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Quarterly Bulletin of the Vienna NGO Committee on the Family

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Vienna NGO Committee on the Family

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Dear Readers of Families International,

Endeavours to develop and sustain inclusive societies world-wide will need a concerted effort by the United Nations and its various agencies, the commitment of governments of member states of the United Nations, the input of academics and academic institutions, in cooperation with a bottom-up approach by Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) world-wide.

This 107th issue of Families International focuses, amongst others, on a text emanating from a United Nations Expert Group Meeting (EGM) on 'Family Policies for Inclusive Societies' held on May 15th - May 16th 2018, at the United Nations Headquarters in New York.

The text entitled: 'Families and Inclusive Societies in Africa' is from Prof. Monde Makiwane of the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) in Pretoria, South Africa.

Further included in this issue No. 107, are texts from other United Nations agencies relating to families, and from Member Organisations of the Committee, as well as a list of recent and upcoming events.

Sadly, this issue also contains an appreciation of the endeavours of the former United Nations Secretary General, Kofi Annan, for the well-being of humanity, not seldom, in close cooperation between the United Nations and Civil Society, who died on August 18th 2018, at the age of eighty.

Sincerely,

Peter Crowley Ph.D.

Editor

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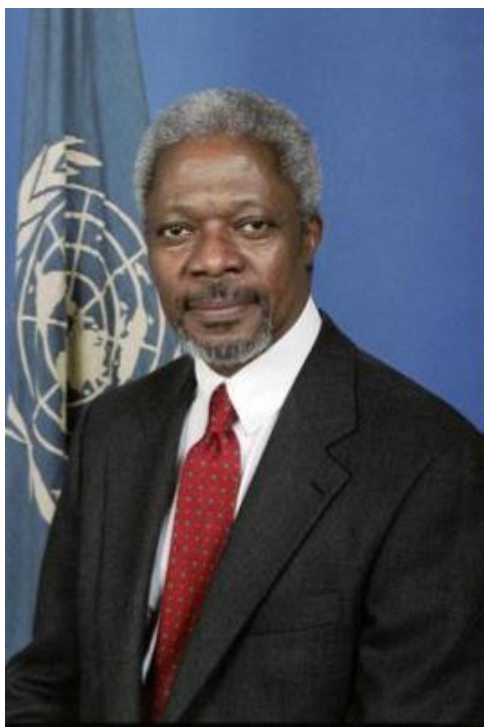
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From the Vienna NGO Committee on the Family

Kofi Annan 1938 - 2018



UN Photo Milton Grant

Kofi Annan, the United Nations Secretary-General from 1997 to 2007 sadly passed away on Saturday August 18th 2018, at the age of eighty.

The United Nations has always respected and appreciated the impact and contributions, world-wide, of Civil Society Organisations to the well-being of families and humanity in general. Kofi Annan further strengthened the relationship between the United Nations and Civil Society by inviting 1300 representatives of Civil Society world-wide to the United Nations General Assembly in May 2000 to four days of deliberation during the Millennium Forum. A representative of the Vienna NGO Committee on the Family also participated in the deliberations.

The Millennium Forum preceded the Millennium Summit in September 2000 at the United Nations General Assembly, with the attendance of 149 Heads of State and Government and high-ranking officials from over 40 further countries.

It is perhaps worth reflecting on some excerpts of the address Kofi Annan made to the representatives of Civil Society Organisations at the opening of that Millennium Forum, in the United Nations General Assembly chamber, which are just as much relevant today as they were then:

“Communications technology has enabled you to connect and interact across almost all frontiers. You have understood that problems without passports require blueprints without borders. [...] In the world of the twenty-first century, not only people and nations are interconnected; issues are too.

And so just as each NGO has understood the need for global action to advance its particular cause, so many of you are starting to look beyond the single issue -- however big it may be -- to the bigger and more complex reality we live in today; to the link between the local and the global. [...]

Billions of people are currently marginalized. Until they become part of the new global community, you will not be able to reach them, to help them, or to mobilize them.

But it is within our power to extend the new opportunities to all. We must now summon the will.

You probably already know that I have asked Member States to make this their priority when they gather at the Millennium Summit in September. [...]

Today, I am asking you NGOs to be both leaders and partners: where necessary, to lead and inspire governments to live up to your ideals; where appropriate, to work with governments to achieve their goals. [...]

You can help us bridge the digital divide, which at present is excluding whole regions from the benefits of information technology. Half the human race has yet to make or receive a phone call, let alone use a computer. Less than one per cent of all Africans have used the Internet. [...]

Whatever voice you use to answer the demands of this complex age, common to them all is this: by translating your concerns into collective action, you will be heard more loudly. By working through consensus rather than confrontation, you will be involved more closely. By forging alliances rather than risk competition, you will pool your resources more effectively. By looking beyond special interests to the common interest, by making the connection between the local and the global, you will make a difference more widely. [...]

I thank you all for listening to me; for being here; and above all, for making this Millennium year, 55 years after the birth of our United Nations, the time when "we the peoples" have the chance to find common ground again. I very much look forward to hearing the outcome of your deliberations."

In 2002 Kofi Annan set up a panel of eminent persons on United Nations Civil Society Relations, which became known as

the Cardoso Panel, named after the former President of Brazil, Fernando Enrique Cardoso. As Secretary General, Kofi Annan gave a Report to the General Assembly (GA) on the Cardoso Panel in September 2004. The executive summary of this Report to the GA, stated amongst others: "Expanding and deepening the relationship with NGOs will further strengthen both the United Nations and the intergovernmental debates on issues of global importance."

As is already well known NGOs which are accredited with the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations (ECOSOC) are welcome to submit both written and oral statements to the United Nations Commission for Social Development which meets each year in New York, usually in the month of February.

The address by Kofi Annan to the Millennium Forum in May 2000, and a later Expert Group Meeting at the United Nations, inspired a study carried out by the Vienna NGO Committee on the Family, to 'Document Contributions of Civil Society Organisations to the Well-Being of

Families' world-wide. This study was presented at the United Nations on the International Day of Families (IDF) on May 15th 2004 to observe the 10th Anniversary of the International Year of the Family (IYF) www.10yearsIYF.org

A study update, carried out ten years later by the Vienna NGO Committee on the Family to observe the 20th Anniversary of IYF, was also presented to the United Nations on the IDF May 15th 2014 www.20yearsIYF.org

Koffi Annan, a true friend, not only of Civil Society, will be sadly missed by so many worldwide for his untiring endeavours on behalf of the well-being of humanity.

VIENNA NGO COMMITTEE ON THE FAMILY



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FULL COMMITTEE MEETING

UNITED NATIONS
VIENNA INTERNATIONAL CENTRE

Monday November 5th 2018

CONFERENCE ROOM CO234

INTERNATIONAL FORUM

13.00 – 15.00

[Including Discussion with Presenter & Participants]

‘Socially Disadvantaged Families in a Rich Country – Digital Media Usage and Mediation Practices’

**Philip Sinner, M.A.
University of Salzburg**

Philip Sinner, M.A. is a research associate and lecturer at the Department of Communications, University of Salzburg. His research interests concern aspects of audio-visual and online communication with a special focus on social media, younger people, sports and soccer as well as on processes of media socialisation. Since 2011 he is a member of the European Research Network EU Kids Online and of the www.saferinternet.at advisory board. Since 2016 he is a committee member of the Austrian No Hate Speech Movement. He is early-career scholars’ representative of the German Communication Association (DGPUK) Division Media Sport and Sport Communication (since 2018) and of the European Communication Research and Education Association (ECREA) Temporary Working Group, Children Youth and Media (since 2014).

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Deputy Secretary: Dr. Peter Crowley, International Council of Psychologists
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Board Members:
Prof. Dr. Wolfgang Mazal, University of Vienna,
Dr. Maria Riehl, Women’s Federation for World Peace, Dr. Eleonora
Teixeira Da Costa Rossoll, Federation of Catholic Family Associations
Gerald Williams, Latter Day Saints Charities

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Philip Sinner is also a fellow, since 2011, of Ingrid Paus-Hasebrink's longitudinal project on media-socialisation of socially disadvantaged children and adolescents, which was originally launched in 2005. This project is also the basis of his presentation.

Coffee Break 15.00 – 15.30

15:30 - 17.00: ADMINISTRATIVE SESSION

- (i) Approval of the Agenda
- (ii) Approval of the Minutes of the Full Committee Meeting May 7th 2018
- (iii) Report of the Chairperson & Discussion with Participants
- (iv) Financial Report
- (v) Report of the Auditor
- (vi) The Digital Networks of the Committee [Background & Relevance]
- (vii) Reports from Member Organisations
- (viii) Any other Business
- (ix) Date and Place of next Full Committee Meeting: May 2019

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Gerald Williams, Latter Day Saints Charities

From the United Nations

Families and Inclusive Societies in Africa

By Monde Makiwane and Chamamah J
Kaunda, Human Sciences Research Council,
South Africa

Introduction

Besides being a central aspect to the 16th sustainable development goals (SDG 16) and their achievement, promoting inclusive societies may also be regarded as the bedrock of the other objectives and targets of the SDG 16, including peace, justice and strong and inclusive institutions. The problems that SDG 16, among others, seek to redress have identifiable and strong connections to the absence of socially inclusive societies, social formations, structures and institutions. Underlying this, is the absence of equal opportunities for every member and group in society irrespective of their origins, background, class, ethnicity, race, gender and other markers of identity. Yet, equal opportunities is, perhaps, the essential defining element of an inclusive society, and makes it possible for all members of a society to fully attain their human potential (United Nations Department of Social Affairs - UNDESA, 2009). It provides the necessary conditions for every member of society to participate in every aspect of social life – economic, cultural, political, civic and all, and provides the platform for engaging and ending exclusion and poverty (UNDESA, 2009). However, at the heart of any society and the attainment of any sustainable developmental objectives in a societal context, is the family and its recognition as a fundamental social institution, where the building of a society begins (Carlson, 1999).

The African family charters unambiguously recognize the family institution as a foundation of society. This is in line with the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) guiding principles, which recognized the family as the basic unit of society, and thus societies are encouraged to strengthen this institution. The African Charter on Human and People's Rights as well as other regional and country specific

charters also endorses the family as the natural unit, foundational basis and pillar of society (Department of Social Development - DSD, 2012). The African Charter further urges states to take care of family health and morale (Organization of African Unity - OAU, 1982). Although in the African charters there is a call for recognition of traits that have always been associated with the traditional African family, the fact that families on the continent have diversified both in form and in their function, has also been acknowledged. It is thus important to begin by demonstrating how the notion of African family has evolved.

African Perspectives on Family

The diversity of family formations in Africa is clearly illustrated by the expansive definitions of family in African family charters, which accommodate both the traditional African family and emerging family forms. While “Family” and “household” are sometimes used interchangeably, because of their close relationship to each other, in most African societies they are likely not to connote the same social unit. It is common for members of the same family (including members of the same nuclear family or a member of an extended family that functions as a close unit) to straddle more than one household. In turn, members of the same household are likely not to be of the same nuclear family. In Black South Africa, for instance, children are taken care of by an extended family who are not necessarily biological parents. Thus, in 2012 some 531 000 orphaned children were cared for by foster parents, most of whom are members of the extended family who in turn receive social assistance from the government. According to the Department of Social Development, approximately 80% of foster carers are extended family members (South African Institute of Race Relations, 2013, p. 660).

Family in the African context often refers to what in western terms would be the extended family. A family is generally constituted by three processes, which are blood relations, sexual unions or adoption.

