

Work For All Or Mass Unemployment

Unemployment

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Unemployment, according to the OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development), is the proportion of people above a specified age (usually 15) not being in paid employment or self-employment but currently available for work during the reference period.

Unemployment is measured by the unemployment rate, which is the number of people who are unemployed as a percentage of the labour force (the total number of people employed added to those unemployed).

Unemployment can have many sources, such as the following:

the status of the economy, which can be influenced by a recession

competition caused by globalization and international trade

new technologies and inventions

policies of the government

regulation and market

war, civil disorder, and natural disasters

Unemployment and the status of the economy can be influenced by a country through, for example, fiscal policy. Furthermore, the monetary authority of a country, such as the central bank, can influence the availability and cost for money through its monetary policy.

In addition to theories of unemployment, a few categorisations of unemployment are used for more precisely modelling the effects of unemployment within the economic system. Some of the main types of unemployment include structural unemployment, frictional unemployment, cyclical unemployment, involuntary unemployment and classical unemployment. Structural unemployment focuses on foundational problems in the economy and inefficiencies inherent in labor markets, including a mismatch between the supply and demand of laborers with necessary skill sets. Structural arguments emphasize causes and solutions related to disruptive technologies and globalization. Discussions of frictional unemployment focus on voluntary decisions to work based on individuals' valuation of their own work and how that compares to current wage rates added to the time and effort required to find a job. Causes and solutions for frictional unemployment often address job entry threshold and wage rates.

According to the UN's International Labour Organization (ILO), there were 172 million people worldwide (or 5% of the reported global workforce) without work in 2018.

Because of the difficulty in measuring the unemployment rate by, for example, using surveys (as in the United States) or through registered unemployed citizens (as in some European countries), statistical figures such as the employment-to-population ratio might be more suitable for evaluating the status of the workforce and the economy if they were based on people who are registered, for example, as taxpayers.

Technological unemployment

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The term technological unemployment is used to describe the loss of jobs caused by technological change. It is a key type of structural unemployment. Technological change typically includes the introduction of labour-saving "mechanical-muscle" machines or more efficient "mechanical-mind" processes (automation), and humans' role in these processes are minimized. Just as horses were gradually made obsolete as transport by the automobile and as labourer by the tractor, humans' jobs have also been affected throughout modern history. Historical examples include artisan weavers reduced to poverty after the introduction of mechanized looms (See: Luddites). Thousands of man-years of work was performed in a matter of hours by the bombe codebreaking machine during World War II. A contemporary example of technological unemployment is the displacement of retail cashiers by self-service tills and cashierless stores.

That technological change can cause short-term job losses is widely accepted. The view that it can lead to lasting increases in unemployment has long been controversial. Participants in the technological unemployment debates can be broadly divided into optimists and pessimists. Optimists agree that innovation may be disruptive to jobs in the short term, yet hold that various compensation effects ensure there is never a long-term negative impact on jobs, whereas pessimists contend that at least in some circumstances, new technologies can lead to a lasting decline in the total number of workers in employment. The phrase "technological unemployment" was popularised by John Maynard Keynes in the 1930s, who said it was "only a temporary phase of maladjustment". The issue of machines displacing human labour has been discussed since at least Aristotle's time.

Prior to the 18th century, both the elite and common people would generally take the pessimistic view on technological unemployment, at least in cases where the issue arose. Due to generally low unemployment in much of pre-modern history, the topic was rarely a prominent concern. In the 18th century fears over the impact of machinery on jobs intensified with the growth of mass unemployment, especially in Great Britain which was then at the forefront of the Industrial Revolution. Yet some economic thinkers began to argue against these fears, claiming that overall innovation would not have negative effects on jobs. These arguments were formalised in the early 19th century by the classical economists. During the second half of the 19th century, it stayed apparent that technological progress was benefiting all sections of society, including the working class. Concerns over the negative impact of innovation diminished. The term "Luddite fallacy" was coined to describe the thinking that innovation would have lasting harmful effects on employment.

The view that technology is unlikely to lead to long-term unemployment has been repeatedly challenged by a minority of economists. In the early 1800s these included David Ricardo. There were dozens of economists warning about technological unemployment during brief intensifications of the debate that spiked in the 1930s and 1960s. Especially in Europe, there were further warnings in the closing two decades of the twentieth century, as commentators noted an enduring rise in unemployment suffered by many industrialised nations since the 1970s. Yet a clear majority of both professional economists and the interested general public held the optimistic view through most of the 20th century.

