours limit; 27 per cent have a limit of 42–45 hours; and 29 per cent a limit of 48 hours. Regarding overtime restrictions, 55 per cent of countries have a maximum weekly working hours limit set at less than 59 hours, and 20 per cent at 60 hours or more. But without the necessary means of enforcement, realities of work may differ substantially from these legal requirements. Achieving decent work requires that the necessary institutional capacities be put in place.

63. Likewise, as noted, despite the larger potential tax base permitted by higher economic growth, the coverage of social protection remains inadequate in Africa. This too reflects the weaknesses of existing institutions and implementation mechanisms, as noted in the ILO World Social Protection Report 2014–15. 19

64. Stronger institutional capacity is also required to ensure full compliance with ratified international labour standards, and, in particular, those that define fundamental rights at work. Africa’s rate of ratification of the eight core labour standards stands very high. But with implementation lagging behind, that is no guarantee that rights are fully respected in practice. There are reportedly cases of child labour abuse, forced labour, outright discrimination and denial of basic workers’ rights, even in resource-rich areas that enjoy high economic growth and a vibrant investment climate. Such practices are unacceptable and they need to cease quickly.

65. Full exercise of these rights, and particularly those relating to freedom of association, is a key precondition for effective tripartism and social dialogue, followed by the existence and operation of independent, strong and representative organizations of workers and of employers. There are considerable methodological challenges to monitoring these variables in Africa, notably the limited data available on trade union density and membership, and the almost complete absence of data on membership of

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employers’ associations. Of the 12 African countries for which data are available, the highest rates of trade union density as a proportion of wage and salaried workers are: 70 per cent in Ghana (2006), 46.8 per cent in Sierra Leone (2008) and 39.8 per cent in South Africa (2008).

66. However, given the structure of labour markets in Africa, with large rural and informal sectors, trade union density as a proportion of total employment is much lower: the highest levels are 24.9 per cent of total employment in South Africa (2008), 16.1 per cent in Egypt (2007) and 14.8 per cent in Mauritius (2007). For all other available countries, trade union density as a proportion of total employment is less than 5 per cent. Too frequently, excessive fragmentation of trade union movements can reduce their effectiveness below what might be deduced from these levels of representation. Meanwhile, the proportion of workers in employment whose pay or conditions are determined by collective agreements – or collective bargaining coverage – is highest in South Africa, at 17.1 per cent. Indeed, South Africa is the only country, for which data are available, where collective bargaining coverage is greater than 10 per cent of total employment.

67. These circumstances underline how fundamentally important it is for Africa to promote the strength of its workers’ and employers’ organizations and the mechanisms that bring them into genuine and effective tripartite interaction. It will require a major technical effort to combine capacity building, political will, and commitment to open processes that reinforce participation and democracy. But it is an effort that Africa can ill afford to pass over.

68. Third, Africa is not sufficiently integrated economically and there is scope for nurturing the enterprise environment. There has been recognition of the advantages to be had from greater regional and subregional economic integration in Africa. These advantages include increased scope for tackling low-productivity traps, tapping internal sources of development and including large segments of the population – notably in rural areas and the informal economy – in economic growth.

69. However, at present, intra-African trade still represents little more than 10 per cent of the region’s total trade. This low rate brings significant disadvantages, including low rates of investment and high vulnerability to external shocks.

70. Moreover, most countries on the continent remain heavily dependent on exports of primary commodities to advanced economies and a few emerging markets. Brazil, China and India collectively account for approximately 38.3 per cent of all sub-Saharan African exports. Fuels, including oil and coal, constitute a large share of the exports to these countries, accounting for approximately 55.6 per cent of the region’s total export earnings in 2013, while non-fuel commodities, such as copper, platinum and gold, account for a further 24.8 per cent. The recent decline in commodity prices has already put serious strain on growth and public finance in many countries of the region. For example, in Nigeria the fiscal breakeven point is estimated to lie above US$100 per barrel of oil.

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whereas, at the time of writing, prices stood at less than half that level. Difficult political transitions, security challenges and rising regional conflicts continue to weigh on the economic prospects of North Africa. This has fuelled social tensions, political turmoil and involuntary migration.

71. More generally, it is essential to create a favourable environment for sustainable enterprises within a dynamic private sector, which must be the essential motor of successful development. The ILO has developed a range of tools that address some of the key impediments to the growth of small and informal businesses. These include a global approach to promoting an enabling environment, entrepreneurship training, value chain development, and a programme that supports small and medium-sized enterprise (SME) expansion and working conditions.

72. An overly narrow base of economic growth is likely to reflect a corresponding concentration of economic power and restricted access to financial resources, and thus hamper entrepreneurship. It also undermines the funding base of development. Promoting transitions to formal enterprises would be crucial for meeting financing for development goals.

73. In sum, long-standing approaches to development, based heavily on export-led growth, seem unlikely to offer sufficient opportunity for sustainable and inclusive growth. Economies that rely heavily on commodity exports may enjoy strong economic growth, particularly during periods of favourable external conditions. However, in addition to the inherent volatility and uncertainties involved, such growth is unlikely to trickle down more broadly and therefore has limited potential to contribute to broader developmental objectives. Development paths based on low-quality jobs present significant social risks but also face the very real risk of leading to low productivity traps and resulting in the emigration of educated youth. By putting decent work at the core of policy-making, the prospects for growth with equity, and thus sustainable development, will improve.

Moving forward with decent work for sustainable development in Africa

74. Conditions are in place for Africa to be the driver of the success of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Indeed, Africa has the resources, the demographic dynamics and the policy space to take up a new and dynamic role in the world economy. The ILO has reorganized itself, aligned its priorities with those of Africa, and is now better placed to make its knowledge base and services available to its constituents. The multilateral system has become more aware of the role of decent work and sustainable enterprises as drivers of development.

75. The potential is there, and this African Regional Meeting can have the opportunity to be the catalyst for action for its realization. Making real progress will require more than an intensification of past efforts. The earlier approach, focused on faster economic growth, aided notably by trade liberalization, foreign direct investment and improved educational attainment, has helped to alleviate poverty, but it has not triggered the major improvements in decent work on which equitable and sustainable development depends.

76. Wherever African countries choose to centre their action – urban or rural areas, agriculture or industry, services or manufacturing – a shift in the policy strategy for
sustainable development requires, first and foremost, a clear commitment to making decent work a central goal. This is a precondition for diversifying the foundations of development for Africa and sharing its fruits widely and fairly.

77. The ILO stands ready to take up its responsibilities in making this agenda happen. But success will depend on the full ownership and engagement of the Organization’s tripartite constituents in an agreed programme of action over the next four years, which will lead to the next African Regional Meeting and the ILO’s centenary in 2019. This Meeting is the opportunity to design that programme and to commit together to its implementation.

Purpose

78. Since the adoption of the DWAA in 2007, member States, the ILO, social partners and other strategic partners have implemented various DWCP interventions towards achieving the 17 targets. As its contribution to the Ouagadougou follow-up mechanism, which calls for a general evaluation of the Summit decisions in 2009 and 2014, the ILO and its constituents were tasked with reviewing progress on the road to 2015 in order to identify and share best practices as well as address shortcomings. More specifically, the 11th African Regional Meeting (Addis Ababa, 2007) called on the ILO to “report on the implementation and achievement of these targets at the next African Regional Meeting”. In fulfilment of this requirement and to distil the key lessons learnt from the first five years of programme implementation support, the ILO undertook a critical mid-term internal review of the implementation of the Decent Work Agenda for the 2007–10 period. The findings were presented in the Report of the Director-General to the 12th African Regional Meeting (Johannesburg, 2011).

79. The mid-term review concluded that the targets seemed to be rather ambitious. Nevertheless, the 12th African Regional Meeting recognized that progress had been made in implementing the DWAA and acknowledged that some of the targets lagged behind; in particular those related to gender equality, youth employment, labour migration, forced labour, HIV and AIDS at the workplace, social protection and implementation of international labour standards. The meeting expressed deep concern about the fact that the African continent, despite its significant economic growth, was still plagued by crises such as rising youth unemployment, persistent poverty, growing inequality, widespread informality and precarious work. It stressed the need to fast-track mainstreaming of the Decent Work Agenda and accelerate the implementation of the DWAA.

80. Decent job creation has not been sufficient to absorb the working-age population in all African countries. In most countries, the positive economic growth of 2004–13 has not translated into jobs. Although African economies have been growing at an average rate of 5.3 per cent, growth in employment has lagged behind. In some countries, the linkages between economic growth and job creation have been weak. In others, the political situation has negatively affected international investments and economic activity, thereby fuelling unemployment.

81. The purpose of this review is to document the progress made towards achieving the DWAA targets during the 2007–15 period, and present this information to the ILO, its tripartite constituents and key partners. Its four specific objectives are to:

- determine the effectiveness of constituents in achieving agreed targets and other commitments as per the 11th and 12th African Regional Meetings;

• assess the contributions made by the ILO and other development partners in supporting the DWAA implementation process;

• identify the factors that facilitate or impede progress towards achievement of the targets; and

• propose strategic recommendations on the way forward and distil any lessons and best practices into informed decision-making at the national, subregional and regional levels.

82. The review covered all 17 targets and all countries in the Africa region, as well as subregional/continental bodies involved in the implementation of the DWAA.

Evaluation methodology

83. The review process was inclusive, involving ILO tripartite constituents and internal and external key stakeholders. It adopted a multiple-method approach that included desk reviews, secondary and primary data collection using questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, and group discussions during field visits to member States and ILO offices.

• Secondary data was collected through desk reviews of published and unpublished documents from ILO and other various sources related to the DWAA over the period being examined. An information platform was set up to facilitate the mapping, identification, collection and sharing (with all the offices) of relevant documentation and other secondary data.

• Primary data was to be collected from all the countries in the region using questionnaires. Semi-structured questionnaires and national consultation workshops in sample countries were also used to collect pertinent information in order to enrich the spread of information beyond the confines of a questionnaire.

• Interviews with ILO staff, constituents and other key stakeholders further broadened the spread of information, thus offering the opportunity to validate questionnaire responses, or fill the expected gaps. Interviews were held with constituents and ILO management and staff in selected member States (Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Egypt, Senegal, South Africa, and Zambia). Cameroon, Egypt, Senegal and South Africa were selected on account of hosting the ILO decent work teams. The Democratic Republic of the Congo was retained to assess the challenges of addressing decent work deficits in fragile States. Zambia was selected to allow the consultants – being based in Lusaka – to test the national consultations methodology prior to using it in the other five countries.

• For data analysis, the review team applied a variety of methods, such as triangulation, and analysis techniques – informed judgment, scoring, ranking or rating techniques – to ensure that the data is valid and with acceptable quality.

Limitations

84. The ambitious nature of the targets and the lack of quantitative data were the challenges encountered during the conduct of this review. Nonetheless, the lack of quantitative data should not detract from the validity of the report or of its conclusions and
recommendations. The qualitative data and information collected from all sources are generally of good quality. The review benefited from the mid-term review, the Reports of the Director-General to the 11th and 12th African Regional Meetings, the Second Comprehensive Report of the Chairperson of the African Union Commission (AUC) on the Implementation of the Ouagadougou Declaration and Plan of Action 2009–14, Decent Work Country Profiles and various evaluations and reports. A related challenge was the inability to hold all the envisaged national consultation workshops with the constituents in the six countries where field visits were to be undertaken (Cameroon, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Egypt, Senegal, South Africa and Zambia). For a variety of reasons, including the unavailability of key constituents due to other prior commitments, national consultations were only held in Cairo, Dakar and Yaoundé. Nevertheless, interviews with key stakeholders proceeded as planned in all the six countries.
1. Progress towards achieving the targets: 2007–15

African countries have implemented various programmes and strategies towards achieving the 17 DWAA targets, and there is no doubt that they have made progress in this regard.

1.1. Achievements made on the 17 DWAA targets

This review relied on the mid-term review as the baseline for measuring achieved progress and determining consistency throughout the relevant period. Progress is defined in terms of final expected outcome (such as national policies and programmes) and intermediary products or steps leading to the production of a final outcome. The selected examples provided build on the report presented to the 12th African Regional Meeting, focusing on developments in member States which were not reported in 2011.

1.1.1. Target 1: Mainstreaming decent work into national, regional and international development strategies

**Target:** Three-quarters (75 per cent) 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.

**Achievement:** 51 (94 per cent) member States have made progress in mainstreaming decent work into their national development strategies and frameworks (Algeria, Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cabo Verde, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Comoros, Congo, Côte d’Ivoire, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Egypt, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Morocco, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Somalia, South Africa, South Sudan, Sudan, Swaziland, Togo, Tunisia, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe).

Member States mainstream decent work into national development frameworks

Almost all African countries have included the generation of decent work among the key objectives of their national development frameworks. Most of them have come to the realization that employment creation and enterprise development guarantee sustained economic growth and poverty reduction by increasing the opportunities for decent work. Ethiopia has mainstreamed employment into its Constitution, thereby obligating the Government to increase opportunities for gainful employment. Its national five-year development framework, termed the Growth and Transformation Plan, covers occupational health and safety, labour market information and social protection as cross-
cutting issues. In Cameroon, the development agenda is built around its long-term development programme, Vision 2035, and its Growth and Employment Strategy Paper, whose main pillars include employment.

88. In Côte d’Ivoire, employment is a pillar of the National Development Programme. The Ivorian Government considers unemployment reduction as one of its key priorities for the post-April 2011 period. Job creation, specifically targeting young people, is at the top of the Government’s agenda. A National Employment Policy (2012) and a national strategy to boost employment (2013) have been developed to that end. In Mali, the four decent work pillars have been mainstreamed into the strategic guidelines of the Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategic Framework for 2012–17. Sudan is making progress in mainstreaming decent work into its development framework. The country is developing a national employment strategy which will be mainstreamed into the national development framework. Seven thematic policy papers have been drafted on the key dimensions of employment in Sudan which contribute to the employment policy process. A presidential committee, chaired by the Presidential Adviser and Minister of Labour, has been set up to prepare the roadmap towards formulating Sudan’s National Employment Policy. Meanwhile, youth employment, skills and well-being issues have been mainstreamed in the interim. In Ghana, employment is one of the pillars of its Shared Growth and Development Agenda II (2014–17). Furthermore, Ghana’s first ever National Employment Policy was launched in April 2015.

89. In Mauritius, the government programme, Moving the Nation Forward (2012–15), highlights the relevance of employment as a vital pillar of national prosperity. The programme emphasises: (i) implementation of the DWCP; (ii) training and job opportunities for young people under the national youth employment programme; (iii) the promotion of green employment; (iv) upscaling of the training centre on employment; (v) the creation of more space for the SME sector; and (vi) the establishment of a national resource centre for employment. Zimbabwe has been implementing its DWCP, focusing on employment to create livelihoods for both women and men as part of its poverty reduction strategy. Its DWCP has informed other development strategies, such as the National Action Plan for the Implementation of the National Youth Policy (2013–15).

