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Employment Situation in Latin America and the Caribbean

Decent work for platform workers in Latin America

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Employment Situation in Latin America and the Caribbean is a twice-yearly report prepared jointly by the Economic Development Division of the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the Office for the Southern Cone of Latin America of the International Labour Organization (ILO), headed by Daniel Titelman and Fabio Bertranou, respectively.

Work on the document was coordinated by Gerhard Reinecke, Senior Specialist on Employment Policies of ILO, and Sonia Gontero, Economic Affairs Officer in the Employment Studies Unit of the Economic Development Division of ECLAC.

The first section of this report was prepared by Juan Jacobo Velasco, Labour Information Officer of ILO and the second by Jürgen Weller, consultant with the Employment Studies Unit, under the coordination of Sonia Gontero. Claudio Aravena assisted with the preparation of statistical information, as did the Labour Analysis and Information System in Latin America and the Caribbean (SIALC), under the coordination of Bolívar Pino.

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Contents

Foreword

In 2020, the crisis caused by the coronavirus disease (COVID-19) pandemic worsened the already unsatisfactory performance of labour markets in Latin America and the Caribbean. The negative impact on all countries in the region was unprecedented. Regional GDP recorded a contraction of 7.1%, the largest in the last century, which triggered declines in employment and participation rates. The nature of the crisis meant that workers withdrew from the labour market in significant numbers, largely curbing what otherwise would have been a bigger impact on the regional unemployment rate, which averaged 10.5% in 2020.

The first part of this report analyses the effect of this crisis on the main labour market indicators in 2020. It was in the second quarter of the year, when lockdown and containment measures were implemented in response to the pandemic, that the greatest impacts were observed. In that period, the decline in the employment rate (10.2 percentage points) was more significant than that in the participation rate (9.6 percentage points), which was immediately reflected in the sharp increase in the unemployment rate (2.7 percentage points). Women, young people and informal sector workers were the groups hardest hit. Of particular note was the destruction of jobs in occupational categories that are feminized, such as domestic services and unpaid family work, and in sectors with a high concentration of young and informal labour, such as tourism (hotels and restaurants) and trade. Industry and construction also saw significant contractions in employment. Unlike in previous crises, informal employment could not serve as a countercyclical measure because of physical distancing. Another difference was lower labour participation, mainly that of women, related to mobility restrictions, the contraction in sectors with large female workforces, school closures and the need to provide care services.

Beginning in the third quarter, as the gradual reversal of the containment measures facilitated the return of workers to the labour market, employment and participation rates began to recover from the low levels recorded in the second quarter. However, at year-end 2020, participation and employment rates were lower than observed pre-pandemic levels and unemployment rates were higher than before the pandemic.

The second part of the report presents the main characteristics of digital platform work relative to key aspects of decent work. During the pandemic, platform work —on online web-based platforms and some location-based platforms alike— has been a vital source of employment given the need to reduce person-to-person contact and to maintain the delivery of essential goods. However, this has highlighted the need for social protection for these workers. Evidence suggests that this form of work is highly precarious, characterized by instability of work and income, a large share of unpaid time, long working hours, no social and labour protection, and few options for dialogue and representation. These factors illustrate that appropriate labour legislation on these growing work modalities is required. For workers on online web-based platforms, labour legistlation of a global scope is needed. There is, however, no “one-size-fits-all” solution for the regulation of location-based platform work. Differences in labour law across jurisdictions mean that there is no need for a common solution, however appropriate

regulatory frameworks must be designed in order to fulfil the objective of establishing and protecting the social and labour rights of workers, while at the same time harnessing the opportunities that new technologies provide.

Given the severity of the impact of the crisis in 2020 and the slow recovery of economic activity, in 2021 the countries of the region will face higher unemployment rates than those observed before the onset of the pandemic, as well as greater informal job creation. It is imperative to develop strategies that will lay the foundations for a return to better working conditions for all workers. This will entail bolstering job recovery in the hardest-hit categories and sectors and improving institutional capacities related to occupational health and safety, the formalization of workers, increased women's labour market inclusion, and the appropriate regulation of new forms of work.

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I. Labour market trends in Latin America and the Caribbean in 2020

Introduction

The coronavirus disease (COVID-19) pandemic had an unprecedented economic impact on Latin American and Caribbean labour markets in 2020. Although efforts to contain the health crisis had repercussions on economic supply and demand worldwide, the region was hit harder than others, and the 7.1% decline in GDP translated into a sharp drop in employment and labour force participation (5.5 and 4.5 percentage points, respectively), and into a 2.1 percentage point increase in the regional unemployment rate, to 10.5%. Latin America and the Caribbean also recorded the largest loss of working hours worldwide, at 16.2% in 2020 compared to 2019, which is almost double the estimated global level, 8.8% (ILO, 2021).

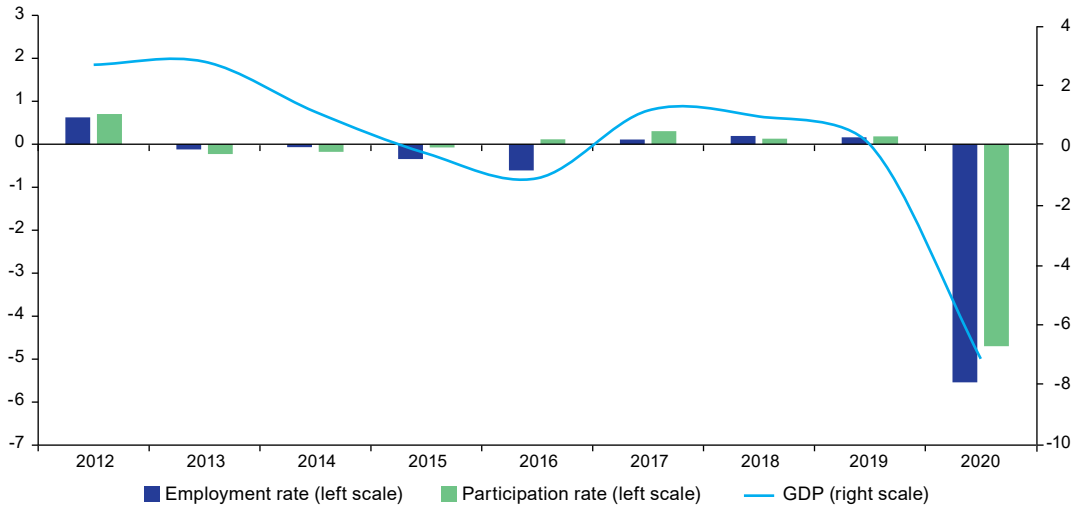
This chapter also describes the negative impact of the health crisis on the region's labour markets in 2020, which manifested itself in multiple ways, differentiating this crisis from others. On the one hand, the magnitude of the adverse effects on participation, employment and unemployment rates in the countries of the region was unprecedented. Moreover, the contraction in labour force participation was sharp and immediate, unlike in the past, when the participation rate reacted more slowly to the economic cycle. The speed of the adjustment of the participation rate largely curbed what otherwise would have been a bigger impact on national and regional unemployment rates. The reduction in labour force participation was significant among women, reversing the trend seen in recent decades, when their participation increased steadily (ECLAC/ILO 2019). On the other hand, although employment contracted significantly in all occupational categories and sectors of activity, the decline was deeper in the more informal categories. Thus, the destruction of informal jobs was greater than the contraction in formal employment, unlike in previous crises, when the informal sector had absorbed some of the losses of wage-paying and formal jobs.

This edition of the Employment Situation in Latin America and the Caribbean, prepared jointly by the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the Office for the Southern Cone of Latin America of the International Labour Organization (ILO), includes data for the full year 2020, which is used to quantify the impact of the pandemic on the labour market, and to compare the performance in the third and fourth quarters —when lockdown measures were eased— with that of the second quarter of 2020, which was hit hardest by lockdown measures at the regional level. However, most countries in the region are currently facing a second (and in some cases, third) wave of the pandemic, so the continuation of the expected economic and employment recovery will depend on whether the new waves of the pandemic can be slowed and reversed as soon as possible. This, together with the performance of the region's labour markets in 2020, presents challenges for a recovery in employment and its quality, which are examined at the end of this chapter.

A. Unprecedented impact of the pandemic on participation, employment and unemployment

The sharp economic contraction in Latin America and the Caribbean in 2020 (7.1%) was not only unprecedented in recent times in terms of magnitude, but was also widespread and affected all the countries of the region, unlike other regional crises of comparatively smaller scope. Despite differences stemming from the scope and duration of national measures to contain the pandemic, the region experienced the dual effect of the contraction in economic supply and demand which, in terms of labour, translated into a sharp decline in employment and labour force participation (see figure I.1). Thus, in 2020, the regional employment rate fell by 5.5 percentage points, while the participation rate contracted by 4.5 percentage points. The larger contraction in employment than that in participation led to a 2.1 percentage point increase in the regional unemployment rate, which exceeded double digits in 2020 for the first time in more than a decade.

Figure I.1
Latin America and the Caribbean: variation in employment, participation and economic growth rates, 2012–2020[a]
(Percentage points and percentages)

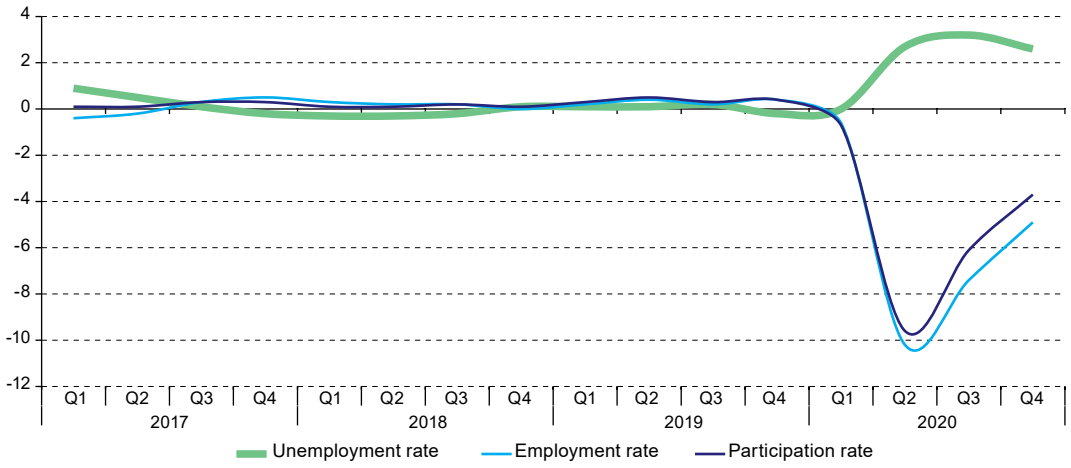


Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official figures.
[a] Data for 2020 are preliminary.

The main indicators of labour supply and demand in the region were examined in a context marked by a weak previous performance, when the low economic growth between 2014 and 2019 resulted in a dip in the employment rate and a slight increase in the participation rate, along with a rise of 1.9 percentage points in the unemployment rate. While participation and employment rates have recorded modest growth since 2017, this trend reversed dramatically in 2020. Thus, before the COVID-19 crisis, the regional labour market lacked momentum, which should be considered with regard to the possibilities of a robust or weak recovery of the labour market in the post-pandemic period.

Meanwhile, the response of the regional labour market in 2020 clearly reflected the impact of lockdown and containment measures, and their gradual reversal. As shown in figure I.2, although participation and employment rates began to fall in the first quarter of 2020 owing to the introduction of lockdown measures in March, these indicators contracted more sharply in the second quarter of 2020, when the effects of the mandatory lockdown measures implemented by the countries of the region were felt. In the second quarter of 2020, the decline in the employment rate (10.2 percentage points) was deeper than that in the participation rate (9.6 percentage points), which was immediately reflected in the sharp increase in the unemployment rate (2.7 percentage points). As a result of the gradual reversal of the lockdown measures, in the second half of the year the employment and participation rates recovered from the low levels seen in the second quarter, and the year-on-year contraction of these rates eased.

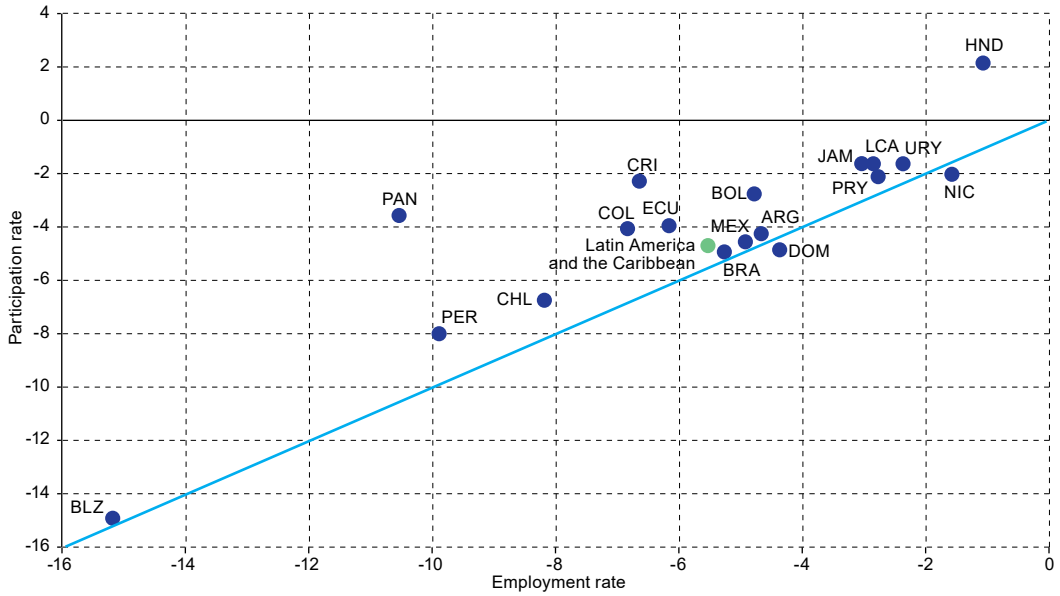
Figure I.2
Latin America and the Caribbean (13 countries):[a] year-on-year variation in unemployment, employment and participation rates, first quarter of 2017–fourth quarter of 2020[b]
(Percentage points)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official figures.
[a] Weighted average for the following countries: Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Jamaica, Mexico, Paraguay, Peru, Plurinational State of Bolivia and Uruguay. Includes estimates based on partial data.
[b] Data for 2020 are preliminary.

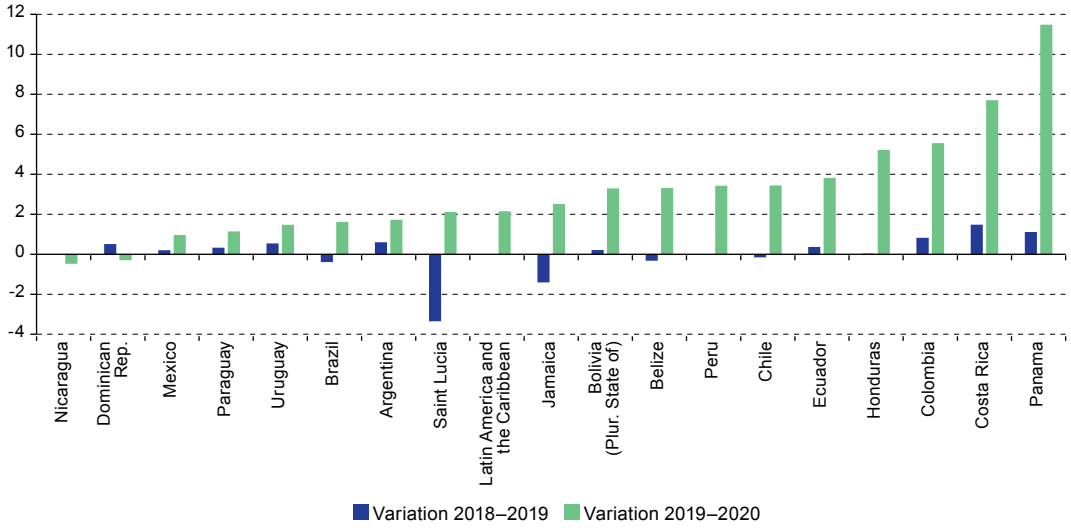
For the countries of the region, the economic crisis resulting from the COVID-19 pandemic also had a negative impact on participation and employment rates. In the 18 countries for which information is available for 2020, employment and participation rates declined, except in Honduras, where the participation rate increased (see figure I.3). Moreover, the contraction in the employment rate was larger than the decline in the participation rate. This is illustrated by the positions of the countries in relation to the 45-degree line in figure I.3, which indicates the fall or rise in the participation and employment indicators. Sixteen countries are above the line, which indicates a deeper contraction in the employment rate than in the participation rate and therefore an increase in the unemployment rate (see figure I.4). By contrast, participation rates contracted more in the Dominican Republic and Nicaragua, leading to a decline in the unemployment rates. Countries that are well above the 45-degree line recorded a much sharper contraction in the employment rate than the decline in the participation rate, which translated into larger increases in the unemployment rate. Costa Rica and Panama are examples.

Figure I.3
Latin America and the Caribbean (18 countries): year-on-year variation in participation and employment rates, 2020
(Percentage points)



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

Figure I.4
Latin America and the Caribbean (18 countries): year-on-year variation in the unemployment rate, by country, 2018–2019 and 2019–2020
(Percentage points)

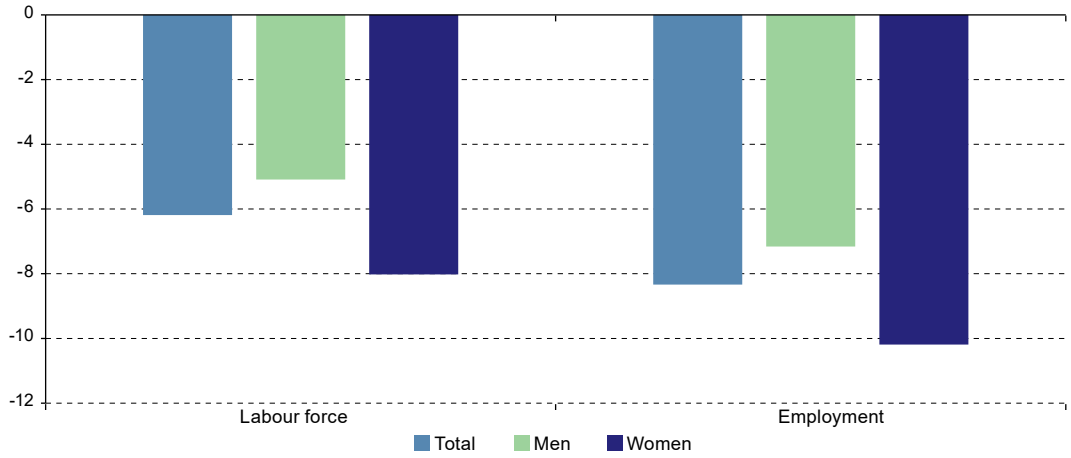


Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official figures.

B. Major setbacks in female employment and participation

Another negative effect of the health crisis is its bigger impact on female employment and participation. Indeed, as shown in figure I.5, between 2019 and 2020, the labour force contracted by 5.0% among men and by 8.1% among women, while employment rates fell by 7.2% among men and by 10.2% among women. Meanwhile, the increases in unemployment among women and men were similar, although they rose proportionally more among men because of their lower levels of unemployment.

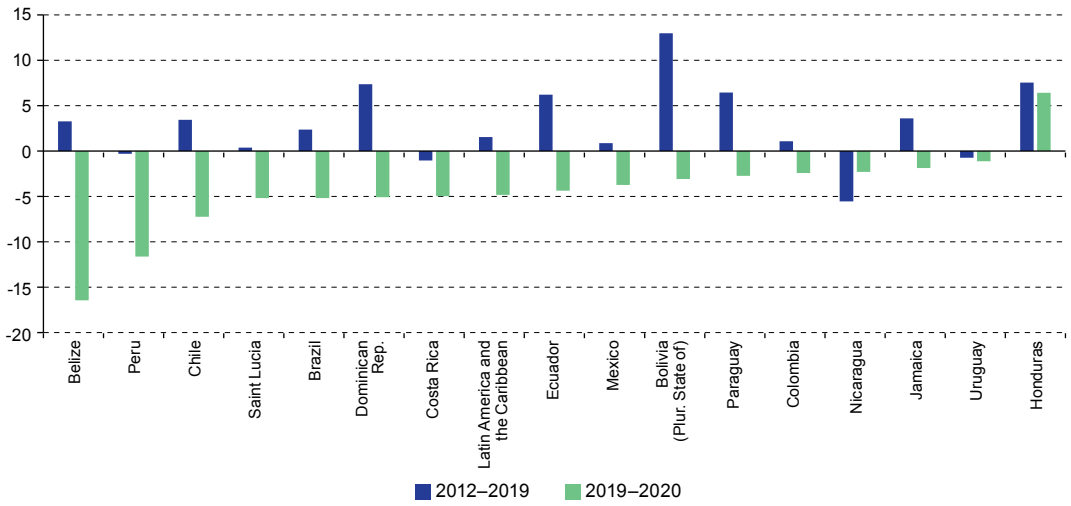
Figure I.5
Latin America and the Caribbean (17 countries):[a] year-on-year variation in national labour force and employment, weighted average by sex, 2020[b]
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official figures.
[a] Weighted average for the following countries: Argentina, Belize, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Honduras, Jamaica, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Plurinational State of Bolivia, Saint Lucia and Uruguay. Includes estimates based on partial data.
[b] Data for 2020 are preliminary.

