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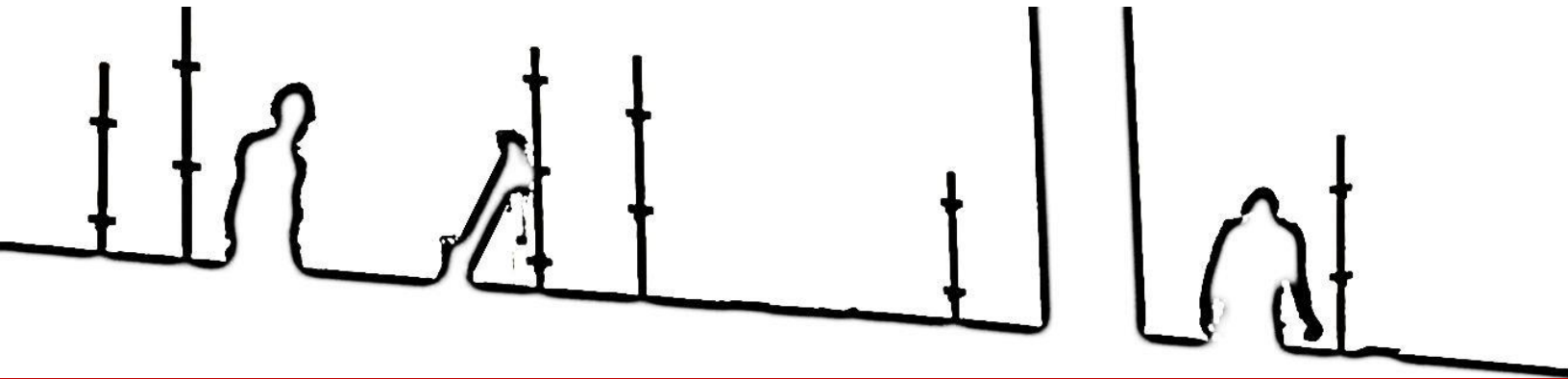
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LABOUR MARKET

REPORT 2015





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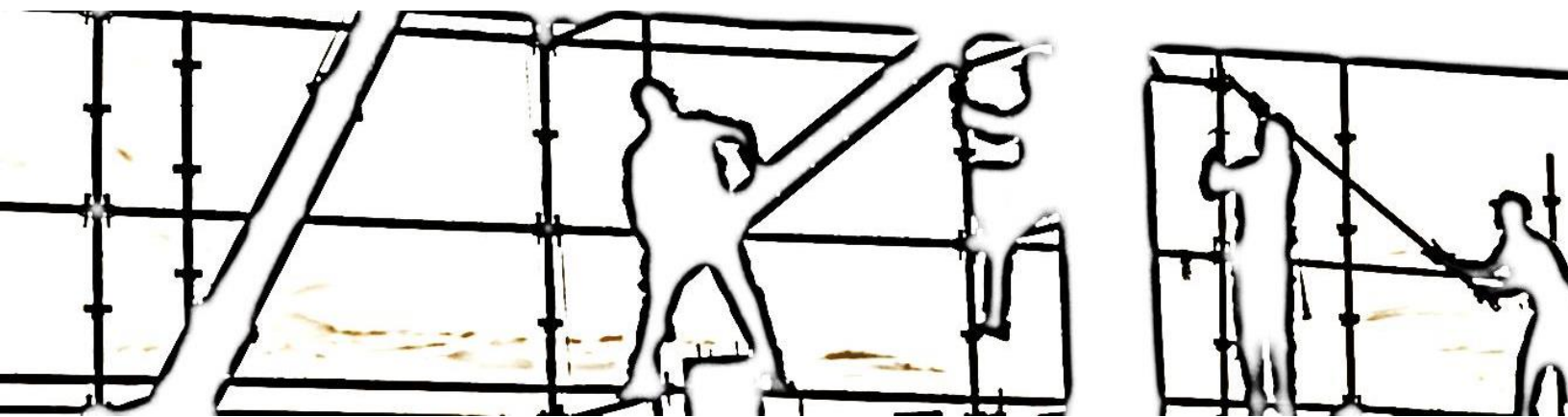
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LABOUR

MARKET

REPORT 2015



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ACRONYMS

A

ADB	Asian Development Bank
ALMP	Active Labour Market Policies
ASPIRE	Atlas of Social Protection-Indicators of Resilience and Equity
E2P	Employment-to-Population
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
IBRD	International Bank for Reconstruction and Development
ICT	Information and Communication Technologies
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IFC	International Finance Corporation
ILO	International Labour Organization
ISCO	International Standard Classification of Occupations
KILM	Key Indicators of Labour Market
LFPR	Labour Force Participation Rate
MSME	Micro, Small and Medium Enterprise
OECD	Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development
OIC	Organization of Islamic Cooperation
OSH	Occupational Safety and Health
PES	Public Employment Services
SDYE	Skill Development for Youth Employment
SME	Small- and Medium-sized Enterprise
SPI	Social Protection Index
SWTS	School to Work Transition Survey
TOKEN	Transfer of Knowledge through Expatriate Nationals
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
WESO	World Employment and Social Outlook

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FOREWORD

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The world economic growth has been stalled since the global economic and financial crisis that started in 2007 in the United States. Since then, governments around the world are pursuing different policies to boost demand, increase investments and stimulate growth. These policies might have avoided an even graver impact on the economies, but sluggish growth rates became inevitable over the succeeding years, with significant repercussions on many fronts. Employment and job creation became a serious concern in many countries due to diminishing prospects on demand, investment and growth, and these countries faced major challenges in their labour markets. While countries were struggling to correct these anomalies by taking various countermeasures, rising unemployment and lowering productivity levels were creating further troubles for policy-makers.

This report is prepared at a time when the global risks are somewhat diminished and developed economies are taking greater role again in global growth, but major improvements in labour markets around the world are still lacking. In this context, this report analyses the current state of labour market in OIC countries and addresses some of the key challenges that OIC countries are facing. These include skills development and employability, job creation and youth employment, social protection and safety, and participation and migration.

The report argues that a key determinant of enhancing employability is skills development. It is observed that skills and capabilities of the educated people mismatch the needs of the labour market in OIC countries and difficulties for workers to move between jobs prevent them to find positions suitable to their skills. Maintaining and upgrading the skills and competences of the labour force to meet and adapt the continuously changing working environments are, however, crucial for both the employees and employers.

Lack of experience and incompatible education put labour force at a disadvantage position, even when higher economic growth translates into overall increased employment opportunities. In this context, the report emphasizes the critical role of technical and vocational education and training (TVET) in enhancing the capabilities and fitting the labour force to the job market. The lack and low quality of vocational education and training trap the poor workers in low-skilled, low-productive and low-wage jobs. Given the weak linkages between education institutions, enterprises and employment offices in many OIC countries, it is crucial for them to design effective vocational education and training programmes to reduce unemployment, particularly for women and young people, who have persistently high unemployment rates.

In this context and with a view to contributing to the efforts of the member countries in enhancing the capacities and quality of their human resources, SESRIC has initiated and assumed the role of the Executing Organ of the Vocational Education and Training Programme for the Member Countries of the Organization of Islamic Cooperation (OIC-VET). The Programme aims at improving the quality of vocational education and training in the public and private sectors. The key strategic objectives of the OIC-VET Programme include; capacity building, transfer of innovation, skill development and networking. For example, within the framework of the OIC-VET Programme,

Skills Development for Youth Employment (SDYE) Programme has been initiated to contribute to the efforts addressing the unemployment problem through improving necessary skills for the current labour market in the OIC member countries.

In addition to overall labour market structure in OIC member countries, the *OIC Labour Market Report 2015* highlights some other related issues such as the youth unemployment, empowering the participation of disadvantaged groups to labour force, social protection, and occupational safety and health.

Amb. Musa Kulaklıkaya
Director General
SESRIC

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

ESS

This report analyses the current state of labour market in OIC countries and addresses some of the key related issues which still constitute major challenges for them in this important area. These include skills development and employability, job creation and youth employment, social protection and safety, and participation and migration. 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 60% as of 2014. However, with female participation rate of around 41%, OIC member countries are significantly lagging behind the world average of 50.3%. When total employment is disaggregated into three broad sectors – agriculture, industry and services –, the share of employment in agriculture in OIC countries as of 2014 is 37.7%, whereas industry sector accounts 19.4% and services sector accounts 42.8% of total employment in OIC countries. While the share of vulnerable employment remains excessively high in OIC countries, it has continuously declined to reach 53.2% in 2014 compared to 63.8% in 2000 with the increasing shares of wage and salary workers and employers.

As of 2014, total unemployment rate in OIC countries is estimated at 7.6%. 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 to 7.4% in 2014, a rate which is again slightly lower than that of OIC countries. 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 during the period 2000-2014.

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 particularly on issues related to skills development for enhanced employability. In this section, it has been mentioned that while employed people with medium skills constitute around two third of all employed people, this share was declining over time to reach to 67.7% in 2014 compared to 72.3% in 2000. On the other hand, it has been observed that the shares of people with low and high skills

are increasing. The share of people with low skills in total employment increased from 17.1% in 2000 to 19.3% in 2014 and the share of people with high skills increased from 10.6% to 13.1% during the same period.

Basic education, initial vocational training and lifelong learning are three major components of skills development. Further skills development can be achieved only with good-quality basic education. Moreover, for lifelong employability, new opportunities should be constantly provided to working people in order to periodically update their skills and learn new ones. As a result of technological, economic and policy changes, some skills may become redundant and this may lead to prolonged unemployment or underemployment. In order to minimize the potential impacts under such circumstances, upgrading skills and retraining of workers through active labour market policies are required to protect them against jobs losses and risk of unemployment. This is also important to avoid skills mismatch.

In addition to its importance for overall economy and labour market, policies for skills development are also critical for special target groups. These groups face comparatively tougher challenges in finding or retaining jobs, which include young people with no or minimum working experience, senior people with low adaptive capacity to changing work environment and rural population with little access to quality education and training. This section highlights some important issues related to skills development of these three special groups.

Section two also proposes developing compatible technical and vocational education and training (TVET) systems in OIC member countries in order to enhance employability and employment opportunities. TVET is an investment in human

capital with a high return and significant benefits for a broad range of actors in the labour market including individuals, enterprises and the state. TVET programs help unskilled workers or people who are less endowed intellectually to develop their skills and competence to continue in their jobs and/or find new better job opportunities. In this connection, a set of measures to be considered in developing and implementing a TVET system is proposed under three main phases: (1) designing a compatible TVET system, (2) boosting the effectiveness of TVET system, and (3) ensuring the sustainability of TVET system.

The third section focuses particularly on issues related to job creation and youth. In OIC countries, the unemployment rate of youth is more than three times that of adults. The challenges for youth do not stop at the high unemployment rate but extend to include the limited availability of quality jobs and a tough transition process to the labour market. In the majority of the OIC countries investigated in this report, youth are poorly paid and are engaged in informal employment. Also in some OIC countries, a significant share of youth is in irregular employment, reaching in some cases to alarming rates of 80% and higher. Furthermore, skill mismatch is a serious problem where in the majority of OIC countries the percentage of qualification mismatch is around 50% or higher. More often than not what contributes to the problem of youth qualification mismatch is the issue of under education rather than over education.

There is no central theme to characterise youth transition to the labour market across different OIC countries; however, in urban areas a higher percentage of youth has not yet started their transition to the labour market when compared to

rural areas. The overwhelming majority of male youth who has not yet started their transition to the labour market are “inactive students.” As for females, the story is quite different and depends on the country. In some OIC countries the overwhelming majority of female youth who have not yet started their transition to the labour market are students; whereas in other OIC countries a significant percentage of females who have not yet started their transition to the labour market are “*inactive non students with no intention of looking for work.*” Also, in some OIC countries the majority of youth made a direct transition to the labour market which means they had no other forms of labour market experience (employment or unemployment) before taking up their current stable or satisfactory job. The report highlights that there is an “inactivity trap” in some countries, meaning that once a youth is in inactivity it is very difficult for her/him to make the transition to stable and/or satisfactory employment.

To reduce the high unemployment of youth, job creation must be placed at the core of public policies. Without strong job creation, other policies and interventions will be rendered fruitless. OIC countries need to create 7.2 million jobs between 2014 and 2020 for youth just to keep the level of unemployment rate constant at its current level of 16.4%. This is no simple task and in this context, entrepreneurship and MSMEs (Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises) come into play, since entrepreneur activity is one of the critical elements in job creation. Entrepreneurial activity in OIC countries is more dynamic than that in non-OIC developing countries and developed countries and MSMEs employ a larger percentage of the total workforce in OIC countries when compared with non-OIC developing countries. However, there are a number of

constraints hindering entrepreneurship in some OIC countries, the most influential of which are the issues of finance and the lack of financial inclusion, the weak entrepreneurship spirit among youth, and the lack of market and technical skills.

Section four of the report focuses on social protection and occupational safety and health issues. Social protection programs protect individuals against the adverse effects of labour market changes caused by external shocks. The non-existence of a market for insurance against the labour market risk, the possibility of labour market crowding as well as the distributional effects of globalization represent major arguments for social protection. Social protection programs consist of social insurance, social assistance as well as labour market programs. In 2013, there were 41 OIC member countries without unemployment benefit scheme anchored in national legislation. Social insurance schemes form the majority of maternity protection in OIC member countries. Among the OIC member countries, food and in-kind transfers represent the highest rate of social assistance with 37%. Kyrgyz Republic has the highest Social Protection Index in OIC Member Countries. In terms of occupational safety and health, worldwide, there were over 370,000 fatal occupational accidents. Appropriate legislation and regulations, together with adequate means of enforcement, are essential for the protection of workers’ safety and health.

Section five investigates participation and migration in labour markets in OIC member countries. The section starts with an overview on labour force participation of women in OIC member countries in a comparative perspective. The figures reveal that in OIC member countries labour force participation rates of women are relatively lower, which can be explained by

inadequate education and health services available for girls and women, restricted economic and social rights for working women, violence against women at work, and underdeveloped civil society organisations. The section further discusses the measures for specific groups in order to increase their participation into labour force. It is evident that in order to cope with inactivity among young and elderly population, policy-makers need to pay a special attention to Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) programmes. It is an effective tool that improves skills of people and encourages labour force to be active in the market. In addition, some job-market reforms would help OIC member countries to have increased labour force participation of women, youth and elderly such as allowing for flexible-working hours, telecommuting and part-time work. Furthermore, the section highlights that for disabled people in

OIC member countries, specific arrangements must be completed in order to create an enabling working environment for them such as improving their access to basic services and enforcing employment quotas.

This section also elaborates on the labour migration topic, which is another important factor that affects labour markets in several ways from employment to wages. The analysis on labour migration is constructed on two-pillars: migration of unskilled and skilled labour force. In this regard, the analysis reflects the specific challenges and opportunities stemming from migration of both groups of workers in OIC member countries. After discussing challenges and opportunities led by labour migration in OIC member countries, specific policy recommendations such as forming dedicated network groups for emigrants have been reported at the end of the section.

LABOUR MARKET STRUCTURE IN OIC COUNTRIES

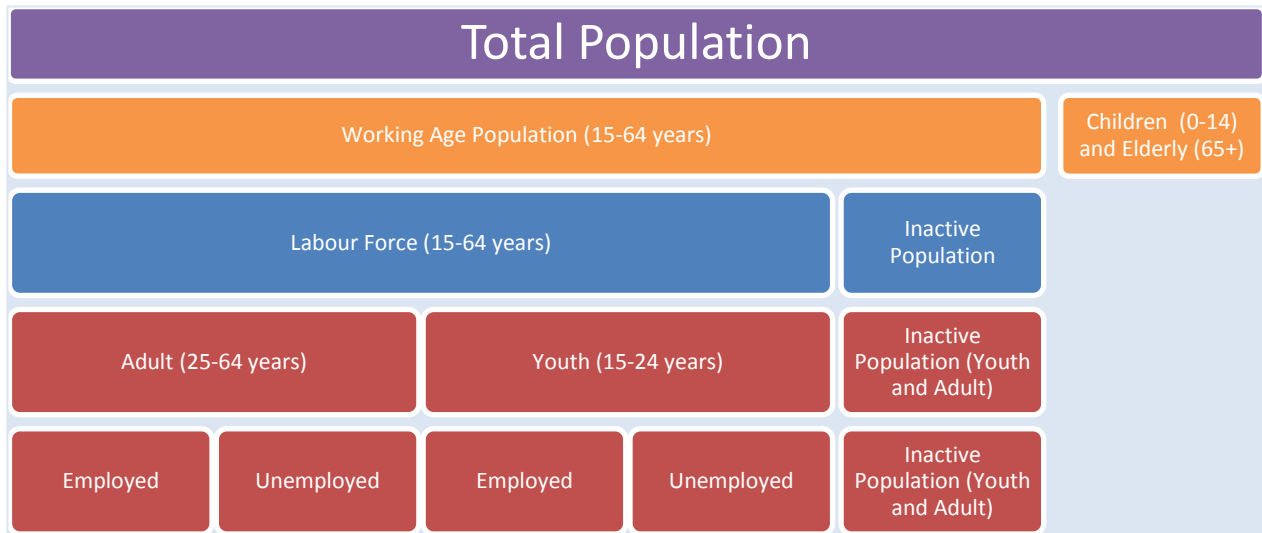
The world economy has been undergoing rapid transformation over the last few decades. Technological innovations, modernization, globalization and regionalization trends, intensified competition in the world markets and privatization are among the factors triggering this transformation. Societies have been, accordingly, experiencing various economic, social, political and cultural changes, with repercussions on the labour market. These changes have been creating new demands for more adaptable, multi-skilled and creative labour force. In such a setting, people who don't have the capability or opportunity to develop and improve their skills face difficulties to compete for new or better job opportunities. Without upgrading the skills, they will not be able to catch up with the rapid changes and new requirements in labour market that they also witness.

The story is, however, not limited to the issue of skills development. 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 are some of the issues that transmit the problems of labour market beyond the issue of skills

development. Two major problems of the labour market faced by many countries are the unemployment and low participation to labour force. Unemployment occurs due to inadequate number of job creation or skills mismatch in the economy. High unemployment is generally associated with low participation rates mainly due to the same reasons, but also due to low level of qualifications, discrimination in employment and low wages.

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 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,

Chart 1.1: Structure of Population from Labour Market Perspective



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 beneficial.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\text{Employment}}{\text{Population}} &= \frac{\text{employment}}{\text{employment} + \text{unemployment}} \times \\ &\frac{\text{employment} + \text{unemployment}}{\text{population}} \\ &= (1 \\ &\quad - \text{unemployment rate}) \times \text{labour force participation rate} \\ &= (1 - \text{unemployment rate}) \times (1 - \text{inactivity rate}) \end{aligned}$$

Or,

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

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.

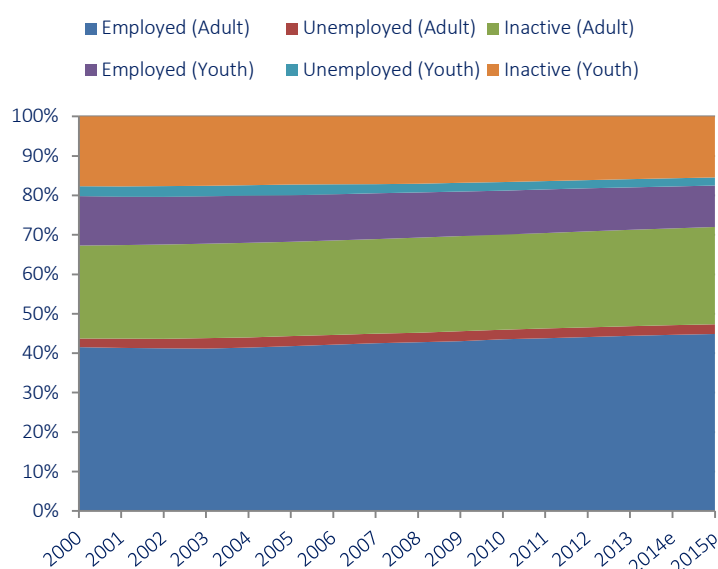
It will be also useful to have an overall look at the structure of labour market in OIC countries in line

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 55% of people are employed in 2014, 44.7% of which are adult and 10.6% are youth. Share of unemployed people represents only 4.6% of total working age population (2.5% adult and 2.1% youth). On the other hand, 40.2% 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 34.5% and in developed countries 39.8%. Therefore, OIC countries need special measures to encourage people to enter actively into the labour market.

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, occupation 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 The data used in this section is obtained from the ILO World Employment and Social Outlook 2015 database. It covers 53 OIC countries, 87 non-OIC developing countries and 33 developed countries. From the OIC member countries, data for Bahrain, Djibouti, Somalia and Syria were missing in the dataset.

Figure 1.1: Structure of Labour Market in OIC Countries (2000-2015)

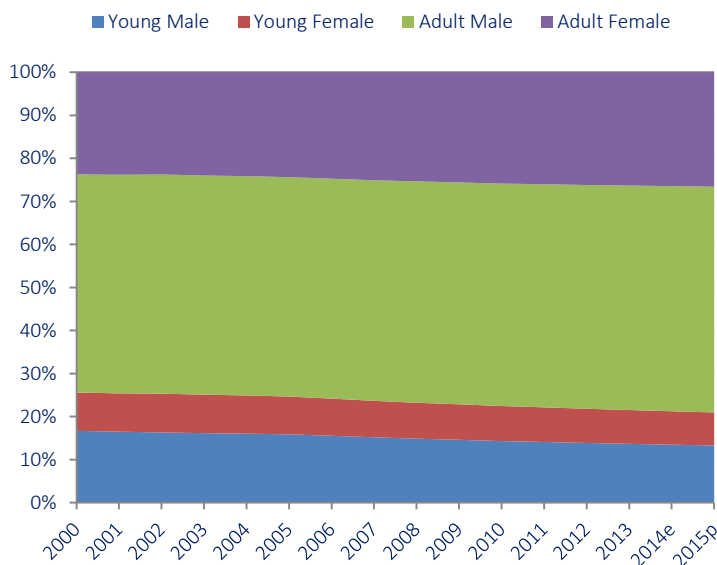


Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated, p: projected).

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: Structure of Labour Force in OIC Countries (2000-2015)



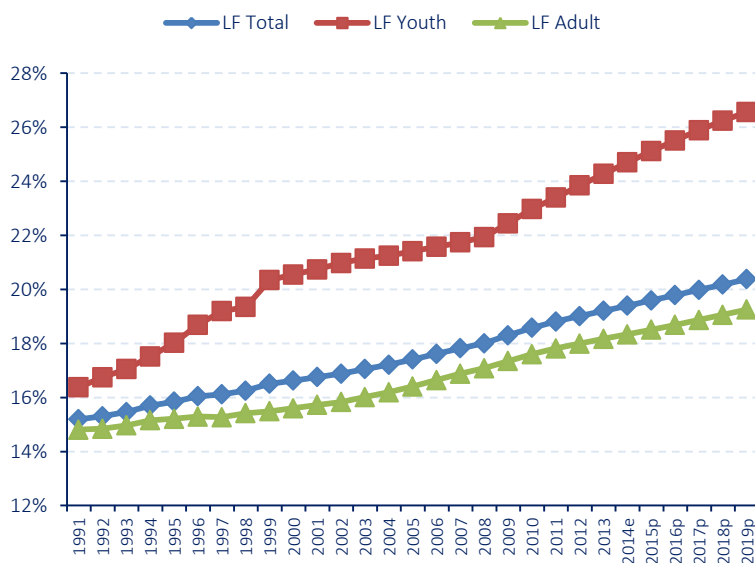
Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated, p: projected).

Figure 1.2 shows the structure of the labour force in OIC countries disaggregated by age group and gender. As of 2014, 78.8% of total labour force in OIC countries is estimated to be adult and the remaining 21.2% is youth. When the labour force

is disaggregated by gender, 65.8% of the total labour force is male (13.5% is youth and 52.3% is adult) and the remaining 34.2% is female (7.7% youth and 26.5% adult). The share of adult labour force vis-à-vis youth labour force is continuously increasing over time and it reached from 74.4% in 2000 to 78.8% in 2014. Similarly, albeit at a slower pace, the share of female labour force is increasing in total labour force and it reached from 32.6% in 2000 to 34.2% in 2014.

With regard to the share of OIC countries in world total labour force, Figure 1.3 shows that OIC countries have constantly increased their share in the world from 15.2% in 1991 to 19.4% in 2014 and it is further expected to increase 20.4% in 2019. On the other hand, the increase in the share of youth labour force is even more striking, which increased from 16.4% in 1991 to 24.7% in 2014 and is projected to increase to 26.6% in 2019. This trend is in line with the increasing share of OIC countries in world total youth population.² Therefore, it is critical for OIC countries to effectively utilize the relatively growing size of youth labour force in economic development.

Figure 1.3: Share of OIC Countries in World Total Labour Force (1991-2019)



Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated, p: projected).

While share of OIC countries in world total labour force is increasing, labour force participation rate is not particularly promising. As shown in Figure 1.4, the total labour force participation rate in OIC member countries, contrary to other country groups, follows a slightly increasing trend, which stood at 59.8% in 2014 compared to 63.5% in the world, 65.6% in non-OIC developing countries and 60.3% in developed countries. In case of labour force participation rate for the male population, OIC member countries recorded a rate of 78% compared to 76.7% in the world, 78.5% in non-OIC

² SESRIC (2015) shows that this share increased from 17.1% to 25.1% and is expected to reach 34.1% as of 2050, indicating that while one out of six young people were living in current OIC member countries in 1960, it is expected that two out of six will be living in OIC countries in 2050.

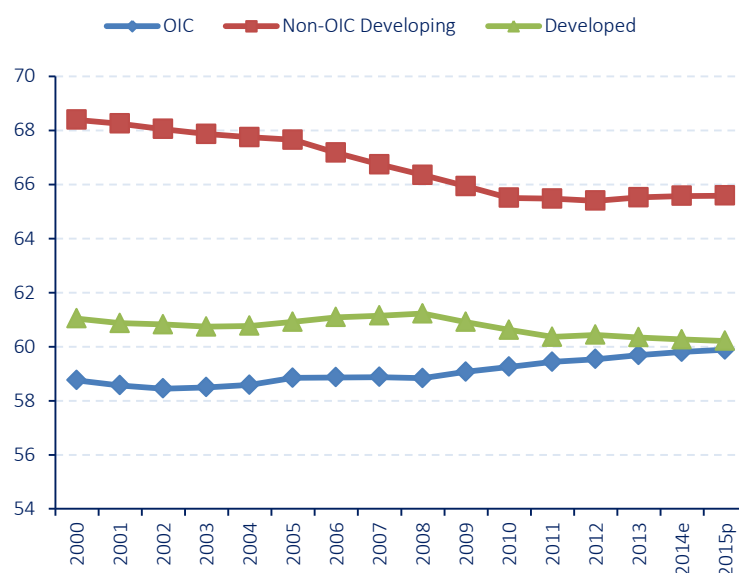
developing countries and 67.7% in developed countries (Figure 1.5). Although OIC member countries registered globally comparable performance in terms of total and male labour force participation rates, their performance in case of female labour force participation rate remained significantly lower. Female labour force participation rate in OIC member countries was recorded at 41.2% in 2014, which is significantly lower than the world average of 50.3%, the average of 52.6% in non-OIC developing countries and the average of 53.2% in developed countries.

However, there is an increasing trend in labour force participation rates in OIC countries, particularly in female participation rates. Since 2000, female participation rate increased from 38.6% to 41.2% in 2014. An upward trend in this indicator is also observed in the case of developed countries from 51.8% in 2000 to 53.2% in 2014, while in non-OIC developing countries, female participation showed a declining trend and fell to 52.6% in 2014 from its level of 55.9% in 2000.

At the individual country level, Qatar registered the highest labour force participation rate (86.6%) in 2014, followed by Mozambique (84.1%), Burkina Faso (83.3%), Togo (81%) and United Arab Emirates (80.5%). 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 Palestine with 41.4%. It is followed by Jordan (41.8%), Iraq (42.4%), Algeria (44.2%) and Iran (45.4%). At the global level, with respect to labour force participation rate, Qatar is ranked at 5th, Mozambique at 8th and Burkina Faso at 10th position. It is also worth mentioning that 12 out of the world 20 countries with lowest participation rates in 2014 are OIC member countries.

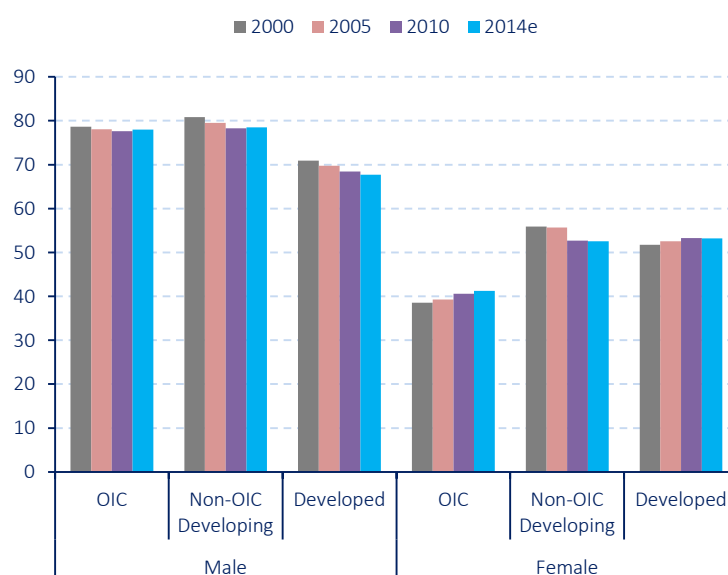
With respect to young population aged 15-24, a declining trend is observed in the labour force participation in all country groups (Figure 1.7). The global youth labour force participation rate, estimated at 47.4% in 2013, remained around 2 percentage points below the pre-crisis level, as more young people, frustrated with their

Figure 1.4: Labour Force Participation Rate (2000-2015)



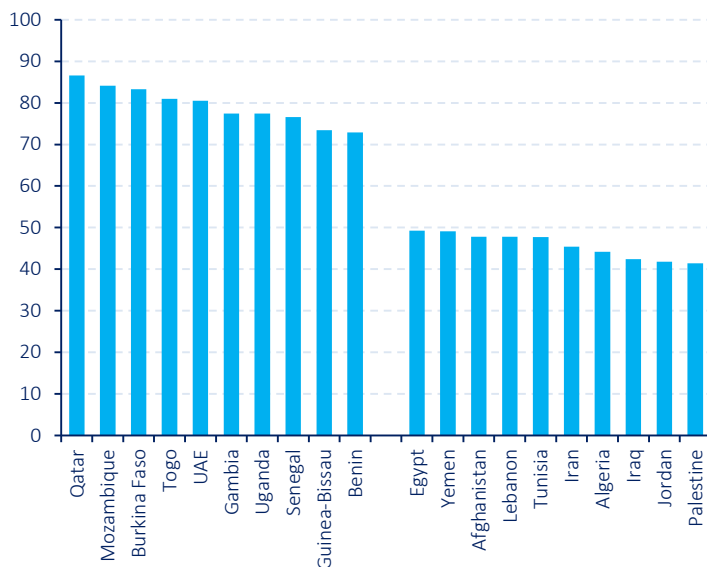
Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated, p: projected).

Figure 1.5: Labour Force Participation Rate by Gender



Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated).

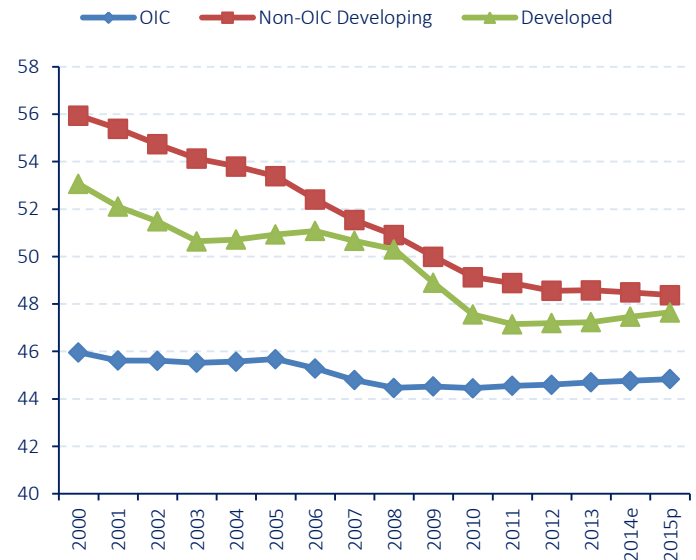
Figure 1.6: Top 10 Countries with Highest and Lowest Participation Rates (2014)



Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset.

employment prospects, continue to drop out of the labour market (ILO, 2014b). In OIC countries between 2000 and 2014, youth labour force participation decreased from 46% to 44.8%, but it decreased even more significantly in other comparison groups, from 53.1% to 47.5% in

Figure 1.7: Youth Labour Force Participation Rate (2000-2012)

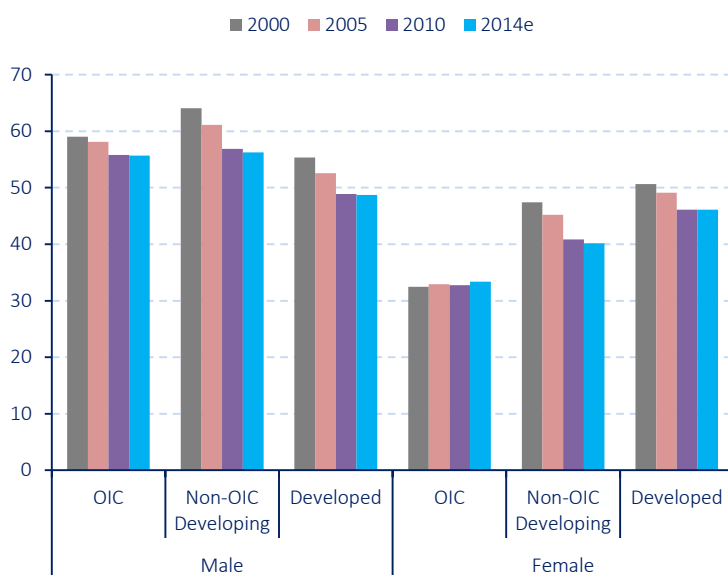


Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated, p: projected).

developed countries and from 55.9% to 48.4% in non-OIC developing countries. The world average has accordingly declined to 48.5% in 2012 compared to its level of 52.9% 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.

Albeit slow, the only increase in youth labour force participation was observed in young female population in OIC countries, which is estimated to increase from 32.5% in 2000 to 33.4% in 2014 (Figure 1.8). However, despite falling trend in other country groups, youth female participation in OIC countries continues to remain significantly below the averages of other country groups. Male participation, on the other hand, showed a declining trend in all country groups during the period under consideration. It decreased from 59.1% to 55.7% in OIC countries, from 64.1% to 56.2% in non-OIC developing countries and from 55.3% to 48.9% in developed countries.

Figure 1.8: Youth Labour Force Participation Rate by Gender



Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated).

At the individual country level, the highest youth labour force participation rate was recorded in Burkina Faso (76.2%), Qatar (66.2%), Senegal (66.2%), Togo (65.8%) and Mozambique (65.3%). 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 20.1% only. It is also the second lowest in the world. Jordan (25.3%), Gabon (25.8%), Palestine (26.3%) and Suriname (28%) are the other countries with lowest youth participation in labour force (Figure 1.9).

1.2 Employment-to-population ratio

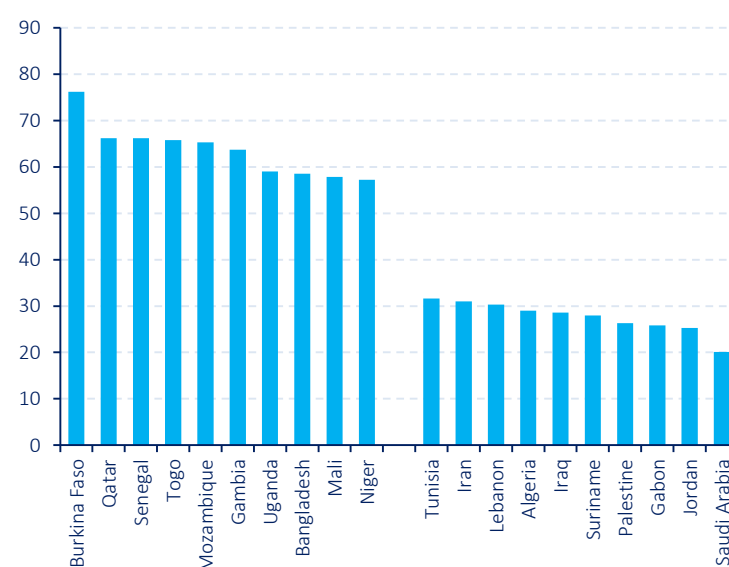
The employment-to-population (E2P) ratio is defined by ILO as the proportion of a country's working-age population that is employed. A high ratio means that a large proportion of a country's population is employed, while a low ratio means that a large share of the population is not involved directly in market-related activities, because they are either unemployed or out of the labour force altogether. The global employment-to-population ratio stood at 59.7% in 2014, a rate which is still below the pre-crisis level of 60.7%. The male employment-to-population ratio at global level stood at 72.4% and the female ratio at 47.1%.

While the E2P ratio in OIC countries increased from 53.2% in 2003 to 55.3% in 2014 (Figure 1.10), a reverse trend was observed in other country groups. In non-OIC developing countries, the ratio decreased from 64.3% in 2000 to 62.2% in 2014, while it decreased to 55.8% in developed countries from its level of 57.3% in 2000. As of 2014, OIC countries narrowed the gap between the developed countries to only 0.5 percentage points, which is a promising figure for the OIC countries.

Employment-to-population ratio for female is only half of the ratio for male population in OIC countries (Figure 1.11). Despite slight increase in the ratio for female, it reached only 37.4% in 2014, whereas the ratio for male was recorded at 72.9% in the same year. In other country groups, such large discrepancy is not observed. The gender gap is 24.9% in non-OIC developing countries, but only 13.4% in developed countries.

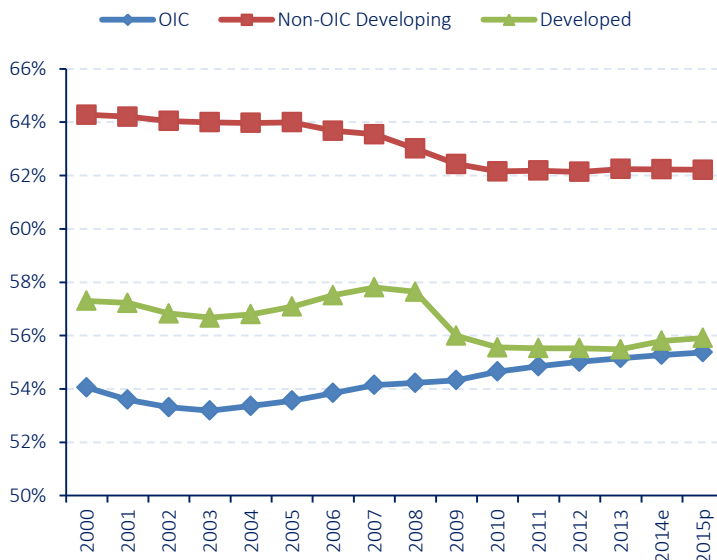
The highest proportion of employment to total working age population in 2014 was recorded in Qatar with 86.4%, which is also the highest ratio in the world (Figure 1.12). It was followed by Burkina Faso (80.7%), United Arab Emirates (77.6%), Togo (75.4%) and Uganda (74.5%). This reflects the fact that 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 30.6%, which was also the lowest in the world. Other countries with low proportion are Iraq (35.4%), Jordan (37.2%), Iran

Figure 1.9: Top 10 Countries with Highest and Lowest Youth Participation Rates (2014)



Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset.

Figure 1.10: Employment to Population Ratio (2000-2015)

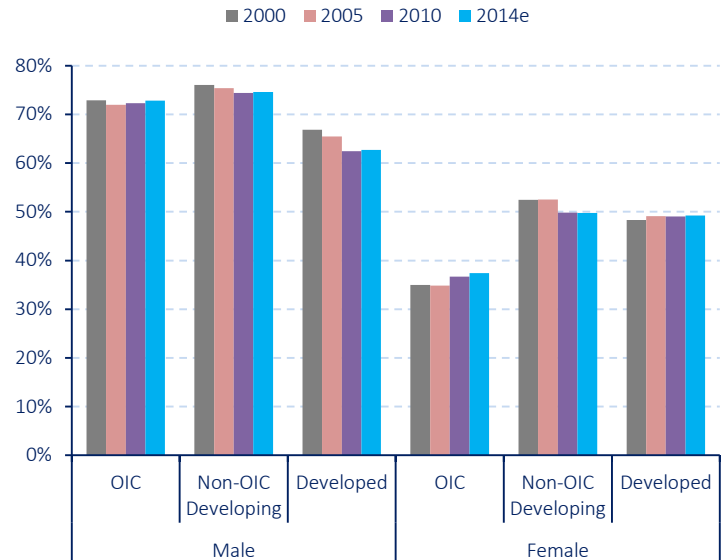


Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated, p: projected).

(39.6%) and Algeria (40%). 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,

Figure 1.11: Employment to Population Ratio by Gender

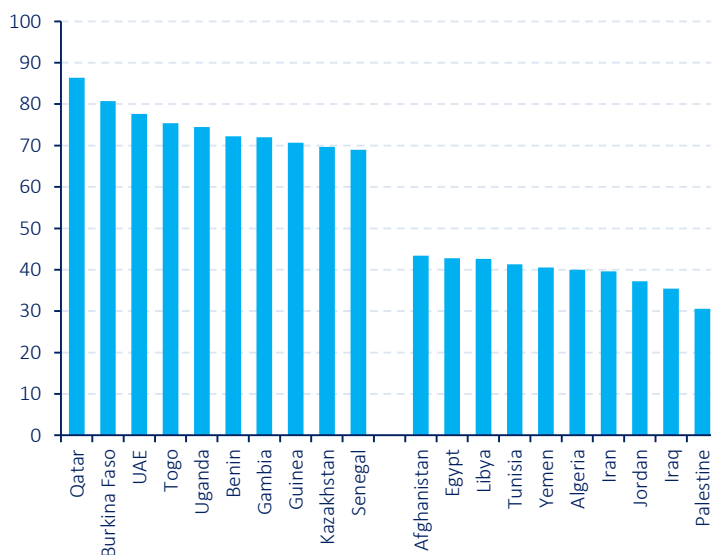


Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated).

we observe a similar trend in employment-to-population ratio. Both in developed and non-OIC developing country groups, there is a clear downward trend in the ratio; however, in the case of OIC countries, there is a more stable picture (Figure 1.13). The ratios disaggregated by gender reveal that they are decreasing for both female and male. The only exception is the young female in OIC countries where the ratio is slightly increased since 2000. It seems to be rather an adjustment in line with average world ratios instead of counter-cyclical movement, as this ratio was already significantly lower than the ratio in other country groups (Figure 1.14).

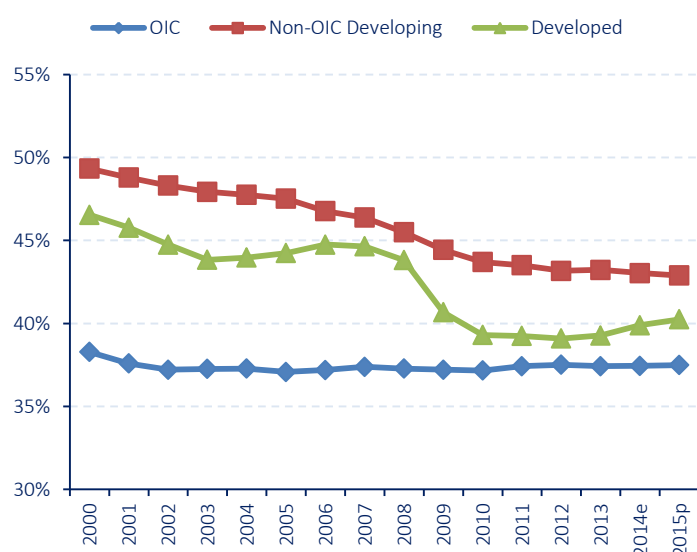
At the individual country level, the ratio of employment to population for youth in 2014 was highest in Burkina Faso with 72.4%, which is also 3rd highest in the world (Figure 1.15). It was followed by Qatar (65.4%), Togo (58.7%), Senegal (57.6%) and Gambia (57%). The lowest ratio was recorded in Saudi Arabia with 14.2%, which is also 7th lowest in the world. It was followed by Palestine (15.1%), Gabon (16.6%), Jordan (18%) and Iraq (18.7%).

Figure 1.12: Top 10 Countries with Highest and Lowest Employment to Population Ratio (2014)



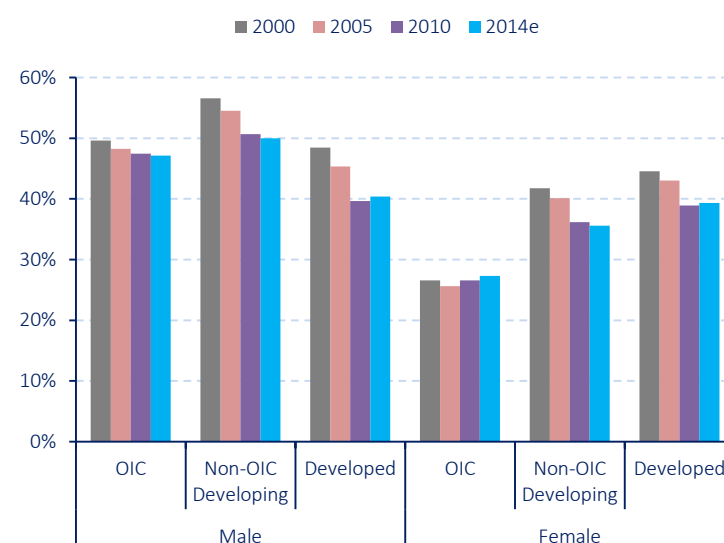
Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset.

Figure 1.13: Employment to Population Ratio (2000-2015), Youth



Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated, p: projected).

Figure 1.14: Employment to Population Ratio by Gender (Youth)



Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated).

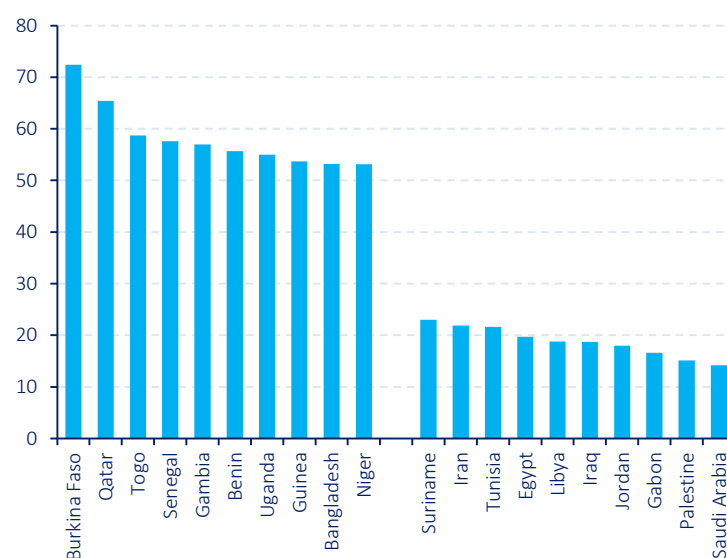
1.3 Status in employment

Categorization by 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.

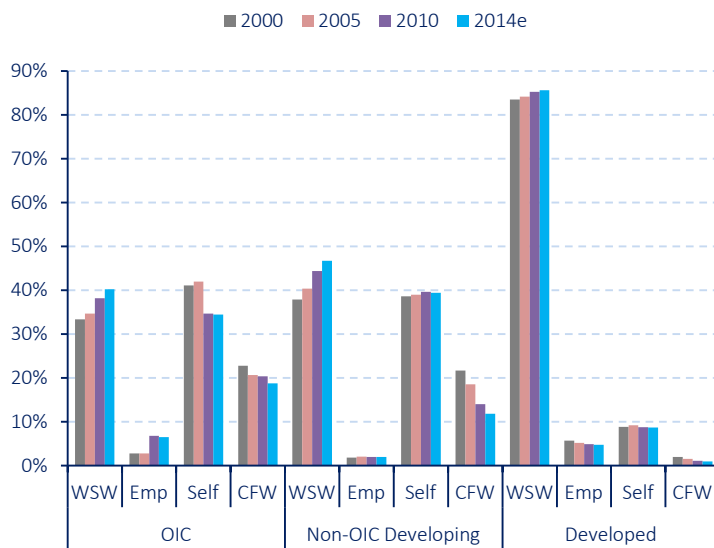
In 2000, wage and salary workers in OIC countries were accounting 33.6%, own-account workers 41.1%, contributing family workers 22.8% and employers 2.8% (Figure 1.16). Over the years, the shares of wage and salary workers and employers have increased, but own-account workers and contributing family workers decreased. As of

2014, 40.3% of the employed people were wage and salary workers, 34.5% own-account workers, 18.8% contributing family workers and 6.5% employers. This indicates that while

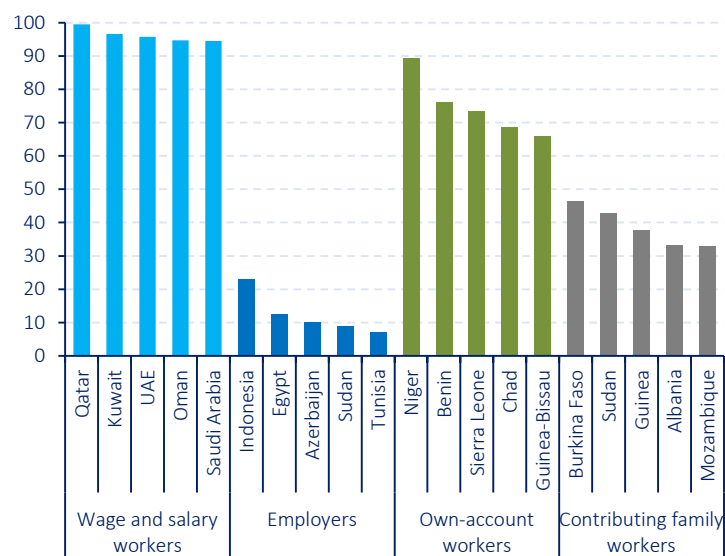
Figure 1.15: Top 10 Countries with Highest and Lowest Employment to Population Ratio (2014)



Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset.

Figure 1.16: Status in Employment


Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated). WSW: Wage and salary workers; Emp: Employers; Self: Own-account workers; CFW: Contributing family workers.

Figure 1.17: Top 5 Countries in Different Status in Employment (2014)


Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset.

entrepreneurship in OIC countries is improving, a larger share of population has a regular job with wage and salaries. However, it should be noted that around 86% of the employed in developed countries are wages and salary workers.

At individual country level in 2014, GCC countries have largest shares of the employed as wage and salary workers, ranging between 99.5% in Qatar and 94.5% in Saudi Arabia (Figure 1.17). The share of employers is highest in Indonesia (23%) and Egypt (12.6%). With respect to the shares of own-account workers, Niger (89.3%) and Benin (76%) are the top countries, followed by some other sub-Saharan African countries. Burkina Faso (46.5%) and Sudan (42.6%) are the top OIC countries with highest shares of contributing family workers in total employed.

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's Global Employment Trends 2014 report, vulnerable employment accounts for almost 48% of total employment and the number of people in vulnerable employment increased by around 1% in 2013, well above the 0.2% growth rates during the years prior to the financial crisis. With the increasing shares of wage and salary workers and employers in OIC countries, share of vulnerable employment has continuously declined to reach 53.2% in 2014 compared to 63.8% in 2000. Non-OIC developing countries have also demonstrated a similar success and reduced the share of vulnerable employment during the same period by 9 percentage points. Overall, the share of vulnerable employment remains excessively high in developing countries.

On the other hand, as shown in Figure 1.19, male workers in OIC countries have made significant progress since 2000 and displayed lower level of vulnerability (46.4%) in 2014 compared to non-OIC developing countries (51.1%). However, despite some improvement, level of vulnerability of female employed remains at 66.9% in 2014, a rate which is higher than that observed in non-OIC developing countries (51.5%).

At individual country level, sub-Saharan African countries have the largest shares of vulnerable employment, reaching up to 95% in Guinea, 94.5% in Niger and 90.4% in Mali (Figure 1.20). 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 (0.8%), Kuwait (2.4%) and Saudi Arabia (3.6%). These countries are also among the lowest in the world.

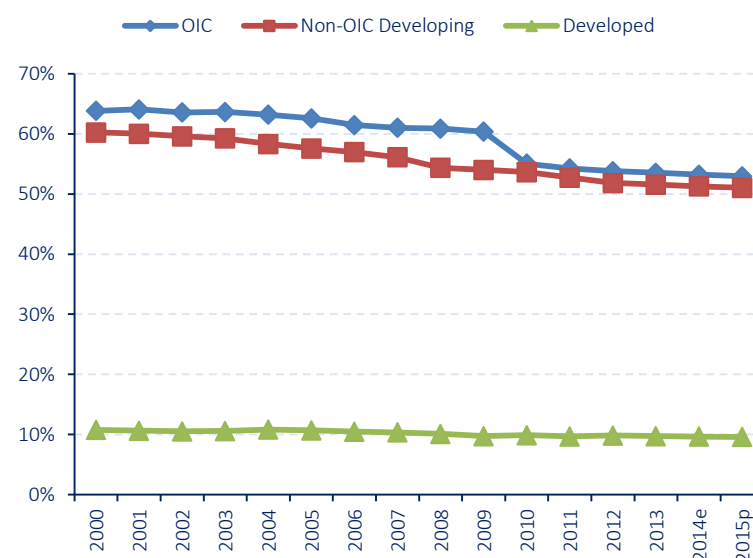
1.4 Employment by sector

Alongside economic development, one would typically expect to see a shift in employment from agriculture to industry and services sectors, with a corresponding increase in wage and salaried workers and decreases in self-employed and contributing family workers, previously employed in the agricultural sector. When total employment is disaggregated into three broad sectors – agriculture, industry and services³ –, the share of employment in agriculture in OIC countries (37.8%) is only slightly higher than the share in non-OIC developing countries (32.7%), whereas only 2.7% of total workers are engaged in agricultural activities in developed countries (Figure 1.21). Industry sector accounts similar shares of employment in all country groups, 19.4% in OIC countries, 22.5% in non-OIC developing countries and 21.6% in developed countries. 75.7% of total employment in developed countries is concentrated in services sector, while this share is around 42.8% in OIC countries and 44.8% in non-OIC developing

³ 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.

