

ECLAC/ILO

The employment situation in Latin America and the Caribbean

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Labour productivity and distribution issues

Foreword

Although the economies of Latin America and the Caribbean grew more slowly in 2011 than in 2010, there were some improvements on the employment front. Workers benefited from the region's satisfactory economic performance in an increasingly complex international setting.

The unemployment rate fell from 7.3% in 2010 to 6.7% in 2011 thanks to a half-percentage-point gain in the urban employment rate. Both rates are at levels that have not been seen for a long time. The proportion of formal jobs with social benefits rose as well, and underemployment declined. The average wage and the minimum wage both increased in real terms, albeit only moderately.

Economic performance and the employment situation varied widely among the subregions. The unemployment rate dropped by 0.6 percentage points in South America but 0.4 percentage points in the countries of the northern part of Latin America. In the countries of the Caribbean, the employment rate was up by 0.2 percentage points.

The data show that substantial labour market gaps and serious labour-market insertion issues remain. This is especially the case for women and young people, for whom unemployment rates and other labour indicators are still unfavourable.

The second part of this report looks at whether the fruits of economic growth and rising productivity have been distributed equitably between workers and companies.

Between 2002 and 2008 (the most recent expansionary economic cycle), wages as a percentage of GDP fell in 13 of the 21 countries of the region for which data are available and rose in just 8. This points to redistribution that is unfavourable to workers, which is worrying in a region which already has the most unequal distribution of income in the world.

Underlying this trend is the fact that, worldwide, wages have grown less than productivity. Beyond the ethical dimension of this issue, it jeopardizes the social and economic sustainability of growth. For example, one of the root causes of the recent financial crisis was that households in the United States responded to declining wage income by borrowing more to pay for consumption and housing. This turned out to be unsustainable in the long run. Over time, it undermines the labour market's contribution to the efficient allocation of resources and its distributive function, too, with negative consequences for democratic governance.

Among the triggers of this distributive worsening most often cited in the global debate are market deregulation and its impact on financial globalization, technological change that favours capital over labour, and the weakening of labour institutions. What is needed here is a public policy effort to help keep wage increases from lagging behind increases in productivity.

Some countries of the region, especially in South America, saw promising developments during the second half of the 2000s in the form of a positive trend reversal in wages as a

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percentage of GDP. One example is Brazil, where a minimum wage policy tailored to the dynamics of the domestic market is considered to be one of the factors behind an upturn in the wage share of GDP.

The region needs to grow more and better. Productivity must grow at a steady pace, to serve as the basis for sustained improvements in the well-being of the populace and to narrow the gap between the economies of Latin America and the Caribbean and the more advanced economies. And inequality must be decreased; this could be achieved by closing the productivity gap between upgraded companies and the many firms whose productivity is low.

As set out in this report, the region made some progress between 2002 and 2010, with labour productivity rising at the rate of 1.5% a year. But this progress falls short of that seen in other regions such as Sub-Saharan Africa (2.1%) and, above all, East Asia (8.3%, not counting Japan and the Republic of Korea). Moreover, in many of the countries of the region these gains have not been distributed equitably. Therein lies a dual challenge that must be addressed: continue to increase productivity while enhancing the mechanisms for distributing gains in a way that will encourage investment and boost worker and household income.

The Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO) estimate that the pace of economic growth in the region will be slightly slower in 2012 than in 2011, in a global economic scenario marked by the cooling of several of the main economic engines and a high degree of uncertainty concerning, above all, prospects for the euro zone. The region is expected to continue to hold up well to this worsening scenario, thanks to policies that leveraged more favourable conditions in the past. This will be felt in the labour markets, as well, so expectations are that unemployment will edge down by as much as two tenths of a decimal point.

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Introduction

Latin America and the Caribbean recovered more quickly from recent international financial turmoil than in previous crises. The region's economies have grown steadily since the second semester of 2009, through 2010 and 2011, thanks to their ties with several fast-growing Asian economies (especially China) and steady demand for the region's products, especially those from South America, which helped exports to recover quickly.

This sturdy relationship, apparent in rising export volumes and, above all, in improved terms of trade cushioned the impact of the sovereign debt crisis that hit several European countries in 2011 and contributed to slower growth worldwide. The region's relatively solid performance also reflected domestic demand, driven by optimism among investors, households' growing purchasing power, and public expenditure that was relatively high historically speaking. After bouncing back in 2010, growth gradually slowed through 2011, as the external context worsened.

Altogether, in 2011 the region posted growth of about 4.3%, although countries performed unevenly. Argentina,

Chile, Ecuador, Panama and Peru led the region, at over 6%, while Brazil, Mexico, Central America and the Caribbean grew the least.

In early 2012, the region's economy continued to gain strength, thanks also to measures taken to offset imbalances in the world economy. This was apparent, for example, in rising prices for the region's main commodity exports. Uncertainty persisted, however, particularly with regard to how several euro zone countries would manage their sovereign debt. In this context, the region's growth was projected to rise 3.7% in 2012 (ECLAC, 2011).

Part A of this, the sixth issue of *The employment situation in Latin America and the Caribbean*, reviews the main trends in the region's labour markets in 2011. Part B examines relevant themes for social and economic development: labour productivity trends and distribution-related issues. It also discusses several key indicators and policy instruments to foster productivity and improve distribution of the relevant gains.

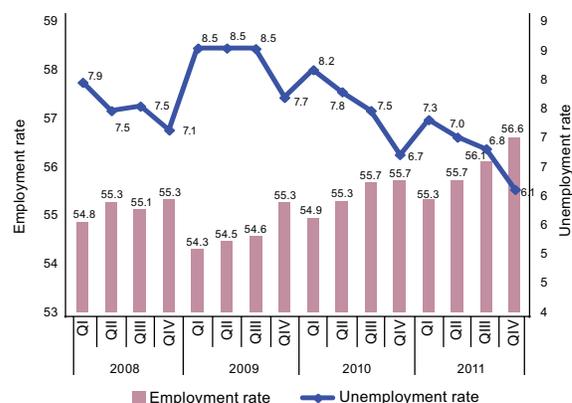
A. Labour market performance in Latin America and the Caribbean in 2011

1. Main labour indicators positive in 2011

Thanks to unexpectedly steady economic growth, labour indicators performed reasonably well, as they have since 2010. Quarterly data for nine countries suggest that the region's labour market has steadily improved, with employment indicators in particular recovering beyond pre-crisis levels.

Average regional unemployment fell from 7.3% (2010) to 6.7% (2011), its lowest rate since the mid-1990s and below the pre-crisis rate (7.3% in 2008). Higher demand for labour, sustained by economic growth in most countries, pushed regional employment rates from 55.6% (2010) to 56.1% (2011). This was enough to offset pressure from labour supply, expressed in a slightly higher participation rate (rising from 60% to 60.2%). Despite these results, as discussed below, unemployment gaps along gender or youth-adult lines could remain or deepen, or wage growth could slow, making employment and labour participation more precarious.

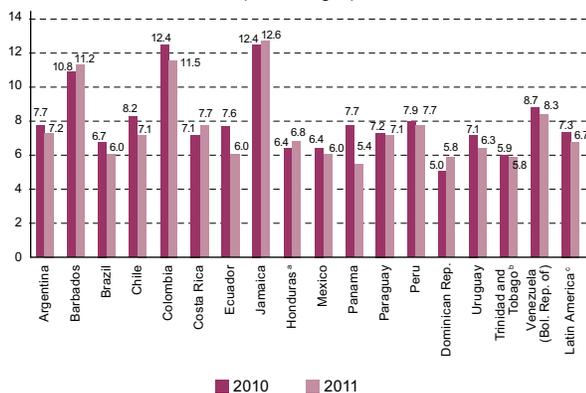
Figure 1
LATIN AMERICA (9 COUNTRIES): EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT RATES, FIRST QUARTER OF 2008-FOURTH QUARTER OF 2011
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official data from the countries.

In 2011, the unemployment rate by country fell overall (in 12 of the 17 countries with information). There was considerable variation among countries, however, with the largest drops in the rate seen in Panama (where unemployment fell 2.3 percentage points), Ecuador (down 1.6 percentage points), Chile (down 1.1 percentage points) and Colombia (down 0.9 percentage points, see figure 2). Simple averages indicate that improvements to unemployment occurred mostly in South America, where it fell 0.6 percentage points, while in the northern countries of Latin America it eased 0.4 percentage points, rising 0.2 points in the English-speaking Caribbean, in line with general growth in each subregion.

Figure 2
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (SELECTED COUNTRIES):
URBAN UNEMPLOYMENT RATE, 2010 AND 2011
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official data from the countries.

- ^a Data for May of each year.
^b 2011 data is through the second quarter.
^c Preliminary estimates. Only those countries with data included.

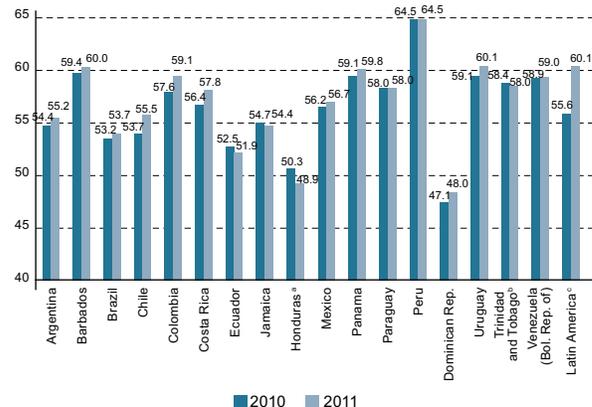
In most countries, the unemployment rate fell because employment grew more than labour, although by different amounts. In Brazil, Paraguay and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, in contrast, unemployment fell amidst higher employment and sluggish labour force participation, while in Ecuador, the decline in unemployment reflected labour supply falling more than employment (see figures 3 and 4).

In Barbados, Costa Rica and the Dominican Republic, the unemployment rate rose as the labour force grew more than job creation, while in Honduras and Jamaica, it rose because employment contracted more than the labour supply.

Unemployment has continued to fall for the second year running, in a context of job creation. Despite uncertainty, steady economic growth stimulated demand for labour (see figure 3). The region's employment rate rose 0.5 percentage points, this rising above pre-crisis levels, and approached a historic peak. This trend was particularly noticeable in Chile (1.8 percentage points), Colombia (1.5 percentage points) and Costa Rica (1.4 percentage points), and robust in Uruguay (1 percentage point), the Dominican Republic (0.9 percentage points), Argentina (0.8 percentage points), Barbados and Panama (both with 0.7 percentage points).

Six countries experienced a modest or no increase in the employment rate, while it declined in Jamaica (-0.3), Ecuador (-0.6) and Honduras (-1.4 percentage points).

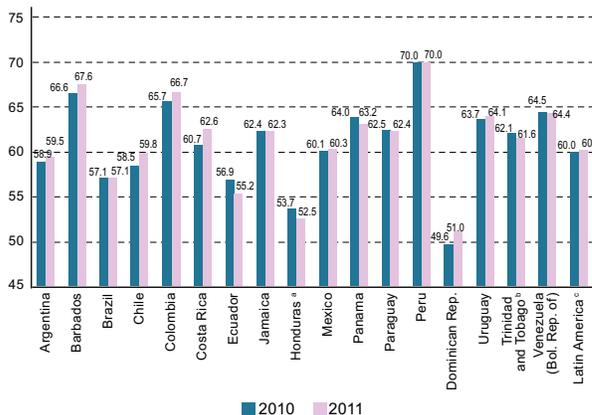
Figure 3
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (SELECTED COUNTRIES):
URBAN EMPLOYMENT RATE, 2010 AND 2011
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official data from the countries.

- ^a Data for May of each year.
^b Data for 2011 corresponds to the second quarter.
^c Preliminary estimates. Includes only those countries with data available.

Figure 4
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (SELECTED COUNTRIES):
URBAN PARTICIPATION RATE, 2010 AND 2011
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official data from the countries.

