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# GLOBAL EMPLOYMENT TRENDS FOR YOUTH: 2011 UPDATE



October 2011

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## Global Employment Trends for Youth: 2011 update

In August 2010, the ILO published the *Global Employment Trends for Youth: Special issue on the impact of the global economic crisis on youth* [GET Youth 2010]. The report presented an analysis of the latest available world and regional aggregates of key labour market indicators for young people aged 15 to 24 years, with a specific focus on how young people fared in the face of the recent global economic crisis. It highlighted the following trends:

- The crisis led to a substantial increase in youth unemployment rates, reversing earlier favorable trends over the past decade. At the peak of the crisis period in 2009, the global youth unemployment rate saw its largest annual increase on record. The youth unemployment rate rose from 11.8 to 12.7 per cent between 2008 and 2009, marking the largest annual increase over the 20 years of available global estimates and reversing the pre-crisis trend of declining youth unemployment rates since 2002.
- That the global youth unemployment rate increased to a greater degree than the adult unemployment rate supported the classic premise that youth are more vulnerable to economic shocks. Young people are the “first out” and “last in” during times of economic recession.
- The report had predicted a longer recovery for youth than adults in the labour market. The global youth unemployment numbers and rates were expected to decline only in 2011 whereas the adult unemployment rate was predicted to decline one year prior in 2010.

One year later, with an environment of growing uncertainty in the economic recovery and stalled recovery in the job market, the ILO now takes the opportunity to revisit the much publicized youth labour market figures to assess where young men and women currently stand. Are prospects for youth employment better or worse than predicted in the GET Youth 2010? What are the latest figures? What has changed since the report was released, where and why? These are some of the questions that will be examined in the present update.<sup>1</sup>

### ***Youth jobs crisis confirmed in both developed and developing economies...***

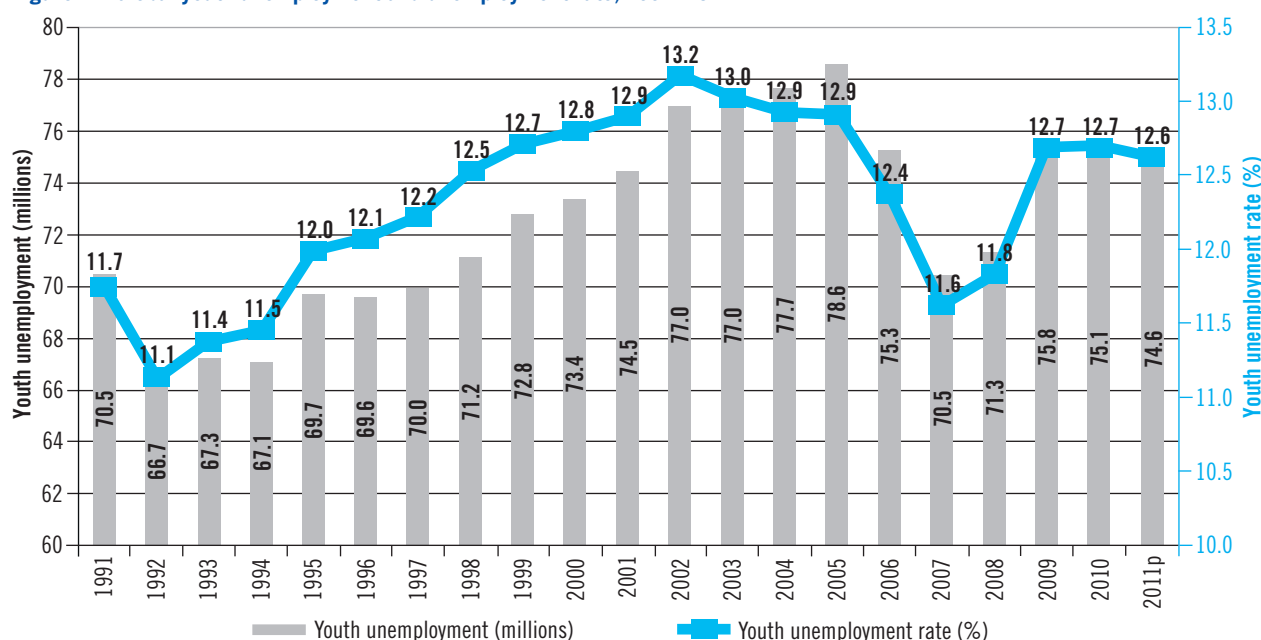
In the current context of economic instability, young men and women face increasing uncertainty in their hopes of finding a decent job. There is no doubt that the global economic crisis has further exposed the fragility of youth in the labour market. At the end of 2010, there were an estimated 75.1 million young people in the world struggling to find work – 4.6 million more than in 2007. Between 2008 and 2009, the number of unemployed youth increased by an unprecedented 4.5 million. This remarkable increase is better visualized when compared to the average increase of the pre-crisis period (1997-2007) of less than 100,000 persons per year. The youth unemployment rate also rose sharply during the economic crisis – from 11.6 to 12.7 per cent – and has shown little improvement since its peak in 2010. Only in 2011 is the youth unemployment rate projected to show a minimal decrease to 12.6 per cent. (See figure 1 and table 1.)

### ***... but the highest price of the crisis was paid by youth in developed economies.***

The absolute number of young jobseekers fell since its peak in 2009, albeit only marginally (600,000 youth), and not enough to bring the youth unemployment rate down. The youth unemployment rate remained unchanged at 12.7 per cent in 2009 and 2010. If we look at the numbers at the regional level, however, young people in certain regions have suffered disproportionately when it comes to their prospects of being absorbed into a distressed labour market.

