OIC Labour Market Report 2017

"Encouraging Economic Activity"

ORGANISATION OF ISLAMIC COOPERATION

STATISTICAL, ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL RESEARCH AND TRAINING CENTRE FOR ISLAMIC COUNTRIES

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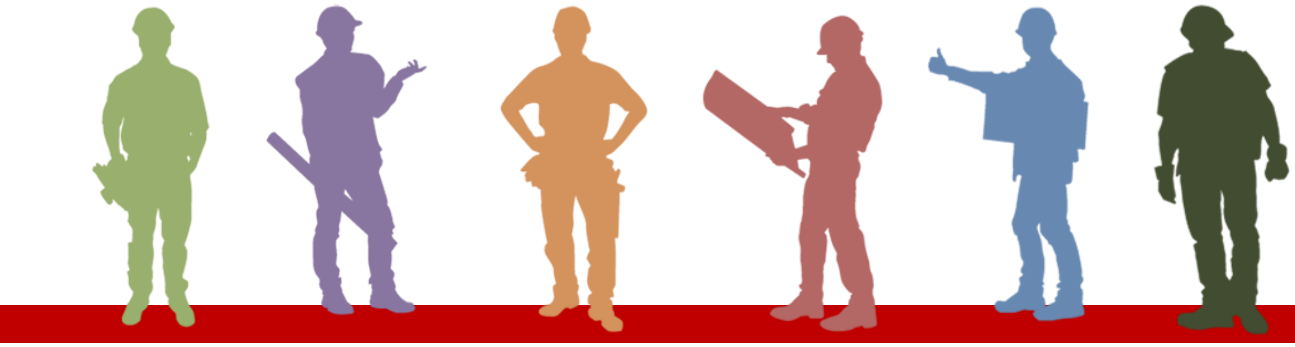

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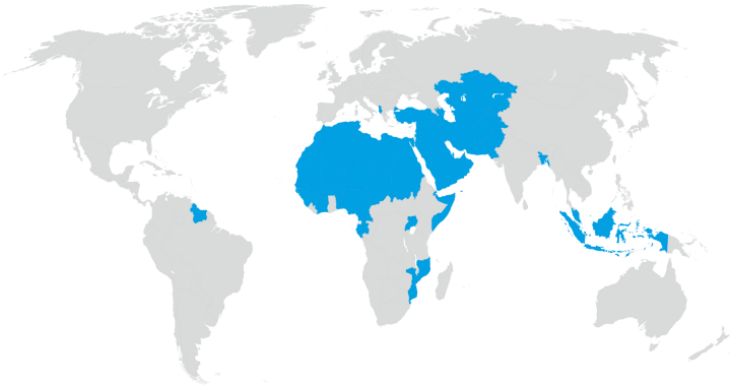

"Encouraging Economic Activity"

Organization of Islamic Cooperation

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CONTENTS

ACRONYMS

ALMP	Active Labour Market Policy
AP	Asia Pacific
BPO	Business Process Outsourcing
B-SEP	Bangladesh – Skills for Employment and Productivity
CRPD	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
E2P	Employment-to-Population
ECA	Europe and Central Asia
E-TVET	Employment - Technical and Vocational Education and Training
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
IBRD	International Bank for Reconstruction and Development
ICT	Information and Communication Technologies
IDP	Internally Displaced Population
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IFC	International Finance Corporation
ILO	International Labour Organization
ISCO	International Standard Classification of Occupations
ITC	International Trade Centre
KILM	Key Indicators of Labour Market
LFPR	Labour Force Participation Rate
LMP	Labour Market Policy
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
MSME	Micro, Small and Medium Enterprise
NEET	Not in Education, Employment or Training
NSDP	National Skills Development Policy

OECD	Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development
OIC	Organization of Islamic Cooperation
OSH	Occupational Safety and Health
PES	Public Employment Services
PLMP	Passive Labour Market Policy
PPS	Percentage Points
PRS	Poverty Reduction Strategy
RESI	Refugee Employment and Skills Initiative
RExO	Reintegration of Ex-Offenders
SDYE	Skill Development for Youth Employment
SEED	Skills for Effective Engagement and Development
SME	Small- and Medium-sized Enterprise
SPI	Social Protection Index
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
SWTS	School to Work Transition Survey
TJ	Transitional Jobs
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
WB	World Bank
WESO	World Employment and Social Outlook
YLDs	Years of Healthy Life Lost Due to Disability

FOREWORD

Economic growth has so far evidently remained insufficient to tackle the widespread poverty and growing inequality in many countries around the world. This clearly indicates that there is still a need for more inclusive growth strategies that can address the challenges of most deprived populations. An effective way of supporting such disadvantaged groups is to enable them to earn their own income by supporting their participation to economic activity. Therefore, inclusive growth strategies should include prudent labour market policies that aim at increasing the rate of participation in labour force and thus decreasing the scope of economic inactivity in the country.

In this connection, the 2017 Edition of OIC Labour Market Report pays special attention to the problem of labour inactivity and policies to promote economic activity for special target groups. In addition to a detailed analysis on the structure of labour market in OIC countries, the report investigates the issues and challenges related to labour inactivity, labour market policies for reducing unemployment, employment of persons with disabilities, and economic reintegration of ex-offenders and displaced people.

When compared with other country groups, labour force inactivity remains stubbornly high in the group of OIC countries. In order to facilitate the transition of inactive people towards the labour market, policy makers need to recognize and understand the diverse, complex and deep-rooted nature of economic inactivity and accordingly design the appropriate needed interventions. These typically include employment services and programmes that aim to enhance the capabilities of jobseekers as well as measures to extend the set of job opportunities that jobseekers can access. Since such interventions are costly and time-consuming, it is essential to conduct regular impact assessments and share the experiences within as well as across the countries.

While addressing the major issues and challenges of economic participation, policy makers should also give special attention to specific issues related to specific target groups. For example, the problems of disabled people are generally neglected, although it is estimated to affect every 1 in 7 persons across the globe. The OIC member countries host millions of

persons with disabilities who are in urgent need of education, training and skills development to be able to participate in the labour market. The economic and social integration of ex-offenders and displaced people is also another challenge in many OIC countries.

This report has been prepared by SESRIC as a background technical document for the 4th Session of the Islamic Conference of Labour Ministers (ICLM) with a view to contributing to the OIC policy dialog mechanism in this important and challenging area.

Amb. Musa Kulaklıkaya

Director General

SESRIC

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The team extends special thanks to Sameer Khatiwada from International Labour Organizations (ILO), Jakhongir Khasanov from Organisation of Islamic Cooperation (OIC) and experts from Public Employment Agency of Turkey (İŞKUR) for their comments and feedbacks on the initial versions of the report, which significantly contributed to the quality of report. The team also thanks to Mostafa Rmouch for proofreading the texts.

Section 1 on OIC labour market structure, Section 2 on labour market inactivity and Section 3 on labour market policies of the report are prepared by Kenan Bağcı. Cihat Battaloğlu prepared the case studies for the sections 2 and 3. Section 4 on employment of persons with disabilities is prepared by Cem Tintin. Section 5 on economic reintegration of ex-offenders and displaced people is prepared by Cihat Battaloğlu and Davron Ishnazarov. Section 6 on policy implications is prepared by all team members.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This report analyses the current state of labour market in OIC countries and discusses some important aspects of labour market policy and developments. These include problem of labour market inactivity, labour market policies for reducing unemployment, employment of persons with disabilities and economic reintegration of ex-offenders and displaced people. The report is organized in five sections.

The **first** section provides detailed information about the structure of the labour market in OIC member countries. It is found that labour force participation rate is slowly improving in OIC countries, which reached almost 59% as of 2016. However, with female participation rate of 39.6%, OIC member countries are significantly lagging behind the world average of 49.5%. When total employment is disaggregated into three broad sectors – agriculture, industry and services –, the share of employment in agriculture in OIC countries as of 2016 is 35.5%, whereas industry sector accounts 19.9% and services sector accounts 44.7% of total employment in OIC countries. While the share of vulnerable employment remains excessively high in OIC countries, it has continuously declined to reach 51.7% in 2016 compared to 57.3% in 2005 with the increasing shares of wage and salary workers and employers.

As of 2016, total unemployment rate in OIC countries is estimated at 7.4%. During the post-crisis period (2009-2013), average unemployment rate in developed countries remained higher than the rate in OIC countries. However, developed countries managed to lower this rate close to pre-crisis levels. Moreover, average youth unemployment rate in OIC countries is even less promising. It remained constantly above 16%, a rate which is well above that of both non-OIC developing and developed countries.

In general, it is found that labour force participation rate, employment to population ratio, share of employment in services sector, share of labour force with tertiary education are lower, but female unemployment rate, share of vulnerable employment, share of employment in agriculture, inactivity rate, and share of labour force primary education are higher in OIC countries compared to other developing and developed countries.

The **second** section focuses on the problem of low labour participation in OIC countries. As a long-standing problem in OIC countries, inactivity creates major economic problems by hampering economic growth and poverty alleviation, raising economic dependency and contributing to increased economic pressure on public resources. Addressing this challenge would contribute to achieving a more inclusive and productive economy across the OIC region. In addition to great potential impacts on economic development, reducing economic inactivity will contribute to solving diverse social problems.

It is shown that the stubbornly high inactivity rate about 41% is expected to remain around this level over the coming years and there is an enormous gap between male and female inactivity rates, which is almost 40 percentage points. There is also a significant heterogeneity across the geographical regions of the OIC. The lowest inactivity rates are observed in the groups of Sub-Saharan African (SSA) countries, where the rate is only 27.5% in the age group 25-64. The highest inactivity rates are observed in the group of Middle East and North African (MENA) countries, where the rate exceeds 45% in the same age group. Male inactivity is lowest in Asia-Pacific (AP) region with 9.6%, but highest in Europe and Central Asia (ECA) region with 20.5%. Female inactivity is measured to be lowest in the SSA region with 39.3% and highest in the MENA region with 77.3%, reflecting the significant discrepancies across the OIC regions.

Labour market barriers such as low skill attainment, poor health, and unsupported family care responsibilities are considered as contributing to weak attachment to labour market. The report proposes a general approach to reduce economic inactivity among the target groups which is likely to contribute to increased economic productivity and competitiveness in the OIC countries in the long term. Specific labour market interventions should be designed according to the needs of each member country. As individual countries become more productive and competitive, it is likely to observe more jobs to be created by the economy to further reduce the unemployment rates.

In general, the implementation of the overall framework will be affected by a wide range of factors, including macroeconomic conditions, ability of the economy to create new jobs, fiscal space to cover the costs of skills development and specific incentives, ability of the labour market to utilize long-term unemployed or still unexperienced workforce, among others. Country specific strategies should be designed in a way that takes into account these diverse factors. It is often challenging to allocate limited resources across priority areas in different sectors, but efficient use of resources is the only way to achieve developmental goals.

Given the low labour force participation and high unemployment rates in OIC countries, the **third** section investigates the labour market policies for reducing unemployment. It is argued that productive capacity of OIC countries needs to be *activated* by taking into

account the long-standing structural obstacles that are keeping many youth, women, people with disabilities and low-skilled workers out of work or underemployed. More critically, OIC countries require policies to utilize the productive potential of their probably the most important asset –young populations– in order to achieve higher growth and lower poverty rates.

Labour market policies typically aim to overcome market failures preventing the efficient operation of labour markets and to provide support for socio-economically disadvantaged groups facing barriers to entry into formal employment. In addition to labour market (re)integration measures, labour market policies contribute to social protection and integration by providing replacement income during sometimes lengthy matching periods and thereby alleviating the unemployment related poverty.

Policy makers usually possess a wide range of tools to realize these goals, including active labour market policies (ALMPs) and passive labour market policies (PLMPs). The section reviews the major types of ALMPs and PLMPs as well as their aims and objectives. It also provides a review on the effectiveness of various labour market programmes in different parts of the world. Each policy tool can be tailored according to specific needs and available resources. In this respect, OIC countries need to develop their own approach of LMPs by taking their diverse problems and background conditions into consideration.

The **fourth** section of the report focuses on the employment of persons with disabilities. It is estimated that 15% of the world's population is estimated to suffer from a disability or chronic illness in the world (WHO and World Bank, 2011). In other words, about 1 out of 7 persons has a disability worldwide where 80% of persons with disabilities live in the developing world including OIC countries. People with disabilities are reported to have twice the rate for non-participation in the labour and their jobless rates are found to be about three times the level for persons without disabilities. This section first provides an overview on the concept of disability and the rates of prevalence rates. Then it continues with a discussion on barriers on employment for persons with disabilities. Following this discussion, the chapter looks at employment prospects for persons with disabilities. Finally, the chapter ends with some selected initiatives from OIC countries on addressing the employment challenges of persons with disabilities.

OIC countries host millions of persons with disabilities, which are in need of education, training and skills development as well as a decent job to work among other needs. Due to lack or insufficient institutional arrangements in the job market, limited investments into healthcare and rehabilitation, social norms and myths, many disabled people living in OIC countries either stay out of the work force or cannot able to find a job to work. When the burden is measured in terms of Years of Healthy Life Lost Due to Disability (YLDs), it is found that, on average, OIC countries lost 10.4 healthy life years (per 100 people) where the

world average was recorded at 9.3 in 2011. However, on average, developed countries lost only 7.2 healthy life years (per 100 people) due to disability.

Evidence shows that many companies across the globe indicate that persons with disabilities are capable of doing complex tasks and can be a productive part of the work force. Nevertheless, this potential would be best utilized through some government interventions and arrangements. Four case studies presented from Saudi Arabia, Turkey, Bangladesh, and Indonesia revealed that successful public initiatives to increase employability of persons with disabilities already started to pay off and affected many families in a positive way.

The **fifth** section investigates the issue of the economic reintegration of ex-offenders and internally displaced people (IDP). Over the last decade, the economic and social integration of ex-offenders and IDPs has become an important issue in most of countries, including the OIC members, due to increasing number of displaced people and ex-offenders in these countries. In 2016, the number of prisoners reached 10.3 million in worldwide, and 1.56 million in the OIC member states. The IDPs have also become important issue among OIC countries, because of recent armed conflicts, which account bulk of the displacement of civil population within or across the boundaries, particularly in Syria, Afghanistan and Iraq. As of 2015, OIC countries accounted for 61.5% of all displaced population in the world with more than 25 million displaced persons. Moreover, 70.7% of new displacements in 2015 took place in OIC countries. Internally displaced persons (IDPs) protected/assisted by UNHCR in OIC countries also increased from 13.5 million at the beginning of 2014 to 24 million at the end of 2015, indicating almost 78% or 10.5 million increase in just two years.

The integration of ex-offenders and displaced people is in need of multi-dimensional policymaking. Particularly, in economic realm, integration of these people is highly important for OIC, because in most of member countries, ex-offenders and displaced people face significant economic adaptation issues. In labour market, they also face a number of barriers to employment, which include lack of professional skills and personal qualities and negative perception of employers towards these groups. Unless they receive help to face these issues, they frequently become caught up in a cycle of failed integration, re-offending, reconviction and social rejection.

SECTION ONE

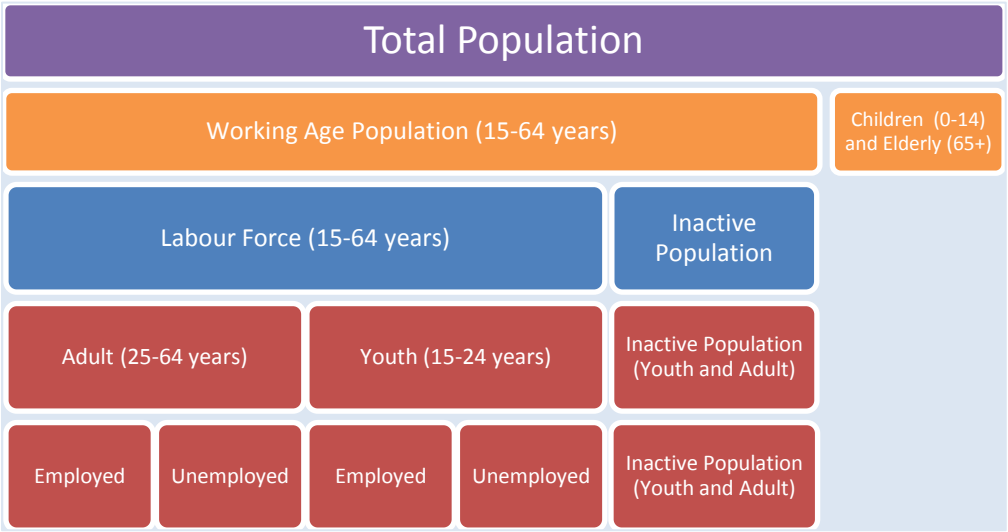
LABOUR MARKET STRUCTURE IN OIC COUNTRIES

Economic performances of countries are strongly associated with their ability to raise productivity levels across the economic sectors. However, different sectors entail different characteristics in terms of contributing to overall productivity growths. It is widely believed that to achieve sustained growth and better economic performance, there is a need for structural transformation towards higher productivity sectors. Therefore, in order to achieve structural transformation, productive sources of an economy should move towards sectors that have higher productivity potential. Historically, economic activities in manufacturing sector have been linked to higher productivity growth compared to those in agriculture sector.

Labour market structure of an economy reflects the existing capabilities in achieving transformation towards more productive sectors. Low levels of skills, high unemployment, lack of investment to new skills, high informal unemployment and high prevalence of skill mismatch are some of the labour market characteristics observed in many OIC countries. Additional challenges are faced due to economic policies that provide special incentives to some sectors for development, education policies that provide opportunities for only limited share of the population, political approaches that do not help to improve the equal access to services, or external shocks that limit the capacities of countries to tackle the labour market challenges.

OIC countries have relatively higher population growth and higher proportion of youth in total population compared to other parts of the world, which requires devising special policies to create jobs and improve skills of the labour force for enhanced employability. However, there are numerous internal and external challenges that make the job of the policymakers more difficult. While education and private sector development policies are some of the internal critical issues, the recent global economic and financial crisis is an example on the external challenges, which left long-lasting harms on real economies in terms of output contractions, large deficits and high unemployment rates. Although the negative impacts of the crisis on the real economy varied widely among countries and

Chart 1.1: Structure of Population from Labour Market Perspective



regions, the sharp increase in unemployment rates around the world was the common and most severe one. A heavy price has been already paid in terms of lost jobs, reduced hours and associated income losses. Low-skilled workers, young people and workers on temporary contracts with limited employment protection have suffered quite a lot. Despite different forms of interventions made since the onset of the crisis, global unemployment could not be contained and remained well above the pre-crisis level.

All these issues make the discussions on labour markets even more interesting. This section provides a detailed account of labour market conditions in OIC countries not only to draw a general picture on the OIC labour market, but also to facilitate the discussions in the subsequent sections. The four main indicators of labour markets are the unemployment rate, the labour force participation rate, the employment-to-population ratio and inactivity ratio. Changes in the unemployment rate reflect movements in the labour force participation rate and the employment-to-population ratio. Chart 1.1 displays the structure of population from labour market perspective. To clarify the relationship of unemployment, employment, labour force participation and inactivity rate, the following expressions will be useful.

$$\frac{\text{Employment}}{\text{Population}} = \frac{\text{employment}}{\text{employment} + \text{unemployment}} \text{ x} \frac{\text{employment} + \text{unemployment}}{\text{population}}$$

$$= (1 - \text{unemployment rate}) \text{ x labour force participation rate}$$

$$= (1 - \text{unemployment rate}) \text{ x } (1 - \text{ inactivity rate})$$

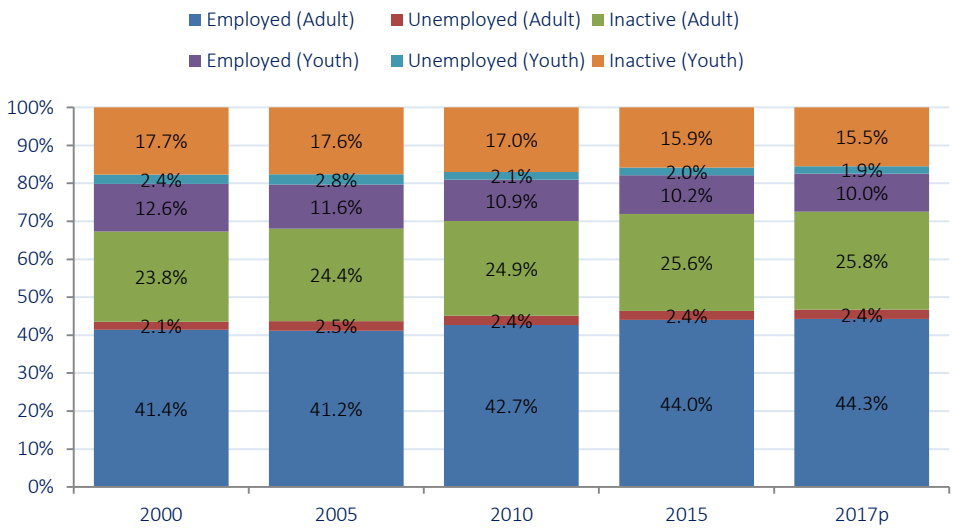
Or,

$$\text{Unemployment rate} = 1 - \left(\frac{\text{employment} - \text{to} - \text{population}}{\text{labour force participation rate}}\right)$$

Therefore, holding labour force participation rate constant, unemployment will increase if employment-to-population decreases. Or, holding employment-to-population rate constant, unemployment rate will increase if labour force participation rate increases.

It will be also useful to have a look at the overall structure of labour market in OIC countries in line with Chart 1.1. In this fashion, Figure 1.1 shows the shares of employed, unemployed and inactive proportions of total population, disaggregated by age (youth and adult).1 In total working age population, around 54% of people were employed in 2016, 44.3% of which are adult and 10% are youth people. Share of unemployed people represents only 4.3% of total working age population (2.4% adult and 1.9% youth). On the other hand, 41.3% of people at working age are inactive, or not engaged actively in the labour market, either by working or looking for work. This clearly indicates that while unemployment is a serious concern, inactivity is even more serious. Share of inactive population in non-OIC developing countries is 35.1% and in developed countries 40.2%. Therefore, OIC countries need special measures to encourage people to enter actively into the labour market. Section 2 of this report focuses on this particular problem in OIC countries.

Figure 1.1: Structure of Labour Market in OIC Countries (2000-2017)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

[1] The data used in this section is obtained from the ILO Key Indicators of the Labour Market database. It covers 56 OIC countries, 92 non-OIC developing countries and 38 developed countries.

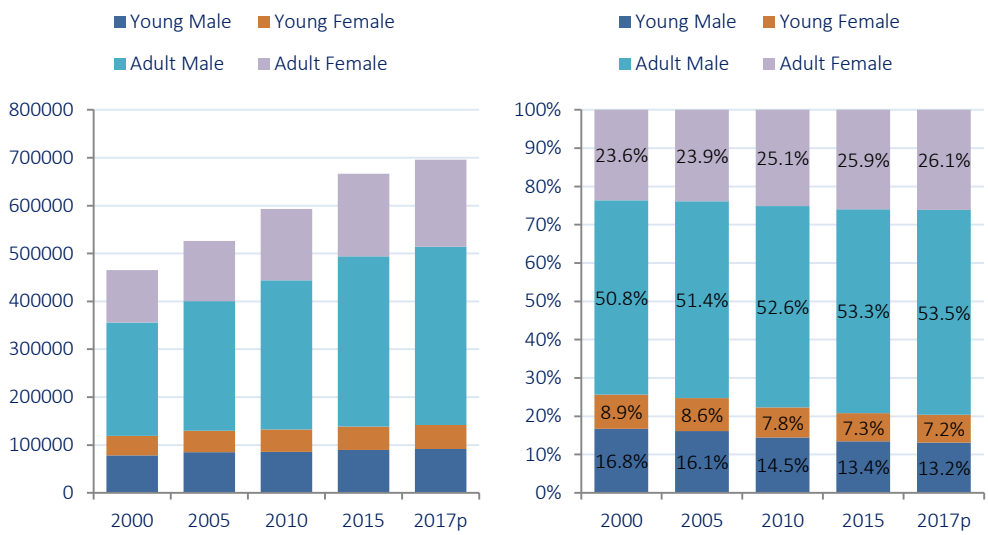
With these linkages and overall structure of labour market in mind, this section provides a detailed account of major labour market indicators for OIC countries. These include labour force participation rate, employment to population ratio, vulnerable employment, employment by sector, skills levels and economic class, unemployment, youth unemployment, inactive population, educational attainment, and labour productivity. All these analyses will be instrumental in identifying and assessing the fundamental problems and challenges in the labour markets of OIC countries in the subsequent sections.

1.1 Labour Force Participation

Although unemployment rate is accepted as one of the leading macroeconomic variables and commonly used to examine the performance of the economy, it may not accurately reflect the healthiness of labour market as the definition focus on people seeking employment for pay but not the magnitude of people who are not working actually. Due to these deficiencies, it might be ideal to start with labour force participation rate, which measures the proportion of people aged 15 and above that engages actively in the labour market, either by working or actively searching for a job. It provides an indication of the relative size of the supply of labour available to engage in the production of goods and services.

Figure 1.2 shows the structure of the labour force in OIC countries disaggregated by age group and gender. As of 2016, 79.6% of total labour force in OIC countries is estimated to be adult and the remaining 20.4% is youth. When the labour force is disaggregated by gender, 66.7% of the total labour force is male (13.2% is youth and 53.5% is adult) and the

Figure 1.2: Structure of Labour Force in OIC Countries (2000-2017)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

remaining 33.3% is female (7.2% youth and 26.1% adult). The share of adult labour force vis-à-vis youth labour force is continuously increasing over time and reached to its current level compared to 74.4% in 2000. Similarly, albeit at a slower pace, the share of female labour force is rising in total labour force, which increased only 0.7 percentage points compared to 32.6% in 2000.

With regard to the share of OIC countries in world total labour force, Figure 1.3a shows that OIC countries have constantly increased their share in the world from 16.7% in 2000 to 19.7% in 2016 and it is further expected to increase 20.6% in 2020. On the other hand, the increase in the share of youth labour force is even more striking, which increased from 20.7% in 2000 to 25.8% in 2016 and is projected to increase to 27.4% in 2020. This trend is

Figure 1.3a: Share of OIC Countries in World Total Labour Force (2000 vs 2016)

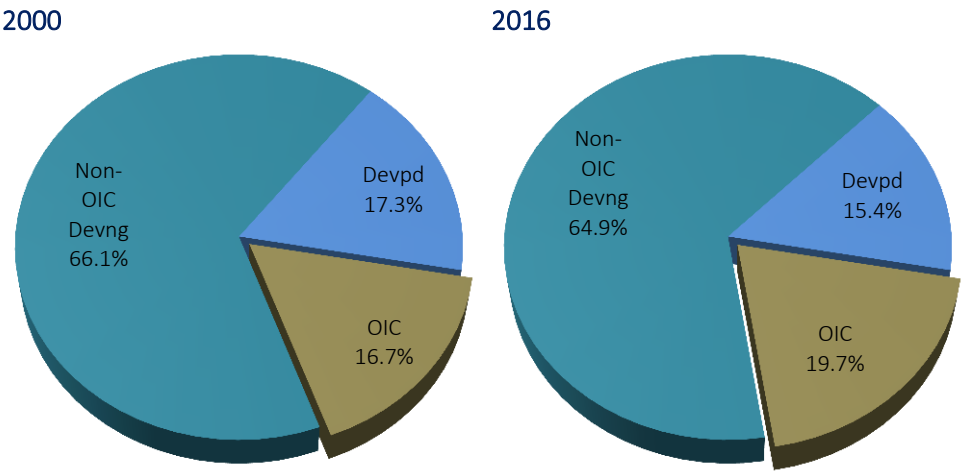
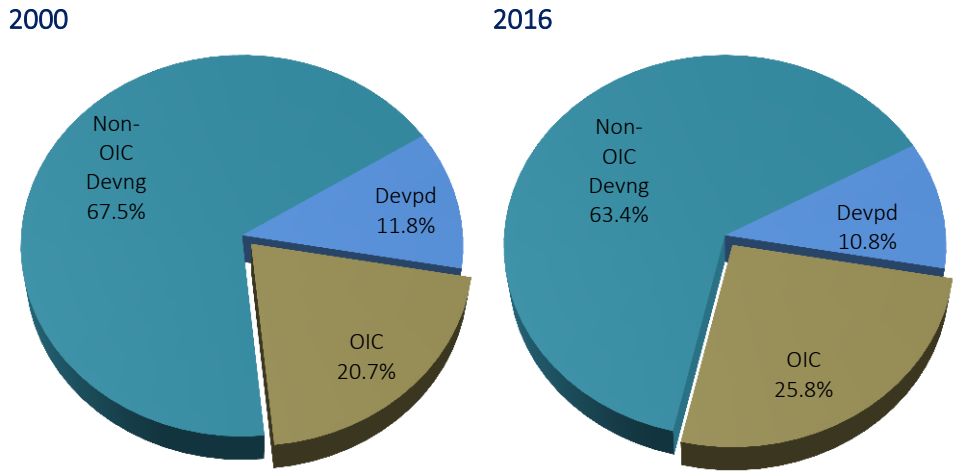
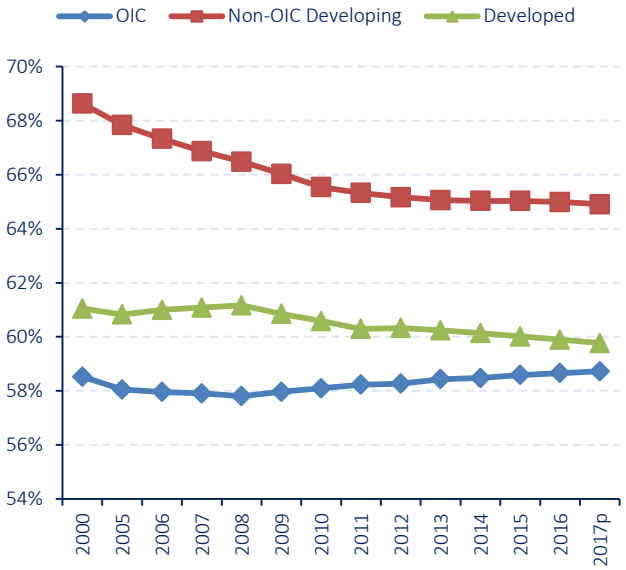


Figure 1.3b: Share of OIC Countries in World Total Youth Labour Force (2000 vs 2016)



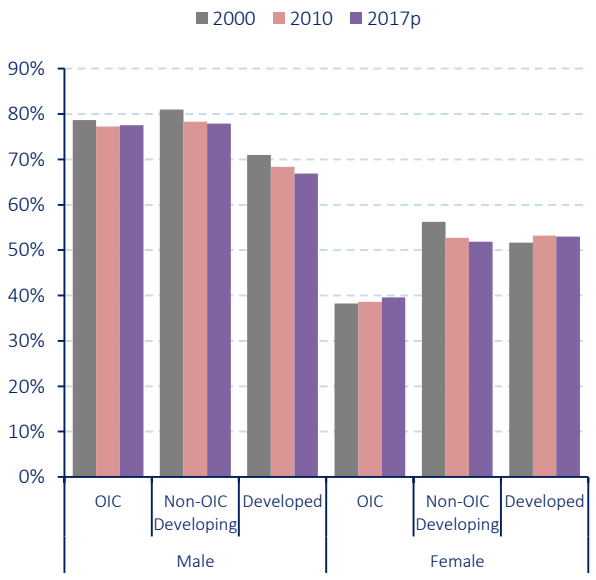
Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

Figure 1.4: Labour Force Participation Rate (2000-2017)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

Figure 1.5: Labour Force Participation Rate by Gender



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

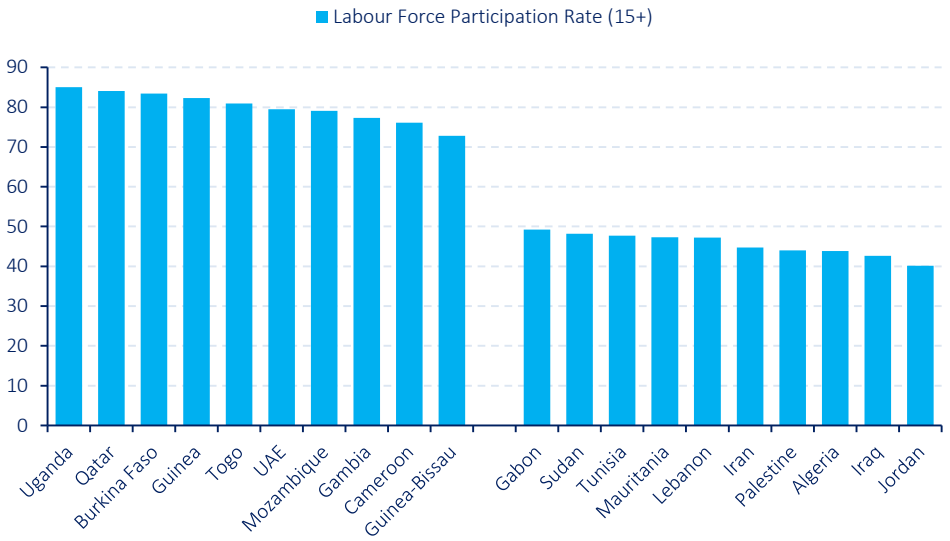
in line with the increasing share of OIC countries in world total youth population (see SESRIC, 2016 for more discussion on population structure of OIC countries). Therefore, it is critical for OIC countries to effectively utilize the relatively growing size of youth labour force in economic development.

While the share of OIC countries in world total labour force is increasing, their labour force participation rate is not particularly promising. As shown in Figure 1.4, the average labour force participation rate in OIC member countries is constantly lower than other country groups. However, contrary to other country groups, it follows a slightly increasing trend, which stood at 58.7% in 2016 compared to 62.8% in the world, 65% in non-OIC developing countries and 59.9% in developed countries. As for the labour force participation rate of male population, OIC member countries are expected to have a rate of 77.5% compared to 77.9% in non-OIC developing countries and 66.9% in developed countries (Figure 1.5). Although OIC member countries registered globally comparable performance in terms of total and male labour force participation rates, their performance in case of female labour force participation rate remained significantly lower. Female labour force participation rate in OIC member countries was recorded at 39.6% in 2016, which is significantly lower than the average of non-OIC

developing countries (51.8%) and the average of developed countries (53%).

However, there is an increasing trend in labour force participation rates in OIC countries, particularly in female participation rates, which increased from 38.2% in 2000 to 39.5% in 2016. An upward trend in this indicator is also observed in the case of developed countries from 51.6% in 2000 to 53.1% in 2016, while in non-OIC developing countries, female participation showed a declining trend and fell to 51.9% in 2016 from its level of 56.2% in 2000.

Figure 1.6: Top 10 Countries with Highest and Lowest Participation Rates (2016)



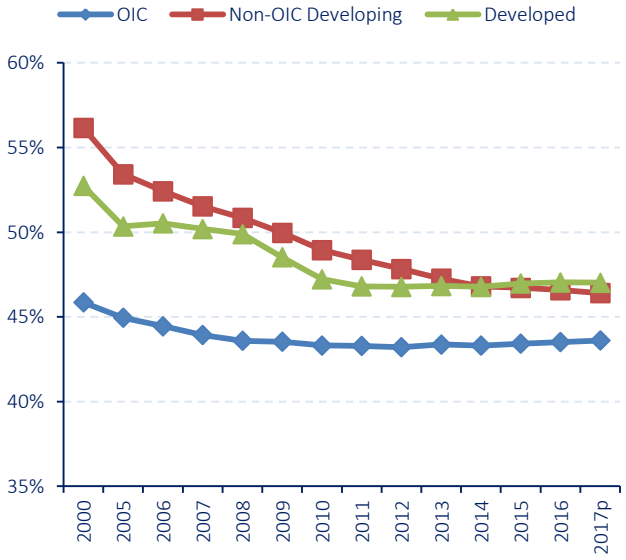
Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database.

At the individual country level, Uganda registered the highest labour force participation rate (85%) in 2016, followed by Qatar (84.1%), Burkina Faso (83.4%), Guinea (82.3%) and Togo (80.9%). It is worth mentioning that with the exception of Qatar and United Arab Emirates, all top 10 performing member countries are least developed countries according to UN classification (Figure 1.6). On the other hand, lowest participation rate was recorded in Jordan with 40.1%. It is followed by Iraq (42.6%), Algeria (43.8%), Palestine (442%) and Iran (44.7%). At the global level, with respect to labour force participation rate, Uganda is ranked at 2nd, Qatar at 4th and Burkina Faso at 7th position. It is also worth mentioning that 13 out of the world 20 countries with lowest participation rates in 2016 are OIC member countries.

Youth Labour Force Participation

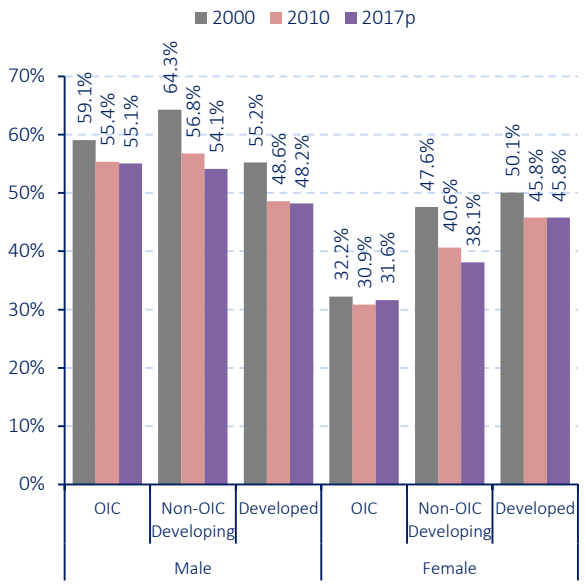
With respect to young population aged 15-24, a declining trend is observed in the labour force participation in all country groups (Figure 1.7). The global youth labour force

Figure 1.7: Youth Labour Force Participation Rate (2000-2017)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

Figure 1.8: Youth Labour Force Participation Rate by Gender



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

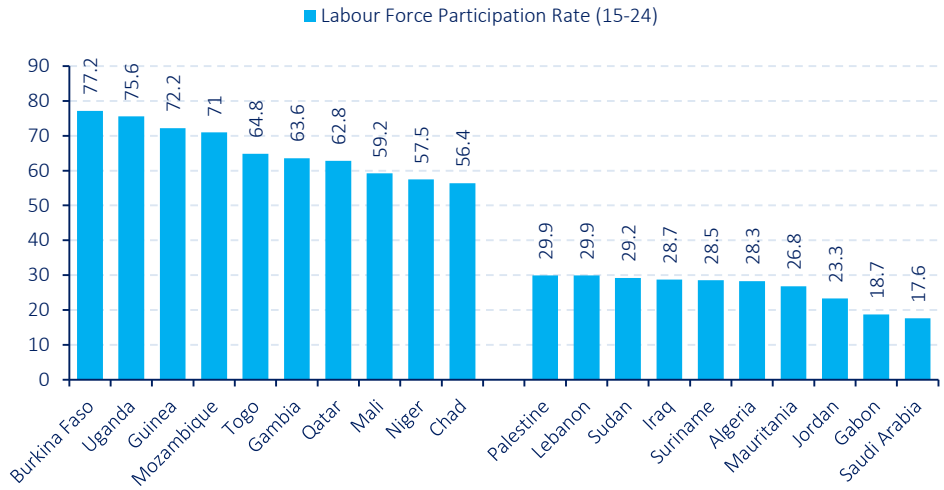
participation rate, estimated at 45.8% in 2016, remained more than 3 percentage points below the pre-crisis level, as more young people, frustrated with their employment prospects, continue to drop out of the labour market. In OIC countries between 2000 and 2016, youth labour force participation decreased from 45.9% to 43.5%, but it decreased even more significantly in other comparison groups, from 52.7% to 47% in developed countries and from 56.2% to 46.6% in non-OIC developing countries. The world average has accordingly declined to 48.5% in 2016 compared to its level of 53.3% in 2000. This trend can largely be explained by rising participation of young people to education and vocational training programmes, longer stay in school and tough labour market policies avoiding the work of teenagers.

The declining trend in youth labour force participation is observed in both male and female populations. The least affected group is the young female population in OIC countries, which is estimated to remain at 31.6% in 2016 compared to 32.2% in 2000 (Figure 1.8). However, despite more substantial reductions in other country groups, youth female participation in OIC countries continues to remain significantly below the averages of other country groups. Male participation similarly showed a declining trend in all country groups during the period

under consideration. It decreased from 59.1% to 55.1% in OIC countries, from 64.3% to 54.1% in non-OIC developing countries and from 55.2% to 48.2% in developed countries.

At the individual country level, the highest youth labour force participation rate was recorded in Burkina Faso (77.2%), Uganda (75.6%), Guinea (72.2%), Mozambique (71%) and Togo (64.8%). Except Qatar, other countries with highest participation rates are least developed countries. On the bottom side, Saudi Arabia is the country with lowest participation of young people to labour force with 17.6% only. It is also the second lowest in the world. Gabon (18.7%), Jordan (23.3%), Mauritania (26.8%) and Algeria (28.3%) are the other countries with lowest youth participation in labour force (Figure 1.9).

Figure 1.9: Top 10 Countries with Highest and Lowest Youth Participation Rates (2016)



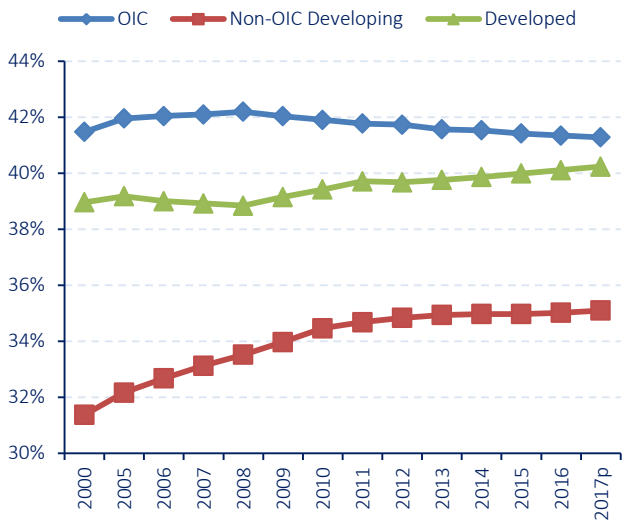
Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database.

Inactivity

The inactivity rate is a measure of the proportion of a country's working-age population that is not engaged actively in the labour market, either by working or looking for work. Summing up the inactivity rate and the labour force participation rate will yield 100%. Therefore, the analysis made above provides some insights on inactivity as well, but it is still useful to focus on the people that are out of the labour force.

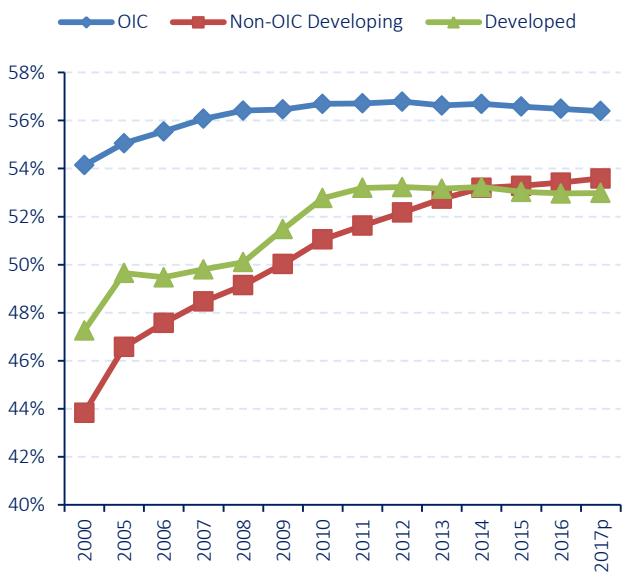
There is a variety of reasons why some individuals do not participate in the labour force. Among these reasons are caring for family members, retirement, sickness, disability, education, unavailability of suitable jobs, and unwillingness to work. Increases in the number of people who are inactive, for whatever reason, can have an impact on the unemployment rate as it can reduce the number employed, unemployed or both. If the

Figure 1.10: Inactivity Rate (2000-2017)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

Figure 1.11: Youth Inactivity Rate (2000-2017)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

number of unemployed is held constant, a fall in the number of employed will raise the unemployment rate.

Inactivity rate in OIC countries is falling only at a slow pace. It decreased to 41.3% in 2016 from 42% in 2005 (Figure 1.10). In contrast, a slightly upward trend is observed in non-OIC developing countries and developed countries. The share of inactive population in non-OIC developing countries increased to 35% in 2016 from 32.2% in 2005. Inactivity among female in OIC countries shows a declining trend, which fell to 60.4% in 2016 from its level of 62% in 2005. Inactivity among female is relatively low in non-OIC developing countries (48.1%) and developed countries (46.9%). For male, there is a slightly upward trend in all country groups (see Figure 1.5). At individual country level, Uganda, Qatar and Burkina Faso have the lowest rate of inactivity and Jordan, Algeria and Iraq have the highest rates of inactivity (see Figure 1.6).

Similarly, inactivity rates among young people are high and show an upward trend in all country groups. More than half of the youth in OIC countries continue to remain inactive (Figure 1.11). In 2016, 56.5% of young people remain out of labour force. In developed and non-OIC developing countries, this rate is 53% and 53.4%, respectively. These country groups respectively experienced an increase of around 6% and 10% in youth inactivity rate, which can largely be explained by participation in full-time education.

1.2 Employment

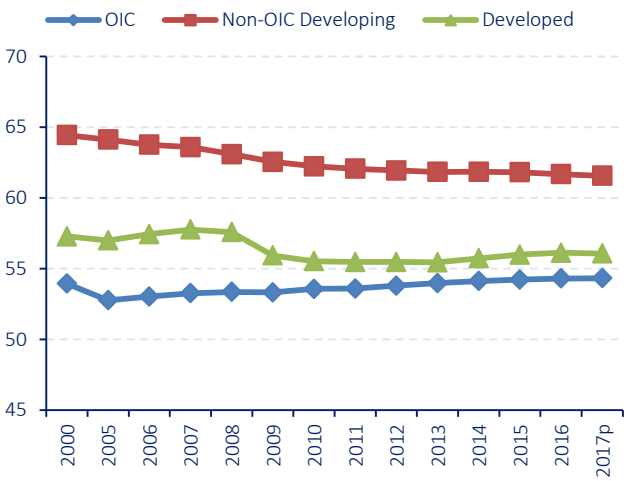
This section analyses the major employment indicators, which include employment-to-population ratio, type of employment and sectoral distribution of employment.

Employment-to-Population Ratio

The employment-to-population (E2P) ratio is defined by ILO as the proportion of a country's working-age population that is employed. A high ratio means that a large proportion of a country's population is employed, while a low ratio means that a large share of the population is not involved directly in market-related activities, because they are either unemployed or out of the labour force altogether. The global employment-to-population ratio stood at 59.2% in 2016, a rate which is still below the pre-crisis level of 60.6%. The male employment-to-population ratio at global level stood at 72% and the female ratio at 46.5%.

While the E2P ratio in OIC countries increased from 52.8% in 2005 to 54.3% in 2016 (Figure 1.12), a reverse trend was observed in other country groups. In non-OIC developing countries, the ratio decreased from 64.1% in 2000 to 61.7% in 2016, while it decreased to 56.1% in developed countries from its level of 57% in 2005. As of 2016, OIC countries narrowed the gap between the developed countries to 1.8 percentage points, which is a promising development for the OIC countries.

Figure 1.12: Employment to Population Ratio (2000-2017)

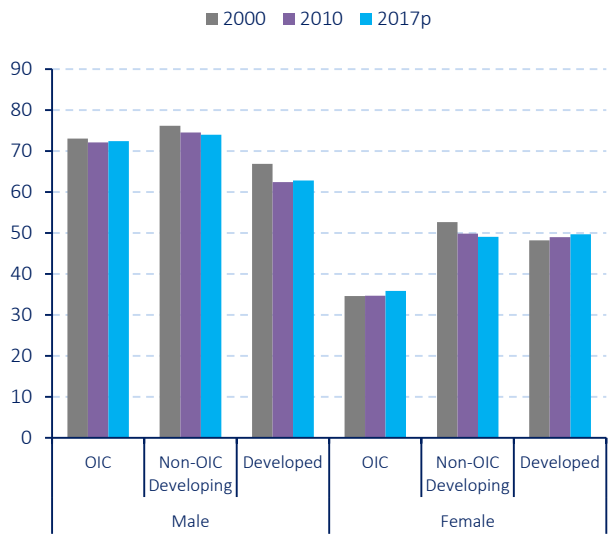


Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

Employment-to-population ratio for female is only half of the ratio for male population in OIC countries (Figure 1.13). Despite slight increase in the ratio for female, it is expected to reach only 35.9% in 2017, whereas the ratio for male is expected to reach 72.4% in the same year. In other country groups, such large discrepancy is not observed. The gender gap is 25% in non-OIC developing countries, but only 13.1% in developed countries.

The highest proportion of employment to total working age population in 2016 was recorded in Qatar with 83.9%, which is also the second highest ratio in the world (Figure 1.14). It was followed by Uganda (83.1%), Burkina Faso (80.9%), Guinea (76.7%) and United

Figure 1.13: Employment to Population Ratio by Gender

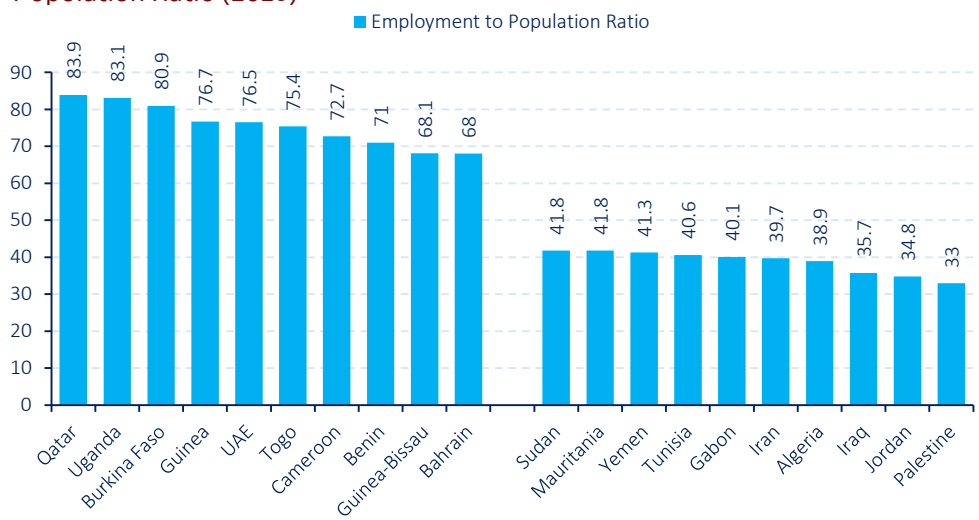


Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

Arab Emirates (76.5%). This reflects the fact that these countries have relatively high shares of labour force participation and low levels of unemployment. On the other hand, the lowest proportion of employed population to total working age population is observed in Palestine with 33%, which was also the lowest in the world. Other countries with low proportion are Jordan (34.8%), Iraq (35.7%), Algeria (38.9%) and Iran (39.7%). These countries may be facing the challenges of low labour force participation and/or high unemployment.

