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The employment situation in Latin America and the Caribbean

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Recovery of employment: towards a sustainable model

Foreword

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“Like the rest of the world, the Latin American and Caribbean region is also confronted with the challenge of transforming the way it produces so that its economies can develop along tracks that are sustainable in the long term”.

“A great challenge ahead is to create green jobs that combine decent work with environmentally sustainable production patterns”.

The adverse effects on Latin America and the Caribbean of the global economic and financial crisis, the worst since the 1930s, have been considerably less than was once feared. Although a run of growth was cut short in 2009 and regional output shrank by 1.9%, the impact of the crisis was limited by the application of countercyclical fiscal and monetary policies by many of the region’s governments. The recovery in the economies, particularly in South America, has gone hand-in-hand with the rapid resurgence of the emerging economies of Asia, with all the favourable consequences this has had for global trade.

A similar pattern may be observed regarding the impact of the crisis on labour markets in Latin America and the Caribbean. Although millions of people lost their jobs or had to trade down to lower-quality work, levels of employment (including formal employment) fell by less than originally foreseen. At the same time, real wages rose slightly in a context of falling inflation. The labour market thus stabilized domestic demand, and this contributed to the recovery that began in many countries in late 2009.

Improved international trade and financing conditions, and the pick-up in domestic demand driven by macroeconomic policies, have led different commentators to estimate growth in the region’s economy at some 6% in 2010.

As detailed in the first part of this edition of the *Bulletin*, the upturn has been manifested at the regional level by the creation of formal employment, a rise in the employment rate, a decline in joblessness and a moderate increase in real wages. Specifically, it is estimated that the regional unemployment rate will have dropped by 0.6 percentage points, from 8.1% in 2009 to 7.5% in 2010.¹

The performance of different countries and subregions has been very uneven, however. On the one hand, there is Brazil, where high economic growth has been accompanied by vigorous creation of formal jobs and the unemployment rate has dropped to levels not seen in a long time. Other countries in South America have benefited from strong demand for natural resources from the Asian countries. Combined with higher domestic demand, this has raised their economic growth rates and had a positive impact on employment indicators. On the other hand, the recovery is still very weak in certain countries and subregions, particularly in the Caribbean, with employment indicators continuing to worsen.

¹ Different weighting methods and coverages may be used to calculate the regional rate, which accounts for small differences between the regional unemployment data reported in this *Bulletin* and those shown in *Preliminary Overview of the Economies of Latin America and the Caribbean 2010*, which quotes unemployment rates of 8.2% for 2009 and 7.6% for 2010.

Thus, the recovery in the region's economy in 2010 may be characterized as dynamic but uneven. Growth estimates for 2011 are less favourable. The risks associated with the imbalances in the world economy and the withdrawal of countercyclical fiscal packages are likely to cause the region to grow more slowly in 2011. Accordingly, a small further reduction of between 0.2 and 0.4 percentage points in the unemployment rate is projected for 2011.

However, these indicators of recovery do not guarantee growth with decent work in the long term. To bolster the improvement in labour market indicators and generate more productive employment and decent work, the region's countries need to strengthen their macroeconomic policies, improve regional and global policy coordination, identify and remove bottlenecks in the labour market itself and enhance instruments designed to promote greater equality.

Like the rest of the world, the Latin American and Caribbean region is also confronted with the challenge of transforming the way it produces so that its economies can develop along tracks that are sustainable in the long term. Climate change and the consequent challenge of developing and strengthening low-carbon production and consumption patterns will also affect the way people work. A great challenge ahead is to create green jobs that combine decent work with environmentally sustainable production patterns. From this perspective, the second part of this *Bulletin* discusses the green jobs approach, offering some information on the challenges and opportunities involved in moving towards a sustainable economy in the region and presenting a set of options for addressing environmental issues and the repercussions of climate change in the world of work.

Although the debate about the green jobs concept is fairly new in the region, examples already exist and a number of countries have moved ahead with the application of policies and programmes in this area. Costa Rica has formulated a National Climate Change Strategy, for example, whose foremost achievements include professional training in natural-resource management. In Brazil, fuel production from biomass has increased and social housing with solar panelling is being built. A number of other countries in the region are making progress in areas such as ecotourism, sustainable agriculture and infrastructure for climate change adaptation, and in formalizing the work of people who recycle household waste.

The shift towards a more environmentally sustainable economy may cause jobs to be destroyed in some economic sectors and created in others. The working world will inevitably undergo major changes. If the issue is approached by way of social dialogue and appropriate public policies, there is a chance to use this shift to create more decent jobs, thereby contributing to growth in the economy, the construction of higher levels of equality and protection for the environment.

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A. The employment situation in Latin America and the Caribbean between January and September 2010

Beginning in the second half of 2009, the region experienced an economic recovery, which is stronger and occurring more rapidly than was foreseen one year ago. Among the factors supporting this reactivation is the rapid growth of some Asian economies, China in particular, whose sustained demand for products in the region has helped stimulate the recovery of exports, especially in the case of South America.

Economic growth in the United States and Europe, although moderate and thus far somewhat unsteady, boosted demand and helped create a better outlook for Mexico and the Central American countries. In addition, a number of countries in the region were able to implement countercyclical fiscal and monetary policies, thanks to their fiscal management during the preceding six-years of rising prices for raw materials and sustained economic growth, and this too helped to lend momentum to domestic demand.

Accordingly, economists forecast a growth rate for the region of 6.0% (ECLAC, 2010a). Nevertheless, performance by country has been quite uneven. The countries of the Southern Common Market (MERCOSUR) and Peru are at the forefront of estimates, followed by Mexico and Central America, which recorded moderate growth rates, while the Caribbean countries have not seen significant benefits from the global economy's resurgence.

Nevertheless, it will be hard to sustain in 2011 all of the conditions that favoured regional growth in 2010. World economic imbalances must be taken into account, along with the difficulty some countries face in sustaining current countercyclical measures without risking macroeconomic balance or reducing the pre-existing idle-capacity margin that has made it possible to meet foreign demand promptly. In view of these factors, a more modest growth rate of 4.2% (ECLAC, 2010a) for the region is expected for 2011.

1. The main labour indicator trends for the first three quarters of 2010

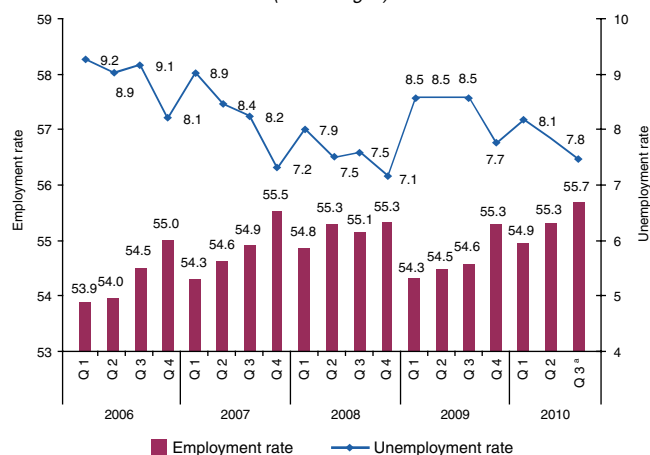
Similar to economic growth, labour indicators surpassed initial expectations. Although the economic recovery in the region continues to greatly depend on the performance of more developed economies and on the strength of Asia, the first three quarters of 2010 have shown that the appreciable rhythm of the recovery has had positive effects on labour markets.

