International Labour Organization

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THEMATIC Labour Overview

Working in Rural Areas in the 21st Century

Reality and Prospects of Rural Employment in Latin America and the Caribbean

Regional Office for Latin America and the Caribbean

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3 **Working in Rural Areas in the 21st Century**
Reality and Prospects of Rural Employment in Latin America and the Caribbean

I. CONTENTS

Foreword

The Latin American and Caribbean region has rapidly become urbanized. In 1950, the rural population accounted for nearly 60% of the total population of the region; today, just 20% lives in rural areas. This percentage still represents 123 million people, however, 50 million of whom work. In other words, rural employment is the livelihood of one of every five employed people in the region. Although unemployment rates are lower in rural than in urban areas, 1.6 million rural inhabitants are unemployed. Additionally, 27 million rural workers have vulnerable employment.

Rural areas lag far behind urban areas: a poverty rate of 46% versus 23% in urban areas; serious decent work deficits in terms of underemployment; low wages; limited social security coverage; high informality rates; high levels of child labour and forced labour; and low employment rates among women. However, it is a misconception that rural areas are synonymous of backwardness. As this report documents, rural areas of Latin America and the Caribbean have experienced an economic, social and demographic transformation. For example, rural poverty has decreased faster than urban poverty over the past two decades, due largely to labour market dynamics.

This Thematic Labour Overview examines the reality, recent trends and prospects of rural employment in Latin America and the Caribbean. It provides a brief, updated idea of what it means to "work in rural areas in the 21st century" in the region and offers some policy recommendations.

Some of the trends identified and analyzed include: (1) the long-term trend of the decreasing share of agricultural employment in total rural employment and the rise in employment in the tertiary or services sector, with manufacturing maintaining a relatively constant share of the total; (2) the fact that the poor in rural areas work mainly in agricultural activities while average income of rural workers in non-agricultural activities is higher than that of agricultural workers, largely due to the higher productivity of several non-agricultural activities. In fact, the increase in rural non-agricultural employment in recent decades is one reason why rural poverty has diminished.

Overall, rural areas in most countries of the region have traditionally received a smaller percentage of private and public investment than urban areas have. Consequently, several rural-urban gaps exist in productive and social infrastructure (water, sanitation, health, education, transportation, electricity and others), which in turn leads to major

productivity gaps. However, as this report documents, agricultural productivity has improved over the past two decades, mainly thanks to improvements in the terms of trade, although productivity levels are still low compared with other economic activities. The percentage of the rural population employed in agriculture varies considerably among the countries.

Seasonal demand for employment is characteristic of many agricultural activities and defines key features of rural labour markets; for example, the large percentage of rural workers who have two or more jobs and the relatively high incidence of temporary work and labour migration. Seasonal and temporary employment hinder the expansion of social security among rural populations, leading many rural workers to form part of "difficult coverage" groups. To remedy this requires innovations in the design of coverage, administrative and financing of social security systems.

Distance is, of course, a key barrier for accessing rural non-agricultural employment, as well as for improving the education and skills of agricultural workers and their access to government services in general. Distance also partly explains the lack of broad, diversified training in rural areas such as that existing in the cities. It also contributes to the lower density of medium-sized and large firms in rural areas, except in mining, and consequently, to the lower percentage of formal wage employment. Compared with urban areas, more rural inhabitants report having a business, but with a predominance of own-account and microenterprise workers, smaller firm sizes and a lower percentage of employers.

Gaps between rural and urban areas also exist in education levels. For example, in 2014, five times as many urban workers had a higher education than did their rural counterparts.

As is evident, the development and well-being of rural populations depend largely on improving productive and labour market dynamics, as well as on overcoming constraints to benefiting from agglomeration economies, including the difficulties for an effective government presence.

This report analyzes these and other characteristics of rural labour markets, including the situation of women and youth. It also examines working conditions, labour income, contracting methods, union membership and other deficits with respect to labour rights in rural areas.

Drawing on this analysis, the final sections discuss policy issues and priorities for promoting productivity, productive development and quality jobs in rural areas. We hope the analysis and recommendations of this report contribute to focusing attention and efforts on addressing the challenges of inclusive, sustainable rural development, as well as on reducing poverty and informality through the generation of more and better jobs in rural areas of the region.

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October 2016

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I. Introduction

Currently, about 40% of the world's working age population lives in rural areas.[1] The rural economy, which includes nearly 80% of the world's poor workers, is characterized by serious decent work deficits.[2] Labour market, organizational and representative institutions tend to be weak. Underemployment is widespread, incomes are low and access to social protection is limited.[3] As in urban areas, much of the economic activity in rural areas is informal. Sixty per cent of child workers ages 5 to 17 in the world, or more than 98 million people, work in agriculture.[4] Additionally, forced labour is common in remote rural areas, especially in agricultural activities. Rural workers are often vulnerable because they cannot exercise or demand respect for their rights. Discrimination against women and the low rates of rural women's labour market participation significantly affect agricultural production: if women had the same access to productive resources as do men, agricultural output in developing countries would increase between 2.5% and 4%, which would in turn reduce the number of undernourished people in the world in the order of 12% to 17%.[5]

In Latin America, rural areas concentrated 20% of the total population in 2015, or some 123 million people.[6] Of these, 52 million are in the labour force, in other words, they work or want to work: 34 million men and 18 million women. In the Caribbean, the rural population represents an estimated 30% of the total population. Moreover, a large

1 ILOSTAT information; see also, ILO (2015a). The definition of "rural areas" varies among countries, which affects the counting of the rural population. Some countries of Latin America and the Caribbean define rurality based exclusively on the number of inhabitants of a community. For example, in Argentina, all communities with fewer than 2,000 inhabitants are considered rural. Other countries combine the number of inhabitants with criteria of economic activity and availability of infrastructure. Finally, some countries define rurality based on administrative criteria alone, such as Paraguay (all communities outside of the administrative centres of each district) and Barbados (all communities except for the capital). The situation is similar in other parts of the world. The threshold for distinguishing rural and urban communities ranges from 200 inhabitants (for example, Denmark, Iceland and Norway) to 50,000 in Japan (Robles et al. 2015; Dirven et al. 2011).

2 ILO (2012a). Employed persons living below the international poverty line of USD 1.25/day are considered "poor workers." The rural economy includes all agricultural and non-agricultural activities carried out in rural areas.

3 ILO (2015a).

4 ILO (2013). In this report, agriculture includes the following economic activities: farming, fishing, aquaculture, forestry and livestock farming.

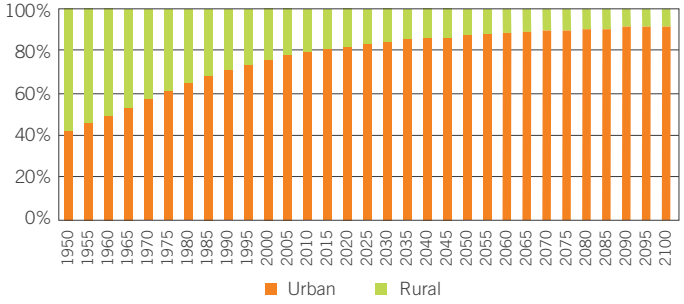
5 FAO (2011).

6 CELADE (2015).

share of the indigenous and Afro-descendant population of the region lives in rural areas.[7]

In 1950, the rural population accounted for nearly 60% of total inhabitants of Latin America, a percentage that had declined to 20% by 2015 (Figure 1). This means that a process of rapid urbanization occurred in a 50-year period. In each decade, approximately one sixth of rural inhabitants, especially youth, left their birthplace.[8] Moreover, since the early 1990s, the rural population has decreased in absolute terms. It is estimated that by the end of the 21st century, just 10% of the population of the region will live in rural areas.

Figure 1. Latin America: Estimated urban and rural population, 1950-2100 (Percentages)

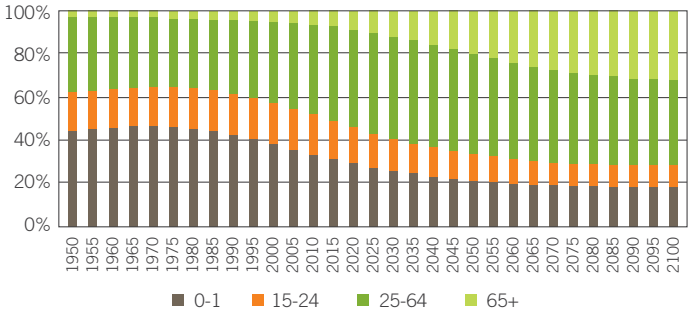


Source: ILO, based on the CELADE Database (2015).

Migratory processes represent a challenge in terms of the ageing of the population in rural areas. Figure 2 shows that children aged 0 to 14 years comprised the bulk of the rural population in 1950. The percentage of youth (15 to 24) remained stable for several decades (1950 to 2010) at approximately 18% of the total rural population. Subsequently, this population segment began to decline. It is estimated that by the end of the century, just 10% of the rural population will be in that age range. By contrast, one of every three rural residents will be at least 65 years old by the end of the century (Figure 2). These trends will shape the labour market and exert pressure on social protection systems.

7 World Bank (2015).
8 CELADE (2010).

Figure 2. Latin America: Estimated rural population, by age groups, 1950-2100 (Percentages)



Source: ILO, based on the CELADE Database (2015).

One difference between rural and urban populations is that poverty affects a much larger share of rural households and individuals. According to ECLAC (2015a), 46.2% of rural inhabitants lived in poverty in 2014 (of which 27.6% were extremely poor), whereas the urban poverty rate was 23.8%, just half of the rural rate.[9] This means that there are 60 million people living in poverty in rural areas, accounting for more than a third of the region's poor population. Caribbean countries do not have poverty statistics disaggregated by geographic area; however, the countries in the sub-region with a large rural population, including Guyana, Belize, Santa Lucia and Saint Kitts and Nevis, also have relatively high poverty rates.

Recent studies have found that despite high rural poverty rates, poverty has declined sharply during the current decade. It is notable that –unlike in previous decades– the decline in the rural poverty rate has outpaced that of urban areas: in just four years (2010-2014), rural poverty fell nearly 6 percentage points, from 52.4% to 46.2%; in the 30 years between 1980 and 2010, it declined just 7 percentage points. By contrast, urban poverty decreased less than 2 percentage points between 2010 and 2014.[10]

Most household income originates from labour income. In the region, 80% of total household income corresponds to labour income,

9 Poverty rates among indigenous populations account for a large share of rural poverty. According to the World Bank (2015), indigenous peoples comprise 8% of the Latin American population, but 14% of people living below the poverty line of USD 1.25 per day or less.

10 ECLAC (2015a).

a percentage that declines to 74% in poor households and 64% in extremely poor households.[11] This means that both the development and well-being of rural areas largely depend on what occurs in the labour market and the corresponding earning and employment conditions.[12]

This Thematic Labour Overview explores the reasons why poverty is higher in rural areas but has declined more rapidly than urban poverty in recent years, with an emphasis on the role of the labour market in this process. It also analyzes the labour gaps with respect to urban areas, which persist despite the progress made, and which should be considered in policymaking.

This report has five chapters, including the introduction. Chapter 2 analyzes the nature of rural employment, especially how it is influenced by the importance of agricultural activities, rural-urban productivity gaps, seasonal production and the distance factor. Chapter 3 provides information from the past decade about jobs, working conditions and rural income, with an emphasis on the gaps between rural and urban areas as well as changes over time. Chapter 4 discusses some policy issues and stresses the need to combine strategies to improve productivity with measures to strengthen labour institutions in rural labour markets. It also reviews how policies have been implemented in rural areas with a view to identifying some lessons for the region. Finally, Chapter 5 offers some conclusions.

To prepare this report, the authors used specially-processed statistical information from household surveys of 14 countries of the region, disaggregated by geographic area for the years 2005 and 2014 (or the nearest years with available information).[13] The statistical annex contains country-level data.

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11 ECLAC (2015b). Other income includes private transfers (including remittances), public transfers, private income and others. In some countries, households depending exclusively on transfers represent a significant share of total rural households. This is the case in Chile (18.9%), Brazil (15.5%) and Uruguay (14.3%) (Rodríguez and Meneses, 2010).

12 Poverty also originates from other factors not directly related to the labour market, for example, demographic factors of households or isolation.

13 The definition of rural and urban areas in this report is based on official documents of the statistics institutes that conduct household surveys in the 14 countries analyzed: Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Honduras, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay.

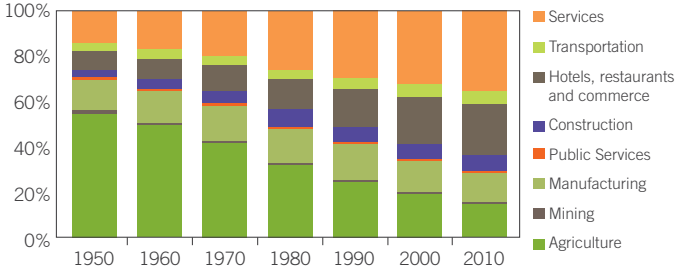
II. Nature and characteristics of rural employment

Rural employment has several features that distinguish it from that of urban areas. These include the declining importance of agriculture in the rural economy; productivity gaps with urban areas; the seasonal nature of economic activity; the economic implications of long distances; rural inhabitants; and the presence (or absence) of the state in rural areas. In recent decades, changes in these factors have largely determined labour market dynamics and labour relations in rural areas.

2.1 The declining importance of agriculture in rural employment

Although they are commonly associated, "rural employment" and "employment in agriculture" are not synonymous in any country in the region.[14] The data reveal a marked long-term downward trend in agricultural employment as a share of total rural employment. As several studies have demonstrated, this decrease was not absorbed by the manufacturing sector (secondary sector) but rather transferred directly to the tertiary sector, which went from representing less than 30% of total rural employment in 1950 to more than 60% in 2010 (Figure 3).

Figure 3. Latin America (8 countries): Structure of employment by economic activity, 1950-2010 (Percentages)



Source: ILO, based on information from Timmer et al. (2014).
Note: The countries are Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Mexico, Peru and Venezuela.

Rural employment includes not just agricultural employment but all sectors of economic activity. This is evident in Table 1, which demon-

14 Reardon *et al.* (2001).

strates the composition of employment disaggregated by geographic area and sector. In 2005, 21% of all employed persons nationwide were agricultural workers, a percentage that rose to 66% in the case of rural employment. By 2014, those percentages had fallen to 16% and 58%, respectively.

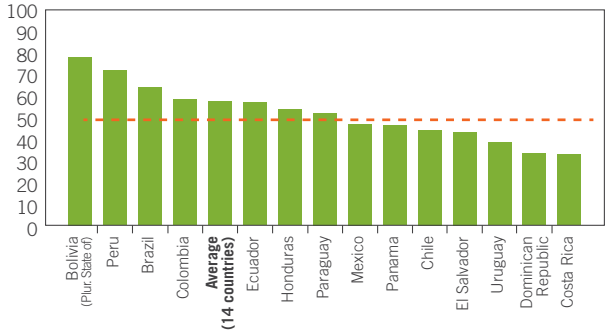
Table 1. Latin America (14 countries): Employed population by geographic area and economic sector, 2005 and 2014 (Percentages)

	2005			2014		
	National	Urban	Rural	National	Urban	Rural
Primary Sector	21.4	7.4	67.1	16.8	5.8	59.1
Agriculture	20.8	6.9	66.3	16.1	5.2	58.3
Mining	0.6	0.5	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.9
Secondary Sector	21.1	24.0	11.6	21.2	23.2	13.4
Tertiary Sector	57.6	68.6	21.3	62.0	70.9	27.4

Source: ILO estimates, based on information from household surveys of 14 countries.

Notwithstanding the patent decline in this decade, the data also confirm that most rural employment is still in agriculture. At the country level, agricultural employment in Bolivia and Peru represented more than 75% of total rural employment in 2014, but less than 50% in Chile, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Mexico, Panama and Uruguay (Figure 4).[15]

Figure 4. Latin America (14 countries): Agricultural employment as a share of rural employment, 2014 (Percentages)



Source: ILO estimates, based on information from household surveys of 14 countries.

The reduction in the percentage of agricultural employment nationwide is associated with the rapid growth of rural non-agricultural employ-

15 See Table A8 of the Statistical Annex.

ment, which rose at an annual rate of 3.3% in the period 2005–2014. From a longer-term perspective, the percentage of non-agricultural employment as a share of total rural employment was approximately 24% in the 1980s,[16] as compared with 34% in 2005 and 42% in 2014. Especially noteworthy was the upward trend in the participation of the tertiary sector in rural employment, which increased from 21% in 2005 to 27% in 2014. By contrast, the participation of the secondary sector rose from 12% to 13% during the same period.

To summarize, the data show that in most of the countries studied, agriculture continues to be the most important sector of economic activity in terms of rural job creation –even considering the downward trend. Its percentage decrease relative to rural employment in manufacturing (secondary sector) and services (tertiary sector) was not very pronounced due to the demand for agricultural employment among individuals living in urban centres near agricultural areas.[17] Table 1 shows that 5% of urban workers were employed in agriculture in 2014, as compared with 7% in 2005.[18]

Overall, there is a strong association between rural poverty and agriculture. A study by the FAO, ECLAC and ILO (2012a) concluded that most rural poor work in agricultural activities, which demonstrates that these jobs are of lesser quality and are lower paying than non-agricultural jobs in rural areas. This is true for own-account workers, small-scale farmers and wage workers, both permanent and temporary. In 2010, in Bolivia, Brazil, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Paraguay and Peru, more than half of all agricultural workers were poor. In countries where rural poverty was lower, such as in Costa Rica and Chile, the incidence of poverty in agricultural activities was also higher than in rural non- agricultural activities.

