ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT IN THE WORLD OF WORK

FOCUS ON YOUTH, ESPECIALLY GIRLS & YOUNG WOMEN

PLAN INTERNATIONAL POSITION PAPER
Plan International’s Position Statement - Economic Empowerment in the World of Work

PLAN INTERNATIONAL POSITION STATEMENT:

ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT IN THE WORLD OF WORK:
FOCUS ON YOUTH, ESPECIALLY GIRLS AND YOUNG WOMEN

Plan International believes the foundations for an economically empowered generation must be laid early. Discrimination and harmful social norms, particularly gender norms, affect us from childhood, and disproportionately impact girls. Gender inequality persists across the lifecycle, accompanying girls into adulthood and impacting their ability to make decisions, access education and training, secure decent work, challenge gender stereotypes, reach senior positions and be paid a living wage. A lifecycle approach which tackles discrimination from birth, overcomes barriers and offers support and opportunity at each life stage, is vital to enable young people to become economically empowered and to break the economic dependence experienced by many girls and women.

RELEVANT INTERNATIONAL HUMAN RIGHTS MECHANISMS AND AGREEMENTS

- Plan International believes that States must ratify, remove reservations to, and fully implement and monitor international human rights instruments and labour standards designed to further economic empowerment and protect the right to decent work for all, especially young people. It is crucial that governments align their national and local laws and policies with global Conventions to that end.

- Plan International is committed to upholding all rights contained in the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women1 and calls for States to urgently take any necessary measures to modify or abolish existing laws, regulations, customs and practices which allow, justify or perpetuate discrimination against girls and young women. We also fully support the adoption of a new ILO Convention on ending violence and harassment in the world of work against women as well as other vulnerable workers.

- Plan International stresses the importance of private sector actors taking steps to avoid, monitor and address any possible negative human rights impacts generated through activities or business relationships in countries where they operate. We fully support the adoption of a legally binding Instrument on Transnational Corporations with Respect to Human Rights3 to facilitate implementation of the UN Guiding Principles on Human Rights and Business and to maximise protection for vulnerable workers, among which young people – especially women – are often overrepresented.

SOCIAL NORMS, GENDER INEQUALITY AND LINKS TO ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT

- Plan International firmly challenges all social norms that contradict human and
labour rights, particularly gender equality. We are deeply committed to tackling the root causes of gender injustice, especially social norms defining differing expectations of girls’ and boys’ economic status. We will seek to transform unequal gender power relations in the world of work and society. The time has come to achieve an even playing field for girls and women, meeting global commitments, including the ambitions set out in the Agenda 2030 Sustainable Development Goals.

- It is crucial to recognize the collective responsibility of all stakeholders – from governments to the private sector, civil society, traditional leaders and wider communities – to combat discriminatory and harmful social norms and practices such as child, early and forced marriage and the denial of sexual and reproductive health and rights that limit female economic prospects and foster violence against girls and women in the world of work and beyond.

- Plan International stresses the particular importance of engaging boys and men as beneficiaries, rights holders and agents of change in challenging harmful gendered norms and attitudes, and achieving gender equality at work and in society.

### MARKET-RELEVANT EDUCATION, TRAINING AND SKILL DEVELOPMENT

- Plan International stresses that in order to meet global commitments – including Agenda 2030 – States must fulfil their obligations to ensure universal access to inclusive, quality early childhood, primary, secondary, tertiary and technical and vocational education. This starts with providing safe access to schools, including secure public transportation and education environments, with adequate, gender-responsive WASH facilities. It is especially important in crisis contexts for girls and other vulnerable groups.

- Plan International believes that a life skills-based, 21st century education – from foundational numeracy and literacy skills, to digital and financial education – should be available to all children on the basis of equal opportunity and non-discrimination, including in emergency settings. Education must also address gender barriers in training content and delivery, and prevent gender-segregated learning and job functions by making non-traditional vocational opportunities equally available to women and men. Girls and young women must feel empowered to embrace ‘unconventional’ study subjects and occupational training choices such as Information, Communication and Technology (ICT), Science, Technology, Engineering and Math (STEM), and entrepreneurship courses.

- It is crucial that targeted investments are made in improving the quality and effectiveness of education and Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET). This will help address children’s needs and job aspirations, increase motivation for education, boost school attendance and transition rates, and enable young people to gain market-relevant skills as well as the knowledge and confidence to succeed in their chosen field of work. To achieve the latter while increasing impact, we call for gender-transformative and youth-responsive investments in TVET that bring together public and private sector partners (especially employers).

### DECENT WORK CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES IN THE 21ST CENTURY ECONOMY

- No worker should face discrimination at work on the basis of gender, age, disability or other determinant of their identity. Plan International especially condemns the double discrimination affecting young women on the basis of being both young and female. We believe all young people must be given the opportunity of decent work, paid at living wage levels. Denial of these rights permanently impairs their economic security and ability to contribute to the well-being of those they support, including children – thus threatening the
very foundations of strong, prosperous and cohesive societies.

- Plan International recognizes that investing in young women’s economic empowerment through decent work is both the right thing and smart thing to do in order to advance gender equality and promote inclusive and sustainable economic growth. However, we fully acknowledge that many young women still struggle to combine paid work with care responsibilities. The rise of a competitive female workforce therefore requires provision of distinct opportunities for girls and young women – especially in high growth economic sectors like STEM; to address the gender wage gap; and to provide flexible working conditions combined with adequate labour protection. Such protection should especially include paid parental leave for both parents.

It is also crucial to invest in and expand safe, legal youth employment and entrepreneurship opportunities in emergency settings. This is particularly important for displaced youth. When young people – and especially young women – are denied these opportunities, they are more likely to be forced into informal, insecure and low paid work that puts them at increased risk of poverty and abuse.

- Plan International stresses that while financial exclusion is a direct impediment to youth and female empowerment, this can be effectively tackled through evidence-based accessible, collective credit and savings mechanisms and other inclusive approaches which generate assets at community level. Successful examples include Village Savings and Loans Associations (VSLA) and Youth Savings Groups (YSG).

- Plan International recognises that the solidarity and social networks generated through savings groups is of particular importance to girls and young women. We believe that inclusive savings and credit approaches can serve to support the achievement of young people’s educational goals and life ambitions, and are a stepping stone for deeper economic and financial inclusion among girls and women, by allowing them to invest in small business or self-employment activities.

- We also believe that technology and the internet must become an enabler of, rather than a barrier to, girls’ and young women’s economic empowerment. This means girls and women must have equal access to new technology, develop the skills and knowledge needed to utilise it, and be involved in creating digital tools and solutions. Without this, digital instruments will become alien to girls’ and women’s needs, wants and rights – incapable of supporting them to become tomorrow’s leaders and change agents. Without girls’ effective participation in ICT, the digital economies of the future will only replicate existing gender disparities in technology ownership, usage and workforce representation.

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**ACCESS TO PRODUCTIVE RESOURCES AND FINANCIAL AND DIGITAL INCLUSION AMONG GIRLS AND YOUNG WOMEN**

- Every young person should be able to make informed economic and financial decisions, be able to access and make productive use of economic assets, including land and financial products and services, such as bank accounts and credit. Discrimination and exclusion of young people – particularly young women – from economic assets and finance instruments poses a direct threat to their wellbeing and livelihood, increasing their reliance on others for basic subsistence and therefore, their vulnerability to poverty and abuse.

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**FEMALE UNPAID CARE AND DOMESTIC WORK**

- Plan International recognises that unpaid care and domestic work overwhelmingly affects many aspects of girls and women’s lives throughout the lifecycle. Therefore, institutional, policy and legal enabling
environments must be built that address girls’ and young women’s economic empowerment through the recognition, reduction and redistribution of unpaid work from an early age.

- We believe that unpaid work – the majority of which is undertaken by girls and women – must be formally recognised and appropriately valued as work. Economic policies which undermine investment in infrastructure and public services such as education, healthcare and social protection ignore the way girls’ and women’s invisible efforts subsidize the real economy and rely on them to pick up the care burden. This must change - starting with better provision of quality, affordable child-, disability and elderly care. The current absence or accessibility of such services profoundly undermines efforts to achieve gender equality and the economic empowerment of girls and women.

- We believe that social norm change which redistributes the responsibility of care from girls and women to boys and men is essential to achieve gender equality. Boys and men must start viewing care as their equal responsibility and this should be promoted by society through adequate policy. For instance, specific periods of parental leave reserved for fathers – or ‘daddy quotas’ - can encourage take-up among male employees. We also recognize the possible financial costs of using parental leave – especially for young families – and so we further call for well-paid parental leave periods that provide financial incentives and maximum flexibility while supporting the goal of women’s economic empowerment.

ECONOMIC MIGRATION, DISPLACEMENT AND TRAFFICKING RISKS: FORCED AND CHILD LABOUR

- We urge governments and relevant stakeholders to endorse and abide by all fundamental human rights instruments relevant to migrants, especially migrant workers (e.g. ILO Conventions on Migration for Employment and on Decent Work for Domestic Workers) to protect young people on the move – many of whom pursue better economic opportunities. This is also critical to enhance cooperation across borders, improve labour migration management practices and address debt bondage, forced labour and human trafficking – especially of girls and women – wherever it takes place. From private households employing women migrant domestic workers to global supply chains rising from the work of vulnerable migrant youth at the bottom of the pyramid, states should hold employer households, corporations and any recruitment intermediaries accountable for the labour conditions of all workers in homes and value chains – even when the latter stretch to other countries.

- We further believe that people on the move – labour migrants, refugees and other displaced people, particularly youth – have the potential to play important roles in the development of host communities and societies if they enjoy adequate levels of protection as dictated by their status. Providing support for skill- and livelihood-building as well as social protection and removing barriers to decent work can help young men and women on the move to become self-reliant where they live; prevent social exclusion and community tension; and offer economic and social benefits to both countries of destination (e.g. through filling in skills shortages) and origin (e.g. through the productive use of remittances sent back home by migrants).

- We recognise that the particular needs and vulnerabilities of girls and young women on the move must be urgently addressed in all interventions targeting children and young people. Adolescent girls in particular have needs that are distinct from those of children overall and also from adult women – however, these are too often neglected in displacement settings and emergency situations. Girls and young women who are denied economic empowerment opportunities through safe and legal livelihoods are more likely to become victims of modern slavery – trafficked and/or forced into hazardous, insecure and low paid labour that puts them at risk of violence and exploitation, and coerced into child, early and forced marriage and domestic servitude.
We further acknowledge that forced displacement places children – especially those unaccompanied and separated from parents, families and/or primary caregivers – at heightened risk of violence, abuse, exploitation and neglect, as well as the worst forms of child labour. Plan International recognises the importance of national legislation standards that adhere to ILO Conventions on the Worst Forms of Child Labour and Minimum Age for work. We therefore call for the immediate protection and rehabilitation of child labourers to preserve their rights and development potential.

Plan International emphasises that the right to organise and engage in labour unions and other forms of associations must be respected to enable workers everywhere to stand up for and advance all other rights, in line with ILO’s Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87), and Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98). This is especially important for young people, particularly women, who are known to be often working in non-standard, less protected forms of employment where traditional representation mechanisms are lacking. It is fundamental that youth and women representative organisations in the world of work are also given credible opportunities to engage closely with governments and employer organisations in labour-related decision-making processes.

Plan International further stresses that informal jobs should be no excuse for a ban on worker organisations and collective bargaining power. Again, this is all the more vital for women and youth considering their overrepresentation in informal work settings such as home-based work, domestic work and informal apprenticeships where their ability to negotiate job assignments, occupational health and safety standards and appropriate work support might be undermined, resulting in poor and risky labour conditions. In this respect, gender-based violence as a means to prevent women organising to resist abusive and exploitative situations cannot be tolerated and must be immediately addressed.

It is vital to strengthen the agency, autonomy and voice of children and young people – particularly of girls and young women – from an early age onwards. With increased self-confidence and leadership skills, children hold the potential to drive change within their communities. Knowing how to challenge the status quo and detrimental power dynamics becomes critical for young people as they engage with the world of work, negotiating their working terms and confronting discrimination in the workplace. We strongly believe that greater agency among youth, especially young women, will help them realise their full potential and reach decision-making levels both in business and politics – ultimately contributing to more gender equal societies. To achieve that, we call on businesses to create adequate pathways for young women to pursue and access positions of economic power and increase economic agency, and to work to eliminate biases against women in leadership positions.

Plan International recognises that policies which allow corporations and individuals to escape their fair share of taxes and/or pay relatively smaller tax shares compared with individuals and families have negative effects for overall income equality, with particularly devastating effects for the poorest in society, such as women-headed households. It is important that private sector actors, through social dialogue with government and worker representatives, support cohesive social protection schemes that help boost economic
development and worker productivity especially among young people.

- Plan International also emphasises that macroeconomic tools – such as tax regulations – sectoral policies and universal social protection schemes can have significant, gender- and youth-responsive poverty reduction effects by tackling girls’ and young women’s vulnerabilities throughout the lifecycle (e.g. from child benefits to maternity and healthcare protection, to old age pensions). To achieve this goal, it is critical that relevant spending, taxation, monetary and sectoral plans are reviewed from a gender-transformative perspective to inform the development of improved strategies and correct existing gaps. Youth-led organisations, female worker associations and other relevant CSOs representative of young people and women should be meaningfully engaged in that process, to ensure their interests are not side-lined but best reflected in budgetary choices and sectoral policies affecting social investments.

- Plan International further stresses that informal economy workers and young people living through, or displaced by, emergencies should not be left behind, but should be equally supported to enjoy benefits and protection through micro-level interventions, until conditions are created for them to be connected with wider government social protection schemes or linked to formal financial institutions and service providers.
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INTRODUCTION

This Position Paper underpins Plan International’s Global Strategy 2017-2022, 100 Million Reasons, and the achievement of our Purpose ‘to strive for a just world that advances children's rights and equality for girls’. Our purpose sends a strong message that we will not stop until all children are able to fulfil their potential to learn, lead, decide and thrive. Nowhere in the world can girls and young women exercise the same rights as boys and young men, and this is particularly so as they transition into and find their place in the world of work.

Why is a lifecycle approach to economic empowerment important?

Girls are disproportionately disadvantaged compared to boys, whether in education, health, work or family life. Gender inequality accompanies girls into adulthood and impacts their ability to make decisions, access education and training opportunities, secure decent work and break gender stereotypes, reach senior positions and be paid a living wage. Inequality also means girls and women undertake the majority of unpaid care work and are more vulnerable to exploitation. Finally, persistent inequality throughout the lifecycle often robs girls and women of the chance to make empowered decisions about their existence and future and in turn, those of their own children.

Recognising that human development among girls and women from birth to adulthood is a cumulative process, and that opportunities at each stage of life are critical if individuals are to fulfil their potential, Plan International’s approach to economic empowerment embraces a lifecycle approach. The process must start at an early age with information about economic rights and responsibilities and, over time, build life skills, competencies and mindsets needed for enhanced economic agency and power, and address wider structural and cultural factors such as gender roles and stereotypes, unpaid care, sexual harassment, policy and legal barriers, maternity rights and parental roles.

Economic empowerment is ultimately a reflection of young people’s ability to succeed and advance economically, particularly through decent work, and of their power to make and act on decisions that affect their lives. Because the unique needs and barriers that girls and young women face as a result of being both young and female are often overlooked or not adequately addressed, the general emphasis of the paper is on female economic empowerment, although it also includes situational analyses relevant to all children and young people.

The Position Paper further informs and outlines our influencing ambitions for Plan International’s area of Global Distinctiveness on Skills and Opportunities for Youth Employment and Entrepreneurship. Specifically, the Position Paper examines a range of issues that are integral to, and interlinked with, youth and female economic empowerment: gendered social norms; education, training and skills development; decent work opportunities and challenges; access to productive resources and financial and digital inclusion; female unpaid work; economic migration, displacement and trafficking risks (forced and child labour); voice, participation and representation in the world of work; and the macroeconomic framework supporting decent work.
**BASIC ACRONYMS AND DEFINITIONS**

**Child:** Plan International adopts the definition of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), which defines a child as anyone under the age of 18.6

**Decent work** sums up the aspirations of people in their working lives. It involves opportunities for work that is productive and delivers a fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families, better prospects for personal development and social integration, freedom for people to express their concerns, organize and participate in the decisions that affect their lives and equality of opportunity and treatment for all women and men.7

**Economic empowerment** involves both the ability to succeed and advance financially and the power to make and act on economic decisions.3 To succeed and advance economically, young people need the skills and resources to compete in markets, as well as fair and equal access to economic institutions. To have the power and agency to benefit from economic activities, young people need to know how to choose from various options, control resources and profits, etc.

**Employment:** Paid employment encompasses jobs where the incumbents hold explicit (written or oral) or implicit employment contracts which give them a basic remuneration which is not directly dependent upon the revenue of the unit for which they work. This unit can be a corporation, a non-profit institution, a government unit or a household. Persons in paid employment jobs are typically remunerated by wages and salaries, but may be paid by commission from sales.

**F/G/W/YEE:** Female/Girl/Women/Youth Economic Empowerment

**GBV:** Gender-Based Violence

**ILO:** International Labour Organization

**MSME:** Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises

**NEET:** A status referring to a person who is Not in Education, Employment or Training

**Non-standard or informal employment:** According to the ILO, such employment characterises own-account workers and employers employed in their own informal sector; contributing family workers, irrespective of whether they work in formal or informal sector enterprises; employees holding informal jobs, whether employed by formal sector enterprises, informal sector enterprises, or as paid domestic workers by households; members of informal producers’ cooperatives; and own-account workers engaged in the production of goods exclusively for own final use by their household (such as subsistence farming).

**Self-employment:** Self-employment encompasses jobs where the remuneration is directly dependent upon the profits (or the potential for profits) derived from the goods or services produced (where own consumption is considered to be part of profits). The incumbents make the operational decisions affecting the enterprise, or delegate such decisions while retaining responsibility for the welfare of the enterprise.9

**SRHR:** Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights

**STEM:** Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics subjects

**Underemployment** captures persons who are employed but whose working time is insufficient compared to an alternative employment situation in which they are willing and available to engage.10

**Unemployment** captures persons that altogether lack employment, but who are actively putting pressure on the labour market by seeking opportunities for employment and by being currently available to start working.11

**(T)VET:** (Technical and) Vocational Education And Training

**VSLA:** Village Savings and Loans Association

**Youth:** Any person between the ages of 15 and 24 to follow the UN definition, although depending on national legislations this can go up to 29, even 35 in some countries. The term is used interchangeably with ‘young people’.

**YSG:** Youth Savings Group
OVERVIEW: THE GLOBAL LANDSCAPE OF ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT AMONG GIRLS AND YOUNG PEOPLE

The foundations for an economically empowered generation must be laid early. Norms and inequalities affect us from an early age and critically impact on our access to education and ability to secure decent work later on. We therefore believe that a lifecycle approach (as set-out in the Introduction) which tackles these barriers from childhood, and addresses wider structural and cultural factors related to economic empowerment (such as gender roles and stereotypes, unpaid care, sexual harassment, policy and legal barriers, maternity rights and parental roles) is essential to achieve the change we want to see for young people, girls and young women in particular.

Decent work is a powerful tool for the empowerment of young women and men and has the potential to alleviate poverty among them and their families, communities and societies. However, sustainable job creation which offers decent work for young people is a worldwide challenge. In many contexts, young men and women have difficulties both establishing themselves on the labour market and securing stable, quality work. There are a number of reasons for that: for example, countries lack the optimal macroeconomic and sectoral policy mix (especially fiscal and social protection frameworks) to unlock inclusive economic growth (see chapter 8); educational systems do not adequately prepare youth with the skills needed to succeed (see chapter 2); and companies do not do enough to combat labour trafficking and abuses, debt bondage and other forms of offences across their global supply chains (see chapter 6). These are issues we need to urgently address for today’s children to be protected in tomorrow’s world of work and properly qualified to access the jobs of the future – particularly given fast-paced technological developments. These are also conditions to ensure girls and boys are given the opportunity to build and thrive in economically healthy and cohesive societies.

Chapters 2, 3 and 5 focus on how young women and men often battle against high unemployment, insecure contracts, poor remuneration and work exploitation. Many are working – sometimes in precarious conditions – but are still not earning enough to lift themselves out of poverty. In fact, roughly 156 million youth in emerging and developing countries can be defined as ‘working poor’: they live in poverty despite being in employment. In addition to low pay, young people frequently work in informal, part-time or temporary jobs (see chapter 3). This is often involuntary and could be an indicator that young people, especially women, are unable to insist on or negotiate better conditions (see chapter 7). In developing countries, 89 per cent of new jobs are in the informal sector where self-employment may be the only option for work. Yet limited or no access to economic resources like capital, land and markets – together with poor infrastructure and a lack of safe transportation – are all common constraints faced by youth self-starters and aspiring entrepreneurs (see chapter 4).

Chapters 1 and 5 specifically discuss gendered social norms affecting female economic empowerment. The rest of the paper further describes how norms manifest themselves in terms of the countless additional barriers experienced by girls and young women on top of challenges faced by youth in general. Traditional gender beliefs and social behaviours often consign girls and young women to bear the brunt of unpaid work (care, essentially); constrain their educational opportunities and choice of study subjects; limit their freedom of movement; prevent control over their own bodies and lives; and inhibit their participation in social, economic and political spaces. Chapter 1 in particular shows how girls and women continue to struggle with the. Moreover, at work and in business, women are generally paid less than their male counterparts (chapter 3); disproportionately affected by contract precariousness and informality (chapters 2 and 3); often passed over for promotional opportunities and senior positions (chapter 7); less likely to be effectively organised and represented (chapter 7); and less able to enjoy banking services and productive assets to build their own enterprises (chapter 4).

Girls’ unequal access to their rights and basic services in early life, such as nutrition, education and healthcare, followed by their unequal access to economic and financial resources and markets later in life, is strongly linked to differences in the economic outcomes.
of girls and boys, women and men. This has far-reaching consequences for whole economies; estimates suggest that if gender gaps in the labour markets were completely closed, as much as US$28 trillion, or 26 percent, could be added to global annual GDP by 2025. The World Economic Forum’s 2017 Global Gender Gap Report measures progress towards gender parity across four thematic areas – educational attainment; health and survival; economic participation and opportunity; and political empowerment. It concluded that gender parity is shifting into reverse for the first time since 2006, when measurements were initially captured. With the current rate of progress the overall global gender gap will be closed in 100 years – compared to an estimate of 83 years in 2016. This report serves as a stark reminder that the gains of the past must not be taken for granted.

Complementary to the ‘business case’ for investing in gender equality, there is a clear rights case. Girls and women account for one half of the global population and are entitled to equal access to health, education, economic opportunities and political decision-making power. As stated in Agenda 2030: ‘The achievement of full human potential and of sustainable development is not possible if one half of humanity continues to be denied its full human rights and opportunities.’

RELEVANT INTERNATIONAL HUMAN RIGHTS MECHANISMS AND AGREEMENTS

Laws and policies can promote economic security for children and empowerment of youth, for instance through ensuring equal access to education and training, decent work and financial institutions. International conventions and agreements can and should affect domestic legislation in this sense as well as local norms and practices. International human rights instruments and their monitoring bodies are thus useful in reminding States of their duties and holding them to account for their obligations to their citizens and those residing in the country.

However, many countries have ratified conventions or agreed to consensus documents, but made reservations to certain provisions, thereby effectively undermining them. Several countries have also ratified conventions or agreements but failed to implement them. This is a challenge for the international community as it prevents real progress towards achieving the goals of international frameworks and agreements and thus hinders the realisation of human and labour rights.

More specifically, in many contexts girls and young women face particular legal obstacles which restrict their lives and impact on their ability to pursue certain economic activities. Ninety percent of countries examined by the World Bank have at least one law that restricts economic equality for girls and women, who may be unable to conduct official transactions, own or use property or get a job. In numerous countries, women face the cumulative effects of multiple legal constraints, which seriously limit their economic opportunities. This will be further detailed in chapters 1, 3, 4 and 7.

Even more worryingly, after years of gradual progress towards greater recognition of girls’ rights and advancements towards gender equality, we are now witnessing a global backlash against the girls’ and women’s empowerment movement. The progress which has been made in recent years is under threat from a new wave of populism, which disregards the hard-won rights that girls and women around the world have fought for. Across countries and regions, there are now attempts to limit girls’ and women’s decision-making power over their bodies and lives by overturning legislation which protects their rights.

The 1979 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), ratified by 189 countries around the world, remains the best tool for defending female positions and status and requires States to prohibit discrimination and to ensure that legislation ‘embodies the principle of equality between men and women’. It has been described as a bill of rights for women and commits governments to ensuring that women have the same rights and opportunities to men in a range of fields. Of particular importance for female economic empowerment is Article 10, affording girls and women equal right to education, training, literacy programmes and scholarships; Article 11, affording women the right to decent work and non-discrimination, equal pay, social security benefits and
maternity leave; and Article 13, guaranteeing women equal access to loans, mortgages and credit. However, analysis by Plan International shows that while the CEDAW theoretically applies to all women, the Convention is rather ‘girl-blind’, as girls are only specifically mentioned in the context of education and female student drop-out rates (Art. 10 (f)). In the same way, about a third of the CEDAW’s General Recommendations do not include a single reference to girls.

