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«GLOBALIZATION POLITICS WITH WOMEN EMPOWERMENT»

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GLOBALIZATION POLITICS WITH WOMEN EMPOWERMENT

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INTRODUCTION

Topic Actuality

Globalization Politics with Women's Empowerment

The current wave of globalization has greatly improved the lives of women worldwide, particularly the lives of those women in the developing world. The empowerment of women, understood as ensuring that women can fully enjoy the same rights as men and are not discriminated against, is normatively desirable. It is also instrumentally valuable because it promotes economic development if women can flourish and freely develop their full potential as talented and productive workers, mothers, care givers, and often more responsible managers of households than men in many countries (King and Mason, 2001; Sen, 1999; UNIFEM, 2008).

This work provide an overall assessment of how globalization, which is taken here to mean greater openness of economies to women empowerment, in diverse regional contexts since the early 1980s has impacted on the growth of the world's economy as a whole and also briefly discuss the links between globalization and the gendered dimensions of poverty, and propose several policy recommendations for facilitating the empowerment of women.

The purpose of investigation – to find out the effects of women empowerment on the world's economy through globalization.

The following are the tasks to achieve this goal:

- ✓ Determine the effects of women empowerment on the world's economy.
- ✓ Outline the global economic instruments of women empowerment.
- ✓ Determine how globalization has affected women empowerment.
- ✓ Determine the main problems of globalization of women empowerment.
- ✓ Determine the World, Africa and Ghana situation of Women Empowerment

Overview of the Literature

Empowerment is a multi-faced, multi-dimensional and multi-layered concept. As such, it is not this or that, but is the action and interaction of various factors-physical, socioeconomic, political, mental, psychological, and attitudinal and so on. Women's empowerment could be described as a process in which women gain greater share of control over resources-material, human and intellectual like knowledge, information, ideas, and financial resources like money and access to money and control over decision making in the home, community, society and nation, and to gain power.

Sharma points out that, the term empowerment refers to a range of activities from individual self-assertion to collective resistance, protest and mobilization that challenge basic power relations.

In order to understand what is power one has to understand its partner Ideology'. As Nath and Chatterjee stated that for true empowerment, what is most significant is the control of ideology, that is , control over thoughts and perceptions that shapes individual beliefs, values and attitudes-ways of perceiving, thinking, feeling and analyzing. This control in turn confers decision making power which increases access to and control over resources.

Griffen spoke about what empowerment meant to her. She said that to her the word simply meant adding to women's power, and power to her meant having control, being listened to, being recognized and respected as equal citizens and human beings with a contribution to make. Power for her meant, being able to make contribution at all levels of society and not just in the home. Power also means having women's contribution recognized and valued. Thus to empower women in the real sense is to enable them to flower their talents, facilities, abilities and capacities, and to realize their full potentialities, and real identity as also freedom of thought, expression and action, and strength to handle every sphere of their lives. It is not only to make them aware of their

capacities, but also to provide them with the opportunities, facilities, and external and internal environment to utilize their inherent qualities and to develop in them self-confidence, self-esteem and social-psycho-economic self-reliance and self-dignity and the ability to raise a voice and fight against injustice, exploitation and violence done to her. (European Academic Research Feb. 2016)

The Subject of This Course Paper- mechanisms used to impact women empowerment for economic development through globalization.

The Object of This Course Paper- Women Empowerment

Novelty of Research

To find the effects of women empowerment on the economy from three dimension, the World, Africa and Ghana through globalization. Even though many researchers have report on globalization politics with women empowerment, this present work, would study exclusively the effects of women empowerment in economic development.

Methods of the Research

The following methods would be used for the Research work:

- ✓ Qualitative method- describe details using tools like interviews, survey and observation.
- ✓ Quantitative method- describe using quantifiable data involving numerical and statistical explanations.
- ✓ The discipline of Philosophy-using beliefs and choices of people and societies which includes positivism, normativism, pragmatism, empiricism and scientific approach of research.
- ✓ The discipline of History- theoretical approach of compiling data from archives and societies of history.

Glossary of key words

- ✓ Globalization
- ✓ Women Empowerment
- ✓ Economic instrument
- ✓ Economic Development
- ✓ Theoretical approaches

Structure of the Research- Major Causes and effects of the Research Problem

Causes of the Research Problem:

- ✓ Health issues
- ✓ Discrimination
- ✓ Cultural beliefs and practices
- ✓ Sexual violence
- ✓ Non sexual violence
- ✓ Trafficking
- ✓ Extreme poverty among women
- ✓ Lack of formal education for women

Effects of the Research problem are:

- ✓ Globalization of women empowerment helps to build stronger economies.
- ✓ It helps internationally agreed goals for development and sustainability
- ✓ Improve quality of life of women, men, families and communities.
- ✓ It brings about equality
- ✓ Globalization of women empowerment makes women to be financially independent which is very important in this era.
- ✓ It helps to get rid of social violence and atrocities against them.

The current wave of globalization has greatly improved the lives of women worldwide, particularly the lives of those women in the developing world. Nevertheless, women remain disadvantaged in many areas of life, including education, employment, health, and civil rights. According to the U.S. Agency for International Development and the World Bank, 57 percent of the 72 million primary school aged children who do not attend school are females. Additionally, girls are four percent less likely than boys to complete primary school. [1]

Earnings for both female and male full-time workers tend to increase with age, though earnings increase more slowly after age 45 and even decrease after age 55. The gender pay gap also grows with age, and differences among older workers are considerably larger than gaps among younger workers. Women typically earn about 90 percent of what men are paid until they hit 35. The most recent data providing this information was the ABS Employee Earnings and Hours survey, released January 2015. This is shown in table 1 below:

