

# 2010 Labour Overview

Latin America and the Caribbean



International  
Labour  
Office

ILO Regional Office for Latin America and the Caribbean



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Regional Office for Latin America and the Caribbean

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## Foreword: Promoting and Economic Recovery with Job Creation and Decent Work

In Latin America and the Caribbean, 2010 closes with an encouraging scenario of economic recovery. Nearly all countries in the region recorded positive economic growth, moving away from the spectre of recession.

The macroeconomic strength of the countries in the region determined their level of economic growth. This growth was also directly related to the diversification and expansion of these countries' foreign markets and their capacity for investment and public and private domestic consumption.

Policies to stimulate growth and investment also favoured the economic recovery, as did initiatives to promote employment and training, strengthen the purchasing power of wages and income and expand social protection.

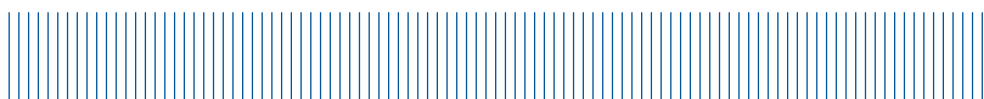
The economic recovery had a positive impact on job creation in the region. The most direct effect was the reduction in the urban unemployment rate, which fell from 8.1% in 2009 to an estimated 7.4% in 2010. This meant that in 2010, economic growth generated employment or jobs for nearly 1.2 million people. Nevertheless, in 2010 unemployment affected 16.9 million men and women, which represents a major gap in decent work.

Available information also indicates an increase in employment with social security coverage in the formal sector. However, this rise in formal employment did not account for the total growth in the labour force, given that many new workers joined the ranks of the informal sector. Thus, it is estimated that in 2010, the trend toward the informalization of the labour market continued, with a sharp increase in own-account employment, unpaid family work and other categories of wage and salaried employment, as well as a growing percentage of employers who work in small, informal or unregistered enterprises. This phenomenon continues to work against the objectives of improving productivity and decent work in the countries.

In 2011, economic growth is expected to continue in Latin America and the Caribbean, although at a slower pace than in 2010. This will require countries to extend policies for stimulating growth and employment within their possibilities, and to implement measures for maintaining sustained fiscal budgets and low inflation. The conclusions of the recent ILO/IMF conference (Oslo, September 2010) emphasize that job creation should be at the centre of the economic recovery and should be a key macroeconomic objective. The two organizations agreed to work together to develop a **social protection floor**, which is one of the pillars of the ILO Decent Work Agenda.

The proposals of the ILO Global Jobs Pact (Geneva, 2009) have newfound significance in light of the current global economic recovery. At the ILO's Seventeenth American Regional Meeting, Latin American and Caribbean employers, workers and governments reiterated the viability and priority of these proposals in this region of the world. Moreover, they stressed that the proposals can be promoted through the Decent Work Agenda for the Hemisphere. The statement that the *quality of work defines the quality of a society* resonated deeply at that conference. All of this requires the development of sustainable enterprises in a sustainable environmental context.

Target 1B of the United Nations' Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), which calls for decent work for all, including women and youth, is an indispensable condition for achieving the first MDG to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger in the world.

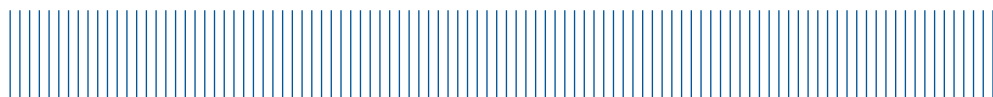


At the halfway point in efforts to achieve the MDGs by 2015, recent experience in the implementation of policies during the crisis demonstrates that it is indeed possible to achieve objectives of macroeconomic stability with targets for economic growth, employment and decent work. Further advances in this direction depend mainly on the political will of the actors of the world of work.

The ILO and its constituents continue efforts to fully achieve the objectives of social justice that inspired the creation of the ILO in 1919. *"At this hour of growing global insertion of the continent, we must acknowledge a truth based on concrete experience: no one was served by a development model that reinforced inequality. We must strike a balance between capital and labour, between finance and the real economy, and between the state, the market, society and the individual."*

Jean Maninat,

ILO Regional Director for Latin America and the Caribbean



## Acknowledgments

The ILO's Regional Director for Latin America and the Caribbean, Jean Maninat, would like to express his gratitude to the work team responsible for preparing the 2010 Labour Overview.

The 2010 *Labour Overview* contains the following parts: the Foreword; the Executive Summary; the Labour Report, which analyzes the labour situation in the region in 2010 and provides forecasts for 2011; and Box Articles, including an analysis of the impact of the crisis on informal employment and during the early phase of the economic recovery; a contribution from the ILO office in Central America on decent work conditions to achieve the Millennium Development Goals; an overview of policies and good practices adopted in the region in the current situation; an analysis of the factors accounting for the growth in formal employment in Brazil; a discussion on the concept of the social protection floor with examples of Latin American initiatives in this area; and a description of a social dialogue experience on productivity and decent work in Mexico and other countries of the region.

Miguel Del Cid coordinated the preparation of the 2010 *Labour Overview*. He also prepared different texts and oversaw editing of the report, with the collaboration of Manuel Délano.

Werner Gárate and Bolívar Pino undertook the arduous task of ensuring the systematization and consistency of the indicators, as well as the analysis of the labour situation and of data for some box articles.

Employees from different ILO offices in the region and the ILO headquarters helped prepare this report, especially those from the offices in Brasilia, Lima, Mexico, Puerto España, San José and Santiago, as well as from the Social Security Department of ILO/Geneva. Special thanks go to colleagues Janine Berg, Pablo Casali, Mauricio Dierckxsens, Leonardo Ferreira, Andrés Marinakis, Leonard Mertens, Gerhard Reinecke and Helmut Schuarzer, as well as to Guillermo García-Huidobro, ILO consultant on labour statistics.

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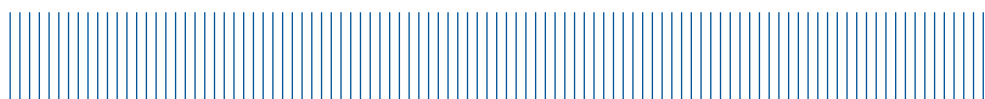
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Carola González and Mariella Mujica developed the new image and graphic design of the 2010 *Labour Overview*. This work was coordinated by Luis Córdoba, who was also responsible for disseminating the report to the media. Computextos SAC was responsible for layout whereas Naida Müller was in charge of copyediting the report and coordinating its printing.

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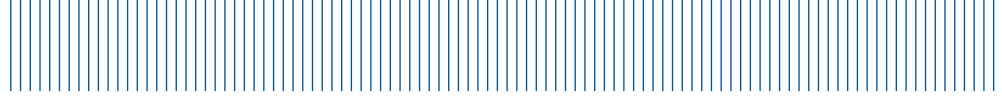




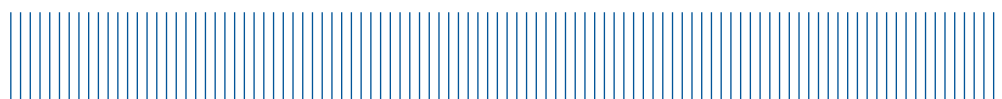
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Executive Summary / **2010 Labour**  
Overview





In Latin America and the Caribbean, 2010 closes with an encouraging scenario of economic recovery, although uncertainty continues in developed countries with respect to the pace and sustainability of the revitalization of their economies.

This uncertainty in developed countries originates from the limitations they face in maintaining counter-cyclical policies that require significant investment and fiscal spending. For their part, many countries in Latin America and the Caribbean had more fiscal space in 2010 to apply economic recovery and social protection policies, thanks to the savings obtained during the last economic growth cycle, which took place in a stronger macroeconomic context.

Recent estimates indicate that in 2010, the economies of Latin America and the Caribbean as a whole grew 6.0% with respect to the previous year. Some countries lead growth given that they have maintained a diversified foreign sector with economies that support a growing demand for exports from this region. In addition to their focus on the foreign market, these countries promoted a set of policies and initiatives to strengthen the consumption capacity of their populations, which also stimulated domestic demand.

### ■ Employment Recovers and Unemployment Declines

The economic recovery in most countries of the region had a positive impact on labour market and decent work conditions. Through October 2010, the recovery in job creation was reflected in the increase in the employment-to-population ratio (from 54.3% to 55.1%, as compared with the previous year), thereby improving employment opportunities for men and women in the region.

More employment opportunities encouraged the population's growing participation in the labour market and slightly increased labour force participation rates. In several countries, this increase also reflected the incorporation of the secondary population into the labour market (youth, homemakers, etc.) due to the precarious socioeconomic situation of a large share of Latin American households.

This process reduced the unemployment rate, from 8.4% on average for the first 10 months of 2009 to 7.6% in the same period of 2010, which marked a return to pre-crisis levels.

The annual average unemployment rate for 2010 will be an estimated 7.4%, in other words, 0.7 percentage points lower than the 2009 rate of 8.1%. This means that economic growth in 2010 generated employment or jobs for nearly 1.2 million people whereas unemployment affected 16.9 million men and women in Latin America and the Caribbean.

The reduction in the unemployment rate favoured men and women equally in the region as a whole; however, the unemployment rate among women is still 1.4 times that among men in the region, on average. Likewise, women's labour force participation rates and employment-to-population ratios continue to be lower than those of men.

In seven countries with available information through the third quarter of 2010, the youth unemployment rate also fell with respect to the same period of 2009. The economic crisis affected youth more than any other group and it is the group with the slowest pace of recovery in many countries of the region. The youth unemployment rate, which was 17.3% in 2009, fell to 16.1% in 2010, which means that in 2010, some 7.6 million youth were unemployed in the group of countries.

### ■ Youth and Women are the Most Vulnerable Groups in the Context of a Growing Informal Sector

The economic recovery drove the recovery in wage and salaried employment, as well as improvements in social security coverage in many countries of the region. Nevertheless, the rise in wage and salaried employment was insufficient to fully absorb the growing labour force. Given this reality, there was a continuing trend toward concentration in own-account and unpaid family employment and in informal sector employment in general.

A reprocessing of employment surveys for five countries of the region (Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama and Peru) confirmed that despite the formalization of labour contracts or the expansion of social security coverage in formal enterprises, informal sector employment grew at a faster pace in the second of 2010 as compared with the same period of 2009.

In other words, this group of countries experienced a double-edged phenomenon. On the one hand, employment with social protection in formal enterprises increased (by 4.6%) while informal

employment in formal enterprises decreased (by 2.0%), which is a very positive sign. On the other hand, however, informal sector employment rose at an even faster pace (by 7.2%).

The rise in informal sector employment affected women (9.9%) more than men (5.3%). In addition, women have a more precarious labour-market insertion as own-account workers, unpaid family workers and domestic service workers, where social protection rates and earnings tend to be lower. Overall, in 2010, informal employment affected 53.8% of workers in the group of countries (versus 53.6% in 2009). In 2010, 50.9% of men and 57.6% of women only had access to informal employment.

Nevertheless, youth are the group with the highest deficit of decent work, not only given their higher unemployment rate but also because they have the highest rate of precarious or informal employment. In the formal sector, six of every 10 youth have informal employment because they do not have social security coverage. The statistic that best illustrates this dramatic reality is that, in 2010, 82 of every 100 youth only have access to informal employment, whether in the formal or informal sector or in households, in the group of countries mentioned.

### **Economic Recovery Will Continue in 2011, Although at a Slower Pace**

The latest forecasts indicate that economic growth will continue in Latin American and Caribbean countries in 2011, although at a slower pace than in 2010.

This trend reflects the likelihood that the world's leading economies will experience a slower recovery, which will slightly slow global trade and thus demand for exports from many countries of the region. The countries with the closest ties to emerging economies of Asia will experience more vigorous export activity and therefore aggregate demand.

Regional GDP growth in 2011 will be an estimated 4.2%. This means a slower pace of job creation compared with 2010, with an estimated unemployment rate of between 7.2% and 7.3% of the labour force.

The unemployment rate in the different countries of Latin America and the Caribbean will finally depend on the pace of recovery of the components of aggregate demand and the content and emphasis of the economic and employment policies they adopt.

### **Policies to Stimulate Growth and Employment Should Continue**

Labour market improvements during the first 10 months of 2010 are the result of the recovery of economic growth and the impact of policies and good practices, which are summarized in the 2010 *Labour Overview* and in the report of the ILO Director General to the Seventeenth American Regional Meeting: the Decent Work Decade in the Americas 2006–2015. An initial assessment and perspectives on the Hemispheric Agenda (Santiago, December 2010).

Recent experience demonstrates that unlike in previous crises, this time governments did not resort to recessive adjustment policies, which are unfavourable to economic growth, employment and labour rights. To the contrary, there was a healthy consensus to promote counter-cyclical policies to stimulate growth and investment, which were made possible by the available fiscal space in the region. These policies were accompanied by initiatives to expand social protection through increased budget allocation to conditional cash transfer programmes in favour of the most vulnerable groups, the expansion of unemployment insurance and active labour market policies in general (training, employment services, etc.).

Moreover, most of the countries continued policies to defend minimum wages and many experienced improvements in real terms thanks to relatively controlled inflation. In addition, governments supported agreements to defend jobs with the concerted reduction in working hours, job rotation and labour mobility for training, etc. This was all made possible thanks to the respect for labour institutions and the active promotion of social dialogue among actors of the world of work.

The experiences and good policy practices in the current situation demonstrate that rational fiscal policies, growth promotion and social protection not only can co-exist, but can actually reinforce one another and are consistent with the ILO's decent work agenda.

Examples of this abound in the implementation of public policies in the region during the past year. Positive results of these policies include the impact of the conditional cash transfer programmes and non-contributory pension programmes in Brazil and Mexico, which together benefited some 26 million households. These investments in solidarity and human capital, with little impact on GDP, have greatly improved the survival conditions of the population by significantly reducing poverty. In addition, they have directly contributed to closing decent work gaps, with a clear impact on reducing child labour and relieving the pressure on secondary population groups to seek employment, which frequently results in a concentration of unproductive work in the informal sector. Finally, conditional cash transfer programmes keep children and youth in school, improving their education and strengthening their skills and future labour opportunities in conditions of decent work.

These policies and programmes form part of a **Social Protection Floor** to benefit the most excluded populations, an initiative promoted by the ILO and other United Nations agencies. This global initiative, in addition to promoting implicit social benefits and equality, has a positive effect on employment and decent work conditions, contributes to poverty reduction and favours the variables of aggregate demand that drive economies.

The ILO has estimated that an initiative packet encompassing a conditional cash transfer programme to poor families with children, basic health services, a non-contributory pension for poor older adults and the disabled and a special employment programme that guarantees a minimum-duration contract (for example, 100 days per year) to the rural underemployed population, would have a cost ranging from 3% to 5% of GDP and would contribute to reducing poverty by 40% to 50%. In addition, the packet would help reduce unemployment, underemployment and informal employment, decrease child labour rates and stimulate aggregate demand and GDP growth.

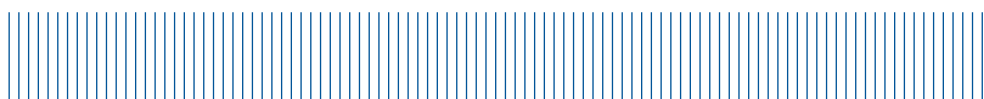
The global economy and the economies of developed countries in particular face the challenge of achieving a sustainable recovery. To this end, the countries must address the dilemma of agreeing to "tighten their fiscal belts" as the first macroeconomic *commandment* would say, or attempting to maintain investment in fiscal spending to stimulate aggregate demand, depending on their possibilities. Here there are no magic formulas, for which reason international financial entities have recommended caution in the decision to cut spending given its harmful effects on economic recovery and employment.

An encouraging sign is the result of the joint ILO-IMF conference, *The challenges of growth, employment and social cohesion* (Oslo, September 2010), where participants recognized the proposal the ILO has been promoting for at least a decade in several fora in Latin America and the Caribbean. The key message of this joint conference was that job creation must be at the centre of economic recovery as a key macroeconomic objective, together with low inflation and sustained fiscal budgets. Moreover, the two organizations agreed that it is necessary to end the practice of addressing social and employment policies separately from macroeconomic policies.

In summary, the ILO and the IMF agreed to work together to promote job-creation policies and to develop the social protection floor initiative in favour of the poorest population segments in a context of sustainable macroeconomic policies and strategies for medium- and long-term development.

The international community has given broad support to the ILO Global Jobs Pact, which underscores the need for integral policies to address the challenges of growth, investment, employment and decent work. The Global Jobs Pact proposes strategies not only to guide global action during crisis and recovery periods, but also to support national efforts to achieve the United Nations' Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), especially the first goal to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger in the world. To this end, it is essential to fulfill Target 1B of this goal, which is to achieve *full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people*.

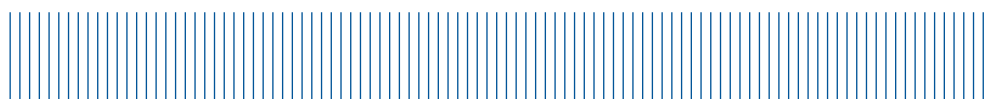
In Latin America and the Caribbean, the ILO's Decent Work Agenda for the Hemisphere 2006-2015 (DWAH) proposes a series of goals and aspirations for growth, employment, social protection, dialogue and decent work that are consistent with the MDGs.



At the halfway point of the DWAH, ILO constituents at the Seventeenth American Regional Meeting (Santiago, December 2010) reiterated their commitment to advance toward the effective achievement of these goals and targets, taking advantage of the changing times in the world and the region. This new situation favours the renewal of the international commitment to the principles that inspired the creation of the ILO, demonstrating that the achievement of decent work for all is not just feasible, but a priority.

As the ILO Director General stated during his opening address at the Seventeenth American Regional Meeting, *"At this hour of growing global insertion of the continent, we must acknowledge a truth based on concrete experience: no one was served by a development model that reinforced inequality. We must strike a balance between capital and labour, between finance and the real economy, and between the state, the market, society and the individual."*

The ILO Regional Office for Latin America and the Caribbean presents the 2010 *Labour Overview* to its constituents as a contribution to the discussion on a core issue of the development agendas of the countries in the region.



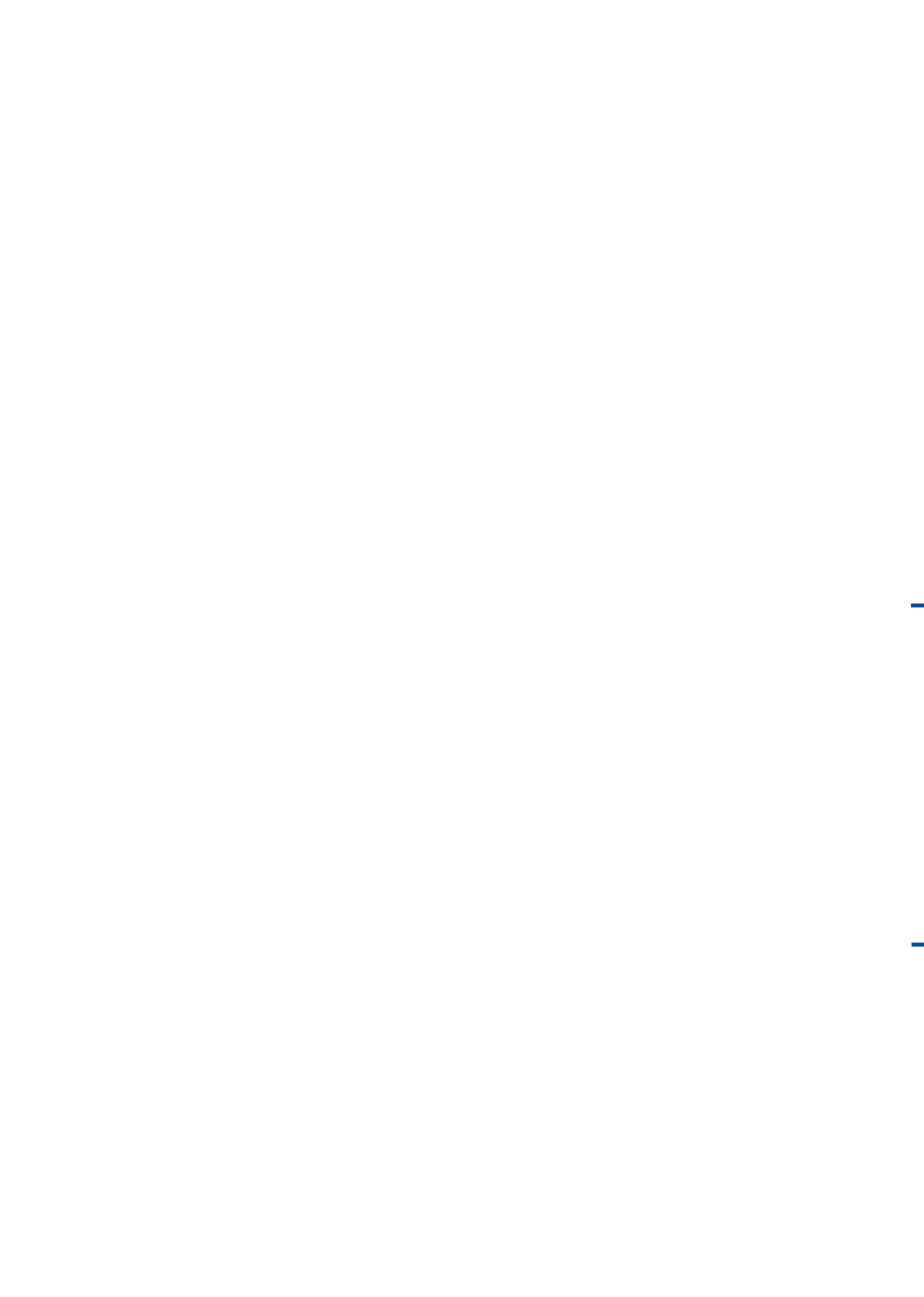




Labour Report / **2010 Labour**  
Overview

**Economic Crisis and Recovery. Situation  
of Employment and Decent Work in Latin  
American and the Caribbean.**





## The Global Economic Context

At the end of 2010, the global economic and employment situation presents conflicting perspectives. On the one hand, the global economy is expected to grow less than forecast at the beginning of the year, mainly due to the slow recovery of leading economies, such as those of the United States and Europe, resulting from the persistent weakness in the recovery of consumption. The lack of vitality of labour and credit markets, coupled with efforts of households to reduce spending and debt to sustainable levels, explain the slow growth in consumption.

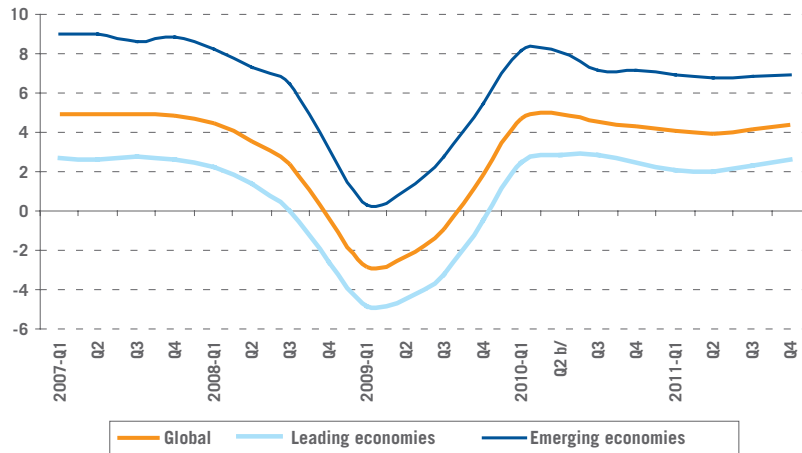
On the other hand, the sustained vigour of many emerging economies, especially the largest ones—

China, India and Brazil—is driving the global economic recovery. Growing domestic demand, increased investment and global trade are fuelling these economies, although some are showing signs of a slowdown in economic activity.

In this context, the pace of global economic recovery is expected to slow towards the end of 2010 and in 2011. In October 2010, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) forecast that global GDP will grow by 4.8% in 2010 and 4.2% in 2011 (Figures 1 and 2).

The gap between the average pace of growth of leading and emerging economies has led governments to postpone or modify plans to withdraw monetary and fiscal stimulus policies, particularly in developed countries. Thus, the US Federal Reserve, the European Central Bank and other central reserve banks have

FIGURE 1



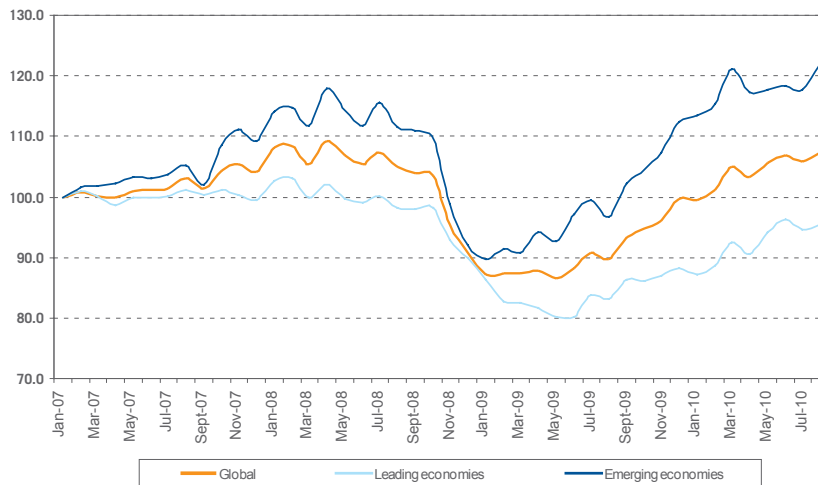
**Global GDP and GDP by Regions. 2007 - 2011 <sup>a/</sup>. (Annualized quarterly percentage change)**

Source: ILO, based on IMF, World Economic Outlook, October 2010.

a/ GDP at constant prices.

b/ Forecasts beginning in the quarter indicated.

FIGURE 2



**Volume and Trade Volume by Regions. January 2007 to August 2010. (Index January 2007 = 100)**

Source: ILO, based on CBP Netherlands Bureau of Economic Policy Analysis, World-trade Monitor.

remained open to the possibility of maintaining stimulus policies for a prolonged period, until the recovery is consolidated and as long as inflationary pressure does not rise.

Long-term interest rates are at historically low levels, favouring private capital flow to emerging economies that offer better conditions, which has driven the increase in domestic demand. It is hoped that this trend, particularly in the case of emerging economies of Asia, will permit the continuance of relatively high global prices of raw materials, which benefits Latin American countries that export these commodities.

By contrast, the situation appears less favourable for countries whose income depends on exports to the United States and Europe, remittance flows and tourism, such as Mexico and several Central American and Caribbean countries.

Capital flows to emerging economies have caused tensions in global foreign currency markets by appreciating local currencies, as has the application of administrative measures or exchange-rate interventions in some countries. The possibility of a sudden reversion of these capital flows, which will most likely continue as long as the economic recovery remains uncertain, has led receptor countries to increase their accumulated reserves to counteract or moderate local currency appreciation.

At the global level, inflation remained under control during the first three quarters of 2010. In the leading economies, consumer price indices remained relatively low. In some countries, concerns grew over the threat of deflation. By contrast, in some emerging economies, mainly in Latin America and Asia, inflation rates rose during the second and third quarters, which reflected growing demand and/or increased food prices. In response, the central banks of some of these countries withdrew part of the monetary stimulus.

The still uncertain economic recovery of Europe and of the developed countries hardest hit by the financial crisis was a factor that influenced all global and regional economic forecasts. After analyzing probable recovery scenarios between 2010 and 2011, the IMF warned that the necessary fiscal consolidation of the leading economies, particularly those of Europe, could slow growth more than expected, which would intensify the employment problem. The IMF estimates that for every 1% decrease in the fiscal deficit as a percentage of GDP, growth will decline 0.5% and unemployment will rise 0.33%. The IMF believes this scenario is inevitable for the leading economies with a large fiscal deficit and

public debt. Nevertheless, it is optimistic about the results those countries can achieve in the medium and long term if they deliver that bitter pill in a timely, adequate manner.

## Economic Growth and Unemployment in the World's Leading Economies

Indicators of the situation of the world's leading economies revealed a diverse pace of growth in the second quarter of 2010. Annualized GDP growth rates of the United States (1.6%) and Japan (1.5%) recorded smaller increases than in the two previous quarters, which further raised concerns about the strength of the recovery. Consumption increases in the United States did not surpass 2% annually, a pace slower than that observed in past recoveries, and investment is expected to slow down during the rest of the year in response to the stagnation of the real estate sector and the completion of the process to correct inventories. In Japan, economic results reflect the weaker contribution of net exports attributed to the slackening of Asian economies and the appreciation of the yen. In this context, IMF growth forecasts for the United States and Japan are 2.6% and 2.8% in 2010, respectively (Figure 3).

By contrast, in the Euro Zone, annualized growth in the second quarter (3.9%) tripled that recorded in the first quarter (1.3%). However, the upward trend in economic activity in this region mainly reflected the growth registered in Germany (9.1%) and the United Kingdom (4.9%), whereas other European countries, particularly those affected by the sovereign debt crisis (especially Greece and Ireland) contracted more than expected. Although economic growth forecasts were modified for the Euro Zone in 2010 (1.7%) and 2011 (1.5%), growth is expected to vary widely among countries.

The difficult situation in the leading European economies is associated with the high levels of fiscal deficit and public debt which they carried into the crisis, as well as the decision to sharply increase fiscal spending in an attempt to mitigate its effects. Just as Latin America had to consolidate its fiscal balance in the 1980s, Europe today faces a similar urgent need. This issue must be very carefully addressed because the countries will face the dilemma of weakening the recovery or slipping into inflationary situations, with high medium- and long-term costs.

The Chinese economy, the world's second largest after surpassing that of Japan, proved to be vital for the recovery worldwide and in developing countries.

After growing nearly 12% in the first quarter of 2010, the Chinese economy expanded 10.3% in the second quarter, with signs of a slight slowing in the pace of growth. This slowdown may have resulted from measures the government adopted in previous quarters to mitigate the decline in foreign demand and prevent the overheating of the economy. Estimates indicate that the GDP of China will grow by approximately 10.5% in 2010.

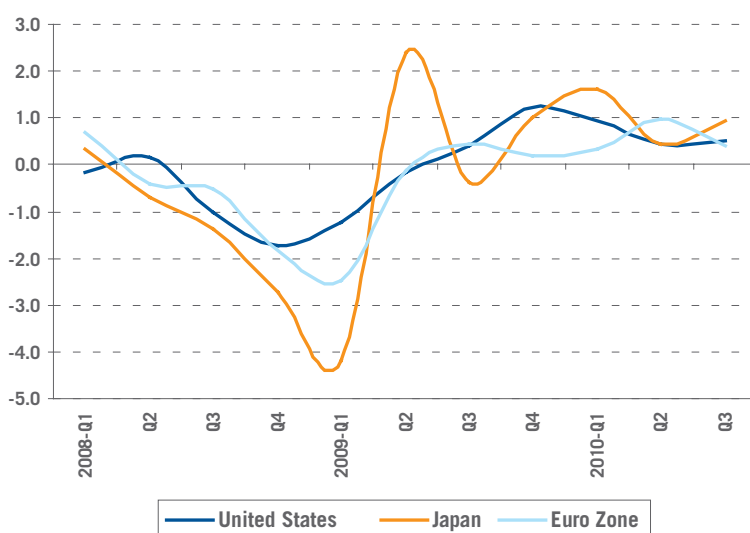
Given that the labour market shows no signs of marked improvement in developed countries, as evidenced by the weak growth in employment, there is growing concern that the precarious labour market situation may reflect structural changes rather than simply a cyclical effect of the crisis. The unemployment rate has stabilized somewhat, but at historically high levels. In the United States, the

unemployment rate reached 10%, the highest in three decades, whereas new job creation is more modest than in other post-recession periods. In the Euro Zone, the unemployment rate also stood at nearly 10%, although rates were much higher in countries whose fiscal sustainability was questionable, such as Spain (20%), Greece (12%) and Ireland (13%) (Figure 3).

### Crisis and Economic Recovery in the Region in 2010

Latin American and Caribbean countries have demonstrated their capacity to weather the recent global economic crisis. The current pace of economic recovery in the region surpasses initial expectations, with an estimated GDP growth in 2010 in the 5% to 6% range.

FIGURE 3

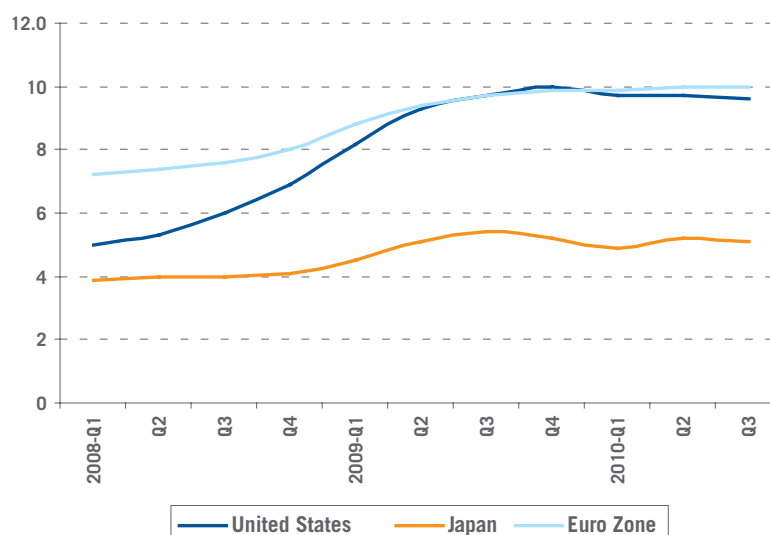


GDP Growth Rates and Unemployment Rates in the United States, the Euro Zone and Japan. I Quarter 2008 - III Quarter 2010.

GDP Growth <sup>a/</sup> (Percentages)

Source: ECLAC.

<sup>a/</sup> Seasonally-adjusted rates. Percentage change with respect to the previous quarter.



Unemployment Rate <sup>a/</sup> (Percentages)

Source: BLS and Eurostat.

<sup>a/</sup> Seasonally-adjusted rates.

The 2009 recession in Latin America and the Caribbean, during which GDP growth fell 1.9%, was relatively brief compared with other regions of the world, partly because many countries had built solid macroeconomic and fiscal foundations before the crisis hit. Several countries of the region, particularly in South America, had a positive economic performance during the crisis and are currently enjoying robust growth.

This solid economic performance also led to some encouraging social results. Despite the 2009 crisis, poverty in the region increased by only 0.10 of a percentage point (from 33.0% to 33.1%), according to estimates of the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC). This result is attributed to a series of factors, such as social protection policies, the preservation of the purchasing power of real wages made possible by low inflation and policies to prevent massive job losses. At the same time, the structure of the distribution of wealth improved slightly. Thanks to the economic recovery, poverty is expected to fall to 32.1% (representing approximately 180 million poor people) in the region in 2010, returning to levels similar to those recorded in 2008.

Demand from China and other emerging markets for raw materials from Latin America and the Caribbean initially drove the recovery of some economies in the region. However, subsequent regional economic growth reflected strong domestic demand and the growth in investment, which was associated with the reduction in unemployment, which in turn revitalized consumption.

Brazil and Mexico represent two extremes in the region with respect to how the crisis affected their economies. Brazil absorbed the external shocks through foreign trade and thanks to its macroeconomic strength and the timely, effective application of social and economic policies to mitigate the effects of the global crisis on its economy and population. In Mexico, factors of structural vulnerability, such as the country's heavy dependence on the functioning of the US economy, combined with other situational factors, including the appearance of the AH1N1 influenza virus. In addition, the country had a weak macroeconomic position when the crisis hit given its low tax burden. Despite having solid institutions to apply economic and social public policies, Mexico did not have sufficient fiscal resources to counteract the effects of the global crisis.

Countries with smaller economies than those mentioned above, such as Argentina, Colombia, Chile and Peru, managed to endure the external shocks

with varying degrees of success and with different effects on their employment and poverty levels.

Even smaller economies, such as those of Ecuador, Paraguay, the Plurinational State of Bolivia and Uruguay, also had a positive performance resulting from a combination of favourable structural factors, particularly in terms of their reduced vulnerability to external shocks and the application of social compensation policies and a counter-cyclical fiscal stimulus package.

The global financial crisis and the policies adopted in the region to confront it left several valuable lessons. First, it highlighted the importance of having good macroeconomic policy management as well as mature, experienced institutions to apply compensatory public policies. Second, it confirmed the relevance of public spending through the application of counter-cyclical measures, particularly when key components of effective demand collapse, such as exports, private investment and private consumption.

The countries most open to foreign markets, such as Chile, faced more difficult scenarios, but they also reaped the benefits of their macroeconomic and financial strength, which, combined with the availability of fiscal savings accumulated during previous bonanza periods, enabled them to apply fiscal stimulus measures representing large percentages of GDP.

Countries such as Argentina and Peru, which benefitted from rising prices of their main exports, also exploited their comparative advantage of having extensive domestic markets. In Argentina, the expansive wage policy stimulated domestic demand and both countries expanded social spending on the most vulnerable groups.

From the perspective of labour policies and the world of work, the Latin American experience in 2009 and 2010 left several good practices to follow. These include the application of active and passive labour market policies that act together and support macroeconomic policies; the necessary development of measures to complement existing social policies; and the application of a labour policy that protects workers, especially the most vulnerable (the box articles in this *Labour Overview* describe some of these experiences).

Consequently, applying the so-called "automatic market adjustment" instrument is insufficient when confronting a crisis that began externally. Rather, this situation requires a timely, efficient government

intervention. While macroeconomic policy is essential, it must be accompanied by social spending measures, conditional cash transfer programmes and labour policies that protect the most vulnerable workers.

For this reason, Latin American countries should not abruptly withdraw their counter-cyclical economic policies implemented in 2009 and 2010. Fortunately, the region did not suffer from contagion of the financial crisis originating in the United States and that quickly spread to Europe. This has enabled them to maintain the active monetary policies applied simultaneously with fiscal spending policies through low interest rates and the expansion of private credit and consumption. These policies can be withdrawn as inflationary pressures rise excessively and aggregate demand comes dangerously close to existing installed capacity.

As is known, the recovery of employment (in both quantitative and qualitative terms) and real wages is moving at a much slower pace than the economic

recovery. Poverty tends to recover after the economy, employment and job earnings, especially in the absence of social protection policies. If it were not for the rapid economic recovery in Latin America and the widespread application of social protection policies and programmes in many countries of the region, especially the larger ones, the crisis would most likely have had a more profound impact on the population than initially expected.

The new reality of the region and the world creates the need to redefine development strategies applied before the crisis and to incorporate the objective of employment, from a quantitative and qualitative perspective, in economic targets. To promote decent work for all, countries should focus on the recovery and improvement of the purchasing power of wages, as well as the effective compliance with the principles and rights at work, together with achieving a favourable macroeconomic balance and a microeconomic framework conducive to productivity, investment and employment.

### BOX 1

#### RESULTS OF THE ILO-IMF CONFERENCE IN OSLO: THE CHALLENGES OF GROWTH, EMPLOYMENT AND SOCIAL COHESION (SEPTEMBER, 2010)

*The key message of the Oslo Conference, which took place last September, was that the economic recovery should focus on job creation. Participants agreed that full employment should be a key macroeconomic objective, together with low inflation and a sustainable fiscal budget.*

*Another key conclusion related to the above was the need to end the practice of addressing social and employment policies separately from macroeconomic issues. The global economy is much more complex. It requires greater, deeper cooperation, as well as improved coordination among institutions and nations. This conference signified an important step in that direction.*

*At the conference, ILO and IMF representatives agreed to work together in specific areas. First, they agreed to explore the concept of a social protection floor for the most vulnerable populations in all countries. The United Nations is developing this concept, especially the ILO. Efforts are now being made to incorporate the financial experience of the IMF in this work. Second, the two organizations agreed to intensify efforts to jointly promote policies to ensure job-intensive growth.*

*The ILO and the IMF also agreed on the central role that effective social dialogue can play during times of crisis, both to reach consensus on difficult issues and to guarantee that the social consequences of the crisis and its aftermath are fully taken into account. The two organizations will strengthen their cooperation in support of the G20 and its Mutual Assessment Process aimed at ensuring strong, sustained and balanced global growth.*

## Economic and Employment Situation of the Region in 2010

Growth forecasts for 2010 in Latin America and the Caribbean indicate a trend toward recovery of economic activity, which will have a favourable impact on most countries in the region. These estimates are based on GDP growth figures for the first semester of 2010 in the largest economies of the region, and take into account the expected growth of the global economy.

Economic activity increased by 8.9% in Brazil during the first semester of 2010 as compared with the same period of the previous year. An analysis of this increase points to the importance of domestic demand as the foundation for economic growth. Thus, private consumption, favoured by wage increases and improved credit market conditions, grew 8% in the first semester. Gross fixed capital formation rose 26.2%, which was consistent with the performance of industries associated with civil construction and capital goods. Civil construction increased 15.7%, manufacturing, 14.2% and services, 5.7%. Although GDP rose 1.2% during the second quarter

TABLE 1

**Latin America (9 countries): GDP. Fourth Quarter 2008 - Third Quarter 2010.**  
*(Percentages)*

Countries	Percentage change (t/t-4) <sup>a/</sup>									Percentage change (t/t-1) <sup>b/</sup>									
	2008			2009			2010			2008			2009			2010			
	IV Quart.	I Quart.	II Quart.	III Quart.	IV Quart.	I Quart.	II Quart.	III Quart.	IV Quart.	IV Quart.	I Quart.	II Quart.	III Quart.	IV Quart.	I Quart.	II Quart.	III Quart.	IV Quart.	
Argentina	4.1	2.0	-0.8	-0.3	2.6	6.8	11.8	...	-0.9	-0.9	0.4	0.4	2.3	3.2	3.0	...			
Brazil	0.8	-2.1	-1.6	-1.2	4.3	9.0	8.8	...	-3.2	-1.6	1.5	2.1	2.4	2.7	1.2	...			
Chile	0.7	-2.1	-4.5	-1.4	2.1	1.6	6.6	7.0	-2.1	-0.7	-0.2	1.2	1.9	-1.3	4.5	2.0			
Colombia	-1.5	-0.4	-0.2	0.9	3.0	4.2	4.5	...	-0.5	-0.3	0.7	1.0	1.6	0.8	1.0	...			
Ecuador	4.0	2.8	0.5	-1.2	-0.5	0.7	2.7	...	-0.5	-0.7	-0.2	0.1	0.2	0.5	1.9	...			
Mexico	-0.8	-7.2	-9.6	-5.5	-2.0	4.6	7.6	5.3	-1.4	-7.0	0.2	2.7	2.2	-0.1	2.3	0.7			
Peru	6.5	1.9	-1.2	-0.6	3.4	6.1	10.1	...	-1.4	-6.8	-1.3	8.5	10.8	7.0	12.9	...			
Uruguay	7.5	2.6	1.1	2.8	4.6	8.8	10.4	...	0.5	-1.9	1.3	2.8	2.5	2.0	2.6	...			
Venezuela	3.5	0.5	-2.6	-4.6	-5.8	-5.2	-1.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...			

Source: ILO, based on official country information.

a/ Percentage change with respect to the same period of the previous year.

b/ Seasonally-adjusted rates. Percentage change with respect to the previous period.

TABLE 2

**Latin America and the Caribbean: GDP Growth Projections, 2010 - 2011.**  
*(Percentages)*

Country	Reference period		Semester 2010 <sup>a/</sup>	IMF <sup>b/</sup>		ECLAC <sup>c/</sup>	
	2008	2009 <sup>a/</sup>		2010	2011	2010	2011
Argentina	6.8	0.9	9.3	7.5	4.0	8.4	4.8
Bolivia	6.1	3.4	3.6	4.0	4.5	3.8	4.5
Brazil	6.1	-0.2	8.9	7.5	4.1	7.7	4.6
Chile	3.7	-1.5	4.0	5.0	6.0	5.3	6.0
Colombia	2.7	0.8	4.3	4.7	4.6	4.0	4.0
Costa Rica	2.8	-1.1	4.7	3.8	4.2	4.0	3.0
Dominican Republic	5.3	3.5	7.5	5.5	5.5	7.0	5.0
Ecuador	7.2	0.4	1.7	2.9	2.3	3.5	3.5
El Salvador	2.4	-3.5	0.2	1.0	2.5	1.0	2.0
Guatemala	3.3	0.5	...	2.4	2.6	2.5	3.0
Haiti	0.8	2.9	...	-8.5	9.8	-7.0	9.0
Honduras	4.0	-1.9	...	2.4	3.5	2.5	2.0
Mexico	1.5	-6.5	5.8	5.0	3.9	5.3	3.5
Nicaragua	2.8	-1.5	...	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
Panama	10.1	3.2	6.0	6.2	6.7	6.3	7.5
Paraguay	5.8	-3.8	11.7	9.0	5.0	9.7	4.0
Peru	9.8	0.9	8.1	8.3	6.0	8.6	6.0
Uruguay	8.5	2.9	9.6	8.5	5.0	9.0	5.0
Venezuela	4.8	-3.3	-3.5	-1.3	0.5	-1.6	2.0
The Caribbean	0.8	-2.3	...	2.4	4.3	0.5	2.2
Latin America and the Caribbean	4.1	-1.9	7.2	5.7	4.0	6.0	4.2

Source: ILO, based on information from IMF and ECLAC.

a/ Preliminary data.

b/ IMF, World Economic Outlook, October 2010.

c/ ECLAC, Preliminary Overview of the Economies of Latin America and the Caribbean, December 2010.



of 2010 in seasonally-adjusted terms, which indicates less vigorous growth than in previous quarters, this result marked the fifth consecutive month of growth, confirming the economic recovery process in Brazil (Tables 1 and 2).

The Mexican economy recorded an annual increase of 5.8% in the first nine months of 2010. This level of growth is partly attributed to a statistical effect resulting from the reduced basis of comparison given that in 2009, GDP fell 6.5%. The change in quarterly indicators points to a slower pace of growth, which is closely related to the dependence on income from exports for the US market, where recovery has weakened. Measured in seasonally-adjusted terms, the GDP of Mexico grew 0.7% during the third quarter of 2010 with respect to the previous quarter, when it increased 2.3%. The manufacturing and services sectors recorded positive trends, although growth rates fell slightly compared with those registered in previous quarters. It is estimated that the Mexican economy grew 5.3% in 2010, far surpassing the 3.0% forecast at the beginning of this year.

In Argentina, GDP grew 9.3% in the first semester of 2010 in year-over-year terms. In the first and second quarters, the economy expanded, recording seasonally-adjusted rates approaching 3%, as a result of strong demand for food and other export commodities, especially from emerging economies of Asia. This also drove growth in the agricultural sector, whose harvest surpassed that of 2009 by more than 50%. Another contributing factor was the recovery in Brazil, which accounted for the sharp rise in Argentine exports in the automotive sector. Preliminary estimates indicate a 12.9% increase in public consumption in the second quarter of 2010, as compared with the same period of the previous year, whereas private consumption rose an estimated 8.1%. In Argentina, GDP is expected to grow 8.4% in 2010 and 4.8% in 2011.

Economic activity in Chile registered marked growth after a brief decline in response to the major earthquake in February. GDP grew 4.0% in the first semester, driven mainly by the trade (12.8%), electricity, gas and water sectors. By contrast, the fishing and manufacturing sectors experienced a decline in activity as compared with 2009. Domestic demand increased at an annual rate of 19.4% in the second quarter, especially private consumption (10.7%). In this context, annual GDP growth in Chile is estimated at 5.3% for 2010.

The high GDP growth rate recorded in Peru, 8.1% in the first semester of 2010, reflects vigorous domestic demand (11.1%), which in turn resulted

from the increase in consumption (5.6%) and private investment (17.7%). Also noteworthy was the growth in the construction (19.2%) and manufacturing (12.3%) sectors. Peru's 2010 GDP growth estimate stands at 8.6%.

In Colombia, GDP grew 4.3% during the first semester of 2010, driven mainly by the performance of the mining and quarry sector (14.3%), manufacturing (6.5%) and trade (4.9%), whereas the other sectors are recovering at a slower pace. Like in the countries mentioned above, domestic demand was strong, as evidenced by the rise in consumption (3.6%) and gross capital formation (18.3%). GDP in Colombia will grow an estimated 4.0% in 2010.

Central American countries are recovering gradually, following trends in the growth in exports to the United States and the recovery of remittances and domestic demand. Costa Rica and Panama are recovering faster than the other countries, as reflected in GDP growth rates for the first semester, 4.7% and 6.0%, respectively. In Costa Rica, results are also influenced by the country's close trade ties with Asia whereas in Panama, the works to expand the Panama Canal have contributed to economic growth. In 2010, GDP growth in this sub-region is estimated at 3.0%.

Factors supporting these GDP forecasts include the dynamism of the region's exports, mainly those of South America to China, which according to ECLAC estimates will grow by 21.4% in 2010, as compared with 2009, when they declined 22.6%. Recovery of the US economy, while gradual, will normalize that country's demand, contributing to a better scenario for Mexico and Central American countries. Moreover, to the extent that tourism increases, the situation in some countries of the Caribbean is also expected to improve.

Another factor influencing estimates is the significant recovery in foreign direct investment (FDI) in 2010 with respect to 2009. Fuelled by the stability and economic growth of most countries in the region, coupled with the recovery of global trade, FDI increased 16.4% during the first semester of 2010 as compared with the same period in 2009, according to ECLAC.

Nevertheless, certain special conditions are unlikely to continue in 2011, given the limited capacity of governments to maintain current counter-cyclical measures without jeopardizing macroeconomic balances. Likewise, the reduction in the pre-existing idle capacity cannot continue, which until now has permitted governments to rapidly respond to the increase in foreign and domestic demand. Another

associated risk is that the sustained rapid expansion of domestic demand may produce overheating, inflation and rising current account deficits, in which case countries should diminish or eliminate monetary stimulus.

Leading external risks include the latent possibility of a deterioration in the global economy. In this scenario, unfavourable international credit conditions would prevail, with diminished demand and lower raw material prices, which would affect the exporting countries of the region, particularly those of South America.

While the pace of growth in developed countries is showing signs of slowing, uncertainty is also increasing with regard to the strength and duration of the recovery, especially as the stimulus provided by counter-cyclical policies begins to fade. Another concern is the possibility that some European countries may face increasing difficulties in refinancing their sovereign debts, which could stimulate market volatility.

Countries most dependant on US demand for imports and remittances sent by migrant workers, such as Mexico and those of Central America, are particularly vulnerable to the possibility of slower economic growth than expected in the United States. Likewise, poor employment growth forecasts in the United States and Europe will limit recovery of the Caribbean countries most dependent on tourism.

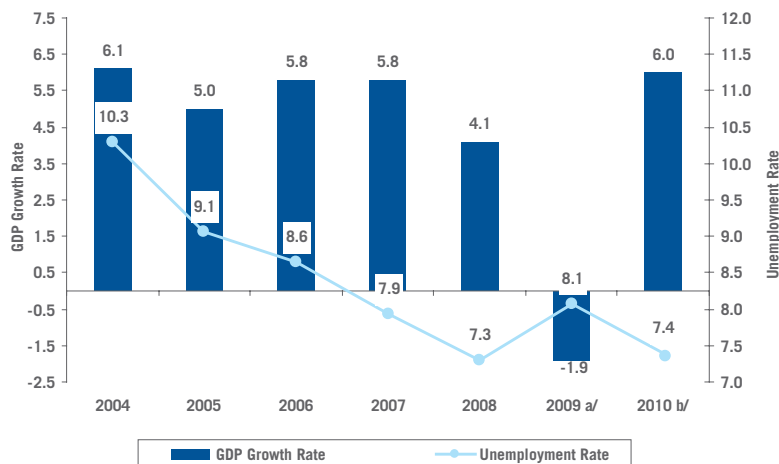
In a scenario of a more vigorous economic recovery than initially forecast, it is estimated that the regional unemployment rate will decrease from 8.4% in the first 10 months of 2009 to 7.6% for the same period of 2010, as a result of the increase in the employment-to-population ratio, from 54.3% to 55.1%, which slightly exceeded the increase in the labour force participation rate, from 59.3% to 59.7%. In keeping

with economic trends in some countries of the region, such as Brazil, and due to seasonal effects, labour demand is expected to rise slightly more than labour supply in the fourth quarter of 2010, which will reduce the unemployment rate. Consequently, with an estimated 6.0% GDP growth for Latin America and the Caribbean, the average annual unemployment rate in 2010 will be 7.4%; in other words, 0.7 percentage points lower than the 8.1% registered in 2009. This means that economic growth in 2010 generated employment or jobs for nearly 1.2 million additional people and that unemployment affects 16.9 million men and women in the region (Figure 4).

Naturally, labour perspectives in 2011 depend on the evolution of the overall economy. Global and regional GDP forecasts point to moderate economic growth rates. It is estimated that GDP growth for Latin America and the Caribbean in 2011 will reach approximately 4.2% and that most of the countries will grow at a pace slower than or equal to that of 2010. Among the larger economies, Argentina, Brazil, Chile and Peru will grow more than the regional average whereas the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Colombia and Mexico will have growth rates below the regional average.

In light of these forecasts and the strong correlation between economic growth and changes in the employment-to-population ratio in the region, it is estimated that job creation in 2011 will fall below the 2010 level. Thus, in a moderately optimistic scenario, the employment-to-population ratio is expected to increase between 0.3 and 0.4 percentage points annually, on average. Labour supply is expected to increase slightly, reflecting the perception of better labour opportunities with sustained economic growth and the continuing growth trend in women's labour market participation. Depending on trends in the labour force participation rate, the regional urban unemployment rate is again expected to decline,

FIGURE 4



#### America and the Caribbean: GDP Growth Rate and Unemployment Rate, 2004 - 2010. (Percentages)

Source: ILO-SIALC, based on official information of the countries.

a/ Estimated  
b/ Projected.

to between 7.2% and 7.3%. Given the expected growth in the labour force, the estimated number of unemployed is similar to that of 2010.

## The Labour Market in Latin America and the Caribbean in 2010

Given that the economic recovery was stronger than originally estimated, the labour market improved in Latin America and the Caribbean, especially the urban unemployment rate, which decreased from the high levels registered in 2009. According to available data for January to October 2010, the estimated urban unemployment rate is 7.6%, 0.8 percentage points lower than in the same period of 2009 (8.4%), marking a return to pre-crisis levels. The decline in the unemployment rate mainly reflected the increase in labour demand, in keeping with economic growth, which was sufficient to absorb the increased labour supply. Thus, the estimated employment-to-population ratio was 55.1% (0.8 percentage points higher than that recorded in the same period of 2009), whereas the labour force participation rate rose from 59.3% to 59.7%.

In the region, the labour market recovered rapidly in Brazil, which accounts for nearly 40% of the labour force of Latin America and the Caribbean. If this country is excluded from the regional calculation, the unemployment rate would decline only 0.3 percentage

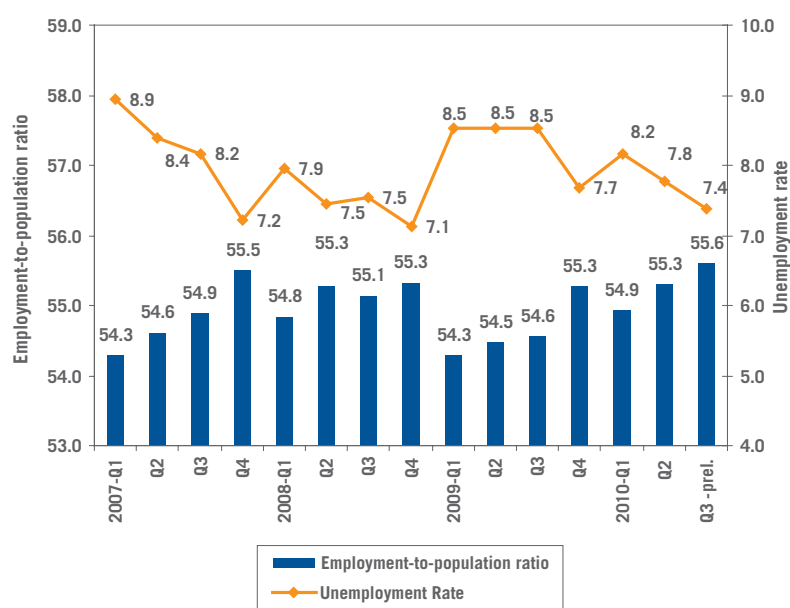
points and the employment-to-population ratio would increase by 0.6 percentage points.

Available indicators for nine countries with monthly or quarterly household surveys demonstrate that in the first three quarters of 2010, labour markets in the region began to recover in the second half of 2009. As a result of stronger economic growth, quarterly employment-to-population ratios recorded increases of 0.6, 0.8 and 1.0 percentage points, as compared with the same periods of 2009, fully compensating for the decline in this indicator in the first quarters of 2008 and 2009, and even surpassing 2007 levels in the third quarter.

Unlike in 2009, when the labour force participation rate fell less or increased more than the employment-to-population ratio, resulting in a higher unemployment rate, in the first nine months of 2010, despite an increase in both indicators, the employment-to-population ratio increased more, thereby reducing the regional unemployment rate.

In year-on-year comparisons of quarterly unemployment rates, after an increase due to seasonal effects in the first quarter of 2010, continuous reductions were observed until the third quarter. The indicator remained at 1.2 percentage points below the rate for the previous year and was 0.2 percentage points lower than that recorded for the third quarter of 2008, before the onset of the global crisis (Figures 5 and 6).

FIGURE 5



Latin America (9 countries):  
Employment-to-population  
Ratio and Unemployment  
Rate. First Quarter 2007  
- Third Quarter 2010.  
(Percentages)

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

FIGURE 6



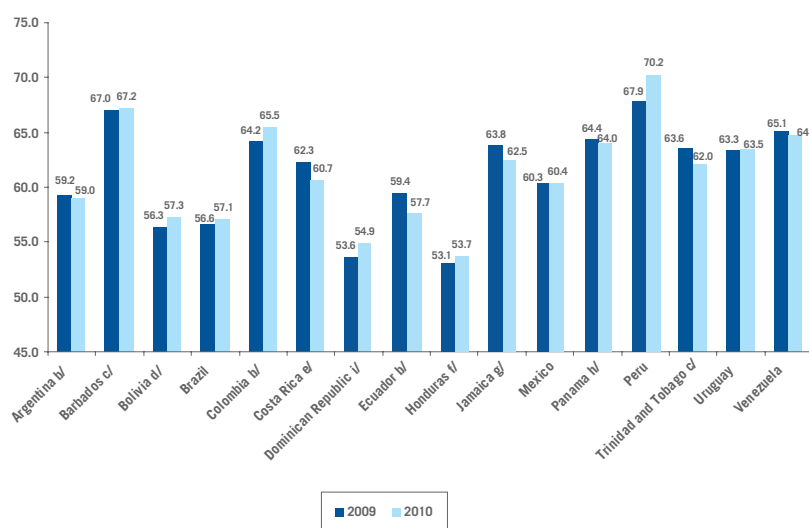
**Latin America (9 countries): Change in the Employment-to-population Ratio and the Labour Force Participation Rate. First Quarter 2007 - Third Quarter 2010. (Percentage point change with respect to the same period of the previous year)**

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

As mentioned, the reduction in the regional unemployment rate occurred in a context of increased labour supply, which varied by country. In nine of the 16 countries with available information, the labour force participation rate increased, in other words, it followed the economic growth trend. This group includes the largest countries, which represent nearly 84% of the labour force of Latin America and the Caribbean, for which reason they heavily influenced the increase in the regional labour force participation rate. At the other extreme, Argentina, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Jamaica, Panama and Trinidad and Tobago recorded decreases in their labour force participation rates (Figure 7).

Available information for 13 countries on the labour force participation rate by sex indicates that in the first 10 months of 2010, the trend of women's increased labour-market participation continued, thereby reducing the male-female gap in labour-market participation. In all countries where the total labour force participation rate rose, the increase was associated with women's increased labour-market participation, except in Mexico, Peru and the Plurinational State of Bolivia. In countries where the labour-market participation of both sexes declined, the decrease was higher among men in Ecuador and Jamaica, and among women in Argentina, the

FIGURE 7



**Latin America and the Caribbean (16 countries): Urban Labour Force Participation Rate. January - October 2009 and 2010<sup>a/</sup> (Percentages)**

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

- a/ In the cases of Barbados, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, the Dominican Republic, Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago, national totals are used.  
 b/ Data refer to January to September.  
 c/ First quarter.  
 d/ First semester.  
 e/ July data.  
 f/ May data.  
 g/ Average, January to April.  
 h/ August data.  
 i/ April data. 2010 preliminary.

Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Costa Rica and Panama. These variations led to a weighted average of the female labour force participation rate of 49.9%, in other words, 0.5 percentage points higher than that recorded in the same period of 2009, whereas the male labour force participation rate, which had declined in 2009 (mainly among youth) rose 0.4 percentage points, to 71.1% (Table 3).

Moreover, labour force participation rates by age groups for seven countries (the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Peru and Uruguay) indicate that in the first three quarters of 2009, as compared with the same period of 2008, labour force participation rates among youth declined sharply (1.2 percentage points) whereas that of adults rose (0.3 percentage points). During the same period

TABLE 3

**Latin America and the Caribbean (17 countries): Unemployment Rate, Labour Force Participation Rate and Employment-to-Population Ratio, by Sex.<sup>a/</sup> January - October 2009 and 2010. (Percentages)**

Countries	Unemployment rate				Labour force participation rate						Employment-to-population ratio							
	Total		Men		Women		Total		Men		Women		Total		Men		Women	
	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010
<b>Total Countries<sup>b/</sup></b>	8.4	7.6	7.3	6.5	9.9	9.1	59.3	59.7	70.7	71.1	49.4	49.9	54.3	55.1	59.7	60.5	40.5	41.4
Argentina <sup>c/</sup>	8.8	7.8	7.9	6.8	9.9	9.3	59.2	59.0	72.0	72.2	47.9	47.3	54.0	54.4	66.3	67.3	43.2	42.9
Bolivia (Plur. State of) <sup>d/</sup>	8.6	6.5	6.9	5.5	10.5	7.6	56.3	57.3	62.8	63.6	50.2	50.6	51.4	53.6	58.5	60.4	44.9	47.4
Brazil	8.3	7.0	6.7	5.4	10.2	8.8	56.6	57.1	66.0	66.4	48.5	49.0	51.9	53.1	61.6	62.8	43.6	44.7
Chile <sup>e/</sup>	...	8.5	...	7.5	...	10.0	...	58.2	...	72.0	...	44.9	...	53.2	...	66.6	...	40.4
Colombia <sup>c/</sup>																		
National	12.3	12.1	9.6	9.4	16.1	16.0	60.7	62.5	72.9	74.0	49.0	51.5	53.2	54.9	65.9	67.1	41.1	43.3
13 cities and metropolitan areas	13.2	12.9	11.5	11.2	15.3	14.8	64.2	65.5	73.1	73.8	56.2	58.0	55.7	57.0	64.7	65.5	47.6	49.4
Costa Rica <sup>f/</sup>																		
National	8.4	7.3	6.9	6.0	10.8	9.5	60.4	59.1	77.2	75.9	44.5	43.5	55.4	54.8	71.8	71.4	39.7	39.4
Urban	8.5	7.1	7.3	6.0	10.2	8.8	62.3	60.7	76.3	75.1	49.6	48.1	57.0	56.4	70.7	70.6	44.5	43.9
Dominican Republic <sup>i/</sup>	14.9	14.4	9.9	9.7	23.2	21.9	53.6	54.9	67.2	68.0	40.1	42.0	45.6	47.0	60.6	61.3	30.8	32.8
Ecuador <sup>c/</sup>	8.7	8.1	7.3	6.7	10.6	10.0	59.4	57.7	70.5	68.6	49.1	47.5	54.3	53.0	65.4	64.0	43.9	42.8
Honduras <sup>g/</sup>	4.9	6.4	...	...	...	...	53.1	53.7	...	...	...	...	50.5	50.3	...	...	...	...
Mexico																		
National	5.6	5.4	5.5	5.5	5.6	5.4	58.6	58.7	77.1	77.1	42.0	42.2	55.4	55.6	72.9	72.9	39.6	39.9
32 areas	6.9	6.5	6.9	6.6	6.8	6.4	60.3	60.4	75.8	75.9	46.4	46.5	56.2	56.4	70.6	70.9	43.3	43.5
Panama <sup>h/</sup>																		
National	6.6	6.5	5.1	5.3	8.9	8.5	64.1	63.5	80.9	80.4	48.3	47.5	59.9	59.4	76.8	76.1	44.0	43.5
Urban	7.9	7.7	6.3	6.5	9.9	9.3	64.4	64.0	78.6	78.3	51.7	51.1	59.3	59.1	73.6	73.2	46.6	46.3
Peru <sup>c/</sup>	8.5	8.1	6.9	6.7	10.5	9.8	67.9	70.2	76.8	79.1	59.6	61.9	62.1	64.5	71.5	73.7	53.3	55.8
Uruguay																		
National	7.4	6.8	5.4	5.0	9.9	9.0	63.1	63.0	73.7	73.4	54.0	54.0	58.4	58.7	69.7	69.7	48.7	49.2
Urban	7.8	7.3	5.8	5.5	10.1	9.2	63.3	63.5	73.3	73.0	55.0	55.4	58.4	58.9	69.0	69.0	49.5	50.3
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	8.1	8.8	7.7	8.4	8.6	9.5	65.1	64.7	79.5	79.2	50.9	50.5	59.9	59.1	73.4	72.6	46.5	45.7
<b>The Caribbean</b>																		
Barbados <sup>j/</sup>	10.1	10.6	10.2	10.5	10.0	10.7	67.0	67.2	...	...	...	...	60.2	60.1	...	...	...	...
Jamaica <sup>k/</sup>	11.3	12.9	8.8	9.9	14.3	16.7	63.8	62.5	72.0	70.4	56.1	55.0	56.6	56.4	65.6	63.5	48.1	45.9
Trinidad and Tobago <sup>j/</sup>	5.0	6.7	...	...	...	...	63.6	62.0	...	...	...	...	60.4	57.8	...	...	...	...

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

a/ In the cases of Barbados, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Chile, Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago, national totals are used.

b/ Estimates of total indicators do not include Chile while indicators by sex do not include Barbados, Chile, Honduras and Trinidad and Tobago.

c/ Data refer to January to September.

d/ First semester.

e/ Data refer to January to September. New measurement not comparable with previous years.

f/ July data.

g/ May data.

h/ August data.

i/ April data. 2010 preliminary.

j/ First quarter.

k/ Average, January and April.

of 2010, the labour force participation rate of both age groups increased, although more so in the case of adults. The slight increase in the labour force participation among youth for this group of countries mainly reflected a shift in the trend in Mexico and Peru. The Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Brazil and Ecuador were the only countries where the labour force participation rate among youths continued to decline, although the rate fell for both age groups in the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela and Ecuador (Table 4).

Several factors can influence trends in the labour force participation rate. In the long term, the decision to participate in the labour market depends on an individual's age, sex and educational level, as well as on prevailing socio-cultural norms. In the short term, it is difficult to estimate which factors will most influence this indicator given the variety of strategies used by households in response to the expectations and impacts of economic cycles.

An analysis of disaggregated information reveals that currently, the recovery of employment in most of the countries, except in cases such as Brazil, was not accompanied by increased stability and improved quality of employment. This is because a large percentage of new jobs were created through independent employment, whereas wage and salaried employment experienced only moderate increases. This indicates that the poor quality of employment of household heads is driving secondary labour-

market entry, most likely in the informal sector. In addition, households may still be affected by the fragile recovery of remittances, which, like the lower level of migration abroad due to the economic crisis in developed countries, may increase pressure to participate in the labour market.

All of the above may reflect the possibility that fewer workers are discouraged from seeking employment in a scenario with less restrictive opportunities. In Mexico, for example, the percentage of discouraged workers fell 12.1% in the first three quarters of 2010, in contrast with the 13.6% increase for that indicator in the first three quarters of 2009, as compared with the same period of 2008. In Brazil, between January and September 2009, the percentage of discouraged workers declined 2.9%, whereas it fell 5.3% in the same period of 2010.

With respect to employment demand, at the regional level, there is a positive correlation between economic growth and the evolution of the employment-to-population ratio. This trend is less apparent when analyzed by country, although this indicator clearly increased in more countries in 2010 than in 2009. Of the 16 countries with information for January to October 2010, compared with the same period of 2009, the employment-to-population ratio rose in eight countries and fell in the remainder. Brazil was noteworthy given its weight in the regional average. In that country, the employment-to-population ratio grew 1.2 percentage points. The highest increases

TABLE 4

**Latin America (7 countries): Unemployment Rates, Labour Force Participation Rates and Employment-to-Population Ratios, by Age Group. First Quarter - Third Quarter, 2009 and 2010. (Percentages)**

Countries	Unemployment rate				Labour force participation rate				Employment-to-population ratio			
	15-24 years		25 years and over		15-24 years		25 years and over		15-24 years		25 years and over	
	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010
Total Countries <sup>a/</sup>	17.3	16.1	6.0	5.4	51.3	51.5	66.1	66.6	42.2	43.1	62.2	62.9
Brazil (6 metropolitan areas) <sup>b/</sup>	18.9	16.7	5.9	4.9	55.1	54.8	64.0	64.4	44.7	45.7	60.3	61.3
Colombia (13 metropolitan areas) <sup>c/</sup>	24.1	24.0	9.7	9.4	54.2	54.9	68.3	69.7	41.1	41.7	61.7	63.2
Ecuador (Urban) <sup>d/</sup>	18.5	20.1	6.1	5.7	49.6	46.2	74.1	72.0	40.4	36.9	69.6	67.9
Mexico (National) <sup>e/</sup>	10.3	9.9	4.2	4.2	42.9	44.0	64.5	64.6	38.5	39.6	61.8	61.9
Peru (Metropolitan Lima) <sup>e/</sup>	16.8	15.8	5.9	5.6	52.4	55.3	74.9	76.9	43.5	46.6	70.5	72.6
Uruguay (Urban) <sup>e/</sup>	21.5	21.2	5.2	4.7	48.9	49.4	67.3	67.6	38.4	38.9	63.8	64.4
Venezuela (National) <sup>b/</sup>	16.5	18.0	6.2	6.8	43.9	42.9	72.9	72.6	36.6	35.2	68.4	67.6

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

a/ Weighted average.

b/ Data refer to January to October.

c/ Age groups are 14 to 26 years and 27 years and over.

d/ First semester.

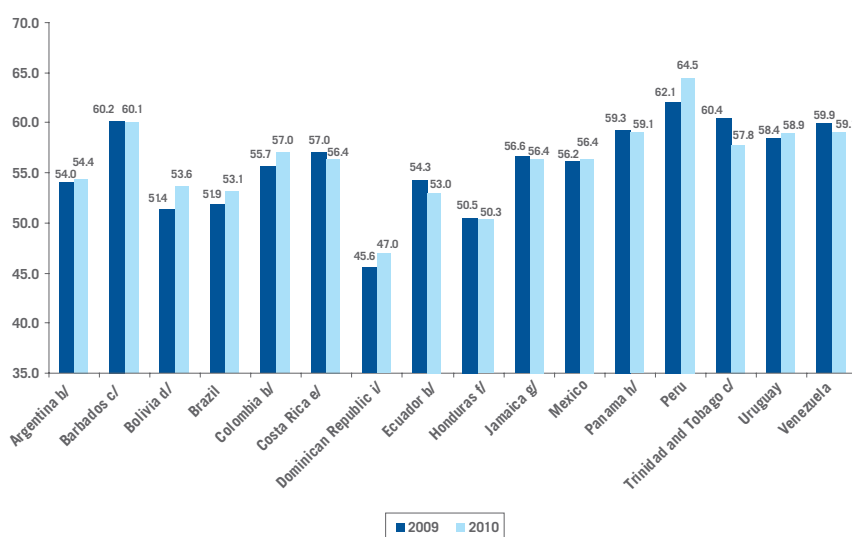
e/ The first age group corresponds to ages 14 to 24 years.

(over 1.3 percentage points) occurred in Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Peru and the Plurinational State of Bolivia. The opposite trend was observed in Barbados, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Honduras, Jamaica, Panama and Trinidad and Tobago.

Moreover, in the weighted average for the group of countries analyzed, women benefited more than men from the increase in labour demand, since in the year-on-year comparison of the first 10 months

of 2009 with the same period of 2010, the female employment-to-population ratio rose 0.9 percentage points, whereas the male employment-to-population ratio grew 0.8 percentage points (Table 3). It should be noted that this greater increase in the female employment-to-population ratio does not necessarily represent progress in terms of employment quality since available information for the group of countries indicates that women's employment in the informal sector expanded more than that of men, in a comparison of the second quarters of 2010 and 2009.

FIGURE 8



### Latin America and the Caribbean (16 countries): Urban Employment-to-population Ratio. January - October 2009 and 2010<sup>a/</sup>. (Percentages)

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

a/ In the cases of Barbados, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, the Dominican Republic, Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago, national totals are used.

b/ Data refer to January to September.

c/ First quarter.

d/ First semester.

e/ July data.

f/ May data.

g/ Average, January to April.

h/ August data.

i/ April data. 2010 preliminary.

Changes in the labour supply and employment levels led to a reduction in the unemployment rate in 11 of the 16 countries with available information for the first nine months of 2010 with respect to the same period of 2009. Uruguay stands out among the countries where this indicator diminished as it was the only country in the region where this downward trend in the unemployment rate has continued uninterrupted since 2008. Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, the Dominican Republic and Peru, and to a lesser extent, Mexico, also experienced a decline in this indicator as compared with the previous year.

Given the size of its labour market and impact on regional statistics, Brazil's positive results are noteworthy. According to the General Census of Employed and Unemployed Individuals (CAGED) of Brazil's Ministry of Labour and Employment, between January and October 2010, 2.4 million formal jobs were created, surpassing the level reached in 2008. In October, Brazil's six main metropolitan areas recorded the lowest unemployment rate since 2002, 6.1%.

The Plurinational State of Bolivia also experienced a sharp decline in the unemployment rate during the period, although the use of a new survey beginning in 2009 precludes comparison with previous years.

The reduction in unemployment in the group of countries reflected an increase in labour demand that offset the rise in the labour participation rate, except in Argentina, where job creation occurred as the labour supply decreased. In South American countries, employment recovery was driven by the growth of domestic demand, which in turn revitalized consumption.

Unlike in the aforementioned countries, the decrease in the unemployment rate in Costa Rica, Ecuador and Panama did not result from increased job creation since the employment-to-population ratio diminished. If the labour force participation rate had not declined, the unemployment rate would have increased in these countries.

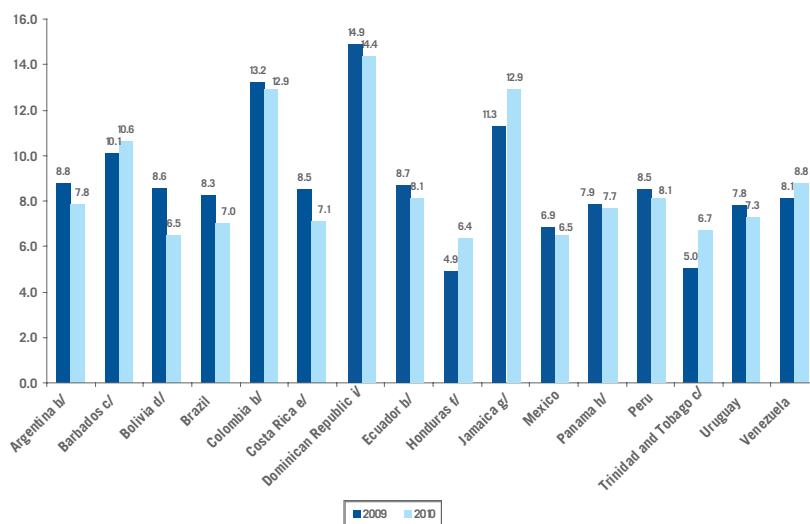
The unemployment rate continued to climb in Barbados, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela,

Honduras, Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago, especially given the weak job creation in a scenario in which labour supply declined in all of these countries except for Barbados and Honduras. This increase in the unemployment rate is associated with the fragile economic recovery in the case of Honduras and the recession across all sectors in the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, despite rising oil prices. In Caribbean countries, the lack of labour market vigour mainly reflects the slow pace of economic growth resulting from the reduction in tourism revenue and remittances, as well as the heavy burden of public debt (Figure 9).

In Chile, the recent application of the New National Employment Survey does not permit year-on-year

comparisons between 2009 and 2010. The Chilean National Statistics Institute (INE) has stated that 2009 figures are referential only since operational and technical improvements to the new survey were underway during that period. Nevertheless, the change in labour indicators in 2010 suggests that the unemployment rate continued to decline throughout the year, from 9.0% in the first quarter to 8.0% in the third quarter, as a result of increased job creation driven by economic growth, which absorbed the increase in the labour supply. The rise in own-account employment was greater than that of wage and salaried employment, 15.2% and 0.5%, respectively. By economic sectors, manufacturing (11.0%), electricity, gas and water supply (11.3%) and construction (5.4%) led job creation, whereas

FIGURE 9



### Latin America and the Caribbean (16 countries): Urban Unemployment Rate, January - October 2009 and 2010 <sup>a/</sup> (Percentages)

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

a/ In the cases of Barbados, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, the Dominican Republic, Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago, national totals are used.

b/ Data refer to January to September.

c/ First quarter.

d/ First semester.

e/ July data.

f/ May data.

g/ Average, January to April.

h/ August data.

i/ April data. 2010 preliminary.

job losses occurred in agriculture, livestock-raising, hunting and forestry (14.4%).

An analysis of labour market trends in eight countries with monthly or quarterly information shows that in year-over-year comparisons, unemployment rates declined in most of the countries beginning in the first quarter. The exceptions were Ecuador, where lower rates were observed beginning in the second quarter and Mexico, where decreases became evident in the third quarter, whereas in the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, unemployment rates rose in every quarter.

An analysis of the seasonally-adjusted series reveals a modest decline in the unemployment rate by country. The decrease in the unemployment rate in Brazil began earlier than in the other countries, and intensified beginning in the third quarter of 2009. In Mexico, despite falling unemployment in

late 2009 and early 2010, the rate increased in the second quarter of 2010 (0.4 percentage points) to subsequently decline slightly, and therefore did not show a clear downward trend in 2010. Unemployment rates began to decrease in Argentina and Peru in the first quarter of 2010, by 0.7 and 0.5 percentage points, respectively, a trend that continued. In Uruguay, after a sharp increase in the second quarter of 2009, this indicator fell to 7%, where it remained until the third quarter of 2010, when it dropped to a historically low level (6.5%). Colombia (13 metropolitan areas) recorded an increase in the unemployment rate in 2009, which then fell in the first quarter of 2010, although it remained at a relatively high level until it declined by 0.3 percentage points in the third quarter of 2010. In the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, the upward trend in the unemployment rate that began in early 2009 continued until the third quarter of 2010 (Figure 10).



FIGURE 10



### Unemployment, by Sex and Age Group

Unemployment rates by sex in the countries of the region mirrored trends in the total unemployment rate (Figure 11 and Table 2). In the 13 countries with information through the third quarter of 2010, the unemployment rate among women was 1.4 times higher than that among men. Jamaica and Uruguay had the largest gap in unemployment rates between men and women (1.7 times) whereas Mexico had the smallest (1.0 time).

In most of the countries where the unemployment rate declined, the reduction was greater for women than for men, except in Argentina, where the opposite trend occurred, and in Ecuador, where the rate declined equally for both sexes. In Panama, the reduction in the total unemployment rate reflected

a decrease in female unemployment given that male unemployment rose. Unemployment among women tended to grow more than that among men in countries where the total unemployment rate increased, such as the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela and Jamaica.

As a result of this differentiated performance, in the first 10 months of 2010, as compared with the same period of 2009, unemployment decreased by the same measure for men and women. For this group of 13 countries, the weighted average of the female unemployment rate fell from 9.9% to 9.1% whereas the male rate decreased from 7.3% to 6.5%. However, in quantitative and qualitative terms, unemployment by sex reveals enormous gaps in labour force participation rates and employment-to-population

ratios due to the difficulties women face in joining the labour force.

During the economic downturn, the unemployment rate among men rose more than that among women because the most affected sectors were those with large concentrations of male workers, such as manufacturing and construction. Although with differences among the countries, these sectors are taking longer to recover their employment levels as compared with sectors where women traditionally predominate, such as the services sector, the community, social and personal services sector and the trade sector, both in the public and the informal sectors.

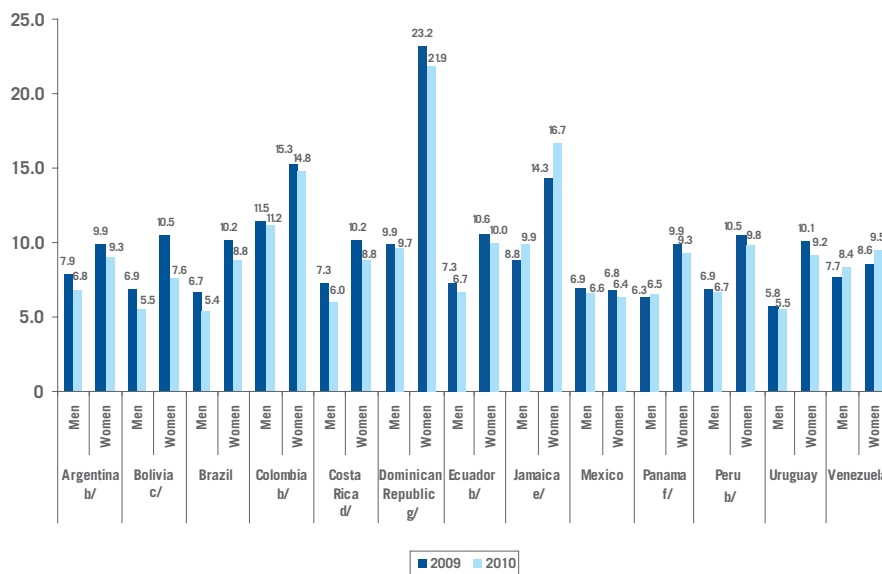
The youth unemployment rate declined from 17.3% in the three first quarters of 2009 to 16.1% during the same period of 2010 in the group of seven

countries with available information, whereas the adult unemployment rate fell from 6.0% to 5.4% in the same period. Thus, the youth unemployment rate tripled (3.0 times) that of adults and more than doubled (2.1 times) the total unemployment rate (Table 3).

The youth unemployment rate declined more than that of adults in Brazil and Peru while the reverse was true in Colombia and Uruguay. In Ecuador, the decline in total unemployment was solely due to the reduction in adult unemployment given that the youth unemployment rate increased. In the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, unemployment rose among both youth and adults, although the rate increase was higher among the former.

Like women, youth are particularly vulnerable to economic cycles. Youth are the group most affected

FIGURE 11



**Latin America and the Caribbean (13 countries): Unemployment Rate by Sex, January - October 2009 and 2010<sup>a/</sup> (Percentages)**

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

a/ In the cases of the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, the Dominican Republic and Jamaica, national totals are used.

b/ Data refer to January to September.

c/ First semester.

d/ July data.

e/ Average, January to April.

f/ August data.

g/ April data. 2010 preliminary.

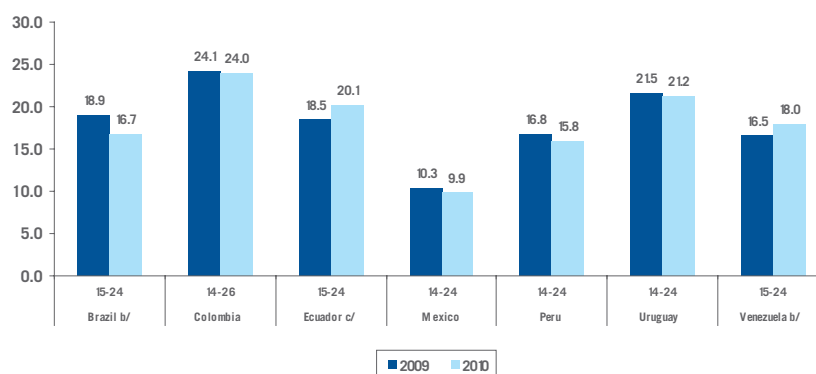
by unemployment. In addition, recent experience indicates that the deterioration in the quality of employment heavily affected this age group, whose unemployment rate rose sharply in 2009, mainly reflecting the decline in labour demand coupled with a decrease in supply. Although the regional youth unemployment rate fell during the economic recovery, it has not yet returned to pre-crisis levels in most countries of the region.

**Employment by Situation in Employment and Economic Activity**

As mentioned earlier, the drop in the regional unemployment rate is not synonymous with an

overall improvement in the quality of employment. In fact, information for eight countries on job creation by situation in employment through the third quarter of 2010 indicates that in Argentina, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico (urban areas) and Peru, own-account employment expanded more than did wage and salaried employment. By contrast, in Brazil, wage and salaried employment grew more than own-account employment, a trend also observed in Panama; however, in Brazil, the number of employed persons sharply increased as compared with 2009 figures while the opposite trend occurred in Panama.

FIGURE 12



### Latin America (7 countries): Urban Youth Unemployment Rate. January - September 2009 and 2010<sup>a/</sup> (Percentages)

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

a/ In the cases of the Bolivian Republic of Venezuela and Mexico, national totals are used.

b/ Data refer to January to October.

c/ First semester.

TABLE 5

### Latin America (8 countries): Year-over-Year Growth Rates of the Labour Force, Employment, Employment by Situation in Employment and by Economic Activity. First Quarter - Third Quarter 2009 and 2010. (Percentages)

Country	Labour Force		Employed		Situation in Employment				Economic Activities										
					Wage and Salaried workers		Own-account Workers		Manufacturing		Construction		Trade		Agricultural, Livestock and		Others <sup>a/</sup>		
	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	
<b>Argentina</b> (32 urban areas) <sup>b/</sup>	2.4	0.2	1.9	0.7	4.6	0.9	4.6	1.0	-3.0	1.3	5.6	-2.1	0.1	2.6	...	...	3.3	-0.3	
<b>Brazil</b> (6 metropolitan areas)	1.1	2.1	0.8	3.5	1.3	4.7	-0.2	2.0	-2.5 <sup>e/</sup>	3.8 <sup>e/</sup>	1.6	7.7	0.9	0.7	...	...	1.6	3.8	
<b>Colombia</b>																			
National	5.2	4.7	4.4	4.8	0.8	2.1	5.6	6.5	3.3	0.9	8.2	6.6	4.6	6.5	6.7	4.1	3.0	5.1	
13 metropolitan areas	4.3	3.8	2.6	4.2	2.1	2.8	3.1	4.8	-0.2	-0.2	3.9	7.8	5.3	6.0	...	...	1.9	4.3	
<b>Ecuador</b> (Urban) <sup>b/</sup>	1.5	-0.9	-0.5	-0.9	0.5	-0.6	4.5	5.5	0.1	2.6	4.3	0.3	-1.4	-3.4	...	...	-0.8	-0.2	
<b>Mexico</b>																			
National	1.2	1.9	-0.5	2.0	-0.1	1.9	2.7	0.6	-6.4	4.1	-3.6	-0.8	-0.3	2.8	-1.5	1.8	2.6	1.5	
32 urban areas	1.7	2.1	-0.5	2.5	-0.1	2.1	2.4	2.8	-7.3	4.0	-4.0	3.5	-0.2	2.6	...	...	2.2	1.8	
<b>Panama</b> (National) <sup>c/</sup>	2.4	1.0	1.3	1.0	-0.8	2.9	6.2	-1.4	2.0	-3.9	1.1	1.4	-4.7	1.7	2.1	-2.4	3.4	3.0	
<b>Peru</b> (Metropolitan Lima)	0.9	5.2	0.9	5.7	0.4	2.3	1.3 <sup>d/</sup>	11.0 <sup>d/</sup>	-2.2	9.8	-2.2	18.6	0.3	4.7	...	...	3.0	3.3	
<b>Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)</b> (National) <sup>b/</sup>	2.5	1.3	2.6	0.2	1.5	-3.1	3.0	8.1	2.2	-4.7	-5.0	-0.9	3.6	-0.2	-1.4	8.3	5.0	0.6	

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

a/ Includes mining, electric power, gas and water, transportation and communications, financial services, community and social services.

b/ First semester.

c/ Year-over-year growth rate for August.

d/ Includes all non-wage workers

e/ Includes extractive and manufacturing activities as well as the production and distribution of electricity, gas and water.

In this context, in several countries, the increase in own-account employment did not result from workers' taking advantage of the opportunities created by growing economies for production and sale of goods and services. Rather, they resorted to the self-generation of employment to compensate for the deficit in labour demand by businesses.

In terms of sectors, job creation in construction was quite vigorous during 2010 in Brazil, Colombia and Peru whereas it declined in this sector in Argentina,

the Bolivian Republic of Venezuela and Mexico (national level). The trade sector also experienced a rise in employment in most of the countries whereas employment in manufacturing reversed negative growth at different levels in Argentina, Brazil, Mexico and Peru. The Bolivian Republic of Venezuela and Panama recorded substantial declines in employment in this sector (Table 5).

In a context of falling unemployment rates, there is generally a decline in indicators of volume of employment, such as time-related under-

employment, which refers to the employed population that works fewer hours than the normal work week but that wants to work more hours. Until the third quarter of 2010, with respect to the same period of 2009, there was a positive association between these two indicators in Brazil, Mexico and Peru, whereas in Colombia, Ecuador and Uruguay, the unemployment rate decreased despite an increase or no change in the indicator for time-related under-employment (Figure 13).

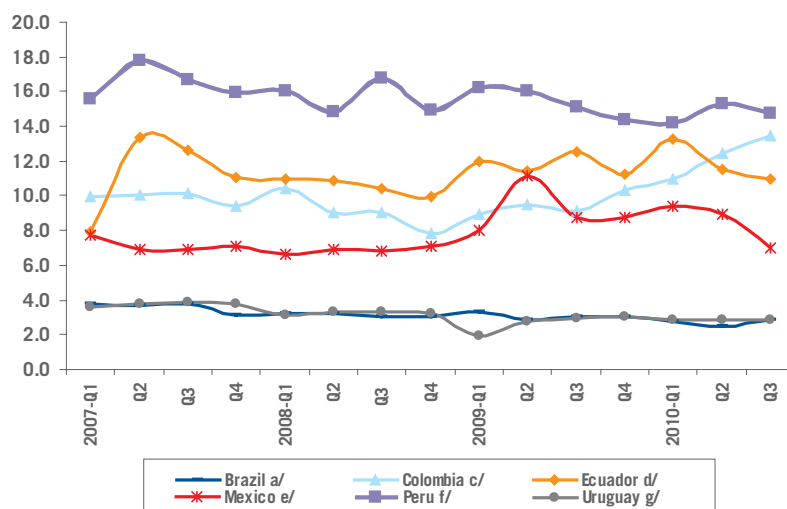
### Employment and social security

The dynamics of the generation of employment covered by social security and, in the case of Peru, wage and salaried workers registered in formal

establishments of 10 or more workers, appear to have reversed the negative trend observed through the end of 2009.

In Costa Rica and Mexico, which until December 2009 had negative annual growth in employment with social protection, began to record positive growth in early 2010. In Mexico, the annual growth rate in the number of workers covered by social security through October 2010 was 5.4%, although temporary workers (13.4%) outnumbered permanent workers (4.2%). In all cases, the formalization of existing jobs accounts for some of the new jobs with social protection, as evidenced by the statistics on changes in formal employment, in accordance with ILO definitions (Figure 14).

FIGURE 13

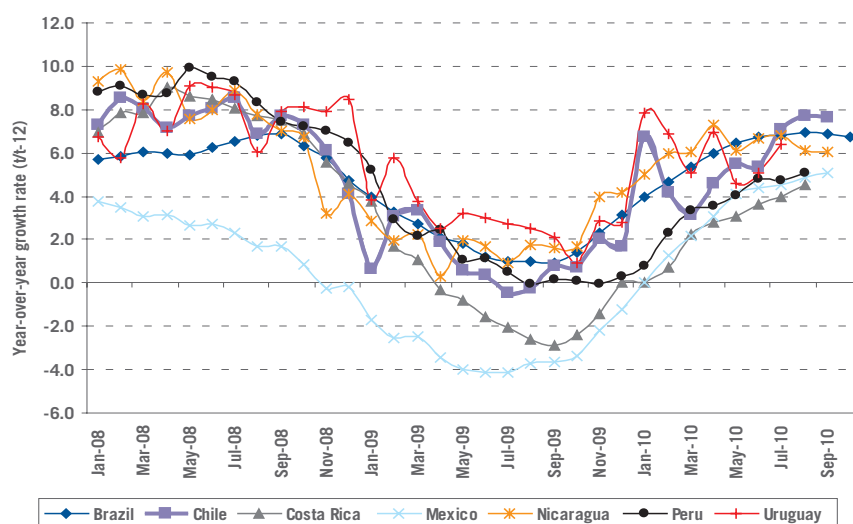


**Latin America (6 countries): Rate of Time-Related Under-employment. First Quarter - Third Quarter, 2009 and 2010. (Percentages)**

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

a/ Employed persons who work fewer than the number of hours per week considered normal and who want and are available to work more hours. Maximum working hours per week: Brazil (six metropolitan regions), Ecuador (urban) and Uruguay (urban), 40 hours; Colombia (13 metropolitan areas), 48 hours; and Peru (Metropolitan Lima), 35 hours.  
b/ Employed persons who want and are available to work more hours than their current employment allows. National total.

FIGURE 14



**Latin America (7 countries): Change in Employment with Social Security Coverage. January 2008 - October 2010<sup>a/</sup> (Percentages)**

Source: ILO, based on official country information.

a/ Refers to the number of wage earners contributing to social security systems in Chile (private pension funds- AFP), Costa Rica (Costa Rican Social Security Fund - CCSS), Mexico (Social Security Institute of Mexico - IMSS), Nicaragua (Social Security Institute of Nicaragua - INSS) and Uruguay (Social Benefit Bank - BPS). Brazil (wage earners covered by labour and social legislation) and Peru (wage earners registered in formal establishments of 10 or more workers).

## Change and Real Wages

In the context of economic recovery and the slight increase in inflation, real wages of the formal sector recorded modest gains in most of the countries with available information. Of the nine countries with information through the third quarter of 2010 with respect to the same period of 2009, average real wages grew between 2.2% and 3.4% in Colombia, Chile and Uruguay and between 1.6% and 1.8% in Brazil, Costa Rica and Nicaragua. By contrast, losses in purchasing power were recorded in Mexico and for the third consecutive year in the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, which has the highest inflation rate in the region (Table 9, Statistical Annex).

According to official information, Argentina continued to record average real wage increases of nearly 12%. These results reflect the fact that wage negotiations of the private sector resulted in nominal increases in 2010 which exceeded those of 2008 and 2009, as well as the impact of the application of active wage policies, with minimum wage increases above the inflation index.

Nicaragua was one of the countries that experienced the highest inflation hikes in the past 10 years. Through October, accumulated inflation in Nicaragua rose from 1.2% in 2009 to 7.0% in 2010, which led to a smaller increase in real wages, from 6.6% to 1.6%, respectively. In other countries where inflation rose in 2010 with respect to 2009, the effect was less pronounced. Since minimum wage adjustments were relatively low, the purchasing power of wages did not grow as much as in 2009.

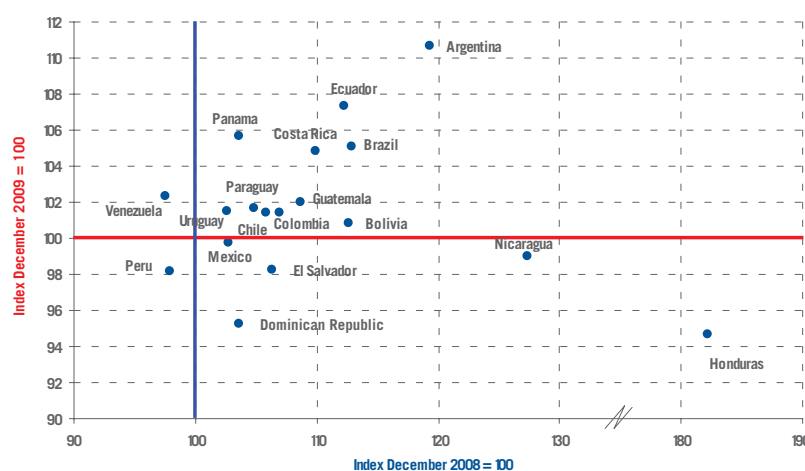
In Brazil, earnings of formal workers of the private sector from January to October 2010 grew 1.6%, less than the 3.1% observed in the same period of 2009.

This result may reflect the growing formalization of employment, which reduces average earnings of formal workers, assuming that a large share of new contracts correspond to jobs with lower earnings.<sup>1</sup>

In addition, the purchasing power of weighted minimum wages in 18 countries of the region rose 3.2% for the accumulated change through October 2010, which represents close to half of the level recorded for the same period of 2009. Considering the simple average, the real change for the period cited was 1.7%, versus 11.3% in 2009. It should be noted that the variation recorded since 2009 is influenced by the adjustment to this indicator in Honduras (93.8%). If that country is excluded, the growth rate of the average real minimum wage fell from 6.4% in 2009 to 2.1% in 2010, whereas the weighted average declined from 6.0% to 3.2%.

Given the moderate rise in inflation, the increase in nominal minimum wages in most of the countries led to an increase in their purchasing power. This indicator declined in only six countries. Mexico and Nicaragua registered declines in their real minimum wages, where nominal changes in 2010 were insufficient to compensate for price increases. Reductions also occurred in four other countries that did not adjust their nominal wages in the first 10 months of 2010, maintaining the level established in the previous period. These countries were the Dominican Republic (since June 2009), El Salvador, Honduras (both since January 2009) and Peru (since January 2008). Nevertheless, in most of the countries in the region, wage levels in October 2010 surpassed those recorded in December 2008, even in countries that registered losses in their purchasing power in 2010. The Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela and Peru were exceptions (Figure 15).

FIGURE 15



**Latin America (18 countries): Real Minimum Wage, October 2010 (Index December 2008 = 100 and Index December 2009 = 100)**

Source: ILO, based on official country information.

<sup>1</sup> See Instituto de Pesquisa Econômica Aplicada (IPEA), Mercado de trabalho conjuntura e análise, November 2010. Pgs. 12-14.

The analysis in the 2009 *Labour Overview* of the establishment of minimum wages during crisis periods in the countries of the region found that most countries made cautious adjustments with respect to past inflation. In addition, the marked decline in inflation in 2009 with respect to 2008 enabled the minimum wage adjustments to improve purchasing power, thereby contributing to maintaining consumption and domestic demand.

Overall, the trend in minimum wage adjustments through October 2010 was similar to that of 2009. However, the lower increases in real minimum wages with respect to those in 2009 were noteworthy. These were associated both with the higher inflation rate and the limited adjustments to nominal minimum wages, except in Argentina, Ecuador and Panama (Tables 6 and 10 of the Statistical Annex).

Table 6 lists the nominal changes in minimum wages in nine countries that made regular wage adjustments. In Brazil, Colombia and the Plurinational State of Bolivia, nominal wage increases in 2010 were smaller than those recorded in 2009. In Brazil, Guatemala and the Plurinational State of Bolivia, adjustments far

surpassed past inflation during the previous effective period. In addition, minimum wages rose slightly over past inflation in Colombia, Costa Rica, Chile and Uruguay, whereas in Mexico, adjustments were similar to past inflation.

With respect to countries with variable wage adjustments, in 2010, Argentina, Paraguay and Nicaragua adjusted the minimum wage to above the inflation rate of the previous effective period. In Nicaragua (like in Mexico), the increase in inflation during the last effective period through October 2010 had a negative effect on the real wage. In addition, as mentioned, because wages levels established in previous periods were not adjusted, during 2010, minimum wages lost purchasing power in four countries: the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Honduras and Peru.

Thus, the policy followed by most of the countries to defend the purchasing power of minimum wages in a context of rising inflation continued to contribute to maintaining consumption and therefore domestic demand in 2010.

TABLE 6

**Latin America: Nominal and Real Increase in the Minimum Wage and Inflation in Countries with Regular Minimum Wage Adjustments, 2009 to October 2010.**

Country	2008 - 2009					2009 - 2010				
	Inflation during the last effective period (%)	Notes	Change in the nominal minimum wage (%)	Change in the real minimum wage through October 2009	Change in the real minimum wage in 2009	Inflation during the last effective period (%)	Notes	Change in the nominal minimum wage (%)	Inflation during the last effective period of the minimum wage, through October 2010 (%)	Change in the real minimum wage, through October 2010
<b>Bolivia (Plur. State of)</b>	11.8	a/	12.0	11.8	7.3	0.2	f/	5.0	3.9	0.9
<b>Brazil</b>	5.4	b/	12.0	8.3	7.4	4.0	f/	9.7	3.6	5.1
<b>Chile</b>	0.3	c/	3.8	4.4	5.4	2.3	g/	4.2	0.4	1.4
<b>Colombia</b>	7.2	d/	7.7	5.6	3.3	2.1	h/	3.6	1.6	1.4
<b>Costa Rica</b>	6.9	c/	9.1	5.8	5.0	5.7	h/	9.4	0.6	4.8
<b>Ecuador</b>	8.4	d/	9.0	5.5	3.6	4.4	h/	10.1	1.7	7.3
<b>Guatemala</b>	7.9	d/	6.2	6.5	9.9	1.4	h/	6.6	3.2	2.0
<b>Mexico</b>	6.3	d/	4.6	2.0	-0.5	4.4	h/	4.9	2.0	-0.3
<b>Uruguay</b>	3.9	e/	7.0	1.6	9.9	6.1	h/	8.1	5.5	1.5

Source: ILO, based on official country information.

a/ Reference period, January 2008 to February 2009.

b/ Reference period, March 2008 to February 2009.

c/ Reference period, July 2008 to July 2009.

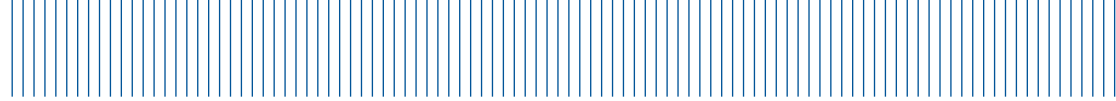
d/ Reference period, January 2008 to January 2009.

e/ Reference period, July 2008 to January 2009.

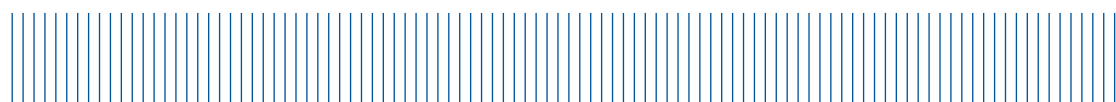
f/ Reference period, February 2009 to January 2010.

g/ Reference period, July 2009 to July 2010.

h/ Reference period, January 2009 to February 2010.



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## Crisis, recovery and informal employment in Latin America in 2010

### Introduction

The 2010 economic recovery process had a favourable impact on the labour market, as indicators for Latin America and the Caribbean demonstrate. The unemployment rate fell until the third quarter of 2010 in most countries of the region and in the region overall owing to the increase in employment-to-population ratios, which reflect growing labour demand.

Available indicators also show advances in the quality of employment, with a sharp rise in employment with social security coverage. In recent years, the five countries included in this box article of the 2010 *Labour Overview* recorded an upward trend in the share of non-farm workers with social security coverage in most occupational categories.

Nevertheless, the economic recovery process for the group of countries was insufficient to reverse the labour market informalization occurring in previous years. This is mainly explained by the growth in informal sector employment, whose relative share in total non-farm employment rose by one percentage point in 2010 as compared with 2009, for the group of five countries.

In 2010, the increased formalization of labour contracts in the formal sector permitted the relative share of formal employment in this sector to remain at the 2009 level (44.5%). Nevertheless, rates varied by country.

In this phase of economic recovery, youths continue to pay the highest price for the crisis, as evidenced by their high incidence of informal employment or employment without social protection in the formal and informal sectors and in households.

In addition, in the group of five selected countries, the gender gap widened owing to the increased growth of informal sector employment among women as compared with men, and within this sector, in the categories of own-account, family and domestic service workers, which have low productivity and wages.

This article briefly examines the conditions of the formalization of employment in five countries of the

region where informal employment could be identified, in accordance with the definition established at the Fifteenth and Seventeenth International Conferences of Labour Statisticians (ICLS). These countries are Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama and Peru, where it was possible to obtain databases of household surveys for the second quarter of 2010, or for the closest reference period for that year, with some comparative indicators from previous years.<sup>1</sup> The data refer to urban non-farm employment.

The definition of informal employment adopted at the Fifteenth and Seventeenth ICLS disaggregates this concept into two components for measurement purposes. The first refers to employment in informal sector enterprises, which corresponds to productive units or establishments that do not fulfill certain formal requirements, such as being registered and having an accounting system. The second component is informal employment, whether in the formal or informal sectors or in households, which refers to workers not covered (de facto or de jure) by labour or social laws.

### The Informal Sector Continued to Grow after the Economic Recovery Began

Although opinions vary with respect to the reasons for the rise in informal sector employment, consensus exists that a key factor is the limited capacity of the formal sector to absorb workers. The capacity of the formal sector depends on the demand for goods and services of this sector, and more broadly, on the aggregated demand of the economy.

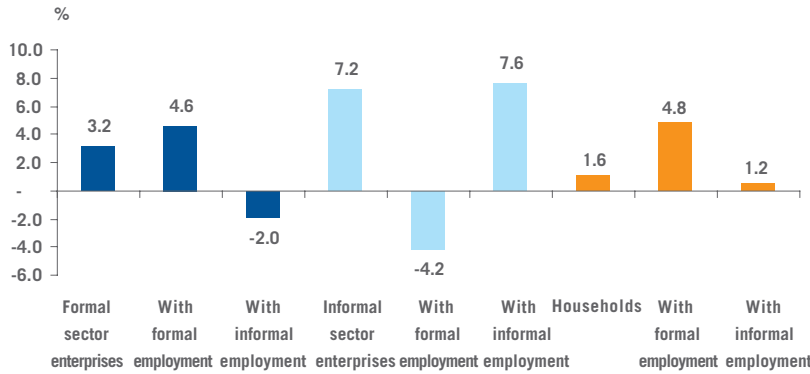
The economic recovery process occurring between late 2009 and early 2010 led to the reactivation of **formal sector employment**, which grew 3.2% in the second quarter of 2010 with respect to the same period of 2009 in the group of selected countries. This recovery benefited men 3.8% more than women 2.2% (Figure 1). This trend was apparent in the consolidated data of the five countries; however, growth varied by country. Mexico heavily influenced the regional average given the size of its labour market.

Another positive result of the recovery was the rise in employment with social protection in the formal sector (4.6%) coupled with a decrease (-2%) in informal employment or unprotected employment in the second quarter of 2010, as compared with the same period in 2009 (Figure 1).

These changes occurring early in the economic recovery reflect progress in the formalization of labour contracts in the formal sector, with advances in access to social security in all of the countries studied, although results varied by country.

<sup>1</sup> The analysis presented in this box article is for the group of five countries. The indicators for each country are available at: <http://white.iilo.org/pe/estad/laclispub/crisis.php>.

FIGURE 1



**Latin America (5 countries): Change in formal and informal employment. Second quarter 2010/2009. (Percentages)**

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

Note: Selected countries: Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama and Peru.

Nevertheless, the growth of the labour force drove the increase in **informal sector employment**, which grew at a faster pace (7.2%) during the same period. Growth in informal sector employment was greater among women (9.9%) than among men (5.3%), widening gender gaps at the beginning of the economic recovery. This resulted in a more precarious labour-market insertion for women until mid-2010 (Figure 1).

Within the informal sector, the number of employed persons with social security coverage fell (-4.2%), whereas employment without social protection grew at a similar pace for the categories of own-account workers (7.3%), family workers (6.6%) and employers (6.6%), and at a higher rate for wage-earners in informal microenterprises (9.2%).

The growth in informal employment in the informal sector affected women (10.3%) more than men (5.7%) in almost all occupational categories (Figure 1).

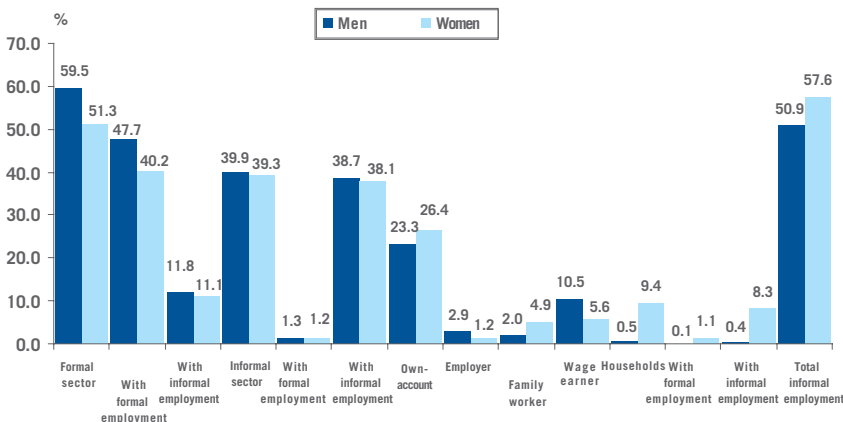
The dynamics of the growth of formal and informal employment led to a slight deterioration of the labour

market composition in the second quarter of 2010 with respect to the same period of 2009. This resulted from the combined effect of a decline in the relative share of formal sector employment and an increase in informal sector employment (Table 2). In other words, the growth in formal employment was insufficient to offset the growth in the labour force, which led to a slight increase in total informal employment (0.2%).

These two changes occurring in the initial phase of the recovery proved more unfavourable to women. Women's labour-market insertion continues to be more precarious than that of men both because a larger share of women can only find informal employment and because the majority of women enter the labour market in poor quality jobs, as own-account and especially domestic service workers, where social protection and wages tend to be lower (Figure 2).

The situation varies by country, however. Colombia recorded an increase in formal sector employment and a decline in informal sector employment, causing the share of informal employment in total employment to fall from 56.5% to 56.1% between 2009 and 2010

FIGURE 2



**Latin America (5 countries): Composition of non-farm employment, by sex. Second quarter 2010.**

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

Note: Selected countries: Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama and Peru.

TABLE 1

**Latin America (5 countries)<sup>a/</sup>: Change in non-farm employment, by sex, sector and occupational category. Second quarter 2008, 2009 and 2010. (Percentages)**

Sex, sector and occupational category	2008	2009	2010
<b>Total</b>	<b>2.3</b>	<b>0.9</b>	<b>4.7</b>
<i>Formal sector enterprises</i>	2.6	-0.7	3.2
With formal employment	2.6	-0.5	4.6
With informal employment	2.7	-1.6	-2.0
<i>Informal sector enterprises</i>	2.7	3.1	7.2
With formal employment	-11.6	-0.3	-4.2
With informal employment	3.3	3.2	7.6
Own-account	8.5	4.1	7.3
Employers	-2.6	7.8	6.6
Family workers	-3.2	2.5	6.6
Wage earners	-6.0	-0.3	9.2
<i>Households</i>	-4.7	3.2	1.6
With formal employment	-11.0	1.4	4.8
With informal employment	-3.8	3.5	1.2
<b>MEN</b>	<b>2.2</b>	<b>0.5</b>	<b>4.4</b>
<i>Formal sector enterprises</i>	2.5	-1.2	3.8
With formal employment	2.7	-1.2	5.0
With informal employment	1.7	-1.1	-0.9
<i>Informal sector enterprises</i>	1.8	3.1	5.3
With formal employment	-12.4	-3.7	-6.5
With informal employment	2.5	3.4	5.7
Own-account	7.6	4.0	6.3
Employers	1.8	8.9	3.4
Family workers	-3.9	0.8	3.9
Wage earners	-5.7	1.1	5.3
<i>Households</i>	-0.9	3.1	4.3
With formal employment	1.8	21.5	-26.5
With informal employment	-1.7	-2.7	16.4
<b>WOMEN</b>	<b>2.4</b>	<b>1.4</b>	<b>5.0</b>
<i>Formal sector enterprises</i>	2.9	-0.0	2.2
With formal employment	2.5	0.6	3.8
With informal employment	4.1	-2.2	-3.4
<i>Informal sector enterprises</i>	3.8	3.1	9.9
With formal employment	-10.2	5.2	-0.6
With informal employment	4.4	3.0	10.3
Own-account	9.6	4.3	8.5
Employers	-15.1	4.1	18.4
Family workers	-2.8	3.5	8.0
Wage earners	-6.6	-3.9	20.2
<i>Households</i>	-5.0	3.2	1.5
With formal employment	-12.6	-1.5	10.5
With informal employment	-3.9	3.8	0.4

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

<sup>a/</sup> Selected countries: Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama and Peru.

(<http://white.ILO.org.pe/estad/lacispub/crisis.php>). A similar situation occurred in Ecuador and Panama, where the share of informal employment declined even further.

By contrast, informal employment rose in Mexico and Peru. In Mexico, the share of formal sector employment declined (within this sector, the share of

employment with social protection also decreased) whereas informal sector employment rose, leading to an increase in the proportion of informal sector employment in total employment (from 45.5% in 2009 to 45.9% in 2010).

In Peru, informal employment increased in 2010, with a higher percentage of employment without

TABLE 2

**Latin America (5 countries)<sup>a/</sup>. Non-farm employment, by sex, sector and occupational category. Second quarter 2008, 2009 and 2010. (Percentages)**

Sex, sector and occupational category	2008	2009	2010
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<i>Formal sector enterprises</i>	57.7	56.8	56.0
With formal employment	45.1	44.5	44.5
With informal employment	12.6	12.3	11.5
<i>Informal sector enterprises</i>	37.9	38.7	39.7
With formal employment	1.3	1.3	1.2
With informal employment	36.5	37.4	38.4
Own-account	23.3	24.0	24.7
Employers	2.0	2.1	2.2
Family workers	3.1	3.2	3.2
Wage earners	8.1	8.0	8.4
<i>Households</i>	4.4	4.5	4.4
With formal employment	0.5	0.5	0.5
With informal employment	3.9	4.0	3.8
<b>TOTAL INFORMAL EMPLOYMENT</b>	<b>53.0</b>	<b>53.6</b>	<b>53.8</b>
<b>MEN</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<i>Formal sector enterprises</i>	60.9	59.9	59.5
With formal employment	48.3	47.4	47.7
With informal employment	12.6	12.4	11.8
<i>Informal sector enterprises</i>	38.6	39.6	39.9
With formal employment	1.5	1.4	1.3
With informal employment	37.1	38.2	38.7
Own-account	22.1	22.9	23.3
Employers	2.7	2.9	2.9
Family workers	2.0	2.0	2.0
Wage earners	10.3	10.4	10.5
<i>Households</i>	0.5	0.5	0.5
With formal employment	0.1	0.1	0.1
With informal employment	0.4	0.4	0.4
<b>TOTAL INFORMAL EMPLOYMENT</b>	<b>50.1</b>	<b>51.0</b>	<b>50.9</b>
<b>WOMEN</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<i>Formal sector enterprises</i>	53.5	52.7	51.3
With formal employment	40.9	40.6	40.2
With informal employment	12.5	12.1	11.1
<i>Informal sector enterprises</i>	36.9	37.5	39.3
With formal employment	1.2	1.2	1.2
With informal employment	35.8	36.3	38.1
Own-account	24.9	25.6	26.4
Employers	1.1	1.1	1.2
Family workers	4.7	4.8	4.9
Wage earners	5.1	4.9	5.6
<i>Households</i>	9.6	9.8	9.4
With formal employment	1.1	1.1	1.1
With informal employment	8.5	8.7	8.3
<b>TOTAL INFORMAL EMPLOYMENT</b>	<b>56.8</b>	<b>57.1</b>	<b>57.6</b>

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

a/ Selected countries: Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama y Peru.

social protection in the formal sector (almost half of workers do not have social security coverage). Overall, nearly seven of every 10 non-farm workers only have access to informal employment in its different forms (<http://white.ILO.org.pe/estad/laclispub/crisis.php>).

### Hours Worked

According to available information for the selected countries, during the crisis and the early phase of the recovery, no clear pattern emerged with respect to changes in hours worked in formal or informal sector enterprises, or in segments of informal enterprises. This was true for the labour market as a whole, although the situation may differ according to types of activity, as well as at different times during the year (variations in hours worked are not necessarily reflected by comparing the situation in the second quarters of each year, as in this analysis). Rather, the gap in average hours worked in formal and informal sector enterprises persists. In the formal sector, the average work week was approximately seven hours longer than that of the informal sector in the second quarter of 2010 (Table 3).

Although workers with formal and informal employment in the formal sector have similar average work weeks, significant differences are observed among production units of the informal sector. Thus, although employed persons with social protection in the informal sector and those employed in the formal sector work similar hours (44.2 hours weekly), workers with informal employment in this sector work an average of 38 hours per week. Among these workers, family workers (30.3 hours weekly) have the shortest average work weeks.

Likewise, work weeks of men and women differ by nearly seven hours, on average (46.1 hours for the former versus 38.9 for the latter). These differences partially explain the gender gaps in income or wages identified when comparing monthly remunerations.

Whereas differences between male and female workers in terms of the number of hours worked tended to be smaller in formal sector enterprises (for employed persons with social protection and those with informal employment), this gap increased to more than 11 hours weekly in the informal sector (43.8 hours for men compared with 32.7 hours for women). This gap rose to 13 hours in the case of own-account workers (43.6 hours for men and 30.6 hours for women).

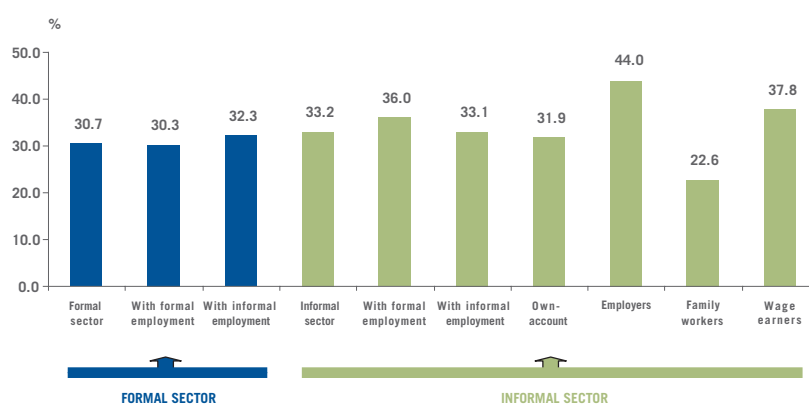
Gender differences in hours worked in the informal sector are most likely associated with women's inability to devote more time to paid employment because of household responsibilities and the fact that their labour-market insertion occurs mainly in independent, marginal activities with low productivity and wages, which tends to accentuate gender gaps in labour-market insertion.

Finally, another interesting aspect for analysis is the distribution of the employed population by number of hours worked. It should be noted that the proportion of workers whose work week exceeds 48 hours tends to be similar for those employed in formal and informal sector enterprises. This is important because while it is likely that a portion of formal sector workers would like to have more flexible working hours (as the theory suggests), for the group of five countries analyzed, the reality for the informal sector is that between one-quarter and one-third of the employed work more than 48 hours per week. In the case of informal employers, nearly half (44%) work more than 48 hours per week, most likely to ensure the survival of their businesses (Figure 3).

### Youth and Informal Employment

As the 2010 *Labour Overview* indicates, youth in Latin America and the Caribbean face higher unemployment than the rest of the population. Those who do find jobs tend to have more precarious employment than the average for the labour force. The situation in

FIGURE 3



**Latin America (5 countries): Urban non-farm employed population that works more than 48 hours per week. Second quarter 2010. (Percentages)**

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

Note: Selected countries: Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama and Peru.

TABLE 3

Latin America (5 countries)<sup>a/</sup>: Average hours worked per week by the non-farm employed population, by sex, sector and occupational category. Second quarter 2008, 2009 and 2010.