Countries use pro-employment budgeting

90. In an effort to lend greater prominence to employment within their development frameworks, some countries have mainstreamed decent work into their national budgeting and investment programmes. The United Republic of Tanzania and Zimbabwe have used the UN System Chief Executives Board for Coordination (CEB) Toolkit for Mainstreaming Employment and Decent Work. In the United Republic of Tanzania, the Toolkit was used to mainstream employment and decent work into the 2012–14 Medium-Term Expenditure Framework. As a result, four ministries reported employment outcomes in their 2012–13 budget statements. It was also used to assess employment and decent work outcomes in 31 plans, programmes, policies and strategies. Zimbabwe has included targets on employment and job creation in national development framework documents. Mali adopted a pro-employment budgeting approach to public expenditure review in order to determine the resources needed to reach its employment policy target. In March 2012, the Cabo Verde Government adopted new models of decentralized investment programme contracts which include decent work social clauses. In Cameroon, the Prime Minister issued a decree in 2008 requiring that 20 per cent of the public investment budget be allocated to employment-intensive programmes. In 2014, Egypt used a closed input–output model to estimate the employment impacts of its stimulus packages and investment projects. By the end of 2015, a new social accounting matrix will allow Egypt to better assess the employment impacts of policies and investment plans.
National targets for the creation of sufficient decent jobs adopted

91. In Senegal, the Government has initiated pro-poor policies (employment and social protection). It has formulated measures to facilitate access to the job market for young people, improve the functioning of the labour market, and identify and promote labour-intensive sectors. The Plan Senegal Emergent 2014 has set a target of creating 100,000 to 150,000 decent jobs annually. Decent work has been mainstreamed into Zambian’s Revised Sixth National Development Plan (2013–16) and its National Strategy on Industrialization and Job Creation 2012. The target is to create 1 million formal jobs by the end of 2016. Mali’s employment policy target is to create 200,000 decent jobs over a three-year period. In Cameroon, one of the objectives of the Growth and Employment Strategy Paper is to reduce underemployment from 75.8 per cent to less than 50 per cent in 2020, and achieve a formal employment creation target of 10,000 jobs per year over the next ten years. In South Africa, the National Development Plan 2030, launched in August 2012, sets a target of creating 11 million jobs by 2030.

92. Nigeria’s National Enterprise Development Programme is also being developed under the coordination of the Federal Ministry of Industry, Trade and Investment. The programme aims to create 3.5 million direct and 5 million indirect jobs, between 2013 and 2015, by focusing on technical/business and entrepreneurship skills acquisition, access to finance, improving market access and improving the business environment for micro, small and medium-sized enterprises. Lesotho has developed a National Employment Policy which is awaiting Cabinet approval. The policy sets out the framework for achieving the set target of creating 50,000 jobs.

Major factors contributing to progress or the lack thereof

93. The major contributing factors to the effective mainstreaming of decent work into national and UN programmes are: the growing recognition that employment should become a direct government objective; and the growing involvement of ILO tripartite constituents in the formulation of DWCPs, UN Development Assistance Frameworks (UNDAFs) and national development strategies. There is strong political will and commitment among African leaders to place employment and decent work at the very core of their poverty reduction strategies. Moreover, there is increased national ownership of the DWCPs being developed by more countries in the region.

94. The improved capacity of constituents to influence national employment-related policies and programmes, and the application of the CEB Toolkit for Mainstreaming Employment and Decent Work in some African countries have enhanced the mainstreaming of decent work into national development frameworks. Balanced approaches, whereby support for short-term job-creation interventions (skills development) is provided in tandem with support for longer term job creation efforts (such as enabling environment and strengthening labour market institutions), have helped to mainstream decent work.

95. Meanwhile, weak policy coordination has also constrained the achievement of the DWAA. This is aggravated by the lack of comprehensive employment frameworks and a failure to implement policies. At times, projects and programmes are implemented outside the mainstream national structures.
1.1.2. Target 2: Investing in enterprises and decent work opportunities in Africa

**Target:** Three-quarters (75 per cent) 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.

**Achievement:** 39 (72 per cent) member States have made progress in adopting integrated strategies for sustainable enterprises with a special focus on supporting women entrepreneurs (Algeria, Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Comoros, Congo, Côte d’Ivoire, Egypt, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Ghana, Guinea, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Morocco, Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Somalia, South Africa, Sudan, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Togo, Tunisia, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe).

Integrated strategies for sustainable enterprise development and the generation of decent work opportunities with a special focus on assisting women entrepreneurs adopted

96. Senegal drew up a National Strategy for Women’s Entrepreneurship Development in 2014. Various financial mechanisms were put in place to support the programme, namely: the Women’s Loan Fund, Women’s Entrepreneurship Promotion Fund and the Microfinance Fund. Zimbabwe launched the Broad-based Women’s Economic Empowerment Framework in 2012–13. The Framework promotes gender equality and decent opportunities for women. The Ministry of Women’s Affairs has established a Women’s Fund to assist women entrepreneurs in accessing loans for livelihood projects and micro-enterprises. The Ministry of SMEs has established the Savings and Credit Organization. These are group enterprises which also assist women entrepreneurs to access loans for livelihood projects in their community. Namibia supports the SME sector through improved access to credit, training, market outlet development and product innovation. Congo invested resources in employment creation by supporting enterprises (especially those run by women) and cooperatives. Entrepreneurship training targeting women and use of the ILO Start and Improve Your Business training products were adopted in Benin, Burkina Faso, Côte d’Ivoire, Guinea, Mauritania and Togo.

97. Civil society in Seychelles has developed schemes to help various groups find employment or to start small businesses. For instance, the Seychelles Alliance for Women’s Development, developed by the Women in Action and Solidarity Organization (WASO), and implemented in collaboration with the Milan Chamber of Commerce, Industry, Craft and Agriculture with funding from the European Union, is designed to help vulnerable and disadvantaged women.

98. Some progress has been made in guaranteeing that multinational corporations investing in Africa abide by the provisions of the Tripartite Declaration of Principles concerning Multinational Enterprises and Social Policy, and link up with local supply chains in order to provide decent work. In Zambia, there is an ongoing effort at the national and local levels to build linkages between SMEs and the mining sector, and to promote fundamental principles and rights at work. In Côte d’Ivoire, a Task Force on Youth Employment Promotion and Responsible Investment has been established by participating multinational enterprises (MNEs) to: (1) strengthen linkages between MNEs and SMEs; (2) analyse the impact of foreign and domestic investments on employment;
and (3) scale up the MNE-Youth Employment initiative to the subregional level. Furthermore, new initiatives are being developed in the mining sector to promote socially responsible business practices which are consistent with the provisions of the ILO Tripartite Declaration of Principles concerning Multinational Enterprises and Social Policy on strengthening linkages between MNEs and local businesses. In Liberia, the employers’ organization, the Liberia Chamber of Commerce, developed a policy on the way forward towards creating more and better jobs for young people and more investment. It included setting up a Job Creation Task Force comprising representatives from MNEs.

99. Cooperative development has been used by some countries to accelerate reform of the policy environment for enterprise development. New cooperative development policies and laws, aimed at creating an enabling economic and political environment for cooperatives were formulated in Kenya, Lesotho, Mozambique, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda. Similarly, cooperative policies and laws were reviewed in Ethiopia, Malawi, Nigeria, South Sudan and Zambia.

Strategies include targets for the registration of at least half of all enterprises currently operating informally.

100. Niger is using tax rebates and exemptions as incentives to entice informal sector operators to formalize their operations. Algeria, Mozambique and Senegal have simplified the registration procedures for informal businesses. The Centre national du registre du commerce in Algeria has reduced the number of procedures to just three for individual registration, although the applicant is also required to register with the taxation and social security services, if he/she is an employer. Senegal has simplified the administrative procedures and established a one-stop shop to speed up the formalization process. Furthermore, the law establishing the SME promotion and development framework has a specific clause on the transition from the informal to the formal economy. Cameroon has set up special offices to facilitate business creation, improve business management and ensure the registration of artisans.

1.1.3. Target 3: Decent work for Africa’s youth

**Target:** The adoption by three-quarters (75 per cent) 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.

**Achievement:** 38 (70 per cent) member States have made progress in adopting policies or programmes to address youth unemployment (Algeria, Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Cabo Verde, Comoros, Côte d’Ivoire, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Egypt, Ethiopia, Gabon, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritius, Morocco, Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Somalia, South Africa, Sudan, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Tunisia, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe).
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National policies and programmes adopted to respond to the rapid and large rise in the numbers of young jobseekers

101. Africa has a predominantly young population. Young people between the ages of 15 and 24 years account for 20 per cent of the population, and when all young people below 24 years of age are included in the reckoning, the total rises to 60 per cent of the total population on the continent. High youth unemployment puts them at risk of being manipulated into joining conflicts. As developments in parts of North Africa have demonstrated, high and persistent levels of unemployment, affecting mostly school and college graduates, could be a potent source of political, economic and social instability in any society. In addressing these and other challenges, African countries have adopted national policies/programmes to respond to the rapid and significant increase in the number of young jobseekers.

102. In Egypt, the Ministry of Planning, Follow-up and Administrative Reform; the Ministry of Local Development; the Ministry of Youth; the Ministry of Investment; and the Ministry of Industry, Trade and SMEs launched an initiative to incorporate Ayadi Company for Development and Investment as a private investment company with a maximum government capital share of 20 per cent and private investment of 80 per cent. The company objective is to initiate a number of governorate-level projects to provide decent job opportunities for young people, with a target of 500,000 jobs within four years. The Ministry of Local Development launched this initiative in cooperation with public banks to provide 5 million job opportunities for young people within five years, with a view to achieving sustainable development in various governorates, curbing rural exodus, improving the quality of life in Egypt, and creating a new generation of young investors.

103. In Angola, a Declaration was adopted in December 2013 to establish a corporate social responsibility commission within the Angola Chamber of Commerce and Industry. Gabon formulated a National Programme on Youth Employment. Seychelles has developed a new National Youth Employment Strategy to increase youth employment, especially in sectors where there are no nationals and in which worker retention is problematic. In Sudan, interventions have focused on empowering constituents to formulate comprehensive and integrated national employment policies which primarily target youth employment.

104. To boost youth employment, the Malian Government has developed and is implementing a broad spectrum of 22 policies, programmes and other initiatives, which cover, inter alia, institutional and funding mechanisms, support to young entrepreneurs, skills and entrepreneurship development, and the participation of young people in labour-intensive programmes, in both urban and rural areas. One of the major initiatives in Senegal has been the improvement of youth employment governance by merging four agencies, with complementary mandates, into one new structure, namely the National Agency for the Promotion of Youth Employment. Benin established a National Fund for the Promotion of Enterprises and Youth Employment and a National Employment Commission. Comoros established a Job Centre and a Youth and Women’s Employment Support Project. It also organized the first edition of a National Youth Employment Fair in 2012. In December 2012, a meeting of Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) Ministers of Labour consolidated the building of the regional labour market by adopting a regional Plan of Action on Youth Employment.

23 http://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/unpp/p2k0data.asp.
105. Malawi adopted the National Social Support Policy and the National Youth Policy in 2012 and established the Youth Economic and Development Fund. It also established community technical colleges in 2015, adopted the Technical Education, Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training Policy in 2013 and is currently reviewing its SME policy. Senegal and Burkina Faso have benefited from the Joint Initiative on Youth Employment in Africa, a partnership between the African Development Bank (AfDB), United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) and the ILO. The initiative supported the two countries in the preparation of a mapping and diagnosis of youth unemployment which covered the identification of structural and conjunctural problems facing young jobseekers, and an action plan to promote inclusive growth. Cabo Verde has organized a pool of business development service providers to enhance the national capacity to address youth unemployment through micro and small enterprise development.

106. In Nigeria, the Government is implementing the National Employment Policy, the National Action Plan for Employment Creation, and the Nigerian Youth Employment Action Plan. In January 2014, South Africa started implementing the Employment Tax Incentive programme that provides tax incentives to employers which effectively cover half the cost of employing new young employees. The Employment Service Act (No. 4 of 2014) provides for the establishment of schemes to assist young jobseekers and other “vulnerable persons”. In Zambia, measures taken to boost employment opportunities for young people include the draft National Youth Policy and Action Plan for Youth Employment (2014). The Government is also reviewing the National Employment and Labour Market Policy with a view to developing strategies and measures which promote job creation. In 2008, Cameroon adopted a National Pact for Youth Employment for the 2008–13 period, in addition to its ongoing programmes and projects on job creation. A new generation of the National Pact for Youth Employment is being developed for 2016–20. The Rural and Urban Youth Support Programme is one of the Government’s flagship programmes. The Government of the United Republic of Tanzania developed a National Youth Employment Creation Programme (NYECP) that will coordinate and contribute to the creation of productive and decent youth employment.

107. In West Africa, ECOWAS is implementing a regional action plan for youth employment.

**Contribution to youth employment promotion**

108. Youth unemployment rates in Zambia declined from 14 per cent in 2008 to 10 per cent in 2012, and in Ethiopia from 18.9 per cent in 2009–10 to 16.5 per cent in 2012–13. However, more efforts are required to address the challenge as youth unemployment has increased in some countries. Youth unemployment rates increased from 5 per cent in 2009 to 8.6 per cent in 2013 for Malawi; from 9.5 per cent in 2007 to 12.9 per cent in 2014 for Egypt; from 25.3 per cent in 2008 to 33.5 per cent in 2011 for Sudan; from 15 per cent in 2004 to 17 per cent in 2011 for Zimbabwe; and from 53 per cent in 2007 to 64 per cent in 2014 for Swaziland.

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24 According to the Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics, the youth unemployment rate was 24.8 per cent in 2007 and 29 per cent in 2014. However, the ILO School-to-Work Transition Survey (SWTS) assessed the youth (15–29) unemployment rate in 2012 and found it to be 15.7 per cent – a rate comparable with the results of the Egypt Labour Market Panel Survey conducted in 1998, 2006 and 2012.
1.1.4. Target 4: Closing the skills gap

**Target:** Three-quarters (75 per cent) 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.

**Achievement:** 35 (65 per cent) member States (Algeria, Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Cabo Verde, Comoros, Côte d’Ivoire, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Egypt, Eritrea, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Rwanda, Senegal, Seychelles, Somalia, South Africa, Sudan, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Tunisia, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe) have made progress to review and implement skills policies and strategies to facilitate integration/reintegration into the labour market.

109. In addition to setting up a National Council for Employment and Vocational Training, the Government of Burkina Faso raised the status of the Employment and Vocational Training Observatory to that of an autonomous statutory body (March 2012). The Chamber of Commerce and Industry is implementing a four-year programme (2014–18) designed to develop the skills of young people. Mozambique implemented the Integrated Technical and Vocational Education and Training Reform Programme (PIREP) to align technical and vocational education to the current context and challenges. In 2014, a new law governing vocational education was enacted to increase the involvement of industry in the financing and management of the National Authority for Vocational Education.

110. Seychelles is implementing the Soft Skills Programme designed to fine-tune attitudes and behaviour in the workplace; an apprenticeship scheme to help young people learn a trade; and an Entrepreneurial Scheme to help young people develop small and medium-sized businesses and to rely on their own mettle to find work. This is in line with the Economic Reform Social Programme jointly developed by the Government and the Liaison Unit of Non-Governmental Organizations of Seychelles in 2013 to promote capacity building, socio-economic empowerment and mindset change. The South Sudan Development Plan 2011–13 focuses on quick training and employment. In Lesotho, the Basotho Enterprise Development Corporation has a rural productivity project which provides rural communities with technical skills to develop products using local natural resources.

