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**WORLD
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SOCIAL
OUTLOOK**

WORLD EMPLOYMENT SOCIAL OUTLOOK



**TRENDS
2019**



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TRENDS **2019**

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Preface

This report assesses the impact of both new and long-standing challenges on global labour market trends. Its analysis should also be useful in considering the recommendations in the Report of the Global Commission on the Future of Work (ILO, 2019) and its call for a new focus on the changing nature of employment and its place in economy and society, as part of a “human-centred agenda for the future of work”.

If such an agenda is to be pursued, our analysis of labour market trends must be attentive to certain key issues. These include: equity – considering, for example, the shared experience of growth and decent work between and within regions; an expanded selection of indicators of labour market performance such as informality, underemployment and in-work poverty, in addition to the standard employment rate and unemployment rate indicators; gender, with a disaggregation of statistics not only to highlight gender differences but also to understand properly the functioning of labour markets; and sustainability, for example by understanding the virtuous and vicious cycles generated by the interaction of labour market characteristics.

This latest report on labour market trends moves towards a more nuanced and more holistic approach that could facilitate possible new approaches in working towards “a brighter future” (*ibid.*). Chapter 1 presents the global picture, disaggregated where possible to countries categorized by income level. Chapter 2 considers what is happening at regional level with a distinctive narrative that reflects key empirical realities, as well as policy concerns, within each region. Chapter 3 provides some initial findings on progress towards SDG 8, the UN’s 2030 Sustainable Development Goal for “inclusive and sustainable growth, employment and decent work for all”. The ILO will be developing a deeper, multidimensional analysis over the coming months as part of its preparations for the UN’s High-level Political Forum on Sustainable Development in July 2019.

It is more vital than ever that the ILO’s global vision of decent work, inclusive growth and social justice should be founded on robust, up-to-date and relevant labour market research and data. We hope that this report will make an important contribution to that end.



Guy Ryder
ILO Director-General

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The ILO modelled estimates presented in this report are produced in cooperation between the Labour Market Trends and Policy Evaluation Unit of the ILO Research Department, led i.a. by Verónica Escudero, and the Data Production and Analysis Unit of the ILO Department of Statistics, led by Steven Kapsos. The authors of this report would specifically like to thank Roger Gomis for the excellent collaboration on model development and for the verification of results. The underlying database of labour market indicators is collected by the ILO Department of Statistics.

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Executive summary

Inclusive and well-functioning labour markets are central to the ILO's mandate of delivering decent work and supporting social justice. This is because paid work is the main source of income for the vast majority of households worldwide, and also because the organization of work can reinforce the core principles of equality, democracy, sustainability and social cohesion. This notion is reinforced during 2019, the ILO's Centenary, by the powerful vision advanced by the Report of the Global Commission on the Future of Work¹ to secure a human-centred agenda for the future of work. The report calls for a human-centred agenda with a renewed focus on people's wide-ranging capabilities, as well as the potential of labour market institutions, and highlights the urgency of investments in neglected areas of the economy in developed and developing countries. In keeping with this new vision, there is a need to focus on the issues of equality, sustainability and inclusiveness in the presentation and analysis of labour market trends.

New global data collected by the ILO for 2018 point to some progress, but above all reveal the persistence of significant decent work deficits, with the various regions facing challenges of many different kinds. One hundred years since its formation, strong guidance by the ILO remains essential to help address decent work deficits and to enable an informed debate of the ambitious recommendations of the Global Commission on the Future of Work.

The gender gap in labour force participation remains large

The much lower labour force participation rate of women, which stood at 48 per cent in 2018, compared with 75 per cent for men, means that around three in five of the 3.5 billion people in the global labour force in 2018 were men. After a period of rapid improvement that lasted until 2003, subsequent progress on closing the gender gap in participation rates has stalled. The sizeable gap of 27 percentage points registered in 2018 should motivate policy action aimed at both improving gender equality in global labour markets and maximizing human capabilities. Overall, labour force participation rates among adults have been declining for the past 25 years; the decline is even more pronounced among young people aged 15–24. This downward trend is projected to continue in the future. Some of the factors behind it – such as increased educational enrolment, greater retirement opportunities and higher life expectancy – are of course positive. Yet, the rise in the dependency ratio (i.e. the proportion of economically inactive people relative to the active) poses new challenges in terms of the organization of work and the distribution of resources in society.

Decent work deficits are widespread

A majority of the 3.3 billion people employed globally in 2018 experienced a lack of material well-being, economic security, equal opportunities or scope for human development. Being in employment does not always guarantee a decent living. Many workers find themselves having to take up unattractive jobs that tend to be informal and are characterized by low pay and little or no access to social protection and

1. ILO: *Work for a brighter future – Global Commission on the Future of Work* (Geneva, 2019).

rights at work. Significantly, 360 million people in 2018 were contributing family workers and 1.1 billion worked on their own account, often in subsistence activities that are pursued because of an absence of job opportunities in the formal sector and/or the lack of a social protection system. Overall, 2 billion workers were in informal employment in 2016, accounting for 61 per cent of the world's workforce. The poor quality of many jobs also manifests itself in the fact that, in 2018, more than one quarter of workers in low- and middle-income countries were living in extreme or moderate poverty. On a positive note, the incidence of working poverty has decreased greatly over the past three decades, especially in middle-income countries. In low-income countries, however, the pace of poverty reduction is not expected to keep up with employment growth, so that the actual number of working poor in these countries is projected to rise.

More than 170 million people are unemployed despite the continued decrease in the global unemployment rate

An estimated 172 million people worldwide were unemployed in 2018, which corresponds to an unemployment rate of 5.0 per cent. It is remarkable that, whereas it took only one year for the global unemployment rate to jump from 5.0 per cent in 2008 to 5.6 per cent in 2009, the recovery to the levels that prevailed before the global financial crisis has taken a full nine years. The current outlook is uncertain. Assuming stable economic conditions, the unemployment rate in many countries is projected to decline further. However, macroeconomic risks have increased and are already having a negative impact on the labour market in a number of countries. On balance, the global unemployment rate should remain at roughly the same level during 2019 and 2020. The number of people unemployed is projected to increase by 1 million per year to reach 174 million by 2020 as a result of the expanding labour force.

Labour underutilization is more prevalent among women

Apart from the unemployed, a further 140 million people were in the “potential labour force” in 2018, which means that they have to be classified as underutilized labour. This group of people who are looking for a job but are not available to take up employment, or who are available but are not looking for a job, includes far more women (85 million) than men (55 million). The corresponding rate of labour underutilization is consequently much higher for women, at 11.0 per cent, than for men, at 7.1 per cent. In addition, women are much more likely to work part time and a significant proportion say they would prefer more hours of employment.

Labour market challenges vary between countries and regions

Although the labour market challenges related to quality of work, unemployment and gender inequality are universal, their specific character and degree of priority differ depending on the region and a country's level of development. In low-income countries, employment relationships all too often do not even enable people to escape poverty. And whereas working poverty generally decreases with economic development, other labour market achievements, such as formality, access to social security systems, job security, collective bargaining and compliance with labour standards and rights at work, are still elusive, to varying degrees, for many countries. Securing these gains is therefore a major challenge that policy-makers must face up to. Furthermore, some new business models, often made possible through innovative technologies, threaten to undermine existing achievements in this area. Unemployment rates have fallen considerably in high-income countries in the past few years, but they have risen, or are in the process of rising, in a number of upper-middle-income countries in the wake of an economic slowdown, putting a large share of the labour force at heightened risk of poverty. Lastly, although gender inequality in the labour market is also a global phenomenon, it is worth noting that gender gaps are widest in the Arab States, Northern Africa and Southern Asia subregions.

Progress towards achieving the targets set out in Sustainable Development Goal 8 has been slower than anticipated

Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 8 calls upon the international community to “[p]romote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all”. Attaining this goal will require far increased efforts, given how far current trends are from the targets envisaged under SDG 8.

The least developed countries experienced annual gross domestic product (GDP) growth of less than 5 per cent over the past five years, which means they have fallen short of the SDG 8 target of at least 7 per cent growth per annum. In addition, recent rates of growth of GDP per capita, and of labour productivity, are below the levels reported in previous decades in most parts of the world.

Sustainable development should be achieved through the fostering of productive activities, innovation and formalization, while optimizing resource efficiency in production and consumption. The fact that in a majority of countries more than half of the non-agricultural workforce is informal gives an idea of the distance still to be travelled if the global economy is to become fully formalized. In addition, global material consumption per capita is rising despite advances in resource efficiency in high-income countries. On a more positive note, since 2011 the rate of increase has slowed down and material consumption per unit of GDP has even stabilized.

The target of achieving “full and productive employment and decent work for all … and equal pay for work of equal value” also remains elusive. The global unemployment rate has gone down but, as noted above, more than 170 million people are still unemployed. Furthermore, women, young people (ages 15–24) and persons with disabilities continue to be much less likely to be in employment. Equally worrisome is the fact that more than one in five young people are not in employment, education or training (NEET). Since these individuals are not gaining skills that are valued in the labour market, this reduces their future chances of employment. In the long run, a high NEET rate makes it harder for an economy to grow over a sustained period. The global NEET rate has decreased by a mere 2 percentage points between 2005 and 2018, which means that the SDG target of substantially reducing NEET rates by 2020 will almost certainly be missed. Lastly, most countries have “factor-weighted” gender pay gaps ranging from 10 to 25 per cent, which suggests that the world is still a long way from realizing the principle that work of equal value should be remunerated equally.

A number of SDG 8 targets deal with fundamental rights and protections that all people ought to enjoy in the world of work. In 2016, there were still 114 million children aged 5 to 14 years in employment, and although their number is decreasing, this is happening at too slow a rate to meet the target of ending child labour in all its forms by 2025. The Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87), and the Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98), both of which are core ILO Conventions, have been ratified by an increasing number of member States: at the time of writing they had secured, respectively, 155 and 166 ratifications. As for occupational safety and health, there are large variations in fatal and non-fatal injury rates across countries. Furthermore, the rate of occupational injury tends to be much higher among men than among women. In most countries, migrants are also at somewhat greater risk of suffering occupational injuries than non-migrants.

1 Global employment and social trends

The global labour market at a glance

At the end of 2018 an estimated 7.6 billion people were living on our planet (United Nations, 2017a). Enhancing the well-being of all these people, especially those who are less affluent, should be the top priority of any policy agenda. Achieving the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) is an important part of policy-makers' efforts in that respect. This new edition of *World Employment and Social Outlook: Trends* analyses in detail the major recent trends for the key labour market indicators that are relevant to human prosperity and welfare. Labour markets are central to attaining the SDGs and promoting human-centred development. This is because paid work is the main source of income for the vast majority of households across the world, and also because the organization of work can help to reinforce the core principles of equality, democracy, sustainability and social cohesion.

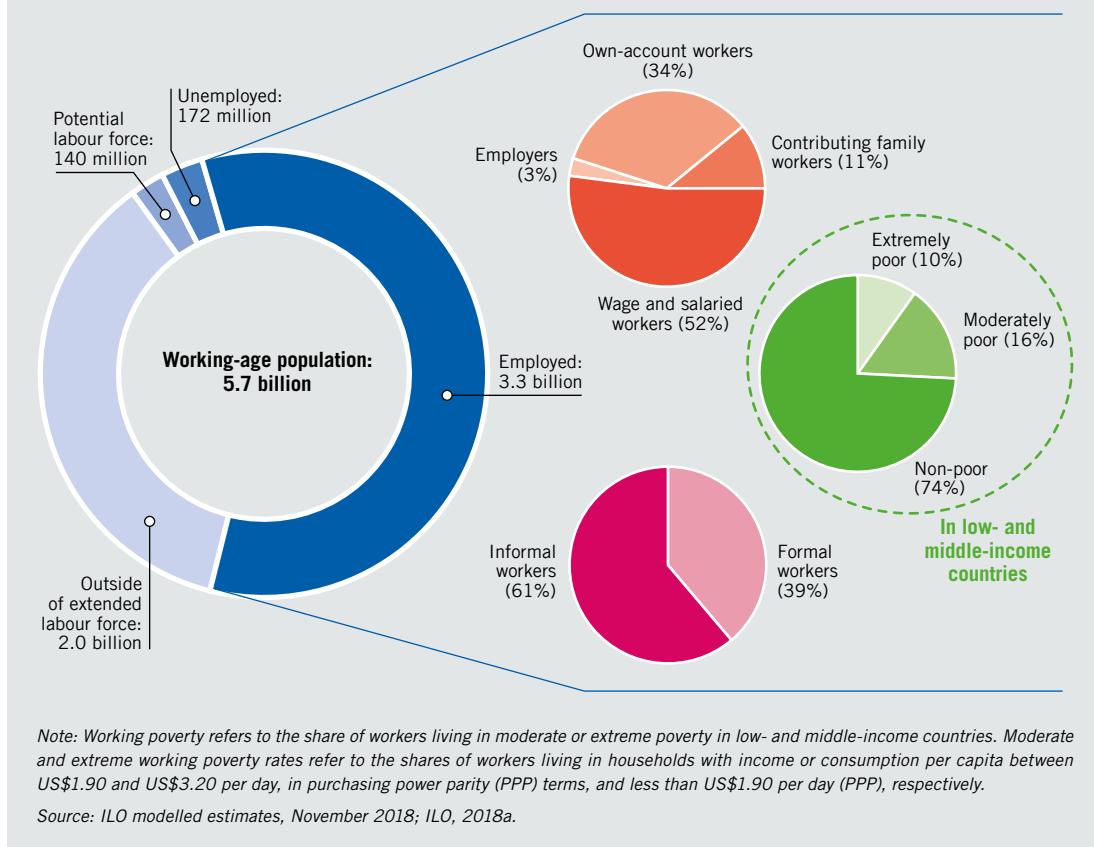
In 2018, the global working age-population, comprising women and men aged 15 years or older,¹ was 5.7 billion (figure 1.1). Out of these, 3.3 billion people, or 58.4 per cent, were in employment, and 172 million were unemployed. Both these groups taken together constitute the global labour force, which therefore stood at 3.5 billion in 2018, implying a labour force participation rate of 61.4 per cent. The remaining 2.2 billion people (38.6 per cent) of working age were outside the labour force, including those engaged in education and unpaid care work and those in retirement. Within this group, 140 million were in the potential labour force (i.e. people who are looking for a job but are not yet available to take up employment, or who are available but are not looking for a job).

Statistics on employment and labour force participation reflect the definitions established in the relevant resolutions of the International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS), which are updated periodically to adjust to the changing world of work. For instance, the 19th ICLS, held in 2013, narrowed the definition of employment to refer only to activities performed for others in exchange for pay or profit. At the same time, the definition of work was expanded to include also the production of services for own use, such as unpaid care work (ILO, 2013). Neither these changes nor those introduced in the most recent relevant resolution, which was adopted by the 20th ICLS (ILO, 2018b), are reflected in the global labour market statistics presented in this report. New questionnaires for labour force surveys are still being designed and tested with the support of the ILO. For the time being, globally consistent data based on the new definitions are not yet available for a number of countries that is sufficiently large to yield reliable aggregates. (Further information on the likely implications of applying the new definitions adopted at the 19th ICLS can be found in ILO, 2018c, box 6.)

1. The ILO does not apply an upper age limit when determining the working-age population. A large proportion of the world's population does not enjoy old-age benefits; in other words many people have no choice but to work for as long as they are able to. Even in countries that do provide old-age benefits the retirement age varies widely, which means that any cut-off point would be arbitrary.

Figure 1.1

Snapshot of the global labour market, 2018



Decent work deficits are widespread

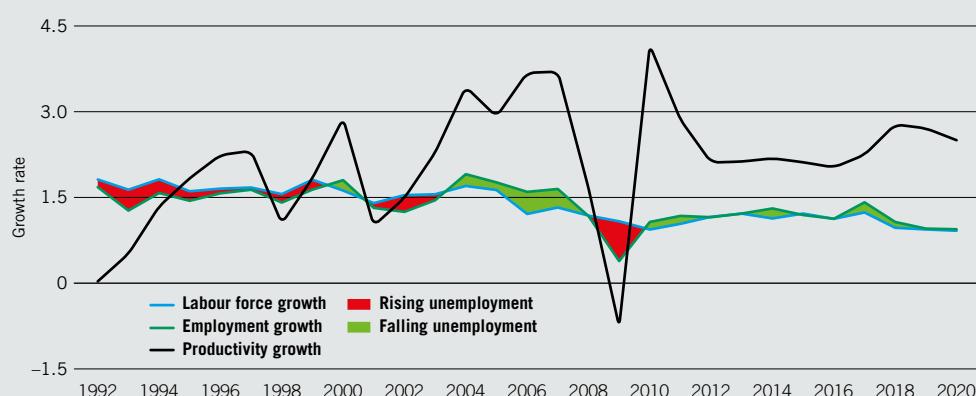
Paid work is a key driver of material well-being, economic security, equality of opportunity and human development; however, advances in these areas still elude a majority of workers across the world. Being in employment does not always guarantee a decent living. A considerable proportion of the world's working-age population is at risk of poverty, and employment in such cases is a matter of individuals trying to meet their basic living needs and those of their families. Indeed, many workers find themselves having to take up vulnerable jobs, especially in the informal economy, which are typically associated with low pay and little or no access to social protection and rights at work. Some 360 million people, or 11 per cent of the employed, are contributing family workers who lack effective access to social protection and income security, and whose employment status is categorized as informal by definition. An additional 1.1 billion people, or 34 per cent of the global working-age population, work on their own account. Although own-account work can serve as a springboard to entrepreneurship, a large proportion of such work involves subsistence activities that are pursued because of the absence of job opportunities in the formal sector or the lack of a social protection system; in fact, 85 per cent of own-account workers operate in the informal economy (ILO, 2018a). Finally, just over half (52 per cent) of global workers are wage and salaried employees. This type of employment is often associated with better working conditions and greater income security, though that is not necessarily true in many parts of the world (see Chapter 2), as evidenced by the fact that 40 per cent of such jobs are informal. Overall, a staggering 2 billion workers are in informal employment, accounting for three in five (61 per cent) of the world's workforce. Many informal workers are, moreover, among the 55 per cent of the global population who do not enjoy any social protection (ILO, 2017a). The poor quality of many jobs also manifests itself in the fact that, in 2018, more than one quarter of workers in low- and middle-income countries were living in extreme or moderate poverty (i.e. on less than US\$3.20 per day in purchasing power parity (PPP) terms).

Employment growth is declining against a background of slowing labour force growth

The average annual growth of the global working-age population has decreased from 1.9 per cent in the period 1990–95 to 1.3 per cent in the period 2013–18; it is projected to fall even further, to 1.1 per cent, by 2030. This slowdown is reflected in a declining labour force growth, with the latter rate falling from 1.8 per cent in 1992 to below 1 per cent in 2018 and beyond (figure 1.2). Employment growth has also decreased over the same period, from an average of 1.5 per cent in the 1990s to below 1 per cent in 2018. In general, employment growth cannot persistently exceed labour force growth because otherwise the employed population would eventually be larger than the labour force, which by definition is not possible. Figure 1.2 shows that during the 1990s employment growth tended to lag behind labour force growth, whereas it surpassed the latter by on average 0.25 percentage points per year between 2004 and 2007, thereby driving down the unemployment rate considerably. Since 2010 employment and labour force growth rates have been very close, with the former slightly exceeding the latter most of the time. Over the years 2018–20, the two rates are expected to be similar, so that the global unemployment rate will remain essentially unchanged.

Figure 1.2

Growth of global labour force, employment and productivity, 1992–2020 (percentages)



Note: During red (green) shaded periods the unemployment rate rises (falls) as a result of employment growth lagging behind (exceeding) labour force growth. Productivity growth is calculated as GDP per worker and aggregated using PPP exchange rates. The figures for the years beyond 2018 presented here and later on in the report are projections.

Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

Productivity growth remains stable despite slower economic growth

The rates of growth of GDP per capita and GDP per worker (productivity) feature as indicators for SDG targets 8.1 and 8.2; they are also two widely used measures of development. The premise behind such GDP-based indicators is that greater accumulation of wealth by society as a whole should benefit everyone. However, the use of GDP as a measure of economic performance and social progress has severe limitations, since it tells us nothing about working conditions, income distribution or environmental degradation. Nor does GDP capture important activities such as unpaid care work. These shortcomings have led to the proposal of several new measures of progress that look “beyond GDP” (Berik, 2018; EC, 2018; ILO, 2019; OECD, 2018a and 2018b; WEF, 2018). For now, though, GDP remains the most widely available indicator of economic development.

Given that GDP growth is the sum of employment growth and productivity growth, it is clear that these three indicators are closely related. In the short run, variations in economic growth can have an impact on employment growth and unemployment. A long-term expansion of GDP at a rate in excess of employment and labour force growth, on the other hand, generally points to an improvement in

labour productivity. Consequently, the rate of GDP growth should be considered from both a short-term perspective (i.e. whether it allows for sufficient employment growth) and a long-term one (whether it generates sufficient improvement in value added per worker).

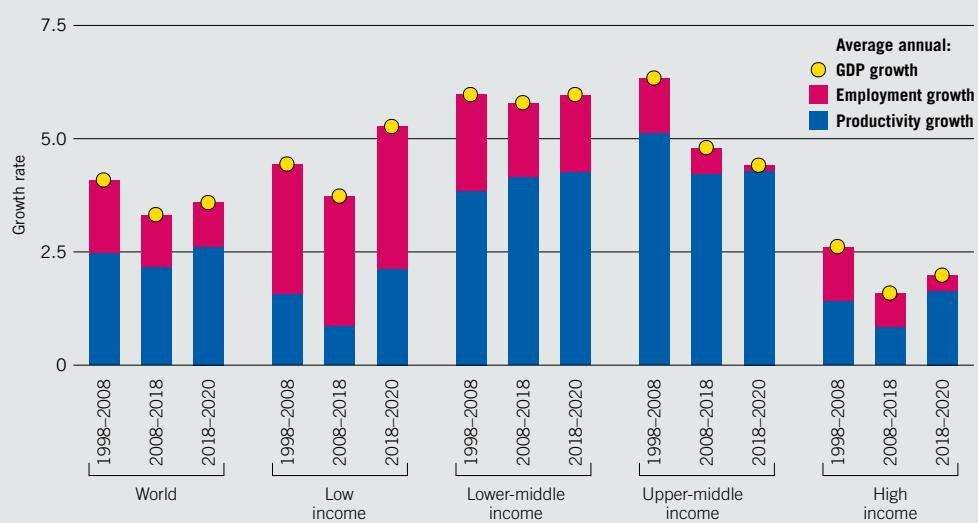
The average global economic growth rate during the period 2011–18 was 3.6 per cent,² which is lower than the 3.9 per cent rate experienced from 2001 to 2010, but higher than the 3.3 per cent rate observed from 1992 to 2000 (IMF, 2018a). The growth rate is projected to stay at 3.6 per cent in the years to come. It would therefore seem that the world economy has settled on a slower growth path compared with the 2000s. However, employment growth was sufficiently strong to keep up with labour force growth, and productivity growth averaged around 2.3 per cent during both 2001–10 and 2011–18. Moreover, productivity growth during 2019–21 is expected to reach its highest levels since 2010, surpassing the historical average of 2.1 per cent for the period 1992–2018. This implies that once labour force growth has been accounted for, the current level of GDP growth is in line with the higher level of the years 2001–10.

Disparities in productivity growth are very pronounced

The apparently stable and positive global picture masks stark disparities in growth performance among country income groups (figure 1.3) and across geographical regions (see Chapter 2). Projected GDP growth is highest in low- and lower-middle-income countries. However, the significant expansion in employment expected to take place in low-income countries between 2018 and 2020 means that labour productivity growth in these countries is likely to be fairly low during that period, averaging 2.3 per cent a year, compared with 4.2 per cent in middle-income countries. Such modest productivity growth suggests that instead of catching up with countries in the higher income group, low-income countries

Figure 1.3

Average growth of GDP and its two components (labour productivity and employment), global and by country income group, 1998–2020 (percentages)



Note: The growth in GDP is broken down into its two constituent parts: employment growth and productivity growth (output per worker). Growth rates for GDP and productivity are calculated by aggregating countries using PPP exchange rates.

Source: IMF, 2018a; ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

2. All aggregate growth figures presented in this report have been calculated using PPP exchange rates rather than market exchange rates.

are falling behind in their efforts to raise living standards and reduce poverty for all. This also has implications for achieving the SDGs, as discussed in [Chapter 3](#). Economic growth in upper-middle- and high-income countries in the next few years is expected to be driven almost exclusively by productivity growth rather than by employment growth.

The effects of growth – or of the lack thereof – differ greatly depending on the income group to which a country belongs. In low- and middle-income countries, rising earnings primarily help to lift people out of poverty, but they can also improve working conditions as workers move away from subsistence production towards more modern market activities. In upper-middle- and high-income countries, growth is related to job creation and destruction and, consequently, influences the unemployment rate.

The remaining sections of this chapter deal first with trends in the global labour force; important differences between various demographic groups are highlighted. The focus then shifts to those in employment through an analysis of trends in working conditions and incomes. This is followed by a discussion of the magnitude of unemployment and extended labour underutilization. Finally, the link between developments in the labour market and social unrest is explored.

Labour force participation

Around 61 per cent of the world's working-age population participates in the labour market ([table 1.1](#)), either by being actually employed or by searching for employment while being available for work. This participation rate has been declining on average by between 0.1 and 0.2 percentage points per year over the past 25 years, with the steepest drop occurring in the aftermath of the global financial crisis of 2008. Aggregate participation rates vary across country income groups, ranging, in 2018, from 56 per cent in lower-middle-income countries to 71 per cent in low-income countries. Participation rates are expected to decline in all country income groups between 2018 and 2023, most markedly in upper-middle-income countries (by 2 percentage points) and high-income countries (by 1 percentage point). These aggregate values, however, mask considerable disparities in female and youth participation rates.

The gender gap in labour force participation is closing only marginally

The global gap in labour force participation rates between women and men stood at 27 percentage points in 2018: less than half of all working-age women (48 per cent) were participating in the labour market in that year, compared with three-quarters of men (75 per cent). Nevertheless, the gender gap has been narrowing over the past 25 years, mainly because the decline in the participation rate for women between 1993 and 2003 was much smaller than that for men. In low-, lower-middle- and upper-middle-income countries, male participation rates are quite similar, ranging from 75 to 79 per cent in 2018. By contrast, the highest participation rate for women in the same year was 64 per cent and was observed in low-income countries; in lower-middle-income countries it was as low as 35 per cent. It is worth noting, however, that high female participation rates in low-income countries are mainly a consequence of the economic necessity for women to contribute to the family income by engaging in market or subsistence activities.

On the other hand, the gender gap in labour force participation is closing rapidly in high-income countries. Thus, the participation rate for women in this country group rose by 3.5 percentage points from 1993 to 2018, while the participation rate for men fell by an equal amount over the same time span. By 2018 the gender gap in high-income countries had narrowed to 15 percentage points; it is expected to narrow further over the next five years.

Gender gaps in the labour market arise from a multitude of inter-related factors, including social norms, gender roles and socio-economic constraints that are often deeply rooted in societies. Consequently, it takes a long time to tackle them even when the political will is there. A report by Gallup and the ILO (2017) outlines the various attitudes and preferences around the world with regard to women's role in the labour market, while two recent ILO reports (ILO, 2016 and 2017b) offer a detailed discussion of the underlying factors, together with possible measures that can be used to address gender gaps.

Table 1.1
**Labour force participation rates, global and by country income group,
level in 2018 and changes during 1993–2023**

Country grouping	Demographic group	Level (%)	Changes over five year periods (percentage points)					
			2018	1993–98	1998–2003	2003–08	2008–13	2013–18
World	Total	61.4	-0.5	-0.9	-0.9	-1.1	-0.5	-1.1
	Female	47.9	-0.1	-0.5	-1.0	-1.2	-0.3	-1.1
	Male	74.9	-0.9	-1.3	-0.9	-1.0	-0.8	-1.0
	Youth	42.1	-3.3	-3.1	-2.6	-3.7	-2.2	-1.3
	Adult	66.6	0.2	-0.2	-0.6	-0.8	-0.5	-1.2
Low income	Total	71.3	-0.3	-0.2	-1.1	-1.2	-0.1	-0.2
	Female	64.1	-0.1	0.2	-1.1	-1.2	0.4	-0.3
	Male	78.7	-0.5	-0.6	-1.0	-1.3	-0.7	-0.2
	Youth	56.6	-1.1	-0.9	-1.7	-1.6	-1.0	-0.6
	Adult	79.0	0.2	0.4	-0.8	-1.1	0.2	-0.3
Lower-middle income	Total	56.5	-0.3	-0.4	-1.1	-1.5	-0.3	-0.4
	Female	35.5	0.1	-0.1	-1.1	-1.9	0.4	-0.3
	Male	77.1	-0.7	-0.6	-1.1	-1.2	-1.0	-0.5
	Youth	35.9	-1.2	-1.4	-3.4	-4.3	-2.4	-1.2
	Adult	63.7	0.0	0.0	-0.5	-1.0	-0.1	-0.6
Upper-middle income	Total	64.8	-1.1	-1.9	-1.6	-1.0	-1.1	-2.0
	Female	54.6	-0.8	-1.5	-1.7	-1.0	-1.2	-2.2
	Male	75.0	-1.4	-2.3	-1.4	-0.9	-1.0	-1.9
	Youth	44.2	-5.6	-6.0	-2.7	-3.9	-3.5	-2.3
	Adult	68.9	0.0	-0.7	-1.3	-1.1	-1.4	-2.3
High income	Total	60.5	0.1	-0.1	0.5	-0.5	0.2	-1.0
	Female	52.7	1.1	0.7	1.0	0.1	0.6	-0.8
	Male	68.4	-0.9	-1.1	-0.1	-1.2	-0.3	-1.3
	Youth	45.1	-1.6	-1.9	-0.7	-2.6	0.4	-1.5
	Adult	63.0	0.4	0.1	0.6	-0.3	-0.1	-1.1

Note: "Youth" refers to ages 15–24, "Adult" to ages 25+.

Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

Youth labour force participation rates are falling as educational enrolment rises

The global labour force participation rate for young people aged 15 to 24 declined significantly between 1993 and 2018, falling by 15 percentage points to reach 42 per cent at the end of that period. This trend can be ascribed mainly to the rising rate of educational enrolment among young people. Globally, the gross enrolment ratio in secondary education rose from 55 per cent in 1993 to 77 per cent in 2017; in tertiary education, it increased from 14 per cent to 38 per cent over the same period (UIS, 2018).

In 2018, the youth labour force participation rate was highest, at 57 per cent, in low-income countries; the lowest value (36 per cent) was observed in lower-middle-income countries. In upper-middle-income countries, the youth participation rate has declined by more than 20 percentage points since 1993, reaching 44 per cent in 2018, a level similar to that recorded in high-income countries (45 per cent). However, the gross enrolment ratio in tertiary education in upper-middle-income countries (52 per cent in 2017) is still significantly lower than in high-income countries (77 per cent) (*ibid.*). In addition, the fact that in lower-middle-income countries this ratio stood at just 24 per cent in 2017 (*ibid.*) suggests that educational enrolment has only a limited influence on variations in youth labour force participation rates across country income groups.

The declining labour force participation rate creates new challenges

Some factors driving declining labour force participation rates, such as rising educational enrolment rates, greater opportunities to retire and a higher life expectancy, are positive for the people that benefit from these. However, the projected trends in labour force growth also create new challenges regarding the organization of work and the distribution of resources (see ILO, 2018a, Chapter 4). First and foremost, existing pension systems will be strained to keep older people out of poverty. Second, a rising dependency ratio raises labour demand in specific sectors such as the care sector, accelerating structural transformation. Third, an increasingly ageing labour force challenges workers' ability to keep up with the pace of innovation and structural changes in the labour market (*ibid.*).

Employment-to-population ratio

The evolution of labour force participation rates, labour force growth and employment growth all play a role in determining the share of the working-age population that is in employment, referred to as the employment-to-population ratio (EPR). Variations in the EPR across country income groups and demographic groups reflect mainly differences in labour force participation rates, but to some degree also differences in unemployment rates.

Globally, 58.4 per cent of the working-age population was in employment in 2018, down from 62.2 per cent in 1993 (table 1.2). The gender gap in the EPR was 26 percentage points in 2018, which means that men are more than 0.5 times more likely to be in employment than women. Low-income countries have the highest EPR (above 68 per cent), whereas in lower-middle-income countries it stands at no more than 54 per cent – something that can be accounted for mainly by the fact that only one third of women in these countries are in employment. The EPR is expected to decline slightly across all country income groups and for all demographic groups; this trend is entirely the result of a decreasing labour force participation rate.

As can be seen from table 1.2, in all country income groups the majority of the working-age population is in employment. The following sections elaborate on the main types of jobs, focusing on indicators of employment quality that are also relevant when assessing the well-being of people.

Table 1.2

Employment-to-population ratio, global and by country income group, 1993, 2018 and 2020 (percentages)

Country grouping	Total (%)			Female (%)			Male (%)			Youth (%)		
	1993	2018	2020	1993	2018	2020	1993	2018	2020	1993	2018	2020
World	62.2	58.4	58.0	48.5	45.3	44.9	76.0	71.4	71.1	51.7	37.1	36.6
Low income	71.3	68.7	68.6	63.5	61.7	61.6	79.4	75.9	75.8	58.8	53.1	52.9
Lower-middle income	57.9	54.3	54.1	36.4	33.7	33.5	78.8	74.5	74.3	44.2	31.6	31.0
Upper-middle income	68.2	60.9	60.2	58.2	51.3	50.5	78.2	70.5	69.9	60.7	37.6	36.8
High income	55.6	57.3	57.1	44.9	49.8	49.6	66.8	65.0	64.7	43.4	39.8	39.4

Note: The employment-to-population ratio is the ratio of the labour force currently employed to the working-age population.

Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

Informality and status in employment

Informal employment is the reality for the majority of workers worldwide. Thus, in 2016, 2 billion workers, or 61 per cent of the global labour force, were pursuing economic activities that were either not covered at all, or were insufficiently covered, by formal arrangements in law or in practice (ILO, 2018a). Significantly, informal workers are much more likely to live in conditions of poverty than formal workers (*ibid.*). It is important to note, though, that formality is no guarantee of escaping poverty, and that informal workers are not confined to being poor.

Globally, the rate of informality is actually higher among men (63 per cent) than among women (58 per cent) (see [table 1.3](#)). However, women are more likely than men to be in informal employment in low- and lower-middle-income countries. By contrast, men are more frequently in informal employment in upper-middle- and high-income countries.

Table 1.3

Informality and employment status, global and by country income group, levels in 2016 and 2018, and projected changes during 2018–23

Country grouping	By sex	Wage and salaried workers										Employers		Own-account workers		Contributing family workers	
		Informality		Level (%)		Change (percentage points)		Level (%)		Change (percentage points)		Level (%)		Change (percentage points)		Level (%)	
		2016	2018	2016	2018	2016	2018	2016	2018	2016	2018	2016	2018	2016	2018		
World	Total	61.2	52.0	0.6	2.9	0.1	34.1	0.4	10.9	-1.0							
	Female	58.1	52.5	0.5	1.7	0.1	27.8	0.8	18.1	-1.4							
	Male	63.0	51.7	0.6	3.8	0.0	38.2	0.1	6.4	-0.8							
Low income	Total	89.8	18.8	0.9	1.6	0.0	50.9	0.1	28.6	-1.0							
	Female	92.1	11.9	0.6	0.8	0.0	44.5	0.6	42.8	-1.2							
	Male	87.5	24.5	1.1	2.3	0.0	56.4	-0.4	16.8	-0.7							
Lower-middle income	Total	83.7	34.5	1.9	2.7	0.1	49.5	0.1	13.3	-2.1							
	Female	84.5	31.6	2.1	1.4	0.1	42.0	1.1	25.0	-3.3							
	Male	83.4	35.8	1.8	3.3	0.1	52.8	-0.4	8.2	-1.5							
Upper-middle income	Total	52.6	59.2	1.8	3.3	0.1	28.3	-0.6	9.2	-1.3							
	Female	50.4	58.4	2.2	1.9	0.1	24.4	-0.3	15.2	-2.0							
	Male	54.0	59.8	1.5	4.4	0.1	31.1	-0.9	4.8	-0.7							
High income	Total	18.3	87.2	0.2	3.3	0.0	8.6	-0.1	0.9	-0.1							
	Female	17.6	89.7	0.2	2.0	0.0	6.7	0.0	1.5	-0.2							
	Male	18.9	85.2	0.2	4.3	-0.1	10.0	-0.1	0.5	-0.1							

Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018; ILO, 2018a.

Formality is more common in wage employment than in self-employment

Informality is especially widespread among own-account workers, with 85 per cent of them working under such arrangements (ILO, 2018a). The workers and economic units engaged in informal own-account work, and also the businesses of informal employers, tend to lack legal recognition. Moreover, they often fail to comply with fiscal obligations and face serious difficulties in entering into commercial contracts and gaining access to financial resources, markets or property. As for wage and salaried workers, 40 per cent of them have informal jobs, which means that their employment relationships are, in law or in practice, not subject to national labour legislation, income taxation, social protection or entitlement to certain employment benefits. Lastly, all contributing family workers are by definition informal: together with own-account workers, they are therefore especially vulnerable to all the economic and social disadvantages that go hand in hand with informality.

Wage and salaried employment increases as countries develop

Slightly more than half of workers worldwide, including both formal and informal workers, were wage and salaried employees in 2018; the proportion is similar among both women and men (table 1.3). Over the next five years, the share of wage and salaried employees is projected to increase by around 0.5 percentage points. The apparent gender equality in this category of workers, however, masks large disparities between countries at different income levels. First, the share of wage and salaried employment is larger the higher the income level of countries: in low-income countries it averages 19 per cent, compared with 87 per cent in high-income countries. Second, women are less likely than men to be in this type of employment in low-income countries; the situation is reversed in high-income countries. The share of wage and salaried employment is expected to increase the most in middle-income countries. Significantly, in upper-middle-income countries the female share is projected to increase to a greater extent than the male share over the next five years, with gains of 2.2 and 1.5 percentage points for women and men, respectively.

Women are under-represented as employers

The share of employers in total employment in 2018 was relatively low, at around 3 per cent, both globally and in middle- and high-income countries. In low-income countries, the employers' share was just 1.6 per cent, which can be partly explained by the prevalence of subsistence activities undertaken outside organized economic units. Globally and across all country income groups, the gender gap among employers is large: the share of women with this employment status is just half that of men.

Own-account work is expanding, especially among women

Own-account workers made up over a third of global employment in 2018. Their share was much higher in low- and lower-middle-income countries (around 50 per cent in both cases) than in upper-middle-income (28 per cent) and high-income countries (9 per cent). Across all country income groups, men are significantly more likely to be own-account workers than women. However, at the global level this gender gap, which stood at over 10 percentage points in 2018, is closing: the share of women with this employment status is projected to increase by nearly 1 percentage point over the next five years, whereas that of men will remain essentially unchanged.

Contributing family work is still widespread among women in low-income countries

Women are around three times more likely than men to be contributing family workers, both globally and across all country income groups. One reason for this disproportion is that in many countries property rights are biased in favour of men as landholders, while women are expected to become contributing family workers in agricultural activities (Doss et al., 2015). There is a strong tendency for the incidence of contributing family work to decrease with rising income levels: in 2018, the share was around 30 per cent in low-income countries, compared with less than 1 per cent in high-income countries. Over the next five years, the incidence of contributing family work is projected to decline further, namely by around 1 percentage point at the global level. The rate of decrease is expected to be even greater in middle-income countries and among women.

Despite the improvements that have taken place, working conditions continue to be unsatisfactory for a large part of the global workforce. Globally, 1.5 billion people are estimated to be own-account and contributing family workers, which renders them especially vulnerable to the problems associated with informality. Furthermore, the pace of progress is too slow in low-income countries to lead to a significant reduction in the shares of these two vulnerable groups: it is projected that in 2023 as many as 80 per cent of workers in such countries will still be own-account or contributing family workers.

Structural transformation and job quality

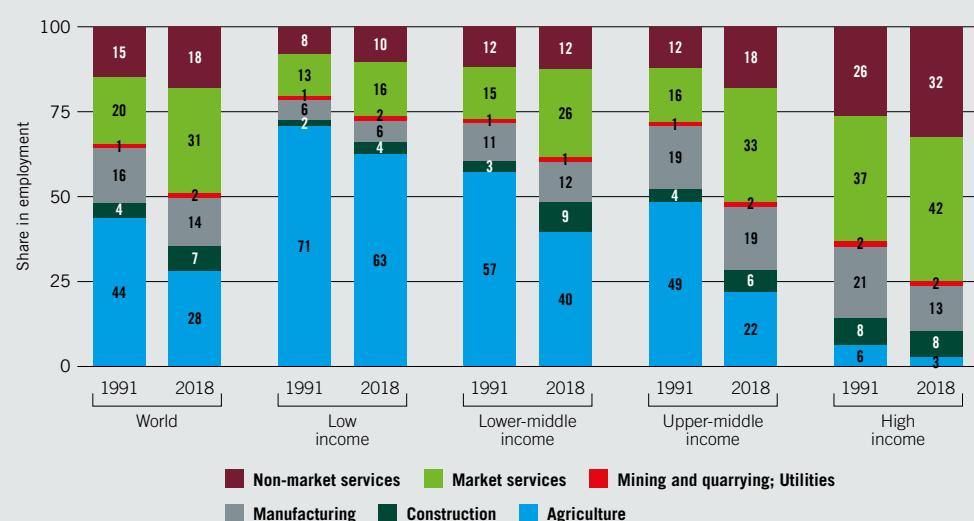
As already pointed out in last year's edition of this report (ILO, 2018d), working conditions can vary significantly across sectors. Since the evolution of working conditions is linked closely to the changing structure of the economy, the process of structural transformation should be evaluated not just in terms of employment shares but also in terms of less tangible labour market outcomes, such as working conditions and employment arrangements (*ibid.*).

Market services are the main driver of employment growth

The share of agriculture in total employment is shrinking across all country income groups (figure 1.4). Globally, it has declined from 44 per cent in 1991 to 28 per cent in 2018, with the largest contribution to this decline being attributable to middle-income countries. In low-income countries, 63 per cent of workers were still employed in the agricultural sector in 2018, down by just 8 percentage points since 1991. The share of the manufacturing sector is decreasing at the global level – a trend that is driven by high-income countries. The sectors in which expansion can be observed are the construction sector, non-market services and, most importantly, market services. At the global level, services already accounted for just under half of total employment in 2018; this share is expected to continue to rise.

Figure 1.4

Distribution of employment by aggregate sectors, global and by country income group, 1991 and 2018 (percentages)



Note: The categories of aggregate economic activities are defined in the documentation for the ILOSTAT database (https://www.ilo.org/ilostat-files/Documents/description_ECO_EN.pdf).

Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

Structural transformation alone will not bring about widespread improvement in working conditions

The shift of employment away from subsistence agriculture, which is characterized by cultivation on small areas of land resulting in low yields (Banerjee and Duflo, 2007), towards other activities presents an opportunity to improve working conditions, as long as the expanding sectors are able to offer high-quality jobs. Significantly, the rate of informality in the agricultural sector at more than 93 per cent (ILO, 2018a) is much higher than in other sectors. Besides the potential improvements that structural transformation can lead to, efforts should also be undertaken to enhance agricultural productivity by,

for instance, upgrading the skills of members of rural households, and also through initiatives such as the development of agricultural value chains. With this aim in mind, the ILO is actively supporting the promotion of decent work opportunities within the agricultural sector.

Problematic working conditions are also found in the burgeoning sector of market services. For instance, street vendors often face great insecurity as regards their working time and their income and work situation. The emergence of the “gig economy”, in which workers are classified as self-employed and offer their services on Internet platforms, poses further challenges with regard to ensuring conditions of decent work in sectors and occupations that had traditionally provided such conditions in the past (ILO, 2018e). The task of improving working conditions, providing access to social protection and ensuring fundamental principles and rights against the background of a changing world of work will require a concerted effort by governments, employers and workers.

Income

The provision of a fair income is an important aspect of decent work. Wages are one source of labour-related income, though not the only one. For instance, the self-employed do not receive wages; their earnings come instead from the profits they make on their activities. Ultimately, the total available income determines whether or not households can afford a decent living. This section opens with a discussion of working poverty, which is the situation that occurs when workers have so low an income that they are unable to escape poverty despite being in employment. Real wage growth is then considered, mainly by looking at the trends in the average incomes of wage and salaried workers.

Some 700 million workers live in extreme or moderate poverty

A situation of extreme or moderate poverty (i.e. having to live on less than US\$3.20 per day in PPP terms) was the reality for almost 700 million workers in low- and middle-income countries in 2018 ([table 1.4](#)). This means that one in four persons in employment in these countries lived in conditions of poverty. Nevertheless, enormous progress has been made since 1993, when two in three workers (altogether 1.3 billion workers) were still living in extreme or moderate poverty. It is expected that there will be further progress in the years to come, with the number of working poor decreasing by a further 55 million by 2023. The rate of decline, however, is slowing down gradually, mainly because the low share of working poor in upper-middle-income countries cannot decline much further.

China's contribution to working poverty reduction is significant

Working poverty rates are declining rapidly in middle-income countries. Upper-middle-income countries experienced decreases in extreme and moderate working poverty rates of more than 2 percentage points per year between 1993 and 2018. This speed of decline obviously cannot continue, since by 2018 working poverty had fallen to 5.3 per cent. The consistently high economic growth achieved by China since 1993 has contributed significantly to reducing the share and overall number of working poor in the group of low- and middle-income countries. By contrast, the absolute number of working poor is rising in sub-Saharan Africa despite the declining working poverty rate there ([figure 1.5](#)). Lower-middle-income countries still accounted for the largest number of workers in extreme and moderate poverty (432 million) in 2018, but this number is projected to decrease by 54 million by 2023: one in three workers in these countries would then be living in poverty.

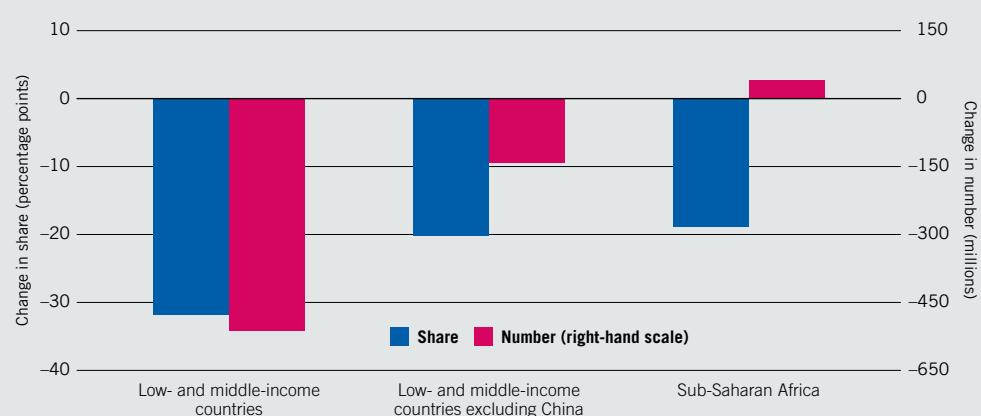
Working poverty is widespread in low-income countries, where in 2018 almost 40 per cent of workers, or 116 million, were living in extreme poverty; an additional 27.5 per cent, or 81 million, were living in moderate poverty. Although the working poverty rate in these countries is falling overall, the absolute number of workers in extreme and moderate poverty is projected to increase by 15 million by 2023 because the rate of creation of decently paying jobs will not be able to keep up with the rapid growth in the number of jobseekers. This means that SDG 1 (“End poverty in all its forms everywhere”) is unlikely to be attained in the majority of low-income countries unless there is an urgent change of policy.