Average weekly total cash earnings (full-time) and gender pay gap *Table 1*

Method of Setting Pay	Women \$	Men \$	Gender Pay Gap (%)
Award Only	1,011.30	1,113.20	9.2
Collective Agreement	1,480.70	1,773.90	16.5
Individual arrangement	1,394.70	1,782.00	21.7
Overall	1,376.90	1,680.70	18.1

Source: Workplace Gender Equity Agency

The average weekly total cash earnings for those who had their pay set by individual agreement were substantially higher for men than women, resulting in a gender pay gap of 21.7% the average weekly total cash earnings for those who had their pay set by collective agreement were also higher for men than women the difference in

full-time earnings was smaller for those whose pay was set by award only, where men earned slightly more than women (Table 1). [2]

Globalization is empowering the women across the globe. It is helping the women to involve in different spheres like political, social, economic, sports and cultural. Women empowerment stands for expansion of assets and capabilities of women to participate in, influence control and hold accountable institutions that affect their lives. Globalization needs to manage the situation well and look globally instead of thinking just locally. Policies framed by the different countries helping the women to know about their rights and enhancing their skills at the competitive edge. The empowerment of women, understood as ensuring that women can fully enjoy the same rights as men and are not discriminated against, is normatively desirable. It is also instrumentally valuable because it promotes economic development if women can flourish and freely develop their full potential as talented and productive workers, mothers, care givers, and often more responsible managers of households than men in many countries. [3]

Wichterich argued that the ‘globalized woman is burnt up as a natural fuel: she is the piece-rate worker in export industries, the voluntary worker who helps to absorb the shocks of social cutbacks and structural adjustment.’ According to this view, globalization may have a particularly pernicious effect on the economic, social, and political life of women as profit-hungry corporations break down communitarian values and interests and breed hardships for the weak, particularly women. Of course, there are other voices, equally critical of globalization, but providing a more nuanced view and more rigorous analysis, in which the critique is about how the gender inequalities entrenched and promoted by the exploitative nature of the trans-national capitalist system and the asymmetric bargaining power between (foreign) corporations on the one hand and governments, workers and civil society groups on the other.

Contrarily, there are others who argue that globalization liberates women by providing opportunities through trade and investment, precisely because profit-hungry corporations hire the best workers without adhering to traditional social mores that

typically privilege men. They argue that higher standards and better rights will spill over to laggard countries, not least because of increased opportunities for employment and sensitivity of markets to wishes of the consumers in developed countries. The level of globalization might also determine a country's vulnerability to international pressure for political change. Because of the recent proliferation of global agreements and advocacy networks, governments desiring 'legitimacy and financial capital will want to demonstrate their human rights and democratic credentials'. [4]

This study will systematically address the question of whether trade and investment linkages can diffuse the empowerment of women from high-standard countries to laggards. We also study the effect of general openness to trade and foreign direct investment (FDI), understood as the extent of a country's integration into the global economy, even if this is not the central focus of our argument and analysis. Equally important is clarity about what we do not analyze, namely the effects of certain policies such as capital account liberalization, trade liberalization, investment incentives etc. often associated with globalization. In other words, we analyze the effect of factual globalization and not policies often associated with being open to global processes. That globalization has many other features (such as migration and the illegal trafficking of people, for example) not addressed in our analysis.

Employer broadened measures of women's rights that include both similarly, while trade and FDI are two central aspects of globalization, we acknowledge economic and social rights, such as marriage and divorce rights, the right of movement, the right to property, the right to participate in social activities, the right to education, the right to inherit etc. Together, women's economic and social rights are a better gauge of female empowerment than simple measures of the wage-gap and employment ratios.

[5, 6]

CHAPTER 1 THEORY OF WOMEN EMPOWERMENT ON THE SCALE OF GLOBALIZATION

1.1 Theories of Globalization

The term globalization has been widely used, it is derived from the word “Globalize”, which refers to the emergence of an international network of economic systems. One of the earliest known usage of the term as a noun was in 1930 publication entitled “Towards New Education”, where it denoted a holistic view of human experience in education. Economist Theodore Levitt is widely credited with coining the term in an article entitled “Globalization of Markets” which appeared in the May-June 1983 issue of Harvard Business Review. However, the term “globalization” was in use well before this (at least as early as 1944) and had been used by other scholars as early as 1981.

Since the inception, the concept of globalization has inspired competing definitions and interpretations with antecedents dating back to the great movements of trade and empire across Asia and Indian Ocean from the 15th century onwards. Due the complicity of the concept, research problem, articles and discussions often remain focused on a single aspect of globalization. [7]

Some scholarly definitions of globalization:

Socialist Martin Albrow and Elizabeth King defined globalization as “all those processes by which the people of the world are incorporated into a single world society”. In the consequences of Modernity.

Anthony Giddens writes “globalization can thus be defined as the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa.

Swedish journalist Thomas Larsson, in his book, “The Race to the Top the Real Story of globalization”, states that globalization “is the process of world stringer of distances

getting shorter, things moving closer. It pertains to the increasing ease with which somebody on one side of the world can interact to mutual benefits with somebody on the other side of the world.

In 1992, Roland Robertson, professor of sociology at university of Aberdeen, an early writer in the field, defined globalization as “the compression of the world and the intensification of the consciousness of the world as a whole” [8]

Globalization refers to "the compression of the world and the intensification of consciousness of the world as a whole" (R. Robertson, Globalization, 1992). In thought and action, it makes the world a single place. What it means to live in this place, and how it must be ordered, become universal questions. These questions receive different answers from individuals and societies that define their position in relation to both a system of societies and the shared properties of humankind from very different perspectives. The confrontation of their world views means that globalization involves "comparative interaction of different forms of life" (Robertson: 27). Global interdependence and consciousness of the world as a whole precede the advent of capitalist modernity. Yet European expansion and state formation boosted globalization since the seventeenth century. The contemporary shape of the globe owes most to the "take-off" decades after about 1875, when international communications, transportation, and conflict dramatically intensified relationships across societal boundaries. In that period, the main reference points of fully globalized order took shape: nation-state, individual self, world-system, of societies, and one humanity.