Societally sanctioned sexual unions between (two and in cases of polygamous unions, which are not uncommon in Africa, more than two) adults, and on the other hand, blood relations in Africa typically constitute wider relationship than those that are characteristically in western nuclear families. African families are typically extended to aunts, uncles, grandparents, cousins and other relatives that form a family that functions in unison. The broad concepts of family in many African societies is illustrated in Mandela's autobiography "Long Walk to Freedom" where he states, "My mother presided over three huts at Qunu, which as I remember, were always filled with babies and children of my relations. In fact, I hardly recall any occasion as a child when I was alone. In African culture, the sons and daughters of one's aunts and uncles are considered brothers and sisters, not cousins." In several African communities, family is not limited to space and time, thus, it cuts across generations, relatives living far and near, the living and those who have joined the ancestors, as well as the ancestors themselves who continue to play a role in the lives of the living (Lugira, 2009). This may be viewed as a very inclusive family system, which models the broader inclusive nature and type of African communities, creating a family-like lens through which several social actors are included and relationships interpreted. Obligations to wider kin vary with time, and typically more widely invoked during times of crises, or during certain life cycle events such as funerals and this remains a common practice in extended families on the continent, despite social change.

Other dimensions of the family institution and systems in Africa, as observed by Therborn (2006) which offer both challenges and opportunities for SDG 16 in Africa include the strong patriarchal nature of such systems, with different levels of sexual permissiveness; the common practice of polygamy, and the cultural significance of family lineages and fertility. While patriarchy have negative implications for justice and gender equality, understanding the values associated with

lineage and fertility and how this shapes notion of family, inclusion and exclusion in terms of belonging and access to resources could enhance efforts towards achieving inclusive societies. For instance, children are highly desired in many African communities and loved, and their presence have far-reaching consequences for social status, respect, quality of life, perception and veneration of an individual – in life and death. Thus, infant mortality and infertility are among the worse tragedies to befall an individual, the family and lineage (Siegel, 1999). Siegel (1999) also notes that lineage in the African family context is not only biological, nor is it always objectively genealogical, but can be sociological as well. This means that lineage and kinship can be edited. People can be inserted, or insert themselves into certain lineages, often symbolically, but in a very meaningful and effective way. In addition, the notion of family often expands and depending on place and context, non-blood relations and other kinds of relationships may assume familial significance and meaning. Families are expanded through marriages, for instance, and it is also not uncommon for a close friendship to mature into 'family', or a friend to be named, regarded and treated as family in acknowledgement of length of friendship and felt levels of closeness, trust and reliability. This is one way through which the family is linked to the broader community. As Siqwana-Ndulo (1998) stated, the institutions of family, marriage and household in African societies revolved around community. Thus, not only is the family formation broader, its function is grossly enhanced by being interlocked with the general community.

Although the salience of family ties may be situational, they are rarely entirely lost, and often, take priority over certain kinds of ties in many instances, despite changes brought about by modernisation that sometimes create a rift between family members. The usefulness of these lasting family ties is often seen in the ways deportees are able to easily reintegrate into their families. Siegel (1999) cites the example of the over one million Ghanaian migrants deported from Nigeria in the 1980s, who, while western aids agencies planned intervention, reintegrated into their families and communities within two weeks.

This is also seen among African deportees from several parts of the world.

As stated above, in recognizing both traditional and contemporary family forms, the charters did not imply a homogenous static institution but acknowledge that social changes have affected African family formations and structures over time. Thus, it expressed a need for family policies to acknowledge and embrace adaptations in families. The overview of families in Africa reveals that significant adaptations have happened over the years, brought about by a number of factors, which include globalisation, modernisation, migration and the HIV/AIDS pandemic. Nevertheless, multi-generational and extended families remain the most common family structure among the majority of the African people. Unfortunately, the recognition of “African family” in policy documents has not been translated into social policies and programmes that take into cognizance the African extended families that has increasingly been influenced by mobility. Increasing mobility and migration have been such that there are fewer co-residing primary family units. Thus, families may live far apart or be dispersed ‘across national borders and stretched kinship networks across vast geographic space’ (Turner, 2002, p. 397). As Richter and Amoateng (2003) urge “.....[G]iven the range of possibilities for family formations, accepting this multiplicity of social relations within and across households would offer an improved understanding of livelihood strategies and more accurate theorising of contemporary South Africa’s social terrain.” Thus, it is important to analyse the ways in mobility is shaping African understanding of family.

Family Movements and Challenges

Mobility is a broad concept of human movement that includes movements between dwellings or households even if it is within the same place. On the other hand, migration, in its classic usage, connotes a permanent movement between two clearly demarcated areas. Migration is usually classified as international or internal/domestic. It should be noted though, that the difference between ‘national’ and ‘international’ migration is not clear-cut in Africa. This is due to a number of reasons,

including the fact that most borders on the continent are porous, as well as the fact that in most cases current borders which were set during colonial times, typically divide extended families and linguistic groups. Because of vast disparities between African regions, and civil strife in some regions, mass migration across political borders for the purpose of survival is a common feature. Both mobility and migration are common in African families that function as a unit. It should be noted though, that “migration” as is commonly used nowadays does not necessarily connote a permanent movement. Kok, O’Donovan, Bouare & van Zyl (2003) have broadly defined migration as the range of patterns of movements of people from one place to another, within a particular period. According to Kalule-Sabiti and Kahimbara (1998), migration ‘proper’ and ‘labour’ migration are the two main constituents of migration in Southern Africa. Labour migration, is associated with rural to urban movements and is usually circular in nature. This type of migration has been a major feature of African economic systems given the continent’s political history. The third form of family movements are those where families continually straddle the place of origin and their places of destination. Currently, not only are some rural-urban movements in Africa circular in nature, a recent trend is that many people straddle two or more places simultaneously. It is common in Africa for families to straddle areas of origin and areas of work, moving fluidly between the two, and creating divided loyalties, and this has an impact on family.

Inequalities bequeathed on the continent by colonialists have never been reversed, thus there have been consistent movements on the continent from economically deprived areas to areas that are economically more stable or better off. Rural-urban movements remain common as rural areas lack basic infrastructure and have low economic activity. In most African countries, this means that the major movement stream is towards capital cities or seaport cities. Although people might straddle their new areas and their areas of origin for some time, the dominant flow is usually from economically deprived areas to areas that are economically well endowed.

International migration is usually a one-way stream from countries that are having an economic meltdown or suffering from social strife, to more stable or more developed countries. Skilled individuals are the most mobile in any society. As a result, they tend to move in their numbers to better performing areas, followed by people of lower skill levels. These movements have significantly produced new forms of families, ties, networks and extended families. Additionally, because of the one-way stream, urban growth in Africa is averaging at about 5% per year. The urban population is doubling every 15 years. Due to this process, the urban population is expected to grow substantially in the next 30 years.

An important feature of rural-urban migration in Africa is that it is gender biased, with more men migrating, leaving women and children behind in the rural areas (Khan, et al. 2008). This is still the case in spite of increasingly more proportions of women who are joining the migration streams to the cities in search of remunerable work as the demand for female labour is on the increase. The number of women who are joining migration streams has accelerated the increase in the numbers of the city dwellers relative to rural dwellers; approximately 412 million city dwellers are located in Africa, while population projections estimate that 60% of the African population will be living in cities by the year 2025 (Coleman, 2011). In addition to spatial disparities, high mobility is also influenced by the fact that the continent is experiencing a youth bulge. Youth is characterised by a high degree of mobility in any society. As young people move out of family homes, they are also likely to leave their childhood areas and in some cases do not have a stable place of abode.

There is also a problem with the integration of migrants into the local communities. Generally, in most communities there is a fear of being inundated by outsiders (Smelser and Baltus, 2001). In spite of this, only extreme cases get most publicity, with the xenophobic attacks in some countries that are recipients of large groups of migrants, South Africa being an example. For instance, a study conducted by Gordon et al. (2012) shows that xenophobic feelings in South Africa are widespread across the socio-demographic

and economic spectrum. Most communities would prefer that outsiders do not join them and, if need be, the new arrivals must be assimilated as quickly as possible, with a minimum of fuss, into the communities. The fact that workers are, by virtue of their employed status, relatively better off financially than many of the existing local community members is also a problem. The migrants feel local communities see improvements dedicated to migrant workers as in competition to their own interests and needs. The schism between new city dwellers and local communities generally discourage many from bringing their families to their places of work.

Thus, families have turned to modern technology as an instrument for overcoming spatial disruption. The proliferation of mobile phones on the continent has played an important role in retaining strong bond with relatives in the place of origin, thus reducing familial disconnection (Alzouma, 2008, Hahn and Kibora, 2008, de Bruijn, Nyamnjoh, and Brinkman, 2009). In addition to making communication easier in areas where communication was difficult, it is growingly being used for money transfers. The easy connectivity enabled by mobile technology is thus a lifeblood that maintains the translocal relationships (Hughes and Lonie 2007, Burrel, 2008). Physical movements among families that are geographically separated remains difficult. Modern technology helps families to continue to function across geographical spaces. In spite of proliferation of mobile technology, use of mobile technology remains expensive on the continent. Cheaper means of communicating through internet and mobile phones have become significant means for sustaining spatial family bonds. More importantly, as many families are distributed over many spaces, twinning of public institutions across geographical spaces will make extended families to function better social inclusion.

Relevance of SDG16 and Family Policies to African Family

In the above paragraphs, a certain movement has been highlighted: from the basic, generally inclusive broad family unit and community, to the broader society marked by

mobility and migration, and which mirrors several forms of exclusivity and interruption of family bonds and structures. However, the problems and pointers to the non-inclusive nature of contemporary societies are much broader. The PwC network briefing on the SDG 16, highlight some of these challenges. These include the fact that more than a billion people in the world today suffer from conflict and fragility. There is a fear that if institutional building and reduction of poverty continues at the current snail pace, about half a billion people will join the number living below the poverty line by 2030. In addition, more than half of the world's population live in countries with serious corruption issues, which continues to weaken judicial and political systems and destroy people's trust in the state as an engine of development (PwC, 2016). Several indicators such as feelings of safety, prison population, efficiency of governments, property rights, and the number of births registered, inclusion of indigenous peoples and minorities, intergroup cohesion, interpersonal safety and strong civil society show that much more is still to be desired in terms of attaining the SDG 16 by the 2030 deadline. African countries particularly score below 50% on several of these indicators (PwC, 2016; Nicolai et al 2016). In their regional scorecard report, Nicolai et al., (2016) observe that unless major changes and reversal occur, some of the SDGs, including 16, are not going to be achieved because current trends show them to be deteriorating both regionally and globally.

The United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs report (UNDESA, 2009), understood social inclusion as a process through which equal opportunities are made available for everyone to realise their full potential, and conditions created for active and full participations of people in all aspects of social life. It is at the same time a process through which societies seek to bring an end to social exclusion and poverty. This can be achieved through social cohesion and social integration. For social inclusion to be achieved, the UNDESA argues that certain elements are necessary and must be pursued. These include the rule of law; civic, political, economic and social participation, universal access to social infrastructure and facilities, strong civil society, equal access to

public information, equity in wealth and resource distribution, effective leadership, education, respect for human rights and freedoms, and the creation of a positive narrative about the inclusive society of the future (UNDESA, 2009).

UNDESA's framework of inclusive societies has an affinity within African extended family. The African extended family is an institution that functions as a locus for social inclusion and individual's resource for sustainable development. It is an institution for mutual help and reciprocity, nurturing and sustainable development. While African societies have several challenges that promote exclusion, the positive values enshrined in the extended family institution are critical in promoting inclusive societies. The notion and practices around family discussed earlier, indicates that inclusion is a central tenet of African family life and meaning, and engenders different levels of participation in the family. However, more importantly, the family institution is the foundation and at the same time reflects the much-valued notion of Ubuntu, which has been conceptualized as inclusion, from an African perspective (Shanyanana and Waghid, 2016). While a highly discussed and almost overused concept is the principles and practices Ubuntu. The notion emphasizes the fundamental humanity and connectedness of everyone as the bases for life, individuality and community. Thus, by nature, this is a highly inclusive framework upon which African family is ground. It also promotes inclusive society as imagined by the SDG 16. The intention here is not to suggest that African societies at any historical stage perfectly enjoyed such inclusivity or that the notion itself does not contain some forms of exclusion (Shanyanana and Waghid, 2016). Rather, it is to suggest that this notion, which is interwoven with the understanding of family in the African context, offer a perspective from which to understand, justify and pursue inclusiveness of society. Ramose (2002), explains that the notion of Ubuntu implies that one's humanity is affirmed through the humanity of other people, and this forms the basis for family relationships that are nurturing, respectful and life enhancing. Ramose (2002) notes that faced with a

choice between wealth and preservation of a human's life, Ubuntu demands choosing the preservation of life. This principle demands respect for life, respect for the happiness and prosperity of others, the welfare of extended family members, and above all, that of the community as a whole.