Sex, sector and occupational category	2008	2009	2010
<b>Total</b>	<b>42.7</b>	<b>42.4</b>	<b>42.5</b>
<i>Formal sector enterprises</i>	45.4	45.3	45.2
With formal employment	46.0	45.8	45.6
With informal employment	43.2	42.9	42.9
<i>Informal sector enterprises</i>	39.1	39.0	38.3
With formal employment	45.6	45.1	44.2
With informal employment	38.9	38.8	38.0
Own-account	38.3	38.2	37.1
Employers	48.3	47.7	46.4
Family workers	30.5	30.7	30.3
Wage earners	41.9	41.7	40.8
<i>Households</i>	44.4	44.5	42.8
With formal employment	46.9	47.8	45.1
With informal employment	43.6	43.2	42.5
<b>MEN</b>	<b>46.7</b>	<b>46.5</b>	<b>46.1</b>
<i>Formal sector enterprises</i>	48.2	48.1	47.6
With formal employment	48.9	48.5	48.1
With informal employment	46.0	45.6	45.6
<i>Informal sector enterprises</i>	45.0	44.9	43.8
With formal employment	48.1	47.6	47.1
With informal employment	44.9	44.7	43.7
Own-account	45.4	45.0	43.6
Employers	49.9	49.4	47.8
Family workers	29.6	30.2	29.7
Wage earners	45.1	44.7	43.8
<i>Households</i>	47.0	47.8	45.5
With formal employment	47.7	50.2	45.0
With informal employment	46.2	46.1	45.8
<b>WOMEN</b>	<b>38.8</b>	<b>38.3</b>	<b>38.9</b>
<i>Formal sector enterprises</i>	42.6	42.6	42.7
With formal employment	43.2	43.1	43.2
With informal employment	40.5	40.3	40.2
<i>Informal sector enterprises</i>	33.1	33.2	32.7
With formal employment	43.2	42.6	41.4
With informal employment	32.9	32.9	32.3
Own-account	31.3	31.3	30.6
Employers	46.8	46.0	44.9
Family workers	31.4	31.1	30.9
Wage earners	38.6	38.6	37.8
<i>Households</i>	41.8	41.3	40.1
With formal employment	46.1	45.5	45.2
With informal employment	40.9	40.4	39.2

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

a/ Selected countries: Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama y Peru.

youth employment in the group of five countries is analyzed below.

**Youth aged 15 to 19 years**

The economic recovery has not led to an improvement in the quality of labour-market insertion of youths aged 15 to 19 in the group of five countries. As a whole, 82 of every 100 employed youths had informal employment in the second quarter of 2010. Given that this figure has remained unchanged since the same period of 2009, it is almost as if no recovery existed for this group.

Examining the different components of informality, in the second quarter of 2010, the proportion of youths employed in the formal sector continued to decline (41.7% in 2009 versus 40.8% in 2010). The problem is not only the downward trend in employment opportunities for this group, but also the high proportion of employed youths without social security protection in the formal sector, as evidenced by the fact that approximately six of every 10 youths employed in formal enterprises have informal employment (Table 4).

Moreover, the proportion of youths aged 15 to 19 employed in the informal sector also rose in 2010 as compared with 2009 (52.3% and 53.1%, respectively). In addition, within the informal sector, informal employment, or employment without social protection, also increased for this age group.

The labour-market insertion of women in this age group is more precarious than that of men in the formal and informal sectors and in households. Whereas in 2010 in the formal sector, 62 of every 100 young women had informal or unprotected employment, the figure for young men was 59 of every 100. Within the informal sector, women outnumbered men in the categories of own-account and family workers whereas informal employment in households was 12 percentage points higher among women (Table 4).

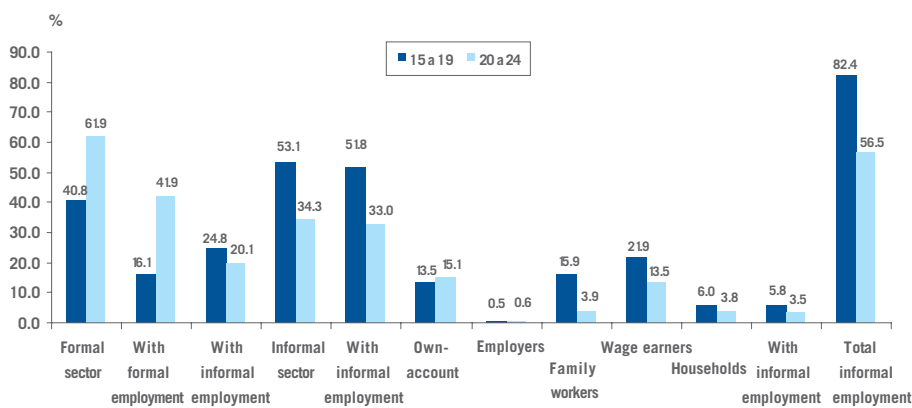
In summary, in the second quarter of 2010, youth aged 15 to 19 had an extremely high rate of informal employment, which was even higher among women in this age group: 84 of every 100 women, compared with 81 of every 100 men (Figure 4).

**Youth aged 20 to 24 years**

Labour-market insertion of youths aged 20 to 24 is less precarious than for youths aged 15 to 19. While it remains high, the incidence of total informal employment decreased to 56.5% for both sexes, with similar percentages for men and women in this age group.

Within the formal sector, the incidence of employment with social protection was higher for both sexes since two of every three employed persons in this age group have formal employment.

**FIGURE 4**



**Latin America (5 countries): Composition of urban employment among youth aged 15-24 years. Second quarter 2010. (Percentages)**

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

Note: Selected countries: Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama and Peru.

TABLE 4

**Latin America (5 countries)<sup>a/</sup>: Non-farm employed population aged 15 to 19 years, by sex, sector and occupational category. Second quarter 2008, 2009 and 2010. (Percentages)**

Sex, sector and occupational category	2008	2009	2010
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<i>Formal sector enterprises</i>	44.7	41.7	40.8
With formal employment	19.2	16.3	16.1
With informal employment	25.5	25.4	24.8
<i>Informal sector enterprises</i>	48.8	52.3	53.1
With formal employment	1.3	1.0	1.3
With informal employment	47.5	51.3	51.8
Own-account	11.7	14.3	13.5
Employers	0.1	0.2	0.5
Family workers	14.6	15.3	15.9
Wage earners	21.1	21.5	21.9
<i>Households</i>	6.5	6.0	6.0
With formal employment	0.3	0.3	0.2
With informal employment	6.2	5.7	5.8
<b>TOTAL INFORMAL EMPLOYMENT</b>	<b>79.1</b>	<b>82.4</b>	<b>82.4</b>
<b>MEN</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<i>Formal sector enterprises</i>	46.9	44.4	43.2
With formal employment	19.8	16.9	17.5
With informal employment	27.1	27.5	25.7
<i>Informal sector enterprises</i>	52.6	54.9	56.0
With formal employment	1.6	0.7	1.2
With informal employment	50.9	54.1	54.8
Own-account	12.9	14.5	14.1
Employers	0.1	0.1	0.5
Family workers	12.1	12.6	12.7
Wage earners	25.8	26.9	27.5
<i>Households</i>	0.5	0.8	0.8
With formal employment	0.1	0.1	0.0
With informal employment	0.4	0.7	0.8
<b>TOTAL INFORMAL EMPLOYMENT</b>	<b>78.5</b>	<b>82.3</b>	<b>81.3</b>
<b>WOMEN</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<i>Formal sector enterprises</i>	41.5	37.7	37.6
With formal employment	18.5	15.5	14.2
With informal employment	23.0	22.2	23.4
<i>Informal sector enterprises</i>	43.4	48.5	49.2
With formal employment	0.8	1.5	1.5
With informal employment	42.6	47.0	47.7
Own-account	10.1	14.1	12.8
Employers	0.1	0.2	0.5
Family workers	18.0	19.2	20.3
Wage earners	14.4	13.5	14.1
<i>Households</i>	15.1	13.8	13.3
With formal employment	0.6	0.5	0.5
With informal employment	14.5	13.3	12.8
<b>TOTAL INFORMAL EMPLOYMENT</b>	<b>80.1</b>	<b>82.5</b>	<b>83.9</b>

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

a/ Selected countries: Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama y Peru.



In the case of the informal sector, although men outnumber women in this sector, the labour-market insertion of women is once again more precarious, particularly in the categories of family workers and domestic service workers.

The less precarious labour-market insertion of 20-to-24 year olds with respect to the younger age group can be attributed to the higher level of experience, education and skills achieved by the older age group over the years.

TABLE 5

**Latin America (5 countries)<sup>a/</sup>: Non-farm employed population aged 20 to 24 years, by sex, sector and occupational category. Second quarter, 2008, 2009 and 2010. (Percentages)**

Sex, sector and occupational category	2008	2009	2010
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<i>Formal sector enterprises</i>	63.4	62.0	61.9
With formal employment	41.7	40.0	41.9
With informal employment	21.7	22.2	20.1
<i>Informal sector enterprises</i>	32.9	34.2	34.3
With formal employment	1.5	1.5	1.3
With informal employment	31.5	32.7	33.0
Own-account	14.4	14.6	15.1
Employers	0.7	0.7	0.6
Family workers	3.7	3.9	3.9
Wage earners	12.7	13.5	13.5
<i>Households</i>	3.6	3.8	3.8
With formal employment	0.3	0.3	0.3
With informal employment	3.3	3.5	3.5
<b>TOTAL INFORMAL EMPLOYMENT</b>	<b>56.5</b>	<b>58.1</b>	<b>56.5</b>
<b>MEN</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<i>Formal sector enterprises</i>	65.0	62.3	62.4
With formal employment	43.2	40.6	42.1
With informal employment	21.8	21.7	20.3
<i>Informal sector enterprises</i>	34.8	37.4	37.3
With formal employment	1.5	1.6	1.1
With informal employment	33.3	35.7	36.2
Own-account	13.9	15.2	15.2
Employers	0.8	1.0	0.8
Family workers	2.6	2.9	2.8
Wage earners	15.9	16.6	17.3
<i>Households</i>	0.2	0.4	0.3
With formal employment	0.0	0.0	0.0
With informal employment	0.2	0.3	0.3
<b>TOTAL INFORMAL EMPLOYMENT</b>	<b>55.3</b>	<b>57.8</b>	<b>56.7</b>
<b>WOMEN</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<i>Formal sector enterprises</i>	61.4	61.6	61.2
With formal employment	39.8	39.2	41.5
With informal employment	21.6	22.4	19.8
<i>Informal sector enterprises</i>	30.5	30.0	30.2
With formal employment	1.4	1.4	1.5
With informal employment	29.1	28.6	28.7
Own-account	15.1	13.8	14.9
Employers	0.4	0.3	0.2
Family workers	5.0	5.4	5.2
Wage earners	8.6	9.2	8.4
<i>Households</i>	8.0	8.4	8.5
With formal employment	0.8	0.7	0.7
With informal employment	7.3	7.6	7.9
<b>TOTAL INFORMAL EMPLOYMENT</b>	<b>58.0</b>	<b>58.7</b>	<b>56.3</b>

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

a/ Selected countries: Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama and Peru.

## Central America and the Dominican Republic: Advances and challenges in decent work for achieving the Millennium development goals<sup>(\*)</sup>

### Introduction

Heads of state and government adopted the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) at a meeting at the United Nations headquarters. They agreed on the eradication of extreme poverty and hunger in the world as the first MDG and established the specific target of reducing by half, between 1990 and 2015, the level of extreme poverty in their countries.

Countries can work toward achieving this target by incorporating the majority of their populations into the labour force, improving household income and access to education, health and economic and social opportunities.

In 2008, Target 1.B was incorporated into the first MDG. This target explicitly calls for *achieving full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people*. This box article of the 2010 *Labour Overview* examines the advances and challenges of the countries of Central America and the Dominican Republic in recent years with respect to achieving decent work and the MDGs.

Decent work is also closely related to the other MDGs: Fighting child labour is associated with MDG 2 (*achieve universal primary education*) and MDG 4 (*reduce child mortality*); the promotion of gender equality and the fight against discrimination in the world of work is reflected in MDG 3 (*promote gender equality and empower women*), MDG 4 (*reduce child mortality*), MDG 5 (*improve maternal health*) and MDG 6 (*combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases*); MDG 7 (*ensure environmental sustainability*) is incorporated into the policies and measures to adapt to climate change and to contribute to generating a positive correlation among tackling climate change, generating jobs and income and reducing poverty. Finally, the contribution of the ILO to MDG 8 (*develop a global partnership for development*) consists of the promotion of decent work as the overarching objective of fair globalization.

Decent work is a broad, multidimensional concept encompassing quantitative and qualitative aspects of work that facilitate a dignified life for the worker and his family. These dimensions refer to productive, freely chosen employment that permits the satisfaction of basic needs, in conditions of security, equity and human dignity.

The United Nations adopted four indicators to measure progress toward Target 1B. These are the growth rate of GDP per person employed (productivity); employment-to-population ratio; proportion of own-account and contributing family workers in total employment (vulnerable workers); and proportion of poor workers (employed people living below \$1 (PPP) per day). The logic behind these indicators is that more progress toward decent work will occur as productivity rises to permit increased income and earnings; the employment-to-population ratio grows, reflecting increased employment opportunities for women and men; the number of vulnerable workers, who are more likely to lack social protection and have low levels of productivity and income, declines; and as the proportion of workers with salaries or income below \$1 (PPP) per day (or the equivalent) decreases.

A broader analysis of advances toward decent work should also consider other dimensions associated with the quality of employment, as well as conditions of underutilization of the labour force, access to job training opportunities and compliance with the fundamental principles and rights at work.

In light of this conceptual framework, Central American countries and the Dominican Republic recorded significant advances in terms of decent work until 2008, when the global crisis affected economic activity and halted progress. This crisis underscored the fragility of advances toward decent work in the region during economic slowdowns and revealed the challenges that arise for consolidating progress in this area.

Until 2008, in most of the countries of the sub-region, the rate of GDP growth per person employed (productivity) and the employment-to-population ratio increased whereas the proportion of poor workers decreased. By contrast, the proportion of vulnerable workers fluctuated, demonstrating that growth was insufficient to generate wage and salaried employment.

Thus, the challenge is to achieve higher, sustainable growth rates to benefit the different sectors of activity, areas and population groups of the countries.

<sup>(\*)</sup> This box article of the 2010 *Labour Overview* was contributed by the ILO Sub-regional Office for Central America, Haiti, Panama and the Dominican Republic.

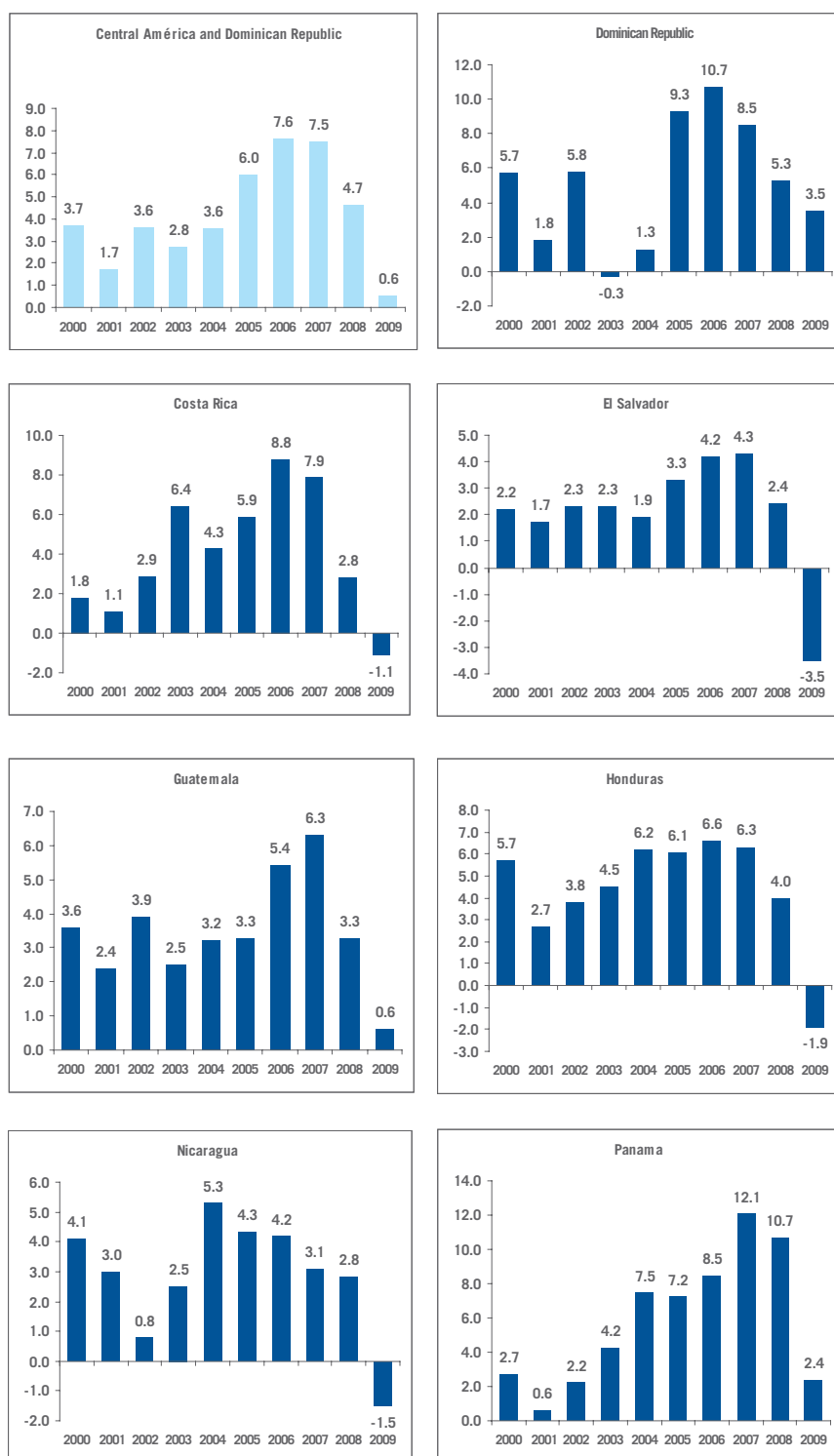
Advances and challenges were also observed in other dimensions of decent work, such as social security coverage, unemployment and underemployment rates and other indicators of quality of labour-market insertion and decent work conditions. The biggest challenge is to recognize the magnitude of these gaps in decent work and identify their causes. It is then essential to continue to engage in dialogue and

develop concerted policies and actions to close gaps in the short, medium and long term.

### Progress and Challenges of Decent Work in the Sub-region

During the first eight years of this decade, Central America and the Dominican Republic made advances

FIGURE 1



Central America and the Dominican Republic: GDP growth by country and sub-region, 2000-2009 (Percentages)

Source: ILO, based on official country information.

in decent work, although the economies as a whole experienced irregular, insufficient growth, which was heavily influenced by external events. Key advances included continued growth during 2003–2008, which was interrupted in 2008 by the economic downturn that the global crisis triggered in most countries.

In most countries of the sub-region, GDP growth accelerated in around 2004, particularly in Costa Rica (until 2007), the Dominican Republic and Panama. Signs of economic slowdown became evident in 2008 in all countries of the sub-region, and in 2009, four of the seven countries experienced negative growth (Figure 1).

The analysis of advances toward decent work should begin with the recognition that official indicators to measure progress of Target 1B include mutually dependent variables. Productivity is closely associated with the pace of GDP growth, as well as with the dynamics and composition of the employed population from a sector perspective and their occupational category as independent workers, wage earners or employers. Moreover, the proportion of poor workers not only depends on productivity conditions of the economy, business or activity of these workers, but also on the quality of their labour-market insertion and prevailing labour conditions.

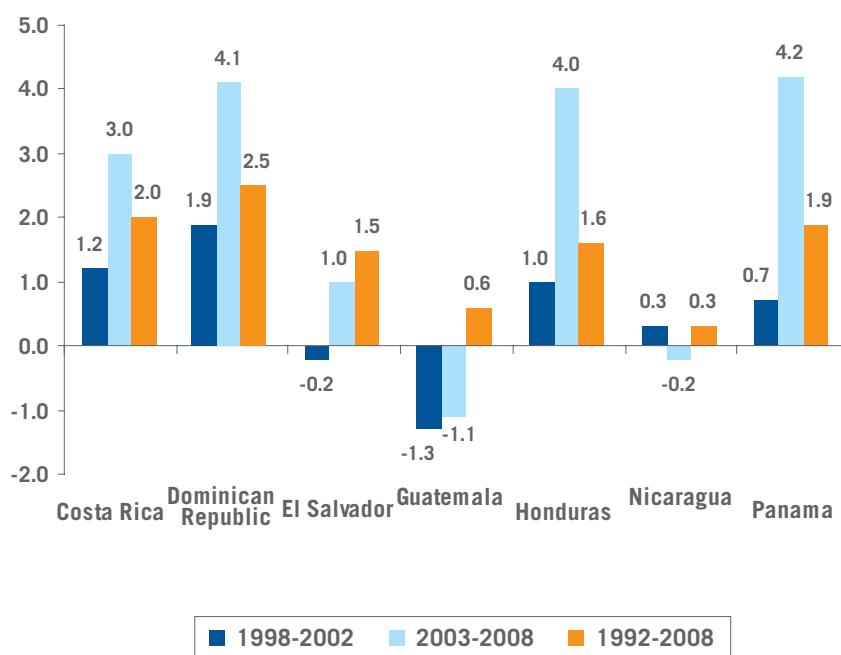
Trends in indicators associated with Target 1B are described and analyzed below, as are complementary indicators on different dimensions of decent work in the countries of the sub-region.

First, it should be noted that the irregular GDP growth over time was accompanied by job creation and a change in **productivity** that reflected the trend of the economic cycle. Thus, in most of the countries of the sub-region, with the exception of Guatemala and Nicaragua, productivity increased during 2003–2008 as compared with 1999–2002. Panama, the Dominican Republic and Honduras had the highest productivity averages, in that order. Over the long term (1992–2008), with the exception of Guatemala and Nicaragua, the countries of the sub-region recorded an increase in productivity above 1.5% (Figure 2).

Strong GDP growth in many countries of the sub-region led to increased employment opportunities for the population, which were reflected in the increase in **employment-to-population ratios**, especially in the most dynamic economies. Panama recorded the highest increase in the employment-to-population ratio, followed by Costa Rica and El Salvador. By contrast, the employment-to-population ratio contracted in Nicaragua and Honduras, reflecting the more limited opportunities in those countries. These changes affected the sexes equally, although the employment-to-population ratio among men continues to be almost double of that among women in most of the countries, a gender gap that puts women at a disadvantage in terms of employment opportunities (Figure 3).

In 2009, the employment-to-population ratio declined in most of the countries owing to the global crisis, which slowed economic growth and weakened

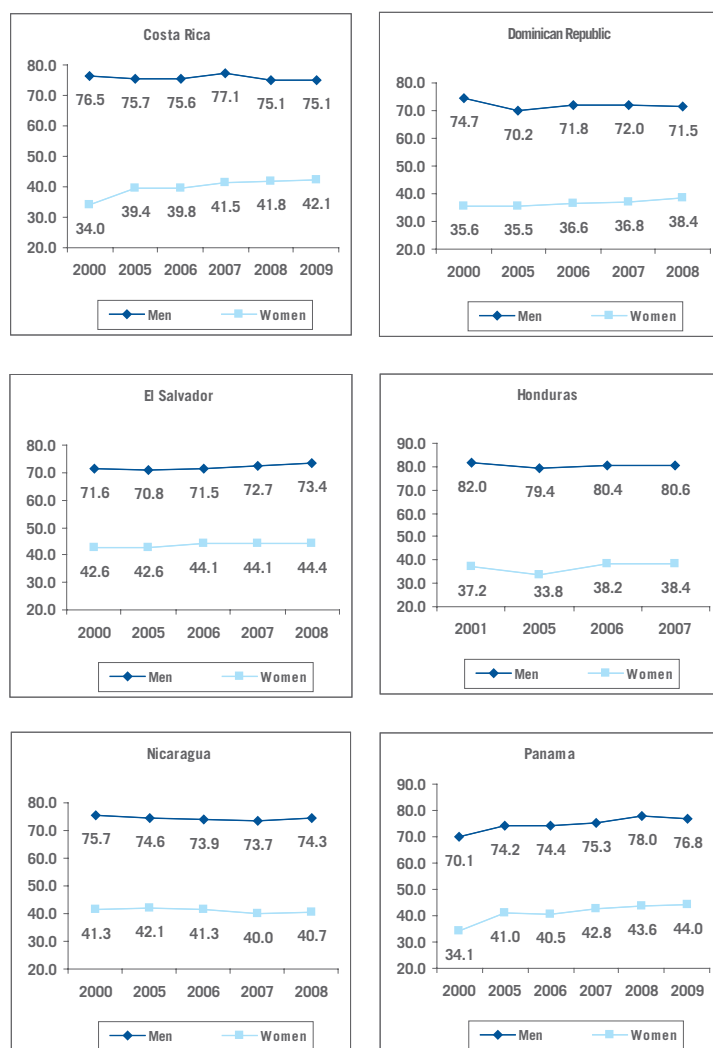
FIGURE 2



### Central America and the Dominican Republic: GDP per person employed, 1998-2008 (Percentages)

Source: United Nations (2010): Achieving the Millennium Development Goals with equality in Latin America and the Caribbean: Progress and challenges.

FIGURE 3



### Central America and the Dominican Republic: Employment-to-population ratio, by sex and country, 2000 - 2009 (Percentages)

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

labour force demand, particularly for wage and salaried employment.

The proportion of **vulnerable workers** (own-account workers and family workers) varied by country and reflected economic growth and productivity trends in the sub-region. Costa Rica was the only country where a clear downward trend was observed in the share of vulnerable workers in the total employed population between 2000 and 2008. By contrast, the proportion of vulnerable workers increased in two countries (the Dominican Republic and Honduras) during the same period.

In El Salvador and Panama, the proportion of vulnerable workers increased between 2000 and 2005 to subsequently diminish between 2005 and 2008, when economic growth accelerated. In Nicaragua, this indicator fell between 2000 and 2005 but then increased between 2005 and 2008.

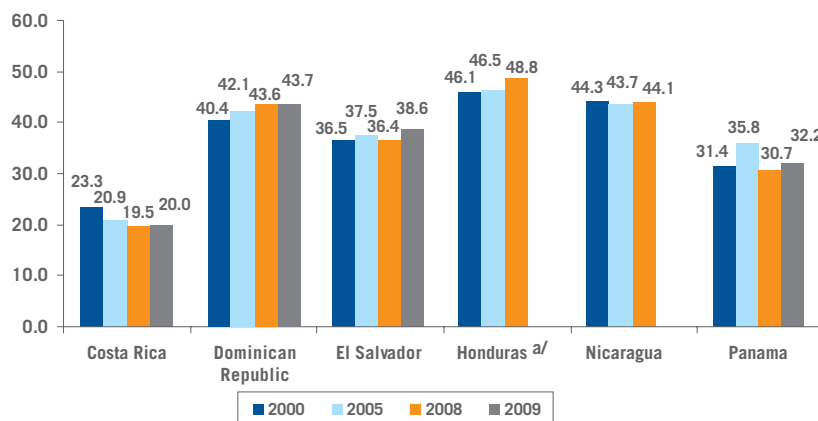
After the economic slowdown began in the countries in the second semester of 2008, the rate of own-account and family workers increased in 2009 in

all countries with available information. This trend reflected the weakening of demand for wage and salaried employment (Figure 4).

The fourth official indicator to monitor Target 1B is the proportion of **employed people who are poor**, which in this case is calculated as the share of the employed population that lives in poor and extremely poor households. Available data indicate that the countries of the sub-region experienced a decrease in the incidence of poverty and extreme poverty in the employed population over the long term (1990-2008). This trend was observed during 2002-2008 in all countries except the Dominican Republic and Guatemala, which recorded a slight increase, particularly in the proportion of workers whose household incomes did not cover the cost of a food basket (extreme poverty) (Figure 5).

Costa Rica, Panama and the Dominican Republic had the lowest rates of poor workers in the sub-region, in that order. Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua continue to record high poverty rates, which represent

FIGURE 4

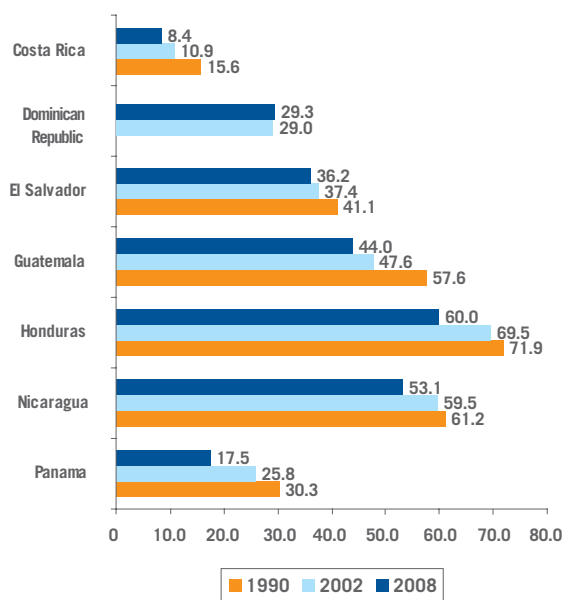


**Central America and the Dominican Republic: Proportion of the employed population aged 15 and over that are own-account workers and family workers, by country, 2000, 2005, 2008 and 2009 (Percentages)**

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

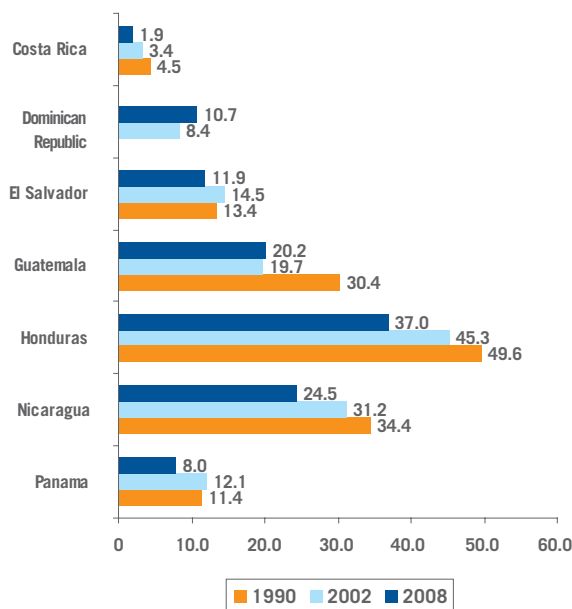
a/ Corresponds to the years 2001, 2005 and 2007.

FIGURE 5



**Central America and the Dominican Republic:**

**Workers in poor households, national total by country Circa 1990, 2002 and 2008 (Percentages)**



**Central America and the Dominican Republic: Workers in extremely poor households, national total by country**

**Circa 1990, 2002 and 2008 (Percentages)**

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), based on information from household surveys of the countries.

a major challenge for employment and decent work policies.

At just five years before the established deadline to achieve the target (2015), only Costa Rica has managed to reduce by half the extreme poverty rate recorded in 1990. The rest of the countries must make an extraordinary effort since most have met less than 50% of that target.

To monitor progress in decent work, in addition to the four official indicators, other useful indicators include those on employment opportunities, quality of labour-market insertion and access to fundamental principles and rights at work.

A key indicator of access to employment is the unemployment rate, which, except for the Dominican Republic<sup>1</sup>, is relatively low in the sub-region overall and in the reference period was decreasing in most of the countries until 2008, when the global crisis ended the downward trend. In addition, except for in El Salvador and Honduras, women tend to have higher unemployment rates than men, reflecting the gender gap persisting in access to employment opportunities in some countries.

Youth continue to be the age group most affected by unemployment, with rates that almost double

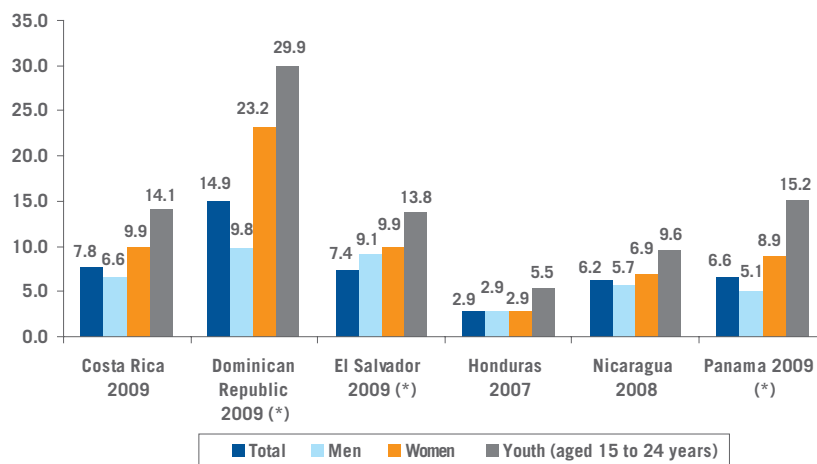
the national average in most of the countries (Figure 6).

The labour precariousness of a large share of the labour force, which only finds employment in the informal economy—the main manifestation of the decent work deficit and labour underutilization—explains the relatively low unemployment rates in most of the countries of the sub-region. In other words, the main problem of labour underutilization is not unemployment but time-related underemployment (due to insufficient hours of work) or low productivity and informal employment, or employment without social protection in formal enterprises.

In some countries, such as El Salvador and Nicaragua, time-related underemployment is especially high, at more than 10% of the labour force. However, in most of the countries of the sub-region, this type of underemployment declined during the period under study.

Disaggregated by sex, underemployment is significantly higher among women in most countries of the sub-region, with the exception of Panama. Similarly, the time-related underemployment rate is higher among youth than among the total employed population (Figures 7 and 8).

FIGURE 6



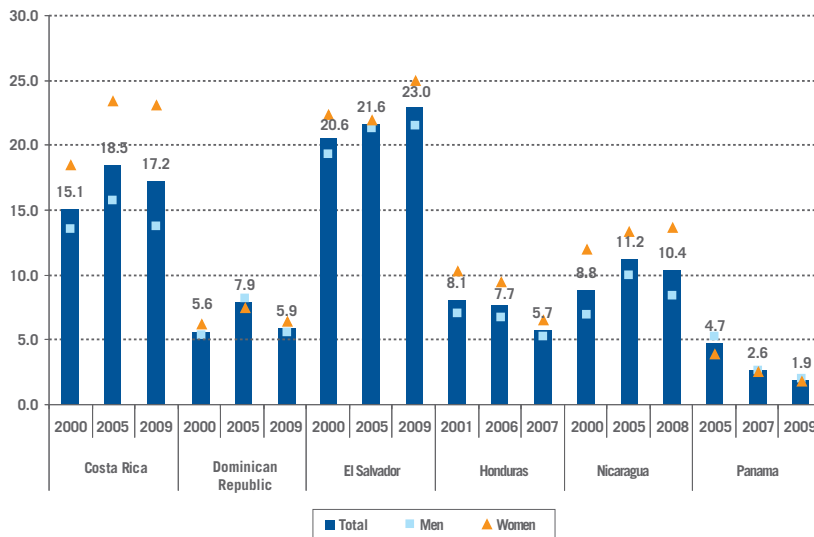
(\*) Includes hidden unemployment

### Central America and the Dominican Republic: Total unemployment rate, by sex and youth aged 15 and older, by country, circa 2009 (Percentages)

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

<sup>1</sup> In the Dominican Republic, El Salvador and Panama, a flexible definition of unemployment is used, which differs from the standard definition. This definition includes unemployed people who did not seek employment in the reference week because they believe they had valid reasons to be discouraged and they were available (hidden unemployment). Although countries use different definitions and methodologies to measure unemployment, in the case of the Dominican Republic, hidden unemployment tends to be overestimated in part owing to the application of more criteria considered valid for not seeking employment than those used in other countries.

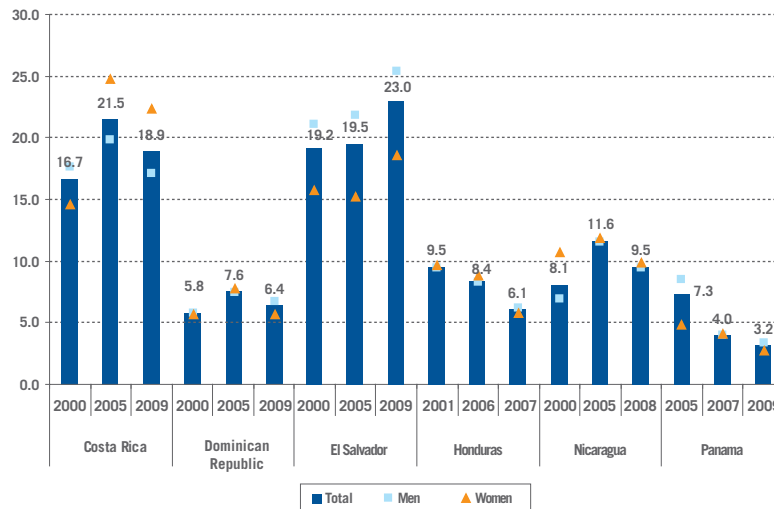
FIGURE 7



**Central America and the Dominican Republic: Time-related underemployment, by country, total and by sex, circa 2000 and 2009 (Percentages)**

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

FIGURE 8



**Central America and the Dominican Republic: Time-related underemployment of youth aged 15 to 24 years, by country and sex, circa 2000 and 2009 (Percentages)**

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

In most of the countries of the sub-region, household surveys do not permit an appropriate application of the definition of the informal sector, as established at the Fifteenth International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS). However, this sector can be roughly estimated using the indicator of vulnerable workers analyzed above, which corresponds to own-account workers and family workers. These people work in microenterprises, which are not generally registered or have no accounting system and thus approximate the requirements for being defined as the informal sector. Using this approximate definition, available figures indicate that the proportion of vulnerable workers ranges from a fifth of the total employed population in Costa Rica to 44% in Nicaragua. These figures also reflect the proportion of workers who work in conditions of lower productivity in the countries (Figure 4).

From a gender perspective, in four of the six countries of the sub-region with available information, the rate

of vulnerable employment is higher among women than among men. In one of these countries (El Salvador), women's labour-market insertion is much more precarious than that of men (in 2008, 45.3% of the total female employed population was employed as own-account and family workers, as compared with 30.0% for men).

Similarly, an approximation of total informal employment (including the informal sector and informal employment in formal enterprises) is the proportion of workers who do not contribute to social security. In four countries of the sub-region with available information, wide gaps and pending challenges remain in terms of social security coverage, despite some progress recorded for this indicator in 2000 and 2008. In Costa Rica, the country in the sub-region with the highest rate of social security coverage, 31% of the employed population does not contribute to social security; in El Salvador and Nicaragua, a very large share of the



labour force, ranging from approximately two-thirds to three-fourths of the employment population, does not have social security coverage.

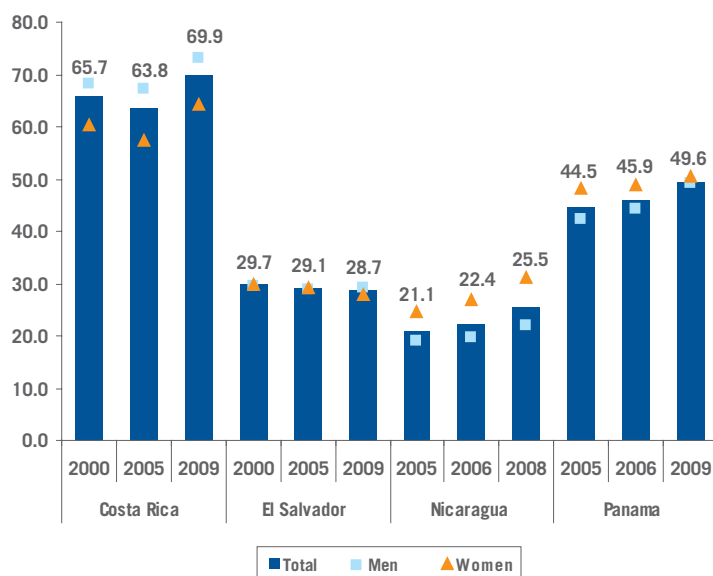
In two of the four countries with available information (Costa Rica and El Salvador), gender gaps unfavourable to women persist, whereas in Nicaragua and Panama, the rate of social security coverage among women is slightly higher than that among men.

The deficit in social security coverage is higher among youth, which confirms their disadvantage in access to quality employment opportunities and the right to social security as part of the labour relationship (Figures 9 and 10).

A key challenge related to the quality of labour-market insertion is the educational level of workers, an area where enormous gaps are observed. These include the high proportion of the labour force in the sub-region that only has a primary education (six or fewer years of schooling), which ranges from one-third to two-thirds of the labour force, depending on the country. This group of workers has a high illiteracy rate. Although countries of the sub-region have made significant strides in literacy indicators over the past decade, there are countries in which 10 of every 100 workers cannot read or write.

The low educational level of the labour force limits quality labour-market insertion and reduces the

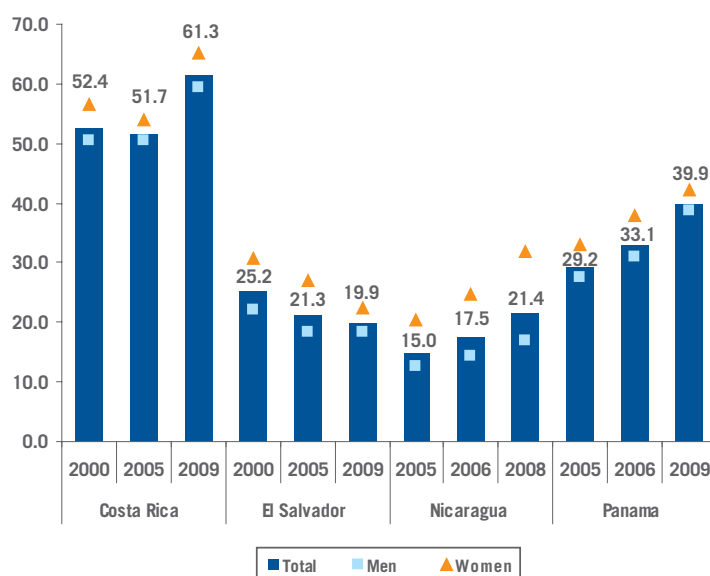
FIGURE 9



**Central America (4 countries): Employed population aged 15 years and over that contributes to social security, by country, 2000, 2005 and 2009 (Percentages)**

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

FIGURE 10



**Central America (4 countries): Employed population aged 15 to 24 years that contributes to social security, by country and sex, 2000, 2005 and 2009 (Percentages)**

Fuente: OIT con base en estimaciones de encuestas de hogares de los países.

possibilities for contributing to increasing productivity in the different economic activities, thus restricting access to higher income, wages and improved decent work conditions.

The advances and challenges with respect to the fundamental principles and rights at work are more difficult to measure. Reliability problems affect estimates and records on unionization and collective bargaining, as well as in relation to the measurement of child labour and forced or compulsory labour.

With respect to conditions of gender equality, available statistics and indicators reveal that gaps persist, which are unfavourable to women in terms of access to employment opportunities. These gaps are reflected in the continuance of significant differences in labour participation rates and employment-to-population ratios among women as compared with men in all countries of the sub-region.

Women tend to have a more precarious labour-market insertion in the categories of vulnerable employment, such as own-account and family workers, in addition to domestic service employment, which partly explains the differences in wages and income observed between female and male workers.

A key challenge in the sub-region is associated with the purchasing power of wages and income, a variable that is highly influenced by trends in productivity of the economy, enterprises and businesses, as well as by trends in inflation and institutional variables such as minimum wage policies.

With respect to inflation, trends in the consumer price index varied by country during the period analyzed. Inflationary pressure was highest in Nicaragua (2005-2008) and Costa Rica (2004-2008), whereas it peaked earlier (2003-2004) in the Dominican Republic. All countries faced rising prices in 2008, although increases slowed in 2009, which favoured real remunerations (Table 1).

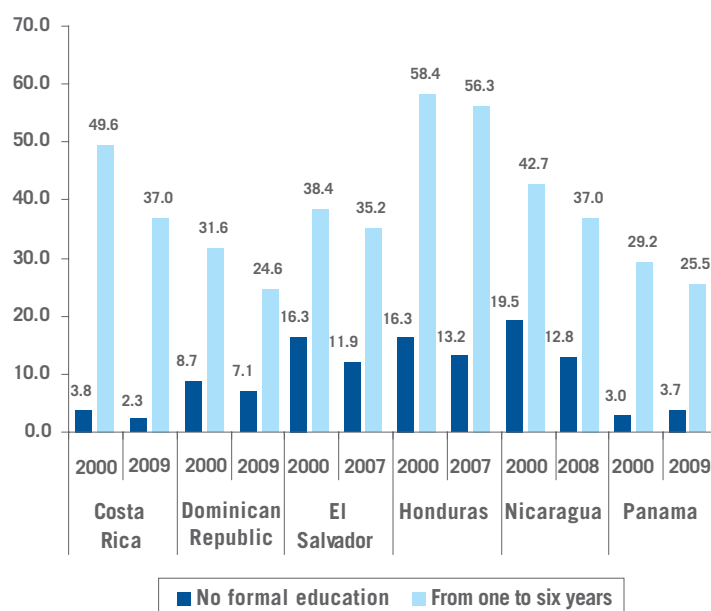
TABLE 1

**Central America and the Dominican Republic: Change in the consumer price index, 2001 - 2009**  
(Annual percentage change).

Year / country	Costa Rica	Dominican Republic	El Salvador	Guatemala	Honduras	Nicaragua	Panama
2001	11.3	8.9	3.7	7.3	9.7	7.3	0.3
2002	9.2	5.2	1.9	8.1	7.7	4.0	1.0
2003	9.4	27.4	2.1	5.6	7.7	5.2	0.1
2004	12.3	51.7	4.5	7.6	8.1	8.4	0.4
2005	13.8	4.0	4.7	9.1	8.8	9.4	2.9
2006	11.5	7.6	4.0	6.6	5.6	10.0	2.4
2007	9.4	6.1	4.6	6.8	6.9	10.7	4.2
2008	13.4	10.6	7.3	11.4	11.4	19.6	8.8
2009	7.8	1.4	0.5	1.9	5.5	3.0	2.2

Source: ILO, based on official country information.

FIGURE 11



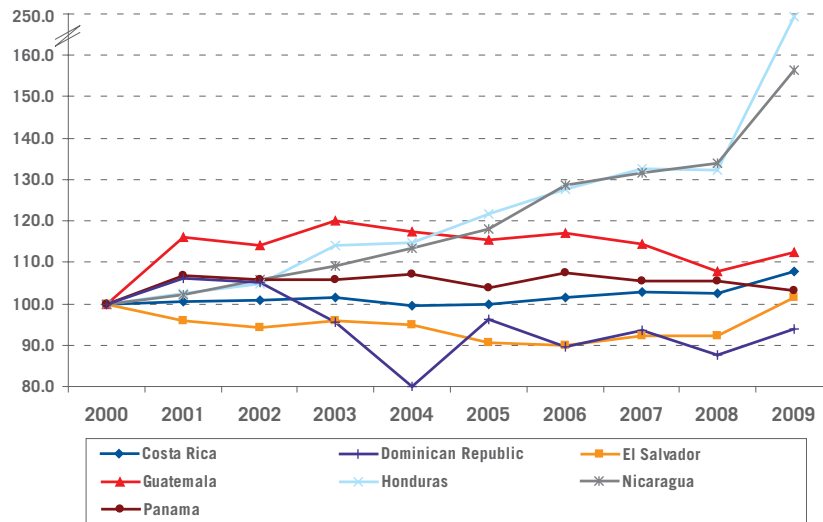
**Central America and the Dominican Republic: Labour force aged 15 and over, with no formal education and with six or fewer years of schooling, 2000 and 2009 (Percentages)**

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

Real minimum wages responded to the frequency and increase in nominal minimum wages (active character of wage policies), with important gains in

Honduras and Nicaragua. In the Dominican Republic, this indicator decreased as a result of inflation (Figure 11)

FIGURE 12



**Central America and the Dominican Republic: Real minimum wage index, 2000 - 2009 (Index 2000 = 100)**

Source: ILO, based on official country information.

Given that the legal minimum wage is a reference wage paid to workers entering the labour market for the first time and to the least skilled workers, an important public policy challenge is to achieve progress in productivity and qualification and skill levels to enable the great majority of workers to earn remunerations considerably above the minimum wage.

In accordance with the principles and objectives to defend the purchasing power of minimum wages in each country, wage policies should strive to improve purchasing power based on rising productivity by stimulating productive efforts

through comprehensive policies (macroeconomic, microeconomic and mesoeconomic). Likewise, it is necessary to guarantee effective compliance with the minimum wage adopted in the different productive activities and regions, in both the public and private sectors.

From the standpoint of the fundamental principles and rights at work, another key challenge is to address the high rate of child labour in the countries of the sub-region. The most recent estimates range from 6.5% in El Salvador (2008) to 14.4% in Guatemala (2006) for the population aged 5 to 14 years (Table 2).

TABLE 2

**Central America and the Dominican Republic: Number and rate of child and adolescent work, by age group and country.**

Country	Year	5 to 14 years		15 to 17 years		5 to 17 years	
		Persons	Rate (%)	Persons	Rate (%)	Persons	Rate (%)
Costa Rica	2002	49,229	5.9	64,294	23.5	113,523	10.2
Dominican Republic	2000	280,785	14.5	155,517	32.6	436,302	18.1
El Salvador	2008	95,407	6.5	95,118	22.9	190,525	10.2
Guatemala	2006	528,003	14.4	438,358	47.2	966,361	21.0
Honduras	2009	170,046	8.4	221,150	34.9	391,195	14.7
Nicaragua	2005	115,729	8.1	123,099	32.4	238,827	13.2
Panama	2008	47,963	7.3	41,804	23.9	89,767	10.8

Source: ILO, International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour.

A variety of economic and social factors linked to the incidence of poverty in households of Central America and the Dominican Republic accounts for the high rate of child labour, and its scale reflects the lack of decent work affecting the labour force in the countries. Tackling child labour requires integrated policies to address the dynamics of

economic growth and to ensure that workers enter the market under improved decent work conditions. In this regard, most of the countries of the sub-region have increased efforts to measure child labour, which will permit more complete, updated information for designing policies and programmes.

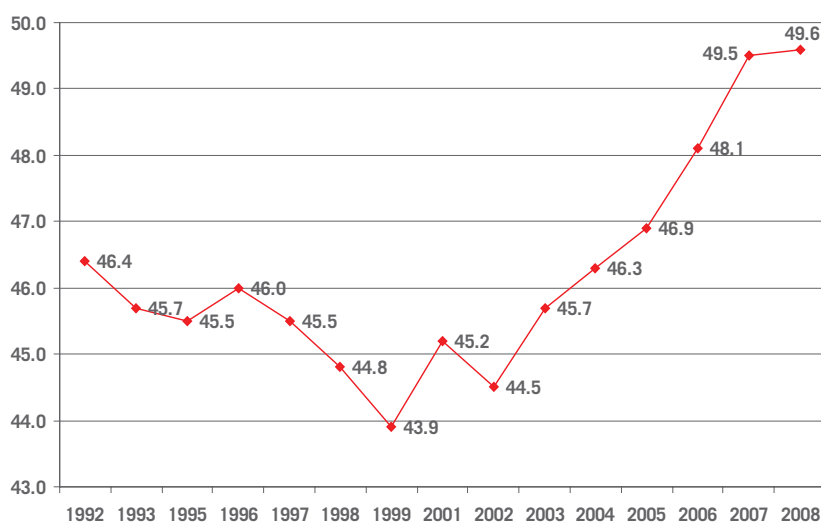
## Understanding the growth in formal employment in Brazil<sup>1</sup>

Brazil's labour market performed well in the 2000s, with strong rates of job creation and formal job growth outpacing informal job growth by a three-to-one ratio. These results contrast with the poor performance of the 1990s, which registered a decline in the formality rate from 46.4% in 1992 to 43.9% in 1999, a trend that was reversed in the following decade, when an expansion of formality was observed, reaching 49.6% in 2008 (Figure 1).

This feature article uses definitions of formality and informality based on characteristics related to

employment in Brazil, that is, they are defined in terms of whether or not the job is formally registered (*carteira de trabalho*) and includes social security (*previdência social*). According to this definition, formal employment includes private salaried workers and domestic workers with signed labour cards, public servants and the military, as well as employers and self-employed workers who contribute to the social security system. Informal employment incorporates workers of the private sector and domestic workers without a signed labour card, self-employed workers and employers who do not contribute to the social security system, as well as contributing family workers and workers who produce goods exclusively for their own consumption.

FIGURE 1



### Share of formal employment in Brazil, 1992-2008 (Percentages)

Source: ILO-Brasilia, based on IBGE/PNAD.

Note: Workers aged 16 years and older. Does not include the rural areas of the northern states, with the exception of Tocantins. The PNAD survey was not undertaken in 1994 or 2000.

Table 1 shows the dramatic difference in the growth of formal and informal jobs in the 1990s and 2000s. Between 1992 and 1999, annual formal job growth was 1.3% whereas informal jobs grew at a rate of 3.0% annually. In the second period, 1999-2008, the patterns were reversed. Formal jobs grew at an annual rate of 5.3% whereas informal job creation did so at 1.7% annually.

The rise in formality rates in the 2000s was driven principally by an increase in the percentage of salaried workers with a signed labour card, which made up 34.5% of the total employed population in 2008. Between 1999 and 2008, this category grew at

an average annual rate of 6.6%, compared with 0.7% annually between 1992 and 1999. In comparison, between 1992 and 1999, the category of informal salaried workers grew annually by 3.3%, whereas the rate of growth fell to 2.0% annually during the second period.

Self-employed workers account for nearly 21% of the labour force, of whom only one of every seven contributes to the social security system. Job growth in this category slowed in the second period and there was also a slight improvement in the number of self-employed workers who contributed to the social security system, though still at a low annual growth rate of 0.6% in the second period. The more important trend was the sharp decline among non-contributing self-employed workers, where job growth fell from a 3.9% annual rate between 1992 and 1999 to 1.3% annually between 1999 and 2008.

<sup>1</sup> This box article was contributed by Janine Berg of the ILO Office in Brazil. It is based on the chapter "Laws or Luck? Understanding Rising Formality in Brazil in the 2000s" in the upcoming *Regulating for Decent Work: New directions in labour market regulations*, Sangheon Lee and Deirdre McCann (eds.), Geneva and Basingstoke, ILO and Palgrave Macmillan.

An interesting trend that deviates from the pattern of other job categories is the strong growth of formal job creation among domestic workers (those who have a signed labour card) during the 1992-

1999 period. The rate of formal job creation among domestic workers was 11.7% annually whereas job growth among informal domestic workers was 1.6% annually. During 1999-2008, formal job growth among

TABLE 1

**Brazil: Annual employment growth by job category, 1992 - 1999, 1999 - 2008 and 2008.**  
(Percentages)

Formal and Informal Occupational Categories	Annual growth, 1992-1999 (%)	Annual growth, 1999-2008 (%)	Percentage of occupied workers, 2008 (%)
<b>Total formal</b>	<b>1.3</b>	<b>5.3</b>	<b>49.6</b>
Salaried, private-sector workers with a signed labour card	0.7	6.6	34.5
Government workers, including military	3.2	3.6	7.7
Domestic workers with a signed labour card	11.7	3.4	2.0
Self-employed workers who contribute to the social security system	-0.6	0.6	3.0
Employers who contribute to the social security system	2.0	3.2	2.4
<b>Total informal</b>	<b>3.0</b>	<b>1.7</b>	<b>50.4</b>
Salaried, private-sector workers without a signed labour card	3.3	2.0	17.5
Domestic workers without a signed labour card	1.6	2.8	5.5
Non-contributing, self-employed workers	3.9	1.3	17.7
Non-contributing employers	6.2	5.8	2.1
Contributing family workers	-0.4	-2.6	3.6
Work for own consumption and production	-0.2	2.7	4.0
<b>Total formal and informal</b>	<b>2.2</b>	<b>4.2</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: ILO-Brasilia, based on IBGE/PNAD.

domestic workers still outpaced informal job growth, at 3.4% annually versus 2.8%. Still, by 2008, only 27% of domestic workers had formal jobs.

### What Explains the Rise in Formalization?

A variety of economic and social factors, as well as policy interventions, explain the rise in formalization in Brazil in the 2000s. While macroeconomic policies have increased the demand for workers in formal occupations, demographic shifts and education

policies have reduced the supply of youths in the labour market—who typically occupy precarious jobs—and micro-level policy interventions have altered the behaviour of firms and employers, resulting in greater formalization. These include the introduction of the SIMPLES law, which simplified and lowered taxes for small and medium-sized enterprises, improved labour inspection and created greater legal awareness among workers, which especially benefitted domestic workers.<sup>2</sup>

**(1) Increased demand for formal workers.** There are two favourable aspects about macroeconomic performance in the 2000s when compared with the 1990s that aided the growth of formal jobs. These

<sup>2</sup> Other hypotheses to explain the rise in formalization can be found in Cardoso (2007), Baltar et al. (2006) and Chahad and Macedo (2003).

are: (i) the growth in exports, aided by the boom in commodities as well as the more competitive exchange rate, and (ii) an increase in internal demand, driven by a more inclusive pattern of growth and the emergence of a sizeable middle class.

In the early 1990s, Brazil liberalized trade and capital inflows, which led to a steady appreciation of the currency during the decade that was not reversed until the devaluation in January 1999. An incipient liberalization coupled with an overvalued currency resulted in a fall in domestic production and a negative trade balance between 1995 and 2000. Jobs were lost. Data from administrative records on formal employment show that between 1990 and 1999, there was an average annual job loss of 2.9% in the mining sector, 8.0% in the agriculture and fishing sectors and 1.9% in the manufacturing sector.<sup>3</sup> Indeed, during the 1990s, only the non-tradable sectors (construction, commerce, services and public administration) experienced positive, net formal job growth.

Nevertheless, following the devaluation of the real in 1999 and until 2005, the real exchange rate remained highly competitive, boosting exports and protecting domestic industries from import competition. The Brazilian labour market benefited as new jobs were created, particularly in the export sector, where exports grew by 80% between 2000 and 2008, but also in the import-competing manufacturing sector. Between 2000 and 2008, formal jobs grew at an annual rate of 8.1% in the mining sector, 5.2% in the manufacturing industry and 3.6% in the agriculture and fishing sector.

For an emerging economy such as Brazil, economic growth during the 1990s and 2000s has not been exceptionally robust. Comparing the two periods, growth was higher in 1999-2008 (4.2%) than in 1992-1999 (3.2%).

Although differences in growth rates in the two decades are not large enough to explain the divergence in labour market performance, growth was inclusive in the second period. In 1992, the Gini coefficient<sup>4</sup> for Brazil was 0.58, rising to 0.59 in 1999. In the 2000s, there has been a steady improvement in distribution, leading to a reduction in the Gini

coefficient to 0.54 in 2008, as reflected in the better distribution of the benefits of economic growth. The redistribution is principally due to the doubling of the minimum wage during the 2000s but also to the creation and expansion of the *Bolsa Família* conditional cash transfer programme in 2003 as well as the expansion of the rural pension and the *Benefício de Prestação Continuada* (BPC) social assistance programme.

The BPC is a social assistance programme that provides benefits equivalent to the monthly minimum wage to persons aged 65 or older, or to persons of any age who are unable to work due to disability, whose per capita household income is less than one-quarter of the minimum wage (the extreme poverty line). In 2009, 1.5 million elderly and 1.6 million disabled households received benefits through the BPC. The rural pension, which represents 30% of the benefits paid under the general pension system, covers approximately 8.2 million individuals. For 2010, this amounts to a transfer of approximately R\$50 billion (1.6% of GDP) to rural areas of the country that are typically the neediest. The *Bolsa Família* programme was created in 2003 and by 2009, 12.4 million families were receiving an average monthly benefit of R\$ 95 (US\$ 53). The benefits received from these social policies have been important for boosting demand for durable and non-durable goods, stimulating employment throughout the production chain, in manufacturing and distribution, as well as retail trade in supermarkets and hypermarkets, where there are more formal jobs.

**(2) Reduced labour supply.** Brazil is in the process of demographic transition from a country of high fertility rates and a large youth population to one of low fertility rates and an ageing population. In 1980-1985, the fertility rate was 3.8 births per woman, falling to 2.3 in 2005-2010 (ECLAC, 2009). Life expectancy between 1980 and 2008 increased from 62.7 years to 72.5 years. The demographic transition that Brazil is undergoing meant that during the 2000s, 300,000 fewer youths (aged 15-24) entered the labour market as compared with the previous decade (Bercovich, 2005). Indeed, between 2005 and 2008, based on PNAD data, there was an absolute reduction of 1.45 million among the population aged 15 to 24, reducing the share of youths in the total population from 18.6% to 17.7%. The reduction has alleviated pressure on the labour market of new entrants, reducing growth in precarious work.

In addition, the number of students aged 15 to 17 has increased. In 1992, a shockingly high 40.3% of youths in this age group did not attend school. A

<sup>3</sup> The RAIS (Relação Anual de Informações Sociais) is a registry of formal establishments and jobs, administered by the Brazilian Ministry of Labour.