Below is an overview of the other most important instruments for the economic rights of all girls, boys and youth. A more detailed overview of relevant instruments and agreements can be found in Annex 1.

**Universal Declaration of Human Rights 1948 (UDHR)**

The right to decent work has long been recognised in human rights mechanisms and is enshrined in Article 23 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights which stipulates that everyone has the right to freely choose their employment; to just and favourable conditions at work; to equal pay for equal work; to just and favourable remuneration; and to form and join trade unions.

**The Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)**

The Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) is signed and ratified by every State Party to the UN except the United States of America. This makes it a powerful international legal tool for protecting children’s rights.

Of particular importance is Article 29, which recognises the right to education for all children and outlines that States Parties have a responsibility to ensure compulsory, free primary education; available, accessible general and vocational secondary education; as well as accessible higher education; Article 32, which provides protection from economic exploitation and child labour; Article 34, which provides protection from sexual exploitation, including prostitution and pornography; Article 35, which prohibits all forms of sale or trafficking of children; Article 36, which prohibits all forms of exploitation; and Article 39, which outlines the responsibility of the State to rehabilitate child victims of neglect, abuse and exploitation.

**International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR):**

The ICESCR is an essential instrument for furthering economic and social rights – particularly for women. The Covenant specifically addresses the rights to work and to just and favourable conditions of work (articles 6 and 7) and the right to social security and an adequate standard of living (articles 9 and 11). Several articles contain specific references to women’s rights, including to equal pay (article 7) and paid maternity leave (article 10). However, similarly to the CEDAW, among the CESC Committee’s General Comments, only six out of 23 mention girls at all; two in each case focus on the issues of education, health/sexual and reproductive health, and non-discrimination in economic, social and cultural rights.

**International Labour Organization (ILO) core conventions**

The ILO’s Governing Body has identified eight conventions as ‘fundamental’. These are:

1. Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87);
2. Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98);
3. Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29);
4. Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105);
5. Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138);
6. Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182);
7. Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100);

These conventions cover central principles and rights at work, such as freedom of association and the recognition of the right to collective bargaining; the elimination of all forms of forced or compulsory labour; the abolition of child
labour; and the elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation. These principles are also covered in the ILO’s Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work (1998). There are currently over 1,367 ratifications of these conventions, representing 91.4 per cent of the possible number of ratifications. A further 129 ratifications are missing to meet the objective of universal ratification of the core conventions.

During the 2018 and 2019 International Labour Conference, the ILO will negotiate a further, new Convention and Recommendation on ending violence and harassment in the world of work, addressing the critical issue of gender-based violence.

**Agenda 2030**

In 2015, the United Nations adopted the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (often referred to as Agenda 2030 and the Sustainable Development Goals) – a robust and ambitious development agenda for the coming 15 years. Agenda 2030 commits 193 governments to a broad set of targets – far more comprehensive than that of the Millennium Development Goals.

Decent work is a pillar of Agenda 2030. It specifically commits governments to tackle the issue of young people who are not in employment, education or training as a matter of urgency through Goal 8. It also addresses a range of other issues of relevance to economic empowerment, including the elimination of poverty (Goal 1); the right to education (Goal 4); increasing access to financial services and to information and communications technology (Goal 9); and reducing inequality (Goal 10).

Gender equality and the empowerment of girls and women are embedded in the agenda as a whole and also addressed specifically in Goal 5. Agenda 2030 requires that States ‘adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls at all levels’. Commitments are expressed to ensure women’s full participation and equal opportunities for leadership in decision-making at all levels of political, economic and public life; to give women equal rights to economic resources and to own land and property; to recognise and value unpaid care and domestic work; and to end all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere. In essence, Agenda 2030 reflects States’ promise to strive to give equal opportunities to all and reduce inequalities of outcomes by eliminating discriminatory laws, policies and practices.

**UN Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights (UNGPs)**

The UN Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights are a set of guidelines for States and companies to prevent, address and remedy human rights abuses committed in business operations. They were endorsed by the UN Human Rights Council in June 2011. The “Protect, Respect and Remedy” Framework rests on three pillars:

1) The State duty to protect human rights against abuse by third parties, including business, through appropriate policies, legislation, regulations and adjudication;
2) The corporate responsibility to respect human rights, meaning to act with due diligence to avoid infringing on the rights of others and address adverse impacts with which they are involved;
3) The need for greater access to effective remedy, both judicial and non-judicial, for victims of business-related human rights abuse.

In June 2014, the Human Rights Council subsequently called on all Member States to develop National Action Plans (NAPs) to further the implementation of the UNGPs within their respective national contexts. Moreover, a Treaty on Transnational Corporations and Other Business Enterprises with Respect to Human Rights – currently discussed and expected to support the enforcement of the UNGPs – will reaffirm the pre-eminence of human rights over trade and investment interests, assert States’ responsibility and companies’ liability in this regard, and guarantee access to justice for victims of corporate abuse.

**The OECD Guidelines for Multinational Enterprises**

The OECD Guidelines for Multinational Enterprises are international recommendations by governments to enterprises in all industries. They define standards for socially and
environmentally responsible corporate behaviour and they include procedures for resolving disputes between corporations and the communities or individuals negatively affected by corporate activities. In May 2011, the OECD and non-OECD adhering governments updated the Guidelines, introducing substantial new content in areas such as human rights, due diligence and supply chain responsibility so they are aligned with UNGP principle 2 – the corporate responsibility to respect human rights. While the guidelines are not legally binding on companies, OECD and signatory governments are required to ensure that guidelines are implemented and observed.

Plan International’s position:

- Plan International believes that States must ratify, remove reservations to, and fully implement and monitor international human rights instruments and labour standards designed to further economic empowerment and protect the right to decent work for all, especially young people. It is crucial that governments align their national and local laws and policies with global Conventions to that end.

- Plan International is committed to upholding all rights contained in the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women and calls for States to urgently take any necessary measures to modify or abolish existing laws, regulations, customs and practices which allow, justify or perpetuate discrimination against girls and young women. We also fully support the adoption of a new ILO Convention on ending violence and harassment in the world of work against women as well as other vulnerable workers.

- Plan International stresses the importance of private sector actors taking steps to avoid, monitor and address any possible negative human rights impacts generated through activities or business relationships in countries where they operate. We fully support the adoption of a legally binding Instrument on Transnational Corporations with Respect to Human Rights to facilitate implementation of the UN Guiding Principles on Human Rights and Business and to maximise protection for vulnerable workers, among which young people – especially women – are often overrepresented.

Plan International’s recommendations:

- Governments must make every effort to raise national awareness of international labour standards and economic rights, as reflected in ILO Conventions, the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) and the 2030 SDG Agenda (specifically Goal 8 on the right to full and productive employment and decent work). Sensitization measures should emphasise the protection of human and labour rights with a focus on non-discrimination and equal opportunities, inclusion and gender transformation in the world of work, and target all concerned actors – especially gatekeepers such as local authorities and traditional and religious community leaders.

- Governments should adopt, budget for, implement and monitor gender-transformative and inclusive labour market legislations, policies, strategies and programmes removing barriers to the world of work for young people – particularly young women. That should include (but is not limited to) Finance Ministries allocating resources to relevant line ministries for them to manage gender-transformative youth employment initiatives; Ministries of Labour monitoring and enforcing gender-transformative occupational health and safety regulations as well as decent working conditions and terms; and governments submitting voluntary national reviews (VNR) on the adoption of positive labour practices in line with key SDGs.

- Governments should also develop participative National Action Plans to implement and monitor the UN Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights and actively engage with all relevant stakeholders – including communities adversely affected by business activities, CSOs and young people – in doing so.

- Businesses must have policies and processes in place which allow them to
comply with the principles outlined in the UN Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights and OECD Guidelines for Multinational Enterprises. This means taking effective action towards exercising due diligence and assessing any human rights-related risks in the context of business operations; and ensuring there exist youth- and women-friendly redressal mechanisms for potential victims of business activities.

International institutions including UN bodies, multilateral financial institutions and their respective working committees should step up their influence and ensure governments are held accountable for respecting international labour frameworks and developing gender- and youth-responsive labour market policies.

SOCIAL NORMS, GENDER INEQUALITY AND LINKS TO ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT

Social norms influence our lives from a young age. Perceptions about what it means to be a boy or a girl and expectations about how girls and boys, as well as men and women, should behave may limit aspirations or curtail ambitions. Thus, tackling these issues from childhood through adolescence and into adulthood (through a lifecycle approach) is vital. This chapter will examine the particular consequences for girls and young women, who are often adversely impacted. Traditional gender roles and norms may consign girls and young women to the brunt of unpaid household labour and care work, affect their educational opportunities and choice of study subjects, limit their freedom of movement, prevent their control over their own bodies and lives, and inhibit their participation in social, economic, and political spaces, including decision-making processes that affect their existence.

Harmful and discriminatory norms and stereotypes, as well as widespread discrimination and gender-based violence, create pervasive obstacles to the realisation of girls’ rights, setting the stage for cyclical economic and gender-based inequalities.

Harmful traditional practices, like child, early and forced marriage, hinder girls from realising their full potential. In countries where negative manifestations of gender norms are more common, this has a direct impact on girls’ and women’s economic empowerment and freedom. For instance, in countries with high prevalence of violence against women as well as countries which have high rates of child marriage, women are less likely to have bank accounts and formal savings.

Gender gaps in economic opportunities, and especially in the world of work, are preceded by key constraints during childhood and youth. Entrenched gender norms results in girls as young as age 6 perceiving themselves as less intelligent than boys. Effective policy strategies to address such concerns must therefore start early.

Norms and legislations around female productive and reproductive work

As Chapters 3 and 5 will explain in greater detail, gendered norms and expectations may not only influence whether a young woman enters and participates in the formal labour force, but also dictate which types of jobs she can pursue, determine how much she will be paid and hinder her advancement in the workplace. Women’s paid work is often seen as complementary or secondary and therefore attributed less value. Nearly two in five people across the world think that men should have stronger rights than women to jobs when the latter are scarce. This attitude is more pronounced in countries where women’s participation in the labour force is lower than men’s.

Girls and women are often expected to curtail their professional aspirations and to undertake unpaid care for children and other family members. Furthermore, the type of work that is performed by women is often considered less important, which is evident not least because it is often less well paid compared to work which is typically performed by men. An analysis of 142 countries shows that women tend to be overrepresented in the lowest paid occupations. In developed countries, women are over-represented in sectors such as retail, social work, health care and education – precisely those characterised by low wages – and in positions of lower status and pay compared to men. The overrepresentation of
women in these sectors may be attributed to norms which undervalue the skills required for these types of jobs. Care work or education – and in particular the teaching of younger children – are also considered an extension of women’s traditionally unpaid role in the family.

Furthermore, young women who go on to have children are often penalised in terms of both opportunities and pay. In all regions, women with children suffer a wage penalty in addition to the existing gender wage gap. The opposite is true for men, whose wages tend to increase when they become fathers. In a recent study, men’s earnings increased on average by more than 6 per cent when they had children who were living at home, while women’s wages decreased by 4 per cent for each child. This reflects societal norms which regard men as more committed to their work when they have a family to provide for and women as less committed to their work when they have a family to care for. Chapter 3 on Decent Work further explores challenges linked to aspects of gender equality in the world of work.

**Mobility and safety in the world of work and beyond**

Restrictions to girls’ and young women’s mobility as a result of gendered social norms, inadequately protective and gender-discriminatory laws, physical safety concerns and the lack of appropriate public transport all act as significant barriers to female economic advancement. Several studies demonstrate that freedom of movement and participation in decision-making are essential components of a holistic and integrated approach to economic empowerment. However, many girls choose not to leave their homes out of fear of harassment or violence, whilst families can restrict girls’ freedom of movement for many reasons.

Discriminatory and gender-blind legislation has much to do with it. For instance, married women are not allowed to travel outside the family home in the same way as married men in seventeen countries; cannot obtain a national identity card in the same way as married men in ten countries; and cannot apply for a passport in the same way as married men in 32 countries. These types of gender-unequal laws limit women’s movements to the household periphery and perpetuate occupational stereotypes by reinforcing the idea that girls and women belong to the domestic sphere, constraining their chances of accessing economic opportunities (e.g. through migration for work).

Urban environments are further linked to specific barriers to safe mobility and economic empowerment of girls and women. Sexual harassment and violence in workplaces and public spaces specifically are a major constraint, preventing girls and women from moving around and participating in social, political, and economic life equally. Research conducted by Plan International reports that girls seldom feel safe in cities, frequently experience physical and sexual violence, and are often excluded from decision-making processes that impact their security. For example, only three percent of girls surveyed in Kampala and just over two percent in Lima reported that they ‘always’ feel safe in public spaces. The research also found that an overwhelming majority of girls reported feeling unsafe when using public transport; for example, only six percent of girls in Hanoi and Cairo reported always feeling safe. This issue cuts across different countries and cultures, and does not seem to improve as girls get older. For instance, 100 per cent of women surveyed in France had encountered sexual harassment in public transportation. Yet, safe, affordable, accessible and reliable public transportation remains a major condition for enabling girls’ and young women’s access to work and other essential services.

For girls and women who are displaced, the situation is worse. Displacement camps are notoriously unsafe environments; they are overcrowded and lack privacy and adequate housing, lighting and security. The fear of sexual violence and exploitation means that girls’ freedom of movement is often restricted, both in camps and in host communities. Girls and young women who settle in urban areas – sometimes in informal accommodation – among host communities also require particular attention. They can become more vulnerable in cities because of hostility from local populations and threats of sexual violence and abuse during their commute to work or to school. Displaced girls and women may also face language barriers and therefore difficulty accessing reliable employment support and labour information.
Gender-based violence and harmful traditional practices in workplaces and society

Rooted in pervasive and harmful gender norms, violence against girls and women is consciously and subconsciously deployed as a means to suppress and control girls and women – their bodies, choices and lives. Unequal power dynamics and harmful norms means that violence is often excused and normalised.

Violence affects girls and women of all ages, all over the world, regardless of their income level or social status; the World Health Organization (WHO) considers it a “global health problem of epidemic proportions”. 200 million girls and women alive today are estimated to have been subjected to female genital mutilation/cutting (FGM/C), and more than 700 million women alive today have been married as children - both extreme forms of harmful traditional practices.

“Once girls enter puberty, they become too active and start to engage in relationships with boys and that leads to early marriages.” Young man, Uganda

The current rate of progress on ending the practice of child marriage needs to be accelerated eight times in order to meet the target of eliminating it by 2030. Child, early and forced marriage is often a strategy for economic survival; in situations of extreme poverty, families can decide to marry their daughter to avoid costs associated with education or to ease the financial load of a child.

In a Plan International youth consultation in Uganda, all young people believed that pressures from family to leave education and get married were different for girls versus boys.

In some societies, families can be paid a “bride price” if their daughter is married, which can serve as a further incentive. Research across 78 developing countries has shown that 54 per cent of girls in the poorest wealth quintile are married as children, compared to only 16 percent of girls in the richest quintile.

Besides, more than one third of all women have experienced either direct physical and/or sexual intimate partner violence or direct sexual violence by a non-partner at some point in their lives, often as a consequence of child, early or forced marriage or partnership.

CASE STUDY: Plan International Pakistan's Ride in Pink Project

Building on its Pink Rickshaw Initiative pilot project, Plan International Pakistan in Chakwal district developed the ‘Ride In Pink’ programme that gives young women and girls access to safe and affordable transport services, while also providing young women with the skills to manage a women-friendly transportation business. The project thus not only tackles women’s mobility issues but also seeks to be a source of income for them through offering decent work opportunities in a non-traditional sector. On the one hand, Pink Rickshaw and Suzuki Carry vehicles are driven by female drivers who are trained as part of the project. On the other hand, Ride in Pink offers transport services to school children, including girls unable to access higher education due to mobility issues and a lack of safe transport options. Furthermore, rickshaws are linked with an app called Pink APP (which uses a GPS system) that supplies female customers with information about different prices (according to destinations and routes), and monitors and tracks the vehicle and its driver. A Women Transportation Cooperative is being formalized to ensure sustainability and a healthy business case by the end of the project.

Plan International Pakistan is also engaging with local communities and their leaders to raise awareness of gender equality, and of female entrepreneurship as a driver of empowerment. Plan further engages with other stakeholders, including local district administrations, social welfare departments, district police departments and male drivers to establish an enabling environment for the women-managed transportation company. The project’s ultimate goal is to foster better acceptance of female advancement within the community, especially for parents so they would allow young women and girls to pursue work outside their homes and unlock female access to education, training and jobs.
However, actual numbers may be even higher, as fear of stigma and repercussions may prevent survivors from reporting. 46 countries examined in a World Bank study have no laws addressing domestic violence and marital rape is only criminalised in 52 countries, which contributes to making those practices ‘normal’. Likewise, gender-based economic violence – including where an intimate partner, spouse, or male family member prohibits a young woman from working, excludes her from financial decision-making in the family, or withholds money or financial information – can result in women being deprived of the economic means to leave an abusive relationship.

Unfortunately, that form of violence too is often overlooked, including in terms of legislation.

Finally, although data is inadequate or completely lacking in many countries, available evidence suggests harassment at work is another major gender-based violence issue. Research in countries in the European Union found that 40–50 per cent of women had experienced unwanted sexual advances, physical contact or other forms of sexual harassment at work. Across Asia, studies in Japan, Malaysia, the Philippines and South Korea show that 30 to 40 percent of women suffer workplace sexual harassment. Young women are often over-represented in workplaces and positions where their bargaining power is weak and violence is more likely to occur, including in informal settings, as domestic workers or at the end of supply chains. They may therefore lack the agency to challenge power dynamics and norms which provide excuses for violence, as well as formal avenues to seek redress. In addition to that, girls and women globally face critical failures of the judiciary and legal system in protecting them from violence and harassment at the workplace in many countries. While forty-one out of 173 countries examined by the World Bank completely lack laws against sexual harassment in general, an even higher number – fifty-nine countries – lack specific legislation against sexual harassment in employment. In the Middle East and North Africa, about four in five countries lack legislation on sexual harassment in employment.

This lack of legislation contributes to making norms which are highly detrimental to girls and women invisible. As gender-based discriminatory beliefs and violent behaviours remain unacknowledged by laws and regulations, they are kept unseen, to the point of becoming socially acceptable and legitimate. Where gender-based violence and harmful practices go unchallenged, they continue to impact ever growing numbers of girls and women, limiting their human potential and economic rights.

**Human and economic consequences of violence against girls and women and failures to protect their Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights (SRHR)**

Harmful traditional practices such as child, early and forced marriages have lifelong impacts on girls’ very existence. Girls who are married as children are often forced out of education and into a life of poor prospects: compared to peers who marry later, girls in child marriages tend to be less educated, less knowledgeable about contraception and substantially younger than their husband. This frequently lead girls to become psychologically and economically dependent on husbands and in-laws.

These factors, combined with the often considerable pressure on girls to prove their fertility soon after marriage, generate additional risks of experiencing violence, abuse and complications related to early pregnancy and motherhood, as well as of contracting HIV/AIDS. Due to the double discrimination they face as both young and female, girls and young women are disproportionately vulnerable to violations of their sexual and reproductive health and rights (SRHR), including denial of access to accurate information; inability to access appropriate services (such as youth-friendly services, contraception and family planning, and antenatal care); and gender norms which dictate that female sexuality needs to be controlled. This situation robs girls and young women of the right to make their own decisions about their bodies.

In addition to devastating consequences on their health and well-being, child marriage and the denial of SRHR have serious negative impacts on girls’ and women’s economic empowerment. A girl or a young woman unable to access family planning services is likely to have more children than she desires and as a result, her care responsibilities may prevent her from joining the formal labour force and earning an income. This has implications for whole countries in terms of lost potential and
educational attainment as well as lost occupational opportunities for girls and women.

**Spotlight: Access to sexual and reproductive health services and links to female economic empowerment**

The realisation of sexual and reproductive health and rights plays a crucial role in empowering women economically. Without access to accurate information and essential — and potentially life-saving — sexual and reproductive health services such as family planning — for example as a result of early marriage and school drop-out — girls and women are denied the right to choose if and when to start a family. This has ramifications throughout the life-course by restricting young women’s social and economic mobility for the rest of their lives. A lack of SRHR information and services further exacerbates already existing inequalities in female share of caregiving, and the potentially dramatic health consequences of unplanned and/or frequent pregnancies. At least 23 million girls and young women who want to delay or space pregnancy do not have access to any form of modern contraception\(^79\) and every year, some 3 million girls aged 15 to 19 undergo unsafe abortions,\(^80\) while complications related to pregnancy and childbirth are the leading cause of death for girls in this age group.\(^81\)

Similarly, intimate partner violence and non-partner sexual violence have high human and economic costs. In particular, they directly impact female productivity in the workplace, with negative outcomes for both individuals and employers, as well as the wider economy.\(^82\)

For instance, one study found that working women in Vietnam who were exposed to intimate partner violence were absent more often from work and had lower productivity and lower earnings than women who were not experiencing such abuse.\(^83\) Another study found that women in Tanzania who were exposed to ‘severe’ intimate partner violence had 60 per cent lower incomes compared to women who did not experience such violence.\(^84\)

The estimated societal costs of intimate partner violence range from 1.2 per cent to 3.7 per cent of GDP depending on the country. This

**CASE STUDY: Plan International Nepal’s 16 Days of Activism against Gender-Based Violence**

The 16 Days of Activism against Gender-Based Violence (GBV) is a global campaign to raise awareness of violence against girls and women and its impact on their physical, psychological, social and spiritual well-being. Every year, the 16 days’ campaign is celebrated from 25th November to 10th December in support of gender equality. In 2017, the theme for the celebration was “Leave No One Behind: End Violence against Women and Girls” - reflecting the core principle of the transformative 2030 Agenda. As part of its advocacy campaign, various events to sensitize to Harmful Traditional Practices (especially child marriage), sexual abuse, violence and economic empowerment of young women were organised by the Girls and Advocacy Alliance – a 5-year joint project (2016-2020) led by Plan International Netherlands with support from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to promote equal rights and opportunities for girls and young women in 10 countries.

In Kathmandu, Nepal — one of the GAA’s implementation countries — a national level event was organized on 15 December 2017 with participation from government authorities and more than 50 religious leaders and CSOs. In collaboration with the National Inter-Religious Network (NIRN), interfaith prayer was harnessed to gather the attention of participants and highlight unity among religious leaders from different religious affiliations in ending violence against women and girls. A drama play from the Abiral groups illustrating the role of religious leaders in addressing GBV was also performed. Then, a series of presentations on the Sanatam, Buddhist, Muslim and Christian religions followed, explaining faith, elements of Holy books advocating for equal treatment of both sexes, and harmful misinterpretations causing GB. At the end, religious leaders signed a declaration to work against GBV.

Finally, a panel discussion was held on the role of religious authorities in eliminating GBV from society with high level speakers from the National Planning Commission, National Human Rights Council, National Women’s Council and Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare. Government members expressed their appreciation for commitments taken by religious leaders and agreed to ensure their participation in future governmental planning and policy-making processes.
percentage is equivalent to what many governments spend on primary education.[viii]

The combination of these issues makes it critical to adopt do-no-harm strategies that engage boys and men as equal and proactive partners in challenging harmful gendered norms and attitudes, and championing higher levels of economic empowerment among girls and women. Otherwise, there is a clear risk that such situations will perpetuate an intergenerational cycle of poverty, violence and trauma. For instance, children of young, uneducated mothers will be more likely to live in poverty and miss out on an education. This also has added costs for society, as rapid population growth often puts a strain on health and education systems (estimates suggest that the economic consequences are truly significant, while the annual welfare benefits of ending child marriage could reach US$566 billion in 2030[vii]). Intimate partner violence equally can have short- and long-term effects on any children living in the home. Girls who witness their mothers being abused are twice as likely to experience intimate partner violence later in life, and boys run an increased risk of perpetrating violence themselves. Exposure to violence at home can also have wider, devastating psychological and social consequences for children, including impaired socioemotional functioning and poor educational outcomes in adolescence, and lower job performance, job stability and incomes as they reach adulthood.87

Plan International’s position:

- Plan International firmly challenges all social norms that contradict human and labour rights, particularly gender equality. We are deeply committed to tackling the root causes of gender injustice, especially social norms defining differing expectations of girls’ and boys’ economic status. We will seek to transform unequal gender power relations in the world of work and society. The time has come to achieve an even playing field for girls and women, meeting global commitments, including the ambitions set out in the Agenda 2030 Sustainable Development Goals.

- It is crucial to recognize the collective responsibility of all stakeholders – from governments to the private sector, civil society, traditional leaders and wider communities – to combat discriminatory and harmful social norms and practices such as child, early and forced marriage and the denial of sexual and reproductive health and rights that limit female economic prospects and foster violence against girls and women in the world of work and beyond.

- Plan International stresses the particular importance of engaging boys and men as beneficiaries, right holders and agents of change in challenging harmful gendered norms and attitudes, and achieving gender equality at work and in society.

Plan International’s recommendations:

- Governments should prioritize the collection of sex- and age-disaggregated data and evidence on girls and young women’s experiences of the world of work in order to better capture lifecycle barriers to female economic empowerment and the full realization of women’s economic rights, and to inform future labour policies and programmes.