111. South Africa is currently implementing the third phase of the National Skills Development Strategy which covers the 2011–16 period and focuses on strengthening occupationally directed learning programmes. The social partners are engaged in reviewing the strategy under the auspices of the National Economic Development and Labour Council, and are more specifically involved in the sector education and training authorities that have played a key role in the strategy from the start. In Mali, the Government adopted the Ten-Year Vocational Training for Employment Development Programme with the aim of bridging the gap between skills demand and supply. The Support Fund for Vocational Training and Apprenticeship reported that 6,902 formal sector workers and 7,995 informal sector operators were trained from 2011 to 2012. From 2009 to 2012, the National Employment Agency sponsored vocational training for 1,187 people through apprenticeship, retraining, skills upgrading and refresher training programmes. In Malawi,
the Technical Education, Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training Policy was reviewed in 2013 and the country conducted a comprehensive skills survey whose findings should guide policy-makers and training providers to reduce the current skills mismatch in the labour market.

112. Some countries have made progress in raising awareness regarding the need to improve labour market information and analysis of labour market data relating to young people. Using the ILO analytical approach, the School-to-Work Transition Survey, countries have achieved different outcomes: constituents in Sudan and Morocco have been empowered to formulate comprehensive and integrated national employment policies in which youth employment plays a central role; Burkina Faso is reviewing current legislation to facilitate pro-youth employment budgeting; and Zambia is developing and strengthening institutional frameworks for the effective implementation of the National Action Plans on Youth Employment.

Africa’s effort on new or improved skills

113. Government efforts to improve workers’ skills in Africa remain largely inadequate and ensuring that half of Africa’s workforce obtains new or improved skills by 2015 remains an elusive target. Nevertheless, efforts by African member States to review and implement national policies and strategies for education and training have helped to improve the skills of Africa’s workforce. Mauritius, Seychelles and South Africa have achieved or almost achieved the target. The number of skilled workers in South Africa has increased from 43 per cent (2008) to 49 per cent (2014). The Seychelles has a highly skilled workforce with about 40 per cent having some form of post-secondary vocational, professional or academic training. The skilled workforce increased in Sudan (Census 2008) to 10 per cent (2011 labour force survey). It also rose from 5.9 per cent (2008 labour force survey) to 6.8 per cent (2012 labour force survey) in Zambia and from 17.6 per cent (2007) to 19.29 per cent (2014) in Botswana. In Mali, the adult literacy rate was estimated to be 26.2 per cent in 2006, 29.2 per cent in 2009 and 2010, 33.4 per cent in 2011 and 2012, 35.2 per cent in 2013, and 31.2 per cent in 2014. The educational levels of the employed labour force in Cabo Verde in 2014 were: 2.2 per cent with basic literacy; 42.9 per cent with basic education; 38.3 per cent with secondary education; and 14.6 per cent with tertiary education. In contrast, the skilled workforce percentage declined in Swaziland from 37.2 per cent in 2007 to 33.3 per cent in 2014, and in Zimbabwe from 8 per cent in 2004 (2004 labour force and child labour survey) to 5 per cent in 2014 (2014 labour force and child labour survey). In Senegal, the new employment policy document states that 46 per cent of young new entrants in the labour market lack proper education, skills and qualifications.

25 Calculated from quarterly labour force survey 2008: 1 dataset.

26 Calculated from quarterly labour force survey 2014: 4 dataset and quarterly labour force survey 2008 1st quarter data is used for this and other comparisons rather than 2007 as 2008 saw the introduction of the quarterly labour force survey, and data from the labour force survey of 2007 and earlier years are not strictly comparable. The percentage of the workforce that is skilled is proxied by the percentage of the economically active population (employed and unemployed) who have completed grade 12 (the final year of secondary education), including those who have higher qualifications.

Major factors contributing to progress or the lack thereof

114. Governments need to build on the best practices referenced in this report to improve workers’ skills. One significant challenge which needs to be addressed is the poor quality of national educational systems, and the mismatch between school/training curricula and labour market needs.

1.1.5. **Target 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.

**Achievement:** 31 (54 per cent) member States (Algeria, Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Cabo Verde, Comoros, Congo, Côte d’Ivoire, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Egypt, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Guinea, Kenya, Liberia, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mozambique, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Somalia, South Africa, Sudan, Togo, Tunisia, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe) have made progress on social inclusion using public employment programmes.

Reconstruction and recovery programmes discussed among the constituents and incorporating local economic development and employment-intensive investment

115. South Africa introduced the third phase of the Expanded Public Works Programme (2014–15 to 2018–19), a nationwide programme funded by the Government and which covers all spheres of government and state-owned enterprises. The programme provides an important avenue for labour absorption and income transfers to poor households in the short and medium terms. It is also a deliberate attempt by public sector bodies to create work opportunities for the unemployed, using expenditure on goods and services. Since 2013, Egypt has been implementing a labour-intensive public works programme costing US$200 million, which is financed by the World Bank and managed by the Social Fund for Development. In Egypt, the Industrial Training Council funded the Training for Employment programme (2014) with a grant of US$250 million. Ethiopia has developed a large-scale national programme, the Universal Rural Road Access Programme, aimed at creating year-round access to district and village centres by linking them to “all-weather roads”. The goal of the programme is to construct over 72,000 km of roads over a five-year period (2011–15) using mainly local resources and in partnership with emerging local entrepreneurs (contractors and consultants). Ethiopia is also implementing the Productive Safety Net Programme, whose components include the Public Works Programme, which focuses on labour-intensive approaches. The Productive Safety Net Programme seeks to shift the focus from short-term food needs met through emergency relief to addressing the underlying causes of household food insecurity.

116. Algeria has increased funding to its labour-intensive programmes. The programme *Blanche Algérie* provides employment opportunities (such as maintenance of green spaces and environmental protection) to the unemployed with a guaranteed minimum wage. In Burkina Faso, five labour-intensive programmes were implemented from 2008 to 2012. Cameroon set up a labour-intensive unit in the Ministry of Planning to promote the use of labour-intensive approaches in public investment and a directive from the Prime Minister requires all ministries to allocate 20 per cent of their annual investment
Progress towards achieving the targets: 2007–15

Budgets to labour-intensive approaches. In 2012, the sum of US$20 million was allocated to the labour-intensive component of the social safety nets programme in Guinea. In Mauritania, the on-the-job training programme for road maintenance seeks to boost job creation locally through labour-intensive approaches.

117. National strategies for promoting labour-intensive public investments have been adopted by the supreme authorities in Cameroon and Congo and successfully implemented through technical cooperation projects supported by the ILO. These include a project for the rehabilitation and reintegration of disadvantaged groups through urban roads, funded by the AfDB in Congo; and two projects in Cameroon, namely: (1) the construction and rehabilitation of rural roads funded by the Government; and (2) an AfDB-funded project to enhance the employability of young people and promote job opportunities under the Kumba-Mamfe Road Development Project (Cameroon). Chad has developed an innovative programme for demobilized soldiers which has led to the absorption of 5,000 former soldiers into the job market. In 2011, Togo launched an employment and development programme to promote the employability of young people together with another programme aimed at promoting 5,000 young people in the craft industries.

118. In Madagascar, local communities and small and medium-sized labour-intensive contractors have constructed classrooms to increase access to education for vulnerable children. In Zambia, the Industrialization and Job Creation Strategy launched in 2013 outlines the country’s focus on exploiting its labour and natural resource advantages, and actively developing labour-intensive industries and enterprises with huge employment potential, especially in the agriculture and tourism sectors. Through the Private Sector Development Project and the Competitiveness and Job Creation Support Project being implemented by the Ministry of Industry and Trade, Malawi is promoting labour-intensive sectors like tourism, agriculture, mining and construction with a view to achieving job-rich growth. In Sierra Leone, the Quick Impact Employment Creation Project was implemented from 2009 to 2013 to demonstrate the viability of using rural young people to build and maintain feeder roads that conform to the technical standards of the Sierra Leone Roads Authority without compromising engineering quality. Liberia implemented the Labour-Based Public Works Project (2009–14) and the Agriculture and Infrastructure Development Project (2010–13).

Effective and accountable institutions for the world of work and for economic and social governance built

119. Concerted efforts have been made on the continent to enhance governance. However, there are concerns that widespread poverty and social exclusion in many countries are sowing the seeds for potential future conflicts. Zambia has established integrity committees within government ministries to promote accountability and transparency. Namibia has a formalized monitoring and evaluation system, which encourages accountability. Each institution is required to develop its five-year sector plan and annual plan in line with national development plans and submit a report annually. The Consultative Framework for the Development of Labour-Intensive Techniques was established in 2008 to institutionalize the adoption of labour-intensive approaches in Mali. In South Africa, the integrated development planning processes for local governments is based on good governance principles since they require the active participation of all key stakeholders at the local government level to ensure democratic and transparent decision-making.

120. South Africa also updated the Code of Good Practice for Expanded Public Works Programmes in 2011. The Code was the outcome of tripartite consultations to
ensure that the Expanded Public Works Programme promotes decent work. The Code of Good Practice was negotiated by the tripartite constituents (with ILO specialists), focusing on how to create employment conditions which would facilitate the employment of short-term workers with enough flexibility on aspects such as wage setting, leave, maternity leave and retrenchment, while safeguarding worker rights, such that the intended flexibility does not lead to exploitation. The Code was approved by the National Economic Development and Labour Council and went into effect after promulgation of the Ministerial Determination by the Minister of Labour in 2002.

1.1.6. **Target 6: Investing in a basic social protection package for poverty reduction**

**Target:** All (100 per cent) African countries adopt coherent national social security strategies, including for the introduction or extension of a basic social security package that includes essential healthcare, maternity protection, and child support for school-age children, disability protection and a minimum pension.

**Achievement:** 41 (76 per cent) member States have made significant progress towards offering basic social protection (Algeria, Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Cabo Verde, Central African Republic, Comoros, Côte d’Ivoire, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ethiopia, Gabon, Ghana, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Morocco, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Seychelles, Somalia, South Africa, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Togo, Tunisia, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe).

121. The Social Cash Transfer Programme for the elderly in Zambia has been extended each year with the addition of new districts covered. One of the key results in social security interventions in Zambia was the expansion of social protection allocations within the national budget to 2.7 per cent in 2015. In Mozambique, social protection allocations increased from 0.15 per cent in 2011 to 0.5 per cent of GDP in 2014. In Ethiopia, the National Social Protection Policy was adopted by the Cabinet in November 2014. On health insurance, Ethiopia has developed a health insurance strategy with two components, namely: the Social Health Insurance; and the Community-Based Health Insurance. In December 2014, the social protection policy in Zambia was adopted and launched.

122. In 2012, Kenya adopted a National Social Protection Policy which provides a framework for coordinating social protection interventions in the country. Furthermore, reforms are under way to improve the efficiency and sustainability of the National Hospital Insurance Fund and the National Social Security Fund. The National Social Security Fund Act No. 45 of 2013 established two funds: a pension fund which is mandatory and covers all workers in the formal economy; and a provident fund which is voluntary and covers the self-employed. The National Social Security Fund has 2 million active contributors and the National Hospital Insurance Fund covers about 20 per cent of the population. Meanwhile, less than 2 per cent of Kenyans have private health insurance.

123. In South Africa, the first steps have been taken towards piloting the national health insurance proposals. At this point, implementation of the national health insurance is limited to 11 pilot sites, with at least one site in each of the nine provinces. Beyond health, the Government has for some years been discussing reforms to provisions for older persons (pensions, provident funds and the like) but the plans have not yet been finalized. In Côte d’Ivoire, the Universal Health Insurance, an ambitious universal health coverage scheme, has become operational after issuance of the presidential ordinance formalizing its
creation and the ministerial decree establishing its management structures. In Senegal, following a comparative study on the Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183), and national legislation, an action plan was adopted to promote the ratification and implementation of the said Convention.

124. Egypt’s social security system covers most of the contingencies listed in the Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No. 102). Currently a new Social Insurance Law is in preparation. The ILO is providing technical (actuarial, legislative and investment) assistance in this respect. Malawi adopted a National Social Support (Protection) Policy in 2012 and extended the Farm Input Subsidy Programme, the Social Cash Transfer Programmes, the School Feeding Programmes and the Public Works Programmes.

125. The Nigerian health insurance and pension schemes have been extended to the private sector. Moreover, a new Department of Social Security was established in the Federal Ministry of Labour and Productivity to coordinate the activities of the fragmented social security schemes in the country. The age category covered by the child support grant in South Africa has been expanded to cover all children under the age of 18 years. The qualifying age for men in respect of the grant for older persons has been lowered to match the 60 year cut-off for women. The effect on beneficiaries is an increase in the numbers covered. Cameroon instituted a voluntary subscription to a pension insurance scheme (retirement, disability, death) which became effective on 13 August 2014. It has clauses which extend coverage to categories not affiliated to the current mandatory scheme in Cameroon (informal sector operators, liberal professions).

126. Niger created an integrated Ministry of Labour, Employment and Social Security in 2013 to streamline its delivery of social protection services and address needs. The country also developed a National Social Protection Policy, adopted in 2011. A specific programme covering the period 2014–17 has been adopted to operationalize its Component 4 which relates to expanding initiatives to reach the most vulnerable groups. Gabon created a National Health Insurance and Social Guarantee Fund to cover civil servants, the private sector, independent workers, workers in the informal economy, and migrant workers, among others. Uganda expanded its social protection by way of cash transfers to the aged.


1.1.7. Target 7: Tackling the HIV/AIDS crisis through workplace action

**Target:** All (100 per cent) 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.

**Achievement:** 33 (61 per cent) member States have made progress in ensuring that the workplace contributes to increasing access to national HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment, care and support (Algeria, Benin, Botswana, Burundi, Cameroon, Chad, Comoros, Congo, Côte d’Ivoire, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Egypt, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Gambia, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia,
Towards sustainable and inclusive growth in Africa through decent work

Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Namibia, Nigeria, Rwanda, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Sudan, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe) are making progress.

128. In Cameroon, Côte d’Ivoire, Nigeria and Zimbabwe, national tripartite HIV policies were developed and validated. Madagascar, Comoros, Mauritius and Seychelles developed national HIV/AIDS workplace policies in 2013. Côte d’Ivoire revised the national policy on tackling HIV/AIDS at the workplace in 2013, taking into consideration the tripartite constituents’ recommendations and the principles stated in the HIV and AIDS Recommendation, 2010 (No. 200). Implementation of the national policy is based on the four strategic priority pillars of action defined in the National Strategic Plan 2012–15. HIV/AIDS in the workplace is legislated by the HIV/AIDS law of 2014 which defines the rules governing prevention, protection and penalties in HIV/AIDS control. Article 22 of the 2014 law requires ministries in charge of training to mainstream themes related to sexually transmitted infections and HIV/AIDS into their curricula. Nigeria has adopted a National Workplace Policy on HIV/AIDS which most government organizations and SMEs are implementing. Some 14,553 workers voluntarily undertook the HIV test. Liberia has instituted an HIV/AIDS at the workplace programme under the Ministry of Labour.

