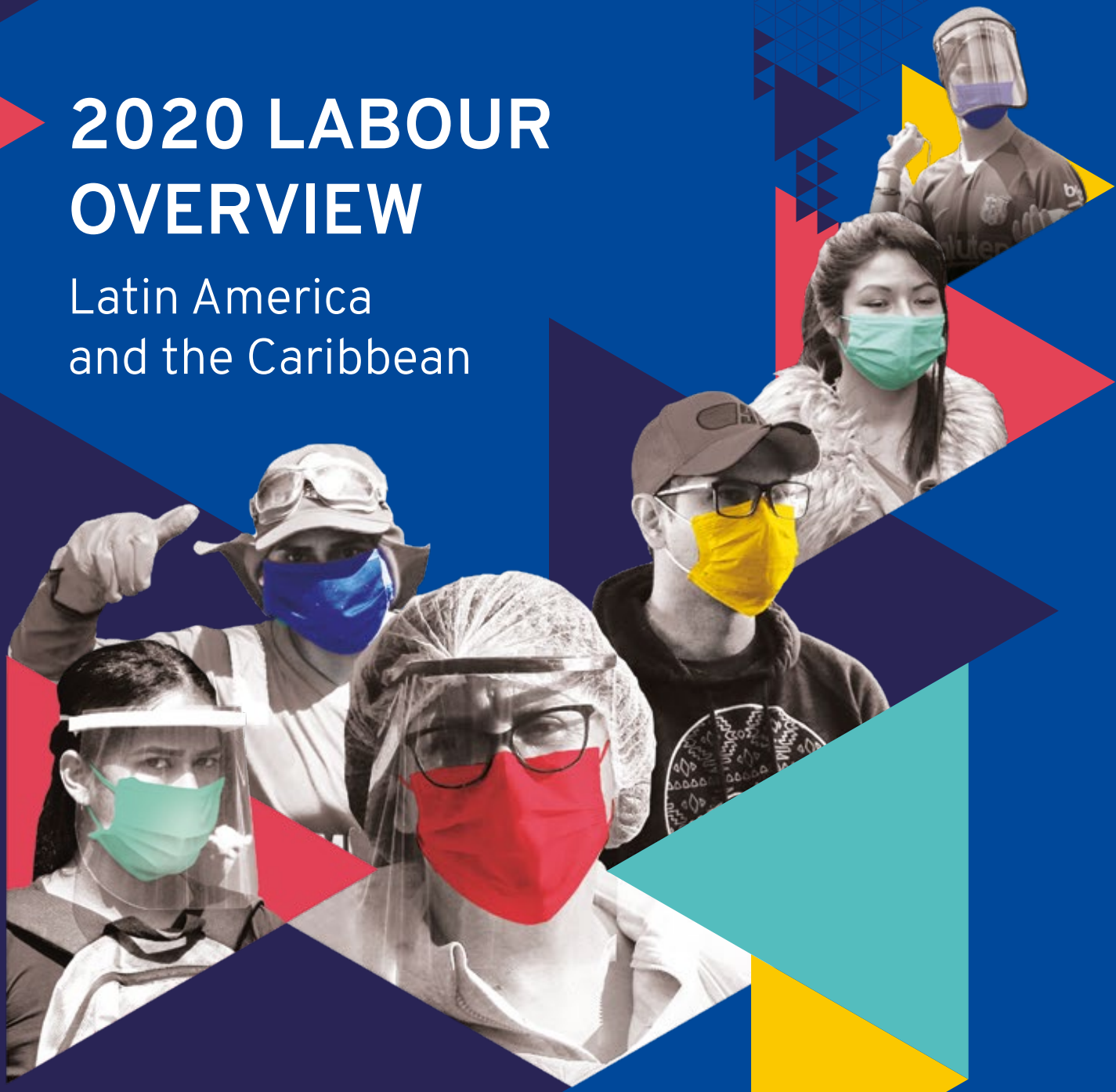
International Labour Organization

▶ COVID-19 Edition

#MyFutureOfWork

2020 LABOUR OVERVIEW

Latin America and the Caribbean



ILO Regional Office
for Latin America and the Caribbean

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2020 LABOUR OVERVIEW

Latin America and the Caribbean

International Labour Organization

First published, 2020

ILO

Labour Overview 2020

Lima: ILO / Regional Office for Latin America and the Caribbean, 2020. 196 p.

Employment, unemployment, labour market, wage, minimum wage, gender pay gap, labour statistics, working conditions, Latin America, Central America, the Caribbean.

13.01.3

ISSN: 2305-0268 (versión impresa)
ISSN: 2305-0276 (versión web pdf)

ILO Cataloguing in Publication Data

Printed in Peru

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Foreword

Over the past 10 months, the labour markets of Latin America and the Caribbean have regressed at least 10 years, and the crisis is far from over. We are arriving to 2021 with employment in intensive care and with the difficult but inescapable mission of laying the foundations for a new and better normal.

When the history of employment in Latin America and the Caribbean is written, 2020 will be the year that marks the before and after. The ILO's annual *Labour Overview* report records this impact. The result is a rarefied scenario, with high unemployment rates, an alarming increase in inactivity and persistent decent work deficits.

Labour markets were affected by the strong economic contraction, which the IMF estimated at -8.1 per cent and which the ECLAC echoed this week, with an estimated decline of 7.7 per cent. Additionally, the health emergency and the measures applied in the countries to contain the virus sharply curtailed productive activities.

This 2020 edition of the *Labour Overview* was preceded by a series of national and thematic reports released throughout the year as part of the *Labour Overview in times of COVID-19* series that included technical studies on countries such as Uruguay, Peru, Argentina, Mexico, Paraguay and Chile, and on specific topics such as vocational training, social protection, rural employment and just transition.

The report is divided into two parts. The first contains the Labour Report, which includes the most recent data on the pandemic's impact on the labour market. The second part is a feature article that discusses "Policy challenges and trends arising from the COVID-19 crisis."

The first thing one notes when reading the *2020 Labour Overview* is the significant increase in the unemployment rate, which is expected to reach 10.6 per cent by year-end, that is, 2.5 percentage points higher than last year. This means that the number of job seekers who are unable to find work has increased by 5.4 million, to 30.1 million.

Nevertheless, in such a sudden, unparalleled crisis, unemployment tells only part of the story. The truth is that this indicator would have grown even more if it were not for an unprecedented reduction of -5.4 percentage points in the labour force participation rate, which declined to 57.2 per cent for the third quarter of 2020, from 62.6 per cent for the same period in 2019.

This means that some 23 million men and women were inactive and stopped seeking employment given the lack of opportunities in the context of the pandemic.

Just over half of the newly inactive, 12.2 million, were women, and six million were youth aged 15 to 24. The youth unemployment rate also rose 2.7 percentage points, to 23.2 per cent, a level never before recorded, and which means that one in every four youth was unemployed as of the third quarter of 2020.

The *Labour Overview* notes that the crisis has evolved, with perhaps the worst moment occurring in the second quarter. Consequently, the data included in the report already reflect an incipient recovery in activity in the third quarter. The report also points out the varied performance of the different countries.

This ILO publication also reports that in 2020, total wage and salaried employment and own-account employment fell -6.8 per cent and -8.9 per cent, respectively. The health crisis also affected other types of employment status, such as employer (-9.8 per cent) and domestic service (-19.4 per cent).

Additionally, the service, manufacturing and construction sectors were seriously affected. The contraction in employment was particularly acute in service sectors such as hotels (-17.6 per cent) and trade (-12.0 per cent). The health crisis also had a major impact on employment in construction (-13.6 per cent) and manufacturing (-8.9 per cent). The smallest decline in employment was observed in agriculture (-2.7 per cent).

The second part of the *Labour Overview*, the feature article "Policy challenges and trends arising from the COVID-19 crisis" addresses key issues for understanding some dimensions of the impact on labour markets.

> When the history of employment in Latin America and the Caribbean is written, 2020 will be the year that marks the before and after. The ILO's annual *Labour Overview* report records this impact.

It discusses the challenges and innovations occurring in vocational training, social protection, support for micro, small and medium-sized enterprises (MSME) and the implementation of labour inspections.

The impact of this crisis on accelerating trends is also reviewed, especially in two forms of work organization that experienced rapid development and that pose a series of challenges, such as work on digital platforms and teleworking.

The feature article also outlines the types of policies that governments implemented to address the health emergency and its most immediate economic consequences with a view to supporting businesses, maintaining jobs and compensating for the serious reduction in labour income.

Finally, the ILO report contains a chapter on "Policies for a labour recovery from the COVID-19 crisis," with several recommendations for moving forward to 2021 and beyond.

Without a doubt, this is the most serious labour crisis on record since the ILO began to publish its annual report on Latin America and the Caribbean in 1994. It has provided some lessons learned that are important for finding solutions.

First, there is no dilemma between preserving health and economic activity. Without health, there is neither production nor consumption. Occupational safety and health is now a key issue for reactivation.

Another important lesson is that social dialogue is more relevant than ever since it enables consensual strategies to address the crisis, the application of which will be agreed upon by constituents. This is crucial given the daunting challenges that lie ahead.

Also, we are now aware that we must deal with "pre-existing conditions." The crisis hit this region particularly hard, even more than others in the world, owing largely to existing structural problems. These include the persistent lack of fiscal space, gaps in social protection coverage and high levels of social inequality and labour informality, which underscored the precariousness of large sectors of our societies.

Finally, the *Labour Overview* offers projections for 2021, when there are moderate growth prospects, in a context of great uncertainty since the pandemic is still present, and infection and death rates remain high in several Latin American and Caribbean countries.

Many people who were inactive in 2020 will begin to look for work when the economy recovers, or when they need income. This will undoubtedly affect informality and unemployment levels. In this scenario, the unemployment rate could continue to rise, potentially reaching 11.2 per cent.

This indicates that the road to a new and better normal will be neither easy nor short. That is the legacy of 2020, the year we have lived with COVID-19.

Vinicius Pinheiro
ILO Regional Director
for Latin America and the Caribbean

Acknowledgments

Fabio Bertranou, Marcela Cabezas, Andrés Marinakis, Roxana Maurizio, Gerhard Reinecke and Juan Jacobo Velasco comprised the work team that prepared this edition of the *Labour Overview for Latin America and the Caribbean*.

Juan Jacobo Velasco prepared the labour report, which included comments from Fabio Bertranou, Marcela Cabezas, Andrés Marinakis, Gerhard Reinecke and Roxana Maurizio. Andrés Marinakis coordinated the feature article, which was written with contributions from the following colleagues and external collaborators: Roxana Maurizio (employment and income policies), Carmen Bueno (labour inspection), Elva López (platforms), Andrés Marinakis (teleworking), Guillermo Montt (social protection), Fernando Vargas (vocation training), Andrés Yurén, Jorge Ramírez (MSMEs) and Gerhard Reinecke (recovery policies). Inputs from external consultant Osvaldo Kacef (macroeconomics and the international context). Comments from colleagues Humberto Villasmil, Félix Ordóñez, Jon Messenger and Naj Ghosheh also enriched the section on teleworking. Colleagues Juan Chacaltana, Mauricio Dierckxsens and Álvaro Ramírez-Bogantes contributed with ideas and suggestions.

Database processing and the provision of a large share of the indicators in this report, including the tasks of systematization and consistency, were the responsibility of the ILO's Labour Information and Analysis System of Latin America and the Caribbean (SIALC), with headquarters in Panama. Bolívar Pino led this effort with team members Rigoberto García and Leo Mendoza.

The ILO Regional Director for Latin America and the Caribbean, Vinicius Carvalho Pinheiro, is grateful to the work team responsible for preparing the *2020 Labour Overview*.

The national statistics institutes and offices of the region deserve special mention for their contributions to the development of SIALC / Panama. Their contributions have made the annual publication of the *Labour Overview of Latin America and the Caribbean* possible since 1994.

Carola González and Mariella Mujica were responsible for the layout and style of the report, with the oversight of Luis Córdova. Luis Córdova was also in charge of disseminating the report to the media, with support from Alejandro Iturrizaga and the ILO team of communicators in the region.

The support services of the ILO Regional Office for Latin America and the Caribbean, especially the Programming and Finance units, and the Office of the Southern Cone of Latin America, in particular Melissa von der Forst, deserve special mention for their valuable collaboration at the different stages of the report preparation process.

Review in memory of Ricardo Infante and recognition of Bolivar Pino

This section has a special meaning for the entire team that has contributed to this year's *Labour Overview* as it seeks to be a brief, but heartfelt review of our deceased former colleague Ricardo Infante as well as a well-deserved recognition of colleague Bolivar Pino who will retire soon.

The ILO *Labor Overview of Latin America and the Caribbean* was published for the first time in 1994. It was created under the guidance of the Regional Director at the time, Víctor Tokman, and was the result of the work of a team in which Ricardo Infante and Daniel Martínez stood out. they did the analysis and writing of the report from Lima, and Bolívar Pino, together with the collaboration of Rigoberto García, produced the statistical information from the SIALC (Information System and Labor Analysis of Latin America and the Caribbean) in Panama. This team was responsible for the preparation of several editions of the Panorama, to which we gradually added new colleagues.

In June of this year Ricardo Infante contracted COVID-19 and a few days later he died in the city of Santiago, Chile. Ricardo had retired several years ago. However, he was still active and in permanent

contact with his colleagues at the ILO, providing ideas, suggestions and contributions. He always maintained his interest and concern for the employment issues that were his area of expertise during his career at the ILO. Many of the colleagues who prepare this new edition of the *Labor Overview* were trained by Ricardo Infante and benefited from his capacity for analysis and rigour in handling data as well as, and more importantly, his encouragement to develop a professional career with a sense of social justice.

Likewise, our colleague Bolivar Pino was from the beginning of the *Labour Overview* more than 25 years ago an active collaborator. Bolivar, with dedication and professionalism, has nourished with valuable and reliable information the *Labor Overview* report, and his contributions have also been key to the development of other knowledge products in the ILO Regional Office.

We want to dedicate the *2020 Labor Overview* to the memory of Ricardo Infante, in memory of his generous friendship, as well as to our colleague Bolivar Pino. Both of them with effort and dedication have made possible this report of the ILO Regional Office for Latin America and the Caribbean.

***2020 Labour Overview* Team**

Executive Summary

The region's GDP growth projections reflect the progression of the unprecedented effects of the COVID-19 health crisis on the economies of the region. For 2020, estimates point to a contraction of the regional economy of around -8 per cent, and for 2021, a growth rate of 3.5 per cent.

The crisis has severely impacted the world of work in Latin America and the Caribbean, causing job losses, bankruptcies of enterprises of all sizes, and a sharp decline in people's incomes. It has also highlighted the decent work deficits in the region, reflected in a high rate of labour informality.

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The average unemployment rate during the first three quarters of 2020 (10.6 per cent) was higher than that observed for the same period of 2019 (8.7 per cent). The unemployment rate for the year is expected to be 10.6 per cent. This figure only partially reflects the impact of the pandemic on regional labour markets, which were significantly affected by trends in regional labour force participation rates and employment-to-population ratios. Large numbers of people preferred to remain unemployed rather than look for non-existent jobs, and this helped to moderate the effect on unemployment.

For 2021, the economies of the region are expected to recover, although in a context of uncertainty. Even if the pandemic is controlled during 2021, health measures could once again have an impact on labour market indicators such as the labour force participation rate, employment-to-population ratio and the unemployment rate, as well as on the sustainability of enterprises.

Additionally, the large contingent that left the labour force is expected to return. This will likely drive up the regional unemployment rate for 2021, which could reach 11.2 per cent.

Strong impact of the health and economic crisis on labour indicators in the region

The regional and subregional analysis clearly demonstrates the severe impact of the health and economic crisis on labour market indicators in Latin America and the Caribbean. In the first three quarters of 2020, compared with the same period of 2019, both the labour force participation rate and the employment-to-population ratio experienced a significant contraction: -5.4 and -6.0 percentage points, respectively. This means that nearly 10 per cent of jobs in the region were lost, causing many people to leave the labour force.

In the same period, and because of the more pronounced contraction of the employment-to-population ratio compared with the decline in the labour force participation rate, the unemployment rate rose 1.9 percentage points, reaching 10.6 per cent, the highest level recorded in recent decades.

Moreover, the labour force participation rate and the employment-to-population ratio declined in all subregions and countries, although at varying levels. Rising unemployment rates affected almost every country in the region, although also at different magnitudes, again reflecting the region's significant heterogeneity.

The health crisis had a more profound effect on the labour indicators of women and youth

During the health crisis, the contraction in the labour force participation rate of women in the labour force (-10.4 per cent) was more pronounced than that of men (-7.4 per cent). This decline in female labour force participation is significant considering the progress observed in women's participation in the region's labour markets in recent decades. Among other factors, the timely provision of care services (children, the sick, the elderly) and the return to in-person schooling will largely condition the return of women to the workforce in the short and medium terms.

The employment-to-population ratio by sex experienced a similar trend. The impact of the health crisis was greater on the employment-to-population ratio of women (-12.3 per cent) than on that of men (-9.3 per cent), in a context in which more jobs were lost in the service sector, which has a larger share of women workers. Finally, unemployment rose at a similar rate for both sexes.

In terms of youth, the labour force participation rate and employment-to-population ratio fell by approximately -5.5 percentage points, to 42.7 per cent and 33.0 per cent, respectively, while the youth unemployment rate increased by 2.7 percentage points, higher than the increase among adults. The regional youth unemployment rate reached 23.2 per cent during the pandemic. This means that nearly one in four young people who participates in the labour market is unemployed in the region.

Wage, non-wage and registered employment falls sharply

The health crisis had a profound impact on employment in terms of both wage and non-wage employment. Total wage and salaried employment and own-account employment fell -6.8 per cent and -8.9 per cent, respectively, in 2020. The health crisis also affected other types of employment status, such as employer (-9.8 per cent) and domestic service (-19.4 per cent). Registered employment declined sharply at the beginning of the health crisis, decreasing to its lowest level in May, and has since either partially recovered or remained stagnant.

Service, construction and manufacturing sectors severely affected

The 2020 health crisis had a major impact on employment in the service, manufacturing and construction sectors. The contraction of employment in 2020 was especially marked in service sectors such as hotels (-17.6 per cent) and trade (-12.0 per cent), in contrast with 2019, when these sectors recorded higher growth rates than other economic sectors. The health crisis also had a significant impact on employment in construction (-13.6 per cent) and manufacturing (-8.9 per cent). The smallest decline in employment was observed in agriculture (-2.7 per cent).

Policy challenges and trends arising from the COVID-19 crisis

The second part of the *Labour Overview* analyzes the policy challenges that the COVID-19 crisis has posed for labour markets.

The first section of the analysis presents stylized information on policies to support employment and income in the context of the pandemic. To sustain the labour relationship, payroll subsidies were granted, unemployment insurance was extended to cover the situation of suspension or reduction of working hours and, more recently, subsidies were applied to encourage rehiring. Cash transfers also played a fundamental role in compensating for the loss of household income owing to the pandemic. The main challenge in this area was to reach a segment of the population not traditionally covered by this type of

The crisis led several countries to introduce policy innovations as part of their mitigation strategies. Some of these changes will be useful beyond the current crisis and constitute improvements that should be institutionalized.

programme, and to quickly implement wage subsidies and cash transfers. It was not enough to adapt existing programmes; rather, significant innovations had to be introduced to broaden coverage of people and situations.

The crisis led several countries to introduce policy innovations as part of their mitigation strategies. Some of these changes will be useful beyond the current crisis and constitute improvements that should be institutionalized. In the area of vocational training, given the impossibility of providing in-person classes and training activities, the distance training offer was expanded based on existing digital platforms, along with others developed in response to the new context. Consolidating this change requires the broader incorporation of digital technologies in anticipating demand, developing programmes, implementing training and evaluating impact.

In the case of unemployment insurance, an innovation that could be institutionalized to make it available throughout the usual economic cycles is coverage of situations such as suspension of contracts or reduction of working hours to avoid layoffs and to facilitate the reactivation process.

Although most labour inspections have continued during the health restrictions, online activities have increased significantly, reserving face-to-face visits for the verification of biosafety conditions in workplaces, among other issues. This experience can help accelerate institutional modernization processes to enable the development of more efficient labour inspection systems.

Regarding micro, small and medium-sized enterprises (MSME), a key innovation was the development of programmes to help digitize their business models and take advantage of the growth opportunities of e-commerce. Pandemic-response policies also led to improvements in the management of administrative records. Taking advantage of this achievement will be crucial for designing and monitoring labour policies as well as for formalizing employment.

Even before the pandemic, digital and technological innovations were transforming the world of work. The pandemic accelerated some of these processes. Digital delivery platforms experienced increased demand due to restrictions on the population's mobility. Despite a series of measures adopted by governments and platforms, digital workers still face precarious working conditions that need to be addressed.

Teleworking was another process that accelerated with the arrival of the pandemic. Social distancing measures showed that teleworking was possible in many occupations and that the implementation of this modality was satisfactory from a productivity standpoint, as was the work process itself. However, teleworking during the pandemic acquired several characteristics that differed from the usual concept of teleworking. Once the emergency is over, each country should review its regulatory framework in the light of experience and should address key issues required to achieve good practices.

Finally, even if it is possible to return to the path of growth begun prior to the pandemic, this development trajectory will clearly fall short. While growth is expected to accelerate in 2021, initially, it will primarily represent a rebound from extremely depressed levels. Foreign trade will perform well but will be insufficient to stimulate the entire economy. In some economic sectors, more specialized niches are

The unemployment rate

By the end of 2020

will reach the highest level recorded in recent decades at

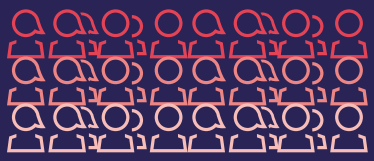
10.6%

Around

30.1

MILLION

people are unemployed*



* Estimate based on CELADE data.

expanding, which can provide opportunities for economic activities and new ventures that can be incorporated in some global supply chains. The increase in e-commerce also offers opportunities for small producers in some supply chains to reach end consumers directly, thus dispensing with intermediaries and increasing their share of added value. To take advantage of these opportunities created by the "forced digitization" caused by the pandemic, it is essential to close digital gaps between countries, between urban and rural areas, and between workers of different socioeconomic levels.

In addition to exports, sustainable, inclusive economic growth requires stimulating investment and private consumption. Public investment should enhance this process, with an added focus on job creation. Private investment in strategic areas for long-term growth should also be promoted, such as investments in environmentally friendly activities, for example. Regardless of the combination of reactivation and recovery policies agreed upon and adopted at the national level, the impact on employment will largely depend on employment policy strategies and the development of labour institutions.

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2020 LABOUR OVERVIEW

Latin America and the Caribbean

COVID-19 Edition

Labour Report

Labour Report

1. The impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the economy

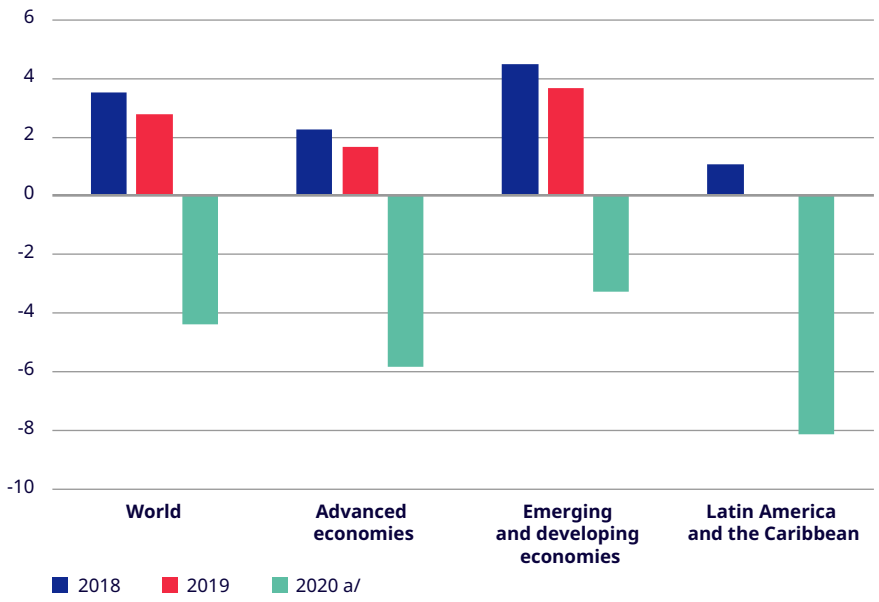
The international economic context

As a result of the COVID-19 pandemic and government measures to try to contain the spread of the virus, the global economy is facing a double shock of supply and demand that simultaneously affects all countries.

Recent IMF estimates indicate a decline of -4.4 per cent in global activity levels, which is more significant than the contraction of 2009 following the international financial crisis. This time, however, the decrease will be widespread, as shown in Figure 1.1.

As a result of the COVID-19 pandemic and government measures to try to contain the spread of the virus, the global economy is facing a double shock of supply and demand that simultaneously affects all countries.

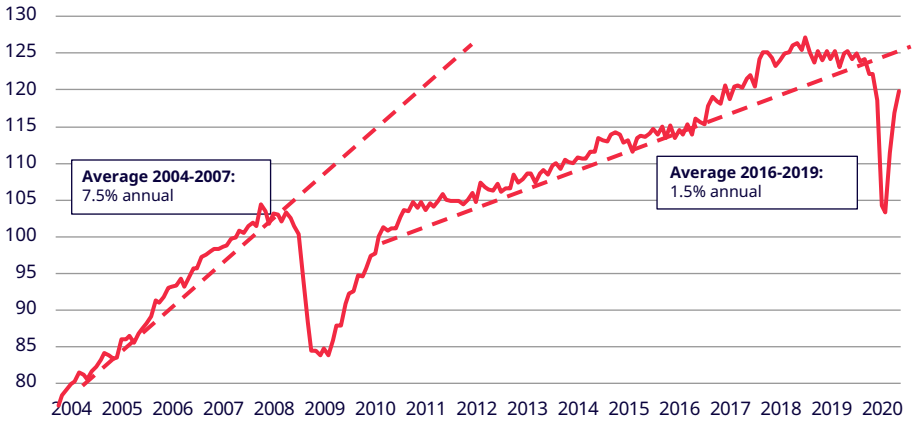
FIGURE 1.1. Global Economic Growth. 2018-2020a/ (real annual growth)



Source: International Monetary Fund (IMF).
a/ Estimated growth for 2020.

Like in 2009, the 2020 reduction in global GDP had a negative impact on the volume of world trade. In 2020, also like in 2009, trade began to rapidly recover. However, as Figure 1.2 demonstrates, the recovery observed in 2009 was insufficient for recovering the previous dynamism. Trade volume declined from an average annual growth rate of 8 per cent between 2004 and 2007 to an annual average growth rate of 4 per cent between 2010 and 2017, to subsequently stagnate in the two years prior to the pandemic.

▶ **FIGURE 1.2.** Change in World Trade. 2004-2020 (2010=100))



Source: CPB Netherlands Bureau for Economic Policy Analysis.

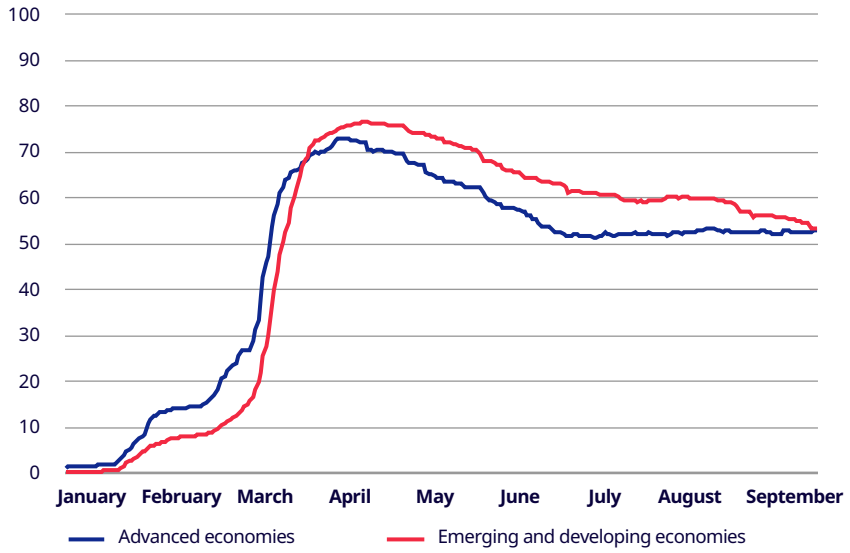
Faced with an unprecedented scenario, perhaps comparable to that of the influenza pandemic of the early 20th century, governments around the world acted quickly to provide both health and financial support to the most affected sectors. They implemented social isolation measures to contain the spread of the virus, as well as measures to bolster healthcare systems, which nevertheless were often overwhelmed. Additionally, governments implemented numerous economic measures to mitigate the impact of this crisis on supply and demand at the same time, supporting businesses that could not operate owing to isolation measures and people who lost their source of income given their inability to go to work due to mobility restrictions.

Data collected and systematized by the University of Oxford[1] were used to analyze both the dimension of health measures and financial aid for a group of countries. These data also enable the identification of important differences in the chronology of the spread of the virus and the mobility restrictions imposed to contain it, as well as differences in terms of the magnitude and temporary support of economic aid measures. Although partly related to the above, they mainly reflected the differences regarding the capacity of governments to mobilize resources. Figure 1.3 shows the trends in the indices of health and containment measures (Panel A) and of economic support measures (Panel B) for advanced economies and for emerging and developing economies.

1 The Oxford COVID-19 Government Response Tracker (OxCGRT) systematically collects information on several different common policy responses that governments have taken to respond to the pandemic on 18 indicators such as school closures and travel restrictions. It now has data from more than 180 countries. The data from the indicators are aggregated into a set of four common indices. The indices analyzed in this chapter are a) a containment and health index that combines lockdown restrictions and closures with measures such as testing policy and contact tracing, short-term investment in healthcare, as well investments in vaccines; and b) an economic support index that combines measures to support businesses and maintain personal income.

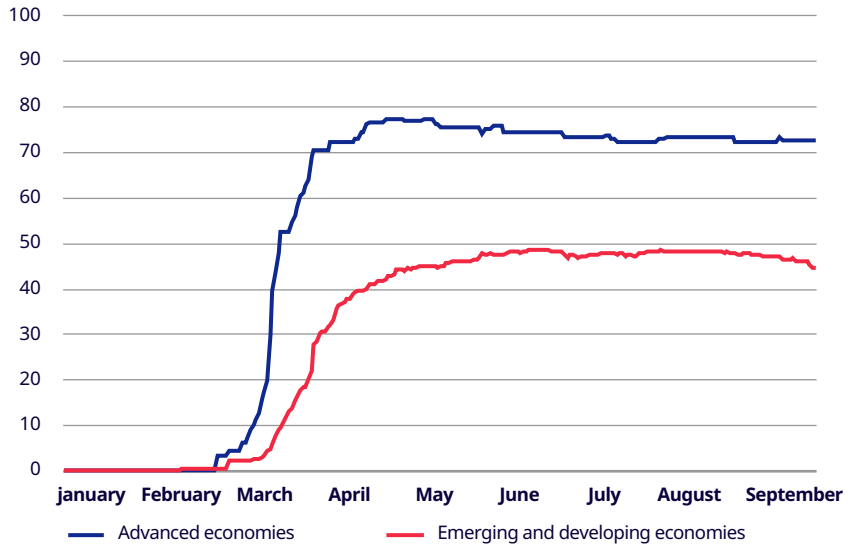
FIGURE 1.3. Change in indicators of health, containment and economic assistance measures

Panel A. Index of health and containment measures



Source: Oxford COVID-19 Government Response Tracker.

Panel B. Index of economic aid measures

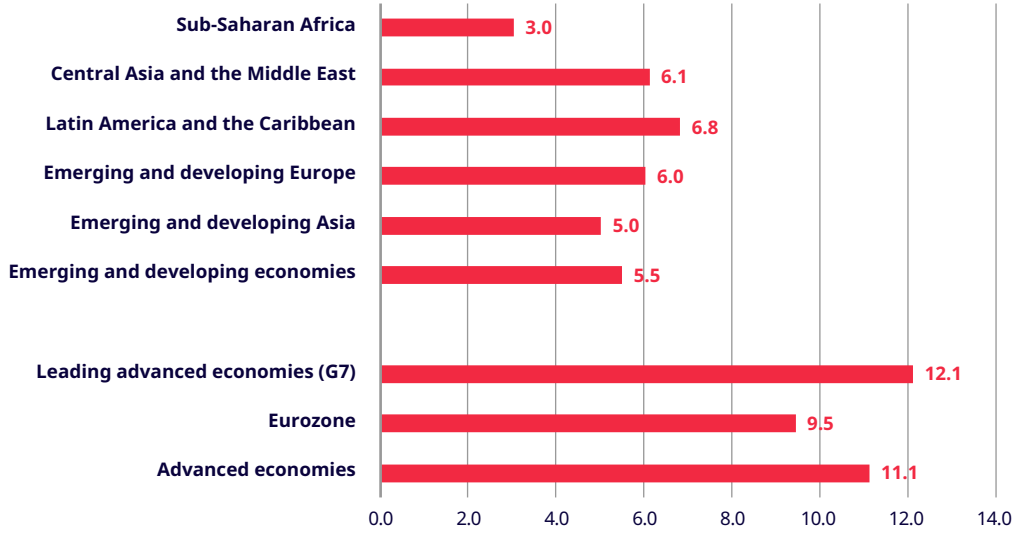


Source: Oxford COVID-19 Government Response Tracker.

Panels A and B of Figure 1.3 are revealing in terms of the similarity of the intensity of health and containment measures adopted by advanced economies and emerging and developing economies, on the one hand, and the marked differences regarding economic support measures, on the other, which is explained by the greater capacity to mobilize fiscal and financial resources of the former. Panels A and B of Figure 1.4 demonstrate the differences in the magnitude of the fiscal stimulus and debt capacity, in which the figures for advanced economies doubled those of emerging and developing economies.

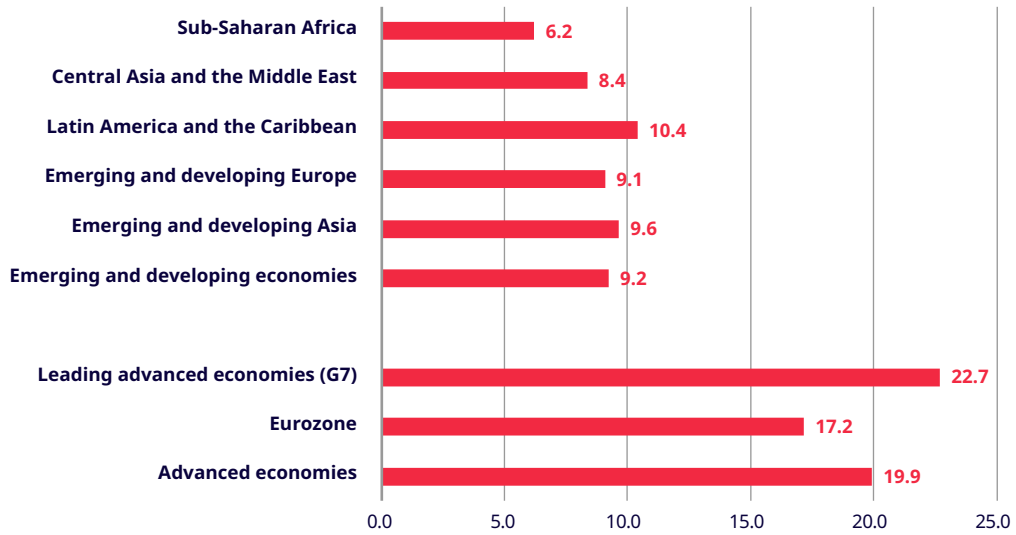
FIGURE 1.4. Change in the primary deficit and in the global public debt between 2019 and 2020 (as a percentage of GDP)

Panel A. Change in primary debt



Source: International Monetary Fund (IMF).

Panel B. Change in public debt



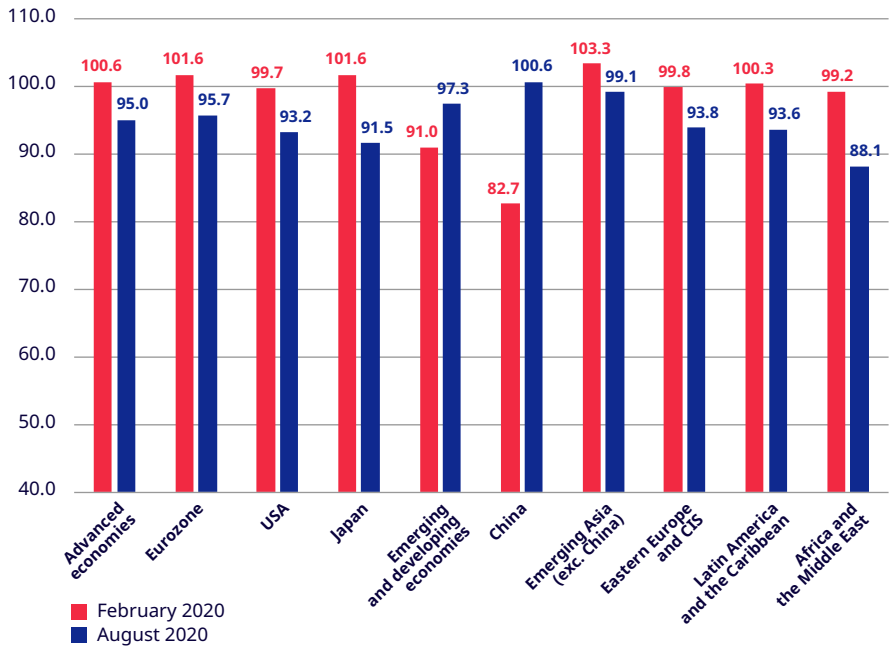
Source: International Monetary Fund (IMF).

After a sharp decline in economic activity indicators in April, largely owing to isolation measures and mobility restrictions, but also to people's fear of infection, the gradual reopening of activities, combined with the support to people and businesses, enabled a rapid initial recovery of industrial production. However, there were marked variations given the different evolution of the health crisis in the different regions and the associated varying rates at which restrictions were lifted.

As Figure 1.5 shows, the recovery of industrial production was more rapid in China and in emerging Asian economies, where the health emergency had an impact earlier and where the apparently more effective containment strategy enabled these countries to control the crisis and reopen their economies more rapidly. By contrast, recovery has been slower in advanced economies, in part because the health crisis in the United States continues. In Europe, the recovery was somewhat faster than in the United States, although since late October, Europe has been suffering a second wave of infections, the impact

of which cannot yet be evaluated, but which could lead, at the very least, to a slowdown, if not to a new decline in economic activity.

FIGURE 1.5. Indices of industrial production in February and August of 2020 (December 2019=100)



Source: CPB Netherlands Bureau for Economic Policy Analysis.

The impact of the health emergency on the economies of Latin America and the Caribbean

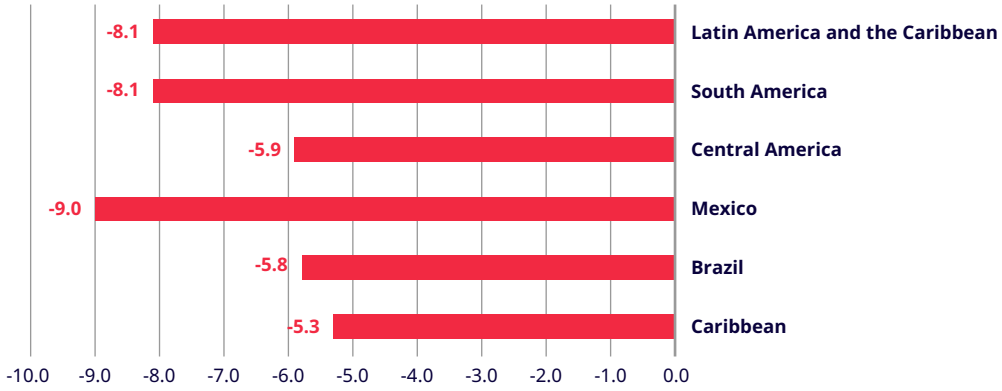
The countries of the region were hard hit by the health crisis. In early December, six Latin American countries were among the 20 countries with the most infections and nine countries were among the 20 with the highest number of deaths per million inhabitants. As expected, this situation had a devastating impact on people's lives in general and especially on economic activity and employment.

The expected decline in the regional GDP for 2020 is the largest on record. The International Monetary Fund (IMF) estimates a contraction of -8.1 per cent. Although with differences across subregions, the expected reduction is widespread, as detailed in Figure 1.6.[2]

Several factors explain the differences across subregions. In general, the economies of the region reached the crisis point following several years of stagnation and, in some cases, of recession. Additionally, the scope of isolation measures and restrictions on mobility and economic aid measures varied; consequently, the impact of the pandemic was not the same for all countries. Likewise, the countries of the region have a diversity of productive structures: some are net exporters of commodities, although not all export the same commodities, while others are net importers of commodities, with some depending more than others on remittances from emigrants. Some countries, particularly in the Caribbean, depend heavily on tourism.

2 The decline in the Caribbean subregion would be much larger if Guyana were excluded from the calculation. That country will become an oil producer this year, for which reason it is expected to record an extremely high growth rate. The IMF estimates a growth rate of 26.2 per cent.

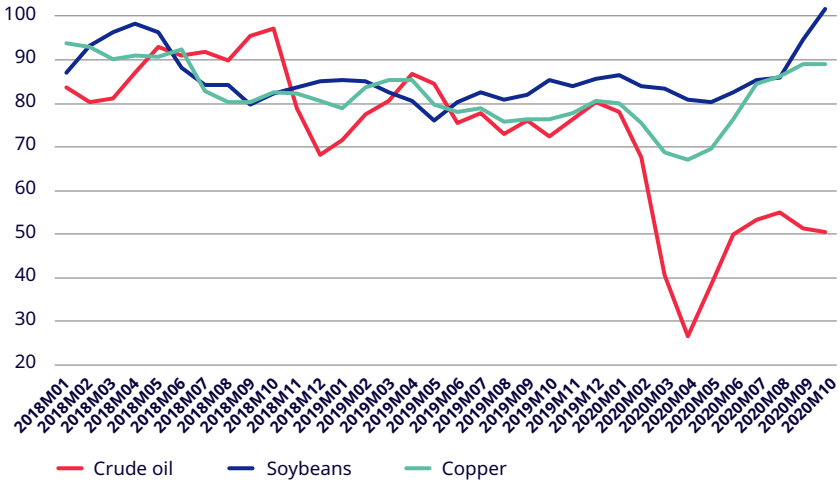
FIGURE 1.6. Estimated GDP growth in Latin America and the Caribbean, 2020 (percentage change)



Source: International Monetary Fund (IMF).

Price trends for commodities, which represent most of the export supply of South American economies, have fluctuated considerably. Figure 1.7 shows price changes in the three main commodities exported by these economies: oil, soybeans and copper. Oil prices partially recovered from the decline recorded in April but remain around 50 per cent below their 2010 levels. At the other extreme, soybean prices fell much less, recovered much more robustly and already surpass 2010 averages. Copper price trends represent an intermediate situation, since prices tended to increase rapidly following the decline recorded in April, but the recovery has slowed in recent months. In late October, these prices were around 10 per cent below 2010 averages.

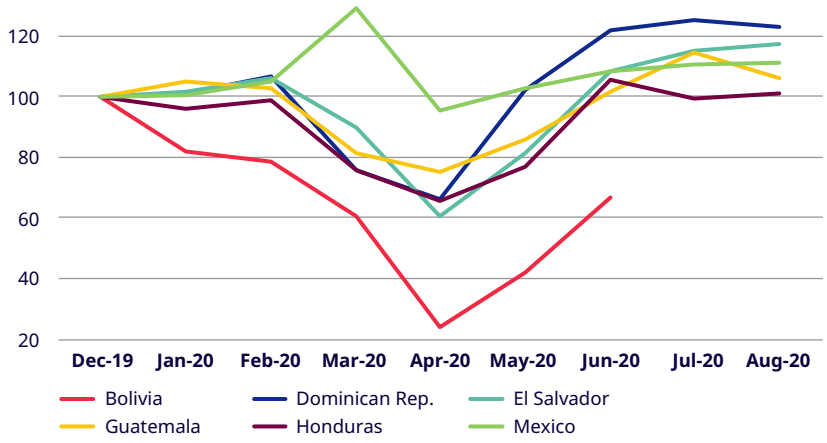
FIGURE 1.7. Change in the price of export commodities of the region, 2018-2020 (2010=100)



Source: World Bank.

Remittances from workers who emigrated, which for some Central American and Caribbean economies represent between 10 per cent and 20 per cent of GDP, fell sharply at the beginning of the pandemic, but have been recovering rapidly in recent months, to the extent that the economies of migrants' destination countries (especially the United States) were reactivated. Figure 1.8 demonstrates the recovery of remittances from emigrants following the overall decline observed in April, until they surpassed pre-pandemic levels in August.

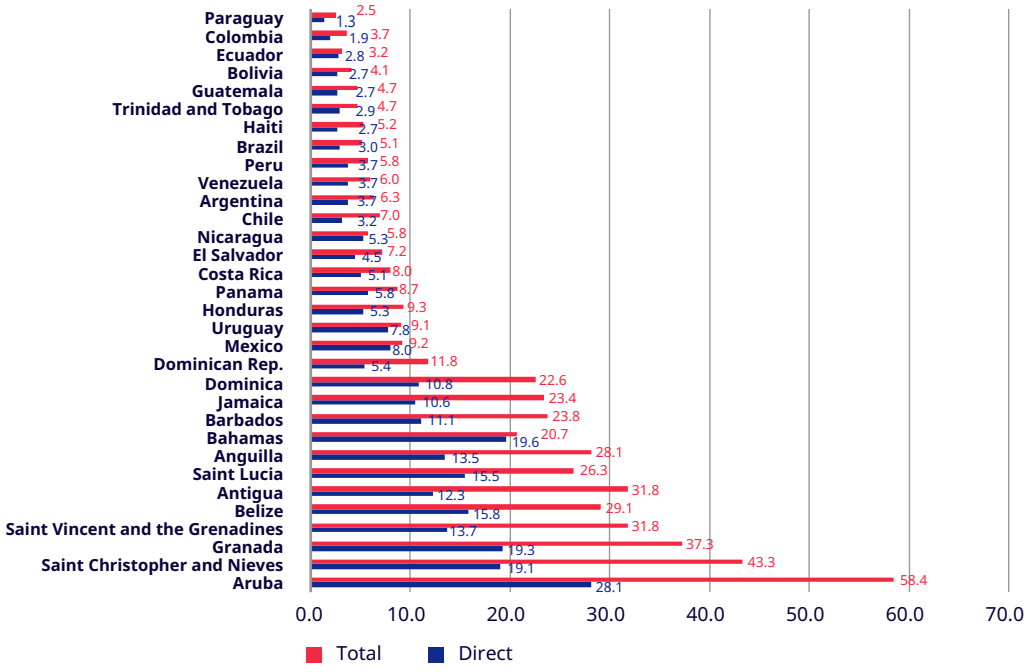
FIGURE 1.8. Latin America and the Caribbean (6 selected countries). Change in remittances from emigrants. December 2019 to August 2020 (December 2019=100)



Source: International Monetary Fund (IMF).

Although no definitive data yet exist on the impact of the health crisis on tourism, this activity has clearly been severely affected by the limitations to the mobility of people and the closing of borders that characterized the first responses of the countries to contain the spread of the virus. A partial indicator, such as the change in the number of international flights, can help estimate the expected impact on tourism. The number of international flights in April of this year was only 14 per cent of the number recorded for the same month of 2019. In subsequent months, this percentage rose to 32 per cent. The fall in tourism activity will especially affect several Caribbean countries, where the contribution of tourism to GDP exceeds 20 per cent, calculating direct and indirect impacts (Figure 1.9). Outside the Caribbean, tourism also represents an important share of GDP in Mexico, Uruguay and most Central American countries, for example.

FIGURE 1.9. Latin America and the Caribbean: Contribution of tourism to GDP in 2018 (percentages)



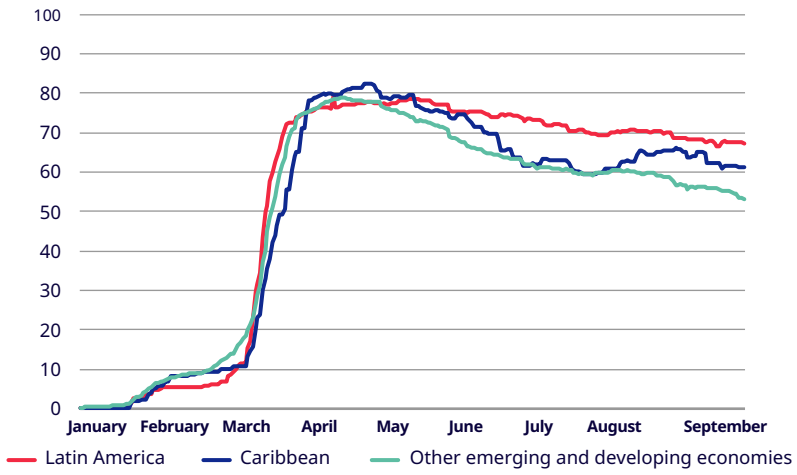
Source: International Monetary Fund (IMF).

Beyond the differences indicated above, Latin American and Caribbean governments all imposed substantial measures to contain the spread of infection and mitigate the impact of the virus on the sectors and people most affected by the situation. Panels A and B of Figure 1.10, based on information from the University of Oxford, compare the health and economic measures implemented until September 2020 in the countries of the region with those of other emerging and developing economies.

In both Latin American and Caribbean countries, governments initially reacted with the same speed and intensity as other emerging and developing economies regarding health measures. Most likely owing to the development of the health emergency in both subregions, but especially in Latin America, more stringent measures were sustained for longer than in the rest of the comparable economies. Government economic aid was more intensive in the region, particularly in Latin America, than in other similar economies.

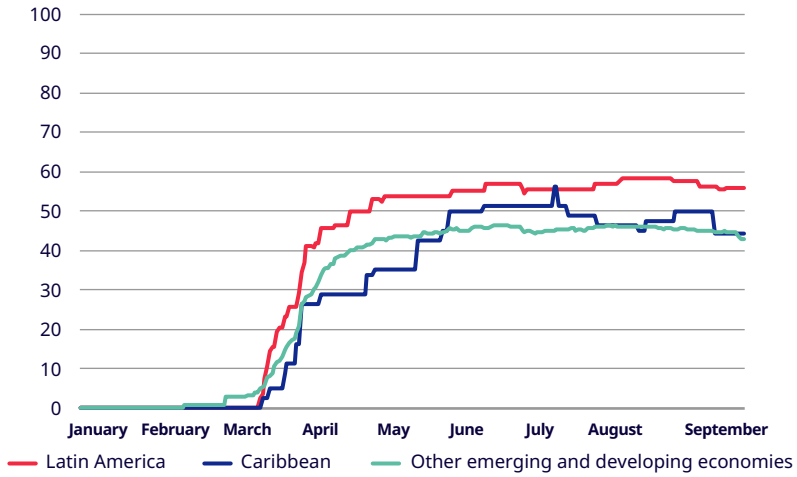
▶ **FIGURE 1.10.** Change in indices of health, containment and economic aid measures in Latin America and the Caribbean

Panel A. Index of health and containment measures



Source: Oxford COVID-19 Government Response Tracker.

Panel B. Economic aid index



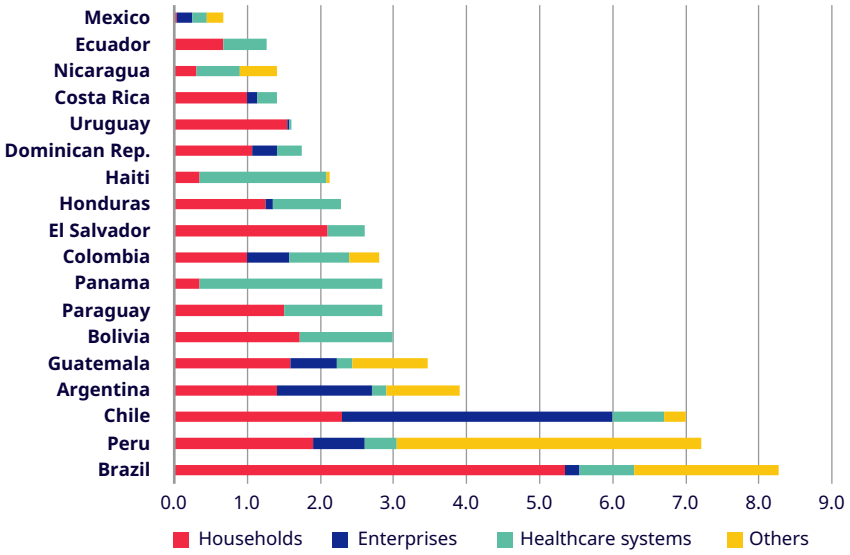
Source: Oxford COVID-19 Government Response Tracker.

The intensity of the measures implemented by the countries of the region can be assessed in terms of the fiscal cost of the resources mobilized as a proportion of GDP. This information is detailed in panels A

and B of Figure 1.11. In Latin America, government measures were mainly aimed at assisting households that had lost income and at strengthening healthcare systems. In some cases, such as Chile and, to a lesser extent, Argentina, Peru, Colombia and Guatemala, part of government support was directed toward businesses. According to the IMF, the increase in public spending in Peru included an increase in capital expenditures while in Brazil and Argentina, transfers included funds to provincial states. Brazil (8.3 per cent), Peru (7.2 per cent) and Chile (7 per cent) were the countries that recorded the highest fiscal amounts as a proportion of GDP until August. The average for the subregion at that time was 3.1 per cent while the median was 2.7 per cent.

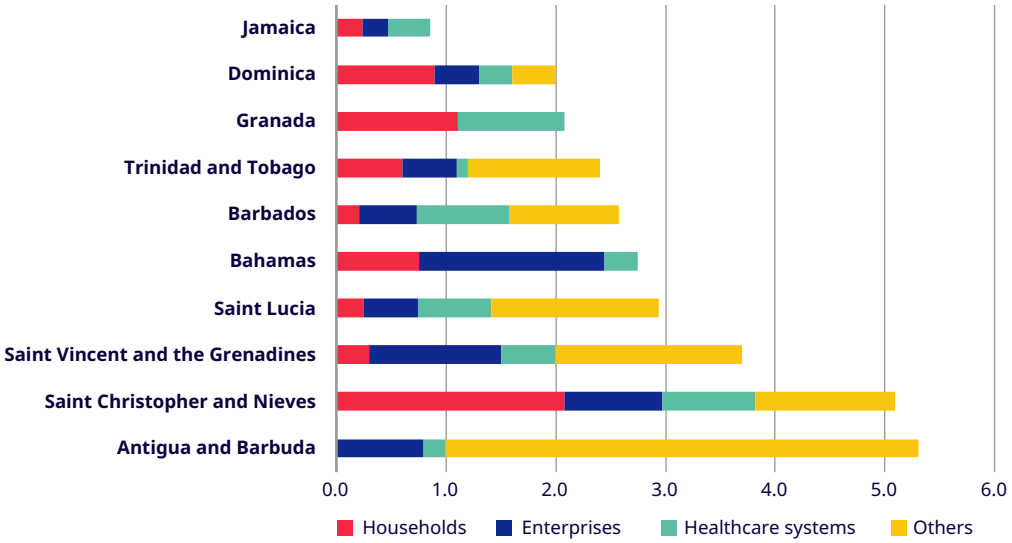
FIGURE 1.11. Latin America and the Caribbean. Fiscal impact of government aid (percentage of GDP)

Panel A. Latin America



Source: International Monetary Fund (IMF).

Panel B. Caribbean



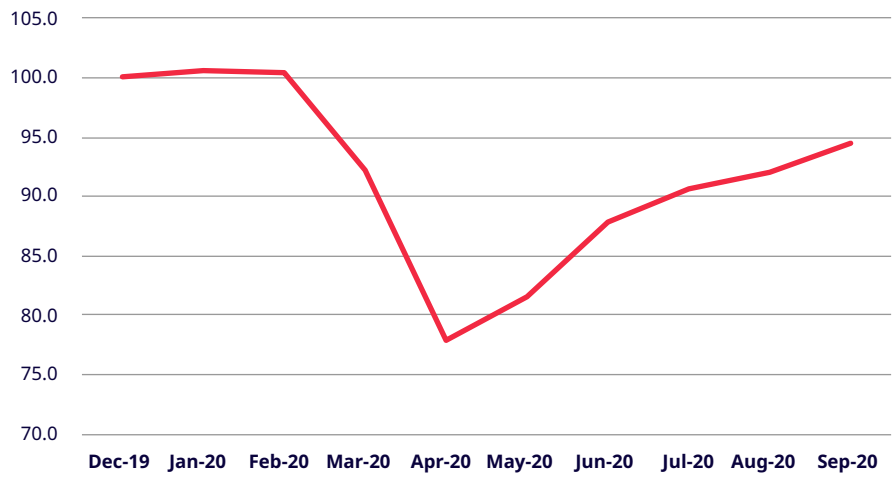
Source: International Monetary Fund (IMF).

> Like the world economy overall, the recovery of economic activity in the region tended to decelerate after the initial rebound following the decline in April.

In the Caribbean, support for businesses was noteworthy. It mainly benefited the tourism sector, which was seriously affected by the crisis. Other measures included tax relief and deferrals and, to a lesser extent, assistance to households. As of August, the most significant fiscal efforts were observed in Antigua and Barbuda (5.3 per cent) and Saint Kitts and Nevis (5.1 per cent), with a country average equaling 3 per cent of GDP and a median of 2.7 per cent.

Like the world economy overall, the recovery of economic activity in the region tended to decelerate after the initial rebound following the decline in April. As of September, an average of key GDP indicators for 13 Latin American countries demonstrated that the region's activity level was 6 per cent below the December 2019 level, after being 22 per cent below that level in April (Figure 1.12).

FIGURE 1.12. Latin America and the Caribbean (13 selected countries). Change in GDP, December 2019 to September 2020 (December 2019 = 100)

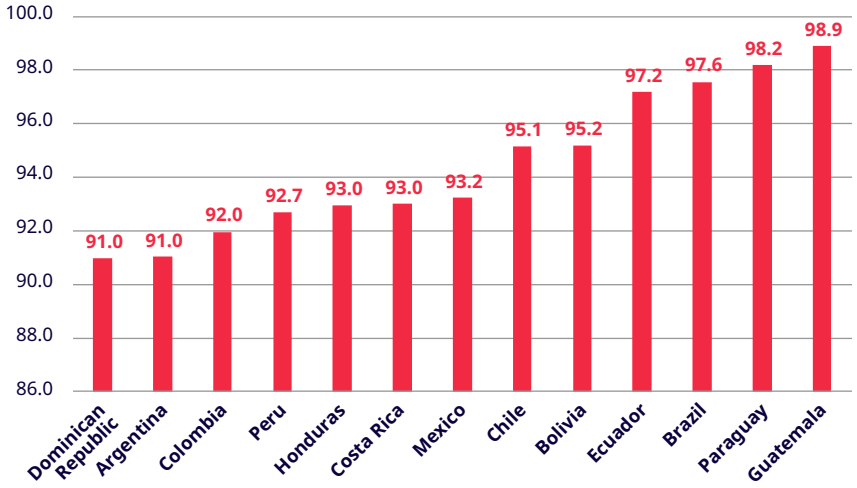


Source: CEP XXI, Ministry of Productive Development of Argentina,[3] based on official data of the countries.

This indicator varied by country, however (Figure 1.13). Some countries, such as Brazil, Paraguay and Guatemala, recorded levels less than 3 per cent below the December level in September, while at the other extreme, GDP in the Dominican Republic and Argentina fell 9 per cent. As mentioned, much of this variation resulted from the varying intensity of social isolation measures and mobility restrictions.

3 https://www.argentina.gob.ar/sites/default/files/indicadores_de_actividad_economica_de_america_-_diciembre_2020.pdf

FIGURE 1.13. Latin America and the Caribbean (13 selected countries). Economic activity index by countries as of September 2020 (December 2019 = 100)



Source: CEP XXI, Ministry of Productive Development of Argentina.

The overall reduction in economic activity was reflected in the decline of all components of domestic demand. Household consumption fell more sharply than GDP, an expected result given the regressive impact of the crisis in distributional terms. The restrictive measures taken by governments to contain the spread of the virus especially affected the income and jobs of informal and low-skilled workers, who are concentrated in the lower strata of income distribution. The decrease in public consumption

The overall reduction in economic activity was reflected in the decline of all components of domestic demand. Household consumption fell more sharply than GDP, an expected result given the regressive impact of the crisis in distributional terms.

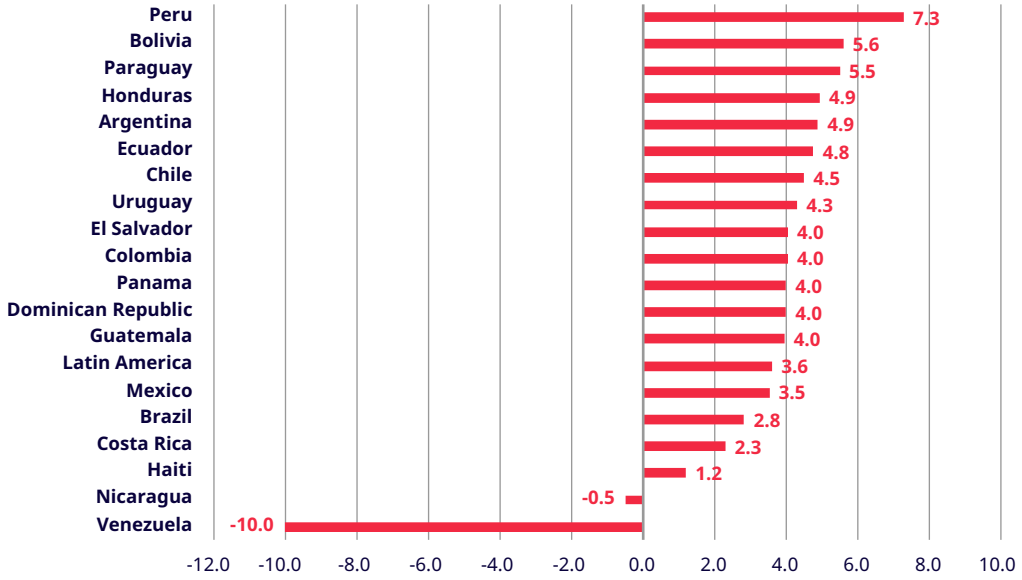
was significantly lower given that, despite lower tax revenues resulting from the decreased level of activity, the region's governments increased their spending levels to mitigate the economic and social impacts of the health crisis. Finally, the reduction in demand, the limited use of installed capacity and the deterioration of expectations strongly affected capital formation in all countries of the region. In several countries, investment contracted by double-digit rates, in some cases exceeding 20 per cent during the first half of the year.

Additionally, the decrease in demand, reinforced by restrictions on the movement of people, contributed to slowing the rate of price increases in nearly all the economies of Latin America and the Caribbean. The reduction in the inflation rate in the first 10 months of the year and the expansive bias in monetary policy adopted in most countries of the region as part of the countercyclical strategy, led to an extended decline in interest rates. At the same time, capital outflow from the region in the early months of the pandemic exerted upward pressure on foreign exchange markets, generating an increase in real exchange rates, although it partially eased over time.

Expected Growth for 2021

The economies of the region are beginning to recover, as indicated in the previous section. This trend is expected to continue next year. The IMF projects a growth rate of 3.6 per cent for Latin America and the Caribbean. In Latin America, forecasts for the two largest economies, Brazil (2.8 per cent) and Mexico (3.5 per cent), are below average. Excluding these two countries and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, for which the IMF estimates a decline of -10 per cent, the projection for Latin America would increase to 4.7 per cent.