These elements of the global situation became "relativized"; national societies and individuals, in particular, must interpret their very existence as parts of a larger whole. To some extent, a common framework has guided that interpretive work; for example, states can appeal to a universal doctrine of nationalism to legitimate their particularizing claims to sovereignty and cultural distinction. Such limited common principles do not provide a basis for world order. Global consciousness does not imply global consensus.

By the end of the twentieth century, if not before, globalization had turned world order into a problem. Everyone must now reflexively respond to the common predicament of living in one world. This provokes the formulation of contending world views. For example, some portray the world as an assembly of distinct communities, highlighting the virtues of particularism, while others view it as developing toward a single overarching organization, representing the presumed interests of humanity as a whole. In a compressed world, the comparison and confrontation of world views are bound to produce new cultural conflict. In such conflict, religious traditions play a special role, since they can be mobilized to provide an ultimate justification for one's view of the globe; the resurgence of fundamentalist groups, innovative traditionalists with a global agenda, is a case in point. A globalized world is thus integrated but not harmonious, a single place but also diverse, a construct of shared consciousness but prone to fragmentation. [9, 10, 11]

1.2 Theories of Women Empowerment

The term “Empowerment” refers to measures designed to increase the degree of autonomy and self-determination in people and in communities in order to enable them to represent their interests in a responsible and self-determined way, acting on their own authority. Empowerment as action refers both to the process of self-empowerment and to professional support of people, which enables them to overcome their sense of powerlessness and lack of influence, and to recognize and eventually to use their resources and chances. The term empowerment originates from American community psychology and is associated with the social scientist Julian Rappaport (1981).

Robert Adams points to the limitations of any single definition of 'empowerment', and the danger that academic or specialist definitions might take away the word and the connected practices from the very people they are supposed to belong to. Still, he offers a minimal definition of the term: 'Empowerment: the capacity of individuals, groups and/or communities to take control of their circumstances, exercise power and achieve

their own goals, and the process by which, individually and collectively, they are able to help themselves and others to maximize the quality of their lives.

One definition for the term is "an intentional, ongoing process centered in the local community, involving mutual respect, critical reflection, caring, and group participation, through which people lacking an equal share of resources gain greater access to and control over those resources" (Cornell Empowerment Group),

Rappaport's (1984) definition includes: "Empowerment is viewed as a process: the mechanism by which people, organizations, and communities gain mastery over their lives."

Sociological empowerment often addresses members of groups that social discrimination processes have excluded from decision-making processes through, for example, discrimination based on disability, race, ethnicity, religion, or gender. Empowerment as a methodology is also associated with feminism.

Women's empowerment, referring to the empowerment of women in our present society, has become a significant topic of discussion in regards to development and economics. It can also point to approaches regarding other trivialized genders in a particular political or social contexts.

Empowerment thus refers to the expansion in people's ability to make strategic life choices in a context where this ability was previously denied to them. Changes in the ability to exercise choice can be thought of in terms of changes in three inter-related dimensions which make up choice: resources, which form the conditions under which choices are made; agency which is at the heart of the process by which choices are made; and achievements, which are the outcomes of choices. These dimensions are inter-dependent because changes in each contributes to, and benefits from, changes in the others. Thus, the achievements of a particular moment are translated into enhanced

resources or agency, and hence capacity for making choices, at a later moment in time. [12, 13]

Economic empowerment is the capacity of women and men to participate in, contribute to and benefit from growth processes in ways which recognise the value of their contributions, respect their dignity and make it possible to negotiate a fairer distribution of the benefits of growth. Economic empowerment increases women's access to economic resources and opportunities including jobs, financial services, property and other productive assets, skills development and market information.

The economic empowerment of women is a prerequisite for sustainable development, pro-poor growth and the achievement of all the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Gender equality and empowered women are catalysts for multiplying development efforts. Investments in gender equality yield the highest returns of all development investments. Women usually invest a higher proportion of their earnings in their families and communities than men. A study in Brazil showed that the likelihood of a child's survival increased by 20% when the mother controlled household income. [14, 15]

Why women's economic empowerment matters for pro-poor growth

- Higher female earnings and bargaining power translate into greater investment in children's education, health and nutrition, which leads to economic growth in the long-term. The share of women in waged and salaried work grew from 42% in 1997 to 46% in 2007.
- In India, GDP could rise by 8% if the female/male ratio of workers went up by 10%.
- Total agricultural outputs in Africa could increase by up to 20% if women's access to agricultural inputs was equal to men's.

- Women-owned businesses comprise up to 38% of all registered small businesses worldwide. The number of women-owned businesses in Africa, Asia, Eastern Europe and Latin America is growing rapidly and, with that growth, come direct impacts on job creation and poverty reduction. [16]

1.3 Global Economic Instruments of Women Empowerment

Empowering women economically is not only the “right thing” to do to honor the world’s commitments to human rights. It is also the “smart thing” to do for development, economic growth and business. Gender equality has significant positive effects on per capita income, economic growth and national competitiveness. For example, recent estimates suggest that gender parity could increase the global gross domestic product (GDP) by between \$12 trillion and \$28 trillion by 2025. Closing gender gaps in education and the world of work also positively affects economic growth, which relies on labour market expansion and skills development.

Unpaid care and domestic work disproportionately carried out by women is also critical to the social well-being and maintenance of the labour force. Despite holding intrinsic economic value, this work is not always considered productive and remains unmeasured in many national account systems and therefore in official GDP calculations. Yet estimates in countries already measuring unpaid care place its value at between 20 to 60 per cent of GDP. Efforts underway to improve measurement of unpaid care work are gathering momentum following the inclusion of Target 5.4 of the Sustainable Development Goals. Such measures are likely to further increase recognition of the economic value of women’s unpaid work in the years to come.