129. Zimbabwe developed its HIV and AIDS policy for the tourism and engineering sectors. In Cameroon, three sectoral plans on HIV/AIDS (rural, forestry/environment and judicial sectors) were developed, in addition to a public–private partnership on HIV/AIDS. In Chad, workplace programmes on HIV have been implemented in five sectors, namely: construction, agriculture, sugar, telecommunications and mining. In 2012–13, HIV and AIDS workplace programmes were developed for the Botswana Teachers’ Union, the Botswana Informal Sector Association, Botswana Federation of Trade Unions, the Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs, and the Botswana Federation of Public Sector Unions. In Burundi and the Democratic Republic of the Congo, five sectors were identified and workplace programmes were implemented based on action plans developed in December 2013. In Ghana, workplace programmes have been developed in nine informal sector associations involved in textiles, woodwork, retail, fishing and indigenous hospitality services.

130. In South Africa, HIV/AIDS workplace programmes have been developed and launched in the following five organizations/institutions: Department of Labour, National Health Laboratory Services, Health and Other Service Personnel Trade Union of South Africa, the Federation of Democratic Unions of South Africa, and a Joint Labour Programme on HIV and AIDS for Organized Labour, including the Congress of South African Trade Unions, the National Council of Trade Unions and the Federation of Democratic Unions of South Africa. More than 20,000 workers have tested for HIV through the Zero@Work and Tested@Work initiatives. In Zambia, HIV/AIDS workplace programmes have been developed and launched in five workplaces in the education, agriculture, informal economy and transport sectors. The Postal Corporation of Kenya launched the HIV workplace programme in eight regions based on the “Guidelines on HIV and AIDS for the postal sector” and reviewed its postal sector HIV/AIDS policy.

131. The United Republic of Tanzania developed the National HIV and AIDS Code of Conduct for the workplace. The third generation of National Multi-sectoral Strategic Framework (NMSF III, 2013/18) and the National Guideline on HIV and AIDS and Non-communicable Diseases for Public Servants were developed and endorsed. The East African Community (EAC) revised its HIV and AIDS Workplace Policy of 2008 to include new developments in the HIV/AIDS response.
Major factors contributing to progress or the lack thereof

132. The paucity of resources to support HIV/AIDS treatment remains a formidable challenge to governments across the continent. This is compounded by the keen competition for HIV/AIDS resources. Sometimes trade unions and employers’ associations are excluded from HIV/AIDS programmes on the pretext that they are non-health stakeholders who have no place in such programmes. Moreover, the development of national policies is not always linked to concrete planning on the implementation of workplace or sectoral HIV programmes.

1.1.8. Target 8: Implementing labour standards at the workplace

Target: Three-quarters (75 per cent) 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.

Achievement: 44 (82 per cent) member States (Algeria, Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Cabo Verde, Chad, Comoros, Congo, Côte d’Ivoire, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Egypt, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Gabon, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Seychelles, Somalia, South Africa, Sudan, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Togo, Tunisia, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe) are implementing labour standards by developing programmes to improve working conditions.

133. Many African countries have taken steps to improve compliance with labour standards by implementing programmes related to hours of work and minimum pay; the reduction of occupational accidents, disease and days lost to illness and accidents per worker; and an increase in the number of labour inspectors relative to workers. Though implementation is varied, it is noteworthy that countries have progressed in implementing labour standards on working conditions. Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Cabo Verde, Côte d’Ivoire, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Niger, Senegal and Zambia have reviewed their minimum wages. In Uganda, the Minimum Wages Advisory Board was institutionalized in August 2013 and is currently reviewing minimum wages.

134. The number of labour inspectors working in Algeria, Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Mali, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, South Africa and Zimbabwe has increased. The status of the inspectorate services in South Africa has been enhanced through a fairly substantial budget allocation by the National Treasury to facilitate the employment of inspectors. A total of 960 inspectors were employed in the 2014–15 financial year. The number of workplaces/employers inspected and reviewed increased from 141,731 in 2012–13 to 184,794 in 2014–15, but is still lower than the 193,977 inspections recorded in 2011–12. The number of inspectors in Ethiopia has increased from 57 in 2005 to 450 in 2010. Liberia has embarked on recruiting college graduates to fill vacancies. Ethiopia adopted the National Occupational Safety and Health Policy in 2015 which would guide the implementation of practical safety and health measures at the national and enterprise levels. In Nigeria, the number of factory inspectors employed to carry out occupational safety and health inspection all over the country has increased and training programmes for inspectors have been conducted. Nigeria has also employed additional labour inspectors and the recruitment exercise is still ongoing.
135. Burundi, Cameroon, Congo, Côte d’Ivoire, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ethiopia, Sudan, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe reported an increase in occupational accidents. Occupational accidents and diseases are under-reported in most African countries. Furthermore, many more of these countries lack reliable statistics to ascertain the trends and do not have an updated list of occupational diseases.

**Major factors contributing to progress or the lack thereof**

136. In a context where the informal economy represents up to 90 per cent of the active labour force, it is evident that existing data do not reflect the real situation. Moreover, in spite of having developed programmes to improve working conditions, countries still face challenges in enforcing compliance with labour standards for a variety of reasons, namely: poor working conditions for inspectors and lack of a proper nationwide inspection system to implement prevention programmes; inadequate funding resulting in shortage of staff and support infrastructure for institutions tasked with the enforcement of regulations; and an increase in economic activity following adoption of the multi-currency system in 2009.

1.1.9. **Target 9: Tripartism as a key governance mechanism for inclusive poverty-reducing growth**

**Target:** All (100 per cent) African States and regional economic communities 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.

**Achievement:** 35 (65 per cent) member States have made progress in establishing and using tripartite social dialogue structures for DWCPs and national development strategies. Although South Africa’s model of using tripartism for inclusive poverty-reducing growth stands out for its novelty, 34 other member States (Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Cabo Verde, Chad, Comoros, Congo, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Egypt, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Gabon, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Seychelles, Sudan, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe) have made progress in this regard.

137. Tripartite constituents actively participate in the development, implementation and monitoring of DWCPs. In some countries, this is done through existing social dialogue structures, and in others, new tripartite dialogue structures were created specifically for the DWCP. In Kenya, the DWCP Implementation Committee was upgraded by being given legal status, following the issuance of a Government Notice and gazetting of its members as a subcommittee of the National Labour Board. Accordingly, the DWCP–IC reports to the National Labour Board, thereby effectively bringing the DWCP and all its deliverables into the mainstream functions of the Government’s labour administration bodies.

138. The tripartite constituents in Tunisia signed the Tunisian Social Pact in 2013, which established a national council for social dialogue and a socio-economic reform agenda that promotes decent work principles and international labour standards. In Cameroon, a social dialogue consultative and monitoring committee was set up by the Prime Minister in 2014. A National Commission to promote collective bargaining was created in November 2011 in Cabo Verde. In Comoros, a 2012 decree created a tripartite Consultative Council on Labour and Employment whose mandate is to review and advise on issues pertaining to social security, employment, the improvement of working
conditions, fundamental rights, labour mobility, and vocational training trends. In December 2013, Guinea set up a National Social Dialogue Council. In Niger, the Prime Minister reinstated the Social Dialogue National Commission in December 2012. The Government also set up an inter-ministerial committee for negotiation with social partners. In Senegal, the assignment of social dialogue responsibility to a ministry and the creation of the High Council on Social Dialogue are major steps towards the institutionalization process. The Council has been technically strengthened with experts in labour law and social dialogue. Morocco has moved social dialogue forward with the creation of the Economic, Social and Environmental Council in February 2011. The council, which acts as an advisory body to the Government, examines various economic, social and labour issues and submits proposals and opinions to Government and Parliament.

139. Sudan has established the National Committee for International Labour Standards and the National Tripartite Committee for Legislation. The objectives of the Committee are to revise labour laws and legislation, participate in the resolution of labour disputes and engage in collective bargaining. Uganda established the Labour Advisory Board, a national tripartite body charged with advising the Government through the Minister responsible for labour on all matters pertaining to labour and employment and other attendant social and economic issues. In Zambia, the Tripartite Consultative Labour Council remains the key body for social dialogue in the country. However, several technical committees of the Council have been established and the Employment and Labour Sector Advisory Group has been revived. In 2015, the Tripartite Partnership Committee for the Mining Sector was constituted as a subcommittee of the Tripartite Consultative Labour Council. The Committee will serve as a dedicated social dialogue forum for the social partners in the mining sector and will provide appropriate information to the Council on issues affecting the mining sector including the role and impact of multinational companies operating in the sector.

140. In 2011, ECOWAS created a Social Dialogue Tripartite Forum. The SADC established a Standing Committee for Tripartite Social Dialogue. The EAC adopted a consultative framework for structured dialogue between the EAC, private sector organizations, civil society organizations and other interest groups in 2012. The EAC and SADC are using tripartite social dialogue structures for DWCPs.

Major factors contributing to progress or the lack thereof

141. Most countries have set up social dialogue structures that are increasingly becoming functional. The call for more inclusive governance, and greater support from the ILO to ensure effective tripartism in DWCP development, implementation and monitoring, have fostered gains. However, many African countries still face challenges in their efforts to institutionalize social dialogue. For instance, informal economy workers remain under-represented and some national governments have not manifested the political will to use these institutions and consult the social partners on policy issues. Some of the established tripartite bodies do not function effectively due to budget constraints. Furthermore, national tripartite bodies are not effectively utilized for the implementation of programmes and projects, thereby negating one of the key principles of the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness.
1.1.10. **Target 10: Freedom of association: Lifeblood of the ILO and a foundation for democracy**

**Target:** All (100 per cent) 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.

**Achievement:** 32 (59 per cent) member States (Botswana, Burundi, Cabo Verde, Comoros, Côte d’Ivoire, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Egypt, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Guinea, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Seychelles, South Africa, Sudan, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe) are making progress.

142. There is 100 per cent ratification of the Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98), in Africa. In addition, 91 per cent 28 of African countries have ratified the Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organize Convention, 1948 (No. 87). Mauritius amended a number of regulations to promote freedom of association: Employment Rights (Amendment of Schedule) Regulations 2013; Employment Relations (Trade Union) (Amendment) Regulations 2013; Proclamation of the Employment Relations (Amendment) Act 2013; and the Employment Relations (Amendment) Act 2013. Section 65 of the new Constitution of Zimbabwe (2013) guarantees freedom of association and collective bargaining, including expressly the right to strike.

143. The Labour Code remains a major tool for guaranteeing the freedom of association and of engagement in collective bargaining. Comoros, Guinea, Niger and Senegal have revised their Labour Codes. The revision in Senegal led to revitalization of freedom of association and allowed the determination of the representativeness of trade unions. Egypt is in the process of developing a new Labour Code.

144. Following the Revolution of 25 January 2011, Egypt announced the intention to amend its legislations to conform to the principles enshrined in Conventions Nos 87 and 98, through an action plan on freedom of association. The current draft legislation was revised with the ILO’s technical support in 2013 and 2014. Since the Revolution, the number of independent trade unions has grown, and the new trade union law awaits adoption.

145. The United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda have strengthened the capacity of the social partners by training trade unions; and training industrial court judges on international labour standards and how to apply ILO jurisprudence, as documented in the *Digest on Freedom of Association*, in domestic court rulings.

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28 Five countries (Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Morocco, South Sudan and Sudan) have not ratified the Convention.
Progress towards achieving the targets: 2007–15

1.1.11. Target 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.

**Achievement:** 46 (85 per cent) member States have ratified all the eight fundamental human rights Conventions (Algeria, Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Cabo Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Comoros, Congo, Côte d’Ivoire, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Djibouti, Egypt, Equatorial Guinea, Ethiopia, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Lesotho, Libya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Togo, Tunisia, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe).

Continent-wide ratification of fundamental ILO instruments

146. The number of countries that have ratified the fundamental Conventions since the mid-term review in May 2011 has increased, following the ratification of three fundamental instruments (Conventions Nos 87, 98 and 182) by Somalia, and one by Sierra Leone (Convention No. 182). Moreover, Sierra Leone and Ghana have ratified Convention No. 138 and South Sudan ratified seven of the eight core Conventions in 2012.

**Table 1. Number of African countries that have ratified the eight fundamental Conventions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Freedom of association and collective bargaining</th>
<th>Elimination of forced and compulsory labour</th>
<th>Elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation</th>
<th>Abolition of child labour</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conv. 87</td>
<td>Conv. 98</td>
<td>Conv. 29</td>
<td>Conv. 105</td>
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<td>49</td>
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<td>Conv. 105</td>
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<td>Conv. 138</td>
<td>Conv. 182</td>
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<td>52</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

* Total: 54 countries; ratification status as of May 2015.
Source: NORMLEX Information System on International Labour Standards.

147. Still, there are member States that have not ratified some of the fundamental Conventions, namely: Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Morocco, South Sudan and Sudan which are yet to ratify the Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87); Liberia and Somalia which have not yet ratified the Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100), and the Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138); and Eritrea, which is the only country left to ratify the Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182).

Better implementation of ratified Conventions and greater effective respect for fundamental principles and rights at work

148. Many African countries have taken the appropriate steps to give effect to the ratified Conventions. Labour Codes have been revised to guarantee freedom of association and to recognize the right to collective bargaining and countries have adopted and implemented minimum wages. In addition, many countries have signed protocols with
their training institutions to mainstream fundamental principles and rights into their curricula. The ILO signed 11 partnership agreements with training institutions in Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Côte d’Ivoire, Madagascar, Niger, Senegal and Togo to mainstream fundamental principles and rights into their curricula. Judges trained in international labour standards and reinforced labour inspectorate performance have enhanced compliance. Many collective agreements contain clauses on combating discrimination in the workplace. Methodological guides have been developed to specifically improve inspection in the informal economy with the aim of enhancing compliance with fundamental principles and rights.

1.1.12. Target 12: Getting Africa’s children into school and out of work

**Target:** All (100 per cent) 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.

**Achievement:** 36 (67 per cent) member States have developed or are in the process of developing a national action plan on child labour (Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Cabo Verde, Comoros, Côte d’Ivoire, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Djibouti, Egypt, Ethiopia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Morocco, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, South Africa, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Togo, Tunisia, Uganda and Zambia). 29

149. Egypt has drafted a National Strategy for Child Labour and a National Plan of Action. The Constitution passed in January 2014 expands the protection of minors in the workplace. Article 80 sets the minimum age for employment, which is aligned with the compulsory education age, prohibits hazardous work by children under the age of 18, and calls for the protection of children from all types of commercial and sexual exploitation. The Child Protection Law sets the minimum age for employment at 15, and for seasonal employment at 13. Finally, the Unified Labour Code allows children as young as 13 years to work as apprentices. In Lesotho, the Cabinet approved the implementation of the Action Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour in August 2014. The Government is in the process of setting up a Child Labour Unit. The National Advisory Committee on Labour has advised the Minister to adopt guidelines for the employment of herd boys. In Morocco, the bill on the employment conditions of domestic workers was adopted by the House of Councillors plenary on 27 January 2015. This legislation regulates child labour in this sector, prohibiting the employment of children under 15 years of age and protects those aged 15 to 18 years from hazardous forms of child labour including traditional activities that interfere with a child’s education and physical and emotional well-being.