These values are learned and begin to be enacted from the family before they are manifested in the community. Thus, family, from an African perspective plays a fundamental role in the achievement of inclusive societies. Being a microcosm of the broader society and community, it shapes the individuals for participation in society from an early age. The family exposes people to their earliest learnings in social and personal values, and broken family institutions usually influence other social institutions. While emerging ideas in the west especially among elite groups attempt to view the family as simply one among several institutions, which has lost its traditional significance in society, the family has remains consistent as the basic, natural unit of African societies (Carlson, 1999). Thus, social inclusiveness can both start and end with the family. The family can be a great resource as well as an impediment to achieving the goals of inclusivity.

Inclusive Societies Agenda: A Way Forward

This has tremendous implication for policies aimed to achieve the SDGs. Policies provide the framework, course of action and guidance for the achievement of public good (Reimer et al., 2009). Thus, the development and analysis of family policies targeting the goal of social inclusion are necessary the achievement of the SDG, considering the established role and place of family in the society. The UNDESA, Division for Social Policy and Development (2016) argues that family policy and design and implementation for any of the SDGs needs to keep in mind the diversity of families, partnerships with non-state participants, ways to include families in the design of the policies and how to inform families about the policies. Involving families in the design of policies is particularly important for building inclusive societies and achieving he targets of the SDG 16. This will give the policy makers an opportunity to capture family values and transform the

society from the grassroots. Moreover, policies that in which the families targeted are involved in the design are more likely to be successful. Family policies should also seek to understand the understanding of inclusiveness and family in African communities, this will provide the necessary nuances for successful policy framing and implementation.

POLICY OPTIONS

More efforts must be made to translate the recognition family policies into other social policies and social programmes. Thus, societies should strive for the following:

- Continued recognition of the family institution as a foundation of society.
- Recognition and affirmation of complexities and diversity of families.
- Affirming the extended family as an institution that can function as a locus for social inclusion and individual's resource for sustainable development.
- Promotion of positive family values, which include the value of Ubuntu. The notion emphasizes the fundamental humanity and connectedness of everyone as the bases for life, individuality and community.
- Promotion of affordable communication technology and transport systems that assist interaction between family members that are stretched across vast geographic space to connect with each other.

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<https://www.un.org/development/desa/family/meetings-events/family-policies-for-inclusive-societies.html>

A 65 page background paper for the EGM on 'Family Policies for Inclusive Societies' is also available at:

https://www.un.org/development/desa/family/wp-content/uploads/sites/23/2018/05/BACKGROUND-PAPER.SDGs1611.FINAL_-1.pdf

From UNICEF



Innocenti Research Brief

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Zimbabwe's Harmonized Cash Transfer Programme Improves Food Security and Reduces Reliance on Food Gifts

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INTRODUCTION

In 2016, approximately 815 million people were chronically undernourished globally. In recent years, food security has worsened in some parts of the world, including sub-Saharan Africa. In Zimbabwe, latest estimates show that about 45% of the total population are undernourished¹. To address the challenge of growing food insecurity, effective social protection programmes must be implemented and scaled-up. Cash transfers are one such programme, the primary objectives of which often include poverty alleviation and food insecurity reduction. This research study utilized longitudinal data collected for the impact evaluation of Zimbabwe's Harmonized Social Cash Transfer Programme (HSCT), an unconditional cash transfer that targets ultra-poor, labour-constrained households. It accomplishes two things: (1) it provides evidence on the relative merits of using an aggregate consumption expenditure measure

screened using the targeting survey fielded by Zimbabwe's national statistical agency, ZIMSTAT. The HSCT is gradually being rolled out and it is anticipated that eventually it will eventually cover the entire country.

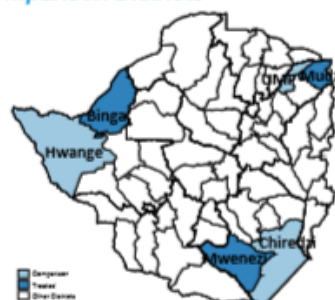
STUDY DESIGN

The phased roll out of the HSCT allowed those households which were scheduled to enter the programme at a later date to be used as a potential comparison group. The programme operates at an administrative unit level, known as a 'ward', which is one level below 'district' level. For the evaluation treatment group, wards were selected from Phase 2 areas, which entered the programme in 2013. For the comparison group, wards were selected from areas that were scheduled for Phase 4 expansion and that were geographically close to

THE HARMONIZED SOCIAL CASH TRANSFER PROGRAMME

Zimbabwe's HSCT Programme was introduced in 2011 and is the country's primary social protection programme. It is an unconditional cash transfer programme, whereby beneficiary households receive a bi-monthly cash transfer that varies with household size. On average, the transfer value is about 20% of total pre-programme household consumption expenditure. Beneficiary eligibility criteria are two-fold: food poverty and labour-constrained status of households. Eligible households were identified through a detailed targeting census, whereby all households are

Figure 1. Map of Zimbabwe - Treatment and Comparison Districts



Source: Constructed using Stata 13.1. The darker outlines in the map are province boundaries. Shape files obtained from <http://www.gadm.org>

1 FAO, IFAD, UNICEF, WFP and WHO. 2017. The State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World 2017. Building resilience for peace and food security. Rome, FAO: <http://www.fao.org/3/a-17695e.pdf>



The study team selected comparison wards such that they match the treatment wards on five characteristics: forest cover; nearness to main roads; resistance to shocks; nearness to business centres; and water sources. The sample includes 60 treatment wards and 30 comparison wards. For each treatment ward pair with a given score, a comparison ward with the same score in the same stratum was selected to serve as the 'matched' comparison ward. Out of the identified eligible households, the evaluation team randomly selected 34–60 households in each ward, using the random number generator tool in Excel. This generated a sample of 3,063 households across 90 wards. Data were collected through a detailed household survey, conducted at baseline and 12-month follow-up.

RESULTS

Food security measurement has seen a shift from objective measures, such as food expenditure or consumption, to experiential measures such as the Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS), developed by the Food and Nutritional Technical Assistance (FANTA) project of USAID.² The HFIAS is an indicator of Food Security, and is a 9-item scale, with a reference period of the past four weeks where households are asked to rate their experience on a scale from 'rarely' to 'often', generating a total score from 0 to 27. It goes beyond a food expenditure measure by capturing not only present food consumption status but also the uncertainty and vulnerability associated with

maintaining or improving that status. For ease of comparison with other indicators, HFIAS is positively coded so that higher scores indicate greater food security.

The longitudinal sample was utilized to conduct an individual fixed effects model to estimate the impact of the HSCT on household food security. To control for attitudinal bias in the Food Security Score, we restricted the sample to only those households where the main respondent had not changed from 2013 to 2014. Table 1 shows a statistically significant impact on Food Security and Diet Diversity³, which have increased by 1.7 points and 0.7 points (an approximate increase of 13% and 12% increase respectively over baseline averages). However, the impact estimate on per capita food consumption is not statistically significant. In addition, it was found that the number of households consuming individual components of the 12 food groups that make up the diet diversity score had increased. One reason why these increases are not consistently reflected in the food consumption measure is that it hides dynamic activity taking place within the household as the household makes choices to obtain food from different sources. Even though the treatment and comparison groups may on average spend roughly the same amount on food, the cash transfer beneficiaries have more cash available. This additional cash allows them to: (1) approach the market to diversify their food basket; (2) diversify own-production across food groups, and; (3) rely less on gifts as a source of food.

TABLE 1. INDIVIDUAL FIXED EFFECTS MODEL: IMPACT OF THE HSCT ON FOOD SECURITY MEASURES

	(1) Per Capita Food Consumption	(2) Household Food Security Score	(3) Household Diet Diversity Score
Impact Estimate	-0.452 (1.486)	1.790** (0.700)	0.673*** (0.222)
Observations	4001	4001	4001
Adjusted R-squared	0.010	0.189	0.167

Notes:

* p<0.10 **p<0.05 ***p<0.01

Standard errors clustered at the ward level in parentheses.

Estimations obtained from Individual Fixed effects OLS modelling. All estimations control for week of interview and a vector of cluster level prices

2 Coates, J., Swindale, A., and Bilinsky, P. 2007. Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) for measurement of household food access: indicator guide (v. 3). Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance Project, Academy for Educational Development, Washington, DC.

3 Diet Diversity Score is a widely used indicator of diet diversity, which measures the number of different food groups consumed over a given reference period with a score ranging from 0 to 12, since there are 12 food groups recommended for inclusion. See: Swindale, A., and Bilinsky, P., 2006. Household dietary diversity score (HDDS) for measurement of household food access: indicator guide. Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance Project, Academy for Educational Development, Washington, DC.

Table 2 provides impact estimates disaggregated by source. Just as in Table 1, while there is no impact on value of aggregate food consumption, this result hides the 37% increase in food purchases and 25% decline in food gifts. This pattern is true across the different food categories. To take one example, though there is no significant impact on value of total cereal consumption, there is significant activity behind this aggregate measure. The cash transfer has led to a 19% increase in cereal purchases. Almost all of this is, however, offset by a 22% reduction in gifts. Fruits, pulses and legumes, dairy, fats and sweets see a statistically significant increase in consumption, derived from own-production and purchases. Interestingly, gifts as a source of food have significantly decreased across several foodstuffs.

Additional analysis is conducted on the determinants of household food security and food consumption and shows that variables indicative of vulnerability (e.g. being labour constrained, not having planted a crop last season, relying on *maricho* (casual labour), or having suffered from an income shock), are important in explaining variation in the Food Security Score but do not explain variation in value of food consumption. The common theme across these variables is that they capture the uncertainty these households face with respect to food access. However, physical assets, household amenities, a steady wage, and monthly remittances, all factors that are relatively more stable, explained the variation in both value of food consumption and the Food Security Score.

TABLE 2. IMPACT ESTIMATES ON HOUSEHOLD FOOD EXPENDITURE, DISAGGREGATED BY SOURCE (LOG OF USD)				
	Total	Own	Purchases	Gifts
Cereals	-0.010 (0.047)	-0.026 (0.147)	0.188** (0.089)	-0.220*** (0.080)
Roots and Tubers	0.073 (0.102)	0.041 (0.072)	0.043 (0.032)	-0.006 (0.039)
Vegetables	-0.102 (0.071)	-0.113 (0.111)	0.209** (0.088)	-0.102 (0.106)
Fruits	0.266** (0.115)	0.249** (0.117)	0.059** (0.023)	-0.024 (0.036)
Meats	0.033 (0.109)	0.006 (0.088)	0.079 (0.066)	-0.091 (0.060)
Eggs	-0.040 (0.025)	-0.009 (0.022)	-0.020 (0.015)	-0.011* (0.006)
Fish	-0.009 (0.070)	-0.027 (0.030)	0.044 (0.054)	-0.013 (0.031)
Pulses and Legumes	0.400*** (0.111)	0.331*** (0.115)	0.021 (0.029)	0.090 (0.073)
Dairy	0.227** (0.096)	0.122* (0.066)	0.040 (0.040)	0.054 (0.049)
Fats	0.314*** (0.084)	0.056 (0.040)	0.322*** (0.081)	-0.050 (0.041)
Sweets	0.207*** (0.058)	0.007 (0.006)	0.286*** (0.059)	-0.082** (0.036)
Misc. (Condiments and Beverages)	0.116* (0.067)	0.022 (0.052)	0.209*** (0.056)	-0.101** (0.041)
Total	0.079 (0.054)	0.063 (0.082)	0.367*** (0.070)	-0.251** (0.105)

Notes:
* p<0.10 **p<0.05 ***p<0.01
Attrition-adjusted weighted results. Standard errors clustered at the Ward level in parentheses
Estimations use OLS difference-in-difference modelling among 5244 panel households. All estimations control for week of interview, baseline household size, main respondent's gender, age, education and marital status, strata, household demographic composition, and a vector of cluster level prices

Finally, the baseline survey was implemented between April and June, so that some households were interviewed just prior to harvest, and others during or just after. This presented the opportunity to divide the sample according to initial vs. peak harvest period, to understand if the standard set of socio-economic and demographic factors influenced food security differently in a relatively worse-off vs. better-off period. Being labour constrained weakened food security, but had no impact on value of food consumption in the pre-harvest period. This evidence supports the programme feature of the HSCT wherein eligibility of a household to become a beneficiary of the cash transfer is determined not just by poverty but also by its dependency ratio, a proxy for labour constraints status.