Table 1.4**Working poverty, by country income group and demographic group, 1993, 2018 and 2023**

Country grouping	Demo-graphic group	Extreme working poverty						Moderate working poverty					
		(percentages)			(millions)			(percentages)			(millions)		
		1993	2018	2023		1993	2018	2023		1993	2018	2023	
Low and middle income	Total	41.7	9.8	8.6	778.2	264.8	244.0	26.0	16.0	14.0	485.8	429.7	395.8
	Female	44.5	10.5	9.6	319.0	106.5	101.9	24.6	14.1	12.6	176.5	142.7	133.8
	Male	39.9	9.4	8.0	459.2	158.3	142.1	26.9	17.1	14.8	309.3	287.0	262.0
Low income	Total	61.4	39.2	35.2	91.2	115.8	120.9	21.6	27.5	26.6	32.1	81.3	91.4
	Female	63.9	40.4	36.3	43.2	54.4	56.5	21.3	27.7	27.0	14.4	37.3	42.2
	Male	59.2	38.2	34.4	47.9	61.4	64.3	21.8	27.4	26.3	17.7	44.1	49.3
Lower-middle income	Total	40.4	12.1	9.3	288.6	138.3	114.8	32.0	25.7	21.3	229.0	293.6	262.8
	Female	43.3	13.5	11.0	96.3	47.4	41.7	29.4	23.8	19.9	65.3	83.3	75.1
	Male	39.1	11.5	8.5	192.3	90.9	73.1	33.2	26.6	21.9	163.7	210.3	187.7
Upper-middle income	Total	39.7	0.9	0.7	398.4	10.8	8.3	22.4	4.4	3.3	224.7	54.8	41.6
	Female	42.0	0.9	0.7	179.5	4.7	3.7	22.6	4.2	3.2	96.7	22.1	16.6
	Male	38.0	0.8	0.6	218.9	6.0	4.6	22.2	4.5	3.4	128.0	32.7	25.0
	Youth	43.1	1.1	0.8	105.6	1.4	1.0	24.7	4.8	3.6	60.5	6.3	4.3

Note: Moderate and extreme working poverty rates refer to the shares of workers living in households with income or consumption per capita between US\$1.90 and US\$3.20 per day, in PPP terms, and less than US\$1.90 per day (PPP), respectively. "Youth" refers to ages 15–24.

Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

Figure 1.5**Changes in extreme and moderate working poverty, 1993–2018**

Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

Young workers are more likely to be living in poverty

In 2018, 10.5 per cent of employed women in low- and middle-income countries were living in extreme poverty, compared with 9.4 per cent of male workers; conversely, the moderate working poverty rate was higher among men (17.1 per cent) than among women (14.1 per cent). The problem of working poverty is even more severe among young people (ages 15–24). More than one in three young workers in low- and middle-income countries were living in extreme or moderate poverty in 2018 – a much higher rate than for adult workers. However, one needs to be careful when interpreting differences among demographic groups, since poverty is a household measure and there are usually individuals from several demographic groups, some or all of them in employment, living within the same household. The pressure on young people to take up a job instead of continuing their education tends to be greater when a household is suffering poverty.

Average real wage growth slowed down in 2017

Wages are the primary source of income for the 1.7 billion wage and salaried employees in the world. Consequently, any developments with regard to real wages (i.e. wages adjusted for price inflation) have a major impact on the incomes of more than half of the global labour force. The *Global Wage Report 2018/19* (ILO, 2018f) found that, in 2017, global real wage growth had fallen to its lowest rate since 2008, declining from an estimated 2.4 per cent in 2016 to just 1.8 per cent.³

In high-income countries, the general trend in 2017 and in the preliminary data for 2018 has been one of low real wage growth, although recently published data suggest that nominal wage growth may be picking up in some countries. On average, in the group of 52 high-income countries, wage growth in real terms declined from 1.2 per cent in 2016 to 0.8 per cent in 2017 (figure 1.6), which may be ascribed in particular to lower wage growth in France and Germany and to falling real wages in Italy, Japan and Spain. Real wage growth also remained below 1 per cent in 2017 in Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom and the United States.

Figure 1.6

Real wage growth, global and by country income group, 2000–17 (percentages)



Source: ILO estimates based on official figures from 84 low- and middle-income countries and 52 high-income countries as recorded in the ILOSTAT database and the ILO Global Wage Database.

3. In the *Global Wage Report 2018/19* (ILO, 2018f), real wage growth is calculated as a weighted average using gross monthly wages rather than hourly wage rates, which are less frequently available. The estimated rates of global real wage growth presented there are based on data from 136 countries.

In low- and middle-income countries, real wage growth has fluctuated in recent years, rising from 2.5 per cent in 2015 to 4.2 per cent in 2016, and then decelerating to 3.3 per cent in 2017 (*ibid.*). Workers in Asia and the Pacific have enjoyed the highest real wage growth among all regions over the period 2006–17. However, even in that region wage growth in 2017 (3.2 per cent) was lower than in 2016 (4.8 per cent). Wage growth also declined in Central and Western Asia, from 3.0 per cent in 2016 to 0.4 per cent in 2017. In Latin America and the Caribbean, real wage growth in 2017 increased slightly compared with 2016, but remained relatively low (under 1 per cent) nonetheless. In Africa, where, as part of the preparation of the *Global Wage Report 2018/19*, wage data were collected for the first time from a significant number of countries, real wages appear to have declined overall in 2017 by 3.0 per cent. This is mainly attributable to negative wage trends in Egypt and Nigeria, two large countries which exert a strong influence on the weighted regional average. If these two countries are excluded from the sample, real wages in Africa are estimated to have increased moderately (by 1.3 per cent) in 2017 (ILO, 2018f).

Taking a longer-term perspective, we may note that real wages between 1999 and 2017 almost tripled in low- and middle-income countries, whereas in high-income countries they increased by a much lower total of 9.0 per cent (*ibid.*). Nevertheless, in many low- and middle-income countries average wages remain low and insufficient to cover the needs of workers and their families, leading to working poverty.

Unemployment

Most individuals in the global labour force are in employment, holding jobs of varying quality; however, there are also people who would like to work but are unable to do so. In 2018, the global unemployment rate was estimated to stand at 5.0 per cent: it had therefore descended again to the level of 2008 and was significantly below the average of 5.4 per cent for the period since 2000 ([figure 1.7](#)). It is remarkable, though, that whereas it took only one year for the global unemployment rate to jump from 5.0 per cent in 2008 to 5.6 per cent in 2009, the recovery to the original value has taken a full nine years.

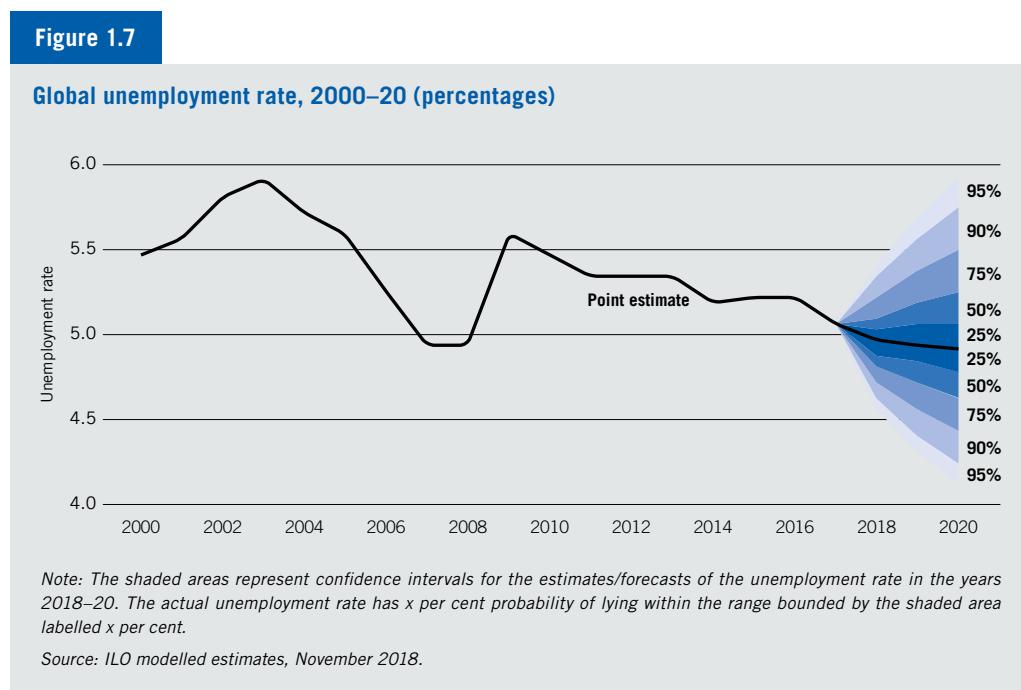


Table 1.5
Rate and level of unemployment, global and by country income group and demographic group, 2017–20

Country grouping	Demo-graphic group	Unemployment rate 2017–20 (percentages)				Unemployment 2017–20 (millions)			
		2017	2018	2019	2020	2017	2018	2019	2020
World	Total	5.1	5.0	4.9	4.9	174.1	172.5	173.6	174.3
	Female	5.5	5.4	5.4	5.4	74.4	73.7	74.4	74.8
	Male	4.8	4.7	4.6	4.6	99.7	98.8	99.2	99.5
	Youth	12.0	11.8	11.8	11.8	60.4	59.3	59.1	58.7
Low income	Total	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	11.1	11.4	11.8	12.2
	Female	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	5.2	5.4	5.5	5.7
	Male	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	5.9	6.1	6.3	6.5
	Youth	6.2	6.2	6.2	6.2	5.2	5.3	5.4	5.6
Lower-middle income	Total	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	46.5	47.3	48.2	49.2
	Female	5.1	5.1	5.2	5.2	18.6	19.0	19.4	19.8
	Male	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	27.9	28.3	28.8	29.3
	Youth	11.9	12.0	12.1	12.2	23.3	23.4	23.5	23.7
Upper-middle income	Total	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	80.9	80.7	81.2	80.8
	Female	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	34.0	33.9	34.2	34.0
	Male	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	46.9	46.8	47.0	46.8
	Youth	14.9	14.9	14.9	14.8	23.5	22.9	22.5	21.8
High income	Total	5.7	5.3	5.1	5.1	35.6	33.1	32.3	32.2
	Female	6.0	5.6	5.5	5.5	16.6	15.5	15.3	15.3
	Male	5.4	5.0	4.8	4.8	19.0	17.6	17.1	16.9
	Youth	12.5	11.7	11.6	11.7	8.5	7.8	7.7	7.6

Note: "Youth" refers to ages 15–24.

Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

Considerable uncertainty surrounds the forecasts of the global unemployment rate

The global unemployment rate is expected to remain essentially unchanged over the next few years (see figure 1.7), in line with projections pointing to stable global economic growth (IMF, 2018a). However, there is considerable uncertainty around the unemployment rate forecasts, which has to do with economic, financial and geopolitical risks. The probability of experiencing unemployment rates by 2020 that are similar to the level of 2009 is more than 5 per cent. In fact, there are already signs that the world economic outlook is deteriorating, as evidenced by the IMF's downward revision of growth estimates in IMF, 2018a compared with IMF, 2018b. According to ILO estimates, the IMF's latest projections of economic growth (published in October 2018) suggest that there will be an additional 2 million unemployed people by 2020 compared with the more optimistic scenario presented in April 2018 (IMF, 2018b). In 2018, an estimated 172 million people were unemployed (table 1.5). This number is projected to increase slightly in the coming years as the labour force expands.

The challenge of unemployment affects countries differently depending on their income group

For a large part of the world's population, poverty means that unemployment is not an option, even when there are no decent jobs available, since a "social safety net" is often absent and pursuing any kind of economic activity is essential for survival (see box 1.1). It is therefore not surprising that unemployment rates are lowest in low-income countries, at 3.3 per cent on average, followed by lower-middle-income countries, at 4.0 per cent. In upper-middle-income countries, the unemployment rate increased by 0.4 percentage points between 2014 and 2018, adding 7 million people to the global unemployment headcount. The currently bleak macroeconomic outlook in some key emerging countries (IMF, 2018a) suggests that the average unemployment rate in upper-middle-income countries – the group to which these emerging countries belong – is unlikely to decrease in the years to

Box 1.1

Why is unemployment so low in some low- and middle-income countries?

The unemployment rate is very low in many of the low- and middle-income countries such as Myanmar (1.6 per cent in 2017) and Madagascar (1.8 per cent in 2014), compared with the global unemployment rate of 5.0 per cent. This does not mean that the labour markets in these countries are functioning well. Two important aspects need to be considered.

First, formal employment opportunities are not keeping up with the rapidly growing labour force in these countries. In reality, every individual would of course like to have a decent, well-paying job, but when such a job is not forthcoming most people in low- and middle-income countries opt for jobs that are less well-paid or below their skill levels (Fields, 2011). For the poor, in the absence of

unemployment insurance or social protection systems, unemployment is not an option and the vast majority of them continue to depend on subsistence agriculture or the urban informal economy, often creating their own employment opportunities (*ibid.*; Banerjee and Duflo, 2007). This shows the importance of going beyond unemployment rates and looking at the quality of employment.

Second, the ILO's definition of unemployment is very strict, as a person is already considered to be in employment when having worked for at least one hour in the reference week. Additional information on time-related underemployment provides a more comprehensive picture of labour underutilization in countries where full-time employment is not the norm.

come. The unemployment rate is most relevant as an indicator of the health of the labour market in high-income countries, where unemployment greatly increases the risk of poverty.⁴ On the upside, high-income countries have experienced a remarkable recovery since the 2008 financial crisis. The unemployment rate in these countries fell from 8.2 per cent in 2010 to 5.3 per cent in 2018 – its lowest level in the last three decades.

Unemployment is a problem particularly for young people

At 5.4 per cent, the unemployment rate for women is higher than that for men (4.7 per cent), despite their lower labour market participation rate. The gender gap in unemployment rates is widest in lower-middle-income countries (1.6 percentage points in 2018); by contrast, in upper-middle-income countries it is essentially zero. Young people (ages 15–24) are significantly more likely than adults to be unemployed, exhibiting an unemployment rate of 11.8 per cent. The youth unemployment rate is relatively low in low-income countries; in the other country income groups, however, it is much larger than the aggregate rate. A major global challenge is the phenomenon of young people who are not in education, employment or training (NEET). Worldwide, 30 per cent of young women and 13 per cent of young men were classified as NEET in 2018. In line with a stable aggregate unemployment rate, the outlook for men, women and young people with regard to opportunities on the job market is also very stable. This means that neither the abovementioned gender disparities nor the labour market challenges faced by young people are expected to abate in the coming years.

The underlying labour market dynamics are important

The pool of unemployed is not static; rather, it evolves over time as the formerly unemployed enter employment and the formerly employed lose their jobs. These inflows and outflows can be low or high, and the underlying labour market dynamics may differ significantly even among countries that have similar headline unemployment rates. In more dynamic labour markets the average duration of unemployment spells is shorter and there also tends to be greater job matching efficiency, since it is more likely that workers will move to jobs where they are more productive. On the other hand, workers in such labour markets are at higher risk of losing their job and hence their source of income. The underlying reasons for changes in the unemployment rate have policy implications (see [box 1.2](#)).

4. In the European Union, almost half of the unemployed were at risk of monetary poverty in 2016: unemployed people were thus five times more vulnerable in that respect than those in employment (Eurostat, 2018).

Box 1.2

Labour flows: Why it is important to look beyond unemployment figures

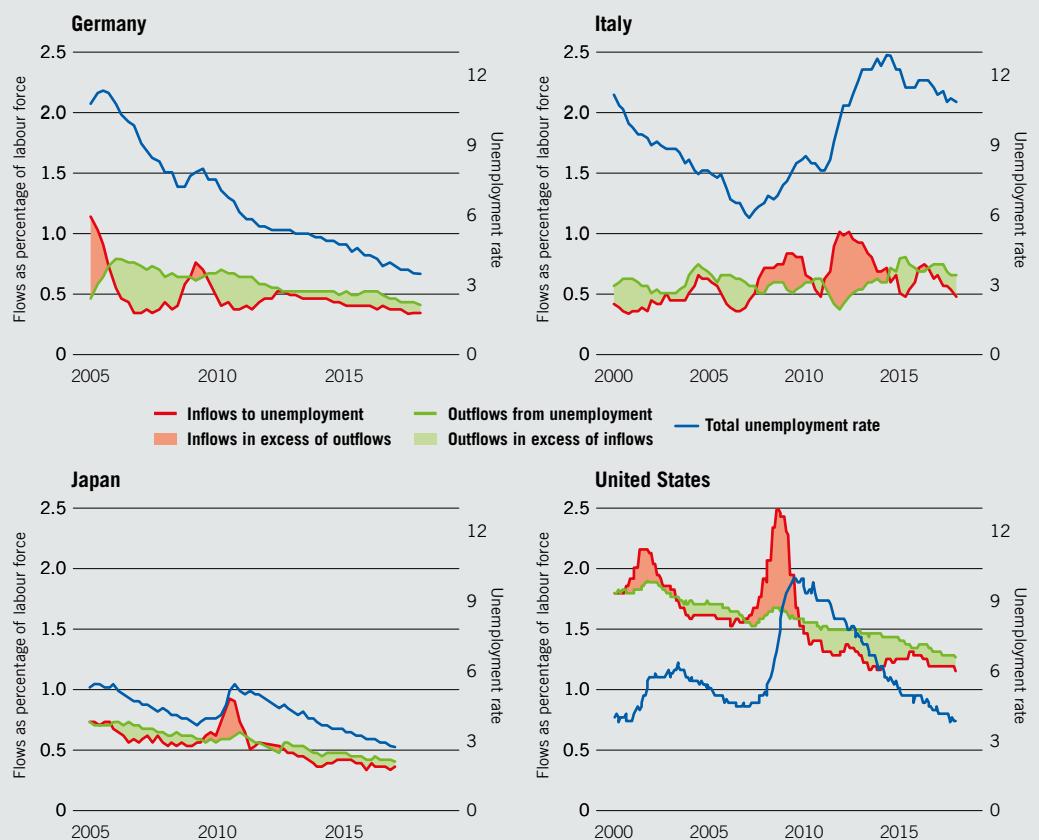
Unemployment rates give only a partial picture of the labour market dynamics in a given country. In particular, they cannot be used to trace the movements of people through different labour market states. A rising unemployment rate might be due to an increase in separations from employment or a decrease in accessions (new hires and rehires). The unemployment rate is also influenced by flows between employment and inactivity (Shimer, 2005 and 2012; Elsby, Michaels and Solon, 2009). Identifying correctly the forces that drive unemployment is vital for the design and implementation of policies that can help to bring more unemployed people into employment, thereby reducing the societal costs of unemployment. If unemployment goes up because fewer people are able to find a job, countries could consider policies that facilitate the job-finding process, e.g. investing

in improving the skills of the unemployed, or promoting job creation by offering tax breaks to businesses that hire new employees. If, instead, it is a higher number of separations that drives unemployment, a suitable policy response might include measures aimed at deterring companies from dismissing workers (such as the legislation on short-time work adopted by Germany in the wake of the global financial crisis of 2008).

Figure 1.8 shows the labour flows underlying the evolution of unemployment rates in Germany, Italy, Japan and the United States. In all four countries the global financial crisis triggered a surge in unemployment inflow rates (i.e. in job separations), but did not have much effect on unemployment outflow rates. In recent years, three of them have experienced steadily declining unemployment rates driven by falling job separation rates, →

Figure 1.8

Labour flows and unemployment rates, Germany, Italy, Japan and United States, 2000–18 (percentages)



Source: ILO calculations based on data from the ILOSTAT database.

Box 1.2

Labour flows: Why it is important to look beyond unemployment figures (cont'd)

while job-finding rates have remained consistently high. Italy, by contrast, was strongly affected by the eurozone crisis from 2011 onwards. The rise in unemployment since then has been driven both by increased job separations and by a drop in the job-finding rate.

Worker allocation over the business cycle

As can be seen from figure 1.8, unemployment inflows and outflows have been decreasing over the last few years in Germany, Japan and the United States. This may be driven partly by a tightening of labour markets resulting in a change in the composition of the unemployed population in terms of unemployment duration. However, both in Japan and the United States the inflow and outflow rates in recent years were at a lower level than in 2008, despite the unemployment rate having fallen to pre-crisis levels. This points to a fall in labour market dynamism. The flow of workers through the labour market can act as an allocative mechanism that assigns individuals to specific jobs.¹ Indeed, how quickly workers are able to find a new job can be seen as indicative of the allocative capacity and health of the labour market, as long as "worker churn"² allows workers to move to the jobs in which they can be most productive (Lazear and Spletzer, 2012). It is worth noting that direct job-to-job transitions, which are another type of labour market flow, are not captured by statistics on unemployment inflows and outflows. Such transitions can play a more important role in labour market dynamics than firing and hiring when markets tighten and workers transition from one job to another without experiencing unemployment. In theory, greater dynamism in the labour market has the potential to improve job-worker matching, for if workers are reluctant to take the plunge and switch jobs, it is unlikely that the best matches will come about (Barlevy, 2002).

¹ Worker flows have been found to be procyclical in the United States (Burgess, Lane and Stevens, 2000; Haltiwanger, Hyatt and McEntarfer, 2015) and Germany (Bachmann et al., 2017).

² Worker churn refers to the numerical difference between worker turnover and job turnover, i.e. the number of hires (separations) that occur in excess of the number of jobs created (destroyed) (Burgess, Lane and Stevens, 2000).

Dynamism: A double-edged sword

In the United States, job separations and outflows from unemployment affect around three times as many workers as in either Germany or Japan, where the unemployment rates in 2017 were similar to the US rate (approximately 4 per cent). This greater labour market fluidity in the United States, though conducive to improved job-worker matching, also implies a greater income risk for individual workers: they are more likely to experience unemployment at some point in their career. The average duration of unemployment spells tends to be longer in countries with less fluid labour markets. These considerations need to be taken into account when deciding which policy measures are most appropriate for reducing the burden of unemployment.

Labour flows and wages

During economic boom periods, labour markets are more fluid and workers move into new employment more easily both from unemployment and from employment. Moreover, in the latter case they usually move to a better-paid job – a phenomenon that is sometimes referred to as "climbing the wage ladder" (Faberman and Justiniano, 2015; Karahan et al., 2017; Hahn et al., 2017). Incidentally, the decreasing dynamism of most labour markets coincides with the sluggish wage growth observed in advanced economies in recent years. This supports the conclusion that the flow of workers into new and potentially better-paid jobs has slowed down and remains limited. When the hiring rate declines (as usually happens during a crisis), workers have fewer opportunities to find jobs in other companies or sectors, and slow wage growth can be ascribed directly to a lack of new, better-paid jobs.

In summary, the global unemployment rate is at a fairly low level and is not expected to change significantly in the next two years. However, the global aggregates mask considerable disparities across countries and demographic groups. First, unemployment rates among women and especially among young people are higher than the aggregate rate. Second, a number of high-income countries are still suffering from the unemployment backlog of the 2008 financial crisis, while some middle-income countries currently face financial and economic difficulties. The situation in these countries is discussed in more detail in Chapter 2, which investigates closely the various regions of the world.

Extended labour underutilization

Although the problem of unemployment is omnipresent in public discourse, labour underutilization can take on other forms that are not captured by the headline unemployment rate. Accordingly, two additional measures of labour underutilization were defined by Resolution I of the 19th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ILO, 2013).⁵ The first one is “time-related underemployment”, i.e. when workers work fewer hours than they would like to and are working less than a specified number of hours (often less than 35 hours per week). The second is the “potential labour force”, which comprises people who are not in employment, and are either looking for a job but not yet available to work (unavailable jobseekers), or are available to work but not looking (available potential jobseekers). The potential labour force is not part of the current labour force but could be integrated into it if some conditions were to change, implying that those persons are only marginally detached from the labour market. The related indicator is called “LU3” and is calculated as the ratio of the sum of the potential labour force and the number of unemployed persons to the sum of the labour force and the potential labour force.⁶ This section presents global estimates of the potential labour force and LU3 rates, allowing for a more comprehensive assessment of the extent of labour underutilization in the world.

Extended labour underutilization is more common among women

The global potential labour force comprised around 140 million persons in 2018, which, together with the 172 million unemployed, gives a tally of 312 million underutilized persons and a corresponding LU3 rate of 8.6 per cent ([table 1.6](#)). This rate varies considerably across demographic groups. Thus, the LU3 rate among women (11.0 per cent) is much higher than the male rate (7.1 per cent). Correspondingly, more women (84 million) are in the potential labour force than men (55 million). This means that the total number of underutilized women, if the LU3 indicator is used, is somewhat higher than that of underutilized men despite women’s much lower rate of participation in the labour market. Furthermore, the LU3 rate among young people (ages 15–24) is almost 20 per cent. Young people constitute 35 per cent of the global potential labour force but only 20 per cent of the working-age population. These observations make it clear that women and young people are at greater risk of facing marginal detachment from the labour market.

The LU3 rate is highest in upper-middle-income countries, where it reaches 9.4 per cent; it is lowest in lower-middle-income countries (8.0 per cent). The gender gap, however, is highest in lower-middle-income countries, where the female LU3 rate, at 12.8 per cent, is more than twice as high as the male rate (5.7 per cent). Among young people, the LU3 rate is significantly lower in low-income countries than in other country income groups.

Table 1.6

Labour underutilization (based on LU3 indicator) and potential labour force, global and by country income group, 2018

Country grouping	Labour underutilization rate based on LU3 indicator (percentages)				Potential labour force (millions)				Total labour underutilization based on LU3 indicator (millions)			
	Total	Female	Male	Youth	Total	Female	Male	Youth	Total	Female	Male	Youth
World	8.6	11.0	7.1	19.7	139.6	84.4	55.2	49.3	312.1	158.1	154.0	108.7
Low income	8.4	10.2	6.8	13.7	16.0	10.1	5.9	7.5	27.5	15.5	12.0	12.8
Lower-middle income	8.0	12.8	5.7	20.8	52.4	32.6	19.8	21.6	99.7	51.6	48.1	45.0
Upper-middle income	9.4	10.6	8.4	22.3	50.1	29.5	20.6	14.7	130.7	63.4	67.3	37.6
High income	8.3	9.5	7.4	18.4	21.1	12.1	8.9	5.5	54.1	27.6	26.5	13.4

Note: “Youth” refers to ages 15–24.

Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

5. Apart from the two additional measures discussed here, the 19th ICLS also defined a composite measure of labour underutilization, called “LU4”.

6. The formula used is $LU3 = \frac{\text{Unemployed} + \text{Potential Labour Force}}{\text{Labour Force} + \text{Potential Labour Force}} \times 100$.

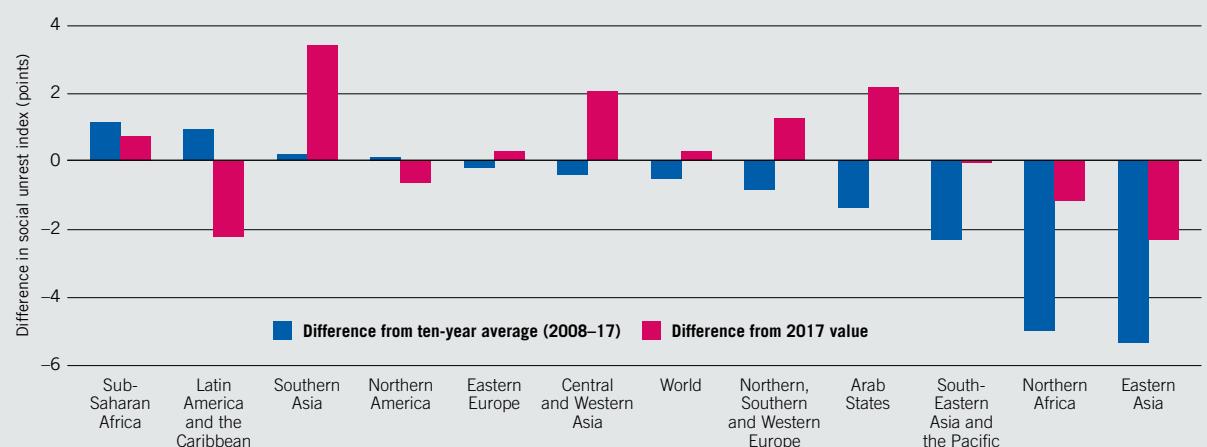
Labour markets and social unrest

The ILO was established 100 years ago on the premise that universal and lasting peace can be achieved only if it is based on social justice. The analysis conducted for this report indicates that one form of social injustice, namely rising unemployment, is correlated with a rise in the ILO's social unrest index, which measures the discontent openly expressed by citizens at the labour market, economic or political situation in their countries. A fall of 1 percentage point in the unemployment rate is correlated to a 0.5 point reduction in the social unrest index in upper-middle- and high-income countries (see Appendix C for details of the analysis).

Not surprisingly, the positive developments in the global labour market in recent years are reflected in the social unrest index. In 2018, the index was below the average for the period 2008–17 in most of the world's regions (figure 1.9). The exceptions are sub-Saharan Africa, which experienced an increase in the index last year, and Latin America and the Caribbean, where, despite a significant reduction, the index in 2018 remained above the long-term average owing to the major economic crises suffered by some countries in the subregion in recent years (see Chapter 2). Southern Asia, Central and Western Asia, the Arab States, and Northern, Southern and Western Europe experienced increases in the social unrest index of between 1 and 3 points compared with 2017; nevertheless, the index in these subregions remains close to or below the ten-year average.

Figure 1.9

Social unrest index, global and by subregion, 2018



Note: The figure shows the difference, by region or subregion, between the weighted average of the social unrest index in 2018 and (a) the average for the years 2008–17; and (b) the value in 2017. The ILO's social unrest index is based on the ratio of the number of protests to the total number of events in a year and country as recorded by the Global Database of Events, Language, and Tone (GDELT) project, and ranges from 0 (low) to 100 (high). For detailed information on the index and how it is calculated, see Appendix B.

Source: ILO calculations based on data from the GDELT project, November 2018.

2 Employment and social trends by region

Chapter 1 provided an overview of global labour market trends and challenges, highlighting some of the main differences and common features in key labour market indicators for groups of countries at various stages of economic development. Taking a different angle, the present chapter offers a complementary assessment of major social and labour market developments across, and within, five world regions, namely Africa, the Americas, the Arab States, Asia and the Pacific, and Europe and Central Asia.

In applying a regional perspective, this chapter seeks to convey the message that the labour market outcomes of today and tomorrow are not only a reflection of the stage of economic development a country has reached, but are also the result of long-standing economic, social, cultural and geographical factors, which are often unique to a country's regional context. Accordingly, we present the labour market and social outlook until 2020 for each of the abovementioned regions and consider in each case how this outlook is related to longer-term dynamics, such as structural transformation, demographics and broader socio-economic development. Specific attention is devoted throughout to the assessment of decent work deficits, notably with regard to informality and vulnerable forms of employment. At the same time, we attempt to shed light on the wide-ranging variations in labour market trajectories that can be observed across countries within each of these five regions.

Building an evidence base that reflects the breadth and depth of social and labour market challenges across the various regions of the world is part of the ILO's mandate to promote social justice and internationally recognized human and labour rights. In particular, this chapter is meant to support broader ILO efforts to inform international and regional policy-makers of the extent of decent work deficits, and of how these deficits can prevent the achievement of sustainable and inclusive economic growth, on the one hand, and poverty eradication, on the other.

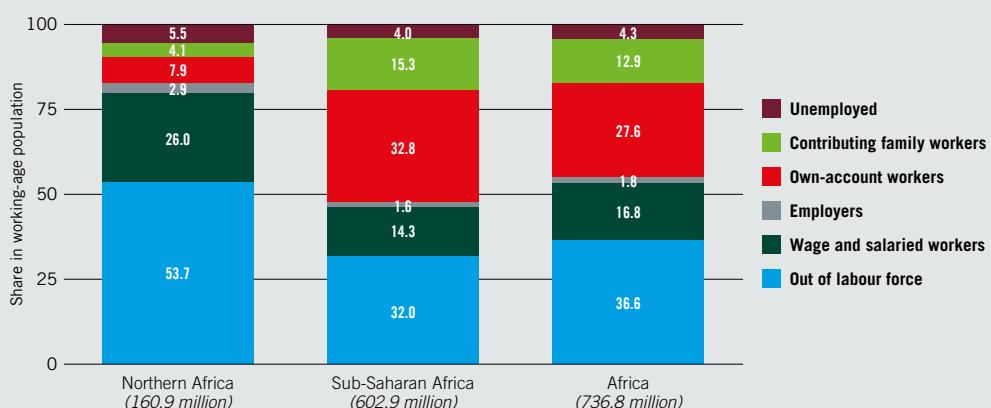
Africa

Close to 1.3 billion people live in Africa, accounting for around 17 per cent of the world's population. Of these, 764 million people (or 59 per cent) are aged 15 years or older (i.e. the working-age population). Over 63 per cent of the total working-age population participates in the labour market, although the labour market participation rate ranges from 46 per cent in Northern Africa to 68 per cent in sub-Saharan Africa. Only 4.3 per cent of Africa's working-age population is unemployed – a very small fraction compared with the 60 per cent who are employed (figure 2.1). This, however, is hardly a sign of a well-functioning labour market, because for a large part of the African population unemployment is not an option. Indeed, many people have no choice but to take up informal jobs of poor quality in order to meet their basic needs and escape poverty (see box 1.1). A sizeable proportion of the employed population is therefore working in arrangements characterized by insecurity, low pay and lack of social protection, i.e. in activities such as own-account work and contributing family work, which together account for around 68 per cent of total employment in the region. Wage and salaried workers are still a minority, representing less than one in three (28 per cent) of total employment; the share is, however, considerably higher in Northern Africa (68.6 per cent) than in sub-Saharan Africa (22.4 per cent). These factors translate into very high shares of informal employment in individual countries. On average, informal employment accounts for around 86 per cent of total employment in Africa (ILO, 2018a).

Looking forward, many African economies are gaining momentum: annual economic growth on the continent is projected to accelerate to 3.9 per cent in both 2019 and 2020, up from 3.4 per cent in 2018. This is a major improvement, considering that between 2014 and 2017 output growth on average stood at 3.1 per cent per year. Nevertheless, the current growth model continues to rely mostly on traditional low-productivity sectors, the export of commodities, and on public expenditure, with private investment remaining at low levels compared with other regions of the world that are at a similar stage of economic development (IMF, 2018b). These factors are all detrimental to labour productivity growth, which, at less than 1 per cent in 2018, remains on a par with the average annual growth rate witnessed over the past decade. Labour productivity growth ranges from 0.6 per cent in sub-Saharan Africa to 2.5 per cent in Northern Africa, but even the latter value is below the average rate of 3.1 per cent registered in the rest of the world in 2018. At the same time, the fact that fertility rates in Africa remain high means that despite the growing proportion of the working-age population relative to the total population, there is relatively modest potential for more rapid economic development (Cilliers, 2018).

Figure 2.1

Distribution of working-age population by status in the labour market, Africa, 2018 (percentages)



Note: The total working-age population is given at the bottom of each column.

Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

Table 2.1
Unemployment, employment growth, labour productivity growth and working poverty trends and projections, Africa, 2007–20

Region/subregion/ country	Unemployment rate, 2007–20 (percentages)					Unemployment, 2017–20 (millions)			
	2007–16	2017	2018	2019	2020	2017	2018	2019	2020
Africa	6.9	6.8	6.8	6.8	6.8	32.3	33.0	34.0	34.9
Northern Africa	11.9	11.8	11.8	11.7	11.7	8.7	8.8	9.0	9.1
Sub-Saharan Africa	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	23.6	24.2	25.0	25.9
South Africa	27.3	27.0	27.3	27.6	27.6	6.1	6.1	6.3	6.4
Employment growth, 2007–20 (percentages)									
	2007–16	2017	2018	2019	2020	2017	2018	2019	2020
Africa	3.0	3.0	2.9	2.9	2.9	0.4	0.9	1.1	1.4
Northern Africa	1.4	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.8	2.9	2.2	2.3	2.5
Sub-Saharan Africa	3.3	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	-0.4	0.6	0.9	1.2
Extreme working poverty rate, 2007–20 (percentages)									
	2007–16	2017	2018	2019	2020	2017	2018	2019	2020
Africa	33.6	33.0	32.5	31.9	31.9	145.3	147.2	149.0	150.6
Northern Africa	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.3	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8
Sub-Saharan Africa	39.2	38.5	37.8	37.1	37.1	144.4	146.3	148.1	149.8
Moderate working poverty rate, 2007–20 (percentages)									
	2007–16	2017	2018	2019	2020	2017	2018	2019	2020
Africa	22.6	22.5	22.4	22.3	22.3	97.8	100.3	102.8	105.3
Northern Africa	9.5	9.3	9.0	8.8	8.8	6.1	6.1	6.0	5.9
Sub-Saharan Africa	24.9	24.8	24.7	24.6	24.6	91.7	94.3	96.8	99.4
Moderate working poverty, 2017–20 (millions)									

Note: Moderate and extreme working poverty rates refer to the shares of workers living in households with income or consumption per capita between US\$1.90 and US\$3.20 per day, in PPP terms, and less than US\$1.90 per day (PPP), respectively.

Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

Ultimately, labour productivity growth is expected to remain too slow and population growth too fast to allow African countries either to reduce poverty rapidly or to increase average incomes (*ibid.*). Working poverty continues to be widespread: almost one third of workers (32 per cent) were living in extreme poverty in 2018 and a further 22 per cent were living in moderate poverty. Overall, around 250 million workers in Africa were living in extreme or moderate poverty in 2018 – a number that is expected to increase by almost 5 million by 2020 as a result of the rapid expansion of the population and an inadequate level of inclusive economic growth (table 2.1).

In terms of the employment level, the projected acceleration in economic activity up to 2020 is too small to create the number of jobs needed to absorb a fast-growing labour force. The number of employed people is expected to grow by 2.9 per cent per year over the period 2018–20, whereas the annual labour force expansion over the same period is expected to be 3 per cent. As a result, the pool of unemployed people is set to grow by close to 2 million people by 2020; the regional unemployment rate, on the other hand, is expected to remain unchanged, staying at around 6.8 per cent.

Although in our presentation of the labour market outlook for the whole African continent we have highlighted a number of labour market challenges that are common to many African countries, there are considerable differences between Northern Africa and sub-Saharan Africa. These are discussed in greater detail in the following sections.

NORTHERN AFRICA

Growth remains too low to bring down unemployment, and significant labour market disparities persist

Northern Africa's output is estimated to have grown by 3.9 per cent in 2018, marking a deceleration from the previous year's growth rate of 6.1 per cent. Looking forward, economic growth should pick up slightly in 2019, reaching 4.2 per cent, but it is projected to slow down again to 3.7 per cent in 2020. The slight rebound at the subregional level expected to take place in 2019 reflects broad-based improvements across individual countries, with growth rates ranging from 2.1 to 2.9 per cent in Tunisia, Morocco and Algeria, and exceeding 5 per cent in Egypt, mostly thanks to higher private consumption and investment (IMF, 2018a).

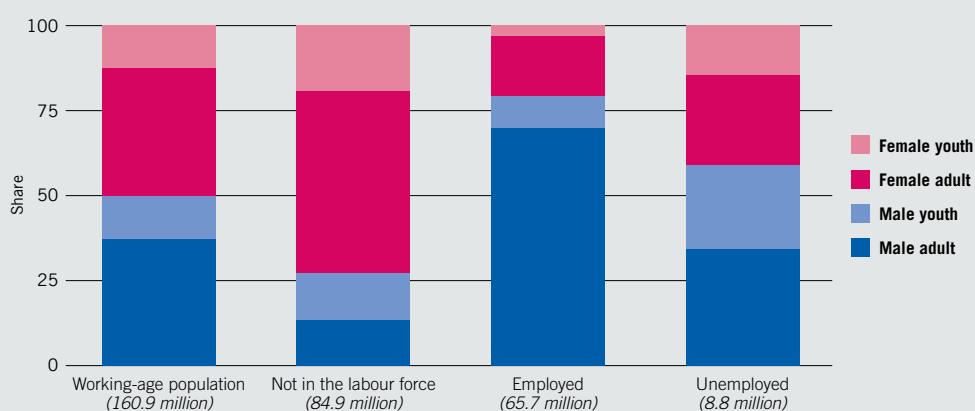
Employment growth is expected to stay at around 3 per cent per year over the forecast horizon. Since this growth will only marginally outpace the expansion of the labour force, the subregional unemployment rate is projected to remain rather stable, at around 11.8 per cent, until 2020. The number of unemployed is, nevertheless, expected to exceed 9 million by 2020 (up from 8.7 million in 2017), mostly as a result of more young people entering the labour force.

Globally, Northern Africa is the subregion with the highest unemployment rate. This is due mostly to the persistently high unemployment rates among young people (ages 15–24) and women. Indeed, the youth unemployment rate is expected to exceed 30 per cent by 2019, which means that young people will continue to be 3.5 times more likely than adults to be unemployed. Meanwhile, at 20.7 per cent in 2018, the unemployment rate for women is more than twice that of men (9.0 per cent).

Although women are more likely to be unemployed, it is worth noting that only a small fraction of women actually participate in the labour market. Indeed, close to 62 million (or 77 per cent) of the 80 million working-age women in the subregion remain outside the labour force (figure 2.2). Also, women account for over 41 per cent of unemployed people, despite representing less than 24 per cent of the subregional labour force. The labour market situation of young women in Northern Africa is not substantially different from that of older women, which suggests that the existing large gender disparities are unlikely to diminish in the near future. Significantly, only 16 per cent of young women participated in the labour market and 40 per cent of these women were unemployed in 2018. The unemployment rate among young women has even increased since 2016; it is expected to continue rising over the next couple of years.

Figure 2.2

Distribution of the working-age, inactive, employed and unemployed population by sex and age group, Northern Africa, 2018 (percentages)



Note: "Youth" refers to the population aged 15–24, "Adult" to the age group 25+.

Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

Overall, women's opportunities to participate in the labour market, including those of young women, are reduced by their early engagement in unpaid household work and their limited access to education and training (ILO, 2017b and 2018d). This situation is reflected in the fact that, in a subregion where the share of young people who are not in education, employment or training (NEET) is the second highest globally, women account for the majority of young individuals with that status (ILO, 2017b). For instance, in 2017, the share of young women with NEET status was close to 32 per cent in Algeria and around 35 per cent in Egypt. In both countries, the NEET rates among young men were 10 percentage points below those of young women.¹

Improvements in employment quality are stalling

The share of wage and salaried workers in Northern Africa is expected to hover around 64 per cent during the next couple of years, while the shares of own-account workers and contributing family workers should remain just below 20 and 10 per cent, respectively. Despite relatively extensive wage and salaried employment, informality remains widespread in the subregion, affecting 67 per cent of the employed population, and more than 56 per cent of those working in non-agricultural sectors (ILO, 2018a).

An examination of the distribution of employment across sectors reveals that agriculture still accounts for more than one quarter of total employment in Northern Africa, although this share has decreased considerably since 2000, when it stood at around 33 per cent. Women remain far more likely than men to work in agriculture, which accounts for over 55 per cent of female employment but only 23 per cent of male employment. In moving away from agriculture, workers have mainly relocated to market service industries,² whose share of total employment has grown by 4 percentage points since 2000, reaching 26.4 per cent in 2018. By contrast, the share of jobs in manufacturing has remained roughly unchanged over the same period, at around 11 per cent.

Although considerable progress in reducing working poverty has been achieved since 2008, when the share of working poor was twice as high as now, moderate working poverty rates remain significant. Overall, it is estimated that more than 10 per cent (or 7 million) of employed people in Northern Africa live in extreme or moderate working poverty (see [table 2.1](#) above).

SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA

Strong growth of the labour force requires further creation of decent jobs

Sub-Saharan Africa is set to return to stronger, and less volatile, economic growth over the next couple of years. The economy is projected to grow by 3.7 per cent in 2019 and by 3.9 per cent in 2020, up from an average annual growth rate of 2.2 per cent over the period 2016–18. The expected economic upturn is broad-based and is driven by higher commodity prices, improved access to external financing and, more generally, by a supportive global macroeconomic environment (IMF, 2018c and 2018d). However, growth in major resource-intensive countries, such as Nigeria and South Africa, is expected to remain below its potential, which will dampen the longer-term economic prospects of the whole subregion.

Employment growth should remain strong in comparison with other subregions and regions, hovering around 3.1 per cent per year over the forecast horizon (see [table 2.1](#) above). However, this will not be enough to keep up with the rapid expansion of the labour force. As a result, the number of unemployed is expected to grow by nearly 1.9 million by 2020. Even so, the unemployment rate is estimated to remain essentially unchanged over the same period, at around 5.9 per cent. Although the unemployment rate is relatively low compared with that of Northern Africa, the aggregate value for the subregion masks a high degree of heterogeneity across countries. For instance, the national unemployment rates projected for 2019 range from 1.8 per cent in Ethiopia, 6.0 per cent in Nigeria and 18.2 per cent in Botswana to 27.3 per cent in South Africa.

Moreover, given that employment growth will remain strong, the anticipated rebound in economic activity is expected to bring only modest labour productivity gains. In particular, although the growth of

1. See the ILOSTAT database for more data illustrating this situation.

2. The categories of aggregate economic activities are defined in the documentation for the ILOSTAT database (https://www.ilo.org/ilostat-files/Documents/description_ECO_EN.pdf).

output per worker should return into positive territory (it was already 0.6 per cent in 2018) after slipping back for two consecutive years, it is predicted to remain rather low by international standards. Indeed, annual labour productivity growth in sub-Saharan Africa is expected to average 1 per cent over the period 2018–21, compared with a projected value of 2.5 per cent at the global level (see [Chapter 1](#)).

With over half of workers living in extreme or moderate poverty, fostering the creation of quality jobs remains the greatest challenge

Looking at the unemployment rate gives only a partial picture of the labour market situation in sub-Saharan Africa. Indeed, since social security systems remain underdeveloped in most of the countries in the subregion (ILO, 2017a), a significant proportion of people of working age cannot afford to be unemployed. Instead, they are obliged to take up any form of employment in order to sustain basic living standards. As a result, a majority of the employed population find themselves in informal jobs, which are characterized by low pay and lack of social protection.