Labour force participation of young people aged 15-24 was following a declining trend, as identified in the previous subsection. Accordingly, we observe a similar trend in employment-to-population ratio. In non-OIC developing country

Figure 1.14: Top 10 Countries with Highest and Lowest Employment to Population Ratio (2016)

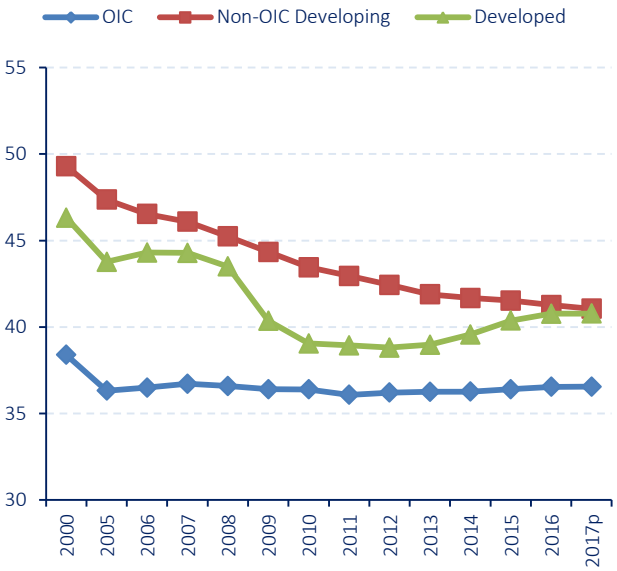


Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database.

group, there is a clear downward trend in the ratio; however, in the case of OIC countries, there is a more stable picture (Figure 1.15). The ratio started to increase only during the recent years in developed countries. The ratios disaggregated by gender reveal that they are decreasing for both female and male. The young female in OIC and developed countries as well as young male in developed countries witness a slightly upward trend compared to 2010. Young female population in OIC countries still appear to have relatively much lower representation in the labour market (Figure 1.16).

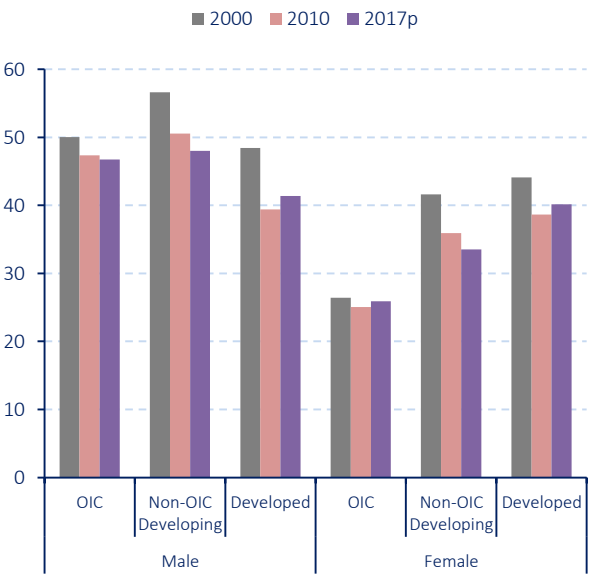
At the individual country level, the ratio of employment to population for youth in 2016 was highest in Burkina Faso with 73.5%, which is also the second highest in the world (Figure 1.17). It was followed by Uganda (72.5%), Guinea (63.9%), Qatar (62.4%) and Togo (57.2%). The lowest ratio was recorded in Gabon with 11.3%, which is also the second lowest in the world. It was followed by Saudi Arabia (12.1%), Jordan (15.4%), Palestine (17.6%) and Iraq (18.3%).

Figure 1.15: Employment to Population Ratio (2000-2017), Youth



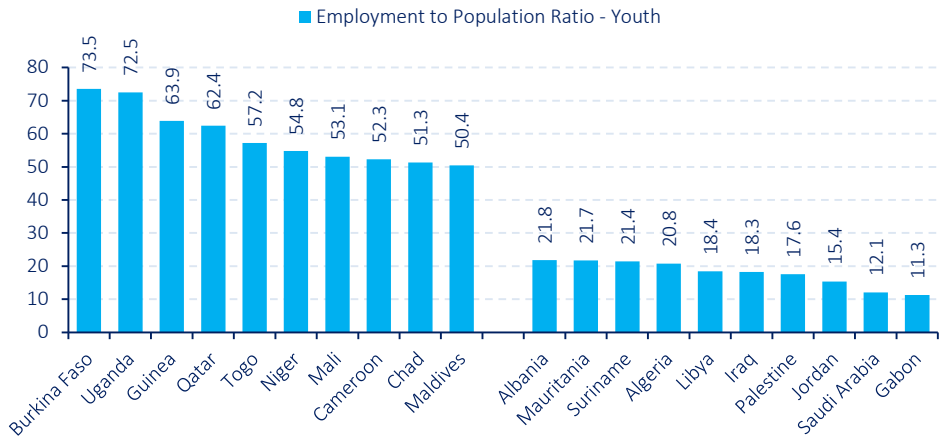
Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

Figure 1.16: Employment to Population Ratio by Gender (Youth)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

Figure 1.17: OIC Countries with Highest and Lowest Employment to Population Ratio (2016)

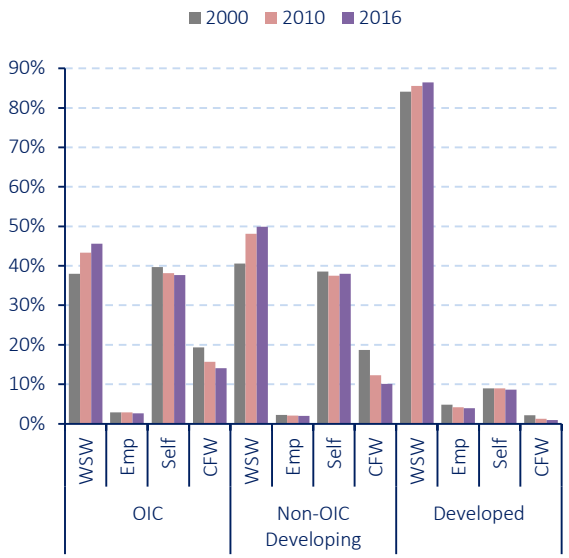


Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database.

Status in Employment

Categorization of employed people by their employment status can help in understanding both the dynamics of the labour market and the level of development of countries. In this context, ILO distinguishes between two categories of the employed people: (a) wage and salaried workers and (b) self-employed workers, with the latter further sub-divided into self-employed with employees (employers), self-employed without employees (own-account workers), members of producers' cooperatives and contributing family workers. Own-account workers and contributing family workers together represent the vulnerable employment.

Figure 1.18: Status in Employment



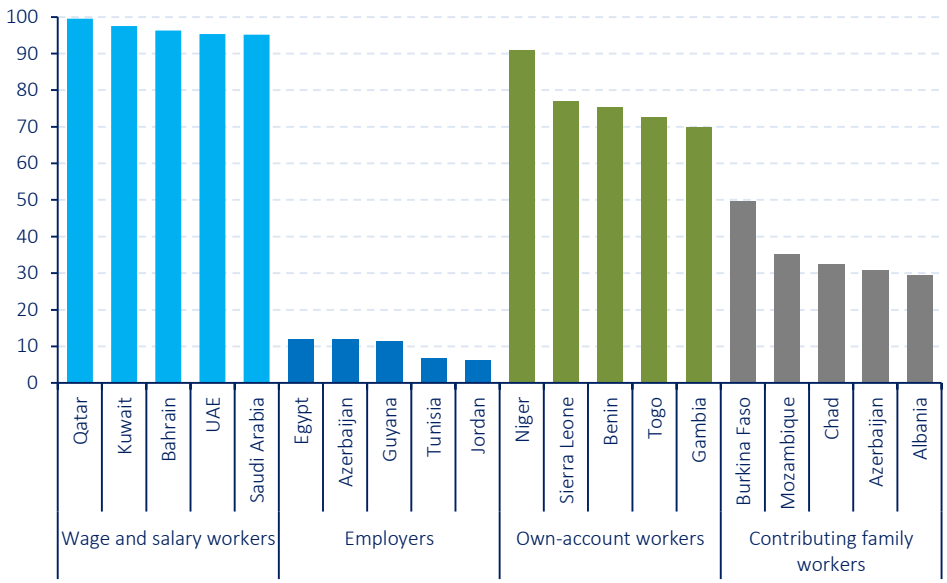
Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database. WSW: Wage and salary workers; Emp: Employers; Self: Own-account workers; CFW: Contributing family workers.

In 2000, wage and salary workers in OIC countries were accounting 38%, own-account workers 39.7%, contributing family workers 19.4% and employers 2.9% (Figure 1.18).

Over the years, the share of wage and salary workers has increased, but the shares of employers, own-account workers and contributing family workers decreased. As of 2016, 45.6% of the employed people were wage and salary workers, 37.7% own-account workers, 14.1% contributing family workers and 2.6% employers. This indicates that while entrepreneurship in OIC countries is declining, a larger share of population has a regular job with wage and salaries. However, it should be noted that 86.5% of the employed in developed countries are wages and salary workers.

At individual country level in 2016, GCC countries have largest shares of the employed as wage and salary workers, ranging between 99.5% in Qatar and 95.2% in Saudi Arabia (Figure 1.19). The share of employers is highest in Egypt (12%) and Azerbaijan (11.9%). With respect to the shares of own-account workers, Niger (91%) and Sierra Leone (76.8%) are the top countries, followed by some other sub-Saharan African countries. Burkina Faso (49.6%) and Mozambique (35.2%) are the top OIC countries with highest shares of contributing family workers in total employed.

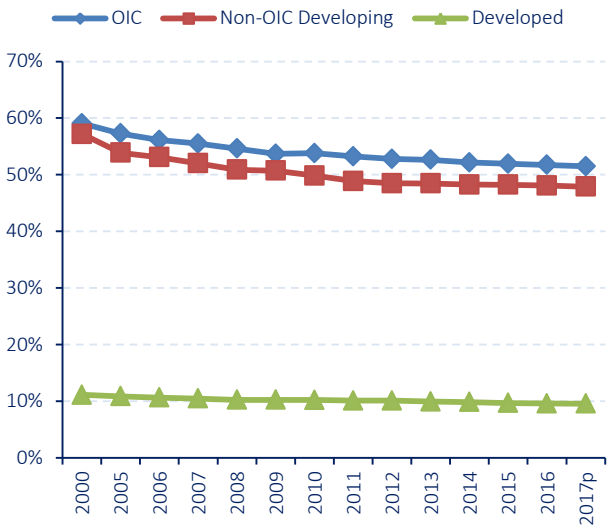
Figure 1.19: Top 5 Countries in Different Status in Employment (2016)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database.

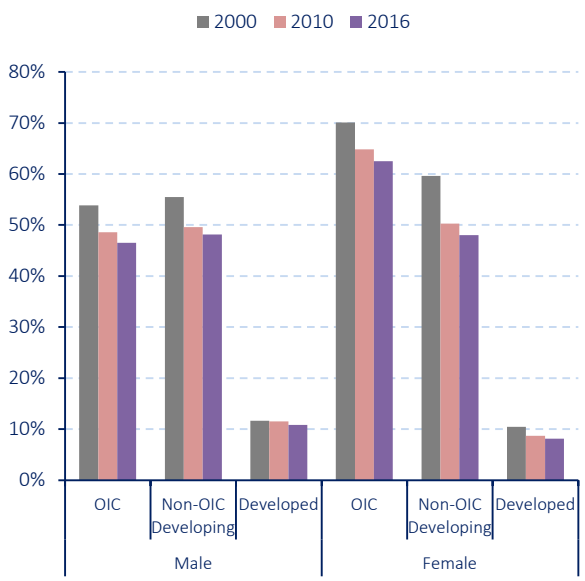
Vulnerable employment reflects working under inappropriate conditions and persons in vulnerable employment are more likely to have limited or no access to social security or secure income. According to the ILO, over 1.4 billion people were in vulnerable employment in 2017, accounting for almost 43% of total employment. With the increasing shares of wage and salary workers and employers in OIC countries, share of vulnerable

Figure 1.20: Vulnerable Employment



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

Figure 1.21: Share of Vulnerable Employment by Gender



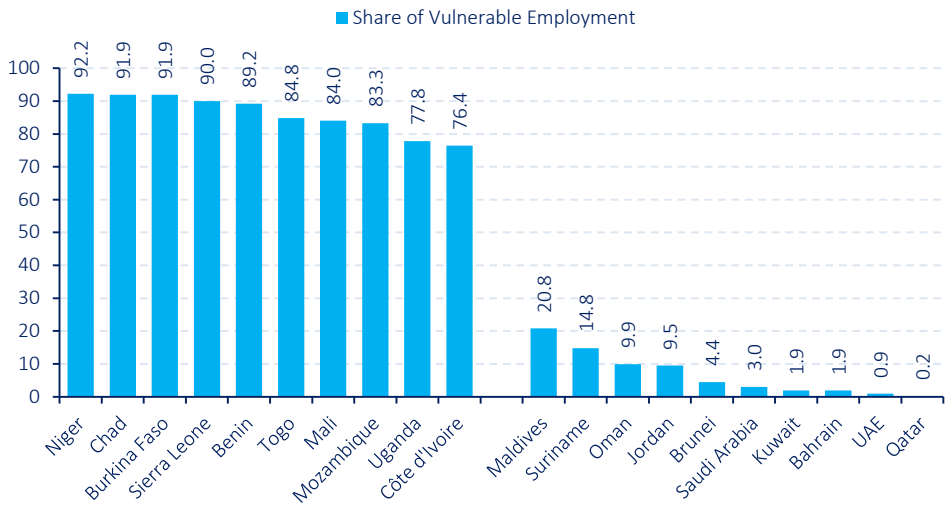
Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database.

employment has continuously declined to reach 51.7% in 2016 compared to 59.1% in 2000 (Figure 1.20). Non-OIC developing countries have also demonstrated a similar success and reduced the share of vulnerable employment during the same period by almost 9 percentage points. Overall, the share of vulnerable employment remains excessively high in developing countries.

On the other hand, as shown in Figure 1.21, male workers in OIC countries have made significant progress since 2000 and displayed lower level of vulnerability (46.5%) in 2016 compared to non-OIC developing countries (48.1%). However, despite some improvement, the level of vulnerability of female employed remains at 62.5% in 2016, a rate which is higher than that observed in non-OIC developing countries (48%).

At individual country level, sub-Saharan African countries have the highest shares of vulnerable employment, reaching up to 92.2% in Niger, 91.9% in Chad and 91.9% in Burkina Faso in 2016 (Figure 1.22). Countries in the Gulf region have generally lower shares of vulnerable employment. With only 0.2% share of vulnerable employment, Qatar provides the most appropriate conditions to its workers, followed by United Arab Emirates (0.9%), Bahrain (1.9%) and Kuwait (1.9%). These countries are also among the lowest in the world.

Figure 1.22: Top 10 Countries with Highest and Lowest Shares of Vulnerable Employment (2016)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database.

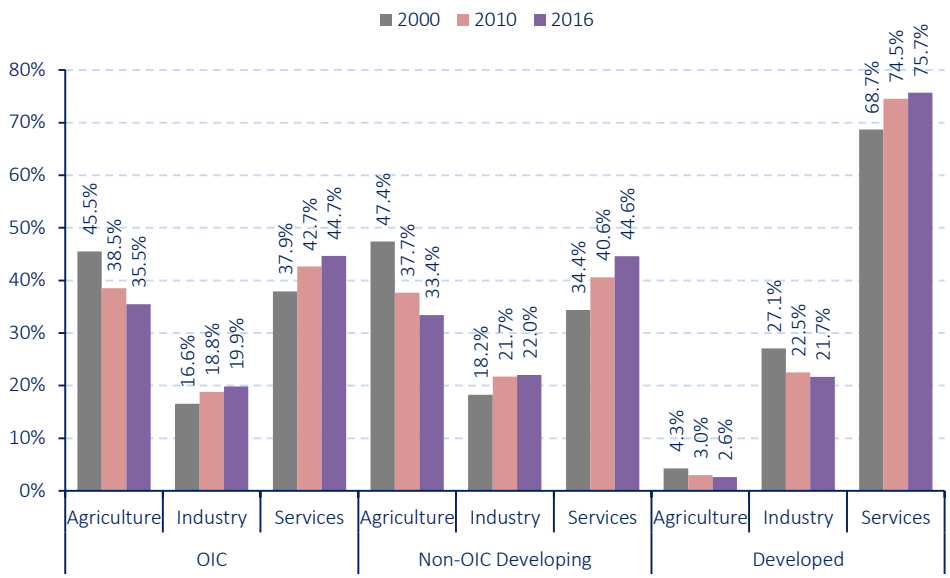
Employment by Sector

In conjunction with economic development, it is typically observed a shift in employment from agriculture to industry and services sectors, with a corresponding increase in wage and salary workers and decrease in self-employed and contributing family workers. When total employment is disaggregated into three broad sectors – agriculture, industry and services[2] –, the share of employment in agriculture in OIC countries (35.5%) is slightly higher than the share in non-OIC developing countries (33.4%), whereas only 2.6% of total workers are engaged in agricultural activities in developed countries as of 2016 (Figure 1.23). Industry sector accounts similar shares of employment in all country groups, 19.9% in OIC countries, 22% in non-OIC developing countries and 21.7% in developed countries. 75.7% of total employment in developed countries is concentrated in services sector, while this share is around 44.7% in OIC countries and 44.6% in non-OIC developing countries. Overall, in OIC countries as well as in other developing countries, while the share of agriculture in total employment is declining, the shares of industry and services are rising.

At the individual country level, the share of agriculture sector is highest in Burkina Faso (80.1%), Chad (76.6%) and Mozambique (75%), as depicted in Figure 1.24. Burkina Faso has

[2] Agriculture here refers to crop cultivation, livestock production, forestry, fishing, and hunting. Industry includes manufacturing, mining, construction, electricity, water, and gas. Services cover all other economic activities, including trade, transport, and communications; government, financial, and business services; and personal, social, and community services.

Figure 1.23: Employment by Sector



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

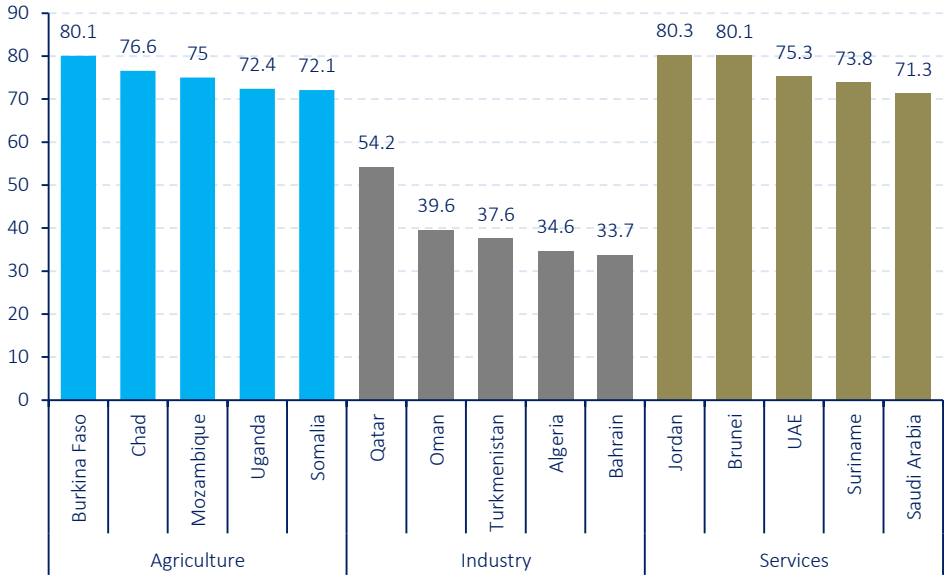
also the second highest share in agricultural employment in the world. The share of industry sector in total employment is highest in Qatar (54.2%), Oman (39.6%) and Turkmenistan (37.6%). Qatar, Oman and Turkmenistan are also the top 3 countries with the highest shares of industrial employment in the world. Finally, the share of services sector is highest in Jordan (80.3%), Brunei (80.1%) and United Arab Emirates (75.3%).

1.3 Unemployment

Unemployment remained one of the most challenging issues across the globe. According to the ILO World Employment and Social Outlook 2017 report, the global unemployment rate is expected to rise modestly from 5.7 to 5.8% in 2017 representing an increase of 3.4 million in the number of jobless people. Due to ongoing uncertainties about world economic developments, little improvement is expected in the global labour market in 2018. The number of unemployed persons globally in 2017 is forecast to stand at just over 201 million – with an additional rise of 2.7 million expected in 2018, according to the ILO. This reflects the fact that employment is not expanding sufficiently fast to keep up with the growing labour force. Global uncertainty and the lack of decent jobs accordingly contribute to social unrest and migration in many parts of the world.

According the latest available data, OIC countries recorded significantly higher average unemployment rates compared to the world, developed and non-OIC developing countries during the period 2000-2017 (Figure 1.25). Since 2000, total unemployment rate in OIC

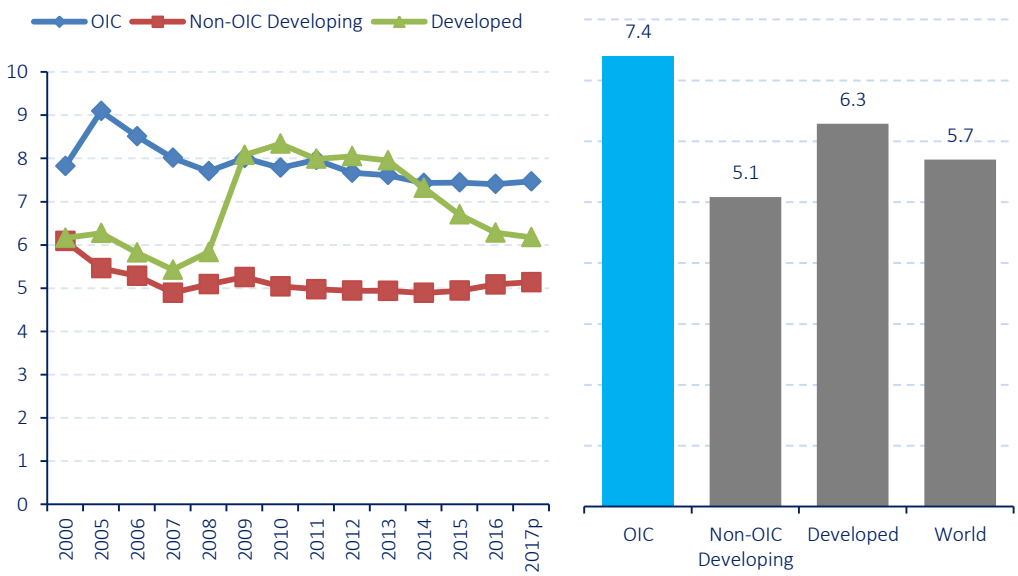
Figure 1.24: Top 5 Countries with Highest Shares of Employment in Agriculture, Industry and Services (2016)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database.

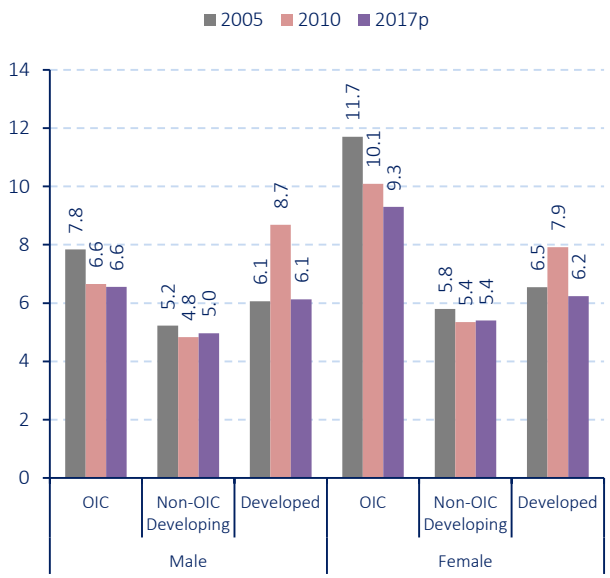
countries fluctuated between 7.4% and 9.1%. The high unemployment rates in developed countries following the financial crisis in 2008 constituted the only exception, which exceeded the rate in OIC countries during 2009-2013. After the global financial crisis,

Figure 1.25: Unemployment Rates (2000-2017) Unemployment in 2016



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

Figure 1.26: Unemployment Rates by Gender

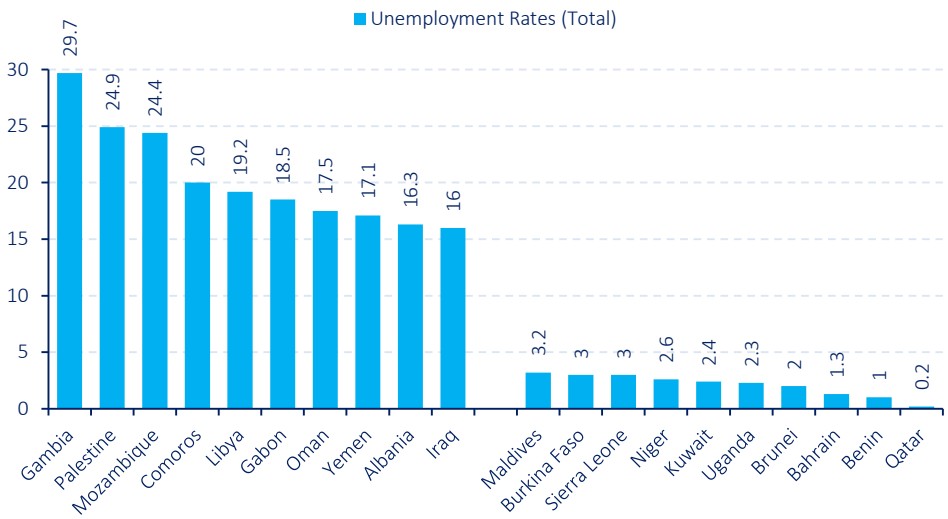


Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

unemployment rates in developed countries increased from a level below 6% to over 8%. Since 2014, average unemployment rate in developed countries fell below the rates observed in OIC countries and reached 6.3% in 2016, compared to 7.4% in OIC countries. Average unemployment rate in non-OIC developing countries remained significantly lower (around 2-3%) than the OIC average throughout period under consideration, which is expected to remain at 5.1% in 2016.

Unemployment rates for male labour force are typically lower than the rates for female in all country groups (Figure 1.26). Despite significant improvement since 2005, female unemployment in OIC countries remains highest with 9.3% in 2017. It is estimated at 5.4%

Figure 1.27: OIC Countries with Highest and Lowest Rates of Unemployment (2016)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database.

in non-OIC developing countries and 6.2% in developed countries for the same year. Male unemployment in OIC countries is expected to decrease from 7.8% in 2005 to 6.6% in 2017 and from 5.2% to 5% in non-OIC developing countries during the same period. On the other hand, with 6.1% in 2017, male unemployment rates in developed countries reached its same level in 2005 after surging up to 8.7% in 2010 due to the global financial crisis.

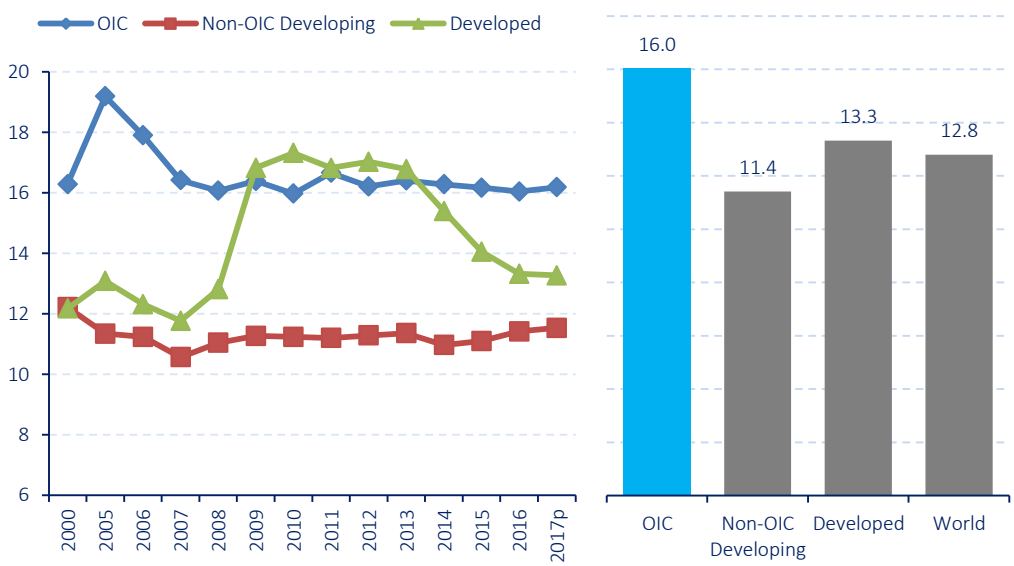
At the individual country level, unemployment rates greatly varied among OIC countries (Figure 1.27). The unemployed people in 2016 constituted less than one 1% of total labour force in Qatar (0.2%), which is also the lowest rate in the world. Benin (1%) and Bahrain (1.3%) are also among the ten countries in the world with the lowest unemployment rates. However, unemployment is a serious concern in Gambia (29.7%), Palestine (24.9%), Mozambique (24.4%) and Comoros (20%), where the rate is above 20%.

Youth Unemployment

Youth (aged 15 to 24 years) continue to suffer from lack of decent job opportunities across the globe. According to the latest estimates, the number of unemployed youth globally will reach 71 million in 2017 (ILO, 2016). Accordingly, the global youth unemployment rate is on the rise after a number of years of improvement, and is expected to reach 13.1% in 2017 (from 12.9 in 2015). This is very close to its historic peak in 2013 (at 13.2%). It is particularly high in the Northern Africa (29.3%) and the Arab States (30.6%).

The figures on youth unemployment rates in OIC countries are not quite promising. The rate remained constantly above 16% and also well above the averages of non-OIC developing and developed countries since 2000. After the financial crisis that hit developed

Figure 1.28: Youth Unemployment (2000-2017) Unemployment in 2016



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

economies, the problem of youth unemployment in these countries became even more serious compared to that in OIC countries during the period 2009-2013 (Figure 1.28). As of 2017, youth unemployment in OIC countries expected to remain at 16.2%, while it will decline to 13.3% in developed countries and remain at 11.5% in non-OIC developing countries.

Figure 1.29: Youth Unemployment by Gender

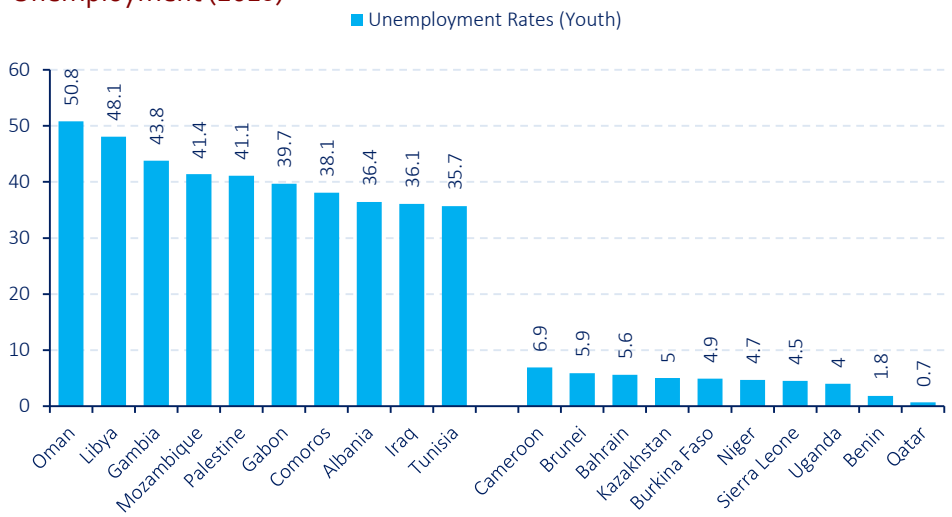
Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

As in other major labour market indicators, despite some improvement since 2005, female unemployment among young people is highest in OIC countries. It is expected to fall to 18.2% in 2017 from its level of 23.2% in 2005 (Figure 1.29). While female unemployment among youth has been decreasing in OIC developing countries during the period under consideration, it did not change significantly in other country groups. As of 2017, it is estimated that 12% of youth labour force in non-OIC developing countries and 12.3% in developed countries will remain unemployed. With respect to male unemployment among youth, it is expected to increase to 15.1% in 2017 in OIC countries and 11.2% in non-OIC developing countries, but decrease to 14.1% in developed countries compared to the rate observed in 2010.

There are again wide discrepancies in youth unemployment rates across OIC countries. Qatar (0.7%) and Benin (1.8%) are the countries with lowest unemployment rates in 2016, which are also among top five countries in the world (Figure 1.30). In contrast, the highest youth unemployment rate was estimated in Oman (50.8%), followed by Libya (48.1%), Gambia (43.8%), Mozambique (41.4%) and Palestine (41.1%). In 2016, youth unemployment rate was above 20% in 22 OIC countries and above the world average of 13.1% in 34 OIC countries.

Share of youth population in total population is significantly higher in OIC countries compared to other country groups (SESRIC, 2016). Due to high youth population and high youth unemployment rates in OIC countries, the share of youth unemployed in total unemployed in OIC countries consequently will be considerably above the share in other

Figure 1.30: Top 10 Countries with Highest and Lowest Rates of Youth Unemployment (2016)

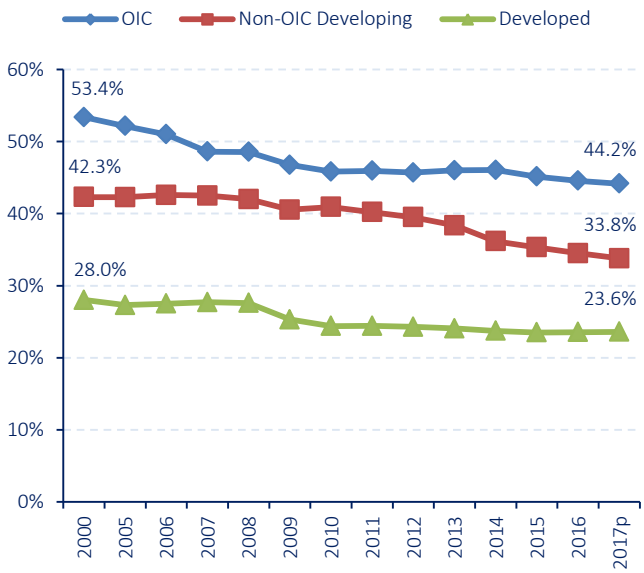


Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database.

country groups. This fact is depicted in Figure 1.31. Until 2006, unemployed youth were accounting for more than half of all unemployed people in OIC countries. This share has been decreasing since then and reached 44.6% in 2016 from its level of 53.4% in 2000. However, it can still be regarded as a significantly high ratio. There is also a declining trend in other country groups. It decreased to 34.5% in 2016 from 42.3% in 2000 in non-OIC developing countries and to 23.6% from 28% in developed countries. There is also no substantial discrepancy across gender (Figure 1.32). Generally, the share for male is 1-2 percentage points higher than the share for female in all country groups.

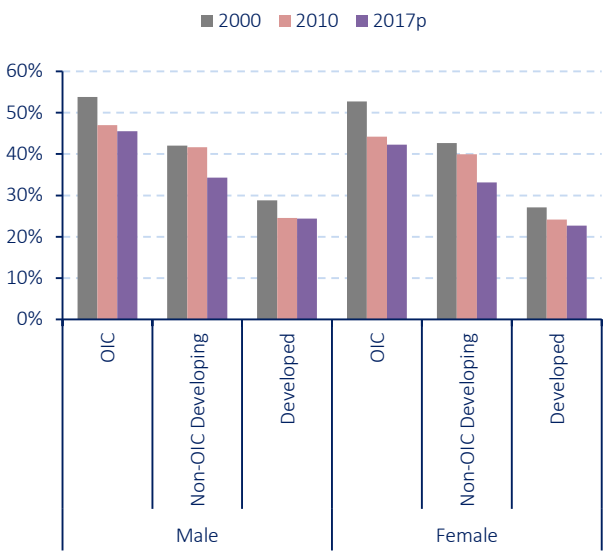
But, the critical question is why youth unemployment

Figure 1.31: Share of Youth Unemployed in Total Unemployed (2000-2017)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

Figure 1.32: Share of Youth Unemployed in Total Unemployed by Gender



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

rates are higher than adult unemployment rates. According to ILO (2006), there are many likely explanations. Firstly, youth are more vulnerable than adults in difficult economic times. Assuming that employers seek employees with past working experience, the youth who is entering the labour force for the first time will be at a disadvantage and have a harder time finding employment. Secondly, young people often lack both labour market information and job search experience. Adults, on the other hand, might have the possibility of finding work through references from previous employers or colleagues and are more likely to know the "right" people. Another possibility is that youth might wait longer to find work that suits their requirements.

All in all, notwithstanding the extent to which the economies of the OIC countries have been affected by the crisis, it is clear that unemployment, both youth and adult, is one of the major economic and social problems that many OIC countries are still facing and requiring urgent solutions. The global estimations are not quite optimistic. According to the ILO, the global youth unemployment rate is expected to increase to 13.1% in 2017. Moreover, unemployment figures understate the true extent of youth labour market challenges since large numbers of young people are working, but do not earn enough to lift themselves out of poverty. Therefore, greater emphasis should be given to young people through promoting their participation into labour market, providing required skills and facilitating to find decent jobs.

1.4 Skills Levels, Labour Productivity and Income Status

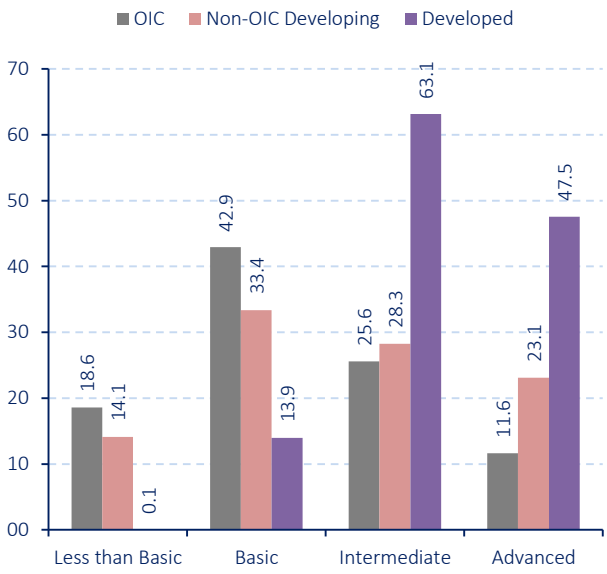
This section discusses the educational attainment, skills levels, productivity and income status of employed people. Educational attainment is an important indicator of skills level and productivity and strongly associated with income status of employed people.

Educational Attainment

Formal education is highly instrumental to improve the production capacity of a society. Better education improves the production process in several ways. Educated, or skilled, workers are able to perform complex tasks and thereby contribute to producing more technologically sophisticated products. Especially in developing countries, skilled workers increase the absorptive capacity of the country by acquiring and making efficient use of rapid technological advances, which is of crucial importance in successful economic diversification and development as well as to compete successfully in world markets. Skills level of labour force is generally classified according to specific level of education they attained. As the share of labour force with intermediate and advanced level of education increases, the ability to adopt new skills and absorb new knowledge increases.

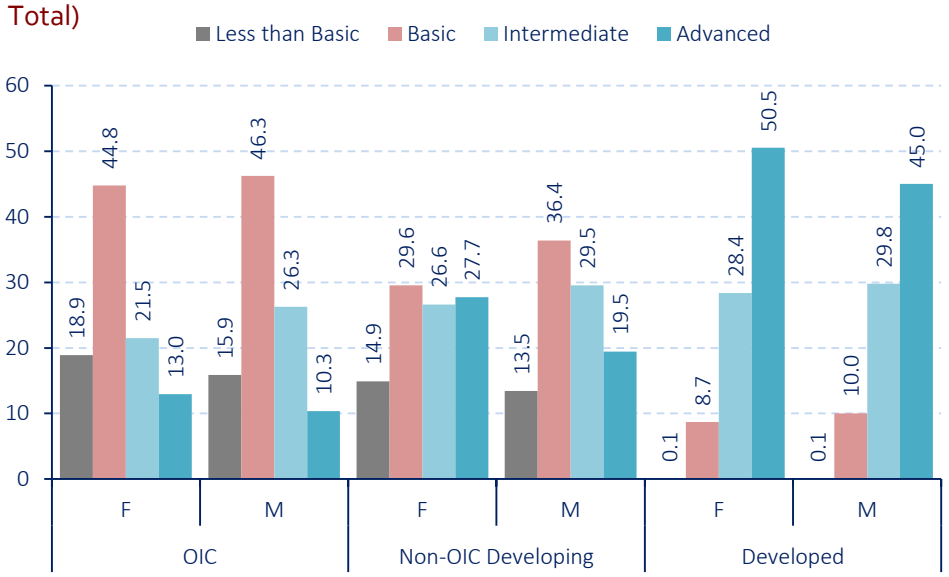
According to the latest data available, educational level of labour force in OIC countries is relatively low. While 18.6% does not have even basic education, 42.9% of the labour force has only basic education (Figure 1.33). The shares of labour force with intermediate and advanced education are only 25.6% and 11.6%, respectively. Non-OIC developing countries have a slightly better picture, where the shares of labour force with intermediate and advanced level education are 28.3% and 23.1%, respectively. Again around 14% of labour force in non-OIC developing countries did not complete even primary level education. Share of labour force with advanced education in non-OIC developing countries is around 12% higher than that in OIC countries, which makes a quite significant difference in terms of quality of labour force. Developed countries, on the other hand, are well endowed with skilled labour force, where 63.1% of all their labour force has already completed intermediate level of education and another 47.5% has completed advanced level of education. Remaining 13.9% have their primary level of education completed and there is almost no labour force without their primary level of education.

Figure 1.33: Educational Attainment of the Labour Force (Shares in Total)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, Latest year available.

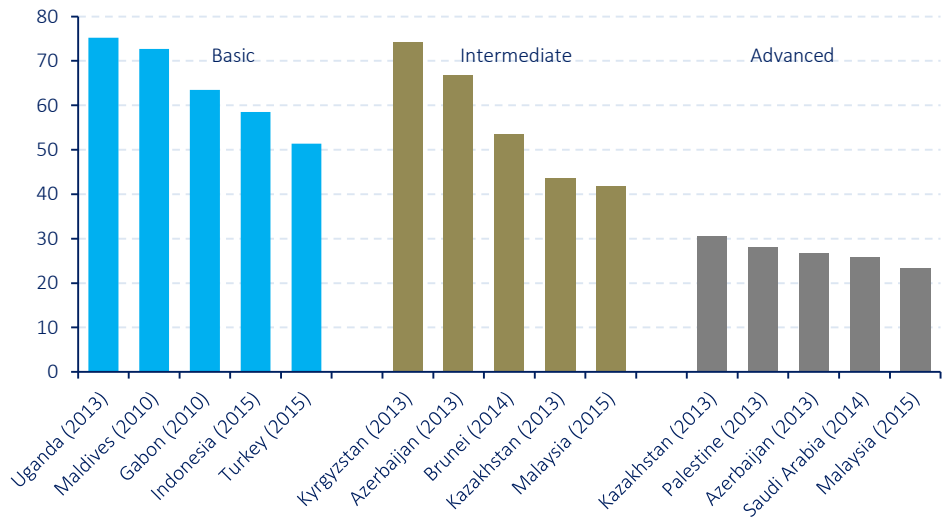
Figure 1.34: Educational Attainment of the Labour Force by Gender (Shares in Total)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, Latest year available.

In general, female labour force is more educated than male labour force. In OIC countries, female labour force with advanced education (13%) is higher than the male labour force (10.3%). However, the share of female labour force without any educational attainment is also around 3 percentage points higher than the male labour force (Figure 1.34). The shares

Figure 1.35: Top 5 Countries with Highest Shares of Labour Force with Basic, Intermediate and Advanced Education



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database.

of male labour force with basic education and intermediate education are also higher than the shares of female labour force. In non-OIC developing countries, the share of female labour force with advanced education (27.7%) is far above the male labour force (19.5%). There is also a similar picture in developed countries, where the share of female labour force with tertiary education (50.5%) is well above their male counterparts (45%).

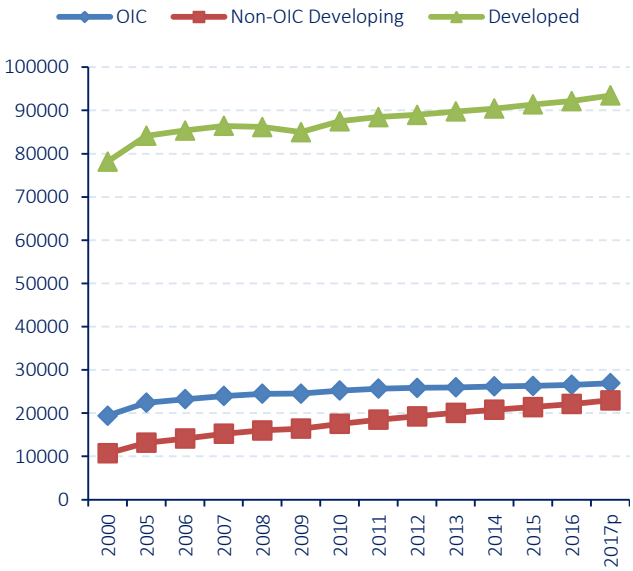
Countries with highest shares of labour force with basic, intermediate and advanced education in the OIC region are depicted in Figure 1.35. Uganda has the largest share of labour force with primary education (75.2%). In intermediate level of education, central and south-eastern Asian countries appear to have the highest shares. Kyrgyzstan (74.3%), Azerbaijan (66.7%) and Brunei (53.5%) occupy the first three positions in rank. Share of labour force with advanced level of education is the highest in Kazakhstan (30.5%), followed by Palestine (28%) and Azerbaijan (26.6%).

Labour Productivity

Productivity plays a pivotal role in the development of an economy. It helps to increase real income and improve living standards by catalysing the economic growth. Labour productivity is usually defined as the output per unit of labour input or output per hour worked. It helps to identify the contribution of labour to the GDP of a country and provides a base for cross country comparison and explanation of income disparities.

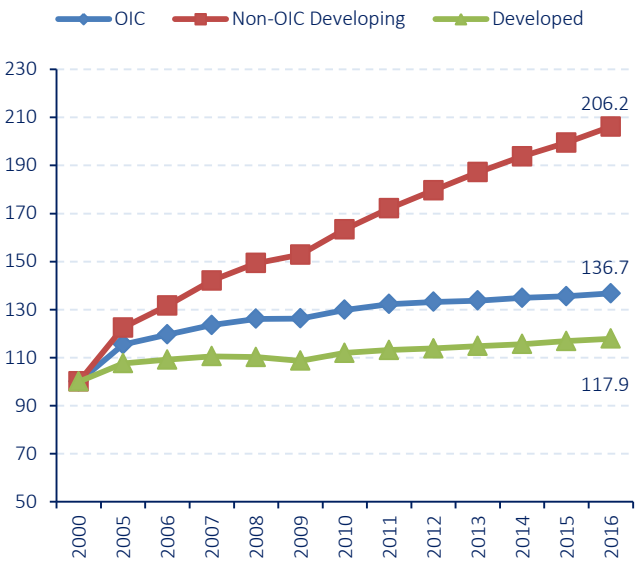
At the global level, labour productivity has witnessed an increasing trend during the period 2000-2017. As shown in Figure 1.36, output per worker in OIC countries has increased from US$ 19,400 in 2000 to US$ 26,500 in 2016, as measured in constant international prices based on purchasing power parity (PPP). This upward trend was only affected by financial crisis in 2008 during the whole period under consideration. The labour productivity gap between the developed and developing countries remained substantial throughout this period as output per worker in the developed countries is estimated at US$ 93,400 in 2017 compared to just US$ 22,900 in non-OIC developing

Figure 1.36: Labour Productivity (GDP per worker, constant 2011 international US$ in PPP)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

Figure 1.37: Labour Productivity Index

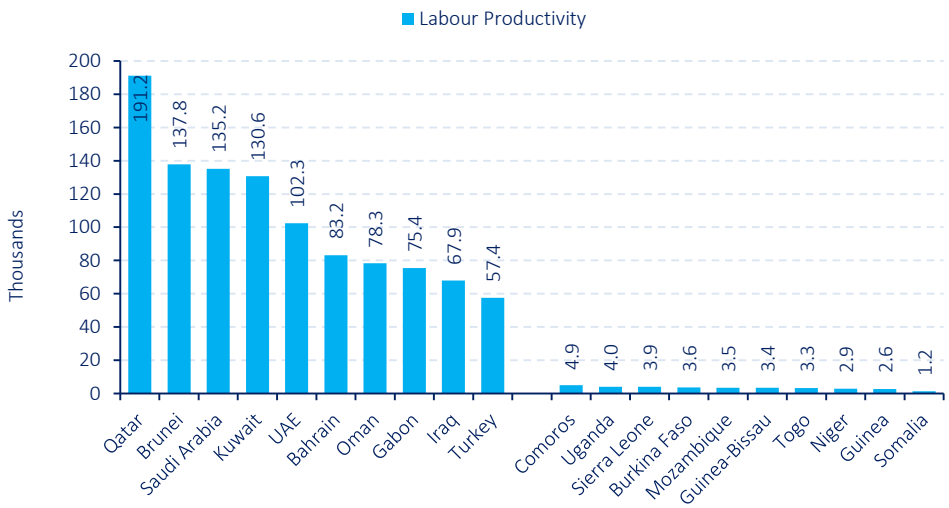


Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

countries and US$ 26,900 in OIC countries. This means that an average worker in the group of non-OIC developing countries produces only 24.5% of the output produced by an average worker in the developed countries and an average worker in OIC countries produces only 28.8% of the output produced by an average worker in the developed countries.

