



Employment Trends and Challenges

Report prepared for
the G20 Labour and Employment Ministers' Meeting

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1 Introduction

At the request of the Chinese Presidency, this paper summarizes recent trends in economic growth and labour markets in the G20. Drawing on information provided in country reports it also briefly summarises recent developments related to the three collective commitments of the G20 on female and youth employment and occupational health and safety. A concluding section identifies some emerging challenges and policy responses on which Ministers may wish to exchange views.

2. Recent economic and employment trends in G20 countries

Following the financial and economic crisis of 2008-2009 and the subsequent macro and structural policy responses, the global economy has not recovered to pre-crisis rates of growth. Global GDP growth averaged 3.8 per cent annually between 2009 and 2015, compared to 4.2 during the period 1999–2007. The annual growth at the peak of the crisis was only 1.2 per cent between 2007 and 2009.

Global economic growth over the course of 2016 is estimated to be very similar to 2015, but with significant downside risks.¹ The IMF identified near-term risks, including tightening financial conditions potentially leading to financial turbulence in advanced economies and net capital outflows from emerging economies. Such risks would have important consequences on market confidence, aggregate demand, countries' balance sheets and thus, employment. In addition, the IMF and the OECD stress the growing risk of persistent slow growth having enduring adverse effects on potential output in both advanced and emerging market economies.² Prolonged slow growth would weaken the outlook for jobs and wages.

The slow pace of recovery was particularly marked in advanced G20 countries where between 2009 and 2015 economic growth averaged 1.7 per cent compared to 2.6 per cent between 1999 and 2007. Among emerging G20 countries, annual growth rates have declined over the past 5 years to levels well below those achieved in the 2000s when exports to advanced countries were important drivers of growth.

Slow global economic weakness has gone hand-in-hand with persistently weak labour markets. Employment growth in the period between 2012 and 2015 was lower than in the years from 2003 to 2007 and the aggregate unemployment rate across the G20 rose from 5.0 to 6.0 per cent between 2007 and 2009, and remained elevated at 5.5 per cent in 2015. Nevertheless, labour force participation rates have increased in most G20 countries, driven by rising female participation (see below) and higher participation of older workers. However, a decline was recorded in others, including China and the United States. The large employment gap that opened up in the G20 as a result of the global economic and financial crisis is projected to almost close by 2018 in the advanced G20 economies but may persist in some of the emerging G20 economies.

There has also been a significant slowdown in the rate of growth of wages in the G20 countries. The combination of employment gaps and lower wage growth has resulted in declining labour shares of national income and rising inequality in most G20 countries.³ There are significant differences in macroeconomic and labour market performance across the G20 countries, but there is concern that the overall weakness in employment growth, falling labour income shares and weak

¹ IMF (2016). <http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/weo/2016/01/pdf/text.pdf>

² OECD, Economic Outlook, June 2016, <http://www.oecd.org/eco/economicoutlook.htm>

³ ILO (2014a). http://www.ilo.ch/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---dcomm/---publ/documents/publication/wcms_324678.pdf; OECD, In in 'Together, "Why Less Inequality Benefits All"', <http://www.oecd.org/social/in-it-together-why-less-inequality-benefits-all-9789264235120-en.htm>.

wage growth have reduced global aggregate demand and contributed to a self-reinforcing circle of diminished business expectations of market growth and thus low investment, further weakness in growth and demand and hence insufficient labour market recovery.⁴

Table 1. Labour market and economic trends, G20 regions, selected periods

	G20				G20 Advanced				G20 Emerging			
	1991-1999	1999-2007	2007-2009	2009-2015	1991-1999	1999-2007	2007-2009	2009-2015	1991-1999	1999-2007	2007-2009	2009-2015
GDP (AAG, %)	3.1	4.2	1.2	3.7	2.7	2.6	-1.6	1.7	3.8	6.9	5.0	6.1
Employment (AAG, %)	1.4	1.3	0.1	0.8	0.7	0.9	-0.8	0.5	1.6	1.5	0.4	0.9
Labour productivity (AAG, %)	1.6	2.7	0.9	2.8	1.9	1.7	-0.8	1.2	2.0	5.4	4.6	5.1
Unemployment rate (PPT change)	0.1	-1.0	1.0	-0.5	-0.1	-1.4	2.5	-1.3	0.2	-0.9	0.5	-0.2
Labour force participation rate (PPT change)	-1.0	-1.9	-0.8	-1.2	-0.2	-0.2	-0.2	-0.7	-1.5	-2.6	-1.1	-1.4

Notes: AAG = average annual growth, PPT = percentage point.

Source: ILO Research Department calculations based on ILO, *Trends Econometric Models*, April 2016 and IMF, *World Economic Outlook*, April 2016.

3. Trends in job quality

The deep and often protracted economic crisis was associated with stable or worsening earnings quality (as measured by the level and distribution of earnings) in most G20 countries, while labour market insecurity increased mostly in advanced G20 economies. At the same time, the quality of the working environment has been improving slightly in most countries.

3.1 Earnings quality

The earnings workers receive are key determinants of their well-being and also affect the growth prospects of the G20 and each member economy. It is not just the level of these earnings and how they contribute to the income of workers and their families that matter, but also how they are distributed. A high overall average level of earnings may disguise a high share of workers on very low earnings with a few highly paid workers pulling up the overall average. Both of these dimensions are captured by the measure of earnings quality under the G20 Job Quality Framework.

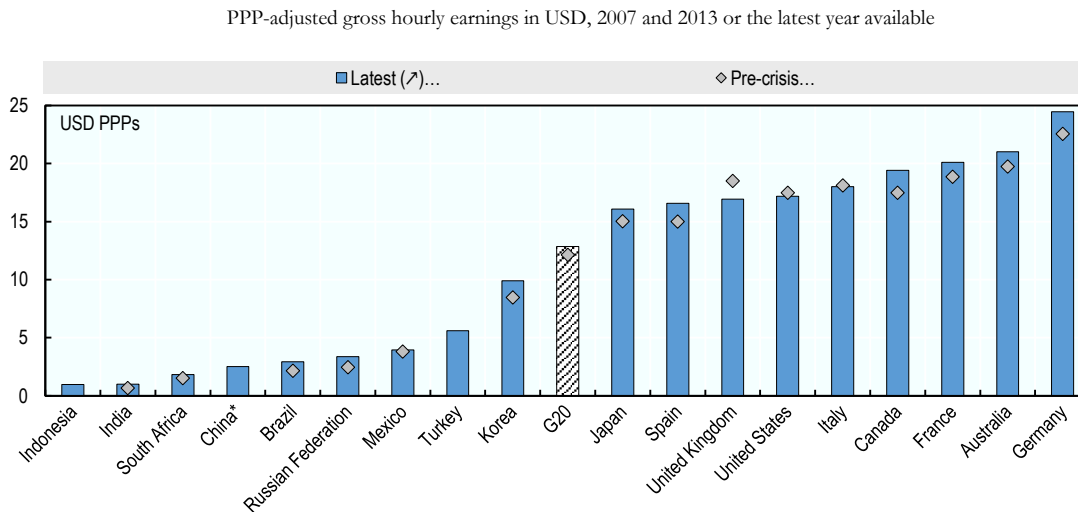
There are large gaps in the level of earnings across the G20 countries (Figure 2). For the G20 emerging economies a key challenge is to promote a process of strong economic growth that will help close the still large gap in average earnings levels with the G20 advanced economies. However, all G20 countries also face a common challenge of tackling the high and often rising earnings inequality.

The deep and often protracted economic crisis was associated with various effects on stable or worsening earnings quality in most G20 countries; while average earnings have increased, albeit very slowly, in many G20 countries earnings inequality has increased, especially in many advanced G20 countries. It should be stressed that the observed changes in wage dispersion hide wider changes in household income inequality, especially in countries with persistently high unemployment and under-employment, often concentrated among low-paid workers. The

⁴ ILO (2015a). http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---dcomm/---publ/documents/publication/wcms_337069.pdf

subdued growth in earnings quality reflects sluggish growth more generally in real wages, especially in the G20 advanced economies. Real wages have generally been growing considerably faster in the G20 emerging economies. In 2015, however, there was only little difference between both groups of countries, with a pick-up in growth among some of the advanced economies (USA, Germany, UK) as wage growth declined among the emerging G20 economies (partly due to falling real wages in Russia and Brazil).