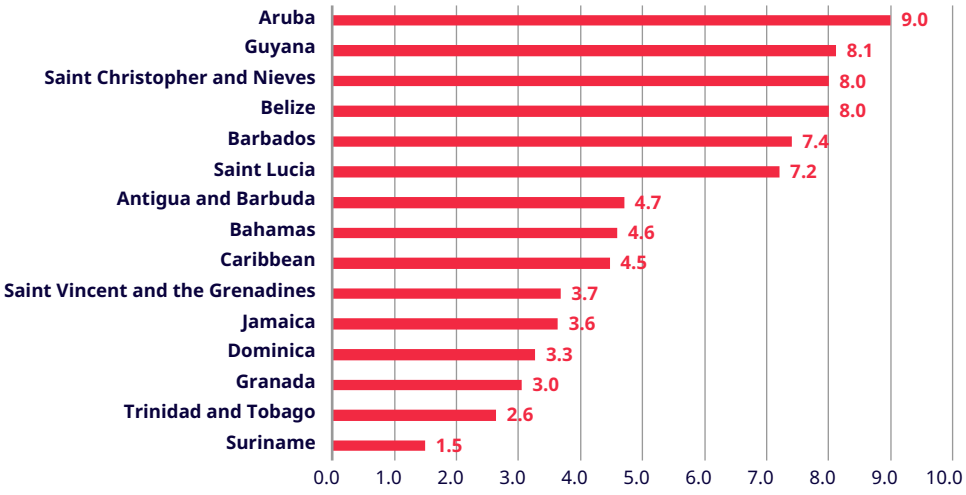
▶ **FIGURE 1.14.** Latin America. GDP growth forecast for 2021 (percent)



Source: International Monetary Fund (IMF).

For the Caribbean, the IMF estimates a growth rate of 4.5 per cent (Figure 1.15). This projection is based on an expected recovery in tourism activity next year, which explains the more robust recovery forecast for countries that depend more heavily on tourism than for those whose economies depend more on production and commodity exports, such as in the case of Trinidad and Tobago (2.6 per cent) and Suriname (1.5 per cent).

▶ **FIGURE 1.15.** Caribbean. GDP growth estimates for 2021 (percent)



Source: International Monetary Fund (IMF).

2. Labour force participation rate, employment-to-population ratio and unemployment rate

Significant contractions in labour supply and demand amid rising unemployment

Owing to containment measures of the health crisis during the first three quarters of 2020, the labour force participation rate and employment-to-population ratio of Latin America and the Caribbean experienced contractions that are unprecedented in the recent history of the region. The unemployment rate increased by double digits, its highest level in more than a decade.

The performance of regional supply, demand and unemployment indicators so far in 2020 breaks with the trends observed since 2016, in which the labour force participation rate and employment-to-population ratio experienced slight increases and the unemployment rate remained at around 8 per cent (Table 2.1). In the first three quarters of 2020 compared with the same period of 2019, the strong contraction experienced by both the labour force participation rate (-5.4 percentage points) and the employment-to-population ratio (-6.0 percentage points) is noteworthy. During the same period, given the more pronounced contraction of the employment-to-population ratio compared with the decrease in the labour force participation rate, the unemployment rate recorded the highest increase (1.9 percentage points) observed since 2008, reaching 10.6 per cent. Accordingly, the performance of key labour market indicators reflected the impact that the measures implemented in response to the health crisis had on the level of activity of the region's economies, which in turn resulted in strong adjustments in labour supply and demand and substantial increases in the unemployment rate.

Owing to containment measures of the health crisis during the first three quarters of 2020, the labour force participation rate and employment-to-population ratio of Latin America and the Caribbean experienced contractions that are unprecedented in the recent history of the region.

TABLE 2.1. Latin America and the Caribbean: key labour market indicators, 2008-2020 (percentages)

Years	Labour force participation rate	Employment-to-population ratio	Unemployment rate
Annual data [a/]			
2010	61.9	57.7	6.9
2011	61.8	57.8	6.4
2012	62.5	58.5	6.4
2013	62.2	58.3	6.3

Continues...

COVID-19 crisis

In such a sudden, unparalleled crisis, unemployment tells only part of the story.

Given the lack of opportunities

23

MILLION*

women and men

WENT INTO INACTIVITY

and stopped seeking employment

The labour force participation rate declined to

57.2%

- 5.4 pp.

* Estimate based on CELADE data.

Years	Labour force participation rate	Employment-to-population ratio	Unemployment rate
2014	62.1	58.3	6.1
2015	62.0	57.9	6.6
2016	62.1	57.3	7.8
2017	62.4	57.4	8.1
2018	62.5	57.6	8.0
2019 [b/]	62.7	57.8	8.0
Average to the III quarter [c/]			
2019 I - III	62.6	57.2	8.7
2020 I - III	57.2	51.2	10.6

Source: ILO, based on information from household surveys of the countries.
a/ Annual data include 26 countries.
b/ The annual data for 2019 are preliminary.
c/ Average data for the 3rd quarter 2019 and 2020 are preliminary and include 15 countries.

Another striking change was the rapid fall in the labour supply represented by the labour force participation rate at the onset of the health crisis. Historically, adjustments in labour demand have been faster to respond to changes in the level of economic activity, while adjustments in labour supply are relatively more inelastic in the short term. Consequently, the employment-to-population ratio tends to react more quickly to the economic slowdown, while the labour force participation rate tends to show less marked adjustments, which is what occurred in the periods 2009-2010 and 2014-2017. This behaviour of the regional labour supply contributed significantly to the ongoing increase in women's labour force participation, which sustained the trend of a growing labour supply.

By contrast, during the health crisis, the reduction in the labour force participation rate was almost as large as that experienced by the employment-to-population ratio, since mobility restrictions prevented many people from seeking employment. Consequently, there was no lag in the reaction of the labour force participation rate during the health crisis; rather, there was an almost automatic transfer out of the labour force of approximately 5.6 per cent of the working-age population. As discussed below, the sharp decline in women's labour force participation was a distinctive feature of this crisis. Thus, the unprecedented contraction in labour supply offset the effect of the decline in demand, which slowed the increase in the regional unemployment rate.

The strong contraction in labour supply and demand began in the second quarter of 2020

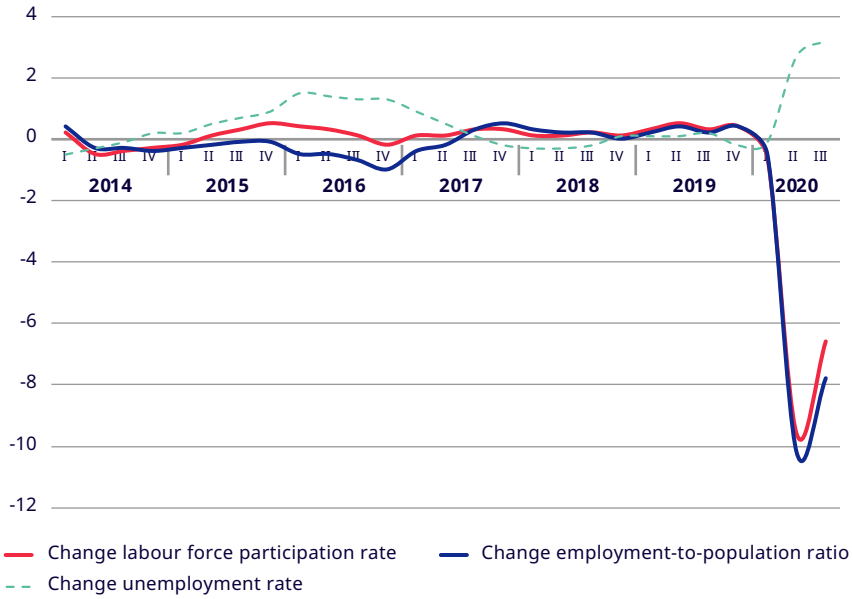
An analysis of quarterly trends of key labour market indicators reveals that the marked regional economic contraction stemming from the health crisis began to be strongly reflected starting in the second quarter of 2020 (Figure 2.1). Before the health crisis became widespread, the regional unemployment rate decreased in the fourth quarter of 2019 and the first quarter of 2020, but in quite different contexts. At the end of 2019, the employment-to-population ratio increased more than the labour force participation rate. By contrast, when containment measures began to be implemented in March, the labour force participation rate contracted slightly more than the employment-to-population ratio in the first quarter of 2020.

The effect of the economic contraction was evident in all its dimensions beginning in the second quarter of 2020, when labour force participation rates and employment-to-population ratios fell with respect to the same period of 2019, by -9.6 percentage points and -10.2 percentage points, respectively. This trend was particularly negative in terms of both the increase in the unemployment rate that quarter (2.7 percentage points), and with respect to the magnitude of the contraction in supply and demand.

To put this in perspective, this means that during the second quarter of 2020, about a sixth of all employment was lost, while a similar proportion of workers left the labour force.

In the third quarter of 2020, although the impact of the health crisis on labour market indicators continued, the relaxation of containment measures and the partial or full reopening of economic activities allowed a limited return of the labour force and a partial recovery in employment compared with the previous quarter. In a year-over-year comparison, there were significant decreases (but less than in the second quarter) compared with the same period of 2019 in labour force participation rates (-6.6 percentage points) and employment-to-population ratios (-7.8 percentage points), respectively, together with an increase in the unemployment rate of 3.2 percentage points.

▶ **FIGURE 2.1.** Latin America and the Caribbean (14 countries): Year-over-year change in the employment-to-population ratio, unemployment rate and labour force participation rate. Quarters 2014 I to 2020 3rd (percentage points)a/

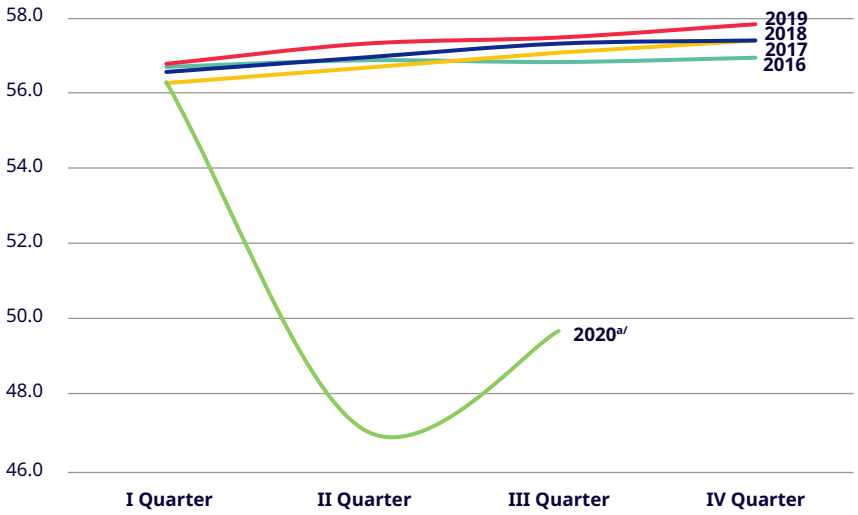


Source: ILO, based on information from household surveys of the countries.
a/ Countries included: Argentina, Bolivia (Pluri. State of) (beginning in 2016), Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic (beginning in 2015), Ecuador, Jamaica, Mexico, Paraguay (beginning in 2017), Peru, Trinidad and Tobago and Uruguay.
b/ Preliminary data.

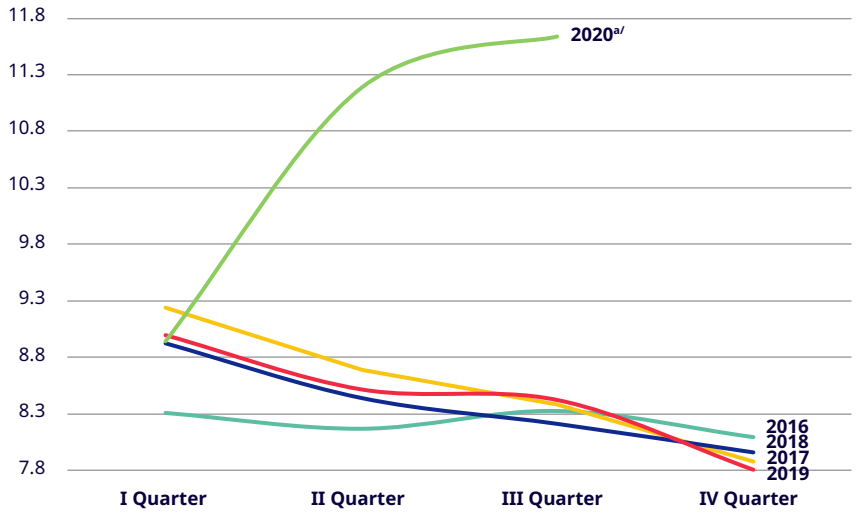
The analysis of the change in labour market indicators also shows that the impact of the 2020 health crisis was much stronger than the seasonal patterns observed annually (Figure 2.2). In the case of the employment-to-population ratio, there is a seasonality that leads the indicator from lower levels at the beginning of each year to increase throughout the year until reaching its maximum level in the last quarter (Panel A). However, in 2020, the employment-to-population ratio reflects the impact of the strong economic contraction during the two middle quarters, where the effects of the health crisis were concentrated. For the unemployment rate (Panel B), seasonality operates from a higher level in the first quarter of each year to lower levels in subsequent quarters. In 2020, by contrast, the unemployment rate steadily increased during the first three quarters.

FIGURE 2.2. Latin America and the Caribbean (14 countries): Quarterly change in the unemployment rate and employment-to-population ratio. Quarters 2016 1st – 2020 3rd (percentages)

Panel A. Employment-to-population ratio



Panel B. Unemployment rate



Source: ILO, based on information from household surveys of the countries.
Note: Countries included: Argentina, Bolivia (Pluri. State of) (beginning in 2016), Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic (beginning in 2015), Ecuador, Jamaica, Mexico, Paraguay (beginning in 2017), Peru, Trinidad and Tobago and Uruguay.
a/ Preliminary data.

Analysis by subregions and countries

Regional trend mitigated by labour market performance of Mexico and Brazil

Aggregate labour indicators for the region demonstrate the magnitude of the impact of the health crisis. A subregional and country analysis provides more insight into the nuanced effects of the pandemic on the regional labour market during 2020 (Table 2.2).

> One key consideration when analyzing regional indicators is the performance of the labour markets in Brazil and Mexico, which have a decisive influence on the subregional and regional averages given that together they account for about two-thirds of the region's labour force.

Although all the countries in the region experienced an economic contraction, its scale varied, and this determined the effect on labour markets. For example, the health crisis had a major impact on sectors such as tourism and trade, which, depending on the intensity of employment and its economic importance in each country, affected the contraction of employment and the rate of labour force outflows and unemployment differently across countries.

One key consideration when analyzing regional indicators is the performance of the labour markets in Brazil and Mexico, which have a decisive influence on the subregional and regional averages given that together they account for about two-thirds of the region's labour force. Although in 2020 the two countries also experienced sharp declines in their labour supply and demand and increases in their unemployment rates, these decreases were less severe than those of the region's other countries. Without Brazil or Mexico, the region experienced an even more marked reduction in the labour force participation rate and the employment-to-population ratio (-0.8 percentage points and -1.5 additional percentage points, respectively), and an even greater rise in unemployment (1.3 percentage points).

At the subregional level, the impact on labour market indicators also differed. Although there are no available subregional averages for the group of countries in Central America and Mexico and the English-speaking Caribbean, with respect to South American countries, the negative effect of the health crisis was much more profound in the Andean Countries than in the Southern Cone. The Andean Countries experienced decreases in the labour force participation rate and the employment-to-population of -7.5 percentage points and -9.6 percentage points, respectively, between the first and third quarters of 2020. The unemployment rate in the subregion rose by 4.4 percentage points. By contrast, in the Southern Cone countries, labour force participation rates and employment-to-population ratios fell by some -5 percentage points, while the unemployment rate increased 1.4 percentage points.

▶ **TABLE 2.2.** Latin America and the Caribbean (15 countries): Key labour market indicators, by subregion. National averages to the 3rd quarter of 2019 and 2020 (percentages)

Region	Labour force participation rate			Employment-to-population ratio			Unemployment rate		
	Average I-III quarter [a/]			Average I-III quarter [a/]			Average I-III quarter [a/]		
	2019	2020	Change (pp.)	2019	2020	Change (pp.)	2019	2020	Change (pp.)
Latin America and the Caribbean	62.6	57.2	-5.4	57.2	51.2	-6.0	8.7	10.6	1.9
Latin America and the Caribbean without Mexico and Brazil	64.7	58.5	-6.2	59.7	52.2	-7.5	7.7	10.9	3.2
Brazil	62.0	57.1	-4.9	54.4	49.9	-4.6	12.2	13.4	1.2
Mexico	60.0	54.9	-5.1	57.9	52.5	-5.4	3.5	4.5	0.9
Central America and Mexico [b/]	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
English-speaking Caribbean [c/]	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
South America [d/]	63.2	57.5	-5.6	56.8	50.4	-6.3	10.2	12.4	2.2
Andean countries [e/]	66.7	59.2	-7.5	62.1	52.5	-9.6	6.9	11.3	4.4
Southern Cone [f/]	61.9	56.9	-5.0	54.8	49.7	-5.1	11.5	12.8	1.4
Southern Cone without Brazil	61.5	56.2a	-5.3	55.9	50.1	-5.8	9.1	11.0	1.9

Source: ILO, based on information from household surveys of the countries.
Note: the average data for the 3rd quarter and for the period January-September 2020 may present comparability problems with respect to 2019 data given the adjustments in statistical processes that statistics and census institutes implemented in response to the health crisis. Preliminary data.
a/ The average to the 3rd quarter includes the countries that have presented data in any of the three quarters and includes 15 countries: Argentina, Bolivia (Pluri. State of), Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Jamaica, Mexico, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Peru, Saint Lucia and Uruguay.
b/ Central America: The data available for the countries of the Central American subregion are insufficient for calculating a representative average for the subregion.
c/ English-speaking Caribbean: The data available from the countries of the English-speaking Caribbean subregion are insufficient for calculating a representative average for the subregion.
d/ South America includes: Argentina, Bolivia (Pluri. State of), Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay.
e/ Andean countries include: Bolivia (Pluri. State of), Colombia, Ecuador and Peru.
f/ Southern Cone includes: Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Paraguay and Uruguay.

At the country level, variations also exist in the magnitude of the changes in key labour market indicators. On the one hand, the labour force participation rate fell in the 15 countries with available information for the first three quarters of 2020 (Table 2.3), although the contraction was less than -2 percentage points in the English-speaking Caribbean (Jamaica and Saint Lucia), followed by Uruguay. On the other hand, the decline in the labour force participation rate in Peru, Chile, Ecuador and Argentina exceeded -5 percentage points.

The employment-to-population ratio also decreased in all the countries analyzed. However, while in Nicaragua, Uruguay and Saint Lucia, the indicator fell less than -3 percentage points, in Peru, Ecuador, Chile and Colombia, the decline in the employment-to-population ratio exceeded -7 percentage points. Finally, the unemployment rate experienced increases in 13 countries, with the largest increases observed in Costa Rica, Colombia and Ecuador, while it decreased in the Dominican Republic and Nicaragua.

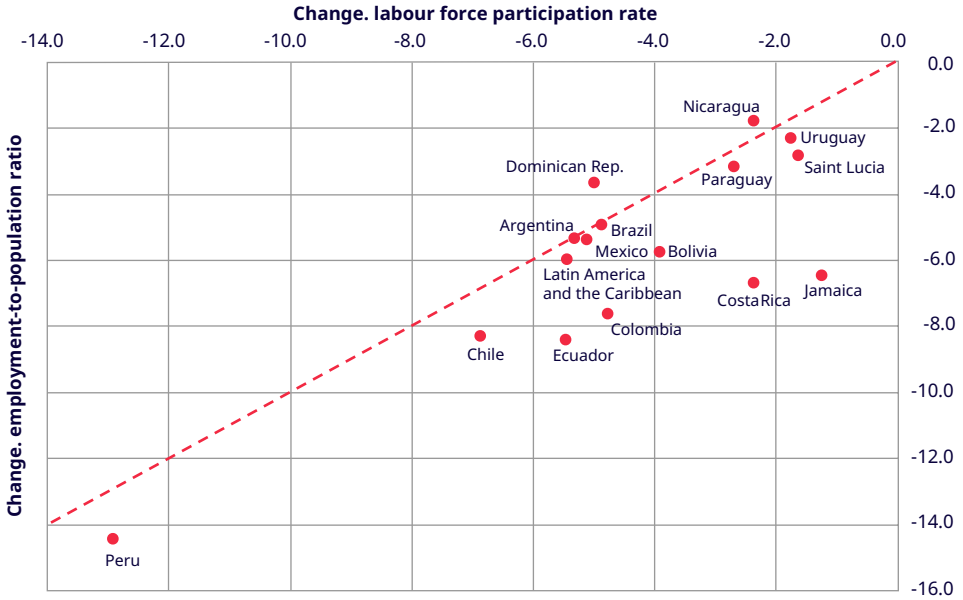
TABLE 2.3. Latin America and the Caribbean (15 countries): Key labour market indicators, by country. National averages to the 3rd quarter of 2019 and 2020 (percentages)

Country	Labour force participation rate			Employment-to-population ratio			Unemployment rate		
	Average I-III quarter			Average I-III quarter			Average I-III quarter		
	2019	2020	Var (pp.)	2019	2020	Var (pp.)	2019	2020	Var (pp.)
Latin America									
Argentina [a/]	59.2	53.9	-5.3	53.0	47.7	-5.4	10.4	11.8	1.4
Bolivia (Pluri. State of) [b/]	68.6	64.7	-3.9	65.1	59.4	-5.8	5.1	8.3	3.2
Brazil	62.0	57.1	-4.9	54.4	49.5	-4.9	12.2	13.4	1.2
Chile	62.8	55.9	-6.9	58.2	49.9	-8.3	7.3	10.9	3.7
Colombia [c/]	63.1	58.4	-4.7	56.3	48.6	-7.6	10.8	16.8	6.0
Costa Rica	62.4	60.0	-2.3	55.2	48.5	-6.7	11.5	19.5	7.9
Ecuador [c/ d/]	67.3	61.9	-5.5	64.2	55.7	-8.4	4.7	9.9	5.2
Mexico [i/]	60.0	54.9	-5.1	57.9	52.5	-5.4	3.5	4.5	0.9
Nicaragua [a/]	71.1	68.8	-2.3	67.0	65.3	-1.8	5.7	5.1	-0.6
Paraguay [j/]	72.2	69.5	-2.7	67.2	64.0	-3.2	6.9	7.9	1.0
Peru [f/]	72.5	59.6	-12.9	69.5	55.1	-14.5	4.1	7.8	3.7
Dominican Republic [a/]	65.0	60.0	-5.0	61.0	57.3	-3.7	6.1	4.4	-1.7
Uruguay [g/]	62.0	60.2	-1.8	56.4	54.1	-2.3	9.0	10.2	1.2
English- and Dutch-speaking Caribbean									
Jamaica [h/]	64.7	63.5	-1.2	60.1	53.6	-6.5	7.9	10.0	2.0
Saint Lucia [i/]	71.5	69.9	-1.6	60.5	57.6	-2.9	15.5	17.6	2.1
Latin America and the Caribbean [j/]	**62.6**	**57.2**	**-5.4**	**57.2**	**51.2**	**-6.0**	**8.7**	**10.6**	**1.9**

Source: ILO, based on information from household surveys of the countries.
Note: the data for the average to the 3rd quarter of 2020 may present comparability problems with the respective 2019 data given the adjustments in statistical processes that statistics and census institutes implemented in response to the health crisis. Preliminary data.
a/ Average data for the first semester.
b/ The average data for the first quarter of 2020 are with national and preliminary coverage. Data for the 2nd and 3rd quarters of 2020 are with urban coverage.
c/ The data on the labour force participation rate and unemployment include hidden unemployment.
d/ The average data for the second quarter of 2020 correspond to the months of May and June; for the 3rd quarter, from 2020 to September.
e/ The average data for the 2nd and 3rd quarters of 2019 are from the ENOE, those for the 2nd quarter of 2020 from the ETOE and those for the 3rd quarter of 2020 from the ENOE new edition.
f/ The data for the 1st, 2nd and 3rd quarters of 2020 are preliminary.
g/ The average data for the 1st quarter of 2020 are from the ECH for the months of January and February; the month of March is from the ECH-Telefónica. The average data for the 2nd quarter of 2020 correspond to the months of April, May and June ECH-Telefónica and those of the 3rd quarter correspond to the months of July, August and September ECH-Telefónica.
h/ Average of the 1st and 3rd quarters.
i/ Average of the 1st quarter.
j/ Weighted average. It excludes hidden unemployment in Colombia, Ecuador and Jamaica. The weighting used is the working-age population and the labour force.

Changes in the key labour market indicators reveal the different dynamics of the labour markets in each country. Although the regional context experienced a decrease in supply and demand indicators, this did not necessarily lead to higher unemployment rates. Figure 2.3. shows that the year-over-year change in labour force participation rates and employment-to-population ratios of the 15 countries considered was negative, although supply and demand indicators varied across countries. Considering that the 45-degree line indicates that the change in labour force participation rates and employment-to-population ratios declined at the same rates, in the 13 countries located below the line, the labour force participation rate fell less sharply than did the employment-to-population ratio, leading to an increase in the unemployment rate. The opposite occurred in the Dominican Republic and Nicaragua, which are above the line: the employment-to-population ratio contracted less than that of the labour force participation rate.

FIGURE 2.3. Latin America and the Caribbean (15 countries): Change in the labour force participation rate and the employment-to-population ratio. January-September, 2019 and 2020 (percentage points)



Source: ILO, based on information from household surveys of the countries.

Women and youth. Labour force segments of special interest

The health crisis had a strong impact on both men and women

To assess changes in labour market indicators requires particular attention to the two groups most vulnerable to the economic downturn: women and young people. In terms of labour force participation rates by sex (Table 2.4), men (-5.5 percentage points) and women (-5.4 percentage points) experienced similar declines the first three quarters of 2020 during the health crisis compared with the same period in 2019 , although proportionally, the impact was more important among women given their lower labour force participation rate. This indicator fell -10.4 per cent among women and -7.4 per cent among men. The employment-to-population ratio by sex followed a similar trend. Although in percentage points this indicator fell more among men (-6.4 percentage points) than among women (-5.7 percentage points) in the same period, proportionally, the impact was greater on the employment-to-population ratio among women (-12.3 per cent) than on that among men (-9.3 per cent). Finally, the unemployment rate rose more for men (2.0 percentage points) than for women (1.8 percentage points), although in a context of a relatively more significant decline in women's labour force participation.

From a medium-term perspective, the 2020 health crisis has had an even more significant impact on the performance of women's labour market indicators. Between 2015 and 2019, women's labour force participation rates and employment-to-population ratios grew by 1.8 percentage points and 0.8 percentage points, respectively. This contrasts with the contraction of labour force participation rates (-0.3 percentage points) and employment-to-population ratios (-1.1 percentage points) among men in the same period. In other words, prior to the health crisis, what had sustained the regional labour force participation rates and employment-to-population ratios was the incorporation of women into the labour market. The pandemic clearly led to a setback, the consequences of which may extend beyond the health crisis without adequate support from public care systems (sick, elderly, children) and in-person schools, which facilitate women's return to the labour market. The significant increase in the underutilization of the female labour force during 2020 may also generate greater difficulties for their future re-entry into the labour force. Consequently, the impact of the regional economic crisis may become more permanent if appropriate social and labour policies are not implemented.

▶ **TABLE 2.4.** Latin America and the Caribbean: Key labour market indicators, by year and sex. 2015 – 3rd quarter 2020 (average annual rates)

Indicadores [a/]	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Average I-III Quarter [b/]		
						2019	2020	Var (pp.)
Labour force participation rate	62.0	62.1	62.4	62.5	62.7	62.6	57.2	-5.4
Men	75.2	75.1	75.2	75.1	74.9	74.2	68.7	-5.5
Women	49.7	50.0	50.6	50.9	51.4	51.8	46.4	-5.4
Employment-to-population ratio	57.9	57.3	57.4	57.6	57.8	57.2	51.2	-6.0
Men	71.0	70.1	70.0	70.0	69.9	68.8	62.4	-6.4
Women	45.8	45.5	45.8	46.2	46.6	46.5	40.9	-5.7
Unemployment rate	6.6	7.8	8.1	8.0	8.0	8.7	10.6	1.9
Men	5.7	6.8	7.0	6.9	6.8	7.4	9.4	2.0
Women	7.9	9.2	9.6	9.5	9.5	10.3	12.1	1.8

Source: ILO based on information from household surveys of the countries.
Note: the average data for the 1st, 2nd and 3rd quarters of 2020 may present comparability problems with the respective data for 2019 given the adjustments in the statistical processes that statistics and census institutes implemented in response to the health crisis.
a/ The regional average of the main indicators for the period 2015-2019 includes 26 countries.
b/ The regional average of the main indicators for the first three quarters of 2019-2020 includes 15 countries. Preliminary data.

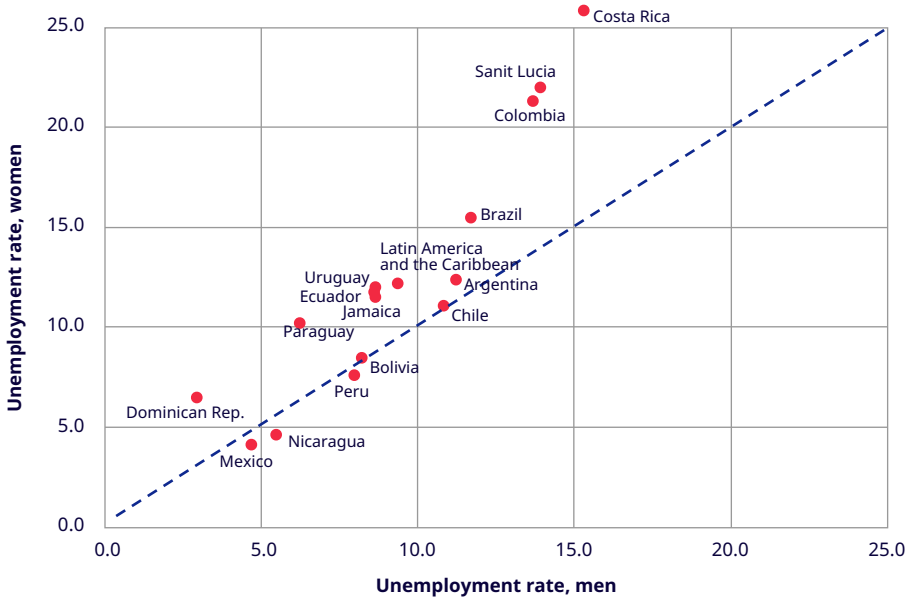
Figure 2.4 shows the gender differences that prevail throughout the region. In Panel A, countries located on the line have equal unemployment rates by sex. The indicator is higher among women compared with men in the countries above the line, while the opposite is true if they are below it. Thus, except for Nicaragua, Mexico and Peru, the unemployment rate among men is higher than among women in most countries of the region. In Bolivia and Chile, unemployment rates between men and women are nearly equal.

The health crisis also exposed labour force participation gaps (Panel B). The distances from equal participation (Panel B diagonal) are evident: on average, the labour force participation rate among women represents just over two-thirds of that among men. However, the labour force participation gap by sex varies across countries. While in Jamaica, Saint Lucia and Uruguay, the ratio between female and

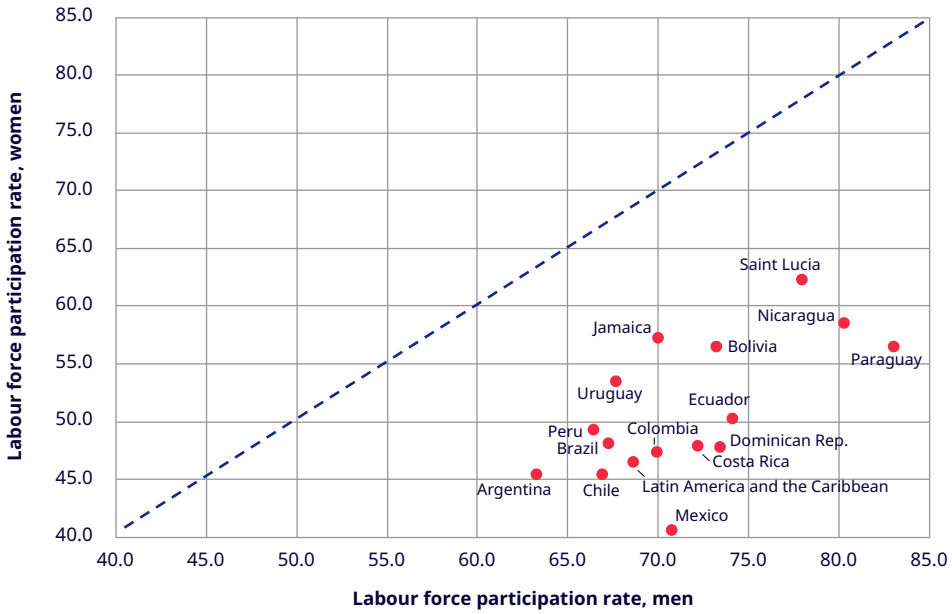
male labour force participation rates exceeds 79 per cent, in Mexico and the Dominican Republic, this ratio is below 65 per cent.

FIGURE 2.4. Latin America and the Caribbean (15 countries): Gap between unemployment rate and labour force participation rate, by sex. January-September 2020 (percentages)

Panel A. Unemployment rate



Panel B. Labour force participation rate



Source: ILO based on information from household surveys of the countries.

The health crisis had a major impact on youth

The labour vulnerability of youth (ages 15 to 24) has been particularly evident during the health crisis. Although the structure of the youth labour market before the pandemic was characterized by low labour force participation rates and employment-to-population ratios, along with unemployment rates

Women

The crisis has impacted women more significantly. **Their labour force participation rate fell**

10.4%

versus 7.4% for men.

Youth

The youth unemployment rate rose 2.7 pp, reaching

23.2%

...a level never seen before.

- One in four young people is unemployed as of the third quarter of 2020.

tripling those of adults (ages 25 and over), during the pandemic, the labour market indicators of youth deteriorated significantly, exacerbating short- and medium-term barriers to employability for young workers (ECLAC / ILO, 2020).

Specifically, during the first three quarters of 2020 compared with the same period of 2019, the labour force participation rate and employment-to-population ratio among youth fell by some 5.5 percentage points, reaching 42.7 per cent and 33.0 per cent, respectively (Table 2.5). In the same period, the youth unemployment rate rose 2.7 percentage points, exceeding the increase among adults (1.9 percentage points). During the pandemic, the regional youth unemployment rate reached 23.2 per cent, that is, almost one in four youth in the labour market in the region is unemployed.

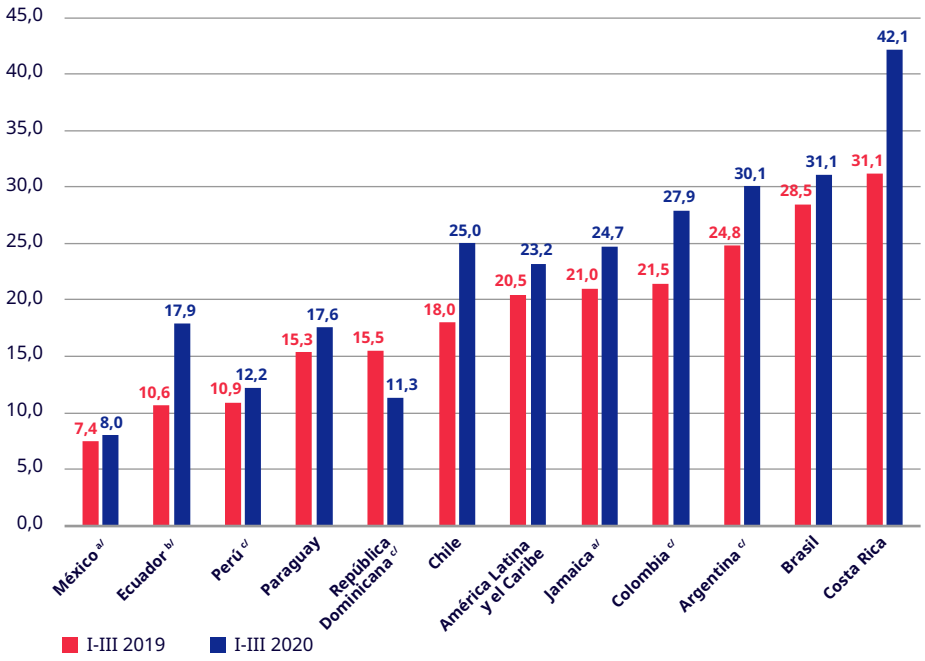
TABLE 2.5. Latin America: Key labour market indicators, by year and age range, 2015 - 3rd quarter 2020 (percentages) (average annual rates)

Indicators [a/]	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Average I-III Quarter [b/]		
						2019	2020	Var (pp.)
Labour force participation rate	62.0	62.1	62.4	62.5	62.7	62.6	57.2	-5.4
15 to 24 years	47.2	47.3	47.6	47.8	48.0	48.1	42.7	-5.4
25 years and over	67.4	67.5	67.5	67.5	67.4	67.1	62.2	-4.9
Employment-to-population ratio	57.9	57.3	57.4	57.6	57.8	57.2	51.2	-6.0
15 to 24 years	40.1	38.8	38.8	38.9	39.1	38.4	33.0	-5.3
25 years and over	64.1	63.6	63.4	63.5	63.3	62.7	57.0	-5.7
Unemployment rate	6.6	7.8	8.1	8.0	8.0	8.7	10.6	1.9
15 to 24 years	15.2	18.3	18.8	18.8	18.7	20.5	23.2	2.7
25 years and over	5.0	5.9	6.1	6.0	6.0	6.5	8.5	1.9

Source: ILO based on information from household surveys of the countries.
Note: the average data for the 1st, 2nd and 3rd quarters of 2020 may present comparability problems with the respective data for 2019 given the adjustments in the statistical processes that statistics and census institutes implemented in response to the health crisis.
a/ The regional average of the main indicators for the period 2015-2019 includes 26 countries.
b/ The regional average of the main indicators for the 3rd quarter 2019-2020 includes 15 countries. Preliminary data.

At the country level, the impact of the health crisis on youth unemployment varies. Youth unemployment in the region is structurally diverse. While in countries such as Mexico, youth unemployment is below two digits, in countries such as Costa Rica and Brazil, unemployment affects more than a third of youth in the labour market (Figure 2.5). The youth unemployment rate between the first three quarters of 2020 and the same period of 2019 indicates diverse changes across countries, with increases of more than 6 percentage points in Ecuador, Chile and Colombia.

▶ **FIGURE 2.5.** Latin America and the Caribbean: Youth unemployment rate, by country. January-September of 2019 and 2020 (percentages)



Source: ILO based on information from household surveys of the countries.
a/ Corresponds to the 1st and 3rd quarters.
b/ Corresponds to the 2nd and 3rd quarters.
c/ Corresponds to the first semester.

▶ **Box 1.** Statistical challenges during the pandemic

The COVID-19 pandemic posed major challenges for the quality and continuity of labour information in Latin America and the Caribbean. While all surveys were affected, difficulties were especially prevalent in household surveys. Unlike other crises that affected the region's economies and labour markets in the past, in 2020, the measures of total or partial household confinement and of social distancing and / or quarantine have limited interviewers' ability to access households. Consequently, and especially during the first phase of the pandemic, the region's national statistics offices faced major roadblocks for continuing their work of providing information for decision-makers and those responsible for developing social and labour policies.

To address data collection problems, statistics offices have implemented a variety of contingency measures. One of the most significant was to change the way information is collected from household surveys, moving from face-to-face to telephone questionnaires. This change and the COVID-19 crisis posed major logistical, conceptual, methodological and

▶ Continues...

analytical challenges for national statistics offices. The change in the data collection method has an impact on response rates, coverage and other aspects that may affect the quality of the measurements of labour indicators and their comparability with previously data collected. Consequently, national statistics offices had to make a significant effort in studies and corrections to minimize potential biases to ensure the production of accurate official statistics.

National statistics offices in the region have made noteworthy efforts to limit potential measurement problems. They are working to maintain the conceptual framework established in international recommendations, as well as the operational definitions and basic criteria used to measure key labour market indicators. This has enabled researchers to capture the impact of the pandemic in its different phases and especially in the groups most affected by it.

What occurred in 2020 has again raised issues associated with the provision of labour statistics and the improvement of statistical systems for the design of social and labour policy. The impact of the pandemic has demonstrated that statistical systems must consider contexts such as the current one in the future to enable the implementation of complementary methods for collecting statistical information. Today it is clearer than ever that improving the statistical institutional framework of the countries must be an ongoing objective. The same is true with respect to the design, complementarity and availability of instruments and information sources that allow for the provision of timely quality information to inform both the decisions and the objectives and implementation of social and labour policies.

The advances made this year in the use and implementation of social and labour administrative records (related to unemployment insurance, beneficiaries of social benefits and social security records) in several countries of the region may help to complement information necessary for the design of social and labour policy responses beyond the COVID-19 crisis. Given the need to implement income transfer policies for formal and informal workers during the pandemic, the coverage and availability of several social and labour administrative records have been expanded and improved. The strengthening and continuity of these innovations in the use of administrative records will facilitate the provision of information useful for the design of more permanent policies. Coupled with this are the future challenges associated with the use and implementation of Big Data, which could eventually also provide complementary information to the official statistics of the countries.

▶ 3. Composition of employment and wages

Devastation of wage and non-wage employment

The dynamics of the economic slowdown observed in 2018 and 2019 had an impact on the structure and quality of regional employment. In a context of weak economic growth, own-account employment, particularly non-professional employment, continued to grow. At the same time, wage employment in both the private and public sectors, as well as domestic work, declined as a share of total employment (Table 3.1). From 2012 to 2019, the share of wage employment in total employment decreased by -3.6 percentage points. Most of this change is explained by the fall in wage employment in the private sector, particularly the segment concentrated in enterprises with six or more workers. As Table 3.1 show, own-account employment continued to expand and accounted for an increasing share of non-wage employment.

TABLE 3.1. Latin America. Structure of the employed national population, by year and status in employment. 2012, 2015, 2018, 2019a/ (percentages) b/

Status in employment	2012	2015	2018	2019
Total employed	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Employees	62.6	61.3	59.3	59.0
Public	12.3	12.0	12.0	11.8
Private	50.3	49.2	47.3	47.2
Maximum of five workers	11.3	11.0	11.7	11.7
Six or more workers	39.0	38.2	35.6	35.6
Non-employees	25.1	26.6	28.1	28.5
Employers	4.0	4.6	5.1	5.1
Maximum of five workers	2.6	2.8	3.1	3.1
Six or more workers	1.5	1.8	2.1	2.0
Own-account	21.1	22.1	23.0	23.4
Professional, technical and administrative	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.5
Non-professional, technical and administrative	18.0	18.9	19.7	20.0
Domestic workers	6.9	6.6	6.8	6.6
Contributing family workers	3.6	3.2	2.8	2.8
Others	1.8	2.3	3.1	3.0

Source: ILO, based on information from household surveys of the countries.
a/ Countries included: Argentina, Bolivia (Pluri. National State of), Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay.
b/ Weighted average. The weighting used is the national employed population of each country, disaggregated by status in employment, enterprise size, and professionals and non-professionals.

The health crisis had a profound impact on both wage and non-wage employment. Among the seven countries with available updated information for the period January-September for 2020 and 2019, a significant change is observed between the employment growth observed in 2019 and the strong contraction recorded in 2020 (Table 3.2). Specifically, total wage employment and own-account employment grew by 1.8 per cent and 2.3 per cent, respectively, in 2019, and then sharply contracted by -6.8 per cent and -8.9 per cent, respectively, in 2020. Additionally, marked differences are observed within the wage employment segment in 2020. While private-sector wage employment contracted -10 per cent, public-sector wage employment was the only type of employment that increased (2.6 per cent) more than in 2019 (1.1 per cent). The impact of the health crisis on other types of employment is also evident. It had a major effect on the categories of employers (-9.8 per cent) and domestic workers (-19.4 per cent). In other words, in this latter type of employment, which has a high concentration of female employment, about a fifth of regional jobs were lost. As discussed in Box 2, the impact of the pandemic on these workers implied a sharp setback following the advances in institutional and employment conditions observed throughout the 2010s.

TABLE 3.2. Latin America (7 countries): Year-over-year change of employed individuals by status in employment. January-September, 2020 and 2019 (percentages)

Country	Total employed		Employees						Employers		Own-account		Domestic workers		Others	
			Total Employees		Private		Public									
	Average I-III Quarter		Average I-III Quarter		Average I-III Quarter		Average I-III Quarter		Average I-III Quarter		Average I-III Quarter		Average I-III Quarter		Average I-III Quarter	
	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
Brazil	2.0	-7.5	1.4	-6.7	1.6	-9.3	0.8	3.3	0.4	-7.1	4.4	-6.5	0.0	-17.9	-0.6	-10.7
Chile	2.2	-12.5	2.0	-7.5	1.2	-9.4	5.9	1.6	2.0	-24.2	3.7	-22.5	1.0	-34.6	-10.7	-28.0
Colombia	-1.0	-12.5	2.5	-14.4	2.8	-15.3	-0.7	-4.3	-10.5	-21.7	-4.0	-9.4	4.3	-27.4	-0.3	-7.9
Costa Rica [a/]	3.4	-11.0	1.3	-11.8	...	...	...	...	-13.8	-17.4	14.0	-8.0	...	...	16.2	-5.5
Mexico [a/]	2.2	-7.8	1.9	-4.8	...	...	...	...	2.5	-7.5	3.6	-12.8	...	...	0.8	-17.7
Paraguay	1.9	-3.0	1.3	-6.1	0.8	-7.9	3.2	1.1	19.8	-26.3	0.8	7.2	5.7	-16.5	-5.5	10.3
Dominican Republic [b/]	3.2	-4.9	7.5	-3.1	10.8	-4.9	-0.8	1.8	0.3	-4.4	-2.1	-4.8	6.8	-16.1	-7.4	-22.5
TOTAL (7 countries) [c/]	**1.8**	**-8.3**	**1.8**	**-6.8**	**2.0**	**-10.0**	**1.1**	**2.6**	**0.2**	**-9.8**	**2.3**	**-8.9**	**0.8**	**-19.4**	**-0.1**	**-13.5**

Source: ILO, based on information from household surveys of the countries.
a/ Wage-earners include domestic workers.
b/ Data of the 3rd quarter of 2019 and 2020 correspond to the first semester of each year.
c/ Data of the 3rd quarter of 2020 is a preliminary estimate. Regional averages of private- and public-sector wage-earners, as well as domestic workers, only include the countries that provide data.

In the first three quarters of 2020, the change in employment by status in employment varied across countries. While in Colombia and Costa Rica, the contraction of wage employment was over -10 per cent, in the Dominican Republic, it was around -3 per cent. The growth in public-sector employment in the region was largely owing to the increase experienced in this type of employment in Brazil (3.3 per cent). Own-account employment contracted -22.5 per cent in Chile and -12.8 per cent in Mexico, while it grew 7.2 per cent in Paraguay. Finally, employment in domestic work contracted sharply in Chile (-34.6 per cent) and Colombia (-27.4 per cent) (Box 2).

▶ **Box 2.** The impact of COVID-19 on paid domestic work

The COVID-19 pandemic has negatively impacted both employment and its quality in various groups of formal and informal workers. In particular, paid domestic work in the region is one type of employment that has been most affected both by the magnitude of job loss and by the vulnerability of women workers in the sector during the pandemic. The pandemic has highlighted the need for paid domestic workers to advance their right to access the social and labour benefits granted to other wage workers.

The adverse effects of the pandemic on domestic work are particularly notorious and represent a setback from advances made in the 2010s, when several legal reforms were implemented in the region under ILO Convention No. 189 (2011) on domestic workers. The region has been a leader in terms of ratification and legal protection of domestic workers: Uruguay was the first country to ratify Convention No. 189 (2012) globally and the Latin American and Caribbean region has the highest number of ratifications (17) .

Although these changes have meant significant minimum wage increases and social security coverage (for example in Mexico in 2019) for domestic workers, significant gaps persist with respect to other wage earners: at the regional level, less than one-third of domestic workers have social security coverage and their wages remain precarious. Additionally, improvements in legislation on paid domestic work equalized minimum floors in basic aspects, but in most cases, they have not advanced in terms of protections and benefits such as unemployment insurance, overtime pay or access to training, nor in the provision of adequate occupational safety and health. In addition, there are difficulties in labour inspection, leading to higher levels of non-compliance with respect to other wage earners. However, countries such as Uruguay have made important progress in this decade, through new legislation (social security, contracts) and oversight. Consequently, Uruguayan domestic workers have the highest social security coverage in Latin America at more than 65 per cent.

The pandemic reveals the vulnerability of domestic workers, especially regarding the risks of COVID-19 infection since their workplace (home) is an enclosed space and their work involves interaction with household members. It has highlighted the paucity of legislation on minimum health and safety conditions for domestic workers. Moreover, eight of 10 domestic workers in the region are informal. This means that if they cannot go to their workplace, they receive no pay in many cases. In a crisis context, enforcement of legislation that maintains the labour relationship is much weaker, so many domestic workers must live in the homes where they provide service during the quarantine period. Migrant domestic workers are particularly vulnerable, often being forced to either end the labour relationship or to remain in the home where they provide services.

In this context, the situation of domestic workers must be considered during and beyond the social-labour responses to the crisis. Short- and medium-term measures should include income transfers to these workers through direct cash transfer programmes. To improve their protection in future crises, it is important to include them in unemployment insurance, such as

▶ Continues...

Chile has done, for example. These workers' access to health and social security services must be guaranteed, in particular those related to the provision of adequate equipment, access to healthcare services for illnesses contracted in the workplace or the possibility of receiving paid sick leave. In Argentina, campaigns were carried out to guarantee the right to leave of domestic workers and to uphold their rights in the context of the emergency.

Efforts to recognize the vulnerability of domestic workers in legislation must continue. This is particularly evident given that the pandemic seriously affected the jobs of domestic workers following a decade of advances. Considering that 2021 will commemorate the 10th anniversary of the ratification of Convention No. 189, efforts should continue to make the labour rights of domestic workers equal to those of other wage earners in all dimensions, beyond the pandemic.

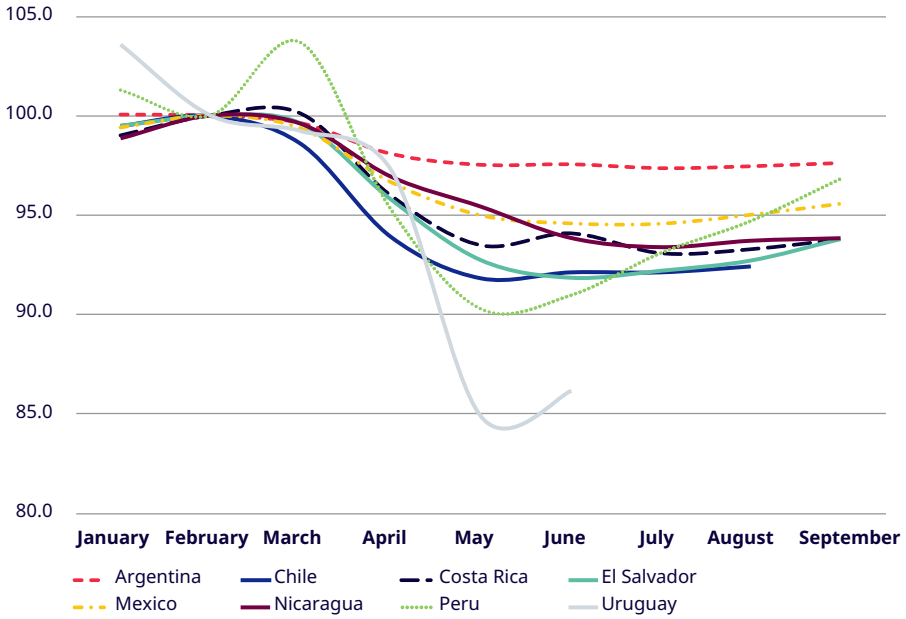
Overall decline in registered employment

The effects of the health crisis in Latin America and the Caribbean were also manifested in the performance of registered employment. Both by its creation or loss and by its composition, registered employment is related to the way in which general employment evolves and to the dynamics of its formalization. In the context of the pandemic, the significant loss of formal jobs affected the regional registered employment indicator beginning in April 2020 (Figure 3.1). In the eight countries with available information,[4] registered employment during the pandemic fell to its lowest level in May, from which it has either partially recovered (as in Peru and El Salvador) or has remained stagnant (Costa Rica, Nicaragua and Argentina). Furthermore, the decline of the indicator in each country highlights the effect of job loss on the quality of regional employment. However, as discussed in Box 3, this has not automatically led to an increase in informality given the magnitude of the contraction of own-account employment and other types of informal employment.

In the context of the pandemic, the significant loss of formal jobs affected the regional registered employment indicator beginning in April 2020 (Figure 3.1).

4 National series are not comparable since the definition of registered employment varies among them.

FIGURE 3.1. Latin America (8 countries): Registered wage employment. (Index: February 2020=100)



Source: ILO, based on official information of the countries.
Note: Includes Argentina, Chile, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Mexico, Nicaragua, Peru and Uruguay.

Box 3. Shifting trends in informal and formal employment during the pandemic

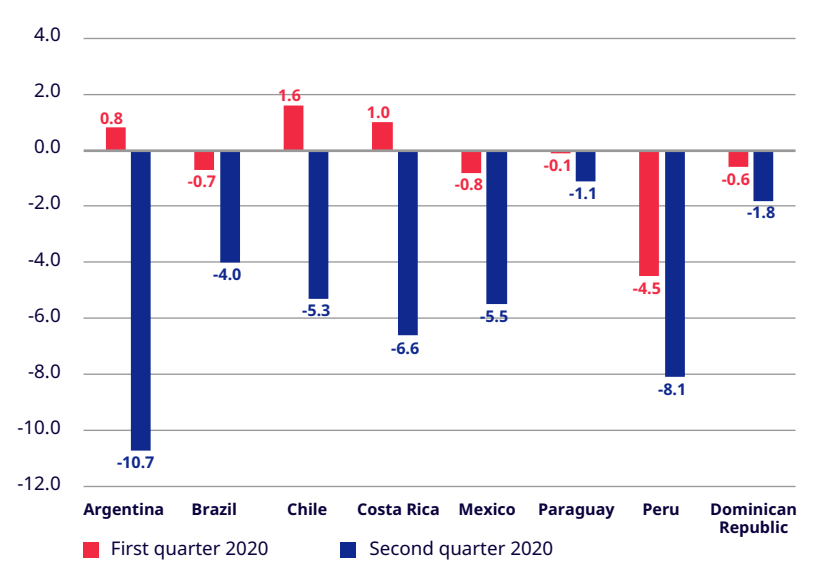
Throughout the region's history, informal employment levels rose during periods of economic contraction. The economic recessions in the region were characterized by the loss of jobs, especially by employees, many of whom transitioned to own-account employment. Thus, during cycles of economic contraction, there was a significant transition of formal jobs to informal ones. During the crises, the informal sector became a labour market buffer, which curbed the increase in unemployment and generated income for wage earners who had lost their jobs.

At the same time, the increase in informal employment during the crises implied greater precariousness of labour conditions, such as reduced social security coverage and lower income, and the so-called "scarring" effects that mark the labour trajectory of informal workers, making it difficult for them to return to formal employment. Consequently, during and after the crises, short- and medium-term effects were generated that had an impact on labour conditions and the capacity and scope of labour policies, negatively affecting the general productivity of the economies of the region.

This dynamic changed during the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic. Although job losses occurred in both formal and informal employment, in several countries of the region, the latter experienced contractions in employment that were proportionally more pronounced than those in formal employment. Consequently, the informality rate fell in many countries. As Figure B.1 demonstrates, in eight countries with available information, during the second quarter of 2020, which corresponds to the period of widespread implementation of measures to contain the pandemic in the region, the year-over-year change in the labour informality rate was negative in all countries.

Continues...

Figure B.1. Latin America (8 selected countries): Year-over-year change in the labour informality rate, 1st and 2nd quarters of 2020 (Percentages)



Source: ECLAC / ILO. Employment Situation in Latin America and the Caribbean. November 2020. Based on official information of the countries.
Note: The rates refer to labour informality for all employed persons, except in Argentina (wage earners) and Paraguay (employed in non-agricultural sectors).

This change in the labour informality rate is unprecedented in other economic crises that affected the region. In general, transitions from formal to informal employment during recessions occurred at the onset of the recessions. However, in the case of the health crisis, the measures to contain the COVID-19 pandemic limited the movement of people and/or confined them to their homes. This significantly restricted possibilities for informal own-account employment, which generally involves the in-person provision of services and/or goods.

While in the case of many formal jobs, where the labour relationship can be maintained through systems of temporary suspension of employment contracts compensated by some type of benefit or subsidy, this option does not exist in the case of informal jobs. Additionally, informal jobs do not have the infrastructure or conditions for teleworking that are generally available in formal economic activities. Moreover, the health crisis resulted in the destruction of wage employment with predominantly informal conditions, such as in the case of domestic work. These elements explain why the rates of labour informality decreased in the short term and indicate that this situation could likely be reversed in the medium term if containment and/or mobility measures become more flexible. As a result, labour informality rates could increase beginning in late 2020 and during 2021, which will negatively impact employment conditions in the region.

The health crisis had a major impact on the service, construction and manufacturing sectors

Regional employment trends prior to the health crisis were characterized by continued growth in the share of the service sector in total employment. The composition of employment by areas of activity varied in several sectors, although since 2015, employment in construction and agriculture, fishing and mines has fallen, while the share of employment in the manufacturing sector stabilized in 2017 and 2018. The proportion of employment in the service sectors experienced an upward trend between 2015 and 2018, especially in community, social and personal services, which account for more than a third of total urban employment, while approximately a quarter of employment in the region is in the trade sector (Table 3.3).

▶ **TABLE 3.3.** Latin America: Structure of the employed national population, by year and economic activity. 2012, 2015, 2018, 2019a/ (percentages) b/

Economic activity	2012	2015	2018	2019
Total employed	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Agriculture, fishing and mining	11.5	10.7	9.9	9.7
Electricity, gas and waterworks	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Manufacturing	13.8	13.5	12.9	13.0
Construction	8.2	7.9	7.1	6.9
Trade	22.6	23.5	24.1	24.4
Transportation, storage and communications	5.5	5.6	5.8	6.0
Financial establishments	5.7	6.0	5.8	5.9
Community, social and personal services	31.8	32.0	33.3	33.3
Unspecified activities	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4

Source: ILO, based on information from household surveys of the countries.
a/ Countries included: Argentina, Bolivia (Pluri. National State of), Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay.
b/ Weighted average. The weighting used is the national employed population of each country, disaggregated by area of activity.

The 2020 health crisis strongly impacted employment in the service, manufacturing and construction sectors (Table 3.4). For the eight countries with available information for the first quarters of 2020 and 2019, the contraction of employment in 2020 was particularly significant in service sectors such as hotels (-17.6 per cent) and trade (-12.0 per cent), contrasting with 2019 trends in which these sectors recorded higher levels of growth than the other economic sectors. The smallest decline in employment was observed in agriculture (-2.7 per cent). At the country level, the reduction in employment in hotels was even more pronounced in Chile and Costa Rica, where a third and a fifth of the sector's jobs were lost, respectively. The contraction in the trade sector was highest in Peru, where nearly three out of 10 jobs were lost.

The health crisis also had a major impact on employment in construction (-13.6 per cent) and manufacturing (-8.9 per cent). Job losses in construction affected more than a fifth of employment in the sector in Peru and Chile. In manufacturing, Peru and Colombia experienced the greatest losses.

TABLE 3.4. Latin America (8 countries): Year-over-year change in the employed population, by area of economic activity and country. Average to the 3rd quarter of 2019 and 2020 (percentages)

Country	Total employed		Agriculture		Industry		Construction		Trade		Transportation		Hotels		Others	
	Average I-III Quarter		Average I-III Quarter		Average I-III Quarter		Average I-III Quarter		Average I-III Quarter		Average I-III Quarter		Average I-III Quarter		Average I-III Quarter	
	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
Brazil	2.0	-8.1	0.3	-4.2	1.2	-7.2	0.7	-12.8	0.9	-9.2	5.1	-8.2	3.2	-19.1	2.8	-4.9
Chile	2.2	-14.3	-2.1	-19.7	-4.0	-9.2	4.0	-21.6	3.9	-14.9	-3.4	-14.5	2.0	-32.9	4.3	-6.5
Colombia	-1.0	-14.3	-5.4	-5.8	-3.2	-15.2	1.2	-13.0	-0.9	-13.2	0.5	-10.9	1.4	-15.7	0.7	-13.9
Costa Rica	3.3	-12.4	-0.2	-4.6	-0.4	-9.9	3.9	-19.4	-4.8	-12.0	2.7	-15.7	4.8	-22.2	8.9	-9.0
Mexico	2.2	-8.5	-0.5	-6.7	2.3	-7.6	-2.6	-11.5	6.0	-11.0	-0.5	-9.5	9.6	-15.7	1.1	-3.2
Paraguay [a/]	1.9	-3.1	-6.4	12.6	-4.3	-0.4	2.0	10.9	9.1	-15.3	...	...	...	...	3.3	-4.8
Peru [a/]	2.0	-24.4	-0.7	10.4	-0.3	-26.0	1.3	-28.9	4.8	-28.8	...	...	...	...	3.1	-30.5
Dominican Rep. [b/]	3.1	-5.1	-4.2	-6.1	4.5	0.8	-4.0	-12.4	5.7	-5.5	-5.3	4.2	2.6	-4.6	6.7	-5.9
TOTAL (8 countries) [c/]	**1.8**	**-9.3**	**-1.2**	**-2.7**	**0.8**	**-8.9**	**-0.1**	**-13.6**	**2.7**	**-12.0**	**1.9**	**-9.0**	**5.1**	**-17.6**	**2.5**	**-7.9**

Source: ILO, based on official figures from household surveys.
a/ In Paraguay and Peru, trade data include hotels, and transportation data are included in "others."
b/ Data for the 3rd quarter of 2019 and 2020 correspond to the first semester of the respective years.
c/ The average of the eight countries for Transportation and Hotels does not include Paraguay or Peru.

Existing gaps between rural and urban areas continued during the pandemic

In a set of indicators on working conditions, disaggregated by geographic area and sex, no significant changes were recorded between 2018 and 2019[5] (Table 3.5). Levels remained stable in terms of healthcare coverage (56.2 per cent in 2019), the percentage of contributors to pensions or who receive a pension (46.7 per cent), the existence of an employment contract among private-sector wage earners (63.2 per cent), as well as the unionization rate (9.5 per cent). All these indicators have marked gaps in favour of urban workers compared with rural ones, which continued between 2018 and 2019. Women had a significant advantage compared with men in all indicators except for pensions, where the difference was small (47.6 per cent of women in 2019, compared with 46.1 per cent of men).

TABLE 3.5. Latin America (selected countries): Indicators of working conditions, by geographic area and sex. 2017-2019

Indicators of working conditions	2017			2018			2019		
	National	Urban	Rural	National	Urban	Rural	National	Urban	Rural
Employed with healthcare coverage [a/]	**56.8**	**61.4**	**37.8**	**56.4**	**61.1**	**37.6**	**56.2**	**60.6**	**37.7**
Men	55.0	60.5	36.5	54.8	60.1	36.6	54.6	59.7	36.9
Women	59.2	62.7	40.4	58.7	62.3	39.6	58.3	61.9	39.4
Employed who contribute to or receive a pension [a/]	**47.1**	**53.2**	**22.2**	**46.9**	**53.0**	**22.2**	**46.7**	**52.6**	**22.4**
Men	46.4	53.4	22.5	46.3	53.2	22.7	46.1	52.7	22.7
Women	48.1	53.0	21.6	47.9	52.8	21.3	47.6	52.5	21.8
Private-sector employees with a contract [b/]	**63.4**	**68.4**	**33.0**	**63.4**	**68.3**	**33.7**	**63.2**	**68.0**	**34.3**
Men	59.5	65.8	30.3	59.7	65.7	31.3	59.6	65.5	31.8
Women	70.5	72.8	44.0	70.1	72.4	43.4	69.7	72.1	43.5
Unionized employees [c/]	**9.4**	**10.4**	**5.2**	**9.4**	**10.3**	**5.1**	**9.5**	**10.4**	**5.6**
Men	8.2	9.4	4.1	8.4	9.6	4.2	8.3	9.5	4.4
Women	11.3	11.7	8.1	10.9	11.4	7.7	11.2	11.7	8.5

Source: ILO, based on information from household surveys of the countries.
a/ Countries included: Bolivia (Pluri. State of), Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay.
b/ Countries included: Bolivia (Pluri. State of), Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras (until 2017), Mexico, Panama, Paraguay and Peru.
c/ Countries included: Bolivia (Pluri. State of), Colombia, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras (until 2017), Mexico and Paraguay.