Labour indicators for the first nine months of 2010 for a group of nine countries in the region, selected because they produce quarterly information, show a sustained labour market recovery, which began in the second half of last year.

Indeed, better labour conditions in the majority of the countries helped to lower unemployment throughout the year, with a year-on-year reduction of 8.5% to 7.4% in the third quarter of 2010 in the nine countries that reported quarterly data. As will be shown below, this result is due to an increase in labour demand, which evidences the rebound in economic growth and which was enough to compensate for the greater pressure exerted by the labour force (see figure 1).

Notably, regional performance has been influenced by the rapid recovery of Brazil, which accounts for nearly 40% of Latin America's Economically Active Population (EAP). If this country is excluded from the calculations, during the first three quarters of the year, the unemployment rate, compared to the same period for 2009, would fall only four tenths of a percentage point instead of seven tenths.

Figure 1
LATIN AMERICA (NINE COUNTRIES): EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT RATES, FIRST QUARTER OF 2006 TO THIRD QUARTER OF 2010
(Percentages)

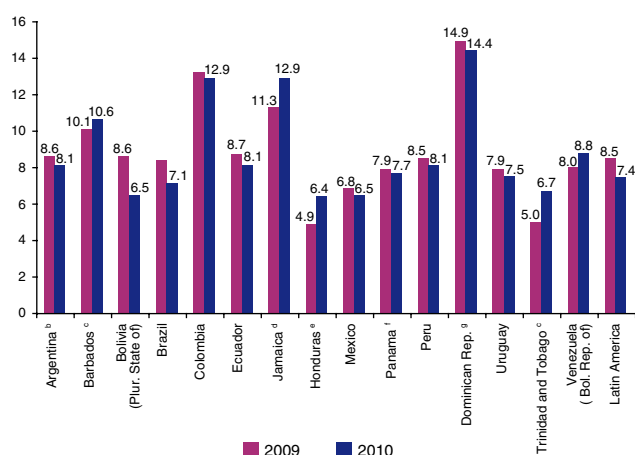


Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of information from the household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

^a Preliminary data.

Labour market trends by country varied. The unemployment rate over the first nine months fell in 10 of the 15 countries with available information –Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, the Plurinational State of Bolivia, Mexico, Panama, Peru, the Dominican Republic, and Uruguay. Conversely, it rose in the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Barbados, Honduras, Jamaica, and Trinidad and Tobago (see figure 2).²

Figure 2
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (SELECTED COUNTRIES):
URBAN UNEMPLOYMENT RATE, JANUARY-SEPTEMBER 2009
AND JANUARY-SEPTEMBER 2010^a
(Percentages)



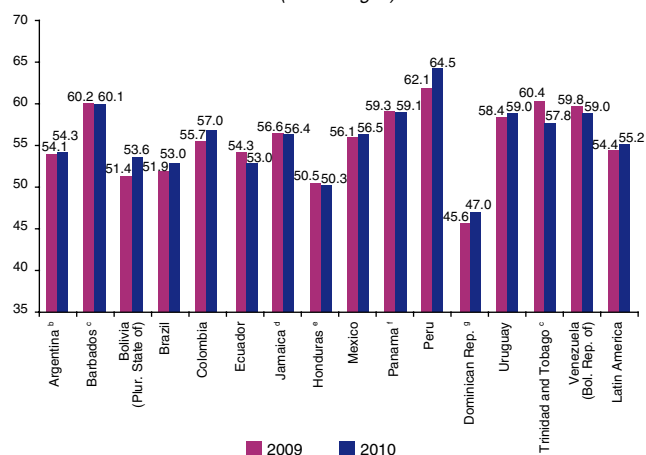
Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

- ^a For Mexico and Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, national total. Data are preliminary.
^b First semester.
^c First quarter.
^d Average for January-April.
^e Data refer to May.
^f Data refer to April.

In Brazil, Chile, Colombia, the Plurinational State of Bolivia, Mexico, Peru, the Dominican Republic, and Uruguay, the unemployment rate fell due to an increase in employment levels that was greater or equal to the growth in labour supply. In Argentina the reason was a slight bump in labour demand in parallel with a shrinking labour force. In Ecuador and Panama, lower urban unemployment was the result of a smaller labour force and not of a jump in employment, which fell during the period analysed (see figures 3 and 4).

Unemployment rose in Trinidad and Tobago, Jamaica, and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, primarily due to a reduction in employment levels, the impact of which was even attenuated by a shrinking labour force. In Barbados and Honduras, the unemployment rate rose because of a reduction in labour demand and a slight increase in the size of the labour force.

Figure 3
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (SELECTED COUNTRIES):
URBAN EMPLOYMENT RATE, JANUARY-SEPTEMBER 2009 AND
JANUARY-SEPTEMBER 2010^a
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

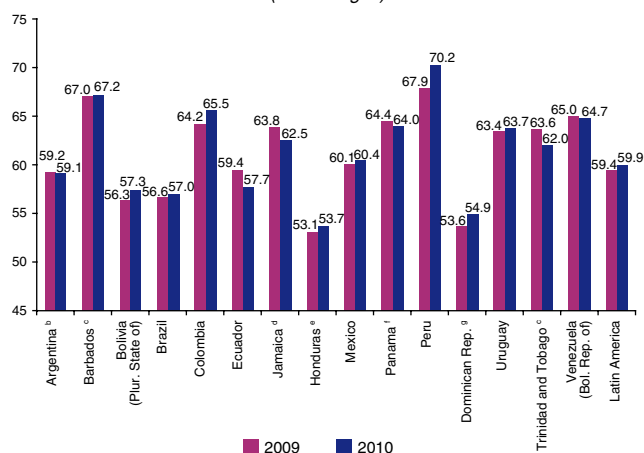
- ^a For Mexico and Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, national total. Data are preliminary.
^b First semester.
^c First quarter.
^d Average for January-April.
^e Data refer to May.
^f Data refer to April.

The positive effect of the economic recovery can be seen most clearly in labour demand and in the rise in the employment rate over the first nine months of 2010, compared to the same period in 2009 (see figure 3). The employment rate rose on average nearly a full percentage point for the nine Latin American countries (see figure 1). Significant improvement is seen in Peru (2.4 percentage points), the Plurinational State of Bolivia (2.2 percentage points), the Dominican Republic (1.4 percentage points), Colombia (1.3 percentage points), and Brazil (1.1 percentage points). Uruguay (0.6), Mexico (0.4), and Argentina (0.2) recorded more modest gains, while Barbados (-0.1), Honduras, Jamaica, and Panama (each with -0.2), the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela (-0.8), Ecuador (-1.3), and Trinidad and Tobago (-2.6) experienced employment contraction.