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<sup>1</sup> This update is based on the latest global and regional estimates from the ILO, Trends Econometric Models, September 2011, and country-level data from the ILO: *Key Indicators of the Labour Market*, 7th Edition (Geneva, 2011).

**Figure 1. Global youth unemployment and unemployment rate, 1991–2011**

p = projection.

Source: ILO, Trends Econometric Models, September 2011.

The specter of youth unemployment has continued to worsen in the Developed Economies & European Union, where young people paid the highest price over the course of the crisis. Youth unemployment numbers and rates were higher in 2010 than any time since measurement began in 1991. Not only did the region show the largest jump, by far, in youth unemployment rates between 2008 and 2010 (4.6 percentage points), but it is also one of only three regions where the youth unemployment rate continued to creep up over the period 2009–10 (0.6 percentage point increase in the Developed Economies & European Union, 1.1 point increase in South Asia and 0.2 point increase in the Middle East). (See figure 2 and table 2.) Young males have been affected more than young women during the crisis period in the region: the youth male unemployment rate increased by 4.9 percentage points between 1998 and 2008, compared to 1.0 point for young females. (See table 4.)

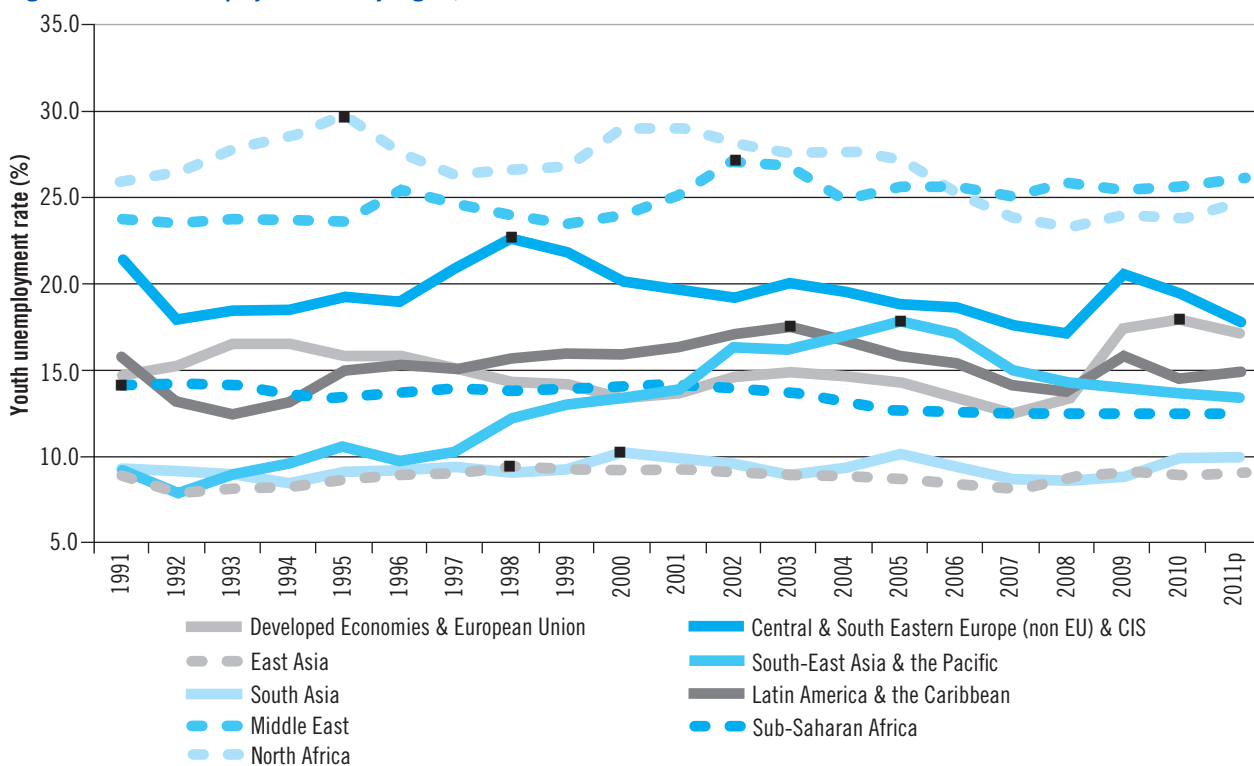
### ***More young people face lengthy periods of job search ...***

In most developed economies, the long-term unemployment rates of youth surpassed those of adults, by far. In Italy, for example, the gap between the youth and adult long-term unemployment rates was extremely large, with young people three times more likely to be unemployed for at least one year compared to adults. Substantial differences between youth and adults (ratio greater than 2.0) were also seen in Greece, Hungary, Slovakia and the United Kingdom. (See figure 3.)

### ***... leading some to give up on the job search altogether***

There has been a clear increase in inactivity among youth in the crisis years. Globally, the youth labour force participation rate decreased from 49.4 per cent in 2009 to 48.8 per cent, with the largest regional decreases in the Developed Economies & European Union and South Asia (see table 3). In 56 countries for which comparable monthly/quarterly data were available, the youth labour force expanded by far less during the crisis than would be expected: across the 56 countries, there were 2.6 million fewer youth in the labour market in 2010 than expected based on longer-term (pre-crisis) trends. This figure implies that growing frustration over unemployment and underemployment has pushed a large cohort of discouraged youth to drop out of the labour market altogether.