29 Out of these 36 countries, four countries have either prepared a background paper or a draft national action plan to combat child labour (Djibouti, Guinea-Bissau, Guinea and Liberia); 13 have validated the national action plan (Botswana, Cameroon, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Egypt, Ethiopia, Kenya, Lesotho, Namibia, Niger, Swaziland, Togo, Tunisia, Zambia); while 19 countries have officially adopted the action plan on child labour (Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cabo Verde, Comoros, Côte d’Ivoire, Ghana, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Morocco, Mozambique, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda).
150. In Mauritania, the Government endorsed in May 2015 the national action plan against child labour developed in less than two years with support of the ILO. The national action plan was validated on 30 March 2015 by the tripartite partners.

151. Nigeria’s national policy for the elimination of the worst forms of child labour was adopted by the Federal Executive Council in 2013. A national action plan and a Hazardous Child Labour List were validated in 2013 and national and state Steering Committees on Child Labour are in place. State-level action plans consistent with the national policy and the national action plan were also approved in Ogun and Oyo States. South Africa has a Child Labour Programme of Action that is currently in its third phase and covers the 2013–17 period. Amendments were made to the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (No. 20 of 2013) to reinforce legislation protecting children from the worst forms of child labour. In August 2013, Liberia launched the National Steering Committee for the elimination of the worst forms of child labour in the country. The Malawi Draft National Child Labour Policy is being finalized and the Outcome Document of the 2012 National Conference on Child Labour in Agriculture is being used to guide child labour elimination action. Child labour desks were established in key Malawian institutions in 2013 such that the desk officers can coordinate child labour issues and champion the mainstreaming of child labour into their respective institutions.

152. Zimbabwe launched the Child Protection Fund in support of the National Action Plan for Orphans and Vulnerable Children in Zimbabwe (2011–15). The objectives of the Fund were to enhance the protection and well-being of children living in the poorest and most vulnerable households through delivery of regular and reliable cash transfers. In February 2013, Cabo Verde established the National Committee on Prevention and Elimination of Child Labour, which is a consultative body that will articulate different interventions related to child labour. Although child labour is not perceived to be a major issue in Mauritius, the Government has ratified the ILO Conventions on child labour (Conventions Nos 138 and 182).

153. In December 2012, the 15 ECOWAS member States adopted a regional action plan for the elimination of child labour in West Africa. The regional action plan aims at supporting national efforts to develop and implement national action plans and, inter alia, provides for a peer review mechanism. To boost the implementation of the ECOWAS regional action plan, a Network of ECOWAS Parliamentarians against Child Labour in West Africa was set up in December 2014. This example is expected to inspire the Central African subregion and other subregions of Africa.

1.1.13. Target 13: Rooting out the remnants of slavery

**Target:** All (100 per cent) 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.

**Achievement:** 23 (43 per cent) member States (Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Côte d’Ivoire Egypt, Ethiopia, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Lesotho, Liberia, Malawi, Mauritania, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania, Togo, Zambia and Zimbabwe) have made progress.

154. African States’ commitment to eradicate all forms of forced labour is underscored by the fact that all countries 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 one (Eritrea) have also ratified the Worst
Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182), which covers forced labour and slavery of children.

155. Niger has manifested a bold commitment to combat forced labour and slavery. The Ministry of Labour has established a National Commission on Forced Labour and Discrimination and a national action plan has been drafted. With ILO support, a survey was conducted by the National Statistics Institute on forced labour by adults and children. In May 2015, Niger became the first country to ratify the 2014 Protocol to the Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29).

156. Mauritania has also made some progress by adopting a roadmap for the eradication of slavery, designing a detailed implementation plan and adopting a new law against slavery. An agency responsible for socio-economic programmes to promote the eradication of slavery has been set up. In April 2015, the Government adopted a new bill on slavery to replace that of 2007, and in August 2015 the Parliament approved the bill which considered slavery as a “crime against humanity”. Mali adopted a law in 2012 abolishing human trafficking, and Cameroon has banned forced labour in its prisons. Ethiopia supported 2,682 victims of trafficking through rehabilitation, support services and vocational training and linked them up with microfinance institutions. The capacity of key government stakeholders was strengthened to ensure that they effectively understand, prevent and prosecute trafficking. Zambia’s current national action plan (2011–15) provides a national multi-sectoral response to prevention, protection and prosecution. In 2012, Zambia developed a national referral mechanism and guidelines for protecting and assisting victims of trafficking. The Ministry of Labour and Social Security has incorporated elements in its labour inspection form which make it possible to detect forced labour and human trafficking.

157. Lesotho enacted the Anti-Trafficking in Persons Act in 2011. Liberia has established an Anti-Human Trafficking Secretariat. In February 2015, Malawi passed the Trafficking in Persons (TIP) Act and the Government of Zimbabwe has likewise adopted an anti-trafficking law. Togo, Benin and Côte d’Ivoire have adopted laws criminalizing the trafficking of children. Guinea-Bissau has drafted a TIP legislation. Guinea drafted a full TIP bill in 2011–12, which has not yet been signed into law. Togo’s TIP bill is still to be enacted; meanwhile its counter-trafficking efforts are governed by the Penal Code. Cabo Verde does not have TIP legislation but does have anti-smuggling laws.


Target: All (100 per cent) 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.

Achievement: 34 (63 per cent) member States have made some progress in developing anti-discrimination policies and enacting supporting legislation in respect of occupation and employment (Algeria, Angola, Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Comoros, Congo, Côte d’Ivoire, Egypt, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Guinea, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Mali, Malawi, Mauritius, Morocco, Mozambique, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Seychelles, Somalia, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania, Tunisia, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe).
Progress towards achieving the targets: 2007–15

158. In Liberia, anti-discrimination legislation is embedded within the Decent Work Bill currently tabled before the National Legislature for ratification. In Nigeria, the HIV and AIDS Anti-Discrimination Act were enacted in 2014. Zambia and Malawi enacted the Persons with Disabilities Act 2012, and Disability Act 2012, respectively, to ensure that special interest groups with disabilities are protected. In Tunisia, the 2014 Constitution protects the disabled and other vulnerable groups. A 2014 ministerial decree bans all types of discrimination in Algeria and requires that 1 per cent of all jobs in the public and private sectors be reserved for people with special needs. Many fiscal advantages and tax rebates are extended to private entities which recruit them. Cameroon adopted a law in 2010 giving priority to persons with disabilities in the recruitment process if they are equally qualified. In Niger, clauses in the revised Labour Code and the civil service statute have instituted a 5 per cent quota of available posts for disabled people. In Ethiopia, the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs developed the labour sector programme to operationalize the commitments outlined in the Growth and Transformation Plan, a national five-year development framework (2010/11–2014/15). The programme included a national action plan to improve the implementation of laws and policies governing the employability and employment of persons with disabilities. The Ugandan Government enacted the Employment (Sexual Harassment) Regulations, 2012.

159. In 2014, South Africa published the Pay Equity Regulations, which include criteria and guidelines for assessing work of equal value. These regulations triggered the implementation of the equal pay for work of equal value principle contained in the Employment Equity Amendment Act that was promulgated in 2013. The Women Empowerment and Gender Equality Bill was adopted by the National Assembly in 2013.

160. Several countries have adopted a gender-targeting approach to employment. Benin formulated an employment promotion programme specifically targeting women. In 2014, Cameroon adopted the National Gender Policy Document whose strategies include promoting gender equality and equal access to employment and economic opportunities. In Guinea and Mali, the Governments have adopted national gender policies. The National Youth Employment Strategy in Morocco is being reviewed to ensure that it is gender-responsive and tailored to the differing needs and aspirations of young women and men.

161. Zimbabwe’s new Constitution of 2013 provides for equality of treatment and non-discrimination. Both women and men are afforded equal treatment and have the right to equal opportunities in the political, economic, cultural and social spheres. The National Gender Policy for 2013–17 promotes gender equality in the social, political and economic spheres. Following a detailed review of Angolan labour law, Angola revised the terms of maternity provision in its Constitution and its Labour Code. Tripartite constituents partnered with their Brazilian counterparts to promote the rights of female and male workers with family responsibilities, and the Government revived its system of gender focal points in each government department, which has been largely dormant since 2004.

162. In Angola, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia, progress has been made in promoting domestic workers’ rights. Constituents in Angola, the Committee of Unionized Women and the Domestic Workers Union were capacitated to support the rights of domestic workers, and to lobby for the ratification of the Domestic Workers Convention, 2011 (No. 189). As a result, the Angolan Union of Domestic Workers has initiated a campaign entitled “End Modern Slavery” and begun lobbying Government and parliamentarians to ratify Convention No. 189.

163. In Zambia, national surveys on the “Magnitude of Domestic Workers in Zambia” and the “Patterns of Employment Arrangements and Working Conditions in Domestic Work in Zambia” were conducted to ascertain whether domestic work was
gender-responsive, and to examine the issues of maternity protection, work–life balance, and gender stereotypes within different kinds of domestic work. In the United Republic of Tanzania an advocacy campaign is under way to promote awareness and knowledge of domestic workers’ rights and the training of trade unionists, with inputs from gender specialists.

Major factors contributing to progress or the lack thereof

164. There is growing commitment, as well as political and financial support for gender equality and women’s empowerment among African constituents, UN agencies, donors, the World Trade Organization, the World Bank Group and the International Monetary Fund. This is particularly evident in the areas of women’s entrepreneurship and private sector development where the World Bank and the International Finance Corporation have become very active since 2007, often in partnership with the ILO. There is continued financial support for gender equality in the world of work from the Norwegian, Swedish and Irish Governments, and for women’s entrepreneurship and the rights of disabled workers from the Irish Government.

165. However, the lack of women in leadership positions and the small size of the formal economy mean that most workers (and women in particular) do not benefit from legislative and policy progress in anti-discrimination legislation.

1.1.15. Target 15: Escaping the informal economy trap

**Target:** Three-quarters (75 per cent) 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.

**Achievement:** 19 (35 per cent) member States have made some progress (Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Egypt, Ethiopia, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, Senegal, South Africa, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe).

166. Mozambique has simplified the registration of new businesses (Decree No. 5/2012) to reduce business licensing procedures, eliminating the need for environmental impact studies and pre-inspection, among others. Cameroon has established a one-stop shop for registration formalities and several regional integrated information centres for business creation. South Africa has adopted a National Informal Business Upliftment Strategy aimed at facilitating (guiding) the development of an enabling policy and regulatory environment for mainstreaming the broader participation and competitiveness of South Africa’s informal business sector. A few provinces have established provincial policies for the informal economy. The Kenyan National Safety Net Programme has been established to create a framework for harmonizing the cash transfer programmes. In Burundi, the National Social Protection Policy provides guidance on learning from current experiences in the informal economy. *La Mutuelle de Santé du Bénin*, a mutual health insurance scheme covering sickness and retirement, is now open to informal sector workers and to all who are excluded from the formal social security schemes. Nigeria is in the process of developing guidelines for the extension of labour protection to the informal economy. In Egypt, a total of 167 enterprises engaged in waste collection have been formalized to become small private sector companies. Informal sector
workers in Malawi are now able to enjoy freedom of association as they have their own trade union, namely the Malawi Union for the Informal Sector.

167. Social economy, social protection floors, and microinsurance schemes are among the options being explored to extend social protection and create employment with a view to bridging the gap between the formal and informal economies. When access to finance is fully integrated into strategies, it can become a powerful driver for change by, inter alia, facilitating the transition to formality for micro-enterprises and reducing the vulnerability of economic units.

1.1.16. Target 16: A fair deal for Africa’s migrant workers

**Target:** Three-quarters (75 per cent) 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.

**Achievement:** 19 (35 per cent) member States (Algeria, Egypt, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Morocco, Mozambique, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania, Tunisia, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe) have taken initiatives towards the target.

168. Mauritius guarantees the rights of migrants, as enshrined in Article 3 of its Constitution which provides for a general recognition of human rights without discrimination on a number of grounds including place of origin. In addition, under the Employment (Non-Citizens) (Restriction) Exemptions Regulations, migrant workers are entitled to the same terms and conditions of employment applicable to local workers including remuneration, hours of work, holidays with pay, minimum age for employment, end-of-year gratuity, and compensation in the event of termination of employment on the employer’s initiative. Rwanda adopted its Immigration and Emigration Law in 2011 making all Africans eligible to obtain visas on arrival. Furthermore, in 2013, Uganda, Rwanda and Kenya agreed to waive the work permit fees to allow for free movement of labour between the three countries.

169. Nigeria’s national policy on labour migration (2014) upholds the fundamental human rights of migrant workers and protects them against discrimination in the workplace. Malawi is currently drafting its National Labour Migration Profile. The United Republic of Tanzania enacted the Non-Citizens Employment Regulation Bill, 2014, to regulate the employment of non-citizens in the United Republic of Tanzania (mainland). The Act regulates the recruitment of foreigners and vests the Labour Commissioner with all powers to issue work permits to foreigners, replacing the previous system whereby permits were issued by various institutions. In 2014, Sudan passed a new resolution allowing Sudanese nationals working abroad to receive their remittances in foreign currency, and exempting unskilled workers from taxes and fees.

170. South Africa has begun a process of national dialogue towards the development of a National Labour Migration Policy that will provide for the protection of migrants’ rights. In 2011, jurisprudence from the South Africa Commission for Conciliation, Mediation and Arbitration, the administrative tribunal, extended its jurisdiction to migrant workers, including undocumented, irregular, illegal workers. Non-national workers are not covered by the Unemployment Insurance Fund and access social protection benefits on the basis of contributions per sector, industry, and occupation. The Government of Zimbabwe has developed a draft labour migration policy which is currently under consideration. The
draft policy is the result of tripartite engagement and seeks to deal with all issues pertaining to safe labour migration and protection of migrants.

171. At the subregional level, the SADC Labour Migration Action Plan and SADC Labour Migration Policy Framework were adopted by SADC Ministers of Labour and Employment in 2013 and 2014 respectively. The SADC Migration Policy Framework provides for the extension of inspection services and the protection of migrants’ rights across the SADC countries. The EAC Common Protocol, which became effective on 1 July 2010, commits member States to align their national legislations to the Protocol’s articles governing labour migration. To that end, Rwanda repealed its former legislation in 2011, but other member States are still assessing the scope for alignment. The ECOWAS Youth Employment Action Plan for 2013–18, adopted in December 2012, includes a number of labour migration issues such as encouraging intra-regional mobility. Furthermore, the ECOWAS Commission has adopted the action plan for enhanced labour market and migration statistics. In addition, a draft guide on strengthening the protection of migrant workers has been developed.