<sup>4</sup> The Gini coefficient measures inequality of income distribution in a country, with values ranging from 0.0 to 1.0. The closer the Gini coefficient is to 0, the higher the level of equality whereas the closer it is to 1, the greater the level of inequality.

concerted policy effort to increase secondary school enrolment rates resulted in a marked improvement in this indicator. By 1999, only 21.5% of youths aged 15 to 17 did not attend school and the percentage was further reduced to 17.7% by 2007. The *Bolsa Familia* programme has contributed to the goal of increasing school enrolment rates of youths by requiring that children up to the age of 17 attend school in order for their families to receive the cash benefit. As a result of these policies and the improved labour market conditions, the number of youths aged 15 to 17 who were not economically active increased from 57% in 1999 to 65% in 2008. Furthermore, longer life expectancy and an adjustment in the laws governing eligibility for retirement benefits meant that an increased number of workers in their fifties have continued in the labour force.

**(3) The SIMPLES law.** In 1996, the government instituted a new system of tax exemption and simplification for small and micro enterprises, known as the SIMPLES law. The original ceiling set for qualification in the programme was gross annual sales of R\$ 720,000. In 1998, the ceiling was raised to R\$ 1.2 million; and in 2005, it was doubled to R\$ 2.4 million (or approximately US\$ 1.3 million).

The SIMPLES law has a progressive tax structure, which taxes companies at differentiated but reduced rates, according to their gross sales. Under the SIMPLES law, firms pay a reduced income tax, they are exempted from contributing to the *Sistema S*, a network of training agencies run by employers' organizations, and the firm's contribution to the social security system is also reduced through the *PIS/Pasep* (Social Integration Programme) and the *Cofins* taxes. The overall tax burden of firms under the SIMPLES programme is reduced by up to 8% of annual revenue (Monteiro and Assunção, 2006). However, firms must still make the necessary social security contributions for each employee and pay the Guarantee for Time of Service (FGTS).

Analysis of the SIMPLES law on the formalization of firms reveals that it has boosted formality. It is estimated that the law contributed to the formalization of close to 500,000 microenterprises during 2000-2005, accounting for two million jobs (Delgado et al, 2007). During the period studied, annual GDP growth was 2.9%, yet there was a 7%

annual increase in businesses registered under the SIMPLES law. In their analysis, the authors conclude that "without the establishment of the SIMPLES, it is unlikely that the majority of the new establishments created or which already existed informally would have joined the conventional tax and social security system" (Delgado et al., 2007, p.39).

**(4) Improved labour inspection and new approaches to formalization.** Improvements in how inspection is undertaken in Brazil have aided the increase in formality. Improved labour inspection in Brazil is not due to an increase in the number of labour inspectors in the country—the number of labour inspectors has fluctuated at about the 3,000 mark since 1990—rather, it is due to changes in the incentive structure as well as new methods for meeting inspection targets, introduced since the mid-1990s.

There have been two significant trends. The first was the introduction in the mid-1990s of a bonus system by which a substantial percentage of inspectors' salaries were tied to individual performance targets as well the total performance of the labour inspectorate. The new system made explicit the goal of formalizing workers, the collection of employer contributions to the FGTS fund as well as the number of workers covered in inspection. The second approach has been the development of teams of inspectors dedicated to tackling specific problems, usually tied to a particular sector. The inspectors who comprise the team are not evaluated by individual performance targets, but rather through team progress reports that demonstrate their ability to address sector problems (Pires, 2009). The objective is not merely to inspect and sanction, but rather to find ways to work with firms so that they can address the problem at hand. Working in parallel, the two approaches have had an important impact on the success of labour inspection in the country. As Figure 2 demonstrates, between 1996 and 2008, the number of workers registered as a result of inspection increased from 268,000 to 669,000.

**(5) Greater legal awareness – The case of domestic workers.** Despite the overall increase in informality in the 1990s, domestic workers experienced a notable increase in their rate of formalization during this decade. In 1992, according to PNAD data, only 19.4% of domestic workers had a signed labour card. By 1999, there had been a 34% increase in the rate of formalization, with the number of registered domestic workers rising to 26.0%. Formalization continued to increase during the 2000s, but at a much lower rate, reaching a peak of 28.1% in 2007, only to fall to 26.8% in 2008<sup>5</sup> (Figure 3).

<sup>5</sup> The fall in formality among domestic workers in 2008 is due in part to the increase in workers working on a daily schedule as opposed to full-time workers, who receive a monthly salary and whose employers must pay social security contributions.

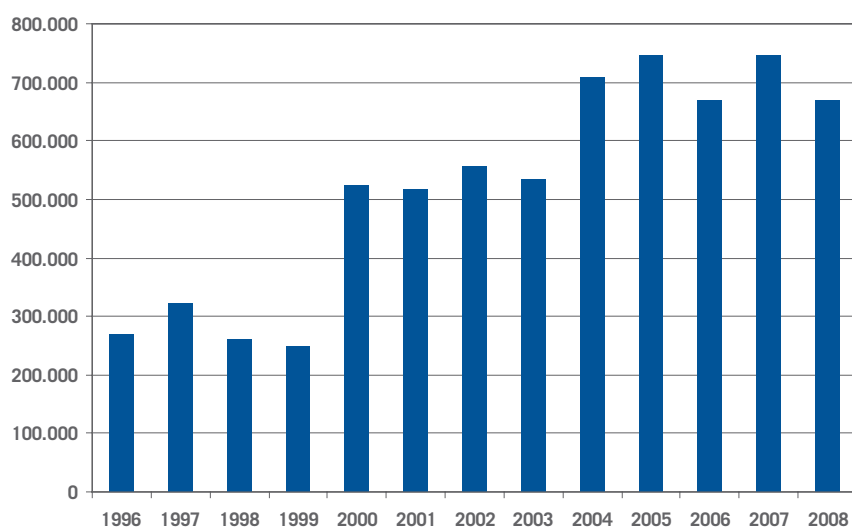


Domestic workers have been excluded historically from labour legislation in Brazil. Consolidation of the 1943 Labour Laws (CLT), which governs employment relationships, specifies in Article 7 that the rights do not apply to domestic workers. Similarly, the law of 1949 regulating weekly rest excludes domestic workers in its Article 5. In 1972, for the first time, Law N° 5.859 was approved, which granted domestic workers 20 days of paid vacation and made employer and domestic worker social security contributions obligatory. The Constitution of 1988 conceded even more rights to domestic workers, though at a more limited level than the rights given to other workers. Of the 34 rights given to workers, only nine were applicable to domestic workers. Nevertheless, it was

an important advance as it entitled domestic workers to a series of rights that they did not previously have. These included the right to the minimum wage, a 13th monthly salary, weekly rest, 30 days' paid vacation, maternity leave (16 weeks), advance notice of one month upon dismissal and pension. Moreover, it gave domestic workers the right to organize. Prior to the Constitution of 1988, the few workers' organizations that existed were associations, with no legal rights.

It is clear that the Constitution made the hiring of domestic workers more costly, thus it is surprising, from this perspective, that there was such a large increase in registration. Chahad and Macedo (2003) argue that the Constitution engendered greater

FIGURE 2

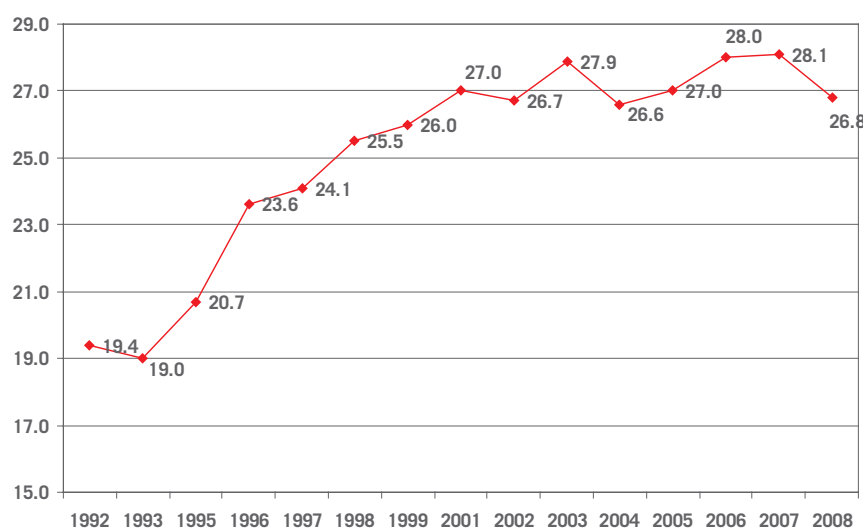


**Brazil: Number of workers registered as a result of labour inspection, 1996-2008**

Source: Labour Inspection Secretariat, Ministry of Labour.

Note: The Secretariat's database begins in 1996.

FIGURE 3



**Brazil: Percentage of registered domestic workers, 1992-2008**

Source: ILO-Brasilia, based on PNAD.

respect for the law on the part of employers and made them more prudent, and that domestic workers were in a better position to exercise their rights, which explains the increase in lawsuits filed by domestic workers, some of which received media attention. Domestic workers have demanded to be registered, and in some cases, the courts have ruled in their favour and have demanded back pay from the employer for lost benefits.<sup>6</sup>

### The Importance of Public Policies

Government policies have been instrumental in achieving the increases in labour market formality in Brazil during the 2000s. It is thus reassuring to know that the government has continued to institute laws and policies that can further extend formality. In 2006, the government passed a provisional measure, which was later converted into law, allowing employers of domestic workers to deduct the cost of social security contributions from their income that is subject to taxation. According to calculations from the Secretariat of Policies of the Ministry of Social Welfare, there are approximately 475,000 domestic workers who could benefit from this policy, which corresponds to roughly 20% of informal domestic workers (Cabanas Guimarães, 2008).

In June 2009, the Brazilian government launched the Individual Entrepreneur Law, which facilitates the registration of single-employee businesses and reduces the cost of social security contributions. Under the new law, microentrepreneurs with annual revenues below R\$36,000 per year can legally register their business and obtain a tax identification number. They are exempt from federal taxes, having only to pay only social security contributions equivalent to 11% of the minimum wage (or R\$52 per month in 2010), which entitles them to pension, invalidity and maternity benefits.

The experience of Brazil in the 1990s and 2000s highlights the pivotal role of government policy in ensuring that workers reap the gains from economic growth. Formal workers in Brazil enjoy important benefits and protections—pension, sickness, disability and death benefits, paid annual leave, parental leave, restrictions on working hours and a guaranteed minimum wage—that informal workers are not guaranteed and must continuously negotiate with their employers. Even then, they are excluded from social security benefits, which in the case of

sickness, disability or death can easily mean financial ruin for families. It is thus extremely welcome that more workers are employed formally and that measures have been taken to extend social security benefits to the self-employed.

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<sup>6</sup> See, for example, "Diarista em um dia na semana obtém reconhecimento de vínculo empregatício" (available at [http://ext02.tst.gov.br/pls/no01/NO\\_NOTICIAS.Exibe\\_Noticia?p\\_cod\\_noticia=8492&p\\_cod\\_area\\_noticia=ASCS&p\\_txt\\_pesquisa=%20domestico](http://ext02.tst.gov.br/pls/no01/NO_NOTICIAS.Exibe_Noticia?p_cod_noticia=8492&p_cod_area_noticia=ASCS&p_txt_pesquisa=%20domestico)).

## From crisis to economic recovery: Advances and challenges in employment policies in Latin America and the Caribbean

### Introduction

Crises form part of the economic cycles that countries experience; as such, they are recurring. Thus, analyzing their causes and responses can offer lessons that can help countries more effectively respond to future crises. The recent global financial crisis tested the countries of the region, which saw the volume and price of their exports fall, experienced a decrease in remittances and a restriction in their access to global financial markets, and registered a slowdown in foreign investments, among other contagion effects. Two years after the onset of the crisis, the region has made significant advances toward economic recovery and an incipient recuperation of its labour markets, although progress varies by country. This box article examines how the countries of the region confronted this crisis, the advances observed and current challenges.

### From the Global Financial Crisis to the Global Jobs Pact

In industrialized countries, the first evident palpable effect on the real economy of the global financial crisis occurring in late 2008 was the sharp decline in international trade, which led to a widespread recession. In response to the crisis, these countries coordinated efforts at the macroeconomic level to re-establish confidence in the financial system and to implement fiscal stimulus policies to thwart a depression.

The crisis triggered a rapid rise in unemployment, which in turn further comprised recovery from the recession. Faced with the prospect of a prolonged global increase in unemployment, poverty and inequality, in June 2009, the International Labour Conference, with the participation of government, employers' and workers' delegates from the ILO's member states unanimously adopted the Global Jobs Pact. This Pact is an urgent call for coordinated action based on policies designed to reduce job losses resulting from the crisis and to ensure that economic recovery is accompanied by the recovery of decent work opportunities.

The crisis underscored the limitations of the prevailing growth model at the time, which overestimated the

market's capacity for self-regulation (especially in the financial area), undervalued the role of governments and diminished the dignity of work, which was perceived only as a cost factor. Industrialized countries faced the crisis with a large dose of pragmatism and developed interventions which disregarded that model. Their coordinated action managed to calm financial markets, avoided the search for individual solutions such as protectionism and moderated the magnitude of the recession. Labour market policies focusing on protecting employment and people's income contributed to that result, ensuring an active domestic market that could help fuel economic development.

In addition, the crisis generated the need to modify the focus of economic policies, placing emphasis on the generation and quality of employment to improve the quality of life of individuals. The ILO Global Jobs Pact proposes to continue down this path. The Pact constitutes a rapid, comprehensive response to address the effects of the recession and begin the subsequent recovery.

As the Director General of the ILO stated in his presentation of the Pact, the deterioration in employment threatens the fulfillment of the Millennium Development Goals because it weakens the middle classes and worsens poverty. The Global Jobs Pact stresses that recovery will not be sustainable without job creation. The key recommendation of this treaty is that people's jobs, and therefore the development of enterprises and sources of employment, must become a core objective of economic policy in the countries. To this end, the Pact recommends considering different policy options that contribute to minimizing the effects of the crisis on employment.

Moreover, it emphasizes the need to address the differing impact that recovery programmes have on women and men, and to integrate gender concerns in all measures adopted. Among other recommendations, the Pact calls for prioritizing investment in employment-intensive public infrastructure, establishing special employment programmes, increasing social protection to prevent increased poverty and protecting wages and employment in an effort to preserve domestic consumption.

These initiatives do not constitute a single formula, but rather should be viewed as a set of options that can be implemented in accordance with the different needs of each country. Each country has applied measures tailored to the specific national context since the first signs of the crisis became apparent. This article examines the main policy guidelines applied by the countries in terms of employment, social

protection and wages to confront the crisis. It also analyzes the main challenges for ensuring that the incipient economic recovery generates employment and thus makes sustainable development possible.

### **Policies Adopted by the Countries to Confront the Crisis**

The region has experienced a strong economic recovery since GDP growth slowed in 2009 (1.9%). GDP growth estimates have been raised to between 5.2% and 5.7% for the last quarter of 2010, according to the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Monetary Fund (IMF). As the section on the economic situation in this edition of the *Labour Overview* demonstrates, the economic recovery has begun to be reflected in employment. According to the ILO's *World of Work Report 2010*, Latin America is second after the Asia and Pacific region in terms of employment recovery. A combination of external, context and public policy factors made this strong recovery possible.

Just as the global financial crisis produced an abrupt decline in global trade, its reactivation occurred after the financial system recovered some calm and there was renewed stimulus for demand in the leading Asian economies. This enabled the recovery of production of several sectors in many countries. Just as the crisis originated outside the region, the recovery also partially occurred because of an external factor.

The solid macroeconomic and financial situation of Latin American and Caribbean countries largely explains the brevity of the crisis and the rapid recovery in the region. Low inflation and the healthy fiscal situation, on the one hand, and solid banking systems, reduced external debt exposure and greater accumulated reserves compared with other crises, on the other, gave governments more leeway to act and helped stem contagion from the global crisis. All of these factors, created over several years, made it possible for many countries to apply counter-cyclical fiscal and monetary policies, which initially contributed to mitigating the effects of the crisis and subsequently to driving the incipient recovery.

The counter-cyclical policies applied in the countries sought to maintain economic activity and therefore employment, as well as to extend social protection to lessen the impact of the crisis on individuals. Faced with the sharp decline in exports, it was essential to preserve employment and income of individuals to support domestic consumption.

In terms of employment, noteworthy efforts were made to increase public investment, especially employment-intensive investment, to help offset the

decline in private investment. In addition, special programmes were implemented to promote job retention in private enterprises. These programmes attempted to keep workers in their jobs by reducing working hours, with partial compensation for the loss of earnings and with the possibility of receiving training during the time not worked. This avoided the social cost of unemployment and permitted enterprises to keep experienced workers. The application of this type of policy requires a previously-established climate of good labour relations in the enterprise, which naturally occurs in workplaces with long experience in collective bargaining. The implementation of these measures in the countries of the region demonstrates that there is space to engage in constructive dialogue with social actors, even during a crisis.

In the area of social protection, conditional cash transfer programmes played a key role in maintaining incomes of poor families. Given their broad coverage in the region in recent years, these programmes became a new tool to respond to the crisis. Although they are designed to reverse structural rather than contextual problems, when the crisis began, several countries resolved to strengthen the programmes given that unemployment among household heads or other family members increases the risk that household income will fall below the poverty line and that children will drop out of school. Unemployment insurance was another essential part of counter-cyclical policies. Some countries strengthened the role of this insurance by making eligibility requirements more flexible and expanding coverage to more beneficiaries.

Finally, with respect to wage policy, an emphasis on preserving the purchasing power of the lowest salaries was observed in the region, and some countries made efforts to introduce slight improvements in their purchasing power. Countries most likely employed this approach to achieve the double objective of maintaining income of the lowest salaries without compromising employment or the sustainability of enterprises. This policy benefited from the decline in the inflation rate in 2009 with respect to the previous year, to the point that even in countries which had applied "neutral" minimum wage adjustments (equal to past inflation), wages experienced increased purchasing power in real terms.

### **Main Challenges to Economic Recovery**

The macroeconomic approach used by countries of the region and the world differed in this crisis from that applied during other crises or depressive cycles. This time, most countries implemented policies to increase spending and public investment. Instead of taking recessive adjustment measures,

they incorporated policies to protect employment and income. Thus, a key consensus observed in the reaction to the first phase of the crisis was the application of counter-cyclical policies.

Although developed countries and those in the region initially coordinated and applied expansive macroeconomic policies in reaction to the global financial crisis, differences arose after the Greek crisis occurred and the fiscal weakness of several European countries became apparent. The fiscal policies of Spain, Greece, Ireland and Portugal, for example, were among the most criticized and those countries were forced to sharply curb spending. Similar concerns were also raised in more industrialized countries such as Great Britain and Germany. Although many countries have an evident need for fiscal adjustment policies, their usefulness may be questioned at a time when the global economic recovery cycle is not yet complete or consolidated and the impact of its different components on employment is still not clear. This concern was also expressed by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the ILO in their recent publication, *The challenges of growth, employment and social cohesion*, which recommended that, as a general rule, developed countries should not curtail fiscal stimulus policies until 2011.

Currently, this macroeconomic adjustment approach is not evident in the countries of the region, mainly because they generally enjoy a healthy fiscal situation. At any rate, a long-term perspective should be incorporated in counter-cyclical fiscal policies, which should include saving a portion of surpluses obtained during periods of economic boom. To this end, it will be necessary to revise the tax structure in many cases.

As mentioned, signs of economic recovery are now apparent in most of the countries of the region; indeed, several of these countries have already registered improvements in job creation. In this context, three main macroeconomic challenges with an influence on employment have been identified in the region:

- Acceleration of inflation from low levels;
- Strengthening of local currencies; and
- Achieving a balance between the development of export strategies and the strengthening of the domestic market.

In 2009, the global crisis and the fall in aggregate demand caused a reduction in the inflation rate. This situation permitted central banks of the countries of the region to apply expansive monetary policies. It also limited the erosion of the purchasing power of

workers' salaries, thereby contributing to maintaining domestic consumption. Beginning in 2010, this trend will most likely reverse and price indices will increase. In terms of monetary policy, this shift will lead to a gradual increase in interest rates, which in several countries are at neutral levels. From the perspective of wage policy, rising inflation may weaken purchasing power of wages in labour markets with high levels of unemployment. Thus, countries of the region face the challenge of containing inflation hikes while ensuring that the increase in interest rates will not slow economic recovery and investment and that wage increases will protect the real value of earnings without fuelling the inflationary process.

With respect to the exchange rate, two key factors influenced trends in recent months: the international context and the recovery in commodity prices. With respect to the former, the stabilization of the global financial situation occurred at the same pace as the return of capital flows to the region, strengthening the value of national currencies. In part, this trend is driven by the very low interest rates and overall yields of financial investments in the industrialized world, especially in the United States. This favours speculative, short-term investment in regions with better yields and low risk, such as Latin America. With regard to the second factor, the recovery in global trade has driven the increase in prices of the main commodities produced in the region, which has led to the increased flow of foreign currency to the countries and the resultant strengthening of local currencies.

Regardless of its causes, the strengthening of local currencies can pose difficulties for endeavours to produce commodities for export, or other efforts that must confront an increase in imports. For this reason, it is important to establish limits on speculative flows that fortify the exchange rate of local currencies in these contexts, unnecessarily compromising many enterprises and their workers.

In addition, the financial crisis led to a transitory reduction in global trade due to the widespread decline in demand. Given that in this context it was not feasible to substitute one market for another, the countries focused on revitalizing domestic demand as a strategy for protecting economic activity and employment. In this regard, the conditional cash transfer programmes played a pivotal role, as did subsidies to preserve employment and readjustments to the minimum wage, which protected the purchasing power of the lowest salaries. Labour market performance in the region during the crisis demonstrates that this strategy successfully preserved economic activity, especially employment.

Economic recovery began with the reactivation of global trade. However, it should be noted that the domestic market promotes sustainable development because it is based on solid macroeconomic foundations. Therefore, it is essential to address factors that generate inequalities in the labour market and to subsequently compensate for them through social policies.

A key aspect for the incorporation of domestic demand as a factor for growth is the strengthening of the link that should exist between trends in the wage floor and productivity. While it is agreed that this relationship is virtuous, in practice no institutional mechanisms exist to ensure that the minimum wage keeps pace with overall productivity growth. Although minimum wage policies clearly seek to establish an effective floor for the labour market, there is an enormous institutional vacuum and limited collective bargaining in most of the countries of the region.

Employment policies must address two major challenges. The first is the consolidation and institutionalization of policies and programmes that proved useful during the crisis. The second is making adjustments and reallocating spending toward more appropriate policies to strengthen job creation during the economic recovery. To this end, effective coordination must exist among all ministries involved in this effort.

Several of the initiatives implemented to address the crisis were temporary. Nevertheless, in light of their effectiveness, they should be analyzed to determine the feasibility of incorporating them into the existing set of policy options available for the next crisis. Programmes designed to preserve employment and prolong unemployment benefits during crises are examples of these initiatives. The countries that applied these policies should analyze their results and study existing mechanisms in other countries in an effort to institutionalize these policy tools.

In this context, the willingness to place employment at the epicentre of public policy concerns has not been a constant, however, for which reason it is important to institutionalize the advances made. Ministries of labour should receive the resources needed to develop employment policies during non-crisis periods and extraordinary resources that permit them to respond during economic crises. Consolidating these lessons can help strengthen the capacity of institutions to address subsequent challenges. Labour institutions have demonstrated their strategic nature, for which reason it is important to strengthen their capacity not only to respond to crises, but also to serve as key elements of growth associated with progress and social justice.

In addition to increasing programme efficiency and eliminating potential duplication, the integration of a system strives to achieve an adequate balance of programmes in different phases of the economic cycle. As mentioned, unemployment insurance and subsidies to guarantee job retention are counter-cyclical tools that automatically adjust their benefits. However, other employment policies also require administrative adjustments in terms of the resources allocated and their overall approach. Therefore, efforts should be made to periodically review each employment policy to determine if it is appropriate for the phase of the economic cycle that countries are experiencing.

As more time passes since the onset of the crisis, more countries will join the ranks of those that have already begun to show signs of economic recovery. The experiences described illustrate the significant lag between economic recovery and labour market recovery (in its different dimensions). As economies recover, countries must shift from emergency policies to those that promote job creation in an effort to reduce this lag as much as possible, thereby strengthening the recovery with the creation of decent work for men and women.

## Social Protection Floor: Conceptual development and application in Latin America<sup>1</sup>

### Social Protection Floor (SPF)

#### Background

The economic and financial crisis has once again underscored the importance of social protection systems. In times of hardship, social protection policies, besides serving as counter-cyclical stabilizers for the economy, help mitigate the decline in aggregate demand, reduce the severity of the social impact of the crisis, protect human and social capital and support a more rapid recovery. One lesson learned from the crisis is that social protection contributes to economic growth by increasing labour productivity and social stability and by reducing poverty.

In Latin America and the Caribbean, where coverage of social protection systems is still limited, the economic slowdown led to a deterioration of key labour market indicators in 2009. This was reflected in the decline in employment, the increase in the unemployment rate and the reduced quality of employment.<sup>2</sup>

In April 2009, the United Nations Chief Executives Board launched nine joint initiatives<sup>3</sup> to cope with the global economic crisis. One of these was the *Social Protection Floor Initiative (SPF-I)*,<sup>4</sup> led by the International Labour Organization (ILO) and the World Health Organization (WHO). The SPF-I calls

for the provision of essential services and social transfers to all in need of such protection to prevent them from falling into abject poverty or to facilitate their development.<sup>5</sup>

The SPF-I promotes holistic and coherent national strategies that ensure a minimum level of social protection. Not only is it a response to the global crisis; it also guarantees access to a human right in the long term.

The adoption of the SPF-I does not imply the definition of new rights; rather, it reaffirms and contributes to the realization of the human right to social security, as defined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966) and the Protocol of San Salvador (1988),<sup>6</sup> among other instruments. The SPF also reinforces the concept of decent work since extending social protection is one of the four strategic objectives of the decent work agenda.

#### The SPF and its role in expanding coverage

The SPF promotes access to essential services and social transfers for the poor and vulnerable, especially those in the informal sector. The approach incorporates both the supply and demand side of extending social protection and ensuring effective access.<sup>7</sup> The SPF includes:

- (i) A basic set of essential social rights and transfers, in cash and in kind, to provide a minimum income and livelihood security for all and to facilitate effective demand for and access to essential goods and services.
- (ii) The supply of an essential level of goods and social services such as health, water and sanitation, education, food, housing, life and asset-saving information that is accessible for all. The SPF emphasizes the need to guarantee services.

Thus, the SPF emphasizes the need to guarantee services and transfers across the life cycle, from *children*, to *economically active adults* with insufficient income, to *older adults*, paying particular attention to vulnerable and excluded groups.

The systemic relationship between services and means to guarantee effective access, including transfers, defines the supply and demand components of the SPF. Thus, the SPF must not only work to ensure the availability of goods and services in health, water and sanitation, housing, education, food and related areas, but also the means necessary to achieve it,

<sup>1</sup> This box article of the 2010 *Labour Overview* was contributed by Helmut Schwarzer, senior specialist on social security for the Americas and the Caribbean, ILO Social Security Department—Geneva, Switzerland, and by Pablo Casali, social security specialist for the Andean countries, ILO Office for the Andean Countries—Lima, Peru.

<sup>2</sup> In mid-2009, labour indicators in the region began to show signs of stabilization and recovery, although with differences among countries. See the 2009 *Labour Overview* and this edition of the *Labour Overview*.

<sup>3</sup> See <http://www.undg.org/docs/10783/CEB-Issues-Paper.pdf>

<sup>4</sup> See <http://www.socialprotectionfloor.org/gimi/gess/ShowTheme.do?tid=1321>

<sup>5</sup> Subsequently, different instruments and national and international bodies supported the SPF-I: the United Nations' Resolution on Promoting Social Integration, adopted during the 48th session of the Commission for Social Development; the recommendations of the G20 Ministers of Labour and Employment; the ILO Global Jobs Pact; the DAC Network on Poverty Reduction of the Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development (POVNET/OECD); the Forum of Ministers of Social Development of Latin America; and the International Council on Social Welfare (ICSW), among others.

<sup>6</sup> Additional protocol of the American Convention on Human Rights in the area of Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.

<sup>7</sup> Social Protection Initiative. Manual and Strategic Framework for Joint UN Country Operations (see <http://www.socialsecurityextension.org/gimi/gess/ResShowResource.do?ressourceId=17072>).

TABLE 1

**Latin America. Employed population aged 15 and over that contributes to social security, by sex and country: years around 2000, 2005, 2009 (Percentage)**

Country	2000			2005			2009		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>39.6</b>	<b>39.6</b>	<b>39.6</b>	<b>41.6</b>	<b>41.7</b>	<b>41.3</b>	<b>48.0</b>	<b>47.8</b>	<b>48.3</b>
Argentina <sup>a/</sup>	...	...	...	61.4	60.3	63.0	70.1	68.4	72.3
Brazil <sup>b/</sup>	47.2	47.7	46.3	48.8	49.7	47.5	54.6	55.3	53.6
Colombia <sup>c/</sup>	34.6	33.2	36.8	35.9	34.3	38.3	37.8	37.3	38.4
Costa Rica	65.7	68.3	60.3	63.8	67.2	57.3	69.9	73.2	64.2
Ecuador <sup>d/</sup>	25.0	24.2	26.3	24.7	24.5	25.1	30.2	29.5	31.4
El Salvador	29.7	29.6	29.9	29.1	29.0	29.3	28.7	29.3	27.8
Mexico <sup>e/</sup>	35.9	34.6	38.3	35.6	35.1	36.5	35.8	35.1	36.8
Nicaragua	...	...	...	21.1	18.9	24.6	...	...	...
Panama	...	...	...	44.5	42.2	48.3	49.6	49.1	50.4
Peru <sup>f/</sup>	16.1	19.2	12.2	14.0	17.1	10.0	...	...	...
Uruguay <sup>g/</sup>	65.2	65.7	64.4	62.0	62.3	61.6	...	...	...

Source: ILO - SIALC, based on estimates of household surveys of the countries.

Nota: The regional average reflects the weight of the contributing population in each of the selected countries.

a/ data correspond to 32 urban clusters. The 2000 survey is for the annual average of May and October.

The 2005, 2006 and 2008 surveys correspond to an annual average. The 2007 survey corresponds to an average that excludes the third quarter. The 2009 survey corresponds to an average that excludes the fourth quarter.

b/ 2000 data correspond to 2001.

c/ 2000 data correspond to 2002. Beginning in 2007, the statistical framework is based on the National Population and Housing Census, 2005.

d/ Data correspond to the fourth quarter of each year.

e/ Data correspond to the second quarter of each year.

f/ Data for 2000 correspond to 2004.

g/ Data for 2000 correspond to 2001. 2000 and 2005 data are for urban coverage.

including cash transfers, in order to ensure effective access to the different goods and services throughout the life cycle.

Beyond the context of the global crisis, the SPF-I also contributes to several decades of efforts to extend social protection. Evidence of these efforts is the International Labour Conference (ILC) of 1944, which recognized "the solemn obligation of the International Labour Organization to further among the nations of the world programmes which will achieve...the extension of social security measures to provide a basic income to all in need of such protection and comprehensive medical care," as well as "provision for child welfare and maternity protection," thereby extending protection not only to workers but to all of those in need.

In 2001, the 89th Session of the ILC prioritized policies and initiatives to expand social security coverage to include those without it. The VI Report of the ILC (2001), *Social Security: issues, challenges and prospects*,<sup>8</sup>

underscores the need for long- and short-term policies to promote universal social security coverage through the adequate coordination of contributory and non-contributory policies.

In addition, the resolution adopted by the 97th Session of the ILC in 2008 emphasizes that "... social protection is an important means for reducing poverty and vulnerability, and of improving the health, nourishment and literacy of populations, and greatly improves chances of achieving sustainable and equitable growth, well-being and high productivity."

Despite the policies and instruments used in recent decades to extend coverage in countries throughout the world, and in Latin America in particular, there is consensus that major limitations to effective access to social protection persist. Currently, four out of every five people worldwide do not have an adequate level of social protection to face the most basic life risks.

Historically, the development of social protection in Latin America was based on contributory, mandatory

<sup>8</sup> See <http://www.ilo.org/gimi/gess/ResShowResource.do?ressourceId=7801>



social security systems. Nevertheless, large gaps in protection continue to exist, which have been somewhat mitigated through non-contributory and/or assistance policies, although with varying results in terms of coverage.

Table 1 presents an overview of contributory social security coverage for 11 countries of the region for the years 2000, 2005 and 2009, measured as the proportion of the employed population aged 15 years and over that effectively contribute to the system. The regional average indicates that the proportion of effective contributors to social security was just below 50% in 2009, representing a significant increase of almost 10 percentage points with respect to the year 2000. While this marks an important advance, the extension of social protection in Latin America continues to pose a major challenge for policymakers. Argentina, Brazil, Costa Rica and Uruguay have the highest percentage of contributors, not only for the past year but for the entire 2000-2009 period.

The information in Table 1 demonstrates that despite advances, a threshold of basic social protection for individuals and effective contributors to social security systems remains a long way off. The lack of coverage in cases of sickness, work accidents, job loss and other contingencies is coupled with the future impossibility of fulfilling established legal requirements to access old age pensions. Therefore, contributions and the density of contributions are decisive for the right to access and level of the different types of coverage.

The lack of protection of traditional systems is attributed to numerous causes, including those associated with deficits in contributory capacity, a lack of information on social security rights and obligations, limited confidence in public institutions responsible for managing the system and the high proportion of informal employment. In the informal employment sector, independent workers, wage and salaried workers of small and micro-enterprises, domestic workers, part-time and low-earning workers are among those with the least protection.

Until universal coverage is achieved, either through traditional social security systems or through complementary non-contributory policies that guarantee minimum levels of protection in accordance with ILO Convention No. 102, Social Security (Minimum Standards), the SPF will be an essential tool for achieving the human right to social security. Thus, the SPF-I is the basis of a global, coordinated strategy to extend social protection to guarantee specific minimum social standards through

the effective access to essential services and social transfers that respond to the most urgent needs when other forms of protection are unavailable.

The following section describes the dimensions of the extension of social protection and the role of the SPF, which promotes the extension of horizontal, or universal, coverage.

### Dimensions of coverage extension

The main functions of social security are to guarantee minimum social standards and to replace earnings. In other words, first it ensures the provision of essential services and social transfers that enable all members of society to have a basic level of social protection, and, second, it compensates for the lack or substantial reduction of income due to different contingencies (such as illness, maternity, work accidents, unemployment, disability, old age or death of the family breadwinner). In addition, all societies, in accordance with their culture and value system, require the redistribution of income to compensate for the disadvantages and vulnerabilities of certain sectors in their respective countries. Thus, social security is an important tool to enable this redistribution, for example, from youth to older adults, from healthy people to the sick, or from workers with high earnings to those with low earnings.

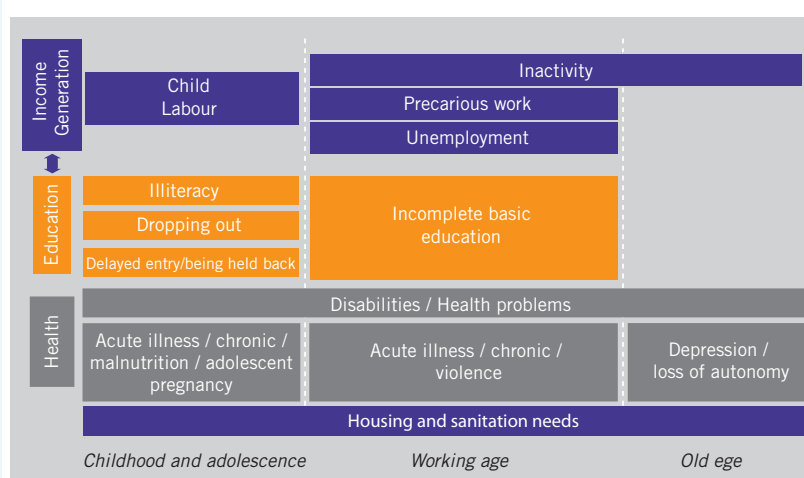
These functions respond to the social protection needs all people have during the three life stages: *childhood*, *working age* and *old age*. Box 2 summarizes the main risks and vulnerabilities for each stage of the life cycle.

Therefore, social protection systems face the challenge of providing coverage to all members of society during the entire life span, through the strengthening of traditional social security systems based on labour relations—contributory schemes—and an adequate combination and coordination with non-contributory policies that guarantee, at a minimum, effective access to essential services and social transfers to prevent members of a society from falling into poverty or to facilitate their development.

Strategies for extending social protection can be based on two different but complementary dimensions, one horizontal and the other vertical. The horizontal dimension, also known as "horizontal coverage" or "quantitative coverage," refers to the percentage of the population protected by the system whereas the vertical dimension, also known as "vertical coverage" or "qualitative coverage," addresses the types of contingencies covered and the quality of benefits.

**Box 2****MAIN RISKS AND VULNERABILITIES ACROSS THE LIFE SPAN**

Each stage of the life cycle has its own risks and vulnerabilities. Some risks are present throughout the life cycle, including illness, disability, housing needs and access to basic services, such as sanitation. Other risks are specific to certain life stages.

**Figure 1****STAGES OF THE LIFE CYCLE: RISKS AND VULNERABILITIES IN INCOME GENERATION, EDUCATION AND HEALTH**

Source: Bertranou and Vezza (2010).

For instance, during *childhood and adolescence*, the greatest risks in terms of frequency and consequences are malnutrition, lack of access to education (illiteracy) or poor education performance (dropping out, delayed school entry or being held back); premature entry into the labour market, as evidenced by child and adolescent labour; unwanted pregnancy; and abuse of psychoactive substances.

During working age, work-related risks become more important. Among these are work characterized by low productivity, stability and benefits (precarious and informal work), difficulties in finding work (unemployment), work-related accidents and illnesses and restrictions that impede participation in the labour market (involuntary inactivity). Furthermore, consequences of previously encountered risks appear, such as lack of education or deteriorating health owing to hazardous work environments.

Finally, in old age, the main risk is the inability to earn an income due to inactivity, along with chronic illness.

Source: Bertranou and Vezza (2010).

Latin American countries have experienced a gradual expansion of quantitative coverage, in other words, the percentage of the population covered by a social protection system. Historically, the first groups covered were public servants, followed by urban wage earners in the private sector. Later, coverage extended to independent workers, rural workers and domestic service workers, although to varying degrees.

The horizontal dimension, which is related to the SPF, seeks to guarantee minimum levels of social protection that provide economic security (cash transfers) and effective access to basic services such as health, education and water and sanitation (in-kind benefits). Among transfers characteristic of social security, universal health coverage, assistance to poor and unemployed persons, benefits to poor

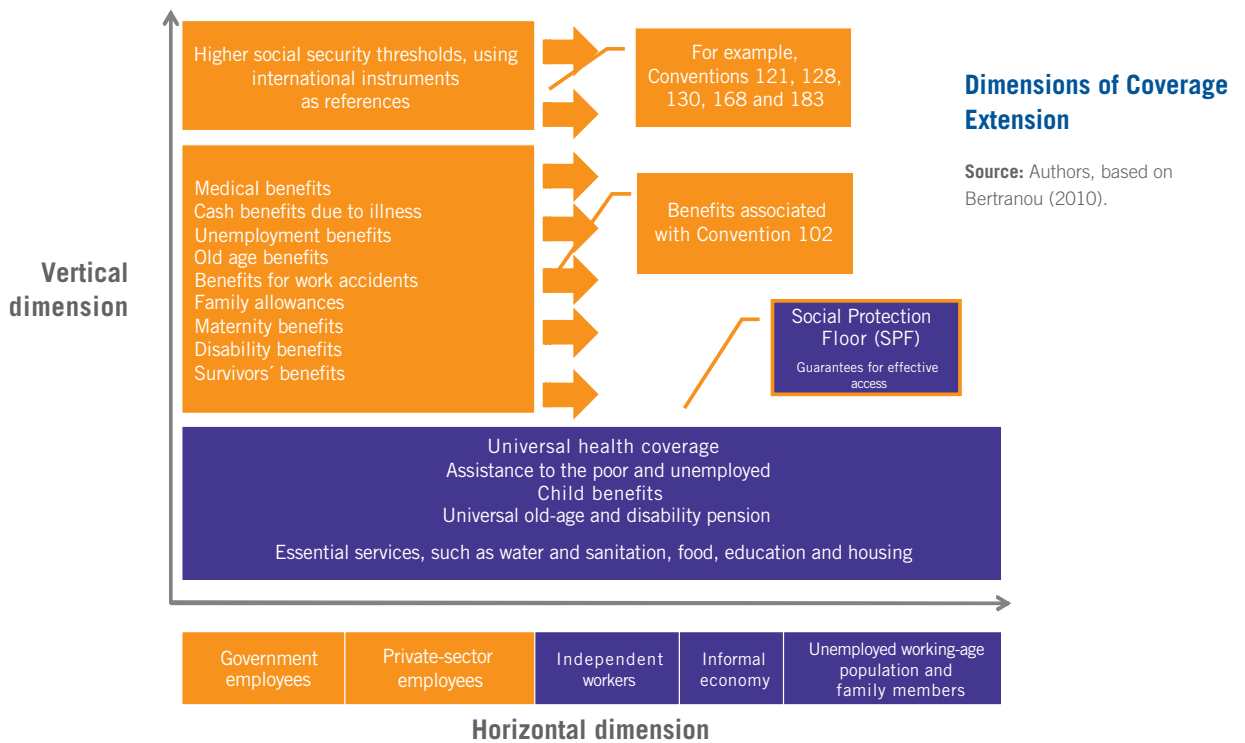
families with children and an assistance-based or universal non-contributory system for old age and disability are promoted. With respect to services, to improve the efficiency of the social development strategy, efforts are made to link social protection policies with active employment policies that offer possibilities for re-entry into the labour market and improved employability through training and access to labour market information. The SPF structure should be designed in keeping with each national reality, both in terms of transfers and services.

By contrast, the vertical dimension aims to provide higher thresholds of social security, both in terms of types of contingencies covered and the level of

associated benefits. This means more social security, as reflected in higher levels of economic security in cases of old age, disability, sickness and death of the household breadwinner, among others, based on guaranteed benefits financed by mandatory and voluntary social security contributions. Voluntary contributions complement the benefits received from mandatory ones.

Figure 2 shows the different social protection guarantees and the role of the horizontal and vertical dimensions in their extension. The horizontal dimension, represented by the SPF, guarantees minimum social standards whereas the vertical dimension is associated with the *type and level* of coverage determined by participation in and

FIGURE 2



- References :
- Convention 102 Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention
  - Convention 121 Employment Injury Benefits Convention
  - Convention 128 Invalidity, Old-Age and Survivors' Benefits Convention
  - Convention 130 Medical Care and Sickness Benefits Convention
  - Convention 168 Employment Promotion and Protection against Unemployment Convention
  - Convention 183 Maternity Protection Convention

contribution to social security systems and is therefore related to ILO Convention No. 102, Social Security (Minimum Standards), as discussed later in this article.

The strengthening of contributory, mandatory social security schemes in extending coverage ensures more and better social security for society. Moreover,

it decreases budget needs in terms of the horizontal dimension.

Convention 102 of 1952, the Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention, which should be the minimum standard parameter for any social security system, is the main international instrument that establishes basic standards for social security coverage and lists

the nine contingencies covered. Benefits associated with these nine contingencies are: (i) employee injury benefits; (ii) old age benefits; (iii) invalidity benefits; (iv) survivors' benefits; (v) medical benefits; (vi) maternity benefits; (vii) unemployment benefits; (viii) sickness benefits; and (ix) family allowance. Although the Convention does not compel countries to adopt universal guarantees or coverage, by defining partial levels of coverage as minimum parameters, it does set important standards to adopt in the vertical dimension.

Using this base, the vertical dimension of the strategy to extend social protection coverage can always be increased by gradually improving the level of benefits and contingencies covered through the consideration of other international instruments that complement Convention 102. For example, the 1964 Employment Injury Benefits Convention (No. 121); the 1967 Invalidity, Old-Age and Survivors' Benefits Convention (No. 128); the 1969 Medical Care and Sickness Benefits Convention (No. 130); the 1988 Employment Promotion and Protection against Unemployment Convention (No. 168); and the 2000 Maternity Protection Convention (No. 183) all represent advances in this dimension because they address improving the quality of benefits and services offered in the event that the contingencies covered occur.

The horizontal dimension of the SPF is a tool to guarantee the minimum social standards mentioned, when other forms of protection are not possible or there are major restrictions for responding to the main risks and vulnerabilities. This human right to social security, as reflected in access to essential services and social transfers, should focus on linking public policies to expedite the transition to the vertical dimension. The simultaneous supply of SPF guarantees linked with public education services, vocational training and active employment policies, for example, could stimulate the transition to higher levels of social protection.

A social protection staircase can also illustrate the interrelationship between the two dimensions, where the base is represented by the combined action of mandatory, contributory social security schemes and

the SPF, in the latter case as a guarantee for effective access to certain benefits and services when other forms of protection are unavailable. The action of contributory social security and voluntary insurance, which increase the number of contingencies covered and the level of benefits for the protected population, form the next steps of the staircase.

Therefore, the ideal objective of the SPF-I is to accelerate, as part of a national social protection policy, the introduction or strengthening of sustainable systems with a view to guaranteeing access to essential services and cash transfers that mitigate poverty and the adverse consequences of social exclusion. The SPF-I is conceived not only as a temporary, specific reaction to a crisis—a social safety net—but also as a set of instruments to permit a society to make the human right to social security a reality, to progressively develop it until the minimum levels of protection established by international standards are achieved.

The SPF-I contributes to achieving both the Millennium Development Goals (MDG)<sup>9</sup> and the targets for social protection established in the Decent Work for the Americas: An Agenda for the Hemisphere, 2006-2015, adopted by the countries of the Americas.<sup>10</sup>

### Experiences in the Application of SPF Policies in the Americas

A second goal of this article is to present some examples of policies applied in different countries of the region which have characteristics similar to those discussed in the conceptual section above.

A wide variety of experiences exist in countries with different characteristics, which demonstrates the feasibility of introducing a SPF as an important tool for extending social protection coverage. Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Mexico and Uruguay lead the region in the introduction of social security, with more experience with programmes such as those of SPF. These countries have made advances in the trend to integrate the SPF, insurance and services, which is significant because it reflects the potential of the SPF in the framework of a strategy to reform social protection schemes.

Examples are summarized due to space limitations. It should be noted that SPF is not restricted to these experiences and countries.

In recent decades, many social policy innovations were introduced in the region in response to recurrent crises and the negative effects of poverty

<sup>9</sup> Established by the United Nations, the Millennium Development Goals are eight goals that countries have agreed to achieve by 2015: (i) eradicate extreme poverty and hunger; (ii) achieve universal primary education; (iii) promote gender equality and empower women; (iv) reduce the child mortality rate; (v) improve maternal health; (vi) combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases; (vii) ensure environmental sustainability; and (viii) develop a global partnership for development.

<sup>10</sup> The Decent Work Agenda for the Hemisphere, adopted in Brasilia (Brazil) in 2006, establishes the target of expanding social security coverage by 20% over a 10-year period, 2006-2015.

and inequality. Some of the key examples of SPF components are found in Latin American countries. Without downplaying the wide variety of advances, there is still room for progress. For example, some countries have not introduced all SPF components whereas others have made advances in programme implementation but lag behind in achieving universal coverage. Furthermore, some programmes lack legal recognition and are not considered government policies while other programmes' budgets are insufficient to finance coverage of everyone who would qualify for benefits. In addition, some countries have not sufficiently coordinated SPF elements with social security systems or with respective services. All of these aspects represent challenges in the present and in the near future.

#### Programmes targeting poor families with children

The protection of poor families with children is particularly important in Latin America and the Caribbean, given poverty and absolute poverty rates and their effect on the future opportunities of minors. Since the 1990s, several countries of the region have introduced conditional cash transfer programmes to families with children, which are separate from social security programmes and which ones have found to be effective. More recently, Argentina and Uruguay have promoted policy reforms to expand coverage of family allowance programmes, integrating contributory and non-contributory benefits.

#### Conditional cash transfer programmes (CCTP):

In their current form, these programmes were first promoted in Brazil and Mexico in the mid-1990s.<sup>11</sup> Beginning in 1995, different municipalities of Brazil established programmes that guaranteed cash transfers to children of poor families in exchange for a minimum frequency of school attendance. This same principle began to be applied in a federal programme to fight child labour (*Erradicação do Trabalho Infantil*, PETI) beginning in 1996, which made cash transfers to families to compensate for the loss of income caused by removing children from the labour market.

<sup>11</sup> Also noteworthy was the experience in Chile in the 1990s with the *Subsidio Único Familiar* (Single Family Subsidy- SUF). For more information on programmes of this nature, see Fiszbein and Schady (2009).

<sup>12</sup> See different issues of the *Boletín de Políticas Sociales* of the Institute for Applied Economic Research (IPEA), particularly Issue 17 (2009).

<sup>13</sup> For more information on the *Bolsa Familia* programme, see Soares and Sátyro (2009) and Paes and Souza et al. (2010).

<sup>14</sup> For more information on the *Progres – Oportunidades* programme, see García López (2010).

<sup>15</sup> See Barrientos et al. (2010).

In exchange, families had to enrol these children in school and ensure their participation in social service activities.<sup>12</sup>

In 2001, the national *Bolsa Escola* (School Grant) programme was created, administered by the Ministry of Education and based on school attendance conditions. Subsequently, the federal government developed additional programmes for low-income families, with health conditions for pregnant women and children up to age six, as well as nutrition and energy benefits. The merging of these programmes in late 2003 led to the establishment of the *Bolsa Familia* (Family Grant) programme, today the largest Latin American CCTP, providing coverage to 13 million families.<sup>13</sup>

The other predecessor of the CCTP was *Progres* (*Programa de Educación, Salud y Alimentación*-the Education, Health and Food Programme) of Mexico, created in 1997 with a view to improving education, health and nutrition coverage among poor families with children up to age nine. The programme grew and was renamed "Oportunidades" in 2001. In the 2000s, *Progres-Oportunidades* incorporated and articulated several services and expanded coverage from rural to urban areas. By 2010, the programme had 5.8 million beneficiary families.<sup>14</sup>

Nearly all Latin American countries now have a programme that follows these principles, where cash transfers are made in exchange for certain school, health and nutrition practices, as well as the use of specific social services. Between 2000 and 2010, 16 countries (Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Chile, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Jamaica, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru and the Plurinational State of Bolivia) had a CCTP that targeted poor families with children.<sup>15</sup> Annual spending on these programmes ranged from 0.4% to 0.6% of GDP, which permitted most families living in extreme poverty to be covered.

Identifying and obtaining information on families to be covered by CCTP programmes poses a significant challenge. In most cases, national and local governments joined forces to prepare beneficiary registers, forming databases with other social programmes, particularly those of the ministries or secretariats that offer education and health services. These databases and special surveys served as support tools to guarantee accurate targeting and security of payments. Programmes such as *Oportunidades*, *Chile Solidario* (Chile Solidarity) and *Bolsa Familia* have managed to achieve a high level of efficiency in targeting beneficiaries in this way. Another best practice recorded was to establish

transparent payment channels, often through banks, with preference given to paying women in an effort to empower them. Cooperation between national and municipal governments, especially in linking cash transfers with public and social services, is essential for the effective functioning of the leading programmes. Many of these initiatives have demonstrated that it is possible to have low administrative costs of 3% or less. Some countries, such as El Salvador and Honduras, have created a geographic targeting system to cover families in areas where indicators show that the population is highly vulnerable.

The CCTP generally have an exhaustive monitoring process, which have demonstrated that the programmes have a positive impact on education, health and nutrition. The evaluation of the *Oportunidades* programme revealed a sharp rise in school enrolment, a higher number of preventive health consultations, a reduction in illnesses and maternal-child mortality, as well as an improvement in nutrition indicators, among beneficiary families. An evaluation of the *Bolsa Familia* programme demonstrated the programme's significant impact on decreasing income inequality. The CCTP have little impact on the poverty level, however, since the amounts transferred to families are usually small in comparison with those of traditional pension programmes.

With respect to children, one objective of the CCTP is to overcome poverty through the construction of "human capital." The idea is that school attendance, access to nutrition and health services contributes to the construction of human capital, which can break the inter-generational cycle of poverty. Educational levels among beneficiaries have increased gradually, which is associated with increased chances for and quality of employment, increased earnings and higher future productivity. In addition to the economic impact of programs, another effect of the programme is universal access to knowledge and education as a part of the human rights that these guarantee, as well as their ability to create opportunities for individual development.

An important debate surrounding CCTP is that if the objective is to accumulate human capital, the

exclusion of families for non-compliance would represent a failure.<sup>16</sup> If establishing conditions seeks to increase use of public education and health services,<sup>17</sup> then efforts should be made to keep the family covered through social services. The *Progresar-Oportunidades* programme is designed to maintain coverage as long as necessary to achieve health and education objectives. Experience in this area has led to greater coordination with more complete public service packages in a socioeconomic support network, such as those of the programmes *Chile Solidario*, Mexico's *Vivir Mejor* (Live Better) or Brazil's SUAS (*Sistema Único de Assistência Social*—Single Social Assistance System). The existence of 'exit doors' and maximum participation periods are characteristic of emergency programmes. Finally, although the programmes mentioned often focus on children, there is the possibility of incorporating universal coverage, such as in the case of the *Bolsa Familia* programme, which has a component of cash transfer to poor families, regardless of whether they have school-aged children.

**Expansion of family allowances:** Recently, two countries launched programmes for universal protection of poor families with children. These were not introduced as autonomous CCTP, but rather formed part of modified, expanded coverage of traditional family allowances of contributory social security schemes. The National Social Security Administration (ANSES) and the Social Service Bank (BPS), of Argentina and Uruguay, respectively, are responsible for family allowance programmes that combine contributory and non-contributory schemes to increase coverage of families in the informal sector.<sup>18</sup>

In Uruguay, the *Plan de Equidad* (Equality Plan), launched in 2007, modified the family allowance scheme and extended its coverage to include minors, regardless of whether any of their family members were contributors to the social security system. Family allowance beneficiaries grew by almost 180,000 between December 2003 and December 2009, reaching a total of 570,000 youths covered (of a total population of 3.3 million in 2009). With the increase in benefit amounts in 2007 and the rise in the number of beneficiaries, the real monthly expenditure doubled between 2003 and 2009.<sup>19</sup>

In Argentina in 2009, the policy decision arose from the experience of expanded pension coverage in previous years, with ANSES as the administrative agency. According to Roca (2010), combining the family allowance and AUH (Universal Child Allowance) programmes seeks to expand coverage from 6.7 million to 11.3 million children.

<sup>16</sup> Soares and Sátyro (2010) did an interesting analysis of this subject in the *Bolsa Familia* programme.

<sup>17</sup> See Paes and Souza et al. (2010).

<sup>18</sup> See Bertranou et al. (2010) and Roca (2010) for information on the expansion of family allowances.

<sup>19</sup> BPS (2010), *Prestaciones de actividad 2010 and Principales indicadores 2010* (see <http://www.bps.gub.uy/estadisticas/principales%20indicadores/principales%20indicadores%202010.pdf>).

Monthly benefits consist of \$ 180 (US\$ 46) per child, conditioned on school attendance and the use of health services (immunizations). In the case of disabled children, the benefit is \$ 720 (US\$ 184) each. Data from mid-2010 show that the AUH programme had 3.7 million child beneficiaries, despite a target of 4.7 million, which suggests the need to step up efforts to raise awareness of rights among eligible families.

The introduction of the AUH programme will reduce extreme poverty by 44% and poverty by 21.8%, according to Roca (2010). Bertranou et al. (2010) estimates differ but are also significant. The estimated programme cost is 0.7% of GDP (for AUH), which is in the upper range of CCTP for children, but with a proportionally greater effect on reducing poverty and inequality. Including the 0.8% of GDP in expenditures for traditional family allowances, Argentina has increased its cash transfers to families with children to 1.5% of GDP. To verify compliance with education and health conditions, whose services are provided by provinces and municipalities, ANSES retains 20% of the individual AUH benefit in a specific account. After confirming the frequency of attendance of each child through the use of a card, the programme subsequently releases the money.

#### **Guarantee of minimum income level in old age and disability**

Many countries in Latin America and the Caribbean have introduced non-contributory, assistance or universal pension schemes, which aim to guarantee a minimum income for the elderly and the disabled, one of the basic guarantees of the SPF concept. Most of the programmes presented here are assistance-based, that is, conditions include a system of targeting or maximum income level. Eligible individuals may not be beneficiaries of any other contributory and/or assistance schemes and must be of a minimum age or have a documented disability. This is the case of Uruguay's non-contributory pension scheme and Argentina's assistance pensions (where there are three non-contributory pension schemes –for disability, for old age and for mothers of seven or more children). Costa Rica (whose non-contributory pension scheme dates from 1974), Mexico (the *Setenta y Más*-Seventy and Older-programme for older adults in cities with up to 30,000 inhabitants) and Panama (*Cien a los Setenta*-A Hundred at Seventy-programme) have similar programmes. In addition, Peru announced the establishment of a benefit scheme for older adults in 2010 (*Programa de Asistencia Solidaria Gratitud*).

As an example of assistance benefits, Brazil's *Benefício de Prestação Continuada* (BPC) pays individuals aged 65 and over and disabled persons a minimum monthly salary (R\$ 510 or US\$ 300). To qualify for the programme, individuals must have a per capita family income of less than one-fourth of the minimum wage and they cannot be beneficiaries of another income replacement programme (social benefits or unemployment insurance). The National Social Security Institute manages the programme, which conducts socioeconomic assessments and makes regular payments through the bank network, just like in the case of retirement benefits and contributory pensions. In 2010, 3.4 million BPC beneficiaries received benefits (1.6 million for old age and 1.8 million for disability). The programme cost R\$ 15.5 billion in 2008, equal to 0.5% of GDP. The Costa Rican programme, which covers poor adults aged 65 and over, and poor, disabled individuals, had a cost of 0.2% of GDP. In Costa Rica, like in Brazil, benefits are administered and paid by the Costa Rican Social Security Institute, taking advantage of the economies of scale of this option.<sup>20</sup> In Panama, the *Cien a los Setenta* (A Hundred at Seventy) benefit scheme was recently introduced. This programme consists of quarterly transfers of 200 balboas (US\$ 200) to adults aged 70 and over that were identified in the Vulnerability Census of the *Oportunidades* Programme and that do not receive any other social security benefit. The Panamanian programme establishes health conditions that must be met.<sup>21</sup>

Three well-designed assistance programmes deserve mention: Brazil's rural pensions for smallholder farmers and fishermen; Chile's basic solidarity pensions and Bolivia's *Renta Dignidad* (Dignified Income) programme. These programmes incorporate the concept of universal coverage that guarantees a high level of coverage and tends to have a greater impact on reducing absolute poverty and poverty among older adults in the respective countries.

The Brazilian rural pension system pays farm families and small-scale fishermen the equivalent of the official minimum salary (R\$ 510, or US\$ 300), pensions for older adults (60 years for men and 55 for women), disability pensions, and survivors', occupational hazard, maternity and sickness benefits. Beneficiaries must prove they have been farmers for a period equivalent to the contribution period required by urban workers. Buyers of agricultural and fish products (2.1% of the sales amount) pay a contribution; however, 85% of programme funding is covered by the federal budget, equalling nearly 1.3% of GDP, for 8.2 million monthly benefits paid. According to the 2009 PNAD household survey, this scheme extends coverage to 8.5% of workers, mainly small-scale

<sup>20</sup> For several examples, see Barrientos et al. (2010).