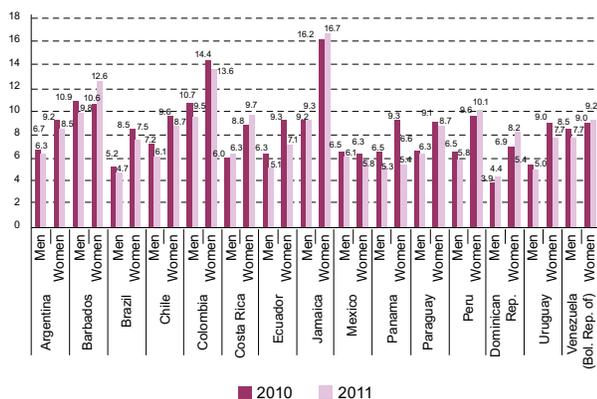
- ^a Data for May of each year.
^b Data for 2011 corresponds to the second quarter.
^c Preliminary estimates. Includes only those countries with data available.

The region's participation rate was up slightly too in 2011, to 60.2% from 60.0% in 2010 (see figure 4). A rising trend continued, sustained mainly by women joining the labour force. Eight countries saw this indicator rise while in another eight it declined. Costa Rica posted the largest increase (1.9 percentage points), followed by the Dominican Republic (1.4 percentage points), Chile (1.3 percentage points) and Barbados (1.0 percentage points). Ecuador experienced the largest decline (-1.7 percentage points), followed by Honduras (-1.2 percentage points) and Panama (-0.8 percentage points).

2. Gender and age gaps persist

Unemployment rates by country and by sex tended to follow the aggregate unemployment rate. Generally speaking, in countries for which data is available, the decline in unemployment of both women and men was similar. Exceptions included the Dominican Republic, where the female unemployment rate rose 1.3 percentage points, while the male unemployment rate rose 0.5 percentage points. At the other extreme, Panama saw female unemployment plunge 3.9 percentage points, while the male equivalent fell 1.2 percentage points (see figure 5).

Figure 5
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (SELECTED COUNTRIES):
UNEMPLOYMENT RATE BY SEX, 2010 AND 2011
(Percentages)



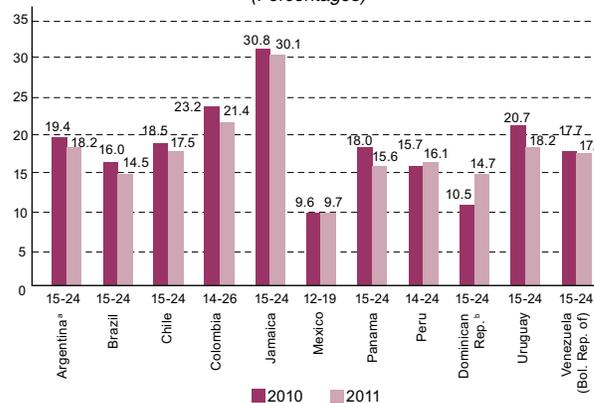
Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official data from the countries.

With female and male unemployment performing similarly in 2011, the women's unemployment rate remained at 1.4 times the rate for men, as it has since 2009. The Dominican Republic posted the largest gap (1.9 times) between female (8.2%) and male (4.4%) unemployment, while Mexico, with similar rates for both posting the lowest.

The 11 countries for which data are available recorded different sorts of variations in youth unemployment with

respect to 2010. In Mexico, Peru and the Dominican Republic, the youth unemployment rate rose, while in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Jamaica, Panama, Uruguay and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela it fell, achieving pre-crisis rates in six. In Mexico and Peru, high youth unemployment rates persisted and even rose, despite a decline in overall unemployment between 2011 and 2010 (see figure 6).

Figure 6
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (10 COUNTRIES): YOUTH
URBAN UNEMPLOYMENT RATE, 2010 AND 2011
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official data from the countries.
^a First half.
^b April data.

Youth unemployment compared to the overall unemployment rate varied by country. Keeping in mind that age groupings vary slightly from one country to another, youth unemployment was 2.9 times higher than adult employment in Uruguay, 2.4 times higher in Brazil and 1.7 times higher in Mexico. In Jamaica, the gap fell from a multiple of 2.5 (2010) to 2.4 (2011), holding steady in four countries and rising in six, led by Panama, where it rose from a multiple of 2.3 to 2.9. The weighted average multiple rose slightly from 2.1 to 2.2.

3. Job categories and formality

Shifts in employment by occupational category generally serve as proxies for the quality of jobs created in domestic labour markets. A review of the main categories (wage employees and own-account workers) offers insight into trends within formal and informal employment, and conditions. The figures for the 10 countries with information for 2011 show wage employment rose 2% or more over 2010 (see table 1), led by Panama (6.2%), Chile (4.9%), Costa Rica (4.5%), Peru (3.9%) and Brazil (3.8%).

Growth in the number of those employed came from increases in wage employment, which outperformed own-account employment in seven countries. Even where own-account rose more than wage employment, the latter showed robust growth. This rise in wage employment was clearly a response to trends similar to those prevailing in 2004-2007, when formal employment growth brought policies to improve the quality of employment, including unemployment insurance and expansion of social security.

From a sectoral perspective, although manufacturing employment rose in 2011, in most countries these increases were moderate (except Chile and Colombia). Other sectors were more diverse. While wholesale and retail and other sectors mostly services saw employment rise more evenly in every country, agriculture performed most sluggishly in Chile, Colombia and Mexico, and declined in Costa Rica and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela. Employment in construction performed rather well in Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica and Panama.

The recent economic crisis affected formal employment, in some countries, such as Mexico, more than others. In the countries for which information is available, from the second half of 2009 on, formal employment (covered by social security) grew over the previous year, according to seasonally adjusted figures (see figure 7). This trend was strong in all countries in 2010, but slowed slightly from the second half of that year through 2011 virtually across the board. Aggregate formal employment posted strong growth nonetheless.

Table 1
LATIN AMERICA (10 COUNTRIES): YEAR-ON-YEAR CHANGE IN EMPLOYMENT, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY
AND ECONOMIC SECTOR, 2010 AND 2011
(Percentages)

Country	Occupational categories						Economic sectors										
	Employed		Wage employment		Own-account employment		Manufacturing		Construction		Wholesale and retail trade		Agriculture, animal production and fishing		Other ^a		
	2010	2011	2010	2011	2010	2011	2010	2011	2010	2011	2010	2011	2010	2011	2010	2011	
Argentina (32 urban centres)	1.7	2.2	2.4	2.9	-0.5	0.2
Brazil (6 metropolitan regions)	3.5	2.1	5.0	3.8	1.3	-0.6	3.5 ^b	1.2 ^b	5.8	3.9	1.3	1.4	4.0	2.3	
Chile (national total) ^c	...	5.0	...	4.9	...	5.5	...	7.1	...	6.3	...	3.3	...	1.1	...	4.9	
Colombia (national total)	4.3	4.2	2.4	3.4	5.9	5.0	1.5	5.9	7.9	9.3	5.7	4.9	3.5	2.0	4.1	3.3	
(13 metropolitan areas)	4.3	4.4	3.3	3.8	4.9	6.1	0.9	4.8	8.7	8.7	5.9	5.0	3.9	3.3	
Costa Rica (national total) ^c	...	4.6	...	4.5	...	2.7	...	2.9 ^d	...	18.4	...	8.9	...	-12.9	...	7.2	
Mexico ^e	...	2.2	...	2.0	...	3.6	...	1.8	...	1.6	...	2.0	...	0.3	...	3.2	
(national total)	...	2.2	...	2.0	...	3.6	...	1.8	...	1.6	...	2.0	...	0.3	...	3.2	
(13 metropolitan areas)	...	2.0	...	1.9	...	3.8	...	0.8	...	2.5	...	1.2	2.8	
Panama (national total)	1.0	3.1	3.5	6.2	-1.4	-0.7	-3.9	-13.7	1.4	10.9	0.4	4.5	-2.4	0.7	3.9	4.9	
Peru (Lima metropolitan)	4.8	1.8	2.2	3.9	9.0 ^f	-1.5 ^f	10.3	1.1	18.8	0.5	2.3	0.3	2.5	3.0	
Dominican Republic (national total)	4.5	4.2	3.9	5.1	7.0	3.6	3.9	1.0	5.9	2.7	3.4	5.3	2.0	5.0	6.0	4.3	
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) (national total)	0.0	2.5	-2.2	2.8	5.7	2.1	-2.8	0.7	-0.8	1.9	0.1	3.5	-1.9	-4.9	1.2	4.0	

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official data from the countries.

^a Includes mining, electricity, gas and water, transportation and communications, financial services, and social and community services.

^b Includes extraction and processing, production and distribution of electricity, gas and water.

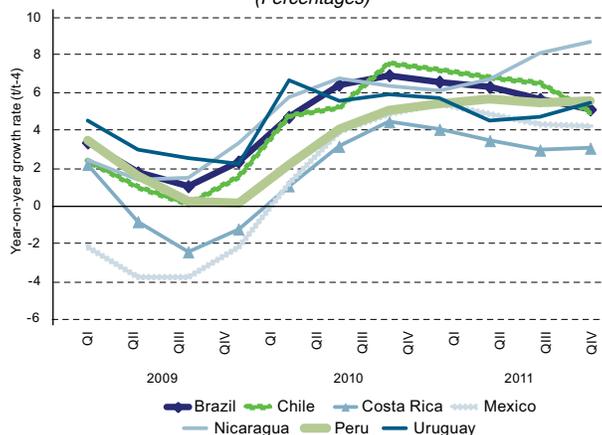
^c Year-on-year rates of change (2010) for Chile and Costa Rica not included, because surveys used were incompatible with those of previous years.

^d Includes mining and quarrying.

^e Does not include year-on-year rate of change (2010) for Mexico because employment surveys (2010-2011) were updated on the basis of population and census results (2010) that were not comparable with those of previous years.

^f Includes total non-wage employees.

Figure 7
LATIN AMERICA (7 COUNTRIES): YEAR-ON-YEAR GROWTH IN EMPLOYMENT COVERED BY SOCIAL SECURITY, 2009-2011^a
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official country figures.

^a Refers to the number of wage employees paying into social security systems in Chile (pension fund managers, *Administradoras de Fondos de Pensiones* or AFPs), Costa Rica (*Caja Costarricense del Seguro Social*, CCSS), Mexico (*Instituto Mexicano del Seguro Social*, IMSS), Nicaragua (*Instituto Nicaragüense de Seguridad Social*, INSS) and Uruguay (*Banco de Previsión Social*, BPS). Data for Brazil refers to wage employees covered by labour and social legislation; Peru, wage employees registered at formal companies with ten or more workers.

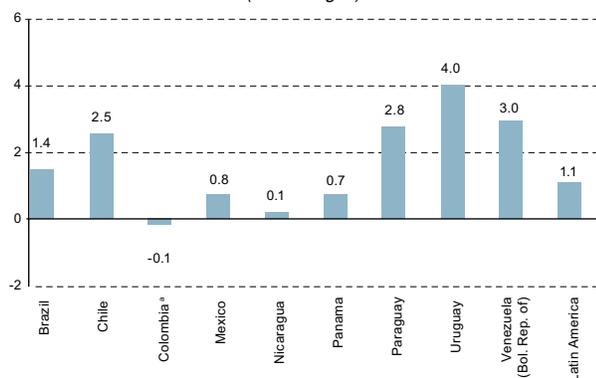
This confirms the impression of a rapid recovery in job creation towards levels similar to the pre-crisis period (2004-2007), when employment rates were growing faster

4. Modest increases in median and minimum wages

In nine countries, real formal employment wages grew by about 1% (see figure 8).

By country, real average wages grew strongly in Uruguay (4.0%), the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela (3%), Paraguay (2.8%), Chile (2.5%) and Brazil (1.4%), more moderately in Mexico (0.8%), Panama (0.7%) and Nicaragua (0.1%), with Colombia posting some loss in purchasing power (-0.1%).

Figure 8
LATIN AMERICA (9 COUNTRIES): YEAR-ON-YEAR CHANGE IN REAL AVERAGE WAGES FOR FORMAL EMPLOYMENT, 2011
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official figures for average wages and consumer price index (CPI) from countries.

^a Wages in coffee manufacturing.