The entry of women into the labour market explains why the regional participation rate has maintained an upward trend over the medium term (ECLAC/ILO, 2019; ILO, 2019). However, the health crisis led to a generalized reduction in the female participation rate in the region, which represents a major setback with respect to the progress seen in women's labour force participation. As figure I.6 shows, in all 16 countries for which information is available, except Honduras, female participation rates fell in 2020. In seven of these countries, that rate declined more than participation rates increased between 2012 and 2019, with notable decreases in Belize and Chile. Meanwhile, contractions in the female participation rate in 2020 confirmed the trend seen between 2012 and 2019 in Costa Rica, Nicaragua and Peru.

Figure I.6
Latin America and the Caribbean (16 countries): variation in national female participation rates, 2012-2019 and 2019–2020
(Percentage points)



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

C. Greater impact on domestic services and hotels

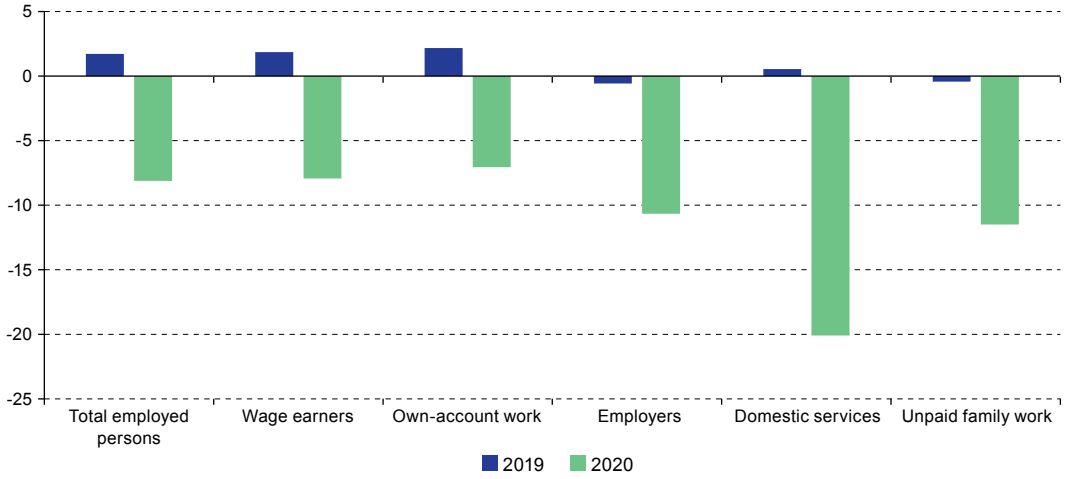
The effects of the health crisis on employment also varied according to occupational category, with the economic contraction hitting the more informal categories the hardest. As shown in figure I.7, categories such as domestic services and unpaid family work contracted significantly (by 20.1% and 11.5%, respectively). In particular, the decline in domestic services (about 7% of total employment) meant that in this feminized category, one in every five women lost their jobs. At the same time, the closure of businesses because of the pandemic-induced economic crisis resulted in the loss of employment of one in ten employers in the region.

However, both wage employment and own-account work recorded relatively large decreases of close to 8%. In terms of the number of jobs lost, given that most employed persons are wage earners, the losses were greater among this group.

The dynamics of occupational categories in 2020 highlight another difference of the health crisis compared to previous episodes of regional economic contraction. While in past crises the destruction of wage-paying jobs was partly offset by the growth in own-account work and other categories of informal work, in the current health crisis, the destruction of non-wage employment has been, on the whole, proportionally greater than that of wage employment. In other words, non-wage employment has not offset the loss of wage-paying jobs during the COVID-19 pandemic.

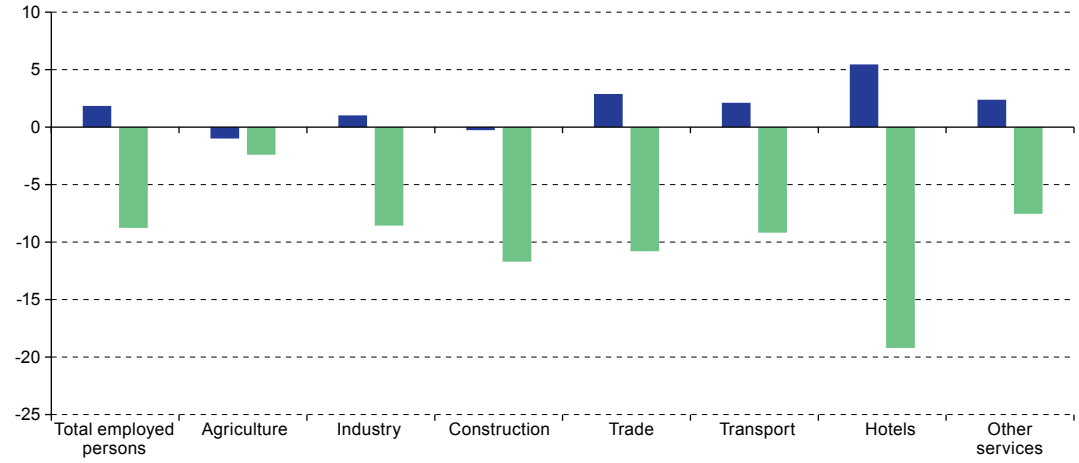
With regard to sectors of activity, the health crisis weighed most heavily on the economic sectors hit hardest by the decline in economic activity and lockdown measures or limitation of in-person work. As shown in figure I.8, the contraction in employment in 2020 was much deeper in sectors such as hotels (19.2%), construction (11.7%), trade (10.8%) and transport (9.2%), which together account for nearly 40% of regional employment. There were also declines in industry (8.6%) and other services (7.5%), while the loss of jobs in agriculture was comparatively lower (2.4%). Although the trend of widespread job losses across sectors of activity is new compared to other crises in which negative effects were more focused on a few sectors, the intensity of the impact on sectors such as hotels, in which nearly one in five jobs were lost, highlights the difficulties that the transition to the post-pandemic period will imply for the recovery of jobs in sectors hit hard by lockdown measures and reduced demand.

Figure I.7
Latin America and the Caribbean (9 countries):[a] year-on-year variation in employment by occupational category, 2019 and 2020[b]
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official figures.
Note: The regional average of private, public and domestic wage earners, and of employers, was estimated based on available information from the countries that provide this breakdown.
[a] Weighted average for the following countries: Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Honduras, Mexico, Panama and Paraguay. Includes estimates based on partial data.
[b] Data for 2020 are preliminary.

Figure I.8
Latin America and the Caribbean (9 countries):[a] year-on-year variation in employment by sector of activity, 2019 and 2020
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official figures.
[a] Weighted average for the following countries: Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Honduras, Mexico, Panama and Paraguay. Includes estimates based on partial data.

D. Greater impact on informal employment than on formal employment

More jobs were destroyed in the informal sector than in the formal sector, especially at the beginning of the pandemic. In six countries for which updated information is available, both formal and informal employment contracted in the second quarter of 2020 compared to the end of 2019, with a much bigger drop in informal employment (see figure I.9). In fact, the contraction in informal employment in the second quarter is twice that of formal employment in all countries. In contrast, since the third quarter, when lockdown easing measures began to be implemented, the gaps between formal and informal employment have narrowed in all the countries, even reversing by the end of 2020 in Paraguay. This shows that although the impact of the lockdown measures was greater on informal employment, the easing of these measures has led to a relatively more accelerated recovery in this type of employment.

Figure I.9
Latin America (selected countries): economic activity, formal employment and informal employment, end of 2019–2020
(Index: end of 2019=100)

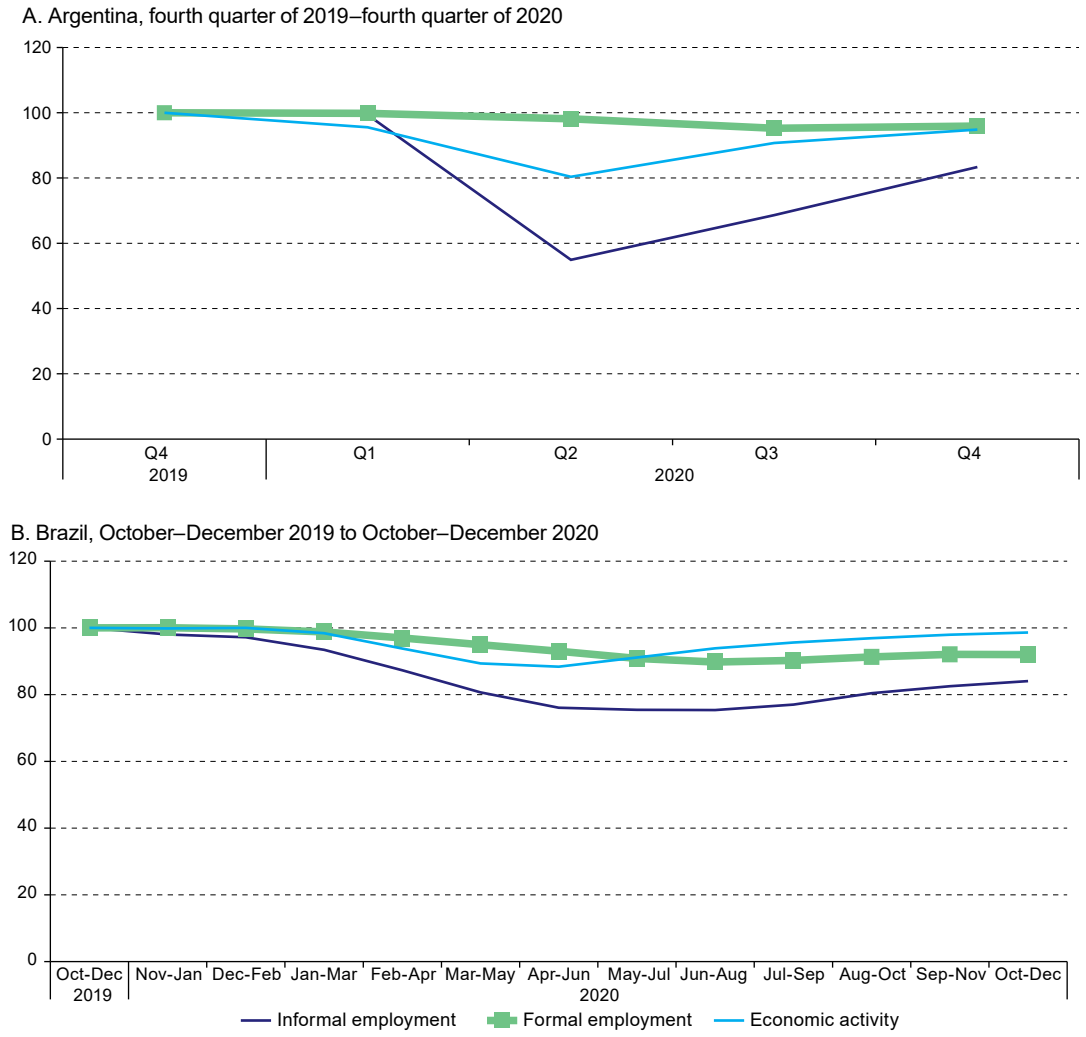
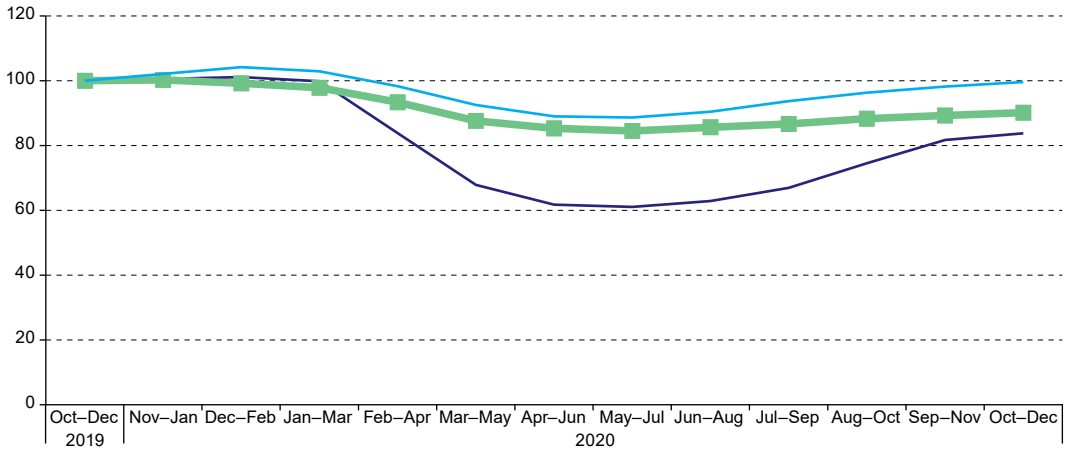
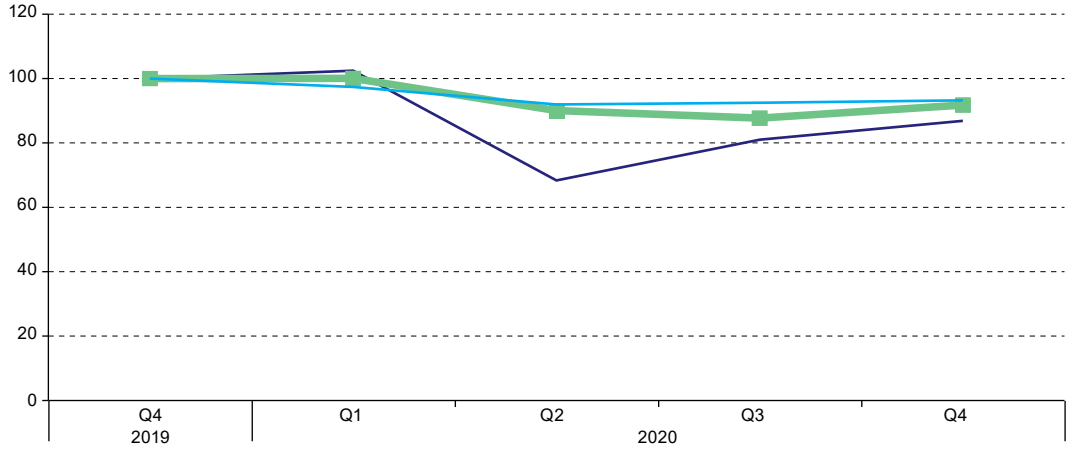


Figure I.9 (continued)

C. Chile, October–December 2019 to October–December 2020



D. Costa Rica, fourth quarter of 2019–fourth quarter of 2020



E. Mexico, December 2019–December 2020

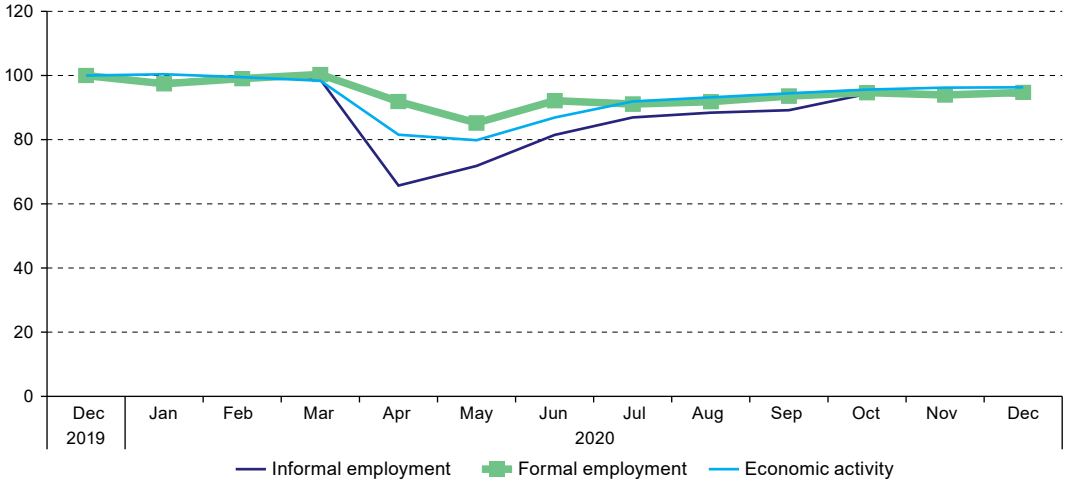
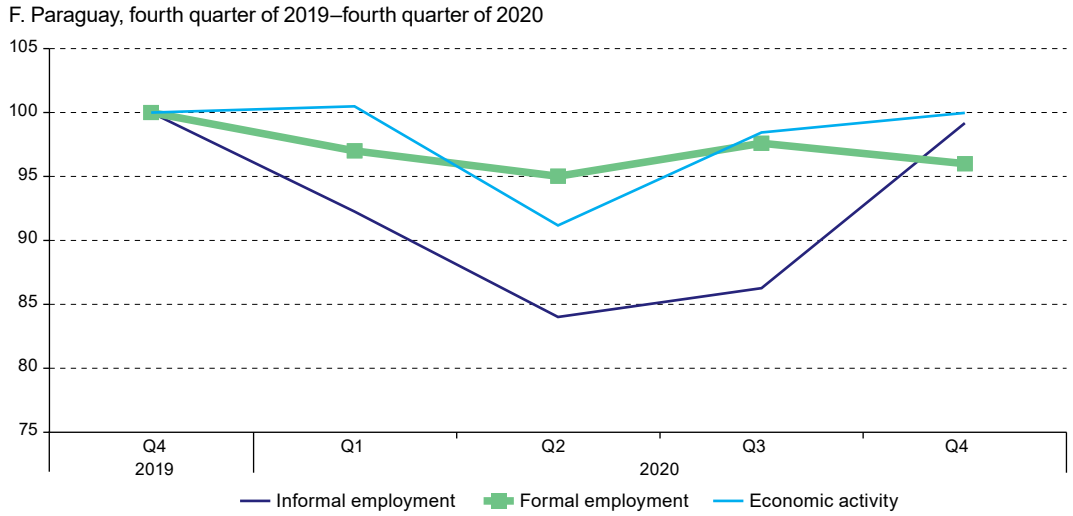


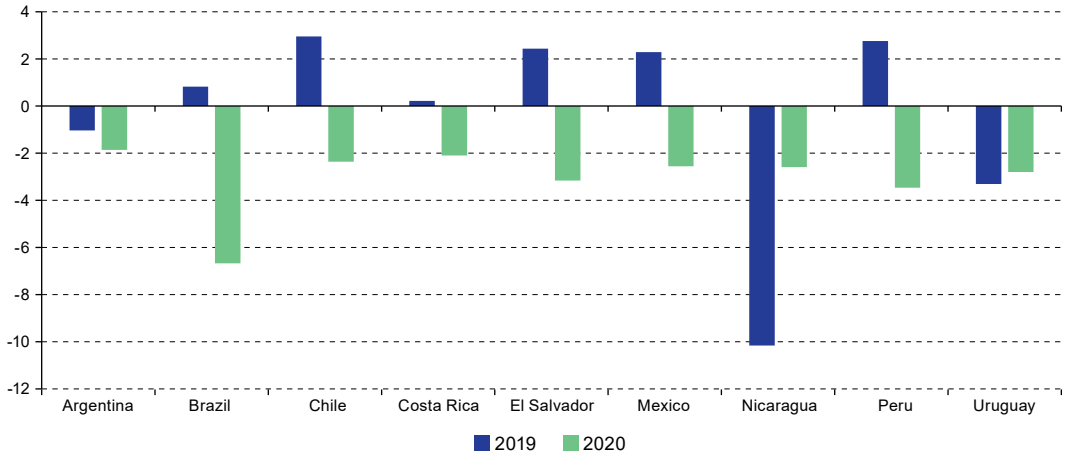
Figure I.9 (concluded)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of ILO, "The employment crisis in the pandemic: towards a human-centred job recovery", *Labour Overview Series Latin America and the Caribbean 2021*, Lima, April 2021.

The loss of registered employment in 2020, meanwhile, was also widespread and considerable compared to previous crises, but less than the loss of total employment. Indeed, as shown in figure I.10, all nine countries for which data are available experienced contractions in registered employment in 2020. In 2020, the decline in registered employment in Argentina was worse than that seen in 2019, while in Nicaragua and Uruguay, the decreases in 2020 were less than those in 2019. In the rest of the countries, the contraction in registered employment reversed the growth in 2019 significantly, e.g. in Chile and Mexico, or even exceeded it, as in Brazil, Costa Rica, El Salvador and Peru.

Figure I.10
Latin America (9 countries): year-on-year growth in registered employment, 2019 and 2020
(Percentages)



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

The relatively bigger impact on informal employment largely stems from the fact that formal employment benefited more from public policies aimed at protecting the employment relationship, for example through suspended or reduced working hours combined with state subsidies or unemployment insurance benefits in some countries.

The impact of the pandemic on informal employment has, in turn, been greater among women than among men. As figure I.11 shows, in three countries for which information is available, the decline in informal employment in the second quarter of 2020 was greater among women. It also shows that the gap between men and women working in the informal sector remained the same in the second half of 2020. This trend in informal employment reflects the greater relative destruction of jobs in occupational categories that are feminized, such as domestic services and unpaid family work.

