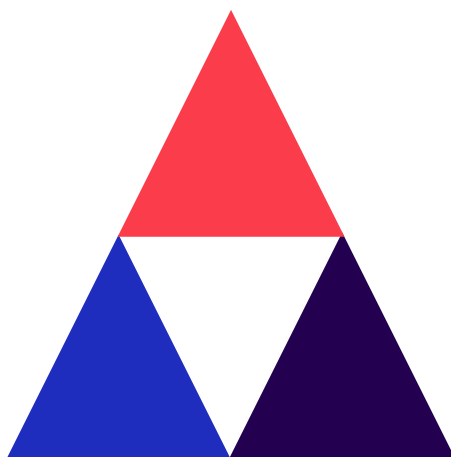


## ► Meeting report

**Technical meeting on the future of decent and sustainable work  
in urban transport services**  
(Geneva, 30 August–3 September 2021)



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## ► Acronyms and abbreviations

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app	online application
ATU	Amalgamated Transit Union
ETF	European Transport Workers' Federation
EU	European Union
GLI	Global Labour Institute
ILO	International Labour Organization
ISIC	International Standard Industrial Classification of All Economic Activities
ITF	International Transport Workers' Federation
ITU	International Telecommunication Union
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OECD-ITF	OECD International Transport Forum
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
UITP	International Association of Public Transport
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNECE	United Nations Economic Commission for Europe
UN-Habitat	United Nations Human Settlements Programme



## ► Introduction

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At its 335th Session (March 2019), the Governing Body of the International Labour Office decided to endorse the proposed programme of global sectoral meetings for 2020–21 recommended by the sectoral advisory bodies, including a technical meeting on the future of decent and sustainable work in urban transport services.<sup>1</sup> At its 337th Session (October–November 2019), the Governing Body endorsed the proposed purpose of the meeting,<sup>2</sup> namely, to “discuss challenges and solutions relating to the future of decent and sustainable work in urban passenger transport operations and services, with the aim of adopting conclusions, including recommendations for future action”.<sup>3</sup> It further endorsed the proposed composition of the meeting, to include all Governments; eight Employer and eight Worker representatives appointed on the basis of nominations made by their respective groups of the Governing Body; advisers; observers; and official international organizations and non-governmental international organizations as observers.

This report is published under the authority of the International Labour Office. It has been prepared as the basis for discussions at the Technical meeting on the future of decent and sustainable work in urban transport services, scheduled to be held from 30 August to 3 September 2021 in Geneva. This report, on urban passenger transport, focuses in particular on “public transport”,<sup>4</sup> “mobile” and “informal transport” workers.<sup>5</sup> In keeping with the purpose of the meeting, it excludes the study of the working conditions of urban freight transport services workers.

Part 1 reviews the nature, structure and economic conditions of urban passenger transport services and presents relevant global employment data. It highlights relevant international issues relating to urban passenger transport, which play a fundamental role in overcoming social exclusion, empowering women through access to jobs and improving the lives of vulnerable populations. Part 2 includes information on the drivers of transformative change, since the discussion of the future of work in this sector requires an understanding of mega-trends with respect to technological changes, demographic shifts and urbanization, climate change and globalization. Parts 1 and 2 provide the background and context for Part 3, which discusses labour aspects of urban passenger transport services and is structured around the four pillars of the

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<sup>1</sup> GB.335/PV, para. 725(g).

<sup>2</sup> GB.337/PV, para. 627(d).

<sup>3</sup> GB.337/POL/2, 5.

<sup>4</sup> As defined in United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat), *SDG Indicators Metadata Repository – Target 11.2*, 2016, 3. “Public transport is defined as a shared passenger transport service that is available to the general public. It includes cars, buses, trolleys, trams, trains, subways, and ferries that are shared by strangers without prior arrangement. However, it excludes taxis, car pools, and hired buses, which are not shared by strangers without prior arrangement. It also excludes informal, unregulated modes of transport (para-transit), motorcycle taxis, three-wheelers, etc. Public transport refers to a public service that is considered as a public good that has well designed ‘stops’ for passengers to embark and disembark in a safe manner and demarcated ‘routes’ that are both officially and/or formally recognized.”

<sup>5</sup> As defined in Robert Cervero, *Informal Transport in the Developing World* (UN-Habitat, 2000), 1–3. “Privately operated, small-scale services are variously referred to as ‘paratransit’, ‘low-cost transport’, ... ‘informal transport’.” It includes for-hire motorized or non-motorized vehicle services and mostly refers to “the context in which this sector operates – informally and illicitly, somewhat in the background, and outside the officially sanctioned public transport sector”.

Decent Work Agenda, namely, employment, social protection, social dialogue, and international labour standards and fundamental principles and rights at work.



## ► 1. Urban passenger transport services

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1. Transport is a driver as well as a marker of development; it can enable individuals and communities to rise out of poverty and overcome social exclusion.<sup>6</sup> Cities and urban agglomerations play a critical role in several aspects of effective and sustainable mobility and urban passenger transport services. Urban mobility access can serve to combat inequality and promote environmental justice as well as health, social justice and gender equality in cities. Sustainable mobility in cities will become increasingly important given the core commitment of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development to leaving no one behind. Urban passenger transport services can facilitate the achievement of many of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) set out in the 2030 Agenda. Urban passenger transport mobility is one of the foundations of the functioning and inclusive development of cities and territories.

### 1.1. Relevant international issues

#### Basic services, equal access and public service delivery

2. Urban passenger transport services act as a catalyst and an enabler of other rights, including economic, social and cultural development rights. According to the Habitat Agenda, transport services and facilities constitute a basic service to which all should have equal access. Local and state/provincial authorities are responsible for the delivery of such services, with the support of central government; governments are responsible for decentralizing responsibilities and resources to the relevant local authorities. A host of other actors, including private sector, community and non-governmental actors, can provide transport facilities under the coordination of governments.<sup>7</sup> Indeed, in certain countries, informal urban passenger transport services may be more prevalent than formal public transport. Appendix I provides a snapshot of the share of major transport means used to meet individual mobility needs in selected cities.
3. Urban passenger transport services may be delivered under public or private ownership and/or operation. "Available evidence suggests that there is no necessary correlation between efficiency and quality of public services and decentralization and privatization. In certain cases, improvements in quality and efficiency of public services have been achieved. The cases where these reforms have been successful have involved extensive social dialogue, transparency, adequate supervisory frameworks, open contracts and arrangements where employees have been protected. In other cases these reforms have led to reductions in the quality of public services and even increased costs."<sup>8</sup> In recent

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<sup>6</sup> United Nations, *Mobilizing Sustainable Transport for Development: Analysis and Policy Recommendations from the United Nations Secretary-General's High-Level Advisory Group on Sustainable Transport*, 2016, 9.

<sup>7</sup> United Nations, Report of the United Nations Conference on Human Settlements (HABITAT II), A/CONF.165/14, 1996, para. 84.

<sup>8</sup> ILO, "Conclusions on the Impact of Decentralization and Privatization on Municipal Services" in *Note on the Proceedings: Joint Meeting on the Impact of Decentralization and Privatization on Municipal Services*, JMMS/2001/10, 2001, 30-34; 31, para. 4.

years, a number of privatized public transport services have returned to public sector ownership (re-municipalization) in some countries.<sup>9</sup>

## Sustainable cities

4. Sustainable urban passenger transport systems are crucial to the achievement of sustainable cities and communities.<sup>10</sup> In 2015, they were embedded in SDG 11 – Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable – in a dedicated target, as shown in table 1.1.

► **Table 1.1. SDG target 11.2 and indicator 11.2.1**

SDG target 11.2	Indicator 11.2.1
By 2030, provide access to safe, affordable, accessible and sustainable transport systems for all, improving road safety, notably by expanding public transport, with special attention to the needs of those in vulnerable situations, women, children, persons with disabilities and older persons	Proportion of population that has convenient access to public transport, by sex, age and persons with disabilities

5. The New Urban Agenda was adopted by the United Nations Conference on Housing and Sustainable Urban Development (HABITAT III) in Quito, Ecuador on 20 October 2016. The Agenda recognizes the correlation between sound urbanization and development and acknowledges the centrality of sustainable and accessible mobility and transport building around innovative and inclusive planning, formalization, environmental justice and territorial integration, climate change, public health and safe, accessible transport.

## Road safety

6. Road traffic crashes kill more than 1.35 million people every year, with over 90 per cent of these casualties occurring in low- and middle-income countries.<sup>11</sup> Current global road safety goals are shown in table 1.2.

► **Table 1.2. SDG target 3.6 and indicator 3.6.1**

SDG target 3.6	Indicator 3.6.1
By 2020,* halve the number of global deaths and injuries from road traffic accidents	Death rate due to road traffic injuries
* Extended to 2030 by UN General Assembly resolution 74/299, <i>Improving global road safety</i> , A/RES/74/299 (2020), para. 3.	

<sup>9</sup> Satoko Kishimoto, Olivier Petitjean and Lavinia Steinfort, *Reclaiming Public Services: How Cities and Citizens are Turning Back Privatisation*, Transnational Institute, 2017, 6. See also United Nations, *Report of the Special Rapporteur on extreme poverty and human rights (Privatization)*, A/73/396, 2018, para. 12.

<sup>10</sup> International Association of Public Transport (UITP), *Mobility and the SDGs: A Safe, Affordable, Accessible and Sustainable Transport System for All*, May 2019, 2.

<sup>11</sup> World Health Organization, "Road Traffic Injuries", Fact sheet, 2020.

7. Safe urban passenger transport services contribute to general safe and healthy working conditions in that they contribute to work-related road safety and reduce the incidence of commuting accidents.<sup>12</sup>

## Gender equality

8. The achievement of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls under SDG 5 is integral to the achievement of the other SDGs, and the expansion and improvement of urban passenger transport services can contribute to these objectives.<sup>13</sup> In low- and middle-income countries in particular, women rely heavily on public transport but their limited access to or exclusion from public transport, whether due to overcrowded buses or inadequate sidewalks, hinders their access to health services, education and the workplace, among others.<sup>14</sup> Conversely, the availability of safe and reliable transport services affords them better access to social and economic opportunities.

## 1.2. Types of services and modal split

9. Most cities have a range of heterogeneous formal and/or informal transport systems.<sup>15</sup> The variety of transport modes, operations and services depends on the level of urbanization, density and transport networks, as well as on cultural factors.<sup>16</sup> There are significant differences between countries and even cities; each has its own ecosystem combining different services – from mass public transport to feeder systems and small-scale or specialized services. The United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat) describes public transport as a public good and defines it as “a shared passenger transport service ... available to the general public [that] includes cars, buses, trolleys, trams, trains, subways, and ferries ... shared by strangers without prior arrangement”.<sup>17</sup> Public transport services account for approximately 16 per cent of the total daily trips on average worldwide.<sup>18</sup>
10. In large cities, mass public transport infrastructure projects (particularly rail or metro) are expensive and politically complex and their planning, financing and implementation usually takes many years.<sup>19</sup> Generally, mass public transport options are provided by formal public or private transport operators and, in some cases, by large-scale companies. Appendix II includes information on the modal split of total public transport demand in selected cities.

<sup>12</sup> As defined in the ILO [Protocol of 2002 to the Occupational Safety and Health Convention, 1981](#), Article 1.

<sup>13</sup> United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN WOMEN), [Spotlight on Sustainable Development Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls](#), 2017.

<sup>14</sup> United Nations, “[Gender Equality and Sustainable Urbanisation: Fact Sheet](#)”, Women Watch, n.d. See also John Riverson et al., “The Challenges in Addressing Gender Dimensions of Transport in Developing Countries: Lessons from World Bank Projects”, *Journal of the Transportation Research Board* 1956, No.1 (2006): 149–156; 154.

<sup>15</sup> Robert B. Potter and Sally Lloyd-Evans, *The City in the Developing World* (London: Routledge, 1998), 119.

<sup>16</sup> Anne Aguiléra and Jean Grébert, “[Passenger Transport Mode Share in Cities: Exploration of Actual and Future Trends with a Worldwide Survey](#)”, *International Journal of Automotive Technology and Management* 14, Nos 3/4 (2014): 203–216; 205–206.

<sup>17</sup> UN-Habitat, *SDG Indicators Metadata Repository*, 3.

<sup>18</sup> Aguiléra and Grébert, “Passenger Transport Mode Share in Cities”, 206.

<sup>19</sup> C40 Cities Climate Leadership Group, “[Implementation Guides: How to Make Public Transport an Attractive Option in Your City](#)”, March 2019.

11. In some cities, small-scale operators provide over half of all urban passenger transport services (see Appendix I).<sup>20</sup> Small-scale transport operations (or artisanal urban transport), whether organized or informal, are prevalent in low- and middle-income countries. The vehicles used are usually buses, minibuses, converted vans, cars, three-wheelers and motorcycles. In some countries, they operate with little or no regulation and may be largely informal.<sup>21</sup> Their routes and schedules may be fixed, semi-fixed or variable.<sup>22</sup> A non-exhaustive lexicon is included in Appendix III.

### 1.3. Structure

12. The way in which urban passenger transport services are organized varies considerably from country to country and even city to city.<sup>23</sup> A number of aspects can come into play, including the way in which national and local authorities divide regulatory powers, the way in which public transport financing is organized, the ownership and structure of transport operators, the nature of the relationship between authorities and transport operators and the way in which this relationship is established, and the possible use of competitive mechanisms as part of a regulatory regime.<sup>24</sup> Rapid urbanization may exacerbate the lack of institutional capacity of public transport authorities to respond to the increasing demand for transport in cities.<sup>25</sup>
13. A key public policy issue is the extent to which the private sector should be involved in the delivery of urban passenger transport services.<sup>26</sup> The private sector may be involved in various ways, including through public-private partnerships, subcontracting or contracting out, outsourcing and franchising. Mobility demand in rapidly urbanizing cities, coupled with reductions in public expenditure and growing deficits, has prompted public authorities to increase their reliance on the private sector to provide these services.<sup>27</sup> Efficient public sector oversight can reassert control over these processes in order to ensure quality business delivery of public transport services.<sup>28</sup> However, this may prove challenging for some authorities unable to exercise meaningful supervision because of a lack of resources or the unfeasibility of monitoring disparate private providers.<sup>29</sup>
14. A wide range of regimes exists for the provision of public transport services, including in-house provision, competitive tendering and negotiated contracts.<sup>30</sup> Figure 1 shows typical

<sup>20</sup> Robert Cervero and Aaron Golub, "Informal Public Transport: A Global Perspective" in Harry T. Dimitriou and Ralph Gakenheimer, eds, *Urban Transport in the Developing World: A Handbook of Policy and Practice* (Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing, 2012), 488–518; 446–447.

<sup>21</sup> C40 Cities Climate Leadership Group, "How to Make Public Transport an Attractive Option".

<sup>22</sup> Cervero and Golub, "Informal Public Transport", 446.

<sup>23</sup> Didier Van de Velde et al., *Contracting in Urban Public Transport* (European Commission, 2008), 4.

<sup>24</sup> Van de Velde et al., *Contracting in Urban Public Transport*.

<sup>25</sup> Slobodan Mitrič, *A Framework for Urban Transport Projects: Operational Guidance for World Bank Staff*, Transport Paper 15, World Bank, 2008, 3.

<sup>26</sup> World Bank, *Formulating an Urban Transport Policy: Choosing Between Options*, 2014, 14.

<sup>27</sup> ILO, *The Impact of Decentralization and Privatization on Municipal Services: Report for Discussion at the Joint Meeting on the Impact of Decentralization and Privatization on Municipal Services*, JMMS/2001, 8.

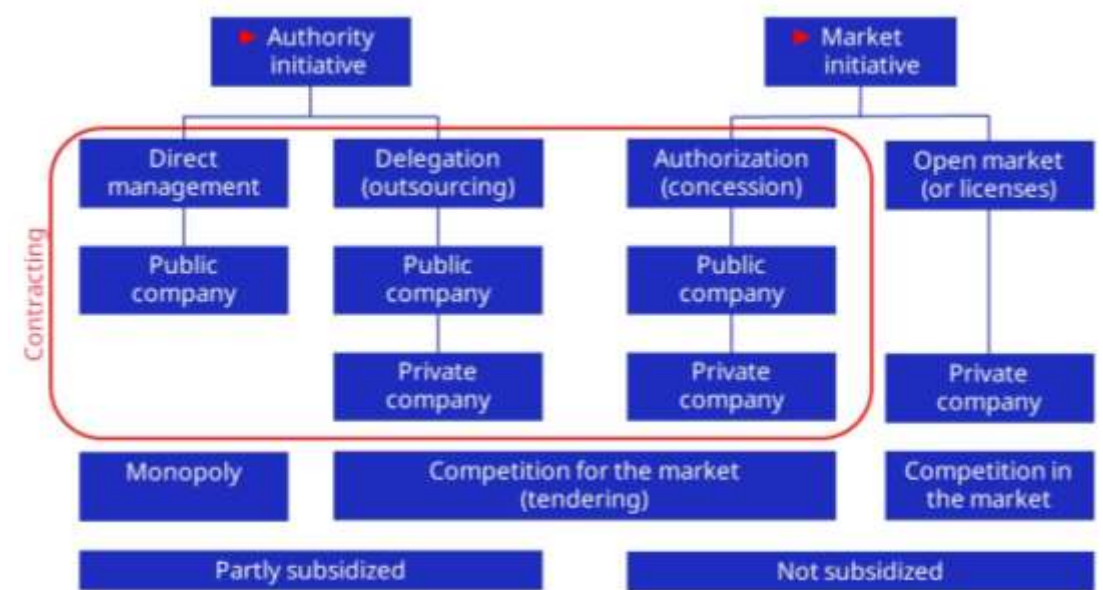
<sup>28</sup> Paul Barter, "Public Planning with Business Delivery of Excellent Urban Public Transport", *Policy and Society*, 27, No. 2 (2008): 103–114.

<sup>29</sup> United Nations, A/73/396, 2018, para. 85.

<sup>30</sup> David Hensher and Ian Wallis "Competitive Tendering as a Contracting Mechanism for Subsidising Transport: The Bus Experience", *Journal of Transport Economics and Policy*, 39, No. 3 (2005): 295–322.

organizational forms and public transport regulatory frameworks. Roles in the procurement of transport equipment and contracting service provision may at times be strongly related.<sup>31</sup> Procurement, tendering and contracting governance regimes embed national preferences for development<sup>32</sup> and can shape the labour, social and environmental impacts of the sector. These regimes can include labour clauses, social performance tests or the sourcing of greener or innovative technology (for example, electric buses).

► **Figure 1. Organizational forms in public transport**



Source: Eric Trel, "Public Transport Regulation and Contracting", slideshow for the International Association of Public Transport (UITP) training workshop delivered in Johannesburg, South Africa, 10–14 October 2014.

15. Transport authorities have had to deal with the problems of increasing deficits in the quality and adequacy of urban passenger transport services.<sup>33</sup> They are tasked with creating enabling environments that encourage the entrepreneurship of operators, ensure the fulfilment of the social and public service dimensions of urban passenger transport and provide quality services.<sup>34</sup> But at the same time, they transfer risks to operators through contracts – risks of cost, revenue and market.<sup>35</sup> In low- and middle-income countries in particular, balancing public safety and expectations while transferring risks may make this exercise something of a tug-of-war.<sup>36</sup> Increasingly, contracts for operating bus services

<sup>31</sup> Trel, "Public Transport Regulation".

<sup>32</sup> Kamala Dawar and Seung Chul Oh, "The Role of Public Procurement Policy in Driving Industrial Development", Department of Policy, Research and Statistics Working Paper 8/2017 (United Nations Industrial Development Organization, 2017).

<sup>33</sup> ILO, *The Impact of Decentralization and Privatization on Municipal Services*, JMMS/2001, 8.

<sup>34</sup> Trel, "Public Transport Regulation".

<sup>35</sup> Trel, "Public Transport Regulation".

<sup>36</sup> Jaspal Singh, "Outsourcing Bus Operations: How to Make it Financially Sustainable", slideshow for the UITP India Office Talking Transit Workshop held in Gurugram, India, 2–3 July 2015. See also Trel, "Public Transport Regulation".

have included clauses that protect operators from some risks, including fare-box revenues, leaving transport authorities or cities shouldering this predominant risk.<sup>37</sup>

## 1.4. Financing and economic conditions

### Debt financing

16. Debt finance allows cities to leverage limited capital for much larger projects. Public transport infrastructure requires large, up-front investments while its social and possible financial returns generally accumulate slowly over a long period. Such investments are generally financed in large part through long-term debt so that the cost of the infrastructure can be paid off as its returns accrue.<sup>38</sup> Cities have also structured public financing models that have proven successful.
17. Debt finance is especially important for low- and middle-income countries where capital is limited and development needs are great. Yet, in many countries, this financing and investment is often constrained by low or costly access to debt finance (due to poor debt ratings), high interest rates, limited capacity in structuring financing arrangements, corruption and/or laws that impose limits on debt levels for cities and states.<sup>39</sup>

### Subsidies

18. Metropolitan public transport subsidies have long been controversial.<sup>40</sup> However, most public transport subsidies can be justified on equity or social grounds.<sup>41</sup> Sustainable urban mobility will require (capital and/or operational) subsidies, as most urban mass public transport systems worldwide cannot cover operating costs, let alone capital expenses, through fare-box revenues.<sup>42</sup> In France in 2015, for example, it was estimated that users bore a mere 12 per cent of the cost of urban passenger transport in networks without a tram or metro, 20 per cent in large provincial networks equipped with a metro or tram and 38 per cent in the Paris region.<sup>43</sup> In many countries, passenger fares are kept low for political reasons and, without government subsidies, urban passenger transport systems are left to absorb these costs. This leads to under-investment.