Figure 1. Evolution of earnings quality since the onset of the crisis



* Selected urban areas.

Note: Data refer to 2008 and 2012 for India, Italy and South Africa; 2007 and 2012 for France and Spain; 2009 only for China; 2010 only for Turkey; 2012 only for South Africa; and 2013 only for Indonesia. Generalised means approach is used as an aggregation tool to compute earnings quality measures, assuming a high inequality aversion. G20 is the unweighted average of countries shown (China, Indonesia, South Africa and Turkey not included).

Source: OECD Job Quality database (2016) and OECD estimates based on the Pesquisa Nacional por Amostra de Domicílios (PNAD) for Brazil, the Urban Household Survey (UHS) for China, the National Sample Survey (NSS) for India, the Survei Angkatan Kerja Nasional (SAKERNAS) for Indonesia, the Russian Longitudinal Monitoring Survey (RLMS) for the Russian Federation and the National Income Dynamics Study (NIDS) for South Africa.

3.2 Labour market insecurity

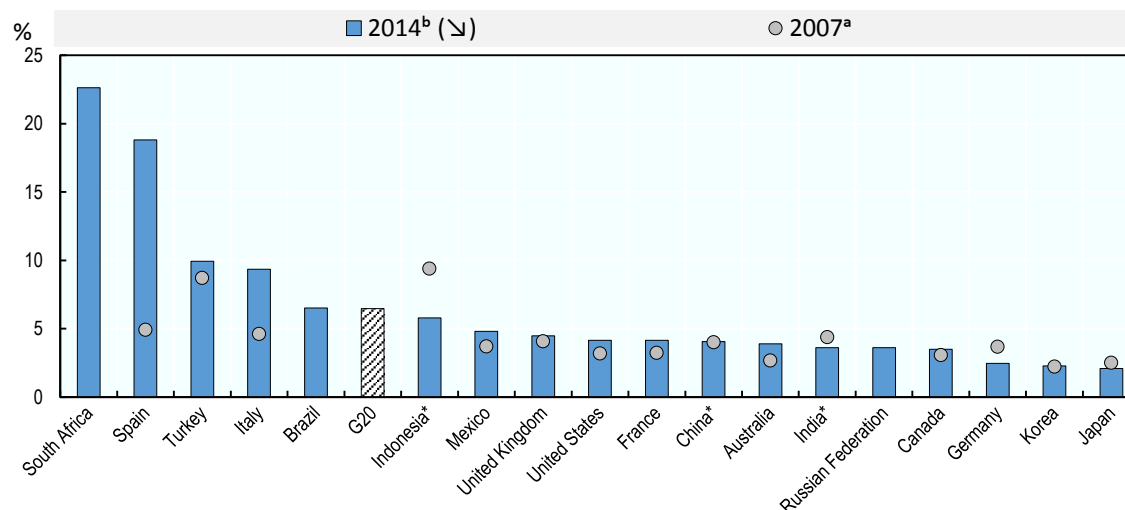
The measures of labour market insecurity under the G20 Job Quality Framework capture the risk of job loss and its economic cost for workers, taking into account the coverage and level of benefits provided by income support schemes (Figure 2). On this basis, the best performing G20 countries in terms of having the lowest levels of labour market insecurity are those where the risk of unemployment is low (e.g. Japan or Korea) and/or where social protection is effective (e.g. France and Germany). Other countries, such as Spain and South Africa, face the common challenge of reducing the unemployment risk and building or strengthening both the coverage and level of social protection.

Between 2007 and 2014, labour market insecurity increased in most advanced G20 economies, reflecting the combination of an enhanced risk of unemployment as a result of the deep labour market effects of the recession associated with the financial and economic crisis and weak recovery and in some cases a weakening of unemployment insurance. The increase was most noticeable in Spain and also Italy, while labour market insecurity decreased significantly in Indonesia and Germany thanks to a lower unemployment risk.

In emerging economies, it should be remembered that labour market insecurity arising from the risk of working for extremely low wages often constitutes the most important source of labour

market insecurity. Most workers cannot afford to be unemployed because they are not covered by income support schemes or the available benefits are very low. Unfortunately, trend analysis is not available for this indicator.

Figure 2. Labour market insecurity



Note: Unemployment risk denotes the (scaled transformation of the) probability of becoming unemployed times the expected duration of unemployment, which may be interpreted as the average expected earnings loss associated with unemployment as a share of previous earnings. Unemployment insurance captures the average effective net individual replacement rate of unemployment and social assistance benefits in terms of previous earnings, for the median earner. Labour market insecurity is calculated as unemployment risk times one minus unemployment insurance and may be interpreted as the expected earnings loss associated with unemployment as a share of previous earnings.

The risk of unemployment is approximated by the unemployment rate. In a steady-state economy, the two approaches yield very similar results.

* The data for China, India and Indonesia do not contain transfers, so an insurance rate of 0% is assumed. For Russia, individual replacement rates were backed out from household-level replacement rates based on the assumption that all earners in a household have the same earnings. G20 is the unweighted average of countries shown.

a) 2006 for India.

b) 2012 for India and 2013 for China.

Source: OECD Job Quality database (2016) and OECD estimates based on national household and labour force surveys (PNAD: Brazil, SAKERNAS: Indonesia, NIDS: South Africa), and the European Social Survey (Russia).

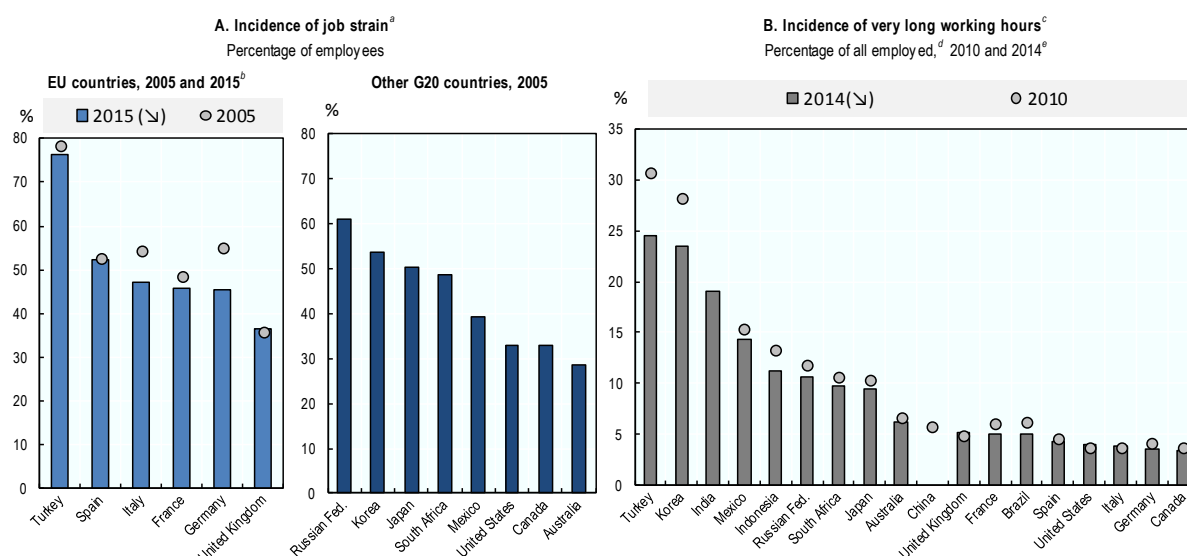
3.3 Quality of the working environment

Working conditions are another key determinant of the well-being of workers. As indicated by the G20 Job Quality Framework, it is important to take into account the nature and content of the work performed, working-time arrangements and workplace relationships. The quality of working conditions can be compared across countries, sectors and occupations and across socio-demographic groups within countries by measuring the proportion of workers experiencing job strain, which results from an imbalance between “job demands” (such as time pressure or exposure to physical health risks) and “job resources” (such as work autonomy and good workplace relationships). As up-to-date data are not always available for all G20 countries, this indicator is supplemented by the incidence of working very long hours (60 hours or more).