**Figure 2. Youth unemployment rate by region, 1991–2011**

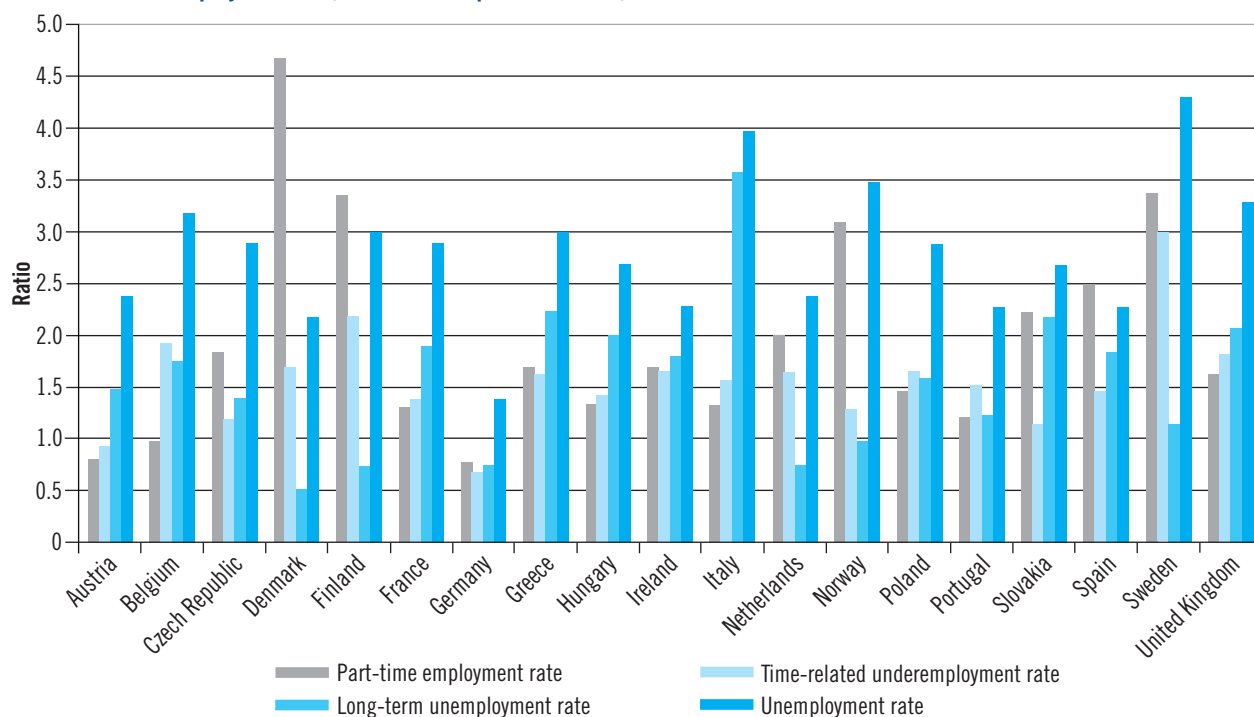


Note: Peaks years are marked in black squares.

p = projection.

Source: ILO, Trends Econometric Models, September 2011.

**Figure 3. Youth-to-adult ratio of unemployment rate, long-term unemployment rate, part-time employment rate and time-related underemployment rate, selected European countries, 2010**



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 7th Edition, various tables (Geneva 2011). See table 6 for the same indicators for youth, by country.

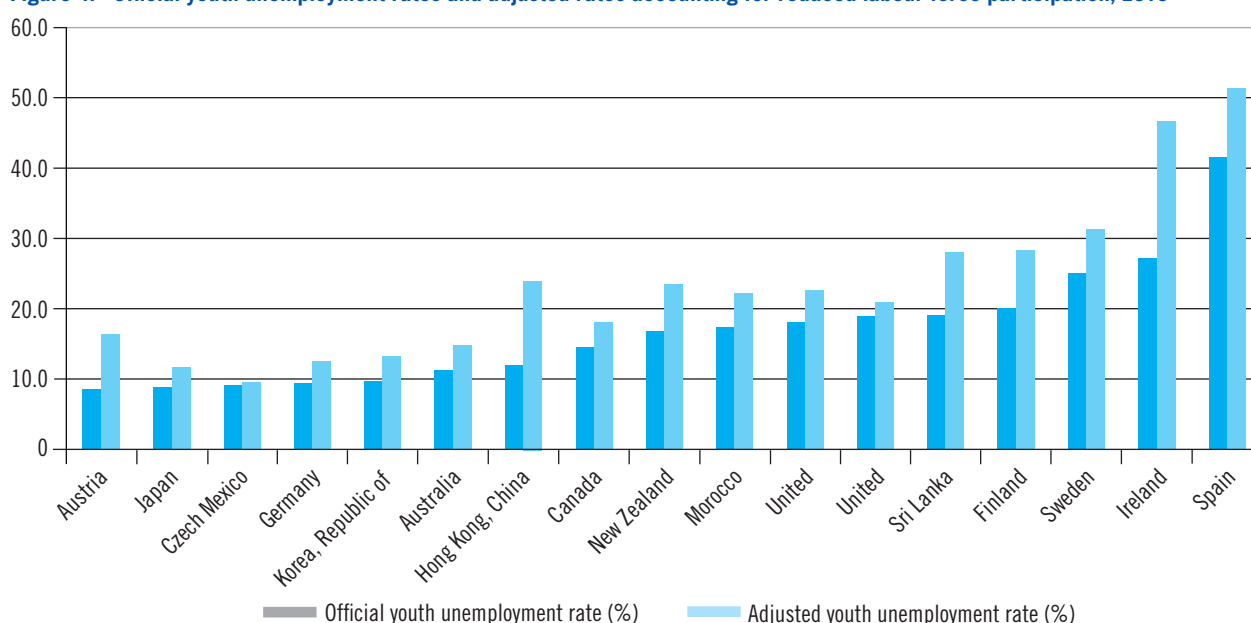
Take the case of Ireland: in 2010, the youth unemployment rate in Ireland stood at an alarming 27.5 per cent, up sharply from 9.0 per cent in 2007. Yet even the scale of the unemployment increase understates the extent of the problem: youth participation declined sharply in the country during the crisis and there is a massive gap now between the current youth labour force count and the expected youth labour force based on pre-crisis trends. This means many young people are either “hiding out” in the education system rather than face the job search or are idly waiting at home for prospects to improve before taking up an active job search. Had these youth been instead looking for work, the “actual” youth unemployment rate in Ireland could be as much as 19.3 percentage points higher than the official rate. In Austria and Hong Kong, China the youth unemployment rate could be as much as double the official rate if all of the additional inactive youth are really holding out hope for future employment. (See figure 4.)