For additional information, please see: Bhalla, G., Handa S., Angeles, G., and Seidenfeld, D. (2018). The effect of cash transfers and household vulnerability on food security in Zimbabwe. *Food Policy*. 2018; 74:82-99.

The Transfer Project is a multi-organizational initiative of UNICEF, the UN Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), Save the Children UK and the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill in collaboration with national governments, and other national and international researchers. For a full list of partners and funders for the Zimbabwe impact evaluations see:

https://transfer.cpc.unc.edu/?page_id=1264

CONCLUSION

In summary, the two-period panel data used to evaluate impact of the HSCT in Zimbabwe found that household vulnerability correlates strongly with experienced food security. The cash transfer has strong positive impacts on Food Security and Diet Diversity Scores. However, there is no significant impact on aggregate value of food consumption. These labour-constrained and food-poor households depend on subsistence farming and gifts and aid to make up their total food basket. A disaggregated analysis by analyzing the three main sources of food consumption, own-production, markets, and gifts, finds that cash is used to obtain more food from the market and rely less on food gifts.

The post-2015 Sustainable Development Agenda has declared ending hunger and achieving food security as the second of its 17-goal agenda, to be achieved by 2030. To accurately monitor progress, we need to rely on multiple measures of food security, which include measures that capture the uncertainty and mental stress associated with food access. Thus, we need to go beyond measures such as aggregate value of household food consumption, which do not provide us with the complete picture of the household's vulnerability with respect to food. The findings also underline the important practice of utilizing labour-constrained status as an attribute for identifying programme beneficiaries.

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from EVIDENCE to POLICY



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Learning what works for better programs and policies

March 2018

BULGARIA: Does making early education free benefit disadvantaged children?

Giving children access to quality early education can help prepare them for primary school by strengthening their physical, cognitive and socio-emotional development. But many children, especially those from poor and otherwise disadvantaged families, don't have the opportunity to attend preschool. Their families may not be able to afford to send them, may not recognize the importance of early education or may not have access to a quality program. To help all children have the same opportunity to benefit from early education, some programs try to improve children's enrollment in preschool. But what's the most cost-effective way to do this and will all children benefit from earlier access to early childhood education programs?



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recognize the importance of early education or may not have access to a quality program. To help all children have the same opportunity to benefit from early education, some programs try to improve children's enrollment in preschool. But what's the most cost-effective way to do this and will all children benefit from earlier access to early childhood education programs?

rollment in preschool. But what's the most cost-effective way to do this and will all children benefit from earlier access to early childhood education programs?

These questions have particular relevance in Bulgaria, where enrollment among children from the Roma minority in early education programs for children aged three to six years

old lags behind that of other children, who also can face inequalities later on in educational opportunities. State programs in Bulgaria don't charge fees for five and six-year-old children in half-day programs, but they do charge for full day programs and for children aged three to four. The World Bank's Strategic Impact Evaluation Fund (SIEF) supported a study carried out with the Bulgaria-based Trust for Social Achievement to test whether covering the costs of preprimary education would boost enrollment and attendance. The evaluation found that removing fees substantially increased the likelihood both of children being registered in preschool and of attending preschool, while giving families small monthly financial incentives on top of free tuition didn't further improve enrollment. However, the Roma children who enrolled didn't show the same developmental progress as the Bulgarian children, and in some cases, had worse outcomes than children in the control group. Researchers will test children again, right before they enter primary school, to see if they are doing better after a second year of preschool. At the same time, the results have triggered additional research to better understand how to support Roma children as they transition to the classroom.

EDUCATION

Context

In Bulgaria, school is now compulsory for children aged five and six-years-old (known as preschool for children in this age group) and the government offers full-day and half-day programs. Full-day programs, which are preferred by most families, charge about 176 Bulgarian lev (or about U.S. \$112) a year. Half-day programs are free, but families are often asked to contribute monthly to cover transportation, food and school supplies. Because the number of full-day slots is limited, families that want to ensure availability enroll their children in schools' preschool programs at age three or four, which guarantees them a kindergarten slot when they're older. But school at this age isn't free. As a result, poor families in Bulgaria may be less likely to take advantage of early education programs when their children are younger, making it harder

for them to find full-day slots when their children are ready to start at age five. A 2011 European Union regional study looking at the situation of Roma populations in Bulgaria, Hungary, Romania, Slovakia and the Czech Republic found that while more than 75 percent of children aged three to six years old were in a preschool program, about 55 percent of Roma children weren't.

The Bulgarian-based Trust for Social Achievement, a local non-governmental organization created by the America for Bulgaria Foundation to fund programs for economically disadvantaged people, including Roma, worked with SIEF-supported researchers to design and evaluate strategies for increasing early childhood education participation among the poorest families in Bulgaria.

Intervention and Evaluation

The Trust for Social Achievement, in conjunction with local non-governmental organizations, preschools and municipal authorities, created the Springboard for Social Readiness program to identify cost-effective approaches for improving early childhood education enrollment and attendance for the poorest families. The program design included a randomized control trial to measure the impact of different financial incentives and an informational campaign about the importance of preprimary education. In particular, researchers wanted to test if including additional financial incentives generated an increase in preschool participation high enough to make this kind of policy option more effective than simply making preschool free.

- There are approximately 10-12 million Roma in Europe and the vast majority live in deep poverty.
- One third of Roma children in Eastern Europe go hungry at least once a month
- 80 percent of Roma parents report wanting a secondary education for their children, but less than a quarter of all Roma children finish high school.
- Bulgaria has one of the largest Roma populations in Europe with an estimated 700,000 Roma. *All numbers from report*

Using a list prepared by the Open Society Institute in 2007 of all Bulgarian communities with at least 10 Roma households, the research team identified 236 communities eligible for the study. To be included, a community had to have at least 25 children in the age range of two and five; a school providing preprimary education that was reachable on foot or through free public transportation and that had at least 15 new slots available; and study consent from the local mayor and school principal.

Researchers held a public lottery in June 2014 to randomize the 236 communities into different treatment groups. The lottery, held at a hotel in the capital, Sofia, was conducted in front of officials from the Ministry of Education, the national Association of Municipalities in Bulgaria, mayors, directors of full-day preschools, non-governmental organizations and others. The organizers videotaped and made the lottery available on YouTube to ensure full transparency.

Researchers employed a cross-cut design to test the impacts of providing information and easing financial constraints. Communities were randomly assigned to two groups—one that received information on the benefits of preprimary education and an introduction to the school system and school officials,

and one that received no information or introduction. Within each of these two groups, researchers further randomly assigned these communities to one of four groups. In one group of communities, preschool for children aged three to four became tuition-free, and any extra fees were fully covered by the program for all children aged three to six. In a second group, households qualified for the same cost-free preschool and received an additional BGN 7 per month (about \$4.20), conditional on their child's attendance. A third group of communities also qualified for cost-free preschool and received a larger monthly stipend of BGN 20 (\$12.50) conditional on attendance. A fourth group continued with no additional assistance for school fees or stipends. Thus, there were a total of eight experimental groups. These included: A control group that received nothing; a group that only received the information program; a group that received free preschool; a group that received free preschool plus the information campaign; a group that received free preschool plus a small conditional cash transfer; a group that received free preschool, a small conditional cash transfer and the information campaign; and a group that received free preschool plus a larger conditional cash transfer; a group that received free preschool, a larger conditional cash transfer; and the information campaign. The information intervention, organized by mainly Roma-led groups, consisted of five public community meetings held over 10 months. In total, 188 communities received the information campaign and 188 didn't, divided across the three treatment groups and one control group.

Sample population:

- Average child was 3.9 years old at start
- 44 percent of parents had not completed grade 4
- Half of parents reported some difficulty reading and writing Bulgarian
- Families were poor, with a monthly income of BGN 432 (\$260) at baseline, compared to the national average of BGN 957 (\$576)
- Only 61 percent of household heads were (self-) employed at baseline.

Prior to randomizing the communities into the different groups, researchers conducted a baseline survey to gather information on the households, such as employment, education, and literacy, along with perceptions of preschool and parental involvement in education activities. The survey, carried out in April 2014, covered all 5,772 households with eligible children

in the 236 communities. The endline survey took place in April-May 2015 and included three unannounced preschool checks during the April-May 2015 period. During the endline survey, the research team also collected child development data. Re-

searchers used the IDELA tool, developed by Save the Children, to measure both cognitive and non-cognitive skills, including language and early literacy, math and problem solving, socio-emotional development, and motor skills.

Results

Simply doing away with tuition costs and other fees turned out to be the most cost-effective approach for increasing preschool enrollment and attendance. Additional financial incentives didn't matter, nor did additional information.

Removing the costs for enrolling children aged three and six years old increased preschool enrollment of Bulgarian and minority Roma and Turkish children alike. Enrollment rose by 14 percentage points overall, or 19 percent, effectively cutting the fraction of unregistered children in half. Attendance, meanwhile, rose by 10 percentage points, or by 22 percent, when measured through unannounced visits to the school. In both cases, this was in comparison with children in the control group didn't have any financial support to access preschool and who didn't receive the information intervention. The informational meetings alone resulted in no statistically significant impacts on registration or attendance.

Making preschool free was enough to encourage families to register their children and send them to school. Offering parents additional conditional cash payments didn't lead to any increase in enrollment or attendance. Twinning the information campaign with free preschool didn't further increase registration or attendance, regardless of whether or not families also were offered conditional cash payments.

Making preschool free also led to increased attendance at the informational meetings.

The information campaign consisted of five community meetings over 10 months. The meetings, which were implemented by local non-governmental organizations, provided parents with information about the benefits of preschool in terms of future success for their children in school and afterwards. The meetings promoted interaction between teachers and school officials, and because they were held in the schools, parents had a chance to see where their children would be enrolled.

In communities that didn't receive any intervention, only 5.6 percent of households attended some form of information sessions in the school. In the areas that just received the information campaign, parents were 28 percentage points more

likely to attend an information session. But when the costs of preschool were covered, meeting attendance was 64 percentage points higher. As with the case of enrollment and attendance in preschool, adding conditional cash transfers to the offer of information didn't lead to any further increase in the likelihood that a family would attend a meeting.

The information campaign had a positive impact on parent's understanding of the importance of early education and improved their aspirations for their daughters, especially within Roma and other minority communities.

In communities where the informational meetings were held, whether alongside financial incentives or not, parental knowledge rose across all eligible groups. When broken down by background, knowledge rose the most among Roma and Turkish families.

The information meetings also had positive impacts on parental aspirations for their children, especially for girls. Families that had access to the informational campaigns said the education of girls should stop 0.8 years later than families in the control group. When financial incentives were combined with informational meetings, families were more likely to believe that it was good for girls to delay having children. Likewise, informational meetings alone and combined with financial incentives improved the likelihood that families would see a secondary school education and higher as appropriate for girls.

However, the program didn't benefit children's cognitive development, and in some developmental domains, it even had negative effects that were worse for Roma and Turkish children.