Women’s economic advancement within company workforce, management and boards, as well as across the value chain, brings a range of positive effects. For example, companies with greater gender equality demonstrate increased ability innovate as well as to attract, retain and motivate female workers and are better able to respond to female

customers. Women's leadership in management and board positions has also been shown to boost organizational effectiveness and financial performance.

The relationship between gender equality, growth and development outcomes is complex, and there is no automatic 'win-win' between them. Furthermore, establishing priorities to further women's economic empowerment is often a politically contested process, which can lead to uneven progress. For example, whilst gender equality is positively associated with higher economic growth, the gains of economic growth are not automatically gender equitable, and growth does not necessarily lead to gains in women's well-being. Therefore, specific, targeted efforts are needed to ensure that outcomes are secured across all of the spheres related to women's economic empowerment. [17]

1.3.1 Stock take: An overview of the global context

Women's economic empowerment cannot be achieved whilst significant gender gaps in women's paid and unpaid work exist globally. Table 3 provides an overview of key global and regional trends.

Table 3: An overview of global and regional trends in women and work

<p>Gender gaps in labour force participation are significant</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Between 1995 and 2015, the global female labour force participation rate decreased from 52.4 to 49.6 per cent. The corresponding figures for men were 79.9 and 76.1 per cent, respectively. • Across the world, the chances of joining the labour market for all women are almost 27 per cent lower than men's. • The gender wage gap is estimated to be 23 per cent, meaning women earn 77 per cent of what men earn. At current trends it will take more than 70 years to close gender wage gaps.
<p>The quality of women's work remains a challenge everywhere</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Informal employment was a greater source of non-agricultural employment for more women than for men in South Asia (83 per cent of women workers and 82 per cent of men workers); Sub-Saharan Africa (74 per cent and 61 per cent); Latin America and the Caribbean (54 per cent and 48 per cent); and urban China (36 per cent and 30 per cent). • In Northern, Southern and Western Europe, the majority of women work in services (86.2 per cent). In high-income countries, the major source of employment for women is the health and education sector, which employs almost one third of all women in the labour market (30.6 per cent). • In the EU Member States, 40–50 per cent of women have experienced unwanted sexual advances, physical contact or other forms of sexual harassment at work.

Women are more likely to work shorter hours for pay or profit and more in unpaid and household care

- On average, women carry out at least two and a half times more unpaid household and care work than men in countries where the relevant data are available. For example, the Nordic countries average only around 0.9 per cent of gross domestic product (GDP) on such programs, and spending in southern Europe averages a mere 0.2 per cent of GDP.
- Overall, the gender gap for part-time employment between women and men in employment is 11 percentage points, with more women working less than 35 hours per week compared to men.

Women are more likely to work excessive hours

- Across 100 surveyed countries, women are more likely to work excessive hours than men. More than one third of men in employment (35.5 per cent) and more than one fourth of women in employment (25.7 per cent) work more than 48 hours a week

Gender inequalities at work and at home translate into gender gaps in access to social protection

- Globally, the percentage of women in employment who are affiliated to a pension scheme is 1.7 and 2.9 percentage points lower than that of men for wage and salaried workers and self-employed respectively.
- Worldwide, close to 60 per cent of women workers (nearly 750 million women) do not benefit from a statutory right to maternity leave.

Source: Table compiled from: ILO (2016a) [17, 18, 19]

1.3.2 Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women

The Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), adopted in 1979, provides a wide-ranging bill of rights for women based on the elimination of discrimination on various grounds. CEDAW includes a number of Articles directly relevant to women's economic empowerment. These include inter alia Article 10 on equal rights to education; Article 11 affording women equal employment, remuneration and protection opportunities regardless of pregnancy, maternity and marital statuses; Article 13 stipulating women's equal rights to family benefits and financial services; and Article 15 guaranteeing men and women's equality before the law. At the time of writing 189 states have ratified or acceded to CEDAW, meaning its provisions are legally binding in those countries.⁴⁰ Implementation is monitored by the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, a body of independent experts. State parties to CEDAW report regularly to the Committee, who consider each report and provide concerns and recommendations in the form of 'Concluding Observations'. [20, 21]

1.3.3 2030 Agenda and the Sustainable Development Goals

On 25 September 2015 the UN General Assembly adopted the resolution entitled 'transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development'. The 2030 Agenda came into force on the 1st of January 2016 and entails 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and 169 targets which are to be achieved by 2030. The SDGs are based on the preceding Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) with a crucial difference: while the MDGs were in force in developing countries alone, the SDGs call for action in all countries. Gender is relevant across all 17 SDGs, and there are a number of targets across the framework which relate directly to women's economic empowerment, as outlined in Table 4 [22]

Table 4: SDGs targets relating to women's economic empowerment

<p>SDG 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social protection systems for all, including floors. • Equal rights to economic resources, basic services, ownership and control over land and other forms of property, inheritance, natural resources, new technology and financial services.
<p>SDG 2: End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Double the agricultural productivity and incomes of small-scale food producers, in particular women
<p>SDG 4: Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Equal access for all women and men to technical, vocational and tertiary education. • Access to quality early childhood development, care and pre-primary education.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Eliminate gender disparities in education and ensure equal access to all levels of education and vocational training.
<p>SDG 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work. • Ensure women's full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership including in economic life. • Give women equal rights to economic resources, including land, property, financial services, inheritance.
<p>SDG 8: Economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, and equal pay for work of equal value. • 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.

SDG10: Reduce inequality within and among countries

- Fiscal, wage and social protection policies that progressively achieve greater equality.

SDG11: Inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable cities

- Access to safe, affordable, accessible and sustainable transport systems for all, with special attention to the needs of those in vulnerable situations including women.