However, when the performance of different country groups is evaluated since 2000, it is observed that non-OIC developing countries have made the largest improvement in labour productivity levels. By considering the year 2000 as the base year, Figure 1.37 shows the improvements in the productivity levels in each country groups. By attaining 106.2% increase, non-OIC developing countries have more than doubled their level of labour productivity over the period 2000-2016. On the other hand, workers in OIC countries could increase their

Figure 1.38: OIC Countries with Highest and Lowest Labour Productivity (2016)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database.

productivity only by 36.7%. This figure is 17.9% in developed countries.

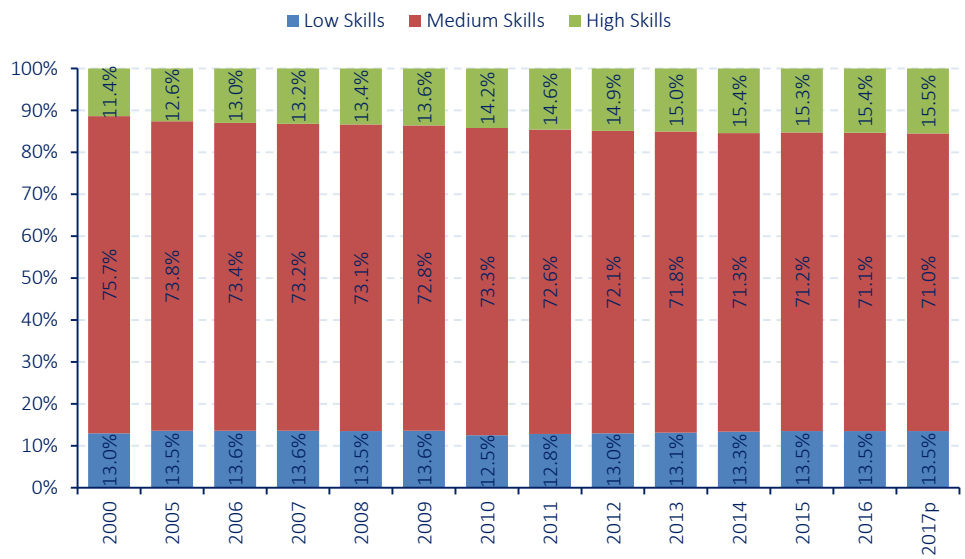
At the individual country level, Qatar registered the highest output per worker (US$ 191,200) in 2016, followed by Brunei Darussalam (US$ 137,800), Saudi Arabia (US$ 135,200), Kuwait (US$ 130,600) and United Arab Emirates (US$ 102,300). Among the OIC member countries, the lowest labour productivity level was recorded in Somalia (US$ 1,200) followed by Guinea (US$ 2,600) and Niger (US$ 2,900). Only five member countries recorded output per worker higher than the average of developed countries (Figure 1.38).

Employment by Skills Levels

The level of skills and qualifications of a person is a critical factor in enhancing the employability in the labour market. However, the benefits of skills development go beyond the employability. For an economy, skills development of workers with low qualifications in general increases productivity and strengthens long-term competitiveness. For enterprises, workers with better qualifications will be more productive and increase the profitability of the firms. Likewise, workers with better skills and training will receive higher earnings. Therefore, maintaining and upgrading the skills and competences of the labour force to meet and adapt the continuously changing working environments are all crucial for employees, employers as well as the whole economy.

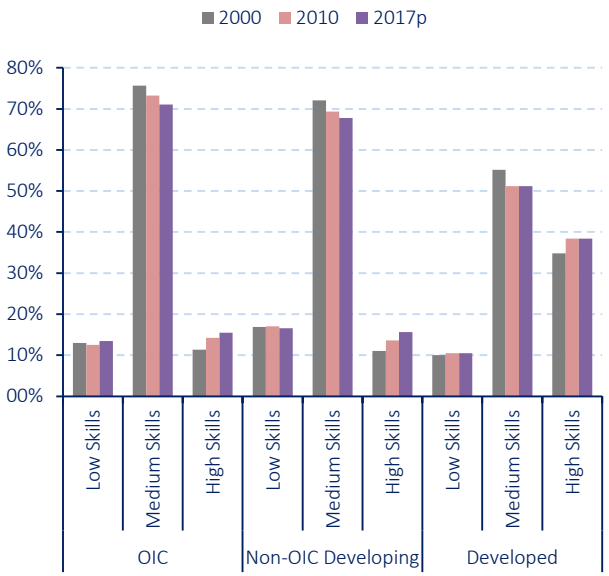
Figure 1.39 shows the skills levels of employed people in OIC countries under three categories: low skills, medium skills and high skills. It is observed that while employed people with medium skills constitute more than two third of all employed people, its share is declining over time, which fell to 71.1% in 2016 from 75.7% in 2000. On the other hand,

Figure 1.39: Skills Levels in OIC Countries (2000-2017)



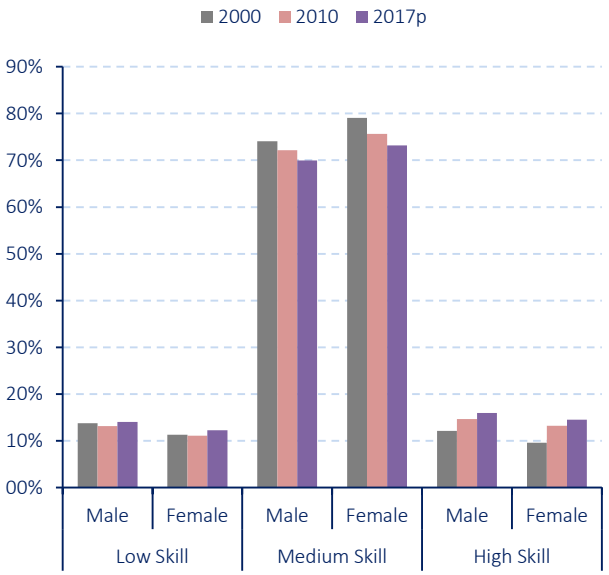
Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

Figure 1.40: Skills Levels by Country Groups



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

Figure 1.41: Skills Levels in OIC Countries by Gender



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

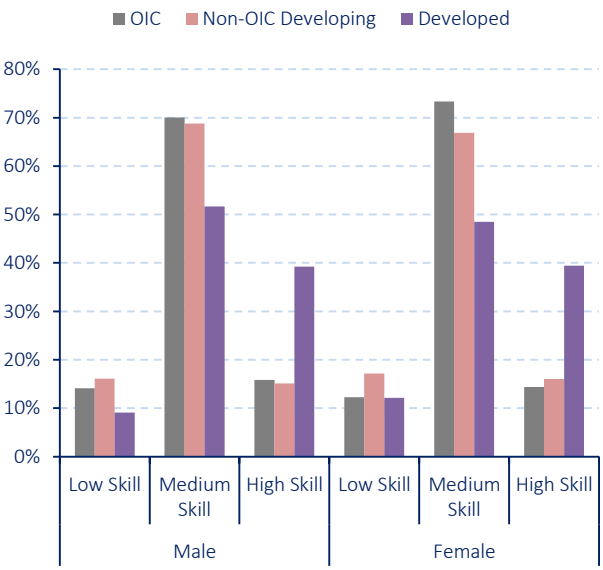
shares of people with low and high skills are increasing. The share of people with low skills in total employment increased from 13% in 2000 to 13.5% in 2016 and the share of people with high skills increased from 11.4% to 15.5% during the same period.

When compared with other country groups, OIC countries display smaller share of high skilled employees than the group of developed countries, but similar shares with non-OIC developing countries (Figure 1.40). While the shares of medium skilled workers are falling, shares of high skilled workers are increasing in all country groups. It is important to note that even in developed countries, around 10% of workers are low skilled. It is also important to note that while the transition in developed and non-OIC developing countries are from medium skills to high skills employment, it is from medium skills to both high and low skills in OIC countries. This reflects the lower levels of economic development in some OIC countries that are not achieving progress towards jobs requiring complex technical and practical knowledge and tasks.

OIC countries also display different patterns for male and

female workers in terms of skills endowments (Figure 1.41). While share of male workers with low skills levels is increasing and currently at 14.1%, share of female workers with same skills is mostly unchanged and remains around 11-12%. Moreover, shares of both male and female workers with high skills are increasing over time and it appears to that male workers constitute a larger share of the workforce compared to female workers. When it comes to medium skills, share of female employees is slightly higher that of male employees.

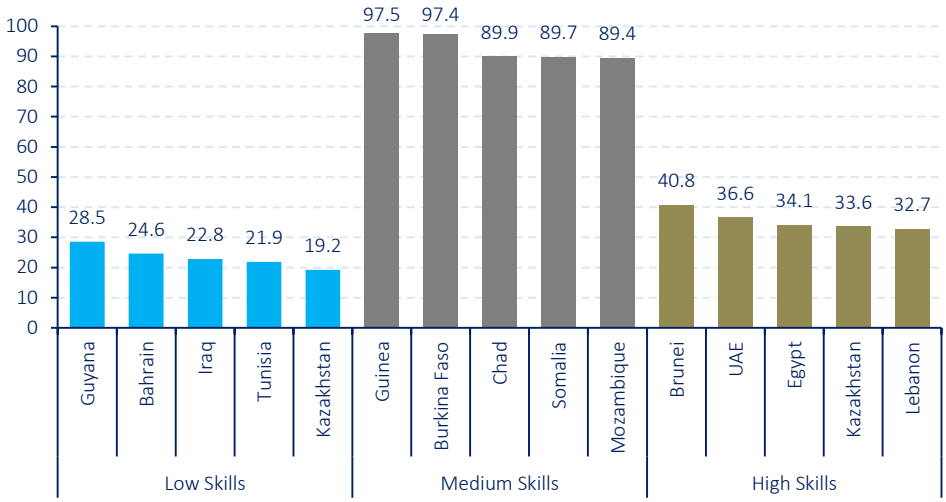
Figure 1.42: Skills Levels by Country Groups and Gender (2016)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

In view of that, male workers with medium skills in OIC countries represent a larger share of employment compared to other country groups (Figure 1.42). The share of female worker with medium skills in OIC countries also surpasses the shares in other country groups. While the share of male workers with high skills is almost equivalent in OIC and

Figure 1.43: Top OIC Countries by Skills Levels (2016)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database.

non-OIC developing countries, the share of female workers with low skills in non-OIC developing countries is five percentage points higher than the share in OIC countries. Again in 2016, the share of male workers with high skills compared to female workers with same skills is slightly higher only in the group of OIC countries.

Finally, Figure 1.43 shows the top OIC countries with highest shares of employment under different skills levels. The highest shares of workers with low skills are in Guyana (28.5%), Bahrain (24.6%) and Iraq (22.8%). In medium skills, highest shares are observed in Guinea (97.5%), Burkina Faso (97.4%) and Chad (89.9%). OIC countries with highest share of high skilled workers are Brunei Darussalam (40.8%), United Arab Emirates (36.6%) and Egypt (34.1%).

Employment by Economic Class

Another interesting aspect of labour market analysis is the classification of employed people with respect to their level of income or economic class. ILO provides estimations on five different income groups:

- Extremely poor (less than US$1.90, PPP)
- Moderately poor (between US$1.90 and US$3.10 PPP)
- Near poor (between US$3.1 and US$5 PPP)
- Developing middle class (between US$5 and US$13 PPP)
- Developed middle class and above (above US$13 PPP)

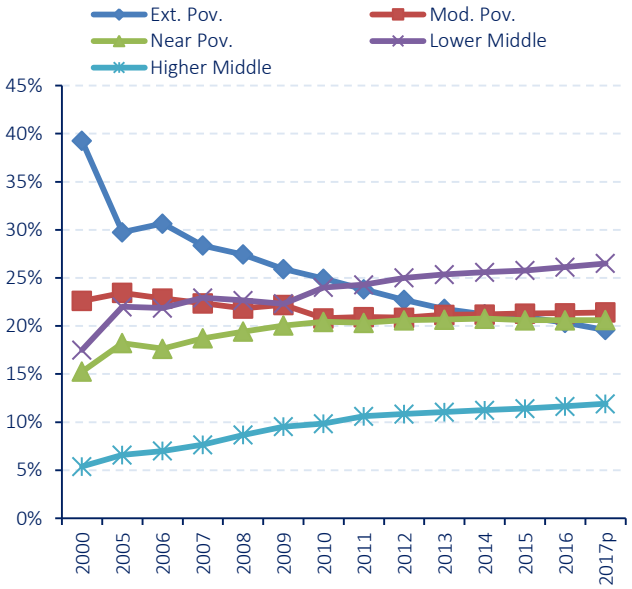
Figure 1.44 shows the trends in OIC countries with respect to the shares of different income groups in total employment. The most striking observation is on the rapidly declining share of employed people with average income level below US$ 1.9, or "extremely poor". Their share is dropped from 39.3% in 2000 to 19.6% in 2017. The share of "moderately poor" employed also showed a declining trend and expected to reach 21.4% in 2017 compared to 22.6% in 2000. In contrast, the shares of groups classified under "near poor", "developing middle class", and "developed middle class and above" have all been rising. The share of "near poor" increased from 15.2% to 20.6%, the share of "developing middle class" increased from 17.5% to 26.5% and the share of "developed middle class and above" increased from 5.4% to 11.9% during the period 2000-2017.

When compared with non-OIC developing countries, however, it is observed that employed people in OIC countries are poorer than those in non-OIC developing countries (Figure 1.45a). In general, the shares of workers with average income levels below US$5 are higher in OIC countries and the shares of workers with average income levels above US$5 are higher in non-OIC developing countries. The working poverty rate (living on less than US$3.10 per day, PPP) in OIC countries declined from 53.2% in 2005 to 41.7% in 2016, while it fell more dramatically in non-OIC developing countries from 43.4% to25.1% during the

same period (Figure 1.45b). Therefore, OIC countries need to pay greater attention to improving the living conditions of the labour force.

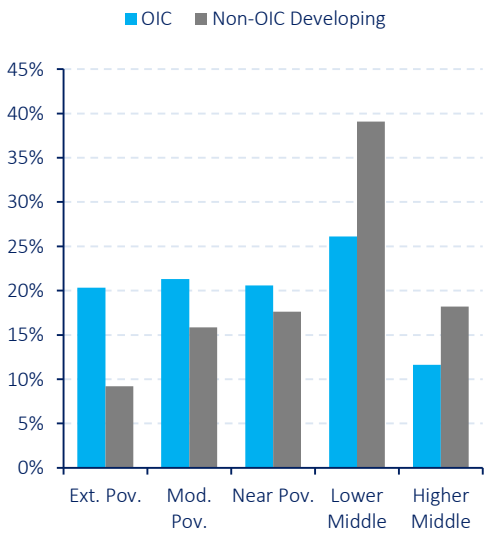
Apparently, unemployment figures understate the true extent of labour market challenges in OIC countries since large numbers of people are working, but do not earn enough to lift themselves out of poverty. In fact, roughly 262 million workers in OIC countries live in extreme poverty (i.e. on less than US$1.90 per capita per day) or in moderate poverty (i.e. on between US$1.90 and US$3.10) despite being in employment. Moreover, youth exhibit a higher incidence of working poverty

Figure 1.44: Employment by Economic Class in OIC Countries (2000-2017)



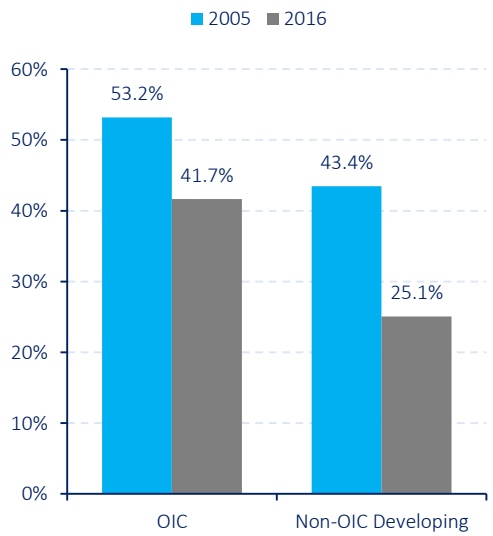
Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

Figure 1.45a: Employment by Economic Class (2016)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database.

Figure 1.45b: Working poverty rate

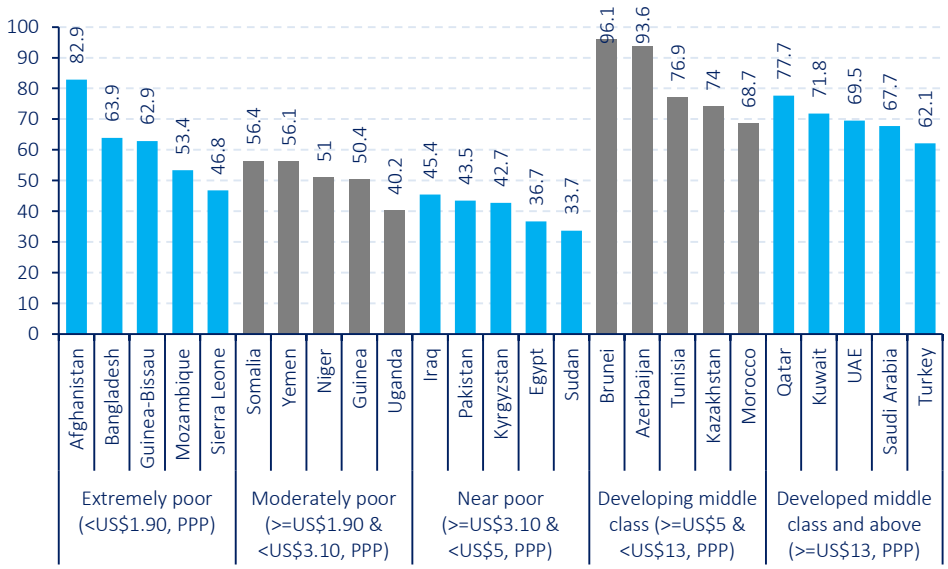


Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database.

than adults. Globally, 37.7% of working youth are living in extreme or moderate poverty in 2016, compared to 26% of working adults (ILO, 2016).

At individual country level, the top countries in each income groups are presented in Figure 1.46. More than half of all employed people in Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Guinea Bissau and Mozambique are "extremely poor". Again, more than half of all employed people in Somalia, Yemen, Niger and Guinea are "moderately poor". More than one third of the employed people in Iraq, Pakistan, Kyrgyzstan, Egypt and Sudan are "near poor". On the other hand, more than two third of all employed people in Brunei, Azerbaijan, Tunisia, Kazakhstan and Morocco are within "developing middle class" and in Qatar, Kuwait, United Arab Emirates and Saudi Arabia are within the "developed middle class and above" class.

Figure 1.46: Top OIC Countries in Employment by Economic Class (2016)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database.

SECTION TWO

PROBLEM OF LABOUR MARKET INACTIVITY

Labour market inactivity is a long-standing problem in OIC countries, as discussed broadly in section 1. There might be multiple reasons for high inactivity rates across the OIC countries, but consequences are generally alike. It creates a major economic problem by hampering economic growth and poverty alleviation, raising economic dependency and contributing to increased economic pressure on public resources. The stubbornly high inactivity rates imply that this is rather a structural problem instead of a cyclical one and not significantly affected from prevailing socio-economic developments.

It is therefore important to pay greater attention to the challenges related to the labour market inactivity. Addressing this challenge would contribute to achieving a more inclusive and productive economy across the OIC region. In addition to great potential impacts on economic development, reducing economic inactivity will contribute to solving diverse social problems. Social cost of labour market exclusion may be extremely high in certain settings. Inactive individuals may lose confidence, motivation and self-respect in their society and may cause further social deprivation, as they are more likely to engage in harmful and illegal activities. Even worse, economic inactivity may trigger social unrest and be a source of conflict in a society. High intensity of conflicts in OIC countries may be well fuelled with abundant inactive populations and high prevalence of mental health issues (see SESRIC, 2017a for more discussion on conflicts in OIC countries).

Inactive people will also have less incentive to invest in their human capital, including education and health. In the longer term, poor health outcomes and low levels of well-being will also affect the fate of children who grow up in socially excluded families. A study found that the incidence of mental health conditions for children aged 5-15, whose parents have never worked, is almost double compared to that of same-aged children whose parents are in low-skilled work (Gregg, 2008). Therefore, it is evident that economic inactivity comes with great economic and social costs.

In this connection, this section provides a profile of economic inactivity in OIC countries and discusses the main reasons for economic inactivity. It then highlights some important

issues related to increasing participation to labour market. Respective case studies are added to the end of the section in order to demonstrate challenges and potential solutions as individual country level.

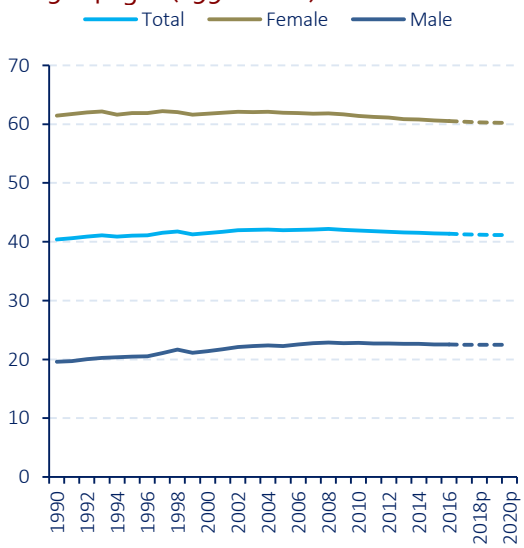
2.1 The Scope of Economic Inactivity in OIC Countries

Economic inactivity is an employment status that refers to individuals who are neither in work, nor are actively seeking work and are available to start immediately. This may include people who are studying, sick, injured, caring for family member or early retired. The category also includes people who simply don't want to work, or don't want to look for work.

Sometimes a fall in unemployment rate may just reflect a fall in the number of people who are actively looking for work instead of a rise in the employment. Therefore, it is important to analyse the labour market developments by looking not only at unemployment statistics, but also at inactivity rates. If there is a serious long-term unemployment problem, it is common to expect an increase in the number of "discouraged workers" who no longer looks for job.[3]

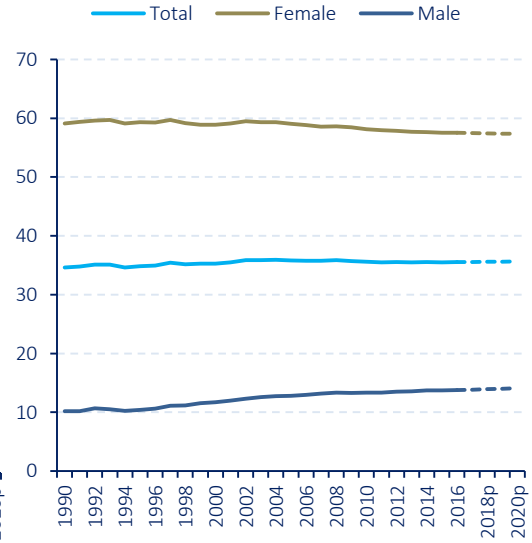
Figure 2.1 shows the long term trends in labour market inactivity in OIC countries, with two main messages. One is the stubbornly high inactivity rates, which are around 41% and

Figure 2.1: Labour Market Inactivity, 15-64 ages (1990-2020)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

Figure 2.2: Labour Market Inactivity, 25-64 ages (1990-2020)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

[3] **Discouraged job-seekers** refer to those persons of working age who during a specified reference period were without work and available for work, but did not look for work in the recent past for specific reasons, which may include believing that there were no jobs available or there were none for which they would qualify, or having given up hope of finding work.

expected to remain around this level over the coming years. The other message is the enormous gap between male and female inactivity rates, which are almost 40 percentage points. Table 2.1 provides detailed statistics on inactivity rates of different country and age groups as of 2016. In the age group 15+, OIC countries have on average higher inactivity rate (41.3%) than other country groups, but the difference is not substantially high, particularly with developed countries (40%). In terms of male inactivity rates, OIC countries (22.5%) have almost equivalent value with non-OIC developing countries (22.1%), but perform significantly better than developed countries (32.9%). However, female inactivity rates are much higher in OIC countries (60.5%) than non-OIC developing (48.1%) and developed countries (46.9%), reflecting the critical aspect of high inactivity rates in OIC countries.

It is generally argued that people in the age group 15-24 are typically more likely to be studying; therefore, inactivity rate in this age group may be considerably higher. Excluding this age group, Figure 2.2 shows the labour market inactivity for those who aged between 25 and 64 years. As expected, the average inactivity rate is around five percentage points lower. However, this is to a large extent driven by low inactivity rates of men, which falls below 14%. Female inactivity rate remains high at 57.5% as of 2016, which is again significantly higher than other country groups.

Table 2.1: Average Labour Market Inactivity Rates in 2016

Age Group	**15+**	**15-24**	**25+**	**25-34**	**35-44**	**45-54**	**55-64**
	OIC Countries						
Female	60.5	68.5	57.5	54.5	52.4	52.2	64.3
Male	22.5	44.9	13.8	8.2	4.6	8.0	25.6
Total	41.3	56.5	35.5	31.1	28.1	29.8	45.1
	Non-OIC Developing Countries						
Female	48.1	61.7	44.5	35.2	30.8	35.3	56.2
Male	22.1	45.8	15.3	4.9	3.5	6.4	25.5
Total	35.0	53.4	30.0	19.7	17.0	20.8	41.2
	Developed Countries						
Female	46.9	54.1	45.8	24.0	23.4	23.7	44.6
Male	32.9	51.7	29.6	9.7	6.9	10.3	29.2
Total	40.0	52.8	37.9	16.8	15.1	17.0	37.1

Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM).

This result implies that young women are more likely to experience a longer spell of nonparticipation than young men. The most significant factor determining whether young women experience a long spell of non-participation is their desire to have a child. The family values and marriage institution carry a crucial importance in OIC countries, which is also fundamental to the survival and wellbeing of societies, as highlighted in a recent report

by SESRIC (2017b). Therefore, low participation of young women is likely to be connected to higher tendency towards having families and children.

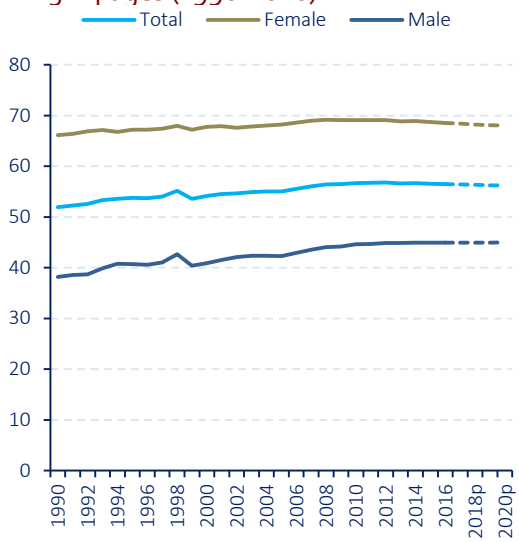
Table 2.2: Average Inactivity Rates in OIC Countries (by Region, 2016)

	15+			15-24			25+		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
AP	59.2	17.6	38.3	69.2	39.0	53.8	55.6	9.6	32.5
ECA	57.4	26.7	42.5	68.4	46.3	57.1	54.4	20.5	38.2
MENA	79.3	25.1	51.1	85.3	53.0	68.6	77.3	16.2	45.5
SSA	44.8	26.4	35.6	55.4	46.3	50.8	39.3	15.4	27.5

Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM). AP: Asia Pacific countries; ECA: Europe and Central Asian countries; MENA: Middle East and North African countries; SSA: Sub-Saharan African countries. Detailed list of country groupings are available at annex.

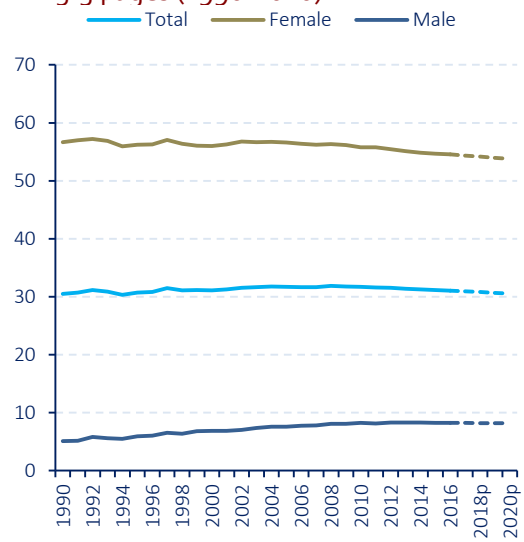
There is also significant heterogeneity across the geographical regions of the OIC, as provided in Table 2.2. The lowest inactivity rates are observed in the groups of Sub-Saharan African (SSA) countries, where the rate is only 27.5% in the age group 25-64. The highest inactivity rates are observed in the group of Middle East and North African (MENA) countries, where the rate exceeds 45% in the same age group. Male inactivity is lowest in Asia-Pacific (AP) region with 9.6%, but highest in Europe and Central Asia (ECA) region with 20.5%. Female inactivity is measured to be lowest in the SSA region with 39.3% and highest in the MENA region with 77.3%, reflecting the significant discrepancies across the OIC regions.

Figure 2.3: Labour Market Inactivity, 15-24 ages (1990-2020)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

Figure 2.4: Labour Market Inactivity, 25-34 ages (1990-2020)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

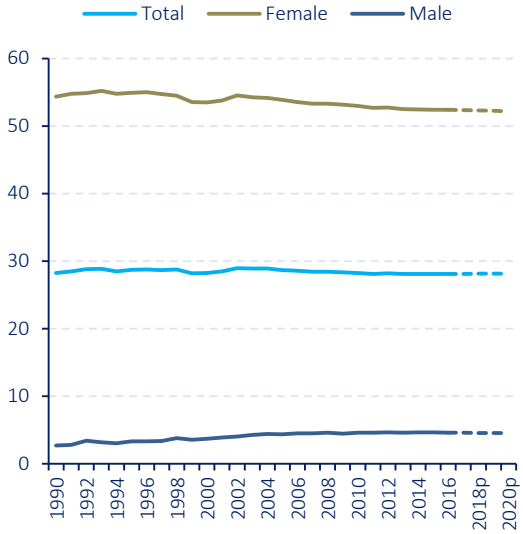
In order to analyse the trends in different age groups, Figures 2.3-2.7 shows the labour market inactivity rates for age groups 15-24, 25-34, 35-44, 45-54 and 55-64, respectively, disaggregated by gender. Overall trend in the age group 15-24 is towards higher inactivity, which can be explained by higher participation to education. The gap between male and female is smallest in this age group (Figure 2.3). However, the picture changes substantially at age group 25-34. Male inactivity falls below 10% and but female inactivity remains above 50% (Figure 2.4). Yet, there is a slow but steady fall in female inactivity rates since 2002 and an increase in male inactivity since 1994.

The pattern of labour market inactivity in age group 25-34 remains pretty much the same in later age groups. In the age group 35-44, male participation to labour force remain very strong with inactivity rate below 5%, while female inactivity continues to decline but remains above 50% (Figure 2.5). In the age group 45-54, there was a strong upward trend in male inactivity during 1995-2008 and a strong downward trend in female inactivity during 2002-2015 (Figure 2.6). These trends are expected to stabilize over the coming years, reflecting persistent discrepancy in male and female participation rates.

Perhaps the most challenging term for male is the age group 55-64, where they experience the highest inactivity rates compared to the age groups above 25 (Figure 2.7). With over 25%, they experience a constantly increasing detachment from the labour market. Even in this age group, female inactivity follows a very slowly falling trend, which remains however still above 64%.

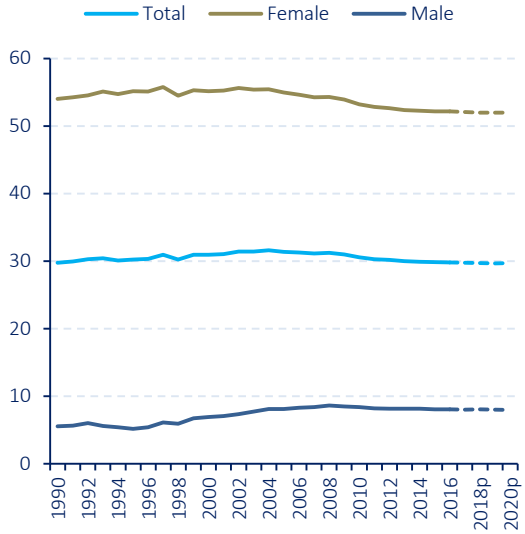
All these figures highlight some important challenges for OIC countries. Youth labour force inactivity is considerably low and it steadily increases. If it is driven by higher participation

Figure 2.5: Labour Market Inactivity, 35-44 ages (1990-2020)



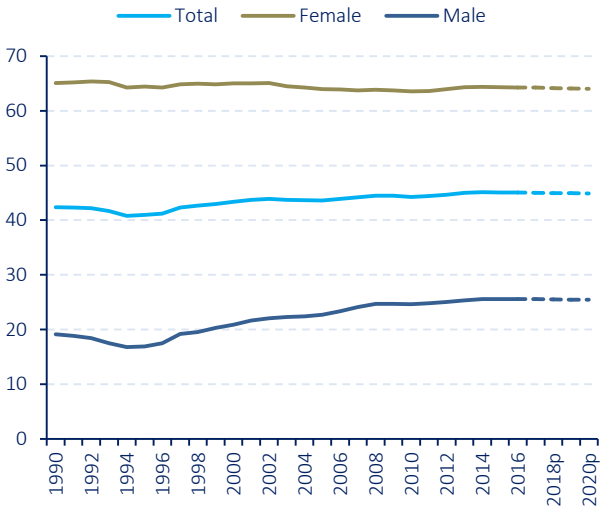
Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

Figure 2.6: Labour Market Inactivity, 45-54 ages (1990-2020)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

Figure 2.7: Labour Market Inactivity, 55-64 ages (1990-2020)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, (p: projected).

to education, this would be a promising development as it would imply more investment to human capital. Although male inactivity rate is substantially low at all age groups, female inactivity is persistently high, reflecting another challenge for the OIC member countries. There are also significant discrepancies across the OIC regions.

2.2 Reasons for Economic Inactivity

There is a persistently high economic inactivity in the group of OIC countries fluctuating around 40% over the past three decades, as depicted in the previous subsection. This is a stark situation where two-fifth of population is detached from the labour market without any contribution to economic activity. Although this is to a large extend driven by female and youth inactivity rates, the overall picture reflects a great proportion of population being disengaged from working life, which can have detrimental impacts on social inclusion, wellbeing and economic productivity. Economic and social deprivation of economically inactive population may be source of other social and economic problems.

It has also intergenerational dimension, where family background may play a role in affecting economic activity through intergenerational transfer of attitudes and aspirations from parent to child. People who grew up in families that are not actively participating in the economic activity are more likely to be inactive compared to those who grew up in families that are economically active. It is shown that there is a higher likelihood of experiencing spells of non-participation for those young people with an unemployed father and lower non-participation rates for those young people with professional fathers (McVicar, 2000). Without adequate investment in human capital and active participation to economic life, poverty and deprivation will persist across generations as a result of intergenerational immobility. On the other hand, being economically active can provide a sense of identity, self-respect and motivation, and stimulates for greater involvement in improving personal and societal development.

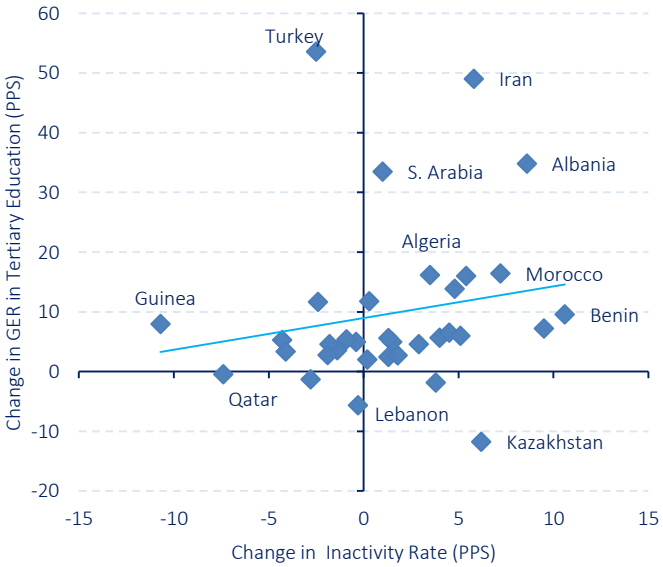
There are multiple factors leading to economic inactivity. The ILO classifies five main economically inactive categories: (i) students; (ii) long-term sick and disabled; (iii) family commitments; (iv) early retirees; and (v) others. Unfortunately, detailed dataset is not

available on these categories for the OIC member countries to make a detailed assessment on the nature of inactivity in OIC countries. However, it is widely recognized that the main inactive groups are people looking after the family and home, students, and those who are temporarily or permanently sick.

It is possible to infer from the figures presented in the previous subsection that pupillage is the main reason for low inactivity in the age group of 15-24 and early retirement is the main reason in the age group of 55-64. In the age group 25-54, inactivity remains fairly stable at around 8% for male and 52% for female. It would be fair to suspect the family commitments to play a key role in low participation of female labour force. Young women are more likely than young men to have experienced a longer period of nonparticipation due to their desire to have a child (McVicar, 2000). On the other hand, Hammer (1997) suggested that previously unemployed young women might choose to stay at home and look after children rather than look for work. Long-term sickness and disability may also play some role in reducing the economic participation of both male and female.

Figure 2.8 shows the relationship between the change in the gross enrolment in tertiary level education and change in inactivity rate between 2005 and 2015. In general, higher participation to education is associated with higher inactivity rates, as in the case of Iran, Albania, Morocco and Benin. This is however not valid for all countries. Turkey, for example, experienced an over 50 percentage points (PPS) increase in participation to higher education, but inactivity rate fell by 2.5 PPS. The opposite case was observed in Kazakhstan. However, the general argument on the negative relationship between participation to education versus labour force remains valid. Notwithstanding issues of skills mismatch, inactive students can be regarded as investment in future productive capacities.

Figure 2.8: Change in Educational Attainment vs Change in Inactivity Rate (2005-2015)



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) Database, and UNESCO UIS Database. PPS: percentage points.

It is commonly argued that young people who are unemployed or inactive early on in the transition from school to work tend to become discouraged about their chances in the job market and show weaker attachment to the labour market, increasing their likelihood to

become unemployed or inactive as adults. In the case of Sweden, Franzén and Kassman (2005) show that young adults run a high risk of staying economically inactive once they become inactive in the first place. This reduces employment prospects of economically inactive young adults, as they lack the opportunity to have good connections with potential employers as well as with society in general and to collect the same job experience as their peers. Unexplained gaps in their career records will put further pressure on their self-respect and motivation.

Entrance into the labour market of those who are not able to engage in economic activity due to family commitments can be facilitated with appropriate support and opportunities. Detachment from labour market may limit opportunities for people in this group to develop their personal potential and contribute productively to the national economy. In order to avoid a waste of human potential, barriers hindering the successful transition of these people into employment should be reduced. It is again important to promote skills development, motivation and confidence for stronger attachment to the labour market. Armstrong *et al.* (1997) suggests more qualified unemployed workers might search for jobs more intensively than less qualified unemployed workers and therefore become economically active in a shorter period of time.

People with long-term sickness and disability have typically limited health conditions to do their work. In order to increase their participation to economic activity, they need to be adequately supported and the workplace should be well improved to accommodate their needs. More detailed discussion on the issue of employment of persons with disabilities is provided in section 4.

Labour market barriers such as low skill attainment, poor health, and unsupported family care responsibilities are considered as contributing to weak attachment to labour market. In the literature, there are few studies showing the relationship between health status and weak attachment to the labour market. In the case of the UK, Brown et al. (2010) showed that poor health does not contribute to unemployment; rather poor health is a major cause of economic inactivity or weak attachment. Similarly, Fortin (2010) found that Canadians who had poor labour attachment were more likely to be in poor health than those who were attached.

It is also possible to find literature that shows some additional factors contributing to low participation in economic activity. For example, Sissons et al. (2010) list numerous factors that may contribute to inactivity, including: poor literacy skills, education levels below high school, income level, living in precarious or rental housing, poor work histories, having parents who have low attachment, being a single parent, being a caregiver, being in debt, having a criminal record, lack of aspiration, motivation and confidence arising from long term unemployment.

There are also some other factors that contribute to rising economic inactivity. In developed countries, the dramatic weakening of demand for unskilled labour due to technological change and structural transformation has been a cause for rising inactivity.

However, since we do not witness a major structural transformation in OIC countries, it is difficult to argue that high inactivity rate is due to dropping demand for low-skilled labour.

In addition to a fall in demand for less skilled workers, the rise in male inactivity in developed countries has been exacerbated by the benefit system, where invalidity benefits are considerably more generous than unemployment benefits. This raises their reservation wage and leads such workers to drop out of the labour market. At the same time, disabled people who are in work tend to earn less than equivalent non-disabled workers. The social security systems in OIC countries are, however, not well developed to cause a shift of unemployed people onto inactivity to benefit from various benefits.

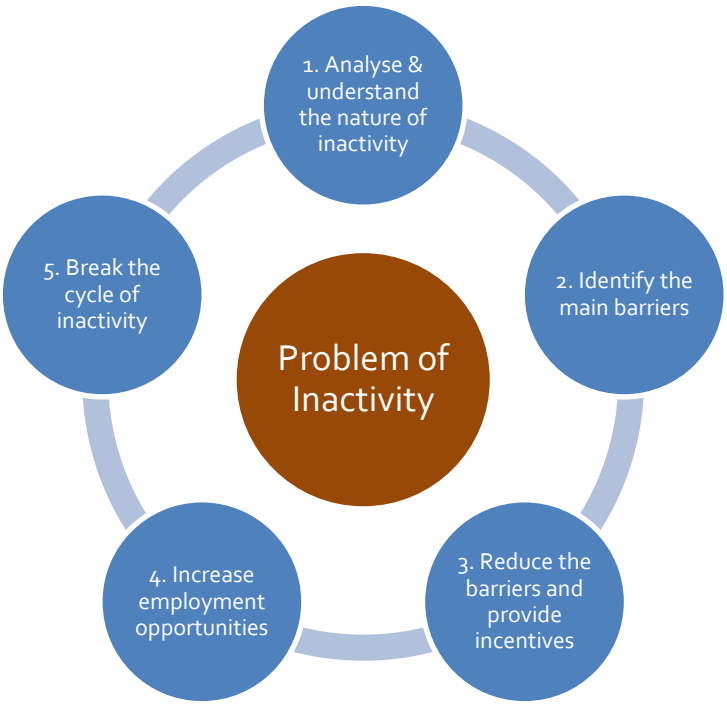
2.3 Strategies to Increase Participation to Labour Market

Economic inactivity can be considered among the main factors that hamper economic development in OIC countries. Therefore, it is crucial to address this longstanding and quite often neglected problem in order to fully utilize the capacities and achieve the developmental goals. This requires developing a strategy through targeted incentives, skills development programmes and job creation.

Previous subsection discussed some important factors that lead to economic inactivity in OIC countries. Nonetheless, it is important to recognize the diverse, complex and deep-rooted nature of economic inactivity and accordingly design appropriate interventions to facilitate the transition of inactive people towards the labour market. However, such complex situations cannot be adequately addressed by a 'one-size fits all' approach. In this context, this report proposes a general approach to reduce economic inactivity among the target groups which is likely to contribute to increased economic productivity and competitiveness in the OIC countries in the long term. Specific labour market interventions should be designed according to the needs by each member country. As individual countries become more productive and competitive, it is likely to observe more jobs to be created by the economy to further reduce the unemployment rates.

In this connection, the general framework of the proposed approach is provided in Figure 2.9. Due to its complex and heterogeneous characteristics across and within the countries, it is important to invest in thoroughly analysing and understanding the nature of inactivity in each country. Once the profile of inactive population is obtained and disaggregated by their social and economic status as well as age and gender, the next step would be to identify the major barriers faced by these groups. A significant share of inactivity may be driven by lack of transition policies for youth from school to work, lack of support policies for mothers, elderly or disabled people to increase their attachment to the labour market, or lack of adequate employment opportunities. Without sufficient information about the underlying factors that lead to inactivity, the labour market interventions may yield sub-optimal outcomes.

Figure 2.9: Key Steps in Addressing the Problem of Inactivity



In the third stage, policies should be developed to reduce the carefully identified barriers for each target group. While reducing the barriers, participation to labour market may be further encouraged through special incentives with a view to improving the employment outcomes for target groups, such as for fresh graduates, older workers and people with mental health problems. Such incentives may include skills development and training programmes, financial incentives for firms hiring people in certain circumstances and psychological advisory services, among many others. In some cases, special programmes may be needed to eliminate negative perceptions and social attitudes towards disadvantages groups. For mothers, affordable childcare is among the major barriers to labour market participation that needs to be addressed.

A critical dimension to sustain the whole process is the ability to create enough and appropriate jobs. Having more unemployment instead of inactivity does not contribute to the economic wellbeing. While designing policies, it is important to avoid a situation where economically inactive persons are simply shifted from inactivity into unemployment. This would entail a progression towards lowering economic inactivity; however, these people typically will not have enough patience to look for work for long periods. Most often, these are already discouraged people who have stopped looking for a job because they no longer believe they can find a suitable work. Therefore, the ultimate success factor should not be only reducing inactivity, but also increasing employment.

In order to avoid future inflows or relapsing into economic inactivity, preventive measures should be developed to improve work and health outcomes. This is to break the cycle of inactivity. Young people from disadvantaged backgrounds, those with lower levels of education, or those who lack social support are more vulnerable to falling back to inactivity. Again, women with family commitments are more likely to relapse into inactivity without

adequate support for childcare, flexible working conditions or negative social attitudes towards them. Yet again, older people without appropriate working conditions may turn to inactivity status shortly after entering the labour market.

In general, the implementation of the overall framework will be affected from a wide range of factors, including macroeconomic conditions, ability of the economy to create new jobs, fiscal space to cover the costs of skills development and specific incentives, ability of the labour market to utilize long-term unemployed or still unexperienced workforce, among others. Country specific strategies should be designed in a way that takes into account these diverse factors. It is often challenging to allocate limited resources across priority areas in different sectors, but efficient use of resources is the only way to achieve developmental goals.

While addressing the problem of inactivity, skills development probably lies at the core of the enhancing employability. An important benefit of skills development is that it enables matching of skills supply to the needs of labour markets. However, an efficient labour market is needed to ensure that the skill mismatch is at minimum level in the market and the available labour force is used in most effective way. An efficient labour market is important in allocating human capital to its most productive uses. Particularly in developing countries, the ability of the market to reallocate labour between sectors (or from old sectors to newer more productive sectors) is critical in growth process. Moving timely out of agriculture into manufacturing and then into services sector has long been thought to have significant impact on growth rates. The level of labour market efficiency depends on the speed by which the labour market reallocates labour from low productive to new more productive sectors (Burgess and Mawson, 2003). It is also argued that by reducing the time workers spend in unemployed or sub-optimal jobs, an increase in labour market efficiency raises the value of workers' human capital investments and leads them to invest in more education (Laing et. al, 1995). These two channels, reallocation from old to new technologies and creation of incentives to invest more on human capital, make labour market efficiency a critical driver for higher growth.

In improving the responsiveness of educational system to the changing needs of youth, economies and labour market, enhancing the quality of education and training plays a critical role. Even though access to education improves all around the world, there are serious concerns on the quality side of provisions. Poor quality education particularly affects disadvantaged segments of societies by minimally impacting on their lives and insignificantly contributing to their social participation as well as labour market outcomes, which further exacerbates the observed inequalities, poverty and marginalization. Therefore, further efforts are required to ensure that education at all levels is respondent to the needs of young people to foster their participation in social and economic life.

However, greater attention has to be paid today to these people, who are typically too young to retire but too old to keep the job, in order to sustain their employability and avoid any associated socio-economic problems. It is important for corporate executives and policy makers to pay attention on how they can keep older workers productively on the job

longer. While age is one of the major obstacles that hinders successful job search for senior people, other obstacles such as low skills, lack of confidence, inadequate up-to-date qualifications, and long-term health conditions also hinder long term employment. It is important to enable these people to work flexibly to accommodate health considerations and lessen its physical demands. Offering older or retired workers flexible work arrangements and hiring them as consultants or temporary or part-time workers would attract them. On the whole, employers need to design more training programs for older workers and create workplaces that make it easier for them to do their jobs.

Moreover, enhancing employability of rural population by improving their individual capacities needs greater attention, particularly in rural development programmes. In order to reduce regional disparities and alleviate poverty in the rural context, population should have access to education and skills development opportunities in order to create a dynamism and productive environment in rural areas. By allowing the rural people to develop their skills and knowledge, they will have chance to take advantage of new economic opportunities in agricultural as well as non-agricultural production, even in the job market beyond the rural areas. In this respect, opportunities for post-primary education and training should be extended for rural population who are out of labour market.

2.4 Case Studies

Human capital is one of the most critical factors for economic growth as well as social, political and technological development. Economic success depends heavily on updating and effectively utilizing the existing human capital. Policy makers are well aware of this fact around the world and in the OIC region and they develop and implement various policies to improve the economic participation of labour force to economic development process. Inactivity not only creates a redundancy, but also enormous costs in various aspects, which requires formulation and implementation of human resource development planning and strategies and action plans at different phases of development.

As in other developing countries, the labour market development policies have become to be crucial in the policy agenda of the OIC countries. During the last decade, the OIC member countries have put reform strategies in place to respond effectively to the major labour market challenges and weaknesses. Despite marked differences across countries with regard to the severity of challenges and related policy responses, a general trend can be discerned, which is broadly divided in a number of phases, such as productivity-driven growth, women and youth empowerment policies. This part discusses the strategies to increase the labour market participation in three OIC countries, which implement various strategies to increase the participation of different target groups to labour market.