Advances in artificial intelligence (AI) have reignited debates about the possibility of mass unemployment, or even the end of employment altogether. Some experts, such as Geoffrey Hinton, believe that the development of artificial general intelligence and advanced robotics will eventually enable the automation of all intellectual and physical tasks, suggesting the need for a basic income for non-workers to subsist. Others, like Daron Acemoglu, argue that humans will remain necessary for certain tasks, or complementary to AI, disrupting the labor market without necessarily causing mass unemployment. The World Bank's 2019 World Development Report argues that while automation displaces workers, technological innovation creates more new industries and jobs on balance.

Unemployment in the United States

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Unemployment in the United States discusses the causes and measures of U.S. unemployment and strategies for reducing it. Job creation and unemployment are affected by factors such as economic conditions, global competition, education, automation, and demographics. These factors can affect the number of workers, the duration of unemployment, and wage levels.

Arbeit macht frei

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Arbeit macht frei ([ʔaʔbaʔt ʔmaxt ʔfʔaʔ]) is a German phrase translated as "Work makes one free" or, more idiomatically, "Work sets you free" or "Work liberates".

The phrase originates from the title of an 1873 novel by Lorenz Diefenbach and alludes to John 8:31–32. Following the Nazi Party's rise to power in 1933, the phrase became a slogan used in programs implemented to combat mass unemployment in Germany.

Post World War II, it is primarily known for its use above the entrance of Auschwitz and other Nazi concentration camps. Because prisoners performed forced labor under horrific conditions, the phrase has come to be understood as meaning that the only way for prisoners to gain a sort of freedom was to work until they died.

Christopher Freeman

3rd edn. (co-author with Luc Soete), Pinter, London, 1997. Work for All or Mass Unemployment?: Computerised Technical Change in the Twenty-First Century

Christopher Freeman (11 September 1921 – 16 August 2010) was a British economist, recognised as one of the founders of the post-war school of Innovation Studies. He played a lead role in the development of the neo-Schumpeterian tradition focusing on the crucial role of innovation for economic development and of scientific and technological activities for well-being.

Freeman was the founder and first Director, from 1966 to 1982, of SPRU, the Science Policy Research Unit of the University of Sussex, England, and RM Phillips Professor of Science Policy and later professor emeritus of at the University of Sussex. In 1986, on his formal retirement, he became visiting professor at the Aalborg University in Denmark and professorial fellow at the now Maastricht University in the Netherlands.

With various colleagues, Freeman made pioneering contributions to Innovation Studies in a number of respects. As consultant for the OECD, he was responsible for the development of 'The Frascati Manual', the first program designed to collect and standardize the statistics on R&D which resulted in the development of now commonly used science and technology indicators at OECD. He helped to shape a tradition of research into firm-based innovation during the early 1970s and was a prominent participant in the discussion around the influential Club of Rome's Limits to Growth Report, arguing presciently that the response to environmental degradation required a reformulation of the character of economic growth rather than the elimination of economic growth. With colleagues he played a lead role in recognising the historic significance of the development of microelectronic based technologies. This matured into the development of what has come to be called the Techno-Economic Paradigm theory of long waves, building on Kondratieff long wave theory. In collaboration with Carlota Perez (whom he subsequently married), Luc Soete and Francisco Louçã he made path-breaking contributions to this field.

In the early 1990s, together with B.-Å. Lundvall, Freeman developed the concept of National System of Innovation which is widely used to understand the multiple drivers of innovation paths in different countries, regions and sectors. Throughout his career and influenced by John Desmond Bernal, his mentor at the London School of Economics where he studied after demobilisation after World War II, Freeman fused an analysis of the determinants of innovation in contemporary capitalism with an abiding interest in the social shaping and impact of economic growth. As a natural consequence of this, Freeman had a deep commitment to the understanding and promotion of an equitable path of economic growth in the developing world (as seen in the Sussex Manifesto).

As a consequence of these significant and wide-ranging contributions, Freeman interacted with and mentored a number of economists and social scientists such as Geoffrey Oldham, Keith Pavitt, Luc Soete, Carlota Perez, B.-Å. Lundvall, Francisco Louçã, Martin Bell, Daniele Archibugi, Giovanni Dosi, Julian Perry Robinson and Jan Fagerberg. His intellectual legacy has extended to almost every continent through SPRU graduates, some of whom have applied his thinking to the role of innovation in development in Africa, Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean. Programs that have their origins in his work can be traced at leading public policy institutions such as the Belfer Center for Science and International Affairs at Harvard Kennedy School, where one of his influential African students Calestous Juma played a leading role.