### Funding mechanisms

19. Financial challenges are growing and cities may be facing a decline in revenue or budget constraints. Traditional sources of revenue include taxes such as property or employer

<sup>37</sup> See for example Government of India, Ministry of Urban Development, *Guidelines for Participation by Private Operators in the Provision of City Bus Transport Services*, May 2016.

<sup>38</sup> Walter Hook and Colin Hughes, *Best Practice in National Support for Urban Transportation, Part 2: Growing Rapid Transit Infrastructure — Funding, Financing, and Capacity* (New York: Institute for Transportation and Development Policy, 2015), 38.

<sup>39</sup> Hook and Hughes, *Best Practice in National Support for Urban Transportation*, 38.

<sup>40</sup> John Pucher, Anders Markstedt and Ira Hirschman, "Impacts of Subsidies on the Costs of Urban Public Transport", *Journal of Transport Economics and Policy*, 17, No. 2 (1983), 155–176.

<sup>41</sup> Government of France, Ministère de la Transition Ecologique et Solidaire, Commissariat général au développement durable, *Transport collectif urbain : malgré la croissance des coûts d'exploitation, la participation financière des usagers diminue*, Datalab essentiel No. 150, 2018, 1.

<sup>42</sup> Daniel Pulido and Irene Portabales, "Boosting Mass Transit through Entrepreneurship: Going Beyond Subsidies to Reduce the Public Transport Funding Gap", *Connections*, World Bank Knowledge Note No. 6, 2015.

<sup>43</sup> Pulido and Portabales, "Boosting Mass Transit".



taxes and income from fines for traffic and parking violations. Some local and regional governments use earmarked revenue from specific taxes (for example, petrol tax) to support continued funding for public transport. Authorities are searching for alternative funding mechanisms either through improvements in business models, value capture of transport investments,<sup>44</sup> or income from commercial activities connected with their operations.<sup>45</sup>

## Increased demand and ridership

- 20.** Between 2005 and 2025, the number of daily trips in urban areas could increase by 50 per cent, reflecting both the projected growth in urban population and an increase in the number of daily trips made by each urban resident.<sup>46</sup> In the United States of America from 1995–2018, public transport ridership grew by 27 per cent.<sup>47</sup> This increase in ridership can be mainly attributed to rapid urbanization and growth in population, public investment in infrastructure development, and factors that discourage private vehicle ownership. However, the gains in ridership and what these will mean in terms of employment will likely depend on the introduction of technology.<sup>48</sup>

## Competition

- 21.** Small-scale and informal transport operations continue to constitute a significant share of services in Africa, Asia and the Pacific, and Latin America. This may fuel issues of unfair competition and a vicious cycle of low productivity and low income levels for the sector. In the case of formal public transport services, regulatory gaps or informal operations may lead to overlapping or parallel services that may in turn increase unfair competition.<sup>49</sup>

## 1.5. Global employment in the sector

- 22.** As is the case for any other services sector, urban passenger transport services are labour-intensive. In many cities, mass public transport systems are the backbone of urban mobility and employment creation.<sup>50</sup> While in Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries labour costs represent 60 to 80 per cent of the total costs of a public transport company, in Asia, the estimated labour cost represents 50 per cent of the total operational cost.<sup>51</sup>

<sup>44</sup> See Francesca Medda, "Land Value Capture Finance for Transport Accessibility: A Review", *Journal of Transport Geography*, 25 (2012), 154–161. "Land value capture finance (LVC) is often seen as an alternative method of revenue generation for urban transport systems. The basic assumption is to recover the capital cost of the transport investment by capturing some or all of the increments in land value resultant from the increase in accessibility. In so doing, we incorporate accessibility within a land value financial framework, in which we link the benefit of transport investment to its costs", 155.

<sup>45</sup> Pulido and Portabales, "Boosting Mass Transit".

<sup>46</sup> In 2005, the share of daily trips by public transport was about 16 per cent. See Sustainable Mobility for All initiative, *Global Mobility Report 2017*, World Bank, 52–53.

<sup>47</sup> American Public Transportation Association, *Americans Took 9.9 Billion Trips on Public Transportation in 2018: Public Transit Ridership Growth Exceeds Population Growth*, 2019.

<sup>48</sup> William J. Mallett, "Trends in Public Transportation Ridership: Implications for Federal Policy", Congressional Research Service, Report R45144, 2018, 1.

<sup>49</sup> UN-Habitat, *Informal Transport*, 8, 34 and 134.

<sup>50</sup> UITP Observatory of Employment in Public Transport, *Report 3: City Economies Grow Dynamic with Public Transport*, 2013, 7 and 9.

<sup>51</sup> UITP Observatory of Employment in Public Transport, *Report 3*, 2013, 7.

## Classification

- 23.** The International Standard Industrial Classification of All Economic Activities (ISIC) classifies urban passenger transport services under division 49: Land transport and transport via pipelines, group 492: Other land transport, as class 4921: Urban and suburban passenger land transport and class 4922: Other passenger land transport, respectively.<sup>52</sup>

## Formal services

- 24.** The most recent global estimates on employment for the sector were carried out by the International Association of Public Transport (UITP) Observatory on Employment. The Observatory carried out studies in 2009, 2011 and 2013 and these are the only substantial sources of figures on the subject. In 2009, employment in formal urban passenger transport services companies (operators) accounted for 7.3 million workers and public authorities in charge of public transport employed about 300,000 workers.<sup>53</sup> The average proportion of the number of drivers out of total staff is similar in companies that operate only metro/rail: around 20 per cent for Europe and 21 per cent for Asia.<sup>54</sup> In European companies that operate only one mode of transport (bus or tram), the majority of the staff are drivers and they account for between 61 to 74 per cent of the total staff.<sup>55</sup>
- 25.** In many large cities, mass public transport systems are important employers. For example, while bus systems are the more widespread mass public transport systems, subways are available in 182 cities and 56 countries, transporting some 54 billion passengers in 2017.<sup>56</sup> Employment data of selected metro systems can be found in Appendix IV.

## Small-scale and informal transport services

- 26.** Urban passenger transport services have transitioned in some countries to formality (for example, through the implementation of bus rapid transit), while in others they still remain largely informal. In the African and Latin American regions, informal jobs may represent up to 30 to 40 per cent of the total number of urban passenger transport jobs.<sup>57</sup> The informal urban passenger transport workforce is composed of an ecosystem including drivers, conductors, operators and/or owners, parking attendants, porters, loaders, dispatchers, public telephone operators, booking clerks, mechanics, tyre repairers and cleaners, among others.<sup>58</sup> Figure 2 summarizes the different relationships within the informal transport economy.

<sup>52</sup> United Nations, “[International Standard Industrial Classification of All Economic Activities \(ISIC\), Revision 4](#)”, Series M: Statistical Papers, No. 4, Rev. 4, New York, 2008, 54. ISIC is an arranged classification of economic activities through which entities can be classified according to the activity they carry out. ISIC is widely used, both nationally and internationally, to classify data according to relevant economic activity in the fields of gross domestic product, employment, production and other statistical areas.

<sup>53</sup> UITP Observatory of Employment in Public Transport, *Report 1: Employment in public transport: 13 million people worldwide!*, 2011, 2.

<sup>54</sup> UITP Observatory of Employment in Public Transport, *Report 2: City Economies Grow Dynamic with Public Transport*, 2012, 7.

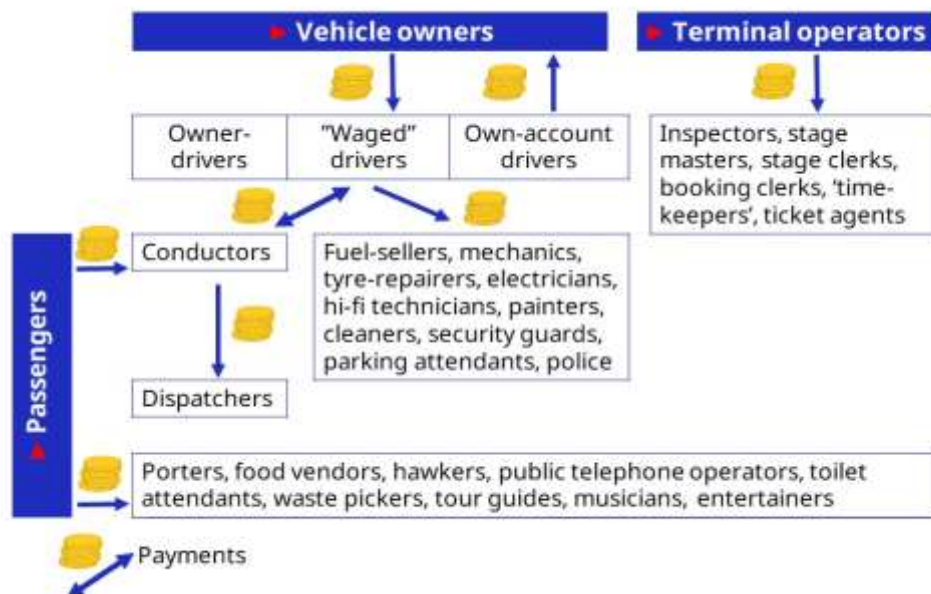
<sup>55</sup> UITP Observatory of Employment in Public Transport, *Report 3*, 2013, 9.

<sup>56</sup> UITP, “[World Metro Figures 2018](#)”, Statistics Brief.

<sup>57</sup> UITP Observatory of Employment in Public Transport, *Report 2*, 2012, 5.

<sup>58</sup> International Transport Workers’ Federation (ITF), *The Power of Informal Transport Workers: An ITF Education Booklet*, 2017, 12.



► **Figure 2. Relationships within the informal transport economy**

Source: ITF, *The Power of Informal Transport Workers*, 13.

## Gender considerations

27. Transport is a traditionally male-dominated sector<sup>59</sup> in which women's rate of labour force participation is low. In 2016, women represented 14 per cent of the public transport workforce and 8 per cent of the driver workforce.<sup>60</sup> There is a dearth of data on women's participation in informal urban passenger transport services. However, the International Transport Workers' Federation (ITF) Informal Transport Workers' project found in 2016 that women informal workers are subject to "vertical" occupational segregation,<sup>61</sup> thus have less job security and work in lower paid jobs.<sup>62</sup> In 2019, the ITF also conducted a comprehensive global study on the impact of the future of work for women in urban transport that demonstrates gender occupational segregation in formal and informal urban passenger transport services.<sup>63</sup>

<sup>59</sup> United Nations, *Report to the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe Executive Committee on the Implementation of the Priorities of the UNECE Reform for Strengthening some Activities of the Committee: The Inland Transport Committee and Gender Issues in Transport*, ECE/TRANS/2009/7, 2008.

<sup>60</sup> UITP Observatory of Employment in Public Transport, *Report 3*, 2013, 11, citing a joint UITP/European Transport Workers' Federation (ETF) project report, *Women's Employment and Gender Policy in Urban Public Transport Companies in Europe – WISE II*, Europäische Akademie für umweltorientierten Verkehr (EVA), 2016.

<sup>61</sup> Tessa Wright, *Gender and Sexuality in Male-Dominated Occupations: Women Workers in Construction and Transport* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 2016), 18.

<sup>62</sup> ITF, *The Power of Informal Transport Workers*, 3.

<sup>63</sup> Tessa Wright, *The Impact of the Future of Work for Women in Public Transport* (ITF, 2019).

## ► 2. Drivers of transformative change in the world of work

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- 28.** Global mega-trends, including technological innovations, the impact of demographic shifts and urbanization, climate change and globalization, are changing the way in which urban passenger transport services are offered and organized. By harnessing transformative technologies, demographic opportunities, globalization and the green economy, urban passenger transport services can become a powerful driver of equity and sustainability for present and future generations.<sup>64</sup>
- 29.** Innovation may pave the way for a renaissance of urban passenger transport.<sup>65</sup> Social dialogue, partnerships, integration and governance frameworks will be key to transforming the role of the sector in ways that benefit users, operators, workers and authorities equally. At the same time, innovation will translate into significant changes to employment, working conditions, labour markets and skills.<sup>66</sup>

### 2.1. Technological innovation

#### 2.1.1. Digitalization

##### Integration, mobility as a service

- 30.** Current mobility patterns are leading to further development of “mobility as a service” (MaaS), a one-stop shop and marketplace for all mobility needs.<sup>67</sup> Mobility as a service can be defined as “the integration of various forms of transport services into a single mobility service accessible on-demand” (such as public transport modes, e-hail, car- or bike-sharing, taxi or car rental or lease, or a combination thereof); it seeks to provide all mobility needs through the use of a single application (app), with a single payment.<sup>68</sup> Mobility as a service can bridge new business models and traditional transport operators by providing the missing link between first and last mile modes of transport. Concerns such as the implications of mobility as a service for employment, data protection and social inclusion may require policymaking responses in the future.<sup>69</sup>

##### New business models for transport authorities

- 31.** Digitalization may be changing the role of transport authorities as contractors and their management of contracts and transforming them into integrators and aggregators of other services and, eventually, into “total mobility providers”, as shown in figure 3.

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<sup>64</sup> ILO, *Work for a brighter future – Global Commission on the Future of Work*, 2019, 24.

<sup>65</sup> Paul Skoutelas, “American Public Transportation Association: The Renaissance of Public Transportation in the New Mobility Era”, *The Future of Public Transportation*, ed. Paul Comfort (2020), 161–179, 177–178.

<sup>66</sup> Simone Pettigrew, Lin Fritschi and Richard Norman, “The Potential Implications of Autonomous Vehicles in and around the Workplace”, *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health* 15, No. 9 (2018), 6.

<sup>67</sup> Paul Nyberg, “What are the forces behind the Mobility as a Service (MaaS) revolution?”, LinkedIn, 2018.

<sup>68</sup> MaaS Alliance, “What is MaaS?”, n.d.

<sup>69</sup> Kate Pangbourne et al., “Questioning Mobility as a Service: Unanticipated Implications for Society and Governance”, *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice* 131 (2020), 35–49.

► **Figure 3. “Total mobility provider” business model example**

SU = Suburban; LD = Long-distance.

Source: Arthur D. Little and UITP, *The Future of Urban Mobility 2.0*, 2014, 23.

### New business models for on-demand services

32. The first e-hailing service using an online app was provided by Curb (formerly Taxi Magic), connecting consumers with legacy taxi suppliers.<sup>70</sup> Other services, including Karhoo, MyTaxi (formerly Hailo), Taxi Deutschland and Taxify, provide an option for passengers who like e-hail but prefer the safety standards and the predictable pricing of traditional taxis.<sup>71</sup> Nonetheless, global platform app-based services, including Didi, Gett, Grab, Lyft, Ola<sup>72</sup> and Uber, have caused considerable disruption in the sector. These alternative taxi providers emerged as a result of consumer dissatisfaction with the traditional taxi market. Various design features of the apps dealt with numerous specific consumer concerns, including redress mechanisms, risks of violence and the creation of reference prices. In turn, the emergence of surge pricing and its possible manipulation raised new consumer concerns, which app developers have addressed.<sup>73</sup>
33. Although still at the early stages of development, with a number of interrelated legal, financial and organizational challenges to overcome, platform cooperatives in the taxi sector are attracting interest to this model. Drawing on the legacy of “traditional” cooperatives, platform coops emulate the services and delivery models of their corporate counterparts, but are designed by, or in conjunction with, workers.<sup>74</sup> For example, a growing number of taxi driver cooperatives set up their own online applications to eliminate

<sup>70</sup> ILO, *Priority Safety and Health Issues in the Road Transport Sector*, Report for discussion at the Tripartite Sectoral Meeting on Safety and Health in the Road Transport Sector (Geneva, 12–16 October 2015), Sectoral Policies Department, 2015.

<sup>71</sup> See ILO, *Priority Safety and Health Issues in the Road Transport Sector*, and Michel A. J. Kompier, “*Bus Drivers: Occupational Stress and Stress Prevention*”, ILO Working Paper, 1996, 21.

<sup>72</sup> Ola provides mixed services, namely, traditional taxis and a platform e-hailing service.

<sup>73</sup> OECD, “*Taxi, Ride-sourcing and Ride-sharing Services – Note by Consumers International*” submitted to the 65th meeting of Working Party No. 2 on Competition and Regulation on 4 June 2018, 3.

<sup>74</sup> Hannah Johnston and Chris Land-Kazlauskas, *Organizing On-demand: Representation, Voice, and Collective Bargaining in the Gig Economy*, ILO, Conditions of Work and Employment Series No. 94, 2019, 18.

the intermediation of e-hailing companies which withhold rights and benefits from drivers.<sup>75</sup>

34. On-demand public transport has been organized either door-to-door or with predefined pickup and drop off points to cut back on existing services levels, in particular for areas with low densities.<sup>76</sup> This service has emerged as a response to rising operating costs for bus services and public funding constraints that have eroded the ability of local authorities to subsidize public transport at previous service levels.<sup>77</sup>

### Artificial intelligence

35. There is still no straightforward consensus on the definition of artificial intelligence.<sup>78</sup> But in the case of public transport services, artificial intelligence can be applied in critical decision-making for recruitment, operational efficiency, maintenance and asset management, safety and security management, and customer service.<sup>79</sup> However, perhaps one of the most prevalent applications and testing will be in the field of autonomous vehicles.
36. The International Telecommunication Union (ITU) has expressed the view that artificial intelligence innovation will be central to the achievement of the SDGs, when leveraged for good,<sup>80</sup> including solving issues related to transparency, trust and security, concerns about algorithmic bias,<sup>81</sup> skills, the displacement of jobs and exacerbation of inequalities.<sup>82</sup> However, the United Nations Human Rights Council has warned that the use of artificial intelligence “can pose serious risks to the right to privacy, in particular when employed for identification, tracking, profiling, facial recognition, behavioural prediction or the scoring of individuals”.<sup>83</sup>
37. Digitalization and artificial intelligence are changing the way in which public services function for both users and public service workers. Regulation and governance structures will be needed to mitigate potential negative effects and ensure that digitalization and artificial intelligence in public services contribute to service quality, accessibility,

<sup>75</sup> ILO, *Cooperation in a Changing World of Work: Towards a Cooperative Future*, The Future of Work Centenary Initiative, Issue Note Series 6, 2019, 5.

<sup>76</sup> OECD-ITF, *International Experiences on Public Transport Provision in Rural Areas*, 2015, 11.

<sup>77</sup> OECD-ITF, *International Experiences*, 9.

<sup>78</sup> Shailendra Hajela, “Policy Considerations for AI Governance”, PowerPoint presentation to the ITU-T SG3 Workshop on Policies in Relation to Impact of Artificial Intelligence on ICT Services (Geneva, 10 April 2018). “AI [artificial intelligence] is best understood as a set of techniques aimed at approximating some aspect of human or animal cognition using machines ... [It] refers to the ability of a computer or a computer-enabled robotic system to process information and produce outcomes in a manner similar to the thought process of humans in learning, decision-making and solving problems. In a way, the goal of AI systems is to develop systems capable of tackling complex problems in ways similar to human logic and reasoning.”

<sup>79</sup> UITP Asia-Pacific Centre for Transport Excellence, *Artificial Intelligence in Public Transport*, 2019, 41.

<sup>80</sup> ITU, “Artificial intelligence”, AI for Good Global Summit 2020: Accelerating the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals.

<sup>81</sup> United Nations Institute for Disarmament Research, *Algorithmic Bias and the Weaponization of Increasingly Autonomous Technologies: A Primer*, No. 9, 2018.

<sup>82</sup> ITU, “Artificial intelligence”.

<sup>83</sup> United Nations General Assembly resolution 42/15, The right to privacy in the digital age, [A/HRC/RES/42/15](#) (2019), 3.

accountability and decent work.<sup>84</sup> The way in which governments deal with these technological processes will influence those changes.

### Surveillance technology

- 38.** Public transport surveillance practices are widespread in some countries and, in particular, for mass public transport operations. Authorities and operators may use surveillance technology to monitor traffic flow, crime and acts of terrorism, or to investigate accidents or assist users.<sup>85</sup> The monitoring of union and non-union workers also occurs,<sup>86</sup> sometimes with inward-facing cameras. The legal situations and environment regarding video surveillance and privacy laws vary from country to country.

## 2.1.2. Automation

### Gating, ticketing systems, e-ticketing

- 39.** Urban passenger transport systems have different levels of development; for some mature and formal networks, gating and ticketing systems, including e-ticketing, are widespread. But for less-developed or transitioning urban passenger transport networks, the automation of ticketing booths and gating systems at main transport transfer hubs or the introduction of contactless e-ticketing may constitute an ongoing or future trend. This may bring the opportunity to increase the efficiency of the system upon formalization or modernization, but not without implications for employment and in terms of equal passenger access to services.

### Automated metros<sup>87</sup>

- 40.** Driver-automated metro (subway) technology is an example of automation. Metros operate in a controlled environment, where rolling stock is less exposed to weather or interaction with other network users in comparison with road transport. The UITP has classified automated operation for metro systems, also known as unattended train operation, into four distinct grades of automation.<sup>88</sup> As of November 2019, there were 69 automated metro lines in operation providing service to 1,146 kilometres of track in 44 cities across the world.<sup>89</sup> The growth rate of automated lines has doubled with every past decade and is set to quadruple in the coming decade.

### Autonomous vehicles

- 41.** Autonomous vehicles could offer major benefits to society. However, they may encounter social and regulatory obstacles before they are fully deployed. Within the context of more

<sup>84</sup> Public Services International, *Digitalization and Public Services: A Labour Perspective*, 2019, 39 and 40. See also European Commission, *White Paper on Artificial Intelligence – A European Approach to Excellence and Trust*, 2020, and European Parliament, *Artificial Intelligence Ante Portas: Legal and Ethical Reflections*, Briefing paper, March 2019.