Figure I.11
Latin America (selected countries): economic activity and informal employment, by sex, end of 2019–2020
(Index: end of 2019=100)

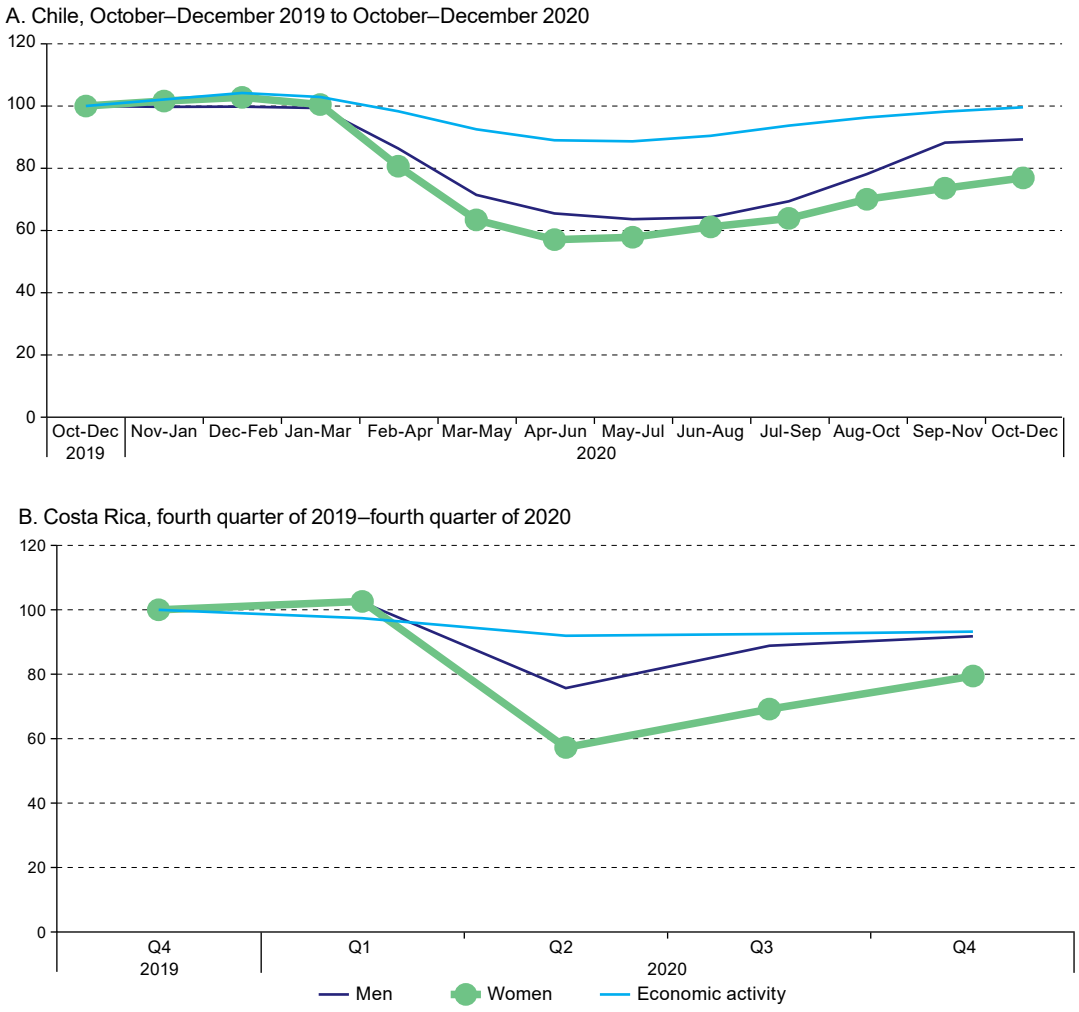
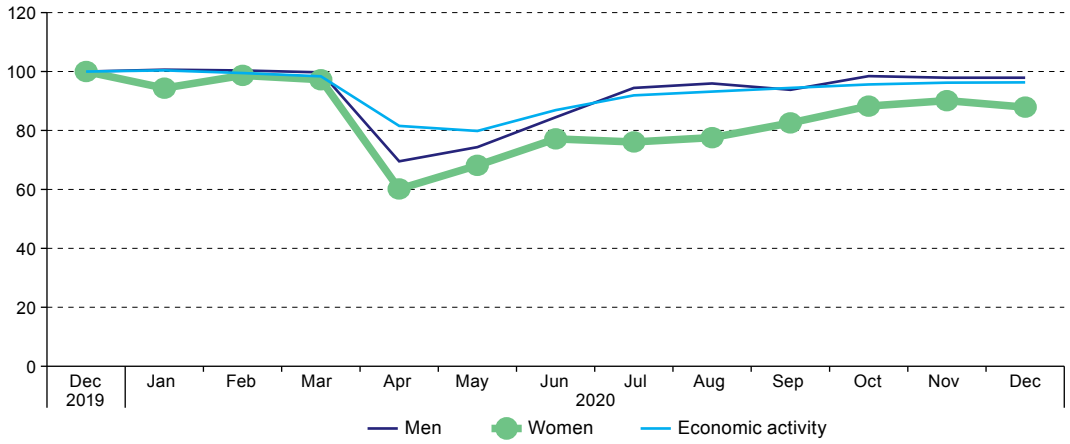


Figure I.11 (concluded)

C. Mexico, December 2019–December 2020

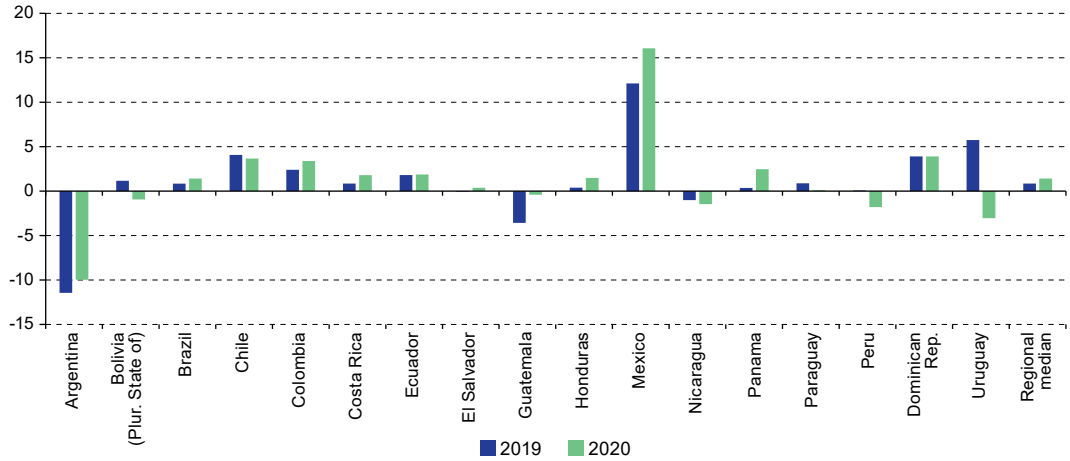


Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of official figures.

E. Limited movement in minimum wages

Another factor observed in 2020 was the performance of real minimum wages, which improved slightly compared to 2019. As figure I.12 shows, the median change in regional minimum wages was 1.4% in 2020, reflecting a marginal improvement after a slight increase in 2019 (0.8%). However, the figures for 2020 and 2019 are much lower than those stemming from the robust increases between 2010 and 2018 (ILO, 2020). Six countries recorded contractions in real minimum wages, with the sharpest decreases in Argentina (10.0%) and Uruguay (3.0%). Meanwhile, real minimum wages increased in 10 countries in 2020, including Mexico, which recorded a notable rise (16.1%). Given that Mexico accounts for about 20% of the regional economically active population, the increase in real minimum wages in that country had a positive impact on the regional weighted average, which grew by 1.7%. Overall, the trend in minimum wages highlights the difficulties in implementing compensatory wage measures, especially for low-income workers, in a context of massive job losses and business closures.

Figure I.12
Latin America and the Caribbean (17 countries): variation in real minimum wages, by country, 2019 and 2020
(Percentages)



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

F. Challenges in the post-pandemic period: how to recover and create jobs of better quality

As discussed in this first part of the report, the COVID-19 pandemic had an unprecedented negative impact on labour markets throughout Latin America and the Caribbean. The destruction and increasing precariousness of jobs, the increase in unemployment, the sharp decline in labour force participation, and the effects on female employment and participation, among others, present short- and medium-term challenges for a gradual transition to the post-pandemic period. This transition will depend on the effectiveness and expansion of measures to control the health crisis, particularly vaccination, and on the robustness of the economic recovery amid the backdrop of the fragility of the productive fabric and the sustainability of transfer and income policies for workers, businesses and people outside the labour force that governments have implemented since 2020 (ECLAC, 2020a, 2021; ILO, 2021, Velásquez, 2021).

Given the magnitude of the impact of the crisis in 2020 and the severity of the second and third waves of the pandemic in several countries, and new lockdown measures, it is very likely that from 2021 the countries of the region will record higher unemployment rates than in previous years. These rates, which rose in 2020, are likely to remain high as people who left the labour force return and there is an increase in labour supply that cannot be absorbed at the same rate by demand. It is very likely that the number of formal jobs created will not return to pre-pandemic levels in the short term, owing to the problems that many businesses, particularly micro-, small and medium-sized enterprises (MSMEs), are facing in terms of sustaining and recovering their activity. This is particularly true for sectors such as tourism, trade, transport and construction. Consequently, instruments such as unemployment insurance, together with training and labour intermediation policies, are crucial for, on the one hand, sustaining the income of the unemployed and, on the other, facilitating the return to the labour market of people who are out of the labour force or unemployed. There is also a need to foster labour-intensive public and private investment, especially in the most affected sectors in each country, so that the reactivation of the productive fabric in those sectors accelerates the demand for employment at the sectoral level.

Another factor that presents challenges for the countries of the region is the considerable destruction of formal and informal jobs in 2020 and the possibility that most new jobs will be created in the informal sector. As has been pointed out, the economic contraction resulted in the destruction of wage-paying jobs and registered employment. Moreover, the health crisis, unlike previous crises, had a greater impact on informal jobs, especially during lockdowns. By the same token, as lockdown measures have eased, informal jobs have grown more than formal jobs. If this trend continues in 2021, it is likely that in possible new waves of the pandemic, the employment recovery will stem from the creation of more informal jobs when lockdown measures are eased, or that employment contractions, especially in the informal sector, could worsen if lockdown measures are implemented again. This would pose a great challenge for both labour policies and institutions, since the advances in the formalization of employment in recent decades may be reversed in the short, medium and long term if the recovery of the economy and the productive fabric is not accompanied by the maintenance of social and labour policies that guarantee social protection floors for workers. Meanwhile, there are also more structural challenges owing to the need to sustain income policies for informal workers and their families during the next waves of the pandemic and in the post-pandemic period.

A particularly complex issue in 2021 and in the post-pandemic period is the recovery of pre-pandemic labour dynamics among women. The data (ECLAC/ILO, 2019; ILO, 2019) show that the steady growth in female participation in the region has been the key factor behind the sustained increase in the regional participation rate over the past three decades, which has more than offset the trend towards lower labour participation by men. The fall in female labour force participation in 2020 is not only a major setback, but also poses enormous policy challenges in facilitating women's re-entry into the labour force. In particular, the drop in participation during the pandemic occurred in a context marked by the gap between men and women in the use of time for caregiving tasks (ECLAC, 2020a, 2020b). Therefore, the structural reasons for women's greater burden of care for older persons, children and the sick, which explain the gap, were likely exacerbated during the pandemic. In order to facilitate women's re-entry into the labour market, along with facing the challenge of recovering employment and working conditions during possible new waves and the post-pandemic period, priority should be given to measures that strengthen care policies and institutions, in terms of both education and health. A further challenge is women's re-entry into the labour market amid the loss of jobs in feminized categories, such as domestic services and unpaid family work, which are characterized by informality and low income.

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II. Decent work for online platform workers in Latin America

Introduction

Digitization is radically reshaping the world of work, destroying, transforming and creating jobs.[1] Many of the new jobs that are emerging are in businesses with "traditional" legal or organizational structures and are performed by wage earners. However, digitization is also giving rise to new business models that rely on online platforms, with new occupations emerging that are either web-based in a global market or are location-based.[2] The conditions of these jobs are heterogeneous; nonetheless, they generally do not meet the criteria of decent work, entail employment relationships that are neither wage employment nor own-account work, and in most cases are not covered by labour legislation.

Thus, although these forms of work may offer new job opportunities, they tend to make the labour market more precarious. This not only results in worse quality employment but may also contribute to at least some segments of the population increasingly seeing precarious working conditions as the norm in Latin American labour markets.

This chapter of the report analyses aspects of work through online platforms, primarily based on the information available for Latin American countries, complemented with global data. The first section provides a brief characterization of online platforms, many of which already play a significant role in daily life around the world. The analysis in this report covers, specifically, online service platforms, related to the performance of web-based and location-based tasks. On the basis of surveys conducted in Latin America and elsewhere in the world, the second section analyses the labour characteristics of online platform work from the perspective of decent work, focusing on its heterogeneity. The third section reviews the impact of the coronavirus disease (COVID-19) pandemic on platform work. The fourth section outlines the need to address the precariousness that characterizes this work and the corresponding social security and labour regulation options. The conclusions are presented in the final section.

A. Categories and characteristics of online platforms[3]

The range of online platforms for commercial activities is wide and varied.[4] Many of these platforms are characterized by involving three parties: a supplier (seller, lessor or contracted party), a demander (buyer, lessee or contracting party) and a company that runs the platform. However, there are also platforms with only two parties, where the platform itself acts as a supplier.

1 See, for example, Frey and Osborne (2013), Arntz, Gregory and Zierahn (2016), ILO (2019), Manyika and others (2017) and Weller, Gontero and Campbell (2019).

2 See the concept of emerging occupations in Rodriguez (2020).

3 The following sections are based, in part, on material presented in Weller (2021, in press).

4 There are also non-profit online platforms, Wikipedia being the best known. They function primarily through the collaboration of a large number of unpaid people. Since this report discusses aspects of the creation of paid work through the business models made possible by online platforms, no reference will be made to non-profit platforms. The characterization of online platforms is based, in part, on Menéndez (n/d).

Where a three-party relationship exists, it can take two markedly different forms, as the platform can act either as an intermediary or as a service provider. If it only provides a space for contact between the supplier and demander, the platform is considered an intermediary. In this case, the platform establishes certain coordination rules, but key aspects such as price are set by the other two parties, with the supplier and demander playing different roles depending on the market in question.[5] In contrast, if the platform coordinates supply and demand under pre-established conditions regarding characteristics such as price, obligations of the parties and details of the rendering of the service, it is acting as a service provider.

According to the classification prepared by Schmidt (2017) and further developed by Menéndez (n/d), among commercial platforms one can differentiate between those through which goods are traded and those that facilitate access to and rendering of services (see diagram II.1).

A distinction can be made between platforms for the sale or rental of tangible goods and those for intangible goods. Platforms for tangible goods include those that market their own goods (or those obtained from third parties) for sale (such as Amazon) or for rental (such as Mobike and WeWork) and, those that act as intermediaries for the sale (for example, Mercado Libre) or rental (for instance, Airbnb) of third-party goods or property. Consequently, there are formats with two and three parties. In the case of intangible goods, the products are owned by the platform itself or they are owned by third parties and made available for sale (for instance on App Store or Google Play Store) or rental (on platforms such as Netflix or Spotify).

Among the service platforms, some are related to performing tasks and others to marketing of other types of services. These other services can include financial intermediation, communications and information.

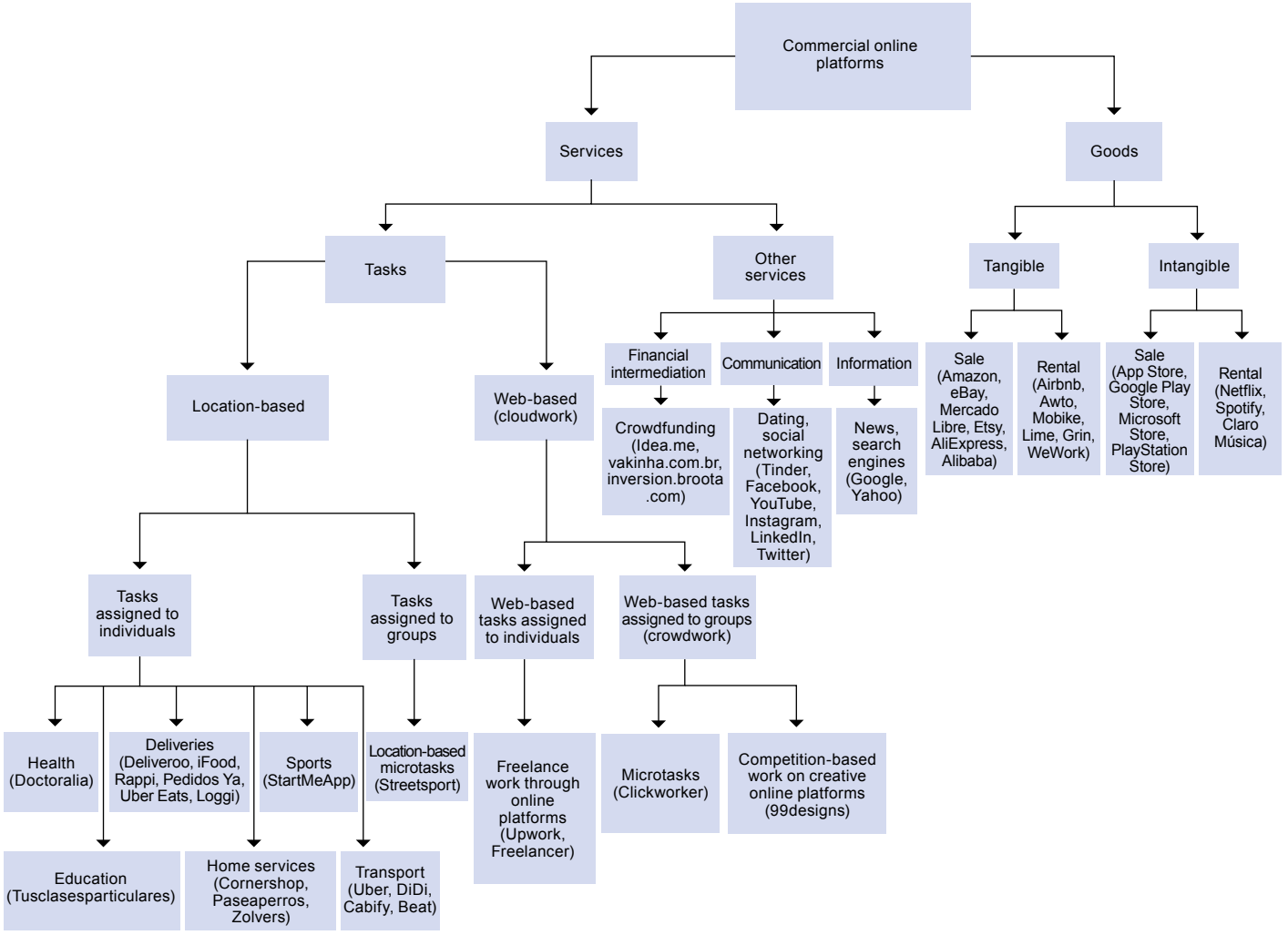
Financial technology (fintech) has expanded access to financial services for sectors of the population that were previously excluded from the banking system and have facilitated innovative financial mechanisms, such as crowdfunding (ECLAC, 2018, chapter V).

In communication services, social networks have fundamentally transformed information flows, generating enormous opportunities for their democratization, but also posed huge challenges, for example with respect to the veracity and quality of information and greater fragmentation of public discourse and the corresponding information flows. This area is complemented by information services (news services, search engines) which have become key instruments for access to globally available information. Although all these platforms create direct employment, it is almost exclusively in the companies that operate them, and a limited number of posts. “Influencers”, who receive income for the suggestions that they post on social networks regarding the purchase or rental of products, are an exception.

This chapter examines platforms related to the performance of tasks, which account for most of the work that has emerged in this context thus far. In these cases, the relationship between the three parties (service requester, service provider and platform) is key. As shown in diagram II.1, a distinction is made between those platforms that offer web-based gig work, which is to say tasks that are carried out online for a global market, and those that offer location-based work.

[5] For example, in the sale or rental of goods, it is usually the supplier who sets the price, and the demander who chooses to accept it or not, while in the hiring of people it is the demander who decides the remuneration.

Diagram II.1
Categories of commercial online platforms for goods and services



Source: E. Menéndez, "Clasificación del trabajo en plataformas digitales", Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), n/d, unpublished, on the basis of F. Schmidt, *Digital Labour Markets in the Platform Economy: Mapping the Political Challenges of Crowd Work and Gig Work*, Bonn, Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung, 2017.
Note: Examples of each category are given in parentheses.

Platforms that offer web-based tasks include those that assign tasks to an individual and those that assign them to a group of people (crowdwork). In crowdwork, there is a difference between work that is carried out in a fragmented way, by means of microtasks, which are usually routine tasks that do not require higher levels of knowledge or specialization, and work that cannot be divided into microtasks, mainly in creative activities such as design and marketing. In this case, undefined groups of persons compete, simultaneously and individually, to complete the task requested. Upon completion, the client chooses the proposal they are most satisfied with, pays only for the accepted proposal, and the other jobs remain unpaid.

Web-based tasks assigned directly to an individual are usually somewhat complex and require specialized knowledge. The professional areas in which this type of platform work is used include software development, engineering and translation.