Source: Table adapted from OECD DAC Network on Gender Equality (GENDERNET) (2016)

Separately, SDG 5 that commits all governments to actions that ‘Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls’ is known as the stand-alone gender goal. The Goal lays down 9 targets of which at least four directly address women’s economic empowerment through recognizing the value of unpaid care work, ensuring women’s participation in all levels of leadership and decision-making, giving and protecting women’s rights to economic resources and promoting the use of technology to empower women. Both developed and developing countries are responsible for adopting these targets in their context, for example by incorporating them into national development plans and/or sectorial policies. The universality of the goals and their applicability to high income countries has been reiterated in the European Commission Communication, ‘A proposal for a new European Consensus on Development’, however the document is weak on detailing how EU Member States need to work on achieving SDGs within their own context. Cognizant of the danger of perceiving SDGs as a developing country issue, the Committee on Women's Rights and Gender Equality (FEMM) of the European Parliament in its recommendation to the Council on the EU priorities for the 61st session of the CSW has emphasized that the EU needs to ‘Ensure

coherence between EU internal and external policies and the Sustainable Development Goals'. [23]

At the global level, the UN High-level Political Forum on Sustainable Development (HLPF) has a central role in overseeing follow-up and review processes across all SDGs at global level. SDG Watch Europe, a cross-sectorial civil society alliance from development, environment, social, human rights and other sectors, has been established to hold governments accountable for the implementation of the 2030 Agenda. In November 2016, the European Commission' published a 'Communication on the next steps for a sustainable European future ,European action for sustainability'46 which was criticized heavily by SDG Watch for providing 'little new information about how the EU intends to make Agenda 2030 a reality in Europe or around the world. [24]

CHAPTER 2 ESTIMATION OF THE GLOBAL SITUATION OF WOMEN EMPOWERMENT

2.1 The analysis of World situation of women empowerment

The World's Women 2015 has benefited from the growing availability of gender statistics. Because more countries are conducting household surveys, in addition to regular population censuses, the majority of them can produce at present data disaggregated by sex for basic indicators on population, families, health, education and work. Many more surveys are presently available on critical areas such as violence against women: 89 countries collected data on this topic through household surveys during the period 2005–2014 compared to only 44 in the previous decade. Furthermore, gender statistics based on administrative records are becoming more widely available. For instance, statistics on women's representation in lower or single houses of parliament are available for 190 countries in 2015, an increase from 167 countries in 1997. The following are the analysis of the indicators.

Population and Families

In 2015, population projections estimate that there are 3.6 billion women and 3.7 billion men worldwide. In other words, women constitute slightly less than half of the global population (49.6 per cent). The ratio of males to females (sex ratio) indicates that there are 102 men for every 100 women.⁷ Men outnumbered women by approximately 44 million in 1995 and by 62 million in 2015. This increase is the result of population growth and greater improvements in the survival rates of men compared to women. Within the same time period, the sex ratio increased by a very small margin (less than 0.5 per 100).

- There are about 62 million more men than women worldwide. In younger age groups, men outnumber women; in older age groups, women outnumber men.

- About half of all international migrants are women, but men migrants are dominant in developing countries, mostly those in Northern Africa, Oceania, and Southern and Western Asia.
- The age at marriage has increased for both women and men.
- Child marriage has declined; still, almost half of women aged 20 to 24 in Southern Asia and two fifths in sub-Saharan Africa marry before age 18.
- The average number of children per woman declined in countries with high and medium fertility levels but increased slightly in some countries with low fertility.
- Adolescent birth rates declined almost everywhere but are still high in many African and Latin American and Caribbean countries.
- Lone mothers with children constitute about three quarters of one-parent households.
- The proportion of women aged 45 to 49 who are divorced or separated is at least 25 per cent higher than that of men in the same age group.
- Widowhood is about three times higher among women aged 60 to 64 than among men in the same age group.
- The majority of older persons living in one-person households are women. [25]

Health

Good health is a fundamental human right and a necessary precondition for individual and societal development. It is defined as a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity. The differences in the health of women and men everywhere are determined by three interrelated factors: development, biology and gender. Each of these factors contributes to distinct health trajectories for individuals throughout the life cycle. Development, understood as the development of health systems, but also of improved access to water, sanitation and transportation infrastructure, provides the overall context for the burden of disease. Biology determines the health needs and vulnerabilities specific to women and men. It is

one of the main factors behind men's increased risk for a number of health problems, their higher mortality (starting from day one and extending throughout their lives), and their shorter life expectancy. Gender inequality and gender norms and expectations continue to exert a strong influence on the health conditions affecting women and men. Practices such as early and forced marriage, together with poor access to information and education, lack of decision-making power within the couple, and violence against women increase the exposure of adolescent girls and adult women to sexually transmitted infections, including HIV.

- Life expectancy over the past 20 years has risen for both sexes, reaching 72 years for women and 68 years for men in 2010–2015. The gender gap tends to widen as life expectancy increases.
- Health conditions related to pregnancy and childbirth, combined with HIV/AIDS, are the leading cause of death among young women aged 15 to 29 in developing regions, mainly due to the heavy toll of these deaths in sub-Saharan Africa.
- Maternal health has improved considerably over the years, yet in Southern Asia and sub-Saharan Africa only half of pregnant women have adequate care during childbirth.
- Injuries top the list of causes of death among young men aged 15 to 29 in developing and developed regions, and among young women aged 15 to 29, in developed ones.
- The prevalence of tobacco smoking is higher among men than women in all regions.
- The prevalence of diabetes and obesity has increased for both sexes, and current levels of obesity are higher for women than for men.
- Breast and cervical cancers are the most common cancers affecting women.

- Men are at a higher risk than women of the same age of dying from cardiovascular disease, but more women than men die from the disease since they tend to live longer. [26]

Education

Education is a core human right and an essential tool for achieving sustainable development. It is an investment in human capital that confers benefits to both individuals and societies, allowing them to reach their fullest potential. Education is indispensable for closing the gap between women and men in respect to social and economic opportunities and is a key to empowering women and allowing them to become agents of change in economic, social and political spheres. It also improves women's chances of leading a healthy life and passing on the benefits to future generations.