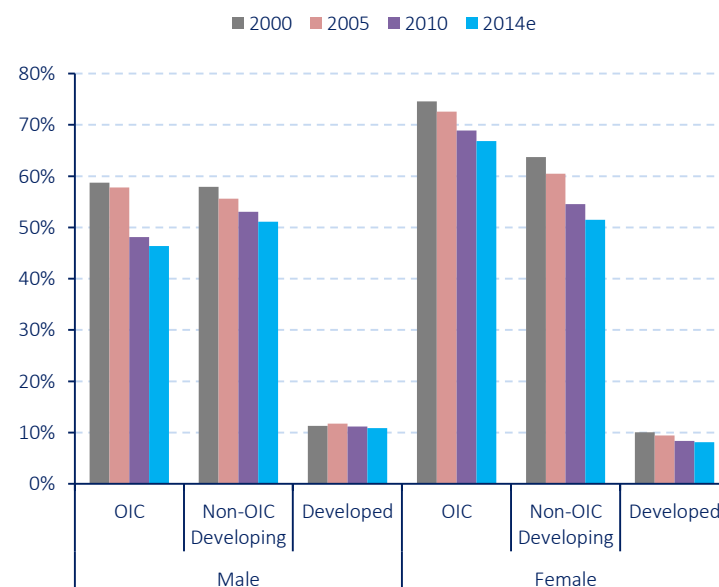
countries. Overall in OIC countries, while the share of agriculture in total employment is declining, the shares of industry and services are rising.

Figure 1.18: Vulnerable Employment



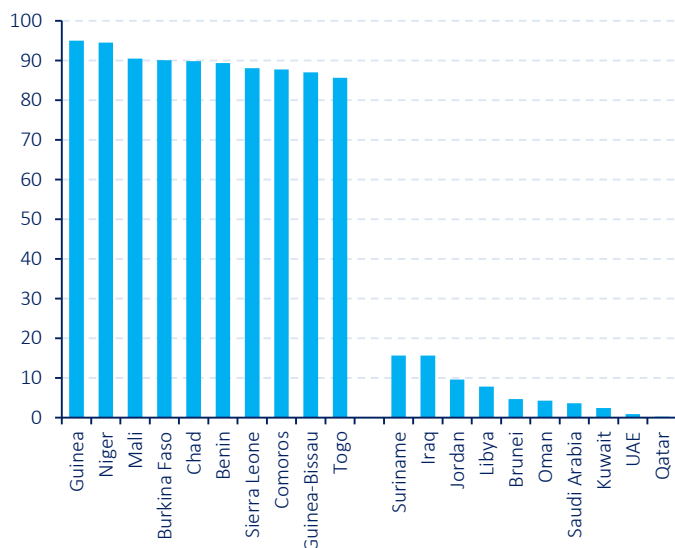
Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated, p: projected).

Figure 1.19: Share of Vulnerable Employment by Gender



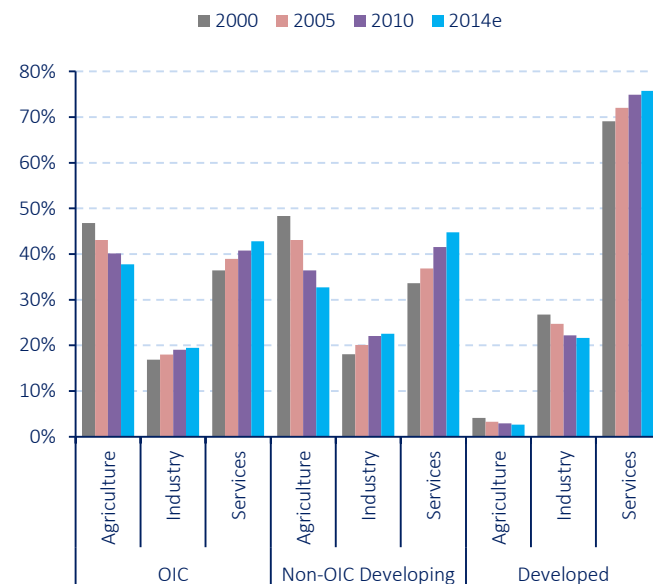
Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated).

Figure 1.20: Top 10 Countries with Highest and Lowest Shares of Vulnerable Employment



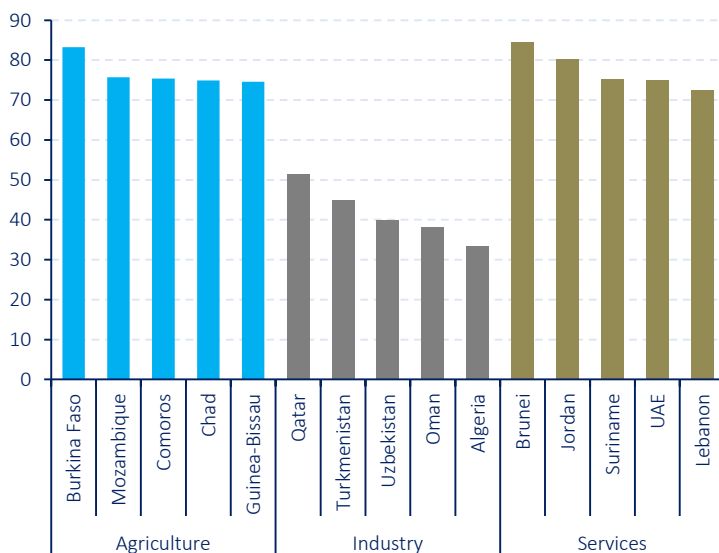
Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset.

Figure 1.21: Employment by Sector



Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated).

Figure 1.22: Top 5 Countries with Highest Shares of Employment in Agriculture, Industry and Services



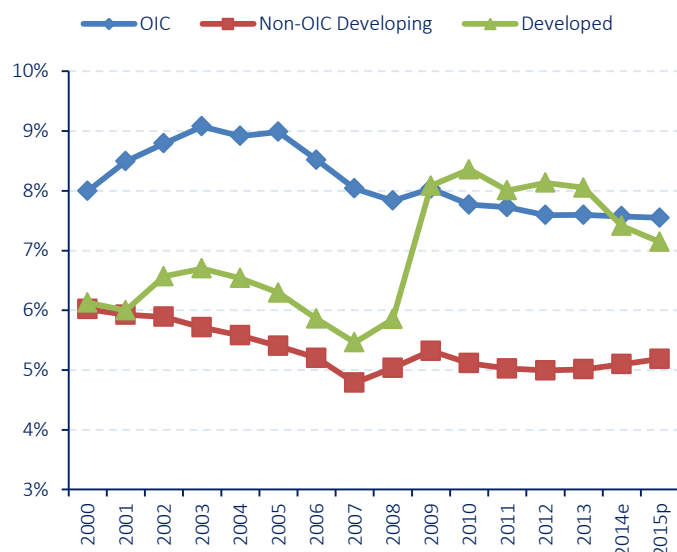
Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset.

At the individual country level, share of agriculture is highest in Burkina Faso (83.2%), Mozambique (75.7%) and Comoros (75.4%), as depicted in Figure 1.22. Burkina Faso has also the second highest share in agricultural employment in the world. Share of industry in total

employment is highest in Qatar (51.5%), Turkmenistan (44.8%), Uzbekistan (39.9%) and Oman (38.2%). Qatar, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan and Oman are also the top 4 countries with the highest shares of industrial employment in the world. Finally share of services sector is highest in Brunei (84.6%), Jordan (80.3%) and Suriname (75.1%).

1.5 Unemployment

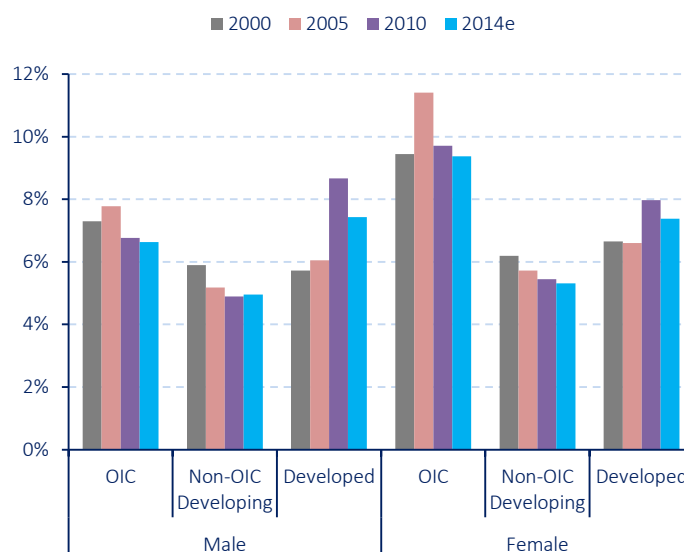
Unemployment remained one of the most challenging issues across the globe. According to the ILO World Employment and Social Outlook 2015 report, almost 202 million people were unemployed in 2014 around the world, with 1.2 million additional unemployed compared with the previous year and about 31 million more compared with 2007. This reflects the fact that employment is not expanding sufficiently fast to keep up with the growing labour force. Whereas, around 23 million people estimated to have dropped out of the labour market due to discouragement and rising long-term

Figure 1.23: Unemployment Rates (2000-2015)

Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated, p: projected).

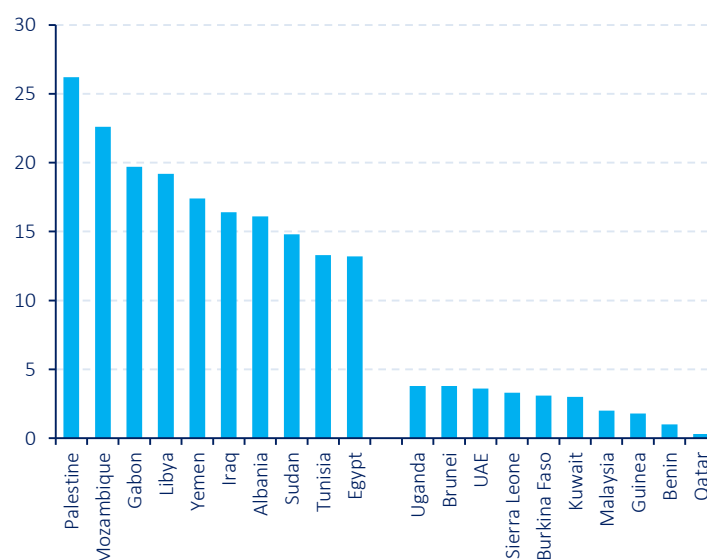
unemployment. According to the same report, the global unemployment rate remained at 5.9% of the global labour force, 0.1 percentage point lower than the year before. Due to ongoing uncertainties about world economic developments in 2015, little improvement is expected in the global labour market in 2015, with the global unemployment rate projected to stabilize at 5.9% between 2015 and 2017.

According to 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 2000-2008 (Figure 1.23). During this period, total unemployment rate in OIC countries changed between 7.8% and 9.1%. After the global financial crisis, unemployment rates in developed countries increased from a level below 6% to over 8%. During the post-crisis period (2009-2013), average unemployment rate in developed countries remained higher than the rate in OIC countries. As of 2014, OIC countries attained a rate of 7.6%. However, it is estimated that developed countries managed to lower the

Figure 1.24: Unemployment Rates by Gender

Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated, p: projected).

rate to 7.4%, which is again lower than the rate in OIC countries. Average unemployment rate in non-OIC developing countries remained significantly lower (around 2-3%) than the OIC average during the whole period under consideration.

Figure 1.25: Top 10 Countries with Highest and Lowest Rates of Unemployment (2014)

Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset.

Unemployment rates for male are typically lower than the rates for female in all country groups (Figure 1.24). Despite significant improvement since 2005, female unemployment in OIC countries remains highest with 9.4% in 2014. It is estimated at 5.3% in non-OIC developing countries and 7.4% in developed countries for the same year. Male unemployment in OIC countries

has decreased from 7.8% in 2005 to 6.6% in 2014 and from 5.2% to 4.9% in non-OIC developing countries during the same period. On the other hand, there is an upward trend in male unemployment rates in developed countries, which increased from 6.1% in 2005 to 7.4% in 2014.

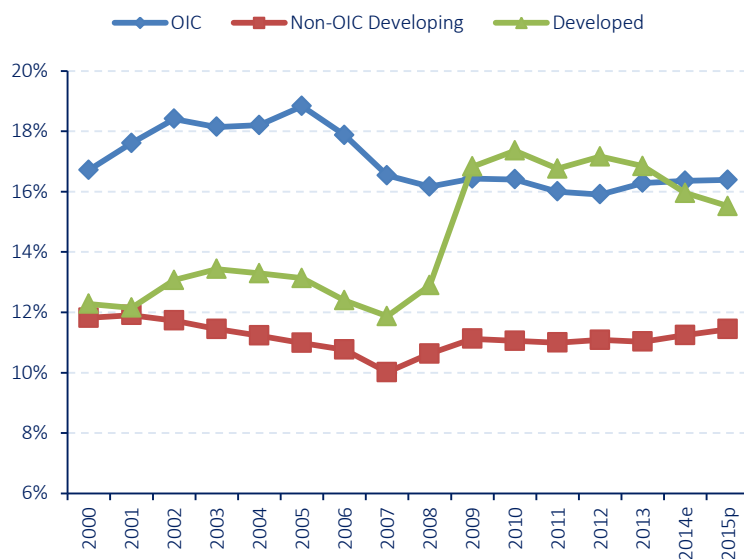
At the individual country level, unemployment rates varied among OIC countries (Figure 1.25). The unemployed people in 2014 constituted less than one 1% of total labour force in Qatar (0.3%), which is also the lowest rate in the world. Benin (1%), Guinea (1.8%) and Malaysia (2%) are also among the ten countries in the world with lowest unemployment rates. However, unemployment is a serious concern in Palestine (26.2%), Mozambique (22.6%) and Gabon (19.7%).

1.6 Youth unemployment

Youth (aged 15 to 24 years) continued to suffer from lack of decent job opportunities across the globe. According to the latest estimates, some 73.7 million young people were unemployed in 2014. There were 30.5 million fewer young people in employment in 2014 than in 2007, while the global youth unemployment rate has reached 13% in 2014, which is almost three times as high as the adult unemployment rate (ILO, 2015). It is particularly high in the Middle East and North Africa (29.5%).

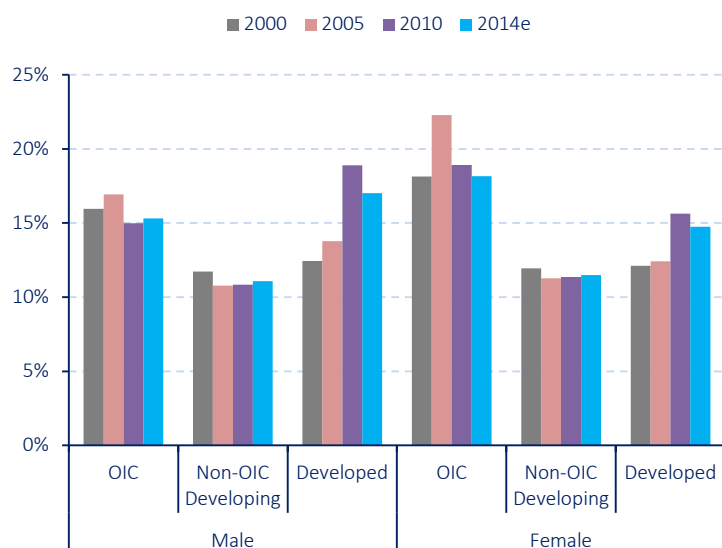
The figures on youth unemployment rates in OIC countries are even less promising. The rate remained constantly above 16% and also well above the averages of non-OIC developing and developed countries during the period between 2000 and 2014, except a slightly lower rate in 2012 with 15.9%. After the crisis, the problem of youth unemployment in developed countries became even more serious compared to that in OIC countries (Figure 1.26). As of 2014, however, youth unemployment in developed countries

Figure 1.26: Youth Unemployment (2000-2015)



Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated, p: projected).

Figure 1.27: Youth Unemployment by Gender

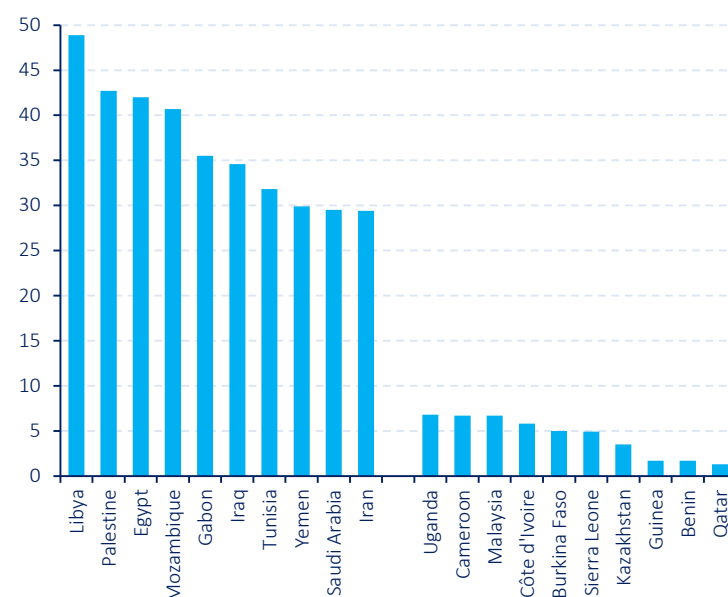


Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated).

(16%) dropped to the levels below the OIC countries (16.4%), while it was as low as 11.2% in non-OIC developing countries.

As in other major labour market indicators, despite some improvement since 2005, female unemployment among young people is highest in OIC countries. It fell to 18.2% in 2014 from its level of 22.3% in 2005 (Figure 1.27). While female unemployment among youth has been decreasing in non-OIC developing countries during the period under consideration, it followed an upward trend in developed countries. As of 2014, it was estimated at 11.5% in non-OIC developing countries and 14.8% in developed countries. With respect to male unemployment among youth in 2014, it increased to 15.3% in OIC countries and 11.1% in non-OIC developing countries, but decreased to 17% in developed countries compared to the year before.

Figure 1.28: Top 10 Countries with Highest and Lowest Rates of Youth Unemployment (2014)

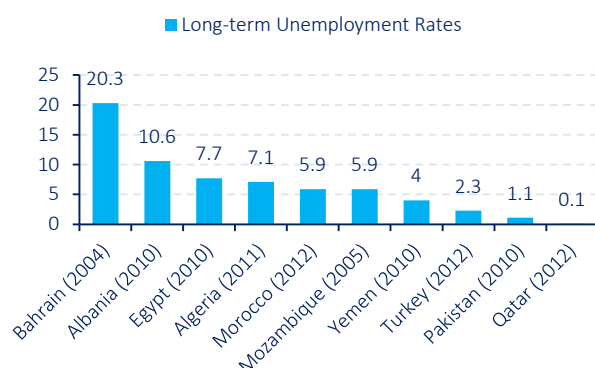


Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset.

Box 1.1: Long-term Unemployment

Long-term unemployment (LTU) refers to the number of people with continuous periods of unemployment extending for a year or longer. It is the key indicator used to assess the urgency of the unemployment problem and the effects of active labour market policies. Long-term unemployed workers are usually less educated than employed workers but actually somewhat more educated than discouraged workers. Economic crisis particularly increases the share of people in LTU.

Unemployment undoubtedly has many costs and its financial impacts are more obvious. In addition, once workers who were previously unemployed find jobs, their earnings are persistently lower than before their unemployment spell. In addition to its impact on wellbeing, it can also be detrimental to other family members. They are also likely to report loss of self-respect and confidence. Therefore, specific policies should be developed to target the people who are in the labour market but not finding suitable jobs for longer periods of time.



In 10 OIC countries, for which data are available, there are wide discrepancies. In Bahrain, LTU rate is over 20%, but in Qatar it is only 0.1%. Pakistan (1.1%) and Turkey (2.3%) have also relatively lower LTU rates. However, the situation in Albania (10.6%), Egypt (7.7%) and Algeria (7.1%) is more critical.

(Data source: ILO, KILM 8th Edition).

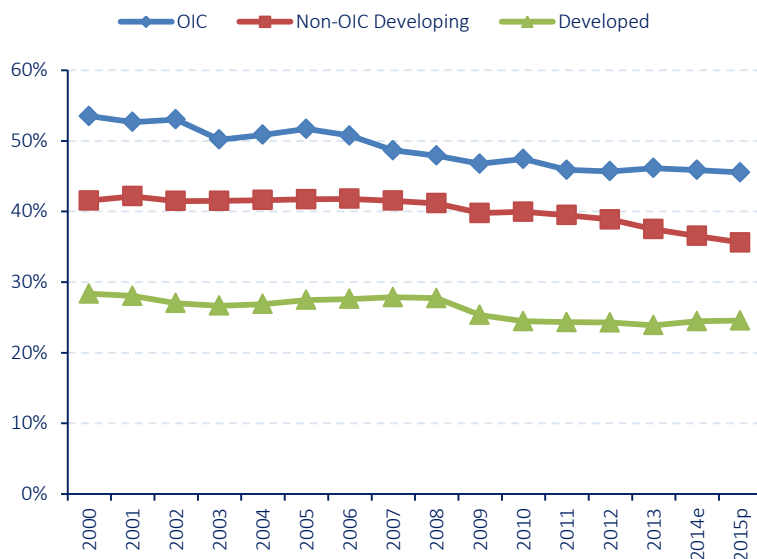
There are again wide discrepancies in youth unemployment rates across OIC countries. Qatar (1.3%), Benin (1.7%) and Guinea (1.7%) are the countries with lowest unemployment rates in 2014, which are also among top five countries in

the world (Figure 1.28). Kazakhstan (3.5%) also recorded a low youth unemployment rate and remains among the top ten countries in the world. In contrast, the highest youth unemployment rate was estimated in Libya (48.9%), followed by Palestine (42.7%), Egypt (42%), Mozambique (40.7%) and Gabon (35.5%). In 2014, youth unemployment rate was above 20% in 21 OIC countries and above the world average of 13% in 31 countries.

Share of youth population in total population is significantly higher in OIC countries compared to other country groups (SESRIC, SWOT Outlook 2012). Therefore, due to high youth population and high youth unemployment rates in OIC countries, the share of youth unemployed in total unemployed in OIC countries will be considerably above the share in other country groups. This fact is depicted in Figure 1.29. 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 45.9% in 2014 from its level of 53.5% in 2000. However, it can still be regarded as a significantly high number. There is also a declining trend in other country groups, albeit with slow pace. It decreased to 36.5% in 2014 from 41.5% in 2000 in non-OIC developing countries and from 28.4% to 24.5% in developed countries. There is also no substantial discrepancy across gender (Figure 1.30). Generally, the share for male is 1-2 percentage points higher than the share for female in all country groups.

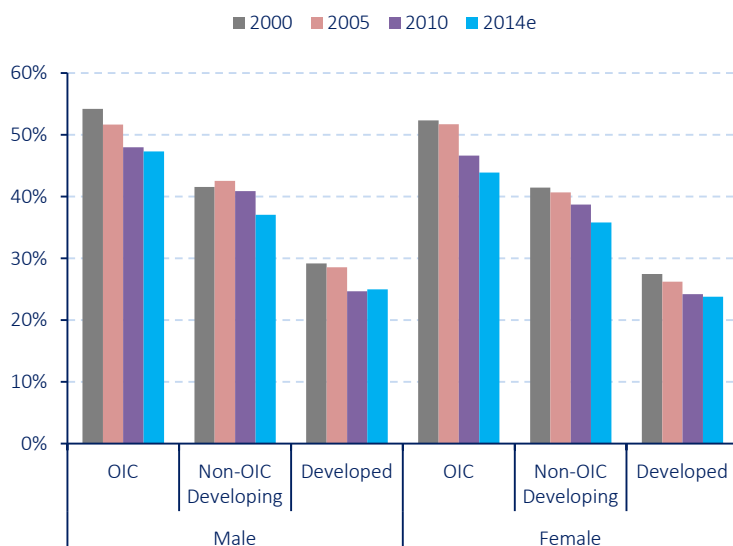
But, the critical question is why youth unemployment rates are higher than adult unemployment rates. According to ILO (2006), there are many likely explanations. Firstly, youth are more vulnerable than adults in difficult economic times. Assuming that employers seek employees with past working experience, the youth who is entering the labour force for the first time will be at a disadvantage and have a harder

Figure 1.29: Share of Youth Unemployed in Total Unemployed (2000-2015)



Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated, p: projected).

Figure 1.30: Share of Youth Unemployed in Total Unemployed by Gender



Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated).

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 future 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 pleasant. According to the ILO, the global youth unemployment rate is expected to increase to 13.1% in 2015 and then remain unchanged through 2018, with increases projected in the three Asian regions and in the Middle East, partially offset by a projected decline in the Developed Economies and European Union region. Therefore, greater emphasis should be given to young people through promoting their participation into labour market, providing required skills and facilitating to find suitable jobs.

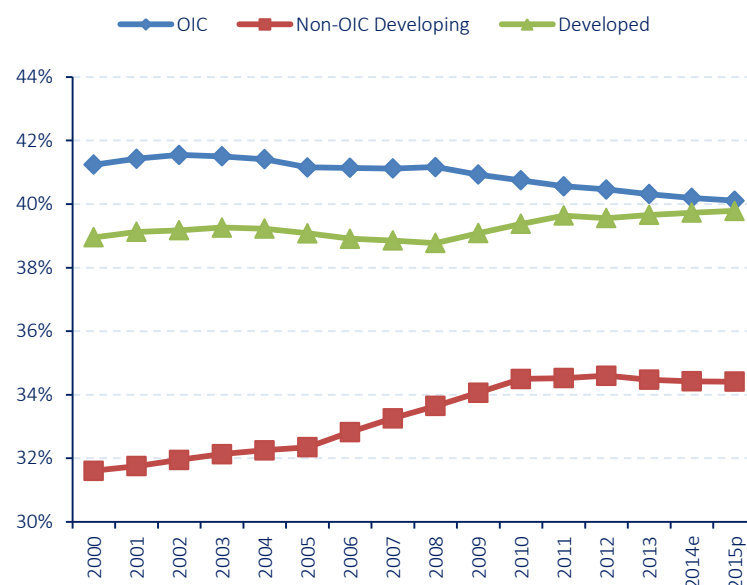
1.7 Inactivity

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 in section 1.1 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,

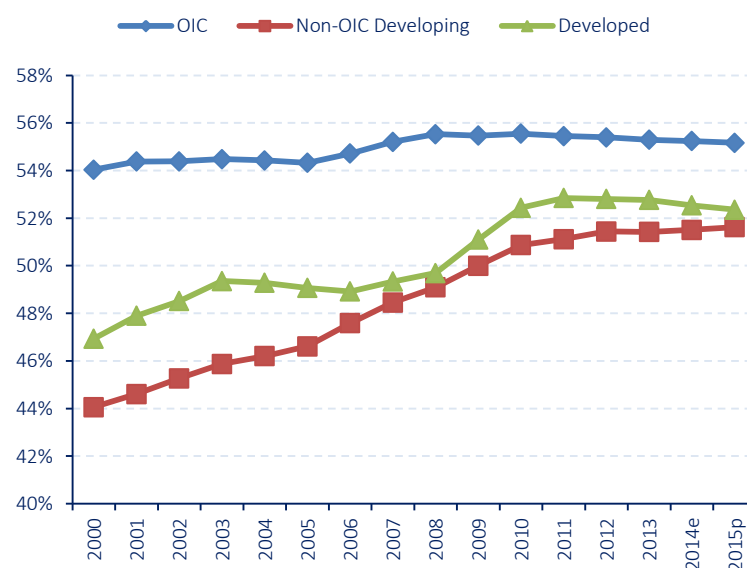
retirement, sickness, disability, education, unavailability of suitable jobs, and unwillingness to work. Increases in the number of people who are inactive, for whatever reason, can have an impact on the unemployment rate as it can reduce the number employed, unemployed or both. If the number of unemployed is held

Figure 1.31: Inactivity Rate (2000-2015)



Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated, p: projected).

Figure 1.32: Youth Inactivity Rate (2000-2015)



Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated, p: projected).

constant, a fall in the number of employed will increase the unemployment rate.

Inactivity rate in OIC countries is falling only in slow pace. It decreased to 40.2% in 2014 from 41.2% in 2000 (Figure 1.31). In contrast, a slightly

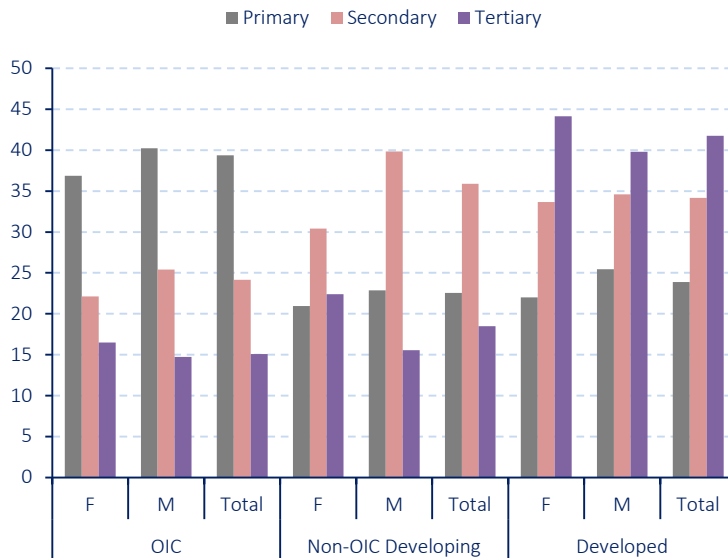
upward trend is observed in non-OIC developing countries and developed countries. The share of inactive population in non-OIC developing countries increased to 34.4% in 2014 from 31.6% in 2000. Inactivity among female in OIC countries shows a declining trend, which fell to 58.8% in 2014 from its level of 61.6% in 2000. Inactivity among female is relatively low in non-OIC developing countries (47.4%) and developed countries (46.8%). For male, there is a slightly upward trend in all country groups (see Figure 1.5). At individual country level, Qatar, Mozambique and Burkina Faso have the lowest rate of inactivity and Palestine, Jordan and Iraq have the highest rates of inactivity (see Figure 1.6 in section 1.1).

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 1.32). In 2014, 55.2% of young people remain out of labour force. In developed and non-OIC developing countries, this rate is 52.5% and 51.5%, respectively. These both country groups experience an increase around 6% in youth inactivity rate, which can largely be explained by participation in full-time education.

1.8 Educational attainment

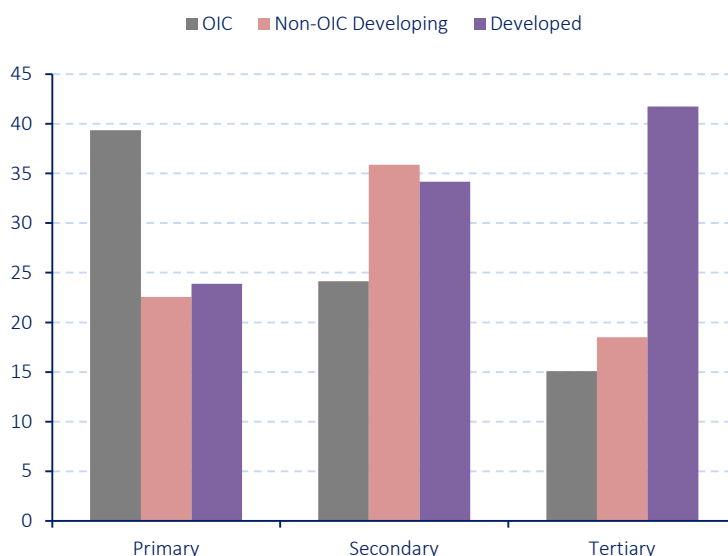
Formal education is highly instrumental to improve the production capacity of a society. Better education improves the production process in several ways. Educated, or skilled, workers are able to perform complex tasks and thereby contribute to producing more technologically sophisticated products. Especially 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

Figure 1.33: Shares of Labour Force with Primary, Secondary and Tertiary Education



Source: ILO, KILM 8th Edition. Note: Shares are weighted averages of 30 OIC countries, 76 non-OIC developing countries and 33 developed countries.

Figure 1.34: Shares of Labour Force with Primary, Secondary and Tertiary Education by Gender



Source: ILO, KILM 8th Edition.

level of labour force is generally classified according to specific level of education they attained. As the share of labour force with secondary and tertiary education increases, the ability to adopt new skills and absorb new knowledge increases.

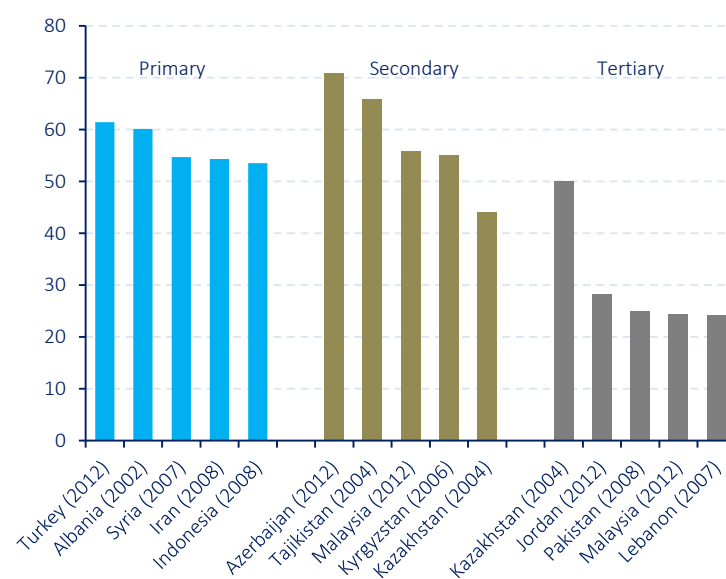
According to the latest data available, OIC countries are not portraying a charming picture. 39.4% of the labour force has only primary education (Figure 1.33). The shares of labour force with secondary and tertiary education are only 24.2% and 15.1%, respectively. Apparently around 20% of labour force in OIC countries does not have even primary level education. Non-OIC developing countries have a slightly better picture, where the shares of labour force with primary, secondary and tertiary level education are 22.6%, 35.9% and 18.4%, respectively. Again around 22% of labour force in non-OIC developing countries did not complete even primary level education. Share of labour force with secondary education in non-OIC developing countries is around 12% higher than that in OIC countries, which makes a quite significant difference. Developed countries, on the other hand, are well endowed with skilled labour force, where 41.8% of all their labour force has already completed tertiary level of education and another 34.2% have completed secondary level of education. Remaining 23.9% have their primary level of education completed and there is almost no labour force without their primary level of education.

In OIC countries, female labour force with tertiary education (16.5%) is higher than the male labour force (14.7%). However, the share of female labour force without any educational attainment is also around 3-4 percentage points higher than the male labour force (Figure 1.34). The share of male labour force with primary education and secondary education are also 3-4 percentage points higher than the share of female labour

force. In non-OIC developing countries, the share of female labour force with tertiary education (22.4%) is far above the male labour force (15.6%). There is also a similar picture in developed countries, where the share of female labour force with tertiary education (44.1%) is well above their male counterparts (39.8%).

Countries with highest shares of labour force with primary, secondary and tertiary education in the OIC region are depicted in Figure 1.35. Turkey has the largest share of labour force with primary education (61.4%). In secondary education, central Asian countries appear to have highest shares. Azerbaijan (71%, which is also third highest in the world), Tajikistan (65.9%), Malaysia (55.8%), Kyrgyz Republic (55.1%) and Kazakhstan (44%) occupy the first five positions in the rank. Share of labour force with tertiary education is by far the highest in Kazakhstan (50%, which is also the fourth highest ratio in the world), followed by Jordan (28.3%) and Pakistan (25.1%).

Figure 1.35: Top 5 Countries with Highest Shares of Labour Force with Primary, Secondary and Tertiary Education



Source: ILO, KILM 8th Edition.

1.9 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.

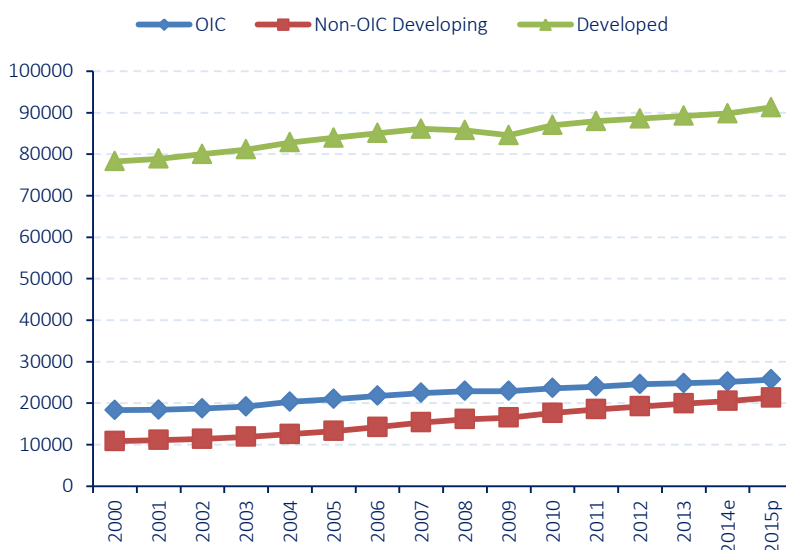
At the global level, labour productivity has witnessed an increasing trend during the period 2000-2014. As shown in Figure 1.36, output per worker in OIC countries has increased from US\$ 18,300 in 2000 to US\$ 25,100 in 2014. This upward trend was only affected by financial crisis in 2008 during the 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\$ 89,800 in 2014 compared to just US\$ 20,500 in non-OIC developing countries and US\$ 25,100 in OIC countries, expressed in constant 2011 international dollar in PPP. This means that an average worker in the group of non-OIC developing countries produces only 22.8% of the output produced by an average worker in the developed countries and an average worker in OIC countries produces only 28% 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 89.4% increase, non-OIC developing countries have almost doubled their level of labour productivity over the period 2000-2014. On the other hand, workers in OIC countries could increase their productivity only by 37.3%. This figure is 14.8% in developed countries.

At the individual country level, Qatar registered the highest output per worker (US\$ 174,000) in 2014, followed by Kuwait (US\$ 158,300), Brunei Darussalam (US\$ 156,900), Saudi Arabia (US\$ 144,000) and United Arab Emirates (US\$ 93,200). Among the OIC member countries, the lowest labour productivity level was recorded in Niger (US\$ 2,900) followed by Guinea (US\$ 3,000) and Guinea-Bissau (US\$ 3,000). Only five member countries recorded output per worker higher than the average of developed countries (Figure 1.38).

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



Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated, p: projected).

1.10 Employment by occupation

The series of tasks that workers perform and the skills demanded by their jobs are highly critical in assessing the labour market structure and devising new policies. Tasks are commonly disaggregated among routine and non-routine tasks and then further disaggregated into manual and cognitive tasks (Table 1.1). Routine tasks, both cognitive routine and manual routine, tend to be middle-skill jobs that require the ability to follow precise, well-understood procedures, which can, in principle, be carried out by a computer. Routine manual tasks are activities like production and monitoring jobs performed on an assembly line, easily automated and often replaced by machines. Routine cognitive tasks include activities that are sufficiently well-defined that they can be carried out by a less-educated worker with minimal discretion; also increasingly replaced by computer software algorithms (Autor and Price, 2013).

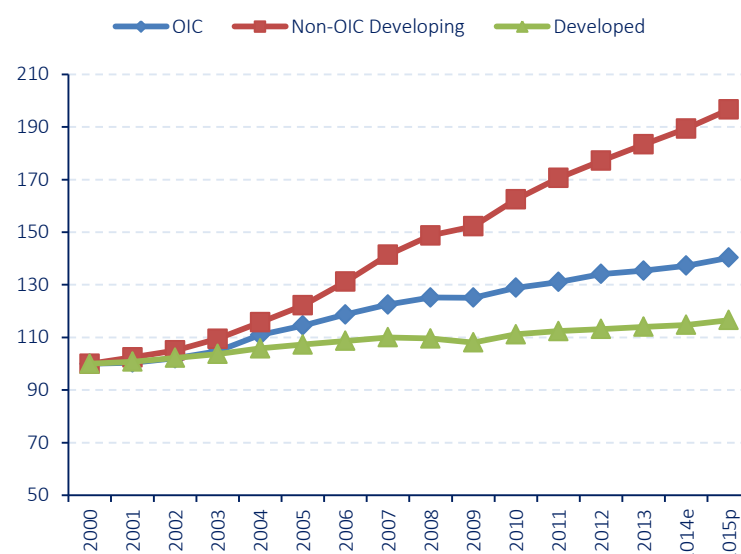
Table 1.1: Employment Classification Grid

	Routine	Non-routine
Manual (blue collar)	Production	Food service
	Crafts	Personal care
	Operative Repair	Protective service
Cognitive (white collar)	Clerical	Professional
	Administrative	Technical
	Sales	Managerial

Source: Cheremukhin (2014).

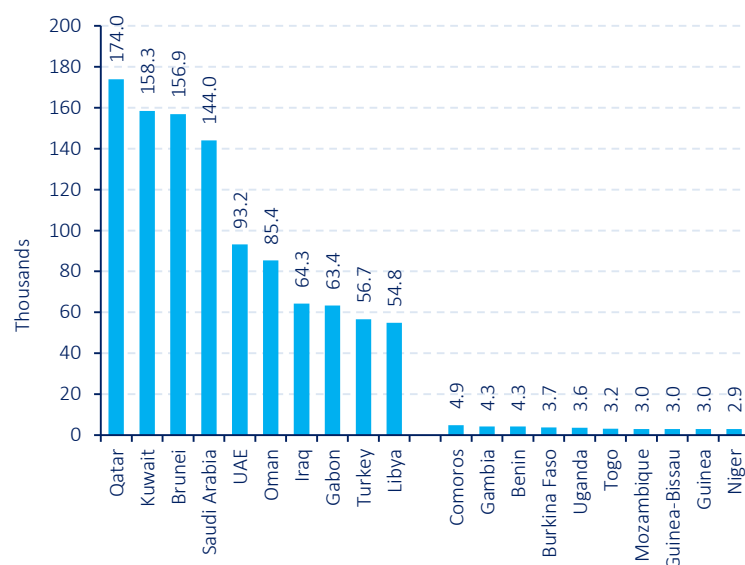
Non-routine tasks are complementary to the automated activities. Cognitive non-routine jobs are usually high-skill jobs that require performing abstract tasks such as problem solving, intuition and persuasion. These tasks are characteristic of professional, managerial, technical and creative occupations, such as law, medicine, science, engineering, marketing and design. Manual non-

Figure 1.37: Labour Productivity Index



Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (p: projected).

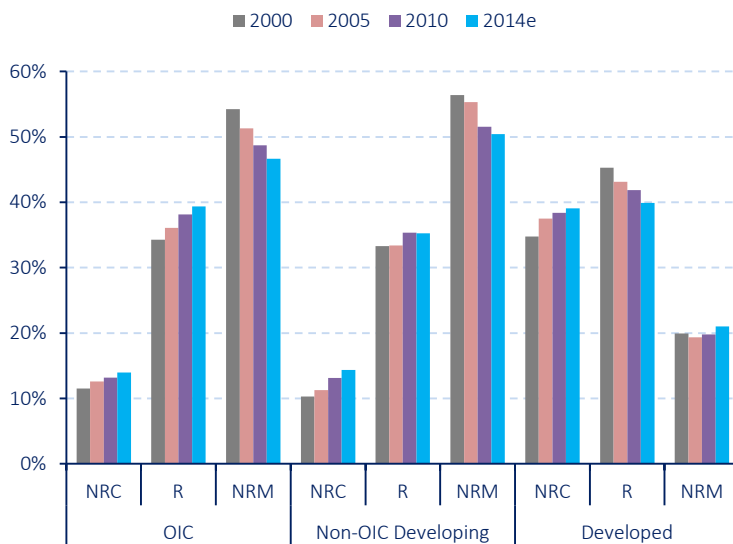
Figure 1.38: Top 10 Countries with Highest and Lowest Labour Productivity (2014)



Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset.

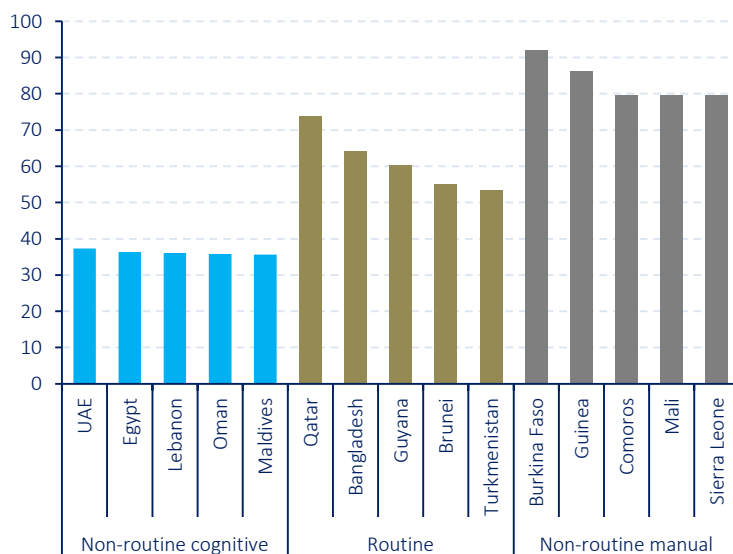
routine jobs are mostly low-skill jobs that involve manual tasks and require personal traits such as situational adaptability, visual/language recognition and in-person interaction and they require modest amounts of training.

Figure 1.39: Employment by Occupation



Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated). NRC: Non-routine cognitive; R: Routine; NRM: Non-routine manual.

Figure 1.40: Employment by Occupation



Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset.

In OIC countries, the share of routine jobs is increasing over time and it reached 39.4% in 2014 from 34.3% in 2000, almost 5 percentage points increase (Figure 1.39). The share of higher-paying high-skill (non-routine cognitive) jobs is also on the rise, which increased 2.5 percentage points

over the last 14 years. On the other hand, the share of lower-paying low-skill (non-routine manual) jobs is constantly declining. Its share dropped from 54.2% in 2000 to 46.7% in 2014. Non-OIC developing countries follow a similar trend but the total increase in the share of non-routine cognitive jobs (4.1 percentage points) is higher than that in OIC countries. Developed countries, in contrast, experience fall in routine jobs and increase in both types of non-routine jobs.

Figure 1.40 shows the top 5 OIC countries in terms of the shares in different types of occupation. In non-routine cognitive (high skill) jobs, United Arab Emirates (37.3%), Egypt (36.3%), Lebanon (36.1%), Oman (35.8%) and Maldives (35.6%) are the top OIC countries. In routine jobs, Qatar (73.7%), Bangladesh (64.2%), Guyana (60.3%), Brunei (55.1%) and Turkmenistan (53.4%) are the top OIC countries. Finally in non-routine manual jobs, Burkina Faso (92%), Guinea (86.3%), Comoros (79.7%), Mali (79.7%) and Sierra Leone (79.6%) are the top countries.

1.11 Employment by economic class

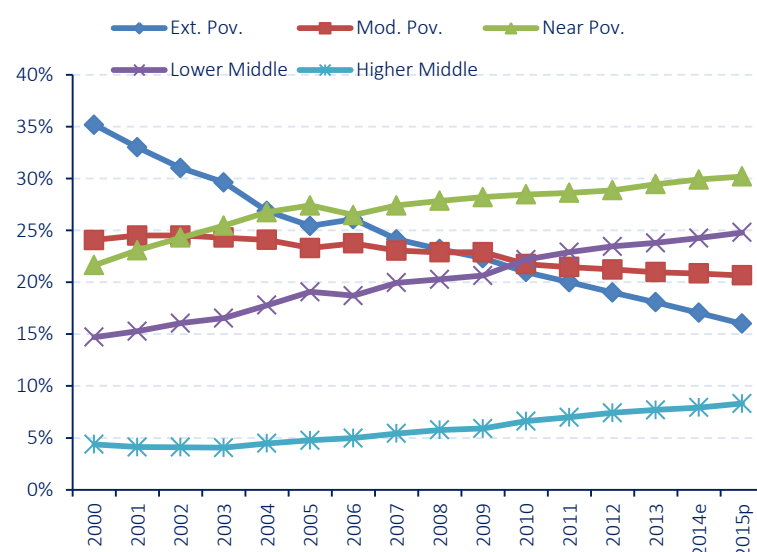
Another interesting aspect of labour market analysis is the classification of employed people with respect to their level of income or economic class. ILO provides estimations on five different income groups:

- Extremely poor (less than US\$1.25)
- Moderately poor (between US\$1.25 and US\$2)
- Near poor (between US\$2 and US\$4)
- Developing middle class (between US\$4 and US\$13)
- Developed middle class and above (above US\$13)

Figure 1.37 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 income level below US\$ 1.25, or “extremely poor”. Their share is dropped from 35.2% in 2000 to 17% in 2014. The share of “moderately poor” employed also showed a declining trend and reached 20.8% in 2014 compared to 24.1% in 2000. In contrast, the shares of groups classified under “near poor”, “developing middle class”, and “developed middle class and above” have been rising. The share of “near poor” increased from 21.7% to 29.9%, the share of “developing middle class” increased from 14.7% to 24.3% and the share of “developed middle class and above” increased from 4.4% to 7.9% during the period 2000-2014.

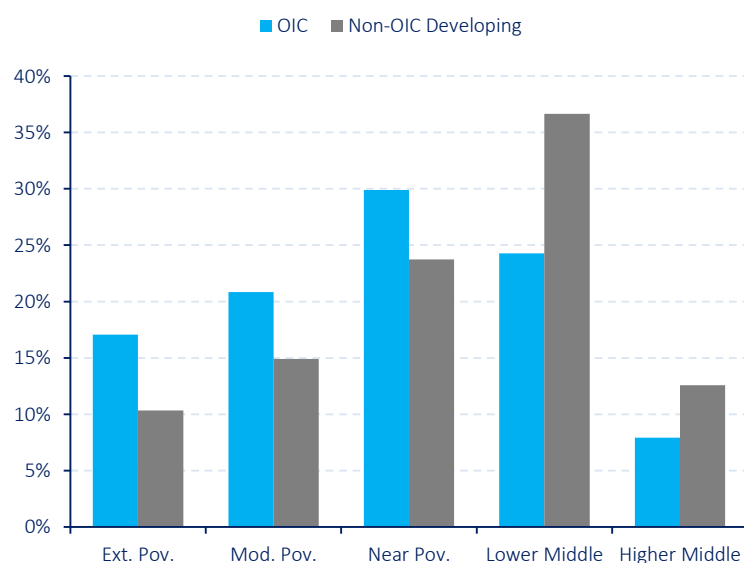
When compared with non-OIC developing countries, however, it is observed that employed people in OIC countries are poorer than those in non-OIC developing countries (Figure 1.41). The total share of people that are considered poor (extremely poor, moderately poor and near poor) is 67.8% in OIC countries, while it is 49% in non-OIC developing countries. Accordingly, the share of relatively wealthier employed people is 32.2% in OIC countries, while it is 51% in non-OIC developing countries.

Figure 1.41: Employment by Economic Class in OIC Countries (2000-2015)



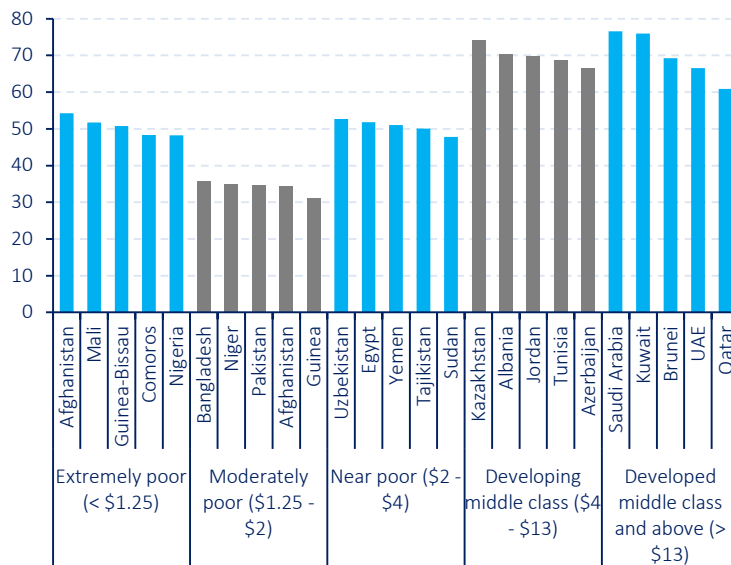
Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated, p: projected).

Figure 1.42: Employment by Economic Class (2014)



Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset.

Figure 1.43: Top OIC Countries in Employment by Economic Class (2014)



Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset.

At individual country level, the top countries in each income groups are presented in Figure 1.43. More than half of all employed people in Afghanistan, Mali and Guinea Bissau are “extremely poor”, while more than one third of all employed people in Bangladesh, Niger and Pakistan are “moderately poor”. Again more than half of the employed people in Uzbekistan, Egypt, Yemen and Tajikistan are “near poor”. On the other hand, more than two third of all employed people in Kazakhstan, Albania, Jordan , Tunisia and Azerbaijan are within “developing middle class” and in Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Brunei and United Arab Emirates are within the “developed middle class and above” class.

SKILLS AND EMPLOYABILITY

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.

There are several aspects of developing a strategic framework for skills development. Skills development is needed to improve employability, enhance productivity, enable matching of skills supply to the needs of labour markets, and facilitate the adjustment to changes in technology and markets (Chart 2.1). It is also important to develop capacities for anticipating and preparing for the skills needs of future. None of these issues has categorical priority against the others and they should be part of a comprehensive approach in skills development. However, according to the needs and priorities of each economy, special importance can be given

to certain issues when devising programmes and policies for skills development.

Strategies for skills development should also be designed to address the needs of special target groups, including youth, elderly and people living in rural areas. While a good quality basic education is fundamental for easy adaptation to new environments through additional training, young people with adequate vocational education and training opportunities would be better prepared for a smooth transition from school to work. Adjusting workplaces and workplace environments to the physical and mental capacities of older workers and targeted training are required to keep senior people employable. Again, lack of access to quality education and training is the foremost constraint on the employability of rural populations.

On the other hand, the negative shocks to employment, as was the case in the recent global economic and financial crisis, shrink the job opportunities and thus increase the unemployment rates. If necessary and adequate measures are not taken, those who lose their jobs may also lose some of their skills during long unemployment periods. The possibility of losing skills reduces the probability of finding new jobs. In order to facilitate a quick recovery of the job market in times of crisis, it is crucial to enhance

Chart 2.1: Role of Skills Development



skills and capabilities of labour force through various capacity building activities.

Against this background on the importance of skills development, this section starts with some

assessments on the skills levels in OIC countries. It then discusses the importance of skills development for employment and growth, then focuses on the needs of special target groups for skills development and highlights the importance of capacity building in enhancing employability through technical and vocational education and training (TVET).

2.1 Employment by skills levels

Before devising any policy for enhancing employability of labour force, it is important to investigate the demand and supply of different skills levels in the labour market. Since this is a very demanding undertaking, which is subject to occasional change over time, it might be easier to make an assessment based on the current structure of the skills levels of employed people. It reflects the realization where demand and supply of skills are matched. If there is a trend for higher supply of a particular set of skills, some observations can be made on excess supply and excess demand for that particular set of skills. This subsection provides only the estimations on the skills levels of employed people, or realizations, in the labour market.