172. At the continental level, the 24th Ordinary Session of the AU Assembly of Heads of State and Government (2015) adopted the AU Declaration and Plan of Action on Employment, Poverty Eradication and Inclusive Development which includes labour migration for regional integration among its priority areas of focus. In order to accelerate the implementation of the labour migration plan of action, the 24th AU Assembly also endorsed the Joint AU, ILO, International Organization for Migration (IOM), and UNECA Programme on Labour Migration Governance for Development and Integration in Africa (Joint Labour Migration Programme (JLMP)). Furthermore, the Heads of State and Government called on the ILO and other key partners to support the implementation of the JLMP. This four-year programme for cooperation and capacity building to support member States and regional economic communities is focused on achieving better governance of labour and skills mobility, primarily within Africa. Key issues being addressed under the JLMP include: implementing regional protocols on free movement of persons; ratifying relevant ILO and other international Conventions; addressing the skills shortage and recognition of qualifications; improving labour migration and labour market data; extending social security coverage to migrant workers; promoting decent work for migrants through application of labour standards; and ensuring better management of labour migration flows both within Africa and between Africa and other regions, notably Europe and the Arab States.

173. In addition to high-level advocacy, the ILO has supported this process by providing technical inputs to AU technical meetings with all the eight regional economic communities and with regional and subregional employers’ and workers’ organizations. Furthermore, some seed funds have been provided to support the finalization of the programme document and the mobilization of resources for implementation.

Major factors contributing to progress or the lack thereof

174. Recent events which have facilitated better work for migrant workers include: the AU Declaration and Plan of Action on Employment, Poverty Eradication and Inclusive Development which was approved at the Special Session of the Labour and Social Affairs Commission of the AU, held in Windhoek, Namibia, from 23 to 25 April 2014. Labour migration is one of the four key policy areas. The JLMP recently adopted at the 24th Summit of the AU (2015) will support the implementation of the labour migration component of the AU Migration Policy Framework for Africa.
175. Meanwhile, the slow progress in achieving this target stems from the fact that migration has largely been managed as a security concern, rather than a labour market issue. Hence, migration issues are generally discussed within the national security and immigration units of governments. Many discussions on labour migration do not include all the key stakeholders; notably employers, trade unions, ministries of labour and, indeed, the migrants. Furthermore, there is a shortage of human, financial and institutional resources/capacities at all levels to address the challenges in a comprehensive manner. Moreover, there has been limited coordination which has resulted in poor cohesion between employment and migration policies.

1.1.17. Target 17: Improving information for better policies

Target: By 2015 all (100 per cent) 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.

Achievement: 35 (65 per cent) member States (Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Cabo Verde, Comoros, Côte d’Ivoire, Egypt, Ethiopia, Gambia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Morocco, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Rwanda, Senegal, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Togo, Tunisia, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe) are making progress towards the target.

176. Progress has been made towards this target, but labour market information remains scanty in most member States. Some African member States have mechanisms in place to produce labour market information and statistics. However, most of them do not produce such information on a timely and regular basis. Systematic data collection and analysis is needed to establish baselines, measure progress and inform policy development.

177. Mauritius and South Africa have functioning labour market information systems in place which provide annual series of data on the size and composition of the labour force. South Africa generates its labour force survey on a quarterly basis and, therefore, publishes quarterly labour force survey reports. Lesotho established its labour market information system in 2013 with the assistance of the ILO, and it will be fully functional after the incorporation of other internal mechanisms. Malawi is in the process of establishing its labour market information system. Currently, the national steering and technical working committees have been set up to expedite the establishment of the system.

178. Namibia developed baseline data and key employment indicators were agreed upon. With the establishment of a new Statistics Agency, the Namibian labour force survey will be conducted annually. The latest surveys were conducted in 2012 and in October 2013. Gambia has set up a labour market information system. The first labour data collected will serve as the baseline for future reporting and for assessing progress on employment creation and poverty reduction.

179. There have been some improvements in the collection and analysis of labour market data relating to young people. This has largely been the result of work done under the ILO School-to-Work Transition Survey projects which have helped some African countries to develop and implement national action plans for youth employment by improving data collection and analysis.
1.2. National efforts to translate the DWAA targets into national results

“... ILO constituents to contribute actively to the development, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the programmes as well as the mobilization of the necessary resources.”  
(Conclusions of the 11th African Regional Meeting)

1.2.1. Implementing the Decent Work Agenda in Africa: 2007–2015 through DWCPs

180. In its conclusions, the 11th African Regional Meeting called 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”.

181. A total of 45 member States (83 per cent of African countries) have either finalized or are implementing or drafting DWCPs (Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Chad, Cameroon, Cabo Verde, Central African Republic, Comoros, Congo, Côte d’Ivoire, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ethiopia, Gabon, Gambia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe, Sierra Leone, Senegal, Seychelles, Somalia, South Africa, South Sudan, Sudan, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Togo, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe).

1.2.2. DWCP design and implementation

182. DWCPs are designed through a tripartite participatory process of social dialogue to set the national priorities, outputs and outcomes to be achieved, and determine the monitoring and evaluation mechanisms. Member States acknowledge that the DWCP has been designed through a participatory planning process involving the tripartite constituents and, in some countries, other stakeholders. DWCPs focus on a limited number of priorities to ensure focus and to maximize development impact. DWCP priorities are selected taking into account the country-specific context.

1.2.3. DWCP monitoring and evaluation

183. Countries have adopted different follow-up mechanisms for DWCP implementation, monitoring and evaluation. In some countries (Kenya, Nigeria, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia) the implementation, monitoring and evaluation mechanism is a National Tripartite/Steering Committee. The DWCP in South Africa and Kenya is overseen by a Steering Committee of the National Economic Development and Labour Council and the National Labour Board respectively, which are the statutory tripartite consultative social dialogue mechanisms in these countries. Others have established tripartite steering or advisory committees for monitoring and evaluating the implementation of the national DWCP (Ethiopia, Swaziland, Botswana and Zimbabwe). At the programme and project levels, implementation is also supported by tripartite project advisory committees (PACs) and technical working groups.

184. Mechanisms for implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the DWCPs have also been established at the subregional level. The formulation, implementation and management oversight of the SADC DWCP is the responsibility of the SADC
Progress towards achieving the targets: 2007–15

Employment and Labour Sector Technical Committee, composed of selected representatives from government, organized labour and business. The regional follow-up and monitoring/evaluation of implementation has not been effective due to the lack of reliable regional labour market data. The weak labour market information systems at country level are not providing the necessary statistics to feed the regional/global database.

185. At the regional level, DWAA outcomes have been implemented at two complementary levels: within the ambit of the AU core priorities of the 2004 Ouagadougou Declaration and Plan of Action on Employment Promotion and Poverty Alleviation, and under the AU Declaration and Plan of Action on Employment, Poverty Eradication and Inclusive Development. Implementation of the targets is anchored in the work of the AU tripartite Labour and Social Affairs Commission. In 2014, this ministerial-level Commission was transformed into the AU Specialized Technical Committee on Social Development, Labour and Employment and remains tripartite. The implementation of the prioritized DWAA outcomes has also been facilitated through the Regional Coordination Mechanism. The ILO-coordinated support from the UN family, within the Regional Coordination Mechanism, feeds into the work of the AU and the relevant tripartite AU organs. These prioritized DWAA areas include: the promotion of youth employment, the extension of social protection, labour migration and improved labour market information.

1.2.4. Mobilizing the necessary resources

186. In general, most of the countries with DWCPs have made significant efforts to mainstream decent work into national development strategies. Even though information on the total volume of resources raised by countries for decent work outcomes is not currently available, there have been good practices pertaining to national budgetary allocations to fund DWCP outcomes. The South African Government has made significant budgetary allocations over the years to deliver on this priority by diverting substantial resources towards public employment investment programmes, and the promotion of enterprises in order to address one of its key priorities outlined in its medium-term strategic framework, namely: to promote the creation of decent work opportunities and employment.

187. Many countries continue to look to development partners, in particular the ILO to fund the DWCP. This attitude stems from the relatively limited financial allocations to decent work outcomes. Furthermore, social partners have a limited capacity to mobilize and manage resources. The funding scope of development partners in some cases may not include activities related to decent work. While many countries now have DWCPs, which they fully own, some still perceive them as ILO TC programmes for which the Office should mobilize the required resources.

188. At the subregional level, despite being designated as the main institutional stakeholders for implementation, follow-up and reporting on DWAA, the regional economic communities have not been able to mobilize resources for the implementation of regional employment frameworks. Although the SADC has been able to convene sector meetings under the SADC Employment and Labour Sector which have facilitated the discussion and completion of the regional DWCP by governments, employers and workers at the regional level, SADC has not yet managed to raise resources for the implementation of the regional programme. Efforts are currently under way to mobilize the required resources within the broader framework of the Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan, which is the full SADC policy document. Regional economic communities have provided more technical support than financial resources and this has hampered programme implementation at the national and regional levels.
189. At the regional level, support for the implementation of the prioritized DWAA targets has largely come from the AUC (internal resources), European Union, ILO, the United States Agency for International Development, the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) and other UN agencies. The Sub-cluster on Employment and Labour plays a key role in supporting the AUC to mobilize the technical and financial resources needed to deliver on these regional decent work outcomes. To address some of the challenges associated with funding decent work outcomes, the 24th AU Assembly called on the AUC to work with the AfDB to establish an Employment and Social Cohesion Fund.
2. Beyond the targets: Progress towards achieving other commitments embedded in the conclusions and recommendations of the 11th and 12th African Regional Meetings

“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.” (Conclusions of the 11th African Regional Meeting)

190. In the conclusions of the 11th African Regional Meeting, ILO constituents adopted a comprehensive approach to the implementation of the DWAA. It is a framework which guides the Office and its constituents to adopt “a systematic and step-by-step approach” to DWAA implementation. It is a roadmap anchored on the following pillars: mobilization of the tripartite constituents, significant programme of support, communication, follow-up mechanisms, partnership, knowledge networking and updating, reporting. It was through these mechanisms that the Office was expected to contribute to constituents’ efforts to implement the Agenda. Furthermore, the conclusions of the 12th African Regional Meeting emphasized two areas of action in which the Office was expected to support member States to accelerate DWAA implementation for some of the targets which still lagged behind and support constituents to enhance the performance of the DWCPS. The ILO, in line with its mandate, has made significant contributions to its constituents to implement the DWAA.

2.1. Mobilize tripartite constituents on the continent

191. The ILO has effectively promoted and supported the development and implementation of the DWCP as a mechanism for mobilizing tripartite constituents towards implementation of the DWAA. The DWCP is designed through a tripartite participatory process of social dialogue to set the national priorities, outputs and outcomes to be achieved, and determine the monitoring/evaluation mechanisms. The ILO Regional Office for Africa, working with other ILO units, including the Bureaux for Workers’ and Employers’ Activities, has invested in strengthening the capacities of the social partners and their institutions to engage effectively in developing, implementing and monitoring results-based DWCPs. Targeted training programmes have been implemented in the countries with regional organizations such as the Organization of African Trade Union Unity, the African Regional Organization of the International Trade Union Confederation (ITUC-Africa) and Business Africa, to enable them to contribute in building the capacity of their members to engage effectively in the formulation, implementation and monitoring of DWCPs. The ILO International Training Centre in Turin (Turin Centre) has also contributed to capacity building for the social partners.

2.2. Develop a significant programme of support for DWAA

192. DWAA targets have been integrated into the ILO strategic planning framework and programme and budget processes. Hence the regional priorities reflected in the global planning frameworks are derived from the DWAA. The promotion of youth employment, employment-intensive investments, rural employment, the informal economy, eradication of the worst forms of child labour, development of social protection floors, HIV/AIDS
reduction at the workplace, social dialogue and capacity-building for workers’ and employers’ organizations, women’s employment and gender equality, labour migration, labour market information and promoting decent work in fragile States are some of the priorities reflected in the ILO programme and budget during the reporting period. Within the results-based framework of the ILO, regional resources were prioritized to support the achievement of these outcomes.

193. Furthermore, the ILO has provided technical resources and funds to support member States towards the achievement of the prioritized targets set in the DWAA. It is noteworthy that the main vehicle for ILO support to DWAA implementation is the DWCP. By April 2015, 83 per cent of African countries had finalized or were either implementing or drafting DWCPs and two regional decent work programmes had been prepared and endorsed by regional economic communities (SADC and EAC).

194. Another strategy to promote the implementation of the DWAA is to develop a regional strategy that addresses the issue from a specifically African perspective. For instance, in an effort to help address institutional and policy problems that hinder the elimination of the worst forms of child labour and to facilitate the scaling up of national efforts to attain the DWAA targets, the International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) and the ILO Regional Office for Africa developed a Focus on Africa Strategy aimed at consolidating, improving and expanding the ILO’s support to constituents and partners, with particular attention to critical issues such as tripartite national ownership, institutional and technical capacity, effective mainstreaming of child labour concerns into the programmes and budgets of concerned departments, and effective social mobilization. Correspondingly, the ILO has expanded its technical assistance for the formulation and implementation of national action plans in the Africa region. As part of this strategy, the ILO Regional Office for Africa has also established a virtual, integrated, regional child labour resource centre (CLIC Africa) to facilitate and support actions by ILO constituents and other stakeholders, aimed at accelerating the achievement of DWAA targets.

195. Moreover, tripartite social dialogue on decent work issues has been facilitated by the establishment of social partner organizations like the Southern Africa Trade Union Confederation, Private Sector Foundation, Eastern Africa Trade Union Congress at the regional economic community level. In West Africa, this has enabled employers, workers and ministries of labour to start the process of harmonizing the social security legislation at the subregional level, which could be crucial in ensuring the portability of migrant workers’ rights to their social benefits.

196. In an effort to facilitate the delivery of DWAA outcomes, the ILO works closely with the three labour administration centres in Africa, namely: the African Regional Labour Administration Centre and the Centre régional Africain d’administration du travail, for English- and French-speaking countries respectively, and the Arab Centre for Labour Administration and Employment.

197. Social dialogue is a governance pillar. The ILO has been building the capacity of employers’ and workers’ organizations and of ministries of labour. It has also supported the establishment of institutional mechanisms to promote social dialogue, such as the National Council for Social Dialogue, and its support provided through the Regional Programme for the Promotion of Social Dialogue in French-speaking Africa has facilitated social dialogue in many African countries (such as Senegal, Mali and Burkina Faso). Collaboration with the AUC, UNECA, IOM and the regional economic communities has been strengthened and has resulted in the development of the regional JLMP.
2.2.1. Knowledge management

198. The ILO has provided advisory services, knowledge products/tools and fostered good practice in experience sharing. Through its Research Department, knowledge networks have been established, involving local research institutions in various countries on specific topics such as job-friendly macroeconomic policies. Joint research and different knowledge exchange activities are organized within these knowledge networks. One abiding challenge is how to capitalize better on existing knowledge in order to ensure better use of available resources.

2.2.2. Advocacy

199. The ILO uses rigorous evidence-based analysis on what works to create global, regional and national level debate on policies that support decent job creation and sustainability. It supports initiatives which increase the awareness of the public and constituents on various decent work issues through evidence-based advocacy and sensitization. Its renowned awareness raising on ILO Conventions has resulted in the ratification of a significant number of Conventions by member States. Awareness-raising campaigns have been organized to promote rights at work. Advocacy work was carried out in Liberia and Sierra Leone on the principles of the Tripartite Declaration of Principles concerning Multinational Enterprises and Social Policy, focusing on the three key sectors: agriculture, banking and mining. The key message of the campaign was the role of MNEs in creating decent employment for young people. The campaign yielded specific recommendations and next steps for government and employers. It was based on an ILO action-oriented study entitled “Promoting job creation for young people in multinational enterprises and their supply chains”. Evidence-based research and data collection were conducted to inform policy-making processes in the United Republic of Tanzania. For example, cooperative databases were developed to determine the contribution of cooperatives to national economic development, including job creation.