- Governments should urgently reform, enact, enforce and uphold national and local laws and policies towards guaranteeing female economic choices and social empowerment: promote gender equality and prevent gender-based discrimination across the lifecycle; protect girls and women from child marriage and other harmful traditions, gender-based violence and sexual harassment in private and public spheres including workplaces; and assert girls’ and women’s rights to have control over their body and sexuality including their sexual and reproductive health.

- Governments and relevant service providers should adopt targeted measures to provide and maintain safe and reliable public transport, footpaths, market places and public facilities – including sanitation facilities that allow dignified menstrual hygiene management – to support girls’ and women’s mobility so they can access education and employment
opportunities and participate more widely in social, economic and political life. Governments should also take appropriate action towards enabling married and unmarried girls’ and women’s free movement through unrestricted access to legal identification documents – including passports.

- Governments, private sector and civil society actors, especially powerholders, should work in partnership to challenge gender norms which normalize and excuse violence towards girls and young women throughout the lifecycle; devalue them as well as the work they undertake; restrict their education choices, constrain their career prospects and dictate what economic opportunities may be available to them; hinder their mobility; and rob them of any control over their body and sexuality. This must be done with full engagement from boys and men, including male community champions and traditional and religious leaders.

- National, local and social media should design, invest in, and implement targeted programmes that promote positive norms, practices and behaviours empowering girls and young women to take an active role in the economy; offer positive portrayals of young people as economic actors and valuable contributors to community development; and address gender-based discriminatory beliefs and attitudes at community level, e.g. through media outputs that directly challenge occupational gender stereotypes.

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**MARKET-RELEVANT EDUCATION, TRAINING AND SKILL DEVELOPMENT**

A quality education in childhood should equip girls, boys and youth with the skills and abilities to reach their full potential and maximise their chances later in life of finding decent work and successfully transitioning to adulthood. For girls in particular, education and training can open doors through increasing mobility and confidence, and also improving health outcomes, especially in terms of sexual and reproductive health and rights. Access to quality education is therefore a critical stage towards economic empowerment; it can transform children’s lives, prevent the transmission of poverty from one generation to the next and contribute to overall growth and prosperity.

The right to education has been affirmed in several international human rights instruments, including the Universal Declaration of Human Rights; the Convention on the Rights of the Child, outlining the responsibility of States Parties to ensure compulsory, free primary education, general and vocational secondary education, and higher education for all children; and a number of other human rights frameworks focusing on vulnerable groups, including girls and children with disabilities. Agenda 2030 also recognises the importance of education as a fundamental right and as a crucial tool for the achievement of the Agenda as a whole.

**Access to basic education**

Access to education remains a matter of serious concern in many countries. New data shows that the total number of out-of-school children, adolescents and youth has remained nearly the same – at around 264 million – for the past three years. Certain demographic groups remain less likely to access an education, including girls; children with disabilities; children living in emergency contexts; and children from the poorest households. The long-term impact of this includes diminished employment prospects and earnings in later life, which in turn jeopardizes social cohesion and peace, and may aggravate the risks of an outbreak (or renewal) of conflict.

Currently, children with disabilities make up an estimated one-third of all out-of-school children. Plan International’s own research shows that children with a disability are ten times more likely to be out of school than their peers, and that where they do attend school, they drop-out earlier than their peers, and have poorer learning outcomes.

The poorest students also have lower completion rates than the national average across all levels of education. In developing
countries, only 47 per cent of girls and 49 per cent of boys from low income families complete primary education compared to a national average of 73 per cent. This disparity widens further at secondary level.

Finally, barriers to education are exacerbated by conflict and disaster. Refugee children are five times more likely to be out of school than non-refugee children. A recent report on out-of-school children notes that the fear and insecurity associated with armed conflict reduces the demand for education. Providing refugee children with the opportunity to access and complete a quality education is especially urgent given that many find themselves in a protracted state of displacement that go on for years. Young people living in humanitarian contexts and situations of protracted conflict also miss out on the opportunity to acquire vital skills for the future.

Girls face even more specific barriers to realising their right to education. By the end of 2015, less than half of all countries had achieved gender parity in secondary school enrolment. On top of the above mentioned constraints, concerns about safety, a lack of single sex sanitation facilities and of gender-responsiveness in pedagogical approaches, child marriage and early pregnancy remain prominent obstacles to girls’ schooling. Poor families who are forced to prioritise may invest in boys’ education over that of girls, particularly in contexts where gender discrimination means that options for future work are limited for girls and women. Poor, rural girls are among the most excluded and least likely to access education, and this can be compounded by other vulnerabilities, including ethnicity and disability, which contribute to further discrimination. The gender gap in school attendance is indeed much larger between girls and boys from socially excluded groups compared to the wider population.

Yet the more education a girl attains, the less likely she is to marry or become pregnant whilst still a child. An educated girl is also likely to have fewer and healthier children and to reinvest her future income in ways that benefit her children – improving their nutrition, health and educational attainment. A quality education, which promotes the principles of equality and human rights, therefore remains the most powerful tool for the advancement of girls and young women throughout the lifecycle, both in the world of work and society.

**Skill development quality and impact in the context of labour market realities**

SDG target 4.4 makes a global commitment to ensure that by 2030 there is a substantial increase in the number of youth and adults who have relevant skills, including technical and vocational skills, for employment, decent jobs and entrepreneurship. To this end, improving the quality of education and training requires ensuring that curriculum, learning materials, learning environments and instructional methods are relevant and aligned to the 21st century skills that all girls, boys and young people require to gain decent wage- or self-employment and succeed in life.

The ILO states that education and skills are dominant factors in determining both the quality of work that young people attain as well as the ease of transition from education to decent work. Survey data from 34 countries shows that lower-skilled young people are more likely to be in vulnerable employment, while educated youth eventually will find more stable, paid employment – although their transition into work might not be smooth. Early school-leavers remain the most disadvantaged group, who may not only have difficulty in finding decent work and stability, but any job at all.

These findings reinforce the idea that education is the best preparation for accessing better jobs, although sharp gender disparities can be observed. Indeed, both in developed and developing countries, young women generally face significantly greater obstacles in entering the world of work compared to young men, the latter (aged 25-29) being twice as likely to transition from education to work compared to their female counterparts. Completion of higher education or training qualifications also seems to play a particularly important role for young women: women in Pakistan with only a primary education earn 51 per cent of the incomes of their male counterparts, whereas women with a secondary education earn 70 per

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1 For more information, see Plan International’s Policy Position Paper and Position Statement on The Right to Quality, Inclusive Education
cent\textsuperscript{111}; and a woman with a university education is again nearly twice as likely to successfully transition to the labour market as a woman with only primary level education.\textsuperscript{112} The denial of girls’ right to skills development – for instance as a result of early marriage and childbearing – therefore carries long-term consequences both at the individual level – in terms of labour-force participation and lifetime earnings\textsuperscript{113} – and at society level – by considerably hindering the productive potential and development of an economy.\textsuperscript{114}

Notwithstanding the above, in many countries, the poor connection between the skills in demand by employers (labour demand) and the qualifications that young men and women hold (labour supply) by the end of their training remains a sticking issue of labour markets. Simply put, employers do not feel today’s young people offer what they really are looking for – and that is true both for hard and soft skills. A holistic approach to reducing the ‘skills mismatch’ is therefore needed.\textsuperscript{115} Effective and impactful market-relevant education should target the acquisition of solid foundational skills (basic numeracy and literacy) as a prerequisite to the successful development of more advanced, work-specific and competency-based skills – including vocational and technical skills. Even more importantly, demand-driven education should adopt active learning methodologies that facilitate dynamic and experiential learning; allow for two-way classroom interactions; and help build high-level cognitive and non-cognitive/transferable competencies such as problem-solving, critical thinking, creativity, teamwork, communication skills and conflict resolution – all highly valued by employers across a range of occupational fields.

\textbf{Spotlight: From Technical and Vocational Education and Training to job readiness}

The objective of Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) is to prepare youth for the labour market in a practical way, equipping them with employer-sought skills and the knowledge needed to navigate evolving workplaces and vocational requirements. In general, TVET works by enhancing youth’s job readiness through a mix of theoretical classroom lessons and hands-on job training – positioning young people for a smoother transition to the world of work with their employer-trainer and/or within the industry. Too often though, TVET suffers from a poor image among students and parents, convinced that only general or university-level education is prestigious enough and can lead to good work outcomes, or that TVET would not be suitable for girls.

These misconceptions do not reflect the realities of the world of work nor evidence from TVET and apprenticeship programmes: sufficient proof exists confirming that youth and adults who have undergone vocational training have an improved chance of finding decent employment and making a living. A 2013 meta-analysis of 26 studies focusing on low and middle-income countries, predominantly in Latin America and the Caribbean, found that TVET had a ‘positive and statistically significant’ effect on youth when it came to overall paid employment, formal employment, and earnings\textsuperscript{116}. However, a technical training program in Malawi, which placed male and female youth as apprentices to master craftspeople and observed an unanticipated high rate of dropouts among young women\textsuperscript{117}, showed that TVET interventions needed to be designed with the specific challenges of young women in mind (e.g. with regards to gendered social norms) – both in urban TVET institute and rural apprenticeship contexts. This points to the urgent need to improve the quality of TVET generally, for example by working closely with employers to improve curricula design and delivery and making sure TVET programmes are gender-responsive enough (offering single-sex classrooms where relevant and flexible schedules to allow girls and young women with care responsibilities to attend). This is all the more important as in many countries, young people’s possibilities to access formal or general secondary and higher education are quasi non-existent; this makes other quality options – such as non-formal TVET and even informal apprenticeships – the only chance for young men and women to acquire vital work skills. The significance of TVET is also underscored by Agenda 2030, which states that governments should “ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable and quality technical vocational and tertiary education”\textsuperscript{118}.

A significant portion of the youth training and employability literature further highlights entrepreneurship education as the missing link towards improving young women and men’s job prospects. In a recent ILO report on education and its links to labour markets, it is argued that
education policies should better take account of the fact that self-employment – for example in rural contexts, where wage employment is limited – may be the only realistic option available to youth; therefore more attention should be directed towards promoting a youth entrepreneurship spirit in education, e.g. via financial education, business plan and enterprise development courses. Promoting access to financial and entrepreneurship training for children and youth is another vital way to ensure they maximise their chances of securing sustainable income-generating avenues and participate in economies of the future.

Developing an innovative, risk-taking mindset among young people can begin at an early age through business mentorship and bank literacy, and remain useful complementary skills in further formal and informal education. Some strategies for addressing subsequent barriers to youth enterprise development – particularly among young women – include facilitating knowledge exchange between established and aspiring entrepreneurs (particularly in regions with limited female entrepreneurial role models); supporting youth to complete skills training relevant to 21st century entrepreneurialism, access business development services and strengthen market linkages; and developing new financial instruments to unlock female entrepreneurs’ access to capital.

“As a teacher, I have been informed that specific subjects are reserved for women, such as English language, and so male teachers are encouraged to teach male subjects like Maths, Physics and Chemistry.” Young woman, 24 - Uganda

Gender segregation in education and training: example from the ICT pathway

In a 2017 report, the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights reviewed factors driving the ‘gender digital divide’ – now a ubiquitous term referring to the measurable gap between women and men in their access to, use of and ability to influence, contribute to, create and benefit from ICT. Factors behind the gap are interlinked with and exacerbated by offline inequalities. The literacy gap is one example: nearly two thirds of the world’s 781 million illiterate adults are women, and men outscore women in ‘digital fluency’ in almost every country. This, in turn, makes it more difficult for girls and women to learn digital skills and capitalise on the potential of basic technology, such as mobile phones and SMS-based services.

CASE STUDY: Plan International’s Livelihood Advancement Business School (LABS) Initiative

The Livelihood Advancement Business School (LABS) initiative, an innovative TVET methodology, was developed in India by the Dr Reddy’s Foundation (DRF). This approach seeks to address the needs of youth aged 15-30 constrained by poverty, inadequate competencies and lack of opportunity for development. Through demand-driven, community-based vocational training, the LABS aims to provide an environment of interactive learning and mentoring to upgrade skills and therefore productivity and income among youth. Today rolled out in 15 Plan International country programmes including ‘Saksham’ in India and ‘REACH’ in Vietnam, the LABS process begins with a market scan of the targeted area to develop relevant skill training curricula, based on the local economy context and interactions with industry professionals. Meanwhile, training candidates are selected in line with robust criteria taking into account various socio-economic indicators. They are then connected with a sequential menu of training courses, starting with an induction programme mainstreaming life and core employability skills and moving on to vocational or on-the-job training and field visits – all of which combine theory and hands-on tasks to bridge the practical work experience gap of youth. The programme further ensures work readiness of youth and supports job placement through career counselling and help with interviews and CV writing. As soon as the course is complete, entry-level jobs and ongoing mentoring/monitoring are offered to graduates. The programme has proven to be successful in enabling disadvantaged young people to claim their rights to safe and fairly compensated jobs, while facilitating access to concrete work experience – ultimately creating linkages to sustainable wage and self-employment options among young people.
At the same time, a 2017 review of evidence from low and middle-income countries led by the GSMA shows that in households with a single computer or mobile phone, it is usually intended for the boy rather than the girl child; and that parents provide technology to girls at a later age than boys and view ICT-related careers as more associated with boys than girls. It therefore comes as no surprise that the gender digital divide is further evidenced through the academic and employment aspirations of young women and men respectively, and ultimately reflected in girls’ low access to and demand for ICT-related skills trainings and careers. In a 2016 survey, 56 per cent of girls in the United Kingdom agreed with the statement that science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) subjects “have the image of being more for boys” than girls.

In OECD countries, only 5 per cent of girls expect a career in computing or engineering, while 18 per cent of boys expect a career in these fields. Yet, when women have the opportunity to develop digital skills, they flourish: a 2011 study of 25 countries across Latin American and Africa found that girls and women embrace digital tools more rapidly than men when they are given the chance to do so. Unless bold and politically supported moves are rapidly taken to challenge the misconception that girls are less suited for ICT education and careers than boys, and to identify and support role models who can motivate girls to pursue such studies and question occupational stereotypes, the gender digital divide is likely to persist. Going further, gender gaps in both STEM education and STEM employment are predicted to become even more important determinants of gender pay gaps. Conversely, research across 31 countries has illustrated that if the pace at which women and girls become frequent users of digital technologies was doubled, workplaces could reach gender equality up to 40 years sooner than current estimates predict.

Plan International’s position:

- Plan International stresses that in order to meet global commitments – including Agenda 2030 – States must fulfil their obligations to ensure universal access to inclusive, quality early childhood, primary, secondary, tertiary and technical and vocational education. This starts with providing safe access to schools, including secure public transportation and education environments, with adequate, gender-responsive WASH facilities. It is especially important in crisis contexts for girls and other vulnerable groups.

- Plan International believes that a life skills-based, 21st century education – from foundational numeracy and literacy skills, to digital and financial

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**CASE STUDY: Empowering Girls through Financial Education and Knowledge of Entrepreneurship**

Plan International UK partnered with Aflatoun and Credit Suisse to deliver a financial education and life skills programme in Bikaner, India. The programme operates in 1,335 government primary schools as well as two educational camps for senior secondary and graduate level female students. Teachers deliver the programme by integrating content into existing curriculum and in addition, 1,335 children clubs have been established to give girls and boys the opportunity to save money and put entrepreneurship into practice. Older students also receive career counselling and guidance services. Furthermore, at community level, parents, teachers and government stakeholders are engaged in student-led campaigns that promote girls’ access to education and financial education in particular. In total the programme has reached 151,128 students – 73,864 of whom are girls. An evaluation of the programme explored how economic empowerment challenges faced by girls and women as a result of rigid gender norms had been addressed through project activities. The evaluation concluded that promoting work outside the home for girls’ and women; conducting innovative outreach activities to sensitize communities about the added value of financial education and life skills for girls’ and women’s livelihoods; and promoting non-traditional female careers that benefit the broader community were key to effectively challenge negative attitudes towards gender equality and female economic empowerment.

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education – should be available to all children on the basis of equal opportunity and non-discrimination, including in emergency settings. Education must also address gender barriers in training content and delivery, and prevent gender-segregated learning and job functions by making non-traditional vocational opportunities equally available to women and men. Girls and young women must feel empowered to embrace ‘unconventional’ study subjects and occupational training choices such as Information, Communication and Technology (ICT), Science, Technology, Engineering and Math (STEM), and entrepreneurship courses.

- It is crucial that targeted investments are made in improving the quality and effectiveness of education and Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET). This will help address children’s needs and job aspirations, increase motivation for education, boost school attendance and transition rates, and enable young people to gain market-relevant skills as well as the knowledge and confidence to succeed in their chosen field of work. To achieve the latter while increasing impact, we call for gender-transformative and youth-responsive investments in TVET that bring together public and private sector partners (especially employers).

Plan International’s recommendations:

- Governments should adopt all necessary measures to address and eliminate unique barriers to girls’ education through ensuring that teaching practices and curricula are free of gender stereotypes and promote equality; that girls feel safe in, around and on their way to school; and that secure, single-sex sanitation facilities are accessible in any learning settings.

- Governments should also take proactive steps to include displaced children and youth in national education systems at all levels, which means providing conducive legal and policy frameworks and removing obstacles to refugee children’s access to education in host countries. Furthermore, there should be provisions of flexible (evening, part-time etc.) and accelerated school programmes for displaced children and youth as well as special learning initiatives (such as mobile education and life skills projects) for the retention of marginalised and at-risk children (e.g. married/pregnant girls, child mothers and children with disabilities).

- Governments must enhance the quality of learning in education and training, ensuring it supports young people’s employability across the lifecycle. There are many, mutually supportive ways for governments to do that: promoting competency-based approaches to learning, skills acquisition, validation and certification; encouraging active and innovative learning methods in formal and non-formal settings that cultivate inquiry- and problem-based approaches and higher-order thinking and entrepreneurial qualities (in demand among employers, and also necessary to start one’s own business); and maximising the use of community resources into educational and skill development materials and curricula – including linking with chambers of commerce and business associations to provide youth with up-to-date labour market information, equipment, coaching and practical work experience. This is necessary to increase the market relevance of training programmes and progressively close the youth ‘skills gap’ in labour markets.

- To shape youth’s future competencies in line with core business needs and maximize retention among young employees, employers and businesses (large and small) must fully cooperate in developing, assessing and certifying skills development schemes for young people – such as on-the-job training, job shadowing and apprenticeship
opportunities – in formal and informal based contexts. Businesses should also offer mentorship support from role models, especially female ones, to influence the development of personal ambition, career aspiration and improved qualifications among young women and men. This is particularly important for girls, who face unique lifecycle challenges in the world of work and need gender-responsive guidance and networks to navigate both employment and entrepreneurial pathways.

- Going further, employers, financial institutions and other market actors must co-invest with governments in providing economic empowerment pathways for young people in fragile settings – including measures such as formal and informal vocational, life, and language skills training; provision of information on practical training and mentoring, jobs in demand, and entrepreneurial opportunities; and recognition of previous qualifications.

- Governments should mainstream financial and digital technology literacy in national curricula (but also develop special provisions for children and youth, especially girls, to be able to gain such skills outside schools). Besides, governments should actively support and promote female participation in ICT and STEM subjects and in creating digital technology to ensure equal access to opportunities in workplaces of the future. To this end, governments, civil society, the private sector and communities must work in partnership to address barriers preventing girls from joining ‘non-traditional’ courses such as digital education – including gender biases and occupational stereotypes dictating choices of career for girls and boys.

**DECENT WORK CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES IN THE 21ST CENTURY ECONOMY**

The international labour legal framework

Decent work sums up the aspirations of people in their working lives. It involves opportunities for work that is productive and delivers a fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families, better prospects for personal development and social integration, freedom for people to express their concerns, organise and participate in the decisions that affect their lives and equality of opportunity and treatment for all women and men. Decent work can act as a poverty alleviator, and give people the opportunity to advance both economically and personally.

The right to decent work has long been recognised in human rights mechanisms and is enshrined in Article 23 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights which stipulates that everyone has the right to freely choose their employment; to just and favourable conditions at work; to equal pay for equal work; to just and favourable remuneration; and to form and join trade unions.

Similar provisions can be found in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, which also makes particular reference to gender equality, stating that all workers should be provided with ‘fair wages and equal remuneration for work of equal value without distinction of any kind, in particular women being guaranteed conditions of work not inferior to those enjoyed by men, with equal pay for equal work’. It also includes an obligation of States parties to provide technical and vocational guidance and training programmes.

Furthermore, decent work is a pillar of Agenda 2030, with Goal 8 committing governments to ‘promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all’. Targets specifically request governments to tackle the issue of young people who are Not in Employment, Education or Training (NEET) as a matter of urgency, and to ensure equal pay for work of equal value.

Gender inequality and discrimination at work: selected illustrations

Violence threatening girls and women at their training or workplace, as well as on their way to such places, has already been discussed in chapter 1. There exist however many other structural factors - at times less obvious – that reinforce gender inequality in the workplace. In this section, we will explore some of the more subtle, yet pervasive forms of workplace discrimination tarnishing efforts towards decent work.

In a Global Youth Advisory Panel Economic Empowerment survey organised by Plan International, young people were asked what they believed were the biggest challenges facing women at work today. They reported that workplaces did not accommodate enough women’s concerns and failed to be female-inclusive; for example, employers disregarded girls’ and women's well-being needs in terms of menstrual hygiene management and maternity protection. Another aspect was the lack of supportive mechanisms for reporting sexual harassment and assaults in the workplace, creating additional barriers for girls and women who wanted to join the workforce.

There is specific legislation which requires employers not to discriminate on the basis of gender when hiring – a critical aspect of guaranteeing equal decent work opportunities which has been shown to have a positive relationship with women’s employment relative to men’s. However, 103 out of 170 countries examined in a World Bank study still lack such legislation, and 26 countries completely lack legislation which prohibits the dismissal of pregnant employees.

Spotlight: Parental leave

States’ responsibility to enable parents to combine family commitments and unpaid care responsibilities with paid work and participation in public life is outlined in the CEDAW. The Convention highlights protection against discrimination, maternity leave and the availability of childcare facilities as particularly important in this respect.

Most countries have provisions for maternity or parental leave. Of 173 countries examined by the World Bank, only Tonga and Suriname do not entitle parents to any kind of leave when a child is born.141 In the vast majority of countries, maternity or parental leave is paid, but Papua New Guinea and the United States only offer unpaid leave.142

The length of leave offered – whether it is paid for by governments or employers and whether parents or guardians can choose to divide the leave – has consequences for women’s return to, and their continued participation in, the formal workforce. Where leave can be shared between parents or caregivers, this can lead to a more equitable division in general of childcare responsibilities, which in turn can give women greater opportunities for career advancement.143

Fathers’ use of parental leave increases when leave is well paid and highest when offered on a ‘use-it-or-lose-it’ basis, meaning the leave cannot be transferred and used by the mother instead. Rules and arrangements around parental leave have long-term effects, as they impact on norms and behaviours around unpaid care work.

The World Bank study also found that 101 countries still lack legislation which mandates equal pay for work of equal value. Recent research further shows that in most countries, a gap in hourly wages continues to persist even where there have been improvements in equal pay laws.145

Spotlight: The gender pay gap

According to the IMF, income inequality in high-income countries – where gender gaps in education are largely closed and where women enjoy more equal economic opportunities – arises mainly through gender gaps in labour force participation. In emerging markets and low-income countries however, inequality of opportunity – and in particular gender gaps in education and health – continues to be a barrier to equal income distribution. The UN High-Level Panel on Women’s Economic Empowerment highlights that progress in closing gender pay gaps has stalled in most developed countries over the past 20–30 years, while according to the World Economic...
Forum, the actual gap has widened in the last few years and is now back to where it stood in 2008 (following a peak in 2013). The High Level Panel also notes that even in similar occupations, the gender pay gap persists, with evidence suggesting that discrimination plays a key role. According to recent predictions by the World Economic Forum, at the current rate of progress the difference in pay and employment opportunities for women and men will not be closed for another 217 years.\textsuperscript{148}

While removing legal barriers to economic opportunities faced by women is associated with substantial increases in female labour force participation\textsuperscript{149}, of 173 countries examined by the World Bank one hundred have gender-based restrictions which directly limit the types of work or economic activities women could pursue.\textsuperscript{150} For instance, women might be prevented from working in specific industries or sectors or prevented from undertaking shift-work. Such restrictions are more common in certain regions; only eight out of 32 OECD countries have these types of restrictions, compared to 28 of 41 countries in sub-Saharan Africa and almost all countries in the Middle East and North Africa.\textsuperscript{151}

The World Bank notes that restrictions on women’s work can lead to occupational segregation and may confine women to low-paying sectors (unsurprisingly, findings from their research also show that the gender wage gap is likely to be smaller in countries which do not impose such restrictions on women’s work).\textsuperscript{152} Meanwhile, the International Monetary Fund found that laws which restrict the work and activities that women pursue may have negative impacts on corporations and the overall competitiveness of an economy because the pool of candidates for any vacancies is reduced by half.\textsuperscript{153} Finally, gender inequality in work opportunities is also apparent when considering power relations in the workplace and the proportion of women who hold positions of authority. According to a 2017 UNFPA report, of 126 countries, only in three – Colombia, Jamaica and Saint Lucia – do women hold at least half of all management positions.\textsuperscript{154} In most of the examined countries, women hold between 20 and 40 per cent of all such positions, while in 27 countries, women still account for less than 20 per cent of all managers.\textsuperscript{155} This last aspect will be further explored in chapter 7 below.