The available data suggest that a substantial proportion of workers suffer from job strain in all G20 countries, which can be detrimental to their productivity as well as their safety and health (Figure 3). High job demands and few resources to meet these demands are a key challenge in particular for many G20 emerging economies as well as in Korea and Spain. For some of the advanced G20 countries like France, Germany, Italy and Japan, the main challenge is the lack of resources given to workers to cope with their high job demands. The available data also suggest that the incidence of job strain and of very long working hours tend to be on a downward path.

Most G20 countries have de jure weekly hourly limits ranging from 35 to 43 hours. There is a downward trend in working more than 48 hours per week as well as in excess of 60 hours.⁵

Figure 3. Quality of the working environment



* Selected urban areas. a) Quality of the working environment is measured by the incidence of job strain among workers. Job strain is defined as jobs where workers face more job demands than the number of resources they have at their disposal (as described in Chapter 5 of How's Life 2013). b) 2010 for Turkey. c) Persons working 60 hours or more in an average week. d) Employees only for the United States; Persons working 54 or more hours for Korea. e) 2009 only for China; 2009 and 2014 for Brazil; 2011 and 2013 for India; and 2010 and 2013 for Turkey.

Source: Panel A: OECD Job Quality database (2016) and ISSP data for the Russian Federation and South Africa. Panel B: OECD Employment database for Australia, Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Korea, Spain, the United Kingdom and the United States and OECD estimates based on the Pesquisa Nacional por Amostragem de Domicílios (PNAD) for Brazil, the Urban Household Survey (UHS) for China, the Gallup World Poll for India, the Survei Angkatan Kerja Nasional (SAKERNAS) for Indonesia, the Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo (ENOE) for Mexico, the Russian Longitudinal Monitoring Survey (RLMS) for the Russian Federation, the Quarterly Labour Force Survey (QLFS) for South Africa, and the Labour Force Survey for Turkey.

4. Trends and policy developments in female and youth employment and occupational safety and health

4.1 Female employment

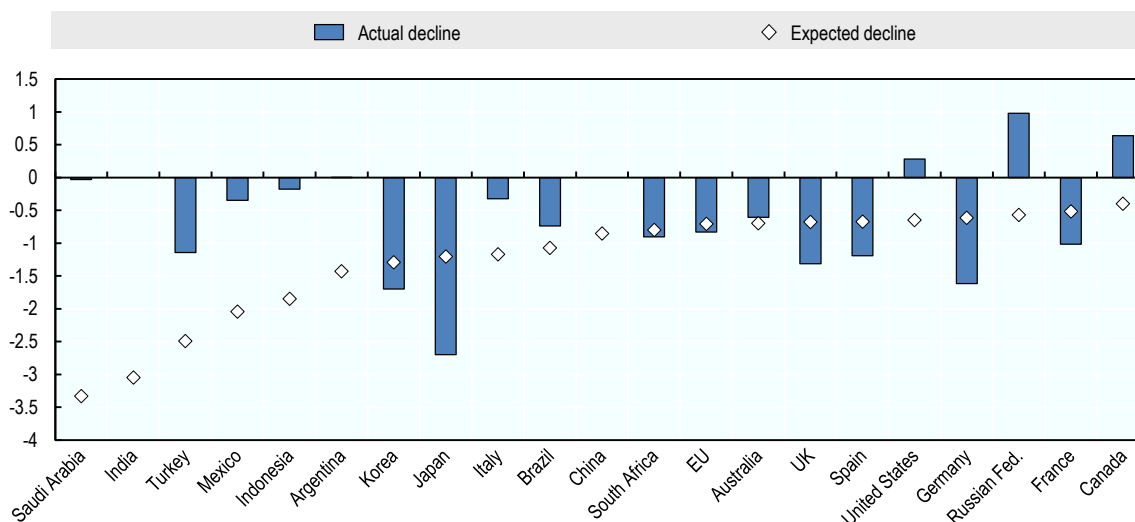
At the November 2014 Summit in Brisbane, leaders of the G20 countries agreed to reduce the gender gap in labour force participation by 25% by 2025. Promoting gender equality is an ethical and social imperative, but it is also an important economic issue. The declining, albeit still large, gender gaps in participation represent a major loss that countries cannot afford, either for emerging economies seeking to promote economic development or for more advanced economies facing rapid population ageing. Achieving the G20 gender target would bring more than 100 million women in the workforce. Young women are as (if not more) educated than young men, and their contributions to the labour market go well beyond the pure counting of hours worked. Achieving the G20 gender target will significantly increase global growth and reduce poverty and inequality.

Since 2012, there has been progress in reducing gender gaps in labour force participation across G20 countries, but much remains to be done to achieve the gender target by 2025 (Figure 4). The average gender gap for countries with available data declined from 20.3% in 2012 to 19.6% in 2015. The greatest reductions (exceeding the rate of decline needed to meet the target) occurred in Japan (2.7 percentage points), Korea (1.7 pp), Germany (1.6 pp), Australia (1.3 pp) and Spain

⁵ Labour protection in a transforming world of work, report VI to the International Labour Conference 2015, ILO

(1.2 pp). However, in some countries, the gender gap increased (the Russian Federation, Canada and the United States), and the gap remains very large in some countries: over 50 percentage points in Saudi Arabia and India, 42 pp in Turkey, 35 pp in Mexico and 32 p.p. in Indonesia.

Figure 4. Actual versus expected decline in gender participation gap, 2012-2015



Note: The actual decline refers to the actual change in the gender gap between 2012 and 2015. The expected decline is calculated assuming a linear decline between 2012 and 2025 in the gender gap. For Argentina, the data for 2015 data refer to Q2 2015. No recent data are available for India or China to calculate the actual decline in the gender gap. For China, the data for 2012 have been projected to calculate the expected decline in the gender gap.

Source: OECD calculations based on national labour force surveys.

Gender gaps exist not just in labour force participation, but also in employment rates, the prevalence of part-time work, representation in senior management and, of course, in wages. The latest data for these indicators can be found in the annex. They show that, on average, small gains have been achieved across G20 countries in recent years, but also that the gaps often remain very large and that there are considerable differences across countries. An in-depth discussion of gender gaps in emerging economies can be found in OECD (2016) and ILO (2016).⁶

Country reports by G20 members show a wide range of new measures which build on often extensive legislation and programmes aimed at promoting gender equality and non-discrimination at work. They can be grouped under several headings but in many cases the actions taken form an integrated approach across several types of measures.

Family responsibilities: family responsibilities are generally not equally shared in G20 societies, and many countries have stepped up measures to ease the burden borne by women and combine such responsibilities with work. The most common measures focus on increased access to child care but other types of family responsibilities are also receiving increased attention, including elderly care and emergencies. Paid maternity leave and parental leave have also been scaled up or introduced in more countries.⁷

⁶ OECD (2016), “Closing gender gaps in the labour markets of emerging economies: The unfinished job”, in OECD (2016): *OECD Employment Outlook 2016* and Women at Work: Trends 2016 International Labour Office – Geneva: ILO, 2016

⁷ A high female employment-to-population ratio is associated with a significant share of public spending on work-family policies dedicated to early childhood care and education. See Women at Work: Trends 2016 International Labour Office – Geneva: ILO, 2016

Counteracting multiple disadvantages facing women in the labour market: several countries are building a stronger gender dimension into policies to increase employment among vulnerable groups such as disabled persons and indigenous populations. The lowest female participation rates both relative to other women and disadvantaged men are found in such vulnerable groups.

Gender pay gaps: several countries are stepping up legislative and enforcement measures to narrow persistent gender pay gaps. These have included measures to strengthen minimum wage systems, which will help female workers in particular given their higher exposure to low paid jobs and will thus contribute to narrowing wage gaps.⁸ Moreover, countries have introduced or scaled up anti-discrimination and affirmative action measures. Ensuring that social protection systems do not create disincentives for women to return to work has attracted attention in some countries.

Occupational segregation: closely related to pay gaps is the issue of the concentration of women in relatively low paid occupations and their under representation in higher paid jobs and in high status positions. Public and private employers are under increasing scrutiny with regard to the hiring and promotion practices with the most common form of action being public reporting.

Skill development programmes: some countries are introducing skill development programmes targeted at women and others are seeking to ensure that programmes intended for men and women are structured to increase female participation especially in previously male-dominated trades such as construction.