Moreover, agricultural poverty occurs not only in family farming, but also in larger enterprises. An example of this phenomenon was observed by Neiman, who concluded that 78% of all agricultural wage workers in Mendoza Province, Argentina, earned less than the minimum wage, even though this area has large, modern vineyards.[19]

16 Klein (1992).

17 Rodríguez and Meneses (2010) found that poverty rates are higher among agricultural workers living in urban areas than among those living in rural areas. This is because the cost of living is higher in urban areas, as are transportation costs between the place of residence and the workplace, among other reasons.

18 In contrast to this recent decline, Rodríguez (2016) found that between the beginning and end of the past decade, the percentage of agricultural workers who lived in cities increased in 10 of 12 countries.

19 FAO, ECLAC and ILO (2012a).

By contrast, rural non-agricultural workers have higher earnings than do rural agricultural workers, on average.[20] This is due to the existence of a segment of non- agricultural jobs of higher productivity.[21] In a 2008 analysis of 12 countries, Rodríguez (2016) found that most non-agricultural households were not poor, unlike agricultural households. Thus, the increase in non- agricultural rural occupations in recent decades is one reason for the reduction in rural poverty.

A corollary to this analysis is the conclusion that promoting decent work in rural areas requires policies of economic diversification. This strategy, applicable to both agricultural and non-agricultural activities, can help reduce poverty, be adapted to poor harvests or price fluctuations, improve food security and guarantee livelihoods.[22]

2.2 Urban-rural productivity gaps

There is no available information on the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) disaggregated by urban and rural components at the regional level, but major productivity gaps between urban and rural areas clearly exist. Rural areas in most of the countries of the region have traditionally received less private and public investment than urban areas.[23] For this reason, there are many gaps in the productive and social infrastructure between rural and urban areas,[24] as Table 2 demonstrates.

20 Dirven (2011b).
21 It should be noted that these data are averages given that there are many "refuge" rural non-agricultural jobs, with low productivity and earnings and that do not offer decent work conditions.
22 ILO (2014a).
23 ILO (2008a).
24 For further discussion of urban-rural gaps in socio-economic infrastructure, see Brushett and John-Abraham (2006), CAF (2011) and others.

Table 2. Latin America: Indicators of gaps in social and productive infrastructure, 2000, 2010 and 2012-2015 (Percentages)

Type of Infrastructure	Urban	Rural	Comments	Source
Social infrastructure				
Water [1/]	97	83	2015, 29 countries	WB
Sanitation [2/]	87	64	2015, 29 countries	WB
Access to health				
Medical staff deficit [3/]	11	24	2015, 34 countries	ILO
Maternal mortality [4/]	8	16	2015, 34 countries	ILO
Access to education				
Secondary education [5/]	[18 - 74]	[3 -40]	2013, 13 countries	IDB
Tertiary education [6/]	[11 - 43]	[2 - 13]	2013, 13 countries	IDB
Lack of restrooms [7/]	1	11	2015, 29 countries	WB
Dirt floor [8/]	[0,1 - 16]	[0,6 - 72]	2013, 12 countries	IDB
Childcare services [9/]	[2.2 - 37.7]	[0.5 - 23.1]	2010, 7 countries	IDB
Productive infrastructure				
Access to electricity [10/]	99	87	2012, 29 countries	WB
Use of non-fossil fuels [11/]	94	52	2012, 29 countries	WB
Access to computers [12/]	[30 - 62]	[6 - 33]	2014, 12 countries	IDB
Internet access [13/]	[11 - 31]	[0 - 10]	2010, 8 countries	ECLAC
Access to landline telephone [14/]	[28 - 71]	[0 - 30]	2000, 11 countries	ECLAC

Notes:
1/ Percentage of the population with access to water with improvements in supply.
2/ Percentage of the population with access to improved restroom facilities.
3/ Percentage of the population with no access to health due to a shortage of medical personnel.
4/ Number of deaths per 10,000 live births.
5/ Percentage of the population aged 25 to 49 that has completed at least secondary school.
6/ Percentage of the population aged 25 to 49, respectively, that has completed at least a tertiary education.
7/ Percentage of the population that does not have improved restroom facilities.
8/ Percentage of homes with dirt floors.
9/ Percentage of children ages birth to three years that attend childcare centres.
10/ Percentage of the population with access to electricity.
11/ Percentage of the population that uses non-fossil fuels.
12/ Percentage of homes with a computer.
13/ Percentage of homes with an Internet connection.
14/ Percentage of the population with access to a landline in the home.

Sources: IDB = Inter-American Development Bank Sociometer, WB = World Bank, ECLAC = Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean and ILO =International Labour Organization.

Marked gaps exist in basic social services such as access to water and sanitation, health and education services. The lack of access to potable water, sanitation, electricity or transportation affects women especially because they increase the amount of time women must devote to domestic chores, reducing the time that could be spent in paid employment.[25]

The largest gaps occur in indices associated with education, particularly pre-primary and tertiary education. The limited access to childcare services largely explains women's lower labour market participation in rural areas. Moreover, rural communities have more limited access to productive services such as road networks, electricity, non-fossil fuels, computers and the Internet, as well as to financial services.

According to the World Bank's Global Findex database, in 2011, 46% of adults in rural areas around the world had access to financial services, as compared with 58% in urban areas. Rural inhabitants also need access to financial services for productive (generation of assets, among others) and protective (reduction of risk exposure) purposes, as well as for education, housing, health and maintaining infrastructure, among other reasons, which would enable the economic potential of rural areas to be realized.[26] In every case, national averages are heavily influenced by urban indicators, which generally hide the lag in rural areas.

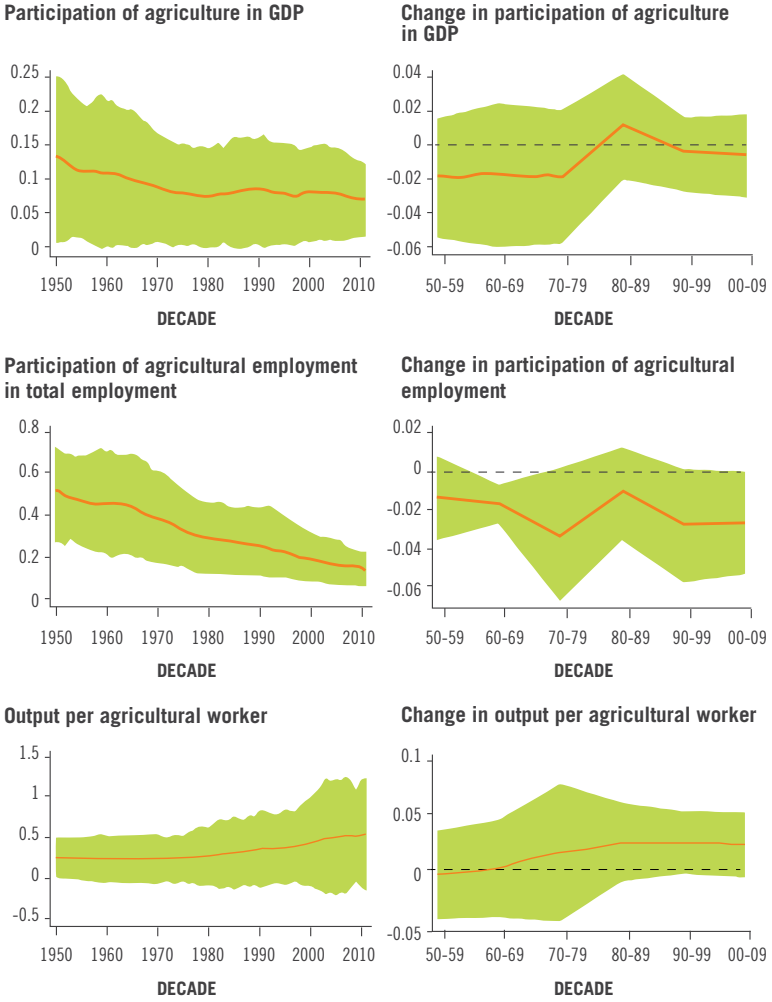
The lack of this type of infrastructure, as well as the limited state presence, creates a less enabling environment for increasing productivity in rural areas. This is largely due to the lack of physical connectivity, especially in countries where there is a high level of geographic dispersion and consequently, an absence of agglomeration economies. Traditionally, rural areas have been connected by communication routes, especially physical. Fortunately, a new form of connectivity –telecommunications services and the Internet– has been available for a few decades now. This provides opportunities to rural enterprises and workers. Despite recent progress, however, gaps also persist in this area.

Productivity gaps between urban and rural areas also play a key role in the change in agricultural productivity with respect to other sectors of economic activity. Here it is important to distinguish between level and change in agricultural productivity, understood as the agricultural GDP divided by the total of agricultural workers. Figure 5 shows the

25 ILO (2016a).
26 ILO (2015b).

change in both variables: the first column lists the level while the second shows the annual change.

Figure 5. Latin America (8 countries): Change in the participation of agriculture in GDP, participation of farm employment in total employment and of output per farm worker, 1950-2010 (Percentages and percentage change)



Note: Each point in the figures corresponds to the average of the corresponding variables for the countries with available information. The green area corresponds to confidence intervals of 95%. Changes correspond to the annual average change during the decade.
Source: ILO, based on information from Timmer *et al.* (2014).

Figure 5 shows the long-term reduction of the participation of agricultural GDP in total GDP and of agricultural employment in total employment. The combination of both trends has determined productivity levels. There are three clear periods regarding variations of productivity in the past 60 years.

- An initial period, between 1950 and 1970, when the participation of GDP and employment in agriculture fell at the same time, with GDP declining slightly more. This led to the negative change in productivity during this period.
- A second period, between 1970 and 1990, when the participation of agriculture in GDP was no longer decreasing, but the participation of agricultural employment continued to fall. This reversed the negative productivity trend.
- A third period, between 1990 and 2010, when the participation of agriculture in employment fell sharply and continuously while its participation in GDP declined more moderately, causing the growth of productivity to stabilize and become positive. Other studies analyzing this period found that agricultural productivity grew more than productivity of other sectors of economic activity.[27]

Weller (2016) argues that the high rate of growth of agricultural productivity in recent decades is due to overall economic growth in the region, transformational processes within the sector in the countries, the expansion of social policies and especially, the exceptional increase in the terms of agricultural trade. This, in turn, was partly associated with the global boom in food commodity prices, as well as with the shift in global consumption patterns to more sophisticated products (fresh produce, for example). The heavy investment in agricultural machinery was another decisive factor.

To summarize, agricultural productivity in the region has grown rapidly in recent decades, but is still very low compared with that of other economic sectors. Naturally, this has repercussions for aggregate rural productivity.

27 IDB (2010) and Weller (2016).

The aggregate analysis hides differences in the level of relative development of agriculture in the different countries. According to Rodríguez (2016), Latin America has at least four groups of rural economies:

- Traditional rural agrarian economies where more than half of the rural population is employed in agriculture and more than half of rural households are poor (for example, Paraguay, Guatemala, Bolivia and Honduras);
- Diversified rural economies where more than half of the rural labour force is employed in agriculture and less than 20% of rural households are poor (for example, Chile and Uruguay);
- Diversified rural economies where less than 30% of the rural labour force is employed in agriculture and there is a low incidence of rural poverty, with non-traditional agricultural activities with linkages to other sectors, as well as non-agricultural activities (for example, Costa Rica); and
- Rural economies in transition, with intermediate rural poverty rates (between 20% and 50%) and considerable variation in the percentage of rural employment in agriculture (for example, Brazil, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama and Peru).

The groups differ in the intensity of use of manual labour, labour income, working conditions and applicable policies.

In three Caribbean countries with available statistical information – Jamaica, Barbados and Trinidad and Tobago – the share of agricultural employment is low (less than 15%). In recent decades, agricultural employment has experienced a downward trend because of changes in relative prices associated with the growing importance of other activities, such as tourism or finance.

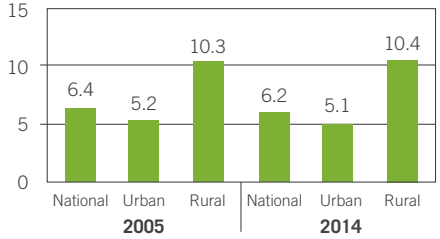
2.3 Some implications of seasonality

Many economic activities have a certain level of seasonal demand for manual labour. In agriculture, this variation is observed for many crops and has a direct impact on the labour force participation rates of the rural and urban population, particularly in the case of women.[28]

28 Statistics on labour force participation rates in rural areas should therefore be viewed with caution since household surveys normally use one week as the reference period, for which reason they do not include individuals who enter and leave the labour market. This occurs both among wage workers and workers employed in family farming.

It also directly affects the type of employment and income of workers and their households. Seasonal demand for employment also explains why rural workers frequently have more than one job. The incidence of employed individuals with two or more jobs in rural areas doubled that of urban areas and did not change significantly between 2005 and 2014 (Figure 6). At the country level, in Peru and Guatemala, more than a fifth of rural workers had two or more jobs in 2014, especially men. In Honduras, this percentage was nearly 40% of workers and 50% of employed men.

Figure 6. Latin America (14 countries): Workers with two or more jobs, by geographic area, 2005 and 2014 (Percentages)



Source: ILO estimates, based on information from household surveys of 14 countries.

This is a noteworthy characteristic since it implies that rural workers tend to diversify their activities, unlike urban workers, who tend to specialize. Urban workers who change occupations do not tend to do so in a cyclical way.

Seasonality is also associated with temporary employment, which is common in agriculture, so much so that in some Latin American countries, more than half of all workers in this sector are temporarily employed, which contributes to the expansion of poverty.[29] Temporary employment is also prevalent on the plantations (sugar, banana, cacao, coffee and coconut) in Caribbean countries.

The phenomena of seasonality and temporary employment create barriers for social security coverage of rural populations. The most important effect occurs due to the interruption of the contributory flows to social security, which result in low contribution densities, thereby limiting workers' ability to consolidate their rights to retirement benefits. In some cases, seasonality also affects access to other, short-term social security benefits, such as healthcare, unemployment

29 FAO, ECLAC and ILO (2012a).

insurance and maternity protection. These barriers underscore the need to innovate programme design, financing and administration of social security (for example, contribution collection systems). They also point to the need to rethink the adoption of semi-contributory and non-contributory social protection mechanisms (supported by government subsidies) adapted to the rural reality.

Seasonality and the resulting variations in demand for manual labour also encourage temporary migration, both within countries and to neighbouring countries. There is ample evidence of temporary international migration associated with agricultural activity.[30]

In some cases, temporary international migrations are associated with jobs that national or local workers do not want.[31] Often these are precarious, poorly-paid jobs without social protection. Consequently, the difficulties and barriers for generating decent work in rural areas are added to those associated with labour migration. Migrant workers are generally less skilled than nationals, which, together with their precarious, often irregular migratory status, explains the limited capacity of these workers to negotiate working conditions with employers, including social protection. Thus, rural migrants have more precarious working conditions, which in many cases diminish any economic advantage migration could offer.

Forms of labour migration vary by country. Both individuals and families migrate. Family migration has even been observed in international migrations, such as the case of the Ngöbe-Buglé people of Panama, who migrate as families to harvest coffee in Santos, Costa Rica. Some forms of temporary hiring –for example, day labourers who receive piece rate pay, who must meet a minimum daily quota – take several family members with them to serve as unpaid contributing family workers. This practice often makes the work of women invisible and perpetuates child labour.[32] Individual temporary migration may also have high social costs. For example, Valdés (2012) has shown how

30 For example, Panamanians and Nicaraguans travel to harvest coffee in Costa Rica; Haitians cut sugarcane in the Dominican Republic; and Colombian women harvest flowers in Ecuador. In other countries, migrations are internal, such as in Peru, where temporary workers travel from other departments of the country to harvest asparagus on the southern coast (Ica). In Mexico, workers migrate from Oaxaca and Guerrero to harvest chills and jitomates in Sinaloa. Peri-urban migrations also occur from Tucumán, Argentina to the O´Higgins Region in Chile to harvest lemons, an export crop, or grape and mango in the Submedio Valley of San Francisco, in Brazil (FAO, ECLAC and ILO, 2012b).

31 Solimano (2003).

32 FAO, ECLAC and ILO (2012a); FAO, ECLAC and ILO (2012b).

the social vulnerability of women who temporarily migrate in Chilean farming has increased. Additionally, these women have difficulty conciliating work and family life.

2.4 The effects of distance on enterprise density and educational level

A relationship exists between the location of residence and the possibility of developing non- agricultural activities. Rural areas far from urban centres tend to generate little non-agricultural employment given transportation difficulties and market size, among other reasons. By contrast, in rural areas near larger urban centres, the regional context and quality of connections promote job creation in the manufacturing and services sectors. Additionally, the economies of smaller communities tend to be more closely related to the rural economy than with larger urban centres when they are close to rural areas. In this sense, proximity is a factor that favours demand for local rural products, thereby generating more opportunities for employment.[33]

Distance is a key barrier for access to rural non-agricultural jobs, as well as to improving education and skills of agricultural workers and access to public services. One consequence is the lesser density of medium-sized and large enterprises and thus the lower percentage of wage employment compared with own-account employment and employment in micro- and small enterprises.