- Despite progress, only one in two children in developing regions receive pre-primary education compared to nine in 10 in developed regions.
- Primary school enrolment at the appropriate age is nearly universal in most regions, except sub-Saharan Africa and Oceania.
- Yet, an estimated 58 million children of primary school age—31 million of whom are girls—are out of school.
- Only 72 per cent of the world's girls and 74 per cent of boys attend secondary school; gender disparities at the secondary level are wider than those at the primary level. In tertiary education globally, enrolments are increasing faster for women than for men.
- The proportion of women graduating in the fields of science and engineering remains low in poor and rich countries alike.
- Women account for 30 per cent of all researchers.

- Women account for about two thirds of teachers at the primary level, 52 per cent at the secondary level and 42 per cent at the tertiary level.
- Nearly two thirds of the world's 781 million illiterate adults are women, and almost all of them live in developing regions.
- The vast majority of the world's youth are literate: 87 per cent of young women and 92 per cent of young men having basic reading and writing skills. [27, 28]

Work

Women constitute roughly half of the global population and thus, potentially, half of its work force. As a group, women do as much work as men, if not more. However, the types of work they do, as well as the conditions under which they work and their access to opportunities for advancement, differ from that of men. Women work less than men in the labour market but more within households on domestic activities. In the labour market, women are more disadvantaged than men: They are more likely to be unemployed; less likely to be employed as wage and salaried workers in most developing regions; and are more likely to work as contributing family workers who typically do not receive a monetary income. Their work is concentrated in sectors and occupations that tend to have low pay, is subject to long hours and carries no social protections. Women are less likely to hold managerial positions, and earn less than men everywhere.

The Beijing Platform for Action identifies women's role in the economy as a critical area of concern, and calls attention to the need to promote and facilitate their equal access to employment and resources, improved employment conditions, as well as the harmonization of work and family responsibilities for women and men.¹ Some progress has been made since 1995 in women's position in the labour market, as well as in the equal sharing of family responsibilities. Women aged 25 and older have increased their participation in the labour force in most regions. They are currently more likely than in the past to be employed as wage and salaried workers and less likely to be

contributing family workers. Although women still do not earn as much as men, evidence from many developed countries has shown signs that the gender gap in pay is narrowing. More countries have adopted measures to provide maternity leave to help strengthen women's attachment to the labour market. Measures are also being instituted to grant paternity leave, which helps to promote greater involvement of fathers in childcare and hence more equal sharing of family responsibilities. Indeed, the gender difference in the sharing of those responsibilities has narrowed over time. Proportion of countries that reported main labour force indicators by sex, developed and developing countries in table 5.

Table 5 Labour Force indicators by sex (Developed and Developing Countries)

At least 2 data points in 2005-2014	Labour force participation rate	Unemployment rate	Employment by status in employment	Employment by occupation	Earning
All countries	64	64	55	50	39
Developing	53	53	42	37	30
Developed	100	98	98	93	70
At least 2 data points in 1995-2004 and 2005-2014					
All Countries	59	60	47	44	17
Developing	49	51	34	31	13
Developed	93	89	89	89	28

Source: Statistics on labour force data compiled by the United Nations Statistics Division

- Globally, about three quarters of men and half of women participate in the labour force; the gender gap in participation has narrowed in only some regions and remains widest in Northern Africa, Western Asia and Southern Asia.
- Since 1995, both young women and men (aged 15 to 24) have experienced a large decline in labour force participation. Women aged 25 or older, however, recorded an increase of participation in most regions.
- Women's unemployment rate remains higher than men's in most countries, and the differences remain substantial.
- Vulnerable employment that is, own-account and contributing family work constitutes half of women's and men's employment globally, but is most common in Africa and Asia, especially among women.
- Women predominate in the services sector of employment, especially in education, health and social work, and private households as employers.
- The occupational segregation of women and men continues to be deeply embedded in all regions.
- Women earn less than men across all sectors and occupations, with women working full-time earning between 70 and 90 per cent of what men earn in most countries.
- Women spend, on average, three hours more per day than men on unpaid work in developing countries and two hours more per day than men in developed countries; when all work paid and unpaid is considered, women work longer hours than men.
- Over half of countries offer at least 14 weeks maternity leave and the proportion has increased over the past 20 years.
- Paternity leave is becoming more common 48 per cent of countries have provisions on paternity leave in 2013, compared to 27 per cent in 1994. [29, 30]

Power and Decision- Making

In societies around the world, men typically hold most positions of power and decision-making, an area in which gender inequality is often severe and highly visible. Advances over the past two decades are evident in all regions and most countries, but progress has been slow. Women continue to be underrepresented in national parliaments. They are seldom leaders of major political parties, participate as candidates in elections in small numbers and, during electoral processes, face multiple obstacles deeply rooted in inequality in gender norms and expectations. The use by some countries of gender quotas has improved women's chances of being elected. Yet, once elected, few women reach the higher echelons of parliamentary hierarchies. Women are also largely excluded from executive branches of government, and female Heads of State or Government are still the exception. Only a minority of women are appointed as ministers and, when they are, they are usually not assigned to core ministries (such as to the cabinet of the prime minister, or to ministries of home affairs, finance, defense and justice). Women continue to be outnumbered by men in the highest-ranking positions in the civil service. They are not equally represented among government ambassadors and representatives to the United Nations, nor in local government. The underrepresentation of women is even more extreme in the private sector. The glass ceiling appears to be most impenetrable in the largest corporations, which are still essentially male dominated, particularly at the level of CEO.