<sup>85</sup> National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, *Legal Implications of Video Surveillance on Transit Systems* (Washington, DC: The National Academies Press, 2018), 3–5.

<sup>86</sup> National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, *Legal Implications of Video Surveillance*, i.

<sup>87</sup> This subsection is based on an unpublished study on metro automation commissioned by the International Labour Office: Youbin Kang, “Technological Change: Driver Automation and Social Dialogue in Urban Metro Services” (ILO Archives).

<sup>88</sup> See UITP, *World Report on Metro Automation*, Statistics Brief publication, 2018, 8.

<sup>89</sup> UITP, “Observatory of Automated Metros”.

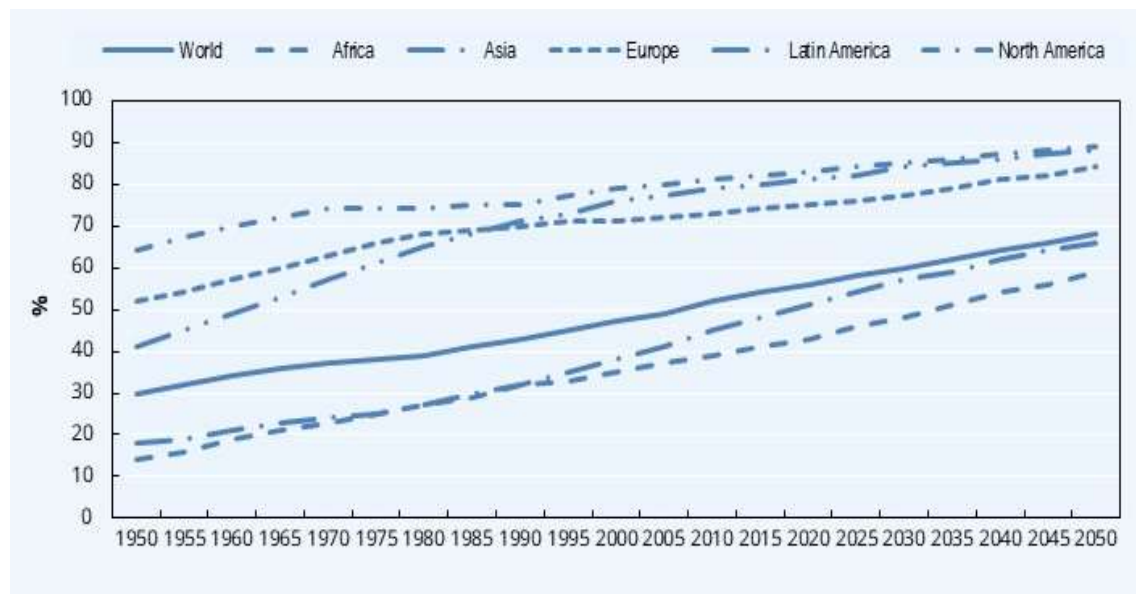
integrated mobility, autonomous vehicles could perform more efficiently and be integrated with on-demand public transport apps, online platforms and ticketing. Although pilot projects are already under way in some countries, autonomous vehicles are not expected to replace human drivers in the medium term; current predictions would indicate their possible deployment at some point between 2060 and 2080.<sup>90</sup>

## 2.2. Demographic shifts, urbanization and inclusion

### Management of urban growth and the city

42. The United Nations forecasts that the world's population will reach 8.5 billion in 2030 and will exceed 9.7 billion by 2050.<sup>91</sup> As shown in figure 4, it is predicted that two thirds of the world's population will live in an urban environment by 2050. Cities hold part of the answer to the particular challenges that have emerged in them, including issues such as growing inequalities, poverty and discrimination, environmental degradation, unsustainable water and energy use, and increased risks of natural and human-made disasters.<sup>92</sup> The pace of urbanization is projected to be the fastest in low-income and lower-middle-income countries where inclusive and sustainable development depends increasingly on the successful management of urban growth.<sup>93</sup>

► **Figure 4. Share of population residing in urban areas by region, 1950–2050 (percentages)**



Source: ITF, *ITF Transport Outlook 2019* (OECD Publishing, Paris, 2019), 74, with data from United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, *World Urbanization Prospects: The 2018 Revision, Online Edition*, File 2.

<sup>90</sup> Todd Litman, *Autonomous Vehicle Implementation Predictions: Implications for Transport Planning* (Victoria Transport Policy Institute, 2020), 32.

<sup>91</sup> United Nations, "Population".

<sup>92</sup> United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), *Smart Cities: Shaping the Society of 2030*, 2019, 13.

<sup>93</sup> United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Publications, "2018 Revision of World Urbanization Prospects", 16 May 2018.



- 43.** By 2030, the world is projected to have 43 megacities with more than 10 million inhabitants, mostly located in developing regions. However, some of the fastest-growing urban agglomerations are cities with fewer than 1 million inhabitants, many of them located in Asia and Africa. The countries concerned will face numerous challenges in meeting the needs of their growing urban populations, including for transport and mobility. One in eight people live in 33 megacities worldwide, but close to half of the world's urban dwellers will reside in much smaller settlements, with fewer than 500,000 inhabitants.<sup>94</sup>

### Expanding the integration of urban passenger transport, housing and the urban form and fabric

- 44.** Some cities and public transport agencies are partnering to make some streets car-free in order to reduce congestions and give priority status to public transport.<sup>95</sup> For example, the creation of special lanes (such as bus-only lanes) can speed up trips, boost ridership and translate into savings and/or additional resources for authorities.<sup>96</sup>
- 45.** Kerb spaces are a fundamental resource of the public transport industry.<sup>97</sup> Property and parking rights and the rules governing passenger pickup areas are a determining feature of public transport markets.<sup>98</sup> The transgression of kerb rights – where they are not “common property” – is a source of contention for all urban passenger transport services providers, even informal ones.<sup>99</sup> The emerging and shifting trends in the sector have put the spotlight on this issue in recent times, in particular with new taxi business models.
- 46.** Affordable housing close to transport hubs attracts investment and growth. Yet, in some cases, lack of affordable housing may be an issue that calls for additional planning and coordination between local, state and national governments.<sup>100</sup> Affordable housing in city centres may prevent the uncontrolled sprawl and lack of density that pose particular challenges to the provision of public transport services and may increase emissions.<sup>101</sup>

### Ageing

- 47.** Ageing trends will increase demand for public transport or additional para-transit transport services in the future. By 2050, at least one quarter of the global population, except for in Africa, is expected to be 60 years of age and above.<sup>102</sup> Seniors are a growing demographic and, lacking transport options, may be at risk of social exclusion. Public transport offers this segment of society mobility and, although technology acceptance may pose particular challenges, emerging transport services may also be a boon for seniors. Private and public stakeholders will have to cater for seniors by increasing the ease of use in order to better sell their mobility services.

<sup>94</sup> United Nations, Publications, “2018 Revision of World Urbanization Prospects”.

<sup>95</sup> Skoutelas, “American Public Transportation Association: The Renaissance of Public Transportation”, 171.

<sup>96</sup> Skoutelas, “American Public Transportation Association: The Renaissance of Public Transportation”, 174.

<sup>97</sup> Daniel Klein, Adrian Moore and Binyam Reja, “Curb Rights: Eliciting Competition and Entrepreneurship in Urban Transit”, *The Independent Review: A Journal of Political Economy* 2, No. 1 (1997): 29–54, 37.

<sup>98</sup> Klein, Moore and Reja, “Curb Rights”, 30.

<sup>99</sup> Antonio Estache and Andrés Gómez-Lobo, *The Limits to Competition in Urban Bus Services in Developing Countries*, World Bank Policy Research Working Paper 3207, 2004, 7–9.

<sup>100</sup> Skoutelas, “American Public Transportation Association: The Renaissance of Public Transportation”, 174.

<sup>101</sup> Alan Berger, “The Suburb of the Future, Almost Here”, *The New York Times*, 15 September 2017.

<sup>102</sup> United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, *World Population Ageing 2015*.

## Reduced mobility, disability and equitable access

- 48.** Fifteen per cent of the world population are persons with disabilities and an estimated 1 billion such persons will be living in towns and cities by 2050. The lack of an inclusive urban mobility system contributes to denying persons in vulnerable situations, including persons with disabilities, access to school or university, decent employment, healthcare services and public life. <sup>103</sup> Cities offer opportunities for the creation of accessible and affordable public transport systems, yet flexibility is crucial in meeting the accessibility challenge, as context and needs vary. Some public networks are already fully accessible and many more are on the right path to providing fully accessible transport. <sup>104</sup>

## Youth

- 49.** Decreased car ownership among millennials constitutes another recent trend that can positively impact demand for public transport services. <sup>105</sup> With regard to new technologies and autonomous vehicles acceptance, preliminary surveys show that millennials and centennials accept semi-autonomous and fully autonomous vehicles more easily. <sup>106</sup>

## Migration

- 50.** Asymmetries in the globalization process can be observed from a migration perspective: migrants are becoming concentrated in a shrinking pool of destination countries. <sup>107</sup> In many destination countries, public transport services provide job opportunities for vulnerable populations, including minorities and immigrants. In the Netherlands, for example, following a successful pilot project in the city of Arnhem, refugees in Eindhoven and Nijmegen are to be trained as bus drivers for the public transport company Connexxion. <sup>108</sup> Other countries have migration programmes that provide visas to transport workers.

## 2.3. Climate change

- 51.** Given that transport is responsible for 25 per cent of global energy-related greenhouse gas emissions, it will be impossible to address climate change without promoting sustainable transport. <sup>109</sup> In 2014, members of the transport community came together at the United Nations Climate Summit and advanced transport initiatives to help combat climate change, aimed at expanding the use of electric vehicles, increasing the efficiency of rail transport and air travel, and providing sustainable urban passenger transport options around the world. <sup>110</sup> However, it is estimated that the transformation of the transport sector

<sup>103</sup> UITP and Handicap International, *Safe and Accessible Public Transport for All: Making SDG 11.2 a Reality*, 2019, 3.

<sup>104</sup> UITP, *Safe and Accessible Public Transport for All*, 4.

<sup>105</sup> University of Pennsylvania, Wharton School, "Demographic Shifts: Shaping the Future of Car Ownership", 21 February 2017.

<sup>106</sup> Vehicle Service Pros, "Millennials and Centennials are Driving Driverless Demand, Study Finds", 26 May 2017.

<sup>107</sup> Mathias Czaika and Hein de Haas, "The Globalization of Migration: Has the World Become More Migratory?", *International Migration Review* 48, No. 2 (2014), 283–323.

<sup>108</sup> European Commission, European Website on Integration, "Refugees in the Netherlands to be Trained as Bus Drivers", 2019.

<sup>109</sup> International Energy Agency, *CO<sub>2</sub> Emissions from Fuel Combustion: Highlights*, 2019, 11. Data for 2017.

<sup>110</sup> International Institute for Sustainable Development, "A Summary Report of the UN Climate Summit 2014", *Climate Summit Bulletin* 172, No. 18, 26 September 2014, 16–17.



(passenger and freight) would require a cumulative investment of US\$32 trillion between 2015 and 2050.<sup>111</sup> Economic incentives and financial support to small-scale transport services will be necessary to pave the transition towards sustainable transport.

52. In 2015, the ITF and UITP issued a joint declaration on climate leadership advocating the promotion of the “avoid-shift-improve approach” (avoid/reduce the movements of goods and people, shift to low-carbon modes of transport, improve technology for energy efficiency) as well as the formalization of informal transport services and the expansion of public transport infrastructure to combat climate change.<sup>112</sup>

## Motorization

53. The simultaneous and explosive growth of population, income and private vehicle ownership means that cities throughout the developing world may face severe congestion, air pollution, greenhouse gas emissions and traffic accidents. Vehicle ownership and congestion have created unprecedented stress on public transport systems. Traffic congestion threatens city productivity and competitiveness and can make public transport services far less effective.<sup>113</sup>

## Policy-induced modal shifts

54. Cars impose significant costs on society for which drivers may not pay. Concerns with regard to the environmental and economic implications of road congestion, air pollution and climate change are growing in cities across the world.<sup>114</sup> This has led local and national authorities to take various measures leading to policy-induced modal shifts. For example, road pricing can support the extension of urban passenger transport networks; a number of cities have implemented measures or policy-induced modal shifts, including infrastructure charging, congestion taxing and changes in land use, such as promoting walkable cities.

## Electrification and decarbonization

55. The need to curb emissions from the transport sector is increasingly urgent. Public transport can play an important role in the transition to low-emission or electric vehicles.<sup>115</sup> Ageing vehicle fleets may pose safety challenges, provide unreliable services and have higher emissions.
56. Informal transport and small-scale operations generally have low productivity levels and rely on older vehicles due to the pressure of competition and excess supply of vehicles.<sup>116</sup> Because of the fragmented nature of the sector, access to financing and affordable interest rates for small-scale transport owners are of particular importance for the modernization

<sup>111</sup> United Nations, *Mobilizing Sustainable Transport for Development: Analysis and Policy Recommendations from the United Nations Secretary-General's High-Level Advisory Group on Sustainable Transport*, 2016, 17.

<sup>112</sup> UITP and ITF, *Joint Declaration UITP-ITF on Climate Leadership*, 5 August 2015.

<sup>113</sup> World Bank, “Urban Transport”, 6 April 2015.

<sup>114</sup> Elisabetta Cornago, Alexandros Dimitropoulos and Walid Oueslati, “Evaluating the Impact of Urban Road Pricing on the Use of Green Transport Modes: The Case of Milan”, OECD Environment Working Paper No. 143, 2019, 3.

<sup>115</sup> Malin Aldenius, “Influence of Public Bus Transport Organisation on the Introduction of Renewable Fuel”, *Research in Transportation Economics* 69 (2018): 106–115.

<sup>116</sup> Kenneth Gwilliam, *Cities on the Move: A World Bank Urban Transport Strategy Review* (World Bank, 2002), 104.

and emissions improvement of vehicles.<sup>117</sup> Lack of capital because of low profitability can impede access to credit from commercial banks. However, national development banks could play a larger role to support small-scale operations.

57. The transition to zero-emission urban passenger transport systems can also be supported by innovations in small vehicle transport and informal small-scale operations (such as e-rickshaws).<sup>118</sup> However, modernization programmes can have a negative impact on low-income and informal workers, and the deployment of special measures helps to protect their livelihoods during the transition.
58. Electric mobility is considered an integral aspect of urban transport strategies to achieve environmental commitments and more liveable cities.<sup>119</sup> Countries across the world are setting up frameworks to promote the adoption of electric buses (e-buses)<sup>120</sup> which represent some 18 per cent of bus services.<sup>121</sup> For example, Mexico City's public operator Electric Transport Service recently acquired a zero-emission fleet of battery-powered trolleybuses.<sup>122</sup> However, at the global level, more than 50 per cent of the bus fleets use diesel and another 22 per cent use diesel combined with additives or biodiesel.<sup>123</sup>

## 2.4. Globalization

### Hypermobility and tourism

59. Hypermobility can be understood as the maximization of physical movement.<sup>124</sup> It can describe highly mobile travellers by air but also by land. It can comprise a range of temporary mobilities, including leisure and business-related mobility. It has translated into the rapid expansion of transport systems but resulted in congestion that has drastically reduced mobility and accessibility, thereby lowering business productivity, increasing fuel consumption, increasing pollution and robbing the public of hours of valuable time.<sup>125</sup> The sustainability of hypermobility has been questioned by a number of academics.<sup>126</sup>
60. The global tourism and business travel markets have experienced continual growth and deepening diversification.<sup>127</sup> For example, leisure travel in industrialized countries has changed substantially in recent years. This has increased demand and paved the way for new business models for urban passenger transport services. Some cities implement measures aimed at increasing their attractiveness to tourists by reducing or waiving fares,

<sup>117</sup> International experiences presented at the United Nations Expert Group Meeting on Sustainable Urban Transport: Modernizing and Greening Taxi Fleets in Latin American Cities, held in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, 18–19 May 2011, 5 and 11.

<sup>118</sup> Akshay Mani, Madhav Pai and Rishi Aggarwal, *Sustainable Urban Transport in India: Role of the Auto-rickshaw Sector* (World Resources Institute and EMBARQ), 2012.

<sup>119</sup> UITP, "The Impact of Electric Buses on Urban Life", Policy brief publication, 2019, 1.

<sup>120</sup> UITP, *Bus Tender Structure*, third edition, 2018, 15.

<sup>121</sup> UITP, *Global Bus Survey*, Statistics brief, 2019, 2.

<sup>122</sup> Chris Randall, "Mexico City Launches Electric Trolleybus Tender", *Electrify*, 25 March 2020.

<sup>123</sup> UITP, *Global Bus Survey*, 2.

<sup>124</sup> C. Jotin Khisty and Ulli Zeitler, "Is Hypermobility a Challenge for Transport Ethics and Systemicity?", *Systemic Practice and Action Research* 14 (2001), 597–613.

<sup>125</sup> Khisty and Zeitler, "Is Hypermobility a Challenge?".

<sup>126</sup> See John Adams, *The Social Consequences of Hypermobility*, RSA Lecture, 21 November 2001; Khisty and Zeitler, "Is Hypermobility a Challenge?", and Stefan Gössling et al., "Hypermobility Travellers" in Stefan Gössling and Paul Upham, eds, *Climate Change and Aviation: Issues, Challenges and Solutions* (London: Routledge, 2009).

<sup>127</sup> United Nations World Tourism Organization, *Tourism Towards 2030: Global Overview*, Madrid, 2011.

offering discount tickets or free passes. In the case of taxi services, traveller discomfort and wait times are minimized by single apps capable of placing a trusted taxi mobility service in hundreds of cities around the globe at passengers' fingertips.<sup>128</sup>

## E-hail apps

- 61.** Globalization has facilitated the expansion of international platform on-demand apps by:
- allowing companies to easily register abroad by opening local offices to deal with specific local issues;
  - facilitating the recruitment of drivers and allowing companies greater flexibility to test the market;
  - consolidating and making services more consistent by applying key performance indicators;
  - launching redress and grievance mechanisms to allow international platforms to respond to customer expectations and demands quickly and on a global basis; and
  - building consistency and gaining the trust of any mobile phone user at international and national levels in the most local of transport services.

## Multinational operators for local transport services

- 62.** In most countries, the responsibility for the provision of urban passenger transport services resides with municipalities or states, which have adopted different models with various degrees of outsourcing. While the involvement of private sector companies in urban passenger transport services differs from country to country, in many regions there has been an increase in the operations of large multinational operators for local transport services, known informally as MOLTS.<sup>129</sup> These have operations in numerous cities and the major operators employ over 450,000 workers (see table 2.1). Many large companies have created daughter companies, which often apply different collective agreements.<sup>130</sup> Obtaining an accurate estimate of the employment share of these companies is hampered by the dearth of data available, especially in a form that enables comparisons among countries and regions.

► **Table 2.1. Major multinational operators for local transport services providing urban passenger transport services**

Multinational operators for local transport services	Number of employees	Number of countries with operations
Transdev (2018)	73 590	20
Keolis (2018)	65 664	16
Autonomous Parisian Transportation Administration (RATP) Group (2018)	63 000	14

<sup>128</sup> Yazhe Wang, Baihua Zheng and Ee peng Lim, "Understanding the Effects of Taxi Ride-sharing: A Case Study of Singapore", *Computers, Environment and Urban Systems* 69 (2018): 124–132.

<sup>129</sup> Takeru Shibayama and Hitoshi Ieda, "MOLTS: Multinational Operators for Local Transport Services", *Asian Transport Studies* 1, No. 3 (2011): 234–249; 236.

<sup>130</sup> L. Hook, "Venture Capital Starts to Tune Out of On-demand Services", *Financial Times*, 24 February 2016.

Multinational operators for local transport services	Number of employees	Number of countries with operations
Arriva (2019)	46 000	14
National Express (2019)	51 000	8
ComfortDelGro (2018)	24 697	7
Go-Ahead Group (2018/2019)	29 000	6
Mass Transit Railway (MTR) (2018)	31 896	4
First Group (2018)	36 500	3

Note: For First Group, the category “Number of employees” includes First Transit, First Bus and First Rail and excludes Greyhound and First Student.

Sources: **Transdev**: *Transdev Group Financial Report 2018*, 6, 20, 54; **Keolis**: *Groupe Keolis SAS Financial Report 2018*, 18, 33; **RATP Group**: *Activity and Sustainable Development Report 2018*, 10, 15; **Arriva**: *Slavery and Human Trafficking Statement*, 2019, 1; **National Express**: *A Trusted Partner Driving a Cleaner Future: Annual Report 2019*, 72; **ComfortDelgro**: *Annual Report 2018*, 2–3; **Go-Ahead Group**: *Annual Report and Accounts for the year ended 29 June 2019: Taking care of every journey*, 4, 25; **MTR**: *Connecting Communities: Annual Report 2018*, 102; **First Group**: *Annual Report and Accounts, 2018*, 14 and 18 (limited to First Bus and First Transit).

## Local, state and sovereign debt expansion

- 63.** Debt sustainability has deteriorated in a number of countries. In the past ten years external debt has risen at an average annual rate of 8.5 per cent for developing countries, and in 2018 totalled US\$7.6 trillion.<sup>131</sup> The United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) has warned of the fragility of developing economies and provided guidance on how they can mitigate growing debt vulnerabilities.<sup>132</sup> Countries with a higher risk of debt distress may face challenges in finding investments for urban passenger transport projects.