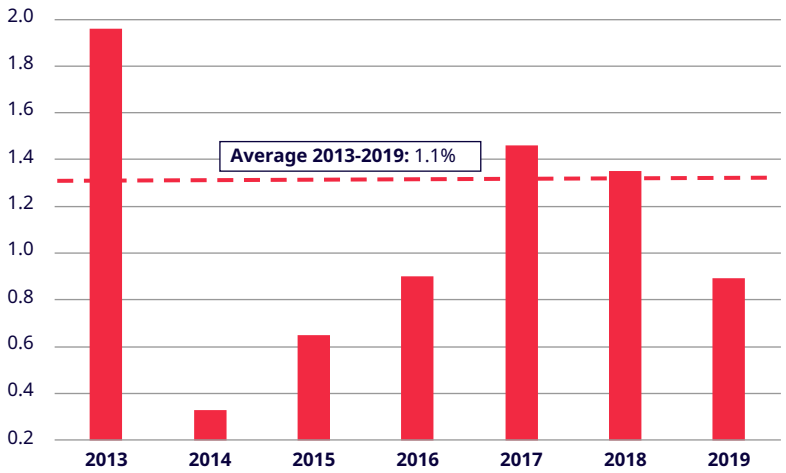
5 This analysis uses data processed from the household surveys for the group of countries in the region until 2019.

Wage trends

Average real wages and minimum wages grew until 2019

The regional average real wage grew 0.9 per cent in 2019, 0.3 percentage points less than in 2018 and below the annual average (1.1 per cent) observed between 2013 and 2019 (Figure 3.2). The increase in real wages has tended to decelerate since 2017, in a regional pre-pandemic context characterized by slower economic growth and rising unemployment rates. The weak performance of real wages reflects the region's sluggish economic growth in a scenario of inflation rates that remained stable at a regional average of approximately 4 per cent.

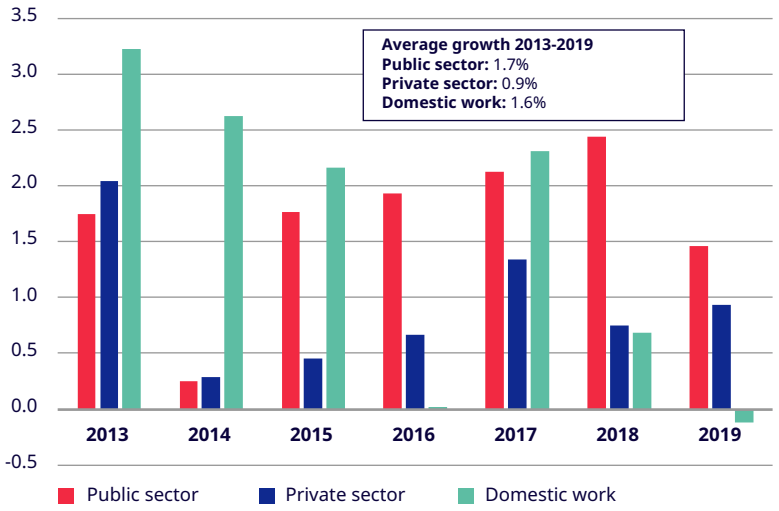
▶ **FIGURE 3.2.** Latin America (15 selected countries): Change in the weighted average real wage, 2013-2019 (Annual percentage change)



Source: ILO, based on information from household surveys of the countries.
Note: Countries included: Bolivia (Pluri. State of), Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay.

This performance of average real wages is affected by the countries with the greatest relative weight (Brazil and Mexico) on the one hand and on the other, by the change in its components (private- and public-sector wage earners and domestic workers). Average real wages grew 0.4 per cent in Brazil (accounting for approximately 44 per cent of regional employment) and 0.9 per cent in Mexico (nearly a fifth of the region's employment). Given that nearly three of every four wage earners work in private enterprises, average wage trends in the private sector largely explain overall wage trends, as opposed to wages in the public sector (16 per cent of wage earners) and domestic workers (8 per cent of wage earners). Figure 3.3 shows that the three groups of dependent workers have experienced different wage trends. A recovery is observed in private-sector wages, which in 2018 grew 0.9 per cent, above the 0.7 per cent observed in 2018, although equal to the average recorded in the 2013-2019 period. At the country level, there were significant increases among private-sector wage earners in the Dominican Republic, Ecuador and Honduras, while Guatemala, Bolivia and Uruguay experienced contractions in real wages for this group. Following a trend observed since 2015, public-sector wages once again recorded higher growth rates (1.7 per cent) compared with private-sector wages, although growth was slower than the increase in the public sector in 2018 (2.4 per cent). Trends varied across countries, however. In 2019, countries in the Andean subregion such as Bolivia, Ecuador and Colombia recorded significant increases in public-sector wages, while that sector's wages contracted in the Dominican Republic, Paraguay and Honduras. Wages of domestic workers fell slightly (-0.1 per cent), in sharp contrast to the average growth observed since 2013 (1.6 per cent).

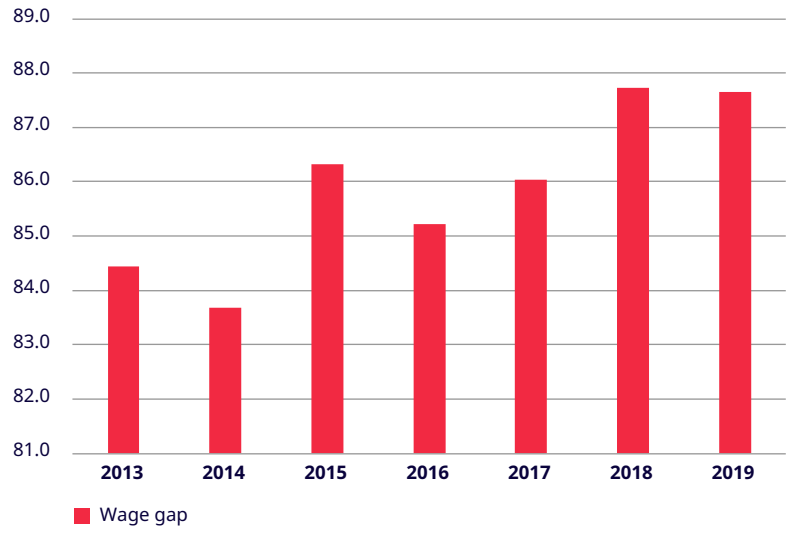
FIGURE 3.3. Latin America (15 selected countries): Growth trend of the weighted average real wage, by sector, 2013-2019 (Annual percentage change)



Source: ILO based on information from household surveys of the countries.
Note: Countries included: Bolivia (Pluri. State of), Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay.

In 2019, gender wage gaps remained (Figure 3.4).[6] Beginning in 2013, larger increases in women's wages served to gradually reduce the gap with respect to men but this trend ended in 2019. The gender wage gap in 2019 remained at the same level as in 2018 (87.7 per cent).

FIGURE 3.4. Latin America (15 selected countries): Change in wages of men and women, 2013-2019 (Women's wages as a percentage of those of men)



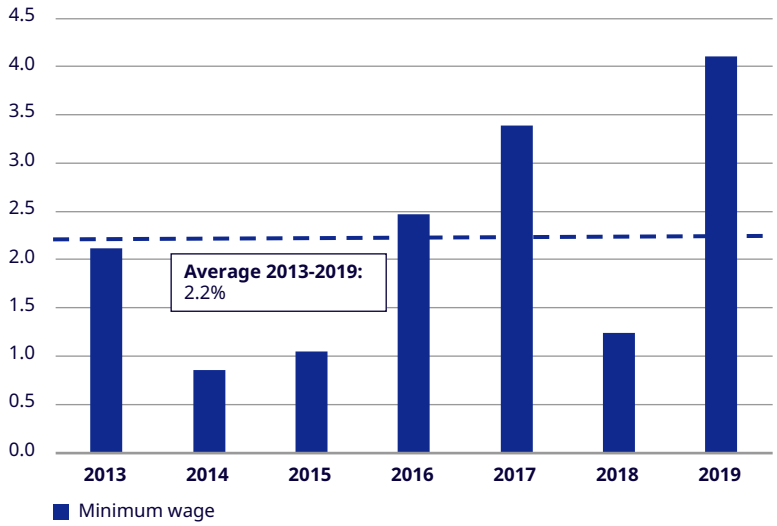
Source: ILO based on information from household surveys of the countries.
Note: Countries included: Bolivia (Pluri. State of), Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay.

6 The gender gap is calculated by comparing the average wages of women with those of men. However, this indicator does not take into account the value of the work performed, as established by Convention No. 100 on equal remuneration (1951).

Minimum wages maintained an upward trend

During 2019, real minimum wages rose 4.1 per cent in the region, exceeding the increase observed in 2018 (1.2 per cent) and in the 2013-2019 period (2.2 per cent) (Figure 3.5). This performance of real minimum wages occurred in a context of low regional inflation and sluggish growth that preceded the COVID-19 pandemic. The change in the regional indicator in 2019 was influenced by the increase in Mexico (12.1 per cent), which heavily influenced the Latin American average. The effect on the regional average of the strong increase in Mexico was tempered by the slight increase in real minimum wages (0.8 per cent) in Brazil.

▶ **FIGURE 3.5.** Latin America (16 countries): Growth of the real minimum wage, 2013-2019 (Annual percentage change)



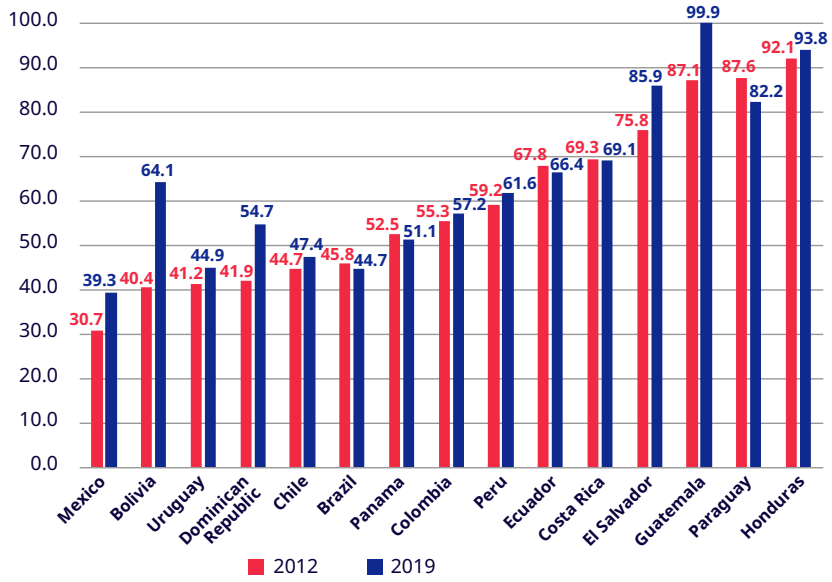
Source: ILO based on information from household surveys of the countries.
Note: Countries included: Bolivia (Pluri. State of), Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay.

The shift in the ratio between the minimum wage and average wages in these enterprises helps determine whether the variations in the minimum wage are well absorbed by private-sector firms. If the increases in the minimum wage can be incorporated into the wage adjustments of private enterprises throughout their scale, this ratio will remain stable, while the ratio increases if the increases in the minimum wage are higher than wages actually paid. By contrast, the ratio between the minimum wage and the average wage in private firms is indicative of the relative level of the minimum wage. In cases where this ratio is extremely low, the minimum wage is likely to be insufficient to meet the basic needs of workers and their families. By contrast, when the ratio is quite high, the probability of widespread non-compliance with the minimum wage is greater. Consequently, the extremes reflect anomalous situations in which the minimum wage does not achieve its objective.

With respect to the way the increases in minimum wages were absorbed by private enterprises during the 2012-2019 period, the ratio between minimum wages and average private-wages sector varies across the countries of the region (Figure 3.6). In several countries, the ratio increased significantly, such as Bolivia (23.7 percentage points), the Dominican Republic (12.9 percentage points), Guatemala (12.8 percentage points) and El Salvador (10.1 percentage points). However, this change occurred in vastly different contexts. In Bolivia and the Dominican Republic, the increases occurred from a ratio of around 40 per cent, so the increases did not necessarily result in greater non-compliance with the minimum wage. Nevertheless, owing to their magnitude, difficulties may occur in their absorption by firms. By contrast, in Guatemala and El Salvador, increases occurred from ratios above 70 per cent, making it difficult for the private sector to absorb the increases.

In Figure 3.6, the countries on the far left are the countries with the lowest minimum wage in 2019. This is the case of Mexico, where minimum wages represent less than 40 per cent of average wages in the private sector. Throughout the period analyzed, minimum wage increases were above the increase in average wages in Mexico, bringing the ratio between the two to more reasonable levels. On the far right are countries with an extremely high ratio between the minimum wage and the average wage, which would indicate a minimum wage level above what firms are willing to pay. In such cases, the minimum wage policy would result from a predictable higher degree of non-compliance with the minimum wage. Countries above 70 per cent include Paraguay, El Salvador, Honduras and Guatemala. In Paraguay, however, the ratio declined during the period analyzed.

FIGURE 3.6. Latin America (15 countries): Minimum wage as a share of the average private-sector wage, 2012 and 2019

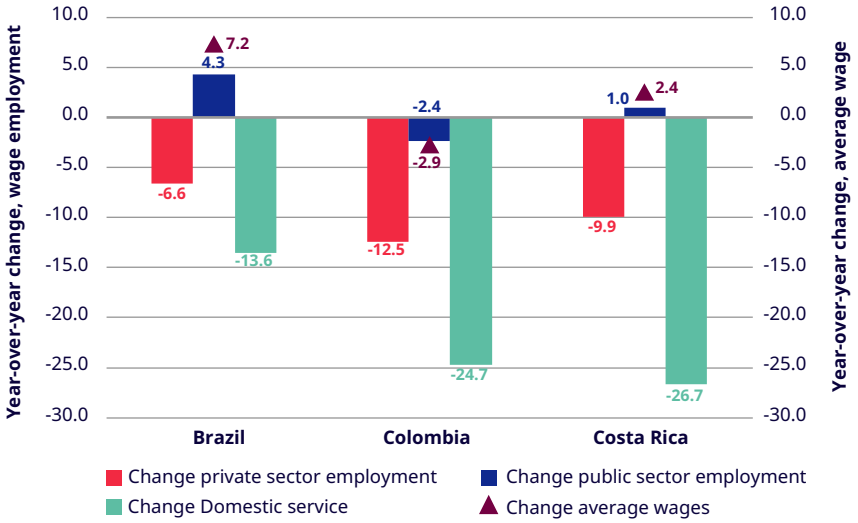


Source: ILO based on information from household surveys of the countries.
Note: Countries included: Bolivia (Pluri. State of), Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay.

Wage trends in 2020

Real wages at the regional level experienced dissimilar variations in 2020. For three countries with available information from household surveys for the first half of this year, increases in average real wages were observed in Brazil (7.2 per cent) and Costa Rica (2.4 per cent), while in Colombia they contracted by -2.4 per cent. However, especially in countries where increases in average wages were recorded, this result was likely influenced by changes in employment because of the pandemic. As the Global Wage Report 2020/21 (ILO, 2020) points out, lower-income wage earners have been the most affected by job losses, which has reduced the relative importance of lower average wages. This is the case for Brazil and Costa Rica, where during the second quarter of 2020, domestic workers and private-sector wage earners of micro and small enterprises were more affected by job losses, while jobs were created in the public sector, where wages are higher (Figure 3.7).

FIGURE 3.7. Year-over-year change in real average wages during the first semester of 2020 and year-over-year change in private- and public-sector and domestic service employment in the second semester of 2020. Three selected countries



Source: ILO based on information from household surveys of the countries.
Note: Includes Brazil, Colombia and Costa Rica.

Table 3.6 demonstrates that most of the countries (nine) increased their nominal minimum wages in January as part of periodic annual adjustments, while two countries increased minimum wages during the first quarter of 2020. Five countries did not record minimum wage adjustments during the first three quarters of 2020. Of the 16 countries with available information, Chile was the only one that readjusted minimum wages when the pandemic affected the entire region. That country increased the minimum wage again in September. This increase was above accumulated inflation, in other words, it was a real increase. Additionally, the Chilean government agreed to another review in April 2021 to determine whether conditions existed for an additional increase.

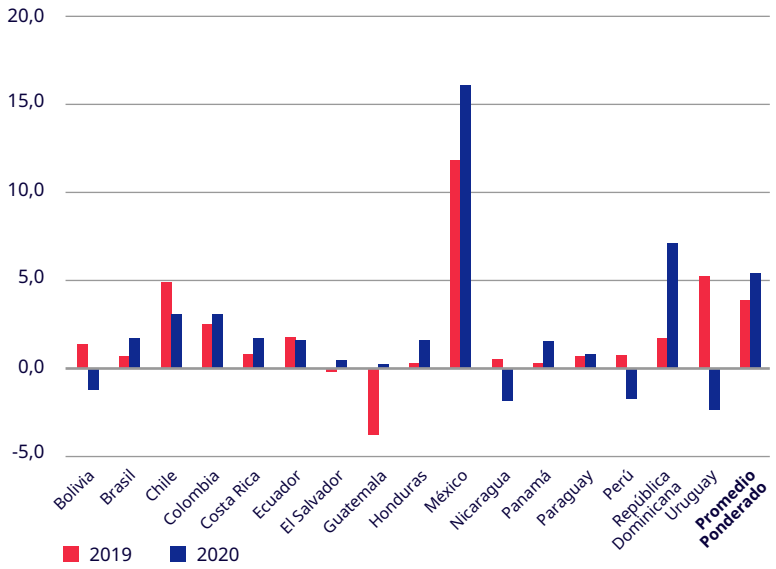
TABLE 3.6. Classification of countries by nominal minimum wage adjustments in 2020

Countries that adjusted in January 2020	Countries that adjusted until March 2020	Countries that made no adjustments during the first three quarters of 2020	Countries that made adjustments during the first three quarters of 2020
Brazil	Chile	Bolivia	Chile
Colombia	Nicaragua	El Salvador	
Costa Rica		Paraguay	
Ecuador		Peru	
Guatemala		Dominican Republic	
Honduras			
Mexico			
Panama			
Uruguay			

Source: ILO based on information from household surveys of the countries.
Note: Countries included: Bolivia (Pluri. State of), Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay.

During the first three quarters of 2020, 11 of the 16 countries analyzed (Figure 3.8) made increases in real minimum wages. For the second consecutive year, the regional weighted average was driven by the strong increase in Mexico (16.1 per cent) and the Dominican Republic (7.1 per cent), while in the remainder of the countries, adjustments were more modest at 3 per cent or less. Additionally, real minimum wages decreased in Nicaragua and Uruguay, countries that made modest adjustments to their minimum wages. Bolivia and Peru did not adjust their minimum wages in 2020.

▶ **FIGURE 3.8.** Latin America (16 countries): change in real minimum wages during the first three quarters a/, 2019 and 2020 (Annual percentage change)



Source: ILO based on information from household surveys of the countries.
Note: Countries included: Bolivia (Pluri. State of), Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay.
a/ In the case of Panama, the period corresponds to January-April for the years 2019 and 2020.

In 2020, the regional context was also one of lower inflation, particularly since the second quarter. As Table 3.7 shows, 12 countries in the region experienced lower annualized inflation in the first three quarters of 2020 compared with the same period in 2019 (only Chile, the Dominican Republic and Uruguay did not). This widespread decrease in inflation is largely explained by the sharper decline observed in average inflation in the second and third quarters of 2020, when the effects of containment measures led to a decline in aggregate demand and supply in the countries.

▶ **TABLE 3.7.** Latin America (15 countries). Inflation during the first three quarters of 2019 and 2020 (Annual percentage change)

Country	Average I-III Quarter 2019	Average I-III Quarter 2020
Bolivia	1,6	1,3
Brazil	3,9	2,9
Chile	2,5	3,1
Colombia	3,4	2,8
Costa Rica	2,2	0,8
Ecuador	0,3	-0,1
El Salvador	0,3	-0,4

▶ Continues...

Country	Average I-III Quarter 2019	Average I-III Quarter 2020
Guatemala	4,0	2,5
Honduras	4,5	3,3
Me xico	3,9	3,4
Nicaragua	5,2	4,0
Paraguay	2,9	1,7
Peru	2,2	1,8
Dominican Republic	1,4	3,3
Uruguay	7,7	9,8

Source: ILO based on information from household surveys of the countries.
Note: Countries included: Bolivia (Pluri. State of), Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay.

> Although estimates for 2021 would indicate the beginning of a recovery in the economies of Latin America and the Caribbean, uncertainties about the possible trajectory remain, especially given the effects associated with second waves and outbreaks of COVID-19 [...].

▶ 4. Outlook

Growth projections for GDP reflect the impact of the pandemic on the economies of the region and have been frequently adjusted considering the observed changes in the effects of health measures on economic activity and the uncertainty regarding the progression of the pandemic. The most recent estimates indicate that the regional economy will contract by approximately -8 per cent in 2020. For 2021, the growth rate is expected to reach 3.5 per cent. Although the average unemployment rate during the first three quarters of 2020 (10.6 per cent) was higher than that observed for the same period of 2019 (8.7 per cent), unemployment rate estimates for 2020 should consider a longer period given the uncertainties and characteristics of the impact of the pandemic on regional labour trends.

As previously discussed, the health crisis impacted the seasonal trends of the unemployment rate, which tends to decrease in the last quarter. This is likely to change in 2020 as the relaxation of containment measures is having a relatively greater impact on the intensity of the return of people who are outside the workforce than on job creation. Thus, the unemployment rate for the fourth quarter, which is historically well below the average for the first three quarters, is likely to be close to that average in 2020. Consequently, the year-end projection is expected to range from 10.1 per cent to 10.6 per cent.

Although estimates for 2021 would indicate the beginning of a recovery in the economies of Latin America and the Caribbean, uncertainties about the possible trajectory remain, especially given the effects associated with second waves and outbreaks of COVID-19, which would mean new measures of containment and reduction of mobility of people and their consequent effects on economic activity, labour force participation and employment.

Beyond the possibility that a vaccine will be available in early or mid-2021 in the countries of the region, health measures could once again influence labour market indicators such as the labour force participation rate, employment-to-population ratio and unemployment rate, as well as the sustainability of enterprises. Additionally, the large contingent of workers who left the labour force is expected to return. As a result, the regional unemployment rate for 2021 is expected to increase to between 10.8 per cent and 11.2 per cent.

We are arriving to 2021 with employment in intensive care.

▶ The impact of the crisis and the return to seek employment by those who left the labour force could raise the

Unemployment rate

TO ▶ 11.2%

2020 LABOUR OVERVIEW

Latin America and the Caribbean

COVID-19 Edition

Feature Article

Policy Challenges and Trends Arising from the COVID-19 Crisis

Feature Article

Policy Challenges and Trends Arising from the COVID-19 Crisis

1. Policies to maintain employment and income implemented in response to the pandemic

The response to the economic crisis resulting from the COVID-19 pandemic in the region includes the implementation of numerous direct actions to sustain businesses, maintain jobs and compensate for the loss of household income, especially of those most affected, who are concentrated in the informal economy. This crisis is unprecedented in terms of its magnitude, scope, speed and idiosyncrasies, requiring coordinated health, economic, labour and social protection responses. To this end, the countries have turned to mechanisms developed in previous crises and have also implemented new responses considering the specificities of the current situation and the need to cover a broader population segment than in previous crises, particularly women workers and workers whose work schedule (working hours) and earnings have been seriously affected.

The policies can be categorized in three broad groups (Table 1.1): i. Monetary measures and benefits as part of a strategy framework to maintain the employment relationship; ii. Economic security for unemployed workers in the formal economy (unemployment benefits); and iii. Economic security for families and people in the informal economy (programmes to grant benefits to the people and families most affected by the crisis that do not have formal employment, and / or that are not covered by contributory social security programmes). In many countries, the scale of the crisis has led to the combined implementation of more than one of these instruments to provide mainly economic security according to the type of relationship with the labour market. In some countries, existing instruments were also adjusted to cover a broader set of situations and / or people.

“This crisis is unprecedented in terms of its magnitude, scope, speed and idiosyncrasies, requiring coordinated health, economic, labour and social protection responses.

▶ **TABLE 1.1.** Typology and instruments of the main policies used in Latin America and the Caribbean to maintain employment and provide economic security to families and individuals

	Maintenance and promotion of employment relationship	Economic security for formal unemployed workers	Economic security for families and individuals in the informal economy
Instruments	▶ Payroll subsidies ▶ Unemployment insurance benefits to cover suspensions, periods of reduced hours and events other than dismissal ▶ Subsidies for the return and hiring of workers	▶ Expansion of contributory unemployment insurance	▶ Conditional benefits ▶ Unconditional benefits ▶ Non-monetary benefits
Recipients	▶ Formal employed persons (full- and part-time and on leave). ▶ New formal workers	▶ Unemployed	▶ Unemployed, persons outside of the labour forcé and workers in the informal economy ▶ Persons with or without low income, regardless of their employment status
Examples	▶ Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Paraguay, Colombia, Dominican Republic, Uruguay, Peru, Trinidad and Tobago	▶ Uruguay, Chile, Ecuador, Argentina, Colombia	▶ Chile, Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay, Colombia, Costa Rica
Characteristics	▶ Temporary nature ▶ Sustainability	▶ Relatively low coverage (whether owing to the contributory nature or to insufficient financing) ▶ Relatively small benefits	▶ Response speed ▶ Temporary nature ▶ Coverage, registration systems, duplication of benefits/beneficiaries

Source: ILO, based on the policies used by the countries of Latin America and the Caribbean.

1.1 Benefits for the maintenance and promotion of the employment relationship

The support and incentive measures to maintain the employment relationship are crucial because they prevent its discontinuation from generating losses of specific and general occupational skills. Additionally, these measures reduce future employment search costs for both parties and help facilitate faster economic recovery.

In this area, there have been several innovations and programmes in the region that seek to maintain employment through the payment of benefits to the enterprise or the worker, either through social security institutions, the tax administration or another entity. These benefits are generally financed by general income taxes, social security contributions or a combination of both.[7]

7 The examples presented here are illustrative of the different types of policies implemented.

Three types of interventions can be identified: (a) payroll subsidies; (b) extension of unemployment insurance to cover other contingencies beyond unemployment due to dismissal; (c) more recently, subsidies to encourage the return of furloughed workers or for the hiring of new workers.

a. Sustaining the employment relationship through payroll subsidies

Within the first category referring to payroll subsidies, Paraguay established a subsidy for formal wage earners who earn up to two minimum wages and whose employment contracts were suspended due to the cessation of activity triggered by the pandemic. The subsidy is equivalent to 50 per cent of the minimum wage and is financed by the national government through a specific transfer to the Social Security Institute for this purpose.

Colombia allowed firms and individuals that certify a decline of 20 per cent or more in their revenue to request a subsidy from May through December 2020 for an amount equal to 40 per cent of the minimum wage for all employees for which they contribute to the Integrated Payroll for Contribution Settlement (PILA). The number of employees cannot exceed the number registered in February of the same year. The beneficiary enterprises of this subsidy can also request a government contribution of 220,000 Colombian pesos for each employee with a monthly salary of up to one million pesos to whom they pay the thirteenth monthly allowance for the months of June and December.

In Peru, workers included in the Perfect Suspension of Employment programme continued to benefit from Public Healthcare Insurance (EsSalud). Additionally, private-sector employers receive a subsidy of up to 35 per cent of the gross monthly salaries of their employees whose salaries do not exceed 1,500 soles (US $ 424).

The Dominican Republic launched the Employee Solidarity Assistance Fund (FASE), a cash transfer to sustain employment in the sectors most affected by the pandemic. With the FASE, the government contributes 70 per cent of employees' wages, ranging from a monthly minimum value of RD $ 5,000 pesos up to a maximum of RD $ 8,500 pesos for each worker.

In Argentina, the government established the "Emergency Assistance Programme for Jobs and Production" (ATP), which reduces employer contributions to the Argentine Integrated Social Security System (SIPA) by 95 per cent and provides a Compensatory Wage allocation for private-sector firms. It also prohibits dismissals without just cause and for reasons of lack of or reduction of workload and force majeure, as well as furloughs for those causes. The measure was first established until the end of May but then extended, although some conditions were modified. For example, for the September payment, companies eligible for this benefit were those with fewer than 800 workers that recorded a recovery of up to 40 per cent of their billing, but that had a negative real change compared to their pre-pandemic situation. The programme will subsidize wages until December, after which the programme will be discontinued. It will be replaced by other instruments such as subsidized loans.

The Emergency Employment and Income Preservation Benefit in Brazil is also a programme to maintain the income of formal wage earners who had their employment contracts suspended or their working hours/wages reduced. It authorizes the reduction of working hours. Through individual agreements, the reduction can be 25 per cent, 50 per cent or 70 per cent, preserving the value of hourly wages for up to 90 days. These reductions can be negotiated individually in the case of (1) employees with salaries of up to R $ 2,090 in companies with gross revenues above R $ 4.8 million; (2) employees with salaries of up to R $ 3,135 in companies with gross revenues of up to R $ 4.8 million; (3) employees with higher education and a salary more than double the ceiling of the benefit of the General Social Security Scheme (RGPS). For the remainder of wage earners, reductions can only be negotiated through collective bargaining agreements, with the exception of reductions of 25 per cent, which in all situations can be implemented through individual agreement. The temporary suspension of the employment contract for a maximum period of 60 days is authorized. The benefit is calculated based on the monthly amount of unemployment insurance to which the worker would be entitled. The programme provides a temporary guarantee of employment to workers while receiving the benefit and following their reinstatement for the period agreed upon.

Costa Rica's Protection Voucher provides a temporary cash transfer to workers with reduced income owing to the pandemic. It includes dismissed workers, those with reduced working hours and those with a suspended contract. People who lost their jobs, have reduced working hours or had their contract

suspended must certify their situation with a letter from the employer. As will be discussed in the third group of measures, the Protection Voucher also covers own-account and informal workers.

In Trinidad and Tobago, the Salary Relief Grant pays up to $ 1,500 Trinidadian dollars for three months to dependent workers whose employment has been affected by the pandemic.

b. Extension of unemployment insurance to cover contract suspension and reduction of working hours and protect the employment relationship

A second type of measures to protect the employment relationship took advantage of unemployment insurance. In the region, Anguilla, Argentina, Barbados, Bahamas, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Uruguay, Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) and Mexico City had different forms of unemployment insurance in force. These instruments are designed for periods of cyclical unemployment rather than for systemic crises that produce high unemployment rates for long periods, such as the current COVID-19 pandemic. They are meant to provide income security in the event of unemployment, but this year were mobilized and adapted to protect the employment relationship by offering benefits in the event of the suspension of contracts or the reduction of working hours. This enabled the contractual relationship to be maintained between workers and enterprises that expected the decrease in their activity to be temporary. This facilitates the reintegration of workers when activity is recovered and reduces the rehiring costs of companies. Brazil, Chile, Colombia and Uruguay made these adaptations.

In Chile, for example, the eligibility criteria for receiving insurance benefits were temporarily modified. Special circumstances were included to access this benefit, such as the temporary closure of businesses, staff furloughs or temporary reductions in working hours. The worker maintains the employment relationship while receiving unemployment benefits and the employer must continue to pay the worker's social security and healthcare contributions. The benefit amount is calculated based on the average remuneration of the last three months (the unemployment benefit is calculated based on the last 12 months). While replacement rates in the case of contract suspension are the same as in the case of unemployment, in the case of reduced working hours, the employer pays the part worked and insurance covers half of the number of hours not worked (Montt et al., 2020).

In Uruguay, together with other modifications to offer greater income security to workers, access to unemployment insurance was extended to workers whose duties were partially suspended and those whose working hours were reduced (a minimum of 50 per cent of the workday) and workers whose activities were fully suspended (after fulfilling certain requirements). In all cases, the employment relationship is maintained.

In Costa Rica, in April, the Law of "Delivery of the Labour Capitalization Fund to Workers Affected by the Economic Crisis" was enacted. In the event of temporary suspension of the employment relationship or reduction of working hours, which implies a reduction in wages, workers can withdraw labour savings accumulated in their favour in the Fund. The amount depends on the available balance of the contributor on the date the work suspension or the reduction of the working hours began, upon request of the interested party.

In Colombia, while the economic emergency lasts, wage earners who continue with the employment relationship but who have suffered income reductions may withdraw funds from their severance account each month to compensate for this reduction. Peru mandated the free availability of up to S /. 2,400 Peruvian soles (approximately US$ 664) of compensation funds for time of service (CTS) and additional withdrawal mechanisms for workers under the perfect suspension of work regime.

c. Subsidies for reinstatement and formal hiring

Finally, within the third type of subsidies to encourage the reincorporation of furloughed workers, Chile launched the Employment Subsidy which consists of two benefits. The first, "Línea Regresa," grants a benefit to encourage the return of workers with a suspended contract. Eligible firms are those with a 20 per cent or more decrease in sales or gross revenue in the April-July 2020 period compared with the same period in 2019, and for contracts with a gross monthly remuneration equal to or less than three monthly minimum wages. The monthly payment is $ 160,000 Chilean pesos (approximately US $ 200) for each worker for a maximum of six months. The second benefit, "Línea Contrata," grants different

subsidies according to the characteristics of the new workers and wage amounts. The benefit is 50 or 60 per cent of gross monthly remuneration or a fixed amount, depending on the group to which the hired worker belongs.

In Uruguay, a government monthly contribution of $ 5,000 Uruguayan pesos (approximately US$ 118) was introduced for three months for each fully suspended worker reinstated, as well as for each new worker hired by firms that did not have workers enrolled in unemployment insurance, except in the case of reduction of working hours. The reinstatement may be full or part time (50 per cent of the legally established workday), in which case the subsidy is $ 2,500 pesos.

In Peru, a subsidy was granted to private-sector employers affected during the state of emergency to promote the recovery of formal employment, encourage hiring and the preservation of jobs. The subsidy is for a maximum of six months and ranges from 35 to 55 per cent of the wages of workers who earn less than 2,400 soles (US $ 664). If youth (18-24 years old) are hired for an indefinite period, the subsidy is 55 per cent for the first three months and 27.5 per cent for the subsequent three months. If the worker is hired for a specific period, the incentive is 45 per cent for the first three months and 22.5 per cent for the subsequent three months. If adults (ages 25 and over) are hired for an indefinite period, the incentive is 45 per cent for the first three months and 22.5 per cent for the subsequent three months, while if the contract is for a specific term, the incentive is 35 per cent for the first three months and 17.5 per cent for the subsequent three months.

1.2 Contributory unemployment benefits

In the proposed typology, unemployment benefits for formal workers are those provided by unemployment insurance when termination of employment occurs. This insurance usually covers dismissals of formal workers and offers regular payments for a defined period. These payments often decrease over time and are complemented by active labour market programmes to motivate workers to search for work and rejoin the labour force. These mechanisms usually require a contribution period (for example six to 12 months) as a condition for accessing unemployment benefits.

In the context of the crisis, in March 2020, unemployment insurance programmes began to adapt to respond to the crisis, which appeared more serious and longer than any previous cycle of high unemployment.

Many of these are temporary modifications to expand coverage horizontally (percentage of the unemployed population covered by insurance) and / or vertically (amount of insurance in relation to previous wages). The modifications are: (1) relaxation of certain requirements for accessing them, (2) extended duration of benefits, (3) increased replacement rates and/or benefit minimum and maximum values, and (4) expansion of insurance to cover previously excluded groups of workers. Governments injected new resources into unemployment insurance to ensure the largest amount of financing and extended duration of benefits.

Chile implemented several of these measures. For example, requirements for accessing unemployment insurance were eased by reducing from six to three the required contributions made over the last 12 months. Workers with available balances in their individual accounts were also allowed to access their funds regardless of the number of months they contributed. Replacement rates rose from month two onwards. In September of this year, the government established permanent unemployment insurance for private-home domestic workers, replacing the old compensation scheme in all cases. The new scheme requires employers to contribute 3 per cent of the worker's taxable remuneration (2.2 per cent destined to the Individual Unemployment Account and the remaining 0.8 per cent to finance the Solidarity Unemployment Fund), while the worker's contribution is reduced from 4.11 per cent to 1.11 per cent. This extension is especially relevant for the region since formal private-home workers are often excluded from access to unemployment insurance. Some countries, such as Uruguay, had already mandated unemployment insurance coverage of this group of workers.

In Argentina, the minimum and maximum amounts of unemployment insurance were raised to $ 6,000 and $ 10,000 Argentine pesos, respectively. Owing to the extension of the quarantine, the Ministry of Employment, Labour and Social Security extended the expiration date of benefits to December 31, 2020 (previously March and May) for all cases set to expire between August 30 and November 30, 2020.

In Ecuador, before the Humanitarian Aid Law went into effect on June 22, 2020, dependent workers had to wait 60 days after being dismissed to apply for unemployment insurance. Now they can apply for it beginning on the tenth day of unemployment and payments are made automatically.

In Uruguay, unemployment insurance covered causes of dismissal, suspension and reduction of working hours, but the latter covered only day labourers. In March, the possibility of including reduction of working hours for monthly workers was introduced and in May, the requirements for access to this benefit were made more flexible, requiring a smaller number of months or wages. In June, the unemployment benefit was extended for three months for companies that documented a lack of work and expressed a commitment to maintaining employment. Given the large number of requests, a special regime was established to facilitate the process.

Finally, in late March in Colombia, formal workers who were dismissed and who had previously contributed to a Family Compensation Fund with a wage of up to four minimum monthly wages for one year over the last five years received a monthly payment of 585,202 Colombian pesos for up to three months, for as long as funds were available from the Compensation Fund.

Even with the modifications made in these countries, this is still the least used pillar in the region for a variety of reasons. Only some of the countries have this contributory component and even for those that do, coverage has traditionally been extremely low given the high informality and own-employment rates characterizing those labour markets. Additionally, to prevent layoffs, response policies have generally sought to support the maintenance of employment ties to reduce the impact of the crisis on the volume of employment and to strengthen the subsequent recovery. Given that government aid is more limited than in previous months, some workers included in the measures in the first group of policies could make more intensive use of unemployment insurance, as long as access requirements allowed it.

1.3 Non-contributory income transfer programmes

Finally, another important group of strategies and policies aims to compensate, at least partially, for the loss of household income owing to the pandemic. Many of these families work informally, regardless of their status in employment and type of employment. Given the intensity and scope of the crisis, there was a greater need to reach a population group traditionally excluded from non-contributory transfer programmes. Consequently, some of these existing programmes were expanded and other similar ones were created. Some of these programmes are described briefly below.

Some countries opted for strategies with more universal income support criteria, covering a large part of the population and households with informal workers - for example, Argentina and Brazil, although with some conditions. Other countries, such as Chile and Paraguay, chose measures targeted to specific groups. Since in most countries, social protection information systems are limited or not up to date for all households, or they include only specific, more vulnerable groups (for example, households with children and adolescents, the elderly or persons with disabilities), cash transfer programmes have difficulty reaching all potentially needy households quickly. Some countries managed to rapidly implement broad-based strategies after resolving the usual dilemma between the risks of exclusion and inclusion.

To side-step this limitation, administrative databases were used to identify other potential beneficiaries (from tax records and income tax forms in Chile, for example) or from calls to update records, incorporate the social records of households, or register households with informal income (for example, Argentina, Barbados, Paraguay and Saint Lucia).

Some countries were favoured by the large percentage of the population that uses banking services to deliver aid more quickly while minimizing the health risk. This proved to be faster and more effective than direct food delivery. Social security institutes and other public agencies created web portals to be a one-stop source for social assistance, paying some of the non-contributory benefits mandated and offering a single portal to verify eligibility and track benefits.

Other countries integrated the different sources of household income (earnings, unemployment insurance) and determined non-contributory transfers based on the difference between those income sources and a minimum, thereby advancing towards the construction of a universal social protection floor.

In Argentina, the government doubled the amount of the Universal Child Allowance (AUH) and the Universal Pregnancy Allowance (AUE) in March, with an additional expenditure of ARS $ 13.4 billion. A voucher of up to $ 3,000 was also granted to retirees and pensioners who received a single pension benefit of a maximum of $ 18,892, with disbursements totaling some $ 13.8 billion. However, the largest income transfer measure is the "Emergency Family Income (IFE)," created in late March and paid through the National Social Security Administration (ANSES). It is intended for informal workers, domestic workers in private homes and social *monotributistas* or *monotributistas* of the first two categories. Beneficiaries of the AUH and the AUE were the first to receive this new benefit. The amount of the IFE is $ 10,000 (59.3 per cent of the minimum wage). The first payment was made between April and May 2020. During June and July, the second payment was made and a third one was disbursed during August and September. Some nine million people have benefited, compared with the 4.3 million children and adolescents who receive the AUH.

Colombia already had two main conditional cash transfer programmes: Families in Action and Youth in Action. In response to the pandemic emergency, the government authorized the payment of five extraordinary transfers during 2020 to expand and strengthen both programmes. It also created the Solidarity Income Programme, which is intended for vulnerable families that are not beneficiaries of those two programmes, or of the Older Colombia or Sales Tax Refund programmes.

Ecuador, through its Ministry of Economic and Social Inclusion, established the Emergency Family Protection Voucher for a few months for those without social security who have incomes below the unified basic wage, and for those enrolled in the rural workers' insurance programme. Bolivia created the Family Voucher, a monthly transfer of 500 Bolivian pesos (US $ 70) to low-income families with children attending pre-school, primary or secondary school.

In Costa Rica, the PROTECT Voucher is a temporary sum granted to individuals who have vulnerable employment owing to the pandemic. This voucher reaches formal, informal and own-account workers.

In Paraguay, the Social Fund granted a subsidy of 25 per cent of the minimum wage to informal own-account workers or to wage earners of micro, small or medium enterprises (MSMEs) up to two times. The "Pytyvõ" programme had reached approximately one million beneficiaries by mid-June 2020. In September 2020, a new phase of this programme began in which four additional monthly payments are planned, reaching 770,000 potential beneficiaries. Additionally, coverage of the "Tekoporá" programme and the Senior Adult programme was expanded.

Peru also implemented different mechanisms to reach the population most affected by the crisis. These included the "I Stay at Home" voucher, a cash subsidy for households living in poverty; the "Independiente" bond for households with low-income own-account workers affected by the pandemic; the "Rural Voucher" for rural families living in poverty or extreme poverty; the "Universal Family Voucher" for vulnerable households not covered by the previous vouchers and the "Contigo" programme for people with severe disabilities living in poverty, in which the payment of a two-month period was advanced in March-April. Recently, an economic benefit of 760 soles was granted for furloughed workers who work in an enterprise with no more than 100 workers and receive a monthly salary of up to 2,400 soles.

Chile created the COVID-19 Emergency Voucher and the Emergency Family Income. The first provided a one-time subsidy to households that receive the sole family subsidy, households that receive other transfers from the Securities and Opportunities system, and households that belong to the 60 per cent of most vulnerable households according to the Social Registry of Households. Households where a member receives a retirement pension or is a formal worker are excluded. The Emergency Family Income is a monthly transfer to households belonging to the most vulnerable 80 per cent (Montt et al., 2020). To provide food security, the government began delivering 2.5 million food boxes in late May. This programme was then expanded to deliver 5.6 million boxes in August. The "Benefit for own-account workers" was also created, which includes a subsidy and an interest-free loan to own-account workers who have issued invoices for at least three months in the last year or for six months in the last two years and who, in the month they request the benefit, experienced a decline in their income of at least 30 per cent compared with the period April 2019-April 2020. The subsidy is not considered income and is therefore tax exempt and not considered for pension purposes. It covers a maximum of 70 per cent of the reduction in income, with the percentage decreasing as income rises (Montt et al., 2020).

In Uruguay, the amount of the Uruguay Social Card (TUS) from the Ministry of Social Development increased by 50 per cent and the Family Allowances for households that did not receive the TUS increased by the same percentage. Additionally, informal workers not covered by MIDES instruments or protected by another protection mechanism received a monthly food basket.

Brazil implemented Emergency Assistance, a cash transfer for workers over age 18 from households whose per capita monthly income does not exceed half the minimum wage (R $ 522.50), or whose total household income is up to three minimum wages (R $ 3,135). The conditions do not apply to adolescent mothers, informal workers, individual microentrepreneurs, own-account and unemployed workers. Households benefiting from the Family Voucher programme receive the benefit automatically. The programme consists of five payments of R $ 600 and is doubled in the case of single parents. In September, the government announced that the programme would continue until December, but the voucher amount would be reduced to R $ 300. Brazil already had the Family Voucher programme, a broad-based conditional cash transfer programme, which in September 2020 served 14 million households across the country. The Emergency Aid temporarily replaced the Family Voucher, but only in cases where it was more advantageous for the household (which was authorized to register up to two of its members to receive the Aid).

Finally, most of the Caribbean countries implemented policies for cash transfers and distribution of food or vouchers for food purchases.

1.4 Results of policies implemented

The unprecedented magnitude of this crisis compelled the governments of the region to implement measures to mitigate its impact on employment, income and living conditions of the population. These measures had some success, but also faced challenges.

In cases where the intervention was rapid and timely, it was possible to limit the immediate loss of income and the lack of access to basic goods and services, as well as to mitigate these negative shocks in the medium term. Previous experience with developing intervention mechanisms contributed to reaching the population with reduced labour income more quickly. At the beginning of the pandemic, the region already had a wealth of experience with social protection programmes for conditional and unconditional cash transfers, although in most cases with strict targeting criteria, which limited reach to the poorest segments of the population.

However, given the extent of the crisis, the interventions had to reach the middle-income segment of the population whose income was seriously affected. Thus, in terms of management, cash transfer policies have faced the challenge of expanding and improving the registration of these newly vulnerable people and households. This clearly demonstrates the need to move towards greater income coverage in the event of job loss, especially in the informal economy. To this end, it is crucial to update the registry of potential beneficiaries of these programmes.

Challenges associated with fiscal space were further complicated by issues of government and public-private coordination, and limitations of technological and logistical capacities to provide the goods, services and economic benefits that the affected populations require, especially the most vulnerable. For these reasons, despite the efforts made, aid appeared to be delayed or insufficient to cover the income lost.

2. Innovations and lessons learned with respect to labour policies and institutions during the pandemic[8]

The previous section discussed how the countries introduced several policy innovations and developed mitigation strategies in response to the crisis. Several of these innovations could become permanent and thus contribute to transforming the design and/or operation of some labour institutions and policies.

This section briefly reviews four areas that have undergone relevant changes. Next, without attempting to carry out an exhaustive review of all the experiences in the region, it discusses examples of innovations in vocational training, income protection through social protection schemes, labour inspection and MSME support programmes.

2.1 Disruptions and innovations in vocational training

More than 11 million participants of vocational training programmes in Latin America and the Caribbean had their face-to-face training interrupted owing to the COVID-19 pandemic. When the crisis hit in March 2020, the ILO estimates that fewer than 20 per cent of all participants in training programmes did so remotely, and the bulk of this offer was generated by no more than six institutions in the region. The crisis posed a difficult problem for continuity, but it also represented an opportunity to launch innovations that had been developing for years and that were suddenly accelerated to give way to new forms of training. Here are some examples:

a. Interrupting face-to-face training, an unexpected, multifaceted problem

The pandemic caught the world by surprise. Ways of living, learning and working largely took place face-to-face. The experiences of knowing and learning were fundamentally face-to-face. One went to work, to the office, to school, to the training centre.

Attending school and training workshops are activities that had to be approached differently. From one day to the next, the risk of contagion interrupted the viability of bringing people together in a learning environment. Teachers could no longer work with their students in the classroom and the workshop; face-to-face learning spaces –as well as the workspace in many offices and factories- were left empty.

The impossibility of teaching in a classroom, the best location for the teacher-student relationship, became a huge obstacle. In an April survey, the ILO reported that at least 80 per cent of vocational training institutes had suspended in-person activities. However, the level of development of digital connectivity at the time meant that the Internet and learning platforms enabled a rapid increase in remote training offers and new training modalities were created using existing digital platforms.

Nevertheless, a more critical analysis can identify three unresolved issues. One was the changing role of teachers, which required building capacities to provide training sessions through a platform, implement new pedagogical approaches such as project-based training, generate interest and maintain participation through a remote channel. Another issue is whether it is truly possible for remote training to develop, evaluate and certify certain skills, especially those that are specific and social-emotional. The absence of contact and the dynamics of a face-to-face group that watches, listens and acts live in the training space may be a weakness of the remote training strategy that should be analyzed and resolved.

A third issue is the viability of many participants to connect to a remote classroom. Not only must they have the means (PC, mobile phone, Internet connection); they also need the digital capabilities to navigate and operate in the programmes and access channels, in other words, they must have basic

8 Fernando Vargas, Guillermo Montt, Carmen Bueno, Andrés Yurén and Javier Ramírez Mata provided inputs for this section, with comments from Roxana Maurizio, Pablo Casalí, Ariel Pino and Ítalo Cardona.

Nearly a year after social distancing measures began and face-to-face training was restricted, several economic and social trends have emerged that have a correlation with vocational training. The landscape changed suddenly and new ways of maintaining economic activity were needed. Digital technologies were largely a close-at-hand potential solution.

digital literacy. The so-called digital divide challenges the equitable distribution of the benefits of access to remote education.

b. Turning a problem into an opportunity: skill development during the pandemic

Nearly a year after social distancing measures began and face-to-face training was restricted, several economic and social trends have emerged that have a correlation with vocational training. The landscape changed suddenly and new ways of maintaining economic activity were needed. Digital technologies were largely a close-at-hand potential solution.

Vocational training institutes that already had remote training platforms seized on this opportunity to increase their online services. Those that did not yet offer distance learning developed solutions to offer it. The need to develop capacities for digital transformation was evident.

The new remote learning format brought about by the pandemic created the need to train teachers to assume the role of remote trainer, tutor and companion in the process. Teacher training programmes quickly expanded their services, and several institutions activated their teacher training schools with online training courses.[9]

New job demands now focus more on a specific ability and skill than on a degree in the medium or long term. The skills gaps are now concentrated in more specific capabilities, programming skills, design skills and product specification skills rather than on traditional academic degrees. For example, the growth of e-commerce resulting from the pandemic has generated demand for programming skills, data analytics, machine learning and use of georeferencing software.[10] The traditional view would place this demand in the field of engineering or the technical level of systems engineering, but in practice many young people learn these skills in "bootcamps," where there is still a supply gap in many countries of the region. Knowing how to interpret these new demands will be crucial for maintaining relevance in training responses.

For vocational training institutes (VTIs), there is also a clear need to adopt policies and strategies to stimulate the development of digitalization in their substantive and management processes. All stages of VTI have digital impacts and require change and innovation. All four major stages of VTI can be associated with digital innovations, as illustrated in Table 2.1.

9 Among others, INTECAP of Guatemala, INADEH of Panama, INFOTEP of the Dominican Republic, and SENAI and SENAC of Brazil.

10 In March 2020, 96 training apps were downloaded for every 100,000 inhabitants in the region, double the number in January and February. How can technology facilitate job recovery after COVID-19? IDB, 2020. In: www.iadb.org/futurodeltrabajo

TABLE 2.1. Digital technologies to innovate the vocational training process

ANTICIPATION OF DEMAND	PREPARATION OF RESPONSES	IMPLEMENTATION OF VOC. TRAIN.	IMPACT ASSESSMENT
▶ Data science ▶ Mass data ▶ Web scraping ▶ Machine learning ▶ Hybrid jobs	▶ Online teacher training ▶ Learning management platforms ▶ Databanks of teacher materials and resources	▶ Remote, interactive environments ▶ Use of simulators ▶ Synchronous and asynchronous communication platforms	▶ Digital traceability ▶ Social media ▶ Databases: social security, employment services, networks

Source: ILO, based on the vocational training process.

During the crisis, the private-sector offer of online training has increased, as has the opportunity to create synergies through a new generation of public-private partnerships. Policies that encourage digital development are also needed, such as those implemented by several countries of the region. These policies and a favourable investment climate are key to directing investments towards new digital technologies, creating new jobs and activating the training offer in these skills.[11]

c. Adaptation, innovation and re-adaptation. The VTI response to COVID-19

Clearly, the pandemic and its impact on VTIs has generated a wide range of responses. A brief review of them identifies three main types of responses: those linked to digital acceleration, those that generated new partnerships and those linked to reactivation programmes or support to affected sectors. Below are examples of each of these beacons of change.[12]

- **Accelerating digitization in VTIs**

In general, VTIs activated their online education portals and launched offers in skills that could be transferred remotely. In some cases, the use of remotely connected simulators was encouraged, for example in SENAI in Brazil and SENA in Colombia. INFOCAL in Bolivia organized a welding course based on the use of simulators. SNPP in Paraguay is launching an online robotics course.

Other examples include: INSAFORP in El Salvador, which directly offers 17 courses for instructor training that include methodological training, transversal and digital skills. UTEC in Uruguay now offers online diplomas and has organized a master's degree programme in data analytics with the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. SENATI in Peru, with its senati.online portal, offers training at different levels and duration for the sector. INA in Costa Rica offers short courses on its "Inavirtual" portal to complement technical skills. INTECAP created the portal "Study with us from home" a platform of 50 free and self-administered courses in digital skills, administration, communication, finance and other subjects, which were in great demand. It has also encouraged the offer of digital skills training with international certification.

- **New partnerships for VTIs: an opportunity to increase coverage, quality and relevance**

There is now considerable activity in this area. Old models on how partnerships and new forms of association are generated have been cast aside thanks to courses originating outside the VTI sphere but that may be in high demand.

Some examples are SENA in Colombia, which has expanded its offer with courses on training platforms such as LinkedIn and Amazon. Bootcamp training for digital skills has been launched and, within the framework of its campaign "# TransformacióndigitalSENA," in collaboration with Everis and the National Academic Network of Advanced Technology, SENA has established its first centre for software

11 Oportunidades de digitalización en América Latina frente a la COVID-19. ECLAC (2020).

12 Sources based on institutional websites and the respective advertisements on Twitter accounts.

development. Forty apprentices comprise the first group who will be trained in software analysis and development. The Centre has organized a digital skills competition in conjunction with the Public Employment Agency.

In Brazil, SENAI signed an agreement with the Brazilian Company for Research and Industrial Innovation and the Ministry of Education to develop a new learning programme based on applied research to solve real problems in industry and promote the soft skills required to make a substantive contribution to the business environment, in addition to technical capabilities. Selected participants will receive financial aid and support from tutors.

INSAFORP's training offerings have been expanded to include several online courses such as English-language courses and those to develop soft skills. The Institute also expanded its own online offer with "Insaforp online," which offers access to some 15 platforms from different providers. It has also signed an agreement with the "Capacitateparaelempleo" online learning platform offering over 950 courses.

SENCE in Chile, INADEH in Panama and INEFOP in Uruguay have also signed agreements with platforms that provide online training. In Chile, the "SENCE Digital Classroom" was created to bring together all online offers. Some of these offers have been linked with government programmes and in some locations, online conferences are organized to discuss topics such as employment subsidies for companies.

- **Vocational training and productive transformation, new responses to achieve recovery**

To recover from the pandemic crisis, many countries are implementing production transformation plans and stimulating the recovery of the most affected sectors. The new demands for skills and competencies that will arise from these measures need to be anticipated, monitored and addressed with quality training programmes to ensure that these policies are effective and, above all, sustainable.

The actions developed in this area include: (i) INFOTEP in the Dominican Republic launched a course for certification in the new COVID-19 protocol for tourism activities. The tourism sector generates about 10 per cent of GDP and 9 per cent of employment in that country; (ii) SENATI in Peru launched a digital skills adaptation programme to facilitate the retraining of those who have lost their jobs and who seek new opportunities in growing areas that require digital skills; (iii) INTECAP in Guatemala launched online conferences and workshops on different topics of interest to employers and workers, ranging from business organization to maintaining clients and the exploration of digital markets; (iv) SENAC in Brazil used new digital modalities to highlight regional values and tourist sites of Brazil, promoting regional cuisine in a context of pandemic protocols. It also supports entrepreneurs in events organized together with trade federations in the states; (v) SENAR of Brazil has launched the "Agro for Brazil" project, which provides an alternative given the impossibility of holding fairs, courses and face-to-face exhibitions. The programme disseminates content to promote the richness of the countryside through online events, keeping rural producers connected and active in the training system; (vi) INEFOP in Uruguay, on the initiative of different actors, workers, members of the business community and academia, has adapted the offer of the "Human Talent Training Centre" to include online courses aimed at the pharmaceutical chemical sector; and (vii) INADEH in Panama announced training on entrepreneurship for those who wish to access a seed capital fund created by AMPYME to support new entrepreneurs in urban, rural and indigenous areas.

The VTIs have also made progress in occupational safety and health through the development of and training in biosafety protocols and standards. SENAC promotes compliance with biosafety regulations for both workers and tourists to regain confidence and facilitate safe travel. SENA is developing an application that allows tourists to discover places that have biosecurity protocols. SENAI has partnered with the fuel, clothing and breadmaking sectors, among others, to support the generation and dissemination of protocols to relaunch activities.

2.2 Challenges for social protection

Social protection systems seek to ensure income throughout the lifecycle in the event of contingencies such as sickness, work accidents and occupational illnesses, disability, old age and unemployment, among others. In addition to protecting households and workers against macroeconomic shocks, social

protection also mitigates the effects of the crisis by responding in a countercyclical way, compensating for the decline in demand.

The COVID-19 crisis underscored not only the importance and fragility of healthcare systems but also the substantial impact on employment. As mentioned, the crisis left many households in the region without a way to generate income, exposing the lack of social protection for formal or informal workers who lost their jobs and who did not have the tools to guarantee their income in the event of unemployment. The countries responded by strengthening and adjusting contributory insurance or, where these programmes did not exist, advancing their construction in stages. Countries also responded with a series of cash transfers that became income guarantees and social protection floors in some cases. The strengthening of and adjustments to unemployment insurance and the establishment or strengthening of non-contributory transfer programmes served to protect the employment relationship and income security for formal and informal workers.

The characteristics of the crisis also led the social security institutes to expand their services and to change their relationship with contributors and beneficiaries. Some of these innovations are temporary and limited to the duration of the crisis. However, they can strengthen social protection in the region if they continue.

On the one hand, unemployment insurance was adjusted to protect the income of wage earners by relaxing access requirements and expanding the programme to safeguard the employment relationship through coverage for suspension of contracts or reduction of working hours.

Countries such as Paraguay and Peru, which did not have contributory insurance, also provided financial support to prevent the termination of the employment relationship through subsidies associated with the suspension of contracts or the reduction of working hours.

Like in the Asian crisis, which motivated the creation of unemployment insurance in Chile, the protection gaps in the event of unemployment that the COVID-19 crisis has revealed have generated support for the introduction of unemployment insurance in countries where it does not exist – including Grenada, Dominica, Jamaica, Saint Lucia, Paraguay and Peru – or for its strengthening in other countries, such as Ecuador.

While crises reveal the shortcomings of social protection systems, they also generate opportunities for innovation and highlight their importance, building consensus for their strengthening. As in past crises, countries that had unemployment insurance were able to quickly provide income security to a group of workers and businesses (for example, Chile and Uruguay). Those countries that had social protection information systems with greater coverage and updated information were also able to identify households facing a lack of income protection in the crisis and to make timely direct transfers.

The adjustments to unemployment insurance and non-contributory transfers mentioned above provide at least three lessons for strengthening social protection in the region. First, given that economic crises or those associated with natural disasters will continue to affect the region, there is reason to continue expanding and strengthening social protection information systems (for example, social household registries) and to incorporate more households to generate and/or expand programmes quickly, if necessary, at the local, sectoral or national level. These household records should be linked with administrative data (pensions, health, taxes, unemployment insurance, etc.) to always keep the administrative information as up to date as possible. This information has enormous potential to establish a social protection system that can react quickly to crises and even link income security programmes to active labour market policies. Information systems should be more than tools to target programmes. They are crucial for effective monitoring and evaluation of the measures implemented.

Even in countries with high levels of informality, unemployment insurance can be a valuable tool for providing income security to the population covered, mitigating the reduction of demand during a crisis and enabling the delivery of direct social investment to the most vulnerable population. Naturally, these effects will be positively correlated with increased formal employment and expanded coverage of contributory insurance.

Second, making unemployment insurance widely available in the event of suspension or reduction of working hours is also crucial for preventing the breakdown of the employment relationship and

> While crises reveal the shortcomings of social protection systems, they also generate opportunities for innovation and highlight their importance, building consensus for their strengthening.

promoting reintegration once the sectoral, regional or national crisis is overcome. As insurance was adapted by making access criteria more flexible and modifying benefit amounts and numbers, lessons were generated to establish more effective mechanisms in the parametric adjustments. These will be useful for future economic crises, high unemployment levels or crises related to natural disasters.

Third, and which is related to the two previous lessons, the gaps in the social protection systems' ability to offer income security to the population quickly and efficiently gives rise to the need to continue developing universal, crisis-sensitive social protection systems with the participation of all stakeholders.

The modifications to and expansions of the programmes, coupled with the implementation of new programmes, can help improve social protection benefits, efficiency and coverage. This requires the integration of different income sources and processes that have improved governance and the delivery of online services, together with the benefits delivered through banking and financial institutions, thereby contributing to economic and labour formalization processes.

2.3 Innovations in labour inspection during the pandemic

Labour institutions of the countries of the region responded to the pandemic by adopting bold and innovative measures that allow them, within the framework of health restrictions, to ensure the continuity of their operations, processes and activities. Labour inspectorates, as a central element of labour administration systems, have also had to review and adapt their forms of interaction with users, their operational processes and their priorities to continue guaranteeing compliance with labour regulations in an adverse context.

While it is still impossible to measure the relevance and viability of these institutional innovations, some may represent a good opportunity for modernization that allows labour inspectorates to make qualitative, sustainable progress in their institutional strengthening processes.

a. Innovations in user relations

Because of health restrictions and several regulations that ordered government employees to telework, the administrative headquarters of most of labour inspectorates have remained closed to the public. Even if they remained open, access was restricted and there were a limited number of staff working in person.

This has led to an emphasis on the use of information and communication technologies (ICT) in interactions with the public. Telephone services, emails, apps, videoconferences and video chats have played a more prominent role. There is a greater dissemination and use of complaint or claim mechanisms online, as in the cases of Brazil, Chile, Colombia, El Salvador, Guatemala and Peru, or the use of a free telephone hotline, such as the existing ones in Uruguay and Colombia. During this period, the Dominican Republic extended the use of its ministerial app in other operational platforms and Costa Rica made it possible to carry out procedures such as requests for reduction of working hours and suspension of contracts online, as well as some requirements of teleworking contracts.

The websites and social media of labour inspectorates and/or labour ministries have also been used to disseminate labour information in the form of brochures, FAQs or messages on labour rights and responsibilities, particularly those associated with the new regulations adopted in the context of

> Labour institutions of the countries of the region responded to the pandemic by adopting bold and innovative measures that allow them, within the framework of health restrictions, to ensure the continuity of their operations, processes and activities.

the pandemic. For example, in Colombia and Peru, communication materials have been designed to disseminate information on labour rights on social media for domestic workers, one of the groups most affected by the measures adopted in the pandemic.

In several cases, as in Peru, time limits for inspections and administrative and sanctioning procedures have been temporarily suspended.[13]

b. Innovations in operational processes

During the health restrictions, few countries in the region expressly declared labour inspection as an essential activity, which led labour officials to widely rely on teleworking or remote work, allowing in-person activities only when strictly necessary, with the exception of officials belonging to high-risk groups. For example, in Peru, inspection services were exempted from compulsory social immobilization, although in-person activities were restricted to those necessary to safeguard the rights of workers, with the exception of civil servants belonging to high-risk groups, who continued to telework.[14]

Therefore, most of the labour inspectorates limited face-to-face visits to essential ones,[15] largely suspending routine visits and enhancing oversight activities that could be carried out online. In the case of Peru, the use of dissuasive ICTs or letters has been allowed when presumed breaches are identified and which can be remedied or corrected through these means without the need for a visit.