200. The ILO’s code of practice on HIV and the world of work (2001) and HIV and AIDS Recommendation, 2010 (No. 200), have contributed to awareness raising and the design of workplace interventions and policies in various countries. The ILO has supported advocacy work on promoting domestic workers’ rights in the United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia. The campaign in Zambia was backed by evidence from two national surveys, namely: “Magnitude of domestic workers in Zambia” and “Patterns of employment arrangements and working conditions in domestic work in Zambia”. The United Republic of Tanzania campaign was aimed at raising awareness on domestic workers’ rights.

2.2.3. Capacity building

201. Capacity building is a core function of the ILO’s technical support to its constituents. The Turin Centre plays an important role in the Organization’s capacity-building measures for constituents. Moreover, capacity building is embedded in almost all its projects and programmes. The capacity-building, training and learning interventions of the Turin Centre for Africa are designed, planned and delivered according to the ILO results-based framework and in full alignment with the prioritized DWAA outcomes and the DWCPs.

202. During the 2007–15 period, the Centre contributed to each of the targets reviewed in this report. About one third (or 28,500) of the participants at the Centre’s
training interventions were from Africa. Furthermore, the Centre implemented 706 specific regional, subregional and national activities, of which 114 were conducted in Turin and 568 in the region. In line with the capacity development approach of ILO constituents, 101 activities were specifically developed for employers’ organizations and 87 for workers’ organizations. These activities were demand-driven, aligned with the DWCPs and addressed the technical, organizational and institutional needs of the organizations.

203. Regional programmes included: Mainstreaming Employment in National and Regional Development Policies; Labour Migration Academy; Social Security Academy; and International Labour Standards for the Judiciary. Examples of country-based programmes include capacity building on microfinance in Congo, Ghana, Mozambique, Nigeria, Rwanda, Uganda and Zambia; value chain development in Nigeria and Egypt; public employment services in Morocco and Tunisia; occupational safety and health in Zambia and Ethiopia; social protection in Togo; international labour standards and social security in Portuguese-speaking African countries; and labour administration and labour inspection in French-speaking countries. Gender equality concerns were mainstreamed across the interventions. As a core strategy to promote institutional development and increase outreach, the Centre established a wide range of partnerships with regional and national training and academic institutions to build their competencies and transform them into partners in delivering training at the national, subregional and regional levels.

2.3. Working with the AUC, UNECA, AfDB and United Nations Development Programme on a regional employment forum

204. It was agreed that the AfDB, UNECA, AUC, regional economic communities, ILO and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) would form a continent-wide employment forum to serve as a think-tank, a network of specialists, academics, policy-makers, research institutes, employers’ organizations, trade unions, employment-focused non-governmental organizations, regional bodies and international agencies with a strong interest in promoting productive employment and decent work (including a focus on young people, the informal economy, the business environment, skills development and the macroeconomic framework). It was envisioned that this employment forum would hold annual regional meetings and perhaps biannual continent-wide meetings of African employment policy-makers and develop a research agenda on productive employment and decent work issues, as resources become available.

205. Given the limited progress made under this initiative, the recruitment of the macroeconomist in the Regional Office will facilitate the resuscitation of this forum during implementation of the 2015 AU Declaration and Plan of Action on Employment, Poverty Eradication and Inclusive Development.

2.4. Organize an annual African decent work symposium to review knowledge on DWAA

Beyond the targets

the Social Protection Floor in Africa. The Declaration has created an impetus for the wide acceptance of the social protection floor concept by ILO constituents in Africa.

2.5. Develop partnerships with other international agencies, use the CEB Toolkit for Mainstreaming Employment and Decent Work and participate fully in the Delivering as One initiative

2.5.1. Partnering for the achievement of DWAA targets

207. Development partners have also supported national responses to the challenge of employment and decent work, mainly through the UNDAF and other joint UN platforms.

208. Despite the inclusion of employment and decent work in the national development framework, certain work areas, such as those covered by Conventions Nos 87 and 98, attract very little donor interest. This poses some challenges in the mobilization of adequate resources. However, some development partners have responded to the challenge of employment and decent work and all of them generally recognize the lead role of the ILO in this area. Some of them (such as the Swedish, Flemish and Finnish) have channelled support through the ILO. Others have engaged independently through a range of different agencies, including both government and foundations. Migration has attracted particular attention from other development partners, including the European Union, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, and the AfDB.

209. In Malawi, the ILO, FAO, UN Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN-Women) and AfDB are supporting the Joint Programme on Youth Employment and Empowerment. The IOM supported the Government in collaboration with the ILO to develop the national policy on labour migration in Nigeria. The European Union, in collaboration with the federal Government of Nigeria and the ILO, developed a Special Action Programme to Combat Forced Labour. The United States Department of Labor provided financial support for the implementation of the ECOWAS I and II projects to eliminate the worst forms of child labour in West Africa by strengthening subregional cooperation through ECOWAS.

210. The ILO has partnered with the AU/AFDB initiative for harmonizing labour statistics in targeted countries. The Employment and Labour Sub-cluster, co-chaired by the ILO and the AUC, has been increasingly used as an entry point to ensure that prioritized DWAA targets are achieved through joint UN support to the AUC. Hence, the ILO, UNECA, IOM, AfDB, UNESCO, UNFPA, UN-Women, FAO, UNIDO, the United States Agency for International Development and the European Union are supporting specific DWAA priorities of the AUC.

2.5.2. Making full use of the CEB Toolkit for Mainstreaming Employment and Decent Work

211. Although the CEB Toolkit for Mainstreaming Employment and Decent Work has not been widely used in Africa since it was introduced, its application in African countries has helped to guide the mainstreaming of decent work into national development frameworks. The United Republic of Tanzania used the Toolkit to assess the inclusion of
employment and decent work outcomes in 31 plans, programmes, policies and strategies. Following the assessment, stakeholders recommended that the Toolkit be adapted to the local context. A prototype toolkit was developed and translated into Kiswahili for wider application. In the United Republic of Tanzania (mainland), ten ministries, departments and agencies and 24 local government authorities have systematically mainstreamed employment and decent work into the 2012–14 Medium-Term Expenditure Framework. Consequently, four ministries reported employment outcomes in the 2012–13 budget speech. The United Republic of Tanzania has used the Toolkit to mainstream decent work into national plans and enable ministries to set employment targets in the national budget. Zimbabwe has mainstreamed employment and job creation targets into subsequent national development framework documents. In Ethiopia, the CEB Toolkit was used to help the United Nations Country Team (UNCT) to effectively mainstream employment and decent work outcomes into its programmes, particularly UNDAF II.

212. In Nigeria, the UNCT and tripartite partners have been trained in the use of the Toolkit. This has resulted in greater appreciation of employment and decent work. In 2010, the Toolkit was distributed to the Malawi UNCT and tripartite constituents. In 2011, a presentation to the UNCT was planned with the hope that the Toolkit could be applied to the UN agencies in Malawi. However, it has not been explicitly used by constituents/development partners in the country. The UNDAF does not fully exhaust issues of decent work, which is an indication that the Toolkit has not been used adequately by UN agencies other than the ILO. The first version of the CEB Toolkit was introduced to the Egypt UNCT in 2008. Comments were made which pointed to the need for more sensitization on the Toolkit in order to obtain the support of other UN agencies.

2.5.3. Participation in the “One UN” pilot country initiative

213. Four African States (Cabo Verde, Mozambique, Rwanda and the United Republic of Tanzania) volunteered as pilot countries to test the One UN approach, termed “Delivering as One”. The ILO and national constituents have participated in the One UN approach. In the United Republic of Tanzania, for example, the ILO’s role has been to advocate for an employment-centred development strategy; a comprehensive package of social safety nets and social transfers for the vulnerable; and enhancing institutional capacities, laws, regulations and practices to address the structural causes of decent work deficits and poverty in the country. This has been underscored by the application of international labour standards embedded in the human rights-based approach adopted in all its interventions. The effective engagement of the ILO has ensured the participation of the tripartite constituents.

214. In Botswana, a Delivering as One “self-starter”, emphasis has been laid on the need for greater, well-coordinated and targeted UN support. As an upper middle-income country already investing a substantial amount of its budget in the social sectors and with very limited prospects for aid, Botswana requires more strategic UN engagement that is aimed at supporting upstream processes for greater efficiency and effectiveness.

215. By working together, the agencies within the Botswana UNCT have been able to utilize each other’s relative strengths to collective advantage. Having a shared vision on how to work in an upper middle-income country, the agencies have begun to shift partner expectations away from funding of projects to a focus on technical expertise and upstream solutions. One effect has been less focus on the sizes of budgets and more emphasis on adding value to country efforts.
2.6. Report on the implementation and achievement of these targets at the next African Regional Meeting

216. The Director-General presented a Report to the 12th African Regional Meeting entitled Empowering Africa’s peoples with decent work. The Report undertook a critical mid-term review of the implementation of the DWAA. While recognizing the ambitious nature of the targets, the report highlighted the considerable work done and the substantive results achieved. The Report identified two critical steps which needed to be taken to achieve the targets set in the DWAA, namely: country ownership of the Agenda; and a strong commitment to mainstream the Decent Work Agenda into national development strategies, policies and programmes. It also provided a five-pillar framework on how best to accelerate the implementation and deepen the real impact of the Decent Work Agenda. These five pillars are: building synergies between the 17 targets; strengthening capacity; managing knowledge; bridging resource gaps; and partnering for decent work.
3. General factors which have facilitated or impeded achievement of targets

217. A number of factors have been cited as having contributed to the progress made towards achievement of the targets or undermined implementation of the DWAA. These factors are grouped according to various thematic areas such as implementation, resources and capacity.

3.1. Commitment

218. One major factor that has facilitated the implementation of the DWAA is the political will and commitment among Africa’s leaders to place employment and decent work at the core of their poverty reduction strategies. Africa has given greater recognition to the importance of employment creation and enterprise development which guarantee sustained economic growth and poverty reduction by increasing the opportunities for decent work. Such recognition needs to be backed up by the allocation of enough budgetary resources for the implementation of decent work outcomes.

3.2. Capacity

219. Labour administration is weak and ministries in charge of labour in some countries do not have the needed capacities to facilitate the implementation of international labour standards. Inadequate coordination at national levels impacts negatively on the development impact in pursuit of the DWAA. The limited technical capacity of the staff employed in workers’ and employers’ organizations in many countries has impacted negatively on the ability to deliver on DWAA targets. The social partners often face resource constraints to implement the identified priorities and monitor them appropriately.

220. One of the major challenges identified by the constituents, and which is relevant to the achievement of DWAA targets by the Office, is the lack of adequate technical capacity in some areas prioritized within the DWAA. The review of the field structure and the new positions being created will ultimately help to address these capacity gaps.

3.3. Resources

221. The allocation of national budget resources to fund decent work outcomes varies across countries. As indicated in earlier sections of this report, there are very good examples of countries demonstrating a commitment to fund agreed decent work outcomes. It is expected that such examples, like South Africa and Cameroon, will inspire more countries to increase their allocations to decent work outcomes. Inadequate funding of the key ministries responsible for addressing the DWAA targets has contributed to the failure to achieve significant national results. The global financial crisis and the more recent Ebola outbreak have also drained away the limited available resources from other urgent problems in the region such as economic and natural crises.
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222. In addition to channelling existing resources, more needs to be done by strengthening the capacities of constituents to mobilize financial resources, especially at the local level, to implement DWCPs and technical cooperation projects aligned with DWAA, and thus achieve the envisaged result. National, regional economic community and regional resource mobilization strategies need to be strengthened.

3.4. Programme scale

223. The type of ambitious targets set in the agenda calls for national commitment to own and drive the process, as well as allocate substantial budget resources. The significant progress made with employment-intensive investment programmes is evidence of what can be achieved when the agenda is owned and mainstreamed at both the policy and operational levels. The mainstreaming of national strategies for promoting employment-intensive investment programme approaches in South Africa translated into institutionalization of the approaches, the allocation of substantial budgetary resources for their implementation, and impact on decent job creation and poverty reduction. There is a balance between short-term results (quick deliverables) and long-term structural reforms.

224. The enhanced focus on national ownership of the programmes and projects and institution-building to facilitate scale-up is a positive development towards achieving the targets. Moreover, the ILO re-orientation for better collaboration in programme development is yielding comprehensive and transformational programmes like the JLMP.

225. The ILO has supported member States through a wide range of projects and programmes. Lessons learnt indicate the need for longer term engagement and support which facilitates national upscaling of the programmes.

3.5. Context/environment

226. The enhanced focus on inclusive and sustainable growth and development impacts creates opportunities to focus on some of the DWAA targets. However, a number of factors have constrained progress. The Ebola outbreak affected programme implementation in West Africa. The adverse socio-economic effects of the Ebola epidemic, while not fully substantiated, can be expected to aggravate the vulnerability of the population in the affected countries. Lack of peace, security and stability has also impeded progress, especially in fragile States and situations.

3.6. Partnership/strategic collaboration

227. It is widely recognized that decent work issues need the effective engagement of different government ministries and departments; especially those in charge of finance and development planning. While there are good practices of such strategic inter-ministerial collaboration, there is need for improvement in the institutional arrangements to foster inclusive and sustainable policy dialogue. The collaboration of the social partners with key development stakeholders in a way that fosters coherence also needs to be further developed.

228. In addition to the above, enhanced cooperation within the UN system will facilitate the implementation of the identified DWAA priorities. Delivering as One has
opened up opportunities for UN agencies to enhance the coherence of the UN and increase efficiency and impact while reducing transaction costs. In this regard, the UNCT has demonstrated a commitment to work together in planning, implementing and managing “as one” within the existing accountability and reporting structures. The unfolding 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development provides opportunities to build on the gains of joint UN action, while reducing the pain.

3.7. **ILO assistance portfolio responsiveness**

229. The achievement of the DWAA targets is also likely to be enhanced by improved institutional capacity; better working relationships with the regional economic communities, the AUC and other development partners such as UNECA; and improved strategic involvement of the ILO in the Regional Coordination Mechanism of the UN system to support the AUC.

230. One of the factors contributing to progress is the fact that the Regional Office has been making extra efforts to ensure planning and implementation of DWCPs in alignment with the DWAA.
4. Main conclusions

“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” (Conclusions of the 11th African Regional Meeting)

4.1. Achieving the targets

231. The DWAA is rather ambitious, with numerous targets. However, the agreement on these targets was a step in the right direction because it provided an opportunity to articulate the key issues that African governments, employers and trade unions considered crucial. It also set clear priorities to guide collaboration/partnership with all stakeholders and development partners. Based on reported results, encouraging progress has been made towards the achievement of envisaged targets. In some areas, the countries have achieved results beyond expectations, although more work is required in other areas. It is also noteworthy that the action taken on the recommendations of the 12th African Regional Meeting for the ILO to increase support to specific areas like labour migration, social protection, forced labour and child labour, has contributed to the improved results in these areas. The summary of the results under each of the targets is presented below.