Neither providing information about preschool nor easing the financial constraints associated with it significantly improved



literacy, numeracy, or social-emotional skills. In fact, estimated average impacts were negative for children's numeracy skills among groups receiving information, free access, additional financial incentives, or a combination of the interventions. This means that when compared to children in the control group, which didn't receive access to free preschool or the information campaign, children in the treatment groups actually showed a decline in numeracy skills. These negative effects were seen only among minority Roma and Turkish children, but not the Bulgarian children. In addition, among the Roma and Turkish children who had access to free preschool, there was a decline in their social-emotional skills when compared with children in the control group.

It's unclear why participating in preschool didn't improve children's development, but it's possible that one year in school was too short a period for any improvements to appear. Researchers are now conducting a follow-up study to determine if preschool exposure may have positive impacts three years after the program. Nearly three quarters of the Roma and Turkish children don't speak Bulgarian at home and so the transition into a classroom, where the language of instruction is Bulgarian, may take a while. However, the negative effects of the in-

tervention on child development are also visible on Roma and Turkish who do speak Bulgarian at home.

Lower parental involvement, combined with teacher quality, also may explain why children's cognitive and social-emotional skills didn't improve when they went to preschool.

Parents whose children attended the full-day kindergarten reported that they were less likely to read a book, tell a story, or sing to their child. In the control communities, for example, 69 percent of parents report telling their child a story, as compared with only 48 to 59 percent in the treatment communities, depending on the exact intervention. Parents seem to have viewed kindergarten as a replacement for what they normally would have done at home. The change was particularly prominent within minority families. Social-emotional skills require a stable and confident interpersonal relationship, which children were likely receiving at home. In the classroom, however, they may not have bonded with their teacher. Moreover, in the absence of a Roma teaching assistant in the classroom, there may have been cultural gaps between minority students and school staff.

EDUCATION

Conclusion

Giving disadvantaged children access to preschool is an important first step to ensure an even playing field, so that all children begin primary school with the tools they need to succeed. But as the results of this evaluation underscore, simply lifting barriers to enrollment isn't always enough and disadvantaged children may need additional resources to ensure they are fully benefitting from educational services.

Researchers are looking into the possibility of creating a more supportive environment for disadvantaged children—by engaging with community mediators and hiring additional Roma teaching assistants to ensure that the needs of minority children are met. Researchers also are continuing to follow the children in the study to measure any long-term impacts from the program.

The Strategic Impact Evaluation Fund, part of the World Bank Group, supports and disseminates research evaluating the impact of development projects to help alleviate poverty. **The goal is to collect and build empirical evidence that can help governments and development organizations design and implement the most appropriate and effective policies for better educational, health, and job opportunities for people in developing countries.** For more information about who we are and what we do, go to: <http://www.worldbank.org/sief>.

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Female Smallholders in the Financial Inclusion Agenda

Financial inclusion of smallholder families is considered one of several key conditions needed to spark sustainable agricultural development and food security. However, an analysis of national smallholder surveys in Tanzania and Mozambique with a gender lens reveals female smallholders remain financially excluded relative to men—despite women's significant demand for financial services. This gender gap in financial inclusion is greatest in the wealthier smallholder households and suggests that even when wealth conditions improve only the male members overcome financial inclusion constraints. This highlights the importance of making sure that more adequate choices of formal financial products are available for female smallholders.

Development practitioners are focusing on smallholder families' financial inclusion because they recognize that it enables sustainable agricultural development. The latter is recognized as a Sustainable Development Goal because of its effectiveness in raising incomes among poorer rural households through both an increase in agriculture productivity and a diversification into nonfarm activities, which allows greater food security (Christiaensen, Demery, and Khul 2011; Davies et al. 2010; USAID 2010).

To achieve smallholder financial inclusion at scale we need to ensure female smallholders—half of the large smallholder population—have opportunities to use adequate formal financial services. This Brief explores the gender gap in financial inclusion among smallholder families in Tanzania and Mozambique through unique survey data that are representative of smallholders at the national level. We observe that not only are female smallholders more financially excluded than men, they also have lower levels of incomes, education, and economic diversification. We also find that female smallholders make fewer investments in agriculture despite their higher dependence on this activity as a source of income. Furthermore, these disparities between men and women increase sharply from the poorer to the wealthier smallholder households.

What does this mean for financial services providers (FSPs) and policy makers? Evidence points to the significant potential demand that female smallholders represent for FSPs. Based on this analysis, we make suggestions on how to tailor financial services to better serve female smallholder needs. We also discuss some implications for policy makers that are seeking to further coordinate interventions that promote financial inclusion among female smallholders.

Data analyzed are from CGAP's national surveys of smallholder households that were conducted in Tanzania and Mozambique in 2014–2015.¹ The surveys are unique in that they allow for a nationally representative look at smallholders, which represent a subset of the better-researched agricultural or rural households observed in other surveys. We also use data from CGAP's smallholder financial diaries, which capture individual smallholders' financial transactions over time. Although these data are not representative at the national level, they can be used to develop product design insights.²

The financial lives of female smallholders

The smallholder national surveys reveal that most credit and savings services used by individual smallholders in Tanzania and Mozambique come from informal sources. On average, 37 percent and 31 percent of individual smallholders in Tanzania and Mozambique, respectively, reported using credit or savings informally from family and friends the year prior to the survey. This is followed by use of community savings and credit groups with 8 percent for Tanzania and 10 percent for Mozambique.

Although the overall use of formal financial services is very low, banks are positioned to reach this customer segment. Six and 7 percent of smallholder individuals in Tanzania and Mozambique used credit or savings services from a bank. This drops to 3 percent for microfinance institutions and 2 percent for credit unions or cooperatives in both countries.

Disaggregating these results by gender and household wealth shows that the gender gap in financial inclusion widens sharply in wealthier smallholder households

1 The CGAP national surveys of smallholder households are representative of smallholders at the national level with a sample of about 3,000 individual smallholder household members in each country. Many of the answers to questions about livelihoods and finance were captured for every individual older than 15 years old, which allows for a unique sex-disaggregated analysis within smallholder households. For more details in the methodology see Anderson, Marita, and Musime (2016) and Anderson and Leach (2016).
2 CGAP conducted smallholder financial diaries among several communities in Tanzania and Mozambique. Although the diaries are not representative at the national level, they provide a more granular view of smallholder financial behavior that can help generate product design ideas. The sample comprises 93 households in Mozambique and 86 households in Tanzania and records every cash inflow and outflow transaction by individual household members, as well as the type of financial instruments used. For more information on the methodology, see Anderson and Wajih (2016).

A joint research initiative with the Rural Institutions, Services, and Empowerment (RISE) Team and the Gender Teams at the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) of the United Nations.

Box 1. Design insights for providers serving female smallholders

CGAP's smallholder financial diaries reveal some product design insights that can help respond better to female smallholder needs. For example:

Goals. Female smallholders in the sample prioritize household and family expenses like groceries, education, clothing, and transport more than men. It is important to identify what women's goals are. Developing financial products that help meet those goals, such as commitment savings for education or convenient payment for transport services, can provide a better value proposition for female smallholders.

Service term structure. Female smallholders in the sample experience longer periods of illiquidity than men, given that they have fewer moments in the year with high peaks in net income. This suggests women may benefit from longer-term loan repayment schedules. Longer loan tenor could help women seize bulkier investment opportunities, which they likely cannot realize given their current dependence on informal loans—known to be short term. Likewise, more convenient and safer longer-term savings accounts can also help women cope with extended illiquidity periods.

Timing of service offerings. Women's high and low peaks in net income can occur at different times than those for men. This is important to consider when deciding to offer different financial products and request certain transactions from women. Appropriate timing in product offerings should increase the product's suitability for women (e.g., requesting savings deposits at the time of their high-income peaks or accepting credit applications and savings withdrawals at the time of their low-income peaks).

Product preferences. Diaries data suggest female smallholders may prefer savings over credit. However, further analysis is required to determine whether this is simply a result of less credit being available to women. These products are mainly offered through informal mechanisms and suggest a large market potential for formal providers. However, the latter need to develop new products and delivery models that offer a better value proposition than the ones offered by informal providers.

relative to poorer ones.³ Both women and men in the poorest smallholder households show the same levels of financial exclusion and rely almost entirely on informal credit and savings services. However, in the wealthier smallholder households, men start sourcing more savings and credit services from formal providers, particularly from banks, relative to women. This trend reflects women's difficulties in using formal finance even when household wealth conditions improve and male household members begin using formal finance.

As smallholder households become wealthier, there is a widening gender gap in the use of digital financial services. In Tanzania, more men than women own a mobile phone within the wealthier households, which contributes to women using fewer digital financial services relative to men. However, even when there are no gender differences in mobile phone ownership among smallholders—as is the case in Mozambique—men use their phones more than women to access digital financial services and conduct business transactions. Merely owning a mobile phone does not seem to ensure women will use it to access digital financial services.

This does not mean female smallholders have less demand for financial services relative to men. We find their demand is equal. Throughout all household wealth levels, the share of men and women that have outstanding loans and active savings is the same, and

female smallholders in wealthier households make up for the relative lack of formal financial services by relying more on informal ones.

Female smallholders' reliance on informal sources of finance represents a large latent demand that formal providers could serve. This is something that providers are increasingly doing for men in wealthier smallholder households. Box 1 shows examples of some ways financial products could be tailored to female smallholders' needs and how these needs can, in some instances, differ from those of men.

Underlying causes for female smallholders' financial exclusion

Female smallholders in Tanzania and Mozambique compared to men persistently lag in educational attainment indicators and access to identity cards (IDs) required by financial providers. In addition, women seem to be less able than men to make productive use of land. These constraints are influenced by social norms—like early marriage, childcare, and housework—that dictate how women spend their time and resources.⁴

While rural and urban women share constraints imposed by social norms, rural smallholder women face the additional challenge of low penetration of

³ The sample in the national smallholder household surveys was divided into three wealth quantiles at the household level (i.e., first quantile as the poorest and third quantile as the richest) based on their Progress out of Poverty Index, which determines the likelihood that a particular household is living below the poverty line based on observable characteristics.

⁴ For an overview of common constraints to women's financial inclusion, see Jensen (2010), Demirgüç-Kunt, Klapper, and Singer (2013), FAO (2012), Slavchevska et al. (2016), and Zilanawala (2016).

formal financial services in rural areas (Demirgüç-Kunt et al. 2015). This is in part due to the higher costs in providing financial services in rural areas with low population densities. It also reflects the difficulties that the financial sector's current business models face when serving small-scale agriculture, which is predominant in developing countries (Conning and Udry 2007; FAO 2017).

The path of livelihood diversification

One of the key differences between female smallholders and women elsewhere relates to the composition of their livelihoods, which include a mix of agricultural and nonagricultural activities. The growing gender gap in financial inclusion observed as smallholder households become wealthier is associated with men being able to diversify away from agriculture faster than women (see Figure 1). That is, in these wealthier households, men continue to participate in agriculture while also engaging in nonfarm activities that complement and increase household income. Also, men use loans for productive investments in farm and nonfarm ventures more than women do. In contrast, women tend to use loans to cover everyday expenses more than men do.

Female smallholders' incomes in wealthier households depend more on agriculture than that of men's, because women do not diversify into nonfarm activities. Furthermore, despite women's greater dependence

on agriculture, their aggregate agricultural income is lower than men's income throughout all household wealth levels, which is consistent with a gender gap in agricultural productivity observed in other studies (O'Sullivan et al. 2014).

This suggests that women face greater constraints to engage in other profitable activities both outside as well as within agriculture, and the inadequacy of the financial services they currently use is one of these constraints. This highlights the importance of promoting a greater choice of formal finance that better responds to the needs of female smallholders. However, even if better formal financial products are available, the social norms that restrict how women use their time and resources will also determine whether they take a path toward greater income, productivity, and economic diversification. These constraints are mutually binding and should be addressed in a coordinated manner.

Implications for practitioners and policy makers

In Tanzania and Mozambique, even as formal FSPs make progress in serving smallholder households, female smallholders continue to be disproportionately financially excluded. Using a gender lens in the analysis of smallholder financial behavior reveals that rural expansion of financial institutions has not automatically reached female smallholders.