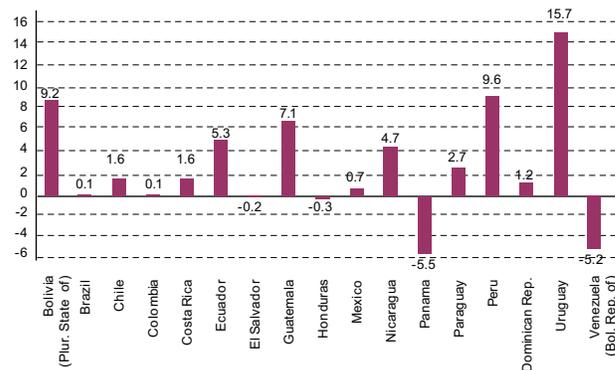
Real minimum wages, calculated using a weighted average for the 17 countries with information available, are rising in 13 countries and falling in four (see figure 9). Most of this increase occurred in Uruguay (15.7%), followed by Peru (9.6%), the Plurinational State of Bolivia (9.2%), Guatemala (7.1%), Ecuador (5.3%) and Nicaragua (4.7%). The others in the rising category (seven) posted rates under 3.0%. The real minimum wage

fell slightly in El Salvador (-0.2%) and Honduras (-0.3%), and dipped significantly in both Panama (-5.5%) and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela (-5.2%).

fell slightly in El Salvador (-0.2%) and Honduras (-0.3%), and dipped significantly in both Panama (-5.5%) and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela (-5.2%).

In short, this analysis confirms that in 2011, the labour market continued to recover from the 2009 crisis, with employment rates rising, unemployment falling, and participation increasing to pre-crisis levels and even reaching some highs (employment rate) or lows (unemployment rate) not seen since the mid-1990s. Formal sector job creation is also on the mend, with social security coverage returning to 2004-2007 levels. Gender and youth-adult gaps apparent prior to the international financial crisis remain, however. In 2011, real average improved, although in several countries more slowly than productivity. This raises concerns about how wages are adjusted during periods of growth and higher productivity since, as discussed below, their share in the distribution of regional output could shrink.

Figure 9
LATIN AMERICA (SELECTED COUNTRIES): YEAR-ON-YEAR CHANGE IN THE AVERAGE REAL MINIMUM WAGE, 2011
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official data for the minimum wage and consumer price index (CPI) from countries.

B. Labour productivity and wage share of GDP

Labour productivity is a key to measuring development, because it compares social-labour and productive factors. For production, it is the main indicator of the gap separating the countries of Latin America and the Caribbean from more developed economies. No other indicator summarizes so clearly the differences in economic development in recent decades between this region and East Asia, for example,

where structural and technological transformations have brought enormous productivity gains.

In the social-labour field, labour productivity, defined as GDP per person engaged, is a key indicator for evaluating progress on target 1B ("Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people"), of the first Millennium Development Goal ("Eradicate extreme

poverty and hunger”). Indeed, by the very way it is constructed, labour productivity correlates closely to per capita GDP, which, despite its well known weaknesses, continues to be the main indicator for measuring and comparing countries’ average well-being. From both a substantive and an accounting perspective it is important to remember that work-related income—and specifically wages—plays a crucial role in meeting the material needs of most households. Thus, on both the theoretical and empirical planes, when comparing countries wages are intimately linked with labour productivity. Figure 10 shows 98 countries for which this correlation is very close, although some significant deviations also appear. In any case, this correlation indicates that higher productivity is crucial for achieving a steady, ongoing rise in wages and hence in well-being.¹

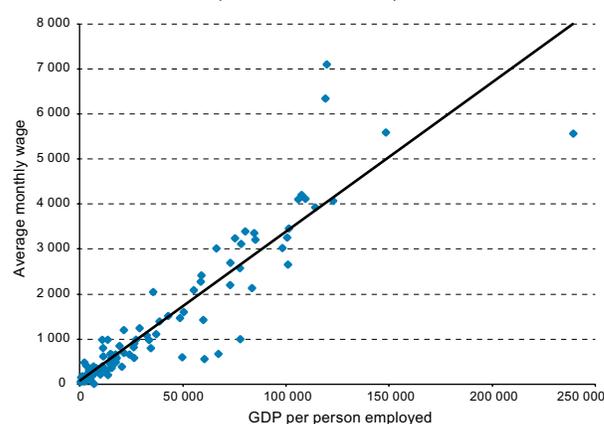
Two factors complicate the direct transmission of productivity increases to well-being in Latin America and the Caribbean. The first is enormous structural heterogeneity, not captured by average productivity trends (Infante, 2011). The second is that productivity increases have no automatic pass through to wages and the wage bill to GDP ratio has in fact fallen in many countries across the world (especially emerging economies) in recent decades, as wages have risen below the rate of average productivity (ILO, 2011).

A fair distribution of wealth among businesses and their workers is important not only from the perspective of social equity, but also to sustain economic growth. Household consumption, which is dependent on labour earnings, normally accounts for a large share of aggregate demand.² The growing imbalance between capital and labour in some developed countries arguably lies at the roots of the international financial crisis, as households have assumed more debt to offset workers’ stagnant

purchasing power, and this has proven unsustainable over the long term (ILO, 2011). In contrast, a reasonable distribution of productivity gains generates the resources that companies need to invest in meeting growing demand and serving other markets.

This section will discuss some considerations regarding comparisons, then review recent labour productivity trends in the region, as compared to wages. Next, it will examine wages’ share of GDP, before closing with a discussion of policies to reinforce productivity growth and improve distribution of the corresponding gains.

Figure 10
WORLD (98 COUNTRIES): GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT PER EMPLOYED PERSON AND AVERAGE WAGES, AROUND 2009
(United States dollars)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of the International Labour Organization (ILO), “Key Indicators of the Labour Market” (KILM) and World Bank.
Note: Information generally refers to 2008 or 2009 and, exceptionally, 2006 or 2007.

1. Labour productivity in Latin America and the Caribbean, and other regions

During the “lost decade” of the 1980s, average labour productivity fell, in absolute terms, widening the gap between Latin America and the Caribbean and more developed regions. During the 1990s, despite some improvement in macroeconomic performance, this gap continued to widen. From 1991 to 2000, average labour productivity essentially remained the same, despite some mediocre job creation. This contrasted with progress in other regions, except Sub-Saharan Africa, which even performed negatively (see figure 11).

¹ The high correlation apparent in figure 10 between average wages and GDP per person engaged does not mean that all occupations in the different countries receive remuneration according to their productivity. There is a considerable gap between developed and developing countries, in particular for workers in relatively unskilled and comparable occupations, despite similar productivity.

² See UNRISD (2010) and ILO (2011).

In the first decade of the 2000s, annual growth of labour productivity in Latin America and the Caribbean climbed from 0.4% to about 1.1%. This slightly reduced the gap with non-Americas countries in the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and with the global average, although other regions, above all East Asia, posted much greater growth.

Before analysing trends in this region, some differences across regions in the behaviour of the main variables should be noted. In contrast to the tendency in industrialized countries, in developing countries demographics (an increase in the working-age population) largely determine shifts in employment. This is because many adults, particularly men, have no option but to work, regardless of finding a job suited to their skills or interests. In an extreme situation, jobs are (self-)generated, even when output is noticeably shrinking and therefore pushing down average labour productivity. This is uncommon in developed

countries, where most people, who are (re-)entering the work force or lose their job in a crisis, do not work to survive, but rather receive support from social security systems or households.

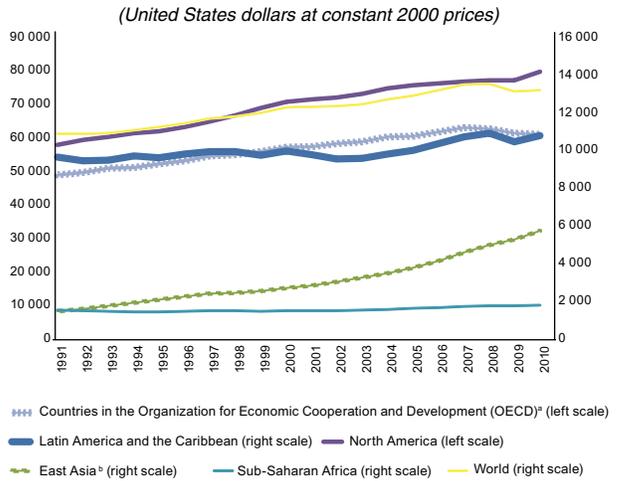
As figure 12 shows, then, in developed countries, job creation correlates more directly with economic growth than in developing countries.

The most extreme situation is that of Sub-Saharan Africa, where this correlation does not exist and the number of engaged persons grows annually within a relatively narrow range, defined by demographics. The Latin American and Caribbean region is located somewhere in between, posting a positive correlation between economic growth and the number of engaged persons, but with enormous dispersion.

While economic growth is more closely linked to employment in developed than developing countries, in the latter economic growth correlates more with labour productivity.

Although virtually all regions show a positive correlation between economic growth and average labour productivity, annual data reveals that this trend is much stronger in developing than in developed countries. Indeed, in developed countries, it is very unusual for average labour productivity to fall, since at times of crisis companies typically lay off staff to cut costs, which helps to maintain or even boost productivity (see figure 13).

Figure 11
WORLD AND MAIN REGIONS: GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT (GDP)
BY ENGAGED PERSON

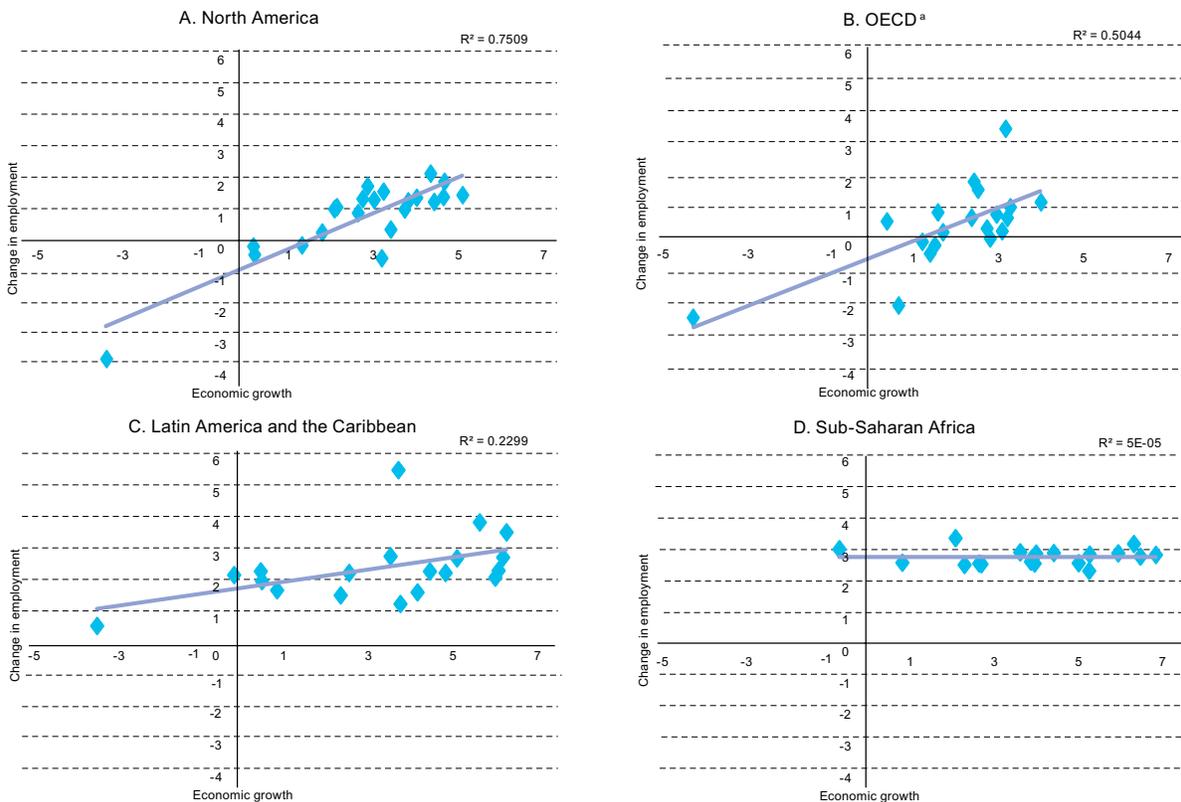


Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of International Labour Organization (ILO), "Key Indicators of the Labour Market" (KILM) and World Bank.