Figure 2.1: Skills Levels in OIC Countries (2000-2015)

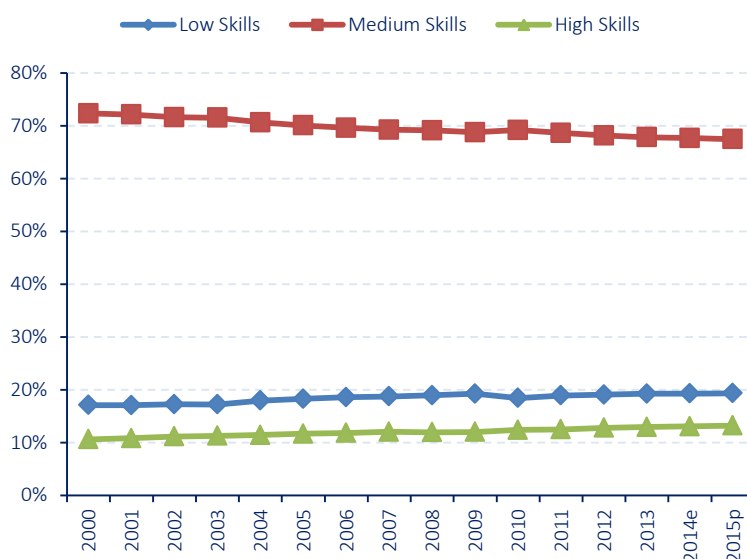


Figure 2.1 shows the skills levels of employed people in OIC countries under three categories: low skills, medium skills and high skills. It is observed that while employed people with medium skills constitute around two third of all employed people, its share is declining over time, which fell to 67.7% in 2014 from 72.3% in 2000. On the other hand, shares of people with low and high skills are increasing. The share of people with low skills in total employment increased from 17.1% in 2000 to 19.3% in 2014 and the share of people with high skills increased from 10.6% to 13.1% during the same period.

Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated, p: projected).

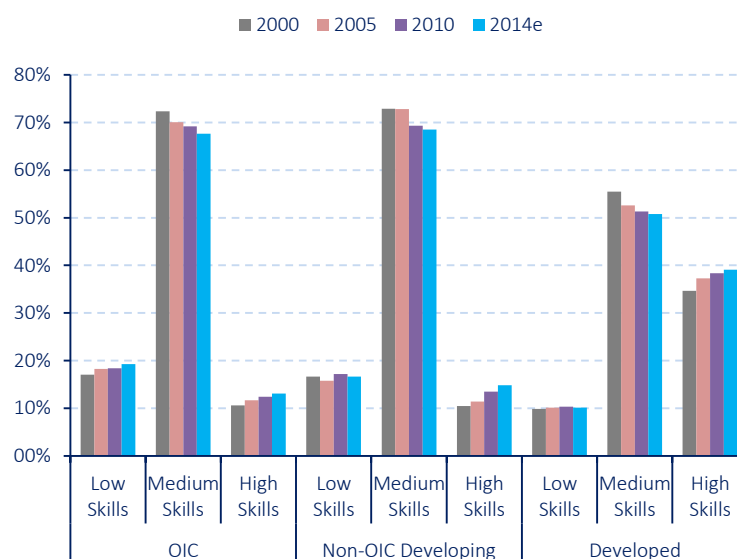
When compared with other country groups, OIC countries display smaller share of high skilled employees (Figure 2.2). While the shares of medium skilled workers are falling, shares of high skilled workers are increasing in all country groups. It is important to note that even in developed countries, around 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 (Figure 2.3). While share of male workers with low skills is increasing and currently above 23%, share of female workers with same skills is mostly unchanged and only around 10%. Shares of female and male workers with high skills are both increasing over time and there appears to be no major difference in their shares in total employment. When it comes to medium skills, share of female employees are around 15 percentage points higher than that of male employees. This indicates that female workers in the OIC labour market are relatively more skilled than male workers.

In view of that, male workers with low skills in OIC countries represent a larger share of employment compared to other country groups (Figure 2.4). Share of female worker with medium skills in OIC countries also surpass the shares in other country groups. While share of male workers with high skills are almost equivalent in OIC and non-OIC

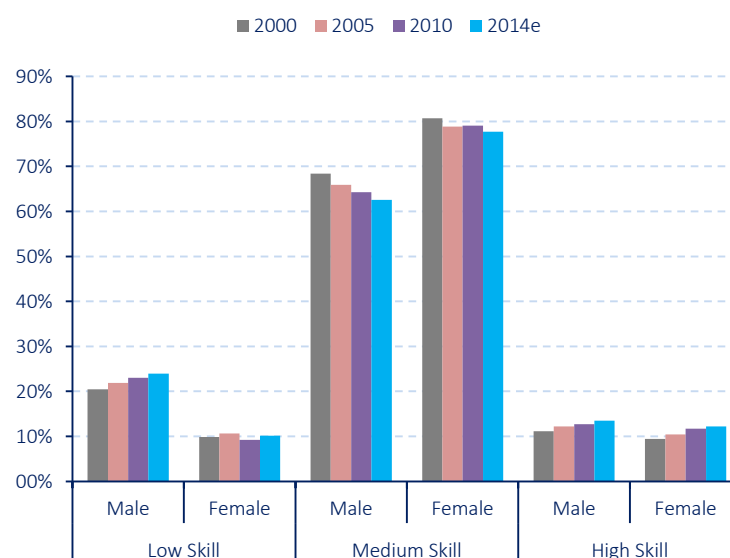
developing countries, share of female workers with low skills in non-OIC developing countries is six percentage points higher than the share in OIC countries. Share of female workers with high skills compared to male workers with same skills is higher only in non-OIC developing countries.

Figure 2.2: Skills Levels by Country Groups



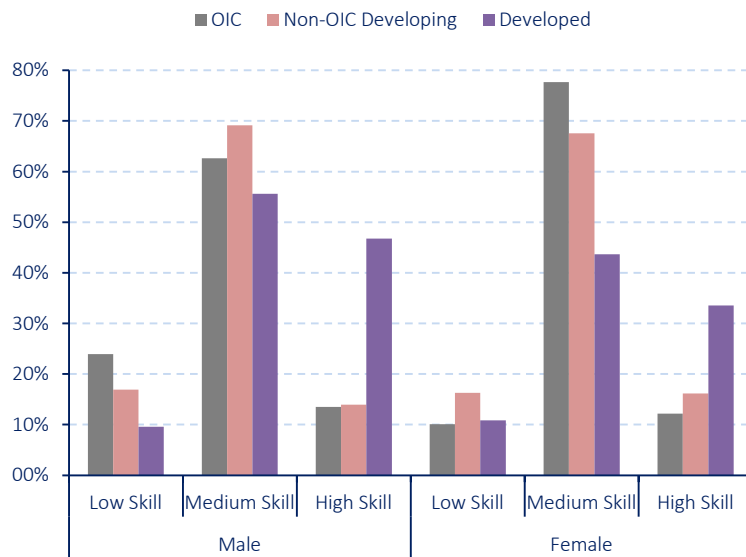
Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated).

Figure 2.3: Skills Levels in OIC Countries by Gender



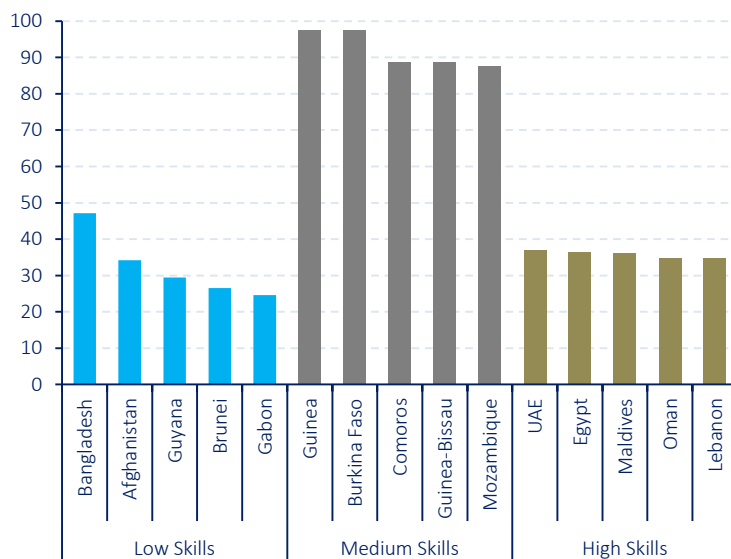
Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated).

Figure 2.4: Skills Levels by Country Groups and Gender (2014)



Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset.

Figure 2.5: Top OIC Countries by Skills Levels



Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset.

Finally, Figure 2.5 shows the top OIC countries with highest shares of employment under different skills levels. The highest shares of workers with low skills are in Bangladesh (47.1%), Afghanistan (34.2%) and Guyana (29.4%). In medium skills, highest shares are observed in Guinea (97.6%), Burkina Faso (97.4%) and Comoros (88.8%). OIC countries with highest

share of high skilled workers are United Arab Emirates (37.1%), Egypt (36.3%) and Maldives (36.1%).

2.2 Skills development for employment and growth

Employability, according to the ILO (2004), “relates to portable *competencies* and *qualifications* that enhance an individual’s capacity to make use of the education and training opportunities available in order to secure and retain decent work, to progress within the enterprise and between jobs, and to cope with changing technology and labour market conditions” (Recommendation No. 195, # 2d). **Competencies** cover the knowledge, skills and know-how applied and mastered in a specific context (# 2b), while **qualifications** means a formal expression of the vocational or professional abilities of a worker which is recognized at international, national or sectoral levels (# 2c). As noted earlier, skills development is needed to enhance employability and productivity, to reduce skills mismatch and to improve adaptability to changing environments. This subsection will briefly look at these linkages.

Skills development for enhancing employability

Basic education, initial vocational training and lifelong learning are three major components of skills development. Basic education lays the foundation for employability by giving people a basis for the individual skills development. Initial vocational training is provided to enable the development of core work skills, general knowledge and professional competencies and to facilitate transition from education to work. Lifelong learning allows individuals to adopt their skills and competencies into changing work and skill requirements.

Further skills development can be achieved only with good-quality basic education. In order to

ensure that workers obtain the skills that are required by labour markets and workplaces in different economic sectors, vocational education and training activities should be well connected to the world of work for effective skills development. This requires effective partnership between public authorities, business associations and training institutions. It is also critical to make available the information related to the needs of the labour market in order to help people to make better-informed choices about education and training. On the other hand, special efforts should be made to ensure that individual and groups from diverse background and social status have equal access to training and skills development opportunities.

Countries at different levels of economic development face, however, different challenges and constraints in their efforts to improve the quality and relevance of skills for enhancing productivity and employability. Depending on the structure and professional qualifications of the population and labour force, each country may focus on different stages of skills development related to the needs of the workforce. For lifelong employability, new opportunities should be constantly provided to working people to allow them to periodically update their skills and learn new ones, but this is quite challenging for many

developing countries to address the needs of population at different ages with different skills and qualifications.

While it is important to ensure that education and learning is effective, sustained and relevant to the world of work, it should be noted that the resources available for public training and education is not limitless. Therefore, it is all the more important to manage these resources effectively. If education system is not able to raise the cognitive abilities of the population, countries may face even higher economic and social costs to reduce the gap between the needs and supply of relevant skills. It should also be noted that skills by themselves do not automatically lead to more and better jobs. Skills policies must be part of a broad set of policies that are conducive to high rates of growth and investment, including investment in basic education, health care and physical infrastructure, strong growth in good-quality employment, and respect for workers' rights (ILO, 2011).

Skills development for productivity and growth

While skills development enhances employability and creativity of workers, a skilled workforce is key to productivity and development for any country. Better education and training makes

BOX 2.1: ISMEK Master Trainer Programme (IMTP)

ISMEK with its 181 branches in 228 teaching centres in Istanbul's 38 counties is a proven Art and Vocational Training Centre of the Metropolitan Municipality of Istanbul, which has been founded in order to increase the personal knowledge, improve their vocational and artistic skills, contribute to trainees' efforts to have an income and increase their chances of employability.

IMTP is a joint programme between SESRIC and the Centre for Art and Vocational Training Courses of Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality (ISMEK), initiated at beginning of 2011 and under the framework of (OIC-VET). In this context, ten training courses have been provided to master trainers in various institutions in OIC member countries, under nine different categories in order to increase the capacity of the relevant institutions.

SESRIC has taken the initiative to take this programme into a new stage where the innovation is transferred to other OIC countries. Transfer of Innovation has already been started by for Palestine and Uganda to establish Centre of Excellence in Vocational, Technical and Skills Development.

labour force more productive, thereby fosters economic development particularly through stimulating investment, competitiveness and diversification as well as social and occupational mobility. As widely acknowledged, productivity is the main determinant of economic growth and an important constituent of productivity growth is human capital accumulation. Higher levels of education and skilled workforce increase the capacity of economies in innovation and utilization of new technologies. On the other hand, for the growth impacts to be sustainable and inclusive, every people in society should have equal access to good quality education and training for skills development. Otherwise, large segments of society would be left behind, leaving them to work in informal economy under poor conditions with lower productivity.

There is also a direct relationship between the level of skills in an economy and investment. If the available workforce is capable to continuously advance their skills, this will improve investor sentiment for new investments and potentially lead to creation of more jobs. On the other hand, if the number of workers with demonstrated skills is insufficient, economic growth will be constrained due to low levels of investments and transfer of new technologies. Any type of discrimination constraining equal access to education, vocational training and employment services will also negatively affect inclusive growth and development.

The empirical literature suggests a positive association between vocational education and training and productivity. Sala and Silva (2013), for example, find that one extra hour of training per employee contributes to accelerate the growth rate of labour productivity by 0.55 percentage points in the case of 21 European countries. Similarly, Dearden et al. (2006), for a panel of British industries, find that a 1% increase in work-training rises about 0.6 % the value added

per hour and about 0.3% the hourly wage. The rich literature on the links between education, skills, productivity and economic growth suggest in general that a combination of good education with good quality and relevant training not only increases productivity of workers and firms, but also promotes innovation, boosts investment and creates new jobs, leads to higher wages, encourages people to upgrade their competencies and capabilities, expands labour market opportunities, and reduces social inequalities.

Skills development for adjustment to changes

Businesses become more sophisticated as influenced by various economic, social, political and cultural changes, which create new demands for more adaptable, multi-skilled and creative labour force. In such a setting, people who don't have the capability or opportunity to develop and improve their skills face difficulties to compete for new or better job opportunities. Without upgrading the skills, they will not be able to catch up with the rapid changes and new requirements in labour market.

As a response to technological and economic changes, some skills may become redundant and it may lead to prolonged unemployment or underemployment. In order to minimize the potential impacts under such circumstances, upgrading skills and retraining of workers through active labour market policies are required to protect them against loss of jobs and risk of unemployment. On the other hand, countries can shape their strategic development objectives in the long term by carefully designing their education and training policies so that to achieve sustainable development based on technological development, improved business and investment opportunities, and better prospects for productivity and competitiveness.

There are three key pillars in linking skills development with productivity growth

irrespective of the initial socio-economic conditions and skills levels: matching the skills, making frequent adjustments and sustaining development with impactful education and training policies (Chart 2.2). In matching the skills, policies focusing on skills development should ensure that relevant skills are developed, lifelong learning is promoted and equal opportunities are provided to people in accessing education and training programmes as well as labour market.

Managing skills development over the development trajectory can be a challenge. As countries adopt new technologies and diversify into new sectors, workers and managers must be well prepared to tackle new production and management practices in order to sustain growth in the economy and job market. If not properly coordinated, investment made in skills development can only increase the number of skilled workforce, without affecting the number or quality of jobs. Therefore, coordination and dialogue among the key stakeholders including public authorities and education and training institutions is critical in managing skills development process. It is also important to note that training by itself does not create jobs, nor does it necessarily raise productivity in the informal economy. In order to achieve these objectives, economic and labour market environment should support the development and use of skills and the formalization of informal activities (ILO, 2008).

Many middle income OIC countries are characterized by high growth and productivity in some sectors and low productivity and low wage in others, particularly in informal economy. On the other hand, low-income OIC countries are typically trapped in vicious circle of low skills, low productivity and low wage. In order to address the skills shortages in middle income OIC countries in high-growth sectors, an effective coordination mechanism between enterprises and training institutions is needed. Enterprises should also encourage on the job training. Where informal economy accounts for large share of employment, access to technical and vocational education and training should be improved for all population in order to promote formalization and achieve a shift from employment in informal economy to more productive and decent work in formal economy. Besides, entrepreneurship should be promoted to encourage formalization of small enterprises and skills that are obtained informally should be recognized with an effective skills recognition system in order to facilitate employment in the formal sector. Finally, given the low participation to education and low quality of training in low-income countries, the priority should be clearly given to improving accessibility, relevance, quality and completion of education and training programmes in order to provide the right mix of skills and competencies to the labour force.

Chart 2.2: Key Pillars of Skills Development for Productive Employment



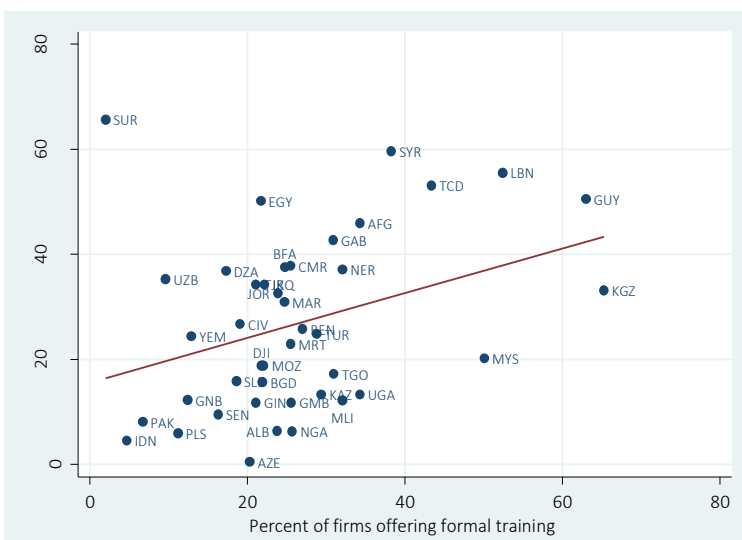
Skills development for skills matching

Another 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.

A flexible labour market, on the other hand, facilitates the adjustment to new economic conditions after any shocks that may arise. For example, during a recession, the job market may adapt to new conditions by reducing real wages in order to keep employment. Pessoa and Reenen (2013) analysed the response of the UK labour market to the recent global financial crisis and they found that the flexibility in UK labour market kept the people employed but reduced their wages due to their lower bargaining power. However, this flexibility resulted in lower productivity levels due to lower investment in capital and higher investment in labour. Successful adaption to growing economy is as important as to adjusting to a shrinking economy. In a growing economy, firms will invest more in new technologies and labour force needs to quickly obtain new skills required to utilize these technologies.

Figure 2.6: Workforce as a Constraint



Source: World Bank Enterprise Survey

Efficiency and flexibility of labour market are closely linked to each other. Efficiency leads to an allocation of human capital to its most productive uses during regular times and flexibility leads to rapid market clearing during irregular times through various channels. On the other hand, labour market frictions may inhibit aggregate growth.

As shown in Figure 2.6, while in some countries significant number of firms identify inadequately educated workforce as a major constraint (vertical axis), firms tend to offer formal training to increase the quality of labour force (horizontal axis). This is important in the sense that firms take initiatives to improve the human productivity

through various on-the-job-training modules. On the other hand, total share of workers offered formal training in OIC countries is not necessarily higher than that in other developing countries (Figure 2.7). Average of all surveyed countries (94) is 51.1% and only 10 OIC countries (out of 29) have the proportion above the world average.

In order to overcome the challenges posed by the shortage of skilled workers, effective policies and programmes need to be devised and implemented for better education and training as they are critical factors for technological readiness to raise productivity and diversify into more sophisticated products. Enhancing firm productivity, upgrading technologies, developing high-value added services and achieving more competitive status in the world economy necessitate the assurance of better educated and trained human resources that match the needs of the labour market.

2.3 Skills Development for Special Target Groups

In addition to its importance for overall economy and labour market, policies for skills development are also critical for special target groups. These groups face comparatively tougher challenges in finding or retaining jobs, which include young people with no or minimum working experience, senior people with low adaptive capacity to changing work environment and rural population with little access to quality education and training. This subsection will review some important issues related to skills development of these three special groups.

Easing transition from school to work for youth

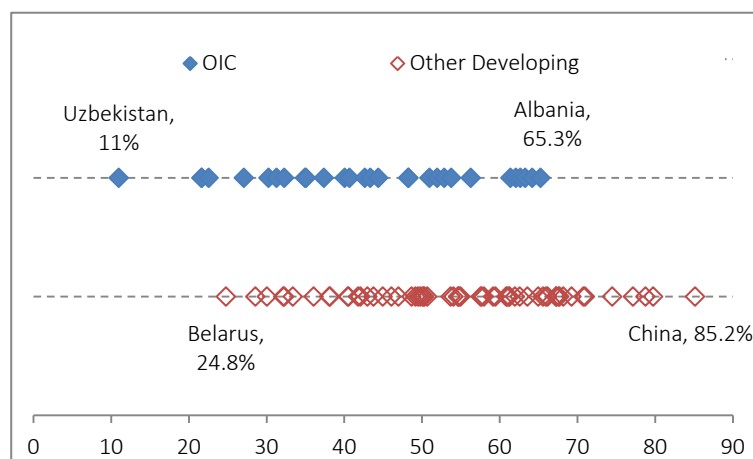
18% of young people in OIC countries are illiterate, lacking basic numerical and reading skills, and accordingly lacking the means to be able to sustain a living through full and decent employment (SESRIC, 2014c). With many young

working poor missing even primary-level education, persistently high levels of youth unemployment and underemployment rates are likely to threaten social inclusion, cohesion and stability. Young people who drop out of school early are vulnerable to unemployment, poverty and involvement in risky behaviours.

There are many reasons why young people are dropping out of school including income poverty, gender, disability, conflicts and wars. Perceived low market returns to education also discourage people in their decision to continue their education. It turns to a real challenge to prevent these young people from dropping out of school and providing alternative learning opportunities to consolidate their basic skills and competencies needed to find a job or engage in other productive work. Those who missed out on good secondary education can be offered “second chance programmes” with flexible courses and services to facilitate their entry into the formal economy.

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

Figure 2.7: Proportion of workers offered formal training (%)



Source: World Bank Enterprise Survey.

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.

On the other hand, in cases where education and training systems do not provide young people with the basic skills needed to escape poverty and unemployment, even when they continue to receive formal education, non-formal education programmes could be a remedy. Provided often through youth and community based organizations, such programmes can fill the gap by providing learning and skills development opportunities, especially for disadvantaged and marginalized groups. By complementing the formal education, such facilities can improve opportunities for youth to meet the challenging demands of work and life. In this respect, activities of civil society organization should be supported in filling the gaps in skills development of young people.

Technical and vocational training programmes are also critical in equipping young people with the skills required for decent employment. Without having the desired level of skills and

qualifications, it will be difficult for young people to find a job, to keep the job and to promote in the job. Such programmes will improve problem solving capabilities and adaptability to changing environments as well as their awareness on new technologies and entrepreneurial activities. By supporting life-long learning, such programmes will enhance the employability of young people by enabling them to seize immediate employment opportunities and to adjust new career opportunities. Section 3 provides a more detailed discussion on the issue of youth unemployment and measures to be taken to reduce it.

Keeping older people in employment

While OIC countries have relatively younger population, there is a global trend of aging populations. Developed countries are particularly in search of solutions to address the social and economic problems of their aging populations, but it also becomes an increasingly serious concern for developing countries. In this context, increasing the employment of older people represents one of the top challenges. Advanced economies follow several pathways to improve the employability of the senior people which include adjusting workplace environments to the physical and mental capacities of older people, targeted training and education, and adapting social security systems to provide incentives for working at senior ages (EU, 2012).

BOX 2.2: OIC Public Employment Services Network (OIC-PESNET)

The network was established with the initiative of the Centre at the First Meeting of Public Employment Services in the OIC Member Countries in 2014. OIC-PESNET works on economic and social development through harmonising institutional and human resource capabilities of the OIC Member Countries in the area of PES via consolidating cooperation and partnership programmes, including capacity development, joint research and other collaborative activities with the aim of improving the quality of the service in this area.

The network, under the secretariat of the Centre, also has a Capacity Building Program with respect to improving public employment services through matching the needs and capacities of OIC Member Countries and organizing different types of training programs, courses or workshops, SESRIC has initiated OIC Capacity Building Programme for Public Employment Services (OIC-PESCaB).

As depicted in Figure 2.8, the percentage of people 50 and older in total population of OIC countries increased only from 12.3% in 1950 to 14.1% in 2015. The UN data also projects that this share will grow rapidly during the period 2010-2050 and around one fourth of all population is estimated to be above 50 ages. Again around 15% of total population in OIC countries is projected to be above their 60 ages in 2050. At a time when the share of senior population was almost stagnant during the period 1950-2000, employability of older people was not a serious concern for OIC countries. 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.

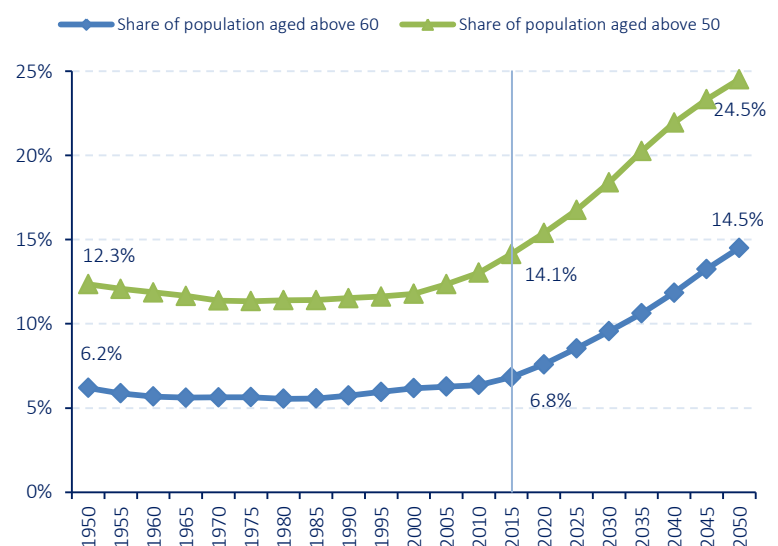
Senior people are generally more desired due to their experiences, loyalty and commitment, but their abilities to acquire new skills and learn new concepts and approaches can be sometimes a concern for employers. If employers are not convinced on the economic payoffs of training

provided to older workers, they may be reluctant to provide training and it is common to observe that younger employees get more training than older workers. However, since the turnover rates among young employees are generally higher than older ones, investment made by employers on older workers would pay off (ILO, 2008). Giving the fact that employers are rather reluctant to spend for training of older workers and employees may not afford additional training costs, providing tax incentives to those who provide or receive training would be also a solution to reduce costs on the parts of employers and employees.

Another critical issue is to decide on the skills needed for training. Employers must identify the skills needed in the near future so that older employees can stay on the job productively by acquiring these skills. This information should be well spread to all relevant stakeholders so that they know the demand and concentrate on the areas where they need to upgrade their skills.

An important dimension in keeping older people

Figure 2.8: Share of Senior People in Total Population of OIC Countries (1950-2050)



Source: UN World Population Prospects: The 2012 Revision.

employed is the issue of social security system. Policymakers often strive to make welfare and social security systems sustainable, particularly by encouraging people to remain in employment for longer. Restricting early retirement and raising pension ages are important instruments for achieving this goal. However, it is common to observe that significant share of senior people exits the labour market well before they reach retirement age. Therefore, based on extensive assessments on the work patterns and preferences of older workers, complementary instruments should be developed to stimulate longer working lives for people.

As life expectancy increases, retirement at early ages or failure to encourage longer will raise burden on younger generations. Since fiscal sustainability of social security systems is a central concern for policymakers, there is frequent attempt to raise retirement ages to ensure the sustainability of state pensions. However, it is also commonly argued that encouraging older workers in the labour force will reduce the number of jobs available for the younger. Since youth unemployment is a persistent problem throughout the OIC countries, it is important to consider the impact of these policies on the employment prospects of youth. A study by Böheim (2014) shows that that increasing the employment of older persons neither reduces the employment, nor does it lead to more unemployment, of younger persons, but it leads to an increase in wages and employment of younger workers.

On the other hand, reducing the retirement age decreases the incentives to train and to invest in additional skills, and therefore leads to lower economic growth. In this fashion, increasing retirement ages should increase the incentives for employers to train and invest in new skills for the over 50s, enabling them to work longer. In the case of UK, it is found that if all over 50 ages

worked just one year longer, this would increase GDP by 1% per year (about six years after its implementation), the government budget would improve by 0.6% of GDP, and consumption per capita would be more than 1% higher than on the baseline (Barrell et al., 2011). Therefore, keeping older people in the workforce for longer is not expected to have negative consequences for younger workers and the overall economy.

Skills development for rural employment and development

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.

In general, rural population are highly vulnerable and they face significant risks in labour markets due to their limited assets and knowledge base. Children and young people in rural areas generally drop out of the school early and they do not have enough opportunities to improve their skills, even in informal educational and training settings. They often tend to work in informal employment in low-skilled and insecure jobs. Due to limited prospects for decent job in the rural non-agricultural sectors, young people migrate to urban areas. However, due to their limited skills and capabilities, they are not able to compete well with relatively better educated urban

residents. Without securing a decent job or moving beyond low-skilled informal jobs and thereby building their asset and knowledge base, rural population and particularly youth will remain trapped in their current socio-economic status.

In order to improve the access of rural youth to new economic opportunities both in rural and urban areas, availability and quality of education and training services should be improved and their access to these services should be enhanced. While access to primary education has been improving all around the world, quality of education remains a concern. Vocational training services, both formal and informal, on the other hand, are less available particularly in rural context. This results in higher unemployment rates, unavailability of relevant skills for the labour markets and limited prospects for economic growth. For example, in the case of Bangladesh, it is found that lack of sufficient skilled labour has undermined the performance of

the garment, textile and leather sectors on international markets, and this was linked to poor availability of skills development programmes, the outdated curricula of existing ones, and lack of in-service training opportunities for workers (Alam, 2008).

ILO (2014a) provides some fundamental challenges faced in education, training and skills development in rural areas. These include:

- Access to education and training is often limited by both financial barriers (e.g. training and transport costs) and non-financial barriers (e.g. scarce education and training infrastructure, inflexible training timetables).
- Especially for poor rural children and adults, the opportunity costs of education and training may be too high to justify their giving up income-generating activities and/or unpaid work that help to sustain their families.

BOX 2.3: Policy Options for Improving Employability of Rural Workers

ILO (2014a) provides a number of policy options that can be undertaken by public authorities and other relevant stakeholders to improve the employability of rural workers through skills development. These are listed as follows:

Developing an integrated approach to rural skills development: An integrated approach is essential to ensure that development of skills and employment opportunities in rural areas draws on the wide range of policies, institutions and actors in the training sphere that can support and expand training delivery in rural regions. In this context, integrating skills development into rural development policies and strategies, such as agricultural policies, and private sector development and entrepreneurship policies is critical.

Expanding access to quality education and vocational training: One of the most critical constraints on employability of rural workers is the lack of access to quality education and training. Therefore, it is key to expand the outreach of both schools and training institutions to under-served rural areas.

Promoting diversified skills development systems: Skills development in rural areas requires various types of provision, using innovative methods of delivery and capitalizing on existing social institutions. An option would be linking formal with non-formal training, or combining institution-based education with enterprise-based learning

Upgrading skills for increased agricultural productivity: Since agriculture is the backbone of rural communities, rural communities can offer better livelihoods, including improved employment opportunities and higher farm incomes by increasing productivity through improvements to agricultural practices. By supporting small-scale producers in accessing markets, modern technology and value chains, new knowledge and information can be channelled for improved productivity.

- Many rural people do not have access even to basic education. This hampers their access to technical and vocational training.
- Unequal gender relations and traditional gender roles entail specific difficulties for rural girls and women in accessing education and training.
- What education and training is available is often of inadequate quality. Teachers and trainers may be unqualified, equipment and technology outdated, and teaching and training methods ill-suited to rural contexts.
- In many developing countries, training systems tend to operate in isolation from the labour market and employers' needs, so that training does not always match demand for skills.
- Environmental degradation and climate change present particular risks to rural livelihoods that need to be managed. This requires developing new, innovative strategies and skills to enable rural women and men to learn about and use new environmentally friendly technologies.

Governments and rural communities need to address these challenges by developing new and practical mechanisms. In order to improve the availability and accessibility of skills development programmes for rural population, institutional mechanisms and targeted programmes should be developed for youth and young adult that are relevant to their needs and also needs of the rural agricultural and non-agricultural labour markets. This may require substantial reforms in the provision of education and training services. As a World Bank discussion paper puts, there are innovative approaches in skills development to help students in their transition to employment, where school and workplace training are

combined with supplementary services (Fares and Puerto, 2009).

Many developing countries face significant challenges in introducing or improving the skills development programmes for rural people. One of these challenges is coordination among relevant bodies that focus on education, poverty reduction and employment status of rural population in fragmented way. Another challenge is the available resources. It is quite costly undertaking for many developing countries to invest for the employability of rural population without being sure on the impacts of these interventions. It also requires an extensive research in order to identify the right mix of skills supply to match the demand in the labour market in rural context. Many of the international and national development strategies focus on poverty reduction without paying enough attention to skills development for employability.

Given all these challenges and problems being faced in enhancing the employability of rural population, standard recommendations apply here. The services provided for promoting rural employability should be relevant, accessible and in good quality. Skills development should be done in a way it matches the demand in the labour market or provides key capabilities for self-employment. Skills development should also be worth to obtain for people engaged in training programmes, as people invest their time to learn new skills. Even if the services are relevant and in good quality, the impact will be limited when they are not broadly accessible. Therefore, if any of the three key components (relevance, quality and accessibility) is missing, the expected outcome on the poor rural people will be only limited.

2.4 Skills Development through Technical and Vocational Education and Training

Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) is one of the practices that can effectively contribute to capacity building and skill improvement of labour force. The International Labour Organization (ILO) defines vocational training as an activity directed to identifying and developing human capabilities for a productive and satisfying working life. Vocational training activity is an educational activity with both theoretical and practical components. It gives a greater emphasis on the practical side of developing and upgrading technical skills of workers and employees in preparation for a particular job. Therefore, TVET programs play a vital role in meeting the demand of the current labour market and helping people to increase their chances of securing appropriate jobs.

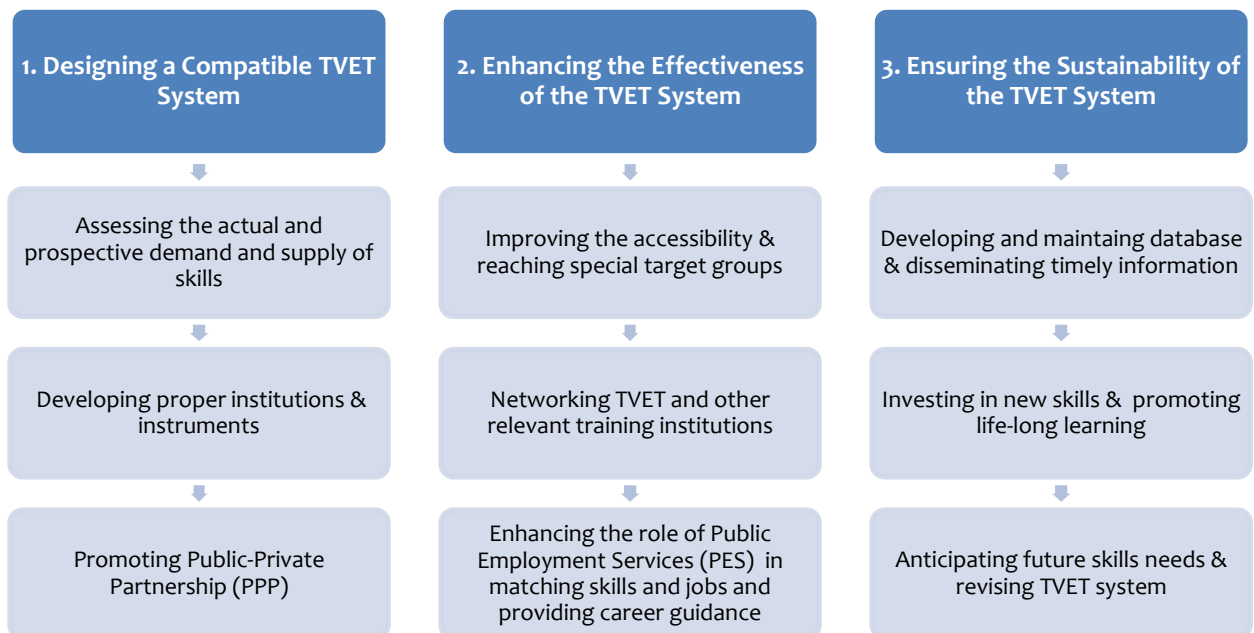
TVET programs help unskilled workers or people who are less endowed intellectually to develop their skills and competence to continue in their jobs and/or find new better job opportunities. TVET also offers the needed skills for self-employment. All in all, TVET gives people chance to increase their capabilities to compete for actual job opportunities. Findings commonly suggest that people, particularly young, who participate in TVET programs experience better employment outcomes compared to people who do not participate in post-school education and training. TVET programs have a particularly positive effect on transitions into work for early school leavers as well. The empirical studies show that vocational training significantly increases the likelihood of young people to be employed and get higher earnings compared to those without vocational education and training.

As is the case in unskilled, semi-skilled, small and marginal workers and farmers, there is also massive unemployment among educated people in many OIC countries. Lack of experience and incompatible education put labour force at a disadvantage even when higher economic growth translates into overall increased employment opportunities. The available job opportunities may fail to keep pace with the increasing number of educated and newly graduate job-seekers. In this context, the role of TVET in enhancing the capabilities and fitting the labour force to the job market, through facilitating the appropriate matching of supply and demand of skills, is substantial. Therefore, compatible TVET systems should be carefully designed and developed, and those who take part in TVET programs and activities should be capable to understand and influence the working conditions and social environment.

Developing Compatible, Effective and Sustainable TVET System

There is a continuous demand for more adaptable, multi-skilled and creative labour force. People without the capability or opportunity to develop and improve their skills face difficulties to compete for new or better job opportunities. Constant efforts should be made to develop skills in order to meet new requirements in labour market. Therefore, considering the current and future labour market challenges and demands, it is vital to develop and effectively implement mechanisms that allow people to improve their skills with a view to increasing their employability. In this context, Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) is a practical approach extensively used in developed economies in skills development for enhancing employability, but at a lower scale in developing economies.

Chart 2.3: Developing a Compatible TVET System



To enhance the role of TVET in alleviating unemployment, it is essential to develop compatible, effective and sustainable TVET systems to help people, especially youth, to make a productive and pro-active contribution to their society. The expansion of the opportunities for people to join TVET programmes can bring them closer to the needs of the labour market and thus help them to find their place in the labour market with optimal productivity. In this connection, a set of measures to be considered in developing and implementing a compatible, effective and sustainable TVET system are proposed under the three main phases: (1) designing a compatible TVET system, (2) boosting the effectiveness of TVET system, and (3) ensuring the sustainability of TVET system (Chart 2.3).

PHASE 1: Designing a Compatible TVET System

A core issue in designing a compatible TVET system is the accurate measurement and assessment of the skills that are actually supplied and needed in the labour market. This is essential

in understanding the dynamics in the labour market and skills utilization and also an important prerequisite for a TVET system to make it compatible with current and prospective economic policies and goals. The accurate assessment of the skills needed in each sector facilitates the appropriate design of the TVET system with a view to enhancing the existing capacities of the labour force accordingly. In so doing, the following measures should be considered.

Assessing the actual and prospective demand and supply of skills: In designing a compatible TVET system, the skills needed in the market must be accurately mapped through sketching the qualifications and skills that are offered in the market and examining the formation of present and prospective skills needed in public and private sectors under current economic policies. Many countries may require improving their capacity to anticipate changes on the labour market over time. Importance of good labour market intelligence should be well acknowledged in

tackling the current and future imbalances between skills demand and supply, in identifying the skill deficiencies which could constrain employment and productivity growth, and in prioritising the areas in which to encourage people to acquire the economically valuable skills needed for economic development. As a scheme for the recognition of prior learning, developing a Skill Recognition System (SRS) could be a feasible approach that could be considered at this stage. An efficient SRS helps to identify and verify prior skills and experiences gained at work. Availability of transferable skills makes the shift to new jobs easy and comfortable and facilitates the move from informal to formal economy. An efficient SRS also helps to avoid mismatches of skills and jobs by contributing to the identification of the sectors/occupations which will have the greatest economic potential.

Developing proper institutions and instruments: While designing the system, appropriate institutions must be established and adequate instruments must be made available for training programmes. There are several important issues. First, the capacity constraints of the existing institutions should be clarified and the limitations of the training instruments should be identified. Accordingly, ability of existing institutions should be improved, and if necessary new ones should be established. Second, basic educational curriculum should be carefully reviewed and improved in line with skill and compatibility requirements of the labour market. Third, the tools needed for the effective provision of training programmes should be identified, developed and made available to all relevant institutions. Finally, skills and knowledge among teachers and trainers, especially for people serving for a long time, should be assessed and upgraded for effective delivery of services.

Promoting Public-Private Partnership (PPP): In practice, while workers earn higher wages and

public sector benefits from better economic conditions arising from better skills and matching, the main beneficiary of the skilled labour force is commonly the private sector due to higher potential productivity levels. Therefore, it is critical to make sure that private sector is involved in many stages of TVET system, from identification of skills requirements to provision of training. Promoting effective and efficient partnerships between public and private sectors improves the scope and efficiency of the TVET system and its programmes. In this context, special attention should be given to identifying and utilizing opportunities for PPP to meet capacity building needs of the labour force. In particular, mechanisms should be identified to provide incentives and encourage initiatives for on-the-job-training as the most compatible type of training for already employed people.

PHASE 2: Enhancing the Effectiveness of the TVET system

To enhance the effectiveness of an existing TVET system, the most critical issue is to improve the accessibility and quality of the system and to develop appropriate ways to enhance the provision of TVET programmes to a wider circle of beneficiaries, including special target groups to secure higher social inclusion. Since many public and private training institutions provide different skills development programmes, efficient networks and coordination among the TVET and other relevant training institutions should be established in order to increase the efficiency but also flexibility of these programmes. In this context, it is also important to strengthen the role of Public Employment Services (PES) in matching skills and jobs.

Improving the accessibility and reaching special target groups: To ensure the effectiveness of the TVET system, all segments of labour force should have the chance to access to training

opportunities and programmes provided by the system. To this end, a regular assessment of the accessibility and quality of the TVET system should be undertaken in order to improve the provision of the TVET services and to focus on areas where national resources can be utilized more effectively to generate more value-added. In so doing, special attention should be given to the issue of identifying and reaching special target groups, such as young people, rural population, and disabled persons. These groups, as discussed in the previous subsection, are particularly vulnerable to economic shocks and enjoy little access to skills development services.

Networking TVET and other relevant training institutions: To avoid duplications in the TVET services provided by different public and private institutions and to enhance the effectiveness of the TVET system, efficient networks among all TVET and other relevant training institutions should be established and cooperation between educational institutions and companies should be enhanced to develop and continuously update curriculum. Promoting collaboration in developing and improving TVET services is thereby essential for quality assurance.

Enhancing the role of PES in matching skills and jobs and providing career guidance: The Public Employment Services (PES) must play a leading role in matching jobs and skills by retaining up-to-date information on the skills and competencies demanded by enterprises and supplied by the labourers. Thereby, they can develop and provide distinct career guidance for youth people. Sharing

this information also with the TVET institutions will enhance their effectiveness in determining the appropriate curriculum for the required skills and competencies and providing targeted training on specific groups.

PHASE 3: Ensuring the Sustainability of the TVET System

Overall composition of skills requirements are changing as the job contents are changing with the introduction of new technologies. In order to keep the labour force employable, the right mix of skills must be continuously acquired by the employees. TVET institutions should regularly update their programs in order to provide the most relevant skills to workers. That requires developing a database on declining and emerging jobs, providing vocational and career guidance, promoting life-long learning and providing incentives for private initiatives for capability enhancement, and anticipating future skills needs.

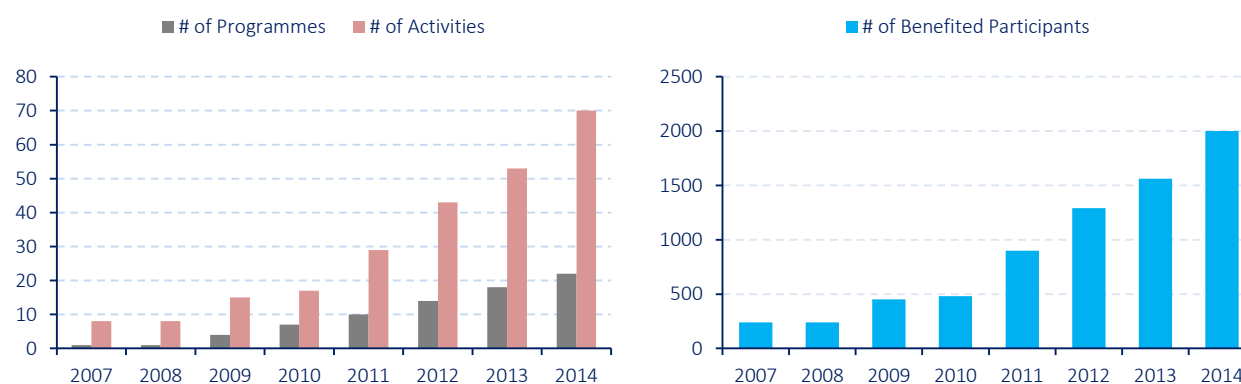
Developing and maintaining database and disseminating timely information: Developing and maintaining a database and disseminating timely information on jobs, skills, learning and training opportunities is crucial for the sustainability of the compatible TVET system. In order to improve employability effectively, it is important to know the composition of the skills demanded when organizing the training programmes. Such a database will also enable labourers to develop and update the capacities and skills they consider as essential for their productive employment in the job market.

BOX 2.4: The Vocational Education and Training Programme for the Member Countries of the Organization of Islamic Cooperation (OIC-VET)

The Vocational Education and Training Programme for the Member Countries of the Organization of Islamic Cooperation (OIC-VET) is a programme originally designed and developed by the Statistical Economic and Social Research and Training Centre for Islamic Countries (SESRIC) in order to improve the quality of vocational education and training in the public and private sectors. Official Launch of the programme was made by H.E. Abdullah Gül, President of the Republic of Turkey and Chairman of the COMCEC, at the COMCEC Economic Summit held in Istanbul, Turkey on 9 November 2009 with the participation of the heads of states and governments of the OIC member countries. The tenacity of OIC-VET is to support and enhance the opportunities for individuals in OIC countries to develop their knowledge and skills and thus to contribute to the development and competitiveness of the economies and to facilitate the sharing of knowledge.

OIC-VET Programme is based on a common framework of objectives aimed at supporting and supplementing the member countries' initiatives in the field of vocational training. The key strategic objectives of the OIC-VET Programme are; capacity building, transfer of innovation, skill development and networking. OIC-VET Programme closely works with governments, local administrations, public/private institutions, NGOs, companies, researchers and practitioners. The potential beneficiaries of the Programme are enterprises, industrial companies, SMEs, chambers, stock exchanges, VET institutions, centres, universities, research centres and institutes, local administrations, municipalities, NGOs and other civil society organisations.

As part of the OIC-VET, SESRIC organises various programmes in different fields and regularly sends questionnaires to the National Focal Points of the member countries in order to determine their needs and capacities. The Centre, then, arranges training programmes to contribute to the capacity development in the member countries based on the responses to the questionnaires. The programme entails a total of 22 capacity building programmes in 14 different fields of socio-economic development fields such as; statistics, agriculture, environment, economy, finance, trade, employment, health, information communication, transportation, labour, social security, social policy and tourism. Exchange of experts, training of trainers and study visits are the three implementation modalities under OIC-VET.



OIC-VET started with only one programme in 2007 and with the additions new programmes in 14 different socio-economic areas, the programme now has 22 capacity building programmes. Each year, on average, 47.6% increase is realized in the number of activities during 2007-2014. In line with the increase in the number of programmes and activities, the number of benefited participants from the training activities of OIC-VET is also constantly increased over the years. Within the first year of OIC-VET (2007), a total of 240 participants benefited from the training activities, while this number reached a total of 2000 participants in 2014.

Investing in new skills and promote life-long learning: Future jobs will require higher levels of education, and a different mix of skills and qualifications. New skills are required not only to enhance the employability of labour force, but also to raise the productivity and competitiveness of enterprises and achieve higher growth rates. In this context, the training need of innovation competent labour force should be well prioritized to promote innovation-driven development. Moreover, investment in TVET programmes in new emerging sectors should be scaled up and enterprises should be encouraged in utilizing and investing in new technologies. Since majority of jobs are created by SMEs, it is important to facilitate the development of skills strategies and the process of skills upgrading within such enterprises. It is also essential to encourage life-long learning to help workers to remain employable. A key facilitator of life-long learning is to make skills forecasting data easily accessible.

Anticipating future skills needs and revising TVET system: Anticipation of future skills needs and reflecting these in training systems is important for adjusting the TVET system and keeping it compatible. This will enable TVET system to ensure their education and training provisions are responsive to labour market needs.

To this end, efforts should be made to: (1) ensure good quality data on the respective employment possibilities and related gains associated with different qualification levels (2) adjust the fundamentals of initial education to current and future skills needs, (3) monitor trainees' success on the labour market and share the information with education and training institutions, and (4) provide timely information to all stakeholders about declining and emerging industries and give them chance to make early decision on shifting their sectors.

Moreover, in order to ensure the sustainability of the TVET system, it is important to monitor demographic trends and global economic changes. Technological improvements may increase productivity and lead to emergence of new industries. That may create new skills and new jobs, but also cause job losses in declining sectors. Integrating to world economy through international trade offers potential for joining in global production chain, but may also result in significant challenges for domestic industries. In both cases capability enhancement is required to remain competitive.

YOUTH TRANSITION TO THE LABOUR MARKET AND YOUTH EMPLOYMENT

In OIC countries, the unemployment rate of youth is more than three times that of adults. According to the ILO estimates for the year 2014, the unemployment rate of adults in OIC countries was (5.1%) while the unemployment rate of youth was (16.4%). Not only are youth faced with high unemployment rates in OIC countries, they are also faced with limited quality jobs in the labour market. Even for those who successfully make the transition to the labour market more often than not they find themselves in a job that is a mismatch for their qualification. Against this backdrop this section will start off by discussing the transition experience of youth to the labour market, followed by a discussion on policies for youth employment before concluding with the subject of entrepreneurship and job creation.

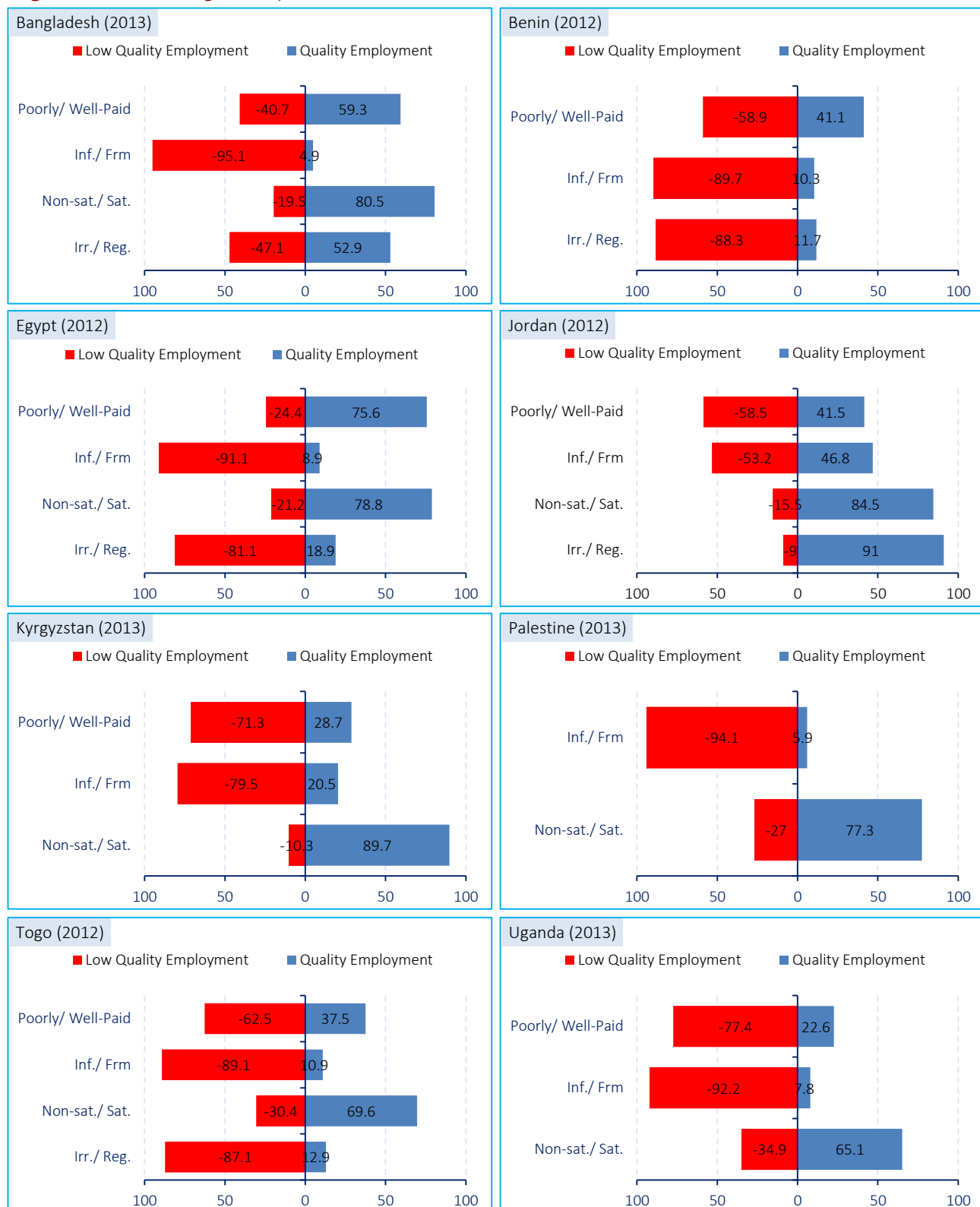
3.1 Youth Transition to the Labour Market

It is vital for OIC countries that youth experience a smooth transition to the labour market, and that the transition is completed by youth finding a quality and stable job. This is important not just for economic reasons but also for social reasons. In the majority of OIC countries it is a prerequisite for youth to find a

stable job and a house in order to get married and start a family. Consequently, the successful transition of youth to the labour market becomes the main driving force in youth inclusion in society. Failing to provide youth with a smooth and successful transition to the labour market will not only result in them being stuck in economic activity characterized by poor quality but will also lead to their social exclusion. Therefore, this subsection of the report is devoted to investigating youth transition to the labour market with special emphasis on the quality of jobs awaiting youth, skill mismatch, transition stages to the labour market, transition paths and transition lengths.

The available data on youth transition to the labour market for OIC countries is quite limited and does not cover all OIC countries. In investigating youth transition to the labour market this report utilizes the ILO school-to-work transition survey (SWTS), a household survey of young people aged 15–29 years. However, the ILO school-to-work transition survey (SWTS) results are currently available for a limited number of OIC countries which are presented in the subsequent sections.