*... and others to take up whatever work they can find.*

For many youth who did manage to find work, the job found is less than ideal. Part-time employment rates increased for youth in all developed economies but Germany and Poland between 2007 and 2010. An increase in part-time employment among young people is not in itself a negative trend; an increasing number of young people combine work with study as a means of gaining experience and making contacts in the world of work in order to smooth the future transition to full-time employment upon graduation. But the sheer magnitude of the increase in part-time employment among youth in European countries since the onset of the crisis – between 2007 and 2010, the part-time employment rate of youth increased by 9.2 percentage points in Iceland, 17.0 points in Ireland, 10.5 points in Luxembourg, 10.1 points in Slovenia, 8.8 points in Spain and 5.2 points in the United Kingdom – is a sufficient hint that part-time work is being taken up as an only available option for many young men and women. By the end of 2010, as much as half of working youth were in part-time employment in Canada, Denmark, the Netherlands and Norway, while in Australia, Iceland, Ireland, Slovenia, Sweden and the United Kingdom, the share was 1 in 3 (see table 6).

This involuntary nature of part-time work is further confirmed by the increase in the time-related underemployment rate in many countries over the course of the economic crisis. This is a situa-

**Figure 4. Official youth unemployment rates and adjusted rates accounting for reduced labour force participation, 2010**



Source: ILO calculations based on official national data.



tion in which a person would like to work additional hours than they are currently working (for instance, a person who is working part time because they could not find full time work). In 2009, the youth underemployed rate was greater than the adult rate for all European Union countries but Austria and Germany. Youth were especially prone to time-related underemployment vis-à-vis the total working population (ratio greater than 2.0) in Finland and Sweden. (See figure 3.)

### ***Still, the majority of the world's youth are in developing economies, where some young men and women have very little chance of ever finding work ...***

Over the entire twenty year span for which data exist, approximately 1 in 4 youth in the labour market have been unemployed in the regions of the Middle East and North Africa, and this is despite progress made on the education front for both girls and boys. There are deep-seated structural issues in these regions that result in the world's highest youth unemployment rates as well as severe underdevelopment in the productive potential of the economies.<sup>2</sup> The collective frustration of a generation of youth that was granted the opportunity to gain an education but not given the same opportunity to gain decent employment was certainly a contributing factor behind mobilizing youth in support of the political protest movements in Bahrain, Egypt, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Syrian Arab Republic and Tunisia. Consequently, promoting opportunities for decent employment for youth remains firmly fixed among the priority of the interim governments.

### ***... while others cannot escape the trap of working poverty.***

In low-income developing economies, young people have always been reared in an environment of weak aggregate demand and minimal job creation in the formal sector. In such an economic environment, and with little or no social safety nets to fall back on, few young people can afford to undertake a lengthy job search. For this reason, the unemployment rate does not capture the full extent of difficulties facing young people in developing economies. In fact, if youth unemployment were examined alone, one might wrongly guess that young people in South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa, with youth unemployment rates of “only” 9.9 and 12.5 per cent in 2010, respectively, are doing well compared to their counterparts in the Developed Economies & European Union, where the youth unemployment rate was 17.9 per cent (see figure 2 and table 4).

However, this is not the case. The high employment-to-population ratios of youth in the poorest regions reflect the fact that the poor must work. But working does not mean having a decent job. Rather, the majority of young people in South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa and other low-income regions are trying to make a living at whatever job they can find, most often working long hours under poor conditions in the informal economy. There are by far more young people around the world that are stuck in circumstances of working poverty than are without work and looking for work. According to the latest ILO estimates on working poverty, young people make up a disproportionately large share of the world's working poor. In the 52 countries with available data, youth accounted for 23.5 per cent of the total working poor, compared with only 18.6 per cent of non-poor workers.<sup>3</sup>

### ***Consequences? Continuing uncertainty for young men and women and growing discontent...***

The ILO projects a slight decline in youth unemployment to 74.6 million in 2011 (from 75.1 million in 2010) and a miniscule decline in the youth unemployment rate from 12.7 to 12.6 per cent. However, heightened uncertainty in economic growth, coupled with the greater sensitivity of youth

<sup>2</sup> See GET Youth 2010, section 2.2 for more information.

<sup>3</sup> See ILO: Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 7th Edition (Geneva, 2011), Chapter 1, section A for more information on the working poor.



rates to the business cycle, means the recovery for young people is highly uncertain. This could mean many more difficult years ahead for young people.

The GET Youth 2010 warned of the possibility of “scarring”, whereby the bad luck of the generation entering the labour market in the years of the Great Recession brings not only current discomfort (from unemployment, underemployment, and the stress and social hazards associated with joblessness and prolonged inactivity), but also possible longer term consequences in terms of lower future wages and distrust of the political and economic system. It is exactly the latter consequence that has come to play as one aspect of the Arab Spring, as mentioned above.