Female entrepreneurship: some countries have also focused on programmes to prepare or enhance the capacities of women to become successful entrepreneurs. In some countries this has included measures to ensure equal access to property titles and finance.

Awareness raising and reporting: several countries have stepped up gender equality awareness raising programmes with employers and workers. Many countries publish reports on gender equality issues including in relation to employment and the world of work.

4.2 Youth employment

Improving the labour market outcomes of youth is crucial to achieve more inclusive growth, and reduce poverty and inequality. Young people are most at risk of being permanently scarred by prolonged periods of unemployment or under-employment in poor-quality jobs. This undermines future growth prospects and lowers well-being. Despite the priority given by the G20 to improving the employment situation of young people, a substantial proportion of youth are either out of work or trapped in poor quality jobs in most G20 economies.

The group of youth most at risk of failing to gain a solid foothold in the labour market or condemned to working in poor quality jobs are those who are Neither in Employment nor in Education and Training (the so-called NEETs) in advanced economies and those with low education or skills in the informal economy in most emerging G20 economies. They are not in school and so are not developing their skills to enhance their chance of finding a job as well as progressing up the career ladder. Nor are they in employment, or are in low-productivity informal jobs, and so are not acquiring experience and skills that will help them to progress.

Under the Turkish Presidency, G20 countries agreed on a target to reduce the number of youth at risk of being left behind by 15% by 2025. The focus is on youth who are NEET or in the informal

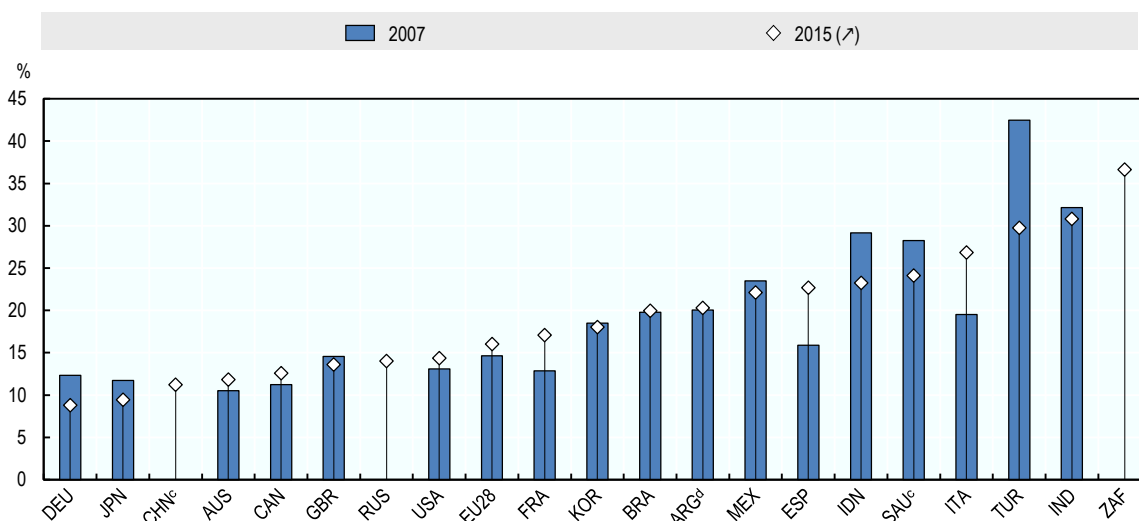
⁸ Global Wage Report 2014/15: Wages and income inequality, International Labour Office – Geneva: ILO, 2015. This report also finds that gender pay gap is highest between men and women at the highest end of the skills spectrum, which suggests the continued significance of the "glass ceiling".

sector. For some countries this will present a significant challenge. While the NEET rate has fallen in some G20 countries (most notably in Germany, Indonesia, and Turkey), it has increased significantly in others as a result of the crisis (Italy, Spain and France) (Figure 5). The magnitude of the problem also varies significantly across countries, with NEET rates ranging from around 30% or higher in Turkey, India and South Africa to less than 10% in Japan and Germany.

Turning to youth in the informal sector, most emerging economies have experienced long-term declines in the incidence of informality among youth. Most recently, however, there have been some signs of stagnation (Indonesia) or even reversal in this trend (Argentina, Brazil, South Africa) (Figure 6). In addition, the challenge remains significant in almost all emerging economies, ranging from just over a third of youth in informal employment in South Africa to over 60% in Mexico and even more in India.

Figure 5. The NEET rate has increased in countries hit hardest by the crisis

Percentage of youth aged 15-29 who are neither employed nor in education or training, 2007^a and 2015^b

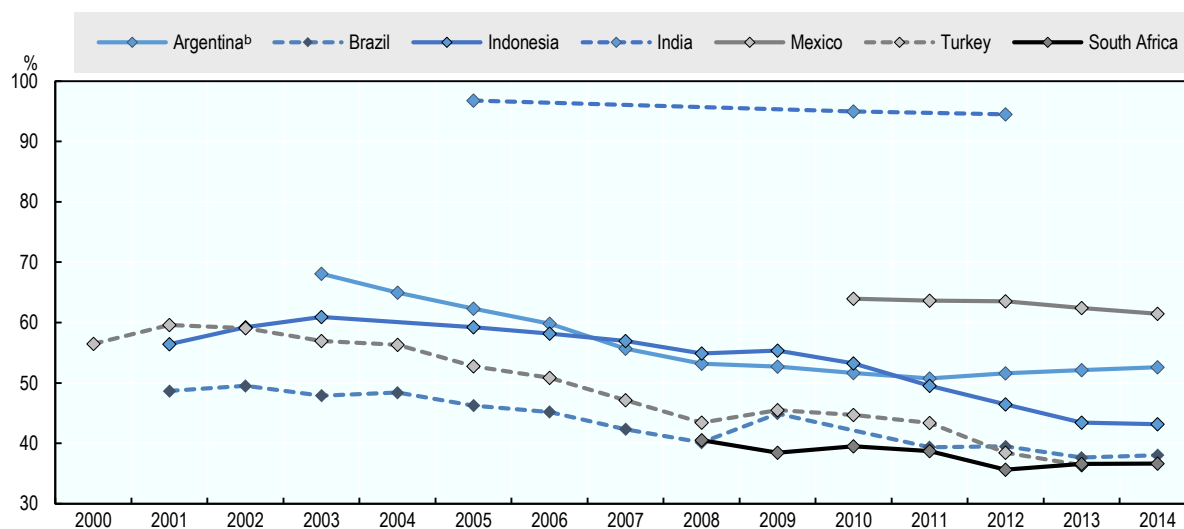


a) Data not available for China, Israel, the Russian Federation and South Africa; 2005-06 for India; and 2008 for Korea. b) 2010 for China; 2011-12 for India; 2013 for Korea; and 2014 for Argentina, Brazil, Indonesia and South Africa. c) The NEET rate has been estimated and may include unemployed persons who are studying. d) Selected urban areas only.

Source: OECD calculations based on national labour force surveys except Census data for China and OECD Education Database for Australia, Israel, Korea, New Zealand and the Russian Federation.

Figure 6. The long-run decline in informality is reversing in some countries

Incidence of informality^a among youth (aged 15-29) as a percentage of total youth (aged 15-29) employment



a) Informality is estimated by using employed persons not covered by social security as a proxy. More specifically it is defined to include: i) employees who do not pay social security contributions; and ii) the self-employed who do not pay social security contributions (India and Turkey), or whose business is not registered (Argentina, Brazil, Mexico and South Africa). Figures for India are based on the assumption that all employed workers with missing information on paying social contributions work in the informal sector. For Indonesia, informality is based on national classification using employment status and occupation. When using a comparable indicator based on social security coverage for this country the incidence of informality is 91% (August 2007). b) Selected urban areas.

Source: OECD calculations based on the EPH for Argentina, the PNAD for Brazil, the NSS for India, the SAKERNAS for Indonesia, the ENOE for Mexico, the QLFS for South Africa and the HLFS for Turkey.

The national reports on G20 Employment Plans provide information on measures designed to ease the transition of young women and men into decent jobs. The information in the 17 reports available at the time of writing varies in detail. Based on these reports and publicly available information, an overview of the type of measures in place in G20 countries can be compiled.