Figure 3.1: Measuring Quality of Youth Jobs



Source: ILO school-to-work transition survey (SWTS). Note: Inf. / Frm: Informal / Formal Employment; Non-sat. / Sat: Non-satisfactory / Satisfactory Employment; Irr. / Reg.: Irregular / Regular Employment

3.1.1 Quality of Youth Jobs

Before going into the transition experience of youth to the labour market, it is usefully to set the stage by talking about the quality of jobs awaiting youth. The quality of youth jobs are measured along four dimensions which are: wage⁴, formality⁵, satisfaction and regularity⁶. Figure 3.1 shows the quality of jobs available for youth in a number of OIC countries. The left hand side (depicted in red) presents low quality jobs, while the right hand side (depicted in blue) presents high quality jobs. In the majority of countries shown in the Figure, youth are poorly paid. The highest percentage of youth who are poorly paid is observed in Uganda (77.4%), followed by Kyrgyzstan (71.3%) and Togo (62.5%). On the other hand, youth are well paid only in two countries, namely Egypt and Bangladesh. 75.6% of youth in Egypt and 59.3% of youth in Bangladesh are well paid.

In all the countries the majority of youth are engaged in informal employment. Informal employment offers low quality jobs with no social security benefits, paid annual leave, or sick leave. In many countries the percentage of youth

engaged in informal employment is extremely high and alarming, with almost nine out of ten youth in informal employment. The situation is particularly alarming in Bangladesh where 95.1% of youth are in informal employment, followed by Palestine (94.1%) and Uganda (92.2%). Jordan, as the best performing country with 53.2% of youth informal employment rate, is no exception to other OIC countries with the majority of youth being in informal employment.

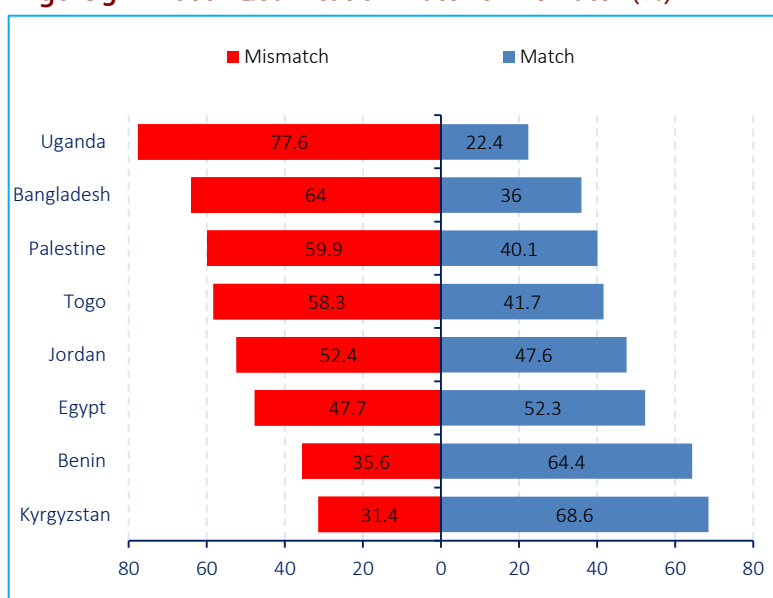
When it comes to the characteristic of regularity, there are diverse trends across OIC countries. In some countries the majority of youth are in regular employment and in other countries the majority of youth are in irregular employment. However, one observation stands out; in countries where irregular employment is a problem, the problem can be classified as severe with more than 80% of youth holding irregular jobs. The highest percentage of youth in irregular employment is observed in Benin (88.3%), followed by Togo (87.1%) and Egypt (81.1%). On the opposite side, there are countries with the overwhelming majority of youth being in regular employment, namely Jordan (91%) and Bangladesh (52.9%).

⁴ Well paid jobs are jobs paying above national average while poorly paid jobs are jobs paying below national average.

⁵ Informal employment is measured according to the guidelines recommended by the 17th International Conference of Labor Statisticians. It includes the following sub-categories of workers: (a) paid employees in "informal jobs", i.e. jobs without either a social security entitlement, paid annual leave or paid sick leave; (b) paid employees in an unregistered enterprise with size class below five employees; (c) own-account workers (self-employment) in an unregistered enterprise with size class below five employees; (d) employers in an unregistered enterprise with size class below five employees; and (e) contributing family workers.

⁶ Irregular employment as defined by ILO is employment with a contract of a duration of less than 12 months, own-account workers (self-employment) and contributing family workers.

Figure 3.2: Youth Qualification Match & Mismatch (%)



Source: ILO school-to-work transition survey (SWTS).

Job satisfaction of youth seems to be high in all the OIC countries, as shown in Figure 3.1. It appears contradictory how youth are satisfied with their jobs when the quality of jobs in many of these countries is poor. The answer lays in the fact that youth unemployment is high in OIC countries (around 16% in 2013) and quality jobs are limited. So having a job turns out to be a source of satisfaction for youth.

3.1.2 Skill Mismatch

Skill mismatch is an unhealthy phenomenon in the labour market that has significant negative consequences. At the macroeconomic level, it contributes to structural unemployment and reduces growth in gross domestic product (GDP) through workforce underutilization and a reduction in productivity. At the firm level, skill mismatch reduces productivity and contribute to high employee turnover rates. Figure 3.2 shows qualification match and mismatch of youth in a number of OIC countries. The left hand side of the Figure (depicted in red) presents qualification mismatch, while the right hand side (depicted in blue) presents qualification match. The data on qualification match and mismatch is based on the application of the normative measure of occupational skills categories from the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO). Workers in a particular group who have the assigned level of education are considered well-matched. Those with a higher

level of education (overeducated) or a lower level of education (undereducated) are considered a mismatch.

Figure 3.2 reveals that qualification mismatch is a serious problem in the OIC countries for which data are available. In the majority of these countries, the percentage of qualification mismatch is around 50% or higher. The highest percentage of youth qualification mismatch is observed in Uganda (78%), followed by Bangladesh (64%) and Palestine (60%). The story is quite different in Benin and Kyrgyzstan where the majority of youth are working in jobs matching their qualification level. The percentage of qualification match is 69% in Kyrgyzstan and 64% in Benin. To further investigate the problem of qualification mismatch, skill mismatch is decomposed to its two constituting elements, namely **over-education** and **under-education**. Both types of mismatch are not desired from economic policy perspective. Under-educated workers are less productive because they do not have the required level of skills, and as such, they add less value to their employer and to the economy. On the other hand, over-educated people are not able to maximize their potential and earn the salary they deserve. Over-educated people present a lower return on investment for the country that has spent important resources on education and training. Figure 3.3 shows the levels of over-education and under-education in a number of OIC countries. It clearly reveals that

BOX 3.1: Inauguration of the Habib Medical School in Uganda

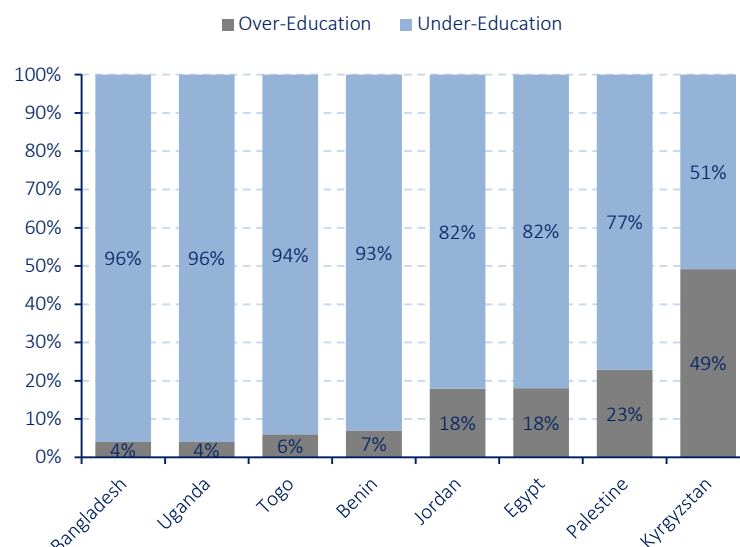
In line with the specific actions under the OIC Strategic Health Programme of Action, the Islamic University in Uganda (IUIU), an affiliated institution of the Organization of Islamic Cooperation (OIC), has officially launched the Habib Medical School on 10 February 2015.

The Islamic University in Uganda (IUIU) has commissioned Habib Medical School to train doctors, a move aimed at building capacity for the health sector which is grappling with shortage of human resource, especially doctors. The inauguration of the Habib Medical School is a milestone in the advancement of IUIU towards the objective of becoming a centre of excellence in learning catering to the modern educational needs of students in the region.

what contributes to the problem of youth qualification mismatch in all the OIC countries under consideration is the issue of under education. In Bangladesh and Uganda the percentage of youth who are under educated among the total population of youth and considered a mismatch is 96%, closely followed by Togo (94%) and Benin (93%). In Kyrgyzstan the simple majority of youth qualification mismatch is attributed to under-education with a rate of 51%.

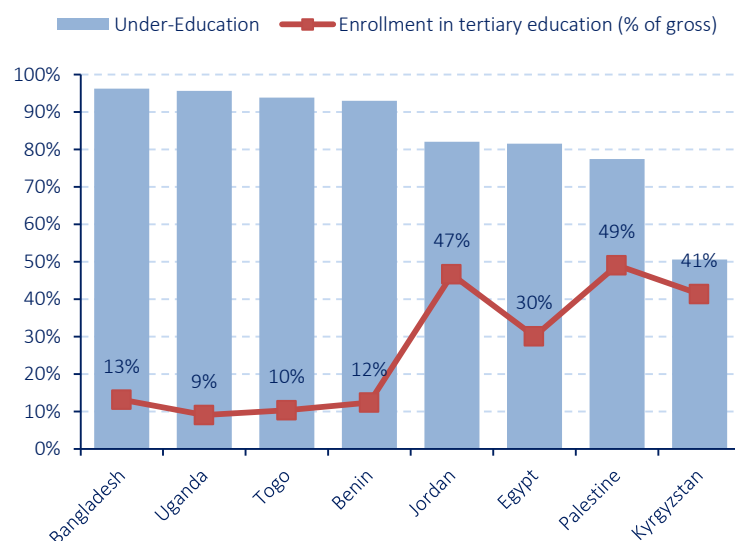
To further analyse the issue of under-education, we turn our attention to Figure 3.4, which plots the share of under-educated among the ranks of youth and the gross enrolment rate in tertiary education. One would expect that there is a negative correlation between the percentages of under-educated and the level of education attainment (as measured by the percentage of people enrolled in tertiary education.) The above assumption is correct for Bangladesh, Uganda, Togo, Benin and Kyrgyzstan. In Bangladesh, Uganda, Togo and Benin a low level of enrolment in tertiary education (ranging from 9% to 13%) corresponds to very high levels on under-education (ranging from 93% to 96%) while in Kyrgyzstan it is observed that a higher level of enrolment in tertiary education (41%) corresponds to a significantly lower level of under-education (51%). In contrast, this relationship does not precisely hold in the cases of Jordan, Palestine and, to a lesser extent, Egypt. Although the levels of education attainment in these three countries are high, the percentage of under-educated is also high. For example in Jordan the percentage of enrolment in tertiary education is a relatively high 47% yet the percentage of under educated among youth who are classified as a mismatch is also as high as 82%. This can be potentially explained by gender issues in the labour force, where women in Jordan, Palestine and Egypt are attaining high levels of

Figure 3.3: Qualification Match (over-education & under-education)



Source: ILO school-to-work transition survey (SWTS).

Figure 3.4: Under-Education & Enrolment in Tertiary Education



Source: World Bank WDI and ILO school-to-work transition survey (SWTS).

education but their participation in the labour market is quite limited.

3.1.3 Transition Stages to the Labour Market

According to the ILO, labour market transition is defined as the passage of a young person (aged 15–29) from the end of schooling (or entry to first economic activity) to the first stable or satisfactory job. ILO further classifies the stages of transition to the labour market as follows:

I. Transited – A young person who has *transited* is one who is currently employed in:

- a) A stable job, whether satisfactory or non-satisfactory; or
- b) A satisfactory but temporary job; or
- c) Satisfactory self-employment.

II. In transition – A young person is still *in transition* when their status is one of the following:

- a) Currently unemployed (relaxed definition); or
- b) Currently employed in a temporary and non-satisfactory job; or
- c) Currently in non-satisfactory self-employment; or

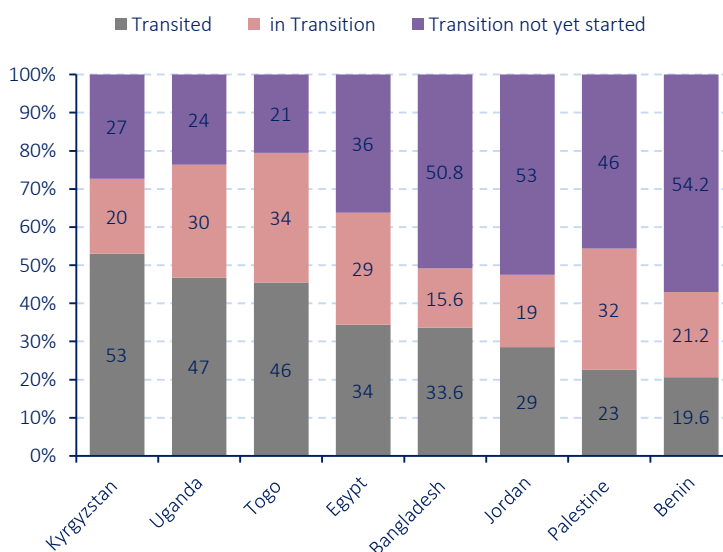
- d) Currently inactive and not in education or training, with an aim to look for work later.

III. Transition not yet started – A young person whose *transition has not yet started* is either:

- a) Still in school and inactive (inactive student); or
- b) Currently inactive and not in education or training (inactive non-student), with no intention of looking for work.

Figure 3.5 shows the state of youth transition to the labour market in a number of OIC countries. As obvious from the Figure there is no central theme to characterise youth transition to the labour market across the different OIC countries under consideration. A high percentage of youth have completed their transition in Kyrgyzstan (53%), Uganda (46.8%), and Togo (45.5%). In these countries the high percentage of youth completing the transition to the labour market is associated with relatively low to moderate unemployment rates (7% in Uganda, 11% in Togo, and 16% in Kyrgyzstan.) Furthermore, in Uganda and Togo the participation of youth in education is low, where in Uganda the gross enrolment rate in secondary education is 28% and in tertiary education is just 9% and in Togo the gross enrolment rate in secondary education is 55% and in tertiary education is only 10%, according to the World Bank. The low enrolment rates of youth in education in Uganda and Togo push higher the percentage of youth who have completed their transition to the workforce and reduces the percentage of youth who have not yet started their transition. As a matter of fact, the lowest percentages of youth who have not yet started their transition are observed in Togo (20.5%) and Uganda (23.7). When it comes to youth in transition, the highest percentages are observed in Togo (34%), Palestine (31.8%) and Uganda (29.6%).

Figure 3.5: State of Youth Transition to the Labour Market (%)



Source: ILO school-to-work transition survey (SWTS).

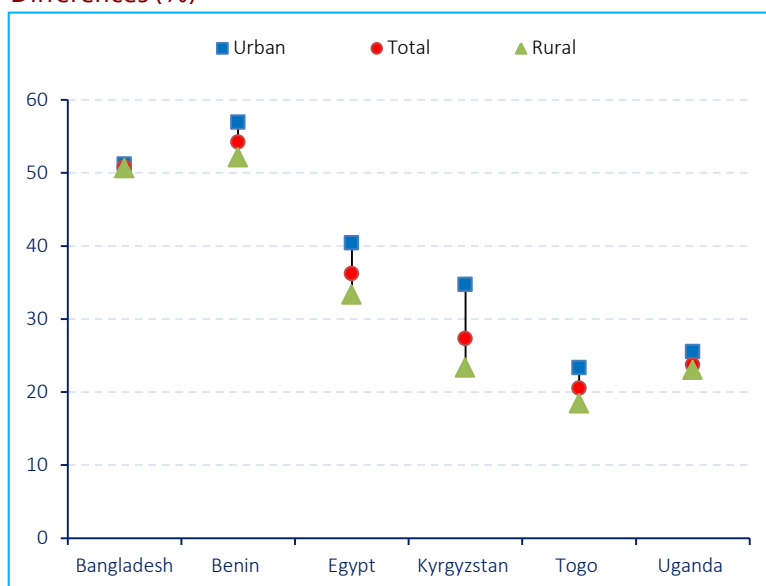
As for the stage “*transition not yet started*”, the highest percentages are observed in Benin (54.2%), Jordan (52.5%) and Bangladesh (50.8%). When analysing youth that have not yet started their transition it can be observed that there are differences according to the area of residence. In all the OIC countries shown in Figure 3.6, the rate of youth that have not yet started their transition in urban areas is higher than that in rural areas. The difference can be as small as less than one percentage point in the case of Bangladesh (51.2% urban vs. 50.6% rural) or as high as more than ten percentage points in the case of Kyrgyzstan (34.7 % urban vs. 23.3% rural.) In general, it is observed that young people in urban areas have higher percentages in not starting their transition to work, which can partly be explained by a higher percentage of youth in urban areas participating in education.

Analysing the statistics on youth that have not yet started their transition to the labour market by gender (see Figure 3.7) reveals two different sets of countries. In one set of countries (Bangladesh, Egypt, Jordan, and Palestine) there is a high disparity according to gender, with females recording significantly higher rates of *not yet starting transition* to the labour force than males. In the other set of countries (Benin, Kyrgyzstan, Togo, and Uganda) the differences according to gender are minimal. In these countries females even record lower rates of *not yet starting transition* to the labour market than males (with the exception of Kyrgyzstan.)

To analyse deeper the stage “*transition not yet started*”, there is a need to decompose this stage to its two elements, which are:

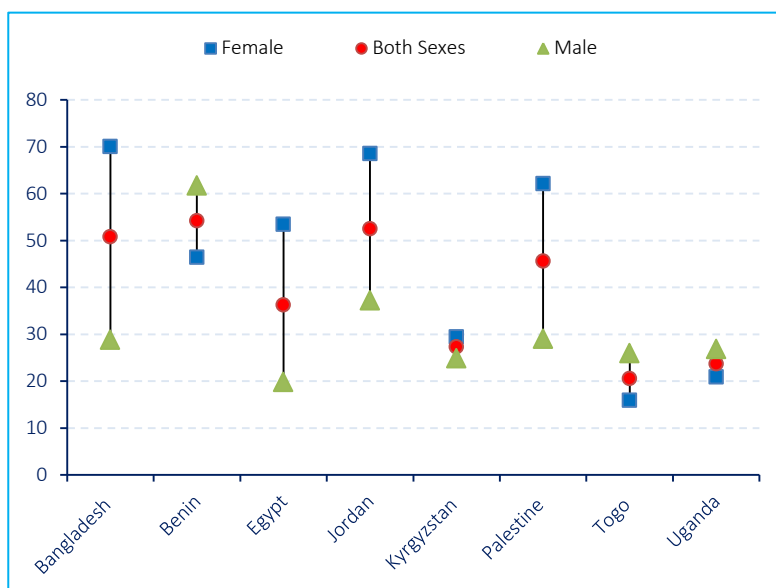
- a) Still in school and inactive (inactive student); or

Figure 3.6: Transition not yet started- Urban & Rural Differences (%)



Source: ILO school-to-work transition survey (SWTS).

Figure 3.7: Transition not yet started by Gender (%)

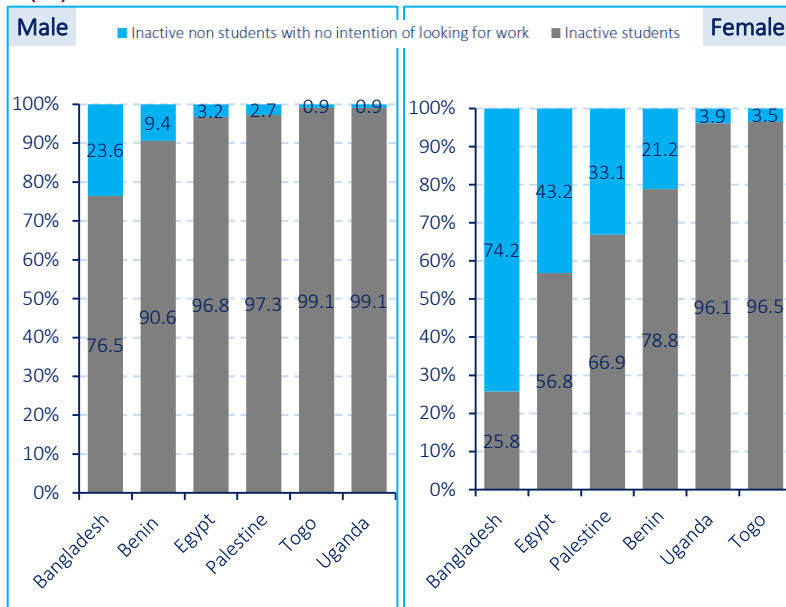


Source: ILO school-to-work transition survey (SWTS).

- b) Currently inactive and not in education or training (inactive non-student), with no intention of looking for work.

The data according to above mentioned decomposition is shown in Figure 3.8. The overwhelming majority of youth males who have not yet started their transition to the labour

Figure 3.8: Decomposition of Transition not yet started Stage (%)



Source: ILO school-to-work transition survey (SWTS).

market are inactive students. As for females, the overwhelming majority of youth who have not yet started their transition to the labour market are students in Togo (96.5%), Uganda (96.1%) and Benin (78.8%). However, in Bangladesh (almost three quarters), Egypt (near to half) and Palestine (almost one third) the story is different, and a significant percentage of female who have not yet started their transition to the labour market are “inactive non students with no intention of looking for work.”

3.1.4 Transition Paths

The transition path of youth to the labour market is analyzed using the ILO approach which is to identify the labour market category held by youth prior to transiting to stable and/or satisfactory employment. Figure 3.9 shows the transition path of youth for 8 OIC countries for which data are available. It reveals a number of interesting insights. In Kyrgyzstan, Benin, Bangladesh and Egypt the majority of youth made a direct transition to the labour market which means they had no other forms of labour market experience

(employment or unemployment) before taking up their current stable or satisfactory job. The percentage of youth who made a direct transition to stable and/or satisfactory employment was highest in Kyrgyzstan (73.7%), followed by Benin (70.8%) and Bangladesh (63.3%). In Jordan and Palestine a high percentage of youth transitioned from unemployment. The percentage of youth who transitioned from unemployment in Jordan was (38.6%) and in Palestine (35.4%). One might be tempted to attribute this to the high unemployment rates of youth in Jordan (34%) and Palestine (38%), but if we look at Egypt, where youth unemployment rate is 39% and higher than both in Jordan and Palestine, we observe that only 11.2% of youth transitioned from unemployment. So there is another dynamic in Jordan and Palestine that results in a high percentage of youth transitioning to the labour market from unemployment. In Jordan and Palestine a large percentage of youth is in “job shopping mode” and engaged in active job seeking before accepting their current employment. Figure 3.9 also reveals that there is an “inactivity trap” in Palestine, Jordan, Benin and Kyrgyzstan, meaning that once a youth is in inactivity it is very difficult for her/him to make the transition to stable and/or satisfactory employment. The inactivity trap is exemplified by the very low percentage of youth who are able to make the transition from inactivity. The worst case of the inactivity trap is observed in Palestine where only 4.8% of youth made the transition to the labour market from the category (inactivity). Palestine is followed by Jordan (5.4%), Benin (5.5%) and Kyrgyzstan (6.5%). On the opposite side of the scale, there is Uganda where 15.6% of youth who made the transition to stable and/or satisfactory employment transitioned from inactivity, indicating that in Uganda it was possible for youth to break out from the “inactivity trap” Finally, an interesting observation

stands out in Togo, where a high percentage of youth made the transition from unpaid family work (19.4%).

3.1.5 Transition Length

Another important dimension of the education-to-work transition analysis is the time spent during the transition period. The durations of transition can be classified under three categories, as suggested by the ILO.

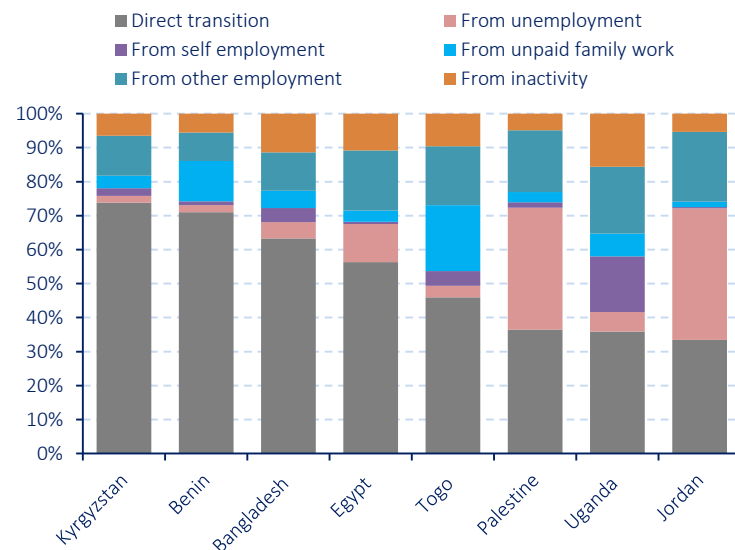
I. A short transition is classified as one in which, before obtaining the current satisfactory / stable job, the young person underwent either:

- a direct transition; or
- a spell (or cumulative spells) of stable or satisfactory employment with no spell of unemployment or inactivity; or
- a spell (or cumulative spells) of employment of less than or equal to one year with no spell of unemployment or inactivity where the job(s) held is classified as non-satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment; or
- a spell of unemployment with or without spells of employment or inactivity of less than or equal to three months; or
- a spell of inactivity of less than or equal to one year.

II. A mid-length transition is classified as one in which, before obtaining the current satisfactory/stable job, the young person underwent either:

- a spell (or cumulative spells) of non-satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment of between one and two years with no spell of unemployment or inactivity; or

Figure 3.9: Transition Paths (%)



Source: ILO school-to-work transition survey (SWTS).

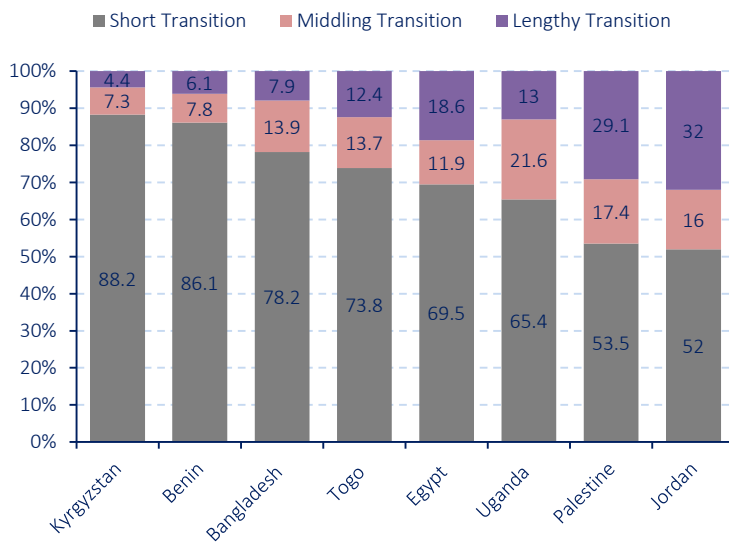
- a spell of unemployment with or without spells of employment or inactivity of between three months and one year; or
- a spell of inactivity longer than one year.

III. A lengthy transition is classified as one in which, before obtaining the current satisfactory/stable job, the young person underwent either:

- a spell (or cumulative spells) of non-satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment of two years or over with no spell of unemployment or inactivity; or
- a spell of unemployment with or without spells of employment or inactivity of one year or over.

Figure 3.10 shows the length of transition experienced by youth in a number of OIC countries. In all the countries shown in the Figure, the majority of youth experienced a short transition; but there are still significant dissimilarities among the countries. In Kyrgyzstan 88.2% of youth experience a short transition

Figure 3.10: Length of Transition (%)



Source: ILO school-to-work transition survey (SWTS).

whereas in Jordan only (52%) of youth experience a short transition. The highest percentages of short transition are observed in Kyrgyzstan (88.2%), Benin (86.1%) and Bangladesh (78.2%). This correlates with the high percentage rates of direct transition observed in these three countries (see the previous section and Figure 3.9). In Jordan (32%) and Palestine (29.1%) a relatively high percentage of youth experienced a lengthy transition. This is also associated with the high percentages observed in the transition of youth to stable and/or satisfactory employment from the “unemployment” category in both Jordan and Palestine (see the previous section and Figure 3.9). From this, it can be concluded that in both Jordan and Palestine, youth who are making the transition from the unemployment category are experiencing a rather lengthy transition process.

3.2 Policies for Youth Employment

As discussed earlier in this chapter, youth in OIC countries suffer from high levels of unemployment (more than three times than that

observed for adults) and the quality of jobs offered to youth transitioning into a labour market is generally low. Labour markets in different OIC countries have different characteristics, hence to solve youth unemployment in OIC countries a “one size fits all” approach is not possible. Nonetheless, there is a key set of policies and intervention that are applicable to all OIC countries in the fight against high youth unemployment rates which are presented below:

- **Creating Jobs:** The high unemployment rate of youth demonstrates without any doubt that OIC countries are not creating enough jobs for youth who are entering the labour market. At the core of any set of policies to address youth unemployment lays job creation. Without strong job creation in OIC countries other interventions and policies will be fruitless. To create new jobs, pro-employment macroeconomic policies must be designed and implemented to support aggregate demand, and governments must also create an enabling environment that allows the private sector to realize its full potential in growth and job creation. Furthermore, OIC countries must nurture growth engines in services and industries by supporting growth in both the export market and domestic market. One area of high relevance to OIC countries is entrepreneurship, which has the potential to stimulate demand and create plenty of jobs for youth. The issue of entrepreneurship and job creation in the context of OIC countries is further discussed in Section 3.3.
- **Improving Quality of Youth Jobs:** Youth are transitioning into labour markets offering limited quality jobs. As discussed earlier, the majority of youth are engaged in informal employment offering low quality jobs with no social security benefits, paid leave, or sick

leave. The rate of formalization in OIC countries needs to be significantly increased. OIC governments can set targets for formalization of jobs in the labour market and provide incentives for enterprises to meet those targets. Also, OIC countries need to introduce laws and regulations with the objective of increasing the rate of formalization and improving the working conditions of youth. These laws and regulations should specifically target micro and small size enterprises (MSEs) which are important for job creation in OIC countries and yet operate most of the time outside labour laws and regulations. The labour market laws and regulation must not stay “ink on paper” but must be implemented and enforced. The implementation and enforcement of labour laws and regulations require OIC governments to be active in the domain of compliance through close and continuous monitoring and inspections. In the area of compliance, OIC governments are recommended to take a gradual approach by offering enterprises legal and technical assistance in their quest to increase formalization and implementation of labour laws and regulations before moving to the option for imposing fines and penalties.

- **Addressing Skill Mismatch:** Section 3.1.2 revealed that some OIC countries suffer from a serious skill mismatch problem resulting in structural unemployment, lower economic growth and productivity through workforce underutilization and a demoralized workforce that is either undereducated or overeducated for the job being performed. The serious skill mismatch problem in OIC countries raises the question about the alignment of the educational systems to the needs of the labour market. The question thus becomes: what can be done to develop

the skills of youth to better match the needs of the labour market? The answer to this question lays in the following:

- Align the education systems to the labour market by making the educational system more demand driven. Involving employers in identifying the skills and knowledge required will help bridge the gap between education system and the labour market.
- Emphasize and expand the technical and vocational education and training system (TVET) and ensure that TVET is well developed across skills and occupations and that it caters to the needs of youth and employers. Also, ensure that TVET leads to decent and quality jobs for youth.
- Invest in second-chance education programmes for youth who have dropped out of the educational system at an early stage to ensure that they have the basic literacy and numeracy skills which are becoming a must for the majority of jobs in this time and age.
- Share and transfer the experiences regarding “skill development of youth” among OIC countries. In this respect it is noteworthy to highlight one of the good practices that needs to be expanded and proliferated which is the SDYE Programme (Skill Development for Youth Employment) initiated by SESRIC in collaboration with the Islamic Development Bank.

Of course the above is a very short and condensed discussion on the subject of skill development which is needed to address the problem of skill mismatch. For a boarder and deeper discussion on this subject refer back to Chapter Two.

- **Promoting Public Employment Services:** Public Employment Services (PES) can be one of the most effective mechanisms for implementing labour market policies. PES provide career counselling for youth steering them away from overcrowded professions and sectors towards one that are in demand. PES also provide job search assistance, labour market information, training, and employment programmes. For PES to be effective they need large amount of data and sophisticated knowledge and tools for skill forecasting and labour market analysis. Unfortunately, in many OIC countries PES do not have the capacities to be effective in these areas. The main policy recommendation in this regard is to increase and build the capacities of PES in OIC countries, and in this respect one of the good practices that needs to be nurtured and expanded is the OIC Capacity Building Programme for Public Employment Services (OIC-PESCaB) initiated by SESRIC. The objective of OIC-PESCaB is to improve public employment services in OIC member countries in line with the OIC Framework for Cooperation on Labour, Employment and Social Protection adopted during the Second Islamic Conference of Labour Ministers held on 23-26 April 2013, in Baku, Azerbaijan.
- **Reducing Gender Based Disparities:** It has

been shown that gender based disparities among youth is not a problem in all OIC countries. Some OIC countries do not suffer from gender based disparities while others do. However, in OIC countries where gender based disparities exist the problem is serious. For example section 3.1.3 showed that in some OIC countries there are huge gender disparities when it comes to youth who have *"not yet started their transition to the labour market"* with females demonstrating significantly higher levels of *"not yet starting the transition to the labour market"* compared to males. Furthermore, in some OIC countries a significantly higher percentage of young females are classified as *"inactive non students with no intention of looking for work"* compared to young males. While in some OIC countries young women are attaining high levels of education, they are participating only in a limited manner in the labour market. The gender based disparities in some OIC countries lead to economic losses and lower returns to investment on education. Among the countries that suffer from gender based disparities in the labour market, the issues are different from one OIC country to another. Even in the same country the issues vary from one city to another or between urban and rural areas. Thus, to reduce gender based disparities in the labour

BOX 3.2: Skills Development for Youth Employment (SDYE) Initiative of SESRIC

Skills Development for Youth Employment (SDYE) has been initiated by SESRIC under the framework of OIC-VET Programme in order to contribute to the solution of the unemployment problem through improving necessary skills for the current labour market in the OIC Member Countries. The SDYE project offers an experience and best practice sharing platform to develop effective models to fight against youth unemployment. The programme was launched in 2012, in Ankara, Turkey, with the participation of relevant institutions from eight selected pilot member countries to share and exchange knowledge and experience in fighting against youth unemployment. The objectives are to impart training in employable skills to vulnerable male and female, principally youth; to build the capacity of potential trainees and develop market linkages for the sustainability of community livelihood within OIC member countries.

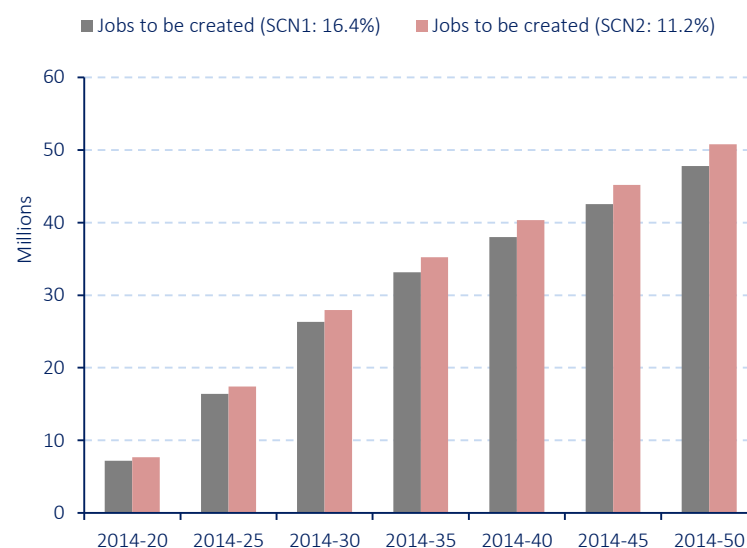
market; extensive data collection, analysis and research at the national and sub-national level are needed in order to identify the hurdles facing young females in fully participating in the labour market and to identify remedies to overcome those hurdles.

3.3 Entrepreneurship and Job Creation

Job creation lies at the core of policies required for resolving the high unemployment problem of youth. Without strong job creation other policies and interventions will be rendered fruitless. Considering the latest population projections, the number of jobs needs to be created for the increasing youth population is estimated under two scenarios. In the baseline scenario (SCN₁), the number of jobs to be created is estimated while keeping constant at the 2014 level of youth unemployment (16.4%). In the second scenario (SCN₂), the number of jobs to be created is estimated assuming that OIC countries would reduce the youth unemployment rates to the levels observed in non-OIC developing countries (11.2%) in 2014. In both scenarios, labour force participation rate is kept at its current level of 44.8% constant. The results are shown in Figure 3.11. From 2014 until 2020, OIC countries need to create an additional 7.2 million jobs for youth and an additional 9 million jobs for every 5 year until 2035. OIC countries need to create almost 38 million jobs until 2040 just to keep the current level of unemployment rate constant.

Creating additional 9 million jobs for every five years is no simple task and in this context, entrepreneurship and MSMEs (Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises) come into play since entrepreneur activity is critical in job creation (Baumol, 1996; Mair and Marti, 2009). In remarks delivered by Angel Gurría, OECD Secretary-

Figure 3.11: Number of job needed to be created

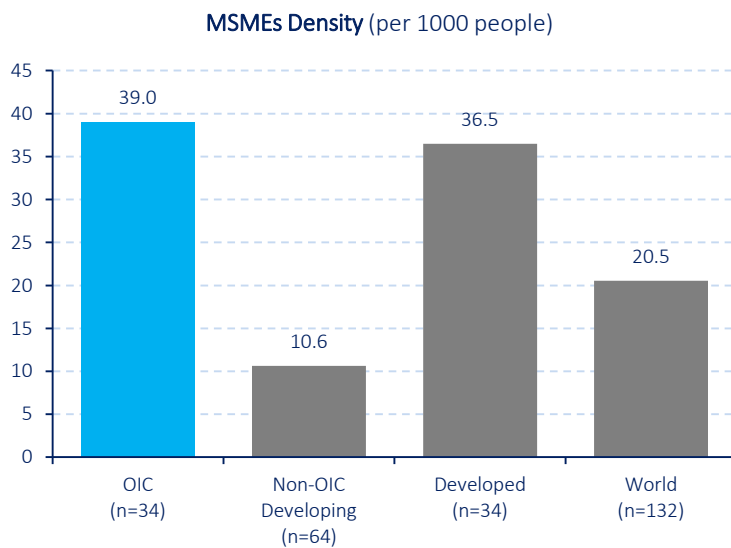


Source: SESRIC Staff Calculations based on ILO Statistics.

General to the OECD “Bologna + 10” Meeting on small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) and entrepreneurship, Mr. Gurría states that “SMEs require special attention as key contributors to employment creation across the globe. They account for approximately 99% of all enterprises and two thirds of employment in OECD countries and 97% of all jobs in emerging economies” (OECD, 2010).

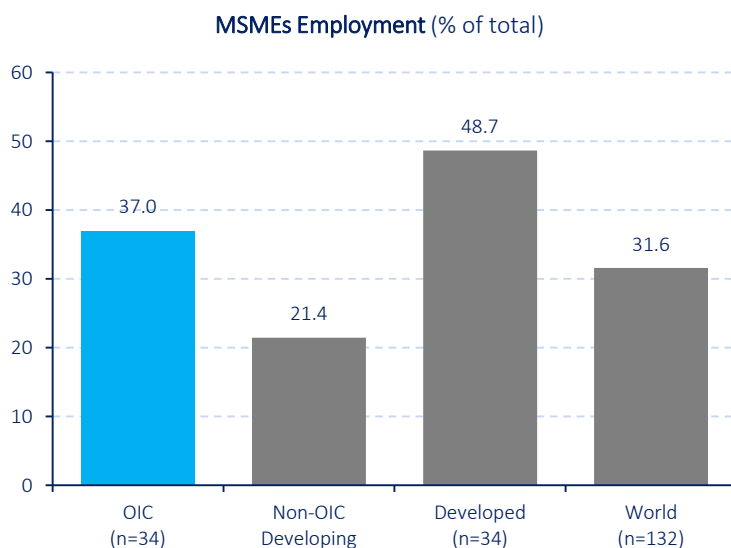
The above leads us to the conclusion that promoting entrepreneurship is an essential policy for solving the youth unemployment problem in OIC countries, but what is the status of entrepreneurship in OIC countries and how does it compare to other country groups? The answer to the just mentioned question lays in Figure 3.12 and Figure 3.13. First, Figure 3.12 shows the MSMEs density “which is the number of MSMEs per 1000 people” in OIC countries with comparisons to other country groups. It is obvious from the Figure that entrepreneurial activity in OIC countries is very dynamic compared to non-OIC developing countries and developed countries. On average, there are only 39 MSMEs

Figure 3.12: MSMEs Density (per 1000 people)



Source: World Bank International Finance Corporation (IFC), MSME Country Indicators 2010

Figure 3.13: MSMEs Share of Employment (% of total)



Source: World Bank International Finance Corporation (IFC), MSME Country Indicators 2010

per 1000 people in OIC countries compared to only 11 in their developing counterparts and 37 in developed countries. Figure 3.13 shows the share of MSMEs in employment as a percentage of the total workforce. MSMEs employ a higher percentage of the total workforce in OIC countries

when compared with non-OIC developing countries. On average, MSMEs employ 37% of the workforce in OIC countries compared to 21% in non-OIC developing countries and 49% in developed countries.

This indicates that, with further support, dynamic entrepreneurial activities in OIC countries can lead to a big boost in job creation efforts, a higher percentage of the workforce being in employment and a reduction in the youth unemployment rate. However, some OIC countries face a number of constraints hindering it from reaching entrepreneurship levels observed in other OIC and non-OIC developing countries as a first stage, and developed countries as a later stage.

One of the major constraints on entrepreneurship in OIC countries are the issues of finance and the lack of financial inclusion. Many of youth who venture to become entrepreneurs have to rely on their own savings or borrow from family. The ones who do not have saving or family members who can provide them with initial capital are practically blocked from entrepreneurship. According to a 2010 Gallup poll results about 90% of the adults residing in OIC member countries consider religion an important part of their daily lives (International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, 2014). Thus, entrepreneurs and micro, small, and medium enterprises find themselves excluded from formal financial markets as they seek Sharia compliant products that are not readily available in the market. This may help explain why only about 25% of adults in OIC member countries have an account in formal financial institutions, which is below the global average of about 50% (International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, 2014). Table 3.1 highlights the fact that there is a huge demand for Sharia compliant financial products by entrepreneurs and MSMEs but this demand is largely unmet.

Table 3.1: Unmet Demand by Entrepreneurs and MSMEs for Sharia Compliant Financial Products

Region	Survey / Year	Results
MENA	IFC (2014)	35% of SMEs in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) are excluded from the formal banking sector because they seek Sharia-compliant products that are not readily available in the market
MENA	IFC (2014)	Of the 36% of banks in the MENA region that offer SME products, only 17 per cent offer Islamic options
Muslim-majority Countries	Karim, Tarazi and Reille (2008)	72% of individuals living in Muslim-majority countries do not use any form of Islamic financial services. This statistic is likely due to the limited reach of Islamic banking institutions to SMEs in the Muslim world
Global	CGAP (2007)	Islamic microfinance has an estimated global outreach of only 380,000 customers and accounts for only around 0.5% of total microfinance outreach. Although 2010 estimates now put this figure at 5%, the potential still remains mainly untouched.
MENA	IFC (2014)	If proper products are developed and introduced there exists an estimated potential “new to bank” gap of \$8.63 billion to \$13.20 billion for Islamic SME financing, with a corresponding depository potential of \$9.71 billion to \$15.05 billion across MENA countries. However, to tap the underlying potential, Islamic banks need to build capacity and develop Sharia-compliant products to cater to this emerging sector.

Therefore, to remove the main hurdle in front of entrepreneurship in OIC countries, measures to increase financial inclusion are necessary. Measures to increase financial inclusion and measures to meet the demand by entrepreneurs and MSMEs for sharia complaint financial product will serve as a boost to entrepreneurship and job creation for youth⁷.

OIC countries also need to nurture the entrepreneurship spirit among youth. The best place to start off is schools. Students need to be introduced to business concepts and to the idea that starting up a business later in life is a viable and attractive option. In many middle income OIC

countries with high education attainment levels there is pressure on youth from their parents to choose what they perceive as a safe and stable job in the public sector as a first choice and in the private sector as a second choice. In these countries public opinion about entrepreneurship needs to be modified, and this can be achieved by promotional campaigns around inspirational success stories of youth who have chosen the entrepreneurship route. Furthermore, it has been shown that using popular TV series to influence people attitudes has been successful, thus popular TV series can be used to positively influence people perceptions about entrepreneurship. Finally, many young people who decide to venture to become entrepreneurs lack the market and technical skill to do so and in this regard, incubators can provide an effective solution.

⁷ A detailed discussion on the subject of financial inclusion and public policies for financial inclusion is beyond the scope of this report, however, the interested reader is advised to review the “Global Financial Development Report 2014: Financial Inclusion” published by the international Bank for Reconstruction and Development

SOCIAL PROTECTION AND OCCUPATIONAL SAFETY AND HEALTH

Social protection provides safety nets including social insurance programs or other labour market interventions which allow individuals to deal with labour market risks. More precisely, social protection systems protect people against the negative effects of labour market exposed to external shocks. Today, all countries in the world have a social protection program. However, 73% of the world's population continues to live without adequate social protection coverage (ILO, 2014). This means that, for the large majority of people, the fundamental human right to social security is only partially realized or not at all. On the other hand, occupational safety and health (OSH) represents a key element in achieving decent working conditions. In this context, this section describes the current situation of social protection and, occupational safety and health at work in OIC member countries.

4.1 Social Protection

Although social protection became a priority for countries in the context of greater labour market risks, it carries a wide range of definitions among policymakers responsible for implementing social protection programs. Generally, social protection is defined as "the set of policies and programs designed to reduce poverty and vulnerability by promoting efficient labour markets, diminishing people's exposure to risks,

and enhancing their capacity to protect themselves against hazards and loss of income" (ADB, 2011). In this context, social protection programs can be grouped into three categories: social insurance, social assistance and labour market programs.

Social insurance consists of programs financed by workers and their employers which cover maternity or work related contingencies such as unemployment and work injury. Social assistance refers to resources which are transferred to vulnerable individuals with no other means of adequate support. Labour market programs are comprised of both passive and active labour market programs. Passive labour market programs include unemployment insurance or severance payments. Active labour market programs consist of policies and programs which promote employment, the efficiency of labour markets and the protection of workers.

Against this backdrop, this section presents the rationale for social protection, major subcomponents of social protection as well as some assessments based on social protection index.

4.1.1 Rationale for Social Protection

Why in market economies do we need governments to provide protection against labour market risk? In some cases, the private market

doesn't provide insurance against the labour market risk. In this context, adverse selection and moral hazard represent two main reasons for the non-existence of a market for insurance against the labour market risk. Adverse selection theory predicts that only individuals who intend to quit their jobs will buy unemployment insurance. Therefore, the private sector will be reluctant to provide unemployment insurance. On the other hand, moral hazard occurs when people with unemployment insurance may have fewer incentives to look for jobs because they already receive their unemployment benefits. This means that having unemployment insurance increases the opportunity costs of finding a new job.

Even if a private market exists, one of the arguments for social protection relies on the possibility of labour market crowding. That is when a sector is negatively affected by import competition, the lay-off decision by a firm generates an increase in the pool of unemployed. This decision lowers the matching probability for each individual looking for a job. This fact represents an externality which leads to labour market congestion. In this context, an adjustment subsidy can reduce the number of searchers and ease this labour market congestion (ILO & WTO, 2011). Therefore, social protection increases efficiency by addressing market failures arising from externalities such as labour market crowding.

Another argument for social protection is based on the distributional effects of globalization. In other words, globalization can create winners and losers simultaneously even if there are no costs combined with the mobility of workers from one sector to another. For example, when considering an economy divided broadly into two categories such as capital and labour, international trade benefits one of these two factors and hurts the other in a way that the abundant factor gains and the scarce factor loses. In this context, Heckscher–Ohlin model predicts that the

unemployment rate could decrease in a country abundant in labour and could increase in a country abundant in capital as a result of trade (Dutt et al., 2009). In this respect, social protection can improve distributional equity by assisting displaced workers facing moving costs.

4.1.2 Social Protection Programs: Important Subcomponents

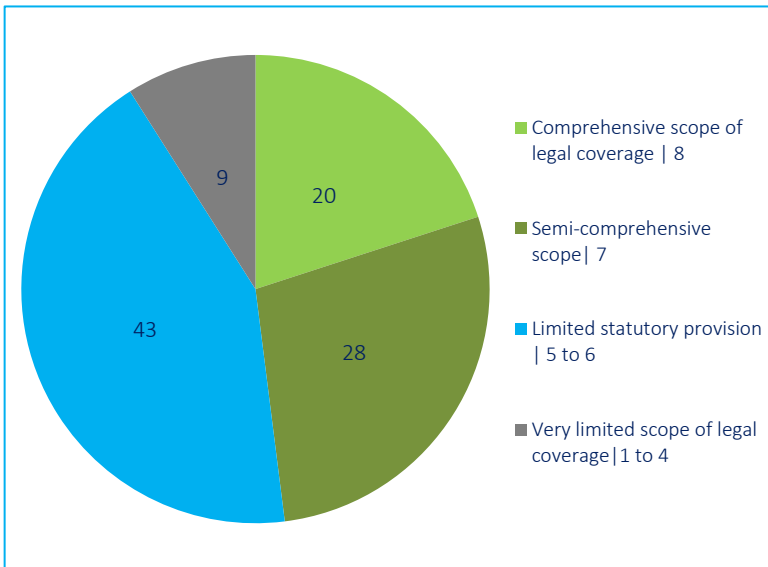
This subsection examines the major components of social protection programs and their important subcomponents such as social insurance, social assistance and labour market programs. Major components and subcomponents of social protection includes social insurance; risks associated with sickness, maternity, old age, employment injury, invalidity, survivors, family allowances and unemployment; social assistance; conditional cash transfers; social pensions; school feeding; other benefits (other food programs, education benefits); labour market programs; skills development and training; and public works and food for work.

Social Insurance Programmes

Social insurance coverage refers to the percentage of population participating in this program. In 2013, the average social insurance coverage in 31 countries, for which data are available, was recorded at 27.1%. Social insurance programs in general cover people who have been economically active in the past but have lost their income from work either permanently or temporarily due to loss of their current job (unemployment benefits), sickness, disability or death resulting from a work-related accident or disease (employment injury benefits) or pregnancy, childbirth and family responsibilities (maternity, paternity or parental benefits, child or family benefits) (Annex, Table A.1).

Figure 4.1 shows the number of OIC member countries with respect to different national social insurance systems. Only 10 OIC countries have a comprehensive scope of legal coverage referring

Figure 4.1: National Social Insurance Systems in OIC Countries, 2013



Source: International Labour Standards and National Legislation Database (NORMLEX)

to 8 social insurance programs anchored in national legislation such as sickness, maternity, old age, employment injury, invalidity, survivors, family allowances and unemployment. 20 OIC countries have a limited statutory provision with 5 to 6 programs anchored in national legislation representing the highest share.

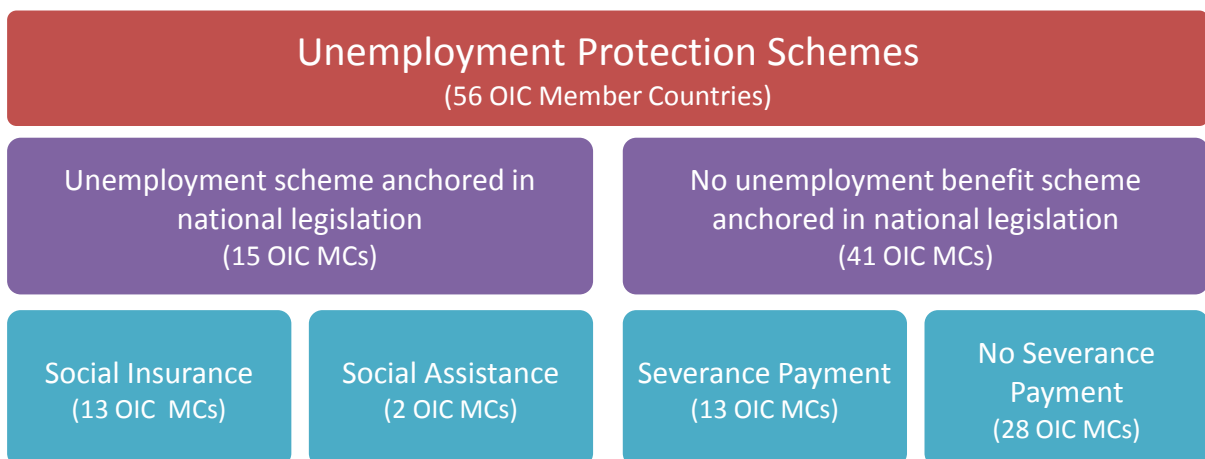
Among social insurance programs, unemployment benefit schemes play a key role in

providing income security to workers and their families in case of temporary unemployment contributing to reducing poverty and social exclusion. In this context, a number of countries in the world have introduced unemployment benefit schemes in order to ensure income security for unemployed workers and facilitate their search for jobs in the formal economy. However, countries use different unemployment protection schemes (Chart 4.1).

In 2013, 41 OIC countries have no unemployment benefit scheme anchored in national legislation. However, 13 of these countries provide severance payment for workers covered by the labour code which provides a limited level of protection to some workers. More precisely, severance payment amounts to a week of pay for every year that the employee was working. Of the 15 OIC countries that have social security benefits in case of unemployment, public social insurance is by far the most common mechanism used to provide unemployment protection.

In addition to unemployment protection, maternity protection for employed women is also an essential element of social protection in order to preserve the health of the mother and her newborn as well as to provide a job security. Job security includes maintenance of wages and

Chart 4.1: Overview of Unemployment Protection Schemes in OIC Member Countries



Source: Employment protection legislation database (EPLex) (2013)

benefits during maternity, prevention of dismissal during pregnancy, maternity leave and a period of time after return to work (UN, 2010). Social insurance schemes form the majority of maternity protection in 24 OIC member countries (Figure 4.2).

The current international standard for the duration of maternity leave as provided in the Maternity Protection Convention 2000 (No. 183) is 14 weeks. This represents an increase from the standard of 12 weeks specified in the previous Convention. Many OIC countries do not meet the new standard. In 2013, only 7 out of 50 OIC countries have durations of maternity leave that meet the 12 week standard stipulated in the previous ILO Convention. However, 26 OIC countries meet the new international standard of 14 weeks (Figure 4.3).