The true face of work worldwide

Despite calls and efforts to create an enabling environment, sustainable job creation which offers decent work, especially for young women and men, remains a worldwide challenge.\textsuperscript{156} Limited quality work opportunities exist to absorb the currently unemployed new labour market entrants.\textsuperscript{157} In addition to low pay, young people frequently work in informal, part-time or temporary jobs, including in developed countries.\textsuperscript{158} As mentioned earlier, this is often involuntary and could be an indicator that young people are unable to insist on or negotiate better conditions. In developing countries, 89 per cent of new work is in the informal sector\textsuperscript{159}, where self-employment may be their only option. Yet limited or no access to capital, limited access to markets, poor infrastructure and lack of transportation are all common constraints faced by youth trying to start new enterprises. As a result, young people are three times more likely to be unemployed than older adults and make up more than a third of the global unemployed.\textsuperscript{160}

\textbf{CASE STUDY: Plan International Bolivia – Challenging Gender Segregation in Work}

Plan International Bolivia has been working with young women such as Gladys on female self-empowerment and challenging gender norms at work. Gladys had heard on the radio about a training course supported by Plan on how to work with aluminium. She thought she would enjoy that training and decided to join right away. She actually demonstrated such a strong enthusiasm for learning that she was elected President of the course. As the course involved students finding hands-on technical assignments, Gladys reached out to the project manager of a building site and showcased her newly acquired skills working with aluminium. Although the site manager was sceptical at first because not many women are in this field, Gladys convinced him to let her do the job. She did so well that she eventually secured many more tasks. Today, Gladys feels thankful for the encouragement provided by Plan International Bolivia; it is what helped her build the confidence to pursue her professional aspirations.
Again, due to structural barriers and pervasive gender discrimination young women are more likely not to have a job; to earn less (in Southern Asia and sub-Saharan Africa, over 60 per cent of all working women still work in time-/labour-intensive, poorly remunerated agriculture-related roles); to hold positions of lower status compared to their male counterparts, and to be employed in overall precarious conditions. In fact, three quarters of women’s employment in developing regions is informal, vulnerable and unprotected. Women are overrepresented in a variety of poor quality informal employment arrangements, including home-based work and domestic work – a sector which is often neglected in terms of labour legislation and policy, leaving workers without adequate protection from exploitation.

Migrants and refugees are other groups facing particular obstacles in accessing decent work – or indeed any work at all, as a significant proportion of countries still impose a complete legal bar to employment for refugees. This will be further discussed in chapter 6. Due to barriers to obtaining work permits and policies which restrict their mobility, refugees prevented from working lawfully may be forced into informal labour markets and precarious jobs where they are at greater risk of trafficking and abuse. Girls and young women on the move again are especially vulnerable to unsafe coping strategies such as transactional sex and other survival strategies to meet their families’ basic needs.

Spotlight: Work in the informal economy

Most people enter the informal economy – excluded from Labour Codes’ coverage and thus generally characterized by low pay, inadequate social protection and few regulations – not by choice, but impelled by the lack of opportunities in the formal economy and an absence of other means of livelihood.

The UN High-Level Panel on Women’s Economic Empowerment argues that reducing discriminatory laws against the informal economy is critical and that we need to see a “legal shift from stigmatisation and criminalisation to the assurance of rights and protection”. The panel proposes that this would involve granting legal recognition and identity to informal workers; extending legal protection in the form of enforceable contracts, property rights and work rights; providing for equal treatment in taxes and fees; and reforming negative laws, regulations, policies and practices that penalise and undermine livelihoods in the informal sector. For instance, this would include a move from a criminal law approach to dealing with street vendors to an “enabling administrative law approach” with licensing and due process rights.

The informal economy was also discussed by the ILO at two sessions of the International Labour Conference in 2002 and in 2015, with the latter adopting a landmark instrument – the Transition from the Informal to the Formal Economy Recommendation, 2015 (No. 204). Taking a rights-based approach to the formalisation of the informal economy and informal employment through standards setting and policy advice, this Recommendation provides guidance for member States on how to facilitate the transition of workers and economic units from the informal to the formal sector; promote the creation, viability and sustainability of enterprises and decent jobs in the formal economy; enhance the coherence of macroeconomic, employment, social protection and other social policies; and prevent the informalisation of formal economy jobs.

Given that young people, especially women, are overrepresented in the informal economy (which absorbs more than half of the global workforce and includes over 90 per cent of MSMEs), the above definitely stands as promising actions for youth and female economic empowerment.

Young people’s labour market transition: a move to non-standard employment?

The transition from adolescence into adulthood is a defining moment in a young person’s life. The accompanying transition from education to work is becoming increasingly difficult, resulting in a growing share of youth who are Not in Education, Employment or Training (a status often referred to as NEET) as they enter their next life stage and who are at risk of skills deterioration, underemployment and discouragement, as well as frustration from not being able to fulfil expectations and aspirations associated with adulthood. Survey evidence for some 28 countries around the world shows that roughly 25 per cent of the youth population aged between 15 and 29 years old are categorised as NEET, and the
rates are higher for young people over age 20.\textsuperscript{175}

Employment and unemployment figures among young people however do not tell the whole truth about youth labour market transitions: large numbers of young people indeed are working, but do not earn enough to lift themselves out of poverty. As flagged at the beginning of the paper, roughly 156 million young people – 37.7 per cent of those with a job – in emerging economies and developing countries can be defined as ‘working poor’, meaning they live in poverty despite being employed.\textsuperscript{176} The same figure for working adults is 26 per cent.\textsuperscript{177} This is why the ILO reiterates the importance of considering the quality and nature of jobs that young people hold, as well as their prospects for advancement.\textsuperscript{178} Surveys from 34 low- and middle- income countries analysed by the ILO in fact shows that the proportion of young people who were able to transition to any job is always higher than the proportion of youth who transitioned to a stable job.\textsuperscript{179} In some countries, youth were five times more likely to have some kind of fixed or short term contract than they were to have a contract which stretched at least 12 months.\textsuperscript{180} For instance, 90 per cent of young people surveyed in Peru had only had fixed-term contracts.\textsuperscript{181} Even more concerning is that some young people – especially young women, migrants and refugees – are not expected to ever move on to a stable job.

If modest improvements in female access to the world of work have been observed, progress is still too slow, especially when it comes to assisting young women to enter the workforce. In 2016 the labour force participation rate for young men stood at 53.9 per cent, compared to 37.3 per cent for young women.\textsuperscript{182} In almost all regions, young women are more likely to be unemployed than young men, with such trends being most significant in Northern Africa, the Arab States and Latin America and the Caribbean.\textsuperscript{183} Young women are also more likely to be underemployed than men in all countries, but especially in developing regions, and to be working part-time\textsuperscript{184} as a consequence of unpaid care responsibilities\textsuperscript{185} which are often determined by gender norms. This has impacts both on their current income and their future pensions.

Young women are also the primary holders of fixed-term contracts, with evidence suggesting that employers may prefer to hire young women on such terms rather than on a permanent basis in order to avoid costs associated with maternity leave.\textsuperscript{186} This is not only discriminatory, but risks reinforcing the stereotype of women being less committed to their careers and less dependent on wage employment.\textsuperscript{187} In many societies, gender norms dictate expectations that girls and young women will marry and that their primary role thereafter is in the home, bringing up children and taking care of the household. Such perceptions contribute to the lower value placed on women’s work and the idea that their income is secondary or complementary – not essential.\textsuperscript{188} If men were able and encouraged to take leave to stay at home with children, this could contribute to less discrimination in the labour market against young women, as well as evening out unpaid care responsibilities and allowing fathers to spend more time with their children.

**Spotlight: ‘Non-standard employment’ – a new labour market trend?**

Evidence points to a clear trend across the globe towards an increasing number of people, especially youth, working in what is termed as “non-standard employment”. This is work which falls outside our understanding of standard employment – work that is full time, permanent and part of a bilateral employment
Non-standard employment instead encompasses temporary employment, part-time work, fixed term work through an agency or other party as well as some forms of self-employment. The ILO has identified young women and migrants as groups which are more likely to accept such non-standard work – especially non-standard work of inferior quality – due to their lower bargaining power compared to other workers. Non-standard employment, and in particular casual work – where a person is engaged for a short-term or on an occasional and intermittent basis – has been a common feature in the informal economy in developing countries. However, casual work, as well as other types of non-standard employment, is also becoming increasingly common in developed countries. In fact, self-employment, part-time work and temporary work now account for approximately one third of all jobs in OECD countries. In some cases, these jobs resemble standard wage employment without the protections, often facilitated by new technology and increased usage of digital platforms. Whilst these types of arrangements may reduce costs for businesses, they come at the expense of workers in terms of pay and benefits: those working in non-standard employment are indeed generally worse off in several aspects of job quality, including earnings, job security and access to training. Low-skilled workers in these types of employment are also particularly vulnerable to poor wages, income insecurity and slower wage increase. Research from OECD countries shows that households which depend on earnings from non-standard employment have higher poverty rates and that the increasing number of such households has contributed to higher inequality. However, the race to the bottom for lower labour costs in many markets continues to make non-standard employment arrangements attractive to companies. Turnover for many routine jobs is high as employers can easily replace workers, which allows them to offer low wages and potentially worse conditions.

Barriers and hopes from the ‘Fourth Industrial Revolution’: digitally-enabled STEM professions

The World Economic Forum (WEF), along with other institutions, predicts that the ‘Fourth Industrial Revolution’ will fundamentally change our lives and the ways we work and experience decent work. The Fourth Industrial Revolution builds on the Third Industrial Revolution, which used electronics and information technology to automate production. It is characterised by a fusion of technologies that is blurring the lines between the physical, digital, and biological spheres.

In this era, the ways we work will change in three main ways according to the WEF: firstly, many jobs will no longer be tied to a physical location, as it becomes easier to remotely connect workers in one region or country to jobs in another. However, the WEF warns that this makes it less clear which set of employment laws and taxes apply, potentially weakening employment protections and diminishing available resources to finance social protection. Secondly, human labour is being displaced by automation, robotics and artificial intelligence. Opinions vary on the extent of what is possible, but lower-skilled workers are generally more likely to see their jobs disappear.

CASE STUDY: Plan International China – Combating Work Precariousness among Youth Workers through a Better Understanding of Labour Law

Plan International China works with government partners, institutes and private sectors to provide vocational skill training and job opportunities to young rural workers. The focus is on improving access to stable and decent employment for vulnerable young people aged 16-29 in and around Chengdu – directly contributing to the enhancement of their economic status and security. Song Junli has been one project beneficiary. After graduating from high school, Junli’s elder brother had found her a job in a clothing workshop in Zhejiang Province – almost 2,000 km from her hometown in Lezi County, Sichuan Province. However, the small garment shop went out of business just a few months after she arrived. She explains: “My wages for months of work were unpaid, and I could not even afford a ticket back to my hometown. If I had known something about Labour Law, this would not have happened.” Thanks to skills training programmes organised by Plan International and the Chengdu Qing Yang District Government of Sichuan Province, Song Junli is now enrolled in a childcare course she learnt about through the internet.
in the face of automation, increasing their vulnerability and exacerbating societal inequality. Finally, as we have already discussed, the nature of the contract between employer and employee is changing, at the same time that the move to a sharing and collaborative economy increases the prevalence of jobs that fall outside the standard employment contract model. The WEF warns that the negative implications of this includes more instability for workers in terms of income and that they may be left without the employment protections enjoyed by ‘standard’ employees.

Paradoxically, investments in research and new ICTs are key to productivity, innovation and sustainable industries at the heart of job creation. Properly harnessed, the ‘Fourth Industrial Revolution’ can therefore also offer young people opportunities for more, better quality work – especially in regions where skilled jobs are scarce. With digital technologies increasingly reshaping the global economy, qualifications in STEM (science, technology, engineering and mathematics) subjects will provide youth with new access routes to quality work and well paid jobs in the future. A large proportion of today’s jobs already have a digital component, which is only likely to increase. However, as suggested in chapter 2, most scientists and researchers today are men – with women accounting for just over 28 percent of scientific researchers worldwide. Similarly, a report by the International Telecommunication Union found a “startling absence of women in most ICT job categories”. In developing countries, men are 2.7 times more likely than women to work in the sector and 7.6 times more likely to be in ICT occupations. The proportion of women in technical or leadership positions in the sector is even lower. This highlights the concerning possibility that the gender imbalance in the ICT workforce will perpetuate the gender digital divide.

The barriers that stand between young women and work in the digital economy can be compounded by many factors, including income, ethnicity, the differences between urban and rural contexts and disability status. Krieger-Boden and Sorgner in fact identified a number of significant structural and normative obstacles specifically hindering female digital entrepreneurs, such as gaps in entrepreneurial knowledge, a lack of developed social networks for female business founders, insufficient role models and restricted access to capital. The general expectation that entrepreneurs will work above and beyond regular working hours is also a factor, as young women more often than young men have unpaid care responsibilities to balance.

When women do secure employment in the ICT sector, they still face barriers that limit their progression. A 2017 study by the Kapor Center for Social Impact, based on a sample of over 2,000 people who had left a job in a technology-related industry or function in the US within the last three years, found that women had significantly higher experiences of unfair treatment at work than men; 1 in 10 women experienced unwanted sexual attention (discussed in chapter 1). The study also found that unfair treatment directed at women was more pronounced in technology companies than other companies. These barriers are not just limited to the US: in China, where only 20 per cent of engineers in internet and telecommunications industries are women, several technology companies explicitly state during the recruitment process that certain positions are just for men.

**Spotlight: Women in Tech – The successful case of Lebanon**

Female leaders’ representation in technology is not that grim everywhere. In Lebanon for example, quite atypically, women outnumber men in many areas of the technology sector, and are behind several leading tech start-ups including Myki, Play My Way, Sensio Air and Proximie. A key factor in the success of female digital entrepreneurs in the country has been an ecosystem of enabling organisations and forums such as the U.K. Lebanon Tech Hub and the pan-Arab MIT Enterprise Forum that support entrepreneurs in bringing their ideas to market. A willingness to challenge gender stereotypes has also played a part. As Hale Fadel, founding member of the MIT Enterprise Forum, has said, “Being sparky, breaking the rules, is part of the mentality. It is intrinsic to the Tech industry.”

**Plan International’s position:**

- No worker should face discrimination at work on the basis of gender, age, disability or other determinant of their identity. Plan International especially condemns the double discrimination
affecting young women on the basis of being both young and female. We believe all young people must be given the opportunity of decent work, paid at living wage levels. Denial of these rights permanently impairs their economic security and ability to contribute to the well-being of those they support, including children – thus threatening the very foundations of strong, prosperous and cohesive societies.

Plan International recognizes that investing in young women’s economic empowerment through decent work is both the right thing and smart thing to do in order to advance gender equality and promote inclusive and sustainable economic growth. However, we fully acknowledge that many young women still struggle to combine paid work with care responsibilities. The rise of a competitive female workforce therefore requires provision of distinct opportunities for girls and young women – especially in high growth economic sectors like STEM; to address the gender wage gap; and to provide flexible working conditions combined with adequate labour protection. Such protection should especially include paid parental leave for both parents.

It is also crucial to invest in and expand safe, legal youth employment and entrepreneurship opportunities in emergency settings. This is particularly important for displaced youth. When young people – and especially young women – are denied these opportunities, they are more likely to be forced into informal, insecure and low paid work that puts them at increased risk of poverty and abuse.

Plan International’s recommendations:

- Governments must foster an enabling environment where all worker rights are protected and monitored including in the informal economy, paying particular regard to the situation of most vulnerable workers such as young women and refugees.

- Governments and employers should urgently tackle the race to the bottom for lower labour costs in many markets and its impact on workers locked in non-standard work arrangements. Governments and companies should take all necessary steps to address the rise in ‘working poor’, especially through ensuring that workers are paid living wages. These measures should be combined with broader efforts to foster an enabling legal and policy environment for informal sector livelihoods; in particular, governments should expand the coverage of existing labour codes and/or create enforceable work contracts in the informal economy to alleviate the burden for most vulnerable young people, who live in poverty and work in precariousness.

- States must also enact or reform, enforce and uphold laws and policies to guarantee equality in the workplace and end gender-based discrimination and violence at work, starting with monitoring wage gender gaps and ensuring equal pay for equal work as well as equal treatment in hiring and benefits. Maternity protection and paid parental leave – including non-transferrable, father-specific leave entitlements – are also critical to enable young women’s continued participation in the world of work throughout the lifecycle and career advancement through positions of authority.

- To allow young people to reap the benefits of the ‘Fourth Industrial Revolution’, the private sector should take a leading role in promoting the engagement of youth, especially young women, in STEM and other so called non-traditional sectors. To enable young women to compete in a 21st century labour market, ICT and STEM companies must develop enabling inclusive practices, such as gender diversity recruitment targets and equality policies; flexible working structures for digital jobs and mentoring
programmes to support the retention of women in ICT roles; and access to gender-responsive labour market information systems that provide relevant guidance on decent work opportunities to shape careers (i.e. access, retention and progress) of young women in unconventional sectors.

- Governments, employers, financial institutions and other market actors should work together so that displaced youth can establish sustainable livelihoods and access legal, protected employment. Where wage employment options are limited for displaced workers, enterprise and cooperative development assistance – including access to business development and market linkages services, finance and mentoring – should be provided to support youth with micro, small and medium enterprise (MSME) creation and growth. Support should be provided as early as possible following displacement to prevent prolonged dependence on humanitarian aid; it should also address gender-based barriers through creating a gender-transformative, enabling space for young women’s equitable participation in post-emergency labour markets.

**ACCESS TO PRODUCTIVE RESOURCES AND FINANCIAL AND DIGITAL INCLUSION AMONG GIRLS AND YOUNG WOMEN**

Access to productive resources like land, financial services such as credit and bank accounts, and new technology which facilitates ease of use, is often associated with positive economic empowerment outcomes. Supporting access to economic assets for girls and youth at an early age as part of a lifecycle approach to economic empowerment increases their chances of moving out of poverty and improves their ability to participate in inclusive economic development in adulthood. This requires concerted action to address specific barriers faced by traditionally excluded groups, including young people, girls and women, and populations living in remote or rural areas.

**Inheritance, land and property rights**

Laws regulating children’s and adults’ rights to inheritance affects a person’s access to key economic assets, such as land and property, from early in life. For many people, inheritance is the surest opportunity to own land or housing, and access to and the ability to use land and property is important for several reasons, starting with the most obvious – increased financial security, access to credit (via collateral) and the ability to build a business. Furthermore, for women, owning land is also associated with increased bargaining power within the household.

“Girls don’t have any rights to inherit property and so end up being married off at young ages to older men who can afford to pay dowries.” Young man, Uganda

Where girls’ and women’s inheritance rights are not equal to those of boys and men because of discriminatory legislation – including local laws and practices – girls and women are less likely to own property and are therefore disadvantaged economically. For instance, in the Middle East and North Africa, where no country except Malta grants women equal inheritance rights, only four per cent of women own land. In 32 countries out of 160 examined by the OECD, girls either have no inheritance rights at all or the law does not guarantee them equal inheritance rights to boys, and only 55 countries grant women and men equal inheritance rights both in law and in practice. Unequal inheritance rights also affects married women, with widows in some contexts being prevented from inheriting from their partners. In 35 countries examined by the World Bank – most of them located in Asia, sub-Saharan Africa, and the Middle East and North Africa – widows do not have the same inheritance rights as their male counterparts. As a result, thousands of widows are also evicted from their properties every year, usually by their in-laws. Too often, this is the...
culmination of a lifetime of gender-based discrimination, which might have included child, early or forced marriage and the denial of educational and economic opportunities.

The state of financial inclusion among girls and women

Financial inclusion means that individuals and businesses have access to useful and affordable financial products and services that meet their needs – transactions, payments, savings, credit and insurance – delivered in a responsible and sustainable way. Across the world, use of such services is expanding, partly as a result of technological advancements in this area. The World Bank estimates that more than 60 per cent of the global population now use some form of mainstream financial service or product, representing an increase by 11 per cent since 2011.222 Despite this progress, women in general are still less likely to be using mainstream financial services, with one report finding that 190 million fewer women than men have an account at a financial institution223 224. This considerably increases their vulnerability to income shocks and reduces their ability to invest, save and plan for the future. The right to access financial services however is stated in several international agreements and human rights frameworks, including Agenda 2030 through which States have committed to ensuring women’s equal access to resources and financial services.225 Furthermore, CEDAW requires that States eliminate discrimination against women in accessing financial institutions, specifically mentioning loans, mortgages and other forms of financial credit.226 The Convention also commits States to ensuring rural women have access to agricultural credit and loans.227

CASE STUDY: Plan International’s Savings Groups – Cornerstone for Youth and Women’s Financial and Economic Inclusion

Savings groups are a tried and tested way of enabling millions of vulnerable, formerly ‘unbankable’ people in the developing world to save, access loans and set up small businesses without having to go through formal financial institutions (often commanding large collaterals). But traditional savings groups have long struggled to attract youth and women, seriously curtailing their financial inclusion prospects. Yet, research by Plan International has demonstrated that in groups with higher female participation for example, total savings and use of credit were higher than in control groups. Most female members typically reported making savings every year, and some had even opened a bank account in micro-finance institutions by the end of Plan International’s savings groups interventions – proving that girls and young women are economic actors in their own right.

As part of its Banking on Change programme (phase 2, 2013-2015) run in partnership with Barclays, Plan International UK further developed a targeted Youth Saving Group (YSG) model to increase young people’s access to financial services and help them improve their financial and business skills in several countries from Africa and Asia. The model outlines good programming principles for effective, youth-friendly savings groups and, moving beyond financial inclusion, provides insight into the role of YSGs in enhancing young people’s economic empowerment. To achieve that, effective programming for YSGs must follow three broad steps: forming YSGs by reaching young people in their own spaces while safeguarding their rights and engaging with families; sustaining YSGs through providing needs-based technical training and creating social funds to help foster members’ resilience; and scaling up YSGs through linking responsibly with financial institutions and building youth leadership and advocacy. To learn more, see the report on the Banking on Change’s Youth Savings Group Model.

Illustrating the above, saving groups established with support from Plan International in Zambia and Rwanda have proved that in addition to being stepping stones towards financial inclusion, they were effective platforms for the delivery of livelihood, employability and life skills trainings as well as sexual and reproductive health programmes. This resulted in increased asset ownership and lower pregnancy rates as well as fewer sexually risky behaviours among female members, on top of helping deconstruct negative gender stereotypes of girls and women belonging to the domestic space.
Girls’ and women’s comparatively low use of financial services and institutions has several explanations: access to financial services is limited by pervasive gender-based discrimination, a lack of formal credit history and/or financial education, and difficulties obtaining I.D. cards – which especially affects married girls and women as they may have to obtain their husband’s consent.228 Barriers to financial products and services are further described in the next section, together with their detrimental impact on young women’s economic opportunities and ability to fully participate in public life.

**Barriers to access financial services and impact on female economic empowerment**

Many women, especially those living on low incomes and in rural areas, have little or no access to physical bank branches or mobile technology.229 Additionally, even if safe and appropriate financial services are available, this does not matter if potential clients do not perceive their benefits.230 Women are less likely to be financially literate and consequently, less likely to be knowledgeable about the benefits financial services can offer and to trust financial institutions.231

Many women are also financially excluded because they lack the necessary documentation or credit history. Proof of legal identity, such as a passport or other form of identification documents, is in most cases a prerequisite for being able to borrow money from formal financial institutions such as banks. Where women face greater difficulties obtaining national ID cards or passports, this is therefore also a barrier to accessing financial services, in particular credit. Furthermore, credit history often excludes small loans, microfinance loans and information from non-bank institutions, such as retailers and utilities, which means that women – who are more likely to have borrowed smaller amounts and from non-traditional sources – have difficulty proving their creditworthiness.232

Access to credit also seems to be linked to gender inequality more broadly. Research by the World Bank shows that only 46 countries worldwide have legislation specifically requiring non-discrimination in access to credit on the basis of gender. Of these, 24 also prohibit discrimination based on marital status. An analysis based on data from the World Bank further shows that where women face legal discrimination in the ability to work, head a household, choose where to live, inherit property or are required by law to obey their husband, they are also less likely than men to have an account and to save and borrow.233 Moreover, data from OECD’s Gender, Institutions and Development Database demonstrates that the prevalence of discriminatory gender norms, based on indicators such as the level of violence against women and the incidence of early marriage, is significantly related to women’s use of financial services.234

**Spotlight: Access to finance and female entrepreneurship**

Even though a large proportion of women are self-employed in many regions,235 not being able to access financial services – especially credit – holds female entrepreneurs back. The UN High-Level Panel on Women’s Economic Empowerment has found that it is a recurring constraint limiting enterprises owned by women.236 Approximately two thirds of women-owned SMEs in developing economies are unserved or underserved by financial institutions.237 Female entrepreneurs are also more likely to encounter legal difficulties, especially if they are married, according to research by the World Bank.238 Registering a business, opening a bank account and signing a contract are all actions which married women cannot undertake in the same way as married men in some contexts.