Figure 1. Share of male and female smallholders that own a bank account and report main job is not farming, by wealth quantile for Tanzania and Mozambique

Women in richer households are less likely than men to diversify into nonfarming jobs and to own a bank account

Men in wealthier households are able to diversify away from farming as a primary source of income while also increasing their access to banks. In contrast, a high proportion of women in those wealthier households retain farming as their main source of income and rely much less than men on formal finance.



● Full dots mean that the difference between men and women in this quantile is statistically significant at the 90 percent level and above.

Source: CGAP national surveys of smallholder households.

The challenge of financial exclusion of female smallholders represents a business opportunity for formal FSPs. The dominant use of informal financial services by women reflects a large latent demand that FSPs can target, and the use of a gender lens can help providers recognize important unmet financial needs among female smallholders even when they form part of households that are relatively wealthy and have male members who are financially included.

Furthermore, the difficulties faced by women to increase incomes, improve agricultural productivity, and diversify into nonfarm activities highlight the limitations of the informal financial services they rely on and the importance of making sure suitable choices of formal financial products are available to them in a sustainable manner.

Providers will need a more nuanced understanding of female smallholders' goals, livelihoods, and cashflows, which can be very different from those of men. There are several tools that can help practitioners develop more client-centric strategies and products, which can be applied with a gender lens to serve female smallholders. (See CGAP Customer-Centric Guide [<http://customersguide.cgap.org>].)

Beyond innovations in product design and tailored delivery strategies, promoting greater financial inclusion among female smallholders will likely entail multi-sectoral policies that can address many constraints faced by women related to discriminatory social norms, lack of education, IDs that meet know-your-customer requirements, agricultural productivity, and so forth. This means implementing coordinated interventions with both public and private sector stakeholders that have a presence in rural areas. This also means that there is a need to shift from strict sectoral support approaches to more integrated ones where both the agriculture and nonagriculture sectors are considered.

The path of livelihood diversification depicted in the literature that show how financial inclusion enables agricultural development and, in turn, promotes livelihood diversification and poverty reduction is consistent with the experience of male smallholders in Tanzania and Mozambique. However, it is not clear whether female smallholders who remain financially excluded would follow the same development path once they are included. The question remains: Would female smallholders follow the prevailing paradigm or do they have one of their own that is different? Further efforts are needed to define the impact of financial inclusion on female smallholders and how this affects their development pathway.

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FROM MEMBER ORGANISATIONS OF THE VIENNA NGO COMMITTEE ON THE FAMILY

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Supporting families worldwide

A report on the follow-up of the international Year of the Family

1 May 2018



The strengthening of national institutions to formulate, implement and monitor family policies and respond to problems affecting families was one of the main objectives of the International Year of the Family, 1994. Some Member States have made efforts to strengthen existing institutions charged with the implementation of family policies. In some cases, such implementation was integrated into the work of several entities that dealt with gender, children, youth and older persons. Several governments also established new, long-term national plans or strategic policies to improve the well-being of families.

Member States have enacted a number of family-oriented policies for poverty reduction in line with the main objective of the twentieth anniversary of the International Year: confronting family poverty and social exclusion. Recognizing the multidimensional aspects of poverty, the anti-poverty efforts often focus on education, health, employment, social security, livelihoods and social cohesion. Social security provisions, including child allowances for parents and pension benefits for older persons, feature prominently in poverty reduction efforts in many countries.

In its resolution 71/163, the General Assembly requested the Secretary-General to submit a report at its seventythird session, through the Commission for Social Development and the Economic and Social Council, on the implementation of the objectives of the International Year of the Family and its follow-up processes by Member States and by agencies and bodies of the United Nations system. In addition, the resolution called upon Member States and agencies and bodies of the United Nations system, in consultation with civil society and other relevant stakeholders, to continue providing information on their activities, including on good practices, in support of the objectives of the International Year and its follow-up processes, to be included in the report of the Secretary-General.

Extracted from the Report of the UN Secretary General on 'Implementation of the objectives of the International Year of the Family and its follow-up processes', (A/73/61-E/2018/4). Available at: <http://goo.gl/7Jps7p>

Full employment, decent work and ensuring work-family balance was the second major objective of the twentieth anniversary of the International Year. In many countries, new measures have been designed to promote reconciliation between family and working life, aiming to improve working conditions and facilitate more quality time between parents and their children. Longer maternity, paternity and parental leave provisions, the option to work reduced hours and telecommuting have been introduced in several Member States. Some governments enacted new legislation to improve working conditions for workers with family responsibilities. The public sector has often been a pioneer in offering work-life balance measures for its employees.

Advancing social integration and intergenerational solidarity was a major objective of the twentieth anniversary of the International Year. In many countries, intergenerational initiatives focused on investing in children, young people and older persons in family contexts and on facilitating intergenerational exchanges.

Promoting knowledge of the economic, social and demographic processes affecting families and their members, with attention to the rights and responsibilities of all family members, formed part of the objectives of the

International Year. Several Member States and regional entities supported initiatives in that area.

Supported by the European Union, the large-scale Seventh Framework Programme for Research and Technological Development included a project entitled 'FamiliesAndSocieties', aiming to investigate family diversity, assess the compatibility of policies with family changes in Europe and enhance evidence-based policy-making, on the basis of the joint efforts over a four-year period of 25 research organizations from 15 European countries and 3 transnational civil society actors, as well as 80 national and international stakeholder organizations. The outcomes presented at the project website in the form of working papers, publications, new databases and policy briefs, as well as the published policy recommendations report, extend knowledge with regard to how policies promote well-being, inclusion and sustainable societal development among families in various contexts. By making the results publicly available and identifying the key findings and related policy recommendations, the project assists policymakers in designing policies to successfully cope with societal challenges related to the recurring nature of vulnerability in societies and across generations.

Family policies and programmes

During the discussions of the Third Committee at the seventy-second session of the General Assembly, Member States noted the recent progress in the development and implementation of family policy. Many delegations noted the link between family policies and the achievement of Sustainable Development Goals.

At the discussions during the fifty-fifth session of the Commission for Social Development, held from 1 to 10 February 2017, the Group of African States noted the critical role of the family in cultural, political and socioeconomic development and emphasized the importance of concrete efforts to improve the well-being of family in the areas of poverty reduction, work-family balance and intergenerational solidarity.

In addition to the main meetings, many parallel events of the Commission for Social Development focused on several aspects of family policy. The briefing 'Leaving no child behind: promoting youth inclusion through quality education for all', organized by the International Federation for Family Development in cooperation with the Permanent Mission of Qatar to the United Nations, promoted the importance of quality child education for responsible citizenship. It highlighted the positive impacts of early childhood education on later success in life.

In its response to the note verbale sent by the Secretariat pursuant to General Assembly resolution 71/163, the World Food Programme (WFP) noted the importance of promoting, protecting and supporting breastfeeding as a family-oriented policy and a critical measure in achieving Sustainable Development Goal 2. With regard to its mission to eliminate hunger by 2030, WFP recognized that optimal breastfeeding could save the lives of an estimated 823,000 children under the age of 5 every year. Through its programming and partnerships, WFP continued to strive to reach global targets to improve maternal, infant and young child nutrition, including the target to increase the current rate of exclusive breastfeeding in the first six months from 38 per cent to at least 50 per cent of all infants.

UNESCO, in its response to the note verbale sent by the Secretariat, emphasized that the social setting of families was essential to improving education and enabling sustainable development. The achievement of Sustainable Development Goals 4 and 5 required the engagement of individuals, communities, institutions and societies. The sociocultural contexts of families and the socialization processes within them played a critical role in influencing access to early play and educational opportunities

throughout their lives, and in supporting the learning process.

The importance of reducing the gender pay gap has been emphasized by the International Labour Organization (ILO). ILO asserts that social policies have an impact on the career choices of women and can facilitate opportunities for women to combine work and family responsibilities through flexible work arrangements and/or childcare. Policy may also moderate the gender division of labour with respect to care roles and influence the supply of labour and the value of time spent in unpaid care work. Therefore, social policies, such as parental leave, childcare, rights to flexible work arrangements and compensation in social protection for unpaid care work, have a direct impact on the motherhood pay gap. [1]

The Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the Secretariat, through its Division for Social Policy and Development, has continued its efforts to demonstrate and document the importance of a variety of family policies for the advancement of several Sustainable Development Goals and targets.

In 2017, focus was placed on the role of families in achieving Sustainable Development Goal 4, to ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all. The 2017 observance of the International Day of Families, on the theme 'Families, education and well-being', was organized in cooperation with the Outreach Division of the Department of Public Information of the Secretariat. The observance raised awareness of the vital role that families play in the educational attainment of their children. The panellists representing the United Nations Children's Fund, civil society, academia and the media emphasized the importance of early childhood education and the role of parents and caregivers in stimulating children's brain development. [2]

Several noteworthy side events of the fifty-fifth session of the Commission for Social Development were organized by the Division for Social Policy and Development, in cooperation with civil society. Some events were sponsored by interested Member States.

A panel discussion, organized in partnership with the International Federation for Family Development, focused on the topic 'Inclusive cities and sustainable families' and emphasized the importance of creating family-friendly cities that would fulfil the needs of all generations. The event raised awareness of the challenges in a rapidly urbanizing world that can be addressed through an intergenerational lens. [3]

Another event, organized by the Permanent Missions of Argentina and Austria to the United Nations, in cooperation with the Division for Social Policy and Development, focused on the topic 'Promoting intergenerational relations: age diversity and its effects on youth policy development'. The event recognized the pivotal role of healthy intergenerational relations in societies, which are promoted by adequate policies focusing on youth development and intergenerational justice, addressing structural changes in the job market, securing pensions and care for older persons, and related issues. [4]

Many civil society organizations undertook initiatives at national and regional levels, contributing to the implementation of the twentieth anniversary of the International Year. For instance, in Nigeria, the Institute for Work and Family Integration, in partnership with the International Federation for Family Development and the Nigerian Association for Family Development, as well as the Federal Ministries of Education and of Women Affairs and Social Development, hosted an international conference on the family and sustainable development, focusing on achieving inclusive and quality education for all. The event emphasized that education was a fundamental human right, indispensable to sustainable development and the eradication of poverty.

Conclusions

The initiatives at the national level presented in the report demonstrate that Member States have made progress in their efforts to develop and implement family oriented policies and programmes in line with the objectives of the International Year of the Family and its follow-up processes.

Many Member States acknowledge that the cross-sectoral nature of family policies requires that their development and implementation should be integrated into overall social policymaking. To achieve that, a strong institutional framework is indispensable. Accordingly, some Member States followed or introduced new national family-oriented strategies, policies and programmes to be implemented by national family policy institutions or integrated into the work of several entities, depending on national priorities.

Many Member States have expanded family policies in the areas of poverty reduction, work-family balance and social integration and intergenerational solidarity, as recommended by the framework of the twentieth anniversary of the International Year and consider them useful for the achievement of several Sustainable Development Goals, namely Goals 1 to 5.

Conditional and universal cash transfers, often combined with child benefits, continue to form an important part of efforts to reduce poverty in many parts of the world and have been credited with an overall reduction in poverty rates and improved health and education outcomes for children.

Improving work-family balance for families is high on the agenda of many countries. In some countries, more flexible working arrangements have been offered, including options to telecommute or work part-time. Paternity leave is also gaining more ground, as is the promotion of involved fatherhood. Nevertheless, paternity leave is mostly very short and not adequately addressed.

There is a growing recognition that policies and programmes to ensure work-family balance contribute to gender equality. They help empower women and increase their participation in the labour market, and contribute to the more equitable distribution of household responsibilities between men and women. Consequently, new flexible working arrangements have been gaining ground, especially in the public sector, and some positive evaluations indicate links between innovative working arrangements, such as telecommuting, and gains in productivity in the workplace.

Rapid demographic changes, including ageing and decreased fertility in some parts of the world, oblige governments to review their family policies and invest in intergenerational policies and programmes. Such initiatives include investing in intergenerational facilities and supporting interactions among generations. In that context, some Member States have also invested in parenting education to improve the well-being of children. More evaluations are needed to ascertain the long-term impact and effectiveness of such programmes.