<sup>21</sup> See the website of the Ministry of Social Development of Panama (<http://www.mides.gob.pa>).

farmers and their families, who do not earn regular taxable income. Consequently, coverage in rural areas is greater than that in urban areas and the benefits generate a significant reduction in poverty, in addition to strengthening the agricultural sector responsible for food production, which in turn reinforces food security.<sup>22</sup> With respect to coverage of rural workers, Brazil and Ecuador have other programmes for these groups, specifically for populations of African descent in the former and indigenous populations in the latter.<sup>23</sup>

The Plurinational State of Bolivia introduced *Renta Dignidad*, a universal benefit scheme for older adults, in 2008. Its predecessor, *Bonosol*, was created during the 1995 social reform. By law, *Renta Dignidad* covers all Bolivians aged 60 and over. More than 800,000 individuals (97% of the target population) receive one of two benefits: US\$ 340 annually if the beneficiary does not receive a contributory pension or US\$ 250 per year in the case of retired individuals. Financing comes from two sources: taxes on hydrocarbons and interest generated by companies that were privatized in the 1990s and in which the government held shares. This country also administers two CCTP for children and pregnant women, called *Bono Juancito Pinto* and *Bono Juana Azurduy*, which share administrative structures with *Renta Dignidad*. It is estimated that *Renta Dignidad* has produced a 7% decrease in poverty and a 10% reduction in extreme poverty.<sup>24</sup>

In 2008, a concerted social security reform took place in Chile with the introduction of the innovative *Pensión Básica Solidaria* (Basic Solidarity Pension-PBS), which replaced earlier assistance pensions and the basic pensions guaranteed for individuals who pay into the social security system for at least 20 years. The previous system generated a large gap in coverage, with a risk of increasing poverty in old age. For the poorest 60% of the population in Chile, a PBS is guaranteed. This PBS is financed with taxes. Those eligible for a reduced contributory benefit receive a solidarity contribution (APS, a partial benefit). Solidarity and social contributions cover old age and disability benefits. Proportions of the contributory part and the APS were calculated to ensure that all

contributions have an impact on the final amount to avoid disincentives to contributing, which may occur in poorly coordinated contributory and non-contributory programmes. In addition, the reform enabled the mandatory incorporation of independent workers into the system (mainly informal workers) and introduced a benefit for women with a live-born child, regardless of their social, labour or economic condition. With this reform, it is estimated that Chile will eliminate poverty among the population over 65 years of age by 2013.<sup>25</sup>

### **Políticas for unemployed workers and those with low earning**

Protection of unemployed workers or those with low earnings can be promoted through active labour market policies (for example, promotion of employment) or passive ones (such as unemployment insurance). International experience indicates that these should be linked with access to information and employment services (which reduce the cost of searching for a new job) and mechanisms to provide job training to overcome educational barriers or to adapt to changing market conditions.<sup>26</sup>

The region does not have a tradition of unemployment insurance. Many countries have yet to create this mechanism and most of those that do have it have not managed to expand coverage beyond the formal market, which has proved to be a very serious gap in the recent crisis. Many countries have had severance pay programmes for decades, with compulsory savings accounts whose balance can be withdrawn in the event of unemployment, purchase of housing or other motives. However, severance pay accounts only cover workers employed in the formal sector. One of the lessons of the crisis in the region is that it is essential to introduce and expand coverage of policies both to support unemployed workers and to provide unemployment insurance.<sup>27</sup>

Argentina, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Brazil, Chile and Uruguay have introduced unemployment insurance programmes. Most of these countries cover only a third of unemployed workers, with the exception of Brazil, where the programme covers half of these workers.<sup>28</sup> Whereas the Chilean programme uses individual savings accounts, the Uruguayan programme is contributory and that of Brazil charges a tax to cover the cost of unemployment benefits, employment services and job training.

Employment promotion programmes, which are more accessible to the informal sector, are generally established in response to a crisis and are effective for a time while a more sustainable solution is sought. An example of a large-scale programme with

<sup>22</sup> See Barbosa (2010) and Schwarzer (2000) for information on rural social programmes.

<sup>23</sup> See Álvarez and Santos (2006).

<sup>24</sup> With respect to *Renta Dignidad*, see Ticona Gonzáles (2010).

<sup>25</sup> See Délano (2010) and Berstein et al. (2010).

<sup>26</sup> See Bertranou, Marinakis and Velásquez (2010).

<sup>27</sup> For a policy vision targeting unemployed workers through unemployment insurance in Latin America, see Velásquez (2010). For a vision of active employment policies in the region, see Perazzo et al. (2010). For employment policies in Argentina, see Bertranou and Paz (2007).

<sup>28</sup> Data from the Social Security Inquiry/ILO.



labour benefits is the *Plan Jefes y Jefas de Hogar* (Heads of Household Programme), introduced in 2002 in response to the macroeconomic and social crisis affecting Argentina.<sup>29</sup> Eligible individuals had to be the head of the household, unemployed, with a child under age 18 or pregnant at the time. Children had to attend school and get vaccinations. A modest monthly cash transfer of \$ 150 (US\$ 50) was provided for between four and six hours' work in jobs in the public interest, or in training, educational or community activities developed by public or private entities. The programme, which began in 2002, had two million beneficiaries at one point. The objective was to help preserve the country's social and economic fabric during the social crisis and to assist beneficiaries in transitioning to more stable employment once the crisis subsided. To this end, a good practice is to coordinate these programmes with training policies, and at the end of the crisis, to implement policies on credit and small business development. This is what occurred, for example, with the training and employment insurance (SCyE) created in Argentina after the *Plan Jefes y Jefas de Hogar*, and which matched a non-contributory benefit with access to employment services, training, school attendance, support to entrepreneurs and use of different social services. *Jóvenes con Más and Mejor Trabajo* (Youth with More and Better Work), also in Argentina, is another example of a conditional transfer programme that seeks to increase labour market opportunities, in this case specifically for vulnerable youths.<sup>30</sup>

Some Latin American countries frequently use direct employment programmes, especially Chile. At the international level, the Mahatma Gandhi Rural Employment Guarantee Programme of India, which addresses the cyclical nature of the rural labour market and the structural supply of labour, is one such programme.<sup>31</sup> In that programme, federal and state governments guarantee rural workers a basic salary for 100 days of employment per year in public works. Besides generating local and environmental development, this programme increases income in rural areas.

<sup>29</sup> For more information, see the official website of the Ministry of Labour, Employment and Social Security of Argentina: [www.trabajo.gov.ar/jefesdehogar/](http://www.trabajo.gov.ar/jefesdehogar/).

<sup>30</sup> See Bertranou and Mazorra (2009) for more on the *Jóvenes con Más y Mejor Trabajo* and the *Seguro de Capacitación* (SCyE).

<sup>31</sup> See Sharma (2010).

<sup>32</sup> With respect to Mexico, see García López (2010) and with respect to Colombia, see Torrenegra Cabrera (2010) and Miller et al. (2010).

<sup>33</sup> It should be noted that Chile has had a public health system since the mid-twentieth century (with the creation of the National Health Service in 1952). Despite the creation of private health care providers, the public system continues to provide health care to two-thirds of citizens.

<sup>34</sup> For more information on Chile's AUGE Plan, see Urriola (2006) and FONASA (2007).

### SPF and health care

Clearly, SPF health care components must be designed in keeping with the local reality. Health care services that are considered "basic" may differ depending on the epidemiological and cultural profile of each country and sub-region. Different countries of the region have developed successful experiences in expanding health care coverage. These include Brazil's universal health system, Colombia's subsidized health scheme, Cuba's public health system, Chile's *Acceso Universal con Garantías Explícitas* (Universal Access Plan with Explicit Guarantees-AUGE), Mexico's *Seguro Popular* (Popular Insurance) scheme and Uruguay's health reform, all of which have different designs, tools and challenges.<sup>32</sup>

In Chile, AUGE, launched in 2005, marked the first health care reform since the early 1980s. The 1980s reform permitted the private sector to enter the health care market, a market where the public sector is today, and has been since the 1950s, the main service provider. The AUGE strategy reformed the existing contributory model, formed by the public National Health Fund (FONASA) and private health care providers (ISAPRES).<sup>33</sup> To this end, four guarantees were established—access, opportunity, quality and financial protection—and a minimum time limit for making contributions and co-payments was defined. One of AUGE's objectives is to limit waiting times for specialized care. The list of illnesses covered by AUGE has gradually expanded to 69 in 2010. In addition, public investment in new health care infrastructure has increased over the past 10 years.<sup>34</sup>

In 2003, Mexico introduced the *Seguro Popular* in coordination with the *Oportunidades* programme. Thus, services of social security institutions in Mexico are segmented. The historically low health care coverage has led to direct payments to providers. To cover informal sector workers and the unemployed, the government gradually increased public spending and coverage between 2003 and 2010, financed through contributions from the public treasury and beneficiaries (with the exception of the poorest beneficiaries). The programme offers more than 40 million users a basic health services packet, under principles of cost control, quality certification and user rights. According to García López (2010), the programme led to a progressive increase in public investments, which resulted in greater use of health services and a reduced impact of catastrophic health costs on the families covered. In Colombia, the subsidized scheme also targets low-income individuals and offers basic and preventive health care provided by health promotion entities. In that country, coverage increased from 30% of the

population in the early 1990s to 85% at the end of the current decade.<sup>35</sup>

Uruguay has opted to expand coverage of its public health insurance through the *Sistema Nacional Integrado de Salud* (National Integrated Health System-SNIS), coordinated by the Social Welfare Bank. Since January 2010, minors and the disabled in the care of contributors, public employees and university employees, have been covered. In a gradual process, spouses and retired individuals were added, joining the private sector workers already included by law. In 2010, it was announced that the SNIS, through the National Health Fund (FONASA), would extend health care to 1.3 million individuals, which was the population still to be covered to achieve universal coverage. This coverage is provided by all public and private institutions. The expanded social security system is financed through an increase in personal contributions and an increase in public spending in health.<sup>36</sup>

Like many countries in the Caribbean, Brazil has a universal health care model financed by taxes. In Brazil, the *Sistema Único de Saúde* Single Health Care System (*Sistema Nacional Integrado de Salud-SUS*) was created through regulations of the 1988 Constitution, which called for a modification of the model and for guaranteed universal coverage, financed by taxes. This has required significant coordination at the federal, state and municipal government levels. Through different programmes, such as the *Programa de Saúde da Família* (Family Health Programme-PSF), where local teams provide home health services, coverage has been extended, especially among the poor: nearly 48.6% of the population through PSF and 44% through an oral health programme. In addition, antiretroviral treatment for AIDS has been universalized and a policy has been implemented to guarantee access to medications, which has enabled 80% of the population to purchase the medicines it needs. Public spending in health represents 4.9% of GDP in Brazil.

### Cost and financing of a SPF

The experiences described indicate that it is feasible to introduce policies covering the four basic guarantees in all countries of the region. Normally, the programmes gradually expand the universe of protected persons and the resources needed

to finance them, except in the case of emergency programmes. Estimates by the ILO indicate that the cost of a hypothetical package, including a conditional cash transfer programme to poor families with children, basic health services, a non-contributory pension for poor elderly adults and the disabled, as well as a direct employment programme such as that of India, would represent between 3% and 5% of GDP in the different countries of Africa and Latin America. These programmes would potentially result in a 40% to 50% reduction in poverty. The concrete experiences of Latin American countries with successful programmes confirm these figures since costs were approximately 0.5% of GDP for CCTP for children, from 0.5% to 1.0% for non-contributory pensions and up to 0.5% for modest unemployment insurance or employment programmes linked to services. The cost of basic health care programmes with national coverage tended to run higher.<sup>37</sup>

The financing of a SPF requires the creation of "fiscal space," which is not large during the introductory phase of the more modest programmes. However, it is essential to identify funding sources to guarantee financing, in accordance with the programme design and its salient features. This is vital because when programmes mature, they achieve higher levels of coverage and therefore have greater financial needs. To support the most developed social protection systems requires a high level of political consensus. Argentina, Brazil, Chile and Uruguay, for example, have undertaken major fiscal and budgetary reforms to expand financing of their social policies. They have also used non-traditional sources to finance redistributive costs, such as taxes on mineral revenue and taxes on interest of companies in which the government owns shares in the case of the Plurinational State of Bolivia, and a tax on financial transactions to finance health care between 1996 and 2007 in Brazil. In Brazil, the regulatory framework proposed for oil drilling in the Atlantic specifies resources for a "social fund" to fight poverty. Finally, traditional social security systems require regular fiscal monitoring to ensure their actuarial equilibrium to avoid cost overruns.

Achieving increased levels of formal employment and, consequently, social security contributions, reduces the need for general resources to cover expansion policies. Greater efforts to combat non-compliance, which employ technology, efficient auditing and tax collection practices, have produced positive results.

Finally, it is important to increase social spending efficiency. Management activities undoubtedly allow for potential savings; however, these alone are insufficient to address the high level of inequality

<sup>35</sup> See Miller et al. (2010) and Torrenegra Cabrera (2010).

<sup>36</sup> A description of the health reform in Uruguay can be found on the BPS website ([www.bps.gub.uy](http://www.bps.gub.uy)).

<sup>37</sup> For cost estimates and impacts of different types of SPF programmes in Latin America, see CEDLAS - ILO (2008). For cost estimates of similar packages for African and Asian countries, see ILO/SECSOC (2009).

and poverty in Latin America. To expand coverage of non-contributory programmes or to subsidize low-earning workers who are covered by contributory systems in an effort to eliminate absolute poverty and to substantially decrease relative poverty and inequality, there is no other path than to increase social spending and the corresponding participation of taxes and social contributions in the GDP. A more complete social protection system requires a higher collection rate. Most of the countries of the region still have tax collection levels that fall short of those of mature welfare states.

### **The SPF and a vision of systems of integrated social policies**

The welfare states of the region have become "sedimentary strata" and have generated co-existing, superimposed protection policies that combine instruments corresponding to different principles. This has not always taken place in an orderly, synergetic fashion.

Nevertheless, it is possible to identify a process of regional learning in the design and implementation of public social policies, for example, in the evolution of social security schemes in different phases of institutionalization, expansion and reform, as well as in the introduction of recent CCTP. Learning from other experiences is recommended, but knowledge must be developed and incorporated in each country. In other words, each country should design policies in accordance with its own economic, social and cultural realities. No two countries have identical systems. Brazil and Uruguay, which recently ratified ILO Convention 102, and Argentina, which has begun the ratification process, possess broad-based social protection systems, demonstrating that opting for SPF-type policies does not clash with social protection based on different principles, and even less so with the ratification of Convention 102. These three countries have strong foundations of contributory social protection complemented by universal policies.

Countries in the region that have important levels of social spending, such as Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica and Uruguay (Table 2) have gradually reorganized their social protection systems over the past few decades. Other countries have also made noteworthy strides in social spending, including the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Colombia, El Salvador, Mexico, the Plurinational State of Bolivia and Trinidad and Tobago, where social spending has doubled or tripled since the 1990s and is now more than 5% of GDP. In recent years, several of these countries have sought to develop their social security systems, expand the formalization of their labour markets and combine

contributory policies with non-contributory ones, whether they are assistance-based, universal or both, as mentioned. The coordination and integration between SPF policies and social security have produced advantages in all of these countries. These include the transfer of knowledge in management and policy-making; the joint use of payment channels and databases; and increased institutionalization and professionalism, among others. In the learning process, rules are required to decrease potentially contradictory policies. In the case of non-contributory pensions and family allowances, many countries have institutionally placed these programmes with contributory programmes.

### **Conclusions**

The United Nations first launched the social protection floor initiative (SPF-I) in response to the crisis and the need to ensure the realization of the fundamental right of every human being to basic social protection, as set forth in several international human rights instruments. The International Labour Organization (ILO), together with the World Health Organization and the Pan American Health Organization (WHO/PAHO), has played an important role in promoting the SPF. Beyond the crisis, the SPF is a tool for the conceptual organization of social policy efforts in different countries. The SPF-I works to advance policies that most quickly expand the universe of individuals protected from poverty; in other words, in the horizontal dimension. These policies should be coordinated and in agreement with the set of existing social policies and the social realities, cultural preferences and economic mechanisms of each country.

The SPF has established four basic guarantees: protection for poor families with children; unemployed workers or those with insufficient income; poor elderly and disabled people; and provision of essential health care. Thus, the SPF contains at least one policy for each stage in the life span (childhood and youth, adulthood and old age) and accessible, financeable health services, which are essential for all age groups, guaranteeing that the entire population, through a combination of contributory and non-contributory schemes, has access to these four guarantees. Furthermore, the SPF establishes universal access to basic services such as water, education, housing, job training and others that enable all citizens to develop their potential and life projects.

Countries in the region have developed several initiatives and made progress in policies that can be considered characteristic of a SPF. Creative programmes have been implemented for children (such as conditional cash transfer programmes and

TABLE 2

**Selected countries of Latin America and the Caribbean: Social public expenditure in social security and health, 1990-2008. Social public expenditure as a percentage of GDP.**

Country	1990	2000	2008
Cuba	10.73	11.94	21.02
Brazil	12.59	15.14	18.38
Argentina	13.79	15.10	15.87
Uruguay	13.52	16.60	15.45
Costa Rica	10.11	10.98	11.36
Chile	9.37	10.73	9.71
Colombia	3.23	6.30	9.08
Bolivia (Plurinat. State of)	4.58	8.34	7.89
Mexico	2.90	4.51	6.52
Venezuela (Boliv. Rep. of)	3.20	4.39	6.36
El Salvador	1.98	4.12	5.67
Trinidad and Tobago	2.56	3.29	5.20
Peru	2.26	4.85	4.42
Paraguay	1.27	4.39	4.36
Panama	2.49	3.79	3.91
Honduras	3.43	3.52	3.70
Dominican Republic	1.23	2.34	3.62
Ecuador	4.87	2.06	3.57
Jamaica	2.77	2.55	2.82
Guatemala	1.89	2.31	2.29

Source: CEPALSTAT.

Note: The first year is 1994 for El Salvador and 1995 for the Plurinational State of Bolivia. The last year is 2004 for Jamaica, 2006 for the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Ecuador, Honduras and the Plurinational State of Bolivia; and 2007 for Argentina, the Dominican Republic, El Salvador and Panama.

the reforms in family allowances) and non-contributory pensions (such as *Renta Digna* (Dignified Income), the *Pensión Básica Solidaria* (Basic Solidarity Pension), *Previdência Rural* (Rural Welfare) and others. In addition, major reforms have been launched to expand health coverage (for example, the subsidy programmes of Mexico's *Seguro Popular*-Popular Insurance, Colombia's *Régimen Subsidiado*-Subsidy Scheme, Chile's AUGE Plan and Brazil's SUS Programme). Country programmes combine instruments with different principles—assistance, contributory and universal—which must be well-coordinated among themselves and with public and private social services to permit the accumulation of capacities necessary to overcome not only poverty in the short term, but also social gaps and unequal opportunities in the medium and long term. Nevertheless, there is a long road ahead to achieve the universalization of the four guarantees.

In the history of social policy development in the region, social security has played a leading role, with significant impact on reducing poverty. It is valued by the population and workers and has achieved high levels of coverage in some countries. There are still

wide gaps in coverage of the informal sector of the labour market, although they have decreased by some percentage points over the past 10 years.

Latin American and Caribbean countries could develop a SPF by implementing a strategy that views it as a mid-term stop on the road to the universalization of social security systems. In this context, the Decent Work for the Americas: An Agenda for the Hemisphere, 2006-2015 establishes the commitment of ILO constituents of the Americas to expand social security coverage by around 20% during that period. Also of note is ILO Convention 102, which outlines basic criteria to be fulfilled by social security in the vertical dimension of coverage (minimum number of contingencies covered by social security, minimum number of beneficiaries, minimum contributory periods to qualify for benefits). Convention 102 was recently ratified by Brazil (2009) and Uruguay (2010). Argentina is in the last stages of the ratification process and other countries have recently expressed an interest in ratifying the treaty. These three instruments—The Decent Work Agenda, ILO Convention 102 and the SPF—are essential tools

for guiding the different countries of the Americas in their efforts to achieve universal coverage of their social protection systems during the second decade of the twenty-first century.

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## SIMAPRO: Social Dialogue on Productivity and Decent Work (\*)

The Productivity Measurement and Enhancement System (SIMAPRO), a social dialogue programme promoted by the ILO in Latin America and the Caribbean, responds to needs expressed by organizations, governments and social actors, such as workers and employers, in the region. With the active participation of actors within the organization, SIMAPRO fosters the generation of labour practices that promote decent work and incorporates emerging standards of the ILO, such as those adopted in two recent instruments: the Declaration on Social Justice for a Fair Globalization (2008) and the Global Jobs Pact (2009).

*Organizations* need dialogue and cooperation tools between their management and workers in order to take full advantage of the productive capacities of their human resources. A 2010 study by the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) on productivity in Latin America reports that "a large part of the capital and many workers could be much more productive if they were more efficiently employed, even working in similar activities within the same economic sector."<sup>1</sup> Organizations have untapped reserves of productivity, in part due to a vertical, bureaucratic and non-participatory management, which is incapable of promoting innovative staff incentives and capacities.

*Social actors*, such as employers and unions, face challenges associated with competitiveness and improved working conditions of enterprises operating in open-market economies. The dynamic, fair generation and distribution of wealth requires sustainable sector and regional strategies. More coordination and cooperation between enterprises and unions is also needed for social innovation based on networks of two-way learning.

*Governments, both central and local*, need effective public policy mechanisms to improve the productivity of production chains and to link the sustainability of small and medium-sized enterprises with that of larger ones. Activity programmes should focus on building capacities for continuous improvement and innovation in organizations, based on the mobilization of their resources.

(\*) This box article of the 2010 *Labour Overview* was contributed by the ILO Office for Mexico and Cuba. For more information on SIMAPRO, see: <http://www.oitcinterfor.org/public/spanish/region/ampro/cinterfor/temas/prod/simapro/simapro.htm>

<sup>1</sup> IDB (2010): "The Age of Productivity: Transforming Economies from the Bottom Up."

Advancing decent work in organizations requires measurement tools, which should be inclusive, participatory and developed as a product of social dialogue. Concepts such as a safe and healthy work environment, participatory, reflexive practices, social inclusion, gender equality, social welfare and improved income, among others, should be reflected in organizational practices and individual behaviour through the development of integral, measurable labour skills.

SIMAPRO is a social dialogue programme promoted by the ILO that responds to these needs in a comprehensive, inclusive manner. It offers a multilevel learning management system centred on measurement and continuous improvement, and is built from the bottom up to achieve global objectives.

### What is SIMAPRO?

SIMAPRO promotes three dimensions of social innovation in organizations: philosophy, management tools and institution-building.

The SIMAPRO *philosophy* is social dialogue based on open, direct communication between all organizational levels, from the bottom up and vice versa. It represents a paradigm shift in the organizational cultural with a view toward cooperation and knowledge-based dialogue, supported by continuous learning, commitment and the equal distribution of the results obtained. It serves to resolve problems and identify opportunities for raising productivity and improving conditions at work in a timely, participatory manner. This generates and distributes benefits for the organization and its workers.

It is the integral, inclusive, flexible and permanent management of individuals, with an emphasis on the generation of proposals for low-cost improvements to achieve significant results in productivity and working conditions.

SIMAPRO is a *management tool* that was expanded to 12 components in 2010. It began as a measurement and feedback mechanism in 1995, following the same philosophy, and subsequently incorporated the following areas: (i) analysis of organizational weaknesses and strengths; (ii) assessment of the work environment from a decent work perspective; (iii) an improvement marathon based on the identification of problems and solutions; (iv) identification of key skills; (v) training using self-instruction and skills-based evaluation guides; (vi) description of sector skill standards and evaluations; (vii) training of internal trainers; (viii) skills-based evaluation and certification of individuals; (ix) job descriptions and a

skills-based compensation system; and (x) evaluation of SIMAPRO impact.

All SIMAPRO components are based on social dialogue and include the measurement and generation of improvement proposals. This allows one or several of these components to be applied, depending on the context, needs and capacities of the organization.

SIMAPRO *institution-building* takes place both within and between organizations. From a bipartite structure within the organization, it is implemented and monitored at the management, tactical and operational levels. It is supported by a communications strategy. Between organizations, the institution-building tool is the SIMAPRO learning network, where international agencies, organizations, social actors, consultants, educational institutions and research institutions share their experiences and propose improvements and innovations in applying this system. It is supported by virtual communication tools (the Internet) and sector information bulletins.

### What are Some of the Experiences and Results in the Region?

The first experiences with SIMAPRO date from 1995-1996, when a pilot project was implemented in a department of a company of the sugarcane industry in **Mexico** (<http://competenciasazucar.ning.com/>). The results encouraged the expansion of SIMAPRO in this sector, which eventually led to its inclusion in a labour modernization agreement between employers and the union in 2007.

Fifteen Mexican states produce sugarcane, an activity that benefits 227 municipalities, with a positive socioeconomic impact on 12 million people. Currently, 54 sugar refineries employ 400,000 rural workers. In 2007, this industry, which is the country's leading agribusiness, was fraught with technological, organizational and labour difficulties that threatened its survival in the open-market environment fostered by the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA). At the same time, this industry faced serious decent work deficits, particularly with respect to safety and quality of work life.

Through the 2007 agreement, this industry received support from an ILO supplementary fund project (RBSA). The project was implemented for 15 months in 14 sugar refineries. Key project interventions and results included support to social dialogue in the sector and technical assistance for skills-based management following the SIMAPRO philosophy. During the project, a bilateral profile of key skills for operational personnel until 2020 was developed, with

a view to transforming the industry into a competitive, socially responsible one.

The skills profile reflects several dimensions of decent work: generation of value for groups of interest (sustainability and green employment); safety and health at work and environmental conservation; teamwork and participation in continuous improvement; and comprehensive health practices and quality of work life. Management tools of the ILO's SafeWork programme complement these instruments: SafeWork risk profiles and plans of actions to address psychosocial problems at work (SOLVE).

Based on key skills, and with the collaboration of the 14 sugar refineries, 17 self-instruction and skills-based evaluation guides (GAEC) were produced. Although these learning tools share similar structures, their contents are tailored to each sugar refinery. Using the GAEC, instruments for standardized evaluation are developed in the framework of the National Council for the Standardization and Certification of Skills (CONOCER). This entity permits certification of workers through an independent agency, guaranteeing the confidence of employers and the union in the process.

Two hundred and fifty facilitators, 73 coordinators and 70 internal evaluators of the sugar refineries were trained to use the GAEC and conduct performance evaluations of trained personnel. During Year 1 of the project (2009), they trained and evaluated 800 workers using the GAEC on health and safety at work and environmental conservation. A total of 758 workers were certified. During the process, one improvement proposal was generated for each trained worker, on average.

During Year 2 (2010), the target is to surpass by 50% both the number of certified trained workers and the number of improvement proposals per trained worker. The Local Modernization Council, a social dialogue entity established in the 2007 agreement, is responsible for planning the training and certification process as well as for monitoring improvement proposals. One sugar refinery received 172 improvement proposals as a result of the application of the GAEC and the SIMAPRO measurement and feedback system. Thirty-seven of the proposals do not require cash investments; those that do were classified by priority by the Bipartite Modernization Council (Tala Sugar Refinery).

Employers and the union will design and implement a new system for classifying skills-based positions emphasizing multi-skills and functionality, as the final product of the project. This is complemented by a



career plan and a fixed and variable compensation system based on skills and contributions to productivity.

The impacts of SIMAPRO can be classified as tangible and intangible. Both support the improvement in productivity and working conditions. Intangible impacts include the generation of a climate of increased trust between employers and the union. In the past, the labour relationship was characterized by conflicts and mutual misunderstandings, with an average of one strike annually. By contrast, today there is a constant exchange of information and permanent dialogue to reach agreements, with a strategic vision of modernization created by all actors. At the level of the sugar refineries, communication and dialogue have improved. For example, the work environment, evaluated in terms of decent work dimensions, improved by 10% in one sugar refinery participating in the project (Presidente Benito Juárez Refinery).

In terms of tangible impacts, worker training has increased substantially. Previously, many workers had only one training opportunity in their labour life. In one of the 14 sugar refineries participating in the project, training hours-person increased by over 300% (from 3,000 to 10,000 hours).

With SafeWork risk profiles and increased work safety policies, at the same sugar refinery, work accidents declined from 124 to 26 over a 10-month period in 2010, as compared with the same period in 2009. The indicator for absenteeism also improved, falling from 7.0% to 3.5% in the periods mentioned above, whereas work losses of the process owing to human resources (errors or absenteeism) decreased from 3.0% to 0.5%.

The results of this sector project were presented as a good practice in social dialogue at a side event of the 99th International Labour Conference in Geneva. The three actors involved in dialogue on the modernization of the sector presented their views: the president of the industry chamber, the secretary general of the industry union and the labour and social welfare secretary. The three speakers highlighted SIMAPRO's role in the design and implementation of sector agreements.

The sugarcane industry experience served as a model for the application of similar SIMAPRO and social dialogue projects in the tourism and auto parts industries in Mexico. Particularly noteworthy was the application of SIMAPRO in 50 small and medium-sized enterprises of Morelos State, a project that began in the second semester of 2010, with support

from the state and federal governments (<http://www.simapro.org>).

SIMAPRO is also applied in **Cuba**. The experience with the sugarcane industry in Mexico was adapted and transferred to the Cuban sugarcane industry, in the framework of a dialogue between the ministry of the industry, refinery managers and the National Union of Sugar Workers (SNTA).

In late 2010, SIMAPRO is now fully implemented and encompasses all areas (field, refinery and derivatives) in 10 refineries and is partially applied in 11 refineries. In 2009, approximately 1,800 feedback meetings on measuring productivity took place and 2,161 improvement proposals were implemented in these refineries.

Like in Mexico, results were positive: work accidents decreased and advances were reported in production efficiency, cost and quality indicators as a direct result of the application of SIMAPRO. For example, in one sugar refinery, integral productivity of the sugarcane harvest improved by an average of 10.0% annually between 2006 and 2010, exceeding the annual target established for this sugar refinery by 20.0%.

A good practice in Cuba was the linkage of SIMAPRO with the workers' variable compensation system. In one case, workers doubled their salaries thanks to improved productivity results measured using the system. As intangible results, in terms of the work culture, substantial improvements were observed in the participation of workers in the timely identification of problems, in the internal unity of the production teams and in interiorizing the principles of food good manufacturing practices (cleanliness, order and hygiene).

In the **Dominican Republic**, SIMAPRO –with an emphasis on use of the GAEC– was implemented mainly in the assembly for export industry (free trade zone): clothing, shoes and medical devices. Between 2004 and 2010, under the direction of the National Institute for Technical and Professional Training (INFOTEP), 80 GAEC were prepared and applied to improve the efficiency and quality of those assembly plants, benefiting 60 enterprises of the sector in the free trade zone. Over the past two years, INFOTEP has focussed on preparing GAEC to address critical, crosscutting issues in this sector, such as the application of 5S (order and cleanliness) lean manufacturing and total productive maintenance (TPM) tools.

An opinion poll of business owners and workers demonstrated that the application of SIMAPRO, through the GAECs, had increased efficiency,

reduced the percentage of defects, improved quality, decreased absenteeism and tardiness and promoted a change in attitude and workers' response capacity in work situations. All of this had a positive impact on productivity and competitiveness of enterprises, as well as on workers' remunerations.

In **Chile** (<http://new.simapro.cl/>), SIMAPRO was applied in the fruit export sector in 2007 through a social dialogue between business owners and industry unions. The pilot experience took place in two enterprises with three vineyards and a fresh fruit packing plant. During the pre-harvest phase of 2007-2008, 150 temporary workers, mainly women, were trained using the GAEC (especially in packing). In 2008, after adapting the SIMAPRO methodology to the characteristics of Chilean businesses, it was applied in four enterprises, where 555 workers were trained with GAEC. Two of these enterprises used the measurement and feedback tool, achieving an average of 26 effectiveness points in improving productivity.

In late 2010, 20 enterprises now apply this system in Chile. In addition to the fruit export sector, wine producers, brick manufacturers and manufacturers of milling equipment for the mining industry are employing the system. A total of 2,274 of workers were trained. In six enterprises, the measurement and feedback tool is being applied on a permanent basis. Between 2008 and 2009, the consolidated result of the application of SIMAPRO in the enterprises was a 16.0% increase in productivity, a 39.6% increase in quality per worker employed in packing and a 22.0% increase in workers' remunerations.

Tangible results include the reduction in staff turnover in the fruit sector -in one enterprise, turnover decreased from 60.0% to 15.0% between 2007 and 2010. Through application of the GAEC, an exercise period was established at the workplace. This reduced

to zero medical leave for work-related illnesses and work accidents during the 2009-2010 season.

In terms of intangible results, some enterprises established training, recreation and entertainment areas for seasonal workers in an attempt to improve their quality of life during the months they spend away from home.

In light of the positive impact of initial SIMAPRO experiences, in mid-2010, a course to transfer the methodology and experience to the fruit industry was designed and implemented with a group of 110 consultants and 80 middle managers of 12 enterprises of sectors that had applied this system. The course addressed the development of effective communication skills, team work, problem-solving, conflict resolution and time management.

The objective is to incorporate several more enterprises and workers of the fruit industry, as well as those of other economic sectors in Chile. This project has support from the Corporation to Promote Production (CORFO), a public policy institute in Chile.

### In Summary

The different experiences in the countries of the region demonstrate that SIMAPRO is a viable proposal for social dialogue that produces positive results and impacts in terms of productivity and decent work. Since it is built from the bottom up, it permits achieving improvements at a low cost, making it an appropriate instrument for generating options to address the ongoing challenges of increasing productivity and competitiveness that organizations face in open-market economies. Through the practice of engaging in *daily social dialogue* promoted by SIMAPRO, a balanced change in productivity and decent work is developed in the organizations, in a work culture of continuous improvement.

## EXPLANATORY NOTE

The tables in the Statistical Appendix constitute the data source used in the analysis provided in the employment situation report of the Labour Overview. The ILO prepares these tables using information from different official sources of national statistics of Latin America and the Caribbean. Below is an explanation of the concepts and definitions used, information sources, international comparability of the data and reliability of the estimates contained in the Statistical Appendix. The statistical information presented refers to urban areas unless otherwise indicated.

### Concepts and Definitions

The national definitions of several concepts appearing in the Labour Overview may differ from international standards adopted for these concepts in the International Conferences of Labour Statisticians (ICLS). The definitions provided below are generally based on international standards, although some are defined according to standards developed for this publication to the extent that, as noted above, the processes following national criteria imply a partial adherence to international standards.

*Employed persons* are those individuals above a certain specified age who, during the brief reference period of the survey, such as a week or a day, worked for at least one hour in: (1) wage or salaried employment, working during the reference period for a wage or salary, or were employed but without work due to temporary absence during the reference period, during which time they maintained a formal tie with their job, or (2) independent or self-employment, working for profit or family income (includes unpaid family workers), or were 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 to consider them employed. In addition, those that confirm this relationship do not 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 unpaid family workers, these countries may establish a minimum number of hours to classify them as employed.

*Employment in the informal sector* is defined according to the Fifteenth ICLS. It refers to employment created in a group of production units which, according to the United Nations System of National Accounts (Revision 4), form part of the household sector as household enterprises, in other words, units engaged in the production of goods or services which are not constituted as separate legal entities independently of the households or household members that own

them, and which do not keep complete accounting records. Within the household sector, the informal sector comprises informal own-account enterprises (which may employ contributing family workers and employees on an occasional basis, but do not employ wage and salaried workers on a continuous basis) and enterprises of informal employers which employ wage and salaried workers on a continuous basis and may also have contributing family workers. These production units typically operate on a small scale and have a rudimentary organization in which there is little or no distinction between work and capital as production factors. Employment relationships, where they exist, are based on occasional employment, family ties or personal and social relations rather than on contractual agreements that provide formal guarantees.

From a methodological standpoint, the following criteria should be applied to identify production units of the informal sector: (1) legal status of the production unit; (2) existence of accounting records; (3) registration of the production unit in accordance with commercial, industrial or municipal provisions established by national law.

A production unit that meets any of the above criteria is not included in the informal sector. The application of these criteria may vary among countries that follow the provisions of the resolution on employment statistics in the informal sector adopted at the Fifteenth ICLS in 1993.

*Informal employment* is defined in accordance with the new concept established in the Seventeenth ICLS. In addition to employment in the informal sector, as defined in the Fifteenth ICLS, it includes wage and salaried workers with informal employment, either in enterprises of the formal sector, enterprises of the informal sector or households that employ them as paid domestic workers.

Employees are considered to have informal jobs if their employment relationship is, in law or in practice, not subject to national labour legislation, income taxation, social protection or entitlement to certain employment benefits. In some cases, they are jobs for which labour regulations are not applied, not enforced, or not complied with for any reason.

In terms of operational criteria, the Labour Overview uses social security coverage as a reference. In the case of wage and salaried workers, this coverage originates from their employment relationship, a condition that should be verified for wage and salaried workers employed in formal and informal enterprises.

In summary, informal employment includes the following types of jobs: own-account workers employed in their own informal-sector enterprises; employers employed in their own informal-sector

enterprises; contributing family workers; members of informal producers' cooperatives; wage and salaried workers holding informal jobs in formal-sector enterprises, informal-sector enterprises or in households; and own-account workers engaged in the production of goods exclusively for final use by their household if such production constitutes an important part of household consumption.

*Unemployed persons* are individuals over a specified age that, during the reference period, were (1) without employment, (2) available for wage or salaried work or self-employment, or (3) actively seeking employment, having taken concrete action to obtain employment in a specific recent period. It should be noted that not all countries of the region apply these three criteria to estimate the number of unemployed persons. Moreover, some countries include in the population of unemployed persons 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 group of employed and unemployed individuals.

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

*The unemployment rate* refers to the number of unemployed people 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* is the labour force divided by the working-age population multiplied by 100 and represents the proportion of the population who are of working age and who actively participate in the labour market.

*Labour productivity* is defined in the Labour Overview as increases (or decreases) of the average product per worker, which is calculated using series of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) at constant prices of the countries and the series of total employment.

*Wages and salaries* refer to payment in cash and/or in kind (for example foodstuffs or other articles) given to workers, 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.

*Real average wages* are the average wages paid to wage and salaried workers in the formal sector, deflated using the national Consumer Price Index (CPI) of each country. In other words, the nominal wage values published by official sources in local currency

figures or as an index are deflated using the CPI for the national level or metropolitan area. Diverse data sources are used, but establishment survey sources predominate. Other sources include the social security systems and household surveys. Worker coverage varies by country; in some cases all wage and salaried workers are included, while in others data refer to wage and salaried workers in the private sector, workers covered by social and employment legislation, workers covered by the social security system or workers in the manufacturing sector, as indicated in the notes of the corresponding table. The real average wage index was constructed using 2000 as the base year (2000 = 100).

*Real minimum wages* are defined in the Labour Overview as the value of the average nominal minimum wage deflated using the Consumer Price Index (CPI) of each country. In other words, official data on nominal minimum wages (monthly, daily or hourly) paid to workers covered by minimum wage legislation are deflated using the CPI of each country. The majority of the countries have a single minimum wage. Nonetheless, in some countries, the minimum wage is differentiated according to industry and/or occupation, in which case the minimum wage of the industry is used as the reference. The real minimum wage index was constructed using 2000 as the base year (2000=100).

*The urban employed population with health and/or pension coverage* refers to the employed population which is covered by health insurance and/or a pension, whether it be through social security or through private insurance, as the primary beneficiary, direct insured, contributing member or non-contributing member, or non-primary beneficiary.

## International Comparability

Progress toward harmonizing concepts and methodologies of statistical data that permit international comparisons is directly related to the particular situation of the statistical system in each country of the region. This largely depends on institutional efforts and commitments for implementing resolutions approved in the ICLS and regional integration agreements on statistical issues, as well as on information needs, infrastructure and level of development of the data collection system (based primarily on labour force sample surveys), as well as on available human and financial resources. 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 market indicators. This is also true of other variables associated with the world of work, since countries may have different concepts for geographic coverage and minimum

working-age thresholds, different reference periods and may use different versions of international classification manuals, among others. Nevertheless, 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 international comparability at the regional level.

### 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 from the following institutions:

**Argentina:** Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas y Censos (INDEC) ([www.indec.gov.ar](http://www.indec.gov.ar)) and Ministerio de Trabajo, Empleo y Seguridad Social ([www.trabajo.gov.ar](http://www.trabajo.gov.ar)).

**Barbados:** Ministry of Labour (<http://labour.gov.bb>) and the Central Bank of Barbados ([www.centralbank.org.bb](http://www.centralbank.org.bb)).

**Bolivia:** Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas (INE) ([www.ine.gov.bo](http://www.ine.gov.bo)).

**Brazil:** Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estadísticas (IBGE) ([www.ibge.gov.br](http://www.ibge.gov.br)).

**Chile:** Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas (INE) ([www.ine.cl](http://www.ine.cl)), Banco Central de Chile ([www.bcentral.cl](http://www.bcentral.cl)), Ministerio de Planificación y Cooperación ([www.mideplan.cl](http://www.mideplan.cl)), Ministerio de Trabajo y Previsión Social ([www.mintrab.gov.cl](http://www.mintrab.gov.cl)) and Dirección de Trabajo del Ministerio de Trabajo y Previsión Social ([www.dt.gob.cl](http://www.dt.gob.cl)).

**Colombia:** Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadísticas (DANE) ([www.gov.dane.co](http://www.gov.dane.co)), Banco de la República de Colombia ([www.banrep.gov.co](http://www.banrep.gov.co)) and Ministerio de la Protección Social ([www.minproteccionsocial.gov.co](http://www.minproteccionsocial.gov.co)).

**Costa Rica:** Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas y Censos (INEC) ([www.inec.go.cr](http://www.inec.go.cr)), Banco Central de Costa Rica ([www.bccr.fi.cr](http://www.bccr.fi.cr)) and Ministerio de Trabajo y Seguridad Social ([www.ministrabajo.co.cr](http://www.ministrabajo.co.cr)).

**Dominican Republic:** Banco Central de la República Dominicana ([www.bancentral.gov.do](http://www.bancentral.gov.do)) and Secretaría de Estado de Trabajo ([www.set.gov.do](http://www.set.gov.do)).

**Ecuador:** Banco Central del Ecuador (BCE) ([www.bce.fin.ec](http://www.bce.fin.ec)), Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Censo ([www.inec.gov.ec](http://www.inec.gov.ec)) and Ministerio de Relaciones Laborales ([www.mintrab.gov.ec](http://www.mintrab.gov.ec)).

**El Salvador:** Ministerio de Economía (MINEC) ([www.minec.gob.sv](http://www.minec.gob.sv)), Dirección General de Estadística y Censo ([www.digestyc.gob.sv](http://www.digestyc.gob.sv)) and Ministerio de Trabajo y Previsión Social ([www.mtpps.gob.sv](http://www.mtpps.gob.sv)).

**Guatemala:** Instituto Nacional de Estadística ([www.ine.gob.gt](http://www.ine.gob.gt)) and Ministerio de Trabajo y Previsión Social ([www.mintrabajo.gob.gt](http://www.mintrabajo.gob.gt)).

**Honduras:** Instituto Nacional de Estadística (INE) ([www.ine.gob.hn](http://www.ine.gob.hn)), Banco Central ([www.bch.hn](http://www.bch.hn)) and Secretaría de Trabajo y Seguridad Social ([www.trabajo.gob.hn](http://www.trabajo.gob.hn)).

**Jamaica:** Statistical Institute of Jamaica ([www.statinja.gov.jm](http://www.statinja.gov.jm)) and Bank of Jamaica ([www.boj.org.jm](http://www.boj.org.jm)).

**Mexico:** Instituto Nacional de Estadística, Geografía e Informática (INEGI) ([www.inegi.org.mx](http://www.inegi.org.mx)) and Secretaría de Trabajo y Previsión Social ([www.stps.gob.mx](http://www.stps.gob.mx)).

**Nicaragua:** Instituto Nacional de Información de Desarrollo (INIDE) ([www.inide.gob.ni](http://www.inide.gob.ni)) and Ministerio de Trabajo ([www.mitrab.gob.ni](http://www.mitrab.gob.ni)).

**Panama:** Contraloría General de la República de Panamá ([www.contraloria.gob.pa](http://www.contraloria.gob.pa)) and Ministerio de Trabajo y Desarrollo Laboral ([www.mitradel.gob.pa](http://www.mitradel.gob.pa)).

**Paraguay:** Banco Central del Paraguay (BCP) ([www.bcp.gov.py](http://www.bcp.gov.py)) and Dirección General de Estadística, Encuesta y Censo ([www.dgeec.gov.py](http://www.dgeec.gov.py)).

**Peru:** Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas e Informática (INEI) ([www.inei.gob.pe](http://www.inei.gob.pe)), Banco Central de Reserva del Perú ([www.bcrp.gob.pe](http://www.bcrp.gob.pe)) and Ministerio de Trabajo y Promoción del Empleo ([www.mintra.gob.pe](http://www.mintra.gob.pe)).

**Trinidad and Tobago:** Central Bank of Trinidad and Tobago ([www.central-bank.org.tt](http://www.central-bank.org.tt)) and Central Statistical Office ([www.cso.gov.tt](http://www.cso.gov.tt)).

**Uruguay:** Instituto Nacional de Estadística (INE) ([www.ine.gub.uy](http://www.ine.gub.uy)).

**Venezuela:** Instituto Nacional de Estadística (INE) ([www.ine.gov.ve](http://www.ine.gov.ve)) and Banco Central de Venezuela ([www.bcv.gov.ve](http://www.bcv.gov.ve)).

The information on employment, earnings and productivity indicators of the countries not previously mentioned, as well as data on the employment structure indicators for Latin American countries presented in the Labour Overview, are obtained from household surveys processed by the ILO/SIALC team (Labour Information and Analysis System for Latin America and the Caribbean) and from administrative records of that entity. All indicators on employment, income, productivity and employment structure of the Caribbean countries presented in the Labour Overview are obtained from official data from household surveys of those countries.

The household surveys that periodically collect data on the labour market situation in Mexico (2005), Argentina (2003), Brazil (2002), Colombia (2000), Ecuador (1999), Nicaragua (2003) and Peru (2001) underwent methodological changes or were newly established (Ecuador and Peru). For this reason, the contents of the series changed and are not comparable with previous years. The most notable changes occurred in Argentina, Brazil and Mexico, making it necessary to adjust the national series in order to use the adjusted figures to calculate the regional series of the labour force participation rate, employment-to-population ratio and unemployment rate. In Argentina, data were adjusted from 1990 to 2003 whereas in Brazil, where data for these three indicators are derived from the Monthly Employment Survey (Pesquisa Mensual de Emprego), estimates were adjusted from 1990 to 2001. In Mexico, data were adjusted from 1990 to 1996 given that this country presented new estimates for the 1997-2005 period.

Moreover, the open urban unemployment rate and labour force participation rate of Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador and Panama were calculated by excluding hidden unemployment in order to use these adjusted rates in the calculation of the respective regional series of averages, since official national information of these countries

includes hidden unemployment in labour force estimates.

### Reliability of Estimates

The data in the Statistical Appendix originating from household or establishment surveys of the countries are subject to sampling and non-sampling errors. Sampling errors occur, for example, when a survey is conducted based on a sample of the population instead of a census, for which reason there is the possibility that these estimates will differ from the real values of the target population. The exact difference, called the sampling error, varies depending on the sample selected. Its variability is measured through the standard error of the estimate. In most countries of Latin America and the Caribbean, estimates of the key labour market indicators presented in the Labour Overview have a confidence level of 95%.

Non-sampling errors can also affect estimates derived from household or establishment surveys. These may occur for a variety of reasons, including the lack of a sample of a population segment; 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; and errors introduced during data collection and processing.



Statistical Annex / **2010** **Labour**  
Overview







TABLE 1

**LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: URBAN UNEMPLOYMENT. 2000 - 2010**  
*(Average annual rates)*

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2009	2010
											Average, January to October	
<b>Latin America</b>												
Argentina <sup>a/</sup>	15.1	17.4	19.7	17.3	13.6	11.6	10.2	8.5	7.9	8.7	8.8 p/	7.8 p/
Bolivia (Plurinat. State of) <sup>b/</sup>	7.5	8.5	8.7	9.2	6.2	8.2	8.0	7.7	6.7	7.9	8.6 q/	6.5 q/
Brazil <sup>c/</sup>	7.1	6.2	11.7	12.3	11.5	9.8	10.0	9.3	7.9	8.1	8.3	7.0
Chile <sup>d/</sup>	9.7	9.9	9.8	9.5	10.0	9.2	7.8	7.1	7.8	9.7	...	8.5 r/
Colombia <sup>e/</sup>	17.3	18.2	17.6	16.6	15.3	13.9	12.9	11.4	11.5	13.0	13.2 p/	12.9 p/
Costa Rica <sup>f/</sup>	5.2	5.8	6.8	6.7	6.7	6.9	6.0	4.8	4.8	7.6	8.5 s/	7.1 s/
Cuba <sup>d/</sup>	5.4	4.1	3.3	2.3	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.6	1.7	...	...
Dominican Republic <sup>m/</sup>	13.9	15.6	16.1	16.7	18.4	17.9	16.2	15.6	14.1	14.9	14.9 u/	14.4 u/
Ecuador <sup>e/</sup>	9.0	10.9	9.2	11.5	9.7	8.5	8.1	7.3	6.9	8.5	8.7 p/	8.1 p/
El Salvador <sup>h/</sup>	6.7	7.0	6.2	6.2	6.5	7.3	5.7	5.8	5.5	7.1	...	...
Guatemala <sup>f/</sup>	2.9	...	5.1	5.2	4.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Honduras <sup>f/</sup>	...	5.5	5.9	7.4	8.0	6.1	4.6	3.9	4.2	4.9 o/	4.9 o/	6.4 o/
Mexico <sup>f/</sup>	3.4	3.6	3.9	4.6	5.3	4.7	4.6	4.8	4.9	6.6	6.9	6.5
Nicaragua <sup>f/</sup>	7.8	11.3	12.2	10.2	8.6	7.0	7.0	6.9	8.0	...	...	...
Panama <sup>k/</sup>	15.3	17.0	16.5	15.9	14.1	12.1	10.4	7.8	6.5	7.9	7.9 t/	7.7 t/
Paraguay <sup>f/</sup>	10.0	10.8	14.7	11.2	10.0	7.6	8.9	7.2	7.4	8.2	...	...
Peru <sup>f/</sup>	7.8	9.2	9.4	9.4	9.4	9.6	8.5	8.5	8.4	8.4	8.5 p/	8.1 p/
Uruguay <sup>f/</sup>	13.6	15.3	17.0	16.9	13.1	12.2	11.4	9.6	7.9	7.7	7.8	7.3
Venezuela (Boliv. Rep. of) <sup>m/</sup>	13.9	13.3	15.9	18.0	15.3	12.3	10.0	8.4	7.3	7.8	8.1	8.8
<b>The Caribbean</b>												
Bahamas <sup>m/</sup>	...	6.9	9.1	10.8	10.2	10.2	7.7	7.9	8.7	14.2	...	...
Barbados <sup>m/</sup>	9.3	9.9	10.3	11.0	9.6	9.1	8.7	7.4	8.1	10.0	10.1 v/	10.6 v/
Belize <sup>m/</sup>	11.1	9.1	10.0	12.9	11.6	11.0	9.4	8.5	8.2	...	...	...
Jamaica <sup>m/</sup>	15.5	15.0	14.3	10.9	11.4	11.2	10.3	9.8	10.6	11.4	11.3 w/	12.9 w/
Trinidad and Tobago <sup>m/</sup>	12.1	10.9	10.4	10.5	8.3	8.0	6.2	5.5	4.6	5.3	5.0 v/	6.7 v/
<b>Latin America and the Caribbean <sup>m/</sup></b>												
	<b>10.3</b>	<b>10.2</b>	<b>11.2</b>	<b>11.2</b>	<b>10.3</b>	<b>9.1</b>	<b>8.6</b>	<b>7.9</b>	<b>7.3</b>	<b>8.1</b>	<b>8.4</b>	<b>7.6</b>

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

- a/ Progressive incorporation, reaching 31 urban areas. New measurement beginning in 2003; data are not comparable with previous years.
- b/ Urban area. Information for 2004 based on a survey conducted between November 2003 and October 2004. New measurement beginning in 2009; data are not comparable with previous years.
- c/ Six metropolitan regions. New measurement beginning in 2002; data are not comparable with previous years.
- d/ National coverage.
- e/ Thirteen metropolitan areas. Includes hidden unemployment.
- f/ Urban national coverage.
- g/ Urban national coverage, 2000 (November), 2001 (August) and 2003 (December). Beginning in 2004, average of four quarters. Includes hidden unemployment.
- h/ Urban national coverage. New measurement beginning in 2007; data are not comparable with previous years.
- i/ 32 urban areas.
- j/ Urban national coverage. New measurement beginning in 2003; data are not comparable with previous years.

- k/ Urban national coverage. Includes hidden unemployment.
- l/ Metropolitan Lima. New measurement beginning in 2002; data are not comparable with previous years.
- m/ National coverage. Includes hidden unemployment.
- n/ Weighted average. Includes data adjustment for methodological changes in Argentina (2003) and Brazil (2002); as well as due to the exclusion of hidden unemployment in Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador and Panama. Revised figures.
- o/ May data.
- p/ Data for January to September.
- q/ First semester.
- r/ Data for January to September. New measurement; data are not comparable with previous years.
- s/ July data. New measurement; data are not comparable with previous years.
- t/ August data.
- u/ April data. 2010 preliminary.
- v/ First quarter.
- w/ Average, January and April.

TABLE 2

**LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: URBAN UNEMPLOYMENT BY SEX, 2000 - 2010**  
*(Average annual rates)*

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2009	2010
											Average January to October	
<b>Latin America</b>												
Argentina <sup>af</sup>	15.1	17.4	19.7	17.3	13.6	11.6	10.2	8.5	7.9	8.7	8.8 o/	7.8 o/
Men	14.1	17.5	20.2	15.5	11.9	10.0	8.4	6.7	6.6	7.8	7.9	6.8
Women	16.4	17.2	18.9	19.5	15.8	13.6	12.5	10.8	9.7	9.9	9.9	9.3
Bolivia (Plurinat. State of) <sup>af</sup>	7.5	8.5	8.7	...	6.2	8.2	8.0	7.7	6.7	7.9	8.6 p/	6.5 p/
Men	6.2	7.5	7.3	...	5.0	6.8	7.1	6.3	...	6.6	6.9	5.5
Women	9.0	9.7	10.3	...	7.5	9.9	9.1	9.4	...	9.4	10.5	7.6
Brazil <sup>af</sup>	7.1	6.2	11.7	12.3	11.5	9.8	10.0	9.3	7.9	8.1	8.3	7.0
Men	6.5	5.9	9.9	10.1	9.1	7.8	8.1	7.4	6.1	6.5	6.7	5.4
Women	8.0	6.7	13.9	15.2	14.4	12.4	12.2	11.6	10.0	9.9	10.2	8.8
Chile <sup>af</sup>	9.7	9.9	9.8	9.5	10.0	9.2	7.8	7.1	7.8	9.7	...	8.5 q/
Men	9.3	9.7	9.6	9.1	9.4	8.5	6.9	6.3	6.8	9.1	...	7.5
Women	10.3	10.1	10.2	10.3	11.2	10.6	9.5	8.6	9.5	10.7	...	10.0
Colombia <sup>af</sup>	17.3	18.2	17.6	16.7	15.4	13.9	13.0	11.4	11.5	13.0	13.2 o/	12.9o/
Men	15.0	16.0	15.3	14.0	13.0	12.2	10.7	9.7	9.9	11.3	11.5	11.2
Women	19.9	20.7	20.1	19.6	18.1	17.1	15.4	13.3	13.5	15.0	15.3	14.8
Costa Rica <sup>af</sup>	5.2	5.8	6.8	6.7	6.7	6.9	6.0	4.8	4.8	7.6	8.5 r/	7.1 r/
Men	4.6	5.2	6.2	6.1	5.8	5.6	4.5	3.4	4.3	6.5	7.3	6.0
Women	6.3	6.7	7.7	7.6	8.2	8.8	8.2	6.8	5.6	9.2	10.2	8.8
Dominican Republic <sup>af</sup>	13.9	15.6	16.1	16.7	18.4	17.9	16.2	15.6	14.1	14.9	14.9 t/	14.4t/
Men	7.9	9.4	9.5	10.6	10.5	11.0	9.2	9.3	8.5	9.8	9.9	9.7
Women	23.9	26.0	26.6	26.6	30.7	28.8	27.0	25.4	22.8	23.2	23.2	21.9
Ecuador <sup>af</sup>	9.0	10.9	9.2	11.5	9.7	8.5	8.1	7.3	6.9	8.5	8.7 o/	8.1 o/
Men	6.2	7.1	6.0	9.1	7.4	6.8	6.2	6.0	5.6	7.1	7.3	6.7
Women	13.1	16.2	14.0	15.0	12.8	10.9	10.6	9.2	8.7	10.4	10.6	10.0
El Salvador <sup>af</sup>	6.7	7.0	6.2	6.2	6.5	7.3	5.7	5.8 m/	5.5	7.1	...	...
Men	9.9	8.7	7.4	8.6	8.8	9.4	7.6	7.9 m/	7.2	9.0	...	...
Women	3.7	4.9	3.4	3.1	3.7	4.8	3.6	3.4 m/	3.5	4.9	...	...
Guatemala <sup>af</sup>	2.9	...	5.1	5.2	4.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Men	3.6	...	4.3	4.0	4.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Women	1.9	...	6.2	6.8	4.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Honduras <sup>af</sup>	...	5.5	5.9	7.4	8.0	6.1	4.6	3.9	4.2	4.9 n/	4.9 n/	6.4 n/
Men	...	5.9	6.2	7.1	7.4	5.4	4.3	4.1	...	...	...	...
Women	...	5.0	5.5	7.7	8.8	7.1	5.0	3.6	...	...	...	...
Mexico <sup>af</sup>	2.2	2.4	2.7	3.3	3.8	4.7	4.6	4.8	4.9	6.6	6.9	6.5
Men	2.1	2.4	2.6	3.2	3.5	4.5	4.4	4.5	4.8	6.7	6.9	6.6
Women	2.4	2.5	2.8	3.5	4.2	5.0	4.9	5.2	4.9	6.5	6.8	6.4
Nicaragua <sup>af</sup>	7.8	11.3	12.2	10.2	8.6	7.0	7.0	6.9	8.0	...	...	...
Men	8.0	12.8	13.4	11.7	8.6	7.8	8.1	7.6	8.4	...	...	...
Women	7.4	9.4	10.5	8.4	8.5	6.1	5.7	6.0	7.6	...	...	...
Panama <sup>af</sup>	15.3	17.0	16.1	15.9	14.1	12.1	10.4	7.8	6.5	7.9	7.9 s/	7.7 s/
Men	12.0	15.1	13.9	13.2	11.5	10.0	8.6	6.5	5.4	6.3	6.3	6.5
Women	18.1	19.8	19.3	19.6	17.6	15.0	13.0	9.6	7.9	9.9	9.9	9.3
Paraguay <sup>af</sup>	10.0	10.8	14.7	11.2	10.0	7.6	8.9	7.2	7.4	8.2	...	...
Men	9.9	10.5	14.0	10.5	8.7	7.1	7.7	6.2	6.6	7.9	...	...
Women	10.2	11.2	15.7	12.2	11.6	8.3	10.4	8.4	8.5	8.7	...	...
Peru <sup>af</sup>	7.8	9.2	9.4	9.4	9.4	9.6	8.5	8.5	8.4	8.4	8.5 o/	8.1 o/
Men	8.2	8.2	8.3	8.5	8.1	8.3	7.2	7.3	6.5	6.7	6.9	6.7
Women	7.4	10.6	10.8	10.7	11.1	11.2	10.1	9.9	10.6	10.4	10.5	9.8
Uruguay <sup>af</sup>	13.6	15.3	17.0	16.9	13.1	12.2	11.4	9.6	7.9	7.7	7.8	7.3
Men	10.9	11.5	13.5	13.5	10.3	9.6	8.8	7.1	5.7	5.7	5.8	5.5
Women	17.0	19.7	21.2	20.8	16.6	15.3	14.4	12.6	10.3	9.8	10.1	9.2

(continued...)

TABLE 2 (continued)

**LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: URBAN UNEMPLOYMENT BY SEX, 2000 - 2010**  
*(Average annual rates)*

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2009	2010
											Average January to October	
Venezuela (Boliv. Rep. of) <sup>v/</sup>	13.9	13.3	15.9	18.0	15.1	12.3	10.0	8.4	7.3	7.8	8.1	8.8
Men	13.2	13.6	14.4	16.3	13.1	11.3	9.2	7.9	7.0	7.4	7.7	8.4
Women	14.8	17.4	18.2	21.1	17.9	13.8	11.3	9.3	7.8	8.3	8.6	9.5
<b>The Caribbean</b>												
Bahamas <sup>v/</sup>	...	6.9	9.1	10.8	10.2	10.2	7.6	7.9	12.1	14.2	...	...
Men	...	6.8	8.8	10.0	9.4	9.2	6.9	6.7	...	14.0	...	...
Women	...	7.1	9.4	11.7	11.0	11.2	8.4	9.1	...	14.4	...	...
Barbados <sup>v/</sup>	9.3	9.9	10.3	11.0	9.6	9.1	8.7	7.4	8.1	10.0	10.1u/	10.6u/
Men	7.5	8.0	8.6	9.6	8.8	7.4	7.7	6.5	6.9	10.1	10.2	10.5
Women	11.5	11.9	12.1	12.6	10.5	10.8	9.8	8.5	9.5	9.8	10.0	10.7
Belize <sup>v/</sup>	11.1	9.1	10.0	12.9	11.6	11.0	9.4	8.5	8.2	...	...	...
Men	...	5.8	7.5	8.6	8.3	7.4	6.2	5.8	...	...	...	...
Women	...	15.4	15.3	20.7	17.4	17.2	15.0	13.1	...	...	...	...
Jamaica <sup>v/</sup>	15.5	15.0	14.3	10.9	11.4	11.2	10.3	9.8	10.6	11.4	11.3w/	12.9v/
Men	10.2	10.2	9.9	7.2	8.1	7.6	7.0	6.2	7.3	8.5	8.8	9.9
Women	22.3	21.0	19.8	15.6	15.7	15.8	14.4	14.5	14.6	14.8	14.3	16.7
Trinidad and Tobago <sup>v/</sup>	12.1	10.9	10.4	10.5	8.3	8.0	6.2	5.5	4.6	5.3	5.0u/	6.7u/
Men	10.2	8.7	7.8	8.0	6.4	5.8	4.5	3.9	...	...	...	...
Women	15.1	14.5	14.5	13.8	11.2	11.0	8.7	7.9	...	...	...	...

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

- a/ Progressive incorporation, reaching 31 urban areas. New measurement beginning in 2003; data are not comparable with previous years.
- b/ Urban area. Information for 2004 based on a survey conducted between November 2003 and October 2004. Preliminary figures beginning in 2005.
- c/ Six metropolitan regions. New measurement beginning in 2002; data are not comparable with previous years.
- d/ National coverage.
- e/ Thirteen metropolitan areas. Includes hidden unemployment.
- f/ Urban national coverage.
- g/ Urban national coverage, 2000 (November), 2001 (August) and 2003 (December). Beginning in 2004 average of four quarters. Includes hidden unemployment.
- h/ 32 urban areas.
- i/ Urban national coverage. New measurement beginning in 2003; data are not comparable with previous years.
- j/ Urban national coverage. Includes hidden unemployment. 2009 Preliminary data.

k/ Metropolitan Lima. New measurement beginning in 2002; data are not comparable with previous years.

l/ National coverage. Includes hidden unemployment.

m/ New measurement beginning in 2007; data are not comparable with previous years.

n/ May data.

o/ Data are for January to September.

p/ First semester.

q/ Data are for January to September. New measurement; data are not comparable with previous years.

r/ July data. New measurement; data are not comparable with previous years.

s/ August data.

t/ April data. 2010 preliminary.

u/ First quarter.

v/ Average, January and April.

TABLE 3

**LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: URBAN YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT. 2000 - 2010**  
*(Average annual rates)*

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2009	2010
											Average January to October	
<b>Latin America</b>												
Argentina <sup>a/</sup>												
15-24	28.4	31.0	35.5	35.3	29.3	25.8	23.6	20.3	18.8	21.2	20.9n/	19.2n/
Bolivia (Plurinat. State of) <sup>b/</sup>												
10-19	14.7	14.2	20.0	...	12.8	18.1	14.4	...	...	...	...	...
20-29	10.8	10.9	10.7	...	8.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Brazil <sup>c/</sup>												
15-17	17.8	29.8	33.9	38.2	35.4	33.3	32.6	31.9	28.8	28.7	28.8	26.5
18-24	14.0	12.5	21.3	23.4	22.5	20.6	21.0	19.8	16.6	17.3	17.8	15.5
15-24	...	...	...	25.3	24.2	22.1	22.4	21.1	18.0	18.5	18.9	16.7
Chile <sup>d/</sup>												
15-19	26.1	29.0	28.4	28.9	26.6	25.4	24.9	24.0	26.4	29.4	...	22.1o/
20-24	20.1	18.9	20.0	19.3	19.5	18.3	16.5	16.0	17.5	20.7	...	17.6
15-24	...	...	...	...	...	...	18.3	17.8	19.7	22.6	...	18.8
Colombia <sup>e/</sup>												
14-26	...	31.4	30.0	29.4	27.1	25.3	23.0	20.4	21.6	23.7	24.1p/	24.0p/
Costa Rica <sup>f/</sup>												
12 - 24	10.9	14.0	16.3	14.5	15.1	15.9	15.3	11.9	11.2	17.9	...	...
Dominican Republic <sup>g/</sup>												
10-24	...	27.0	29.3	31.8	33.0	...	36.0	30.9	...	...	...	...
Ecuador <sup>h/</sup>												
15-24	17.4	20.1	17.4	21.6	19.7	17.9	18.2	16.7	16.3	18.6	18.5p/	20.1p/
El Salvador <sup>i/</sup>												
15-24	14.3	13.2	11.4	11.9	12.6	15.0	12.6	11.6m/	12.3	15.8	...	...
Honduras <sup>j/</sup>												
10 - 24	...	...	8.8	12.0	13.9	10.9	7.3	7.2	...	...	...	...
Mexico <sup>k/</sup>												
12-19	5.3	5.6	6.6	8.5	9.5	6.8	6.9	7.2	7.7	10.1	10.3p/	9.9p/
20-24	4.1	4.6	5.2	6.6	7.4							
Nicaragua <sup>l/</sup>												
10-24	...	19.3	18.6	16.4	15.7	11.9	12.1	10.7	13.7	...	...	...
Panama <sup>m/</sup>												
15-24	32.6	35.4	34.1	33.7	30.0	26.3	23.4	18.9	16.6	18.8	18.8q/	18.0q/
Paraguay <sup>n/</sup>												
15-19	...	22.3	29.9	25.3	21.6	18.9	23.1	18.0	18.9	21.7	...	...
20-24	...	15.4	21.3	19.0	16.2	15.6	27.7	14.6	12.3	13.7	...	...
Peru <sup>o/</sup>												
14-24	15.4	14.2	15.1	14.8	15.8	16.1	14.9	14.3	15.9	16.7	16.8p/	15.8p/
Uruguay <sup>p/</sup>												
14-24	31.7	36.2	40.0	39.1	33.0	29.5	29.3	25.3	21.7	21.0	21.2	20.8
Venezuela (Boliv. Rep. of) <sup>q/</sup>												
15-24	25.2	23.3	27.2	30.0	25.1	21.0	17.8	15.5	14.1	15.6	16.5	18.0
<b>The Caribbean</b>												
Bahamas <sup>r/</sup>												
15 - 24	...	15.1	19.9	26.8	24.9	20.2	...	...	...	...	...	...
Barbados <sup>s/</sup>												
15-24	19.4	23.1	23.2	26.1	22.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

(continued...)

TABLE 3 (continued)

**LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: URBAN YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT. 2000 - 2010**  
*(Average annual rates)*

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2009	2010
											Average January to October	
Belize <sup>v</sup>												
15-24	...	15.5	19.2	22.3	18.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Jamaica <sup>v</sup>												
15-24	32.1	33.0	31.1	25.7	26.3	25.5	23.6	23.7	26.5n/	...	...	...
Trinidad and Tobago <sup>v</sup>												
15-24	23.2	22.6	21.1	20.6	18.3	16.5	13.0	11.3	10.4n/	...	...	...

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

- a/ Progressive incorporation, reaching 31 urban areas. New measurement beginning in 2003; data are not comparable with previous years.
- b/ Urban area. Information for 2004 based on survey conducted between November 2003 and October 2004. Preliminary data beginning in 2005; 2006 data are for ages 15 to 24 years.
- c/ Six metropolitan regions. New measurement beginning in 2002; data are not comparable with previous years.
- d/ National coverage.
- e/ Thirteen metropolitan areas. Includes hidden unemployment.
- f/ Urban national coverage.
- g/ Urban national coverage, November of each year except 2001 (August) and 2003 (December). Beginning in 2004 average of four quarters. Includes hidden unemployment.
- h/ 32 urban areas. Beginning in 2005, national coverage for ages 14 to 24 years.
- i/ Urban national coverage. New measurement beginning in 2003; data are not comparable with previous years.

- j/ Urban national coverage. Includes hidden unemployment. 2009 preliminary data.
- k/ Metropolitan Lima. New measurement beginning in 2002; data are not comparable with previous years.
- l/ National coverage. Includes hidden unemployment.
- m/ New measurement beginning in 2007; data are not comparable with previous years. Beginning in 2007, data are for ages 16 to 24 years.
- n/ First semester.
- o/ Data are for January to September. New measurement; data are not comparable with previous years.
- p/ Data are for January to September.
- q/ August data.

TABLE 4

**LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: URBAN LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES. 2000 - 2010**  
*(Average annual rates)*

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2009	2010
											Average January to October	
<b>Latin America</b>												
Argentina <sup>a/</sup>	56.4	56.1	55.6	60.3	60.2	59.9	60.3	59.5	58.8	59.3	59.2 p/	59.0 p/
Bolivia (Plurinat. State of) <sup>b/</sup>	56.1	60.6	58.0	...	58.6	55.7	58.7	57.1	...	56.9	56.3 q/	57.3 q/
Brazil <sup>c/</sup>	58.0	56.4	56.7	57.1	57.2	56.6	56.9	56.9	57.0	56.7	56.6	57.1
Chile <sup>d/</sup>	54.4	53.9	53.7	54.4	55.0	55.6	54.8	54.9	56.0	55.9	...	58.2 t/
Colombia <sup>e/</sup>	63.5	64.4	64.8	65.0	63.6	63.3	62.0	61.8	62.6	64.6	64.2 p/	65.5 p/
Costa Rica <sup>f/</sup>	54.8	56.8	56.4	56.8	56.3	58.2	58.2	58.5	58.6	58.1	62.3 s/	60.7 s/
Cuba <sup>d/</sup>	69.9	70.7	70.9	70.9	71.0	72.1	72.1	73.7	74.7	77.1	...	...
Dominican Republic <sup>m/</sup>	55.3	54.3	55.1	54.3	56.3	55.9	56.0	56.1	55.6	53.8	53.6 u/	54.9 u/
Ecuador <sup>d/</sup>	57.3	63.1	58.3	58.9	59.1	59.5	59.1	61.3	60.1	58.9	59.4 p/	57.7 p/
El Salvador <sup>h/</sup>	54.5	54.8	53.1	55.4	53.9	54.3	53.9	63.6	64.1	64.3	...	...
Guatemala <sup>f/</sup>	58.2	...	61.7	61.6	58.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Honduras <sup>f/</sup>	...	53.4	52.4	53.5	52.7	50.3	52.1	51.7	52.7	53.1 o/	53.1 o/	53.7 o/
Mexico <sup>i/</sup>	58.7	58.1	57.8	58.3	58.9	59.5	60.7	60.7	60.4	60.2	60.3	60.4
Nicaragua <sup>f/</sup>	52.6	49.8	49.4	53.0	52.6	53.7	52.8	50.5	53.8	...	...	...
Panama <sup>k/</sup>	60.9	61.4	63.4	63.5	64.2	63.7	62.8	62.6	64.4	64.4	64.4 t/	64.0 t/
Paraguay <sup>f/</sup>	60.6	60.6	60.5	59.2	62.4	60.4	57.9	59.6	61.5	62.3	...	...
Peru <sup>f/</sup>	63.4	67.1	68.5	67.4	68.0	67.1	67.5	68.9	68.1	68.4	67.9 p/	70.2 p/
Uruguay <sup>f/</sup>	59.6	60.6	59.1	58.1	58.5	58.5	60.9	62.7	62.6	63.4	63.3	63.5
Venezuela (Boliv. Rep. of) <sup>m/</sup>	64.6	66.5	68.7	69.1	68.5	66.2	65.5	64.9	64.9	65.3	65.1	64.7
<b>The Caribbean</b>												
Bahamas <sup>m/</sup>	...	76.2	76.4	76.5	75.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Barbados <sup>m/</sup>	69.3	69.5	68.5	69.2	69.4	69.6	67.9	67.8	67.6	67.0	67.0 v/	67.2 v/
Belize <sup>m/</sup>	...	...	57.3	60.0	60.3	59.4	57.6	61.2	59.2	...	...	...
Jamaica <sup>m/</sup>	63.2	62.9	65.7	64.4	64.5	64.2	64.7	64.9	65.5	63.5	63.8 w/	62.5 w/
Trinidad and Tobago <sup>m/</sup>	61.2	60.7	60.9	61.6	63.0	63.7	63.9	63.5	63.5	62.7	63.6 v/	62.0 v/
<b>Latin America and the Caribbean <sup>m/</sup></b>												
	<b>58.4</b>	<b>58.0</b>	<b>58.8</b>	<b>59.1</b>	<b>59.2</b>	<b>58.8</b>	<b>59.1</b>	<b>59.2</b>	<b>59.3</b>	<b>59.3</b>	<b>59.3</b>	<b>59.7</b>

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

- a/ Progressive incorporation, reaching 31 urban areas. New measurement beginning in 2003; data are not comparable with previous years.
- b/ Urban area. Information for 2004 based on survey conducted between November 2003 and October 2004. New measurement beginning in 2009; data are not comparable with previous years.
- c/ Six metropolitan regions. New measurement beginning in 2002; data are not comparable with previous years.
- d/ National coverage.
- e/ Thirteen metropolitan areas. Includes hidden unemployment.
- f/ Urban national coverage.
- g/ Urban national coverage, 2000 (November), 2001 (August) and 2003 (December). Beginning in 2004 average of four quarters. Includes hidden unemployment.
- h/ Urban national coverage. New measurement beginning in 2007; data are not comparable with previous years.
- i/ 32 urban areas.
- j/ Urban national coverage. New measurement beginning in 2003; data are not comparable with previous years.

- k/ Urban national coverage. Includes hidden unemployment.
- l/ Metropolitan Lima. New measurement beginning in 2002; data are not comparable with previous years.
- m/ National coverage. Includes hidden unemployment.
- n/ Weighted average. Includes data adjustment for methodological changes in Argentina (2003) and Brazil (2002); as well as due to the exclusion of hidden unemployment in Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador and Panama. Revised data.
- o/ May data.
- p/ Data are for January to September.
- q/ First semester.
- r/ Data are for January to September. New measurement; data are not comparable with previous years.
- s/ July data. New measurement; data are not comparable with previous years.
- t/ August data.
- u/ April data. 2010 preliminary.
- v/ First quarter.
- w/ Average, January and April.

TABLE 5

**LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: URBAN EMPLOYMENT-TO-POPULATION RATIOS, 2000 - 2010**  
*(Average annual rates)*

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2009	2010
											Average January to October	
<b>Latin America</b>												
Argentina <sup>a/</sup>	47.9	45.6	44.6	49.9	52.1	53.0	54.1	54.5	54.2	54.2	54.0 n/	54.4 n/
Bolivia (Plurinat. State of) <sup>b/</sup>	51.9	55.4	53.0	...	55.0	51.2	54.0	52.7	...	52.4	51.4 o/	53.6 a/
Brazil <sup>c/</sup>	53.9	53.0	48.9	50.1	50.6	51.0	51.2	51.6	52.5	52.1	51.9	53.1
Chile <sup>d/</sup>	49.1	48.6	48.4	49.3	49.5	50.4	50.5	51.0	51.7	50.5	...	53.2 p/
Colombia <sup>e/</sup>	52.6	52.7	53.4	54.2	53.8	54.5	54.0	54.8	55.3	56.2	55.7 n/	57.0 n/
Costa Rica <sup>f/</sup>	51.9	53.5	52.6	53.0	52.5	54.2	54.7	55.7	55.7	53.6	57.0 q/	56.4 q/
Cuba <sup>d/</sup>	66.1	67.8	68.6	69.2	69.7	70.7	70.7	72.4	73.6	75.8	...	...
Dominican Republic <sup>d/</sup>	47.5	45.8	46.2	45.2	46.0	45.9	46.9	47.4	47.7	45.8	45.6 s/	47.0 s/
Ecuador <sup>d/</sup>	48.8	49.8	49.4	48.6	53.4	54.4	54.3	56.8	56.0	53.9	54.3 n/	53.0 n/
El Salvador <sup>h/</sup>	48.9	51.0	49.8	52.0	50.4	50.3	50.8	59.9	60.6	59.7	...	...
Guatemala <sup>f/</sup>	56.6	...	58.5	58.4	55.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Honduras <sup>f/</sup>	...	50.5	49.3	49.5	48.5	47.2	49.7	49.7	50.5	50.5 m/	50.5 m/	50.3 m/
Mexico <sup>i/</sup>	56.8	56.0	55.5	55.6	55.8	56.7	57.9	57.8	57.5	56.2	56.2	56.4
Nicaragua <sup>f/</sup>	...	44.9	43.3	47.6	48.0	49.9	49.1	47.1	49.5	...	...	...
Panama <sup>f/</sup>	51.6	51.2	53.2	53.4	55.1	56.0	56.3	57.7	60.2	59.3	59.3 r/	59.1 r/
Paraguay <sup>f/</sup>	52.2	50.8	48.4	52.5	56.1	55.8	52.7	55.3	57.0	57.1	...	...
Peru <sup>h/</sup>	59.7	60.9	62.0	61.2	61.6	60.7	61.8	63.0	62.4	62.7	62.1 n/	64.5 n/
Uruguay <sup>f/</sup>	51.6	51.4	49.1	48.3	50.9	51.4	53.9	56.7	57.7	58.6	58.4	58.9
Venezuela (Boliv. Rep. of) <sup>d/</sup>	55.6	57.1	57.9	56.7	58.0	58.0	58.9	59.4	60.2	60.2	59.9	59.1
<b>The Caribbean</b>												
Bahamas <sup>d/</sup>	...	70.9	70.5	69.7	68.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Barbados <sup>d/</sup>	62.9	62.7	61.4	61.6	62.7	63.2	61.9	62.8	62.1	60.3	60.2 t/	60.1 t/
Belize <sup>d/</sup>	...	...	51.5	52.3	53.3	52.8	52.2	56.0	54.3	...	...	...
Jamaica <sup>d/</sup>	53.8	53.5	56.4	57.1	57.0	57.0	58.0	58.6	58.5	56.3	56.6 u/	56.4 u/
Trinidad and Tobago <sup>d/</sup>	53.8	54.1	54.6	55.2	57.8	58.6	59.9	59.9	60.6	59.4	60.4 t/	57.8 t/
<b>Latin America and the Caribbean <sup>v/</sup></b>												
	<b>52.5</b>	<b>51.8</b>	<b>51.7</b>	<b>52.3</b>	<b>52.9</b>	<b>53.4</b>	<b>53.9</b>	<b>54.4</b>	<b>54.9</b>	<b>54.4</b>	<b>54.3</b>	<b>55.1</b>

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

- a/ Progressive incorporation, reaching 31 urban areas. New measurement beginning in 2003; data are not comparable with previous years.
- b/ Urban area. Information for 2004 based on the survey conducted between November 2003 and October 2004. New measurement beginning in 2009; data are not comparable with previous years.
- c/ Six metropolitan areas. New measurement beginning in 2002; data are not comparable with previous years.
- d/ National coverage.
- e/ Thirteen metropolitan areas.
- f/ Urban national coverage.
- g/ Urban national coverage, 2000 (November), 2001 (August) and 2003 (December). Beginning in 2004, average of the four quarters.
- h/ Urban national coverage. New measurement beginning in 2007; data are not comparable with previous years.
- i/ 32 urban areas.

- j/ Urban national coverage. New measurement beginning in 2003; data are not comparable with previous years.
- k/ Metropolitan Lima. New measurement beginning in 2002; data are not comparable with previous years.
- l/ Weighted average. Includes data adjustments for methodological changes in Argentina (2003) and Brazil (2002).
- m/ May data.
- n/ Data are for January to September.
- o/ First semester.
- p/ Data are for January to September. New measurement; data are not comparable with previous years.
- q/ July data. New measurement; data are not comparable with previous years.
- r/ August data.
- s/ April data. 2010 preliminary.
- t/ First quarter.
- u/ Average, January and April.

TABLE 6

**LATIN AMERICA: EMPLOYED POPULATION BY SITUATION IN EMPLOYMENT AND SEX. 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)**

Country, year and sex	Situation in employment												
	Wage and salaried workers				Non-wage workers					Domestic service workers	Unpaid family workers	Others	
	Total	Public	Private		Total	Employers		Independent workers					
			Establishments with a maximum of 5 workers	Establishments with 6 or more workers		Establishments with a maximum of 5 workers	Establishments with 6 or more workers	Professional, technical and administrative	Non-professional, non-technical and non-administrative				
<b>Latin America</b>													
2000	TOTAL	60.7	12.9	13.5	34.3	27.4	3.3	1.3	1.9	20.8	8.2	3.4	0.3
	Men	65.5	10.2	16.4	38.9	31.0	4.3	1.8	1.9	23.2	0.8	2.4	0.4
	Women	54.1	16.6	9.5	28.0	22.3	2.0	0.7	1.9	17.6	18.6	4.8	0.2
2005	TOTAL	61.3	12.6	13.1	35.6	27.5	3.4	1.4	1.7	21.1	7.9	3.0	0.3
	Men	66.2	9.9	15.9	40.3	30.7	4.3	1.8	1.6	23.0	0.7	2.0	0.3
	Women	54.8	16.1	9.5	29.3	23.3	2.2	0.8	1.8	18.5	17.4	4.3	0.2
2006	TOTAL	62.0	12.6	13.0	36.4	27.1	3.5	1.4	1.8	20.3	7.8	2.8	0.3
	Men	66.8	10.1	15.7	41.0	30.3	4.5	1.9	1.7	22.2	0.7	1.9	0.3
	Women	55.9	15.9	9.5	30.5	22.9	2.3	0.8	1.9	18.0	17.0	4.0	0.2
2007	TOTAL	63.0	12.9	13.1	37.1	26.3	3.1	1.2	1.7	20.2	7.6	2.7	0.3
	Men	67.6	10.2	15.5	42.0	29.4	4.0	1.6	1.7	22.2	0.7	1.8	0.4
	Women	57.1	16.4	9.9	30.7	22.2	2.0	0.7	1.8	17.7	16.6	3.9	0.2
2008	TOTAL	63.7	12.7	12.8	38.1	26.2	3.6	1.3	1.7	19.6	7.3	2.6	0.3
	Men	68.4	10.1	15.2	43.0	29.0	4.5	1.7	1.6	21.2	0.6	1.7	0.4
	Women	57.8	16.1	9.8	31.9	22.6	2.3	0.9	1.8	17.5	15.8	3.7	0.2
2009	TOTAL	63.2	13.0	13.0	37.2	26.2	3.5	1.2	1.7	19.9	7.8	2.4	0.3
	Men	67.8	10.3	15.5	42.1	29.4	4.4	1.7	1.6	21.7	0.8	1.5	0.4
	Women	57.3	16.4	9.8	31.1	22.3	2.2	0.7	1.8	17.6	16.8	3.4	0.2
<b>Argentina<sup>a/</sup></b>													
2000	TOTAL	62.0	16.0	15.5	30.5	26.5	3.4	1.2	2.4	19.6	5.9	1.2	4.4
	Men	64.4	12.5	17.7	34.2	29.8	4.2	1.6	2.4	21.6	0.2	0.8	4.8
	Women	58.4	21.1	12.2	25.1	21.6	2.2	0.6	2.3	16.5	14.4	1.8	3.8
2005	TOTAL	62.9	16.4	14.2	32.3	24.0	2.8	1.2	4.4	15.7	7.3	1.2	4.7
	Men	65.6	12.5	17.2	35.9	28.0	3.5	1.7	4.1	18.7	0.4	0.6	5.3
	Women	59.1	21.6	10.1	27.3	18.5	1.7	0.6	4.7	11.5	16.7	2.0	3.8
2006	TOTAL	62.9	16.0	14.4	32.5	23.5	2.8	1.2	3.3	16.1	7.7	1.1	4.9
	Men	65.9	12.4	16.3	37.1	27.1	3.6	1.7	2.9	19.0	0.2	0.7	6.1
	Women	58.8	20.9	11.6	26.2	18.4	1.9	0.6	3.8	12.1	18.0	1.7	3.2
2007	TOTAL	62.3	15.8	14.9	31.6	22.3	3.1	1.1	4.3	13.6	7.4	0.9	7.1
	Men	64.8	12.5	16.5	35.8	25.9	3.9	1.5	4.1	16.4	0.2	0.6	8.5
	Women	58.8	20.6	12.5	25.8	17.0	2.1	0.6	4.7	9.6	17.6	1.5	5.2
2008	TOTAL	66.0	15.2	14.4	36.4	22.6	3.2	1.4	4.1	13.9	7.1	0.8	3.5
	Men	69.6	12.0	16.5	41.1	25.7	3.9	1.8	4.2	15.7	0.1	0.4	4.3
	Women	61.1	19.8	11.6	29.7	18.3	2.2	0.8	4.0	11.3	16.8	1.3	2.4
2009	TOTAL	64.7	15.6	15.2	34.0	23.8	3.1	1.3	4.4	15.1	7.1	0.8	3.5
	Men	67.6	12.4	17.4	37.8	27.5	4.0	1.6	4.0	17.9	0.4	0.5	4.1
	Women	60.8	20.0	12.0	28.7	18.8	1.9	0.8	4.9	11.2	16.4	1.2	2.8
<b>Bolivia (Plurinational State of)<sup>b/, c/</sup></b>													
2000	TOTAL	44.5	10.7	10.8	23.0	43.5	1.7	1.3	2.3	38.2	4.2	7.8	0.0
	Men	54.9	11.2	15.3	28.4	39.8	2.2	1.9	3.0	32.7	0.2	5.1	0.0
	Women	31.4	10.0	5.2	16.1	48.1	1.1	0.5	1.4	45.1	9.4	11.1	0.0
2005	TOTAL	47.6	9.8	12.4	25.4	40.1	4.5	1.9	2.7	31.1	3.8	8.5	0.0
	Men	58.4	9.0	16.4	33.0	35.6	5.8	2.4	3.1	24.3	0.1	5.8	0.0

(continued...)



TABLE 6 (continued)

## LATIN AMERICA: EMPLOYED POPULATION BY SITUATION IN EMPLOYMENT AND SEX. 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)

Country, year and sex		Situation in Employment											
		Wage and salaried workers				Non-wage workers					Domestic service	Unpaid family workers	Others
		Total	Public	Private		Total	Employers		Independent workers				
				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 and administrative	Non-professional, non-technical and non-administrative			
2006	Women	33.7	10.9	7.3	15.5	45.8	2.7	1.1	2.1	39.8	8.5	12.0	0.0
	TOTAL	49.4	11.7	12.9	24.9	38.1	4.5	1.4	3.1	29.1	4.0	8.5	0.0
	Men	58.8	11.8	15.6	31.3	35.3	6.0	2.3	3.6	23.4	0.1	5.8	0.0
	Women	37.7	11.5	9.4	16.8	41.7	2.6	0.2	2.5	36.3	8.7	11.9	0.0
<b>Brazil <sup>d/</sup></b>													
2001	TOTAL	59.8	12.7	13.6	33.5	27.8	3.3	1.4	1.9	21.3	8.8	3.5	0.2
	Men	64.7	9.9	16.6	38.2	31.7	4.1	1.8	1.7	24.1	0.8	2.5	0.3
2005	Women	52.8	16.5	9.4	26.8	22.2	2.0	0.8	2.0	17.4	20.0	4.8	0.1
	TOTAL	61.1	12.4	13.1	35.6	27.5	3.3	1.4	1.5	21.3	8.5	2.9	0.0
2006	Men	66.3	9.6	16.0	40.7	30.9	4.1	1.8	1.3	23.7	0.8	2.1	0.0
	Women	54.3	16.1	9.4	28.9	22.9	2.2	0.9	1.7	18.1	18.7	4.1	0.0
2007	TOTAL	61.9	12.5	12.9	36.5	27.0	3.4	1.5	1.6	20.4	8.4	2.7	0.0
	Men	66.8	9.9	15.7	41.2	30.4	4.3	2.0	1.4	22.7	0.8	2.0	0.0
2008	Women	55.5	15.9	9.3	30.3	22.6	2.3	0.9	1.9	17.5	18.3	3.7	0.0
	TOTAL	63.0	12.8	12.9	37.3	26.1	2.9	1.2	1.5	20.4	8.2	2.7	0.0
2009	Men	67.9	9.9	15.4	42.6	29.5	3.7	1.6	1.3	22.9	0.7	1.9	0.0
	Women	56.7	16.6	9.7	30.4	21.7	1.9	0.7	1.8	17.3	17.9	3.7	0.0
2008	TOTAL	64.0	12.6	12.8	38.6	25.8	3.5	1.4	1.4	19.4	7.8	2.4	0.0
	Men	68.9	9.8	15.2	43.8	28.8	4.4	1.8	1.2	21.4	0.7	1.6	0.0
2009	Women	57.7	16.3	9.6	31.8	21.9	2.3	1.0	1.7	16.8	17.0	3.5	0.0
	TOTAL	63.5	12.9	12.9	37.7	25.8	3.4	1.3	1.4	19.6	8.4	2.2	0.0
2009	Men	68.4	10.0	15.4	42.9	29.3	4.4	1.7	1.2	21.9	0.9	1.5	0.0
	Women	57.3	16.6	9.7	31.0	21.4	2.2	0.8	1.7	16.7	18.2	3.1	0.0
<b>Chile <sup>e/</sup></b>													
2000	TOTAL	65.2	10.7	7.7	46.8	27.6	1.8	1.4	1.3	23.1	5.0	2.3	0.0
	Men	67.4	8.5	8.6	50.3	30.8	2.0	1.7	1.2	25.9	0.1	1.6	0.0
2005	Women	60.6	15.3	5.8	39.5	20.9	1.2	0.6	1.5	17.5	14.9	3.6	0.0
	TOTAL	65.0	9.7	7.5	47.9	28.2	1.9	1.3	1.7	23.4	4.6	2.2	0.0
2006	Men	67.0	7.2	8.1	51.7	31.4	2.2	1.6	1.6	26.1	0.2	1.4	0.0
	Women	61.3	14.2	6.3	40.8	22.3	1.3	0.6	1.9	18.5	12.9	3.5	0.0
2007	TOTAL	66.5	9.8	7.3	49.4	27.0	1.8	1.2	1.5	22.5	4.5	2.0	0.0
	Men	69.0	7.4	8.0	53.6	29.5	2.1	1.5	1.5	24.4	0.2	1.4	0.0
2008	Women	61.8	14.3	6.1	41.4	22.4	1.3	0.6	1.6	18.9	12.6	3.2	0.0
	TOTAL	67.6	9.8	7.2	50.6	26.2	1.8	1.3	1.4	21.7	4.3	1.8	0.0
2009	Men	70.1	7.4	7.8	54.9	28.6	2.1	1.7	1.3	23.4	0.2	1.2	0.0
	Women	63.2	14.2	6.1	42.8	22.0	1.2	0.5	1.6	18.6	11.9	3.0	0.0
2008	TOTAL	69.0	9.9	7.6	51.5	25.2	1.7	1.2	1.4	20.8	4.1	1.7	0.0
	Men	71.6	7.3	8.2	56.1	27.1	2.0	1.6	1.2	22.3	0.1	1.1	0.0
2009	Women	64.4	14.4	6.5	43.5	21.7	1.2	0.6	1.6	18.4	11.1	2.7	0.0
	TOTAL	68.3	10.2	7.4	50.7	26.0	1.6	1.1	1.5	21.8	4.1	1.7	0.0
2009	Men	70.8	7.7	8.1	54.9	28.1	1.9	1.5	1.4	23.2	0.1	1.1	0.0
	Women	64.0	14.3	6.2	43.5	22.5	1.2	0.5	1.6	19.3	10.8	2.7	0.0
<b>Colombia <sup>f/</sup></b>													
2000	TOTAL	54.2	7.0	13.6	33.5	39.0	4.6	1.3	2.6	30.4	5.2	1.6	0.0

(continued...)

TABLE 6 (continued)

## LATIN AMERICA: EMPLOYED POPULATION BY SITUATION IN EMPLOYMENT AND SEX. 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)

Country, year and sex	Situation in Employment												
	Wage and salaried workers				Non-wage workers						Domestic service	Unpaid family workers	Others
	Total	Public	Private		Total	Employers		Independent workers					
			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 and administrative	Non-professional, non-technical and non-administrative				
2005	Men	56.2	6.1	15.8	34.3	42.5	6.0	1.7	3.2	31.5	0.5	0.8	0.0
	Women	51.6	8.2	10.9	32.5	34.6	2.8	0.8	1.9	29.1	11.2	2.6	0.0
	TOTAL	48.8	7.5	11.9	29.4	42.7	4.5	1.1	3.2	33.9	5.0	3.4	0.0
	Men	51.3	6.8	13.7	30.8	46.6	5.8	1.5	3.3	35.9	0.3	1.8	0.0
	Women	45.7	8.3	9.7	27.7	37.8	2.9	0.5	3.1	31.4	11.1	5.4	0.0
	TOTAL	49.4	6.5	12.4	30.5	42.1	4.5	1.1	3.1	33.4	5.2	3.3	0.0
2006	Men	51.6	5.6	13.8	32.2	46.2	6.0	1.5	3.3	35.4	0.5	1.8	0.0
	Women	46.7	7.5	10.7	28.4	37.0	2.7	0.8	2.7	30.9	11.2	5.1	0.0
	TOTAL	52.3	7.0	14.3	31.0	40.5	3.6	0.7	3.5	32.6	4.1	3.1	0.0
	Men	54.4	6.2	15.9	32.2	43.4	4.3	0.9	4.2	34.0	0.2	2.0	0.0
	Women	49.6	8.0	12.2	29.4	36.6	2.7	0.4	2.7	30.8	9.3	4.5	0.0
	TOTAL	47.0	6.3	10.7	30.0	45.7	3.7	0.9	4.7	36.5	4.1	3.2	0.0
	Men	48.9	5.7	11.7	31.5	48.9	4.7	1.2	5.2	37.8	0.2	2.0	0.0
	Women	44.7	7.2	9.5	28.0	41.6	2.3	0.4	4.0	34.8	9.0	4.8	0.0
	TOTAL	46.1	5.5	11.2	29.4	46.1	4.3	0.8	3.9	37.1	4.3	3.5	0.0
	Men	48.5	5.0	12.4	31.1	49.1	5.7	1.1	4.0	38.3	0.3	2.1	0.0
	Women	43.0	6.1	9.6	27.4	42.4	2.6	0.3	3.7	35.6	9.3	5.4	0.0
<b>Costa Rica</b>													
2000	TOTAL	70.1	18.7	13.0	38.4	24.3	4.1	1.6	5.9	12.7	4.5	1.0	0.1
	Men	71.5	15.7	13.5	42.3	27.6	5.1	2.0	6.0	14.4	0.3	0.5	0.1
	Women	67.8	23.6	12.3	31.9	18.9	2.3	0.9	5.9	9.8	11.4	1.8	0.1
2005	TOTAL	68.7	17.2	13.0	38.5	25.2	5.9	1.4	3.0	14.9	4.9	1.2	0.0
	Men	72.1	13.8	13.9	44.3	26.8	7.3	1.9	3.4	14.3	0.4	0.7	0.0
	Women	63.3	22.4	11.4	29.5	22.7	3.7	0.6	2.4	16.0	12.0	2.0	0.0
2006	TOTAL	67.6	17.2	11.6	38.8	25.7	6.2	1.3	2.8	15.4	5.0	1.6	0.0
	Men	70.2	13.9	12.4	43.9	28.2	7.5	1.9	3.5	15.2	0.5	1.1	0.0
	Women	63.7	22.2	10.4	31.1	22.0	4.2	0.3	1.8	15.7	11.7	2.5	0.0
2007	TOTAL	70.2	16.5	12.1	41.6	24.2	5.7	1.5	2.6	14.4	4.6	1.0	0.0
	Men	71.9	13.5	11.8	46.6	27.0	7.1	2.1	3.2	14.7	0.5	0.6	0.0
	Women	67.6	21.0	12.4	34.2	20.1	3.5	0.7	1.8	14.0	10.8	1.6	0.0
2008	TOTAL	70.0	16.5	11.7	41.8	24.5	5.7	1.6	3.0	14.2	4.4	1.1	0.0
	Men	72.6	13.2	12.1	47.2	26.7	7.2	2.1	3.7	13.7	0.2	0.5	0.0
	Women	66.3	20.9	11.1	34.4	21.4	3.7	0.9	1.9	14.9	10.2	2.1	0.0
2009	TOTAL	70.0	18.2	11.2	40.6	24.5	5.5	2.0	3.0	13.9	4.5	1.0	0.0
	Men	72.7	15.1	12.1	45.6	26.1	6.9	2.9	3.3	13.0	0.6	0.6	0.0
	Women	66.2	22.7	10.1	33.4	22.2	3.5	0.8	2.5	15.4	10.0	1.6	0.0
<b>Dominican Republic<sup>v</sup></b>													
2000	TOTAL	59.8	13.2	8.4	38.1	34.4	2.0	1.2	1.5	29.7	4.1	1.7	0.0
	Men	58.2	11.4	8.5	38.3	40.0	2.2	1.7	1.5	34.6	0.5	1.3	0.0
	Women	62.4	16.3	8.3	37.9	25.3	1.6	0.4	1.5	21.8	9.9	2.3	0.0
2005	TOTAL	56.0	12.8	7.5	35.7	37.2	4.1	1.2	1.2	30.7	5.1	1.7	0.0
	Men	53.6	10.7	7.2	35.6	43.9	4.9	1.7	1.2	36.2	1.0	1.6	0.0
	Women	60.0	16.3	8.0	35.7	25.9	2.8	0.5	1.2	21.4	12.1	2.0	0.0
2006	TOTAL	54.7	13.4	7.6	33.7	43.0	3.3	1.2	33.7	4.8	2.3	0.0	0.0
	Men	52.0	11.0	7.4	33.6	46.4	3.8	1.6	40.4	0.7	1.7	0.0	0.0

(continued...)

TABLE 6 (continued)

## LATIN AMERICA: EMPLOYED POPULATION BY SITUATION IN EMPLOYMENT AND SEX. 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)

Country, year and sex		Situation in Employment											
		Wage and salaried workers				Non-wage workers					Domestic service	Unpaid family workers	Others
		Total	Public	Private		Total	Employers		Independent workers				
				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 and administrative	Non-professional, non-technical and non-administrative			
2007	Women	59.0	17.3	7.9	33.9	37.6	2.7	0.5	22.9	11.5	3.4	0.0	0.0
	TOTAL	54.4	13.1	6.9	34.4	38.3	3.1	1.3	2.0	31.9	5.1	2.2	0.0
	Men	52.0	10.8	6.8	34.5	45.3	3.7	1.7	2.1	37.8	0.8	1.8	0.0
2008	Women	58.3	16.8	7.2	34.3	26.6	2.2	0.7	1.8	22.0	12.3	2.8	0.0
	TOTAL	52.0	13.1	6.4	32.5	39.0	3.7	1.5	2.3	31.5	5.5	3.6	0.0
	Men	50.4	11.0	6.2	33.2	46.5	4.2	2.1	2.1	38.2	0.7	2.3	0.0
2009	Women	54.4	16.2	6.7	31.5	27.2	2.9	0.5	2.6	21.2	12.8	5.5	0.0
	TOTAL	51.8	14.2	5.9	31.7	41.0	3.5	1.6	3.0	32.8	5.4	1.8	0.0
	Men	48.9	11.2	5.8	31.9	49.3	4.4	2.1	3.1	39.8	0.8	1.0	0.0
	Women	56.6	19.1	6.1	31.4	27.5	2.2	1.0	2.8	21.5	12.9	3.0	0.0
<b>Ecuador <sup>8/</sup></b>													
2000	TOTAL	54.3	11.0	15.0	28.3	34.5	3.0	1.5	2.0	27.9	4.7	6.0	0.5
	Men	59.3	9.8	18.0	31.4	36.1	3.8	2.0	2.4	27.8	0.7	3.3	0.6
	Women	46.3	12.8	10.1	23.4	32.0	1.7	0.8	1.4	28.1	11.1	10.3	0.3
2005	TOTAL	55.0	10.0	16.4	28.6	34.3	4.8	1.5	2.0	25.9	5.2	5.6	0.0
	Men	61.4	9.4	19.7	32.4	34.7	5.7	1.9	2.5	24.5	0.9	3.0	0.0
	Women	45.3	10.9	11.5	22.9	33.7	3.4	1.0	1.4	27.9	11.6	9.4	0.0
2006	TOTAL	55.5	9.7	16.7	29.1	33.3	4.9	1.6	1.8	25.0	4.2	7.1	0.0
	Men	62.7	8.9	20.8	33.0	32.5	5.6	2.1	1.9	22.8	0.4	4.4	0.1
	Women	44.7	10.9	10.5	23.2	34.4	3.7	0.8	1.6	28.3	9.8	11.1	0.0
2007	TOTAL	54.7	10.0	15.2	29.5	33.7	4.3	1.5	1.6	26.3	4.2	7.2	0.2
	Men	62.0	9.8	18.3	33.9	33.5	5.4	2.0	2.0	24.1	0.3	4.0	0.2
	Women	44.3	10.3	10.8	23.2	34.0	2.8	0.7	1.1	29.5	9.7	11.7	0.2
2008	TOTAL	55.5	10.6	15.9	29.0	33.5	4.8	1.1	1.9	25.7	4.2	6.8	0.0
	Men	62.7	10.3	19.4	33.0	33.0	6.0	1.6	2.1	23.3	0.3	3.9	0.0
	Women	45.4	11.0	11.1	23.4	34.1	3.1	0.3	1.6	29.2	9.6	10.8	0.0
2009	TOTAL	56.0	10.6	15.9	29.4	33.3	3.6	1.0	2.0	26.7	4.1	6.5	0.1
	Men	63.2	9.8	19.4	33.9	32.8	4.5	1.4	2.2	24.7	0.5	3.4	0.1
	Women	45.8	11.7	11.0	23.1	34.0	2.4	0.4	1.7	29.6	9.3	10.8	0.1
<b>El Salvador <sup>10/</sup></b>													
2000	TOTAL	58.4	12.5	13.9	32.0	32.4	4.9	0.9	1.0	25.6	4.1	4.6	0.6
	Men	69.1	12.9	18.9	37.4	26.8	6.5	1.5	1.4	17.4	0.4	3.1	0.6
	Women	46.4	12.0	8.3	26.0	38.6	3.1	0.3	0.5	34.8	8.2	6.2	0.6
2005	TOTAL	55.7	10.8	13.5	31.4	33.0	4.7	0.6	1.1	26.6	3.8	7.3	0.3
	Men	65.3	10.5	18.3	36.5	27.7	5.9	0.8	1.5	19.5	0.7	5.9	0.4
	Women	44.9	11.1	8.1	25.8	38.8	3.2	0.3	0.8	34.6	7.2	9.0	0.1
2006	TOTAL	55.5	10.4	14.7	30.4	30.0	4.6	0.6	1.0	23.8	4.5	6.4	3.7
	Men	65.2	10.5	19.6	35.0	24.9	5.8	1.1	1.4	16.6	0.7	4.5	4.7
	Women	45.0	10.2	9.4	25.4	35.4	3.2	0.1	0.6	31.6	8.5	8.5	2.5
2007	TOTAL	60.0	11.2	15.4	33.4	31.0	4.5	0.6	1.1	24.7	4.1	4.9	0.1
	Men	70.7	11.4	20.1	39.2	25.6	5.3	1.1	1.7	17.6	0.7	2.9	0.1
	Women	48.0	11.0	10.2	26.9	37.0	3.6	0.1	0.5	32.7	7.8	7.2	0.0
2008	TOTAL	58.6	10.0	14.7	33.8	31.9	4.1	0.6	1.3	25.9	4.3	5.1	0.0
	Men	69.4	10.1	20.0	39.3	26.3	5.4	1.0	1.6	18.3	0.8	3.5	0.0
	Women	46.3	9.9	8.8	27.6	38.4	2.7	0.2	1.0	34.5	8.4	7.0	0.0

(continued...)

TABLE 6 (continued)

## LATIN AMERICA: EMPLOYED POPULATION BY SITUATION IN EMPLOYMENT AND SEX. 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)

Country, year and sex	Situation in Employment												
	Wage and salaried workers					Non-wage workers					Domestic service	Unpaid family workers	Others
	Total	Public	Private		Total	Employers		Independent workers					
			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 and administrative	Non-professional, non-technical and non-administrative				
2009	TOTAL	56.3	10.1	14.8	31.4	33.6	4.1	0.6	1.6	27.4	4.6	5.3	0.1
	Men	66.6	10.0	19.3	37.3	27.9	5.2	0.8	2.0	19.8	0.8	4.5	0.1
	Women	44.9	10.3	9.8	24.8	39.9	2.8	0.3	1.1	35.8	8.9	6.2	0.0
<b>Honduras</b>													
2001	TOTAL	57.6	10.9	12.1	34.7	31.8	3.8	1.2	1.1	25.7	4.3	6.0	0.3
	Men	62.8	8.9	15.6	38.2	32.0	4.9	1.7	1.4	24.1	0.3	4.6	0.3
	Women	50.8	13.4	7.4	30.0	31.6	2.5	0.6	0.8	27.8	9.5	7.8	0.3
2005	TOTAL	59.7	10.8	10.2	38.7	31.9	2.2	1.2	1.4	27.1	4.0	4.4	0.0
	Men	63.2	8.5	13.0	41.7	32.5	2.8	1.4	1.8	26.4	0.5	3.7	0.0
	Women	54.8	14.1	6.3	34.4	30.9	1.4	0.8	0.7	27.9	9.0	5.3	0.0
2006	TOTAL	55.4	10.6	11.1	33.8	34.9	3.2	0.7	2.3	28.7	3.7	6.0	0.0
	Men	60.1	8.2	14.6	37.3	35.0	3.9	1.0	2.8	27.2	0.6	4.3	0.0
	Women	49.3	13.5	6.5	29.2	34.8	2.3	0.3	1.6	30.5	7.7	8.2	0.0
2007	TOTAL	55.1	11.0	10.4	33.7	35.0	2.9	0.6	2.5	29.1	3.9	6.0	0.0
	Men	59.6	8.7	14.3	36.6	35.7	3.7	0.8	2.9	28.2	0.4	4.3	0.0
	Women	49.2	13.9	5.4	29.9	34.2	1.8	0.2	1.9	30.2	8.4	8.2	0.0
<b>Mexico<sup>v</sup></b>													
2000	TOTAL	70.5	14.5	13.0	43.0	21.2	3.6	1.2	1.9	14.5	4.4	3.8	0.1
	Men	72.6	12.5	15.3	44.8	24.1	4.7	1.6	2.3	15.5	1.0	2.1	0.1
	Women	66.8	17.9	9.1	39.8	16.1	1.7	0.5	1.2	12.8	10.2	6.7	0.1
2005	TOTAL	67.2	14.4	13.8	39.0	23.0	4.0	1.0	2.2	15.9	4.5	3.8	1.4
	Men	70.4	12.5	16.2	41.7	25.1	5.5	1.4	2.6	15.6	0.7	2.2	1.7
	Women	62.4	17.4	10.0	35.0	19.9	1.8	0.4	1.5	16.3	10.3	6.3	1.1
2006	TOTAL	67.9	13.9	14.2	39.8	22.8	4.3	1.0	2.0	15.5	4.3	3.8	1.3
	Men	71.0	12.0	16.2	42.8	24.9	5.7	1.4	2.4	15.4	0.6	1.9	1.5
	Women	63.2	16.7	11.1	35.3	19.7	2.1	0.4	1.4	15.8	9.8	6.5	0.9
2007	TOTAL	67.5	14.0	13.9	39.6	23.0	4.3	1.0	2.3	15.5	4.3	3.6	1.6
	Men	70.6	12.3	16.2	42.1	24.8	5.6	1.4	2.7	15.1	0.6	2.0	1.9
	Women	62.9	16.6	10.5	35.9	20.3	2.3	0.3	1.6	16.1	9.7	5.9	1.1
2008	TOTAL	67.2	13.8	14.2	39.2	23.1	4.3	0.8	2.1	15.8	4.1	3.7	1.8
	Men	70.5	12.3	16.3	42.0	24.7	5.8	1.2	2.4	15.3	0.5	2.1	2.1
	Women	62.5	16.1	11.2	35.2	20.7	2.2	0.3	1.6	16.6	9.3	6.0	1.5
2009	TOTAL	66.7	14.5	14.0	38.2	23.0	3.7	0.9	2.4	16.0	4.2	3.6	2.4
	Men	70.1	12.7	16.5	40.9	24.4	4.8	1.3	2.8	15.5	0.7	2.0	2.8
	Women	61.7	17.2	10.3	34.2	21.0	2.1	0.3	1.8	16.7	9.4	6.0	1.9
<b>Nicaragua<sup>v</sup></b>													
2000	TOTAL	58.3	11.3	19.3	27.7	34.8	1.3	0.8	2.0	30.8	0.0	6.9	0.0
	Men	60.5	9.4	19.0	32.1	33.8	1.6	1.1	2.9	28.3	0.0	5.7	0.0
	Women	55.5	13.9	19.8	21.8	36.1	1.0	0.3	0.7	34.1	0.0	8.4	0.0
2005	TOTAL	57.2	11.7	19.2	26.4	35.9	3.9	1.0	2.1	28.9	0.0	6.9	0.0
	Men	59.7	10.3	18.3	31.1	34.5	5.0	1.5	2.7	25.3	0.0	5.7	0.0
	Women	54.2	13.4	20.2	20.5	37.5	2.5	0.4	1.3	33.2	0.0	8.3	0.0
2006	TOTAL	51.6	11.9	12.4	27.2	36.7	3.4	1.0	2.3	29.9	6.0	5.5	0.2
	Men	58.2	9.8	16.8	31.6	35.9	4.3	1.5	3.2	26.9	1.7	3.9	0.3

(continued...)

TABLE 6 (continued)

## LATIN AMERICA: EMPLOYED POPULATION BY SITUATION IN EMPLOYMENT AND SEX, 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)

Country, year and sex	Situation in Employment											
	Wage and salaried workers				Non-wage workers					Domestic service	Unpaid family workers	Others
	Total	Public	Private		Total	Employers		Independent workers				
			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 and administrative	Non-professional, non-technical and non-administrative			
2007 Women	43.6	14.6	7.1	21.9	37.7	2.3	0.5	1.3	33.6	11.2	7.4	0.1
2007 TOTAL	52.9	11.2	12.7	29.0	36.1	3.2	1.0	2.2	29.7	6.0	4.7	0.2
2007 Men	59.0	9.4	16.7	33.0	35.1	4.4	1.6	3.2	25.9	1.7	4.0	0.2
2008 Women	45.5	13.5	7.7	24.2	37.3	1.8	0.3	0.9	34.3	11.4	5.6	0.2
2008 TOTAL	54.5	11.8	13.6	29.1	35.7	3.0	0.9	2.2	29.6	4.9	4.8	0.1
2008 Men	60.9	9.8	17.6	33.6	34.5	3.9	1.3	3.1	26.2	0.9	3.5	0.1
2008 Women	46.8	14.2	8.8	23.8	37.1	1.9	0.3	1.1	33.7	9.8	6.3	0.1
<b>Panama b/</b>												
2000 TOTAL	70.0	22.2	6.8	41.0	23.2	2.2	0.8	1.7	18.5	6.2	0.6	0.0
2000 Men	69.9	19.4	7.2	43.3	28.4	2.7	1.1	2.1	22.4	1.4	0.4	0.0
2000 Women	70.1	26.3	6.2	37.6	15.4	1.3	0.2	1.1	12.7	13.5	1.0	0.0
2005 TOTAL	66.6	18.4	7.4	40.8	25.1	2.4	1.2	2.0	19.5	6.8	1.6	0.0
2005 Men	68.3	15.2	8.5	44.6	29.8	3.1	1.8	2.4	22.5	1.2	0.7	0.0
2005 Women	64.1	23.0	5.7	35.3	18.3	1.4	0.3	1.4	15.1	14.9	2.8	0.0
2006 TOTAL	66.9	17.9	7.2	41.8	24.9	2.5	1.2	1.8	19.4	6.9	1.3	0.0
2006 Men	69.7	14.9	8.3	46.5	28.7	3.1	1.8	1.9	21.9	0.8	0.8	0.0
2006 Women	62.8	22.3	5.7	34.8	19.1	1.5	0.4	1.5	15.7	15.9	2.1	0.0
2007 TOTAL	69.3	18.5	7.9	42.9	23.3	2.7	0.8	1.8	18.0	6.5	0.9	0.0
2007 Men	71.5	16.0	8.8	46.8	27.0	3.5	1.2	2.0	20.4	0.9	0.5	0.0
2007 Women	66.1	22.1	6.6	37.4	18.1	1.7	0.2	1.5	14.7	14.3	1.4	0.0
2008 TOTAL	69.8	18.1	6.3	45.4	22.8	2.3	1.4	1.7	17.3	6.3	1.2	0.0
2008 Men	73.1	15.4	7.6	50.1	25.2	2.8	2.0	1.7	18.6	0.9	0.8	0.0
2008 Women	65.1	21.9	4.6	38.6	19.4	1.6	0.7	1.8	15.3	13.8	1.8	0.0
2009 TOTAL	69.4	18.4	6.5	44.5	24.1	2.2	1.5	2.1	18.3	5.5	1.0	0.0
2009 Men	72.4	15.1	7.7	49.5	26.1	2.8	2.0	1.9	19.4	0.9	0.6	0.0
2009 Women	65.3	23.1	4.7	37.5	21.2	1.3	0.8	2.3	16.8	12.0	1.5	0.0
<b>Paraguay <sup>h/</sup></b>												
2000-01 TOTAL	49.0	11.1	14.7	23.2	35.0	6.4	1.2	3.6	23.9	10.4	5.1	0.5
2000-01 Men	58.6	9.9	19.3	29.4	35.2	8.6	1.7	3.6	21.4	1.6	4.1	0.5
2000-01 Women	36.9	12.6	9.0	15.3	34.8	3.7	0.5	3.5	27.0	21.5	6.2	0.5
2005 TOTAL	50.2	12.7	16.1	21.5	33.9	4.6	1.4	2.9	25.0	11.1	4.2	0.6
2005 Men	60.3	11.6	22.7	26.1	34.6	6.4	1.8	3.5	22.8	1.5	2.9	0.6
2005 Women	37.7	14.1	7.9	15.8	33.0	2.4	0.9	2.1	27.6	23.0	5.7	0.6
2006 TOTAL	51.9	12.1	18.0	21.8	33.3	5.0	0.9	3.1	24.4	9.1	4.9	0.8
2006 Men	60.5	10.9	23.1	26.5	34.1	6.5	1.3	3.6	22.8	1.1	3.2	1.1
2006 Women	40.0	13.9	10.9	15.2	32.3	2.9	0.3	2.5	26.6	20.1	7.1	0.4
2007 TOTAL	51.8	11.6	16.3	23.9	33.6	5.3	0.8	3.1	24.4	10.0	3.4	1.3
2007 Men	61.2	10.4	20.9	30.0	33.4	6.8	1.1	2.9	22.5	1.6	2.2	1.6
2007 Women	39.1	13.2	10.1	15.8	34.0	3.3	0.5	3.2	27.0	21.1	4.9	0.9
2008 TOTAL	49.8	12.3	15.0	22.5	31.4	5.1	1.1	3.0	22.1	9.3	4.3	5.2
2008 Men	59.1	11.4	19.3	28.3	30.7	6.8	1.8	2.8	19.2	1.2	3.0	6.0
2008 Women	36.8	13.5	9.0	14.4	32.3	2.7	0.2	3.2	26.2	20.6	6.1	4.1
2009 TOTAL	50.9	12.4	17.8	20.8	32.3	5.0	1.4	3.4	22.6	8.5	4.6	3.8
2009 Men	59.0	11.8	22.3	24.9	31.0	6.3	2.0	3.0	19.6	1.4	3.7	4.9
2009 Women	39.9	13.3	11.5	15.1	34.0	3.1	0.4	3.8	26.6	18.2	5.7	2.2

(continued...)

TABLE 6 (continued)

## LATIN AMERICA: EMPLOYED POPULATION BY SITUATION IN EMPLOYMENT AND SEX. 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)

Country, year and sex	Situation in Employment												
	Wage and salaried workers				Non-wage workers						Domestic service	Unpaid family workers	Others
	Total	Public	Private		Total	Employers		Independent workers					
			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 and administrative	Non-professional, non-technical and non-administrative				
<b>Peru<sup>iv</sup></b>													
2000	TOTAL	49.9	7.8	13.2	28.9	39.1	4.1	0.6	3.9	30.4	5.3	5.6	0.0
	Men	57.3	7.7	15.7	33.9	38.8	5.2	1.0	4.6	27.9	0.4	3.5	0.0
	Women	40.1	7.9	10.0	22.2	39.6	2.7	0.1	3.0	33.8	11.8	8.4	0.1
2005	TOTAL	54.4	7.6	13.4	33.5	37.1	4.4	0.9	3.1	28.7	4.6	3.9	0.0
	Men	59.0	6.9	15.0	37.1	39.0	5.8	1.3	3.6	28.3	0.3	1.6	0.0
	Women	48.1	8.5	11.1	28.5	34.5	2.4	0.5	2.5	29.1	10.4	7.0	0.0
2006	TOTAL	55.2	9.0	12.9	33.3	35.7	3.9	0.4	2.2	29.2	4.9	4.1	0.0
	Men	60.2	8.7	14.2	37.3	36.8	5.0	0.7	2.9	28.2	0.5	2.5	0.0
	Women	48.5	9.5	11.1	27.8	34.3	2.3	0.1	1.3	30.6	11.1	6.2	0.0
2007	TOTAL	54.6	8.5	12.4	33.7	37.8	4.6	0.9	1.9	30.4	5.0	2.7	0.0
	Men	59.0	8.5	13.2	37.3	38.9	6.1	1.3	2.0	29.5	0.4	1.7	0.0
	Women	48.3	8.5	11.1	28.6	36.2	2.3	0.4	1.8	31.7	11.5	4.0	0.0
2008	TOTAL	57.9	8.6	12.7	36.6	33.6	4.2	0.8	2.4	26.2	5.1	3.4	0.0
	Men	62.6	7.8	14.0	40.8	34.3	5.0	1.3	2.6	25.5	0.4	2.6	0.0
	Women	51.7	9.6	11.0	31.1	32.6	3.1	0.3	2.0	27.2	11.2	4.5	0.0
2009	TOTAL	56.2	7.8	14.3	34.1	35.2	4.9	0.9	2.4	26.9	5.6	2.9	0.0
	Men	62.1	7.3	15.4	39.5	35.7	6.4	1.2	3.0	25.1	0.4	1.8	0.0
	Women	48.4	8.5	12.8	27.0	34.6	2.9	0.6	1.7	29.3	12.6	4.5	0.0
<b>Uruguay<sup>vi</sup></b>													
2000	TOTAL	64.3	17.4	10.4	36.5	25.5	2.2	1.8	3.9	17.5	8.7	1.5	0.0
	Men	68.3	16.8	10.7	40.8	29.7	2.8	2.5	3.6	20.8	1.1	0.9	0.0
	Women	58.8	18.2	10.0	30.7	19.8	1.3	1.0	4.4	13.1	18.9	2.5	0.0
2005	TOTAL	62.6	17.0	10.6	35.0	27.9	2.7	1.6	2.1	21.5	8.2	1.3	0.0
	Men	65.8	15.5	12.9	37.5	32.4	3.5	2.3	2.0	24.6	1.1	0.7	0.0
	Women	58.6	18.9	7.9	31.8	22.2	1.7	0.8	2.2	17.6	17.1	2.1	0.0
2006	TOTAL	63.1	16.4	13.3	33.4	27.1	2.9	1.4	6.1	16.7	8.1	1.5	0.2
	Men	67.7	15.6	14.2	37.9	30.4	3.8	1.8	5.5	19.2	0.9	0.8	0.3
	Women	57.4	17.5	12.2	27.7	23.0	1.9	0.8	6.9	13.5	17.1	2.3	0.1
2007	TOTAL	63.1	15.6	9.8	37.7	27.0	2.8	1.6	6.9	15.8	8.3	1.4	0.2
	Men	67.5	14.3	12.0	41.2	30.1	3.6	2.2	6.5	17.8	1.3	0.8	0.3
	Women	57.7	17.1	7.3	33.4	23.2	1.9	0.8	7.2	13.3	16.7	2.1	0.1
2008	TOTAL	63.9	15.9	9.4	38.6	26.8	2.9	1.8	6.9	15.2	7.8	1.3	0.2
	Men	68.2	14.6	11.4	42.2	29.6	3.8	2.4	6.5	16.9	1.1	0.8	0.3
	Women	58.7	17.4	7.0	34.3	23.2	1.9	1.0	7.4	13.0	16.0	2.0	0.1
2009	TOTAL	64.3	15.8	9.2	39.4	26.3	3.1	1.5	7.2	14.6	7.8	1.4	0.2
	Men	68.8	14.5	11.3	43.0	29.1	4.0	2.1	6.7	16.4	1.1	0.8	0.2
	Women	58.9	17.3	6.6	34.9	22.9	1.9	0.7	7.8	12.4	16.0	2.1	0.2
<b>Venezuela (Boliv. Rep. of)<sup>vii</sup></b>													
2000	TOTAL	55.9	14.8	11.6	29.6	40.3	3.8	1.3	1.5	33.7	2.1	1.7	0.0
	Men	57.9	10.5	13.9	33.5	40.6	5.1	1.8	1.2	32.5	0.1	1.4	0.0
	Women	52.4	22.3	7.4	22.7	39.7	1.5	0.4	1.9	35.9	5.6	2.3	0.0
2005	TOTAL	62.0	16.0	14.8	31.2	34.5	3.7	1.2	1.6	28.0	1.9	1.6	0.0
	Men	64.4	11.2	17.6	35.6	34.5	4.9	1.6	1.6	26.4	0.1	1.1	0.0

(continued...)