Encouraging Young People that are not in Education, Employment or Training in Turkey

Labour market experience of the youth has recently been a main concern in the developing countries, including OIC countries, due to the sharp increase in youth unemployment rates

throughout the global recession (OECD, 2016**).** As in many other countries, the youth employment crisis has become a stubborn reality in Turkey, where the working age population is estimated to expand by over 800,000 every year during the next decade and cover 68.6 % of the population in 2023. Despite the potential of labour capacity with a significant proportion of the population below age 15; quality and equity in the labour market remain a challenge for youth's further education and employment (Susanli, 2016).

The recent developments in the labour market for young people in Turkey have led to questioning and re-examination of public policies concerning the youth. The main reason is the increasing threat of social and economic exclusion that young people are facing. There is a significant number of young people who are neither in education, nor in the labour force. Traditional labour market indicators are not sufficient for demonstrating the scale and effects of these problems associated with the young labour force (Kilic, 2014). In recent years, young people not in education, employment or training (NEET) has become an important indicator in studies conducted on young people by both international organizations and various countries.

The current labour market for youth in Turkey is characterized by high levels of unemployment and inactivity. Since 2013, the youth unemployment rate has stagnated around 18% and exceeded 20% in early 2017. The prevalence of the NEET status also captures the inactivity in the youth labour market in Turkey. Despite the steady decline from 42% in 2004 to 27% in 2013, in 2014 the NEET rate among 15-24 year-olds was 28.4%. This is equivalent to about 3.5 million young individuals considering that there are 12.8 million individuals in the 15-24 age groups (Susanli, 2016).

As a response to these remarkable numbers related with NEET and youth inactivity, Turkey has started to develop new policy agenda to provide packages of support to NEET young in order to enable them to restart the journey to formal skills training and employment. The Turkish authorities aimed at engaging the NEET group to get them ready for work, progress to apprenticeship or continue in education and training. Turkey has implemented a number of policies to solve the problems of NEET. Some of the offered strategies are to develop competence system and school-business cooperatives, also to redesign the support mechanisms for jobseekers and skills development. In that regard, in recent years;

- Turkey extended the school term by increasing the compulsory education to 12 years to ensure that education and training are tailored to the needs of the labour market;
- Turkey launched the National Competencies Framework and Capacity Development (VoC) Test Centres for recognition and certification of previous learning and competences;
- New programs have been started to encourage access to lifelong learning;
- The Turkish Employment Agency (İŞKUR) designed and initiated capacity building and active employment programs for inactive young people.

The development of youth employment and human capital has also become a key driver of the national strategic framework, such as the 10th National Development Plan, national employment, vocational and technical education, lifelong education and youth strategies. A new generation of programming documents has also been developed in the EU-Turkey cooperation: Economic Reform Program 2015 and Human Resources Development Operational Program 2014-2020 within the scope of EU economic governance process in enlargement countries.

Despite a new framework to solve the problem of NEET population, Turkey still has the high proportion of NEETs among 15 to 29 year-olds (Gökşen et al., 2015). According to 2016 OECD data, nearly 30% of young people in Turkey aged 15-29 are NEET due to low skills and low level female participation to the labour market. Low skills are a main barrier to achieving better labour market outcomes for youth in Turkey: nearly 1 in 5 young people in Turkey are low skilled, NEETs (OECD, 2016). The high rates of NEET in Turkey are also explained by low level of female labour force participation.

Promoting Participation of Women to Labour Force in Saudi Arabia

The Saudi Labour Market has undergone significant and dynamic changes over the course of the last decade. The labour market is notably segmented and unique challenges are being encountered with skills development for Saudis and women participation in the labour market.

In June 2011, the Saudi government announced a new employment program called Nitaqat (ranges). Nitaqat introduced employment quotas for Saudi employees in an increasing range of industries, combined with harsher penalties for non-compliance and a systematic strategy for skills development for Saudis (Ministry of Labour, 2011). The Ministry of Labour noted that this program increased the categories of the Saudi labour market sectors from 11 to 41, and applied varying percentages to nationalise the jobs rather than a fixed ratio of 30%, a percentage that depended on the total number of employees in the corporation (Alfarran, 2016).

The Ministry of Labour divided these targeted organisations into four categories, ranging from non-cooperative to cooperative, and then provided colour-coded classifications of red, yellow, green and blue (Ministry of Labour, 2011). In that, Nitaqat established 205 job categories with quotas based on the firm's size and industry. As a part of Nitaqat, Saudi authorities also have launched short, medium and long-term strategies. These include accelerating women's employment, training employment seekers, introducing a minimum wage, and the protection of the rights of employees (Sfakianakis 2011).

Although Nitaqat has provided new opportunities to enhance the women participation in Saudi labour market, which is still below 20%, and the unemployment rate among Saudi women remained close to 20%. Women's participation remains low in all Saudi economic sectors (Aluwaisheg 2013). Saudi Arabia has one of the lowest participation rates of women in the labour force of all the Arab countries. Saudi women comprise 9.2% of the

total Saudi workforce and since women represent almost half of the Saudi population, this indicates that Saudi Arabia is not utilizing its potential human resources to enhance economic efficiency (Al-Munajjed 2010). With an increasing unemployment rate, the failure of the government to create enough jobs for its male workforce illustrates that little focus on the integration of women into the labour force (Alfarran, 2016). In addition, another recent problem is that Saudi women avoid working in the private sector because of inferior working conditions, lack of staff policies and motivation, and low income and benefits. The political restrictions of the Saudi government also erect barriers to women's entry and participation in economic activities, particularly in the private sector.

A new framework to increase women economic participation has become an important political agenda in Saudi Arabia. Yet, the women participation to labour market is still low, despite the increase from 16.1% in 2000 to 20.1% in 2016. It is argued that in the implemented programs, including Nitaqat, the constraints on women's capacity to access employment have not been fully considered. For example, while Nitaqat opened new job opportunities for women and liberalised some restraints on their work, some of the women job seekers found these jobs unacceptable (Alfarran, 2016). Another important problem is that the program offers undesirable or inaccessible jobs that are unrelated to their professional qualifications, costly to access due to transport expenses, and the requirement to work in mixed gender workplaces (Alfarran, 2016).

Addressing the Issue of Skills Mismatch in Malaysia to Avoid Economic Inactivity

Malaysia has a very large population of productive potential work force. During 1991-1995, the employment rate expanded at an impressive rate. A total of 1.2 million jobs were created during the period where the manufacturing sector was the highest contributor to the total employment, accounting for about one quarter of total employment and almost 60% of net employment creation (Bakar & Abdullah, 2007). Nonetheless, the era of globalization, economic liberation and fast growing ICT created new challenges for the Malaysian labour market. In order to strengthen the national competitive advantage, various human resource development planning and strategies were formulated and action plans were outlined at various phases of development. The Malaysian government has introduced a national transformation framework which aims to drive the country toward an advanced nation by 2020. Three pillars of the framework, the New Economic Model (NEM), the Economic Transformation Programme (ETP), and the 10th Malaysia Plan (2011-2015), have underscored the critical role of a highly skilled, creative and innovative workforce in achieving a high income economy that is both inclusive and sustainable.

Presently, the talent base of the workforce of Malaysia has lagged behind the standards of high-income nations (OECD, 2013a). The country suffers from a shortage of skilled workers, weak productivity growth stemming from a lack of creativity and innovation in the workforce, and an over-reliance on unskilled and low-wage migrant workers (National Economic Advisory Council, 2010). In 2010, 58% of the Malaysian labour force had only a secondary level education, 13.2% had primary level education and 2.6% had no formal

education. That implies that nearly three-quarters (73.8%) of the Malaysian labour force in 2010 is low-skilled. An also noteworthy point is that more than 47% of non-Malaysian citizens in the labour force, i.e. migrant workers, had only a primary level education (OECD, 2013a).

The Malaysian government has realised that the present education system needs a complete overhaul if the country is to transform itself into knowledge- and innovation based high income economy. The Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025 was launched in September 2012 as the initiative of the government to transform the education system into one that produces thinking and innovative students to meet the needs of the new economy. Employers' over-reliance on unskilled and cheap foreign labour has led to inadequate growth of skilled workers in the labour market (OECD, 2013a).

Businesses in Malaysia, including SMEs, also face increasing difficulties in recruiting and retaining skilled workers at the technical, supervisory and managerial levels (National SME Development Council, 2012). Such difficulty has intensified as the mismatch between skills needed by the labour market and those acquired by job seekers has worsened. More than 40% of firms have reported vacancies for skilled production worker positions, and the average time required to fill a vacancy is about four weeks (World Bank, 2009). The main reason given by the firms for this long process is that the applicants did not have the required basic skills or the right technical skills needed to carry out the jobs in question.

While the government has been trying to raise the skill-level of the labour force by broadening the access to technical and vocational education and training (TVET), the take-up rate is still low. Only 10% of students enrol in upper level secondary technical and vocational education (EPU, 2010). Moreover, an assessment of the Malaysian National Dual Training system shows that skill-training programmes remain mismatched with industry requirements in Malaysia, partly because the private sector has not been given a sufficient role in shaping the programmes (Pang, 2010). The education system needs to be reformed to produce students with strong analytical and problem-solving capabilities, a good command of English, and effective social networking skills (OECD, 2013a). These qualities are of great importance in the adoption of cutting edge technology and in the promotion of knowledge generation and innovation.

In the agenda of Malaysian government, policies that promote diversification of products have also become an important key in enhancing job strategy and job growth, besides the commitment of Government to ensure that people gain the benefit. In that regard, the development of competitive SMEs is an important focus of the Malaysian Government policy. To further enhance and promote the activities by SMEs, the National SME Development Council chaired by the Prime Minister was established. All these activities are expected to improve the skills base, reduce the problem of skills mismatch and avoid the labour market inactivity due to skills mismatch in Malaysia.

SECTION THREE

ACTIVE AND PASSIVE LABOUR MARKET POLICIES

Labour markets in OIC countries are characterized with low labour force participation and high unemployment rates. This requires targeted labour market policies to sustainably reduce economic inactivity and unemployment rates. In other words, productive capacity of OIC countries needs to be *activated* by taking into account the long-standing structural obstacles that are keeping many youth, women, people with disabilities and low-skilled workers out of work or underemployed. More critically, OIC countries require policies to utilize the productive potential of their probably the most important asset –young populations– in order to achieve higher growth and lower poverty rates.

Although OIC countries were not affected significantly from the recent global financial and economic crisis, average unemployment rates remain stubbornly higher than the average of other country groups (see Figure 1.25). On the other hand, many advanced countries experienced sharp increases in unemployment rates, but they were mostly able to reduce the rates close to pre-crisis levels through various policy interventions. Activation policies played a key role in reducing the cyclical as well as structural unemployment rates, which aim to support job search, foster reintegration into employment and promote productive participation in economy by reducing dependency on public support. Activation policies are generally implemented by the public employment services (PES), and targeted on the unemployed.

Labour market policies typically aim to overcome market failures preventing the efficient operation of labour markets and to provide support for socio-economically disadvantaged groups facing barriers to entry into formal employment. They, however, cannot solve all labour market problems. The success of these policies requires a well-functioning labour market, careful coordination of policies and creating favourable background conditions. A wide range of policy areas, including health, education and tax policies, may be critical in increasing participation to labour market.

In addition to labour market (re)integration measures, labour market policies contribute to social protection and integration by providing replacement income during sometimes lengthy matching periods and thereby alleviating the unemployment related poverty. In this regard, activation policies and social protection measures should be well synchronised to achieve more effective outcomes by taking into account the potential complementarities as well as overall fiscal sustainability.

Policy makers usually possess a wide range of tools to realize these goals, including active labour market policies (ALMPs) and passive labour market policies (PLMPs). ALMPs emerged on a large scale in the post-war period initially in Scandinavia (Meager, 2009) and increased significantly in importance since the 1990s, especially in Europe. High youth unemployment rates and a persistent mismatch between the supply and demand for labour increased the emphasis on ALMPs (ILO, 2016a). Over the last two decades, an active approach to labour market policy has also been promoted by international agencies and adopted by many developed countries (Bonoli, 2010).

Among the main objectives of ALMPs are to increase employment, improve equity, enhancing employment mobility and job quality, and reducing poverty (ILO, 2016b; Auer et al., 2008). Towards achieving these goals, each ALMP has its own approach and criteria to address particular barriers. They often target specific groups to tackle the particular problems of these groups, including youth, women, disabled, long-term unemployed and migrants. Due to costly nature of this type of intervention, impact evaluations are important to ensure that resources are used effectively.

The debate on how active and passive labour market interventions can be used to enhance labour market and social outcomes has continuously evolved over recent decades. Although such policies have principally been developed for and applied in OECD countries, the lessons learned from their use can be relevant for emerging and developing economies alike. Moreover, the importance of the role of the complementarity between ALMPs and passive support in improving labour market performance and sustaining living standards has been increasingly stressed in the literature (Martin, 2015).

In this connection, this section discusses the main issues and challenges related to the implementation of labour market policies. In doing this, it provides general information about the different types of ALMPs and PLMPs, reviews the studies done on the impact evaluation of programmes implemented in different countries, and discusses some related issues for OIC countries. The section ends with some case studies on the implementation of labour market policies.

3.1 Labour Market Policies

Labour market policies (LMPs) are broadly defined as policies that provide income replacement and labour market integration measures for those who are looking for jobs or even better jobs. They have been traditionally categorized into active and passive

interventions.[4] Passive policies are concerned with providing replacement income during periods of unemployment or job search, which includes unemployment insurance, unemployment assistance and early retirement.

On the other hand, active labour market policies (ALMPs) focus on labour market integrations. They aim to reduce unemployment by: (i) matching jobseekers with current vacancies through direct job-search assistance or labour market information provision; (ii) upgrading and adapting the skills of jobseekers for enhancing employability; (iii) providing incentives to jobseekers or companies to accept certain jobs or hire workers with certain characteristics; and (iv) creating jobs either in the form of public sector employment or the provision of subsidies for private sector work (ILO, 2016a).

ALMPs aim to (re)activate the unemployed and help them to be hired again without distributing benefits to those who do not wish to work. It is argued that shifting support for the unemployed from passive to active measures tends to reduce the duration of unemployment and possibly also the rate of unemployment (Pontusson, 2005). However, ALMPs and PLMPs are not mutually exclusive. During recent periods, it is more commonly observed that recipients of unemployment benefits are increasingly also beneficiaries of ALMPs, and people who take part in ALMPs are provided with some form of income support.

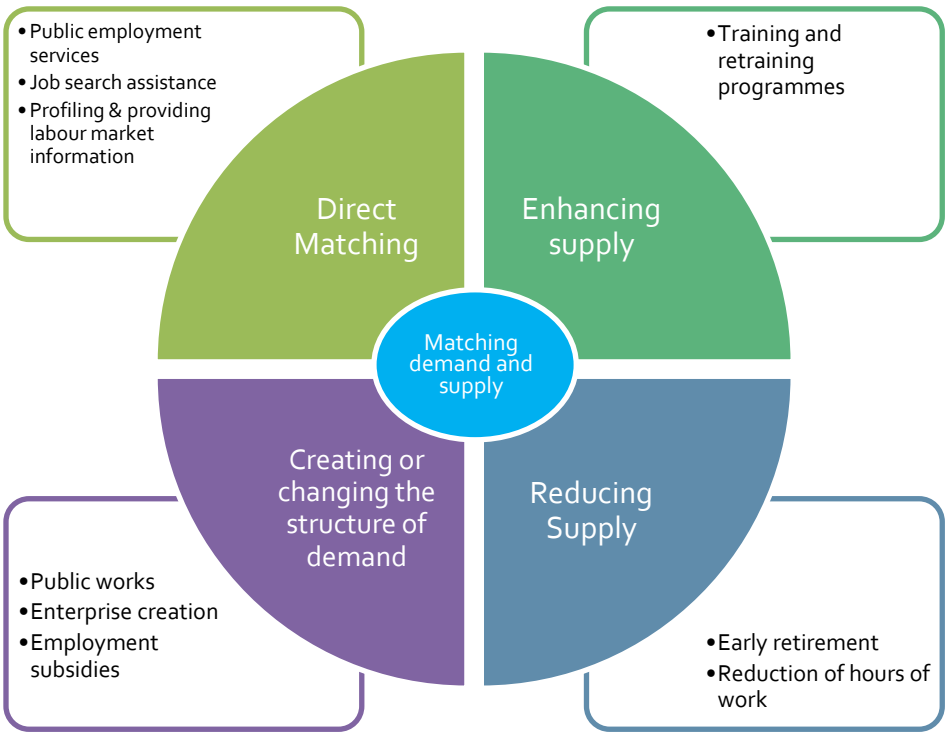
The main target groups of passive labour market policies (PLMPs) and ALMPs are generally unemployed individuals, but ALMPs can additionally target underemployed, employed who are looking for better jobs or youths in school-to-work transition. Frequently, ALMPs targets specific groups facing particular challenges in labour market integration, such as youth, women, elderly and disabled. They are designed to improve the employment chances of somehow disadvantaged groups through various interventions. In other words, it aims to improve the `supply conditions' of labour.

There is a constant mismatch between supply and demand in the labour markets, which leads to constant flows in the labour markets. Some lose jobs, new entrants look for jobs or some others look for better jobs. Although there are jobs lost and created constantly in the labour market, they are usually in different places, sectors and occupations with different requirements and expectations. Therefore, labour markets are quite heterogeneous, leading to constant mismatches and unemployment. In developing countries, including the OIC member countries, the problem is further exacerbated with excess supply of labour.

The primary economic function assigned to LMPs is to balance the qualitative and quantitative mismatch of labour demand and supply. There are diverse labour market policies that are designed to support certain disadvantaged groups. Such policies may directly contribute to matching, by enhancing or reducing supply, and creating or changing the structure of demand. Examples of policies are shown in Figure 3.1.

[4] This chapter follows the definitions and classifications of labour market policies developed by Auer et al. (2008) and ETF (2014), unless otherwise specified.

Figure 3.1: Matching Labour Demand and Supply with Labour Market Policies



Source: Authors' Compilation based on Auer et al. (2008).

In order to implement the various labour market policies successfully, effective institutions need to be set up, which can facilitate interaction between various actors, including public and private employment services, NGOs, municipalities, education and training centres as well as private sector representatives. One critical role of such institutions would be to observe the supply and demand trends. In the absence of sufficient demand, for example, investing in skills development would be less effective in increasing employment, even if it triggers more active job search. Similarly, in the absence of sufficient supply, investing in job creation would be less effective.

Emphasizing the role of institutions, OECD (2015) argues that activation policies that aim to foster more inclusive and resilient labour markets require the jobseekers to have the *motivation* for a new job and increase their *employability*, and the public employment services (PES) to expand the set of job *opportunities*. The report argues that implementation of these three key elements (motivation, employability and opportunities) as well as any successful activation strategy requires effective and efficient labour market institutions and policies.

There are different LMPs that are tailored to the country specific needs in the labour market. Therefore, it is common to observe alternative descriptions of different policy instruments in different regions. In general, major types of PLMPs comprise unemployment insurance, unemployment assistance and early retirement. On the other hand, major types of ALMPs include labour market training, job creation measures, hiring subsidies, job search programmes and support for enterprise creation among the unemployed. While passive policies usually do not impose training or work conditionality, in active policies benefits are only paid upon fulfilment of certain conditions, such as participating in training or employment. The rest of this subsection will provide some more detailed information on different types of active and passive labour market policies.

3.1.1 Major Types of Passive Labour Market Policies

In contrast to interventionist ALMPs, passive policies are of compensatory nature. They aim to alleviate the financial difficulties and ensure minimum living standards for people affected by job loss (unemployment/early retirement) by benefit payments, or support the income situation of people in work. Regardless of some differences across regions in implementation of such policies, general properties of three major types of PLMPs will be highlighted. This includes income benefits to unemployed or inactive adults, namely unemployment insurance benefits or social assistance, disability benefits and early retirement benefits.

Unemployment Insurance / Assistance

Unemployment insurance program pays benefits to workers who have lost their job and meet the programme's eligibility requirements. The purpose of unemployment insurance is obviously to reduce the pain of unemployment. Unemployment insurance, for those who are eligible, is paid to workers by governments from a specially allocated fund for a certain period. In many cases, workers who voluntarily quit their jobs or who are self-employed are not eligible for unemployment insurance.

It can be occasionally observed that the system is abused by its users. It is argued that unemployment benefits provide a disincentive to search for employment or at least to search longer and less intensively (Kraft, 1998). In the presence of generous unemployment benefits, people may even quit their job more frequently. Therefore, experts who are sceptical of the benefits of passive policies claim that unemployment benefits increase voluntary unemployment, while a reduction in the benefits level will reduce unemployment. However, even if the system is abused, it is still something desirable with positive welfare effects.

Disability Benefits

Many advanced countries provide special benefits to workers who leave the labour market permanently due to health problems. Poor health is expected to raise the disutility of work and might even reduce the probability of returning to work, while also generating an

entitlement to disability benefits. In order to benefit from disability benefits, workers are required to pay 'enough' contributions and fulfil other criteria as determined by each country.

As in the case of unemployment insurance system, disability benefit systems are also exposed to moral hazard issues through the combination of high generosity of benefits and lack of monitoring. This may reduce the willingness to work of individuals with health problems but with remaining work capacity. More generous disability benefits and easier access to them tend to be associated with higher disability beneficiary rates. Therefore, many developed countries have taken steps to improve employment opportunities for people with disabilities before they are considered for disability benefits and to promote work incentives for those already on benefits (OECD, 2009).

Early Retirement Benefits

Early retirement strategies are widely used to cope with problems such as those posed by labour market rigidities, the introduction of new technologies, restructuring activities resulting in redundancies and overmanning, and job search difficulties among certain population groups (Mirkin, 1987). In certain circumstances, it may be very costly to retrain the older workers to make them employable and productive through various training or skills development programmes. Therefore, some governments tend to implement an early retirement scheme for older people who are close to retirement age.

Early retirement would have different implications if the beneficiaries are already employed or rather unemployed. Early retirement of already unemployed people will not have implications for those who are looking for job. In some cases, early retirement of employed people is also pursued for the purpose of providing greater employment opportunities for young people. Even if early retirement schemes fail to boost the overall level of employment, they may still be judged beneficial if employment is redistributed in favour of other groups that suffer from disproportionately high rates of unemployment. On the other hand, if workers who are already unemployed are merely redefined as early retirees, nothing has been accomplished to meet the aspirations of these workers who wish to continue working.

3.1.2 Major Types of Active Labour Market Policies

Active policies are found in almost all countries around the world but differ in generosity, design and implementation. They help to create new jobs in the medium and long term only in combination with other public policies, such as macroeconomic, industrial and educational policies. In addition to job creation, ALMPs provide additional benefits for the countries. They contribute to the objectives of equity, poverty reduction and adaptability to change (Auer et al., 2008). Auer et al. (2008) show that the countries most open to the global economy are those that have put in place ALMPs precisely in order to protect their workers from some of the negative employment effects of globalization and technological change.

There is no uniform classification of ALMPs in the literature. They are typically classified into four categories (ETF, 2014; ILO, 2016b). These are: (i) job search assistance; (ii) labour market training; (iii) private sector employment incentives; and (iv) public sector employment. Job search assistance programmes aim to enhance the search effort of individual jobseekers, the general efficiency of the search process and the quality of the resulting job matches. Training programmes, as a classical ALMP that is most frequently used worldwide, aim at increasing human capital and reducing skills mismatch. Private sector incentive programmes aim at creating incentives that change employer and/or worker behaviour regarding private sector employment, such as wage subsidy and self-employment assistance. Finally, direct employment programmes in the public sector focus on the direct creation and provision of public works or other activities that produce public goods or services, which typically target the most disadvantaged individuals (Table 3.1).

Table 3.1: Classical Categorization of Active Labour Market Policies

Type	Objective	Tools
Labour market training	Improve the qualifications, productivity and employability of participants	Classroom training, on-the-job training and work experience
Private sector incentives	Create incentives to alter the behaviour of employers and/or workers	Wage subsidy and self-employment grants
Job search assistance	Increase the efficiency of the job matching process	Job search courses, job clubs, vocational guidance, counselling and monitoring, and sanctions
Direct employment programmes in the public sector	Keep the most disadvantaged workers in contact with the labour market to prevent the loss of human capital	Production and provision of public works or other activities that produce public goods and services

Source: Authors' Compilation based on ETF (2014), ILO (2016b), Bredgaard (2015) and other sources.

However, there are alternative classifications in the literature. McKenzie (2017) classifies the traditional ALMPs into three main groups: (i) programmes that aim to increase the supply of the labour (by increasing the employability of workers through vocational training); (ii) programmes that increase the demand for labour (by subsidizing the cost of labour); and (iii) programmes that facilitate search and matching in the labour market. Meager (2009) also distinguish between ALMPs which have a supply side emphasis (e.g., training schemes, information and job-broking activities, information, advice and guidance to job-seekers, sanctions and incentives, and subsidies to individuals for self-employment)

and those which are oriented towards the demand side of the labour market (e.g., subsidies to employers and job creation schemes).[5]

According to Bonoli, there are four 'ideal' types of ALMPs. These are incentive reinforcement, employment assistance, occupation and human capital investment (Table 3.2).He argues that it would be extremely helpful to operationalize these four types with measurable indicators and then map their variation across time and space. In certain circumstances, the classification offered by Bonoli (2010) might be more useful in identifying the priorities and making better targeted interventions.

Table 3.2: Ideal Types of Active Labour Market Policies

Type	Objective	Tools
Incentive reinforcement	Strengthen positive and negative work incentives for people on benefit	- Tax credits, in work benefits - time limits on recipiency - benefit reductions - benefit conditionality - sanctions
Employment assistance	Remove obstacle to employment and facilitate (re-)entry into the labour market	- placement services - job subsidies - counselling - job search programmes
Occupation	Keep jobless people occupied; limit human capital depletion during unemployment.	- job creation schemes in the public sector - non employment-related training programmes
Human capital investment	Improve the chances of finding employment by upskilling jobless people	- basic education - vocational training

Source: Bonoli (2010).

Regardless of the classification, different types of ALMPs reveal different cost structure and impact on labour markets. In what follows, main properties of most classical ALMP tools are highlighted. This includes training programmes, private sector incentives, search and matching assistance, and public sector employment. These are also defined as the main categories of ALMPs in OECD Database on Labour Market Programmes and the Eurostat Labour Market Policy database (Bredgaard, 2015). ETF (2014) and ILO (2016b) provide the key features of ALMPs, which are summarized in Table 3.3.

[5] Some others divide the interventions into *measures*, *services* and *supports*. See Eichhorst and Konle-Seidl (2016) for more details on this classification, which is also used by Eurostat.

Training Programmes

Training programmes are a labour market measure which aims at improving the chances of those persons having problems at the labour market due to lack of adequate skills. They represent an important component of policy strategies that aim to increase human capital and enhance job prospects of target groups. They also aim to improve job quality, earnings and productivity. As the most classical tool of ALMPs, training is the programme type that is most frequently implemented worldwide (ETF, 2014). These programmes can be provided on-the-job or off-the-job, depending on the needs and requirements.

Table 3.3: Key Features of Active Labour Market Programmes

	Job search assistance	Training	Private sector incentives	Public employment
Sub-types / components	Job search training; counselling; monitoring; job clubs; sanctions	Classroom training; work practice; basic skills training; life skills training	Wage subsidies; self-employment assistance; start-up grants	
Government cost	Low	Medium / High	High	High
Short-run effect	Positive	Negative	Positive	Positive
Long-run effect (best case)	Small positive	Large positive	Small positive	Zero to small positive
Long-run effect (worst case)	Small negative	Small negative	Negative	Large negative
Displacement	Medium	Low	High	High
Business cycle	Anytime; expand in recession	Anytime; expand in recession	Any time	Recession

Source: ETF (2014) and ILO (2016b).

Since training programmes take time, participants' employment probability in the short term is expected to be negative, but the impact will be positive in the medium and long term, unless the contents of the training are outdated or useless. In practice, training programmes are offered to two target groups: (i) the general population of unemployed workers and (ii) low-income, vulnerable and at-risk people, mostly youth, women, disabled and older workers. Programs aiming at youth have been particularly common in Latin America, which act as a substitute to the formal education for youth who have dropped out of the schooling system (McKenzie, 2017).

It is typically asked why firms do not provide this training on their own, or why the job seekers do not undertake such training in privately financed courses. Firms rarely finance skills development efforts. Job seekers, on the other hand, have generally limited resources to invest in their skills and they have only limited knowledge on the general skills requirement. It is therefore more rational for governments to step in and provide special training programmes for disadvantaged groups. Therefore, the costs for governments are usually high.

Private Sector Incentives and Subsidies

Private sector incentive programmes are the interventions that aim to alter employer and/or worker behaviour regarding private sector employment. The most prominent programme in this category is a wage subsidy. The objective of subsidies is to encourage employers to hire new workers or to maintain fragile jobs (ETF, 2014). They frequently target long-term unemployed individuals, but also the unskilled, youths and labour force in disadvantaged areas. Better targeting reduces the subsidy going to those who would have been employed anyway.

The underlying motivation for a temporary wage subsidy is to lower the cost of hiring a worker for a firm. While it mainly improves the employment rates in the short term, it is also likely to have longer term impacts by enhancing occupation specific skills and productivity of workers and giving opportunity to firms to learn more about the real qualifications of workers for a better matching (McKenzie, 2017).[6] Self-employment assistance is another form of subsidized private sector employment, which provides grants or loans and sometimes also advisory support to unemployed individuals who start their own business. It is also often to combine financial support and training programmes in developing countries (ETF, 2014).

Search and Matching Assistance

Job search assistance programmes aim to encourage jobseekers in their efforts to find a job, raise the efficiency of the overall search process and the quality of the resulting job matches. Job search assistance will have only a short run effect unless getting a job changes preferences or future employability. Government costs are typically low for these programmes, but they may play an important role to address information failures in the labour market, particularly in a rapidly changing environment during structural adjustments or economic recessions (ETF, 2014). Such services are especially important when there is asymmetric or lack of information about current and future skills required in the labour market as well as when there is lack of information about geographical and sectoral distribution of job opportunities.

[6] There are also some views in the literature that wage subsidies may not yield the expected outcome. Levinsohn and Pugatch (2014), for example, show that workers may increase their reservation wages in response to subsidies, so the cost of labour may not fall by the full amount of the subsidy.

Public Sector Employment

Direct employment programmes in the public sector focus on the direct creation and provision of public works or other activities that produce public goods or services. These programmes typically target the most disadvantaged groups with a view to keeping them attached to the labour market and prevent loss of human capital during a period of unemployment. While increasing the demand for labour, they also serve as a safety net for disadvantaged groups. Due to lower expected productivity, however, net costs to governments are usually high.

Although these measures provide short term employment opportunities, it is argued that they do not significantly contribute to an increase in employment probability of beneficiaries, because the jobs generated are not closely associated with the actual needs in the labour market. They more often serve as a social policy instrument that provides income, reduces unemployment and encourages work instead of passive income replacement.

3.2 Evaluation of Active Labour Market Policies

Given the importance of jobs for poverty reduction, productivity growth, and social cohesion (World Bank, 2012), it is no surprise that policy makers implement various labour market reforms to enhance employability, stimulate job creation and reduce unemployment. The regulation of employment protection, minimum wages, tax/benefit system and ALMPs are distinct features of labour market interventions. ALMPs were developed in Scandinavian countries with the aim of merging the competitiveness of an open economy with the security of full employment and social justice (Armingeon, 2007). Today, they play an important role in the portfolio of economic policy makers in many developed, but also increasingly in developing countries. However, the critical question is how effective these costly interventions are in combating cyclical and structural unemployment and increasing productive participation into the labour market.[7]

There are a plenty of impact assessment studies investigating the direct effects (treatment effects) of individual programmes on their participants in terms of outcome variables like unemployment duration, employment rate or earnings by using sophisticated methods, ranging from experimental studies using random assignment to a variety of non-experimental methods. The outcomes of these microeconomic studies are usually mixed.

A recent meta-analysis of impact evaluations done by Card et al. (2015), who use more than 200 econometric evaluations of ALMPs in different countries shows important insights on the impacts of different types of programmes. The study shows that average impacts of

[7] In many countries, governments spend substantial amounts with the aim of increasing employment and speed of finding a job. The expenditures for ALMPs like job search assistance, training, wage subsidies and public employment exceed 1% of GDP in some countries (Eichhorst and Konle-Seidl, 2016), particularly in Scandinavian countries.

ALMPs are negligible in the short term, but more significant in the medium term. There are larger gains from programmes that focus on human capital accumulation, although short term impacts are larger in job search assistance programmes. They confirm that public sector employment programs have negligible, or even negative program impacts at all time horizons. They find systematic heterogeneity across participant groups, with larger impacts for females and participants who enter from long term unemployment. In contrast, the program estimates for youths and older workers are typically less positive than for other groups. They also find that ALMPs are more likely to show positive impacts in periods of slow growth and higher unemployment.[8] Given the high probability of long term unemployed to leave the labour force (Kroft et al., 2016), this result indicates that ALMPs (countercyclical job training programs and private employment subsidies) would be an appropriate and effective policy response to avoid exit from the labour force.

General findings on the effectiveness of ALMPs in the literature are also summarized in ILO (2016b). Accordingly:

- Job search assistance programmes are often effective, particularly during the first year after programme participation. These are low-cost interventions, therefore more likely to be cost-effective.
- Wage subsidy programmes also seem to be very effective, both in the short and medium term.
- Public employment programmes are not effective in increasing participants' employment chances. In the longer run, they may even have negative impacts.
- Labour market training programmes are modestly effective. However, due to the human capital formation component, medium-run and long-run impacts of ALMP are more positive than the short-run impacts.
- Relative to adult ALMP, youth programmes are found to be less effective in OECD countries, but they were often more successful in Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) countries.
- Overall impacts of ALMPs are not improving over time.
- Early intervention is better than late intervention.

It is evident that despite some positive impacts, a growing body of evidence shows that activation policies are generally less effective than what policy makers, program participants, and economists typically expect. In their review of largely developed country evidence, Crépon and van den Berg (2016) conclude that the general outlook for ALMPs is rather grim. And this is not unique to ALMPs in developed countries. As McKenzie (2017) shows, traditional ALMPs that focus on skill training, wage subsidies, and job search

[8] This study was built on a previous study of same authors (Card et al., 2010) that evaluates programme impacts from 97 studies conducted between 1995 and 2007. They found that job search assistance programmes yield relatively favourable programme impacts, whereas public sector employment programmes are less effective. Again, training programmes appear to be ineffective in the short term, but there are positive impacts in the medium term.

assistance have at best modest impacts in developing countries. Major problems and challenges related to the implementation of ALMPs are listed in Table 3.4, as provided by Auer et al. (2008).

In the case of Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) countries, ILO (2016b) finds similar outcomes with global estimations done by Card et al. (2015). According to ILO (2016b), the programme estimates for youths and older workers are typically less positive than for other groups in the worldwide sample. Again in contrary to global estimates of microeconomic assessments, programme impacts in LAC are found more likely to be positive during times of high economic growth and low unemployment.[9]

While the microeconomic evaluation literature is extremely valuable in quantifying what works and what does not among individual ALMPs, it cannot be used to quantify the broader macroeconomic effects of activation strategies. Due to indirect effects (substitution, displacement and deadweight effects) of ALMPs, they may also affect the job perspectives of non-participants or non-beneficiaries. Therefore, even if ALMPs have a positive effect for the individual participants, they may not improve the labour market situation as a whole.

Compared to the large body of micro-econometric evaluation studies, the number of aggregate impact studies is rather small. Reviewing a number of impact assessments at macroeconomic level, Martin (2015) shows that ALMP spending does reduce unemployment and long-term unemployment. ILO (2015a) finds that outcomes of training, employment incentives, supported employment and direct job creation measures are the most favourable in terms of reducing unemployment as well as increasing employment and participation. It also shows that ALMPs are more effective for the low skilled than for the overall population.

All these evidence suggest that ALMPs remain critical in improving the employment chances of disadvantaged groups, but there is still significant room for improvements of the effectiveness of the programmes. As McKenzie (2017) puts, "not everything that policy makers try works", therefore new policy innovations should be developed and implemented, and then their effectiveness should be regularly assessed by rigorous impact evaluations in order to test the outcomes of competing alternatives.

3.3 Issues for the OIC Member Countries

As highlighted earlier, LMPs aim to overcome market failures preventing the efficient operation of labour markets and to provide support for socio-economically disadvantaged groups facing barriers to entry into formal employment. However, labour markets of

[9] ILO has a special project on active labour market policies in Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) countries, which collects information on labour market policies implemented in a range of LAC countries since the 1990s. This facilitates the research on labour market policies in that region compared to other developing regions.

developing countries, unlike those of advanced countries, face specific challenges that must be addressed by public policy, such as low educational attainment amongst the workforce, high levels of informality, and a lack of up-to-date market information. This requires formulating the policies specific to the circumstances of each country. Experiences of other developing countries may be more valuable than the experiences of developed countries.

It is also important to develop policies for economically inactive populations in order to increase their participation in labour market. As the overall unemployment rate falls and total burden of benefits provided to certain inactive groups rises in some developed countries, there is also a shift in attention to these people for their proper integration to labour market. However, it is also common to observe that some developing countries do not have comprehensive labour market policies at all. Employment reacts to other policies, such as trade, finance, education and industrial development.

Moreover, participation of youth to labour market poses a major challenge for policy makers in OIC countries. As indicated in Section 1, average youth unemployment rate in OIC countries is over 16%, compared to around 11% in non-OIC developing countries. This figure shows the huge difficulties young people face in their efforts to access the labour market for the first time. It also indicates the size of the welfare loss to the economies of OIC countries. Improving the employment prospects of millions of young people in OIC countries should be one of the top priorities of OIC countries. This requires concrete policy initiatives in the area of labour markets. ALMPs would be utilized towards this direction. Providing employment incentives by lowering the wage costs of young people, creating temporary employment or enhancing the skills relevant to obtaining and retaining employment would be some of the possible policy instruments for youth.

In this connection, OIC countries need to develop their own approach of LMPs by taking their diverse problems and background conditions into consideration. Developed countries also adopt different strategies for their labour market problems. They use a mixture of and constantly evolving labour market policy instruments to tackle the challenges they face. Blanchard et al. (2014) identified three major labour market regimes in developed countries, where two of them were evaluated as relatively successful, the third one was not.

- **[Successful]** - An "Anglo-Saxon" model: Based on low employment protection and low unemployment insurance, which leads to large flows, short unemployment duration, and low unemployment.
- **[Successful]** - A "Nordic" model: Based on a medium to high degree of employment protection, on generous but conditional unemployment insurance, and on strong ALMPs, which allows for reallocation while maintaining low unemployment.
- **[Unsuccessful]** - A "continental" model: Based on high employment protection, generous unemployment insurance, and limited ALMPs, which leads to limited reallocation and high unemployment.

Table 3.4: Major Problems of Active Labour Market Policies

	General Problems	Specific Problems
Public employment services	- Administering rather than serving the unemployed; - Being remote from market needs; - Centralized structures	- Low vacancy reporting - Low market share - Bad matching of unemployed to jobs and unemployed to measures - Gender biases
Training	- Insufficient levels of training; - Mismatch between market demand and training; - Complex and overlapping structure of delivery; - Low level of social partner involvement; - Insufficient planning; - Bad image of labour market training for the unemployed; - Lifelong learning a mere slogan	- Unclear knowledge of training needs - Compensation for schooling rather than cumulative training - Outdated curricula - Unsuitable training sites and material - Bad training of trainers - Lack of connection between training institutions and employers, and/or low level of private-sector involvement - Difficulties of training in informal economy - Overeducated and overqualified unemployed - Unequal access to training - School-to-work transition - Financial bottlenecks - Gender biases
Public works / direct job creation	- Usually seen as make-work activities for marginal groups without effective re-employment chances; - Bad image, sometimes even leading to reduced employability of participants; - Uncertain link to (local) development strategies	- Low labour market integration capacity - End of measure equals return to poverty - Establishment of permanent secondary labour markets - Displacement of private sector - Stigmatization of participants - Difficulty of enforcing work conditionality - Gender biases
Employment subsidies	- Seldom used in developing countries; - Uncertain effects in informal sector; - High deadweight and substitution effect (especially when not targeted); - Problems of marginal tax rates after ending of subsidy	- Timing of subsidy (in terms both of duration and of phasing in and out in relation to cycle) - Form of subsidy (tax rebate, negative income tax, wage premium) - Problematic for obsolete sectors - Informal economy
Self-employment, small enterprise creation	- Problem of targeting, and choices between maintaining and expanding existing SMEs and supporting the creation of new ones; - Activities of small firms and self-employed often at subsistence level with low productivity and low development potential	- Access to credit - Access to consultancy and training - Low productivity - Informal sector

Source: Author's compilation from Auer et al. (2008).

These experiences will have definitely implications for policy making in OIC countries as well. Data unavailability on the ALMPs in OIC countries hinders to make more

comprehensive assessments on the scale and impact of these policies in OIC countries. A survey conducted by the World Association of Public Employment Services (WAPES) and the Inter- American Development Bank (IADB) with the 73 public employment services worldwide in 2014 provides some insights on the labour market policies in participating OIC member countries.

Table 3.5: Active Labour Market Policies in OIC Member Countries

	Albania	Algeria	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Cote d'Ivoire	Gabon	Guinea	Guyana	Mauritania	Morocco	Niger	Suriname	Togo	Turkey	TOTAL
General vocational guidance (1)	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	**13**
Vocational training measures (2)	+	-	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	**9**
Vocational training by external training organisations (3)	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	**14**
Work testing / placement into temporary work trial	-	-	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	**7**
Self-employment schemes / business start-up	-	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	**11**
Wage cost (4)	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	+	**6**
Job creation measures (5)	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	**4**
Employment maintenance measures (6)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	**1**
Programmes to promote the mobility of workers	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	**4**

Source: Compiled from WAPES-IADB 2014 Survey, available at http://www.theworldofpes.org.
Notes: (1) General vocational guidance (i.e. counselling/ advice) for young people (school-to-work transition) and adults; (2) PES/organisation itself is active as provider of vocational training measures (focus qualifications/ competencies); (3) Funding and/or referral of vocational training sessions provided by external training organisations; (4) Wage cost subsidies to promote recruitment of unemployed persons; (5) Job creation measures as additional (public) employment in restricted target areas; (6) Employment maintenance measures (short time work schemes etc) for workers running the risk of economic layoff

According to the survey, general vocational guidance, external vocational training, and self-employment schemes are the most frequent ALMP measures both in 15 participating OIC countries as well as in other participating countries (Table 3.5). The most frequent target group are young people (below 25) and long-term unemployed, for whom 12 out of 15 public employment services in OIC countries supply specific programs for their labour market integration (Table 3.6). Around 65% of public employment services target disabled people, women and/or migrants.

Table 3.6: Services Targeted at Special Groups

	Albania	Algeria	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Cote d'Ivoire	Gabon	Guinea	Guyana	Mauritania	Morocco	Niger	Suriname	Togo	Turkey	TOTAL
Young people (age < 25)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	-	+	**12**
Older jobseekers (> 50 y)	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	**5**
Lone parents	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	**2**
Women	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	**10**
Disabled/ handicapped	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	-	-	+	**11**
Immigrants/ migrants	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	**10**
Long-term unemployed	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	**12**
Ethnic minorities/ aboriginal communities	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	**3**

Source: Compiled from WAPES-IADB 2014 Survey, available at http://www.theworldofpes.org.

There are also a number of studies assessing the impact of some labour market policies in individual OIC member countries. Hirshleifer et al. (2016) investigate Turkey's vocational training programs for the unemployed, a large scale active labour market policy in Turkey. Their result suggests that the average impact of these vocational training programs is a very modest positive overall impact on employment and on the quality of employment, with the measured impact of the courses much less than expected.[10] On the other hand, they find some evidence that training is more effective when given by private providers rather than government training institutes (4 to 6 percentage points higher). This is

[10] Subjective expectations of the employment impact of the program elicited from participants show that they expected a 32 percentage point increase in the likelihood of employment, while staff in the government employment office expected the training to increase the likelihood of employment by 24 percentage points. These expectations far exceed the actual impact of 2 percentage points.

consistent with increasing emphasis in policy towards better aligning training programs with private sector demand. Authors conclude that there is some potential for vocational training to improve the short-term employment prospects, but that this potential will be best realized when courses are offered by providers that have both the incentives and ability to respond to market demands.

An impact assessment made on the wage subsidies provided for female college graduates in Jordan shows that subsidies did not provide the stepping stone to additional work as expected in the literature. The wage voucher led to a 38 percentage point increase in employment in the short run, but the average effect is much smaller and no longer statistically significant after the voucher period has expired (Groh et al., 2016). The authors explain it with productivity levels not rising above a binding minimum wage. Groh et al. (2016) likewise show that policy makers in Jordan expected the wage subsidy program to have lasting impacts on youth employment, in contrast to the realized impacts.

In search and matching assistance, experiences of OIC countries show that only few direct hires occur through such interventions. Groh et al. (2015) made more than 1,000 matches between firms and workers in the case of Jordan. In 28% of all cases, youth rejected the opportunity of an interview; and in 83% of all cases, they rejected the job offer or quit the job quickly. In the case of Uganda, Bassi and Nansamba (2017) report that only 2-4% of their job matches resulted in a worker being hired.

3.4 Case Studies

Unemployment, especially long-term unemployment, can have serious and adverse consequences for the individual, society and economic system. There can be several causes for being unemployed or inactive, such as a lack of labour demand, inadequate skills and institutional factors. Some of these causes can be addressed by using ALMPs, but they do not work for all unemployed and under all circumstances. The design, coverage and targeting of ALMPs as well as the way they are implemented matter a lot in terms of their effectiveness and efficiency (European Commission, 2015).

As in many other countries, the unemployment, particularly long-term unemployment, has been a crucial challenge in OIC countries. During the last decade, OIC countries have put reform various strategies in place to reduce the unemployment and inactivity in labour market. They increased public resources going into a range of ALMPs to help to reduce structural unemployment. Some non-OIC developing countries have implemented successful programmes in reducing unemployment. The Jóvenes programmes in several countries in Latin America and the Caribbean has been particularly successful. These programmes have represented the prototypical model of a comprehensive intervention for young people to increase skills and improve employment chances in Latin America and the Caribbean since 1991 (see ETF, 2014, for more discussion). This part discusses the strategies to reduce the risk of unemployment in OIC by presenting the different cases from three OIC member countries.

Strategies for Reducing Youth Unemployment in Jordan

Youth unemployment represents a major issue for Jordan's economy, politics and society as a whole. Youth unemployment in Jordan is pervasive, and often protracted. The country's youth unemployment rate (34% in 2016) is more than twice the global average in 2016 (World Bank, 2016). The duration of youth unemployment in the country is also a serious concern. Long-term unemployment (1 year or more) affected more than half of the youth population in Jordan.

Unemployment in the early stages of life affects the job prospects across the working life span of young people. Moreover, high level of unemployment among youth presents a source of social and psychological instability. Hence, much political attention has been given to the employment of young people in Jordan. The Government has been active in developing policies to promote youth employment. As the challenges are many and cut across several policy dimensions, measures focus on both supply and demand, and are curative as well as preventative. Emphasis is placed on education and training, job creation and entrepreneurship, inclusion of youth in the labour market and institutional reform (Barcucci and Mryyan, 2014).

The Government has also been active in ensuring that the policy-making process responds to the current challenges faced by young people in securing a smooth transition to the labour market. The policy effort includes overarching development strategies such as the Jordan Poverty Reduction Strategy and the Jordanian National Agenda, and employment-oriented measures like Jordan's National Employment Strategy. The high priority placed by the Government on human resources development is demonstrated by the Employment-Technical Vocational Education and Training Strategy. In that regard, the new Poverty Reduction Strategy (PRS) was approved in 2013 to contain and reduce poverty, vulnerability and inequality in Jordan's socio-economic environment through 2013 by adopting a holistic and results-oriented approach, which targets poor and below-middle-class households (Barcucci & Mryyan, 2014).

Jordan's National Employment Strategy 2011–2020 and an action plan are launched in Jordan, which included analytical considerations on the main issues and priorities in the labour market, and suggested ways forward under different scenarios. The strategy was prepared by a technical team that selected 69 different actions for implementation. The criteria for selecting the actions, which were chosen from a total of more than 160 considered, included a demonstration of a clear link of the action to either reaching an outcome or reducing/eliminating a challenge; a significant impact on employment; realism and feasibility; and complexity of implementation. Activities requiring substantial coordination across sectors and ministries, as well as input from stakeholders, were also included.

The Employment-Technical Vocational Education and Training (E-TVET) Strategy was also introduced in Jordan. A major feature of the strategy is its establishment of an E-TVET Council, which has responsibility over planning, policy-making and coordination for employment and TVET at the national level. Since the first E-TVET Strategy covered the period 2008 to 2013, the E-TVET Council, through the Executive Sub- Committee recently mandated the Secretariat (to the Council) to initiate and coordinate a wide spectrum of activities in order to prepare a new Draft E-TVET Strategy for the period 2014 – 2020, fully aligned with the National Employment Strategy 2011 -2020. Under the 2008 to 2013 approach, nine areas were identified as being key elements to the Strategy. These areas were: (1) Employment; (2) Planning for E-TVET; (3) Financing; (4) Information Systems; (5) Occupational Classification and Standards; (6) The Status of TVET; (7) Non-Formal TVET; (8) Role of the Private and Non-Governmental Sector in E-TVET; (9) The Regional and International Dimension (The Jordan National E-TVET Strategy, 2014).

While the main focus of the E-TVET strategy is human resources development (HRD), and technical and vocational education and training in particular, the strategy also includes the objectives: to assist the Jordanian Labour Force, and in particular the youth in securing decent employment at sustainable levels, and enabling them to consistently upgrade their knowledge and skills to keep pace with technological, economic and social change and opportunities in an increasingly globally competitive environment. This Strategy also incorporates elements to bring hope to disadvantaged people, one of the finest goals of any educationist, and wants to accelerate the full development and utilisation of the diversity of talents in the society (The Jordan National E-TVET Strategy, 2014).