And it is not just the Middle East where young people are voicing their discontent. “Los indignados” in Spain spent much of the summer of 2011 peacefully protesting against high youth unemployment (an incredible 41.6 per cent in 2010). Discontented youth have also engaged in protests in other countries, notably Greece, Italy and the United Kingdom, with at times violent outcomes. In some countries, youth are protesting with their feet. A recent report of the National Youth Council of Ireland noted that the number of people under 25 emigrating increased from 15,600 in 2004 to 30,000 in 2009.<sup>4</sup> Increased crime rates in the some countries, increased drug use, moving back home with the parents, depression – all of these are common consequences for a generation of youth that, at best, has become disheartened about the future, and, at worst, has become angry and violent.

### ***... while governments struggle to find innovative solutions to ease the jobs crisis***

Governments are not closing their eyes to the dangers. Most are actively searching for solutions to stimulating job growth and effectively investing in youth. Interventions tend to focus on the following areas:<sup>5</sup>

- *Addressing skills mismatches*: programmes that aim to offset the mismatch of technical skills among youth, such as: vocational training programmes; re-training of unemployed or discouraged youth and youth; workplace training schemes; the creation or improvement of apprenticeships systems; entrepreneurship training programmes; soft and life skills training programmes for disadvantaged youth; linking employers with educational institutions.
- *Addressing inadequate job matching*: programmes to bring relevant information about the labour market and access to networks for those who seek work; for example, development of public employment services or subsidizing private employment services.
- *Addressing poor signalling*: programmes to ensure that first-time jobseekers can effectively signal their acquired skills to employers; for example, skills certification systems.
- *Supporting strong labour market information systems*: support in the areas of data collection, tabulation, analysis and dissemination to national statistical offices and other producers of LMI, and in strengthening institutional relationships between producers and users of LMI within national labour market information and analysis systems.
- *Addressing slow job growth barriers*: programmes that aim to boost job creation, especially for young people; public works programmes and tax cut incentives for business that hire long-term unemployed are examples.
- *Financial and macroeconomic policies*: Ultimately, job growth will not come from labour market policies alone. Additional measures are needed to remove the obstacles to growth, such as: accelerating the repair of the financial sector balance sheets, including bank restructuring

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<sup>4</sup> National Youth Council: “Youth Unemployment in Ireland: The Forgotten Generation” (Dublin, January 2011); [http://www.youth.ie/sites/youth.ie/files/Youth\\_Unemployment\\_in\\_Ireland\\_web.pdf](http://www.youth.ie/sites/youth.ie/files/Youth_Unemployment_in_Ireland_web.pdf).

<sup>5</sup> For an evaluation of lessons learned in youth employment programmes, see GET Youth 2010, chapter 4. Additionally, readers might be interested in Annex 2 of the document, which provides an inventory of crisis response interventions directly affecting youth employment, by country.

and recapitalization to relaunch credit to small and medium sized firms; reducing the instability in the euro area; reducing the inventories of non-performing mortgages in the US financial institutions and reactivation of housing markets; and real progress in global demand re-balancing based on effective measures by the G20. Addressing these various macroeconomic and financial policy challenges is essential for paving the way to stronger output and employment growth.

### ***... and respond to pressure to prioritize youth employment.***

In the GET Youth 2010, the ILO warned against pulling back too soon on the active labour market policies and programmes that had been set in place or scaled up in reaction to the economic crisis. If young people, one of the population groups where recovery in the labour market is known to lag, are to benefit, it is not enough to give the economy a little boost and then step back and let the recovery take its own course to eventually absorb the bulk of young jobseekers. Such an approach might have worked if the current recession was not proving to be as deep and structurally rooted as it is. The reality now is that short term fixes are not enough. Sustained support of young people, through expansion of the social protection system, long term investment in education and training, hiring subsidies to promote employment of young people, employment intensive investment, sectoral policy, etc. is needed now more than ever. While this is challenging for governments to deliver in light of the current budget constraints and high debt levels, a good balance must be found between these urgent investment and social needs and the medium term-fiscal consolidation and long-term debt sustainability imperatives. Box 1 describes, in brief, certain policy priorities that could help prevent the current youth jobs crisis from becoming structural.

Political pressure to prevent the disheartening of a “lost generation” is likely to increase over the short term and governments may be forced to shift priorities. Ideally, non-State actors, such as the private sector, trade unions and employers’ organizations, would also play more of an active role in addressing the youth employment challenge. Increasingly, enterprises are recognizing that investing in youth makes perfect business sense. Many companies have gotten involved by setting up training or mentoring programmes that target under-privileged youth, for example. Others open their doors to apprentices or interns, thus giving them a chance to build up work experience and establish networks that could lead to future employment. Increasingly, enterprises or foundations engage in public-private-partnerships around specific topics where they can hope to contribute to future development.

### Box 1. Recommended policy measures for promoting youth employment

Many governments are actively engaged in finding solutions, although the severity of the situation of young people in the labour market requires more attention and policy action. The following actions could be considered as a basis for tailoring youth employment interventions to the national situation:

*Develop an integrated strategy for growth and job creation to ensure long-term, sustained and concerted action for the promotion of decent work for young people.* Assigning priority to youth employment requires a coherent policy framework, with measurable targets and achievable outcomes, that addresses youth employment in national development strategies and employment policies.

*Establish broad-based partnerships to turn youth employment commitment into reality.* Partnerships among governments, employer organizations, trade unions and other organizations can be instrumental in determining the most appropriate action to be taken at national and local levels for the promotion of decent work for young people. Action plans on youth employment can be used as a tool for the conversion of youth employment priorities into concrete action and to strengthen the coordination of youth employment interventions.