The remote work modality has led to the strengthening and improvement of electronic means to manage inspection, with the pandemic being a stress test to verify its effective functioning. Noteworthy advances include the automation of processes of contract suspensions owing to force majeure derived from the health emergency in Honduras and the improvement of the Dominican Republic's Integrated Labour Registration System (SIRLA) by incorporating new forms to process and resolve online requests for suspension and termination of the employment contract (DGT-9 and DGT-12).

Finally, to the extent that the inspectors have been carrying out face-to-face actions, some countries, such as Bolivia, Peru and Uruguay, have developed COVID-19 health and safety protocols for their officials.

c. Innovations in defining priorities

Most labour inspectorates focused on ensuring compliance with COVID-19 health and safety measures in essential activities during the restrictions and on the return to work when those restrictions were lifted. Colombia organized mobile inspection brigades. Sector inspection operations were also implemented, such as in supermarkets in Uruguay, in hotels and resorts in Costa Rica and in interurban transport in

13 Arts. 1 and 2 of SUNAFIL Resolution N ° 74-2020. Available at: https://www.gob.pe/institucion/sunafil/normas-legales/1197567-74-2020-sunafil

14 SUNAFIL Resolution No. 89-2020. Available at: https://cdn.www.gob.pe/uploads/document/file/1300972/RS per cent20089-2020-SUNAFIL.PDF.pdf

15 In some countries, workplaces where essential activities were carried out continued to be visited to verify compliance with health and safety protocols. In others, in-person activity was also maintained to carry out procedures to investigate serious and / or fatal work accidents and to verify complaints of violations of fundamental rights.

Chile. In Chile, given that both the ministries of labour and health exercise authority over inspections, a single form was developed for surveillance of COVID-19 preventive measures in workplaces, improving coordination between the different inspection entities.[16]

With ILO support, Colombia developed tools to help rural workers identify risks, including those associated with COVID-19. The implementation of these tools was reinforced through videos and a soap opera distributed via a podcast.

Paraguayan inspectors have played an active role in the dissemination and verification of preventive protocols in the workplace, with numerous face-to-face activities called verifications in an effort to reduce the more coercive nature of traditional inspections and audits.

Another priority identified was oversight of the continued operation of non-essential firms, including alleged fraud in the expansion of the business activity to continue operating, as Chilean labour inspectors reported.

Serious and fatal work accidents, as well as the suspension or termination of work duties given their serious and imminent risk, have continued to be prioritized in the inspection plans of countries such as Chile and Peru.

Inspection activities have also focused on the surveillance of possible discriminatory practices, especially in people diagnosed with COVID-19 and people in risk groups, as well as on the granting of paid leave, payment of wages and life insurance policies. In Mexico, special operations were carried out to monitor the payment of wages or minimum wages.

Other activities reported by labour inspectorates include the verification of dismissals, contract suspensions, company closures due to force majeure, compatibility of receipt of benefits and / or subsidies with the continuity of operations.

Lastly, the proliferation of telework and remote work agreements during this period, for which new legislation was adopted in the region, has occupied much of the agendas of labour inspectorates that have these regulatory frameworks. As of November 2020, Chile reported 180 complaints and 135 audits since the new law on remote work and telework went into effect in April 2020. Most of these referred to non-compliance with the obligations of formalize this arrangement through a written agreement and to provide the necessary equipment, tools and materials.[17]

The revision of inspectorate priorities was accompanied by virtual training courses for inspectors on topics including psychosocial risks, such as in Colombia and Paraguay, or biological risks, such as in Paraguay and Uruguay.

d. Lessons learned

Overall, the region's labour inspectorates have remained fully operational during the restrictions, mainly through teleworking, although face-to-face actions took place for matters that could not be completed online, such as control of biosafety conditions.

The pandemic revealed that labour inspectorates with the most flexible, efficient inspection procedures, which allow online inspection modalities in addition to in-person visits, were able to adapt more quickly to the circumstances and to respond in a more timely, effective manner. The future promotion of these new online or remote modalities of inspection activities may represent a clear advance in an institutional framework in which staffing is always limited and in which performance will begin to be measured in terms of effectiveness and efficiency. Procedural regulations should be reviewed to guarantee that the presumption of certainty of the facts verified by inspectors will be equally applicable when they are verified through online systems.

Similarly, inspectorates that already had significant levels of digital literacy and use of ICT have had a greater capacity to respond in this complex, changing scenario. For the rest, the pandemic may be

16 https://www.ccs.cl/wp-content/uploads/2020/08/Formulario-U per centCC per cent81nico-de-Fiscalizacio per centCC per cent81n-Covid19.pdf

17 Source: Administrative records of the Labour Directorate,10/08/2020.

an opportunity for greater digital development that contributes to expanded coverage of inspection services in an increasingly fragmented and changing world of work, to a better definition of objectives and increased coordination with actors in the world of work.

Along with these future challenges, many labour inspectorates of the region are still addressing existing difficulties, such as informality or job insecurity, which are likely to increase as a result of this crisis, as well as some gaps regarding relevant ILO conventions on the matter. Intensive efforts will be needed on both fronts to ensure that labour inspections remain "the cornerstone for building fairer societies" (ILO, 2019).

2.4. Innovations to support programmes for micro, small and medium-sized enterprises (MSMEs)

The pandemic had a major impact on the operation and sustainability of enterprises, particularly MSMEs. A large share of government support has targeted MSMEs because between five and seven of every 10 MSMEs report that financial aid programmes and fiscal assistance are necessary (ITC, 2020).

Innovations in the programmes and regulations implemented during the current crisis can be classified into four groups. First, the support aimed at solving the liquidity restrictions of these firms. Second, programmes to alleviate the fiscal burden faced by MSMEs. Third, policies designed to help these enterprises overcome difficulties in preserving employment. Finally, programmes and regulations implemented to help firms digitize their business model.[18]

Overall, ongoing dialogue between business associations and governments has increased the success of the programmes and regulations implemented. With respect to financing measures, guarantees have been used to increase access to credit for MSMEs given their credit risk profile. In terms of tax measures, liquidity has been generated through deferral of payments, and the promotion of investment through fiscal programmes with a medium-term horizon. Additionally, employment protection schemes (described in more detail in Section 1.1.) have mitigated the loss of formal employment during the crisis, in addition to encouraging the hiring of new workers. Lastly, efforts to digitize firms reveal the need for a long-term strategy, as well as direct, sustained cooperation between the government and the business sector.

a. Access to financing

In response to the current economic and health crisis, several governments have created or expanded various government programmes to guarantee loans that enterprises request from private-sector financial institutions. These programmes have functioned as a liquidity provision mechanism for MSMEs during the crisis, enabling many of these enterprises to navigate their short-term financial needs.

Coverage mechanisms, percentage of credit covered, and the business community's perception of these programme varies across countries. An illustrative case is Peru, where there is a growing trend of loan disbursement since this measure was implemented. Reactiva Perú and FAE-MYPE are the two government programmes designed to increase access to credit through guarantees ranging from 80 per cent to 98 per cent (COFIDE, 2020). In August 2020, lending to enterprises was 23.8 per cent higher compared with the same month of 2019 (ASBANC, 2020a). Additionally, according to the Central Reserve Bank (BCR), as of September 23, more than 470,000 companies had received loans from Reactiva Perú, of which 98 per cent were micro and small companies (ASBANC, 2020b).

Additionally, several countries identified the importance of non-traditional financial intermediaries to provide liquidity to MSMEs. In Chile, the Corfo MIPyME Credit and the Crecer Fund are intended to issue loans to non-bank financial institutions and support the financing they disburse (CORFO, 2018; CORFO, 2020). For example, firms that offer factoring services fall into this category. These firms buy the accounts receivable originating from the sale of goods or services from other enterprises to give them immediate liquidity.

18 The measures presented in this section were identified mainly through the analysis of official information sources and online interviews with several business associations.

> In response to the current economic and health crisis, several governments have created or expanded various government programmes to guarantee loans that enterprises request from private-sector financial institutions.

b. Job protection

Protecting formal employment was a public policy priority for many economies in 2020, as described in Section 1.1. This crisis-response practice is more common in advanced economies. In Europe, for example, many countries already had subsidy schemes for working hours during periods of economic and employment crises. These were developed in previous crises such as the one of 2008-2009. As mentioned, some governments in the region implemented broad payroll subsidy schemes for the first time, not only to protect employment, but also to jointly collaborate in the sustainability of enterprises during the crisis and facilitate recovery. An illustrative example is Colombia, where the government, in coordination with business associations, promoted the Formal Employment Support Programme (PAEF), which granted a subsidy to cover some payroll expenses of the most affected firms.

The government contribution is equivalent to 40 per cent of the current legal monthly minimum wage per worker (USD $ 92.50 per employee) each month in enterprises that experienced a decline in revenue of at least 20 per cent. The PAEF has protected around 3.3 million jobs. As of August, 98.3 per cent of benefitting employers were MSMEs,[19] (UGPP, 2020). This programme is expected to be in force until March 2021. The programme includes a gender component because it provides increased support to female workers, through a subsidy of 50 per cent of the minimum wage for each female worker.

c. Tax measures

To alleviate the tax burden of enterprises in the event of a contingency, governments have granted extensions for the payment of taxes and employer contributions in several countries of the region. In Uruguay, a tiered strategy was implemented for sales tax payments. Small enterprises were exempted from paying sales taxes during part of the confinement period, particularly in March and April of 2020. These firms were allowed to pay the debt in six equal, consecutive installments, without interest, as of May (DGI, 2020).

Some countries took advantage of schemes and programmes existing before the economic crisis. Uruguay, for example, has an investment regime to promote productive development, in which enterprises can access tax benefits to boost investment levels. The projects approved by the respective authority have income tax and sales tax benefits, a measure to stimulate economic growth in 2021. Uruguay also recently announced additional temporary benefits to further reduce the tax burden with a view to encouraging investment (CIU, 2020; UNASEP).

d. Digitization of enterprises

Latin American MSMEs commonly lag behind in terms of integrating digital strategies and participation in e-commerce. For example, only 58 per cent of these businesses have their own website (World Bank Enterprise Survey). In the context of the pandemic, many enterprises had to accelerate the digitization process. At the same time, government efforts focused on this issue have gained greater relevance and different initiatives have emerged with encouraging results.

19 One requirement is to have at least three employees.

In some countries, digitization subsidies have been key. In many countries of the region, existing channels and platforms were strengthened to make enterprises visible and to provide training. In the case of Chile, the "Digitize your MSME" platform offers training and consultancies, in coordination with the private sector, so that enterprises can increase their digitization capabilities. "Community C" is a marketplace developed by the business syndicate to enable businesses without e-commerce to offer this service. They receive support through logistics agreements and payment methods (CNC, 2020). These initiatives and processes were accompanied by the development, updating and/or modernization of the regulatory framework concerning remote work through electronic and digital means (described in Section 3.2 on telework).

3. Accelerating changes at work during the pandemic: digital platforms and telework

In recent years, the world of work has been impacted by an accelerated digital and technological transformation. The incorporation of digital platforms and technology development have changed all sectors of production and services, to a greater or lesser extent. Beyond the generation of new products and innovative services, these changes are having an impact on the way of working.

Among other effects, the COVID-19 pandemic has accelerated some change processes that were already underway. The need to establish social distancing, which in many cases took the extreme form of confinement, promoted the use of teleworking to maintain economic activity. This same restriction led families to rely on digital labour platforms to stock up on food and other goods, leading authorities to establish that platform workers performed an essential service for the community.

This section discusses the impact of the pandemic on the development of digital platforms and telework in the region.

3.1 Work on digital platforms during the pandemic

a. Digital platforms: Changes in the business model during the pandemic

One transformation observed in the world of work in the region in recent years has been the emergence of digital work platforms. These platforms have transformed existing business models, the interaction between the different economic actors and types of employment, giving rise to new forms of work. The COVID-19 pandemic accelerated the digital revolution and triggered many of these trends, while also exacerbating the many challenges associated with this type of work.

Digital platforms vary considerably, for which reason trends observed prior and since the pandemic diverge largely according to the type of platform considered. Specifically, paid work that is organized by a digital platform can be divided into two broad categories: first web-based platforms, where work is managed and performed online and therefore allows jobs to be delivered to clients anywhere in the world (crowdsourcing platforms); and second, work that is managed online but is performed outside of it and that, consequently, is restricted to local markets, although the organization through a platform does not require a specific physical location (location-based platforms) (Berg et al., 2018). In the case of services through location-based platforms, the task is performed locally and frequently through applications (apps) that assign tasks to individuals in a specific geographic area. Common services of this type of work include transportation services and distribution, courier and home delivery services (López Mourelo, 2020).[20]

20 This section on digital labour platforms focuses on delivery and transportation platforms since they are both location-based platforms that have the greatest presence in the region and whose situation was most clearly altered by the pandemic. See Berg et al. (2018) for a detailed classification of the different digital labour platforms.

Digital platforms allow intermediation between work supply and demand through a technology that increases the volume and scale of exchanges, as well as the services associated with this type of contracting (identification of profiles, evaluation systems, ratings, payment management, etc.). Although digital labour platforms remain limited in the Latin American labour market - it is estimated that prior to the pandemic, approximately 1 per cent of the workforce generated income through digital platforms (Ouishare, 2019; Madariaga et al., 2019) - platforms will likely play an increasingly important role in the labour markets of the region.

The recent emergence of digital labour platforms has generated changes in value chains, in organizational management models and in the organization of work. Although advantages of this labour participation are highlighted, such as low barriers to entry, flexibility in terms of schedules or the freedom to decide when to take jobs, there is concern about the potential precariousness of the work. A characteristic shared by these platforms is the so-called "algorithmic management" - that is, jobs are assigned and evaluated using algorithms - which in turn implies the continuous tracking and evaluation of workers' behaviour, the establishment of rating systems, customer participation in evaluations through "star" or "review" systems, interaction with workers through the application, and a certain lack of transparency about how the algorithm works, owing to competitive business practices and the adaptability of the algorithm itself (Berg et al., 2018; Möhlmann and Zalmanson, 2017). This type of management poses challenges for workers since the working conditions imposed to carry out the tasks tend to change very quickly, with the aim of optimizing the use of the workforce and maximizing profits from the information collected by the platforms.

The rapid expansion of these platforms and their tendency to incorporate own-account workers - often using euphemistic titles such as "collaborators," "associates," etc. - have sparked controversy about the true nature of these labour relations. Several studies have analyzed the characteristics under which work is carried out on platforms, identifying indicators that raise important questions about the independent nature of the employment relationship.[21] Undoubtedly, a recurrent concern refers to the difficulties that this type of work may imply in terms of access to labour rights and social protection, the most comprehensive coverage of which is traditionally linked to stable, formal, full-time wage employment (ILO, 2016; Berg et al., 2018; Rogers, 2017; Cherry, 2016). Similarly, the nature of the independent nature of the work activities carried out through platforms also affects access to basic rights such as unionization and collective bargaining (Garben, 2017).

In the context of the pandemic, digital labour platforms are playing a special role. The compulsory closing of many physical stores and the population's fear of becoming infected when in contact with other people have led customer service businesses and consumers to turn to e-commerce. During the second half of March and early April 2020, online sales increased by 28 per cent in Bogotá, 119 per cent in Chile and up to 300 per cent in Argentina in relation to the weeks prior to the implementation of COVID-19 isolation and prevention measures.[22] The sharp increase in e-commerce, driven not only by large businesses but also by small local firms, has generated a growth opportunity for message and delivery work carried out through digital platforms. Before the pandemic, these platforms had introduced significant innovations and presented certain competitive advantages with respect to traditional delivery activities, contributing significantly to the quantity and variety of the offer. Thanks to the emergence of digital labour platforms, establishments that did not offer home delivery service had the possibility of expanding their business and finding new sales opportunities through this medium. They did not need to make capital investments, hire staff, have experience in IT solutions or develop an online presence as the entire segment was outsourced through the different delivery applications. These opportunities acquired a special dimension in the current pandemic context, accelerating a previous trend whereby these platforms created their own distribution centres (for example, supermarkets or retail outlets dedicated exclusively to online

21 See, for example, Mugnolo et al. (2020) on digital labour platforms in Argentina.

22 Information from the Argentine Chamber of E-Commerce (CACE), the Chamber of Commerce of Santiago, and the Chamber of E-Commerce of Colombia.

sales, commonly known as "dark stores"), or operating in association with food establishments solely dedicated to the preparation of meals for delivery (known as "dark kitchens").[23]

Owing to the government measures imposed in most countries of the region to restrict mobility (quarantines, curfews, cordon sanitaire, etc.), digital platforms for transportation operators have suffered a clear impact in terms of demand for their services. In fact, in some cases, platforms that provide these types of services have chosen to seek alternative sources of income, such as entering the home delivery market and freight transportation between businesses. For example, in Latin America, the US platform Uber has strengthened its Uber Eats platform and has created new opportunities for its drivers to make deliveries (Uber Flash) or purchases through partnerships with participating stores (Uber Shopping).[24]

However, as restrictions on mobility are relaxed, demand for the services offered by digital platforms for transportation operators may increase. This possibility is more plausible considering that some segments of Latin American urban residents may eventually reject the use of mass transport, especially in cities where high rates of urban mobility are combined with inadequate infrastructure. This potential demand, coupled with the difficulties of continuing operations in areas of the region where the transportation service offered by these digital platforms is not regulated, could accentuate the tendency to add taxis to the platform services and thus adopt the taxi model these platforms seemed to be called to displace.[25]

In this context, the question arises about how this business model will evolve in the future and to what extent these trends observed during the pandemic will become part of the commercial practices or activities of the digital labour platforms that participate in the chains of marketing and distribution of goods, as well as in passenger transport.

b. The pandemic has exacerbated the challenges of working on digital platforms

The pandemic could thus become the catalyst that takes the digital transformation of the world of work to another level, considerably increasing opportunities for millions of production units and workers. However, two factors present a challenge for this digital revolution, which the pandemic has exacerbated. Despite the boom in digital services and e-commerce, there is a digital divide that means that many production units and workers cannot easily make this change. There is unequal access to these opportunities in the region, which may worsen existing inequalities if adequate measures are not taken to ensure inclusive technological development.

There is also a phenomenon associated with the digital revolution before the pandemic and which has intensified in the current context. The technological transformation brought with it the emergence of new forms of employment, such as that linked to digital labour platforms, which in many cases lead to precarious employment.[26] This precariousness may be reinforced by rising unemployment rates and the lack of opportunities, which make work on digital labour platforms an attractive alternative for the most vulnerable workers, including migrant workers, owing to lax barriers to entry into this economic sector. For example, in a survey conducted among employees of digital labour platforms in Argentina in July 2020, 95 per cent of respondents with less than six months of experience indicated the difficulty of finding a job as the main reason for having chosen that line of work. In a 2019 survey, only 40 per cent of respondents gave this reason as the main motive for choosing the activity (Beccaria et al., 2020).

In the countries of the region with available information, digital platform workers are largely young, male and often migrants, of which a considerable percentage have some form of higher education. In most

23 This popular business model in the United States and Europe recently reached the markets of the region. In the second half of 2019, the American company Walmart opened its first dark store in the region in Chile, which focuses exclusively on e-commerce. In Argentina, the Media Naranja Market supermarket chain has operated without physical branches since 2015. Similarly, the Glovo digital labour platform had fully online stores with exclusive access through its application in countries where it operated before closing its operations in the region in early October 2020.

24 https://www.america-retail.com/chile/chile-que-es-uber-flash-and-como-funciona/

25 https://www.reuters.com/article/transporte-latinoamerica-uber-idESL8N2F871C

26 Different international entities have recognized the need to promote decent work in the platform economy. In 2018, the G20 acknowledged the need to clarify the type of employment relationship of platform workers and their rights; promote transparency regarding working conditions and income levels related to digital labour platforms; improve working conditions, income levels and social protection rights of platform workers; and promote social dialogue, including international social dialogue and collective bargaining in the platform economy.

In the context of the pandemic

Digital labour platforms are playing a key role.

These workers are considered essential.
But there are risks:

- digital divide
- job insecurity
- exposure to the virus
- lack of regulation
- informality

cases, the job represents their main source of income, to which they dedicate an excessive number of hours to make it profitable (Madariaga et al., 2019; López Mourelo, 2020; ILO, 2021).

In the case of location-based platforms, such as delivery applications, available studies also indicate that to access the best schedules, orders and promotions that enable workers to earn a sufficient monthly income, workers must maintain a strenuous pace of work. The excessive working hours in turn accentuates the occupational risks they face. Furthermore, these workers have only limited access to social protection coverage (López Mourelo, 2020).

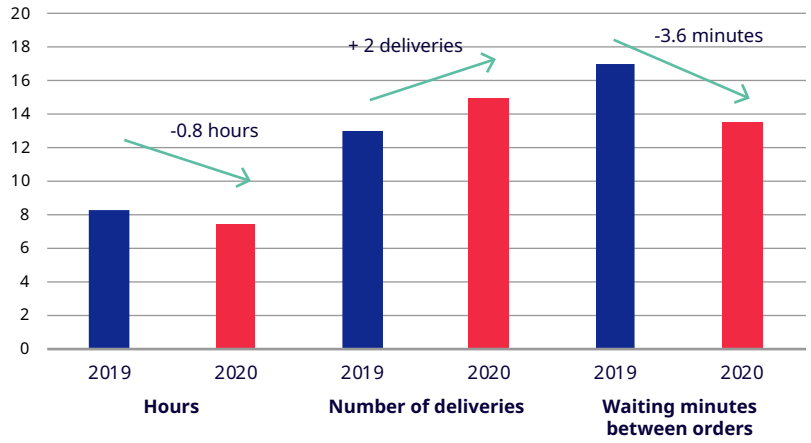
The COVID-19 crisis has made these workers' situation even more precarious, especially those employed by digital labour platforms. They are considered frontline workers, for which reason delivery people who operate in certain Latin American and Caribbean countries have become a vital source of supplies for many urban households during the quarantine (ILO, 2020). The service they provide is essential in a context of social isolation and mobility restrictions given that it reduces the need of high-risk groups to circulate to obtain basic goods.

Consequently, demand for the services offered by digital labour platforms has increased. For example, according to the UberEats manager for Latin America, demand for this platform's services doubled between April 2019 and April 2020. This rising demand is thought to have an impact on working conditions in the sector. The results of a survey of delivery platform workers in Argentina revealed that workers made nearly 15 per cent more deliveries (approximately two more deliveries per day) during the pandemic as compared with the previous year. Waiting times between orders were reduced (by an average of approximately 3.5 minutes), enabling workers to reduce their working hours by almost an hour on average (Figure 3.1).

Although the long hours that characterize the sector - in Argentina, for example, 50 per cent of delivery people work more than 10 hours in a normal day - the increased demand for these services has allowed workers to make more deliveries and thus earn their desired daily income faster, thereby reducing the time they devote to the activity. This result reflects the flipside of the massive increase in workers that the sector recorded throughout 2019 in many countries, which was motivated by low entry barriers. The growing number of people willing to work in delivery services, a trend that was not accompanied by a proportional increase in the number of shipments, meant an adjustment in the number of requests received per person or in the rate received for each delivery, in both cases affecting workers' earnings. Therefore, a demand for orders that is adequate for the number of delivery people helps ensure better

working conditions and highlights the need to establish mechanisms that allow the sector to have a job offer in keeping with the level of demand it can absorb.[27]

FIGURE 3.1. Regular working hours of digital labour platform workers in Argentina. July 2019-July 2020



Source: ILO survey of workers of digital labour platforms in Argentina.

This rising demand for digital labour platforms that provide delivery services was not observed in other digital platforms. In fact, most (over 85 per cent) drivers of digital transport platforms surveyed by the ILO in Chile and Mexico reported a decreased demand for their services, which could be motivated by mobility restrictions, limitations in providing services during the quarantine and the downturn in the tourism industry (ILO, 2021). This decreased demand has had an impact on the income of drivers of digital platforms providing transportation services. Nine in 10 drivers surveyed by the ILO in Chile and Mexico claim to have suffered a reduction in income since the onset of the pandemic (ILO, 2021).

Beyond the impact on demand, the pandemic has exacerbated the risks that location-based digital platform workers are exposed to during their work. Due to the nature of their work, characterized by having direct contact with third parties both in public and private spaces (cars, commercial premises, restaurants and clients' homes), they face a high risk of contracting Covid-19. Nevertheless, the socioeconomic situation and job insecurity of these workers, even prior to the pandemic, force them to continue to work in an activity that represents the only source of income for practically all of them. Additionally, being inactive or rejecting orders would threaten their rating, affecting their order flow and therefore the opportunity to earn income.

In surveys conducted by the ILO in Argentina, Chile and Mexico, approximately two-thirds of the workers interviewed expressed a fear of contagion. Some respondents even mentioned specific factors such as concern about "taking an order to someone who is sick and that by delivering it I become infected" or because "customers do not use a mask and leave the house without protection" or because of the risk of "infection, especially due to manipulation of cash." Of the 238 workers of delivery and transport platforms surveyed, 12 were forced to stop working because they had symptoms of Covid-19.

In this context of possible exposure to infection, workers on delivery and transportation platforms report that they do not have access to personal protection and health safety equipment such as masks and alcohol gel. While most companies offered their workers some of these supplies free-of-charge, workers say the amounts provided are inadequate. Additionally, respondents mentioned the lack of safe access to bathrooms to be able to wash themselves - a problem that existed prior to the pandemic but that has worsened since the crisis began.

27 This increase in demand and its impact on reducing working hours is expected to be temporary, decreasing somewhat when the population has greater mobility once the peak of the pandemic crisis has passed.

Thus, the occupational risks during the pandemic compounded other precarious conditions existing in the sector previously, such as long working hours and exposure to road safety risks. All these workers are own-account workers, who in most of the countries of the region have extremely limited social protection against all potential contingencies and that are clearly aggravated in the current context (López Mourelo, 2020). Limitations of this type of employment in many countries of the region include the lack of coverage for occupational illness and the lack of sick leave.

c. Measures adopted to mitigate the impact of the pandemic on digital platform workers[28]

The impact of the pandemic on the working conditions and safety of platform workers has required all actors in the sector to implement measures and actions. The main government and platform initiatives are summarized below, as are the demands and collective actions promoted by the workers themselves.[29]

▶ Government actions

In some countries in the region, governments have implemented measures to specifically protect platform workers from the effects of the current pandemic. In fact, some court decisions have forced both companies and governments to adopt emergency measures to protect the health and safety of workers. For example, a labour court of the State of Sao Paulo, responding to a precautionary measure submitted by the Ministry of Labour, regardless of whether an employment relationship exists, ordered that distribution platforms immediately provide appropriate tools to maintain social distancing, such as hand sanitizer and supplies to disinfect delivery bags and vehicles. Likewise, it ordered distribution platforms to pay a minimum wage to workers, even those without registered employment, in the event they are forced to quarantine after becoming infected with Covid-19.[30]

Several countries have also established specific regulations to address problems faced by platform workers. For example, in Colombia, the Ministry of Labour issued a regulation that mandates "employers, contracting entities, legal or natural persons that use workers, contractors, independent workers or people that take orders by telephone, cellphone, website, mobile app, digital platform, collaborative economy and digital freelancers, among others, for the provision of home services or purchase and delivery of goods or merchandise, "to provide their workers (employees, associates or collaborators) with the same personal protection materials that are required by law for dependent workers.[31]

In Peru, the Ministry of Production enacted Ministerial Resolution No. 163-2020, which establishes a protocol with "general guidelines for the health surveillance of independent distributors of the different digital platforms or delivery applications." The protocol establishes that employers must have plans for the surveillance, prevention and control of occupational health, including of own-account workers, and must submit plans for approval by Occupational Safety and Health Committees. This involves own-account workers in the management of health and safety issues on digital platforms, establishing parameters regarding the responsibility of platform operators in the development of economic activity. This regulation is the first to order platform companies to put their digital technology at the service of protecting the health and safety of workers.

The pandemic and its impact on platform workers have accelerated the processing of draft legislation, or the submission of new bills to regulate work on digital labour platforms, whose deficits became more visible during the COVID- 19 pandemic.[32] In this context, there is an urgent need to assess the possibility of establishing a system that ensures platform workers an employment status and protection in accordance with the characteristics of the activity they perform. Additionally, according to the report

28 This section is based on A. Coddou (2020).

29 This section focuses primarily on digital labour platforms and main trends, although the actions that governments and platforms have taken vary considerably.

30 Process nº 1000396-28.2020.5.02.0082 of the 82nd Labour Court and Process nº 1000405-68.2020.5.02.0056, of the 56th Labour Court. https://jornalggn.com.br/a-grande-crise/juiz-em-sp-garante-salario-minimo-a-informal-afastado-por-covid-por-marcelo-auler/

31 Bulletin 26 of 2020 http://www.fondoriesgoslaborales.gov.co/wp-content/uploads/2020/03/CIRCULAR-026-2020-DOMICILIOS-final.pdf

32 Currently, labour regulation bills for digital labour platforms in Argentina, Chile and Colombia, among others, are being discussed. See Mugnolo et al. (2020) for details about these processes.

of the Global Commission on the Future of Work (ILO, 2019), although the employment relationship continues to be the centrepiece of labour protection, there is a need to review and where necessary clarify responsibilities and adapt the scope of laws and regulations to ensure effective protection for workers in an employment relationship. It is also crucial to move forward to ensure that all workers, regardless of their contractual arrangement or employment status, can enjoy adequate labour protection to guarantee humane working conditions for everyone. This universal access to rights is particularly important during the pandemic crisis.

- **Measures taken by platforms**

Due to their role in the provision of goods and their relative importance for supply chains, especially delivery applications during the current pandemic, digital labour platforms in the region have implemented several measures to adapt to the changes occurring (Madariaga et al., 2020). Information and training for workers in safety and risk prevention measures are noteworthy, including guidelines on preventing the spread of the virus. Two of every three digital platform workers surveyed by the ILO in Argentina, Chile and Mexico report having received online training from companies regarding the monitoring of good hygiene practices and social distancing.

With respect to hygiene supplies, digital platforms that provide essential services have provided alcohol gel, masks and disinfectants to their workers free of charge. Likewise, some platforms have established special locations to disinfect vehicles, motorcycles, bicycles, backpacks or food containers, either on their own initiative, in consultation with the platform workers' associations, or in coordination with government officials (Madariaga et al., 2020). Despite these efforts, workers often complain that the materials provided are insufficient. Some 85-90 per cent of workers of digital labour platforms surveyed by the ILO report that they have incurred costs to obtain the personal protection and hygiene supplies they need to carry out their work: 87 per cent in Argentina, 92 per cent in Chile and 83 per cent in Mexico.

Other measures taken by the platforms include the implementation of cashless delivery policies to minimize worker contact with customers. This measure contributes to reducing - although not eliminating - the risk that platform workers face owing to the constant contact with the many people involved in complex marketing, distribution and consumption chains, whether in restaurants, supermarkets or waiting locations.

Finally, some platforms have established forms of sick leave to support the income of workers who cannot work. For example, in Chile, digital labour platforms have established an emergency fund to provide financial aid to workers infected with COVID-19 or who have been quarantined by a health authority. Through this fund, firms pay workers the equivalent of the average of their daily earnings for two weeks (Ríos & Cifuentes, 2020). Glovo implemented this measure in all countries, including Argentina (Madariaga et al., 2020). However, no information is available on the percentage of workers on leave who received this benefit.

- **Lawsuits and collective bargaining of platform workers**

Platform workers have also responded to their current situation, mainly through different collective bargaining strategies. Despite the difficulties that the activity in digital labour platforms entail for the organization of workers (among other factors, due to the lack of a shared physical location where all workers carry out their activity, as well as the high turnover rate), since 2016 a process of collective bargaining and organization of the sector has been observed in several countries of the region (López Mourelo, 2020).

In this context, the design and development of collective bargaining strategies during the pandemic may be favoured by the worsening of precarious working conditions. Several protests were organized in the countries, which were coordinated internationally to raise awareness about the labour situation of workers and to demand their rights in the current context. The case of Brazil is perhaps the most illustrative, considering the scale of these protests. In early July 2020, Brazil had the largest protest registered to date in the region.[33] Protests were organized in many countries of the region. In Argentina,

33 Press Correspondence, "La huelga de los repartidores: una nueva forma de organización en la lucha de los trabajadores," 7 August 2020. Available at: https://correspondenciadeprensa.com/2020/07/08/brasil-la- strike-of-the-deliverymen-a-new-form-of-organization-in-the-struggle-of-the-workers

for example, delivery workers mobilized to demand higher pay for each delivery made and the provision of hygiene supplies in the quality and quantity required by health authorities.[34]

Platform workers' demands are usually related to the adoption of health and safety measures, access to benefits that provide a replacement for income lost due to illness and the establishment of pay commensurate with the risks that the work that exposes workers to the virus entail. This last demand was one of the main demands of the strike by delivery workers from six countries in Latin America and Spain on April 22, 2020.[35] Platform workers have also made demands on governments and public officials. These include demand for access to social protection mechanisms, as well as the expansion of coverage of other benefits such as access to low-interest loans and workers' inclusion in income support programmes.[36]

3.2 Teleworking: from expansion triggered by containment measures to challenges for its consolidation

a. Introduction

Teleworking, which refers to work provided outside of the enterprise workplace, has been around for a long time. In fact, one of its forms, home work, has a specific ILO Convention.[37] It states that "the term home work means work carried out by a person, to be referred to as a homeworker, in his or her home or in other premises of his or her choice, other than the workplace of the employer." This definition is based on a spatial reference that defines the place of service delivery, given that in the Fordist-Taylorist model of labour relations, a firm was viewed mainly as part of the industrial sector and consequently as a defined space such as a factory, for example. But in the post-Fordist world of labour relations, an enterprise does not necessarily have a space or workplace that brings together its workers throughout the workday. Rather, work can take place both in and outside of the workplace.

The development of ICT in recent years has made it easier to work outside of company premises. The extensive use of the Internet, the increasing speed of data transmission, and access to powerful, lightweight laptops and smartphones have made it possible to work from home or elsewhere for several occupations. This transformation generated the concept of "telework," which is defined as the use of information and communication technology to work outside the company (Eurofund and ILO, 2017).

Teleworking was only partially practiced prior to the crisis. Workers would regularly or sporadically work at home and at the company on different days of the week. For both employee and employer, this work arrangement was voluntary. Although it had not yet become law in many cases, it was understood that the employer was responsible for providing the necessary equipment, as well as its maintenance, and the teleworker enjoyed the same rights as workers who worked at the company workplace. Among the main motivations for teleworking was the desire for a better work-life balance by eliminating commuting time and adopting a more flexible work schedule.

The pandemic and social distancing or stricter measures such as mandatory quarantines accelerated the adoption of teleworking to maintain economic activity. In response to the emergency, numerous activities began to be carried out remotely. This required considerable flexibility on the part of both enterprises and workers.

During this period, teleworking assumed some characteristics that differed from what had been the usual mode of implementation. The first difference is that it is no longer a voluntary agreement between the parties but rather a binding arrangement imposed by circumstances. Second, teleworking during the

34 *Clarín,* "Coronavirus en Argentina: trabajadores de delivery vuelven a parar en reclamo de aumentos salariales", 8 May 2020. Available at: https://www.clarin.com/sociedad/coronavirus-argentina-trabajadores-delivery-vuelven-parar-reclamo-aumentos-salariales_0_YYqtPExvO.html

35 *Página 12,* "Paro de repartidores de las apps de delivery", 21 April 2020. Available at: https://www.pagina12.com.ar/261225-paro-de-repartidores-de-las-apps-de-delivery

36 The International Social Security Association, "Social security measures for the self-employed during the COVID-19 crisis," 9 April, 2020. Available at: https://ww1.issa.int/news/social-security-measures-self- employed-during-covid-19-crisis

37 Home Work Convention, 1996 (No. 177).

pandemic is fulltime, whereas previously it was generally a part-time or occasional arrangement. Third, while teleworking was initially thought to be a short-term solution, the health crisis in many countries required this arrangement to become more long term and of uncertain duration. Fourth, it was not a planned process that allowed for the acquisition of the equipment, services and materials necessary to work from home. Available resources were used, which were progressively adjusted throughout the months. Lastly, because families were confined to their homes, workers had to telework while bearing a greater burden of family responsibilities, which fell mainly on women. This was especially true in families with young children or with children who also had to participate in online education due to the suspension of in-person schooling.

All of the above makes it necessary to clearly differentiate between what is normal telework and telework during the pandemic. It is often referred to as exceptional and compulsory remote work, to differentiate it from traditional teleworking. Although it is still too early to predict the characteristics of post-pandemic telework, it will likely become part of the way of working for a considerable share of workers.

b. Teleworking potential in Latin America

Different studies around the world have tried to estimate the feasibility of remote work in different countries, which has been referred to as teleworking potential. One of the first studies estimated the percentage of jobs that could be performed remotely in the United States, using the database administered by O*NET, a programme funded by the US Department of Labour that contains specific descriptions, as the main database for more than 1,000 occupations (Dingel and Nieman, 2020). Using two surveys with data prior to the pandemic and with an emphasis on the use of technology in the tasks performed, study findings indicated that 37 per cent of the jobs could be performed from homes in the United States, with significant variation between geographical areas and sectors of activity. Using the same methodology for another 85 countries, the study found that the potential for telework is related to the income of the countries, being lower in the lower income countries. In Europe, it was estimated that 40 per cent of jobs could be done from home (Boeri et al., 2020).

Using the Dingel and Nieman method (2020), Delaporte and Peña (2020) carried out the same exercise using data harmonized by the Inter-American Development Bank for 23 countries in the Americas and the Caribbean. They used the average rate of feasibility of teleworking by occupation of Bolivia and Colombia, applying comparability factors to the other countries. They found that the share of jobs that can be done from home is consistently lower than that resulting from applying the Dingel and Nieman methodology. This is because jobs in the US tend to be more technology-intensive than those in Latin American countries. Table 3.1 lists the estimates resulting from the application of both methodologies in the countries of the region.

▶ **TABLE 3.1.** Estimates of teleworking potential according to the different methodologies

Countries	Telework potencial Dingel & Neiman method (2020)	Telework potential Saltiel method (2020)
Argentina	31%	14%
Bahamas	35%	16%
Barbados	33%	15%
Belize	24%	10%
Bolivia (Pluri. State of)	18%	8%
Brazil	27%	13%
Chile	27%	13%
Colombia	21%	11%
Costa Rica	33%	16%

▶ Continues...

Countries	Telework potencial Dingel & Neiman method (2020)	Telework potential Saltiel method (2020)
Ecuador	19%	9%
Guatemala	14%	7%
Honduras	16%	7%
Jamaica	25%	12%
Mexico	22%	10%
Nicaragua	16%	8%
Panama	26%	14%
Paraguay	23%	10%
Peru	20%	10%
Dominican Republic	16%	9%
Salvador	16%	8%
Trinidad and Tobago	31%	15%
Uruguay	26%	13%
Venezuela (Bol. Republic of)	24%	10%

Source: ILO, based on Delaporte & Peña (2020).

These estimates should be viewed with caution, however, since they are based on occupational characteristics but do not consider other factors that are important when implementing teleworking in practice. The effective implementation of telework requires a decision by the employer, and access to the necessary equipment and to the Internet network with the required capacity, among others. While access to personal computers is relatively easy, Internet and broadband access requires infrastructure. Developing this infrastructure where it is not available takes considerable time and resources. An estimated 44.89 per cent of Latin American households have computers, which would be insufficient to allow several family members to use them at the same time.[38] Table 3.2 lists the percentage of households with Internet and broadband access, revealing important differences across countries.

▶ **TABLE 3.2.** Percentage of households with Internet and broadband access, 2017

Country	Internet	Broadband
Argentina	81.3	66.8
Bolivia (Pluri. State of)	32.2	14.6
Brazil	60.8	47.6
Chile	87.5	63.6
Colombia	49.9	47.6
Costa Rica	68.5	52.6
Ecuador	37.2	49.6
El Salvador	18.0	26.6

▶ Continues...

38 Source, International Telecommunications Union, cited in CAF (2020).

Country	Internet	Broadband
Guatemala	23.6	13.4
Honduras	26.5	12.1
Mexico	50.9	60.5
Nicaragua	18.6	18.3
Panama	60.7	46.8
Paraguay	20.4	15.3
Peru	28.2	32.3
Dominican Republic	28.3	25.8
Uruguay	64.0	69.0
Venezuela (Bol. Republic of)	33.5	36.2

Source: ECLAC, ITC Statistical Information System.

c. Approaches to effective teleworking in Latin America

Despite the growing interest in teleworking, there is still no statistical information that is strictly comparable, or even that adequately reflects its use. A fundamental problem is the lack of a universally accepted definition that allows its measurement based on a series of questions in household surveys. In some cases, only the home is listed as a place to engage in teleworking, while in other cases a broader criterion of working outside the company premises is used. Another controversial issue is whether to consider only those who telework regularly, or to include those who engage in it occasionally; or if it should be differentiated according to the number of days that are worked from home and those that are worked at the company. Additionally, the extent to which information technologies are used to perform the work should be considered to differentiate it from traditional forms of working from home.[39]

Household surveys generally contain questions about where the usual tasks of each job are performed. The fact that they are carried out outside the employer's premises does not necessarily imply that the worker is teleworking, since this requires the use of information technology. However, the onset of the pandemic and the mass confinement (voluntary or compulsory) of the population led to a sharp increase in people working from home, which certainly intensified the use of information technology and ICT development. Consequently, it is reasonable to assert that the rising rates of work from home are indicators of the increase in teleworking.

In Argentina, the Permanent Household Survey contains a question on where work duties are routinely carried out, with one of the possible answers being "in this house." In the first quarter of 2020, the percentage of workers working from home was 6.5 per cent. During the second quarter, during which mandatory confinement measures were in force, this percentage rose to 22 per cent of the employed population (INDEC, 2020).

In Chile, the National Employment Survey surveys employed individuals who work from home. Before the pandemic, around 5 per cent of the employed were in this situation. As a result of the confinement measures initially implemented in late March, this percentage experienced a sharp increase. The survey presents data for moving quarters, which smooths out trends. The first full quarter of the pandemic corresponded to April, May and June, during which the percentage of employed persons working from home rose to 20.3 per cent, that is, quadruple the pre-pandemic level recorded (Table 3.3). Among women, the percentage reached 27.6 per cent, while it was 15.5 per cent among men.

39 For more on this controversy, see ILO-Eurofund (2017).

▶ **TABLE 3.3.** Chile: Percentage of employed persons over age 14 years who work from home, by sex and status in employment

Mobile quarter	Total	Men	Women	Employer	Own-account	Private-sector employee	Public-sector employee	Contributing family workers
NDJ2019	4.8	2.6	4.8	9.5	18.7	0.6	0.2	12.9
DJF2020	5.2	2.9	8.5	10.8	19.9	0.7	0.4	15.9
JFM2020	5.9	3.6	9.3	11.3	21.5	1.3	0.9	19.4
FMA2020	9.5	6.8	13.6	12.4	23.3	5.3	8.2	21.9
MAM2020	16.2	12.2	22.4	13.5	27.1	12.3	19.2	22.0
AMJ2020	20.3	15.5	27.6	15.5	30.4	16.4	25.4	19.9

Source: ILO, based on the National Employment Survey of Chile.

Another survey conducted by the Universidad Católica de Chile estimated slightly higher levels. The survey estimated that 23.7 per cent of employed persons engaged in remote work in April, a proportion that rose to 25.2 per cent in September 2020 (Bravo and Castillo, 2020).

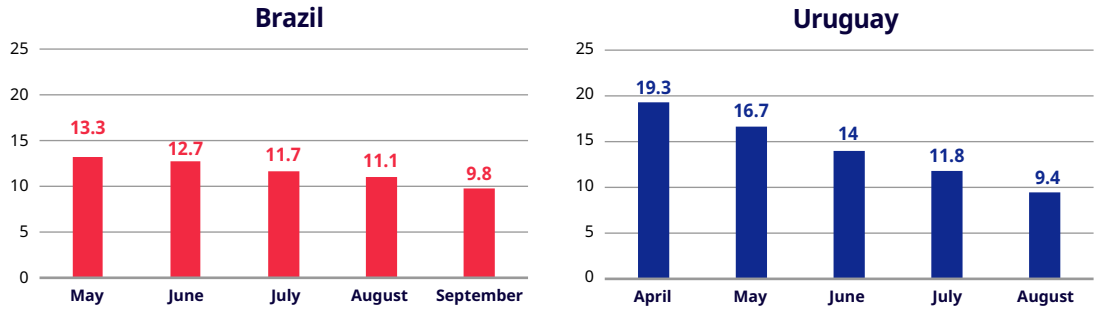
Some countries introduced a specific question to measure the practice of teleworking during the pandemic. In Brazil, between 8.1 and 8.7 million employed persons were working remotely in the May-September period. This represented 13.3 per cent of the employed population in May and 9.8 per cent in September (Figure 2). According to IPEA, this indicates that "the direct effects of the pandemic on the labour market have been slowly diminishing" (IPEA, 2020). While the northern region of the country had the lowest level (just 4.6 per cent in August), the southeastern region recorded the highest level (14 per cent in the same month). The survey also identified important gender differences. The percentage of women who worked remotely in August was 15.7 per cent, as compared with 8 per cent of men.

In Costa Rica, the Continuous Employment Survey for the second quarter of 2020 asked employed persons if they carried out their tasks through teleworking or the Internet. Fourteen per cent said they did. Of these, only 7 per cent said they had teleworked in the same quarter of 2019. Since 17 March, 2020, the Ministry of Labour has kept a record of public officials who are teleworking. On 17 March, only 16,764 civil servants were teleworking; five months later that figure had nearly quadrupled to 63,303 (Ministry of Labour Costa Rica, 2020).

In Mexico, the telephone survey on COVID-19 and the labour market found that in April, 23.5 per cent of all employed persons surveyed worked from home. Among men, 16.6 per cent worked from home, while among women the figure was 34.7 per cent. Some 70 per cent of those who worked from home stated that they had everything they needed, 25.1 per cent reported having only part of what they required, and 4.9 per cent said they did not have the equipment to work from home.

In Uruguay, the Continuous Household Survey, which was conducted online given the pandemic, incorporated a question to capture the incidence of effective teleworking. The highest level was recorded in the month of April, when teleworking reached 19.3 per cent of the employed persons who worked in the reference week (Figure 3.2). Progressively, as the level of activity and the possibility of working on company premises recovered, that level fell to 9.4 per cent in August. For reference, the survey also inquired whether respondents had teleworked regularly the previous year. From 4 to 5 per cent of those surveyed said they had teleworked regularly during 2019. This indicates that the pandemic had quadrupled the incidence of teleworking.

FIGURE 3.2. Teleworking as a percentage of total employed persons in Brazil and Uruguay, 2020



Source: Brazil: PNAD COVID-19; Uruguay: Online Continuous Household Survey.

The cases discussed reveal the sharp increase in teleworking resulting from the restrictions imposed by the pandemic. To the extent that the spread of the virus is controlled, some activities that were carried out remotely will most likely be done in person again. Likewise, part of the workforce that could be more vulnerable in the event of infection will probably continue to telework for a certain time. At any rate, the progressive return to the pre-pandemic health situation will also lead to the implementation of less extreme forms of teleworking than those imposed by the pandemic. Fulltime teleworking is probably not the norm. In every case, efforts should be made to ensure that it is practiced only when both workers and employers agree to it.

The idea of teleworking part of the time will probably resume, combining some days of remote work with others working on the company premises. These mixed mechanisms prevent workers from feeling isolated, as well as help the enterprise to transmit and maintain its work culture. Some surveys have found that many workers are interested in working remotely more often. Likewise, during this period of compulsory telework, many employers who were initially reluctant to implement this form of work confirmed that it is possible to do so without affecting productivity and are therefore more willing to maintain it (ILO, 2020, forthcoming).

d. Advances in the regulation of telework

Some countries of the region had already passed legislation on teleworking prior to the pandemic, or were in the process of doing so. In 2008, Colombia established labour union guarantees and social security for teleworkers.[40] Peru regulated teleworking in 2013 through a brief instrument of just five articles.[41] In 2017, Brazil modified the Labour Legislation Consolidation (CLT), incorporating a chapter on teleworking.[42] More recently, Costa Rica (2019), Panama (February 2020), El Salvador (March 2020), Chile (March 2020) and Argentina (August 2020) passed laws on teleworking.[43] In Uruguay, on 21 April, a bill on telework promotion and regulation was submitted to the Senate and is currently being discussed. Table 3.4 summarizes the topics that have been addressed in each country.

40 Colombia, Law 1,221 (2008).

41 Peru: Law 30.036 (2013).

42 Brazil: Law 13.467 (2017).

43 Costa Rica: Law 9.738 of 19.09.2019; Panama: Law 126 of 02.18.2020; El Salvador: Decree 600 of 20.03.2020; Chile: Law 21.220 of 03.23.2020; Argentina: Law 27,555 of 08.14.2020.

TABLE 3.4. Contents of legislation on teleworking in Latin American countries

	Colombia	Peru	Brazil	Costa Rica	Panama	Ecuador	El Salvador	Chile	Paraguay	Argentina
Provides a legal definition (of telework, teleworker)	X	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x
Refers to employment regulations and conditions (rights, applicability, duration or maximum period, return to the workplace, termination, access to the workplace, rejection, etc.)	X	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Establishes conditions of protection of information and privacy issues				x	x				x	x
Refers to occupational safety and health (equipment, screens, stress and mental health, etc.	X		x	x	x			x	x	x
Includes specific provisions regarding the costs the parties asume, such as transport of the equipment to the worker's home, or equipment maintenance	X	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x

Continues...

	Colombia	Peru	Brazil	Costa Rica	Panama	Ecuador	El Salvador	Chile	Paraguay	Argentina
Includes information on the equipment and compensation for costs in the event the worker has to use his/her own equipment (tools, computer, etc.)		x	x					x		x
Requires a written agreement between the supervisor and the workers, or a reference to the applicable collective agreements as a condition for engaging in telework			x	x	x		x	x	x	x
Requires both supervisors and workers to receive telework training										
Provides information on the organization of work (regular workday, overtime, frequency of telework, workload, workplace, performance evaluation and metrics, monitoring, etc.)	x			x	x		x	x		x
Its application requires some form of consultation with social partners; includes a specific reference to collective representation of teleworkers								x		x

▶ Continues...

	Colombia	Peru	Brazil	Costa Rica	Panama	Ecuador	El Salvador	Chile	Paraguay	Argentina
Requires organizations to designate an individual specifically dedicated to telework (telework supervisor)										
Includes a reference to flexibility or the right to disconnect				x				x	x	x
Includes a reference to the voluntary nature of telework.	x	x	x	x	x		x	x		x
Provides information on how telework should be implemented (implementation procedures) including formalities such as notification of accidents and insurance issues				x						
Includes references to the role of inspection (labour inspector sor workers' representatives) in the teleworker's workplace								x		x

Source: ILO, based on national laws of each country.

As Table 4 shows, legislation on teleworking pre-dates the emergence of COVID-19 in several countries. For this reason, the regulations were not designed to regulate exceptional and compulsory remote work, but rather to regulate teleworking under pre-pandemic conditions.

To address the extraordinary circumstances imposed by the pandemic, some countries have made special provisions. In El Salvador, for example, a recent telework regulation established that "(i)n the event of a national emergency, public calamity, exception regime or suspension of constitutional rights, and disasters, the provisions of Article 7 of the present law shall be omitted" referring to the obligation to sign a teleworking contract or addendum.[44] In Peru, a Ministerial Resolution established the adoption of a "Guide for the application of remote work." [45] In Honduras, the practice of telework was permitted in the public and private sectors, although no specific laws on teleworking were passed.[46] In Bolivia, teleworking was permitted and a regulation for its implementation was adopted.[47] In Paraguay, teleworking was allowed in the private and public sector,[48] while Ecuador approved guidelines for teleworking in the public sector.[49] All of these measures constitute progress in the regulation of telework and its practice during the pandemic.

e. Considerations for the implementation of teleworking and future regulations based on good practices[50]

The rapid expansion of teleworking resulting from the pandemic probably led to its implementation without considering some key factors in some cases. Similarly, the practice of telework will undoubtedly continue to be important once the pandemic is over. It is hoped that telework will become part of the alternatives for the organization of work in the future, supported by the advancement of digitization, communications and technology. Therefore, it is advisable to review the way in which teleworking is being implemented to make the necessary adjustments as soon as possible.

- **Resume the principle of willingness and agreement between the parties**

Originally, the implementation of telework required the expression of interest of the worker and the agreement of the employer. Sometimes a trial period was included, offering the possibility of returning to face-to-face work. The onset of the pandemic dispensed with that procedure, replacing it with the mandatory implementation of remote work. It was understood, however, that this arrangement was in response to an exceptional situation.

As the virus is controlled and firms progressively resume face-to-face work, it is crucial to return to the principle of the voluntary decision of the parties to work remotely part-time or full-time. Ideally, trade unions and employers should assess what occurred during these months and agree on teleworking policies for the new phases. During the transition period, it is advisable to prioritize maintaining teleworking in cases where the return to face-to-face work could present health risks.

Additionally, future legislation on teleworking and the draft legislation currently being processed should define their area of influence. This area should be recognized by collective bargaining mechanisms and/or company bylaws. In this case, certain aspects of teleworking should be considered in relation to the type of work performed and the company's line of business.

- **Working hours and schedule organization**

Several studies have found that working from home tends to lead to longer working hours than does working on company premises, in part because of the time saved on commuting, and the blurring of the boundaries between work and personal life (ILO and Eurofund, 2017). This has also been observed during the pandemic (ILO, 2020, forthcoming). Teleworking appeals to workers in part because of the greater

44 El Salvador, Article 21.

45 Ministerial Resolution No. 072-220-TR, 03/25/2020.

46 Decree 031-2020, March 2020.

47 Supreme Decree No. 4218 and Ministerial Resolution 220/20, April 2020.

48 Emergency Law 6524.

49 Ministerial Agreement 2020/076, March 2020.

50 This section takes as a reference the guidelines established in the ILO practical guide "Teleworking during the COVID-19 pandemic and beyond" (2020).

flexibility to attend to specific responsibilities at home that arise at different times during the day. To do this, they often start the working day earlier and finish later. While this flexibility in the organization of working hours contributes to a better work-life balance, it is important that this does not result in an extension of the workday.

On this issue, the report of the Global Commission on the Future of Work (2019) convened by the ILO raised the need to expand sovereignty over working time.[51] The report promoted the search for agreements "in crafting working-time arrangements that give workers choice over scheduling, subject to the company's needs for greater flexibility." This requires finding new ways to apply maximum working hours, including the right to disconnect.[52]

- **Equipment, training, productivity and protection of workers' right to privacy**

For teleworkers to achieve a similar level of productivity to that of workers performing their duties on company premises requires having similar equipment and technology. Telework also requires a series of applications that facilitate remote access and collaboration. Workers need training in the use of these applications and platforms, as well as access to technical support when they have difficulties.

Workers should not have to personally cover additional expenses that result from working from home. Employers should provide the equipment and materials required and cover any expenses for their operation.[53] The sudden emergence of the pandemic and the forced shift to telework without preparation time required many workers to use their own implements to practice telework. Although this was instrumental in making remote work possible in the emergency, it is important that companies guarantee that each worker has the necessary equipment and materials to perform their work safely and effectively.

Remote work productivity requires good results-based management, clear communication and specific, achievable goals. Although there are a series of tools and software applications to track the activity of remote workers, their use should be avoided as they can invade personal space and violate the right to privacy.

As the use of work performed through ICT expands, and consequently the number of people who telework, there is an evident lack of a specific regulation to protect workers' rights to intimacy and privacy. This should be more appropriately regulated in future teleworking laws and those currently under legislative review.

- **Occupational safety and health**

Teleworking can prevent or reduce some traditional occupational hazards, such as commuting accidents, but it can also lead to some occupational diseases. Heavy workloads and fast-paced work, long working hours, the perception of having to be always available, among many other factors, can negatively affect workers' mental health, triggering work stress, anxiety or depression. Additionally, an inadequate work posture or repetitive movements can cause musculoskeletal disorders in teleworkers, such as cervicalgia and tendinitis. Finally, staring at a data display screen for many hours and inadequate lighting can lead to visual problems.

The sudden mandatory shift to teleworking resulting from the pandemic forced many teleworkers and their employers to quickly adapt to the change, often without regard for ergonomics. Furthermore, the circumstances in which teleworking has developed during this period, with greater isolation, a sedentary lifestyle and problems of achieving a balance between work and family given the closure of educational and care institutions, have produced new psychosocial risk factors.

For all these reasons, it is necessary to recognize the existence of occupational risks associated with teleworking, including psychosocial and ergonomic factors, to prevent them from being ignored and to strengthen the adoption of adequate preventive measures. Health and safety content should be included in regulatory frameworks, such as the right to disconnect and the recognition of the occupational origin

51 "Work for a Brighter Future," Global Commission on the Future of Work (2019).

52 For details, see sections on teleworking and the right to be disconnected in ILO (2018).

53 This can include computer equipment, office furniture, and proportional payment for Internet expenses and electricity, for example.

of some teleworkers' health issues. Legislation should also address insurance coverage mechanisms. Additionally, there should be clearly defined ways for labour inspectorates to verify compliance with regulations.

- **Gender considerations and teleworking during the pandemic**

In societies where household chores are not equally distributed, teleworking can be disadvantageous for women who, by working from home, are further burdened by housework and care responsibilities. This situation clearly worsened during the pandemic and mandatory quarantines.

Enterprises should support women who were forced to perform additional household and care tasks so they can avoid having to reduce their working hours and compromise their careers. As voluntary telework is re-established, policies should be promoted that encourage an equitable distribution of domestic responsibilities between men and women. Additionally, enterprises should ensure that women, including teleworkers, have equal access to work promotions.

- **Organizational culture and dialogue**

The shift from essentially face-to-face to mostly remote work because of the pandemic proved challenging for all enterprises that did so. Each was able to do so based on their own organizational culture developed over time. After several months of full-time teleworking, however, some aspects of this culture may suffer given the compulsory physical isolation and the lack of channels for direct dialogue between workers and employers.

Research findings demonstrate that teams that work remotely face greater communication difficulties than teams that work in person and have face-to-face encounters (see ILO, 2020, forthcoming). Over time, the feeling of isolation increases, and team collaboration may be affected since electronic communication can lead teams to share less information. Moreover, team members may misinterpret messages. Therefore, it is essential to recreate mechanisms for dialogue between the parties, where it is possible to discuss the challenges that each company must address.

- **Legislation and the role of social partners**

As indicated above, several countries in the region have enacted their first laws on teleworking. Experience suggests that in some cases, the subjects covered are insufficient, while some legislative definitions may be too broad for the desirable precision and regulation of the different forms of teleworking. It is highly likely that initiatives will be developed based on the lessons learned over recent months and the increased practice of teleworking.

While regulations may be necessary, they cannot address all issues. There are also several more specific topics which, due to their particularities, should be delegated to collective bargaining between workers and employers, who will be in an excellent position to address issues arising in the different enterprises or types of activity involved.

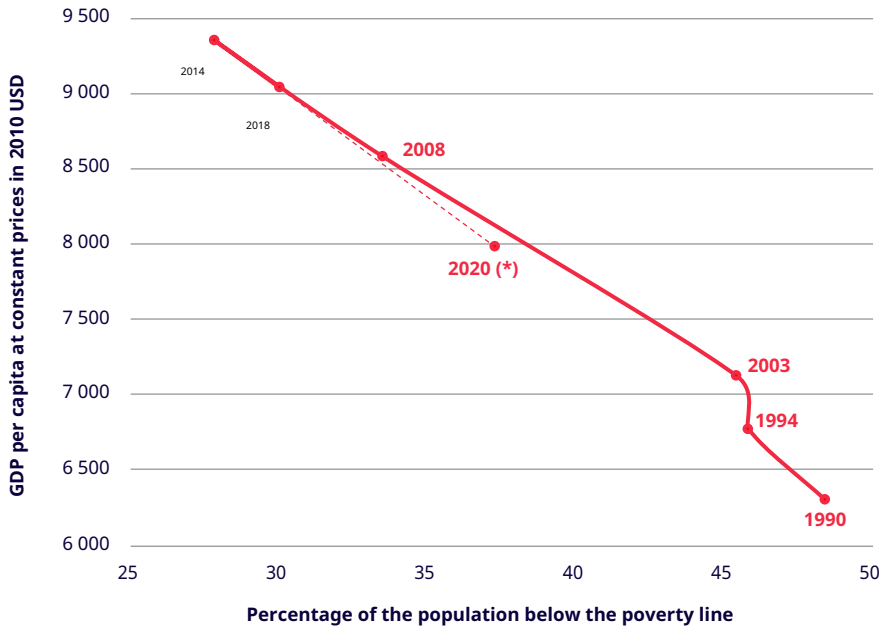
4. Policies for a job recovery from the COVID-19 crisis

4.1 The economic outlook

In the medium term, the goal of socioeconomic development for Latin America and the Caribbean is not only to recover from the losses caused by the current pandemic, but to return to a path of sustainable growth with greater social justice. The region's economic growth had already slowed before the pandemic. Beginning in 2014, the economies of the region stopped growing; GDP per capita in 2019 was 4.2 per cent lower than in 2014. According to ECLAC projections, the region will end 2020 with an average GDP per capita that is some 15 per cent lower than in 2014 (slightly higher than GDP per capita in 2006). Given the destruction of employment and the decrease in income discussed in the labour report of this publication, ECLAC estimates that the poverty rate will increase to 37 per cent in 2020, almost 10

percentage points higher than in 2014. These figures would mean that the region has regressed to pre-2008 levels (Figure 4.1).

▶ FIGURE 4.1. Latin America and the Caribbean. GDP per capita and poverty, 1990-2020



Source: ILO, based on ECLAC data.

Coupled with the economic slowdown, global trade has also slowed significantly over the past decade. Latin American exports lost much of the dynamism they had until 2007. As discussed earlier in the labour report, exports have begun to recover from the initial impact of the pandemic, but the horizon of this recovery points to modest growth.

Even if the world economy recovers quickly from the severe recession caused by the health emergency and economic activity returns to pre-pandemic levels in 2021, it is unlikely that the growth of emerging economies will be able to rely on participation in international trade flows, as they did in the years prior to 2008. The most likely scenario is that the world will return to a situation characterized by relatively low growth rates in global activity and trade. In other words, international trade volume by itself will no longer be the driver of the region's economic growth. It is not clear to what extent domestic markets can compensate for the sluggish growth of international trade.

The economies of the region need foreign currency to grow, so it is crucial to determine what type of international trade can guarantee export earnings capable of financing economic growth while avoiding external imbalances, which often lead to unsustainable debt, triggering severe crises. This is especially concerning given that current debt levels are already relatively high and are rising.

Thus, to grow in a sustained, stable manner, the region needs to increase its exports, even modestly, and it must do so in a world where international trade of goods and services will be less dynamic, at least for some time. Consequently, the countries of the region need to define a strategy that allows adding value and knowledge to their offer, while also taking advantage of their relative abundance of natural resources.

At least in part, the region's economic development also requires incorporation into new global supply chains, which link production from different parts of the world, or access to new links within these chains, to stimulate demand for quality employment. Examples include moving from the production of soybeans and soybean oil, produced by Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay and Uruguay, to the production of organic food; shifting from the production of metals, produced by Chile and Peru, to the production of special materials or biomaterials. After a few years, when the pandemic is under control, Mexico and the countries of

the Caribbean and Central America could move from offering beach tourism to adventure and health tourism, or to tourism focused on visiting archaeological sites or natural reserves.

The challenge is not easy, given the direct and disruptive impact of the pandemic on international trade and global supply chains (ILO, 2020b). In an exploratory study of nine global supply chains prior to and during the pandemic in the countries of the Southern Cone of Latin America (forthcoming), Valenzuela and Reinecke identified both temporary and structural impacts for these national cases.

Regarding the more permanent structural changes, in Uruguay's global services, many enterprises are moving towards sophisticated services with higher added value, which should lead to wage increases in this chain. Chile is incorporating and developing ICT in marketing and sales in the wine value chain. Several countries are incorporating this technology in the apparel industry given the impossibility of accessing markets due to closure of points of sale. E-commerce management offices are being created or reinforced. Online marketing has also been strengthened, implying an important change in the configuration of the chain since marketing generates a significant percentage of added value. For example, the sale price of wine in specialty stores is approximately three times the price paid to the vineyard. According to an expert from the Chilean wine industry, the direct sale by vineyards to final consumers and restaurants "is a great opportunity for well-prepared small producers." The gaps between large enterprises and some small and medium-sized enterprises have narrowed in the case of wine producers and some apparel manufacturers that can promote direct sales and incorporate added value in designs or other aspects. Thus, these small businesses can potentially improve revenue and job quality. At the same time, however, the gap in the apparel industry has widened between formal (linked to brands) and informal (popular markets) enterprises, as well as between small producers in the wine chain.