**Digital inclusion and female economic empowerment**

Young people are at the forefront of digital development and adopt new technologies quicker than older age groups. They are growing-up in a digital age that offers new opportunities early in life to advance economically and socially. The proportion of young people worldwide aged 15-24 using the Internet – 71 per cent – is significantly higher than the proportion of the total population using the Internet – 48 per cent. However, youth in high-income countries are still significantly more likely to have regular internet access than those living in lower-income countries and settings. In developed countries, 94 per cent of young people aged 15-24 use the Internet, compared with 67 per cent in developing countries and only 30 per cent in Least
Developed Countries (LDCs). In high-income countries, the proportion of households with Internet access at home is also twice as high as in developing countries. In LDCs, only 15 per cent of households have Internet access at home. Everywhere, people with disabilities and women in particular are also significantly less likely to have access to the Internet and ICTs.

There is significant evidence that the early opportunities offered by new technology are not benefiting girls and young women to the same extent as boys and young men. The proportion of women using the Internet is lower than the proportion of men in two-thirds of all countries worldwide: in 2017, the Internet gender usage gap was 11.6 per cent worldwide (up from 11 per cent in 2013). In Least Developed Countries, the gender gap in Internet usage now stands at 32.9 per cent, having increased by 3 percentage points since 2013. A study across nine developing countries found that girls and women are about 50 per cent less likely to be connected compared to men in the same age group with similar levels of education and household income. Young women, women living in poverty and women with little or no education are especially likely to be missing out.

The gender digital divide also manifests itself in other ways. For instance, a mobile phone is by far the most common way for people to get online, but more than 2 billion people still do not own one and vulnerable and poor populations are most often left out. The gender gap in mobile ownership in low- and middle-income countries is estimated to be 10 per cent, but this average masks greater inequality in many parts of the world. For example, women in South Asia are 26 per cent less likely to own a mobile than men and 70 per cent less likely to use mobile internet. This illustrates the fact that even when women do own mobile phones, there is a significant gender gap in usage of mobile internet. Cost is cited as the most common barrier to both mobile ownership and use of mobile internet for both women and men.

Other key barriers to digital inclusion such as issues related to safety and security and low literacy and digital literacy affect women disproportionately. For example, girls and young women may be reluctant to access computer classes and internet cafes, because these spaces are often dominated by men or their location means that they are less accessible to women. In turn, lower digital literacy makes girls and women more susceptible to risks associated with using technology and going online, such as unnecessary and high user fees, signing up for services they do not need, or inadvertently sharing too much private information about themselves. Additional factors that can impact on access include legislation and policies that adversely impact women; privacy risks; and centralised censorship.

Yet, as suggested in earlier chapters, increasing women’s use of digital tools and participation in the digital economy would propel their employment opportunities, labour participation and productivity through reducing labour time and facilitating flexible working arrangements – ultimately leading to wider economic growth.

**CASE STUDY: Plan International’s Campaign on Unlocking the Power of #Digital Girls**

Plan International works to ensure that girls and women have equal access to relevant technical skills training, including digital literacy in school and through skills building programmes, so they are able to take full advantage of technology. Plan International Brazil, through their *Youth Building the Future programme*, has helped thousands of young people to achieve that, especially young women. Thamires, for example, thought she would never find a job, but the project enabled her to gain digital skills and provided her with much needed mentorship after the training. As a result, she was able to secure her first formal position as SAP Jr Assistant at Accenture Recife. Plan International further developed guiding steps towards increasing young women’s digital competencies, which are now implemented in programmes on equal education opportunities. The goals are to close the technology access and usage gap; make digital environments safe for girls; and empower girls and women to generate digital technology. Plan International is also leading a campaign called #digital girls which raises awareness of the importance of young girls becoming better equipped to reap the benefits of the digital future.
In rural areas of Uganda, internet access is expanding at an unequal pace. Although all young people who took part in Plan International’s youth consultation had access to a mobile phone, only 3 out of 11 had regular access to mobile internet. Many youth use their internet access to subscribe to online courses, with the hope to increase their chances of securing employment and improve their business. “I use my digital skills to exchange agricultural information with others such as ideas about pest management and farming practices, and to link with prospective buyers and sellers” – Young man, 21.

Plan International’s position:

- Every young person should be able to make informed economic and financial decisions, be able to access and make productive use of economic assets, including land and financial products and services, such as bank accounts and credit. Discrimination and exclusion of young people – particularly young women – from economic assets and finance instruments poses a direct threat to their wellbeing and livelihood, increasing their reliance on others for basic subsistence and therefore, their vulnerability to poverty and abuse.

- Plan International stresses that while financial exclusion is a direct impediment to youth and female empowerment, this can be effectively tackled through evidence-based accessible, collective credit and savings mechanisms and other inclusive approaches which generate assets at community level. Successful examples include Village Savings and Loans Associations (VSLA) and Youth Savings Groups (YSG).

- Plan International recognises that the solidarity and social networks generated through savings groups is of particular importance to girls and young women. We believe that inclusive savings and credit approaches can serve to support the achievement of young people’s educational goals and life ambitions, and are a stepping stone for deeper economic and financial inclusion among girls and women, by allowing them to invest in small business or self-employment activities.

- We also believe that technology and the internet must become an enabler of, rather than a barrier to, girls’ and young women’s economic empowerment. This means girls and women must have equal access to new technology, develop the skills and knowledge needed to utilise it, and be involved in creating digital tools and solutions. Without this, digital instruments will become alien to girls’ and women’s needs, wants and rights – incapable of supporting them to become tomorrow’s leaders and change agents. Without girls’ effective participation in ICT, the digital economies of the future will only replicate existing gender disparities in technology ownership, usage and workforce representation.

Plan International’s recommendations:

- Government, working closely with traditional and religious authorities should reform, enact, enforce and uphold regulations and policies, including inheritance legislation, to ensure girls’ and women’s rights to ownership and control of productive assets – such as land, natural resources and other forms of property. This is especially critical in fragile and emergency settings. Such situations tend to cut-off vast portions of populations from essential networks
and assets – including land and credit – making everyday survival a challenge and threatening to keep girls and women in the domestic sphere.

- Governments, traditional leaders and other power holders should take active steps towards tackling discriminatory legislation and customary practices than ban women from accessing financial services and products including bank accounts, loans, insurance and mortgages; in particular, requirements linked to proof of ID or credit history should urgently be reviewed or abolished to reflect commitments to international human rights standards as well as the daily realities of people operating in largely informal economies. Governments should also work with formal and micro-financial institutions to develop accessible, safe, reliable and gender-transformative credit schemes and services (such as mobile banking) that support women-led income-generating activities in rural and remote areas.

- Governments, CSOs and donors should support youth saving groups as a low-risk, savings-led approach to financing among young people, and a cornerstone for deeper financial inclusion via bank linkages for mature youth groups. At the same time, governments, CSOs and the private sector must invest in targeted measures to improve financial and bank literacy among marginalised, financially excluded youth, especially girls and young women. Through employer engagement and corporate volunteering, vulnerable communities can learn about safe and informed borrowing using reasonable interest rates, in line with SDG 8 targets on access to affordable banking and financial services.

- Governments and donors should also promote VSLAs and YSGs as a catalyst for gender transformation in communities and a means to build assets towards youth self-employment and business activities in a context of limited waged job opportunities – thereby enhancing the economic resilience of vulnerable young people. Peer support structures of that nature can provide the necessary foundations for young women and men to build social and financial networks and develop small and micro enterprises in remote and rural areas.

- Governments and the private sector should build win-win partnerships that improve internet coverage and quality, and facilitate access to and the productive use of ICT devices among youth – particularly young women – through better distribution and affordability. Increased ownership of mobile phones and access to mobile internet indeed are essential components of a wider strategy to unlock girls’ and women’s potential to benefit from digital innovations such as mobile banking and money, which in turn can foster female economic empowerment.

- Governments and employers should take immediate action to prioritise ICT subjects in education and make digital literacy part of lifelong learning strategies in formal and non-formal training and work settings, with a focus on girls and women. This is fundamental to develop young people’s risk-aware utilisation of ICT resources and digital tools. Ensuring girls know about the dangers associated with using technology and being online, and what to do and who to contact if anything makes them feel uneasy, is a crucial part of closing the digital gender divide.

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**FEMALE UNPAID CARE AND DOMESTIC WORK**

**Accounting for girls and women's unpaid work in the economy**

Girls care and domestic responsibilities begin from a very young age and follow them into adulthood, largely due to gender norms and stereotypes regarding girls' and women's roles. Such unpaid work includes – but is not limited to – taking care of family members, cooking, cleaning and doing laundry as well as time- and
labour-intensive tasks such as collecting water and fuel. It is a significant barrier faced from childhood that prevents girls accessing the same opportunities as boys. However, the provision of such care is essential to the well-being of society and healthy economic growth. While women’s work with children ensures continuity and productivity of the future workforce, it also is not uncommon for young women to be subsidizing the wider (care) economy through their nurturing efforts with older, ill or disabled relatives, especially in the context of limited state healthcare provisions. The functioning of the formal economy therefore relies on the hidden and informal care and domestic work undertaken predominantly by girls and women around the world on a daily basis. Far from being an “untapped” economic resource, female unpaid work rather is the invisible structure on which the larger economy rests.253

Yet, conventional economic policy tends to ignore the essential role played by girls and women in undertaking unpaid care work, and the many ways in which it subsidizes the formal economy. Unpaid care and domestic work largely remains unaccounted for in terms of GDP, despite the fact that it comprises a vast proportion of the working day for many. In Great Britain for instance, just the value of unpaid childcare in 2010 (£343 billion, equivalent to 23 percent of GDP) amounts to over three times that of the financial sector (representing just over 7 percent of the GDP).254

Through Agenda 2030, governments have committed to recognising and valuing unpaid work and to promoting shared responsibility for this within households.255 The inclusion of this target was mainly the result of work undertaken by advocates of women’s economic empowerment. In recent years, the need to include unpaid work in official statistics on economic activity has been more widely acknowledged, for instance through the adoption of new standards by the 19th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS) in 2013.256

Unpaid responsibilities and women’s outcomes in the world of work

Girls aged 5-14 years spend 550 million hours every day on household chores globally – 160 million more hours than boys their age spend.257 Inequality follows girls into adulthood: across the globe, women spend on average three times as much time as men undertaking unpaid care and domestic work.258 In some countries, women spend nearly ten times as many hours as men undertaking unpaid work.259

“To be a good daughter, I should do housework and do what my parents want. Good girls behave well at home and do everything they are told to do. My parents make me and my sisters work much harder than my brothers and my sisters and I think they’re right.” Girl, Togo

Where girls and women spend a disproportionate amount of time on unpaid care and domestic work, this leaves them with less time to study, attend school and pursue leisure activities. Excessive burdens of unpaid work also reduces their opportunity to join activities which further their social empowerment – such as participation in civil and political life260 – and may threaten their health, and their rights to rest.261

“Sometimes, my mother asks me to be absent [from school] in order to take care of my younger siblings, because she is busy harvesting rice.” Girl, Cambodia

The real costs of unpaid labour are mostly borne by girls and women in terms of lost economic opportunities and foregone earnings.262 And when macroeconomic policies do not account for this, they reinforce the gender-based undervaluation and marginalisation of the work that girls and women undertake.263 Research shows that when women spend almost eight times the amount of time that men spend on unpaid care work, they represent only 35 per cent of the formal labour force.264 However, when responsibilities are shared more equally and women spend less than twice the amount that men spend on unpaid work, their labour force participation increases to 50 per cent.265 Where women undertake more unpaid care work, this also correlates with higher gender wage gaps. Women earn 65 per cent of men’s wages when they spend twice as much time as men on unpaid care work, but only 40 per cent of men’s wages when they spend five times more.266

Finally, unpaid care and domestic responsibilities not only determine whether a
young woman is able to participate in the formal labour market and her earnings, but also influence her choice of occupations, as these responsibilities often limit what type of job she can take on.\(^{267}\) The jobs that women have been able to accept have often been at the ‘margins’ of the formal labour market and are often non-standard employment offers, as described above in chapters 2 and 3.\(^{268}\) The OECD’s Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) – which measures discrimination against women – notes that where women bear the main bulk of unpaid care responsibilities, they are more likely to work part-time and in the informal sector.\(^{269}\)

“I say - you have to learn, my son. Because when you go away, nobody's going to do this for you. Yes, I always tell the boys they have to do the same things as girls – it's no shame.”
A girl’s mother – Brazil

Infrastructure and social investments towards rebalancing productive and reproductive work

States have committed to investing in infrastructure and social protection policies which reduce the burden of female unpaid care,\(^{270}\) e.g. through the CEDAW\(^{271}\) which highlights the availability of childcare facilities as a critical condition for balancing family responsibilities with participation in productive work. The cost, quality and availability of care for young children as well as the availability of free, quality education for school-age children indeed affect a young woman’s decision to participate in the formal labour market, since women are often the primary carers for children who live at home. The World Bank found that the share of women who reported receiving wages in countries which provide public childcare was more than twice that in countries which do not.\(^{272}\) The availability of social protection, particularly maternity and paternity leave benefits, are also critical aspects of enabling women to return to work after having a child, as discussed in chapters 3 and 8. Investments in other basic infrastructure such as piped water and electricity could also drastically improve the situation for girls and young women in many contexts through reducing the time they spend on unpaid work. For example, education enrolment rates for girls increased by 10 percent in Yemen and by 12 percent in Pakistan when the time spent walking to a water source was reduced by just one hour.\(^{273}\)

CASE STUDY: Plan International’s Real Choices, Real Lives Cohort Study – A Lifecycle Perspective on Female Unpaid Work

Plan International UK’s study, Real Choices, Real Lives, tracks the lives of 142 girls across nine countries from birth until the age of 18. In 2017, the girls in the cohort study turned 11 but from as young as 5, they were taught ‘a curriculum of chores’ defined by gendered roles and divisions within their families and communities. Such tasks became more pronounced during early adolescence. Indeed, the domestic sphere is perceived as ‘women’s work’, and thus ‘good girls’ are expected to support their mothers within the home with cooking, cleaning and looking after siblings. In their testimonies, girls said they find it difficult to ‘fit everything in’ and are left with limited time to play, do homework, and/or rest. Besides, although aspirations for their futures and educational achievements are high, these are severely constrained by the realities of the contexts in which they live. Indeed, girls frequently miss school as a result of their unequal share of unpaid work, and families are forced to make difficult decisions about supporting their education. When they are at school, girls still take on extra responsibilities than their boy counterparts, finding it challenging to escape ‘female’ roles of cleaner and carer. Nearly all of the girls in fact said they have more household-related responsibilities than male pupils – with implications for their learning potential and possibly long lasting effects on their lives (i.e. limiting them not only academically, but also in terms of their future job prospects and self-confidence). Moreover, having limited time to play and socialise also affects girls’ healthy development. Combined, these phenomena risk ‘confining’ girls to certain life trajectories which are likely to reinforce gendered divisions and responsibilities into future generations – unless challenged from an early age onwards [Extracted from https://plan-uk.org/blogs/unpaid-care-work-the-burden-on-girls].
In essence, social and infrastructure-related investments aimed to reduce and redistribute the burden of unpaid work will yield benefits not just for individuals and families but also for the economy and society at large, including businesses, through increasing women’s formal labour force participation; creating jobs in the care sector; and strengthening the education of children, with beneficial effects for the development of their talent and full potential.

**Plan International’s position:**

- Plan International recognises that unpaid care and domestic work overwhelmingly affects many aspects of girls and women’s lives throughout the lifecycle. Therefore, institutional, policy and legal enabling environments must be built that address girls’ and young women’s economic empowerment through the recognition, reduction and redistribution of unpaid work from an early age.

- We believe that unpaid work – the majority of which is undertaken by girls and women – must be formally recognised and appropriately valued as work. Economic policies which undermine investment in infrastructure and public services such as education, healthcare and social protection ignore the way girls’ and women’s invisible efforts subsidize the real economy and rely on them to pick up the care burden. This must change - starting with better provision of quality, affordable child-, disability and elderly care. The current absence or
accessibility of such services profoundly undermines efforts to achieve gender equality and the economic empowerment of girls and women.

- We believe that social norm change which redistributes the responsibility of care from girls and women to boys and men is essential to achieve gender equality. Boys and men must start viewing care as their equal responsibility and this should be promoted by society though adequate policy. For instance, specific periods of parental leave reserved for fathers – or ‘daddy quotas’ - can encourage take-up among male employees. We also recognize the possible financial costs of using parental leave – especially for young families – and so we further call for well-paid parental leave periods that provide financial incentives and maximum flexibility while supporting the goal of women’s economic empowerment.

**Plan International's recommendations:**

- Governments should take immediate action to recognise, reduce and redistribute women’s and girls’ disproportionate burden of unpaid care and domestic work, starting with encouraging men to share equally unpaid work. In partnership with CSOs, the private sector and traditional leaders, authorities should help foster social norm change to better balance the allocation of unpaid responsibilities among girls and women and boys and men, using a variety of communication strategies.

- Governments and employers from both the public and private sectors should further review insufficient or inadequate incentives or regulations that reinforce gendered distributions of labour by encouraging women and discouraging men to take up childcare duties – such as inequitable pay patterns between women with children and men with children, and unpaid or rigid parental leave arrangements. Instead, governments and companies should work to design smart, gender-transformative parental leave schemes combining periods of non-transferrable, father-specific paid parental leave (based on the use-it or lose-it principle), followed by periods of flexible – i.e. potentially shared – parental leave.

- Governments and donors should take proactive steps to include measures of unpaid work in national statistics and step up evidence-based, gender-transformative investments as part of wider universal social protection strategies. In addition to paid parental leave for both parents, such strategies should give access to affordable, accessible and quality healthcare. Governments must also ensure work in the care industry is decent work.

- Governments and donors should further invest in improved physical infrastructure, including piped water, electricity access and safe transport, which can help reduce female time poverty and efforts spent on unpaid domestic responsibilities – such as collecting water, doing laundry, cooking and cleaning.

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**ECONOMIC MIGRATION, DISPLACEMENT AND TRAFFICKING RISKS: FORCED AND CHILD LABOUR**

A globalised world where we see an increased mobility of people, as well as in trade, investments and production, opens opportunities but also poses threats, not least to workers – especially the most vulnerable among them such as youth and women. States have taken steps to address and mitigate risks for people on the move; in particular, they committed to eliminating trafficking through the 2000 UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, and different forms of exploitation, including forced labour and child labour via international instruments widely ratified today (e.g. ILO Conventions No 29 on Forced Labour, No 182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labour and No 138 on Minimum
Age for admission to employment and work\textsuperscript{275}. Agenda 2030 also contains commitments to end modern slavery and human trafficking by 2030,\textsuperscript{276} while specific attention is paid to eradicating forced labour and all forms of child labour by 2025.

Governments further endorsed special human rights instruments designed to protect the labour rights of specific categories of populations on the move, such as those applying for refugee status\textsuperscript{277}. The 1951 Refugee Convention explicitly confers asylum seekers and refugees the right to decent work and sets clear obligations for host countries to allow them to engage in wage- and self-employment. However refugees and asylum seekers are often unable to realise their labour rights due to regulations that restrict their mobility and access to legal status, or simply due to political discrimination. Policies which require refugees to live in camps are particularly detrimental and in many countries refugees remain threatened by deportation, while their businesses are targeted for raids.\textsuperscript{278} The combination of these factors means that of all immigrant groups, refugees have historically had the greatest difficulty in finding and sustaining decent work, while easily falling victims to abusive and exploitative forms of labour.\textsuperscript{279}

**Labour migration and economic empowerment: a complex relationship**

Migration continues to be a significant trend across the world. As of 2017 there were 258 million international migrants in the world\textsuperscript{280} – defined as persons living in a country other than their country of birth. 74 per cent of international migrants are of working age, while 14 per cent are under the age of 20.\textsuperscript{281} A large number of international migrants move to seek improved economic opportunities, with high-income countries hosting almost two thirds of all international migrants.\textsuperscript{282}

In Plan International Egypt’s Youth Engagement Workshop on Economic Empowerment, young participants who had migrated and/or were refugees in Egypt raised an important point regarding their ability to work and reside freely in the host country. In order for them to obtain a residence permit, they said they need to provide proof of employment and in order for them to find a job, they need to have a residence permit – meaning it is virtually impossible for them to access suitable employment opportunities. Consequently, they often have to accept jobs that are below their level of skills or in the informal sector.

The relationship between labour migration and economic empowerment is complex and multi-faceted. Despite the significant, long-researched benefits that migration can bring both to origin and host countries, migrants are also particularly vulnerable to work exploitation.\textsuperscript{283} Although they should be protected by several global human rights instruments (e.g. the 1949 ILO Convention on Migration for Employment, the 1975 ILO Convention on Migrations in Abusive Conditions and the 1990 International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers), migrants are often the first to lose their jobs in the event of an economic downturn and may have no other alternative than to accept work that is low-paid, with worse conditions than native workers.

Economic migration can either challenge or reinforce occupational segregation between genders and traditional gender roles, which can be rather disempowering. On the one hand for example, if they migrate to more liberal societies, girls and women may become.

**CASE STUDY: Plan International’s Research – The Gendered Dimension of Labour Migration**

Research conducted by Plan International on rural-urban migrations shows that gender norms act as underlying factors which influence whether young women or young men are more likely to migrate. In the Philippines, respondents described how women are under particular pressure to migrate as they bear greater responsibility for providing economic support to their families than boys and young men. However, in Vietnam, gender norms seemed to act as obstacles rather than push factors for young women to make a move. Respondents suggested that responsibilities linked to family life, childcare and looking after property would constrict young women’s opportunities to leave. Furthermore, perceptions linked to control of female sexuality, or that it would not be ‘appropriate’ for a young woman to travel on her own, also acted as obstacles to migration for work.
familiar with new norms regarding their rights and opportunities, and new economic opportunities might become available.

On the other hand, research conducted by Plan International on rural-urban migration shows gender is still an important factor in determining the types of opportunities available to young people who migrate in Vietnam and the Philippines. In both countries, few employment options in rural areas outside of subsistence farming have been a push factor for youth to seek jobs elsewhere. But the perception in urban settings that some industries – such as the transport sector or agriculture – were more suited to young men, while others – such as manufacturing – were more suitable for young women, played a significant role upon arrival in town. In general, many young women who migrate to find economic opportunities still fill highly gendered, lower paid occupations worldwide, which range from domestic work, to the garment industry, to nursing and teaching.

**Spotlight: Women migrant domestic workers (WMDWs)**

11.5 million (17.2 per cent of all domestic workers) are international migrants and the vast majority (around 80 per cent) of all domestic workers are female – often girls and young women in domestic servitude who go unnoticed. The situation of women migrant domestic workers (WMDWs) thus commands special attention; they are usually employed by private households in high-income countries, often through informal arrangements without clear terms of employment. This can lead them to be tied to their employer for a long period of time under national – sometimes fraudulent – visa (or ‘sponsorship’) arrangements. In addition to making WMDWs invisible, it also makes them increasingly vulnerable to violations of their rights including restrictions to their freedom of movement, work exploitation and abuse – with no means of redress since it all happens in the ‘private sphere’ of the employers’ household (usually not recognised as workplaces by Labour Law). In fact, the ILO estimates that there are currently 67.1 million domestic workers worldwide who make up almost a quarter of all cases of forced labour exploitation (see definition in next section), including low pay or non-payment of wages; extreme working hours and inadequate number of rest days; poor living conditions; and physical and psychological abuse. While domestic work has traditionally been excluded from the protection offered by labour codes, this perception is now slowly changing. Notable progress includes the adoption of the 2011 ILO Convention concerning Decent Work for Domestic Workers (No. 189), which has currently been ratified by 24 countries.

**The role of States and the private sector in forced labour**

During the last few decades, governments across the world have moved towards more open trade and in doing so, frequently removed subsidies and tariffs and failed to design, implement and/or monitor multi- and bi-lateral labour migration management frameworks for foreign workers – including by rolling back social security and other protection mechanisms for vulnerable populations. Poor accountability mechanisms and the inability of international and domestic law and practices to control the actions of corporations have allowed them to exploit cheap labour and weaker labour protection in other countries, often resulting in forced labour of workers – both migrant and national – in global supply chains.

Forced labour is defined by ILO Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29) as ‘all work or service that is exacted from any person under the menace of any penalty and for which the said person has not offered himself voluntarily’. Migrant workers represent a large proportion of those in forced labour – in fact, 5.7 million victims of forced labour in 2016 were living outside their country of residence. For example, there is evidence that many Chinese migrants endure forced labour in ‘ethnic business enclaves’ including sweatshops, restaurants and domestic work in Europe and North America; and that people of all ages cross South Asia borders only to be met by forced labour in carpet and garment industries, construction and manufacturing work, or on the streets.

Of the 24.9 million people who were in forced labour in 2016, 16 million were found in the
private economy and 4.1 million were in forced labour imposed by state authorities. Of those in forced labour imposed by private actors – including businesses and private individuals – women are again the majority, accounting for 9.2 million, compared to 6.8 million men. Just over half are in debt bondage; meaning they were coerced to work to pay off a debt.