Table 3 lists the percentage of people who report having a business in urban and rural zones. At the country level, approximately 33% of workers in the region reported having a business in 2005, a percentage that fell slightly in 2014. This percentage is significantly higher in rural than in urban areas: 45% in 2005 and 46% in 2014. However, disaggregation by type of business shows that most rural businesses are associated with own-account employment (43%), which is not as frequent in urban areas (25%).[34]

33 Several authors cited in Dirven (2011a).

34 For more information on the percentage of wage workers, see Table 6 in the following section.

Table 3. Latin America (14 countries): People who report having a business, by geographic area, status in employment and enterprise size, 2005 and 2014 (Percentages)

	2005			2014		
	National	Urban	Rural	National	Urban	Rural
Percentage of people who report having a business	33.2	29.8	44.5	32.3	28.9	45.7
Own-account workers	28.6	24.8	41.6	28.3	24.5	42.7
Employers	4.5	5.0	3.0	4.1	4.4	3.0
Total employers	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Microenterprise	90.2	89.2	95.6	89.7	88.5	96.1
Small enterprise	9.5	10.4	4.3	9.9	11.0	3.6
Medium and large enterprises	0.4	0.4	0.1	0.4	0.5	0.3

Note: Microenterprise, 2-10 workers; small enterprise, 11-50 workers; medium and large enterprise, 51 or more workers.
Source: ILO estimates, based on information from household surveys of 14 countries.

A smaller percentage of employed persons in rural areas say they are employers (who have wage workers who report to them): 3% in both 2005 and 2014 for rural areas versus 5% in 2005 and 4.4% in 2014 for urban areas. Only in Bolivia (7.2%), Uruguay (5.6%) and Paraguay (5.2%) did more than 5% of the rural employed report being employers (Table A2 of the Statistical Annex). Additionally, disaggregating rural employers by enterprise size demonstrates that most are men and that they operate smaller businesses than urban employers. Ninety-six per cent of rural employers have a microenterprise, as compared with 89% of urban employers.

In summary, compared with urban zones, a larger percentage of the rural employed report having a business, but with smaller enterprise size, a higher percentage of own-account workers and microentrepreneurs and a lower percentage of employers.

These labour and business structures heavily influence the behaviour of labour markets. In urban areas, labour markets are more developed and there are agglomeration economies and economies of scale. This creates supply of and demand for organized labour. In rural areas, the long distances result in less agglomeration and labour relationships that are mostly disperse and familial. In some cases, this makes it impossible to establish the existence of a labour "market," except in those regions where commercial agriculture exists, whether plantations or small and medium-sized farms. Often, there are contingent labour markets (for transactions or spot contracts), for example

in agri-business zones where labour supply and demand occur at a specific time of day or day of the week to conduct the transaction, after which the market disappears.[35]

Another limitation is associated with labour force training. On the one hand, there is no broad, diversified training available in rural areas like there is in the cities, especially given the dispersion of the population (associated with the distance between young people's residence and the location of the training centre). On the other hand, even where rural training centres are available, they tend to be of poorer quality than those in urban areas. Finally, the type of business network in rural areas generally determines less demand for skilled labour than in urban areas.

In practice, this leads to lower levels of education of the rural population as compared with that of urban areas, as Table 4 shows. While between 2005 and 2014 the percentage of rural workers with a secondary or tertiary education increased – equal to approximately eight to 12 years and 13 or more years of schooling – and the percentage without an education or with only one to seven years of schooling fell, there is still a significant gap compared with educational levels of urban workers. In 2014, the percentage of workers with a tertiary education in urban areas was five times higher than in rural areas. It is noteworthy that employed women tend to have more schooling than employed men: nationwide, 73% of employed women have eight or more years of education, as compared with 67% of employed men. This difference also occurs in rural areas, but to a lesser degree (44% and 40%, respectively).

35 Chacaltana (2012).

Table 4. Latin America (14 countries): Employment by geographic area, years of education and sex, 2005 and 2014 (Percentages)

Years of Education	2005			2014		
	National	Urban	Rural	National	Urban	Rural
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
No education	7.9	5.0	17.4	5.3	3.4	12.6
1 to 7 years	33.7	27.4	54.6	25.2	19.9	45.7
8 to 12 years	43.5	49.1	25.1	49.0	52.4	36.1
13 or more years	14.9	18.6	2.9	20.4	24.3	5.6
Men	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
No education	8.0	5.1	16.6	5.7	3.7	12.4
1 to 7 years	35.8	28.9	55.9	27.3	21.4	47.3
8 to 12 years	43.1	49.4	25.1	49.6	53.7	36.0
13 or more years	13.0	16.7	2.4	17.3	21.2	4.3
Women	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
No education	7.7	4.9	19.0	4.8	3.0	13.1
1 to 7 years	30.6	25.3	51.9	22.2	17.9	42.7
8 to 12 years	43.9	48.6	25.3	48.2	50.7	36.1
13 or more years	17.7	21.2	3.8	24.8	28.3	8.1

Source: ILO estimates, based on information from household surveys of 14 countries.

The countries of the Caribbean do not have comparable data for a detailed analysis, but the available information indicates that the education gap between urban and rural areas is similar. For example, in Trinidad and Tobago (2008-2009), 55% of the population with no education lived in rural areas, but just a third of the population with a secondary education and a fifth of the population with a university education did so.[36]

Distance is also a major stumbling block for extending public policies that favour the poorest citizens, who are generally more isolated (see Section IV of this report). However, as Webb (2013) stated, information technologies have also been virtually reducing distances. Although his study refers to Peru, this trend is also occurring in other countries of the region, albeit to varying degrees.

In terms of social protection policies, rurality is directly associated with more limited service infrastructure, including the development of social protection programmes and the administrative infrastructure to guarantee the delivery of benefits. This makes it more difficult to

36 Central Statistical Office (2009).

expand social protection coverage to rural populations, regardless of the sector of activity, establishment size or type of employment. For example, the difficulties in creating health service infrastructure in rural or semi-rural areas is a direct disincentive for workers to demand their right to healthcare coverage and therefore increases the level of non-payment of contributions.

Other weaknesses of the public infrastructure that limit productivity, for example, the lack of transport routes or irrigation systems, cannot be resolved with information technologies. Irrigation has become an even more critical issue due to the climate change affecting the countries of Latin America and the Caribbean.

III. Employment, working conditions and labour income in rural areas

Rural employment provides livelihoods to one of every five people who work in Latin America and the Caribbean. Thus, it is important to analyze employment trends, working conditions and labour income in rural areas. The information in this chapter highlights several stylized facts on the functioning of rural labour markets over the past decade and the enormous gaps that persist, providing an overview of what it means to work in rural areas in the 21st century.

3.1 Employment-to-population ratios, unemployment and labour participation rates in rural areas

Table 5 shows the change in three key labour market indicators in Latin America. First, the labour force participation rate a decade ago was higher in rural than in urban areas; however, in recent years, the rates have become practically the same.[37] This is due to the decline in the rural labour force participation rate in South America (especially due to the weight of Brazil in the sub-regional average), although the rural rate continues to be slightly higher than the urban rate in that sub-region. By contrast, in Central America and Mexico, the urban labour force participation rate was higher than the rural rate in both 2015 and 2014. The average labour force participation rate for South America is also higher than that observed in Central America and Mexico in both rural and urban areas.

Third, the unemployment rate was lower in rural than in urban areas in both sub-regions in the period 2005-2014.[38] Several factors explain this situation, including the higher poverty rates in rural areas, which force people to obtain labour income from several sources, among them own-account employment (see Table 6 in the following sub-section). Rural open unemployment is just 2.9% in South America and 3.5% in Central America and Mexico.[39] From this standpoint, unemployment

37 The labour force participation rate is calculated by dividing the economically active population (EAP) or labour force by the total working age population. The EAP includes all employed and unemployed individuals.

38 The unemployment rate is the total number of unemployed persons (people who are actively seeking work) in relation to the economically active population. Changes in the labour force participation rate and employment-to-population ratio directly affect the unemployment rate. In other words, the unemployment rate rises when the labour force participation rate increases and when the employment-to-population ratio decreases.

39 The employment-to-population ratio is the ratio of the labour force currently employed to the total working-age population.

is mainly an urban phenomenon, where the unemployment rate is 6.9%.[40] Lower unemployment rates in rural than in urban areas are also observed among indigenous and Afro-descendant populations.[41]

Table 5. Latin America (14 countries): Key labour market indicators by geographic area, 2005 and 2014 (Percentages)

Year	Area	Labour force participation rate	Employment-to-population ratio	Unemployment rate
Latin America				
2005	National	61.4	56.7	7.7
	Urban	60.7	55.3	9.0
	Rural	63.7	61.7	3.1
2014	National	61.6	57.8	6.2
	Urban	61.7	57.4	6.9
	Rural	61.5	59.6	3.1
South America				
2005	National	62.9	57.2	9.0
	Urban	61.4	54.9	10.5
	Rural	69.0	66.8	3.2
2014	National	62.6	58.5	6.6
	Urban	62.1	57.5	7.4
	Rural	64.7	62.8	2.9
Central America and Mexico				
2005	National	57.6	55.2	4.2
	Urban	59.0	56.3	4.6
	Rural	53.5	52.0	2.8
2014	National	59.3	56.2	5.2
	Urban	60.5	57.0	5.7
	Rural	55.8	53.9	3.5

Note: Eight countries of South America and five of Central America.
Source: ILO estimates, based on information from household surveys of 14 countries.

40 With the implementation of Resolution I of the 19th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS, 2013), the rural unemployment rate in household surveys in many countries will be higher than the urban unemployment rate given that the definition of employment will be limited to paid employment (and will exclude subsistence workers who are currently included in employment). Moreover, as the new definition of unemployment requires the application of three criteria: a) being without employment in the reference week; b) seeking employment in the last four weeks or month; and c) being available for paid employment, unemployment may diminish in some countries when the new definition is applied (this is the case of the countries of the Caribbean, which still do not apply the criterion of seeking work). Currently, the application of these new definitions in Latin America and the Caribbean is in a pilot phase, for which reason data are unavailable.

41 According to ECLAC (2015a, p.31), with information for 9 countries in Latin America, the unemployment rate for both groups is lower in rural than in urban areas. The reason for this difference is the high percentaje of own-account wokers in agricultural and traditional subsistence occupations.

The fall in the rural labour force participation rate occurred in four of 14 countries of South America (Brazil, Ecuador, Paraguay and Peru), but is heavily influenced by the magnitude of the decrease in Brazil. The decline in the rural labour force participation rate in Brazil is a long-term trend. According to Neder (2009), rural labour force participation fell by around 3 percentage points between 1995 and 2006.[42] The reduction in labour participation rates and employment-to-population ratios may be associated with the growth in the percentage of the population ages 65 and over in rural areas of the region.

3.2 Own-account employment and wage employment in rural areas

Table 6 demonstrates other differences between rural and urban labour markets. One is the larger presence of non-wage workers in rural areas, especially own-account workers (43% in 2014), compared with urban areas (25%). Inversely, wage employment is lower in rural (41%) than in urban (68%) areas. These two indicators are possibly the clearest evidence of a fundamental structural difference between rural and urban labour markets, which is associated with productivity gaps, the weak business network and other characteristics mentioned in Section 2, including the limited coverage of labour and social protection systems in rural areas.

Table 6. Latin America (14 countries): Employment by geographic area and status in employment, 2005 and 2014 (Percentages)

	2005			2014		
	National	Urban	Rural	National	Urban	Rural
Total employed	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Wage workers	58.9	66.1	34.1	62.6	68.3	40.6
Public	10.2	12.0	4.4	10.5	11.9	5.2
Private	42.8	47.6	26.4	46.9	50.8	31.8
Microenterprise	19.4	19.6	18.7	19.2	18.8	20.9
Small enterprise	18.6	22.4	5.5	18.9	22.1	6.5
Medium and large enterprise	4.8	5.6	2.3	8.8	10.0	4.5
Domestic workers	5.8	6.6	3.3	5.1	5.5	3.6
Non-wage workers	41.1	33.9	65.9	37.4	31.7	59.4

(continues...)

42 DIEESE (2014) indicates that the number of rural workers in Brazil grew between 1950 and 1985 but then began to decline in absolute terms. This was due to migrations –particularly of youth– from rural areas, which resulted from the agricultural modernization that reduced demand for workers.

	2005			2014		
	National	Urban	Rural	National	Urban	Rural
Employers	4.5	5.0	3.0	4.1	4.4	3.0
Own-account	28.6	24.8	41.6	28.3	24.5	42.7
Contributing family	7.9	4.0	21.3	5.0	2.8	13.6

Note: the "others" category was eliminated from the table as it represented less than 0.1% of the total. Microenterprise, 2-10 workers; small enterprise, 11-50 workers; medium and large enterprise, 51 or more workers.
Source: ILO estimates, based on information from household surveys of 14 countries.

Interestingly, the percentage of rural wage workers rose from 34% to 40% between 2005 and 2014 (with the largest increases occurring in Colombia and Paraguay), while that of rural non-wage workers declined from 65% a 59%, with these workers being largely own-account workers and contributing family workers. In some countries (including Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Mexico and Paraguay), this is a long-term trend observed since the early 1990s.[43]

The importance of contributing family workers (unpaid family workers) is another stark contrast between rural and urban areas in the region. These workers accounted for 14% of total rural employment in 2014, as compared with 3% in urban areas, although this percentage declined sharply from the 2005 level (21%). The highest incidence of contributing family workers among rural workers occurs in the Andean countries: Bolivia (44.4%), Peru (27.2%) and Ecuador (15.3%), as well as in Honduras (15.8%).[44]

The growth in the percentage of rural wage workers and the reduction of contributing family workers are associated with the growing importance of rural non-agricultural employment, where the increase in wage employment is concentrated (Rodríguez, 2016). This trend has improved working conditions in rural areas.

The increased presence of own-account employment in rural areas has implications in terms of policies to extend social protection. Due to their characteristics, own-account workers are considered a "difficult-to-cover" group by social security systems. When the two concepts of "rurality" and "own-account employment" occur together, labour vulnerability and the typical barriers for extending social security coverage become even more daunting. Several factors explain the difficulty in extending coverage to own-account workers, including these workers' irregular income, low level of organization or associ-

43 Information from the IDB's SIMS database.
44 See Table A7 of the Statistical Annex.

ation, ongoing struggle to keep their businesses afloat, absence of an employer figure (own-account workers must cover the full amount of their social security contributions), mobility between wage and non-wage employment and the administrative difficulties involved in monitoring and collecting contributions.[45]

3.3 Employment gaps among women in urban and rural areas

Non-agricultural employment provides opportunities for women who enter the labour force, thereby increasing the number of members of the household who earn labour income.

However, the labour force participation rate among women fell slightly in rural areas (from 45% to 44%), whereas it increased in urban areas (from 49% to 51%) between 2005 and 2014. Women's labour market participation in rural areas is below that of urban areas and is less than half that of men in the same rural areas (Table 7). This asymmetry can be partly attributed to the invisibility of many rural women who work on family farms.[46] Increasing women's labour market participation would improve rural household income.

Similar trends are observed with respect to the employment-to-population ratio. This ratio declined among rural women but increased among urban women.

Gaps between men and women in terms of labour participation rates and employment-to-population ratios are larger in rural than in urban areas.

45 Durán-Valverde (2013).
46 ECLAC and ILO (2016).

Table 7. Latin America (14 countries): Key labour market indicators by geographic area and sex, 2005 and 2014 (Percentages)

	2005			2014		
	Labour force participation rate	Employment-to-population ratio	Unemployment rate	Labour force participation rate	Employment-to-population ratio	Unemployment rate
NATIONAL						
Total	**61.4**	**56.7**	**7.7**	**61.6**	**57.8**	**6.2**
Men	75.2	70.7	6.1	74.1	70.3	5.1
Women	48.5	43.6	10.0	50.0	46.2	7.6
URBAN						
Total	**60.7**	**55.3**	**9.0**	**61.7**	**57.4**	**6.9**
Men	73.4	68.1	7.3	73.0	68.7	5.9
Women	49.3	43.7	11.3	51.4	47.2	8.3
RURAL						
Total	**63.7**	**61.7**	**3.1**	**61.5**	**59.6**	**3.1**
Men	81.5	79.6	2.4	78.5	76.5	2.5
Women	45.2	43.1	4.5	43.9	42.0	4.2

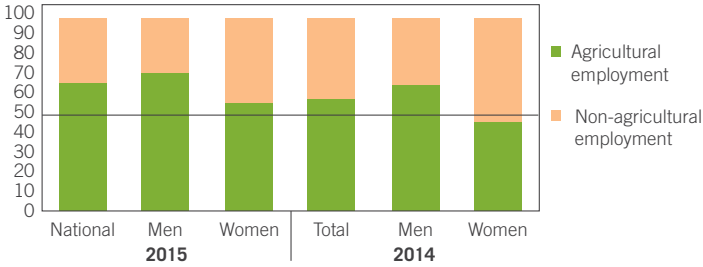
Source: ILO estimates, based on information from household surveys of 14 countries.