Platforms that organize location-based tasks cover many areas of work. They generally assign work to individuals, but there are also cases of work for a group of persons, for example, in home remodelling or maintenance.

Among the online platforms for location-based tasks, the most significant are for passenger transport (such as Uber, Cabify and Didi) and for food or parcel deliveries (for example iFood, Loggi, Pedidos Ya, Rappi and Uber Eats). Other examples of work that can be performed on the basis of online platforms are home maintenance and repairs, domestic services, care work, shopping, sports and educational activities and pet care.

On many of these location-based platforms, there tend to be fewer obstacles to accessing a job than on web-based platforms, as relatively basic skills are generally required.[6] Maintenance and repair work, caring for people, and education and sports activities do of course require specific skills. However, these areas are not linked to digitization and, except for the link to the platform and communication between the supplier and demander, do not require the use of digital tools.

In contrast, web-based jobs require mastery of digital skills, to connect and perform the task remotely, in some cases based on highly specialized skills (such as those of programmers, web developers or translators) and in others only requiring basic technical skills (data entry and image sorting, among others). Diagram II.2 summarizes the characteristics of the different types of service platforms, in terms of spatial relationships and required level of specialized skills.

Because household surveys, as key sources of information for labour market analysis, are not yet designed to identify jobs created through online platforms, it is difficult to estimate how important they have become in Latin American labour markets. In the cases of Argentina, Colombia and the Dominican Republic, it has been estimated that between 0.8% and 1.0% of the employed are engaged in online platform work.[7]

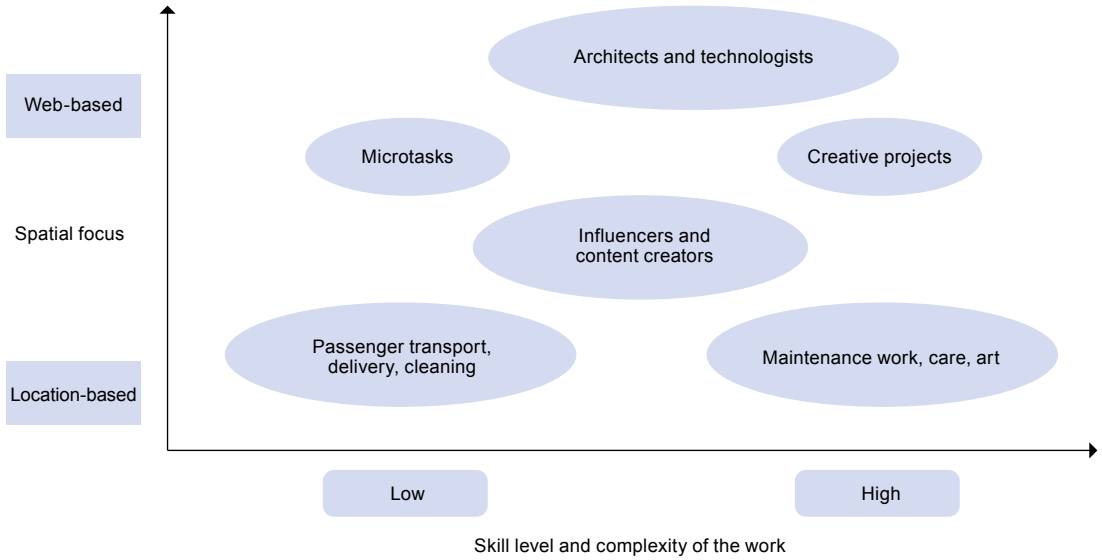
In Latin America and the Caribbean, the professional areas most frequently found among the supply and demand for web-based work on online platforms are design, media, engineering and science; translation and language; and information technology and software (see figure II.1).[8] To a lesser extent, there is supply and demand for work in data processing, and sales and marketing (Hilbert and Lu, 2020).

6 In addition, there are generally no selection processes, or they are very simple.

7 See Madariaga and others (2019), Garcia and Javier (2020) and Fernandez and Benavides (2020). However, these estimates are often based on relatively broad definitions. For example, for the Dominican Republic it has been estimated that only a quarter of these workers are active in a given period, so that in this country the people actually engaged in this work at any given time represent only 0.2% of all employed persons (García and Javier, 2020). For the European Union, it has been estimated that between 1% and 5% of adults have done paid work through an online platform at some point; an estimate based on bank transfers in the United States found that 0.4% of bank accounts had received a payment from an online work platform in a given month (Forde and others, 2017).

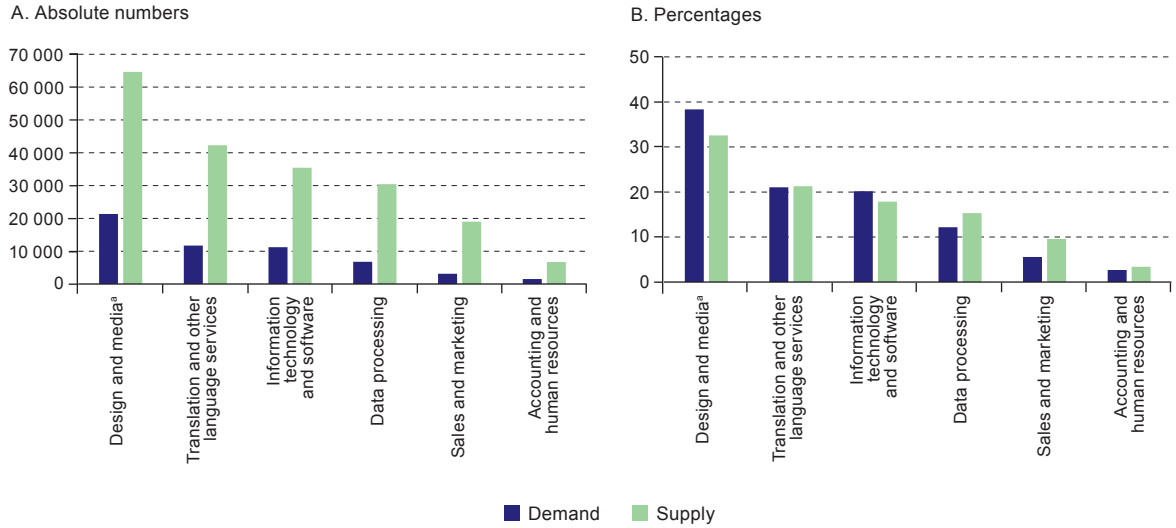
8 The data are based on jobs offered and providers, job seekers registered on the Freelancer and Upwork platforms in the period from 14 October to 15 December 2019. The large gap between supply and demand is partly explained by the fact that people who bid for jobs remain on the platform until they leave, while jobs are usually removed once someone has been hired to do them.

Diagram II.2
Types of work in the platform economy, by spatial focus and required skills



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of S. Vallas and J. Schor, "What do platforms do? Understanding the gig economy", *Annual Review of Sociology*, vol. 46, July 2020.

Figure II.1
Latin America and the Caribbean: job demand and supply on online web-based platforms, daily averages, 14 October to 15 December 2019
(Absolute numbers and percentages)



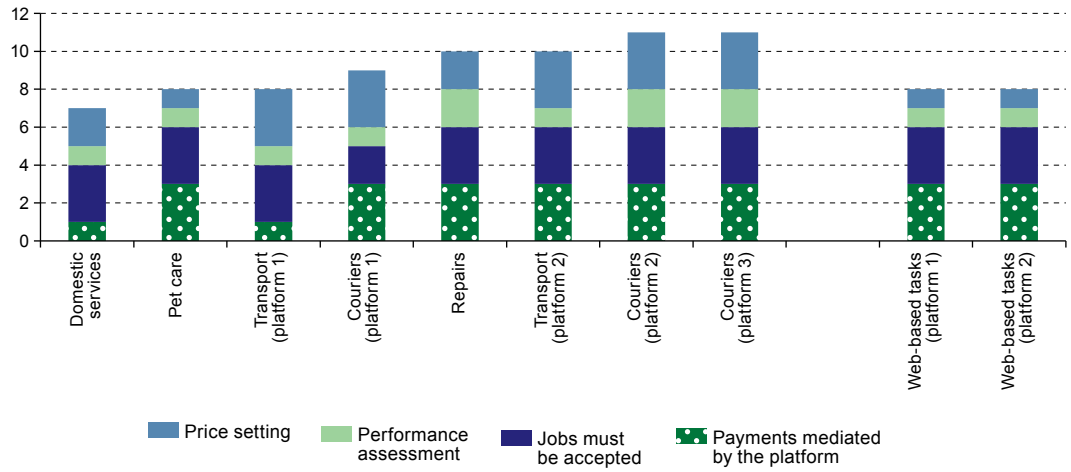
Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of M. Hilbert and K. Lu, "The online job market trace in Latin America and the Caribbean", *Project Documents* (LC/TS.2020/83), Santiago, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), 2020.

[a] Includes engineering and science.

A comparison of the composition of demand and supply for work on these platforms shows that demand tends to be higher than supply for tasks requiring higher levels of qualification, in relative terms, while in occupations involving less complex tasks (data processing or sales), supply is relatively higher.

There is considerable heterogeneity in contractual conditions and labour relations, especially when comparing web-based and location-based platforms. But there are also important differences among location-based platforms, as shown in figure II.2, which summarizes the control mechanisms employed by different online platforms in Argentina.

Figure II.2
Argentina: indicators of controls employed by online platforms, by type of work
(Units)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of J. Madariaga and others, *Economía de plataformas y empleo: ¿cómo es trabajar para una app en Argentina?*, Buenos Aires, Center for the Implementation of Public Policies Promoting Equality and Growth (CIPPEC)/Inter-American Development Bank (IDB)/International Labour Organization (ILO), 2019.
Note: 1 = low control intensity; 2 = intermediate intensity; 3 = high intensity.

The differences between the requirements for accessing a job on web-based platforms and on location-based platforms are reflected in the sociodemographic characteristics of the two groups of workers.[9] Specifically, workers on online web-based platforms tend to be, on average, younger and more educated. Among both types of workers, the proportion of women tends to be lower than in the employed population in general, and is somewhat higher in online web-based platforms (García and Javier, 2020; Madariaga and others, 2019).[10]

[9] For example, Garcia and Javier (2020, pp. 56–57) list the skills that both types of platforms require from their workers, and which are more specialized for web-based platforms.
[10] Platforms for domestic service tasks are one exception to this.

B. Online platforms and decent work[11]

The concept of decent work, originally developed by the International Labour Organization (ILO) and later adapted by the United Nations as a whole as a guiding concept in the framework of the Sustainable Development Goals, enables the analysis of the characteristics of work on online platforms to be structured.[12] The concept of decent work encompasses four basic dimensions: fundamental rules, principles and rights at work, the creation of decent jobs and incomes, social protection for all, and effective social dialogue. When identifying aspects of precariousness of work on online platforms, it is possible to determine the extent to which the mode of work is aligned with the key elements of decent work. The key elements of decent work are:[13]

- Employment opportunities
- Fair income and productive work
- Decent working hours
- Job stability and security
- Work-life balance
- Equality of opportunity and treatment in employment
- Safe and secure workplaces
- Social security
- Social dialogue and representation

This report will now examine the results of empirical studies on the characteristics of work on online platforms, focusing on studies of Latin America, examining the characteristics of this work in relation to these key elements. As stressed in the previous section, the characteristics of labour relations and conditions differ between platforms, so a distinction is made between web-based platforms and location-based platforms. There are also differences between the platforms in each of the two groups, so not necessarily all the characteristics presented below correspond to the labour characteristics of each platform.

1. Employment opportunities

In a prolonged period characterized by a weak creation of productive employment —since 2013, wage employment growth in the region has been outpaced by growth in own-account work— and a corresponding rise in unemployment, the emergence of new job opportunities is welcome, especially for population groups that face particular difficulties to obtain employment and labour income. Indeed, workers on location-based online platforms above all give the ability to leave unemployment behind as one of their advantages. For example, in Argentina, Colombia and Costa Rica, 19%, 27% and 30%, respectively, of the workers who were interviewed mentioned it as the main advantage of such platforms.[14]

[11] The information presented in this section is based mainly on Berg and others (2019) and ILO (2021a) for global information; Madariaga and others (2019) for information on Argentina; Fernández and Benavides (2020), on Colombia; Ruiz (2020), on Costa Rica; and García and Javier (2020) on the Dominican Republic. The data cited for these four countries are based on these studies, unless otherwise indicated. It should be noted that, because of the absence of a census covering this type of work, it is impossible to precisely delimit the corresponding universe, so the surveys that produce the information summarized below are not statistically representative of these jobs. However, they are considered to adequately show their main characteristics.

[12] For an analysis of the application of this concept and the problems and progress in measurement in Latin America, see ECLAC/ILO (2013).

[13] Decent work also encompasses the eradication of forced and child labour. While there may be cases of online platform work by adolescents that would be unacceptable under decent work criteria, no information on this has been presented in the literature.

[14] This proportion tends to be lower among workers on web-based platforms (see ILO (2021, p. 144) for information on both types of platforms at the global level).

Among the population groups that take advantage of these opportunities, young people are particularly prominent. For example, in the Dominican Republic, there is a large presence of young people in such jobs —69% of location-based platform workers and 68% of web-based platform workers are 29 years old or younger— which are largely seen as an alternative to the widespread youth unemployment.

In countries with considerable recent labour migration, there is a high proportion of immigrants among location-based platform workers. This is the case, for example, in Colombia, Costa Rica and the Dominican Republic, all countries that in recent years have had large influxes of immigrants, mostly from the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, but also from other countries, especially in the case of Costa Rica. Indeed, surveys indicate that in these three countries 17%, 11% and 15% of location-based platform workers, respectively, are migrants.[15] This percentage tends to be much higher for platforms with lower barriers to entry, such as delivery platforms, while among platform workers who must invest considerable capital, such as those in passenger transport platforms, it is lower. For example, in Argentina, 66% to 84% of delivery platform workers are recent immigrants, but only 5% to 15% of drivers linked to online platforms are. Similarly, in Chile around 70% of delivery platform workers and around 10% of online platform drivers are migrants (ILO, 2021, p. 139).[16]

Because of difficulties in obtaining formal employment and depending on their level of education, among platform workers more migrants than nationals generally report performing the work because it is their only option. For example, among online platform delivery workers surveyed in Santiago, 39% of migrants reported that they had not found another job, while for nationals the proportion was 20% (Asenjo Cruz and Coddou McManus, 2021, in press).

2. Fair income and productive work

While access to a job and the corresponding income tends to improve financial situations, for the work to be considered decent it must be productive and provide sufficient income.

Regarding income, in both types of platforms people generally have to contribute unpaid time to be able to access paid tasks. In the case of location-based platforms it is mostly waiting time until a task is assigned, while in the case of web-based platforms it may be time spent preparing a proposal on how to approach a task. For some jobs, several people submit proposals, but only one is hired, so the others do work that does not lead to a paid job. Consequently, compared with the income of wage earners, hourly income varies according to whether unpaid hours are included in the calculation.

In the specific case of web-based tasks, relatively high hourly earnings have been identified, compared to prevailing wages in the corresponding labour markets;[17] however, if unpaid time spent on tasks related to the work on the platforms is included, the income can be considerably lower with respect to other labour relationships. For example, according to ILO surveys (ILO, 2021, p. 155), the average hourly income from web-based platform work is US$ 4.90 based purely on paid worked hours, but it is US$ 3.40 if unpaid hours that are necessary for performing the task are included.

[15] According to surveys cited in several chapters of Hidalgo Cordero and Salazar Daza (2020), among online platform delivery workers the proportion of immigrants is 66% in Ecuador and 73% in Peru. In contrast, among web-based platform workers, for example, in the Dominican Republic, only 5% are immigrants.

[16] These data were collected prior to the COVID-19 pandemic. Subsequent observations suggest that, during the pandemic, job losses in other sectors and increased demand for delivery services encouraged more nationals to enter this activity. Naturally, these percentages are lower in countries that have not experienced recent mass immigration; for example, in Mexico, only about 2% and 4% of online platform drivers and delivery workers, respectively, are migrants (ILO, 2021, p. 139).

[17] This is not necessarily the case in developed countries, where hourly pay may be relatively low (ILO, 2021).

For location-based platforms, workers in the Dominican Republic, for example, have been found to earn income that is above the minimum wage and, for those who have completed up to secondary education, higher than the average income of other employed people of the same educational level. In Chile and Mexico, it has been found that online platform drivers have higher hourly income than traditional taxi drivers; however, in the case of delivery workers in Chile, the situation is the opposite and platform workers have lower income (ILO, 2021, pp. 160 and 161).

In these cases, including unpaid hours in the calculation also leads to a considerable drop in relative income. For example, it has been calculated that platform workers in Colombia earn per effective hour of work, on average, an equivalent of 105% of the average for the employed population; but if unpaid hours online are also taken into account, this percentage drops to 71%.

Furthermore, online platform workers generally receive no or very small cash benefits in addition to their base pay. For example, in the Dominican Republic, only 7% to 9% of location-based platform workers interviewed reported receiving additional pay for working overtime, working on public holidays or at night, and just 3% received a Christmas bonus.

Many platform workers also have to make investments to access this work. This is not only the case, for example, for drivers but also for many delivery workers. In a survey carried out in Santiago, 70% of the online platform delivery drivers interviewed had purchased their means of transport specifically to be able to work with the platform, and almost half of them had taken on debt for the purchase, putting a burden on their income and —given the income instability— creating an additional risk (Asenjo Cruz and Coddou McManus, 2021, in press).

In many cases more and more people are entering these sectors, driving down pay, especially because of longer unpaid waiting times.

It is difficult in this context to operationalize and measure "productive work"; however, summarizing information on workers' perceptions of how this work contributes to their personal development shows there is a noticeable gap between the two types of platforms. Many of those who perform tasks through web-based platforms report that this type of work gives opportunities for almost continuous self-training, since the tasks often vary from one assignment to the next. They thus accumulate experience that is considered important for their professional growth and that may be relevant for jobs in other environments. For example, in the Dominican Republic, 14% of web-based platform workers reported that development of certain professional skills was the main reason for engaging in this type of work, and 23% of these workers said they were satisfied with this work precisely because it allowed them to grow professionally.[18]

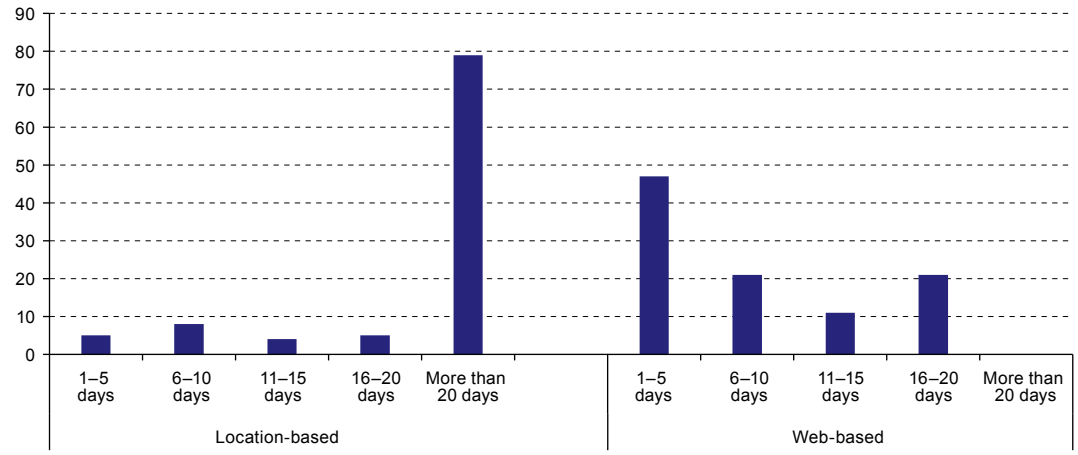
In contrast, training for location-based platform workers is minimal and essentially limited to platform use and customer relations and, more recently, protective measures during the COVID-19 pandemic. Many of these people see this work as temporary and are already looking for more attractive jobs or plan to change jobs in the medium term.

3. Decent working hours

There is generally also a difference between location-based and web-based platform workers in terms of time spent on their jobs. As figure II.3 shows, in the Dominican Republic, workers on location-based platforms spend many more days per month on the platforms than those on web-based platforms. This is related to the fact that, for location-based platform workers, platform work is their main activity and therefore their primary source of income.

[18] However, among the online web-based platform jobs there are also very monotonous tasks, especially within microtasking.

Figure II.3
Dominican Republic: days per month worked on platforms, by type of platform
(Percentages of workers)



Source: J. A. García and K. Javier, "Los trabajadores de plataformas digitales en la República Dominicana: caracterización y opciones para su protección social", *Project Documents* (LC/TS.2020/91), Santiago, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), 2020.

However, many web-based platform workers would like to work more hours, and one of the reasons for the relatively high dissatisfaction with this mode of work is not being able to obtain more tasks (Garcia and Javier, 2020, p. 71).

Workers on location-based delivery platforms also frequently want more orders and tasks (ILO, 2021, p. 152). These workers often work exceptionally long hours, mainly to compensate for unpaid waiting time and to reach an income goal. For example, in Costa Rica, 68.1% of location-based platform workers interviewed reported working more than 40 hours per week, and 47.7% even more than 50 hours. In Chile, platform delivery workers work an average of 61 hours per week, while traditional delivery workers only work 40 hours. In the case of drivers, the reverse is true: 46 hours for online platform drivers and 67 hours for traditional drivers (ILO, 2021, pp. 169–170), which may be because platform drivers can concentrate their online time on peak hours.