Of the 4.1 million people estimated to be in state-imposed forced labour in 2016, the majority – 64 per cent – were forced by their government to work for the purpose of furthering economic development, for instance in construction or agriculture. These figures also included military conscripts subjected to abuse of conscription and prisoners forced to carry out prison labour under conditions that violate ILO standards. Furthermore, there were approximately 300,000 children in forced labour imposed by state authorities. This is an extreme form of child exploitation as children suffer both the impact of the labour itself as well as potentially dangerous working conditions, coupled with the trauma of coercion and punishment threats.

Case Study: Plan International Asia’s Stopping Exploitation through Accessible Services (SEAS of Change) Project

As one of the top seafood producing countries in the world, Thailand has officially employed over 650,000 migrant workers and much more unofficially. Valued at €7 billion per year, migrant labour from Cambodia, Myanmar, Laos and Vietnam are found in fishing boats, freshwater aquaculture and peeling sheds to produce the products that are exported to mostly US and European retailers.

Respondents to a 2014 Plan International study revealed that migrant workers had no work permits, lacked proper identification documents, and had limited to no knowledge of safe migration and trafficking. Furthermore, a majority were persuaded by local brokers to cross the border illegally with promises of high wages and benefits from the fishing sector. This reflects a general trend observed from the industry, where migrants are subject to violence, discrimination, dangerous working conditions and language problems, and which has prompted international pressures on the Thai government to crack down on forced labour and other labour violations.

Plan International’s SEAS of Change is a ‘net-to-napkin’ approach to fortifying the fishing supply chain against labour exploitation and abuse. Due to the wide scope of the project and the interconnected nature of migrants’ needs in Thailand, project activities aimed to improve livelihood outcomes as well as education and social protection. System-wide change, however, could only be achieved with the private sector; thus, activities promoting supply chain transparency and accountability were also integrated. Several Plan offices work together to deliver interventions in home country communities in Cambodia, destination communities in Thailand, and to engage global retailers to promote transparency and accountability along their supply chain in Sweden and Finland.

Spotlight: Forced labour, a key facet of modern slavery

In 2016, the 24.9 million people involved in forced labour worldwide – i.e. forced to work under threat or coercion, for instance as domestic workers, on construction sites, in factories or in the sex industry – contributed to the more than 40 million people acknowledged as victims of modern slavery, according to ILO and the Walk Free Foundation. Of this number, girls and women represented 28.7 million - many of whom were engaged in forced marriages, totalling 15.4 million people. Modern slavery statistics have only recently started including people in forced marriages, with the rationale that victims are often living in a situation where they have lost their sexual rights and autonomy and are providing free labour under the guise of ‘marriage’.

Displacement, trafficking and child labour

In 2016, there were over 65 million people in the world who had been forcibly displaced. Forced displacement often occurs in the context of conflict situations, which present unique risks for girls and women. For example,
female refugees seeking to work are more likely to experience insecure and low paid work that puts them at increased risk of violence and abuse. Besides, whenever a girl becomes separated or unaccompanied – something easily imaginable in the context of forced displacement – she may feel that prostitution is her only means of survival or to provide for relatives. In Ecuador, there is evidence that refugee women and girls from Colombia face increased challenges in accessing safe employment based on the stereotype that Colombian women are willing to engage in sex work. Displaced girls and young women can also become more vulnerable to traffickers engaged in commercial sexual exploitation; today, 4.8 million people – nearly all girls and women – are victims of the latter, one million of them being children. But many cases of trafficking in persons do not necessarily involve the crossing of international borders; in fact, forty-two per cent of detected trafficking victims between the years of 2012 and 2014 were trafficked internally, i.e. within the same country.

**Spotlight: Human trafficking**

The crime of trafficking of persons includes three elements: 1) the act of recruiting, transporting, transferring, harbouring or receiving a person; 2) by means of coercion, deception or abuse of vulnerability; 3) for the purpose of exploitation. The number of countries with legislation to tackle trafficking crimes has increased in recent years, but there remains a large discrepancy between the number of detected victims and the number of convicted perpetrators, indicating that trafficking is a hidden and largely unpunished crime. Of the 17,750 trafficking victims who were identified across 85 countries in 2014, girls and women accounted for 70 per cent. Girls alone accounted for one-fifth of all detected trafficking victims worldwide. Trafficked girls and women are often exposed to grave human rights violations, including sexual exploitation and forced marriages. Children in general still make up more than a quarter – 28 per cent – of all trafficked victims; in Sub-Saharan Africa and Central America and the Caribbean, children account for a majority of all detected victims. Furthermore, children often comprise large shares of the detected victims in the least developed countries. Finally, there has also been a noticeable increase in the number of male trafficking victims in the last decade, who in 2014 made up 21 per cent.

Girls and women trafficked for, driven or coerced into commercial sexual exploitation, frequently experience violence and abuse, including assault and rape, unwanted pregnancy and long-term physical and psychological health problems, including sexually transmitted infections.

Plan International youth consultations in Uganda and Egypt support other evidence that in displacement situations, child labour is also widespread. In displacement contexts, when faced with economic hardship and the loss of livelihoods, families often increasingly rely on their children to contribute to household income. Moreover, if a child becomes unaccompanied or separated, they are more vulnerable to child labour as a means of survival. Examples of work in which children typically engage while displaced can include working in factories, agricultural labour, selling

**CASE STUDY: Plan International Togo’s Skills Programme for Girls and Young Women**

Plan International Togo has launched a project providing care and livelihoods alternatives for children and youth at risk, or victims, of human trafficking in the townships of Bago, Kaboli, Koussountou and Balanka. Through skills building (both livelihoods and life skills training), support to saving groups and access to finance, young women are able to start their own businesses and become less vulnerable to trafficking and abuse. The project has already helped over 4,000 young people in Togo – 80 percent being women and girls. One such girl is Juliette, who after leaving Togo ended up in Benin as a domestic servant and suffered regular physical and emotional violence. After managing to come back to her village in Togo she joined one of Plan International’s savings group and accessed training and funding. This enabled Juliette to start the first computer center in her area. To see more stories from this project, please visit Plan International Togo website.
on the street and domestic labour. Children in refugee communities are especially at risk of exploitation, trafficking and child labour, while the economic strain on refugee families may also lead to greater levels of child, early and forced marriage for girls – exposing them to the threats of domestic servitude.

**Spotlight: Child labour worldwide**

The term child labour is defined as work that deprives children of their childhood, potential and dignity and that is harmful to physical and mental development. It refers to work that is mentally, physically, socially or morally dangerous and detrimental to children; and which interferes with their attendance in school, forces them out of education prematurely, or requires them to attempt to combine school with excessively long and heavy work.

The number of children in child labour has declined drastically since 2000; 94 million fewer children were in child labour in 2016 compared to 2000. However, during the last four years progress has stagnated, which goes against the Sustainable Development Goals’ ambitions to eradicate child labour by 2025. Nowadays, 152 million children (64 million girls and 88 million boys) – accounting for almost one child in ten – are still in child labour. Almost half of these – 73 million – work in hazardous conditions which endanger their health, safety and development. A very large proportion of children in child labour are very young – 48 per cent are aged between 5 and 11, whilst 28 per cent are aged 12 to 14 and 24 per cent are aged 15 to 17. Boys appear to face a greater risk of child labour. However, it has long been known that girls may be more present in less visible and therefore under-reported forms of child labour such as domestic service. In fact, estimates suggest that more than two thirds of all child domestic workers are girls.

The above observations emphasise the importance of child protection, especially within humanitarian responses and during the recovery phase. To start with, establishing a legal identity is particularly important for children in displacement settings. It can prevent children from being treated as adults by immigration authorities and justice systems, and help with efforts to reunite children with family members if they become separated during displacements. Children who are registered with the appropriate authorities and possess identification documents are better protected from trafficking, child, early and forced marriage, and child labour. A legal identity is also a prerequisite to being able to access essential services such as health and education, and often central to many aspects of economic empowerment later on: acquiring a work permit or a job in the formal sector, conducting financial transactions, buying or proving a right to inherit property, obtaining a passport and traveling freely. Unfortunately, around 290 million children today (or 45 per cent of all children under the age of five) do not possess a birth certificate, yet the easiest way to establish one’s legal identity.

**Plan International’s position:**

- We urge governments and relevant stakeholders to endorse and abide by all fundamental human rights instruments relevant to migrants, especially migrant workers (e.g. ILO Conventions on Migration for Employment and on Decent Work for Domestic Workers) to protect young people on the move – many of whom pursue better economic opportunities. This is also critical to enhance cooperation across borders, improve labour migration management practices and address debt bondage, forced labour and human trafficking – especially of girls and women – wherever it takes place. From private households employing women migrant domestic workers to global supply chains rising from the work of vulnerable migrant youth at the bottom of the pyramid, states should hold employer households, corporations and any recruitment intermediaries accountable for the labour conditions of all workers in homes and value chains – even when the latter stretch to other countries.

- We further believe that people on the move – labour migrants, refugees and other displaced people, particularly youth – have the potential to play important roles in the development of host communities and societies if they enjoy adequate levels of protection as dictated by their status. Providing support for skill- and livelihood-
building as well as social protection and removing barriers to decent work can help young men and women on the move to become self-reliant where they live; prevent social exclusion and community tension; and offer economic and social benefits to both countries of destination (e.g. through filling in skills shortages) and origin (e.g. through the productive use of remittances sent back home by migrants).

- We recognise that the particular needs and vulnerabilities of girls and young women on the move must be urgently addressed in all interventions targeting children and young people. Adolescent girls in particular have needs that are distinct from those of children overall and also from adult women – however, these are too often neglected in displacement settings and emergency situations. Girls and young women who are denied economic empowerment opportunities through safe and legal livelihoods are more likely to become victims of modern slavery – trafficked and/or forced into hazardous, insecure and low paid labour that puts them at risk of violence and exploitation, and coerced into child, early and forced marriage and domestic servitude.

- We further acknowledge that forced displacement places children – especially those unaccompanied and separated from parents, families and/or primary caregivers – at heightened risk of violence, abuse, exploitation and neglect, as well as the worst forms of child labour. Plan International recognises the importance of national legislation standards that adhere to ILO Conventions on the Worst Forms of Child Labour and Minimum Age for work. We therefore call for the immediate protection and rehabilitation of child labourers to preserve their rights and development potential.

Plan International’s recommendations:

- Governments should take effective steps to evaluate and revise current labour laws, regulations and policies, particularly those linked to labour migration and domestic work, to ensure that workers on the move – including female domestic workers, economic migrants and other informal workers – are covered by relevant labour standards legislation and valued by both countries of origin and countries of destination (for example, through promoting healthy climates for the re-investment of migrants’ remittances in home countries). This includes budgeting for, enforcing and monitoring the implementation of the 1949 ILO Convention concerning Migration for Employment (No. 97), the 1975 ILO Convention concerning Migrations in Abusive Conditions and the Promotion of Equality of Opportunity and Treatment of Migrant Workers (No. 143), the 1990 International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, and the 2011 ILO Convention concerning Decent Work for Domestic Workers (No. 189). Similarly, in line with international commitments contained in the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees, governments must ensure that refugees are not barred, whether in theory or practice, from obtaining work permits and decent jobs as well as moving freely.

- Governments should ratify ILO’s 1930 Convention on Forced Labour (No. 29) and endorse the 2000 UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, as well as UN Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air. Accordingly, governments should urgently adopt legislation criminalising trafficking in persons and advocate for the strengthening of international and regional mechanisms that protect children and young people, in particular girls and women, from trafficking and its consequences – i.e. violence, sexual exploitation and labour abuses. Specifically, governments must prioritise investing in enhanced cross-border cooperation to promote rights-based, safe migration and to tackle human trafficking offences.

- In line with their commitments under Agenda 2030 and the relevant ILO
Conventions (No 138 on Minimum Age and No 182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labour), governments must take bold, coordinated action to eliminate child labour through closing national legal gaps and engaging in effective policy dialogue; investing in quality, formal and non-formal education and training, child labour monitoring systems and referral mechanisms; addressing parents’ reliance on their children’s work through investment in social security provisions and decent work; and ensuring that children who do not have parents or guardians or who are living on the street are cared for. CSOs and service providers should support such efforts by strengthening community mechanisms and capacity for child protection (including trafficking and child/forced labour early detection tools) and raising awareness of parents on the importance of long term youth economic empowerment.

Governments should also take all necessary measures to reform, harmonise, implement, and enforce legislation and policies that ensure all children are registered at birth, have adequate official birth certificates and are able to obtain official identification without restrictions, limitations or barriers – including in forced displacement and emergency contexts.

The private sector should invest in targeted measures to improve transparency and accountability along supply chains through enhanced product traceability; review all policies and practices that contradict and violate decent work principles; and adopt proactive initiatives to prevent child labour and better protect workers – especially youth and women – from exploitation, harassment, abuse and gender-based violence in value chains. This includes requesting from suppliers strict compliance with international labour standards. This should further mean creating safe spaces where workplace grievances can be expressed, and clear anonymous channels for reporting and addressing harassments and injustices without fear of repercussion. Finally, such actions should be reflected in commitments taken and implemented at the highest executive and corporate governance level.

VOICE, PARTICIPATION AND REPRESENTATION IN THE WORLD OF WORK

Young people, girls and women are still held back by discriminatory norms, practices and laws in the world of work and wider society. Women for example only represent a fraction of business leaders, legislators and politicians worldwide. Yet female economic empowerment is intrinsically linked to their equal, meaningful engagement in social, political and economic life including at leadership level. Equipping young people early in life, particularly girls and young women, with the knowledge, confidence and skills to claim their rights, especially to participation and representation, and act on their leadership potential is therefore crucial to achieve gender equality and empowerment. Enabling young women to influence decision-making in the world of work and beyond, particularly enabling them to progress into senior levels, will ultimately help ensure that their broad interests are preserved and advanced.

Progress on women’s participation in decision-making is included as part of Agenda 2030, which calls for ‘full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic and public life’. The rights to freedom of association and collective bargaining are also fundamental labour and human rights, enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights as well as ILO conventions. These rights apply to all workers, youth and women alike, including those in the informal economy.

Employment, voice and agency: a mutually supportive relationship in female economic empowerment (FEE)

For girls and women especially, expanding available economic opportunities has the potential to promote and increase agency, defined as ‘the ability to make one’s own
choices and act upon them还 which may be constrained by formal and informal institutions, market failures and practices in the household还 Research on norms and agency that drew on data from 20 countries across all regions concluded that "women’s ability to work for pay, which most women in the study aspired to, may be one of the most visible and game-changing events in the life of modern households and all communities还 Research in Bangladesh, Egypt, and Ghana concluded that "formal and semi-formal employment is found to be most likely to contribute to women’s ability to decide on the use of their income, to make decisions about their own health, to gain respect within the community, to participate in politics, and to express support for a more equitable distribution of unpaid workloads and – in cultures characterized by son preference – less discriminatory attitudes toward their daughters还 The type of employment women engage in therefore matters for empowerment, as does their working conditions还 Employment strategies that pay attention to gender equality issues – diagnosing the main constraints that young women face in getting jobs and identifying and addressing gender-based disparities faced as young adults in accessing skills, training, and credit – provide important entry points for, and have knock-on effects on, increasing female agency还 Enhanced agency and strengthened voice both at the individual and collective level in turn contribute to addressing the wider economic disadvantages faced by girls and women and challenging discrimination, stereotypes, stigma and violence that violate their human and labour rights。
45 account for 56.9 per cent. Additional factors, such as ethnicity, migrant status, disability or sexual orientation, can contribute further to the likelihood of whether a young woman has the opportunity to engage in political fora or take up office, severely curtailing her ability to have an impact on decisions taken in the world of work and society that may affect girls and women.

In general, there is an obvious risk that female interests are not being heard or addressed when women – and younger women in particular – are not represented in political and legislative decision-making. There is also evidence to suggest that where women are represented, this is reflected in decision making. For instance, a study of 265 village councils in India, where a third of the positions of council head had been reserved for women since 1993, revealed that women in positions of authority invest more in infrastructure that is directly relevant to their needs. Another cross-country study analysing government spending over more than 35 years found that countries with quotas for the number of female legislators spent more money on social services and welfare (key drivers of female economic empowerment as explained in chapter 5) than countries that did not have such quotas. Research on local governance bodies has also shown that women’s influence in public administration increases the likelihood that public resources are allocated to human development priorities, including child health, nutrition and access to employment.

Interestingly, the link between women’s representation in the highest political office and their representation in senior management in the private sector seems weak. For instance, despite a number of Latin American countries boasting female presidents, the region continues to have low proportion of women in management: only 18 per cent of senior roles are held by women and more than half – 52 per cent – of businesses have no women in senior management. Furthermore, in Germany just 15 per cent of senior roles were held by women and 60 per cent of businesses had no women in senior management in 2016, despite the fact that they have a female chancellor and the introduction of quotas the same year, which require a third of non-executive board roles to be held by women.

Labour representation: unionising and organising for decent work among women workers

Enabling all workers, including those operating in the informal economy, to organise is crucial to ensure the protection of other labour rights. It allows workers to use collective power to

CASE STUDY: Plan International India’s ‘Project Samanta’ – Promoting Gender Wage Parity and Non-Discrimination through Women Workers Organisations

Project Samanta, supported by the European Union, was implemented by Plan International India and PANI from 2015 to 2017 in the district of Ambedkar Nagar of the state of Uttar Pradesh, India. The objectives of the project were to: organise women workers to secure their rights to equal wages and non-discrimination at the workplace; establish community-based vigilance systems that monitor and report on gender wage gaps and discrimination in work environments; sensitize employers and compel them to fulfil their legal obligations with respect to gender equality at work; and create a sustainable model of government-citizens partnership in the implementation of equal remuneration and gender equality laws. By the time of its completion in August 2017, Plan International India and PANI had worked with a target group of about 10,000 women to help ensure they were aware of their rights to equal pay and non-discrimination at the workplace. A women’s organization gathering nearly all participants was created that provided female workers with a platform to raise issues related to gender wage parity and enhanced their understanding of and literacy in human, gender and labour rights – including wage parity. Women participants were also shown how to document information related to wage parity and analyze issues of wage disparities at work. In the end, over 50% of the project target group reported changes in the workplace - i.e. full adherence to gender wage parity, provisions for drinking water, eight hour working days, daily hour breaks, shaded facilities for resting and conflict resolution mechanisms with employers to seek redress in cases of gender-based discrimination. Other positive outcomes included annual income increases from INR 5400 [78 USD] to INR 19,500 [283 USD] and support to the enrolment of over 20,000 children (roughly 50% of girls and 50% of boys) of women workers in age-appropriate schooling and learning institutions.
CASE STUDY: Plan International India's Youth Advisory Panel

In June 2015, Plan International India established a National Youth Advisory Panel (NYAP) through a democratic process leading young people to elect national representatives for each state. A total of 24 Youth Advisory Panel representatives - 12 girls and 12 boys - were elected from nine states, with specific objectives to: empower youth members within Plan International India’s governance mechanisms and unlock their meaningful engagement in Plan programmes, as well as leadership skills; and to offer a democratic space available for collective action and an enabling environment for young men and women to raise concerns and develop influencing initiatives (e.g. through national conferences, dialogues and events on key youth issues). Youth engagement has been welcomed by community-based organisations and local governance structures, where YAP youth actively took part in decision-making processes. Community leaders and members testified of young men’s and women’s highly beneficial contributions towards community development, and how it paved the way for greater sustainability.

achieve improvements in a range of areas, such as health and safety at the workplace, the right to non-discrimination and freedom from forced and child labour (discussed in chapter 6). Yet, trade unions often operate within a hostile legal and political environment. 2017 figures from the International Trade Union Confederation shows that in 114 out of 139 countries, industrial relations have been restricted or rendered meaningless – a significant increase from 2016 when the figure was 89 out of 141 examined countries. A similar number of countries deny some or all workers their right to strike. Physical attacks on union members are also on the rise and murders of unionists occurred in eleven countries in 2016.

The ability to organise and use collective bargaining power is of particularly great importance for women since they are over-represented in informal and vulnerable employment, as chapter 3 showed. While the presence of unions has generally been weaker in sectors where women are most present and trade union membership globally has been on the decline, women’s share of membership is actually rising nowadays. In 2012, women made up a majority of trade union members in a third of 39 countries with relevant data. In sixteen countries, women made up more than 40 per cent of total union membership.

Women’s collective and representative organisations, especially those representing women at the base of the pyramid, play a pivotal role in advancing women’s economic opportunities and in pushing for women’s legal rights to work as well as rights at work – for example in relation to prohibiting gender discrimination or promoting equality in hiring and promotion. Across OECD countries, research shows that the gender pay gap is smallest in the group of countries with high collective bargaining and widest in countries with weak collective bargaining. For instance, in the UK, the wages of female workers who are union members are on average 30 per cent higher than those of non-union women. Lastly, women’s movements have also been influential in other areas of public policy intimately linked to female economic empowerment, such as the provision of childcare (otherwise emphasised in chapters 3, 5 and 8).

Plan International’s position:

- Plan International emphasises that the right to organise and engage in labour unions and other forms of associations must be respected to enable workers everywhere to stand up for and advance all other rights, in line with ILO’s Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87), and Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98). This is especially important for young people, particularly women, who are known to be often working in non-standard, less protected forms of employment where traditional representation mechanisms are lacking. It is fundamental that youth and women representative organisations in the world of work are also given credible opportunities to engage closely with governments and employer organisations in labour-related decision-making processes.
Plan International further stresses that informal jobs should be no excuse for a ban on worker organisations and collective bargaining power. Again, this is all the more vital for women and youth considering their overrepresentation in informal work settings such as home-based work, domestic work and informal apprenticeships where their ability to negotiate job assignments, occupational health and safety standards and appropriate work support might be undermined, resulting in poor and risky labour conditions. In this respect, gender-based violence as a means to prevent women organising to resist abusive and exploitative situations cannot be tolerated and must be immediately addressed.

It is vital to strengthen the agency, autonomy and voice of children and young people – particularly of girls and young women – from an early age onwards. With increased self-confidence and leadership skills, children hold the potential to drive change within their communities. Knowing how to challenge the status quo and detrimental power dynamics becomes critical for young people as they engage with the world of work, negotiating their working terms and confronting discrimination in the workplace. We strongly believe that greater agency among youth, especially young women, will help them realise their full potential and reach decision-making levels both in business and politics – ultimately contributing to more gender equal societies. To achieve that, we call on businesses to create adequate pathways for young women to pursue and access positions of economic power and increase economic agency, and to work to eliminate biases against women in leadership positions.

Plan International's recommendations:

- Governments should take a lifecycle approach to building and enabling young people’s voice, agency and gender-transformative leadership. Governments and education and training stakeholders should proactively support student governments and embed active learning methodologies and life skills such as gender equality, critical thinking and consciousness, problem solving and assertiveness in education curricula from an early age onwards, so that girls and boys contribute to transforming inequitable power relations at work and in society.

- Going further, governments and civil society should embrace and support young people’s mobilisation and organisation in advocacy and representation groups that speak for their economic interests, with a focus on girls’ and women’s participation in key, leading and decision-making roles within such groups. Governments and employer organisations should especially ensure a rights-based, enabling environment for all workers who want to organise, particularly to protect collective action by young people demanding more equitable opportunities and services for their economic advancement. Governments that have not yet done so must ratify and implement ILO’s Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87), Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98) as well as Conventions No. 177 (1996) and No. 189 (2011) on home and domestic workers.

- Governments and employers should take all necessary measures including legal reforms to recognise and protect the rights of informal workers including their rights to representation, in line with ILO Recommendation No 204. In this respect, governments and donors should invest in researching and identifying effective forms of informal workers, membership-based organisations and networks in order to help them survive and thrive and to replicate them. This is key to fulfil the ambitions of Agenda 2030 with respect
to decent work for all, including young men and women operating in the informal sector.

- Governments and employers should facilitate and promote quality, inclusive and effective participation of youth, women and their representative organisations (e.g. youth- and women-led labour unions and informal worker associations) in local, national, regional and global rule-setting bodies and policy-making processes related to the world of work.

- The private sector should commit to creating spaces for young women to enhance their economic status, position and power through backing mentorship programmes and networks that promote links between women starting their career and women with more experience – especially successful female role models in unconventional businesses and senior positions. In this way, young women can acquire effective visibility and insights into career management and how to progress towards decision-making responsibilities. At the same time, companies should evaluate their business practices and culture to reduce prejudices in recruitment processes in order to actively pursue more diversity in leadership roles.

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**MACROECONOMIC TOOLS AND SOCIAL POLICIES BEHIND DECENT WORK**

Macroeconomic strategies represent the broad framework which governs fiscal and monetary policy, including how governments make spending and taxation decisions. Too often, such policies unfortunately reinforce inequality affecting youth, girls and women by not offering enough fiscal space for investments in physical infrastructures and social services. Progressive macroeconomic policies, on the other hand, contribute to the opposite by ensuring the availability of resources that support the realisation of economic rights and opportunities, reducing inequality – such as through social protection.

The global economic crisis in 2008 and the austerity policies that followed in many countries have curtailed or even reversed progress towards the realisation of economic and social rights, with particularly devastating effects for female economic empowerment. Reductions in public spending – including in the areas of healthcare, education and social services – are especially damaging for women, who are more likely to work in the public sector, to rely on government services and to have to fill the gaps in family and other care services when States withdraw support for them (as explained in chapter 5). The consequences of the crisis and austerity policies were felt more acutely in developed countries, but also put a brake on employment creation and public investment in infrastructure and services in developing countries.