## Spread of infectious diseases

- 64.** A pandemic can be defined as “an epidemic occurring worldwide, or over a very wide area, crossing international boundaries and usually affecting a large number of people”<sup>133</sup> – in other words, a global disease outbreak. Pandemics cause significant risk to workers, sickness, absenteeism, change patterns of commerce and interrupt domestic and global supply chains.<sup>134</sup> They may also confront transport authorities and operators with difficult decisions as to how to protect workers from infection, avoid dismissals or compensate wages if workers take leave during the pandemic. The Employment and Decent Work for Peace and Resilience Recommendation, 2017 (No. 205), provides guidance to enable recovery and build resilience.
- 65.** The outbreak of a novel coronavirus disease in 2019 (COVID-19) has led to a range of necessary measures being imposed on urban passenger transport services in order to

<sup>131</sup> UNCTAD, “Debt Sustainability in Developing Countries is Deteriorating Fast”, 7 November 2018.

<sup>132</sup> UNCTAD, *Financing for Development: Debt and Debt Sustainability and Interrelated Systemic Issues*, TD/B/EFD/2/2, 2018.

<sup>133</sup> J.M. Last, ed., *A Dictionary of Epidemiology*, fourth edition (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001) cited in Heath Kelly, “The Classical Definition of a Pandemic is not Elusive”, *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 89 (2011): 540–541.

<sup>134</sup> National Cooperative Highway Research Program, *Report 769: A Guide for Public Transportation Pandemic Planning and Response* (Washington, DC: Transportation Research Board, 2014), 8.

prevent its spread. COVID-19 has had significant impacts on urban passenger transport systems, operators and workforces, as detailed in Appendix V.

## ► 3. Decent and sustainable work

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- 66.** The ILO Declaration on Social Justice for a Fair Globalization promotes decent work through a coordinated approach to achieving four strategic objectives, namely, employment, social protection, social dialogue, international labour standards and fundamental principles and rights at work, with gender equality and non-discrimination as cross-cutting policy drivers. The following sections also address sectoral priorities in the context of the ILO Centenary Declaration for the Future of Work.

### 3.1. Employment

#### 3.1.1. Creating sustainable enabling environments

##### Formalization <sup>135</sup>

- 67.** The employment share of the informal economy, which ranges from less than 5 per cent in several high-income countries to more than 90 per cent in several low-income countries, is negatively correlated with per capita income. <sup>136</sup> Employment in the informal economy occurs mainly among the self-employed and in microenterprises. Nevertheless, medium-sized and large enterprises also contribute to employment in the informal economy. <sup>137</sup> The informal economy is largest in South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa. <sup>138</sup> “The promotion of sustainable enterprises ... needs to place particular emphasis on supporting the transition of informal economy operators to the formal economy and ensuring that laws and regulations cover all enterprises and workers.” <sup>139</sup>
- 68.** In many cities, particularly in low- and middle-income countries, urban passenger transport is predominantly informal, including buses, minibuses, taxis, motorcycle taxis and tricycle rickshaws, and provides employment for millions of people. Comprehensive and accurate figures are difficult to obtain, but there are examples of recent estimates in Nairobi, where approximately 70,000 people are employed in the *matatu* minibus industry, <sup>140</sup> and in Kampala, with 250,000 people working in the *boda-boda* motorcycle taxi industry alone. <sup>141</sup>
- 69.** In 2015, the 104th Session of the International Labour Conference adopted the Transition from the Informal to the Formal Economy Recommendation, 2015 (No. 204), applicable to all sectors where there are informal workers. Recognizing the need for “urgent and

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<sup>135</sup> This subsection is based on Dave Spooner, “The Future of Decent and Sustainable Work in Urban Passenger Transport Services: Policy Notes”, Global Labour Institute (GLI) (unpublished), commissioned by the ILO (ILO Archive).

<sup>136</sup> ILO, *Small Matters: Global Evidence on the Contribution to Employment by the Self-employed, Micro-enterprises and SMEs*, 2019, 2.

<sup>137</sup> ILO, *Small Matters*, 15.

<sup>138</sup> ILO, *Small Matters*, 16.

<sup>139</sup> ILO, *Conclusions concerning the promotion of sustainable enterprises*, International Labour Conference, 96th Session, 2007, para. 9.

<sup>140</sup> GLI, *Nairobi Bus Rapid Transit: Labour Impact Assessment Research Report*, 2019, 60.

<sup>141</sup> GLI, *Kampala Bus Rapid Transit: Understanding Kampala's Paratransit Market Structure*, 2020.

appropriate measures to enable the transition of workers and economic units from the informal to the formal economy, while ensuring the preservation and improvement of existing livelihoods during the transition”, it provides guidance to Members to facilitate that transition “while respecting workers’ fundamental rights, and ensuring opportunities for income security, livelihoods and entrepreneurship”.<sup>142</sup> The guiding principles state that Members should take into account “the fulfilment of decent work for all through respect for the fundamental principles and rights at work, in law and practice” and further recognize the importance of “the preservation and improvement, during the transition to the formal economy, of the entrepreneurial potential, creativity, dynamism, skills and innovative capacities of workers and economic units in the informal economy”.<sup>143</sup>

70. In cities where transport is dominated by informal operations, the planning and implementation of sustainable formalized transport may be hampered by the weakness of institutional frameworks and the lack of an enabling environment for sustainable business development. The core of the problem lies in the identification of appropriate organizational structures capable of overseeing the transition from informal to sustainable formal employment, managing passenger transport operations, registering and regulating routes, vehicles, owners and workers, that have the confidence of fleet owners, the workforce and the public.
71. The gig economy may form part of broader phenomena such as the casualization of the workforce and the informalization of the formal economy.<sup>144</sup> The decentralized nature of work in new business models and the gig economy may lead some urban passenger transport workers to be deprived of the benefits and labour protections of an employment relationship by the very fact of being involved in informal employment.<sup>145</sup>

### Just transition<sup>146</sup>

72. The transport sector is a significant contributor to greenhouse gas emissions and climate change. Informal transport operations may experience productivity gaps and conditions that can exacerbate emissions, air pollution and noise. In this sense, while the transition to a green economy may result in the creation of some new and better-quality jobs in urban passenger transport, there are far larger numbers of jobs in environmentally unsustainable small-scale and informal services which are potentially at risk.
73. In 2015, the ILO adopted the *Guidelines for a just transition towards environmentally sustainable economies and societies for all* as a policy framework to guide the transition to environmentally sustainable economies and societies. The *Guidelines* call for collaborative efforts among governments, international organizations, employers’ and workers’ organizations to achieve a just transition. They further establish that coherent policies “also need to provide a just transition framework for all to promote the creation of more decent jobs, including as appropriate: anticipating impacts on employment, adequate and sustainable social protection for job losses and displacement, skills development and social

<sup>142</sup> ILO, [Recommendation No. 204](#), Para. 1(a).

<sup>143</sup> ILO, [Recommendation No. 204](#), Para. 7(f) and (j).

<sup>144</sup> Valerio De Stefano, *The Rise of the “Just-in-time Workforce”: On-demand Work, Crowdsourcing and Labour Protection in the “Gig-economy”*, ILO, Conditions of Work and Employment Series No. 71, 2016, iii and 2.

<sup>145</sup> ILO, *A Challenging Future for the Employment Relationship: Time for Affirmation or Alternatives?*, The Future of Work Centenary Initiative, Issue Note Series 3, 2016, 6.

<sup>146</sup> This subsection is based on Spooner, “The Future of Decent and Sustainable Work in Urban Passenger Transport Services”.



dialogue, including the effective exercise of the right to organize and bargain collectively”.<sup>147</sup>

► **Box 1. Ensuring a just transition: Labour impact assessments**

Recommendation No. 204 and the *Guidelines* both underline the importance of consulting all stakeholders affected by formalization or greening endeavours. It will therefore be essential to take into consideration the cost of skills and the retraining of displaced workers to help them achieve employability. One potential avenue could be for workers to request that governments and/or major lenders undertake a labour impact assessment in order to gather information about the informal transport workforce (including numbers and characteristics of workers, occupations, issues including gender and the formalization of women transport workers) and estimate the potential impact of formalization (for example of the bus rapid transit system) on livelihoods. Whereas the lending criteria of most development banks include compulsory environmental and social impact studies, they do not require studies of the impact on employment. In this connection, the Global Labour Institute (GLI) has carried out labour impact assessments in Nairobi and Dakar, commissioned by the ITF with Swedish Government financial support, and in Kampala, commissioned by the French Development Agency.

Sources: ITF, *Bus Rapid Transit (BRT) and the Formalisation of Informal Public Transport: A Trade Union Negotiating Guide*, 2019, 8; GLI, *Nairobi Bus Rapid Transit: Labour Impact Assessment*, 2018; ITF and GLI, *Dakar Bus Rapid Transit: Labour Impact Assessment Research Report 2020*; and GLI, *Kampala Bus Rapid Transit: Understanding Kampala's Paratransit Market Structure*, 2020.

74. The *Guidelines* propose that in order to address microeconomic and industry-level challenges, “[g]overnments, in consultation with social partners, should ... integrate sustainable development and a just transition into macroeconomic and growth policies: (i) undertake collaborative efforts between governments, international organizations, employers’ and workers’ organizations to incorporate the just transition framework into macroeconomic policies”.<sup>148</sup>
75. Environmental and social impact assessments are undertaken by major urban passenger transport infrastructure projects financed by international development banks.<sup>149</sup> With a very few recent exceptions, these do not include assessments of the impact on employment in informal transport services. The budgets of major transport infrastructure projects rarely include compensation for the affected workforce.

### Investment, sustainable finance

76. Investment in urban passenger transport is crucial to improving the quality of life and economic vitality of cities – it creates jobs, provides access to jobs and supports jobs in many other industry sectors, helping to stimulate economic growth. Appropriate debt regulation and urban planning frameworks may help governments to question the value and properly assess the viability of projects based on economic, financial, social and employment creation performance. Urban planning processes are in some cases absent or deficient in developing and emerging countries. A number of targets under SDG 16 are relevant, including targets 16.5 (Substantially reduce corruption and bribery in all their forms), 16.6 (Develop effective, accountable and transparent institutions at all levels) and

<sup>147</sup> ILO, *Guidelines for a just transition towards environmentally sustainable economies and societies for all*, 2015, para. 13(e).

<sup>148</sup> ILO, *Guidelines for a just transition*, para. 19(a)(i).

<sup>149</sup> See, for example, Chaogang Wang and Zeynep Darendeliler, “*Conducting Social Assessments in Urban Transport Projects*”, World Bank Working Paper, Social Development How-To Note No. 81990, 2013.

16.7 (Ensure responsive, inclusive, participatory and representative decision-making at all levels).

### Responsible procurement

- 77.** The Labour Clauses (Public Contracts) Convention (No. 94) and Recommendation (No. 84), 1949, aim to remove wages and working conditions from the price competition necessarily involved in public tendering. Whereas Article 1(2) of Convention No. 94 specifies that the Convention applies to “central authorities”, Paragraph 1 of Recommendation No. 84 extends its applicability to include subsidized or licensed public utilities. This could mean, for example, that license agreements with private operators to run bus services should include labour clauses that are “substantially similar” to those of public contractors. Transport authorities or main operators can also set social conditions applying to subcontractors and require them to provide equal labour guarantees.
- 78.** In recent decades, the role and nature of public procurement have changed significantly. New forms of government contracting have appeared; the growing importance of public-private partnerships, subcontracting, global sourcing and the complexities of supply chain management, as well as the increasing devolution and decentralization of public procurement policies and decisions, are “putting substantial numbers of persons working under public contracts outside the reach of the Convention ...”.<sup>150</sup> Other transport sectors apply chain of responsibility principles that require each party in a contracting chain to “comply with their individual responsibilities and in so doing increase safety and reduce the risk of injury to persons involved in the supply chain and to the general public”.<sup>151</sup>

### Sustainable enterprises and responsible business conduct

- 79.** The conclusions concerning the promotion of sustainable enterprises adopted at the 96th Session (2007) of the International Labour Conference provide “detailed guidance on what constitutes a conducive environment for sustainable enterprises, noting that such an environment combines the legitimate quest for profit with the need for development which respects human dignity, environmental sustainability and decent work”.<sup>152</sup> The adopted text highlights the role of sustainable enterprises as generators of employment and promoters of innovation and decent work, and the role of the private sector as a principal source of economic growth and job creation. There is a lack of consistent and comparable macrodata on an international scale concerning the prevailing business climate in the sector that would afford a better understanding of labour market outcomes.
- 80.** The United Nations *Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights*, the ILO Tripartite Declaration of Principles concerning Multinational Enterprises and Social Policy and the *OECD Guidelines for Multinational Enterprises* provide guidance for the implementation of responsible business conduct, including through human rights due diligence.

<sup>150</sup> ILO, *General Survey concerning the Labour Clauses (Public Contracts) Convention, 1949 (No. 94) and Recommendation (No. 84)*, ILC.97/III(1B), 2008, xiv.

<sup>151</sup> ILO, *Guidelines on the Promotion of Decent Work and Road Safety in the Transport Sector*, 2020, para. 178.

<sup>152</sup> ILO, Conclusions concerning the promotion of sustainable enterprises, v.



### 3.1.2. Job creation, job transformation, job loss

#### Employment creation

- 81.** There are no available employment data or forecasts at the global level for urban passenger transport services. But in the European Union (EU), for example, projections carried out in 2014 suggest a growth in employment resulting in a 12.1 per cent increase in the total number of jobs for this sector by 2030.<sup>153</sup> It is anticipated that employment will increase from 1.9 million workers in 2010 to an estimated 2.1 million by 2030.<sup>154</sup> The share of mobile workers (drivers) is expected to remain constant, at 60.7 per cent in 2010 and 62.2 per cent in 2030.<sup>155</sup> The productivity of the sector is expected to increase by 5.3 per cent.<sup>156</sup> In the United States, public transport and ground passenger transport workers employment increased by 32.1 per cent from 2000 to 2017 (from 372,100 to 491,500 workers).<sup>157</sup>

#### ► Box 2. Green shift and employment in the UNECE region and beyond

The ILO and the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) have developed a number of scenarios to estimate the potential economy-wide employment implications of an accelerated shift to greener land transport in the UNECE region, which consists of 56 Member States. These scenarios explore the employment implications of greener transport, namely by increasing public transport and the electrification of vehicles up to 2030.

Source: UNECE and ILO, *Jobs in Green and Healthy Transport: Making the Green Shift*, 2020.

#### Workforce age

- 82.** The public transport services sector relies on an ageing labour force in several countries, in particular in high-income countries. An ageing workforce can result in multiple challenges including labour shortages and the need for reskilling and upskilling. In the EU, the average age of employed drivers in the passenger transport sector is 52 years.<sup>158</sup> According to the Amalgamated Transit Union (ATU), the sector has the highest percentage of older workers among all industries in the United States – with 35 per cent of all drivers over 55 years of age.<sup>159</sup> Some private sector bus operators see older workers as an important part of a flexible workforce and promote driving jobs as a second career option.<sup>160</sup>
- 83.** In some low- and middle-income countries with a youth bulge, young workers may be concentrated in the informal economy (including the black market, informal small

<sup>153</sup> P. Christidis et al., *Future Employment in Transport: Analysis of Labour Supply and Demand* (European Commission Joint Research Centre, 2014), 94.

<sup>154</sup> Christidis et al., *Future Employment in Transport*, 94.

<sup>155</sup> Christidis et al., *Future Employment in Transport*, 97.

<sup>156</sup> Christidis et al., *Future Employment in Transport*, 94.

<sup>157</sup> United States Department of Transportation, Bureau of Transportation Statistics, National Transportation Statistics, [Table 3-23](#).

<sup>158</sup> International Road Transport Union, *"A Fifth of Driver Positions Unfilled in the European Road Transport Sector"*, 20 March 2019.

<sup>159</sup> ATU, *"ATU Setting the Standard for Transit Apprenticeships"*, *In Transit*, September/October 2018, 15.

<sup>160</sup> Stephen McNair, Matt Flynn and Nina Dutton, *Employer Responses to an Ageing Workforce: A Qualitative Study*, Research Report No. 455 (Leeds: Department for Work and Pensions, 2007), 152.

businesses, self-employed and family business).<sup>161</sup> In some cases, poor job security, low wages and limited chances for on-the-job learning restrict the ability of young people to leverage such jobs to secure better and more formal work.<sup>162</sup> Young people are primarily working in urban passenger transport services, as *boda-boda* drivers, *daladala* minibus conductors and *wapigadebe* (workers who call passengers to ride on the bus). In Kenya, for example, 73 per cent of the *matatu* workforce is under 30 years of age and in the United Republic of Tanzania, 66 per cent of the minibus industry is between 20 and 35 years of age.<sup>163</sup>

### Technological transformation

- 84.** The organization and workforce profiles of urban passenger transport services are changing rapidly as a result of technological change. While technological transformation can provide potential for job creation, there is currently a debate as to whether the adoption of certain automated systems will translate into job transformation or job losses. Young people and women may find themselves at the sharp end of technological transformation.<sup>164</sup> Governance tools, social dialogue, training and reskilling opportunities can mitigate these transformative processes.

### Crises and fragility

- 85.** Economic downturns, wars, civil unrest, financial crises, terrorist attacks, the spread of infectious diseases and any other condition that increases fragility in countries present a number of challenges and risks to authorities, operators and workers. Austerity measures imposed due to economic downturns, for example, have a significant impact on the labour force, which may be slow to recover.<sup>165</sup> Such measures have made it challenging for transport authorities around the globe to balance financial constraints and public pressure to maintain services with decent employment.<sup>166</sup>

## 3.1.3. Access to employment and livelihood opportunities

### Recruitment and retention

- 86.** Attracting, training and retaining talented recruits are key to the success of urban passenger transport operators. Recruitment is linked to the local situation of the job market. In economically dynamic environments, companies tend to have difficulties recruiting, at least during periods of high employment, whereas companies in less dynamic environments may receive a significant amount of applications.<sup>167</sup> There is also a difference in the skills, qualifications and licensing required in different modes – for example, where

<sup>161</sup> ITF, “Questionnaire on ‘Women’s Human Rights in the Changing World of Work’” (submission in response to the questionnaire for the thematic report of the United Nations Human Rights Council (OHCHR)), *Women’s Human Rights in the Changing World of Work – Report of the Working Group on discrimination against women and girls*, A/HRC/44/51, 16 April 2020), 7.

<sup>162</sup> ITF, “Questionnaire on “Women’s Human Rights in the Changing World of Work”.

<sup>163</sup> GLI, *Nairobi Bus Rapid Transit*, 16 and 10.

<sup>164</sup> ILO, *Global Employment Trends for Youth 2020: Technology and the Future of Jobs*, 2020.

<sup>165</sup> Christidis et al., *Future Employment in Transport*, 18.

<sup>166</sup> ILO, *Priority Safety and Health Issues in the Road Transport Sector*, 25.

<sup>167</sup> UITP Observatory of Employment in Public Transport, *Report 2*, 2012, 15.

bus drivers need a licence whereas metro or train drivers require a technical degree.<sup>168</sup> In 2009, labour turnover of drivers was similar for all public transport modes, at about 12 per cent.<sup>169</sup> Article 1 of the Paid Educational Leave Convention, 1974 (No. 140), defines paid educational leave as “leave granted to a worker for educational purposes for a specified period during working hours, with adequate financial entitlements” while Article 2 stipulates that such leave may include “training at any level”, “general, social and civic education” and “trade union education”.

## Skills mismatch

- 87.** Changes in the skills profiles needed (demand-side) or a perceived lack of job attractiveness (supply-side) might lead to or exacerbate labour market mismatches in the urban passenger transport sector in the near future.<sup>170</sup> Skills mismatch<sup>171</sup> exists in the form of skills gaps, skills shortages and skills obsolescence. The prevalence of skills mismatch comes with significant social and economic costs, including poor road safety outcomes, reduced frequency or service due to shortages and/or increased unemployment in the cases of skills obsolescence.

## Skills gaps

- 88.** The skills required from the workforce in urban passenger transport services include both technical and soft skills. For example, the role of bus driver has changed drastically in recent years, moving from simply driving the bus to being an ambassador for the company and ensuring superior customer service.<sup>172</sup> The technical skills required in urban areas include navigating complex traffic scenarios,<sup>173</sup> working in intelligent transport systems, adjusting to new technologies (innovations in fare collection, driver-assist vehicle guidance systems) and behind-the-wheel or remote vehicle monitoring of autonomous buses.<sup>174</sup> Drivers providing urban passenger transport services are now also required to have eco-driving skills in order to reduce fuel consumption and the emission of pollutants.<sup>175</sup>
- 89.** Small-scale and informal drivers may lack formal driver training and, in some cases, have low levels of education. They may arrive in cities from rural areas in search of better opportunities.<sup>176</sup> In many cities, urban passenger transport plays a valuable role in the inclusion of disadvantaged groups in the labour force.<sup>177</sup> For example, pedicab drivers in many Asian cities have some of the lowest levels of education; it is estimated that over

<sup>168</sup> UITP Observatory of Employment in Public Transport, *Report 2*, 2012, 16.

<sup>169</sup> UITP Observatory of Employment in Public Transport, *Report 1*, 2011, 4.

<sup>170</sup> Christidis et al., *Future Employment in Transport*, 18.

<sup>171</sup> Seamus McGuinness, Konstantinos Pouliakas and Paul Redmond, *How Useful is the Concept of Skills Mismatch?* (ILO, 2017), 1: The term “skills mismatch” can be used to describe “vertical mismatch (usually measured in terms of overeducation, undereducation, overskilling and underskilling), skill gaps, skill shortages (usually measured in terms of unfilled and hard-to-fill vacancies), field of study (horizontal) mismatch and skill obsolescence”.