The current pandemic has also enabled enterprises in the region to identify new opportunities to strengthen their participation in global supply chains of pharmaceutical products and medical equipment. Most of the countries in the region are net importers of medical equipment from high-income countries and have only limited exports in this area. Only Mexico, Costa Rica and the Dominican Republic are production centers for multinational companies, which mainly supply the US market, while all other countries in the region show high trade deficits (ECLAC, 2020a, p. 169).

Additionally, the shift to more environmentally sustainable technologies can be an opportunity for business development and job creation in the region. For example, countries with a developed automotive industry (Argentina, Brazil and Mexico) could manufacture electric buses and cars and convert regular buses to clean ones (ECLAC, 2020a, pp. 148-151). The *maquila* industry in countries such as Paraguay, which already has experience in automotive electrical systems, could also benefit.

The successful examples of global pulp and service supply chains in Uruguay can help guide policies to support this development by combining measures to attract investment with the increased availability of skilled labour, together with labour regulations that promote production and labour ecosystems with higher systemic productivity.

For economic growth to be sustained and inclusive, in addition to exports, it is necessary to boost investments and private consumption. These two key variables were hit hard following the stricter isolation measures applied to control the pandemic. In late 2020, both variables significantly recovered compared with previous months but are still below pre-pandemic levels. The uncertain health situation and its economic consequences are slowing investment decisions. The prospect of an effective vaccine to control the pandemic quickly can serve to lift that brake. At any rate, public investment should be responsible for stimulating this process, with an additional focus on job creation (as discussed in the next section), and at the same time encouraging private investment in strategic areas for long-term growth, such as investments in activities that protect the environment.

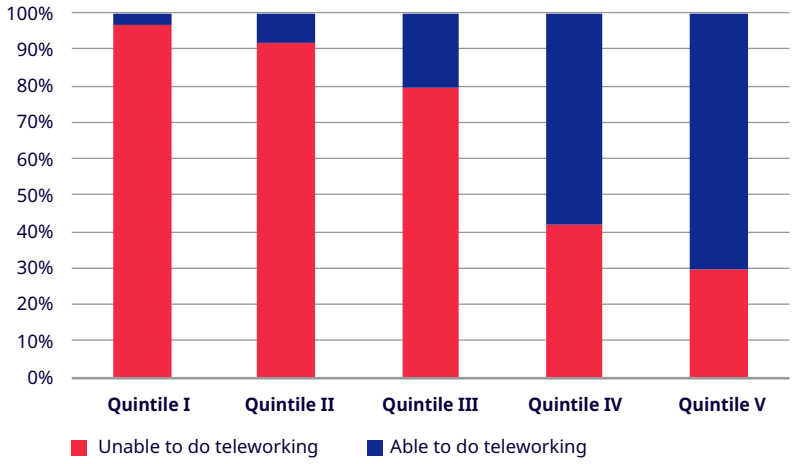
On the consumption side, the outlook will be directly associated with employment and income trends. As discussed in the labour report of this publication, the region's labour markets were significantly impacted. Governments implemented policies to mitigate this impact. The lifting of the strictest distancing measures enables a recovery in employment. This has been a slow, difficult process, however, for which reason the growth momentum is expected to be moderate. The countries of the region must implement policies to reactivate employment.

4.2 Harnessing technologies for decent work

Around the world, the pandemic has driven a "forced digitization" (Bertschek 2020), sharply accelerating the use of technologies that were already developed and available, but that were being used only in some enterprises and potential application contexts. It has also meant a push for robotics and the use of artificial intelligence technologies (MIT, 2020). However, these cutting-edge technologies do not necessarily have the greatest impact on labour markets; rather, these markets can most benefit from the mature technologies (such as the Internet, personal computers and smartphones) that are available without major access or price barriers in the countries of the region. Thus, there is an opportunity to narrow the digital divide in relation to the most advanced countries, as well as within countries (between urban and rural areas, and between employed persons of different socioeconomic levels).

In this context, public policies should contribute to closing digital divides through investments, both in connectivity and in vocational training, including in remote areas where small providers in the weakest links of several global value chains operate. The persistence of current gaps would prevent many enterprises and workers from taking advantage of post-pandemic reactivation opportunities. For example, a considerable share of people who could work from home are limited by the lack of connectivity (ECLAC, 2020b, p. 8). This lack of connectivity is concentrated in the lowest-income quintiles (Figure 4.2).

▶ **FIGURE 4.2.** Latin America (6 countries) a/: Employed persons according to the possibility of teleworking and quintile of average wage of the occupations (Percentages)



Source: ECLAC (2020), p.8.
a/ Weighted average of Chile, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Mexico and Uruguay.

In the region, 67 per cent of urban households have Internet connections, while in rural areas, this figure decreases to just 23 per cent. In countries such as Bolivia, El Salvador, Paraguay and Peru, more than 90 per cent of rural households do not have an Internet connection. Even in wealthier countries, such as Chile, Costa Rica and Uruguay, only about half of rural households are connected (ECLAC 2020, p.3). These connectivity gaps in rural areas obviously have negative implications for the development of supply chains based on natural resources and especially for the development potential of suppliers in the weakest links of the chains.

Although enterprises have a high level of connectivity (nearly 90 per cent) and 80 per cent use e-banking, the use of digital technologies in management and marketing processes (use of the Internet in the supply chain, processing, manufacturing, operations and distribution channels) lags far behind that of more advanced economies. While 70 per cent of enterprises in the countries of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) use the Internet in their supply chain, in Latin American countries with available data, this figure is only 37 per cent (ECLAC , 2020b, p.15).

In the context of the pandemic, the online presence of retail companies increased 431 per cent between June 2019 and June 2020. The increase in the case of restaurants and food delivery services was 331 per cent, and in business services, 311 per cent (ECLAC 2020, p. 14). However, an important part of

e-commerce is generated through platforms specializing in the delivery of food and prepared meals, in turn creating an important market power. The strengthening of the role of technologies and digital platforms has increased the need for regulatory frameworks to prevent abuses of market power resulting from concentration to encourage competition (ECLAC, 2020a, p. 164).

Also worrisome in this context are the gaps in problem-solving skills in technological environments between the populations of Latin American countries and OECD countries. This may become even more important than in more traditional skills, representing a daunting challenge for updating the contents and teaching methods of vocational training (OECD, 2020, Figure 3.10).

To increase the productive specialization of enterprises in the countries of the region and improve their position in supply chains, they should avoid competing only through low labour costs or non-compliance with regulations (Dewan and Ernst, 2020) . To this end, modern regulations are required that consider the new productive and labour reality. The adequate regulation of teleworking and platform work are examples, as analyzed earlier in this report.

Adequate enforcement of these regulations is also crucial. To this end, tools for analyzing administrative records can be used, among others, as per the conclusions of the ILO Commission on the Future of Work: "Technology, including artificial intelligence, robotics and sensors, carries with it countless opportunities to improve work: the extraction of knowledge through the use of data mining can assist labour administrations to identify high-risk sectors and improve labour inspection systems; digital technologies such as apps and sensors can make it easier for companies and social partners to monitor working conditions and labour law compliance in supply chains." (ILO, 2019, p.43-44).

Policies will be important for promoting the formalization of the economy and employment in the post-pandemic context. These include policies that promote "e-formality," [54] such as designing flexible, easy and inexpensive systems to enable new ventures, many of them digital, to automatically become formal and to facilitate the online formalization of groups of workers that previously had high rates of informality.

4.3 Policies to reactivate employment

As the health restrictions on economic and labour activity imposed by the pandemic diminish, policy options will expand to promote employment reactivation. During 2020, several countries implemented policies to subsidize the income of wage earners who could not perform their jobs because of health restrictions. As previously discussed, as restrictions were lifted, several countries refocused subsidies to encourage return to employment.

The challenge, then, is to identify the best intervention strategies to underpin and strengthen the economic recovery with job creation and the re-entry of people who lost their jobs or had their sources of labour income greatly reduced. The countries of the region have different schemes of active labour market policies with a variety of designs, requirements and target populations, implemented from diverse government spheres. In principle, these could achieve the dual objective of providing income to people with greater difficulties entering the labour force while simultaneously helping them to obtain a quality job placement. However, the scope of these polices remains insufficient and possibilities for formal employment after the individuals leave the transfer programme are typically low. The challenge at this juncture is even greater given the considerable uncertainty regarding the characteristics and intensity of post-pandemic growth trajectories.

Recently, some countries of the region have implemented policies designed to create new formal jobs through an economic stimulus to private enterprises for hiring of labour or encouraging the return of furloughed workers. The region already had considerable experience with this type of intervention. In addition to design aspects to minimize, for example, the "dead weight" effect (when hiring would have taken place even without the programme), the effectiveness of these policies depends on the speed of the economic reactivation that effectively generates an increase in labour demand.

54 See https://www.ilo.org/employment/areas/e-formality/lang--en/index.htm. One example is Uruguay's electronic registry of domestic service workers

In this context of considerable uncertainty, access to these subsidies should be extended well into 2021, perhaps in a more targeted way. For example, essential sectors that maintained their activity throughout the entire period could be excluded. Instead, more emphasis could be placed on the industries that suffered the most setbacks in the recovery process (such as tourism). Finally, as people who lost their jobs during the pandemic start to return to the labour market, the focus should be on targeting groups that face greater difficulties in finding employment.

Occupational safety and health should play a leading role in the strategy to recover employment, particularly in terms of biological risks caused by COVID-19. Countries have been incorporating and gradually increasing mechanisms to ensure that policies, institutions, companies and workers take the necessary preventive measures. Nevertheless, given that the potential recovery will most likely occur while there is still a pandemic, the strengthening of job security will be necessary to guarantee a safe, healthy return to activities. Other dimensions, such as psychosocial risks, have also become increasingly important, for example, in the segments where telework has intensified. Thus, employment quality and the sustainability of enterprises and their productivity are increasingly associated with these factors and areas of labour policies.

Also associated with these active labour market policies is the crucial discussion of the sustainability and design of cash transfer programmes for the post-pandemic informal population. Given the extent and intensity of the crisis, these programmes managed to reach the population that was not traditionally covered by this type of scheme. In the framework of reduced fiscal spaces and on par with the economic recovery, it is important to improve identification of potential recipients and their characteristics to implement the different current and future mechanisms more effectively and efficiently. Additionally, governments should assess the design of these programmes to promote rather than hinder an environment conductive to the creation of formal jobs. In this sense, the integration of cash transfer policies to the working-age population with policies for vocational training and support for labour entry pose a highly relevant challenge in the current context. This evaluation is even more crucial given that informality will likely have increased, not only among the population that left the labour force and those who were unemployed, but also among workers who still have an employment contract but no longer hold formal employment given the reduced social protection.

Latin America has extensive experience with different types of active labour market policies. These include strategies designed to support the growth of own-account employment or microenterprises. The weakening of formal job creation may also lead to an increased transition from wage employment to own-account employment. This type of employment is largely characterized by low profitability and income levels. The public policy challenge is to improve microenterprises' business environment, access to credit, market knowledge and technology access to promote the survival and formalization of these entities and their workers.

Public investment is also used as a countercyclical measure in situations of economic contraction, or to sustain and promote initial phases of economic recovery, as some countries of the region have done in previous crises (Reinecke, 2009). As quarantine measures are eased and activity is resumed, governments will likely increase public investment to partially offset the decline in private investment. The selection of investment projects to be prioritized must follow the efficiency criteria required under normal conditions, but employment should be prioritized in investment projects. Additionally, public investments should be incorporated into employment recovery strategies (Pastor et al. al., 2020). It is not necessarily a matter of generating new projects, but rather of giving priority to those forming part of project portfolios with positive social evaluations and that also create more jobs per unit invested. They should be projects that can be executed quickly and, most importantly, they should be in areas of high unemployment. In this context of limited mobility, it is important to identify initiatives that allow the hiring of local labour or those close to the work site to minimize travel and exposure to the virus.

These public investment projects, which are typically managed by the Ministries of Public Works, can be complemented with emergency public employment programmes for smaller-scale projects that help offset job losses. These programmes should have a strong local component. Municipalities should identify potential works and coordinate concrete projects with the network of NGOs and small businesses active in the community. The local employment office can play an active role in identifying unemployed workers

who meet programme requirements. It is essential to develop an active, comprehensive employment policy that considers geographic location in its design and implementation.

The reactivation of women's employment is linked to the reopening of educational institutions and care services. Specifically, it is important to take advantage of the period before the 2021 school year to achieve the health security conditions that will enable reopening. In addition to enabling face-to-face teaching for the effective learning and social development of children and young people, especially those in vulnerable situations, this reopening contributes significantly to a better work-life balance. Given that women are most affected by this situation, the reopening of these services will enable them to fully return to the labour market. Coordination, dialogue and agreements among the different social partners, including educational workers' organizations, are also crucial given the geographical location and important decentralization of educational services.

The crisis presents the opportunity to restructure labour and social protection institutions to advance strategies for more permanent jobs and social protection floors, as well to develop a comprehensive employment policy that accompanies or is part of the economic recovery strategy. The adaptation of some labour institutions such as unemployment insurance already constitutes progress in this area. Designing a system to protect against unemployment that includes granting benefits for suspension or reduction of working hours, improves coverage while maintaining the employment relationship. These systems will undoubtedly serve in future systemic or sector crises that may affect the region.

Finally, to formulate, implement and monitor measures such as those described in this section, or others that aim to create more and better jobs, requires coordination between several public institutions and the participation of social partners from the world of work. Although most Latin American and Caribbean countries have made significant advances in their labour policies and institutions, the concept of a "national employment policy" or "national employment strategy" is used less frequently than in other regions.

Regardless of the term used, and even though the Ministry of Labour is not responsible for "creating jobs," the linkage and impact of employment-promotion measures greatly benefit from coordination between the Ministry of Labour and other government entities. They are also enriched by consultation with workers' and employers' organizations. In response to the COVID-19 crisis, countries that already have national employment policies must adapt and update them (for example, by adjusting the sequence of actions to the phases of the pandemic and incorporating occupational health as a key policy component). Countries that do not yet have an employment policy should develop one (ILO, 2020c).

A national employment policy initiative can include several key components for achieving a better and fuller recovery and for adapting to changes in the organization of production and employment in the context of the future of work. These include:

- Vocational training
- Public employment services
- Occupational safety and health
- Labour inspection
- Social dialogue institutions
- Social security in terms of income security for people of working age (including income and wage protection policies)
- Strengthening of statistics offices and labour market observatories

The development of a national employment policy also provides an opportunity to coordinate efforts to assist groups facing the greatest labour market difficulties, such as heads of highly vulnerable households; women, particularly low-skilled women in households with children and adolescents; and youth and persons with disabilities.

The necessary resources should be allocated to ensure the implementation and sustainability of these policies. Monitoring mechanisms based on administrative records and survey data should be implemented. Strengthening of labour market observatories is a core component of these efforts.

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2020 LABOUR OVERVIEW

Latin America and the Caribbean

COVID-19 Edition

Explanatory Note

Explanatory Note

> The ILO prepares the statistical information published in the Labour Overview using information from different official sources of statistics of Latin America and the Caribbean.

The ILO prepares the statistical information published in the *Labour Overview* using information from different official sources of statistics of Latin America and the Caribbean. In the first edition of the *Labour Overview* in 1994, household surveys in most countries of the region were limited to urban areas, many of which were restricted to the countries' leading cities or urban centres. Thus, to cover the most countries, the *Labour Overview* opted to generate a statistical series limited to urban areas.

For the first time, in the 2015 edition, the *Labour Overview* incorporated a series with national data as a complement to the urban series. Additionally, while its content always considered a gender perspective, all key indicators contained in the statistical annexes are now disaggregated by sex. In 2016 edition, the ILO carefully revised and updated the national and urban coverage series (see the Explanatory Note in the 2016 *Labour Overview*).

In 2018, when the *Labour Overview* commemorated 25 years of uninterrupted publication, the ILO Regional Office for Latin America and the Caribbean convened a work team to conduct a methodological review of the statistical process. The goal was to improve the statistical quality and consistency of the indicators on which this publication is based, as well as to harmonize these indicators with other indicators of ILO publications. This is especially relevant given that national statistics institutes of the region have been proactive in updating their survey systems, adapting them to changing national realities and incorporating recent resolutions that adopt international standards.

This meeting resulted in significant adjustments in the statistical annex in terms of both content and form. These include the definition and adoption of a new set of weighting factors to estimate regional averages, the strengthening of a series of indicators with national coverage, the revision of wage indicators and the introduction of a new series of indicators to complement the national series, among others (see ILO, 2018).

I. Effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on the generation of statistical data of countries of the region and in the statistical annex of the 2020 Labour Overview

In 2020, the COVID-19 pandemic triggered an unprecedented crisis in the labour market. Given the negative impact on labour indicators, which translates into millions of people affected, this technical note of the *Labour Overview* will concentrate on summarizing the main effects of this pandemic on the

generation and availability of statistical data required for tracking labour market indicators and decision-making in this field.

The pandemic led countries to adopt several measures to stem the spread of the virus. The countries of the region applied diverse measures, but most focused on social distancing, restricting mobility, suspending economic activities and closing of country borders.

Given this situation, national statistics offices (NSOs) of the region have faced enormous challenges for maintaining the implementation of labour force surveys and the availability of indicators derived from them with the quality fitting of official statistics. These challenges forced NSOs to adopt measures ranging from the temporary suspension of labour force surveys, in the most extreme cases, to the significant modification of the statistical processes involved in a survey of the labour force, such as: total or partial replacement of the face-to-face interview with telephone interviews; reduction of the content of the questionnaires; incorporation of questions related to the effects of the pandemic on labour conditions and relations; and adjustments in sample designs, both panel-type and independent-sample designs, especially to eliminate potential biases, among other measures implemented.

Although these measures obviously had an impact on the statistical data, at this point during the pandemic, the unwanted implications cannot yet be detailed in all their magnitude. Some of the effects evidenced so far include:

1. Impacts related to the availability of indicators, mainly those associated with certain disaggregated data, such as those related to geographic coverage, and those linked to population structure (sex and age), without ruling out disaggregation of relevant indicators of the labour market such as hours worked, income, informality, etc. Of the 26 countries in the region on which the *Labour Overview* reports statistical information, 15 have managed to produce labour market data at some point during the first three quarters of 2020 while 11 have no data available for the third quarter of this year. The countries in the latter group are concentrated in the subregions of the Caribbean and Central America.

2. Given all the changes mentioned, it is extremely difficult to maintain the statistical series without interruptions. The NSOs have made considerable efforts to maintain the delivery of the official statistics while first prioritizing their quality and secondly the comparability of the series as far as possible. However, given the changes in data collection methods, in sample designs, etc., methodologically, 2020 data cannot be considered strictly comparable with the series up to 2019. For this reason, despite NSO efforts, analysts should treat the indicators presented with caution and as a reference only, especially those referring to year-over-year variations. Additionally, the comparability of the series of regional averages presented in the statistical annex of the *Labour Overview* may be affected by the fact that only 15 of the 26 countries considered in the statistical annex presented data at some point during the period between January and September 2020. Nevertheless, these 15 countries with available information account for 87.5 per cent of the regional labour force.

   Effects on the quality and accuracy of the estimates. These effects are related, among other aspects, to the increase in the non-response rate –which was largely influenced by the switch to telephone operations-, the rejection of interviews, as well as variations in the geographical distribution of the sample in the cases in which this occurred. To minimize the potential bias generated, and to guarantee the quality and technical accuracy of the indicators as much as possible, most NSOs worked hard to have statistical models and techniques to calibrate and adjust the expansion factors to achieve that goal. At the same time, they made important efforts to disseminate the techniques applied, which contributes to building user trust in official statistics. Finally, NSOs did not alter the conceptual and methodological framework or the operational definitions of the main indicators of their labour force surveys during the pandemic. The latter is consistent with ILO recommendations for this period. During this difficult period, and in accordance with the strategic partnership established by ECLAC and the ILO for these issues, the NSOs in the region have had the support of the ILO for conceptual and methodological issues, and of ECLAC for sample design.

II. Concepts and definitions

The national definitions of several statistical concepts applied in the *Labour Overview* are generally based on the standards of the International Conferences of Labour Statisticians (ICLS), although some are defined according to standards developed for this publication to the extent that the processes following national criteria imply a partial adherence to international standards. In 2013, the 19th ICLS adopted the "Resolution concerning statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization," through which it revised and expanded on the "Resolution concerning statistics of the economically active population, employment, unemployment and underemployment" adopted by the 13th ICLS (1983). Given that the countries of the region have not yet fully incorporated the provisions of the new resolution in effect into the conceptual framework of their surveys, the concepts and definitions detailed below largely maintain the conceptual framework of the 13th ICLS, although they do include elements of the new provisions.

"The national definitions of several statistical concepts applied in the *Labour Overview* are generally based on the standards of the International Conferences of Labour Statisticians (ICLS) [...].

Employed persons are those individuals above a certain specified age who, during the brief reference period of the survey (which can be a week, a month or a quarter) were employed for at least one hour in: (i) wage or salaried employment, in other words, they worked during the reference period for a wage or salary, or who were employed but without work due to a temporary absence during the reference period, during which time they maintained a formal tie with their job, or (ii) own-account employment, working for profit or family income (includes contributing family workers), or not working independently due to a temporary absence during the reference period. It should be noted that not all countries require verification of formal ties with the establishments that employ those temporarily absent, nor do they necessarily follow the same criteria. Furthermore, some countries do not explicitly include the hour criterion but rather establish it as an instruction in the interviewers' handbook. In the case of contributing family workers, countries may establish a minimum number of hours to classify them as employed.

Unemployed persons include individuals over a specified age that, during the reference period, (i) are not employed; (ii) are actively searching for a job; and (iii) are currently available for a job. It should be noted that not all countries of the region apply these three criteria to estimate the number of unemployed persons. Some countries include in the unemployed population individuals who did not actively seek employment during the established job-search period.

The economically active population (EAP) or labour force includes all individuals who, being of at least a specified minimum age, fulfill the requirements to be included in the category of employed or unemployed individuals. In other words, it is the sum of the categories of employed and unemployed individuals.

The employment-to-population ratio is the number of employed individuals divided by the working-age population multiplied by 100 and denotes the level of exploitation of the working-age population.

The unemployment rate is the number of unemployed persons divided by the labour force multiplied by 100 and represents the proportion of the labour force that does not have work.

The labour force participation rate labour force divided by the working-age population and multiplied by 100 and represents the proportion of the working-age population or labour force that actively participates in the labour market.

Wages and salaries refer to payment in cash and/or in kind (for example foodstuffs or other articles) that employees receive, usually at regular intervals, for the hours worked or the work performed, along with pay for periods not worked, such as annual vacations or holidays.

Average monthly real wage considers the monthly wage in cash or in kind, including overtime hours and bonuses, earned by urban employees aged 15 and over in their main occupation, which is deflated by the Consumer Price Index (CPI) at the national level (the same one used for the deflation of the minimum wage series). Coverage of the average monthly real wage includes employees of the private, public and domestic sectors, disaggregated by sex and youth aged 15 to 24. It includes all employees who in the reference period of the survey declared that they received a monetary and/or in-kind payment, and with few exceptions, corresponds to the gross wage, in other words, before deductions. The average monthly real wage index is constructed using 2012 as the base year.

Real minimum wages are defined as the value of the monthly nominal minimum wage deflated using the CPI on the national scale. Most of the countries have a single minimum wage. Nonetheless, in some countries, the minimum wage is differentiated by industry and/or occupation, in which case the minimum-minimorum wage of the industry is used as the reference. The real minimum wage index was constructed using 2012 as the base year.

▸ III. International comparability

Progress toward harmonizing concepts and methodologies of statistical data that facilitate international comparisons is directly related to the situation and development of the statistical system in each country of the region. This largely depends on institutional efforts and commitments for implementing resolutions adopted in the ICLS or regional integration agreements on statistical issues. Efforts should focus on information needs, infrastructure and level of development of the data collection system (based primarily on labour force sample surveys), as well as on guaranteeing the availability of human and financial resources to this end. The comparability of labour market statistics in Latin America and the Caribbean is mainly hampered by the lack of conceptual and methodological standardization of key labour indicators. This is also true of related variables, since countries may have different concepts for geographic coverage, minimum working-age thresholds and different reference periods. They may also use different versions of international classification manuals. In recent years, statistics institutes of the countries of the region have made significant efforts to adjust the conceptual framework of employment surveys to comply with international standards, which has led to advances in standardization and comparability at the regional level.

▸ IV. Information sources

Most of the information on employment indicators, real wages, productivity and GDP growth (expressed in constant monetary units) for the countries of Latin America and the Caribbean presented in the *Labour Overview* originate from household surveys, establishment surveys or administrative records. These are available on the websites of the following institutions:

Argentina
Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas y Censos –INDEC– (www.indec.mecon.ar) and Ministerio de Producción y Trabajo (www.argentina.gob.ar/produccion).

Bahamas
Department of Statistics (www.statistics.bahamas.gov.bs).

Barbados
Ministry of Labour (https://labour.gov.bb), Barbados Statistical Service (http://www.barstats.gov.bb/) and The Central Bank of Barbados (www.centralbank.org.bb).

Belize
Statistical Institute of Belize (www.sib.org.bz).

Bolivia
Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas –INE– (www.ine.gob.bo).

Brazil
Instituto Brasileño de Geografía y Estadísticas –IBGE– (www.ibge.gov.br) and Ministerio do Trabalho e Emprego (www.mte.gov.br).

Chile
Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas –INE– (www.ine.cl), Banco Central de Chile (www.bcentral.cl), Ministerio de Desarrollo Social (www.ministeriodesarrollosocial.gob.cl), Ministerio de Trabajo y Previsión Social (www.mintrab.gob.cl) and Dirección de Trabajo del Ministerio de Trabajo y Previsión Social (www.dt.gob.cl).

Colombia
Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadísticas –DANE– (www.dane.gov.co), Banco de la República de Colombia (www.banrep.gov.co) and Ministerio de Trabajo (www.mintrabajo.gov.co).

Costa Rica
Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas y Censos –INEC– (www.inec.go.cr), Banco Central de Costa Rica (www.bccr.fi.cr), Ministerio de Trabajo y Seguridad Social (www.mtss.go.cr) and Caja Costarricense de Seguridad Social (http://www.ccss.sa.cr/).

Dominican Republic
Banco Central de la República Dominicana (www.bancentral.gov.do) and Ministerio de Trabajo (www.ministeriodetrabajo.gov.do).

Ecuador
Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Censo (www.ecuadorencifras.gob.ec) and Ministerio de Relaciones Laborales (www.relacioneslaborales.gov.ec).

El Salvador
Ministerio de Economía –MINEC– (www.minec.gob.sv), Dirección General de Estadística y Censo (www.digestyc.gob.sv) y Ministerio de Trabajo y Previsión Social (www.mtps.gob.sv).

Granada
Central Statistics Office (www.finance.gd/index.php/central-statistics-office).

Guatemala
Instituto Nacional de Estadística (www.ine.gob.gt) and Ministerio de Trabajo y Previsión Social (www.mintrabajo.gob.gt).

Honduras
Instituto Nacional de Estadística –INE– (www.ine.gob.hn), Banco Central (www.bch.hn) and Secretaría de Trabajo y Seguridad Social (www.trabajo.gob.hn).

Jamaica
Statistical Institute of Jamaica (www.statinja.gov.jm) and Bank of Jamaica (www.boj.org.jm).

Mexico
Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía –INEGI– (www.inegi.org.mx) and Secretaría del Trabajo y Previsión Social (www.stps.gob.mx).

Nicaragua
Instituto Nacional de Información de Desarrollo –INIDE– (www.inide.gob.ni), Ministerio de Trabajo (www.mitrab.gob.ni) and Banco Central de Nicaragua (http://www.bcn.gob.ni/).

Panama
Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Censo –INEC– (www.contraloria.gob.pa/inec) and Ministerio de Trabajo y Desarrollo Laboral (www.mitradel.gob.pa).

Paraguay
Dirección General de Estadística, Encuesta y Censo (www.dgeec.gov.py) and Banco Central del Paraguay –BCP– (www.bcp.gov.py).

Peru
Instituto Nacional de Estadística e Informática –INEI– (www.inei.gob.pe), Banco Central de Reserva del Peru (www.bcrp.gob.pe) and Ministerio de Trabajo y Promoción del Empleo (www.mintra.gob.pe).

Saint Lucia
The Central Statistical Office of Saint Lucia (www.stats.gov.lc).

Trinidad and Tobago
Central Bank of Trinidad and Tobago (www.central-bank.org.tt) and the Central Statistical Office (www.cso. planning.gov.tt).

Uruguay
Instituto Nacional de Estadística –INE– (www.ine.gub.uy).

Venezuela
Instituto Nacional de Estadística –INE– (www.ine.gov.ve) and Banco Central de Venezuela (www.bcv. gov.ve).

▸ V. General considerations

The information on labour indicators and data on the employment structure indicators for Latin American and Caribbean countries presented in the *Labour Overview* are obtained from national household surveys and administrative records. These sources are processed by the ILO/SIALC team (Labour Information and Analysis System for Latin America and the Caribbean.

Several of the household surveys have undergone methodological changes or have made adjustments to the sampling frame and to the weighting factors, for which reason the contents of the series changed household surveys, which may affect the comparability of information across years. The most significant changes occurred in Mexico (2005, 2010, 2014); Argentina (2003); Bolivia (Pluri. State of) (2016); Brazil (2002, 2012); Colombia (2007); Nicaragua (2009); Costa Rica and Chile (2010); Guatemala (2010-2011) and Paraguay (2010-2017); Ecuador; El Salvador and Uruguay (2014); and the Dominican Republic (2015). These breaks in the statistical series are indicated in the tables with a double red line to facilitate reading. In some cases, the notes of the tables provide additional information following accepted international usage to prevent mistaken conclusions of comparisons with respect to the corresponding years. The footnotes of the tables of the Statistical Annex provide clarifying details.

Moreover, while the *Labour Overview* uses official unemployment rates and labour force participation rates of Colombia, Ecuador, Jamaica and Panama to calculate the respective regional series of averages, hidden unemployment was excluded given that official information of those countries considers hidden unemployment within the labour force. This is how the harmonized series is obtained, considering the criterion of open unemployment applied by most countries.

Following recommendations of the National Statistics and Census Institute of Argentina (INDEC), given the "statistical emergency" declared in 2016, beginning with that year's edition of the *Labour Overview*, statistics on labour market indicators of Argentina for the period 2007-2015 have not been included.

> The information on labour indicators and data on the employment structure indicators for Latin American and Caribbean countries presented in the *Labour Overview* are obtained from national household surveys and administrative records. These sources are processed by the ILO/SIALC team (Labour Information and Analysis System for Latin America and the Caribbean.

The INDEC reviewed and evaluated the Encuesta Permanente de Hogares and in the annex to the corresponding press release published on 23 August 2016 stated:

"The revision (ongoing) of the different labour processes and data published earlier has encountered problems with respect to the omission of geographic coverage, discrepancies with population forecasts, the lack of conceptual and operational training of the personnel responsible for data collection, the use of biased practices to conduct fieldwork, the lack of definition of conceptual criteria for the reclassification of specific population groups, the mistaken classification of some groups, in accordance with the international recommendations of the International Labour Organization, and the elimination of integrated labour circuits, among others... For this reason, the series mentioned are not included in the press release and their use for comparative purposes and for labour market analysis is prohibited...".[55]

VI. Reliability of estimates

The data in the Statistical Annexes originating from household or establishment surveys of the countries are subject to sampling and non-sampling errors. Sampling errors occur because samples are used rather than censuses and vary depending on the sample selected but are within certain reliability margins. Estimates of the key labour market indicators in most countries of Latin America and the Caribbean presented in the *Labour Overview* are obtained through a probability sample considering a pre-determined sampling error and a 95 per cent confidence interval.

Non-sampling errors may also affect estimates derived from household or establishment surveys. These may occur for a variety of reasons, including incomplete geographic coverage, errors in the questionnaires, the inability to obtain information for all people in the sample, the lack of cooperation on the part of some respondents to provide accurate, timely information, errors in the responses of survey respondents (respondent errors) and errors occurring during data collection and processing.

55 See: INDEC "Anexo Informe de Prensa." Buenos Aires, Argentina, 23 August 2016 (http://www.indec.gov.ar/ftp/cuadros/sociedad/anexo_informe_eph_23_08_16.pdf).

2020 LABOUR OVERVIEW

Latin America and the Caribbean

COVID-19 Edition

Statistical Annex National

TABLE 1. LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: NATIONAL UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY YEAR, COUNTRY AND SEX, 2010 - 2020 (Average annual rates)

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019 Average, 1st quarter s/	2020 Average, 1st quarter s/	2019 Average, 2nd quarter s/	2020 Average, 2nd quarter s/	2019 Average, 3rd quarter s/	2020 Average, 3rd quarter s/	2019 Average Jan - Sep s/	2020 Average Jan - Sep s/
Latin America																		
Argentina a/	...	...	...	...	...	...	8.5	8.4	9.2	9.8	10.1	10.4	10.6	13.1	...	...	10.4	11.8
Men	...	...	...	...	...	...	7.8	7.5	8.2	9.2	9.2	9.7	10.2	12.8	...	...	9.7	11.3
Women	...	...	...	...	...	...	9.4	9.5	10.5	10.7	11.2	11.2	11.2	13.5	...	...	11.2	12.4
Bolivia (Pluri. State of) b/	...	2.7	2.3	2.9	2.3	3.5	3.5	3.6	3.5	3.7	4.4	4.2	4.9	8.4	4.3	10.8	5.1	8.3
Men	...	2.2	1.6	2.3	1.7	3.0	3.1	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.9	4.1	4.7	8.8	4.0	10.4	4.7	8.2
Women	...	3.2	3.1	3.5	3.1	4.2	4.0	4.0	3.6	4.0	5.0	4.3	5.1	7.9	4.7	11.3	5.5	8.4
Brazil c/	...	6.7	7.3	7.1	6.8	8.5	11.5	12.7	12.3	11.9	12.7	12.2	12.0	13.3	11.8	14.6	12.2	13.4
Men	...	4.9	5.9	5.8	5.7	7.3	10.1	11.3	10.8	10.1	10.9	10.4	10.3	12.0	10.0	12.8	10.4	11.7
Women	...	9.1	9.2	8.9	8.2	10.1	13.3	14.6	14.1	14.0	14.9	14.5	14.1	14.9	13.9	16.8	14.3	15.4
Chile d/	8.4	7.3	6.6	6.1	6.5	6.3	6.7	7.0	7.4	7.2	7.2	8.2	7.3	12.2	7.3	12.3	7.3	10.9
Men	7.3	6.2	5.6	5.4	6.1	5.8	6.3	6.5	6.7	6.7	6.5	7.1	6.9	12.6	6.8	12.8	6.7	10.9
Women	9.9	8.9	8.1	7.1	7.1	7.0	7.2	7.5	8.3	8.0	8.3	9.7	7.8	11.7	8.0	11.6	8.0	11.0
Colombia e/	11.8	10.8	10.4	9.6	9.1	8.9	9.2	9.4	9.7	10.5	11.8	12.6	10.1	20.3	10.6	17.5	10.8	16.8
Men	9.0	8.2	7.8	7.4	7.0	6.7	7.1	7.2	7.4	8.2	9.1	9.8	8.0	17.4	8.3	13.9	8.5	13.7
Women	15.6	14.4	13.7	12.7	11.9	11.8	12.0	12.3	12.7	13.6	14.4	15.1	12.9	24.6	13.7	22.8	14.0	21.2
Costa Rica f/	8.9	10.3	10.2	9.4	9.6	9.6	9.5	9.1	10.3	11.8	11.3	12.5	11.9	24.0	11.4	22.0	11.5	19.5
Men	7.6	8.7	8.9	8.3	8.1	8.0	8.0	7.5	8.4	9.3	9.3	8.6	9.9	20.0	8.7	17.4	9.3	15.3
Women	11.0	13.0	12.2	11.1	11.9	12.2	12.1	11.6	13.2	15.3	14.2	18.0	15.0	30.4	15.4	29.0	14.9	25.8
Ecuador g/	5.6	4.6	4.1	4.0	4.3	4.3	5.4	4.4	4.1	4.4	...	...	4.4	13.3	4.9	6.6	4.7	9.9
Men	4.5	3.8	3.6	3.5	3.7	3.5	4.3	3.5	3.4	3.7	...	...	3.7	11.6	4.0	5.7	3.8	8.6
Women	7.2	5.8	4.9	4.9	5.2	5.5	6.8	5.7	5.0	5.5	...	...	5.5	15.7	6.0	8.0	5.8	11.7

Continues...

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
											Average, 1st quarter s/		Average, 2nd quarter s/		Average, 3rd quarter s/		Average Jan - Sep s/	
El Salvador	**7.0**	**6.6**	**6.1**	**5.9**	**7.0**	**7.0**	**7.1**	**7.0**	**6.3**	**6.3**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	8.4	8.2	7.3	6.8	8.6	8.4	8.1	8.3	7.3	7.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	5.1	4.4	4.3	4.7	4.7	5.0	5.3	5.2	4.9	5.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guatemala h/	**3.7**	**4.1**	**2.9**	**3.1**	**2.9**	**2.6**	**2.7**	**2.5**	**2.4**	**2.2**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	3.2	2.9	2.4	2.7	2.6	2.0	2.2	2.0	2.1	1.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	4.0	6.6	3.6	3.7	3.5	3.6	3.5	3.5	2.9	3.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Honduras	**3.9**	**4.3**	**3.6**	**3.9**	**5.3**	**7.3**	**7.4**	**6.7**	**5.7**	**5.7**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	3.2	3.3	2.9	3.3	4.5	4.4	5.1	4.0	4.5	4.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	5.2	6.1	5.0	4.9	6.7	11.8	10.7	10.8	7.4	8.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mexico i/	**5.3**	**5.2**	**4.9**	**4.9**	**4.8**	**4.3**	**3.9**	**3.4**	**3.3**	**3.5**	**3.4**	**3.4**	**3.5**	**4.8**	**3.7**	**5.1**	**3.5**	**4.5**
Men	5.4	5.2	4.9	4.9	4.8	4.3	3.8	3.3	3.2	3.5	3.3	3.5	3.5	5.4	3.8	5.3	3.5	4.7
Women	5.2	5.2	4.9	5.0	4.9	4.5	3.9	3.6	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.4	3.6	3.9	3.7	4.9	3.6	4.1
Nicaragua	**7.9**	**6.0**	**5.9**	**5.8**	**6.6**	**5.9**	**4.5**	**3.7**	**5.5**	**5.4**	**6.0**	**4.8**	**5.4**	**5.4**	**...**	**...**	**5.7**	**5.1**
Men	7.3	5.5	5.4	5.6	6.2	5.6	4.2	3.5	5.4	5.4	5.8	5.3	5.3	5.7	...	...	5.6	5.5
Women	8.7	6.6	6.6	6.0	7.0	6.3	4.8	3.8	5.5	5.5	6.2	4.2	5.5	5.0	...	...	5.9	4.6
Panama e/	**6.5**	**4.5**	**4.0**	**4.1**	**4.8**	**5.1**	**5.5**	**6.1**	**6.0**	**7.1**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	5.3	4.2	3.5	3.3	4.0	4.2	4.7	5.0	4.8	5.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	8.5	4.9	4.9	5.3	6.0	6.2	6.7	7.7	7.6	8.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Paraguay j/	**5.7**	**5.5**	**4.6**	**5.0**	**6.0**	**5.4**	**6.0**	**6.1**	**6.2**	**6.6**	**6.9**	**7.9**	**7.4**	**7.6**	**6.2**	**8.2**	**6.9**	**7.9**
Men	4.6	4.3	3.7	4.5	4.6	4.9	5.0	5.0	5.4	5.5	5.5	6.3	7.2	6.7	5.3	5.8	6.0	6.3
Women	7.4	7.3	5.8	5.7	8.1	6.1	7.5	7.6	7.4	8.0	8.9	10.1	7.8	8.8	7.5	11.5	8.1	10.2
Peru k/	**4.1**	**4.0**	**3.7**	**4.0**	**3.7**	**3.5**	**4.2**	**4.1**	**3.9**	**3.9**	**5.2**	**5.1**	**3.6**	**8.8**	**3.5**	**9.6**	**4.1**	**7.8**
Men	3.6	3.7	3.2	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.9	3.8	3.5	3.5	4.4	4.5	3.3	9.7	3.3	9.8	3.7	8.0
Women	4.7	4.4	4.4	4.7	4.0	3.6	4.6	4.4	4.4	4.5	6.2	5.8	4.0	7.5	4.3	9.4	4.8	7.6

Continues...

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
											Average, 1st quarter [s/]		Average, 2nd quarter [s/]		Average, 3rd quarter [s/]		Average Jan - Sep [s/]	
Uruguay [l/]	**7.2**	**6.3**	**6.5**	**6.5**	**6.6**	**7.5**	**7.8**	**7.9**	**8.3**	**8.9**	**8.8**	**9.7**	**8.9**	**10.0**	**9.2**	**10.8**	**9.0**	**10.2**
Men	5.3	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.1	6.4	6.5	6.6	6.9	7.3	7.2	8.6	7.4	8.9	7.8	8.6	7.4	8.7
Women	9.4	8.1	8.3	8.2	8.3	8.9	9.4	9.5	10.1	10.7	10.6	10.9	10.7	11.4	10.9	13.4	10.7	11.9
Venezuela (Boliv. Rep. of)	**8.7**	**8.3**	**8.1**	**7.8**	**7.2**	**7.1**	**7.3**	**7.3**	**7.3**	**6.8**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	8.5	7.7	7.4	7.1	6.7	6.7	7.0	6.4	6.4	6.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	9.0	9.2	9.0	8.8	8.1	7.8	7.7	8.6	8.6	7.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Spanish-speaking Caribbean																		
Cuba	**2.5**	**3.2**	**3.5**	**3.3**	**2.7**	**2.5**	**2.0**	**1.7**	**1.7**	**1.3**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	2.4	3.0	3.4	3.1	2.4	2.4	1.9	1.7	1.6	1.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	2.7	3.5	3.6	3.5	3.1	2.6	2.2	1.6	1.8	1.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Dominican Republic [m/]	**5.2**	**6.1**	**6.7**	**7.4**	**6.7**	**7.3**	**7.1**	**5.5**	**5.7**	**6.2**	**5.8**	**5.7**	**6.4**	**3.2**	**...**	**...**	**6.1**	**4.4**
Men	4.1	4.7	5.1	5.3	4.8	5.2	4.8	4.0	3.5	3.9	3.7	3.5	4.2	2.4	...	...	4.0	3.0
Women	7.0	8.3	9.2	10.5	9.7	10.5	10.5	7.8	8.8	9.3	8.9	8.6	9.5	4.3	...	...	9.2	6.5
English- and Dutch-speaking Caribbean																		
Bahamas [n/]	**...**	**15.9**	**14.4**	**15.8**	**14.6**	**13.4**	**12.2**	**10.0**	**10.3**	**9.5**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	...	...	15.0	15.6	13.5	11.8	10.3	9.0	10.1	9.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	...	...	13.7	16.0	15.8	15.0	14.2	11.0	10.6	9.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Barbados [o/]	**10.7**	**11.2**	**11.6**	**11.6**	**12.3**	**11.3**	**9.7**	**10.0**	**10.1**	**10.1**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	10.9	9.8	10.9	11.7	11.8	12.3	9.3	9.8	9.9	11.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	10.6	12.6	12.3	11.6	12.8	10.3	10.1	10.1	10.3	8.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Belize [p/]	**12.5**	**...**	**15.3**	**14.3**	**11.6**	**10.1**	**9.5**	**9.3**	**9.4**	**9.1**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	...	...	10.5	10.6	6.3	6.8	5.6	5.9	5.6	5.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	...	...	22.3	20.0	19.9	15.4	15.6	14.6	14.9	13.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

▶ Continues...

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019 Average, 1st quarter s/	2020 Average, 1st quarter s/	2019 Average, 2nd quarter s/	2020 Average, 2nd quarter s/	2019 Average, 3rd quarter s/	2020 Average, 3rd quarter s/	2019 Average Jan - Sep s/	2020 Average Jan - Sep s/
Granada	**...**	**26.2**	**...**	**32.2**	**29.3**	**29.0**	**28.2**	**23.6**	**19.2**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	...	24.8	...	27.0	28.0	26.0	25.6	20.6	15.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	...	27.9	...	38.1	30.9	32.3	31.2	26.8	23.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Jamaica e/	**12.4**	**12.7**	**13.9**	**15.2**	**13.7**	**13.5**	**13.2**	**11.7**	**9.1**	**7.7**	**8.0**	**7.3**	**...**	**...**	**7.8**	**12.6**	**7.9**	**10.0**
Men	9.2	9.3	10.5	11.2	10.1	9.9	9.6	8.4	6.7	5.8	6.1	5.9	...	...	5.8	11.5	5.9	8.7
Women	16.2	16.7	18.1	20.1	18.1	17.9	17.4	15.4	11.9	9.9	10.3	9.0	...	...	10.2	14.0	10.3	11.5
Saint Lucia	**...**	**...**	**21.2**	**23.3**	**24.5**	**24.1**	**21.3**	**20.2**	**20.2**	**16.8**	**15.5**	**17.6**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**15.5**	**17.6**
Men	...	...	19.1	21.3	21.1	21.3	19.4	18.1	18.5	14.9	12.4	14.0	...	...	...	...	12.4	14.0
Women	...	...	23.5	25.5	28.4	27.4	23.5	22.4	22.1	18.9	18.8	22.0	...	...	...	...	18.8	22.0
Trinidad and Tobago q/	**5.9**	**5.0**	**4.9**	**3.7**	**3.3**	**3.4**	**4.0**	**4.8**	**3.9**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	5.2	3.9	4.1	3.0	2.8	2.9	3.9	4.2	3.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	7.0	6.3	6.2	4.6	4.0	4.2	4.0	5.6	4.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Latin America and the Caribbean r/	**6.9**	**6.4**	**6.4**	**6.3**	**6.1**	**6.6**	**7.8**	**8.1**	**8.0**	**8.0**	**9.1**	**9.1**	**8.5**	**11.2**	**8.4**	**11.7**	**8.7**	**10.6**
Latin America and the Caribbean - Men r/	**5.7**	**5.3**	**5.5**	**5.4**	**5.3**	**5.7**	**6.8**	**7.0**	**6.9**	**6.8**	**7.7**	**7.7**	**7.4**	**10.3**	**7.1**	**10.3**	**7.4**	**9.4**
Latin America and the Caribbean - Women r/	**8.5**	**8.0**	**7.8**	**7.6**	**7.3**	**7.9**	**9.2**	**9.6**	**9.5**	**9.5**	**11.0**	**10.9**	**10.0**	**12.3**	**10.1**	**13.6**	**10.3**	**12.1**

Source: ILO, based on information from the household surveys of the countries.

a/ 31 urban clusters. The INDEC, in the framework of the statistical emergency declared in 2016, recommends disregarding the series published between 2007 and 2015 for purposes of comparison and analysis of the labour market in Argentina. The 2016 annual information is the average of the 2nd, 3rd and 4th quarters.
b/ New measurement beginning in 2016 through the ECE employment survey. Data not comparable with previous years. Average data for the 1st quarter of 2020 are preliminary and have national coverage. Data of the 2nd and 3rd quarters of 2020 have urban coverage.
c/New measurement beginning in 2017 through the PNADC household survey. Data not comparable with previous years.

d/ In this edition of the Labour Overview, the Chile series beginning in 2010 was adjusted based on the projections of the 2017 census. The series appearing in previous editions of the Labour Overview were based on the 2002 census.
e/ Includes hidden unemployment.
f/ 2010 data are the average of the 3rd and 4th quarters.
g/ Includes hidden unemployment. The average data for the 2nd quarter of 2020 correspond to the months of May and June; data of the 3rd quarter of 2020 to September.
h/ Beginning in 2011, the WAP changed from 10 to 15 years of age, which may affect the comparability of the data.
i/ The average data for the 2nd and 3rd quarters of 2019 originate from the ENOE survey; those of the 2nd quarter 2020 come from the ETOE survey and those of the 3rd quarter of 2020 to the new edition of the ENOE.
j/ New measurement beginning in 2017 through the EPHC household survey. Data are not comparable with previous years.
k/ Data of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd quarters of 2020 are preliminary.
l/The average data for the 1st quarter of 2020 originate from the ECH survey for the months of January and February; data for March come from the ECH-Telfónica survey. The average data for the 2nd quarter of 2020 correspond to the months of April, May and June of the ECH-Telefónica survey and those of the 3rd quarter correspond to the months of July, August and September of the ECH-Telefónica survey.
m/ The 2010-2014 series is based on the weighted ENFT labour force survey. New measurement beginning in 2015 through the ENCFT survey. Data not comparable with previous years.
n/2019 data are preliminary and correspond to May.
o/2019 data are preliminary and are being revised.
p/2018 data correspond to April.
q/ Total data of 2018 correspond to the annual average whereas data by sex are from the 1st semester.
r/ Weighted average. Excludes hidden unemployment in Colombia, Ecuador, Jamaica and Panama. ILO projections on the total labour force and by sex are used as the weighting factor. The 2019 regional average is preliminary.
s/ Average data for the 1st, 2nd and 3rd quarters, as well as those of the average of the period January-September 2020, can present comparability problems with the respect data of 2019 given the adjustments that statistical and census institutes made in response to the COVID-19 pandemic. Preliminary data.

‖ Years when a country revises a survey or key variables that can lead to a potential break in the comparability of data.

TABLE 2. LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: NATIONAL UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY YEAR, COUNTRY AND AGE GROUP, 2010 - 2020
(Average annual rates)

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019 Average, 1st quarter u/	2020 Average, 1st quarter u/	2019 Average, 2nd quarter u/	2020 Average, 2nd quarter u/	2019 Average, 3rd quarter u/	2020 Average, 3rd quarter u/	2019 Average Jan - Sep u/	2020 Average Jan - Sep u/
Latin America																		
Argentina a/	...	...	...	...	...	...	**8.5**	**8.4**	**9.2**	**9.8**	**10.1**	**10.4**	**10.6**	**13.1**	...	...	**10.4**	**11.8**
15 - 24	...	...	...	...	...	...	23.9	22.6	23.7	25.9	27.2	27.5	26.6	34.0	...	...	24.8	30.1
25 and over	...	...	...	...	...	...	5.9	6.0	6.9	7.4	7.4	7.7	8.2	10.5	...	...	7.0	9.0
Bolivia (Pluri. State of) b/	...	**2.7**	**2.3**	**2.9**	**2.3**	**3.5**	**3.5**	**3.6**	**3.5**	**3.7**	**4.4**	**4.2**	**4.9**	**8.4**	**4.3**	**10.8**	**5.1**	**8.3**
15 - 24	...	6.6	4.3	6.9	5.5	8.0	7.3	8.3	8.7	8.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	...	1.8	1.9	2.0	1.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.9	2.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Brazil c/	...	**6.7**	**7.3**	**7.1**	**6.8**	**8.5**	**11.5**	**12.7**	**12.3**	**11.9**	**12.7**	**12.2**	**12.0**	**13.3**	**11.8**	**14.6**	**12.2**	**13.4**
15 - 24	...	15.3	16.4	16.2	16.1	20.0	27.2	29.2	28.5	27.8	29.6	29.2	28.0	31.1	27.8	32.8	28.5	31.1
25 and over	...	4.6	5.1	5.0	4.7	6.0	8.1	9.2	8.8	8.6	9.2	8.8	8.7	10.1	8.5	11.3	8.8	10.1
Chile d/	**8.4**	**7.3**	**6.6**	**6.1**	**6.5**	**6.3**	**6.7**	**7.0**	**7.4**	**7.2**	**7.2**	**8.2**	**7.3**	**12.2**	**7.3**	**12.3**	**7.3**	**10.9**
15 - 24	18.6	17.6	16.4	16.0	16.4	15.3	15.5	17.4	17.7	18.5	16.7	19.7	18.6	28.2	18.6	27.1	18.0	25.0
25 and over	6.7	5.7	5.1	4.7	5.1	5.2	5.6	5.8	6.2	6.1	6.2	7.0	6.1	11.0	6.2	11.2	6.2	9.7
Colombia e/	**11.8**	**10.8**	**10.4**	**9.6**	**9.1**	**8.9**	**9.2**	**9.4**	**9.7**	**10.5**	**11.8**	**12.6**	**10.1**	**20.3**	**10.6**	**17.5**	**10.8**	**16.8**
15 - 24	23.3	21.9	20.5	19.1	18.7	17.7	18.4	18.6	19.7	20.8	22.4	23.8	20.5	32.9	...	...	21.5	27.9
25 and over	9.0	8.1	7.9	7.4	6.9	6.9	7.2	7.4	7.6	8.4	9.6	10.4	8.1	18.1	...	...	8.8	14.0
Costa Rica f/	**8.9**	**10.3**	**10.2**	**9.4**	**9.6**	**9.6**	**9.5**	**9.1**	**10.3**	**11.8**	**11.3**	**12.5**	**11.9**	**24.0**	**11.4**	**22.0**	**11.5**	**19.5**
15 - 24	21.5	22.4	23.1	22.5	25.1	23.0	23.1	22.6	26.8	32.0	29.8	30.9	32.5	48.0	31.1	47.4	31.1	42.1
25 and over	6.0	7.7	7.3	6.5	6.3	6.8	6.8	6.5	7.2	8.3	8.2	9.1	8.5	20.1	8.2	17.9	8.3	15.7
Ecuador g/	**5.6**	**4.6**	**4.1**	**4.0**	**4.3**	**4.3**	**5.4**	**4.4**	**4.1**	**4.4**	...	...	**4.4**	**13.3**	**4.9**	**6.6**	**4.7**	**9.9**

Continues...

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
											Average, 1st quarter u/		Average, 2nd quarter u/		Average, 3rd quarter u/		Average Jan - Sep u/	
15 - 24	12.7	11.9	10.7	10.9	11.3	10.4	11.9	9.7	9.4	10.1	...	...	10.3	24.3	10.9	11.7	10.6	17.9
25 and over	3.9	3.1	2.7	2.6	2.9	3.1	4.0	3.3	3.0	3.3	...	...	3.3	11.2	3.6	5.7	3.5	8.4
El Salvador	**7.0**	**6.6**	**6.1**	**5.9**	**7.0**	**7.0**	**7.1**	**7.0**	**6.3**	**6.3**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	13.7	12.2	12.4	12.4	15.0	14.0	14.2	14.4	13.6	13.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	5.2	5.0	4.4	4.2	4.9	5.1	5.2	5.2	4.6	4.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guatemala h/	**3.7**	**4.1**	**2.9**	**3.1**	**2.9**	**2.6**	**2.7**	**2.5**	**2.4**	**2.2**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	5.8	7.5	4.9	5.7	6.1	5.7	5.8	5.1	5.0	4.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	2.9	2.7	2.1	2.1	1.7	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Honduras	**3.9**	**4.3**	**3.6**	**3.9**	**5.3**	**7.3**	**7.4**	**6.7**	**5.7**	**5.7**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	7.5	8.0	6.9	7.1	9.4	14.2	15.9	13.5	11.0	11.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	2.8	3.0	2.5	2.9	4.0	4.6	4.1	3.9	4.0	4.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mexico i/	**5.3**	**5.2**	**4.9**	**4.9**	**4.8**	**4.3**	**3.9**	**3.4**	**3.3**	**3.5**	**3.4**	**3.4**	**3.5**	**4.8**	**3.7**	**5.1**	**3.5**	**4.5**
15 - 24	9.8	9.8	9.4	9.5	9.5	8.6	7.7	6.9	6.9	7.2	6.9	6.9	...	...	7.9	9.1	7.4	8.0
25 and over	4.2	4.0	3.8	3.9	3.8	3.4	3.1	2.7	2.6	2.7	2.6	2.8	...	...	2.9	4.4	2.8	3.6
Nicaragua	**7.9**	**6.0**	**5.9**	**5.8**	**6.6**	**5.9**	**4.5**	**3.7**	**5.5**	**5.4**	**6.0**	**4.8**	**5.4**	**5.4**	**...**	**...**	**5.7**	**5.1**
15 - 24	11.9	7.8	9.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	6.3	4.4	4.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Panama j/	**6.5**	**4.5**	**4.0**	**4.1**	**4.8**	**5.1**	**5.5**	**6.1**	**6.0**	**7.1**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	15.0	12.4	10.3	10.8	12.6	13.1	13.7	16.5	15.7	18.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	4.7	3.0	2.8	2.7	3.3	3.5	3.9	4.1	4.0	4.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Paraguay k/	**5.7**	**5.5**	**4.6**	**5.0**	**6.0**	**5.4**	**6.0**	**6.1**	**6.2**	**6.6**	**6.9**	**7.9**	**7.4**	**7.6**	**6.2**	**8.2**	**6.9**	**7.9**
15 - 24	12.5	12.6	10.4	10.4	12.3	11.8	12.9	13.7	14.2	14.8	15.6	18.0	17.3	17.0	13.1	17.7	15.3	17.6

▶ Continues...

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
											Average, 1st quarter u/		Average, 2nd quarter u/		Average, 3rd quarter u/		Average Jan - Sep u/	
25 and over	3.4	3.0	2.6	3.3	4.0	3.3	3.9	3.9	4.0	4.3	4.4	5.3	4.8	5.2	4.4	5.7	4.5	5.4
Peru l/	**4.1**	**4.0**	**3.7**	**4.0**	**3.7**	**3.5**	**4.2**	**4.1**	**3.9**	**3.9**	**5.2**	**5.1**	**3.6**	**8.8**	**3.5**	**9.6**	**4.1**	**7.8**
15 - 24	9.5	9.5	9.1	9.0	9.9	8.4	10.7	10.5	10.6	10.2	12.0	11.2	9.7	14.1	...	...	10.9	12.2
25 and over	2.5	2.4	2.1	2.7	2.0	2.3	2.6	2.6	2.4	2.5	3.3	3.7	2.8	8.0	...	...	3.0	5.5
Uruguay m/	**7.2**	**6.3**	**6.5**	**6.5**	**6.6**	**7.5**	**7.8**	**7.9**	**8.3**	**8.9**	**8.8**	**9.7**	**8.9**	**10.0**	**9.2**	**10.8**	**9.0**	**10.2**
15 - 24	20.6	18.1	18.5	19.2	19.4	22.5	23.8	24.7	25.9	27.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	4.5	4.0	4.1	4.0	4.2	4.7	5.0	4.9	5.3	5.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Venezuela (Boliv. Rep. of)	**8.7**	**8.3**	**8.1**	**7.8**	**7.2**	**7.1**	**7.3**	**7.3**	**7.3**	**6.8**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	17.7	17.4	17.2	16.4	15.0	15.2	15.6	16.3	17.1	15.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	6.8	6.4	6.3	6.1	5.8	5.7	5.9	5.7	5.5	2.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Spanish-speaking Caribbean																		
Cuba	**2.5**	**3.2**	**3.5**	**3.3**	**2.7**	**2.5**	**2.0**	**1.7**	**1.7**	**1.3**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Dominican Republic n/	**5.2**	**6.1**	**6.7**	**7.4**	**6.7**	**7.3**	**7.1**	**5.5**	**5.7**	**6.2**	**5.8**	**5.7**	**6.4**	**3.2**	**...**	**...**	**6.1**	**4.4**
15 - 24	10.8	13.9	14.9	17.4	13.4	16.0	16.4	12.8	14.5	15.7	15.6	14.0	15.3	8.5	...	...	15.5	11.3
25 and over	3.9	4.2	4.8	5.0	5.2	5.4	4.9	3.9	3.8	4.2	3.9	4.0	4.6	2.3	...	...	4.3	3.2
English- and Dutch-speaking Caribbean																		
Bahamas o/	**...**	**15.9**	**14.4**	**15.8**	**14.6**	**13.4**	**12.2**	**10.0**	**10.3**	**9.5**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Continues...

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
											Average, 1st quarter [u/]		Average, 2nd quarter [u/]		Average, 3rd quarter [u/]		Average Jan - Sep [u/]	
Barbados [p/]	**10.7**	**11.2**	**11.6**	**11.6**	**12.3**	**11.3**	**9.7**	**10.0**	**10.1**	**10.1**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Belize [q/]	**12.5**	**...**	**15.3**	**14.3**	**11.6**	**10.1**	**9.5**	**9.3**	**9.4**	**9.1**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	...	...	27.7	21.8	22.9	21.2	21.3	19.4	21.3	19.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	...	...	11.2	11.9	7.9	6.7	5.9	6.2	5.7	5.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Granada	**...**	**26.2**	**...**	**32.2**	**29.3**	**29.0**	**28.2**	**23.6**	**19.2**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	...	...	...	52.5	45.1	41.7	50.4	39.9	34.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	...	...	...	27.5	25.6	26.3	23.5	20.3	16.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Jamaica [r/]	**12.4**	**12.7**	**13.9**	**15.2**	**13.7**	**13.5**	**13.2**	**11.7**	**9.1**	**7.7**	**8.0**	**7.3**	**...**	**...**	**7.8**	**12.6**	**7.9**	**10.0**
15 - 24	...	...	33.5	37.8	34.3	32.8	31.8	28.2	24.2	20.6	21.8	19.0	...	...	20.2	30.4	21.0	24.7
25 and over	...	...	10.4	11.1	10.1	10.1	9.7	8.6	6.4	5.4	5.6	5.2	...	...	5.5	9.4	5.6	7.3
Saint Lucia	**...**	**...**	**21.2**	**23.3**	**24.5**	**24.1**	**21.3**	**20.2**	**20.2**	**16.8**	**15.5**	**17.6**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**15.5**	**17.6**
15 - 24	...	...	40.6	44.4	51.2	49.6	46.2	46.3	43.1	38.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	...	...	16.5	17.2	18.4	18.6	16.3	14.5	15.7	13.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Trinidad and Tobago [s/]	**5.9**	**5.0**	**4.9**	**3.7**	**3.3**	**3.4**	**4.0**	**4.8**	**4.1**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	14.0	12.0	11.4	8.9	8.0	8.5	10.6	10.1	10.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	4.4	3.7	3.9	2.9	2.6	2.7	3.1	4.2	3.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Latin America and the Caribbean [t/]	**6.9**	**6.4**	**6.4**	**6.3**	**6.1**	**6.6**	**7.8**	**8.1**	**8.0**	**8.0**	**9.1**	**9.1**	**8.5**	**11.2**	**8.4**	**11.7**	**8.7**	**10.6**

▶ Continues...