While the policy efforts in Jordan are remarkable, more needs to be done in addressing unemployment, issues of skills mismatch and decent work deficits in the country. Since, the labour market can offer good jobs in Jordan, but to an insufficient number of youth. Significant number of refugees from Syria also poses an added challenge for the authorities in tackling the unemployment problem.

ALMPs in Turkey

Turkey allocated a considerable amount of financial resources to active labour market policies (ALMPs) during the last decade. Expenditures on ALMPs started to rise after 2004. However, it is after 2008 that ALMP expenditures grew considerably, up to 4% of public expenditures in 2012 (Gökşen et al., 2015).

ISKUR, the public employment service agency in Turkey, increased coverage of the unemployed and the number of participants in active labour market programs after 2008. During the post-crisis period, the government expanded the coverage of ALMPs to all registered unemployed. Most of the subsidies to employers or employees can be enjoyed only in case workers are registered at ISKUR, which fosters a higher registration rate. Since 2008, ISKUR has increased vocational training, introduced Job and Vocation Counselling

(JVC) and launched Entrepreneurship programs (World Bank, 2013). ISKUR has also linked social assistance beneficiaries to registration with ISKUR. According to March 2014 data, as a part of social-assistance-employment relation, more than 1 million people were registered and nearly 44.5 thousand people were employed. ISKUR also directed 166,100 people towards vacant jobs (ISKUR, 2014).

For the development of ALMPs for the youth, one of the progressive steps is preparation of policy documents specifically related to employment and youth. In "National Employment Strategy" policy document published in 2013, the importance of strengthening the relation between education and employment were underlined and the concrete objectives were identified for development of well-structured and planned policies. In addition, "National Youth Employment Action Plan", as another primary policy document, highlights the importance of job creation and defines İŞKUR's role on job creation through promoting youth employment in urban areas, monitoring the registered youth's employment status, and encouraging entrepreneurship. This also points that the phenomenon of job creation takes place as part of the national agenda of the state (Gökşen et al., 2015).

The "National Employment Strategy" also encourages entrepreneurship for the youth as one of the key elements of youth employment. In this way, KOSGEB provides various start-up grants such as Entrepreneur Support Program and R&D, Innovation and Industrial Implementation programs. In order to promote R&D, Ministry of Science, Industry and Technology provides technology entrepreneur capital support for the youth. In addition, there are some subsidies and tax exemptions introduced for promoting the youth employment and helping them to gain experience. With the changes in the Law No. 338 in 2011, companies with more than 10 employees may also provide internship opportunities for the vocational and technical high school students. All the payments for students, apprentices and candidate apprentices are exempt from the taxes for companies. Even though this financial support for VET can be regarded as an improvement in terms of STW, other kind of supporting mechanisms such as public loans, youth guarantee, and voucher schemes are not available in Turkey.

Enhancing the administrative capacity of ISKUR can be considered as another dimension of youth employability. Recently, ISKUR increased the amount of its staff and the number of participants in different provinces significantly. The partnership with local stakeholders; such as ISKUR's protocols with the local municipalities, is another effective tool for job creation at the local level. Besides ISKUR, many other international organizations such as UNDP and World Bank contribute to new partnerships with the local stakeholders. Development agencies and NGOs are the other actors providing services at the implementation phase of the projects.

Albanian Experience in Employment Services

Rising unemployment and falling living standards are two of the main problems facing policymakers in economies in transition. The case of Albania is not distinctive in that sense because of a high presence of structural unemployment and deep structural imbalances, including lack of mobility, mass unemployment of low-skilled and hard-to-adapt labour and weak links between education systems and industry requirements.

Unemployment trend is worrisome in Albania, where unemployment has been increasing in the past years and reached 17.1% in 2015. There is also a significant portion of long-term unemployment in total unemployment. In 2015, around 66% of unemployed in Albania were looking for a job for 12 months or longer. Poor labour market performance, in addition to other structural imbalances, represents a substantial obstacle to solving the problem of unemployment and creates the need for a complex set of employment policies and measures. In that regard, over the last years ALMPs, as a part of wider employment policies, are defined and regulated by relevant laws in Albania. The National strategy for development and integration as a core document in the process of European integration when it comes to economic and social policy in Albania sets principal objectives for employment promotion through the use of ALMPs (ILO, 2015b).

In addition to the general economic development framework, government efforts to reduce unemployment have been focused on active policies, aiming to remove people from unemployment addiction (passive policy) and help them adapt in a competitive market and independent work. The ALMP in Albania covers one of the following types: (1) Intermediation for work and profession; (2) Work counselling; (3) Professional education (labour market training); (4) Programs of employment promotion (subsidized employment). Out of active policies, employment promotions programs (subsidized employment) are among the major ones in terms of expenditure. These programs include wage subsidy to an employer for recruiting less competitive persons. The level of wage subsidy is 100% of the minimum wage during the first 6 months and 50% of the minimum wage during the next 6 months of his/her employment period (Vangjeli, 2012). During the last decade, a number of employment promotions programs (subsidized employment programs) designed and implemented, which includes the employment promotion programs for the unemployed job seekers; through working and institutional education, and occupational trainings.

Furthermore, as part of the National strategy for employment and skills 2014-2020, ALMPs are positioned as one of the key instruments for achieving defined goals. In that regard, the public expenditure on active employment measures can be evaluated as satisfactory in Albania. According to the latest data, the share of expenditures on ALMPs in the total expenditure on labour market policies is about 45% in Albania (Agenda Institute). Training

programmes are also designed in Albania, where on-the-job training is combined with the possibility of employment.

In Albania, the implementation of employment measures, including ALMPs, are predominantly under the jurisdiction of public employment services, in coordination with the relevant ministry. Albanian Public Employment Services (PES) consists of a National Employment Service which operates through 36 employment offices – regional, district and local – and 10 public centres for vocational training (Numanović, 2016). Nonetheless, institutional capacity of Albanian PES is still weak in Albania, especially in the sphere of human resources. This is primarily reflected in the ratio of employment service officers who work directly with users and beneficiaries, or persons registered as unemployed. Despite its decentralized structure and many offices, worrisome ratio is to be found in Albania, which has 367 beneficiaries per one PES officer who works directly with users according the estimates of National Employment Service. PES staff is often insufficiently qualified or trained for providing services such as counselling, job intermediation, job search assistance and similar tasks. Together with the poor internal allocation of human resources at the expense of service-oriented work positions and a great staff workload, this leads to a weaker performance of employment policies (Numanović, 2016).

Overall, Albania's labour market situation shows that the number of active programs has been upward. However, multiplying programs caused most of them to duplicate or exclude one another, making them costly to administer. They were also confusing for the Employment Offices to serve to unemployed people. What is working in the labour market does not come out clearly because of this program diversification. Evaluation is an important instrument in rationalizing these issues.

SECTION FOUR

EMPLOYMENT OF PERSONS WITH DISABILITIES

According to the WHO and World Bank (2011), 15% of the world's population is estimated to suffer from a disability or chronic illness. Moreover, people with disabilities are reported to have twice the rate for non-participation in the labour market as compared to persons without disabilities. The unemployment rate for persons with a severe disability is about three times the level for persons without disabilities. In terms of compensation, workers with disability typically receive a lower wage than others.

In the light of these global stylized facts, this chapter of the report sheds light to the employment of persons with disabilities in OIC countries first by providing an overview on the concept of disability and the rates of prevalence. Then it continues with a discussion on barriers on employment for persons with disabilities. Following this discussion, the chapter focuses on employment prospects for persons with disabilities. Finally, the chapter ends with some selected initiatives from OIC countries on addressing the employment challenges of persons with disabilities.

4.1 The Concept of Disability

The Article 1 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) states that 'persons with disabilities include those who have long-term physical, mental, intellectual or sensory impairments which in interaction with various barriers may hinder their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others' (see Box 4.1 for more information about CRPD).

More than one billion people experience some form of disability. In other words, about 1 out of 7 persons has a disability worldwide. According to the estimates of the WHO, due to aging population and widespread chronic diseases, the global prevalence rate of disability increased from 10% in 1970 to 15% in 2011; and 80% of persons with disabilities live in developing countries (WHO and World Bank, 2011).

Majority of disabilities appear in the form physical disability where the physical health capacity of a person does not allow him/her to fully participate into daily socio-economic activities without any support. The number of people with disabilities is increasing due to population growth, ageing, emergence of chronic diseases and medical advances that preserve and prolong life.

Persons with physical disabilities are diverse and heterogeneous, while stereotypical views of disability emphasize wheelchair users and a few other "classic" groups such as blind

Box 4.1: The United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD)

The Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) sets out the legal obligations on States to promote and protect the rights of persons with disabilities. It does not create new rights. According to the Article 1 of the Convention, persons with disabilities include those who have long-term physical, mental, intellectual or sensory impairments which in interaction with various barriers may hinder their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others.

The Convention outlines the civil, cultural, political, social and economic rights of people with disabilities. In other words, The Convention gives universal recognition to the dignity of persons with disabilities. The Convention marks a 'paradigm shift' in attitudes and approaches to persons with disabilities. In this regard, according to the Convention:

a) persons with disabilities are no longer an object to be fixed through medical treatment but a subject of rights with choices as to how he or she wants to live and what treatments, if any, he or she wishes to use
b) persons with disabilities are no longer objects of charity of social welfare – a burden on society – but active members of society with something to contribute to society.
c) persons with disabilities should have avenues to defend rights (complaints mechanisms, rights advocacy etc.) and to change society so that society becomes more abling.

The Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities came into force on 3 May 2008. Member States which have signed the Convention agree to promote, protect and ensure the full and equal enjoyment of the human rights and fundamental freedoms of people with disabilities and prompt respect for their inherent dignity. In total CRPD has still not been signed by 12 OIC member countries. 10 OIC Member countries have not ratified CRPD yet. On the other hand, 36 OIC Member countries have completed both the signature and ratification processes.

During the implementation process of the Convention many countries across the globe including the OIC Members are in need for training, capacity building, awareness raising, good practices collection and validation and knowledge management. They are also in need to mainstream disability in all development activities. It is also highly critical to include persons with disabilities for the successful implementation of the Convention in its all stages.

Source: UN (2017)

people and deaf people (WHO and World Bank, 2011). Disability encompasses the child born with a congenital condition such as cerebral palsy (a disorder that leads to permanent movement disability) or the young soldier who loses his leg to a land-mine. Or an elderly person can be classified as a disabled person due to his chronic respiratory disease that hinders his full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others.

According to the WHO, around 23% of disabled people are suffering from mental disorders globally. The vast majority of disabled people, about 77%, experience some form of physical disability mainly caused by 145 categories of diseases/disorders from cardiovascular diseases to sense organ impairments.

4.1.1 Disability and Its Implications on Society

Persons with disabilities, on average as a group, are more likely to experience adverse socioeconomic outcomes than persons without disabilities including poor health outcomes, lower educational achievements, less economic activity and employment, higher poverty rates, and limited independence (see Box 4.2).

Compared with people without disability, men and women with disabilities are twice as likely to find that health care facilities and providers' skills are inadequate, three times more likely to be denied health care and four times more likely to be treated badly in the health care system. Of all persons with disabilities, half cannot afford required health care; people with disabilities are also 50% more likely than those without disability to suffer catastrophic health expenditures (WHO and World Bank, 2011).

Disability may also increase the risk of poverty especially through lack of employment and education opportunities, lower wages, and increased cost of living with a disability. According to UN (2015), having disability increases the cost of living by about a third of average income. On the other hand, poverty may increase the risk of disability through malnutrition, inadequate access to education and health care, unsafe working conditions, polluted environment, and lack of access to safe water and sanitation.

Key factors that cause disability can be grouped broadly under two categories: internal and external (environmental) factors. Internal factors include all biologically and genetically inherited factors (DNA codes) that a person does not have any power to control them. External factors cover all personal habits (e.g. eating and sleeping), living conditions (e.g. housing and sanitation, working conditions (e.g. work-related injuries, polluted work environment), and social conditions (e.g. natural disasters, wars, conflicts, in-house abuse and violence).

People usually become disabled as a result of combined effect of both internal and external factors. External factors affect the quality of life of people with special needs and may have significant impact on the severity of disability that a person suffers from. Moreover, a country's economic, legislative, physical, and social environment may create or maintain

barriers to the participation of people with disabilities in economic, civic, and social life. Barriers include inaccessible buildings, transport, information, and communication technology, inadequate standards, lack of healthcare and rehabilitation services, and/or limited funding for those services; and too little data and analysis for evidence-based, efficient, and effective policies (WHO and World Bank, 2011).

4.1.2 Global and Regional Trends on Disability

Burden on society stemming from disability is on the rise worldwide with about 5% increase that was observed in the global prevalence rate of disability since the 1970s. Each year increasing number of people is partially or fully becoming unable to fully utilize their physical and mental capacity to engage in daily social and economic activities.

When the burden is measured in terms of Years of Healthy Life Lost Due to Disability (YLDs) it becomes relatively easy to measure and track. This is reflected in the positive trend seen in the world average YLDs that went up from 10.2 in 2000 to 10.4 in 2012 (per 100 people) (Figure 4.1). In line with the global positive trend, East Asia and Pacific, Europe and Central Asia, Latin America and Caribbean, and Middle East and North Africa regions registered increases in their average YLDs between 2000 and 2012. Only Sub-Saharan

Box 4.2: Disadvantages Experienced by People with Disabilities

1) Poor health outcomes: Depending on the group and setting, persons with disabilities may experience greater vulnerability to preventable secondary conditions and co-morbidities, untreated mental health condition

2) Lower educational achievements: Children with disabilities are less likely to start school than their peers without disabilities. They also have lower rates of staying in school and of being promoted, as well as lower transition rates to post school education.

3) **Less economic activity and employment:** People with disabilities have lower employment rates than people without disabilities. When people with disabilities are employed, they commonly earn less than their counterparts without disabilities.

4) Higher rates of poverty: As a group and across settings, people with disabilities have worse living conditions and fewer assets. Poverty may lead to disability, through malnutrition, poor health care, and dangerous working or living conditions. Disability may lead to poverty through lost earnings, due to lack of employment or underemployment, and through the additional costs of living with disability, such as extra medical, housing, and transport costs.

5) Limited independence: Reliance on institutional solutions, lack of community living, inaccessible transport and other public facilities, and negative attitudes leave people with disabilities dependent on others and isolated from mainstream social, cultural, and political opportunities.

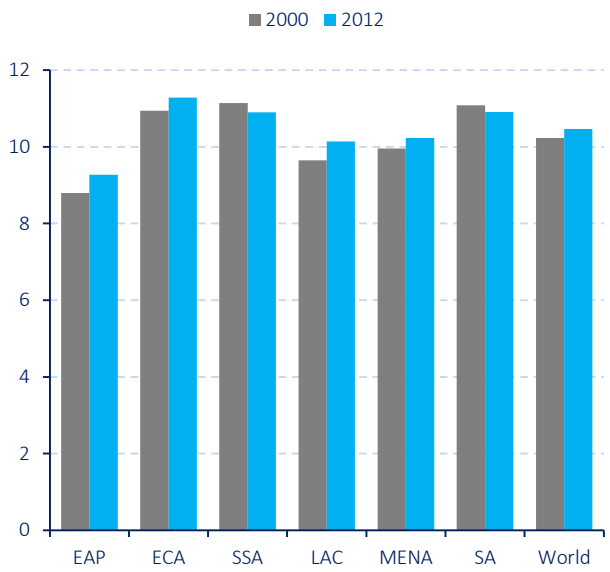
Source: WHO and World Bank, 2011, p. 263

Africa and South Asia regions saw declines in their average YLDs in the same period thanks to both national and international efforts to strengthen the overall health systems. However, the averages of these two regions still remained above the world average of 10.4 in 2012 (per 100 people).

OIC Countries are not free from the consequences of disabilities. On average, OIC countries lost 10.4 years (per 100 people) where the world average was recorded at 9.3 in 2011 (Figure 4.2). Non-OIC developing countries, on average, lost 9.6 heathy life years (per 100 people) due to disability that was being relatively lower average when compared to the OIC average. On the other hand, the developed countries group was a relatively less affected country group from disabilities when it is measured in terms of YLDs thanks to their well-functioning health systems and effective treatment methods including wide-range of rehabilitation mechanisms. On average, developed countries lost only 7.2 healthy life years per 100 people due to disability.

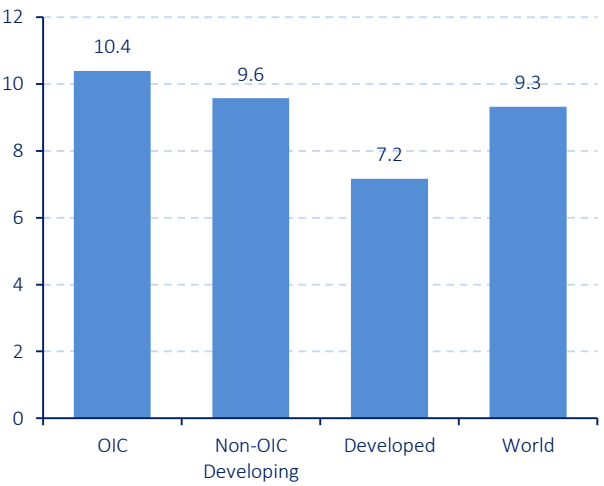
In terms of individual country performance in the OIC group, Iraq (19.4 years) and Afghanistan

Figure 4.1: Global and Regional Trends in Years of Healthy Life Lost Due to Disability (YLDs), (per 100 people)



Source: WHO Data Repository, WHO Estimations. (EAP: East Asia and Pacific; ECA: Europe and Central Asia; SSA: Sub-Saharan Africa; LAC: Latin America and Caribbean; MENA: Middle East and North Africa; SA: South Asia)

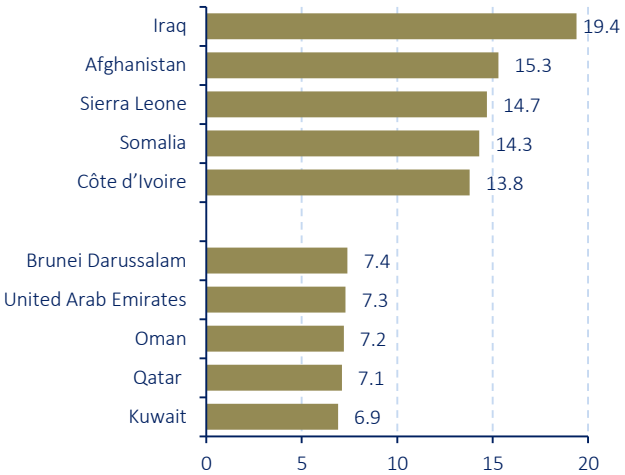
Figure 4.2: Years of Healthy Life Lost Due to Disability (YLDs) in the World; (per 100 people), 2011



Source: SESRIC staff calculations based on World Bank, World Disability Report 2011.

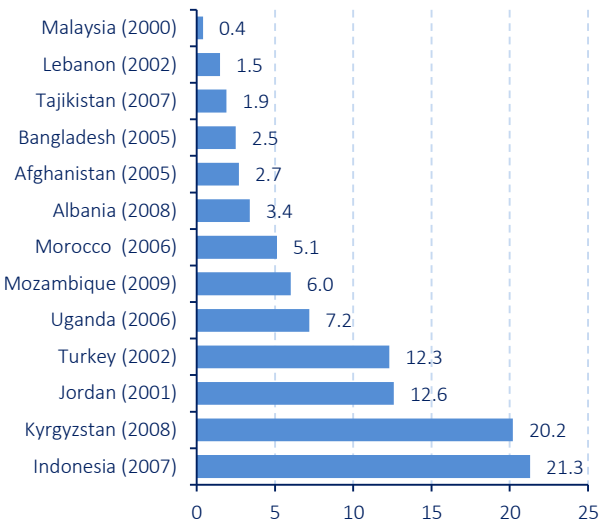
(15.3) were the two most disability-affected countries in terms of YLDs (Figure 4.3). The on-going internal conflicts and military clashes seen over the last decade that disrupted the physical and health infrastructure of these countries were the two major reasons of high level of YLDs recorded in Iraq and Afghanistan. On the other side of the spectrum, Kuwait (6.9) and Qatar (7.1) are two OIC countries that registered the lowest number of YLDs.

Figure 4.3: OIC Countries with the Highest and Lowest YLDs; (per 100 people), 2011



Source: World Bank, World Disability Report 2011.

Figure 4.4: Estimates of Disability Prevalence in OIC Countries (% of total population)



Source: World Bank, World Disability Report 2011.

To provide the necessary services for disabled people effectively, countries need to know the exact number of disabled people. However, many countries have not been collecting and reporting disability data in a regular basis and standard way. Therefore, standardized data reported by international institutions carry a special importance in cross-country analyses. The World Disability Report 2011 reports the estimates of disability prevalence based on national surveys in 22 OIC countries, only 13 of which are for the years after 2000. According to Figure 4.4, among data available OIC member countries, Indonesia had the highest disability prevalence rate that was measured at 21.3%. Indonesia was followed by Kyrgyzstan (20.2%) and Jordan (12.6%). On the other hand, among OIC member countries, Malaysia recorded the lowest disability prevalence rate (0.4%). This picture reveals that the prevalence rates of disability across OIC member countries are far away from being uniform and ranges between 0.4% and 21%.

4.2 Barriers to the Employment of Persons with Disabilities

People with disabilities are in disadvantageous position in labour markets in many parts of the world including both developed and developing countries. They usually have to stay longer economically inactive in the labour markets, suffer from higher unemployment rates and get paid relatively less when compared with non-disabled persons (WHO and World Bank, 2011).

Among disabled persons, people with mental health conditions and learning disabilities are considerably more disadvantaged than other impairment groups, in terms of employment rate, type of work and level of unemployment (The National Centre of Mental Health Research, Information and Workforce Development, 2013; Coleman et al., 2013). Some country case studies confirmed these facts. For instance, according to findings of Coleman et al. (2013) in the case of Great Britain, in comparison with people with non-disabled people, persons with disabilities are:

- less likely to be in work (47% compared with 77%);
- less likely to be economically active (47% are economically inactive compared with 16% of non-disabled people);
- more likely to be unemployed (12% compared with 8%); and
- unemployed for longer (47% of unemployed disabled people have been unemployed for a year or more, compared with 31% of unemployed non-disabled people).

There are important reasons behind why people with disabilities tend to stay economically inactive or they stay relatively long period of time as unemployed. According to BLS (2013), based on a survey conducted in the US in 2012, 80.5% of disabled people indicated that their own disability was a barrier to employment. Other barriers cited in the survey included lack of education or training (14.1%), lack of transportation (11.7%), and the need for special features at the job (10.3%). On the other hand, based on a survey conducted with employers in Poland, Towalski (2009) lists the main impediments to the recruitment of disabled workers as follows:

- a shortage of work stations adapted to the needs of disabled persons;
- impeded access to rehabilitation services;
- architectural barriers (e.g. uneven access to buildings, poor signage, narrow doorways, internal steps, inadequate bathroom facilities, and inaccessible parking areas; and
- difficulty in commuting to the workplace.

Apart from physical and legal environment, perceptions matter a lot for the employment of people with disabilities. Based on interviews made with people with disabilities living in Canada, Shier et al. (2009) found the existence of strong evidence that perceptions of disability have a greater impact on their inability to maintain and secure employment than does the lack of accommodative practices and measures in the workplace.

Among other factors, misconduct at work environment towards disabled people constitutes another barrier for employment of persons with disabilities (Coleman et al., 2013). In particular, unfair treatment, discrimination, bullying and harassment at work are some of the important reasons cited by persons with disabilities to stay as economically inactive in the labour markets and to leave from their work place. The survey conducted by Coleman et al. (2013) revealed that more than a third (37%) of the disabled people in the survey indicated that they had been treated in a disrespectful or rude way where 23% of them said that they had been insulted or had offensive remarks made about them at work.

Finally, it is also common among disabled people that they may not be able to fulfil their work related tasks such as stemming from unclear job descriptions and their physical limitations. For instance according to BLS (2013), in the United States of America among persons with a disability who were employed, over half had some difficulty completing their work duties because of their disability. The disappointments experienced by disabled people at work discourage them to work or stay active in the labour market. It is therefore extremely critical to ensure a right skill-match in the labour market for disabled people and prepare job descriptions in a proper and clear way. In this context, it is essential to have labour market rules and regulations that fully protect the right of persons with disabilities.

4.3 Employment Prospects for Persons with Disabilities

Persons with disabilities are usually not considered potential members of the workforce due to their disabilities that can hinder their productivity. Perception, fear, myth and prejudice continue to limit understanding and acceptance of disability in workplaces everywhere. Myths abound, including that persons with disabilities are unable to work and that accommodating a person with a disability in the workplace is expensive. From the employer side, according to Lengnick-Hall et al. (2005) some stereotypes also play a role in order to not recruit persons with disabilities that:

- They believe individuals with disabilities are less productive than equally qualified individuals without disabilities;
- They believe it will be more costly to hire individuals with disabilities because accommodations or other investments may be necessary to achieve the same level of productivity as people without disabilities; and

- They believe individuals with disabilities will be heavy users of health care benefits, thus increasing the costs of providing those benefits to employees.

Contrary to these notions, many companies across the globe have found that persons with disabilities are capable of doing complex tasks and can be a productive part of the work force. In particular, UN Enable (2017) summarized the following benefits to companies for employing persons with disabilities:

- Just like others, the majority of persons with disabilities want a dignified and productive life.
- Employment provides not only income but also opportunities for social participation. This is especially important for persons with disabilities.
- Spending on systems and facilities for persons with disabilities is not for the privilege of a small minority, but an investment for everyone.
- Diverse work groups develop better solutions to business challenges.
- Many companies have found that by employing persons with disabilities they have been better able to understand and serve their customers with disabilities.
- Adapting services to meet the diverse needs of persons with disabilities allows business to develop greater flexibility, builds reputation and reaches out to a sizeable market.

Persons with disabilities have key skills sought among disabled and non-disabled employees alike, included enthusiasm and willingness to learn, relationship and communication skills, being self-directed, and having a can-do attitude (The National Centre of Mental Health Research, Information and Workforce Development, 2013). At the global level, increasing numbers of employers try to ensure a good fit between the person and job, regardless of disability.

On the other hand, persons with disabilities usually start their work with a positive energy and bring diversity to workplaces and contribute to more cohesive, tolerant, accepting, and empathetic teams. In this regard, in the work environment persons with disabilities both directly and indirectly make a meaningful contribution to the success of teams as well businesses. Despite having unleashed potentials of persons with disabilities from the perspective of employment, it is not easy to claim that businesses fully benefit from these potentials both in the world and in OIC countries. According to a paper commissioned by the World Bank, the cost of exclusion based on disability is found to be between US$1.37 trillion to $1.94 trillion of the global GDP (WHO and World Bank, 2011). These economic costs to society are shared by all, including businesses. In the light of these estimation results, a back-of-the-envelope calculation reveals that the total cost of exclusion based on disability might be between US$137 billion to $194 billion of the OIC total GDP.

4.4 Case Studies

There have been attempts to improve the state of persons with disabilities from the employment perspective in some OIC countries. After providing some findings of empirical literature in some OIC countries, this section overviews selected initiatives from four OIC countries on addressing the employment challenges of persons with disabilities as well as improving their conditions in the labour market.

Factors affecting the employment of persons with disabilities are usually determined by one's perceptions and attitudes towards their capabilities. Ta et al. (2011) found in a survey that 92.2% of employers stated in **Malaysia** that regardless of the disability, an employer should hire anyone who meets employment standards. Arlette (2012) found that there is a substantial employment gap between disabled and non-disabled people mostly stemming from discrimination in **Cameroon**. According to the Report of the General Directorate of Services for Persons with Disabilities and Elderly People (2011), it is very often in **Turkey** that skilled or semi-skilled disabled people are not employed in their own area of work or profession. For instance, a lawyer with disabilities works as a switchboard operator in a company rather than dealing with legal issues. Finally, Alin et al. (2015) calculated a lower unemployment rate of persons with disabilities (PWD) compared with persons without disabilities (PWOD) in **Indonesia**. This is explained with 'the discouragement of PWD' to enter the labour market. In other words, in some countries stemming from inactivity of persons with disabilities in the labour markets available statistics based on surveys may provide a skewed picture regarding their status of employment.

Quotas, Support and Subsidies for Private Employers in Saudi Arabia

Ministry of Labour and Social Development (MLSD) of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia launched the Tawafuq Empowerment for Employment for Persons with Disabilities Programme in 2014 that focuses on the creation of a nationwide, fully inclusive private sector economic system by improving and developing legislation and policies, providing pre-employment and employment services, offering vocational training, and using data tracking to promote and support suitable and sustainable employment of persons with disabilities. Its annual budget of €4.3 million is secured under the National Transformation Plan. According to Tawafuq (2014), the programme strongly focuses on inclusion, providing fertile ground for building and promoting inclusive employment opportunities. Another key feature of the programme is its use of high technology for service delivery for persons with disabilities. The programme provides quality services with effective outcomes by using technology (e.g. a sign language call centre) and by ensuring that all e-platforms for training become accessible.

Within the scope of the programme, of the approximately 648,000 Saudis with disabilities, 62,728 were employed by 31,790 companies by 2016, and nearly 17,400 received subsidies. By 2016, 17 companies joined the Business Disability Network; seven of them increased the

number of employees with disabilities; and an additional 45 companies applied for membership. Moreover, the number of employees with disabilities in the private sector increased from approximately 15,500 in 2011 to 62,728 in 2016. Various employment channels have also been trained in the inclusive job-seeking process.

Disability Inclusion Strategy and Technical and Vocational Training in Bangladesh

In Bangladesh, approximately 3.2 million youths have disabilities. These young people need help to access demand-driven education and training, thereby opening up pathways to decent employment. In 2008, Bangladesh was amongst the first countries to ratify the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. Since then, the Government of Bangladesh, International Labour Organization (through projects funded by Canada and the European Union), employers and workers organizations have taken major strides to achieve a shared vision of disability inclusion in Bangladesh.

In particular, the government of Bangladesh formulated a National Skills Development Policy (NSDP) in 2011 with ILO support which puts disability inclusion centre stage in the skills reform process. NSDP recommendations include establishing an admission quota of 5% for persons with disabilities at all Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) institutions, providing stipends, hostel facilities and transport where necessary and designing reasonable accommodation and accessible training institutes. The aim of the introduction of the quota system is to change the landscape of TVET institutions to be more inclusive for persons with disabilities with a view to improve their skills as well as employability. The International Labour Organization, Bangladesh – Skills for Employment and Productivity (B-SEP) project, funded by the Government of Canada, has partnered with the Bangladesh Employers Federation (BEF) to facilitate the development of a Bangladesh Business and Disability Network which aims to promote disability inclusion and diversity in the workplace.

Within the scope of B-SEP project, to help principals and teachers of technical and vocational training institutes and overcome challenges towards becoming disability inclusive a guideline on disability inclusion was developed. This guideline presents basic concepts of disability inclusion, what to consider when planning for inclusion, how to handle learning disabilities and provide reasonable accommodation and also the underpinning social aspects of inclusion (ILO, 2016c). The successful of initiative of Bangladesh on inclusion of persons with disabilities through TVET already started to pay back. Thousands of persons with disabilities enrolled into TVET programmes and found a job to work after completion. One of the participants of the programme, Mr. Ashraful completed his training in the Lacquer Polishing unit training in 2015 and has been working full time, receiving a monthly salary of 6,000 taka. He said that "I am now confident that I can do any job. I may not have legs but I have skills. Now I can help my family and I am respected by all!" (ILO, 2017). Stakeholder engagement (collaboration with international

organizations as well as local NGOs), having guidelines and existence of the political will help the programme to become a success story not only in Bangladesh but also in its region.

Employment Quotas and Centralized Employment System in Turkey

In Turkey, people with disabilities experience difficulties both in the labour market and in daily life due to weakened perceptions of their potential. According to the Population and Housing Census of 2011, 6.9% of the population is disabled, of which approximately 4.8 million people with disabilities have limited access to education, healthcare, suitable housing, transportation and employment. Figures show that only 22.1% of people with disabilities are active in the labour force. People with disabilities are often channelled into positions of unskilled labour.

In Turkey, discriminative practices against people with disabilities have been prohibited and obligatory measures to reduce or eliminate obstacles faced by those with disabilities have been enacted (Turkish Labor Law, 2015). Turkey has taken steps to apply affirmative actions to create equal and safer work conditions for disabled persons by the provisions arranged in Labor Law No. 4857, Article 30, and the "Regulation on Employment of Disabled, Ex-convict and Terror-stricken Persons" in 2003. According to the law, in private sector workplaces employing fifty or more employees within the boundaries of a province, employer must employ disabled persons, numbers of which cannot be less than the %3 of total employees (Labour Act of Turkey, 2003). The same article imposes that employers shall recruit such employees through the Public Employment Organisation of Turkey (İSKUR). In this way, it is aimed to minimize the efforts during the job-search process and optimize match between employers and job-seeking persons with disabilities. In order to encourage the employment of persons with disabilities in Turkey, the employer has to pay only 50% of the employer's share of contributions according to Act No. 506 on Social Insurance, and the Treasury of Republic of Turkey shall pay the remaining 50%. Despite not having actual numbers, the employment quota system, centralized online employment system and coverage of social security premiums of persons with disabilities in Turkey paved the way for a meaningful increase in the employment of persons with disabilities.

Exploring the Potentials of Microfinance in Indonesia

In Indonesia, the Government ratified the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) in November 2011. Discrimination against persons with disabilities is prohibited by many laws. There are two major legislations concerning persons with disabilities in Indonesia from the legal perspective: the Act of the Republic of Indonesia Number 4/1997 concerning Persons with Disabilities, and its implementing regulation, Government Regulation No. 43/1998 (on Efforts to Improve the Social Welfare of Persons with Disabilities) (Better Work Indonesia, 2014).

4. Employment of Persons with Disabilities

Nearly two-thirds of people with mild disabilities and about one-half of those with more significant disabilities are self-employed in Indonesia. In this regard, to increase employment of persons on disabilities it is essential to encourage persons with disabilities to be self-employed or to become entrepreneurs. In this context, the Ministry of Social Affairs started to provide microfinance stimulants called the Joint Enterprise Group (Kelompok Usaha Bersama or KUBE) and Productive Economic Enterprise (Usaha Ekonomi Produktif) to help people with disabilities start economically gainful activities and generate opportunities for employment for other people with disabilities. Jenoponto District in South Sulawesi provides a best practice in government policy in Indonesia. They provide training for people with disabilities in processing seaweed in collaboration with the local office of the Department of Industry, funded by local budget. Other public institutions also collaborated to provide instruments and tools, such as sewing machines and electric tools and computers, to enable people with disabilities to start their own gainful activities in the region (Adioetomo et al., 2014). As a result, a significant number of persons with disabilities gained skills and started to produce in the region. Effective collaboration among local and public institutions was one of the key success factors of the programme.

SECTION FIVE

ECONOMIC REINTEGRATION OF EX-OFFENDERS AND DISPLACED PEOPLE

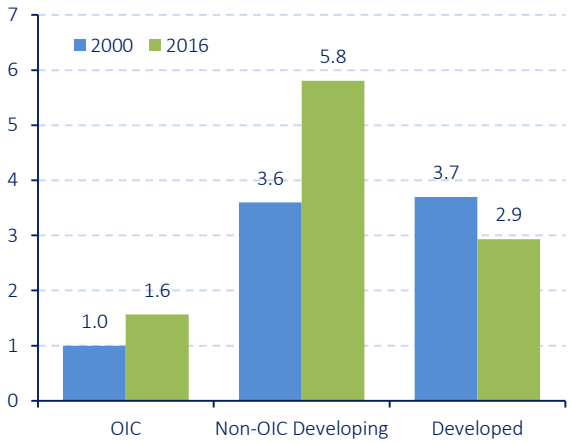
In certain settings, it is often difficult for public authorities to facilitate the participation of certain disadvantaged groups to economic activities. This typically includes women, youth, disabled and elderly. In effect, there are people who suffer additional challenges in terms of generating income and taking care of his/her family. Two of such groups are ex-prisoners/ex-offenders and internally displaced people (IDPs). Numbers of prisoners have been remarkably increasing over the last decade. Once released, ex-offenders face daunting obstacles to successful re-entry into socio-economic life, including difficulties with finding jobs, housing, and services for substance abuse or mental health problems; huge child support arrears; and challenges in reintegrating with their families. Similarly, when people are forced to move from one place to another due to conflicts, disasters or other reasons, they face a number of obstacles in terms of economic and social integration in their new habitats. Accordingly, the economic and social integration of ex-offenders and IDPs has become increasingly an important challenge in many countries around the world, with OIC countries being no exception.

The integration of ex-offenders and displaced people is in need of multi-dimensional policymaking. Particularly, in economic realm, integration of these people is highly important for OIC countries, because in most of member countries, ex-offenders and displaced people face significant economic adaptation issues. In labour market, they also face a number of barriers to employment, which can include inadequate or outdated professional skills and personal qualifications, and negative perception of employers towards these groups. Unless they receive special assistance for economic and social reintegration, they frequently become caught up in a cycle of failed integration, reoffending, reconviction and social rejection.

In this connection, this chapter discusses the issue of the economic re-integration of ex-offenders and integration of displaced people in OIC countries. It starts by taking a close look at the state of prisoner and obstacles that they face, and highlights the importance of economic integration of ex-offenders in OIC member countries. It then presents the state of IDPs in OIC countries and the importance of reintegration program related with them. Finally, the chapter focuses the alternative models promoting employability amongst ex-offenders and displaced people.

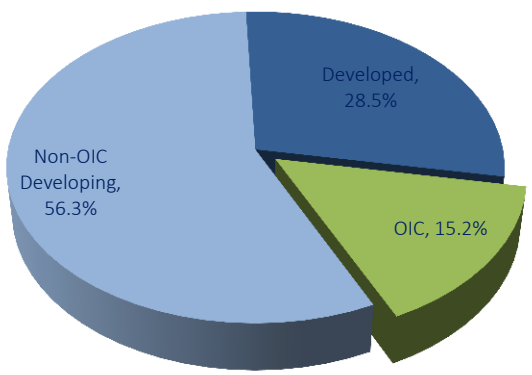
5.1 State of Prisoners in OIC Member Countries

Figure 5.1: Prison Population (Millions)



Source: World Prisoner Brief Data.

Figure 5.2: Prison Population Distribution, 2016



Source: World Prisoner Brief Data.

A prisoner is a person kept in a prison by the decision of the responsible legal authority following a conviction of a crime. Prisoners are deprived of the most of the rights of a free citizen. The significant part of the prisoners is also comprised of pre-trial detainees/remand prisoners. Pre-trial detainees are detained during criminal investigations and pending trials. They are only detained during the period of investigation until Court or responsible legal body makes a final decision.

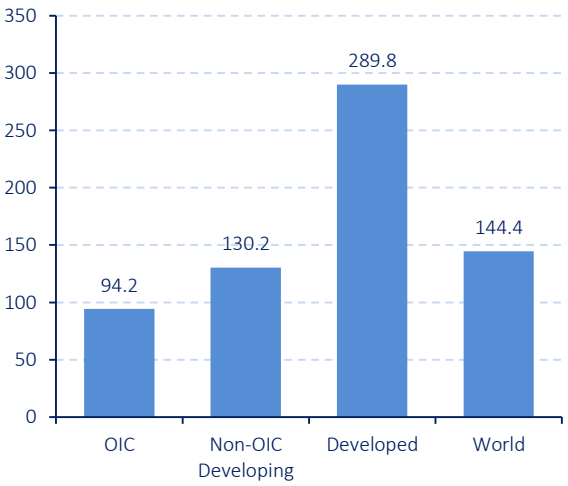
Over the last decades, global prison population has showed an upward trend and increased approximately by 2 million since 2000. In 2016, there are around 10.3 million people held in the prisons worldwide, with 1.56 million of which are in the OIC member states (Figure 5.1). As a group, OIC countries keep the smaller number of people in prisons compared to the non-OIC developing and developed countries. Yet, the share of OIC countries in the world total prisoners has grown in recent years and reached to 15% in 2016 (Figure 5.2).

Figure 5.3 demonstrates the average number of prisoners per 100,000 people in national population. In 2016, the average

number of prisoners per 100,000 people was 94.2 in OIC countries, which is lower than the world average (144.4) as well as the averages of non-OIC developing countries (130.2) and developed countries (289.8) in 2016.

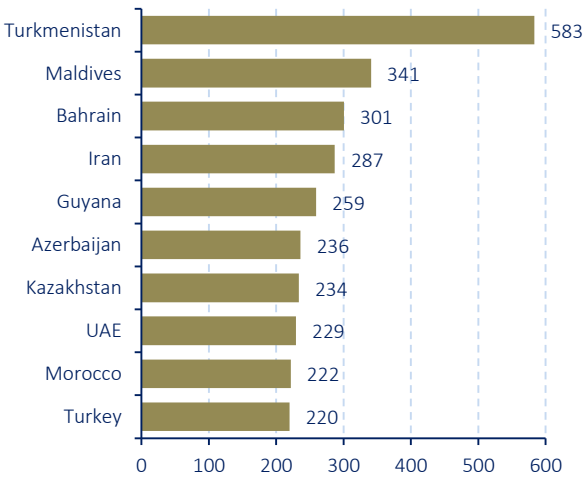
At the individual country level, Turkmenistan has the highest number of prisoners per 100,000 people (583) among OIC member countries and is the only OIC country entering the top 10 worldwide. Maldives (341) and Bahrain (301) are the other top three countries among OIC in terms of number of prisoners per 100,000 people in national population (Figure 5.4).

Figure 5.3: Prison Population (Per 100,000 in Population), 2016



Source: World Prisoner Brief Data.

Figure 5.4: OIC Countries with the Highest Number of Prisoners (per 100,000 people), 2016



Source: World Prisoner Brief Data.

Economic Reintegration and Obstacles faced by Ex-Offenders

Re-entry programs are often based on a case-management approach and cover a range of interventions. These interventions are designed to assist offenders in preparing for their release from confinement by helping them acquire the skill sets required to succeed in the community, addressing personal challenges and the factors associated with their criminal behaviour, and establishing the necessary contacts and relationships in the community (Griffiths et al., 2007). Yet, in most of the developing countries, including OIC member states, most individuals are released from prison into the community without supervision or re- entry services. The majority of prisoners return to a small number of communities

with high rates of poverty, crime, unemployment, as well as minimal economic opportunity and supports such as housing.

Ex-offenders also face significant barriers. Well known barriers to obtaining education, vocational training, gainful employment, housing, substance abuse treatment and mental health services—confront offenders after their release. These barriers and others present challenges that contribute to recidivism. Very often, ex-offenders lack the level of education or job skills, including "soft skills" like punctuality and communication that are essential for gaining and maintaining employment. Additionally, many states limit, sometimes unnecessarily, the ability of ex-offenders to obtain professional licenses or receive work supports. Mental illness, addiction, and other health problems can also pose substantial barriers to securing and maintaining a job- and can lead to recidivism (Griffiths et al. 2007).

There is a need for comprehensive programs and effective mechanisms in order to protect societies and minimize the obstacles faced by ex-offenders as well as to prevent recidivism and stop the cycle of failed adaptation of re-offenders. A key feature of successful crime prevention strategies is the attention to the social reintegration of ex-prisoners into the community and the development of interventions designed to reduce the levels of recidivism. Alongside the social integration, the economic reintegration especially employment of ex-offenders is significant, because employment provides more than the income necessary to support adequate material conditions. It also provides structure and routine, while filling time. It provides opportunities to expand one's social network to include other productive members of society. In addition to all these, employment can contribute to enhanced self-esteem and other psychological health (Graffam et al., 2004: 1). Research has found that ex-prisoners who are able to secure a legitimate job, particularly higher-quality positions with higher wages are less likely to recidivate than those ex-prisoners without legitimate job opportunities (Griffiths et al. 2007).

Importantly, offenders have identified employment as a key factor in post-release success (Burke, 1997). Nonetheless, offenders released from confinement encounter a myriad of challenges with respect to securing employment. These include personal factors such as low self-esteem, low motivation, skills deficit, lack of training, mental illness, and substance abuse; a lack of stable accommodation; social factors such as negative peer influence, an absence of family support and a poor employment record (Visher, et al., 2005; Rakis, 2005; Graffam, et al., 2004).

Obtaining legal employment is one of the best predictors of the post-release success of ex-prisoners (Visher, Winterfield, and Coggeshall, 2005). Furthermore, the relationship between legal employment and reduced recidivism may be heavily influenced by the interaction of the following factors: stable accommodation, having employment-related

qualifications, not having substance abuse-related problems, and being proactive in asking for help with job searches (Niven and Olagundoye, 2002). Researchers have noted that it is vital that the individual needs of ex-prisoners be identified and matched with specific services. Among the more important employment interventions are job readiness classes, vocational education, GED certification, job training, job placement, and job monitoring by a case manager (Visher, Winterfield, and Coggeshall, 2005).

There is little doubt that legitimate employment is vitally important in the seamless reintegration of offenders back into their communities (Rakis, 2005; Seiter, 2002). It is also important that employment-related services be provided on a continuum from the time an offender enters prison until their release into the community. Vocational assessment should occur early in an offender's sentence and should guide the future employment-related services that are offered to the offender. The vocational assessment would provide a series of benchmarks to assess the progress of an offender's employment-readiness plan (Griffiths et al. 2007).

The success of this continuum may be contingent upon the development of policies and procedures that are developed among institutional corrections, parole agencies, community corrections, the private sector, and community organizations. Of further importance is that parole agencies and community corrections agencies be given the opportunity to provide input to institutional corrections officials with respect to vocational and pre-employment services that are offered to prisoners. This would be beneficial as it is a means of ensuring that pre-release measures will address the prisoner's post-release needs (Rakis, 2005).

5.2 Internally Displaced People in OIC Member Countries

According to the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, internally displaced persons (also known as "IDPs") are "persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized border." The overwhelming majority of internally displaced persons are women and children who are especially at risk of abuse of their basic rights. More often than refugees, the internally displaced tend to remain close to or become trapped in zones of conflict, caught in the cross-fire and at risk of being used as pawns, targets or human shields by the belligerents (UN-OHCRC, n.d.).

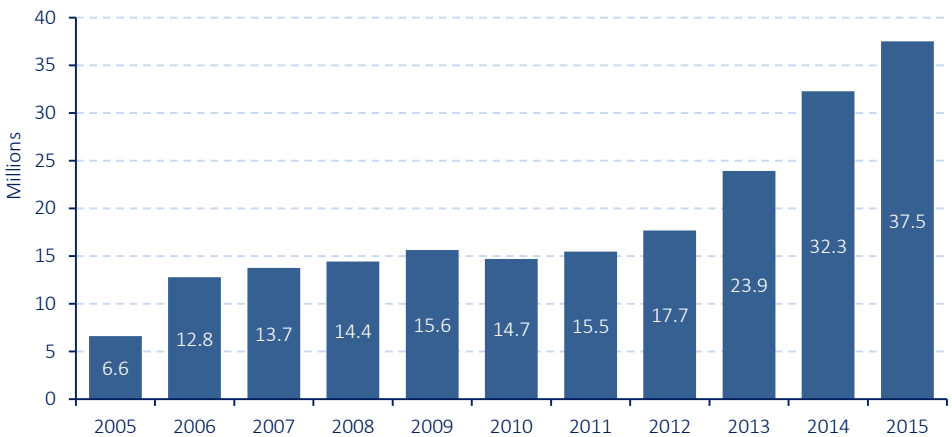
Over the last decade, the IDPs have become important issue among OIC countries, because of recent armed conflicts, which account bulk of the displacement of civil population within or across the boundaries, particularly in Syria, Afghanistan and Iraq. In

total, conflict and violence account for around 60% of forced migration (IFRC, 2012). Political instability, weak governance and state repression as sources of humanitarian crises are among the major factors forcing thousands of people to flee across borders, such as in Libya and Somalia. Humanitarian crises, triggered by natural disasters and environmental changes, such as floods, cyclones, earthquakes and prolonged droughts in countries like Pakistan, Bangladesh and Sudan, also lead to relocation of large populations across the regions. Recurrent droughts in parts of sub-Saharan Africa undermine livelihoods and are a principal cause for displacement of millions who rely on subsistence agriculture (SESRIC, 2017a).

In cases where the capability to cope or adapt to extreme situations is already lacking, conflicts and political violations further exacerbate the humanitarian crisis. As a country where natural and man-made disasters concur frequently, Somalian people face particular tragedy. The year 2011 saw particularly dramatic levels of internal and regional displacement, with estimates reaching 1.5 million and 1 million people respectively (IFRC, 2012). While some people moved due to incidents of political violence or environmental changes, the majority have been displaced by a combination both factors. The drought and conflict in Mali also led hundreds of thousands people to flee their home. When drought combines with conflict or political violence, food insecurity becomes a major factor that forces populations with almost no coping capacities to migrate.

It is fair to argue that the causes of displacement of people are increasingly interlaced and mutually reinforcing in the world, particularly in OIC region. Combinations of previous chronic stress factors such as lack of good governance or recurring events may create a humanitarian crisis out of almost any event or hazard (ISIM, 2013). Population growth, economic backwardness, weak governance, armed conflict, political violence, as

Figure 5.5: IDPs in the World (assisted by UNHCR), 2005-2015



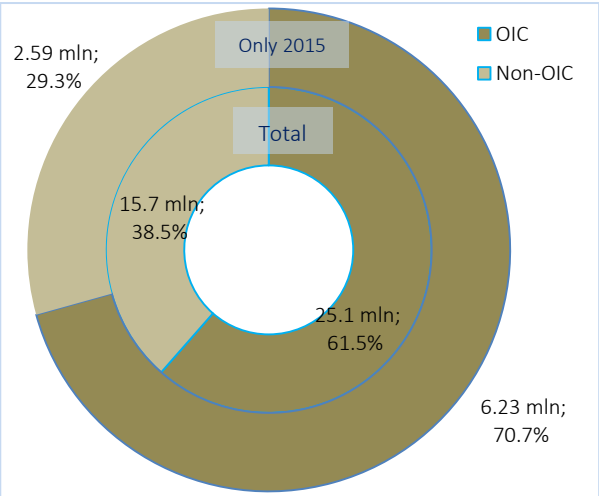
Source: UNHCR.

well as poor urban planning are important factors that further weaken resilience and exacerbate the impacts of natural hazards and escalate displacement. Potentially every State could be confronted with such displacement, either as a country of destination, transit or origin. This requires better preparedness and cooperation by states and the international community to prevent and respond to displacement and its causes. Furthermore, initial temporary displacement, whether within or across borders, may become protracted. Irregular and unplanned settlement of displaced people may result in rapidly expanding cities that are further vulnerable to environmental as well as socio-economic challenges.