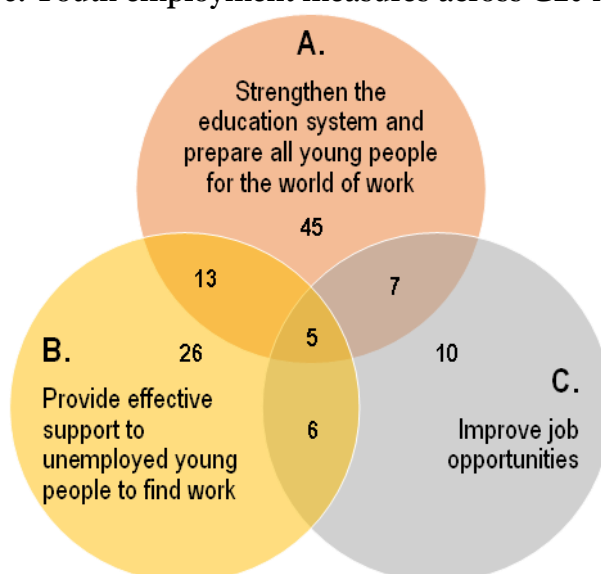
The measures fall more or less into three groups with some overlap. These are measures that:

- A. strengthen the education system and prepare all young people for the world of work;
- B. provide effective support to unemployed young people to find work; and
- C. improve job opportunities.

A total of 112 youth employment measures were reported. Most (70 measures or 63 per cent) aimed mainly at strengthening the education system and facilitating the school-to-work transition (*Group A*). The predominance of these measures was also observed across regions. Forty five out of 70 of these types of measures focussed exclusively on education and comprised, for example, apprenticeship schemes or policies to improve conditions or expand coverage of apprenticeship and work-based learning measures. (See also Annex 1 for a summary of measures by country.)

Some examples include Australia's Apprenticeship Support Network and Trade Support Loans, Brazil's PRONATEC *Jovem Aprendiz*, and France's plan to boost apprenticeships. There are also measures to strengthen vocational education and training systems, such as the establishment of the Cooperation Council of Vocational Education and Industry in Indonesia; interventions to improve career guidance, such as the Programme for the organization of professional orientation of young people in the Russian Federation; and life-long learning measures including Mexico's Lifelong Skills Strategy. Skills development and training often complement other measures in an effort to provide comprehensive support to (re-)integrate young people into education or the labour market.

Figure 6. Youth employment measures across G20 members



The second largest group of measures (*Group B* 50 in total) includes supply-side programmes to assist unemployed or underemployed youth in finding work. These measures include the support delivered by public employment services (e.g. job search or job placement), as well as interventions to enhance entrepreneurial skills among out-of-school youth. Twenty six out of the 50 measures relate primarily to employment services and include China’s employment services for college graduates and unemployed youth, the National Labour Gateway and Job Placement Centres in Saudi Arabia, the Youth Offer in the United Kingdom, and free job-matching services for unemployed youth in South Africa.

Measures that foster labour demand for youth (*Group C*), focus on wage subsidies and social security waivers, public employment programmes, macroeconomic policies and interventions to create an enabling business climate for youth entrepreneurship and self-employment, as well as measures to improve the quality of jobs and young people’s transition from the informal to the formal economy. Twenty-eight measures are associated to this category, most of which include elements of education or job search support. Italy’s Stability Law of 2016, Korea’s programme for the creation of public sector jobs for youth, and Turkey’s Investment Promotion System are examples of labour demand focussed programmes.

The Youth Guarantee schemes, implemented in the countries of the European Union to provide opportunities to school-leavers and avoid unemployment and detachment from the labour market, fall at the intersection of the three groups (A, B, and C). The Youth Guarantee implies an entitlement to education, apprenticeship, traineeship, or employment to young people within four months of leaving school or losing a job. The Youth Guarantee takes a rights-based approach with coordinated actions across different government agencies, the social partners, youth organizations and private entities under an integrated monitoring and evaluation system for all countries. For instance, Italy reported a two-fold approach with increased priority on the transition to employment through the SuperBonus, which enhances the conversion of traineeships into regular employment, and the SelfieEmployment, to foster entrepreneurial skills and access to financing for youth seeking to start a business.

The information on youth employment interventions contained in the G20 Employment Reports points to a number of innovative design and implementation features.

Enhanced integration and coordination, occurring at two levels:

(a) integration of different services to address the barriers of the most disadvantaged youth. The *Jobs for the Future* contracts (Group C) implemented by France since 2012, provides young people aged below 25 a mix of wage subsidies with at-work mentorship and personalized individual services by the labour offices. The *Troubled Families Programme* in the United Kingdom (Group A) shifted focus from the individual to the family. By recognizing family spillovers, the programme provides dedicated counselling on education, employment and juvenile crime to the entire family; and

(b) integration and coordination across different delivery actors. The *Higher Education and Research Reforms* in Australia seeks integration of the technical vocational education and training and the high education funding systems to expand education paths for young people. Another initiative to pool resources from different agencies is the pilot partnerships that will improve NEET youth outcomes in the United States. *PRONATEC Jovem Aprendiz* in Brazil mobilizes small- and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) in the delivery of apprenticeship schemes, while the *European Alliance for Apprenticeships* in the countries of the European Union promotes transnational collaboration on pledges of apprenticeship places by employers. Another collaborative approach is depicted in the *Young People Career Alliances* in Germany, which fosters close cooperation among job centres, employment agencies and youth welfare services with a view to integrating young people in the labour market.

Business-led action: The European Union's *Pact for Youth* is a business-led initiative with the European Commission, which envisages the creation of 10,000 business-education partnerships that over the next two years will lead to at least 100,000 good quality apprenticeships, traineeships or entry-level jobs. The Pact, initiated by The European Business Network for Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR Europe), is an appeal to all business, social partners, education and training providers and other stakeholders to develop or consolidate partnerships in support of youth employability and inclusion.

Management and funding by results: This is a common feature across Youth Guarantee schemes which aim at incentivizing quality services for youth and enhancing accountability among providers. Further experimentation to fine-tune programme design is taking place in the United Kingdom through the *Youth Engagement Social Impact Bonds*, which explores the extent to which a payment-by-results approach involving social investors can improve labour market outcomes of youth while generating benefit savings and other wider fiscal and social benefits.

Monitoring the enforcement of labour standards in firms applying for youth employment subsidies. To boost the quality of jobs for youth, Japan kicked off enforcement measures within its *Act on Employment Promotion for Youth* in 2015. The effort established an approval system for SMEs tracking their compliance with related labour laws.

4.3 Occupational Safety and Health

Country reports to the G20 provide valuable information on recent policy developments regarding occupational safety and health (OSH). For many countries a key policy approach at the national level is the development of a multi-year national OSH plan or strategy which establishes national OSH priorities. In several countries these national OSH plans or strategies have been developed by national tripartite bodies. Common policy approaches included the development of legislation

and regulations with a number of countries working to clarify and simplify their legislation and regulations, particularly for SMEs. In addition, many countries' laws and regulations have enhanced government's authority to collect data and business' obligation to report data. Technical regulations in most countries have focused on hazards, particularly those that cause occupational disease.

Guidance, training and education necessary to effectively implement OSH legislation and regulations were also frequently reported, targeting businesses and workers. This often focused on risk assessment and development of OSH management systems, often for high hazard sectors, including construction, mining, and agriculture and vulnerable workers, including young, elderly and migrant workers. Countries also reported the general promotion of a culture of prevention through national OSH days, weeks and months.

On the international level, countries report bilateral engagements most often for the purpose of sharing best practices. Countries also reported organization and participation in international OSH conferences and exhibitions.

There were many interesting policy developments identified in the G20 reports describing innovative approaches designed to effectively address longstanding OSH challenges. Several countries including the United States and the United Kingdom reported that they have taken steps to broaden participation of OSH stakeholders by formally including in addition to traditional partners, bodies such as educational institutions, community and faith-based organizations, consulates, insurance providers, other governmental co-regulators, and NGOs. In a similar vein, Brazil reported efforts to develop greater understanding by the judiciary related to OSH enforcement actions.