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
											Average, 1st quarter u/		Average, 2nd quarter u/		Average, 3rd quarter u/		Average Jan - Sep u/	
Latin America and the Caribbean - 15 - 24 t/	14.7	14.0	14.0	14.0	13.9	15.2	18.3	18.8	18.8	18.7	21.5	21.5	23.8	28.8	20.8	24.7	20.5	23.2
Latin America and the Caribbean - 25 and over t/	5.2	4.7	4.8	4.7	4.6	5.0	5.9	6.1	6.0	6.0	6.9	7.0	7.6	11.0	6.4	9.0	6.5	8.5

Source: ILO, based on information from the household surveys of the countries.

a/ 31 urban clusters. The INDEC, in the framework of the statistical emergency declared in 2016, recommends disregarding the series published between 2007 and 2015 for purposes of comparison and analysis of the labour market in Argentina. The 2016 annual information is the average of the 2nd, 3rd and 4th quarters. The January-September 2020 average corresponds to January-June.
b/ New measurement beginning in 2016 through the ECE employment survey. Data not comparable with previous years. Average data for the 1st quarter of 2020 are preliminary and have national coverage. Data of the 2nd and 3rd quarters of 2020 have urban coverage.
c/New measurement beginning in 2017 through the PNADC household survey. Data not comparable with previous years.
d/ In this edition of the Labour Overview, the Chile series beginning in 2010 was adjusted based on the projections of the 2017 census. The series appearing in previous editions of the Labour Overview were based on the 2002 census.
e/ Includes hidden unemployment. For the period January-September, the total unemployment rate corresponds to the average of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd quarters while the unemployment rate by age group corresponds to the average of the 1st and 2nd quarters.
f/ 2010 data are the average of the 3rd and 4th quarters.
g/ Includes hidden unemployment. Average data for the 2nd quarter of 2020 correspond to the months of May and June; the average of the 3rd quarter of 2020 correspond to September data. The average for January-September 2019 and 2020 correspond to the average of the 2nd and 3rd quarters.
h/ Beginning in 2011, the WAP changed from 10 to 15 years of age, which may affect the comparability of the data.
i/ Average data of the 2nd quarter of 2019 originate from the ENOE survey and those of the 2nd quarter of 2020 come from the ETOE survey, while data for the 3rd quarter of 2019 are from the ENOE survey and those for the same period of 2020 are from the new edition of the ENOE survey. For the period January-September, the total unemployment rate corresponds to the 1st, 2nd and 3rd quarters whereas the unemployment rate by age group corresponds to the 1st and 3rd quarters.
j/ Includes hidden unemployment.
k/ New measurement beginning in 2017 through the EPHC household survey. Data are not comparable with previous years.
l/ The data for the 1st and 2nd quarters of 2020 are preliminary. For the period January-September, the total unemployment rate corresponds to the average of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd quarters while the unemployment rate by age group corresponds to the 1st and 2nd quarters.
m/The average data for the 1st quarter of 2020 originate from the ECH survey for the months of January and February; data for March come from the ECH-Telfónica survey. The average data for the 2nd quarter of 2020 correspond to the months of April, May and June of the ECH-Telefónica survey and those of the 3rd quarter correspond to the months of July, August and September of the ECH-Telefónica survey.
n/ The 2010-2014 series is based on the weighted ENFT labour force survey. New measurement beginning in 2015 through the ENCFT survey. Data not comparable with previous years. Data for the period January-September correspond to the average of the 1st and 2nd quarters.
o/2019 data are preliminary and correspond to May.
p/2019 data are preliminary and are being revised.
q/2018 data correspond to April.
r/ Includes hidden unemployment. Data for the period January-September to the average of the 1st and 3rd quarters.
s/ Total data of 2018 correspond to the annual average whereas data by sex are from the 1st semester.
t/ Weighted average. The ILO projections on the total labour force and by age groups are used as the weighting factor. The 2019 regional average is preliminary.
u/ Average data for the 1st, 2nd and 3rd quarters, as well as those of the average of the period January-September 2020, can present comparability problems with the respect data of 2019 given the adjustments that statistical and census institutes made in response to the COVID-19 pandemic. Preliminary data.

‖ Years when a country revises a survey or key variables that can lead to a potential break in the comparability of data.

▶ **TABLE 3.** LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: NATIONAL LABOUR PARTICIPATION RATES BY YEAR, COUNTRY AND SEX, 2010 - 2020
(Average annual rates)

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
											Average, 1st quarter [r/]		Average, 2nd quarter [r/]		Average, 3rd quarter [r/]		Average Jan - Sep [r/]	
Latin America																		
Argentina [a/]	...	...	...	...	...	...	57.5	57.8	58.5	59.1	58.9	58.6	59.5	49.2	...	...	59.2	53.9
Men	...	...	...	...	...	...	69.4	69.7	69.6	69.9	69.8	68.7	70.2	58.0	...	...	70.0	63.4
Women	...	...	...	...	...	...	46.9	47.6	48.7	49.4	49.0	49.5	49.9	41.2	...	...	49.5	45.4
Bolivia (Pluri. State of) [b/]	...	65.9	61.1	63.4	65.8	61.0	66.0	67.4	70.9	73.0	72.5	73.7	68.3	60.9	69.3	64.2	68.6	64.7
Men	...	74.7	70.4	72.6	75.0	72.1	76.4	76.8	79.1	80.7	80.1	81.0	76.2	69.2	77.6	73.6	76.7	73.3
Women	...	57.5	52.6	54.8	57.1	50.4	56.1	58.3	63.0	65.5	65.1	66.6	60.7	52.8	61.3	55.2	60.8	56.4
Brazil [c/]	...	60.0	61.4	61.3	61.0	61.3	61.4	61.7	61.6	62.0	61.7	61.0	62.1	55.3	62.1	55.1	62.0	57.1
Men	...	70.8	73.1	72.9	72.5	72.3	72.3	72.0	71.7	71.7	71.6	70.8	71.7	65.5	71.8	65.7	71.7	67.3
Women	...	50.1	50.8	50.7	50.6	51.2	51.4	52.3	52.5	53.2	52.8	52.1	53.4	46.3	53.3	45.8	53.2	48.1
Chile [d/]	60.2	61.5	61.5	61.6	61.9	62.0	62.1	62.7	63.0	62.8	62.7	62.5	62.7	51.9	62.9	53.4	62.8	55.9
Men	74.2	74.8	74.5	74.2	74.1	74.4	74.1	74.3	74.2	73.6	73.9	73.3	73.2	63.1	73.4	64.5	73.5	67.0
Women	46.8	48.8	49.1	49.6	50.2	50.3	50.7	51.6	52.3	52.5	51.9	52.1	52.6	41.2	52.9	42.7	52.5	45.3
Colombia [e/]	62.7	63.7	64.5	64.2	64.2	64.7	64.5	64.4	64.0	63.3	63.5	61.6	62.9	54.8	62.9	58.6	63.1	58.4
Men	74.2	75.1	75.4	74.9	74.9	75.2	74.9	74.8	74.6	73.9	74.2	72.7	73.4	66.2	73.4	71.0	73.7	70.0
Women	51.8	52.8	54.1	53.9	54.0	54.8	54.5	54.5	53.8	53.1	53.3	50.9	52.8	43.9	52.8	46.8	53.0	47.2
Costa Rica [f/]	60.7	59.0	62.8	62.3	62.5	61.2	58.4	58.8	60.7	62.5	62.4	63.4	63.0	57.6	61.8	59.1	62.4	60.0
Men	75.4	73.6	75.9	75.1	75.9	74.3	72.4	73.0	74.3	74.4	74.4	74.7	75.1	70.5	73.1	71.5	74.2	72.2
Women	45.9	44.2	49.5	49.3	49.0	48.1	44.3	44.5	46.9	50.6	50.3	52.1	50.8	44.6	50.4	46.7	50.5	47.8
Ecuador [g/]	63.7	62.5	63.0	62.9	63.1	66.2	68.2	68.6	67.0	66.6	...	...	66.8	60.9	67.8	62.8	67.3	61.9
Men	78.9	77.9	78.1	77.6	78.8	80.5	81.0	81.0	79.7	78.7	...	...	78.6	73.8	79.4	74.5	79.0	74.1

▶ Continues...

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
											Average, 1st quarter r/		Average, 2nd quarter r/		Average, 3rd quarter r/		Average Jan - Sep r/	
Women	49.4	48.1	48.8	48.9	48.5	52.7	56.2	56.9	55.0	55.0	...	...	55.5	48.5	56.7	51.7	56.1	50.1
El Salvador	**62.5**	**62.7**	**63.2**	**63.6**	**62.8**	**62.1**	**62.2**	**61.9**	**61.3**	**62.2**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	80.9	81.2	81.4	80.7	80.7	80.2	80.1	80.6	79.5	80.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	47.3	47.0	47.9	49.3	47.8	46.7	47.3	46.3	46.1	46.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guatemala h/	**62.5**	**61.8**	**65.4**	**60.6**	**60.9**	**60.7**	**60.8**	**61.0**	**60.6**	**59.2**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	84.7	84.6	87.6	83.4	83.8	84.7	84.0	85.3	85.0	83.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	42.9	40.4	45.7	40.6	40.6	38.9	40.1	39.2	39.1	37.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Honduras	**53.6**	**51.9**	**50.8**	**53.7**	**56.1**	**58.1**	**57.5**	**59.0**	**60.4**	**57.3**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	71.0	70.4	69.2	72.1	73.6	74.0	74.0	76.0	76.3	75.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	37.4	34.9	33.8	37.2	40.5	43.9	43.0	43.8	46.0	41.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mexico i/	**59.7**	**59.8**	**60.4**	**60.3**	**59.8**	**59.8**	**59.7**	**59.3**	**59.6**	**60.1**	**59.5**	**59.9**	**60.2**	**49.4**	**60.4**	**55.5**	**60.0**	**54.9**
Men	78.7	78.5	78.8	78.5	78.3	78.0	77.7	77.6	77.4	77.2	76.9	76.4	77.1	63.5	77.5	72.6	77.2	70.8
Women	42.5	42.8	43.9	43.9	43.1	43.4	43.4	43.0	43.5	44.7	43.7	44.9	44.9	36.7	44.9	39.9	44.5	40.5
Nicaragua	**71.3**	**75.6**	**76.8**	**75.8**	**74.0**	**72.4**	**73.6**	**73.5**	**71.6**	**71.1**	**71.7**	**71.0**	**70.5**	**66.5**	**...**	**...**	**71.1**	**68.8**
Men	85.4	87.9	87.7	87.2	85.8	84.6	84.9	84.7	82.6	82.3	82.5	82.1	81.9	78.6	...	...	82.2	80.4
Women	58.1	64.0	66.6	65.1	63.0	60.9	63.1	63.2	61.6	61.0	61.9	61.1	60.3	55.7	...	...	61.1	58.4
Panama e/	**63.5**	**61.9**	**63.5**	**64.1**	**64.0**	**64.2**	**64.4**	**64.0**	**65.4**	**66.5**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	80.4	79.2	80.1	79.7	79.4	78.4	78.6	77.6	78.8	78.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	47.5	45.8	48.2	49.4	49.8	50.8	51.1	51.2	52.8	55.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Paraguay j/	**60.8**	**61.1**	**64.4**	**62.4**	**62.3**	**62.1**	**62.6**	**71.0**	**71.9**	**72.4**	**73.6**	**71.2**	**71.2**	**66.7**	**71.8**	**70.7**	**72.2**	**69.5**
Men	73.9	73.2	75.1	74.0	74.6	74.1	74.5	84.4	84.6	84.8	86.2	83.8	83.8	81.3	84.4	84.3	84.8	83.1
Women	47.4	49.0	53.7	52.7	50.1	50.2	50.8	57.8	59.4	60.2	61.3	59.1	58.9	52.6	59.4	57.5	59.9	56.4
Peru k/	**74.1**	**73.9**	**73.6**	**73.2**	**72.2**	**71.6**	**72.2**	**72.4**	**72.3**	**72.7**	**72.9**	**70.2**	**72.0**	**45.3**	**72.6**	**63.3**	**72.5**	**59.6**
Men	82.7	82.7	82.4	82.0	81.3	81.0	81.2	81.0	80.7	81.1	81.2	78.3	79.6	54.7	...	...	80.4	66.5

Continues...

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
											Average, 1st quarter r/		Average, 2nd quarter r/		Average, 3rd quarter r/		Average Jan - Sep r/	
Women	65.7	65.2	64.8	64.5	63.2	62.3	63.3	64.0	64.0	64.5	64.5	62.2	64.5	36.1	...	...	64.5	49.2
Uruguay l/	**62.9**	**64.8**	**64.0**	**63.6**	**64.7**	**63.8**	**63.4**	**62.9**	**62.4**	**62.2**	**62.4**	**61.6**	**61.7**	**58.8**	**61.9**	**60.3**	**62.0**	**60.2**
Men	73.1	74.7	73.5	73.9	74.3	73.0	72.2	71.6	70.7	70.1	70.2	68.4	70.0	66.5	69.8	68.2	70.0	67.7
Women	54.0	55.8	55.6	54.4	55.9	55.4	55.4	55.0	54.9	54.9	55.2	55.4	54.0	51.7	54.6	53.1	54.6	53.4
Venezuela (Boliv. Rep. of)	**64.5**	**64.4**	**63.9**	**64.3**	**65.1**	**63.7**	**63.9**	**66.2**	**66.8**	**65.1**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	79.0	78.6	77.8	78.1	79.1	77.8	77.9	79.9	80.1	79.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	50.1	50.3	50.1	50.6	51.3	49.9	50.2	52.7	53.7	50.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Spanish-speaking Caribbean																		
Cuba	**74.9**	**76.1**	**74.2**	**72.9**	**71.9**	**67.1**	**65.2**	**63.4**	**63.8**	**65.2**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	87.7	90.0	89.5	87.1	86.2	80.4	78.2	76.2	76.9	76.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	60.5	60.5	57.4	57.3	56.3	52.6	50.9	49.4	49.5	53.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Dominican Republic m/	**56.7**	**58.2**	**59.4**	**59.3**	**59.5**	**61.8**	**62.3**	**62.2**	**63.6**	**65.1**	**64.9**	**63.4**	**65.1**	**56.7**	**...**	**...**	**65.0**	**60.0**
Men	72.1	73.1	74.1	73.9	74.2	76.3	76.6	76.1	77.8	78.4	78.8	76.3	78.5	70.6	...	...	78.6	73.5
Women	41.7	43.7	45.3	45.1	45.4	48.1	48.9	49.0	50.4	52.6	51.9	51.5	52.7	43.9	...	...	52.3	47.7
English-speaking Caribbean																		
Bahamas	**...**	**72.1**	**72.5**	**73.2**	**73.7**	**74.3**	**77.1**	**80.5**	**82.8**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	...	...	75.8	76.9	77.8	79.5	81.7	83.6	85.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	...	...	69.5	70.1	70.1	71.7	73.1	75.1	76.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Barbados n/	**66.6**	**67.6**	**66.2**	**66.7**	**63.9**	**65.1**	**66.5**	**65.4**	**64.8**	**63.4**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	71.8	72.7	71.9	72.0	67.7	68.7	70.4	69.7	69.4	67.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	62.0	63.0	61.0	62.0	60.4	61.7	62.8	61.5	60.6	59.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Belize o/	**...**	**...**	**65.8**	**64.2**	**63.6**	**63.2**	**64.0**	**64.1**	**65.5**	**68.1**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**

▶ Continues...

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
											Average, 1st quarter r/		Average, 2nd quarter r/		Average, 3rd quarter r/		Average Jan - Sep r/	
Men	...	...	79.2	78.4	78.2	77.8	78.0	78.2	78.3	80.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	...	...	52.6	50.1	49.2	48.8	50.2	50.2	52.9	55.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Granada	**...**	**69.5**	**...**	**66.7**	**67.8**	**68.8**	**68.2**	**65.8**	**68.5**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	...	75.0	...	70.9	71.5	74.5	73.3	71.3	74.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	...	63.9	...	62.6	64.1	63.4	63.1	60.6	63.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Jamaica e/	**62.4**	**62.1**	**61.9**	**63.0**	**62.8**	**63.1**	**64.8**	**65.1**	**64.0**	**64.6**	**64.2**	**65.6**	**...**	**...**	**65.2**	**61.3**	**64.7**	**63.5**
Men	70.4	70.1	69.2	70.0	70.0	70.3	71.2	71.3	70.4	71.0	70.0	71.6	...	...	71.9	68.4	70.9	70.0
Women	54.8	55.0	54.9	56.3	55.9	56.3	58.6	59.1	57.9	58.5	58.6	59.8	...	...	58.8	54.5	58.7	57.2
Saint Lucia	**...**	**...**	**70.6**	**71.0**	**72.2**	**72.2**	**72.8**	**71.4**	**71.4**	**71.0**	**71.5**	**69.9**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**71.5**	**69.9**
Men	...	...	75.3	76.2	77.1	78.3	78.3	76.5	77.8	75.7	76.0	78.0	...	...	...	...	76.0	78.0
Women	...	...	66.1	66.0	67.4	66.0	67.4	66.8	65.2	66.5	67.4	62.2	...	...	...	...	67.4	62.2
Trinidad and Tobago p/	**62.1**	**61.3**	**61.9**	**61.4**	**61.9**	**60.6**	**59.7**	**59.2**	**59.1**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	73.5	72.3	72.1	71.6	72.2	71.2	69.5	68.9	68.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	50.9	49.4	51.7	51.1	51.8	50.0	50.1	49.5	49.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Latin America and the Caribbean q/	**61.9**	**61.8**	**62.5**	**62.2**	**62.1**	**62.0**	**62.1**	**62.4**	**62.5**	**62.7**	**62.3**	**61.7**	**62.6**	**53.1**	**62.9**	**56.7**	**62.6**	**57.2**
Latin America and the Caribbean - Men q/	**75.3**	**75.2**	**76.0**	**75.7**	**75.5**	**75.2**	**75.1**	**75.2**	**75.1**	**74.9**	**74.2**	**73.3**	**74.2**	**64.4**	**74.1**	**68.9**	**74.2**	**68.7**
Latin America and the Caribbean - Women q/	**49.4**	**49.2**	**49.9**	**49.8**	**49.6**	**49.7**	**50.0**	**50.6**	**50.9**	**51.4**	**51.5**	**51.1**	**52.0**	**42.8**	**51.3**	**44.8**	**51.8**	**46.4**

Source: ILO, based on information from the household surveys of the countries.

a/ 31 urban clusters. The INDEC, in the framework of the statistical emergency declared in 2016, recommends disregarding the series published between 2007 and 2015 for purposes of comparison and analysis of the labour market in Argentina. The 2016 annual information is the average of the 2nd, 3rd and 4th quarters.

b/ New measurement beginning in 2016 through the ECE employment survey. Data not comparable with previous years. Average data for the 1st quarter of 2020 are preliminary and have national coverage. Data of the 2nd and 3rd quarters of 2020 have urban coverage.
c/New measurement beginning in 2017 through the PNADC household survey. Data not comparable with previous years.
d/ In this edition of the Labour Overview, the Chile series beginning in 2010 was adjusted based on the projections of the 2017 census. The series appearing in previous editions of the Labour Overview were based on the 2002 census.
e/ Includes hidden unemployment.
f/ 2010 data are the average of the 3rd and 4th quarters.
g/ Includes hidden unemployment. The average data for the 2nd quarter of 2020 correspond to the months of May and June and for the 3rd quarter of 2020 to September.
h/ Beginning in 2011, the WAP changed from 10 to 15 years of age, which may affect the comparability of the data.
i/ The average data for the 2nd and 3rd quarters of 2019 originate from the ENOE survey; those of the 2nd quarter 2020 come from the ETOE survey and those of the 3rd quarter of 2020 to the new edition of the ENOE.
j/ New measurement beginning in 2017 through the EPHC household survey. Data are not comparable with previous years.
k/ Data of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd quarters of 2020 are preliminary. For the period January-September, the average of the labour participation rate corresponds to the three quarters while the average of the rate disaggregated by sex corresponds to the average of the 1st and 2nd quarters.
l/The average data for the 1st quarter of 2020 originate from the ECH survey for the months of January and February; data for March come from the ECH-Telfónica survey. The average data for the 2nd quarter of 2020 correspond to the months of April, May and June of the ECH-Telefónica survey and those of the 3rd quarter correspond to the months of July, August and September of the ECH-Telefónica survey.
m/ The 2010-2014 series is based on the weighted ENFT labour force survey. New measurement beginning in 2015 through the ENCFT survey. Data not comparable with previous years.
n/2019 data are preliminary and are being revised.
o/2018 data correspond to April.
p/ Total data of 2018 correspond to the annual average whereas data by sex are from the 1st semester.
q/ Weighted average. Excludes hidden unemployment in Colombia, Ecuador, Jamaica and Panama. ILO projections on the total working age population and by sex are used as the weighting factor. The 2019 regional average is preliminary.
r/ Average data for the 1st, 2nd and 3rd quarters, as well as those of the average of the period January-September 2020, can present comparability problems with the respect data of 2019 given the adjustments that statistical and census institutes made in response to the COVID-19 pandemic. Preliminary data.

‖ Years when a country revises a survey or key variables that can lead to a potential break in the comparability of data.

TABLE 4. LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: NATIONAL LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE BY YEAR, COUNTRY AND AGE GROUP, 2010 - 2020
(Average annual rates)

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
											Average, 1st quarter u/		Average, 2nd quarter u/		Average, 3rd quarter u/		Average Jan - Sep u/	
Latin America																		
Argentina a/	...	...	...	...	...	...	57.5	57.8	58.5	59.1	58.9	58.6	59.5	49.2	...	...	59.2	53.9
15 - 24	...	...	...	...	...	...	38.3	39.0	39.5	39.1	39.8	38.9	39.0	26.2	...	...	39.4	32.6
25 and over	...	...	...	...	...	...	64.4	64.4	65.1	65.9	65.5	65.5	66.4	56.9	...	...	66.0	61.2
Bolivia (Pluri. State of) b/	...	65.9	61.1	63.4	65.8	61.0	66.0	67.4	70.9	73.0	72.5	73.7	68.3	60.9	69.3	64.2	68.6	64.7
15 - 24	...	52.2	45.3	46.8	51.8	44.6	51.2	42.7	41.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	...	79.8	78.1	77.9	79.1	75.9	78.1	77.1	76.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Brazil c/	...	60.0	61.4	61.3	61.0	61.3	61.4	61.7	61.6	62.0	61.7	61.0	62.1	55.3	62.1	55.1	62.0	57.1
15 - 24	...	59.1	51.9	50.6	49.3	49.6	49.8	50.8	51.1	51.6	51.6	50.7	51.9	43.1	51.7	43.9	51.8	45.9
25 and over	...	68.1	64.3	64.4	64.4	64.6	64.6	64.7	64.4	64.6	64.3	63.5	64.7	58.2	64.8	57.8	64.6	59.9
Chile d/	60.2	61.5	61.5	61.6	61.9	62.0	62.1	62.7	63.0	62.8	62.7	62.5	62.7	51.9	62.9	53.4	62.8	55.9
15 - 24	37.5	38.5	37.3	36.4	36.7	36.0	35.1	35.1	34.3	32.5	33.8	35.6	32.2	22.0	31.9	22.1	32.6	26.6
25 and over	66.4	67.8	68.0	68.2	68.3	68.4	68.5	69.0	69.3	69.3	69.0	68.1	69.2	58.2	69.6	59.8	69.3	62.0
Colombia e/	62.7	63.7	64.5	64.2	64.2	64.7	64.5	64.4	64.0	63.3	63.5	61.6	62.9	54.8	62.9	58.6	63.1	58.4
15 - 24	53.2	54.4	55.8	54.6	54.6	54.7	53.7	53.2	52.6	51.4	52.1	48.8	50.4	41.2	...	...	51.2	45.0
25 and over	73.4	73.8	74.4	74.2	74.2	74.5	74.3	74.0	73.5	72.8	73.0	71.0	72.7	64.0	...	...	72.9	67.5
Costa Rica f/	60.7	59.0	62.8	62.3	62.5	61.2	58.4	58.8	60.7	62.5	62.4	63.4	63.0	57.6	61.8	59.1	62.4	60.0
15 - 24	44.2	43.4	48.3	48.0	48.2	45.9	43.2	43.4	46.1	45.3	44.6	48.6	45.3	41.7	43.0	43.8	44.3	44.7
25 and over	66.5	64.0	67.2	66.7	66.8	65.8	62.8	63.1	64.5	66.8	66.9	67.2	67.3	61.4	66.4	62.7	66.9	63.7
Ecuador g/	63.7	62.5	63.0	62.9	63.1	66.2	68.2	68.6	67.0	66.6	...	...	66.8	60.9	67.8	62.8	67.3	61.9

Continues...

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
											Average, 1st quarter u/		Average, 2nd quarter u/		Average, 3rd quarter u/		Average Jan - Sep u/	
15 - 24	46.4	43.1	43.9	42.2	41.1	43.5	45.6	45.9	44.7	44.6	...	...	45.0	39.8	46.6	42.1	45.8	41.0
25 and over	69.9	69.2	69.3	69.9	71.0	74.1	76.1	76.4	74.6	73.8	...	...	74.1	67.7	74.7	69.4	74.4	68.5
El Salvador	**62.5**	**62.7**	**63.2**	**63.6**	**62.8**	**62.1**	**62.2**	**61.9**	**61.3**	**62.2**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	49.4	46.3	50.3	49.6	49.1	45.8	48.5	49.0	48.5	49.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	67.3	67.5	68.0	68.8	67.7	66.9	67.0	66.3	65.5	66.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guatemala h/	**62.5**	**61.8**	**65.4**	**60.6**	**60.9**	**60.7**	**60.8**	**61.0**	**60.6**	**59.2**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	53.1	53.5	58.3	50.3	51.8	52.4	52.6	52.5	52.5	51.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	67.2	66.1	68.8	65.7	65.3	64.8	64.7	64.9	64.3	62.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Honduras	**53.6**	**51.9**	**50.8**	**53.7**	**56.1**	**58.1**	**57.5**	**59.0**	**60.4**	**57.3**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	51.5	49.9	48.1	51.6	52.3	56.6	55.5	56.7	57.8	54.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	67.4	65.2	63.7	66.4	68.3	69.0	67.7	68.9	70.4	67.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mexico i/	**59.7**	**59.8**	**60.4**	**60.3**	**59.8**	**59.8**	**59.7**	**59.3**	**59.6**	**60.1**	**59.5**	**59.9**	**60.2**	**49.4**	**60.4**	**55.5**	**60.0**	**54.9**
15 - 24	47.1	46.9	47.3	46.4	45.6	44.8	44.2	43.8	43.8	44.8	43.5	43.7	...	...	46.0	40.7	44.7	42.2
25 and over	64.2	64.3	65.0	65.0	64.4	64.6	64.6	64.2	64.4	64.7	64.2	64.6	...	...	64.7	59.6	64.5	62.1
Nicaragua	**71.3**	**75.6**	**76.8**	**75.8**	**74.0**	**72.4**	**73.6**	**73.5**	**71.6**	**71.1**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	64.5	69.8	71.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	76.3	79.6	80.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Panama j/	**63.5**	**61.9**	**63.5**	**64.1**	**64.0**	**64.2**	**64.4**	**64.0**	**65.4**	**66.5**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	47.8	44.1	46.3	46.9	45.2	43.9	44.2	44.5	46.5	47.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	68.4	66.8	68.6	69.5	69.8	70.4	70.8	69.9	71.2	72.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Paraguay k/	**60.8**	**61.1**	**64.4**	**62.4**	**62.3**	**62.1**	**62.6**	**71.0**	**71.9**	**72.4**	**73.6**	**71.2**	**71.2**	**66.7**	**71.8**	**70.7**	**72.2**	**69.5**
15 - 24	58.0	58.2	60.1	59.6	58.1	55.1	58.6	58.0	58.3	58.9	61.7	57.2	56.9	51.3	58.0	56.0	58.9	54.9

▶ Continues...

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
											Average, 1st quarter u/		Average, 2nd quarter u/		Average, 3rd quarter u/		Average Jan - Sep u/	
25 and over	73.9	74.0	77.8	76.2	74.6	75.4	75.2	75.8	76.8	77.1	77.9	76.1	76.3	72.0	76.7	75.7	76.9	74.6
Peru l/	**74.1**	**73.9**	**73.6**	**73.2**	**72.2**	**71.6**	**72.2**	**72.4**	**72.3**	**72.7**	**72.9**	**70.2**	**72.0**	**45.3**	**72.6**	**63.3**	**72.5**	**59.6**
15 - 24	60.4	59.6	58.9	57.9	56.1	53.7	53.7	53.9	53.2	54.1	57.0	53.2	48.0	29.1	...	...	52.5	41.1
25 and over	80.9	80.9	80.4	80.3	79.4	79.4	80.1	80.1	80.0	80.2	79.3	76.9	77.9	51.3	...	...	78.6	64.0
Uruguay m/	**62.9**	**64.8**	**64.0**	**63.6**	**64.7**	**63.8**	**63.4**	**62.9**	**62.4**	**62.2**	**62.4**	**61.6**	**61.7**	**58.8**	**61.9**	**60.3**	**62.0**	**60.2**
15 - 24	48.6	49.8	48.9	48.7	48.6	46.5	45.2	43.8	43.4	43.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	66.9	68.8	68.1	67.7	68.9	68.5	68.4	68.1	67.6	67.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Venezuela (Boliv. Rep. of)	**64.5**	**64.4**	**63.9**	**64.3**	**65.1**	**63.7**	**63.9**	**66.2**	**66.8**	**65.1**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	42.4	41.8	40.7	40.9	41.6	39.0	38.4	42.5	43.8	43.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	72.4	72.2	71.8	72.0	72.6	71.4	71.8	73.4	73.7	70.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Spanish-speaking Caribbean																		
Cuba	**74.9**	**76.1**	**74.2**	**72.9**	**71.9**	**67.1**	**65.2**	**63.4**	**63.8**	**65.2**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Dominican Republic n/	**56.7**	**58.2**	**59.4**	**59.3**	**59.5**	**61.8**	**62.3**	**62.2**	**63.6**	**65.1**	**64.9**	**63.4**	**65.1**	**56.7**	**...**	**...**	**65.0**	**60.0**
15 - 24	38.6	40.5	41.2	41.0	40.9	43.8	44.6	43.3	44.4	45.3	45.0	43.2	45.8	33.5	...	...	45.4	38.3
25 and over	63.8	65.1	66.2	66.1	66.2	68.2	68.6	68.6	69.9	71.4	71.2	69.8	71.3	63.9	...	...	71.2	66.9
English-speaking Caribbean																		
Bahamas	**...**	**72.1**	**72.5**	**73.2**	**73.7**	**74.3**	**77.1**	**80.5**	**82.8**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Continues...

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
											Average, 1st quarter [u/]		Average, 2nd quarter [u/]		Average, 3rd quarter [u/]		Average Jan - Sep [u/]	
Barbados [o/]	**66.6**	**67.6**	**66.2**	**66.7**	**63.9**	**65.1**	**66.5**	**65.4**	**64.8**	**63.4**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Belize [p/]	**...**	**...**	**65.8**	**64.2**	**63.6**	**63.2**	**64.0**	**64.1**	**65.5**	**68.1**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	...	...	49.5	46.3	46.6	44.7	44.9	45.6	45.4	50.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	...	...	73.9	73.4	73.0	73.0	73.8	73.5	75.8	77.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Granada		**69.5**	**...**	**66.7**	**67.8**	**68.8**	**68.2**	**65.8**	**68.5**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	...	...	...	53.4	55.2	56.6	52.9	52.5	56.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	...	...	...	70.9	71.6	72.1	72.6	69.3	71.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Jamaica [q/]	**62.4**	**62.1**	**61.9**	**63.0**	**62.8**	**63.1**	**64.8**	**65.1**	**64.0**	**64.6**	**64.2**	**65.6**	**...**	**...**	**65.2**	**61.3**	**64.7**	**63.5**
15 - 24	...	...	33.6	34.7	33.3	34.0	36.7	36.5	34.2	34.9	33.9	35.8	...	...	36.4	32.9	35.2	34.4
25 and over	...	...	73.0	74.1	74.4	74.5	75.8	76.3	75.7	76.3	76.1	77.3	...	...	76.5	72.5	76.3	74.9
Saint Lucia [r/]	**...**	**...**	**70.6**	**71.0**	**72.2**	**72.2**	**72.8**	**71.4**	**71.4**	**71.0**	**71.5**	**69.9**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**71.5**	**69.9**
15 - 24	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Trinidad and Tobago [s/]	**62.1**	**61.3**	**61.9**	**61.4**	**61.9**	**60.6**	**59.7**	**59.2**	**59.1**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	48.7	46.6	46.7	46.5	45.3	44.9	42.4	42.0	68.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	65.5	64.1	65.2	64.4	65.4	63.7	63.1	62.4	49.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Latin America and the Caribbean [t/]	**61.9**	**61.8**	**62.5**	**62.2**	**62.1**	**62.0**	**62.1**	**62.4**	**62.5**	**62.7**	**62.3**	**61.7**	**62.6**	**53.1**	**62.9**	**56.7**	**62.6**	**57.2**
Latin America and the Caribbean - 15 - 24 [t/]	**52.4**	**51.8**	**49.6**	**48.3**	**47.7**	**47.2**	**47.3**	**47.6**	**47.8**	**48.0**	**48.4**	**47.3**	**48.8**	**38.8**	**48.7**	**42.1**	**48.1**	**42.7**

▶ Continues...

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
											Average, 1st quarter u/		Average, 2nd quarter u/		Average, 3rd quarter u/		Average Jan - Sep u/	
Latin America and the Caribbean - 25 and over t/	69.0	68.7	67.6	67.4	67.3	67.4	67.5	67.5	67.5	67.4	66.7	66.0	67.9	59.0	65.7	59.4	67.1	62.2

Source: ILO, based on information from the household surveys of the countries.

a/ 31 urban clusters. The INDEC, in the framework of the statistical emergency declared in 2016, recommends disregarding the series published between 2007 and 2015 for purposes of comparison and analysis of the labour market in Argentina. The 2016 annual information is the average of the 2nd, 3rd and 4th quarters. The average of the period January-September of 2020 corresponds to the average of the 1st and 2nd quarters.
b/ New measurement beginning in 2016 through the ECE employment survey. Data not comparable with previous years. Average data for the 1st quarter of 2020 are preliminary and have national coverage. Data of the 2nd and 3rd quarters of 2020 have urban coverage.
c/New measurement beginning in 2017 through the PNADC household survey. Data not comparable with previous years.
d/ In this edition of the Labour Overview, the Chile series beginning in 2010 was adjusted based on the projections of the 2017 census. The series appearing in previous editions of the Labour Overview were based on the 2002 census.
e/ Includes hidden unemployment. The average of the total labour participation rate for the period January-September of 2020 corresponds to the average of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd quarters while the labour force participation rate by age group corresponds to the average of the 1st and 2nd quarters.
f/ 2010 data are the average of the 3rd and 4th quarters.
g/ Includes hidden unemployment. Average data for the 2nd quarter of 2020 correspond to the months of May and June; the average of the 3rd quarter of 2020 correspond to September data. The average of the period January-September of 2020 corresponds to the average of the 2nd and 3rd quarters.
h/ Beginning in 2011, the WAP changed from 10 to 15 years of age, which may affect the comparability of the data.
i/ Average data of the 2nd quarter of 2019 originate from the ENOE survey and those of the 2nd quarter of 2020 come from the ETOE survey, while data for the 3rd quarter of 2019 are from the ENOE survey and those for the same period of 2020 are from the new edition of the ENOE survey. For the period January-September of 2020 the total labour participation rate corresponds to the average of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd quarters while the labour force participation rate by age group corresponds to the 1st and 3rd quarters.
j/ Includes hidden unemployment.
k/ New measurement beginning in 2017 through the EPHC household survey. Data are not comparable with previous years.
l/ Data of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd quarters of 2020 are preliminary. For the period January-September of 2020 the total labour force participation rate corresponds to the average of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd quarters while the labour force participation rate by age group corresponds to the 1st and 2nd quarters.
m/The average data for the 1st quarter of 2020 originate from the ECH survey for the months of January and February; data for March come from the ECH-Telfónica survey. The average data for the 2nd quarter of 2020 correspond to the months of April, May and June of the ECH-Telefónica survey and those of the 3rd quarter correspond to the months of July, August and September of the ECH-Telefónica survey.
n/ The 2010-2014 series is based on the weighted ENFT labour force survey. New measurement beginning in 2015 through the ENCFT survey. Data not comparable with previous years. Data for the period January-September correspond to the average of the 1st and 2nd quarters.
o/2019 data are preliminary and are being revised.
p/2018 data correspond to April.
q/ Includes hidden unemployment. Data for the period January-September to the average of the 1st and 3rd quarters.
r/ The January-September average corresponds to the average of the 1st quarter.
s/ Total data of 2018 correspond to the annual average whereas data by sex are from the 1st semester.
t/ Weighted average. ILO projections on the total working age population and by age group are used as weighting factors. The 2019 regional average is preliminary.
u/ Average data for the 1st, 2nd and 3rd quarters, as well as those of the average of the period January-September 2020, can present comparability problems with the respect data of 2019 given the adjustments that statistical and census institutes made in response to the COVID-19 pandemic. Preliminary data. The total weighted average total of the labour force participation rate of the 1st quarter includes Bolivia (Pluri. Sate of), Uruguay and Saint Lucia while in the weighted average of the labour force participation rate by age group, these countries had no available data. The 2nd quarter of the weighted average of the total labour force participation rate includes Bolivia (Pluri. State of), Mexico and Uruguay, while these countries have no available data for the weighted average of the labour force participation rate by age group. The 3rd quarter of the weighted average of the total labour force participation rate includes Bolivia (Pluri. State of), Colombia, Peru and Uruguay, while these countries had no available data in the labour force participation rate disaggregated by age groups.
‖ Years when a country revises a survey or key variables that can lead to a potential break in the comparability of data.

▶ **TABLE 5.** LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT-TO-POPULATION RATIO, BY COUNTRY AND SEX, 2010-2020
(Average annual rates)

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
											Average, 1st quarter [p/]		Average, 2nd quarter [p/]		Average, 3rd quarter [p/]		Average Jan - Sep [p/]	
Latin America																		
Argentina [a/]	...	...	...	...	...	...	**52.6**	**52.9**	**53.1**	**53.3**	**52.9**	**52.5**	**53.1**	**42.8**	...	...	**53.0**	**47.7**
Men	...	...	...	...	...	...	64.0	64.4	63.9	63.5	63.4	62.0	63.0	50.6	...	...	63.2	56.3
Women	...	...	...	...	...	...	42.5	42.7	43.6	44.1	43.5	43.9	44.3	35.6	...	...	43.9	39.8
Bolivia (Pluri. State of) [b/]	...	**63.7**	**59.7**	**61.5**	**64.3**	**58.9**	**63.8**	**64.9**	**68.4**	**70.3**	**69.3**	**70.6**	**65.0**	**55.8**	**66.3**	**57.3**	**65.1**	**59.4**
Men	...	73.1	69.2	71.0	73.7	70.0	74.0	74.3	76.4	78.0	77.0	77.7	72.6	63.1	74.5	66.0	73.1	67.3
Women	...	55.7	50.9	52.8	55.3	48.2	53.9	56.0	60.8	62.9	61.8	63.8	57.6	48.7	58.4	49.0	57.4	51.7
Brazil [c/]	...	**56.0**	**56.9**	**56.9**	**56.8**	**56.1**	**54.3**	**53.9**	**54.1**	**54.6**	**53.9**	**53.5**	**54.6**	**47.9**	**54.8**	**47.1**	**54.4**	**49.5**
Men	...	67.3	68.7	68.7	68.3	67.1	65.0	63.9	64.0	64.4	63.7	63.5	64.3	57.6	64.6	57.3	64.2	59.4
Women	...	45.5	46.1	46.2	46.4	46.0	44.6	44.7	45.1	45.7	44.9	44.5	45.9	39.4	45.9	38.1	45.6	40.7
Chile [d/]	**55.2**	**57.0**	**57.4**	**57.8**	**57.9**	**58.1**	**58.0**	**58.3**	**58.3**	**58.3**	**58.2**	**57.3**	**58.1**	**45.6**	**58.3**	**46.8**	**58.2**	**49.9**
Men	68.8	70.2	70.3	70.2	69.6	70.0	69.4	69.4	69.2	68.7	69.1	68.1	68.2	55.2	68.4	56.2	68.6	59.8
Women	42.2	44.5	45.1	46.1	46.7	46.7	47.0	47.7	48.0	48.4	47.6	47.0	48.5	36.3	48.6	37.7	48.3	40.4
Colombia	**55.3**	**56.8**	**57.8**	**58.0**	**58.4**	**59.0**	**58.5**	**58.4**	**57.8**	**56.6**	**56.0**	**53.8**	**56.6**	**43.7**	**56.2**	**48.4**	**56.3**	**48.6**
Men	67.6	69.0	69.5	69.4	69.7	70.1	69.6	69.4	69.1	67.9	67.4	65.6	67.6	54.7	67.3	61.1	67.4	60.5
Women	43.7	45.2	46.7	47.1	47.6	48.3	48.0	47.8	47.0	45.9	45.1	42.6	46.0	33.1	45.6	36.2	45.6	37.3
Costa Rica [e/]	**55.3**	**52.9**	**56.2**	**56.4**	**56.5**	**55.4**	**52.8**	**53.5**	**54.4**	**55.2**	**55.4**	**55.5**	**55.5**	**43.7**	**54.7**	**46.1**	**55.2**	**48.5**
Men	69.6	67.2	69.2	68.9	69.7	68.3	66.6	67.5	68.0	67.4	67.5	68.2	67.7	56.4	66.7	59.0	67.3	61.2
Women	40.8	38.5	43.5	43.8	43.2	42.2	38.9	39.4	40.7	42.8	43.1	42.8	43.2	31.0	42.6	33.1	43.0	35.6
Ecuador [f/]	**60.1**	**59.6**	**60.4**	**60.3**	**60.4**	**63.3**	**64.6**	**65.5**	**64.3**	**63.7**	...	...	**63.9**	**52.8**	**64.5**	**58.7**	**64.2**	**55.7**
Men	75.3	75.0	75.3	74.9	75.9	77.6	77.5	78.2	77.0	75.8	...	...	75.8	65.2	76.2	70.2	76.0	67.7
Women	45.9	45.3	46.5	46.6	46.0	49.8	52.4	53.6	52.2	52.0	...	...	52.5	40.9	53.3	47.6	52.9	44.3

▶ Continues...

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
											Average, 1st quarter p/		Average, 2nd quarter p/		Average, 3rd quarter p/		Average Jan - Sep p/	
El Salvador	**58.1**	**58.6**	**59.4**	**59.9**	**58.4**	**57.8**	**57.9**	**57.6**	**57.4**	**58.2**	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Men	74.1	74.6	75.4	75.1	73.7	73.5	73.6	73.9	73.6	74.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	44.8	45.0	45.8	47.0	45.5	44.4	44.7	43.9	43.8	44.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guatemala g/	**60.2**	**59.2**	**63.5**	**58.7**	**59.1**	**59.2**	**59.2**	**59.4**	**59.1**	**57.9**	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Men	81.7	82.2	85.5	81.1	81.6	83.0	82.2	83.6	83.2	82.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	41.1	37.7	44.1	39.1	39.2	37.5	38.7	37.8	38.0	36.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Honduras	**51.5**	**49.7**	**48.9**	**51.6**	**53.1**	**53.8**	**53.2**	**55.1**	**57.0**	**54.1**	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Men	68.7	68.1	67.2	69.7	70.3	70.8	70.2	73.0	72.8	71.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	35.4	32.8	32.2	35.3	37.8	38.8	38.4	39.1	42.6	38.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mexico h/	**56.5**	**56.7**	**57.5**	**57.3**	**56.9**	**57.2**	**57.4**	**57.3**	**57.6**	**58.0**	**57.5**	**57.8**	**58.1**	**47.0**	**58.1**	**52.6**	**57.9**	**52.5**
Men	74.5	74.4	74.9	74.6	74.4	74.7	74.7	75.0	74.9	74.5	74.4	73.8	74.4	60.1	74.6	68.7	74.5	67.5
Women	40.3	40.6	41.7	41.7	41.0	41.4	41.7	41.4	42.0	43.1	42.1	43.4	43.3	35.2	43.2	38.0	42.9	38.9
Nicaragua	**65.7**	**71.1**	**72.3**	**71.4**	**69.1**	**68.1**	**70.2**	**70.8**	**67.7**	**67.2**	**67.4**	**67.6**	**66.7**	**62.9**	...	...	**67.0**	**65.3**
Men	79.2	83.1	83.0	82.3	80.5	79.9	81.3	81.7	78.1	77.8	77.7	77.7	77.6	74.1	...	...	77.6	75.9
Women	53.0	59.8	62.2	61.2	58.5	57.1	60.1	60.8	58.2	57.7	58.1	58.5	57.0	52.9	...	...	57.5	55.7
Panama	**59.4**	**59.1**	**61.0**	**61.5**	**60.9**	**60.9**	**60.8**	**60.1**	**61.5**	**61.8**	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Men	76.1	75.8	77.4	77.1	76.2	75.0	74.9	73.7	75.0	74.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	43.5	43.5	45.8	46.8	46.8	47.6	47.7	47.2	48.8	50.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Paraguay i/	**57.3**	**57.7**	**61.5**	**59.3**	**58.6**	**58.7**	**58.9**	**66.7**	**67.4**	**67.6**	**68.5**	**65.6**	**65.9**	**61.6**	**67.3**	**64.9**	**67.2**	**64.0**
Men	70.6	70.0	72.4	70.7	71.1	70.5	70.8	80.1	80.0	80.2	81.5	78.5	77.8	75.8	79.9	79.4	79.7	77.9
Women	43.9	45.4	50.6	49.7	46.0	47.2	47.0	53.4	55.0	55.3	55.8	53.1	54.3	47.9	55.0	50.9	55.0	50.6
Peru j/	**71.1**	**70.9**	**70.8**	**70.3**	**69.6**	**69.1**	**69.2**	**69.5**	**69.4**	**69.8**	**69.1**	**66.6**	**69.4**	**41.3**	**70.1**	**57.2**	**69.5**	**55.1**
Men	79.7	79.6	79.8	79.2	78.5	78.2	78.1	77.8	77.7	78.1	77.6	74.8	77.0	49.4	...	...	77.3	62.1

Continues...

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
											Average, 1st quarter [p/]		Average, 2nd quarter [p/]		Average, 3rd quarter [p/]		Average Jan - Sep [p/]	
Women	62.6	62.4	61.9	61.5	60.7	60.1	60.4	61.1	61.1	61.5	60.5	58.6	61.9	33.4	...	...	61.2	46.0
Uruguay [k/]	**58.4**	**60.7**	**59.9**	**59.5**	**60.4**	**59.0**	**58.4**	**57.9**	**57.2**	**56.7**	**56.9**	**55.6**	**56.2**	**52.9**	**56.2**	**53.8**	**56.4**	**54.1**
Men	69.3	71.0	69.8	70.2	70.5	68.4	67.5	66.9	65.8	64.9	65.2	62.5	64.9	60.6	64.4	62.4	64.8	61.8
Women	48.9	51.3	51.1	50.0	51.3	50.5	50.1	49.8	49.4	49.0	49.3	49.3	48.3	45.8	48.7	45.9	48.7	47.0
Venezuela (Boliv. Rep. of)	**58.9**	**59.0**	**58.7**	**59.3**	**60.4**	**59.1**	**59.2**	**61.3**	**61.9**	**60.6**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	72.3	72.6	72.1	72.6	73.8	72.6	72.4	74.8	74.9	74.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	45.6	45.6	45.6	46.1	47.1	45.9	46.3	48.1	49.1	47.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Spanish-speaking Caribbean																		
Cuba	**73.0**	**73.6**	**71.6**	**70.5**	**70.0**	**65.4**	**63.8**	**62.4**	**62.7**	**64.4**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	85.6	87.3	86.4	84.4	84.2	78.5	76.7	75.0	75.7	75.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	58.9	58.4	55.3	55.3	54.6	51.2	49.8	48.6	48.6	52.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Dominican Republic [l/]	**53.8**	**54.6**	**55.4**	**54.9**	**55.5**	**57.3**	**57.9**	**58.7**	**60.0**	**61.0**	**61.1**	**59.8**	**61.0**	**54.9**	**...**	**...**	**61.0**	**57.3**
Men	69.2	69.7	70.3	69.9	70.6	72.3	72.9	73.1	75.1	75.3	75.9	73.6	75.2	68.9	...	...	75.5	71.3
Women	38.8	40.1	41.1	40.4	41.0	43.1	43.8	45.2	45.9	47.8	47.3	47.1	47.7	42.0	...	...	47.5	44.5
English-speaking Caribbean																		
Bahamas	**...**	**60.6**	**62.0**	**61.6**	**62.9**	**64.4**	**67.7**	**72.5**	**74.2**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	...	...	64.4	64.9	67.2	70.1	73.3	76.0	76.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	...	...	59.9	58.8	59.0	61.0	62.7	66.8	68.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Barbados	**59.5**	**60.1**	**58.5**	**58.9**	**56.0**	**57.7**	**60.0**	**58.9**	**58.3**	**57.0**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	64.0	65.6	64.1	63.6	59.7	60.2	63.9	62.9	62.5	59.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	55.4	55.1	53.5	54.8	52.6	55.3	56.5	55.3	54.4	54.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Belize [m/]	**...**	**...**	**55.7**	**56.7**	**56.3**	**56.8**	**57.9**	**58.1**	**59.4**	**62.0**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**

▶ Continues...

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
											Average, 1st quarter p/		Average, 2nd quarter p/		Average, 3rd quarter p/		Average Jan - Sep p/	
Men	...	...	70.9	72.3	73.3	72.5	73.6	73.6	73.9	75.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	...	...	40.9	39.6	39.4	41.2	42.4	42.9	45.1	48.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Granada	**...**	**51.3**	**...**	**45.3**	**47.9**	**48.9**	**49.0**	**50.3**	**55.4**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	...	56.4	...	51.8	51.5	55.2	54.5	56.6	62.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	...	46.1	...	38.7	44.3	42.9	43.4	44.3	48.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Jamaica	**54.7**	**54.3**	**53.3**	**53.4**	**54.2**	**54.6**	**56.2**	**57.5**	**58.2**	**59.7**	**59.1**	**60.8**	**...**	**...**	**60.1**	**53.6**	**60.1**	**53.6**
Men	63.9	63.6	61.9	62.1	62.9	63.3	64.3	65.2	65.6	66.9	65.8	67.4	...	...	67.7	60.6	67.7	60.6
Women	45.9	45.8	45.0	45.0	45.8	46.2	48.4	50.0	51.0	52.7	52.6	54.5	...	...	52.8	46.9	52.8	46.9
Saint Lucia	**...**	**...**	**55.6**	**54.4**	**54.5**	**54.8**	**57.4**	**57.0**	**57.0**	**59.0**	**60.5**	**57.6**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**60.5**	**57.6**
Men	...	...	60.9	60.0	60.9	61.6	63.1	62.9	63.4	64.4	66.6	67.1	...	...	...	...	66.6	67.1
Women	...	...	50.6	49.1	48.3	47.9	51.6	51.4	50.8	53.9	54.7	48.6	...	...	...	...	54.7	48.6
Trinidad and Tobago n/	**58.4**	**58.2**	**58.8**	**59.1**	**59.9**	**58.5**	**57.4**	**56.3**	**56.8**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
Men	69.7	69.5	69.2	69.5	70.1	69.2	66.8	66.0	65.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	47.3	46.3	48.5	48.8	49.7	47.9	48.0	46.7	47.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Latin America and the Caribbean o/	**57.7**	**57.8**	**58.5**	**58.3**	**58.3**	**57.9**	**57.3**	**57.4**	**57.6**	**57.8**	**56.7**	**56.2**	**57.3**	**47.2**	**57.7**	**50.2**	**57.2**	**51.2**
Latin America and the Caribbean - Men o/	**71.0**	**71.2**	**71.9**	**71.7**	**71.5**	**71.0**	**70.1**	**70.0**	**70.0**	**69.9**	**68.5**	**67.7**	**68.7**	**57.7**	**68.7**	**61.8**	**68.8**	**62.4**
Latin America and the Caribbean - Women o/	**45.3**	**45.3**	**46.0**	**46.0**	**46.0**	**45.8**	**45.5**	**45.8**	**46.2**	**46.6**	**45.9**	**45.7**	**46.8**	**37.6**	**45.9**	**38.7**	**46.5**	**40.9**

Source: ILO, based on information from the household surveys of the countries.

a/ 31 urban clusters. The INDEC, in the framework of the statistical emergency declared in 2016, recommends disregarding the series published between 2007 and 2015 for purposes of comparison and analysis of the labour market in Argentina. The 2016 annual information is the average of the 2nd, 3rd and 4th quarters.

b/ New measurement beginning in 2016 through the ECE employment survey. Data not comparable with previous years. Average data for the 1st quarter of 2020 are preliminary and have national coverage. Data of the 2nd and 3rd quarters of 2020 have urban coverage.
c/New measurement beginning in 2017 through the PNADC household survey. Data not comparable with previous years.
d/ In this edition of the Labour Overview, the Chile series beginning in 2010 was adjusted based on the projections of the 2017 census. The series appearing in previous editions of the Labour Overview were based on the 2002 census.
e/ 2010 data are the average of the 3rd and 4th quarters.
f/ The average data for the 2nd quarter of 2020 correspond to the months of May and June and for the 3rd quarter of 2020 to September.
g/ Beginning in 2011, the WAP changed from 10 to 15 years of age, which may affect the comparability of the data.
h/ The average data for the 2nd and 3rd quarters of 2019 originate from the ENOE survey; those of the 2nd quarter 2020 come from the ETOE survey and those of the 3rd quarter of 2020 to the new edition of the ENOE.
i/ New measurement beginning in 2017 through the EPHC household survey. Data are not comparable with previous years.
j/ Data of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd quarters of 2020 are preliminary. For the period January-September, the average of the labour participation rate corresponds to the three quarters while the average of the rate disaggregated by sex corresponds to the average of the 1st and 2nd quarters.
k/The average data for the 1st quarter of 2020 originate from the ECH survey for the months of January and February; data for March come from the ECH-Telefónica survey. The average data for the 2nd quarter of 2020 correspond to the months of April, May and June of the ECH-Telefónica survey and those of the 3rd quarter correspond to the months of July, August and September of the ECH-Telefónica survey.
l/ The 2010-2014 series is based on the weighted ENFT labour force survey. New measurement beginning in 2015 through the ENCFT survey. Data not comparable with previous years.
m/2018 data correspond to April.
n/ 2018 data correspond to the annual average. Data by sex correspond to the 1st semester.
o/ Weighted average. ILO projections on the total working age population and by sex are used as the weighting factor. 2019 regional totals are preliminary.
p/ Average data for the 1st, 2nd and 3rd quarters, as well as those of the average of the period January-September 2020, can present comparability problems with the respect data of 2019 given the adjustments that statistical and census institutes made in response to the COVID-19 pandemic. Preliminary data.

‖ Years when a country revises a survey or key variables that can lead to a potential break in the comparability of data.

TABLE 6. LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT-TO-POPULATION RATIO BY YEAR, COUNTRY AND AGE GROUP, 2010-2020
(Average annual rates)

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019 Average, 1st quarter s/	2020 Average, 1st quarter s/	2019 Average, 2nd quarter s/	2020 Average, 2nd quarter s/	2019 Average, 3rd quarter s/	2020 Average, 3rd quarter s/	2019 Average Jan - Sep s/	2020 Average Jan - Sep s/
Latin America																		
Argentina a/	...	...	...	...	...	...	**52.6**	**52.9**	**53.1**	**53.3**	**52.9**	**52.5**	**53.1**	**42.8**	...	...	**53.0**	**47.7**
15 - 24	...	...	...	...	...	...	29.2	30.2	30.2	29.0	29.0	28.2	28.6	17.3	...	...	28.8	22.8
25 and over	...	...	...	...	...	...	60.5	60.6	60.7	61.0	60.7	60.4	61.0	50.9	...	...	60.8	55.7
Bolivia (Pluri. State of) b/	...	**63.7**	**59.7**	**61.5**	**64.3**	**58.9**	**63.8**	**64.9**	**68.4**	**70.3**	**69.3**	**70.6**	**65.0**	**55.8**	**66.3**	**57.3**	**65.1**	**59.4**
15 - 24	...	48.8	43.3	43.5	49.0	41.0	47.4	39.2	37.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	...	78.4	76.7	76.3	77.8	73.9	76.0	75.2	74.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Brazil c/	...	**56.0**	**56.9**	**56.9**	**56.8**	**56.1**	**54.3**	**53.9**	**54.1**	**54.6**	**53.9**	**53.5**	**54.6**	**47.9**	**54.8**	**47.1**	**54.4**	**49.5**
15 - 24	...	50.1	43.4	42.4	41.4	39.7	36.3	36.0	36.5	37.2	36.3	35.8	37.4	29.6	37.4	29.5	37.0	31.7
25 and over	...	65.0	61.0	61.2	61.3	60.7	59.4	58.8	58.7	59.1	58.4	57.9	59.1	52.3	59.2	51.3	58.9	53.8
Chile d/	**55.2**	**57.0**	**57.4**	**57.8**	**57.9**	**58.1**	**58.0**	**58.3**	**58.3**	**58.3**	**58.2**	**57.3**	**58.1**	**45.6**	**58.3**	**46.8**	**58.2**	**49.9**
15 - 24	30.5	31.8	31.2	30.6	30.6	30.5	29.7	29.0	28.2	26.5	28.2	28.6	26.2	15.8	26.0	16.2	26.8	20.2
25 and over	62.0	63.9	64.5	65.0	64.8	64.9	64.7	65.0	65.0	65.1	64.7	63.4	65.0	51.8	65.2	53.1	65.0	56.1
Colombia e/	**55.3**	**56.8**	**57.8**	**58.0**	**58.4**	**59.0**	**58.5**	**58.4**	**57.8**	**56.6**	**56.0**	**53.8**	**56.6**	**43.7**	**56.2**	**48.4**	**56.3**	**48.6**
15 - 24	40.8	42.5	44.3	44.2	44.4	45.0	43.8	43.3	42.3	40.7	40.4	37.2	40.1	27.6	...	...	40.2	32.5
25 and over	66.8	67.8	68.5	68.7	69.0	69.3	68.9	68.5	67.9	66.6	66.0	63.6	66.9	52.4	...	...	66.4	58.0
Costa Rica f/	**55.3**	**52.9**	**56.2**	**56.4**	**56.5**	**55.4**	**52.8**	**53.5**	**54.4**	**55.2**	**55.4**	**55.5**	**55.5**	**43.7**	**54.7**	**46.1**	**55.2**	**48.5**
15 - 24	34.7	33.7	37.1	37.2	36.1	35.3	33.2	33.6	33.7	30.8	31.3	33.6	30.5	21.6	29.6	23.0	30.5	26.1
25 and over	62.5	59.1	62.2	62.4	62.6	61.3	58.6	59.0	59.8	61.2	61.4	61.0	61.5	49.0	61.0	51.5	61.3	53.8
Ecuador g/	**60.1**	**59.6**	**60.4**	**60.3**	**60.4**	**63.3**	**64.6**	**65.5**	**64.3**	**63.7**	...	...	**63.9**	**52.8**	**64.5**	**58.7**	**64.2**	**55.7**
15 - 24	40.5	37.9	39.2	37.6	36.5	39.0	40.2	41.4	40.5	40.1	...	...	40.4	30.1	41.5	37.2	40.9	33.6

Continues...

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
											Average, 1st quarter [s/]		Average, 2nd quarter [s/]		Average, 3rd quarter [s/]		Average Jan - Sep [s/]	
25 and over	67.2	67.1	67.4	68.1	69.0	71.9	73.1	73.9	72.3	71.3	...	...	71.6	60.1	72.0	65.5	71.8	62.8
El Salvador	**58.1**	**58.6**	**59.4**	**59.9**	**58.4**	**57.8**	**57.9**	**57.6**	**57.4**	**58.2**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	42.6	40.7	44.0	43.4	41.7	39.4	41.7	41.9	41.9	42.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	63.8	64.1	65.0	66.0	64.4	63.4	63.5	62.9	62.5	63.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guatemala [h/]	**60.2**	**59.2**	**63.5**	**58.7**	**59.1**	**59.2**	**59.2**	**59.4**	**59.1**	**57.9**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	50.0	49.4	55.4	47.4	48.6	49.4	49.6	49.8	49.9	49.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	65.2	64.3	67.4	64.3	64.2	64.0	63.8	63.9	63.4	61.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Honduras	**51.5**	**49.7**	**48.9**	**51.6**	**53.1**	**53.8**	**53.2**	**55.1**	**57.0**	**54.1**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	47.6	45.9	44.8	47.9	47.4	48.6	46.7	49.0	51.4	47.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	65.5	63.2	62.1	64.5	65.5	65.8	64.9	66.2	67.6	64.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mexico [i/]	**56.5**	**56.7**	**57.5**	**57.3**	**56.9**	**57.2**	**57.4**	**57.3**	**57.6**	**58.0**	**57.5**	**57.8**	**58.1**	**47.0**	**58.1**	**52.6**	**57.9**	**52.5**
15 - 24	42.5	42.3	42.8	42.0	41.2	41.0	40.8	40.8	40.7	41.6	40.5	40.7	...	...	42.3	37.0	41.4	38.8
25 and over	61.5	61.7	62.5	62.4	62.0	62.4	62.6	62.4	62.7	62.9	62.5	62.8	...	...	62.8	57.0	62.7	59.9
Nicaragua	**65.7**	**71.1**	**72.3**	**71.4**	**69.1**	**68.1**	**70.2**	**70.8**	**67.7**	**67.2**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	56.8	64.4	64.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	71.5	76.1	76.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Panama	**59.4**	**59.1**	**61.0**	**61.5**	**60.9**	**60.9**	**60.8**	**60.1**	**61.5**	**61.8**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	40.7	38.7	41.5	41.8	39.5	38.2	38.2	37.2	39.2	38.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	65.2	64.8	66.7	67.7	67.5	67.9	68.0	67.0	68.4	68.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Paraguay [j/]	**57.3**	**57.7**	**61.5**	**59.3**	**58.6**	**58.7**	**58.9**	**66.7**	**67.4**	**67.6**	**68.5**	**65.6**	**65.9**	**61.6**	**67.3**	**64.9**	**67.2**	**64.0**
15 - 24	50.8	50.9	53.9	53.4	50.9	48.6	51.0	50.0	50.0	50.2	52.0	46.9	47.1	42.6	50.4	46.1	49.8	45.2
25 and over	71.4	71.7	75.7	73.7	71.7	72.9	72.3	72.9	73.7	73.8	74.4	72.1	72.6	68.3	73.3	71.4	73.4	70.6
Peru [k/]	**71.1**	**70.9**	**70.8**	**70.3**	**69.6**	**69.1**	**69.2**	**69.5**	**69.4**	**69.8**	**69.1**	**66.6**	**69.4**	**41.3**	**70.1**	**57.2**	**69.5**	**55.1**

▶ Continues...

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
											Average, 1st quarter s/		Average, 2nd quarter s/		Average, 3rd quarter s/		Average Jan - Sep s/	
15 - 24	54.7	53.9	53.5	52.6	50.6	49.2	48.0	48.2	47.5	48.6	50.2	47.3	43.4	25.0	...	...	46.8	36.1
25 and over	78.9	79.0	78.7	78.2	77.8	77.6	78.0	78.1	78.0	78.2	76.6	74.0	75.7	47.2	...	...	76.2	60.5
Uruguay l/	**58.4**	**60.7**	**59.9**	**59.5**	**60.4**	**59.0**	**58.4**	**57.9**	**57.2**	**56.7**	**56.9**	**55.6**	**56.2**	**52.9**	**56.2**	**53.8**	**56.4**	**54.1**
15 - 24	38.6	40.8	39.9	39.3	39.1	36.1	34.5	33.0	32.2	31.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	63.9	66.0	65.3	65.0	66.1	65.3	65.0	64.7	64.1	63.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Venezuela (Boliv. Rep. of)	**58.9**	**59.0**	**58.7**	**59.3**	**60.4**	**59.1**	**59.2**	**61.3**	**61.9**	**60.6**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	34.9	34.5	33.7	34.2	35.4	33.1	32.4	35.6	36.3	36.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	67.5	67.6	67.3	67.6	68.4	67.3	67.5	69.2	69.6	66.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Spanish-speaking Caribbean																		
Cuba	**73.0**	**73.6**	**71.6**	**70.5**	**70.0**	**65.4**	**63.8**	**62.4**	**62.7**	**64.4**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Dominican Republic m/	**53.8**	**54.6**	**55.4**	**54.9**	**55.5**	**57.3**	**57.9**	**58.7**	**60.0**	**61.0**	**61.1**	**59.8**	**61.0**	**54.9**	**...**	**...**	**61.0**	**57.3**
15 - 24	34.4	34.9	35.0	33.9	35.4	36.8	37.2	37.7	38.0	38.2	38.0	37.1	38.8	30.7	...	...	38.4	33.9
25 and over	61.4	62.4	63.0	62.8	62.7	64.5	65.2	65.9	67.2	68.3	68.4	67.0	68.0	62.4	...	...	68.2	64.7
English-speaking Caribbean																		
Bahamas	**...**	**60.6**	**62.0**	**61.6**	**62.9**	**64.4**	**67.7**	**72.5**	**74.2**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Barbados	**59.5**	**60.1**	**58.5**	**58.9**	**56.0**	**57.7**	**60.0**	**58.9**	**58.3**	**57.0**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Continues...