^a Data for OECD countries does not include countries in the Americas (Canada, Chile, Mexico and the United States).

^b Data for Japan and the Republic of Korea are included with those from OECD, rather than East Asia.

Figure 12
ECONOMIC GROWTH AND CHANGES IN EMPLOYMENT, 1992-2010
(Percentages)

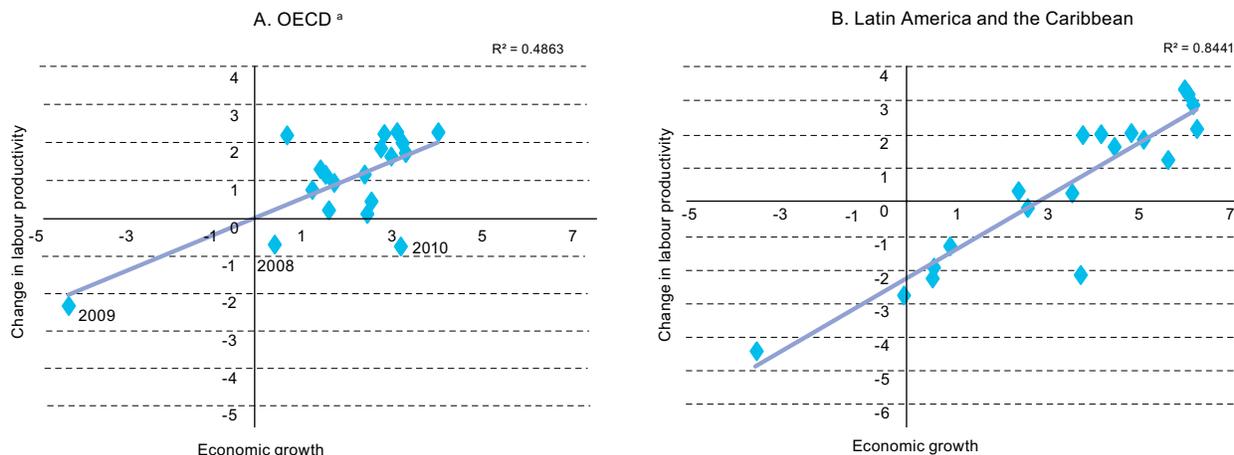


Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of the International Labour Organization (ILO), "Key Indicators of the Labour Market" (KILM) and World Bank.

Note: Each point represents a year for the set of countries in each group.

^a Countries of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), minus countries in the Americas.

Figure 13
**LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN AND OECD COUNTRIES: ECONOMIC GROWTH AND CHANGES
 IN AVERAGE LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY, 1992-2010**
 (Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of the International Labour Organization (ILO), "Key Indicators of the Labour Market" (KILM) and World Bank.

Note: Each point represents a year for the set of countries in each group.

^a Minus countries in the Americas.

Only from 2008 to 2010 did OECD countries (not including those in the Americas) see average labour productivity fall, mainly as a result of policies to protect employment in times of crisis, often as part of a social dialogue (ILO, 2009; IMF, 2010). In developing countries, meanwhile, employment does not fall in the same way during a crisis, because social safety nets are very weak, so any adjustment in the labour market falls on average productivity. Thus, in Latin America and the Caribbean,

productivity trends correlate more with economic growth than occurs in OECD countries.

The result is that the high volatility of growth in the world economy in recent decades has deeply affected trends in labour productivity—and the quality of employment—in less developed countries. One exception has been East Asia, led by China, which has sustained growth in terms of both output (GDP) and average labour productivity (see figure 11).

2. Recent trends in the region's labour productivity

This section examines trends in labour productivity in 12 countries in Latin America and the Caribbean. The study focused on countries with consistent national series for the relevant period. Access to comparable data made it possible to work with GDP per engaged person, while a finer analysis would require taking into account shifts in average hours worked. This information is for 2000-2011, but emphasises the post-2002 period to highlight trends during recent, relatively buoyant economic growth.

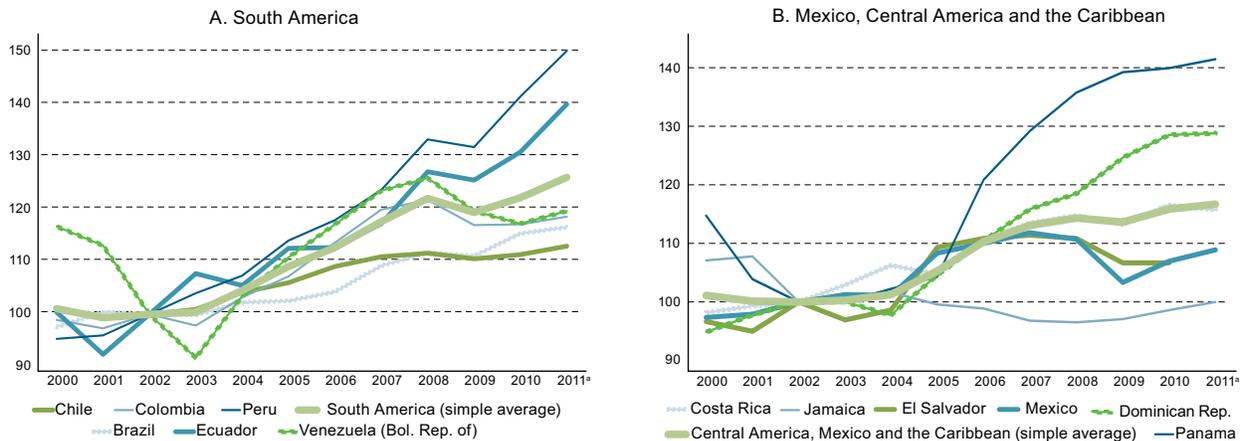
As figure 11 indicates, labour productivity in Latin America performed poorly, particularly just after 2000. This indicator has improved significantly since 2002-2003, however. Figure 14 reveals a more general increase in the countries of South America, where the six countries with data accumulated an increase of more than 10% of GDP per engaged person, and the simple average for the subregion rose about 25%. For the six countries in the region's north, only three crossed this threshold and the subregion posted a 17% rise in labour productivity.

As would be expected, given the considerations set forth in the previous section, the 2008-2009 crisis hurt productivity and in 9 of 12 countries, output per engaged person fell. The exceptions were Panama and the Dominican Republic, which were less affected by the world crisis and grew more than 3% in 2009, and Jamaica, where a sharp drop in employment offset the fall in output.

In 2010 and 2011, economic growth and labour productivity bounced back at the regional level, with output per engaged person up about 15% over 2002. All countries saw labour productivity improve, except the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, which suffered a second drop in output in 2010 and only turned this around in 2011.³

³ No 2011 data is available for El Salvador.

Figure 14
LATIN AMERICA (SELECTED COUNTRIES): CHANGE IN GDP PER ENGAGED PERSON, 2000-2011
 (Index: 2002=100)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official data from the countries.
 Note: The subregional series calculations are based on growth rates from national series. At the subregional level, in 2011 these figures excluded El Salvador.
 a Preliminary data

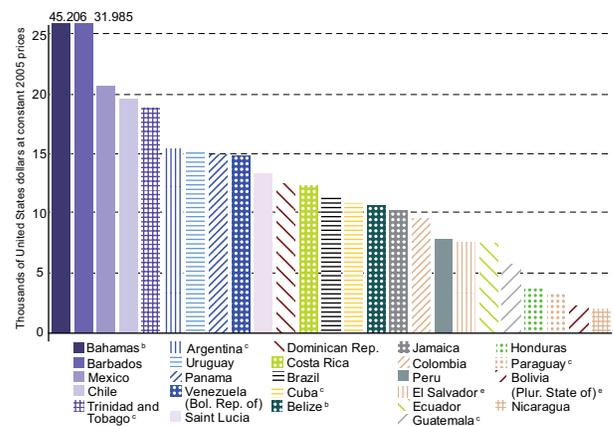
Comparing changes from 2002 to 2011, Ecuador, Panama and Peru posted the highest GDP growth per engaged person.⁴ At the other end, El Salvador (data through 2010), Mexico and Jamaica saw output per engaged person increase less than 10%, with Jamaica only recovering to 2002 levels in 2011.

Beyond these recent shifts, major intraregional differences in productivity remain. Figure 15 shows labour productivity for 12 countries discussed in this section, plus 13 more, for which there is no consistent, national-level data to allow a more precise analysis, but calculations of the GDP per engaged person ratio remain possible for a recent year, about 2011.

Countries with the highest labour productivity include service-based economies in the Caribbean (Bahamas and Barbados). Those with the lowest include Nicaragua, the Plurinational State of Bolivia, Paraguay, Honduras and Guatemala, among others.

In view of the countries' recent performance, however, there seem to be some signs of convergence between the two groups, since Ecuador and Peru—which have the lowest productivity levels—have progressed the most in terms of average productivity, while Chile and Mexico—which have the highest productivity levels—have progressed less. Nevertheless, Panama is one of the strongest performers and El Salvador shows only small productivity gains.

Figure 15
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (25 COUNTRIES): GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT PER ENGAGED PERSON, 2011^a
 (Thousands of United States dollars at constant 2005 prices)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official data from the countries.
 a Preliminary data.
 b 2008 data.
 c 2010 data.
 d 2007 data.
 e 2009 data.

⁴ For Panama and Peru, the main “accounting” cause for this progress has been high annual economic growth of 6.1% and 5.2% GDP per capita, in Ecuador’s case, low employment growth helped, including several years of absolute declines, while annual GDP grew at 3.7%. From 2006 to 2010, for example, total employment fell by 134,000 jobs. This reflected a net drop in rural employment (-179,000), while urban employment rose. Within rural employment, agriculture fell (-182,000), along with unpaid family labour (-185,000). Because this last drop was not offset by employment in other sectors and unemployment did not rise in this period, this suggests a shift away from this kind of employment, in the best case in favour of education.

At the regional level, labour productivity in the agricultural and mining sectors showed opposite trends. Agricultural output per engaged person rose strongly, as the absolute number of people working in this sector held steady or dropped. This could reflect a decline in the *campesino* economy, with restrictions on access to resources encouraging migration, particularly among young people, to other economic sectors. Moreover, several countries have shifted to agribusiness models, which have significantly boosted production, often for export, thus increasing output per engaged person.

Box 1

RECENT TRENDS IN LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY IN URUGUAY

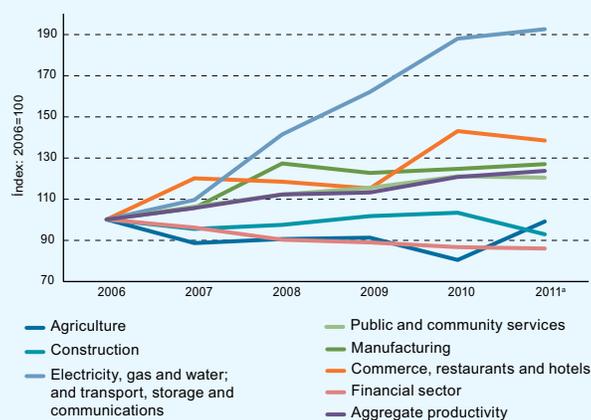
Uruguay has recorded ongoing labour market data at the national level since 2006. Although the lack of data from earlier years limited Uruguay's inclusion in the general analysis in this section, information about the past six years gives some insight into how years of high growth and the recent crisis and recovery affected labour productivity.

As the figure below illustrates, from 2006 to 2011, aggregate labour productivity rose 24%, pushing Uruguay into the group with the most growth, along with Ecuador and Peru. In 2009, the crisis slowed but did not halt this trend, representing an additional indicator showing that Uruguay worked its way through a difficult period with a relatively good labour performance. At the same time, the national employment rate rose 0.8 percentage points, urban unemployment fell by 0.3 percentage points, and real average wages continued to recover, rising by 7.3%.

By sector, from 2006 to 2011 basic services led the rise in labour productivity, followed by the wholesale and retail trade, and manufacturing. Unlike in the rest of the region, however, the agricultural sector remained sluggish.

Uruguay has low population growth, only partially offset by recent increases in the participation rate. As a result, massive growth in the labour force is not a viable way of reaching high economic growth rates, so the country requires a strategy to steadily increase productivity.