Several countries reported on programmes designed to address enforcement responses to workplace safety and health violations. The United States has established a *Severe Violator Enforcement Program* targeting the most serious OSH offenders and Brazil has created mobile enforcement units targeting high hazard sectors. Further, Korea is addressing the responsibility of prime contractors for the safety and health of their subcontractors' workers.

Several countries have worked to integrate prevention at even earlier stages, including Australia's "*Good Work Through Effective Design*" project, Germany's initiative on *New Quality of Work* that includes a program for improved human resource development for SMEs and Korea's initiative to collect information on the sale, distribution and usage of dangerous machines and equipment.

Countries are also pursuing innovative practices related to guidance, education, training and awareness-raising including the Australian *Strategy Virtual Seminar Series*, Mexico's OSH self-management program with levels of recognition and China's use of the WeChat platform to spread awareness about occupational disease.

Lastly, the majority of countries are placing a greater emphasis on occupational disease across their policy initiatives.

The most commonly reported policy approaches are set out in the summary table below.

Recent G20 Measures on Occupational Safety and Health	
<i>Broad Policy Categories</i>	<i>Countries Reporting Activities/ Programmes</i>
Multi-year National Strategy/ Plan	U.K., Brazil, E.U., France, Turkey, Korea, Japan, Germany, Russia
National Tri-Partite OSH body	France, Italy, Turkey, South Africa, Germany
Small Medium Enterprises (SME) Initiatives	Australia, Germany, E.U., Italy, Indonesia, Turkey, Korea, Mexico, France, Russia, UK
Sector-based or Worker-based Initiatives	Australia, Germany, Brazil, Turkey, Korea, Japan, USA, South Africa, Mexico, France, Saudi Arabia, China
Data Collection and Reporting	Russia, Italy, Korea, USA, Turkey, E.U. Germany
Pro-active Inspectorate Action	Brazil, USA, China, Turkey, Mexico, Australia, Italy, France, E.U., Germany
Laws and Regulations	Australia, Russia, Mexico, Saudi Arabia, South Africa, Italy, Korea, USA, Brazil, France, E.U. Germany
Guidance/Education/Training	Australia, Russia, Indonesia, Korea, Turkey, USA, E.U., Germany, China
International Collaboration	U.K., Germany, Turkey, Korea, USA, France, E.U.
OSH Licensing/Certification/Recognition Programs	Australia, Mexico, Indonesia, Korea, USA
Greater Emphasis on Occupational disease	Mexico, South Africa, China, Turkey, USA, France, E.U. Germany, Russia, U.K.
Promotion / Awareness	Russia, Mexico, E.U., Indonesia, Korea, China, Brazil, Turkey, USA, Australia, France, Germany, U.K.

5. Emerging Challenges and Policy Responses

The country reports provided to the G20 offer a rich source of information on emerging challenges and policy responses.

Overall a picture emerges of considerable policy activity addressing both immediate concerns stemming from slow economic and employment growth as well as medium to long term changes in the structure of employment stemming from pressures created by the need to eradicate poverty, demographic developments, technological change and a fast pace of globalization. The work of G20 Ministers of Labour and Employment over several years has increased the sharing of experience in addressing major challenges, many of which are common across the diverse circumstances of G20 economies, and identified in shared policy principles and priorities.

The short term outlook for growth and jobs of the IMF and OECD points to a persistent slow growth in 2016 and only some acceleration in 2017. In their country reports, G20 countries indicate that the short term outlook for growth and jobs is weak, in some cases declining from relatively strong performance while in other cases adding to already-prolonged weakness.

Countries foresee some improvement in 2017 although this view was taken before recent signs of volatility and downward revisions to forecasts.⁹

Looking to the medium and longer term, countries identify similar lists of challenges. These include:

- demographic changes, with a rapidly ageing population in some countries and continuing pressures from the large number of young women and men entering the labour market in others;
- an increased pace of technological change;
- continuing globalization and intensifying competition;
- various forms of mismatch between labour demand and supply, which current policy frameworks are not properly addressing ; and
- persistent poverty and increasing inequalities, especially in labour market participation and remuneration.

Responses, although varied in design and scale, also fall into broad interconnected policy categories:

- Measures to increase labour force participation in general, but usually with particular focus on vulnerable and underrepresented groups, including women, young workers, long-term unemployed, indigenous peoples, groups experiencing discrimination, persons with disabilities, migrants and refugees.
- Skill development and other active labour market policies;
- Improving labour market efficiency including various types of measures to ease mobility between jobs and reduce spells of unemployment, such as reforms to welfare systems and labour market regulations, strengthened employment services for job matching as well as skill development;
- Accelerating transitions to formal from informal employment which is emphasised by emerging G20 economies and measures to improve job quality which are mentioned by both emerging and advanced economies.
- Measures to increase the inclusivity of labour markets, including combating working poverty, ending discrimination, narrowing pay and working conditions gaps (including in OSH) and enhancing participation of under-represented groups.
- Improving productivity and competitiveness often with a particular focus on the job creating potential of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs).

⁹ Papers prepared during 2016 at the request of the Employment Working Group by the ILO, OECD, World Bank Group and IMF have discussed many of these challenges and policy responses: *Generating adequate job opportunities* and *Enhancing employability* (EWG1) and *Promote Decent Work* for (EWG2)

Annex 1: Summary of reported youth employment measures

G20 member and measure type

Members	A	A and B	A and C	B	B and C	C	A, B, and C
Australia	✓		✓	✓		✓	
Brazil	✓						
China	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	
EU	✓	✓	✓				✓
France	✓	✓		✓		✓	✓
Germany	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓
Indonesia	✓		✓	✓		✓	
Italy	✓				✓	✓	
Japan				✓	✓		
Korea	✓			✓		✓	
Mexico	✓	✓	✓			✓	
Russia	✓	✓		✓		✓	
Saudi Arabia	✓			✓			
South Africa			✓	✓	✓		
Turkey	✓	✓		✓		✓	
United Kingdom	✓	✓		✓			
United States of America	✓	✓			✓		✓

Note:

Type A: Measures to strengthen the education system and prepare all young people for the world of work.

Type B: Measures to provide effective support to unemployed young people to find work.

Type C: Measures to improve job opportunities.