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
											Average, 1st quarter [s/]		Average, 2nd quarter [s/]		Average, 3rd quarter [s/]		Average Jan - Sep [s/]	
25 and over	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Belize [n/]	**...**	**...**	**55.7**	**56.7**	**56.3**	**56.8**	**57.9**	**58.1**	**59.4**	**62.0**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	...	...	35.7	35.3	35.9	35.2	35.3	36.7	35.7	40.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	...	...	65.7	66.5	67.2	68.1	69.4	69.0	71.4	72.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Granada	**...**	**51.3**	**...**	**45.3**	**47.9**	**48.9**	**49.0**	**50.3**	**55.4**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	...	...	...	25.4	30.3	33.0	26.2	31.6	37.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	...	...	...	51.4	53.3	53.1	55.5	55.3	59.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Jamaica [o/]	**54.7**	**54.3**	**53.3**	**53.4**	**54.2**	**54.6**	**56.2**	**57.5**	**58.2**	**59.7**	**59.1**	**60.8**	**...**	**...**	**60.1**	**53.6**	**59.6**	**57.2**
15 - 24	...	...	22.4	21.6	21.9	22.8	25.0	26.2	25.9	27.7	26.6	29.0	...	...	29.0	22.9	27.8	26.0
25 and over	...	...	65.4	65.9	66.9	67.0	68.5	69.8	70.9	72.2	71.8	73.3	...	...	72.3	65.6	72.0	69.5
Saint Lucia [p/]	**...**	**...**	**55.6**	**54.4**	**54.5**	**54.8**	**57.4**	**57.0**	**57.0**	**59.0**	**60.5**	**57.6**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**60.5**	**57.6**
15 - 24	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Trinidad and Tobago [q/]	**58.4**	**58.2**	**58.8**	**59.1**	**59.9**	**58.5**	**57.4**	**56.3**	**56.8**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
15 - 24	41.8	41.0	41.3	42.4	41.7	41.0	37.9	37.8	34.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25 and over	62.6	61.7	62.6	62.6	63.7	62.0	61.1	59.8	60.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Latin America and the Caribbean [r/]	**57.7**	**57.8**	**58.5**	**58.3**	**58.3**	**57.9**	**57.3**	**57.4**	**57.6**	**57.8**	**56.7**	**56.2**	**57.3**	**47.2**	**57.7**	**50.2**	**57.2**	**51.2**
Latin America and the Caribbean - 15 - 24 [r/]	**44.7**	**44.5**	**42.7**	**41.5**	**41.0**	**40.1**	**38.8**	**38.8**	**38.9**	**39.1**	**38.1**	**37.3**	**37.2**	**27.4**	**38.8**	**32.0**	**38.4**	**33.0**

▶ Continues...

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
											Average, 1st quarter s/		Average, 2nd quarter s/		Average, 3rd quarter s/		Average Jan - Sep s/	
Latin America and the Caribbean - 25 and over r/	65.5	65.5	64.3	64.3	64.3	64.1	63.6	63.4	63.5	63.3	62.2	61.5	62.7	52.5	61.5	54.1	62.7	57.0

Source: ILO, based on information from the household surveys of the countries.

a/ 31 urban clusters. The INDEC, in the framework of the statistical emergency declared in 2016, recommends disregarding the series published between 2007 and 2015 for purposes of comparison and analysis of the labour market in Argentina. The 2016 annual information is the average of the 2nd, 3rd and 4th quarters. The average of the period January-September of 2020 corresponds to the average of the 1st and 2nd quarters.
b/ New measurement beginning in 2016 through the ECE employment survey. Data not comparable with previous years. Average data for the 1st quarter of 2020 are preliminary and have national coverage. Data of the 2nd and 3rd quarters of 2020 have urban coverage.
c/New measurement beginning in 2017 through the PNADC household survey. Data not comparable with previous years.
d/ In this edition of the Labour Overview, the Chile series beginning in 2010 was adjusted based on the projections of the 2017 census. The series appearing in previous editions of the Labour Overview were based on the 2002 census.
e/ For the period January-September, the total employment-to-population ratio corresponds to the average of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd quarters while the employment-to-population ratio by age group corresponds to the average of the 1st and 2nd quarters.
f/ 2010 data are the average of the 3rd and 4th quarters.
g/ Average data for the 2nd quarter of 2020 correspond to the months of May and June; the average of the 3rd quarter of 2020 correspond to September data. The average of the period January-September of 2020 corresponds to the average of the 2nd and 3rd quarters.
h/ Beginning in 2011, the WAP changed from 10 to 15 years of age, which may affect the comparability of the data.
i/ Average data of the 2nd quarter of 2019 originate from the ENOE survey and those of the 2nd quarter of 2020 come from the ETOE survey, while data for the 3rd quarter of 2019 are from the ENOE survey and those for the same period of 2020 are from the new edition of the ENOE survey. For the period January-September, the total employment-to-population ratio corresponds to the average of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd quarters while the employment-to-population ratio by age group corresponds to the 1st and 3rd quarters.
j/ New measurement beginning in 2017 through the EPHC household survey. Data are not comparable with previous years.
k/ Data of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd quarters of 2020 are preliminary. For the period January-September, the total employment-to-population ratio corresponds to the average of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd quarters while the employment-to-population ratio by age group corresponds to the 1st and 2nd quarters.
l/The average data for the 1st quarter of 2020 originate from the ECH survey for the months of January and February; data for March come from the ECH-Telefónica survey. The average data for the 2nd quarter of 2020 correspond to the months of April, May and June of the ECH-Telefónica survey and those of the 3rd quarter correspond to the months of July, August and September of the ECH-Telefónica survey.
m/ The 2010-2014 series is based on the weighted ENFT labour force survey. New measurement beginning in 2015 through the ENCFT survey. Data not comparable with previous years. Data for the period January-September correspond to the average of the 1st and 2nd quarters.
n/2018 data correspond to April.
o/ Data for the period January-September to the average of the 1st and 3rd quarters.
p/ The January-September average corresponds to the average of the 1st quarter.
q/ Total data of 2018 correspond to the annual average whereas data by sex are from the 1st semester.
r/ Weighted average. ILO projections on the total working age population and by age group are used as weighting factors. The 2019 regional average is preliminary.
s/ Average data for the 1st, 2nd and 3rd quarters, as well as those of the average of the period January-September 2020, can present comparability problems with the respect data of 2019 given the adjustments that statistical and census institutes made in response to the COVID-19 pandemic. Preliminary data. The total weighted average of the employment-to-population ratio of the 1st quarter includes Bolivia (Pluri. State of), Uruguay and Saint Lucia, while these countries do not present data in the weighted average of the employment-to-population ratio by age group. the 2nd quarter of the weighted average of the total employment-to-population ratio includes Bolivia (Pluri. State of), Mexico and Uruguay, while these countries do not present data in the weighted average of the employment-to-population ratio by age group. The 3rd quarter of the total weighted average of the employment-to-population ratio includes Bolivia (Pluri. State of), Colombia, Peru and Uruguay, while these countries do not present data in the weighted average of the employment-to-population ratio disaggregated by age group.

‖ Years when a country revises a survey or key variables that can lead to a potential break in the comparability of data.

TABLE 7. LATIN AMERICA: NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT-TO-POPULATION RATIO BY STATUS IN EMPLOYMENT AND YEARS OF EDUCATION [a/]. 2012- 2019 (percentages)

Year	Years of education [b/]	TOTAL	Status in employment								
			Employee			Non-employee			Domestic worker	Contributing family worker	Others
			Total	Public	Private	Total	Employer	Own-account			
2012	**Total**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	None	4.3	2.2	0.8	2.6	7.4	2.4	8.2	6.0	7.5	2.4
	1 to 6	25.3	17.1	6.1	19.7	36.0	22.5	38.2	40.9	37.7	35.3
	7 to 12	49.0	52.7	36.5	56.4	42.1	44.0	41.8	50.6	47.2	49.6
	13 or more	21.4	28.0	56.6	21.4	14.5	31.1	11.8	2.5	7.6	12.7
2015	**Total**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	None	4.5	2.6	1.2	2.9	7.3	2.6	8.1	5.5	8.4	1.2
	1 to 6	23.0	15.5	5.2	17.8	33.0	19.7	35.0	38.2	34.0	31.8
	7 to 12	49.8	52.7	34.2	56.8	43.8	43.9	43.8	53.5	49.1	55.6
	13 or more	22.7	29.2	59.4	22.5	15.8	33.8	13.1	2.8	8.5	11.4
2016	**Total**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	None	3.8	2.0	0.6	2.3	6.4	2.1	7.0	5.1	6.8	1.1
	1 to 6	22.5	15.2	5.0	17.4	32.1	19.6	34.0	36.9	34.1	28.1
	7 to 12	49.9	52.3	33.7	56.4	44.9	44.0	45.0	54.6	49.8	53.6
	13 or more	23.8	30.5	60.7	23.9	16.6	34.3	14.0	3.5	9.3	17.2
2017	**Total**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	None	3.6	1.9	0.6	2.2	6.1	2.0	6.7	4.7	7.1	0.4
	1 to 6	21.8	14.5	4.6	16.7	31.1	19.4	32.9	35.6	33.0	29.1
	7 to 12	50.0	52.2	33.5	56.3	45.3	43.5	45.5	55.8	49.8	48.2
	13 or more	24.6	31.4	61.3	24.8	17.6	35.1	14.9	3.9	10.1	22.3

Continues...

Year	Years of education b/	TOTAL	Status in employment								
			Employee			Non-employee			Domestic worker	Contributing family worker	Others
			Total	Public	Private	Total	Employer	Own-account			
2018	**Total**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	None	3.4	1.7	0.5	2.0	5.6	1.9	6.2	4.6	6.4	2.2
	1 to 6	21.1	14.0	4.3	16.1	30.1	18.5	31.9	34.8	33.0	37.7
	7 to 12	50.1	52.0	32.5	56.3	45.8	43.6	46.2	56.5	50.1	42.5
	13 or more	25.4	32.3	62.6	25.5	18.4	36.0	15.7	4.2	10.5	17.6
2019	**Total**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	None	3.2	1.7	0.5	2.0	5.2	1.9	5.8	4.4	6.0	1.4
	1 to 6	20.2	13.3	4.1	15.3	28.7	17.7	30.4	33.9	31.8	24.8
	7 to 12	50.4	51.9	31.8	56.3	46.5	43.8	46.9	57.0	51.0	56.0
	13 or more	26.3	33.1	63.6	26.4	19.5	36.6	16.9	4.7	11.2	17.7

Source: ILO, based on information from the household surveys of the countries.

a/ Selected countries: Argentina, Bolivia (Pluri. State of), Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay.
b/ Those who did not respond to years of education were excluded.
Data correspond to the official WAP of each country.

TABLE 8. LATIN AMERICA: NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT-TO-POPULATION RATIO BY STATUS IN EMPLOYMENT, SUB-REGION AND YEARS OF EDUCATION, 2019 (percentages)

Subregion	Years of education [a/]	TOTAL	Status in employment								
			Employee			Non-employee			Domestic worker	Contributing family worker	Others
			Total	Public	Private	Total	Employer	Own-account			
Latin America [b/]	**Total**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	None	3.2	1.7	0.5	2.0	5.2	1.9	5.8	4.4	6.0	1.4
	1 to 6	20.2	13.3	4.1	15.3	28.7	17.7	30.4	33.9	31.8	24.8
	7 to 12	50.4	51.9	31.8	56.3	46.5	43.8	46.9	57.0	51.0	56.0
	13 or more	26.3	33.1	63.6	26.4	19.5	36.6	16.9	4.7	11.2	17.7
Central America [c/]	**Total**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	None	5.0	2.8	0.7	3.2	8.8	3.7	9.7	8.2	6.1	8.5
	1 to 6	24.4	17.9	5.5	20.2	34.9	26.4	36.3	39.6	30.5	50.4
	7 to 12	50.2	53.5	36.6	56.6	42.6	44.1	42.4	49.4	53.3	27.4
	13 or more	20.4	25.8	57.3	20.0	13.7	25.8	11.6	2.8	10.1	13.6
Andean Countries [d/]	**Total**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	None	3.7	1.5	0.2	1.7	5.4	1.9	5.8	3.3	7.3	0.8
	1 to 6	25.3	15.0	3.1	17.0	33.6	24.3	34.4	36.1	33.6	22.8
	7 to 12	43.6	43.6	18.5	47.8	42.5	41.6	42.5	50.3	46.7	57.8
	13 or more	27.4	39.9	78.1	33.6	18.5	32.2	17.3	10.2	12.4	18.6

Continues...

Subregion	Years of education [a/]	TOTAL	Status in employment								
			Employee			Non-employee			Domestic worker	Contributing family worker	Others
			Total	Public	Private	Total	Employer	Own-account			
Southern Cone [e/]	**Total**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	None	1.8	1.1	0.5	1.2	2.8	0.8	3.2	3.0	3.2	0.0
	1 to 6	15.1	9.8	3.7	11.4	21.7	10.0	23.8	30.9	30.6	17.4
	7 to 12	53.5	53.5	32.4	59.1	51.6	44.4	52.9	61.6	55.6	67.1
	13 or more	29.6	35.7	63.5	28.3	23.9	44.8	20.1	4.5	10.6	15.6

Source: ILO, based on information from household surveys of the countries.

a/ Those not declaring years of education were excluded.
b/ Selected countries: Argentina, Bolivia (Pluri. State of), Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Dominican Republic and Uruguay.
c/ Selected countries: Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico and Panama.
d/ Selected countries: Bolivia (Pluri. State of), Colombia, Ecuador and Peru.
e/ Selected countries: Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Paraguay and Uruguay.
Data correspond to the official WAP of each country.

TABLE 9. LATIN AMERICA: PERCENTAGE OF NATIONAL EMPLOYED POPULATION BY STATUS IN EMPLOYMENT, COUNTRY, YEAR AND SEX. 2012 - 2019

Countries, year and sex		TOTAL	Status in employment											
			Employees				Non-employees					Do-mestic workers	Contrib-uting family workers	Others
			Total	Public	Private		Total	Employer		Own-account				
					Establish-ments with a maximum of five workers	Establish-ments with six or more workers		Establish-ments with a maximum of five workers	Establish-ments with six or more workers	Profes-sional. technical or admin-istrative	Non-pro-fessional. technical or admin-istrative			
Latin America [a/]														
2012	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**62.6**	**12.3**	**11.3**	**39.0**	**25.1**	**2.6**	**1.5**	**3.1**	**18.0**	**6.9**	**3.6**	**1.8**
	Men	100.0	65.1	9.0	13.7	42.4	29.3	3.3	1.8	3.2	20.9	0.9	2.4	2.3
	Women	100.0	59.3	16.8	8.1	34.4	19.6	1.5	1.1	2.9	14.1	14.9	5.1	1.1
2015	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**61.3**	**12.0**	**11.0**	**38.2**	**26.6**	**2.8**	**1.8**	**3.2**	**18.9**	**6.6**	**3.2**	**2.3**
	Men	100.0	62.6	8.8	13.2	40.5	31.5	3.5	2.2	3.4	22.3	0.8	2.2	3.0
	Women	100.0	59.5	16.4	8.0	35.2	20.2	1.7	1.2	2.9	14.3	14.2	4.7	1.4
2018	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**59.3**	**12.0**	**11.7**	**35.6**	**28.1**	**3.1**	**2.1**	**3.3**	**19.7**	**6.8**	**2.8**	**3.1**
	Men	100.0	60.7	8.8	14.2	37.7	32.5	3.9	2.4	3.3	22.8	1.0	1.9	3.9
	Women	100.0	57.4	16.1	8.3	33.0	22.3	1.9	1.6	3.2	15.6	14.3	4.0	2.1
2019	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**59.0**	**11.8**	**11.7**	**35.6**	**28.5**	**3.1**	**2.0**	**3.5**	**20.0**	**6.6**	**2.8**	**3.0**
	Men	100.0	60.5	8.7	14.2	37.6	32.8	3.9	2.4	3.4	23.1	1.0	1.9	3.8
	Women	100.0	57.2	15.8	8.4	33.0	22.9	2.0	1.5	3.5	15.9	13.8	4.0	2.0
Argentina [b/]														
2012	**TOTAL**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
	Men	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	Women	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
2015	**TOTAL**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**

Continues...

Countries, year and sex		TOTAL	Status in employment											
			Employees				Non-employees					Do-mestic workers	Contrib-uting family workers	Others
			Total	Public	Private		Total	Employer		Own-account				
					Establish-ments with a maximum of five workers	Establish-ments with six or more workers		Establish-ments with a maximum of five workers	Establish-ments with six or more workers	Profes-sional. technical or admin-istrative	Non-pro-fessional. technical or admin-istrative			
	Men	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	Women	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
2018	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**62.3**	**17.2**	**13.2**	**31.9**	**24.9**	**2.6**	**1.2**	**4.8**	**16.3**	**7.4**	**0.5**	**4.9**
	Men	100.0	66.0	14.3	15.5	36.2	27.3	3.2	1.6	4.3	18.2	0.2	0.4	6.1
	Women	100.0	57.4	21.0	10.2	26.2	21.8	2.0	0.6	5.4	13.8	16.6	0.8	3.5
2019	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**61.3**	**16.9**	**12.9**	**31.5**	**25.9**	**2.7**	**1.1**	**5.2**	**16.9**	**7.4**	**0.6**	**4.8**
	Men	100.0	65.0	13.9	15.2	35.9	28.4	3.3	1.5	4.9	18.8	0.3	0.4	5.9
	Women	100.0	56.5	20.8	9.8	25.9	22.6	1.8	0.6	5.7	14.5	16.6	0.8	3.4
Bolivia (Pluri. State of)														
2012	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**36.8**	**9.9**	**11.9**	**15.0**	**42.8**	**5.5**	**1.0**	**2.1**	**34.3**	**2.4**	**17.6**	**0.4**
	Men	100.0	42.9	9.5	14.4	19.0	45.9	7.2	1.4	2.5	34.8	0.1	10.7	0.5
	Women	100.0	29.1	10.3	8.7	10.1	39.0	3.4	0.4	1.5	33.7	5.2	26.4	0.3
2015	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**36.0**	**8.7**	**12.8**	**14.5**	**45.0**	**3.5**	**0.9**	**2.5**	**38.2**	**1.5**	**17.1**	**0.3**
	Men	100.0	41.3	8.2	15.3	17.8	48.7	4.4	1.3	2.9	40.1	0.2	9.7	0.1
	Women	100.0	28.6	9.3	9.2	10.0	39.9	2.1	0.3	1.9	35.5	3.3	27.6	0.6
2018	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**32.6**	**9.3**	**9.9**	**13.5**	**47.6**	**2.8**	**0.3**	**2.6**	**41.9**	**1.7**	**17.6**	**0.4**
	Men	100.0	36.3	8.3	11.5	16.4	53.0	3.8	0.4	3.2	45.6	0.2	9.8	0.7
	Women	100.0	27.8	10.6	7.7	9.5	40.5	1.4	0.1	1.9	37.1	3.8	27.8	0.1
2019	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**32.2**	**8.1**	**10.9**	**13.2**	**45.4**	**3.1**	**0.4**	**2.4**	**39.5**	**2.2**	**19.4**	**0.8**

Continues...

Countries, year and sex	TOTAL	Status in employment											
		Employees				Non-employees					Domestic workers	Contributing family workers	Others
		Total	Public	Private		Total	Employer		Own-account				
				Establishments with a maximum of five workers	Establishments with six or more workers		Establishments with a maximum of five workers	Establishments with six or more workers	Professional. technical or administrative	Non-professional. technical or administrative			
Men	100.0	36.6	7.5	13.0	16.0	49.7	4.3	0.6	2.7	42.2	0.2	12.2	1.3
Women	100.0	26.6	8.7	8.2	9.7	40.0	1.6	0.2	2.1	36.2	4.7	28.5	0.2
Brazil													
2012 TOTAL	**100.0**	**63.3**	**12.5**	**10.3**	**40.4**	**26.9**	**2.5**	**1.5**	**3.2**	**19.7**	**6.8**	**3.0**	**0.0**
Men	100.0	65.4	9.2	11.9	44.3	31.9	3.1	1.9	3.4	23.5	0.8	1.9	0.0
Women	100.0	60.4	17.0	8.3	35.2	20.0	1.6	1.0	3.0	14.4	15.0	4.6	0.0
2015 TOTAL	**100.0**	**62.3**	**12.5**	**10.1**	**39.8**	**28.3**	**2.7**	**1.7**	**3.3**	**20.6**	**6.5**	**2.8**	**0.0**
Men	100.0	63.5	9.3	11.5	42.7	34.1	3.4	2.1	3.6	24.9	0.8	1.7	0.0
Women	100.0	60.8	16.7	8.2	35.9	20.7	1.8	1.0	3.0	14.9	14.2	4.3	0.0
2018 TOTAL	**100.0**	**60.6**	**12.6**	**11.0**	**37.0**	**30.2**	**2.9**	**1.9**	**3.5**	**21.9**	**6.8**	**2.3**	**0.0**
Men	100.0	62.2	9.5	13.0	39.7	35.4	3.7	2.3	3.6	25.8	0.9	1.5	0.0
Women	100.0	58.7	16.6	8.5	33.6	23.6	2.0	1.3	3.4	16.9	14.4	3.4	0.0
2019 TOTAL	**100.0**	**60.4**	**12.4**	**11.0**	**37.0**	**30.7**	**2.9**	**1.8**	**3.7**	**22.3**	**6.7**	**2.2**	**0.0**
Men	100.0	61.9	9.4	12.9	39.6	35.8	3.5	2.3	3.7	26.3	0.9	1.4	0.0
Women	100.0	58.6	16.3	8.6	33.7	24.2	2.1	1.3	3.7	17.1	14.0	3.2	0.0
Chile													
2012 TOTAL	**100.0**	**70.3**	**10.6**	**6.8**	**52.8**	**23.8**	**2.6**	**1.6**	**2.2**	**17.4**	**4.6**	**1.3**	**0.0**
Men	100.0	74.5	8.2	7.8	58.5	24.5	3.2	2.2	2.3	16.8	0.3	0.8	0.0
Women	100.0	64.0	14.2	5.4	44.4	22.7	1.7	0.6	2.0	18.4	11.2	2.1	0.0

▶ Continues...

Countries, year and sex	TOTAL	Status in employment											
		Employees				Non-employees					Do-mestic workers	Contrib-uting family workers	Others
		Total	Public	Private		Total	Employer		Own-account				
				Establish-ments with a maximum of five workers	Establish-ments with six or more workers		Establish-ments with a maximum of five workers	Establish-ments with six or more workers	Profes-sional. technical or admin-istrative	Non-pro-fessional. technical or admin-istrative			
2015 TOTAL	**100.0**	**70.5**	**11.2**	**7.1**	**52.1**	**24.4**	**2.7**	**1.4**	**2.6**	**17.7**	**3.9**	**1.2**	**0.0**
Men	100.0	73.8	8.6	8.1	57.1	25.2	3.4	2.0	2.7	17.2	0.3	0.7	0.0
Women	100.0	65.6	14.9	5.8	44.9	23.3	1.7	0.7	2.4	18.5	9.1	1.9	0.0
2018 TOTAL	**100.0**	**69.4**	**12.0**	**6.8**	**50.6**	**26.0**	**2.8**	**1.5**	**2.9**	**18.9**	**3.5**	**1.1**	**0.0**
Men	100.0	71.7	9.0	7.8	54.9	27.5	3.5	2.0	3.0	18.9	0.1	0.7	0.0
Women	100.0	66.2	16.2	5.5	44.5	23.9	1.7	0.7	2.7	18.7	8.2	1.7	0.0
2019 TOTAL	**100.0**	**69.2**	**12.4**	**6.8**	**50.0**	**26.2**	**2.8**	**1.4**	**2.9**	**19.1**	**3.5**	**1.0**	**0.0**
Men	100.0	71.5	9.4	7.8	54.3	27.6	3.5	1.9	2.9	19.2	0.2	0.7	0.0
Women	100.0	66.0	16.6	5.3	44.1	24.3	1.7	0.7	2.9	18.9	8.2	1.5	0.0
Colombia													
2012 TOTAL	**100.0**	**43.0**	**4.0**	**12.5**	**26.5**	**47.8**	**4.2**	**0.7**	**3.6**	**39.3**	**3.5**	**5.5**	**0.1**
Men	100.0	46.3	3.6	14.8	27.8	49.7	5.4	0.9	3.8	39.6	0.3	3.7	0.1
Women	100.0	38.4	4.6	9.3	24.5	45.2	2.6	0.4	3.3	38.9	8.1	8.1	0.2
2015 TOTAL	**100.0**	**45.4**	**3.9**	**12.2**	**29.4**	**46.6**	**3.5**	**0.7**	**3.8**	**38.7**	**3.3**	**4.6**	**0.1**
Men	100.0	47.4	3.4	13.9	30.1	49.2	4.3	0.9	4.0	40.0	0.3	3.0	0.1
Women	100.0	42.6	4.5	9.8	28.3	42.9	2.2	0.4	3.5	36.9	7.4	6.9	0.2
2018 TOTAL	**100.0**	**45.3**	**3.8**	**11.6**	**30.0**	**47.7**	**3.4**	**0.6**	**4.0**	**39.6**	**2.9**	**4.0**	**0.1**
Men	100.0	46.4	3.3	13.0	30.1	50.8	4.3	0.8	4.1	41.5	0.3	2.5	0.0
Women	100.0	43.8	4.4	9.6	29.8	43.3	2.2	0.4	3.8	36.9	6.7	6.1	0.1

Continues...

Countries, year and sex		TOTAL	Status in employment											
			Employees				Non-employees					Do-mestic workers	Contrib-uting family workers	Others
			Total	Public	Private		Total	Employer		Own-account				
					Establish-ments with a maximum of five workers	Establish-ments with six or more workers		Establish-ments with a maximum of five workers	Establish-ments with six or more workers	Profes-sional. technical or admin-istrative	Non-pro-fessional. technical or admin-istrative			
2019	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**47.1**	**3.7**	**12.5**	**30.8**	**46.0**	**3.0**	**0.6**	**4.0**	**38.4**	**3.1**	**3.7**	**0.1**
	Men	100.0	49.1	3.3	14.3	31.5	48.2	3.7	0.9	4.1	39.6	0.3	2.3	0.0
	Women	100.0	44.2	4.3	10.1	29.9	42.9	2.0	0.4	4.0	36.5	7.0	5.7	0.1
Costa Rica														
2012	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**72.9**	**15.6**	**18.3**	**39.1**	**20.9**	**2.1**	**0.8**	**3.1**	**15.0**	**4.3**	**1.8**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	75.1	12.9	17.8	44.4	23.9	2.8	1.0	3.4	16.7	0.1	0.9	0.1
	Women	100.0	69.5	19.8	19.1	30.5	16.2	0.9	0.5	2.5	12.3	11.0	3.3	0.0
2015	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**70.1**	**13.3**	**18.6**	**38.3**	**21.8**	**2.3**	**0.8**	**2.6**	**16.0**	**4.9**	**2.5**	**0.6**
	Men	100.0	72.8	10.9	18.3	43.6	24.7	2.9	1.1	2.9	17.8	0.2	1.6	0.7
	Women	100.0	65.9	17.1	19.2	29.6	17.0	1.4	0.4	2.2	13.0	12.7	4.0	0.4
2018	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**70.4**	**12.7**	**17.0**	**40.7**	**23.4**	**3.0**	**1.1**	**2.2**	**17.1**	**4.1**	**1.7**	**0.3**
	Men	100.0	73.2	10.4	16.3	46.4	25.3	3.9	1.4	2.0	18.0	0.1	1.1	0.4
	Women	100.0	65.8	16.5	18.3	31.0	20.2	1.4	0.6	2.7	15.4	11.0	2.8	0.3
2019	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**68.4**	**13.9**	**16.5**	**38.0**	**24.7**	**2.8**	**0.6**	**3.3**	**18.0**	**4.6**	**2.0**	**0.4**
	Men	100.0	71.0	11.2	16.0	43.9	27.2	3.3	0.8	3.3	19.7	0.1	1.3	0.4
	Women	100.0	64.3	18.2	17.4	28.7	20.6	1.9	0.2	3.2	15.3	11.7	3.0	0.3
Ecuador														
2012	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**50.7**	**8.7**	**16.5**	**25.5**	**36.7**	**3.5**	**0.5**	**1.5**	**31.2**	**2.6**	**10.0**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	57.3	7.8	20.7	28.8	37.1	4.4	0.7	1.7	30.3	0.3	5.3	0.0

▶ Continues...

Countries, year and sex	TOTAL	Status in employment											
		Employees				Non-employees					Do-mestic workers	Contrib-uting family workers	Others
		Total	Public	Private		Total	Employer		Own-account				
				Establish-ments with a maximum of five workers	Establish-ments with six or more workers		Establish-ments with a maximum of five workers	Establish-ments with six or more workers	Profes-sional. technical or admin-istrative	Non-pro-fessional. technical or admin-istrative			
Women	100.0	40.6	10.1	10.1	20.4	36.1	2.1	0.2	1.3	32.5	6.1	17.1	0.0
2015 TOTAL	**100.0**	**52.3**	**9.4**	**17.4**	**25.5**	**34.8**	**2.8**	**0.5**	**1.4**	**30.2**	**2.6**	**10.3**	**0.0**
Men	100.0	60.5	8.8	21.9	29.8	33.9	3.5	0.7	1.6	28.2	0.3	5.3	0.0
Women	100.0	40.3	10.2	10.7	19.3	36.1	1.7	0.2	1.1	33.1	6.1	17.5	0.0
2018 TOTAL	**100.0**	**47.1**	**8.0**	**16.7**	**22.4**	**37.3**	**2.6**	**0.4**	**2.1**	**32.2**	**2.7**	**13.0**	**0.0**
Men	100.0	55.8	7.7	21.5	26.6	37.0	3.1	0.6	2.2	31.0	0.3	7.0	0.0
Women	100.0	34.8	8.4	9.8	16.5	37.7	1.8	0.2	1.8	33.9	6.1	21.4	0.0
2019 TOTAL	**100.0**	**45.8**	**7.7**	**16.3**	**21.8**	**38.1**	**2.5**	**0.4**	**2.2**	**33.1**	**2.8**	**13.4**	**0.0**
Men	100.0	54.5	7.3	21.2	26.0	37.8	3.1	0.5	2.4	31.8	0.2	7.5	0.0
Women	100.0	33.5	8.2	9.4	15.9	38.6	1.6	0.2	2.0	34.8	6.2	21.6	0.0
El Salvador													
2012 TOTAL	**100.0**	**53.8**	**8.1**	**17.2**	**28.5**	**34.0**	**3.8**	**0.5**	**1.0**	**28.8**	**4.4**	**7.7**	**0.1**
Men	100.0	62.2	7.8	22.3	32.1	29.5	4.4	0.6	1.3	23.2	0.6	7.6	0.1
Women	100.0	42.0	8.6	10.1	23.3	40.3	2.9	0.2	0.6	36.6	9.6	8.0	0.1
2015 TOTAL	**100.0**	**55.0**	**7.6**	**17.4**	**29.9**	**33.5**	**4.0**	**0.4**	**1.2**	**27.9**	**4.5**	**6.9**	**0.2**
Men	100.0	63.7	7.4	22.6	33.7	29.3	4.8	0.5	1.5	22.5	0.6	6.1	0.2
Women	100.0	42.6	7.9	10.0	24.6	39.3	2.9	0.2	0.7	35.5	9.9	7.9	0.2
2018 TOTAL	**100.0**	**56.6**	**7.7**	**18.6**	**30.3**	**32.9**	**4.1**	**0.4**	**1.4**	**27.0**	**4.4**	**5.9**	**0.2**
Men	100.0	65.3	7.3	23.4	34.5	28.7	5.1	0.5	1.5	21.5	0.8	5.0	0.2

Continues...

Countries, year and sex		TOTAL	Status in employment											
			Employees				Non-employees					Domestic workers	Contributing family workers	Others
			Total	Public	Private		Total	Employer		Own-account				
					Establishments with a maximum of five workers	Establishments with six or more workers		Establishments with a maximum of five workers	Establishments with six or more workers	Professional. technical or administrative	Non-professional. technical or administrative			
	Women	100.0	44.3	8.3	11.7	24.4	38.7	2.5	0.2	1.2	34.8	9.6	7.2	0.1
2019	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**55.9**	**7.6**	**19.1**	**29.2**	**33.3**	**4.1**	**0.3**	**1.4**	**27.5**	**4.7**	**5.7**	**0.4**
	Men	100.0	65.8	7.4	24.5	34.0	28.6	4.4	0.5	1.6	22.1	0.6	4.6	0.4
	Women	100.0	41.9	8.0	11.4	22.5	40.1	3.7	0.1	1.0	35.3	10.4	7.3	0.4
Guatemala														
2012	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**49.3**	**5.3**	**20.8**	**23.1**	**33.6**	**2.5**	**0.3**	**1.2**	**29.6**	**3.5**	**13.7**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	59.0	4.3	27.1	27.6	29.4	2.4	0.5	1.1	25.4	0.3	11.3	0.0
	Women	100.0	32.5	7.0	10.0	15.4	40.9	2.6	0.1	1.3	36.9	9.1	17.6	0.0
2015	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**57.4**	**6.2**	**21.1**	**30.1**	**30.0**	**2.5**	**0.2**	**0.8**	**26.5**	**2.9**	**9.7**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	64.5	4.5	25.4	34.5	26.9	2.5	0.3	0.8	23.3	0.1	8.4	0.0
	Women	100.0	43.1	9.5	12.3	21.3	36.1	2.5	0.1	0.7	32.8	8.6	12.3	0.0
2018	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**55.0**	**6.2**	**21.4**	**27.4**	**30.9**	**2.4**	**0.3**	**0.7**	**27.5**	**4.4**	**9.7**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	63.2	5.1	26.3	31.7	28.3	2.6	0.4	0.7	24.6	0.1	8.5	0.0
	Women	100.0	39.3	8.2	12.0	19.0	35.9	2.0	0.1	0.6	33.2	12.8	12.1	0.0
2019	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**59.3**	**6.7**	**23.9**	**28.8**	**28.2**	**2.5**	**0.3**	**0.8**	**24.6**	**4.1**	**8.4**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	66.9	5.5	28.7	32.6	26.0	2.8	0.4	0.8	22.0	0.2	7.0	0.0
	Women	100.0	44.5	8.9	14.4	21.2	32.5	1.8	0.1	1.0	29.6	11.8	11.1	0.0
Honduras														
2012	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**39.8**	**6.6**	**15.1**	**18.0**	**44.7**	**2.7**	**0.5**	**1.4**	**40.1**	**2.1**	**13.3**	**0.0**

▶ Continues...

Countries, year and sex	TOTAL	Status in employment											
		Employees				Non-employees					Do-mestic workers	Contrib-uting family workers	Others
		Total	Public	Private		Total	Employer		Own-account				
				Establish-ments with a maximum of five workers	Establish-ments with six or more workers		Establish-ments with a maximum of five workers	Establish-ments with six or more workers	Profes-sional. technical or admin-istrative	Non-pro-fessional. technical or admin-istrative			
Men	100.0	41.8	4.6	18.8	18.3	43.7	2.9	0.6	1.2	38.9	0.2	14.3	0.0
Women	100.0	35.9	10.3	8.1	17.5	46.7	2.3	0.3	1.6	42.5	5.8	11.5	0.1
2015 TOTAL	**100.0**	**44.0**	**6.4**	**16.6**	**21.0**	**40.3**	**2.2**	**0.4**	**1.6**	**36.1**	**2.7**	**12.9**	**0.1**
Men	100.0	49.1	4.8	22.5	21.8	38.3	2.5	0.5	1.6	33.7	0.3	12.2	0.1
Women	100.0	35.7	9.0	7.1	19.6	43.6	1.8	0.2	1.5	40.1	6.6	14.0	0.0
2018 TOTAL	**100.0**	**43.4**	**5.8**	**17.9**	**19.7**	**40.3**	**2.9**	**0.4**	**1.8**	**35.2**	**3.3**	**13.0**	**0.1**
Men	100.0	50.2	4.2	24.5	21.6	37.3	2.9	0.6	1.8	31.9	0.7	11.7	0.1
Women	100.0	32.8	8.3	7.8	16.7	45.0	2.9	0.1	1.8	40.2	7.3	14.9	0.1
2019 TOTAL	**100.0**	**45.4**	**6.3**	**17.9**	**21.2**	**39.4**	**2.6**	**0.4**	**1.7**	**34.8**	**2.7**	**12.3**	**0.1**
Men	100.0	50.2	4.2	23.6	22.3	37.4	2.6	0.5	1.5	32.8	0.3	11.9	0.2
Women	100.0	37.3	9.9	8.1	19.3	42.9	2.7	0.2	1.9	38.2	6.7	13.0	0.0
Mexico													
2012 TOTAL	**100.0**	**59.9**	**11.2**	**17.9**	**30.9**	**26.8**	**3.8**	**0.7**	**1.6**	**20.6**	**4.5**	**6.1**	**2.6**
Men	100.0	64.3	9.5	21.7	33.1	27.6	4.8	1.0	1.9	19.9	0.6	4.4	3.0
Women	100.0	52.9	13.8	11.7	27.4	25.5	2.1	0.3	1.3	21.8	10.9	8.9	1.8
2015 TOTAL	**100.0**	**59.9**	**10.3**	**17.4**	**32.2**	**26.7**	**3.7**	**0.6**	**1.8**	**20.7**	**4.7**	**5.3**	**3.3**
Men	100.0	63.9	8.5	21.0	34.4	27.7	4.7	0.8	2.0	20.1	0.7	3.9	3.8
Women	100.0	53.4	13.1	11.6	28.7	25.2	2.0	0.3	1.4	21.5	11.3	7.7	2.4
2018 TOTAL	**100.0**	**60.1**	**9.6**	**17.0**	**33.6**	**27.1**	**4.0**	**0.7**	**1.9**	**20.4**	**4.3**	**4.5**	**4.0**

Continues...

Countries, year and sex	TOTAL	Status in employment											
		Employees				Non-employees					Domestic workers	Contributing family workers	Others
		Total	Public	Private		Total	Employer		Own-account				
				Establishments with a maximum of five workers	Establishments with six or more workers		Establishments with a maximum of five workers	Establishments with six or more workers	Professional. technical or administrative	Non-professional. technical or administrative			
Men	100.0	63.3	7.9	20.2	35.2	28.3	5.1	1.0	2.1	20.1	0.6	3.1	4.6
Women	100.0	54.9	12.3	11.7	30.9	25.1	2.2	0.3	1.6	20.9	10.2	6.7	3.1
2019 TOTAL	**100.0**	**59.7**	**9.4**	**17.1**	**33.2**	**27.4**	**4.1**	**0.7**	**2.0**	**20.6**	**4.4**	**4.6**	**4.0**
Men	100.0	63.3	7.6	20.5	35.1	28.2	5.3	0.9	2.1	19.9	0.7	3.2	4.6
Women	100.0	54.2	12.2	11.9	30.2	26.0	2.2	0.3	1.7	21.8	10.1	6.7	3.0
Panama													
2012 TOTAL	**100.0**	**63.3**	**15.3**	**8.6**	**39.4**	**27.2**	**1.9**	**0.9**	**1.6**	**22.8**	**4.7**	**4.8**	**0.0**
Men	100.0	65.1	11.8	10.9	42.4	30.8	2.3	1.1	1.8	25.6	0.8	3.3	0.0
Women	100.0	60.6	20.8	5.1	34.8	21.5	1.3	0.5	1.3	18.4	10.7	7.2	0.0
2015 TOTAL	**100.0**	**62.0**	**15.8**	**8.3**	**37.9**	**29.4**	**2.2**	**0.9**	**1.8**	**24.5**	**4.3**	**4.3**	**0.0**
Men	100.0	63.1	12.6	10.5	40.0	32.6	2.7	1.3	1.6	27.1	1.0	3.2	0.0
Women	100.0	60.2	20.4	5.0	34.8	24.5	1.4	0.4	2.2	20.5	9.2	6.1	0.0
2018 TOTAL	**100.0**	**58.5**	**15.7**	**7.7**	**35.1**	**32.7**	**1.9**	**1.2**	**2.0**	**27.5**	**4.0**	**4.7**	**0.0**
Men	100.0	60.4	12.7	9.8	37.9	35.3	2.3	1.6	2.0	29.3	0.8	3.4	0.0
Women	100.0	55.7	20.0	4.6	31.1	28.9	1.3	0.7	2.1	24.9	8.7	6.6	0.1
2019 TOTAL	**100.0**	**56.2**	**15.3**	**7.0**	**33.9**	**33.7**	**1.8**	**1.1**	**2.2**	**28.7**	**4.6**	**5.5**	**0.0**
Men	100.0	58.2	12.6	9.4	36.2	37.1	2.1	1.4	2.3	31.3	0.9	3.9	0.0
Women	100.0	53.3	19.0	3.7	30.6	29.1	1.4	0.7	2.0	25.0	9.9	7.7	0.0

▶ Continues...

Countries, year and sex		TOTAL	Status in employment											
			Employees				Non-employees					Do-mestic workers	Contrib-uting family workers	Others
			Total	Public	Private		Total	Employer		Own-account				
					Establish-ments with a maximum of five workers	Establish-ments with six or more workers		Establish-ments with a maximum of five workers	Establish-ments with six or more workers	Profes-sional. technical or admin-istrative	Non-pro-fessional. technical or admin-istrative			
Paraguay														
2012	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**43.5**	**9.2**	**14.0**	**20.2**	**40.3**	**4.3**	**1.3**	**1.4**	**33.5**	**6.3**	**8.4**	**1.6**
	Men	100.0	50.2	8.1	17.9	24.2	37.9	5.3	1.6	1.6	29.4	0.8	8.8	2.2
	Women	100.0	33.8	10.8	8.3	14.6	43.8	2.8	0.7	1.0	39.2	14.1	7.7	0.7
2015	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**45.0**	**11.0**	**13.6**	**20.4**	**35.3**	**4.0**	**0.8**	**2.0**	**28.6**	**7.1**	**8.7**	**3.8**
	Men	100.0	51.2	9.0	17.2	25.0	37.3	5.6	0.9	1.7	29.2	0.7	6.5	4.3
	Women	100.0	36.3	13.7	8.6	14.0	32.5	1.7	0.7	2.4	27.7	16.1	12.0	3.2
2018	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**46.6**	**10.1**	**13.4**	**23.1**	**35.4**	**4.4**	**0.9**	**1.9**	**28.1**	**7.6**	**8.2**	**2.3**
	Men	100.0	52.8	8.2	17.2	27.5	37.1	5.8	1.3	1.8	28.2	1.0	6.0	3.0
	Women	100.0	37.4	12.9	7.8	16.6	32.8	2.2	0.4	2.2	28.0	17.2	11.3	1.3
2019	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**45.4**	**10.0**	**13.1**	**22.3**	**35.5**	**4.4**	**0.8**	**2.2**	**28.1**	**7.6**	**8.1**	**3.4**
	Men	100.0	52.0	8.5	17.1	26.5	36.6	5.6	1.1	2.0	27.9	0.9	6.0	4.5
	Women	100.0	36.1	12.2	7.4	16.6	34.0	2.7	0.4	2.5	28.4	17.0	11.0	1.9
Peru														
2012	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**45.3**	**9.4**	**12.0**	**23.9**	**40.2**	**4.3**	**1.1**	**1.7**	**33.0**	**2.6**	**11.6**	**0.3**
	Men	100.0	51.3	9.5	13.8	28.0	41.6	5.5	1.7	2.2	32.1	0.3	6.5	0.3
	Women	100.0	37.6	9.3	9.6	18.7	38.3	2.7	0.4	1.1	34.2	5.6	18.1	0.3
2015	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**47.2**	**9.1**	**13.6**	**24.6**	**39.2**	**3.5**	**0.7**	**1.6**	**33.5**	**2.5**	**11.1**	**0.1**
	Men	100.0	53.1	8.7	15.8	28.6	40.7	4.4	1.0	2.0	33.3	0.3	5.9	0.1

Continues...

Countries, year and sex		TOTAL	Status in employment											
			Employees				Non-employees					Do-mestic workers	Contrib-uting family workers	Others
			Total	Public	Private		Total	Employer		Own-account				
					Establish-ments with a maximum of five workers	Establish-ments with six or more workers		Establish-ments with a maximum of five workers	Establish-ments with six or more workers	Profes-sional. technical or admin-istrative	Non-pro-fessional. technical or admin-istrative			
	Women	100.0	39.5	9.5	10.7	19.3	37.3	2.3	0.3	1.1	33.7	5.3	17.8	0.0
2018	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**46.4**	**8.7**	**13.9**	**23.8**	**41.4**	**3.4**	**0.6**	**2.0**	**35.4**	**2.3**	**9.8**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	51.8	8.2	15.9	27.7	42.5	4.3	0.9	2.4	34.9	0.2	5.5	0.0
	Women	100.0	39.7	9.3	11.5	18.9	40.1	2.3	0.3	1.4	36.1	4.9	15.3	0.0
2019	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**46.4**	**8.7**	**14.1**	**23.6**	**40.9**	**3.3**	**0.6**	**2.2**	**34.8**	**2.5**	**10.1**	**0.1**
	Men	100.0	52.3	8.3	16.4	27.6	41.7	4.0	0.9	2.7	34.2	0.2	5.8	0.1
	Women	100.0	39.0	9.2	11.2	18.7	40.0	2.5	0.3	1.6	35.7	5.3	15.6	0.0
Dominican Republic														
2012	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**46.7**	**13.2**	**6.4**	**27.1**	**45.9**	**2.5**	**0.9**	**2.0**	**40.5**	**5.6**	**1.8**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	43.1	10.3	6.3	26.5	54.7	2.9	1.3	2.1	48.4	0.8	1.4	0.0
	Women	100.0	53.0	18.4	6.4	28.1	30.5	1.8	0.4	1.8	26.5	14.1	2.4	0.0
2015	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**49.2**	**13.3**	**8.4**	**27.5**	**42.2**	**2.4**	**0.9**	**1.8**	**37.2**	**5.8**	**2.2**	**0.6**
	Men	100.0	46.5	10.2	8.0	28.3	50.6	2.9	1.2	1.9	44.8	0.7	1.5	0.6
	Women	100.0	53.5	18.3	9.0	26.2	28.7	1.5	0.4	1.6	25.1	13.8	3.4	0.6
2018	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**50.0**	**14.1**	**8.0**	**27.9**	**41.6**	**2.3**	**0.9**	**1.8**	**36.4**	**5.7**	**1.8**	**1.0**
	Men	100.0	46.6	11.0	7.0	28.7	50.7	3.1	1.2	2.1	44.3	0.7	1.0	1.0
	Women	100.0	55.1	18.9	9.5	26.6	27.6	1.2	0.5	1.5	24.5	13.3	3.0	1.0
2019	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**51.7**	**13.6**	**10.2**	**27.9**	**40.2**	**2.5**	**0.7**	**1.8**	**35.2**	**5.6**	**1.6**	**0.9**
	Men	100.0	48.2	10.4	8.8	29.0	49.1	3.1	1.0	2.1	42.9	0.8	0.9	1.0

▶ Continues...

Countries, year and sex	TOTAL	Status in employment											
		Employees				Non-employees					Do-mestic workers	Contrib-uting family workers	Others
		Total	Public	Private		Total	Employer		Own-account				
				Establish-ments with a maximum of five workers	Establish-ments with six or more workers		Establish-ments with a maximum of five workers	Establish-ments with six or more workers	Profes-sional. technical or admin-istrative	Non-pro-fessional. technical or admin-istrative			
Women	100.0	56.8	18.4	12.2	26.3	27.1	1.6	0.2	1.4	23.9	12.7	2.5	0.8
Uruguay													
2012 TOTAL	**100.0**	**68.2**	**14.8**	**11.1**	**42.4**	**25.9**	**3.1**	**1.6**	**3.9**	**17.3**	**4.4**	**1.3**	**0.2**
Men	100.0	70.4	12.9	11.6	45.9	28.6	4.0	2.2	3.8	18.6	0.0	0.7	0.2
Women	100.0	65.6	17.0	10.4	38.1	22.6	2.0	0.9	4.1	15.6	9.7	1.9	0.3
2015 TOTAL	**100.0**	**68.5**	**14.7**	**10.9**	**42.9**	**26.4**	**2.6**	**1.5**	**4.0**	**18.3**	**3.8**	**0.9**	**0.3**
Men	100.0	69.8	12.5	11.2	46.1	29.4	3.3	2.0	3.9	20.2	0.0	0.5	0.3
Women	100.0	67.0	17.3	10.6	39.0	22.8	1.8	0.9	4.1	16.0	8.5	1.4	0.3
2018 TOTAL	**100.0**	**67.6**	**15.0**	**10.5**	**42.1**	**27.4**	**2.3**	**1.5**	**4.5**	**19.2**	**3.9**	**0.8**	**0.4**
Men	100.0	68.3	12.7	10.9	44.7	31.0	2.9	1.9	4.4	21.7	0.0	0.4	0.3
Women	100.0	66.7	17.7	10.1	38.9	23.1	1.5	0.9	4.5	16.2	8.6	1.2	0.4
2019 TOTAL	**100.0**	**67.9**	**15.4**	**10.6**	**41.9**	**27.4**	**2.3**	**1.4**	**4.4**	**19.3**	**3.6**	**0.8**	**0.4**
Men	100.0	68.6	13.2	10.9	44.5	30.5	3.1	1.7	4.4	21.3	0.0	0.5	0.3
Women	100.0	67.0	18.1	10.3	38.6	23.6	1.4	0.9	4.4	16.8	7.8	1.1	0.4

Source: ILO, based on information from household surveys of the countries.

a/ Weighted average. The weighting factor used is the national employed population of each country, disaggregated by status in employment, establishment size and sex.
b/ 31 urban clusters. The INDEC, in the framework of the statistical emergency declared in 2016, recommends disregarding the series published between 2007 and 2015 for purposes of comparison and analysis of the labour market in Argentina.

TABLE 10. LATIN AMERICA: WEIGHTED AVERAGES OF THE NATIONAL EMPLOYED POPULATION BY STATUS IN EMPLOYMENT, COUNTRY, YEAR AND SEX
2012 - 2019

Countries, year and sex		TOTAL	Status in employment												
			Employees				Non-employees					Domestic workers	Contributing family workers	Others
			Total	Public	Private		Total	Employer		Own-account				
					Establishments with a maximum of five workers	Establishments with six or more workers		Establishments with a maximum of five workers	Establishments with six or more workers	Professional. technical or administrative	Non-professional. technical or administrative			
Latin America [a/]														
2012	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**62.6**	**12.3**	**11.3**	**39.0**	**25.1**	**2.6**	**1.5**	**3.1**	**18.0**	**6.9**	**3.6**	**1.8**
	Men	100.0	65.1	9.0	13.7	42.4	29.3	3.3	1.8	3.2	20.9	0.9	2.4	2.3
	Women	100.0	59.3	16.8	8.1	34.4	19.6	1.5	1.1	2.9	14.1	14.9	5.1	1.1
2015	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**61.3**	**12.0**	**11.0**	**38.2**	**26.6**	**2.8**	**1.8**	**3.2**	**18.9**	**6.6**	**3.2**	**2.3**
	Men	100.0	62.6	8.8	13.2	40.5	31.5	3.5	2.2	3.4	22.3	0.8	2.2	3.0
	Women	100.0	59.5	16.4	8.0	35.2	20.2	1.7	1.2	2.9	14.3	14.2	4.7	1.4
2018	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**59.3**	**12.0**	**11.7**	**35.6**	**28.1**	**3.1**	**2.1**	**3.3**	**19.7**	**6.8**	**2.8**	**3.1**
	Men	100.0	60.7	8.8	14.2	37.7	32.5	3.9	2.4	3.3	22.8	1.0	1.9	3.9
	Women	100.0	57.4	16.1	8.3	33.0	22.3	1.9	1.6	3.2	15.6	14.3	4.0	2.1
2019	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**59.0**	**11.8**	**11.7**	**35.6**	**28.5**	**3.1**	**2.0**	**3.5**	**20.0**	**6.6**	**2.8**	**3.0**
	Men	100.0	60.5	8.7	14.2	37.6	32.8	3.9	2.4	3.4	23.1	1.0	1.9	3.8
	Women	100.0	57.2	15.8	8.4	33.0	22.9	2.0	1.5	3.5	15.9	13.8	4.0	2.0
Countries of the Andean sub-region [a,b/]														
2012	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**43.7**	**6.3**	**12.0**	**25.4**	**44.8**	**4.1**	**0.9**	**3.4**	**36.6**	**3.2**	**8.0**	**0.2**
	Men	100.0	47.8	6.1	14.2	27.5	47.1	5.2	1.3	3.6	37.0	0.3	4.6	0.2

Continues...

Countries, year and sex		TOTAL	Status in employment											
			Employees				Non-employees					Domestic workers	Contributing family workers	Others
			Total	Public	Private		Total	Employer		Own-account				
					Establishments with a maximum of five workers	Establishments with six or more workers		Establishments with a maximum of five workers	Establishments with six or more workers	Professional. technical or administrative	Non-professional. technical or administrative			
	Women	100.0	38.1	6.6	9.0	22.6	41.8	2.5	0.4	3.0	36.0	7.2	12.6	0.3
2015	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**46.0**	**6.0**	**12.1**	**27.9**	**43.4**	**3.3**	**0.6**	**3.5**	**35.9**	**3.1**	**7.3**	**0.1**
	Men	100.0	49.2	5.7	14.1	29.4	46.4	4.3	0.9	3.7	37.5	0.3	4.1	0.1
	Women	100.0	41.8	6.4	9.5	25.9	39.6	2.1	0.3	3.2	33.9	6.7	11.7	0.2
2018	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**46.0**	**5.8**	**12.0**	**28.2**	**44.3**	**3.3**	**0.6**	**3.6**	**36.7**	**2.7**	**6.9**	**0.1**
	Men	100.0	48.3	5.4	13.7	29.2	47.4	4.2	0.9	3.8	38.5	0.3	3.9	0.2
	Women	100.0	43.0	6.3	9.8	26.9	40.1	2.1	0.3	3.3	34.3	5.9	10.9	0.1
2019	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**47.0**	**5.9**	**12.6**	**28.6**	**42.7**	**3.0**	**0.6**	**3.6**	**35.5**	**2.8**	**7.3**	**0.2**
	Men	100.0	50.2	5.5	14.6	30.2	45.0	3.6	0.9	3.7	36.8	0.3	4.2	0.3
	Women	100.0	42.8	6.3	9.9	26.6	39.6	2.1	0.3	3.4	33.8	6.1	11.4	0.1
	Women	100.0	26.6	8.7	8.2	9.7	40.0	1.6	0.2	2.1	36.2	4.7	28.5	0.2
Countries of the sub-region of Central America and Mexico [a,c/]														
2012	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**61.1**	**11.4**	**18.3**	**31.3**	**25.1**	**4.1**	**0.8**	**1.6**	**18.6**	**4.6**	**5.9**	**3.4**
	Men	100.0	65.3	9.8	22.2	33.3	25.9	5.3	1.1	1.9	17.7	0.7	4.1	4.0
	Women	100.0	54.1	13.9	12.1	28.1	23.7	2.1	0.3	1.2	20.1	11.0	8.8	2.4
2015	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**60.5**	**10.3**	**17.7**	**32.5**	**25.3**	**3.9**	**0.6**	**1.8**	**18.9**	**4.8**	**5.0**	**4.3**
	Men	100.0	64.3	8.7	21.3	34.4	26.4	5.1	0.9	2.1	18.3	0.7	3.5	5.0

Continues...

Countries, year and sex		TOTAL	Status in employment											
			Employees				Non-employees					Domestic workers	Contributing family workers	Others
			Total	Public	Private		Total	Employer		Own-account				
					Establishments with a maximum of five workers	Establishments with six or more workers		Establishments with a maximum of five workers	Establishments with six or more workers	Professional. technical or administrative	Non-professional. technical or administrative			
	Women	100.0	54.3	13.1	11.8	29.4	23.6	2.0	0.3	1.4	19.9	11.5	7.5	3.1
2018	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**60.8**	**9.5**	**17.0**	**34.3**	**25.6**	**4.3**	**0.8**	**2.0**	**18.5**	**4.2**	**4.2**	**5.2**
	Men	100.0	63.5	7.8	20.3	35.4	27.0	5.6	1.0	2.2	18.2	0.6	2.8	6.0
	Women	100.0	56.4	12.2	11.8	32.4	23.3	2.3	0.3	1.6	19.0	10.0	6.4	4.0
2019	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**60.1**	**9.2**	**17.1**	**33.8**	**26.0**	**4.4**	**0.7**	**2.0**	**18.9**	**4.3**	**4.3**	**5.2**
	Men	100.0	63.3	7.5	20.4	35.4	27.0	5.8	1.0	2.2	18.0	0.7	2.9	6.1
	Women	100.0	55.2	11.9	11.9	31.4	24.6	2.3	0.3	1.8	20.3	9.9	6.5	3.9
Countries of the sub-region of the Southern Cone countries [a,d/]														
2012	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**62.5**	**12.3**	**10.1**	**40.2**	**26.7**	**2.4**	**1.5**	**3.2**	**19.6**	**6.9**	**3.2**	**0.7**
	Men	100.0	64.1	8.9	11.5	43.7	32.2	3.0	1.9	3.4	24.0	0.9	1.9	0.8
	Women	100.0	60.3	16.8	8.2	35.3	19.3	1.6	1.0	2.9	13.8	15.0	4.9	0.5
2015	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**61.3**	**12.0**	**9.9**	**39.4**	**28.4**	**2.7**	**1.7**	**3.3**	**20.7**	**6.6**	**3.0**	**0.8**
	Men	100.0	61.9	8.8	11.2	41.9	34.5	3.3	2.2	3.6	25.5	0.8	1.8	1.0
	Women	100.0	60.5	16.3	8.1	36.1	20.3	1.9	1.1	2.9	14.4	14.1	4.5	0.5
2018	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**59.6**	**12.2**	**10.9**	**36.5**	**30.4**	**2.9**	**2.0**	**3.4**	**22.1**	**6.9**	**2.4**	**0.7**
	Men	100.0	60.6	9.1	12.9	38.7	36.0	3.6	2.4	3.6	26.4	1.0	1.5	0.8
	Women	100.0	58.3	16.2	8.5	33.6	23.3	2.0	1.4	3.3	16.6	14.4	3.5	0.5

▶ Continues...

Countries, year and sex		TOTAL	Status in employment											
			Employees				Non-employees					Domestic workers	Contributing family workers	Others
			Total	Public	Private		Total	Employer		Own-account				
					Establishments with a maximum of five workers	Establishments with six or more workers		Establishments with a maximum of five workers	Establishments with six or more workers	Professional. technical or administrative	Non-professional. technical or administrative			
2019	**TOTAL**	**100.0**	**59.5**	**12.0**	**10.9**	**36.5**	**30.8**	**2.8**	**1.9**	**3.6**	**22.5**	**6.8**	**2.3**	**0.7**
	Men	100.0	60.4	8.9	12.8	38.7	36.3	3.4	2.4	3.6	26.9	1.0	1.4	0.8
	Women	100.0	58.3	15.9	8.6	33.8	23.8	2.1	1.4	3.6	16.8	14.1	3.4	0.5
	Women	100.0	64.3	18.2	17.4	28.7	20.6	1.9	0.2	3.2	15.3	11.7	3.0	0.3

Source: ILO, based on information from household surveys of the countries.

a/ Weighted average. The weighting factor used is the national employed population of each country, disaggregated by status in employment, establishment size and sex.
b/ Countries included: Bolívia (Pluri. State of), Colombia, Ecuador and Peru.
c/ Countries included: Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico and Panama.
d/ Countries included: Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Paraguay and Uruguay.

TABLE 11. LATIN AMERICA: PERCENTAGE OF THE NATIONAL EMPLOYED POPULATION BY ECONOMIC ACTIVITY, COUNTRY, YEAR AND SEX
Years: 2012 - 2019

Year	Sex	Total	Agriculture, fishing and mining	Electricity, gas and waterworks	Manufacturing	Construction	Trade	Transportation, storage and communications	Financial establishments	Community, social and personal services	Unspecified activities
Latin America [a/]											
2012	**Total**	**100.0**	**11.5**	**0.4**	**13.8**	**8.2**	**22.6**	**5.5**	**5.7**	**31.8**	**0.5**
	Men	100.0	15.7	0.6	15.4	13.7	21.1	8.0	5.7	19.2	0.6
	Women	100.0	5.8	0.2	11.7	0.9	24.5	2.2	5.6	48.8	0.4
2015	**Total**	**100.0**	**10.7**	**0.4**	**13.5**	**7.9**	**23.5**	**5.6**	**6.0**	**32.0**	**0.4**
	Men	100.0	14.8	0.6	15.3	13.4	21.8	8.2	6.0	19.4	0.5
	Women	100.0	5.3	0.2	11.2	0.6	25.7	2.1	5.9	48.8	0.3
2018	**Total**	**100.0**	**9.9**	**0.4**	**12.9**	**7.1**	**24.1**	**5.8**	**5.8**	**33.3**	**0.5**
	Men	100.0	14.0	0.5	14.6	12.2	22.9	8.8	6.1	20.4	0.6
	Women	100.0	4.6	0.2	10.8	0.6	25.8	2.0	5.5	50.1	0.4
2019	**Total**	**100.0**	**9.7**	**0.4**	**13.0**	**6.9**	**24.4**	**6.0**	**5.9**	**33.3**	**0.4**
	Men	100.0	13.8	0.6	14.8	11.9	22.9	9.0	6.2	20.3	0.5
	Women	100.0	4.6	0.2	10.7	0.6	26.2	2.2	5.5	49.7	0.3
Argentina [b/]											
2012	**Total**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
	Men	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	Women	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
2015	**Total**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**
	Men	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	Women	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Continues...

Year	Sex	Total	Agriculture, fishing and mining	Electricity, gas and waterworks	Manufacturing	Construction	Trade	Transportation, storage and communications	Financial establishments	Community, social and personal services	Unspecified activities
	Total	**100.0**	**0.9**	**0.9**	**11.2**	**9.1**	**22.2**	**7.2**	**10.4**	**35.9**	**2.2**
2018	Men	100.0	1.3	1.3	13.9	15.6	22.7	11.0	10.5	21.0	2.7
	Women	100.0	0.3	0.4	7.8	0.7	21.6	2.2	10.2	55.1	1.6
	Total	**100.0**	**1.0**	**0.8**	**11.4**	**9.0**	**22.2**	**7.4**	**10.8**	**36.2**	**1.1**
2019	Men	100.0	1.5	1.2	14.1	15.4	22.7	11.4	11.2	21.3	1.3
	Women	100.0	0.3	0.3	7.9	0.8	21.7	2.3	10.3	55.5	0.9
Bolivia (Pluri. State of)											
	Total	**100.0**	**31.9**	**0.6**	**9.9**	**7.3**	**22.4**	**7.2**	**1.0**	**19.6**	**0.2**
2012	Men	100.0	33.3	0.7	10.7	12.5	14.3	11.5	0.9	15.9	0.2
	Women	100.0	30.1	0.3	9.0	0.7	32.7	1.7	1.0	24.3	0.2
	Total	**100.0**	**31.4**	**0.4**	**10.3**	**9.3**	**22.0**	**7.3**	**1.1**	**18.1**	**0.1**
2015	Men	100.0	32.3	0.5	10.8	15.4	13.4	11.3	1.1	15.2	0.1
	Women	100.0	30.2	0.2	9.5	0.8	34.1	1.6	1.3	22.1	0.2
	Total	**100.0**	**32.1**	**0.3**	**9.9**	**8.6**	**21.7**	**7.7**	**1.1**	**18.6**	**0.0**
2018	Men	100.0	33.0	0.5	10.4	14.8	13.2	12.4	1.1	14.6	0.0
	Women	100.0	30.9	0.1	9.3	0.4	33.0	1.4	1.1	23.8	0.0
	Total	**100.0**	**31.9**	**0.4**	**9.5**	**8.1**	**23.4**	**7.2**	**1.1**	**18.5**	**0.0**
2019	Men	100.0	32.1	0.6	10.3	14.0	14.8	12.0	1.1	15.1	0.0
	Women	100.0	31.7	0.1	8.5	0.7	34.0	1.2	1.1	22.7	0.0
Brazil											
	Total	**100.0**	**12.1**	**0.5**	**13.6**	**8.4**	**22.8**	**6.0**	**6.1**	**30.6**	**0.0**
2012	Men	100.0	16.4	0.7	15.1	13.9	21.8	8.7	6.2	17.1	0.0
	Women	100.0	6.1	0.2	11.5	0.9	24.2	2.3	6.0	48.8	0.0

Continues...