*Improve the quality of jobs and the competitiveness of enterprises* with a view to increasing the number of jobs in productive sectors and ensuring job quality for the many young people who are currently engaged in precarious jobs, especially in the informal economy. Together with labour legislation, these measures can reduce labour market segmentation based on the type of contract and job and can help young people move to decent jobs.

*Invest in the quality of education and training and improve its relevance to labour market needs.* Education and training programmes that equip young people with the skills required by the labour market are an important element in facilitating the transition of young people to decent work. These programmes should be based on broad skills that are related to occupational needs and are recognized by enterprises, and should include work experience components. Policy coherence and more effective coordination across education and training systems and labour market institutions should be pursued at all levels, including between Ministries of Education and of Labour, as well as public employment services, private employment agencies and education and training providers.

*Enhance the design and increase funding of active labour market policies to support the implementation of national youth employment priorities.* Active labour market policies and programmes (ALMPs) programmes should offer a comprehensive package of services with a view to facilitating the transition of youth to decent work. Standard types of ALMPs based on single measures are unlikely to work for discouraged youth or for young workers engaged in the informal economy, especially during crisis and post-crisis periods. The effectiveness of these measures could be greatly improved by introducing mechanisms that target disadvantaged youth and by piloting programmes and assessing their results prior to their implementation on a larger scale. Funding for these measures should be increased to ensure greater support during the post-crisis period. Lack of support for these employment measures would have dramatic consequences for the current generation of young people.

*Review the provision of employment services with the objective of offering a set of standard services to all young people and more intensive assistance to disadvantaged youth.* Public employment services should re-orient their services to offer “standard” support to all young jobseekers (for example, self-service, group counseling and job search techniques, including employment planning) and more intensive and targeted assistance for “hard-to-place” youth. Early interventions based on profiling techniques and outreach programmes should be developed at the local level to make the services more relevant to young people and to assist enterprises in the recruitment process. Partnerships between employment services and private employment agencies are important to support young people in their job search. Partnerships between labour offices and municipal authorities, the social partners, social services and civil society organizations are required to improve the targeting of young discouraged people and young workers engaged in the informal economy who do not usually fall within the reach of the public employment service.

*Pursue financial and macroeconomic policies that aim to remove obstacles to economic recovery:* Job growth will not come from labour market policies alone. Additional financial and macroeconomic measures, including bank and debt restructuring, are needed to remove the obstacles to growth.

## Annex World and regional tables

The source of all tables is ILO, Trends Econometric Models, September 2011. See website [http://www.ilo.org/empelm/projects/WCMS\\_114246/lang-en/index.htm](http://www.ilo.org/empelm/projects/WCMS_114246/lang-en/index.htm) for more information on methodology.

**Table 1. Global GDP growth, youth unemployment and unemployment rates, 2007-11**

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011 p
Annual real GDP growth (%)	5.4	2.7	-0.7	5.0	3.9
Youth unemployment (millions)	70.5	71.3	75.8	75.1	74.6
Youth unemployment rate (%)	11.6	11.8	12.7	12.7	12.6

p = projection

**Table 2. Change in youth unemployment and unemployment rates between 1998 and 2008 and between 2008 and 2010, by region**

	Change in youth unemployment (%), 1998-2008	Change in youth unemployment (percentage point), 1998-2008	Change in youth unemployment (%), 2008-2010	Change in youth unemployment (percentage point), 2008-2010
WORLD	0.2	-0.7	5.3	0.9
Developed Economies & European Union	-12.2	-1.0	27.1	4.6
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	-22.5	-5.5	8.4	2.3
East Asia	-4.7	-0.5	-3.6	-0.1
South-East Asia & the Pacific	24.5	2.0	-5.4	-0.6
South Asia	1.4	-0.5	10.9	1.4
Latin America & the Caribbean	-9.8	-1.9	5.1	0.8
Middle East	31.9	1.9	-1.7	-0.3
North Africa	-3.9	-3.3	0.6	0.5
Sub-Saharan Africa	18.7	-1.3	3.6	-0.1

**Table 3. Youth labour force participation rate, by region, 1998, 2008-10**

	Total (%)				Male (%)			Female (%)		
	1998	2008	2009	2010	1998	2008	2009	1998	2008	2010
WORLD	53.8	50.1	49.4	48.8	61.5	57.8	57.0	45.7	41.9	40.8
Developed Economies & European Union	52.6	50.0	48.8	47.5	55.5	52.3	50.8	49.6	47.5	45.5
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	43.3	42.1	42.3	42.0	49.5	49.4	49.5	36.9	34.5	34.4
East Asia	68.5	60.8	60.6	60.3	65.2	59.6	59.4	72.0	62.1	61.8
South-East Asia & the Pacific	53.9	53.0	52.7	52.5	60.1	60.0	59.8	47.5	45.8	45.2
South Asia	48.9	44.1	42.7	41.3	66.7	61.0	59.4	29.8	25.8	23.5
Latin America & the Caribbean	55.6	53.3	52.7	52.8	68.9	63.7	62.9	42.3	42.4	42.6
Middle East	32.5	30.4	30.2	30.3	51.2	47.0	46.7	13.1	12.9	12.9
North Africa	36.4	34.1	33.7	33.6	51.4	48.3	47.7	21.1	19.6	19.5
Sub-Saharan Africa	53.7	53.9	53.7	53.6	56.8	56.1	55.9	50.6	51.7	51.4