- The number of female Heads of State or Government reached 19 in 2015, only seven more than in 1995.
- Women's representation in lower or single houses of parliament has increased, yet globally only about one in every five of parliamentarians is a woman.
- Around 30 per cent of electoral candidates in lower or single houses of parliament are women.

- Women’s representation among cabinet ministers increased from 6 per cent in 1994 to 18 per cent in 2015.
- Women’s participation in local government has grown in many countries, yet remains far from parity.
- Women are outnumbered by men among judges and magistrates in about half of the countries with data. At higher levels up the judicial hierarchy, women’s representation declines drastically.
- The media remains a male-dominated industry that reinforces gender stereotypes.
- The glass ceiling appears to be most impenetrable in the world’s largest corporations; less than 4 per cent of Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) are women and the gender composition of executive boards of private companies is far from parity. Countries with a female Head of State and/or Government by region, as at 17 March 2015 in table 6

Table 6 Female Head of State by Regions as at March, 2015

Head of State	Head of Government
Africa	
Central African Republic	
Liberia	Liberia
Asia	
Republic Of Korea	Bangladesh
Latin America and the Caribbean	
Argentina	Argentina
Brazil	Brazil
Chile	Chile, Chile Jamaica Peru Trinidad and Tobago

Source: United Nations Protocol and Liaison Service website. www.un.int/protocol/sites/www.un.int/files/Protocol%20and%20Liaison%20Service/hspmfm.pdf, accessed on 19 March 2015. [31, 32]

2.2 The Analysis of Africa situation of women empowerment

In an international globalized context where cultural, geographic, economic and social boundaries are dissolved, the respect for human rights and their indivisibility constitute a fundamental principle for all humanity. Moreover, new concepts and development approaches have materialized to ensure increased equality between men and women. The growing recognition of the leadership role of women in all spheres of development, including their participation in decision-making at the international, regional and national level, are reflected in the creation of platforms of action related to gender. It is in this context that the AU has developed a Gender Policy that focuses on closing the equality gap between men and women in general and particularly addressing gender inequalities which have resulted in women's disempowerments and the feminization of poverty, in order to have a better understanding of the contribution of women in development. Matrix of Key Policy Areas and Action Points on Gender and Economic Empowerment in table 7.

Table 7 Policy Areas and Action Points on Gender Economic Empowerment

Key Policy Areas	Key Action Points	
	African Governments	Development Partners
Overarching Issues	The increased ratification of the Protocol on the Rights of Women in Africa; all Governments and the preparation of strategies for implementation of its provisions; Discussion at future AU Summits on progress in implementing the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa.	Support the preparation of strategies for the implementation of the Protocol and the SDGEA Support for the development of specific indicators on economic empowerment under MDG3, in order to create incentives for action by both Africa and the international community and to measure progress.

<p>Land and Property Rights</p>	<p>Establish legal and non-legal infrastructure through land reforms, national mechanisms and community tribunals to monitor the enforcement of pro-women laws, policies and practices;</p> <p>Set up technical and financial schemes to support women land-buyers, owners and producers;</p> <p>Set up a national commission to review property and land adjudication inheritance, distribution and redistribution</p> <p>Mobilize resources for the economic development of land owned by women.</p>	<p>Commit financial resources to support mechanisms and structures that implement and promote land reform initiatives.</p> <p>Support monitoring and evaluation of land reform processes to enhance women's access and control of land;</p> <p>Support initiatives that provide financial support to the economic development of land owned by women.</p>
<p>Economic Governance</p>	<p>Establish gender-responsive public financial management systems and strengthen existing gender budget initiatives.</p> <p>Recognize satellite accounting procedures to capture, value and remunerate women's work including value in the care economy</p>	<p>Encourage gender-responsive budgeting in budget support;</p> <p>Revive the global efforts to recognize satellite accounts and provide resources to value and remunerate</p>
<p>Add modalities</p>	<p>Integrate gender components in the planning and coordination of line ministries to ensure the proper allocation of resources;</p> <p>Include specific objectives and targets in PRSs, and set budgetary allocations to promote gender equality.</p>	<p>Promote the Paris Declaration and the Monterrey Consensus to include a focus on results and development policy goals for women and gender equality;</p> <p>Support the development of PRSs to ensure that they include specific objectives and targets and budgetary</p>

		<p>allocations set to promote gender equality;</p> <p>Encourage specific targets for gender in Sector-wide approaches (SWAs) and establish budget support mechanisms that encourage the way in which recipient countries allocate money towards the promotion of gender equality.</p>
Trade and investment	<p>Allocation of credit lines to support African women entrepreneurs;</p> <p>Target support to women managing small-micro enterprises to enable them to expand and diversify outputs.</p> <p>Increase capacity for value-addition, diversification and product differentiation specifically in the agro-processing sector through the use of appropriate technologies, and enhance marketing through ICTs.</p>	<p>Promote investments in manufacturing and open markets particularly for products with important female labour content;</p> <p>Support the implementation of projects linked to gender equality, trade outcomes and growth;</p> <p>Subsidize women's associations and provide free training to women managing associations; Support women employed in the agriculture sector to enhance their productive capacity.</p> <p>Create and launch an African Women's Investment Fund</p>

Source: Africa Union (2003) Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights

Globalization, or the liberalization of trade, investment and financial services, and a strong emphasis on privatization is clearly exacerbating inequality. Studies of globalization that emphasize these trends tend to neglect the role of women in these processes, yet the increasingly mobile nature of capital and the increasing mobility of labour across state borders cannot ignore the fact that these processes involve vast numbers of women. A reliance on low-waged female labour, for example, is a key feature of export-oriented industrialization and high levels of inequality in globalized production lines is directly linked to the deregulation of labour markets that has accompanied the global shift towards a more liberal market economy. It is therefore clear that despite that fact that women are playing a major part in globalized networks of production and labour markets, they have not necessarily benefited from this engagement. Women continue to face major challenges in accessing decent work both in the formal and informal sector. Women globally own less than 3% of the world's land and have little access to productive resources.