<sup>172</sup> Transportfocus, *Bus Driver Training – What Works? What Next?*, 2015, 3.

<sup>173</sup> Laura Bliss, “There’s a Bus Driver Shortage. And No Wonder.”, Bloomberg Citylab, 28 June 2018.

<sup>174</sup> Steve Polzin, *Implications to Public Transportation of Emerging Technologies*, National Center for Transit Research, 2016, 12.

<sup>175</sup> Felicitas Mensing et al., “Eco-driving: An Economic or Ecologic Driving Style?”, *Transportation Research Part C: Emerging Technologies* 38 (2014): 110–121.

<sup>176</sup> Cervero, *Informal Transport in the Developing World*, 27.

<sup>177</sup> UITP/ETF, *Towards Sustainable Urban Mobility: Joint UITP/ETF Statement*, 2016, 3.

15 per cent of the population depends directly or indirectly on informal transport for their livelihood. In Dhaka, this proportion has been estimated at over 25 per cent.<sup>178</sup>

### Skills shortages

90. Skills shortages in a sector occur due to the inability of the labour market to meet the demand for skills by employers, resulting in unfilled or hard-to-fill vacancies.<sup>179</sup> This is reflected in the urban passenger transport services sector by the shortage of bus drivers. For instance, in the United States, public transport agencies across multiple cities such as Seattle and Minneapolis are grappling with rising bus driver shortages, resulting in reduced bus service, increased wait times and cutbacks in routes.<sup>180</sup> Similarly, in New Zealand, the Greater Wellington Regional Council sought help from the Government five times between December 2018 and July 2019 to address the issue of bus driver shortages.<sup>181</sup> The Indian cities of Delhi, Mumbai and Bangalore have also reported acute shortages of bus drivers due to low pay, heavy workloads and highly stressful conditions.<sup>182</sup>

### Skills obsolescence

91. Skills obsolescence can occur as a result of both technological changes and formalization. Technological innovations such as automation, intelligent transport systems, taxi apps and app-based platforms all have a distinct role to play in the obsolescence of skills among urban passenger transport service providers. For instance, the automation of metro systems transforms the role of a train driver from the physical operation of a vehicle to remote vehicle operation through a control centre.<sup>183</sup> This not only renders the physical skill of driving a train obsolete but also requires the driver to acquire new skills, such as management of the operations control centre and operation of multi-functional console systems and automatic vehicle location systems.<sup>184</sup> The effect of similar automation on buses is predicted to be different.
92. The advent of app-based mobility services has transformed the urban mobility sector.<sup>185</sup> From a driving perspective, the utilization of these platforms requires upskilling in terms of platform proficiency, digital literacy, soft skills and financial literacy.<sup>186</sup>

### Training, lifelong learning and professionalization

93. Initial training and lifelong programmes are key factors in increasing the productivity satisfaction and employability of workers, as well as improving their career development potential. The Human Resources Development Recommendation, 2004 (No. 195), provides

<sup>178</sup> Gwilliam, *Cities on the Move*, 102.

<sup>179</sup> McGuinness et al., *How Useful is the Concept of Skills Mismatch?*, 9.

<sup>180</sup> See Bliss, "There's a Bus Driver Shortage.", and CBS New York, "[New York Schools Concerned About Bus Driver Shortage](#)", 8 February 2019.

<sup>181</sup> Georgina Campbell, "[Pleas to Government over Wellington's Bus Driver Shortage](#)", *NZ Herald*, 4 September 2019.

<sup>182</sup> Martand Jha, "[Do You Have to Wait Really Long for DTC Buses? This Might be the Reason](#)", *Youth Ki Awaaz*, 29 December 2016; "[Maharashtra State Road Transport Corporation Face Shortage of Drivers and Conductors](#)", *The Times of India*, 23 April 2017; Avinash Bhat, "[BMTC Drivers Work in Risky, High-stress Conditions](#)", *The Hindu*, 25 November 2015.

<sup>183</sup> John Geddie, "[Automated Buses Dodge Peacocks, Tourists and Plants in Singapore Test](#)", *Reuters*, 27 August 2019.

<sup>184</sup> World Bank, "[Toolkit on Intelligent Transport Systems for Urban Transport: Automatic Vehicle Monitoring](#)".

<sup>185</sup> ITF, *[Regulating App-based Mobility Services: Summary and Conclusions](#)*, ITF Roundtable Reports No. 175, 2019.

<sup>186</sup> Caribou Digital, "[Innovations in Upskilling: Uber has Partnered with Old Mutual to Equip Uber Driver-Partners with Financial Management Skills](#)", Case study, January 2020.

in Paragraph 4(b) that “the realization of lifelong learning should be based on the explicit commitment: by governments by investing and creating the conditions to enhance education and training at all levels; by enterprises in training their employees; and by individuals in developing their competencies and careers”.

94. Well-trained workers who are confident and competent in their roles and satisfied with their working conditions help boost productivity, increase passenger satisfaction and, ultimately, improve a company's performance.<sup>187</sup> This matter was recognized in EU Directive 2003/59/EC on the initial qualification and periodic training of drivers of certain road vehicles for the carriage of goods or passengers, which requires compulsory ongoing training to be provided (35 hours over a five-year period).<sup>188</sup> This has led most EU operators to offer additional training, mainly in customer relations, refresher driver training, eco-driving and stress management.<sup>189</sup>
95. Workers in the informal economy face numerous barriers to access skills and training opportunities.<sup>190</sup> One of the main barriers to the formalization and professionalization of informal urban passenger transport workers remains the lack of institutional capacity to deliver or monitor the provision of adequate skills.<sup>191</sup> The lack of adequate skills – including essential skills such as reading – poses road safety challenges. There is a need to further fund and develop vocational and training institutions. Article 1 of the Human Resources Development Convention, 1975 (No. 142), establishes that “[e]ach Member shall adopt and develop comprehensive and co-ordinated policies and programmes of vocational guidance and vocational training, closely linked with employment” while Article 4 stipulates that each “shall gradually extend, adapt and harmonise its vocational training systems to meet the needs for vocational training throughout life of both young persons and adults in all sectors of the economy and branches of economic activity and at all levels of skill and responsibility”. Article 5 specifies that these “[p]olicies and programmes of vocational guidance and vocational training shall be formulated and implemented in co-operation with employers’ and workers’ organisations”. This would enable new skills needs to be identified and new training programmes to be designed accordingly. Vocational institutions can contribute to the reduction of skills gaps, mismatches and eventually unemployment.
96. In Addis Ababa and Accra, between 30 and 50 per cent of passenger vehicles are operated by unlicensed drivers.<sup>192</sup> In some cities, drivers are not made aware of maintenance manuals, and training and retraining are rarely practised.<sup>193</sup> But the lack of adequate skills and training among bus drivers is not a constant feature in all cities in low- and middle-income countries. For instance, both in Abidjan and Kinshasa, bus drivers and conductors are provided with professional training.<sup>194</sup>
97. Unions and informal transport associations can provide education and training for their members, which may include vocational training. For example, the Pakistan Transport Workers’ Federation partners with police and traffic management authorities to provide

<sup>187</sup> UITP Observatory of Employment in Public Transport, *Report 2*, 2012, 16.

<sup>188</sup> EU, [Directive 2003/59/EC](#) of 15 July 2003.

<sup>189</sup> UITP Observatory of Employment in Public Transport, *Report 2*, 2012, 11.

<sup>190</sup> Robert Palmer, [Lifelong Learning in the Informal Economy: A Literature Review](#) (ILO, 2020).

<sup>191</sup> Gwilliam, *Cities on the Move*, 166.

<sup>192</sup> Ajay Kumar and Fanny Barrett, [Stuck in Traffic: Urban Transport in Africa](#) (World Bank, 2008), 18.

<sup>193</sup> Kompier, “Bus Drivers”, 16.

<sup>194</sup> Kumar and Barrett, *Stuck in Traffic*, 18.

regular training to its members on traffic rules and regulations.<sup>195</sup> The ATU has also piloted operator apprenticeship and mentorship programmes in order to help new entrants cope with stress and acquire the soft skills required on the job, in particular if they have trucking or delivery driver backgrounds.<sup>196</sup>

## Diversity and gender

98. Public transport operators are starting to look at diversity and inclusion as a source of competitive advantage, as an inclusive workforce improves service delivery. The sector is working towards achieving a more inclusive workforce.<sup>197</sup> However, there are still significant barriers for women to enter the sector, including violence against women.<sup>198</sup>
99. It is necessary to accelerate women's access to employment in the sector. Discriminatory laws and practices that promote driving positions as a "male occupation" are still prevalent.<sup>199</sup> According to a World Bank study, 16 countries have laws in place that do not allow women to work in the transport sector.<sup>200</sup> At the global level, in 2019 the ITF and UITP adopted a positive employer gender policy including joint recommendations on strengthening women's employment and equal opportunities in public transport.<sup>201</sup>
100. Gender aspects of decent work should be given special attention when evaluating the consequences of privatization. Gender equality in public service delivery may additionally be affected by privatization and reforms, including reduced employment and pay for women, and more casual working arrangements.<sup>202</sup>

## 3.2. Social protection and conditions of work

### 3.2.1. Social protection (social security)

101. Universal social protection is essential for realizing the human right to social security for all, advancing social justice and promoting inclusive growth, and accelerating progress towards achieving the SDGs.<sup>203</sup> Under SDG target 1.3, countries included in the 2030 Agenda aim to "[i]mplement nationally appropriate social protection systems for all, including floors" for reducing and preventing poverty. This commitment to universalism reaffirms the global agreement on the extension of social security achieved by the Social Protection Floors Recommendation, 2012 (No. 202).<sup>204</sup> Recommendation No. 202 provides guidance to Members on building comprehensive social security systems and extending social security coverage by prioritizing the establishment of national social protection floors that ensure

<sup>195</sup> Women in Informal Employment: Globalizing and Organizing (WIEGO), "[Transport Workers](#)".

<sup>196</sup> ATU, "ATU Setting the Standard", 15.

<sup>197</sup> UITP, *How to Build a Diverse and Inclusive Sector*, Action Point, March 2020.

<sup>198</sup> ILO, *Women in the Transport Sector: Promoting Employment by Preventing Violence Against Women Transport Workers*, Transport Policy Brief, 2013.

<sup>199</sup> Katrin Schulz and Nato Kurshitashvili, "Women Working Behind the Wheels? Not Everywhere – Yet", *World Bank Blogs*, 12 June 2018.

<sup>200</sup> World Bank Group, *Women, Business and the Law 2020*, 9.

<sup>201</sup> ITF/UITP, *Positive Employer Gender Policy: Joint Recommendations – Strengthening Women's Employment and Equal Opportunities in Urban Public Transport*, 7 March 2019.

<sup>202</sup> ILO, "Conclusions on the Impact of Decentralization and Privatization on Municipal Services", JMMS/2001/10, 31, para. 4.

<sup>203</sup> ILO, *World Social Protection Report 2017–19: Universal Social Protection to Achieve the Sustainable Development Goals [Executive Summary]*, 2017, 1.

<sup>204</sup> ILO, *World Social Protection Report*, 1.



that all in need have access to at least essential healthcare and basic income security throughout their lives, including workers in the informal economy and their families. The ILO Centenary Declaration for the Future of Work, in Part III A(iii), calls upon Members “to further develop its human-centred approach to the future of work by ... [s]trengthening the capacities of all people to benefit from the opportunities of a changing world of work through ... universal access to comprehensive and sustainable social protection”.

- 102.** A significant number of transport operators recruit on a part-time basis that often does not give workers access to the full range of benefits provided by the national social protection system to full-time workers.<sup>205</sup> However, the Part-Time Work Convention (No. 175) and Recommendation (No. 182), 1994, establish the principle that statutory social security schemes should be adapted so that part-time workers enjoy conditions equivalent to those of comparable full-time workers, proportionate to their hours of work, contributions or earnings. The implementation of equal treatment has been incorporated into the legal frameworks of EU Member States<sup>206</sup> and the majority of OECD countries. In these jurisdictions, part-time workers are legally entitled, on a pro-rata basis, to the same contractual pay and working conditions as equivalent full-time workers.<sup>207</sup>
- 103.** Digitalization will continue to have an important impact on jobs and workers in the urban passenger transport services industry and the manner in which social protection is extended to them. It has led to greater flexibility in jobs and work organization, including workers on digital platforms, but also to greater informality. Social security systems will have to address these issues for a new generation of workers and adapt in order to ensure that new employment arrangements do not lead to significant gaps in social protection coverage but, on the contrary, result in strengthened and adapted systems that cover workers in all types of employment adequately and comprehensively.<sup>208</sup> In order to do so, measures to prevent the misclassification of employment relationships and extend social security coverage to those not yet protected are required.<sup>209</sup> Digital technology also provides opportunities to ensure social security coverage for urban passenger transport workers, such as apps that facilitate the payment of social security contributions and taxes for transport workers on digital platforms.<sup>210</sup>
- 104.** Recommendations Nos 202 and 204 recognize that social security is an important tool to support the transition from informal to formal employment.<sup>211</sup> In addition, in seeking to close gaps in protection through appropriate and effectively coordinated schemes these Recommendations could contribute to formalizing workers who are excluded or do not

<sup>205</sup> UITP Observatory of Employment in Public Transport, *Report 2*, 2012, 11.

<sup>206</sup> EU, [Directive 97/81/EC](#) of 15 December 1997.

<sup>207</sup> Colette Fagan et al., *In Search of Good Quality Part-time Employment*, ILO, Conditions of Work and Employment Series No. 43, 2014, 20–21.

<sup>208</sup> UITP/ETF, *Digital Transformation and Social Dialogue in Urban Public Transport in Europe: Final Report*, 2020, 29. See also Christina Behrendt and Quynh Anh Nguyen, *Innovative Approaches for Ensuring Universal Social Protection for the Future of Work* (ILO, 2018); and Christina Behrendt, Quynh Anh Nguyen and Uma Rani, “Social Protection Systems and the Future of Work: Ensuring Social Security for Digital Platform Workers”, *International Social Security Review*, 72, No. 3, 2019.

<sup>209</sup> ILO, “Extending Social Security Coverage to Workers in the Informal Economy: Lessons from International Experience”, 2019, 87.

<sup>210</sup> Such as those introduced in Uruguay. See Social Insurance Bank (BPS), Uruguay, “Formalizing Enterprises and Workers in the Shared Economy (Transporting Passengers Using Mobile Phone Applications: UBER, Cabify, EasyGo): A Case of the Social Insurance Bank,” winning submission in the International Social Security Association (ISSA) Good Practice Awards – Americas competition 2017. See also ILO, *Extending Social Security Coverage to Workers in the Informal Economy*.

<sup>211</sup> Spooner, “The Future of Decent and Sustainable Work in Urban Passenger Transport Services”, 9–10.

participate in social protection systems but who do contribute to savings cooperatives or workplace welfare funds.<sup>212</sup> Furthermore, Recommendation No. 202 may help many informal transport workers to access social protection schemes in that it provides guidance to government administrations as to how to redress weaknesses in implementation or raise the awareness of workers that they may be eligible for social protection.<sup>213</sup>

### 3.2.2. Diverse forms of work arrangements and conditions of work

- 105.** Reform and privatization of municipal services have influenced conditions of work in the sector in different ways, including in terms of work intensity, income, pension rights, health and other benefits,<sup>214</sup> health and safety outcomes<sup>215</sup> or job security.<sup>216</sup> In some cases, when urban passenger transport services have been outsourced or transferred to the private sector there has been a significant impact on the terms and conditions of employment for the staff concerned and on employment levels.<sup>217</sup>
- 106.** Digitalization and automation have facilitated the proliferation of new and emerging forms of employment, including work on digital platforms, and in some countries have led to an increase in on-call employment or other forms of temporary and part-time employment, as well as dependent self-employment and temporary agency work. While sometimes assisting in business adaptability and growth, non-standard forms of employment, in parts of the world, exhibit a higher incidence of decent work deficits, not sufficiently addressed by regulatory frameworks, enforcement and labour inspection systems.<sup>218</sup>
- 107.** In cities where informal transport passenger services are prevalent, multiple and complex types of employment arrangement exist. These may include workers who are informally employed (on a casual or more permanent basis) or dependent self-employed workers (for example, leasing vehicles).<sup>219</sup> Others may be vehicle owners, who may operate as owner-drivers or be informal employers themselves (with any number of vehicles leased to or driven by others).<sup>220</sup>

### 3.2.3. Inspection

- 108.** Consistent with the principles set forth in Articles 4, 5 and 6 of the Labour Inspection Convention, 1947 (No. 81), the existence of an effective, properly funded and staffed labour inspection system has an impact on the conditions of work in industrial workplaces. It

<sup>212</sup> Spooner, “The Future of Decent and Sustainable Work in Urban Passenger Transport Services”, 10.

<sup>213</sup> Spooner, “The Future of Decent and Sustainable Work in Urban Passenger Transport Services”, 8 and 10.

<sup>214</sup> ILO, “Conclusions on the Impact of Decentralization and Privatization on Municipal Services”, JMMS/2001/10, 31, para. 5.

<sup>215</sup> Michael Quinlan, *The Effects of Non-standard Forms of Employment on Worker Health and Safety*, ILO, Conditions of Work and Employment Series No. 67, 2015, 15–16; Peter F. Swan, “Neoliberal Rail Policies and Their Impacts on Public Safety”, paper presented at the *Neoliberalism’s Threat to Safety and Transport Workers’ Response – An International Symposium*, Seoul, Republic of Korea, 28 October 2015, 180–208, where he argues that when safety externalities are shifted onto society, the public pays the price in terms of reduced safety as well as inefficiency.

<sup>216</sup> ILO, *The Impact of Decentralization and Privatization on Municipal Services*, JMMS/2001, 55 and 63.

<sup>217</sup> ILO, *The Impact of Decentralization and Privatization on Municipal Services*, JMMS/2001, 59.

<sup>218</sup> ILO, *GB.323/POL/3*, Appendix: Report of the Tripartite Meeting of Experts on Non-Standard Forms of Employment (Geneva, 16–19 February 2015), Conclusions, 50–53, paras 2 and 6.

<sup>219</sup> WIEGO, “Transport workers”.

<sup>220</sup> ITF, *The Power of Informal Transport Workers*, 13.



provides protection of rights, encourages safe and healthy work practices and improved productivity, and contributes to the creation of a workplace health and safety culture.

- 109.** In accordance with the Labour Inspection (Mining and Transport) Recommendation, 1947 (No. 82), Members should apply to transport undertakings – as defined by the competent authority – “appropriate systems of labour inspection to ensure the enforcement of legal provisions relating to conditions of work and the protection of workers while engaged in their work”.

### 3.2.4. Occupational safety and health

#### Stress and work-related risks

- 110.** Urban and road transport workers face a range of specific work-related health risks, including stress and mental health issues, musculoskeletal disorders, non-communicable work-related conditions (such as cardiovascular disease, gastrointestinal disorders or metabolic disorders) and communicable work-related diseases, including a high risk of infection.<sup>221</sup> Some studies and documents establish a relationship between non-standard forms of employment and health and safety outcomes.<sup>222</sup>
- 111.** Urban passenger transport workers are subjected to the harmful effects of noise, air pollution, congestion and crowding and may be adversely affected by worsening climatic conditions, for example by heat stress.<sup>223</sup> Delays due to traffic congestion, timetabling practices and staffing levels can encourage drivers to speed in order to make up for timetable delays, endangering passengers and road users. Worker surveillance, digitization and performance monitoring increases job intensity and is linked to higher rates of occupational stress, strain injuries and other adverse health outcomes.
- 112.** For informal transport workers, congestion poses particular challenges as it is not only a stressor but may directly affect their income and working hours. Other major issues faced by most informal transport workers include police corruption, extortion and harassment, social discrimination and lack of respect from passengers and the public, poor and disunited leadership, and crime.

#### Sickness, absenteeism

- 113.** A number of studies have analysed the interrelationship between sickness, absenteeism, turnover and disability among urban passenger transport workers, in particular among bus drivers.<sup>224</sup> In recent years, driver sickness and absenteeism has become a major concern for public transport operators. Its causes include low autonomy, irregular work schedules,

<sup>221</sup> ILO, *Living and Working Conditions of Persons Employed in Urban Transport Services*, report prepared for the Meeting of Experts on Conditions of Work in Urban Transport Services (Geneva, 10–19 February, 1965), 72. See also ILO, *Priority Safety and Health Issues in the Road Transport Sector*, and Kompier, *Bus Drivers*, 3–4.

<sup>222</sup> Including, but not limited to, Quinlan, “The Effects of Non-standard Forms of Employment on Worker Health and Safety”; ILO, *Priority Safety and Health Issues in the Road Transport Sector*, para. 120; ILO, *Conclusions on safety and health in the road transport sector*, TSMRTS/2015/13, adopted by the Tripartite Sectoral Meeting on Safety and Health in the Road Transport Sector (Geneva, 12–16 October 2015), para. 8; Michael Quinlan, Claire Mayhew and Philip Bohle, “The Global Expansion of Precarious Employment, Work Disorganization, and Consequences for Occupational Health: A Review of Recent Research”, *International Journal of Health Services*, 31, No. 2 (2001): 335–414.

<sup>223</sup> Tord Kjellstrom et al., *Working on a Warmer Planet: The Impact of Heat Stress on Labour Productivity and Decent Work* (ILO, 2019).