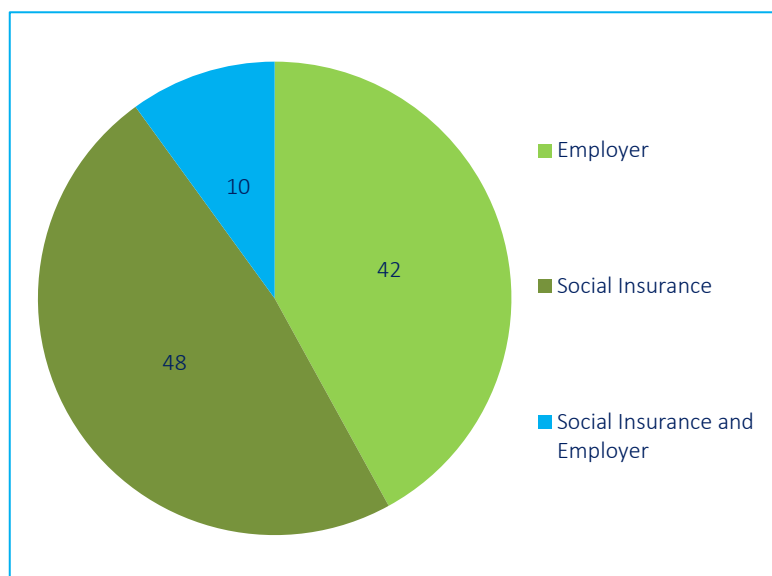
In terms of employment injury, in 2014, only 33.9% of the global labour force is covered by law through mandatory social insurance (ILO, 2014). Moreover, the legal coverage for employment injury protects those in formal employment, whereas workers in informal employment are rarely covered. Figure 4.4 summarizes the OIC member countries with the highest and lowest legal employment injury coverage rates. It also reveals the great difference between the OIC member countries in terms of legal employment injury coverage. Kuwait had the highest rate with 95%. In addition Niger, Brunei Darussalam, Bahrain and Togo also had employment injury coverage rates higher than 84%.

In terms of the lowest legal employment injury coverage rates as shown in Figure 4.5, Chad had the lowest rate with 4.7% closely followed by Benin, Burkina Faso, Sierra Leone, Mauritania with less than 9% legal employment injury coverage rates. Therefore, the low coverage of employment injury in many OIC countries points to an urgent need to enhance working conditions concerning occupational safety and health.

Social Assistance Programmes

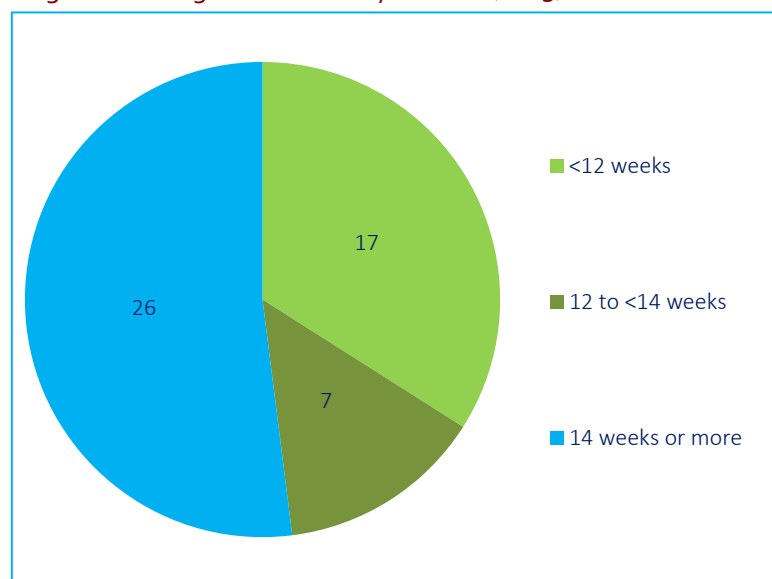
Social assistance programmes cover conditional cash transfers, social pensions, school feeding, food and in-kind transfers as well as other types of social assistance programs. In this context,

Figure 4.2: Maternity Protection Schemes in OIC Member Countries (2013)



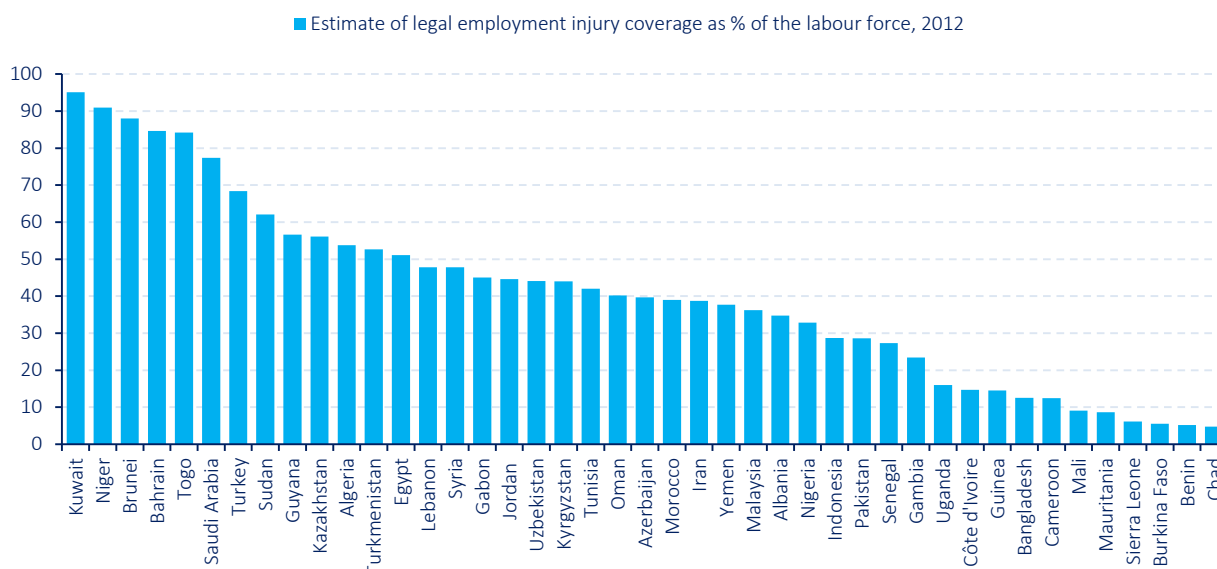
Source: UN, Statistics and Indicators on Women and Men, 2013.

Figure 4.3: Distribution of OIC Member Countries by Legislated Length of Maternity Leave* (2013)



Source: UN, Statistics and Indicators on Women and Men, 2013. *Length of maternity leave: The length of time for which maternity leave is provided, whether with or without pay.

Figure 4.4: Estimate of Legal Employment Injury Coverage as % of the Labour Force (2012)



Source: ILO

conditional cash transfers are periodic monetary benefits to poor households who need beneficiaries to comply with specific conditions such as school attendance, immunizations and health check-ups. Social pensions provide periodic cash transfers to the elderly outside or supplemental to the contributory pension system. School feeding programs provide quantity rations, in-kind supplemental food or school meals. Food and in-kind transfers include food stamps or food subsidies targeting vulnerable groups. Other social assistance programs consist of family and child benefits as well as disability benefits.

Data is not available for the majority of the OIC countries concerning social assistance subcomponents listed above. However, among OIC countries for which data are available, it is observed that Gabon and Egypt have relatively high percentage of population participating in food and in-kind transfers (42.9% and 43.8%, respectively), while Kazakhstan has 21.7% coverage in non-contributory social pensions.

Uzbekistan has also introduced decentralized social assistance in 1994. It relied on traditional pre-Soviet local community groups known as mahallas in order to carry out some of its social assistance programs and to select their beneficiaries. In 2009, 64% of Uzbekistan's social assistance spending was administered through mahallas (ADB, 2011).

Labour Market Programs

There are two types of labour market programmes: active labour market programmes and passive labour market programmes. Active labour market programs help people to secure employment. Their major components are skill development and training programs as well as special work programs such as public works or food for work programs. On the other hand, passive labour market programs include various forms of social insurance such as unemployment insurance and severance payments.

As in the case of social assistance, data are not available for the majority of the OIC countries regarding labour market programs

subcomponents. In OIC countries for which data is available, active labour market programs constitute the major subcomponent of labour market programs. In this context, Table 4.1 shows the percentage of population participating in active labour market programs in OIC member countries. Among the OIC countries, for which data are available, while Uganda has the highest coverage rate with more than 18%, Yemen and Pakistan have the lowest coverage rates with less than 0.1%.

In Afghanistan and Bangladesh, active labour market programs as a whole account for 23% and 36% of social protection expenditures, respectively (ADB, 2011). The most important subcomponent of active labour market programs corresponds to the public works program due to the large size of the informal sector in OIC Member Countries. In public works programs, poor manual workers are hired on a short-term basis to work such as in the construction of local infrastructure and roads. In exchange, these workers receive a subsistence wage. Public works may also help strengthen the local government and its institutional capacity to implement development policy as well as increase local participation.

Table 4.1: Active Labour Market Programs in OIC Member Countries, 2013 or latest data available, %

Countries	Coverage
Uganda	18,39
Morocco	8,30
Albania	5,62
Djibouti	4,33
Bangladesh	4,32
Azerbaijan	2,31
Senegal	2,08
Cote d'Ivoire	0,43
Iraq	0,21
Pakistan	0,07
Yemen	0,07

Source: World Bank, ASPIRE

Another component of active labour market program refers to the food for work program which provides communities with food as an incentive for participating in infrastructure projects. For example, in Afghanistan, more than 5,800 skilled and unskilled workers have been involved in building infrastructure such as dams and irrigation systems as well as road networks that can link villages to larger markets (ADB, 2011).

4.1.3 Social Protection Index

The Social Protection Index (SPI) has been developed by the Asian Development Bank (ADB) in 2005. It was the first comprehensive measure of social protection systems in Asia and the Pacific. The overall SPI is a weighted sum of the SPIs for social insurance, social assistance, and labour market programs. The weights correspond to the relative sizes of the groups of potential beneficiaries of each of these three major programs. Table 4.2 compares SPI results for 10 OIC member countries with their social protection expenditures as a ratio to GDP.⁸

Kyrgyz Republic has the highest SPI (0.32). This signifies that its social protection spending equals to 32% of poverty-line expenditures. Pakistan, in contrast, recorded the lowest SPI (0.01). Uzbekistan's SPI is 0.30. Its social protection expenditure represents 8.43% of GDP, approximately half of Kyrgyz Republic's. Besides, five OIC Member Countries, namely Pakistan, Afghanistan, Indonesia, Tajikistan and Bangladesh have an SPI in the range of 0.01-0.05. Their ratio of social protection expenditures to GDP ranges from 0.38% (Pakistan) to 1.57% (Bangladesh).

⁸ The SPI covers data on government social protection programs are available only for 35 countries in Asia and the Pacific, 10 of which are OIC countries. Therefore, the analysis in this subsection is limited only on these countries for which data are available. For More information about the SPI, see ADB (2011).

Table 4.2: Social protection index (SPI), social protection (SP) expenditure as percentage of GDP in selected OIC Member Countries, 2010

Country	SPI	SP Expenditures as % of GDP
Kyrgyz Republic	0,32	14,95
Uzbekistan	0,30	8,43
Azerbaijan	0,19	6,31
Malaysia	0,14	3,43
Maldives	0,12	4,92
Bangladesh	0,05	1,57
Tajikistan	0,04	1,22
Indonesia	0,02	0,67
Afghanistan	0,02	1,21
Pakistan	0,01	0,38

Source: ADB, Social Protection Index

The SPIs for social insurance are high for Uzbekistan, Kyrgyz Republic and Azerbaijan (Figure 4.5). Besides, these countries also have high overall SPIs (Table 4.2). Social insurance dominates social protection in 6 OIC member countries. The SPIs for social assistance for Uzbekistan, Kyrgyz Republic and Azerbaijan are also comparatively high with 0.09, 0.14 and 0.06, respectively. SPIs for labour market programs are generally quite low, the average for 9 OIC Member Countries being only 0.002. The main reason for the very small SPI for labour market programs is that the size of the intended beneficiaries is relatively small. However, Bangladesh and Afghanistan have relatively high SPIs for these programs, principally because of sizable and active labour market programs.

Box 4.1: Active Labour Market Policies

Active labour market policies (ALMP) are being implemented to increase employment opportunities for job seekers and improve balance between jobs available and qualified employees. ALMP are designed to help people cope with rapid change and encourage people to actively seek for work and keep unemployment spells low. In formulating policies, that effectively target the populations at risk, it is necessary to take account of the fact that long-term unemployment is more pronounced for some population sub-groups than others. There are three main categories: public employment services, training schemes and employment subsidies.

In order to ensure improvement of the effectiveness of ALMPs, the followings are recommended by the European Commission:

- Programs need to be undertaken at an early stage to prevent unemployed falling into long-term unemployment and should be focused on activation of the long-term unemployment;
- Profiling need to be taken for early identification of risky groups and the adoption of appropriate measures;
- Seeking acquisition of the right skills, training has to be well-targeted at specific groups and tailored to their needs. Vocational trainings need to be based on a more targeted and marker-oriented function (workplace-based or combined with school based);
- Wage subsidies should be well targeted and run at a small-scale basis. Guidance should be offered to employers in particular in times of high unemployment as wage subsidies might be less attractive for employers;
- Job creation measures need to be well designed and need to incorporate training;
- Mechanisms need to be in place which provide incentives for employers to retain workers after the subsidy expires or combined with other ALMP measures in order to improve the employability of beneficiaries within integrated programmes;
- Programs, like subsidized employment, need to be run on a smaller scale and combined with other ALMP measures (training).

A particular focus is needed on young people, given their high rates of inactivity and joblessness.

Source: European Commission, <http://goo.gl/4Rnzvr>

Moreover, the breadth and depth of the social protection index are also helpful in order to assess the overall social protection system in a country. In this context, the breadth indicates the proportion of intended beneficiaries who actually receive social protection benefits, while the depth indicates the average size of the benefits that these people receive. It is worth mentioning that these two dimensions of social protection are inversely related. In other words, if there are few beneficiaries of social protection, the average size of their benefits can be relatively high. On the contrary, if there are many beneficiaries, the average size of their benefits can be relatively low.

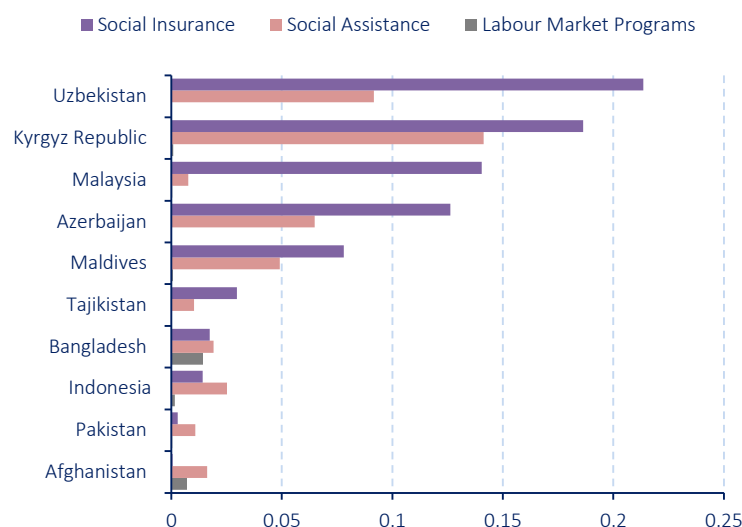
Figure 4.6 shows that, out of 10 OIC countries in Asia for which data are available, while Malaysia has the highest average depth for social protection coverage (1.36), Indonesia has the lowest (0.03).

On the other hand, in terms of the breadth of social protection coverage, Pakistan, Afghanistan and Malaysia have the lowest average breadth. This shows that in Malaysia, while a few beneficiaries receive fairly substantial benefits, the great majority receive relatively small benefits. Indonesia stands in sharp contrast to Malaysia. It has the lowest depth and the second highest breadth with 0.69. More precisely, 69% of all potential beneficiaries of social protection receive some benefits.

4.2 Occupational Safety and Health

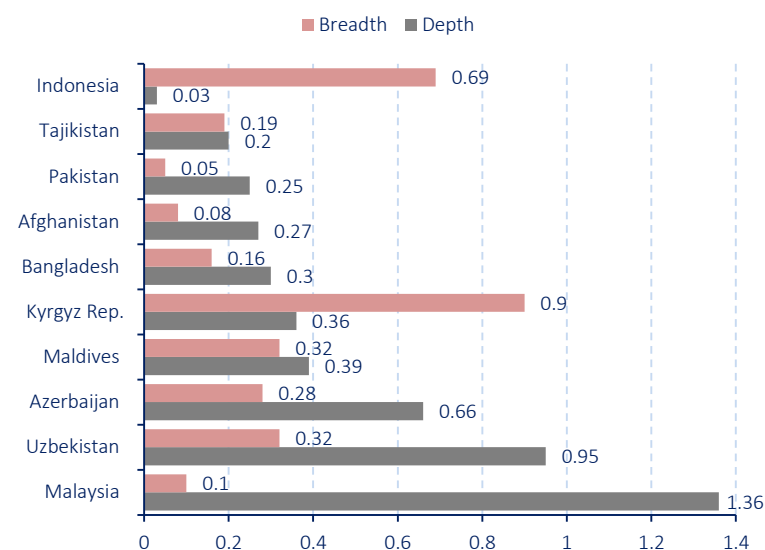
Occupational safety and health (OSH) is generally defined as the science of the recognition, evaluation and control of hazards arising in or from the workplace that could affect negatively the health and well-being of workers. OSH covers a large number of disciplines and many workplace and environmental hazards.

Figure 4.5: Social Protection Index by Program in selected OIC Member Countries (2010)



Source: Social Protection Index, ADB.

Figure 4.6: Depth and Breadth of the Social Protection Index in OIC Member Countries, 2010



Source: Social Protection Index, ADB.

The scope of occupational safety and health has been evolving in response to social, political, technological and economic changes in the world. In this context, rapid technological progress, significant developments in transport and communication, shifting patterns of employment as well as changes in work organization practices formed new types of hazards, exposures and

risks. Demographic changes that caused pressures on the global environment also affected the practice of occupational safety and health in the world of work.

Against this backdrop, this section presents an overview of the trends concerning OSH in terms of occupational accidents and fatal work-related diseases and highlights some related operational measures such as labour inspection and collective bargaining.

4.2.1 Overview of Trends

The legislative base and the reporting practices of occupational accidents and work-related diseases vary between countries. Therefore, there are differences in occupational accidents and work-related diseases statistics between countries due to these different reporting practices.

According to the latest global estimates of ILO, there were over 321,000 fatal occupational accidents (ILO, 2013b). An occupational accident that is fatal is the result of an occupational accident where death occurred within one year from the day of the accident. Of the estimated 6,300 work-related deaths that occur every day, 5,500 are caused by different types of work

related diseases. Besides, 160 million cases of non-fatal work-related diseases occur annually (ILO, 2013b).

Occupational diseases also create enormous costs. It reduces productivity of workers and increases health care expenditures. In this respect, work-related accidents and diseases result in an annual 4% loss in global GDP (ILO, 2013b).

Table 4.3: Trend of occupational accidents and fatal work-related diseases in the World

Year	Non-fatal occupational accidents (at least four days absence)		Fatal work-related diseases
	Number	Rate*	
1998	263,621,966	12,534	
2000			2,028,003
2001	268,023,272	12,218	
2002			1,945,115
2003	336,532,471	12,966	
2008	317,421,473	10,612	2,022,570
2010	313,206,348	9,786	
2011			1,979,262

Source: Takala, J., Hamalainen, P. et al. 2014. *Number of occupational accidents per 100,000 persons belonging to labour force

BOX 4.2: OIC Network for Occupational Safety and Health (OIC-OSHNET)

OIC Network for Occupational Safety and Health (OIC-OSHNET) is a transnational network project with the aim of establishing closer cooperation for sharing knowledge, experience and new technologies, conducting joint research and training, exchanging of good practices and organizing new initiatives, projects and programmes in the field of Occupational Safety and Health among similar local, national and regional institutions, OSH researchers and practitioners, national authorities, policy makers, social security institutions and employers' and workers' organizations active in this field in the OIC Member Countries.

OIC-OSHNET works to promote both institutional and human resource capabilities of the OIC Member Countries in the area of OSH by organizing cooperation and partnership programmes, including biannual network meetings, workshops, capacity building courses, joint research such as developing an OIC Occupational Safety and Health Standards Guideline and other collaborative activities with the aim of improving the quality of the service in the area.

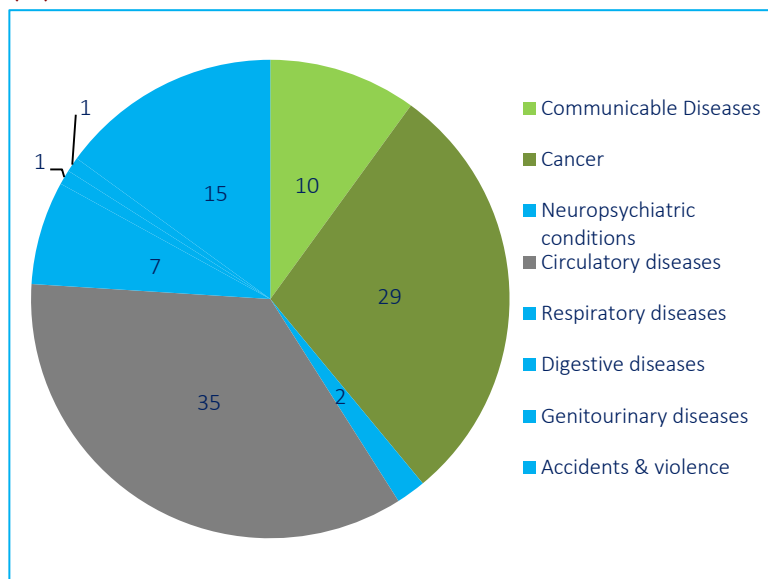
The OIC-OSHNET developed an OIC Occupational Safety and Health Standards Guideline with the intention of enforcement of International OSH Regulations and Standards and to popularize occupational health and safety standards with regard to projects financed by relevant OIC Institutions.

On the other hand, the number of fatal work-related diseases in the world remained almost the same with a small decline in 2011 compared to 2008 (Table 4.3). There were also over 313 million non-fatal occupational accidents (with at least four days absence) in 2010. A non-fatal occupational accident is the result of an occupational accident not leading to death. The number and rate of non-fatal occupational accidents have remained almost the same in 2010 with only small decrease since 2008.

Globally, circulatory diseases at 35% and cancers at 29% were the top illnesses responsible for 2/3 of deaths from work-related diseases, followed by accidents & violence at 15% and communicable diseases 10% (Figure 4.7). Recent research showed that diseases attributed to work increases as a country transits from a developing phase to a more developed state (Takala, J., Hamalainen, P. et al 2014).

Appropriate legislation and regulations together with adequate means of enforcement, are essential for the protection of workers' safety and health. Therefore, OSH can be secured by an adequate and appropriate system of inspection. Alongside labour inspection, there are also provisions related to collective bargaining, which

Figure 4.7: Work-Related Annual Deaths in the World, 2011 (%)



Source: Takala, J., Hamalainen, P. et al. 2014.

establishes conditions for negotiations between employers and workers. Since legislative processes are slow, collective agreements are more suitable for laying down requirements concerning working conditions and the work environment in an enterprise.

PARTICIPATION AND MIGRATION

This section looks at participation and migration in labour markets in OIC member countries. Section 1 of this report discussed and analysed the labour force participation rates in OIC member countries in a comparative perspective and analysed data for different gender and age groups. Although the analysis made in Section 1 provides some insights on root causes of high rate of inactivity of population, it is still useful to focus on why some parts of population such as women, youth and elderly in the society have a higher tendency to stay out of the labour force in OIC member countries. To this end, this section starts with a discussion on challenges related with participation to labour force and discusses several policy implications.

This section further looks at the labour migration topic. It is another important factor that affects labour markets in different ways. The discussions on the migration of unskilled and skilled labour force have been made separately. In this regard, the analysis in this section reflects specific challenges stemming from migration of both groups of workers in OIC member countries. After discussing challenges and implications of labour migration, specific policy recommendations have been provided for OIC member countries.

5.1 Participation

Participation implies the engagement of working age-population into labour force. The opposite of

the participation term is inactivity in labour economics. The inactivity rate is used to measure the proportion of a country's working-age population that is not engaged actively in the labour market, neither by working nor looking for a job. Sum of the inactivity rate and the labour force participation rate is equal to 100%, reflecting the total working age population.

There is a variety of reasons why some individuals do not participate in the labour force. Caring for family members, retirement, sickness, disability, education, unavailability of suitable jobs, and unwillingness to work are among the major reasons. An increase in the number of people, who are inactive, for whatever reason, can alter the unemployment rate as it can reduce the number of employed, unemployed or both.

Inactivity rate in OIC member countries is falling only slowly, which decreased to 40.2% in 2014 from 41.2% in 2000 (Figure 5.1). In non-OIC developing countries and developed countries, a slightly upward trend is observed. The share of inactive population in non-OIC developing countries increased to 34.4% in 2014 from 31.6% in 2000. At individual country level within the OIC group, Qatar, Mozambique and Burkina Faso have the lowest rates of inactivity. On the other hand, Palestine, Jordan and Iraq have the highest rates of inactivity.

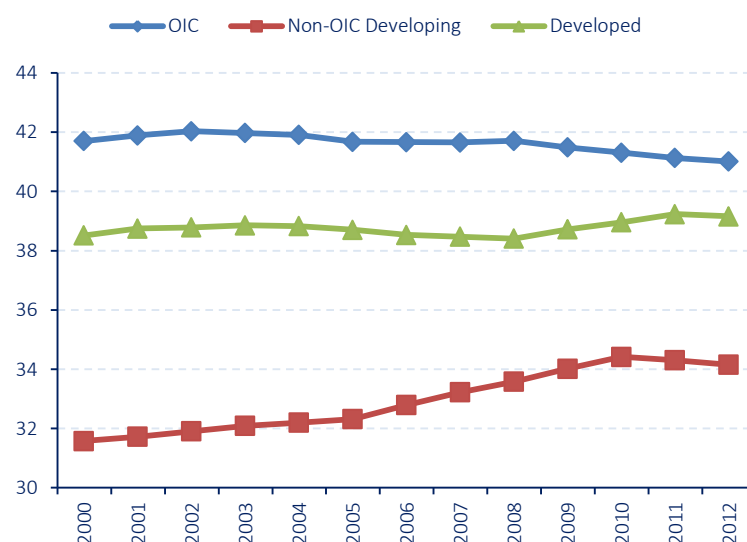
Although the inactivity rate has been declining at a slow pace, the average level stays relatively very high for the OIC group. Discouraging environment and policies for women, elderly, youth and disabled people lead OIC member countries to accumulate a significant amount of inactive population. The following sub-sections elaborate some main challenges for these specific groups and discuss some policy recommendations for each group.

5.1.1 Encouraging women's participation to labour force

Participation of women into labour force and economic activities is important for economic growth and development. The gender gap index of the World Economic Forum was developed to capture the magnitude of gender-based disparities in countries. In this index, one of the four main dimensions is called economic participation of women. According to this index, a higher share of economically inactive women not only prevents countries in reaching their potential GDP but also triggers gender disparity within the society where women could not have equal economic freedoms as men. The lack of economic freedoms (or its limited presence) for women leads to some serious problems by limiting their access to basic services such as education and health. Limited access to basic services constrains the potential for economic growth and development by limiting their productive participation, thereby hampers income generation for better life. In a nutshell, a problem related with economic participation may turn to a serious development problem in later stages, which reflects the importance of the issue to policy-makers.

In terms of inactivity rate among female population in OIC member countries, a declining trend is observed, which fell to 58.8% in 2014 from its level of 61.6% in 2000. However, inactivity among female population is

Figure 5.1: Total Inactivity Rate (%), 2000-2015

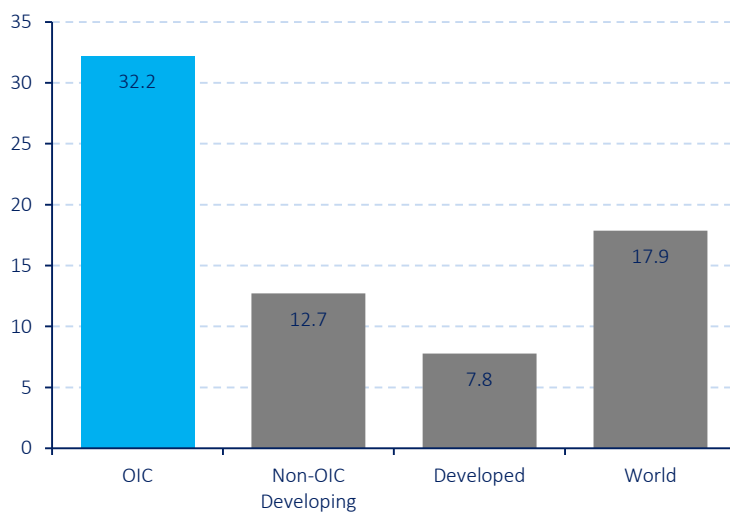


Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated, p: projected).

significantly lower in non-OIC developing countries (47.4%) and developed countries (46.8%) compared to the OIC group (see Section 1.7). This implies that job markets in OIC member countries do not provide a very enabling environment for women to participate into labour force.

Another indicator used to track women's economic participation into economic activities is the labour force participation rate that was discussed in details in Section 1 of this report. Figure 5.2 highlights the existence of remarkable difference between the rates of men and women in OIC member countries, which is the highest observed gender gap compared with other country groups (Figure 5.2). In developed countries, the gender gap in labour force participation rates was measured around 7 percentage points, where the world average was calculated as 17 percentage points. Even looking at a basic indicator on labour force participation rates reveals that OIC member countries need to devise special policies to

Figure 5.2: Gender Gap in Labour Force Participation Rates (Percentage Point), 2013



Source: WDI. Note: Gender Gap = Male Labour Force Participation Rate – Female Labour Force Participation Rate.

encourage women's participation into economic activities and reduce gender disparity in economic life.

Policies followed by developed countries and OIC member countries with high women labour force participation rates, such as Mozambique and Kazakhstan, can constitute a basis for a reform agenda in order to empower women's participation into economic activities in other OIC countries. These specific agenda items for women are discussed under four broad topics: education, health, economic and social rights, and violence and civil society.

Education

OIC member countries suffer from low literacy rates both for male and female population, stemming from low levels of investments in basic education compared with developed countries. However, illiteracy among female population is more common than male population, which limits participation of women into economic activities throughout their life. Even when they participate, these illiterate women are able to work only in the jobs with low productivity and payoff, such as

housework or agricultural activities. Although OIC member countries are making progress in improving enrolment and completion rates at primary, secondary and tertiary education, there is still ample room for development. Moreover, there are important differences observed among male and female population in terms of enrolment and completion rates where girls are mostly disfavoured. In this regard, education policies should encourage women in OIC member countries to attend and complete higher levels of education to improve their skills and qualifications. To this end, policies to achieve higher and equal access to education at all levels should be a prime concern of policy makers in OIC member countries. Moreover, across OIC member countries there are remarkable differences in terms of education levels of women and their participation into economic activities. In particular, differences in education indicators between the Central Asian countries and the Sub-Saharan countries become more evident (SESRIC, 2014c). Therefore, there is room for development and best practices to be benefited from other OIC member countries in terms of equal and higher access to education both for women and men.

In addition to formal education, technical and vocational education and training (TVET) programs would help OIC member countries to increase women's participation to labour force and economic activities. TVET programs are useful both for adults and youth who are in need of additional skills that would help them to generate additional value added for the society. Section 2.4 provides a detailed account of the benefits of TVET programmes

Overall, in OIC member countries, without ensuring equal access to formal education and implementing TVET programs especially designed for women by taking local socio-economic conditions into account, it is not easy to achieve higher female labour force participation.

Health

Undoubtedly, limited access of women to education, coupled with local socio-economic conditions, affects women's health and their decision to participate into working life. Women in developing countries, including the OIC members, are under high fertility pressure that prevents them to invest into their self-development and leads to both pre-birth and pro-birth health problems for mothers and new-born (SESRIC, 2013). The lack or limited presence of social services and safety nets such as provision of prenatal coverage also deteriorates situation for women and certainly makes an adverse effect on their decision to participate into labour market. In particular, problem becomes more evident for adolescent wives and mothers that are aged between 15-19 years. These young wives and mothers mostly could not finish their studies and they suffer from severe health problems stemming from early-marriage and child-bearing at young ages. Both education and health status of these young mothers affect their decision to participate into formal economic activities and job-market negatively (WHO, 2013).

These arguments highlight that OIC member countries need to invest more into maternal and new-born health in order to reduce maternal mortality and child mortality. Many OIC member countries also need to address prevalence of high fertility rate especially in rural areas that affects health status of women and naturally limits their participation into labour force and economic activities. In order to achieve higher female participation into labour force, investments in health area should cover both physical investments (hospital, clinics, medicine schools etc.) and human capital investments (training of mother and health care personnel etc.).

Economic and social rights

Developed countries provide a full set of economic and social rights to working women in order to make them comfortable both during

pregnancy and after delivery. The main elements of these rights include paid pregnancy leave, paid birth leave, reduced and flexible working hours, home-working option for designated periods, and provision of kindergarten services and child-care support for working women. These kinds of rights aim to ensure that women are not discouraged from work and stay as productive element of the society both during pregnancy and after birth. Developing countries, including OIC members, also started to adopt some of these abovementioned rights at varying degrees. However, it is evident that in many OIC member countries these rights are not sufficient enough to encourage women to participate into labour market. Therefore, OIC member countries need to provide enhanced economic and social rights for working women by adapting good practices and policies being implemented in developed countries into their local conditions. By doing this, inactive female population would join into labour force and ultimately would start generating value-added for the society.

Another policy to encourage women's participation into economic activities is to implement a national plan on positive discrimination for women in employment. Many developed countries have been maintaining positive discrimination policies for women to be implemented by both private and public sectors. In particular, in some OIC sub-regions and member countries, active participation of women into working life is not easy due to local customs, culture and social norms. As a result, hiring a female employee also becomes a hardship for employers. To this end, to encourage employers to hire more women by extending them some benefits such as right to exempt from some taxes or providing certain social benefits can be an effective policy to empower women's participation in the working life.

Violence and Civil Society

In developing countries, including OIC member countries, on average, violence and abuse against women is more prevalent compared with those observed in developed countries (WHO, 2013). Violence and abuse against women both at home and work affect their mental health negatively and discourage them to participate into economic activities. The lack of rules and regulations to cope with violence limits women's participation into labour force. Also implementing rules and regulations against violence and abuse strictly is very important. In this way, a message to women can be delivered that there is zero tolerance to violence and abuse. Through better education policies, it would be possible to minimize violence and abuse against women over time.

Another policy to cope with violence at home and work is to restore the family institution. Policies aiming to empower family institution and to reduce divorce rate would build up a stronger society in which violence becomes less prevalent. Therefore, policy makers in OIC member countries need to take actions in order to strengthen the family institution and reduce divorce rates, which constitute a serious threat for the family structure and social well-being that prevents some women to participate into labour force.

In fighting with violence and abuse against women, public authorities have their own limits. In many OIC member countries, civil society organizations (CSOs) help women who are abused or under violence through legal, financial and psychological support. Therefore, CSOs carry out an important mission and help governments in their policies on economic empowerment of women.

In some OIC member countries specialized civil society organizations provide training programs for women who are lacking skills that help them to join into labour force. Also, these CSOs organize training programs in order to improve

existing skills of women and to gain additional skills in order to enhance their employability with better working conditions, higher salary, and jobs with improved status. To this end, CSOs play a critical role in empowering women in the society. Some OIC member countries provide excellent enabling environment for this kind of CSOs (SESRIC, 2014d). However, in some OIC member countries, CSOs working for women have to embrace a lot of problems from regulation to financial aspects. Therefore, policy-makers in OIC member countries need to re-visit the role of CSOs especially in terms of empowerment of women's economic participation and make the necessary changes to create a more enabling environment for such organizations.

Overall, these abovementioned broad-range policies imply that addressing women's economic participation require a complex set of policy interventions from education policies to regulations for civil society organisations. Therefore, all these policy efforts should be managed carefully under a designated time-line along with an implementation plan. Otherwise, it would be difficult to reach the expected results on economic empowerment of women in OIC member countries.

5.1.2 Measures for other specific groups

In addition to women, there are some other parts of population that show limited attachment to labour market. This sub-section briefly discusses main challenges and lists some measures to enhance participation of these specific groups, particularly youth, elderly and disabled people, into economic activities and labour force.

Youth

More than half of the youth in OIC countries continue to remain inactive (Figure 5.3). In 2014, 55.2% of young people remain out of labour force in the OIC group. Developed countries and non-OIC developing countries experienced an increase in the inactivity rate of youth and in 2014 this rate

reached 52.5% and 51.5%, respectively. The high level of inactivity rate seen among young population can largely be explained by decreasing participation and completion in full-time education.

As compared with developed countries, schooling completion rates among young population are relatively lower in OIC member countries and non-OIC developing countries stemming from high repetition and drop-out rates from education institutions (SESRIC, 2014c). The lack of educational certificates and diplomas for young people mostly prevent them joining into active job market on the grounds that without official certificates and diplomas they cannot apply or start a job.

Problems with education planning lead to weak linkages among education institutions, enterprises and employment offices that result in a higher skill-mismatch rate in job markets. A higher skill-mismatch rate reduces job-satisfaction and increases unemployment among youth. Ultimately, many young people are discouraged to seek a job.

The lack and low quality of TVET programs trap the young population in low-skilled, low-productive and low-wage jobs. It is commonly observed that a significant share of young people does not have access to TVET programs in OIC member countries due to different socio-economic factors.

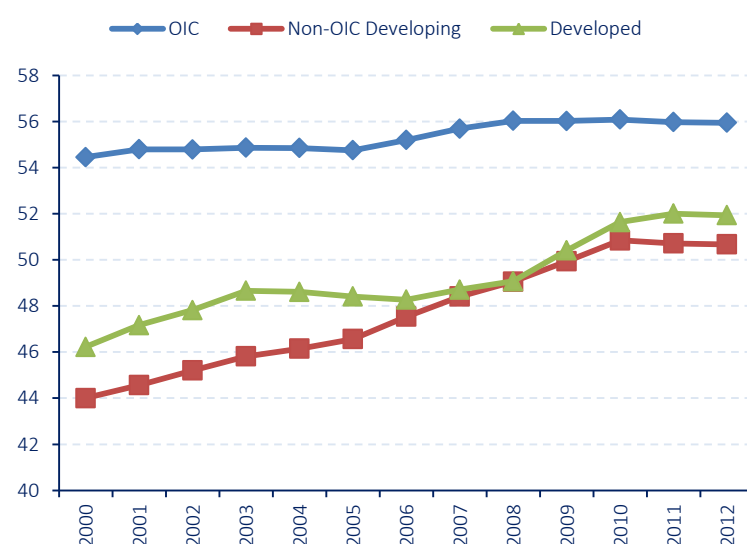
Overall, it is evident that enhancing formal education and TVET programs are two important policy-dimensions in order to increase youth labour force participation rates in OIC member countries. It is also important to increase capacity of OIC member countries to reduce skill-mismatch that discourages youth people to go into the job market. Building up online and centralized systems for the public employment authorities can help OIC member countries to match labour demand and supply more effectively and would reduce time for job-seeking.

Elderly

Low quality of TVET programs and the lack of training at work prevent workers to gain additional skills or to improve their existing skills. The lack of specific skills or insufficient skill-level lead to a problem at the time when a worker wants to change his/her job or forced to change it. In developing countries, including OIC member countries, it is relatively more difficult for workers to move across different jobs (i.e. less labour mobility). Such a difficulty discourages the more experienced senior people to stay active in the labour market and to look for alternative jobs when they become unemployed.

In addition to labour market dynamics mentioned above, the existence and coverage of pension and social security schemes significantly affect decisions of workers to stay active and continue working in advanced ages. According to Figure 5.4, compared with developed countries elderly in OIC and non-OIC developing countries stay active until more advanced ages owing mainly to the limited coverage of social security schemes, as well as the relatively low value of the pensions received by those who are covered. However,

Figure 5.3: Youth Inactivity Rate (%), 2000-2015



Source: ILO, WESO 2015 Dataset, (e: estimated, p: projected).

being active at the labour market at old ages, particularly in developing countries, does not necessarily imply that all these elderly people are able to fully exercise their profession and to stay productive enough to get satisfactory labour compensation.

From a historical perspective, Figure 5.4 displays that labour force participation rates for population over 65 living in OIC countries (for both sexes) have been declining, which may indicate an improvement in social protection for elderly people. On the other hand, the average figures for developed countries (for both sexes) have been on the rise since 2000, which may show the inadequacy of social security schemes and pensions and/or an increase in the statutory retirement age.

Figure 5.4 further reveals that there is a significant gender gap in labour force participation for elderly people in all country groups. Labour force participation for elderly women is significantly lower than that of men. However, in OIC countries the gender gap, which disfavours women, is more evident. In the OIC group, on average, labour

force participation rate for females over 65 declined from 20% in 1990 to 18% in 2013; whereas, for males the rate dropped from 50% to 42% during the same period.

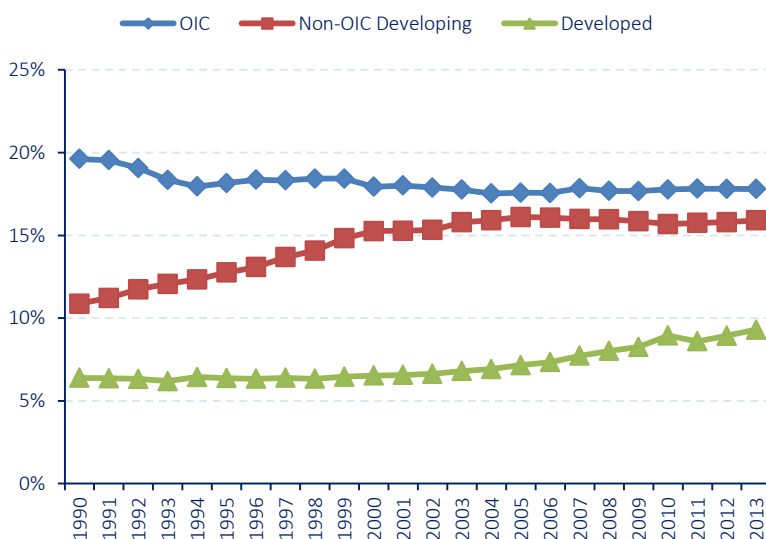
In developing countries, social security systems are not effective and under heavy pressure stemming from increasing health care costs, early retirement age, and low contribution rates to social security systems stemming from informalities in economies. Many OIC member countries suffer from these problems at varying degrees. In particular, having relatively lower retirement ages bear several problems. First, it increases pension payments that constitute a pressure on public finance. Second, some people withdraw their labour services with retirement at early ages from the job-market that they become economically inactive, although there is not any health problem to move out the job market. Unlike in developed countries, the lack of adjustment mechanisms such as flexible working hours or home-working for elderly people lead to higher amount of inactive elderly population in many OIC member countries.

From a policy perspective, OIC member countries need to adjust their social security systems in order to actively benefit from labour services of elderly people to a longer period. In particular, provision of TVET programs designed for elderly population, re-evaluation of retirement age, and enacting new employment laws allowing job-contracts to include flexible working hours and home-working seem to help OIC member countries to increase participation rate of elderly people and let them to stay active in the job market to a longer extent and to continue being a productive portion of the society.

Disabled

More than one billion people live with a disability, in one form or another; this constitutes approximately 15% of the world population. 80% of people with disabilities live in developing countries including OIC member countries (World

Figure 5.4: Labour Force Participation Rate for Population over 65 (Top Panel: Female; Bottom Panel: Male)



Source: ILO, KILM 8th Edition.

Health Organization and World Bank, 2011). More often, disabled people are either not employed or employed in jobs requiring fewer skills in developing countries. In this regard, many disabled people especially in developing countries tend to stay out of the labour force. This leads to significant amount of economic losses (World Bank, 2007). Disabled people who stay out of the job market not only imply a loss for national economies but also generate financial problems for disabled individuals, as they become economically dependent to their families. OIC member countries are not exception of these facts. Many disabled people in OIC member countries cannot access to education and health services that forces them to stay at their homes and live under poor conditions. In order to increase disabled people's participation into labour force, improving access to basic services for disabled people, enforcing employment quotas and building up an enabling environment for disabled people would be alternative policy options.

a) Improving access to basic services for disabled people

Table 5.1 presents results of a questionnaire conducted in four non-OIC developing countries (Namibia, Zimbabwe, Malawi, and Zambia) on the met and unmet needs of disabled people. According to this, not surprisingly disabled people need health services the most. They need continuous health support at varying degrees both at work and home. Without ensuring required health assistance and services, it is not easy to attract disabled people into labour force. Two other highly needed services mentioned by disabled people are education and vocational training programs. The degree of education and the level of qualifications affect types of jobs and security of employment of disabled people. For many disabled people, life-long learning becomes increasingly important to labour market integration. Education is therefore a key area in ensuring access to labour market along with health (ANED, 2009).

Table 5.1: Met and unmet need for services reported by people with a disability, selected developing countries

Service	Namibia		Zimbabwe		Malawi		Zambia	
	Needed ^a (%)	Received ^b (%)	Needed ^a (%)	Received ^b (%)	Needed ^a (%)	Received ^b (%)	Needed ^a (%)	Received ^b (%)
Health services	90.5	72.9	93.7	92	83.4	61	76.7	79.3
Welfare services	79.5	23.3	76	23.6	69	5	62.6	8.4
Counselling for parent or family	67.4	41.7	49.2	45.4	50.5	19.5	47.3	21.9
Assistive device services	67	17.3	56.6	36.6	65.1	17.9	57.3	18.4
Medical rehabilitation	64.6	26.3	68.2	54.8	59.6	23.8	63.2	37.5
Counselling for disabled	64.6	15.2	52.1	40.8	52.7	10.7	51.2	14.3
Educational services	58.1	27.4	43.4	51.2	43.9	20.3	47	17.8
Vocational training	47.3	5.2	41.1	22.7	45	5.6	35.1	8.4
Traditional healer	33.1	46.8	48.9	90.1	57.7	59.7	32.3	62.9

a. Percentage of total number of people with disabilities who expressed a need for the service.

b. Percentage of total number of people with disabilities who expressed a need for service who received the service.

Source: World Report on Disability 2011.

However, developing countries usually are not well-performing in providing these basic services to disabled people that constitute a remarkable unmet demand in many basic services. For instance, in Namibia 47.2% of all disabled people mentioned that they need vocational training programs whereas only 5.2% of disabled people can receive this service.

b) Employment quotas

Enforcement of employment quotas to employers is a viable tool to raise demand for labour force with disabilities. In turn, the increase in demand would affect disabled people's decision to participate into labour market in a positive way. However, policy-makers in OIC member countries should consider different examples of employment quota programmes across the world to build up their national policies since there are cross-country differences in terms of implementation of employment quotas. The Republic of Korea introduced quotas for the recruitment of persons with disabilities, while in Canada (Enabling Accessibility Fund) and the United Kingdom (Access to Work) funds are available to cover the cost of workplace adjustments, and in the United States tax credits are given to employers who hire veterans with disabilities (OECD, 2013).

c) Building up an enabling environment for disabled people

Many countries are on the way to form a better enabling environment for disabled people in order to benefit from the work force of disabled people to a higher extent and to make them happier and wealthier. Most of these efforts are being aggregated under broad packages so-called labour market reforms in order to change norms in labour markets for disabled people. Several

countries implemented policies and reforms aimed specifically at improving the employment opportunities of persons with disabilities and attract them into the labour market. Canada enacted Labour Market Agreements for Persons with Disabilities and created opportunities fund for persons with disabilities. The Republic of Korea, the United Kingdom (Work Choice) and the United States (Disability Employment Initiative; Employment First State Leadership Mentor) have specific programmes in place to help prepare individuals with disabilities for work (OECD, 2013). To this end, OIC member countries can follow a similar approach and implement labour market reforms by taking their local conditions into account in order to increase employability of disabled people through creating overall enabling environment for disabled people.

5.2 Migration

International migration represents cross-border movement of people from one country to another as a result of several factors such as security concerns, education, family union, and socio-economic opportunities. As seen in Table 5.2, developing countries, both non-OIC countries and OIC members, are in a deficit position in terms of net migration between 1997 and 2012. In the OIC group, the average net migration figure decreased from -7.5 million in 1997 to -5.7 million 2012. Developed countries maintained a surplus in terms of net migration that reached 13.3 million in 2012. Due to higher life standards, enhanced safety and better economic conditions, developed countries are able to attract more people than they send abroad. These stock figures confirm that globally there is a net flow of people mostly from developing countries to developed countries.

Table 2: Net Migration, 1997-2012

	1997	2002	2007	2012
OIC Countries	-7559489	-4826232	-4267457	-5727459
Non-OIC Developing Countries	-6331918	-12721339	-12562373	-7664030
Developed Countries	14028559	17299293	16830954	13341767

Source: WDI. Note: Net migration is the net total of migrants during the period, that is, the total number of immigrants less the annual number of emigrants, including both citizens and noncitizens.

The flow of labour force across borders has many positive and negative impacts on national economies. On the positive side, overall workforce reduces and this helps to reduce unemployment rate in home countries (i.e. source countries). In terms of wages, due to shortage of some skilled workers, resident workers can enjoy an increase in their salaries. Immigrated workers tend to stay in touch with their home countries through investment into housing, sending money (i.e. remittances), and visiting the country. All these items generate additional income for home countries. On the negative side, home countries experience a drop in one of the important factors of production (i.e. labour) through migration. Moreover, through labour migration home countries may fall short in terms skilled and experienced workers. Developing countries need skilled and well-educated workforce to enhance economic growth in the short and medium run in order to reduce the income gap between developed countries. In this regard, with a net loss of workers through migration, developing countries are facing with important challenges in terms production. Overall, there is no consensus in the literature whether labour migration is an enabler or impediment for growth and development.

5.2.1 Labour Migration

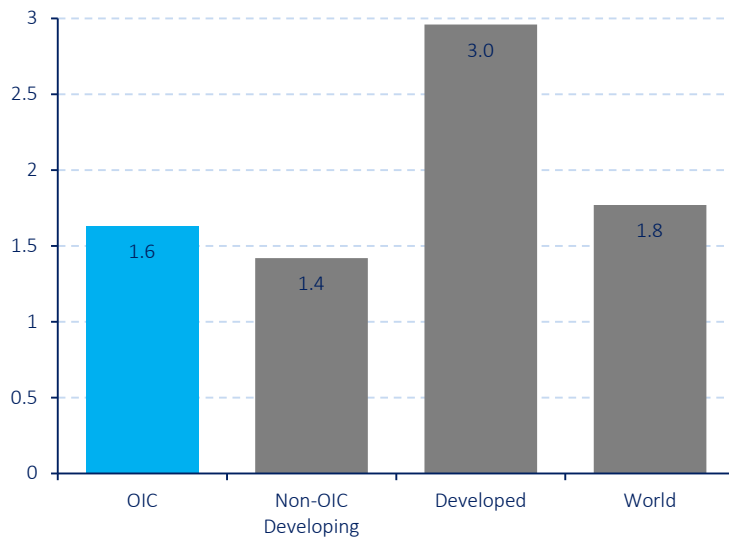
Labour migration is a special form of migration in which people move to another country with an objective to work. In other words, labour migration excludes refugees, asylum seekers, students and travellers. However, it is not easy to

measure labour migration accurately due to its nature. For instance, a person can decide to work in the country where he went with an objective to study. Some people can become active at the job market in the country where they arrived in the refugee status. Therefore, aggregate migration statistics are often used as an approximation for labour migration. However, aggregate migration statistics do not tell a lot about the characteristics of migrants and therefore limits the scope of the analysis.

In this sub-section, a unique labour migration dataset is used that was constructed by Docquier and Marfouk (2006) for the year 2000. This dataset provides some detailed information about labour migration all across the world. It further displays educational attainment characteristics (i.e. skills) of labour migrants that allow drawing specific policy-implications for labour markets.

The emigration rate is an indicator that reflects the tendency to emigrate and should be interpreted carefully as it does not tell us the actual migration numbers. According to Figure 5.5, the emigration rate (including both skilled and unskilled workers) in OIC member countries is 1.63% in 2000 where the world average is 1.77%. Non-OIC developing countries, on average, have the lowest emigration rate that is 1.42%. Developed countries, on average, possess the highest emigration rate that is 2.96%. The high emigration rate of workers in developed countries mainly stemming from their ability to find jobs abroad, their skill-levels due to improved education and language skills, and high mobility

Figure 5.5: Emigration Rate of Workers (% of All Workers), 2000



Source: Docquier and Marfouk (2006) and SESRIC (2014b).

rate due to the freedom of movement right across borders mostly without a required visa.

5.2.2 Brain Drain

Brain drain is the flight of human capital from one country to another. In other words, labour migration of skilled and educated workforce is known as brain drain. In recent times, brain drain has been exacerbated by globalization, which has increased people mobility across boundaries. Furthermore, the internationalization of professions has led to an increase in the level of mobility and thus brain drain as documented in Carr et al. (2005).

Brain drain negatively affects developing countries in different ways. De la Croix & Docquier (2012) point out that if real wages in the home country are low compared to the real wages abroad, then this provides impetus for highly skilled people to emigrate. The OIC group, on average, has a lower real wage level, than developed countries that drive many skilled workers to migrate. The loss of skilled workers hinders the development and productivity of OIC

countries thus exerting downward pressure on wages, which in turn leads to more migration of skilled workers and so on (SESRIC, 2014b).

The negative effects of brain drain are not limited to the economic sphere but extend to influence education and human capital accumulation (Wong & Yip, 1999). Moreover, the current trend towards predominantly skilled emigration from poor to rich countries may in the long run increase inequality and negatively affect income distribution at regional and global levels (Wong & Yip, 1999). It is also argued that brain drain reflects a loss of national investment in training because while being educated in their countries, skilled workers eventually work to the benefit of the recipient society which has not borne the cost of their training (Cervantes & Guellec, 2002). In a nutshell, brain drain may prevent a country from achieving its development goals.

On the positive side, some studies (e.g. Commander et al., 2004 and Docquier & Rapoport, 2012) claim that source countries gain remittance, knowledge and reputation stemming from brain drain. However, in the literature these positive effects are seen as negligible given the significance of associated negative effects.

OIC member countries, as other developing countries, are facing a big challenge in terms of net labour migration especially when it comes to the migration of skilled labour force. According to Figure 5.6, the OIC group has the highest brain drain rate (i.e. emigration rate of skilled workers) compared with all other country groups. In OIC member countries, on average, 7.4% of all skilled workers left their home countries to work abroad. Non-OIC developing countries also have a quite high brain drain rate (7.3%) that is slightly below the average of OIC member countries. Developed countries suffer the least in terms of brain drain that their average emigration rate of skilled workers is only 3.8%. The worldwide brain drain rate is 5.4% that is also lower than the average of the OIC group.