The unemployment rate among women in rural areas has fallen slightly over the past decade. While the gender gap has narrowed, the unemployment rate among women is nearly double that of men. It is also noteworthy that the unemployment rate among women in rural areas (4.2%) is half that observed among women in urban areas (8.3%).[47]

In 2005, two of every three rural workers were employed in agriculture. This percentage has gradually declined, but more so among women than among men. In 2014, rural women worked mainly in non-agricultural activities (Figure 7), especially in the services and restaurant and hotel sectors. Nevertheless, in four of the 14 countries analyzed, agricultural employment accounted for the largest share of women's rural employment (Bolivia, Brazil, Ecuador and Peru). The number of women agricultural workers in rural areas has also decreased in absolute terms.

47 According to ECLAC (2015a, p. 31), the gender gap observed in the unemployment rate is higher among the Afro-descendant population than among the indigenous population and the rest of the rural population.

Figure 7. Latin America (14 countries): Share of agricultural and non- agricultural employment in total rural employment, by sex, 2005 and 2014 (Percentages)



Source: ILO estimates, based on information from household surveys of 14 countries.

The rise in non-agricultural employment may be associated with the increase in wage employment (public and private) among women. The share of wage employment as a percentage of women's rural employment rose from 28% to 35% between 2005 and 2014 (Table 8). In this period, the percentage of women contributing family workers declined from 33% to 22%. Despite these improvements, the situation of rural women falls far short of that of urban women, of whom 70% are wage workers and just 4% are contributing family workers.

Table 8. Latin America (14 countries): Employment by geographic area and status in employment, 2005 and 2014 (Percentages)

	2005			2014		
	National	Urban	Rural	National	Urban	Rural
Men	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Wage workers	58.3	65.1	37.6	61.6	67.0	43.6
Public	8.3	10.0	3.2	8.3	9.6	3.8
Private	49.3	54.5	33.6	52.7	56.7	39.1
Microenterprise	23.3	22.9	24.6	22.4	21.2	26.7
Small enterprise	20.7	25.3	6.5	20.5	24.4	7.5
Medium and large enterprise	5.3	6.3	2.4	9.7	11.1	4.9
Domestic workers	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7
Non-wage workers	41.7	34.9	62.4	38.4	33.0	56.4
Employers	5.8	6.5	3.9	5.2	5.6	3.9
Own-account	30.1	25.7	43.5	29.7	25.6	43.5
Contributing family	5.6	2.6	14.9	3.4	1.8	9.0

(continues...)

	2005			2014		
	National	Urban	Rural	National	Urban	Rural
Women	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Wage workers	59.6	67.5	27.7	63.9	69.9	35.1
Public	13.1	14.7	6.4	13.7	14.9	8.0
Private	33.0	38.0	13.1	38.8	43.1	18.0
Microenterprise	13.5	14.9	7.8	14.6	15.6	10.0
Small enterprise	15.5	18.5	3.6	16.6	19.1	4.5
Medium and large enterprise	4.0	4.6	1.7	7.6	8.4	3.5
Domestic workers	13.5	14.8	8.2	11.4	11.9	9.1
Non-wage workers	40.4	32.5	72.3	36.1	30.1	64.9
Employers	2.6	3.0	1.2	2.5	2.7	1.5
Own-account	26.3	23.5	37.9	26.2	23.1	41.2
Contributing family	11.3	6.0	33.1	7.3	4.2	22.1

Note: the "others" category was eliminated from the table as it represented less than 0.1% of the total. Microenterprise, 2-10 workers; small enterprise, 11-50 workers; medium and large enterprise, 51 or more workers.
Source: ILO estimates, based on information from household surveys of 14 countries.

3.4 Employment gaps among youth in urban and rural areas

In 2015, approximately 31 million youth ages 15 to 29 lived in rural areas of Latin America, a fifth of the total youth population in the region. In 2012, an estimated 31% worked in agriculture, 27% in rural non-agricultural employment and 42% did not work.[48] If current trends continue, most rural youth will be employed in non-agricultural activities in 2016. As discussed in the sub-section below, this can have important effects on the quality of their jobs and income.

Table 9 shows that the employment-to-population ratio among rural youth was 42% in 2014, above the 36% recorded for urban youth. This is due to a higher labour force participation rate among youth (45% rural versus 42% urban), possibly reflecting pressures to leave school early or the lack of schools in rural areas.[49] The increase in the employment-to-population ratio among rural youth is also associated with a lower unemployment rate among this group (6.6% rural versus 16.2% urban). In rural areas, labour force participation rates for both

48 Dirven (2016).
49 ECLAC and ILO (2016).

youth and adults fell in 2005 and 2014, while in urban areas it declined among youth but rose among adults. The rural unemployment rate increased among youth, as it did, marginally, among adults. However, due to the lesser demographic weight and lower rate of labour force participation among rural youth, the total rural unemployment rate did not increase. By contrast, the unemployment rate fell in urban areas among both youth and adults.

The entry of youth into the labour force occurs in a context of a key demographic shift, which generates a smaller percentage of children (from birth to age 14) and the decision of many young people to migrate to urban areas. This leaves rural areas with an older population. Thus, between 2005 and 2014, the number of rural youth in the region decreased by 1.7 million. By contrast, the population of adults aged 60 and over increased by 2.3 million. As a percentage of the total rural population, this age group's participation rose from 8% to 10% during that period.[50]

Table 9. Latin America (14 countries): Key labour market indicators by geographic area and age, 2005 and 2014 (Percentages)

	2005			2014		
	Labour force participation rate	Employment-to-population ratio	Unemployment rate	Labour force participation rate	Employment-to-population ratio	Unemployment rate
NATIONAL						
Total	**61.4**	**56.7**	**7.7**	**61.6**	**57.8**	**6.2**
Youth	45.9	38.9	15.3	43.0	36.9	14.0
Adults	68.8	65.2	5.2	68.9	65.9	4.3
URBAN						
Total	**60.7**	**55.3**	**9.0**	**61.7**	**57.4**	**6.9**
Youth	44.5	36.2	18.5	42.4	35.5	16.2
Adults	68.3	64.1	6.1	68.9	65.5	4.8
RURAL						
Total	**63.7**	**61.7**	**3.1**	**61.5**	**59.6**	**3.1**
Youth	50.7	47.7	6.0	45.0	42.1	6.6
Adults	71.0	69.6	2.0	68.9	67.5	2.1

Note: Youth are under age 25 while adults are ages 25 and over.
Source: ILO estimates, based on information from household surveys of 14 countries.

Another key characteristic of youth's participation in the labour market is the high percentage of contributing family workers among

50 CELADE (2015).

rural youth aged 15 to 24 (27% in 2014) compared with urban youth (6%). However, this percentage has been falling since 2005, for youth of both sexes. By contrast, private wage employment in rural areas rose from 39% to 46% in the same period. Own-account employment is another important source of employment for rural youth, which is nearly double that for urban youth (20% versus 11%, respectively).

Table 10. Latin America (14 countries): Youth employment (15-24) by geographic area and status in employment, 2005 and 2014 (Percentages)

	2005			2014		
	National	Urban	Rural	National	Urban	Rural
Status in employment	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Wage workers	70.9	79.7	46.1	75.0	81.9	52.2
Public	4.7	5.5	2.5	5.1	5.7	3.0
Private	59.9	67.3	39.3	66.4	72.7	45.5
Domestic workers	6.2	7.0	4.2	3.5	3.5	3.7
Non-wage workers	29.1	20.3	53.9	25.0	18.1	47.8
Employers	0.9	1.0	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.5
Own-account	12.9	11.4	17.3	13.5	11.4	20.2
Contributing family	15.3	7.9	36.0	10.9	6.0	27.1

Note: the "others" category was eliminated from the table as it represented less than 0.1% of the total.
Source: ILO estimates, based on information from household surveys of 14 countries.

Most youth in rural areas work in the agricultural sector. Dirven (2016) states that youth work on family farms as contributing family workers or wage agricultural workers. These are largely precarious jobs with very low incomes.

Due to the deficiencies in youth's participation in the labour market, their poverty rate is substantially higher than that of urban youth: 39% of youth live in poverty, with a higher incidence in rural areas (46%) than in urban ones (25%).[51] This gap is also associated with the educational differences between the two groups. In urban areas, 41% of youth have completed 13 or more years of schooling (equivalent to

51 See the Joint statement of the Latin American and Caribbean Regional Inter-Agency Working Group on Youth of the United Nations System in observance of International Youth Day (12 August), https://www.google.com.pe/webhp?sourceid=chrome-instant&rlz=1C1CHZL_enUS710US710&ion=1&espv=2&ie=UTF-8#q=joint%20statement%20of%20the%20inter-agency%20united%20nations%20latin%20america (consulted 21 September 2016).

a tertiary education); in rural areas, this percentage decreases to 9% for the 14 countries in this study.

3.5 Working conditions in rural areas and gaps among urban and rural areas

The prevailing forms of labour market entry of rural workers as own-account and contributing family workers frequently lead to precarious, informal working conditions.[52] As Table 11 demonstrates, social security coverage is lower in rural than in urban areas, both in terms of healthcare coverage and pensions, although it has increased proportionally more in rural areas over the past decade. Notwithstanding, coverage gaps remain significant.

Table 11. Latin America: Percentage of employment by geographic area and different indicators of working conditions, 2005 and 2014 (Percentages)

	2005			2014		
	National	Urban	Rural	National	Urban	Rural
Workers with healthcare coverage	44.3	51.1	22.0	57.8	62.7	38.4
Workers covered by pension systems	41.6	48.5	18.7	50.2	56.3	26.5
Time-related underemployment	7.0	6.8	7.6	5.4	5.2	6.3
Wage workers with written employment contracts	39.6	42.6	20.7	48.0	51.1	27.0
Unionized workers	18.3	19.3	11.8	15.7	16.4	10.5

Note: The first column lists workers covered by health insurance (contributory and non-contributory); the second lists workers who receive a pension or pay into a pension system. Number of countries included for each indicator: 12 for healthcare coverage, 11 for pension coverage, 12 for underemployment, 10 for written contract and 5 for unionization.
Source: ILO estimates, based on information from household surveys.

A study by the FAO, ECLAC and ILO (2012a) found that social security coverage is higher among permanent than temporary workers. In the case of temporary workers in the provinces of Mendoza, Santa Fe and Misiones in Argentina, the percentage of informal workers was 98%. According to 2010 surveys, poverty and informality are linked since

52 The ILO definition of informality refers to non-agricultural informal employment. In general, the ILO considers wage workers informal when they do not have social protection and/or an employment contract, as well as non-wage workers when their production units are informal.

there is a higher percentage of informality among the population living in poverty, particularly among women. In all the countries, between 55% and 98% of poor people have informal jobs. The association between informality and poverty is clear and direct in rural areas.

The gaps between rural and urban areas are also significant in terms of hiring procedures. In urban areas, 51% of wage workers have a written employment contract (in many cases, a temporary contract), while just 27% of rural workers have written contracts. In several countries, more modern agricultural firms often outsource worker hiring –especially for temporary workers– by contracting firms that provide manual labour for certain tasks, usually harvesting. Hiring systems in the different countries vary considerably, however, and it is therefore difficult to generalize.

Union membership is also lower in rural than in urban areas, which is not surprising given the significant presence of own-account workers and smaller percentage of employers in that geographic area, as well as the limited number of large enterprises mentioned earlier. The percentage of unionized rural wage workers employed in agricultural or non-agricultural activities was 10.5% in 2014 versus 16.4% in urban areas. Total union membership in the countries studied fell in both rural and urban areas between 2005 and 2014.

Rural employment, particularly agricultural employment, is linked with child labour. In Latin America, 48% of the 12 million children who work do so in agricultural activities. Agriculture is the main economic activity in which children work, except for the group of girls ages 15 to 17, which has a higher percentage employed in trade. Child labour is a response to poverty, the lack of opportunities for the whole family and the need to generate income for household subsistence.[53] Adding to these problems is the belief by many parents that child labour is a positive thing.[54] The situation is exacerbated in the case of children involved in temporary migrations since they are removed from school, their work contributes little to household income and poverty is transmitted to the next generation. The association between poverty and low educational levels has been identified in several country studies.[55]

Agriculture –together with mining and construction– is one of the most dangerous sectors for workers' health.[56] Half of all work acci-

53 ILO/FAO (2013a).
54 Cavagnoud (2016).
55 Rodríguez (2016).
56 ILO (2000).

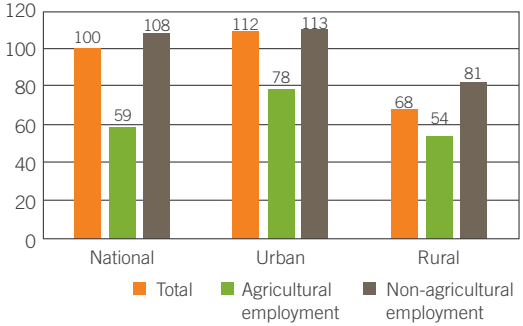
dents occur during agricultural activities and children are particularly susceptible.

3.6 Labour income

Rural workers earn less than their urban counterparts. As Figure 8 shows, in 2014, real labour income of rural workers represented 68% of average labour income of urban workers, a gap that was smaller than that recorded in 2005, when rural workers earned 60% of the labour income of urban workers.

Non-agricultural employment generates more income that agricultural employment. This is true in both rural and urban areas; however, the weight of agricultural employment is limited in urban areas. In 2014, average non-agricultural income in rural areas was 50% higher than agricultural income, a percentage that has remained relatively stable since 2005.

Figure 8. Latin America (13 countries): Real labour income, by geographic area and agricultural/non-agricultural activities, 2014 (simple average of country indices)

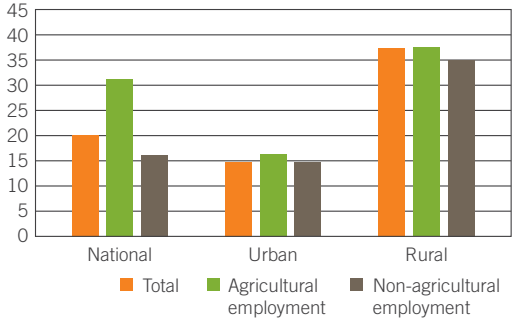


Note: Average income for all employed individuals in each country equals 100.
Source: ILO estimates, based on information from household surveys of 13 countries.

Figure 9 demonstrates that the growth of labour income was higher in rural than in urban areas in the period 2005-2014. During this period in the region, urban wages increased by approximately 15%, on average, while rural wages rose by 40% (especially in the Andean region). Agricultural labour income also grew nearly twice as much as non-agricultural labour income in the same period. This is associated with several factors, including the partial closing of the productivity gap between agriculture and the other economic activities mentioned in Section

2 of this report. It can also be explained by the economic context, the rise in the price of agricultural commodities and connectivity policies implemented in several countries. Despite these advances, rural income continues to be much lower than that of urban areas and agricultural labour income is lower than non-agricultural labour income.

Figure 9. Latin America (13 countries): Percentage change in real labour income, by geographic area and agricultural/non-agricultural activities, 2005-2014 (simple average of country indices)



Source: ILO estimates, based on information from household surveys of 13 countries.

The minimum wage becomes particularly relevant in this context. Although the percentage of rural wage earners is lower than that of urban areas,[57] the minimum wage serves as a reference for all occupations and is the same for both rural and urban areas in most of the countries of the region. Recent studies indicate that compliance with the minimum wage in rural areas (especially in agriculture and temporary jobs) is low – below that of the urban sector. Consequently, there is a pressing need for policies to strengthen labour institutions in rural areas.[58].

57 In 10 of 15 countries of the region, rural wage workers represent less than half of all workers (See TableA7 of the Statistical Annex).

58 Marinakis (2014a) and Marinakis (2014b).

IV. Policies to promote quality jobs in rural areas

The previous sections of this report describe some improvements in rural employment conditions in the region in the period 2005-2014, such as the increase in wage employment, reduction of the share of contributing family workers, increased health and pension coverage and rise in labour income. These advances have contributed to reducing rural poverty. Nevertheless, significant gaps remain, which underscore the need for public policies that promote the creation of quality jobs in rural areas.

Recommendations for rural employment policies in this section are based on the ILO's research and development cooperation activities in different regions around the world, as well as on the discussion concerning the promotion of rural unemployment during the 2008 International Labour Conference.[59]

This discussion is particularly relevant in the context of Agenda 2030 and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) recently adopted by all nations of the world (Box 1). Rural development is crucial for promoting inclusive and sustainable economic growth, employment and decent work for all (SDG 8). The rural sector is the hard nucleus of poverty, inequality, exclusion and informality in the region. If no one is to be left behind, public policies must redouble efforts for the productive and labour inclusion of rural workers and employers, without discrimination of any kind.

From this perspective, the policy framework to promote better quality jobs in rural areas can be divided into two major types of interventions: (1) policies for productive development and expansion of capacities in rural areas; and (2) labour market and social protection policies. In the discussion of policies and activities to transform the rural sector, it is important not only to consider what should be done, but also to define the institutional, dialogue and collaborative mechanisms among key actors to achieve them. The third section of this chapter examines this issue.

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59 See, for example, ILO (2008), ILO (2015c), ILO (2016b). In Latin America and the Caribbean, the ILO has conducted studies jointly with the FAO and ECLAC (FAO, ECLAC and ILO, 2012a) and has collaborated on other research papers that generate specific information for the regional context.

Box 1. Rural Development and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

The SDGs cover a wide range of issues that are directly related to the development and well-being of rural populations. Most of the population living in extreme poverty resides in rural areas. Goal 1 (End poverty in all its forms everywhere) requires the development of policies targeting the rural economy. Goal 2 (End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture) recognizes that agriculture is the largest source of income and jobs for poor rural households. To this end, its targets include doubling agricultural productivity and incomes of small-scale food producers by 2030, as well as increasing investments in rural infrastructure, agricultural research and extension services. Investment in small-scale farmers, improved use of agricultural biodiversity and improved access to resources of women farmers are some of the ways to achieve these targets. The satisfaction of the future demand for food and the increase in agricultural productivity can also be achieved through increased access to energy sources (Goal 7: Ensure access to affordable, reliable and sustainable modern energy for all), the more efficient use of water (Goal 6: Ensure availability and sustainability of water and sanitation for all) and actions to mitigate climate change (Goal 13: Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts).

Reducing gaps in health, education and employment with respect to urban areas will directly contribute to the well-being of the rural population and will contribute to Goals 3 (Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages), 4 (Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all) and 8 (Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all). Achieving these goals will reduce inequalities between urban and rural areas and contribute to reaching Goal 10 (Reduce income inequality within and among countries).

Source: http://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/sustainable-development-goals/

4.1 Policies for productive development and expansion of capacities[60]

Productive development in rural areas is a necessary condition for increasing the productivity of agricultural and non- agricultural activities and improving job quality. This is a multifaceted challenge for the countries of the region, which covers a variety of issues, including: land ownership and property rights; productive diversification; infrastructure for physical connectivity; support to small farmers; improved working conditions on plantations; improved incorporation of rural firms in national, regional and international value chains; and access to global markets through agricultural export activities.

Given the high incidence of informality and poverty in rural areas, policies are needed that promote the transition from the informal to the formal economy and that facilitate the transition of subsistence agriculture to activities of greater added value.

In addition to being inclusive, productive development in rural areas should be sustainable. Clearly, rural development can benefit from the sustainable exploitation of natural resources. The focus should be on climate change adaptation measures to increase resilience and the well-being of vulnerable rural economies. The rights and interests of local communities, including indigenous populations, should be respected.[61] If the policies, concessions and contracts for the exploitation of natural resources are to serve the interests of rural workers, investors must focus on a capacity-transfer, local-development approach.

a. Rural productive development

The structural change of the rural economy requires policies to promote a shift in the agricultural sector to non-traditional activities of increased added value. Policies should also encourage the diversification of the rural economy, whether through the development of

60 This section uses inputs from the portfolio of policy notes on the promotion of decent work in the rural economy (ILO, 2015c). For more information, see: www.ilo.org/rural.

61 Convention No. 169 of the ILO concerning indigenous and tribal peoples (1989) includes principles and standards to consider in the design and implementation of public policies to promote decent work in the rural economy, with direct benefits for indigenous peoples. These principles include the rights to property, consultation and participation, rural and community industries and respect for labour rights, among others.

forward and backward linkages with other economic sectors or through the development of new activities such as tourism.[62]

The development of local value is also crucial for productive transformation, with an emphasis on the role of lead firms (often multinational) that link rural areas with the global economy through supply chains.

Connecting small-scale farmers with global supply chains can help boost productivity, which can lead to better jobs for the workers involved. A recent ILO study on global supply chains identified several examples in the region, essentially high-value agricultural crops that are not marketed in bulk and that require special treatment (such as fresh fruits and vegetables, or that are processed in one or more stages following harvest before reaching the final market).[63] Economic success stories include fresh fruit chains in Chile, asparagus in Peru and banana in the Dominican Republic, although in some cases this progress is not fully reflected in social improvements. The ILO study identified policy measures with a positive impact, including tax incentives, the incorporation of labour clauses in free trade agreements and the adoption of voluntary fair-trade initiatives.

With public resources or through public-private partnerships (PPP), it is possible to make decentralized, labour-intensive investments in rural areas, which increase productivity in the long term, overcoming some obstacles caused by distances and lack of infrastructure. Investment in rural roads, irrigation or electrification projects also has an immediate effect on job creation during project implementation. The concession of maintenance contracts for the new infrastructure to small and medium-sized rural firms can have a positive impact on non-agricultural job creation.

Structural change in the rural sector can also be promoted through support to the introduction of new technologies, which creates opportunities for new enterprises, especially among the younger, more skilled population. The penetration of mobile telephones has helped bring technological innovation closer to the rural population.[64]

Finally, there should be no separation between this type of productive development policy and labour policies; rather, both can and should be integrated into an overall rural development strategy.

62 Rodríguez (2016).
63 Gereffi et al. (2016).
64 Rodríguez (2016).

b. Training for rural employment[65]

The rural economy has heterogeneous characteristics that link highly competitive productive activities with others of subsistence. Educational levels in rural areas are below those of urban areas. Consequently, increasing productive capacities requires investing in knowledge and skills of the labour force, for which reason education and vocational training in rural areas should be considered an intrinsic part of productive development.

Vocational training is a basic support system for rural development in its social, economic-productive and environmental dimensions. The benefits of vocational training include the growth of agricultural productivity and the livelihoods of the rural population, promotion of economic diversification and stimulation of productive transformation of rural areas. This is achieved through skills development, promotion of small and medium-sized enterprises and business development services, environmental sustainability and the integration in value chains, among others. Vocational training and the promotion of entrepreneurship also play a key role in supporting indigenous communities and complement traditional occupations with new activities of higher productivity that generate labour income.[66]

Like other institutions, entities responsible for vocational training encounter difficulties for effectively entering rural areas. However, there are positive examples based on the decentralization of training programmes: the Technical-Professional Training Institute of the Dominican Republic (INFOTEP) develops training programmes in banana cultivation; the National Learning Institute of Costa Rica (INA) trains rural producers affected by climate change; and the Technical Institute of Training and Productivity of Guatemala (INTECAP) has established a centre to respond to agribusiness demand in the production of for sugarcane. Additionally, the National Vocational Training Institute (INFOP) and the Advisory Centre for Human Resource Development of Honduras (CADERH) have developed technical training programmes in African palm cultivation. Institutions such as the National Professional Promotion Service of Paraguay (SNPP) has several training centres in the country's interior, which serve remote rural areas.

There are also specialized training institutes in rural areas, such as the National Rural Learning Service of Brazil (SENAR), which has a

65 This section incorporates information from ILO/CINTERFOR (2016).

66 There are examples of good economic development practices led by indigenous communities through cooperatives associated with value chains (ILO/COOP, 2016).

series of programmes to improve productivity and living conditions of rural workers. The National Agricultural Society of Chile (SNA Educa) business association has a network of centres located in rural municipalities that offers quality technical training.

These institutions fund specialized services through a contribution of all formal wage workers on the payroll of the firms. In the case of SENAR, this contribution is calculated based on agricultural production and sales.

Vocational training can also contribute to incorporating rural firms in supply chains. The National Institute for Skills Development of the Rural Sector of Mexico (INCA Rural) implements a skills accreditation and labour skill certification programme for agricultural day labourers. Several programmes of the National Learning Service of Colombia (SENA) and the SENAR of Brazil are designed around value chains in areas such as dairy products, coffee, sugarcane, meats, wool, satellite farming, aquaculture and the raising and marketing of small animals. These programmes promote skills training, on-the-job training and evaluation for certification.

Vocational training that promotes the integration of women and men in non-traditional fields can contribute to increasing the percentage of women who enter the rural labour market, avoiding segmentation by sex. The INA of Costa Rica has a gender equality policy to this end, which can contribute to eliminating gender stereotypes in vocational training and opening doors for the increased participation of women in rural employment. Moreover, virtual courses that bring vocational training to the communities are a solution for remote areas and especially benefit women, who have more limited mobility due to safety and time constraints.[67]

Other training programmes focus on rural entrepreneurship. The SENA Emprende Rural in Colombia has a programme, "*Emprendiendo en el campo*" that offers training and coaching in self-consumption and biocultural enterprises, with an agribusiness focus. The programme targets low-income individuals ages 15 to 28 in levels 1 through 3 of the Social Benefits Information System (SISBEN), including small- and medium-scale farmers. Training focuses on the premises of relevance, quality, opportunity, rural productivity and income generation. Along these lines, "Successful Rural Business," a programme of the SENAR in Brazil implemented jointly with the Brazilian Service to Support Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises (SEBRAE), trains entrepreneurs

67 ILO (2014c).

in management and administration of small rural firms through on-site and online courses.

These experiences provide several policy lessons for improving vocational training in the rural sector. These policies should focus on: a) increasing availability and accessibility of vocational training programmes to attract youth, promoting their participation in non-traditional fields to discourage gender segregation; b) developing programmes near the communities linked with rural funds or initiatives normally led by ministries of agriculture or production, which take into account the distances in these areas; c) increasing the development of rural entrepreneurship, in coordination with public policies and agencies that provide funds and financing for productive projects; d) identifying demand based on approaches such as value chains; and e) better aligning and linking vocational training and education with policies for productive development from the territorial and clusters approach that several countries are promoting.

4.2 Labour market and social protection policies

A second group of interventions to promote more inclusive growth with more and better jobs in rural areas is associated with labour market and social protection policies, such as increased social security coverage, universal written employment contracts, minimum wage compliance, strengthening of labour inspection and strengthening of organizations of employers and workers. These policies are discussed below.

a. Expanding social security coverage in rural areas

Despite the advances observed over the past decade, a key decent work deficit in rural areas is the low social security coverage, in terms of both health care and retirement pensions. To increase coverage rates among the different groups of rural workers requires policies associated with contributory and non-contributory programmes, as well as policies to improve employers' compliance with the labour rights of wage workers (see Sub-section 4.2.d).

There are recent examples of policies in this area in countries of the region. In the case of contributory programmes, the Peasant Social Security (SSC) of Ecuador extends social security protection to agricultural workers and small-scale fishermen. The SSC operates as a special programme of the Ecuadorian Social Security Institute and is subsidized by the government and contributors to the regular

social security programme.[68] In the case of Brazil, the *Regime de segurado especial* (Rural Pension) has extended social security coverage to own-account workers in rural areas (small-scale agricultural workers and fishermen, miners and indigenous peoples). While wage workers in the agricultural sector contribute a lower percentage of their salaries to social security, contributions of own-account workers to this programme are calculated as a percentage of the gross commercial value of their production. This is a government-subsidized system to complement income from contributions.[69] In Costa Rica, the Collective Agreements for Insurance Coverage have extended social security coverage to peasant organizations (and other types of rural and urban producers' associations). Financing of the insurance is based on estimated income, previously established and negotiated. Through this programme, the insured and their families receive the same benefits as other types of workers covered by social security.

With respect to non-contributory policies, the high level of coverage achieved in Peru is due to the Comprehensive Health Insurance (SIS) system, which targets the poor and extremely poor population and reaches rural areas of the country. In the Dominican Republic, increased coverage is also due to non-contributory programmes, especially through the Ministry of Health's Public Health Service.[70] The introduction of these non-contributory programmes has helped cover previously unprotected groups, although they require constant supervision to ensure that health services are of good quality.

b. Universalizing written employment contracts in rural areas

Beyond the legality of verbal contracts in some countries of the region, the universalization of written employment contracts for permanent and wage workers in all economic sectors can favour the transition to the formal economy. Additionally, this type of contract is generally required to access unemployment insurance or severance pay.

Policies to increase coverage of written employment contracts include legal reforms in countries in which rural wage workers were not fully recognized as dependent workers, as well as those designed to improve labour inspection mechanisms.

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68 In June 2016, the programme covered nearly 1.2 million people, equivalent to 8% of the total population.

69 In 2013, the programme covered approximately 6.2 million. The system provides retirement pensions after age 60 for men and 55 for women, in an amount equal to the national minimum wage.

70 ECLAC and ILO (2016).

Legal reforms in recent years have focused on strengthening protection of agricultural workers. For example, in Argentina, Law 25.191 of 1999 made it mandatory to use the Agricultural Worker Record, which provides written proof of the labour relationship and thus eliminates ambiguities. More recently, Law 26.727 of 2011 improved working conditions, including, a) minimum wages set by the National Agricultural Employment Council and which could not be below the adjustable minimum living wage; b) workdays of no more than eight hours and 44 hours weekly, from Monday to Saturday (until 1pm); and, c) recognition of overtime hours. In 2014, the Colombian congress drafted Legal Bill 19, which attempts to regulate labour activity, with an emphasis on holiday time of agricultural workers in Colombia, as well as other provisions.

Regarding inspection mechanisms, Argentina, for example, in the framework of the Comprehensive Plan to Eliminate Non-Registered Employment, adopted the Rural Worker Statute (Law Nº 26.727 of the Agricultural Employment Scheme) and strengthened agricultural inspections using a specific record of rural workers. Since 2013, 1,780 rural establishments with 11,700 employers and 154,000 workers have been inspected (see also Section 4.2.d.).

In Chile, labour inspections attempted to improve the levels of compliance with labour, pension and occupational safety and health regulations for seasonal agricultural work through the "National Seasonal Agricultural Work Programme." This programme grants firms between five and seven days to rectify the labour violations identified. During the 2015 and 2016 seasons, 1,835 firms were inspected and 495 contract violations were identified. Of these, 462 were corrected and 32 were penalized.[71]

One obstacle that implementing this policy may face is the low educational level of many rural workers, some of whom are illiterate. In addition to educational policies in rural areas, the strengthening of union organizations can contribute to increasing the use of written contracts in rural areas. This, in turn, will contribute to defending the rights of workers and to increasing workers' awareness of their responsibilities.

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71 Labour Directorate, Government of Chile (2016).

in rural areas. This, in turn, will contribute to defending the rights of workers and to increasing workers' awareness of their responsibilities.

c. Defining and guaranteeing compliance with the minimum wage

From the beginning, the goal of the minimum wage was to establish an effective, dignified wage floor for less skilled workers.[72] Practically all countries of the region use this social and economic policy instrument. A well-designed minimum wage policy helps prevent wage workers from falling below the poverty line, particularly in high productivity agricultural sectors, such as those for agricultural export.[73]

Minimum wage policies vary significantly among countries. Although most Latin American and Caribbean countries have the same minimum wage for rural and urban areas, in some, minimum wages for the agricultural sector are lower than for other sectors. Marinakis (2014a) concluded that this strategy does not automatically imply increased compliance since other factors also have an impact, such as the amounts of fines and the effectiveness of inspection systems.

Fines levied for minimum wage violations vary among the countries. In some cases, they are so low that it makes more economic sense for the firm to pay the fines than to offer decent wages.[74] There are indications that this practice is quite widespread in the region, although accurate information is difficult to obtain given the lack of specific studies on the issue. To improve job quality, the best strategy is to establish rates of fines that have an economic impact on firms.

d. Strengthening labour inspection in rural areas

Rural areas have a limited capacity for control and actions of labour inspections compared with urban areas in all countries of the region. Labour inspections in rural areas are practically non-existent in some cases because of the dearth of inspectors, long distances, shortage of vehicles and/or lack of resources to reach more remote areas.

For example, in Peru in 2009, no labour inspections were conducted in eight of the 25 regions of the country. In Uruguay, 90% of inspectors are concentrated in Montevideo, traveling to the country's interior

72 Marinakis and Bueno (2014).
73 ILO and FAO (2013b).
74 ILO (2008b).

only when special campaigns or operations are organized.[75] Although Costa Rica has inspectors distributed in regional offices, they cannot fully perform their jobs due to a lack of resources.[76] In Honduras, several regional offices have just one or two inspectors, and some have none.[77]

While it is true that labour inspections are more expensive in rural areas, a potential solution is the mobile units that directly carry out the inspections rather than requiring workers to go to government offices (which are generally located in urban areas). This practice was employed with good results in Brazil through the Special Mobile Inspection Group, initially created to identify forced labour, but which currently also covers the maritime and rural sectors.[78] Labour inspections in Chile have developed specific initiatives, such as the National Agricultural Season Programme and the National Forestry Programme, which in 2014 carried out 569 inspections involving 21,124 workers.

Uruguay's Ministry of Labour and Social Security (MTSS) created the Rural Employment Unit in 2012, whose main task was to raise public awareness about the need to recognize equal rights for rural and urban workers. A widely distributed Handbook on Rights was also developed.[79]

e. Promoting organizations of workers and employers

Like in urban areas, in rural areas, the strengthening of social dialogue and workers' and employers' organizations would contribute to improving labour income and job quality. Both types of organizations should work to attract more members and thus to increase their representativeness.

The level of minimum wage compliance serves as a good example to demonstrate the potential effects of promoting these organizations. Stronger unions have more bargaining power with firms to persuade them to comply with their legal obligations. Additionally, they can take advantage of labour inspections to report cases of non-compliance. With respect to employers, it is not in the interest of those who comply with labour law to have other firms that do not since this represents

75 In Uruguay, of the total 9,630 labour inspections carried out in 2014 for environmental conditions in the workplace, just 86 were conducted in rural areas (Office of the President, 2015).
76 Marinakis (2014a).
77 ILO (2012b).
78 General Labour Inspection records, Brazil.
79 Romero (2015).

unfair competition by reducing their costs. Through their organizations, these firms can demand that all members comply with labour law.

Unions have contributed to improving job quality in coffee production in northeastern Brazil and lemon production in Argentina[80].

It appears that in some countries, a new model has developed for labour relations between employers and workers of the rural sector.[81] In Brazil, Chile and Uruguay, dialogue channels or "roundtables" of workers and employers were established, in some cases resulting from government polices (Brazil) and in others without government intervention (Chile). These roundtables are voluntary, and therefore not regulated by law (except in Uruguay with respect to the setting of minimum wages for the sector), for which reason compliance with agreements with all firms of the sector needs to be assessed (for example, fruit production in Chile and sugarcane production in Brazil). Another key aspect that requires evaluation is the extent to which the social actors participating in these processes are representative of the firms and of workers.

In summary, organizations of employers, small-scale farmers and workers should be strengthened to enable collective bargaining and marketing processes. This will make it possible to improve job quality since these organizations promote wage workers' increased labour income and better working conditions in keeping with the competitiveness and profitability of the firms. Farmer organizations allow farmers to obtain better prices for their products by collectively negotiating in markets.

4.3 Design and implementation of public policies for rural areas

To define and implement measures to improve conditions of rural employment and workers require a political decision given that additional resources are needed to make the necessary investments and to ensure that government institutions are capable of complying with their mandates. This implies allocating resources to ministries and other public entities responsible for designing rural development programmes, improving job quality and fighting poverty in rural areas. Effective administrative decentralization is also needed to extend the supply of quality public services to rural areas. This section discusses

80 Selwyn (2015); Ortiz (2015).
81 FAO, ECLAC and ILO (2012a).

the importance of designing policies tailored to the rural sector and of organizing inter-institutional coordination for their implementation.

a. Reducing the urban bias of public policies

A key issue that arises when defining rural interventions is that public policies have an urban bias. Labour policies are no exception.

An initial problem associated with this bias is that the rural reality is analyzed with urban parameters. A clear example of this is labour law, which in many countries does not recognize the unique features of rural employment, especially of the agricultural sector (such as seasonality). This sector employs large numbers of temporary workers, who in many countries are not covered by labour and social security laws.

When government actions are defined in a context of limited resources, rural areas are often not prioritized, partly because it is easier and less costly to implement actions in urban areas, where the population is more concentrated. Additionally, urban groups have more power in protecting their interests and a larger share of the electorate resides in cities. In many countries, public investment projects are selected by economic criteria that do not favour rural areas with smaller, more diverse populations.

b. Strengthening coordination and linkages among the different ministries

Several countries of the region have developed public policies to promote productive development in rural areas. These are generally implemented through ministries of agriculture or industry. In most cases, however, these policies have not considered the labour aspects of productive development. The same thing occurs with social and compensatory policies implemented by social development ministries, including those that have target populations of indigenous and Afro-descendant populations. For their part, ministries of labour of the region have little influence in rural areas, which leads to "blind spots," or a schism between productive development and labour policies.

The relative absence of labour considerations in productive development policies also often results from the fact that agendas to eliminate rural poverty do not consider labour policies as part of the solution.[82]

82 Oya and Pontara (2015).

The success of productive development policies in rural areas depends on coordination among the diverse ministries and public institutions. A recent attempt to this end was the Mission to Transform Rural Areas (MTC) of Colombia, created in February 2014 and completed in 2015. This government initiative defined public policy guidelines for rural and agricultural development with a view to proposing socioeconomic alternatives to close the growing rural-urban gap of the past 25 years (see Box 2).

Box 2. The Mission to Transform Rural Areas (MTC) in Colombia

The MTC was implemented by a technical team and an executive board made up of representatives of several government agencies, representatives of the private sector and rural communities, as well as local and international experts who conducted studies and offered recommendations.

Following a situational assessment of Colombia's rural areas, the MTC defined six strategies for action: 1) social rights for social inclusion; 2) productive inclusion and family farming; 3) competitive rural areas; 4) environmental sustainability; 5) land organization and development; and 6) institutional reform.

Implementing this proposal also required an institutional arrangement with intersectoral components, as well the strengthening of sector organization and the creation of national-local linkage mechanisms. The estimated cost of the proposal would imply increasing rural investment in Colombia from 0.5% to 1.2% of GDP. The proposal has a participatory territorial focus that recognizes the diversity of rural areas and rural inhabitants as implementers and actors of their own development. Rural development is considered a comprehensive process for the social and productive inclusion of all rural inhabitants. Additionally, rural development should be competitive and environmentally sustainable, based on the adequate provision of public goods that facilitate agricultural and non-agricultural activities.

Specific recommendations of the MTC included:

- Strengthening of family farming through public investment in productive assets, capacity-building and the promotion of associations of producers, as well as access to credit and land of sufficient quantity and quality;
- Investment in public goods and services such as science, technology and innovation through outsourcing, irrigation infrastructure, agricultural health and information, among others;

(continues...)

- Concerning the environment, zero deforestation plans by 2030 and increased water rates to promote its rational use;
- Concerning environmental, social and productive organization of rural lands, the development of a land titling programme, as well as the creation of a Land Fund for redistributive ends to reduce land concentration and benefit family farming; and
- A major restructuring of rural institutions and policy.

Source: DNP (2015).

It is not usually possible to design and develop a rural employment policy to fight poverty with regular budget funds of the different ministries. Some programmes can be fiscally neutral (or even positive), however. For example, when firms are formalized, they begin to pay taxes, thus contributing to fiscal revenue that can be used to implement additional poverty-fighting actions. [83]

83 ILO (2016c).

V. Conclusions

In recent decades, rural areas have experienced profound changes that have altered their characteristics and their relationship with urban areas. The rural population has been shrinking in relative and absolute terms and has a smaller percentage of young people compared with urban areas. Furthermore, the productivity gap between urban and rural areas has narrowed, although it is still far from closing.

Poverty rates have also fallen. This is associated with improvements in rural employment and some economic diversification that resulted in a higher percentage of non-agricultural employment. Rural non-agricultural jobs have opened an important door for the increased participation of rural women in the labour market, in higher-paying occupations. The growing number of employed individuals per household also explains the decline in rural poverty rates.

Despite this progress, rural employment, both agricultural and non-agricultural, continues to be precarious. Comparing rural and urban areas reveals a lower percentage of wage workers, a higher percentage of contributing (unpaid) family workers, a smaller proportion of medium-sized and large firms, lower percentages of social security coverage, greater non-compliance with the minimum wage, the virtual absence of written employment contracts and a lower rate of unionization.

Agriculture's seasonal nature has generated a contingent of temporary workers who migrate during periods of high demand for labour to urban areas or other countries. These temporary jobs result from poverty and are frequently of low quality and involve child labour. Consequently, poverty is transmitted from one generation to the next. Indigenous and Afro-descendant populations in rural areas are especially vulnerable to exclusion in many countries of the region.

The analysis of some labour market institutions has demonstrated that they do not always fulfill the purpose for which they were created. As they do not fully function, they are partly responsible for the low-quality, low-wage jobs that exist in rural areas, particularly in the agricultural sector. This inadequate functioning is the result of weaknesses in the design and application of government policies to improve the situation of rural workers. It also reflects the behaviour of firms and workers, who, because they have no representative organizations, tend to have fragmented labour relations.

Nevertheless, over the past decade, some countries have implemented innovative policies in productive development, skills-building, the labour market and social protection in rural areas. Countries have also

made strides in improving public policy implementation in rural areas, such as conducting more effective labour inspections and establishing new institutional mechanisms to increase social security coverage and compliance with labour law.

These experiences can help the countries of the region continue in their efforts to diversify rural economies, increase productivity, strengthen social dialogue and create jobs that meet decent work criteria.

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Global Findex - World Bank database
www.worldbank.org/globalfindex

Sociometro-IDB - Database of social indicators of the Inter-American Development Bank
http://www.iadb.org/Research/SociometroBID/aboutUs.cfm?lang=es

SIMS - Information System on Labour Markets and Social Security of the Inter-American Development Bank
http://www.iadb.org/es/bases-de-datos/sims/inicio,20137.html

VII. Statistical annex

Table A1. Latin America: employment by country, geographic area and economic activity, 2014 (percentages)

	National				Urban				Rural			
	Primary agricultural	Primary non-agricultural	Secondary	Tertiary	Primary agricultural	Primary non-agricultural	Secondary	Tertiary	Primary agricultural	Primary non-agricultural	Secondary	Tertiary
Latin America (14 countries)	**16.1**	**0.7**	**21.2**	**62.0**	**5.2**	**0.6**	**23.2**	**70.9**	**58.3**	**0.9**	**13.4**	**27.4**
Argentina [1/]	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	0.6	0.4	23.7	75.3	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Bolivia (Pluri. State of) [2/]	33.9	1.9	17.7	46.5	4.90	1.68	24.9	68.5	79.0	2.2	6.6	12.2
Brazil [3/]	14.6	0.4	21.9	63.2	5.20	0.41	23.8	70.6	64.8	0.4	11.4	23.4
Chile [4/]	9.4	3.0	20.5	67.1	4.01	2.98	21.2	71.8	44.8	3.1	15.7	36.3
Colombia [5/]	15.6	1.1	18.8	64.5	3.60	0.71	21.1	74.6	59.0	2.5	10.7	27.8
Costa Rica [6/]	11.2	n.d.	17.7	71.2	3.96	n.d.	18.4	77.6	33.2	n.d.	15.4	51.3
Dominican Republic [15/]	14.5	0.2	17.2	68.1	5.13	0.19	18.4	76.3	34.2	0.2	14.6	51.0
Ecuador [7/]	24.4	0.8	19.3	55.4	8.19	0.77	20.8	70.3	57.7	0.8	16.4	25.2
El Salvador [8/]	18.8	0.1	20.9	60.3	6.14	0.04	22.9	70.9	43.8	0.1	16.9	39.1
Guatemala [9/]	31.9	0.1	19.3	48.7	10.71	0.19	24.9	64.2	56.6	0.1	12.7	30.6
Honduras [10/]	30.0	0.3	21.2	48.4	7.92	0.23	26.0	65.9	54.5	0.5	15.9	29.1
Mexico 11/	13.7	0.5	24.0	61.8	4.91	0.43	25.3	69.4	47.5	0.6	19.2	32.6
Panama [12/]	15.7	0.2	19.9	64.2	2.22	0.17	21.3	76.3	46.8	0.3	16.5	36.4
Paraguay 13/	22.8	n.d.	18.9	58.2	2.83	n.d.	21.9	75.3	53.0	n.d.	14.4	32.5
Peru [14/]	24.9	1.2	16.3	57.6	8.99	1.21	19.1	70.7	73.0	1.3	7.7	18.0
Uruguay [16/]	9.2	0.2	20.5	70.2	3.76	0.14	21.2	74.9	38.7	0.4	16.4	44.5

(continues...)

Source: SIALC-ILO estimates based on household surveys.

Notes:
Workers of unclassifiable economic sectors were excluded given that they represent less than 1% of workers.
1/ Continuous Permanent Household Survey (EPH Continua). The survey only has urban coverage measured through 31 urban clusters. The EAP corresponds to individuals ages 14 and over.
2/ Household Survey (EH). November - December of each year. The EAP corresponds to individuals age 10 and over. Preliminary data for 2014.
3/ National Household Survey (PNAD). September
4/New National Employment Survey (NENE).
5/ Large Comprehensive Continuous Household Survey (GEIH). Data from 2nd quarter of each year. Urban data correspond to municipal capitals.
6/ Continuous Employment Survey (ECE).
7/ Employment, Unemployment and Underemployment Survey (ENEMDU). Data from 4th quarter each year. The EAP corresponds to ages 15 and older.
8/ Multipurpose Household Survey (EHPM). The 2014 EAP corresponds to ages 16 and over.
9/ National Employment and Income Survey (ENEI). April-May.
10/ Ongoing Multipurpose Survey (EPHPM). May.
11/ National Occupation and Employment Survey (ENOE). Annual average. Urban area corresponds to the most urbanized areas. The EAP corresponds to ages 15 and over.
12/ Labour Market Survey (EML). August.
13/ Ongoing Household Survey (EPH).
14/ National Household Survey (ENAHO).
15/ National Labour Force Survey (ENFT). Annual average.
16/ Ongoing Household Survey. Urban: Montevideo and communities with more than 5,000 inhabitants. Rural: rural communities with fewer than 5,000 inhabitants.

Table A2. Latin America: individuals who report having a business, by employment status, size, country and geographic area, 2014 (percentages)

		Employers and own-account workers			Employers only		
		Total	Own-account workers	Employers	Microenterprise	Small enterprise	Medium-sized and large enterprise
Latin America (14 countries)	**National**	**32.3**	**28.3**	**4.1**	**89.7**	**9.9**	**0.4**
	Urban	**28.9**	**24.5**	**4.4**	**88.5**	**11.0**	**0.5**
	Rural	**45.7**	**42.7**	**3.0**	**96.1**	**3.6**	**0.3**
Argentina [1/]	National	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	Urban	26.1	22.3	3.8	89.5	8.1	2.3
	Rural	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Bolivia (Pluri. State of) [2/]	National	42.2	34.9	7.2	94.7	4.9	0.4
	Urban	41.5	34.2	7.3	94.2	5.1	0.6
	Rural	43.3	36.1	7.2	95.3	4.7	n.d.
Brazil [3/]	National	29.6	25.9	3.7	83.9	16.1	n.d.
	Urban	25.8	21.6	4.2	83.1	16.9	n.d.
	Rural	50.1	48.5	1.6	94.1	5.9	n.d.
Chile [4/]	National	24.5	20.3	4.2	86.5	11.5	2.1
	Urban	23.3	19.2	4.1	86.7	11.3	2.0
	Rural	32.9	28.1	4.8	85.1	12.3	2.6
Colombia [5/]	National	47.3	43.0	4.3	93.4	5.6	0.9
	Urban	44.9	40.4	4.6	92.2	6.8	1.0
	Rural	56.0	52.5	3.5	99.1	0.3	0.6

(continues...)

		Employers and own-account workers			Employers only		
		Total	Own-account workers	Employers	Microenterprise	Small enterprise	Medium-sized and large enterprise
Costa Rica [6/]	National	22.2	18.8	3.4	85.7	13.9	0.5
	Urban	21.5	18.1	3.4	83.3	16.2	0.5
	Rural	24.3	20.9	3.4	92.9	6.8	0.4
Dominican Republic [15/]	National	45.1	41.6	3.5	94.8	5.1	0.1
	Urban	39.8	35.9	3.9	94.7	5.3	n.d.
	Rural	56.3	53.5	2.7	94.9	4.8	0.3
Ecuador [7/]	National	34.6	31.3	3.3	94.7	4.2	1.1
	Urban	33.9	30.3	3.6	93.4	5.6	1.0
	Rural	36.0	33.3	2.7	98.1	0.5	1.4
El Salvador [8/]	National	32.2	28.0	4.1	97.5	2.5	n.d.
	Urban	29.8	25.6	4.3	96.8	3.2	n.d.
	Rural	36.8	33.0	3.9	98.9	1.1	n.d.
Guatemala [9/]	National	32.8	29.6	3.1	98.5	1.2	0.3
	Urban	29.5	25.7	3.8	98.5	1.1	0.4
	Rural	36.5	34.2	2.3	98.6	1.4	n.d.
Honduras [10/]	National	41.4	38.1	3.3	97.3	1.9	0.8
	Urban	36.3	31.9	4.5	96.7	2.1	1.2
	Rural	47.0	44.9	2.1	98.8	1.2	n.d.
Mexico [11/]	National	27.5	23.1	4.3	94.1	5.2	0.6
	Urban	24.8	20.3	4.4	93.4	5.9	0.7
	Rural	37.7	33.9	3.8	97.3	2.4	0.3

(continues...)

		Employers and own-account workers			Employers only		
		Total	Own-account workers	Employers	Microenterprise	Small enterprise	Medium-sized and large enterprise
Panama [12/]	National	28.1	25.3	2.8	87.7	10.2	2.1
	Urban	22.5	19.3	3.2	85.4	12.2	2.4
	Rural	41.2	39.2	2.0	95.7	3.1	1.1
Paraguay [13/]	National	38.6	32.1	6.5	95.7	3.3	1.0
	Urban	30.6	23.3	7.3	93.6	4.9	1.4
	Rural	50.4	45.2	5.2	100.0	n.d.	n.d.
Peru [14/]	National	39.6	35.2	4.4	95.3	4.5	0.2
	Urban	36.9	32.1	4.8	95.5	4.3	0.2
	Rural	47.9	44.4	3.5	94.4	5.6	n.d.
Uruguay [16/]	National	25.8	21.4	4.4	84.9	12.5	2.6
	Urban	24.5	20.3	4.2	82.5	14.4	3.1
	Rural	33.2	27.6	5.6	95.0	4.5	0.4

Source: SIALC-ILO estimates based on household surveys.

Notes: See notes of TABLE A1 of the Statistical Annex. 3/ Enterprise size: 1-10 workers (Microenterprise), 11-50 (Small) and 51 or more workers (Medium and Large). Workers of unknown status in employment were excluded given that they represent less than 1% of workers.

Table A3. Latin America: employment by geographic area, educational level and country, 2014

	National				Urban				Rural			
	No education	1-6 years	7-12 years	13 or more years	No education	1-6 years	7-12 years	13 or more years	No education	1-6 years	7-12 years	13 or more years
LATIN AMERICA (14 countries)	**5.3**	**25.2**	**49.0**	**20.4**	**3.4**	**19.9**	**52.4**	**24.3**	**12.6**	**45.7**	**36.1**	**5.6**
Argentina [1/]	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	0.3	3.6	60.9	35.2	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Bolivia (Pluri. State of) [2/]	6.4	35.4	41.2	17.1	2.2	25.7	45.9	26.3	12.9	50.5	33.8	2.8
Brazil [3/]	6.6	23.3	52.2	17.9	4.6	19.4	55.5	20.5	17.4	44.0	34.6	4.0
Chile [4/]	0.9	9.8	54.2	35.0	0.7	7.7	53.6	38.0	2.5	23.7	58.5	15.3
Colombia [5/]	4.6	29.6	42.0	23.8	2.6	22.8	45.7	28.9	11.9	54.1	29.0	5.0
Costa Rica [6/]	1.7	33.2	40.6	24.5	1.1	26.9	43.5	28.5	3.7	52.3	31.8	12.2
Dominican Republic [15/]	6.2	22.9	50.0	20.9	3.7	17.7	51.9	26.7	11.6	33.9	46.0	8.6
Ecuador [7/]	3.3	35.3	37.0	24.4	1.7	27.1	40.7	30.5	6.5	52.0	29.5	12.0
El Salvador [8/]	9.9	31.2	44.9	14.1	6.5	24.9	49.3	19.4	16.7	43.8	36.1	3.5
Guatemala [9/]	17.2	42.6	31.3	8.8	9.6	32.8	42.2	15.4	26.0	54.2	18.7	1.1
Honduras [10/]	10.1	51.1	29.7	9.1	5.6	39.4	39.3	15.6	15.0	64.1	19.1	1.8
Mexico [11/]	4.2	25.2	50.9	19.7	2.7	20.8	53.1	23.4	10.1	41.8	42.5	5.7
Panama [12/]	3.6	22.7	45.3	28.4	0.6	12.9	49.8	36.6	10.5	45.2	34.9	9.5
Paraguay [13/]	1.9	36.1	39.9	22.1	0.7	23.0	44.7	31.5	3.7	55.8	32.8	7.8
Peru [14/]	4.3	22.6	46.5	26.6	2.1	15.0	49.5	33.5	11.1	45.4	37.7	5.8
Uruguay [16/]	0.2	21.7	46.4	31.7	0.2	17.8	47.3	34.7	0.5	42.8	41.4	15.3

Source: SIALC-ILO estimates based on household surveys.

Notes: See notes of TABLE A1 of the Statistical Annex.
Workers who did not report years of education were excluded given that they represent less than 1% of workers.

Table A4. Latin America: labour force participation rate, by country and geographic area, 2005, 2007, 2011-2014 (average annual rates)

		2005	2007	2011	2012	2013	2014
Latin America (14 countries)	**National**	**61.4**	**61.4**	**61.0**	**61.2**	**61.1**	**61.6**
	Urban	**60.7**	**61.1**	**61.0**	**61.4**	**61.2**	**61.7**
	Rural	**63.7**	**62.4**	**60.8**	**60.6**	**60.4**	**61.5**
Argentina [1/]	National	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	Urban	60.2	59.8	59.5	59.2	58.9	58.2
	Rural	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Bolivia (Pluri. State of) [2/]	National	62.8	64.8	65.8	61.2	63.4	65.9
	Urban	55.7	57.1	59.7	57.0	58.4	59.4
	Rural	76.9	80.3	79.1	70.1	74.1	80.2
Brazil [3/]	National	62.9	62.0	60.0	59.9	59.7	61.0
	Urban	61.3	61.0	59.6	59.7	59.6	60.7
	Rural	70.6	67.4	62.3	61.2	60.6	62.8
Chile [4/]	National	53.5	54.9	59.8	59.5	59.6	59.8
	Urban	53.8	55.4	60.3	59.9	59.7	60.0
	Rural	51.5	52.2	56.5	57.3	58.4	58.7
Colombia [5/]	National	59.9	58.1	63.1	65.0	64.0	64.0
	Urban	60.8	60.1	64.8	66.5	65.8	65.9
	Rural	57.1	52.2	57.5	60.2	58.2	57.9
Costa Rica [6/]	National	56.8	57.0	59.0	62.8	62.3	62.5
	Urban	58.2	58.5	60.3	64.1	63.0	63.9
	Rural	54.7	54.6	55.4	59.2	60.1	58.6

(continues...)

		2005	2007	2011	2012	2013	2014
Dominican Republic [16/]	National	49.0	49.9	51.0	51.4	51.3	52.3
	Urban	50.4	50.5	51.8	52.6	52.8	53.4
	Rural	45.3	48.3	49.3	49.0	48.3	50.2
Ecuador [7/]	National	69.0	68.1	62.5	61.7	62.1	64.5
	Urban	67.2	66.7	62.5	61.5	61.0	63.0
	Rural	72.9	71.1	62.6	62.0	64.4	67.7
El Salvador [8/]	National	52.4	62.1	62.7	63.2	63.6	62.8
	Urban	54.3	63.6	63.7	64.6	65.1	64.6
	Rural	49.4	59.1	60.9	60.7	61.0	59.4
Guatemala [9/]	National	n.d.	n.d.	61.8	65.4	60.7	61.7
	Urban	n.d.	n.d.	61.0	65.5	61.5	63.3
	Rural	n.d.	n.d.	62.6	65.4	59.8	59.8
Honduras [10/]	National	49.3	50.4	51.9	50.8	53.7	56.0
	Urban	50.3	51.0	52.5	51.2	54.3	55.7
	Rural	48.3	49.7	51.4	50.4	53.1	56.4
Mexico [11/]	National	59.3	60.1	59.8	60.4	60.3	59.8
	Urban	60.4	61.4	61.0	61.6	61.6	60.9
	Rural	55.5	55.4	55.4	56.2	55.7	55.8
Nicaragua [12/]	National	53.8	51.3	75.7	76.8	n.d.	n.d.
	Urban	53.7	50.7	74.2	75.2	n.d.	n.d.
	Rural	53.9	52.0	77.8	79.2	n.d.	n.d.
Panama [13/]	National	63.5	62.7	61.9	63.4	64.1	64.1
	Urban	63.7	62.6	63.2	63.6	64.1	64.4
	Rural	63.1	63.1	58.9	62.9	64.2	63.3
Paraguay [14/]	National	61.8	60.8	60.7	64.3	62.7	61.6
	Urban	60.5	59.6	60.0	63.8	62.1	61.8
	Rural	63.8	62.5	61.7	65.1	63.4	61.3

(continues...)

		2005	2007	2011	2012	2013	2014
Peru [15/]	National	71.1	73.8	73.9	73.6	73.2	72.2
	Urban	67.3	71.0	71.6	71.5	71.2	70.0
	Rural	81.6	82.0	81.6	80.7	80.2	80.3
Uruguay [17/]	National	60.7	62.5	64.8	64.0	63.6	64.7
	Urban	60.8	62.9	65.0	64.0	63.8	64.9
	Rural	60.0	60.4	63.3	64.4	62.8	63.7

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

Notes:
1/ Continuous Permanent Household Survey (EPH Continua). The survey only has urban coverage measured through 31 urban clusters. The EAP corresponds to individuals ages 14 and over.
2/ Household Survey (EH). November-December of each year. The EAP corresponds to individuals age 10 and over. Preliminary data for 2014.
3/ National Household Survey (PNAD).
4/ National Employment Survey (ENE) for 2005-2009 and New National Employment Survey (NENE) beginning in 2010.
5/ Large Comprehensive Continuous Household Survey (GEIH). Data from 2nd quarter of each year. Urban data correspond to municipal capitals. 2005 data are not comparable with those of 2014 due to methodological changes. Includes hidden unemployment.
6/ Multipurpose Household Survey (EHPM) for 2005-2009 (July) and Continuous Employment Survey (ECE) beginning in 2010.
7/ Employment, Unemployment and Underemployment Survey (ENEMDU). Data from 4th quarter of each year. 2005 and 2007 data are not comparable with the rest of the series due to changes in the methodology and in the age of the EAP (from 10 to 15 years). Includes hidden unemployment.
8/ Multipurpose Household Survey (EHPM). The 2005 EAP corresponds to ages 10 and over. Beginning in 2007, the EAP corresponds to ages 16 and over.
9/ National Employment and Income Survey (ENEI). 2010 data correspond to October; 2011 and 2012 data correspond to June-July; and 2013 and 2014 data correspond to April-May.
10/ Permanent Multipurpose Household Survey (EPHPM). 2005 data correspond to September-October and subsequent years to May.
11/ National Occupation and Employment Survey (ENOE). Annual average. Urban area corresponds to the most urbanized areas. The EAP corresponds to ages 15 and over.
12/ Household Survey to Measure Urban-Rural Employment, 2005-2008 and the Continuous Household Survey (ECH) for 2010-2012. Beginning in 2010, the EAP corresponds to ages 14 and over.
13/Household Survey, 2005-2009. Labour Market Survey (EML) beginning in 2010. August. Includes hidden unemployment.
14/ Permanent Household Survey (EPH).
15/National Household Survey (ENAHO).
16/National Labour Force Survey (ENFT). Annual average.
17/ Continuous Household Survey. Urban: Montevideo and communities with more than 5,000 inhabitants. Rural: rural communities of fewer than 5,000 inhabitants. 2005 data correspond to 2006.

Table A5. Latin America: employment-to-population ratio, by country and geographic area, 2005, 2007, 2011-2014 (average annual rates)

		2005	2007	2011	2012	2013	2014
Latin America (14 countries)	**National**	**56.7**	**57.2**	**57.1**	**57.5**	**57.3**	**57.8**
	Urban	**55.3**	**56.3**	**56.7**	**57.2**	**57.1**	**57.4**
	Rural	**61.7**	**60.5**	**58.7**	**58.6**	**58.3**	**59.6**
Argentina [1/]	National	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	Urban	53.3	54.7	55.2	55.0	54.7	54.0
	Rural	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Bolivia (Pluri. State of) [2/]	National	59.4	61.4	64.1	59.8	61.6	64.4
	Urban	51.2	52.7	57.4	55.2	56.1	57.3
	Rural	75.7	79.0	78.6	69.7	73.4	79.9
Brazil [3/]	National	57.0	57.0	56.0	56.2	55.8	56.8
	Urban	54.7	55.4	55.2	55.6	55.3	56.0
	Rural	68.6	65.4	60.7	59.5	58.7	60.9
Chile [4/]	National	49.2	51.0	55.5	55.7	56.0	56.0
	Urban	49.2	51.2	55.8	55.9	56.1	56.0
	Rural	49.4	50.0	53.6	54.7	55.8	56.0
Colombia [5/]	National	52.7	51.6	56.1	58.2	57.9	58.3
	Urban	52.6	52.8	57.1	58.7	58.8	59.3
	Rural	53.1	48.1	52.8	56.3	54.9	54.9
Costa Rica [6/]	National	53.0	54.4	52.9	56.4	56.4	56.5
	Urban	54.2	55.7	54.2	57.7	57.2	57.8
	Rural	51.3	52.3	49.4	52.8	54.2	52.8

(continues...)

		2005	2007	2011	2012	2013	2014
Dominican Republic [16/]	National	45.9	47.4	48.0	48.1	47.7	49.0
	Urban	46.8	47.8	48.3	48.8	48.6	49.5
	Rural	43.5	46.5	47.4	46.6	45.8	47.9
Ecuador [7/]	National	64.4	64.7	59.9	59.1	59.5	62.0
	Urban	62.0	62.6	59.3	58.4	58.1	60.2
	Rural	69.8	69.0	61.0	60.6	62.7	66.2
El Salvador [8/]	National	48.6	58.1	58.6	59.4	59.9	58.4
	Urban	50.3	59.9	59.5	60.6	61.5	60.3
	Rural	45.9	54.7	56.9	57.2	56.9	55.0
Guatemala [9/]	National	n.d.	n.d.	59.2	63.5	58.7	59.9
	Urban	n.d.	n.d.	59.0	62.8	59.1	60.6
	Rural	n.d.	n.d.	59.4	64.3	58.4	59.0
Honduras [10/]	National	47.3	48.8	49.7	48.9	51.6	53.1
	Urban	47.2	49.0	48.9	48.3	51.1	51.5
	Rural	47.3	48.7	50.3	49.5	52.0	54.9
Mexico [11/]	National	57.2	57.9	56.7	57.5	57.3	56.9
	Urban	58.0	58.9	57.5	58.3	58.3	57.6
	Rural	54.4	54.2	53.5	54.5	53.9	54.2
Nicaragua [12/]	National	50.8	48.6	71.7	72.3	n.d.	n.d.
	Urban	58.0	58.9	57.5	58.3	n.d.	n.d.
	Rural	52.1	50.8	75.2	76.5	n.d.	n.d.

(continues...)

		2005	2007	2011	2012	2013	2014
Panama [13/]	National	57.3	58.7	59.1	60.8	61.5	61.0
	Urban	56.0	57.7	59.8	60.6	61.1	60.9
	Rural	59.9	60.9	57.5	61.4	62.4	61.1
Paraguay [14/]	National	58.2	57.4	57.3	61.2	59.5	57.9
	Urban	55.8	55.3	56.2	59.9	58.5	57.3
	Rural	61.6	60.4	59.0	63.2	61.2	58.8
Peru [15/]	National	67.3	70.3	70.9	70.8	70.3	69.6
	Urban	62.3	66.5	67.9	68.1	67.8	66.8
	Rural	81.1	81.4	80.9	80.0	79.2	79.5
Uruguay [17/]	National	54.1	56.7	60.7	59.9	59.5	60.4
	Urban	53.9	56.7	60.7	59.6	59.5	60.4
	Rural	55.6	56.6	60.5	61.6	59.7	60.7

Source: SIALC-ILO estimates based on household surveys.

Notes: See notes of Table A4 of the Statistical Annex.

Table A6. Latin America: unemployment rate, by country and geographic area, 2005, 2007, 2011-2014 (average annual rates)

		2005	2007	2011	2012	2013	2014
Latin America (14 countries)	**National**	**7.7**	**6.8**	**6.4**	**6.0**	**6.1**	**6.2**
	Urban	**9.0**	**7.8**	**7.2**	**6.7**	**6.8**	**6.9**
	Rural	**3.1**	**3.1**	**3.4**	**3.2**	**3.3**	**3.1**
Argentina [1/]	National	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	Urban	11.5	8.5	7.2	7.2	7.1	7.3
	Rural	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Bolivia (Pluri. State of) [2/]	National	5.4	5.2	2.7	2.3	2.8	2.3
	Urban	8.1	7.7	3.8	3.2	4.0	3.5
	Rural	1.6	1.6	0.7	0.7	0.9	0.4
Brazil [3/]	National	9.3	8.2	6.7	6.2	6.5	6.9
	Urban	10.8	9.3	7.5	6.8	7.1	7.6
	Rural	2.9	2.9	2.5	2.9	3.1	3.0
Chile [4/]	National	8.0	7.1	7.1	6.4	5.9	6.4
	Urban	8.6	7.6	7.4	6.7	6.2	6.7
	Rural	4.2	4.1	5.0	4.5	4.4	4.6
Colombia [5/]	National	12.0	11.2	11.1	10.5	9.6	9.0
	Urban	13.5	12.2	11.9	11.7	10.6	10.0
	Rural	7.0	7.7	8.2	6.4	5.7	5.1
Costa Rica [6/]	National	6.6	4.6	10.3	10.2	9.4	9.6
	Urban	6.9	4.8	10.1	10.0	9.2	9.6
	Rural	6.2	4.3	10.9	10.8	9.9	9.8

(continues...)

		2005	2007	2011	2012	2013	2014
Dominican Republic [16/]	National	6.4	5.0	5.8	6.5	7.0	6.4
	Urban	7.3	5.4	6.7	7.2	7.9	7.2
	Rural	4.0	3.9	3.8	4.8	5.2	4.6
Ecuador [7/]	National	6.6	5.0	4.2	4.1	4.2	3.8
	Urban	7.7	6.1	5.1	5.0	4.9	4.5
	Rural	4.3	2.8	2.4	2.3	2.7	2.2
El Salvador [8/]	National	7.2	6.3	6.6	6.1	5.9	7.0
	Urban	7.3	5.8	6.6	6.2	5.6	6.7
	Rural	7.1	7.4	6.6	5.8	6.6	7.5
Guatemala [9/]	National	n.d.	n.d.	4.1	2.9	3.2	2.9
	Urban	n.d.	n.d.	3.1	4.0	3.9	4.2
	Rural	n.d.	n.d.	5.0	1.6	2.4	1.4
Honduras [10/]	National	4.1	3.1	4.3	3.6	3.9	5.3
	Urban	6.1	4.1	6.8	5.6	6.0	7.5
	Rural	2.1	2.1	2.0	1.7	2.0	2.7
Mexico [11/]	National	3.6	3.6	5.2	4.9	4.9	4.8
	Urban	4.0	4.0	5.6	5.4	5.4	5.3
	Rural	1.9	2.0	3.4	3.1	3.3	2.8
Nicaragua [12/]	National	5.6	5.2	5.3	5.9	n.d.	n.d.
	Urban	7.0	7.3	6.6	7.6	n.d.	n.d.
	Rural	3.3	2.4	3.4	3.4	n.d.	n.d.
Panama [13/]	National	9.8	6.4	4.5	4.1	4.1	4.8
	Urban	12.1	7.8	5.4	4.8	4.7	5.4
	Rural	5.1	3.6	2.4	2.4	2.7	3.4

(continues...)

		2005	2007	2011	2012	2013	2014
Paraguay [14/]	National	5.8	5.6	5.6	4.9	5.0	6.0
	Urban	7.6	7.2	6.5	6.1	5.9	7.4
	Rural	3.3	3.4	4.3	3.0	3.6	4.0
Peru [15/]	National	5.4	4.7	4.0	3.7	4.0	3.7
	Urban	7.4	6.3	5.1	4.7	4.8	4.5
	Rural	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.8	1.3	0.9
Uruguay [17/]	National	10.8	9.4	6.3	6.5	6.5	6.6
	Urban	11.3	9.8	6.6	6.7	6.7	6.9
	Rural	7.3	6.4	4.4	4.5	4.9	4.7

Source: SIALC-ILO estimates based on household surveys.

Notes: See notes of Table A4 of the Statistical Annex.

Table A7. Latin America: employment by status in employment, country and geographic area, 2014 (percentages)

		TOTAL	Public-sector wage worker	Private-sector wage worker	Domestic worker	Employer	Own-account worker	CFW	Others
Latin America (14 countries)	**National**	**100.0**	**10.5**	**46.9**	**5.1**	**4.1**	**28.3**	**5.0**	**0.0**
	Urban	**100.0**	**11.9**	**50.8**	**5.5**	**4.4**	**24.5**	**2.8**	**0.0**
	Rural	**100.0**	**5.2**	**31.8**	**3.6**	**3.0**	**42.7**	**13.6**	**0.1**
Argentina [1/]	National	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	Urban	100.0	19.6	45.5	8.1	3.8	22.3	0.7	0.0
	Rural	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Bolivia (Pluri. State of) [2/]	National	100.0	9.1	23.7	1.9	7.2	34.9	22.6	0.5
	Urban	100.0	12.9	33.6	2.9	7.3	34.2	8.7	0.5
	Rural	100.0	3.1	8.2	0.4	7.2	36.1	44.4	0.6
Brazil [3/]	National	100.0	11.9	49.1	6.5	3.7	25.9	2.9	0.0
	Urban	100.0	13.0	52.9	6.9	4.2	21.6	1.5	0.0
	Rural	100.0	6.4	28.6	4.5	1.6	48.5	10.4	0.0
Chile [4/]	National	100.0	10.9	59.1	4.1	4.2	20.3	1.3	0.0
	Urban	100.0	11.7	59.7	4.2	4.1	19.2	1.2	0.0
	Rural	100.0	6.0	54.7	3.9	4.8	28.1	2.4	0.0
Colombia [5/]	National	100.0	4.0	40.6	3.4	4.3	43.0	4.6	0.1
	Urban	100.0	4.8	43.4	3.7	4.6	40.4	3.2	0.1
	Rural	100.0	1.2	30.8	2.3	3.5	52.5	9.6	0.2

(continues...)

		TOTAL	Public-sector wage worker	Private-sector wage worker	Domestic worker	Employer	Own-account worker	CFW	Others
Costa Rica [6/]	National	100.0	14.4	53.4	7.7	3.4	18.8	2.3	0.0
	Urban	100.0	15.5	53.6	7.6	3.4	18.1	1.9	0.0
	Rural	100.0	11.0	53.0	8.0	3.4	20.9	3.7	0.0
Dominican Republic [15/]	National	100.0	13.1	34.4	5.5	3.5	41.6	1.9	0.0
	Urban	100.0	14.7	38.6	5.4	3.9	35.9	1.5	0.0
	Rural	100.0	9.8	25.4	5.9	2.7	53.5	2.7	0.0
Ecuador [7/]	National	100.0	9.5	44.3	3.2	3.3	31.3	8.4	0.0
	Urban	100.0	11.6	45.7	3.8	3.6	30.3	5.0	0.0
	Rural	100.0	5.1	41.4	2.2	2.7	33.3	15.3	0.0
El Salvador [8/]	National	100.0	8.5	47.3	4.7	4.1	28.0	7.4	0.0
	Urban	100.0	10.4	49.7	4.4	4.3	25.6	5.7	0.0
	Rural	100.0	4.7	42.4	5.3	3.9	33.0	10.7	0.0
Guatemala [9/]	National	100.0	6.1	47.4	2.8	3.1	29.6	10.9	0.0
	Urban	100.0	9.0	51.7	3.3	3.8	25.7	6.4	0.0
	Rural	100.0	2.7	42.3	2.3	2.3	34.2	16.1	0.0
Honduras [10/]	National	100.0	6.3	37.3	3.2	3.3	38.1	11.6	0.1
	Urban	100.0	9.6	42.4	3.8	4.5	31.9	7.8	0.1
	Rural	100.0	2.8	31.8	2.5	2.1	44.9	15.8	0.2
Mexico [11/]	National	100.0	11.0	51.1	4.7	4.3	23.1	5.7	0.0
	Urban	100.0	12.4	53.8	4.9	4.4	20.3	4.2	0.0
	Rural	100.0	5.4	41.2	4.3	3.8	33.9	11.4	0.0

(continues...)

		TOTAL	Public-sector wage worker	Private-sector wage worker	Domestic worker	Employer	Own-account worker	CFW	Others
Panama [12/]	National	100.0	15.2	47.5	4.5	2.8	25.3	4.5	0.0
	Urban	100.0	18.1	53.8	5.0	3.2	19.3	0.7	0.0
	Rural	100.0	8.6	33.1	3.6	2.0	39.2	13.4	0.1
Paraguay [13/]	National	100.0	10.1	37.2	7.0	6.5	32.1	7.1	0.0
	Urban	100.0	13.5	44.9	8.5	7.3	23.3	2.5	0.0
	Rural	100.0	5.0	26.0	4.9	5.2	45.2	13.8	0.0
Peru [14/]	National	100.0	9.2	37.8	2.3	4.4	35.2	11.2	0.0
	Urban	100.0	10.9	43.6	2.8	4.8	32.1	5.9	0.0
	Rural	100.0	4.1	20.1	0.7	3.5	44.4	27.2	0.0
Uruguay [16/]	National	100.0	14.9	54.0	4.0	4.4	21.4	1.0	0.3
	Urban	100.0	15.8	54.8	3.9	4.2	20.3	0.7	0.3
	Rural	100.0	9.7	49.8	4.4	5.6	27.6	2.5	0.4

Source: SIALC-ILO estimates based on household surveys.

Notes: See notes of Table A1 of the Statistical Annex.
CFW=Contributing Family Worker.

Table A8. Latin America (14 countries): agricultural and non-agricultural employment in rural employment, by sex, 2014 (percentages)

	Rural Employment				
	Agricultural employment	Non-agricultural employment			
		Total	Mining	Secondary	Tertiary
Latin America (14 countries)	**58.3**	**41.7**	**0.9**	**13.4**	**27.4**
Men	**64.9**	**35.1**	**1.2**	**14.9**	**19.0**
Women	**45.8**	**54.2**	**0.2**	**10.6**	**43.4**
Argentina [1/]	**n.d.**	**n.d.**	**n.d.**	**n.d.**	**n.d.**
Men	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Women	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Bolivia (Pluri. State of) [2/]	**79.0**	**21.0**	**2.2**	**6.6**	**12.2**
Men	77.2	22.8	3.8	9.6	9.5
Women	81.3	18.7	0.2	2.9	15.5
Brazil [3/]	**64.8**	**35.2**	**0.4**	**11.4**	**23.4**
Men	68.6	31.4	0.6	14.1	16.8
Women	58.4	41.6	0.1	7.0	34.6
Chile [4/]	**44.8**	**55.2**	**3.1**	**15.7**	**36.3**
Men	52.7	47.3	4.4	17.7	25.3
Women	28.1	71.9	0.4	11.4	60.1
Colombia [5/]	**59.0**	**41.0**	**2.5**	**10.7**	**27.8**
Men	71.1	28.9	3.1	9.2	16.7
Women	31.3	68.7	1.3	14.1	53.3

(continues...)

	Rural Employment				
	Agricultural employment	Non-agricultural employment			
		Total	Mining	Secondary	Tertiary
Costa Rica [6/]	**33.2**	**66.8**	**n.d.**	**15.4**	**51.3**
Men	41.6	58.4	n.d.	18.9	39.5
Women	13.9	86.1	n.d.	7.5	78.6
Dominican Republic [15/]	**34.2**	**65.8**	**0.2**	**14.6**	**51.0**
Men	44.8	55.2	0.3	17.3	37.6
Women	6.6	93.4	0.0	7.7	85.6
Ecuador [7/]	**57.7**	**42.3**	**0.8**	**16.4**	**25.2**
Men	58.9	41.1	1.2	19.6	20.3
Women	55.7	44.3	0.1	11.0	33.1
El Salvador [8/]	**43.8**	**56.2**	**0.1**	**16.9**	**39.1**
Men	59.3	40.7	0.2	16.4	24.1
Women	11.8	88.2	0.0	17.9	70.2
Guatemala [9/]	**56.6**	**43.4**	**0.1**	**12.7**	**30.6**
Men	69.8	30.2	0.1	11.6	18.5
Women	24.2	75.8	0.0	15.5	60.3
Honduras [10/]	**54.5**	**45.5**	**0.5**	**15.9**	**29.1**
Men	69.1	30.9	0.5	12.4	18.0
Women	22.0	78.0	0.3	23.7	54.1
Mexico [11/]	**47.5**	**52.5**	**0.6**	**19.2**	**32.6**
Men	59.7	40.3	0.8	19.2	20.3
Women	17.5	82.5	0.1	19.3	63.1

(continues...)

	Rural Employment				
	Agricultural employment	Non-agricultural employment			
		Total	Mining	Secondary	Tertiary
Panama [12/]	**46.8**	**53.2**	**0.3**	**16.5**	**36.4**
Men	54.0	46.0	0.3	17.7	28.0
Women	32.1	67.9	0.3	14.0	53.6
Paraguay [13/]	**53.0**	**47.0**	**n.d.**	**14.4**	**32.5**
Men	57.3	42.7	n.d.	18.9	23.8
Women	44.7	55.3	n.d.	5.8	49.4
Peru [14/]	**73.0**	**27.0**	**1.3**	**7.7**	**18.0**
Men	75.2	24.8	2.1	9.0	13.6
Women	69.8	30.2	0.1	5.9	24.2
Uruguay [16/]	**38.7**	**61.3**	**0.4**	**16.4**	**44.5**
Men	48.6	51.4	0.6	20.9	29.9
Women	22.5	77.5	0.1	9.1	68.2

Source: SIALC-ILO estimates based on household surveys.

Notes: See notes of Table A1 of the Statistical Annex.
Workers in unclassifiable economic sectors were excluded given that they represent less than 1% of workers.

Table A9. Latin America: employment by working conditions, country and geographic area, 2014 (percentages)

		Employed			Wage workers	
		Time-related underemployment	Healthcare coverage	Pension system coverage	Unionized	With written employment contract
Latin America	**National**	**5.4**	**57.8**	**50.2**	**15.7**	**48.0**
	Urban	**5.2**	**62.7**	**56.3**	**16.4**	**51.1**
	Rural	**6.3**	**38.4**	**26.5**	**10.5**	**27.0**
Argentina [1/]	National	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	Urban	9.7	73.2	50.8	n.d.	64.5
	Rural	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Bolivia (Pluri. State of) [2/]	National	3.3	18.9	20.5	14.8	23.0
	Urban	3.9	27.4	29.7	14.0	24.9
	Rural	2.4	5.6	6.2	20.0	10.4
Brazil [3/]	National	3.5	61.6	66.9	17.3	54.8
	Urban	3.5	67.4	71.2	17.6	56.6
	Rural	3.5	30.8	44.1	14.3	37.0
Chile [4/]	National	8.4	60.1	59.8	n.d.	67.6
	Urban	8.0	61.9	61.6	n.d.	67.9
	Rural	11.2	48.2	48.0	n.d.	65.2
Colombia [5/]	National	9.7	91.4	29.9	5.7	53.2
	Urban	10.3	91.5	35.0	5.9	57.9
	Rural	7.6	91.1	11.5	4.8	27.5
Costa Rica [6/]	National	12.8	81.1	53.2	n.d.	n.d.
	Urban	11.9	82.1	56.7	n.d.	n.d.
	Rural	7.6	77.9	42.2	n.d.	n.d.

(continues...)

		Employed			Wage workers	
		Time-related underemployment	Healthcare coverage	Pension system coverage	Unionized	With written employment contract
Dominican Republic [15/]	National	16.4	67.3	34.0	9.9	32.4
	Urban	14.9	70.2	39.4	9.9	34.4
	Rural	19.4	61.3	22.7	9.9	26.3
Ecuador [7/]	National	11.1	46.0	45.7	n.d.	n.d.
	Urban	10.2	48.6	48.2	n.d.	n.d.
	Rural	12.9	40.6	40.5	n.d.	n.d.
El Salvador [8/]	National	7.7	34.9	30.5	n.d.	27.9
	Urban	6.4	44.6	38.9	n.d.	33.8
	Rural	10.3	15.6	13.7	n.d.	13.4
Guatemala [9/]	National	14.9	24.0	19.4	2.5	26.0
	Urban	15.9	35.2	28.9	3.4	34.2
	Rural	13.7	11.1	8.2	1.1	13.2
Honduras [10/]	National	12.5	20.0	19.9	3.5	41.6
	Urban	10.4	30.7	30.7	4.2	51.4
	Rural	14.7	8.0	7.9	2.2	25.2
Mexico [11/]	National	n.d.	36.8	36.4	13.5	39.4
	Urban	n.d.	42.6	42.1	14.8	43.2
	Rural	n.d.	15.0	14.8	6.7	19.5
Panama [12/]	National	2.0	60.6	52.7	n.d.	58.0
	Urban	1.8	71.3	63.9	n.d.	62.0
	Rural	2.6	35.9	26.9	n.d.	42.5

(continues...)

		Employed			Wage workers	
		Time-related underemployment	Healthcare coverage	Pension system coverage	Unionized	With written employment contract
Paraguay [13/]	National	6.5	32.1	21.4	6.4	35.4
	Urban	5.9	40.7	28.4	6.5	39.2
	Rural	7.4	19.1	10.9	6.1	24.7
Peru [14/]	National	3.9	65.9	34.9	n.d.	36.6
	Urban	3.9	63.2	42.9	n.d.	40.1
	Rural	3.9	74.0	10.8	n.d.	12.5
Uruguay [16/]	National	7.7	98.2	75.6	n.d.	n.d.
	Urban	8.0	98.3	77.0	n.d.	n.d.
	Rural	6.2	97.9	67.9	n.d.	n.d.

Source: SIALC-ILO estimates based on household surveys.

Notes: See notes of Table A1 of the Statistical Annex. 7/ Data correspond to 1st quarter. Only wage workers with written employment contract in the private sector are considered in the table. Number of countries included for each indicator: 12 for healthcare coverage, 11 for pension coverage, 12 for underemployment, 10 for written contract and 5 for unionization.

Table A10. Latin America: percentage of real labour income of employed population, by geographic area and sector with respect to national total labour income, by country, 2014

	National			Urban			Rural		
	Total	Agricultural	Non-agricultural	Total	Agricultural	Non-agricultural	Total	Agricultural	Non-agricultural
Argentina [1/]	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	100.0	110.0	99.9	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Bolivia (Pluri. State of) [2/]	100.0	49.0	114.3	112.6	79.9	114.0	67.8	44.3	116.9
Brazil [3/]	100.0	60.4	103.9	105.7	73.9	106.9	57.1	52.9	61.1
Colombia [5/]	100.0	63.1	106.5	108.7	73.9	109.9	67.7	60.6	77.4
Costa Rica [6/]	100.0	63.9	104.1	106.8	78.6	107.9	78.7	58.3	87.7
Dominican Republic [15/]	100.0	67.2	105.4	111.9	86.0	113.3	74.6	61.1	81.5
Ecuador [7/]	100.0	62.5	110.0	111.1	83.0	113.4	74.2	55.4	94.7
El Salvador [8/]	100.0	50.7	105.7	112.0	58.9	114.1	69.7	47.8	77.8
Guatemala [9/]	100.0	54.3	118.0	128.3	94.6	132.0	63.3	44.6	83.7
Honduras [10/]	100.0	41.6	120.2	133.8	75.5	137.8	57.9	36.2	79.3
Mexico [11/]	100.0	55.6	105.9	108.2	67.2	110.2	68.5	50.3	80.1
Panama [12/]	100.0	41.1	106.3	115.1	74.0	116.0	55.1	34.7	64.7
Paraguay [13/]	100.0	76.5	105.5	112.2	90.1	112.8	78.8	75.2	82.0
Peru [14/]	100.0	50.9	109.8	111.0	73.8	113.7	51.9	39.2	70.5
Uruguay [16/]	100.0	89.8	101.0	103.2	101.8	103.3	82.1	83.2	81.4

Source: SIALC-ILO estimates based on household surveys.

Notes: See notes of Table A1 of the Statistical Annex. Chile was omitted.
Data correspond to labour income in main job during the reference week.

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