Specifically, over half of the employed population in the subregion consisted of own-account workers in 2018; a further 23 per cent were contributing family workers (see [figure 2.1](#) above). As emphasized in [Chapter 1](#), these two forms of employment are not only characterized by poor remuneration but are also closely linked to informality: contributing family workers are informal by statistical definition, whereas 86.1 per cent of own-account workers worldwide are informal. Taken together, own-account work and contributing family work make up 67.6 per cent of total informal employment in sub-Saharan Africa; wage and salaried employment accounts for a further 30 per cent (ILO, 2018a). Overall, the informality rate is above 90 per cent in more than half of countries in the subregion. If we consider only employment outside the agricultural sector, the rate decreases somewhat, but informality still affects between one half and two-thirds of non-agricultural workers (*ibid.*).

Women remain considerably more vulnerable to informality than men in almost all of sub-Saharan Africa. In some countries, such as Cameroon, The Gambia and Zambia, the informality rate is more than 10 percentage points higher among women than men. A major factor behind the greater incidence of informality among women is that they are significantly more likely than men to be engaged in contributing family work. Indeed, 33 per cent of employed women in sub-Saharan Africa are contributing family workers, whereas only 15 per cent of working men are employed in this way.

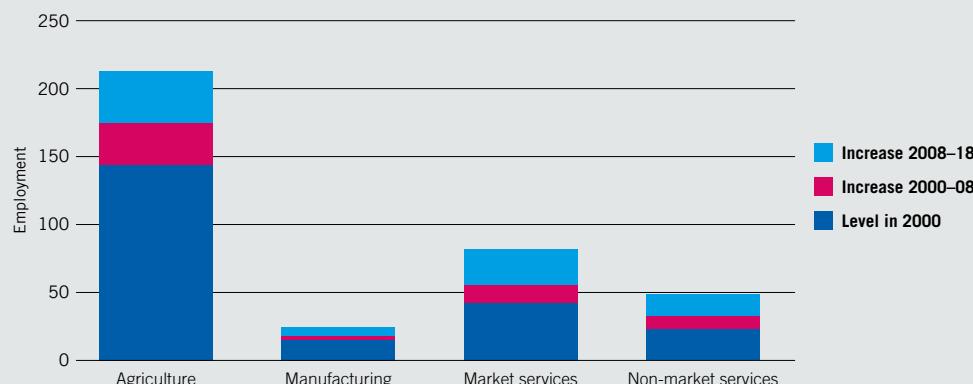
Informality rates in the subregion are high partly because the informal economy acts as a buffer by providing jobs of last resort for many people of working age who are faced with the economic necessity of doing some sort of work to meet their basic needs and those of their family. At the same time, these high informality rates reflect the productive structure of the subregion, where agriculture still accounted for over 55 per cent of total employment in 2018. Although this share has been declining slowly but steadily over the past few decades, agriculture, in absolute terms, accounted for almost half of all the jobs created between 2000 and 2018 ([figure 2.3](#)). That agriculture continues to be an important source of job creation has to do with the fact that over 60 per cent of the population in sub-Saharan Africa lives in rural areas, where subsistence agriculture is often still the mainstay of local economies.

Overall, there are few signs of structural transition towards sectors with a higher added value, which could help to reduce informality and, more generally, decent work deficits in sub-Saharan Africa. For instance, only 6 per cent of all jobs created between 2000 and 2018 were in the manufacturing sector, which today accounts for just 6.2 per cent of total employment. A host of factors lie behind the manufacturing sector's weak growth in the subregion. These include a lack of basic infrastructure, the poor quality of institutions, geographical barriers, and higher labour costs compared with other countries at the same stage of development (Cadot et al., 2016). However, there is some evidence of strong job growth in a range of market service industries. Although this could help to foster entrepreneurship and labour productivity (*ibid.*), it is ultimately unlikely to reduce decent work deficits for the majority of the population. Indeed, employment growth in market services has been concentrated in those activities that are characterized by low productivity, a high informality rate and poor working conditions (ILO, 2018d). Thus, over 84 per cent of those employed in the accommodation and food sector in sub-Saharan Africa are informal workers – a share that rises to over 87 per cent in the transport, storage and communication sectors, and also in wholesale and retail trade and repair activities.³

3. The informality rates for selected service sectors reported above have been calculated as unweighted averages across 19 sub-Saharan African countries using the available data.

Figure 2.3

Employment by economic sector, sub-Saharan Africa, 2000–18 (millions)



Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

Against a backdrop of low productivity growth and rapid expansion of the population, sub-Saharan Africa continues to have very high average rates of extreme working poverty (37.9 per cent) and moderate working poverty (24.4 per cent). While the incidence of extreme working poverty is expected to decline, albeit at a slower pace than in past decades, progress on reducing moderate working poverty is stalling. This means that the total number of workers living in extreme or moderate poverty is set to increase by 10 million between 2018 and 2020. Moreover, sub-Saharan Africa contains 18 of the 20 countries with the highest incidence of extreme and moderate working poverty globally; these rates range from 57 per cent in Benin to over 84 per cent in Burundi.

Intra- and inter-regional migration flows continue to involve millions of people, with mixed effects on sub-Saharan Africa's development path

In 2017, some 23 million people from sub-Saharan Africa lived outside their country of origin, accounting for over 90 per cent of total migrants from the African continent (United Nations, 2017b). This reflects the rapid increase in emigration rates that has taken place over the past few decades. Indeed, the number of migrants from sub-Saharan Africa has grown by over 46 per cent since 2010, whereas it increased by only 14 per cent between 2000 and 2010. A large proportion of migrants from the subregion leave their country because of food insecurity, the proliferation of armed conflicts, natural disasters, community violence, and the persecution of cultural or regional minorities. However, the lack of high-quality jobs and the prevalence of working poverty are also key push factors for migration (ILO, 2018g; FAO, 2017).

Migration within sub-Saharan Africa continues to be more frequent than migration from the subregion, accounting for more than 60 per cent of the total migration from sub-Saharan African countries. Many migrants, especially those moving from rural to urban areas, migrate in search of better employment opportunities (FAO, 2017). Overall, there are some 11.7 million migrant workers across sub-Saharan African countries (ILO, 2018g).⁴ Moreover, there are a large number of workers who migrate seasonally from south-eastern Africa to sub-Saharan Africa in order to work, mostly in commercial agriculture (Munakamwe and Jinnah, 2015). However, it is important to bear in mind that most of the increase in the number of migrants within sub-Saharan African is accounted for by refugees fleeing their country of origin: between 2010 and 2017, some 5 million people moved within sub-Saharan Africa for this reason (Pew Research Center, 2018).

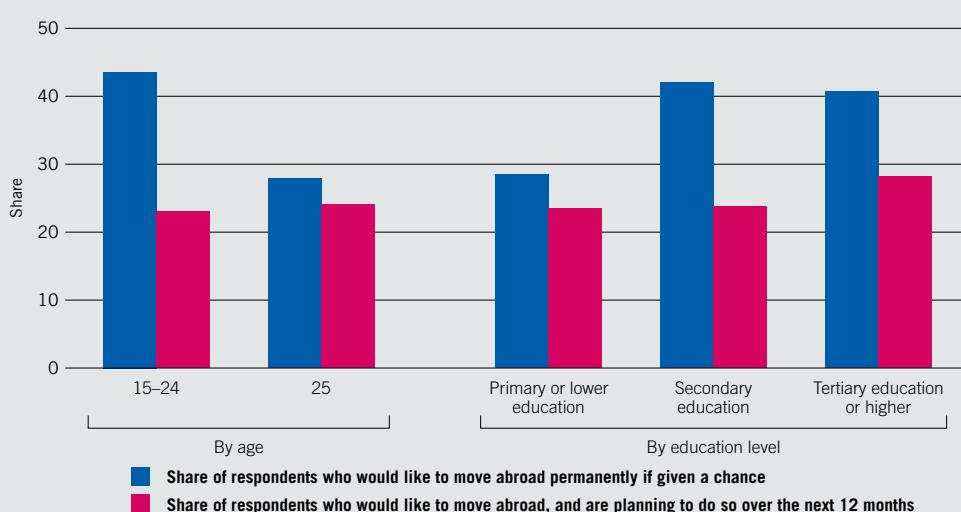
4. This estimate includes migrant workers whose country of origin lies outside sub-Saharan Africa.

Migration within sub-Saharan Africa remains considerably more prevalent than inter-regional migration. After all, migrating to another region or continent is often an expensive and long process, with people deciding first to move within their own (sub)region so that they can raise the necessary funds to migrate further abroad (FAO, 2017). Nevertheless, the number of international migrants from the subregion has been growing rapidly in recent years, increasing by over 30 per cent between 2010 and 2017, compared with a 25 per cent increase during the 2000s and a 1 per cent increase during the 1990s. As a result, inter-regional migrants account for around 33 per cent of the total migrant stock from sub-Saharan Africa; around two-thirds of them have relocated to European countries (notably the United Kingdom, France and Germany) or to the United States. In the case of Europe, the increase in the number of migrants from sub-Saharan Africa observed in recent years is largely due to the surge in asylum applications, which rose by nearly 1 million between 2010 and 2017 (Pew Research Center, 2018).

Looking ahead, as the population keeps expanding rapidly, average levels of educational attainment rise and political instability continues in many countries, the flow of migrants from sub-Saharan Africa is likely to remain high in the coming decades. (The subregion already accounts for around 9 per cent of the international migrant stock worldwide.) Survey data reveal that, worldwide, people in sub-Saharan Africa have the greatest propensity to migrate abroad permanently: some 34 per cent of surveyed sub-Saharan Africans would gladly do so if given a chance, compared with a global average of 17 per cent. Young people (ages 15–24) are more likely than adults to have migratory aspirations: over 43 per cent of them would leave their country of origin if they had the opportunity. However, only 23 per cent of young people who would like to migrate abroad were actually planning to do so in the 12 months following the survey (figure 2.4). This indicates that the lack of financial resources, the strength of family ties, and immigration policies in destination countries are all factors making it harder for people to realize their desire to migrate.

Figure 2.4

Share of respondents who desire/plan to move abroad, sub-Saharan Africa, 2015/16 (percentages)



Note: People's desire and more concrete plans to migrate abroad are captured by two key questions in the Gallup World Poll (GWP) survey: (a) "Ideally, if you had the opportunity, would you like to move permanently to another country, or would you prefer to continue living in this country?"; and (b) "Are you planning to move permanently to another country in the next 12 months, or not?" (asked only of those who stated that they would like to move to another country). The GWP survey contains individual-level data resulting from interviews with around 500 men and 500 women in each country.

Source: ILO elaboration based on the results of the GWP survey database published in 2017.

The willingness to migrate is also greater among those with a higher level of educational attainment. Thus, in the abovementioned survey more than 40 per cent of the respondents with a tertiary education said they wanted to migrate abroad, compared with just 23 per cent of those with a primary or lower level of education. Moreover, people with a higher level of education appear to be more likely than those with a lower educational level to put their migratory aspirations into practice.

In so far as the desire of younger and more educated people to migrate translates into actual migration, the “brain drain” from sub-Saharan Africa observed over the past decades is likely to continue in the near future. This can have both positive and negative socio-economic repercussions for the countries of origin (Docquier, 2014). On the one hand, some emigration by those with a higher skill level is beneficial, since it encourages others in the country of origin to pursue an education and leads to regular remittances; at the same time, a positive spillover effect may be caused by returnees opening up new trade and investment opportunities (UNCTAD, 2018). On the other hand, the emigration of educated people can inhibit human capital development and productive capacity in the countries of origin, which in turn undermines long-term economic development. In the majority of sub-Saharan countries, the losses caused by such brain drain outweigh any possible benefits, with the magnitude of the losses depending on a country's level of development, population size, socio-economic characteristics and geographical location (Docquier, 2014).

Americas

NORTHERN AMERICA

The unemployment rate is expected to reach its lowest level in 2019, but employment growth is set to decelerate considerably

Economic activity in Northern America is estimated to have expanded by 2.8 per cent in 2018, the highest rate since 2006. Growth should remain relatively strong over the forecast horizon, albeit decelerating to 2.5 per cent in 2019 and to 1.8 per cent in 2020. The anticipated slowdown in the sub-region's economic growth is mainly due to slower output growth in the United States, where real GDP growth is projected to fall gradually from 2.9 per cent in 2018 to 1.8 per cent in 2020. Output growth should also decline in Canada, though less markedly, going from 2.1 per cent in 2018 to 1.8 per cent in 2020.

Along with economic activity, employment growth is also projected to decline over the next couple of years. After having reached a growth rate of 0.8 per cent in 2018, employment levels should expand by 0.4 per cent in 2019 and remain around this level until 2020. As a result, the subregional unemployment rate is expected to reach its lowest point in 2019 at 4.1 per cent and to start rising slightly by 2020. In Canada, the unemployment rate is expected to start increasing already in 2019, whereas it should remain stable in the United States, edging upwards slightly in 2020 (table 2.2).

The degree of labour underutilization is higher than what one might surmise from a first glance at the unemployment rate. Indeed, there is a substantial degree of labour market slack in the subregion. This is particularly true of the United States, where there are over 1.5 million workers in the potential labour force (i.e. individuals who are either not looking for a job or are not available to start working within a short time frame). The number of people in the US potential labour force has decreased slightly since 2012, but it should start to grow again in 2019, especially among women, who make up 53 per cent of the total potential labour force.

Although the unemployment rate has reached its lowest level in a decade, many people remain on the sidelines of the labour market

Despite the steady decline of the average unemployment rate in Northern America, there are large disparities between population groups with different levels of educational achievement. Thus, persons with only basic education are more than twice as likely to be unemployed as those with an advanced level

Table 2.2
**Unemployment, employment growth and labour productivity growth trends and projections,
Northern America, 2007–20**

Subregion/country	Unemployment rate, 2007–20 (percentages)					Unemployment, 2017–20 (millions)			
	2007–16	2017	2018	2019	2020	2017	2018	2019	2020
Northern America		4.6	4.2	4.1	4.3	8.4	7.7	7.6	7.9
Canada		6.3	5.9	6.1	6.2	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.3
United States		4.4	3.9	3.9	4.0	7.1	6.5	6.4	6.7
Employment growth, 2007–20 (percentages)					Labour productivity growth, 2017–20 (millions)				
Northern America		1.6	0.8	0.4	0.3	0.7	2.0	1.9	1.3

Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

of education, both in the United States and in Canada.⁵ Moreover, a significant proportion of the population remains outside the labour force – a proportion that has been growing since the 2000s. This is especially true of young people in the United States: their participation rate was close to 52 per cent in 2017, which is more than 10 percentage points below its level in 2000, and 3 percentage points below the 2008 value. The participation rate has also declined, albeit to a lesser extent, among prime-age workers (i.e. those aged 25–54) in the United States, whereas it remained rather stable among the same age group in Canada. Conversely, the labour market participation of older workers has increased substantially in both countries since 2000, although its growth rate has slowed down considerably after 2008, especially in the United States (figure 2.5). Labour market participation rates have also increased among women of working age, reaching 61 per cent in Canada and 57 per cent in the United States – the highest rates since 2014 in both countries.

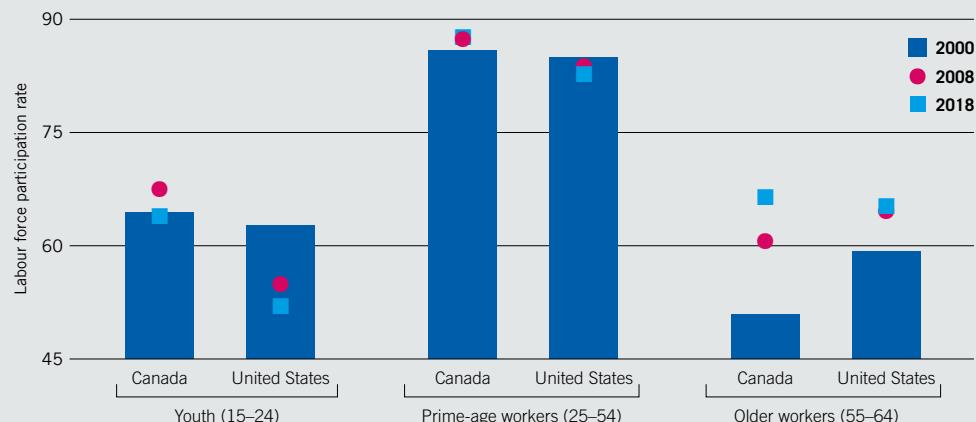
If we focus on young people in Northern America, it is clear that the decline in labour market participation rates has been steeper among those with low levels of educational attainment. For instance, in the United States, the participation rate of young people with lower secondary education or less was 25.0 per cent in 2017, almost 8 percentage points below its level in 2008, and 21 percentage points lower than in 2000. Although less pronounced than in the United States, stark disparities between young people with low and high levels of educational attainment are also apparent in Canada. Thus, the participation rate of young people in Canada with basic education stood at 45.9 per cent in 2017, compared with a rate of 82.3 per cent among young people with advanced education.

However, youth labour market participation rates may have been falling for a good reason. On the whole, it appears that most of the decline in these rates observed in Northern America over the past decade can be attributed to the fact that a greater number of young people are pursuing an education. Thus, the rate of enrolment in secondary education has been steadily increasing among teenagers aged 15–19, reaching 82.5 and 78.4 per cent in the United States and Canada, respectively, in 2017. Therefore, in so far as these data suggest that young people are entering the labour market later in life because they are more eager to enrol in education and stay there longer than in the past, their currently low labour force participation rate could translate into a better-skilled adult labour force and possibly higher aggregate participation rates in the future. Worryingly, a significant proportion of teenagers aged 15–19 that are not in education are also neither in employment nor in training (NEET): in 2016, the NEET rate stood at 7.3 and 6.3 per cent in the United States and Canada, respectively.

5. The education levels mentioned in this report refer to the 2011 edition of the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED). Specifically, (a) “basic education” includes primary and lower secondary education; (b) “intermediate education” includes upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education; and (c) “advanced education” includes short-cycle tertiary education, Bachelor’s or equivalent level, Master’s or equivalent level, and Doctoral or equivalent level. More detailed information on the ILO’s use of ISCED to present statistics on employment by level of educational attainment can be found at: https://www.ilo.org/ilostat/files/Documents/description_EDU_EN.pdf.

Figure 2.5

Labour force participation rates by broad age group, Canada and United States, 2000, 2008 and 2018 (percentages)



Note: The "Youth" figures for the United States exclude young people aged 15.

Source: ILOSTAT [accessed November 2018].

Although greater youth enrolment in education is a positive development, it is worth noting that aggregate NEET rates mask heterogeneous trends among young people having different ages, levels of schooling, gender and race or ethnicity. For instance, in Canada, the proportion of NEET individuals aged 20–24 has increased over the past decade, approaching 15 per cent in 2016 (up from 13 per cent in 2006). In the United States, the NEET share has increased among young people with a high school diploma, particularly among the 16–19 age group, where the proportion rose from 8.2 per cent in 1998 to 12.4 per cent in 2014 (Canon, Kudlyak and Liu, 2015). Meanwhile, racial and gender gaps in NEET rates persist in the United States, where young black people continue to be almost twice as likely as white youngsters to fall into the NEET category (Lewis and Burd-Sharps, 2015). As for gender disparities, young women remain slightly more likely than men to have NEET status in the United States, whereas the opposite is true in Canada.

Finally, given that Northern America (especially the United States) is one of the leaders in the provision of work through digital labour platforms, a closer monitoring of the employment conditions and the provision of access to social security for workers operating on such platforms is becoming increasingly relevant for policy-makers. A recent ILO study indicates that almost two-thirds of US workers surveyed on the Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT) platform earned less than the federal minimum wage of US\$7.25 per hour, which partly reflects the many unpaid hours that have to be spent in looking for a job through the platform (ILO, 2018e). For almost one third of US workers operating on such platforms, crowdwork is the primary source of income; the rest are engaged in other types of paid jobs. Moreover, in the United States, only a small proportion of workers on AMT for whom crowdwork constitutes the main source of income contributed towards pensions (8 per cent to private retirement and 9 per cent to social security), and only 62 per cent were covered by health insurance (*ibid.*).

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN

The strong rebound in economic growth is not expected to lead to commensurate improvements in the labour market

Economic growth in Latin America and the Caribbean is expected to rebound over the forecast horizon, reaching 2.0 per cent in 2019 and 2.6 per cent in 2020, up from a modest 1 per cent in 2018. Much of the anticipated improvement for 2019 can be attributed to developments in Brazil, where GDP growth is projected to increase from 0.7 per cent in 2018 to 2.4 per cent in 2019. Economic growth is expected to remain strong in Colombia, Peru and Chile (between 3.4 and 4.2 per cent in 2019); in Mexico, it is set to rise from 2.1 per cent in 2018 to 2.5 per cent in 2019. By contrast, Argentina, Nicaragua and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela are expected to remain in recession throughout 2019.

The strong rebound in economic growth is expected to have some positive impact on employment creation, though not on a massive scale. Accordingly, the number of people in employment should slowly edge upwards, rising by around 1.4 per cent per year up to 2020. As a result, the subregional unemployment rate is forecast to fall gradually from 8.0 per cent in 2018 to 7.8 per cent in 2020 (table 2.3). The relatively slow pace of unemployment reduction is dictated by the different labour market outlooks for individual countries. For instance, the unemployment rate is projected to continue a downward trend in Brazil, reaching 12.2 per cent in 2019, but is set to increase, albeit slightly, in Argentina, Chile, Ecuador and Peru.⁶

Table 2.3

Unemployment, employment growth, labour productivity growth and working poverty trends and projections, Latin America and the Caribbean, 2007–20

Subregion/country	Unemployment rate, 2007–20 (percentages)					Unemployment, 2017–20 (millions)			
	2007–16	2017	2018	2019	2020	2017	2018	2019	2020
Latin America and the Caribbean	8.1	8.0	8.0	7.8		25.0	25.3	25.5	25.3
Brazil	12.8	12.5	12.2	11.7		13.5	13.3	13.1	12.7
Mexico	3.4	3.3	3.4	3.3		2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0
Employment growth, 2007–20 (percentages)					Labour productivity growth, 2017–20 (percentages)				
Latin America and the Caribbean	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.5		-0.1	0.7	1.5	1.6
Extreme and moderate working poverty rate, 2017–20 (percentages)					Extreme and moderate working poverty, 2017–20 (millions)				
Latin America and the Caribbean	6.9	6.8	6.5	6.3		19.8	19.6	19.2	18.7

Note: Moderate and extreme working poverty rates refer to the shares of workers living on income or consumption per capita between US\$1.90 and US\$3.20 per day, in PPP terms, and less than US\$1.90 per day (PPP), respectively. The unemployment rates for Brazil and Mexico shown in this table may differ from those reported by national statistical offices because they do not use the same definition of unemployment as the one established by the International Conference of Labour Statisticians.

Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

6. For a more detailed analysis of the labour market and social outlook in Latin America and the Caribbean, see ILO, 2018h.

Figure 2.6

Distribution of employment by status and country income group in Latin America and the Caribbean, 2018 (percentages)



Note: High-income aggregates comprise seven countries; upper-middle- and lower-middle-income aggregates comprise 15 and five countries, respectively.

Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

Informality remains pervasive, even among wage and salaried workers and in emerging sectors

A large part of the employed population in Latin America and the Caribbean continues to be engaged in jobs of poor quality. Overall, wage and salaried workers made up 63 per cent of total employment in 2018, with own-account and contributing family workers accounting, respectively, for 28.3 and 4.3 per cent. However, the distribution of employment by status varies considerably across Latin American and Caribbean countries at different stages of economic development. For instance, the share of own-account workers in total employment is 12 percentage points higher in lower-middle-income countries than in high-income ones. Conversely, wage and salaried workers account for close to two-thirds of total employment in the latter group, and for around half in the former (figure 2.6).

Being in wage and salaried employment is not by itself a guarantee of good working conditions. First, fixed-term contracts account for 20 to 30 per cent of all wage employment in several countries, including Chile, Colombia, Ecuador and Peru (ILO, 2015a). Second, wage and salaried workers make up close to 45 per cent of all informal employment in Latin America and the Caribbean, compared with a global average of 36.2 per cent. In Central America, the problem is even more pronounced, with wage employment accounting for 55.1 per cent of total informal employment, compared with 41.3 per cent in South America (ILO, 2018a).

As a result, the incidence of informality in Latin America and the Caribbean remains one of the highest globally, even though over the past decade almost all of the countries in the subregion have registered falling informality rates thanks to a combination of policy measures (ILO, 2014). These measures include: (a) simplification of the regulations and procedures involved in starting a new business (Chile, Guatemala, Panama); (b) tax incentives to facilitate the transition to formality (Argentina, Peru, Uruguay); (c) stronger monitoring of compliance with labour laws (Brazil, Paraguay); (d) introduction of sector agreements to formalize rural employment and improve access to social protection (Argentina) (*ibid.*). Nevertheless, it is estimated that over 53 per cent of the employed population in the subregion remains in informal employment. Informality rates are close to 80 per cent in several lower-middle-income countries, such as the Plurinational State of Bolivia, Guatemala and Nicaragua; they are quite high in upper-middle- and high-income countries, too, including Argentina (47.2 per cent), Brazil (46 per cent) and Mexico (53.4 per cent).

Most of the jobs created in Latin America and the Caribbean over the past few decades have been in market services, which today account for 40 per cent of total employment in the subregion, up from 33 per cent in 2000. At over 25 per cent, the share of employment in non-market services is

also considerable by international standards, but it has remained virtually unchanged since 2000. On the other hand, the share of employment in manufacturing has decreased slightly over the same period, remaining just above 12 per cent. However, the structural transformations that have caused employment to shift away from agriculture towards market services have not helped very much to reduce the average rate of informality.

In fact, with the exception of financial activities, informality remains widespread in the various segments of market services. For instance, an average of 65 per cent of workers in the wholesale and retail trade sector are employed informally; in individual countries, this share ranges from 22 per cent in Costa Rica to over 90 per cent in the Plurinational State of Bolivia, Ecuador and Nicaragua. Similarly, the share of informal employment in the transport, storage and communication sectors varies from 10 per cent in Uruguay to over 90 per cent in the Plurinational State of Bolivia and Ecuador. The incidence of informality is somewhat lower in the manufacturing sector, although it still affects an average of 60 per cent of manufacturing workers in the subregion ([figure 2.7](#)).

A well-known characteristic of informality is its higher incidence among workers at the bottom of the income distribution: thus, in 2013, rates of informal employment were above 72 per cent among the poorest 10 per cent of the population, compared with informality rates of less than 30 per cent among the richest 10 per cent (ILO, 2015b). Indeed, there is evidence pointing to a simultaneous, and self-reinforcing, relationship between informality, poverty and social exclusion, which ends up generating a vicious circle of intergenerational inequality and deprivation (*ibid.*; Gunes and Canelas, 2013). On the one hand, the persistently high incidence of informality in the subregion reflects the fact that for many people informality is the only way to escape unemployment and poverty. On the other hand, informality contributes to entrenching poverty, since in most cases working informally implies low pay and limited access to social protection, family-related benefits and external financing.

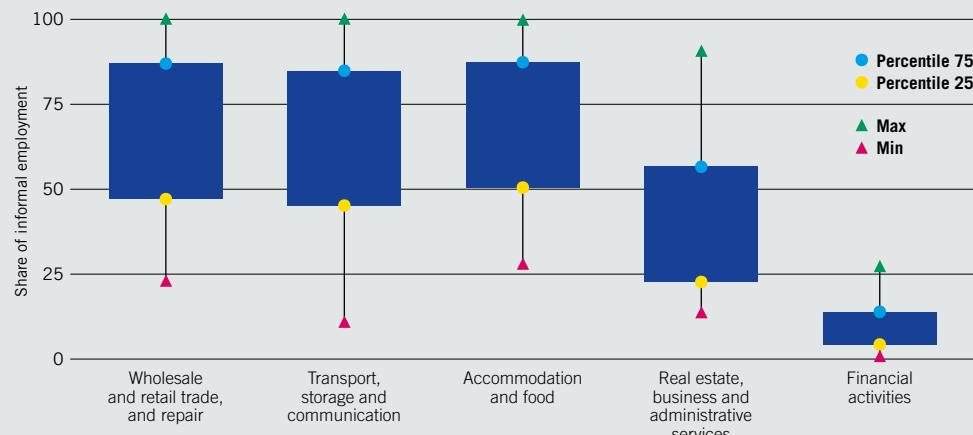
It is therefore not surprising to see that in Latin America and the Caribbean, the countries with the highest informality rates are also those reporting the highest incidence of “multidimensional poverty”.⁷ An estimated 20 per cent of the subregion’s population suffered multidimensional poverty in 2014. In some Central American countries, such as El Salvador, Guatemala and Honduras, where informality accounts for 70 to 80 per cent of total employment, 50 per cent or more of the population is affected by multidimensional poverty ([figure 2.8](#)). In a subregion where monetary poverty has been decreasing steadily over the past decade – the share of workers living in extreme or moderate poverty is now below 7 per cent (see [table 2.3](#) above) – it is crucial to look at more comprehensive measures of poverty in order to understand properly the extent of unmet basic human needs, and to design policy measures that encourage formal employment. Moreover, it has been found that poverty remains persistently high in rural areas of Latin America and the Caribbean (FAO, 2018): this calls for stronger efforts by policy-makers to promote decent work and access to social protection in the rural economy.

Several countries in the subregion have developed non-contributory social protection programmes, which play an important role in alleviating some of the vulnerabilities related to multidimensional poverty and informality. For instance, in Chile, Colombia and Mexico health care has been extended to families that were previously not covered. Conditional cash transfers (CCTs) are another notable example of poverty alleviation tools designed to help those in transition from informal to formal jobs. In Ecuador, almost 45 per cent of the population was covered by CCTs in 2015; the proportion in Brazil, Colombia and Mexico was around 25 per cent (Cecchini and Atuesta, 2017). Such transfers are typically conditional on children attending school and undergoing health checks, and there are some that provide participants with access to public employment programmes. They can help to tackle the intergenerational transmission of poverty by promoting education among children and adolescents, thereby enabling them subsequently to enter the labour market equipped with better skills (ILO, UNICEF and World Bank Group, 2017). Moreover, there is evidence that, when combined with active labour market policies, CCTs can increase the participants’ chances of finding a better-quality job (López Mourelo and Escudero, 2017). This is particularly true of young people and women in the subregion (Escudero et al., 2018). However, it is worth noting that the benefits associated with CCTs are usually less generous than those granted under contributory family allowances. Such programmes should therefore not be seen as a substitute for formal jobs (ILO, 2015b and 2017a).

7. Twelve dimensions are used to determine the index of multidimensional poverty. These can be broadly grouped into three categories: (a) education and schooling; (b) employment and social protection; and (c) housing and basic services (i.e. access to improved water or sanitation). A person is considered to be multidimensionally poor if he/she experiences privations in at least four dimensions. See Duryea and Robles (2016) for further details.

Figure 2.7

Variation in the share of informal employment in market services across Latin America and the Caribbean, latest year (percentages)

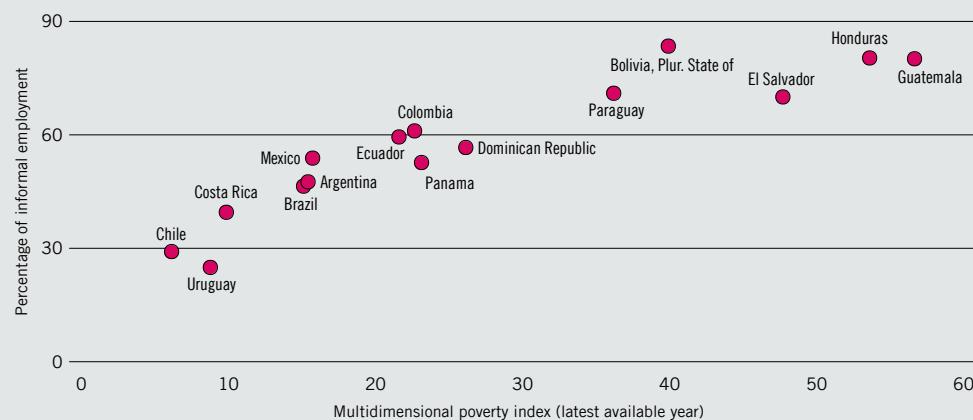


Note: The figure is based on 16 countries for which data are available. The categories of aggregate economic activities are defined in the documentation for the ILOSTAT database (www.ilo.org/ilostat-files/Documents/description_ECO_EN.pdf).

Source: Microdata processing by the ILO Department of Statistics.

Figure 2.8

Relationship between informal employment and multidimensional poverty in Latin America and the Caribbean, selected countries, latest year



Note: Multidimensional poverty is defined as the percentage of the population experiencing at least four of the 12 forms of social deprivation considered in Duryea and Robles (2016). This figure, notably the informality rate of Chile, has been revised in May 2019 with respect to the previously published version of this report.

Source: ILO, 2018a; ILOSTAT database (accessed May 2019); and Inter-American Development Bank online database.

Arab States

The labour market outlook remains stable, with economic growth returning into positive territory

Economic growth in the Arab States region re-entered positive territory in 2018, when it reached 2.3 per cent, following a contraction of 0.6 per cent in 2017. Growth should strengthen further in 2019, when it is projected to attain 3.5 per cent; it is then expected to slow down again to 2.7 per cent in 2020. The expected improvements are largely due to the economic recovery in member countries of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC), in which group GDP is set to expand by 2.2 per cent in 2018, up from 0.5 per cent in 2017 – a recovery that is driven by stronger activity in the non-oil sectors and continuing public investments. The economic outlook is also expected to improve slightly in non-GCC countries, where GDP growth should hover around 2 per cent over the next few years. In these countries slower oil-related growth has been more than compensated for by increased public investments. However, long-lasting geopolitical uncertainty and, in some cases, armed conflicts continue to inhibit economic activity in non-GCC countries (IMF, 2018e).

The rebound in economic growth is not expected to lead to considerable improvements in the labour market in the Arab States. Employment growth is estimated to have declined to 2.4 per cent in 2018, down from 2.9 per cent in 2017; it is projected to remain at this lower level over the forecast horizon. Most of the regional slowdown in job creation rates can be attributed to developments in non-GCC countries, where employment growth in 2018 is estimated to have decreased by a full percentage point since the previous year. However, it is precisely in this group of countries that employment growth should pick up in the years to 2020, whereas it is projected to decelerate in GCC economies.

The regional unemployment rate is projected to remain stable at 7.3 per cent in the years 2018–20 (table 2.4). The unemployment rate in non-GCC countries, which stood at 10.8 per cent in 2018, should remain more than double the rate in GCC countries. Although there are some signs of a return to normality, these data suggest that the labour market situation in non-GCC countries continues to be critical, with active conflicts and security risks undermining socio-economic development.

Table 2.4

Unemployment, employment growth, labour productivity growth and working poverty trends and projections, Arab States, 2007–20

Region/country group	Unemployment rate, 2007–20 (percentages)					Unemployment, 2017–20 (millions)			
	2007–16	2017	2018	2019	2020	2017	2018	2019	2020
Arab States	7.2	7.3	7.3	7.3	7.3	4.0	4.2	4.3	4.3
GCC	3.9	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2
Non-GCC	10.7	10.8	10.8	10.8	10.7	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.1
Employment growth, 2007–20 (percentages)					Labour productivity growth, 2017–20 (percentages)				
Arab States	2.9	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	-3.3	0.2	0.7	1.1
GCC	2.6	2.5	2.4	2.3	2.3	-2.8	0.2	0.9	1.3
Non-GCC	3.2	2.2	2.5	2.7	2.7	-4.3	0.0	0.2	0.7
Extreme and moderate working poverty rate, 2007–20 (percentages)					Extreme and moderate working poverty, 2007–20 (millions)				
Arab States	15.8	15.9	16.0	15.9	15.9	8.1	8.4	8.6	8.8
GCC	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Non-GCC	33.4	33.6	33.8	33.5	33.5	8.1	8.3	8.6	8.7

Note: Moderate and extreme working poverty rates refer to the shares of workers living on income or consumption per capita between US\$1.90 and US\$3.20 per day, in PPP terms, and less than US\$1.90 per day (PPP), respectively. "GCC" aggregates are for the member countries of the Gulf Cooperation Council: Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and United Arab Emirates. "Non-GCC" refers to the country group comprising Iraq, Jordan, Lebanon, the Occupied Palestinian Territory and Yemen.

Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

At the same time, it is important to recognize that labour market figures in the region are greatly influenced by the labour market dynamics of migrant workers. Indeed, the Arab States stand out as the region with the largest proportion of migrant workers, who account for 41 per cent of total employment compared with a global average of 4.7 per cent (ILO, 2018g). This share is even higher in GCC countries, where on average over half of all workers are migrants; additionally, migrants account for three-quarters or more of all private sector employees. Significantly, in 2017, migrant workers had a much higher labour force participation rate (75.4 per cent) than natives (42.2 per cent) (*ibid.*).

With economic growth set to decelerate considerably compared with earlier periods, promoting the expansion and diversification of the non-oil private sector remains a key challenge if new labour market opportunities are to be created in the Arab States. Some GCC countries, such as Bahrain and Saudi Arabia, have already taken steps to encourage the development of private sector jobs in non-oil segments of the economy, while also trying to encourage the hiring of nationals, especially young people and women. However, to achieve this the countries concerned need to adopt better skills development strategies by investing more in the education and training of their citizens, and by aligning the education and training provided with the skills required in emerging sectors.

The prospects of labour market conditions improving for both women and young people are limited in the short-term

Women in the region continue to face less favourable labour market conditions than men. At 15.6 per cent in 2018, the unemployment rate among women was almost three times as high as the male rate (5.7 per cent). This means that women account for almost one third of the unemployed in the Arab States, even though their labour market participation rate, at around 18 per cent in 2018, is almost 30 percentage points below the global average. It is unlikely that gender disparities in the labour market will narrow in the near future. On the contrary, the gender gap in the unemployment rate, which stood at over 10 percentage points in 2018, is expected to widen by 2020.

Like women, young people (ages 15–24) in the region are also disproportionately affected by unemployment. At 20.1 per cent in 2018, the regional youth unemployment rate is four times higher than the adult rate. As with the adult population, there are also considerable gender gaps in unemployment among young people. In particular, the unemployment rate among young women in 2018 (34.4 per cent) was twice as large as the rate for young men.

Even though most of the countries in the Arab States region have introduced social security programmes over the last decade, the scope of legal social security coverage remains low, especially among women: only 34.8 per cent of women are covered, against a coverage of 45.9 per cent for the population as a whole (ILO, 2017a). On top of that, the refugee crisis and political instability in many non-GCC countries, together with fiscal consolidation efforts in GCC countries, are having a negative impact on the region's already weak social protection institutions, resulting in greater vulnerability and poverty (*ibid.*).

Lastly, it is worth noting that, whereas working poverty has been virtually eradicated in GCC countries, in non-GCC countries the share of workers in extreme and moderate working poverty remains high and even continues to rise. Over 33 per cent (or 8.3 million) of workers in non-GCC countries were estimated to be living in extreme or moderate poverty in 2018.

Asia and the Pacific

Despite some deceleration, economic growth remains strong, but this is not leading to significant improvements in job quality

The economy in Asia and the Pacific should continue to expand, albeit at a decelerating rate. The region's output is estimated to have grown by 5.4 per cent in 2018, down from 5.6 per cent in 2017. Looking forward, economic growth is projected to decline slightly in 2019, falling to 5.1 per cent, and to pick up again in 2020. Across the various subregions, growth is expected to slow down the most in Eastern Asia, where it should remain just below 5 per cent in both 2019 and 2020 – its slowest rate of expansion since 2009. This is largely a reflection of the dynamics in China, where output growth should stabilize around 6.2 per cent in 2019–20, down from 6.6 per cent in 2018. In Southern Asia, growth is expected to remain above the Asian average, attaining 5.7 per cent in 2019 and accelerating further in 2020. This subregion will benefit from fast and accelerating growth in India, where output is set to expand by 7.4 per cent in 2019 and by 7.7 per cent in 2020, compared with just 6.7 per cent in 2017. In South-Eastern Asia and the Pacific, economic growth will remain stable, at 4.7 per cent in both 2019 and 2020.

Employment growth in the region is estimated to have been 0.7 per cent in 2018 – a decrease of almost half a percentage point since 2017. The slowdown in the job creation rates can be largely attributed to Eastern Asia, where employment growth in 2018 is estimated to have entered negative territory for the first time over the past decade – mainly a reflection of the shrinking working-age population, and also of higher rates of enrolment in education.⁸ On the other hand, employment growth in both Southern Asia and South-Eastern Asia and the Pacific is projected to remain close to the historical average rates, reaching, respectively, 1.5 per cent and 1.2 per cent per year during the period 2019–20.

The region's unemployment rate is projected to stay below the global average, at around 3.6 per cent in 2019, and to remain at that level in 2020. Nonetheless, as labour force growth outpaces employment creation, the number of unemployed people should continue rising to reach 72.3 million by 2020. Among the subregions, the highest unemployment rate in 2018 was recorded in Eastern Asia, namely 4.2 per cent, a level at which it is projected to remain over the next couple of years. The unemployment rate is expected to hover around 3.1 per cent in Southern Asia for the period 2018–20, whereas it should increase slightly to 3.0 per cent in South-Eastern Asia and the Pacific, mostly a reflection of rising unemployment in Indonesia ([table 2.5](#)).

The current pattern of structural transformation is unlikely to reduce decent work deficits

The Asia and the Pacific region has experienced rapid structural transformation over the past few decades, with employment moving away increasingly from agriculture into sectors of the economy with higher added value. This trend has been particularly pronounced in Eastern Asia, where the share of agriculture in total employment has dropped by over 20 percentage points since 2000, with workers relocating mostly to service activities, notably market services, and to a lesser extent into manufacturing. In South-Eastern Asia and the Pacific there has also been a significant shift of employment away from agriculture into the service sector since 2000, but the share of manufacturing employment has increased only slightly to reach 13.5 per cent in 2018. The pace of structural transformation has been slower in Southern Asia, where the agricultural sector still represented 43 per cent of total employment in 2018; by contrast, the share of manufacturing was only 12 per cent, with services accounting for about 32 per cent, up from 26 per cent in 2000 ([figure 2.9](#)).

8. For a more detailed analysis of the labour market and social outlook in Asia and the Pacific, see ILO, 2018c.

Table 2.5

Unemployment, employment growth, labour productivity growth and working poverty trends and projections, Asia and the Pacific, 2007–20

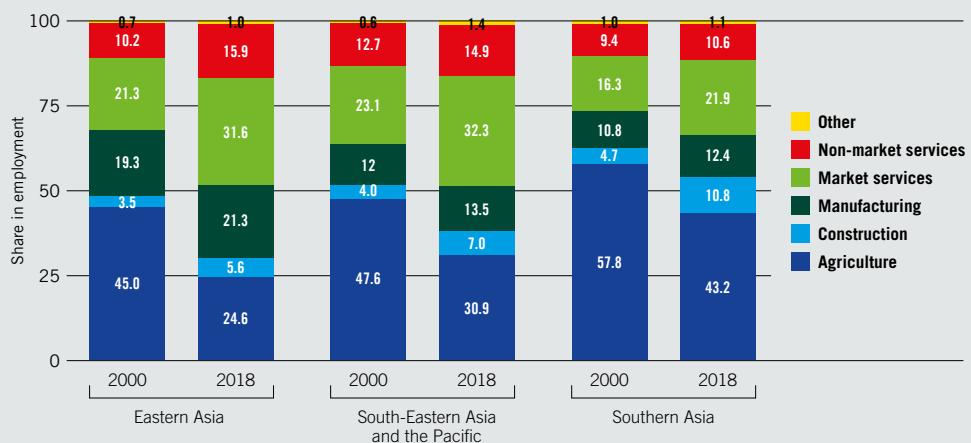
Region/subregion/ country	Unemployment rate, 2007–20 (percentages)					Unemployment, 2017–20 (millions)			
	2007–16	2017	2018	2019	2020	2017	2018	2019	2020
Asia and the Pacific		3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	71.6	71.8	72.2	72.3
Eastern Asia		4.2	4.2	4.2	4.2	39.5	39.3	39.2	38.7
Japan		2.8	2.4	2.4	2.3	1.9	1.6	1.6	1.5
Korea, Republic of		3.7	3.8	3.7	3.7	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.0
South-Eastern Asia and the Pacific		2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0	10.0	10.2	10.4	10.7
Australia		5.6	5.4	5.3	5.4	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7
Indonesia		4.2	4.3	4.4	4.5	5.4	5.6	5.8	6.0
Southern Asia		3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	22.2	22.3	22.6	22.9
Employment growth, 2007–20 (percentages)									
	2007–16	2017	2018	2019	2020	2017	2018	2019	2020
		1.1	0.7	0.6	0.6	4.4	4.7	4.5	4.3
Eastern Asia		0.2	-0.2	-0.3	-0.3	5.3	5.4	5.1	4.8
South-Eastern Asia and the Pacific		1.2	1.3	1.2	1.2	3.5	3.4	3.3	3.3
Southern Asia		2.2	1.6	1.5	1.5	3.9	5.0	4.8	4.7
Extreme working poverty rate, 2007–20 (percentages)									
	2007–16	2017	2018	2019	2020	2017	2018	2019	2020
		5.9	5.6	5.2	4.9	108.7	102.6	96.7	90.9
Eastern Asia		1.0	0.9	0.9	0.8	8.2	7.7	7.2	6.8
South-Eastern Asia and the Pacific		4.4	4.0	3.7	3.4	14.0	13.0	12.0	11.1
Southern Asia		12.6	11.8	11.0	10.2	86.5	81.9	77.4	73.0
Moderate working poverty rate, 2007–20 (percentages)									
	2007–16	2017	2018	2019	2020	2017	2018	2019	2020
		17.2	16.7	16.1	15.6	315.4	307.7	299.6	291.1
Eastern Asia		5.9	5.5	5.2	4.9	48.5	45.5	42.7	40.3
South-Eastern Asia and the Pacific		14.7	13.9	13.1	12.4	46.6	44.7	42.8	40.8
Southern Asia		32.1	31.3	30.3	29.3	220.3	217.6	214.1	210.0

Note: Moderate and extreme working poverty rates refer to the shares of workers living on income or consumption per capita between US\$1.90 and US\$3.20 per day in PPP terms, and less than US\$1.90 per day (PPP), respectively. High-income countries have been excluded when calculating the regional and sub-regional aggregates for working poverty rates. The unemployment rates for some countries shown in this table may differ from those reported by national statistical offices because they do not use the same definition of unemployment as the one established by the International Conference of Labour Statisticians.

Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

Figure 2.9

Employment shares by economic sector, Asia and the Pacific, 2000 and 2018 (percentages)



Note: The categories of aggregate economic activities are defined in the documentation for the ILOSTAT database (www.ilo.org/ilostat-files/Documents/description_ECO_EN.pdf).

Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

Despite bringing about substantial improvements, the development model adopted by most countries in the region appears to be unable to bring down significantly the region's widespread decent work deficits. In some countries, especially in Eastern Asia, agricultural employment has to a large extent given way to manufacturing and "modern" service industries, such as real estate, business and financial services, but in many others, most of the additional jobs have been created in traditional service industries with low added value, where informality and poor working conditions are rife. This is reflected in the fact that, although workers have been moving away from agriculture, vulnerable forms of employment, such as contributing family work and own-account work, have not fallen significantly over the past few decades. These two forms of employment still account for 12 and 40 per cent of total employment, respectively, in Asia and the Pacific.

As a result, the prevalence of informality in the region remains the highest globally, affecting close to 70 per cent of all workers. Among the subregions, Southern Asia has the highest share of informal employment (about 90 per cent), which is mainly due to a large agricultural sector, in which virtually all workers experience informality. The incidence of informality is also high in South-Eastern Asia and the Pacific, where it affects three-quarters of the employed, a share that rises to over 85 per cent in countries such as Cambodia, Indonesia and Myanmar (ILO, 2018a).

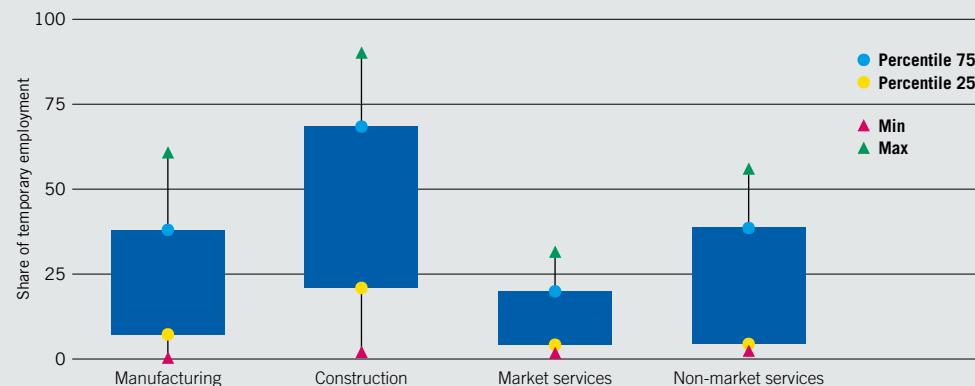
Being in wage and salaried employment, however, is by no means a guarantee of good working conditions. A sizeable proportion of employees in the region lack such advantages as job security, income stability or a written work contract. It has been found, for instance, that between 40 and 60 per cent of wage workers across those countries for which data are available have no written contract of employment; additionally, 20 to 40 per cent are engaged in occasional work (ILO, 2018c).

Moreover, the share of temporary work remains quite substantial in several countries. In Bangladesh, Indonesia and Pakistan, for instance, it affects between 70 and 80 per cent of wage and salaried employees.⁹ The highest incidence of temporary work is found, on average, in the construction sector, with the share ranging from 21 per cent in Cambodia to over 89 per cent in Indonesia and Viet Nam. Temporary employment also plays a significant role in the manufacturing sector, affecting, on average,

9. The ILO definition of temporary employment includes fixed-term, project- or task-based contractual employment arrangements between one employer and one employee characterized by a limited duration or a previously specified event (e.g. completion of project) that marks the end of the contract. It also includes casual work, i.e. the engagement of workers on a very short-term basis, or occasionally and intermittently, often for a fixed number of hours, days or weeks.

Figure 2.10

Share of temporary employment in total employment across sectors, Asia and the Pacific, latest year (percentages)



Note: The figure is based on 15 countries for which data are available. The categories of aggregate economic activities are defined in the documentation for the ILOSTAT database (www.ilo.org/ilostat-files/Documents/description_ECO_EN.pdf).

Source: Microdata processing by the ILO Department of Statistics.

20 per cent of workers, with peaks of 60 per cent in Indonesia and Viet Nam (figure 2.10). The share of temporary work in market services is smaller and more homogeneous across countries, though it is still rather large in some services such as transport, storage and communication, and accommodation and food. The situation is similar across non-market services, where temporary work accounts for around 20 per cent of total employment. Education, and health and related social activities are the two sectors in which the use of temporary workers is most widespread.

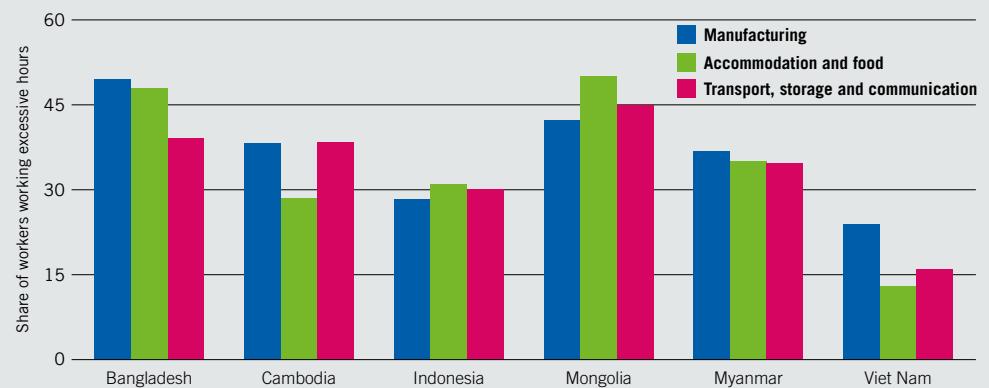
At the same time, there are millions of workers in the region who work excessively long hours (i.e. more than 48 hours per week). Despite some differences between countries, the share of workers who report working excessive hours is largest in manufacturing. Thus, between 30 and 50 per cent of manufacturing workers in Bangladesh, Cambodia and Myanmar work over 48 hours per week. This share is typically lower in the service sector, although it is still quite high in some market services, including accommodation and food, as well as transport, storage and communication (figure 2.11).

In recent decades, high levels of economic growth, coupled with a declining share of agricultural employment, have led to a rapid decrease in poverty rates in the region, especially in Eastern Asia. However, the prevalence of informality and widespread decent work deficits both hinder the further reduction of working poverty rates. Overall, more than 22 per cent (or 410 million) of workers in Asia and the Pacific are in extreme or moderate working poverty. Working poverty rates are particularly high in Southern Asia, where close to 12 per cent of workers live in extreme poverty and another 31 per cent in moderate poverty. This means that more than 217 million workers are in extreme or moderate working poverty in that subregion, which therefore accounts for 70 per cent of all working poor in the whole region. On the upside, extreme working poverty has been almost eradicated in Eastern Asia, although 45 million workers in that subregion remain in moderate poverty.

It is worth noting, however, that several countries in the region have undertaken efforts to extend social protection coverage significantly, in particular to the self-employed and workers in the informal economy (ILO, 2017a). Countries such as China and Thailand have introduced universal pension and health coverage, while Mongolia has adopted universal child benefit schemes. As a result, around 63 and 72 per cent of the population in China and Mongolia, respectively, are covered by some form of social protection. Yet, social protection coverage remains extremely low in countries with the highest poverty rates. For instance, in India less than a fifth of the population is covered by some form of social protection (ibid.).

Figure 2.11

Share of workers working excessive hours in Bangladesh, Cambodia, Indonesia, Mongolia, Myanmar and Viet Nam, selected sectors, latest year (percentages)



Note: The categories of economic activities are defined in the documentation for the ILOSTAT database (www.ilo.org/ilostat-files/Documents/description_ECO_EN.pdf).

Source: Microdata processing by the ILO Department of Statistics.

Europe and Central Asia

NORTHERN, SOUTHERN AND WESTERN EUROPE

The unemployment rate is the lowest in a decade, but job creation is expected to decelerate considerably

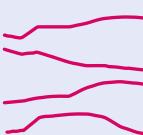
The rebound in private investments and stronger private demand have been the main drivers of economic growth in Northern, Southern and Western Europe, with aggregate output growing by 2.0 per cent in 2018, albeit down from 2.3 per cent in 2017. Output expansion in the subregion is expected to decelerate further, to 1.8 per cent in 2019 and 1.6 per cent in 2020.

Economic growth in the subregion is expected to remain broad-based, with quite narrow growth differentials across countries. In particular, real output growth in 2019 is expected to stand at between 1.5 and 1.9 per cent in France, Germany and the United Kingdom, and to exceed 2 per cent in the Netherlands, Spain and Sweden. However, in countries with relatively high unemployment rates, such as Greece and Italy, growth is projected to remain too weak to lead to considerable labour market improvements.

The pace of job creation is expected to decelerate over the forecast horizon, thereby dampening private consumption, which was one of the main drivers of GDP growth over the period 2016–18. Indeed, although the number of people employed (203 million in 2018) has never been so high, employment growth in the subregion is projected to slow down significantly, expanding by only 0.4 per cent in 2019, down from 0.8 per cent in 2018 and 1.3 per cent in both 2016 and 2017.

Despite the anticipated deceleration in output and employment growth, the unemployment rate is set to continue falling in the years to 2020, mostly as a result of stagnant labour force growth. However, the pace of reduction of unemployment will be slower than in the past few years. Thus, the subregional unemployment rate is estimated to have reached 7.6 per cent in 2018, down from 8.3 per cent in 2017; it is projected to decline further to 7.3 per cent in 2019 and to 7.1 per cent in 2020. This translates into a decrease of around 1.1 million in the number of unemployed people by 2020 (table 2.6).

Table 2.6
**Unemployment, employment growth and labour productivity growth trends and projections,
Northern, Southern and Western Europe, 2007–20**

Subregion/country	Unemployment rate, 2007–20 (percentages)					Unemployment, 2017–20 (millions)			
	2007–16	2017	2018	2019	2020	2017	2018	2019	2020
Northern, Southern and Western Europe		8.3	7.6	7.3	7.1	18.4	16.8	16.1	15.7
France		9.4	9.2	9.1	8.9	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.7
Germany		3.7	3.4	3.2	3.1	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.3
Italy		11.2	10.2	9.2	8.9	2.8	2.6	2.3	2.2
United Kingdom		4.3	4.0	3.8	3.7	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.3
Employment growth, 2007–20 (percentages)									
Northern, Southern and Western Europe		1.3	0.8	0.4	0.1	0.9	1.3	1.5	1.5

Note: The unemployment rates for some countries shown in this table may differ from those reported by national statistical offices because they do not use the same definition of unemployment as the one established by the International Conference of Labour Statisticians.

Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

The drop in unemployment that took place in 2018 was broad-based across all countries. It was most marked in Greece (−2.3 percentage points), Portugal (−2.0 percentage points) and Spain (−1.7 percentage points), all three of which had posted unemployment rates above the subregional average in 2017. The decreases in other countries, such as Belgium, Finland and Italy were also notable, ranging from 0.7 to 1.0 percentage points in 2018. However, the pace of unemployment reduction should slow down considerably already in 2019, when only Greece is projected to experience a fall in the unemployment rate in the order of 1 percentage point.

Although unemployment figures in Northern, Southern and Western Europe have improved significantly since 2015, the incidence of long-term unemployment is still high. In half of the countries in the subregion, including some large ones, such as Germany and France, more than 40 per cent of unemployed people in 2017 had been looking for a job for 12 months or longer. This share is particularly high, and trending upwards, in countries such as Greece (at 72.8 per cent in 2017), Italy (58 per cent) and Slovakia (62.4 per cent).

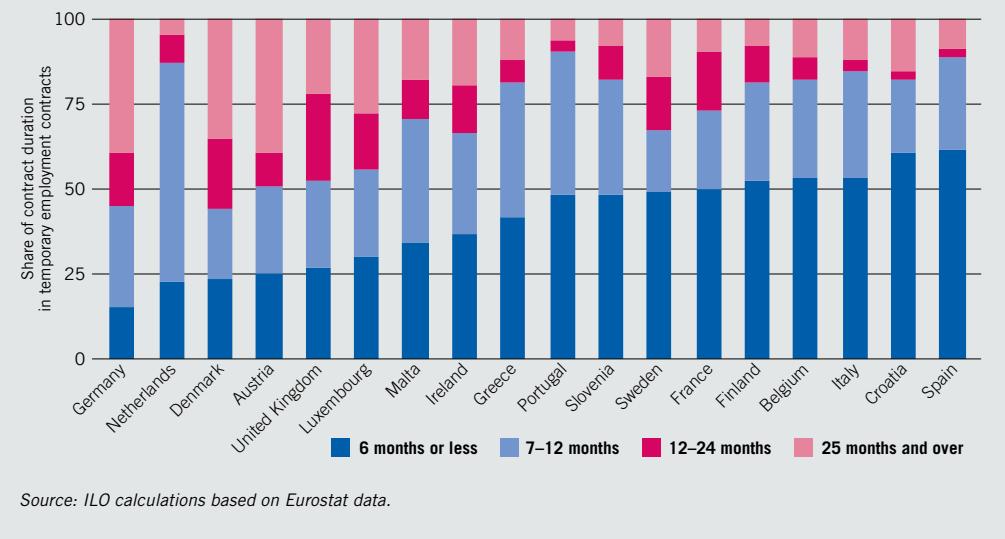
Finally, the degree of labour underutilization in the subregion is consistently above the level suggested by a simple assessment of unemployment statistics. Thus, in 2018 only 57.7 per cent of people aged 15 years and over participated in the labour market. This share is even lower among women (51.8 per cent) and young people (43.6 per cent). Moreover, there is a considerable number of people who are marginally attached to the labour force and have actually expressed interest in taking up a job, i.e. those who belong to the “potential labour force” (see Chapter 1 for details of how this term is defined). In 2018, there was a total of 10.2 million persons in the subregion, 56 per cent of whom were women, who were either available to work but not looking for a job, or who were seeking employment but were unable to start work within a short time. Although this number has decreased along with unemployment since 2014, the potential labour force is set to increase slightly over the forecast horizon. Accordingly, targeted policy measures are necessary to strengthen the labour market attachment of discouraged workers and women with family responsibilities.

The poor quality of available jobs and persistent labour market inequalities remain the main causes of concern

The number of employed people in Northern, Southern and Western Europe has never been so high. As for the unemployment rate, that is expected to continue falling in 2019 for the sixth consecutive year, going below the rate recorded in 2008. Against this backdrop, it is the poor quality of jobs created and persistent labour market inequalities that remain the main causes of concern.

Figure 2.12

Distribution of temporary employment contracts by contract duration, countries in Northern, Southern and Western Europe, 2017 (percentages)



Source: ILO calculations based on Eurostat data.

In particular, after having stabilized during the period 2014–16, the incidence of temporary employment is again on the rise in several countries in the subregion. The share of temporary workers in total employment is increasing significantly in Spain, where it reached 26.8 per cent in 2017 – the highest value since 2008 – and also in France (16.8 per cent in 2017), Italy (15.5 per cent) and the Netherlands (21.7 per cent).

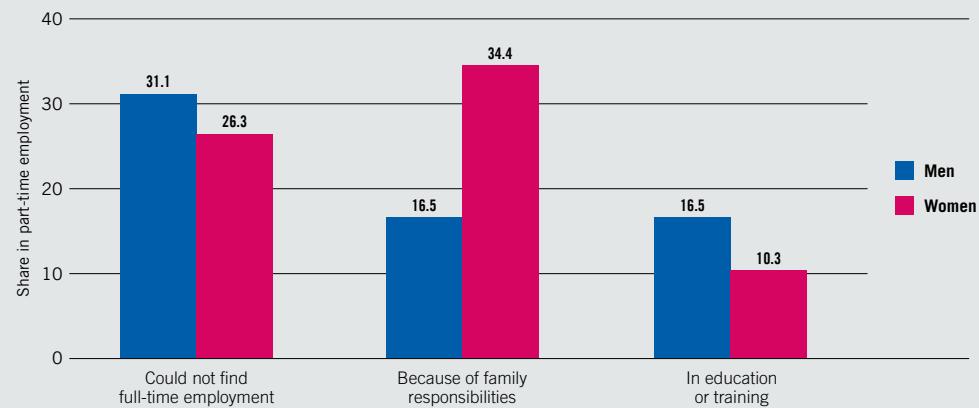
When analysing the share of temporary workers in total employment, one should bear in mind that the nature of temporary employment varies considerably across countries. As already mentioned, temporary employment encompasses fixed-term, project- or task-based contracts, casual work and temporary agency work. The heterogeneity of temporary employment is clearly reflected in the big differences in the average duration of work contracts in different countries. Thus, in 2017, temporary work contracts lasting six months or less accounted for more than half of all temporary contracts in Belgium, Finland, Italy and Spain, but only 15 per cent of temporary employment in Germany and less than 30 per cent in Austria, Denmark and the United Kingdom. By the same token, it is in the latter group of countries that workers are more likely to be offered temporary employment contracts with a duration of at least two years. Indeed, temporary work contracts of this kind accounted for more than one third of all temporary employment in Germany, Austria and Denmark, compared with less than 10 per cent in France, Spain and Portugal (figure 2.12).

The prevalence of temporary contracts of short duration can exacerbate the sense of insecurity felt by workers, in particular by increasing income volatility and thwarting their career development. There is indeed evidence to suggest that the shorter the duration of the work contract, the higher the poverty rate (Amuedo-Dorantes and Serrano-Padial, 2005). It is not surprising, therefore, that countries in which the average duration of temporary employment contracts is relatively short have been found to be more likely to register higher rates of involuntary temporary employment. For instance, over 85 per cent of temporary workers in Spain are in temporary employment because they were unable to find a permanent job. This share is above 75 per cent in Belgium, Greece and Italy. Conversely, the share of involuntary temporary employment in total temporary employment is below 10 per cent in Austria, and around 15 per cent in Germany and 30 per cent in the Netherlands.

Around 20 per cent of jobs created in the subregion in 2017 were part time. The share of part-time employment in that year was highest in some Central and Northern European countries, including Austria (27.9 per cent), Germany (26.9 per cent), the Netherlands (49.8 per cent) and the United Kingdom (24.9 per cent). However, it is in Southern European countries, especially Greece and Italy, that the number of part-time employed has increased the most since the onset of the global financial crisis in 2008.

Figure 2.13

Share of part-time workers by main reason for part-time employment and by sex, Northern, Southern and Western Europe, 2017 (percentages)



Source: ILO calculations based on Eurostat data.

Significantly, close to one third of part-time employment is taken up involuntarily, i.e. because job-seekers were unable to find a full-time job. Involuntary part-time employment is particularly frequent in Southern European countries, such as Greece, Italy and Spain, where over 60 per cent of part-timers are involuntary.¹⁰ A lack of full-time job opportunities is, however, not the only reason why workers (especially women) take part-time jobs. Indeed, over 34 per cent of women are working part time because of family-related responsibilities, such as looking after children or incapacitated adults. By contrast, only 16 per cent of men indicate such a reason for working part time (figure 2.13). Once again, these findings underline the importance of public policy measures aimed at alleviating the burden of family responsibilities that all too often prevent women from participating fully in the labour market.

It is not really surprising that a large share of part-timers and temporary workers take on such an employment status involuntarily. After all, temporary and part-time employment frequently offers lower wages and worse prospects for career development than full-time permanent contracts (EC, 2018). As a result, workers in these forms of employment are considerably more likely to be in low-paid jobs and to earn wages below the relative poverty threshold. The “in-work at-risk-of-poverty rate” – defined as the share of workers with an income below 60 per cent of the median income – is consistently higher among workers in temporary and part-time employment than among those with full-time permanent contracts. Thus, in the subregion as a whole, the probability of being at risk of working poverty is on average more than twice as high for part-time workers as for those working full time. The in-work at-risk-of-poverty rate for part-time workers is highest in countries where involuntary part-time employment is more widespread, such as Spain and Greece. Similarly, in those countries for which data are available, temporary workers are on average three times more likely to suffer working poverty than workers with permanent contracts. Around 20 per cent of temporary workers are at risk of poverty in Austria, Germany, Italy and Sweden. In this respect, it is noteworthy that relative working poverty rates, i.e. the share of those earning less than 60 per cent of the median income, for workers in temporary employment are also high in some of those countries, such as Austria and Germany, where the average duration of temporary work contracts is comparatively longer. Finally, given that about 15 per cent of all workers in the subregion are self-employed, the high rates of relative working poverty in this group – especially those doing own-account work – also need to be taken into account (Horemans and Marx, 2017). Thus, between 17 and 23 per cent of the self-employed in France, Germany, Greece, Italy and Spain were at risk of poverty in 2017.¹¹

10. The data on the shares of involuntary part-time and temporary employment presented here are taken from Eurostat.

11. The statistics on the in-work at-risk-of-poverty rate by type of employment contract presented here are taken from Eurostat.

In most of the countries in Northern, Southern and Western Europe, the vulnerability of workers in temporary, part-time or self-employment is exacerbated by the fact that they do not always have full access to statutory social protection, either because they are excluded from compulsory insurance contributions (mostly the self-employed), or because it is difficult for them to meet the eligibility criteria and to shoulder the high cost of voluntary insurance (EC, 2018; ILO, 2017a). On top of this, it is estimated that over 14 per cent of the workers in the subregion are informal and therefore not covered by national social security schemes. Informality mostly affects own-account workers, young people and workers with a lower educational level (ILO, 2018a).

In line with recent European Union initiatives, such as the European Pillar of Social Rights, a number of countries in the subregion have already taken action to extend social security coverage to workers in less protected forms of employment (EC, 2018). Yet, there often remain significant disparities in terms of access to social protection between workers in permanent full-time employment and those in other forms of employment. Tackling these disparities is becoming an increasingly pressing task, given the recent rise in the number of workers operating from digital labour platforms. Although estimates on the relevance of these new forms of employment are still only preliminary, it is worth noting that around 8 per cent of the adult population use online platforms to provide labour services, with around 6 per cent devoting at least ten hours per week to this kind of work or earning at least 25 per cent of their total income in this way (Pesole et al., 2018).

EASTERN EUROPE AND CENTRAL AND WESTERN ASIA

Shrinking employment in Eastern Europe and slower economic growth in Central and Western Asia are hampering labour market improvements

Economic growth in Eastern Europe remains robust in international terms, although the pace of expansion is expected to decelerate over the next couple of years. Output growth in 2018 is estimated at 2.7 per cent, and this should gradually decline to 2.3 per cent in 2020. This sustained economic growth is largely a reflection of stronger economic activity in the Russian Federation, where output is expected to expand for the third consecutive year, growing by 1.8 per cent in 2019. Despite the improved economic prospects, employment growth in the subregion is projected to enter negative territory, with the number of employed shrinking by 0.7 per cent in both 2019 and 2020. Nevertheless, since the labour force is set to decline at an even faster rate – by 1 per cent per year over the period 2018–20 – the unemployment rate should actually fall over the forecast horizon, continuing a downward trend that started in 2014. In particular, the subregional unemployment rate is forecast to remain just below 5 per cent in 2019 and to decline to 4.8 per cent in 2020. This reduction is broad-based across countries in the subregion, with the unemployment rate expected to decline in Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia, and, to a lesser extent, in Romania and the Russian Federation. Overall, stronger economic growth along with falling employment levels is helping to revive labour productivity growth, which is estimated to have reached 3 per cent in 2018, the highest rate since 2011. Labour productivity growth should remain at just below 3 per cent during 2019–20. As a result, wage growth in several countries of the subregion is expected to remain strong as employers strive to meet demands for higher wages in a context of tightening labour markets and rising inflation.

Output growth in Central and Western Asia is expected to slow down considerably, attaining 1.8 per cent in 2019, compared with 3.6 per cent in 2018 and 6.1 per cent in 2017. However, economic growth is projected to pick up again in 2020, reaching 3.1 per cent. The negative economic outlook for Turkey is the main factor inhibiting the subregion's economic prospects. Thus, output growth in Turkey is forecast to remain below 1 per cent in 2019, down from 3.5 per cent in 2018. This is expected to be offset only partly by sustained growth in the oil-exporting countries of Central Asia. In these countries growth should stabilize at an average of 4 per cent per year over the forecast horizon; this is, however, well below the pace of expansion witnessed in the past decade.

As a result of the anticipated slowdown in economic activity, employment growth in Central and Western Asia should also decelerate over the next couple of years. In particular, employment growth is projected to halve in 2019 (falling to 0.6 per cent from 1.2 per cent in 2018), though partly rebounding in 2020. Despite a still positive employment growth, the rate of job creation will not be sufficient to compensate for the growth of the labour force, which is expected to expand at an average of 1.2 per cent over

Table 2.7
Unemployment, employment growth, labour productivity growth and working poverty trends and projections, Eastern Europe and Central and Western Asia, 2007–20

Subregion/country	Unemployment rate, 2007–20 (percentages)					Unemployment, 2017–20 (millions)			
	2007–16	2017	2018	2019	2020	2017	2018	2019	2020
Eastern Europe		5.7	5.2	5.0	4.8	8.3	7.4	7.1	6.8
Russian Federation		5.2	4.7	4.5	4.4	3.9	3.5	3.3	3.1
Central and Western Asia		8.1	8.2	8.7	9.0	6.2	6.4	6.9	7.1
Turkey		10.8	10.9	11.9	12.1	3.4	3.5	3.9	4.1
Employment growth, 2007–20 (percentages)					Labour productivity growth, 2017–20 (percentages)				
Eastern Europe		0.1	-0.4	-0.8	-0.8	2.7	3.1	2.9	2.6
Central and Western Asia		2.3	1.3	0.6	0.8	3.6	2.8	2.9	2.8
Extreme and moderate working poverty rate, 2017–20 (percentages)					Extreme and moderate working poverty, 2017–20 (millions)				
Eastern Europe		0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Central and Western Asia		13.7	13.3	13.0	12.5	9.1	9.0	8.8	8.5

Note: Moderate and extreme working poverty rates refer to the shares of workers living in households with income or consumption per capita between US\$1.90 and US\$3.20 per day, in PPP terms, and less than US\$1.90 per day (PPP), respectively. The working poverty figures exclude high-income countries. The unemployment rates for some countries shown in this table may differ from those reported by national statistical offices because they do not use the same definition of unemployment as the one established by the International Conference of Labour Statisticians.

Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

the period 2018–20. Consequently, the subregional unemployment rate is set to reach 8.7 per cent in 2019 – the highest value since 2009 – and to continue increasing the following year, approaching 9 per cent by 2020. This trend mainly reflects deteriorating labour market conditions in Turkey, where the unemployment rate is expected to hover around 12 per cent over the forecast horizon, up from 10.9 per cent in 2018. The unemployment rate should remain more or less stable in other countries of the subregion; slower output growth may, however, lead to slight increases in the rate in oil-exporting countries, such as Kazakhstan and Tajikistan.

Informality remains high owing to limited economic diversification in Central and Western Asia and widespread informal wage employment in Eastern Europe

The expansion of wage and salaried jobs in Central and Western Asia is slowing down after a considerable increase over the past decade, during which this share in total employment went up from 59.4 per cent in 2008 to 64.2 per cent in 2018. The difficulties encountered by this subregion in raising its proportion of wage and salaried employment to the same level as other countries with comparable income are largely due to the slow pace of job creation in the private sector, which continues to be insufficiently diversified. Indeed, the current growth model is too narrowly based on oil and gas exports, construction and public spending (IMF, 2018e). As a result, a significant number of people continue to engage in activities with low added value as own-account workers and contributing family workers, often in the informal economy. These two forms of employment account for, respectively, 23.3 and 8.8 per cent of total employment.

As a result, the incidence of informality in total employment in the subregion remains high, amounting to over 43 per cent. High informality rates occur, in particular, in some of the Central Asian oil-exporting countries, including Tajikistan (74.8 per cent) and Kyrgyzstan (48.6 per cent), as well as in Turkey (34.8 per cent). Moreover, informality continues to be more prevalent among women: the corresponding rate is 47 per cent, compared with 41 per cent for men (ILO, 2018a). This is mainly a reflection of the fact that women in the subregion are three times more likely than men to be doing contributing family work.

Accounting for over 30 per cent of total employment, informality is less widespread in Eastern Europe than in Central and Western Asia but is still high in comparison with the rest of Europe. Since one third of all informal employment in Eastern Europe comprises wage and salaried workers in companies from the formal sector, this means that close to one fifth of all employees are not (or are insufficiently) protected by social security schemes. Unlike in Central and Western Asia, the incidence of informality is greater among men (34.4 per cent) than women (28.4 per cent). Across countries, the share of informal employment varies considerably, ranging from 38 per cent in Poland and 36 per cent in the Russian Federation to 12.2 per cent in Hungary and 9.2 per cent in the Czech Republic (ILO, 2018a).

Moreover, some 12.5 per cent of employed people in Central and Western Asia are living in extreme or moderate working poverty. This share will continue to decline over the next years, but at a slower pace than in the past. In Eastern Europe, both extreme and moderate working poverty have been virtually eradicated. Yet, measures of relative working poverty – i.e. the share of people earning below 60 per cent of the median income – reveal that this is still a problem, especially for those with temporary contracts and the self-employed. For instance, the share of temporary workers at risk of working poverty is above 20 per cent in Bulgaria, Cyprus and Hungary; it remains just below 10 per cent in Poland and Slovakia. It is among the self-employed, though, that the incidence of working poverty is the highest, with rates exceeding 50 per cent in Bulgaria and Hungary.

3 Sustainable Development Goal 8

Is the world moving towards more inclusive economic growth and decent work?

In September 2015, the Member States of the United Nations adopted the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Replacing the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), which expired at the end of that year, the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in the 2030 Agenda provide an ambitious blueprint for structural economic and social transformation worldwide.¹ Whereas the MDGs were widely perceived as a traditional North–South aid agenda, the SDGs address the concerns of a much larger set of stakeholders, particularly of civil society and human rights groups. Such broader engagement is necessary to tackle a number of profound structural challenges related to governance, the character of economic growth, women's rights, environmental degradation, decent work, and inequality within and between societies (Dorling, 2017; Fukuda-Parr, 2016; ILO, 2018i). The 17 Goals reflect a vision of the future – to which all countries can aspire irrespective of their level of development – that rests on the following pillars: people (human development), the planet (environmental sustainability), prosperity (inclusive economic growth and transformation) and partnership (international cooperation) (Gore, 2015).

The 2030 Agenda places great emphasis on decent work, building on and incorporating the ILO's Decent Work Agenda. Although elements of the latter are covered by several SDGs, decent work is a centrepiece of SDG 8, which calls upon countries to “[p]romote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all”. Given the importance of achieving that goal for the ILO's own mandate, this chapter investigates the content of SDG 8 and draws on the available data to examine the progress made by countries towards its attainment.

The discussion begins with an overview of SDG 8, in which the associated targets and indicators are outlined. The next three sections deal in turn with the following clusters of indicators: “economic growth, transformation and productivity”; “full and productive employment for all, with equal pay for equal work”; and “rights, safety and non-exploitative work”. The chapter concludes with a summary and various recommendations for policy-makers. Our analysis has benefited from previous ILO studies, notably the extensive statistical assessment of SDG indicators under the ILO's custodianship (ILO, 2018i) and the mapping of SDG 8 (and related targets) on the basis of decent work data for the Asia and the Pacific region (ILO, 2018c).

1. For full details of the 2030 Agenda, see: <https://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/development-agenda/>.

Sustainable Development Goal 8: Targets and indicators

Sustainable Development Goal 8 comprises 12 targets, each of which has one or more associated indicators (listed in [box 3.1](#)).² The targets are mostly qualitative, such as to “[s]ustain per capita economic growth in accordance with national circumstances” or to “[p]romote development-oriented policies that support productive activities”. However, some targets do have specific measurable objectives, such as to achieve “at least 7 per cent gross domestic product growth per annum in the least developed countries”, “to eradicate forced labour, end modern slavery and human trafficking”, and to “end child labour in all its forms [by 2025]”. This blend of tangible and intangible objectives makes it rather challenging, from an analytical point of view, to present evidence of progress towards attaining SDG 8. The basic premise, however, is that sustained per capita economic growth in combination with decent work leads to inclusive growth. A mixture of policies aimed at promoting growth and productivity (targets 8.1–8.4, 8.10), employment and decent work (8.5, 8.6, 8.9) and core labour rights (8.7, 8.8) should therefore be adopted by countries to create a framework for sustained, inclusive and sustainable development.

In particular, SDG 8 envisages the achievement of “higher levels of economic productivity through diversification, technological upgrading and innovation”. Sustained growth, moreover, relies on the ability of domestic financial institutions to encourage financial inclusion, and on trade support being available to developing countries, especially least developed countries (LDCs). At the same time, economic growth should not be pursued at the expense of other SDGs. This means adopting a more progressive model of economic growth – one based on improving global resource efficiency in consumption and production, and on decoupling economic growth from environmental degradation. For SDG 8 to be fully realized it is necessary that higher growth rates should be accompanied by decent work opportunities for all women and men, including young people and persons with disabilities. This involves ensuring equal pay for work of equal value, protecting labour rights, making work environments secure and eradicating forced labour, slavery and child labour. It is also important to create decent work opportunities in all areas of employment, encourage entrepreneurship and formalize micro-, small and medium-sized enterprises.

In some studies it has been argued that the SDG 8 “narrative” has too narrow a focus since such tasks as reducing inequality and developing strong and effective institutions are also critical to the attainment of that goal. An evaluation of progress made towards SDG 8 should also consider indicators related to SDG 10 (“Reduce inequality within and among countries”) and SDG 5 (“Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls”), too (see ILO, 2018c, pp. 58–62; Luebker, 2017). A broader set of core and associated targets – under an expanded goal that one might term “SDG 8+” – arguably provides a more useful blueprint (and frame of analysis) for national and international policy-makers who are seeking to foster decent work and inclusive economic development.

Although we recognize the merits of an expanded “SDG 8+” framework, for this chapter we have concentrated on the 12 original SDG 8 targets, and their associated indicators, in order to stay within the quite specific scope of this report. It is worth emphasizing, though, that the ILO fully supports efforts to explore the complex interrelationships between SDG targets as part of the implementation of the 2030 Agenda, especially with a view to understanding better those targets that are relevant to the pursuit of decent work for all. The ILO is one of the custodian agencies for the SDG indicators and, in line with its Decent Work Agenda, devotes particular attention to those indicators that are related to SDG 8 (see ILO, 2018i for further details). Accordingly, the ILO intends to publish a more in-depth assessment of SDG 8 in time for the July 2019 meeting of the United Nations High-level Political Forum on Sustainable Development. The planned report will look closely at the various cross-linkages between SDG 8 and other SDGs.

2. An overview of SDG 8 can be found at: <http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/sustainable-development-goals/goal-8-decent-work-and-economic-growth.html>.

Box 3.1**Targets and indicators for Sustainable Development Goal 8**

Targets	Indicators
8.1 Sustain per capita economic growth in accordance with national circumstances and, in particular, at least 7 per cent gross domestic product growth per annum in the least developed countries	8.1.1 Annual growth rate of real GDP per capita
8.2 Achieve higher levels of economic productivity through diversification, technological upgrading and innovation, including through a focus on high-value added and labour-intensive sectors	8.2.1 Annual growth rate of real GDP per employed person
8.3 Promote development-oriented policies that support productive activities, decent job creation, entrepreneurship, creativity and innovation, and encourage the formalization and growth of micro-, small- and medium-sized enterprises, including through access to financial services	8.3.1 Proportion of informal employment in non-agriculture employment, by sex
8.4 Improve progressively, through 2030, global resource efficiency in consumption and production and endeavour to decouple economic growth from environmental degradation, in accordance with the 10-Year Framework of Programmes on Sustainable Consumption and Production, with developed countries taking the lead	8.4.1 Material footprint, material footprint per capita, and material footprint per GDP 8.4.2 Domestic material consumption, domestic material consumption per capita, and domestic material consumption per GDP
8.5 By 2030, achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, including for young people and persons with disabilities, and equal pay for work of equal value	8.5.1 Average hourly earnings of female and male employees, by occupation, age and persons with disabilities 8.5.2 Unemployment rate, by sex, age and persons with disabilities
8.6 By 2020, substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training	8.6.1 Proportion of youth (aged 15–24 years) not in education, employment or training
8.7 Take immediate and effective measures to eradicate forced labour, end modern slavery and human trafficking and secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour, including recruitment and use of child soldiers, and by 2025 end child labour in all its forms	8.7.1 Proportion and number of children aged 5–17 years engaged in child labour, by sex and age
8.8 Protect labour rights and promote safe and secure working environments for all workers, including migrant workers, in particular women migrants, and those in precarious employment	8.8.1 Frequency rates of fatal and non-fatal occupational injuries, by sex and migrant status 8.8.2 Level of national compliance with labour rights (freedom of association and collective bargaining) based on International Labour Organization (ILO) textual sources and national legislation, by sex and migrant status
8.9 By 2030, devise and implement policies to promote sustainable tourism that creates jobs and promotes local culture and products	8.9.1 Tourism direct GDP as a proportion of total GDP and in growth rate 8.9.2 Proportion of jobs in sustainable tourism industries out of total tourism jobs



Box 3.1**Targets and indicators for Sustainable Development Goal 8 (cont'd)**

Targets	Indicators
8.10 Strengthen the capacity of domestic financial institutions to encourage and expand access to banking, insurance and financial services for all	8.10.1 (a) Number of commercial bank branches per 100,000 adults and (b) number of automated teller machines (ATMs) per 100,000 adults
	8.10.2 Proportion of adults (15 years and older) with an account at a bank or other financial institution or with a mobile-money-service provider
8.a Increase Aid for Trade support for developing countries, in particular least developed countries, including through the Enhanced Integrated Framework for Trade-related Technical Assistance to Least Developed Countries	8.a.1 Aid for Trade commitments and disbursements
8.b By 2020, develop and operationalize a global strategy for youth employment and implement the Global Jobs Pact of the International Labour Organization	8.b.1 Existence of a developed and operationalized national strategy for youth employment, as a distinct strategy or as part of a national employment strategy

Source: "Global indicator framework for the Sustainable Development Goals and targets of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development", available at: <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/indicators-list/>.

Economic growth, transformation and productivity

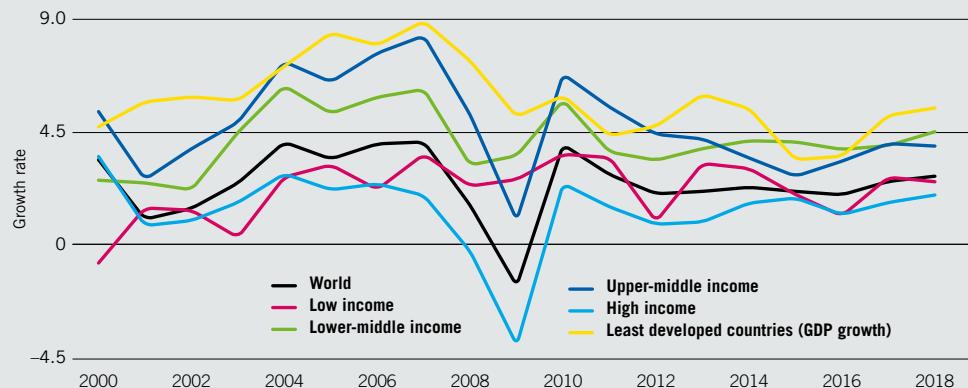
Instead of considering the progress made on each of the 12 targets of SDG 8 one after the other, we have decided to cluster these under broad themes. In this section we look at economic growth, transformation and productivity. Economic growth was included among the SDG 8 targets by the United Nations in response to the consensus reached in academic and policy debates on the desirability of sustainable and inclusive growth, especially in response to such urgent challenges as the need for productive transformation, the high incidence of informality, the exclusion of workers from financial resources, environmental degradation, and inadequate living standards in the poorest countries (Brown, 2011; ILO, 2018a; Lopes, 2019; Paus, 2018). The five SDG 8 targets covered in this section set the core agenda for economic growth. It should be noted, however, that progress on the targets discussed in the two subsequent sections (or the lack of such progress) also influences greatly a given country's economic performance.

Sustainable Development Goal 8 requires improved performance on the core economic variables of sustained per capita economic growth and productivity (targets 8.1, 8.2). The LDCs have been set the additional objective of achieving GDP growth of at least 7 per cent per year in order to close the gap with other countries as far as living standards are concerned.³ Moreover, in all countries the enhancement of productivity is meant to be driven by "diversification, technological upgrading and innovation". Related to this focus on a specific form of growth is the expectation that it should be underpinned by "development-oriented policies that support productive activities" (target 8.3), and by requiring a transformation of economic models to encourage formalization, entrepreneurship and access to financial services. The need for greater efficiency in the use of environmental resources is identified with

3. For some LDCs it would still take a long time to close the gap even if their annual growth rates were to exceed 7 per cent. For example, Burundi currently has a GDP per capita of US\$702 (PPP); at an annual GDP per capita growth of 7 per cent, it would need approximately 25 years to reach the status of an upper-middle-income country.

Figure 3.1

Annual growth rate of real GDP per capita, global and by country income group, 2000–18 (percentages)



Note: For the LDCs, the annual GDP growth rate is shown instead of real GDP per capita growth.

Source: ILO calculations based on United Nations, 2017a and IMF, 2018a.

regard to both consumption and production (target 8.4). Lastly, improved access to financial services is required to encourage inclusivity (target 8.10). So how has the world performed against these targets? What conclusions can we draw on the basis of the available data?

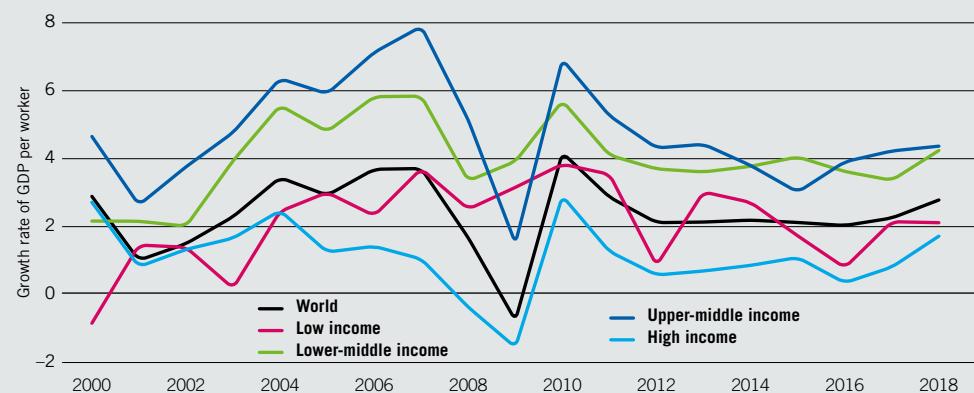
The qualitative reference in target 8.1 to sustaining per capita economic growth naturally suggests the need for benchmarking against historically achieved growth rates; however, the caveat “in accordance with national circumstances” leaves some room for interpretation. The straightforward approach is to look at global trends, though with specific attention being paid to the LDCs because of the additional objective that these should achieve annual GDP growth rates of at least 7 per cent (see figure 3.1). The growth trends observed since 2000 are punctuated by the global financial crisis of 2008–09, which hit upper-middle- and high-income countries especially hard. The world economy as a whole enjoyed a high annual GDP per capita growth rate of around 4 per cent in the four years immediately preceding the crisis, with the rate halving to just over 2 per cent during the decade since. Throughout this period, average performance has been stronger among upper-middle- and lower-middle-income countries, but weaker among low- and high-income countries. Given that the overall aim is for standards of living in developing countries to converge with those in developed countries, the poor performance of low-income countries, which achieved an average annual per capita growth rate of just 2.4 per cent during 2011–18, is obviously a cause for concern. Also, during all but five of the 18 years covered by figure 3.1, annual GDP growth rates in the LDCs have fallen short of 7 per cent. Indeed, the average for the recent period 2011–18 is 4.8 per cent, significantly below the mark established in SDG target 8.1.

Target 8.2 calls for “higher levels of economic productivity”. In the world as a whole, the annual growth rate of real GDP per employed person (i.e. labour productivity growth) follows a similar trend to that of GDP per capita as discussed above. Labour productivity growth has recovered from its trough in 2009, but has not yet returned to the higher rates observed in the years immediately preceding the crisis (figure 3.2). The variation in labour productivity growth rates across country income groups remains quite large. Moreover, a clear split may be discerned between the middle-income countries (most of which are in Eastern and Southern Asia), which are continuing to catch up, in terms of labour productivity, with the high-income countries, and the low-income countries, which are falling behind again. This is in stark contrast to the evolution observed before the crisis, when the countries farthest away from the productivity frontier – notably in sub-Saharan Africa – were also the ones recording the strongest productivity growth rates.

Because of the focus of target 8.2 on “diversification, technological upgrading and innovation”, more comprehensive data would be required to identify whether those productivity improvements are conducive to sustained and sustainable growth (see e.g. Nübler, 2018; Pollin, 2018). Within the

Figure 3.2

Annual growth rate of real GDP per worker, global and by country income group, 2000–18 (percentages)



Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

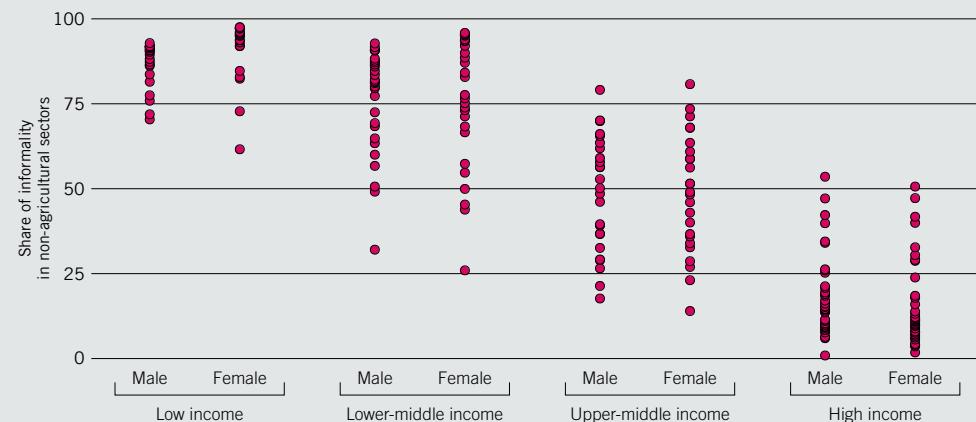
constraints of this chapter, we can but point to certain key obstacles that make it difficult to raise productivity levels. Countries can sometimes achieve greater labour productivity growth through integration in global supply chains, but this is by no means a deterministic relationship. Indeed, more research is required to identify the types of global supply chain that can result in productivity gains for a country's companies at all levels of the chain. The fragility of a given country – caused, for instance, by political instability, environmental vulnerability or lack of economic diversification – is an important factor when one is looking at the reasons for its failure to catch up with other countries. Also, trends in the global commodity price cycle affect some countries very strongly. Driven by robust growth in advanced economies and favourable financing conditions, a commodity price boom in the early 2000s opened up international trading and growth opportunities for countries at all levels of economic development, especially for LDCs, whose volume of commodity exports increased considerably. However, the global financial crisis reversed that trend sharply. As global trade began to expand at a slower rate, low- and lower-middle-income countries that had previously benefited from export-driven growth were left struggling (UNCTAD, 2013). Upper-middle-income countries that had also been relying on exports to fuel growth managed, however, to change course and began to tap domestic sources of growth instead. They were thus able to limit the fallout resulting from slower trade growth and could return to faster growth after the crisis years, albeit without reaching pre-crisis levels.

Target 8.3 is potentially transformative because of its emphasis on decent jobs and entrepreneurship, creativity and innovation, and formalization of the economy. Decent work is considered in the next section, but the areas of entrepreneurship, creativity and innovation have been set aside because they would require a more detailed examination at the country level, which is not possible here. The associated indicator refers to the share of non-agricultural workers in informal employment (see box 3.1).⁴ As pointed out in Chapter 1, informal employment is the reality for around three in five of workers worldwide. It affects workers of various types, particularly own-account workers, contributing family workers and employees who may be working in formal or informal economy businesses (see also ILO, 2018a). Because workers in informal employment do not benefit from the protections provided by labour legislation and social security systems, they are more vulnerable than workers in formal employment. This can set negative feedback loops into motion, exacerbating such workers' vulnerability and hindering efforts to improve labour productivity through high-value added innovation and creativity. However, as noted by Acemoglu and Robinson (2012), innovation and creativity both rely on the existence of inclusive institutions that benefit the whole of society. This means that formality rates are at best an imperfect indicator of progress towards target 8.3.

4. As noted in ILO, 2018i, p. 19, in order to obtain a comprehensive picture of the extent of informality it is necessary also to consider the informality rate in agricultural activities, which is high in many countries.

Figure 3.3

Proportion of informal employment in non-agricultural employment, by sex and country income group, latest available year (percentages)



Note: Each data point corresponds to a country.

Source: ILOSTAT database [accessed January 2019].

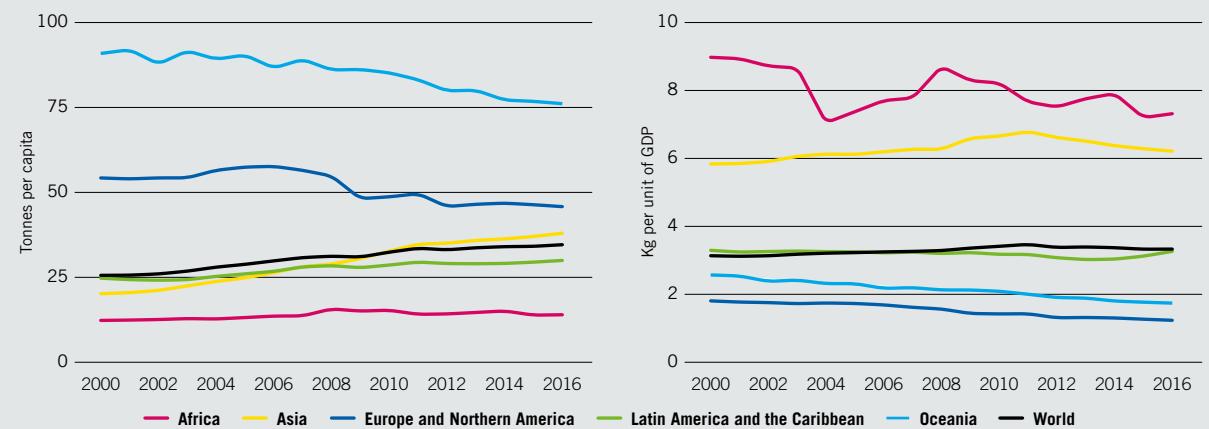
Figure 3.3 confirms that there is good reason to be concerned about how much still needs to be done to formalize the global economy. Of the 112 countries for which data are available, the majority have more than half of their non-agricultural workforce in informal employment. There seems to be a negative relationship between the share of informal employment and a country's income level, but it is not deterministic. The data points for the various country income groups overlap considerably; several countries in the upper-middle-income group, for example, exhibit high informality rates that are comparable to those of low-income countries. Although the informality rates for men and women are at first glance relatively similar, closer inspection reveals that in 69 per cent of the countries for which data are available the incidence of informality is higher among women (see ILO, 2018i).

Target 8.4 is about improving “global resource efficiency in consumption and production” and endeavouring to “decouple economic growth from environmental degradation ... with developed countries taking the lead”. The economic modelling for such decoupling has advanced greatly in recent years and has helped to convince policy-makers of the merits of pursuing an alternative approach to economic development that takes into account environmental considerations. For unless progressive policy reforms are undertaken, economic activity will continue to rely to a large extent on finite natural resources, leading to grave and irreversible environmental degradation as a result of greenhouse gas emissions and other forms of pollution (Dorling, 2017; IPCC, 2013). Data collected from 180 countries show that three-quarters of the 165 countries that experienced net growth during 1995–2014 also registered rising greenhouse gas emissions (ILO, 2018j). Nevertheless, there are examples of absolute decoupling, i.e. where countries have managed to enjoy GDP growth while reducing their carbon footprint: this was the case for some 23 countries during 1995–2014. These examples confirm the positive effect of investing in renewable energies and expanding the environmental goods and services sector (*ibid.*, pp. 10–14).

Figure 3.4 presents the empirical data for one of the two indicators associated with target 8.4, namely domestic material consumption. It shows an alarming upward trend in consumption per capita at the global level. If consumption is measured in kilograms per unit of GDP instead, a flattening out can be observed from 2011 onwards, but there are few signs of consumption actually decreasing. The rising trend of consumption per capita is driven mainly by strong increases in Asia and in Latin America and the Caribbean. A reduction in material consumption in Europe, Northern America and in Oceania has helped to offset the upward global trend to some extent.

Figure 3.4

Domestic material consumption per capita and per unit of GDP, global and by region, 2000–16

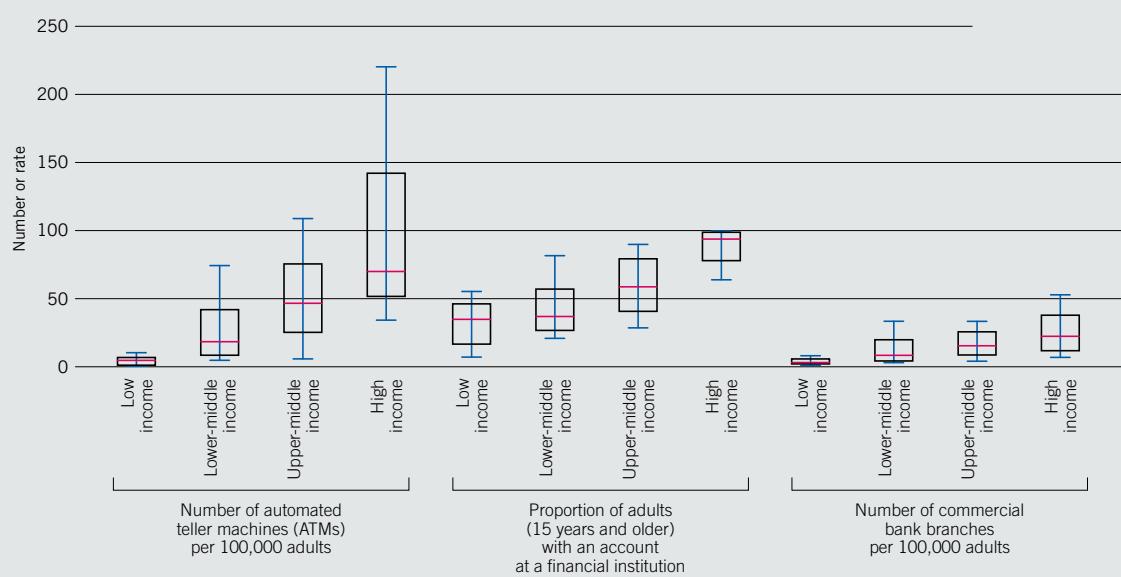


Note: The country groupings are based on the M49 standard classification developed by the United Nations Statistics Division, available at: <https://unstats.un.org/unsd/methodology/m49/>

Source: United Nations Global SDG Indicators Database [accessed November 2018].

Figure 3.5

Three indicators measuring the accessibility of financial services, by country income group, latest available year



Note: Each box-and-whisker plot shows the median value and two ranges of values, which contain, respectively, 50 per cent and 90 per cent of the country observations. The lowest and highest "whiskers" therefore represent the 5th and 95th percentiles, which encompass the central 90 per cent of data points.

Source: United Nations Global SDG Indicators Database [accessed November 2018].

A further SDG target that has to do with fostering inclusive development is target 8.10, which calls for all citizens to have improved access to banking, insurance and financial services. More than two in five workers worldwide are employed in the rural economy, and such workers face specific challenges on that score. Many of them live in poverty, are employed informally, depend on small-scale holdings for their livelihood and have limited access to credit and insurance (Bhatt, 2015). Investment in digital infrastructure can help rural workers (especially women who face additional constraints) to enjoy the benefits of mobile banking and gain access to credit and insurance, thereby enabling business and job growth (Benería, Berik and Floro, 2015; ILO, 2019).

Target 8.10 has three associated indicators that are designed to track the capacity of financial institutions to service all citizens. Although trend data are available for some countries, a more general global snapshot can be obtained by using the most recent data available ([figure 3.5](#)). The overall pattern is one of extreme disparities in access to financial services (measured on all three indicators), depending on a country's income level. For example, the share of adults with an account is just one in three among low-income countries (at the median point), compared with over nine in ten adults among high-income countries. The greatest variability on this measure is to be found among lower-middle- and upper-middle-income countries, which suggests that proactive policy reform to improve citizens' access to financial services can indeed make a significant difference. Recent studies have highlighted the factors that enable or hinder financial inclusion in specific countries and regions (e.g. Agwu and Carter, 2014; Park and Mercado, 2015).

Full and productive employment for all, with equal pay for work of equal value

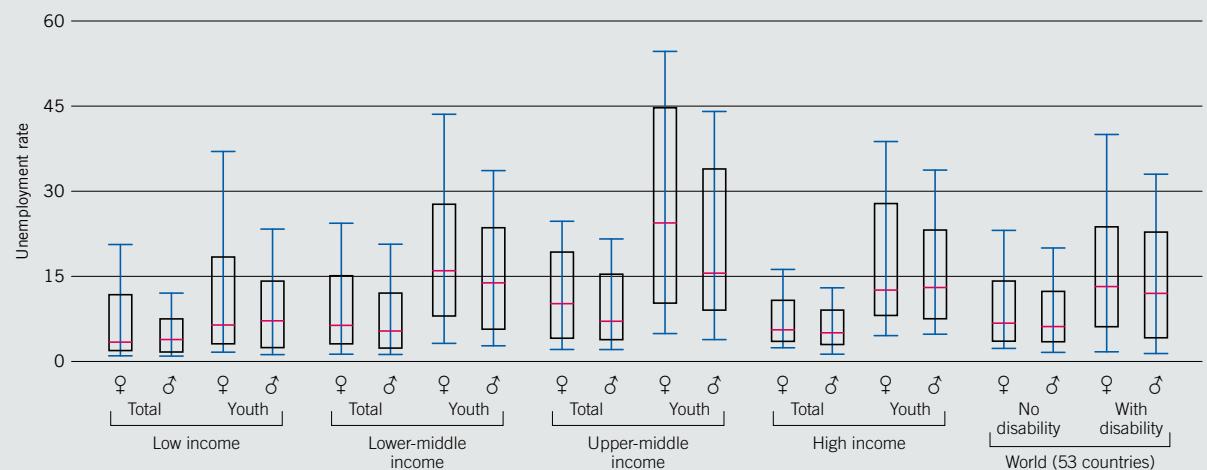
Significantly, the 2030 Agenda embraces an approach towards economic growth that recognizes the pivotal importance of full employment, decent work and equality. Although we have grouped the specific SDG 8 targets dealing with work and employment into a separate cluster here, they are linked directly both to the growth and productivity targets discussed above and to the fundamental principles and rights at work discussed below. For strong performance in terms of the promotion of decent work, productive employment and equality can have positive feedback effects on the capacity of an economy to deliver sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth. In a striking rebuttal of the notion of an efficiency–equality trade-off that was much in vogue in the 1980s, SDG 8 therefore presupposes a progressive economic model in which equality gains can strengthen a country's potential to achieve sustainable economic growth. This premise, which can be accounted for in various ways, has been put forward in many macroeconomic studies in recent years (e.g. Cingano, 2014; OECD, 2015; Piketty, 2014).

Two SDG 8 targets are relevant to this cluster. The first is target 8.5, which calls upon countries to “achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, including for young people and persons with disabilities, and equal pay for work of equal value”. The second is target 8.6, which envisages the proportion of young people not in employment, education or training (NEET) being substantially reduced – with the earlier target year of 2020 rather than 2030.

Full employment is achieved when everybody who wants to be employed has a job, or, to put it slightly differently, when all available labour is employed. This does not mean an unemployment rate of zero, because there can still be frictional and voluntary unemployment. The former occurs when workers transition between jobs; the latter arises because some people may find it advantageous to appear unemployed even though they have no real intention of taking up employment. At the same time, workers may find themselves outside the labour market, even though they are seeking employment, because they have become discouraged. Consequently, if one looks at unemployment on its own, it is easy to end up either underestimating or overestimating the true employment deficit. Nevertheless, the unemployment rate is the best indicator we have of the deficit in full employment. As shown in [Chapters 1](#) and [2](#) on the basis of indirect indicators, being in employment, however, is no guarantee of escaping poverty. Decent work deficits are widespread all over the world.

Figure 3.6

Distribution of unemployment rates by age, sex, disability status and country income group, 2018 (percentages)



Note: Each box-and-whisker plot shows the median value and two ranges of values, which contain, respectively, 50 per cent and 90 per cent of the country observations. The lowest and highest “whiskers” therefore represent the 5th and 95th percentiles, which encompass the central 90 per cent of data points. “♀” stands for female, “♂” for male. Unemployment rates by disability status are based on the latest year reported in 53 countries for which data are available, including 29 high-income countries.

Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018; ILOSTAT database [accessed January 2019].

Target 8.5 takes existing inequalities in the labour market into account by emphasizing the need to achieve full employment for women and men of all ages, including persons with disabilities. In this respect, it is worth noting that the global aggregate unemployment rate has been declining, but that the decline is expected to stop, which would leave employment gaps at current levels (see [Chapter 1](#)). Further, as shown in [Chapters 1](#) and [2](#), there are large differences between countries and between demographic groups. In what follows we supplement the preceding analysis by presenting the dispersion of unemployment rates across income and demographic groups. This makes it possible to identify employment gaps that would otherwise be masked by aggregates.

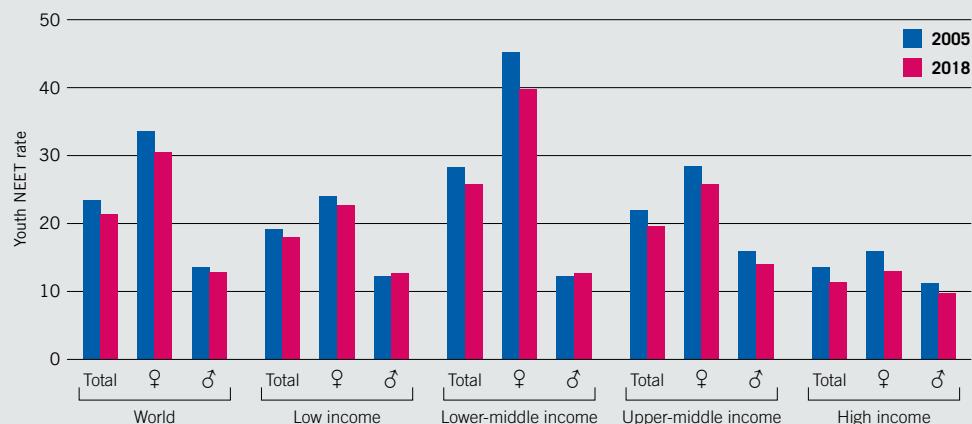
[Figure 3.6](#) shows that a significant number of countries have aggregate unemployment rates in excess of 10 per cent, even in the low-, lower-middle- and high-income country income groups, where the median aggregate unemployment rate is in the order of 5 per cent. The median aggregate unemployment rate is highest in upper-middle-income countries, at 8.2 per cent. The difference between the median and the 95th percentile is largest in lower-middle-income countries, where these values are, respectively, 5.4 per cent and 22.5 per cent. Across all country income groups, the 95th percentile of unemployment rates is consistently higher for women than for men. The median is also higher for women in all country income groups, except for low-income countries.

Across all country income groups, young people (ages 15–24) have a higher unemployment rate. However, it is notable that the dispersion of unemployment rates is much larger for young people than for the aggregate labour force, and even more so for young women. The highest median unemployment rate among young women is observed in upper-middle-income countries: standing at 24 per cent, it is a full 9 percentage points above the median unemployment rate for young men in that country income group.

Women and men with a disability are also much more likely to be unemployed; their median unemployment rates are roughly twice as high as those of persons without a disability. In 20 out of the 29 high-income countries for which data are available, persons with disabilities also experience higher unemployment rates than young people. By contrast, the unemployment rate for persons with disabilities is lower than that for young people in 20 out of the 24 low- and middle-income countries for which data are available. It is important to keep in mind, though, that only individuals in the labour force can be unemployed. One should therefore also consider people who are outside the labour force in order to assess the full extent of labour underutilization, especially among young people and persons with

Figure 3.7

Young people with NEET status, by sex, global and by country income group, 2005 and 2018 (percentages)



Note: "Young people" refers to ages 15–24. "♀" stands for female, "♂" for male.

Source: ILO modelled estimates, November 2018.

disabilities who may easily become discouraged from seeking work if, for instance, they face discrimination in accessing employment or in receiving a fair wage offer (Altbeker and Bernstein, 2017; Kruse et al., 2018).

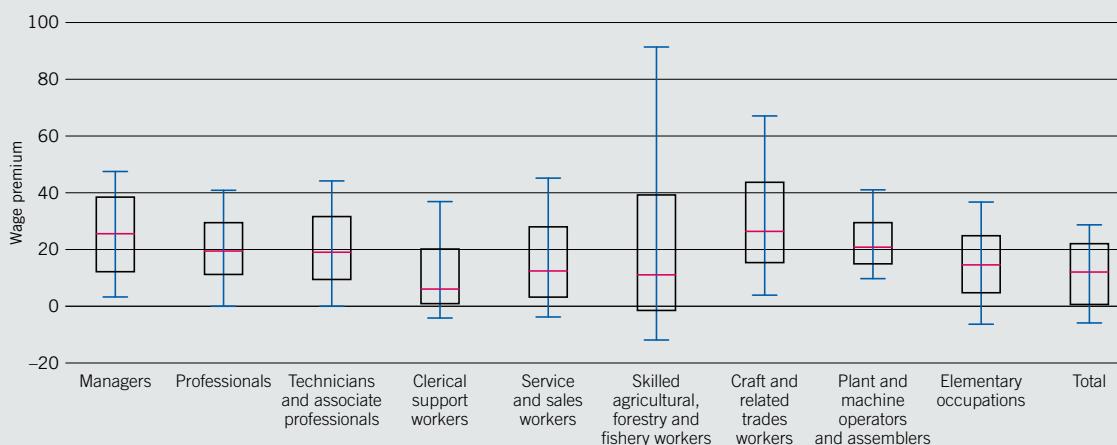
When young people are not in employment, education or training (NEET), they are unable to gain skills that are valued in the labour market, which reduces their future chances of finding employment and, in the long run, undermines the ability of an economy to grow over a sustainable period (see ILO, 2017c). It is to deal with this problem that target 8.6 calls for a substantial reduction of the proportion of young NEET individuals by 2020. Since the global youth NEET rate decreased by a mere 2 percentage points between 2005 and 2018, this target is unlikely to be achieved (figure 3.7). In 2018, more than one in five (21.2 per cent) of young people worldwide had NEET status. The youth NEET rate has so far not decreased substantially in any of the country income groups, either among young women or among young men.

Although the global gender gap in youth NEET rates has closed slightly between 2005 and 2018, namely by 2.5 percentage points, the fact remains that in 2018 the NEET rate for young women (30.4 per cent) was still more than double the rate for young men (12.7 per cent). The gender gap is especially wide in lower-middle-income countries, where young women are more than three times as likely as young men to have NEET status. Countries should do all they can to tackle this urgent problem and enable young women to access education, employment and training on equal terms with young men.

In addition to gender disparities as far as the risk of unemployment and NEET rates are concerned, women also face wage discrimination. Target 8.5 calls explicitly for "equal pay for work of equal value"; the associated indicator (8.5.1) involves estimating the average gender pay gap. Because the value of work depends on a complex set of individual, occupational and organizational characteristics, and also on labour market institutions and mechanisms (including social dialogue) and on class and gender relations in society, it is notoriously difficult to pin down the reasons behind the gender pay gap (Blau and Kahn, 2017; Rubery and Grimshaw, 2015). SDG indicator 8.5.1 takes some of the potential productivity differentials between workers into account, since it requires the average hourly earnings of women and men to be measured by occupation. However, there is a risk that this may obscure the negative influence of gender discrimination on women's pay resulting from the "crowding" of women into female-dominated occupations (Leuze and Strauss, 2016). If the measure of average hourly earnings is used, the median gender pay gap is smallest in clerical support occupations (6 per cent) and largest in managerial occupations and in crafts and related trades (around 26 per cent)

Figure 3.8

Wage premium for men relative to women by occupation, latest available year (percentages)



Note: Each box-and-whisker plot shows the median value and two ranges of values, which contain, respectively, 50 per cent and 90 per cent of the country observations. The lowest and highest "whiskers" therefore represent the 5th and 95th percentiles, which encompass the central 90 per cent of data points. The data by occupation are based on 49 countries, those for the total economy on 62 countries.

Source: ILOSTAT database [accessed January 2019].

(see figure 3.8). There is, however, significant dispersion: men enjoy a wage premium of more than 20 per cent in many countries across the various broad occupational groups. It is also notable that in a small number of countries women on average earn more than men in some occupations, and even at the aggregate of the economy.

In order to understand the full extent of gender pay gaps, it is necessary to take as many measurable, underlying factors as possible into account. A new statistical approach has been proposed in a recently issued study of global wage data (ILO, 2018f). This approach involves the use of a “factor-weighted gender pay gap” methodology to compare wages among female and male employees who are as comparable as possible. It has been found that the factor-weighted gender pay gap may be higher or lower than the raw (i.e. unadjusted) gender pay gap, depending on a country’s circumstances. Significantly, though, in only one country (Bangladesh) does the gender pay gap remain negative (i.e. with women on average earning more than men) once factor weighting has been applied; in all other countries, the factor-weighted gender pay gap is positive, ranging mostly from 10 to 25 per cent. The results obtained using this new approach corroborate the conclusion suggested by figure 3.8, namely that radical change is required in the realm of policy action, in employers’ approaches to hiring, promotion and pay determination, and in trade union activities related to pay bargaining and mobilization, if all countries are to achieve gender pay equity by 2030.

Rights, safety and non-exploitative work

Our third cluster of SDG 8 targets has to do with fundamental rights and protections that all people ought to enjoy in the world of work. Targets 8.7 and 8.8 (see [box 3.1](#)) tie in completely with the ILO's Decent Work Agenda, since they emphasize the need to eradicate unacceptable forms of work and to uphold labour rights for all workers. These concerns are also voiced in the set of recommendations issued by the Global Commission on the Future of Work, especially the exhortation to governments, employers and workers to establish a Universal Labour Guarantee and to promote collective representation and social dialogue (ILO, 2019).

The effectiveness of various policy interventions aimed at eradicating forced labour and ending slavery, human trafficking and child labour (target 8.7) has begun to be understood better in recent years, as data of higher quality have been obtained by new studies (e.g. de Hoop and Rosati, 2013; ILO, 2017d; 2018k), including case studies of countries that have been successful in this area, for example Uzbekistan, where the systematic use of child labour in the cotton harvest has been largely eliminated (ILO, 2018k). Alliance 8.7, a global partnership of international organizations and United Nations specialized agencies (including the ILO) and other stakeholders that was launched in 2016, serves as a valuable coordinating hub for efforts to measure, monitor and support interventions to end forced labour, modern slavery, human trafficking and child labour.

The indicator for target 8.7 focuses on child labour, which is a subcategory of employment targeted for eradication under the SDGs.⁵ The data on child labour are now much more comprehensive and up to date. The most recent estimates for 2016 draw on data from 105 surveys, including one carried out in China for the first time, and cover almost three in four children worldwide (ILO, 2017d⁶). According to these estimates, there were 152 million children aged 5–17 years in employment in 2016 (including 114 million children aged 5–14), 73 million of whom were working in hazardous conditions. Worldwide, this translates into an incidence of child labour of almost one in ten children – a truly alarming statistic. The prevalence of child labour is highest in sub-Saharan African countries, where one in five children were working in 2016, with almost one in ten engaged in hazardous work. Other regions where child labour is a major problem are Asia and the Pacific (one in 13 children engaged in child labour) and the Americas (one in 19 children). Although the overall incidence in Europe and Central Asia is relatively low, standing at 4.1 per cent, it is striking that almost all of the child labourers in this region were employed in hazardous work (5.3 million out of 5.5 million child labourers). Great strides have been made in the reduction of child labour worldwide, with the overall number of child labourers decreasing by approximately 94 million between 2000 and 2016 (*ibid.*). However, progress has slowed in recent years ([figure 3.9](#)), paradoxically at the same time that the international community has pledged to end child labour. Moreover, even at the rate of progress observed between 2008 and 2012 – the fastest on record – there would still be more than 100 million child labourers in 2025, the year by which child labour is meant to have been eradicated in accordance with SDG target 8.7. A far greater degree of political commitment is therefore required in all regions of the world to build on the expertise of multiple stakeholders and succeed in ending child labour once and for all.

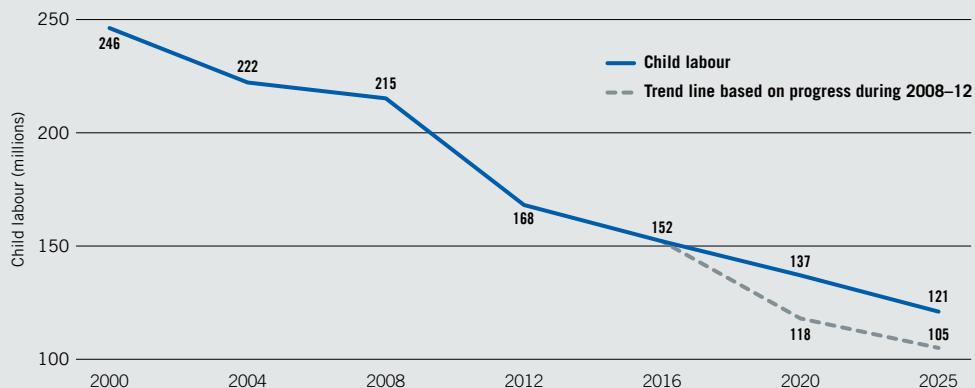
The protection of labour rights and the promotion of safe and secure working environments, both of which are envisaged by target 8.8, are also central to countries' decent work programmes under the ILO's mandate. Labour rights represent a fundamental platform upon which countries can build to promote and preserve social justice. The bulk of empirical evidence that is available today points to a strong link between such rights and advances in the areas of economic growth, sustainable development and equality. Under the appropriate set of enabling conditions, labour rights and social dialogue can foster inclusive and sustainable growth (for a review, see Grimshaw, Koukiadaki and Tavora, 2017). Drawing on the abovementioned evidence, the report of the Global Commission on the Future of Work argues that a combination of fundamental rights (including the rights to freedom of association and collective bargaining) and guaranteed basic working conditions (including safe and healthy workplaces) provides a starting point from which to build inclusive labour market institutions. These institutions

5. A detailed definition of child labour is provided in ILO, 2018i. The methodology presented there classifies child labour into three categories: (a) children aged 5–11 who work at least one hour per week; (b) children aged 12–14 who work at least 14 hours per week (excluding permissible light work); and (c) persons aged 15–17 who work in hazardous industries or occupations, or for long hours (defined as 43 or more hours during the reference week). This methodology therefore creates a subcategory of child labour (10 per cent of all children) within the wider category of child employment (14 per cent of all children).

6. The report in question (ILO, 2017d) and the data presented in it are part of an inter-agency programme under Alliance 8.7 to measure and monitor progress towards SDG target 8.7.

Figure 3.9

Number of children involved in child labour, 5–17 years age range, actual and projected trend lines, 2000–25



Source: ILO, 2017d, figure 4.

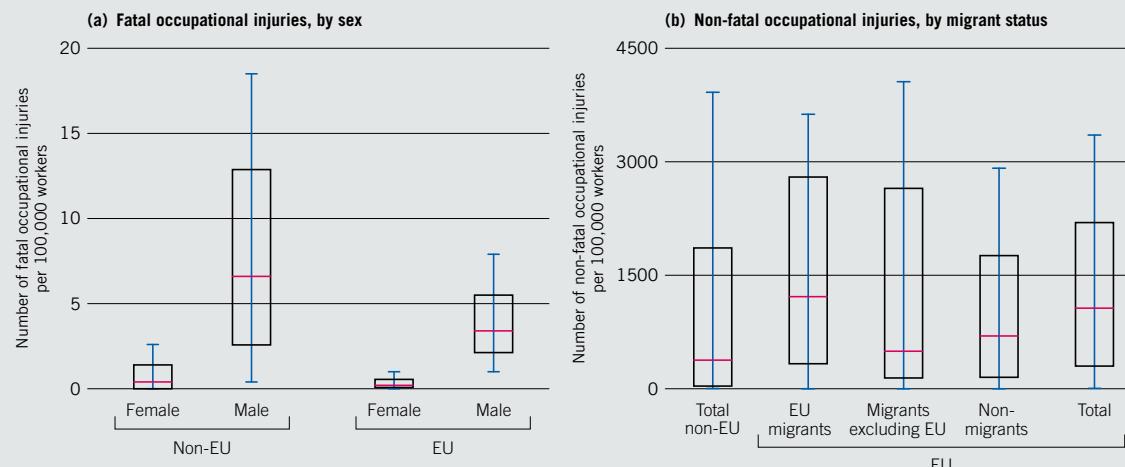
can, in turn, promote the formalization of employment, support efforts to combat poverty, reinforce the standard employment relationship and, in the long run, contribute to sustainable economic growth (ILO, 2019).

Since the adoption of the Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87), and the Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98), more than 70 years ago, a growing number of ILO member States have ratified these two instruments: at the time of writing they had, respectively, secured 155 and 166 ratifications. It is also important to assess the coverage of workers in both the formal and informal economy and the ability of member States to achieve compliance. Such an assessment is beyond the scope of this short chapter, but the subject certainly deserves further attention. For this task it would be possible to build on many valuable recently issued country studies, and also on studies dealing with the role of fundamental rights in trade agreements, global supply chain contracts and international framework agreements (see e.g. Berliner et al., 2015; Marx et al., 2015; Vadlamannati, 2015).

Monitoring the safety of the world's workplaces involves measuring the frequency rates of fatal and non-fatal occupational injuries (indicator 8.8.1, described in [box 3.1](#)). Overall, the median rate of fatal occupational injuries was 5.7 per 100,000 workers in the reference year (based on the available data for 77 countries since 2010). Disaggregation by sex shows that the risk is far greater for men than for women, which reflects how men are more likely to be working in hazardous industries ([figure 3.10](#), panel (a)). Some countries outside the European Union have a rate of fatal occupational injuries among male workers that exceeds 10 per 100,000 workers. The median rate of non-fatal occupational injuries is 1,128 per 100,000 workers. There is a disparity between workers with migrant and non-migrant status – a key concern of indicator 8.8.1 and an important focus of the ILO's efforts to address decent work deficits (see ILO, 2017e). Because of data limitations, the rate of non-fatal occupational injuries by migrant status in [figure 3.10](#), panel (b), is presented only for EU countries. Among these, the median risk of incurring such injuries is highest for EU migrants and lowest for non-EU migrants, although the highest risks are reported for non-EU migrants in some countries. Outside the European Union, the median rate is lower than in EU countries. Further empirical analysis, together with expanded country coverage of the data, is necessary to obtain a clearer and more comprehensive picture of the situation.

Figure 3.10

Rates of fatal and non-fatal occupational injuries, European Union and rest of the world, latest available year (since 2010)



Note: For the purposes of this figure, the European Union group includes Norway and Switzerland, even though they are not EU Member States. Number of observations – panel (a): 31 (non-EU), 30 (EU); panel (b): 46 (non-EU), 30 (EU). Each box-and-whisker plot shows the median value and two ranges of values, which contain, respectively, 50 per cent and 90 per cent of the country observations. The lowest and highest “whiskers” therefore represent the 5th and 95th percentiles, which encompass the central 90 per cent of data points.

Source: ILOSTAT database [accessed January 2019].

Summary of progress on Sustainable Development Goal 8 and next steps

In this chapter we have examined regional and country trends and patterns in a preliminary attempt to assess the international community’s progress towards achieving SDG 8, which seeks to “[p]romote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all”. We have also suggested possible factors to explain why there has been little progress or why some countries are falling behind.

Measured against the 12 interconnected targets of SDG 8, the progress made in recent years has been slower than anticipated. Indeed, at the current rate of improvement, SDG 8 is unlikely to be achieved by 2030. There continue to be major gaps, both across and within countries. Moreover, given the current outlook, which foresees global growth slowing down over the next few years (see Chapter 1), there is a risk that it will take even longer than originally expected to close these gaps. The magnitude of the challenges that still need to be tackled becomes apparent if one considers the ambitious targets under SDG 8 with regard to promoting decent work and advancing on a path of economic growth that is sustainable and inclusive, so that all workers can benefit. In this chapter we have highlighted major challenges in several key areas, particularly those relating to informal employment, unsustainable consumption, limited access to financial services, risk of unemployment, discrimination against people with disabilities, the exclusion of young people from the labour market, the “wage penalty” suffered by women, and child labour. Unless there is greater progress on all these fronts, the global community will not be able to embark on a path of inclusive and sustainable economic growth that is shared by all countries and workers in the spirit of SDG 8.

If we look solely at the economic indicators of growth and productivity, it is clear that the lower-middle- and upper-middle-income countries show the greatest promise to meet the targets set out in SDG 8. However, the slowdown that has set in since the global financial crisis has revealed unresolved problems, which may even be amplified in the future by adverse changes to trade agreements. The evolution of these problems also depends to a large extent on the economic fortunes of China because of that country's global weight. Although China and several other major emerging economies have enjoyed relatively strong economic growth and succeeded in lifting large parts of their populations out of poverty, other countries are still lagging behind and have failed to catch up with the global average, let alone with the growth and productivity parameters of more advanced economies. Yet, even in those countries where economic growth has been robust, decent work has continued to be accessible to only a small part of the workforce.

Indeed, global inequality – both within and between countries and regions – is a key issue, as highlighted by all the data presented above. The degree of effort required to achieve SDG 8 is spread unequally across the world's regions and is indeed very high in many countries. It is not merely a question of failing to address inequality but, rather, that worsening rates of inequality are themselves an obstacle to achieving sustainable growth and decent work. Progress towards SDG 8 must therefore be examined, in a more comprehensive future analysis, alongside progress on other related targets, especially those associated with SDG 5 and SDG 10. Member States of the United Nations need to step up their commitment to the 2030 Agenda if the SDG targets are to be met. A higher level of international solidarity – involving reinvigorated action at the national level, as well as renewed commitment to the multilateral system – is required to devise and finance innovative ways of tackling the problems discussed above.

A clearer understanding of the remaining challenges on the basis of further empirical analysis is necessary to provide all stakeholders with urgent guidance on how to achieve SDG 8. The following aspects, in particular, need to be examined more closely: economic diversity and complexity as a driver of productive employment and enterprises, decent work and innovation (in view of the risks of overspecialization and country fragility); the interrelated roles of government and institutions in shaping trends in productivity, financial capacity and equality; the failure to regulate international capital flows more effectively in the aftermath of the financial crisis;⁷ and how weak political governance prevents compliance with labour market rules, thereby undermining the enhancement of human capital for sustainable development.

7. This regulatory failure arguably created a challenging financial environment for many emerging and developing countries. The high volatility of international capital flows, driven partly by policy decisions in advanced economies, led to large exchange rate fluctuations (as observed recently in Turkey and Argentina, and also earlier in Brazil) that damaged the growth potential of recipient countries.

Appendix A. Country groupings by region and income level

Africa	Americas	Asia and the Pacific	Europe and Central Asia
Northern Africa	Latin America and the Caribbean	Eastern Asia	Northern, Southern and Western Europe
Algeria	Antigua and Barbuda	China	Albania
Egypt	Argentina	Hong Kong, China	Andorra
Libya	Bahamas	Japan	Austria
Morocco	Barbados	Korea, Democratic People's Republic of	Belgium
Sudan	Belize	Korea, Republic of	Bosnia and Herzegovina
Tunisia	Bolivia, Plurinational State of	Macau, China	Channel Islands
Western Sahara	Brazil	Mongolia	Croatia
Sub-Saharan Africa	Chile	Taiwan, China	Denmark
Angola	Colombia	South-Eastern Asia and the Pacific	Estonia
Benin	Costa Rica	Australia	Finland
Botswana	Cuba	Brunei Darussalam	France
Burkina Faso	Dominican Republic	Cambodia	Germany
Burundi	Ecuador	Fiji	Greece
Cameroon	El Salvador	French Polynesia	Iceland
Cabo Verde	Grenada	Guam	Ireland
Central African Republic	Guatemala	Indonesia	Italy
Chad	Guyana	Kiribati	Latvia
Comoros	Haiti	Lao People's Democratic Republic	Liechtenstein
Congo	Honduras	Malaysia	Lithuania
Congo, Democratic Republic of the	Jamaica	Marshall Islands	Luxembourg
Côte d'Ivoire	Mexico	Micronesia, Federated States of	Macedonia, the former Yugoslav Republic of
Djibouti	Nicaragua	Myanmar	Malta
Equatorial Guinea	Panama	Nauru	Monaco
Eritrea	Paraguay	New Caledonia	Montenegro
Eswatini	Peru	New Zealand	Netherlands
Ethiopia	Puerto Rico	Palau	Norway
Gabon	Saint Kitts and Nevis	Papua New Guinea	Portugal
The Gambia	Saint Lucia	Philippines	Serbia
Ghana	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	Samoa	Slovenia
Guinea	Suriname	Singapore	Spain
Guinea-Bissau	Trinidad and Tobago	Solomon Islands	Sweden
Kenya	United States Virgin Islands	Thailand	Switzerland
Lesotho	Uruguay	Timor-Leste	United Kingdom
Liberia	Venezuela, Bolivarian Republic of	Tonga	Eastern Europe
Madagascar		Tuvalu	Belarus
Malawi		Vanuatu	Bulgaria
Mali		Viet Nam	Czech Republic
Mauritania	Northern America	Southern Asia	Hungary
Mauritius	Canada	Afghanistan	Moldova, Republic of
Mozambique	United States	Bangladesh	Poland
Namibia		Bhutan	Romania
Niger	Arab States	India	Russian Federation
Nigeria	Bahrain	Iran, Islamic Republic of	Slovakia
Rwanda	Iraq	Maldives	Ukraine
Sao Tome and Principe	Jordan	Nepal	Central and Western Asia
Senegal	Kuwait	Pakistan	Armenia
Seychelles	Lebanon	Sri Lanka	Azerbaijan
Sierra Leone	Occupied Palestinian Territory		Cyprus
Somalia	Oman		Georgia
South Africa	Qatar		Israel
South Sudan	Saudi Arabia		Kazakhstan
Tanzania, United Republic of	Syrian Arab Republic		Kyrgyzstan
Togo	United Arab Emirates		Tajikistan
Uganda			Turkey
Zambia			Turkmenistan
Zimbabwe	Yemen		Uzbekistan

High-income countries	Upper-middle-income countries	Lower-middle-income countries	Low-income countries
Andorra	Albania	Angola	Afghanistan
Antigua and Barbuda	Algeria	Bangladesh	Benin
Argentina	Armenia	Bhutan	Burkina Faso
Australia	Azerbaijan	Bolivia, Plurinational State of	Burundi
Austria	Belarus	Cameroon	Cambodia
Bahamas	Belize	Cabo Verde	Central African Republic
Bahrain	Bosnia and Herzegovina	Congo	Chad
Barbados	Botswana	Côte d'Ivoire	Comoros
Belgium	Brazil	Djibouti	Congo, Democratic Republic of the
Brunei Darussalam	Bulgaria	Egypt	Eritrea
Canada	China	El Salvador	Ethiopia
Channel Islands	Colombia	Eswatini	The Gambia
Chile	Costa Rica	Georgia	Guinea
Croatia	Cuba	Ghana	Guinea-Bissau
Cyprus	Dominican Republic	Guyana	Haiti
Czech Republic	Ecuador	Honduras	Korea, Democratic People's Republic of
Denmark	Fiji	India	Liberia
Equatorial Guinea	Gabon	Indonesia	Madagascar
Estonia	Grenada	Kenya	Malawi
Finland	Guatemala	Kiribati	Mali
France	Iran, Islamic Republic of	Kyrgyzstan	Mozambique
French Polynesia	Iraq	Lao People's Democratic Republic	Nepal
Germany	Jamaica	Lesotho	Niger
Greece	Jordan	Mauritania	Rwanda
Guam	Kazakhstan	Micronesia, Federated States of	Sierra Leone
Hong Kong, China	Lebanon	Moldova, Republic of	Somalia
Hungary	Libya	Morocco	South Sudan
Iceland	Macedonia, the former Yugoslav Republic of	Myanmar	Syrian Arab Republic
Ireland	Malaysia	Nauru	Tajikistan
Israel	Maldives	Nicaragua	Tanzania, United Republic of
Italy	Marshall Islands	Nigeria	Togo
Japan	Mauritius	Occupied Palestinian Territory	Uganda
Korea, Republic of	Mexico	Pakistan	Yemen
Kuwait	Mongolia	Papua New Guinea	Zimbabwe
Latvia	Montenegro	Philippines	
Liechtenstein	Namibia	Samoa	
Lithuania	Palau	Sao Tome and Principe	
Luxembourg	Paraguay	Senegal	
Macau, China	Peru	Solomon Islands	
Malta	Romania	Sri Lanka	
Monaco	Saint Lucia	Sudan	
Netherlands	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	Timor-Leste	
New Caledonia	Serbia	Ukraine	
New Zealand	South Africa	Uzbekistan	
Norway	Suriname	Vanuatu	
Oman	Thailand	Viet Nam	
Panama	Tonga	Western Sahara	
Poland	Tunisia	Zambia	
Portugal	Turkey		
Puerto Rico	Turkmenistan		
Qatar	Tuvalu		
Russian Federation	Venezuela, Bolivarian Republic of		
Saint Kitts and Nevis			
Saudi Arabia			
Seychelles			
Singapore			
Slovakia			
Slovenia			
Spain			
Sweden			
Switzerland			
Taiwan, China			
Trinidad and Tobago			
United Arab Emirates			
United Kingdom			
United States			
United States Virgin Islands			
Uruguay			

Appendix B. ILO modelled estimates

The source of all global and regional labour market estimates presented in this *World Employment and Social Outlook* report are the ILO modelled estimates, November 2018. The ILO has designed and actively maintains a series of econometric models, which are used to produce estimates of labour market indicators in the countries and years for which country-reported data are unavailable. These allow the ILO to produce and analyse global and regional estimates of key labour market indicators and related trends.

Data collection and evaluation

The ILO modelled estimates are generally derived for 189 countries, disaggregated by sex and age as appropriate. Before running the models to obtain the estimates, labour market information specialists from the ILO Department of Statistics, in cooperation with the Research Department, evaluate existing country-reported data and select only those observations deemed sufficiently comparable across countries, using the following four criteria: (a) type of data source; (b) geographic coverage; (c) age group coverage; and (d) presence of methodological breaks or outliers.

With regard to the first criterion, in order for data to be included in a particular model, they must be derived from a labour force survey, a household survey or, more rarely, a population census. National labour force surveys are generally similar across countries and present the highest data quality. Hence, the data derived from such surveys are more readily comparable than data obtained from other sources. Strict preference is therefore given to labour force survey-based data in the selection process. However, many developing countries, which lack the resources to carry out a labour force survey, do report labour market information on the basis of household surveys or population censuses. Consequently, because of the need to balance the competing goals of data comparability and data coverage, some household survey data or, more rarely, population census-based data are included in the models.

The second criterion is that only nationally representative (i.e. not too geographically limited) labour market indicators are included. Observations corresponding to only urban or only rural areas are not included, because large differences typically exist between rural and urban labour markets, and using only rural or urban data would not be consistent with benchmark data such as gross domestic product (GDP).

The third criterion is that the age groups covered by the observed data must be sufficiently comparable across countries. Countries report labour market information for a variety of age groups, and the age group selected can influence the observed value of a given labour market indicator.

The last criterion for excluding data from a given model is whether a methodological break is present or if a particular datapoint is clearly an outlier. In both cases, a balance has to be struck between using as much data as possible and including observations likely to distort the results. During this process particular attention is paid to the existing metadata and the underlying methodology.

Historical estimates can be revised in cases where previously used input data are discarded because a source that is more accurate according to the above-mentioned criteria has become available. **Box B1** below outlines the changes that have been made to unemployment estimates as a result of revisions of historical input data undertaken for the November 2018 version of the ILO modelled estimates.

Box B1

Revisions to unemployment estimates

As with the ILO modelled estimates issued in earlier years, global unemployment levels and rates have been updated to take into account new information on these rates, and also revisions to historical data and to projections of labour force growth and economic growth.

Two main factors lie behind the differences between the ILO modelled estimates of November 2018 and the historical estimates of unemployment issued by the ILO in November 2017: (1) revisions to historical unemployment rates; and (2) the use of a new modelling approach for China based on the newly released data from the labour force survey conducted there.

The revisions carried out in six countries account for almost 90 per cent of the decline in the estimated global unemployment

level. These countries, ordered by the magnitude of the revision to their national unemployment levels, are: India, Mozambique, China, Ethiopia, Afghanistan and Nigeria.

The largest contribution to the revision of the unemployment headcount comes from revisions to historical data, which have undergone a number of changes as a result of the international definition of unemployment being applied consistently across countries. In order to ensure that the data are internationally comparable, the ILO has undertaken significant efforts to gather and analyse microdata from labour force surveys so as to facilitate reliable measurement of unemployment rates, in particular by strictly applying the definition of unemployment established by the International Conference of Labour Statisticians.

Methodology used to estimate labour market indicators

Labour market indicators are estimated using a series of models, which establish statistical relationships between observed labour market indicators and explanatory variables. These relationships are used to estimate missing observations, as well as to make projections of the labour market indicators.

There are many potential statistical relationships, also called “model specifications”, that could be used to predict labour market indicators. The key to obtaining precise and unbiased estimates is to select the best model specification in each case. The ILO modelled estimates rely in general on a procedure called cross-validation, which is used to identify those models that minimize the expected error and variance of the estimation. This procedure involves repeatedly computing a number of candidate model specifications using random subsets of the data: the missing observations are predicted and the prediction error is calculated for each iteration. Each candidate model is assessed on the basis of the pseudo-out-of-sample root mean squared error, although other metrics such as result stability are also assessed depending on the model. This makes it possible to identify the statistical relationship that provides the best estimate of a given labour market indicator; it is worth noting that the most appropriate statistical relationship for this purpose could differ depending on the country.

The basis for the ILO modelled estimates is the United Nations World Population Prospects, 2017 Revision (UN WPP), which provides estimates and projections of the total population by five-year age groups. The working-age population comprises everyone who is at least 15 years of age. First, a model estimates and projects the labour force participation rates by sex and five-year age groups. These estimated and projected rates are applied to the estimates for the working-age population in order to obtain the labour force. Second, a model estimates the unemployment rate by sex and for young people (15–24) and adults (25+). Combining the unemployment rate with the labour force estimates, the number of employed and unemployed is obtained. Third, a model estimates the labour underutilization rate (“LU3 rate” – see below), from which the potential labour force can be derived. Lastly, the distribution of employment by four different indicators is estimated using four different models. These indicators are employment status, economic activity (sector), occupation, and economic class (working poverty).

Although the same basic approach is used for the models of all indicators, there are nevertheless differences between the various models because of specific features of the underlying data. Further details are provided below for each model.

Labour force estimates and projections

The ILO labour force estimates and projections are part of a broader international effort on demographic estimates and projections to which several United Nations agencies contribute. Estimates and projections of the total population, and of its sex and age composition, are produced by the United Nations Population Division; of the employed, unemployed and related populations by the ILO; of the agricultural population by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations; and of the school-attending population by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

The basic data used as input for the relevant model are single-year labour force participation rates by sex and age groups, of which ten groups are defined using five-year age intervals (15–19, 20–24, ..., 60–64) and the last age group is defined as 65 years and above. The underlying methodology has been extensively assessed in terms of pseudo-out-of-sample performance; this is, however, the only model described in this appendix that does not automatically carry out model searching.

The estimation process is performed in two different steps, each of which is applied recursively. Linear interpolation is used to fill in the missing data for countries for which such a procedure is possible. The performance of this procedure has been found to be fairly good, which is not surprising, given that the labour force participation rate is a very persistent variable. In all other cases, weighted multivariate estimation is carried out. Countries are divided into nine estimation groups, which were chosen on the combined basis of broad economic similarity and geographic proximity. In terms of model specification, taking into account the database structure and the existence of unobserved heterogeneity among the various countries in the input database used (the ILO Labour Force Estimates and Projections (LFEPE)), it was decided to use panel data techniques with country-fixed effects. The regressions are weighted by the non-response likelihood. The explanatory variables used include economic and demographic variables. The estimates are produced using the detailed five-year age intervals. The global figures are calculated using the benchmark population from the UN WPP and the detailed rates.

The projections (i.e. the model's output for 2018 and beyond) are carried out following a different methodology from that used for the imputation of missing values (1990–2017). A logistic trend model is used to extrapolate the data. The main advantage of the logistic curve and other sigmoid or S-shaped curves is that they can capture growth processes that ultimately reach a steady state. These curves are frequently used to model populations and labour force participation rates. Furthermore, on the basis of the variable's past behaviour, upper and lower bounds on cumulative change are imposed to avoid extrapolating changes that would be excessive judging by historical experience.

Unemployment estimates

This model estimates a complete panel data set of unemployment rates spanning the 1991–2017 period. Real observations are more likely to exist for the total unemployment rate than for the rate disaggregated by sex and age. In order to maximize the use of real information, the model first estimates the total rate. Next, the rates for male and female employment, and for youth and adult employment, are estimated separately. These estimates are then rebalanced so that the implied total rate matches the total rate estimated in the first step. A similar procedure is then used in the final step for the unemployment rates among male and female young people, and among male and female adults.

The estimation of each indicator is performed in a two-step process. In the first step, a cross-country regression is carried out to identify the level of the unemployment rate in countries with completely missing data. This step uses information on demography, per capita income, economic structure and an employment index from the Gallup World Poll. In the second step, the evolution of the unemployment rate is estimated, using information on the economic cycle and also on economic structure and demographics. The two-step process has the advantage of treating two very different econometric problems using separate approaches.

Unemployment projections

These models project the future development of unemployment rates from 2018 onwards. A slightly modified cross-validation procedure is used to identify the best-fitting projection models. For forecasting, a specified number of periods are dropped from the end of the sample, and projections are

then made for these periods using the candidate model in order to calculate the forecast error for different forecast horizons. By shifting the point as of which periods are dropped, the forecast can be evaluated for different historical periods, and hence a root-mean-squared forecast error can be calculated for each candidate model.

In a first set of projection models, quarterly data are used. The use of such timelier information increases the forecast accuracy. For 39 countries with available quarterly economic forecasts, a series of models are run to obtain estimates for 2018 and projections for 2019 and 2020. Some of these models use quarterly labour flows for forecasting, which are estimated from data on unemployment by duration following the methodologies proposed by Shimer (2012) and Elsby, Hobijn and Şahin (2013). The models specified either project the unemployment rate directly or determine both inflow and outflow rates, using ARIMA, VARX and combined forecast techniques. For the remaining countries with available quarterly labour market information, the rate for 2018 is estimated using an ARIMA model.

A second set of projection models is used to estimate the unemployment rate for 2018 for countries without quarterly data, and to make projections over longer horizons for all countries. These models use the full panel data set of unemployment rates up to 2017 as the base; they also make use of projections of the cyclical component of GDP growth. A series of dynamic models are specified and evaluated using the cross-validation techniques described above. The models in question are as follows:

- country-level error correction models for countries that exhibit a cointegrated relationship between employment growth and labour force growth;
- country-level model projecting the unemployment rate itself;
- country-level model projecting the change in the unemployment rate;
- panel regression model projecting the unemployment rate, where the panel dimensions are (a) geographic regions; (b) income groups; (c) oil exporters;
- multi-level mixed model with random intercepts and coefficients projecting the unemployment rate;
- multi-level mixed model with random intercepts and coefficients projecting the change in the unemployment rate.

Models are weighted on the basis of their forecasting performance over different horizons. This means that a model may receive a higher weighting in the short run, but a lower weighting in the long run. The forecast confidence interval is estimated using the weighted root-mean-squared forecast errors from the cross-validation, together with the weighted variance of forecasts obtained from the various forecasting models.

Estimates of labour underutilization (LU3 rate)

The target variable of the model is a composite measure of labour underutilization (LU3), which is defined as:

$$LU3 = \frac{\text{Unemployed} + \text{Potential Labour Force}}{\text{Labour Force} + \text{Potential Labour Force}}$$

The potential labour force is made up of people of working age who were actively seeking employment, were not available to have started work in the reference week, but would become available within a short subsequent period (unavailable jobseekers), or who are not actively seeking work but were available in the reference week (available potential jobseekers).

The model uses the principles of cross-validation and uncertainty estimation to select the regression models with the best pseudo-out-of-sample performance, not unlike the unemployment rate model. The LU3 model, however, has two very specific features. First, all demographic groups are jointly estimated using the appropriate categorical variable because the groups are interdependent (and data availability is roughly uniform across breakdown). Second, the model incorporates the information on unemployment and labour force into the regressions (used alongside other variables to reflect economic and demographic factors).

The resulting estimates include the LU3 rate (as a percentage) and the level of the potential labour force.

Estimates of employment by status, occupation and economic activity

The distribution of employment by status, occupation and economic activity (sector) is estimated for the total and also disaggregated by sex. In the first step, a cross-country regression is performed to identify the share of each of the employment-related categories in countries with completely missing data. This step uses information on demography, per capita income, economic structure and a model-specific indicator with high predictive power for the estimated distribution. The indicators for each category are as follows:

- For status, an index of work for an employer from the Gallup World Poll;
- For occupation, the share of value added of a sector in which persons with a given occupation are most likely to work;
- For sector, the share of value added of the sector.

The next step estimates the evolution of the shares of each category, using information on the economic cycle and also on economic structure and demographics. Lastly, the estimates are rebalanced to ensure that the individual shares add up to 100 per cent.

The estimated sectors are based on an ILO-specific classification that ensures maximum consistency between the third and fourth revision of the United Nations International Standard Industrial Classification of All Economic Activities (ISIC). The sectors A, B, C, F, G, I, K, O, P and Q correspond to the ISIC Rev.4 classification. Furthermore, the following composite sectors are defined:

- “Utilities” is composed of sectors D and E;
- “Transport, storage and communication” is composed of sectors H and J;
- “Real estate, business and administrative activities” is composed of sectors L, M and N;
- “Other services” is composed of sectors R, S, T and U.

The estimated occupations correspond in principle to the major categories of the 1988 and 2008 iterations of the ILO International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO-88 and ISCO-08). However, subsistence farming occupations were classified inconsistently across countries, and sometimes even within one country across years. According to ISCO-08, subsistence farmers should be classified in ISCO category 6, namely as skilled agricultural workers. A number of countries with a high incidence of subsistence farming, however, reported a low share of category 6, but a high share of category 9 (elementary occupations). This means that the shares of occupational categories 6 and 9 can differ widely between countries that have a very similar economic structure. It is not feasible to determine the extent of misclassification between categories 6 and 9. Consequently, in order to obtain a consistent and internationally comparable classification, categories 6 and 9 are merged and estimated jointly.

Estimates of employment by economic class

The estimates of employment by economic class are produced for a subset of countries for which the other models have estimates. The model uses the data derived from the unemployment, status and economic activity models as inputs in addition to other demographic, social and economic variables.

The methodology involves two steps. In the first step, the various economic classes of workers are estimated using the economic class of the overall population (amongst other explanatory variables). This procedure is based on the fact that the distribution of economic class in the overall population and the distribution in the working population are closely related. The economic class of the overall population is derived from the World Bank’s PovcalNet database. In general, the economic class is defined in terms of consumption, but in particular cases for which no other data exist, income data are used instead.

Once the estimates from this first step have been obtained, a second step estimates the data for those observations for which no data on the economic class of the working population nor estimates from step 1 are available. This second step relies on cross-validation and subsequent model selection to ensure a satisfactory performance.

In the present edition of *World Employment and Social Outlook: Trends*, employment is subdivided into five different economic classes: workers living on US\$0–1.9 per day, US\$1.9–3.2 per day, US\$3.2–5.5 per day, US\$5.5–13.0 per day, and above US\$13.0 per day, in PPP terms.

Social unrest index

The social unrest index is an indicator that provides a reflection of social health at the national level. The index uses data from the Global Database of Events, Language, and Tone (GDELT) project on events around the world classified as “protests” (code 14 in the database). Many different types of protest behaviours are recorded, such as street protest, riots, rallies, boycotts, road blockages and strikes. Such protests are not necessarily violent, but always reflect a certain discontent with the social, political or economic situation in the country in question.

The index ranges from zero to 100 and is computed from a log-transformation of the share of protest events in the total number of events in a year and country, as reported by the GDELT project. An index of 100 corresponds to protest events having a share of 15 per cent or more in total events.

Social unrest is a relative concept across countries. An equal value of the social unrest index in two countries does not imply identical conditions of social unrest in these countries because of the inherent differences in countries’ culture, history and methods of reporting. The social unrest index allows a cross-country comparison which identifies those countries or regions that are experiencing periods of heightened unrest. However, it is conceptually incorrect to state that one country experiences, say, 10 per cent more unrest than another.

Appendix C. The relationship between the social unrest index and the unemployment rate

The social unrest index as calculated by the ILO (see [Appendix B](#)) measures openly expressed discontent with the labour market, economic or political situation. The idea of relating this index to labour market indicators therefore presents itself naturally. This appendix describes the methodology used to establish the relationship between the social unrest index and the unemployment rate.

First of all, it is important to bear in mind that, as pointed out on several occasions in this report, the unemployment rate in low-income countries is not a very meaningful indicator of the state of the labour market. Accordingly, our analysis has been conducted only for upper-middle- and high-income countries. Moreover, the social unrest index does not lend itself to cross-country comparisons of its level; rather, it needs to be assessed in terms of changes over time. In our analysis we have decided to relate changes in the unemployment rate to changes in the social unrest index.

Given that all the variables used in our analysis are first-differenced, they have a roughly zero mean for all countries. This means that for the econometric specification a pooled regression can be used. The dependent variable is the change in the social unrest index; the explanatory variable is the change in the unemployment rate, together with one lagged value of this change. Additional lags proved to be insignificant. Furthermore, one lag of the dependent variable is included in the regression specification.

The estimated coefficients are shown in [table C1](#) below. The second column shows that a 1 percentage point change in the unemployment rate is related to change in the social unrest index by 0.54 points. The first column shows that the social unrest index has a strong element of reversion. The R-squared for this specification is 0.18, but the contribution of the change in the unemployment rate to explaining the total variation is minimal (less than 1 per cent). This is to be expected because, first, the unemployment rate is only one possible measure of social justice and a not very comprehensive one at that; and, second, the social unrest index is also influenced by events that are unrelated to social justice. Nevertheless, this analysis shows that the labour market matters for social peace.

Table C1

Estimated regression coefficients

ΔSUI lagged	ΔUR	ΔUR lagged
-0.41*** (0.02)	+0.54*** (0.17)	-0.34 (0.17)

2,808 observations, 108 countries; R-squared = 0.18

Note: SUI = social unrest index; UR = unemployment rate;
*** indicates statistical significance at the 1 per cent level.

Appendix D. Tables of labour market indicators worldwide, by country income group and by region/subregion

WORLD

Indicator	By sex	Units	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	64.7	64.4	64.2	64.0	63.8	63.7	63.5	63.3	63.0	62.7	62.4	62.1
	Male	per cent	78.5	78.2	77.9	77.6	77.5	77.3	77.0	76.8	76.6	76.3	76.0	75.9
	Female	per cent	50.9	50.7	50.5	50.4	50.3	50.3	49.9	49.8	49.4	49.2	48.8	48.5
Labour force	Total	millions	2776.7	2815.5	2858.9	2903.4	2952.7	3000.9	3037.2	3077.4	3113.8	3147.5	3177.0	3210.0
	Male	millions	1680.1	1704.0	1730.4	1756.7	1787.1	1815.5	1839.9	1865.5	1890.9	1912.6	1934.3	1957.7
	Female	millions	1096.5	1111.5	1128.5	1146.7	1165.6	1185.4	1197.3	1211.9	1222.9	1234.9	1242.7	1252.3
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	61.1	60.8	60.4	60.2	60.2	60.2	60.1	60.1	59.9	59.2	59.0	58.8
	Male	per cent	74.4	74.0	73.5	73.2	73.3	73.2	73.2	73.3	73.0	72.2	72.1	72.0
	Female	per cent	47.9	47.7	47.4	47.2	47.2	47.2	47.1	47.0	46.8	46.2	45.9	45.7
Employment	Total	millions	2624.5	2659.1	2692.3	2731.3	2783.4	2832.5	2877.7	2925.1	2959.5	2970.9	3002.7	3038.1
	Male	millions	1592.1	1613.1	1633.4	1657.1	1690.5	1720.0	1749.6	1779.2	1802.0	1809.5	1833.3	1858.3
	Female	millions	1032.4	1046.0	1058.8	1074.2	1092.9	1112.5	1128.1	1146.0	1157.5	1161.4	1169.5	1179.8
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	5.5	5.6	5.8	5.9	5.7	5.6	5.3	4.9	5.0	5.6	5.5	5.4
	Male	per cent	5.2	5.3	5.6	5.7	5.4	5.3	4.9	4.6	4.7	5.4	5.2	5.1
	Female	per cent	5.8	5.9	6.2	6.3	6.2	6.2	5.8	5.4	5.3	6.0	5.9	5.8
Unemployment	Total	millions	152.1	156.5	166.6	172.0	169.4	168.4	159.5	152.3	154.3	176.6	174.3	171.9
	Male	millions	88.0	91.0	97.0	99.5	96.6	95.5	90.3	86.3	88.9	103.0	101.0	99.4
	Female	millions	64.1	65.5	69.7	72.5	72.7	72.9	69.2	66.0	65.4	73.5	73.3	72.5
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent						9.1	8.7	8.4	8.4	9.2	9.1	9.0
	Male	per cent						7.5	7.1	6.8	6.9	7.7	7.5	7.4
	Female	per cent						11.5	11.2	10.8	10.7	11.4	11.4	11.3
Potential labour force	Total	millions						115.2	116.3	117.2	117.1	122.7	125.6	127.4
	Male	millions						43.2	43.6	43.9	44.1	47.0	48.2	49.2
	Female	millions						71.9	72.7	73.3	73.0	75.7	77.5	78.2
Extreme working poverty rate	Total	per cent	32.9	31.4	29.4	27.5	25.2	23.1	21.9	20.6	20.1	18.7	17.5	15.3
Moderate working poverty rate	Total	per cent	26.8	26.5	26.1	25.8	25.3	24.9	24.1	23.3	22.8	22.2	21.4	20.8
Extreme working poverty	Total	millions	690.6	669.9	637.0	605.9	566.8	528.9	509.1	486.7	479.3	449.6	427.3	376.9
Moderate working poverty	Total	millions	562.2	565.4	564.4	567.5	569.2	569.1	559.5	550.5	544.3	535.5	522.5	513.1
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	45.7	46.0	46.3	46.4	46.8	47.3	47.9	48.4	48.9	48.9	49.3	49.9
Employers	Total	per cent	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	35.1	35.0	34.9	34.9	34.7	34.5	34.4	34.3	34.3	34.5	34.5	34.2
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	16.4	16.2	16.0	15.9	15.6	15.3	14.8	14.4	14.0	13.6	13.3	13.0
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	2.9	1.0	1.5	2.3	3.4	2.9	3.7	3.7	1.7	-0.8	4.2	2.9

Note: Working poverty rates refer to low- and middle-income countries only.

WORLD (cont'd)

Indicator	By sex	Units	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	62.0	61.9	61.8	61.7	61.6	61.6	61.4	61.2	61.0	60.8	60.6	60.3
	Male	per cent	75.8	75.6	75.5	75.3	75.1	75.0	74.9	74.7	74.5	74.3	74.1	73.9
	Female	per cent	48.3	48.2	48.1	48.1	48.1	48.2	47.9	47.7	47.5	47.3	47.0	46.8
Labour force	Total	millions	3247.3	3286.8	3324.0	3364.5	3402.3	3444.4	3477.8	3510.5	3542.7	3573.4	3603.8	3633.8
	Male	millions	1982.9	2006.7	2029.2	2053.1	2074.5	2098.3	2120.9	2143.0	2164.9	2185.5	2205.8	2225.9
	Female	millions	1264.4	1280.1	1294.8	1311.4	1327.9	1346.1	1357.0	1367.5	1377.8	1388.0	1398.0	1407.9
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	58.7	58.6	58.6	58.5	58.4	58.5	58.4	58.2	58.0	57.8	57.6	57.4
	Male	per cent	71.9	71.8	71.7	71.6	71.4	71.5	71.4	71.2	71.1	70.9	70.7	70.5
	Female	per cent	45.5	45.4	45.4	45.4	45.4	45.5	45.3	45.1	44.9	44.7	44.5	44.2
Employment	Total	millions	3073.1	3110.6	3151.2	3188.8	3224.7	3270.3	3305.3	3336.9	3368.4	3397.0	3425.7	3453.5
	Male	millions	1881.8	1904.3	1928.9	1951.7	1972.3	1998.6	2022.0	2043.8	2065.4	2084.8	2104.1	2123.1
	Female	millions	1191.3	1206.3	1222.3	1237.1	1252.4	1271.8	1283.3	1293.1	1303.0	1312.2	1321.6	1330.5
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	5.4	5.4	5.2	5.2	5.2	5.1	5.0	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.9	5.0
	Male	per cent	5.1	5.1	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.8	4.7	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.6
	Female	per cent	5.8	5.8	5.6	5.7	5.7	5.5	5.4	5.4	5.4	5.5	5.5	5.5
Unemployment	Total	millions	174.1	176.2	172.8	175.7	177.6	174.1	172.5	173.6	174.3	176.5	178.1	180.3
	Male	millions	101.1	102.4	100.3	101.4	102.2	99.7	98.8	99.2	99.5	100.7	101.7	102.9
	Female	millions	73.1	73.8	72.4	74.3	75.4	74.4	73.7	74.4	74.8	75.8	76.4	77.4
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent	9.0	9.0	8.8	8.9	8.9	8.7	8.6	8.6	8.6	8.7	8.7	8.8
	Male	per cent	7.4	7.5	7.3	7.3	7.3	7.2	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.2
	Female	per cent	11.3	11.3	11.1	11.2	11.2	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.1	11.1	11.2	11.3
Potential labour force	Total	millions	129.7	131.0	132.4	134.1	137.0	137.5	139.6	142.0	144.4	147.0	149.7	152.4
	Male	millions	50.4	51.1	51.9	52.3	54.1	54.4	55.2	56.1	57.2	58.4	59.5	60.8
	Female	millions	79.3	79.9	80.6	81.8	82.9	83.1	84.4	85.9	87.3	88.7	90.1	91.6
Extreme working poverty rate	Total	per cent	13.6	11.6	11.1	10.6	10.4	10.1	9.8	9.6	9.3	9.1	8.8	8.6
Moderate working poverty rate	Total	per cent	20.0	19.1	18.2	17.3	16.8	16.4	16.0	15.6	15.2	14.8	14.4	14.0
Extreme working poverty	Total	millions	340.7	295.0	284.9	274.7	271.7	268.9	264.8	260.6	256.4	252.2	248.1	244.0
Moderate working poverty	Total	millions	498.9	482.7	466.9	449.2	441.3	435.2	429.7	423.8	417.4	410.5	403.4	395.8
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	50.6	50.8	51.2	51.5	51.7	51.9	52.0	52.2	52.3	52.4	52.5	52.6
Employers	Total	per cent	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	33.9	34.0	33.9	34.0	34.0	34.1	34.1	34.2	34.3	34.3	34.4	34.5
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	12.7	12.3	12.0	11.6	11.4	11.1	10.9	10.7	10.5	10.3	10.1	9.9
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.1	2.0	2.2	2.8	2.7	2.5	2.6	2.5	2.5

LOW-INCOME COUNTRIES

Indicator	By sex	Units	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	73.8	73.7	73.7	73.7	73.6	73.5	73.2	72.9	72.6	72.3	72.0	71.8	
	Male	per cent	82.0	81.9	81.8	81.7	81.6	81.4	81.2	80.9	80.7	80.4	80.1	79.9	
	Female	per cent	65.9	65.9	65.9	66.0	66.0	65.9	65.6	65.2	64.8	64.5	64.2	64.0	
Labour force	Total	millions	190.1	195.4	201.0	206.9	213.0	219.2	224.8	230.5	236.5	242.6	249.0	255.3	
	Male	millions	103.4	106.3	109.3	112.5	115.8	119.2	122.4	125.6	128.9	132.3	135.9	139.4	
	Female	millions	86.7	89.1	91.7	94.4	97.2	100.0	102.5	104.9	107.6	110.3	113.1	115.9	
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	70.6	70.5	70.5	70.5	70.5	70.4	70.3	70.1	69.8	69.2	68.9	68.7	
	Male	per cent	78.4	78.3	78.2	78.1	78.1	78.1	78.0	77.9	77.5	77.1	76.8	76.6	
	Female	per cent	63.1	63.1	63.0	63.0	63.1	63.1	62.8	62.6	62.3	61.7	61.3	61.1	
Employment	Total	millions	182.0	186.9	192.2	197.9	203.9	210.0	215.7	221.5	227.3	232.4	238.3	244.5	
	Male	millions	98.9	101.6	104.5	107.6	110.9	114.3	117.5	120.8	123.9	126.9	130.3	133.7	
	Female	millions	83.1	85.3	87.7	90.2	93.0	95.7	98.2	100.7	103.4	105.5	108.0	110.8	
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	4.3	4.3	4.4	4.4	4.3	4.2	4.1	3.9	3.9	4.2	4.3	4.2	
	Male	per cent	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.3	4.2	4.1	4.0	3.8	3.9	4.1	4.1	4.1	
	Female	per cent	4.2	4.2	4.4	4.4	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.0	3.9	4.3	4.5	4.4	
Unemployment	Total	millions	8.2	8.4	8.8	9.0	9.1	9.2	9.1	9.0	9.2	10.2	10.7	10.8	
	Male	millions	4.5	4.7	4.8	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.8	4.8	5.0	5.4	5.6	5.7	
	Female	millions	3.6	3.8	4.0	4.2	4.2	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.2	4.8	5.1	5.1	
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent							8.7	8.6	8.5	8.5	8.8	9.0	8.9
	Male	per cent							7.0	6.9	6.8	6.8	7.1	7.2	7.1
	Female	per cent							10.7	10.6	10.4	10.4	10.9	11.1	11.0
Potential labour force	Total	millions							10.9	11.2	11.5	11.9	12.3	12.8	13.1
	Male	millions							3.7	3.8	4.0	4.1	4.3	4.4	4.6
	Female	millions							7.2	7.3	7.5	7.8	8.1	8.4	8.5
Extreme working poverty rate	Total	per cent	59.4	58.3	57.1	55.7	54.1	52.3	50.9	49.6	48.5	47.0	45.5	44.0	
Moderate working poverty rate	Total	per cent	22.3	22.8	23.3	23.8	24.5	25.3	25.7	26.2	26.6	27.0	27.4	28.0	
Extreme working poverty	Total	millions	106.6	107.5	108.3	108.8	108.8	108.2	108.3	108.3	108.6	107.7	106.7	105.9	
Moderate working poverty	Total	millions	40.0	42.0	44.2	46.5	49.3	52.3	54.7	57.1	59.6	61.7	64.3	67.5	
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	15.8	15.9	15.9	16.0	16.0	16.1	16.4	16.5	16.9	17.2	17.5	17.8	
Employers	Total	per cent	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.5	
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	50.5	50.4	50.3	50.2	50.1	50.0	50.0	50.2	50.2	50.5	50.5	50.4	
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	32.2	32.3	32.4	32.3	32.4	32.4	32.1	31.8	31.4	31.0	30.6	30.3	
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	-0.2	1.5	1.6	-0.1	2.5	3.0	2.1	3.3	2.3	3.0	3.7	0.6	

LOW-INCOME COUNTRIES (cont'd)

Indicator	By sex	Units	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	71.5	71.4	71.3	71.3	71.3	71.3	71.3	71.3	71.2	71.2	71.1	71.0
	Male	per cent	79.6	79.4	79.2	79.0	78.9	78.8	78.7	78.7	78.6	78.6	78.6	78.5
	Female	per cent	63.8	63.7	63.7	63.8	63.9	64.1	64.1	64.0	64.0	63.9	63.9	63.8
Labour force	Total	millions	261.9	269.1	276.5	284.7	293.5	302.4	311.7	321.2	331.1	341.2	351.6	362.3
	Male	millions	143.0	146.9	150.9	155.1	159.7	164.3	169.4	174.6	180.0	185.6	191.4	197.4
	Female	millions	118.9	122.2	125.7	129.6	133.8	138.1	142.3	146.6	151.1	155.6	160.2	164.9
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	68.6	68.5	68.5	68.5	68.6	68.7	68.7	68.6	68.6	68.5	68.5	68.4
	Male	per cent	76.5	76.3	76.2	76.0	75.9	75.9	75.9	75.8	75.8	75.7	75.7	75.6
	Female	per cent	61.0	61.0	61.2	61.2	61.4	61.7	61.7	61.6	61.6	61.5	61.4	61.4
Employment	Total	millions	251.2	258.3	265.9	273.8	282.2	291.4	300.2	309.4	318.9	328.6	338.5	348.8
	Male	millions	137.4	141.2	145.2	149.3	153.7	158.4	163.3	168.3	173.5	178.9	184.4	190.1
	Female	millions	113.8	117.1	120.7	124.5	128.5	132.9	137.0	141.1	145.4	149.7	154.1	158.7
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	4.1	4.0	3.8	3.9	3.8	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7
	Male	per cent	4.0	3.9	3.7	3.8	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.7	3.7
	Female	per cent	4.3	4.2	3.9	4.0	3.9	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8
Unemployment	Total	millions	10.7	10.8	10.6	11.0	11.3	11.1	11.4	11.8	12.2	12.6	13.1	13.5
	Male	millions	5.7	5.7	5.6	5.8	6.0	5.9	6.1	6.3	6.5	6.8	7.0	7.3
	Female	millions	5.1	5.1	5.0	5.2	5.3	5.2	5.4	5.5	5.7	5.8	6.0	6.3
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent	8.8	8.7	8.5	8.5	8.5	8.4	8.4	8.4	8.4	8.4	8.5	8.5
	Male	per cent	7.1	7.0	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.8	6.8	6.9	6.9	6.9	7.0	7.0
	Female	per cent	10.8	10.7	10.4	10.4	10.4	10.2	10.2	10.2	10.2	10.2	10.2	10.3
Potential labour force	Total	millions	13.5	13.8	14.1	14.6	15.1	15.5	16.0	16.6	17.1	17.7	18.3	18.9
	Male	millions	4.7	4.9	5.0	5.2	5.5	5.7	5.9	6.1	6.4	6.6	6.8	7.1
	Female	millions	8.7	8.9	9.1	9.4	9.6	9.9	10.1	10.5	10.8	11.1	11.5	11.9
Extreme working poverty rate	Total	per cent	42.3	42.0	41.1	40.7	40.5	39.9	39.2	38.4	37.6	36.9	36.1	35.2
Moderate working poverty rate	Total	per cent	28.4	28.4	28.2	28.2	27.8	27.7	27.5	27.4	27.2	27.1	26.9	26.6
Extreme working poverty	Total	millions	104.7	106.7	107.6	109.6	112.5	114.5	115.8	117.0	118.1	119.2	120.1	120.9
Moderate working poverty	Total	millions	70.3	72.2	73.9	75.8	77.1	79.3	81.3	83.4	85.5	87.5	89.5	91.4
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	18.1	18.2	18.4	18.4	18.5	18.6	18.8	18.9	19.1	19.3	19.5	19.7
Employers	Total	per cent	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	50.6	50.7	50.7	50.9	50.9	50.9	50.9	51.0	51.0	51.0	51.0	51.0
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	29.8	29.5	29.3	29.1	29.0	28.8	28.6	28.5	28.3	28.1	27.9	27.7
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	-1.1	1.3	2.1	-2.1	-1.4	1.1	1.8	2.0	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.5

LOWER-MIDDLE-INCOME COUNTRIES

Indicator	By sex	Units	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	59.6	59.5	59.4	59.4	59.5	59.4	59.0	58.7	58.3	57.9	57.6	57.2
	Male	per cent	80.7	80.6	80.5	80.4	80.5	80.3	79.9	79.6	79.3	79.0	78.7	78.5
	Female	per cent	38.1	38.1	37.9	38.0	38.1	38.2	37.6	37.5	36.9	36.5	36.1	35.5
Labour force	Total	millions	874.4	893.3	911.8	932.7	954.8	974.7	987.2	1003.8	1016.9	1030.7	1045.2	1057.9
	Male	millions	597.7	610.6	623.9	637.1	651.9	664.5	675.3	686.7	697.9	709.0	720.8	732.9
	Female	millions	276.8	282.6	287.9	295.6	302.9	310.2	311.8	317.1	319.0	321.7	324.4	325.0
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	56.9	56.8	56.6	56.6	56.8	56.7	56.5	56.4	56.1	55.7	55.4	55.0
	Male	per cent	77.3	77.3	77.1	77.0	77.2	77.1	77.0	76.9	76.6	76.2	76.1	75.9
	Female	per cent	36.1	36.0	35.8	35.8	35.9	35.9	35.5	35.5	35.1	34.7	34.4	33.8
Employment	Total	millions	835.2	852.8	869.3	888.9	910.6	929.7	945.5	964.0	977.9	989.9	1005.9	1017.6
	Male	millions	573.0	585.5	597.5	610.3	625.7	638.3	650.9	663.5	674.6	684.5	697.4	708.3
	Female	millions	262.2	267.3	271.8	278.6	284.9	291.5	294.6	300.5	303.3	305.4	308.6	309.3
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	4.5	4.5	4.7	4.7	4.6	4.6	4.2	4.0	3.8	4.0	3.8	3.8
	Male	per cent	4.1	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.0	4.0	3.6	3.4	3.3	3.5	3.3	3.4
	Female	per cent	5.3	5.4	5.6	5.8	5.9	6.0	5.5	5.2	4.9	5.1	4.9	4.8
Unemployment	Total	millions	39.2	40.5	42.4	43.8	44.3	45.0	41.7	39.9	39.0	40.9	39.3	40.3
	Male	millions	24.7	25.1	26.4	26.8	26.3	26.3	24.4	23.2	23.3	24.6	23.5	24.6
	Female	millions	14.5	15.4	16.1	17.0	18.0	18.7	17.3	16.6	15.7	16.3	15.8	15.7
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent							8.4	8.0	7.7	7.7	7.7	7.8
	Male	per cent							5.9	5.6	5.4	5.4	5.6	5.4
	Female	per cent							13.3	12.9	12.6	12.4	12.7	12.7
Potential labour force	Total	millions							39.8	40.4	41.1	42.5	44.0	45.0
	Male	millions							13.8	14.1	14.3	15.0	15.8	16.0
	Female	millions							26.0	26.3	26.8	27.4	28.2	29.0
Extreme working poverty rate	Total	per cent	34.7	33.8	32.1	30.6	29.2	27.9	27.2	25.6	24.6	22.8	21.4	18.9
Moderate working poverty rate	Total	per cent	34.3	34.5	34.4	34.3	34.4	34.5	34.3	34.0	33.9	33.4	32.4	31.9
Extreme working poverty	Total	millions	289.9	288.0	279.0	272.0	265.7	259.0	256.9	246.2	240.7	225.3	214.8	192.2
Moderate working poverty	Total	millions	286.2	293.9	298.7	304.5	313.0	320.1	324.0	327.8	331.5	330.8	325.5	323.9
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	26.2	26.6	26.8	26.8	27.2	27.6	28.2	28.5	28.8	29.2	29.7	30.8
Employers	Total	per cent	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.3	2.5
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	52.2	51.6	51.4	51.1	50.7	50.4	50.6	50.8	50.9	51.0	51.0	50.3
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	19.6	19.7	19.7	20.0	19.9	19.8	19.0	18.4	17.9	17.4	17.0	16.5
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	2.2	2.2	2.0	4.1	5.6	4.8	5.9	5.9	3.4	4.0	5.8	4.3

LOWER-MIDDLE-INCOME COUNTRIES (cont'd)

Indicator	By sex	Units	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	56.8	56.8	56.8	56.7	56.6	56.6	56.5	56.5	56.4	56.3	56.2	56.1
	Male	per cent	78.3	78.1	77.9	77.7	77.4	77.2	77.1	77.1	77.0	76.9	76.8	76.7
	Female	per cent	34.9	35.1	35.2	35.3	35.3	35.5	35.5	35.4	35.4	35.3	35.2	35.2
Labour force	Total	millions	1070.9	1091.9	1111.7	1130.9	1148.7	1170.0	1189.4	1209.0	1228.6	1247.5	1266.7	1285.9
	Male	millions	744.9	758.0	770.3	782.5	793.3	806.2	819.8	833.4	847.0	860.2	873.5	886.8
	Female	millions	326.0	333.9	341.4	348.4	355.4	363.8	369.7	375.6	381.5	387.4	393.2	399.1
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	54.6	54.5	54.5	54.3	54.2	54.3	54.3	54.2	54.1	54.0	53.9	53.8
	Male	per cent	75.6	75.3	75.2	74.9	74.6	74.5	74.5	74.4	74.3	74.2	74.1	74.0
	Female	per cent	33.2	33.4	33.5	33.4	33.5	33.7	33.7	33.6	33.5	33.5	33.4	33.3
Employment	Total	millions	1029.6	1048.1	1067.7	1084.0	1101.5	1123.5	1142.1	1160.7	1179.4	1197.4	1215.6	1233.6
	Male	millions	719.4	730.8	743.2	754.2	764.7	778.3	791.4	804.5	817.7	830.3	842.9	855.6
	Female	millions	310.2	317.3	324.5	329.9	336.8	345.2	350.7	356.2	361.7	367.1	372.6	378.0
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	3.9	4.0	4.0	4.1	4.1	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.1
	Male	per cent	3.4	3.6	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5
	Female	per cent	4.9	5.0	4.9	5.3	5.2	5.1	5.1	5.2	5.2	5.2	5.2	5.3
Unemployment	Total	millions	41.4	43.7	44.0	46.9	47.3	46.5	47.3	48.2	49.2	50.1	51.1	52.3
	Male	millions	25.5	27.2	27.1	28.4	28.6	27.9	28.3	28.8	29.3	29.9	30.5	31.2
	Female	millions	15.8	16.6	16.8	18.5	18.7	18.6	19.0	19.4	19.8	20.2	20.6	21.1
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent	7.9	8.1	8.1	8.2	8.3	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.1	8.1	8.1	8.2
	Male	per cent	5.6	5.8	5.8	5.9	5.9	5.7	5.7	5.7	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8
	Female	per cent	12.8	12.9	12.9	13.2	13.2	12.8	12.8	12.9	12.9	12.9	13.0	13.0
Potential labour force	Total	millions	47.2	48.5	49.6	50.4	51.9	51.5	52.4	53.4	54.4	55.4	56.4	57.5
	Male	millions	17.5	18.2	18.5	18.8	19.5	19.4	19.8	20.2	20.6	21.0	21.5	21.9
	Female	millions	29.7	30.3	31.0	31.7	32.5	32.0	32.6	33.2	33.8	34.4	35.0	35.6
Extreme working poverty rate	Total	per cent	16.6	15.7	14.9	14.1	13.4	12.8	12.1	11.5	10.9	10.4	9.8	9.3
Moderate working poverty rate	Total	per cent	31.0	30.3	29.5	28.3	27.5	26.5	25.7	24.9	24.0	23.1	22.2	21.3
Extreme working poverty	Total	millions	170.7	164.8	158.6	152.2	147.4	143.2	138.3	133.4	128.5	123.9	119.3	114.8
Moderate working poverty	Total	millions	318.7	317.5	314.5	306.7	302.3	297.8	293.6	288.6	282.9	276.7	270.0	262.8
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	32.0	32.4	32.7	33.4	33.9	34.1	34.5	34.9	35.2	35.6	36.0	36.4
Employers	Total	per cent	2.6	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.8
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	49.4	49.6	49.5	49.5	49.4	49.5	49.5	49.5	49.5	49.5	49.6	49.6
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	16.0	15.5	15.3	14.5	14.2	13.8	13.3	12.9	12.5	12.1	11.7	11.3
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	3.9	3.7	3.8	4.4	3.8	3.5	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.2	4.1

UPPER-MIDDLE-INCOME COUNTRIES

Indicator	By sex	Units	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	69.9	69.4	68.9	68.3	68.0	67.7	67.3	67.0	66.8	66.6	66.1	66.0	
	Male	per cent	80.0	79.4	78.9	78.2	77.9	77.6	77.2	77.0	76.8	76.6	76.3	76.1	
	Female	per cent	59.8	59.4	59.0	58.5	58.1	57.8	57.5	57.1	56.8	56.6	56.0	55.9	
Labour force	Total	millions	1168.8	1180.2	1194.8	1207.4	1223.4	1238.1	1249.5	1260.8	1271.2	1281.5	1287.0	1297.6	
	Male	millions	668.3	674.9	682.8	690.7	700.5	709.1	716.1	723.5	730.8	736.9	741.6	747.7	
	Female	millions	500.6	505.3	512.0	516.7	522.9	529.0	533.4	537.4	540.4	544.6	545.4	550.0	
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	65.8	65.2	64.6	63.9	63.8	63.5	63.4	63.3	63.0	62.5	62.3	62.3	
	Male	per cent	75.3	74.6	73.9	73.1	73.0	72.8	72.7	72.7	72.5	71.8	71.7	71.7	
	Female	per cent	56.4	55.9	55.4	54.7	54.5	54.3	54.1	54.0	53.6	53.2	52.8	52.8	
Employment	Total	millions	1100.9	1110.0	1120.2	1129.4	1147.7	1162.6	1176.7	1190.4	1200.0	1203.3	1211.7	1224.0	
	Male	millions	629.0	634.1	639.6	645.4	656.8	665.6	674.2	682.8	689.2	691.1	697.4	704.7	
	Female	millions	471.9	476.0	480.6	483.9	490.9	497.0	502.5	507.6	510.7	512.2	514.2	519.3	
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	5.8	5.9	6.2	6.5	6.2	6.1	5.8	5.6	5.6	6.1	5.9	5.7	
	Male	per cent	5.9	6.1	6.3	6.6	6.2	6.1	5.9	5.6	5.7	6.2	6.0	5.8	
	Female	per cent	5.7	5.8	6.1	6.3	6.1	6.0	5.8	5.5	5.5	5.9	5.7	5.6	
Unemployment	Total	millions	67.9	70.2	74.6	78.0	75.7	75.6	72.8	70.4	71.3	78.2	75.4	73.6	
	Male	millions	39.2	40.9	43.3	45.3	43.7	43.6	41.9	40.7	41.6	45.9	44.1	43.0	
	Female	millions	28.6	29.3	31.3	32.8	32.0	32.0	30.9	29.7	29.7	32.4	31.2	30.6	
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent							9.3	9.0	8.8	8.6	9.3	9.1	8.9
	Male	per cent							8.4	8.1	7.9	7.8	8.5	8.3	8.1
	Female	per cent							10.5	10.2	10.0	9.7	10.3	10.2	10.0
Potential labour force	Total	millions							43.7	43.9	44.0	42.1	44.8	45.9	45.9
	Male	millions							17.6	17.6	17.5	16.9	18.2	18.7	18.7
	Female	millions							26.1	26.3	26.5	25.3	26.6	27.2	27.2
Extreme working poverty rate	Total	per cent	27.0	25.0	22.5	20.2	16.9	14.1	12.3	11.2	10.9	9.8	8.8	6.5	
Moderate working poverty rate	Total	per cent	21.7	20.9	20.0	19.4	18.2	17.1	15.5	14.1	12.9	12.0	11.1	10.0	
Extreme working poverty	Total	millions	294.0	274.4	249.7	225.1	192.3	161.6	143.8	132.1	130.0	116.6	105.7	78.9	
Moderate working poverty	Total	millions	236.0	229.5	221.6	216.5	206.9	196.7	180.8	165.6	153.3	143.0	132.7	121.7	
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	47.7	48.3	49.1	49.8	50.7	51.6	52.5	53.3	54.1	54.6	55.3	55.8	
Employers	Total	per cent	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.1	
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	31.3	31.3	31.0	30.9	30.6	30.3	30.0	29.7	29.4	29.4	29.2	29.1	
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	18.0	17.4	16.8	16.2	15.6	14.9	14.3	13.7	13.2	12.8	12.3	12.0	
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	4.9	2.9	4.2	4.7	6.4	5.9	7.1	7.9	5.2	1.7	6.8	5.3	

UPPER-MIDDLE-INCOME COUNTRIES (cont'd)

Indicator	By sex	Units	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	66.0	65.8	65.6	65.5	65.3	65.1	64.8	64.4	64.0	63.6	63.2	62.7
	Male	per cent	76.1	75.9	75.8	75.7	75.4	75.3	75.0	74.6	74.3	73.9	73.5	73.1
	Female	per cent	56.0	55.7	55.4	55.3	55.1	55.0	54.6	54.1	53.7	53.3	52.8	52.4
Labour force	Total	millions	1310.0	1317.3	1323.3	1332.3	1338.1	1344.8	1347.8	1349.7	1350.9	1351.9	1352.0	1351.4
	Male	millions	754.5	759.4	763.9	769.2	772.7	776.8	779.7	782.0	783.9	785.5	786.4	787.0
	Female	millions	555.5	557.9	559.4	563.1	565.4	568.0	568.0	567.7	567.0	566.4	565.5	564.4
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	62.3	62.1	61.9	61.7	61.4	61.2	60.9	60.5	60.2	59.8	59.4	59.0
	Male	per cent	71.7	71.6	71.4	71.2	70.9	70.7	70.5	70.1	69.9	69.5	69.1	68.7
	Female	per cent	52.9	52.7	52.4	52.2	51.8	51.7	51.3	50.9	50.5	50.1	49.7	49.2
Employment	Total	millions	1235.8	1243.3	1249.4	1255.5	1257.6	1263.9	1267.1	1268.5	1270.1	1270.7	1270.9	1270.1
	Male	millions	710.8	716.1	720.4	724.2	725.9	730.0	732.9	735.0	737.1	738.4	739.4	739.8
	Female	millions	525.0	527.2	529.0	531.3	531.7	534.0	534.2	533.4	533.0	532.3	531.5	530.3
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	5.7	5.6	5.6	5.8	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0
	Male	per cent	5.8	5.7	5.7	5.8	6.1	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0
	Female	per cent	5.5	5.5	5.4	5.6	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0
Unemployment	Total	millions	74.2	74.1	73.9	76.8	80.5	80.9	80.7	81.2	80.8	81.2	81.1	81.3
	Male	millions	43.7	43.3	43.5	44.9	46.8	46.9	46.8	47.0	46.8	47.1	47.1	47.2
	Female	millions	30.5	30.7	30.4	31.8	33.7	34.0	33.9	34.2	34.0	34.1	34.0	34.1
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent	8.9	8.8	8.8	9.0	9.3	9.3	9.4	9.4	9.4	9.5	9.5	9.6
	Male	per cent	8.1	8.0	8.0	8.1	8.4	8.4	8.4	8.5	8.4	8.5	8.5	8.6
	Female	per cent	10.0	9.9	9.8	10.1	10.5	10.6	10.6	10.7	10.8	10.9	10.9	11.0
Potential labour force	Total	millions	46.4	46.2	46.0	46.7	48.3	49.4	50.1	50.9	51.5	52.3	53.0	53.7
	Male	millions	18.9	18.9	18.9	19.1	19.8	20.3	20.6	20.9	21.2	21.6	22.0	22.4
	Female	millions	27.5	27.3	27.0	27.6	28.5	29.2	29.5	30.0	30.3	30.7	31.0	31.4
Extreme working poverty rate	Total	per cent	5.3	1.9	1.5	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7
Moderate working poverty rate	Total	per cent	9.0	7.6	6.3	5.4	5.0	4.6	4.4	4.1	3.9	3.7	3.5	3.3
Extreme working poverty	Total	millions	65.3	23.6	18.7	12.8	11.8	11.2	10.8	10.2	9.7	9.2	8.8	8.3
Moderate working poverty	Total	millions	109.9	93.0	78.5	66.7	61.9	58.1	54.8	51.8	49.0	46.3	43.9	41.6
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	56.5	57.1	57.7	58.1	58.4	58.8	59.2	59.6	60.0	60.3	60.7	61.0
Employers	Total	per cent	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	28.7	28.7	28.5	28.5	28.6	28.4	28.3	28.2	28.0	27.9	27.8	27.7
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	11.6	11.1	10.6	10.2	9.8	9.5	9.2	8.9	8.6	8.4	8.1	7.9
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	4.4	4.5	3.9	3.0	4.0	4.2	4.4	4.4	4.2	4.2	4.1	4.1