In Africa, the gender gap is even wider and the situation is more complex due to the cultural and traditional context which is anchored in beliefs, norms and practices which breed discrimination and feminized poverty. There is growing evidence that the number of women in Africa living in poverty has increased disproportionately to that of men. Women's participation in the market economy has increased, especially in the informal sector, however at the same time women's domestic workloads have not declined. Women in Africa continue to be primarily responsible for such activities as the care of children and the elderly members of the household, cooking and cleaning, fetching water and firewood and managing the household in general. This is especially true for poor women who do not have the resources to hire additional labour to take over some of the household responsibilities when they engage in market activities. [33]

CHAPTER 3 THE PROSPECT OF GLOBALIZATION OF WOMEN EMPOWERMENT

3.1 The contribution of women in globalization on the economy.

Since women account for half of any country's talent base, empowering their participation in the workforce greatly enhances productivity and fosters economic growth. In fact, World Bank studies show that development strategies focusing on gender equality see stronger economic growth than gender-neutral strategies. Throughout the world, women represent a substantial, underutilized force for sustainable development. In Asia, for example, women are responsible for 50% of agricultural output, while nearly 80% of the agricultural labor in Africa market is female. The strategy for economic empowerment, according to the World Bank is twofold: making the market work for women and empowering women in the market. Supporting the economic empowerment of women is not just good company policy; it actually benefits the corporate world. Firms that employ women in leadership positions have better performance and higher profits. And, contrary to what might be believed, supporting female employment actually has a positive impact on family life and encourages women to have more children. Countries with family-oriented practices and government funded healthcare have both more working women and higher birth rates than those without gender equality policies, an important consideration for countries with aging populations.

Gender equality is not just a lofty aspiration anymore; it is the necessary missing link for sustainable development. Women, on average, reinvest up to 90% of income into their households. Reducing gender inequality gives women more money to spend on food, housing and education – crucial components for reducing poverty and promoting sustainable development. The corporate world increasingly realizes the importance of gender equality policies, with more firms looking for guidance on voluntarily reporting and improving their gender equality policies in the workplace, the

supply chain and the community. The consensus is growing: getting more women into the workforce is the cure to many economic ills and imperative to sustainable development. The table below show the total labour force and agriculture labour force from 2016 to 2020. [34, 35]

Table 8 Total labour force and agriculture labour force, annual, 2016-2020

Year		2016		2017		2018		2019		2020	
Sex		Both	Female	Both	Female	Both	Femal	Both	Femal	Both	Female
Economy	Sector	Sex		Sex		Sex	e	sex	e	Sex	
Developing	All sector	2,823,547	1,077,831	2,861,844	1,092,013	2,899,441	1,105,875	2,936,501	1,119,484	2,973,096	1,132,894
	Agriculture	1,309,952	565,127	1,312,087	566,278	1,313,419	567,050	1,314,128	567,515	1,314,369	567,728
Developed	All sector	525,907	238,070	527,249	238,759	528,478	239,386	529,673	239,990	530,859	240,581
	Agriculture	13,151	4,765	12,710	6,604	12,278	4,444	11,866	4,299	11,466	4,148

Source: <http://unctadstat.unctad.org>

Conclusion

From the findings of this study, as well as present research on the topic, globalization politics with Women Empowerment, there is strong indication that men are given more attention than women in the society. Productive employment and decent work in developing countries, including in fragile contexts, are the main routes out of poverty for both women and men. Women's participation in the labour market can be increased by addressing the constraints and barriers women face accessing work, including public employment programs, and by providing well-focused vocational training. Social protection measures can enhance the productivity and participation of poor women in the labour market by reducing their vulnerability to livelihood risks and economic shocks.

Women experience barriers in almost every aspect of work including:

- whether they have paid work at all,
- the type of work they obtain or are excluded from,
- the availability of support services such as childcare,
- their pay, benefits and conditions of work,
- the insecurity of their jobs or enterprises,
- Their access to vocational training.

Almost two-thirds of employed women in developing countries are in vulnerable jobs, as own-account or unpaid family workers, as casual agricultural laborers at the bottom of a global value chain, as workers in urban factories and workshops or as domestic servants. Structural and cultural factors make it more difficult for women to access vocational training programs due to their caregiving responsibilities and societal expectations about which jobs are suitable. One example of an effective vocational program is the Jóvenes en Acción scheme that was implemented in Colombia from 2002-2005. It provided on-the-job training and stipends for women with children so that

they could participate. There are initiatives in a number of countries to regulate and professionalize domestic work as a means of ensuring decent work. Domestic/household workers, who are mainly women, are amongst the least recognised and protected workers. Worldwide they share common characteristics, most notably their isolation, invisibility and lack of recognition and of workers' rights. Women make up half of the migrant labour force in Asia and Latin America. By creating new economic opportunities, migration can promote economic independence and status for women workers. Studies indicate that migrant women workers contribute to the development of both sending and receiving countries. Remittances from their incomes account for as much as 10% of the GDP in some countries. These monetary investments used for food, housing, education and medical services along with newly acquired skills of returnees, can potentially contribute significantly to poverty reduction and provide safety nets that sustain communities in their home countries. Yet, while migration can bring new employment and opportunities, it also bears great risks for women, many of whom end up at the lower end of the job market.

To achieve women's economic empowerment, bilateral and multilateral donors need to improve co-ordination of objectives, target beneficiaries, benchmarks and indicators for performance and impact. When donor agencies are facing severe financial constraints, it is cost-effective to explore innovative approaches to funding including pooling resources to scale up approaches which have been proven to work. Improved co-ordination is essential if women's economic empowerment programs are to graduate from the piloting to the scaling up phase. This approach is in line with commitments in the Paris Declaration and the Accra Agenda for Action.

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