According to the Nansen Initiative (2015), a total of 184.4 million people were displaced by disasters between 2008 and 2014, an average of 26.4 million people newly displaced each year. Of these, an annual average of 22.5 million people was displaced by weather- and climate-related hazards. Disaster-induced displacement may create humanitarian challenges, undermine development and increase security concerns. According to UNHCR, 63 million people are forcibly displaced worldwide. 16.1 of which are refugees, 37.5 million are internally displaced and 3.2 million are asylum seekers. Turkey is the largest refugee-hosting country with more than 3 million refugees, followed by Pakistan (1.5 million), Lebanon (1.1 million), Iran (979,000), Ethiopia (736,000) and Jordan (664,000). Figure 5.5 shows the trend of displacement in the world over the last decade. There is a clear upward trend in the number of displaced people over the period under consideration (SESRIC, 2017a).

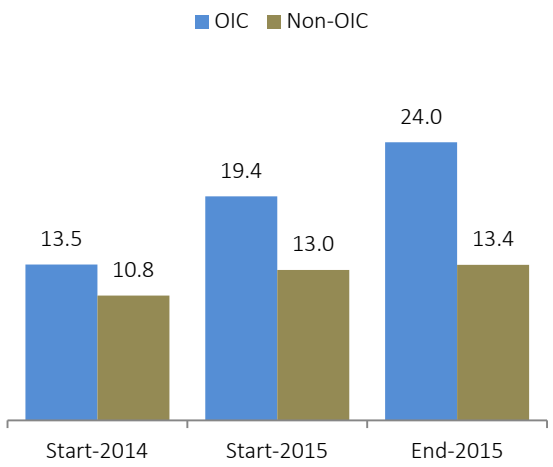
Figure 5.6 shows the total displacement in OIC and non-OIC countries. As of 2015, OIC countries accounted for 61.5% of all displaced population in the world with more than 25 million displaced persons (inner circle). Moreover, 70.7% of new displacements in 2015 took place in OIC countries (outer circle). According to UNHCR, internally displaced persons (IDPs) protected/assisted by UNHCR in OIC countries increased from 13.5 million at the beginning of 2014 to 24 million at the end of 2015, indicating almost 78% or 10.5 million increase in just two years. This number increased from 10.8 million to 13.4 million in non-OIC countries during the same period (Figure 5.7). This means that

Figure 5.6: Total Displacement in OIC and Non-OIC Countries



Source: Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC).

Figure 5.7: Total Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) Protected/Assisted by UNHCR



Source: UNHCR.

around 80% of all new internal displacement over the last two years took place in OIC countries. Moreover, countries where new displacement took place during this period were among the most economically vulnerable and least able to cope with a crisis (IDMC, 2015).

Importance of Integrating IDPs

Currently in OIC member countries, millions of internally displaced people (IDPs) live in protracted displacement. These are situations where the process for finding durable solutions is stalled, and/or where IDPs are marginalized as a consequence of violations or a lack of protection of their human rights, including economic, social and cultural rights (Brookings Inst. 2011).

Achieving durable solutions for these millions of IDPs in the long term is complicated by a range of factors, including the lack of resolution to conflicts, a long economic recovery period, and inadequate community infrastructure, weak rule of law and property disputes. Thus, innovative approaches by governments, national civil society and humanitarian, human rights and development organizations alike are needed to allow these IDPs to resume normal lives. More importantly, it should contain economic, political, and social integration components and protect human and civil rights of the IDPs.

From 2010–2012, the International Center for Transitional Justice (ICTJ) examined the capacity of transitional justice measures to address displacement, engage the justice claims of displaced persons, and support durable solutions, and analysed the links between transitional justice and the interventions of humanitarian, development, and peacebuilding actors. The study concludes that transitional justice can aid reintegration through the indirect contributions of providing recognition to victims and of fostering civic trust, as well as in more direct ways with regard to safety and security conditions and political, economic, and social integration. However, to reintegrate the IDPs into a just and peaceful society, it is important to adapt a much broader program of institutional and structural reform and development" (ICTJ, 2012).

Humanitarian assistance, so far being the main instrument of international organizations to support IDPs, is also designed to meet short-term immediate needs, but it is not enough to provide durable solutions for a large number of IDPs. It may also cause instability and can pose security problems, particularly in societal level. Reintegration of IDPs needs long term programs.

Economic reintegration of the IDPs at the place, where they temporarily resettled, is also widely practiced and sustainable way out of the issue (Sert, 2016). Economic reintegration of IDPs can contribute to labour force, investment and overall boost the economy of the region (Duthie, 2013). Nonetheless, employment has continued as a challenge for IDPs in most of the developing countries. Thus, in developing countries, particularly in OIC members which have an increasing number of IDPs, the policy makers should implement policies to increase the employment which eventually enhance the economic integration of these people and boost the economies.

Before embarking on IDP retraining and professional development, it is important to deliver training and counselling aimed at their adaptation to new environment and emphasizing that they need to find a job and exert effort to change things for the better. People living in internal displacement often lack effective job search skills. Many people used to be continuously employed or had no economic need to work before being displaced. Moreover, IDPs do not make up a homogeneous group in terms of age, educational achievement, ethnic background and professional skills. This should be taken into account at various stages of employment.

Not least important is to efficiently furnish IDPs with information about their rights and obligations, opportunities offered through existing projects to promote self-employment, and access to information resources of the government authorities including a daily updated national jobs database. This would increase employment opportunities, while a streamlined registration and record keeping system would, among other things, allow measuring a potential medium to long term impact of IDPs on the labour market.

5.3 Alternative Strategies for the Integration of Ex-offenders and IDPs

Economic integration, particularly employment, is essential for ex-offenders and IDPs for rebuilding their lives and their potential for contributing to the economies. Several countries now specifically acknowledge the importance of this fundamental issue and have proceeded to develop and institutionalize an economic integration function. However, in most developing countries, economic integration programmes are still poorly understood and generally underdeveloped. Thus, instead of presenting the examples from developing countries, this part introduces some promising practices and

programmes related to economic reintegration of ex-offenders and IDPs in developed countries, which can be adopted by developing countries, including OIC countries.

5.3.1 Models for Ex-Prisoners Reintegration

SEED Model

The Skills for Effective Engagement and Development (SEED) is a representative program which was first introduced and undertaken in England and Wales and then replicated in Romania (Stream, 2014). The purpose of the project was to train probation counsellors that already had experience in consulting to refresh their skills and enhance quality in one-on-one probation supervision with offenders. The training package consisted of an initial training, follow-up training, and final training events in England in 2011-2012 and replicated in Romania in 2013-2014. The SEED program evaluation was based on perceptions of the offenders' counsellors and other stakeholders through analysis of their responses to anonymous questioners and interviews. On average, they found the training very useful and replicable in practice.

RExO Model

The reintegration of ex-offenders (RExO) initiative was conducted in the U.S. between 2005 and 2011, a five cycle project with 94$ million budget (Wiegand et al., 2015). Where 24 agencies/grantees participating in the program, each enrolled around 200 ex-offenders in total 4655 individuals of which 2804 were randomly assigned to the program group and 1851 to the control group. Individuals assigned to the program group received various sorts of RExO services including mentoring, employment services and case management and supportive services. The control group members did not receive any of the RExO support services but were open to receive services provided by their respective communities and other institutions. According to the RExO impact evaluation, following random assignment, program group participants in average performed only slightly better than control group participants in terms of employment. In the program group, 71.3% of the ex-offenders were employed in the first year, compared with 67.9% of ex-offenders in the control group. Further in the second year, the difference was even narrower 68% for program group compared to 65.4% for the control group. In addition, there were other benefits from participating in the program, for example, the average time to first job acquisition among program group members was 133.9 days while among control group members it was equal to 157.1 days.

Overall this program also shows that, due to the perception that levels of education and skill are generally lower among ex-prisoners compared to the general public, employers were discouraged from employing them. Mostly, ex-offenders managed to find employment in construction, food service, hotel/hospitality, landscaping/lawn care, manufacturing, telemarketing, temporary employment, and warehousing industries.

Furthermore, according to the study, economic downturns had a negative effect on chances of finding employment for ex-offenders as they would compete for low paid jobs with the general population.

Transitional Jobs (TJ) Model

TJ targets individuals hard to employ including, peoples with a criminal record, refugees, displaced persons, homeless people and others. Participants are presented with opportunities to learn, get paid and receive a support for the transition to full-time, permanent employment.

Different models can be adapted into the TJ program such as in-house placements, subsidized jobs in work crews, or in scattered employment sites. (NTJN, 2011). In 2004-2005, 977 ex-prisoners were assigned to either program group or control group through random sampling. The control group received only basic job search support while program group was eligible to receive all sort of support from New York City-based Center for Employment Opportunities (CEO) and both groups were monitored over two years.

Around 70% of the program group participants were employed at TJ on average for eight weeks. By the end of the first year of the study period control and the program group participants had equal chances for employment with similar average earnings. During the two years of the study period, the program group participants were significantly less likely to be incarcerated, convicted for committing a crime or admitted to a prison for new conviction compared to control group participants. During the first year CEO program was very effective to reduce recidivism for recently released prisoners, however, in year 2 it was effective to reduce recidivism also for other participants not recently released from the prison. Even the rigorous evaluations did not reveal the recidivism, in the third year when the employment gains were already faded. (MDRC, 2009)

5.3.2 Models for IDPs integration

Despite an insufficient number of good practices related with the economic integration of IDPs, there are a number of institutions and replicable strategies for international cooperation in the integration of displaced persons. As well as, a chunk of institutions exists at national and at regional levels for the exchange of experiences, tools, and innovative practices. International forums for exchanging best employment and integration practices Annual Tripartite Consultations on Resettlement (ATCR), 'UNHCR-NGO Toolkit for Practical Cooperation on Resettlement: A Repository for Exchanging Ideas on Resettlement Partnerships' and other stand-alone documents for sharing practices and knowledge designed by UNHCR, and The European Resettlement Network (ERN) can cooperate for designing, developing and evaluating integration programs.

Below, ongoing and pilot projects are presented as the examples which can be adopted in the OIC member countries.

Job Placement Model

IDPs, refugees, and other types of forced migrants can be presented with the opportunity of job placement. It can be a subsidized, unsubsidized or even unpaid job as well as an internship position. It would provide unique chances for displaced people to gain in-work experience, develop related skills and relations with employers.

Canada successfully practicing the model for about 20 years where Immigration Settlement and Integration Services' program has been organizing six-week unpaid job placements for refugees, displaced people, and migrants. For the period from April 2012 to March 2013, the program attained 79% success rate for the total of 61 placements; 52% were employed by the host employer, while 16% received an offer from another employee but for the same profession, and 10% started own businesses or went for further education (Ott, 2013).

RESI Pilot Model

Refugee Employment and Skills Initiative (RESI) of International Trade Center (ITC) is a unique and newly launched project aimed at creating and developing micro-entrepreneurship and self-employment potential of refugees and IDPs covering the specific focus areas agriculture, ethical fashion, home decor and business process outsourcing (BPO).

Particularly, the BPO project in Dadaab, Burkina Faso focused on auditing and developing computer literacy, English-language skills, typing proficiency and overall business acumen among refugees. In Mentao, Kenya this appraisal focused on leather tanning, cutting and sewing, as well as metal-working skills.

ITC initiated a new RESI project covering Syrian refugees who fled to Jordan and Egypt. It aims at providing an access for Syrian refugees to market opportunities in ethical fashion, handicrafts and information technology (IT)-enabled work.

Overall pilot initiatives are intended to: first provide assignment-specific training, second confirm market potential, and third organize work systems leading to commercially viable production, particularly as regards product design and quality, costs, as well as quantities produced. The final destination is to connect RESI participants to buyers on a fully commercial basis (ITC - RESI).

Matching Qualifications and Recertification Model

Displaced persons similar to the refugees and other types of migrants in the most cases were not been able to access the jobs equivalent to their education and work experiences. As, for example, doctors, teachers, engineers may apply different practices

across different regions there is a need for requalification in order to meet the standards of the host region. There are many practices across the developed countries that allow highly-trained forced migrants to recertify. The OIC countries with sustainable financial resources can adapt and replicate similar practices.

Instead of initiating full fledge recertification programs OIC member countries may also provide some support toward recertification of qualified migrants through adopting successful practices such as the Refugee Recertification Program (RRP) of Lutheran Social Services in the US. RRP supports highly-qualified refugees through offering study materials, vocational English courses, credential evaluation, and exam fees (Rabben, 2013). Currently, RRP assistance extended to accountants, teachers, nurses, information technology specialists, engineers, lawyers, as well as radiology technicians.

SECTION SIX

POLICY IMPLICATIONS

This report presents a detailed analysis on the structure of labour market in OIC countries and provides technical discussions on several labour market issues that are relevant for OIC countries. In this context, the report assesses the problem of labour inactivity, labour market policies for reducing unemployment, employment of persons with disabilities and economic reintegration of ex-offenders and displaced people. In major labour market indicators, it is found that labour force participation rate, employment to population ratio, share of employment in services sector, share of labour force with tertiary education are lower, but female unemployment rate, share of vulnerable employment, share of employment in agriculture, inactivity rate, and share of labour force primary education are higher in OIC countries compared to other developing and developed countries.

Based on the analyses of all these issues in the context of OIC member countries, the following policy recommendations are made.

Problem of Labour Market Inactivity

It is important to recognize the diverse, complex and deep-rooted nature of economic inactivity and accordingly design appropriate interventions to facilitate the transition of inactive people towards the labour market. It is evident that most of economic inactivity occurs due to youth and female. Long-term sick and disabled people also constitute a part of inactive population in OIC countries.

For youth who do not transit directly from higher education to a stable job, transitions are long and difficult. As the challenges are many and cut across several policy dimensions, measures should focus on the problems related to both supply and demand. Policy measures should be curative as well as preventative. Moreover, people with long-term sickness and disability have typically limited health conditions to do their work. In order to increase their participation to economic activity, they need to be adequately supported and the workplace should be well improved to accommodate their needs. It is also important to

make efforts to nurture the entrepreneurial culture among youth starting early in school periods. Through special policies, the attractiveness of entrepreneurship would be raised among youth, women and other target groups.

In order to improve the participation to labour force, it is also essential to constantly create new jobs to accommodate the new entrants into the labour market. Public sector may play a role in terms of creating new jobs, but its capacity will be limited. Therefore, more needs to be done to offer an enabling environment for businesses to establish themselves and expand in order to create more employment opportunities. Moreover, access to education should be improved in order to be able to fully exploit the potential of youth with increased educational attainment and better quality employment.

Gender-based disparities in the labour market must be reduced. Young women are generally more likely to attain higher education than young men. This implies that forgoing women's potential contribution to the labour force represents not only a social, but also an economic loss, since the investment made in female education will be of no economic use.

Entrance into the labour market of those who are not able to engage in economic activity due to family commitments can be facilitated with appropriate support and opportunities. Detachment from labour market may limit opportunities for people in this group to develop their personal potential and contribute productively to the national economy. In order to avoid a waste of human potential, barriers hindering the successful transition of these people into employment should be reduced. It is again important to promote skills development, motivation and confidence for stronger attachment to the labour market.

Finally, it is also important to address the challenging and changing societal attitudes towards disadvantaged groups in the labour market and helping to improve employment outcomes for older workers, people with mental health issues, displaced people and ex-offenders. More specific recommendations to integrate disabled, displaced and ex-offenders into labour force are provided later in this section.

Labour Market Policies for Reducing Unemployment

In order to address some of the major labour market challenges, most countries implement various labour market policies. These typically include employment services and programmes that aim to enhance the capabilities of jobseekers as well as measures to extend the set of job opportunities that jobseekers can access. They are implemented in different context in different countries with different outcomes, depending on the economic context, resources, institutional setting and the administrative capacity.

There is no one-size-fits-all approach in designing and implementing such labour market policies (LMPs) in reducing unemployment. There is an obvious need for impact assessments to identify good practices and better gauge what works and under what circumstances. The composition and magnitude of these policies should be determined based on the evidence and impact evaluation. Best practices from other countries can be

used, but there is no guarantee that policies that are successful in one country will also work in another country or region.

Appropriate institutions are crucial for effective implementation. With strong institutional set-up, it can be avoided that LMPs are transformed into income replacement programmes without work or training content. As the main leading agency in most circumstances, the public employment service may need sufficient capacity in terms of skills, staff numbers and regional coverage.

While many countries are currently trying to set up or enhance labour market institutions in devising and implementing various policy instruments, these institutions are as yet rather ineffective in delivering the expected results. While evidence points to the advantages of decentralization, there is also a need for central coordination and monitoring, especially in situations of weak local delivery institutions. However, there is a need for a strong local focus when it comes to programme implementation in order to be able to adapt policies better to the specific local labour market situations and needs (OECD, 2013b).

Sufficient funding is also needed for effective LMPs. However, in many settings, they are below the desired levels. In such cases, the opportunity costs of ALMP spending should also be taken into consideration to evaluate if money available for employment purposes can be spent more effectively than through ALMPs. But cheaper alternatives do not mean that they are more efficient. Countries should also observe a careful balancing act between general, less expensive, measures (such as job search assistance), and more specific and intensive, but more expensive, measures targeted at groups at risk of becoming disconnected from the labour market. It is also important to ensure that the programmes are largely demand driven and incorporate private sector enterprises.

In principle, whoever participates to labour market programmes can benefit from well-designed and implemented policies. However, governments commonly face trade-offs between policy effectiveness and broad coverage. In these cases, attempts to provide a full range of activation measures to everybody could overwhelm relevant policy institutions. An important decision concerns the question of whether limited resources should prioritise groups that are relatively close to the labour market and good employment chances, or whether policy should focus on the most disadvantaged with multiple employment barriers and the greatest need for support.

Training programmes and employment incentives should be well designed and targeted towards the most disadvantaged and vulnerable groups such as the long term unemployed, young people, low skilled and older workers. With regular assessments of these programmes, it should be made sure that they have positive impacts on overall economic activity and productivity without excessively burdening public finances. In order to stimulate learning from experience, systematic evaluations are also needed to decide on policies to be expanded, adapted, merged or ended. In order to make ALMPs work, they should evolve towards a more permanent policy instrument for the management of change rather than being a quick-fix solution for emergencies.

Another important dimension is that LMPs should not be considered in isolation. It is generally useful for programmes to combine several components, such as training, work practice, wage subsidy and/or job search assistance elements. There are generally important links between the various LMPs and the success of these policies relies on the careful coordination and effective utilization of synergies between them. For example, the provision of activation measures such as training or employment counselling can be complemented with financial incentives for participating in them, as there are important synergies between these active and passive policies. If such policy complementarities are better exploited, the overall success of LMPs can be increased.

The relationship between ALMPs and the informal economy requires special attention. ALMPs such as training could be used to enhance the productivity of informal workers, while public works can build infrastructure, providing a first step towards formalization. Other policies such as in-work benefits could act as an incentive to formalize jobs.

Employment of Persons with Disabilities

Disability is extremely diverse and it is estimated to affect every 1 in 7 persons across the globe. OIC member countries are not immune from such underlying facts and host millions of persons with disabilities are in need of education, training and skills development as well as a job to work among other needs. Due to the lack or insufficient institutional arrangements in the job market, limited investments into healthcare and rehabilitation, social norms and myths, many disabled people living in OIC member countries either stay out of the work force or cannot able to find a job.

In the light of the above, OIC member countries should exert more efforts to address the needs of people with disabilities by creating mechanisms to get input from them. Successful removal of barriers and improvement in access to public services require input from persons with disabilities, who are most familiar with and affected by such barriers especially at work.

Improving health outcomes for people with disabilities by improving access to quality, affordable health care services, which make the best use of available resources, should be an integral part of policy-making while addressing the employment of persons with disabilities. In this regard, it is critical for OIC member countries to assess existing policies and services, identify priorities to reduce health inequalities and plan improvements for access and inclusion. Rehabilitation services and assistive devices can significantly improve the physical and emotional capabilities of persons with disabilities that can encourage them to be active members of the work force. In this regard, it is essential to ensure a successful cooperation between national employment/labour centres and health institutions to improve employability of persons with disabilities.

As in the health sector, education, vocational education and training programmes need to be inclusive in order to allow them to develop necessary skills that are demanded by the

labour market. In this regard, OIC countries need to review their national education policies in order to make them more inclusive that can better serve persons with disabilities.

In order to monitor, assess and devise policies to address employment challenges of persons with disabilities, policy makers are in need of reliable statistics, analytical reports and impact analyses. However, in many developing countries including OIC countries, available information and data on people with disabilities are usually not in line with the global standards set by the international organisations. In this regard, OIC countries need to improve their capacities on data and monitoring on persons with disabilities in order to monitor their status on such as education level, employment, and social security premium payments with a view to develop and implement effective policies. In this context, it might be important to scale up capacities of national research institutions, universities and specialized centres on persons who are carrying out research activities on persons with disabilities.

Raising awareness in the society in particular among employers would likely help to overcome some challenges such as social norms, misbeliefs etc. that hinders employment of persons with disabilities. In this context, national public institutions may organize workshops and kick off public media campaigns. Moreover, promotion of community-based rehabilitation programmes would help members of the society to better understand people with special needs and assist them in their inclusion and integration into work life.

Employment quotas and special incentives for employers helped many persons with disabilities across the world to find jobs. In this regard, OIC countries without such arrangements need to consider reviewing their existing law, rules and regulations in order to improve job-market outcomes of persons with disabilities.

Reducing barriers to increase access to microfinance for people with disabilities would be an effective policy- option as self-employment is more common among people with disabilities. Evidence also shows that people with disabilities can be good successful entrepreneurs, thus efforts should be made to include them in microfinance programmes. This can be done by offering assistance in developing business plans, educating micro-lenders about disability, or establishing loan guarantees for people with disabilities.

It is essential to develop national plans for disabled people with the involvement of different ministries (e.g. health, women, family affairs, labour, transport and communication) to increase participation of persons with disabilities into the work life. In many cases, this requires inclusion of persons with disabilities into the existing National Employment Plans (NEPs). According to the ILO (2015c), without building partnerships with the disability community especially through civil society organisations, it is less likely to prepare and implement an inclusive National Employment Plan (NEP) for persons with disabilities. In this regard, OIC countries are encouraged to benefit from the experience of international organisations such as ILO (e.g. ILO guidelines on the development of NEP) and countries who finalized preparation of inclusive National Employment Plan (NEPs) for persons with disabilities such as Liberia and Seychelles.

At the OIC Level, there are policy options that the OIC can use in order to help persons with disabilities in the domain of employment. First of all, the OIC can organize meetings/foras to highlight the importance of the issue and to set up a monitoring mechanism in this field. Second, the OIC can intensify its efforts with the UN in order to encourage member countries to sign and ratify universal declaration on people with disabilities, the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD). OIC can also play a role in activating member countries to involve and follow up other international initiatives in this domain such as the WHO Global Disability Action Plan and SDGs that include several targets on disabled people.

Over the last decade, OIC successfully developed the OIC Strategic Health Programme of Action 2014-2023 (OIC-SHPA) in the domain of health and OIC Plan of Action for the Advancement of Women (OPAAW) in the domain of gender equality and women rights with the involvement of member countries and other international stakeholders. In the light of universal declarations and international initiatives on disability, SDGs and by taking the OIC Ten Year of Programme of Action: 2016-2025 and experiences of OIC in other action plans (e.g. OPAAW, OIC-SHPA) into consideration, OIC General Secretariat, relevant OIC Institutions and member countries need to develop an OIC Action Plan on People with Disabilities in order to provide a proper guidance and list of action points with a view to improve the well-being of people with disabilities including their labour market conditions. While developing such an action plan, it is highly important to benefit from the experiences of international institutions (e.g. UN, WHO, World Bank), national initiatives of OIC member countries as well as civil society organizations working in this domain.

Existing OIC institutions can also play active role in addressing issues related with the employment of persons with disabilities. For instance, SESRIC can organize or facilitate organization of the training programmes to improve skills of persons with disabilities. ICDT can organize regular fairs and exhibitions to showcase and promote goods produced by persons with disabilities living in OIC countries. Islamic Development Bank Group can allocate some dedicated funds to support entrepreneurs with disabilities living in OIC countries. IRCICA can extend some forms of support for persons with disabilities who are interested in learning about Islamic Culture and Heritage, and developing skills in Islamic Arts.

OIC General Secretariat together with its relevant institutions can lead some awareness raising initiatives at the OIC level through organizing a series of regional events, workshops and seminars on employment of persons with disabilities as well as promote exchange of best practices/policies among member countries in the domain of employment of persons with disabilities.

Economic Reintegration of Ex-Offenders and Displaced People

In order to protect societies and to minimize the obstacles faced by ex-offenders to prevent recidivism and to stop the cycle of failed adaptation by repeat offenders, there should be comprehensive programs and effective measures. In that regard, government interventions

should start before release of prisoners and through providing personal development training and education programs.

Vocational assessment should occur early in an offender's sentence and should guide the future employment-related services that are offered to the offender. The success of this continuum may be contingent upon the development of policies and procedures that are developed among institutional corrections, parole agencies, community corrections, the private sector, and community organizations.

After the release, ex-offenders should be involved in social activities and projects. They should become active and contribute to the society with the help of mentors, community service officers. It is important that employment-related services be provided on a continuum from the time an offender enters prison until their release into the community. Obtaining legal employment is also one of the best predictors of the post-release success of ex-prisoners. Finally, it is vital to launch the programs, which are related with public awareness to tackle the stigma associated with incarceration and stereotyping that all ex-offenders are criminals

Achieving durable solutions for the millions of internally displaced populations (IDPs), innovative approaches by governments, national civil society and humanitarian, human rights and development organizations alike are needed to allow these people to resume normal lives. First of all, there is a necessity to prepare a database on skills base of displaced persons in order to facilitate the matching employees with employers and institutions that provide training and requalification.

Before embarking on IDP retraining and professional development, it is important to deliver training and counselling aimed at their adaptation to new environment and emphasizing that they need to find a job and exert effort to change things for the better.

The policies which have a positive discrimination toward displaced persons can also be beneficial for the economic integration of IDPs, in which IDPs can access low-interest rate bank loans and other opportunities for SMEs or other economic activities.

For the IDPs who wish to return, the land allocation and safe resettlement are also important elements of economic reintegration. The governments therefore should provide proper support for the safe resettlement. There should also be a proper mechanism to solve the disputes related with land allocation.

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International Labour Organization, World Employment and Social Outlook Database

International Monetary Fund, World Economic Outlook Database

Statistical, Economic and Social Research and Training Centre for Islamic Countries (SESRIC), BASEIND Database

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AFGHANISTAN

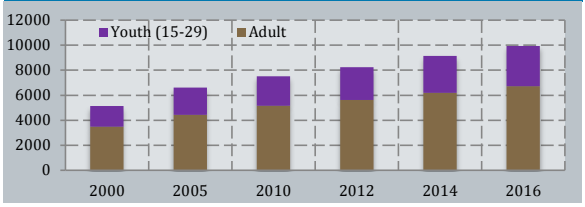
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	34.7
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.7
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	27.1
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	1,877
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	66.3
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	60.7
Average Years of Schooling	2015	3.5
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	38.2

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	19.7	2016	91.8	2016	57.1
Youth	2016	18.3	2016	70.0	2016	45.0
Total	2016	19.2	2016	83.6	2016	52.5

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



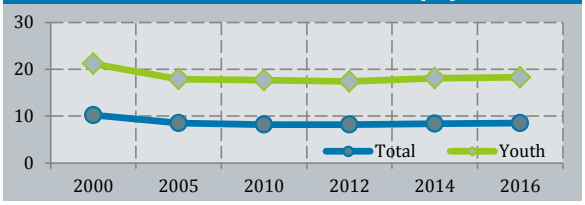
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	14.7	2016	12.6	2016	13.0
Medium	2016	79.6	2016	83.8	2016	83.1
High	2016	5.7	2016	3.5	2016	3.9

EMPLOYMENT (%)

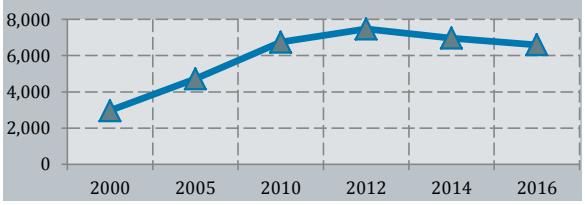
	FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	16.8	77.1	48
Vulnerable Employment	2016	68.5	61.6	62.8
Employment in Agriculture	2016	82.1	57.4	61.6
Employment in Industry	2016	5.3	10.9	10.0
Employment in Service	2016	12.6	31.7	28.5

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	6.0	2016	3.4	2016	3.9
Youth	2016	23.6	2016	17.0	2016	18.3
Total	2016	12.4	2016	7.7	2016	8.5
% of Youth to Adult	2016	3.9	2016	5.0	2016	4.7

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



ALBANIA

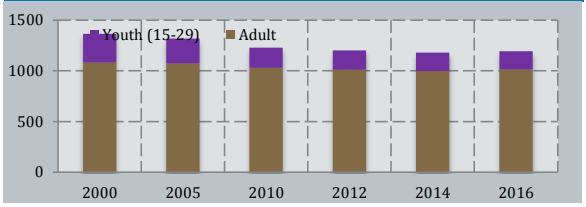
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	2.9
Population Growth (%)	2016	-0.2
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	58.4
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	11,929
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	12.5
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	78.0
Average Years of Schooling	2015	9.6
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	97.6

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	44.1	2016	66.3	2016	54.80
Youth	2016	25.8	2016	42.40	2016	34.30
Total	2016	40.3	2016	60.80	2016	50.30

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



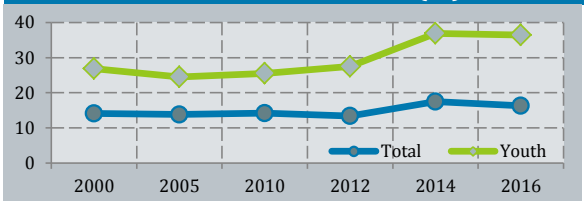
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	8.5	2016	15.1	2016	12.4
Medium	2016	70.0	2016	70.0	2016	70.0
High	2016	21.5	2016	14.9	2016	17.6

EMPLOYMENT (%)

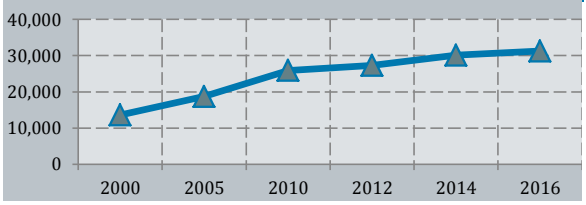
	FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	33.8	50.8	42.1
Vulnerable Employment	2016	56.4	56.7	56.6
Employment in Agriculture	2016	48.7	37.1	41.8
Employment in Industry	2016	10.7	23.4	18.2
Employment in Service	2016	40.6	39.5	40.0

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	13.1	2016	12.6	2016	12.8
Youth	2016	35.7	2016	36.8	2016	36.4
Total	2016	16.1	2016	16.5	2016	16.3
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.7	2016	2.9	2016	2.8

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



ALGERIA

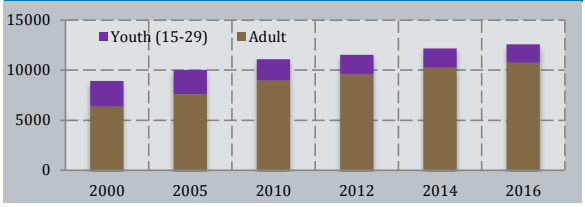
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	40.6
Population Growth (%)	2016	1.8
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	71.3
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	15,075
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	21.9
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	75.0
Average Years of Schooling	2015	7.8
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	79.6

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	18.8	2016	77.9	2016	48.3
Youth	2016	10.4	2016	45.6	2016	28.3
Total	2016	16.9	2016	70.6	2016	43.8

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



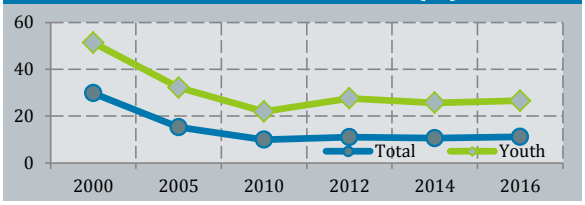
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	8.3	2016	16.4	2016	15.0
Medium	2016	52.7	2016	70.9	2016	67.7
High	2016	39.0	2016	12.7	2016	17.3

EMPLOYMENT (%)

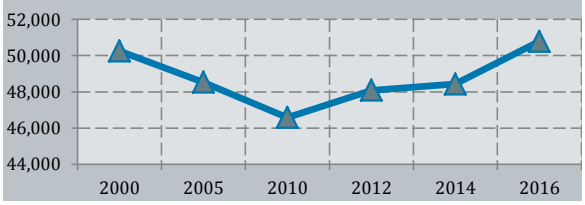
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	13.6	64.1	38.9
Vulnerable Employment	2016	24.1	27.2	26.6
Employment in Agriculture	2016	4.5	12.4	11.0
Employment in Industry	2016	34.3	34.7	34.6
Employment in Service	2016	61.2	52.9	54.4

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	15.8	2016	6.9	2016	8.6
Youth	2016	44.3	2016	22.6	2016	26.6
Total	2016	19.7	2016	9.2	2016	11.2
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.8	2016	3.3	2016	3.1

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



AZERBAIJAN

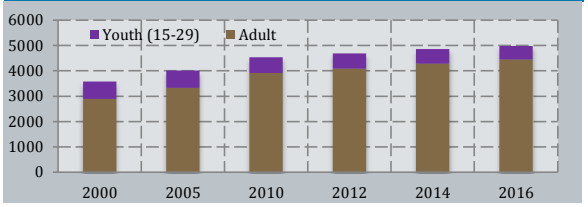
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	9.8
Population Growth (%)	2016	1.2
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	54.9
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	17,253
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	27.9
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	70.8
Average Years of Schooling	2015	11.2
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	99.8

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	68.4	2016	77.9	2016	72.90
Youth	2016	34.1	2016	35.00	2016	34.60
Total	2016	62.0	2016	68.60	2016	65.20

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



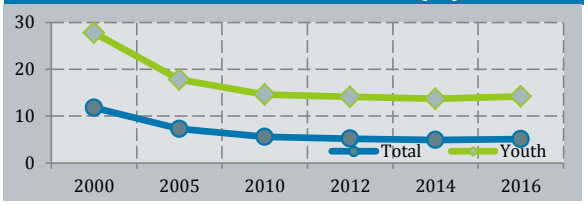
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	17.6	2016	13.9	2016	15.7
Medium	2016	54.8	2016	67.0	2016	61.1
High	2016	27.6	2016	19.1	2016	23.2

EMPLOYMENT (%)

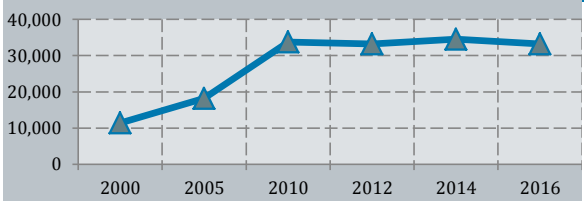
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	58.3	65.7	61.9
Vulnerable Employment	2016	64.0	47.3	55.4
Employment in Agriculture	2016	42.2	31.3	36.6
Employment in Industry	2016	6.2	22.1	14.4
Employment in Service	2016	51.6	46.6	49.0

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	4.7	2016	3.3	2016	4.0
Youth	2016	16.2	2016	12.5	2016	14.2
Total	2016	5.9	2016	4.3	2016	5.1
% of Youth to Adult	2016	3.4	2016	3.8	2016	3.6

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



BAHRAIN

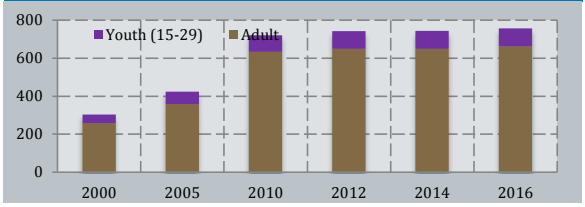
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	1.4
Population Growth (%)	2016	3.8
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	88.8
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2015	47,334
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	5.3
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	76.8
Average Years of Schooling	2015	9.4
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	95.7

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	41.3	2016	92.3	2016	74.8
Youth	2016	30.0	2016	53.1	2016	44.2
Total	2016	38.9	2016	85.0	2016	68.8

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



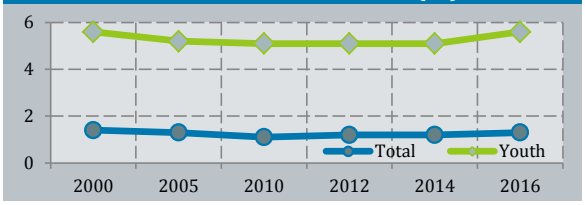
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	4.0	2016	29.5	2016	24.6
Medium	2016	70.0	2016	46.3	2016	50.8
High	2016	26.1	2016	24.2	2016	24.5

EMPLOYMENT (%)

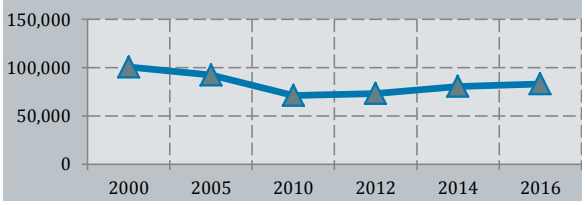
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	37.2	84.6	68
Vulnerable Employment	2016	1.1	2.0	1.9
Employment in Agriculture	2016	0	1.3	1.0
Employment in Industry	2016	8	39.8	33.7
Employment in Service	2016	92	59	65.3

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	2.5	2016	0.2	2016	0.7
Youth	2016	13.4	2016	2.9	2016	5.6
Total	2016	4.3	2016	0.5	2016	1.3
% of Youth to Adult	2016	5.4	2016	14.5	2016	8.0

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



BANGLADESH

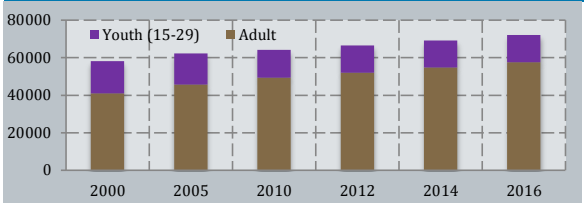
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	163.0
Population Growth (%)	2016	1.1
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	35.0
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	3,581
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	30.7
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	72.0
Average Years of Schooling	2015	5.2
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	61.5

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	46.9	2016	89.8	2016	68.30
Youth	2016	33.2	2016	58.10	2016	45.90
Total	2016	43.2	2016	81.10	2016	62.20

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



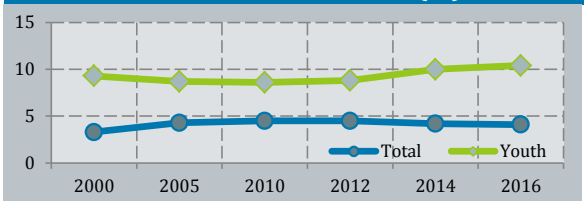
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	19.4	2016	14.8	2016	16.3
Medium	2016	59.9	2016	63.2	2016	62.1
High	2016	20.7	2016	22.0	2016	21.6

EMPLOYMENT (%)

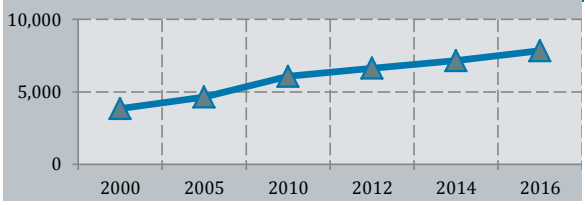
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	41.2	78	59.7
Vulnerable Employment	2016	86.9	70.4	76.0
Employment in Agriculture	2016	59.6	32.3	41.7
Employment in Industry	2016	14.6	21.1	18.9
Employment in Service	2016	25.8	46.6	39.4

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	3.3	2016	2.0	2016	2.5
Youth	2016	10.2	2016	10.5	2016	10.4
Total	2016	4.7	2016	3.7	2016	4.1
% of Youth to Adult	2016	3.1	2016	5.3	2016	4.2

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



BENIN

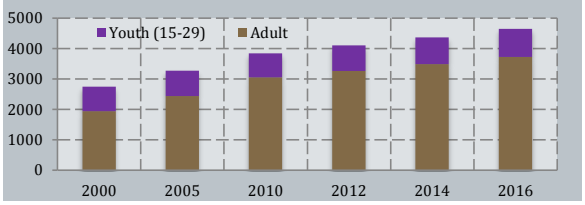
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	10.9
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.8
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	44.4
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	2,168
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	64.2
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	59.7
Average Years of Schooling	2015	3.5
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	38.4

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	83.2	2016	92.3	2016	87.6
Youth	2016	44.5	2016	38.2	2016	41.3
Total	2016	70.0	2016	73.4	2016	71.7

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



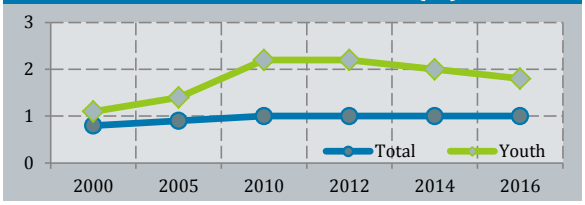
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	9.3	2016	4.2	2016	6.7
Medium	2016	88.3	2016	86.6	2016	87.4
High	2016	2.4	2016	9.2	2016	5.8

EMPLOYMENT (%)

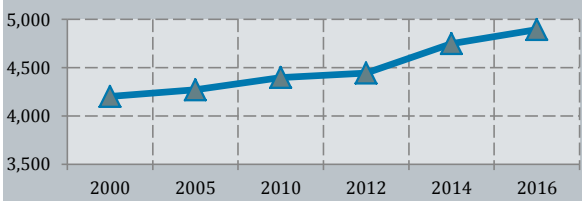
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	69.3	72.6	71
Vulnerable Employment	2016	94.4	84.2	89.2
Employment in Agriculture	2016	34.2	52.4	43.4
Employment in Industry	2016	6.3	13.9	10.1
Employment in Service	2016	59.5	33.7	46.4

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	0.7	2016	1.0	2016	0.8
Youth	2016	1.9	2016	1.5	2016	1.8
Total	2016	0.9	2016	1.1	2016	1.0
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.7	2016	1.5	2016	2.3

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



BRUNEI DARUSSALAM

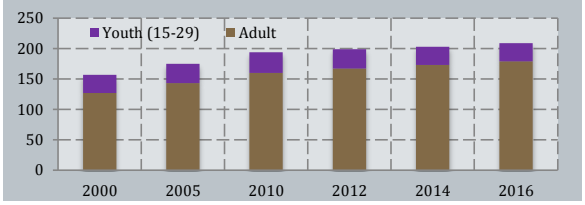
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	0.4
Population Growth (%)	2016	1.3
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	77.5
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	77,441
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	8.6
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	79.0
Average Years of Schooling	2015	9.0
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	96.7

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	54.3	2016	82.9	2016	69.00
Youth	2016	37.9	2016	46.90	2016	42.60
Total	2016	50.8	2016	75.20	2016	63.40

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



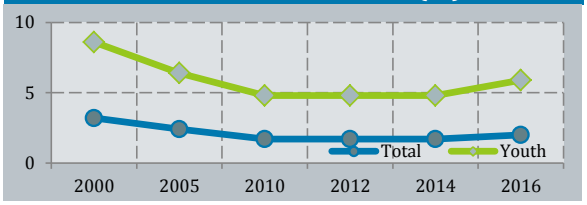
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	21.2	2016	9.4	2016	14.0
Medium	2016	38.5	2016	49.4	2016	45.2
High	2016	40.2	2016	41.2	2016	40.8

EMPLOYMENT (%)

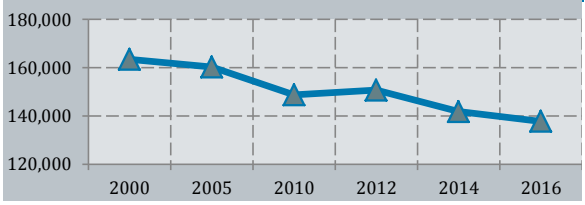
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	49.7	73.8	62.1
Vulnerable Employment	2016	4.0	4.6	4.4
Employment in Agriculture	2016	0.5	0.7	0.6
Employment in Industry	2016	11.3	24.4	19.3
Employment in Service	2016	88.3	74.9	80.1

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	1.3	2016	1.3	2016	1.3
Youth	2016	6.6	2016	5.4	2016	5.9
Total	2016	2.2	2016	1.9	2016	2.0
% of Youth to Adult	2016	5.1	2016	4.2	2016	4.5

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



BURKINA FASO

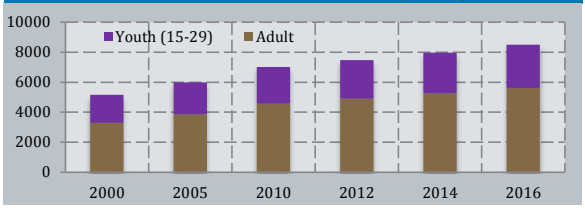
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	18.6
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.9
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	30.7
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	1,720
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	60.9
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	58.9
Average Years of Schooling	2015	1.4
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	37.7

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	78.9	2016	95.9	2016	87.0
Youth	2016	72.4	2016	81.9	2016	77.2
Total	2016	76.6	2016	90.6	2016	83.4

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



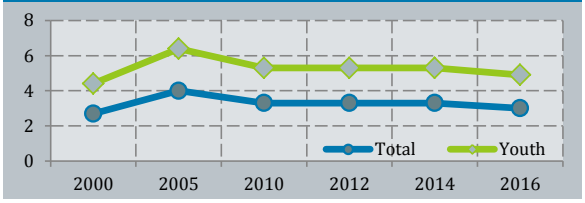
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	0.9	2016	0.9	2016	0.9
Medium	2016	98.2	2016	96.7	2016	97.4
High	2016	0.9	2016	2.3	2016	1.7

EMPLOYMENT (%)

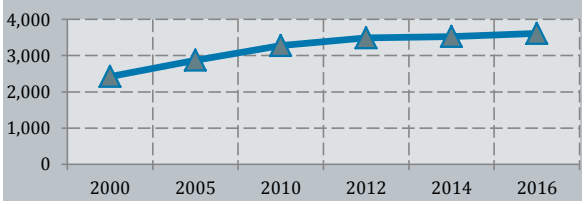
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	75	87.2	80.9
Vulnerable Employment	2016	95.4	88.9	91.9
Employment in Agriculture	2016	83	77.6	80.1
Employment in Industry	2016	3	6.5	4.9
Employment in Service	2016	14	15.9	15.0

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	1.3	2016	2.6	2016	2.0
Youth	2016	3.7	2016	5.9	2016	4.9
Total	2016	2.1	2016	3.8	2016	3.0
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.8	2016	2.3	2016	2.5

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



CAMEROON

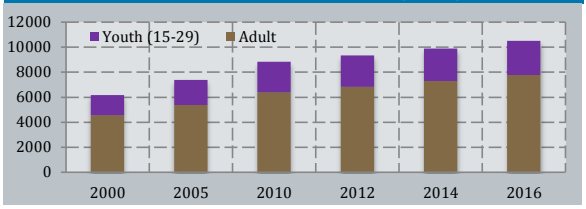
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	23.4
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.6
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	54.9
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	3,286
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	57.1
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	55.9
Average Years of Schooling	2015	6.1
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	75.0

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	81.0	2016	92.8	2016	86.80
Youth	2016	52.3	2016	60.00	2016	56.20
Total	2016	71.1	2016	81.20	2016	76.10

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



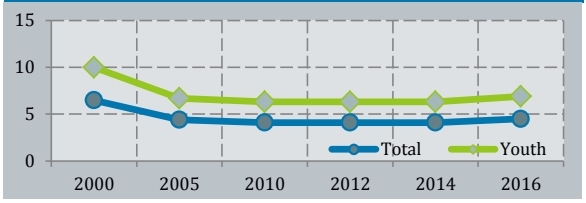
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	6.0	2016	5.4	2016	5.7
Medium	2016	91.2	2016	86.6	2016	88.8
High	2016	2.8	2016	8.0	2016	5.6

EMPLOYMENT (%)

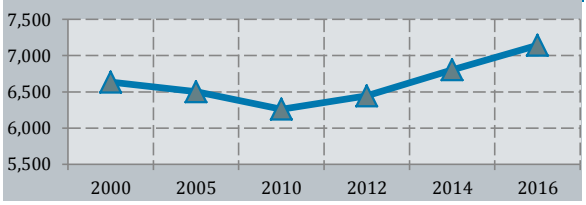
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	67.3	78.1	72.7
Vulnerable Employment	2016	84.7	63.6	73.4
Employment in Agriculture	2016	67.4	57.4	62.1
Employment in Industry	2016	6.6	10.6	8.7
Employment in Service	2016	26	32	29.2

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	4.3	2016	3.1	2016	3.7
Youth	2016	8.2	2016	5.8	2016	6.9
Total	2016	5.3	2016	3.8	2016	4.5
% of Youth to Adult	2016	1.9	2016	1.9	2016	1.9

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



CHAD

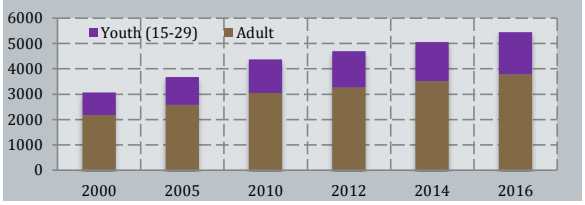
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	14.5
Population Growth (%)	2016	3.1
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	22.6
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	1,991
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	85.0
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	51.9
Average Years of Schooling	2015	2.3
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	40.0

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	69.0	2016	93.7	2016	81.2
Youth	2016	56.0	2016	56.8	2016	56.4
Total	2016	64.0	2016	79.3	2016	71.6

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



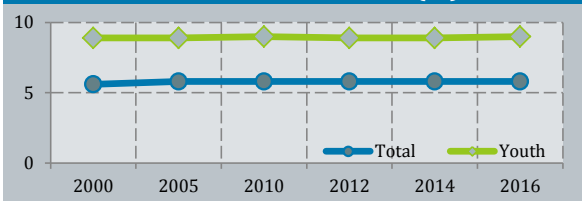
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	5.5	2016	5.5	2016	5.5
Medium	2016	92.2	2016	88.0	2016	89.9
High	2016	2.3	2016	6.5	2016	4.6

EMPLOYMENT (%)

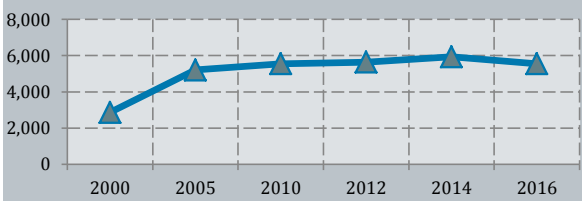
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	59.5	75.5	67.4
Vulnerable Employment	2016	98.3	86.8	91.9
Employment in Agriculture	2016	82.1	72.2	76.6
Employment in Industry	2016	0.7	3.1	2.0
Employment in Service	2016	17.2	24.7	21.4

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	5.2	2016	3.7	2016	4.4
Youth	2016	10.6	2016	7.4	2016	9.0
Total	2016	7.0	2016	4.8	2016	5.8
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.0	2016	2.0	2016	2.0

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



COMOROS

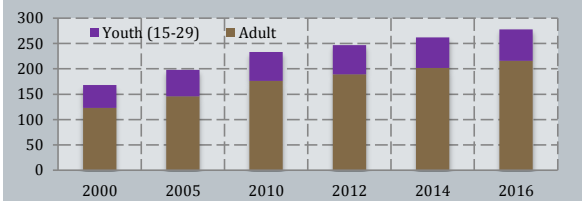
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	0.8
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.3
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	28.4
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	1,522
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	55.1
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	63.6
Average Years of Schooling	2015	4.8
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	78.1

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	40.7	2016	92.5	2016	66.50
Youth	2016	24.7	2016	53.10	2016	39.20
Total	2016	35.5	2016	79.40	2016	57.50

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



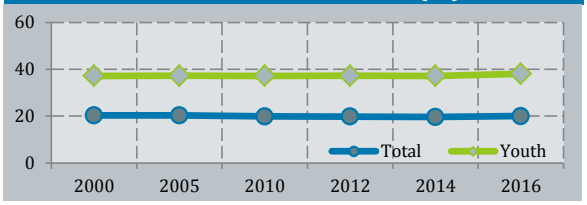
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	5.9	2016	5.6	2016	5.7
Medium	2016	92.2	2016	87.4	2016	88.8
High	2016	1.9	2016	7.0	2016	5.5

EMPLOYMENT (%)

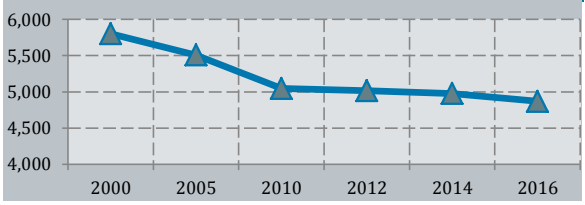
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	27.1	64.9	46
Vulnerable Employment	2016	67.9	50.8	55.8
Employment in Agriculture	2016	76.2	56.2	62.1
Employment in Industry	2016	0.6	7.1	5.2
Employment in Service	2016	23.2	36.7	32.7

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	19.3	2016	12.7	2016	14.7
Youth	2016	38.2	2016	38.0	2016	38.1
Total	2016	23.6	2016	18.3	2016	20.0
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.0	2016	3.0	2016	2.6

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



COTE D'IVOIRE

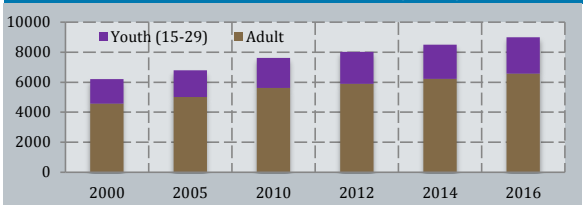
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	23.7
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.5
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	54.9
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	3,720
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	66.6
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	51.9
Average Years of Schooling	2015	5.0
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	43.3

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	59.1	2016	91.3	2016	75.7
Youth	2016	40.5	2016	61.1	2016	50.9
Total	2016	52.5	2016	80.9	2016	67.0

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



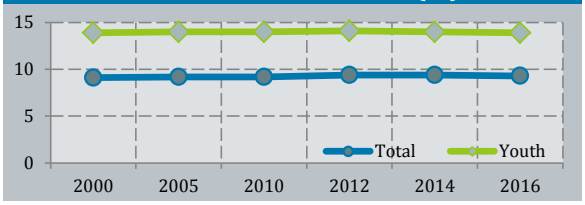
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	5.7	2016	5.9	2016	5.8
Medium	2016	92.1	2016	85.2	2016	87.8
High	2016	2.2	2016	9.0	2016	6.4

EMPLOYMENT (%)

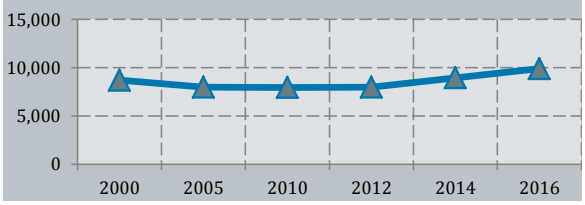
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	46.7	74.2	60.7
Vulnerable Employment	2016	88.4	69.2	76.4
Employment in Agriculture	2016	74.9	45.6	56.6
Employment in Industry	2016	0.9	8.4	5.6
Employment in Service	2016	24.2	45.9	37.8

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	8.4	2016	7.2	2016	7.7
Youth	2016	17.7	2016	11.3	2016	13.9
Total	2016	11.0	2016	8.3	2016	9.3
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.1	2016	1.6	2016	1.8

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



DJIBOUTI

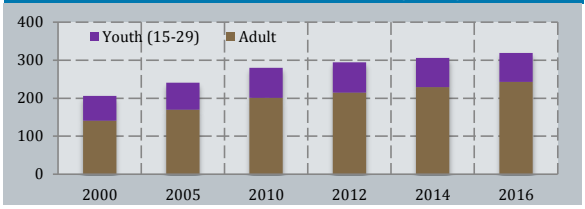
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	0.9
Population Growth (%)	2016	1.6
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	77.4
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2015	3,342
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	54.2
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	62.3
Average Years of Schooling	2015	4.1
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	..