HIGH-INCOME COUNTRIES

Indicator	By sex	Units	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	60.6	60.4	60.3	60.3	60.3	60.5	60.6	60.7	60.8	60.6	60.4	60.2
	Male	per cent	71.0	70.6	70.3	70.1	69.9	70.0	70.0	70.0	69.9	69.4	69.1	68.9
	Female	per cent	50.6	50.6	50.7	50.9	51.0	51.3	51.6	51.7	52.0	52.0	51.9	51.9
Labour force	Total	millions	543.3	546.6	551.3	556.3	561.5	568.9	575.7	582.2	589.1	592.7	595.8	599.1
	Male	millions	310.8	312.2	314.3	316.3	318.9	322.6	326.1	329.7	333.2	334.3	336.0	337.7
	Female	millions	232.5	234.5	237.0	240.0	242.6	246.2	249.6	252.5	256.0	258.4	259.8	261.4
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	56.5	56.2	55.9	55.8	56.0	56.4	56.8	57.3	57.2	55.8	55.4	55.5
	Male	per cent	66.5	66.0	65.3	65.1	65.1	65.5	65.9	66.2	66.0	63.8	63.4	63.5
	Female	per cent	46.9	46.9	46.8	47.0	47.2	47.6	48.1	48.6	48.8	48.0	47.7	47.7
Employment	Total	millions	506.4	509.3	510.6	515.2	521.2	530.2	539.8	549.2	554.3	545.4	546.9	551.9
	Male	millions	291.2	291.9	291.8	293.8	297.0	301.9	307.0	312.1	314.2	307.1	308.2	311.5
	Female	millions	215.2	217.4	218.7	221.4	224.2	228.3	232.8	237.1	240.1	238.2	238.7	240.4
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	6.8	6.8	7.4	7.4	7.2	6.8	6.2	5.7	5.9	8.0	8.2	7.9
	Male	per cent	6.3	6.5	7.2	7.1	6.8	6.4	5.9	5.3	5.7	8.1	8.3	7.7
	Female	per cent	7.4	7.3	7.7	7.7	7.6	7.3	6.7	6.1	6.2	7.8	8.1	8.1
Unemployment	Total	millions	36.9	37.4	40.7	41.1	40.3	38.7	35.9	33.0	34.8	47.3	48.9	47.2
	Male	millions	19.6	20.3	22.5	22.6	21.8	20.7	19.1	17.6	18.9	27.1	27.8	26.1
	Female	millions	17.3	17.0	18.2	18.5	18.5	18.0	16.8	15.4	15.9	20.1	21.1	21.0
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent						10.1	9.5	8.9	9.1	11.2	11.5	11.2
	Male	per cent						8.7	8.1	7.6	7.9	10.5	10.7	10.2
	Female	per cent						11.8	11.2	10.5	10.6	12.1	12.5	12.4
Potential labour force	Total	millions						20.8	20.8	20.6	20.6	21.6	22.0	22.2
	Male	millions						8.1	8.1	8.1	8.1	8.8	9.0	9.1
	Female	millions						12.6	12.7	12.5	12.5	12.8	13.0	13.1
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	84.4	84.5	84.7	84.7	84.8	85.0	85.3	85.6	85.9	85.9	86.0	86.2
Employers	Total	per cent	4.0	3.9	3.8	3.8	3.9	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.7	3.7	3.6
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	9.6	9.6	9.6	9.6	9.6	9.5	9.3	9.2	9.0	9.1	9.0	8.9
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	2.1	2.0	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.2
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	2.7	0.8	1.2	1.5	2.4	1.3	1.4	1.1	-0.3	-1.7	3.0	1.3

HIGH-INCOME COUNTRIES (cont'd)

Indicator	By sex	Units	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	60.3	60.3	60.3	60.3	60.5	60.6	60.5	60.3	60.1	59.9	59.7	59.5
	Male	per cent	68.9	68.7	68.6	68.6	68.6	68.6	68.4	68.2	68.0	67.7	67.4	67.1
	Female	per cent	52.0	52.1	52.2	52.3	52.5	52.8	52.7	52.6	52.5	52.3	52.1	52.0
Labour force	Total	millions	604.4	608.5	612.5	616.5	622.0	627.2	628.9	630.6	632.2	632.8	633.5	634.2
	Male	millions	340.4	342.3	344.1	346.3	348.8	351.0	352.0	353.0	354.0	354.2	354.5	354.8
	Female	millions	264.0	266.2	268.3	270.2	273.3	276.2	276.9	277.6	278.2	278.6	279.0	279.4
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	55.6	55.6	55.9	56.3	56.7	57.2	57.3	57.2	57.1	56.8	56.6	56.4
	Male	per cent	63.6	63.5	63.8	64.2	64.5	64.9	65.0	64.9	64.7	64.4	64.1	63.8
	Female	per cent	47.7	47.9	48.3	48.6	49.1	49.7	49.8	49.7	49.6	49.4	49.2	49.0
Employment	Total	millions	556.6	560.9	568.2	575.5	583.4	591.5	595.9	598.3	600.0	600.3	600.7	601.1
	Male	millions	314.2	316.2	320.1	324.0	328.0	331.9	334.4	336.0	337.1	337.2	337.5	337.6
	Female	millions	242.3	244.7	248.1	251.5	255.5	259.6	261.5	262.3	262.9	263.0	263.3	263.5
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	7.9	7.8	7.2	6.7	6.2	5.7	5.3	5.1	5.1	5.1	5.2	5.2
	Male	per cent	7.7	7.6	7.0	6.4	6.0	5.4	5.0	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8
	Female	per cent	8.2	8.1	7.6	6.9	6.5	6.0	5.6	5.5	5.5	5.6	5.7	5.7
Unemployment	Total	millions	47.8	47.6	44.3	41.0	38.6	35.6	33.1	32.3	32.2	32.6	32.8	33.2
	Male	millions	26.2	26.1	24.0	22.2	20.8	19.0	17.6	17.1	16.9	17.0	17.0	17.2
	Female	millions	21.7	21.5	20.3	18.8	17.8	16.6	15.5	15.3	15.3	15.6	15.8	16.0
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent	11.2	11.1	10.6	9.9	9.4	8.8	8.3	8.2	8.2	8.3	8.4	8.4
	Male	per cent	10.1	10.0	9.5	8.9	8.4	7.8	7.4	7.2	7.1	7.2	7.2	7.3
	Female	per cent	12.6	12.4	11.9	11.3	10.5	9.9	9.5	9.5	9.5	9.7	9.7	9.8
Potential labour force	Total	millions	22.5	22.5	22.8	22.4	21.7	21.1	21.1	21.2	21.4	21.7	21.9	22.2
	Male	millions	9.2	9.2	9.4	9.2	9.4	9.1	8.9	9.0	9.0	9.2	9.3	9.5
	Female	millions	13.4	13.3	13.4	13.2	12.3	12.0	12.1	12.2	12.4	12.5	12.6	12.7
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	86.4	86.6	86.7	86.9	87.0	87.1	87.2	87.2	87.3	87.3	87.4	87.4
Employers	Total	per cent	3.5	3.5	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.3
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	8.9	8.8	8.8	8.7	8.7	8.6	8.6	8.6	8.6	8.6	8.5	8.5
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	0.5	0.7	0.8	1.1	0.3	0.8	1.8	1.8	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.7

NORTHERN AFRICA

Indicator	By sex	Units	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	47.2	46.8	46.5	46.6	46.8	46.9	46.9	47.3	47.2	47.4	47.7	47.7
	Male	per cent	74.1	73.3	73.2	73.2	73.2	73.2	73.1	73.1	73.4	73.4	73.9	73.9
	Female	per cent	20.5	20.5	19.9	20.3	20.6	20.8	21.0	21.8	21.2	21.7	21.8	21.8
Labour force	Total	millions	51.8	52.9	53.9	55.6	57.2	58.7	60.1	61.9	63.0	64.7	66.3	67.6
	Male	millions	40.5	41.2	42.3	43.4	44.6	45.6	46.6	47.6	48.8	49.7	51.1	52.1
	Female	millions	11.3	11.6	11.6	12.1	12.6	13.1	13.5	14.3	14.3	14.9	15.2	15.5
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	39.9	39.9	39.7	39.8	40.7	40.8	41.4	42.0	42.2	42.5	42.8	42.0
	Male	per cent	63.9	63.7	63.8	63.7	65.1	65.2	66.1	66.2	67.0	67.8	68.4	66.9
	Female	per cent	16.2	16.4	15.7	16.1	16.4	16.6	17.0	18.1	17.6	17.5	17.5	17.4
Employment	Total	millions	43.9	45.1	46.0	47.4	49.7	51.1	53.1	55.0	56.4	58.0	59.5	59.6
	Male	millions	34.9	35.8	36.9	37.8	39.6	40.7	42.1	43.1	44.5	46.0	47.3	47.2
	Female	millions	8.9	9.3	9.2	9.6	10.1	10.4	11.0	11.9	11.8	12.0	12.3	12.4
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	15.4	14.7	14.6	14.7	13.1	12.9	11.7	11.2	10.6	10.3	10.2	11.8
	Male	per cent	13.8	13.2	12.9	13.0	11.1	10.9	9.6	9.4	8.7	7.6	7.5	9.4
	Female	per cent	21.0	20.2	20.9	20.7	20.2	20.0	18.9	17.0	17.0	19.3	19.5	20.0
Unemployment	Total	millions	8.0	7.8	7.9	8.2	7.5	7.6	7.0	6.9	6.7	6.7	6.8	8.0
	Male	millions	5.6	5.4	5.4	5.6	4.9	5.0	4.5	4.5	4.2	3.8	3.8	4.9
	Female	millions	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.5	2.6	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.9	3.0	3.1
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent						21.5	20.2	19.6	19.0	18.7	18.5	20.3
	Male	per cent						16.8	15.3	15.2	14.3	13.0	12.7	14.9
	Female	per cent						35.8	34.7	32.3	32.7	34.8	35.1	35.6
Potential labour force	Total	millions						6.4	6.4	6.5	6.5	6.6	6.8	7.2
	Male	millions						3.2	3.1	3.2	3.2	3.1	3.1	3.4
	Female	millions						3.2	3.3	3.2	3.3	3.6	3.7	3.8
Extreme working poverty rate	Total	per cent	5.4	5.0	4.6	4.3	4.3	4.4	3.9	3.5	3.1	2.8	2.5	2.5
Moderate working poverty rate	Total	per cent	17.9	17.7	17.4	17.7	18.3	18.2	17.4	17.0	16.2	15.2	14.4	14.1
Extreme working poverty	Total	millions	2.3	2.2	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.6	1.5	1.5
Moderate working poverty	Total	millions	7.8	8.0	8.0	8.4	9.1	9.3	9.2	9.3	9.1	8.8	8.5	8.4
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	57.0	57.7	57.4	56.7	56.0	57.7	59.6	58.6	59.2	59.4	60.2	59.9
Employers	Total	per cent	9.8	10.1	9.8	10.0	9.7	8.6	8.0	8.3	8.7	8.8	8.7	8.8
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	18.1	18.2	18.6	18.6	18.8	18.9	18.5	19.2	18.8	18.9	19.5	19.9
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	15.1	13.9	14.2	14.7	15.6	14.9	13.9	13.8	13.2	12.9	11.6	11.4
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	2.8	0.7	1.1	2.7	-0.4	2.6	1.8	2.2	2.7	0.3	1.7	-4.2

NORTHERN AFRICA (cont'd)

Indicator	By sex	Units	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	47.8	48.1	47.6	46.8	46.5	46.3	46.3	46.3	46.2	46.1	46.0	45.9
	Male	per cent	73.8	74.0	73.1	72.0	71.5	71.3	71.2	71.1	71.0	70.8	70.7	70.4
	Female	per cent	22.0	22.6	22.3	21.7	21.7	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6
Labour force	Total	millions	69.0	70.7	71.2	71.2	72.1	73.1	74.5	75.9	77.1	78.6	79.9	81.1
	Male	millions	53.0	54.0	54.4	54.6	55.1	56.0	57.0	58.1	59.0	60.1	61.1	62.0
	Female	millions	16.0	16.7	16.8	16.7	16.9	17.1	17.4	17.8	18.1	18.5	18.8	19.2
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	41.9	42.2	41.7	41.0	41.0	40.8	40.8	40.8	40.8	40.7	40.7	40.5
	Male	per cent	66.6	66.7	65.9	65.0	65.0	64.7	64.8	64.7	64.6	64.5	64.3	64.0
	Female	per cent	17.5	18.0	17.8	17.2	17.2	17.1	17.1	17.1	17.2	17.2	17.2	17.2
Employment	Total	millions	60.5	62.0	62.4	62.4	63.5	64.4	65.7	66.9	68.1	69.4	70.5	71.6
	Male	millions	47.8	48.8	49.1	49.3	50.1	50.8	51.9	52.8	53.7	54.7	55.5	56.3
	Female	millions	12.7	13.3	13.4	13.2	13.4	13.5	13.8	14.1	14.4	14.7	15.0	15.3
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.4	11.9	11.9	11.8	11.8	11.7	11.7	11.7	11.7
	Male	per cent	9.8	9.8	9.8	9.8	9.2	9.2	9.1	9.1	9.0	9.0	9.1	9.1
	Female	per cent	20.5	20.3	20.3	20.9	20.8	20.8	20.8	20.8	20.6	20.3	20.3	20.2
Unemployment	Total	millions	8.5	8.7	8.8	8.8	8.6	8.7	8.8	9.0	9.1	9.2	9.3	9.5
	Male	millions	5.2	5.3	5.4	5.3	5.1	5.1	5.2	5.3	5.3	5.4	5.5	5.6
	Female	millions	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.7	3.7	3.8	3.8	3.9
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent	20.7	20.7	20.8	20.9	20.5	20.5	20.4	20.4	20.3	20.2	20.3	20.3
	Male	per cent	15.4	15.4	15.5	15.6	15.0	15.0	14.9	14.8	14.8	14.8	14.8	14.8
	Female	per cent	36.0	35.5	35.4	36.0	35.8	35.9	35.9	35.9	35.8	35.6	35.5	35.5
Potential labour force	Total	millions	7.4	7.5	7.6	7.7	7.7	7.9	8.0	8.1	8.3	8.4	8.6	8.7
	Male	millions	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.9	3.9	4.0	4.1	4.1	4.2
	Female	millions	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.9	4.0	4.0	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.4	4.5	4.5
Extreme working poverty rate	Total	per cent	2.2	2.0	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.1
Moderate working poverty rate	Total	per cent	12.9	12.4	11.3	9.9	9.7	9.5	9.3	9.0	8.8	8.4	8.2	8.0
Extreme working poverty	Total	millions	1.3	1.3	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8
Moderate working poverty	Total	millions	7.8	7.6	7.0	6.1	6.2	6.1	6.1	6.0	5.9	5.8	5.8	5.7
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	60.7	60.5	60.4	61.2	64.1	63.7	63.9	64.0	64.2	64.4	64.6	64.7
Employers	Total	per cent	9.0	7.7	8.3	7.5	6.9	6.9	7.0	7.0	7.1	7.1	7.2	7.2
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	19.6	20.4	19.7	19.5	19.1	19.4	19.4	19.3	19.3	19.3	19.2	19.2
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	10.7	11.3	11.6	11.8	9.9	10.0	9.8	9.6	9.4	9.2	9.0	8.8
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	5.5	-0.9	0.7	3.5	1.5	2.9	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.3	2.6	2.6

SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA

Indicator	By sex	Units	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	69.5	69.5	69.5	69.3	69.1	69.2	69.2	69.1	69.0	68.6	68.3	68.1
	Male	per cent	75.9	75.9	75.8	75.6	75.3	75.3	75.2	75.0	74.9	74.5	74.1	73.8
	Female	per cent	63.4	63.4	63.4	63.3	63.2	63.4	63.5	63.3	63.2	63.0	62.7	62.6
Labour force	Total	millions	249.5	256.1	263.2	269.9	276.8	285.2	293.1	300.6	308.9	316.5	324.3	333.0
	Male	millions	133.9	137.4	141.1	144.7	148.3	152.6	156.6	160.6	165.0	169.1	173.2	177.7
	Female	millions	115.6	118.7	122.0	125.2	128.5	132.6	136.5	140.0	143.8	147.4	151.1	155.3
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	64.4	64.4	64.2	64.2	64.3	64.5	64.7	64.9	65.1	64.5	64.1	64.1
	Male	per cent	70.7	70.6	70.5	70.4	70.4	70.6	70.8	70.8	70.9	70.2	69.8	69.6
	Female	per cent	58.3	58.3	58.1	58.1	58.3	58.6	58.9	59.2	59.5	59.0	58.6	58.7
Employment	Total	millions	231.0	237.2	243.1	249.9	257.3	265.7	274.1	282.5	291.6	297.5	304.4	313.1
	Male	millions	124.7	127.9	131.3	134.9	138.7	143.0	147.4	151.7	156.3	159.3	163.1	167.6
	Female	millions	106.3	109.2	111.8	115.0	118.6	122.6	126.7	130.8	135.3	138.1	141.3	145.5
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	7.4	7.4	7.6	7.4	7.0	6.8	6.5	6.0	5.6	6.0	6.1	6.0
	Male	per cent	6.9	6.9	7.0	6.8	6.5	6.2	5.9	5.5	5.3	5.8	5.8	5.7
	Female	per cent	8.0	8.0	8.4	8.2	7.7	7.5	7.2	6.6	6.0	6.3	6.5	6.3
Unemployment	Total	millions	18.5	19.0	20.1	20.1	19.5	19.5	19.0	18.1	17.3	19.0	19.9	19.9
	Male	millions	9.2	9.5	9.8	9.9	9.6	9.5	9.2	8.9	8.7	9.7	10.1	10.1
	Female	millions	9.2	9.5	10.2	10.2	9.9	10.0	9.8	9.2	8.6	9.3	9.8	9.8
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent							12.4	12.0	11.5	10.4	11.0	11.1
	Male	per cent							10.2	9.8	9.4	8.6	9.2	9.4
	Female	per cent							14.9	14.5	13.9	12.4	12.9	13.3
Potential labour force	Total	millions							18.3	18.5	18.7	16.5	17.7	18.8
	Male	millions							6.7	6.8	6.8	6.0	6.4	6.9
	Female	millions							11.5	11.7	11.9	10.6	11.3	12.0
Extreme working poverty rate	Total	per cent	55.3	54.3	53.5	52.3	50.7	49.5	48.5	47.6	46.9	46.0	45.1	43.8
Moderate working poverty rate	Total	per cent	21.3	21.9	22.5	23.2	23.8	24.1	24.3	24.5	24.6	24.8	25.0	25.3
Extreme working poverty	Total	millions	126.3	127.2	128.5	129.2	129.0	129.9	131.3	132.8	134.9	135.1	135.6	135.3
Moderate working poverty	Total	millions	48.6	51.3	54.2	57.2	60.5	63.3	65.8	68.3	70.9	72.8	75.1	78.2
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	19.6	19.4	19.4	19.4	19.6	19.7	20.0	20.3	20.8	20.9	21.0	21.3
Employers	Total	per cent	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	50.8	51.0	50.9	50.9	50.8	50.7	50.7	50.7	50.7	51.0	51.1	51.1
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	27.4	27.4	27.4	27.4	27.3	27.2	27.0	26.7	26.2	25.9	25.6	25.3
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	0.5	1.3	1.1	2.0	9.3	2.2	3.5	3.7	2.1	1.3	3.4	2.2

SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA (cont'd)

Indicator	By sex	Units	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	68.0	68.0	67.8	67.9	67.9	68.0	68.0	68.0	68.0	68.0	67.9	67.9
	Male	per cent	73.6	73.5	73.3	73.2	73.1	73.1	73.0	73.0	73.0	72.9	72.9	72.9
	Female	per cent	62.5	62.6	62.6	62.7	62.8	63.0	63.0	63.1	63.1	63.1	63.1	63.1
Labour force	Total	millions	342.2	352.3	362.5	373.9	385.3	397.5	409.8	422.5	435.6	448.8	462.4	476.4
	Male	millions	182.6	187.8	193.1	198.9	204.8	210.9	217.4	224.1	231.0	238.0	245.2	252.6
	Female	millions	159.6	164.6	169.5	175.0	180.6	186.7	192.4	198.4	204.6	210.8	217.2	223.8
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	64.0	64.1	64.0	63.9	63.8	63.9	64.0	63.9	63.9	63.9	63.9	63.9
	Male	per cent	69.5	69.4	69.3	69.1	68.9	68.9	68.9	68.9	68.9	68.8	68.8	68.8
	Female	per cent	58.7	58.8	58.8	58.8	58.8	59.1	59.1	59.1	59.1	59.1	59.1	59.1
Employment	Total	millions	322.3	332.2	341.9	352.0	362.0	374.0	385.6	397.5	409.8	422.1	434.9	448.0
	Male	millions	172.4	177.5	182.6	187.8	193.0	199.0	205.2	211.5	218.0	224.6	231.4	238.4
	Female	millions	149.9	154.7	159.3	164.2	169.0	175.0	180.4	186.0	191.7	197.5	203.5	209.6
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	5.8	5.7	5.7	5.9	6.1	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	6.0	5.9	6.0
	Male	per cent	5.6	5.5	5.4	5.6	5.8	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6
	Female	per cent	6.1	6.0	6.0	6.2	6.4	6.3	6.2	6.3	6.3	6.3	6.3	6.3
Unemployment	Total	millions	19.9	20.1	20.6	22.0	23.3	23.6	24.2	25.0	25.9	26.7	27.5	28.4
	Male	millions	10.2	10.3	10.5	11.1	11.8	11.9	12.2	12.6	13.0	13.4	13.8	14.2
	Female	millions	9.7	9.9	10.1	10.8	11.6	11.7	12.0	12.4	12.9	13.3	13.7	14.2
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent	11.0	10.9	10.8	10.9	11.1	10.9	10.9	10.9	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0
	Male	per cent	9.2	9.2	9.1	9.2	9.4	9.3	9.2	9.3	9.3	9.3	9.3	9.3
	Female	per cent	12.9	12.7	12.6	12.8	13.0	12.8	12.7	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8
Potential labour force	Total	millions	19.8	20.3	20.7	21.2	21.8	22.4	23.0	23.8	24.5	25.3	26.1	26.9
	Male	millions	7.3	7.6	7.8	7.9	8.2	8.4	8.7	9.0	9.3	9.6	9.9	10.2
	Female	millions	12.5	12.7	12.9	13.2	13.6	13.9	14.3	14.8	15.3	15.7	16.2	16.7
Extreme working poverty rate	Total	per cent	42.3	41.7	40.8	40.1	39.7	39.2	38.5	37.8	37.1	36.3	35.6	34.8
Moderate working poverty rate	Total	per cent	25.5	25.5	25.3	25.2	24.9	24.9	24.8	24.7	24.6	24.5	24.3	24.1
Extreme working poverty	Total	millions	134.5	136.6	137.6	139.1	141.8	144.4	146.3	148.1	149.8	151.3	152.7	154.0
Moderate working poverty	Total	millions	81.1	83.4	85.5	87.4	89.0	91.7	94.3	96.8	99.4	101.8	104.2	106.6
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	21.6	21.9	22.1	22.3	22.4	22.5	22.6	22.7	22.9	23.0	23.2	23.3
Employers	Total	per cent	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	51.2	51.3	51.3	51.4	51.4	51.4	51.4	51.4	51.5	51.5	51.5	51.5
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	24.8	24.3	24.1	23.8	23.7	23.6	23.4	23.3	23.1	22.9	22.7	22.6
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	1.0	2.0	2.1	0.3	-1.4	-0.4	0.6	0.9	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5

NORTHERN AMERICA

Indicator	By sex	Units	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	66.3	66.0	65.8	65.5	65.2	65.2	65.3	65.2	65.2	64.6	63.9	63.4
	Male	per cent	74.0	73.5	73.1	72.6	72.3	72.2	72.3	72.1	71.9	70.9	70.1	69.6
	Female	per cent	59.0	58.8	58.7	58.7	58.5	58.5	58.6	58.6	58.8	58.5	58.0	57.4
Labour force	Total	millions	162.9	164.1	165.4	166.5	167.7	169.6	171.7	173.3	175.4	175.6	175.7	176.0
	Male	millions	88.7	89.2	89.8	90.1	90.8	91.9	92.9	93.7	94.6	94.4	94.4	94.7
	Female	millions	74.2	74.9	75.6	76.4	76.8	77.8	78.7	79.6	80.8	81.2	81.3	81.3
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	63.5	62.7	61.8	61.5	61.5	61.8	62.2	62.1	61.4	58.7	57.9	57.8
	Male	per cent	70.9	69.8	68.6	67.9	68.1	68.4	68.8	68.5	67.5	63.6	62.9	63.1
	Female	per cent	56.4	56.0	55.4	55.3	55.2	55.4	55.8	55.9	55.6	53.9	53.0	52.6
Employment	Total	millions	155.9	156.0	155.5	156.2	158.1	160.7	163.4	165.0	165.2	159.6	159.0	160.5
	Male	millions	84.9	84.7	84.3	84.3	85.6	87.0	88.5	89.1	88.8	84.8	84.6	86.0
	Female	millions	71.0	71.3	71.3	71.9	72.6	73.7	74.9	75.9	76.4	74.8	74.4	74.6
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	4.3	5.0	6.0	6.2	5.7	5.3	4.8	4.8	5.8	9.2	9.5	8.8
	Male	per cent	4.2	5.1	6.2	6.4	5.8	5.3	4.8	4.9	6.1	10.2	10.3	9.2
	Female	per cent	4.4	4.9	5.8	5.8	5.6	5.2	4.8	4.6	5.4	7.9	8.5	8.3
Unemployment	Total	millions	7.0	8.2	9.9	10.2	9.6	8.9	8.2	8.3	10.2	16.1	16.6	15.5
	Male	millions	3.7	4.5	5.5	5.8	5.3	4.8	4.5	4.6	5.8	9.6	9.7	8.7
	Female	millions	3.2	3.7	4.4	4.4	4.3	4.1	3.8	3.7	4.4	6.5	6.9	6.7
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent						6.2	5.7	5.6	6.7	10.3	10.7	10.0
	Male	per cent						6.1	5.6	5.7	7.0	11.3	11.5	10.4
	Female	per cent						6.3	5.8	5.5	6.4	9.1	9.7	9.6
Potential labour force	Total	millions						1.7	1.6	1.5	1.7	2.2	2.4	2.4
	Male	millions						0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.2	1.3	1.3
	Female	millions						0.9	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	2.5	1.0	2.2	2.3	2.5	1.7	1.0	0.8	-0.3	0.6	2.9	0.8
Employers	Total	per cent	91.6	91.8	91.9	91.6	91.6	91.7	91.8	91.9	92.1	91.9	92.0	92.2
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	3.3	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.2	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.0
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	5.0	4.9	4.9	5.0	5.0	5.0	4.9	4.9	4.8	4.9	4.8	4.7
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1

NORTHERN AMERICA (cont'd)

Indicator	By sex	Units	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	63.2	62.9	62.6	62.4	62.5	62.6	62.4	62.1	61.8	61.5	61.2	61.0
	Male	per cent	69.5	69.2	68.7	68.6	68.7	68.6	68.4	68.1	67.8	67.5	67.2	66.9
	Female	per cent	57.2	56.9	56.6	56.3	56.5	56.8	56.5	56.3	56.0	55.8	55.5	55.2
Labour force	Total	millions	177.4	178.2	179.0	180.1	182.1	184.0	184.7	185.4	186.2	186.8	187.5	188.2
	Male	millions	95.6	96.2	96.5	97.3	98.4	99.1	99.5	100.0	100.5	100.8	101.2	101.7
	Female	millions	81.8	82.1	82.5	82.8	83.8	84.9	85.2	85.5	85.8	86.0	86.3	86.6
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	58.2	58.3	58.7	59.0	59.3	59.8	59.8	59.5	59.2	58.8	58.5	58.2
	Male	per cent	63.8	63.9	64.4	64.8	65.1	65.5	65.4	65.2	64.9	64.5	64.2	63.9
	Female	per cent	52.8	52.9	53.2	53.4	53.7	54.3	54.3	54.0	53.7	53.3	53.0	52.7
Employment	Total	millions	163.3	165.1	167.8	170.3	172.8	175.6	177.1	177.8	178.3	178.6	179.2	179.7
	Male	millions	87.8	88.8	90.3	91.9	93.2	94.5	95.3	95.8	96.1	96.3	96.7	97.1
	Female	millions	75.5	76.3	77.5	78.4	79.6	81.1	81.8	82.0	82.2	82.2	82.4	82.7
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	8.0	7.3	6.2	5.5	5.1	4.6	4.2	4.1	4.3	4.4	4.4	4.5
	Male	per cent	8.2	7.6	6.4	5.6	5.2	4.7	4.3	4.2	4.3	4.4	4.4	4.5
	Female	per cent	7.8	7.0	6.1	5.3	5.0	4.5	4.0	4.0	4.2	4.4	4.4	4.5
Unemployment	Total	millions	14.2	13.1	11.2	9.8	9.3	8.4	7.7	7.6	7.9	8.2	8.3	8.5
	Male	millions	7.8	7.3	6.2	5.4	5.1	4.6	4.3	4.2	4.4	4.5	4.5	4.6
	Female	millions	6.4	5.8	5.0	4.4	4.1	3.8	3.4	3.4	3.6	3.7	3.8	3.9
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent	9.3	8.6	7.4	6.5	6.1	5.5	5.0	5.0	5.2	5.4	5.5	5.6
	Male	per cent	9.4	8.8	7.5	6.6	6.2	5.5	5.1	5.0	5.2	5.3	5.3	5.4
	Female	per cent	9.1	8.3	7.3	6.4	6.0	5.4	5.0	5.1	5.3	5.5	5.6	5.8
Potential labour force	Total	millions	2.5	2.4	2.3	2.1	1.9	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.2
	Male	millions	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0
	Female	millions	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.2
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	0.5	0.6	1.0	1.2	0.0	0.7	2.0	1.9	1.3	1.5	1.4	1.5
Employers	Total	per cent	92.3	92.4	92.6	92.6	92.7	92.8	92.8	92.9	92.9	92.9	92.9	92.9
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	2.9	2.9	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.6
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	4.7	4.6	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN

Indicator	By sex	Units	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	63.1	63.2	63.5	63.5	64.2	64.4	64.5	64.4	64.4	64.7	64.3	64.0
	Male	per cent	79.6	79.3	79.2	78.9	79.2	79.0	79.1	78.8	78.7	78.7	78.3	77.9
	Female	per cent	47.3	47.8	48.5	48.8	49.8	50.3	50.6	50.6	50.8	51.4	50.9	50.6
Labour force	Total	millions	224.4	229.4	235.1	239.9	247.1	252.5	258.2	262.7	267.8	273.9	277.2	280.7
	Male	millions	138.4	140.7	143.4	145.7	149.0	151.7	154.6	157.1	160.0	162.8	165.0	167.2
	Female	millions	86.0	88.7	91.7	94.1	98.0	100.9	103.6	105.5	107.8	111.1	112.2	113.5
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	57.3	57.7	57.7	57.8	58.8	59.2	59.8	60.0	60.3	59.8	59.8	59.8
	Male	per cent	73.4	73.4	73.0	73.1	73.8	73.9	74.4	74.4	74.6	73.7	73.7	73.7
	Female	per cent	41.9	42.7	43.1	43.3	44.4	45.2	45.9	46.2	46.5	46.5	46.5	46.5
Employment	Total	millions	203.8	209.4	213.7	218.4	226.3	232.5	239.4	244.6	250.4	253.1	257.7	262.4
	Male	millions	127.7	130.3	132.2	134.9	138.9	141.8	145.6	148.4	151.6	152.5	155.3	158.1
	Female	millions	76.1	79.1	81.5	83.5	87.4	90.7	93.9	96.2	98.8	100.6	102.4	104.3
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	9.2	8.7	9.1	8.9	8.4	7.9	7.3	6.9	6.5	7.6	7.0	6.5
	Male	per cent	7.7	7.4	7.8	7.4	6.8	6.5	5.9	5.5	5.3	6.3	5.9	5.4
	Female	per cent	11.5	10.8	11.1	11.3	10.9	10.1	9.3	8.9	8.3	9.4	8.7	8.1
Unemployment	Total	millions	20.6	20.0	21.4	21.4	20.8	20.1	18.8	18.1	17.4	20.8	19.5	18.3
	Male	millions	10.7	10.5	11.2	10.8	10.1	9.8	9.1	8.7	8.4	10.3	9.7	9.0
	Female	millions	9.9	9.6	10.2	10.6	10.6	10.2	9.7	9.4	9.0	10.5	9.8	9.2
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent						12.5	11.8	11.4	11.0	12.2	11.6	11.1
	Male	per cent						9.2	8.6	8.2	7.9	9.1	8.6	8.2
	Female	per cent						17.3	16.4	15.9	15.4	16.5	15.8	15.1
Potential labour force	Total	millions						13.3	13.3	13.5	13.6	14.3	14.3	14.4
	Male	millions						4.5	4.5	4.6	4.6	4.9	5.0	5.0
	Female	millions						8.7	8.8	8.9	9.0	9.4	9.4	9.4
Extreme working poverty rate	Total	per cent	8.9	8.6	8.3	7.6	6.8	6.6	5.2	4.6	4.2	3.9	3.5	3.2
Moderate working poverty rate	Total	per cent	10.9	11.0	11.1	10.5	9.6	9.2	7.9	7.3	6.9	6.7	6.4	5.9
Extreme working poverty	Total	millions	18.0	18.1	17.8	16.7	15.3	15.2	12.4	11.2	10.5	9.9	9.0	8.4
Moderate working poverty	Total	millions	22.3	23.0	23.8	23.0	21.8	21.5	18.9	17.9	17.1	16.9	16.5	15.5
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	60.0	59.8	59.7	59.6	60.1	60.6	61.3	62.1	62.7	62.4	62.7	63.0
Employers	Total	per cent	4.3	4.4	4.4	4.3	4.4	4.6	4.6	4.4	4.6	4.5	4.3	4.1
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	28.4	28.7	29.0	29.1	28.7	28.3	27.8	27.6	27.3	27.7	27.7	27.9
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	7.2	7.1	6.9	6.9	6.7	6.6	6.2	5.9	5.4	5.4	5.2	5.0
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	1.5	-2.0	-1.8	-0.3	2.5	1.4	2.2	3.2	1.5	-3.1	4.0	2.6

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (cont'd)

Indicator	By sex	Units	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	64.5	64.3	64.0	64.1	64.0	64.1	64.1	64.0	64.0	63.9	63.8	63.8
	Male	per cent	78.2	77.9	77.7	77.5	77.2	77.1	77.0	76.9	76.8	76.7	76.6	76.5
	Female	per cent	51.4	51.3	51.0	51.2	51.4	51.7	51.7	51.7	51.6	51.6	51.6	51.6
Labour force	Total	millions	288.0	291.9	295.5	300.6	304.9	309.9	314.2	318.4	322.5	326.4	330.1	333.7
	Male	millions	170.7	172.9	175.3	177.9	179.8	182.3	184.7	187.1	189.4	191.6	193.7	195.8
	Female	millions	117.3	119.0	120.3	122.8	125.1	127.6	129.5	131.3	133.0	134.7	136.4	138.0
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	60.4	60.2	60.1	59.8	59.0	58.9	58.9	58.9	59.0	59.0	58.9	58.9
	Male	per cent	73.9	73.7	73.5	73.1	72.0	71.7	71.7	71.7	71.7	71.7	71.6	71.5
	Female	per cent	47.4	47.3	47.2	47.1	46.7	46.7	46.7	46.7	46.7	46.8	46.8	46.8
Employment	Total	millions	269.5	273.4	277.4	280.7	281.2	285.0	289.0	292.9	297.2	301.2	304.8	308.3
	Male	millions	161.4	163.5	166.0	167.7	167.6	169.5	171.9	174.3	176.8	179.1	181.0	183.0
	Female	millions	108.1	109.9	111.5	113.0	113.6	115.4	117.1	118.6	120.4	122.1	123.8	125.2
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	6.4	6.3	6.1	6.6	7.8	8.1	8.0	8.0	7.8	7.7	7.7	7.6
	Male	per cent	5.4	5.4	5.3	5.7	6.8	7.0	7.0	6.9	6.7	6.6	6.6	6.5
	Female	per cent	7.8	7.7	7.3	8.0	9.2	9.6	9.6	9.7	9.5	9.4	9.3	9.2
Unemployment	Total	millions	18.4	18.5	18.1	19.9	23.7	25.0	25.3	25.5	25.3	25.2	25.3	25.5
	Male	millions	9.3	9.3	9.3	10.2	12.2	12.7	12.9	12.8	12.6	12.6	12.7	12.8
	Female	millions	9.2	9.1	8.8	9.8	11.5	12.2	12.4	12.7	12.6	12.6	12.6	12.7
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent	10.9	10.6	10.2	10.8	12.2	12.7	12.7	12.6	12.4	12.3	12.3	12.2
	Male	per cent	8.2	8.0	7.9	8.3	9.6	10.0	10.0	9.9	9.6	9.6	9.6	9.5
	Female	per cent	14.7	14.1	13.5	14.2	15.7	16.3	16.3	16.4	16.2	16.1	15.9	15.9
Potential labour force	Total	millions	14.6	13.9	13.6	14.0	15.3	16.5	16.7	16.8	16.9	17.1	17.3	17.5
	Male	millions	5.1	5.0	4.9	5.1	5.6	6.2	6.2	6.3	6.3	6.3	6.4	6.5
	Female	millions	9.5	9.0	8.7	8.9	9.7	10.3	10.4	10.6	10.7	10.8	10.9	11.0
Extreme working poverty rate	Total	per cent	2.8	2.6	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.0	1.9	1.8
Moderate working poverty rate	Total	per cent	5.5	5.1	4.9	4.9	4.8	4.7	4.5	4.4	4.2	4.1	3.9	3.8
Extreme working poverty	Total	millions	7.6	7.2	6.7	6.5	6.4	6.5	6.5	6.3	6.1	5.9	5.8	5.6
Moderate working poverty	Total	millions	14.9	13.8	13.5	13.7	13.4	13.3	13.1	12.8	12.6	12.3	12.0	11.7
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	63.7	63.8	64.1	63.7	63.4	63.0	63.1	63.2	63.3	63.3	63.4	63.5
Employers	Total	per cent	4.3	4.2	4.1	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.4	4.4	4.4
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	27.0	27.2	27.1	27.6	28.0	28.3	28.3	28.2	28.2	28.1	28.1	28.1
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	5.0	4.8	4.7	4.6	4.4	4.4	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.2	4.1	4.1
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	0.2	1.4	-0.2	-1.0	-0.7	-0.1	0.7	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.5

ARAB STATES

Indicator	By sex	Units	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	48.8	48.4	48.3	48.3	48.3	48.3	48.4	48.7	49.0	49.2	49.7	50.0
	Male	per cent	76.3	75.9	75.5	75.3	75.1	75.0	74.8	74.8	75.1	75.3	75.8	76.1
	Female	per cent	17.3	17.0	16.9	17.0	16.8	16.7	16.8	16.9	16.9	16.7	17.0	17.2
Labour force	Total	millions	28.5	29.3	30.3	31.4	32.7	34.1	35.8	37.8	39.9	41.8	44.0	45.9
	Male	millions	23.7	24.5	25.3	26.3	27.4	28.7	30.2	31.8	33.7	35.5	37.3	38.8
	Female	millions	4.7	4.8	4.9	5.1	5.2	5.4	5.7	5.9	6.2	6.3	6.7	7.0
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	44.9	44.3	44.0	44.2	44.1	44.4	44.6	45.0	45.3	45.6	46.0	46.4
	Male	per cent	70.8	70.0	69.3	69.4	69.3	69.5	69.6	70.0	70.3	70.7	71.2	71.6
	Female	per cent	15.5	15.0	14.8	14.9	14.7	14.5	14.6	14.7	14.7	14.4	14.6	14.7
Employment	Total	millions	26.2	26.8	27.6	28.8	29.9	31.3	33.0	34.9	36.9	38.7	40.8	42.6
	Male	millions	22.0	22.6	23.3	24.3	25.3	26.6	28.1	29.8	31.5	33.3	35.0	36.6
	Female	millions	4.2	4.2	4.3	4.5	4.6	4.7	4.9	5.1	5.4	5.5	5.7	6.0
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	7.8	8.5	8.9	8.5	8.5	8.2	7.9	7.5	7.5	7.3	7.3	7.2
	Male	per cent	7.2	7.8	8.1	7.8	7.7	7.3	6.9	6.4	6.5	6.2	6.1	5.9
	Female	per cent	10.8	12.1	12.6	12.2	12.9	13.3	13.1	13.2	13.2	13.8	14.1	14.6
Unemployment	Total	millions	2.2	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	3.0	3.1	3.2	3.3
	Male	millions	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.3
	Female	millions	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent						15.4	15.0	14.5	14.5	14.3	14.2	14.0
	Male	per cent						11.7	11.2	10.6	10.6	10.2	9.9	9.6
	Female	per cent						31.9	31.6	31.6	31.8	32.9	33.3	33.9
Potential labour force	Total	millions						2.9	3.0	3.1	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.7
	Male	millions						1.4	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6
	Female	millions						1.5	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.0
Extreme working poverty rate	Total	per cent	1.0	0.8	0.8	1.0	0.8	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	2.0
Moderate working poverty rate	Total	per cent	8.0	7.6	7.6	9.1	7.2	7.4	7.1	7.0	6.8	6.9	6.9	7.7
Extreme working poverty	Total	millions	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.8
Moderate working poverty	Total	millions	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.6	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.7	2.8	3.3
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	73.2	73.3	73.6	73.4	74.4	75.2	75.9	76.2	78.2	78.7	79.7	80.2
Employers	Total	per cent	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.4	4.3	4.3	4.4	4.3	4.1	3.7	3.6	3.6
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	16.6	16.7	16.8	17.1	16.6	16.1	15.6	15.5	14.3	14.6	13.9	13.5
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	5.8	5.7	5.4	5.2	4.7	4.4	4.1	4.0	3.5	3.0	2.8	2.7
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	1.9	-1.4	-3.7	-0.8	8.0	0.9	1.0	-2.1	0.6	-5.1	-0.2	2.7

ARAB STATES (cont'd)

Indicator	By sex	Units	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	50.3	50.4	50.6	51.0	51.0	51.2	51.2	51.2	51.2	50.9	50.6	50.4
	Male	per cent	76.4	76.7	76.9	77.2	77.0	77.2	77.2	77.2	77.3	77.0	76.7	76.5
	Female	per cent	17.4	17.3	17.5	18.0	18.2	18.4	18.3	18.3	18.2	18.1	18.0	17.9
Labour force	Total	millions	47.6	49.2	50.8	52.5	53.9	55.5	56.9	58.3	59.7	60.8	62.0	63.3
	Male	millions	40.3	41.7	43.0	44.3	45.4	46.7	47.9	49.1	50.3	51.3	52.3	53.3
	Female	millions	7.3	7.5	7.8	8.2	8.5	8.8	9.0	9.2	9.4	9.6	9.8	10.0
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	46.7	46.8	47.0	47.4	47.4	47.5	47.5	47.5	47.5	47.2	46.9	46.7
	Male	per cent	72.1	72.3	72.6	72.9	72.7	72.8	72.8	72.8	72.9	72.7	72.3	72.1
	Female	per cent	14.7	14.7	14.8	15.2	15.4	15.5	15.5	15.4	15.3	15.2	15.1	14.9
Employment	Total	millions	44.2	45.7	47.2	48.8	50.1	51.5	52.7	54.0	55.3	56.4	57.5	58.6
	Male	millions	38.1	39.3	40.6	41.9	42.9	44.1	45.1	46.3	47.4	48.4	49.3	50.2
	Female	millions	6.2	6.3	6.6	6.9	7.2	7.4	7.6	7.7	7.9	8.0	8.2	8.4
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.2	7.2	7.3	7.3	7.3	7.3	7.4	7.4
	Male	per cent	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.7	5.8	5.7	5.6	5.6	5.7	5.7
	Female	per cent	15.3	15.3	15.5	15.5	15.6	15.5	15.6	15.8	16.0	16.1	16.2	16.3
Unemployment	Total	millions	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.9	4.0	4.2	4.3	4.3	4.4	4.6	4.7
	Male	millions	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.5	2.6	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.0
	Female	millions	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent	13.9	13.9	13.8	13.8	13.9	13.9	14.1	14.1	14.1	14.1	14.3	14.4
	Male	per cent	9.2	9.2	9.1	9.0	9.1	9.3	9.4	9.4	9.4	9.5	9.6	9.6
	Female	per cent	34.8	34.9	34.7	34.6	34.4	34.0	34.0	34.2	34.3	34.4	34.6	34.8
Potential labour force	Total	millions	3.8	3.9	4.0	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.5	4.6	4.7	4.9	5.0	5.2
	Male	millions	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.3
	Female	millions	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.8
Extreme working poverty rate	Total	per cent	2.6	3.6	3.9	5.4	6.8	7.6	7.9	8.2	8.3	8.6	8.9	9.2
Moderate working poverty rate	Total	per cent	7.8	7.8	7.6	8.1	8.2	8.2	7.9	7.8	7.5	7.4	7.3	7.2
Extreme working poverty	Total	millions	1.1	1.7	1.8	2.7	3.4	3.9	4.2	4.4	4.6	4.9	5.1	5.4
Moderate working poverty	Total	millions	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.9	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.2
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	80.8	81.2	81.5	81.4	81.4	81.2	81.2	81.2	81.1	81.0	80.9	80.7
Employers	Total	per cent	3.5	3.4	3.5	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	13.0	12.7	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.7	12.7	12.7	12.7	12.9	13.0	13.1
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	1.7	0.1	-0.4	-0.6	0.3	-3.3	0.2	0.7	1.1	1.6	1.4	1.4

EASTERN ASIA

Indicator	By sex	Units	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	75.0	74.4	73.7	72.9	72.3	71.7	71.2	70.8	70.4	70.0	69.6	69.4
	Male	per cent	82.1	81.5	80.8	80.1	79.4	78.9	78.5	78.2	77.8	77.5	77.1	77.0
	Female	per cent	67.7	67.1	66.4	65.6	64.9	64.3	63.8	63.3	62.8	62.4	61.9	61.7
Labour force	Total	millions	866.3	871.8	878.3	885.4	892.4	898.6	903.4	908.6	912.6	915.2	916.8	920.8
	Male	millions	480.5	483.9	488.1	492.6	497.0	501.1	504.4	508.1	511.1	513.3	515.0	517.4
	Female	millions	385.8	387.8	390.2	392.8	395.4	397.5	399.0	400.5	401.5	402.0	401.8	403.4
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	72.4	71.5	70.5	69.6	69.0	68.5	68.1	67.8	67.3	66.7	66.5	66.3
	Male	per cent	79.0	77.9	77.0	76.0	75.5	75.0	74.7	74.5	74.0	73.5	73.3	73.2
	Female	per cent	65.7	64.8	63.9	62.9	62.4	61.8	61.3	61.0	60.4	59.8	59.4	59.3
Employment	Total	millions	836.3	837.6	840.6	844.3	852.3	858.5	864.2	870.2	871.7	872.2	875.4	879.8
	Male	millions	462.2	463.0	465.0	467.4	472.4	476.5	480.3	484.5	485.9	486.7	489.4	492.1
	Female	millions	374.1	374.6	375.6	376.9	379.9	382.0	383.9	385.7	385.8	385.5	386.0	387.7
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	3.5	3.9	4.3	4.6	4.5	4.5	4.3	4.2	4.5	4.7	4.5	4.5
	Male	per cent	3.8	4.3	4.7	5.1	4.9	4.9	4.8	4.6	4.9	5.2	5.0	4.9
	Female	per cent	3.0	3.4	3.8	4.1	3.9	3.9	3.8	3.7	3.9	4.1	3.9	3.9
Unemployment	Total	millions	30.0	34.2	37.7	41.1	40.1	40.1	39.2	38.4	40.9	43.0	41.4	41.0
	Male	millions	18.3	20.9	23.1	25.2	24.6	24.6	24.1	23.6	25.2	26.5	25.6	25.3
	Female	millions	11.6	13.3	14.6	15.9	15.6	15.5	15.1	14.8	15.7	16.5	15.8	15.7
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent						6.8	6.7	6.6	6.9	7.2	7.0	7.0
	Male	per cent						6.5	6.4	6.3	6.6	6.9	6.7	6.7
	Female	per cent						7.1	7.1	7.0	7.3	7.5	7.4	7.4
Potential labour force	Total	millions						22.4	22.9	23.3	24.0	24.5	24.8	24.9
	Male	millions						8.6	8.8	9.0	9.3	9.5	9.6	9.7
	Female	millions						13.9	14.1	14.4	14.7	15.0	15.1	15.2
Extreme working poverty rate	Total	per cent	36.0	33.5	30.3	27.1	22.9	18.9	16.9	15.5	15.3	13.7	12.4	9.1
Moderate working poverty rate	Total	per cent	26.7	26.1	25.2	24.4	23.4	22.0	20.3	18.6	17.1	15.9	14.7	13.4
Extreme working poverty	Total	millions	277.7	258.8	235.7	211.3	180.2	149.9	135.2	124.7	123.6	110.7	100.5	74.3
Moderate working poverty	Total	millions	205.8	201.9	195.5	190.8	184.1	175.1	162.7	149.5	138.3	128.5	119.2	109.6
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	43.4	44.2	45.0	45.9	46.8	47.7	48.6	49.5	50.3	51.0	51.8	52.5
Employers	Total	per cent	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	32.9	32.7	32.6	32.3	32.1	31.8	31.4	31.2	31.0	30.8	30.5	30.3
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	21.1	20.4	19.7	19.1	18.4	17.8	17.1	16.5	15.9	15.4	14.8	14.3
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	4.9	3.9	4.8	5.3	5.7	6.3	7.2	8.4	5.3	3.9	8.4	6.0

Note: Working poverty rates exclude Japan.