URUGUAY: GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT PER ENGAGED PERSON
(Index: 2006 = 100)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official data from the countries.

Mining's output per engaged person has dropped significantly. This reflects a strong rise in people working in this sector, possibly influenced by high prices in recent years. These have encouraged sometimes informal operations in marginal deposits that were not profitable when prices were lower. The limited productivity of these mines is, therefore, affecting average labour productivity in this sector.

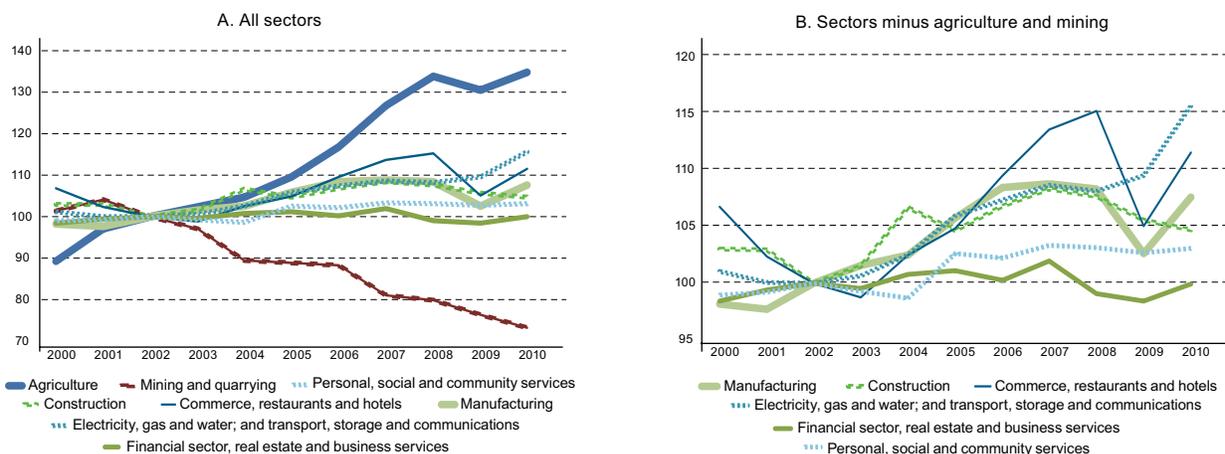
To help read these series, the second panel of figure 16 shows trends in labour productivity minus agriculture and mining. Most other sectors post modest increases in output per engaged person, which were interrupted in 2009 and resumed in 2010. Throughout this period, basic utilities (electricity, gas and water, and transport, storage and communications) and commerce, restaurants and hotels all posted modest increases. Manufacturing productivity rose significantly until 2007, but plunged in 2009, when output fell by 8.2% in the set of 12 countries. The recovery in 2010 could not make up for this decline completely. Construction, meanwhile, behaved similarly until 2008. In 2009, the drop in output per engaged person was less than in manufacturing, but it held steady in

2010, when the modest turnaround in production came with a significant rise in employment in this sector. Productivity of community, social and personal services varied little, while financial services, real estate and business services performed very weakly, just slightly better than mining.⁵

As with countries, there are some signs of convergence among sectors, with agriculture, with lowest average productivity, making the most progress in recent years. Mining, with by far the highest average productivity, has fallen the most. Commerce (second lowest average productivity, but rising significantly more recently) and financial services, real estate and business services (the greatest performance, second only to mining) point in the same direction. In contrast, basic services have the third highest level and recently saw a high increase in productivity as well.

⁵ Note that the measure for service sector labour productivity is limited by methodological difficulties in calculating sector output.

Figure 16
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (SELECTED COUNTRIES): VALUE ADDED PER ENGAGED PERSON AND ECONOMIC SECTOR
(Index: 2002=100)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official data from the countries.

If labour productivity could improve so much in a context of strong macroeconomic performances during most of the past decade, the question arises about the possible impact these improvements could have on distribution. With this in mind, trends in formal-sector real wages were compared with the developments in labour productivity discussed above. Recent trends in the functional distribution of income will be discussed below.⁶

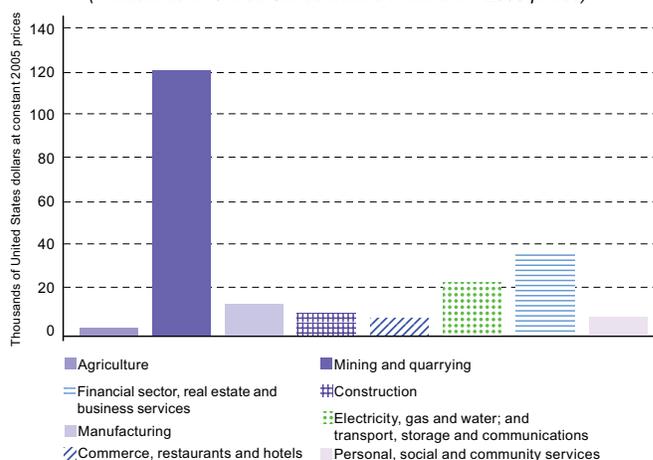
As figure 18 shows, since 2002, most of the countries with information saw real average wages grow less than labour productivity, except for Chile and Ecuador, while in Mexico the relationship between the two variables held steady.⁷

Relative wages in some countries, particularly Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica and El Salvador, improved from 2008-2009 onward (El Salvador and Colombia, until 2010). Other countries' real wages climbed, but below trends in productivity. In two cases, substantial increases labour productivity wages came with minor wage increases (Panama and Peru), while elsewhere real wages fell due to high inflation (the Dominican Republic, particularly at the start of the period, and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela).

In short, the data available indicate that productivity gains since 2002 have not been distributed in an egalitarian manner

and, although workers generally benefited from relatively high job creation rates, their real wages did not rise commensurately with labour productivity.

Figure 17
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: AGGREGATE VALUE PER ENGAGED PERSON, BY SECTOR, AROUND 2010
(Thousands of United States dollars at constant 2005 prices)

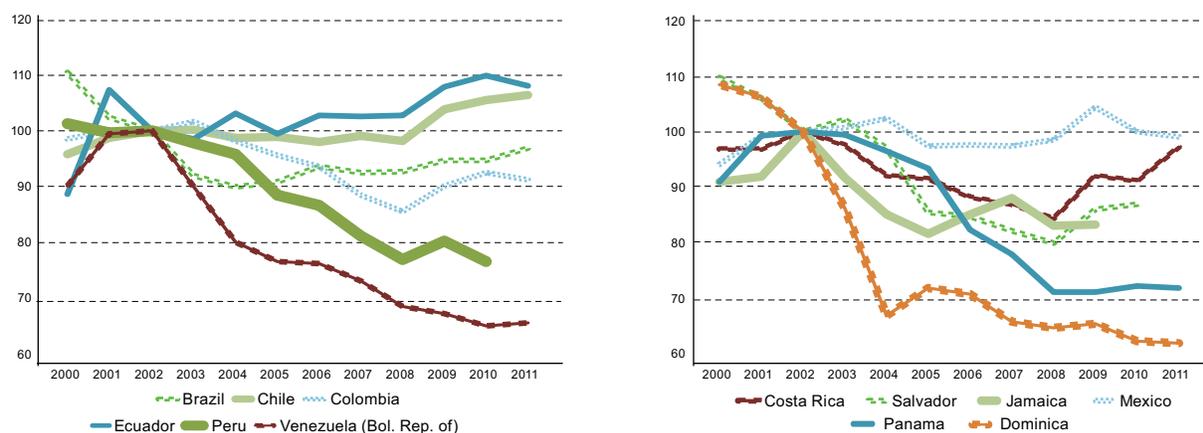


Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official data from the countries.

⁶ Although the two are linked, they are not identical. For example, functional distribution would take into consideration shifts in the total wage bill, which reflects the income of the whole set of wage employees, not only those in the formal sector. Moreover, the wage-productivity comparison is done on the basis of constant prices, while functional distribution is based on current prices, to reflect improvements and declines in income from price changes (for example, the increase in the income of the owners of capital, during a boom in real estate prices or thanks to stock investments).

⁷ Chile's figures reflect an overestimation of comparable trends, because wages are calculated by hour, whereas productivity is based on engaged person.

Figure 18
**LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (SELECTED COUNTRIES):
 REAL WAGES IN THE FORMAL SECTOR AND GDP
 PER ENGAGED PERSON, 2000-2011**
 (Index: 2002 = 100)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official data from the countries.

3. Wage share of GDP: Trends in the functional distribution of income

Any analysis of trends in wages relative to productivity has much to do with distribution. When both variables move in a similar pattern, the functional distribution of capital and labour remains unchanged. By contrast, when wages grow less than productivity, the share of capital rises faster than that of labour, and the opposite occurs when wages grow more than productivity. This relationship may be followed over short periods but the analysis is more meaningful over a longer period, because of sharp fluctuations which generate mismatches in the productivity-wage increase dynamic in the short term.

Given that Latin America and the Caribbean is already one of the world's most unequal regions in terms of income distribution and production factors, it is troubling that wage share of GDP has fallen in recent decades. Although this has occurred more slowly than in other developing countries, the decline has been more significant than in developed countries. This long-term slide reflects factors ranging from integration into the world economy (especially financial globalization) through to institutional factors, which have depressed unionization rates and the coverage of collective bargaining (ILO, 2011).

From a medium-term perspective, over the most recent growth cycle (2002-2008), data available for 21 of the region's countries show that the wage share of GDP dropped in 13 and rose in 8 (see table 2).⁸

In part, these patterns may reflect the economic cycle, since the wage share of GDP typically behaves in a countercyclical manner. In fact, some countries with data later than 2008, especially in the Caribbean, saw the wage share rise during the international financial crisis, pushing up the number of countries with a wage share of GDP higher than in 2002 (see table 2).

Be this as it may, most countries evidently did not use the boom phase of the growth cycle to implement policies for improving distribution. This behaviour during 2002-2008 is apparent, with minor differences, in every subregion, although with marked contrasts within each (see figure 19). So, in the absence of a significant shift in socioeconomic policies, the functional distribution of income could well continue to deteriorate during economic upswings and maintain its long-term tendency to decline.

⁸ The data base for this analysis comes from the International Institute for Labour Studies, on the basis of data from national accounts (online) <http://unstats.un.org/unsd/nationalaccount/data>.

—asp and some national sources. For this analysis, these sources were completed and analysed on the basis of data from the same sources and the same methods, as documented by ILO (2011). For Uruguay, which stopped publishing data on the functional distribution of income in 2006, figures were estimated using information about changes in output, employment and wages from the national statistics institute (*Instituto Nacional de Estadística, INE*), Uruguay.