As shown in SESRIC (2014b), within the OIC group brain drain is relatively higher in OIC member countries that are:

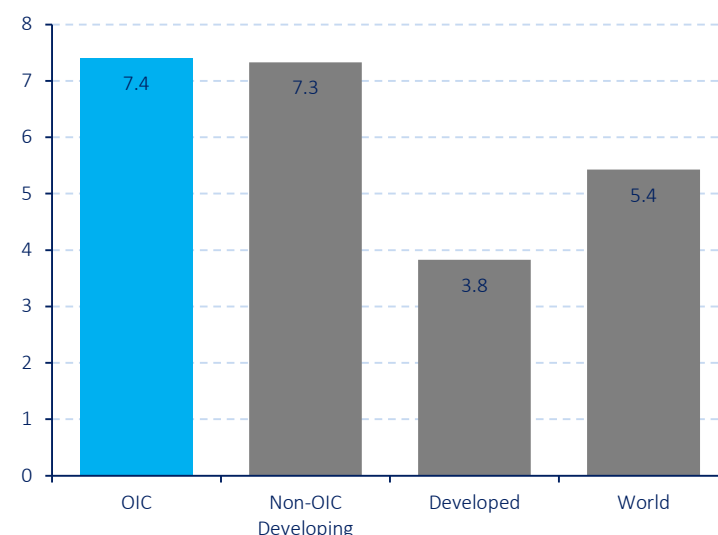
- classified as upper middle income countries according to the World Bank classification system;
- classified as least developed countries according to the UN classification system; and
- located in Latin America and Sub-Saharan Africa regions.

Overall, Figure 5.6 gives a clear message that developing countries see a high emigration rate of skilled workers compared with developed countries. In other words, through labour emigration developing countries lose a non-negligible portion of their skilled people who can make a difference in their societies. Each year significant amount of skilled people from OIC member countries as well as non-OIC developing countries leaves their home countries to seek better working conditions abroad. This generates a particular challenge for many OIC member countries as they attempt to achieve their development goals and reduce the income gap with developed countries. OIC member countries and non-OIC developing countries cannot easily replace migrated skilled workers. It is too costly and requires time to train and educate labour force. Therefore, OIC member countries should address labour migration issue broadly and brain drain specifically.

It is not easy to stop people when they decide to move to another country. However, generating a more enabling environment for workers, providing better working conditions in line with ILO standards and improving labour-payoff through productivity growth can help skilled workers to decide to stay and find good job opportunities in their home countries.

Another part of the policy set on brain drain should be directed to attracting skilled workers

Figure 5.6: Brain Drain, Emigration Rate of Skilled Workers (% of All Skilled Workers), 2000



Source: Docquier and Marfouk (2006) and SESRIC (2014b). Note: Skilled workers are workers that are completed tertiary education.

back to their home countries. In this regard, designing some incentive packages and offering jobs that can satisfy needs of skilled people can increase brain gain (i.e. return of skilled workers to their home countries). There are good examples followed by some OIC member countries such as Turkey and Malaysia in this context, which can constitute a modality for other OIC member countries.

An alternative example from China is also worth to mention that can be emulated by OIC member countries. The Chinese government plans to establish 200 business start-up incubators by 2015, which are expected to house 15,000 start-ups/enterprises run by skilled Chinese returning from abroad. In this way, China expects to benefit both from the return of its skilled people and the economic dynamism of the newly established enterprises.

Replacing skilled migrated workforce requires OIC member countries to develop effective higher education policies, training programs, and capacity building programs that will enable them

to have sufficient amount of skilled workers in job markets to sustain economic growth.

To change a person's mind-set is the most challenging task. Even the most generous offers or incentive packages at their home countries may not stop some skilled workers to go abroad. Therefore, OIC member countries also need to create modalities through which migrated skilled workers can be involved in their country's development policies while they are abroad. In this regard three mechanisms can be used. First, OIC member countries can establish intellectual and scientific diaspora networks with the objective of securing effective communications and exchange of ideas between skilled emigrants and their peers back home, this in turn, will ensure that emigrants contribute to the economic and social development of their home countries. Second, OIC member countries can encourage the transfer of knowledge and expertise possessed by emigrants. The UN's "Transfer of Knowledge through Expatriate Nationals

(TOKTEN)" can serve as a model. Third, OIC member countries can develop trade association with participation from emigrants and their counterparts in the home country. The objective of these trade associations is to maximize the benefits of having a well-connected diaspora on trade and business opportunities for the home countries.

Many OIC member countries have become attractive destinations for skilled workers such as Turkey, Malaysia and United Arab Emirates. Therefore, OIC member countries, who attract significant amount of skilled workers from abroad, should also build up an approach in order to maximize their benefit from these workers' knowledge, experience and skills for the sake of development. This requires high level cooperation among education institutions, private sector representatives, and different ministries such as technology, development, and labour. Therefore, in this context, OIC member countries need to adopt a holistic approach to reach this objective.

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 issue of skills and employability, job creation and youth employment, social protection, occupational safety and health, and participation to labour force and migration. 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.

Skills Development for Employability

Skills development is vital for enhancing employability. In this process, flexible and effective pathways for the accumulation, recognition and transfer of individual learning should be supported. Qualification systems should be outcome-based, transparent and well-articulated. If individuals and employers trust the

assessment, recognition and validation of qualifications, they will invest more on improving the individual qualifications.

In order to increase the quantity and quality of jobs, policies should be developed to encourage enterprises to expand on-the-job training and employees to actively participate in lifelong learning. Productivity gains from skilled labour force with adoption of new technologies can help firms to make new investments, diversify their production base and expand into new markets. On the other hand, workers should benefit from this process with higher earnings, better working conditions and reduced working hours so as to improve job satisfaction and motivation of the labour force.

For an efficient labour market, it is important to ensure that human capital resources are allocated to their most productive uses. Particularly in developing countries, ability of the market to reallocate labour between sectors (or from old sectors to newer more productive sectors) is critical in growth process. It should be noted that while in some countries significant number of firms identify inadequately educated workforce as a major constraint, firms tend to offer formal training to increase the quality of labour force. This indicates some level of efficiency in the labour market, skill mismatch in the labour market can be reduced and employability of labour force should be improved by raising the

quality of training and education programmes. There is also a moderate share of firms identifying labour regulations as a major constraint; therefore, further efforts should be made to improve regulations for higher labour market efficiency. Significant flexibility in the labour market should be attained in order to allow for structural transformation from resource-based economy to efficiency- and innovation-driven economy.

In order to tackle the major challenges in the labour market and improve the employability of labour force in OIC countries, a formation of a compatible technical and vocational education and training (TVET) programmes has been outlined in detail in the second section of the report. Although labour market conditions are varied significantly in OIC member countries, the following issues and challenges related to capacity building are considered as common in many of these countries: (i) A significant portion of the jobs available in many OIC countries are either low-quality informal jobs or formal jobs in the public sector; (ii) Weak linkages between education institutions, enterprises and employment offices; (iii) The lack and low quality of vocational education and training trap the poor workers in low-skilled, low-productive and low-wage jobs; (iv) Skills and capabilities of the educated people mismatch the needs of the labour market; (v) Difficulties for workers to move between jobs prevent them to find positions suitable to their skills; and (vi) Unemployment is persistently high for women and young people.

Given these challenges, OIC member countries should develop compatible, effective and sustainable TVET systems through taking into consideration the following measures: (i) Identifying the demand and supply structure of skills through developing Skill Recognition System (SRS); (ii) Enhancing the role of Public Employment Services (PES) in matching skills and jobs and providing career guidance; (iii)

Developing appropriate TVET institutions and instruments; (iv) Promoting Public-Private Partnership (PPP) for enhancing the effectiveness of TVET programmes; (v) Improving the accessibility to TVET services and identifying special target groups; (vi) Networking TVET and other relevant training institutions; (vii) Developing and maintaining database and disseminating timely information on jobs, skills, learning and training opportunities; (viii) Investing in new skills development programmes and promoting life-long learning; and (ix) Anticipating future skills needs and revising TVET system accordingly. In addition to these, active labour market policies (ALMP) need to be implemented more forcefully to address inactivity and skills mismatch.

While aiming to reduce their unemployment rates, countries could take some approaches to support their decision making. These approaches include, among others, improving the methods of accumulation and dissemination of information on available jobs through developing a nationwide integrated database of jobs, employers, and available employees. This type of database could reduce the time spent by an average worker on the unemployment roll and thus reduce the unemployment rate. After careful analysis on the demand and supply of skills in the labour market, countries can develop/improve efficient and effective education and training programs provided to young people, with a greater focus on vocational skills in order to reduce the skill mismatch. There may also be a role for unemployment programmes that target various groups of jobless persons, such as unemployment programmes aiming at reducing cyclical, frictional, seasonal, and structural unemployment. While some of these programmes aim at preparing people to match the existing jobs, others aim at creating jobs to match the existing skills of workers.

Job Creation and Youth Employment

Youth in OIC countries suffer from high levels of unemployment and the quality of jobs offered to youth transitioning into a labour market is generally low. Labour markets in different OIC countries have different characteristics, hence to solve youth unemployment in OIC countries a “one size fits all” approach is not possible. Nonetheless, there is a key set of policies and intervention that are applicable to all OIC countries in the fight against high youth unemployment and the following policy recommendations can be made:

Create Jobs: To create new jobs, pro-employment macroeconomic policies must be designed and implemented to support aggregate demand, and governments must also create an enabling environment that allows the private sector to realize its full potential in growth and job creation. Furthermore OIC countries must nurture growth engines in services and industries by supporting growth in both the export market and domestic market. One area of high relevance to OIC countries is entrepreneurship, which has the potential to stimulate demand and create plenty of jobs for youth.

Improve Quality of Youth Jobs: Youth are transitioning into labour markets offering limited quality jobs. The majority of youth are engaged in informal employment offering low quality jobs with no social security benefits, paid leave, or sick leave. The rate of formalization in OIC countries needs to be significantly increased. OIC governments can set targets for formalization of jobs in the labour market and provide incentives for enterprises to meet those targets. Also, OIC countries need to introduce laws and regulations with the objective of increasing the rate of formalization and improving the working conditions of youth. These laws and regulations should specifically target micro and small size enterprises (MSEs) which are important for job

creation in OIC countries and yet operate most of the time outside labour laws and regulations.

Address Skill Mismatch: The serious skill mismatch problem in OIC countries raises the question about the alignment of the educational systems to the needs of the labour market. In this regard OIC countries are advised to:

- Align the education systems to the labour market by making the educational system more demand driven. Involving employers in identifying the skills and knowledge required will help bridge the gap between education system and the labour market.
- Emphasize and expand the technical and vocational education and training system (TVET) and ensure that TVET is well developed across skills and occupations and that it caters to the needs of youth and employers.
- Invest in second-chance education programmes for youth who have dropped out of the educational system at an early stage to ensure that they have the basic literacy and numeracy skills which are becoming a must for the majority of jobs in this time and age.
- Share and transfer the experiences regarding “skill development of youth” among OIC countries.

Promote Public Employment Services: Public Employment Services (PES) can be one of the most effective mechanisms for implementing labour market policies. For PES to be effective they need large amount of data and sophisticated knowledge and tools for skill forecasting and labour market analysis. Unfortunately, in many OIC countries PES do not have the capacities to be effective in these areas. Thus OIC countries need to increase and build the capacities of PES for them to fulfil their promised role.

Reduce Gender Based Disparities: In some OIC countries gender based disparities in the labour market exist; however, the issues are different

from one OIC country to another. Even in the same country the issues vary from one city to another or between urban and rural areas. Thus, to reduce gender based disparities in the labour market; extensive data collection, analysis and research at the national and sub-national level are needed in order to identify the hurdles facing young females in fully participating in the labour market and to identify remedies to overcome those hurdles.

Social Protection and Occupational Safety and Health

Recent labour market and employment trends have increased the pressure on social protection programs to ensure income security for individuals against the labour market risks. It is clear that income security cannot be achieved by social protection alone. Social protection policies need to be coordinated with well-designed policies to address challenges in the fields of employment, labour market and wage policies. Social insurance dominates social protection programs in many OIC member countries. However, it benefits workers who are formally employed. Social assistance allocates benefits to a large number of individuals but the size of its benefits is relatively small. Besides, labour market programs are of negligible importance. Therefore, OIC countries need to expand their social protection programs and make their impact more equitable for vulnerable people.

One of the problems regarding labour legislation in OIC countries is its application in practice. Therefore, it is important for governments to take the necessary steps to ensure that there is an effective system of labour inspection. This is often difficult because of a shortage of trained personnel. Another problem relates to the difficulty of dealing with new hazards due to technological changes. In some cases, employers and workers can solve such problems through collective bargaining. It is therefore worth mentioning that labour inspection and collective bargaining represent two

complementary approaches in occupational safety and health (OSH).

A new model of prevention focusing on occupational diseases and not only on occupational injuries is needed in OIC countries. In this context, it is necessary to improve mechanisms for collection and analysis of data for occupational disease in order to deal with the prevention of these occupational diseases as well as to integrate their prevention into OSH inspection programs. Besides, OIC countries need to allocate more resources to OSH research, knowledge management and information exchange. International collaboration on OSH represents the only way to share the burden of undertaking research.

Participation and Migration

Policy implications on how to address labour participation can be summed under three categories. The first category is about education policies. Policy-makers need to improve the provision of formal education and vocational education and training programs including life-learning programs in OIC member countries. These programmes are important for the empowerment of all workers. However, for disadvantaged workers and population including women, youth, elderly and disabled these programs has a particular importance. Through education and TVET programmes, these disadvantaged groups can obtain additional skills and tackle with many challenges that hinder them to participate into labour markets. By participating into job markets these people become economically active in the society and would live under better conditions throughout their life. Higher participation into labour force resulting from enhanced education and TVET programs would enable OIC member countries to reach their potential economic growth rates that would bring higher prosperity to everyone.

The second category of policies is related with health services. Ensuring equal access to health for

all disadvantaged groups is an effective policy to reach and sustain a high rate of economically active population. In particular, provision of high quality maternal and new-born health is very important for the health of women and their decision to participate into economic life. Insufficient provision of maternal and new-born health services not only lead to complications after delivery but also may affect women's health adversely throughout for the entire life that prevent her to actively participate into job markets. Also provision of rehabilitation and health services for disabled and elderly population carries a special importance in order to ensure higher labour force participation rate of these specific groups for whom policy-makers should meet special needs.

Third category of policies is about legislations. Policy-makers need to develop and enact legislations to eradicate factors that hinder specific groups to participate into labour force. For instance, legislations are very effective to stop gender discrimination at job markets. Legislations to force implementation of positive discrimination for women and disabled people would help OIC member countries to reduce economically inactive population. Enacting legislations that provide enhanced rights to specific groups such as women and youth would make them more active in the economy as well as allow them to better develop their skills through, among others, joining civil society organizations. In a similar fashion, legislations to stop violence and abuse at work especially for women would help to generate a more enabling working environment for female population. However, there is no-one-size-fits-all legislation modality for all OIC member countries that local market conditions should be considered while designing these legislations.

The labour migration term encompasses both unskilled and skilled labour force migration. Therefore policy-makers need to consider both groups. Investing into education and VET programmes would help OIC member countries

to increase average skill level in labour markets. Moreover, such a policy would help OIC member countries to replace emigrated workforce with remaining local workers. This policy is also useful for OIC member countries with a surplus in terms of net migration such as United Arab Emirates and Qatar. Providing TVET programs to immigrant workers such OIC member countries would employ them in better jobs and increase their labour productivity.

Another dimension of the migration policy in OIC member countries should target skilled emigrated workers who are working abroad. This policy would have two parts. The first part would cover specific policy items to attract emigrated workers back to their home countries through monetary and non-monetary mechanisms. The second part would deal with emigrated skilled workers who are not willing to come back to their countries. These specific policy items would aim to restore their ties with home-country labour market and to enhance cooperation with their home-country economy. These goals can be achieved through forming working groups and unions for professionals living abroad in general or in a specific country under the leadership of home-country institutions.

Overall labour market reforms aims to create a more enabling environment for doing business and working culture would also help to decrease labour migration seen in OIC member countries especially among skilled workers. These reforms would also help to reduce inactive population. Therefore, some general labour market reforms targeting employers such as increasing transparency, ensuring accountability, and enhancing the use of ICT (information and communication technologies) would generate a better working environment in OIC member countries in which higher labour force participation rates and lower emigration rates can be observed.

ANNEX

Table A.1: Overview of national social insurance systems

Country	Number of policy areas covered by at least one programme		Existence of a statutory program							
	Number of policy areas covered by at least one program	Number of social security policy areas covered by a statutory program Strict definition	Sickness (cash)	Maternity (cash) ¹	Old age ²	Employment injury ³	Invalidity	Survivors	Family allowances	Unemployment ⁴
Afghanistan	...	...	...	▲	...	...	...	...	...	None
Albania	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Algeria	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Azerbaijan	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Bahrain	5	Limited statutory provision 5 to 6	None	▲	●	●	●	●	None	●
Bangladesh	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage 1 to 4	●	●	●	●	None	None	None	▲
Benin	6	Limited scope of legal coverage 5 to 6	▲	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Brunei Darussalam	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage 1 to 4	△	▲	●	●	●	●	None	None
Burkina Faso	6	Limited scope of legal coverage 5 to 6	▲	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Cameroon	6	Limited scope of legal coverage 5 to 6	▲	●	●	●	●	●	●	▲
Chad	6	Limited scope of legal coverage 5 to 6	▲	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Côte d'Ivoire	6	Limited scope of legal coverage 5 to 6	△	●	●	●	●	●	●	▲
Djibouti	6	Limited scope of legal coverage 5 to 6	●	●	●	●	None	●	●	None
Egypt	7	Semi-comprehensive scope 7	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	●
Gabon	6	Limited scope of legal coverage 5 to 6	▲	●	●	●	●	●	●	▲
Gambia	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage 1 to 4	None	▲	●	●	●	●	None	None
Guinea	7	Semi-comprehensive scope 7	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Guinea-Bissau	...	...	...	▲	●	●	●	●	...	None
Indonesia	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage 1 to 4	△	▲	●	●	●	●	None	▲
Iran	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Iraq	...	...	...	▲	...	...	...	...	...	None
Jordan	6	Limited scope of legal coverage 5 to 6	△	●	●	●	●	●	None	●
Kazakhstan	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Kuwait	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage 1 to 4	·	▲	●	●	●	●	None	None
Kyrgyzstan	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Lebanon	6	Limited scope of legal coverage 5 to 6	△	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Libya	6	Limited scope of legal coverage 5 to 6	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	▲
Malaysia	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage 1 to 4	△	▲	●	●	●	●	None	▲

Maldives	...	...	△	...	●	...	●	●	...	None
Mali	6	Limited scope of legal coverage 5 to 6	▲	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Mauritania	6	Limited scope of legal coverage 5 to 6	△	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Morocco	7	Semi-comprehensive scope 7	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	▲
Mozambique	6	Limited scope of legal coverage 5 to 6	●	●	●	...	●	●	●	None
Nigeria	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage 1 to 4	△	▲	●	●	●	●	None	▲
Oman	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage 1 to 4	None	▲	●	●	●	●	None	None
Pakistan	6	Limited scope of legal coverage 5 to 6	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	▲
Palestine	...	...	...	●	...	...	...	...	...	None
Qatar	...	Very limited scope of legal coverage 1 to 4	...	▲	●	...	●	●	None	None
Saudi Arabia	5	Limited scope of legal coverage 5 to 6	▲	▲	●	●	●	●	None	○
Senegal	5	Limited scope of legal coverage 5 to 6	△	●	●	●	None	●	●	None
Sierra Leone	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage 1 to 4	None	None	●	●	●	●	None	None
Somalia	...	...	...	▲	...	...	...	...	None	None
Sudan	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage 1 to 4	None	▲	●	●	●	●	None	None
Syria	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage 1 to 4	None	▲	●	●	●	●	None	▲
Tajikistan	6	Limited scope of legal coverage 5 to 6	●	●	●	...	●	●	...	●
Turkmenistan	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Togo	6	Limited scope of legal coverage 5 to 6	▲	●	●	●	●	●	●	None
Tunisia	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Turkey	7	Semi-comprehensive scope 7	●	●	●	●	●	●	None	●
Uganda	4	Very limited scope of legal coverage 1 to 4	△	▲	●	●	●	●	None	▲
United Arab Emirates	...	...	...	▲	...	...	...	...	...	▲
Uzbekistan	8	Comprehensive scope of legal coverage 8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Yemen	5	Limited scope of legal coverage 5 to 6	●	▲	●	●	●	●	None	▲
Symbols										
●	At least one program anchored in national legislation									
○	Legislation not yet implemented.									
▲	Limited provision (e.g. labour code only).									
△	Only benefit in kind (e.g. medical benefit).									

Source: ILO, International Labour Standards and National Legislation Database, NORMLEX

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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

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), UIS Data Centre

World Bank, World Development Indicators (WDI) Online Database

AFGHANISTAN

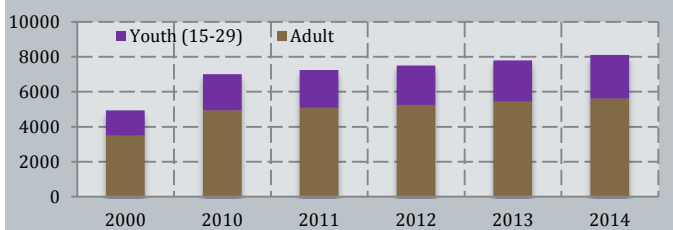
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	30.6
Population Growth (%)	2013	2.4
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	24.2
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	1,150
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	70.2
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	60.9
Average Years of Schooling	2012	3.2
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	38.2

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	17.5	2014	91.4	2014	54.3
Youth	2014	13.4	2014	60.8	2014	37.6
Total	2014	15.9	2014	79.3	2014	47.8

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



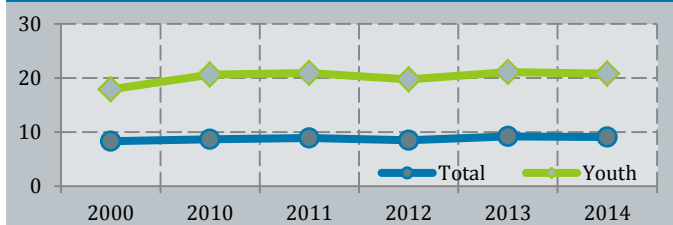
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	15.2	2014	37.8	2014	34.2
Medium	2014	81.0	2014	51.1	2014	55.8
High	2014	3.7	2014	11.1	2014	10.0

EMPLOYMENT (%)

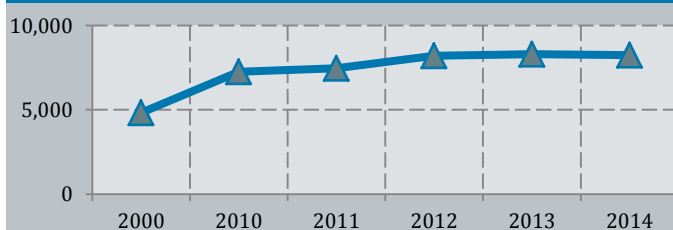
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	13.7	2014	72.8	2014	43.4
Vulnerable Employment	2014	76.8	2014	69.6	2014	70.7
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	58.0
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	21.2
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	20.8

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	7.3	2014	3.4	2014	4.0
Youth	2014	28.1	2014	19.3	2014	20.8
Total	2014	14.0	2014	8.2	2014	9.1
% of Youth to Adult	2014	3.9	2014	5.7	2014	5.2

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



ALBANIA

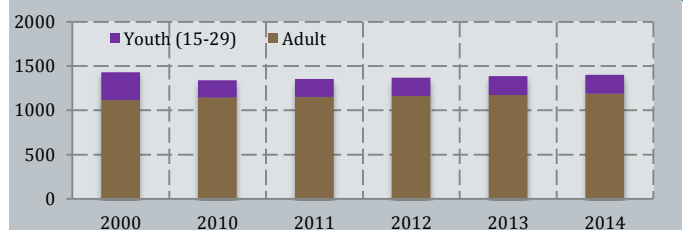
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	2.8
Population Growth (%)	2013	-1.0
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	55.5
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	9,506
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	13.3
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	77.5
Average Years of Schooling	2012	9.3
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	97.6

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	48.8	2014	72.8	2014	60.60
Youth	2014	30.9	2014	42.30	2014	36.70
Total	2014	44.8	2014	65.60	2014	55.10

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



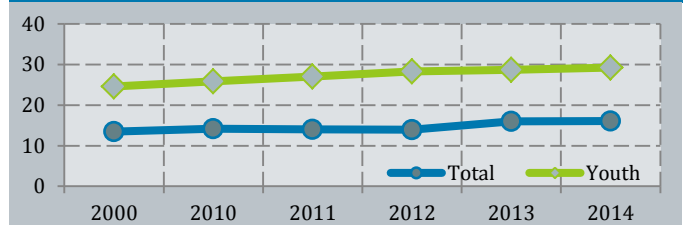
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	8.0	2014	14.2	2014	11.6
Medium	2014	73.1	2014	70.7	2014	71.7
High	2014	18.9	2014	15.1	2014	16.7

EMPLOYMENT (%)

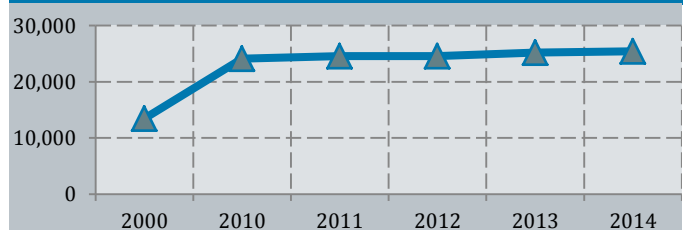
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	38.2	2014	54.5	2014	46.3
Vulnerable Employment	2014	62.1	2014	54.8	2014	57.8
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	43.6
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	19.6
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	36.9

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	12.9	2014	14.2	2014	13.7
Youth	2014	25.3	2014	32.0	2014	29.2
Total	2014	14.8	2014	16.9	2014	16.1
% of Youth to Adult	2014	2.0	2014	2.2	2014	2.1

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



ALGERIA

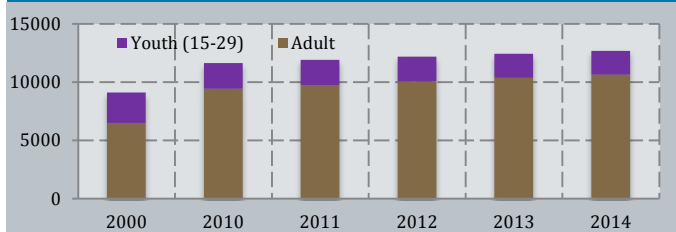
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	39.2
Population Growth (%)	2013	1.9
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	74.5
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	7,534
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	21.6
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	71.0
Average Years of Schooling	2012	7.6
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	80.2

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	17.2	2014	80.7	2014	49.0
Youth	2014	9.8	2014	47.4	2014	29.0
Total	2014	15.4	2014	72.5	2014	44.2

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



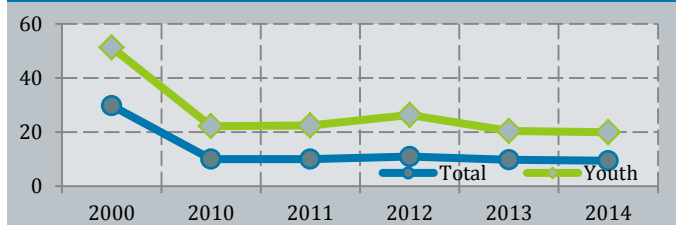
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	9.3	2014	14.1	2014	13.4
Medium	2014	50.9	2014	71.7	2014	68.4
High	2014	39.8	2014	14.1	2014	18.2

EMPLOYMENT (%)

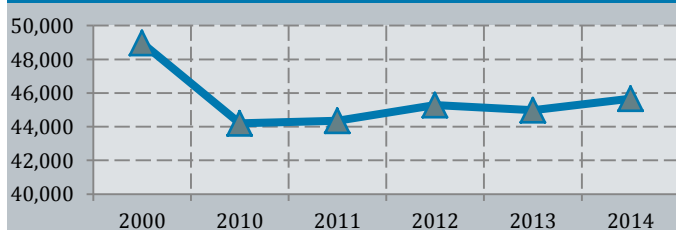
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	12.8	2014	66.7	2014	40
Vulnerable Employment	2014	24.3	2014	27.3	2014	26.8
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	11.3
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	33.3
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	55.3

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	14.0	2014	6.2	2014	7.5
Youth	2014	32.0	2014	17.6	2014	20.0
Total	2014	16.8	2014	8.0	2014	9.5
% of Youth to Adult	2014	2.3	2014	2.8	2014	2.7

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



AZERBAIJAN

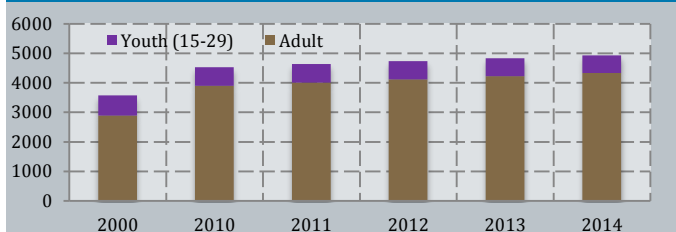
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	9.4
Population Growth (%)	2013	1.3
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	54.1
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	11,044
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	29.9
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	70.7
Average Years of Schooling	2012	11.2
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	99.8

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	69.0	2014	83.7	2014	76.00
Youth	2014	42.1	2014	28.60	2014	35.20
Total	2014	63.1	2014	70.30	2014	66.60

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



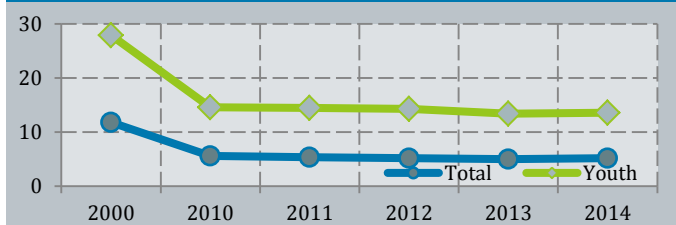
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	17.7	2014	13.8	2014	15.7
Medium	2014	53.6	2014	66.9	2014	60.5
High	2014	28.7	2014	19.3	2014	23.8

EMPLOYMENT (%)

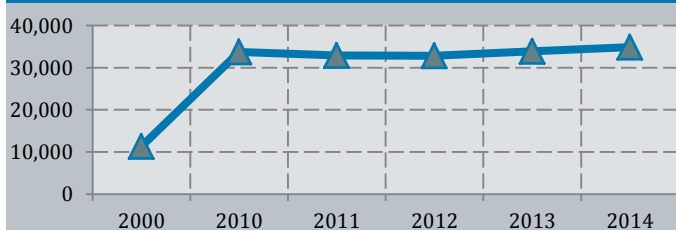
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	59.3	2014	67.3	2014	63.2
Vulnerable Employment	2014	61.5	2014	50.4	2014	55.7
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	36.4
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	14.5
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	49.1

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	4.7	2014	3.3	2014	4.0
Youth	2014	14.1	2014	13.1	2014	13.6
Total	2014	6.1	2014	4.3	2014	5.2
% of Youth to Adult	2014	3.0	2014	3.9	2014	3.4

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



BAHRAIN

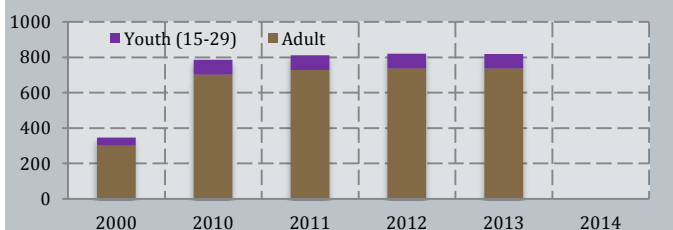
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	1.3
Population Growth (%)	2013	1.1
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	88.8
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	34,584
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	5.2
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	76.7
Average Years of Schooling	2012	9.4
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	95.7

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2013	40.7	2013	88.4	2013	71.8
Youth	2013	30.9	2013	53.7	2013	43.9
Total	2013	39.2	2013	86.9	2013	70.2

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



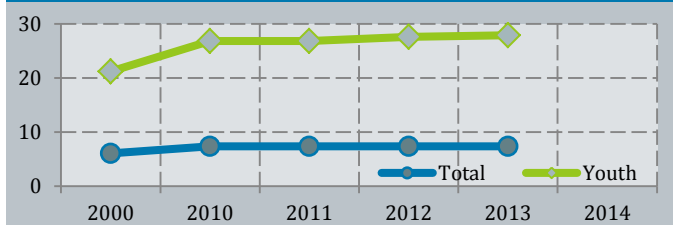
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	...	...	...	...	...	...
Medium	...	...	...	...	...	...
High	...	...	...	...	...	...

EMPLOYMENT (%)

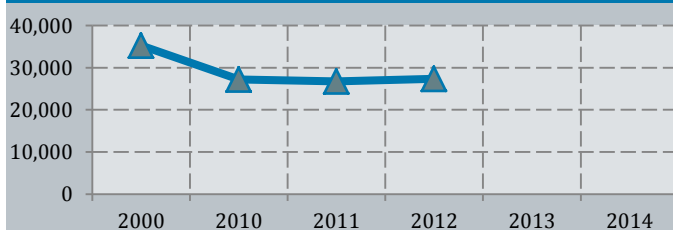
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2013	32.3	82.7	65
Vulnerable Employment	2010	1.1	2.2	2.0
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	...	...
Employment in Industry	2014	...	...	...
Employment in Service	2014	...	...	...

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2013	14.5	2013	2.6	2013	4.8
Youth	2013	33.0	2013	25.7	2013	27.9
Total	2013	17.7	2013	4.9	2013	7.4
% of Youth to Adult	2013	2.3	2013	9.7	2013	5.8

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



BANGLADESH

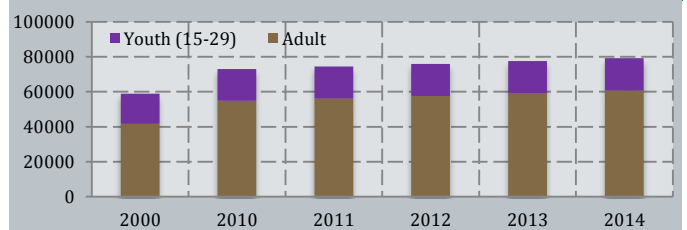
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	156.6
Population Growth (%)	2013	1.2
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	29.4
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	2,080
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	33.2
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	70.7
Average Years of Schooling	2012	5.1
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	61.5

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	60.3	2014	91.0	2014	75.70
Youth	2014	50.6	2014	66.20	2014	58.50
Total	2014	57.6	2014	84.00	2014	70.90

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



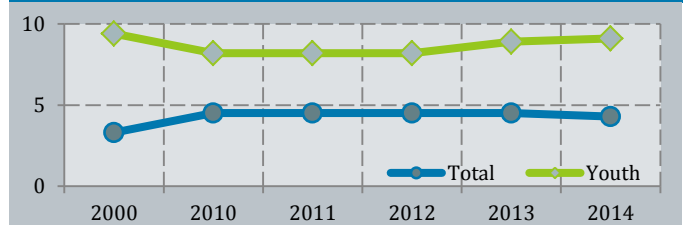
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	12.5	2014	70.2	2014	47.1
Medium	2014	81.9	2014	23.1	2014	46.7
High	2014	5.6	2014	6.7	2014	6.3

EMPLOYMENT (%)

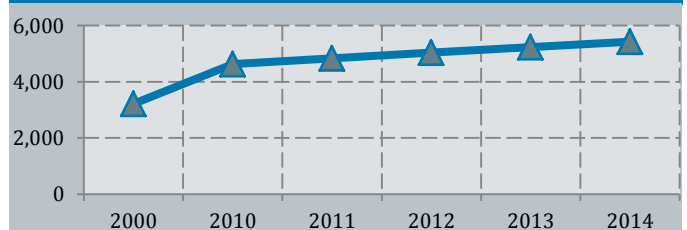
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2014	54.7	80.7	67.8
Vulnerable Employment	2014	88.2	73.7	79.5
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	...	43.2
Employment in Industry	2014	...	...	18.2
Employment in Service	2014	...	...	38.6

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	3.5	2014	2.4	2014	2.9
Youth	2014	9.4	2014	8.9	2014	9.1
Total	2014	5.0	2014	3.9	2014	4.3
% of Youth to Adult	2014	2.7	2014	3.7	2014	3.2

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



BENIN

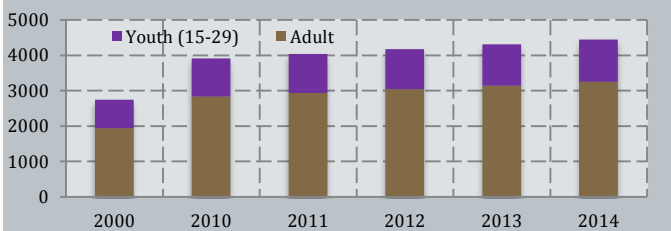
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	10.3
Population Growth (%)	2013	2.7
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	46.2
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	1,623
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	56.2
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	59.3
Average Years of Schooling	2012	3.2
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	38.4

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	73.1	2014	90.3	2014	81.6
Youth	2014	57.3	2014	55.8	2014	56.6
Total	2014	67.7	2014	78.2	2014	72.9

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



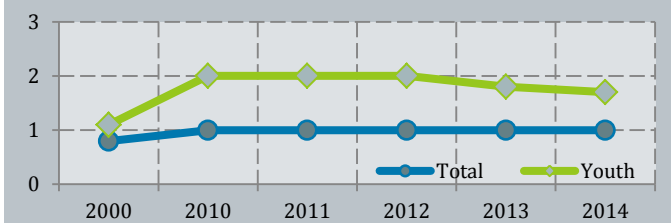
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	4.7	2014	33.6	2014	20.1
Medium	2014	92.2	2014	63.6	2014	77.0
High	2014	3.1	2014	2.8	2014	2.9

EMPLOYMENT (%)

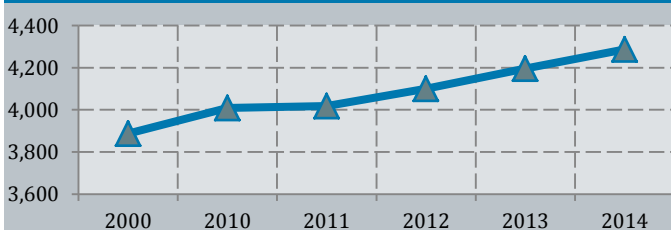
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	67	2014	77.4	2014	72.2
Vulnerable Employment	2014	95.0	2014	84.3	2014	89.3
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	43.4
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	10.4
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	46.2

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	0.6	2014	0.9	2014	0.8
Youth	2014	1.8	2014	1.5	2014	1.7
Total	2014	1.0	2014	1.1	2014	1.0
% of Youth to Adult	2014	2.9	2014	1.6	2014	2.1

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



BRUNEI DARUSSALAM

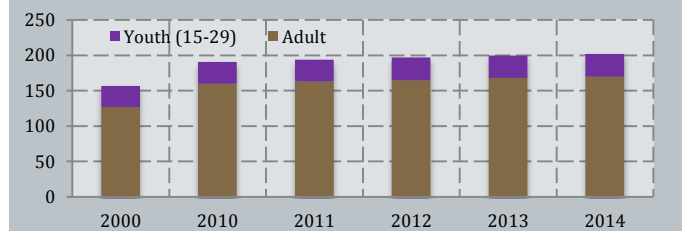
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	0.4
Population Growth (%)	2013	1.3
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	76.7
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	53,431
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	8.4
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	78.6
Average Years of Schooling	2012	8.7
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	96.0

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	55.1	2014	82.0	2014	68.50
Youth	2014	41.6	2014	50.90	2014	46.40
Total	2014	52.2	2014	75.00	2014	63.70

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



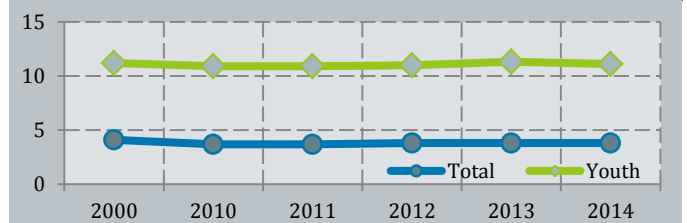
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	36.5	2014	19.6	2014	26.5
Medium	2014	38.8	2014	55.6	2014	48.8
High	2014	24.7	2014	24.7	2014	24.7

EMPLOYMENT (%)

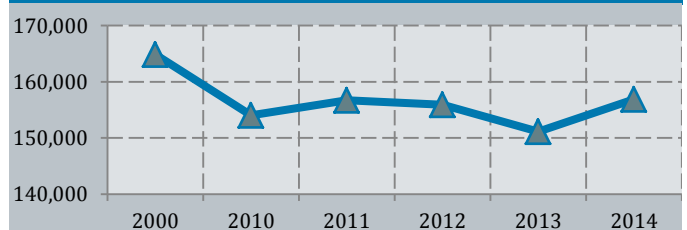
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	50.1	2014	72.3	2014	61.3
Vulnerable Employment	2014	3.8	2014	5.2	2014	4.6
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	1.0
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	13.3
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	84.6

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	2.4	2014	2.3	2014	2.4
Youth	2014	12.1	2014	10.4	2014	11.1
Total	2014	4.0	2014	3.6	2014	3.8
% of Youth to Adult	2014	5.1	2014	4.4	2014	4.7

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



BURKINA FASO

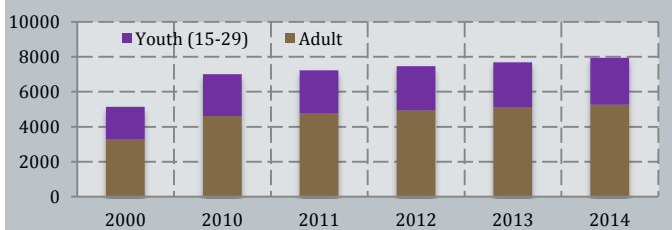
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	16.9
Population Growth (%)	2013	2.8
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	28.2
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	1,585
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	64.1
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	56.3
Average Years of Schooling	2012	1.3
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	36.0

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	79.9	2014	95.9	2014	87.5
Youth	2014	71.8	2014	80.4	2014	76.2
Total	2014	77.0	2014	89.9	2014	83.3

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



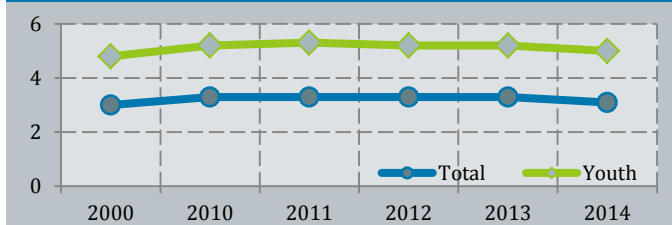
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	0.9	2014	0.9	2014	0.9
Medium	2014	98.2	2014	96.7	2014	97.4
High	2014	0.9	2014	2.3	2014	1.6

EMPLOYMENT (%)

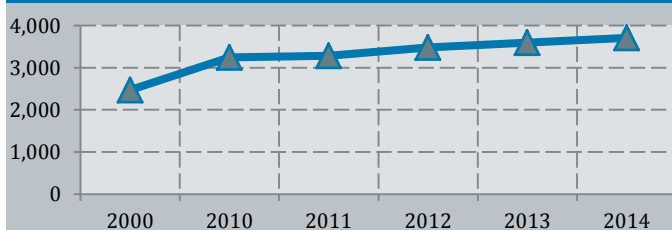
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	75.3	2014	86.5	2014	80.7
Vulnerable Employment	2014	94.6	2014	85.9	2014	90.0
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	83.2
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	2.7
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	14.1

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	1.5	2014	2.8	2014	2.2
Youth	2014	3.8	2014	6.0	2014	5.0
Total	2014	2.3	2014	3.9	2014	3.1
% of Youth to Adult	2014	2.5	2014	2.1	2014	2.3

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



CAMEROON

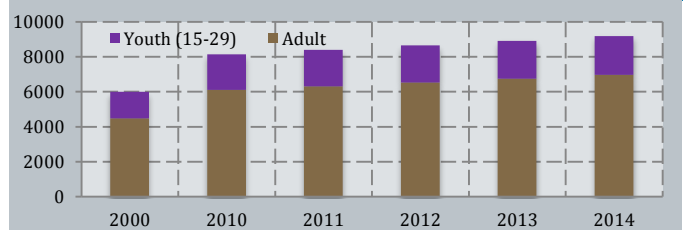
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	22.3
Population Growth (%)	2013	2.5
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	53.2
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	2,423
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	60.8
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	55.0
Average Years of Schooling	2012	5.9
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	75.0

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	74.6	2014	91.4	2014	82.90
Youth	2014	44.4	2014	51.00	2014	47.70
Total	2014	64.0	2014	76.90	2014	70.40

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



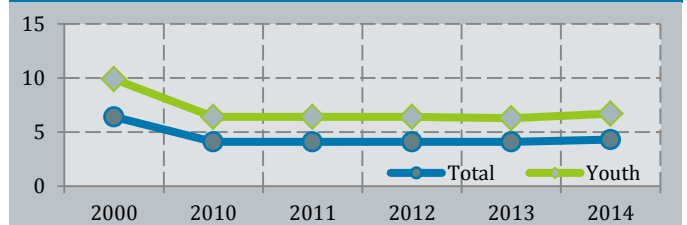
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	1.2	2014	20.7	2014	11.9
Medium	2014	96.0	2014	76.7	2014	85.4
High	2014	2.8	2014	2.6	2014	2.7

EMPLOYMENT (%)

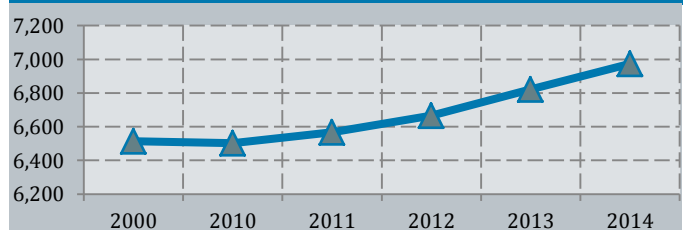
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	60.7	2014	74.1	2014	67.3
Vulnerable Employment	2014	86.3	2014	65.1	2014	74.7
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	61.1
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	9.0
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	29.9

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	4.2	2014	3.0	2014	3.6
Youth	2014	7.9	2014	5.6	2014	6.7
Total	2014	5.1	2014	3.7	2014	4.3
% of Youth to Adult	2014	1.9	2014	1.9	2014	1.9

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



CHAD

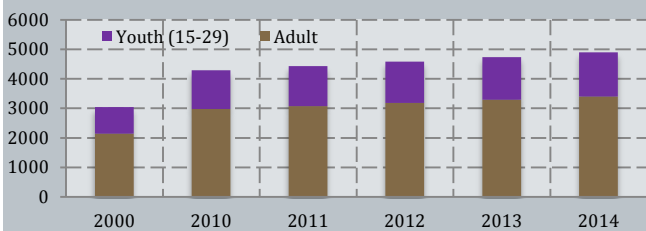
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	12.8
Population Growth (%)	2013	3.0
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	22.0
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	2,539
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	88.5
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	51.2
Average Years of Schooling	2012	1.5
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	40.2

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	69.0	2014	93.8	2014	81.3
Youth	2014	56.0	2014	56.7	2014	56.4
Total	2014	64.0	2014	79.2	2014	71.6

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



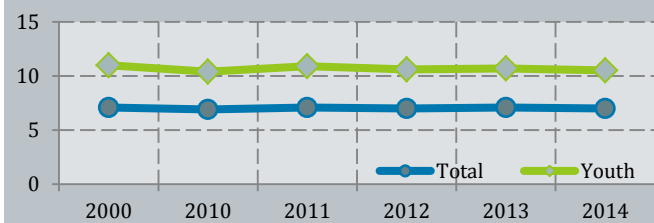
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	1.1	2014	18.6	2014	10.8
Medium	2014	96.9	2014	79.5	2014	87.3
High	2014	2.0	2014	1.9	2014	2.0

EMPLOYMENT (%)

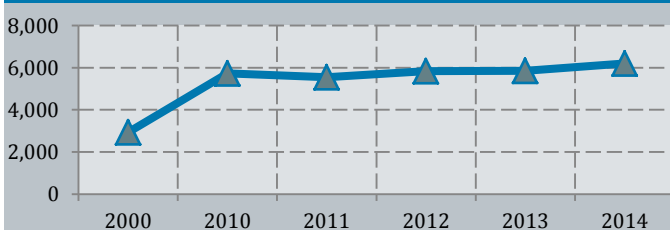
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	59.2	2014	74.1	2014	66.6
Vulnerable Employment	2014	97.9	2014	83.2	2014	89.8
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	74.9
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	2.0
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	23.1

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	5.7	2014	5.2	2014	5.4
Youth	2014	11.1	2014	10.0	2014	10.5
Total	2014	7.5	2014	6.5	2014	7.0
% of Youth to Adult	2014	1.9	2014	1.9	2014	1.9

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



COMOROS

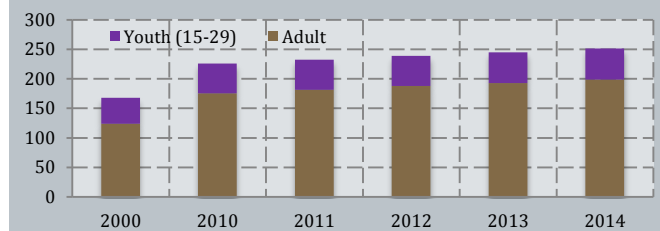
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	0.7
Population Growth (%)	2013	2.4
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	28.3
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	1,287
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	57.9
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	60.9
Average Years of Schooling	2012	2.8
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	77.8

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	40.3	2014	92.7	2014	66.30
Youth	2014	24.4	2014	52.70	2014	38.80
Total	2014	35.4	2014	79.90	2014	57.60

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



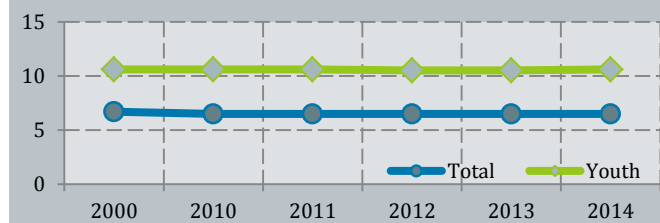
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	0.9	2014	13.3	2014	9.5
Medium	2014	95.1	2014	86.1	2014	88.8
High	2014	4.1	2014	0.7	2014	1.7

EMPLOYMENT (%)

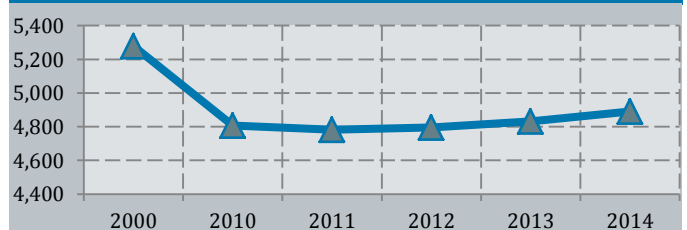
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	32.9	2014	74.9	2014	53.9
Vulnerable Employment	2014	93.1	2014	84.8	2014	87.7
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	75.4
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	5.5
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	19.1

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	5.8	2014	5.2	2014	5.4
Youth	2014	11.5	2014	10.1	2014	10.6
Total	2014	7.0	2014	6.2	2014	6.5
% of Youth to Adult	2014	2.0	2014	2.0	2014	2.0

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



COTE D'IVOIRE

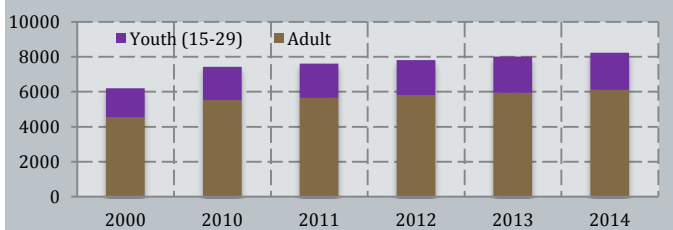
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	20.3
Population Growth (%)	2013	2.4
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	52.7
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	1,818
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	71.3
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	50.8
Average Years of Schooling	2012	4.3
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	43.1

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	58.8	2014	91.4	2014	75.7
Youth	2014	40.5	2014	61.1	2014	50.9
Total	2014	52.5	2014	81.3	2014	67.3

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



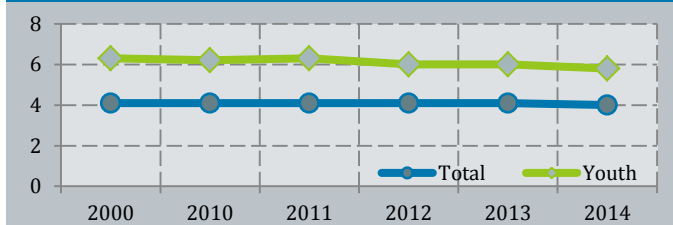
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	1.0	2014	18.2	2014	11.6
Medium	2014	93.4	2014	81.5	2014	86.1
High	2014	5.6	2014	0.3	2014	2.3

EMPLOYMENT (%)

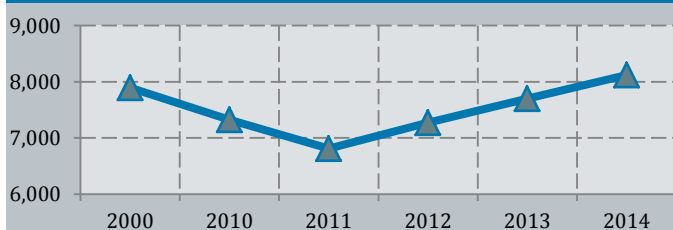
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	50.5	78	64.6		
Vulnerable Employment	2014	84.8	69.0	75.0		
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	...	62.1		
Employment in Industry	2014	...	...	7.4		
Employment in Service	2014	...	...	30.5		

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	3.3	2014	3.4	2014	3.3
Youth	2014	5.0	2014	6.4	2014	5.8
Total	2014	3.7	2014	4.1	2014	4.0
% of Youth to Adult	2014	1.5	2014	1.9	2014	1.7

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



DJIBOUTI

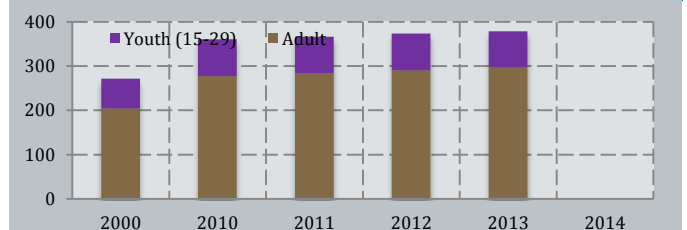
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	0.9
Population Growth (%)	2013	1.5
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	77.2
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	2,746
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	57.4
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	61.8
Average Years of Schooling	2012	3.8
Literacy Rate (Adult)	...	...