EASTERN ASIA (cont'd)

Indicator	By sex	Units	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	69.3	69.1	69.0	68.8	68.5	68.3	67.9	67.4	66.9	66.4	65.9	65.4
	Male	per cent	76.8	76.6	76.5	76.2	76.0	75.7	75.4	75.0	74.5	74.1	73.6	73.2
	Female	per cent	61.6	61.5	61.3	61.1	60.9	60.6	60.1	59.6	59.1	58.5	58.0	57.5
Labour force	Total	millions	924.3	927.4	929.9	931.3	931.9	932.5	930.5	927.8	924.6	921.4	917.7	913.6
	Male	millions	519.4	521.0	522.5	523.4	523.9	524.4	524.1	523.5	522.5	521.4	520.0	518.3
	Female	millions	405.0	406.4	407.4	407.9	407.9	408.0	406.3	404.3	402.1	400.0	397.7	395.3
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	66.2	66.0	65.9	65.7	65.6	65.4	65.0	64.6	64.1	63.6	63.2	62.7
	Male	per cent	73.0	72.8	72.7	72.5	72.4	72.2	71.9	71.5	71.1	70.7	70.3	69.8
	Female	per cent	59.1	59.0	58.9	58.7	58.6	58.4	57.9	57.4	56.9	56.4	55.9	55.4
Employment	Total	millions	882.6	885.8	888.4	889.9	891.3	893.0	891.2	888.6	885.9	882.7	879.5	875.5
	Male	millions	493.6	495.3	496.9	497.8	498.9	500.1	499.8	499.1	498.3	497.2	496.1	494.5
	Female	millions	389.0	390.5	391.5	392.0	392.5	393.0	391.4	389.5	387.6	385.5	383.4	381.1
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.4	4.3	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.2
	Male	per cent	5.0	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.8	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.6
	Female	per cent	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.8	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6
Unemployment	Total	millions	41.7	41.6	41.5	41.4	40.5	39.5	39.3	39.2	38.7	38.7	38.2	38.1
	Male	millions	25.8	25.7	25.6	25.6	25.1	24.4	24.3	24.3	24.1	24.2	23.9	23.8
	Female	millions	15.9	15.9	15.9	15.8	15.5	15.1	15.0	14.9	14.6	14.5	14.3	14.2
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent	7.0	7.0	7.0	7.0	6.9	6.8	6.9	6.9	6.9	7.0	7.0	7.1
	Male	per cent	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.6	6.6	6.6	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.8
	Female	per cent	7.4	7.4	7.4	7.4	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.3	7.3	7.4	7.4	7.4
Potential labour force	Total	millions	25.1	25.3	25.5	25.8	25.7	26.0	26.5	26.9	27.3	27.7	28.1	28.5
	Male	millions	9.9	9.9	10.1	10.2	10.6	10.7	11.0	11.2	11.4	11.7	11.9	12.1
	Female	millions	15.3	15.4	15.4	15.6	15.1	15.3	15.5	15.7	15.9	16.1	16.2	16.4
Extreme working poverty rate	Total	per cent	7.5	2.4	1.9	1.2	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7
Moderate working poverty rate	Total	per cent	12.0	10.1	8.3	6.9	6.3	5.9	5.5	5.2	4.9	4.6	4.4	4.2
Extreme working poverty	Total	millions	61.6	20.0	15.6	9.8	8.9	8.2	7.7	7.2	6.8	6.3	6.0	5.6
Moderate working poverty	Total	millions	98.5	82.9	68.8	56.6	52.3	48.5	45.5	42.7	40.3	37.9	35.7	33.7
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	53.2	53.8	54.4	54.9	55.5	56.1	56.6	57.1	57.6	58.0	58.4	58.8
Employers	Total	per cent	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	30.2	30.0	29.9	29.8	29.6	29.4	29.3	29.1	29.0	28.8	28.7	28.5
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	13.8	13.3	12.9	12.4	12.0	11.6	11.2	10.8	10.5	10.2	9.9	9.6
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	5.4	5.5	5.1	4.9	4.9	5.3	5.4	5.1	4.8	4.8	4.6	4.6

SOUTH-EASTERN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

Indicator	By sex	Units	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	69.0	68.8	68.2	67.8	67.8	67.4	67.3	68.1	68.2	68.2	68.2	68.6
	Male	per cent	81.3	81.4	81.2	80.7	81.1	80.5	80.4	80.5	80.4	80.2	80.2	80.5
	Female	per cent	57.1	56.4	55.5	55.3	54.9	54.7	54.6	56.1	56.3	56.3	56.5	56.8
Labour force	Total	millions	262.9	267.3	270.1	273.7	278.7	282.0	286.9	295.8	301.4	306.6	312.0	318.9
	Male	millions	152.7	156.0	158.6	160.5	164.3	166.1	169.2	172.6	175.6	178.5	181.5	185.4
	Female	millions	110.2	111.2	111.5	113.2	114.4	115.9	117.8	123.2	125.8	128.1	130.5	133.5
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	66.3	65.9	65.4	65.1	65.0	64.4	64.5	65.2	65.4	65.6	65.9	66.4
	Male	per cent	78.1	78.3	78.0	77.7	77.9	77.2	77.2	77.2	77.1	77.2	77.6	78.0
	Female	per cent	54.7	53.9	53.1	52.8	52.4	52.0	52.1	53.4	53.9	54.2	54.5	55.0
Employment	Total	millions	252.3	256.2	259.1	262.6	266.9	269.5	274.7	282.9	288.9	295.1	301.6	308.9
	Male	millions	146.6	150.1	152.4	154.5	157.9	159.2	162.3	165.5	168.5	171.9	175.6	179.6
	Female	millions	105.7	106.2	106.7	108.1	109.0	110.2	112.4	117.4	120.4	123.3	126.0	129.3
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	4.0	4.1	4.1	4.1	4.2	4.4	4.3	4.4	4.1	3.7	3.3	3.1
	Male	per cent	4.0	3.8	3.9	3.7	3.9	4.1	4.1	4.1	4.1	3.7	3.3	3.1
	Female	per cent	4.1	4.5	4.3	4.5	4.7	4.9	4.6	4.8	4.3	3.8	3.5	3.2
Unemployment	Total	millions	10.6	11.0	11.0	11.1	11.8	12.5	12.2	12.9	12.5	11.5	10.4	10.0
	Male	millions	6.1	6.0	6.2	6.0	6.4	6.8	6.9	7.0	7.1	6.7	5.9	5.8
	Female	millions	4.6	5.1	4.8	5.1	5.4	5.7	5.4	5.9	5.3	4.8	4.5	4.2
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent						8.1	7.9	7.9	7.8	7.5	7.1	6.7
	Male	per cent						6.0	6.0	5.9	6.0	5.8	5.2	5.0
	Female	per cent						11.0	10.6	10.7	10.3	9.8	9.5	9.0
Potential labour force	Total	millions						11.2	11.4	11.5	12.1	12.4	12.5	12.3
	Male	millions						3.3	3.4	3.3	3.6	3.9	3.8	3.7
	Female	millions						7.9	8.0	8.2	8.5	8.6	8.7	8.6
Extreme working poverty rate	Total	per cent	27.9	26.4	22.2	19.9	18.6	16.7	18.0	15.7	14.6	11.6	10.0	9.0
Moderate working poverty rate	Total	per cent	31.4	31.2	29.9	29.0	28.6	28.4	27.7	26.6	26.5	25.1	21.9	21.2
Extreme working poverty	Total	millions	67.3	64.6	54.9	50.0	47.4	42.9	47.2	42.3	40.3	32.6	28.7	26.4
Moderate working poverty	Total	millions	75.8	76.3	74.1	72.7	72.9	73.1	72.5	71.7	73.0	70.7	62.9	62.5
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	36.4	38.0	38.0	38.1	39.9	41.1	41.8	42.3	42.8	43.4	44.2	45.4
Employers	Total	per cent	2.7	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.1	3.2	3.5	3.3	3.2
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	38.9	37.4	37.8	37.5	37.3	37.0	37.2	37.3	37.2	37.0	36.1	35.2
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	22.1	21.6	21.1	21.5	19.7	18.9	17.9	17.3	16.8	16.1	16.5	16.3
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	3.1	1.4	3.7	3.8	4.2	4.3	3.4	3.0	2.1	0.1	4.2	2.0

Note: Working poverty rates exclude Australia and New Zealand.

SOUTH-EASTERN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC (cont'd)

Indicator	By sex	Units	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	68.6	68.3	68.2	67.9	67.4	67.3	67.2	67.1	67.0	66.9	66.8	66.7
	Male	per cent	80.6	80.3	80.1	79.8	79.2	78.9	78.8	78.7	78.5	78.4	78.2	78.1
	Female	per cent	56.9	56.5	56.5	56.3	56.0	55.8	55.8	55.8	55.7	55.7	55.6	55.5
Labour force	Total	millions	324.5	327.7	332.3	336.1	338.6	342.5	347.1	351.4	355.7	359.8	363.8	367.6
	Male	millions	188.6	190.7	193.2	195.4	196.6	198.9	201.4	203.8	206.1	208.4	210.6	212.7
	Female	millions	135.9	137.0	139.1	140.7	142.0	143.7	145.7	147.6	149.5	151.4	153.2	154.9
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	66.7	66.3	66.2	65.9	65.4	65.3	65.2	65.1	65.0	64.9	64.7	64.6
	Male	per cent	78.3	77.9	77.8	77.3	76.7	76.6	76.4	76.3	76.2	76.0	75.8	75.6
	Female	per cent	55.3	54.9	55.0	54.6	54.4	54.3	54.2	54.2	54.1	54.0	53.9	53.8
Employment	Total	millions	315.1	318.3	322.9	326.0	328.6	332.6	336.8	341.0	345.0	348.9	352.6	356.2
	Male	millions	183.1	185.0	187.6	189.4	190.5	192.9	195.3	197.6	199.9	202.0	204.1	206.0
	Female	millions	132.0	133.2	135.4	136.6	138.1	139.7	141.5	143.4	145.1	146.9	148.6	150.2
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	2.9	2.9	2.8	3.0	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.1	3.1
	Male	per cent	2.9	3.0	2.9	3.1	3.1	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.1	3.1	3.1
	Female	per cent	2.9	2.8	2.7	2.9	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.1
Unemployment	Total	millions	9.4	9.5	9.3	10.1	10.0	10.0	10.2	10.4	10.7	10.9	11.1	11.4
	Male	millions	5.5	5.7	5.6	6.0	6.1	6.0	6.1	6.2	6.3	6.4	6.5	6.6
	Female	millions	3.9	3.8	3.7	4.1	3.9	4.0	4.1	4.3	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.7
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent	6.4	6.5	6.4	6.5	6.6	6.3	6.3	6.4	6.4	6.5	6.5	6.6
	Male	per cent	4.8	4.9	4.9	4.9	5.1	4.9	5.0	5.0	5.0	5.1	5.1	5.2
	Female	per cent	8.6	8.6	8.4	8.6	8.6	8.1	8.1	8.2	8.3	8.3	8.4	8.4
Potential labour force	Total	millions	12.3	12.6	12.7	12.6	13.3	12.3	12.5	12.8	13.0	13.2	13.5	13.7
	Male	millions	3.7	3.9	4.0	3.8	4.2	4.1	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.4	4.5	4.6
	Female	millions	8.5	8.7	8.8	8.8	9.1	8.3	8.4	8.5	8.7	8.8	9.0	9.1
Extreme working poverty rate	Total	per cent	7.8	6.9	6.2	5.5	5.0	4.4	4.0	3.7	3.4	3.1	2.8	2.6
Moderate working poverty rate	Total	per cent	20.8	20.2	19.3	17.4	16.3	14.7	13.9	13.1	12.4	11.7	11.0	10.3
Extreme working poverty	Total	millions	23.6	21.1	19.0	17.1	15.6	14.0	13.0	12.0	11.1	10.3	9.5	8.7
Moderate working poverty	Total	millions	62.7	61.5	59.7	54.1	51.0	46.6	44.7	42.8	40.8	38.9	37.0	35.2
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	46.6	47.7	48.3	50.2	50.9	51.2	51.6	52.1	52.5	53.0	53.4	53.8
Employers	Total	per cent	3.3	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.3	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.2
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	34.3	34.1	33.4	32.8	32.5	32.3	32.3	32.3	32.3	32.3	32.3	32.3
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	15.8	15.0	15.1	13.6	13.4	13.4	12.9	12.4	12.0	11.5	11.1	10.6
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	3.6	3.6	2.8	3.5	3.6	3.5	3.4	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.3	3.3

SOUTHERN ASIA

Indicator	By sex	Units	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	56.8	56.9	57.0	57.2	57.5	57.6	56.8	56.1	55.3	54.7	54.1	53.4
	Male	per cent	83.0	82.9	82.9	83.0	83.0	83.0	82.4	81.9	81.3	80.9	80.4	80.0
	Female	per cent	29.1	29.4	29.7	30.1	30.5	30.9	29.9	28.9	28.0	27.3	26.5	25.5
Labour force	Total	millions	529.7	544.1	559.2	575.3	591.6	607.2	611.8	616.6	620.6	626.6	631.9	635.9
	Male	millions	397.8	407.6	417.7	428.2	438.8	448.8	455.1	461.6	467.5	474.3	480.7	487.5
	Female	millions	131.9	136.6	141.6	147.1	152.7	158.4	156.7	155.0	153.1	152.3	151.1	148.5
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	55.1	55.1	55.1	55.3	55.5	55.6	55.1	54.6	53.9	53.1	52.6	51.9
	Male	per cent	80.4	80.3	80.2	80.3	80.5	80.5	80.2	79.9	79.4	78.7	78.4	78.0
	Female	per cent	28.2	28.4	28.6	28.9	29.2	29.4	28.6	27.8	27.0	26.2	25.5	24.5
Employment	Total	millions	513.8	527.0	540.3	555.4	571.8	586.5	593.4	599.9	604.3	608.2	614.1	617.8
	Male	millions	385.7	394.7	403.9	414.2	425.6	435.5	443.2	450.7	456.7	461.7	468.6	475.1
	Female	millions	128.1	132.2	136.4	141.2	146.3	151.0	150.2	149.2	147.7	146.5	145.5	142.7
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	3.0	3.2	3.4	3.5	3.3	3.4	3.0	2.7	2.6	2.9	2.8	2.9
	Male	per cent	3.0	3.1	3.3	3.3	3.0	3.0	2.6	2.3	2.3	2.6	2.5	2.5
	Female	per cent	2.9	3.2	3.7	4.0	4.3	4.6	4.1	3.8	3.5	3.8	3.7	3.9
Unemployment	Total	millions	15.9	17.2	18.9	19.9	19.8	20.7	18.4	16.7	16.2	18.4	17.8	18.1
	Male	millions	12.1	12.8	13.7	14.0	13.3	13.3	11.9	10.8	10.8	12.6	12.2	12.3
	Female	millions	3.8	4.4	5.2	5.9	6.5	7.4	6.5	5.9	5.4	5.9	5.6	5.8
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent							6.6	6.3	6.0	6.0	6.4	6.5
	Male	per cent							4.5	4.2	3.9	4.0	4.4	4.3
	Female	per cent							12.3	12.0	11.9	11.9	12.4	12.6
Potential labour force	Total	millions						20.9	21.3	21.8	22.4	23.4	24.2	24.9
	Male	millions						7.0	7.3	7.6	8.0	8.6	8.9	9.4
	Female	millions						13.9	14.0	14.3	14.5	14.8	15.3	15.6
Extreme working poverty rate	Total	per cent	37.0	36.3	35.4	34.0	32.5	30.9	29.4	27.8	26.8	25.3	23.8	20.3
Moderate working poverty rate	Total	per cent	36.4	36.5	36.6	36.8	37.0	37.2	37.5	37.7	37.8	37.8	37.9	37.3
Extreme working poverty	Total	millions	190.2	191.1	191.5	189.0	185.8	181.4	174.2	167.0	162.2	153.9	146.4	125.2
Moderate working poverty	Total	millions	187.0	192.5	198.0	204.5	211.6	217.9	222.3	226.0	228.4	230.1	232.5	230.7
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	20.3	20.4	20.8	20.9	20.9	21.1	21.3	21.6	21.6	21.9	22.2	23.3
Employers	Total	per cent	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.4
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	59.5	59.1	58.3	57.9	57.2	56.8	57.2	57.5	57.9	58.1	58.6	57.9
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	19.2	19.5	19.8	20.0	20.6	20.7	20.1	19.6	19.2	18.7	18.0	17.4
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	1.9	0.9	2.0	4.6	3.8	5.0	6.7	7.6	2.4	5.7	7.3	5.0

SOUTHERN ASIA (cont'd)

Indicator	By sex	Units	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	52.8	52.8	52.8	52.9	52.9	53.1	53.0	52.9	52.8	52.7	52.7	52.6
	Male	per cent	79.6	79.5	79.3	79.2	79.0	78.9	78.9	78.8	78.7	78.7	78.6	78.5
	Female	per cent	24.6	24.8	25.0	25.4	25.7	26.0	25.9	25.8	25.7	25.6	25.5	25.4
Labour force	Total	millions	640.7	654.0	666.2	680.4	693.3	707.4	718.4	729.5	740.7	751.1	761.8	772.6
	Male	millions	494.9	503.8	511.9	521.0	529.2	538.0	546.8	555.6	564.6	573.0	581.6	590.3
	Female	millions	145.9	150.2	154.3	159.4	164.1	169.4	171.7	173.9	176.1	178.1	180.2	182.3
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	51.1	51.1	51.1	51.2	51.2	51.4	51.4	51.3	51.2	51.1	51.0	50.9
	Male	per cent	77.4	77.2	77.1	77.0	76.8	76.8	76.7	76.7	76.6	76.6	76.5	76.4
	Female	per cent	23.6	23.7	23.9	24.1	24.4	24.8	24.8	24.7	24.6	24.5	24.4	24.3
Employment	Total	millions	621.0	632.8	645.6	658.0	670.4	685.2	696.1	706.9	717.8	728.1	738.6	749.0
	Male	millions	481.3	489.5	498.1	506.3	514.3	523.5	532.1	540.8	549.5	557.7	566.1	574.5
	Female	millions	139.7	143.3	147.5	151.7	156.1	161.8	164.0	166.1	168.3	170.3	172.5	174.4
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	3.1	3.3	3.1	3.3	3.3	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1
	Male	per cent	2.7	2.9	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7
	Female	per cent	4.2	4.6	4.4	4.9	4.8	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.4	4.4	4.3	4.3
Unemployment	Total	millions	19.8	21.3	20.6	22.4	22.9	22.2	22.3	22.6	22.9	23.0	23.3	23.7
	Male	millions	13.6	14.4	13.8	14.7	14.9	14.5	14.6	14.8	15.0	15.2	15.5	15.8
	Female	millions	6.2	6.9	6.8	7.7	7.9	7.7	7.7	7.8	7.8	7.8	7.8	7.9
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent	6.8	7.0	6.9	7.1	7.2	7.0	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9
	Male	per cent	4.7	4.8	4.6	4.8	4.8	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.7
	Female	per cent	13.6	14.0	13.8	14.2	14.2	13.8	13.7	13.7	13.7	13.7	13.6	13.7
Potential labour force	Total	millions	25.9	26.7	27.2	28.1	28.8	29.2	29.6	30.1	30.6	31.0	31.5	32.1
	Male	millions	10.0	10.3	10.5	10.7	10.9	11.0	11.2	11.4	11.6	11.8	12.1	12.3
	Female	millions	15.9	16.4	16.8	17.4	17.9	18.2	18.5	18.7	19.0	19.2	19.5	19.7
Extreme working poverty rate	Total	per cent	17.1	16.2	15.3	14.3	13.5	12.6	11.8	11.0	10.2	9.4	8.7	8.1
Moderate working poverty rate	Total	per cent	36.3	35.5	34.7	33.8	33.0	32.1	31.3	30.3	29.3	28.2	27.1	26.0
Extreme working poverty	Total	millions	106.1	102.4	98.6	94.0	90.2	86.5	81.9	77.4	73.0	68.8	64.6	60.4
Moderate working poverty	Total	millions	225.5	224.9	224.3	222.7	220.9	220.3	217.6	214.1	210.0	205.6	200.5	194.8
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	24.5	24.9	25.2	25.5	25.7	26.1	26.5	26.9	27.4	27.8	28.2	28.6
Employers	Total	per cent	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.0
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	57.1	57.1	57.5	57.6	57.6	57.7	57.7	57.7	57.7	57.7	57.7	57.7
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	17.0	16.4	15.8	15.2	15.0	14.3	13.9	13.4	13.0	12.6	12.2	11.7
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	2.9	3.2	4.5	4.4	5.6	3.9	5.0	4.8	4.7	4.7	4.5	4.4

NORTHERN, SOUTHERN AND WESTERN EUROPE

Indicator	By sex	Units	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	56.6	56.3	56.6	56.9	57.0	57.4	57.6	57.8	58.0	57.9	57.7	57.6
	Male	per cent	66.4	66.0	66.0	66.0	65.9	66.0	66.0	66.0	66.0	65.5	65.1	64.9
	Female	per cent	47.3	47.2	47.8	48.3	48.7	49.2	49.7	50.0	50.4	50.6	50.6	50.8
Labour force	Total	millions	198.9	199.3	201.7	204.1	205.8	208.4	210.6	212.5	214.5	215.1	215.5	216.1
	Male	millions	113.0	113.0	113.8	114.7	115.3	116.3	117.1	117.9	118.6	118.4	118.3	118.2
	Female	millions	85.9	86.3	87.9	89.3	90.5	92.0	93.5	94.6	95.9	96.8	97.2	97.9
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	51.6	51.9	52.0	52.1	52.0	52.4	52.9	53.5	53.7	52.5	52.0	51.9
	Male	per cent	61.3	61.4	61.1	60.8	60.5	60.7	61.0	61.5	61.4	59.4	58.7	58.4
	Female	per cent	42.5	43.0	43.5	43.9	44.0	44.6	45.2	45.9	46.5	46.0	45.7	45.7
Employment	Total	millions	181.4	183.6	185.2	186.7	187.8	190.4	193.4	196.8	198.8	195.2	194.3	194.5
	Male	millions	104.3	105.1	105.4	105.7	105.9	107.1	108.3	109.9	110.4	107.3	106.6	106.4
	Female	millions	77.1	78.5	79.9	81.1	81.9	83.3	85.1	86.9	88.4	87.9	87.7	88.1
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	8.8	7.8	8.2	8.5	8.8	8.6	8.1	7.4	7.3	9.3	9.8	10.0
	Male	per cent	7.7	7.0	7.4	7.9	8.1	8.0	7.5	6.8	6.9	9.3	9.9	9.9
	Female	per cent	10.2	9.0	9.1	9.3	9.6	9.4	9.0	8.1	7.8	9.2	9.8	10.0
Unemployment	Total	millions	17.5	15.6	16.4	17.3	18.0	18.0	17.2	15.7	15.7	19.9	21.2	21.6
	Male	millions	8.7	7.9	8.4	9.1	9.3	9.3	8.8	8.0	8.2	11.0	11.7	11.7
	Female	millions	8.8	7.8	8.0	8.3	8.7	8.7	8.4	7.7	7.5	8.9	9.5	9.8
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent						12.8	12.3	11.5	11.3	13.3	13.9	14.1
	Male	per cent						11.0	10.4	9.7	9.8	12.4	13.0	13.2
	Female	per cent						15.1	14.5	13.6	13.2	14.4	15.0	15.2
Potential labour force	Total	millions						10.0	9.9	9.8	9.7	9.9	10.2	10.4
	Male	millions						3.9	3.8	3.8	3.8	4.1	4.3	4.4
	Female	millions						6.1	6.1	6.0	5.9	5.8	5.9	6.0
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	83.3	83.4	83.5	83.4	83.3	83.5	83.6	83.8	84.0	84.1	83.9	84.1
Employers	Total	per cent	4.9	4.8	4.7	4.8	4.9	4.7	4.8	4.8	4.7	4.7	4.6	4.5
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	9.9	9.9	9.9	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	9.8	9.9	10.2	10.1
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.2
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	2.2	1.0	0.4	0.4	1.9	0.7	1.6	1.2	-0.7	-2.7	2.5	1.4

NORTHERN, SOUTHERN AND WESTERN EUROPE (cont'd)

Indicator	By sex	Units	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	57.8	57.8	57.7	57.7	57.8	57.8	57.7	57.5	57.4	57.1	56.9	56.7
	Male	per cent	64.9	64.6	64.4	64.2	64.2	64.1	63.9	63.6	63.3	63.0	62.7	62.3
	Female	per cent	51.2	51.4	51.5	51.5	51.8	51.9	51.8	51.7	51.6	51.5	51.4	51.3
Labour force	Total	millions	217.4	217.8	218.2	218.6	219.6	220.3	220.4	220.4	220.3	219.9	219.6	219.2
	Male	millions	118.6	118.4	118.3	118.4	118.8	119.0	119.0	118.9	118.7	118.5	118.2	117.8
	Female	millions	98.9	99.5	99.9	100.1	100.9	101.3	101.4	101.5	101.5	101.5	101.4	101.3
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	51.6	51.3	51.6	51.9	52.5	53.0	53.3	53.3	53.3	53.1	52.9	52.6
	Male	per cent	57.8	57.3	57.5	57.9	58.4	58.9	59.2	59.2	59.1	58.8	58.5	58.2
	Female	per cent	45.6	45.6	45.9	46.3	46.9	47.4	47.7	47.8	47.7	47.6	47.5	47.3
Employment	Total	millions	193.8	193.4	194.8	196.7	199.4	201.9	203.5	204.3	204.6	204.3	203.9	203.6
	Male	millions	105.7	105.1	105.7	106.6	108.0	109.3	110.2	110.6	110.7	110.5	110.3	110.0
	Female	millions	88.1	88.3	89.1	90.1	91.3	92.6	93.3	93.7	93.8	93.8	93.7	93.6
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	10.9	11.2	10.7	10.0	9.2	8.3	7.6	7.3	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1
	Male	per cent	10.9	11.3	10.7	9.9	9.1	8.1	7.4	7.0	6.8	6.7	6.7	6.7
	Female	per cent	10.8	11.2	10.8	10.1	9.4	8.6	8.0	7.7	7.6	7.6	7.6	7.6
Unemployment	Total	millions	23.6	24.5	23.4	21.9	20.3	18.4	16.8	16.1	15.7	15.6	15.6	15.6
	Male	millions	12.9	13.3	12.6	11.8	10.8	9.7	8.7	8.3	8.0	7.9	7.9	7.9
	Female	millions	10.7	11.2	10.8	10.1	9.5	8.7	8.1	7.8	7.7	7.7	7.7	7.7
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent	15.1	15.4	15.1	14.4	13.5	12.4	11.7	11.4	11.2	11.2	11.3	11.3
	Male	per cent	14.1	14.6	14.2	13.5	12.6	11.5	10.7	10.3	10.1	10.0	10.1	10.1
	Female	per cent	16.2	16.4	16.2	15.5	14.6	13.5	12.9	12.6	12.5	12.6	12.6	12.6
Potential labour force	Total	millions	10.8	10.8	11.2	11.2	10.9	10.3	10.2	10.1	10.1	10.2	10.2	10.3
	Male	millions	4.5	4.6	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.5	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.5
	Female	millions	6.3	6.2	6.4	6.4	6.1	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	84.0	84.1	84.2	84.4	84.4	84.7	84.8	84.8	84.9	84.9	85.0	85.0
Employers	Total	per cent	4.5	4.5	4.4	4.4	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.2	4.2
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	10.3	10.3	10.3	10.2	10.2	10.1	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0	9.9
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	-0.1	0.5	0.9	1.1	0.5	0.9	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.5

EASTERN EUROPE

Indicator	By sex	Units	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	59.2	58.4	58.1	57.7	57.7	57.9	58.0	58.3	58.6	58.7	58.8	58.9
	Male	per cent	66.7	65.7	65.2	64.7	64.8	65.1	65.2	65.7	66.4	66.4	66.7	66.9
	Female	per cent	52.7	52.0	51.9	51.6	51.6	51.6	51.7	51.9	51.9	52.0	52.0	52.1
Labour force	Total	millions	147.2	145.6	145.2	144.6	145.2	145.7	146.0	146.8	147.4	147.5	147.6	147.5
	Male	millions	77.1	76.1	75.7	75.4	75.6	76.0	76.1	76.6	77.3	77.2	77.4	77.4
	Female	millions	70.1	69.4	69.5	69.3	69.5	69.7	69.9	70.2	70.1	70.2	70.1	70.1
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	52.5	52.2	52.2	52.0	52.2	52.8	53.3	54.4	54.9	53.9	54.1	54.5
	Male	per cent	59.1	58.6	58.4	58.2	58.5	59.3	59.8	61.2	62.1	60.6	61.1	61.6
	Female	per cent	46.8	46.6	46.8	46.6	46.8	47.2	47.7	48.6	48.7	48.1	48.2	48.4
Employment	Total	millions	130.6	130.1	130.5	130.4	131.3	132.9	134.2	137.1	138.1	135.4	135.8	136.4
	Male	millions	68.3	67.9	67.8	67.7	68.2	69.3	69.8	71.4	72.3	70.5	70.9	71.3
	Female	millions	62.3	62.2	62.7	62.6	63.1	63.7	64.4	65.7	65.8	64.9	64.9	65.1
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	11.3	10.6	10.1	9.9	9.6	8.7	8.0	6.7	6.3	8.2	8.0	7.5
	Male	per cent	11.3	10.8	10.4	10.1	9.8	8.8	8.2	6.9	6.4	8.7	8.5	7.9
	Female	per cent	11.2	10.4	9.8	9.6	9.3	8.6	7.8	6.4	6.2	7.6	7.4	7.1
Unemployment	Total	millions	16.6	15.5	14.7	14.3	13.9	12.7	11.7	9.8	9.3	12.1	11.8	11.1
	Male	millions	8.7	8.3	7.8	7.6	7.4	6.7	6.3	5.3	5.0	6.8	6.6	6.1
	Female	millions	7.9	7.2	6.8	6.7	6.4	6.0	5.5	4.5	4.3	5.3	5.2	5.0
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent						11.6	10.9	9.2	8.7	10.9	10.7	10.1
	Male	per cent						11.3	10.7	9.0	8.4	11.1	10.9	10.2
	Female	per cent						11.9	11.1	9.5	9.0	10.6	10.4	9.9
Potential labour force	Total	millions						4.7	4.6	4.2	3.8	4.5	4.4	4.2
	Male	millions						2.1	2.1	1.8	1.6	2.1	2.1	2.0
	Female	millions						2.6	2.6	2.4	2.2	2.4	2.3	2.2
Extreme working poverty rate	Total	per cent	1.3	0.8	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Moderate working poverty rate	Total	per cent	7.1	4.3	3.1	2.0	1.5	1.2	0.7	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1
Extreme working poverty	Total	millions	1.2	0.7	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Moderate working poverty	Total	millions	6.5	3.9	2.9	1.9	1.4	1.1	0.6	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	83.9	84.5	85.4	85.7	86.0	86.0	86.5	86.7	86.8	86.7	86.7	86.7
Employers	Total	per cent	1.6	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.8
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	12.0	11.1	10.8	10.6	10.3	10.4	10.1	9.9	9.8	9.9	9.8	9.9
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	2.6	2.5	2.0	2.0	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.5
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	5.9	4.9	3.9	6.4	6.4	4.3	6.5	5.5	4.1	-4.3	3.3	4.1

Note: Working poverty rates exclude EU-countries.

EASTERN EUROPE (cont'd)

Indicator	By sex	Units	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	59.0	59.1	59.1	59.2	59.3	59.2	58.9	58.5	58.2	57.8	57.3	56.9
	Male	per cent	67.1	67.3	67.4	67.6	67.7	67.7	67.3	66.9	66.5	66.0	65.5	65.0
	Female	per cent	52.1	52.1	52.0	52.0	52.0	52.0	51.7	51.3	51.0	50.7	50.3	50.0
Labour force	Total	millions	147.2	147.0	146.3	146.0	145.5	144.8	143.4	142.0	140.7	139.3	137.9	136.6
	Male	millions	77.4	77.3	77.1	77.1	76.8	76.4	75.7	75.0	74.3	73.5	72.7	72.0
	Female	millions	69.8	69.6	69.2	68.9	68.7	68.3	67.7	67.0	66.4	65.8	65.2	64.6
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	54.9	55.0	55.1	55.3	55.6	55.8	55.8	55.6	55.4	54.9	54.3	53.8
	Male	per cent	62.1	62.4	62.5	62.9	63.2	63.5	63.6	63.4	63.1	62.5	61.9	61.3
	Female	per cent	48.7	48.7	48.7	48.8	49.0	49.2	49.1	48.9	48.7	48.3	47.9	47.5
Employment	Total	millions	137.0	136.7	136.4	136.4	136.4	136.5	136.0	135.0	133.9	132.3	130.7	129.1
	Male	millions	71.7	71.7	71.6	71.7	71.7	71.8	71.6	71.1	70.5	69.6	68.7	67.8
	Female	millions	65.3	65.0	64.9	64.6	64.7	64.7	64.4	63.9	63.4	62.7	62.0	61.3
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	7.0	7.0	6.8	6.6	6.2	5.7	5.2	5.0	4.8	5.0	5.3	5.4
	Male	per cent	7.3	7.3	7.2	6.9	6.6	6.1	5.5	5.3	5.1	5.3	5.6	5.8
	Female	per cent	6.5	6.6	6.3	6.2	5.8	5.3	4.9	4.7	4.5	4.7	4.9	5.1
Unemployment	Total	millions	10.2	10.2	9.9	9.6	9.1	8.3	7.4	7.1	6.8	7.0	7.2	7.4
	Male	millions	5.7	5.6	5.5	5.3	5.1	4.6	4.1	3.9	3.8	3.9	4.0	4.1
	Female	millions	4.6	4.6	4.3	4.3	4.0	3.6	3.3	3.1	3.0	3.1	3.2	3.3
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent	9.4	9.4	9.1	8.8	8.3	7.7	7.1	6.9	6.8	7.1	7.3	7.6
	Male	per cent	9.5	9.5	9.2	8.9	8.4	7.8	7.0	6.8	6.6	6.9	7.3	7.5
	Female	per cent	9.2	9.4	8.9	8.8	8.1	7.5	7.2	7.0	6.9	7.2	7.4	7.7
Potential labour force	Total	millions	3.9	4.0	3.7	3.6	3.3	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.1	3.2
	Male	millions	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.4
	Female	millions	2.0	2.1	2.0	1.9	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.8
Extreme working poverty rate	Total	per cent	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Moderate working poverty rate	Total	per cent	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Extreme working poverty	Total	millions	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Moderate working poverty	Total	millions	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	87.0	86.8	87.4	87.5	87.6	88.1	88.1	88.2	88.2	88.2	88.3	88.3
Employers	Total	per cent	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	9.7	9.9	9.3	9.3	9.3	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.0
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	2.0	1.8	1.3	-0.9	1.0	2.7	3.1	2.9	2.6	3.0	3.1	2.8

CENTRAL AND WESTERN ASIA

Indicator	By sex	Units	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	56.5	56.4	56.1	55.5	55.0	55.1	54.7	54.8	55.2	55.6	56.3	56.9	
	Male	per cent	72.5	72.0	71.1	70.5	70.8	71.0	70.3	70.4	70.7	70.8	71.3	71.8	
	Female	per cent	41.5	41.9	42.1	41.5	40.1	40.2	40.1	40.2	40.7	41.4	42.2	42.9	
Labour force	Total	millions	54.6	55.6	56.4	57.0	57.6	58.9	59.6	60.8	62.4	63.9	65.9	67.7	
	Male	millions	33.8	34.3	34.6	35.0	35.9	36.7	37.1	37.8	38.7	39.4	40.4	41.4	
	Female	millions	20.8	21.3	21.9	22.0	21.7	22.2	22.6	23.0	23.7	24.5	25.5	26.3	
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	51.0	50.9	50.2	49.9	49.6	50.0	50.3	50.6	50.7	50.4	51.5	52.5	
	Male	per cent	65.9	65.0	63.6	63.3	63.9	64.4	64.6	64.9	64.9	64.0	65.2	66.4	
	Female	per cent	37.2	37.6	37.7	37.3	36.2	36.4	36.8	37.1	37.4	37.7	38.6	39.5	
Employment	Total	millions	49.3	50.1	50.5	51.2	51.9	53.4	54.8	56.1	57.3	57.9	60.2	62.5	
	Male	millions	30.7	30.9	30.9	31.4	32.4	33.3	34.1	34.8	35.5	35.6	36.9	38.3	
	Female	millions	18.6	19.2	19.6	19.8	19.6	20.1	20.7	21.2	21.8	22.3	23.3	24.2	
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	9.7	9.9	10.5	10.1	9.8	9.3	8.2	7.8	8.2	9.4	8.6	7.7	
	Male	per cent	9.2	9.7	10.6	10.1	9.8	9.3	8.1	7.8	8.2	9.7	8.6	7.5	
	Female	per cent	10.5	10.1	10.5	10.1	9.8	9.4	8.2	7.8	8.1	9.1	8.6	8.0	
Unemployment	Total	millions	5.3	5.5	5.9	5.8	5.7	5.5	4.9	4.8	5.1	6.0	5.7	5.2	
	Male	millions	3.1	3.3	3.6	3.5	3.5	3.4	3.0	3.0	3.2	3.8	3.5	3.1	
	Female	millions	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.2	2.1	2.1	1.9	1.8	1.9	2.2	2.2	2.1	
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent							14.2	13.1	12.5	12.9	14.5	13.5	12.3
	Male	per cent							13.0	11.8	11.4	11.7	13.5	12.2	10.8
	Female	per cent							16.2	15.0	14.3	14.7	16.1	15.6	14.5
Potential labour force	Total	millions							3.4	3.4	3.3	3.4	3.8	3.8	3.6
	Male	millions							1.6	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.5
	Female	millions							1.8	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.0
Extreme working poverty rate	Total	per cent	16.9	16.8	15.7	16.6	14.5	14.2	13.1	12.4	11.1	10.3	9.5	8.7	
Moderate working poverty rate	Total	per cent	15.6	16.3	16.3	16.0	13.6	12.5	11.5	10.6	9.9	9.5	9.3	8.9	
Extreme working poverty	Total	millions	7.8	8.0	7.5	8.0	7.1	7.1	6.7	6.5	6.0	5.6	5.4	5.1	
Moderate working poverty	Total	millions	7.3	7.7	7.7	7.7	6.7	6.3	5.9	5.6	5.3	5.2	5.2	5.2	
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	51.5	51.0	52.4	52.9	53.5	55.3	57.4	58.6	59.4	59.2	59.8	60.3	
Employers	Total	per cent	3.7	3.8	3.8	3.6	3.5	3.7	3.9	3.9	4.0	4.0	3.8	3.7	
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	29.1	29.2	28.8	29.1	28.7	28.3	27.2	26.5	26.0	26.0	25.6	25.1	
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	15.6	16.0	15.0	14.4	14.4	12.8	11.5	11.0	10.7	10.8	10.7	10.8	
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	6.7	-3.2	5.2	4.2	7.3	6.1	5.8	4.6	0.6	-2.6	3.4	4.9	

CENTRAL AND WESTERN ASIA (cont'd)

Indicator	By sex	Units	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Labour force participation rate	Total	per cent	57.0	57.4	57.7	58.1	58.5	58.8	58.8	58.6	58.5	58.3	58.0	57.7
	Male	per cent	71.6	72.0	72.5	72.8	73.1	73.4	73.4	73.3	73.1	72.8	72.6	72.2
	Female	per cent	43.2	43.6	43.8	44.3	44.6	45.1	44.9	44.8	44.6	44.4	44.2	44.0
Labour force	Total	millions	68.9	70.5	72.0	73.7	75.2	76.9	77.9	78.9	79.7	80.5	81.1	81.6
	Male	millions	42.0	42.9	43.9	44.8	45.7	46.6	47.3	47.9	48.5	48.9	49.3	49.6
	Female	millions	26.9	27.6	28.1	28.9	29.5	30.3	30.6	30.9	31.2	31.5	31.7	31.9
Employment-to-population ratio	Total	per cent	52.8	53.1	53.1	53.5	53.7	54.1	54.0	53.5	53.2	52.9	52.6	52.3
	Male	per cent	66.6	66.8	66.9	67.2	67.4	67.9	67.7	67.2	66.8	66.5	66.1	65.8
	Female	per cent	39.8	40.2	40.1	40.5	40.7	41.1	41.0	40.6	40.3	40.1	39.8	39.6
Employment	Total	millions	63.8	65.2	66.3	67.8	69.1	70.6	71.5	72.0	72.5	73.1	73.5	73.9
	Male	millions	39.0	39.8	40.5	41.4	42.1	43.1	43.6	43.9	44.3	44.7	45.0	45.2
	Female	millions	24.8	25.4	25.8	26.4	27.0	27.6	27.9	28.0	28.2	28.4	28.6	28.7
Unemployment rate	Total	per cent	7.4	7.5	7.9	8.0	8.2	8.1	8.2	8.7	9.0	9.2	9.3	9.3
	Male	per cent	7.1	7.2	7.7	7.7	7.8	7.6	7.8	8.3	8.5	8.8	8.9	8.9
	Female	per cent	7.8	8.0	8.3	8.5	8.7	8.8	8.8	9.4	9.6	9.8	10.0	10.0
Unemployment	Total	millions	5.1	5.3	5.7	5.9	6.2	6.2	6.4	6.9	7.1	7.4	7.6	7.6
	Male	millions	3.0	3.1	3.4	3.4	3.6	3.5	3.7	4.0	4.1	4.3	4.4	4.4
	Female	millions	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.2	3.2
Rate of labour underutilization 3	Total	per cent	12.0	12.2	12.6	12.6	12.8	12.5	12.6	13.2	13.4	13.7	13.8	13.9
	Male	per cent	10.5	10.6	10.9	10.9	11.0	10.6	10.8	11.4	11.6	11.9	12.0	12.1
	Female	per cent	14.2	14.6	15.2	15.2	15.4	15.2	15.2	15.8	16.0	16.3	16.5	16.6
Potential labour force	Total	millions	3.6	3.7	3.9	3.9	4.0	3.9	3.9	4.0	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.3
	Male	millions	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.8
	Female	millions	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.5
Extreme working poverty rate	Total	per cent	8.2	7.9	7.4	7.2	6.9	6.8	6.6	6.4	6.1	5.8	5.5	5.1
Moderate working poverty rate	Total	per cent	8.4	8.2	7.8	7.6	7.2	6.9	6.8	6.6	6.4	6.2	5.9	5.7
Extreme working poverty	Total	millions	4.9	4.8	4.6	4.6	4.5	4.5	4.4	4.3	4.2	4.0	3.8	3.5
Moderate working poverty	Total	millions	5.1	5.0	4.8	4.9	4.7	4.6	4.5	4.5	4.4	4.2	4.1	3.9
Wage and salaried employment	Total	per cent	61.2	61.6	62.7	63.6	63.9	64.0	64.2	64.4	64.6	64.8	65.0	65.2
Employers	Total	per cent	3.6	3.5	3.4	3.5	3.7	3.6	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7
Own-account workers	Total	per cent	24.8	24.7	24.0	23.5	23.3	23.4	23.3	23.3	23.3	23.2	23.2	23.2
Contributing family workers	Total	per cent	10.4	10.2	9.8	9.4	9.1	9.0	8.8	8.6	8.5	8.3	8.1	8.0
Productivity growth	Total	per cent	2.5	5.0	3.1	2.6	1.1	3.6	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.8	3.1	3.1

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World Employment and Social Outlook: Trends 2019 provides a global overview of recent trends in labour force participation, employment, unemployment, potential labour force, productivity, as well as different dimensions of job quality such as employment status, informal employment and working poverty. The overview covers 189 countries in the world and describes patterns across the regions. The report also examines income and social developments and provides an indicator of social unrest. Furthermore, it presents projections for the period 2019–20 for employment and unemployment, as well as for the period 2019–23 for the labour force and status in employment.

The volume also takes stock of the progress achieved towards reaching the targets specified in Sustainable Development Goal 8 of the UN 2030 Agenda by presenting the corresponding indicators.

A key finding of this report is that poor job quality is the main concern for the majority of the world's labour force. In addition, unemployment and labour underutilization remain elevated in many countries, despite improvements in recent years. Finally, progress towards achieving the targets set out in Sustainable Development Goal 8 has been slower than anticipated.

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