4. Job stability and security

On both types of platform, service contracts are generally signed (or simply the platform's terms of service), but not employment contracts, which means that the protection labour legislation affords to wage employment is absent. This means companies are able to unilaterally disconnect workers from platforms —and therefore from further paid work— either temporarily or permanently, usually without the worker being offered the opportunity to oppose or appeal the decision. For example, in the Dominican Republic, 47% of location-based platform workers interviewed stated that the platforms disconnected workers without giving timely notice or justification, and another 29% were unfamiliar with disconnection mechanisms.

Payment is made for work performed and, in the case of web-based platforms, it is usually the requester of the task who sets the corresponding amount when creating the task on the platform. Location-based delivery platforms set the amounts and may include bonuses to incentivize certain behaviour, such as a willingness to work in unattractive conditions.

Given the fluctuations in demand, work and income tend to be unstable. To stabilize work and income, many workers (especially those on location-based platforms) use working and waiting hours as adjustment variables and work until they have earned the amount they set as a goal.[19] This strategy can become complicated as the number of people registered on a platform rises; if demand does not grow at the same rate, this tends to lengthen waiting times. Therefore, another strategy is registration on various platforms. For example, among the location-based platform workers interviewed in Costa Rica, 34.4% reported working with several platforms.

The strategy of extending the working day until a personal income target is reached is not applicable for online web-based platforms, but people linked to such platforms often prefer to take on more tasks to increase and stabilize their income (ILO, 2021, p. 149).

In both cases, there is a high level of control through evaluation by the task requesters. This evaluation is generally unappealable and unilateral; with some exceptions, workers do not have the possibility to evaluate the behaviour of requesters. Evaluations are particularly important, since reputation frequently plays a key role in access to new (and attractive) assignments and can, if it is very negative, lead to unilateral exclusion from the relevant platform. Extremely strict controls are exercised over workers through these evaluations and, in some cases, through the platform itself.[20]

5. Work-life balance

On both types of platform, workers have some flexibility in the organization of their working hours. This flexibility tends to be higher among people who perform web-based platform tasks. These jobs, predominantly carried out from home and often as side jobs, are characterized by a need to coordinate with household chores and family life.[21] As a result, they are often carried out at night, which can harm the physical and mental health of workers. Hence, working from home in itself does not guarantee a proper work-life balance (ILO, 2021, pp. 171–172).

On location-based platforms, flexibility in managing working hours tends to be more limited, as many platforms have a system of incentives and penalties to encourage workers' availability at specific times. In addition, for many of the workers on such platforms it is their main job, which limits this flexibility further. For example, in Costa Rica, platform work was the only or the main job for 88.4% of the location-based platform workers interviewed. In Argentina, between 64.6% and 95.5% of the transport and delivery platform workers interviewed stated that platform work was their main source of income. In Mexico, 80.5% of the online delivery platform workers interviewed said it was their sole economic activity (Alba Vega, Bensusán and Vega, 2021). However, this relative flexibility is often appreciated by these workers: 15% of workers interviewed in Costa Rica and 46% of respondents in Colombia cited this aspect of platform work as the main advantage.

Flexible hours also facilitate access to paid work for many students who can thus easily combine their studies with work. In addition, web-based platform tasks provide people with physical disabilities with access to paid work, especially if the disabilities make it difficult to move around.

[19] This is not the case for people working on the platforms in addition to their main job, who tend to prefer to work solely during the hours when demand peaks.

[20] This does not mean that there are no means of circumventing certain control mechanisms (Ruiz, 2020; Vallas and Schor, 2020).

[21] For example, in terms of working time, only 5% of web-based platform workers interviewed in the Dominican Republic reported the online platform as their main job, while among location-based platform workers this percentage was 57% (García and Javier, 2020, p. 59).

6. Equal opportunity and treatment in employment

Women tend to be underrepresented on both types of platforms, although their participation is somewhat higher on web-based platforms. For example, in Argentina and the Dominican Republic, women's participation on such platforms is 33% and 37%, respectively.[22] However, the web-based platforms with the most demanding tasks (such as programming) are almost exclusively used by men.

On delivery and passenger transport platforms, women's participation is just 3%–6% in Argentina, 6% in Costa Rica and the Dominican Republic, and 8% in Colombia. One exception to this trend is home cleaning service platforms, which are still not widespread. In Argentina, all the survey respondents who worked through platforms that intermediate such jobs were women, replicating characteristics of the wider sexual division of labour.

As the following paragraph shows, many platform workers face a number of personal safety risks, particularly in the case of location-based platforms; women are more likely than men to be victims of harassment and discrimination (ILO, 2021, pp. 171 and 189). Among delivery workers in Mexico City, 20% of women and 10% of men reported having experienced sexual harassment (Alba Vega, Bensusán and Vega, 2021).

7. Safe and secure workplaces

Some location-based platform jobs come with a high risk of accidents or attack. For example, in Costa Rica, 46% of workers for delivery and passenger transport platforms report a high risk of traffic accidents, while 40% mention an elevated risk of muggings, particularly on trips to areas perceived as having a security risk. It is mostly delivery drivers who are especially exposed: in Mexico City, more than 40% of respondents have been victims of accidents and about 23% have been victims of robbery (Alba Vega, Bensusán and Vega, 2021). Other environmental factors affecting the personal safety and health of these workers are adverse weather conditions (ILO, 2021, p.172).

In addition, the poor hygiene conditions that some of these workers have to deal with can affect the community at large. This is the case, for example, when workers awaiting jobs congregate in areas with no sanitary facilities and depend on the businesses for which they provide services to allow them access to such facilities.

8. Social security

Platforms do not generally assume responsibility for the social and labour protection of workers who, depending on the company's model, are classified as independent contractors or "partners". The personal repercussions are less dire for workers on online web-based platforms, most of whom do gig work to use their free time to supplement their income and many of them have social protection coverage through their primary employment. For example, in the Dominican Republic, 53% of online web-based platform workers interviewed had primary jobs (in terms of time spent) as private or public sector employees, while in Argentina, for 75% of these workers, gig work was not their main source of income.[23]

[22] According to ILO surveys (ILO, 2021, p. 138), in developed countries almost half of web-based platform workers are women, while in developing countries this proportion is only 24%.

[23] Many of these workers —although not necessarily all of them— are likely to be in formal employment.

In the case of location-based platforms, in some countries, these platforms are increasingly requiring workers to provide their own social security coverage as independent contractors. In Argentina, under the institutional framework governing social security and labour, formal self-employed workers contribute primarily through the *monotributo* (single-tax) regime, which entitles them to participate in contributory social security systems, albeit with less benefits than formal wage earners. Among the workers on both online web-based and location-based platforms interviewed in that country, 54.5% contributed to pension systems, mostly through the single-tax regime.[24]

In Costa Rica, 61.9% of the location-based platform workers interviewed said that they were covered under both the sickness and maternity regime and the disability, old age and death regime. Of these, 57.1% contributed as self-employed and 12.9% (7.9% of all workers on these platforms) were insured through the company.[25] As noted in Fernandez and Benavides (2020), in a context of low income, the self-insurance model encourages contributions based only on the minimum income, which in turn has a negative effect on social security benefits received in the future.

Lastly, in some cases, such as passenger transport, the platforms finance automobile insurance to cover customers in the event of accidents (Ruiz, 2020, p. 63). Some delivery platforms also provide accident insurance coverage for workers.[26]

9. Social dialogue and representation

Platform work is often associated with the individualization of work and the isolation of workers. However, Stewart, Shanahan and Smith (2020) underline that although platforms do represent a type of individualization of work performed by persons who are spatially separated, the collective aspect of work is not lost and, therefore, the unionization of these workers cannot be refused.

Initiatives to overcome this isolation do exist: there are digital forums, for example, designed especially for workers on online web-based platforms. Social links are also formed between location-based platform workers, for example, in areas where delivery drivers assemble while they wait for new orders. Moreover, in several countries (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Mexico and Peru), these workers have launched self-organization initiatives and some trade unions are beginning to include them.[27] In many cases, the percentage of platform workers organizing through either of these options is low; however, the prospect of greater government support to strengthen workers' rights could increase interest.[28] National worker organization processes have led to growing international cooperation, as manifested in the coordination of activities among these organizations (Farías Valenzuela, 2021, forthcoming).

Collective action has been taken to defend labour rights and improve working conditions, one example being the delivery workers' strike in Costa Rica in response to a reduction in the minimum payment per delivery. There has also been mobilization of location-based platform workers in many

[24] Employers contributed to pensions for only 9.1% of these workers (5.0% of the total number of respondents).
[25] Some 30% of these insured workers are covered by contributions from other companies, meaning that they have another formal job.
[26] In Mexico City, 27% of the delivery drivers interviewed have accident insurance, but only one fifth of those with insurance were covered through the platform (Alba Vega, Bensusán and Vega, 2021).
[27] See Johnston and Land-Kazlauskas (2018) for a review and discussion of the collective organization options available to platform workers.
[28] Among the Mexico City delivery workers surveyed by Alba Vega, Bensusán and Vega (2021), only 2.7% belonged to a delivery workers' group or association, but most said that better pay and benefits and greater rights, transparency and security would be incentives for them to participate. Only 6% stated that they would never join a worker organization.

other countries in the region.[29] In addition, coordinated efforts at regional and international level have been undertaken to drive progress on issues such as payment amounts, accident insurance, disconnections, social and labour protection, and recognition of the employment relationship.

10. Conclusions on the quality of platform work

While the working conditions of platforms vary considerably, in general this form of work is characterized by a high degree of non-compliance with the criteria for decent work: instability of work and income, a large share of unpaid time, long working hours, no social and labour protection, and few options for dialogue and representation with a marked power imbalance between the platform and the worker and, to a certain extent, between the contracting party and workers. Among location-based platform workers, the main reasons for dissatisfaction tend to be related to income level (low pay and high commission charged by platforms), while workers on online web-based platform mention issues such as late payment and intense competition for gigs.

There tends to be lower levels of precariousness among workers on online web-based platforms. However, this is attributable not only to the characteristics of these jobs but also to the fact that they are often secondary jobs, which can help to reduce insecurity in workers' personal situation (for example, thanks to increased labour income), even if the work itself is precarious.

Despite these aspects of job precariousness, studies indicate that platform workers —mainly those who provide services on online web-based platforms— perceive certain advantages to this work modality. One of the main advantages is that platform jobs can represent an alternative to unemployment. This factor tends to be more important for workers on location-based platforms who, in general, lack specialized skills and for whom platform jobs are a source of wage employment in an activity with low entry barriers. Workers on online web-based platforms, however, often value the opportunity to earn supplementary income and accumulate new work experiences on various projects, allowing them to acquire new knowledge and skills that can be useful for other jobs. Moreover, working hours are generally more flexible for web-based platform workers and, as this work is mostly done at home, many appreciate the prospect of better work-life balance. However, conditions in the home can increase stress levels and put physical and mental health at risk, especially when long hours of overnight work are required.

In terms of hourly earnings, workers on both types of platforms often consider their earnings to be relatively high, although to earn the desired income —and this is especially true in the case of workers performing location-based tasks— they must spend a great deal of unpaid time waiting between jobs.

These perceived advantages may explain why, in surveys among platform workers, a high percentage of respondents indicate that they are satisfied with their jobs, including location-based platform workers. The studies conducted in Argentina, Colombia, Costa Rica and the Dominican Republic found that job satisfaction among platform workers stood at between 66% and 71%.

This may be surprising given the characteristics of their work, which reflect precarious working conditions. In addition to the positive perception of some features of platform work, two other aspects should be borne in mind. First, how a job is evaluated and to what extent it is satisfactory will depend in part on prior expectations; since platform workers are often informed (through friends or acquaintances)

[29] See Hidalgo Cordero and Salazar Daza (2020) and Farías Valenzuela (2021, forthcoming), which contain several chapters dealing with conflicts and mobilizations of workers of location-based digital platforms in a number of countries of the region.

about the characteristics of these jobs before taking them on, they tend to have realistic expectations. Second, in Latin American countries, precarious work is more or less common, especially for people with low levels of formal education. Therefore, most of the alternative options for location-based platform workers would be no less precarious than their current jobs. These three aspects could explain the relatively high levels of satisfaction reported by platform workers. However, the fact that a majority of location-based platform workers express interest in changing jobs indicates that this satisfaction is not lasting, as the objective aspects of platform work render it unattractive in the long term.[30]

Furthermore, the sui generis combination of control mechanisms used by platforms, their algorithms and worker-managed flexibility has resulted in a number of coexisting narratives through which platform workers interpret their work situation. Specifically, Stewart, Shanahan and Smith (2020) identify three narratives related to economic opportunity, platform work as a leisure-time activity and precarious work. This implies that not only are the specific working conditions on the different platforms heterogeneous but also that the interpretation of the realities of work varies individually, further hindering the prospects of collective organization.

C. Platform work during the pandemic

To mitigate the spread of the COVID-19 pandemic, throughout 2020 and in early 2021, all countries of the region implemented restrictions on mobility and various economic activities. This had a profound impact on the labour market in general and also, in different ways, on platform work.[31]

During the pandemic, access to gigs on online web-based platforms was determined by demand trends on these platforms. After an initial decline owing to the slowdown in economic activity, demand rebounded in line with expectations for economic recovery. In addition, the switch to online work as part of the measures to reduce person-to-person contact and thus the risk of contracting COVID-19 likely increased the demand on digital platforms.

Figure II.4 shows data on the trends in tasks and projects posted on the five largest English-language online labour platforms which the Oxford Internet Institute collected to publish an index with a series beginning in mid-2016. The figure shows the maximums and minimums for the number of projects and tasks posted on these platforms throughout 2020, as well as data from late 2019 to early April 2021.[32]

To interpret the data in figure II.4, it must be borne in mind that they are not seasonally adjusted and that in all years for which data are available demand falls in December and the first days of January, leading to recurring lows in January.

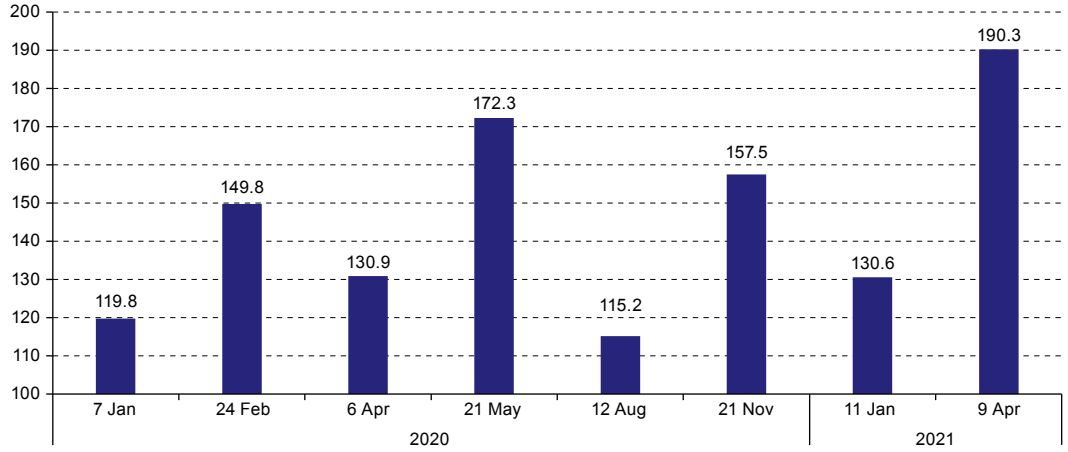
As the figure shows, the recovery in demand in January and February 2020 reversed in March, causing the 28-day moving average to reach a low in early April, probably in reaction to the impact of the pandemic globally. From April onwards, demand picked up, reaching the maximum for the year in May, a likely reflection of the fact that it was during these months that many countries enforced the strictest measures to control the pandemic and prohibited face-to-face work in many economic activities. Many affected companies implemented adaptation strategies that centred largely on teleworking by employees (ECLAC/ILO, 2020). It would also be reasonable to assume that there was an increase in the use of digital platforms at this time, which may have contributed to this upturn.

30 In Costa Rica, for example, 68% of interviewed platform workers said that they would prefer a different type of job.

31 See ECLAC/ILO (2020), Weller and others (2020) and ILO (2020a) for the immediate impact on labour markets. For long-term effects, see Weller (2020).

32 This means that when a maximum is reached, the number of published tasks starts to decrease until a minimum is reached, after which the number of published tasks starts to increase (until a new maximum is reached) The data for each date represent the 28-day moving average.

Figure II.4
Variation in demand in global labour platforms, maximums and minimums, early 2020-early April 2021
(Index May 2016=100)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of O. Kässi and V. Lehdonvirta, "The Online Labour Index", iLabour project, Oxford Internet Institute [online] https://ilabour.oii.ox.ac.uk/online-labour-index/.

The value of the index fell from June in multiple years, possibly due to the holiday period in the northern hemisphere, home to the main regions from which the demand for platform work originates. However, in no other year was the fall as sharp as in 2020 (down 33% from the peak), presumably reflecting some of the uncertainty about when the economic recovery would occur and how strong it would be. However, there was a marked increase in the index from mid-November, with a new high recorded at the end of that month.

Thus, although the index subsequently declined again —partly owing to seasonal variations, as mentioned above— in early 2021 it was well above the year-earlier levels, despite the sharp contraction in the global economy in the same period.[33] It can therefore be concluded that, beyond the variable impact of the unfolding pandemic on the demand for platform work, this type of work continued to grow; in fact, the pandemic has only accelerated this long-term trend.

In some countries, the labour supply on online web-based platforms increased substantially compared to labour demand, likely as a consequence of the loss of sources of income in the context of the pandemic (ILO, 2021, pp. 56-57). In this context, it can be assumed that many people with digital skills signed up to platforms in search of other employment options.

The types of location-based platform work that appear to have suffered most are passenger transport and domestic work in households, as a result of restrictions on mobility and the overall fall in demand for paid domestic work.[34] In contrast, demand for shopping and delivery services rose sharply, owing to, among other things, the closure of restaurants and the fact that many people sought to protect themselves by not leaving their homes to shop.[35] Even so, many delivery workers faced a disruption of

[33] When comparing the initial impact of the pandemic and the recovery phase in 2021, a year-on-year increase is seen both in January, before the pandemic hit in 2020, and in March.

[34] In Latin America, work in households as employers —comprising primarily paid domestic work— was the employment category that recorded the largest contraction in the first months of the pandemic (ECLAC/ILO, 2020). See Valenzuela, Scuro and Vaca Trigo (2020, chap. X.) for a detailed analysis of the effects of COVID-19 on paid domestic work.

[35] Online sales and related delivery services soared with the implementation of restrictions on mobility and confinement measures. For example, between mid-March and early April 2020 alone, online sales increased by 28% in Bogotá, 119% in Chile and up to 300% in Argentina (ILO, 2020b, p. 81).

their activities at some point during the health crisis (ILO, 2021, p. 153). In addition, a high percentage of location-based platform workers reported lower incomes (ILO, 2021, p.162), which, in the case of delivery workers, may be attributable to the increase in the number of people who had lost their jobs during the crisis and saw platform employment as an opportunity to generate labour income during the pandemic or to the lower payments offered by platforms (Abílio and others, 2020, p. 9). In the case of passenger transport, the loss of income was likely due to the fall in demand.

In the midst of the pandemic, location-based work carries significant health risks, which have generally been addressed with protective measures and the relevant training (ILO, 2020b).[36] In this context, the health protection measures introduced by platforms and workers' satisfaction with these measures varied (ILO, 2021, p. 173). According to a survey of Brazilian delivery workers, companies merely provided information, while workers had to bear the cost of protection measures (Abílio and others, 2020).[37] However, in view of the fact that location-based platform workers generally do not benefit from existing social and labour protection mechanisms and, therefore, are not covered by the instruments many countries of the region have adopted to ensure minimum income and a degree of job stability for (formal) workers, many have been forced to assume greater risks to their health and, consequently, that of others, despite their role being deemed essential to reduce the risk of contagion of the general population.[38]

D. Challenges for social and labour regulations governing platform work

The signs of high precariousness in platform work underline the need to refine social protection and labour regulations so that they effectively fulfil their dual function of protecting the social and labour rights of workers and ensuring the efficient functioning of labour markets.

A distinction must be made between the work done for online web-based platforms and for location-based platforms. The former requires regulation at the international level, as workers on these platforms operate in a global labour market. Any local regulation that seeks to protect workers based in a given country but which limits their competitiveness would affect their ability to access platform jobs or could encourage non-compliance, thus rendering it ineffective. Workers on location-based platforms, however, participate in the national labour market and regulations must be designed at this level.

At the heart of the debate is the question of whether this type of work is primarily wage employment, self-employment or a new category not governed by the regulations for either. Many of the features of platform jobs that set them apart from wage employment and self-employment are not new, as aspects such as payment per task, triangular labour relations and the use of own equipment are similar to those seen in other types of "on-demand" work (ECLAC/ILO, 2019). For example, triangular employment relationships sometimes exist in agriculture, where intermediaries recruit day labourers to work in the fields of a third party. Workers in the cottage industry perform their tasks to the specifications of the requester but have some flexibility in the organization of their time.

[36] Of 103 digital platform delivery workers interviewed in five regions of Brazil, 75.7% stated that they had been provided with at least one item of personal protective equipment (alcohol gel, mask or other) (UFBA, 2020).

[37] See also ILO (2020b, p. 86).

[38] For example, 48% of digital platform delivery workers surveyed in Santiago do not have health insurance (Asenjo Cruz and Coddou McManus, 2021, forthcoming).

As with platform work, cottage industry work is performed on demand. However, such jobs usually involve a greater quantity of work than, for example, food delivery or passenger transport, which entail, among other things, more frequent periods of unpaid waiting time. Nonetheless, the share of these "traditional" forms of work in the labour market has declined steadily, at least in Latin America.

Furthermore, the emergence of new types of employment relationships must be analysed against the backdrop of an earlier trend of heterogenization, whereby "standard" wage employment has been superseded through schemes such as the replacement of employment contracts by service contracts, under the guise that workers are not employees, but rather independent workers.

Thus, platform work modalities take on characteristics of other types of "atypical" employment relationships. However, because platforms serve as a key instrument of intermediation and control, they constitute an employment relationship that requires a regulatory response. This is also because the expansion of platform work tends to weaken key labour market regulation instruments such as union organization, collective bargaining and minimum wages.

Consequently, the debate on the regulation of platform work centres on whether it is primarily wage employment (as many platform workers claim) or self-employment (as the companies that own the digital platforms claim), in which case the corresponding regulations would apply. Alternatively, an entirely new regulatory framework would be required, much the same as the category of dependent contractors, which was defined for labour statistics in the International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE-18).

Platform work has clear characteristics of subordination, since workers have to perform tasks according to an established protocol, which is similar to carrying out the orders of an employer. Another illustration is that workers on delivery or shopping platforms often display the logo of the platform company, just as some employees' uniforms signal that they work for a specific company.

However, it is often argued that platform workers are not subordinate because of their relative autonomy with regard to time management, specifically that their working hours are not fixed by the company.

Other key arguments used to support the notion that platform workers are independent are that they own their means of production (vehicles, tools) and that they can work for several platforms.[39] However, there are several aspects that differentiate platform workers from truly independent workers, including:

- Platform workers do not calculate their costs or set the rates charged for their services, those are determined by the platform.
- Marketing materials belong to the company, workers do not promote their own brand.
- Customers preferring to be served by the same worker in the future cannot request this as it is the platform that assigns tasks.
- Customers with complaints about service must address the platform, not the worker.
- The platform assumes part of the business risk related to the service, e.g. non-payment for a service.

Thus, there are arguments both to support that platform workers are wage earners and that they are self-employed— however, there are also arguments against each assumption. Similar to the aforementioned variety in the narratives that platform workers themselves hold about their work reality (Stewart, Shanahan and Smith, 2020), the perceptions of how their work is categorized vary.

[39] It must be borne in mind that even among wage workers, only few are bound by exclusivity clauses.

For example, in typical platform worker mobilizations, demands focus on issues such as pay, certain labour rights (paid holidays, insurance), protection against arbitrary dismissal, health and safety measures, but not necessarily on the recognition of an employment relationship (Farías Valenzuela, 2021, forthcoming), reflecting the preference of some of these workers to be self-employed and the perception that the platform modality satisfies this.[40] However, some location-based platform worker organizations demand the recognition of a wage employment relationship and access to the corresponding rights (Farías Valenzuela, 2021, forthcoming).

In many countries, the lack of a clear legal response to this dilemma has meant that it is often left to the judicial system to decide whether a given case corresponds to wage employment or self-employment. In this respect, progress has been made, especially in developed countries; however, in Latin American countries, although various bills have been introduced, there has been no significant progress with regard to labour legislation, and discussions tend to focus more on tax regulation than on labour issues.[41]

In some cases, courts have developed systematic rules for identifying wage employment or self-employment, using lists of indicators for one or the other type of work. However, given the mixed nature of platform work, which generally does not meet all the criteria used to identify wage employment or own-account work, three alternatives have been proposed:[42]

1. Define, on the basis of existing legislation, a few key criteria that must be satisfied and taken into account for employment to be classified as wage labour or own-account.[43]
2. Define the rights of platform workers on the basis of legislation establishing platform work as a special category, distinct from both wage employment and own-account work.[44]
3. Establish a default differentiated status for platform workers that allows them certain rights but gives workers the possibility to be recognized as employees, with access to the relevant rights (Goldin, 2020).

In short, various options exist for addressing the challenge of proper regulation of platform work.[45] They can all provide adequate solutions, albeit with challenges that are not insignificant. For location-based platforms, the regulatory response must be consistent with existing labour laws, and for this, social dialogue that includes all the relevant stakeholders is necessary. In this context, it is essential for platform workers to be able to organize and for companies to be prohibited from taking repressive measures against workers who support organization.

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40 This position seems more widespread among workers on online web-based platforms. ILO (2021, p.145) cites a Ukrainian worker on one such platform, who states, "Online platforms are very good because there is free time for other activities and no pressure from the employer as opposed to working in an office".

41 See Robles and Tenenbaum (2021) for a review of the debate and developments regarding the regulation of digital platform work in Argentina, Colombia and Mexico.

42 See Bensusán (2020, pp. 57–63) for a synopsis of the court rulings and administrative or legislative decisions on platform work from a number of countries of Latin America and other regions.

43 One example is the ABC test decided in a ruling of the California Supreme Court and adopted by the state legislature under California Assembly Bill 5 (AB5). The law establishes three criteria that a company must satisfy to be able to classify workers as independent contractors instead of employees. Since many location-based platform jobs did not meet these criteria, platform workers were considered employees. However, after a multi-million-dollar campaign by platform companies, in November 2020 State voters passed Proposition 22, which defined rideshare and delivery platform workers as independent contractors, offering some limited regulations —well short of labour laws that protect employees— but implying a different status in comparison to independent contractors not working on digital platforms (Chen, 2020).

44 This is the option underpinning a bill introduced in Colombia and a proposed statute on digital platform workers in Argentina (De Stefano and others, 2021).

45 In early 2021, the Supreme Court of the United Kingdom handed down a judgment which confirmed that Uber drivers are workers and not independent contractors, which meant that Uber were obliged to pay their drivers a minimum wage and allow them to take paid annual leave (*Emol*, 2021).

The upsurge in platform work adds to the increasing heterogeneity of contractual labour relations. Against this backdrop, it cannot be overstated that, from a decent work perspective, classifying location-based platform work as self-employment is the least desirable approach: this type of work, in the absence of the appropriate terms of reference, is clearly a leading contributor to job insecurity. At the same time, this contribution to the ever-increasing heterogeneity of labour relations underscores the importance of the debate on whether or not social and labour rights are dependent on a specific contractual modality, as proposed by the Global Commission on the Future of Work (ILO, 2019) in the Universal Labour Guarantee.

To foster discussion on the regulation of labour platforms, ILO has drawn on existing international labour standards to propose guidance on objectives and processes that can be useful for national and global social dialogue. These include:

- ensuring fair competition and creating an enabling environment for sustainable enterprises
- requiring and promoting clear and transparent terms of engagement and contractual arrangements for workers and businesses, including as reflected in labour and consumer laws
- ensuring that workers' employment status is correctly classified and is in accordance with national classification systems
- ensuring transparency in ratings or rankings of workers and businesses using digital platforms such as online web-based, location-based and e-commerce platforms
- ensuring transparency and accountability of algorithms for workers and businesses
- protecting workers' personal and work data, as well as data relating to businesses and their activities on platforms
- working towards ensuring that self-employed platform workers enjoy the right to bargain collectively, for example through greater harmonization of competition law with labour law
- reaffirming that anti-discrimination and occupational safety and health laws apply to digital labour platforms and their workers
- ensuring adequate social security benefits for all workers, including platform workers, by extending and adapting policy and legal frameworks where necessary
- ensuring fair termination processes for platform workers
- ensuring access to independent dispute resolution mechanisms
- ensuring that platform workers are able to access the courts of the jurisdiction in which they are located if they so choose
- providing for wage protection, fair payments and working time standards
- allowing platform workers to move freely between platforms, including by facilitating portability of workers' data, for example regarding ratings, and
- aiming at effectively taxing the digital economy, including platforms, clients and workers, as well as their transactions (ILO, 2021, p. 256).

E. Conclusions

Advances in connectivity and the massification of "smart" mobile devices have enabled the expansion of new forms of work through digital platforms. There are no representative data available on the quantitative importance of these platform jobs in Latin American countries, and the net generation is even less clear when comparing new jobs against possible simultaneous job losses (for example, taxi drivers, delivery workers employed directly by restaurants, among others). However, estimates based on the partial information available point to job growth in both online web-based and location-based platforms.

Regarding the prospects for this type of work, it remains to be seen to what extent, in various cases, this expansion is driven by the idea that platforms are an attractive business and how efficiently they are implemented, and to what extent the lack of labour, tax, administrative or other regulations makes them less costly than "traditional" competitors.[46]

The COVID-19 pandemic has affected platforms unevenly and has accelerated a number of trends that are conducive to this type of employment, in particular when they minimize person-to-person contact.

The characteristics of platform work vary considerably, particularly between online web-based platforms (generally accessible to people with digital skills) and location-based platforms (which tend to have lower barriers to entry), but also between the various platforms in both categories. However, regardless of the type, several characteristics of platform employment are indicative of non-compliance with various decent work criteria as well as high job precariousness, especially in the location-based platform modality. This is related to the type of work performed on the different platforms and also reflects the characteristics of local labour markets. The employment conditions of online web-based platforms, however, are influenced by labour markets in countries with varying levels of development and regulatory frameworks.[47]

Addressing the challenges of increasing job insecurity requires appropriate labour legislation on these growing work modalities. To adequately regulate online web-based platforms, instruments of a global scope are needed. ILO is the appropriate institutional framework for advancing the global dialogue on such regulation and can draw on its experience in the regulation of transnational labour such as seafaring (ILO, 2019).

As regards the regulation of location-based platforms, there is admittedly no one optimal solution. Differences in labour law across jurisdictions reflect not only the outcomes of complex social and political processes and their expression in legal regulation but also the different labour law traditions and schools of labour law that shape the legal debate in each country. There is no need for a common framework for the regulation of location-based platform work. However, each country must develop regulations for these types of employment that fulfil the objective of establishing and protecting the social and labour rights of workers, while at the same time harnessing the opportunities that new technologies provide for both workers and consumers.

[46] Horan (2019) argues that Uber, one of the best-known service platforms, owes its growth not to higher productivity or lower costs but to massive subsidies —unsustainable in the long term— which allow it to charge relatively low fares while the company has generated losses in all its years of activity in the passenger transport sector.

[47] This is reflected, for example, in the fact that workers in developing countries have a more favourable perception of working conditions on online web-based platforms than workers in more developed countries.

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Annex A1

Table A1.1
Latin America and the Caribbean: national unemployment rates by year, by country and sex, 2010–2020
(Average annual rates)

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	First quarter[x]		Second quarter[x]		Third quarter[x]		Fourth quarter[x]		Annual average[x]	
											2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
Latin America																				
Argentina[a]	…	…	…	…	…	…	8.5	8.4	9.2	9.8	10.1	10.4	10.6	13.1	9.7	11.7	8.9	11.0	9.8	11.6
Men	…	…	…	…	…	…	7.8	7.5	8.2	9.2	9.2	9.7	10.2	12.8	8.9	10.6	8.4	10.2	9.2	10.8
Women	…	…	…	…	…	…	9.4	9.5	10.5	10.7	11.2	11.2	11.2	13.5	10.8	13.1	9.5	11.9	10.7	12.4
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)[b]	…	2.7	2.3	2.9	2.3	3.5	3.5	3.6	3.5	3.7	6.0	5.8	4.9	8.4	4.3	10.8	4.8	8.4	5.0	8.3
Men	…	2.2	1.6	2.3	1.7	3.0	3.1	3.3	3.4	3.4	5.3	5.6	4.7	8.8	4.0	10.4	4.6	7.2	4.7	7.9
Women	…	3.2	3.1	3.5	3.1	4.2	4.0	4.0	3.6	4.0	6.9	6.1	5.1	7.9	4.7	11.3	5.1	9.8	5.4	8.7
Brazil[c]	…	6.7	7.3	7.1	6.8	8.5	11.5	12.7	12.3	11.9	12.7	12.2	12.0	13.3	11.8	14.6	11.0	13.9	11.9	13.5
Men	…	4.9	5.9	5.8	5.7	7.3	10.1	11.3	10.8	10.1	10.9	10.4	10.3	12.0	10.0	12.8	9.2	11.9	10.1	11.7
Women	…	9.1	9.2	8.9	8.2	10.1	13.3	14.6	14.1	14.0	14.9	14.5	14.1	14.9	13.9	16.8	13.1	16.4	14.0	15.7
Chile[d]	8.4	7.3	6.6	6.1	6.5	6.3	6.7	7.0	7.4	7.2	7.2	8.2	7.3	12.2	7.3	12.3	7.1	10.3	7.2	10.7
Men	7.3	6.2	5.6	5.4	6.1	5.8	6.3	6.5	6.7	6.7	6.5	7.1	6.9	12.6	6.8	12.8	6.6	9.8	6.7	10.5
Women	9.9	8.9	8.1	7.1	7.1	7.0	7.2	7.5	8.3	8.0	8.3	9.7	7.8	11.7	8.0	11.6	7.7	10.9	8.0	10.9
Colombia[e]	11.8	10.8	10.4	9.6	9.1	8.9	9.2	9.4	9.7	10.5	11.8	12.6	10.1	20.3	10.6	17.5	9.5	13.8	10.5	16.1
Men	9.0	8.2	7.8	7.4	7.0	6.7	7.1	7.2	7.4	8.2	9.1	9.8	8.0	17.4	8.3	13.9	7.2	10.2	8.2	12.8
Women	15.6	14.4	13.7	12.7	11.9	11.8	12.0	12.3	12.7	13.6	14.4	15.1	12.9	24.6	13.7	22.8	12.6	18.7	13.6	20.6
Costa Rica[f]	8.9	10.3	10.2	9.4	9.6	9.6	9.5	9.1	10.3	11.8	11.3	12.5	11.9	24.0	11.4	22.0	12.4	20.0	11.8	19.5
Men	7.6	8.7	8.9	8.3	8.1	8.0	8.0	7.5	8.4	9.3	9.3	8.6	9.9	20.0	8.7	17.4	9.6	16.4	9.3	15.5
Women	11.0	13.0	12.2	11.1	11.9	12.2	12.1	11.6	13.2	15.3	14.2	18.0	15.0	30.4	15.4	29.0	16.7	25.2	15.3	25.4
Ecuador[g]	5.6	4.6	4.1	4.0	4.3	4.3	5.4	4.4	4.1	4.4	…	…	4.4	13.3	4.9	6.6	3.8	5.0	4.4	8.2
Men	4.5	3.8	3.6	3.5	3.7	3.5	4.3	3.5	3.4	3.7	…	…	3.7	11.6	4.0	5.7	3.3	3.7	3.6	6.9
Women	7.2	5.8	4.9	4.9	5.2	5.5	6.8	5.7	5.0	5.5	…	…	5.5	15.7	6.0	8.0	4.6	6.7	5.4	10.0
El Salvador	7.0	6.6	6.1	5.9	7.0	7.0	7.1	7.0	6.3	6.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Men	8.4	8.2	7.3	6.8	8.6	8.4	8.1	8.3	7.3	7.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	5.1	4.4	4.3	4.7	4.7	5.0	5.3	5.2	4.9	5.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Guatemala[h]	3.7	4.1	2.9	3.1	2.9	2.6	2.7	2.5	2.4	2.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Men	3.2	2.9	2.4	2.7	2.6	2.0	2.2	2.0	2.1	1.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	4.0	6.6	3.6	3.7	3.5	3.6	3.5	3.5	2.9	3.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Honduras[i]	3.9	4.3	3.6	3.9	5.3	7.3	7.4	6.7	5.7	5.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	5.7	10.9	5.7	10.9
Men	3.2	3.3	2.9	3.3	4.5	4.4	5.1	4.0	4.5	4.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	4.2	8.7	4.2	8.7
Women	5.2	6.1	5.0	4.9	6.7	11.8	10.7	10.8	7.4	8.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	8.1	13.7	8.1	13.7
Mexico[j]	5.3	5.2	4.9	4.9	4.8	4.3	3.9	3.4	3.3	3.5	3.4	3.4	3.5	4.8	3.7	5.1	3.4	4.6	3.5	4.5
Men	5.4	5.2	4.9	4.9	4.8	4.3	3.8	3.3	3.2	3.5	3.3	3.5	3.5	5.4	3.8	5.3	3.4	4.7	3.5	4.7
Women	5.2	5.2	4.9	5.0	4.9	4.5	3.9	3.6	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.4	3.6	3.9	3.7	4.9	3.4	4.3	3.5	4.1
Nicaragua	7.9	6.0	5.9	5.8	6.6	5.9	4.5	3.7	5.5	5.4	6.0	4.8	5.4	5.4	5.4	4.8	4.9	4.8	5.4	5.0
Men	7.3	5.5	5.4	5.6	6.2	5.6	4.2	3.5	5.4	5.4	5.8	5.3	5.3	5.7	5.4	4.9	5.1	4.8	5.4	5.2
Women	8.7	6.6	6.6	6.0	7.0	6.3	4.8	3.8	5.5	5.5	6.2	4.2	5.5	5.0	5.4	4.8	4.7	4.9	5.5	4.7

Table A1.1 (continued)

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	First quarter[x]		Second quarter[x]		Third quarter[x]		Fourth quarter[x]		Annual average[x]	
											2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
Panama[k]	6.5	4.5	4.0	4.1	4.8	5.1	5.5	6.1	6.0	7.1	…	…	…	…	7.1	18.5	…	…	7.1	18.5
Men	5.3	4.2	3.5	3.3	4.0	4.2	4.7	5.0	4.8	5.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	8.5	4.9	4.9	5.3	6.0	6.2	6.7	7.7	7.6	8.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Paraguay[l]	5.7	5.5	4.6	5.0	6.0	5.4	6.0	6.1	6.2	6.6	6.9	7.9	7.4	7.6	6.2	8.2	5.7	7.2	6.6	7.7
Men	4.6	4.3	3.7	4.5	4.6	4.9	5.0	5.0	5.4	5.5	5.5	6.3	7.2	6.7	5.3	5.8	4.1	4.9	5.5	5.9
Women	7.4	7.3	5.8	5.7	8.1	6.1	7.5	7.6	7.4	8.0	8.9	10.1	7.8	8.8	7.5	11.5	7.9	10.2	8.0	10.2
Peru[m]	4.1	4.0	3.7	4.0	3.7	3.5	4.2	4.1	3.9	3.9	5.2	5.1	3.6	8.8	3.5	9.6	3.6	7.0	4.0	7.4
Men	3.6	3.7	3.2	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.9	3.8	3.5	3.5	4.4	4.5	3.3	9.7	3.3	9.8	3.4	6.6	3.6	7.7
Women	4.7	4.4	4.4	4.7	4.0	3.6	4.6	4.4	4.4	4.5	6.2	5.8	4.0	7.5	4.3	9.4	3.9	7.5	4.6	7.6
Uruguay[n]	7.2	6.3	6.5	6.5	6.6	7.5	7.8	7.9	8.3	8.9	8.8	9.7	8.9	10.0	9.2	10.8	8.8	10.9	8.9	10.3
Men	5.3	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.1	6.4	6.5	6.6	6.9	7.3	7.2	8.6	7.4	8.9	7.8	8.6	7.1	8.5	7.3	8.6
Women	9.4	8.1	8.3	8.2	8.3	8.9	9.4	9.5	10.1	10.7	10.6	10.9	10.7	11.4	10.9	13.4	10.8	13.6	10.7	12.4
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	8.7	8.3	8.1	7.8	7.2	7.1	7.3	7.3	7.3	6.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Men	8.5	7.7	7.4	7.1	6.7	6.7	7.0	6.4	6.4	6.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	9.0	9.2	9.0	8.8	8.1	7.8	7.7	8.6	8.6	7.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Spanish-speaking Caribbean																				
Cuba	2.5	3.2	3.5	3.3	2.7	2.5	2.0	1.7	1.7	1.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Men	2.4	3.0	3.4	3.1	2.4	2.4	1.9	1.7	1.6	1.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	2.7	3.5	3.6	3.5	3.1	2.6	2.2	1.6	1.8	1.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Dominican Republic[o]	5.2	6.1	6.7	7.4	6.7	7.3	7.1	5.5	5.7	6.2	5.8	5.7	6.4	3.2	6.5	7.1	5.9	7.4	6.2	5.9
Men	4.1	4.7	5.1	5.3	4.8	5.2	4.8	4.0	3.5	3.9	3.7	3.5	4.2	2.4	4.1	4.8	3.8	4.9	3.9	3.9
Women	7.0	8.3	9.2	10.5	9.7	10.5	10.5	7.8	8.8	9.3	8.9	8.6	9.5	4.3	9.9	10.5	8.7	10.8	9.3	8.7
English- and Dutch-speaking Caribbean																				
Bahamas[p]	…	15.9	14.4	15.8	14.6	13.4	12.2	10.0	10.3	9.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Men	…	…	15.0	15.6	13.5	11.8	10.3	9.0	10.1	9.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	…	…	13.7	16.0	15.8	15.0	14.2	11.0	10.6	9.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Barbados[q]	10.7	11.2	11.6	11.6	12.3	11.3	9.7	10.0	10.1	10.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Men	10.9	9.8	10.9	11.7	11.8	12.3	9.3	9.8	9.9	11.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	10.6	12.6	12.3	11.6	12.8	10.3	10.1	10.1	10.3	8.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Belize[r]	12.5	…	15.3	14.3	11.6	10.1	9.5	9.3	9.4	9.1	…	…	…	…	10.4	13.7	…	…	10.4	13.7
Men	…	…	10.5	10.6	6.3	6.8	5.6	5.9	5.6	5.9	…	…	…	…	6.6	11.6	…	…	6.6	11.6
Women	…	…	22.3	20.0	19.9	15.4	15.6	14.6	14.9	13.5	…	…	…	…	15.7	17.0	…	…	15.7	17.0
Grenada	…	26.2	…	32.2	29.3	29.0	28.2	23.6	19.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Men	…	24.8	…	27.0	28.0	26.0	25.6	20.6	15.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	…	27.9	…	38.1	30.9	32.3	31.2	26.8	23.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Jamaica[s]	12.4	12.7	13.9	15.2	13.7	13.5	13.2	11.7	9.1	7.7	8.0	7.3	…	…	7.8	12.6	7.2	10.7	7.7	10.2
Men	9.2	9.3	10.5	11.2	10.1	9.9	9.6	8.4	6.7	5.8	6.1	5.9	…	…	5.8	11.5	6.0	8.6	5.9	8.7
Women	16.2	16.7	18.1	20.1	18.1	17.9	17.4	15.4	11.9	9.9	10.3	9.0	…	…	10.2	14.0	8.6	13.0	9.7	12.0
Saint Lucia[t]	…	…	21.2	23.3	24.5	24.1	21.3	20.2	20.2	16.8	15.5	17.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	15.5	17.6
Men	…	…	19.1	21.3	21.1	21.3	19.4	18.1	18.5	14.9	12.4	14.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	12.4	14.0
Women	…	…	23.5	25.5	28.4	27.4	23.5	22.4	22.1	18.9	18.8	22.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	18.8	22.0

Table A1.1 (concluded)

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	First quarter[x]		Second quarter[x]		Third quarter[x]		Fourth quarter[x]		Annual average[x]	
											2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
Trinidad and Tobago[u]	5.9	5.0	4.9	3.7	3.3	3.4	4.0	4.8	3.9	4.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Men	5.2	3.9	4.1	3.0	2.8	2.9	3.9	4.2	3.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	7.0	6.3	6.2	4.6	4.0	4.2	4.0	5.6	4.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Latin America and the Caribbean[v]	6.9	6.4	6.4	6.3	6.1	6.6	7.8	8.1	8.0	8.0	9.2	9.1	8.5	11.2	8.4	11.6	7.8	10.4	8.4	10.5
Latin America and the Caribbean-Men[v]	5.7	5.3	5.5	5.4	5.3	5.7	6.8	7.0	6.9	6.8	7.8	7.7	7.4	10.3	7.2	10.2	6.6	8.9	7.2	9.2
Latin America and the Caribbean-Women[v]	8.5	8.0	7.8	7.6	7.3	7.9	9.2	9.6	9.5	9.5	11.0	10.9	10.0	12.3	10.1	13.4	9.3	12.4	10.1	12.2

Source: International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of information from the countries' household surveys.

[a] Includes data for 31 urban centres. The National Institute of Statistics and Censuses (INDEC), owing to the statistical emergency declared in 2016, recommends disregarding the series published between 2007 and 2015 for the purposes of comparison and analysis of the labour market in Argentina. The 2016 annual figure is the average of the second, third and fourth quarters.

[b] New measurement from 2016 onward through the Continuous Employment Survey (ECE), data not comparable with previous years. Quarterly data for 2019 and 2020 are with urban coverage.

[c] New measurement from 2012 onward through the Continuous National Household Sample Survey (Pesquisa Nacional por Amostra de Domicilios Continua or PNAD-C), data not comparable with previous years.

[d] In this edition of the *Employment Situation in Latin America and the Caribbean*, the series for Chile from 2010 onward was adjusted on the basis of 2017 census projections. The series that appears in the previous reports is based on the 2002 census.

[e] Includes hidden unemployment.

[f] The 2010 figure is the average of the third and fourth quarters.

[g] Includes hidden unemployment. The average for the second quarter of 2020 corresponds to May and June; the averages for the third and fourth quarters of 2020 correspond to September and December, respectively.

[h] From 2011 onward, the bottom threshold for the working-age population changed from 10 to 15 years, which may affect the comparability of the data.

[i] The 2020 data are preliminary and correspond to the telephone survey conducted in November and December.

[j] The average data for the second and third quarters of 2019 are from the National Occupation and Employment Survey (ENOE), those for the second quarter of 2020 are from the Telephone Survey of Occupation and Employment (ETOE), and those for the third and fourth quarters of 2020 are from the new edition of the National Occupation and Employment Survey.

[k] Includes hidden unemployment. The data for the third quarter of 2020 correspond to the Telephone Survey of Occupation and Employment (ETOE) carried out between September and October.

[l] New measurement from 2017 onward through the Continuous Permanent Employment Survey (EPHC), data not comparable with previous years.

[m] Data for the first, second, third and fourth quarters of 2020 are preliminary.

[n] The average data for the first quarter of 2020 are from the Continuous Household Survey (ECH) for January and February; for March the data are from the Telephone Continuous Household Survey. The average data for the second quarter of 2020 correspond to the April, May and June Telephone Continuous Household Survey; the average data for the third quarter correspond to the July, August and September Telephone Continuous Household Survey and those for the fourth quarter are from the October, November and December Telephone Continuous Household Survey. The annual average is preliminary.

[o] 2010–2014 series based on reweighted National Labour Force Survey (ENFT). New measurement from 2015 onward through the Continuous National Labour Force Survey (ENCFT), data not comparable with previous years.

[p] Data for 2019 are preliminary and refer to May.

[q] Data for 2019 are preliminary and are being reviewed

[r] The figure for 2018 is for April. Data for the third quarters of 2019 and 2020 are from the September survey and 2020 from the telephone survey.

[s] Includes hidden unemployment. The 2020 annual average corresponds to data from the first, third and fourth quarters.

[t] The annual economic data for 2019 and 2020 correspond to data from the first quarters.

[u] The total data for 2018 correspond to the annual average, while the data by sex are for the first half of the year. The 2019 annual average corresponds to the first quarter.

[v] Weighted average. Does not include hidden unemployment in Colombia, Ecuador, Jamaica or Panama. The weights used are ILO projections of the total labour force and by sex. The regional average for 2019 is preliminary

[x] The average data for the first, second, third and fourth quarters, and those for the 2020 annual average, may present comparability problems with respect to the data for 2019, owing to adjustments in the statistical processes that the institutes of statistics and censuses have implemented because of the coronavirus disease (COVID-19) pandemic. Preliminary data.

| Years in which, in a country, there is a revision of the survey or of key variables that may lead to a break in the comparability of the data.

Table A1.2

Latin America and the Caribbean: national labour force participation rates by year, by country and sex, 2010–2020

(Average annual rates)

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	First quarter[v]		Second quarter[v]		Third quarter[v]		Fourth quarter[v]		Annual average[v]	
											2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
Latin America																				
Argentina[a]	…	…	…	…	…	…	57.5	57.8	58.5	59.1	58.9	58.6	59.5	49.2	59.2	54.4	58.9	57.3	59.1	54.9
Men	…	…	…	…	…	…	69.4	69.7	69.6	69.9	69.8	68.7	70.2	58.0	70.2	64.5	69.4	68.4	69.9	64.9
Women	…	…	…	…	…	…	46.9	47.6	48.7	49.4	49.0	49.5	49.9	41.2	49.2	45.4	49.4	47.6	49.4	45.9
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)[b]	…	65.9	61.1	63.4	65.8	61.0	66.0	67.4	70.9	73.0	68.2	69.0	68.3	60.9	69.3	64.2	68.5	69.1	68.6	65.8
Men	…	74.7	70.4	72.6	75.0	72.1	76.4	76.8	79.1	80.7	76.3	77.0	76.2	69.2	77.6	73.6	77.1	77.7	76.8	74.4
Women	…	57.5	52.6	54.8	57.1	50.4	56.1	58.3	63.0	65.5	60.4	61.3	60.7	52.8	61.3	55.2	60.2	60.9	60.6	57.6
Brazil[c]	…	60.0	61.4	61.3	61.0	61.3	61.4	61.7	61.6	62.0	61.7	61.0	62.1	55.3	62.1	55.1	61.9	56.8	62.0	57.0
Men	…	70.8	73.1	72.9	72.5	72.3	72.3	72.0	71.7	71.7	71.6	70.8	71.7	65.5	71.8	65.7	71.6	66.9	71.7	67.2
Women	…	50.1	50.8	50.7	50.6	51.2	51.4	52.3	52.5	53.2	52.8	52.1	53.4	46.3	53.3	45.8	53.1	47.8	53.2	48.0
Chile[d]	60.2	61.5	61.5	61.6	61.9	62.0	62.1	62.7	63.0	62.8	62.7	62.5	62.7	51.9	62.9	53.4	63.0	56.6	62.8	56.1
Men	74.2	74.8	74.5	74.2	74.1	74.4	74.1	74.3	74.2	73.6	73.9	73.3	73.2	63.1	73.4	64.5	73.8	68.5	73.6	67.3
Women	46.8	48.8	49.1	49.6	50.2	50.3	50.7	51.6	52.3	52.5	51.9	52.1	52.6	41.2	52.9	42.7	52.7	45.3	52.5	45.3
Colombia[e]	62.7	63.7	64.5	64.2	64.2	64.7	64.5	64.4	64.0	63.3	63.5	61.6	62.9	54.8	62.9	58.6	63.8	61.8	63.3	59.2
Men	74.2	75.1	75.4	74.9	74.9	75.2	74.9	74.8	74.6	73.9	74.2	72.7	73.4	66.2	73.4	71.0	74.6	73.3	73.9	70.8
Women	51.8	52.8	54.1	53.9	54.0	54.8	54.5	54.5	53.8	53.1	53.3	50.9	52.8	43.9	52.8	46.8	53.5	50.8	53.1	48.1
Costa Rica[f]	60.7	59.0	62.8	62.3	62.5	61.2	58.4	58.8	60.7	62.5	62.4	63.4	63.0	57.6	61.8	59.1	62.9	60.8	62.5	60.2
Men	75.4	73.6	75.9	75.1	75.9	74.3	72.4	73.0	74.3	74.4	74.4	74.7	75.1	70.5	73.1	71.5	74.9	72.3	74.4	72.2
Women	45.9	44.2	49.5	49.3	49.0	48.1	44.3	44.5	46.9	50.6	50.3	52.1	50.8	44.6	50.4	46.7	50.8	49.2	50.6	48.1
Ecuador[g]	63.7	62.5	63.0	62.9	63.1	66.2	68.2	68.6	67.0	66.6	…	…	66.8	60.9	67.8	62.8	65.3	64.3	66.6	62.7
Men	78.9	77.9	78.1	77.6	78.8	80.5	81.0	81.0	79.7	78.7	…	…	78.6	73.8	79.4	74.5	77.7	76.9	78.6	75.0
Women	49.4	48.1	48.8	48.9	48.5	52.7	56.2	56.9	55.0	55.0	…	…	55.5	48.5	56.7	51.7	53.5	52.4	55.2	50.9
El Salvador	62.5	62.7	63.2	63.6	62.8	62.1	62.2	61.9	61.3	62.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Men	80.9	81.2	81.4	80.7	80.7	80.2	80.1	80.6	79.5	80.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	47.3	47.0	47.9	49.3	47.8	46.7	47.3	46.3	46.1	46.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Guatemala[h]	62.5	61.8	65.4	60.6	60.9	60.7	60.8	61.0	60.6	59.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Men	84.7	84.6	87.6	83.4	83.8	84.7	84.0	85.3	85.0	83.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	42.9	40.4	45.7	40.6	40.6	38.9	40.1	39.2	39.1	37.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Honduras[i]	53.6	51.9	50.8	53.7	56.1	58.1	57.5	59.0	60.4	57.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	57.3	59.5	57.3	59.5
Men	71.0	70.4	69.2	72.1	73.6	74.0	74.0	76.0	76.3	75.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	75.1	73.3	75.1	73.3
Women	37.4	34.9	33.8	37.2	40.5	43.9	43.0	43.8	46.0	41.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	41.4	47.8	41.4	47.8
Mexico[j]	59.7	59.8	60.4	60.3	59.8	59.8	59.7	59.3	59.6	60.1	59.5	59.9	60.2	49.4	60.4	55.5	60.4	57.5	60.1	55.6
Men	78.7	78.5	78.8	78.5	78.3	78.0	77.7	77.6	77.4	77.2	76.9	76.4	77.1	63.5	77.5	72.6	77.1	74.2	77.2	71.7
Women	42.5	42.8	43.9	43.9	43.1	43.4	43.4	43.0	43.5	44.7	43.7	44.9	44.9	36.7	44.9	39.9	45.4	42.4	44.7	41.0
Nicaragua	71.3	75.6	76.8	75.8	74.0	72.4	73.6	73.5	71.6	71.1	71.7	70.9	70.5	66.5	70.6	68.3	71.5	70.5	71.1	69.1
Men	85.4	87.9	87.7	87.2	85.8	84.6	84.9	84.7	82.6	82.3	82.5	82.0	81.9	78.5	82.2	80.6	82.5	81.0	82.3	80.5
Women	58.1	64.0	66.6	65.1	63.0	60.9	63.1	63.2	61.6	61.0	61.9	61.0	60.3	55.7	60.1	57.2	61.7	60.9	61.0	58.7

Table A1.2 (continued)

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	First quarter[v]		Second quarter[v]		Third quarter[v]		Fourth quarter[v]		Annual average[v]	
											2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
Panama[k]	63.5	61.9	63.5	64.1	64.0	64.2	64.4	64.0	65.4	66.5	…	…	…	…	66.5	63.0	…	…	66.5	63.0
Men	80.4	79.2	80.1	79.7	79.4	78.4	78.6	77.6	78.8	78.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	47.5	45.8	48.2	49.4	49.8	50.8	51.1	51.2	52.8	55.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Paraguay[l]	60.8	61.1	64.4	62.4	62.3	62.1	62.6	71.0	71.9	72.4	73.6	71.2	71.2	66.7	71.8	70.7	72.9	72.4	72.4	70.3
Men	73.9	73.2	75.1	74.0	74.6	74.1	74.5	84.4	84.6	84.8	86.2	83.8	83.8	81.3	84.4	84.3	85.0	84.7	84.8	83.5
Women	47.4	49.0	53.7	52.7	50.1	50.2	50.8	57.8	59.4	60.2	61.3	59.1	58.9	52.6	59.4	57.5	61.2	60.6	60.2	57.4
Peru[m]	74.1	73.9	73.6	73.2	72.2	71.6	72.2	72.4	72.3	72.7	72.9	70.2	72.0	45.3	72.6	63.3	73.1	70.5	72.7	64.7
Men	82.7	82.7	82.4	82.0	81.3	81.0	81.2	81.0	80.7	81.1	81.2	78.3	79.6	54.7	81.0	75.2	80.7	79.5	81.1	71.9
Women	65.7	65.2	64.8	64.5	63.2	62.3	63.3	64.0	64.0	64.5	64.5	62.2	64.5	36.1	64.2	51.5	65.6	61.7	64.5	52.9
Uruguay[n]	62.9	64.8	64.0	63.6	64.7	63.8	63.4	62.9	62.4	62.2	62.4	61.6	61.7	58.8	61.9	60.3	62.6	61.5	62.2	60.5
Men	73.1	74.7	73.5	73.9	74.3	73.0	72.2	71.6	70.7	70.1	70.2	68.4	70.0	66.5	69.8	68.2	70.2	68.6	70.1	67.9
Women	54.0	55.8	55.6	54.4	55.9	55.4	55.4	55.0	54.9	54.9	55.2	55.4	54.0	51.7	54.6	53.1	55.6	55.0	54.9	53.8
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	64.5	64.4	63.9	64.3	65.1	63.7	63.9	66.2	66.8	65.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Men	79.0	78.6	77.8	78.1	79.1	77.8	77.9	79.9	80.1	79.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	50.1	50.3	50.1	50.6	51.3	49.9	50.2	52.7	53.7	50.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Spanish-speaking Caribbean																				
Cuba	74.9	76.1	74.2	72.9	71.9	67.1	65.2	63.4	63.8	65.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Men	87.7	90.0	89.5	87.1	86.2	80.4	78.2	76.2	76.9	76.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	60.5	60.5	57.4	57.3	56.3	52.6	50.9	49.4	49.5	53.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Dominican Republic[o]	56.7	58.2	59.4	59.3	59.5	61.8	62.3	62.2	63.6	65.1	64.9	63.4	65.1	56.7	64.9	59.7	65.4	61.1	65.1	60.2
Men	72.1	73.1	74.1	73.9	74.2	76.3	76.6	76.1	77.8	78.4	78.8	76.3	78.5	70.6	77.9	74.1	78.5	74.9	78.4	74.0
Women	41.7	43.7	45.3	45.1	45.4	48.1	48.9	49.0	50.4	52.6	51.9	51.5	52.7	43.9	52.7	46.4	53.2	48.5	52.6	47.6
English and Dutch-speaking Caribbean																				
Bahamas	…	72.1	72.5	73.2	73.7	74.3	77.1	80.5	82.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Men	…	…	75.8	76.9	77.8	79.5	81.7	83.6	85.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	…	…	69.5	70.1	70.1	71.7	73.1	75.1	76.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Barbados[p]	66.6	67.6	66.2	66.7	63.9	65.1	66.5	65.4	64.8	63.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Men	71.8	72.7	71.9	72.0	67.7	68.7	70.4	69.7	69.4	67.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	62.0	63.0	61.0	62.0	60.4	61.7	62.8	61.5	60.6	59.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Belize[q]	…	…	65.8	64.2	63.6	63.2	64.0	64.1	65.5	68.1	…	…	…	…	70.1	55.1	…	…	70.1	55.1
Men	…	…	79.2	78.4	78.2	77.8	78.0	78.2	78.3	80.5	…	…	…	…	81.4	68.7	…	…	81.4	68.7
Women	…	…	52.6	50.1	49.2	48.8	50.2	50.2	52.9	55.9	…	…	…	…	58.9	42.4	…	…	58.9	42.4
Grenada	…	69.5	…	66.7	67.8	68.8	68.2	65.8	68.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Men	…	75.0	…	70.9	71.5	74.5	73.3	71.3	74.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	…	63.9	…	62.6	64.1	63.4	63.1	60.6	63.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Jamaica[r]	62.4	62.1	61.9	63.0	62.8	63.1	64.8	65.1	64.0	64.6	64.2	65.6	…	…	65.2	61.3	64.5	62.0	64.6	63.0
Men	70.4	70.1	69.2	70.0	70.0	70.3	71.2	71.3	70.4	71.0	70.0	71.6	…	…	71.9	68.4	70.9	68.6	70.9	69.5
Women	54.8	55.0	54.9	56.3	55.9	56.3	58.6	59.1	57.9	58.5	58.6	59.8	…	…	58.8	54.5	58.3	55.7	58.6	56.7
Saint Lucia[s]	…	…	70.6	71.0	72.2	72.2	72.8	71.4	71.4	71.0	71.5	69.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	71.5	69.9
Men	…	…	75.3	76.2	77.1	78.3	78.3	76.5	77.8	75.7	76.0	78.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	76.0	78.0
Women	…	…	66.1	66.0	67.4	66.0	67.4	66.8	65.2	66.5	67.4	62.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	67.4	62.2

Table A1.2 (concluded)

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	First quarter[v]		Second quarter[v]		Third quarter[v]		Fourth quarter[v]		Annual average[v]	
											2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
Trinidad and Tobago[t]	62.1	61.3	61.9	61.4	61.9	60.6	59.7	59.2	59.1	58.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Men	73.5	72.3	72.1	71.6	72.2	71.2	69.5	68.9	68.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	50.9	49.4	51.7	51.1	51.8	50.0	50.1	49.5	49.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Latin America and the Caribbean[u]	61.9	61.8	62.5	62.2	62.1	62.0	62.1	62.4	62.5	62.7	62.3	61.6	62.6	53.1	62.7	56.8	62.6	59.1	62.5	57.8
Latin America and the Caribbean-Men[u]	75.3	75.2	76.0	75.7	75.5	75.2	75.1	75.2	75.1	74.9	74.1	73.2	74.2	64.4	74.4	69.2	74.2	71.1	74.3	69.5
Latin America and the Caribbean-Women[u]	49.4	49.2	49.9	49.8	49.6	49.7	50.0	50.6	50.9	51.4	51.4	51.0	52.0	42.8	52.0	45.4	51.9	48.2	51.7	46.9

Source: International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of information from the countries' household surveys.

[a] Includes data for 31 urban centres. The National Institute of Statistics and Censuses (INDEC), owing to the statistical emergency declared in 2016, recommends disregarding the series published between 2007 and 2015 for the purposes of comparison and analysis of the labour market in Argentina. The 2016 annual figure is the average of the second, third and fourth quarters.

[b] New measurement from 2016 onward through the Continuous Employment Survey (ECE), data not comparable with previous years. Quarterly data for 2019 and 2020 are with urban coverage.