In the first nine months of 2010, widespread improvements in the demand for labour led to an increase in the labour force (labour supply), for men as well as for women, as evidenced by the 0.5 percentage point increase in the regional average for labour-force size, which rose from 59.4% to 59.9% (see figure 4). Peru recorded the largest hike (2.3 percentage points), followed by Colombia (1.3), and the Dominican Republic (1.3). Conversely, the labour force shrank in countries where the employment rate fell sharply. Ecuador experienced the most pronounced labour force contraction (-1.7 percentage points), followed by Trinidad and Tobago (-1.6), and Jamaica (-1.3).

² Chile is conducting the new National Employment Survey, whose results are not comparable to the previous measurement.

Figure 4
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (SELECTED COUNTRIES):
URBAN PARTICIPATION RATE, JANUARY-SEPTEMBER 2009
AND JANUARY-SEPTEMBER 2010^a
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

^a For Mexico and Bolivian Republic of Venezuela, national total. Data are preliminary.

^b First semester.

^c First quarter.

^d Average for January-April.

^e Data refer to May.

^f Data refer to August.

^g Data refer to April.

Figure 5
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (SELECTED COUNTRIES):
UNEMPLOYMENT RATE BY SEX, JANUARY-SEPTEMBER 2009 AND
JANUARY-SEPTEMBER 2010^a
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

^a For Mexico and Bolivian Republic of Venezuela, national total. Data are preliminary.

^b First semester.

^c First quarter.

^d Average for January-April.

^e Data refer to August.

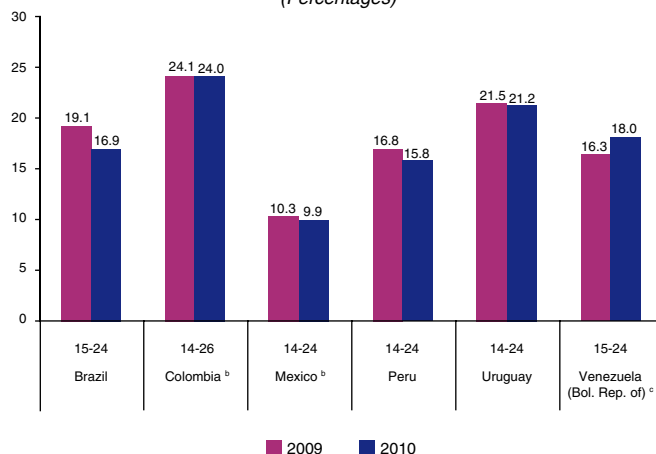
^f Data refer to April. The figure for 2010 is preliminary.

In general, the unemployment rates by sex in the countries with available information for the first three quarters of 2010 follow the same trends as the aggregate unemployment rate. In these countries, the adjusted average reduction in female unemployment was similar to men. Accordingly, the female unemployment rate fell from 10.1% to 9.4%, while for men it fell from 7.4% to 6.8%. There are, however, dissimilar variations in some cases. Jamaica, for example, saw its unemployment rate for women jump 2.4 percentage points and only 1.1 percentage points for men. On the other extreme is the Dominican Republic, where the female unemployment rate fell 1.3 percentage points, while for men it fell only 0.2 percentage points (see figure 5).

As in the same period of the previous year, the unemployment rate for women is 1.4 times greater than for men. The largest gap is seen in Jamaica (1.7 times) and the narrowest in Mexico, where male and female unemployment rates do not differ significantly on the national level and are even lower for women in 32 metropolitan areas.

In the seven countries with available information on youth unemployment, the downward trend in the aggregate unemployment rate for the first nine months of 2010, when compared to same period in 2009, is also seen in the youth rate in Brazil, Colombia, Peru, and Uruguay. Nevertheless, the rate only dips below pre-crisis levels in Brazil and Uruguay. In the Bolivian Republic of Venezuela this indicator continues its upward trend (see figure 6).

Figure 6
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (SIX COUNTRIES): YOUTH
URBAN UNEMPLOYMENT RATE, JANUARY-SEPTEMBER 2009
AND JANUARY-SEPTEMBER 2010^a
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

^a For Mexico and Bolivian Republic of Venezuela, national total. Data are preliminary.

^b First semester.

^c Preliminary data.

The unemployment rate among youth when compared to adults older than 25 is 4.5 times greater in Uruguay, 3.4 times greater in Brazil, and 2.6 times greater in the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela. As regards unemployment trends for these age groups in the first three quarters of 2010 and 2009, Brazil and Uruguay were more successful at reducing unemployment for youth than adults. Conversely, in the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, unemployment among youth increased more rapidly than for adults.

Job creation by category is a quality employment indicator. Among the seven countries with available information for the first half of 2010, compared to same period of 2009, wage-earning employment expanded at a faster rate than

self-employment only in Brazil and Panama. In Colombia, Mexico, Peru, and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, however, self-employment grew more rapidly. Of note, Peru reversed the negative trend in the creation of wage-earning jobs recorded in the first half of 2009, while the opposite was true for the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela (see table 1). Along these lines, even though several countries recorded a significant rally in formal employment, as will be demonstrated below, strong job creation was not a marked response to a growing demand for labour, as was the case in 2004-2007. In several countries, new opportunities emerged for generating income independently and many people launched self-employment ventures.

Table 1
LATIN AMERICA (FIVE COUNTRIES): YEAR-ON-YEAR RATES OF VARIATION IN EMPLOYMENT, BY EMPLOYMENT CATEGORY
AND SECTOR OF ECONOMIC ACTIVITY, FIRST HALF OF 2009 AND 2010
(Percentages)

Country	Employed		Employment categories						Economic activities							
			Wage earner		Self-employed		Manufacturing		Construction		Trade		Agriculture, livestock/fishing		Other ^a	
	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010
Argentina (31 urban areas)	1.8	0.7	1.3	0.6	4.7	0.9	-2.9	1.2	5.5	-2.1	-0.2	2.7	3.3	0.3
Brazil (6 metropolitan regions)	0.7	3.6	1.5	4.4	-1.0	2.7	-2.0 ^b	3.4 ^b	1.4	9.5	0.6	0.8	1.5	3.8
Colombia (National)																
National	4.0	4.4	-0.1	1.7	5.9	6.5	4.7	0.5	8.4	0.4	6.4	6.6	4.2	3.8	1.5	5.1
13 metropolitan areas	2.6	3.8	1.1	2.6	4.4	4.5	-0.9	-0.8	5.3	2.8	6.7	5.8	1.2	4.4
Mexico																
National	-1.1	2.3	0.1	1.6	1.1	2.7	-7.0	3.2	-2.4	-1.4	-0.8	3.0	-2.9	3.6	1.9	2.1
32 urban areas	-1.0	2.4	0.1	1.4	0.0	4.8	-7.9	2.9	-2.6	0.4	-1.2	3.0	1.5	2.3
Panama (National) ^c	1.3	1.0	-0.2	3.1	6.2	-2.0	2.1	-3.4	1.1	1.4	-1.6	0.4	2.1	-2.4	2.6	3.9
Peru (Metropolitan Lima)	0.4	5.7	-0.1	2.3	2.0 ^d	10.2 ^d	-2.7	9.0	2.4	14.7	-3.1	6.7	3.1	2.9
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) (National)	2.6	0.7	2.2	-1.8	4.3	7.2

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

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

^b Includes the extractive and processing industries and the production and distribution of electricity, gas and water.