TABLE 6 (continued)

**LATIN AMERICA: EMPLOYED POPULATION BY SITUATION IN EMPLOYMENT AND SEX. 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)**

Country, year and sex	Situation in Employment												
	Wage and salaried workers				Non-wage workers						Domestic service	Unpaid family workers	Others
	Total	Public	Private		Total	Employers		Independent workers					
			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 and administrative	Non-professional, non-technical and non-administrative				
Women	58.1	23.7	10.4	24.0	34.5	1.8	0.4	1.8	30.5	4.9	2.5	0.0	
2006 TOTAL	63.0	16.8	14.3	31.9	33.7	3.5	1.0	1.3	27.9	2.0	1.2	0.0	
Men	65.1	11.6	17.0	36.4	34.0	4.7	1.4	1.2	26.8	0.1	0.9	0.0	
Women	59.7	25.1	10.0	24.6	33.2	1.5	0.4	1.5	29.8	5.2	1.8	0.0	
2007 TOTAL	64.1	17.1	14.2	32.8	33.0	3.2	0.9	1.2	27.6	1.9	1.0	0.0	
Men	66.4	12.0	17.1	37.3	32.9	4.3	1.3	1.0	26.3	0.1	0.6	0.0	
Women	60.4	25.3	9.6	25.5	33.2	1.5	0.4	1.5	29.8	4.8	1.6	0.0	
2008 TOTAL	63.7	18.1	13.5	32.1	33.4	3.1	1.0	1.3	28.1	1.7	1.2	0.0	
Men	65.2	12.7	16.3	36.2	34.0	4.1	1.3	1.2	27.3	0.0	0.8	0.0	
Women	61.4	26.6	9.0	25.8	32.5	1.5	0.4	1.4	29.2	4.2	1.8	0.0	
2009 TOTAL	64.0	19.3	13.2	31.5	33.7	3.0	0.9	1.4	28.5	1.5	0.7	0.0	
Men	65.1	13.5	16.1	35.5	34.4	3.9	1.3	1.2	28.1	0.0	0.5	0.0	
Women	62.5	28.2	8.9	25.4	32.7	1.5	0.4	1.7	29.1	3.7	1.2	0.0	

Source: ILO, based on information from household surveys of the countries. Data have urban coverage.

- a/ 28 urban areas. WAP data are for ages 10 years and over. 2000 data are for October; data for 2005 and subsequent years correspond to the fourth quarter of each year. Beginning in 2003, changes were made to the survey that may affect comparability with previous years.
- b/ Microenterprises: establishments with a maximum of four workers. Uruguay beginning in 2000.
- c/ 2000 data are from the MECOVI Survey (November). 2005 and 2006 data are from the EIH Survey (November-December).
- d/ PNAD Survey of September of each year.
- e/ National Employment Survey. National coverage.
- f/ Data for 2000 correspond to 10 cities and metropolitan areas and are from June of the ENH Survey, Stage 1; data from 2005 and 2006 are from the second quarter of the ECH Survey. Beginning in 2007, data are for municipal capitals of the GEIH Survey.
- g/ 2000 data are for November; beginning in 2005, data refer to the fourth quarter.
- h/ Before 2007 WAP was 10 years, beginning in 2007 it was 16 years.
- i/ 2000 data refer to the third quarter of the ENEU Survey; beginning in 2005, data refer to the second quarter of the ENOE Survey.

- j/ 2000 data refer to the Household Survey on Urban Employment of November, 90 municipalities, conducted by the Ministry of Labour. Beginning in 2005, data refer to the Household Survey on Urban and Rural Employment, conducted by the National Institute of Information for Development (INIDE).
- k/ 2000-2001 data refer to the period September 2000 to August 2001; 2005 data, to October-December; 2006 data, to November-December; 2007, 2008 and 2009 data to October - December. EPE Survey.
- l/ Metropolitan Lima. Specialized Survey on Levels of Employment conducted by the Ministry of Labour and Employment Promotion.
- m/ National coverage. Data are from the second semester, except for 2009, which are from the first semester.

TABLE 7

**LATIN AMERICA: URBAN EMPLOYED POPULATION BY ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND SEX. 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)**

Year	Total	Agriculture, fishing and mining	Electricity, gas and waterworks	Manufacturing industry	Construction	Trade	Transportation, storage and communications	Financial institutions	Community, social and personal services	Unspecified activities	
<b>Latin America</b>											
2000	TOTAL	100.0	6.7	0.9	15.2	7.1	22.3	5.2	2.1	40.3	0.3
	Men	100.0	8.6	1.2	18.0	11.8	21.4	8.1	2.1	28.5	0.4
	Women	100.0	4.1	0.4	11.2	0.5	23.6	1.3	2.2	56.7	0.1
2005	TOTAL	100.0	7.0	0.5	16.0	7.3	25.8	5.7	3.5	34.0	0.3
	Men	100.0	9.0	0.7	17.6	12.5	26.3	8.6	3.8	21.0	0.5
	Women	100.0	4.3	0.2	13.8	0.5	25.1	1.8	3.1	50.9	0.1
2006	TOTAL	100.0	6.6	0.5	15.8	7.3	25.5	5.7	3.6	34.6	0.3
	Men	100.0	8.6	0.7	17.6	12.6	25.8	8.7	4.0	21.4	0.5
	Women	100.0	4.0	0.2	13.6	0.6	25.0	1.8	3.1	51.5	0.1
2007	TOTAL	100.0	6.0	0.5	16.1	7.4	25.6	5.8	3.8	34.3	0.3
	Men	100.0	8.0	0.7	18.1	12.8	25.9	8.9	4.2	21.1	0.4
	Women	100.0	3.5	0.2	13.6	0.6	25.3	2.0	3.4	51.2	0.2
2008	TOTAL	100.0	5.9	0.5	15.9	8.1	25.1	6.0	3.8	34.4	0.3
	Men	100.0	7.8	0.7	17.6	13.8	25.1	9.1	4.0	21.4	0.4
	Women	100.0	3.5	0.2	13.7	0.7	25.2	2.0	3.5	51.0	0.1
2009	TOTAL	100.0	5.8	0.5	15.3	8.0	25.4	5.8	3.8	35.1	0.3
	Men	100.0	7.9	0.7	16.9	13.8	25.3	8.9	4.2	21.8	0.5
	Women	100.0	3.1	0.2	13.2	0.6	25.6	1.9	3.3	51.9	0.1
<b>Argentina<sup>a/</sup></b>											
2000	TOTAL	100.0	0.8	0.6	13.9	7.7	23.7	8.1	9.8	35.4	0.0
	Men	100.0	1.2	0.8	17.1	12.5	24.8	11.8	10.5	21.3	0.0
	Women	100.0	0.3	0.2	9.0	0.6	22.1	2.7	8.7	56.4	0.0
2005	TOTAL	100.0	1.6	0.5	14.1	8.6	23.3	6.7	9.3	35.6	0.3
	Men	100.0	2.1	0.8	17.2	14.5	24.8	9.9	9.7	20.7	0.2
	Women	100.0	0.8	0.1	9.9	0.6	21.1	2.4	8.8	55.8	0.3
2006	TOTAL	100.0	1.4	0.4	14.1	9.2	23.8	6.5	9.6	34.7	0.2
	Men	100.0	2.0	0.7	17.1	15.4	25.1	9.7	10.3	19.5	0.3
	Women	100.0	0.6	0.1	10.0	0.7	22.1	2.0	8.6	55.7	0.2
2007	TOTAL	100.0	1.3	0.5	14.6	9.1	22.7	6.9	10.5	33.9	0.5
	Men	100.0	1.9	0.7	18.2	14.9	23.4	10.2	11.0	19.3	0.5
	Women	100.0	0.4	0.3	9.5	0.7	21.6	2.2	9.8	54.8	0.6
2008	TOTAL	100.0	1.7	0.6	14.8	9.0	23.6	6.8	9.6	33.5	0.3
	Men	100.0	2.6	0.8	18.3	15.2	24.2	10.4	9.4	18.9	0.3
	Women	100.0	0.5	0.3	10.0	0.5	22.9	1.9	9.8	53.7	0.4
2009	TOTAL	100.0	1.9	0.5	13.5	8.8	23.0	6.6	10.1	34.8	0.8
	Men	100.0	2.8	0.7	16.7	14.8	24.1	9.7	9.8	20.5	0.9
	Women	100.0	0.6	0.2	9.2	0.5	21.6	2.3	10.5	54.5	0.7
<b>Bolivia (Plurinational State of)<sup>b/</sup></b>											
2000	TOTAL	100.0	6.6	0.8	15.3	10.4	31.4	6.9	5.5	23.0	0.1
	Men	100.0	8.7	1.2	17.5	17.9	20.4	11.2	7.2	15.8	0.1
	Women	100.0	3.9	0.1	12.6	0.9	45.4	1.4	3.4	32.0	0.2
2005	TOTAL	100.0	7.6	0.4	18.1	8.2	30.8	7.7	4.4	22.8	0.0
	Men	100.0	10.5	0.6	20.3	14.1	19.8	12.9	5.1	16.7	0.0
	Women	100.0	3.9	0.1	15.4	0.9	44.4	1.3	3.6	30.4	0.0
2006	TOTAL	100.0	6.0	0.4	16.4	7.9	30.0	8.9	6.8	23.5	0.0
	Men	100.0	8.1	0.7	17.8	14.1	20.4	13.6	8.0	17.2	0.0
	Women	100.0	3.3	0.0	14.7	0.3	41.9	3.0	5.4	31.3	0.0

(continued...)



TABLE 7 (continued)

## LATIN AMERICA: URBAN EMPLOYED POPULATION BY ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND SEX. 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)

Year	Total	Agriculture, fishing and mining	Electricity, gas and waterworks	Manufacturing industry	Construction	Trade	Transportation, storage and communications	Financial institutions	Community, social and personal services	Unspecified activities	
<b>Brazil</b> <sup>d/</sup>											
2001	TOTAL	100.0	7.7	0.9	14.1	7.5	21.5	4.9	1.7	41.4	0.3
	Men	100.0	9.8	1.3	17.0	12.5	20.9	7.7	1.6	28.7	0.5
	Women	100.0	4.7	0.4	10.1	0.5	22.2	1.1	1.8	59.2	0.1
2005	TOTAL	100.0	7.9	0.5	15.9	7.5	25.4	5.4	3.3	34.0	0.3
	Men	100.0	10.0	0.7	17.5	12.7	26.7	8.2	3.6	20.1	0.4
	Women	100.0	5.0	0.2	13.7	0.5	23.7	1.7	2.8	52.4	0.0
2006	TOTAL	100.0	7.5	0.5	15.7	7.4	25.0	5.3	3.4	34.9	0.3
	Men	100.0	9.7	0.7	17.4	12.7	26.2	8.1	3.9	20.8	0.4
	Women	100.0	4.6	0.2	13.4	0.5	23.6	1.6	2.8	53.1	0.1
2007	TOTAL	100.0	6.8	0.5	16.2	7.5	25.2	5.6	3.6	34.5	0.3
	Men	100.0	9.0	0.7	18.2	12.9	26.2	8.4	3.9	20.3	0.4
	Women	100.0	4.1	0.2	13.5	0.5	23.8	1.8	3.1	52.9	0.1
2008	TOTAL	100.0	6.7	0.5	15.9	8.3	24.5	5.7	3.5	34.6	0.2
	Men	100.0	8.8	0.7	17.6	14.2	25.2	8.7	3.8	20.7	0.4
	Women	100.0	4.1	0.2	13.7	0.7	23.6	1.8	3.1	52.7	0.1
2009	TOTAL	100.0	6.6	0.5	15.4	8.3	24.9	5.5	3.5	35.2	0.2
	Men	100.0	8.9	0.7	17.0	14.2	25.4	8.3	4.1	21.0	0.4
	Women	100.0	3.6	0.2	13.3	0.6	24.1	1.8	2.8	53.6	0.0
<b>Chile</b> <sup>d/</sup>											
2000	TOTAL	100.0	15.2	0.6	14.3	7.3	18.8	8.0	7.7	28.1	0.0
	Men	100.0	20.8	0.7	15.7	10.6	15.5	10.3	7.2	19.2	0.0
	Women	100.0	3.9	0.3	11.4	0.5	25.4	3.4	8.6	46.5	0.0
2005	TOTAL	100.0	13.9	0.6	13.3	8.0	19.2	8.2	8.7	28.2	0.0
	Men	100.0	18.7	0.7	15.1	11.7	15.5	10.4	8.4	19.5	0.0
	Women	100.0	4.8	0.3	10.0	0.9	26.0	4.1	9.3	44.5	0.0
2006	TOTAL	100.0	13.9	0.6	13.3	8.4	19.4	8.3	8.7	27.5	0.0
	Men	100.0	18.7	0.8	15.0	12.4	15.4	10.7	8.3	18.8	0.0
	Women	100.0	5.1	0.2	10.0	1.0	26.8	3.9	9.3	43.6	0.0
2007	TOTAL	100.0	13.5	0.6	13.3	8.4	19.6	8.3	8.9	27.4	0.0
	Men	100.0	18.2	0.8	15.2	12.5	15.5	10.7	8.5	18.7	0.0
	Women	100.0	5.0	0.3	9.9	1.0	27.1	4.0	9.6	43.2	0.0
2008	TOTAL	100.0	13.0	0.6	13.0	8.8	19.9	8.5	9.2	27.0	0.0
	Men	100.0	17.5	0.7	14.8	13.2	15.6	11.2	8.5	18.3	0.0
	Women	100.0	5.1	0.3	9.9	1.1	27.3	3.8	10.2	42.2	0.0
2009	TOTAL	100.0	12.6	0.5	12.9	8.3	20.1	8.3	9.5	27.7	0.0
	Men	100.0	17.5	0.6	14.6	12.7	16.0	11.0	9.0	18.6	0.0
	Women	100.0	4.5	0.3	10.0	1.1	27.0	3.6	10.6	43.0	0.0
<b>Colombia</b> <sup>d/</sup>											
2000	TOTAL	100.0	3.4	0.7	17.5	5.0	27.1	6.8	6.4	32.9	0.1
	Men	100.0	5.0	1.1	17.8	8.7	25.5	10.7	6.8	24.3	0.1
	Women	100.0	1.3	0.2	17.2	0.4	29.2	2.0	5.9	43.7	0.1
2005	TOTAL	100.0	7.1	0.6	16.5	5.2	28.4	8.5	7.8	25.9	0.0
	Men	100.0	11.5	0.8	16.1	8.9	27.8	12.8	8.0	14.1	0.0
	Women	100.0	1.5	0.4	16.9	0.4	29.2	2.9	7.7	41.0	0.0
2006	TOTAL	100.0	6.6	0.6	16.2	5.6	28.4	9.0	7.4	26.2	0.0
	Men	100.0	10.9	0.7	16.3	9.5	27.4	13.2	7.8	14.2	0.0
	Women	100.0	1.4	0.4	16.0	0.7	29.6	3.9	6.9	41.1	0.0
2007	TOTAL	100.0	5.1	0.4	15.5	5.7	29.3	9.4	8.8	25.8	0.0
	Men	100.0	8.2	0.6	15.7	9.9	28.1	13.6	9.4	14.5	0.0
	Women	100.0	1.3	0.2	15.3	0.6	30.7	4.3	8.1	39.5	0.0

(continued...)

TABLE 7 (continued)

## LATIN AMERICA: URBAN EMPLOYED POPULATION BY ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND SEX. 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)

Year	Total	Agriculture, fishing and mining	Electricity, gas and waterworks	Manufacturing industry	Construction	Trade	Transportation, storage and communications	Financial institutions	Community, social and personal services	Unspecified activities	
2008	TOTAL	100.0	5.1	0.5	15.8	5.7	29.6	9.7	9.5	24.0	0.2
	Men	100.0	8.1	0.7	16.1	9.8	28.3	13.4	9.5	13.8	0.2
	Women	100.0	1.2	0.2	15.4	0.4	31.2	4.9	9.5	37.1	0.1
2009	TOTAL	100.0	5.4	0.5	15.4	6.0	30.2	10.0	9.2	23.2	0.1
	Men	100.0	8.4	0.7	15.5	10.4	28.7	14.4	8.5	13.3	0.1
	Women	100.0	1.5	0.3	15.4	0.4	32.2	4.3	10.1	35.8	0.0
<b>Costa Rica</b>											
2000	TOTAL	100.0	4.6	0.8	16.8	6.5	24.9	7.4	7.1	31.2	0.7
	Men	100.0	7.0	1.1	18.0	10.1	23.5	10.1	7.8	21.8	0.7
	Women	100.0	0.5	0.4	14.8	0.6	27.2	2.8	6.0	47.0	0.7
2005	TOTAL	100.0	4.0	1.1	15.3	6.0	23.4	7.1	10.5	28.2	4.2
	Men	100.0	5.7	1.6	17.6	9.6	21.2	10.0	11.8	16.4	6.2
	Women	100.0	1.3	0.4	11.8	0.5	26.8	2.6	8.5	46.8	1.2
2006	TOTAL	100.0	3.8	1.2	14.8	6.4	27.2	7.5	10.4	28.5	0.3
	Men	100.0	5.5	1.5	16.5	10.4	27.8	10.7	11.3	16.2	0.2
	Women	100.0	1.3	0.8	12.2	0.4	26.3	2.7	9.0	47.0	0.4
2007	TOTAL	100.0	3.7	1.1	14.4	7.3	27.6	7.4	11.3	26.7	0.5
	Men	100.0	5.3	1.3	16.0	11.6	27.7	10.3	11.7	15.6	0.4
	Women	100.0	1.4	0.8	12.1	0.6	27.4	2.9	10.7	43.6	0.5
2008	TOTAL	100.0	3.5	1.6	13.1	7.0	26.6	8.2	12.3	27.3	0.5
	Men	100.0	4.9	2.0	14.1	11.5	27.1	11.4	12.3	16.1	0.7
	Women	100.0	1.4	1.0	11.7	0.7	26.0	3.8	12.4	42.8	0.3
2009	TOTAL	100.0	3.4	1.3	12.8	6.4	27.0	8.5	11.4	28.9	0.4
	Men	100.0	5.2	1.7	14.2	10.4	27.1	11.3	11.6	18.1	0.4
	Women	100.0	0.8	0.8	10.8	0.6	26.7	4.5	11.2	44.3	0.3
<b>Dominican Republic</b>											
2000	TOTAL	100.0	4.3	0.9	20.2	6.7	24.9	6.6	6.3	25.0	5.2
	Men	100.0	6.4	1.1	20.5	10.5	23.2	9.4	5.9	15.3	7.8
	Women	100.0	1.0	0.6	19.6	0.5	27.6	2.0	6.9	40.7	1.0
2005	TOTAL	100.0	4.8	1.0	17.2	6.9	24.3	7.7	6.0	27.6	4.5
	Men	100.0	7.4	1.2	19.0	10.5	22.3	10.7	5.9	16.5	6.6
	Women	100.0	0.6	0.7	14.2	0.8	27.7	2.7	6.3	46.0	1.0
2006	TOTAL	100.0	5.6	0.9	16.1	7.3	29.4	7.6	5.6	27.5	0.0
	Men	100.0	8.6	1.1	17.3	11.5	29.2	10.9	5.5	15.8	0.0
	Women	100.0	0.6	0.5	14.0	0.5	29.9	2.1	5.9	46.5	0.0
2007	TOTAL	100.0	5.4	1.1	16.2	7.1	29.7	7.7	6.1	26.8	0.0
	Men	100.0	8.3	1.2	17.9	10.9	29.9	10.9	5.6	15.4	0.0
	Women	100.0	0.5	0.9	13.4	0.8	29.3	2.3	6.9	45.9	0.0
2008	TOTAL	100.0	5.0	1.0	14.8	7.0	30.2	7.7	7.1	27.2	0.0
	Men	100.0	7.6	1.1	16.0	10.9	30.6	11.5	7.2	15.2	0.0
	Women	100.0	0.9	0.7	13.0	0.9	29.7	1.8	7.1	45.8	0.0
2009	TOTAL	100.0	5.6	0.9	12.0	6.5	30.7	7.9	7.7	28.8	0.0
	Men	100.0	8.5	1.1	14.2	10.0	31.4	11.3	7.6	15.9	0.0
	Women	100.0	0.8	0.5	8.6	0.7	29.4	2.3	7.8	49.9	0.0
<b>Ecuador <sup>tr</sup></b>											
2000	TOTAL	100.0	9.1	0.6	15.6	7.1	30.9	6.3	5.1	25.3	0.0
	Men	100.0	12.0	0.8	16.7	11.1	27.8	9.1	5.3	17.2	0.0
	Women	100.0	4.5	0.3	13.8	0.6	35.9	1.7	4.7	38.3	0.0
2005	TOTAL	100.0	8.6	0.5	13.8	6.6	33.1	7.2	6.5	23.6	0.0

(continued...)

TABLE 7 (continued)

## LATIN AMERICA: URBAN EMPLOYED POPULATION BY ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND SEX. 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)

Year	Total	Agriculture, fishing and mining	Electricity, gas and waterworks	Manufacturing industry	Construction	Trade	Transportation, storage and communications	Financial institutions	Community, social and personal services	Unspecified activities	
	Men	100.0	11.5	0.7	15.5	10.7	28.7	10.5	7.3	15.1	0.0
	Women	100.0	4.3	0.2	11.2	0.6	39.7	2.3	5.2	36.4	0.0
2006	TOTAL	100.0	8.7	0.5	13.8	7.2	34.2	7.3	6.2	22.3	0.0
	Men	100.0	11.6	0.7	15.2	11.5	29.3	10.4	7.1	14.2	0.0
	Women	100.0	4.4	0.2	11.6	0.7	41.4	2.5	4.8	34.4	0.0
2007	TOTAL	100.0	7.9	0.5	13.2	7.5	34.2	7.5	6.7	22.5	0.0
	Men	100.0	10.9	0.8	14.1	12.3	29.1	10.6	7.3	14.8	0.0
	Women	100.0	3.6	0.2	12.0	0.6	41.4	3.0	5.7	33.5	0.0
2008	TOTAL	100.0	8.2	0.6	13.7	7.3	33.3	7.1	6.9	23.0	0.0
	Men	100.0	11.5	0.8	15.0	12.0	28.2	10.4	7.4	14.6	0.0
	Women	100.0	3.6	0.2	11.9	0.7	40.3	2.5	6.1	34.7	0.0
2009	TOTAL	100.0	8.2	0.8	13.1	8.0	32.7	7.7	7.2	22.4	0.0
	Men	100.0	11.2	0.9	14.7	13.0	27.4	11.0	7.6	14.0	0.0
	Women	100.0	3.8	0.5	10.7	0.8	40.2	3.1	6.6	34.2	0.0
<b>El Salvador <sup>g/</sup></b>											
2000	TOTAL	100.0	6.1	0.5	21.6	5.3	28.6	5.8	5.2	23.4	3.4
	Men	100.0	10.7	0.9	19.6	9.7	19.6	10.0	6.6	16.9	5.9
	Women	100.0	1.0	0.0	23.8	0.2	38.7	1.1	3.8	30.7	0.6
2005	TOTAL	100.0	5.9	0.3	19.1	5.6	31.2	5.7	6.2	22.2	3.6
	Men	100.0	9.7	0.5	17.8	10.4	22.2	9.6	7.5	16.1	6.2
	Women	100.0	1.7	0.1	20.5	0.3	41.4	1.5	4.6	29.1	0.7
2006	TOTAL	100.0	5.3	0.5	18.1	6.7	35.4	5.4	5.5	23.0	0.0
	Men	100.0	9.2	0.8	17.9	12.3	27.5	9.5	6.2	16.6	0.0
	Women	100.0	1.2	0.1	18.4	0.7	44.0	1.0	4.7	29.9	0.0
2007	TOTAL	100.0	5.2	0.6	18.7	6.4	34.1	5.2	6.3	23.4	0.0
	Men	100.0	8.7	1.0	18.1	11.7	26.5	8.9	7.7	17.4	0.0
	Women	100.0	1.4	0.1	19.4	0.5	42.6	1.1	4.8	30.1	0.0
2008	TOTAL	100.0	7.1	0.6	19.0	5.6	33.8	4.9	6.4	22.7	0.0
	Men	100.0	11.7	1.0	18.0	10.1	26.4	8.6	7.7	16.6	0.0
	Women	100.0	1.9	0.1	20.1	0.5	42.3	0.8	4.8	29.6	0.0
2009	TOTAL	100.0	7.5	0.3	17.7	5.1	34.4	5.2	6.4	23.4	0.0
	Men	100.0	12.8	0.6	17.3	9.4	26.3	9.0	8.0	16.5	0.0
	Women	100.0	1.6	0.0	18.2	0.4	43.3	1.0	4.5	31.1	0.0
<b>Honduras</b>											
2001	TOTAL	100.0	8.2	0.7	22.3	7.4	28.6	5.1	5.4	22.3	0.0
	Men	100.0	13.3	1.1	20.5	12.7	24.9	7.9	5.7	13.8	0.0
	Women	100.0	1.4	0.3	24.6	0.4	33.4	1.3	4.9	33.6	0.0
2005	TOTAL	100.0	8.7	0.8	21.2	6.9	29.3	5.6	5.9	21.3	0.3
	Men	100.0	13.6	1.1	19.0	11.6	26.8	8.4	6.5	12.7	0.3
	Women	100.0	1.6	0.3	24.4	0.3	32.8	1.8	5.1	33.5	0.2
2006	TOTAL	100.0	7.7	0.7	20.6	7.8	30.9	5.1	5.6	21.5	0.1
	Men	100.0	12.6	0.9	19.2	13.4	26.9	7.8	6.1	13.0	0.1
	Women	100.0	1.5	0.4	22.4	0.6	36.0	1.6	5.0	32.4	0.1
2007	TOTAL	100.0	7.4	0.6	19.7	8.7	29.3	5.9	6.1	22.1	0.1
	Men	100.0	11.7	0.9	18.3	15.1	25.1	9.2	6.7	13.0	0.2
	Women	100.0	1.7	0.3	21.5	0.4	34.9	1.6	5.5	34.1	0.1
<b>Mexico <sup>h/</sup></b>											
2000	TOTAL	100.0	1.3	0.7	23.0	5.7	26.2	6.3	1.6	35.2	0.0
	Men	100.0	1.8	0.9	24.4	8.5	22.9	8.9	1.4	31.1	0.1
	Women	100.0	0.4	0.3	20.7	0.7	32.0	1.8	1.9	42.3	0.0

(continued...)

TABLE 7 (continued)

## LATIN AMERICA: URBAN EMPLOYED POPULATION BY ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND SEX. 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)

Year	Total	Agriculture, fishing and mining	Electricity, gas and waterworks	Manufacturing industry	Construction	Trade	Transportation, storage and communications	Financial institutions	Community, social and personal services	Unspecified activities	
2005	TOTAL	100.0	1.2	0.6	17.9	7.4	29.2	6.5	2.2	34.2	0.9
	Men	100.0	1.6	0.9	19.5	11.6	25.4	9.3	2.1	28.7	1.0
	Women	100.0	0.4	0.2	15.6	1.0	35.0	2.1	2.3	42.7	0.7
2006	TOTAL	100.0	1.1	0.5	17.9	7.6	29.0	6.8	2.2	33.8	1.0
	Men	100.0	1.5	0.7	19.4	12.1	25.0	9.7	2.2	28.1	1.1
	Women	100.0	0.4	0.3	15.6	0.9	35.0	2.4	2.3	42.3	0.9
2007	TOTAL	100.0	1.0	0.6	17.4	7.7	29.3	6.4	2.3	34.2	1.0
	Men	100.0	1.5	0.9	18.9	12.3	25.1	9.1	2.3	28.9	1.1
	Women	100.0	0.3	0.3	15.3	1.0	35.5	2.4	2.3	42.0	0.9
2008	TOTAL	100.0	1.1	0.6	17.2	7.4	29.6	6.4	2.1	34.6	1.0
	Men	100.0	1.7	0.8	18.7	11.9	25.4	9.2	2.0	29.3	1.1
	Women	100.0	0.4	0.2	15.0	1.0	35.8	2.3	2.4	42.2	0.8
2009	TOTAL	100.0	1.0	0.6	15.7	7.3	29.5	6.6	2.3	36.1	0.9
	Men	100.0	1.5	0.8	17.6	11.6	25.3	9.6	2.2	30.3	1.1
	Women	100.0	0.3	0.3	12.8	1.0	35.6	2.3	2.4	44.5	0.7
<b>Nicaragua <sup>iv</sup></b>											
2001	TOTAL	100.0	5.3	1.2	18.5	6.1	29.3	6.4	4.6	28.7	0.0
	Men	100.0	8.5	1.6	19.3	10.9	25.3	10.4	5.5	18.6	0.0
	Women	100.0	1.4	0.7	17.5	0.3	34.0	1.6	3.5	40.9	0.0
2005	TOTAL	100.0	6.4	0.6	19.3	5.7	30.1	5.6	5.0	27.2	0.0
	Men	100.0	10.6	0.8	19.2	10.2	25.6	9.2	6.1	18.3	0.0
	Women	100.0	1.3	0.3	19.6	0.3	35.6	1.1	3.6	38.2	0.0
2006	TOTAL	100.0	6.2	0.5	18.9	5.9	30.0	6.1	5.0	27.3	0.0
	Men	100.0	10.2	0.7	19.0	10.7	24.9	10.2	6.3	18.1	0.0
	Women	100.0	1.5	0.2	18.9	0.1	36.1	1.1	3.5	38.6	0.0
2007	TOTAL	100.0	6.2	0.7	19.4	6.5	28.9	5.8	4.9	27.1	0.7
	Men	100.0	10.1	0.8	19.4	11.4	24.6	9.6	6.0	17.5	0.6
	Women	100.0	1.3	0.4	19.3	0.4	34.2	1.1	3.6	38.9	0.8
2008	TOTAL	100.0	5.9	0.7	18.3	6.5	30.2	5.4	5.6	27.2	0.0
	Men	100.0	9.8	1.0	17.7	11.5	25.6	9.1	7.0	18.3	0.0
	Women	100.0	1.2	0.3	19.0	0.4	35.9	1.0	4.0	38.1	0.0
<b>Panama</b>											
2000	TOTAL	100.0	2.7	0.8	10.3	7.8	26.4	9.1	9.6	33.3	0.0
	Men	100.0	4.2	1.1	12.5	12.5	26.3	12.5	8.7	22.4	0.0
	Women	100.0	0.4	0.4	7.1	0.9	26.5	4.1	11.0	49.5	0.0
2005	TOTAL	100.0	2.6	0.8	9.0	8.7	28.6	9.3	9.7	31.5	0.0
	Men	100.0	4.2	1.0	10.7	14.0	27.6	13.5	9.1	19.8	0.0
	Women	100.0	0.4	0.3	6.5	0.9	30.0	3.2	10.5	48.3	0.0
2006	TOTAL	100.0	2.7	0.8	9.4	9.5	27.7	9.1	9.9	30.9	0.0
	Men	100.0	4.2	1.0	11.4	15.3	26.9	12.8	9.3	19.2	0.0
	Women	100.0	0.5	0.5	6.4	0.9	29.1	3.5	10.8	48.4	0.0
2007	TOTAL	100.0	2.5	0.8	9.0	10.5	27.7	8.7	10.1	30.7	0.0
	Men	100.0	4.0	0.9	10.5	17.1	26.0	12.7	9.4	19.4	0.0
	Women	100.0	0.4	0.6	6.8	1.2	30.1	3.1	11.2	46.7	0.0
2008	TOTAL	100.0	2.0	0.6	8.9	11.1	28.4	8.8	9.8	30.4	0.0
	Men	100.0	3.2	0.6	10.2	18.3	26.6	13.2	8.7	19.2	0.0
	Women	100.0	0.5	0.5	7.0	0.8	30.9	2.7	11.4	46.2	0.0
2009	TOTAL	100.0	2.4	0.6	8.6	11.2	27.3	9.6	10.3	30.0	0.0
	Men	100.0	3.6	0.8	10.3	18.4	24.9	13.7	9.1	19.1	0.0
	Women	100.0	0.7	0.4	6.2	1.2	30.7	3.6	11.9	45.3	0.0

(continued...)

TABLE 7 (continued)

## LATIN AMERICA: URBAN EMPLOYED POPULATION BY ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND SEX. 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)

Year	Total	Agriculture, fishing and mining	Electricity, gas and waterworks	Manufacturing industry	Construction	Trade	Transportation, storage and communications	Financial institutions	Community, social and personal services	Unspecified activities	
<b>Paraguay<sup>j</sup></b>											
2000-01	TOTAL	100.0	4.5	0.8	14.2	5.4	34.6	5.3	5.6	29.5	0.0
	Men	100.0	5.9	1.1	17.3	9.6	33.9	8.4	6.8	17.0	0.0
	Women	100.0	2.9	0.4	10.4	0.2	35.5	1.3	4.1	45.2	0.0
2005	TOTAL	100.0	5.8	1.1	12.7	7.1	31.1	5.0	6.2	31.0	0.0
	Men	100.0	6.7	1.6	14.3	12.9	32.1	7.3	7.5	17.5	0.0
	Women	100.0	4.7	0.4	10.7	0.0	29.9	2.0	4.6	47.6	0.0
2006	TOTAL	100.0	4.7	1.2	12.9	8.0	31.6	5.5	5.5	30.6	0.0
	Men	100.0	5.9	1.9	15.7	13.5	30.7	7.8	5.8	18.7	0.0
	Women	100.0	3.1	0.2	9.1	0.4	32.9	2.3	5.0	46.9	0.1
2007	TOTAL	100.0	4.9	0.5	14.6	7.6	32.0	5.2	5.9	29.2	0.0
	Men	100.0	5.3	0.8	17.8	13.2	32.1	7.6	6.4	16.9	0.0
	Women	100.0	4.5	0.1	10.3	0.1	31.9	2.0	5.3	45.7	0.1
2008	TOTAL	100.0	4.0	0.6	14.0	7.7	31.4	5.8	6.7	29.8	0.0
	Men	100.0	5.0	0.9	16.8	13.2	29.9	8.3	7.5	18.5	0.0
	Women	100.0	2.5	0.3	10.1	0.1	33.5	2.3	5.6	45.5	0.1
2009	TOTAL	100.0	5.1	0.7	13.8	7.2	32.6	6.4	6.2	27.7	0.3
	Men	100.0	6.1	0.9	15.7	12.2	31.2	9.5	7.0	17.2	0.2
	Women	100.0	3.8	0.4	11.3	0.3	34.6	2.1	5.0	42.2	0.3
<b>Peru<sup>k</sup></b>											
2000	TOTAL	100.0	1.0	0.5	16.2	4.3	32.5	9.8	8.5	27.2	0.0
	Men	100.0	1.5	0.7	18.8	7.1	23.5	15.6	9.7	23.1	0.0
	Women	100.0	0.3	0.2	12.9	0.6	44.3	2.1	6.9	32.7	0.0
2005	TOTAL	100.0	1.0	0.1	18.4	5.2	31.5	9.9	7.7	26.2	0.0
	Men	100.0	1.6	0.2	22.2	8.8	22.8	15.5	8.8	20.2	0.0
	Women	100.0	0.2	0.0	13.2	0.3	43.4	2.3	6.2	34.4	0.0
2006	TOTAL	100.0	1.2	0.2	16.7	5.7	33.6	9.8	8.8	23.9	0.0
	Men	100.0	1.5	0.4	19.2	9.6	26.7	15.2	10.5	17.0	0.0
	Women	100.0	0.8	0.0	13.3	0.4	43.1	2.4	6.5	33.4	0.0
2007	TOTAL	100.0	1.3	0.2	17.2	5.9	32.6	10.2	9.9	22.7	0.0
	Men	100.0	1.9	0.4	20.0	10.1	26.0	15.5	11.3	14.9	0.0
	Women	100.0	0.5	0.0	13.2	0.1	41.9	2.7	7.9	33.7	0.0
2008	TOTAL	100.0	1.4	0.2	16.7	6.8	30.9	11.0	9.4	23.6	0.0
	Men	100.0	1.8	0.2	19.8	11.6	24.0	16.6	10.9	15.1	0.0
	Women	100.0	0.8	0.1	12.7	0.6	40.0	3.6	7.3	34.9	0.0
2009	TOTAL	100.0	1.2	0.5	16.6	6.3	31.6	10.7	9.9	23.3	0.0
	Men	100.0	1.7	0.8	20.0	10.6	24.3	16.7	11.3	14.7	0.0
	Women	100.0	0.5	0.0	12.1	0.5	41.4	2.6	7.9	34.9	0.0
<b>Uruguay</b>											
2000	TOTAL	100.0	4.0	1.2	14.4	8.2	18.9	6.1	9.0	35.1	3.1
	Men	100.0	6.1	1.5	16.4	13.9	18.4	8.9	8.7	21.2	4.8
	Women	100.0	1.2	0.7	11.8	0.4	19.5	2.2	9.4	53.9	0.8
2005	TOTAL	100.0	4.7	0.9	13.9	6.7	22.6	5.5	9.8	35.8	0.1
	Men	100.0	7.2	1.1	15.7	11.8	24.3	7.9	10.7	21.3	0.1
	Women	100.0	1.6	0.5	11.7	0.3	20.6	2.6	8.6	54.1	0.1
2006	TOTAL	100.0	6.3	1.1	14.2	6.6	23.0	5.6	7.6	35.4	0.2
	Men	100.0	9.5	1.4	16.2	11.6	24.0	8.0	8.0	21.0	0.2
	Women	100.0	2.2	0.7	11.7	0.4	21.7	2.5	7.2	53.5	0.2
2007	TOTAL	100.0	5.2	0.9	14.6	7.0	23.0	6.0	8.5	34.7	0.1
	Men	100.0	8.1	1.1	16.9	12.5	23.5	8.8	8.9	20.2	0.1
	Women	100.0	1.8	0.6	11.8	0.5	22.3	2.6	8.1	52.4	0.2

(continued...)

TABLE 7 (continued)

## LATIN AMERICA: URBAN EMPLOYED POPULATION BY ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND SEX. 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)

Year	Total	Agriculture, fishing and mining	Electricity, gas and waterworks	Manufacturing industry	Construction	Trade	Transportation, storage and communications	Financial institutions	Community, social and personal services	Unspecified activities	
2008	TOTAL	100.0	5.3	0.9	13.7	7.4	22.6	6.1	9.1	34.6	0.1
	Men	100.0	8.2	1.2	15.9	13.1	23.0	8.9	9.7	19.8	0.1
	Women	100.0	1.9	0.6	11.0	0.5	22.0	2.7	8.4	52.8	0.1
2009	TOTAL	100.0	5.5	0.9	13.7	7.4	23.0	5.9	9.1	34.4	0.1
	Men	100.0	8.3	1.3	16.1	13.0	23.4	8.6	9.4	19.8	0.1
	Women	100.0	2.0	0.5	10.7	0.5	22.4	2.6	8.8	52.3	0.1
<b>Venezuela</b>											
<b>(Boliv. Rep. of)<sup>y</sup></b>											
2000	TOTAL	100.0	11.2	0.6	13.3	8.3	25.8	6.8	4.9	29.0	0.1
	Men	100.0	16.5	0.9	14.4	12.4	21.4	9.7	4.8	19.8	0.1
	Women	100.0	1.8	0.3	11.3	0.9	33.6	1.6	5.1	45.3	0.1
2005	TOTAL	100.0	10.3	0.5	11.6	8.0	24.4	8.1	4.8	31.3	0.9
	Men	100.0	15.3	0.7	12.7	12.4	19.7	11.6	5.1	21.5	0.9
	Women	100.0	2.3	0.3	9.8	0.8	31.9	2.5	4.4	47.2	0.8
2006	TOTAL	100.0	9.8	0.5	12.2	9.5	23.6	8.2	5.0	31.1	0.2
	Men	100.0	14.6	0.6	13.6	14.6	18.7	11.9	5.2	20.6	0.2
	Women	100.0	2.1	0.3	9.8	1.2	31.5	2.2	4.6	48.1	0.3
2007	TOTAL	100.0	9.6	0.4	12.3	9.7	23.5	8.7	5.1	30.4	0.2
	Men	100.0	14.3	0.6	13.7	15.0	18.5	12.7	5.2	19.9	0.2
	Women	100.0	2.1	0.3	10.2	1.1	31.6	2.2	5.1	47.2	0.2
2008	TOTAL	100.0	9.4	0.5	11.9	9.7	23.7	8.8	5.2	30.6	0.2
	Men	100.0	13.9	0.6	13.6	15.1	18.4	13.0	5.3	19.8	0.2
	Mujer	100.0	2.2	0.3	9.4	1.2	31.9	2.2	5.0	47.7	0.2
2009	TOTAL	100.0	9.4	0.5	12.0	9.0	23.4	8.8	5.3	31.4	0.2
	Men	100.0	14.2	0.6	13.7	14.0	18.6	13.0	5.3	20.4	0.2
	Mujer	100.0	2.1	0.3	9.5	1.2	31.0	2.2	5.2	48.5	0.2

Source: ILO, based on information from household surveys of the countries. Data have urban coverage.

- a/ 28 urban areas. WAP data refer to ages 14 years and over. 2000 data refer to October; beginning in 2005, data refer to the fourth quarter of each year. Beginning in 2003, changes were made to the survey that may affect comparability with previous years.
- b/ 2000 data are from the MECOVI Survey (November). 2005 and 2006 data are from the EIH Survey (November-December).
- c/ PNAD Survey of September of each year.
- d/ ENE Survey. National coverage.
- e/ Data for 2000 correspond to 10 cities and metropolitan areas and are from June of the ENH Survey, Stage 1; data from 2005 and 2006 are from the second quarter of the ECH Survey. Beginning in 2007, data are for municipal capitals of the GEIH Survey.
- f/ 2000 data are for November; beginning in 2005, data refer to the fourth quarter.
- g/ Before 2007 WAP was 10 years, beginning in 2007, it was 16 years and over.
- h/ 2000 data refer to the third quarter of the ENEU Survey; beginning in 2005, data refer to the second quarter of the ENOE Survey.

- i/ 2000 data refer to the Household Survey on Urban Employment of November, 90 municipalities, conducted by the Ministry of Labour. Beginning in 2005, data refer to the Household Survey on Urban and Rural Employment, conducted by the National Institute of Information for Development (INIDE).
- j/ 2000-2001 data refer to the period September 2000 to August 2001; 2005 data, to October-December; 2006 data to November-December; 2007, 2008 and 2009 data to October-December. EPE Survey.
- k/ Metropolitan Lima. Specialized Survey on Levels of Employment conducted by the Ministry of Labour and Employment Promotion.
- l/ National coverage. Data are from the second semester, except for 2009, which are from the first semester.

TABLE 8

**LATIN AMERICA: URBAN EMPLOYED POPULATION WITH HEALTH AND/OR PENSION COVERAGE. 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)**

Country, Year and Sex			Wage and salaried workers					Non-wage and salaried workers			Domestic service workers
			Total	Total	Public	Private		Total	Employers	Independent workers and unpaid family workers	
Establishments with a maximum of 5 workers	Establishments with 6 or more workers										
<b>Latin America</b>											
2000	Health	TOTAL	52.1	70.8	88.8	31.5	79.7	22.0	46.0	15.5	27.5
		Men	52.2	67.6	86.9	27.3	79.2	22.4	44.7	16.0	37.1
		Women	52.0	76.4	90.5	41.8	80.7	20.9	49.9	14.3	27.1
2005		TOTAL	56.7	73.1	90.9	38.3	80.0	30.7	53.7	23.7	30.6
		Men	56.7	70.3	90.0	34.0	79.7	29.3	51.8	22.7	37.9
		Women	56.7	77.7	91.6	48.0	80.6	32.8	58.0	25.1	30.7
2006		TOTAL	58.2	74.3	91.4	39.6	81.3	32.1	54.7	24.9	31.8
		Men	58.1	71.5	90.2	35.4	80.7	30.8	52.5	23.9	38.4
		Women	58.3	78.8	92.5	47.9	82.3	34.1	59.6	26.3	32.0
2007		TOTAL	58.8	75.2	91.8	40.4	82.2	30.8	52.2	24.5	32.2
		Men	58.5	72.1	90.1	35.9	81.3	29.4	49.7	23.5	41.9
		Women	59.4	80.0	93.4	49.1	83.8	33.1	57.3	26.0	32.6
2008		TOTAL	59.4	75.3	93.2	40.0	81.6	30.8	50.2	24.2	31.9
		Men	59.5	72.8	92.7	35.9	81.4	29.5	48.6	23.2	38.7
		Women	59.3	79.1	93.6	48.0	81.9	32.6	53.0	25.6	32.5
2009		TOTAL	59.9	76.2	93.5	41.5	83.0	31.5	51.4	24.9	32.7
		Men	59.8	73.5	92.5	37.0	82.7	29.7	48.7	23.5	38.0
		Women	60.2	80.4	94.3	50.4	83.4	34.1	57.4	26.9	33.2
2000	Pensions	TOTAL	50.1	67.6	86.1	28.4	76.2	22.8	43.6	16.4	23.3
		Men	50.3	64.6	83.9	24.4	75.9	22.8	42.8	16.6	35.1
		Women	50.2	73.2	88.4	38.8	77.0	23.6	46.8	16.5	23.4
2005		TOTAL	49.7	68.0	88.1	29.8	75.5	21.0	38.5	15.5	22.0
		Men	50.1	65.2	87.0	25.9	75.2	20.7	37.7	15.5	32.5
		Women	49.2	72.6	89.1	38.6	75.8	21.5	39.6	15.7	21.8
2006		TOTAL	51.0	69.2	88.5	30.7	77.0	21.6	39.2	16.0	22.6
		Men	51.5	66.6	86.9	27.1	76.7	21.5	38.2	16.2	34.2
		Women	50.3	73.3	90.0	38.3	77.4	21.7	41.1	15.8	22.4
2007		TOTAL	51.7	69.8	88.3	31.7	78.1	21.0	37.8	16.0	22.6
		Men	52.1	67.2	86.7	28.3	77.4	20.9	36.7	16.3	32.6
		Women	51.1	74.0	89.7	38.6	79.1	21.2	39.8	15.7	22.6
2008		TOTAL	52.4	70.4	90.1	31.1	77.8	21.6	36.8	16.3	23.2
		Men	53.0	68.1	89.3	27.7	77.6	21.2	36.0	16.2	35.1
		Women	51.6	74.1	90.8	37.9	78.0	22.2	37.8	16.6	23.2
2009		TOTAL	56.1	74.7	92.7	38.5	82.6	28.0	48.3	21.4	30.1
		Men	57.0	72.7	91.7	34.8	82.9	28.0	47.4	21.6	43.3
		Women	54.9	77.8	93.4	45.9	82.0	28.2	50.7	21.2	29.2
2000	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	54.5	71.5	90.4	32.9	79.8	28.4	48.8	21.7	30.8
		Men	54.3	68.2	88.8	28.5	79.2	27.7	47.4	21.4	40.7
		Women	55.1	77.3	91.8	43.8	81.2	30.0	53.0	22.4	30.6
2005		TOTAL	59.1	73.9	91.7	39.8	80.5	37.0	56.2	29.9	33.9
		Men	58.7	71.0	91.0	35.1	80.1	34.4	54.3	28.0	41.1
		Women	59.8	78.7	92.3	50.3	81.3	41.4	60.3	32.9	34.0
2006		TOTAL	60.7	75.2	92.2	41.1	82.0	38.5	57.2	31.3	35.1
		Men	60.3	72.2	90.8	36.7	81.3	36.3	55.1	29.6	42.5
		Women	61.2	79.9	93.4	50.2	83.2	42.3	61.5	34.0	35.3
2007		TOTAL	61.3	76.0	92.7	41.9	82.9	37.3	54.9	30.9	36.0
		Men	60.7	72.9	91.1	37.3	81.7	34.8	52.6	29.0	45.6
		Women	62.4	81.0	94.1	51.1	84.8	41.7	59.8	33.9	36.4

(continued...)

TABLE 8 (continued)

## LATIN AMERICA: URBAN EMPLOYED POPULATION WITH HEALTH AND/OR PENSION COVERAGE. 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)

Country, Year and Sex		Wage and salaried workers					Non-wage and salaried workers			Domestic service workers	
		Total	Total	Public	Private		Total	Employers	Independent workers and unpaid family workers		
					Establishments with a maximum of 5 workers	Establishments with 6 or more workers					
2008	TOTAL	61.7	75.9	93.7	41.4	82.1	37.5	53.0	30.9	35.7	
	Men	61.4	73.3	93.3	37.0	81.7	34.9	51.4	28.9	43.1	
	Women	62.2	80.0	93.9	49.9	82.9	41.5	55.7	34.0	36.3	
2009	TOTAL	66.3	79.3	94.3	49.6	85.5	47.6	68.2	39.5	44.5	
	Men	65.9	76.9	93.1	44.9	85.3	44.9	66.1	37.3	49.6	
	Women	66.8	83.2	95.2	58.8	85.8	52.1	73.7	42.6	44.3	
<b>Argentina<sup>a/</sup></b>											
2005	Health	TOTAL	61.1	69.7	83.6	46.2	73.0	51.7	79.4	43.5	28.5
		Men	60.2	67.2	90.0	39.5	72.5	45.2	75.8	37.1	36.0
		Women	62.4	73.5	78.5	61.9	73.7	65.2	91.1	54.9	28.3
	Pensions	TOTAL	42.3	62.7	80.5	29.4	68.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.7
		Men	43.8	62.3	89.1	26.4	70.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	19.5
		Women	40.2	63.5	73.8	36.4	65.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.3
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	63.0	72.3	85.7	48.4	76.0	51.7	79.4	43.5	29.8
		Men	62.5	70.4	92.4	41.9	76.3	45.2	75.8	37.1	36.0
		Women	63.7	75.2	80.4	63.5	75.4	65.2	91.1	54.9	29.7
2006	Health	TOTAL	65.0	74.8	88.4	47.5	80.2	54.1	81.1	45.8	34.4
		Men	63.3	71.5	86.5	43.7	78.8	47.9	77.3	39.6	31.1
		Women	67.2	79.9	90.0	55.0	83.0	66.6	92.2	56.8	34.5
	Pensions	TOTAL	45.3	67.4	85.5	30.1	75.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	8.8
		Men	46.3	65.6	85.7	28.6	75.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	21.9
		Women	44.0	70.2	85.4	33.0	74.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	8.6
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	67.0	77.6	90.0	50.3	83.5	54.1	81.1	45.8	36.1
		Men	65.8	74.8	88.5	47.0	82.5	47.9	77.3	39.6	31.1
		Women	68.6	81.8	91.3	56.7	85.4	66.6	92.2	56.8	36.2
2007	Health	TOTAL	67.8	75.9	90.5	47.7	81.8	58.1	79.2	50.4	37.8
		Men	66.5	72.7	91.9	42.5	80.0	52.7	77.2	45.1	53.6
		Women	69.6	80.8	89.3	57.5	85.3	69.7	85.0	60.5	37.5
	Pensions	TOTAL	49.1	70.1	87.8	33.9	78.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	12.9
		Men	50.5	69.4	91.3	33.5	78.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	13.3
		Women	47.2	71.1	84.7	34.8	77.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	12.9
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	70.7	79.3	92.4	51.7	85.7	58.1	79.2	50.4	41.7
		Men	69.6	76.6	94.0	47.4	84.1	52.7	77.2	45.1	53.6
		Women	72.2	83.4	90.9	59.7	88.8	69.7	85.0	60.5	41.5
2008	Health	TOTAL	68.3	72.1	91.8	47.8	73.5	59.6	74.1	53.6	41.0
		Men	67.9	69.2	96.4	41.2	72.5	56.3	75.4	49.9	49.0
		Women	69.0	76.7	87.9	60.9	75.3	66.1	70.9	60.0	41.0
	Pensions	TOTAL	48.9	66.2	89.4	30.3	70.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	15.8
		Men	50.4	64.7	94.3	27.3	71.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	28.1
		Women	46.9	68.5	85.4	36.1	69.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	15.7
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	70.5	74.6	93.1	50.2	76.5	59.6	74.1	53.6	43.4
		Men	70.3	72.0	97.7	43.9	75.8	56.3	75.4	49.9	49.0
		Women	70.8	78.6	89.3	62.6	77.8	66.1	70.9	60.0	43.3
2009	Health	TOTAL	68.8	77.0	93.0	49.5	82.0	54.7	74.2	48.4	42.2
		Men	67.1	74.3	93.5	44.9	81.5	49.0	72.2	42.1	9.3
		Women	71.1	81.2	92.5	58.8	82.7	66.2	80.0	59.5	43.2
	Pensions	TOTAL	50.7	71.9	90.5	35.4	79.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	20.8
		Men	50.8	70.4	92.3	32.8	80.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	8.0

(continued...)



TABLE 8 (continued)

## LATIN AMERICA: URBAN EMPLOYED POPULATION WITH HEALTH AND/OR PENSION COVERAGE. 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)

Country, Year and Sex			Wage and salaried workers				Non-wage and salaried workers			Domestic service workers	
			Total	Total	Public	Private		Total	Employers		Independent workers and unpaid family workers
Establishments with a maximum of 5 workers	Establishments with 6 or more workers										
	Women	50.4	74.1	88.9	40.7	77.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	21.1	
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	71.2	79.8	94.2	52.7	85.4	54.7	74.2	48.4	47.1
	Men	69.6	77.6	94.6	48.3	85.5	49.0	72.2	42.1	11.9	
	Women	73.4	83.3	93.8	61.4	85.1	66.2	80.0	59.5	48.2	
<b>Brazil<sup>lv</sup></b>											
2001	Health	TOTAL	53.4	72.8	88.1	36.4	81.8	25.9	64.2	15.9	29.2
		Men	54.0	69.2	85.0	31.5	81.5	27.8	63.3	17.9	44.6
		Women	52.4	79.0	90.7	48.6	82.5	22.1	67.0	12.6	28.3
	Pensions	TOTAL	57.9	74.0	88.4	39.0	82.9	37.4	68.8	27.1	35.4
		Men	57.8	70.3	85.1	33.6	82.5	37.2	67.9	27.4	51.9
		Women	57.9	80.4	91.2	52.3	83.7	37.9	71.3	26.5	34.5
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	58.3	74.2	88.6	39.2	83.0	38.3	70.2	27.8	35.6
		Men	58.3	70.5	85.5	33.9	82.6	38.1	69.3	28.1	51.9
		Women	58.2	80.6	91.2	52.5	83.9	38.8	72.8	27.2	34.7
2005	Health	TOTAL	55.3	74.9	89.3	39.2	83.1	25.4	63.8	15.5	29.8
		Men	56.3	71.7	86.2	34.6	82.8	27.5	63.1	17.6	40.8
		Women	54.0	80.1	91.8	49.5	83.5	21.7	65.5	12.4	29.2
	Pensions	TOTAL	59.9	76.1	89.5	41.9	84.0	37.5	68.2	27.6	36.4
		Men	59.9	72.7	86.2	36.7	83.7	36.8	67.6	27.3	47.3
		Women	59.8	81.6	92.1	53.7	84.7	38.5	69.9	27.9	35.8
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	60.4	76.4	89.8	42.3	84.2	38.5	69.9	28.4	36.7
		Men	60.4	73.0	86.7	37.0	83.8	37.9	69.1	28.2	47.4
		Women	60.3	81.8	92.3	54.3	84.9	39.6	71.7	28.7	36.1
2006	Health	TOTAL	56.2	75.1	89.5	39.5	82.7	26.6	65.1	15.9	30.5
		Men	57.5	72.4	86.9	35.5	83.0	28.7	64.2	17.9	42.2
		Women	54.6	79.3	91.5	48.3	82.3	22.8	67.4	13.0	29.8
	Pensions	TOTAL	60.9	76.3	89.6	42.5	83.7	38.9	69.3	28.6	37.1
		Men	61.3	73.4	86.9	37.7	83.8	38.8	68.6	28.7	50.3
		Women	60.3	80.8	91.9	53.1	83.5	39.1	70.9	28.4	36.4
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	61.3	76.6	89.9	42.7	83.9	40.0	71.2	29.3	37.3
		Men	61.8	73.7	87.3	37.9	84.0	39.9	70.5	29.5	50.4
		Women	60.7	81.1	92.1	53.3	83.9	40.2	73.0	29.2	36.6
2007	Health	TOTAL	57.9	77.0	89.8	42.9	84.5	26.2	63.7	17.0	31.2
		Men	59.4	74.6	87.0	39.1	84.6	28.5	62.7	19.4	42.6
		Women	56.1	80.8	91.9	50.9	84.3	22.2	66.5	13.4	30.6
	Pensions	TOTAL	62.2	78.1	90.0	45.7	85.3	37.8	67.9	28.6	37.4
		Men	62.7	75.5	87.0	41.2	85.2	37.7	67.1	29.0	47.9
		Women	61.5	82.3	92.4	54.9	85.5	38.0	70.0	28.0	36.9
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	62.7	78.4	90.3	45.9	85.6	39.1	69.9	29.6	37.6
		Men	63.3	75.8	87.6	41.5	85.4	38.9	69.0	30.0	48.3
		Women	61.9	82.5	92.5	55.2	85.8	39.3	72.1	29.0	37.1
2008	Health	TOTAL	58.8	77.7	93.9	41.9	84.2	26.0	61.0	15.9	30.8
		Men	60.3	75.4	91.2	38.2	84.8	28.0	60.3	17.9	42.7
		Women	56.9	81.2	96.1	49.5	83.2	22.7	62.9	13.1	30.1
	Pensions	TOTAL	63.3	78.8	94.1	44.8	85.1	38.5	65.7	28.7	38.1
		Men	63.9	76.4	91.2	40.6	85.5	37.9	65.2	28.4	50.6
		Women	62.7	82.6	96.4	53.4	84.4	39.4	66.9	29.1	37.5
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	63.8	79.0	94.3	45.1	85.3	39.5	67.5	29.4	38.3

(continued...)