<sup>224</sup> ILO, *Report of the Meeting of Experts on Working Conditions of Persons Employed in Urban Transport Services* (Geneva, 10–19 May 1965).

traffic conditions, time pressure, security threats or violence from passengers and poor working relationships in the organization. The fact that drivers are mobile workers and seldom meet with their managers can exacerbate isolation and sense of lack of control. A primary reason for sickness and absenteeism among drivers is lower back pain, which is caused by a combination of forced posture and extensive sedentary work; other reasons include poor working conditions, vehicle vibration and excessive workloads.<sup>225</sup> Punitive sickness absence or punitively administered performance management policies may encourage drivers to work while sick and exacerbate health problems.

### Violence and harassment

- 114.** Urban passenger transport workers can experience violence and harassment, including transit rage, with disorderly and troublesome passengers. Sometimes drivers are robbed or assaulted. Extortion and harassment by traffic police can be common in the informal industry.<sup>226</sup> Physical harm is an occupational risk for bus drivers, especially in large cities and during night shifts. Against this background, the ILO recently adopted the Violence and Harassment Convention (No. 190) and Recommendation (No. 206), 2019.
- 115.** In 2015, the ITF and UITP issued a joint statement on recommendations for combating violence and insecurity on urban public transport, highlighting the importance of prevention programmes encompassing organization of the service, technology and design, and human resources.<sup>227</sup>
- 116.** Violence and harassment against women in informal urban passenger transport services are widespread (both for workers and passengers). The ITF and UITP have underscored that “sexual harassment and violence ... can limit the attraction of jobs in the transport sector for women and break the retention of those who are employed in the transport sector, as well as undermining a positive working environment for all”.<sup>228</sup>

### Welfare facilities

- 117.** Sanitary installations and welfare facilities are highlighted as an important field of action in certain ILO occupational safety and health standards, notably the Occupational Safety and Health Recommendation, 1981 (No. 164). Welfare facilities play an essential role in ensuring transport worker wellness, public health and decent working conditions. Such facilities include access to fresh and hot water, bathroom, washing and other sanitary facilities, and safe and secure parking and rest areas. The lack of such facilities can have negative consequences for all transport workers, with specific impacts on women workers. In 2019, the ITF published the *Transport Workers’ Sanitation Charter*, setting out the urgent improvements needed in this regard and the potential benefits thereof as well as risks, rights and responsibilities.<sup>229</sup>

<sup>225</sup> Friderika Kresal et al., “Lower Back Pain and Absenteeism Among Professional Public Transport Drivers”, *International Journal of Occupational Safety and Ergonomics* 21, No. 2 (2015): 166–172.

<sup>226</sup> GLI, *Kampala Bus Rapid Transit*; GLI, *Nairobi Bus Rapid Transit*; GLI, *Dakar Bus Rapid Transit*.

<sup>227</sup> UITP–ITF, *Joint Statement: Recommendations for Combating Violence and Insecurity on Urban Public Transport*, 27 May 2015, 4.

<sup>228</sup> ITF/UITP, *Positive Employer Gender Policy*, 1.

<sup>229</sup> ITF, *Transport Workers’ Sanitation Charter*, 2019.

### 3.2.5. Working-time arrangements

- 118.** In many countries, urban passenger transport drivers are in many instances exempt from working-time regulations. Working-time patterns vary widely in the industry and have an important impact on driver fatigue. Many drivers are employed on a part-time basis and/or work shifts. The variation between start and end times can significantly impact shift rotas. Some transport operators may schedule days ahead, while others schedule with only a few hours' notice.
- 119.** Irregular working patterns and last-minute shift changes can impact workers' health, safety, work-life balance and, ultimately, road safety outcomes.<sup>230</sup> Irregular working-time arrangements and part-time work, including on-call or on-demand work, can pose severe challenges to workers' ability to effectively manage and balance their work and non-work responsibilities.<sup>231</sup> They can also impact men and women differently; against this background, the Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention, 1981 (No. 156), addresses the equality of opportunity issues to which such differences can give rise.
- 120.** The ILO has a number of instruments and tools that may help the industry to address the issue of fatigue, including The Hours of Work and Rest Periods (Road Transport) Convention, (No. 153) and Recommendation No. 161, 1979,<sup>232</sup> which establish a specific reference standard for the road transport sector that may apply to urban passenger transport operations.

### 3.2.6. Wages and earnings

- 121.** Wages in the sector vary by the level of activity and task. Data on wage levels in the overall sector are hard to come by. There are no earnings data sources available for informal urban passenger transport workers. Concerns over uneven or low earnings for platform workers have sparked the interest of some local jurisdictions to initiate studies and/or adopt legislation on drivers' earnings.<sup>233</sup>
- 122.** Workers – often in informal transport operations – can find themselves working under the “target system”, whereby drivers are required to pay vehicle owners a daily financial “target” (rental or leasing fee).<sup>234</sup> This system leads informal and dependent self-employed workers to start operating at a loss, with the hope that there will be enough passengers to enable them to pay the often unilaterally or arbitrarily imposed leasing fees. This may push them to work when fatigued and for longer hours, which frequently leads to drug and alcohol abuse while working.<sup>235</sup> In Latin America, the effects of the target system may be exacerbated by the *guerra del centavo* (penny wars), meaning that the most lucrative routes are often served by an excessive number of small-scale drivers competing against each other for every passenger by racing and stopping at informal kerbside stops. Such competition – in addition to promoting predatory behaviour, unsafe and polluting driving

<sup>230</sup> Kompier, *Bus Drivers*, 11–14.

<sup>231</sup> Jon Messenger, *Working Time and the Future of Work*, ILO Future of Work Research Paper Series No. 6, 12, 13, 23–25.

<sup>232</sup> The Working Party on Policy Regarding the Revision of Standards (1995–2002) considered that Convention No. 153 and Recommendation No. 161 should be revised (see [GB.271/LILS/WP/PRS/2](#), paras 79–90; [GB.271/LILS/5\(Rev.1\)](#), paras 65–74; and [GB.283/LILS/WP/PRS/1/2](#), para. 43). These standards will be examined by the Standards Review Mechanism Tripartite Working Group in accordance with its initial programme of work.

<sup>233</sup> ILO, “The Future of Work in the Taxi Sector”, 2018, unpublished report (ILO Archives).

<sup>234</sup> ITF, *Bus Rapid Transit (BRT) and the Formalisation of Informal Public Transport: A Trade Union Negotiating Guide*, 2019, 30.

<sup>235</sup> ITF, *Bus Rapid Transit*.

practices, and violence – tempts vehicle operators to neglect vehicle maintenance and other safety standards, including speed limits.<sup>236</sup>

### 3.3. Social dialogue and tripartism

- 123.** Social dialogue includes all types of negotiation, consultation and exchange of information between, or among, representatives of governments, employers and workers on issues of common interest. Evidence and practice show that social dialogue and tripartite cooperation lead to the improvement of working conditions. Social dialogue is based on respect for freedom of association and the effective recognition of the right to collective bargaining. These rights, set forth in the Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98), the Labour Relations (Public Service) Convention, 1978 (No. 151), and the Collective Bargaining Convention, 1981 (No. 154), cover all workers in all sectors, irrespective of the type of their employment relationship, including in the road transport sector.
- 124.** Social dialogue is crucial to the development of sustainable enterprises. The conclusions concerning the promotion of sustainable enterprises (2007) establish that “[h]uman resource development in sustainable enterprises should be based on social dialogue and workers’ participation. Sustainable enterprises view skilled workers as a major source of competitive advantage and view employees both as assets and agents for change.”<sup>237</sup> Social dialogue can contribute to reconciling the interests of operators, passengers and workers through such processes of formalization.

#### ► Box 3. EU sectoral social dialogue

Within the EU framework, sectoral social dialogue for urban transport services has been conducted formally on a biannual basis since 2001 by a working group of the Road Sectoral Social Dialogue Committee. The social partners are the ETF, representing workers, and UITP, representing employers. Through social dialogue, the social partners seek to promote employment in urban public transport and further develop their commitments to improving the quality of working conditions as one of the conditions for good quality of services. The outcomes of this dialogue have included joint recommendations, joint political statements, joint studies, projects and joint conferences.

Source: UITP and ETF, *Social Dialogue in the Urban Public Transport Sector in Specific Central and Eastern European Countries*, 2019, 23.

- 125.** “Social dialogue is an essential prerequisite for designing, implementing and evaluating decentralization and privatization. ...This process may be time-consuming and long, but it is rewarded by sustainable results and by ownership of all stakeholders in the decisions taken. The process may take place in several stages and should be supported by an external dialogue between the municipality, as the responsible government structure, and the citizens and users.”<sup>238</sup> In some cases, social dialogue and collective bargaining rights have been impacted by the decentralization, privatization and outsourcing of municipal and local

<sup>236</sup> World Bank, *Implementation Completion and Results Report (IBRD-72310 IBRD-74570 IBRD-77390) on a Loan in the Amount of USD757 Million to the Republic of Colombia for the Integrated Mass Transit Systems Project*, 2013, 81. See also World Bank, *Lima Teleferico San Juan de Lurigancho (P170609) – Project Information Document*, 2019, 5. See also Marcelo Giugale, Olivier Lafourcade and Connie Luff, *Colombia: The Economic Foundation of Peace* (World Bank, 2002).

<sup>237</sup> ILO, Conclusions concerning the promotion of sustainable enterprises, para. 13(2).

<sup>238</sup> ILO, “Conclusions on the impact of decentralization and privatization on municipal services”, JMMS/2001/10, 32, para. 6.

services.<sup>239</sup> Tendering and procurement regulatory frameworks can help in the promotion of social dialogue.

126. The collective bargaining relationship between unions and management, particularly the collective bargaining agreement, can have a direct, measurable effect on organizational effectiveness in public transport operations.<sup>240</sup> However, a fundamental challenge for effective social dialogue is the lack of a supportive legal and institutional framework for freedom of association and collective bargaining.<sup>241</sup> Workers' and employers' organizations must be able to represent their members without interference from governments or from one another.<sup>242</sup> Another challenge is the lack of compliance mechanisms, such as enforcement institutions and conciliation–mediation procedures, to support the implementation of agreements.
127. Throughout the informal transport economy effective social dialogue between stakeholders is rare. Most workers' organizations in the informal transport economy are associations, savings and credit cooperatives (known as SACCOs), and other forms of cooperatives and informal self-help groups, which are not recognized or registered as trade unions and are rarely included in formal tripartite processes or structures.<sup>243</sup>
128. Most informal employers are identified by authorities and themselves as “vehicle owners” or transport “operators” rather than as employers. Similarly, many workers – particularly drivers and riders – identify themselves as self-employed or entrepreneurs, rather than workers, even though most are in an informal employment relationship. The term “operator” is widely used by authorities and social partners and may include both employer and worker. Many organizations in the informal transport industry include both employers and workers.<sup>244</sup>
129. The strengthening and engagement of unions and associations representing informal transport workers in social dialogue is an important step towards formalization. For example, the introduction of bus rapid transit systems in sub-Saharan Africa has led to substantial improvements in the ability of informal transport workers' organizations to engage in social dialogue in Kenya, Senegal and Uganda.<sup>245</sup>
130. One of the key findings of the *World Economic and Social Outlook 2018* was that social dialogue “is a valuable tool for advancing towards a just transition. At the international level, green issues, together with labour standards, have become the subject of social dialogue between multinational enterprises and global union federations in international framework agreements. At the national level, social dialogue has contributed to making environmental governance more labour-friendly, for instance through collective agreements.”<sup>246</sup>

<sup>239</sup> See ILO, “Report of the Discussion” in Note on the Proceedings: Joint Meeting on the Impact of Decentralization and Privatization on Municipal Services, JMMS/2001/10, 7–29, paras 39, 43, 58 and 61.

<sup>240</sup> Herbert H. Oestreich and George L. Whaley, *Transit Labor Relations Guide* (Mineta Transportation Institute, San José State University, 2001).

<sup>241</sup> ILO, “Strengthening Social Dialogue for Inclusive and Sustainable Growth”, Background Note supplementing the Report of the Director-General to the 16th Asia and the Pacific Regional Meeting, *Building an Inclusive Future with Decent Work: Towards Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific* (Bali, 6–9 December 2016).

<sup>242</sup> ILO, “Strengthening Social Dialogue”.

<sup>243</sup> Spooner, “The Future of Decent and Sustainable Work in Urban Passenger Transport Services”, 4.

<sup>244</sup> Spooner, “The Future of Decent and Sustainable Work in Urban Passenger Transport Services”, 4.

<sup>245</sup> Spooner, “The Future of Decent and Sustainable Work in Urban Passenger Transport Services”, 5.

<sup>246</sup> ILO, *World Economic and Social Outlook 2018: Greening with Jobs*, 71.

### 3.4. International labour standards and fundamental principles and rights at work

- 131.** Governments and social partners have the responsibility to ensure that the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work and its Follow-up and the relevant ratified ILO Conventions protect and apply to all transport workers under the conditions set out in each Convention. In this sense, governments have undertaken to:
- recognize the important role of social partners in the sector, taking into account the Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87), and the Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98);
  - respect, promote and realize equality of opportunity and treatment for women and men without discrimination of any kind, taking into account the Equal Remuneration Convention (No. 100) and Recommendation (No. 90), 1951, and the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention (No. 111) and Recommendation (No. 111), 1958;
  - take measures to prevent and eliminate child labour in urban transport services, taking into account the Minimum Age Convention (No. 138) and Recommendation (No. 146), 1973, and the Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention (No. 182) and Recommendation (No. 190), 1999;
  - pursue policies that prevent and eliminate the use of compulsory labour in urban transport services, and protect victims and provide access to remedies, in accordance with the Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29) and its Protocol of 2014, and the Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105).
- 132.** The concept of essential services is based on Article 3 of Convention No. 87, which establishes the right of workers' organizations to organize their administration and activities and formulate their programmes without interference by the public authorities. In some countries, some categories of transport services or transport workers are considered "essential". The scope of "essential services" varies from country to country and depends to a large extent on the particular circumstances prevailing in a country.<sup>247</sup> Most ILO Member States have adopted a variety of measures to ensure the continuous delivery of basic services, by declaring them essential services and/or by requiring minimum service levels that the population must receive without interruption.<sup>248</sup>
- 133.** The ILO Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations has specified that transport is not an essential service in the strict sense of the term.<sup>249</sup> At the same time, the Committee on Freedom of Association has expressed the view that "[r]espect for the obligation to maintain a minimum service in the rail and of the underground railway's activities to meet the minimal needs of the local communities is not

<sup>247</sup> Timo Knäbe and Carlos R. Carrión-Crespo, *The Scope of Essential Services: Laws, Regulations and Practices*, Working Paper No. 334 (ILO, 2019), 9.

<sup>248</sup> Knäbe and Carrión-Crespo, *The Scope of Essential Services*, 9.

<sup>249</sup> ILO, *Report of the Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations*, ILC.109/III(A), 2020, 43.

an infringement of the principles of freedom of association”.<sup>250</sup> Nevertheless, 25 of the 53 countries covered in a recent ILO paper define transport as an essential service.<sup>251</sup>

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<sup>250</sup> Committee on Freedom of Association, *Compilation of Decisions of the Committee on Freedom of Association, 6th Edition* (ILO, 2018), para. 889. See also ILO, *Report of the Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations*, ILC.105/III(1A), 2016, 76; “The Committee further recalls that the minimum service must genuinely and exclusively be a minimum service, that is one which is limited to the operations which are strictly necessary to meet the basic needs of the population or the minimum requirements of the service, while maintaining the effectiveness of the pressure brought to bear; and that, in the past, it has considered that a requirement of 50 per cent of the volume of transportation may considerably restrict the right of transport workers to take industrial action.”

<sup>251</sup> Knäbe and Carrión-Crespo, *The Scope of Essential Services*.





## ► Appendix I

### ► Percentage share of major transport means used to meet individual mobility needs in selected cities

	Urban passenger transport mobility		Personal mobility	Soft mobility
	Formal	Informal	Private vehicles	
Bangladesh (Dhaka) [2017]	29	47	5	19 *
Plurinational State of Bolivia (La Paz and El Alto) [2015]	7	68	6	19 *
Plurinational State of Bolivia (Cochabamba) [2015]	0	53	21	26
Brazil (Rio de Janeiro) [2015]	43	5	23	28 *
Cameroon (Douala) [2019]	5	53	5	33 *
China (Beijing) [2012]	44	10	32	14**
Colombia (Bogotá) [2011]	41	8	18	28 *
Colombia (Cartagena) [2012]	57	14	20	9
Côte d'Ivoire (Abidjan) [2018]	6	41	11	42 *
Ecuador (Quito) [2011]	60	1	23	16
Ethiopia (Addis Ababa) [2010]	7	40	9	44 *
Ghana (Accra) [2010]	1	96	3	n.d.
India (Mumbai) [2018]	70	13	14	3
Kenya (Nairobi) [2005–06]	3	42	7	48 *
Malaysia (Kuala Lumpur) [2010]	16	1	83	0
Namibia (Windhoek) [2010]	9	26	24	27
Nigeria (Lagos) [2015]	3	45	12	40 *
Rwanda (Kigali) [2012]	18	46	23	11 *
South Africa (Johannesburg) [2018]	15	45	33	7
Tunisia (aggregate for multiple cities) [2014]	15	12	27	36 *
United Republic of Tanzania (Dar es Salaam) [2014]	68	n.d.	14	17 *

Note: In some cases, totals may not add up to 100.

**Formal** includes bus, light rail, rail, metro, subway and taxi.

**Informal** includes small-scale mini- and midi-bus, shared taxis, taxi, commercial two- and three-wheelers.

**Private vehicles** includes motorized vehicles, such as cars and two-wheelers.

**Soft mobility** includes non-motorized transport: cycling, walking.

n.d. = no data.

\* data only available or taking into consideration for walking.

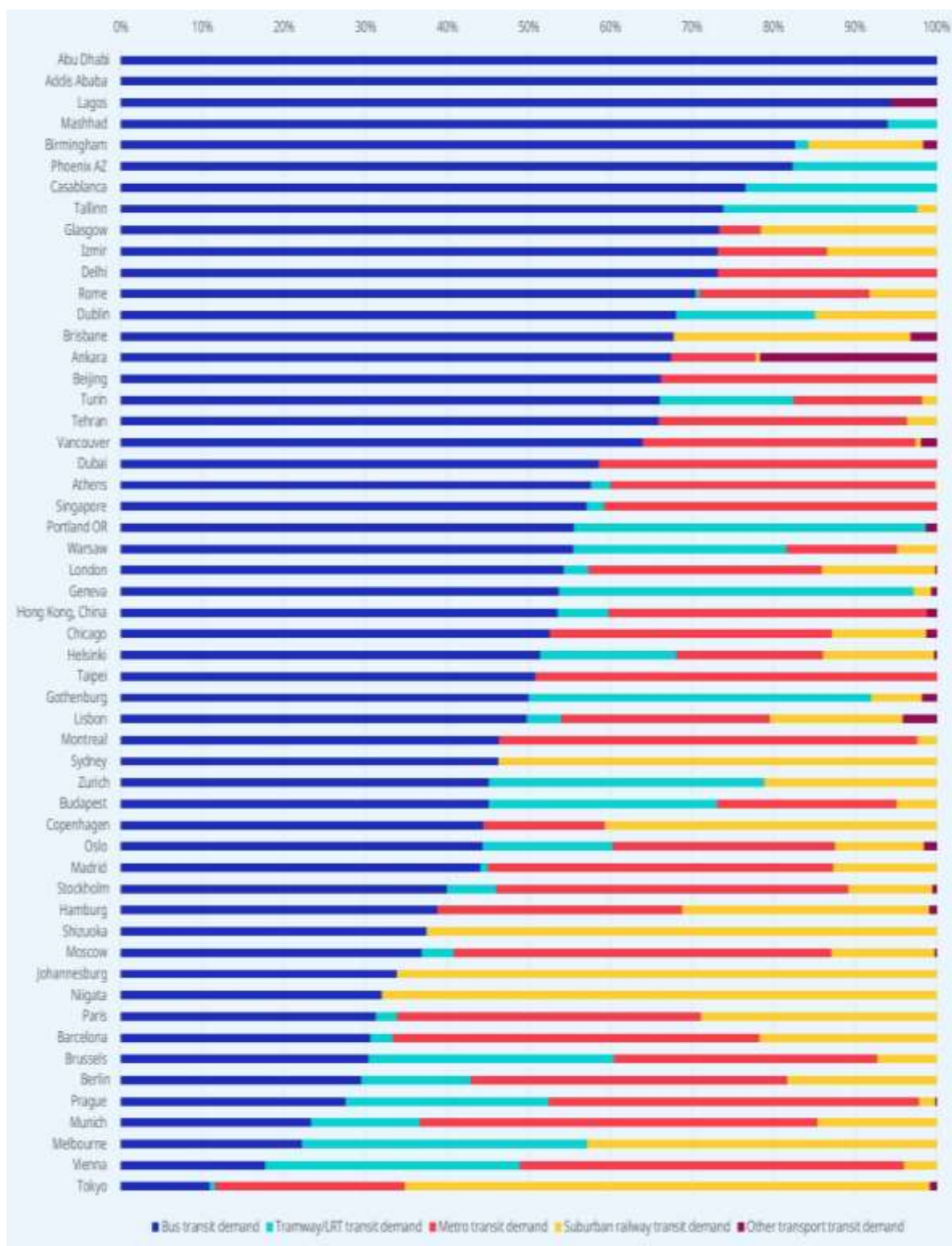
\*\* data only available for cycling.