The ILO suggests that it is now time for reforms which have the potential to restore some of the lost progressivity to tax systems (i.e. ensuring that tax rates increase as the taxable amounts increase), in order to correct profound and amplified inequalities on labour markets. In particular, there is an urgent need to address corporate and individual tax avoidance through tax and transfers policies that can mitigate (gendered) income disparities, and to raise additional revenues for public expenditure on essential social protection mechanisms and infrastructure fostering equity, e.g. youth unemployment benefits. Taxation legislation and social policies based on evidence and participative design can effectively compensate for the most obvious injustices in society if they have at heart the interests of most marginalised groups, e.g. children, young people, women, the elderly, people with disabilities – providing them with adequate benefits and opportunities to lift themselves out of poverty.

How taxation and social protection specifically work in favour of gender equality and youth empowerment is explained below in this chapter; they also provide concrete examples of how – in line with Agenda 2030 – governments can ultimately keep up with their commitment to reducing social injustice via the right mix of macroeconomic and sector-based instruments.
Taxation and gender equality in the world of work

How taxes are raised in fiscal policy has implications both for income equality overall and gender equality specifically. Indirect forms of taxation, such as value-added (VAT) or goods and services taxes (GST), may be simple for governments to administer, but tend to impact negatively on lower-income individuals and families who spend a greater proportion of their income on VAT-taxed consumption items like clothing, items for children and some foods.\(^{380}\) Given that women are disproportionately represented in lower income brackets and tend to be responsible for family budgets, indirect taxes can be regarded as regressive in terms of gender equality and female empowerment.\(^{381}\) Direct forms of tax, including income tax and property tax, can also carry gender biases, but they have the potential to be more progressive depending on how they are calculated and the legal context.\(^{382}\)

Differences in personal income tax regulations can also have an impact on whether young women enter the formal labour market. Unsurprisingly, this is particularly true if it means that women pay disproportionately higher taxes. In 16 of 173 economies examined by the World Bank, tax provisions directly favour men.\(^{383}\) These economies either grant men or male heads of household an explicit tax deduction or credit, or an implicit tax deduction or credit. In some of these countries, women may be able to claim these benefits if particular circumstances apply, for example if they are divorced or widowed.\(^{384}\) Furthermore, some tax systems punish ‘secondary earners’ who are typically women.

Social protection and economic empowerment

Although there is no commonly-agreed definition of what social protection may entail among international development stakeholders\(^{385}\), the World Bank has found that there is “near universal agreement” that social insurance and safety net operations are at the core of social protection interventions – meaning pensions, unemployment benefits, health insurance, disability insurance, public works and cash transfers. Other interventions that can potentially fall under the umbrella of social protection are occupational safety and health measures, some active labour market policies (e.g. employment services centres), support for entrepreneurs and microfinance,

**CASE STUDY: Plan International UK’s Banking on Change Programme – Can Youth Savings Groups Provide a Subs****

Banking on Change, implemented by Plan International UK in partnership with CARE International UK and Barclays, was one of the largest programmes working with savings groups during 2009-2015. Phase 2 (June 2013-December 2015) – specifically focused on Youth Savings Groups (YSGs) in Egypt, Ghana, India, Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia – established 11,725 YSGs with over 245,000 members, of whom 132,000 were under 25 and two-thirds were women. As the project went on, Banking on Change developed strong evidence that YSG membership enhanced young people’s welfare and resilience to unexpected shocks – a key aspect of mainstream social protection schemes. Research conducted alongside project activities showed that YSG members regularly used funds they had saved and borrowed to invest in their education, healthcare and meeting daily household needs, and sometimes to respond to emergencies. Specifically, 60 per cent of the young people interviewed by external evaluators said their income had increased and over half said their access to healthcare and education as well as the quality of their meals had improved since the programme baseline study. Around two-thirds of those who said these indicators had ‘significantly’ improved attributed it to their YSG membership. Banking on Change also has some evidence of YSGs using the traditional VSLA social fund to further the social impact of the programme, with an average social fund balance of 37 USD per YSG. For instance, some YSGs renamed their social fund an ‘education fund’ and used it for school fees, while IMAs (Intermediary Associations or clusters of savings groups) in Tanzania used their social fund for maternal health programmes, to provide care for orphans and vulnerable children, and to help people access national social security funds (healthcare and pensions) [Information directly extracted from the Banking on Change’s Youth Savings Group Model].
micro-insurance and natural disaster support funds.386

Social protection interventions – both universal and effectively targeted – can have holistic benefits for the most vulnerable, including girls, women and young people. While for example the importance of paid parental leave for working mothers was already highlighted in earlier chapters, targeted measures such as school or training voucher mechanisms can also have a tangible benefit on girls’ and boys’ school attendance, productive participation in the economy and future earning capacity – all key elements of economic advancement. Selected forms of social protection interventions and their impact on economic empowerment are further described below.

Cash transfers

Cash transfer programmes particularly aimed at young people (for example, in which payments are handed over to young people to cover for essential food and medical items, as remuneration for a work done, or to support their enrolment in vocational institutions) have the potential to greatly contribute to youth and female economic empowerment – particularly when transfers link to services such education and training, business advisory services, and credit.387 A 2016 meta-analysis of 201 separate studies by the Overseas Development Institute found that cash transfers have a positive impact on women’s savings and livestock ownership; lead to increased school attendance, improved education outcomes and cognitive development among girls and young women; and contribute to a reduction in girls’ domestic work and child labour.

However, the same study also found that in some cases, cash transfers were accompanied by increased, non physical abuses towards women, such as emotional abuse or controlling behaviours. Studies also identified an increase in time spent on domestic work by older women linked to cash transfers, because mothers may be substituting for their daughters’ reduced work efforts when the latter start attending school more regularly. The authors therefore recommended that “when a transfer is specifically targeted at women, the design, implementation and M&E stages should include considerations of context-specific gender relations and the underlying drivers of gender-based inequalities.”388

Micro-insurance mechanisms

Micro-insurance refers to the pooling of resources among marginalised people that are excluded from formal social protection and insurance mechanisms – and who usually belong to the same community – to share risks.389 The schemes are generally operated by civil society and NGOs, often in conjunction with commercial insurers.390

Interviews from Plan International’s Banking on Change programme showed that a 21-year-old woman received [around 23 USD] from the [savings group] social fund when her daughter fell sick. (Flynn and Sunberg, 2015)
A girl’s mother – Brazil

One well-known example of a micro-insurance mechanism is run by the Self-Employed Women’s Association in India, which insures over 32,000 women working in informal economies.391 The FAO has found that “these schemes enable women’s economic advancement through financial inclusion and access to resources that prevent them from losing their asset base and livelihoods, or from engaging in riskier income-generating activities as a result of shock.”392 The efficacy of micro-insurance is limited, however, when widespread community shocks occur; for this reason, it is best viewed as supplementary to other social protection schemes such as cash transfers and public works.

Public works programmes

In several developing and emerging economies, public works programmes can provide a temporary safety net role for low-income groups including young people and vulnerable women. An example of such a programme is India’s Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (MGNREGS), which guarantees each rural household up to 100 days of public works employment a year paid at the minimum wage. However, public work programmes should be carefully designed to ensure that employment and income opportunities reach the poorest and most vulnerable, such as women and young people.393 For example, a 2016 FAO study found that the impact of public works programmes on women’s economic advancement “depends on whether a programme’s design reduces existing gender
inequalities in employment opportunities [and] tailors public works to women’s knowledge and capacities”. Furthermore, given the imperative to boost sustainable job creation, these short-term programmes could only be initial steps in longer-term employment generation strategies that encompass quality school education and TVET, especially for NEET youth.934

Plan International’s position:

- Plan International recognises that policies which allow corporations and individuals to escape their fair share of taxes and/or pay relatively smaller tax shares compared with individuals and families have negative effects for overall income equality, with particularly devastating effects for the poorest in society, such as women-headed households. It is important that private sector actors, through social dialogue with government and worker representatives, support cohesive social protection schemes that help boost economic development and worker productivity especially among young people.

- Plan International also emphasises that macroeconomic tools – such as tax regulations – sectoral policies and universal social protection schemes can have significant, gender- and youth-responsive poverty reduction effects by tackling girls’ and young women’s vulnerabilities throughout the lifecycle (e.g. from child benefits to maternity and healthcare protection, to old age pensions). To achieve this goal, it is critical that relevant spending, taxation, monetary and sectoral plans are reviewed from a gender-transformative perspective to inform the development of improved strategies and correct existing gaps. Youth-led organisations, female worker associations and other relevant CSOs representative of young people and women should be meaningfully engaged in that process, to ensure their interests are not sidelined but best reflected in budgetary choices and sectoral policies affecting social investments.

- Plan International further stresses that informal economy workers and young people living through, or displaced by, emergencies should not be left behind, but should be equally supported to enjoy benefits and protection through micro-level interventions, until conditions are created for them to be connected with wider government social protection schemes or linked to formal financial institutions and service providers.

Plan International’s recommendations:

- Governments should take immediate action to facilitate late birth registration services and/or the issuance of national ID cards for vulnerable children and young people to enable them to take advantage of social protection provisions throughout the lifecycle, wherever they end, live or migrate – especially in forced displacement and emergency settings.

- Governments should evaluate their macroeconomic and sectoral strategies with a gender-transformative lens in order to better inform the development of holistic social protection frameworks and close existing gaps – including through legislative reforms, gender-transformative budgeting and planning, and policy development. Assessments of the gendered impact of selected macroeconomic tools and economic policies on households should be evidence-based, and supported by improved, sex-disaggregated data in national and local statistics and surveys that capture the distribution of unpaid work.

- Governments should involve youth-led organisations, female worker associations and other relevant CSOs representative of young people and women in understanding existing gaps in social protection coverage and benefits adequacy, identifying fiscal space, fostering policy dialogue and delivering social services in order to ensure fair representation and inclusion in policy making.
Governments and CSOs in remote and rural areas should encourage the development of proven, innovative micro-level interventions such as alternative social insurance mechanisms to support women and young people working in the informal economy to cope with economic shocks – using YSGs and VSLA social funds to provide safety nets for emergencies across the lifecycle. Likewise, governments and CSOs should prioritise micro-level social protection interventions such as cash for training programmes which are particularly relevant to youth economic empowerment in fragile or disaster-stricken contexts.

Government must ensure, in full collaboration with the private sector that all corporations pay their fair share of taxes in each country where they operate through support for public, country-by-country reporting and through democratising decision-making on fiscal policy and global tax reforms. Governments should further assess the impacts on gender equality and human and labour rights (especially youth rights at work), as well on as the environment, of any tax incentives offered to corporations. We also urge governments and relevant international stakeholders to collaborate across borders to end tax evasion.
Agenda 2030

In 2015, the United Nations adopted the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (often referred to as Agenda 2030 and the Sustainable Development Goals) – a robust and ambitious development agenda for the coming 15 years. The commitments contained in Agenda 2030 represent commitments from 193 governments to a broad set of targets - far more comprehensive than that of the Millennium Development Goals.

Gender equality is embedded in the agenda as a whole and also addressed in a stand-alone goal. It contains commitments to ensure women’s full participation and equal opportunities for leadership in decision-making at all levels of political, economic and public life; to give women equal rights to economic resources and to own land and property; and to achieve productive employment and decent work for all women and men – specifically recognising young people.

Relevant provisions:

**Goal 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere**

**Target 1.2:** By 2030, reduce at least by half the proportion of men, women and children of all ages living in poverty in all its dimensions according to national definitions

**Target 1.3:** Implement nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all, including floors, and by 2030 achieve substantial coverage of the poor and the vulnerable

**Target 1.4:** By 2030, ensure that all men and women, in particular the poor and the vulnerable, have equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to basic services, ownership and control over land and other forms of property, inheritance, natural resources, appropriate new technology and financial services, including microfinance

**Target 1.5:** By 2030, build the resilience of the poor and those in vulnerable situations and reduce their exposure and vulnerability to climate-related extreme events and other economic, social and environmental shocks and disasters.

**Goal 4: Ensure inclusive and quality education for all and promote lifelong learning**

**Target 4.3:** By 2030 ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable and quality technical, vocational and tertiary education, including university

**Target 4.4:** By 2030, substantially increase the number of youth and adults who have relevant skills including technical and vocational skills for employment, decent jobs and entrepreneurship

**Target 4.5:** By 2030, eliminate gender disparities in education and ensure equal access to all levels of education and vocational training for the vulnerable, including persons with disabilities, indigenous peoples and children in vulnerable situations

**Target 4.6:** By 2030, ensure that all youth and a substantial proportion of adults, both men and women, achieve literacy and numeracy

**Goal 5:**

**Target 5.1:** End all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere

**Target 5.4:** Recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate

**Target 5.5:** Ensure women’s full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic and public life

**Target 5.a:** Undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial
services, inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws.

**Target 5.b:** Enhance the use of enabling technology, in particular information and communications technology, to promote the empowerment of women.

**Target 5.c:** Adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls at all levels.

**Goal 8:**

**Target 8.3:** Promote development-oriented policies that support productive activities, decent job creation, entrepreneurship, creativity and innovation, and encourage the formalization and growth of micro-, small- and medium-sized enterprises, including through access to financial services.

**Target 8.5:** By 2030, achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, including young people and persons with disabilities, and equal pay for work of equal value.

**Target 8.6:** By 2030, substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training.

**Target 8.7:** Take immediate and effective measures to eradicate forced labour, end modern slavery and human trafficking and secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour, including recruitment and use of child soldiers, and by 2025 end child labour in all its forms.

**Target 8.10:** Strengthen the capacity of domestic financial institutions to encourage and expand access to banking, insurance and financial services for all.

**UN Conventions**

**Universal Declaration of Human Rights 1948 (UDHR)**

The right to decent work has long been recognised in human rights mechanisms and is enshrined in Article 23 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights which stipulates that everyone has the right to freely choose their employment; to just and favourable conditions at work; to equal pay for equal work; to just and favourable remuneration; and to form and join trade unions.

**Article 23:**

1) Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment.

2) Everyone, without any discrimination, has the right to equal pay for equal work.

3) Everyone who works has the right to just and favourable remuneration ensuring for himself and his family an existence worthy of human dignity, and supplemented, if necessary, by other means of social protection.

4) Everyone has the right to form and to join trade unions for the protection of his interests.

**The Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)**

The Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) is signed and ratified by every State Party to the UN except the United States of America. This makes it a powerful international legal tool for protecting children's rights.

Of particular importance is Article 29, which recognises the right to education for all children and outlines that States Parties have a responsibility to ensure compulsory, free primary education, available, accessible general and vocational secondary education, as well as accessible higher education; Article 31, recognising the right to rest and leisure; Article 32, which provides protection from exploitation and child labour; Article 34, which provides protection from sexual exploitation, including prostitution and pornography; and Article 35, which prohibits all forms of sale or trafficking of children.

**Article 28**

1. States Parties recognize the right of the child to education, and with a view to achieving this right progressively and on the basis of equal opportunity, they shall, in particular:

   (a) Make primary education compulsory and available free to all;
(b) Encourage the development of different forms of secondary education, including general and vocational education, make them available and accessible to every child, and take appropriate measures such as the introduction of free education and offering financial assistance in case of need;

(c) Make higher education accessible to all on the basis of capacity by every appropriate means;

(d) Make educational and vocational information and guidance available and accessible to all children;

(e) Take measures to encourage regular attendance at schools and the reduction of drop-out rates.

2. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to ensure that school discipline is administered in a manner consistent with the child's human dignity and in conformity with the present Convention.

3. States Parties shall promote and encourage international cooperation in matters relating to education, in particular with a view to contributing to the elimination of ignorance and illiteracy throughout the world and facilitating access to scientific and technical knowledge and modern teaching methods. In this regard, particular account shall be taken of the needs of developing countries.

**Article 31**

1. States Parties recognize the right of the child to rest and leisure, to engage in play and recreational activities appropriate to the age of the child and to participate freely in cultural life and the arts.

2. States Parties shall respect and promote the right of the child to participate fully in cultural and artistic life and shall encourage the provision of appropriate and equal opportunities for cultural, artistic, recreational and leisure activity.

**Article 32**

1. States Parties recognize the right of the child to be protected from economic exploitation and from performing any work that is likely to be hazardous or to interfere with the child's education, or to be harmful to the child's health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development.

2. States Parties shall take legislative, administrative, social and educational measures to ensure the implementation of the present article. To this end, and having regard to the relevant provisions of other international instruments, States Parties shall in particular:

   (a) Provide for a minimum age or minimum ages for admission to employment;

   (b) Provide for appropriate regulation of the hours and conditions of employment;

   (c) Provide for appropriate penalties or other sanctions to ensure the effective enforcement of the present article.

**Article 34**

States Parties undertake to protect the child from all forms of sexual exploitation and sexual abuse. For these purposes, States Parties shall in particular take all appropriate national, bilateral and multilateral measures to prevent:

   (a) The inducement or coercion of a child to engage in any unlawful sexual activity;

   (b) The exploitative use of children in prostitution or other unlawful sexual practices;

   (c) The exploitative use of children in pornographic performances and materials.

**Article 35**

States Parties shall take all appropriate national, bilateral and multilateral measures to prevent the abduction of, the sale of or traffic in children for any purpose or in any form.


CEDAW has been ratified by 189 countries around the world. It has been described as a bill of rights for women. It commits governments to ensuring that women have equal rights and opportunities to men in a range of fields.

Of particular importance are Article 10, affording women equal right to education, training, literacy programmes and scholarships; Article 11, affording women the right to decent work and non-discrimination, equal pay, social security benefits and maternity leave; and
Article 13, guaranteeing women equal access to loans, mortgages and credit.

**Article 10**
States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in order to ensure to them equal rights with men in the field of education and in particular to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women:

(a) The same conditions for career and vocational guidance, for access to studies and for the achievement of diplomas in educational establishments of all categories in rural as well as in urban areas; this equality shall be ensured in pre-school, general, technical, professional and higher technical education, as well as in all types of vocational training;

(b) Access to the same curricula, the same examinations, teaching staff with qualifications of the same standard and school premises and equipment of the same quality;

(c) The elimination of any stereotyped concept of the roles of men and women at all levels and in all forms of education by encouraging coeducation and other types of education which will help to achieve this aim and, in particular, by the revision of textbooks and school programmes and the adaptation of teaching methods;

(d) The same opportunities to benefit from scholarships and other study grants;

(e) The same opportunities for access to programmes of continuing education, including adult and functional literacy programmes, particularly those aimed at reducing, at the earliest possible time, any gap in education existing between men and women;

(f) The reduction of female student drop-out rates and the organization of programmes for girls and women who have left school prematurely;

(g) The same opportunities to participate actively in sports and physical education;

(h) Access to specific educational information to help to ensure the health and well-being of families, including information and advice on family planning.

**Article 11**
1. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the field of employment in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, the same rights, in particular:

(a) The right to work as an inalienable right of all human beings;

(b) The right to the same employment opportunities, including the application of the same criteria for selection in matters of employment;

(c) The right to free choice of profession and employment, the right to promotion, job security and all benefits and conditions of service and the right to receive vocational training and retraining, including apprenticeships, advanced vocational training and recurrent training;

(d) The right to equal remuneration, including benefits, and to equal treatment in respect of work of equal value, as well as equality of treatment in the evaluation of the quality of work;

(e) The right to social security, particularly in cases of retirement, unemployment, sickness, invalidity and old age and other incapacity to work, as well as the right to paid leave;

(f) The right to protection of health and to safety in working conditions, including the safeguarding of the function of reproduction.

2. In order to prevent discrimination against women on the grounds of marriage or maternity and to ensure their effective right to work, States Parties shall take appropriate measures:

(a) To prohibit, subject to the imposition of sanctions, dismissal on the grounds of pregnancy or of maternity leave and
discrimination in dismissals on the basis of marital status;

(b) To introduce maternity leave with pay or with comparable social benefits without loss of former employment, seniority or social allowances;

(c) To encourage the provision of the necessary supporting social services to enable parents to combine family obligations with work responsibilities and participation in public life, in particular through promoting the establishment and development of a network of child-care facilities;

(d) To provide special protection to women during pregnancy in types of work proved to be harmful to them.

3. Protective legislation relating to matters covered in this article shall be reviewed periodically in the light of scientific and technological knowledge and shall be revised, repealed or extended as necessary.

Article 13
States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in other areas of economic and social life in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, the same rights, in particular:

(a) The right to family benefits;

(b) The right to bank loans, mortgages and other forms of financial credit;

(c) The right to participate in recreational activities, sports and all aspects of cultural life.

Article 14
1. States Parties shall take into account the particular problems faced by rural women and the significant roles which rural women play in the economic survival of their families, including their work in the non-monetized sectors of the economy, and shall take all appropriate measures to ensure the application of the provisions of the present Convention to women in rural areas.

2. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in rural areas in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, that they participate in and benefit from rural development and, in particular, shall ensure to such women the right:

(a) To participate in the elaboration and implementation of development planning at all levels;

(b) To have access to adequate health care facilities, including information, counselling and services in family planning;

(c) To benefit directly from social security programmes;

(d) To obtain all types of training and education, formal and non-formal, including that relating to functional literacy, as well as, inter alia, the benefit of all community and extension services, in order to increase their technical proficiency;

(e) To organize self-help groups and co-operatives in order to obtain equal access to economic opportunities through employment or self employment;

(f) To participate in all community activities;

(g) To have access to agricultural credit and loans, marketing facilities, appropriate technology and equal treatment in land and agrarian reform as well as in land resettlement schemes;

(h) To enjoy adequate living conditions, particularly in relation to housing, sanitation, electricity and water supply, transport and communications.

Article 15
1. States Parties shall accord to women equality with men before the law.

2. States Parties shall accord to women, in civil matters, a legal capacity identical to that of men and the same opportunities to exercise that capacity. In particular, they shall give women equal rights to conclude contracts and to administer property and shall treat them equally in all stages of procedure in courts and tribunals.
3. States Parties agree that all contracts and all other private instruments of any kind with a legal effect which is directed at restricting the legal capacity of women shall be deemed null and void.

4. States Parties shall accord to men and women the same rights with regard to the law relating to the movement of persons and the freedom to choose their residence and domicile.

**International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR):**

The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) is an essential instrument for furthering economic and social rights – particularly for women. The ICESCR specifically addresses the rights to work and to just and favourable conditions of work (articles 6 and 7) and the right to social security and an adequate standard of living (articles 9 and 11). Several articles contain specific references to women’s rights, including to equal pay (article 7) and paid maternity leave (article 10).

**Article 6**

1. The States Parties to the present Covenant recognize the right to work, which includes the right of everyone to the opportunity to gain his living by work which he freely chooses or accepts, and will take appropriate steps to safeguard this right.

2. The steps to be taken by a State Party to the present Covenant to achieve the full realization of this right shall include technical and vocational guidance and training programmes, policies and techniques to achieve steady economic, social and cultural development and full and productive employment under conditions safeguarding fundamental political and economic freedoms to the individual.

**Article 7**

The States Parties to the present Covenant recognize the right of everyone to the enjoyment of just and favourable conditions of work which ensure, in particular:

(a) Remuneration which provides all workers, as a minimum, with:

(i) Fair wages and equal remuneration for work of equal value without distinction of any kind, in particular women being guaranteed conditions of work not inferior to those enjoyed by men, with equal pay for equal work;

(ii) A decent living for themselves and their families in accordance with the provisions of the present Covenant;

(b) Safe and healthy working conditions;

(c) Equal opportunity for everyone to be promoted in his employment to an appropriate higher level, subject to no considerations other than those of seniority and competence;

(d) Rest, leisure and reasonable limitation of working hours and periodic holidays with pay, as well as remuneration for public holidays.

**Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD)**

**Article 27**

1. States Parties recognize the right of persons with disabilities to work, on an equal basis with others; this includes the right to the opportunity to gain a living by work freely chosen or accepted in a labour market and work environment that is open, inclusive and accessible to persons with disabilities. States Parties shall safeguard and promote the realization of the right to work, including for those who acquire a disability during the course of employment, by taking appropriate steps, including through legislation, to, inter alia:

a) Prohibit discrimination on the basis of disability with regard to all matters concerning all forms of employment, including conditions of recruitment, hiring and employment, continuance of employment, career advancement and safe and healthy working conditions;

b) Protect the rights of persons with disabilities, on an equal basis with others, to just and favourable conditions of work, including equal opportunities and equal remuneration for work of equal value, safe and healthy working conditions, including protection from harassment, and the redress of grievances;
c) Ensure that persons with disabilities are able to exercise their labour and trade union rights on an equal basis with others;

d) Enable persons with disabilities to have effective access to general technical and vocational guidance programmes, placement services and vocational and continuing training;

e) Promote employment opportunities and career advancement for persons with disabilities in the labour market, as well as assistance in finding, obtaining, maintaining and returning to employment;

f) Promote opportunities for self-employment, entrepreneurship, the development of cooperatives and starting one’s own business;

g) Employ persons with disabilities in the public sector;

h) Promote the employment of persons with disabilities in the private sector through appropriate policies and measures, which may include affirmative action programmes, incentives and other measures;

i) Ensure that reasonable accommodation is provided to persons with disabilities in the workplace;

j) Promote the acquisition by persons with disabilities of work experience in the open labour market;

k) Promote vocational and professional rehabilitation, job retention and return-to-work programmes for persons with disabilities.