TABLE 8 (continued)

## LATIN AMERICA: URBAN EMPLOYED POPULATION WITH HEALTH AND/OR PENSION COVERAGE. 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)

Country, Year and Sex			Wage and salaried workers					Non-wage and salaried workers			Domestic service workers
			Total	Total	Public	Private		Total	Employers	Independent workers and unpaid family workers	
Establishments with a maximum of 5 workers	Establishments with 6 or more workers										
2009	Health	Men	64.3	76.6	91.5	40.9	85.7	38.9	66.8	29.1	51.7
		Women	63.0	82.8	96.4	53.8	84.6	40.6	69.2	29.9	37.6
		TOTAL	60.2	79.2	93.5	44.4	86.3	27.6	63.3	17.7	32.1
	Pensions	Men	61.4	76.7	90.8	39.8	86.6	29.3	61.4	19.5	47.0
		Women	58.6	83.1	95.6	53.8	85.7	24.7	68.3	15.1	31.1
		TOTAL	64.5	80.3	93.7	47.1	87.1	39.5	67.3	30.1	38.9
	Health and/or pensions	Men	65.0	77.7	91.0	42.1	87.4	39.0	65.4	30.1	55.4
		Women	63.9	84.4	95.8	57.5	86.7	40.4	72.3	30.1	37.9
		TOTAL	65.0	80.5	93.8	47.4	87.3	40.8	69.2	31.1	39.2
		Men	65.5	77.9	91.2	42.3	87.6	40.2	67.2	31.1	55.5
	Women	64.3	84.6	95.8	57.8	86.9	41.7	74.5	31.1	38.2	
<b>Chile <sup>e/</sup></b>											
2000	Health	TOTAL	88.5	93.5	97.0	85.4	94.0	79.3	81.9	73.8	90.6
		Men	86.6	92.7	96.9	82.4	93.5	72.8	81.9	68.0	89.8
		Women	91.7	95.0	97.2	90.3	95.1	92.9	81.9	83.7	90.7
	Pensions	TOTAL	66.7	82.7	92.0	57.6	84.7	29.5	56.7	21.6	48.4
		Men	68.6	82.7	91.8	55.6	85.1	31.4	58.7	22.9	81.5
		Women	63.8	82.8	92.3	60.9	83.8	25.5	49.7	19.3	47.9
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	89.7	94.8	97.7	86.9	95.4	80.1	82.6	74.6	91.2
		Men	88.0	94.2	97.5	84.4	95.0	73.8	82.7	69.0	89.8
		Women	92.5	95.9	98.0	91.1	96.0	93.3	82.4	84.1	91.2
	2003	Health	TOTAL	91.6	95.5	97.7	86.9	96.5	86.1	85.2	81.0
Men			90.2	95.2	97.9	85.6	96.3	79.4	83.0	76.4	93.8
Women			93.9	96.1	97.5	89.3	97.0	99.5	90.5	89.0	93.6
Pensions		TOTAL	67.6	82.4	91.2	53.9	85.2	33.1	62.3	25.3	50.3
		Men	69.8	82.8	92.7	51.2	86.1	34.7	64.3	27.2	75.3
		Women	64.1	81.8	89.5	58.6	83.4	29.8	57.2	21.9	49.8
Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	93.1	96.6	98.5	88.4	97.5	88.1	88.4	82.7	95.2	
	Men	91.8	96.2	98.4	87.0	97.3	81.9	86.9	78.6	95.2	
	Women	95.2	97.2	98.6	90.9	98.0	100.4	92.1	89.7	95.2	
2006	Health	TOTAL	91.6	94.5	96.2	90.0	94.9	87.3	86.6	83.9	93.5
		Men	90.0	93.8	96.3	87.8	94.2	82.0	84.9	79.6	84.4
		Women	94.0	95.8	96.0	93.3	96.2	96.1	90.8	90.3	93.7
	Pensions	TOTAL	66.5	82.8	90.5	56.4	85.1	26.7	53.4	21.7	42.6
		Men	69.4	83.2	90.9	56.3	85.7	29.3	56.6	23.9	64.6
		Women	62.2	81.9	90.1	56.5	83.9	22.3	45.9	18.3	42.3
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	93.9	96.8	98.5	92.1	97.2	89.0	89.1	85.3	95.0
		Men	92.6	96.3	98.4	90.3	96.7	84.1	87.7	81.5	88.4
		Women	95.7	97.8	98.6	94.8	98.1	97.0	92.7	91.0	95.1
	<b>Colombia <sup>d/</sup></b>										
2000	Health	TOTAL	47.4	69.4	94.7	31.5	79.5	21.0	48.8	15.3	31.2
		Men	47.0	65.8	95.8	28.8	77.5	23.2	47.5	17.4	38.1
		Women	47.9	74.2	93.7	36.5	82.0	17.6	52.4	12.5	30.8
	Pensions	TOTAL	34.3	54.7	85.2	17.4	63.4	10.1	28.4	6.5	14.6
		Men	33.3	50.6	84.6	15.1	60.9	11.2	27.6	7.3	18.5
		Women	35.6	60.2	85.7	21.5	66.7	8.4	30.6	5.4	14.4
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	47.8	69.7	95.0	32.0	79.8	21.5	49.3	15.8	31.6

(continued...)

TABLE 8 (continued)

## LATIN AMERICA: URBAN EMPLOYED POPULATION WITH HEALTH AND/OR PENSION COVERAGE, 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)

Country, Year and Sex		Wage and salaried workers					Non-wage and salaried workers			Domestic service workers		
		Total	Total	Public	Private		Total	Employers	Independent workers and unpaid family workers			
					Establishments with a maximum of 5 workers	Establishments with 6 or more workers						
2005	Health	Men	47.4	66.2	96.0	29.2	77.9	23.7	48.0	17.8	38.1	
		Women	48.2	74.5	94.0	37.0	82.2	18.2	52.8	13.0	31.2	
		TOTAL	79.7	86.9	99.8	68.7	90.9	78.7	82.7	71.5	72.3	
	Pensions	Men	77.4	84.5	99.7	64.9	89.8	72.8	81.7	67.9	67.1	
		Women	82.6	90.3	100.0	75.8	92.6	88.1	85.6	76.3	72.5	
		TOTAL	33.4	59.2	97.7	13.3	68.0	8.9	18.0	6.9	13.4	
	Health and/or pensions	Men	32.5	54.9	96.6	10.9	65.2	9.2	18.3	7.2	20.5	
		Women	34.5	65.4	98.9	17.7	72.0	8.5	17.2	6.6	13.1	
		TOTAL	79.8	87.0	99.8	68.9	91.1	78.8	82.9	71.6	72.4	
	2006	Health	Men	77.5	84.6	99.7	65.1	89.9	73.0	81.9	68.1	67.1
			Women	82.7	90.5	100.0	75.8	92.7	88.2	85.6	76.4	72.6
			TOTAL	82.3	88.7	99.8	73.7	92.5	82.2	83.8	75.2	72.7
Pensions		Men	80.4	86.7	99.8	70.4	91.3	76.6	82.1	72.2	67.9	
		Women	84.5	91.6	99.8	79.0	94.2	90.9	88.2	79.1	72.9	
		TOTAL	33.4	59.1	94.8	15.1	69.5	8.4	19.2	6.2	12.3	
Health and/or pensions		Men	33.0	55.9	94.5	13.3	67.5	8.8	18.7	6.6	21.2	
		Women	33.9	63.6	95.1	18.0	72.4	7.9	20.5	5.8	11.8	
		TOTAL	82.4	88.9	99.8	73.8	92.7	82.4	84.0	75.4	72.7	
2007		Health	Men	80.6	86.8	99.9	70.5	91.5	76.8	82.3	72.5	67.9
			Women	84.6	91.8	99.8	79.1	94.4	91.0	88.6	79.1	73.0
			TOTAL	89.4	93.2	106.7	80.4	96.0	91.5	92.2	84.2	88.0
	Pensions	Men	84.5	87.8	101.3	75.2	91.4	84.3	90.0	79.3	75.0	
		Women	95.9	101.0	112.2	89.5	102.7	102.7	97.2	91.0	88.3	
		TOTAL	37.3	62.4	96.3	16.6	76.0	10.1	19.6	8.2	14.1	
	Health and/or pensions	Men	36.0	57.5	92.6	14.9	71.8	10.8	20.8	9.0	34.1	
		Women	39.0	69.5	100.1	19.5	82.0	8.9	17.1	7.2	13.6	
		TOTAL	89.5	93.2	106.7	80.5	96.1	91.7	92.6	84.4	88.2	
	2008	Health	Men	84.6	87.9	101.3	75.3	91.5	84.5	90.5	79.5	75.0
			Women	96.0	101.1	112.2	89.6	102.8	102.9	97.2	91.2	88.5
			TOTAL	86.0	92.0	98.9	79.8	95.0	86.2	87.7	79.8	82.5
Pensions		Men	84.0	90.6	98.9	77.5	94.0	80.8	87.5	76.4	67.8	
		Women	88.7	94.1	99.0	83.4	96.4	94.4	88.3	84.4	82.9	
		TOTAL	38.9	67.9	91.9	20.0	79.9	13.9	25.4	11.7	15.3	
Health and/or pensions		Men	39.2	65.4	91.1	18.1	78.3	14.6	26.9	12.3	40.8	
		Women	38.5	71.3	92.7	23.0	82.3	12.8	21.2	10.8	14.5	
		TOTAL	86.2	92.3	99.1	80.0	95.2	86.3	87.8	79.9	82.6	
2009		Health	Men	84.1	90.8	99.1	77.7	94.2	80.9	87.6	76.5	67.8
			Women	88.8	94.3	99.1	83.7	96.6	94.5	88.3	84.5	83.1
			TOTAL	86.4	92.0	99.5	79.0	95.5	87.9	86.8	81.0	82.4
	Pensions	Men	84.4	90.2	99.1	75.2	94.8	82.3	85.5	77.9	87.0	
		Women	89.0	94.5	100.0	85.4	96.5	96.2	90.5	85.0	82.2	
		TOTAL	37.9	67.3	95.4	18.5	80.6	13.6	21.8	11.6	13.8	
	Health and/or pensions	Men	38.4	65.0	95.6	17.4	79.2	13.8	22.5	11.8	44.7	
		Women	37.2	70.6	95.3	20.4	82.6	13.4	19.5	11.3	12.3	
		TOTAL	86.5	92.1	99.6	79.1	95.6	88.0	86.9	81.1	82.4	
	Costa Rica	Health and/or pensions	Men	84.5	90.3	99.2	75.3	94.9	82.4	85.6	78.0	87.0
			Women	89.1	94.6	100.0	85.4	96.6	96.3	90.7	85.1	82.2
	TOTAL		81.0	87.2	98.5	65.4	89.0	68.5	71.2	64.2	71.9	

(continued...)

TABLE 8 (continued)

## LATIN AMERICA: URBAN EMPLOYED POPULATION WITH HEALTH AND/OR PENSION COVERAGE. 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)

Country, Year and Sex			Wage and salaried workers					Non-wage and salaried workers			Domestic service workers
			Total	Total	Public	Private		Total	Employers	Independent workers and unpaid family workers	
Establishments with a maximum of 5 workers	Establishments with 6 or more workers										
2005	Health and/or pensions	Men	77.6	84.3	98.1	57.8	87.7	61.9	69.9	57.6	64.8
		Women	86.7	92.2	98.9	79.4	92.1	84.3	76.0	77.3	72.3
		TOTAL	79.5	86.0	99.5	57.9	89.4	68.5	70.8	63.3	64.7
2006	Health and/or pensions	Men	75.9	82.1	99.3	48.9	87.2	61.4	70.1	54.8	62.9
		Women	85.2	93.0	99.7	75.3	94.8	81.6	73.0	75.3	64.8
		TOTAL	79.6	87.5	99.6	59.8	90.4	66.4	69.6	59.7	67.3
2007	Health and/or pensions	Men	76.6	84.6	99.3	51.3	89.4	59.8	68.1	52.5	59.9
		Women	84.2	92.3	99.8	75.1	92.6	79.2	74.4	70.4	67.8
		TOTAL	82.0	88.7	99.5	66.8	90.7	68.5	72.1	63.3	69.1
2008	Health and/or pensions	Men	79.1	86.5	99.8	58.3	89.8	61.3	69.2	55.3	69.8
		Women	86.4	92.1	99.3	79.0	92.5	83.3	81.5	76.2	69.1
		TOTAL	83.1	89.6	99.6	69.2	91.3	70.5	70.2	66.2	72.0
2009	Health and/or pensions	Men	80.3	86.7	99.6	61.0	89.7	64.3	70.8	59.1	86.6
		Women	87.0	93.9	99.6	81.6	94.4	81.3	68.4	75.5	71.6
		TOTAL	83.7	89.7	100.0	64.8	92.0	72.4	76.7	66.4	71.7
		Men	81.1	86.6	100.0	57.2	90.0	68.2	77.6	60.3	61.8
		Women	87.5	94.6	100.0	78.0	95.9	79.4	73.9	74.0	72.5
<b>Ecuador <sup>v/</sup></b>											
2000	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	28.5	42.5	80.1	12.8	43.7	12.5	22.6	9.2	16.9
		Men	27.4	37.8	80.6	10.6	40.0	12.5	20.8	9.8	29.8
		Women	30.2	52.2	79.6	18.9	51.6	12.6	29.2	8.3	15.5
2005	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	29.3	45.4	93.3	13.7	46.9	10.7	18.0	7.5	13.3
		Men	29.2	41.2	94.5	11.2	44.0	11.0	17.9	8.1	16.1
		Women	29.4	54.0	91.8	20.2	53.0	10.3	18.2	6.9	13.0
2006	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	27.7	43.0	84.2	10.1	48.0	9.7	17.1	6.3	14.7
		Men	26.8	37.6	78.5	8.4	44.9	9.7	18.3	6.0	19.9
		Women	29.0	54.2	91.1	15.0	54.6	9.7	14.2	6.6	14.4
2007	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	33.6	48.7	92.5	12.3	52.6	17.5	27.0	12.3	25.1
		Men	32.7	43.9	93.7	9.7	48.1	16.1	27.0	11.3	32.3
		Women	34.8	58.2	91.0	18.6	62.0	19.3	27.1	13.3	24.8
2008	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	34.8	48.4	82.7	15.3	53.0	20.4	31.4	14.5	25.4
		Men	33.8	43.8	87.1	11.7	48.0	18.6	31.1	12.9	23.3
		Women	36.1	57.4	77.1	24.1	63.6	22.7	32.4	16.1	25.5
2009	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	38.3	54.1	92.0	15.0	61.7	20.5	36.1	14.7	26.1
		Men	37.2	48.8	92.6	11.4	57.5	19.1	35.4	13.8	23.3
		Women	39.7	64.6	91.2	23.9	70.4	22.5	38.2	15.7	26.3
<b>El Salvador <sup>v/</sup></b>											
2000	Health	TOTAL	44.1	63.9	91.9	15.8	73.9	20.1	32.1	14.9	7.6
		Men	44.5	57.3	90.5	12.5	68.6	17.8	31.0	10.4	11.8
		Women	43.8	74.8	93.6	24.3	82.4	21.9	35.0	17.6	7.3
Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	45.5	66.0	94.5	17.2	76.1	20.5	32.7	15.2	7.6	
	Men	45.8	59.1	93.0	13.2	70.5	18.2	31.9	10.7	11.8	
	Women	45.2	77.6	96.3	27.5	85.0	22.2	35.0	17.9	7.3	
2005	Health	TOTAL	41.9	58.9	94.2	15.6	65.4	18.4	27.9	13.1	9.9
		Men	41.5	51.2	92.7	10.7	59.6	16.8	26.2	10.7	38.3
		Women	42.4	71.4	95.8	28.1	74.5	19.6	31.7	14.7	6.9
Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	42.9	60.4	95.7	16.7	67.0	18.7	28.7	13.3	9.9	

(continued...)

TABLE 8 (continued)

## LATIN AMERICA: URBAN EMPLOYED POPULATION WITH HEALTH AND/OR PENSION COVERAGE. 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)

Country, Year and Sex			Wage and salaried workers					Non-wage and salaried workers			Domestic service workers	
			Total	Total	Public	Private		Total	Employers	Independent workers and unpaid family workers		
Establishments with a maximum of 5 workers	Establishments with 6 or more workers											
2006	Health	Men	42.8	52.9	94.1	11.9	61.6	17.2	27.2	10.9	38.3	
		Women	43.0	72.6	97.4	28.8	75.6	20.0	31.8	15.0	6.9	
		TOTAL	43.5	62.2	93.3	14.5	74.8	20.2	34.0	13.8	9.8	
	Health and/or pensions	Men	43.1	54.4	92.7	8.0	68.9	18.4	34.2	9.8	24.8	
		Women	43.9	74.5	93.9	29.1	83.6	21.6	33.7	16.1	8.5	
		TOTAL	44.6	64.0	94.9	15.4	77.0	20.8	35.5	14.1	9.8	
2007	Health	Men	44.3	55.9	94.1	8.8	70.9	19.2	36.2	10.1	24.8	
		Women	45.0	76.6	95.7	30.4	86.1	22.1	34.0	16.5	8.5	
		TOTAL	43.9	62.3	95.5	15.9	72.6	19.4	33.0	14.1	12.7	
	Health and/or pensions	Men	44.2	56.0	95.3	11.0	67.6	17.2	33.2	10.4	31.0	
		Women	43.6	72.7	95.8	26.5	80.7	21.2	32.6	16.3	10.7	
		TOTAL	44.7	63.3	96.2	16.2	74.0	20.0	33.2	14.6	12.7	
2008	Health and/or pensions	Men	45.0	57.0	95.9	11.4	69.0	17.7	33.2	11.0	31.0	
		Women	44.3	73.7	96.5	26.8	82.1	21.7	33.3	16.8	10.7	
		TOTAL	42.0	64.3	96.3	13.4	77.0	12.6	25.6	8.6	8.1	
	Health	Men	43.5	58.1	95.3	10.3	72.9	11.5	25.4	6.0	18.3	
		Women	40.3	74.8	97.3	21.4	83.7	13.4	26.0	10.3	7.0	
		TOTAL	42.4	63.1	94.0	16.7	75.0	19.1	35.0	13.9	9.8	
2009	Health	Men	42.9	57.2	91.9	11.7	71.5	16.6	33.5	9.9	14.1	
		Women	41.9	72.7	96.4	27.6	80.8	21.0	38.2	16.7	9.3	
		TOTAL	43.3	64.5	95.4	17.7	76.5	19.3	35.2	14.1	10.4	
	Health and/or pensions	Men	43.9	58.6	93.5	12.8	72.9	16.8	33.5	10.1	14.1	
		Women	42.6	74.1	97.4	28.4	82.5	21.1	38.7	16.8	10.0	
		TOTAL										
<b>Mexico <sup>e/</sup></b>												
2000	Health	TOTAL	48.9	68.3	85.5	14.4	78.9	0.6	2.1	0.1	12.3	
		Men	48.0	65.6	84.9	11.8	78.6	0.7	2.2	0.1	17.5	
		Women	50.4	73.5	86.1	22.2	79.4	0.4	1.2	0.2	11.4	
	Pensions	TOTAL	44.9	63.4	81.3	11.1	73.2	0.4	1.3	0.1	2.1	
		Men	44.2	60.5	79.8	8.9	72.8	0.4	1.4	0.1	8.5	
		Women	46.1	68.7	83.1	17.6	73.9	0.2	0.5	0.1	1.0	
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	49.7	69.5	90.9	14.5	79.0	0.6	2.1	0.1	12.3	
		Men	48.9	66.8	91.1	11.8	78.8	0.7	2.2	0.1	17.5	
		Women	51.3	74.8	90.8	22.3	79.6	0.4	1.2	0.2	11.4	
	2005	Health	TOTAL	47.8	68.3	93.7	17.8	76.8	2.7	7.0	1.3	7.8
			Men	48.2	65.7	93.9	15.0	77.0	2.9	6.9	1.3	18.6
			Women	47.4	72.9	93.4	24.7	76.5	2.3	7.7	1.2	6.6
		Pensions	TOTAL	42.4	61.2	84.2	13.8	69.4	1.9	1.0	1.7	1.9
			Men	42.7	58.5	83.5	11.2	69.4	2.4	1.2	2.6	13.8
			Women	41.9	65.9	84.9	20.4	69.4	0.8	0.1	0.7	0.7
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	49.1	69.4	94.4	18.8	78.1	4.6	8.0	3.0	8.0	
		Men	49.6	66.8	94.6	16.0	78.2	5.4	8.1	3.9	20.5	
		Women	48.3	74.0	94.1	25.6	78.0	3.1	7.8	1.9	6.7	
2006	Health	TOTAL	47.5	67.6	93.0	16.8	76.8	2.4	5.8	1.1	6.2	
		Men	47.7	64.7	93.4	14.0	75.8	2.7	6.0	1.3	14.7	
		Women	47.2	72.5	92.6	23.1	78.5	1.7	4.6	0.9	5.5	
	Pensions	TOTAL	43.0	61.6	84.3	13.6	70.8	1.9	1.3	1.7	1.2	
		Men	43.3	58.9	83.2	10.8	70.3	2.5	1.5	2.6	7.1	
		Women	42.6	66.3	85.5	19.5	71.9	0.8	0.5	0.6	0.7	

(continued...)

TABLE 8 (continued)

## LATIN AMERICA: URBAN EMPLOYED POPULATION WITH HEALTH AND/OR PENSION COVERAGE. 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)

Country, Year and Sex		Total	Wage and salaried workers				Non-wage and salaried workers			Domestic service workers		
			Total	Public	Private		Total	Employers	Independent workers and unpaid family workers			
					Establishments with a maximum of 5 workers	Establishments with 6 or more workers						
2007	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	48.7	68.7	93.8	18.0	78.0	4.2	7.0	2.8	6.6	
		Men	49.2	65.9	94.2	15.1	77.2	5.2	7.5	3.8	17.1	
		Women	48.0	73.5	93.5	24.1	79.5	2.5	5.0	1.6	5.6	
	Health	TOTAL	48.2	69.2	92.7	18.6	78.5	0.2	0.4	0.2	8.1	
		Men	48.4	66.4	93.3	15.6	78.1	0.2	0.4	0.1	24.2	
		Women	48.0	73.7	92.1	25.4	79.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	6.5	
	Pensions	TOTAL	42.9	61.6	83.6	13.8	70.5	2.0	1.1	1.9	1.6	
		Men	43.3	58.9	83.8	11.2	70.0	2.5	1.0	2.8	12.4	
		Women	42.4	65.9	83.3	19.9	71.3	1.0	1.3	0.7	0.6	
2008	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	49.5	70.3	93.7	19.7	79.7	2.2	1.5	2.1	8.6	
		Men	49.9	67.5	94.3	16.8	79.2	2.7	1.4	2.9	28.9	
		Women	48.8	74.7	93.1	26.3	80.4	1.4	1.6	1.0	6.6	
	Health	TOTAL	47.6	68.5	92.5	16.8	78.7	0.2	0.3	0.2	6.7	
		Men	48.3	66.2	93.8	14.4	78.3	0.2	0.4	0.1	15.8	
		Women	46.7	72.2	91.1	21.8	79.5	0.3	0.2	0.2	5.9	
	Pensions	TOTAL	42.2	60.7	83.5	12.4	70.1	1.9	1.0	1.8	1.7	
		Men	42.9	58.4	84.3	10.4	69.4	2.3	0.9	2.6	7.2	
		Women	41.3	64.4	82.6	16.5	71.3	1.1	1.3	0.8	1.3	
2009	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	48.9	69.6	93.3	17.8	80.1	2.1	1.3	1.9	6.9	
		Men	49.7	67.4	94.5	15.5	79.6	2.5	1.3	2.7	17.7	
		Women	47.6	73.3	92.0	22.5	80.8	1.4	1.5	1.1	6.0	
	Health	TOTAL	46.9	67.2	92.4	17.1	76.0	0.3	0.6	0.2	7.0	
		Men	47.2	64.3	92.9	14.4	75.5	0.3	0.7	0.2	16.9	
		Women	46.5	72.1	91.9	23.6	76.8	0.4	0.2	0.3	6.0	
	<b>Panama <sup>iv</sup></b>											
	2005	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	63.9	81.8	98.7	33.3	83.0	28.2	43.7	23.9	34.9
			Men	60.4	77.9	98.6	25.7	80.8	22.4	41.0	18.2	48.6
Women			69.0	87.9	98.7	50.0	87.0	42.1	54.4	35.0	33.4	
2006	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	64.4	82.7	98.1	38.3	83.8	27.3	42.6	23.2	32.5	
		Men	61.6	79.0	97.3	33.4	81.3	21.3	39.5	17.0	44.2	
		Women	68.5	88.7	99.0	48.9	88.6	40.6	55.1	34.8	31.6	
2007	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	67.3	84.1	98.6	33.1	87.2	28.6	42.0	25.1	37.3	
		Men	64.6	81.2	98.1	28.3	85.4	22.8	39.5	18.9	41.1	
		Women	71.2	88.5	99.1	42.0	90.5	40.8	50.8	36.4	36.9	
2008	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	68.9	84.3	97.6	35.5	85.8	33.7	46.6	29.3	37.9	
		Men	66.5	81.3	97.6	29.6	84.2	26.4	43.5	21.5	43.4	
		Women	72.2	89.0	97.6	49.3	88.8	47.0	56.1	41.6	37.4	
2009	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	70.0	86.6	99.1	37.5	88.6	32.0	44.4	28.4	38.1	
		Men	67.5	83.9	99.1	32.7	87.3	24.4	41.9	19.9	41.1	
		Women	73.4	90.8	99.0	48.7	91.1	45.2	52.6	41.2	37.8	
<b>Paraguay <sup>v</sup></b>												
2000-01	Health	TOTAL	29.9	44.6	75.6	15.1	48.6	20.3	33.5	14.1	6.3	
		Men	28.6	38.1	75.1	10.0	44.0	16.4	27.8	10.0	14.6	
		Women	31.5	57.7	76.0	29.0	59.5	25.3	50.9	18.1	5.5	
Pensions	TOTAL	19.2	38.2	79.7	6.2	38.7	0.7	3.4	0.0	0.5		
	Men	19.9	33.0	78.8	5.6	35.6	0.9	3.2	0.0	3.8		
	Women	18.2	48.5	80.6	7.7	46.0	0.5	3.8	0.0	0.2		

(continued...)

TABLE 8 (continued)

## LATIN AMERICA: URBAN EMPLOYED POPULATION WITH HEALTH AND/OR PENSION COVERAGE. 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)

Country, Year and Sex		Wage and salaried workers					Non-wage and salaried workers			Domestic service workers	
		Total	Total	Public	Private		Total	Employers	Independent workers and unpaid family workers		
					Establishments with a maximum of 5 workers	Establishments with 6 or more workers					
2005	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	31.6	48.0	86.5	15.3	50.3	20.4	33.8	14.1	6.3
		Men	30.1	40.4	86.6	10.2	44.8	16.5	28.0	10.0	14.6
		Women	33.5	62.9	86.5	29.0	63.4	25.4	51.5	18.1	5.5
	Health	TOTAL	32.1	45.9	82.3	14.4	48.0	23.1	35.3	17.8	8.1
		Men	29.4	38.7	81.3	11.6	43.2	15.6	29.8	10.1	18.2
		Women	35.5	60.3	83.3	24.3	57.7	32.8	52.6	25.7	7.3
	Pensions	TOTAL	19.6	37.4	82.9	5.8	34.1	1.1	3.1	0.6	2.0
		Men	19.7	31.3	82.5	4.7	31.6	1.2	3.1	0.5	10.9
		Women	19.4	49.5	83.4	9.4	39.3	1.0	3.4	0.6	1.3
2006	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	33.3	48.2	89.0	14.7	49.1	23.2	35.8	17.8	8.1
		Men	30.6	40.6	87.8	11.9	44.5	15.7	30.0	10.1	18.2
		Women	36.6	63.3	90.3	24.6	58.5	32.9	53.5	25.7	7.3
	Health	TOTAL	26.9	40.2	73.8	15.6	41.8	15.6	24.5	11.6	5.2
		Men	25.0	34.1	73.0	10.8	38.4	11.4	17.8	8.5	0.0
		Women	29.5	53.1	74.7	29.7	50.1	21.7	47.2	15.1	5.6
	Pensions	TOTAL	17.2	32.1	78.0	6.9	27.4	1.1	5.2	0.2	0.0
		Men	17.1	27.3	75.4	5.6	26.6	0.8	2.9	0.2	0.0
		Women	17.4	42.1	80.8	10.6	29.3	1.6	13.0	0.3	0.0
2007	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	28.6	43.4	84.4	16.1	43.3	15.6	24.8	11.6	5.2
		Men	26.2	36.1	82.1	11.0	39.2	11.5	18.1	8.5	0.0
		Women	31.8	58.8	86.8	31.0	53.1	21.7	47.2	15.1	5.6
	Health	TOTAL	32.4	44.6	75.2	18.9	47.3	23.1	33.0	18.6	8.5
		Men	30.1	38.7	74.0	14.3	43.3	16.0	25.9	11.9	13.5
		Women	35.6	57.1	76.4	31.4	57.4	32.4	52.9	25.7	8.0
	Pensions	TOTAL	21.1	37.8	82.2	8.5	36.2	2.3	7.0	1.2	2.1
		Men	22.5	34.1	83.0	7.6	35.5	2.4	6.0	1.2	10.5
		Women	19.3	45.7	81.3	11.2	38.0	2.3	10.0	1.1	1.3
Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	34.0	47.5	86.3	18.9	48.2	23.3	33.8	18.7	8.5	
	Men	31.8	41.3	86.2	14.4	44.4	16.3	27.0	11.9	13.5	
	Women	37.0	60.5	86.4	31.4	57.6	32.5	52.9	25.7	8.0	
2008	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	33.6	44.9	75.3	15.2	48.1	24.5	30.9	19.5	9.7
		Men	31.7	39.1	72.2	11.3	44.7	17.7	24.5	13.2	14.7
		Women	36.3	57.9	79.0	26.9	57.6	33.4	56.8	25.7	9.3
	Pensions	TOTAL	21.7	38.7	80.1	6.3	37.6	1.4	4.2	0.6	0.6
		Men	23.2	34.5	78.5	5.2	36.7	1.5	4.2	0.4	4.4
		Women	19.5	47.9	81.9	9.4	40.1	1.2	4.4	0.7	0.3
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	35.0	47.4	84.6	15.2	48.4	24.9	31.6	19.9	9.9
		Men	33.2	41.4	82.9	11.3	45.1	18.0	25.1	13.4	14.7
		Women	37.6	60.7	86.5	26.9	57.6	34.1	57.8	26.2	9.5
2009	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	35.0	46.3	75.5	20.0	51.3	25.8	33.0	20.5	12.4
		Men	33.5	41.7	70.6	19.7	47.8	19.6	29.9	13.6	15.3
		Women	37.1	55.5	81.4	21.0	59.2	33.6	43.1	27.4	12.1
	Pensions	TOTAL	24.8	40.9	80.4	11.3	42.5	6.4	6.1	5.5	0.6
		Men	26.4	37.3	77.7	11.6	41.2	6.2	6.2	5.3	1.2
		Women	22.6	48.1	83.7	10.3	45.6	6.6	5.7	5.6	0.6
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	36.7	49.2	84.9	20.6	52.3	26.5	33.2	21.1	12.7
		Men	35.4	44.5	81.1	20.2	48.9	20.5	30.2	14.5	16.4
		Women	38.6	58.9	89.5	21.8	60.2	34.0	43.1	27.7	12.3

(continued...)

TABLE 8 (continued)

## LATIN AMERICA: URBAN EMPLOYED POPULATION WITH HEALTH AND/OR PENSION COVERAGE. 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)

Country, Year and Sex			Wage and salaried workers					Non-wage and salaried workers			Domestic service workers
			Total	Total	Public	Private		Total	Employers	Independent workers and unpaid family workers	
Establishments with a maximum of 5 workers	Establishments with 6 or more workers										
<b>Peru<sup>y</sup></b>											
2000	Health	TOTAL	35.7	52.4	90.0	13.7	60.1	22.0	29.6	18.0	16.8
		Men	36.4	50.0	87.2	9.0	60.6	19.7	30.3	16.0	14.6
		Women	34.8	57.0	93.6	23.6	59.0	24.9	27.6	20.1	16.9
	Pensions	TOTAL	27.0	47.2	82.4	8.2	55.5	8.2	16.7	6.0	5.0
		Men	31.1	47.2	81.7	5.7	58.6	10.4	18.0	8.1	0.0
		Women	21.7	47.1	83.4	13.5	49.3	5.2	13.1	3.8	5.3
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	36.6	53.8	90.9	14.7	61.7	22.7	31.1	18.5	16.8
		Men	37.6	51.5	88.9	10.4	62.1	20.7	31.1	16.9	14.6
		Women	35.3	58.0	93.6	23.6	60.7	25.2	31.0	20.1	16.9
2005	Health	TOTAL	32.5	47.7	85.4	9.8	54.3	16.5	28.7	12.9	10.6
		Men	32.8	47.2	84.2	8.1	56.1	12.6	28.3	8.7	3.7
		Women	32.2	48.5	86.6	12.8	51.0	22.4	30.1	17.8	10.9
	Pensions	TOTAL	27.0	45.1	84.0	6.5	51.7	6.2	15.9	4.1	2.8
		Men	29.5	45.2	84.1	6.3	53.8	7.3	17.0	4.9	0.0
		Women	23.5	45.0	83.9	6.9	48.1	4.4	12.2	3.0	3.0
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	33.0	48.3	86.1	10.5	54.9	16.8	28.7	13.2	10.6
		Men	33.1	47.6	85.7	8.6	56.3	12.9	28.3	9.0	3.7
		Women	32.9	49.7	86.6	14.2	52.4	22.8	30.1	18.2	10.9
2006	Health	TOTAL	39.3	57.1	90.7	15.3	64.2	19.4	32.1	15.7	16.7
		Men	38.5	55.2	91.1	9.4	64.2	14.1	29.2	10.5	32.2
		Women	40.4	60.5	90.2	25.7	64.3	27.3	41.6	22.0	15.7
	Pensions	TOTAL	33.4	53.9	87.6	8.7	62.3	8.6	19.8	6.3	10.0
		Men	36.1	54.0	88.5	6.1	64.1	9.6	18.1	7.4	32.2
		Women	29.6	53.9	86.4	13.2	59.1	7.2	25.3	4.9	8.6
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	40.7	58.5	91.6	16.2	65.9	21.1	33.1	17.2	17.3
		Men	40.3	56.7	91.9	10.7	66.0	16.3	30.5	12.7	32.2
		Women	41.3	61.5	91.2	25.7	65.7	28.2	41.6	22.8	16.4
2007	Health	TOTAL	36.4	51.8	81.5	14.0	58.1	19.2	27.3	16.4	17.5
		Men	35.9	50.9	81.2	11.2	58.1	14.8	24.4	11.9	28.8
		Women	37.0	53.2	82.1	18.7	58.1	25.7	38.4	22.0	17.0
	Pensions	TOTAL	29.3	47.3	76.7	6.4	54.8	8.1	17.4	6.0	8.1
		Men	32.0	48.0	77.1	6.0	56.2	9.4	16.9	7.2	16.0
		Women	25.4	46.0	76.1	7.0	52.3	6.2	19.2	4.6	7.8
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	37.0	52.4	81.6	14.3	59.0	20.0	27.7	17.2	18.2
		Men	36.9	51.9	81.3	11.7	59.4	15.8	24.9	12.9	28.8
		Women	37.3	53.3	82.1	18.7	58.3	26.3	38.4	22.6	17.7
2008	Health	TOTAL	42.2	56.8	84.4	20.6	62.8	24.5	30.5	20.9	21.3
		Men	40.9	55.4	86.3	17.4	62.5	17.8	29.5	13.9	25.1
		Women	43.8	58.9	82.3	26.1	63.3	33.8	32.9	29.4	21.0
	Pensions	TOTAL	31.4	50.7	78.9	8.8	58.7	5.5	9.4	4.3	4.5
		Men	34.7	51.4	81.8	8.8	60.2	7.2	11.1	5.8	20.4
		Women	27.1	49.6	75.8	8.8	55.9	3.1	5.3	2.4	3.7
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	42.7	57.2	84.6	21.5	63.1	25.2	31.1	21.6	21.5
		Men	41.6	56.0	86.7	18.5	62.9	18.8	30.3	14.9	25.1
		Women	44.1	59.2	82.3	26.6	63.5	34.2	32.9	29.8	21.3
2009	Health	TOTAL	44.8	58.5	89.5	26.0	65.0	30.0	35.8	26.2	24.2
		Men	44.6	58.9	95.0	24.1	65.9	22.1	31.9	18.3	13.4
		Women	45.2	57.7	83.3	29.0	63.3	40.9	47.3	35.1	24.8

(continued...)



TABLE 8 (continued)

## LATIN AMERICA: URBAN EMPLOYED POPULATION WITH HEALTH AND/OR PENSION COVERAGE. 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)

Country, Year and Sex			Wage and salaried workers					Non-wage and salaried workers			Domestic service workers
			Total	Total	Public	Private		Total	Employers	Independent workers and unpaid family workers	
Establishments with a maximum of 5 workers	Establishments with 6 or more workers										
Pensions	TOTAL	31.8	50.6	84.9	11.1	59.3	8.5	21.9	5.3	5.4	
	Men	36.9	53.0	91.2	11.4	62.2	11.2	23.3	7.4	3.6	
	Women	24.8	46.5	77.6	10.7	53.7	4.9	17.8	3.0	5.4	
Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	45.3	58.8	89.5	26.3	65.3	31.0	37.4	27.0	24.4	
	Men	45.3	59.3	95.0	24.5	66.3	23.6	33.9	19.5	17.1	
	Women	45.3	57.7	83.3	29.1	63.3	41.2	47.3	35.4	24.8	
<b>Uruguay</b>											
2001	Health	TOTAL	96.2	97.8	98.4	95.5	98.2	92.3	95.6	91.8	96.4
		Men	95.6	97.7	99.0	94.9	98.0	91.2	95.3	90.3	97.8
		Women	96.9	98.1	97.8	96.7	98.6	94.6	96.7	94.3	96.3
	Pensions	TOTAL	65.0	83.3	98.5	48.3	86.0	34.7	85.6	25.6	33.4
		Men	65.6	80.5	99.1	43.0	84.4	35.0	84.6	24.2	64.9
		Women	64.3	87.6	97.7	59.8	88.4	34.1	89.0	27.9	31.1
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	96.9	98.5	99.9	95.9	98.5	93.6	98.0	92.8	96.6
		Men	96.3	98.2	100.0	95.2	98.3	92.6	97.9	91.4	97.8
		Women	97.7	99.0	99.9	97.4	98.9	95.4	98.4	95.1	96.5
2005	Health	TOTAL	96.1	97.7	98.5	94.7	98.2	92.6	96.0	92.0	96.4
		Men	95.2	97.0	98.1	94.0	97.6	91.6	95.6	90.7	93.7
		Women	97.2	98.6	99.0	96.2	99.0	94.4	97.1	94.0	96.6
	Pensions	TOTAL	61.9	80.3	98.6	41.5	83.1	31.8	84.8	22.8	28.8
		Men	62.2	76.9	98.4	36.9	81.7	33.1	84.1	22.5	56.7
		Women	61.6	85.0	98.9	51.2	85.2	29.6	87.1	23.3	26.5
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	96.6	98.2	99.9	94.9	98.3	93.4	98.3	92.5	96.5
		Men	95.8	97.6	99.9	94.2	97.8	92.5	98.2	91.3	93.7
		Women	97.6	99.0	100.0	96.3	99.1	94.9	98.7	94.5	96.8
2006	Health	TOTAL	95.9	97.6	98.9	94.3	98.1	91.8	95.6	91.2	96.5
		Men	95.1	97.2	98.9	93.5	97.9	90.3	94.9	89.3	96.6
		Women	96.9	98.2	99.0	95.9	98.5	94.2	97.6	93.8	96.4
	Pensions	TOTAL	64.7	82.6	98.5	46.6	86.9	32.6	84.4	23.4	39.6
		Men	65.2	79.6	98.6	41.5	85.3	33.8	84.5	22.6	71.5
		Women	64.0	87.2	98.4	56.8	89.3	30.8	84.2	24.5	36.6
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	96.5	98.2	99.9	94.6	98.5	92.9	98.2	91.9	96.8
		Men	95.9	97.8	99.9	93.8	98.4	91.6	98.0	90.2	97.2
		Women	97.4	98.7	99.9	96.2	98.7	94.9	98.6	94.5	96.7
2007	Health	TOTAL	95.7	97.7	99.2	93.2	98.2	91.1	95.0	90.3	96.4
		Men	94.5	96.9	99.1	92.0	97.6	89.1	94.5	87.8	96.5
		Women	97.1	98.7	99.4	95.8	99.0	94.0	96.2	93.7	96.4
	Pensions	TOTAL	65.6	83.5	98.7	45.9	87.0	32.7	84.1	23.3	41.9
		Men	66.2	80.4	98.8	40.8	85.4	34.7	84.1	23.3	71.3
		Women	64.9	87.9	98.6	56.2	89.3	29.8	83.9	23.3	39.0
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	96.3	98.1	99.9	93.5	98.5	92.2	97.9	91.2	96.8
		Men	95.3	97.4	99.9	92.2	98.1	90.4	97.7	88.8	97.0
		Women	97.6	99.0	100.0	96.1	99.1	94.9	98.5	94.5	96.8
2008	Health	TOTAL	95.7	97.5	97.9	93.6	98.3	91.5	95.1	90.7	95.8
		Men	94.6	96.9	97.5	92.5	97.9	89.4	94.6	88.0	95.5
		Women	97.0	98.4	98.3	95.9	98.9	94.5	96.3	94.3	95.9
	Pensions	TOTAL	67.5	84.7	98.5	45.6	88.6	35.5	82.9	25.4	42.4
		Men	68.1	81.9	98.5	40.8	87.3	37.3	81.9	25.3	69.1

(continued...)

TABLE 8 (continued)

## LATIN AMERICA: URBAN EMPLOYED POPULATION WITH HEALTH AND/OR PENSION COVERAGE. 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 AND 2009. (Percentages)

Country, Year and Sex		Wage and salaried workers					Non-wage and salaried workers			Domestic service workers	
		Total	Total	Public	Private		Total	Employers	Independent workers and unpaid family workers		
					Establishments with a maximum of 5 workers	Establishments with 6 or more workers					
2009	Women	66.8	88.7	98.5	55.0	90.6	32.7	85.3	25.5	40.2	
	Health and/or pensions	TOTAL	96.5	98.2	99.8	94.1	98.6	92.5	97.7	91.4	96.4
	Men	95.6	97.7	99.8	93.0	98.3	90.8	97.4	89.0	95.5	
	Health	Women	97.6	99.0	99.8	96.1	99.1	95.2	98.5	94.7	96.4
	TOTAL	95.8	97.7	99.5	92.9	98.1	91.3	94.9	90.5	96.6	
	Men	94.7	97.0	99.3	91.6	97.6	89.4	94.3	88.0	96.9	
	Pensions	Women	97.2	98.6	99.6	95.8	98.7	94.1	96.6	93.8	96.6
	TOTAL	68.2	85.4	100.0	45.3	89.0	35.2	83.4	25.3	43.6	
	Men	68.6	82.4	100.0	40.4	87.4	37.0	83.0	24.8	75.8	
	Health and/or pensions	Women	67.6	89.8	100.0	55.7	91.2	32.6	84.4	26.0	41.0
	TOTAL	96.4	98.1	100.0	93.2	98.5	92.3	97.5	91.2	96.9	
	Men	95.4	97.5	100.0	91.9	98.1	90.6	97.2	88.9	97.5	
	Women	97.6	99.0	100.0	96.0	99.1	94.7	98.2	94.3	96.9	

Source: ILO, based on information from household surveys of the countries. Data have urban coverage.

a/ 28 urban areas. Data refer to the third quarter, except for 2007, which are for the fourth quarter.

b/ PNAD Survey of September of each year.

c/ CASEN Survey.

d/ Data for 2000 correspond to 10 cities and metropolitan areas and are from June of the ENH Survey, Stage 1; data from 2005 and 2006 are from the second quarter of the ECH Survey. Beginning in 2007, data are for municipal capitals of the GEIH Survey.

e/ 2000 data refer to November; 2005 data and those of subsequent years refer to the fourth quarter. Beginning in 2005, the survey included information on private insurance.

f/ Before 2007 WAP was 10 years, beginning in 2007, it was 16 years and over.

g/ 2000 data refer to the third quarter of the ENEU Survey; beginning in 2005, data refer to the second quarter of the ENOE Survey.

h/ Microenterprises: establishments with a maximum of four workers.

i/ 2000-2001 data refer to the period September 2000 to August 2001; 2005 data to October-December; 2006 data, to November-December; 2007, 2008 and 2009 data to October-December. EPE Survey.

j/ Metropolitan Lima. Specialized Survey on Levels of Employment conducted by the Ministry of Labour and Employment Promotion.

TABLE 9

**LATIN AMERICA: REAL MEDIAN WAGES. 2000 - 2010**  
*(Index 2000 = 100)*

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2009	2010
											Through the third quarter <sup>v</sup>	
Argentina <sup>a/</sup>	...	...	100.0	105.0	114.7	123.2	134.2	146.4	159.2	177.9	12.6	11.8
Brazil <sup>b/</sup>	...	...	...	100.0	99.7	98.8	102.2	103.2	105.3	107.7	3.1 I/	1.6 I/
Chile <sup>c/</sup>	100.0	101.6	103.6	104.6	106.5	108.5	110.6	113.7	113.5	118.9	...	2.2
Colombia <sup>d/</sup>	100.0	99.7	102.8	102.1	103.8	105.4	109.5	109.2	107.1	108.3	0.0m/	2.6m/
Costa Rica <sup>e/</sup>	100.0	101	105.1	105.5	103.1	100.8	102.5	103.9	101.8	112.1	6.2m/	1.8m/
Mexico <sup>f/</sup>	100.0	106.7	108.7	110.2	110.5	110.2	111.8	112.9	115.4	116.2	0.8m/	-0.4m/
Nicaragua <sup>g/</sup>	100.0	100.3	104.1	105.9	103.6	103.7	106.0	103.7	99.5	105.3	6.6 I/	1.6 I/
Panama <sup>h/</sup>	100.0	98.8	95.8	95.3	94.5	93.4	95.3	96.2	95.4	...	...	...
Paraguay <sup>h/</sup>	100.0	101.4	96.3	95.4	96.6	98.0	96.1	96.1	96.9	101.4	...	...
Peru <sup>i/</sup>	100.0	99.1	103.3	104.6	106.1	105.6	105.1	103.9	105.6	...	...	...
Uruguay <sup>h/</sup>	100.0	100.0	80.5	77.8	80.1	83.7	86.8	90.4	94.3	99.6	7.7	3.4
Venezuela <sup>j/</sup>	100.0	106.9	95.1	78.4	78.6	80.7	84.8	85.8	82.2	78.1	-5.5	-2.7

Source: ILO, based on official country information.

a/ Registered private-sector workers (Index 2002 = 100).

b/ Workers covered by social and labour legislation of the private sector (Index 2003 = 100)

c/ General index of hourly wages. The change from January to September 2010 is the result of a new series; data are not comparable with previous years.

d/ Manufacturing wages with coffee threshing.

e/ Average wages declared by individuals covered by social security.

f/ Manufacturing wages.

g/ Average wages declared by individuals covered by social security. For 2007, average wages in manufacturing, trade and services are used, with estimates based on data for January to June.

h/ General index of public- and private-sector wages.

i/ Private-sector non-supervisory workers of Metropolitan Lima.

j/ General index of private-sector wages.

k/ Change in the average for the indicator from January to September with respect to the same period of the previous year. Preliminary data.

l/ Change in the average for the indicator from January to October with respect to the same period of the previous year. Preliminary data.

m/ Change in the average for the indicator from January to August with respect to the same period of the previous year.

TABLE 10

**LATIN AMERICA: REAL MINIMUM WAGES. 2000 - 2010**  
*(Index 2000 = 100)*

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2009	2010
											Through October <sup>e/</sup>	
Argentina <sup>a/</sup>	100.0	101.1	81.3	84.0	129.8	171.1	193.2	219.6	253.3	292.0	9.7	10.7
Bolivia (Plurinat. State of) <sup>a/</sup>	100.0	110.9	118.1	117.0	112.0	106.3	111.1	110.1	108.0	115.9	11.8	0.9
Brazil <sup>a/</sup>	100.0	109.8	114.3	117.4	121.4	128.5	145.3	154.7	160.8	172.7	8.3	5.1
Chile <sup>a/</sup>	100.0	103.8	106.8	108.3	111.3	113.4	116.3	118.4	118.3	124.7	4.4	1.4 f/
Colombia <sup>a/</sup>	100.0	101.8	103.5	103.7	105.6	107.2	109.9	110.7	110.1	113.7	5.6	1.4
Costa Rica <sup>a/</sup>	100.0	100.6	100.9	101.4	99.6	99.9	101.6	102.9	102.6	107.8	5.8	4.8
Dominican Republic <sup>b/</sup>	100.0	106.2	105.0	95.5	80.1	96.3	89.5	93.7	87.7	93.8	10.0	-4.7
Ecuador <sup>a/</sup>	100.0	102.0	99.3	98.4	99.7	101.9	105.3	109.4	118.7	123.0	5.5	7.3
El Salvador <sup>b/</sup>	100.0	96.0	94.2	95.7	95.0	90.7	90.1	92.4	92.4	101.5	8.8	-1.7
Guatemala <sup>b/</sup>	100.0	116.1	114.2	120.0	117.4	115.4	117.2	114.4	107.8	112.3	6.5	2.0
Honduras <sup>b/</sup>	100.0	102.4	105.0	114.0	114.8	121.6	127.8	132.7	132.3	249.4	93.8	-5.3
Mexico <sup>a/</sup>	100.0	100.5	101.3	101.2	100.8	101.3	101.6	101.6	100.5	100.0	2.0	-0.3
Nicaragua <sup>b/</sup>	100.0	102.1	105.9	109.2	113.5	118.0	128.5	131.6	133.8	156.6	29.4	-1.0
Panama <sup>b/</sup>	100.0	106.8	105.7	105.8	107.3	103.9	107.3	105.3	105.6	103.3	-1.7	5.6
Paraguay <sup>a/</sup>	100.0	103.6	103.0	105.9	102.3	104.4	106.7	103.9	101.3	102.0	3.1	1.7
Peru <sup>a/</sup>	100.0	101.2	101.0	102.2	106.9	105.2	112.1	111.8	114.5	111.2	0.0	-1.8
Uruguay <sup>a/</sup>	100.0	98.7	88.7	77.7	77.6	132.1	153.3	159.6	176.9	194.4	1.6	1.5
Venezuela (Boliv. Rep. of) <sup>a/</sup>	100.0	100.5	96.1	85.1	97.0	108.6	116.9	124.2	119.9	111.7	-1.6	2.3
Average <sup>c/</sup>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>103.6</b>	<b>102.5</b>	<b>102.4</b>	<b>105.1</b>	<b>112.5</b>	<b>118.5</b>	<b>122.1</b>	<b>124.7</b>	<b>138.1</b>	<b>11.3</b>	<b>1.7</b>
<sup>d/</sup>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>105.0</b>	<b>105.3</b>	<b>106.3</b>	<b>112.5</b>	<b>120.3</b>	<b>130.5</b>	<b>137.2</b>	<b>142.3</b>	<b>151.8</b>	<b>6.6</b>	<b>3.2</b>

Source: ILO, based on official country information.

a/ National minimum wage.

b/ Lowest minimum manufacturing wage.

c/ Simple average.

d/ Weighted average.

e/ Accumulated percentage change, December to October.

f/ Accumulated change based on new CPI, not comparable with previous years.

TABLE 11

**CONSUMER PRICE INDEX. 2000 - 2010**  
*(Rate of change, December to December)*

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2009	2010
											Through October <sup>g/</sup>	
<b>Latin America</b>												
Argentina <sup>a/</sup>	-0.7	-1.5	40.9	3.7	6.1	12.3	9.8	8.5	7.2	7.7	5.8	9.2
Bolivia (Plurinat. State of)	3.4	0.9	2.4	3.9	4.6	4.9	4.9	11.7	11.8	0.3	0.2	4.1
Brazil	6.0	7.7	12.5	9.3	7.6	5.7	3.1	4.5	5.9	4.3	3.5	4.4
Chile <sup>b/</sup>	4.5	2.6	2.8	1.1	2.4	3.7	2.6	7.8	7.1	-1.4	-0.6	2.8
Colombia	8.7	7.6	7.0	6.5	5.5	4.9	4.5	5.7	7.7	2.1	2.0	2.2
Costa Rica	10.2	11.0	9.7	9.9	13.1	14.1	9.4	10.8	13.9	4.0	3.2	4.4
Dominican Republic	9.0	4.3	10.6	42.6	28.7	7.4	5.0	8.9	4.5	5.8	4.5	5.0
Ecuador	91.0	22.4	9.3	6.1	1.9	3.1	2.9	3.3	8.8	4.3	3.4	2.6
El Salvador	4.3	1.4	2.8	2.9	4.9	4.3	4.9	4.9	5.5	-0.2	-0.7	1.8
Guatemala	5.1	8.9	6.4	5.9	9.2	8.6	5.8	8.7	9.4	-0.3	-0.3	4.5
Haiti	19.0	8.1	14.8	40.4	20.2	15.4	10.2	9.3	17.0	...	...	...
Honduras	10.1	8.8	8.1	6.8	9.2	7.7	5.3	8.9	10.8	3.0	2.8	5.6
Mexico	9.0	4.4	5.7	4.0	5.2	3.3	4.1	3.8	6.5	1.5	2.6	5.1
Nicaragua	9.9	4.7	4.0	6.6	8.9	9.6	10.2	16.2	12.7	1.8	1.2	7.0
Panama	0.7	0.0	1.6	0.2	1.4	3.6	2.0	6.5	6.5	2.0	1.7	4.2
Paraguay <sup>c/</sup>	8.6	8.4	14.6	9.3	2.8	9.9	12.5	6.0	7.5	1.9	1.9	5.2
Peru <sup>d/</sup>	3.7	-0.1	1.5	2.5	3.5	1.5	1.1	3.9	6.7	0.2	0.0	1.9
Uruguay <sup>e/</sup>	5.1	3.6	25.9	10.2	7.6	4.9	6.4	8.5	9.2	5.9	5.3	6.5
Venezuela (Boliv. Rep. of) <sup>f/</sup>	13.4	12.3	31.2	27.1	19.2	14.4	17.0	22.5	31.9	26.9	23.0	23.7
<b>The Caribbean</b>												
Antigua and Barbuda	...	...	2.5	1.8	2.8	2.5	0.0	5.2	0.7	2.4	-0.4	1.4 h/
Bahamas	1.0	2.6	1.9	1.9	2.1	1.7	2.2	2.9	4.6	...	...	...
Barbados	2.4	2.6	0.6	0.3	4.3	7.3	5.6	4.7	7.3	4.4	1.6	3.1 i/
Belize	0.6	1.1	2.2	2.6	3.1	3.7	4.2	2.3	6.4	...	...	...
Granada	3.4	-0.7	-0.4	1.1	2.5	6.2	1.7	7.4	5.2	-2.4	-2.8	6.2 h/
Guyana	5.8	1.5	6.0	...	...	8.3	4.2	14.0	6.4	...	...	...
Jamaica	6.1	8.7	7.3	13.7	13.8	12.5	5.7	16.8	16.9	10.2	8.1	9.0
Saint Kitts and Nevis	...	...	1.7	3.1	1.7	6.0	7.9	2.1	7.6	1.0	-1.3	-1.7 h/
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	0.4	5.5	2.4	2.2	1.7	3.9	4.8	8.3	8.7	-1.6	-2.8	1.3 h/
Saint Lucia	1.4	-0.2	0.7	0.5	3.5	5.2	...	6.8	3.8	0.0	-0.5	2.2 h/
Suriname	76.2	...	...	...	...	15.8	4.7	8.3	9.4	1.3	1.3	10.0
Trinidad and Tobago	5.6	3.2	4.3	3.0	5.6	7.2	9.1	7.6	14.5	1.3	2.4	13.7
<b>Latin America and the Caribbean</b>												
	<b>9.0</b>	<b>6.1</b>	<b>12.2</b>	<b>8.5</b>	<b>7.4</b>	<b>6.1</b>	<b>5.0</b>	<b>6.5</b>	<b>8.2</b>	<b>4.7</b>	<b>4.3 j/</b>	<b>6.1 j/</b>

Source: ILO, based on information from ECLAC and official country information.

a/ Greater Buenos Aires.

b/ Greater Santiago, combined previous CPIs 2008=100 effective until December 2009. Beginning in January 2009, the new CPI went into effect nationwide as 2009 = 100; data are not comparable with previous years.

c/ Metropolitan Asuncion.

d/ Metropolitan Lima.

e/ Montevideo.

f/ Caracas.

g/ Accumulated percentage change December to October.

h/ Accumulated percentage change December to June.

i/ Accumulated percentage change December to August.

j/ Estimated.

TABLE 12

**LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT. 2000 - 2009**  
*(Average annual rates).*

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009 <sup>a/</sup>
<b>Latin America</b>										
Argentina	-0.8	-4.4	-10.9	8.8	9.0	9.2	8.5	8.7	6.8	0.9
Bolivia	2.5	1.7	2.5	2.7	4.2	4.4	4.8	4.6	6.1	3.4
Brazil	4.3	1.3	2.7	1.1	5.7	3.2	4.0	6.1	6.1	-0.2
Chile	4.5	3.4	2.2	3.9	6.0	5.6	4.6	4.6	3.7	-1.5
Colombia	2.9	1.7	2.5	3.9	5.3	4.7	6.7	6.9	2.7	0.8
Costa Rica	1.8	1.1	2.9	6.4	4.3	5.9	8.8	7.9	2.8	-1.1
Cuba	5.9	3.2	1.4	3.8	5.8	11.2	12.1	7.3	4.1	1.4
Dominican Republic	5.7	1.8	5.8	-0.3	1.3	9.3	10.7	8.5	5.3	3.5
Ecuador	2.8	4.8	3.4	3.3	8.8	5.7	4.8	2.0	7.2	0.4
El Salvador	2.2	1.7	2.3	2.3	1.9	3.3	4.2	4.3	2.4	-3.5
Guatemala	3.6	2.3	3.9	2.5	3.2	3.3	5.4	6.3	3.3	0.5
Haiti	0.9	-1.0	-0.3	0.4	-3.5	1.8	2.3	3.3	0.8	2.9
Honduras	5.7	2.7	3.8	4.5	6.2	6.1	6.6	6.3	4.0	-1.9
Mexico	6.6	-1.0	0.1	1.3	4.0	3.2	4.9	3.3	1.5	-6.5
Nicaragua	4.1	3.0	0.8	2.5	5.3	4.3	4.2	3.1	2.8	-1.5
Panama	2.7	0.6	2.2	4.2	7.5	7.2	8.5	12.1	10.1	3.2
Paraguay	-3.3	2.1	0.0	3.8	4.1	2.9	4.3	6.8	5.8	-3.8
Peru	3.0	0.2	5.0	4.0	5.0	6.8	7.7	8.9	9.8	0.9
Uruguay	-1.4	-3.4	-11.0	2.2	11.8	6.6	7.0	7.5	8.5	2.9
Venezuela	3.7	3.4	-8.9	-7.8	18.3	10.3	9.9	8.2	4.8	-3.3
<b>The Caribbean</b>										
Antigua and Barbuda	1.5	2.0	2.5	5.2	7.0	4.2	13.3	9.1	0.2	-10.9
Bahamas	4.3	-0.6	2.2	0.7	1.6	5.0	3.5	1.9	-1.7	-4.3
Barbados	2.3	-4.6	0.7	1.9	4.8	3.9	3.2	3.4	0.5	-3.6
Belize	12.3	5.0	5.1	9.3	4.6	3.0	4.7	1.2	3.8	0.0
Granada	17.5	-3.9	2.1	8.4	-6.5	12.0	-1.9	4.5	0.9	-8.3
Guyana	-1.4	1.6	1.1	-0.6	1.6	-2.0	5.1	7.0	2.0	3.3
Jamaica	0.7	1.3	1.0	3.5	1.4	1.0	2.7	1.5	-0.9	-2.7
Saint Kitts and Nevis	4.3	2.0	1.0	0.5	7.6	5.6	5.5	2.0	4.6	-11.1
San Vicente and the Grenadines	1.8	2.2	3.8	3.1	6.6	2.1	9.5	8.6	1.3	-2.8
Santa Lucia	-0.2	-5.9	2.0	4.1	5.6	4.3	5.9	2.2	0.8	-4.6
Suriname	4.0	5.7	2.7	6.8	0.5	7.2	3.9	5.1	4.3	2.2
Trinidad and Tobago	6.9	4.2	7.9	14.4	8.0	5.4	14.4	4.6	2.3	-0.9
<b>Latin America and the Caribbean</b>	<b>4.0</b>	<b>0.3</b>	<b>-0.4</b>	<b>2.2</b>	<b>6.1</b>	<b>4.9</b>	<b>5.8</b>	<b>5.8</b>	<b>4.2</b>	<b>-1.9</b>

Source: ILO, based on information from ECLAC and official country information.

a/ Preliminary data.







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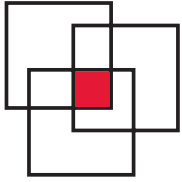
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“The crisis has left a lesson to take advantage from: Yes, it is possible to develop policies inspired in the promotion of Decent Work. These policies have demonstrated their efficiency in practice during the last years”.

**Juan Somavia**  
ILO Director-General



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