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2013	38.5	2013	70.5	2013	54.60
Youth	2013	40.9	2013	48.70	2013	44.80
Total	2013	36.3	2013	67.70	2013	52.00

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



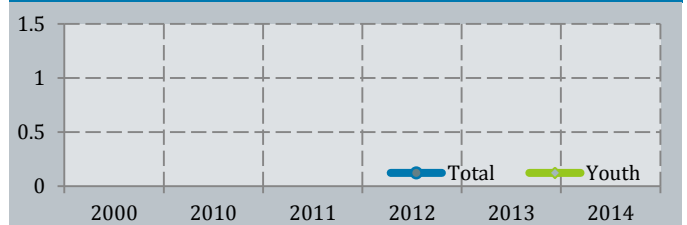
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	...	...	...	...	...	...
Medium	...	...	...	...	...	...
High	...	...	...	...	...	...

EMPLOYMENT (%)

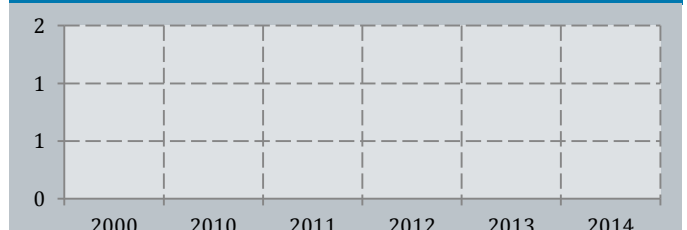
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	...	...	...	...	...	...
Vulnerable Employment	...	...	...	...	...	...
Employment in Agriculture	...	...	...	...	...	...
Employment in Industry	...	...	...	...	...	...
Employment in Service	...	...	...	...	...	...

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2002	...	2002	...	2002	...
Youth	2002	...	2002	...	2002	...
Total	2002	68.6	2002	54.6	2002	59.5
% of Youth to Adult	2002	...	2002	...	2002	...

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



EGYPT

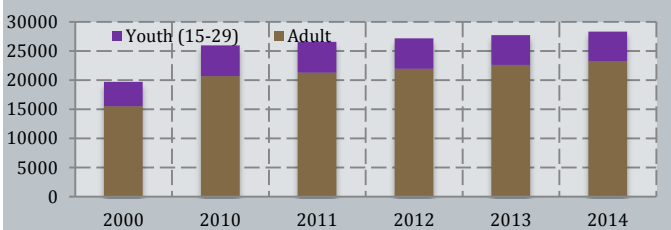
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	82.1
Population Growth (%)	2013	1.6
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	43.9
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	6,579
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	18.6
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	71.1
Average Years of Schooling	2012	6.4
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	73.8

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	25.1	2014	85.0	2014	54.7
Youth	2014	20.0	2014	47.4	2014	33.9
Total	2014	23.8	2014	75.0	2014	49.3

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



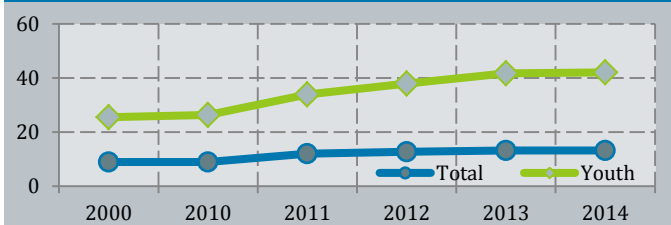
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	4.5	2014	9.1	2014	8.1
Medium	2014	53.2	2014	56.2	2014	55.6
High	2014	42.4	2014	34.8	2014	36.3

EMPLOYMENT (%)

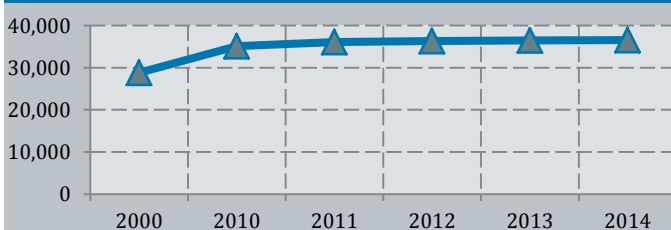
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	17.2	2014	68.6	2014	42.8
Vulnerable Employment	2014	45.8	2014	21.2	2014	26.2
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	27.9
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	24.1
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	48.0

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	17.6	2014	3.6	2014	6.9
Youth	2014	64.8	2014	32.7	2014	42.0
Total	2014	27.8	2014	8.5	2014	13.2
% of Youth to Adult	2014	3.7	2014	9.0	2014	6.1

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



GABON

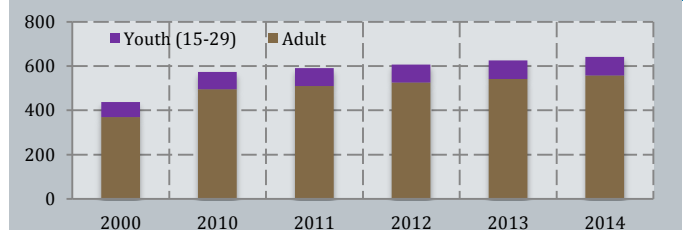
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	1.7
Population Growth (%)	2013	2.4
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	86.8
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	19,478
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	39.1
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	63.4
Average Years of Schooling	2012	7.4
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	83.2

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	71.2	2014	83.2	2014	77.20
Youth	2014	24.0	2014	27.50	2014	25.80
Total	2014	56.5	2014	65.60	2014	61.00

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



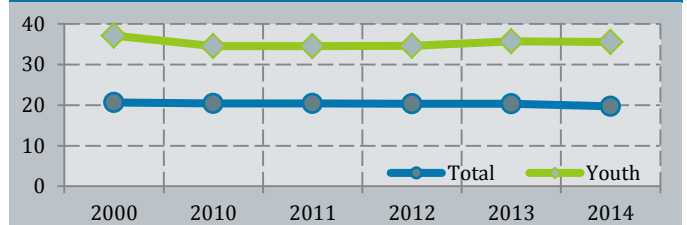
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	4.1	2014	39.8	2014	24.6
Medium	2014	90.0	2014	55.3	2014	70.1
High	2014	5.9	2014	4.9	2014	5.3

EMPLOYMENT (%)

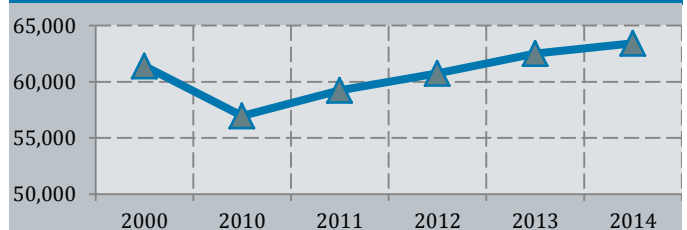
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	41.9	2014	56	2014	49
Vulnerable Employment	2014	38.2	2014	25.0	2014	30.6
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	20.1
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	15.5
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	64.4

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	23.5	2014	12.1	2014	17.3
Youth	2014	40.8	2014	30.9	2014	35.5
Total	2014	25.8	2014	14.6	2014	19.7
% of Youth to Adult	2014	1.7	2014	2.6	2014	2.0

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



GAMBIA

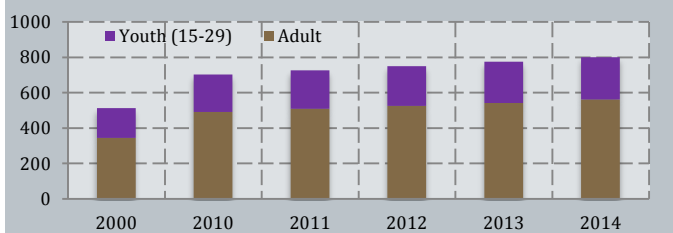
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	1.8
Population Growth (%)	2013	3.2
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	58.3
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	1,962
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	49.4
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	58.8
Average Years of Schooling	2012	2.8
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	55.5

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	77.0	2014	93.8	2014	85.1
Youth	2014	63.4	2014	64.0	2014	63.7
Total	2014	72.2	2014	82.8	2014	77.4

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



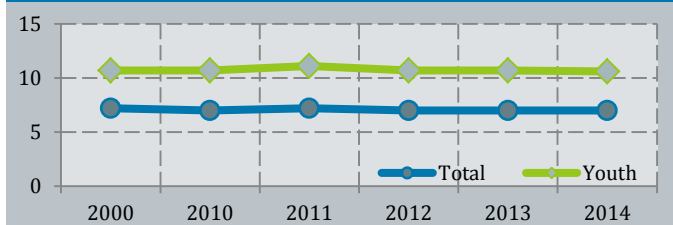
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	1.0	2014	22.7	2014	12.4
Medium	2014	94.4	2014	76.2	2014	84.9
High	2014	4.6	2014	1.1	2014	2.8

EMPLOYMENT (%)

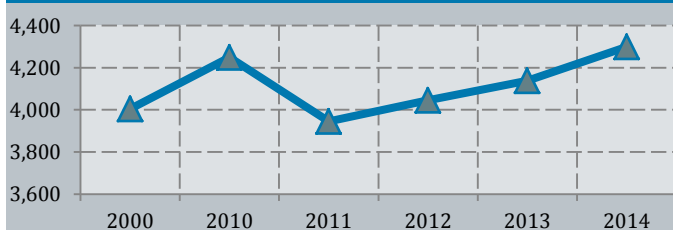
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	66.8	2014	77.4	2014	72
Vulnerable Employment	2014	76.9	2014	63.6	2014	69.9
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	63.5
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	5.9
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	30.6

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	5.7	2014	5.1	2014	5.4
Youth	2014	11.2	2014	9.9	2014	10.6
Total	2014	7.4	2014	6.5	2014	7.0
% of Youth to Adult	2014	2.0	2014	1.9	2014	2.0

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



GUINEA

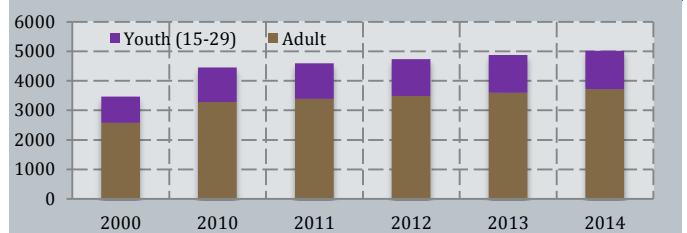
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	11.7
Population Growth (%)	2013	2.5
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	36.4
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	1,125
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	64.9
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	56.1
Average Years of Schooling	2012	1.6
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	30.4

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	72.7	2014	89.8	2014	81.20
Youth	2014	52.2	2014	57.00	2014	54.60
Total	2014	65.7	2014	78.40	2014	72.00

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



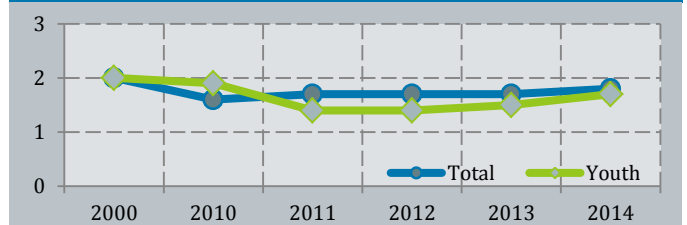
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	1.4	2014	1.6	2014	1.5
Medium	2014	97.6	2014	97.6	2014	97.6
High	2014	1.0	2014	0.9	2014	0.9

EMPLOYMENT (%)

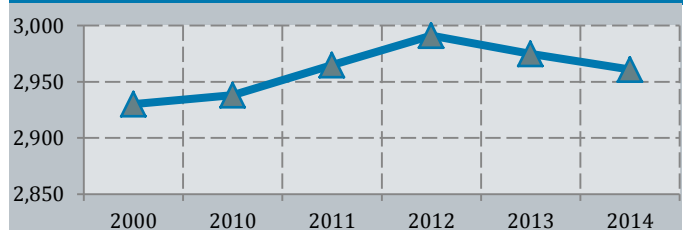
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	64.7	2014	76.8	2014	70.7
Vulnerable Employment	2014	98.3	2014	92.1	2014	95.0
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	69.9
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	7.3
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	22.8

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	1.8	2014	1.9	2014	1.9
Youth	2014	0.9	2014	2.4	2014	1.7
Total	2014	1.6	2014	2.0	2014	1.8
% of Youth to Adult	2014	0.5	2014	1.3	2014	0.9

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



GUINEA-BISSAU

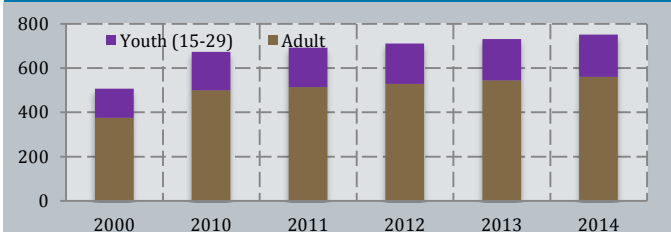
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	1.7
Population Growth (%)	2013	2.4
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	45.3
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	1,206
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	77.9
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	54.3
Average Years of Schooling	2012	2.3
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	59.9

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	75.5	2014	89.7	2014	82.5
Youth	2014	54.0	2014	57.0	2014	55.5
Total	2014	68.3	2014	78.5	2014	73.4

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



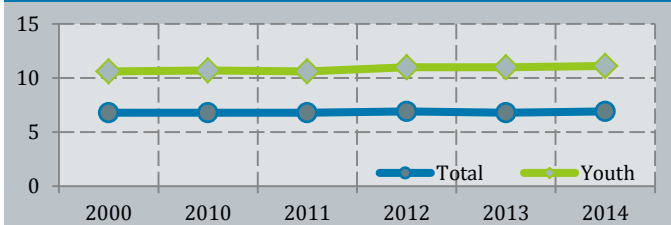
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	0.8	2014	17.0	2014	9.4
Medium	2014	95.2	2014	82.8	2014	88.6
High	2014	4.0	2014	0.3	2014	2.0

EMPLOYMENT (%)

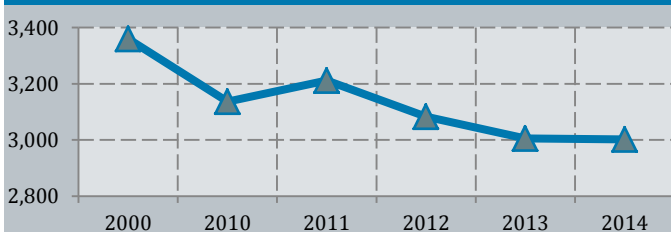
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	63.2	2014	73.4	2014	68.3
Vulnerable Employment	2014	92.4	2014	82.3	2014	87.0
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	74.6
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	5.3
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	20.1

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	5.9	2014	5.2	2014	5.5
Youth	2014	11.8	2014	10.5	2014	11.1
Total	2014	7.4	2014	6.5	2014	6.9
% of Youth to Adult	2014	2.0	2014	2.0	2014	2.0

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



GUYANA

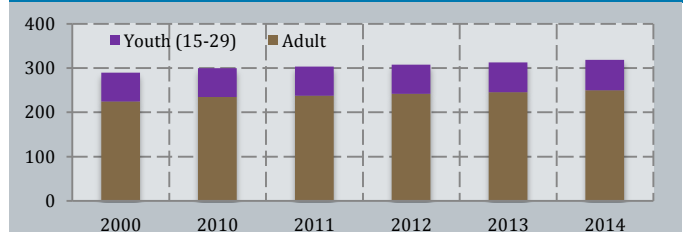
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	0.8
Population Growth (%)	2013	0.5
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	28.6
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	8,250
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	29.9
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	66.2
Average Years of Schooling	2012	8.5
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	88.5

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	47.2	2014	88.3	2014	67.20
Youth	2014	31.0	2014	60.60	2014	46.60
Total	2014	42.9	2014	80.00	2014	61.30

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



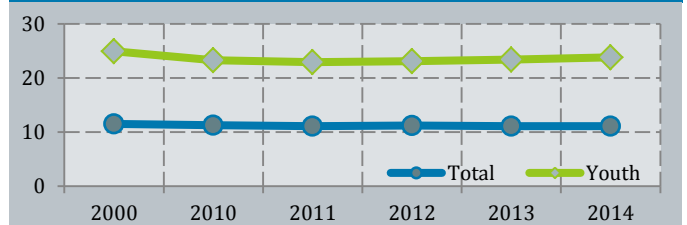
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	29.1	2014	29.5	2014	29.4
Medium	2014	46.1	2014	62.1	2014	56.7
High	2014	24.8	2014	8.4	2014	14.0

EMPLOYMENT (%)

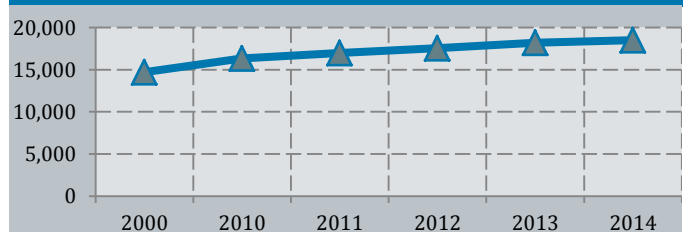
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	36.8	2014	72.4	2014	54.5
Vulnerable Employment	2014	53.1	2014	42.2	2014	45.9
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	24.4
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	23.7
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	51.9

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	9.8	2014	6.5	2014	7.7
Youth	2014	31.8	2014	20.1	2014	23.8
Total	2014	14.0	2014	9.6	2014	11.1
% of Youth to Adult	2014	3.2	2014	3.1	2014	3.1

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



INDONESIA

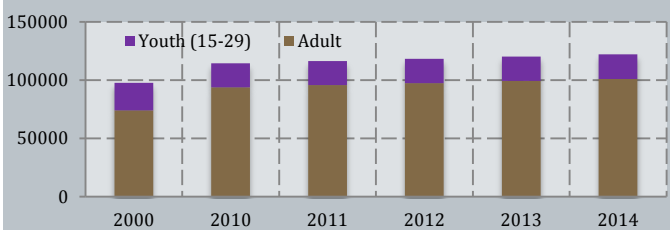
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	249.9
Population Growth (%)	2013	1.2
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	52.2
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	5,214
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	24.5
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	70.8
Average Years of Schooling	2012	7.5
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	93.9

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	54.7	2014	91.6	2014	73.0
Youth	2014	40.2	2014	60.0	2014	50.3
Total	2014	51.4	2014	84.0	2014	67.7

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



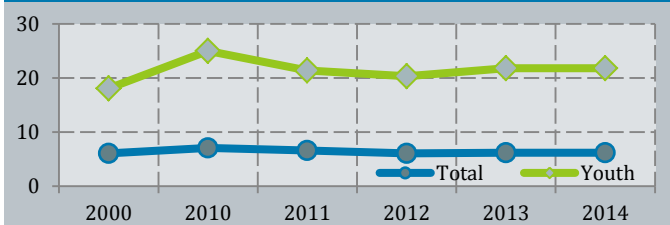
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	13.4	2014	18.0	2014	16.3
Medium	2014	75.9	2014	73.9	2014	74.6
High	2014	10.7	2014	8.1	2014	9.1

EMPLOYMENT (%)

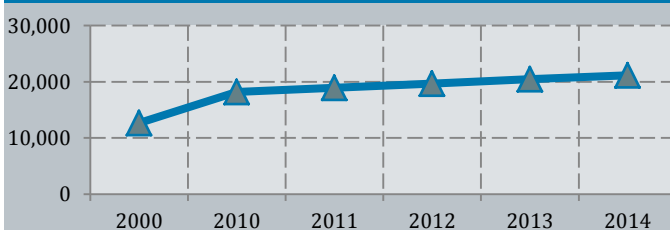
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	47.7	2014	79.4	2014	63.5
Vulnerable Employment	2014	49.8	2014	27.0	2014	35.6
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	34.2
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	20.3
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	45.5

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	3.9	2014	2.3	2014	2.9
Youth	2014	22.4	2014	21.3	2014	21.8
Total	2014	7.2	2014	5.6	2014	6.2
% of Youth to Adult	2014	5.7	2014	9.1	2014	7.4

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



IRAN

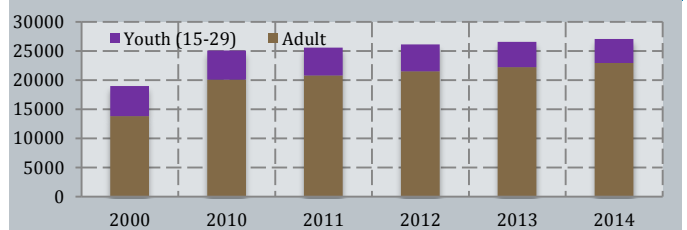
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	77.4
Population Growth (%)	2013	1.3
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	69.4
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	7,391
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	14.4
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	74.1
Average Years of Schooling	2012	7.8
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	86.8

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	17.7	2014	81.5	2014	49.50
Youth	2014	13.3	2014	48.40	2014	31.00
Total	2014	16.7	2014	74.00	2014	45.40

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



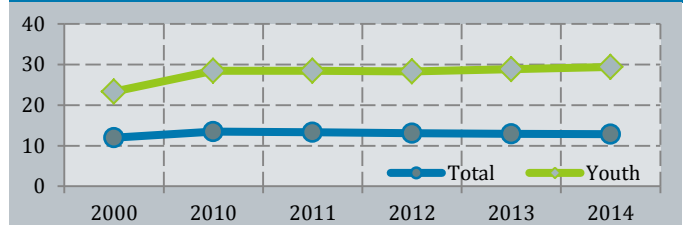
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	7.0	2014	18.8	2014	16.8
Medium	2014	63.0	2014	67.8	2014	67.0
High	2014	30.1	2014	13.4	2014	16.2

EMPLOYMENT (%)

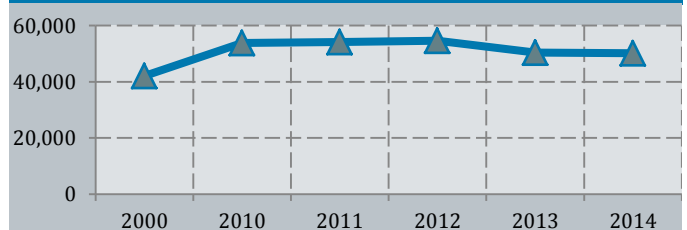
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	13.5	2014	65.7	2014	39.6
Vulnerable Employment	2014	48.9	2014	38.0	2014	39.9
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	19.8
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	32.1
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	48.1

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	14.9	2014	8.7	2014	9.8
Youth	2014	41.4	2014	26.1	2014	29.4
Total	2014	19.6	2014	11.3	2014	12.8
% of Youth to Adult	2014	2.8	2014	3.0	2014	3.0

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



IRAQ

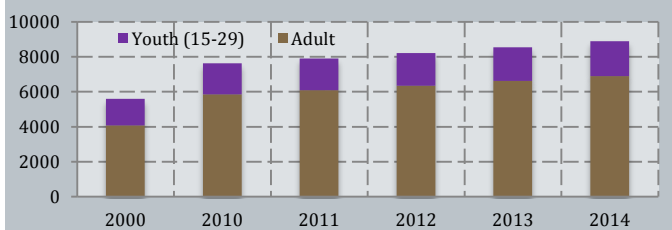
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	33.4
Population Growth (%)	2013	2.5
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	66.4
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	12,264
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	28.0
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	69.5
Average Years of Schooling	2012	5.6
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	79.7

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	18.2	2014	80.9	2014	49.2
Youth	2014	8.2	2014	48.1	2014	28.6
Total	2014	15.0	2014	69.8	2014	42.4

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



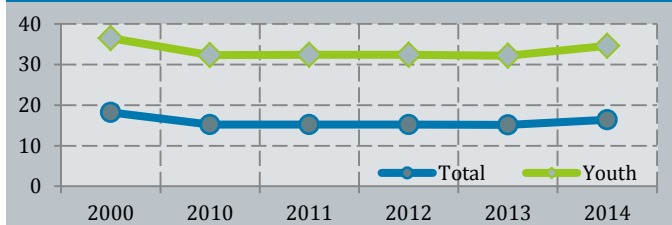
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	8.2	2014	0.5	2014	1.7
Medium	2014	63.4	2014	78.3	2014	75.9
High	2014	28.4	2014	21.2	2014	22.3

EMPLOYMENT (%)

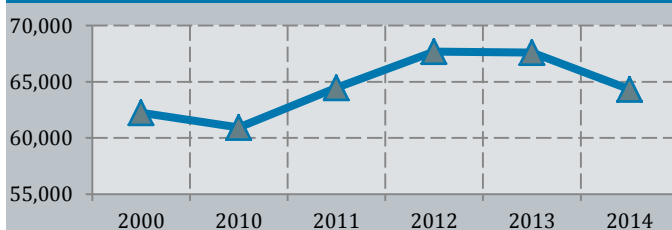
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	11.4	2014	59.5	2014	35.4
Vulnerable Employment	2014	15.9	2014	15.5	2014	15.6
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	21.5
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	19.2
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	59.3

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	16.8	2014	9.9	2014	11.2
Youth	2014	57.7	2014	30.8	2014	34.6
Total	2014	24.1	2014	14.8	2014	16.4
% of Youth to Adult	2014	3.4	2014	3.1	2014	3.1

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



JORDAN

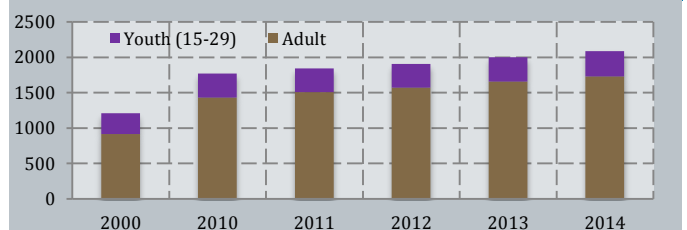
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	6.5
Population Growth (%)	2013	2.2
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	83.2
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	6,115
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	16.0
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	73.9
Average Years of Schooling	2012	9.9
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	95.4

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	17.9	2014	77.6	2014	48.40
Youth	2014	10.5	2014	39.80	2014	25.30
Total	2014	15.8	2014	66.90	2014	41.80

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



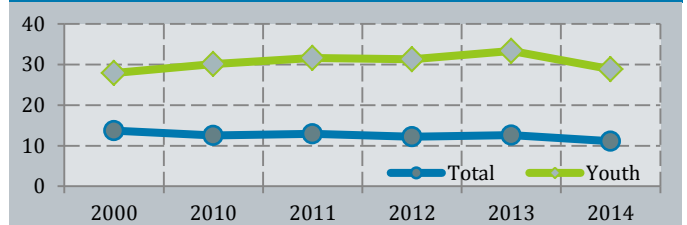
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	15.0	2014	19.8	2014	19.0
Medium	2014	21.4	2014	53.3	2014	48.0
High	2014	63.6	2014	26.8	2014	33.0

EMPLOYMENT (%)

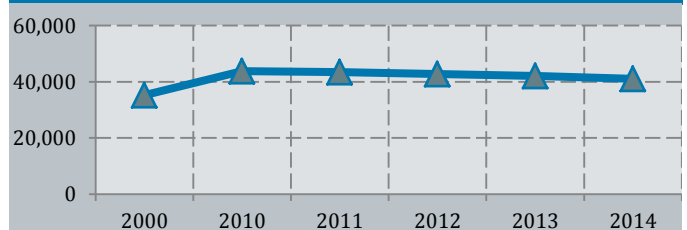
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	12.7	2014	60.8	2014	37.2
Vulnerable Employment	2014	2.3	2014	11.0	2014	9.5
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	2.0
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	17.9
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	80.3

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	12.8	2014	6.3	2014	7.4
Youth	2014	47.6	2014	24.0	2014	28.8
Total	2014	19.5	2014	9.2	2014	11.1
% of Youth to Adult	2014	3.7	2014	3.8	2014	3.9

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



KAZAKHSTAN

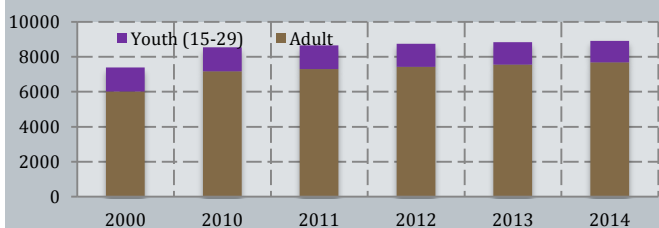
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	17.0
Population Growth (%)	2013	1.5
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	53.4
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	14,391
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	14.6
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	70.5
Average Years of Schooling	2012	10.4
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	99.8

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

		FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL
Adult	2014	73.6	2014	86.4	2014	79.5
Youth	2014	44.2	2014	50.5	2014	47.4
Total	2014	67.9	2014	78.2	2014	72.7

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



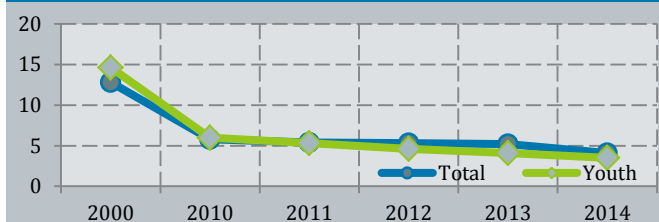
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

		FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL
Low	2014	21.9	2014	22.3	2014	22.1
Medium	2014	39.3	2014	50.9	2014	45.2
High	2014	38.9	2014	26.8	2014	32.7

EMPLOYMENT (%)

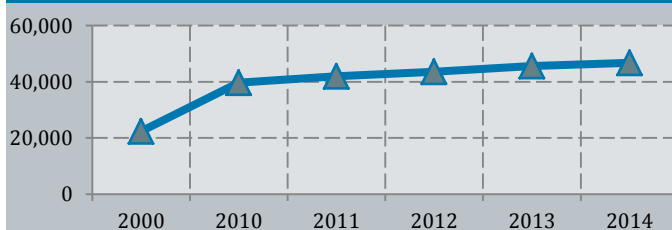
		FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL
Employment to Population	2014	64.5	2014	75.6	2014	69.7
Vulnerable Employment	2014	28.0	2014	28.0	2014	28.0
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	23.8
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	19.8
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	56.4

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



		FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL
Adult	2014	5.1	2014	3.2	2014	4.2
Youth	2014	4.0	2014	3.1	2014	3.5
Total	2014	4.9	2014	3.2	2014	4.1
% of Youth to Adult	2014	0.8	2014	1.0	2014	0.8

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



KUWAIT

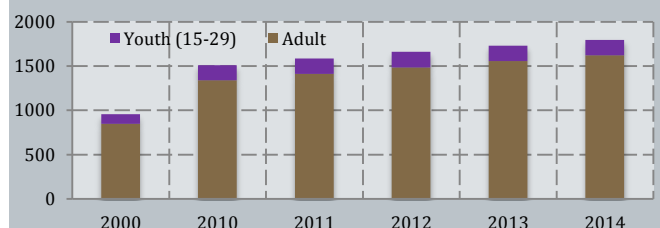
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	3.4
Population Growth (%)	2013	3.6
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	98.3
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	39,706
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	8.1
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	74.5
Average Years of Schooling	2012	7.2
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	96.3

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

		FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL
Adult	2014	49.8	2014	91.5	2014	76.80
Youth	2014	24.3	2014	42.70	2014	34.40
Total	2014	43.8	2014	83.30	2014	68.50

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



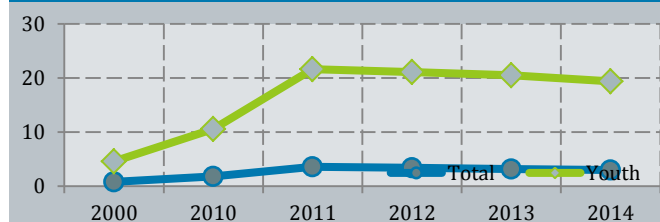
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

		FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL
Low	2014	0.1	2014	1.4	2014	1.1
Medium	2014	76.5	2014	80.6	2014	79.6
High	2014	23.4	2014	18.0	2014	19.3

EMPLOYMENT (%)

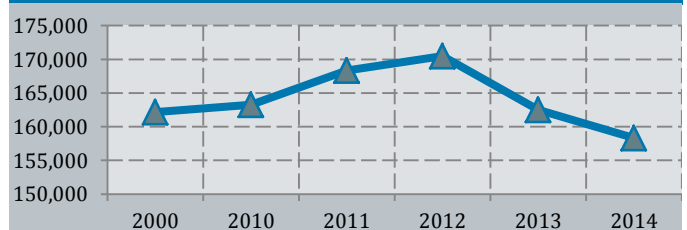
		FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL
Employment to Population	2014	42.8	2014	80.7	2014	66.5
Vulnerable Employment	2014	1.4	2014	2.6	2014	2.3
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	2.9
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	26.6
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	70.6

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



		FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL
Adult	2014	0.8	2014	1.3	2014	1.2
Youth	2014	12.8	2014	22.5	2014	19.4
Total	2014	2.4	2014	3.1	2014	3.0
% of Youth to Adult	2014	16.1	2014	17.4	2014	16.4

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



KYRGYZ REPUBLIC

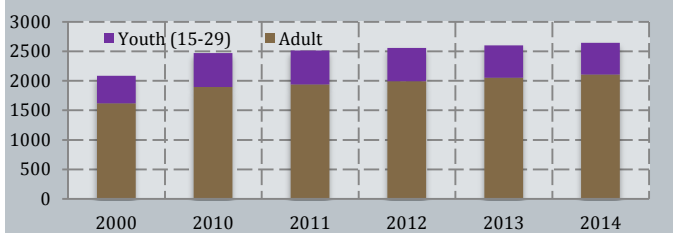
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	5.7
Population Growth (%)	2013	2.0
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	35.6
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	2,611
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	21.6
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	70.2
Average Years of Schooling	2012	9.3
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	99.5

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	63.5	2014	88.9	2014	75.6
Youth	2014	37.3	2014	58.8	2014	48.2
Total	2014	56.3	2014	80.0	2014	67.8

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



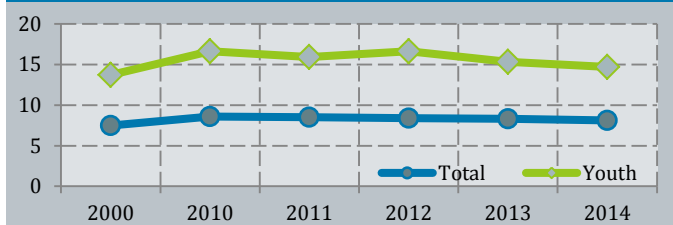
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	9.0	2014	10.3	2014	9.8
Medium	2014	64.3	2014	78.8	2014	72.7
High	2014	26.7	2014	10.9	2014	17.6

EMPLOYMENT (%)

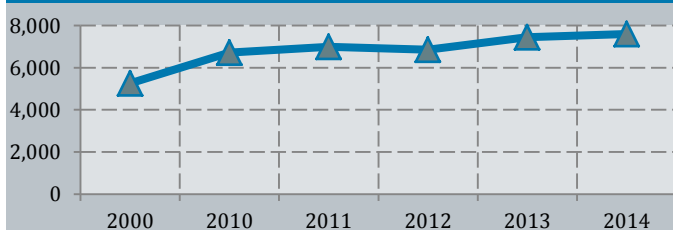
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	51.2	2014	74.2	2014	62.4
Vulnerable Employment	2014	39.2	2014	43.5	2014	41.7
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	30.8
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	20.6
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	48.6

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	7.3	2014	5.7	2014	6.4
Youth	2014	17.2	2014	13.1	2014	14.7
Total	2014	9.1	2014	7.3	2014	8.1
% of Youth to Adult	2014	2.4	2014	2.3	2014	2.3

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



LEBANON

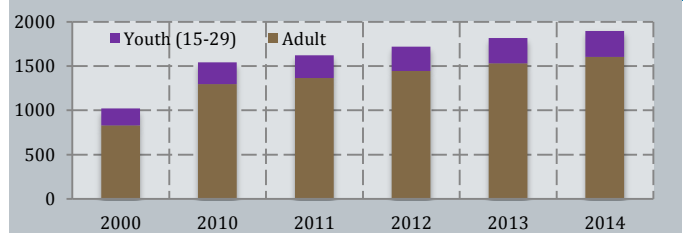
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	4.5
Population Growth (%)	2013	1.0
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	87.5
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	14,845
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	7.8
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	80.1
Average Years of Schooling	2012	7.9
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	93.9

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	25.2	2014	79.8	2014	53.50
Youth	2014	19.1	2014	42.40	2014	30.30
Total	2014	23.7	2014	71.20	2014	47.80

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



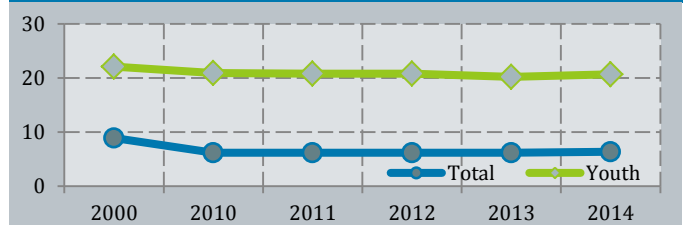
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	18.1	2014	10.3	2014	12.1
Medium	2014	37.2	2014	58.1	2014	53.2
High	2014	44.7	2014	31.7	2014	34.7

EMPLOYMENT (%)

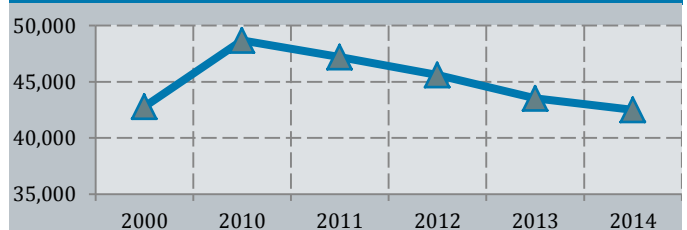
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	21.1	2014	67.6	2014	44.7
Vulnerable Employment	2014	19.7	2014	36.8	2014	32.8
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	3.8
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	23.7
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	72.5

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	7.4	2014	2.8	2014	3.8
Youth	2014	24.7	2014	18.7	2014	20.7
Total	2014	11.0	2014	5.0	2014	6.4
% of Youth to Adult	2014	3.4	2014	6.7	2014	5.4

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



LIBYA

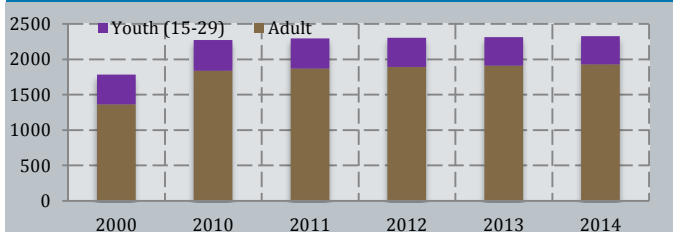
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	6.2
Population Growth (%)	2013	0.8
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	78.1
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	11,498
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	12.4
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	75.4
Average Years of Schooling	2012	7.5
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	91.0

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	31.7	2014	85.4	2014	58.0
Youth	2014	24.3	2014	49.2	2014	36.7
Total	2014	30.0	2014	76.4	2014	52.8

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



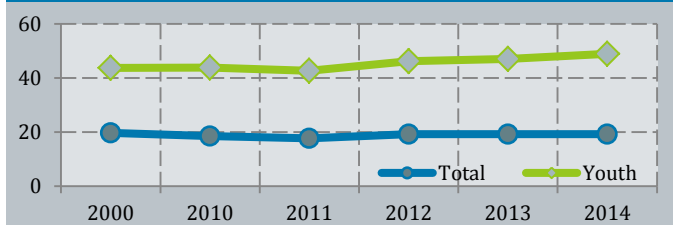
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	9.8	2014	17.6	2014	15.6
Medium	2014	44.9	2014	61.6	2014	57.3
High	2014	45.2	2014	20.8	2014	27.1

EMPLOYMENT (%)

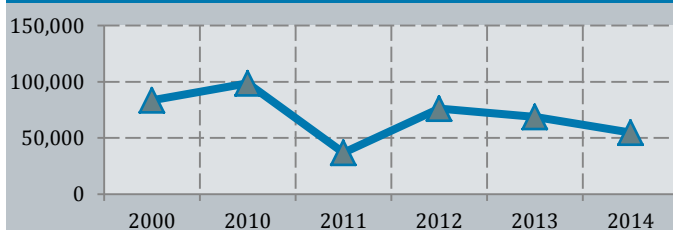
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	21.5	2014	64.5	2014	42.6
Vulnerable Employment	2014	13.5	2014	5.8	2014	7.8
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	11.2
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	24.7
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	64.0

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	18.2	2014	11.2	2014	13.2
Youth	2014	69.2	2014	38.7	2014	48.9
Total	2014	28.1	2014	15.6	2014	19.2
% of Youth to Adult	2014	3.8	2014	3.4	2014	3.7

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



MALAYSIA

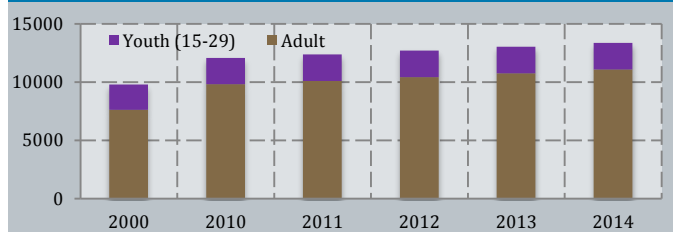
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	29.7
Population Growth (%)	2013	1.6
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	74.0
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	17,748
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	7.2
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	75.0
Average Years of Schooling	2012	9.5
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	94.6

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	48.6	2014	85.3	2014	66.30
Youth	2014	32.6	2014	47.80	2014	40.00
Total	2014	44.5	2014	75.70	2014	59.60

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



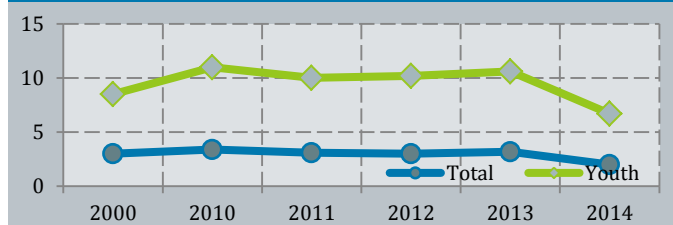
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	11.2	2014	13.5	2014	12.6
Medium	2014	62.5	2014	62.2	2014	62.3
High	2014	26.4	2014	24.3	2014	25.1

EMPLOYMENT (%)

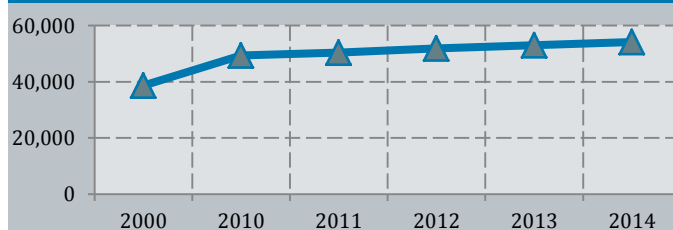
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	43.6	2014	74.3	2014	58.4
Vulnerable Employment	2014	23.7	2014	21.2	2014	22.2
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	12.3
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	27.7
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	60.0

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	1.0	2014	1.0	2014	1.0
Youth	2014	7.5	2014	6.1	2014	6.7
Total	2014	2.2	2014	1.8	2014	2.0
% of Youth to Adult	2014	7.6	2014	5.9	2014	6.5

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



MALDIVES

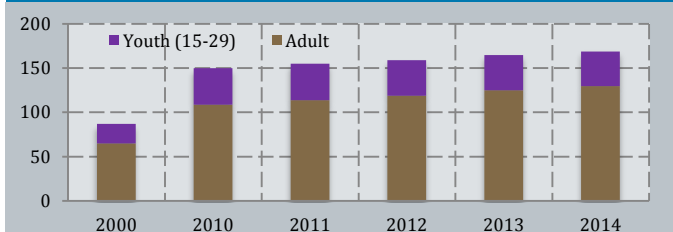
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	0.3
Population Growth (%)	2013	1.9
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	43.4
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	9,173
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	8.4
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	77.9
Average Years of Schooling	2012	5.8
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	99.3

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	59.7	2014	85.7	2014	72.5
Youth	2014	48.5	2014	59.1	2014	53.9
Total	2014	56.6	2014	77.8	2014	67.2

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



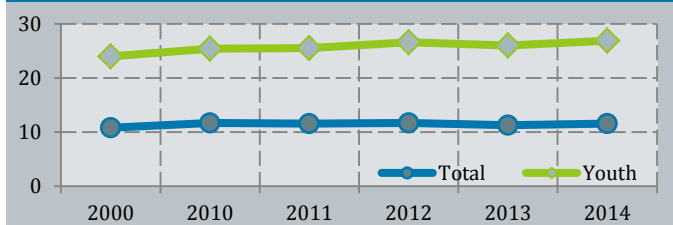
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	13.5	2014	8.6	2014	10.5
Medium	2014	46.9	2014	57.6	2014	53.4
High	2014	39.6	2014	33.8	2014	36.1

EMPLOYMENT (%)

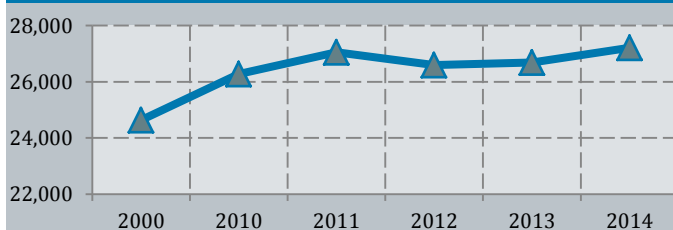
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	46.2	2014	72.7	2014	59.4
Vulnerable Employment	2014	31.0	2014	16.5	2014	22.8
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	13.4
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	16.8
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	69.1

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	12.5	2014	3.1	2014	7.0
Youth	2014	36.8	2014	19.1	2014	26.9
Total	2014	18.4	2014	6.7	2014	11.6
% of Youth to Adult	2014	2.9	2014	6.2	2014	3.8

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



MALI

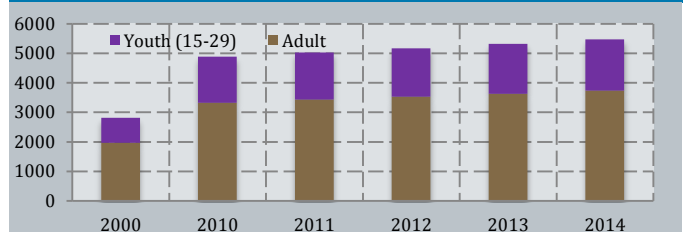
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	15.3
Population Growth (%)	2013	3.0
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	36.2
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	1,103
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	77.6
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	55.0
Average Years of Schooling	2012	2.0
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	38.7

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	53.1	2014	89.2	2014	70.90
Youth	2014	46.9	2014	68.10	2014	57.80
Total	2014	50.9	2014	81.40	2014	66.10

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



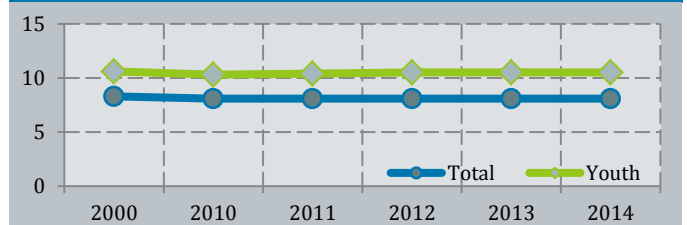
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	2.1	2014	24.1	2014	15.9
Medium	2014	93.0	2014	75.8	2014	82.2
High	2014	4.9	2014	0.1	2014	1.9

EMPLOYMENT (%)

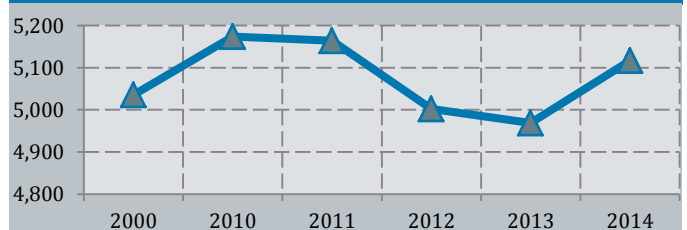
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	45.2	2014	76.3	2014	60.7
Vulnerable Employment	2014	96.5	2014	86.8	2014	90.4
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	63.6
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	7.0
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	29.4

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	9.7	2014	5.4	2014	7.0
Youth	2014	14.4	2014	7.9	2014	10.5
Total	2014	11.2	2014	6.2	2014	8.1
% of Youth to Adult	2014	1.5	2014	1.5	2014	1.5

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



MAURITANIA

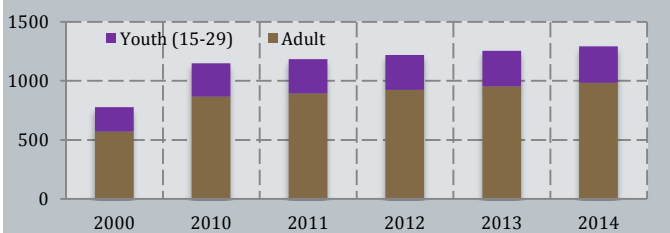
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	3.9
Population Growth (%)	2013	2.4
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	42.1
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	2,218
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	67.1
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	61.5
Average Years of Schooling	2012	3.7
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	52.1

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	31.7	2014	90.0	2014	60.7
Youth	2014	22.9	2014	56.8	2014	40.1
Total	2014	28.9	2014	79.1	2014	54.0

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



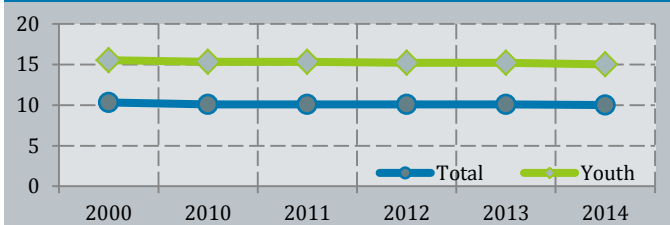
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	1.1	2014	18.0	2014	13.4
Medium	2014	93.6	2014	80.5	2014	84.1
High	2014	5.3	2014	1.5	2014	2.5

EMPLOYMENT (%)

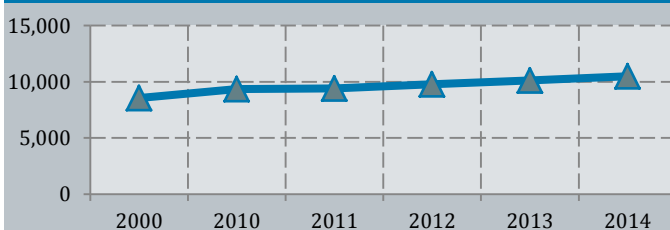
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	26.1	2014	71.1	2014	48.6
Vulnerable Employment	2014	79.8	2014	60.3	2014	65.5
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	52.6
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	10.4
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	36.8

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	8.3	2014	8.4	2014	8.4
Youth	2014	13.4	2014	15.7	2014	15.0
Total	2014	9.6	2014	10.1	2014	10.0
% of Youth to Adult	2014	1.6	2014	1.9	2014	1.8

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



MOROCCO

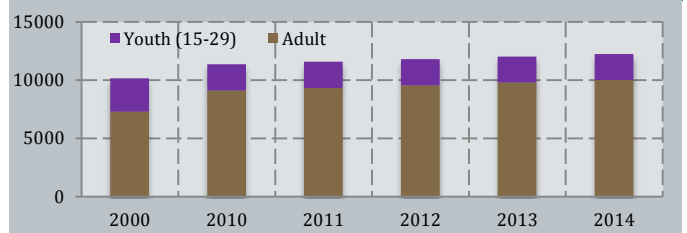
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	33.0
Population Growth (%)	2013	1.5
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	57.8
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	5,456
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	26.1
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	70.9
Average Years of Schooling	2012	4.4
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	68.5

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	29.1	2014	84.3	2014	55.50
Youth	2014	19.4	2014	52.60	2014	36.40
Total	2014	26.7	2014	75.90	2014	50.70

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



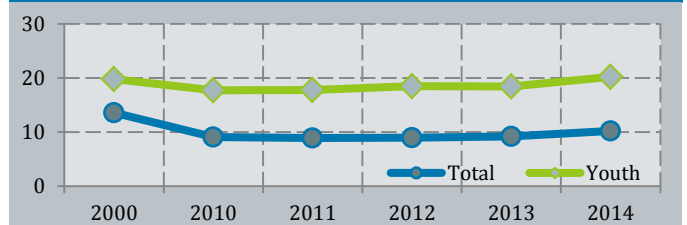
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	11.1	2014	16.8	2014	15.3
Medium	2014	80.1	2014	76.5	2014	77.5
High	2014	8.8	2014	6.7	2014	7.2

EMPLOYMENT (%)

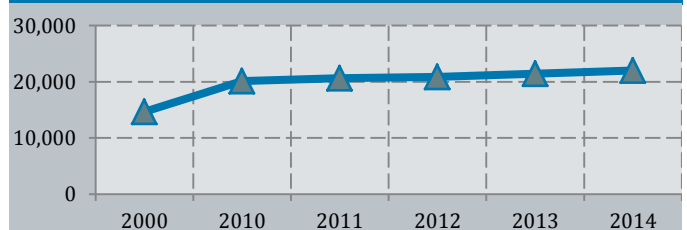
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	23.8	2014	68.4	2014	45.5
Vulnerable Employment	2014	61.3	2014	32.1	2014	39.9
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	35.7
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	20.0
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	44.3

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	9.2	2014	7.5	2014	7.9
Youth	2014	19.1	2014	20.6	2014	20.2
Total	2014	10.9	2014	9.9	2014	10.2
% of Youth to Adult	2014	2.1	2014	2.7	2014	2.5

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



MOZAMBIQUE

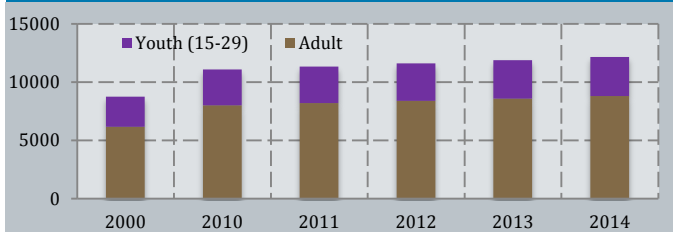
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	25.8
Population Growth (%)	2013	2.5
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	31.7
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	1,090
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	61.5
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	50.2
Average Years of Schooling	2012	3.2
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	58.8

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	93.1	2014	96.0	2014	94.5
Youth	2014	70.3	2014	60.2	2014	65.3
Total	2014	85.3	2014	82.7	2014	84.1

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



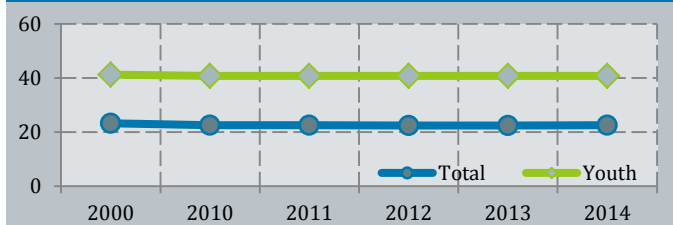
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	0.8	2014	19.8	2014	10.1
Medium	2014	94.9	2014	80.1	2014	87.7
High	2014	4.3	2014	0.0	2014	2.2

EMPLOYMENT (%)