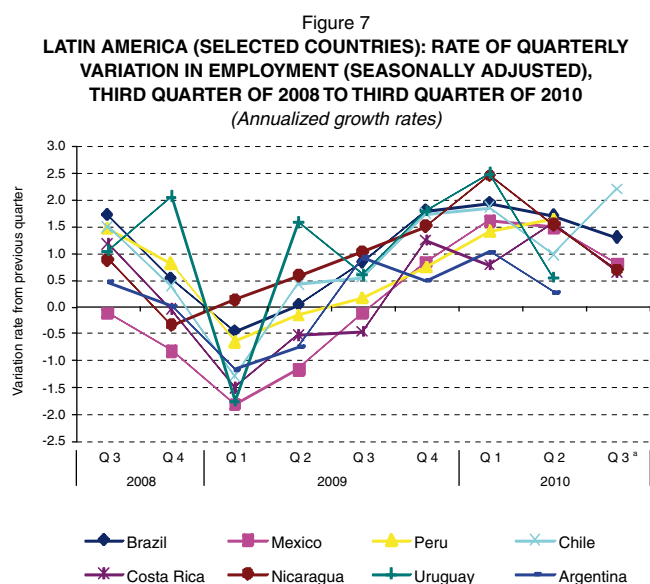
^c Data refer to August.

^d Includes all non-wage earners.

From a national perspective, the rise in manufacturing jobs in total employment was a change in trend in Argentina, Brazil, Mexico, and Peru, insofar as the negative growth rates of the first six months of 2009 turned positive in the first half of 2010. In Colombia, however, the national growth rate was slower and continued to fall in 13 metropolitan areas. The situation was more varied in other areas of activity. Employment in construction rose rapidly in Brazil and Peru (at much higher rates than in 2009) and at lower rates in

Colombia and Panama, but continued to fall at the national level in Mexico. Trade, however, increased in every country with available information. In some cases this would seem to reflect the increase in domestic demand; Nevertheless, in others it appears to be a solution to the limited job creation in different sectors. Trade-sector employment significantly grew in Colombia and Peru, whereas its expansion in Mexico and Panama stood in contrast to the contraction seen in the first six months of 2009.

Formal employment bore the brunt of the economic crisis, in some countries, such as Mexico, more than in others. Nevertheless, in the third and especially in the fourth quarter of 2009, formal employment in the countries with available information had already begun to grow again in seasonally adjusted terms compared to the second quarter (see figure 7). In the first and second quarters of 2010, many countries reached very high formal-employment growth rates, as evidenced by the year-on-year growth rate of 5%, which was even higher in Brazil, Chile, Nicaragua, and Uruguay.³



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

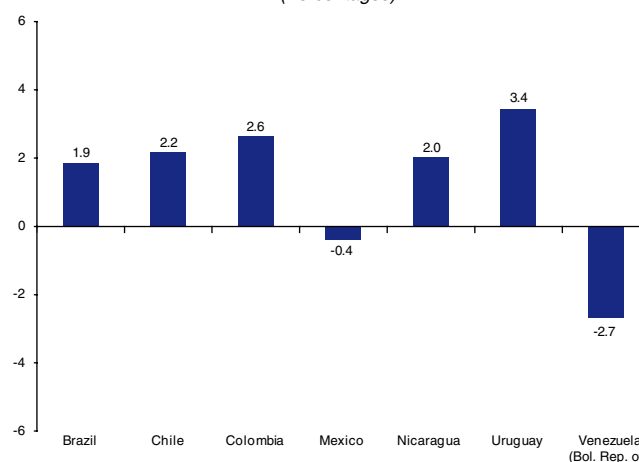
^a Preliminary figures.

Formal employment continued to grow in the third quarter of 2010. Yet, with the exception of Chile, expansion rates began to slow down, a trend that was already visible when comparing the second quarter with the first. This trend reflects a certain deceleration of economic growth toward the end of the year that is expected to continue in 2011.

For the first nine months of 2010, the information about formal-employment wage trends in seven Latin American countries shows a slowdown of salary increases in real terms, as a result of restrained payroll increases and the end of the period of falling inflation (see figure 8). Indeed, during the first nine months of 2010, regional inflation rose slightly almost everywhere compared to 2009, representing a reverse in the trend.

Nevertheless, despite the deceleration of wage increases, in the majority of the countries with available information, real wages rose, such as in Uruguay (3.4%) and Colombia (2.6%), and more moderately in Chile (2.2%), Nicaragua (2%), and Brazil (1.9%). Meanwhile, purchasing-power losses were recorded in Mexico, and, in particular, in the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela (-2.7%), where inflation remained relatively high and the purchasing power of wages continued to decline.

Figure 8
LATIN AMERICA (SEVEN COUNTRIES): YEAR-ON-YEAR VARIATION IN AVERAGE REAL WAGES FOR FORMAL EMPLOYMENT, JANUARY-SEPTEMBER 2010^a
(Percentages)



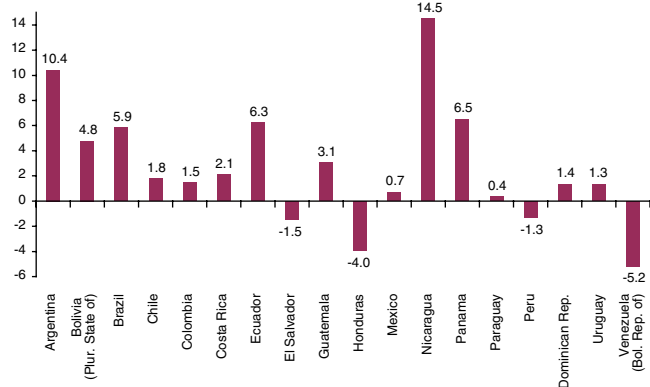
Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of information from the household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

^a Preliminary data.

The real minimum wage, based on the weighted average for the 18 countries with available information on the first nine months of 2010, grew nearly 3.5% compared to the same period of the previous year, although at a slower pace (5.3% in 2009) (see figure 9). The trend in the real minimum wage was mixed in 2010, insofar as it rose in 14 countries and fell in four. The largest increases in minimum-wage purchasing power occurred in Nicaragua (14.5%), Argentina (10.4%), Panama (6.5%), Ecuador (6.3%), Brazil (5.9%), the Plurinational State of Bolivia (4.8%), and Guatemala (3.1%); in the rest of the countries where the real minimum wage rose, the increase was less than 3%. Decreases were seen in the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela (-5.2%), Honduras (-4%), and El Salvador and Peru, where contraction was less than -2%.

³ These growth rates were recorded between January and August or September of 2010, over the same time period of the previous year. Not all of this employment, however, refers to the creation of new jobs, given that it may include pre-existing but unregistered positions that were subsequently formalized. This may explain the apparent contradiction with the information presented in table 1.