Further advancement of family policy in the context of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development depends on how well issues of family policy are integrated into the overall development planning at national levels.

The effectiveness of family policies and programmes depends on their regular assessment. That is where qualitative and quantitative research on family structures, needs, challenges and changing intergenerational relations are needed. Such research needs to focus on emerging trends and evaluate the impact of implemented policy measures on families. In that context, family impact assessment studies, which seek to assess the impact of particular socioeconomic policies on families, are important. They have the potential to ensure that new

policies effectively respond to the numerous challenges faced by families in a changing world.

Recommendations

Member States are encouraged to consider the following recommendations:

(a) Continue their efforts to implement the objectives of the International Year of the Family and its follow-up processes;

(b) Continue their efforts in the implementation of the objectives of the twentieth anniversary of the International Year of the Family in the areas of poverty, work-family balance and intergenerational issues;

(c) Further recognize that family-oriented policies and programmes are integral to the implementation of the

2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, particularly in support of ending poverty and hunger, promoting wellbeing for all at all ages, promoting lifelong learning opportunities for all and achieving gender equality;

(d) Strengthen cooperation with civil society, academic institutions and the private sector in the implementation of relevant family policies and programmes;

(e) Support family research and impact assessment studies to effectively respond to challenges faced by families;

(f) Continue the sharing of good practices in family policymaking at national, regional and international levels.

[1] ILO, *Closing the Gender Pay Gap: A Review of the Issues, Policy Mechanisms and International Evidence* (Geneva, 2016).

Available from: www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---gender/documents/publication/wcms_540889.pdf.

[2] See www.un.org/development/desa/family/international-day-of-families/idf2017.html.

[3] See www.familyperspective.org/vid/vid-0173-en.php.

[4] See www.bemdmartin.eu/en/55th-session-of-the-commission-for-social-development-in-ny-2.



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Breaking the Silence

Prevention and confrontation of domestic violence

1 June 2018



Domestic violence can have serious — and sometimes fatal — consequences for victims and for those who witness the violence. It affects not only the direct victims, but everyone who has to live with it. Children who witness domestic violence are at risk for both short and long-term harm. Even if they don't see or hear the violence, they can be affected by hearing or seeing its consequences. These children may have emotional, behavioural and developmental problems that could last a long time. They are also at risk of developing post-traumatic stress disorder.

Targeting the weakest

Exposing a child to domestic violence can be grounds for child protection intervention under provincial and territorial child protection laws. Of course, children's individual capacity for resilience affects how they will react to the

violence they observe and experience: not all children exposed to violence become violent themselves. But just as extended family can strengthen protective factors leading to resilience in children exposed to domestic violence, so the tolerance of violence by the surrounding community — including the media — plays a role in how negatively children are affected by violence in the home. And certainly, any community that tolerates interpersonal violence between parents sets the stage for this cycle to continue into the next generation.

The strengthening of national institutions to formulate, implement and monitor family policies and respond to problems affecting families was one of the main objectives of the International Year of the Family, 1994. Some Member States have made efforts to strengthen existing institutions charged with the implementation of family policies. In some cases, such implementation was integrated

into the work of several entities that dealt with gender, children, youth and older persons. Several governments also established new, long-term national plans or strategic policies to improve the well-being of families.

Member States have enacted a number of family-oriented policies for poverty reduction in line with the main objective of the twentieth anniversary of the International Year: confronting family poverty and

social exclusion. Recognizing the multidimensional aspects of poverty, the anti-poverty efforts often focus on education, health, employment, social security, livelihoods and social cohesion. Social security provisions, including child allowances for parents and pension benefits for older persons, feature prominently in poverty reduction efforts in many countries.

The definition of domestic violence has proven to be more difficult than it may seem. Its victims can't usually recognize their situation, even more so if we consider that it includes many different forms of physical and emotional abuse, as well as neglect carried out by family members or intimate partners. It may include a single act of violence, or a number of acts that form a pattern of abuse.

As hard as it may be to define, measuring the prevalence of domestic violence as a social problem has proven no less difficult. The most obvious reason is that the majority of domestic violence takes place in the privacy of the home, and only a small percentage of occurrences are reported. These tend to be the most tragic incidents —those that result in serious injury or death.

Ignacio Socias, Director of International Relations at the International Federation for Family Development (IFFD).

Older persons are also frequent victims of violence. Elder abuse is any action, behaviour or failure to act, made by a person in a position of trust—such as an adult child, family member, friend or caregiver—that causes or risks causing harm to an older adult. It may take place in the home, the community or in an institution, and it includes physical, sexual or emotional harm, as well as damage to—or loss of—property or assets.

It covers a whole range of behaviours including hurtful comments; dominating or controlling an older adult's activities; isolating an older person from family, friends or regular activities; unduly pressuring older adults to sign

legal documents that they do not fully understand; misusing power of attorney; not providing appropriate medication or medical attention; or any other form of physical abuse.

Gender violence seems to be the most common type. It includes rape, sexual assault, relationship violence in heterosexual and same sex partnerships, sexual harassment, stalking, prostitution and sex trafficking. The term reflects the idea that violence often serves to maintain structural gender inequalities and includes all types of violence as long as it is based in that motivation,

though these crimes are predominantly against women and perpetrated by men.

Ways to unlock restoration

What do researchers know about this problem and the factors that cause families to resort to harmful, self-destructive behaviours? How can communities help families replace violent relationships with healthy ones?

The inhumane treatment of family members by their closest relatives — those who above all others should be their protectors and allies — is not a new phenomenon, nor is it an uncommon one. And no society is immune to it. Mostly hidden and historically noncriminalized, domestic violence may take the form of intimate-partner violence, child abuse, sibling bullying or elder abuse. In addition to physical brutality, researchers often extend the term to cover nonphysical forms of maltreatment such as neglect and psychological abuse, although there is some debate over just how far the definition can be effectively applied.

A home with domestic violence is not a safe, nurturing environment. Additionally, violence will not stop without the help of an outside agency that has more power than the offender, such as the police and the Courts.

"The inhumane treatment of family members by their closest relatives — those who above all others should be their protectors and allies — is not a new phenomenon, nor is it an uncommon one. And no society is immune to it

How can communities help families unlearn negative patterns and replace violent relationships with healthy ones? If interventions focus only on the primary abuser, especially as dysfunctional interaction becomes entrenched, there is little chance of preventing the abuse cycle. A key reason is that dysfunctional families tend to interact minimally with their community. Yet parents, children and extended family, as well as the surrounding community, all have a part in the healing and prevention cycle — not only in the detection and prevention of current abuse, but also with an eye toward strengthening the social fabric that contributes to the mental and physical health of future generations.

The levels of violent family dysfunction reported by global agencies suggest a need to address families and communities as a whole with the aim of restoring secure attachments, functional relationships, and family and community resilience. This is often attempted through family training and support programs — such as improving new-parent competence —, school-based programs, and community awareness campaigns — including those increasingly being implemented in the workplace.

Researchers are also recognizing an important connection between individual, family and community factors. Oddly, some refer to this understanding as a 'new frontier' in domestic violence prevention. Still, it should come as no surprise that children and families need strong connections to each other and to healthy communities in order to thrive. However, a community that tolerates violent and vengeful behaviour — whether in its homes and streets or depicted routinely in its entertainment — can hardly be considered healthy. Nor can it expect its children to reject violence as an acceptable approach to resolving conflict.

One of the common factors associated with successful adaptation and coping is the resilience of individual family members. Family resilience is considered to be the family's ability to withstand and rebound from disruptive life challenges, ending strengthened and more resourceful. It's about enriching relationships and developing skills so family members cope better with future stresses. We all strive for resilience. Who wouldn't want the ability to meet life's inevitable challenges with grace? But how are resources for resilience built within a unit of unique individuals, circumstances and dynamics?

Family vs. domestic — home vs. household

I haven't used the term 'family environment' because we find that many times it's not in the family environment where violence arises, but in a scenario where familiar ties never really existed or were real in the past but not anymore. I prefer the term 'domestic violence', rather than 'family violence', as long as sharing a home is what better defines this kind of violence.

There is some solid rationale behind it. As the United Nations has repeatedly stated in the Resolutions of its General Assembly, "children, for the full and harmonious

development of their personality, should grow up in a family environment" [1]. In other words, the very concept of family relationship excludes violence, and the abuse of the ties that unite its members is by itself the negation of the existence of a real family. This denomination also shows that the first way to break the silence, to prevent and find solutions is precisely "to create a conducive environment to strengthen and support all families." [2] It is only when real family bonds are denaturalized and replaced by other links that violence finds its place.

From a different perspective, Pope Francis has also stated this need. "This is often the case with families where communication is lacking, defensive attitudes

predominate, the members are not supportive of one another, family activities that encourage participation are absent, the parental relationship is frequently conflictual and violent, and relationships between parents and children are marked by hostility. Violence within the family is a breeding-ground of resentment and hatred in the most basic human relationships." [3]. Therefore, no person is expected to stay in an abusive marriage.

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UN Resolutions on domestic violence

Domestic violence has also been addressed in numerous resolutions by both the Human Rights Council and the General Assembly. Although such resolutions do not have binding legal authority, they do set forth international standards and best practices.

One of the most important resolutions on domestic violence is the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women (DEVAW). Adopted by the UN General Assembly in 1993, DEVAW establishes the most comprehensive set of standards in international law for the protection of women against sexual and genderbased violence. DEVAW recognizes violence against women as "an obstacle to the achievement of equality" and a "manifestation of historically unequal power relations between men and women," as well as a violation of fundamental freedoms including the prohibition against torture.*

The Declaration defines violence against women as "any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or private life." This includes, but is not limited to, "physical, sexual and psychological violence occurring in the family." The Declaration not only declares that State actors should refrain from engaging in violence against women, but also asserts that States should take affirmative measures to prevent and punish violence committed by public and private actors alike and establish support networks to care for victims of gender-based violence.

*In 2004, the UN General Assembly also specifically addressed domestic violence in a Resolution entitled 'Elimination of domestic violence against women.'** In this important resolution, the General Assembly, recognizing that domestic violence is a human rights issue with serious immediate and long-term implications, strongly condemned all forms of domestic violence against women and girls and called for an elimination of violence in the family.*

* A/RES/48/104. ** A/RES/58/147.

The second consideration I wanted to pose is that the time for domestic violence to remain hidden has passed, or at least it should have been overcome by now. Among the positive aspects we find in today's world, we can find quite a few that help to make it more visible than ever before — the great facility to communicate intimacy to the external world can be an occasion for bullying or other abuses, but it also makes easier the possibility to break the silence.

The role of the state

The stability of the state requires that children are brought up to take their place as autonomous members of their communities. The state assists families in meeting this responsibility for children, intervening for the protection or control of children when the family is cannot meet this responsibility to the standards set by the state.

There are a variety of theories about how the family and the state ought to relate in respect to children. One perspective has the state taking a minimal role in caring for children, intervening only in extreme cases for the protection or correction of children. It is argued that this minimal level of intervention is necessary to respect the privacy and the sanctity of the parent-child relationship.

Critics of this approach argue that the 'extreme cases' concept where intervention is permitted is too narrow, excluding categories such as 'risk of abuse' and emotional harm in which a child can suffer as much damage as in a case of physical abuse. They also argue that the wishes of children are neglected in this approach as children's interests are assumed to coincide with those of their parents.

At the other end of the spectrum, advocates for strong state intervention in family life seek to ensure that all children are provided with a right to caring adults who meet their needs. In this model, the state makes the decisions as to whom those adults should be. While the focus of this model lies on the child rather than the adults in the family, this model of intervention may overlook the strength of the bond between parent and child, even when the parent may

be considered lacking. It also places too much faith in the value of state intervention, assuming that the agents of the state, such as social workers and judges, are capable of making sound and appropriate judgments that provide better outcomes for children.