[c] New measurement from 2012 onward through the Continuous National Household Sample Survey (Pesquisa Nacional por Amostra de Domicilios Continua or PNAD-C), data not comparable with previous years.

[d] In this edition of the *Employment Situation in Latin America and the Caribbean*, the series for Chile from 2010 onward was adjusted on the basis of 2017 census projections. The series that appears in the previous reports is based on the 2002 census.

[e] Includes hidden unemployment.

[f] The 2010 figure is the average of the third and fourth quarters.

[g] Includes hidden unemployment. The average for the second quarter of 2020 corresponds to May and June; the averages for the third and fourth quarters of 2020 correspond to September and December, respectively.

[h] From 2011 onward, the bottom threshold for the working-age population changed from 10 to 15 years, which may affect the comparability of the data.

[i] The 2020 data are preliminary and correspond to the telephone survey conducted in November and December.

[j] The average data for the second and third quarters of 2019 are from the National Occupation and Employment Survey (ENOE), those for the second quarter of 2020 are from the Telephone Survey of Occupation and Employment (ETOE), and those for the third and fourth quarters of 2020 are from the new edition of the National Occupation and Employment Survey.

[k] Includes hidden unemployment. The data for the third quarter of 2020 correspond to the Telephone Survey of Occupation and Employment (ETOE) carried out between September and October.

[l] New measurement from 2017 onward through the Continuous Permanent Employment Survey (EPHC), data not comparable with previous years.

[m] Data for the first, second, third and fourth quarters of 2020 are preliminary.

[n] The average data for the first quarter of 2020 are from the Continuous Household Survey (ECH) for January and February; for March the data are from the Telephone Continuous Household Survey. The average data for the second quarter of 2020 correspond to the April, May and June Telephone Continuous Household Survey; the average data for the third quarter correspond to the July, August and September Telephone Continuous Household Survey and those for the fourth quarter are from the October, November and December Telephone Continuous Household Survey. The annual average is preliminary.

[o] 2010–2014 series based on reweighted National Labour Force Survey (ENFT). New measurement from 2015 onward through the Continuous National Labour Force Survey (ENCFT), data not comparable with previous years.

[p] Data for 2019 are preliminary and are being reviewed.

[q] The figure for 2018 is for April. Data for the third quarters of 2019 and 2020 are from the September survey and 2020 from the telephone survey.

[r] Includes hidden unemployment. The 2020 annual average corresponds to data from the first, third and fourth quarters.

[s] The annual economic data for 2019 and 2020 correspond to data from the first quarters.

[t] The total figure for 2018 corresponds to the annual average, while the data by sex are for the first half of the year. The 2019 annual average corresponds to the first quarter.

[u] Weighted average. Does not include hidden unemployment in Colombia, Ecuador, Jamaica or Panama. The weights used are ILO projections of the total labour force and by sex. The regional average for 2019 is preliminary

[v] The average data for the first, second, third and fourth quarters, and those for the 2020 annual average, may present comparability problems with respect to the data for 2019, owing to adjustments in the statistical processes that the institutes of statistics and censuses have implemented because of the coronavirus disease (COVID-19) pandemic. Preliminary data.

| Years in which, in a country, there is a revision of the survey or of key variables that may lead to a break in the comparability of the data.

Table A1.3

Latin America and the Caribbean: national employment rates by year, by country and sex, 2010–2020

(Average annual rates)

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	First quarter[u]		Second quarter[u]		Third quarter[u]		Fourth quarter[u]		Annual average[u]	
											2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
Latin America																				
Argentina[a]	…	…	…	…	…	…	52.6	52.9	53.1	53.3	52.9	52.5	53.1	42.8	53.4	48.1	53.7	51.0	53.3	48.6
Men	…	…	…	…	…	…	64.0	64.4	63.9	63.5	63.4	62.0	63.0	50.6	64.0	57.7	63.6	61.4	63.5	57.9
Women	…	…	…	…	…	…	42.5	42.7	43.6	44.1	43.5	43.9	44.3	35.6	43.9	39.4	44.7	41.9	44.1	40.2
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)[b]	…	63.7	59.7	61.5	64.3	58.9	63.8	64.9	68.4	70.3	69.3	70.6	65.0	55.8	66.3	57.3	65.2	63.3	65.1	60.4
Men	…	73.1	69.2	71.0	73.7	70.0	74.0	74.3	76.4	78.0	77.0	77.7	72.6	63.1	74.5	66.0	73.5	72.0	73.2	68.5
Women	…	55.7	50.9	52.8	55.3	48.2	53.9	56.0	60.8	62.9	61.8	63.8	57.6	48.7	58.4	49.0	57.1	54.9	57.4	52.5
Brazil[c]	…	56.0	56.9	56.9	56.8	56.1	54.3	53.9	54.1	54.6	53.9	53.5	54.6	47.9	54.8	47.1	55.1	48.9	54.6	49.3
Men	…	67.3	68.7	68.7	68.3	67.1	65.0	63.9	64.0	64.4	63.7	63.5	64.3	57.6	64.6	57.3	65.0	59.0	64.4	59.3
Women	…	45.5	46.1	46.2	46.4	46.0	44.6	44.7	45.1	45.7	44.9	44.5	45.9	39.4	45.9	38.1	46.2	40.0	45.7	40.5
Chile[d]	55.2	57.0	57.4	57.8	57.9	58.1	58.0	58.3	58.3	58.3	58.2	57.3	58.1	45.6	58.3	46.8	58.6	50.8	58.3	50.1
Men	68.8	70.2	70.3	70.2	69.6	70.0	69.4	69.4	69.2	68.7	69.1	68.1	68.2	55.2	68.4	56.2	68.9	61.7	68.7	60.3
Women	42.2	44.5	45.1	46.1	46.7	46.7	47.0	47.7	48.0	48.4	47.6	47.0	48.5	36.3	48.6	37.7	48.6	40.3	48.4	40.3
Colombia	55.3	56.8	57.8	58.0	58.4	59.0	58.5	58.4	57.8	56.6	56.0	53.8	56.6	43.7	56.2	48.4	57.7	53.3	56.6	49.8
Men	67.6	69.0	69.5	69.4	69.7	70.1	69.6	69.4	69.1	67.9	67.4	65.6	67.6	54.7	67.3	61.1	69.2	65.8	67.9	61.8
Women	43.7	45.2	46.7	47.1	47.6	48.3	48.0	47.8	47.0	45.9	45.1	42.6	46.0	33.1	45.6	36.2	46.7	41.3	45.9	38.3
Costa Rica[e]	55.3	52.9	56.2	56.4	56.5	55.4	52.8	53.5	54.4	55.2	55.4	55.5	55.5	43.7	54.7	46.1	55.1	48.7	55.2	48.5
Men	69.6	67.2	69.2	68.9	69.7	68.3	66.6	67.5	68.0	67.4	67.5	68.2	67.7	56.4	66.7	59.0	67.7	60.4	67.4	61.0
Women	40.8	38.5	43.5	43.8	43.2	42.2	38.9	39.4	40.7	42.8	43.1	42.8	43.2	31.0	42.6	33.1	42.3	36.8	42.8	35.9
Ecuador[f]	60.1	59.6	60.4	60.3	60.4	63.3	64.6	65.5	64.3	63.7	…	…	63.9	52.8	64.5	58.7	62.8	61.2	63.7	57.5
Men	75.3	75.0	75.3	74.9	75.9	77.6	77.5	78.2	77.0	75.8	…	…	75.8	65.2	76.2	70.2	75.1	74.0	75.7	69.8
Women	45.9	45.3	46.5	46.6	46.0	49.8	52.4	53.6	52.2	52.0	…	…	52.5	40.9	53.3	47.6	51.0	48.8	52.3	45.8
El Salvador	58.1	58.6	59.4	59.9	58.4	57.8	57.9	57.6	57.4	58.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Men	74.1	74.6	75.4	75.1	73.7	73.5	73.6	73.9	73.6	74.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	44.8	45.0	45.8	47.0	45.5	44.4	44.7	43.9	43.8	44.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Guatemala[g]	60.2	59.2	63.5	58.7	59.1	59.2	59.2	59.4	59.1	57.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Men	81.7	82.2	85.5	81.1	81.6	83.0	82.2	83.6	83.2	82.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	41.1	37.7	44.1	39.1	39.2	37.5	38.7	37.8	38.0	36.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Honduras[h]	51.5	49.7	48.9	51.6	53.1	53.8	53.2	55.1	57.0	54.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	54.1	53.0	54.1	53.0
Men	68.7	68.1	67.2	69.7	70.3	70.8	70.2	73.0	72.8	71.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	71.9	66.9	71.9	66.9
Women	35.4	32.8	32.2	35.3	37.8	38.8	38.4	39.1	42.6	38.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	38.0	41.2	38.0	41.2
Mexico[i]	56.5	56.7	57.5	57.3	56.9	57.2	57.4	57.3	57.6	58.0	57.5	57.8	58.1	47.0	58.1	52.6	58.4	54.9	58.0	53.1
Men	74.5	74.4	74.9	74.6	74.4	74.7	74.7	75.0	74.9	74.5	74.4	73.8	74.4	60.1	74.6	68.7	74.5	70.6	74.5	68.3
Women	40.3	40.6	41.7	41.7	41.0	41.4	41.7	41.4	42.0	43.1	42.1	43.4	43.3	35.2	43.2	38.0	43.9	40.6	43.1	39.3
Nicaragua	65.7	71.1	72.3	71.4	69.1	68.1	70.2	70.8	67.7	67.2	67.4	67.5	66.7	62.9	66.8	65.0	68.0	67.1	67.2	65.6
Men	79.2	83.1	83.0	82.3	80.5	79.9	81.3	81.7	78.1	77.8	77.7	77.7	77.6	74.0	77.8	76.7	78.3	77.1	77.8	76.4
Women	53.0	59.8	62.2	61.2	58.5	57.1	60.1	60.8	58.2	57.7	58.1	58.4	57.0	52.9	56.9	54.5	58.8	57.9	57.7	55.9

Table A1.3 (continued)

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	First quarter[u]		Second quarter[u]		Third quarter[u]		Fourth quarter[u]		Annual average[u]	
											2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
Panama[i]	59.4	59.1	61.0	61.5	60.9	60.9	60.8	60.1	61.5	61.8	…	…	…	…	61.8	51.3	…	…	61.8	51.3
Men	76.1	75.8	77.4	77.1	76.2	75.0	74.9	73.7	75.0	74.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	43.5	43.5	45.8	46.8	46.8	47.6	47.7	47.2	48.8	50.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Paraguay[k]	57.3	57.7	61.5	59.3	58.6	58.7	58.9	66.7	67.4	67.6	68.5	65.6	65.9	61.6	67.3	64.9	68.8	67.2	67.6	64.8
Men	70.6	70.0	72.4	70.7	71.1	70.5	70.8	80.1	80.0	80.2	81.5	78.5	77.8	75.8	79.9	79.4	81.5	80.5	80.2	78.6
Women	43.9	45.4	50.6	49.7	46.0	47.2	47.0	53.4	55.0	55.3	55.8	53.1	54.3	47.9	55.0	50.9	56.3	54.4	55.3	51.6
Peru[l]	71.1	70.9	70.8	70.3	69.6	69.1	69.2	69.5	69.4	69.8	69.1	66.6	69.4	41.3	70.1	57.2	70.5	65.6	69.8	59.9
Men	79.7	79.6	79.8	79.2	78.5	78.2	78.1	77.8	77.7	78.1	77.6	74.8	77.0	49.4	78.3	67.8	78.0	74.3	78.2	66.4
Women	62.6	62.4	61.9	61.5	60.7	60.1	60.4	61.1	61.1	61.5	60.5	58.6	61.9	33.4	61.4	46.7	63.0	57.1	61.5	48.9
Uruguay[m]	58.4	60.7	59.9	59.5	60.4	59.0	58.4	57.9	57.2	56.7	56.9	55.6	56.2	52.9	56.2	53.8	57.1	54.8	56.7	54.3
Men	69.3	71.0	69.8	70.2	70.5	68.4	67.5	66.9	65.8	64.9	65.2	62.5	64.9	60.6	64.4	62.4	65.2	62.8	64.9	62.1
Women	48.9	51.3	51.1	50.0	51.3	50.5	50.1	49.8	49.4	49.0	49.3	49.3	48.3	45.8	48.7	45.9	49.6	47.5	49.0	47.1
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	58.9	59.0	58.7	59.3	60.4	59.1	59.2	61.3	61.9	60.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Men	72.3	72.6	72.1	72.6	73.8	72.6	72.4	74.8	74.9	74.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	45.6	45.6	45.6	46.1	47.1	45.9	46.3	48.1	49.1	47.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Spanish-speaking Caribbean																				
Cuba	73.0	73.6	71.6	70.5	70.0	65.4	63.8	62.4	62.7	64.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Men	85.6	87.3	86.4	84.4	84.2	78.5	76.7	75.0	75.7	75.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	58.9	58.4	55.3	55.3	54.6	51.2	49.8	48.6	48.6	52.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Dominican Republic[n]	53.8	54.6	55.4	54.9	55.5	57.3	57.9	58.7	60.0	61.0	61.1	59.8	61.0	54.9	60.6	55.4	61.5	56.6	61.0	56.7
Men	69.2	69.7	70.3	69.9	70.6	72.3	72.9	73.1	75.1	75.3	75.9	73.6	75.2	68.9	74.7	70.6	75.6	71.2	75.3	71.1
Women	38.8	40.1	41.1	40.4	41.0	43.1	43.8	45.2	45.9	47.8	47.3	47.1	47.7	42.0	47.5	41.5	48.6	43.3	47.8	43.4
English- and Dutch-speaking Caribbean																				
Bahamas	…	60.6	62.0	61.6	62.9	64.4	67.7	72.5	74.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Men	…	…	64.4	64.9	67.2	70.1	73.3	76.0	76.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	…	…	59.9	58.8	59.0	61.0	62.7	66.8	68.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Barbados[o]	59.5	60.1	58.5	58.9	56.0	57.7	60.0	58.9	58.3	57.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Men	64.0	65.6	64.1	63.6	59.7	60.2	63.9	62.9	62.5	59.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	55.4	55.1	53.5	54.8	52.6	55.3	56.5	55.3	54.4	54.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Belize[p]	…	…	55.7	56.7	56.3	56.8	57.9	58.1	59.4	62.0	…	…	…	…	62.7	47.6	…	…	62.7	47.6
Men	…	…	70.9	72.3	73.3	72.5	73.6	73.6	73.9	75.7	…	…	…	…	76.0	60.7	…	…	76.0	60.7
Women	…	…	40.9	39.6	39.4	41.2	42.4	42.9	45.1	48.3	…	…	…	…	49.6	35.2	…	…	49.6	35.2
Grenada	…	51.3	…	45.3	47.9	48.9	49.0	50.3	55.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Men	…	56.4	…	51.8	51.5	55.2	54.5	56.6	62.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	…	46.1	…	38.7	44.3	42.9	43.4	44.3	48.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Jamaica[q]	54.7	54.3	53.3	53.4	54.2	54.6	56.2	57.5	58.2	59.7	59.1	60.8	…	…	60.1	53.6	59.8	55.4	59.7	56.6
Men	63.9	63.6	61.9	62.1	62.9	63.3	64.3	65.2	65.6	66.9	65.8	67.4	…	…	67.7	60.6	66.7	62.7	66.7	63.5
Women	45.9	45.8	45.0	45.0	45.8	46.2	48.4	50.0	51.0	52.7	52.6	54.5	…	…	52.8	46.9	53.2	48.5	52.9	49.9
Saint Lucia[r]	…	…	55.6	54.4	54.5	54.8	57.4	57.0	57.0	59.0	60.5	57.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	60.5	57.6
Men	…	…	60.9	60.0	60.9	61.6	63.1	62.9	63.4	64.4	66.6	67.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	66.6	67.1
Women	…	…	50.6	49.1	48.3	47.9	51.6	51.4	50.8	53.9	54.7	48.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	54.7	48.6

Table A1.3 (concluded)

Country	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	First quarter[u]		Second quarter[u]		Third quarter[u]		Fourth quarter[u]		Annual average[u]	
											2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020	2019	2020
Trinidad and Tobago[s]	58.4	58.2	58.8	59.1	59.9	58.5	57.4	56.3	56.8	55.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Men	69.7	69.5	69.2	69.5	70.1	69.2	66.8	66.0	65.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Women	47.3	46.3	48.5	48.8	49.7	47.9	48.0	46.7	47.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Latin America and the Caribbean[t]	57.7	57.8	58.5	58.3	58.3	57.9	57.3	57.4	57.6	57.8	56.7	56.2	57.3	47.2	57.5	50.3	57.8	53.1	57.4	51.8
Latin America and the Caribbean-Men[t]	71.0	71.2	71.9	71.7	71.5	71.0	70.1	70.0	70.0	69.9	68.5	67.7	68.7	57.7	69.1	62.2	69.4	64.9	69.0	63.2
Latin America and the Caribbean-Women[t]	45.3	45.3	46.0	46.0	46.0	45.8	45.5	45.8	46.2	46.6	45.9	45.7	46.8	37.6	46.8	39.4	47.1	42.4	46.6	41.2

Source: International Labour Organization (ILO), on the basis of information from the countries' household surveys.

[a] Includes data for 31 urban centres. The National Institute of Statistics and Censuses (INDEC), owing to the statistical emergency declared in 2016, recommends disregarding the series published between 2007 and 2015 for the purposes of comparison and analysis of the labour market in Argentina. The 2016 annual figure is the average of the second, third and fourth quarters.

[b] New measurement from 2016 onward through the Continuous Employment Survey (ECE), data not comparable with previous years. The average data for the first quarter of 2020 are preliminary, with national coverage. Data for the second, third and fourth quarters of 2020 cover urban areas.

[c] New measurement from 2012 onward through the Continuous National Household Sample Survey (Pesquisa Nacional por Amostra de Domicilios Continua or PNAD-C), data not comparable with previous years.

[d] In this edition of the *Employment Situation in Latin America and the Caribbean*, the series for Chile from 2010 onward was adjusted on the basis of 2017 census projections. The series that appears in the previous reports is based on the 2002 census.

[e] The 2010 figure is the average of the third and fourth quarters.

[f] The average for the second quarter of 2020 corresponds to May and June; the averages for the third and fourth quarters of 2020 correspond to September and December, respectively.

[g] From 2011 onward, the bottom threshold for the working-age population changed from 10 to 15 years, which may affect the comparability of the data.

[h] The 2020 data are preliminary and correspond to the telephone survey conducted in November and December.

[i] The average data for the second and third quarters of 2019 are from the National Occupation and Employment Survey (ENOE), those for the second quarter of 2020 are from the Telephone Survey of Occupation and Employment (ETOE), and those for the third and fourth quarters of 2020 are from the new edition of the National Occupation and Employment Survey.

[j] The data for the third quarter of 2020 correspond to the Telephone Survey of Occupation and Employment (ETOE) carried out between September and October.

[k] New measurement from 2017 onward through the Continuous Permanent Employment Survey (EPHC), data not comparable with previous years.

[l] Data for the first, second, third and fourth quarters of 2020 are preliminary.

[m] The average data for the first quarter of 2020 are from the Continuous Household Survey (ECH) for January and February; for March the data are from the Telephone Continuous Household Survey. The average data for the second quarter of 2020 correspond to the April, May and June Telephone Continuous Household Survey; the average data for the third quarter correspond to the July, August and September Telephone Continuous Household Survey and those for the fourth quarter are from the October, November and December Telephone Continuous Household Survey. The annual average is preliminary.

[n] 2010–2014 series based on reweighted National Labour Force Survey (ENFT). New measurement from 2015 onward through the Continuous National Labour Force Survey (ENCFT), data not comparable with previous years.

[o] Data for 2019 are preliminary and are being reviewed.

[p] The figure for 2018 is for April. Data for the third quarters of 2019 and 2020 are from the September survey and 2020 from the telephone survey.

[q] The 2020 annual average corresponds to data from the first, third and fourth quarters.

[r] The annual economic data for 2019 and 2020 correspond to data from the first quarters.

[s] The 2019 annual average corresponds to the first quarter. The total figure for 2018 corresponds to the annual average, while the data by sex are for the first half of the year.

[t] Weighted average. The weights used are ILO projections of the total labour force and by sex. The regional totals for 2019 are preliminary.

[u] The average data for the first, second, third and fourth quarters, and those for the 2020 annual average, may present comparability problems with respect to the data for 2019, owing to adjustments in the statistical processes that the institutes of statistics and censuses have implemented because of the coronavirus disease (COVID-19) pandemic. Preliminary data.

| Years in which, in a country, there is a revision of the survey or of key variables that may lead to a break in the comparability of the data.

The crisis caused by the coronavirus disease (COVID-19) pandemic had severe repercussions on the region's economy and labour markets in 2020. The year ended with a 7.1% decline in GDP, which translated into a sharp drop in employment and an increase in the unemployment rate, to 10.5%. Unlike in previous crises, withdrawal from the labour market was high, primarily in the second quarter of 2020, and the contraction in informal employment was greater than that of formal employment. With the gradual easing of lockdown measures, labour force participation has picked up and employment is recovering slowly, although the unemployment rate and levels of precariousness will remain high in 2021.

The pandemic has highlighted the need for the inclusive use of new technologies to generate jobs. The second part of this report analyses the main characteristics of work on digital platforms, the impact of the pandemic on this type of work and some considerations for the design of appropriate regulatory frameworks.

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