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	36.5	2016	76.6	2016	56.50
Youth	2016	36.7	2016	48.40	2016	42.60
Total	2016	36.5	2016	68.30	2016	52.40

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



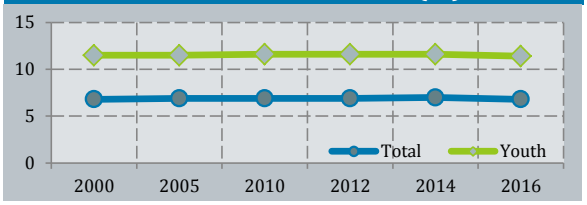
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	9.8	2016	17.5	2016	14.9
Medium	2016	57.5	2016	67.2	2016	63.9
High	2016	32.7	2016	15.3	2016	21.3

EMPLOYMENT (%)

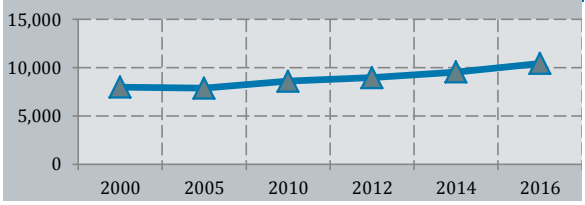
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	33.8	64.2	49
Vulnerable Employment	2016	63.2	22.7	36.7
Employment in Agriculture	...	17.8	26.6	23.6
Employment in Industry	...	30.2	20.8	24.0
Employment in Service	...	52	52.6	52.4

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	5.4	2016	4.8	2016	5.0
Youth	2016	12.9	2016	11.0	2016	11.8
Total	2016	7.6	2016	6.1	2016	6.6
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.4	2016	2.3	2016	2.4

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



EGYPT

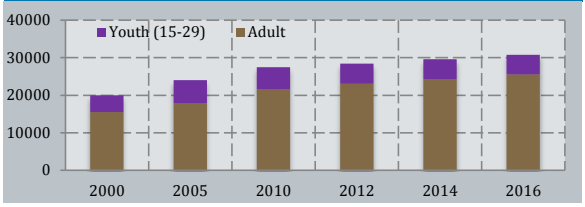
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	95.7
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.0
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	43.2
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	11,132
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	20.3
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	71.3
Average Years of Schooling	2015	7.1
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	75.8

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	24.6	2016	86.1	2016	55.2
Youth	2016	17.7	2016	47.7	2016	33.1
Total	2016	22.9	2016	76.2	2016	49.6

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



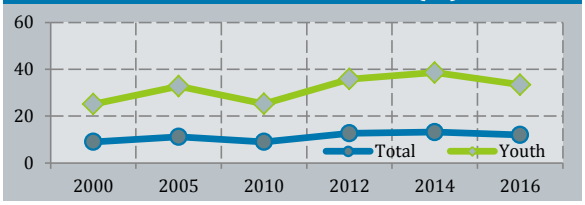
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	14.8	2016	9.2	2016	10.3
Medium	2016	44.0	2016	58.5	2016	55.6
High	2016	41.2	2016	32.4	2016	34.1

EMPLOYMENT (%)

	FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	17.5	69.7	43.6
Vulnerable Employment	2016	46.1	20.0	25.2
Employment in Agriculture	2016	41.3	21.7	25.6
Employment in Industry	2016	5.1	30	25.1
Employment in Service	2016	53.6	48.3	49.4

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	18.7	2016	4.5	2016	7.7
Youth	2016	45.7	2016	29.0	2016	33.4
Total	2016	23.9	2016	8.4	2016	12.0
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.4	2016	6.4	2016	4.3

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY

GABON

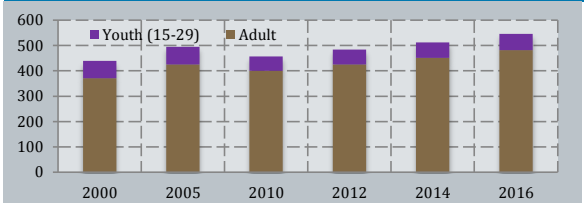
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	2.0
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.5
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	87.4
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	18,108
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	36.1
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	64.9
Average Years of Schooling	2015	8.1
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	83.2

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	51.4	2016	74.1	2016	62.90
Youth	2016	15.8	2016	21.60	2016	18.70
Total	2016	40.3	2016	57.90	2016	49.20

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



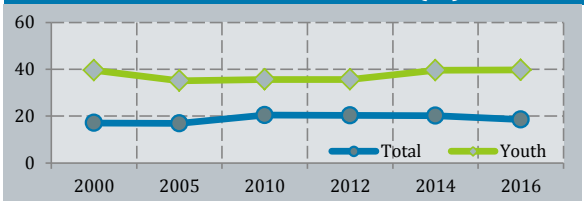
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	7.6	2016	8.4	2016	8.1
Medium	2016	88.7	2016	79.7	2016	83.2
High	2016	3.7	2016	11.9	2016	8.7

EMPLOYMENT (%)

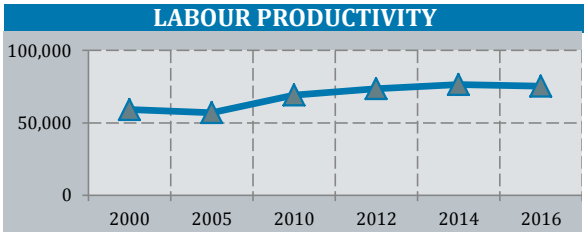
	FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	31.6	48.4	40.1
Vulnerable Employment	2016	36.9	26.6	30.6
Employment in Agriculture	2016	27.4	9.5	16.4
Employment in Industry	2016	5.4	27.8	19.1
Employment in Service	2016	67.2	62.7	64.5

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	18.6	2016	13.7	2016	15.7
Youth	2016	43.3	2016	37.1	2016	39.7
Total	2016	21.6	2016	16.4	2016	18.5
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.3	2016	2.7	2016	2.5

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



GAMBIA

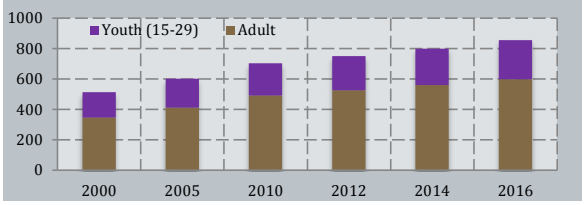
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	2.0
Population Growth (%)	2016	3.0
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	60.2
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	1,689
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	47.9
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	60.5
Average Years of Schooling	2015	3.3
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	55.6

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	77.1	2016	93.8	2016	85.1
Youth	2016	63.3	2016	63.8	2016	63.6
Total	2016	72.2	2016	82.7	2016	77.3

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



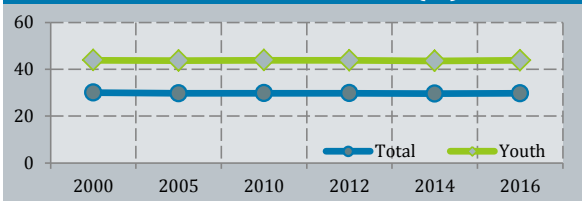
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	8.8	2016	6.5	2016	7.5
Medium	2016	86.9	2016	83.1	2016	84.7
High	2016	4.3	2016	10.4	2016	7.8

EMPLOYMENT (%)

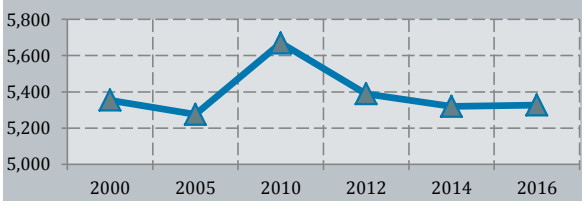
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	44.5	64.8	54.3
Vulnerable Employment	2016	80.1	63.1	70.3
Employment in Agriculture	2016	42.4	21.4	30.2
Employment in Industry	2016	3	22.1	14.0
Employment in Service	2016	54.6	56.5	55.7

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	33.4	2016	15.1	2016	23.7
Youth	2016	49.6	2016	38.0	2016	43.8
Total	2016	38.4	2016	21.6	2016	29.7
% of Youth to Adult	2016	1.5	2016	2.5	2016	1.8

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



GUINEA

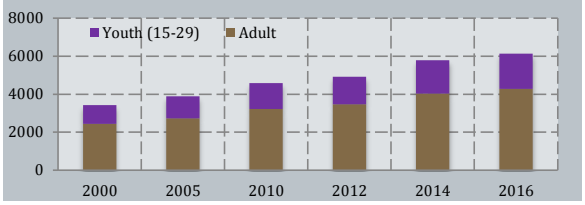
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	12.4
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.5
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	37.7
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	1,311
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	61.0
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	59.2
Average Years of Schooling	2015	2.6
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	30.5

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	81.8	2016	93.6	2016	87.60
Youth	2016	75.0	2016	69.40	2016	72.20
Total	2016	79.4	2016	85.10	2016	82.30

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



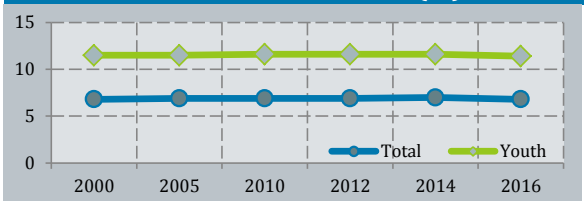
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	1.5	2016	1.4	2016	1.5
Medium	2016	97.2	2016	97.7	2016	97.5
High	2016	1.2	2016	0.9	2016	1.1

EMPLOYMENT (%)

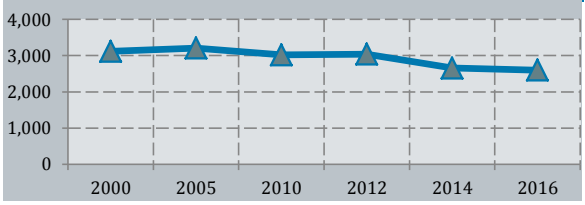
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	73.5	79.8	76.7
Vulnerable Employment	2016	72.5	55.8	63.8
Employment in Agriculture	2016	77.6	62.6	69.8
Employment in Industry	2016	1.3	12.9	7.3
Employment in Service	2016	21.1	24.5	22.9

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	5.2	2016	4.6	2016	4.9
Youth	2016	12.2	2016	10.6	2016	11.4
Total	2016	7.4	2016	6.3	2016	6.8
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.3	2016	2.3	2016	2.3

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



GUINEA-BISSAU

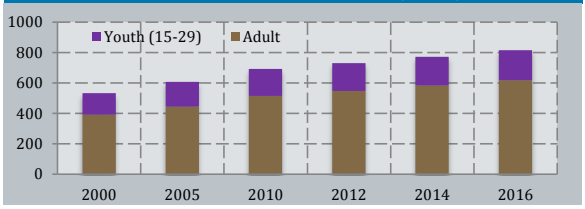
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	1.8
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.5
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	50.1
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	1,582
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	60.3
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	55.5
Average Years of Schooling	2015	2.9
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	59.8

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	75.4	2016	90.3	2016	82.7
Youth	2016	50.9	2016	54.9	2016	52.9
Total	2016	67.3	2016	78.4	2016	72.8

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



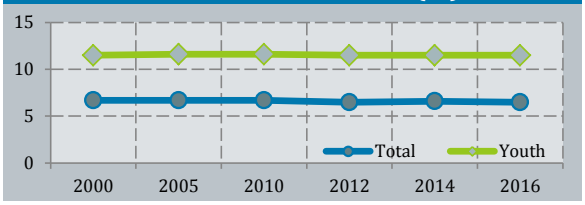
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	6.0	2016	5.5	2016	5.8
Medium	2016	91.5	2016	85.3	2016	88.2
High	2016	2.5	2016	9.2	2016	6.0

EMPLOYMENT (%)

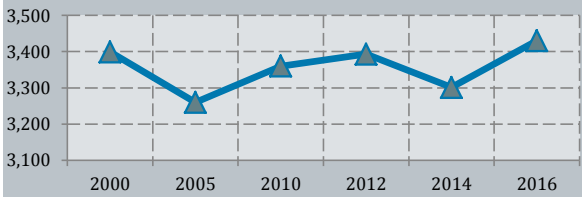
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	62.6	73.6	68.1
Vulnerable Employment	2016	71.0	47.9	58.6
Employment in Agriculture	2016	72.6	49.8	60.4
Employment in Industry	2016	1.1	9.8	5.8
Employment in Service	2016	26.3	40.4	33.8

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	5.3	2016	4.7	2016	4.9
Youth	2016	12.4	2016	10.7	2016	11.5
Total	2016	7.0	2016	6.1	2016	6.5
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.3	2016	2.3	2016	2.3

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



GUYANA

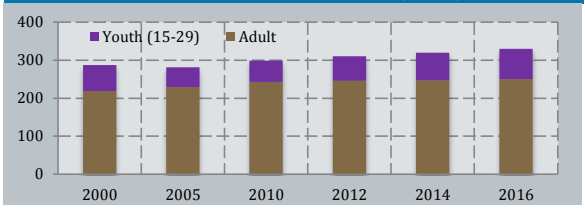
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	0.8
Population Growth (%)	2016	0.6
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	28.7
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	7,819
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	32.0
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	66.5
Average Years of Schooling	2015	8.4
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	87.5

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	46.5	2016	84.2	2016	65.40
Youth	2016	31.5	2016	61.10	2016	46.30
Total	2016	41.9	2016	77.00	2016	59.50

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



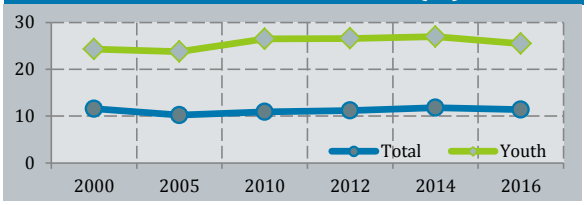
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	27.6	2016	28.9	2016	28.5
Medium	2016	48.1	2016	61.0	2016	56.7
High	2016	24.4	2016	10.1	2016	14.8

EMPLOYMENT (%)

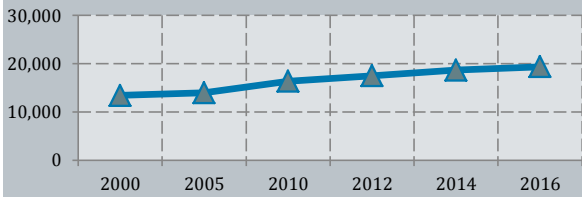
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	35.3	70	52.7
Vulnerable Employment	2016	48.3	38.2	41.6
Employment in Agriculture	2016	7.6	24.3	18.8
Employment in Industry	2016	10.7	33	25.6
Employment in Service	2016	81.7	42.7	55.7

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	9.9	2016	5.3	2016	6.9
Youth	2016	34.6	2016	20.8	2016	25.5
Total	2016	15.7	2016	9.2	2016	11.4
% of Youth to Adult	2016	3.5	2016	3.9	2016	3.7

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



INDONESIA

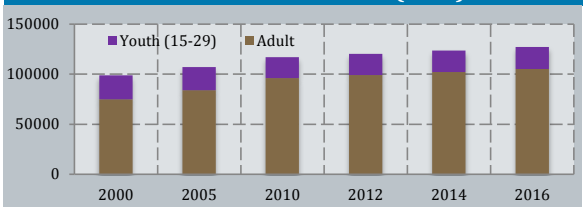
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	261.1
Population Growth (%)	2016	1.1
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	54.5
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	11,612
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	22.8
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	69.1
Average Years of Schooling	2015	7.9
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	95.4

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	54.5	2016	91.5	2016	72.9
Youth	2016	38.9	2016	59.2	2016	49.3
Total	2016	50.9	2016	83.8	2016	67.3

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



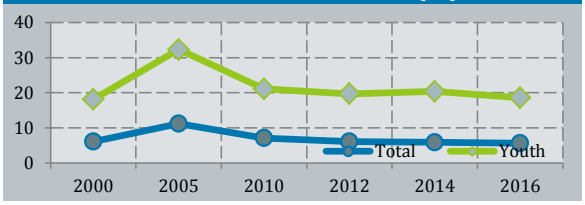
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	14.2	2016	20.4	2016	18.1
Medium	2016	73.9	2016	70.7	2016	71.9
High	2016	11.9	2016	8.9	2016	10.0

EMPLOYMENT (%)

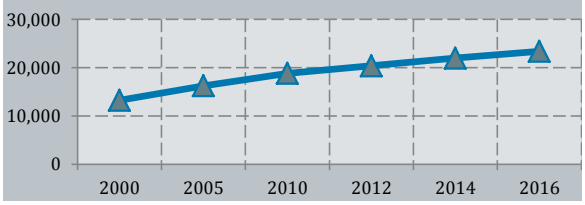
	FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	47.7	79.4	63.6
Vulnerable Employment	2016	61.7	55.0	57.5
Employment in Agriculture	2016	30.9	32.9	32.1
Employment in Industry	2016	15.8	26.3	22.4
Employment in Service	2016	53.3	40.9	45.5

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	3.4	2016	2.6	2016	2.9
Youth	2016	20.0	2016	17.8	2016	18.6
Total	2016	6.3	2016	5.1	2016	5.6
% of Youth to Adult	2016	5.9	2016	6.8	2016	6.4

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



IRAN

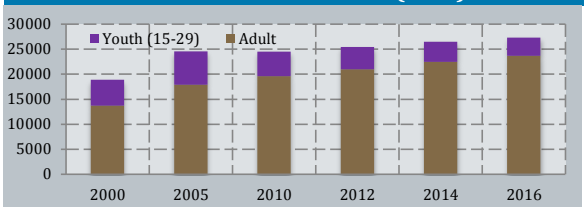
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	80.3
Population Growth (%)	2016	1.1
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	73.9
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2015	17,046
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	13.4
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	75.6
Average Years of Schooling	2015	8.8
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	87.2

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	17.2	2016	79.6	2016	48.20
Youth	2016	12.1	2016	47.20	2016	30.30
Total	2016	16.2	2016	73.00	2016	44.70

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



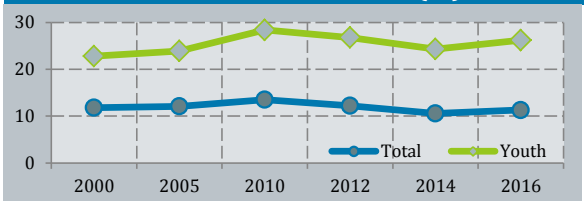
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	7.5	2016	18.5	2016	16.7
Medium	2016	55.7	2016	66.9	2016	65.0
High	2016	36.8	2016	14.6	2016	18.2

EMPLOYMENT (%)

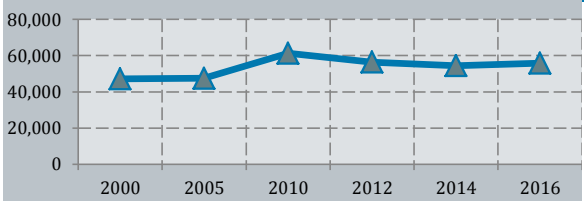
	FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	13.2	66	39.7
Vulnerable Employment	2016	41.6	39.7	39.9
Employment in Agriculture	2016	21.7	16.5	17.4
Employment in Industry	2016	24.4	34.1	32.5
Employment in Service	2016	54	49.3	50.1

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	15.2	2016	7.6	2016	9.0
Youth	2016	41.4	2016	22.6	2016	26.2
Total	2016	18.9	2016	9.6	2016	11.3
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.7	2016	3.0	2016	2.9

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



IRAQ

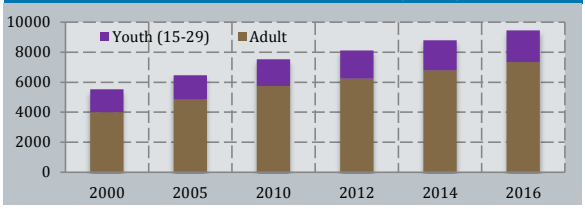
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	37.2
Population Growth (%)	2016	3.0
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	69.6
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	17,353
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	26.5
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	69.6
Average Years of Schooling	2015	6.6
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	79.7

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	18.5	2016	80.9	2016	49.4
Youth	2016	8.3	2016	48.1	2016	28.7
Total	2016	15.2	2016	69.8	2016	42.6

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



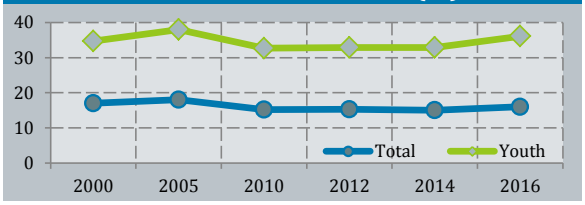
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	1.5	2016	26.8	2016	22.8
Medium	2016	63.0	2016	55.9	2016	57.0
High	2016	35.5	2016	17.3	2016	20.1

EMPLOYMENT (%)

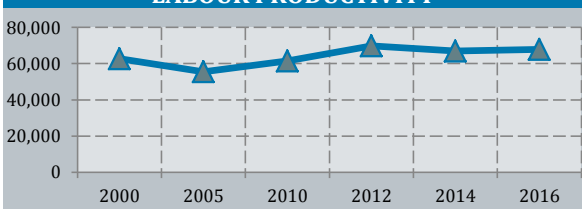
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	11.1	60.2	35.7
Vulnerable Employment	2016	42.6	33.7	35.1
Employment in Agriculture	2016	42.4	15.7	19.8
Employment in Industry	2016	4.1	24	20.9
Employment in Service	2016	53.5	60.3	59.3

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	18.7	2016	8.4	2016	10.3
Youth	2016	64.6	2016	31.5	2016	36.1
Total	2016	26.8	2016	13.7	2016	16.0
% of Youth to Adult	2016	3.5	2016	3.8	2016	3.5

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



JORDAN

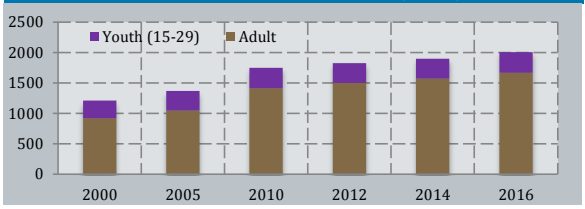
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	9.5
Population Growth (%)	2016	3.2
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	83.9
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	9,050
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	15.4
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	74.2
Average Years of Schooling	2015	10.1
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	98.0

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	16.6	2016	75.6	2016	46.90
Youth	2016	9.0	2016	37.10	2016	23.30
Total	2016	14.4	2016	64.40	2016	40.10

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



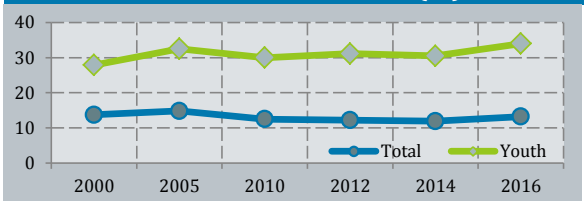
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	15.3	2016	18.9	2016	18.4
Medium	2016	21.5	2016	54.5	2016	49.4
High	2016	63.2	2016	26.6	2016	32.2

EMPLOYMENT (%)

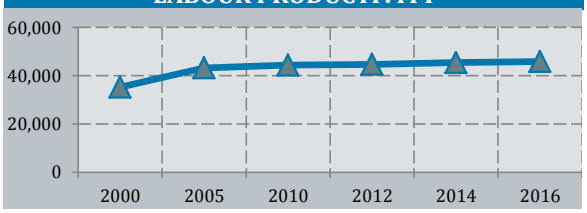
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	11	57.4	34.8
Vulnerable Employment	2016	2.3	10.8	9.5
Employment in Agriculture	2016	0.9	2.2	2.0
Employment in Industry	2016	8.4	19.4	17.7
Employment in Service	2016	90.6	78.4	80.3

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	16.6	2016	7.4	2016	9.0
Youth	2016	56.1	2016	28.8	2016	34.0
Total	2016	23.9	2016	11.0	2016	13.2
% of Youth to Adult	2016	3.4	2016	3.9	2016	3.8

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



KAZAKHSTAN

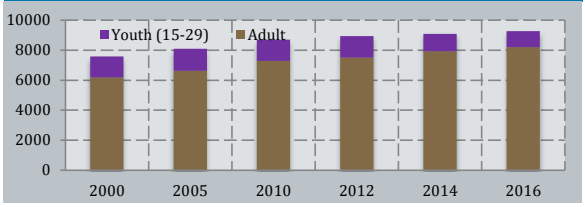
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	17.8
Population Growth (%)	2016	1.4
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	53.2
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	25,264
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	12.6
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	72.0
Average Years of Schooling	2015	11.7
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	99.8

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	72.3	2016	85.7	2016	78.5
Youth	2016	38.8	2016	45.8	2016	42.4
Total	2016	66.2	2016	77.3	2016	71.4

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



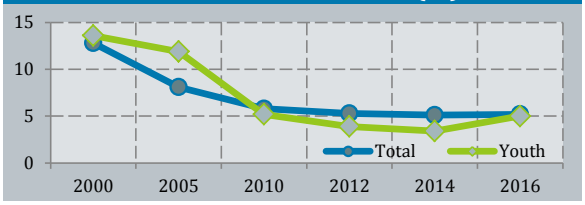
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	19.6	2016	18.8	2016	19.2
Medium	2016	39.9	2016	54.2	2016	47.2
High	2016	40.6	2016	27.0	2016	33.6

EMPLOYMENT (%)

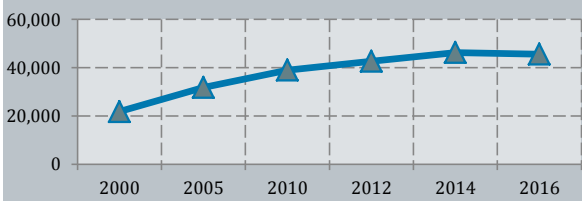
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	62.2	73.9	67.7
Vulnerable Employment	2016	24.2	25.7	25.0
Employment in Agriculture	2016	16.8	18.9	17.9
Employment in Industry	2016	11.4	29.1	20.5
Employment in Service	2016	71.8	52	61.6

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	6.2	2016	4.4	2016	5.3
Youth	2016	5.7	2016	4.4	2016	5.0
Total	2016	6.1	2016	4.4	2016	5.2
% of Youth to Adult	2016	0.9	2016	1.0	2016	0.9

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



KUWAIT

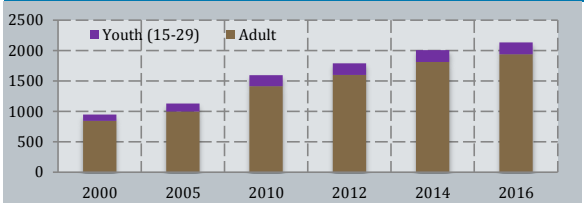
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	4.1
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.9
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	98.4
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2015	73,817
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	7.3
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	74.7
Average Years of Schooling	2015	7.3
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	96.1

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	52.6	2016	91.6	2016	75.50
Youth	2016	29.3	2016	42.70	2016	36.40
Total	2016	48.1	2016	83.90	2016	68.70

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



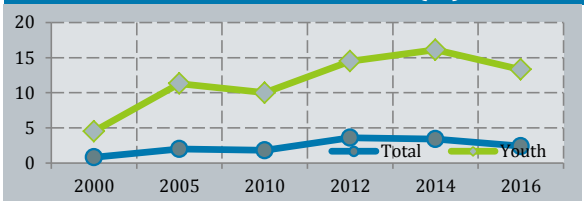
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	0.1	2016	1.4	2016	1.0
Medium	2016	73.0	2016	81.9	2016	79.3
High	2016	26.9	2016	16.7	2016	19.7

EMPLOYMENT (%)

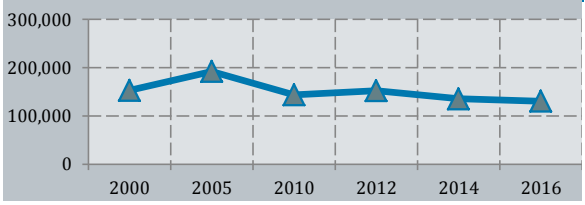
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	47.1	81.7	67.1
Vulnerable Employment	2016	0.4	2.6	1.9
Employment in Agriculture	2016	0.1	3.7	2.7
Employment in Industry	2016	6.3	36.5	27.5
Employment in Service	2016	93.6	59.8	69.8

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	1.0	2016	1.5	2016	1.4
Youth	2016	10.0	2016	15.3	2016	13.3
Total	2016	2.1	2016	2.6	2016	2.4
% of Youth to Adult	2016	10.0	2016	10.2	2016	9.5

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



KYRGYZ REPUBLIC

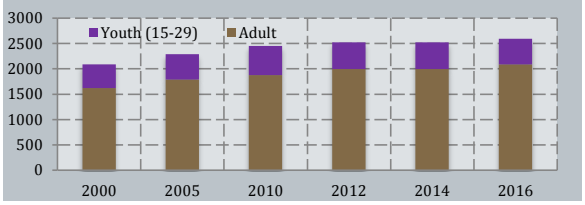
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	6.1
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.1
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	35.9
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	3,551
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	19.0
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	70.7
Average Years of Schooling	2015	10.8
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	99.5

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	54.1	2016	84.1	2016	68.5
Youth	2016	35.7	2016	58.8	2016	47.5
Total	2016	49.6	2016	77.3	2016	63.1

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



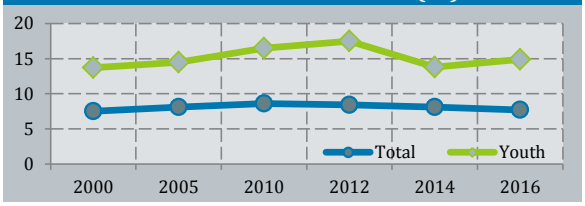
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	9.1	2016	8.6	2016	8.8
Medium	2016	62.6	2016	79.8	2016	73.0
High	2016	28.3	2016	11.7	2016	18.3

EMPLOYMENT (%)

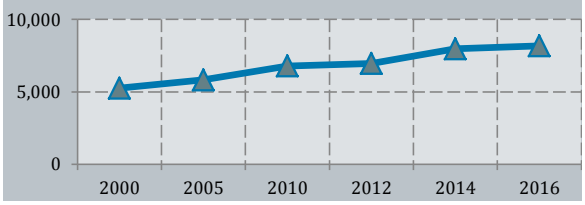
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	45	72.1	58.2
Vulnerable Employment	2016	35.7	41.2	39.1
Employment in Agriculture	2016	31.6	27.6	29.2
Employment in Industry	2016	10.8	27.7	21.0
Employment in Service	2016	57.6	44.7	49.8

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	7.1	2016	5.2	2016	6.0
Youth	2016	18.8	2016	12.5	2016	14.9
Total	2016	9.1	2016	6.7	2016	7.7
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.6	2016	2.4	2016	2.5

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



LEBANON

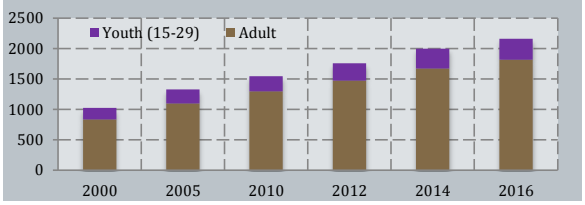
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	6.0
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.6
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	87.9
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	13,996
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	7.1
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	79.6
Average Years of Schooling	2015	8.6
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	94.1

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	25.3	2016	79.5	2016	52.90
Youth	2016	18.7	2016	41.70	2016	29.90
Total	2016	23.6	2016	70.40	2016	47.20

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



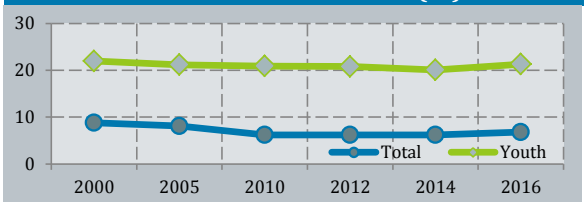
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	18.4	2016	9.7	2016	11.8
Medium	2016	37.6	2016	61.1	2016	55.5
High	2016	44.0	2016	29.2	2016	32.7

EMPLOYMENT (%)

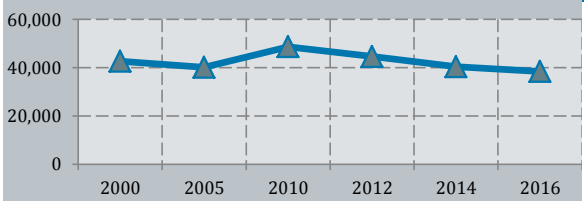
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	21	66.6	44
Vulnerable Employment	2016	19.2	36.4	32.3
Employment in Agriculture	2016	0.2	10.6	8.1
Employment in Industry	2016	6.5	27.2	22.2
Employment in Service	2016	93.3	62.2	69.6

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	7.5	2016	3.0	2016	4.1
Youth	2016	24.7	2016	19.6	2016	21.3
Total	2016	11.0	2016	5.4	2016	6.8
% of Youth to Adult	2016	3.3	2016	6.5	2016	5.2

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



LIBYA

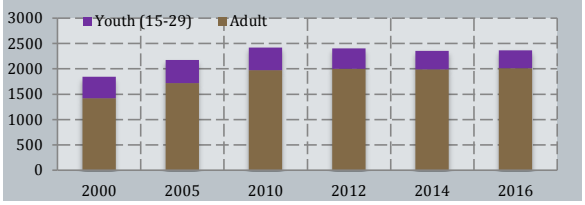
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	6.3
Population Growth (%)	2016	0.9
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	78.8
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	..
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	11.4
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	71.8
Average Years of Schooling	2015	7.3
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	91.4

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	29.6	2016	87.4	2016	58.2
Youth	2016	21.8	2016	48.8	2016	35.4
Total	2016	27.8	2016	78.6	2016	53.1

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



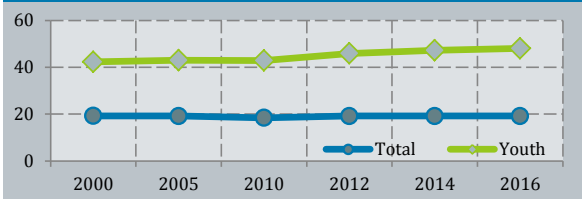
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	9.5	2016	18.3	2016	16.2
Medium	2016	61.1	2016	64.3	2016	63.6
High	2016	29.4	2016	17.4	2016	20.2

EMPLOYMENT (%)

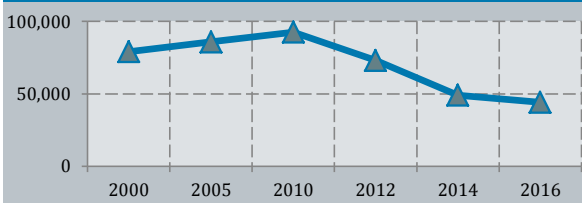
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	19.9	66.1	42.9
Vulnerable Employment	2016	36.2	31.5	32.6
Employment in Agriculture	2016	29.1	18.2	20.7
Employment in Industry	2016	26.3	25	25.3
Employment in Service	2016	44.7	56.8	54.0

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	20.4	2016	12.0	2016	14.1
Youth	2016	66.0	2016	40.3	2016	48.1
Total	2016	28.3	2016	16.0	2016	19.2
% of Youth to Adult	2016	3.2	2016	3.4	2016	3.4

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



MALAYSIA

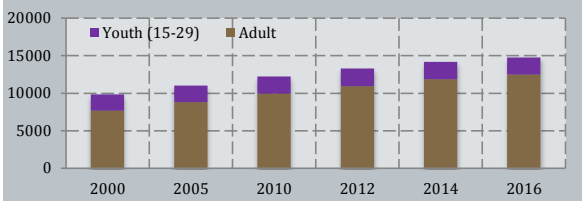
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	31.2
Population Growth (%)	2016	1.5
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	75.4
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	27,681
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	6.0
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	74.9
Average Years of Schooling	2015	10.1
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	94.6

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	54.8	2016	87.0	2016	70.70
Youth	2016	32.5	2016	48.30	2016	40.20
Total	2016	49.3	2016	77.70	2016	63.30

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



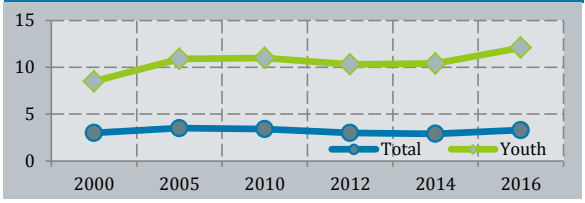
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	11.1	2016	15.6	2016	13.8
Medium	2016	61.3	2016	59.8	2016	60.4
High	2016	27.5	2016	24.6	2016	25.8

EMPLOYMENT (%)

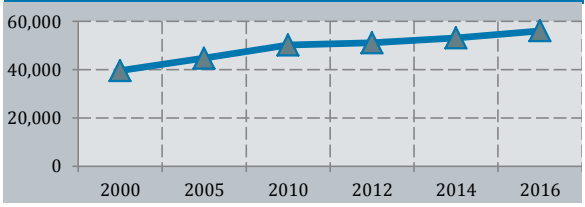
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	47.5	75.3	61.3
Vulnerable Employment	2016	25.1	19.9	21.9
Employment in Agriculture	2016	7.7	14.9	12.1
Employment in Industry	2016	19.2	32.8	27.5
Employment in Service	2016	73.1	52.3	60.4

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	1.7	2016	1.7	2016	1.7
Youth	2016	13.3	2016	11.3	2016	12.1
Total	2016	3.6	2016	3.1	2016	3.3
% of Youth to Adult	2016	7.8	2016	6.6	2016	7.1

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



MALDIVES

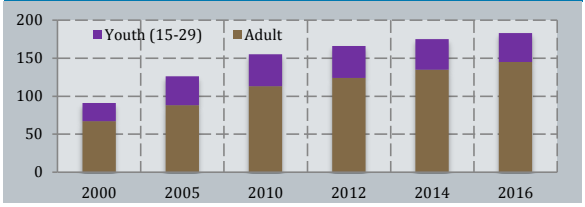
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	0.4
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.0
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	46.5
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	13,199
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	7.4
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	77.0
Average Years of Schooling	2015	6.2
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	99.3

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	60.2	2016	86.0	2016	72.9
Youth	2016	49.5	2016	60.3	2016	55.0
Total	2016	57.6	2016	79.2	2016	68.3

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



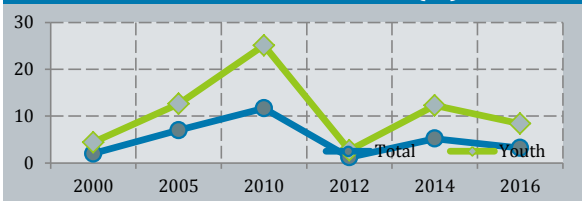
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	13.0	2016	8.9	2016	10.6
Medium	2016	56.9	2016	57.9	2016	57.5
High	2016	30.1	2016	33.2	2016	31.9

EMPLOYMENT (%)

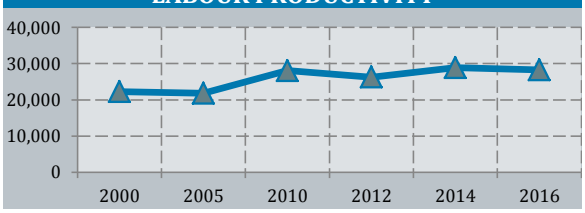
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	55.1	77.3	66.1
Vulnerable Employment	2016	30.4	13.8	20.8
Employment in Agriculture	2016	3.9	10.8	7.9
Employment in Industry	2016	20.8	24.4	22.9
Employment in Service	2016	75.3	64.7	69.2

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	2.8	2016	1.3	2016	1.9
Youth	2016	10.1	2016	7.0	2016	8.4
Total	2016	4.3	2016	2.4	2016	3.2
% of Youth to Adult	2016	3.6	2016	5.4	2016	4.4

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



MALI

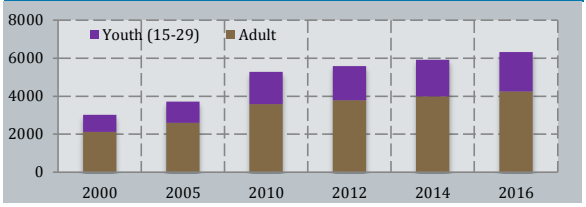
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	18.0
Population Growth (%)	2016	3.0
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	40.7
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	2,117
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	74.5
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	58.5
Average Years of Schooling	2015	2.3
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	33.1

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	51.6	2016	89.7	2016	70.50
Youth	2016	48.0	2016	69.90	2016	59.20
Total	2016	50.3	2016	82.30	2016	66.30

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



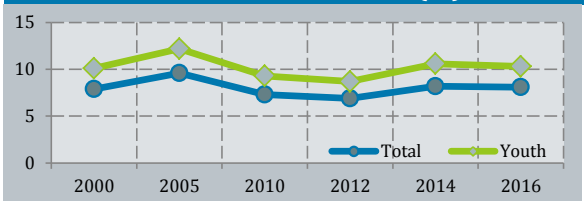
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	8.0	2016	6.0	2016	6.7
Medium	2016	90.2	2016	87.8	2016	88.7
High	2016	1.9	2016	6.1	2016	4.6

EMPLOYMENT (%)

		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	44.6	77.3	61
Vulnerable Employment	2016	91.4	79.8	84.0
Employment in Agriculture	2016	51.6	60.1	57.0
Employment in Industry	2016	13.2	15.5	14.6
Employment in Service	2016	35.3	24.4	28.4

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	9.8	2016	5.4	2016	7.0
Youth	2016	14.5	2016	7.6	2016	10.3
Total	2016	11.4	2016	6.1	2016	8.1
% of Youth to Adult	2016	1.5	2016	1.4	2016	1.5

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY

MAURITANIA

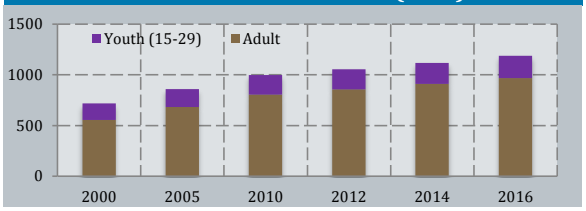
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	4.3
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.8
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	60.4
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	3,854
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	65.1
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	63.2
Average Years of Schooling	2015	4.3
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	52.1

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	34.2	2016	80.4	2016	57.2
Youth	2016	18.6	2016	34.7	2016	26.8
Total	2016	29.2	2016	65.4	2016	47.3

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



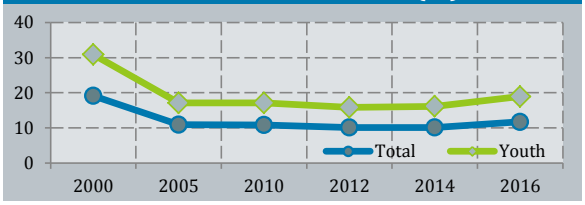
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	6.7	2016	6.0	2016	6.2
Medium	2016	90.9	2016	83.9	2016	86.0
High	2016	2.4	2016	10.1	2016	7.8

EMPLOYMENT (%)

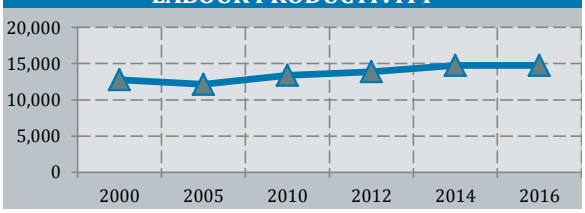
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	25.2	58.3	41.8
Vulnerable Employment	2016	49.0	39.1	42.1
Employment in Agriculture	2016	61.7	31.2	40.4
Employment in Industry	2016	1.6	12.9	9.5
Employment in Service	2016	36.8	55.9	50.1