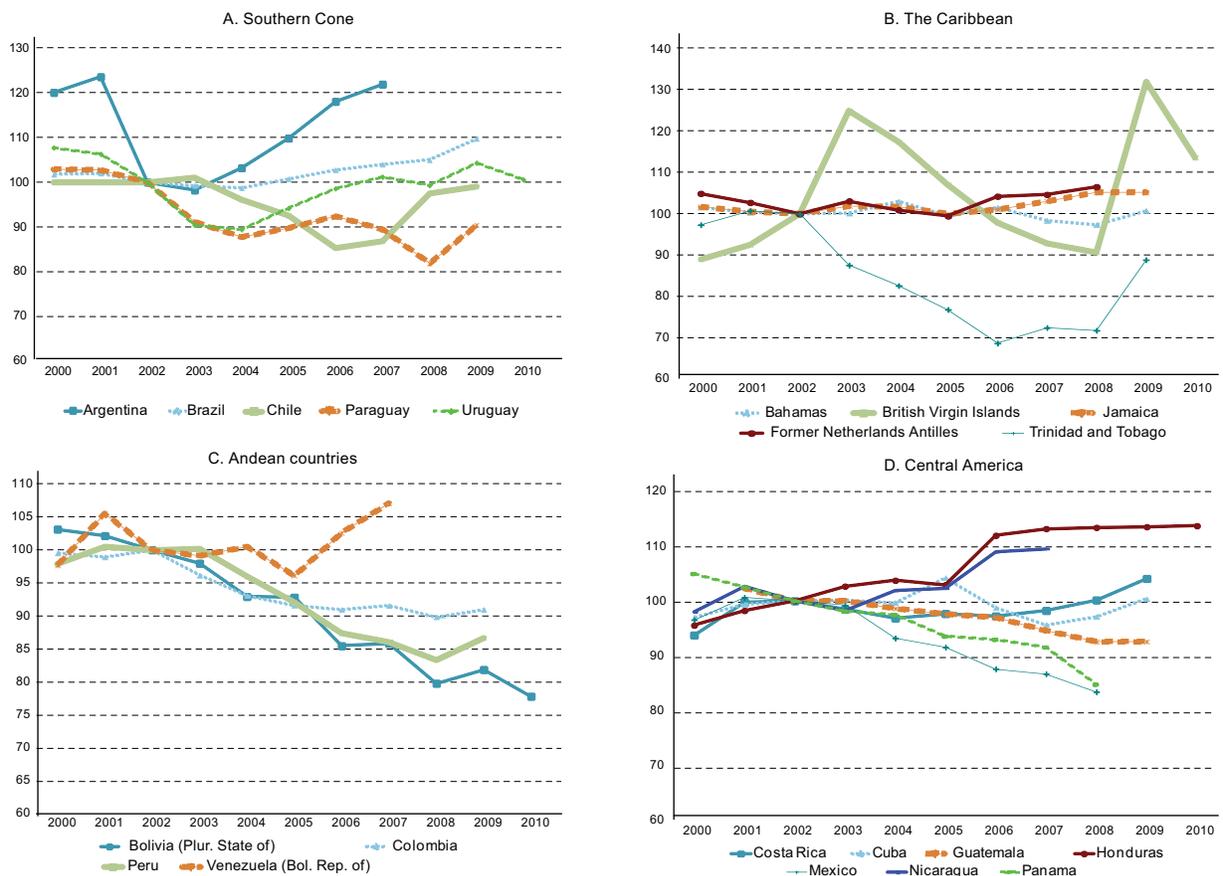
Table 2
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: WAGE SHARE OF GDP, 2002-AROUND 2010

Región	2002-2008		2002-Last year available ^a	
	Countries in which the wage share of GDP rose	Countries in which the wage share of GDP fell	Countries in which the wage share of GDP rose	Countries in which the wage share of GDP fell
Southern Cone	2	3	3	2
Non-Spanish-speaking Caribbean	2	3	4	1
Andean Community	1	3	1	3
Central America, Mexico and Spanish-speaking Caribbean countries	3	4	4	3
Total	8	13	12	9

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of data from the United Nations Statistics Division and national sources.

^a Fifteen countries have information up to 2009 or 2010. Four saw a negative trend (2008) turn around by the most recent year.

Figure 19
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: WAGE SHARE OF GDP, BY SUBREGION, 2000-2010
(Index: 2002=100)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of data from United Nations Statistics Division and national sources.

The data, however, also point to a significant shift in some countries in 2002-2008. Argentina, Brazil and Uruguay began the period with a low wage share in GDP, which then rose significantly from 2003-2004 on. At least part of this shift

came from policies such as reinforcing collective bargaining, increasing the real minimum wage, and helping informal firms and workers to move into the formal economy.

4. Conclusions and policy considerations

Productivity must rise steadily if the material conditions of people in Latin America and the Caribbean are to improve in a lasting way. As this report shows, the region's performance has been less than satisfactory in both absolute and relative terms. Only recently have many countries started to show productivity gains on the back of increased growth and a significant rise in investment.⁹

In this recent context of growth and rising productivity, employment has also risen significantly and, combined with suitable social policies, has reduced poverty. Thanks to a narrowing in the wage gap between workers of different income levels, demographic changes and focused social policies, many of the region's countries have also improved income distribution among households (ECLAC, 2012). As this report shows, however, in line with a global trend in recent decades, in most of the region's countries the functional distribution of income has worsened and the wage share of output has declined.

From these patterns emerges a dual task for the region: to achieve sustained increases in labour productivity and to distribute these gains more effectively.

The various countries will need different strategies to boost productivity, depending on their level of development and their particular bottlenecks. For example, in the more developed countries, investment in research and development must rise significantly, to base competitiveness in domestic and international markets on innovation, new technologies and knowledge. In other, less developed countries, a typical bottleneck is physical infrastructure (highways, ports, energy) and remedying this could boost systemic competitiveness. This is not to say that these countries should not seek to improve technological standards as well, but removing obstacles to the productivity of several productive sectors would have a much broader initial impact.

This range of situations reflects the region's hallmark structural heterogeneity. It is not enough to foster productivity among the sectors which are or could be competitive in international markets, because those productivity gains would widen the gap with less competitive sectors.

Thus, less productive sectors, above all those with high potential to expand, require support to boost productivity, for example through technological change and access to markets and financing. This would require measures to support the campesino sector and small and medium-sized manufacturing, and help close domestic productivity gaps and the region's large divides in labour conditions.

Another instrument to foster productivity growth is support for new business start-ups. Although new companies may show high early close-down rates, those that survive tend to

significantly boost productivity and can breathe new life into their respective sectors.

To fully leverage increased investment and new technologies, it is essential to improve the quality and coverage of education, professional preparation and worker training. Helping workers to move from sectors with low and stagnant productivity to more buoyant sectors with growing productivity is also important.

It has also been seen here that the challenges of social integration and development cannot be overcome through productivity gains alone: steps must be taken to distribute the fruits of these gains more equitably. Here advances are needed on several policy fronts.¹⁰

Measures to strengthen the links between wages and productivity can be applied at the level of the economy overall or in specific economic sectors or companies. Several countries, for example, use regular minimum-wage adjustments to offset the decline in purchasing power but also to reflect higher productivity, usually measured by per capita GDP. In Chile, for example, inflation and per capita GDP have been key variables in shaping government proposals in minimum-wage negotiations. In Costa Rica, meanwhile, a tripartite agreement in 2011 indexed wages to inflation and per capita GDP growth within a range negotiable by the parties. Lastly, in Brazil the minimum wage has been adjusted rapidly to absorb past inflation and a rising GDP.

In Uruguay, the government encouraged the wage councils that function for each of 219 sectors to include productivity as a factor in the 2010 bargaining rounds. The executive's guidelines proposed a bargaining framework comprising components for expected inflation, general economic performance, and sector performance based on some measure of productivity. Naturally, the stakeholders in each sector must first arrive at a measure of productivity upon which they can all agree: this is no easy task and one which requires joint constructing of relevant indicators. Lastly, at the company level, too, collective bargaining should include productivity improvements as a relevant variable.

Collective bargaining has a crucial role in ensuring the equitable distribution of the fruits of productivity increases. To fulfil this role, it needs strong business and union actors who are well informed about the state of the economy in general (and productivity in particular) and the sector or specific company. To a large degree, these challenges fall to public policymaking: to establish the legal framework for collective bargaining and, more broadly, for the activities of workers' and employers' organizations. Participatory labour relations that include workers' organizations and collective bargaining can also help to improve

⁹ Gross formation of fixed capital rose from 17% (2002) to almost 23% (2011) of GDP (ECLAC, 2011).

¹⁰ Aside from the measures to improve functional distribution by linking wages more directly to productivity, discussed here, an increase in wage employment can also increase the wage bill and its share of income.

productivity and form a virtuous circle between productivity and the distribution of gains. In Latin America and the Caribbean, as in other regions, unionization rates and coverage of collective bargaining have declined in most countries in recent decades. Nonetheless, the data available suggest some recovery in this respect in Argentina, Brazil, Mexico and Uruguay.

Finally, in developing countries, including those of Latin America and the Caribbean, the measures described here are far from reaching all workers and economic sectors, given the size of the informal economy. Thus, efforts to distribute the fruits of productivity more equitably are closely tied to measures

to bring firms and workers into the formal economy. Aside from the measures already discussed, aimed at promoting the productive capacities of informal businesses and enabling them to assume the costs of formalization, this will require strengthening and improving the coordination of labour and financial oversight and enforcement, simplifying tax procedures for micro- and small businesses, and simplifying the red tape involved in compliance. In the past few years, several countries, including Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Paraguay and Uruguay, have shown that relatively simple measures can open the way to substantial progress.

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Annex

Table A-1
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: URBAN UNEMPLOYMENT, 2001-2011
(Average annual rates)

Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Latin America											
Argentina ^a	17.4	19.7	17.3	13.6	11.6	10.2	8.5	7.9	8.7	7.7	7.2
Bolivia (Plurinational State of) ^b	8.5	8.7	9.2	6.2	8.2	8.0	7.7	6.7	7.9	6.5 ^c	...
Brazil ^d	6.2	11.7	12.3	11.5	9.8	10.0	9.3	7.9	8.1	6.7	6.0
Chile ^e	9.9	9.8	9.5	10.0	9.2	7.8	7.1	7.8	9.7	8.2	7.1
Colombia ^f	18.2	17.6	16.6	15.3	13.9	12.9	11.4	11.5	13.0	12.4	11.5
Costa Rica ^g	5.8	6.8	6.7	6.7	6.9	6.0	4.8	4.8	8.5	7.1	7.7
Cuba ^h	4.1	3.3	2.3	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.6	1.7	2.5	...
Dominican Republic ⁱ	10.9	9.2	11.5	9.7	8.5	8.1	7.3	6.9	8.5	7.6	6.0
Ecuador ^j	7.0	6.2	6.2	6.5	7.3	5.7	5.8	5.5	7.1	6.8	...
El Salvador ^k	...	5.1	5.2	4.4	4.8	3.1
Guatemala ^k	5.5	5.9	7.4	8.0	6.1	4.6	3.9	4.2	4.9 ^l	6.4 ^l	6.8 ^l
Honduras ^k	3.6	3.9	4.6	5.3	4.7	4.6	4.8	4.9	6.6	6.4	6.0
Mexico ^m	11.3	12.2	10.2	8.6	7.0	7.0	6.9	8.0	10.5	9.7	...
Nicaragua ⁿ	17.0	16.5	15.9	14.1	12.1	10.4	7.8	6.5	7.9	7.7	5.4
Panama ^o	10.8	14.7	11.2	10.0	7.6	8.9	7.2	7.4	8.2	7.2	7.1
Paraguay ^p	9.2	9.4	9.3	9.4	9.6	8.5	8.5	8.4	8.4	7.9	7.7
Peru ^q	7.2	6.6	7.3	6.1	6.4	5.5	5.0	4.7	5.3	5.0	5.8
Uruguay ^k	15.3	17.0	16.9	13.1	12.2	11.4	9.6	7.9	7.7	7.1	6.3
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) ^r	13.3	15.9	18.0	15.3	12.3	10.0	8.4	7.3	7.9	8.7	8.3
The Caribbean											
Bahamas ^f	6.9	9.1	10.8	10.2	10.2	7.7	7.9	8.7	14.2	...	13.7
Barbados ^f	9.9	10.3	11.0	9.6	9.1	8.7	7.4	8.1	10.0	10.8	11.2
Belize ^f	9.1	10.0	12.9	11.6	11.0	9.4	8.5	8.2	13.1
Jamaica ^f	15.0	14.3	10.9	11.4	11.2	10.3	9.8	10.6	11.4	12.4	12.6
Trinidad and Tobago ^f	10.9	10.4	10.5	8.3	8.0	6.2	5.5	4.6	5.3	5.9	5.8
Latin America and the Caribbean¹	10.2	11.2	11.1	10.3	9.0	8.6	7.9	7.3	8.1	7.3	6.7

Source: International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official information from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

^a Gradual incorporation up to 31 urban areas. New measurement from 2003; data not comparable with previous years.

^b Urban area. Data from 2004 based on the survey carried out between November 2003 and October 2004. New measurement from 2009; data not comparable with previous years.

^c First semester.

^d Six metropolitan regions. New measurement from 2002; data not comparable with previous years.

^e National total. New measurement from 2010; data not comparable with previous years.

^f Thirteen metropolitan areas. Includes hidden unemployment.

^g National urban figures as at July of each year. New measurement from 2009; data not comparable with previous years.

^h National total.

ⁱ National urban figures for August 2001, November 2002 and December 2003. From 2004 on, average for four quarters. Includes hidden unemployment.

^j National urban figures. From 2007, the threshold for the working-age population was raised from 10 to 16 years and over. Includes hidden unemployment.

^k National urban figures.

^l Data refer to May.

^m Refers to 32 urban areas.

ⁿ National urban figures. New measurement from 2003; data not comparable with previous years.

^o National urban figures. Includes hidden unemployment.

^p National urban figures up to 2009. From 2010, urban areas of Asunción and the Central Department; data not comparable with previous years.

^q Metropolitan Lima. New measurement from 2002; data not comparable with previous years.

^r National total. Includes hidden unemployment.

^s Data for the second quarter.

¹ Weighted average. Data adjusted for methodological changes in Argentina (2003) and Brazil (2002) and for the exclusion of hidden unemployment in Colombia, Ecuador and Panama, and for the exclusion of hidden unemployment in Colombia, Ecuador and Panama. Does not include Guatemala.

^u Preliminary estimates.

Table A-2
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: URBAN UNEMPLOYMENT BY SEX, 2001-2011
(Average annual rates)

Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Latin America											
Argentina ^a	17.4	19.7	17.3	13.6	11.6	10.2	8.5	7.9	8.7	7.7	7.2
Men	17.5	20.2	15.5	11.9	10.0	8.4	6.7	6.6	7.8	6.7	6.3
Women	17.2	18.9	19.5	15.8	13.6	12.5	10.8	9.7	9.9	9.2	8.5
Bolivia (Plurinational State of) ^b	8.5	8.7	...	6.2	8.2	8.0	7.7	6.7	7.9	6.5 ^e	...
Men	7.5	7.3	...	5.0	6.8	7.1	6.3	...	6.6	5.5	...
Women	9.7	10.3	...	7.5	9.9	9.1	9.4	...	9.4	7.6	...
Brazil ^d	6.2	11.7	12.3	11.5	9.8	10.0	9.3	7.9	8.1	6.7	6.0
Men	5.9	9.9	10.1	9.1	7.8	8.1	7.4	6.1	6.5	5.2	4.7
Women	6.7	13.9	15.2	14.4	12.4	12.2	11.6	10.0	9.9	8.5	7.5
Chile ^e	9.9	9.8	9.5	10.0	9.2	7.8	7.1	7.8	9.7	8.2	7.1
Men	9.7	9.6	9.1	9.4	8.5	6.9	6.3	6.8	9.1	7.2	6.1
Women	10.1	10.2	10.3	11.2	10.6	9.5	8.6	9.5	10.7	9.6	8.7
Colombia ^f	18.2	17.6	16.7	15.4	13.9	13.0	11.4	11.5	13.0	12.4	11.5
Men	16.0	15.3	14.0	13.0	12.2	10.7	9.7	9.9	11.3	10.7	9.5
Women	20.7	20.1	19.6	18.1	17.1	15.4	13.3	13.5	15.0	14.4	13.6
Costa Rica ^g	5.8	6.8	6.7	6.7	6.9	6.0	4.8	4.8	7.6	7.1	7.7
Men	5.2	6.2	6.1	5.8	5.6	4.5	3.4	4.3	6.5	6.0	6.3
Women	6.7	7.7	7.6	8.2	8.8	8.2	6.8	5.6	9.2	8.8	9.7
Dominican Republic ^h	10.9	9.2	11.5	9.7	8.5	8.1	7.3	6.9	8.5	7.6	6.0
Men	7.1	6.0	9.1	7.4	6.8	6.2	6.0	5.6	7.1	6.3	5.1
Women	16.2	14.0	15.0	12.8	10.9	10.6	9.2	8.7	10.4	9.3	7.1
Ecuador ^b	7.0	6.2	6.2	6.5	7.3	5.7	5.8	5.5	7.1	6.8	...
Men	8.7	7.4	8.6	8.8	9.4	7.6	7.9	7.2	9.0	8.3	...
Women	4.9	3.4	3.1	3.7	4.8	3.6	3.4	3.5	4.9	5.1	...
El Salvador ⁱ	...	5.1	5.2	4.4	3.1
Men	...	4.3	4.0	4.3	2.7
Women	...	6.2	6.8	4.5	3.7
Guatemala ^l	5.5	5.9	7.4	8.0	6.1	4.6	3.9	4.2	4.9 ^k	6.4 ^k	6.8 ^k
Men	5.9	6.2	7.1	7.4	5.4	4.3	4.1	3.2	3.3
Women	5.0	5.5	7.7	8.8	7.1	5.0	3.6	5.2	6.1
Honduras ^j	2.4	2.7	3.3	3.8	4.7	4.6	4.8	4.9	6.6	6.4	6.0
Men	2.4	2.6	3.2	3.5	4.5	4.4	4.5	4.8	6.7	6.5	6.1
Women	2.5	2.8	3.5	4.2	5.0	4.9	5.2	4.9	6.5	6.3	5.8
Mexico ^l	11.3	12.2	10.2	8.6	7.0	7.0	6.9	8.0	10.5	9.7	...
Men	12.8	13.4	11.7	8.6	7.8	8.1	7.6	8.4
Women	9.4	10.5	8.4	8.5	6.1	5.7	6.0	7.6
Nicaragua ^m	17.0	16.1	15.9	14.1	12.1	10.4	7.8	6.5	7.9	7.7	5.4
Men	15.1	13.9	13.2	11.5	10.0	8.6	6.5	5.4	6.3	6.5	5.3
Women	19.8	19.3	19.6	17.6	15.0	13.0	9.6	7.9	9.9	9.3	5.4
Panama ⁿ	10.8	14.7	11.2	10.0	7.6	8.9	7.2	7.4	8.2	7.2	7.1
Men	10.5	14.0	10.5	8.7	7.1	7.7	6.2	6.6	7.9	6.6	6.3
Women	11.2	15.7	12.2	11.6	8.3	10.4	8.4	8.5	8.7	8.1	8.7
Paraguay ^o	9.2	9.4	9.4	9.4	9.6	8.5	8.5	8.4	8.4	7.9	7.7
Men	8.2	8.3	8.5	8.1	8.3	7.2	7.3	6.5	6.7	6.5	5.8
Women	10.6	10.8	10.7	11.1	11.2	10.1	9.9	10.6	10.4	9.6	10.1
Peru ^p	7.2	6.6	7.3	6.1	6.4	5.5	5.0	4.7	5.3	5.0	5.8
Men	5.1	4.8	5.4	4.2	4.7	3.7	3.7	3.1	4.0	3.9	4.4
Women	11.1	10.0	10.8	9.8	9.6	8.7	7.4	7.3	7.8	6.9	8.2
Uruguay ^l	15.3	17.0	16.9	13.1	12.2	11.4	9.6	7.9	7.7	7.1	6.3
Men	11.5	13.5	13.5	10.3	9.6	8.8	7.1	5.7	5.7	5.4	5.0
Women	19.7	21.2	20.8	16.6	15.3	14.4	12.6	10.3	9.8	9.0	7.7

Table A-2 (concluded)

Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) ^f	13.3	15.9	18.0	15.1	12.3	10.0	8.4	7.3	7.8	8.7	8.3
Men	13.6	14.4	16.3	13.1	11.3	9.2	7.9	7.0	7.4	8.5	7.7
Women	17.4	18.2	21.1	17.9	13.8	11.3	9.3	7.8	8.3	9.0	9.2
The Caribbean											
Bahamas ^f	6.9	9.1	10.8	10.2	10.2	7.6	7.9	12.1	14.2	...	13.7
Men	6.8	8.8	10.0	9.4	9.2	6.9	6.7	...	14.0	...	13.6
Women	7.1	9.4	11.7	11.0	11.2	8.4	9.1	...	14.4	...	13.7
Barbados ^f	9.9	10.3	11.0	9.6	9.1	8.7	7.4	8.1	10.0	10.8	11.2
Men	8.0	8.6	9.6	8.8	7.4	7.7	6.5	6.9	10.1	10.9	9.8
Women	11.9	12.1	12.6	10.5	10.8	9.8	8.5	9.5	9.8	10.6	12.6
Belize ^f	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 ^f	15.0	14.3	10.9	11.4	11.2	10.3	9.8	10.6	11.4	12.4	12.6
Men	10.2	9.9	7.2	8.1	7.6	7.0	6.2	7.3	8.5	9.2	9.3
Women	21.0	19.8	15.6	15.7	15.8	14.4	14.5	14.6	14.8	16.2	16.7
Trinidad and Tobago ^f	10.9	10.4	10.5	8.3	8.0	6.2	5.5	4.6	5.3	5.9	5.8 ^g
Men	8.7	7.8	8.0	6.4	5.8	4.5	3.9
Women	14.5	14.5	13.8	11.2	11.0	8.7	7.9

Source: International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official information from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

^a Gradual incorporation up to 31 urban areas. New measurement from 2003; data not comparable with previous years.

^b Urban area. Data from 2004 based on the survey carried out between November 2003 and October 2004. New measurement from 2009; data not comparable with previous years.

^c First semester.

^d Six metropolitan regions. New measurement from 2002; data not comparable with previous years.

^e National total. New measurement from 2010; data not comparable with previous years.

^f Thirteen metropolitan areas. Includes hidden unemployment.

^g National urban figures as at July of each year. New measurement from 2009; data not comparable with previous years.

^h National urban figures for August 2001, November 2002 and December 2003. From 2004 on, average for four quarters. Includes hidden unemployment.

ⁱ National urban figures. From 2007, the threshold for the working-age population was raised from 10 to 16 years and over. Includes hidden unemployment.

^j National urban figures.

^k Data refer to May.

^l Refers to 32 urban areas.

^m National urban figures. New measurement from 2003; data not comparable with previous years.

ⁿ National urban figures. Includes hidden unemployment.

^o National urban figures up to 2009. From 2010, urban areas of Asunción and the Central Department; data not comparable with previous years.

^p Metropolitan Lima. New measurement from 2002; data not comparable with previous years.

^q National total.

^r National total. Includes hidden unemployment.

^s Data as at the second quarter.

Table A-3
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: URBAN YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT, 2001-2011
(Average annual rates)

Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Latin America											
Argentina ^a											
15-24 years	31.0	35.5	35.3	29.3	25.8	23.6	20.3	18.8	21.2	19.4	18.2 ^b
Bolivia (Plurinational State of) ^c											
10-19 years	14.2	20.0	...	12.8	18.1	14.4
20-29 years	10.9	10.7	...	8.7
Brazil ^d											
15-17 years	29.8	33.9	38.2	35.4	33.3	32.6	31.9	28.8	28.7	25.8	23.0
18-24 years	12.5	21.3	23.4	22.5	20.6	21.0	19.8	16.6	17.3	14.9	13.4
15-24 years	25.3	24.2	22.1	22.4	21.1	18.0	18.5	16.0	14.5
Chile ^e											
15-19 years	29.0	28.4	28.9	26.6	25.4	24.9	24.0	26.4	29.4	23.2	21.8
20-24 years	18.9	20.0	19.3	19.5	18.3	16.5	16.0	17.5	20.7	16.9	16.0
15-24 years	18.3	17.8	19.7	22.6	18.5	17.5
Colombia ^f											
14-26 years	31.4	30.0	29.4	27.1	25.3	23.0	20.4	21.6	23.7	23.2	21.4
Costa Rica ^g											
12-24 years	14.0	16.3	14.5	15.1	15.9	15.3	11.9	11.2	17.9	17.1	...
Dominican Republic ^h											
15-24 years	20.1	17.4	21.6	19.7	17.9	18.2	16.7	16.3	18.6	18.4	...
Ecuador ⁱ											
15-24 years	13.2	11.4	11.9	12.6	15.0	12.6	11.6	12.3	15.8	15.7	...
El Salvador ^j											
15-24 years	...	8.8	12.0	13.9	10.9	7.3	7.2	7.8	9.2	10.3	...
Honduras ^k											
10-24 years	5.6	6.6	8.5	9.5	6.8	6.9	7.2	7.7	10.1	9.6	9.7
Mexico ^l											
12-19 years	4.6	5.2	6.6	7.4
20-24 years	19.3	18.6	16.4	15.7	11.9	12.1	10.7	13.7
Nicaragua ^m											
10-24 years	35.4	34.1	33.7	30.0	26.3	23.4	18.9	16.6	18.8	18.0	15.6
Panama ⁿ											
15-24 years	22.3	29.9	25.3	21.6	18.9	23.1	18.0	18.9	21.7
Paraguay ^o											
15-19 years	15.4	21.3	19.0	16.2	15.6	27.7	14.6	12.3	13.7
20-24 years	14.2	15.1	14.8	15.8	16.1	14.9	14.3	15.9	16.7	15.7	16.1
Peru ^p											
14-24 years	13.7	12.6	14.6	12.8	13.4	10.7	12.2	10.4	12.2	10.5	14.7 ^p
Uruguay ^q											
14-24 years	36.2	40.0	39.1	33.0	29.5	29.3	25.3	21.7	21.0	20.7	18.2
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) ^r											
15-24 years	23.3	27.2	30.0	25.1	21.0	17.8	15.5	14.1	15.6	17.7	17.4
The Caribbean											
Bahamas ^s											
15-24 years	15.1	19.9	26.8	24.9	20.2	27.5
Barbados ^t											
15-24 years	23.1	23.2	26.1	22.8
Belize ^u											
15-24 years	15.5	19.2	22.3	18.9
Jamaica ^v											
15-24 years	33.0	31.1	25.7	26.3	25.5	23.6	23.7	26.5	...	30.8	30.1
Trinidad and Tobago ^w											
15-24 years	22.6	21.1	20.6	18.3	16.5	13.0	11.3	10.4

Source: International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official information from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

^a Gradual incorporation up to 31 urban areas. New measurement from 2003; data not comparable with previous years.

^b First semester.

^c Urban area. Data from 2004 based on the survey carried out between November 2003 and October 2004. Preliminary figures from 2005. Data for 2006 refer to the population aged 15-24 years.

^d Six metropolitan regions. New measurement from 2002; data not comparable with previous years.

^e National total. New measurement from 2010; data not comparable with previous years.

^f Thirteen metropolitan areas. Includes hidden unemployment.

^g National urban figures as at July of each year. New measurement from 2010; data not comparable with previous years. Data for 2010 refer to the population aged 15-24 years.

^h National urban figures as at November of each year, except 2001 (August) and 2003 (December). From 2004 on, average for four quarters. Includes hidden unemployment.

ⁱ National urban figures. From 2007, the threshold for the working-age population was raised from 10 to 16 years and over.

^j National urban figures.

^k Refers to 32 urban areas. From 2005, national total population aged 14-24 years.

^l National urban figures. New measurement from 2003; data not comparable with previous years.

^m National urban figures. Includes hidden unemployment.

ⁿ Metropolitan Lima. New measurement from 2002; data not comparable with previous years.

^o National total.

^p Data refer to April.

^q National total. Includes hidden unemployment.

Table A-4
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: URBAN PARTICIPATION RATES, 2001-2011
(Average annual rates)

Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Latin America											
Argentina ^a	56.0	55.8	60.3	60.2	59.9	60.3	59.5	58.8	59.3	58.9	59.5
Bolivia (Plurinational State of) ^b	60.6	58.0	...	58.6	55.7	58.7	57.1	...	56.9	57.3 ^c	...
Brazil ^d	56.4	55.3	57.1	57.2	56.6	56.9	56.9	57.0	56.7	57.1	57.1
Chile ^e	53.9	53.7	54.4	55.0	55.6	54.8	54.9	56.0	55.9	58.5	59.8
Colombia ^f	64.4	64.8	65.0	63.6	63.3	62.0	61.8	62.6	64.6	65.7	66.7
Costa Rica ^g	56.8	56.4	56.8	56.3	58.2	58.2	58.5	58.6	62.3	60.7	62.6
Cuba ^h	70.7	70.9	70.9	71.0	72.1	72.1	73.7	74.7	75.4	74.9	...
Dominican Republic ^h	63.1	58.3	58.9	59.1	59.5	59.1	61.3	60.1	58.9	56.9	55.2
Ecuador ⁱ	54.8	53.1	55.4	53.9	54.3	53.9	63.6	64.1	64.3	64.4	...
El Salvador ⁱ	...	61.7	61.6	58.4	53.0
Guatemala ^k	53.4	52.4	53.5	52.7	50.3	52.1	51.7	52.7	53.1 ^l	53.7 ^l	52.5 ^l
Honduras ^k	58.1	57.8	58.3	58.9	59.5	60.7	60.7	60.4	60.2	60.1	60.3
Mexico ^m	49.8	49.4	53.0	52.6	53.7	52.8	50.5	53.8	52.1
Nicaragua ⁿ	61.4	63.4	63.5	64.2	63.7	62.8	62.6	64.4	64.4	64.0	63.2
Panama ^o	60.6	60.5	59.2	62.4	60.4	57.9	59.6	61.5	62.3	62.5	62.4
Paraguay ^p	67.1	68.5	67.4	68.0	67.1	67.5	68.9	68.1	68.4	70.0	70.0
Peru ^q	49.4	49.5	48.5	48.9	49.0	49.7	49.9	50.1	48.4	49.6	51.0
Uruguay ^k	60.6	59.1	58.1	58.5	58.5	60.9	62.7	62.6	63.4	63.7	64.1
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) ^r	66.5	68.7	69.1	68.5	66.2	65.5	64.9	64.9	65.1	64.5	64.4
The Caribbean											
Bahamas ^r	76.2	76.4	76.5	75.7	76.3	75.1	76.2	76.3	73.4	...	72.3
Barbados ^r	69.5	68.5	69.2	69.4	69.6	67.9	67.8	67.6	67.0	66.6	67.6
Belize ^r	...	57.3	60.0	60.3	59.4	57.6	61.2	59.2
Jamaica ^r	62.9	65.7	64.4	64.5	64.2	64.7	64.9	65.5	63.5	62.4	62.3
Trinidad and Tobago ^r	60.7	60.9	61.6	63.0	63.7	63.9	63.5	63.5	62.7	62.1	61.6 ^s
Latin America and the Caribbean^t	58.4	58.6	59.5	59.6	59.2	59.5	59.6	59.7	59.7	60.0	60.2^u

Source: International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official information from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

^a Gradual incorporation up to 31 urban areas. New measurement from 2003; data not comparable with previous years.

^b Urban area. Data from 2004 based on the survey carried out between November 2003 and October 2004. New measurement from 2009; data not comparable with previous years.

^c First semester.

^d Six metropolitan regions. New measurement from 2002; data not comparable with previous years.

^e National total. New measurement from 2010; data not comparable with previous years.

^f Thirteen metropolitan areas. Includes hidden unemployment.

^g National urban figures as at July of each year. New measurement from 2009; data not comparable with previous years.

^h National total.

ⁱ National urban figures for August 2001, November 2002 and December 2003. From 2004 on, average for four quarters. Includes hidden unemployment.

^j National urban figures. From 2007, the threshold for the working-age population was raised from 10 to 16 years and over. Includes hidden unemployment.

^k National urban figures.

^l Data refer to May.

^m Corresponds to 32 urban areas.

ⁿ National urban figures. New measurement from 2003. Data not comparable with previous years.

^o National urban figures. Includes hidden unemployment.

^p National urban figures up to 2009. From 2010, data refer to urban areas of Asunción and the Central Department; data not comparable with previous years.

^q Metropolitan Lima. New measurement from 2002; data not comparable with previous years.

^r National total. Includes hidden unemployment.

^s Data as at second quarter.

^t Weighted average. Data adjusted for methodological changes in Argentina (2003) and Brazil (2002) and for the exclusion of hidden unemployment in Colombia, Ecuador and Panama. Does not include Guatemala.

^u Preliminary estimates.

Table A-5
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: URBAN EMPLOYMENT RATES, 2001-2011
(Average annual rates)

Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Latin America											
Argentina ^a	45.6	44.6	49.9	52.1	53.0	54.1	54.5	54.2	54.2	54.4	55.2
Bolivia (Plurinational State of) ^b	55.4	53.0	...	55.0	51.2	54.0	52.7	...	52.4	53.6 ^c	...
Brazil ^d	53.0	48.9	50.1	50.6	51.0	51.2	51.6	52.5	52.1	53.2	53.7
Chile ^e	48.6	48.4	49.3	49.5	50.4	50.5	51.0	51.7	50.5	53.7	55.5
Colombia ^f	52.7	53.4	54.2	53.8	54.5	54.0	54.8	55.3	56.2	57.6	59.1
Costa Rica ^g	53.5	52.6	53.0	52.5	54.2	54.7	55.7	55.7	57.0	56.4	57.8
Cuba ^h	67.8	68.6	69.2	69.7	70.7	70.7	72.4	73.6	74.2	73.0	...
Dominican Republic ^h	49.8	52.1	48.6	53.4	54.4	54.3	56.8	56.0	53.9	52.5	51.9
Ecuador ⁱ	51.0	49.8	52.0	50.4	50.3	50.8	59.9	60.6	59.7	60.0	...
El Salvador ⁱ	...	58.5	58.4	55.8	51.4
Guatemala ^k	50.5	49.3	49.5	48.5	47.2	49.7	49.7	50.5	50.5 ^l	50.3 ^l	48.9 ^l
Honduras ^k	56.0	55.5	55.6	55.8	56.7	57.9	57.8	57.5	56.2	56.2	56.7
Mexico ^m	44.9	43.3	47.6	48.0	49.9	49.1	47.1	49.5	46.6
Nicaragua ⁿ	51.2	53.2	53.4	55.1	56.0	56.3	57.7	60.2	59.3	59.1	59.8
Panama ^k	50.8	48.4	52.5	56.1	55.8	52.7	55.3	57.0	57.1	58.0	58.0
Paraguay ^o	60.9	62.0	61.2	61.6	60.7	61.8	63.0	62.4	62.7	64.5	64.5
Peru ^p	45.8	46.2	45.2	46.0	45.9	46.9	47.4	47.7	45.8	47.1	48.0
Uruguay ^k	51.4	49.1	48.3	50.9	51.4	53.9	56.7	57.7	58.6	59.1	60.1
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) ^h	57.1	57.9	56.7	58.0	58.0	58.9	59.4	60.2	60.0	58.9	59.0
The Caribbean											
Bahamas ^h	70.9	70.5	69.7	68.0	68.5	69.4	70.2	69.7	63.0	...	62.4
Belize ^h	62.7	61.4	61.6	62.7	63.2	61.9	62.8	62.1	60.3	59.4	60.0
Jamaica ^h	...	51.5	52.3	53.3	52.8	52.2	56.0	54.3
Trinidad and Tobago ^h	53.5	56.4	57.1	57.0	57.0	58.0	58.6	58.5	56.3	54.7	54.4
Trinidad y Tabago ^h	54.1	54.6	55.2	57.8	58.6	59.9	59.9	60.6	59.4	58.4	58.0 ^q
Latin America and the Caribbean^r	52.4	52.0	52.9	53.5	53.9	54.5	55.0	55.4	54.9	55.6	56.1^s

Source: International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official information from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

^a Gradual incorporation up to 31 urban areas. New measurement from 2003; data not comparable with previous years.

^b Urban area. Data from 2004 based on the survey carried out between November 2003 and October 2004. New measurement from 2009; data not comparable with previous years.

^c First semester.

^d Six metropolitan regions. New measurement from 2002; data not comparable with previous years.

^e National total. New measurement from 2010; data not comparable with previous years.

^f Thirteen metropolitan areas.

^g National urban figures as at July of each year. New measurement from 2009; data not comparable with previous years.

^h National total.

ⁱ National urban figures for August 2001, November 2002 and December 2003. From 2004 on, average for four quarters.

^j National urban figures. From 2007, the threshold for the working-age population was raised from 10 to 16 years and over.

^k National urban figures.

^l Data refer to May.

^m Corresponds to 32 urban areas.

ⁿ National urban figures. New measurement from 2003; data not comparable with previous years.

^o National urban figures up to 2009. From 2010, data refer to urban areas of Asunción and the Central Department; data not comparable with previous years.

^p Metropolitan Lima. New measurement from 2002; data not comparable with previous years.

^q Data as at second quarter.

^r Weighted average. Data adjusted for methodological changes in Argentina (2003) and Brazil (2002).

^s Preliminary estimates.



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