	Urban passenger transport mobility		Personal mobility	Soft mobility
	Formal	Informal	Private vehicles	

Sources: **Bangladesh:** United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, “[Improving Urban Transport Systems in Dhaka](#)”, presentation to Capacity-building Workshop on Sustainable Urban Transport Index held in Colombo, Sri Lanka, October 2017, 4; **Plurinational State of Bolivia (La Paz and El Alto):** Ancor Suárez-Alemán and Tomás Serebrisky, [Los teleféricos como alternativa de transporte urbano?](#), Inter-American Development Bank, 2017; **Plurinational State of Bolivia (Cochabamba):** Juan Cabrera, “[Entre el transporte informal y la ciudad inteligente](#)”, Universidad Mayor de San Simón, 2015; **Brazil:** City of Rio de Janeiro Municipal Transport Secretariat (SMTR), *Plano de Mobilidade Urbana Sustentável (PMUS): Produto 3 – Diagnóstico, Volume II: Caracterização dos deslocamentos e componentes do sistema de mobilidade*, 2015, 39; **Cameroon:** MobiliseYourCity, “[MobiliseYourCity in Cameroon](#)”, 2019, citing the Douala Urban Community Sustainable Urban Mobility Plan; **China:** Diwen Shen, “[Travel Mode Choice Since the 2007 Beijing Public Transit Fare Reform: A Study of the Effect of Crowding and Thermal Comfort](#)”, unpublished thesis, University of California, Berkeley, 2015, 3 (citing the Beijing Transportation Research Centre, *Beijing Transport Annual Report (2006–2012)*); **Colombia (Bogotá):** Camila Rodríguez Hernández and Tatiana Peralta Quiros, “[Balancing Financial Sustainability and Affordability in Public Transport: The Case of Bogotá, Colombia](#)”, World Bank, presentation to OECD on 4 April 2016, 9; **Colombia (Cartagena):** Cartagena Cómo Vamos, *Movilidad urbana en Cartagena*, 2012; **Côte d’Ivoire:** World Bank, *Abidjan Urban Mobility Project (P167401) Project Information Document/Integrated Safeguards Data Sheet*, 2018, 5; **Ecuador:** Quito Municipal District, *Diagnóstico de la movilidad en el distrito metropolitano de Quito para el plan metropolitano de desarrollo territorial (PMOT)*, 2014 (citing the *Estudio de movilidad – proyecto Metro de Quito – 2011*); **Ethiopia, Ghana and Namibia:** International Association of Public Transport (UITP) and African Association of Public Transport (UATP), *Report on Statistical Indicators of Public Transport Performance in Africa*, 2010, 21; **India:** Deloitte Insights, *Deloitte City Mobility Index – Mumbai*, 2018, 1; **Kenya:** Nairobi City County Government, *Non Motorized Transport Policy – Towards NMT as the Mode of Choice*, 2015, 3; **Malaysia:** Onn Chiu Chuen, Mohamed Rehan Karim and Sumiani Yusoff, “[Mode Choice Between Private and Public Transport in Klang Valley, Malaysia](#)”, *The Scientific World Journal*, 2014, 2; **Nigeria:** Lookman Oshodi, “[Transportation and Mobility System in Lagos](#)”, *International Development, Urban Infrastructure and Governance* (blog), 12 August 2016 (citing the Lagos Metropolitan Area Transport Authority, 2015); **Rwanda:** N.J.W. Van Zyl, L. Swanepoel and M. Bari, “[Planning of a Public Transport System for the City of Kigali, Rwanda](#)”, *Proceedings of the 33rd Southern African Transport Conference*, 2014, 435–453, 443; **South Africa:** Deloitte Insights, *Deloitte City Mobility Index – Johannesburg*, 2018, 1; **Tunisia:** MobiliseYourCity, “[MobiliseYourCity in Tunisia](#)”, 2014; **United Republic of Tanzania:** Charles Cosmas Mkalawa and Pan Haixiao, “[Dar es Salaam City Temporal Growth and its Influence on Transportation](#)”, *Urban, Planning and Transport Research* 2, No. 1 (2014), 423–446, 426.

## ► Appendix II

### ► Modal split of total public transport demand in selected cities



Source: UITP, Mobility in Cities Database 2015 (full data set). The data are property of the UITP and are published following permission granted by the UITP. Any reproduction in any form is strictly forbidden without prior written consent by the UITP.

## ► Appendix III

### ► Urban passenger transport lexicon for small-scale operations (non-exhaustive)

Country (city)	Terms used
Bangladesh (Dhaka)	Large shared auto rickshaw called " <i>tempo</i> " and " <i>leguna</i> " Non-motorized three-wheeled vehicle called "cycle rickshaw"
Brazil (Rio de Janeiro)	Minivans called "vans" Moto-taxis and " <i>kombi vans</i> "
Cameroon (Douala)	Taxi and moto-taxi called " <i>okada</i> "
Colombia (Bogotá)	Bicycle rickshaws called " <i>bicitaxi</i> "
Côte d'Ivoire (Abidjan)	Minibuses called " <i>gbakas</i> " Municipal taxis called " <i>woro-woro</i> "
Cuba (Havana)	Buses called " <i>camellos</i> " Taxis called " <i>boteros</i> " Taxis called " <i>almendrones</i> " Moto-taxis called " <i>cocotaxis</i> " Cycle rickshaw called "bicycle taxi" or " <i>bicitaxi</i> "
Dominican Republic	Taxis called " <i>conchos</i> " Moto-taxis called " <i>motoconchos</i> "
Ethiopia (Addis Ababa)	Minibus taxis known as "blue donkeys"
India (Mumbai)	Three-wheeled autorickshaws Taxis sometimes called " <i>kali-peeli</i> "
Indonesia (Jakarta)	Minibus called " <i>angkot</i> " or " <i>mikrolet</i> " Motorcycle taxi called " <i>ojek</i> " Cycle rickshaw called " <i>becak</i> " Three-wheeled motor taxi called " <i>bajaj</i> " Large three-wheeled motor taxis called " <i>bemos</i> " and " <i>toyokos</i> "
Jamaica (Kingston)	Minibuses called "robots"
Kenya (Nairobi)	Minibus known as " <i>matatu</i> " Motorcycles called " <i>boda</i> "
Mexico (Mexico City)	Minibuses called " <i>colectivos</i> " Colectivos include mini vans called " <i>combis</i> " and minibuses called " <i>pesero</i> "
Nigeria (Lagos)	Minibus called " <i>danfo</i> " Midi-bus called " <i>molue</i> " Tricycles called " <i>keke napep</i> " Motorcycles called " <i>okada</i> "
Philippines (Metro Manila)	Minibus called " <i>jeepney</i> " Taxis and minivans called " <i>filicabs</i> " and " <i>UV express</i> " * Three-wheeled motorcycles called "tricycles"
Rwanda (Kigali)	Minibus taxis called "taxis" or sometimes " <i>matatu</i> " Moto-taxis called " <i>taxi voiture</i> "

Country (city)	Terms used
Senegal (Dakar)	Minibus called " <i>ndiaga ndiaye</i> " or " <i>cars rapides</i> "
South Africa (Johannesburg)	Minibus taxis called " <i>combis</i> "
Thailand (Bangkok)	Minibus or pickup passenger trucks called " <i>songtaew</i> " Micro buses called " <i>silok lek</i> " Pedicabs called " <i>samlor tep</i> " Three-wheeled vehicles called " <i>tuk</i> " or " <i>samlor</i> "
Tunisia (Tunis)	Minibus shared taxis called " <i>louage</i> "
Turkey (Istanbul)	Minibus called " <i>dolmus</i> "
United Republic of Tanzania (Dar es Salaam)	Minibus called " <i>daladala</i> "
* Note: Urban van (UV).	

## ► Appendix IV

### ► Employment in metro (subway) systems in selected cities

Country	Location/company	Employees	Data year
Argentina	Buenos Aires	5 307	2019
Armenia	Yerevan	1 048	2012
Australia	Sydney	9 965	2016
Azerbaijan	Baku	4 455	2012
Belarus	Minsk	3 435	2012
Brazil	Sao Paulo	9 436	2015
Canada	Vancouver (British Columbia Rapid Transport Company)	901	2016
Chile	Santiago	4 007	2016
Czechia	Prague	1 396	2016
Georgia	Tbilisi	2 270	2012
India	Delhi	8 629	2016
Japan	Tokyo (East Japan Railway Company and Subsidiaries)	9 865	2020
Kazakhstan	Almaty	884	2012
Mexico	Mexico City	14 512	2018
	Monterrey	922	2014
Portugal	Lisbon	1 416	2018
Russian Federation	Kazan	913	2012
	Moscow	36 419	2012
	Nizhny Novgorod	1 358	2012
	Novosibirsk	1 498	2012
	Saint Petersburg	14 499	2012
	Samara	1 003	2012
	Yekaterinburg	1 398	2012
South Africa	Passenger Rail Agency of South Africa	5 000	2012/2013
Spain	Barcelona	3 567	2016
Ukraine	Kharkiv	2 114	2012
	Kiev	5 865	2012



Country	Location/company	Employees	Data year
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	London	18 613	2016/2017
	Tyne and Wear (Newcastle)	595	2016
United States of America	New York	73 400	2017
Uzbekistan	Tashkent	2 114	2012

Sources: **Argentina**: Metrovias, *Informe de gestión subte y premetro 2019*, 4; **Armenia**: International Metro Association, “*Yerevan Metro*”, 2012; **Australia**: Sydney Trains, *2015–2016 Annual Report, Vol. 1*, 2016, 21; **Azerbaijan**: International Metro Association, “*Baku Metro*”, 2012; **Belarus**: International Metro Association, “*Minsk Metro*”, 2012; **Brazil**: São Paulo Metropolitan Transport Secretariat, *São Paulo's Metrô Sustainability Report*, 2015, 30; **Canada**: Translink, *2016 Annual People Report*, 4; **Chile**: Metro De Santiago, *2016 Sustainability Report*, 46; **Czechia**: International Metro Association, “*Metro Key Performance Indicators for 2016*”; **Georgia**: International Metro Association, “*Tbilisi Metro*”, 2012; **India**: Delhi Metro Rail Corporation Limited, *Annual Report 2015–2016*, 16; **Japan**: Tokyo Metro, “*Company Outline*”, 2020; **Kazakhstan**: International Metro Association, “*Almaty Metro*”, 2012; **Mexico (Mexico City)**: Sistema de Transporte Colectivo Metro, private correspondence with the ILO Transport Specialist, 15 February 2018; **Mexico (Monterrey)**: Sistema de Transporte Colectivo Metro, “*STC Metrorrey pasado presente y futuro*”, 2014, 33; **Portugal**: Metropolitano de Lisboa, *Annual Report and Accounts 2018*, 58; **Russian Federation (Kazan)**: International Metro Association, “*Kazan Metro*”, 2012; **Russian Federation (Moscow)**: International Metro Association, “*Moscow Metro*”, 2012; **Russian Federation (Nizhny Novgorod)**: International Metro Association, “*Nizhny Novgorod Metro*”, 2012; **Russian Federation (Novosibirsk)**: International Metro Association, “*Novosibirsk Metro*”, 2012; **Russian Federation (Saint Petersburg)**: International Metro Association, “*Saint Petersburg Metro*”, 2012; **Russian Federation (Samara)**: International Metro Association, “*Samara Metro*”, 2012; **Russian Federation (Yekaterinburg)**: International Metro Association, “*Yekaterinburg Metro*”, 2012; **South Africa**: Passenger Rail Agency of South Africa, *Annual Report 2012/13*, 2013, 46; **Spain**: Transports Metropolitans de Barcelona, “*Dades bàsiques: Basic data 2017*”, 1; **Ukraine (Kharkiv)**: International Metro Association, “*Kharkiv Metro*”, 2012; **Ukraine (Kiev)**: International Metro Association, “*Kiev Metro*”, 2012; **United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (London)**: Transport for London, *TfL's Annual Workforce Monitoring Report 2016/17*, 2017, 10 and 32; **United Kingdom (Tyne and Wear)**: Nexus, “*Nexus Annual Equality and Diversity Report: 2015/16*”, 2016, 14; **United States of America**: Metropolitan Transportation Authority, *Diversity Committee Meeting*, November 2018, 26; **Uzbekistan**: International Metro Association, “*Tashkent Metro*”, 2012.

## ► Appendix V

## ILO Sectoral brief: COVID-19 and urban transport services



September 2020

## COVID-19 and Urban Passenger Transport Services

Urban passenger transport is vital for people living in and around towns and cities to access their jobs and enterprises. It can improve social cohesion and quality of life,<sup>1</sup> if it can reduce the isolation of deprived neighbourhoods or contribute towards attaining environmental objectives such as noise control, air quality and the reduction of carbon emissions. Efforts to make it more user-friendly can help to broaden the options to those with impaired mobility.<sup>2</sup> And it is predicted that 68 per cent of the world's population will live in urban areas by 2050, which will exacerbate urban mobility challenges, including the dispersal of jobs, traffic congestion and sprawl.<sup>3</sup> So the policy decisions made today will have long-term implications on local jobs and quality of life in the "cities of tomorrow".

Given the importance of urban transport, it is understandable that some cities have experienced significant economic, environmental and social difficulties as a result of the necessary measures imposed on public transport services to prevent the spread of the COVID-19 virus. Yet such measures have been essential in order to protect operators, workers and the travelling public. This has been particularly important for women, who rely more heavily on public transport to access basic services and perform care responsibilities.<sup>4</sup> This sector's vital role is underlined in a number of the targets under the 2030 Sustainable Development Agenda.<sup>5</sup>

But the pandemic has brought unparalleled consequences to this sector, and exceptional financial support will be needed to enable its full recovery.



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Implementation of enhanced sanitizing measures in Oman

Urban transport is generally one of the most significant local employers in urban areas and staff costs account for a high percentage of overall costs. Financial packages will support operators in balancing their books or continuing to provide services with sustainable levels of debt. In many countries, most transport operators receive subsidies from transport authorities. There is a growing concern, however, that the pandemic could pose an existential threat to some urban passenger transport operators.<sup>6</sup> The sector is now facing financial distress and stimulus packages will have a direct impact

1 ILO, *The Impact of Decentralization and Privatization on Municipal Services: Report for discussion at the Joint meeting on the impact of decentralization and privatization on municipal services*, 2001, p. 12.

2 ILO, *The Impact of Decentralization and Privatization*.

3 "68% of the world population projected to live in urban areas by 2050, says UN", United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs: Population Division: News, 16 May 2018.

4 OECD Council on SDGs, *Gender equality and sustainable infrastructure: Issue note*, 2019, p. 3.

5 OECD Council on SDGs, notably Targets 3.6, 3.9, 11.2 and 11.6.

6 Leonardo Canon Rubio and Georges Darida, "Protecting public transport from the coronavirus... and from financial collapse", World Bank Blogs, 24 April 2020.

on local jobs, as well as a city's high- or low-carbon development path.<sup>7</sup>

COVID-19 prevention measures have increased costs and burdens (for example through cleaning and disinfecting), while the plummeting ridership during lockdown and post-lockdown periods has led to a significant decrease in fares revenues. At the same time, urban transport has had to continue operating

to ensure essential workers get to and from work. In some cases, central/federal governments are providing financial support. Systems that were originally more dependent on fares (as opposed to subsidies/tax revenues) might become bankrupt during or after the pandemic, and informal or lightly regulated transport undertakings now face a catastrophe as a result of the pandemic.<sup>8</sup>

## ► 1. The impact of COVID-19

The world of urban passenger transport services has changed as a result of COVID-19.<sup>9</sup> City authorities have found themselves at the apex of the COVID-19 outbreak. Authorities have deployed crisis management structures, and urban transport operators have been required to implement the protocols and measures issued by competent authorities to combat the spread of the novel coronavirus.<sup>10</sup> Business continuity has been a key objective for a number of transport companies as they maintain operations to transport other essential workers. Operators have been able to maintain services, in many cases with reduced schedules and frequencies,<sup>11</sup> but the pandemic has exposed some of the weaknesses of the sector that will require setting long-term policies and determining the changes to be made overall.<sup>12</sup>

has forced taxi and e-hailing companies in some cities to be creative or re-invent themselves, with many offering food and medicine delivery services.<sup>13</sup> However, this will not be enough to avert a wave of bankruptcies in the industry.<sup>14</sup> Figure 1 includes a summary and comparative examples by date of the transit ridership impact from January 2020 to 30 August 2020 in certain cities.

### Main impacts: the sector

The impact on the different urban mobility modes is widespread but a common denominator has been the decline of ridership across all modes since early March 2020.<sup>15</sup> In spite of plummeting revenues and the COVID-19 exposure risks presented to their workforce, operators have responded to these circumstances to service their communities.<sup>16</sup> For example, the outbreak

7 Philip Turner, "The key role of public transport to build back better: Climate", UITP webinar, 18 May 2020.

8 Paul Barber, "Save Madrid's (mostly informal) public transport", Reinventing transport podcast, 7 May 2020.

9 Mohamed Mezghani, "COVID-19 and the future of public transport", All Over the Place, ITF podcast, 22 April 2020.

10 UITP, Factsheet: Management of COVID-19: Guidelines for public transport operators, 2020, p.1.

11 Mezghani.

12 Alana Dave, "COVID-19 special - Alana Dave - ITF", Intelligent Transport podcast, 29 April 2020.

13 Scott Shepard, "How mobility startups can help authorities fix public transport after the pandemic", Urban Mobility Daily, 22 May 2020.

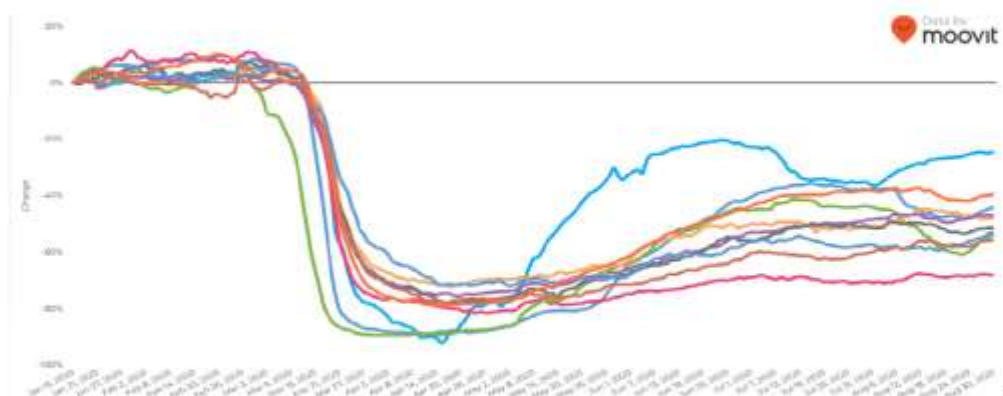
14 Jona Lynott and Mouchka Heller, "How public transportation provides key lifelines during COVID-19", World Economic Forum, 23 April 2020.

15 Rebecca Staudenmaier, "Coronavirus: Germany's taxi drivers face 'catastrophic' situation", in Deutsche Welle, 23 April 2020.

16 Sebastian Bold et al., COVID-19 and Sustainable Mobility - Observations and documentation of first developments (Transformative Urban Mobility Initiative and Deutsche Gesellschaft für internationale Zusammenarbeit, 2020).



Figure 1: Impact of COVID-19 on transit ridership in selected cities



Source: Moovit ([www.moovit.com](http://www.moovit.com)). Note: 107 cities included; the monitoring start date was 15 January 2020.

11 March 2020	20 April 2020
Israel: -0.8 per cent	Israel: -85.9 per cent
Madrid: 3.2 per cent	Madrid: -87.9 per cent
San Francisco - San Jose: -0.6 per cent	San Francisco - San Jose: -80.5 per cent
Roma and Lazio: -33.5 per cent	Roma and Lazio: -88.3 per cent
Chicago: 1.5 per cent	Chicago: -71.2 per cent
NYC - New Jersey: -2.3 per cent	NYC - New Jersey: -75.5 per cent
Boston: 1.6 per cent	Boston: -78.3 per cent
Washington DC - Baltimore: 3.2 per cent	Washington DC - Baltimore: -71.7 per cent
Toronto: -0.6 per cent	Toronto: -76.8 per cent
Others: 3.1 per cent	Others: -78.5 per cent

1 June 2020	30 August 2020
Israel: -32.3 per cent	Israel: -24.4 per cent
Madrid: -63.9 per cent	Madrid: -44.1 per cent
San Francisco - San Jose: -75 per cent	San Francisco - San Jose: -68.3 per cent
Roma and Lazio: -64 per cent	Roma and Lazio: -53.9 per cent
Chicago: -62.5 per cent	Chicago: -47.5 per cent
NYC - New Jersey: -65.9 per cent	NYC - New Jersey: -47.4 per cent
Boston: -67.2 per cent	Boston: -51.7 per cent
Washington DC - Baltimore: -68 per cent	Washington DC - Baltimore: -53.3 per cent
Toronto: -71.6 per cent	Toronto: -55.6 per cent
Others: -61.3 per cent	Others: -39.6 per cent

Source: Moovit ([www.moovit.com](http://www.moovit.com)). NYC: New York City.

Figure 2: Three main operational measures and COVID-19 consequences for urban transport service provision



Source: Paul Comfort, "Dense: a global look at the future of transportation", TransX Unplugged, Trapeze Group podcast, 15 July 2020; James Trimble, "How buses pass us by says Falkirk key workers", in *The Falkirk Herald*, 2 June 2020; UITP, COVID-19 impacts on public transport – Kuwait, 1 July 2020.

A range of different measures have had a profound impact on operators, as authorities have grappled with the effects of the pandemic and a plunge in ridership. The deteriorating macroeconomic environment is affecting, in particular, private and small-scale operators. Figure 2 includes three main operational measures adopted in different cities. For example, in some cities or countries urban transport services have been or were halted for months. In others, a full or limited service has remained available. In some cases, a combination of measures has been applied depending on the particular sanitary circumstances.