Target 1

232. This target can be considered as achieved as most countries in Africa now give greater recognition to the importance of employment creation and enterprise development which guarantee sustained economic growth and poverty reduction by increasing the opportunities for decent work. Almost all African countries have included the generation of decent work among the key objectives of their national development frameworks. The results on employment are noticeable mainly at the strategic and political levels. Implementation remains a challenge as evidenced by the little progress made to create sufficient jobs to absorb the large working-age population. Efforts are still needed to ensure that the mainstreaming process translates into policy implementation and impact on sufficient decent job creation and poverty reduction.

Target 2

233. There is a very strong and encouraging trend in member States’ commitment to the economic empowerment of women, which is translating into the adoption of strategies to promote sustainable enterprises and the development of programmes to boost women-owned enterprises. Furthermore, there is also growing political and financial support for female entrepreneurship and women’s empowerment. This is all the more significant because the AU has declared 2015 as the Year of Women’s Empowerment. Since the majority of women entrepreneurs operate in the informal economy, accelerating the
transition to formality remains a key strategy for unlocking the potential of their enterprises to generate decent work opportunities.

**Target 3**

234. Member States have made progress in adopting policies and strategies to curb youth unemployment. In spite of the increased political support and the supportive programmes, the largest segment of Africa’s population, namely young people, dominate the ranks of the unemployed and underemployed. Youth unemployment remains high and has even increased in some countries. In many instances, the high rate of policy adoption is not matched by programmes scaled to meet the challenges in a context of low job creation. With many young people operating in the informal economy, transition to formality is a critical component of any effective policy intervention.

**Target 4**

235. While most member States have reviewed and implemented some policies and programmes in education and training, it is doubtful that the second target – ensuring that half of Africa’s workforce has obtained new or improved skills – is even marginally met, considering the current workforce. One of the fundamental issues to be addressed is the need to improve the quality and orientation of national educational systems, and eliminate the mismatch between the education curricula and the skills demanded by the labour market. To address this mismatch, some 20 countries, which applied the school-to-work-transition approach, with ILO support, have drawn attention to the need to improve labour market information and analysis of labour market data relating to young people, which they have used to achieve different outcomes.

**Target 5**

236. More countries have adopted national strategies for promoting employment-intensive investment approaches in general and specific reconstruction and recovery programmes. Some have taken steps to institutionalize the approaches and to commit substantial budgetary resources to their implementation. The creation of decent work opportunities has been accelerated in countries emerging from crisis, even though such opportunities remain insufficient.

**Target 6**

237. Member States continue to make substantial progress in extending basic social protection. The Second African Decent Work Symposium served as a catalyst to unleash a wave of initiatives on the implementation of the social protection floor in Africa. There is need for better collaboration between the different government departments and institutions responsible for this important area of work.
**Target 7**

238. More member States have made progress in improving policy dialogue on HIV among a wide range of stakeholders beyond the health sector and this has encouraged a more inclusive approach to HIV response; universal access to prevention, care and support at and through the workplace; and scaling up of universal access to prevention, care and support for workers in the region. However, there is still need to develop other mechanisms to reach out to informal economy workers.

**Target 8**

239. More countries have made progress in domesticating labour standards to improve workers’ protection at the workplace. There is a trend towards improving the minimum wage and labour inspection. However, the quality of data and reporting systems still poses a challenge when assessing progress in the reduction of occupational accidents and diseases. Since the majority of workers are in the informal economy, countries are making an effort to set up mechanisms and build workers’ capacity with a view to expanding protection to that sector.

**Target 9**

240. The tripartite built-in requirements for DWCP preparation, adoption, implementation, and monitoring have significantly contributed to progress in promoting and stimulating social dialogue, and in some instances, revitalizing social dialogue mechanisms.

**Target 10**

241. More and more countries have revised their labour codes or inserted clauses in their legislation, including the supreme law such as the Constitution, to guarantee the rights to freedom of association and collective bargaining. The challenge remains the effective respect and enforcement of those clauses.

**Target 11**

242. There has been a greater effort to enhance the domestication and implementation of ratified Conventions through legislation, capacity building, support tools, action plans, and other mechanisms. This integrated approach recognizes and addresses the multiple challenges faced by many countries in their drive to effectively implement these Conventions. Those efforts have been extended to the interventions needed to apply the Conventions to the informal economy.
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**Target 12**

243. There has been significant progress as 19 countries have officially adopted the action plan on child labour, compared to just one in 2011. This achievement stems from the fact that member States are supported by a dedicated regional programme and technical cooperation projects and programmes under the International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC).

**Target 13**

244. Compared to only six countries which had legislation/policies and/or programmes in 2011, there has been a marked improvement as 17 more countries have made progress to eradicate all forms of forced labour by 2015.

**Target 14**

245. There has been progress in the legislative and policy area (for example, equal pay legislation, maternity provisions, disability legislation). However, the small size of the formal economy means that most workers (and women in particular) do not benefit from legislative and policy progress in anti-discrimination legislation. Gender gaps remain wide with a majority of women concentrated in the informal economy. They continue to be disproportionately discriminated against at the social, economic and political levels. Although promising policies have been adopted, they are not fully implemented.

**Target 15**

246. Although some countries have developed initiatives to formalize the informal economy, much more effort is required to make a significant difference in achieving the desired level of results. The recently adopted the Transition from the Informal to the Formal Economy Recommendation, 2015 (No. 204), provides the necessary impetus and guidance for Africa’s tripartite constituents to facilitate transition from the informal sector. However, the positive demonstration effect they have generated should encourage scaling up of such initiatives, thereby improving the lives of millions of working people.

**Target 16**

247. Labour migration has grown in significance and interest in the region. Progress has been made at the national level with the enactment of supportive policies. Progress has also been made at subregional level (for example, UNECA, ECOWAS, SADC) and at the AU level with the adoption of the JLMP. Its implementation will certainly facilitate the achievement of the DWAA targets on labour migration. Priority attention will be needed to build the capacities of all the constituents at the regional, subregional and country levels to develop, implement and monitor fair migration policies and programmes.
**Main conclusions**

**Target 17**

248. Availability and quality of labour market information has improved considerably over time. However, countries without such quality information still outnumber those with functional labour market information systems.

249. The analysis above highlights several trends critical to the effective delivery of the Agenda:

- There has been remarkable progress at the strategic and political levels with a high adoption rate for promising policies. However, implementation remains a challenge and policy adoption is not matched by programmes scaled to make an impact. Many interventions have been too small in scale to really make a difference.

- Similarly, improved ratification and domestication of ratified Conventions does not lead to effective respect and enforcement.

- Since the majority of workers, women and young people operate in the informal economy, they do not benefit that much from legislative and policy progress. However, there is a positive trend towards transition to formality as countries are making an effort to develop and establish mechanisms, and build their capacity to reach out to informal sector operators with support and protection.

4.2. **Delivering an ambitious agenda**

250. Right from inception, it was recognized that DWAA was an ambitious undertaking. As stated in the conclusions of the 11th African Regional Meeting: “The Decent Work Agenda in Africa 2007–15 sets ambitious objectives for all ILO constituents and the Office”. However, the conclusions recommend “a systematic and step-by-step approach [that] will yield the results”. This entails translating the objectives into short, medium and long-term achievements, and adopting a realistic timeframe for their achievement. Implementation of the Agenda requires an effective delivery mechanism; a pertinent baseline for measuring progress; a breakdown into pre-established, easily understood and mobilizing steps; as well as a refinement of the targets to make them measurable. These are preconditions for effective delivery of such a transformative vision. DWCPs were expected to provide such operational ground. That is why the conclusions made their development time-bound (2009) to ensure that all countries start on time. Nevertheless, these results show that the DWAA targets were achieved thanks to effective ownership of the Agenda at the national level, the ILO’s efforts and contribution and the support of development partners.
5. Strategic recommendations on the way forward

5.1. Re-align the DWAA targets with the key priority areas of the AU Declaration and Plan of Action on Employment, Poverty Eradication and Inclusive Development

251. One of the most recurrent concerns about DWAA has been the ambitious nature of its targets. The DWAA targets declared in 2007 were overly ambitious considering the time frame, the lack of adequate institutional and human capacity, as well as inadequate resources allocated for realizing envisaged results. As ILO African member States and constituents reflect on decent work post-2015, greater attention should be devoted to making the DWAA targets manageable. Committing all member States to meet nine targets by 2015 was impractical. That commitment implicitly transformed those nine targets into national priorities, although in practice countries did not prioritize them as such in their DWCP, unless a particular DWAA target was considered to be a national priority.

252. The 2015 AU Declaration and Plan of Action on Employment, Poverty Eradication and Inclusive Development, adopted by ILO African Heads of State in January 2015 constitutes an effective basis for anchoring ILO support to decent work outcomes in Africa. The Declaration identifies six key priority areas to foster the achievement of the continental Decent Work Agenda from 2015–24, namely: (i) political leadership, accountability and good governance; (ii) employment for young people and women; (iii) social protection and productivity for sustainable and inclusive growth; (iv) well-functioning and inclusive labour market institutions; (v) labour migration and regional economic integration; and (vi) partnership and resource mobilization. These are key issues which this review has identified for further support and action. Furthermore, in January 2015, African Heads of State and Government requested the ILO, along with the AfDB, UNECA, UNDP and other key international partners “to develop a five-year programme to ensure the implementation of the Declaration, its Plan of Action and Follow-up Mechanism”. Hence, support to this continental agenda which has been adopted by the Heads of States will, in turn, generate prioritized support for decent work outcomes related to youth employment; social protection; labour migration and labour market governance as core themes. Additional support will be provided for enabling key priority areas such as partnership and resource mobilization. This would be the initial step in rethinking the strategic, programmatic and institutional synergies and coherence between the AUC and the ILO.

30 Nine out of the 17 targets committed “all African States” to meet those targets by 2015.
5.2. **Leveraging DWAA implementation experience in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development**

253. The DWAA has been a learning experience which the ILO and its constituents should build upon. Consequently, the ILO should:

- Engage member States and its constituents in an experience-sharing drive on the implementation of the DWAA that should culminate in a common *knowledge base*. This platform should be built around the sustainable development goals and targets contained in the AU Declaration and Plan of Action on Employment, Poverty Eradication and Inclusive Development, with lessons derived from implementation of the DWAA targets.

- Use its DWAA promotion experience and that of its constituents to set up a *programme of support* mirroring the effective approaches that lead to recorded target achievement. Such an evidence and experience-based approach, based on the factors which facilitated or impeded progress during the 2007–15 phase, would help member States to overcome obstacles to their progress towards achievement of the Decent Work Agenda.

- Fill the gaps in the monitoring mechanisms of DWAA implementation by enhancing appropriate mechanisms and tools for measuring progress and taking corrective measures.

5.3. **Effective implementation of DWCP as the main vehicle for support of the DWAA**

254. As recommended by the 11th African Regional Meeting held in 2007, the main vehicle for ILO support to the implementation of the DWAA is the DWCP. Achievement of the DWAA is intrinsically linked to effective implementation of DWCPs. The review has identified a number of measures that need to be put in place to enhance the effective contribution of DWCPs to the achievement of the DWAA targets. These are:

1. develop a strategy to mobilize resources for DWCPs;

2. seize the opportunity provided by DWCP reviews to strategically align with national development strategies;

3. strengthen the institutional mechanism for supervising and monitoring the implementation of DWCP outcomes with allocation of adequate resources; tripartite constituents should not only drive the development of DWCPs, but should also lead the implementation and monitoring mechanisms of country programmes;

4. strengthen the strategic partnership around the implementation of DWCPs, particularly in the UNDAF framework, to address support needs and mitigate financing gaps;

5. implement a complementary capacity-building programme for the various categories of stakeholders as needed;
Strategic recommendations on the way forward

(6) strengthen the operationalization of the monitoring/evaluation system and develop tools for reporting;

(7) facilitate the dissemination and sharing of information through exchange platforms; and

(8) develop a mechanism for reporting on the implementation of DWCPs to ensure the attainment of a maximum of outputs to achieve envisaged results.

5.4. Introduce and expand the use of the Decent Work Country Profile scorecard

255. The Office can promote and support member States in adopting and annually presenting a Decent Work Country Profile, along the lines of the MDG scorecard. The country profile should be aligned with the sustainable development goals and decent work indicators from the AU Declaration and Plan of Action on Employment, Poverty Eradication and Inclusive Development. Such metrics will be an effective tool for assessing and comparing the performance of countries, and for sharing experiences and good practices. It can also provide the impetus for accelerating the development of labour market information systems.

5.5. Programme scale matters in achieving the ambitious DWAA targets

256. To facilitate the scaling up, there is need for:

■ substantive efforts from member States to move beyond individual donor-supported projects to the implementation of various policy frameworks on a national scale; and

■ enhanced ILO focus on national ownership of the programmes and projects and institution building, as well as ILO re-orientation for better collaboration in programme development which leads to comprehensive and transformational programmes like the JLMP.

5.6. Match sound policies/action plans with effective implementation mechanisms

257. In spite of the very good policies and action plans in place, there is poor implementation in many countries. There is need for:

■ member States to develop/adopt clear guidelines for policy implementation, and to enhance inter-sectoral coordination and collaboration on decent work issues; and

■ the Office to pay greater attention to building constituents’ capacity for effective policy implementation.
5.7. Foster domestic resourcing for sustainable national decent work outcomes

Many DWCP initiatives remain underfunded. National constituents need to increase funding for agreed decent work outcomes, and the ILO needs to develop an effective mechanism to support country efforts. Inadequate funding to the key ministries responsible for addressing the DWAA targets undermines efforts to achieve significant national results. This has been exacerbated by weak national and regional resource mobilization strategies. National constituents and the ILO both recognize the need to step up resource mobilization for the implementation of DWCPs. Local and regional resource mobilization is an area in which the ILO and its constituents need further reinforcement. The support provided by the Regional Office in the development of quality DWCP and project documents has facilitated resource mobilization by countries. However, more needs to be done to:

- **Strengthen the resource mobilization capacities of constituents and ILO staff** to ensure that adequate resources are available to implement DWCPs and TC projects aligned with DWAA.

- **Remove the ambivalence on mainstreaming.** There is a gap between the growing political will and the commitment of the continent’s leaders to mainstream employment and decent work into their poverty reduction strategies and budget allocation processes for the implementation of DWAA outcomes. Such commitment has to be matched by resource allocation.

- **Place greater emphasis on resource mobilization** to demonstrate the feasibility of ILO technical tools and methodologies before governments can be convinced to invest their own resources.

- **Promote the emerging trend of domestic development funding**, an arrangement whereby governments provide domestic resources for ILO technical assistance, mostly for employment-intensive investment programmes. This has been found to reinforce the sustainability of decent work outcomes and should be encouraged.


- AU Declaration and Plan of Action on Employment, Poverty Eradication and Inclusive Development.

ILO: Decent Work Country Profiles (Africa region).

- Decent Work Country Programmes (Africa region).


Towards sustainable and inclusive growth in Africa through decent work


International Monetary Fund: *Regional economic outlook: Sub-Saharan Africa*, Washington, DC.