Annex 2: Recent trends in women and youth employment

A. Gender gaps in labour market outcomes

	Labour force participation rate Persons aged 15/16-64 year olds				Employment-to-population ratio Persons aged 15/16-64 year olds				Incidence of part-time employment ^f Persons aged 15 year olds and above				Incidence of informal employment ^g Persons aged 15/16-64 year olds				Incidence of temporary employment ^g Persons aged 15 year olds and above				Incidence of senior managers ^h Persons aged 15 year olds and above				Gender pay gap ^j			
	2012 ^a		2015 ^a		2012 ^a		2015 ^a		2012 ^a		2015 ^a		2012 ^a		2014		2012		2015		2012 ^a		2014		2012 ^a	2014 ⁱ		
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women				
Argentina*	80.9	56.1	78.8	54.0	75.9	51.1	74.1	49.8	14.0	38.8	14.3	40.8	46.4	46.7	46.2	45.5	6.1	4.4	13.3	6.5		
Australia	82.5	70.4	82.7	71.2	78.1	66.6	77.5	66.8	13.1	38.2	14.2	38.0	15.4	9.7	15.7	10.0	13.8	15.4		
Brazil	83.3	60.8	83.5	62.4	79.3	55.8	78.9	56.8	10.0	24.6	10.6	25.6	36.8	36.3	35.4	34.6	5.5	3.8	5.5	4.5	20.0	16.7		
Canada	81.3	74.3	81.8	74.2	74.9	69.2	75.6	69.4	11.9	26.7	12.1	26.4	13.1	14.2	13.0	13.8	10.5	6.7	9.8	6.0	19.5	19.2		
China	84.3	70.3	82.0	68.0	2.4	1.0		
European Union	78.4	65.9	78.7	67.1	70.2	59.0	71.2	60.7	8.1	28.3	8.5	27.7	13.4	14.5	14.0	14.8	7.3	4.3	7.4	4.2		
France	75.3	66.3	75.3	67.3	68.1	60.1	67.1	60.6	6.0	22.6	6.9	22.3	14.4	16.1	15.9	17.6	8.6	6.1	9.1	4.8	13.7	..		
Germany	82.5	71.9	82.1	73.1	77.9	68.1	78.0	69.9	8.6	38.0	9.3	37.4	13.7	13.7	13.0	13.1	5.9	2.7	5.9	2.8	15.3	17.1		
India	81.4	28.5	78.5	27.3	91.2	94.1	33.3	..		
Indonesia	86.3	53.6	85.4	52.5	81.1	49.9	80.1	49.0	20.6	36.2	20.6	37.2	51.1	57.5	49.4	56.9	1.3	0.4	1.4	0.5	20.0	25.9		
Italy	74.8	54.2	75.2	54.9	67.4	47.7	66.5	47.8	7.5	32.2	8.5	32.8	12.9	14.8	13.6	14.5	4.7	2.3	4.8	2.4	11.1	5.6		
Japan	84.3	63.4	85.0	66.7	80.3	60.7	81.8	64.6	10.3	34.5	12.0	36.9	8.6	20.5	5.3	10.3	3.8	0.6	3.5	0.6	26.5	25.9		
Korea, Rep. of	77.6	55.2	78.6	57.9	74.9	53.5	75.7	55.7	6.8	15.0	6.9	15.9	21.1	25.8	20.5	24.6	2.9	0.5	2.4	0.4	36.3	36.7		
Mexico	83.0	47.7	81.8	46.6	78.9	45.3	78.2	44.4	13.6	28.7	12.5	27.5	58.0	59.6	56.3	57.4	24.9	11.9	4.0	3.4	3.3	3.2	13.6	18.3		
Russian Fed.	78.1	68.2	79.1	68.2	73.6	64.7	74.4	64.6	2.9	5.4	2.9	5.6	10.6	6.4	11.2	6.8	9.9	6.6	10.5	6.8		
Saudi Arabia	78.8	21.0	79.6	21.2	76.5	16.7	77.4	16.6	6.5	13.5	5.6	13.0	3.8	1.7	4.5	2.0		
South Africa	63.3	49.4	65.1	52.1	48.7	36.0	49.9	37.7	4.7	11.7	5.5	13.0	29.0	33.8	29.0	34.4	9.8	5.8	10.7	6.3	22.4	..		
Spain	81.2	69.3	80.9	70.0	61.1	51.8	64.0	53.4	6.0	22.4	7.2	23.1	22.0	24.9	25.1	25.2	6.3	3.3	5.7	3.0	8.6	..		
Turkey	75.8	32.3	77.0	35.0	69.2	28.7	69.8	30.5	6.7	24.2	5.9	19.0	32.7	54.2	29.3	48.4	12.5	10.7	14.0	11.3	7.5	2.5	6.4	2.3	20.1	..		
United Kingdom	83.1	70.9	82.8	72.5	75.9	65.6	77.9	68.6	12.3	39.4	11.9	37.7	5.9	6.8	5.8	6.6	12.8	7.7	12.7	7.9	17.8	17.4		
United States	78.8	67.6	78.5	66.9	72.3	62.2	74.2	63.4	8.7	18.3	8.4	17.4	4.2	4.2	13.0	9.3	12.8	9.1	19.1	17.5

..: Not available.

*: Selected urban areas. Data for Argentina should be interpreted with caution due to the state of emergency in the national statistical system declared by the government of Argentina on 7 January 2016 (www.boletinfoicial.gov.ar/pdf/linkQR/QIFIS1dmVmpOWXMrTVReEh2ZkU0dz09).

a) 2010 for China and 2011-12 for India.

b) 2013 for Indonesia; 2014 for Brazil; and Q2 2015 for Argentina.

c) Proportion of employed persons (employees for the United States) who work part-time, based on a 30-usual-hour cut-off in the main job. For Indonesia and Saudi Arabia the data refer to actual hours worked based on a 30 and 35-hour cut-off, respectively.

d) Q2 2015 for Argentina; and 2014 for Brazil.

e) Informality is defined to include: i) employees who do not pay social security contributions; and ii) self-employed who do not pay social security contributions (India and Turkey), or whose business is not registered (Argentina, Brazil, Mexico and South Africa). Figures for India are based on the assumption that all employed workers with missing information on paying social contributions work in the informal sector. For Indonesia, informality is based on national classification using employment status and occupation. Data refer to persons aged 15 and above for Turkey.

f) 2011-12 for India.

g) Proportion of employees working in temporary jobs.

h) Data refer to legislators, senior officials and managers - corresponding to category 1 of the International Standard Classification of Occupations 08 (ISCO-08).

i) 2010 for China.

j) The gender wage gap is defined as male minus female median wages as a proportion of male median wages. Earnings refer to the monthly earnings (weekly earnings of regular employees for India) of full-time employees (usually persons working at least 30 hours per week).

k) 2012 refers to 2010 for Turkey.

l) 2014 refers to 2013 for Argentina, the Republic of Korea and the United Kingdom.

Source: **Labour force participation rate:** OECD Employment Database and OECD estimates based on national labour force surveys for Argentina and Saudi Arabia. **Employment-to-population ratio:** OECD Employment Database and OECD estimates based on national labour force surveys for Argentina and Saudi Arabia. **Incidence of part-time employment:** OECD Employment Database and OECD estimates based on national labour force surveys for Argentina, Indonesia and Saudi Arabia. **Incidence of informal employment:** OECD estimates based on national labour force surveys excepted Labour Force Survey results for Turkey. **Incidence of temporary employment:** OECD Employment Database. **Incidence of senior managers:** ILO KILM 2015 excepted census data for China. **Gender pay gap:** OECD Earnings Distribution Database, OECD estimates based on national labour force surveys for Argentina, Brazil, India and Indonesia, and OECD estimates based on panel survey for South Africa (NIDS).

B. Gender gaps in opportunities

	Differences in legal treatment for men and women ^g			Time spent in unpaid work (minutes per day) ^h		PISA reading performance		PISA mathematics performance		Percentage of the population that has attained tertiary education (25-64 year olds) ⁱ				Total weeks of paid leave available for fathers		Total weeks of paid leave available for mothers		Preschool enrolment rate among children aged 3-5	
	2012	2014	2016	2014 or latest year available		2012		2012		2012		2014		2012	2014	2012	2014	2012	2014
				Men	Women	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Men	Women	Men	Women						
Argentina	5.5	5.5	5.5	377	414	396	382	72.3	
Australia	2	2	2	172	311	495	530	510	498	45.0	37.5	43.9	35.1	0	2	18	18	64.8	
Brazil	2.25	2.25	2.25	394	425	401	383	14.7	11.1	15.6	11.7						
Canada	0	0	0	160	254	506	541	523	513	58.0	47.1	58.9	47.5	60.6	
China	4.75	4.75	4.75	91	234	557	581	616	610	4.4	3.2	0	0	52	52	45.9	
European Union ^f	147	269	468	511	493	485	
France	2.25	2.25	2.25	143	233	483	527	499	491	32.7	29.0	34.0	30.1	6	6.8	65.4	65.8	84.3	
Germany	2	2	2	164	269	486	530	520	507	25.7	30.5	26.3	30.6	2	28	42	42	99.6	
India	4.5	4.5	4.5	52	352	8.7	8.7	58	58	94.6	
Indonesia	8	8	8	382	410	377	373	7.3	6.6	8.7	7.8	
Italy	4	2	2	103	326	471	510	494	476	17.5	13.9	18.1	14.4	25.2	
Japan	0.25	0.25	0.25	69	326	527	551	545	527	46.5	46.8	47.1	47.5	0	0.2	47.7	47.7	95.1	
Korea	0.5	0.5	0.5	45	227	525	548	562	544	37.6	45.8	39.1	47.1	52	52	58	58	88.8	
Mexico	0	0	0	113	373	411	435	420	406	16.3	20.2	17.2	20.4	52.6	52.6	64.9	64.9	87	
Russian Fed.	5.75	5.75	5.75	455	495	481	483	60.5	45.7	60.8	47.0	1	1	12	12	91.3	
Saudi Arabia	28.75	28.75	28.75	19.8	22.3	21.9	23.0	75.5	
South Africa	0	0	0	92	257	13.8	13.5	14.4	14.2	14.2
Spain	0	0	0	154	258	474	503	492	476	33.8	30.9	35.4	32.0	
Turkey	4.75	4.25	4.25	116	377	453	499	452	444	13.5	16.9	14.1	17.5	2.1	2.1	16	16	96.6	
United Kingdom	2	2	2	141	258	487	512	500	488	41.6	40.4	43.0	40.8	0	0	16	16	30.9	
United States	3	2	2	161	248	482	513	484	479	45.1	40.9	46.4	41.4	2	2	39	39	96.3	

a) Proportion of employed persons who work part-time, based on a 30-usual-hour cut-off in the main job. For Saudi Arabia the data refer to actual hours worked based on a 35-hour cut-off.