**Table 4. Youth unemployment rate, by sex and region, 1998, 2008-10**

	Total (%)				Male (%)			Female (%)		
	1998	2008	2009	2010	1998	2008	2009	1998	2008	2010
WORLD	12.5	11.8	12.7	12.7	12.4	11.7	12.6	12.7	12.1	12.9
Developed Economies & European Union	14.3	13.3	17.3	17.9	14.1	14.0	19.0	14.5	12.4	16.2
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	22.6	17.1	20.5	19.4	22.1	16.7	20.4	23.3	17.5	19.6
East Asia	9.4	8.9	9.1	8.8	11.2	10.5	10.7	7.7	7.2	7.1
South-East Asia & the Pacific	12.2	14.2	13.9	13.6	12.0	13.8	13.8	12.4	14.8	14.4
South Asia	9.0	8.5	8.8	9.9	9.0	8.4	8.7	9.0	8.8	10.8
Latin America & the Caribbean	15.6	13.7	15.7	14.4	12.7	11.0	12.9	20.3	17.6	18.3
Middle East	24.0	25.8	25.3	25.5	21.0	22.2	21.6	36.2	40.0	39.4
North Africa	26.6	23.3	24.0	23.8	24.1	19.6	19.9	32.9	32.6	34.1
Sub-Saharan Africa	13.8	12.5	12.6	12.5	12.8	11.9	11.9	15.0	13.3	13.2

**Table 5. Ratio of youth-to-adult unemployment rate, by sex and region, 1998, 2008-10**

	Total (%)				Male (%)				Female (%)			
	1998	2008	2009	2010	1998	2008	2009	2010	1998	2008	2009	2010
WORLD	2.7	2.9	2.7	2.8	2.8	3.0	2.8	2.9	2.5	2.7	2.6	2.6
Developed Economies & European Union	2.4	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.6	2.9	2.6	2.5	2.2	2.4	2.3	2.2
Central & South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS	2.3	2.5	2.4	2.5	2.3	2.4	2.3	2.4	2.3	2.7	2.6	2.6
East Asia	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.8	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.7
South-East Asia & the Pacific	4.8	4.6	4.6	4.9	4.8	4.6	4.5	5.1	4.8	4.7	4.7	4.7
South Asia	3.8	3.7	3.7	4.5	4.0	4.0	4.0	5.2	3.2	3.0	3.1	3.4
Latin America & the Caribbean	2.6	2.9	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.9	2.7	2.8	2.6	2.8	2.8	2.7
Middle East	3.9	4.0	4.0	4.1	4.0	4.2	4.2	4.4	3.2	3.3	3.3	3.2
North Africa	3.5	3.8	3.9	3.8	3.6	4.0	4.0	4.0	3.0	3.3	3.4	3.4
Sub-Saharan Africa	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0

**Table 6. Youth unemployment rate, long-term unemployment rate, part-time employment rate and time-related underemployment rate in available countries in the Developed Economies & European Union region, 2007 and 2010**

Country	Unemployment rate (%)		Long-term unemployment rate (%)		Part-time employment rate (%)		Time-related underemployment rate (%)	
	2007	2010	2007	2010	2007	2010	2007	2010
Australia	9.4	11.5	0.9	1.5	40.5	43.2	12.6	14.5
Austria	8.7	8.8	1.1	1.5	14.4	15.9	2.0	1.5
Belgium	18.8	22.4	5.6	6.7	16.8	18.0	3.9	3.5
Bulgaria	15.1	23.2	6.3	9.7	2.9	5.0	n.a.	n.a.
Canada	11.2	14.8	0.2	0.6	44.8	48.1	6.0	7.8
Cyprus	10.3	16.6	2.4	2.8	10.3	14.8	n.a.	n.a.
Czech Republic	10.7	18.3	3.6	4.4	4.1	7.6	0.6	0.6

Note: The latest year for the time-related underemployment rate is 2009.

Source: ILO: *Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 7th Edition* (Geneva, 2011), tables 6, 9, 10 and 12.



Table 6. (continued)