Unemployment in the United Kingdom

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In the three-month figures (July to September 2022) the unemployment rate was estimated at 3.6%, which is 0.2 percentage points lower than the previous three-month period. The ONS said the employment rate, or percentage of people in work for those aged between 16 and 64, was estimated to be 75.5%. This was largely unchanged compared with the previous three-month period and 1.1 percentage points lower than before the pandemic (December 2019 to February 2020). The economic inactivity rate (is the proportion of people aged between 16 and 64 years who are not in the labour force) is 21.6%, an increase of 0.2 percentage points on the quarter

The figures are compiled through the Labour Force Survey, which asks a sample of 53,000 households and is conducted every 3 months.

Unemployment levels and rates are published each month by the Office for National Statistics in the Labour Market Statistical Bulletin. Estimates are available by sex, age, duration of unemployment and by area of the UK.

2025 Bihar Legislative Assembly election

socio-economic issues. Unemployment and migration were prominent themes: parties noted that many Bihar youth migrate out of state for work, and competing manifestos

The 2025 Bihar Legislative Assembly election for all 243 constituencies is scheduled to be held on October or November 2025. It will be conducted by the Election Commission of India.

Reserve army of labour

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Reserve army of labour is a concept in Karl Marx's critique of political economy. It refers to the unemployed and underemployed in capitalist society. It is synonymous with "industrial reserve army" or "relative surplus population", except that the unemployed can be defined as those actually looking for work and that the relative surplus population also includes people unable to work. The use of the word "army" refers to the workers being conscripted and regimented in the workplace in a hierarchy under the command or authority of the owners of capital.

Marx did not invent the term "reserve army of labour". It was already being used by Friedrich Engels in his 1845 book *The Condition of the Working Class in England*. What Marx did was theorize the reserve army of labour as a necessary part of the capitalist organization of work.

Prior to what Marx regarded as the start of the capitalist era in human history (i.e. before the 16th century), structural unemployment on a mass scale rarely existed, other than that caused by natural disasters and wars. In ancient societies, all people who could work necessarily had to work, otherwise they would starve; and a slave or a serf by definition could not become "unemployed". There was normally very little possibility of "earning a crust" without working at all, and the usual attitude toward beggars and idlers was harsh. Children began to work at a very early age.

Lump of labour fallacy

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In economics, the lump of labour fallacy is the misconception that there is a finite amount of work—a lump of labour—to be done within an economy which can be distributed to create more or fewer jobs. It is also known as the lump of jobs fallacy, fallacy of labour scarcity, fixed pie fallacy, and the zero-sum fallacy—due to its ties to zero-sum games. The term "fixed pie fallacy" is also used more generally to refer to the idea that there is a fixed amount of wealth in the world. This and other zero-sum fallacies can be caused by zero-sum bias.

It was considered a fallacy in 1891 by economist David Frederick Schloss, who held that the amount of work is not fixed. The term originated to rebut the idea that reducing the number of hours employees are allowed to labour during the working day would lead to a reduction in unemployment. The term is also commonly used to describe the false belief that increasing labour productivity, automation, immigration, or women's participation in the workforce causes an increase in unemployment. The facts show that just like the amount of labor is not fixed, neither is the size of the economy (fixed pie fallacy) and as more work is done, the economy grows.

Unemployment insurance in the United States

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Unemployment insurance in the United States, colloquially referred to as unemployment benefits, refers to social insurance programs which replace a portion of wages for individuals during unemployment. The first unemployment insurance program in the U.S. was created in Wisconsin in 1932, and the federal Social Security Act of 1935 created programs nationwide that are administered by state governments. The constitutionality of the program was upheld by the Supreme Court in 1937.

Each of the 50 U.S. states, as well as the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and U.S. Virgin Islands, administer their own unemployment insurance programs. Benefits are generally paid by state governments, funded in large part by state and federal payroll taxes levied on employers, to workers who have become unemployed through no fault of their own. Employees in Alaska, New Jersey and Pennsylvania are also required to contribute into the program. Benefit amounts for eligible workers vary by state, ranging from

maximum weekly payments of \$1,015 in Massachusetts to \$235 in Mississippi as of 2022. According to the Internal Revenue Code, these benefits are classified as "social welfare benefits" and as such are included in a taxpayer's gross income. The standard duration of available unemployment compensation is six months, although extensions are possible during economic downturns. During the Great Recession, unemployment benefits were extended by 73 weeks.

Eligibility requirements for unemployment insurance vary by state, but generally speaking, employees not fired for misconduct ("terminated for cause") are eligible for unemployment benefits, while those fired for misconduct (this sometimes can include misconduct committed outside the workplace, such as a problematic social media post or committing a crime) are not. In every state, employees who quit their job without "good cause" are not eligible for unemployment benefits, but the definition of good cause varies by state. In some states, being fired for misconduct completely invalidates the employee's unemployment claim, while in others it only disqualifies the employee from receiving unemployment benefits for a short period.

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