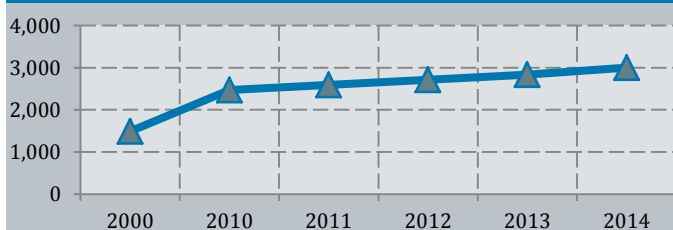
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	64	2014	66.3	2014	65.1
Vulnerable Employment	2014	94.7	2014	73.4	2014	84.3
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	75.7
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	4.0
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	20.3

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	19.1	2014	11.8	2014	15.6
Youth	2014	39.9	2014	41.6	2014	40.7
Total	2014	25.0	2014	19.8	2014	22.6
% of Youth to Adult	2014	2.1	2014	3.5	2014	2.6

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



NIGER

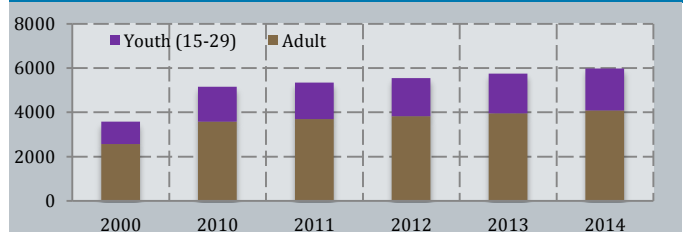
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	17.8
Population Growth (%)	2013	3.9
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	18.4
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	829
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	59.9
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	58.4
Average Years of Schooling	2012	1.4
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	19.1

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	42.8	2014	94.6	2014	68.90
Youth	2014	35.6	2014	80.00	2014	57.20
Total	2014	40.1	2014	89.50	2014	64.70

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



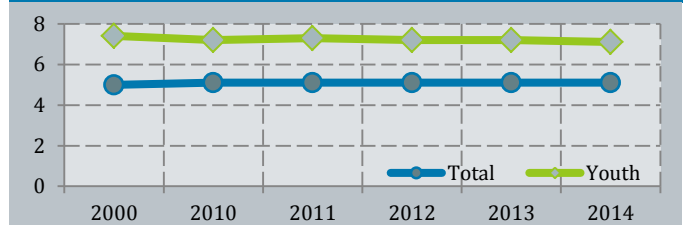
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	1.2	2014	19.3	2014	13.6
Medium	2014	94.8	2014	79.8	2014	84.5
High	2014	4.0	2014	1.0	2014	1.9

EMPLOYMENT (%)

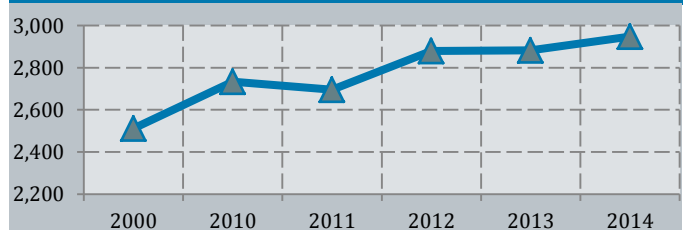
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	38.3	2014	84.8	2014	61.4
Vulnerable Employment	2014	96.9	2014	93.4	2014	94.5
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	63.0
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	14.1
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	22.9

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	4.1	2014	4.2	2014	4.1
Youth	2014	5.8	2014	7.8	2014	7.1
Total	2014	4.6	2014	5.3	2014	5.1
% of Youth to Adult	2014	1.4	2014	1.9	2014	1.7

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



NIGERIA

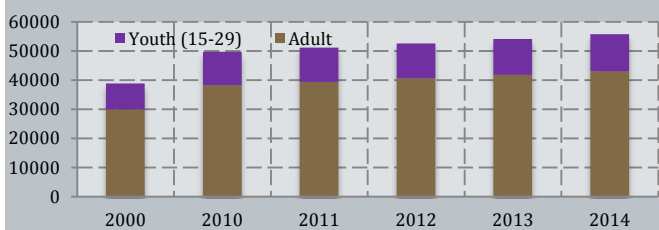
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	173.6
Population Growth (%)	2013	2.8
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	50.8
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	2,831
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	74.3
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	52.5
Average Years of Schooling	2012	5.2
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	59.6

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	55.1	2014	76.1	2014	65.7
Youth	2014	34.8	2014	40.3	2014	37.6
Total	2014	48.3	2014	63.8	2014	56.2

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



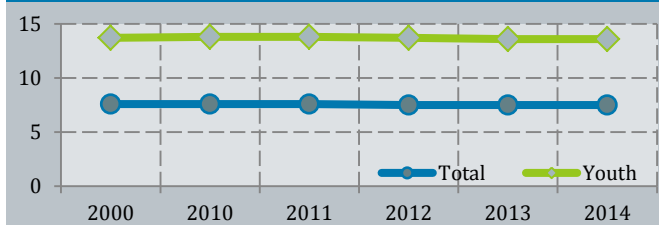
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	5.5	2014	33.6	2014	21.6
Medium	2014	90.7	2014	63.0	2014	74.8
High	2014	3.9	2014	3.3	2014	3.6

EMPLOYMENT (%)

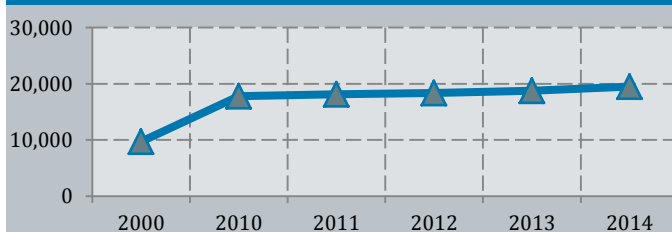
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	44.8	59	52		
Vulnerable Employment	2014	87.5	72.8	79.0		
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	...	38.9		
Employment in Industry	2014	...	...	10.8		
Employment in Service	2014	...	...	50.4		

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	5.5	2014	5.9	2014	5.7
Youth	2014	13.2	2014	14.0	2014	13.6
Total	2014	7.3	2014	7.6	2014	7.5
% of Youth to Adult	2014	2.4	2014	2.4	2014	2.4

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



OMAN

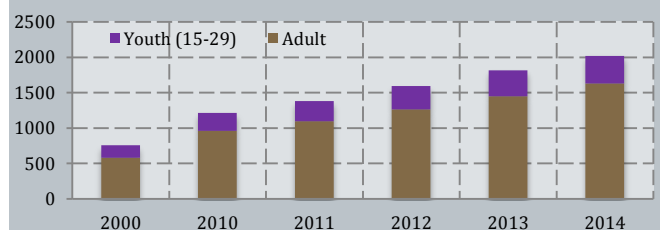
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	3.6
Population Growth (%)	2013	9.2
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	73.9
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	29,813
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	9.8
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	76.9
Average Years of Schooling	2012	6.8
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	91.1

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	30.9	2014	91.9	2014	73.20
Youth	2014	25.4	2014	58.80	2014	47.60
Total	2014	29.3	2014	83.20	2014	66.30

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



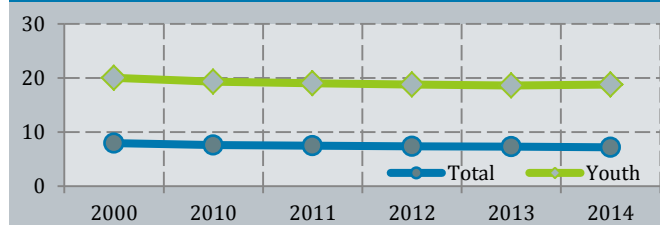
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	10.0	2014	15.8	2014	15.1
Medium	2014	50.2	2014	50.1	2014	50.1
High	2014	39.9	2014	34.1	2014	34.8

EMPLOYMENT (%)

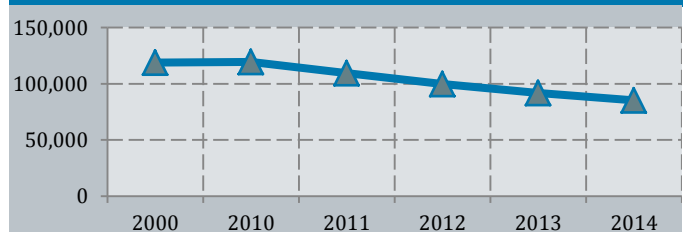
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	25.2	78.2	61.5		
Vulnerable Employment	2014	11.2	3.2	4.2		
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	...	5.1		
Employment in Industry	2014	...	...	38.2		
Employment in Service	2014	...	...	56.6		

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	8.7	2014	3.8	2014	4.4
Youth	2014	30.1	2014	16.4	2014	18.8
Total	2014	14.0	2014	6.1	2014	7.2
% of Youth to Adult	2014	3.5	2014	4.4	2014	4.3

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



PAKISTAN

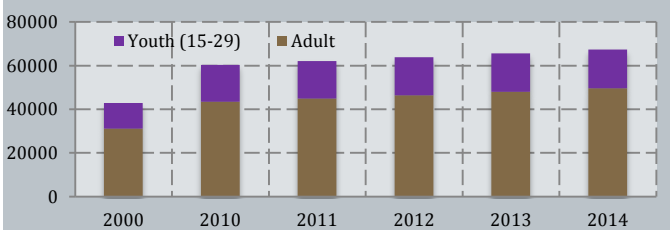
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	182.1
Population Growth (%)	2013	1.7
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	36.9
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	3,149
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	69.0
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	66.6
Average Years of Schooling	2012	4.7
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	57.9

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	26.1	2014	90.4	2014	58.8
Youth	2014	22.1	2014	67.2	2014	45.3
Total	2014	24.8	2014	83.0	2014	54.5

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



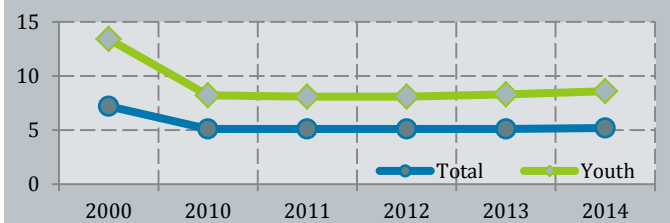
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	16.8	2014	17.5	2014	17.4
Medium	2014	73.5	2014	58.5	2014	61.7
High	2014	9.8	2014	24.0	2014	20.9

EMPLOYMENT (%)

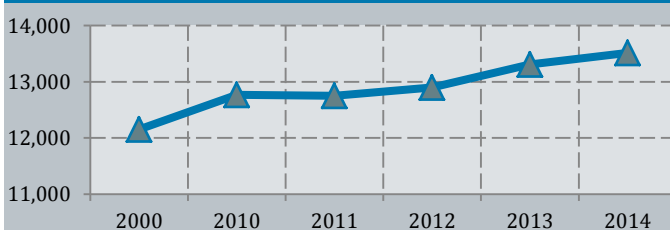
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	22.5	2014	79.6	2014	51.7
Vulnerable Employment	2014	75.7	2014	57.3	2014	61.3
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	46.9
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	21.0
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	32.0

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	8.2	2014	2.8	2014	4.0
Youth	2014	12.1	2014	7.6	2014	8.6
Total	2014	9.3	2014	4.0	2014	5.2
% of Youth to Adult	2014	1.5	2014	2.7	2014	2.2

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



PALESTINE

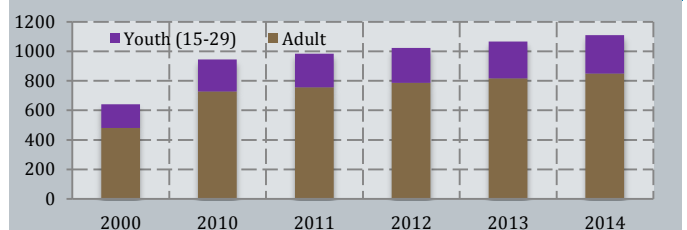
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	4.2
Population Growth (%)	2013	3.0
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	74.8
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	...	0
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	18.6
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	73.2
Average Years of Schooling	2012	8.9
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	96.5

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	19.3	2014	80.9	2014	50.30
Youth	2014	9.3	2014	42.50	2014	26.30
Total	2014	15.7	2014	66.60	2014	41.40

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



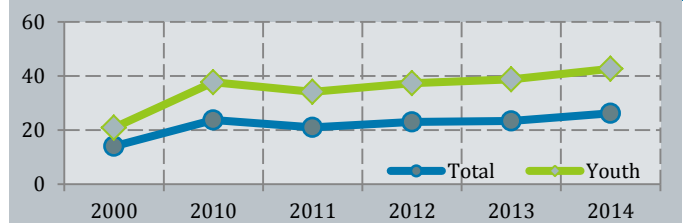
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	7.2	2014	21.4	2014	18.6
Medium	2014	42.1	2014	61.6	2014	57.8
High	2014	50.8	2014	17.0	2014	23.5

EMPLOYMENT (%)

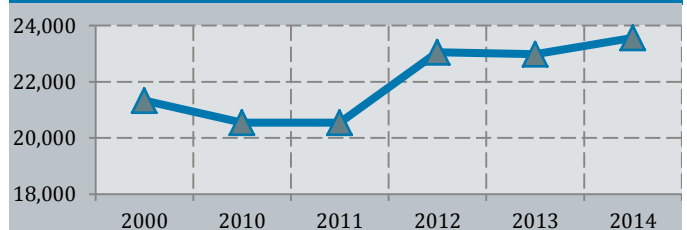
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	11.9	2014	48.8	2014	30.6
Vulnerable Employment	2014	32.9	2014	24.0	2014	25.7
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	10.4
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	28.4
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	61.3

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	13.2	2014	23.0	2014	21.2
Youth	2014	62.3	2014	38.5	2014	42.7
Total	2014	23.9	2014	26.7	2014	26.2
% of Youth to Adult	2014	4.7	2014	1.7	2014	2.0

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



QATAR

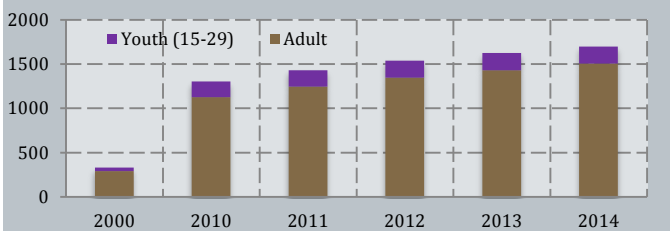
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	2.2
Population Growth (%)	2013	5.6
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	99.0
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	98,814
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	7.0
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	78.6
Average Years of Schooling	2012	9.1
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	97.3

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	54.9	2014	98.6	2014	90.2
Youth	2014	30.8	2014	77.0	2014	66.2
Total	2014	50.7	2014	95.5	2014	86.6

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



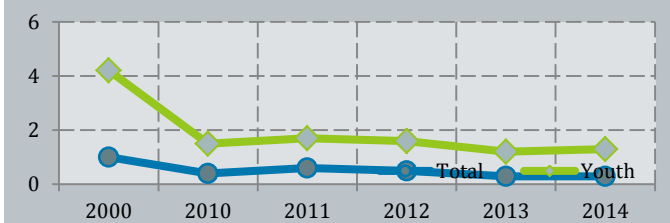
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	48.2	2014	19.1	2014	22.4
Medium	2014	19.9	2014	64.3	2014	59.3
High	2014	31.9	2014	16.6	2014	18.3

EMPLOYMENT (%)

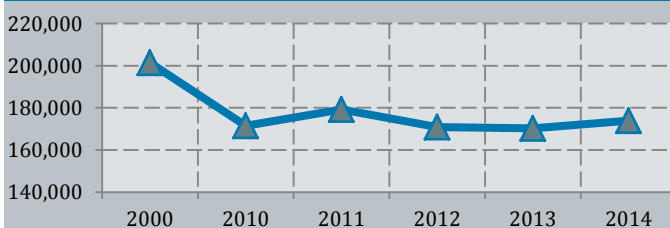
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	49.8	2014	95.4	2014	86.4
Vulnerable Employment	2014	0.0	2014	0.3	2014	0.2
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	1.4
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	51.5
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	47.2

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	1.2	2014	0.1	2014	0.2
Youth	2014	7.6	2014	0.5	2014	1.3
Total	2014	1.9	2014	0.1	2014	0.3
% of Youth to Adult	2014	6.5	2014	9.8	2014	7.0

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



SAUDI ARABIA

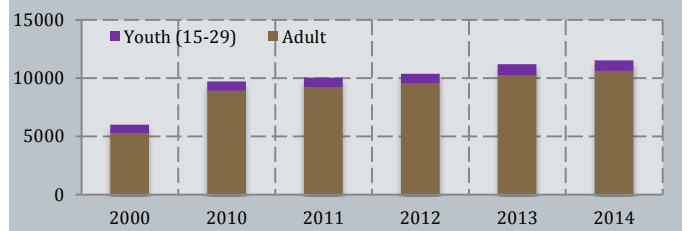
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	28.8
Population Growth (%)	2013	1.9
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	82.7
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	31,245
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	13.4
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	75.7
Average Years of Schooling	2012	8.7
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	94.7

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	23.6	2014	91.4	2014	65.00
Youth	2014	10.0	2014	27.90	2014	20.10
Total	2014	20.4	2014	78.40	2014	55.20

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



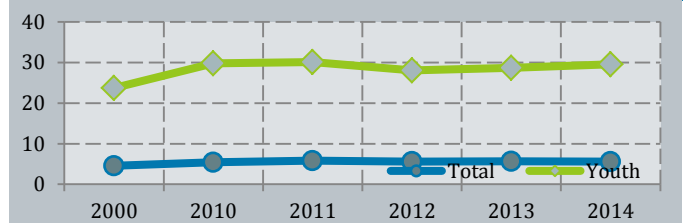
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	0.0	2014	0.0	2014	0.0
Medium	2014	55.8	2014	75.9	2014	73.4
High	2014	44.2	2014	24.1	2014	26.6

EMPLOYMENT (%)

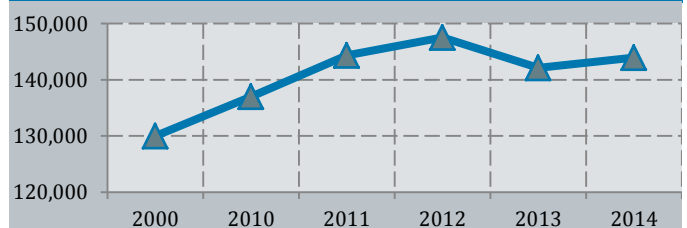
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	16.3	2014	76	2014	52.1
Vulnerable Employment	2014	1.0	2014	4.0	2014	3.6
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	4.8
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	24.5
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	70.7

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	15.5	2014	1.6	2014	3.5
Youth	2014	55.7	2014	22.2	2014	29.5
Total	2014	20.2	2014	3.1	2014	5.6
% of Youth to Adult	2014	3.6	2014	14.3	2014	8.4

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



SENEGAL

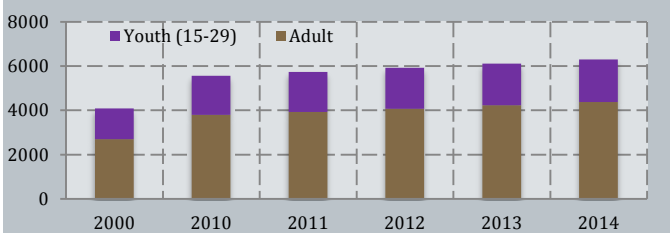
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	14.1
Population Growth (%)	2013	2.9
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	43.2
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	1,958
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	43.9
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	63.4
Average Years of Schooling	2012	4.5
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	57.7

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	72.6	2014	93.3	2014	82.3
Youth	2014	53.2	2014	79.1	2014	66.2
Total	2014	66.1	2014	88.1	2014	76.6

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



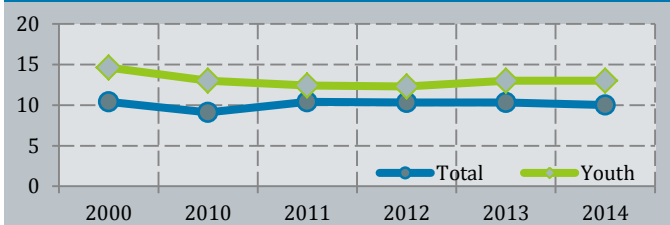
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	1.6	2014	23.2	2014	13.8
Medium	2014	92.5	2014	76.2	2014	83.3
High	2014	5.9	2014	0.6	2014	2.9

EMPLOYMENT (%)

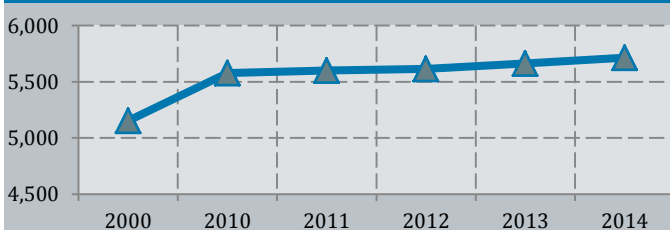
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	57.5	2014	81.4	2014	69
Vulnerable Employment	2014	83.3	2014	64.3	2014	72.5
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	52.9
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	20.7
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	26.4

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	10.8	2014	6.7	2014	8.6
Youth	2014	18.6	2014	9.3	2014	13.0
Total	2014	12.9	2014	7.5	2014	10.0
% of Youth to Adult	2014	1.7	2014	1.4	2014	1.5

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



SIERRA LEONE

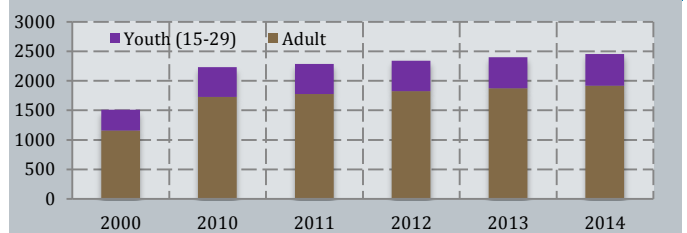
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	6.1
Population Growth (%)	2013	1.9
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	40.0
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	1,542
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	107.2
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	45.6
Average Years of Schooling	2012	2.9
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	48.1

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	74.5	2014	84.0	2014	79.10
Youth	2014	47.7	2014	40.10	2014	43.90
Total	2014	65.6	2014	69.20	2014	67.40

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



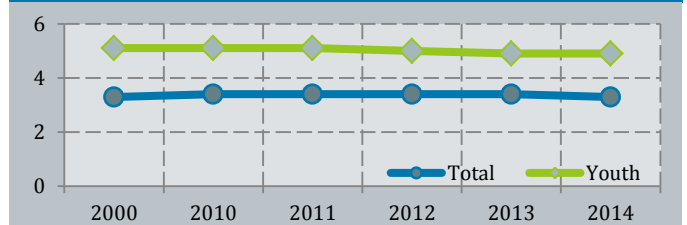
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	1.7	2014	27.7	2014	14.8
Medium	2014	95.9	2014	70.1	2014	83.0
High	2014	2.4	2014	2.2	2014	2.3

EMPLOYMENT (%)

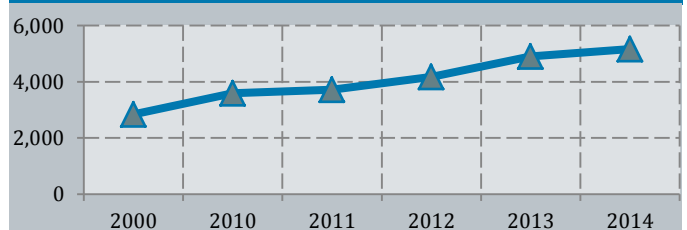
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	64.2	2014	66.1	2014	65.1
Vulnerable Employment	2014	93.5	2014	82.6	2014	88.0
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	62.1
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	8.1
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	29.8

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	1.8	2014	3.8	2014	2.9
Youth	2014	3.1	2014	7.0	2014	4.9
Total	2014	2.2	2014	4.4	2014	3.3
% of Youth to Adult	2014	1.7	2014	1.9	2014	1.7

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



SOMALIA

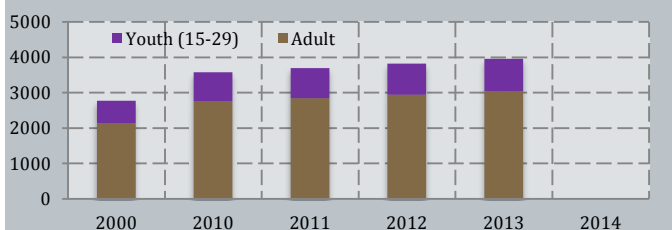
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	10.5
Population Growth (%)	2013	2.9
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	38.7
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	...	0
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	89.8
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	55.0
Average Years of Schooling	...	...
Literacy Rate (Adult)	...	...

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2013	38.8	2013	77.5	2013	57.9
Youth	2013	31.8	2013	57.8	2013	44.8
Total	2013	37.2	2013	75.5	2013	56.1

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



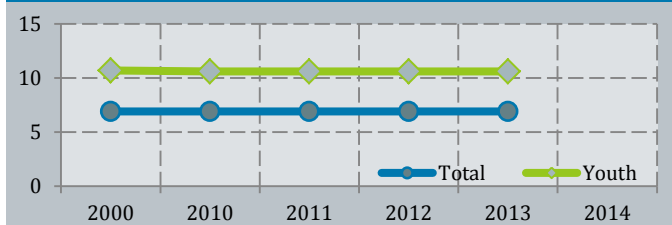
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	...	...	...	...	...	...
Medium	...	...	...	...	...	...
High	...	...	...	...	...	...

EMPLOYMENT (%)

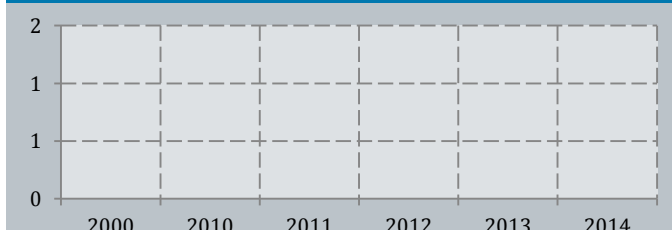
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2013	34.5	70.5	52.2
Vulnerable Employment	...	...	...	...
Employment in Agriculture	...	...	...	...
Employment in Industry	...	...	...	...
Employment in Service	...	...	...	...

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2013	...	2013	...	2013	...
Youth	2013	...	2013	...	2013	...
Total	2013	7.4	2013	6.7	2013	6.9
% of Youth to Adult	2013	2.0	2013	1.9	2013	2.0

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



SUDAN

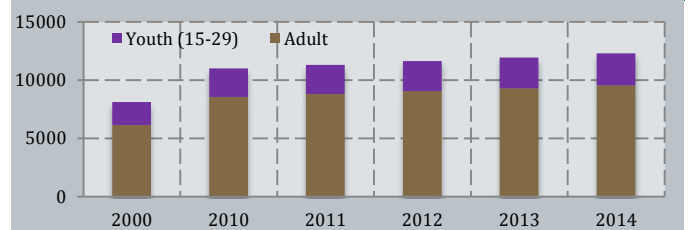
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	38.0
Population Growth (%)	2013	2.0
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	33.5
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	2,631
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	51.2
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	62.0
Average Years of Schooling	2012	3.1
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	75.9

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	33.4	2014	93.0	2014	62.80
Youth	2014	27.3	2014	43.30	2014	35.40
Total	2014	31.4	2014	76.00	2014	53.60

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



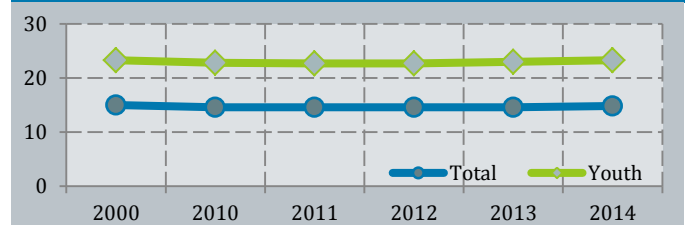
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	11.0	2014	21.8	2014	18.8
Medium	2014	77.1	2014	67.5	2014	70.1
High	2014	12.0	2014	10.7	2014	11.1

EMPLOYMENT (%)

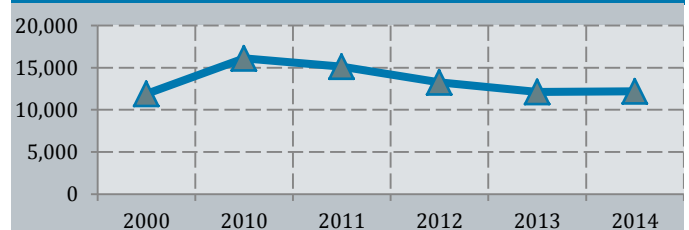
		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
Employment to Population	2014	24.6	66.9	45.7
Vulnerable Employment	2014	95.5	71.1	77.7
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	...	52.5
Employment in Industry	2014	...	...	17.2
Employment in Service	2014	...	...	30.2

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	17.3	2014	10.5	2014	12.4
Youth	2014	32.2	2014	17.8	2014	23.3
Total	2014	21.6	2014	12.0	2014	14.8
% of Youth to Adult	2014	1.9	2014	1.7	2014	1.9

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



SURINAME

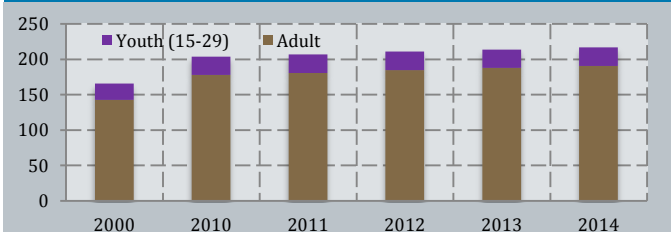
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	0.5
Population Growth (%)	2013	0.9
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	70.5
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	13,116
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	20.3
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	71.0
Average Years of Schooling	2012	7.7
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	95.6

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	47.3	2014	77.9	2014	62.4
Youth	2014	17.0	2014	38.8	2014	28.0
Total	2014	40.5	2014	68.7	2014	54.5

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



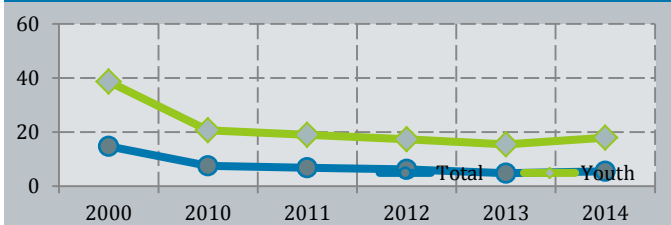
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	17.4	2014	12.9	2014	14.5
Medium	2014	36.6	2014	62.6	2014	53.2
High	2014	46.0	2014	24.5	2014	32.3

EMPLOYMENT (%)

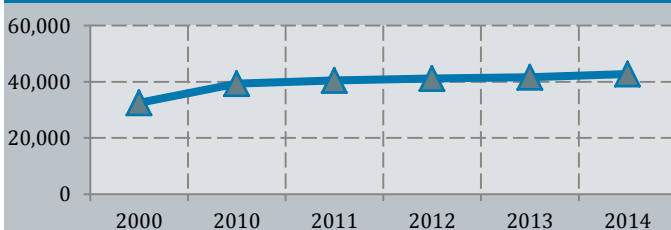
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	36.9	2014	66.2	2014	51.5
Vulnerable Employment	2014	12.2	2014	17.6	2014	15.6
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	3.4
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	22.9
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	75.1

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	7.2	2014	2.0	2014	4.0
Youth	2014	26.0	2014	14.5	2014	17.9
Total	2014	8.9	2014	3.6	2014	5.6
% of Youth to Adult	2014	3.6	2014	7.4	2014	4.5

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



TAJIKISTAN

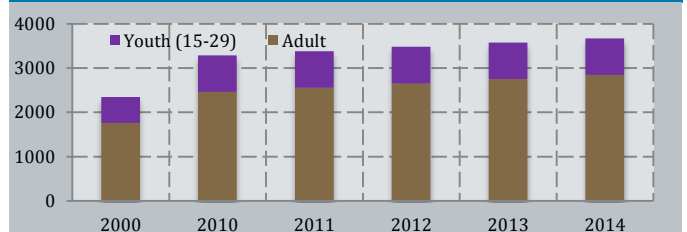
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	8.2
Population Growth (%)	2013	2.5
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	26.7
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	2,354
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	40.9
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	67.4
Average Years of Schooling	2012	9.9
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	99.8

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	68.3	2014	87.3	2014	77.60
Youth	2014	38.6	2014	56.80	2014	47.80
Total	2014	59.1	2014	77.40	2014	68.10

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



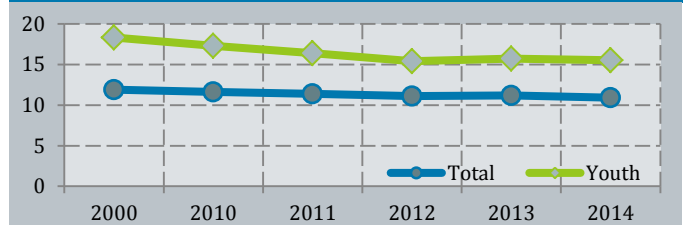
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	3.6	2014	20.4	2014	13.0
Medium	2014	81.1	2014	62.2	2014	70.6
High	2014	15.3	2014	17.3	2014	16.4

EMPLOYMENT (%)

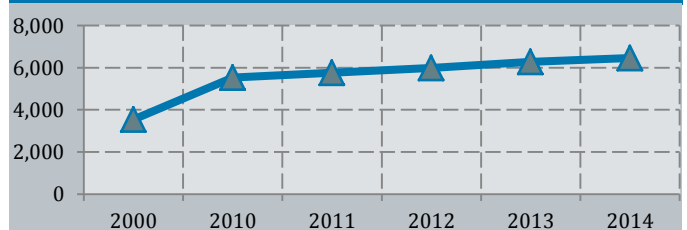
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	53.2	2014	68.4	2014	60.7
Vulnerable Employment	2014	39.4	2014	53.7	2014	47.4
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	53.2
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	13.7
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	33.1

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	9.1	2014	9.9	2014	9.6
Youth	2014	12.8	2014	17.2	2014	15.5
Total	2014	9.9	2014	11.6	2014	10.9
% of Youth to Adult	2014	1.4	2014	1.7	2014	1.6

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



TOGO

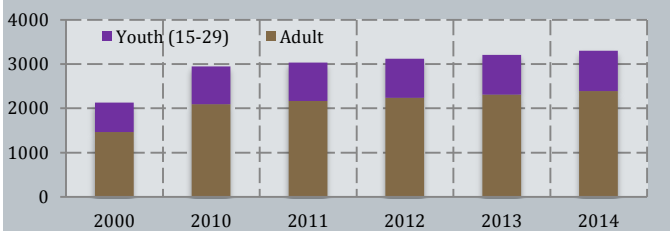
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	6.8
Population Growth (%)	2013	2.6
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	39.0
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	1,084
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	55.8
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	56.5
Average Years of Schooling	2012	5.3
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	66.5

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

		FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL
Adult	2014	87.2	2014	90.7	2014	88.8
Youth	2014	67.4	2014	64.2	2014	65.8
Total	2014	80.6	2014	81.4	2014	81.0

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



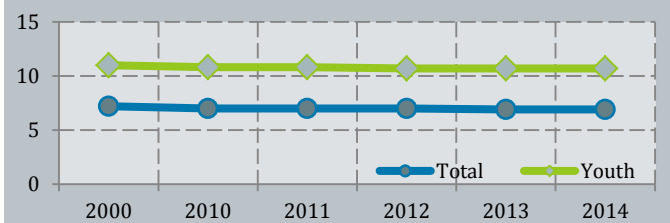
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

		FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL
Low	2014	1.0	2014	22.9	2014	11.8
Medium	2014	93.8	2014	76.6	2014	85.3
High	2014	5.2	2014	0.5	2014	2.9

EMPLOYMENT (%)

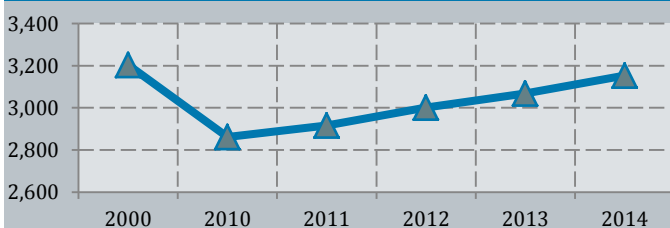
		FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL
Employment to Population	2014	74.7	2014	76.1	2014	75.4
Vulnerable Employment	2014	92.1	2014	79.0	2014	85.7
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	61.8
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	8.8
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	29.4

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



		FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL
Adult	2014	5.8	2014	5.2	2014	5.5
Youth	2014	11.3	2014	10.0	2014	10.7
Total	2014	7.3	2014	6.5	2014	6.9
% of Youth to Adult	2014	2.0	2014	1.9	2014	2.0

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



TUNISIA

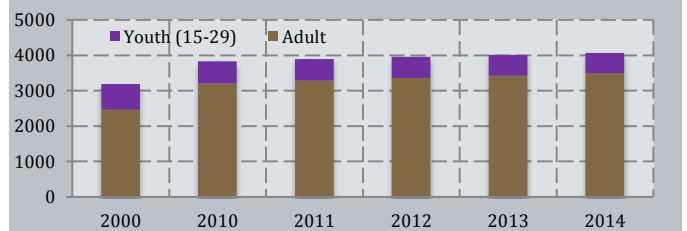
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	10.9
Population Growth (%)	2013	1.0
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	66.7
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	9,932
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	13.1
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	73.6
Average Years of Schooling	2012	6.5
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	81.8

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

		FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL
Adult	2014	26.4	2014	79.3	2014	52.00
Youth	2014	20.6	2014	42.20	2014	31.60
Total	2014	25.2	2014	71.00	2014	47.70

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



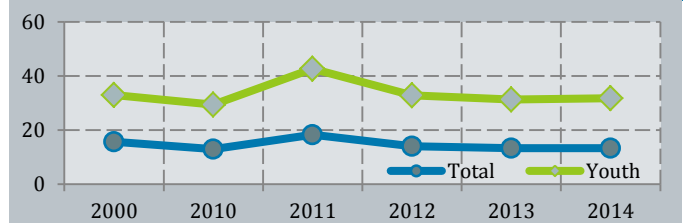
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

		FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL
Low	2014	17.8	2014	23.5	2014	22.0
Medium	2014	53.6	2014	57.8	2014	56.7
High	2014	28.6	2014	18.7	2014	21.3

EMPLOYMENT (%)

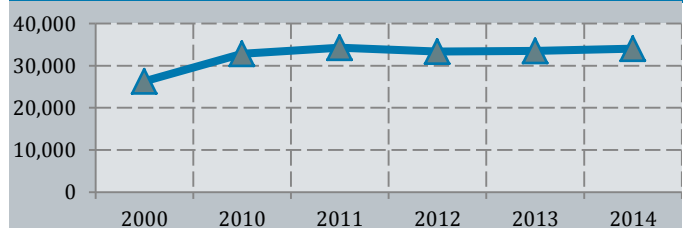
		FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL
Employment to Population	2014	21.2	2014	62.2	2014	41.3
Vulnerable Employment	2014	17.0	2014	22.8	2014	21.3
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	13.4
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	28.8
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	57.7

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



		FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL
Adult	2014	13.0	2014	9.3	2014	10.3
Youth	2014	29.9	2014	32.7	2014	31.8
Total	2014	15.8	2014	12.4	2014	13.3
% of Youth to Adult	2014	2.3	2014	3.5	2014	3.1

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



TURKEY

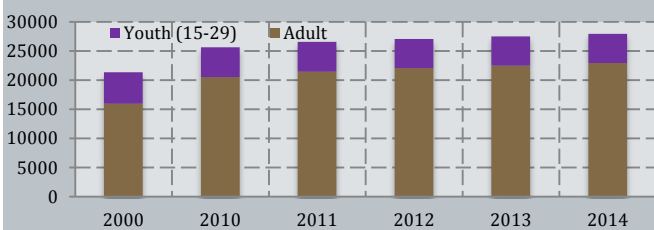
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	74.9
Population Growth (%)	2013	1.3
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	73.3
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	15,353
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	16.5
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	75.2
Average Years of Schooling	2012	7.6
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	95.0

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	30.1	2014	76.4	2014	52.3
Youth	2014	26.3	2014	52.5	2014	39.6
Total	2014	29.3	2014	70.8	2014	49.4

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



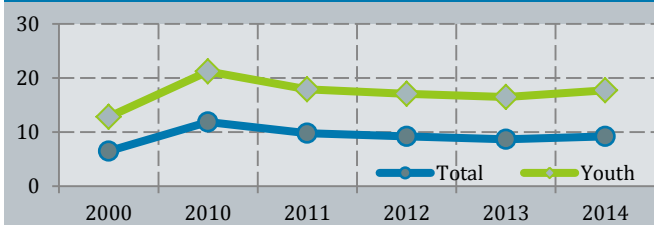
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	20.1	2014	11.8	2014	14.3
Medium	2014	59.2	2014	69.1	2014	66.1
High	2014	20.7	2014	19.0	2014	19.5

EMPLOYMENT (%)

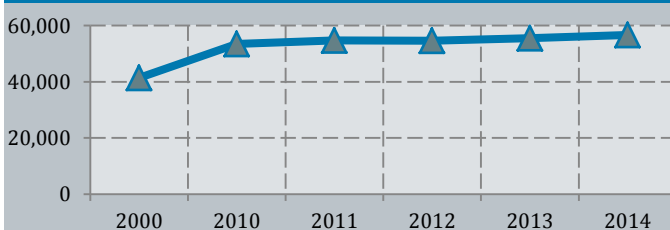
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	26.2	2014	64.7	2014	44.8
Vulnerable Employment	2014	40.8	2014	26.4	2014	30.7
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	22.2
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	26.4
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	51.4

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	8.5	2014	6.9	2014	7.4
Youth	2014	19.9	2014	16.6	2014	17.7
Total	2014	10.7	2014	8.6	2014	9.2
% of Youth to Adult	2014	2.3	2014	2.4	2014	2.4

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



TURKMENISTAN

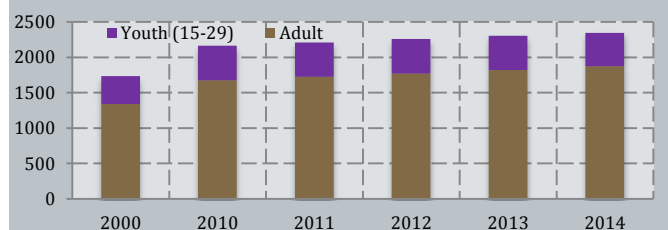
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	5.2
Population Growth (%)	2013	1.3
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	49.4
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	9,510
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	46.6
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	65.5
Average Years of Schooling	2012	9.9
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	99.7

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	52.2	2014	85.0	2014	67.90
Youth	2014	32.9	2014	57.80	2014	45.50
Total	2014	47.1	2014	77.30	2014	61.80

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



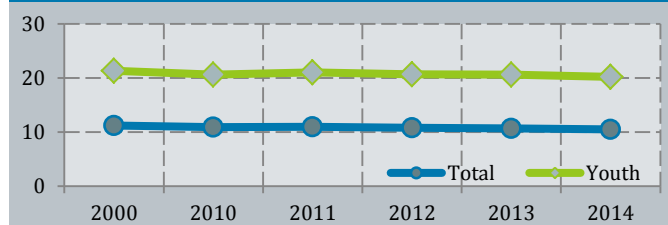
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	9.5	2014	23.6	2014	18.1
Medium	2014	60.3	2014	60.3	2014	60.3
High	2014	30.3	2014	16.1	2014	21.6

EMPLOYMENT (%)

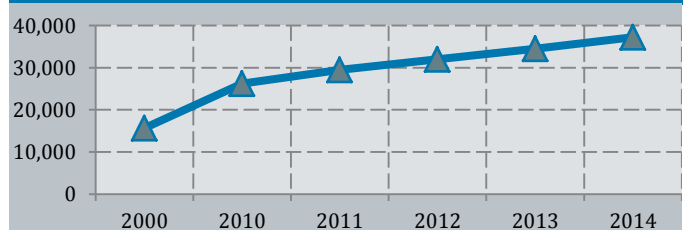
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	42.1	2014	69.2	2014	55.3
Vulnerable Employment	2014	21.1	2014	19.9	2014	20.4
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	14.1
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	44.8
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	41.0

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	8.1	2014	8.0	2014	8.0
Youth	2014	21.9	2014	19.3	2014	20.2
Total	2014	10.7	2014	10.4	2014	10.5
% of Youth to Adult	2014	2.7	2014	2.4	2014	2.5

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



UGANDA

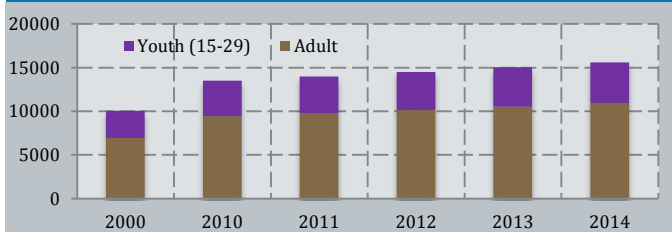
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	37.6
Population Growth (%)	2013	3.3
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	16.4
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	1,484
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	43.8
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	59.2
Average Years of Schooling	2012	5.4
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	78.4

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	86.6	2014	91.9	2014	89.3
Youth	2014	58.6	2014	59.3	2014	59.0
Total	2014	75.7	2014	79.2	2014	77.4

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



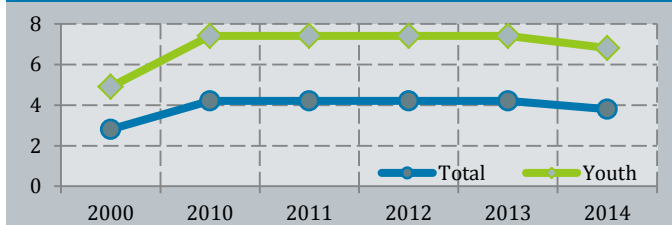
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	8.3	2014	19.3	2014	14.0
Medium	2014	88.2	2014	71.8	2014	79.8
High	2014	3.5	2014	8.9	2014	6.3

EMPLOYMENT (%)

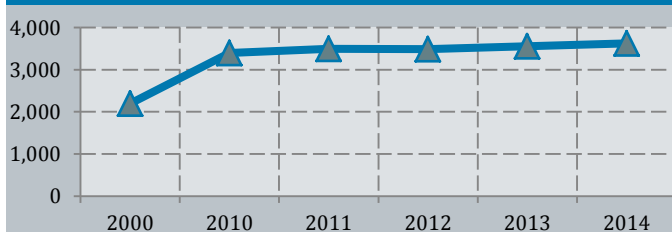
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	72.2	2014	76.7	2014	74.5
Vulnerable Employment	2014	90.0	2014	71.7	2014	80.6
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	59.8
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	7.9
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	32.3

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	3.4	2014	1.8	2014	2.6
Youth	2014	7.4	2014	6.2	2014	6.8
Total	2014	4.6	2014	3.1	2014	3.8
% of Youth to Adult	2014	2.2	2014	3.4	2014	2.6

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



UNITED ARAB EMIRATES

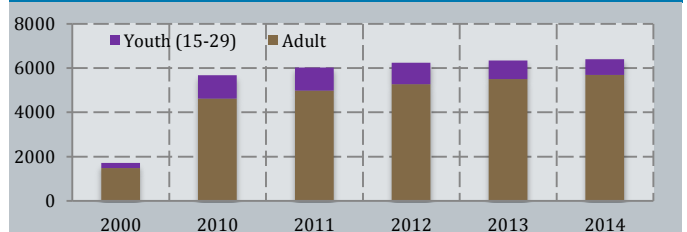
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	9.3
Population Growth (%)	2013	1.5
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	84.9
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	30,122
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	7.0
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	77.1
Average Years of Schooling	2012	9.1
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	93.8

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	49.9	2014	98.2	2014	86.00
Youth	2014	33.7	2014	63.40	2014	53.30
Total	2014	46.4	2014	92.90	2014	80.50

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



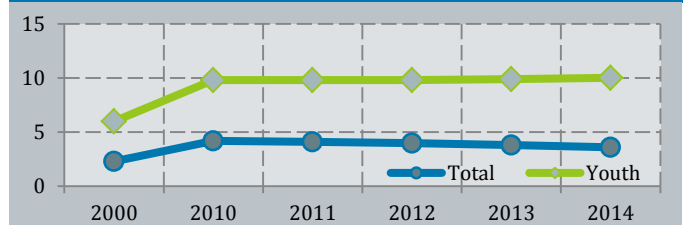
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	1.0	2014	11.3	2014	9.8
Medium	2014	62.1	2014	51.5	2014	53.1
High	2014	37.0	2014	37.2	2014	37.1

EMPLOYMENT (%)

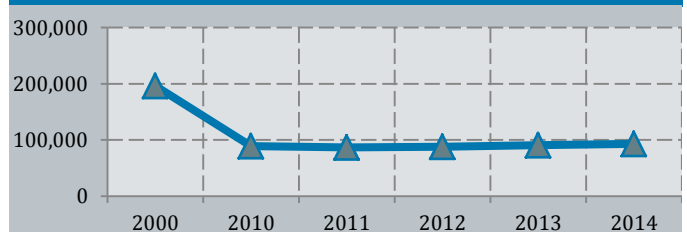
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	42.4	2014	90.4	2014	77.6
Vulnerable Employment	2014	0.4	2014	0.9	2014	0.8
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	2014	...	2014	3.9
Employment in Industry	2014	...	2014	...	2014	21.0
Employment in Service	2014	...	2014	...	2014	75.1

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	7.1	2014	2.1	2014	2.9
Youth	2014	17.1	2014	8.0	2014	10.0
Total	2014	8.6	2014	2.7	2014	3.6
% of Youth to Adult	2014	2.4	2014	3.8	2014	3.5

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



UZBEKISTAN

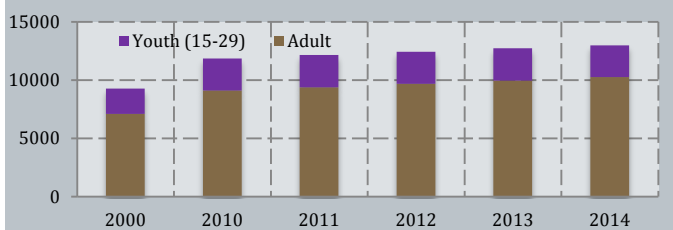
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	30.2
Population Growth (%)	2013	1.6
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	36.3
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	3,762
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	36.7
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	68.2
Average Years of Schooling	2012	10.0
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2015	99.6

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	53.8	2014	83.9	2014	68.4
Youth	2014	33.7	2014	56.9	2014	45.5
Total	2014	48.2	2014	75.9	2014	61.9

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



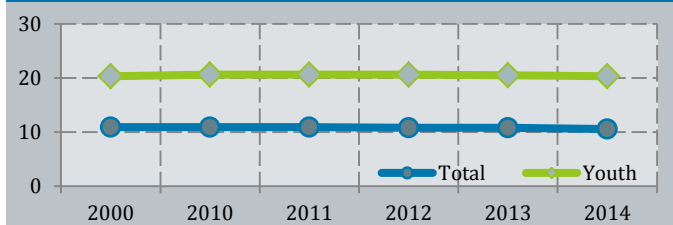
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	7.0	2014	28.8	2014	20.2
Medium	2014	69.1	2014	54.0	2014	60.0
High	2014	23.8	2014	17.2	2014	19.8

EMPLOYMENT (%)

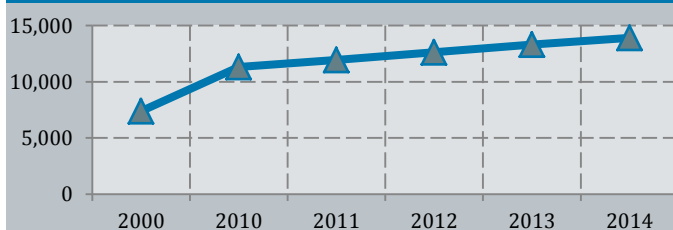
	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	43	68	55.3		
Vulnerable Employment	2014	29.0	33.2	31.6		
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	...	21.6		
Employment in Industry	2014	...	...	39.9		
Employment in Service	2014	...	...	38.4		

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	8.1	2014	7.9	2014	8.0
Youth	2014	22.0	2014	19.3	2014	20.3
Total	2014	10.8	2014	10.4	2014	10.6
% of Youth to Adult	2014	2.7	2014	2.4	2014	2.5

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY



YEMEN

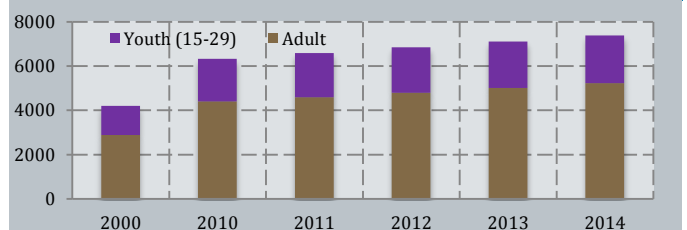
GENERAL INFORMATION

Population (mln)	2013	24.4
Population Growth (%)	2013	2.3
Urban Population (% of total)	2013	33.5
GDP per capita (PPP, cur. \$)	2013	2,316
Infant Mortality (per 1,000)	2013	40.4
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	2013	63.1
Average Years of Schooling	2012	2.5
Literacy Rate (Adult)	2012	70.1

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	27.9	2014	84.8	2014	56.00
Youth	2014	21.8	2014	53.10	2014	37.70
Total	2014	25.6	2014	72.50	2014	49.10

TOTAL LABOUR FORCE ('000)



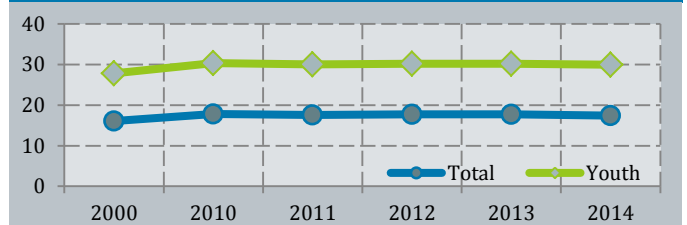
SKILLS LEVELS OF LABOUR FORCE

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Low	2014	10.5	2014	12.8	2014	12.4
Medium	2014	57.5	2014	75.5	2014	72.0
High	2014	32.0	2014	11.7	2014	15.6

EMPLOYMENT (%)

	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Employment to Population	2014	15.6	65.5	40.5		
Vulnerable Employment	2014	63.0	33.7	39.3		
Employment in Agriculture	2014	...	...	26.1		
Employment in Industry	2014	...	...	18.5		
Employment in Service	2014	...	...	55.4		

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (%)



	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL	
Adult	2014	32.3	2014	5.6	2014	12.3
Youth	2014	54.1	2014	20.3	2014	29.9
Total	2014	39.2	2014	9.8	2014	17.4
% of Youth to Adult	2014	1.7	2014	3.6	2014	2.4

LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY