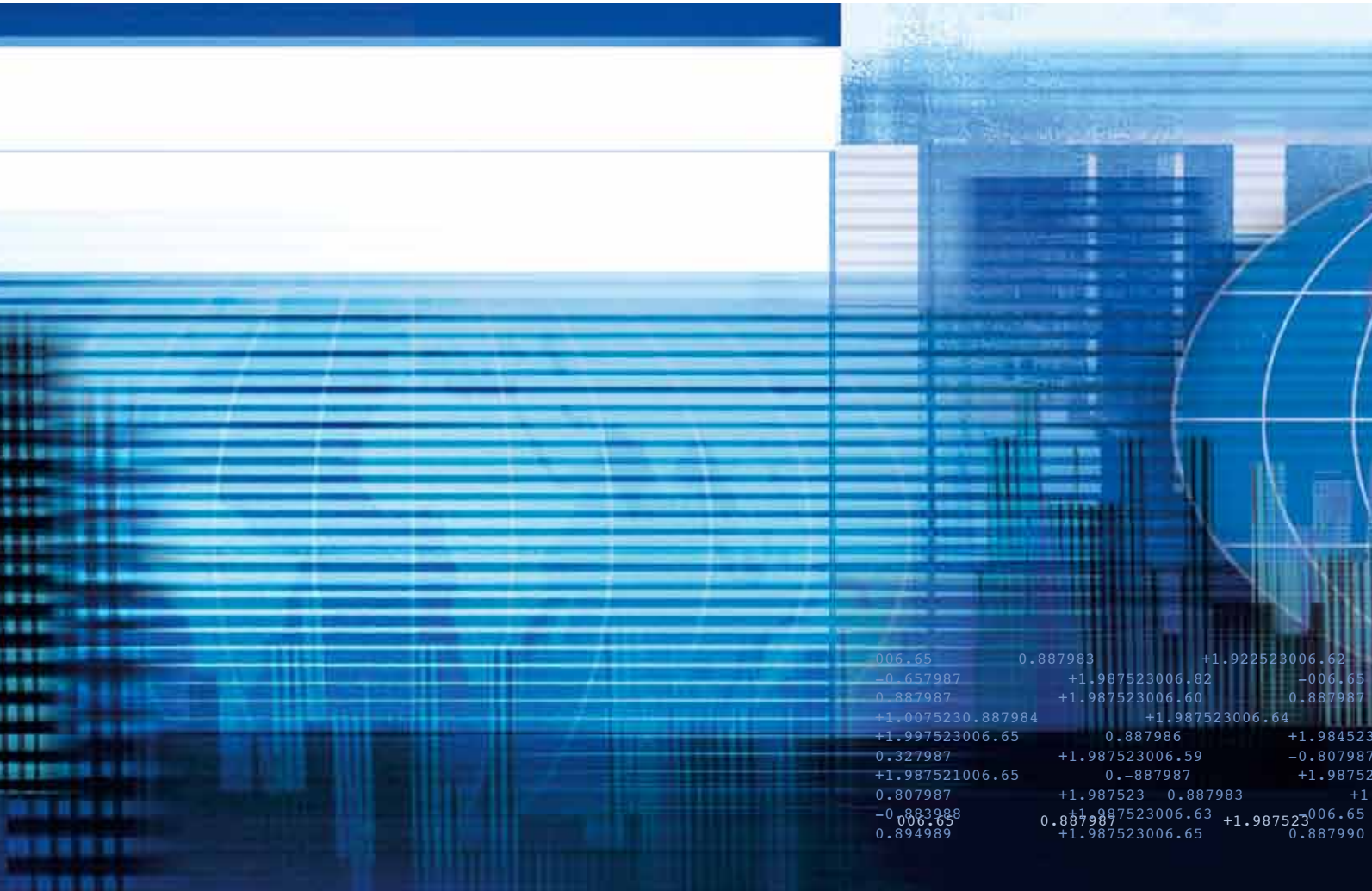
Country	Unemployment rate (%)		Long-term unemployment rate (%)		Part-time employment rate (%)		Time-related underemployment rate (%)	
	2007	2010	2007	2010	2007	2010	2007	2010
Denmark	7.9	13.8	0.4	0.8	52.0	59.1	2.3	3.4
Estonia	10.0	33.0	3.0	n.a.	10.0	18.1	n.a.	n.a.
Finland	15.7	20.3	0.8	1.5	31.4	34.0	4.3	6.6
France	18.9	22.5	4.4	6.5	17.1	17.6	4.9	4.7
Germany	11.7	9.7	3.6	2.6	18.2	17.6	3.3	2.6
Greece	22.9	32.9	9.5	11.7	10.6	14.5	3.5	3.6
Hungary	18.0	26.6	6.7	10.7	3.5	4.8	0.9	1.0
Iceland	7.2	16.2	1.5	n.a.	36.3	45.5	n.a.	n.a.
Ireland	9.0	27.5	1.8	10.9	22.5	39.5	n.a.	3.5
Italy	20.3	27.8	8.1	12.2	16.7	21.5	6.0	7.7
Japan	7.7	9.2	1.5	2.5	25.5	29.0	6.1	9.2
Latvia	25.6	13.5	1.1	11.5	12.9	13.8	n.a.	n.a.
Lithuania	20.4	15.7	1.5	10.8	9.3	11.1	n.a.	n.a.
Luxembourg	15.2	14.2	3.5	3.7	3.9	14.4	1.4	2.2
Malta	14.0	13.1	n.a.	n.a.	15.1	17.1	n.a.	n.a.
Netherlands	5.9	8.7	0.7	1.0	61.4	65.2	2.1	2.5
New Zealand	10.1	17.1	0.2	0.7	39.3	41.3	8.0	10.0
Norway	7.3	9.3	0.2	0.3	46.0	48.9	1.7	1.3
Poland	21.7	23.7	6.5	3.7	14.2	12.4	1.5	1.5
Portugal	16.6	22.3	4.6	6.8	8.2	11.2	2.9	3.4
Romania	20.1	22.1	9.7	7.5	15.6	17.3	n.a.	n.a.
Slovakia	20.1	33.6	10.8	16.9	3.0	7.7	0.4	1.5
Slovenia	10.1	14.7	3.0	4.9	26.6	36.7	n.a.	n.a.

Table 6. (continued)

Country	Unemployment rate (%)		Long-term unemployment rate (%)		Part-time employment rate (%)		Time-related underemployment rate (%)	
	2007	2010	2007	2010	2007	2010	2007	2010
Spain	18.2	41.6	2.4	14.6	19.5	28.3	4.8	6.5
Sweden	18.8	25.2	0.6	1.5	34.7	37.9	7.8	9.0
Switzerland	7.1	7.2	n.a.	n.a.	18.9	18.8	n.a.	n.a.
United Kingdom	14.4	19.1	2.4	4.6	32.3	37.4	3.2	2.2
United States	10.5	18.4	0.7	3.4	34.0	38.1	1.9	3.1

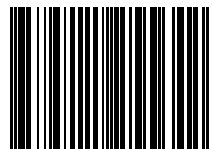
Note: The latest year for the time-related underemployment rate is 2009.

Source: ILO: *Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 7th Edition* (Geneva, 2011), tables 6, 9, 10 and 12.



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0.327987	+1.987523006.59	-0.807987
+1.987521006.65	0.-887987	+1.98752
0.807987	+1.987523	0.887983
-0.883988	0.887987	+1.987523006.63
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