A third perspective on the role of the state in family life sees the main function of state intervention as maintaining the biological family wherever possible, or at least maintaining the ties between parents and children should separation be necessary. State intervention is reserved for responding to problems within families, attempting to redress these so that the child can remain at home or at least in close contact with its family. Critics argue that this view may place too much emphasis on biological ties and that it does not differentiate between the interests, feelings and welfare of children and those of parents.

Based on the principle of subsidiarity, the most adequate and efficient way to establish the role of the state should consider three types of domestic situations to prevent violence: - households where family links are stable and solid: the state should respect their autonomy and avoid any interference; - households with families in situations of vulnerability (single-parent, migrants, etc.) should be supported with family-responsive policies; - households that have failed to establish family links or have broken them would require different types of intervention.

More research is needed to define the right indicators to distinguish these different situations and to detect their evolution, as a transition from one type to another could happen in a short time and remain hidden even to the closest relatives or other persons who are close to them.

Help lines for victims should be maintained and boosted as much as possible, even though we know they are not always effective because of the blindness syndrome many victims suffer. At the same time, all social groups that can help to alert on possible new cases —local agencies, medical practitioners, legal counsellors, religious agents, therapists, etc.— should be empowered to be able to report any situations they may find.



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[1] See, i. e., A/RES/67/142. [2] See, i. e., A/RES/64/133. [3] Apostolic Exhortation 'Amoris Laetitia', n. 51.

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Domestic work, still an unmet need?

The situation of household services around the European Union

1 July 2018



Domestic Expansion of services and employment in the household services (PHS) sector is prevalent, but it is not a uniform development as regards the types of services, nor does it apply equally to all countries. Almost everywhere, child care and food services are the two sub-sectors in which employment growth is most evident. In several countries there is also a less marked, but significant, increase in eldercare and domestic cleaning.

Changes in the provision of household and domestic maintenance services is difficult to assess and probably varies from country to country.

Many household services jobs continue to develop as undeclared work. The strong

competition offered by the informal sector constitutes a stubborn barrier, and measures taken to remedy the situation have been more successful in some countries than in others.

Despite recent progress, there is still a large unmet need for household services, which will continue to grow as a result of social and demographic trends. The extent of this needs in the different sub-sectors varies from country to country, depending on the previous level of service provision. It cannot be taken for granted that these needs will be met by the emergence of new services and the creation of new jobs. There are many economic, socio-cultural, policy-regulatory and organisational obstacles to their development and so far these have been only partially overcome. [1]

Founded in 2012, the European Federation of Family Employment brings together a community of thinkers, professional decision-makers and experts in this sector from the academic world, civil society, regional institutions, and social partners across the European Union.

It focuses on household services, family employment and home care. At the crossroads of European economic and social issues, this economic sector represents an exceptional growth potential, as well as a key development opportunity for the economic, social and solidarity-based European society we are calling for.

*Survey promoted by IFFD on 'Household Services, Family Employment and Home Care' for the European Federation for Family Employment (EFFE) as part of the contributions to their proposals in the European context and with inputs from 'Who Cares for You at Home? Personal and Household Services in Europe', IZA Institute of Labor Economics, Policy Paper No. 71. **

Lack of a clear definition

The first conclusion is that household services can only be developed with a clear conceptual definition. Is it the place where the work is performed that defines it, or is it more the kind of work? There are different concepts in different Member states, not only in the kind of work, but also in the definition of who performs it and for whom do they work.

In Belgium, the definition of PHS (titre-services) is attached to the successful implementation of a voucher for housework activities. Care of dependent people is excluded, except for accompanying persons with restricted mobility requiring transportation. In France, the perimeter of these activities, today named 'personal services' ('services à la personne'), is now legally defined, as the purchase of these activities opens access to certain benefits for consumers, mainly in the form of tax reduction. They can be applied to a very large and heterogeneous list of activities, much larger than in Belgium as it includes care work.

In Denmark, these tasks are targeted by a specific scheme ('home service scheme' or 'Hjemmeserviceordningen'). Though it was originally open to any household at its creation, its scope has been progressively reduced and it is now

limited to older people only. In Luxembourg there is a tax reduction for households that employ housework personnel or purchase services on the market, limited to a few activities.

In Finland, the scope of PHS is also that of the tax deduction for household work ('Kotitalousvähennyksen'). The tax credit can be granted against paid costs for household work, care-giving and day-care work in the home, and also for repair work in the home or at a leisure house, and IT services. In Sweden, personal services are very much inspired by the Finnish experience. RUT stands for 'Rengöring, underhåll och tvätt' (cleaning, maintenance, servicing) and include most of the housework that can be done at home. ROT stands for 'Reparation, Ombyggnad, Tillbyggnad' and is actually a collection term for measures to renovate and upgrade existing buildings, mostly residential. Services for dependent persons are rarely covered and are generally provided by local authorities.

In other countries, the sector is not defined on the basis of such public schemes aimed at developing the sector, but rather on the basis of specific regulations concerning work and employment. In the Netherlands, the most recent regulation in place concerns housework and home services ('Regeling dienstverlening aan huis').

Similar regulation exists in Italy concerning the work of housework employees ('colf' standing for 'collaboratore/trice familiare'). A voucher system has been implemented with a yet much broader scope. Whereas in France or Belgium the objectives behind the introduction of a voucher are to foster demand and reduce undeclared employment in a well-defined field of personal and household services, in Italy the scope is not fixed in sectorial terms but rather regarding casual work or occasional activities ('prestazioni di lavoro occasionale accessorio'), i.e. professional activities characterised by an occasional and accessory nature that cannot be traced back to standard employment relationships. As a result, the voucher applies to a very large panel of activities, from personal services to agricultural activities, for instance. For this reason, it cannot be strictly considered as a tool in the field of personal and household services, which remains rather undefined.

In Austria, similarly to Germany, there is no precise definition. The sector is rather conceived of with a focus on care provision. The service check ('Dienstleistungsscheck') is used to pay for the provision of basic domestic services in private households and it provides the employee with accident insurance on the first day of employment.

In Spain, there is currently no legal definition of the sector. However, the notions 'servicios de proxi

"Is it the place where the work is performed that defines it, or is it more the kind of work? There are different concepts in different Member states, not only in the kind of work, but also in the definition of who performs it and for whom do they work."

midad', 'servicios a la persona' or 'servicios domésticos' are increasingly used in the public debate, as the issue of conciliation has gained in importance alongside the strong increase of female participation over the last years.

In Hungary, there is relevant legislation but only activities related to providing all the necessary conditions of everyday life for natural persons and other persons living in their households are considered to be household work. In other countries like the UK, relatively little attention has been paid to the personal and household service sector.

From this comparison of legal definitions, we can see that European countries rely on very different approaches in this field. These differences are linked to the objectives of public policies and their choices in terms of targeting specific activities. Some definitions will then appear rather restricted and concentrated on domestic chores, while others will be more open. For instance, France has included private lessons support to create incentives for households to declare this generally undeclared service, while Sweden or Finland have included home renovation in the list of home services.

A broad strategic approach

According to Angermann and Eichhorst, PHS should be defined as the "institutionalized form of services that have traditionally been carried out privately and informally within households, including personal services in the form of care (care services such as nursing care) on the one hand, and household services in the form of household activities (housework services such as cleaning, laundry, catering, gardening, etc.) on the other."

As a consequence, policy objectives relating to household services should be the following:

- to create good quality jobs in household services (in the context of employment creation policies);
- to improve working conditions in household services (in the context of policies modernising social protection);
- to promote equal opportunity of access to qualified occupations in household services (in the context of mainstreaming equal opportunities in all policies).

A broad strategic approach to achieving these objectives will need to be adopted, centered on improving knowledge and information, raising awareness, developing accreditation and qualifications, fostering innovation, protecting rights, establishing partnerships and securing common financial incentives. These elements of strategy can in turn be considered in relation to the three main general objectives: employment, social protection and equal opportunities. But the main point should be not only to improve the workers conditions, but also to ease the burden on informal carers and the welfare state with beneficial effects for the life satisfaction of carers and the cared, enabling a self-determined life and helping to maintain links to the labor market, particularly for women. Informal care by relatives, including their

own household work, will continue to play a huge role. This is a critical aspect, as it interferes with the role and subsequent rights of the families and the State.

However, the potential of familial support should not be overestimated in light of the demographic pattern. Therefore, a sustainable strategy to develop personal and household services offers many advantages. For instance, it can ease the burden on informal carers (family carers/caregiving relatives – not to be confused with undeclared workers) by providing supportive services for their cared ones. Moreover, it can also ease the burden on the welfare state by increasing the employment rate on both sides, namely employment with personal and household service providers and higher employment through increased working hours, the return to the job market and longer working lives of those relieved from informal care.

With a higher employment rate, tax revenues and social contributions will also increase, generating earn back effects for the state. This is particularly important in times of reduced public spending on social issues. In particular, women would benefit from the implementation of a sustainable strategy of personal and household services in several ways: they would have the possibility to return to their job, increase

"The main point should be not only to improve the workers conditions, but also to ease the burden on informal carers and the welfare state with beneficial effects for the life satisfaction of carers and the cared."

their working hours and formalize their undeclared work in the area of supportive services, which they were probably already providing (formalization of existing jobs and creation of new jobs).

It is also necessary to take the gender aspect into account, as the necessity of women's enhanced participation in the labor market could also be viewed as an opportunity to discuss the redistribution of paid and unpaid work between men and women.

Regular jobs can be created with appropriate regulation and organization, while the quality of jobs can be improved to some extent, also via training (although this potential is limited). In terms of the working conditions of the employees working in the PHS sector, it is notable that jobs can

be made a part of the regular labor market regarding wage setting, social protection, working time or training. Furthermore, it is possible to make formal PHS affordable through suitable policies, in order to reduce the share of PHS in the informal labor market. A significant decline in undeclared work in personal and household services has been observed in France, currently estimated at a share of around 30 percent. This is similar to Belgium, above Sweden with 15 percent, yet significantly below Germany, where undeclared PHS employment is estimated at a minimum of 45 percent, if not 80 to 90 percent, Italy and Spain with around 70 percent and the UK with 50 percent. Lower shares of undeclared and informal work can also be observed in other countries that have started to invest in making PHS affordable, e.g. Finland and Sweden. Moreover, the German 'minijob' scheme combined with tax incentives has at least led to a marginal decline in shadow economy activities.

Consequences of PHS formalization

Formal personal and household services will not work without substantial public/social investment – PHS employment generates some earn back effects, but personal and household services will likely not be cost neutral. Formal PHS provision competes with PHS organized in the informal sector and work undertaken by household members. Hence, demand for formal PHS is highly sensitive to cost and quality considerations, as well as other more cultural barriers to externalization in the formal market. The formalization of PHS at a certain wage level, including full social protection, makes these services clearly more expensive than those offered on the black market. This is particularly true for countries where minimum wages exist and non-wage labor costs in terms of social insurance contributions are relatively high. High price elasticity of demand for PHS is probably most important in explaining the different levels of formal PHS provision (outside care) across European countries.

Finally, the regulation of housework has a direct influence on the gap between desired and actual fertility. Workers at home can make parents easier to have time for their children's education or, at least, replace them with their children when they

are working. Paternal leaves (and, more specifically, fathers' leaves) can then be used for what they are primarily designed, which is to stay with the new born during a time that all studies show to be crucial for the future of their development and education.

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[1] Eurofound, 'Employment in household services'.



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Recent and Upcoming Events

2018

October

- 09.-13.: AAFP Family Medicine Experience (FMX) Meetings (New Orleans, LA, USA)
<https://www.aafp.org/events/fmx/about/past-future.html>

November

- 07.-10.: 2018 NCFR Annual Conference (San Diego, CA, USA)
<https://www.ncfr.org/ncfr-2018>
- 12.-14.: IAFL Family Law Conference (Dubai, UAE)
<https://www.iafl.com/membee-events/index.html#cid=1152&wid=301>
- 12.-15.: International Conference on Family Planning (Kigali, Rwanda)
<http://fpconference.org/2018/>

2019

March

- 20.-23.: East Mediterranean region conference 2019 (Beirut, Lebanon)
<https://www.wonca.net>

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