### Main impacts: decent work

The pandemic has affected workers in different ways. Although some countries have relaxed working time regulations, for example, it remains crucial that workers do not operate transit vehicles while fatigued.<sup>17</sup> Quarantine measures, self-isolation, workers on sick leave or absenteeism may have led to workforce shortages putting additional stress on business continuity and scheduling procedures. Other cases include a complete halt or shutdown of urban transport operations, with a devastating impact on workers and their wages. In particular, informal workers depend on providing transport services for their livelihoods.<sup>18</sup>

17 Joe Keriny, "Staff management during COVID-19", UITP webinar, 1 April 2020.

18 Anup Ojha, "Bus operators want officials to announce plans to resume public transport", in *The Kathmandu Post*, 20 June 2020.



Given the gaps in labour law and social protection, some urban transport workers have not been able to rely on paid sick leave and hazard pay that other essential workers have been offered on account of their work during the pandemic.<sup>19</sup> The lack of coverage of sickness benefits encourages people to go to work sick or when they should be in self-quarantine, increasing the risk of spreading the virus. In some countries, unions have been actively campaigning for hazard pay or for public transport workers to be recognized as essential and compensated for more than their usual wage (for example, one and a half times).

Urban transport workers are keeping cities alive in this challenging period, as they serve those who serve: hospital, care and other critical service workers.<sup>20</sup>

Employment in formal public transport operators accounts for 7.3 million workers globally and public authorities in charge of transit employ around 300,000 workers. In many large cities, mass public transport systems are the backbone of urban mobility and public employment. Yet, the economic shock that has resulted from the pandemic has meant that formal transport operators are quickly trying to shore up their finances. In some instances, this has led to workforce lay-offs or furloughs.

The closedowns are placing informal workers in an almost impossible dilemma - either they go out to work in dangerous conditions to bring in some earnings or they sit at home with no food on the table.<sup>21</sup> The informal economy predominates in a number of countries. In some, 40-80 per cent of urban transport services may be provided by informal workers. While in some countries urban transport services have transitioned to formality, in others they still remain largely informal. In the African and Latin American region, informal jobs may represent up to 30-40 per cent of the total number of transport jobs.<sup>22</sup> In some countries, taxi/e-hailing drivers may be engaged in non-standard forms of employment and may not be able to participate in social dialogue or benefit from the protection, including social protection, provided to other workers.

Informal workers are falling through the cracks of social protection and financial schemes.<sup>23</sup> In the immediate term, States should prioritize support for those who are particularly vulnerable to the crisis. This includes transport workers in the informal economy by ensuring that their immediate needs are met, including

access to health care and income support through a combination of non-contributory and contributory schemes.<sup>24</sup> The pandemic may, however, present new opportunities to formalize employment, including through strengthened social protection systems, in line with the [Transition from the Informal to the Formal Economy Recommendation, 2015 \(No. 204\)](#). In particular, for small-scale informal transport, social protection demands can constitute a building block to start formalizing workers.<sup>25</sup>

 "You realize that in the informal economy in Kenya - and in many parts of East Africa - they live hand to mouth... And the restricted movements mean no livelihoods at all - livelihood has been destructed, because they have nothing to eat by the end of the day. Then, we are looking also at their jobs and we realize that their jobs are at risk! We do not know what the future holds because after the COVID, we are not sure these jobs will still be there."

► Dan Mihadi, Secretary General, Transport and Allied Workers' Union, Kenya<sup>26</sup>

Women are on the sharp end of this pandemic,<sup>27</sup> as they are often in jobs with low or lower pay or have a low or lower status relative to men, with few, if any, opportunities for career development.<sup>28</sup> The transport sector is still strongly male-dominated and

19 ILO, *Spotlight brief: Sickness benefits during sick leave and quarantine: Country responses and policy considerations in the context of COVID-19*, 2020.

20 Mezghani.

21 Guy Ryder, ILO chief, *Workers in informal economy face 'utter destitution'*, Al Jazeera, 23 May 2020.

22 UITP, *City economies grow dynamic with public transport: Observatory of Employment in Public Transport*, Report 3, 2012, p. 5.

23 Ryder, "ILO chief".

24 ILO, *Spotlight brief: Social protection responses to the COVID-19 pandemic in developing countries: Strengthening resilience by building universal social protection*, 2020 and *Spotlight brief: Social protection responses to the COVID-19 crisis: Country responses and policy considerations*, 2020.

25 Dan Mihadi, "The impact of COVID-19 on informal transport workers", ITF podcast, 10 April 2020. Mihadi.

26 Mihadi.

27 Ryder, "ILO chief".

28 Tessa Wright, *The impact of the future of work for women in public transport* (ITF, 2019). Also see: FLONE Initiative, *Implications of COVID-19 on women professionals in the Kenyan public transport sector*, 2020.

violence, sexual harassment and the intimidation by men have been identified as main concerns in urban transport operations.<sup>29</sup> Women transport workers are disproportionately affected by the pandemic due to the gender segregated nature of the sector and the over-representation of women in customer service roles and cleaning work. These jobs are often subcontracted, increasing the likelihood that the workers involved may have less access to information on health and safety risks and guidelines, personal protective equipment (PPE) and paid leave benefits.

## Special focus on occupational safety and health

**"The occupational health and safety of those working during this crisis [...] should be assessed and addressed."**<sup>30</sup> The ILO Centenary Declaration for the Future of Work, 2019, specifically provides that "safe and healthy working conditions are fundamental to decent work." Workers in at-risk environments should be provided with good quality PPE at no cost.<sup>31</sup> Operators should also provide adequate and timely information to their workers, including their outsourced and subcontracted workforce. No one should feel forced to work in conditions that unnecessarily endanger their health because they fear losing their job or a pay cheque. Workers have the right to remove themselves from the workplace in case of danger, as recognized by the *ILO Occupational Safety and Health Convention (No. 155)*.<sup>32</sup> In some cases, sourcing and purchasing PPE and cleaning or health supplies may be affected by the absence of formal employment relationships. PPE and health supplies have been limited for all transport occupations in the informal economy, including informal owner-operators and transport drivers.

The ILO's international guidance on physical distancing was published in *A safe and healthy return to work during the COVID-19 pandemic*.<sup>33</sup> The brief suggests that "physical distancing should be implemented to the greatest extent possible. A distance of 2 metres between workers is suggested as adequate, unless national guidance or the results of risk assessments determine otherwise." It also mentions that "informal workers may not be able to comply with the precautions mandated by health authorities, such as physical distancing, handwashing or self-isolation,

which increases the risk of contagion. The protection of informal workers must focus on prevention through the timely dissemination of information on and awareness-raising of the transmission of the disease. Basic infection control measures, such as respiratory hygiene, cough etiquette and the use of PPE, are essential when other more sophisticated engineering controls may not be available."

**Cooperation between management and workers and/or their representatives within the undertaking shall be an essential element of workplace-related prevention measures.**<sup>34</sup> While in some countries, national public policy and industry agreements prescribe at least 2 metres of physical distancing at all times, others have adopted varying distancing restrictions (for example, no restrictions, 1, 1.5, 1.8 meters (6 feet) or 2 meters). However, in small sized vehicles, it might be simply unfeasible to adequately shield or maintain users at a safe physical distance from the drivers (for example, boda boda).<sup>35</sup> The latest advice of the World Health Organization (WHO) suggests that wearing a non-medical mask can be a "potential benefit for source control" in settings where physical distancing cannot be achieved (such as urban transport settings).<sup>36</sup> Physical distancing and/or other protective requirements (masks, plastic shields, no fare collection) near drivers or other transport workers will mean that authorities and/or operators will have to establish the appropriate enforcement mechanisms to protect workers.

**Urban transport workers may also be confronted with unruly behaviour from passengers, and authorities and operators may seek to engage with public service workers to curb unintended risks.** In some countries an increase in aggressive behaviour (against drivers and non-office-based staff) and vandalism has been observed.<sup>37</sup> "Transit rage" could rise as drivers may ask passengers to pay fares or respect local sanitary rules (such as wearing masks) upon boarding the vehicle. A bus driver from Bayonne, France, for example, was assaulted and died on 10 July after he reportedly asked three passengers on his bus to wear face masks.<sup>38</sup> Police or specialized transit police forces have jurisdiction to intervene in cases of violence and harassment against transit workers. The recently adopted *Violence and Harassment Convention, 2019 (No. 190) and Violence*

29. Dave Spooner and John Mark Mwanika, "Transforming Transport Unions through Miss Organisation of Informal Workers: A Case Study of the Amalgamated Transport & General Workers Union (ATGWU) Uganda", *Global Labour Journal*, 9 (2), 2017.

30. OHCHR, "COVID-19 Guidance", n.d. See section on Social and Economic Impacts.

31. ILO *Occupational Safety and Health Convention, 1981 (No. 155)*, Article 21.

32. ILO Convention No. 155, Article 13.

33. Other international guidance includes: WHO, *Considerations for public health and social measures in the workplace in the context of COVID-19 (Annex to Considerations in adjusting public health and social measures in the context of COVID-19)*, 10 May 2020.

34. ILO Convention No. 155, Article 20.

35. Mhadi.

36. WHO, "Coronavirus disease (COVID-19) advice for the public: When and how to use masks", n.d.

37. Bernetta Harting, "Staff management during COVID-19", UITP webinar, 1 April 2020.

38. "France: Bus driver dies after 'attack over face masks' in Bayonne", BBC News, 10 July 2020.



and Harassment Recommendation, 2019 (No. 206) apply to all sectors, whether private or public, both in the formal and informal economy.

**Transit workers can find themselves at the forefront of service provision during the pandemic and may be at high risk of severe illness.** It should be taken into consideration that in some high-income countries, the sector has an ageing labour force that might be more vulnerable to the effects of COVID-19. Occupational hazards can include years of exposure to diesel fumes and/or infectious agents or unsafe air quality while stuck in traffic.<sup>39</sup> These occupational hazards may contribute to pre-existing health conditions, making some workers more susceptible to respiratory diseases.<sup>40</sup>

**Workers are often stressed because of their fear of catching the virus, while others will have concerns of passing it on to family and friends.**<sup>41</sup> In particular, in the case of mobile workers (drivers) and other non-office-based staff (for example, yard-based workers), communication, at both the corporate and team levels, remains of vital importance.<sup>42</sup> The pandemic has exacerbated common mental health conditions,

such as anxiety and depression, in particular for front-line workers.<sup>43</sup> Managers need to be prepared to have sensitive and supportive discussions with the workers and find innovative means to communicate, interact and engage with them (such as through text alerts and online communities).<sup>44</sup> Adequate and regular communication between operators and their workers is needed to boost morale, encourage self-care, inspire team spirit, and protect and reassure workers.<sup>45</sup>

**In some cities, the rate of transit worker death from COVID-19 may be pacing that of first responders.**<sup>46</sup> Bus, taxi and e-hail drivers are particularly vulnerable to the novel coronavirus in 2020. During the pandemic the following workers lost their lives: 131 workers in [New York City](#) (as of 27 August), 34 [London](#) bus workers (as of 27 July) ten taxi and limousine drivers servicing [Toronto's](#) Pearson International Airport (as of 5 May), two bus rapid transit drivers in [Bogotá](#) (as of 26 July) and at least 11 in [Mexico City](#) (as of 14 May) and nine transit workers in [Paris](#) (as of 13 May). However, there is scarce or no data to fully gauge the impact of the pandemic on informal, non-unionized, concessioned and contracted services.

## ► 2. Responses by constituents and partners

Tripartite dialogue and responses, involving workers, employers and governments, as well as collective bargaining between employers' and workers' organizations are key to addressing the implications of the pandemic. The action taken by ILO constituents has generally focused on three immediate goals: protecting workers in the workplace; supporting companies and providing financial support; and, in the case of Governments, various measures to mitigate the impact on this vital sector.

### International sectoral responses and resources

From an urban transport perspective, some of the most relevant international guidance documents and databases include:

#### United Nations bodies:

- The ILO and the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe have issued a report entitled [Jobs in Green and Healthy Transport](#).
- The United Nations Human Settlements Programme has issued a [key messages](#) document and a [COVID-19 response plan](#) that recommend supporting local governments to manage safe urban mobility and transport, with a focus on those serving communities in informal settlements, while observing any transit and physical distancing restrictions.

#### Other intergovernmental organizations:

- The International Transport Forum at the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development has published a brief entitled [Re-spacing our Cities for Resilience](#).

<sup>39</sup> Laura Bliss, "Hit Hard by Covid-19, Transit Workers Call for Shutdowns", Bloomberg Citylab, 13 April 2020.

<sup>40</sup> Bliss.

<sup>41</sup> Kenny.

<sup>42</sup> Kenny.

<sup>43</sup> Kenny.

<sup>44</sup> Kenny.

<sup>45</sup> Kenny.

<sup>46</sup> "ATU's International President Costa on why transit workers need more COVID-19 protection", Spectrum News (Youtube), 2020.

## Calls for action: sectoral social partners

International sectoral employers' and workers' organizations have worked together using social dialogue to address COVID-19 issues efficiently and effectively. The International Association of Public Transport (UITP), the International Transport Workers' Federation (ITF), the International Union of Railways and United Cities and Local Governments issued a [joint statement](#) that provides policy guidance and best practices on how to tackle the pandemic. The statement stresses that "ensuring continuity of public transport and local mobility services is essential for society and the economy." It also highlights the need for financial support and the need to guarantee a supply of appropriate protective equipment and products to public transport and local mobility operators and their workers.

### UITP

The [UITP Guidelines on the management of COVID-19 for public transport operators](#) have been published in eight languages and provide recommendations on preparedness, personal protection, reduction of contact and reduced services. The UITP has also published a knowledge brief, [COVID-19 pandemic: resuming public transport services post-lockdown](#), and developed a [knowledge page](#) that includes factsheets and discussion exchanges. Its Human Resources Committee analyses and produces briefs related to workforce issues for its members. It has also launched a campaign called "Guardians of Mobility", to shed light, through a number of stories, on how urban transport workers are an integral part of front-line workers. A [list of major challenges ahead](#) has been published in the UITP's website newsroom. Together with the European Parliament's Committee on Transport and Tourism, the UITP has also published a [joint sustainable transport declaration on supporting the local public transport sector](#). In addition, another campaign was launched in August 2020 called "[Back to Better Mobility](#)", which aims at "bringing our cities back to people".

### ITF

The ITF has emphasized that existing international labour standards and protection of labour rights are crucial to efforts to contain COVID-19. Broad cross-sectoral responses include the [COVID-19 information hub](#) and a call for action: [Covid-19: ITF global demands for governments and employers](#). The ITF has published a [global charter of demands](#) to keep urban transport workers safe, which focuses on six issues:



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Trolleybus driver in Mexico City

- Adequate and appropriate PPE
- Working conditions that minimize transmission and facilitate social distancing
- Access to health measures that protect the vulnerable and sick
- Recognition of the key role of public transport workers
- Regular information and reporting on workplace risks and workforce health
- Trade union rights

Specific to the urban transport sector, the ITF has published a paper entitled [Urban transport workers: Key to COVID response and recovery](#) and regularly updates an [information hub](#). In addition, the ITF has issued [demands on COVID-19 and access to sanitation facilities for transport workers](#), which include a checklist. A document detailing the differential impacts of the pandemic on women has been issued as a [statement on women workers' rights](#).



and COVID-19. In addition, an ITF [informal workers charter](#) outlines the basic rights of informal workers, including health and safety.

## Countries in action: National responses

Most governments have declared some or all urban transport modes as an essential service.<sup>47</sup> Governments at both the municipal and federal levels have taken various measures to mitigate the financial impact of COVID-19 on the well-being, livelihoods and working conditions of workers in urban passenger transport services. Measures to support workers focus on workspace or operational improvements, or alternative work arrangements (including revised schedules or teleworking when possible). Further financial support for informal workers and operators will be needed but should be tailored to take special consideration of the particular circumstances of informal workers (who may not, for example, have internet connections or bank accounts). Some of the specific actions relating to operational and workplace improvements in urban passenger transit include:

- Worker protection measures including PPE, cleaning/disinfecting supplies, dividers, physical barriers or cordoning-off driver areas, cleaning and disinfection of "touch points" on vehicles, and closing of ticketing and information booths.
- Vehicle and operational measures, including cleaning protocols, e-ticketing or no fare (middle or back door boarding only), reduction in services, ventilation systems, static teams.
- Some of the key city/country financial responses in urban passenger transit include financial packages, postponement of credits, suspension of payments on loans, subsidies, hazard pay, one time hero payment bonus and death benefits. In a number of cities/countries, decision makers, employers and trade unions have come together to draw attention to the urgent need for government financing for the sector.
- The establishment of sectoral/national occupational safety and health committees to guarantee safe work for key workers.

## ► 3. ILO tools and responses

### International labour standards and tools

International labour standards offer a tried and trusted basis for policy responses and a sustainable and equitable recovery.<sup>48</sup> International labour standards and the ILO Decent Work Agenda with its four pillars of employment, social protection, social dialogue and rights at work, are important cornerstones of the 2030 Agenda.<sup>49</sup> A range of occupational safety and health and other ILO standards have already been referenced above. The following paragraphs include additional resources.

In 2015, the Conference adopted the [Transition from the Informal to the Formal Economy Recommendation, 2015 \(No. 204\)](#), much of which applies to employment in urban passenger transport services. In addition, the [Social Protection Floors Recommendation, 2012 \(No. 202\)](#), and the [Social Security \(Minimum Standards\) Convention, 1952 \(No. 102\)](#) provide guidance for the establishment

and maintenance of comprehensive social protection systems, including social protection floors, in order to prevent crises, enable recovery and build resilience.

The ILO has identified eight "fundamental" [Conventions](#), covering issues considered to be fundamental principles and rights at work. These are freedom of association and the effective recognition of the right to collective bargaining; the elimination of all forms of forced or compulsory labour; the effective abolition of child labour; and the elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation. In addition, the ILO published its [Standards and COVID-19 note](#), compiling answers to most frequently asked questions related to international labour standards.

The [Employment and Decent Work for Peace and Resilience Recommendation, 2017 \(No. 205\)](#) applies to all sectors and recognizes the role of accessible and quality public services in economic recovery. The ILO has issued guidance and a range of technical

<sup>47</sup> Philippines, Malaysia, Viet Nam and Thailand stopped taxi services, as these were not deemed essential. Jaspal Singh, "UITP Contribution", What Are Transportation Regulators Doing to Respond to COVID-19? Webinar of the International Association of Transport Regulators, 30 April 2020.

<sup>48</sup> ILO, "Why international labour standards matter in a public health crisis" (video), 27 March 2020.

<sup>49</sup> United Nations Press Release, [President Stresses Central Role of Decent Work in Fighting Poverty, Inequality as General Assembly Marks International Labour Organization Centenary](#), 10 April 2019. Scroll down to read Guy Ryder's contribution.

and sectoral notes on the COVID-19 pandemic, based on four key pillars. The ILO's brief, [A policy framework for tackling the economic and social impact of the COVID-19 crisis](#), provides further guidance and understanding on these four pillars.

**The Conclusions concerning the promotion of sustainable enterprises (2007) include guidance on the enabling environment for sustainable enterprises.** It comprises a set of conditions considered to be essential, interconnected and mutually reinforcing to foster "investment, entrepreneurship, workers' rights and the creation, growth and maintenance of sustainable enterprises by balancing the needs and interests of enterprise with the aspiration of society for a path of development that respects the values and principles of decent work, human dignity and environmental sustainability."

**The Safe return to work: Guide for employers on COVID-19 prevention** was developed by the ILO Bureau for Employers' Activities. It contains recommendations for health and safety practices and approaches to COVID-19 prevention. The publication aims to provide general guidance and information to employers on how to prevent the spread of COVID-19 in the workplace in order to enable workers to return to work safely while keeping the risk of contamination as low as possible. It also presents ideas on how to protect workers' mental health and well-being during the pandemic.

## ILO sectoral resources

While the ILO has no dedicated standards for all modes in the urban transport sector, all transport workers are covered by the fundamental principles and rights at work and, where ratified, by many additional ILO Conventions addressing important issues, such as occupational safety and health, working time and social security, among others. States have a duty to ensure that the fundamental principles and rights at work and ratified international labour Conventions protect and apply to all workers.

A number of ILO committees and meetings have discussed matters and issued guidance on the labour conditions of urban road transport drivers that are relevant to efforts towards their protection in the context of COVID-19.<sup>50</sup> The main sectoral instruments for the industry include:

- The [Hours of Work and Rest Periods \(Road Transport\) Convention, 1979 \(No. 153\)](#), and the [Hours of Work and Rest Periods \(Road Transport\) Recommendation, 1979 \(No. 161\)](#), which establish reference standards for working and driving time in the road transport sector.
- The [Labour Inspection \(Mining and Transport\) Recommendation, 1947 \(No. 82\)](#), which calls on governments to apply to transport undertakings appropriate systems of labour inspection to ensure the enforcement of legal provisions relating to conditions of work and the protection of workers while engaged in their work.

A [Technical meeting on the future of decent and sustainable work in urban transport services](#) is planned for February 2021.<sup>51</sup>

## Further information

The ILO webpage, [COVID-19 and the world of work: Sectoral impact, responses and recommendations](#), provides links to key resources, including:

- [ILO sectoral tools and instruments](#)
- [Joint statements and calls for action to fight COVID-19](#)
- [ILO partnerships to fight COVID-19 sector by sector](#)

<sup>50</sup> ILO, *The road to social dialogue: A compendium of the ILO's work in the road transport sector (1938-2015)*, 2019.

<sup>51</sup> Pending ILO Governing Body decision.

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