2. States Parties shall ensure that persons with disabilities are not held in slavery or in servitude, and are protected, on an equal basis with others, from forced or compulsory labour.

ILO Conventions

ILO Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29)

Article 2
1. For the purposes of this Convention the term forced or compulsory labour shall mean all work or service which is exacted from any person under the menace of any penalty and for which the said person has not offered himself voluntarily.

2. Nevertheless, for the purposes of this Convention, the term forced or compulsory labour shall not include:

a) any work or service exacted in virtue of compulsory military service laws for work of a purely military character;

b) any work or service which forms part of the normal civic obligations of the citizens of a fully self-governing country;

c) any work or service exacted from any person as a consequence of a conviction in a court of law, provided that the said work or service is carried out under the supervision and control of a public authority and that the said person is not hired to or placed at the disposal of private individuals, companies or associations;

d) any work or service exacted in cases of emergency, that is to say, in the event of war or of a calamity or threatened calamity, such as fire, flood, famine, earthquake, violent epidemic or epizootic diseases, invasion by animal, insect or vegetable pests, and in general any circumstance that would endanger the existence or the well-being of the whole or part of the population;

e) minor communal services of a kind which, being performed by the members of the community in the direct interest of the said community, can therefore be considered as normal civic obligations incumbent upon the members of the community, provided that the members of the community or their direct representatives shall have the right to be consulted in regard to the need for such services.

ILO Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87)

Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98)
ILO Convention No. 138 on the minimum age for admission to employment and work, 1973

The Convention on the minimum age for admission to employment and work entered into force in 1976 and is currently ratified by 170 countries. India is the latest signatory and it will enter into force there in June 2018.

Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182)

The Convention on the Worst Forms of Child Labour entered into force in 2000 and is currently ratified by 181 countries. India is the latest signatory and it will enter into force there in June 2018.

Of particular relevance are Article 3, defining the worst forms of child labour; and Articles 6 and 7, which describe the actions State Parties must take to eliminate child labour and support children who are either in child labour already or at risk. Article 7 calls on States to take account of the special situation facing girls.

Article 3

For the purposes of this Convention, the term the worst forms of child labour comprises:

(a) all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery, such as the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage and serfdom and forced or compulsory labour, including forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict;

(b) the use, procuring or offering of a child for prostitution, for the production of pornography or for pornographic performances;

(c) the use, procuring or offering of a child for illicit activities, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs as defined in the relevant international treaties;

(d) work which, by its nature or the circumstances in which it is carried out, is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children.

Article 6

1. Each Member shall design and implement programmes of action to eliminate as a priority the worst forms of child labour.

2. Such programmes of action shall be designed and implemented in consultation with relevant government institutions and employers’ and workers’ organizations, taking into consideration the views of other concerned groups as appropriate.

Article 7

1. Each Member shall take all necessary measures to ensure the effective implementation and enforcement of the provisions giving effect to this Convention including the provision and application of penal sanctions or, as appropriate, other sanctions.

2. Each Member shall, taking into account the importance of education in eliminating child labour, take effective and time-bound measures to:

(a) prevent the engagement of children in the worst forms of child labour;

(b) provide the necessary and appropriate direct assistance for the removal of children from the worst forms of child labour and for their rehabilitation and social integration;

(c) ensure access to free basic education, and, wherever possible and appropriate, vocational training, for all children removed from the worst forms of child labour;

(d) identify and reach out to children at special risk; and

(e) take account of the special situation of girls.

3. Each Member shall designate the competent authority responsible for the implementation of the provisions giving effect to this Convention.

ILO Domestic Workers Convention, 2011 (No. 189)

ILO Domestic Workers Recommendation,
References

1 See CEDAW Article 2f.
2 States that have not yet signed or ratified the Convention include, as of May 2018, the Holy See; Iran; Somalia; Sudan; and Tonga. Sates that have not yet ratified the Convention include Palau and the United States of America.
9 Adapted definition taken from the International Labour Organization (ILO) Resolutions Concerning International Classification of Status in Employment Adopted by the 15th International Conference of Labour Statisticians, January 1993, para. 7.
12 The International Labor Organization (ILO) states that “Decent work … involves opportunities for work that is productive and delivers a fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families, better prospects for personal development and social integration, freedom for people to express their concerns, organize and participate in the decisions that affect their lives and equality of opportunity and treatment for all women and men.” See: http://www.ilo.org/global/topics/decent-work/lang--en/index.htm
13 156 million young people in emerging and developing countries are estimated to live in extreme poverty (i.e. on less than US$1.90 per capita per day) or in moderate poverty (i.e. on between US$1.90 and US$3.10) despite being in employment. See: World Employment and Social Outlook 2016: Trends for youth International Labour Office – Geneva, ILO, 2016. Available at: http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---dgreports/---dcomm/---public/documents/publication/wcms_513739.pdf
15 Ibid.
19 For instance, at least 50 countries have made reservations to particulars or articles in the Convention on All Forms of Discrimination Against Women. See: https://treaties.un.org/Pages/ViewDetails.aspx?src=TREATY&mtdsg_no=IV-8&chapter=4&lang=en#top
22 Article 2 of CEDAW states: “States Parties condemn discrimination against women in all its forms, agree to pursue by all appropriate means and without delay a policy of eliminating discrimination against women and, to this end, undertake:

a) To embody the principle of the equality of the men and women in their national constitutions or other appropriate legislation if not yet incorporated therein and to ensure, through law and other appropriate means, the practical realization of this principle;
b) To adopt appropriate legislative and other measures, including sanctions where appropriate, prohibiting all discrimination against women;
c) To establish legal protection of the rights of women on an equal basis with men and to ensure through competent national tribunals and other public institutions the effective protection of women against any act of discrimination;
d) To refrain from engaging in any act or practice of discrimination against women and to ensure that public authorities and institutions shall act in conformity with this obligation;
e) To take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women by any person, organization or enterprise;
f) To take all appropriate measures, including legislation, to modify or abolish existing laws, regulations, customs and practices which constitute discrimination against women;
g) To repeal all national penal provisions which constitute discrimination against women.”
23 Article 23 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948):
1) Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment.
2) Everyone, without any discrimination, has the right to equal pay for equal work.
3) Everyone who works has the right to just and favourable remuneration ensuring for himself and his family an existence worthy of human dignity, and supplemented, if necessary, by other means of social protection.
4) Everyone has the right to form and to join trade unions for the protection of his interests.
For more info, see: http://www.iilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_norm/---relconf/documents/meetingdocument/wcms_553577.pdf

Target 8.6 of the Sustainable Development Goals commits governments to: By 2020, substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training.

29 See Target 5.C of the Sustainable Development Goals: ‘Adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls at all levels’.

30 Target 5.5 of the Sustainable Development Goals commits governments to: Ensure women’s full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic and public life.

31 Target 5a of the Sustainable Development Goals commits governments to: Undertake reform to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws.

32 Target 5.4 of the Sustainable Development Goals commits governments to: Recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate.

33 Target 5.1 of the Sustainable Development Goals commits governments to: End all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere

34 Target 10.3 of the Sustainable Development Goals obligates States to: ‘Ensure equal opportunity and reduce inequalities of outcome, including by eliminating discriminatory laws, policies and practices and promoting appropriate legislation, policies and action in this regard.’

35 See CEDAW Article 2f.

36 States that have not yet signed or ratified the Convention include, as of May 2018, the Holy See; Iran; Somalia; Sudan; and Tonga. States that have signed but not yet ratified the Convention include Palau and the United States of America.


38 Worldwide more than 700 million women alive today were married before their 18th birthdays and more than one in three, about 250 million, was married before their 15th birthday. See United Nations Children’s Fund, Ending Child Marriage: Progress and prospects, UNICEF, New York, 2014.


40 http://www.the guardian.com/education/2017/jan/26/girls-believe-brilliance-is-a-male-trait-research-into-gender-stereotypes-shows#comment-92000037

41 See Gender at Work, 2014. Available at: http://www.worldbank.org/content/dam/Worldbank/Event/Gender/GenderAtWork_web2.pdf


43 Leave No One Behind: A Call To Action for Gender Equality and Women’s Economic Empowerment. Report of the Secretary-General’s High-Level Panel on Women’s Economic Empowerment.


46 Leave No One Behind: A Call To Action for Gender Equality and Women’s Economic Empowerment. Report of the Secretary-General’s High-Level Panel on Women’s Economic Empowerment.


50 Leave No One Behind: A Call To Action for Gender Equality and Women’s Economic Empowerment. Report of the Secretary-General’s High-Level Panel on Women’s Economic Empowerment. Citing Levlov, R. 2016. Men, Gender, and Inequality in Unpaid Care. Promundo, UNHLP Background Brief

51 Ibid.


54 In Delhi for example, over 21 percent of girls and women choose not to venture outside their home out of fear of sexual harassment or violence. See UN Women and ICRW (2013) “Unsafe: An Epidemic of Sexual Violence in Delhi’s Public Spaces: Baseline Findings from the Safe Cities Delhi Programme”. UN Women: New York and ICRW: Washington D.C.


Norwegian Refugee Council (2016) A Future in the Balance: How the Conflict in Syria Is Impacting on the Needs, Concerns and Aspirations of Young People across the Middle East [Available at: https://reliefweb.int/report/syrian-arab-republic/future-balance-how-conflict-syria-impacting-needs-concerns-


Child marriage is only projected to fall from 25 per cent to around 22 per cent between 2015 and 2030. See Nicolai, S., Hoy, C., Berliner, T. and Aedy, T. Projecting Progress: Reaching the SDGs by 2030. Overseas Development Institute 2015.

http://www.oDI.org/сид/0files/ОDI--assets/publications-opinion-files/9389.pdf


Economic violence is not addressed by legislation in 94 of 173 surveyed countries.


See also the position paper on Inclusive, Quality Education. See Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

Article 28.1 of the CRC recognises the right to education for all children, and outlines that States Parties have a responsibility to ensure compulsory, free primary education; available, accessible general and vocational secondary education; and accessible higher education for all children. However, while the CRC states that the right to learning and to education begins at birth, it doesn’t explicitly refer to State obligations to ensuring access for all to safe, free, quality pre-primary education.

Article 10 of the Convention for the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) outlines the responsibility of State Parties’ to ensure gender equality within education, including equal access and exposure to opportunity at all levels and within all subject areas, and to also ensure that education curricula specifically tackle negative gender norms.

Article 24 of the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) obligates States to provide equal access to education for persons with disabilities, at all levels within both general and vocational education streams. It outlines that States...
are obligated to facilitate such access by providing persons with disabilities with alternative modes of communication, accommodating the disabled with adequate facilities, and training professionals on the education of people with disabilities. This is supported by Article 23.3 of the CRC, which places the responsibility of provision of free, quality, accessible education for children with disabilities on the State.

52 Education is a target outcome in goals 3, 5, 8, 12, and 13 and forms Goal 4; ‘ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all’.


54 Data from UNESCO Institute of Statistics data site. Available at: http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Pages/oosc-data-release-2016.aspx

55 Plan International. 2013. Include Us! A Study of Disability among Plan International’s Sponsored Children. Available at: https://plan-international.org/publications/include-us#

56 Ibid.

57 At the end of 2014, more than half all refugees globally had been displaced for more than ten years. See Crawford, N. et al (2015) Protracted Displacement: Uncertain Paths to Self-reliance in Exile. London: ODI.


63 Girls with only primary education are twice as likely to be child brides compared to girls with secondary or higher education, whilst girls with no education are three times more likely to marry early compared to a girl with secondary or higher education. See UNFPA (2012) ‘Marrying too young’, p. 34.

64 Children of mothers who have completed secondary education or higher are twice as likely to survive beyond age 5, compared to children whose mothers have no education. See UNESCO. 2011a. Education Counts: Towards the Millennium Development Goals. Paris, p. 16

65 The World Bank (2012). World Development Report: Gender Equality and Development. See p. 5. The World bank points to evidence from a range of countries – including Bangladesh, Brazil, Côte d’Ivoire, Mexico, South Africa and the United Kingdom – demonstrating that increasing the share of household income controlled by women changes spending in ways that benefit children.


67 Ibid.

68 Women at Work, ILO 2016


75 https://www.bvkennis.nl/Bibliotheek/13-080.pdf


77 See Target 4.3 of Agenda 2030 for Sustainable Development.


79 Ibid.


84 GSMA Connected Women, Bridging the gender gap: Mobile access and usage in low and middle-income countries (London: GSMA, 2015).


89 Agueda Gras-Velazquez, Alexa Joyce and Maité Debry, Women and ICT: why are women and girls still not attracted to ICT studies and careers? (Brussels: European Schoolnet, 2009), 2.

90 Ibid.


134. Article 23 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948):

1) Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment.

2) Everyone, without any discrimination, has the right to equal pay for equal work.

3) Everyone who works has the right to just and favourable remuneration ensuring for himself and his family an existence worthy of human dignity, and supplemented, if necessary, by other means of social protection.

4) Everyone has the right to form and to join trade unions for the protection of his interests.

135. Target 8.6 of the Sustainable Development Goals commits governments to: By 2020, substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training.

136. Target 8.5 of the Sustainable Development Goals commits governments to: By 2030, achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, including for young people and persons with disabilities, and equal pay for work of equal value.

137. Leave No One Behind: A Call To Action for Gender Equality and Women’s Economic Empowerment. Report of the Secretary-General’s High-Level Panel on Women’s Economic Empowerment.

138. Ibid.


140. Ibid.

141. Ibid.

142. Ibid.

143. Ibid.

144. ILO, Global Wage Report 2016/17


146. Leave No One Behind: A Call To Action for Gender Equality and Women’s Economic Empowerment. Report of the Secretary-General’s High-Level Panel on Women’s Economic Empowerment.

147. World Economic Forum, Global Gender Gap Report 2017


150. Ibid.

151. Ibid.

152. Ibid.

153. Ibid.

154. Of the 173 economies surveyed, 100 restrict non-pregnant and non-nursing women from pursuing the same economic activities as men; some directly prohibit women from holding particular jobs.


158. Ibid.

159. Ibid.

160. Ibid.

161. Ibid.


163. The International Labor Organization (ILO) states that “Decent work … involves opportunities for work that is productive and delivers a fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families, better prospects for personal development and social integration, freedom for people to express their concerns, organize and participate in the decisions that affect their lives and equality of opportunity and treatment for all women and men.” See: http://www.ilo.org/global/topics/decent-work/lang--en/index.htm


166. Ibid. Youth account for 36.7 percent of the global unemployed.

167. Ibid.


Unprotected or “vulnerable” employment is defined by ILO as “the sum of own-account workers and contributing family workers. They are less likely to have formal work arrangements, and are therefore more likely to lack decent working conditions, adequate social security and ‘voice’ through effective representation by trade unions and similar organizations. Vulnerable employment is
often characterized by inadequate earnings, low productivity and difficult conditions of work that undermine workers’ fundamental rights.”


165 More than 80 per cent of all domestic workers are women. See http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---dcomm/---pubdocs/publication/wcms_173963.pdf

166 In a review, 45 per cent of a sample of 15 countries studies imposed a complete legal bar to refugee employment. Asylum Access and the Refugee Rights Coalition (2014) Global Refugee Work Rights Report


170 Leave No One Behind: A Call To Action for Gender Equality and Women’s Economic Empowerment. Report of the Secretary-General’s High-Level Panel on Women’s Economic Empowerment.

171 Ibid.


175 Ibid.

176 156 million youth in emerging and developing countries are estimated to live in extreme poverty (i.e. on less than US$1.90 per capita per day) or in moderate poverty (i.e. on between US$1.90 and US$3.10) despite being in employment. See: World Employment and Social Outlook 2016: Trends for youth International Labour Office – Geneva: ILO, 2016. Available at: http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---dcomm/---pubdocs/publication/wcms_513739.pdf

177 Ibid.


183 ILO Women at Work, ILO 2016


185 ILO Women at Work, ILO 2016


187 Ibid.


193 UNHLP report, p. 32


196 Ibid.

197 Ibid.

198 Ibid.

Annex B: Legal instruments and global agreements


201 Ibid.

202 Ibid.

203 Ibid.

204 Leave No One Behind: A Call To Action for Gender Equality and Women's Economic Empowerment. Report of the Secretary-General’s High-Level Panel on Women’s Economic Empowerment. P. 35.

205 UNESCO Institute of Statistics. Women in Science. UIS Fact Sheet, November 2015, No. 34.


218 OECD Social Institutions and Gender Index Database (2014).


222 https://ir.citi.com/rxehymXStWqV7Y6S58ExLpDlPqZicwdoxTt%2Ff0nDsBMFxbl%2FzcJlG%2FqKE%2BWxhcad8oQrdD1w%3D


225 Target 5.a of the Sustainable Development Goals states that governments should: “undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws”. Article 13 of CEDAW provides that “States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in other areas of economic and social life in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, the same rights, in particular ... The right to bank loans, mortgages and other forms of financial credit”. Article 14 of CEDAW deals specifically with women in rural areas, stating that “States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in rural areas in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, that they participate in and benefit from rural development and, in particular, shall ensure to such women the right ... to have access to agricultural credit and loans, marketing facilities, appropriate technology and equal treatment in land and agrarian reform as well as in land resettlement schemes.”


229 Globally, the proportion of women who are self-employed stands at 29.1 per cent, but this is significantly higher in some regions.
Leave No One Behind: A Call To Action for Gender Equality and Women’s Economic Empowerment. Report of the Secretary-
An estimated 63–69 percent of women-owned SMEs in developing economies are unserved or underserved by financial institutions, which equates to a credit gap of US$260 billion to US$320 billion. See IMF (2013), Closing the Credit Gap for Formal and Informal Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises, Washington D.C.


Ibid.

Target 5.4 of the Sustainable Development Goals: Recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate.


Ibid.


Office of National Statistics, 15 Feb 2013, Valuing Informal Childcare in the UK, 2010, estimated the value of informal childcare in 2010 as £343 billion – equivalent to 23 percent of GDP. Meanwhile the contribution of the financial sector to GDP in 2010 was just over 7 percent.

Target 5.4 of the Sustainable Development Goals: Recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate.


Ibid.

Ibid.

Ibid.


Ibid.

Ibid.

Ibid.


SDG 5.4: Recognise and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate.

Article 11(2) of CEDAW states that:

In order to prevent discrimination against women on the grounds of marriage or maternity and to ensure their effective right to work, States Parties shall take appropriate measures:

a) To prohibit, subject to the imposition of sanctions, dismissal on the grounds of pregnancy or of maternity leave and discrimination in dismissals on the basis of marital status;

b) To introduce maternity leave with pay or with comparable social benefits without loss of former employment, seniority or social allowances;

c) To encourage the provision of the necessary supporting social services to enable parents to combine family obligations with work responsibilities and participation in public life, in particular through promoting the establishment and development of a network of child-care facilities;
h) To provide special protection to women during pregnancy in types of work proved to be harmful to them.


274 Leave No One Behind: A Call To Action for Gender Equality and Women’s Economic Empowerment. Report of the Secretary-General’s High-Level Panel on Women’s Economic Empowerment, p. 5

275 ILO Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29); ILO Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182); ILO Convention on the minimum age for admission to employment and work 1973 (No. 138).

276 Target 8.7 of the Sustainable Development Goals commits governments to: Take immediate and effective measures to eradicate forced labour, end modern slavery and human trafficking and secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour, including recruitment and use of child soldiers, and by 2025 end child labour in all its forms.

277 Target 8.8 of the Sustainable Development Goals commits governments to: Protect labour rights and promote safe and secure working environments for all workers, including migrant workers, in particular women migrants, and those in precarious employment.


280 Ibid.

281 Ibid.

282 Ibid.


284 Ibid.


290 A list of countries which have ratified the ILO Domestic Workers Convention, 2011 (No. 189) can be found here: http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:11300:0::NO:11300:P11300_INSTRUMENT_ID:2551460

291 Genevieve LeBaron, Neil Howard, Cameron Thibos and Penelope Kyritsis, *Confronting root causes: forced labour in global supply chains.* Published by openDemocracy and the Sheffield Political Economy Research Institute, University of Sheffield, 2018.

292 Article 2 of the ILO Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29) provides: “1. For the purposes of this Convention the term forced or compulsory labour shall mean all work or service which is exacted from any person under the menace of any penalty and for which the said person has not offered himself voluntarily. 2. Nevertheless, for the purposes of this Convention, the term forced or compulsory labour shall not include a) any work or service exacted in virtue of compulsory military service laws for work of a purely military character; b) any work or service which forms part of the normal civic obligations of the citizens of a fully self-governing country; c) any work or service exacted from any person as a consequence of a conviction in a court of law, provided that the said work or service is carried out under the supervision and control of a public authority and that the said person is not hired to or placed at the disposal of private individuals, companies or associations; d) any work or service exacted in cases of emergency, that is to say, in the event of war or of a calamity or threatened calamity, such as fire, flood, famine, earthquake, violent epidemic or epizootic diseases, invasion by animal, insect or vegetable pests, and in general any circumstance which would endanger the existence or the well-being of the whole or part of the population; e) minor communal services of a kind which, being performed by the members of the community in the direct interest of the said community, can therefore be considered as normal civic obligations incumbent upon the members of the community, provided that the members of the community or their direct representatives shall have the right to be consulted in regard to the need for such services.”


298 Ibid.

299 Ibid.


301 Ibid.

302 Ibid.

303 The modern slavery statistics includes instances where people, regardless of their age, have been forced to marry without their consent. Forced marriage in these estimates includes all marriages of both adults and children that were reported by the
survey respondent to have been forced and without consent. The estimates do not include every instance of child marriage, even though it can be argued that children can never give free and full consent to marriage.


309 Feinstein International Center, “Refugee Livelihoods in Urban Areas: Identifying Program Opportunities/Case Study Ecuador”, (2012) at pg. 2

310 Ibid.

311 Ibid.

312 As defined by Article 3 of the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons defines Trafficking in Persons, 2000, which states:

(a) "Trafficking in persons" shall mean the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs;

(b) The consent of a victim of trafficking in persons to the intended exploitation set forth in subparagraph (a) of this article shall be irrelevant where any of the means set forth in subparagraph (a) have been used;

(c) The recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of a child for the purpose of exploitation shall be considered “trafficking in persons” even if this does not involve any of the means set forth in subparagraph (a) of this article;

(d) "Child" shall mean any person under eighteen years of age.

313 158 countries – 88 per cent - had adopted legislation that criminalises most forms of trafficking in persons, in line with the definition used by the UN Trafficking in Persons Protocol in 2016. This represents a substantial increase – in 2003 only 33 countries had such legislation.


315 Ibid.

316 Ibid.

317 Ibid.


319 Ibid.

320 Child labour was identified by a number of participants as a key child protection issue in their context; youth consultations in Uganda.

321 Thompson, H. (2015) A Matter of Life and Death: Child Protection Programming’s Essential Role in Ensuring Child Wellbeing and Survival During and After Emergencies. Supported by Plan International research of Syrian refugees in Egypt, where children aged between 8 and 18 were working in factories, restaurants, supermarket delivery services, carpentry workshops. Moreover, refugee girls were reported to be working in factories, beauty parlours and doing home-based work such as hair dressing or tailoring.


325 Ibid.


327 Ibid.

328 Ibid.

329 Ibid.


333 Target 5.5 of the Sustainable Development Goals is to: ‘Ensure women’s full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic and public life.’

334 Article 23 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights stipulates that ‘Everyone has the right to form and to join trade unions for the protection of his interests’.

335 WDR 2012.

336 http://www.worldbank.org/content/dam/Worldbank/Event/Gender/GenderAtWork_web2.pdf


Adopt policies, especially fiscal, wage and social protection policies, and programs.


Ibid.


OECD Development Centre SIGi: Social Institutions and Gender Index 2014 Synthesis Report


Ibid, citing Rubery and Grimshaw, 2011

Leave No One Behind: A Call To Action for Gender Equality and Women’s Economic Empowerment. Report of the Secretary-General’s High-Level Panel on Women’s Economic Empowerment.

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Ibid, p. 33

ILO Global Wage Gap Report 2016/17, p. 31

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Ibid, p. 33

ILO Global Wage Gap Report 2016/17, p. 31


Ibid, p. 33

ILO Global Wage Gap Report 2016/17, p. 31


Ibid, p. 33

ILO Global Wage Gap Report 2016/17, p. 31

See for example ILO


The 16 countries were: Benin, Brunei Darussalam, Burkina Faso, Cambodia, Republic of Congo, Fiji, Guinea, Indonesia, Iraq, the Lao People’s Democratic Republic, Malaysia, Morocco, Niger, the Philippines, Togo and Tunisia.


http://www.fao.org/3/a-i4696e.pdf

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Article 23 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948):
1) Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment.
2) Everyone, without any discrimination, has the right to equal pay for equal work.
3) Everyone who works has the right to just and favourable remuneration ensuring for himself and his family an existence worthy of human dignity, and supplemented, if necessary, by other means of social protection.
4) Everyone has the right to form and to join trade unions for the protection of his interests.