b) Proportion of employees working informally in 2010 in China, the Russian Federation, South Africa and, in 2009, Argentina, Brazil, India, Indonesia, Mexico and Turkey.

c) Proportion of employees working in temporary jobs.

d) Data refer to legislators, senior officials and managers - corresponding to category 1 of the International Standard Classification of Occupations 08 (ISCO-08).

e) The gender wage gap is defined as male minus female median wages as a proportion of male median wages. The data refers to mean wages for China (Hong Kong) and Indonesia.

f) Data refer to an unweighted EU21 average for indicators on the incidence of senior managers, gender pay gap, incidence of entrepreneurs; and an unweighted EU27 average for indicator on childcare enrolment.

g) This indicator considers differences in treatment by law of men and women and provides an aggregate count across 21 areas for married and unmarried women and for 5 areas that only apply to married women (the maximum score would thus be 47), including: application for a passport; travel outside the country; signing a contract; being head of household or family; having ownership rights over property; working the same night hours; having the same statutory retirement age; and, absence of gender or sex discrimination in the constitution.

h) The data are derived from time-use surveys.

i) Tertiary education refers to all type-A and type-B programmes.

* For more details on definitions and additional indicators that could be covered, see OECD, ILO, IMF, World Bank (2014), "Achieving stronger growth by promoting a more gender-balanced economy", Report prepared for the G20 Labour and Employment Ministerial Meeting Melbourne, Australia, 10-11 September 2014: <http://www.oecd.org/g20/topics/employment-and-social-policy/ILO-IMF-OECD-WBG-Achieving-stronger-growth-by-promoting-a-more-gender-balanced-economy-G20.pdf>

C. Youth employment outcomes (15/16-29 year olds)

	Employment/population ratio ^a			Unemployment rate ^a			Incidence of long-term unemployment ^b			Incidence of involuntary part-time employment ^c			Incidence of informal employment ^d			Incidence of temporary employment ^e			NEET rate ^f		
	2007	2010	2015	2007	2010	2015	2007	2010	2015	2007	2010	2015	2007	2010	2014	2007	2010	2015	2007	2010	2015
Argentina*	46.0	44.8	41.3	14.4	14.8	14.1	17.8	18.3	19.2	53.2	51.6	52.6	20.0	19.9	20.6
Australia	72.0	71.0	70.6	5.2	6.2	7.1	10.4	13.4	19.0	10.3	11.8	14.8	10.5	11.8	11.8
Brazil	65.3	64.6	64.9	9.8	8.3	8.6	42.3	39.4	38.0	19.8	19.8	20.0
Canada	71.9	69.6	70.6	6.8	9.0	7.8	22.7	23.6	24.3	11.2	12.7	12.6
China	..	72.5	3.4	11.2	..
European Union	62.4	61.2	62.3	8.1	10.8	10.7	30.1	31.2	36.8	4.8	5.9	7.7	30.9	30.9	32.5	14.7	16.4	16.0
France	60.5	60.1	59.3	8.9	10.3	11.9	27.8	31.5	30.0	7.4	7.5	10.8	35.5	36.3	41.0	14.5	16.5	16.6
Germany	66.1	68.2	70.7	9.1	7.5	5.0	36.5	31.0	26.9	5.1	4.9	2.8	41.5	41.4	38.1	12.3	11.1	8.8
India	44.0	41.1	39.0	8.7	7.9	8.3	96.8	95.0	94.5	32.1	31.4	30.8
Indonesia	57.8	60.3	60.0	12.2	9.4	8.6	57.0	53.2	43.2	29.2	28.9	23.2
Italy	54.8	53.6	52.3	7.5	10.2	14.4	42.5	45.0	56.2	8.6	12.7	21.1	30.3	33.1	41.1	19.5	22.8	26.9
Japan	67.6	66.9	69.7	4.5	5.8	3.8	18.6	18.3	9.6	11.7	12.0	9.5
Korea	59.2	58.3	60.7	4.0	4.5	4.5	0.4	0.4	0.0	23.7	22.4	21.2	18.5	19.2	18.0
Mexico	58.1	57.3	57.2	4.1	6.1	5.3	1.4	1.5	1.0	64.0	61.5	23.5	24.4	22.1
Russian Fed.	63.6	63.2	65.7	6.9	8.3	6.4	32.6	23.2	20.7	0.1	0.3	0.2	17.7	13.7	12.7	14.0
Saudi Arabia	28.2	26.5	26.3	17.7	19.3	19.7	28.2	27.5	24.5
South Africa	28.1	23.4	24.3	37.2	41.5	41.3	36.9	43.4	44.4	40.5	39.5	36.6	36.3
Spain	65.0	56.5	54.7	9.2	22.0	24.2	11.9	29.9	39.1	5.3	11.1	18.7	51.5	45.1	54.3	15.9	24.1	22.7
Turkey	42.9	44.3	48.2	12.1	13.7	11.8	24.8	24.4	17.5	0.5	0.8	0.8	47.2	44.7	36.4	10.7	12.7	16.7	42.5	37.0	29.8
United Kingdom	70.8	68.0	70.9	6.4	9.3	6.8	17.3	25.4	23.6	3.7	3.3	6.8	10.3	10.5	11.3	14.6	16.3	13.6
United States	69.6	64.0	66.3	5.4	10.8	6.1	6.5	18.3	11.4	2.2	4.8	4.1	13.1	16.0	14.4

..: Not available.

*: Selected urban areas. Data for Argentina should be interpreted with caution due to the state of emergency in the national statistical system declared by the government of Argentina on 7 January 2016

a) 2007 refers to 2007-08 for India, 2008 for Argentina and South Africa. 2010 refers to 2009-10 for India and 2011 for Brazil; 2015 refers to 2011-12 for India, 2013 for Indonesia, 2014 for Brazil, and Q2 2015 for Argentina.

b) 2007 refers to 2008 for Argentina and South Africa.

c) Proportion of employed persons (aged 15/16-64) who work part-time for involuntary reason, based on a 30-usual-hour cut-off in the main job.

d) Informality is defined to include: i) employees who do not pay social security contributions; and ii) self-employed who do not pay social security contributions (India and Turkey), or whose business is not registered (Argentina, Brazil, Mexico and South Africa). Figures for India are based on the assumption that all employed workers with missing information on paying social contributions work in the informal sector. For Indonesia, informality is based on national classification using employment status and occupation. 2007 refers to 2004-05 for India and 2008 for Argentina and South Africa; 2010 refers to 2009-10 for India and 2011 for Brazil; 2014 refers to 2011-12 for India and 2013 for Turkey.

e) Proportion of employees working in temporary jobs.

f) The NEET rate has been estimated and may include unemployed persons who are studying for China and Saudi Arabia. 2007 refers to 2005-06 for India and 2008 for Argentina and the Republic of Korea; 2010 refers to 2009-10 for India and 2011 for Brazil and Saudi Arabia; 2015 refers to 2011-12 for India, 2013 for the Republic of Korea, 2014 for Brazil and Indonesia and Q2 2015 for Argentina.

Source: **Labour force participation rate:** OECD Employment Database and OECD estimates based on national labour force surveys for Argentina and Saudi Arabia. **Employment-to-population ratio:** OECD Employment Database and OECD estimates based on national labour force surveys for Argentina and Saudi Arabia. **Incidence of long-term unemployment:** OECD Employment Database and OECD estimates based on national labour force surveys for Argentina. **Incidence of informal employment:** OECD estimates based on national labour force surveys. **Incidence of temporary employment:** OECD Employment Database. **NEET rate:** OECD calculations based on national labour force surveys excepted Census data for China and OECD Education Database for Australia, the Republic of Korea and the Russian Federation.