Year	Sex	Total	Agriculture, fishing and mining	Electricity, gas and waterworks	Manufacturing	Construction	Trade	Transportation, storage and communications	Financial establishments	Community, social and personal services	Unspecified activities
	Total	**100.0**	**10.7**	**0.5**	**13.1**	**8.2**	**23.8**	**6.1**	**6.4**	**31.3**	**0.0**
2015	Men	100.0	14.8	0.6	14.8	13.8	22.5	9.0	6.5	18.0	0.0
	Women	100.0	5.2	0.2	10.8	0.6	25.6	2.2	6.2	49.1	0.0
	Total	**100.0**	**9.7**	**0.4**	**12.0**	**7.3**	**24.9**	**6.4**	**6.4**	**32.9**	**0.0**
2018	Men	100.0	13.8	0.6	13.6	12.5	24.0	9.7	6.7	19.1	0.1
	Women	100.0	4.3	0.2	10.0	0.6	26.0	2.2	6.0	50.7	0.0
	Total	**100.0**	**9.5**	**0.4**	**11.9**	**7.2**	**24.8**	**6.6**	**6.5**	**33.1**	**0.0**
2019	Men	100.0	13.6	0.6	13.6	12.4	23.8	9.9	6.8	19.3	0.0
	Women	100.0	4.2	0.2	9.8	0.6	26.1	2.3	6.0	50.7	0.0
Chile											
	Total	**100.0**	**13.3**	**0.7**	**11.6**	**8.3**	**19.7**	**7.3**	**11.8**	**27.4**	**0.0**
2012	Men	100.0	18.4	1.0	13.5	13.0	16.9	10.4	10.4	16.4	0.0
	Women	100.0	5.6	0.3	8.7	1.2	23.8	2.8	13.8	44.0	0.0
	Total	**100.0**	**12.2**	**0.8**	**11.1**	**8.6**	**19.8**	**7.4**	**12.3**	**27.8**	**0.0**
2015	Men	100.0	17.1	1.0	12.7	13.5	17.6	10.3	10.9	16.8	0.0
	Women	100.0	5.0	0.3	9.0	1.4	23.0	3.3	14.2	43.8	0.0
	Total	**100.0**	**11.7**	**1.1**	**10.3**	**8.4**	**23.0**	**8.7**	**8.6**	**28.1**	**0.0**
2018	Men	100.0	15.9	1.5	12.0	13.6	20.0	12.0	8.0	17.0	0.0
	Women	100.0	5.7	0.4	8.0	1.2	27.3	3.9	9.5	43.9	0.0
	Total	**100.0**	**11.7**	**1.1**	**9.9**	**8.6**	**22.9**	**8.5**	**8.5**	**28.9**	**0.0**
2019	Men	100.0	16.2	1.6	11.5	13.6	19.9	11.7	7.8	17.6	0.0
	Women	100.0	5.3	0.5	7.6	1.5	27.0	3.9	9.4	44.7	0.0

▶ Continues...

Year	Sex	Total	Agriculture, fishing and mining	Electricity, gas and waterworks	Manufacturing	Construction	Trade	Transportation, storage and communications	Financial establishments	Community, social and personal services	Unspecified activities
Colombia											
2012	**Total**	**100.0**	**18.6**	**0.5**	**12.8**	**6.0**	**26.7**	**8.3**	**8.0**	**19.0**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	26.2	0.7	11.7	9.8	22.3	11.7	7.1	10.4	0.0
	Women	100.0	7.9	0.3	14.4	0.6	33.0	3.5	9.2	31.1	0.0
2015	**Total**	**100.0**	**17.0**	**0.5**	**11.8**	**6.2**	**27.4**	**8.2**	**9.0**	**19.8**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	24.0	0.7	11.5	10.3	22.6	11.8	7.9	11.2	0.0
	Women	100.0	7.3	0.3	12.3	0.7	34.2	3.2	10.4	31.6	0.0
2018	**Total**	**100.0**	**17.7**	**0.6**	**12.0**	**6.2**	**26.8**	**8.0**	**9.2**	**19.5**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	24.6	0.7	11.3	10.1	22.5	11.6	7.8	11.3	0.0
	Women	100.0	7.9	0.3	13.1	0.8	32.8	2.9	11.1	31.1	0.0
2019	**Total**	**100.0**	**16.9**	**0.6**	**11.8**	**6.8**	**27.2**	**7.9**	**8.9**	**19.9**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	23.8	0.8	11.1	11.0	22.8	11.6	7.3	11.7	0.0
	Women	100.0	7.0	0.3	12.8	1.0	33.4	2.6	11.2	31.7	0.0
Costa Rica											
2012	**Total**	**100.0**	**10.4**	**1.8**	**9.9**	**6.3**	**25.3**	**7.1**	**3.0**	**35.9**	**0.3**
	Men	100.0	15.0	2.6	11.0	9.8	23.1	10.1	2.6	25.6	0.3
	Women	100.0	2.9	0.6	8.3	0.5	28.8	2.3	3.6	52.6	0.3
2015	**Total**	**100.0**	**12.4**	**1.5**	**10.9**	**6.7**	**24.0**	**5.6**	**2.9**	**36.0**	**0.2**
	Men	100.0	17.4	2.1	12.4	10.4	21.8	7.6	2.9	25.3	0.1
	Women	100.0	4.2	0.5	8.4	0.6	27.6	2.3	2.8	53.4	0.2
2018	**Total**	**100.0**	**12.4**	**1.3**	**10.8**	**6.9**	**23.7**	**7.2**	**3.0**	**34.1**	**0.6**
	Men	100.0	17.2	1.8	11.6	10.8	21.5	9.8	3.2	23.6	0.5
	Women	100.0	4.3	0.4	9.5	0.4	27.3	2.8	2.8	51.7	0.7

Continues...

Year	Sex	Total	Agriculture, fishing and mining	Electricity, gas and waterworks	Manufacturing	Construction	Trade	Transportation, storage and communications	Financial establishments	Community, social and personal services	Unspecified activities
	Total	**100.0**	**12.0**	**1.2**	**10.4**	**6.9**	**22.5**	**7.5**	**3.1**	**36.1**	**0.4**
2019	Men	100.0	17.0	1.6	11.5	10.7	19.9	10.5	2.7	25.8	0.4
	Women	100.0	4.1	0.5	8.6	0.8	26.6	2.9	3.7	52.4	0.3
Ecuador											
	Total	**100.0**	**28.5**	**0.4**	**10.4**	**6.2**	**25.6**	**5.9**	**6.0**	**16.9**	**0.0**
2012	Men	100.0	33.2	0.5	10.9	9.8	19.5	8.7	6.4	10.9	0.0
	Women	100.0	21.3	0.2	9.7	0.7	34.9	1.8	5.4	26.0	0.0
	Total	**100.0**	**26.9**	**0.5**	**11.0**	**7.4**	**24.2**	**7.0**	**4.4**	**18.7**	**0.0**
2015	Men	100.0	29.6	0.7	11.6	12.0	18.4	10.1	4.5	13.1	0.0
	Women	100.0	22.9	0.3	10.1	0.6	32.6	2.5	4.2	26.8	0.0
	Total	**100.0**	**29.3**	**0.4**	**10.9**	**6.5**	**24.3**	**6.6**	**5.6**	**16.3**	**0.0**
2018	Men	100.0	31.5	0.5	11.7	10.8	18.9	9.8	5.6	11.3	0.0
	Women	100.0	26.3	0.2	9.9	0.6	31.9	2.1	5.7	23.3	0.0
	Total	**100.0**	**30.2**	**0.4**	**10.3**	**5.9**	**24.4**	**6.6**	**5.8**	**16.4**	**0.0**
2019	Men	100.0	32.3	0.5	11.2	9.9	19.2	9.9	5.8	11.2	0.0
	Women	100.0	27.4	0.2	9.0	0.4	31.8	1.9	5.7	23.5	0.0
El Salvador											
	Total	**100.0**	**21.0**	**0.4**	**15.5**	**5.1**	**28.7**	**4.3**	**5.4**	**19.5**	**0.0**
2012	Men	100.0	32.5	0.6	13.7	8.5	19.5	6.5	6.2	12.5	0.0
	Women	100.0	5.0	0.2	18.0	0.2	41.5	1.3	4.3	29.4	0.0
	Total	**100.0**	**18.2**	**0.6**	**16.1**	**5.4**	**30.4**	**4.7**	**5.6**	**18.9**	**0.0**
2015	Men	100.0	28.3	0.8	14.2	9.1	21.0	7.1	6.9	12.5	0.0
	Women	100.0	3.8	0.3	18.9	0.4	43.6	1.3	3.9	27.8	0.0

▶ Continues...

Year	Sex	Total	Agriculture, fishing and mining	Electricity, gas and waterworks	Manufacturing	Construction	Trade	Transportation, storage and communications	Financial establishments	Community, social and personal services	Unspecified activities
	Total	**100.0**	**16.7**	**0.9**	**15.1**	**6.3**	**31.5**	**4.6**	**6.3**	**18.6**	**0.0**
2018	Men	100.0	26.2	1.1	13.9	10.4	22.1	6.9	7.3	12.2	0.0
	Women	100.0	3.4	0.5	16.8	0.5	44.7	1.4	4.9	27.7	0.0
	Total	**100.0**	**16.4**	**0.8**	**14.9**	**6.8**	**31.0**	**4.7**	**6.2**	**19.2**	**0.0**
2019	Men	100.0	25.5	0.9	13.6	11.4	21.5	7.1	7.1	12.8	0.0
	Women	100.0	3.4	0.5	16.7	0.4	44.4	1.5	4.9	28.2	0.0
Guatemala											
	Total	**100.0**	**32.3**	**0.3**	**13.4**	**5.8**	**26.4**	**3.3**	**3.3**	**15.2**	**0.0**
2012	Men	100.0	43.8	0.4	12.4	9.0	17.5	4.7	3.6	8.8	0.0
	Women	100.0	12.6	0.1	15.1	0.2	41.8	0.8	2.8	26.4	0.0
	Total	**100.0**	**32.0**	**0.3**	**12.8**	**5.6**	**25.3**	**3.8**	**4.0**	**16.1**	**0.0**
2015	Men	100.0	43.0	0.5	10.6	8.3	19.6	5.3	4.1	8.8	0.0
	Women	100.0	10.0	0.1	17.3	0.2	36.8	0.9	3.7	30.8	0.0
	Total	**100.0**	**33.1**	**0.4**	**12.8**	**5.7**	**23.5**	**3.9**	**5.1**	**15.5**	**0.0**
2018	Men	100.0	44.2	0.6	10.3	8.6	17.0	5.4	5.0	8.9	0.0
	Women	100.0	11.9	0.2	17.4	0.1	36.1	0.8	5.2	28.2	0.0
	Total	**100.0**	**31.2**	**0.5**	**11.6**	**6.8**	**24.0**	**3.8**	**4.9**	**17.1**	**0.0**
2019	Men	100.0	41.3	0.6	9.6	10.1	18.0	5.3	5.0	10.0	0.0
	Women	100.0	11.5	0.2	15.6	0.4	35.8	0.9	4.7	30.9	0.0
Honduras											
	Total	**100.0**	**38.6**	**0.4**	**13.4**	**5.4**	**21.9**	**3.3**	**2.9**	**14.1**	**0.1**
2012	Men	100.0	52.6	0.5	9.8	8.0	14.4	4.5	2.9	7.3	0.0
	Women	100.0	11.6	0.2	20.3	0.4	36.3	1.0	2.9	27.1	0.2

Continues...

Year	Sex	Total	Agriculture, fishing and mining	Electricity, gas and waterworks	Manufacturing	Construction	Trade	Transportation, storage and communications	Financial establishments	Community, social and personal services	Unspecified activities
	Total	**100.0**	**30.1**	**0.9**	**14.8**	**5.6**	**23.6**	**3.5**	**4.5**	**16.9**	**0.1**
2015	Men	100.0	43.7	1.1	11.4	9.0	16.1	5.2	4.4	9.1	0.1
	Women	100.0	8.1	0.5	20.5	0.2	35.9	0.7	4.5	29.6	0.1
	Total	**100.0**	**31.8**	**0.6**	**13.4**	**5.6**	**23.5**	**3.9**	**3.8**	**17.4**	**0.0**
2018	Men	100.0	44.9	0.7	10.8	9.0	15.2	5.8	3.8	9.7	0.0
	Women	100.0	11.4	0.4	17.6	0.3	36.3	1.0	3.8	29.3	0.0
	Total	**100.0**	**30.8**	**1.0**	**13.5**	**6.2**	**23.8**	**3.7**	**3.9**	**17.1**	**0.0**
2019	Men	100.0	43.9	1.3	10.9	9.5	15.7	5.2	3.7	9.7	0.0
	Women	100.0	8.5	0.4	17.9	0.6	37.6	1.1	4.1	29.8	0.0
Mexico											
	Total	**100.0**	**14.1**	**0.4**	**15.3**	**7.5**	**26.5**	**4.8**	**1.7**	**29.1**	**0.7**
2012	Men	100.0	20.1	0.5	15.6	11.6	19.9	6.8	1.5	23.2	0.7
	Women	100.0	4.3	0.2	14.7	0.7	37.3	1.5	1.9	38.8	0.6
	Total	**100.0**	**13.8**	**0.4**	**16.0**	**7.8**	**26.4**	**4.9**	**1.6**	**28.4**	**0.6**
2015	Men	100.0	19.9	0.5	16.4	12.2	19.8	7.0	1.5	22.1	0.6
	Women	100.0	3.9	0.2	15.5	0.7	37.2	1.5	1.8	38.8	0.5
	Total	**100.0**	**13.1**	**0.4**	**16.6**	**8.2**	**26.2**	**5.2**	**1.6**	**28.1**	**0.6**
2018	Men	100.0	18.9	0.5	16.8	12.8	19.7	7.4	1.4	21.8	0.7
	Women	100.0	3.7	0.2	16.4	0.8	36.7	1.7	1.8	38.2	0.5
	Total	**100.0**	**12.7**	**0.4**	**16.6**	**7.8**	**27.4**	**5.1**	**1.6**	**27.8**	**0.6**
2019	Men	100.0	18.5	0.5	17.0	12.3	20.6	7.4	1.4	21.6	0.6
	Women	100.0	3.8	0.2	15.8	0.8	38.0	1.6	1.9	37.5	0.5

▶ Continues...

Year	Sex	Total	Agriculture, fishing and mining	Electricity, gas and waterworks	Manufacturing	Construction	Trade	Transportation, storage and communications	Financial establishments	Community, social and personal services	Unspecified activities
Panama											
2012	**Total**	**100.0**	**16.9**	**0.8**	**6.9**	**10.4**	**23.2**	**8.3**	**9.1**	**24.5**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	22.3	1.0	7.0	16.0	19.6	11.5	8.4	14.2	0.0
	Women	100.0	8.6	0.5	6.6	1.6	28.7	3.5	10.1	40.4	0.0
2015	**Total**	**100.0**	**14.8**	**0.8**	**7.7**	**10.0**	**23.6**	**8.6**	**9.3**	**25.1**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	19.4	1.1	7.6	15.9	20.2	11.8	8.5	15.5	0.0
	Women	100.0	8.0	0.5	7.8	1.3	28.6	4.0	10.4	39.3	0.0
2018	**Total**	**100.0**	**14.6**	**0.6**	**7.6**	**10.2**	**23.7**	**8.9**	**8.7**	**25.7**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	19.0	1.0	7.3	16.1	19.8	12.6	8.5	15.8	0.0
	Women	100.0	8.2	0.2	8.0	1.7	29.4	3.5	9.0	40.1	0.0
2019	**Total**	**100.0**	**14.8**	**0.8**	**7.5**	**9.0**	**23.5**	**9.0**	**9.2**	**26.2**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	19.3	1.0	7.4	14.5	19.4	13.0	9.1	16.3	0.0
	Women	100.0	8.5	0.5	7.7	1.3	29.2	3.3	9.5	40.0	0.0
Paraguay											
2012	**Total**	**100.0**	**27.2**	**0.6**	**10.5**	**5.5**	**25.5**	**4.2**	**4.8**	**21.7**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	30.1	0.8	12.3	9.3	23.3	6.3	4.8	12.9	0.0
	Women	100.0	23.0	0.2	8.0	0.1	28.6	1.2	4.8	34.2	0.0
2015	**Total**	**100.0**	**20.1**	**0.5**	**12.3**	**6.7**	**26.6**	**3.9**	**5.4**	**24.5**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	24.1	0.7	14.5	11.3	24.3	5.8	5.4	14.0	0.0
	Women	100.0	14.5	0.4	9.2	0.2	29.8	1.2	5.3	39.5	0.0
2018	**Total**	**100.0**	**20.5**	**0.5**	**11.4**	**7.1**	**26.0**	**3.3**	**6.3**	**24.8**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	24.2	0.7	14.1	11.7	23.3	4.7	6.2	15.1	0.0
	Women	100.0	15.0	0.2	7.6	0.3	30.1	1.2	6.5	39.2	0.0

Continues...

Year	Sex	Total	Agriculture, fishing and mining	Electricity, gas and waterworks	Manufacturing	Construction	Trade	Transportation, storage and communications	Financial establishments	Community, social and personal services	Unspecified activities
2019	**Total**	**100.0**	**20.1**	**0.4**	**10.9**	**7.7**	**26.5**	**3.0**	**5.9**	**25.3**	**0.1**
	Men	100.0	24.2	0.6	12.8	13.0	23.7	4.5	5.5	15.5	0.1
	Women	100.0	14.5	0.1	8.3	0.2	30.5	0.8	6.5	39.1	0.0
Peru [e/]											
2012	**Total**	**100.0**	**26.0**	**0.2**	**10.7**	**5.9**	**25.9**	**7.4**	**5.4**	**18.5**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	29.6	0.2	11.4	10.0	16.5	11.8	6.1	14.3	0.0
	Women	100.0	21.5	0.1	9.7	0.6	38.0	1.8	4.5	23.8	0.0
2015	**Total**	**100.0**	**26.9**	**0.2**	**9.5**	**6.6**	**25.4**	**8.0**	**5.5**	**17.8**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	30.2	0.3	10.2	11.2	16.0	12.9	6.0	13.3	0.0
	Women	100.0	22.7	0.1	8.7	0.6	37.6	1.8	4.9	23.6	0.0
2018	**Total**	**100.0**	**25.9**	**0.2**	**9.1**	**6.0**	**27.2**	**8.1**	**6.1**	**17.4**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	29.7	0.3	9.6	10.3	17.3	13.2	6.3	13.3	0.0
	Women	100.0	21.2	0.1	8.4	0.5	39.8	1.7	5.8	22.6	0.0
2019	**Total**	**100.0**	**25.4**	**0.2**	**9.0**	**6.2**	**27.0**	**8.1**	**6.2**	**18.0**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	28.5	0.3	9.7	10.6	17.4	13.2	6.6	13.6	0.0
	Women	100.0	21.5	0.1	8.0	0.6	38.9	1.8	5.7	23.4	0.0
Dominican Republic											
2012	**Total**	**100.0**	**14.6**	**1.1**	**10.4**	**6.3**	**27.4**	**7.6**	**5.7**	**26.9**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	21.6	1.2	11.1	9.6	26.0	11.0	5.4	14.2	0.0
	Women	100.0	2.4	1.0	9.1	0.4	30.0	1.5	6.3	49.2	0.0
2015	**Total**	**100.0**	**10.0**	**1.4**	**9.9**	**6.9**	**27.9**	**7.6**	**2.4**	**34.0**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	15.3	1.6	11.5	10.9	26.1	11.2	2.1	21.4	0.0
	Women	100.0	1.6	1.0	7.3	0.6	30.7	1.9	3.0	54.0	0.0

▶ Continues...

Year	Sex	Total	Agriculture, fishing and mining	Electricity, gas and waterworks	Manufacturing	Construction	Trade	Transportation, storage and communications	Financial establishments	Community, social and personal services	Unspecified activities
2018	**Total**	**100.0**	**9.5**	**1.5**	**9.9**	**8.1**	**27.1**	**7.4**	**2.6**	**34.0**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	14.6	1.7	11.3	13.0	25.3	11.3	2.3	20.5	0.0
	Women	100.0	1.6	1.1	7.7	0.7	29.7	1.5	3.0	54.7	0.0
2019	**Total**	**100.0**	**8.9**	**1.2**	**10.1**	**7.4**	**27.8**	**7.0**	**2.8**	**34.8**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	14.0	1.3	11.6	12.2	26.1	10.8	2.5	21.6	0.0
	Women	100.0	1.5	1.1	7.9	0.4	30.4	1.4	3.2	54.2	0.0
Uruguay											
2012	**Total**	**100.0**	**8.8**	**1.0**	**11.9**	**7.8**	**21.8**	**6.7**	**8.7**	**33.3**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	12.6	1.3	14.2	13.7	21.3	9.7	8.3	19.0	0.0
	Women	100.0	4.1	0.6	9.1	0.7	22.5	3.1	9.1	50.7	0.0
2015	**Total**	**100.0**	**9.0**	**0.8**	**11.1**	**8.1**	**21.8**	**7.3**	**9.8**	**32.1**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	12.7	1.1	13.4	13.8	21.2	10.4	9.1	18.3	0.0
	Women	100.0	4.5	0.5	8.3	0.9	22.6	3.5	10.7	49.1	0.0
2018	**Total**	**100.0**	**8.5**	**0.9**	**10.4**	**7.4**	**21.7**	**7.1**	**10.5**	**33.5**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	12.4	1.2	12.8	13.0	21.3	10.2	9.7	19.3	0.0
	Women	100.0	3.8	0.5	7.4	0.6	22.2	3.3	11.4	50.8	0.0
2019	**Total**	**100.0**	**8.4**	**0.8**	**10.3**	**7.3**	**21.4**	**7.2**	**10.5**	**34.0**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	12.3	1.1	12.7	12.8	20.8	10.4	9.8	20.1	0.0
	Women	100.0	3.8	0.4	7.5	0.6	22.1	3.2	11.5	51.0	0.0

Source: ILO, based on information from household surveys of the countries.

a/ Weighted average. The weighting factor used is the national employed population of each country, disaggregated by area of activity and sex.
b/ 31 urban clusters. The INDEC, in the framework of the statistical emergency declared in 2016, recommends disregarding the series published between 2007 and 2015 for purposes of comparison and analysis of the labour market in Argentina.

TABLE 12. LATIN AMERICA: WEIGHTED AVERAGES OF THE NATIONAL EMPLOYED POPULATION BY ECONOMIC ACTIVITY, SUB-REGION, YEAR AND SEX (percentages) Years: 2012 - 2019

Year	Sex	Total	Agriculture, fishing and mining	Electricity. gas and waterworks	Manufacturing	Construction	Trade	Transportation, storage and communications	Financial establishments	Community. social and personal services	Unspecified activities
Latin America [a/]											
2012	**Total**	**100.0**	**11.5**	**0.4**	**13.8**	**8.2**	**22.6**	**5.5**	**5.7**	**31.8**	**0.5**
	Men	100.0	15.7	0.6	15.4	13.7	21.1	8.0	5.7	19.2	0.6
	Women	100.0	5.8	0.2	11.7	0.9	24.5	2.2	5.6	48.8	0.4
2015	**Total**	**100.0**	**10.7**	**0.4**	**13.5**	**7.9**	**23.5**	**5.6**	**6.0**	**32.0**	**0.4**
	Men	100.0	14.8	0.6	15.3	13.4	21.8	8.2	6.0	19.4	0.5
	Women	100.0	5.3	0.2	11.2	0.6	25.7	2.1	5.9	48.8	0.3
2018	**Total**	**100.0**	**9.9**	**0.4**	**12.9**	**7.1**	**24.1**	**5.8**	**5.8**	**33.3**	**0.5**
	Men	100.0	14.0	0.5	14.6	12.2	22.9	8.8	6.1	20.4	0.6
	Women	100.0	4.6	0.2	10.8	0.6	25.8	2.0	5.5	50.1	0.4
2019	**Total**	**100.0**	**9.7**	**0.4**	**13.0**	**6.9**	**24.4**	**6.0**	**5.9**	**33.3**	**0.4**
	Men	100.0	13.8	0.6	14.8	11.9	22.9	9.0	6.2	20.3	0.5
	Women	100.0	4.6	0.2	10.7	0.6	26.2	2.2	5.5	49.7	0.3
Countries of the Andean sub-region [a,b/]											
2012	**Total**	**100.0**	**21.4**	**0.5**	**12.0**	**5.7**	**26.2**	**8.0**	**7.7**	**18.4**	**0.1**
	Men	100.0	26.7	0.6	11.5	9.6	21.1	11.7	7.2	11.5	0.1
	Women	100.0	14.4	0.3	12.7	0.6	32.9	3.1	8.4	27.5	0.0
2015	**Total**	**100.0**	**20.6**	**0.5**	**10.9**	**6.0**	**26.5**	**8.0**	**8.8**	**18.7**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	25.3	0.7	11.0	10.2	21.3	12.0	8.0	11.5	0.0
	Women	100.0	14.5	0.2	10.8	0.6	33.2	2.8	9.9	28.0	0.0

Continues...

Year	Sex	Total	Agricul-ture, fish-ing and mining	Electricity. gas and waterworks	Manufac-turing	Construction	Trade	Transporta-tion, storage and communi-cations	Financial establish-ments	Community. social and personal services	Unspecified activities
2018	**Total**	**100.0**	**20.8**	**0.5**	**10.9**	**5.9**	**26.7**	**7.8**	**8.9**	**18.4**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	25.7	0.7	10.7	9.9	21.5	12.0	7.9	11.6	0.0
	Women	100.0	14.5	0.3	11.3	0.7	33.4	2.5	10.1	27.2	0.0
2019	**Total**	**100.0**	**20.6**	**0.5**	**10.7**	**6.3**	**26.7**	**7.7**	**8.6**	**18.8**	**0.0**
	Men	100.0	24.9	0.7	10.6	10.6	21.6	12.0	7.5	12.1	0.0
	Women	100.0	15.0	0.3	10.9	0.8	33.2	2.3	10.1	27.5	0.0
Sub-region of Central American countries and Mexico [a,c/]											
2012	**Total**	**100.0**	**12.4**	**0.3**	**15.8**	**7.6**	**26.2**	**4.7**	**1.3**	**30.7**	**0.9**
	Men	100.0	17.7	0.4	16.3	11.8	19.5	6.6	1.2	25.6	0.9
	Women	100.0	3.8	0.2	14.9	0.8	37.3	1.5	1.5	39.2	0.8
2015	**Total**	**100.0**	**12.5**	**0.3**	**16.7**	**8.1**	**26.2**	**4.8**	**1.3**	**29.4**	**0.7**
	Men	100.0	18.0	0.4	17.3	12.5	19.3	6.8	1.2	23.7	0.8
	Women	100.0	3.5	0.2	15.8	0.8	37.5	1.4	1.5	38.7	0.6
2018	**Total**	**100.0**	**11.8**	**0.3**	**17.5**	**8.4**	**25.9**	**5.1**	**1.3**	**28.9**	**0.8**
	Men	100.0	17.0	0.4	17.9	13.0	19.2	7.1	1.1	23.3	0.8
	Women	100.0	3.3	0.2	16.9	0.9	36.8	1.7	1.5	38.0	0.6
2019	**Total**	**100.0**	**11.5**	**0.3**	**17.6**	**7.9**	**27.4**	**5.0**	**1.3**	**28.4**	**0.7**
	Men	100.0	16.7	0.4	18.3	12.4	20.3	7.2	1.1	22.9	0.8
	Women	100.0	3.4	0.2	16.4	0.8	38.5	1.6	1.6	37.0	0.6
Countries of the Southern Cone sub-region [a,d/]											
2012	**Total**	**100.0**	**12.5**	**0.4**	**13.8**	**8.4**	**22.9**	**5.8**	**5.7**	**30.5**	**0.1**
	Men	100.0	17.2	0.6	15.1	13.9	21.8	8.4	5.8	17.0	0.1
	Women	100.0	6.2	0.2	12.0	0.9	24.3	2.2	5.5	48.7	0.1

Continues...

Year	Sex	Total	Agricul-ture, fish-ing and mining	Electricity. gas and waterworks	Manufac-turing	Construction	Trade	Transporta-tion, storage and communi-cations	Financial establish-ments	Community. social and personal services	Unspecified activities
2015	**Total**	**100.0**	**11.2**	**0.4**	**13.1**	**8.1**	**24.1**	**5.9**	**5.9**	**31.2**	**0.1**
	Men	100.0	15.5	0.6	14.7	13.8	22.7	8.7	6.1	17.9	0.1
	Women	100.0	5.4	0.2	11.1	0.6	25.9	2.1	5.7	48.8	0.1
2018	**Total**	**100.0**	**10.0**	**0.4**	**12.1**	**7.1**	**25.0**	**6.3**	**6.0**	**33.0**	**0.3**
	Men	100.0	14.4	0.5	13.5	12.1	24.2	9.5	6.3	19.0	0.4
	Women	100.0	4.3	0.2	10.3	0.6	26.1	2.1	5.5	50.8	0.2
2019	**Total**	**100.0**	**9.8**	**0.4**	**12.1**	**6.9**	**25.0**	**6.5**	**6.1**	**33.1**	**0.2**
	Men	100.0	14.2	0.6	13.6	12.0	24.0	9.8	6.5	19.2	0.2
	Women	100.0	4.3	0.2	10.1	0.5	26.2	2.3	5.6	50.8	0.1

Source: ILO, based on information from household surveys of the countries.

a/ Weighted average. The weighting factors is the national employed population of each country, disaggregated by economic activity and sex.
b/ Countries included: Bolívia (Pluri. State of), Colombia, Ecuador and Peru.
c/ Countries included: Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico and Panama.
d/ Countries included: Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Paraguay and Uruguay.

TABLE 13. LATIN AMERICA: CHANGE IN THE REAL AVERAG MONTHLY WAGE BY YEAR, COUNTRY AND WAGE INDICATORS, 2012 - 2019 (percentages)

Country / Wage indicators	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
LATIN AMERICA (simple average)								
Real average monthly wage index (SPMR)	100.0	102.6	104.0	103.5	104.8	105.7	106.8	108.9
Men	100.0	102.3	104.1	102.3	104.1	104.5	104.9	107.4
Women	100.0	103.2	104.1	105.8	106.2	107.8	110.2	111.7
Real average monthly wage index public sector	100.0	102.1	104.5	106.3	107.9	110.3	112.7	115.2
Real average monthly wage index private sector	100.0	102.7	103.8	102.5	104.2	104.5	104.9	107.3
Real average monthly wage index domestic work	100.0	104.4	106.0	112.8	111.4	112.0	113.9	115.0
Real average wage Women / Men	83.6	84.4	83.7	86.3	85.2	86.0	87.7	87.7
LATIN AMERICA (Weighted average) [a/]								
Real average monthly wage index (SPMR)	100.0	102.0	102.3	103.0	103.9	105.4	106.8	107.8
Men	100.0	101.8	102.3	102.5	103.1	104.6	105.8	106.5
Women	100.0	102.3	102.5	104.1	105.6	107.4	109.1	110.6
Real average monthly wage index public sector	100.0	101.7	102.0	103.8	105.8	108.1	110.7	112.3
Real average monthly wage index private sector	100.0	102.0	102.3	102.8	103.5	104.9	105.7	106.6
Real average monthly wage index domestic work	100.0	103.2	105.9	108.2	108.2	110.7	111.5	111.4
Real average wage Women / Men	78.6	79.0	78.7	79.8	80.4	80.3	80.7	81.4
Bolivia (Pluri. State of)								
Real average monthly wage index (SPMR)	100.0	98.7	106.5	108.4	108.2	107.5	109.6	110.6
Men	100.0	98.4	104.6	103.1	106.6	104.3	104.7	107.9
Women	100.0	98.8	109.7	117.3	112.1	114.3	119.5	117.2
Real average monthly wage index public sector	100.0	95.0	102.9	110.0	118.8	112.4	113.3	127.1
Real average monthly wage index private sector	100.0	97.6	106.4	105.4	103.3	105.5	105.5	104.4
Real average monthly wage index domestic work	100.0	113.9	109.4	128.2	112.5	106.8	121.7	113.0

Continues...

Country / Wage indicators	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Real average wage Women / Men	71.9	72.2	75.3	81.9	75.6	78.7	82.1	78.0
Brazil								
Real average monthly wage index (SPMR)	100.0	102.1	103.3	105.3	106.1	110.5	112.4	112.9
Men	100.0	101.9	103.4	105.1	104.9	109.9	112.1	111.7
Women	100.0	102.4	103.5	106.3	108.8	112.6	114.3	116.1
Real average monthly wage index public sector	100.0	101.3	102.1	103.9	106.7	111.3	114.3	116.3
Real average monthly wage index private sector	100.0	102.2	103.2	105.2	105.2	109.6	110.5	110.4
Real average monthly wage index domestic work	100.0	103.6	108.4	109.1	109.1	112.3	113.2	112.0
Real average wage Women / Men	74.3	74.7	74.4	75.2	77.1	76.2	75.8	77.2
Chile								
Real average monthly wage index (SPMR)	100.0	104.5	103.9	106.4	106.3	110.7	112.5	...
Men	100.0	104.0	102.8	105.9	105.7	109.4	110.5	...
Women	100.0	105.5	106.4	108.3	107.9	114.3	117.4	...
Real average monthly wage index public sector	100.0	110.7	108.0	114.8	107.4	113.8	112.9	...
Real average monthly wage index private sector	100.0	101.9	101.6	102.8	104.8	107.2	109.4	...
Real average monthly wage index domestic work	100.0	113.3	111.7	122.5	122.0	126.0	125.6	...
Real average wage Women / Men	72.5	73.6	75.0	74.1	74.0	75.7	77.0	...
Colombia								
Real average monthly wage index (SPMR)	100.0	103.9	109.5	103.2	100.9	101.0	105.1	108.5
Men	100.0	103.2	111.0	103.0	100.2	99.7	102.4	106.7
Women	100.0	105.1	107.6	103.8	102.2	103.1	109.1	111.0
Real average monthly wage index public sector	100.0	101.0	105.6	101.4	104.5	103.8	107.4	116.6
Real average monthly wage index private sector	100.0	104.6	110.0	104.0	100.7	101.6	104.5	107.0
Real average monthly wage index domestic work	100.0	103.7	105.7	107.0	101.5	105.0	107.7	110.0

▶ Continues...

Country / Wage indicators	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Real average wage Women / Men	84.9	86.4	82.3	85.5	86.5	87.8	90.4	88.3
Costa Rica								
Real average monthly wage index (SPMR)	100.0	102.6	103.7	109.3	113.3	109.3	106.1	111.3
Men	100.0	101.1	103.0	106.3	110.1	104.7	101.9	108.1
Women	100.0	105.0	104.6	113.6	117.8	115.8	112.2	116.1
Real average monthly wage index public sector	100.0	105.7	104.9	114.9	116.0	110.3	112.6	118.4
Real average monthly wage index private sector	100.0	98.6	105.1	110.6	115.5	109.7	109.3	110.4
Real average monthly wage index domestic work	100.0	97.2	95.0	120.6	112.2	107.2	101.2	89.9
Real average wage Women / Men	83.9	87.1	85.2	89.7	89.8	92.7	92.4	90.1
Ecuador								
Real average monthly wage index (SPMR)	100.0	108.6	110.8	110.0	110.3	109.0	111.8	120.9
Men	100.0	109.0	110.5	110.0	110.7	109.3	111.9	121.1
Women	100.0	107.7	111.1	109.9	109.5	108.5	111.7	120.5
Real average monthly wage index public sector	100.0	103.5	107.9	108.9	108.1	110.3	111.3	121.8
Real average monthly wage index private sector	100.0	110.8	111.4	109.5	109.4	107.5	112.8	122.5
Real average monthly wage index domestic work	100.0	97.7	108.5	107.0	104.4	104.7	108.7	108.5
Real average wage Women / Men	96.7	95.5	97.2	96.6	95.6	95.9	96.5	96.2
El Salvador								
Real average monthly wage index (SPMR)	100.0	107.4	104.4	106.5	102.7	109.8	113.0	116.9
Men	100.0	102.1	103.3	105.0	102.3	109.2	112.3	114.7
Women	100.0	115.7	106.4	108.7	103.1	110.5	114.2	120.0
Real average monthly wage index public sector	100.0	106.0	111.6	108.8	113.7	119.1	116.4	123.6
Real average monthly wage index private sector	100.0	107.9	102.0	107.0	102.5	109.8	113.3	116.0
Real average monthly wage index domestic work	100.0	111.2	106.4	104.0	113.1	110.4	115.3	129.3

Continues...

Country / Wage indicators	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Real average wage Women / Men	90.7	102.8	93.4	93.8	91.3	91.7	92.2	94.8
Guatemala [a/]								
Real average monthly wage index (SPMR)	100.0	98.9	104.0	97.7	96.6	93.4	94.1	89.0
Men	100.0	98.1	105.0	94.2	95.3	91.9	92.7	86.4
Women	100.0	101.6	103.3	105.8	100.0	97.2	97.8	95.0
Real average monthly wage index public sector	100.0	96.5	107.4	104.3	100.8	100.9	102.9	102.8
Real average monthly wage index private sector	100.0	98.4	100.4	95.2	94.9	90.3	92.0	86.7
Real average monthly wage index domestic work	100.0	106.1	100.6	109.8	100.1	100.2	95.1	91.7
Real average wage Women / Men	86.2	89.3	84.8	96.8	90.5	91.2	91.0	94.7
Honduras								
Real average monthly wage index (SPMR)	100.0	94.5	96.5	90.9	93.5	89.8	87.2	91.7
Men	100.0	93.9	94.7	91.4	93.5	92.8	87.2	93.3
Women	100.0	95.4	99.0	90.2	93.4	85.3	87.2	89.5
Real average monthly wage index public sector	100.0	96.5	99.9	95.5	100.5	98.1	92.7	89.6
Real average monthly wage index private sector	100.0	98.9	99.8	92.2	96.1	94.2	91.2	97.2
Real average monthly wage index domestic work	100.0	98.1	100.6	103.6	97.5	96.9	101.6	104.1
Real average wage Women / Men	99.4	100.9	103.9	98.1	99.2	91.3	99.3	95.4
Mexico								
Real average monthly wage index (SPMR)	100.0	100.2	95.9	97.0	98.9	96.6	96.4	97.3
Men	100.0	100.3	95.9	97.1	99.4	97.1	97.0	98.0
Women	100.0	100.1	95.8	96.7	98.1	96.0	95.8	96.6
Real average monthly wage index public sector	100.0	101.3	96.4	98.4	98.9	95.8	95.0	93.7
Real average monthly wage index private sector	100.0	100.3	97.0	98.1	101.0	99.1	99.3	101.0
Real average monthly wage index domestic work	100.0	100.5	98.8	101.0	102.4	104.3	103.4	104.6

▶ Continues...

Country / Wage indicators	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Real average wage Women / Men	83.2	83.0	83.1	82.8	82.2	82.3	82.2	81.9
Panama								
Real average monthly wage index (SPMR)	100.0	102.1	101.3	108.3	114.3	121.4	120.5	124.5
Men	100.0	104.7	102.3	109.1	113.5	116.8	117.3	124.8
Women	100.0	98.4	100.0	107.3	115.3	127.8	125.1	124.6
Real average monthly wage index public sector	100.0	100.6	98.4	106.6	113.3	129.9	129.6	132.4
Real average monthly wage index private sector	100.0	102.2	101.8	107.1	112.5	114.1	113.2	118.6
Real average monthly wage index domestic work	100.0	110.6	118.4	127.4	125.6	126.4	131.1	143.0
Real average wage Women / Men	89.8	84.4	87.8	88.3	91.2	98.2	95.8	89.7
Paraguay								
Real average monthly wage index (SPMR)	100.0	111.2	111.1	112.9	107.7	106.8	108.4	108.7
Men	100.0	111.8	113.9	110.5	106.5	106.1	105.1	106.0
Women	100.0	112.3	107.1	117.7	109.3	107.2	113.6	113.4
Real average monthly wage index public sector	100.0	111.8	114.1	109.8	106.8	113.3	117.4	113.3
Real average monthly wage index private sector	100.0	109.8	110.8	113.8	108.6	107.8	106.2	108.3
Real average monthly wage index domestic work	100.0	103.3	110.3	109.3	106.0	104.2	108.2	108.5
Real average wage Women / Men	80.0	80.3	75.2	85.2	82.1	80.8	86.4	85.6
Peru								
Real average monthly wage index (SPMR)	100.0	102.0	104.3	103.9	107.3	105.2	106.9	108.9
Men	100.0	102.3	104.0	103.4	106.9	104.6	106.7	106.8
Women	100.0	100.8	104.7	104.4	108.2	106.7	108.0	113.0
Real average monthly wage index public sector	100.0	104.4	110.3	109.4	117.5	117.5	126.5	129.9
Real average monthly wage index private sector	100.0	101.7	102.4	102.5	104.1	101.5	100.9	102.5
Real average monthly wage index domestic work	100.0	99.6	99.9	101.8	106.8	108.8	112.1	115.9

Continues...

Country / Wage indicators	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Real average wage Women / Men	76.6	75.4	77.1	77.3	77.5	78.1	77.5	81.0
Dominican Republic								
Real average monthly wage index (SPMR)	100.0	97.6	95.7	94.1	97.0	100.5	106.2	111.0
Men	100.0	98.3	96.8	91.9	95.6	98.3	100.8	107.0
Women	100.0	96.4	94.5	96.8	98.7	103.6	112.8	116.1
Real average monthly wage index public sector	100.0	96.7	95.1	103.5	99.6	110.9	130.6	119.6
Real average monthly wage index private sector	100.0	99.2	95.5	87.8	93.6	94.1	92.1	104.8
Real average monthly wage index domestic work	100.0	104.3	106.7	144.2	149.5	149.5	145.9	164.7
Real average wage Women / Men	88.0	86.3	85.9	92.8	90.9	92.8	98.5	95.5
Uruguay								
Real average monthly wage index (SPMR)	100.0	104.5	108.8	...	109.1	113.5	112.0	112.2
Men	100.0	105.2	109.7	...	110.0	113.1	110.5	110.8
Women	100.0	103.4	107.3	...	108.4	114.6	114.8	114.6
Real average monthly wage index public sector	100.0	100.6	103.5	...	105.2	107.6	107.7	107.6
Real average monthly wage index private sector	100.0	105.9	110.3	...	110.9	115.0	112.8	112.4
Real average monthly wage index domestic work	100.0	102.9	109.0	...	108.6	116.9	118.3	114.5
Real average wage Women / Men	76.0	74.8	74.4	...	75.0	77.0	79.0	78.6

Source: ILO, based on information from the household surveys of the countries.

a/ The weighting factor used to estimate the weighted average is: employed urban employees, disaggregated by sex and institutional sector.
‖ Break in series.

TABLE 14. LATIN AMERICA: REAL MINIMUM WAGE INDEX AND RATIO OF THE NOMINAL MINIMUM WAGE AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE NOMINAL WAGE OF THE URBAN PRIVATE SECTOR, BY YEAR AND COUNTRY. 2012 - 2020 *(Year 2012 = 100)*

Country	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020
									Year-over-year change in the minimum wage Average Jan-Sept	
Latin America										
Bolivia [a/]										
Real minimum wage index	100.0	113.5	128.8	142.3	149.7	161.3	162.4	164.3	1.4	-1.3
Nom. min. wage as a % of the nom. wage of the priv. sec.	40.4	46.6	48.9	54.9	58.8	62.1	63.0	64.1		
Brazil [a/]										
Real minimum wage index	100.0	102.6	103.1	102.9	105.7	108.7	106.8	107.7	0.7	1.7
Nom. min. wage as a % of the nom. wage of the priv. sec.	45.8	45.9	45.7	44.8	45.4	45.4	44.2	44.7		
Chile [a/]										
Real minimum wage index	100.0	104.8	108.8	111.7	117.1	120.7	123.6	128.6	4.9	3.1
Nom. min. wage as a % of the nom. wage of the priv. sec.	42.1	43.9	44.7	45.5	46.3	46.6	47.4	...		
Colombia [a/]										
Real minimum wage index	100.0	102.0	103.6	103.2	102.7	105.3	108.0	110.6	2.5	3.1
Nom. min. wage as a % of the nom. wage of the priv. sec.	55.3	53.9	52.1	54.9	56.4	57.4	57.2	57.2		
Costa Rica [a/]										
Real minimum wage index	100.0	101.1	103.8	107.7	109.2	109.0	109.2	110.1	0.8	1.7
Nom. min. wage as a % of the nom. wage of the priv. sec.	69.3	71.1	68.5	67.5	65.5	68.8	69.2	69.1		
Ecuador [a/]										
Real minimum wage index	100.0	106.0	109.4	109.6	111.4	113.6	117.2	119.3	1.8	1.6
Nom. min. wage as a % of the nom. wage of the priv. sec.	67.8	64.9	66.7	68.0	69.3	72.1	70.7	66.4		

Continues...

Country	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020
									Year-over-year change in the minimum wage Average Jan-Sept	
El Salvador [b/]										
Real minimum wage index	100.0	101.2	106.0	111.2	110.5	133.1	131.6	131.5	-0.3	0.4
Nom. min. wage as a % of the nom. wage of the priv. sec.	75.8	71.0	78.8	78.7	81.7	91.8	88.0	85.9		
Guatemala [a/]										
Real minimum wage index	100.0	100.1	101.1	103.2	102.4	103.6	103.2	99.5	-3.8	0.2
Nom. min. wage as a % of the nom. wage of the priv. sec.	87.1	88.3	87.5	93.9	93.7	99.8	97.2	99.9		
Honduras [b/]										
Real minimum wage index	100.0	100.4	99.3	101.4	104.1	103.5	103.9	104.3	0.3	1.6
Nom. min. wage as a % of the nom. wage of the priv. sec.	92.1	93.8	91.4	100.6	99.4	100.9	104.3	93.8		
Mexico [a/]										
Real minimum wage index	100.0	100.5	100.4	103.1	105.8	110.3	115.1	129.0	11.9	16.1
Nom. min. wage as a % of the nom. wage of the priv. sec.	30.7	30.8	31.8	32.3	32.2	34.2	35.6	39.3		
Nicaragua [b/]										
Real minimum wage index	100.0	105.2	110.4	117.8	125.3	131.2	137.2	135.8	0.5	-1.9
Nom. min. wage as a % of the nom. wage of the priv. sec.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		
Panama [b.c/]										
Real minimum wage index	100.0	96.1	106.4	106.3	111.3	110.3	114.2	114.6	0.3	1.5
Nom. min. wage as a % of the nom. wage of the priv. sec.	52.5	49.5	55.3	52.3	52.3	51.3	53.2	51.1		
Paraguay [a/]										
Real minimum wage index	100.0	97.4	100.4	98.9	95.6	100.7	100.4	101.3	0.7	0.8
Nom. min. wage as a % of the nom. wage of the priv. sec.	87.6	77.5	80.8	77.8	77.7	81.6	82.7	82.2		

▶ Continues...

Country	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020
									Year-over-year change in the minimum wage Average Jan-Sept	
Peru [a/]										
Real minimum wage index	100.0	101.5	98.3	95.0	99.8	101.1	106.8	106.9	0.7	-1.8
Nom. min. wage as a % of the nom. wage of the priv. sec.	59.2	59.0	56.8	54.8	56.7	58.9	62.6	61.6		
Dominican Republic [b/]										
Real minimum wage index	100.0	103.1	105.6	113.2	117.5	129.8	131.8	136.9	1.7	7.1
Nom. min. wage as a % of the nom. wage of the priv. sec.	41.9	43.5	46.3	54.0	52.5	57.7	59.9	54.7		
Uruguay [a/]										
Real minimum wage index	100.0	101.3	105.3	108.1	109.9	113.8	115.9	122.5	5.2	-2.4
Nom. min. wage as a % of the nom. wage of the priv. sec.	41.2	39.4	39.3	46.3	40.8	40.8	42.3	44.9		
Simple average of the real min. wage index	**100.0**	**102.3**	**105.7**	**108.5**	**111.1**	**116.0**	**118.0**	**120.2**	**1.8**	**2.0**
Weighted average of the real min. wage index [e/]	**100.0**	**102.1**	**103.0**	**104.1**	**106.6**	**110.3**	**111.6**	**116.2**	**3.9**	**5.4**

Source: ILO, based on official national data.

a/ Index based on national minimum wage.
b/ Index based on the lowest minimum wage in manufacturing.
c/ The data for Panama referring to the change between January-September 2019 and 2020 correspond to the period January - April, respectively.
d/ The weight used to estimate the weighted regional average corresponds to the total number of private sector employees each year by country.

#MyFutureOfWork

2020 LABOUR OVERVIEW

Latin America and the Caribbean

COVID-19 Edition

Statistical Annex Urban/Rural

TABLE 1. LATIN AMERICA: UNEMPLOYMENT RATE BY YEAR, COUNTRY AND GEOGRAPHIC AREA, 2010 - 2019 (Annual average rates)

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Argentina [a/]										
Urban	...	...	...	...	...	...	8.5	8.4	9.2	9.8
Rural	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bolivia (Pluri. State of) [b/]										
Urban	...	3.8	3.2	4.0	3.5	4.4	4.7	5.1	4.9	5.0
Rural	...	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.4	2.0	1.2	1.0	0.8	1.1
Brazil [c/]										
Urban	...	7.5	7.7	7.4	7.1	8.9	11.9	13.1	12.6	12.2
Rural	...	2.5	5.2	5.1	4.8	6.0	8.4	10.0	9.7	9.4
Chile [d/]										
Urban	8.6	7.6	6.8	6.3	6.7	6.6	7.0	7.2	7.6	7.5
Rural	5.7	5.2	4.7	4.5	4.8	4.9	4.6	5.2	5.3	5.2
Colombia [e/]										
Urban	12.7	11.8	11.4	10.7	10.0	9.8	10.3	10.5	10.9	11.5
Rural	8.5	7.3	6.5	5.8	5.7	5.7	5.3	5.1	5.1	6.5
Costa Rica [f/]										
Urbano	8.5	10.1	10.0	9.2	9.6	9.7	9.6	9.0	10.3	12.0
Rural	10.2	10.9	10.8	9.9	9.8	9.3	9.4	9.4	10.2	11.1
Ecuador [g/]										
Urban	7.6	6.0	4.9	4.7	5.1	5.4	6.8	5.7	5.2	5.6
Rural	3.0	2.4	2.1	2.4	2.5	2.2	2.4	1.9	1.8	2.2
El Salvador										
Urban	6.8	6.6	6.2	5.6	6.7	6.5	6.9	6.8	5.9	6.1
Rural	7.6	6.6	5.8	6.6	7.5	7.9	7.2	7.4	6.9	6.8
Guatemala [h/]										
Urban	4.8	3.1	4.0	3.8	4.0	3.2	3.4	3.2	3.4	3.1
Rural	2.2	...	1.6	2.3	1.6	1.8	1.8	1.6	1.3	1.3
Honduras										
Urban	6.4	6.8	5.6	6.0	7.5	8.8	9.0	8.2	8.0	7.8
Rural	1.7	2.0	1.7	2.0	2.7	5.6	5.4	4.9	2.7	3.0
Mexico										
Urban	5.9	5.6	5.4	5.4	5.3	4.7	4.3	3.8	3.6	3.9
Rural	3.2	3.4	3.1	3.3	2.8	2.8	2.4	2.2	2.0	2.2

Continues...

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Nicaragua										
Urban	10.5	8.1	8.7	7.7	8.5	7.7	6.3	5.2	7.5	7.7
Rural	4.5	3.7	3.8	3.1	4.0	3.7	2.5	1.8	3.0	2.7
Panama [g/]										
Urban	7.7	5.4	4.8	4.7	5.4	5.8	6.4	6.9	7.1	8.3
Rural	4.1	2.4	2.4	2.7	3.4	3.2	3.2	4.1	3.2	4.0
Paraguay [i/]										
Urban	6.8	6.4	5.7	5.9	7.3	6.4	7.2	6.9	7.1	7.2
Rural	4.0	4.3	2.9	3.6	4.0	3.6	3.9	4.7	4.7	5.4
Peru										
Urban	5.3	5.1	4.7	4.8	4.5	4.4	5.2	5.0	4.8	4.8
Rural	0.8	0.9	0.8	1.3	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7
Dominican Republic [j/]										
Urban	5.7	6.6	7.3	7.8	7.1	7.9	7.9	6.1	6.1	6.4
Rural	3.9	4.3	4.9	5.9	5.4	5.0	4.0	3.1	3.9	4.9
Uruguay [k/]										
Urban	7.5	6.6	6.7	6.7	6.9	7.8	8.2	8.3	8.6	9.2
Rural	5.6	4.4	4.5	4.9	4.7	5.6	6.0	5.8	6.7	6.8
Latin America [l/]										
Urban	7.7	7.0	7.0	6.8	6.6	7.2	8.6	8.9	8.8	8.8
Rural	3.3	3.2	3.7	3.8	3.6	4.1	4.6	5.0	4.8	4.9

Source: ILO, based on information from household surveys of the countries.

a/ 31 urban clusters. The INDEC, in the framework of the statistical emergency declared in 2016, recommends disregarding the series published between 2007 and 2015 for purposes of comparison and analysis of the labour market in Argentina. The 2016 annual information is the average of the 2nd, 3rd and 4th quarters.
b/ New measurement beginning in 2016 through the ECE employment survey. Data not comparable with previous years.
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g/ Includes hidden unemployment.
h/ Beginning in 2011, the WAP changed from 10 to 15 years of age, which may affect the comparability of the data.
i/ New measurement beginning in 2017 through the EPHC household survey. Data are not comparable with previous years.
j/ The 2009-2014 series is based on the weighted ENFT labour force survey. New measurement beginning in 2015 through the ENCFT survey. Data not comparable with previous years.
k/ Rural areas refer to communities with fewer than 5,000 inhabitants.
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|| Years when a country revises a survey or key variables that can lead to a potential break in the comparability of data.

TABLE 2. LATIN AMERICA: LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE BY YEAR, COUNTRY AND GEOGRAPHIC AREA, 2010 - 2019 (Average annual rates)

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Argentina [a/]										
Urban	...	...	...	...	...	...	57.5	57.8	58.5	59.1
Rural	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bolivia (Pluri. State of) [b/]										
Urban	...	59.6	57.0	58.5	59.4	56.2	61.6	62.2	65.6	68.6
Rural	...	79.7	70.1	74.0	80.2	72.0	76.3	79.4	83.4	83.7
Brazil [c/]										
Urban	...	59.6	62.4	62.3	61.9	62.2	62.6	63.2	63.2	63.6
Rural	...	62.3	55.8	55.3	55.6	55.5	53.8	52.4	51.6	51.4
Chile [d/]										
Urban	60.7	62.0	61.8	61.8	62.1	62.3	62.3	63.0	63.3	63.3
Rural	56.2	58.0	58.9	60.0	60.4	60.2	60.6	60.7	60.5	59.3
Colombia [e/]										
Urban	64.1	65.2	66.0	65.8	66.0	66.3	65.9	65.6	65.3	64.7
Rural	58.2	58.8	59.5	58.8	58.1	59.4	59.5	60.1	59.5	58.2
Costa Rica [f/]										
Urban	62.1	60.3	64.1	63.0	63.9	62.7	59.3	59.5	61.4	63.6
Rural	56.9	55.4	59.2	60.1	58.6	57.2	55.9	56.9	58.7	59.6
Ecuador [g/]										
Urban	64.2	62.2	62.8	61.8	62.2	64.1	65.7	65.8	64.2	63.3
Rural	65.3	63.6	64.1	65.4	65.3	70.8	73.9	74.9	73.6	74.1
El Salvador										
Urban	64.4	63.7	64.6	65.1	64.6	63.5	63.8	63.3	64.2	63.9
Rural	59.0	60.9	60.7	61.0	59.4	59.7	59.5	59.6	58.6	59.1
Guatemala [h/]										
Urban	56.6	61.0	65.5	61.9	62.7	62.9	62.3	62.8	63.2	60.5
Rural	52.0	62.6	65.4	59.2	58.9	58.3	59.1	58.9	58.2	57.9
Honduras										
Urban	53.7	52.5	51.2	54.3	55.7	56.9	57.4	58.1	60.5	57.5
Rural	53.5	51.4	50.4	53.1	56.4	59.4	57.6	60.1	60.3	57.2
Mexico										
Urban	60.8	61.0	61.6	61.6	60.9	60.8	60.8	60.5	60.8	61.1
Rural	55.5	55.4	56.2	55.7	55.8	56.3	55.6	55.3	55.2	56.4

Continues...

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Nicaragua										
Urban	71.3	73.7	74.7	74.5	73.2	71.6	72.0	72.0	69.7	69.0
Rural	71.1	77.4	78.7	77.1	75.3	73.5	75.2	75.7	74.2	73.6
Panama [g/]										
Urban	64.0	63.2	63.6	64.1	64.3	64.5	64.6	64.2	65.1	65.9
Rural	62.7	58.8	62.8	64.2	63.3	63.4	63.9	63.4	66.0	68.1
Paraguay [i/]										
Urban	60.6	60.5	64.1	63.0	62.7	62.3	63.9	71.3	71.9	72.6
Rural	60.9	61.9	64.9	61.5	61.8	61.6	60.6	70.5	71.8	72.0
Peru										
Urban	71.6	71.6	71.5	71.2	70.0	69.4	70.5	70.7	70.5	70.9
Rural	82.2	81.6	80.7	80.2	80.3	79.9	78.8	79.0	79.1	79.7
Dominican Republic [j/]										
Urban	57.3	58.3	60.2	59.4	59.8	62.2	62.8	62.6	64.0	65.5
Rural	53.5	55.6	55.3	57.0	55.9	60.6	60.4	60.2	62.3	63.2
Uruguay [k/]										
Urban	63.5	65.0	64.0	63.8	64.9	64.0	63.8	63.4	62.8	62.8
Rural	60.1	63.3	64.4	62.8	63.7	62.8	61.2	60.5	60.5	59.2
Latin America [l/]										
Urban	61.3	61.2	62.6	62.5	62.2	62.2	62.5	62.8	63.0	63.3
Rural	59.0	61.4	59.8	59.3	59.6	59.9	59.5	59.6	59.4	59.5

Source: ILO, based on information from household surveys of the countries.

a/ 31 urban clusters. The INDEC, in the framework of the statistical emergency declared in 2016, recommends disregarding the series published between 2007 and 2015 for purposes of comparison and analysis of the labour market in Argentina. The 2016 annual information is the average of the 2nd, 3rd and 4th quarters.
b/ New measurement beginning in 2016 through the ECE employment survey. Data not comparable with previous years.
c/New measurement beginning in 2017 through the PNADC household survey. Data not comparable with previous years.
d/ In this edition of the Labour Overview, the Chile series beginning in 2010 was adjusted based on the projections of the 2017 census. The series appearing in previous editions of the Labour Overview were based on the 2002 census.
e/ Includes hidden unemployment. The urban area covers municipal capitals and the rural area includes towns and disperse rural communities.
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j/ The 2009-2014 series is based on the weighted ENFT labour force survey. New measurement beginning in 2015 through the ENCFT survey. Data not comparable with previous years.
k/ Rural areas refer to communities with fewer than 5,000 inhabitants.
l/ Weighted average. Excludes hidden unemployment in Colombia, Ecuador and Panama. The weighted average of the urban area, by including Argentina, covers 17 countries while the weighted average of the rural area covers 16 countries (does not include Argentina).

|| Years when a country revises a survey or key variables that can lead to a potential break in the comparability of data.

TABLE 3. LATIN AMERICA: EMPLOYMENT-TO-POPULATION RATIO BY YEAR, COUNTRY AND GEOGRAPHIC AREA, 2010 - 2019 (Average annual rates)

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Argentina [a/]										
Urban	...	...	...	...	...	...	52.6	52.9	53.1	53.3
Rural	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Bolivia (Pluri. State of) [b/]										
Urban	...	57.3	55.2	56.1	57.3	53.8	58.7	59.1	62.4	65.1
Rural	...	79.1	69.7	73.4	79.9	70.5	75.4	78.6	82.7	82.8
Brazil [c/]										
Urban	...	55.2	57.6	57.7	57.5	56.7	55.2	54.9	55.3	55.9
Rural	...	60.7	52.9	52.4	52.9	52.2	49.3	47.2	46.6	46.6
Chile [d/]										
Urban	55.5	57.3	57.6	57.9	57.9	58.2	58.0	58.4	58.5	58.6
Rural	53.0	55.0	56.1	57.3	57.5	57.2	57.8	57.6	57.3	56.2
Colombia [e/]										
Urban	56.0	57.5	58.5	58.8	59.4	59.8	59.2	58.8	58.2	57.3
Rural	53.3	54.5	55.7	55.3	54.8	56.0	56.4	57.0	56.5	54.4
Costa Rica [f/]										
Urban	56.8	54.2	57.7	57.2	57.8	56.6	53.6	54.2	55.1	55.9
Rural	51.1	49.4	52.8	54.2	52.8	51.9	50.7	51.5	52.7	52.9
Ecuador										
Urban	59.3	58.5	59.7	58.9	59.0	60.7	61.2	62.1	60.8	59.8
Rural	63.4	62.1	62.7	63.9	63.7	69.2	72.1	73.5	72.3	72.5
El Salvador										
Urban	60.0	59.5	60.6	61.5	60.3	59.4	59.4	59.0	59.1	60.0
Rural	54.5	56.9	57.2	56.9	55.0	54.9	55.2	55.2	54.5	55.1
Guatemala [g/]										
Urban	53.9	59.0	62.8	59.6	60.2	60.9	60.2	60.8	61.1	58.6
Rural	50.9	59.4	64.3	57.9	57.9	57.2	58.0	57.9	57.4	57.1
Honduras										
Urban	50.3	48.9	48.3	51.1	51.5	51.9	52.3	53.4	55.7	53.0
Rural	52.6	50.3	49.5	52.0	54.9	56.1	54.5	57.2	58.6	55.5
Mexico										
Urban	57.2	57.5	58.3	58.3	57.6	57.9	58.2	58.2	58.6	58.8
Rural	53.8	53.5	54.5	53.9	54.2	54.8	54.3	54.2	54.1	55.2

Continues...

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Nicaragua										
Urban	63.8	67.8	68.2	68.8	66.9	66.1	67.5	68.3	64.5	63.7
Rural	67.9	74.6	75.8	74.7	72.3	70.7	73.3	74.3	72.0	71.6
Panama										
Urban	59.1	59.8	60.6	61.1	60.9	60.7	60.4	59.8	60.6	60.5
Rural	60.1	57.5	61.3	62.4	61.1	61.3	61.9	60.7	63.9	65.4
Paraguay [h/]										
Urban	56.5	56.7	60.5	59.3	58.1	58.3	59.3	66.4	66.8	67.3
Rural	58.5	59.2	63.1	59.3	59.3	59.4	58.2	67.2	68.4	68.1
Peru										
Urban	67.9	67.9	68.1	67.8	66.8	66.4	66.9	67.2	67.1	67.5
Rural	81.5	80.9	80.0	79.2	79.5	79.2	78.2	78.4	78.4	79.1
Dominican Republic [i/]										
Urban	54.0	54.4	55.8	54.8	55.6	57.2	57.9	58.8	60.1	61.3
Rural	51.4	53.2	52.6	53.6	52.9	57.5	58.0	58.4	59.9	60.1
Uruguay [j/]										
Urban	58.8	60.7	59.6	59.5	60.4	59.0	58.6	58.1	57.4	57.0
Rural	56.7	60.5	61.6	59.7	60.7	59.3	57.5	57.0	56.4	55.1
Latin America and the Caribbean [k/]										
Urban	56.6	56.9	58.3	58.2	58.0	57.8	57.1	57.2	57.5	57.7
Rural	59.2	59.4	57.6	57.1	57.5	57.6	57.0	56.9	56.8	56.9

Source: ILO, based on information from household surveys of the countries.

a/ 31 urban clusters. The INDEC, in the framework of the statistical emergency declared in 2016, recommends disregarding the series published between 2007 and 2015 for purposes of comparison and analysis of the labour market in Argentina. The 2016 annual information is the average of the 2nd, 3rd and 4th quarters.
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