Figure 9
**LATIN AMERICA (SELECTED COUNTRIES): YEAR-ON-YEAR VARIATION
 IN AVERAGE REAL MINIMUM WAGES, JANUARY-SEPTEMBER 2010**
 (Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

In short, analysis confirms that a labour-market recovery is taking place in several countries in the region and that employment has returned to pre-crisis levels. Consequently, forecasts for the entire year expect regional unemployment to fall from 8.1% in 2009 to 7.5%.⁴ Nevertheless, the equality gaps that existed before the international financial crisis persist. Additionally, a portion of growth and job creation in 2010 is due to positive external conditions and to effective countercyclical policies, which is why the rhythm of the recovery over the next few years is uncertain. In view of expected slower growth in 2011, the unemployment rate, according to estimates, may fall 0.2 to 0.4 percentage points. Economic and social policies oriented towards achieving sustainability and greater equality are therefore needed to boost the creation of productive employment and decent jobs. The need and opportunity to generate new employment arises in the context of the challenge of bringing about productive transformation capable of building sustainable economies while taking into account multiple environmental threats.

⁴ See footnote 1.

B. Green jobs for sustainable development with decent work in Latin America and the Caribbean

1. Introduction: the double challenge

Although the region has resumed economic growth and job creation, this alone does not guarantee a path of long-term expansion with decent work.

Recovering the jobs lost during the recent economic crisis and environmental issues—including climate change, pollution, and scarcity of natural resources—are among the challenges facing the countries of Latin America and the Caribbean. Failure to address these issues can lead to economic, social, and environmental implications, and, consequently, repercussions on income and poverty as a result of the deterioration of farming conditions. These consequences could possibly become a serious obstacle to achieving the pledges made by the countries in the region to work toward the eight Millennium Development Goals, particularly as they pertain to poverty reduction and environmental conservation, whose targets are supposed to be achieved by 2015.

In this international setting—marked by the demands imposed by the recent economic crisis, job scarcity, and problems stemming from climate change—the countries of Latin America and the Caribbean face the challenge of creating economies with less carbon, to achieve a virtuous and sustainable standard of development, which combines economic growth, equity, and sustainability (ECLAC, 2010b; 2009b).

2. What are green jobs?

The concept of green jobs stems from a proposal made by the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and the International Labour Organization (ILO), for their promotion through social dialogue between the decision-makers of different countries. The idea is to meet environmental degradation and the social challenge head-on, with a view to preventing climate instability and offering decent work, while addressing the constant rise in population and in turn incorporating people who are excluded from social and economic development (UNEP/ILO, 2008; Poschen, 2007).

Green jobs are defined as those that make a decisive contribution to the transition toward an economy with fewer carbon emissions, with the aim of preventing the irreversible and dangerous effects of climate change on companies and workers. This definition includes jobs in emerging sectors—such as renewable energy source generation—and jobs that help reduce pollution levels in more traditional sectors of the economy.

To reach this goal it is necessary to address the sustainability problems with fossil fuel consumption and crop rotation, particularly in those countries in the region with a specialized productive model based on the intensive use of natural resources. This demands changes, for example, in the forms of power generation and use associated with productive processes, with a view to reaching sustainable growth with less energy consumption per unit produced and less environmental impact (Samaniego, 2009).

Regionally, significant headway can be seen in clean production initiatives. A recent study (ECLAC, 2010b) points to the establishment of sustainable consumption and production policies, programmes and plans in the majority of the countries studied (14 of 20). As regards sustainable consumption, the most concrete examples are related to government procurement. Nevertheless, progress in measurable terms is not so promising. More than 80% of the countries declared not having achieved significant progress, which can, in part, be attributed to the fact that these mechanisms were recently introduced. Continued support for these kind of government initiatives will help propel the generation of green jobs, in addition to leaving the region with businesses and working environments better equipped to handle the repercussions of climate change.

Worldwide, the promotion of green jobs entails multiple initiatives for the creation or productive restructuring of businesses in different economic sectors, from farming to construction and transportation, especially in economic activities associated with water treatment, energy efficiency, greenhouse gas (GHG) reduction, and solid waste management.

In the region, there have been some experiences with the implementation of the concept of green jobs in national programmes, for example: in Brazil, in the biofuel sector and in the construction of social housing; in Costa Rica and Guatemala in ecotourism and sustainable agriculture; and in Haiti, where infrastructure has been adapted to climate change (ILO, 2009b; ILO, 2010a).

In the specific case of Brazil, in 2008 nearly 2.6 million green jobs existed, or nearly 6.7% of all formal employment. These jobs are associated with six groups of economic activities (see table 1). Most green jobs are found in the transportation and

Table 1
BRAZIL: NUMBER OF GREEN JOBS PER ECONOMIC ACTIVITY, 2008

Economic activity groups	Number of jobs
Forest management and production	139 768
Renewable energy distribution and generation	547 569
Waste and environmental risk management, treatment	303 210
Product and material recovery, repair, and maintenance	435 737
Public transportation and alternative transportation by land or air	797 249
Telecommunications and telephone services	429 526

Source: International Labour Organization (ILO), *Empregos verdes no Brasil: quantos são, onde estão e como evoluirão nos próximos anos*, Brasília, 2009.

renewable energy sectors; others are associated with recycling, forestry, and telecommunications. The most promising sectors with the greatest potential for green job creation in Brazil are recycling, biofuel, and sustainable construction (ILO, 2009a).

Renewable sources of energy and energy efficiency have, perhaps, the greatest potential for reducing GHG emissions and

3. A strategy for the transition to green jobs

Traditionally, environmental policy was seen as adverse to job creation. Yet, the economic transition toward greater environmental sustainability has enormous potential for job creation, although this will not happen automatically. What is needed is a strategy that identifies risks and opportunities involved.

The transition's net result on jobs is the difference between how many jobs (gross) are lost in replaced sectors and activities and how many are added (gross) in the new ones. Studies in different countries have so far indicated that gross creation is superior to gross loss, resulting in the net creation of jobs, although some sectors or areas may experience net losses.

This restructuring poses risks as well as opportunities for the creation of decent work; however, well-conceived public policy makes it possible to explore the synergies between the two objectives: meeting environmental challenges and promoting social inclusion. For example, according to estimates, a modest tax on CO₂ emissions would lead to the creation of 14.3 million jobs globally within five years, if collected revenues are channelled into social security benefits, which would make it possible to reduce wage-earners' tax liabilities while maintaining the same level of protection. The effect might even be larger if the same amount was used for incentives for green industries (ILO, 2009c).

Beyond these general changes to fiscal policy, there is a need to review different economic sectors and their potential for swiftly implementing the transformations that meet the two-

creating jobs at the same time. In construction, for example, substantially reducing the carbon footprint of residences and buildings would be possible by supplying them with renewable energy. In turn, this would lead to more efficient climate-adapted homes and offices.

Furthermore, the potential for creating jobs in the recycling sector bears mentioning. Secondary production, using recycled paper, plastics, glass, and metal, requires less energy than primary production. Consequently, it may be considered an alternative solution for promoting productive models that use less natural resources and energy and produce less pollution, thus improving people's health (UNEP/ILO, 2008). According to World Bank estimates, nearly 1% of the urban population in developing countries works in recycling.

Nevertheless, many of these recycling jobs, even if they reduce pressure on natural resources, cannot be considered decent work, given that they are unhealthy occupations, with a high level of informality and low profits. For this reason, the focus of green jobs is on integrating recycling workers into the formal economy and on creating decent jobs in this sector.

pronged goal of making the economy more sustainable, while creating jobs at the same time.

In the renewable energy sector, for example, estimates indicate that nearly 2.3 million jobs have been created worldwide in recent years (UNEP/ILO, 2008). Generating jobs in this sector in every country entails creating conditions that favour investment in sources of renewable energy, as well as providing professional training in this field for workers and businesspeople.

In this regard, Brazil is a good example of the results that are possible with public support and stronger technical and institutional capacity for energy innovation, in this case in biomass ethanol production to reduce fossil fuel consumption. Because of its efforts, Brazil is now the second largest ethanol producer in the world, after the United States, and the owner of an industry that has created a large number of green jobs, above all in the automobile industry by converting ethanol into car fuel (ECLAC, 2009a; ILO, 2009a).

One of the main obstacles facing the implementation of green-jobs policies is the need to coordinate the policies of government institutions, which have in the past been uncoordinated. Green-jobs policies must combine the efforts of the ministries in charge of social and labour issues with those of their economic and environmental counterparts.

For example, gaps in worker training and qualification can often represent one bottleneck in the implementation of green-jobs policies. Such gaps may significantly limit the

potential for job creation. Interinstitutional coordination is needed to design training and qualification programmes and policies that make it possible for workers to join the new fields of green production. Furthermore, these policies must include a strategy for promoting gender equality, to ensure that women have access to positions in non-traditional sectors.

In construction, for example, sustainable building initiatives shall require new expertise and abilities, especially when it comes to installing low-flow showers, new thermal insulation materials, solar panels, and low consumption technologies, such as light bulbs and home appliances, aimed at achieving better ventilation and heating for homes, offices, and places of work. The ILO and the National Women's Service in Chile are reviewing the gaps that exist in labour training, with a view to developing the necessary expertise of men and women who are interested in working in this sector.

The National Strategy on Climate Change of Costa Rica proposes that every institution of the country draft plans for minimizing the effects of climate change following five points of action: mitigation, capacity development, metrics, education, and adaptation. Educational institutions have made the most headway implementing the strategy, and 25 universities and professional training institutions now offer natural resource management programmes. The topics of study include tourism, agroindustry

and fishing, natural sciences, industry, engineering, business management, energy, and project management. Traditionally, men have dominated the sectors with the greatest green-job creating potential: engineering, agriculture, technology, and energy. An increasingly more significant number of women in Costa Rica, however, is receiving education and training in these fields and seeking opportunities in natural resource management, tourism, and education, etc. (ILO, 2010b).

With advice from ILO, Brazil decided to include solar collectors for water heating in the "Mi casa – mi vida" social housing programme, which will mean building some 500,000 homes with solar energy. Most of the building costs are quickly recouped because of a 40% reduction in electricity bills, which allows occupants to spend money elsewhere, such as on food and education. From the labour perspective, nearly 18,000 additional jobs stand to be created for equipment installation alone (ILO, 2009a).

Several countries in the region, including Brazil, Chile, Ecuador, Peru and the Plurinational State of Bolivia are making progress in formalizing the situation of recycling workers. Measures that have been implemented to improve their working conditions include the creation of institutional frameworks, community or municipal infrastructure, the establishment of cooperatives, and broad social dialogue.

4. Social dialogue and environmental policy

The transition toward a sustainable economy will inevitably have significant impact on the world of labour. Cooperation is therefore essential between the State, businesses, and labour for fairly distributing costs and benefits, installing clean technology, and making progress in ecological goods and services.

Indeed, the creation of opportunities for tripartite talks is essential, in which social partners can propose and engage with policies, programmes, and plans associated with the fostering of an environmentally-friendly economy, green jobs, and decent work for all.

One such opportunity is the social dialogue established in the province of Santa Fe (Argentina) during the creation of the Provincial Advisory Board for Cleaner Production. This board is part of the Cleaner Production Programme, which is based on cooperation between the public and private sectors to promote greater environmental efficiency.

The board provides the opportunity for exchange between the provincial government, provincial technical organizations, small and medium-sized businesses, workers, universities, and environmental non-governmental organizations (NGO).

Its aim is to support local governments and small business in the implementation of environmental protection measures and environmentally sustainable productive practices. It also drafts proposals and makes recommendations to the provincial government.

Other bodies for tripartite environmental talks exist, for example, in Brazil, with the National Council for the Environment, and in Chile, with the Environmental Ministry's Advisory Board.⁵

These tripartite authorities are all the more important given the climate challenges facing regional economies. This type of arena serves to set priorities, design strategies, and make policy proposals for moving toward a low-carbon sustainable economy through the generation of green jobs.

Because of their impact and consequences, environmental degradation and climate change currently constitute the fundamental challenge for tripartite social talks and an opportunity for launching a process revolving around the Green Jobs Programme, with a view to making headway in achieving sustainable development with decent work in the region.

⁵ Until 2010 it was called the National Commission for the Environment.

Summary

This bulletin presents green jobs as a way to help reduce the environmental impact of economic activity to reach levels of environmental sustainability, while at the same time creating decent employment opportunities. To this aim, it illustrates

previous experiences with challenges and opportunities in the transition toward a sustainable regional economy, as well as a series of options for discussing environmental issues and the repercussions of climate change on labour.⁶

⁶ For more information visit www.ilo.org/greenjobs.

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Annex

Table A-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-September	
Latin America												
Argentina ^a	15.1	17.4	19.7	17.3	13.6	11.6	10.2	8.5	7.9	8.7	8.6 ^p	8.1 ^p
Bolivia (Plurinational State of) ^b	7.5	8.5	8.7	9.2	6.2	8.2	8.0	7.7	6.7	7.9	8.6 ^p	6.5 ^p
Brazil ^c	7.1	6.2	11.7	12.3	11.5	9.8	10.0	9.3	7.9	8.1	8.4	7.1
Chile ^d	9.7	9.9	9.8	9.5	10.0	9.2	7.8	7.1	7.8	9.7	...	8.5 ^q
Colombia ^e	17.3	18.2	17.6	16.6	15.3	13.9	12.9	11.4	11.5	13.0	13.2	12.9
Costa Rica ^f	5.2	5.8	6.8	6.7	6.7	6.9	6.0	4.8	4.8	7.6
Cuba ^d	5.4	4.1	3.3	2.3	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.6	1.7
Dominican Republic ^m	13.9	15.6	16.1	16.7	18.4	17.9	16.2	15.6	14.1	14.9	14.9 ^s	14.4 ^s
Ecuador ^g	9.0	10.9	9.2	11.5	9.7	8.5	8.1	7.3	6.9	8.5	8.7	8.1
El Salvador ^h	6.7	7.0	6.2	6.2	6.5	7.3	5.7	5.8	5.5
Guatemala ^f	2.9	...	5.1	5.2	4.4
Honduras ^f	...	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 ⁱ	3.4	3.6	3.9	4.6	5.3	4.7	4.6	4.8	4.9	6.6	6.8	6.5
Nicaragua ^j	7.8	11.3	12.2	10.2	8.6	7.0	7.0	6.9	8.0
Panama ^k	15.3	17.0	16.5	15.9	14.1	12.1	10.4	7.8	6.5	7.9	7.9 ^f	7.7 ^f
Paraguay ^f	10.0	10.8	14.7	11.2	10.0	7.6	8.9	7.2	7.4	8.2
Peru ^l	7.8	9.2	9.4	9.4	9.4	9.6	8.5	8.5	8.4	8.4	8.5	8.1
Uruguay ^f	13.6	15.3	17.0	16.9	13.1	12.2	11.4	9.6	7.9	7.7	7.9	7.5
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) ^m	13.9	13.3	15.9	18.0	15.3	12.3	10.0	8.4	7.3	7.8	8.0 ^t	8.8 ^t
The Caribbean												
Bahamas ^m	...	6.9	9.1	10.8	10.2	10.2	7.7	7.9	8.7	14.2
Barbados ^m	9.3	9.9	10.3	11.0	9.6	9.1	8.7	7.4	8.1	10.0	10.1 ^u	10.6 ^u
Belize ^m	11.1	9.1	10.0	12.9	11.6	11.0	9.4	8.5	8.2
Jamaica ^m	15.5	15.0	14.3	10.9	11.4	11.2	10.3	9.8	10.6	11.4	11.3 ^v	12.9 ^v
Trinidad and Tobago ^m	12.1	10.9	10.4	10.5	8.3	8.0	6.2	5.5	4.6	5.3	5.0 ^u	6.7 ^u
Latin America and the Caribbean ⁿ	10.3	10.2	11.2	11.2	10.3	9.1	8.6	7.9	7.3	8.1	8.4 ^w	7.7 ^w

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the 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 Six metropolitan areas. New measurement from 2002; data not comparable with previous years.

^d National total.

^e Thirteen metropolitan areas. Includes hidden unemployment.

^f National urban figures.

^g National urban figures for 2000 (November), 2001 (August) and 2003 (December). From 2004 on, average for four quarters. Includes hidden unemployment.

^h National urban figures. New measurement from 2007 on; data not comparable with previous years.

ⁱ Thirty two urban areas.

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

^k National urban figures. Includes hidden unemployment.

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

^m National total. Includes hidden unemployment.

ⁿ Weighted average. Data adjusted for methodological changes in Argentina (2003) and Brazil (2002) and for the exclusion of hidden unemployment in Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador and Panama. Revised figures.

^o Data refer to May.

^p First semester.

^q Data correspond to new measurement, not comparable with previous years.

^r Data refer to August.

^s Data refer to April. The figure for 2010 corresponds to preliminary data.

^t Preliminary data.

^u First quarter.

^v January-April.

^w Preliminary data. Estimates do not include Chile.

Table A-2
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: URBAN PARTICIPATION RATES , 2000-2009
(Average annual rates)

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2009	2010
											Average January-September	
Latin America												
Argentina ^a	56.4	56.1	55.6	60.3	60.2	59.9	60.3	59.5	58.8	59.3	59.2 ^p	59.1 ^p
Bolivia (Plurinational State of) ^b	56.1	60.6	58.0	...	58.6	55.7	58.7	57.1	...	56.9	56.3 ^p	57.3 ^p
Brazil ^c	58.0	56.4	56.7	57.1	57.2	56.6	56.9	56.9	57.0	56.7	56.6	57.0
Chile ^d	54.4	53.9	53.7	54.4	55.0	55.6	54.8	54.9	56.0	55.9	...	58.2 ^q
Colombia ^e	63.5	64.4	64.8	65.0	63.6	63.3	62.0	61.8	62.6	64.6	64.2	65.5
Costa Rica ^f	54.8	56.8	56.4	56.8	56.3	58.2	58.2	58.5	58.6	58.1
Cuba ^d	69.9	70.7	70.9	70.9	71.0	72.1	72.1	73.7	74.7	77.1
Dominican Republic ^m	55.3	54.3	55.1	54.3	56.3	55.9	56.0	56.1	55.6	53.8	53.6 ^s	54.9 ^s
Ecuador ^g	57.3	63.1	58.3	58.9	59.1	59.5	59.1	61.3	60.1	58.9	59.4	57.7
El Salvador ^h	54.5	54.8	53.1	55.4	53.9	54.3	53.9	63.6	64.1
Guatemala ^f	58.2	...	61.7	61.6	58.4
Honduras ^f	...	53.4	52.4	53.5	52.7	50.3	52.1	51.7	52.7	53.1	53.1 ^o	53.7 ^o
Mexico ⁱ	58.7	58.1	57.8	58.3	58.9	59.5	60.7	60.7	60.4	60.2	60.1	60.4
Nicaragua ^f	52.6	49.8	49.4	53.0	52.6	53.7	52.8	50.5	53.8
Panama ^t	60.9	61.4	63.4	63.5	64.2	63.7	62.8	62.6	64.4	64.4	64.4 ^r	64.0 ^r
Paraguay ^f	60.6	60.6	60.5	59.2	62.4	60.4	57.9	59.6	61.5	62.3
Peru ⁱ	63.4	67.1	68.5	67.4	68.0	67.1	67.5	68.9	68.1	68.4	67.9	70.2
Uruguay ^f	59.6	60.6	59.1	58.1	58.5	58.5	60.9	62.7	62.6	63.4	63.4	63.7
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) ^m	64.6	66.5	68.7	69.1	68.5	66.2	65.5	64.9	64.9	65.3	65.0 ^t	64.7 ^t
The Caribbean												
Bahamas ^m	...	76.2	76.4	76.5	75.7
Barbados ^m	69.3	69.5	68.5	69.2	69.4	69.6	67.9	67.8	67.6	67.0	67.0 ^u	67.2 ^u
Belize ^m	57.3	60.0	60.3	59.4	57.6	61.2	59.2
Jamaica ^m	63.2	62.9	65.7	64.4	64.5	64.2	64.7	64.9	65.5	63.5	63.8 ^v	62.5 ^v
Trinidad and Tobago ^m	61.2	60.7	60.9	61.6	63.0	63.7	63.9	63.5	63.5	62.7	63.6 ^u	62.0 ^u
Latin America and the Caribbeanⁿ	58.4	58.0	58.8	59.1	59.2	58.8	59.1	59.2	59.3	59.3	59.4^w	59.9^w

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the 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 Six metropolitan areas. New measurement from 2002; data not comparable with previous years.

^d National total.

^e Thirteen metropolitan areas. Includes hidden unemployment.

^f National urban figures.

^g National urban figures for 2000 (November), 2001 (August) and 2003 (December). From 2004 on, average for four quarters. Includes hidden unemployment.

^h National urban figures. New measurement from 2007 on; data not comparable with previous years.

ⁱ Thirty two urban areas.

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

^k National urban figures. Includes hidden unemployment.

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

^m National total. Includes hidden unemployment.

ⁿ Weighted average. Data adjusted for methodological changes in Argentina (2003) and Brazil (2002) and for the exclusion of hidden unemployment in Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador and Panama. Revised figures.

^o Data refer to May.

^p First semester.

^q Data correspond to new measurement, not comparable with previous years.

^r Data refer to August.

^s Data refer to April. The figure for 2010 corresponds to preliminary data.

^t Preliminary data.

^u First quarter.

^v January-April.

^w Preliminary data. Estimates do not include Chile.

Table A-3
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: URBAN EMPLOYMENT RATES, 2000-2009
(Average annual rates)

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2009	2010
											Average January-September	
Latin America												
Argentina ^a	47.9	45.6	44.6	49.9	52.1	53.0	54.1	54.5	54.2	54.2	54.1 ⁿ	54.3 ⁿ
Bolivia (Plurinational State of) ^b	51.9	55.4	53.0	...	55.0	51.2	54.0	52.7	...	52.4	51.4 ⁿ	53.6 ⁿ
Brazil ^c	53.9	53.0	48.9	50.1	50.6	51.0	51.2	51.6	52.5	52.1	51.9	53.0
Chile ^d	49.1	48.6	48.4	49.3	49.5	50.4	50.5	51.0	51.7	50.5	...	53.2 ^o
Colombia ^e	52.6	52.7	53.4	54.2	53.8	54.5	54.0	54.8	55.3	56.2	55.7	57.0
Costa Rica ^f	51.9	53.5	52.6	53.0	52.5	54.2	54.7	55.7	55.7	53.6
Cuba ^d	66.1	67.8	68.6	69.2	69.7	70.7	70.7	72.4	73.6	75.8
Dominican Republic ^d	47.5	45.8	46.2	45.2	46.0	45.9	46.9	47.4	47.7	45.8	45.6 ^q	47.0 ^q
Ecuador ^g	48.8	49.8	49.4	48.6	53.4	54.4	54.3	56.8	56.0	53.9	54.3	53.0
El Salvador ^h	48.9	51.0	49.8	52.0	50.4	50.3	50.8	59.9	60.6
Guatemala ^f	56.6	...	58.5	58.4	55.8
Honduras ^f	...	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 ⁱ	56.8	56.0	55.5	55.6	55.8	56.7	57.9	57.8	57.5	56.2	56.1	56.5
Nicaragua ^f	...	44.9	43.3	47.6	48.0	49.9	49.1	47.1	49.5
Panama ^f	51.6	51.2	53.2	53.4	55.1	56.0	56.3	57.7	60.2	59.3	59.3 ^p	59.1 ^p
Paraguay ^f	52.2	50.8	48.4	52.5	56.1	55.8	52.7	55.3	57.0	57.1
Peru ^k	59.7	60.9	62.0	61.2	61.6	60.7	61.8	63.0	62.4	62.7	62.1	64.5
Uruguay ^f	51.6	51.4	49.1	48.3	50.9	51.4	53.9	56.7	57.7	58.6	58.4	59.0
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) ^d	55.6	57.1	57.9	56.7	58.0	58.0	58.9	59.4	60.2	60.2	59.8 ^r	59.0 ^r
The Caribbean												
Bahamas ^d	...	70.9	70.5	69.7	68.0
Barbados ^d	62.9	62.7	61.4	61.6	62.7	63.2	61.9	62.8	62.1	60.3	60.2 ^s	60.1 ^s
Belize ^d	51.5	52.3	53.3	52.8	52.2	56.0	54.3
Jamaica ^d	53.8	53.5	56.4	57.1	57.0	57.0	58.0	58.6	58.5	56.3	56.6 ^t	56.4 ^t
Trinidad and Tobago ^d	53.8	54.1	54.6	55.2	57.8	58.6	59.9	59.9	60.6	59.4	60.4 ^s	57.8 ^s
Latin America and the Caribbean^l	52.5	51.8	51.7	52.3	52.9	53.4	53.9	54.4	54.9	54.4	54.4^u	55.2^u

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the 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 Six metropolitan areas. New measurement from 2002; data not comparable with previous years.

^d National total.

^e Thirteen metropolitan areas. Includes hidden unemployment.

^f National urban figures.

^g National urban figures for 2000 (November), 2001 (August) and 2003 (December). From 2004 on, average for four quarters. Includes hidden unemployment.

^h National urban figures. New measurement from 2007 on; data not comparable with previous years.

ⁱ Thirty two urban areas.

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

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

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

^m Data refer to May.

ⁿ First semester.

^o Data correspond to new measurement, not comparable with previous years.

^p Data refer to August.

^q Data refer to April. The figure for 2010 corresponds to preliminary data.

^r Preliminary data.

^s First quarter.

^t Average for January-April.

^u Preliminary data. Estimates do not include Chile.

Table A-4
**LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: (10 COUNTRIES): LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE, EMPLOYMENT RATE
 AND OPEN URBAN UNEMPLOYMENT RATE BY SEX,^a**
JANUARY-SEPTEMBER 2009 AND 2010
(Percentages)

Countries	Unemployment rate						Labour force participation rate						Employment rate					
	Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female	
	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010
Total países^b	8.4	7.7	7.3	6.6	9.9	9.2	59.4	59.9	70.9	71.3	49.6	50.1	54.4	55.2	65.7	66.5	44.7	45.5
Argentina ^c	8.6	8.1	7.7	6.9	9.8	9.7	59.2	59.1	72.0	72.1	48.0	47.4	54.1	54.3	66.4	67.2	43.3	42.8
Bolivia (Plurinational State of) ^c	8.6	6.5	6.9	5.5	10.5	7.6	56.3	57.3	51.4	53.6
Brazil	8.4	7.1	6.8	5.5	10.2	8.9	56.6	57.0	66.0	66.4	48.5	49.0	51.9	53.0	61.6	62.7	43.5	44.6
Chile ^d	...	8.5	...	7.5	...	10.0	...	58.2	...	72.0	...	44.9	...	53.2	...	66.6	...	40.4
Colombia																		
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 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
Ecuador	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 ^e	4.9	6.4	53.1	53.7	50.5	50.3
Jamaica ^f	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
Mexico																		
National	5.5	5.4	5.4	5.4	5.6	5.4	58.4	58.8	77.0	77.1	41.7	42.2	55.2	55.6	72.8	73.0	39.4	39.9
32 areas	6.8	6.5	6.8	6.5	6.7	6.4	60.1	60.4	75.7	75.9	46.2	46.5	56.1	56.5	70.6	71.0	43.1	43.5
Panama ^g																		
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	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	7.5	7.1	5.5	5.3	9.9	9.3	63.1	63.0	73.8	73.3	53.9	54.0	58.3	58.5	69.8	69.4	48.6	49.0
Urban	7.9	7.5	5.9	5.6	10.1	9.4	63.4	63.7	73.4	73.1	55.0	55.8	58.4	59.0	69.0	69.0	49.5	50.5
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) ^h	8.0	8.8	7.7	8.4	8.5	9.4	65.0	64.7	79.5	79.2	50.7	50.4	59.8	59.0	73.4	72.6	46.4	45.6

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

^a For the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Chile and Jamaica, the total refers to the nationwide figure.

^b Estimates of total indicators do not include Chile and indicators by sex do not include Chile, Honduras or the Plurinational State of Bolivia.

^c First semester.

^d Data correspond to new measurement; no comparable data available for 2009.

^e Data refer to May.

^f Average for January-April.

^g Data refer to August.

^h Preliminary data.



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