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	10.9	2016	9.6	2016	10.0
Youth	2016	23.9	2016	16.3	2016	18.9
Total	2016	13.6	2016	10.8	2016	11.7
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.2	2016	1.7	2016	1.9

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



MOROCCO

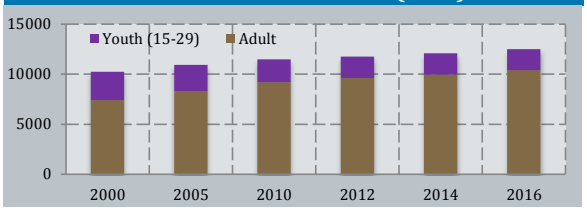
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	35.3
Population Growth (%)	2016	1.4
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	60.7
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	7,838
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	23.7
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	74.3
Average Years of Schooling	2015	5.0
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	71.7

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	27.7	2016	81.9	2016	53.80
Youth	2016	17.7	2016	51.70	2016	35.10
Total	2016	25.5	2016	74.40	2016	49.30

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



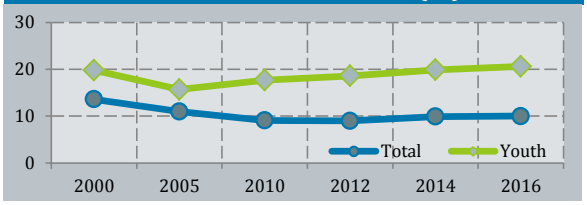
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	11.0	2016	17.6	2016	15.9
Medium	2016	80.1	2016	75.5	2016	76.7
High	2016	8.9	2016	6.9	2016	7.4

EMPLOYMENT (%)

		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	22.8	67.2	44.4
Vulnerable Employment	2016	64.1	47.1	51.5
Employment in Agriculture	2016	32.8	33.1	33.0
Employment in Industry	2016	15.6	22.4	20.6
Employment in Service	2016	51.7	44.5	46.4

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	8.8	2016	7.5	2016	7.8
Youth	2016	20.5	2016	20.6	2016	20.6
Total	2016	10.6	2016	9.7	2016	10.0
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.3	2016	2.7	2016	2.6

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY

MOZAMBIQUE

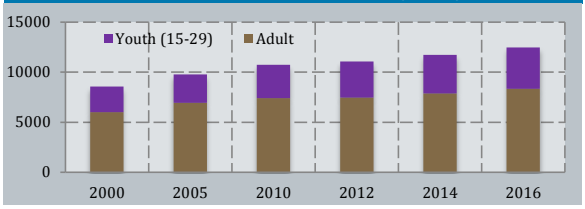
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	28.8
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.9
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	32.5
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	1,217
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	56.7
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	55.4
Average Years of Schooling	2015	3.5
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	58.8

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	86.4	2016	80.7	2016	83.7
Youth	2016	74.9	2016	67.1	2016	71.0
Total	2016	82.3	2016	75.5	2016	79.1

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



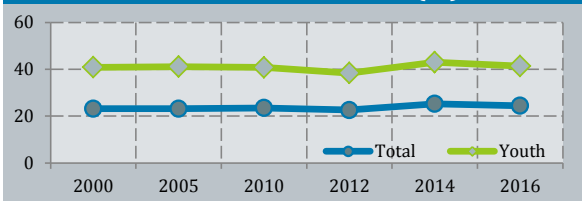
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	5.2	2016	5.8	2016	5.5
Medium	2016	92.5	2016	85.9	2016	89.4
High	2016	2.3	2016	8.3	2016	5.1

EMPLOYMENT (%)

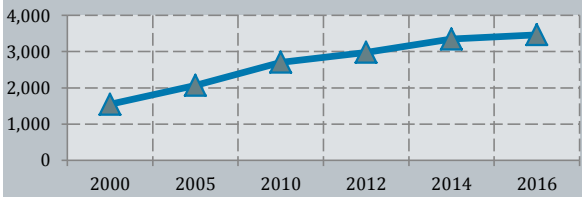
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	60.8	58.7	59.8
Vulnerable Employment	2016	93.4	71.9	83.3
Employment in Agriculture	2016	85.5	63.1	75.0
Employment in Industry	2016	0.2	8.3	4.0
Employment in Service	2016	14.3	28.5	21.0

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	19.3	2016	11.9	2016	16.0
Youth	2016	40.7	2016	42.2	2016	41.4
Total	2016	26.2	2016	22.2	2016	24.4
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.1	2016	3.5	2016	2.6

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



NIGER

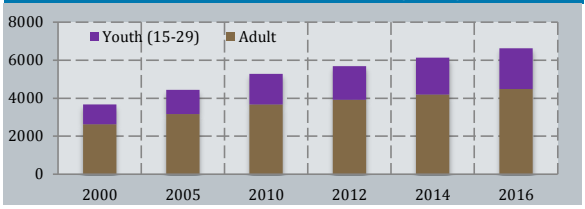
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	20.7
Population Growth (%)	2016	3.8
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	19.0
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	978
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	57.1
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	62.0
Average Years of Schooling	2015	1.7
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	19.1

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	42.9	2016	94.5	2016	68.80
Youth	2016	35.8	2016	80.10	2016	57.50
Total	2016	40.3	2016	89.30	2016	64.70

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



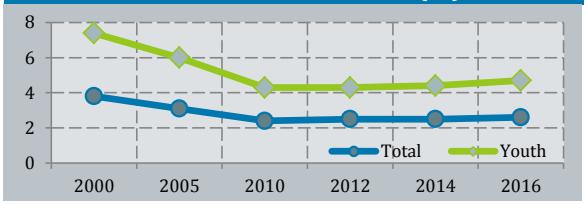
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	6.4	2016	6.3	2016	6.3
Medium	2016	91.7	2016	88.0	2016	89.2
High	2016	2.0	2016	5.7	2016	4.5

EMPLOYMENT (%)

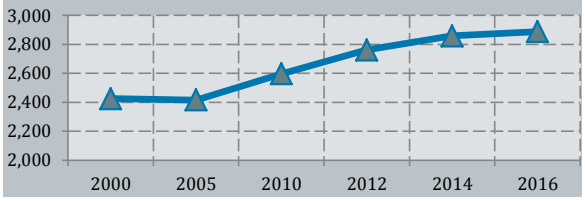
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	39.7	86.5	63
Vulnerable Employment	2016	95.9	90.5	92.2
Employment in Agriculture	2016	53.7	66.3	62.3
Employment in Industry	2016	25	9.5	14.4
Employment in Service	2016	21.3	24.2	23.3

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	1.3	2016	1.8	2016	1.6
Youth	2016	2.0	2016	6.0	2016	4.7
Total	2016	1.5	2016	3.1	2016	2.6
% of Youth to Adult	2016	1.5	2016	3.3	2016	2.9

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



NIGERIA

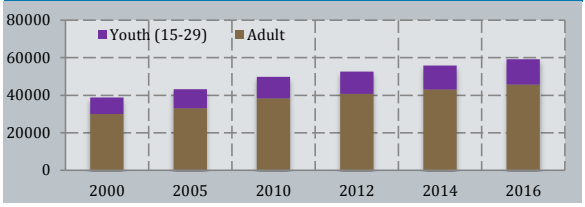
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	186.0
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.6
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	48.6
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	5,867
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	69.4
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	53.0
Average Years of Schooling	2015	6.0
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	59.6

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	55.3	2016	76.6	2016	66.0
Youth	2016	35.0	2016	40.4	2016	37.8
Total	2016	48.5	2016	64.1	2016	56.4

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



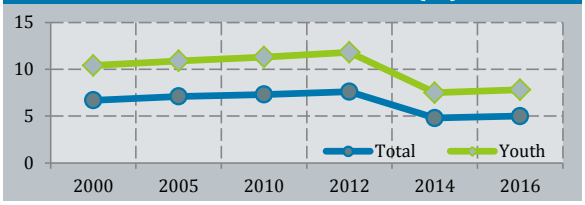
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	9.8	2016	5.0	2016	7.0
Medium	2016	87.3	2016	85.1	2016	86.0
High	2016	2.9	2016	9.9	2016	7.0

EMPLOYMENT (%)

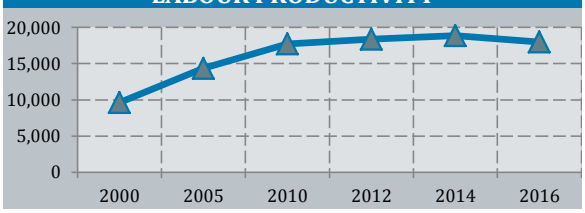
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	45.7	61.3	53.6
Vulnerable Employment	2016	48.1	31.7	38.5
Employment in Agriculture	2016	14.7	37.6	28.0
Employment in Industry	2016	15.5	14.1	14.7
Employment in Service	2016	69.8	48.3	57.3

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	4.5	2016	3.9	2016	4.2
Youth	2016	9.8	2016	6.2	2016	7.8
Total	2016	5.8	2016	4.4	2016	5.0
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.2	2016	1.6	2016	1.9

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



OMAN

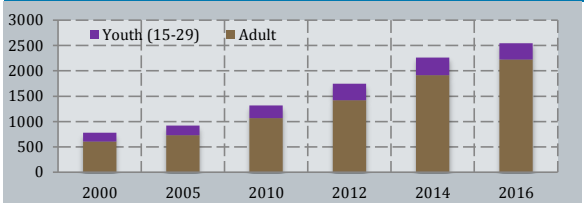
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	4.4
Population Growth (%)	2016	5.2
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	78.1
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2015	42,737
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	9.9
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	77.3
Average Years of Schooling	2015	8.1
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	94.0

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	31.1	2016	91.2	2016	74.90
Youth	2016	27.2	2016	57.00	2016	45.20
Total	2016	30.1	2016	85.60	2016	69.20

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



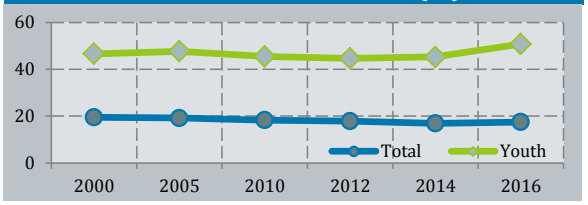
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	21.2	2016	13.6	2016	14.3
Medium	2016	57.7	2016	53.7	2016	54.1
High	2016	21.1	2016	32.7	2016	31.5

EMPLOYMENT (%)

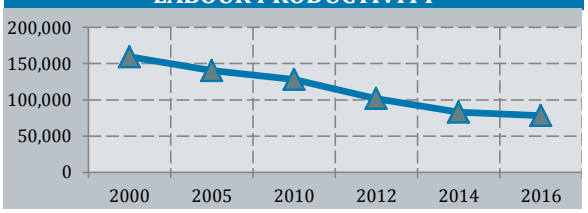
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	19	73	57.1
Vulnerable Employment	2016	11.1	9.7	9.9
Employment in Agriculture	2016	0.4	5.5	5.0
Employment in Industry	2016	4.8	43.4	39.6
Employment in Service	2016	94.8	51.1	55.4

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	23.4	2016	11.4	2016	12.8
Youth	2016	81.0	2016	41.3	2016	50.8
Total	2016	36.8	2016	14.7	2016	17.5
% of Youth to Adult	2016	3.5	2016	3.6	2016	4.0

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



PAKISTAN

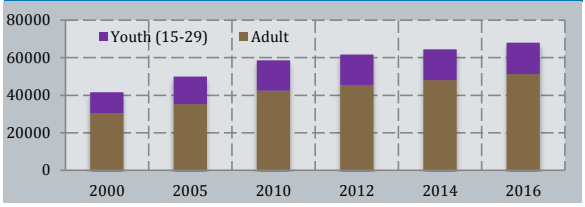
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	193.2
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.0
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	39.2
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	5,249
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	65.8
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	66.4
Average Years of Schooling	2015	5.1
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	56.4

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	26.0	2016	89.7	2016	58.4
Youth	2016	21.2	2016	65.5	2016	44.0
Total	2016	24.6	2016	82.4	2016	54.1

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



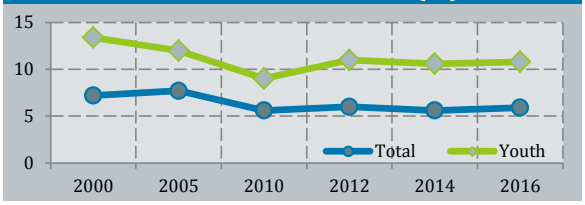
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	17.2	2016	17.5	2016	17.5
Medium	2016	73.2	2016	58.8	2016	61.8
High	2016	9.6	2016	23.7	2016	20.7

EMPLOYMENT (%)

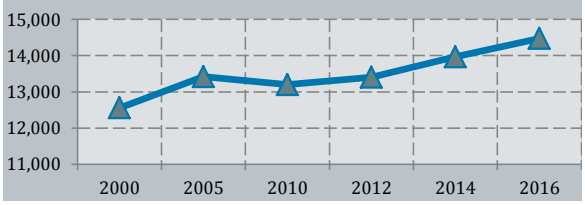
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	22	78.6	50.9
Vulnerable Employment	2016	78.8	54.7	59.8
Employment in Agriculture	2016	69.6	35.6	42.8
Employment in Industry	2016	10.2	22.3	19.7
Employment in Service	2016	20.2	42.2	37.5

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	9.0	2016	3.0	2016	4.3
Youth	2016	15.1	2016	9.4	2016	10.8
Total	2016	10.5	2016	4.5	2016	5.9
% of Youth to Adult	2016	1.7	2016	3.1	2016	2.5

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



PALESTINE

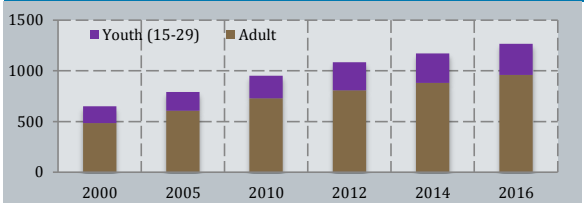
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	4.6
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.9
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	75.5
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	2,943
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	18.0
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	73.1
Average Years of Schooling	2015	8.9
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	96.7

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	22.8	2016	80.7	2016	51.80
Youth	2016	9.5	2016	49.50	2016	29.90
Total	2016	18.1	2016	69.40	2016	44.00

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



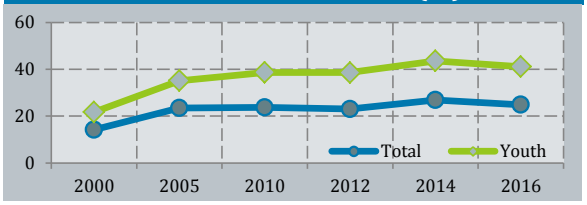
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	5.7	2016	21.5	2016	18.4
Medium	2016	44.7	2016	61.7	2016	58.4
High	2016	49.6	2016	16.8	2016	23.2

EMPLOYMENT (%)

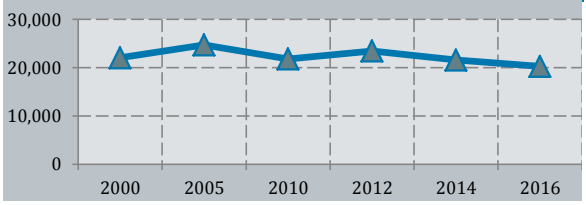
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	13	52.6	33
Vulnerable Employment	2016	31.8	23.6	25.2
Employment in Agriculture	2016	13	7.5	8.5
Employment in Industry	2016	12.5	33.6	29.5
Employment in Service	2016	74.5	58.9	62.0

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	21.9	2016	19.1	2016	19.7
Youth	2016	54.5	2016	38.6	2016	41.1
Total	2016	27.9	2016	24.2	2016	24.9
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.5	2016	2.0	2016	2.1

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



QATAR

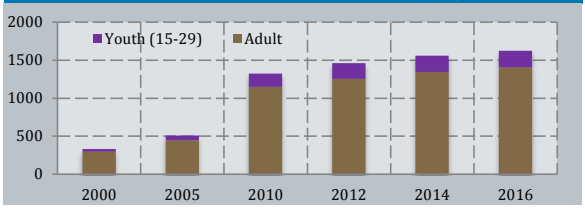
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	2.6
Population Growth (%)	2016	3.5
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	99.3
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	127,523
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	6.8
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	78.8
Average Years of Schooling	2015	9.8
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	97.8

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	58.9	2016	98.1	2016	88.7
Youth	2016	28.1	2016	74.0	2016	62.8
Total	2016	53.3	2016	93.8	2016	84.1

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



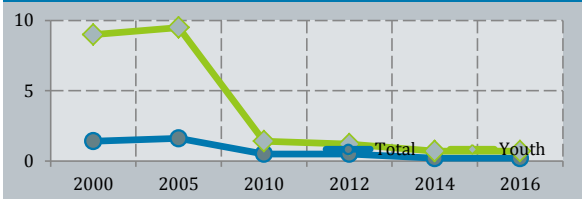
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	43.7	2016	14.5	2016	18.9
Medium	2016	27.5	2016	71.6	2016	65.0
High	2016	28.8	2016	13.8	2016	16.1

EMPLOYMENT (%)

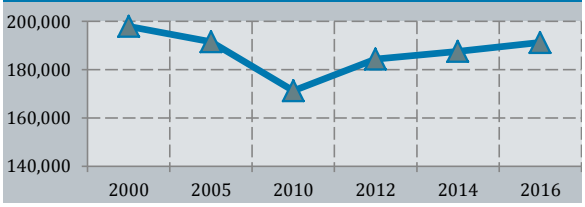
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	52.8	93.7	83.9
Vulnerable Employment	2016	0.0	0.2	0.2
Employment in Agriculture	2016	0.2	1.4	1.3
Employment in Industry	2016	6.5	62.8	54.2
Employment in Service	2016	93.4	35.8	44.5

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	0.7	2016	0.1	2016	0.2
Youth	2016	3.4	2016	0.3	2016	0.7
Total	2016	1.0	2016	0.1	2016	0.2
% of Youth to Adult	2016	4.9	2016	3.0	2016	3.5

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



SAUDI ARABIA

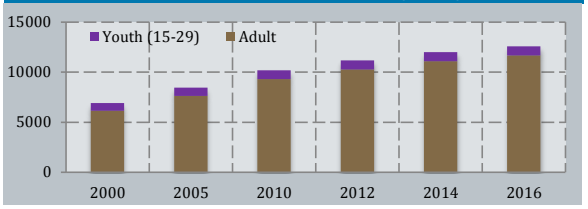
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	32.3
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.3
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	83.3
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	54,431
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	12.5
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	74.5
Average Years of Schooling	2015	9.6
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	94.8

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	24.0	2016	91.0	2016	64.80
Youth	2016	9.0	2016	26.00	2016	17.60
Total	2016	20.1	2016	78.80	2016	54.50

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



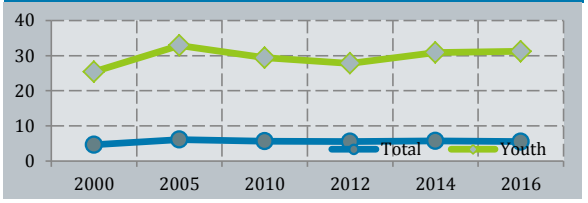
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	2.3	2016	8.2	2016	7.4
Medium	2016	56.7	2016	68.7	2016	67.1
High	2016	40.9	2016	23.2	2016	25.4

EMPLOYMENT (%)

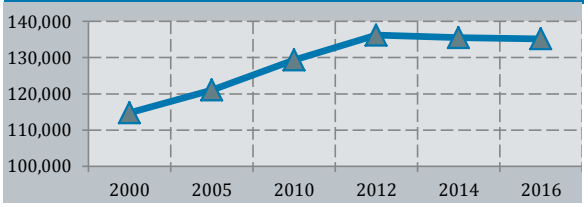
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	15.8	76.7	51.5
Vulnerable Employment	2016	1.1	3.2	3.0
Employment in Agriculture	2016	0.5	6.8	6.0
Employment in Industry	2016	1.5	25.8	22.7
Employment in Service	2016	98	67.4	71.3

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	16.3	2016	1.4	2016	3.6
Youth	2016	58.1	2016	22.0	2016	31.2
Total	2016	21.2	2016	2.7	2016	5.5
% of Youth to Adult	2016	3.6	2016	15.7	2016	8.7

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



SENEGAL

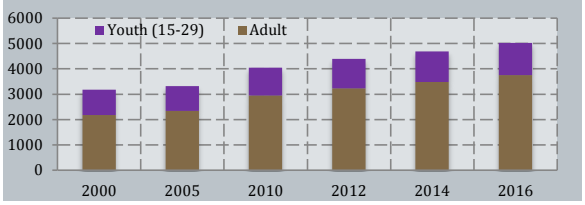
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	15.4
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.9
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	44.1
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	2,568
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	41.7
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	66.8
Average Years of Schooling	2015	2.8
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	55.6

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	52.1	2016	80.7	2016	65.5
Youth	2016	31.2	2016	52.1	2016	41.7
Total	2016	45.2	2016	70.4	2016	57.2

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



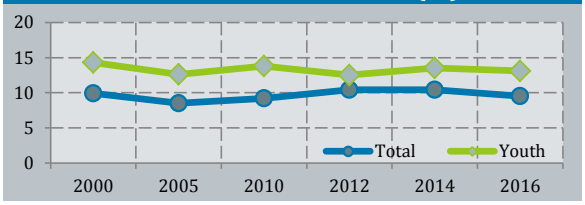
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	6.4	2016	6.5	2016	6.4
Medium	2016	91.3	2016	86.5	2016	88.4
High	2016	2.3	2016	7.0	2016	5.2

EMPLOYMENT (%)

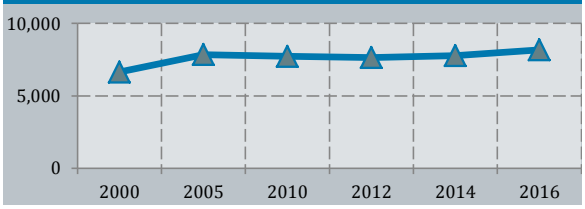
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	39.5	65.2	51.8
Vulnerable Employment	2016	80.0	60.9	68.4
Employment in Agriculture	2016	57.1	48.6	52.0
Employment in Industry	2016	9.5	27.8	20.5
Employment in Service	2016	33.4	23.6	27.5

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	10.6	2016	6.5	2016	8.3
Youth	2016	18.9	2016	9.6	2016	13.1
Total	2016	12.5	2016	7.4	2016	9.5
% of Youth to Adult	2016	1.8	2016	1.5	2016	1.6

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



SIERRA LEONE

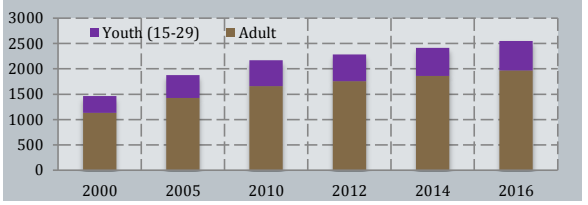
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	7.4
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.2
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	40.3
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	1,473
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	87.1
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	51.3
Average Years of Schooling	2015	3.3
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	48.4

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	74.3	2016	83.8	2016	78.90
Youth	2016	47.6	2016	40.30	2016	44.00
Total	2016	65.1	2016	68.70	2016	66.80

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



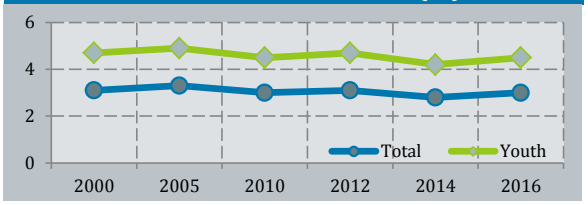
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	6.4	2016	6.1	2016	6.3
Medium	2016	91.4	2016	86.0	2016	88.7
High	2016	2.2	2016	7.9	2016	5.0

EMPLOYMENT (%)

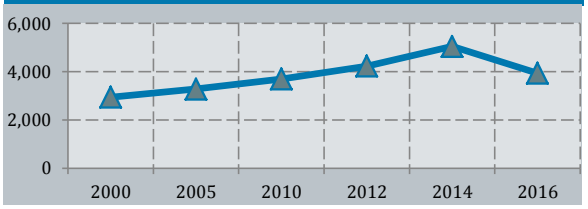
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	63.8	65.9	64.8
Vulnerable Employment	2016	95.3	84.8	90.0
Employment in Agriculture	2016	71.2	65.2	68.2
Employment in Industry	2016	2.3	10.5	6.4
Employment in Service	2016	26.5	24.3	25.4

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	1.6	2016	3.4	2016	2.6
Youth	2016	2.9	2016	6.4	2016	4.5
Total	2016	1.9	2016	4.0	2016	3.0
% of Youth to Adult	2016	1.8	2016	1.9	2016	1.7

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



SOMALIA

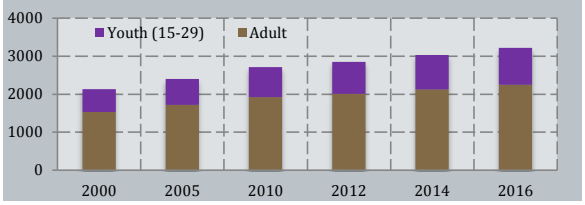
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	14.3
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.9
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	40.0
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	..
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	85.0
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	55.7
Average Years of Schooling	2015	0.0
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	..

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	36.1	2016	86.4	2016	60.7
Youth	2016	28.4	2016	58.8	2016	43.6
Total	2016	33.3	2016	75.9	2016	54.3

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



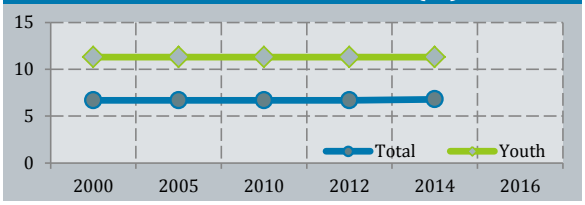
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	5.3	2016	5.8	2016	5.7
Medium	2016	93.0	2016	88.3	2016	89.7
High	2016	1.7	2016	5.9	2016	4.6

EMPLOYMENT (%)

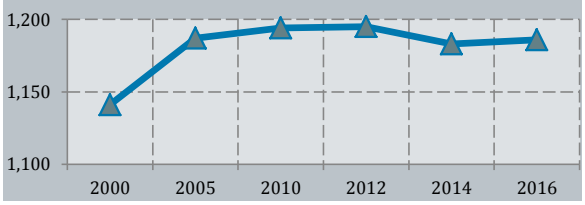
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	30.8	71.1	50.7
Vulnerable Employment	2016	85.1	56.2	65.1
Employment in Agriculture	...	84.3	66.6	72.1
Employment in Industry	...	0.9	6.5	4.8
Employment in Service	...	14.7	26.9	23.2

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	5.1	2016	4.5	2016	4.7
Youth	2016	12.3	2016	10.5	2016	11.1
Total	2016	7.4	2016	6.3	2016	6.6
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.4	2016	2.3	2016	2.4

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



SUDAN

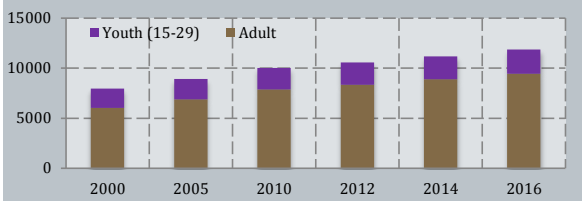
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	39.6
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.4
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	34.0
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	4,730
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	47.6
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	63.7
Average Years of Schooling	2015	3.5
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	58.6

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	28.2	2016	87.7	2016	57.60
Youth	2016	16.4	2016	41.80	2016	29.20
Total	2016	24.3	2016	72.20	2016	48.20

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



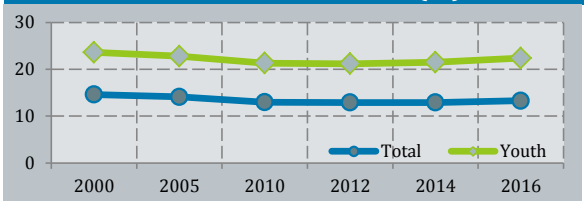
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	8.2	2016	17.0	2016	14.9
Medium	2016	64.1	2016	70.5	2016	69.0
High	2016	27.7	2016	12.5	2016	16.1

EMPLOYMENT (%)

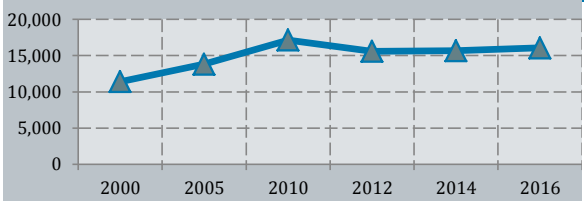
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	19.6	64	41.8
Vulnerable Employment	2016	47.1	38.2	40.2
Employment in Agriculture	2016	23.4	36	33.0
Employment in Industry	2016	30.6	17.3	20.4
Employment in Service	2016	46	46.7	46.6

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	15.6	2016	9.5	2016	11.0
Youth	2016	32.1	2016	18.7	2016	22.4
Total	2016	19.2	2016	11.3	2016	13.3
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.1	2016	2.0	2016	2.0

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



SURINAME

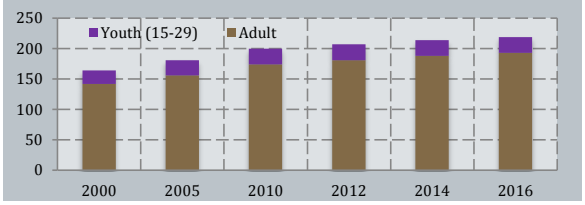
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	0.6
Population Growth (%)	2016	0.9
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	66.0
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	14,146
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	19.0
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	71.3
Average Years of Schooling	2015	8.3
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	95.5

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	47.1	2016	77.5	2016	62.1
Youth	2016	17.4	2016	39.1	2016	28.5
Total	2016	40.5	2016	68.6	2016	54.5

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



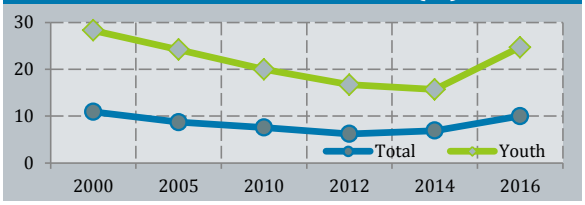
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	17.5	2016	12.7	2016	14.4
Medium	2016	35.6	2016	63.0	2016	53.4
High	2016	46.9	2016	24.3	2016	32.2

EMPLOYMENT (%)

	FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	34.3	64	49
Vulnerable Employment	2016	9.1	17.9	14.8
Employment in Agriculture	2016	1.7	4.4	3.4
Employment in Industry	2016	5	32.4	22.7
Employment in Service	2016	93.3	63.3	73.8

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	12.9	2016	4.9	2016	8.0
Youth	2016	39.6	2016	18.3	2016	24.7
Total	2016	15.5	2016	6.7	2016	10.0
% of Youth to Adult	2016	3.1	2016	3.7	2016	3.1

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY

TAJIKISTAN

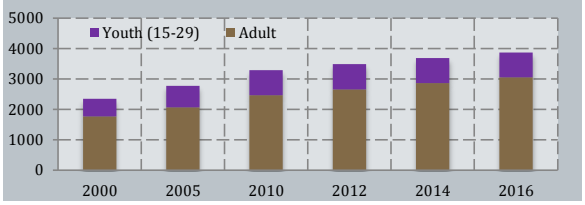
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	8.7
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.2
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	26.9
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	2,980
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	38.5
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	69.8
Average Years of Schooling	2015	10.4
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	99.8

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	68.4	2016	87.1	2016	77.70
Youth	2016	38.4	2016	56.60	2016	47.70
Total	2016	59.5	2016	77.70	2016	68.70

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



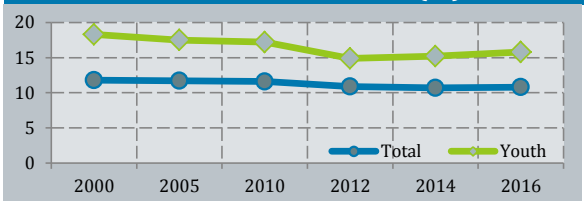
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	3.8	2016	10.2	2016	7.4
Medium	2016	79.7	2016	73.8	2016	76.4
High	2016	16.5	2016	16.0	2016	16.2

EMPLOYMENT (%)

	FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	53.7	68.8	61.2
Vulnerable Employment	2016	45.2	51.7	48.9
Employment in Agriculture	2016	72.9	45.4	57.4
Employment in Industry	2016	3.5	20.4	13.0
Employment in Service	2016	23.6	34.2	29.6

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	9.0	2016	9.8	2016	9.5
Youth	2016	13.3	2016	17.5	2016	15.8
Total	2016	9.9	2016	11.6	2016	10.8
% of Youth to Adult	2016	1.5	2016	1.8	2016	1.7

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY

TOGO

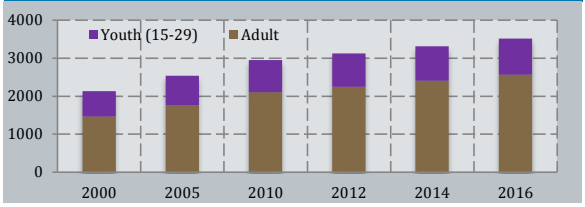
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	7.6
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.5
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	40.5
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	1,491
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	52.3
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	60.1
Average Years of Schooling	2015	4.7
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	66.5

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	87.7	2016	90.4	2016	89.0
Youth	2016	67.4	2016	62.1	2016	64.8
Total	2016	81.0	2016	80.7	2016	80.9

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



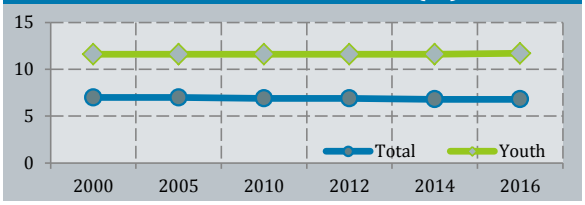
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	5.9	2016	5.5	2016	5.7
Medium	2016	91.6	2016	85.8	2016	88.7
High	2016	2.6	2016	8.7	2016	5.6

EMPLOYMENT (%)

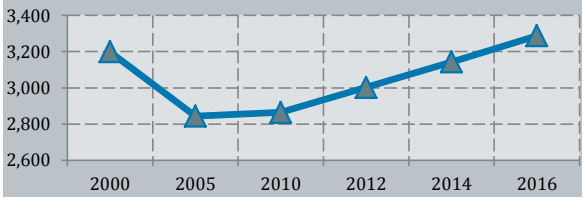
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	75.2	75.6	75.4
Vulnerable Employment	2016	92.7	76.7	84.8
Employment in Agriculture	2016	70.8	54.6	62.8
Employment in Industry	2016	5.4	12.1	8.7
Employment in Service	2016	23.8	33.4	28.5

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	5.3	2016	4.7	2016	5.0
Youth	2016	12.5	2016	10.8	2016	11.7
Total	2016	7.3	2016	6.3	2016	6.8
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.4	2016	2.3	2016	2.3

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



TUNISIA

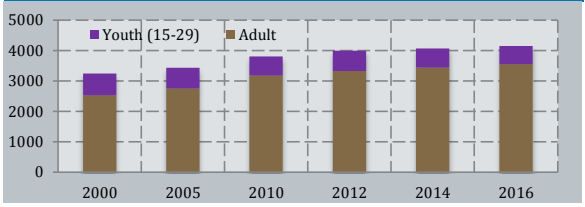
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	11.4
Population Growth (%)	2016	1.1
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	67.0
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	11,599
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	12.1
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	75.0
Average Years of Schooling	2015	7.1
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	81.1

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	25.8	2016	77.7	2016	50.90
Youth	2016	22.4	2016	46.50	2016	34.70
Total	2016	25.1	2016	71.30	2016	47.70

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



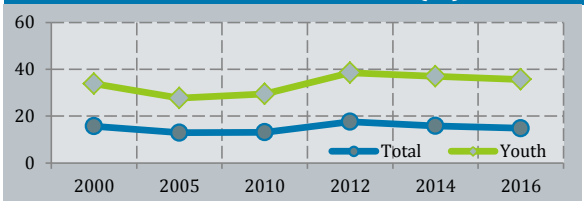
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	17.8	2016	23.3	2016	21.9
Medium	2016	53.4	2016	57.7	2016	56.7
High	2016	28.8	2016	19.0	2016	21.4

EMPLOYMENT (%)

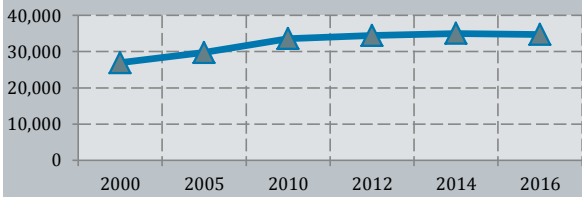
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	19.8	62.4	40.6
Vulnerable Employment	2016	16.2	22.6	21.0
Employment in Agriculture	2016	2.5	14.9	11.8
Employment in Industry	2016	32.1	28.6	29.5
Employment in Service	2016	65.4	56.5	58.7

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	17.6	2016	9.0	2016	11.3
Youth	2016	38.0	2016	34.6	2016	35.7
Total	2016	21.1	2016	12.5	2016	14.8
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.2	2016	3.8	2016	3.2

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



TURKEY

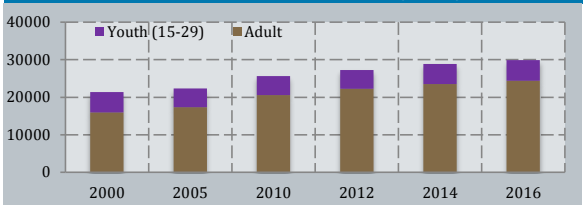
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	79.5
Population Growth (%)	2016	1.6
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	73.9
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	24,244
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	11.6
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	75.4
Average Years of Schooling	2015	7.9
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	95.7

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	31.0	2016	76.2	2016	52.7
Youth	2016	27.9	2016	55.3	2016	41.8
Total	2016	30.4	2016	71.4	2016	50.3

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



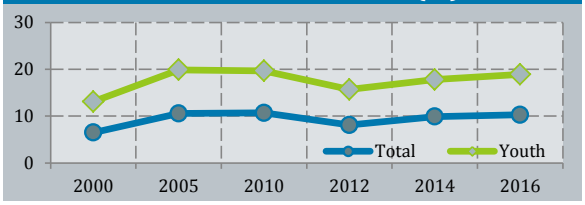
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	20.1	2016	12.9	2016	15.1
Medium	2016	58.0	2016	67.6	2016	64.7
High	2016	21.9	2016	19.5	2016	20.3

EMPLOYMENT (%)

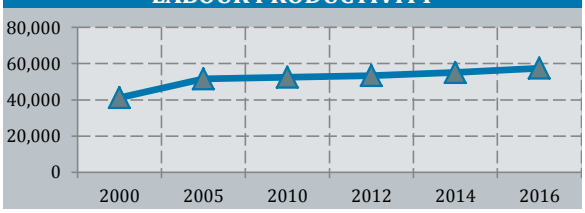
	FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	26.7	64.6	45.1
Vulnerable Employment	2016	35.7	24.4	27.8
Employment in Agriculture	2016	30.3	15.5	20.0
Employment in Industry	2016	16.8	32.3	27.6
Employment in Service	2016	53	52.1	52.4

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	9.8	2016	7.8	2016	8.4
Youth	2016	21.9	2016	17.4	2016	18.9
Total	2016	12.1	2016	9.5	2016	10.3
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.2	2016	2.2	2016	2.3

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



TURKMENISTAN

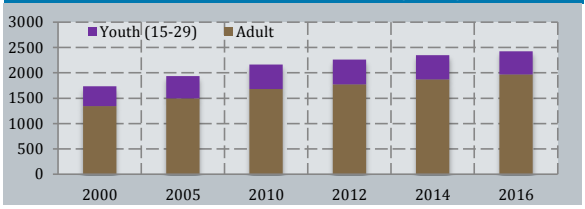
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	5.7
Population Growth (%)	2016	1.7
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	50.4
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	16,880
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	43.7
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	65.7
Average Years of Schooling	2015	9.9
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	99.7

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	52.0	2016	84.9	2016	67.80
Youth	2016	33.0	2016	57.80	2016	45.50
Total	2016	47.3	2016	77.70	2016	62.10

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



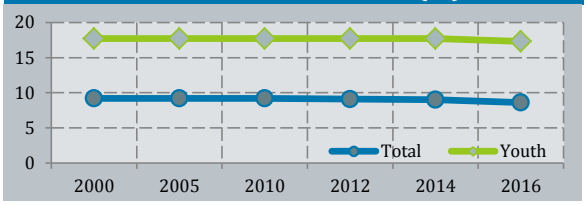
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	5.5	2016	11.5	2016	9.1
Medium	2016	69.1	2016	73.4	2016	71.7
High	2016	25.4	2016	15.2	2016	19.2

EMPLOYMENT (%)

	FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	43.3	70.9	56.7
Vulnerable Employment	2016	24.1	22.0	22.8
Employment in Agriculture	2016	17	19	18.2
Employment in Industry	2016	38.8	36.9	37.6
Employment in Service	2016	44.3	44.1	44.2

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	6.4	2016	6.8	2016	6.6
Youth	2016	18.3	2016	16.7	2016	17.3
Total	2016	8.4	2016	8.7	2016	8.6
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.9	2016	2.5	2016	2.6

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY

UGANDA

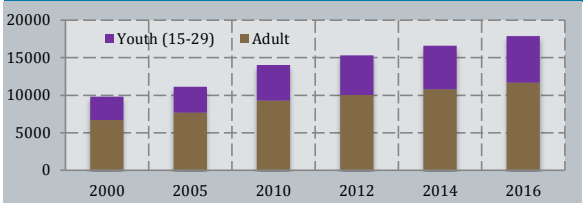
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	41.5
Population Growth (%)	2016	3.3
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	16.4
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	1,849
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	37.7
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	59.2
Average Years of Schooling	2015	5.7
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	73.8

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	87.3	2016	94.8	2016	91.0
Youth	2016	74.4	2016	76.8	2016	75.6
Total	2016	82.3	2016	87.7	2016	85.0

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



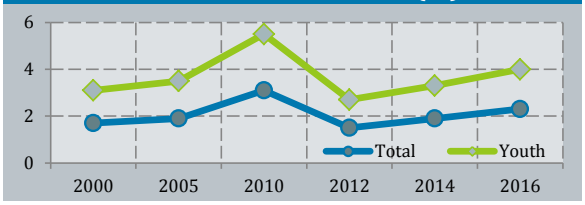
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	10.7	2016	13.9	2016	12.3
Medium	2016	86.1	2016	80.9	2016	83.5
High	2016	3.2	2016	5.2	2016	4.2

EMPLOYMENT (%)

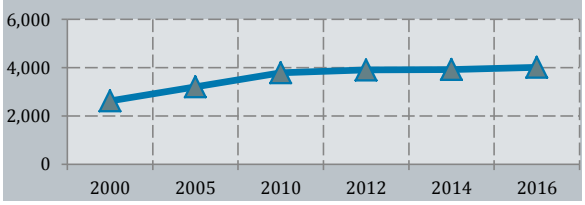
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	80.8	85.3	83.1
Vulnerable Employment	2016	84.8	71.2	77.8
Employment in Agriculture	2016	76.4	68.6	72.4
Employment in Industry	2016	4.5	10	7.3
Employment in Service	2016	19.2	21.4	20.3

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	0.7	2016	2.0	2016	1.4
Youth	2016	3.9	2016	4.1	2016	4.0
Total	2016	1.9	2016	2.7	2016	2.3
% of Youth to Adult	2016	5.6	2016	2.1	2016	2.9

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



UNITED ARAB EMIRATES

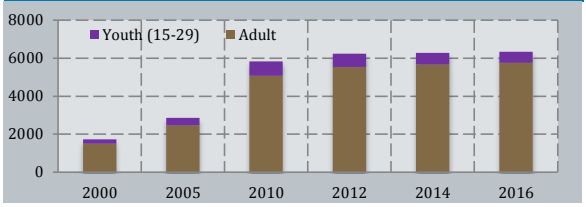
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	9.3
Population Growth (%)	2016	1.3
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	85.8
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	72,419
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	5.9
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	77.5
Average Years of Schooling	2015	9.5
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	93.0

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	45.3	2016	96.0	2016	85.00
Youth	2016	29.0	2016	57.70	2016	47.90
Total	2016	41.8	2016	91.10	2016	79.50

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



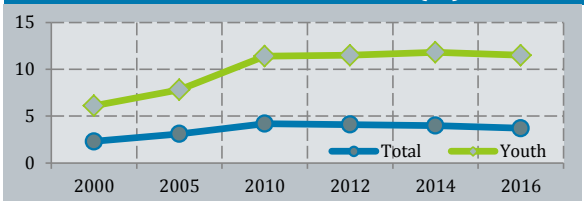
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	0.9	2016	11.1	2016	9.9
Medium	2016	64.8	2016	52.0	2016	53.5
High	2016	34.3	2016	36.9	2016	36.6

EMPLOYMENT (%)

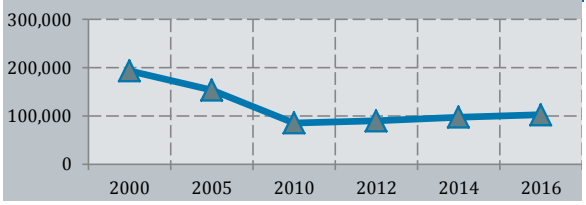
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	37.8	88.5	76.5
Vulnerable Employment	2016	0.5	1.0	0.9
Employment in Agriculture	2016	0.1	4	3.5
Employment in Industry	2016	4.6	23.3	21.1
Employment in Service	2016	95.3	72.7	75.3

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	7.9	2016	2.3	2016	2.9
Youth	2016	19.7	2016	9.3	2016	11.5
Total	2016	9.6	2016	2.8	2016	3.7
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.5	2016	4.0	2016	4.0

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



UZBEKISTAN

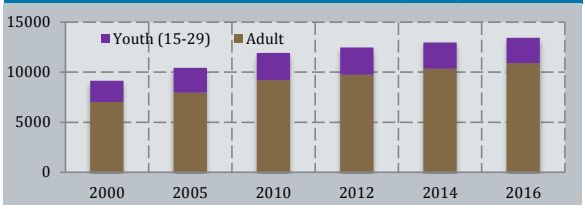
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	31.8
Population Growth (%)	2016	1.7
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	36.5
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	6,514
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	33.9
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	68.5
Average Years of Schooling	2015	12.0
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	100.0

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	53.1	2016	83.4	2016	67.5
Youth	2016	33.8	2016	57.3	2016	45.8
Total	2016	48.4	2016	76.4	2016	62.0

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



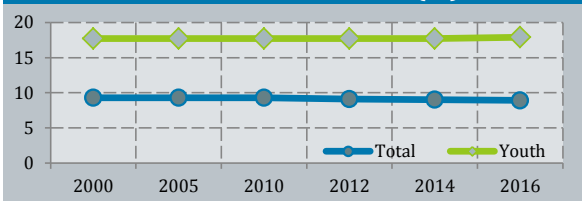
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	5.4	2016	10.4	2016	8.4
Medium	2016	69.0	2016	74.1	2016	72.0
High	2016	25.6	2016	15.5	2016	19.5

EMPLOYMENT (%)

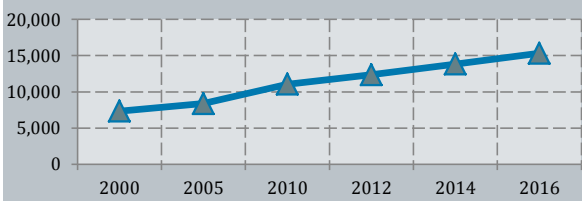
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	44.2	69.5	56.5
Vulnerable Employment	2016	21.2	23.4	22.5
Employment in Agriculture	2016	27.6	30.8	29.5
Employment in Industry	2016	21.1	25.8	23.9
Employment in Service	2016	51.3	43.4	46.6

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	6.6	2016	7.0	2016	6.8
Youth	2016	19.4	2016	17.1	2016	17.9
Total	2016	8.7	2016	9.0	2016	8.9
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.9	2016	2.4	2016	2.6

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



YEMEN

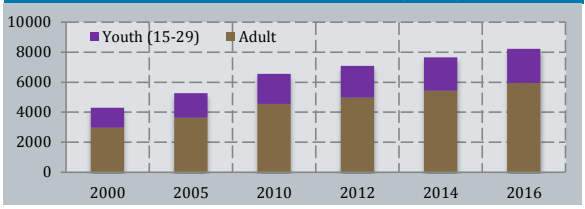
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2016	27.6
Population Growth (%)	2016	2.5
Urban Population (% of total)	2016	35.2
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. $)	2016	2,508
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2015	33.8
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2015	64.0
Average Years of Schooling	2015	3.0
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	70.0

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	28.2	2016	85.0	2016	56.50
Youth	2016	22.1	2016	53.50	2016	38.10
Total	2016	26.0	2016	73.40	2016	49.80

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



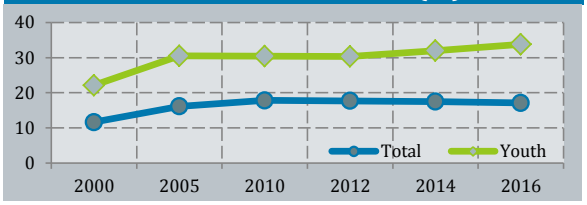
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2016	10.7	2016	12.5	2016	12.1
Medium	2016	66.0	2016	75.2	2016	73.1
High	2016	23.3	2016	12.3	2016	14.8

EMPLOYMENT (%)

		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2016	18.6	63.8	41.3
Vulnerable Employment	2016	51.7	31.5	36.0
Employment in Agriculture	2016	42.5	24.6	28.6
Employment in Industry	2016	8	19.7	17.1
Employment in Service	2016	49.5	55.7	54.3

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2016	20.3	2016	7.4	2016	10.7
Youth	2016	46.9	2016	28.5	2016	33.8
Total	2016	28.4	2016	13.1	2016	17.1
% of Youth to Adult	2016	2.3	2016	3.9	2016	3.2

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY