

Labour Market Profile Bolivia – 2021



Danish Trade Union
Development Agency

This profile provides a comprehensive overview of the labour market's structure, development, and challenges.



ULANDSSEKRETARIATET – DTDA
DANISH TRADE UNION DEVELOPMENT AGENCY

PREFACE

Danish Trade Union Development Agency (DTDA) is the development organisation of the Danish trade union movement. This agency was established in 1987 by the two largest Danish confederations – Danish Federation of Trade Unions (Danish acronym: LO) and Danish Confederation of Professionals (Danish acronym: FTF). These confederations merged to become the Danish Trade Union Confederation (Danish acronym: FH) in January 2019. Correspondingly, former known as LO/FTF Council changed to DTDA.

The work of DTDA is in line with the global Decent Work Agenda (DWA) based on its pillars: creating decent jobs, guaranteeing rights at work, extending social protection, and promoting social dialogue. The overall development objective of DTDA's interventions in the South is to eradicate poverty and support the development of just and democratic societies by promoting the DWA.

DTDA collaborates with trade union organisations in Africa, Asia, Latin America, and the Middle East. The programmes' immediate objective is to assist the partner organisations in becoming change-agents in their own national and regional labour market context, capable of achieving tangible improvements in the national DWA conditions and achieving the labour-related Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

The Labour Market Profile (LMP) format provides a comprehensive overview of the labour market's structure, development, and challenges, and divides into nine thematic sections describing the economic performance, labour legislation, social partners, social dialogue, violations of trade union rights, working conditions, the general status of the workforce, education, and social protection.

In the framework of DWA and SDGs, LMPs follow several central indicators addressing aspects of labour market development, especially the unionism evolution, social dialogue and bi-/tri-partite mechanisms, policy development and legal reforms, status vis-à-vis ILO conventions and labour standards, among others.

Primary sources of data and information for LMPs are:

- As part of programme implementation and monitoring, national partner organisations provide annual narrative progress reports, including information on labour market developments. Furthermore, specific types of data and information relating to key indicators are collected using a unique data collection tool.
- National statistical institutions and international databanks are used as a source for collection of general (statistical) data and information such as ILOSTAT and NATLEX, World Bank Open Data, ITUC Survey of Violations of Trade Union Rights, the U.S. Department of State as well as other internationally recognised labour-related global indexes.
- Academia and media sources (for example, LabourStart, national news, among others) are furthermore used in the available research on labour market issues.

Labour Market Profiles for more than 30 countries are available on DTDA's website:

<https://www.ulandssekretariatet.dk/>.

DTDA prepared the Labour Market Profile in collaboration with the DTDA sub-Regional Office in Latin America. If any comments or questions arise to the profile, please contact Mr Kasper Andersen (kan@dttda.dk) from DTDA.

Cover photo shows a wall's poster that represents specialised courses in industrial security in La Paz, Bolivia; photo'd by Mr Carsten Flint Hunneche.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

During the last two decades, the Plurinational State of Bolivia introduced political and economic structural changes. Although the country benefitted a long period of solid economic growth, the government struggled with dwindling revenue from the mining sector in recent years, putting pressure on public finances. During the 2010s, the middle-class among employed was on the rise, aided by high real wage hikes and relieve poverty from social protection programmes. In 2020, the country entered an economic recession due to the global coronavirus (Covid-19) pandemic that pushed many balancing on the poverty threshold line.

Legal reforms introduced sweeping changes. It includes nationalisation and public ownership of natural resources, redistributive public investment, and wage policies. The government recently re-established the minimum working age of 14 years old and launched a healthcare bill designed to provide free medical care to those who not have insurance. Albeit the legal framework is broadly in compliance with the International Labour Organisation's (ILO) fundamental conventions, it continues being challenged in ensuring freedom of association and collective bargaining. The labour market stays haunted by a widespread informal economy that often leads to loopholes in labour and business regulations in practice due to lack of awareness or incentives.

The tripartite labour institutions' system is underdeveloped hindering a more fluent social dialogue ambience. Social partner relations is influential among the government and trade unions. In contrast, employers criticise cooperation in labour-employer relations. Updated data of the trade union density of members paying dues among employees was scarce, but estimations suggested at around 35%. It is significantly higher than the regional average at 16%. Domination of micro-enterprises in the private sector challenges unionism's scope. Besides, Bolivia ranking 4 out of 5 (5+ is worst) on the Global Rights Index, i.e., systematic violation of workers' rights.

A demographic transition is in progress by shrinking the fertility rate and increasing survival age rate. Change in employment shifts from the agricultural to the service sector linked to mounting urbanisation rate. The rise in labour productivity was driven by high international

hydrocarbons prices related to the mining sector, representing a workforce's minor share. The employees' segment even projected to drop slightly during the 2010s, and employment in the industry sector stalled.

Bolivia has one of the lowest unemployment rates in the region. Coverage of unemployment protection schemes is scarce, and most people cannot survive without generating some income to support the family. Many are caught in labour underutilisation. Nevertheless, the urban unemployment rate accelerated in 2020, fuelled by the Covid-19 impact.

In the aftermath of the global financial crisis in 2007-2009 and social structural reforms gradually curbed the negative balanced net migration flow. The inflow of personal remittances declined significantly but continued considerably higher than the foreign direct investments.

Although child labour experienced a significant drop during the 2010s, it continued being pervasive. This progress benefitted by increases in funding for a conditional cash transfer programme aimed at bolstering school attendance, and the child population cohort was declining. Still, around one out of four employed has less than basic education, echoed in the relatively low labour productivity. During the 2010s, the school enrolment rates were on the rise, including in vocational training. The latter group has an extraordinarily high ratio of pupils in vocational training to all pupils in secondary education, at 63%.

Gender-based disparities are linked to ethnicity and cultural complexes. Gender gaps in labour underutilisation and vulnerable employment stick more to women, often indigenous, than men. On the other hand, women have remarkably high participation in firms' ownership. The proportion of youth not in employment, education, or training (i.e. the NEET) stays relatively low compared to the neighbouring countries, which is interrelated to a tradition of combining school with jobs or looking for work.

Bolivia took steps forward to create a universal social protection floor: one of the highest coverage rates in old-age pensions in the region and the fast rise in health security coverage. Although pension funds increased fast, approximately 57% of employed are not yet affiliated.

The table below provides an overview of key labour market indicators' status in the framework of the Decent Work Agenda.

On the next page, Page iv, the second table presents an overview of the current value and targets of the Sustainable Development Goals' indicators concerning labour market issues.

Status of key labour market indicators in the framework of the Decent Work Agenda (DWA) in Bolivia

Creating decent jobs	
Policy reforms addressing creation of decent employment.	A program initiated by the government to help unemployed youth and local enterprises fill vacant positions. Annual negotiations between the COB and the government concerning minimum wage. The National Development Plan 2016-2020 sets the goals for the economy and social areas. The National Employment Plan that attempts linking youth, the private sector, and the State, to create new jobs.
ILO standard setting on improvement of status of workers from the informal economy.	Bolivia has not adopted any specific policy for the informal economy workers. No specific fora have been developed such as forums or roundtables to address this issue in a bi- or tripartite manner.
Guaranteeing rights at work	
Growth in partner trade union members, 2012-2019 (%)	4.7 % *
Violations of trade union rights.	Ranking 4 out of 5 (5+ is the worst). **
Labour legislation is improved according to ILO standards in recent years.	The healthcare bill from 2019 creates a system designed to provide comprehensive and free medical care to more than 5 million citizens who previously did not have insurance. In 2019, the Law 977 guaranties that people with disabilities, guardians, parents, or spouses can access this benefit. The Supreme Decree No. 3437 for the labour insertion and economic help of people with different capacities from 2017 aims to treat people with different capacities without discrimination, giving them labour opportunities.
Partner organisations with minimum 30% women representation in decision-making bodies	Yes: CSTSPB of 33% and CTEUB of 33%; CONMERB of 14%.
Extending social protection	
Persons covered by at least one social protection benefit.	41 %
Workers from the informal economy have access to national social security schemes.	Largely excluded: social pension schemes are essential in providing at least a minimum level of income security for older people and their families.
Promoting social dialogue	
Trade union density of members paying dues to employees (%)	35 %
Cooperation in labour-employer relations.	Ranking 134 out of 141 (1 is best). ***
Number of Collective Bargaining Agreements (CBAs).	-
Workers' coverage of Collective Bargaining Agreements to employees.	-
Bi-/tri- partite agreements concluded.	COB, Employers' Organisations' and the Government performed annual tripartite negotiations concerning a memorandum of understanding. Phase III (2017 - 2021) of SCORE Training programme is in progress through tripartite national implementation to address each region.
* The measurement covers three trade unions (CSTSPB, CONMERB, and CTEUB) and underestimated due to lack of data from CTEUB. ** It is estimated as "systematic violations of rights": Workers in countries with the rating 4 have reported systematic violations. The government and/or companies are engaged in serious efforts to crush the collective voice of workers putting fundamental rights under threat. *** This indicator is based on data from the Global Competitiveness Index that represents employers' opinion from surveys. Sources: International Trade Union Confederation, Global Rights Index; World Economic Forum, The Global Competitiveness Report; DTDA, Bolivia: data-collection tool 2019 and own calculations.	

Status of key Sustainable Development Goals in labour market related issues in Bolivia

Indicators	Value	Year	SDG Targets
1.1.1: Working poverty rate (percentage of employed living below US\$1.9 PPP) *	5.1 %	2020	By 2030, eradicate extreme poverty for all people everywhere, currently measured as people living on less than US\$1.9 a day.
1.3.1: The population effectively covered by a social protection system, including social protection floors. **	41 %	2016	Implement nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all, including floors, and by 2030 achieve substantial coverage of the poor and the vulnerable.
5.5.2: Women share of employment in managerial positions	39 %	2018	Ensure women's full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic, and public life.
8.1.1: Annual growth rate of real GDP per capita	0.8 %	2019	Sustain per capita economic growth in accordance with national circumstances and, in particular, at least 7 per cent gross domestic product growth per annum in the least developed countries.
8.2.1: Annual growth rate of real GDP per employed person (GDP constant 2011 international \$ in PPP)	1.9 %	2020	Achieve higher levels of economic productivity through diversification, technological upgrading and innovation through a focus on high value added and labour-intensive sectors.
8.3.1: Proportion of informal employment in non-agriculture employment	78 %	2015	Promote development-oriented policies that support productive activities, decent job creation, entrepreneurship, creativity, and innovation, and encourage the formalisation and growth of micro-, small- and medium-sized enterprises, through access to financial services.
8.3.1: Women	77 %	2015	
8.3.1: Men	80 %	2015	
8.5.1: Average hourly earnings of women and men employees	17 BOB	2014	By 2030, achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, including young people and persons with disabilities, and equal pay for work of equal value.
8.5.2: Unemployment rate (Total, 15+)	3.1 %	2015	
8.5.2: Women, 15+	3.8 %	2015	
8.5.2: Women, 15-24 years	8.6 %	2015	
8.5.2: Men, 15+	2.6 %	2015	
8.5.2: Men, 15-24 years	5.8 %	2015	
8.6.1: Proportion of youth (15-24 years) not in education, employment or training)	11 %	2018	By 2020, substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education, or training.
8.7.1: Proportion and number of children aged 5-17 years engaged in economic activity (Total)	11 %	2015	Take immediate and effective measures to eradicate forced labour, end modern slavery and human trafficking and secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour, including recruitment and use of child soldiers, and by 2025, end child labour in all its forms.
8.7.1: Girls	9.0 %	2015	
8.7.1: Boys	13 %	2015	
8.8.1: Frequency rates of fatal occupational injuries per 100.000 workers, annual.	-	-	Protect labour rights and promote safe and secure working environments for all workers, including migrant workers, in particular women migrants, and those in precarious employment.
9.2.2: Manufacturing employment as a proportion of total employment	11 %	2015	Promote inclusive and sustainable industrialisation and, by 2030, significantly raise industry's share of employment and gross domestic product, in line with national circumstances, and double its share in least developed countries.
10.4.1: Labour income share as a percent of GDP	54 %	2017	Adopt policies, especially fiscal, wage and social protection policies, and progressively achieve greater equality.

* Estimates ** Population covered by at least one social protection benefit; see more in Table 18.

Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM).

COUNTRY MAP



Source: CIA, *The World Factbook*, Bolivia

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ECONOMIC PERFORMANCE

Bolivia is a lower-middle-income country. Together with Paraguay, the country is the only landlocked country in Latin America, which brings some dependence on neighbouring countries on access to seaports. Since 2006, the government strengthened the role of the state in the economy. After a political turmoil in 2019 due to the failed election and social unrest, a new government was elected on October 18, 2020.

The country benefitted years of solid economic growth, driven by natural gas and cash crops exports. Declining international prices in gas and minerals pushed the country into a mounting twin-deficit: foreign reserve losses, and losses in the government's revenue; bringing a sharp increase in public debt. The economic development has been somewhat negatively affected by external competitiveness due to the appreciated U.S. dollar, high wage growth, and domestic policies that have hindered private sector investments.

The real Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth was far above the regional average during the 2010s. However, GDP per capita value is more than two times lower than that of the regional average (see more details in Table 1 and Figure 1).

Table 1: Key economic data in Bolivia and Latin America & Caribbean, 2019

Values	Bolivia	LAC
GDP (current US\$)	US\$41 billion	US\$5.7 trillion
GDP per capita (current US\$, average)	US\$3,552	US\$8,847
GDP growth (2015-2019, average)	4.0 %	0.8 %
Inflation in consumer prices (2015-2019, average)	2.9 %	2.2 %
Tax revenue (% of GDP, average)	17 % (2007)	14 % (2018)

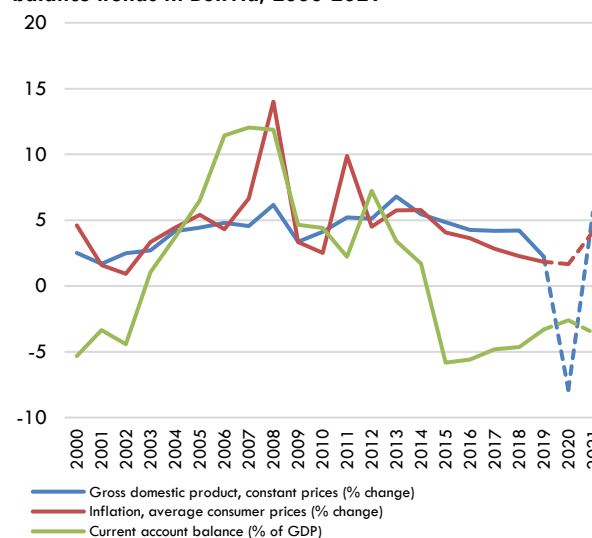
Sources: World Bank, World Development Indicators

At the beginning of 2020, most economic sectors started to recover but were shaken, once again, but this time by the global Covid-19 pandemic and ensuing emergency. As an impact of this pandemic, several sectors lockdown (trade, services, manufacturing, construction, restaurants and hotel, transportation, and storage sectors). These sectors concentrate around three out of five of employment (60%), both formal and informal, not to mention they did not pay salaries and wages. Some workers were either sent home or obliged to leave the job that stymied household incomes. It costed a deep

economic recession: GDP growth projected to plummet close to -8% in 2020.

The inflation has been under control situated on an average of 2.9% from 2015-2019. A slight increase was projected to have occurred since 2019, accelerating since 2020 but staying below 5% (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Gross domestic product, inflation, and current balance trends in Bolivia, 2000-2021



Sources: International Monetary Fund, World Economic Outlook Database

Inequality in the distribution of family income is measured in the Gini index. During the last two decades, Bolivia significantly reduced the inequality: indexed at 62 in 2000 to 42 in 2018 (i.e., 0 represents perfect equality, while an index of 100 represents high inequality). However, the country ranks as the 36th most unequal country among 159 countries. Besides, the middle-class for those in employment experienced an impressive upsurge. In contrast, the workers living below US\$3.2 per day plummeted (see details in Table 2). These employment by economic class estimations excluded the economically inactive population. On the broader poverty headcount ratio at national poverty lines showed the population fell from 66% in 2000 to 35% in 2018, getting close to Argentina's rate at 32%. It stayed significantly higher than Chile (8.6%), Paraguay (26%), and Peru (22%). The poverty reduction in Bolivia was supported by the expanded social protection coverages financed by the government's revenue from soaring natural gas production. It is worthwhile to mention that projections suggested that the poverty rate rose in the margin in 2020 as an impact of the Covid-19 pandemic (see more ahead in Social Protection section).¹

Table 2: Estimation and projection of employment by economic class in Bolivia, 2000-2019

Year	Extremely poor (<US\$1.90)	Moderately poor (>=US\$1.90 & <US\$3.20)	Near poor (>=US\$3.20 & <US\$5.5)	Middle-class (>=US\$5.5)
2000	26 %	13 %	21 %	41 %
2010	7.9 %	6.5 %	13 %	72 %
2019	5.1 %	4.0 %	9.3 %	82 %

Note: Data in this table exclude the economically inactive population that cover around 28% of the population (aged 15+). Data in this table is measured at Purchasing Power Parity (PPP).

Sources: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM).

The export sector is a central part of the economy; around 76% is driven by hydrocarbons and mining (e.g., zinc, silver, lead, tin, and lithium). This sector hovered above 40% of GDP from 2010 to 2014, but from 2015 it declined and reached 25% in 2019. It contributed to a rising unbalance of the nation's current account and expanded net borrowing (Figure 1). It put pressure on the evolving social protection system's financial reforms that depend on revenues of hydrocarbons export.

Gross fixed capital formation signals how much of the new value-added of GDP is invested rather than consumed. When the indicator's value increases, it points towards that economic activities are in progress, potentially supporting economic development and job creation. Data shows that the gross fixed capital formation in Bolivia has been steady since 2000 at around 19% of GDP, which was in line to Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) average, at 18%.²

Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) measures the net inflows of investment to acquire a lasting management interest in an enterprise, operating in an economy, other than that of the investor. In Bolivia, the FDI inflow concentrated mainly in the hydrocarbon and mining sectors. The volume was meagre, with slight fluctuations after 2014. The value was 1.0% of GDP on average from 2015 to 2019; the LAC average was 3.8% of GDP. The country's low net inflow of FDI is mainly due to scant incentives, complex bureaucratic procedures, corruption, a politicised legal system, and an inefficient tax system. Besides, the legal framework does not provide security for foreign investments: they obliged to settle disputes by a Bolivian Court instead of international or independent settlement mechanism.

Concerning the complex bureaucratic procedures, the Doing Business Index ranked Bolivia as 150th out of 190 countries (1st is best) in 2020. It is among the worst ranking in South America, only surpassed by Venezuela

(188) and Suriname (162). Out of ten indicators, the country's best rankings are in getting electricity (96), trading across borders (100), and resolving insolvency (103). Several of the scales were very weak, e.g., paying taxes (186) and starting a business (175). Compared to 2019, Bolivia moved by six rankings and benefit from dealing with construction permits, getting electricity, and protecting minority investors (see more details in Appendix Table 20).

Free Trade Zones

In Bolivia, the establishment of free trade zones (FTZ) initiated in 1987. These zones were protected by *Decreto supremo* No.25933 of 2000 and *Decreto supremo* No.2779 of 2016. The latter legislation approved regulations for a new system of free trade zones in the country. Among other things, the decree eased customs procedures for goods entering the zones and strengthened the governmental support for the promotion of productive investments. The National Council on Free Trade Zones (Spanish acronym: CONZOF) oversees industrial and commercial-free trade zones and authorises operations.

Special regulations in the free zones are related to taxes, customs, and foreign trade, i.e., exemptions of several tariffs and national taxes. In other words, even though the zones are part of the national territory, they are considered outside the national customs territory.³ The aim of establishing the FTZs is to facilitate commercial and industrial activities for national and international companies as well as to boost production and create jobs. The main sectors are leather and textiles, exported to the USA, Chile, and Peru.⁴ The major investing countries were Australia, Belgium, Chile, Germany, Luxembourg, the Republic of Korea, and Spain.⁵

The country registered eleven industrial zones.⁶ The majority are placed in cities along the Bolivian borders. Based on the available data, the FTZs employed 48,000 workers in 2007 (3.3% of total employees) and exporting for US\$59 million (1.1% of export). Thus, FTZs did not play a central part in the economy and labour market.

LABOUR LEGISLATION

In Bolivia, labour legislation is wide-ranging, complex, and updated regularly.⁷ ILO registered 270 national labour, social security and human rights-related legislation in 2020.⁸ Main central laws approved since

2014 are available in Appendix Table 21 and Table 22.

Improvements were detected in the legal framework in the 2010s. For example, Bolivian workers received advances in introducing measures to encourage gender equality and women's empowerment in the workplace furthermore strengthened retirement benefits, pensions, and paid leave. Other upgrades were prohibiting unlawful firings; legalising strikes; nationalising private pension funds; increasing retirement benefits; provides three months of paid paybacks after a worker is fired or resigns; and no longer allowing employers to fire women children less than a year old.

The status of central labour-related legislation is summarised below.

The Constitution of Bolivia

The Constitution of Bolivia from 2009 introduced sweeping changes, particularly on indigenous rights and the fundamental right of every citizen to access basic public services. It placed a more active role for the state in economic matters and natural resource control. The constitution underlined rights to gender, environment, labour, and land tenure.

Ten articles (Articles 46-55) introduced constitutional rights to work and employment. For example, they are recognising the right to collective bargaining. All workers have the right to organise unions. It includes that union leaders enjoy union privileges; they may not be fired for one year after the end of their office term and may not diminish their social rights; nor may they be subjected to persecution or deprivation of liberty for acts undertaken in fulfilment of their union work. The right of free business association is recognised and guaranteed. The bill furthermore provides for the protection of general and solidarity strikes.

On May 29, 2019, the Supreme Court ruled to protect the right to strike but caveated that a strike could not be unlimited. According to legal experts, it was in reaction to health-care workers threatened to strike for an indefinite amount of time. As a result of this ruling, health-care workers may go on strike but must organise themselves in shifts to avoid putting the general population at risk.

The constitution (Articles 35-45) also introduced the right to health and social security. It involves that the state shall guarantee access to universal health care. Every Bolivian has the right to social security, which contains the state guarantees the right to retirement by universal,

supportive, and equitable. The public social security services shall not be privatised nor licensed to others.

The constitution incorporated and recognised indigenous people's rights guaranteed in the international Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention (C169) (see also Appendix Table 23). The government was working towards autonomy and self-governance of indigenous communities, which has been somewhat controversial.⁹

General Labour Code

The General Labour Code from 1942 sets regulations and statutory instruments, provides for the freedom of association, the right to organise and bargain collectively, and the right to strike. The law prohibits antiunion discrimination and requires reinstatement of workers fired for union activity.¹⁰

Workers may form a union in any private company of 20 or more employees, but the law requires that at least 50% of the workforce be favoured. When an enterprise or company has less than 20 employees, the employees can elect a union committee composed of two members with a term of representation of one year (renewable). The law requires that trade unions register as legal entities and obtain prior government authorisation to establish a union and confirm its elected leadership, permits only one union per enterprise, and allows the government to dissolve unions by administrative fiat. The bill requires that members of union executive boards be Bolivian by birth. Another critical aspect is that the law prohibits several public employees from forming unions, including the military, police, and health-related staff; the law protects just around 1/3 of public employees for unionism.

The government enforce applicable laws, but the implementation process is often slow due to bureaucratic inefficiency.¹¹ Especially Article 12 of the Labour Code, which required a 90-day notice period for unjustified dismissal, was considered an offence against workers' rights. In March 2017, the Constitutional Court declared this article unconstitutional and pointed out it could be misused to dismiss workers. It was removed from the bill; eliminated not only the notice of dismissal but also abolished the types of employment contracts. The government argued that the reform could harm the Bolivian workers and jeopardise the benefit of eviction. The ruling opened the possibility that employers can choose any form of contract with their workers, which could create new causes of dismissal.¹²

Pension Code

The Law on Pensions from 2010 regulates on social security. It was linked to the 2009 Constitution banning the private administration of social security. It transformed the former system into a three-pillar hybrid system (see more in Social Protection section).¹³

Child and Adolescent Code

The Child and Adolescent Code (*Ley 342*) from 2010 prohibits all paid work by children under the age of 14 and a range of dangerous, immoral, and unhealthy types of work for minors under 18.¹⁴ Besides, the Labour Code permitted apprenticeship for 12 to 14-year-old children with various formal restrictions. The Law 342 was amended in July 2014, making it more flexible and allowing children as young as 10 years old to work legally. Children could work for others when they were 12. It made Bolivia the first country in the world to legalise employment at such a young age. The reform met some positive comments by several organisations. For example, Bolivia's Union of Child and Adolescent Workers (UNATSBO), which actively campaigned for the bill's passing, argued that child workers were previously treated as 'invisible' but became with safeguards (see also Child Labour sub-section).¹⁵ However, the reformed law contravened international standards regarding the ILO's Minimum Age Convention. It created pressure on the government to comply with central trade agreements' clauses, including child labour (see more in Trade Agreement sub-section). In February 2018, the Constitutional Court abolished the provision that allowed children as young as 10 to work in activities that were not deemed "dangerous" or "unhealthy." In December 2018, the parliament modified the bill to re-establish the minimum age of 14 years old.

Observations on labour legislation

The International Trade Union Confederation (ITUC) has registered flaws in Bolivia's legislation on the rights of freedom of association, collective bargaining rights, and the rights of strikes concerning the international standards. Among others:¹⁶

- The law prohibits anti-union discrimination but does not provide adequate means of protection against it.
- Labour legislation sets out extensive registration procedures that could amount to a requirement of prior authorisation by the government to establish a trade union.
- Industrial unions need the support of at least 50% of the workforce to be established.

- Administrative authorities' power to unilaterally dissolve, suspend or de-register trade union organisations.
- Public sector workers not employed in the State and agricultural workers' administration are amongst those who are denied the right to bargain collectively.
- Obligation to observe an excessive quorum or to obtain an excessive majority in a ballot to call a strike.
- General strikes and solidarity strikes are prohibited.

In Bolivia, the politicisation of labour issues is present: the extent of the practical application of fundamental labour rights may sometimes depend on the actors' political affiliations. Some trade unions allegedly prioritise political allegiances over the representation of workers' interests.¹⁷ Also, the mentioned 20-worker threshold for forming a union proved an onerous restriction, since an estimated 72% of enterprises had fewer than 20 employees.

The government enforced applicable labour laws in the formal sector, but it is often ineffective.¹⁸ It is important to realise that the informal economy is widespread that lead many workers and enterprises loophole in labour and business regulations in practice due to lack of awareness or incentives (see more in Informal Economy sub-section).

Ratified ILO Conventions

The International Labour Organisation (ILO) conventions cover a wide area of social and labour issues such as basic human rights, minimum wages, industrial relations, employment policy, social dialogue, social security, and other issues. Bolivia has ratified 50 conventions: 47 of them are in force, and three denounced. The latest ratified convention was the Safety and Health in Construction Convention (No. 167) from February 2015.

The list in Appendix Table 23 depicts that eight fundamental conventions are the most important conventions that cover four fundamental principles and rights at work. Bolivia has ratified all of them.

ILO has four designated Governance Conventions that are important to build national institutions and capacities to promote employment; these conventions support a well-regulated and well-functioning labour market. The country has ratified three of them, leaving out Tripartite Consultation (International Labour Standards) Convention (C144).

ILO has further 178 Technical Conventions, out of which 73 are “Up-To-Date” and actively promoted. An “Up-To-Date” Convention is one that is ready for ratification by the Member States or has been examined by the ILO Governing Body and deemed still to be relevant.¹⁹ Bolivia has ratified 39 Technical Conventions, and 20 are Up-To-Date and actively promoted (see more in Appendix Table 23).

The independent ILO body, known as the Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations (CEACR), comprises 20 legal experts at the national and international levels. CEACR examines the application of ILO conventions and recommendations by ILO member states. In 2019, CEACR forwarded a series of observations and direct requests to central conventions for Bolivia.

For example, CEACR had for many years requested the government to bring specific legislative texts into conformity with the Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention (C087). It was related to the possibility of dissolving trade union organisations by the administrative authority as well as to the prohibition on general strikes and sympathy strikes, and the imposition of penalties on the instigators or promoters of illegal strikes. Other issues were noted such as the exclusion of agricultural workers from the scope of the General Labour Code; the denial of the right to organise of public servants; the excessive requirement of 50% of the workers in an enterprise to establish a trade union, in the case of an industrial union; the broad powers of supervision conferred upon the labour inspectorate over trade union activities; the requirement of a three-quarters majority of the workers to call a strike; and the requirement that trade union officers must be of Bolivian nationality, literate, over 21 years of age.²⁰

CEACR registered the observations of the International Organisation of Employers (IOE) and the Confederation of Private Employers of Bolivia (CEPB), received on September 3, 2019, in the matter of the Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention (C098). These two organisations alleged that the government violated the principle of free and voluntary negotiation by imposing the obligation on employers to negotiate and sign a wage agreement that implemented the wage increase fixed unilaterally by the executive authority, and to do this within a fixed period or otherwise incur a fine. The committee requested the government to send its comments on this matter.²¹

Bolivia ratified the Domestic Workers Convention (C189) in April 2013. Among others, the government presented a model contract for domestic workers. In September 2018, the National Federation of Waged Domestic Workers of Bolivia (FENATRAHOB) forwarded observations to CEACR, requested the government to provide detailed and updated information on the application in practice of Act No. 348 of 2013 and Act No. 2450 of 2003 about the protection of domestic workers against any form of abuse, harassment, or violence.²²

Trade Agreements

Trade agreements regulate international trade between two or more nations. It may cover all imports and exports, specific categories of goods, or a single type. A trade agreement is an opportunity to open another part of the world to domestic producers. Generally, trade agreements, including labour provisions, are on the rise and becoming progressively more accepted.

Bolivia has been a member of the World Trade Organisation (WTO) since September 1995. The latest review of the trade policies and practices of Bolivia took place in November 2005. Currently, two dispute cases involving Bolivia as a third-party.²³ The Agreement on Subsidies and Countervailing Measures (SCM Agreement) addresses two separate but closely related topics: multilateral disciplines are regulating the provision of subsidies, and the use of countervailing measures to offset the injury caused by subsidised imports. The SCM Agreement excluded Bolivia from the prohibition on export subsidies until their GNP per capita exceeds US\$1,000.²⁴

Bolivia benefits from the European Union’s (EU) unilateral GSP+ special incentive arrangement, allowing duty and quota-free access for most products. To be granted and continue to be given GSP+, a country must ratify and effectively implement conventions within human rights, environmental, and the eight ILO core conventions. GSP+ removes import duties from products coming into the EU market from vulnerable developing countries. These measures help developing countries alleviate poverty and create jobs based on international values and principles, including labour and human rights. As of 2019, nine countries were benefitting from the GSP, included Bolivia. The European Parliament and European Council examine each beneficiary every second year.²⁵ The latest report on the GSP+ covered the period 2018-2019 mentioned that although the national legislation is broadly in compliance with the ILO fundamental

conventions, Bolivia faced challenges in preventing child labour and ensuring freedom of association and collective bargaining.

Bolivia is one of the largest exporters under the United States' (U.S.) Generalised System of Preferences (GSP) arrangement: a unilateral trade benefit from the U.S. government, allowing duty and quota-free access for some products. A country can be removed if it violates or does not take steps to uphold the ILO core labour standards. The U.S. government regularly reviews each country. The 2017 Annual Review outcomes included the launch of a self-initiated country practice review of Bolivia's compliance with the GSP eligibility criteria related to child labour.²⁶ The Country Review was closed in October 2019, with no loss of GSP benefits, benefited from the previously mentioned reform in the Child and Adolescent Code in 2018.²⁷ Bolivia was the 98th largest goods trading partner to the U.S. with an import of US\$455 million; the U.S. with a trade surplus with Bolivia of US\$97 million in 2019.²⁸

Other countries – Australia, Canada, Chile, Cuba, Japan, Mexico, Norway, Russia, and Switzerland – have a bilateral free trade agreement with Bolivia with limited labour clauses.

Bolivia is a founding member of the Andean Community of Nations (ACN), a customs union that includes Colombia, Ecuador, and Peru. The ACN establishes a Labour Advisory Council. It moreover contains social cooperation in areas such as social security and recognition of education certificates.²⁹

The country participates in the Latin American Integration Association (LAIA), which has signed several partial agreements.

In 2002, Bolivia became an associated member of the Southern Common Market (MERCOSUR), a “free residence area” that permits citizens of those countries to obtain residence and the right to work in the participating countries without a visa. The state parties include Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay, and Uruguay; suspended Venezuela in all the rights and obligation inherent to its status in 2016. MERCOSUR has virtually eliminated tariff and non-tariff barriers on most intra-regional trade between members implementing a Common External Tariff (CET) system. Associate members enjoy tariff reductions but are not subject to the CET system.³⁰ The regional agreements provided some manufacturing trade stimulus from Bolivia's membership in the ACN and MERCOSUR.

SOCIAL PARTNERS

Social partners are central to promote the realisation of core labour rights and social justice for workers by protecting freedom of association and collective bargaining in bi- and tripartite functions. These partners are usually represented as the central government institutions, trade unions, and employers' organisations.

Government

The Ministry of Labour, Employment, and Social Welfare (MLESW) oversee labour relations, pensions, and social security programmes. Through the General OSH Directorate, the ministry is responsible for the compliance and enforcement of occupational safety and health (OSH) legislation, which includes to undertake the inspection of workplaces as well as conducting the procedures for the application of OSH sanctions. The ministry also has offices for worker inquiries, complaints, and reports of unfair labour practices and unsafe working conditions. MLESW's General Direction of Union Affairs is involved in conflict prevention and mediation. Besides, the ministry is responsible for fixing and periodic review of the minimum wage.

During the 2010s, MLESW was particularly criticised for lack of information on the results of national policies and government actions to combat child labour and the weaknesses of the labour inspectorate.

The MLESW's General Directorate of Union Affairs supports the rights to freedom of association and trade union training under the Resolution Ministerial No. 832/16 from 2016.³¹ Among others, the directorate carried out a series of the new cycle of Political and Union Training Schools in 2019, with the participation of workers and union leaders.³²

In 2020, the ministry began a process of consolidation its active policies in the labour market with particular emphasis on its labour intermediation actions, and the development of programmes that increase the employability of groups with insertion difficulties. It includes strengthening the Public Employment Service activities by the Employment Support Programme II based on two components: improved coverage and positioning of SPEBO, and improved services to job seekers and diversify the offer of Active Labour Market Policies.

Some of the other central government institutions concerning labour-related issues and involved in the tripartite collaboration are the Ministry of Education,

which is responsible for determining the education system's policies and direction. The Ministry of Health is the agency responsible for formulating policies, promoting research and development of technologies, offers reliable, accessible, and user-friendly information for timely decisions to provide quality health services.

Trade unions

The Bolivian trade union movement is organised within the Bolivian Workers' Centre (*Central Obrera Boliviana*, COB). Updated data of COB's unions and membership are scarce. Some estimations suggested the membership rate of around 2.0 million members (see more ahead). Table 3 shows trade union density representing members paying dues of employees at 35%, or 12% among total employment.

Table 3: Status of trade unions in Bolivia

Number of trade unions (2007)	163
Dues (month)	US\$0.15-4.38
Members of COB	2,000,000 *
Members of trade unions paying dues (COB)	560,000
Trade union density (members paying dues, COB) of employees	35 %
Trade union density (members paying dues, COB) of total employment	12 %
Share of women in trade unions	65 % **

* The members of COB's are covering a broad segment of organisations, e.g., affiliated trade union members, agricultural workers, or indigenous activists.

** This share covers only CSTSPB, CTEUB, and CONMERB; thus, it is not representing COB's total women share in membership.

Note: Imputed observations are not used by public national data, and the estimations should only be used as a proxy indicator.

Source: ILO; DTDA data-collection tool and own calculations of trade union density.

The widespread informal economy and employment concentrated in micro-enterprises challenge the scope of unionism in Bolivia, not to mention weaknesses in the education system leading to an often lack of awareness or incentives to protect workers' rights. On the positive side, Bolivia's trade unions movement continues to organise new groups of workers to increase collective agreements and create new services for their members.

Bolivian Workers' Centre

Bolivian Workers' Centre (Spanish acronym: COB) was formed after the 1952 nationalist-populist revolution, and the trade union movement turned into unitary, a single union centre. The centre affiliates peasant economic organisations (Spanish acronym: OECA), peasant agricultural corporations (Spanish acronym: CORA-CA), trade unions, and indigenous community

associations. Some of these organisations' interests can occasionally be contradictory. COB has around two million members out of which 560,000 workers are members of trade unions, which equals 28% of the total membership. The organisation is not affiliated to the International Trade Union Federation (ITUC).

In the period from the 1980s to the middle of the 2000s, Bolivia implemented neoliberal reforms. COP was sidelined at the policy level. Instead, the organisation supported the popular mobilisation that led to a new political environment wave in the aftermath of Morales-administration (2006-2019). The weak improvements for the Bolivian working classes backed the COB becoming a main political ally of this government during the 2010s. For example, the Movement Towards Socialism (Spanish acronym: MAS) managed to assimilate parts of the COB in political positions to members of the leadership and to offer the appearance of cooperation. It provided a stronger posture for COB's strength in negotiating with the government to improve the labour market's conditions, which included reforms of the Labour Code and the social security system. Studies argued that the close alignment of specific national trade union confederations with the government eroded, to some extent, trade unions independence and undermined freedom of association. For example, following the government's political project undermined COB's ability to defend the workers they represent concerning flawed legislation.³³ Many trade unions voiced concerns over the government's reluctance to recognise and organise certain trade union organisations that have created trade union parallels. This situation was reflected in some clinches between the government and the trade union movement in several events during the 2010s, not to mention trade union rights violations were persistent (see more in Trade Union Rights Violations section). Political turmoil further upsurged towards the general elections in November 2020. COB instructed all its affiliates and worker organisations to mobilise to watch over and guarantee the new government's possession.

Historically, the most potent COB federations have been from mining and industrial sectors. According to the COB statutes, the General Secretary of COB must come from the Mine-workers' Federation (FSTMB). The Confederations for Construction and Manufacturing Workers (CGTFB) are also very active. The latter federation affiliates workers in the textile industry, beverages, construction materials, among others. Other public sector federations have gained more importance lately: in the education sector, CONMERB (*Confederación Nacional de Maestros de Educación Rural en Bolivia*) and

CTEUB (*Confederacion de Trabajadores de Educación Urbana de Bolivia*) experienced the rise in members, just as CSTSPB (*Confederacion Sindical de Trabajadores en Salud Bolivia*) in the health sector gained members. The powerful Transportation Workers Union re-joined the COB to solidify its support to the reformed Pension Law launched in December 2010.

In three of COB's affiliated organisations – CSTSPB, CTEUB, and CONMERB – approximately 65% are women. This relatively high share generated an increase of women in organisational leadership at all levels for two of them: CSTSPB and CTEUB have women representation in leadership positions and decision-making bodies at 33%, while CONMERB is down to 14%. For these three organisations, specific strategies to promote young people in national leadership have not been applied.

Employers' Organisations

In 2020, employers constituted around 4.9% of Bolivia's total employment, which was slightly higher than South America average, at 4.3% (see more in Figure 5 ahead).

The Global Competitiveness Index provides employers' view of a wide range of aspects, including labour market efficiency. The latter is mainly elaborated upon surveys among employers in Bolivia but also some statistical data. The labour market efficiency index is ranking the country at 135 out of 141 countries (1st is the best). The indicators with the lowest ranking were hiring and firing practices (140), redundancy costs (139), and cooperation in labour-employer relations (134). The highest scoring of labour market efficiency is in internal labour mobility (8) (see more details in Table 4). These data indicate that employers are generally discontent on the labour market's efficiency and its rigidity.

Table 4: Labour market efficiency in Bolivia, 2019

Indicator	Rank
Total	135
Redundancy costs (weeks of salary) **	139
Hiring and firing practices *	140
Cooperation in labour-employer relations *	134
Flexibility of wage determination *	129
Active labour market policies *	131
Worker's rights *	63
Ease of hiring foreign labour *	106
Internal labour mobility *	8
Reliance on professional management *	125

Pay and productivity *	133
Ratio of wage and salaried female workers to male workers **	82
Labour tax rate **	85

* Survey data. ** Ranked by per cent.

Note: Rank from 1 to 141 (1 is highest).

Source: The Global Competitiveness Report, 2019, 8th pillar: Labour market efficiency.

Organising employers is functioning in Bolivia. The status of the central organisation involved in social dialogue is summarised below.

Confederation of Private Employers in Bolivia

Confederation of Private Employers in Bolivia (*Confederación de Empresarios Privados de Bolivia, CEPB*) was established in 1962. The organisation initiated the undertaking of uniting and integrating the leading business organisations to promote their sectoral interests. Currently, CEPB has 26 affiliated organisations, which includes the National Chamber of Industry (NCI). CEPB affiliates to the International Organisation of Employers (IOE).³⁴ The confederation is governed by an executive committee and is represented in tripartite forums; other committees set within customs and food safety, legal, trade, economy, health and social security, tax, housing, and basic services.

The CEPB's groups gather small, medium, and large companies, representing and defending the business community's interests in tripartite institutions. The organisation's role in social dialogue got challenged in the arrival of the Morales-administration. Several times, CEPB was not invited for consultation during reforms. The overall objective of CEPB is to promote and actively participate in the process of economic and social development of Bolivia, supporting the viewpoint of free enterprise and the market economy as essential foundations of such an approach. Several private employers wield considerable political leverage.

In recent years, some of the main aspects were that CEPB launched a 2018 blueprint that outlined its economic vision for the country in the backdrop of falling revenue from commodity exports and associated shortfalls in funds for public investment. They proposed boosting the private sector. CEPB also declared the wage increases were unsustainable. It further criticised the Law on Social Enterprises from 2018 allows workers to take over private companies they work for when they enter bankruptcy and convert them into "social companies" to stimulate production and address unemployment. The employers' organisations movement called for an emergency meeting to coordinate an action plan against

this bill, which they claimed affected their constitutional private property rights, and have announced they will file a constitutional challenge to the law.

A report of the ILO's Committee of Experts noted that, while the government affirmed that held consultations with the social partners, the CEPB and the IOE claimed they did not invite them to participate (see more in Working Conditions section).³⁵

SOCIAL DIALOGUE

Social dialogue encompasses all types of negotiation, consultation, or exchange of information between, or among, representatives of social partners (government, employers, and workers) on common interest issues relating to economic and social policy. It can be informal or institutionalised, and often it is a combination of the two. It can take place at the national, regional or enterprise level.³⁶ In Bolivia, social dialogue has been marred by mutual and historical distrust between employers, workers, and the state, creating an invisible barrier to solve labour relationships at the tripartite level.

As part of the 2009 Constitution introduced a process of social dialogue regarding collective bargaining. Supreme Decree No. 29892 places the Ministry of Labour, Employment, and Social Welfare responsible for promoting, recognising, and guaranteeing labour negotiation, within the framework of social dialogue and tripartism in labour matters.

Bolivia has not ratified the two international conventions concerning social dialogue – Tripartite Consultation Convention (C144) and Collective Bargaining Convention (C154) (see Appendix Table 23). From 1985 to 2010, democracy was consolidated in the country, raising the need for a new relationship between the main social partners in the labour relationship. Employers did mostly as observers. For example, NCI attended the fora that discussed industrial development, but only for two or three sessions. Since then, the negotiations carried out between the COB and the government, side-lining employers' organisations.³⁷ This situation created a structural constraint on effective social dialogue and collective bargaining. This situation is signalled in employers' view of the cooperation in labour-employer relations indicator, ranking at a deficient level (revisit Table 4). Another clear example was in negotiating minimum wage hikes during the 2010s that were agreed between the government and COB; CEPB was generally not included in the processes.

At the workplace level, between workers (unions or bargaining committees) and their respective employers (without government participation), are more common. For example, during the 2010s, bipartite agreements were reached between trade unions and employers' institutions in the health and education sectors, looking to improve the workers' conditions. In the construction sector, a tripartite dialogue with representatives of workers and employers was held, affiliated to the COB and the CEPB, respectively. This dialogue also supported the ratification by Bolivia of the ILO Convention on Safety and Health in Construction Convention (C167) from 2015. It is important to realise that public sector workers not employed in the state administration and agricultural workers are amongst those who are denied the right to bargain collectively.³⁸ Besides, these processes have mostly been carried out within the framework of specific provisions approved in the Ministry of Labour, Employment, and Social Welfare, and are restricted to the salary issue.

The widespread informal economy challenges the institutionalised tripartite social dialogue's scope. Some improvements were detected in the mining sector based on increased investment and improvement in the quality of the jobs: the mining of lithium, a crucial mineral for the renewable energy transition, demonstrated more social dialogue.

Most collective bargaining agreements (CBAs) restricted to addressing wages. Research has shown that Bolivia – along with Argentine and Uruguay – had a relatively high share of employees covered by CBAs with more than 70%; most companies were unionised.³⁹ However, employees covered just around 38% of the total employment, suggesting that the real CBA coverage among the Bolivian workforce continues to be with a limited scope.

Central tripartite institutions

Only a few tripartite labour institutions are functioning in Bolivia that mirrors the social dialogue structures' deficiencies. The existing central institutions are summarised below.

National Tripartite Occupational Safety and Health Council

The council has representation from the government, trade unions, and employers' organisation. The institution is responsible for monitoring and improving occupational safety and health (OSH) standards and enforcement. The council reported of unfair labour practices and unsafe

working conditions. The Ministry of Labour, Employment, and Social Welfare has offices for worker inquiries and complaints.

Other bi/tripartite organs

- National Health Fund (*Caja Nacional de Salud*).
- National Commission for the Eradication of Child Labour (*Comisión Nacional de Erradicación Progresiva del Trabajo Infantil*).
- Productivity and Competition Commission (*Comisión de Productividad y Competitividad*).

Dispute settlement

A labour inspector first handled labour disputes, setting up a conciliation board with representatives from both parties. If the board fails in settling the issue, the conflict is brought to the Arbitration Tribunal. This tribunal consists of one member from each of the parties, and it presides by the chief labour inspector. The tribunal's decisions are only binding if the parties agree; it is an essential public service or by special resolution. If conciliation and arbitration fail, the parties may initiate a strike or lock-out.

The National Labour Court handles complaints of antiunion discrimination. Rulings often took one year or more to be issued. The cumbersome system frequent turned into resolving the disputes alternatively, or the sentences were outdated. Government remedies and penalties – including fines and threats of prosecutorial action for businesses that violate labour laws – were often ineffective and insufficient to deter violations for this reason. As a proxy indicator, the Ministry of Justice registered 2,591 human trafficking cases between 2012 and July 2017, among which only 1.7% reached a sentence.⁴⁰ The ineffectiveness of labour courts and the lengthy time to resolve claims and complaints limited freedom of association.⁴¹

The reformed Conciliation and Arbitration Law (No. 708) was approved in June 2015. The bill aims at encouraging foreign investment under fair conditions and with clear rules. The law particularly supports arbitration as a dispute settlement mechanism but excludes certain controversies from its application sphere. The exceptions include administrative agreements and conflicts related to natural resources. In the latter case, the Bolivian constitution already prohibited subjecting disputes deriving from oil and gas sector production activities to international arbitration. In general, government agencies can arbitrate disputes with companies not domiciled in Bolivia.

TRADE UNION RIGHTS VIOLATIONS

The Global Rights Index registers trade union rights violations around the world. Based on this index's ranking, Bolivia's situation deteriorating from 3 out of 5 (5+ is worst) from 2016 to 4 out of 5 in the period from 2017 to 2020. The current ranking is linked to 'systematic violation of rights': the government and/or companies are engaged in serious efforts to crush workers' collective voice, putting fundamental rights under threat.⁴²

The International Trade Union Confederation (ITUC) has registered ten cases of violations of trade union rights in Bolivia from 2016 to 2019.⁴³ These cases dealt trade union leaders unfairly dismissed; criminal prosecution in retaliation for strike action; barriers to trade union recognition; trade union leaders fired in retaliation for list of demands at hat factory; excessive intervention; parallel union and intimidation of workers as well as protests over government's continued promotion such parallel unions; calling of legal strike prohibited in the health sector; and at least 31 protesters supported by trade unions were killed in police and army operation against coca growers at a mass mobilisation.

Although labour law prohibits all forms of forced or compulsory labour, it remains a severe problem. Many men, women, and children are victims of forced labour in domestic service, mining, ranching, and agriculture. Some cases have illustrated that the government does not effectively enforce the law banning forced labour due to a lack of resources to implement more thorough enforcement and authorities' limited ability to provide services to victims of forced labour.⁴⁴ Around 46,000 persons were victims of forced labour.⁴⁵

Bolivia has two ongoing confidential follow-up cases in the ILO's Committee of Freedom of Association. The COB raised a case in June 2017 and the Federation of Medical Practitioners' Unions and Allied Branches of the National Health Fund (FESIMRAS) in April 2017.

WORKING CONDITIONS

Since 2006, the government aimed at adjusting the national minimum wage annually based on negotiations, mainly with COB. Modifications concern compulsory increases from the previous year's payroll. The current nominal minimum wage reached 2,122 bolivianos (US\$307) in 2020; based on 13 salaries to be paid in a year (12 salaries + December Christmas bonus). The monthly minimum wage was more significant than the government's official poverty income. The country's

minimum wage is comparatively higher than most of the neighbouring countries: Argentina (US\$245), Brazil (US\$203), Chile (US\$299), Peru (US\$267), but lower than Paraguay (US\$326). The widespread informal economy dominated by self-employed entrepreneurs, which often lack awareness or incentives to comply with the labour and business regulations, hindered the scope of the minimum wage coverage in practice.

In the formal sector, the average monthly earnings reached 8,530 bolivianos (US\$1,235) in 2020. National survey data registered the monthly average income of 2,789 bolivianos (US\$404) with a wide gap at 50% between urban zones and rural areas (see Table 5).

Table 5: Status of minimum wage and earnings per month in Bolivia, 2020

	Current Bolivianos (BOB)	Current US\$
Nominal minimum wage	2,122	307
Average earning *	8,530	1,235
Average income	2,789	404
Urban	3,260	472
Rural	1,606	232
Real minimum wage growth, yearly on average, 2010-2019 **	4.1%	

* Average monthly salary including housing, transport, and other benefits.

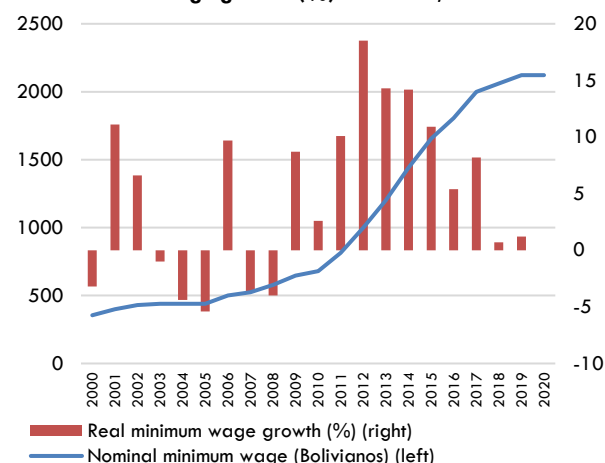
** Real minimum wage is the yearly nominal minimum wage in deducted inflation and GDP growth.

Sources: Instituto Nacional de Estadística; Salary Explorer; and own calculations on real minimum wage growth.

In 2013, the government commenced merging central wage policies: a mandatory 14th-month bonus as a holiday bonus, a minimum wage increase, and compulsory contributions to *Fondo Solidario*. It raised costs for formal employers from 30% to 45% over the payroll.⁴⁶ It is reflected in the employers' low rankings concerning the flexibility of wage determination and active labour market policies (revisit Table 4).

The real minimum wage increased by 1.4 percentage point on average during the 2000s. It was the costs of reforming the pension system. During the 2010s, the real minimum wage hiked remarkably by 8.9 percentage points on average per year. However, this fast-rising minimum wage halted since 2018 due to dwindling fiscal balances. The political decisions to prioritise significant real minimum wage increase challenges the country's international competitiveness (see more in Table 5 and Figure 2).

Figure 2: Nominal minimum wage trend (Bolivianos) and real minimum wage growth (%) in Bolivia, 2000-2020



Note: The real minimal wage growth is based on the inflation rate in consumer prices deducted in nominal minimum wage growth.

Sources: Instituto Nacional de Estadística and own estimations of the real minimum wage.

The gender gap in monthly income is relatively high, at 22% in 2015. However, the returns to secondary and college education appear to be higher for women than men. In contrast, the salaries for men with primary education tend to be higher than for women. Social norms may partly explain these prevalence wage gaps, e.g., wage gaps between men and women are highest in the state-owned enterprises and cities. Although much of the earning gap is related to occupational segregation, studies highlighted another labour market failure: indigenous women tend to be found in lower-paid jobs than non-indigenous women. Ethnicity-related gaps are more extensive than those associated with gender, and that ethnicity is more important in determining the existing wage gaps for indigenous women.⁴⁷

The number of labour inspectors increased from 78 in 2015 to 97 in 2016, covering one inspector per 50,531 workers; focusing just in the formal sector among employees, equalled one inspector per 15,360. The ILO recommends one inspector per 40,000 workers in less developed countries and one per 20,000 workers in transition economies.⁴⁸ Labour inspections remained inadequate to provide effective workplace inspection in practice. The penalties for non-compliance often did not deter violations.⁴⁹ Since 2016, the Ministry of Labour, Employment and Social Security did not take steps to approve the draft Labour Inspection Regulations needed to be updated and contemplated procedures for handling complaints, inquiries, inspections, and procedures for agricultural inspections. In addition, the Ombudsman's Office registered a total of 587

complaints about the violation of labour rights during the Covid-19 pandemic.⁵⁰

By law, standard working hours are eight per day. An employee is entitled to 15 days' vacation each year. There are no restrictions on overtime work. It explains, to some extent, that two out of three (66%) employed Bolivians work more than 40 hours per week, and over a third work more than 50 hours per week. The workers with temporary contracts do not benefit social protection schemes. An overview of central working conditions regulations in Bolivia is available in Table 6.

Table 6: Working conditions in Bolivia

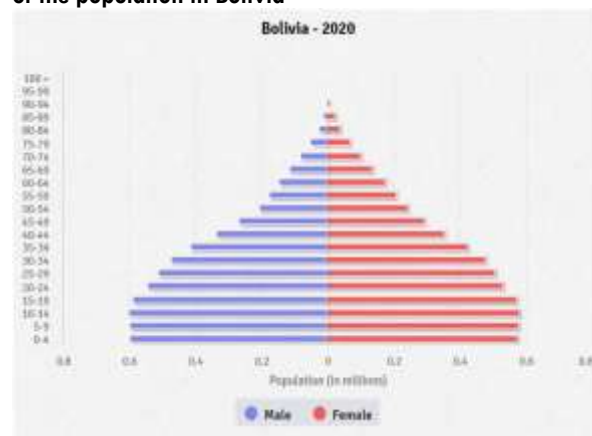
Fixed-term contracts prohibited for permanent tasks	Yes
Maximum length of a single fixed-term contract (months)	12 months
Maximum number of working days per week	6.0
Premium for night work (% of hourly pay)	25
Premium for work overtime work (% of hourly pay)	100 %
Paid annual leave (average for working days with 5 years of tenure)	20
Minimum length of maternity leave	90 days
Source of maternity leave benefits	Social insurance
Five fully paid days of sick leave a year?	Yes
Unemployment protection after one year of employment	No

Source: World Bank, Doing Business, Labour Market Regulation.

WORKFORCE

In 2020, Bolivia's population was approximately 11.7 million people. Close to 50% of them identify themselves as indigenous or Afro origin. The Bolivian population growth fell from 2.1% in 1990 to 1.4% in 2019. The fertility rate (births per women) dropped from 4.9 to 2.7 in the same period. Survival to age 65 (% of cohort) grew significantly from 50% to 67% for men in the same period, and women from 58% to 76%. Almost half of Bolivia's population is below 24 years; 64% of the population is in the working-age (15-64). See more details in Figure 3 below.

Figure 3: Population pyramid based on the Age-Sex structure of the population in Bolivia



Source: CIA, The World Factbook, Bolivia.

The workforce consisted of around 5.6 million workers in 2020. The total employment-to-population ratio projected at 69%, relatively high compared to South America average, at 59%. Women in Bolivia have a noticeably lower employment-to-population ratio than men, at 17 percentage points and significantly higher than the regional average. Among Bolivian youth, the employment-to-population ratio was likewise more elevated than the regional average. See more details in Table 7.

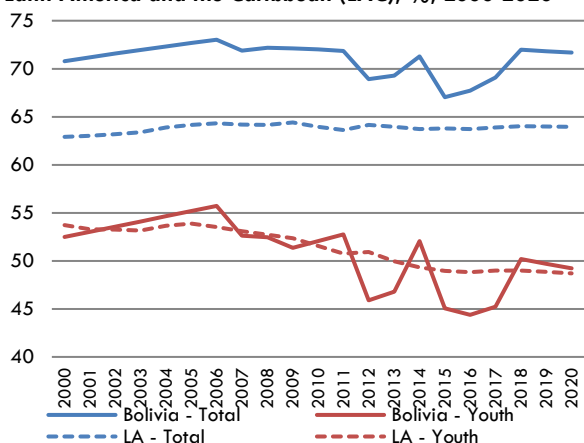
Table 7: Employment-to-population ratio in Bolivia and South America (SA), Total and by age and sex distribution, 2020

Sex	Age	Bolivia	SA
Total	Total 15+	69 %	59 %
	Youth 15-24	46 %	40 %
Men	Total 15+	78 %	70 %
	Youth 15-24	52 %	47 %
Women	Total 15+	61 %	49 %
	Youth 15-24	40 %	33 %

Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM).

Figure 4 below shows that the labour force participation rate experienced variation during the 2010s but remained well above the LAC average. The youth participation rate particularly fluctuated but on a longer declining trend – part of this related to higher enrolment in school (see more in Education section). LAC's youth participation rate experienced a similarly shrinking tendency staying below Bolivia's youth rate on the margin.

Figure 4: Labour force participation rate in Bolivia and the Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC), %, 2000-2020



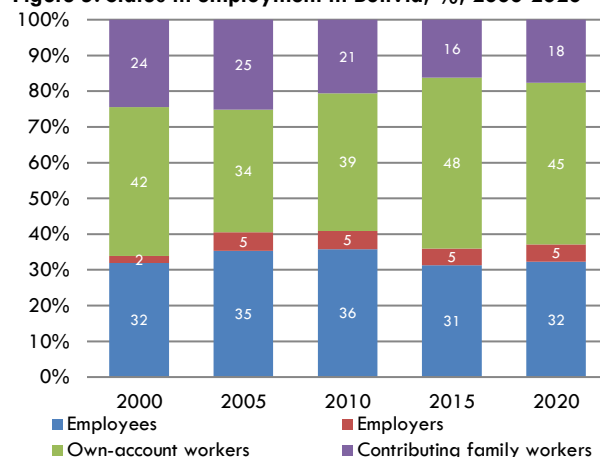
Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM).

Figure 5 projected that the employment status has only changed on the margin during the last two decades. First, the employers' share increased from 1.9% of the total employment in 2000 to 4.9% in 2020. It signals a vibrant entrepreneurship environment is in progress.

Second, employees (workers holding paid jobs on contract providing them with a remuneration not directly dependent upon the unit's revenue for which they work) take up around a third of total employment in 2020, like 2000. During the 2010s, employees' share declined, supporting the rising informal employment (see more in Informal Economy sub-section).

Third, the share of own-account workers (workers not engaged continuously and without any employees to work for them) and contributing family workers (workers with employment contracts that give them a basic remuneration) have decreased slightly, reaching 45% and 18% in 2020, respectively. These two latter groups – own-account workers and contributing family workers – are characterised as “vulnerable employed”: workers more likely to receive inadequate earnings, low productivity, and challenging work conditions that undermine workers' fundamental rights. The large share of vulnerable employed indicates a labour market based on a large degree of informality. Stated differently, the share of vulnerable employed fell by just three percentage points, from 66% in 2000 to 63% in 2020.

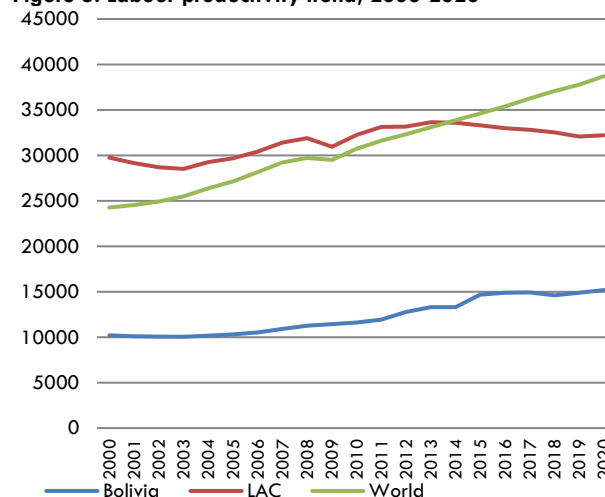
Figure 5: Status in employment in Bolivia, %, 2000-2020



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM).

Bolivia's labour productivity grew slowly during the last two decades but stalled since 2014. It was an impact of the dip in international energy prices that a central of the economic growth. It also signalled that the economy and the labour market had not realised a structural transformation to reduce its vulnerability to depend on a few sectors. The country's labour productivity remains significantly lower than in Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) and world averages (Figure 6).

Figure 6: Labour productivity trend, 2000-2020



Note: Labour productivity is estimated by 'lower-middle income' segments. Bolivia's labour productivity is defined as output per worker (i.e., GDP constant 2011 international US\$ in Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) while LAC and World apply constant 2011 international US\$ in PPP; and indexed year 2000 (=100).

Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM).

Bolivia's relatively low labour productivity is mirrored in high underemployment and skills mismatch, sticking to workers in the informal economy. It is worthwhile to mention that underemployment occurs when a person does not work full time or takes a job that does not reflect

their actual training and financial needs. Data show that a large share with less than primary education in positions requiring more education in Bolivia means many are under-educated. Over half of workers with secondary education are evenly distributed across jobs requiring less, that means over-educated. Around two out of five (42%) of tertiary grads have jobs requiring at least secondary education (over-educated).⁵¹

Micro, Small, and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs) accounted for around 99% of businesses. These comprise the primary source of employment, with about 83% of the workforce, contributing 26% of GDP. A central part of these micro- and small enterprises operates in the agriculture sector. More than 66% of SMEs functioned in the informal economy, which affected their ability to access financing and prevents them from achieving long term sustainable development. Only 42% of micro-enterprises and 60% of SMEs have a credit line or a bank loan.⁵² Besides, this structure of the enterprises also challenges the unionism and the scope of collective bargaining.

Unemployment

Bolivia's National Statistics Institute (NSI) registered the urban unemployment rate at 5% on average since 2015. The rate rose sharply during 2020, peaking at 11% in the third trimester as the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic.⁵³ Unemployment is much more present in urban zones than in rural areas. Other estimations based on ILO's 'strict' unemployment rate projected at 3.5% in 2019 and the youth unemployment rate of 6.9%, both with just minor gender gaps. This 'strict' rate covers everyone who does not exceed working for more than one hour per week.⁵⁴ Bolivia's unemployment rate was significantly lower than the South America average (see more details in Table 8).

Table 8: The unemployment rate in Bolivia and South America (SA), %, 2019

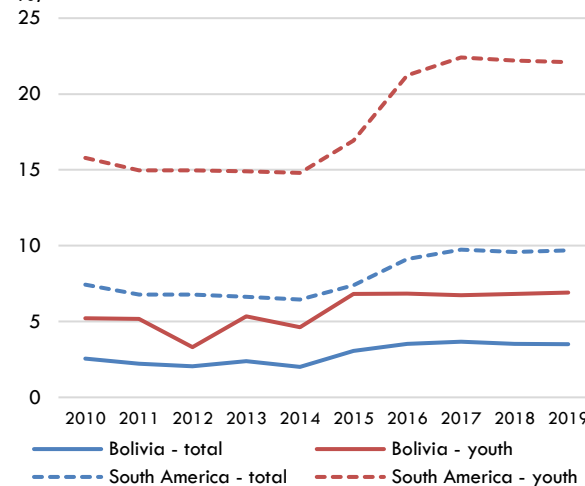
Type	Gender	Bolivia	SA
Unemployment	Total	3.5 %	9.7 %
	Men	3.3 %	8.4 %
	Women	3.8 %	11 %
Youth Unemployment (15-24)	Total	6.9 %	22 %
	Men	6.3 %	19 %
	Women	7.7 %	26 %
Composite rate of labour underutilisation *	Total	9.2 %	21 %
	Men	7.6 %	18 %
	Women	11 %	26 %

* The share of the workforce that are in unemployment, time-related underemployment, or the potential labour force.

Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM).

The country has the lowest unemployment rate in South America., Figure 7 demonstrates the unemployment rates during the 2010s for Bolivia and South America. Data show that the trend was on the rise during the 2010s. It resulted from a general economic deceleration known as a "slow-motion crisis": a contraction of economic activity triggered by the downturn in major exports' international prices.⁵⁵ It pushed the rise in the unemployment rates in 2015, mainly from youth, but stayed stable afterwards. It was the first sign of a reversal in economic growth that began at the 2000s. The quality of employment deteriorating. Informal employment, which had decreased from the previous decade, began to rise again in 2015. Another indicator of the deterioration in jobs' quality is that employees started to decline, and the proportion of own-account workers increased. This situation challenges the Sustainable Development Goal concerning, by 2030, achieving full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men (see more in SDG Table, Indicator 8.5.2, Page iv).

Figure 7: Unemployment trend in Bolivia and South America, %, 2010-2019



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM).

Bolivia's relatively low unemployment rate appears it is not a critical problem. However, coverage of unemployment protection schemes is scarce. Social protection policies are second-best to active policies specifically designed to increase the productivity and employability of vulnerable employment. Many people cannot survive without generating income to support the family, echoed in the country's widespread informal employment. Studies showed that labour market programmes have not helped expand the size of the formal market, apparently due to Bolivia's rigid labour and business regulations, not to mention labour policies mainly based on temporary employment programmes.⁵⁶ Although the labour force participation rate increased

since 2016, and both employees and unemployment segments stood stable, it pointed towards that more people entered vulnerable employment.

The Combined Labour Underutilisation (CLU) rate (unemployment, time-related underemployment, or the potential workforce) was estimated at 9.2% in 2019, with a gender gap at 3.4 percentage points: women being more likely to be in the potential workforce. The CLU rate declined by 2.5 percentage points from 2010 to 2019 but remains more than twice as high as the unemployment rate. This rate was significantly lower than South America average, at 21% (revisit Table 8).⁵⁷ Underlying changes in the demographic landscape and upsurge in enrolment in education supported the declining CLU rate.

Unemployment is concentrated among persons with higher education levels; as mentioned, unemployment is mostly an urban phenomenon. Unemployment by education is low among employed with less than basic education and only slightly among those with basic education (see more details in Table 9). The unemployment by education rate increased in the margin during the 2010s, from 2.3% in 2011 to 3.8% in 2019. This rate was like Peru's (3.4%) but significantly lower than the other neighbouring countries: Brazil (12%), Argentina (9.8%), and Chile (7.3%).

Table 9: Unemployment by education in Bolivia, % of employment distribution, age 15+, 2019

	Less than basic	Basic	Intermediate	Advanced
Total	0.9 %	3.2 %	5.2 %	7.1 %
Men	1.1 %	3.1 %	3.9 %	5.9 %
Women	0.7 %	3.2 %	7.1 %	8.5 %

Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM).

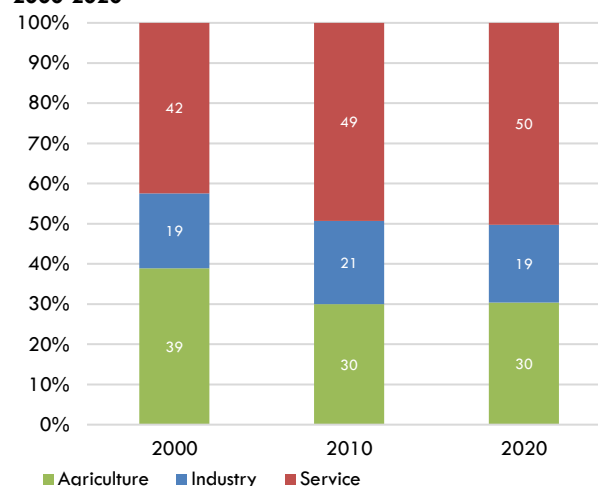
The unemployment rate is also a measure applied by the SDG's target by achieving full employment and decent work for all women and men (see SDG Table, Indicator 8.5.2, Page iv). It suggests the country is on the right stance. However, this measurement is lead astray somewhat, considering the widespread informal employment and relatively low labour productivity.

Sectoral Employment

Bolivia experienced some aggregate sectoral shifts of the employed during the 2000s from agricultural to the service sector. The industry sector did not progress. These changes were mostly in the 2000s (Figure 8). It suggests an economic transformation did not develop in the

country but got stuck in the mentioned "slow-motion crisis" during the 2010s. A central issue is that economic growth has been driven by the mining sector with a minimal share of employment. The industry sector's share of employment even dropped by two percentage points during the 2010s. This situation concerns lower-quality jobs: It is a regional phenomenon towards increasing engagement in the service sector and a decrease in industrial employment.

Figure 8: Employment by aggregate sector in Bolivia, %, 2000-2020



Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM).

Table 10 below depicts the sub-sectoral employment status. Some of the central observations are that men's shares dominate most sectors, except the significant higher women's share in the trade, restaurant/hotel sector and slightly to the community, social and personal services and 'other services.'

The agricultural sector is the largest occupying sector of around 1.7 million workers, equivalent to almost a third (30%). The second-largest share in the trade, restaurant/hotel sector (24%) followed by the manufacturing industry (10%).

As indicated above, the mining sector covered just 1.6% of the total employment. In the industry sector, manufacturing was the leading provider of jobs (10%), followed by construction (7.4%).

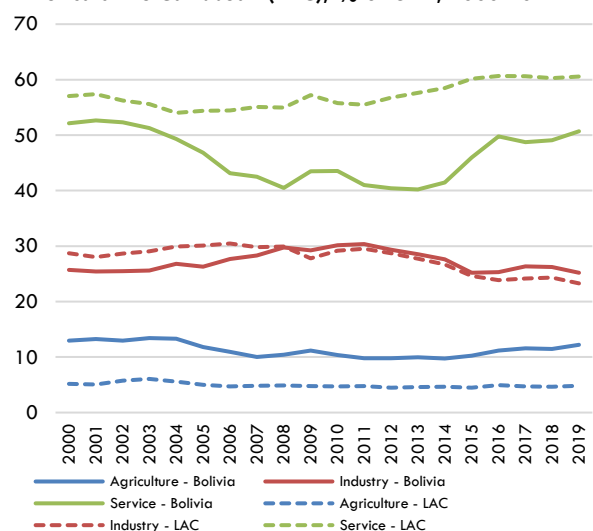
Table 10: Total employment per sector, sector employment share and ratio of men in sector employment in Bolivia, 2020

Sector	Total sector employment	Sector employment share, %	Ratio of men in sector employment, %
Agriculture	1,711,895	30%	56%
Mining & quarrying	92,713	1.6%	93%
Manufacturing	566,146	10%	60%
Electricity, gas & water	17,883	0.3%	85%
Construction	414,745	7.4%	97%
Trade, restaurants & hotels	1,365,403	24%	34%
Transport, storage & communication	422,450	7.5%	92%
Finance, real estate & business services	255,921	4.5%	57%
Community, social and personal services	530,095	9.4%	47%
Other sources *	260,306	4.6%	47%
Total	5,637,557	100%	56%

Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM).

The aggregated sectors' value-added share shown that the agricultural sector grew on three percentage points during the 2010s, taking up 13% of GDP in 2019. The industry sector's value-added dropped, reaching 25%. The service sector swelled at 50% (see Figure 9). Compared with Latin America and the Caribbean, Bolivia's agricultural sector provides a higher value-added share, while the service sector provides a lower share. Concerning the industry sector, the trends have been in par.

Figure 9: Sectors' value-added share in Bolivia and Latin America & the Caribbean (LAC), % of GDP, 2000-2019



Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators.

Taking into consideration that one out of three in employment was in agriculture, contributing 13% of GDP, it pointed towards relatively low labour productivity: agricultural sector's GDP share at US\$2,670 per workers per year. Many workers from this sector often lack education at higher-levels or access to capital, which restrains their productivity. The second-largest employment sector, the trade and hotel/restaurant sector, likewise had a relatively low share at 11% of GDP, estimated at US\$3,567 per workers per year. The very narrow employment in the mining sector at 1.6% had a relatively high share of 12% of GDP, equalled at US\$79,009 per worker per year. This latter sector is capital intensive and working conditions in many mines remain poor. More information on the GDP share by sector and per worker in Bolivia is available in Table 11.

Table 11: Share of GDP by sector and GDP per worker in Bolivia, 2015

Sector	GDP share by sector, %	GDP share by sector per worker, US\$
Agriculture	13%	2,670
Mining & quarrying	12%	79,009
Manufacturing	13%	7,558
Electricity, gas & water	2.5%	57,364
Construction	3.6%	3,203
Trade, restaurants & hotels	11%	3,567
Transport, storage & communication	11%	11,012
Finance, real estate & business services	12%	19,418
Community, social and personal services *	23%	8,951

* This indicator is interpreted as public administration.

Note: GDP share by sector per worker is calculated by the total GDP (current US\$) divided by GDP share per sector origin which then is divided in number of workers per sector.

Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) and CEPAL, Bolivia: Perfil Nacional Económico

The manufacturing sector's share of GDP peaked at 19% (US\$0.8 billion) in 1986 and gradually declining to 11% (US\$4.3 billion) in 2019.⁵⁸ Nevertheless, during the 2000s, there were significant investments in soybeans' processing and the manufacture of textiles, wood products, and soft drinks. Mostly textiles are produced in modern factories in La Paz and exported to the U.S. and Europe. Bolivia's manufacturing sector found it difficult to compete with imported Brazilian, Argentine, Chilean, Peruvian, and Asian manufactures. As previously mentioned, the minimum wage is relatively high in Bolivia,

which, to some extent, challenges their international competitiveness as well as a landlocked country. The weak evolution of the employment in the industry sector, especially manufacturing, is challenging the country's capacity of reaching the SDG to promote inclusive and sustainable industrialisation and, by 2030, significantly raise industry's share of employment and gross domestic product, in line with national circumstances, and double its share in the least developed countries (see also SDG table, Indicator 9.2.2, Page iv).

Migration

Migration is present in three distinct categories: internal migration (rural-urban, rural-rural, and urban-rural), net-migration (in- and out-migration) and refugeeing.

The Bolivian population experience a movement from rural areas to urban zones. It has been driven by poverty, searching for better job opportunities, not to mention better access to education and healthcare. Besides, climate change and environmental degradation affected agriculture, food security, and rural infrastructure. For example, climate changes prompted an exacerbated desertification. About 40% of Bolivia's' territory is affected by desertification which moved people towards cities. Working-age men and young people mostly drive the rural-urban migration flow; many women and the elderly remaining in the rural areas. Often, the rural population's livelihood strategies are complex, diversified, dependent on gender roles, and linked to land tenure entitlements in communities of origin.⁵⁹

The urbanisation rate had increased steadily from 65% in 2009 to 69% in 2019. It is expected to continue to expand in the next years.⁶⁰ The urbanisation rate stays relatively low in comparison to the neighbouring countries, except Paraguay: Argentine (92%), Brazil (87%), Chile (88%), and Peru (78%); and Paraguay (62%).

A large population segment is indigenous people who increasingly migrate to urban areas or experience their territories' urbanisation. This trend often puts them as being 'less authentic' than their rural counterparts. Urban zones are frequently considered as non-indigenous spaces linked to cultural biases. This urbanisation could cost exclusion, discrimination, and segregation for indigenous people. Nevertheless, indigenous residents in urban zones have initiated by organising around their indigenous identities and claiming their indigenous rights to the city.⁶¹

Table 12 below shows the net migration flow weighted by out-migration (emigration), that is, more leave than enter the country. However, this flow experienced a declining trend. These changes were backed by the global financial crisis in 2007-2008 and tightening immigration policies in the European Union and the United States. This situation relates to the flow of personal remittances (see more in Figure 10). Migration to Argentina and Brazil has increased instead.⁶² Especially clandestine textile factories with low labour standards in Argentina are infamous for employing trafficked Bolivian migrants.⁶³ The Argentine government has responded by calling for a border police force and some right-wing lawmakers calling for a wall.

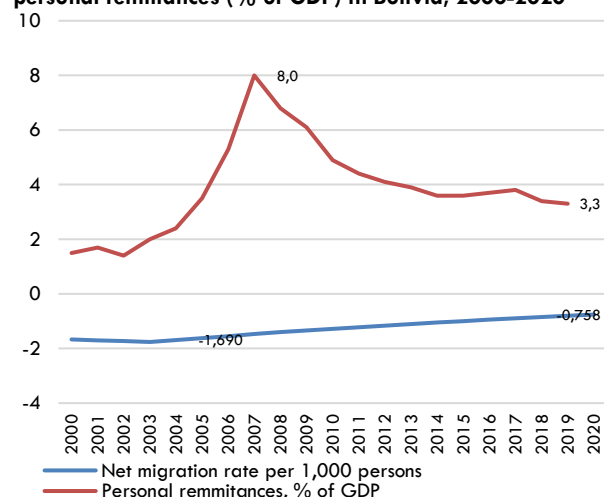
Table 12: Status of net migration flow and personal remittances

Theme	Country/region	Value
Net number of migration (2013-2017)	Bolivia	-47,520
Net migration rate per 1,000 population	Bolivia	-0.758 (2020)
		-1,283 (2010)
		-1,667 (2000)
Personal remittance (received), % of GDP (2015-2019, av.)	Bolivia	3.5 %
	Latin America & Carribean	1.6 %

* Net migration is the net total of migrants during a period of five years, i.e. the total number of immigrants less the annual number of emigrants, including both citizens and non-citizens.

Source: Macrotrends; World Bank, World Development Indicators.

Figure 10: Net migration rate per 1000 population and personal remittances (% of GDP) in Bolivia, 2000-2020



Source: Macrotrends, Bolivia Net Migration Rate 1950-2020; World Bank, World Development Indicators.

Around two million Bolivians live abroad, corresponding to a fifth of the country's population.⁶⁴ Several structural factors explain Bolivia's out-emigration linked to weaknesses in the education system, self-employment

with low-income jobs, lack of decent jobs that encourage young to emigrate to neighbouring countries.⁶⁵ Often, these migrants are engaged in precarious informal jobs and are not protected by the national legal frameworks. There are efforts underway to establish better migration laws.⁶⁶

The personal remittances fell from its peak at 8.0% of GDP in 2007 to 3.3% in 2019. It remains significantly higher than Latin America and the Caribbean average, at 1.6% (Table 12 and Figure 10). From a regional perspective, Bolivia's economy depends more on transfers from Bolivians outside the country to their families, friends, or communities. It is supported by the fact that poverty with remittance is significantly lower than those without, 27% vs 40%, respectively.⁶⁷ Besides, the foreign direct investment inflow to the country stayed much lower than the personal remittances (revisit Economic Performance section).

Under the United Nations Refugee Agency's (UNHCR) mandate, the registered Bolivian refugees had been steadily rising from 680 in 2010 to 863 in 2019. Still, they represented a minor share of the population at 0.007%. The asylum-seekers segment grew from zero in 2015/2016 to 36 in 2017/2018 and peaking at 240 in 2019. None internally displaced people (IPDs) were registered in Bolivia. Part of the economic and political crisis in Venezuela during the 2010s triggered a massive migration of around 5 million Venezuelans. For example, 1.8 million people have settled in Colombia, 861,000 in Peru, 456,000 in Chile, 366,000 in Ecuador, and 253,000 in Brazil. It was not until 2019, UNHCR registered 5,472 Venezuelan displaced abroad in Bolivia.⁶⁸

The migration flows got disrupted during 2020 as an impact of the Covid-19 pandemic. Bolivia and its neighbouring countries even closed their borders in several months. Many out-migrated workers got stuck in other countries and could not return. The global economic downturn most likely battered the personal remittances flow since many migrated workers lost their income.

Informal Economy

The informal economy is a central part of Bolivia's economy and employment. This group is neither income-taxed nor monitored by labour and business regulations.

The government developed a legal framework embroiled for private actions on productivity and formality, such as the General Act No. 356 of 2013 on

cooperatives and Act No. 2450 of 2003 regulating domestic work. The country also ratified the ILO Convention 189 on Decent Work for Domestic Workers in 2013, calling for legislative commitment at the national level to protect this group of workers. However, the country has not adopted any specific policy for the informal economy workers. No national institutions developed (forums, round tables, among others) to address this issue in a bi- or tripartite manner.⁶⁹

A recent analysis from the International Monetary Fund argued that the Bolivia's informal economy represented one of the largest shares in the world, measured at 62% of GDP.⁷⁰ Informal employed in non-agricultural employment is up to 80%, around 29 percentage points higher than Latin America and the Caribbean average. On the positive side, informal payments to public officials from firms fell significantly from 33% in 2006 to 19% in 2017. It signalled an improvement in some facets of the formalisation of businesses. See more details in Table 13.

Table 13: Status of informal economy in Bolivia and Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC)

Themes	Country/region	Value
Informal economy (% of GDP)	Bolivia (2018)	62 %
	LAC (2014)	40 %
Informal employed in non-agricultural employment	Bolivia (2019)	80 %
	LAC (2018)	51 %
Informal payments to public officials (% of firms) *	Bolivia (2017)	19 %
	LAC (2019)	11 %

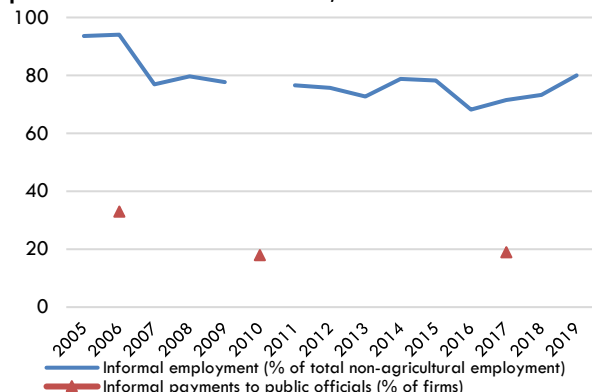
* Informal payments to public officials are the percentage of firms expected to make informal payments to public officials to "get things done" regarding customs, taxes, licenses, regulations, services, and the like.

Source: International Monetary Fund; International Labour Organisation; and World Bank.

The share of informal employed experienced a declining trend since 2007, reaching its lowest rate at 68% in 2016. However, it rebounded significantly in recent years as an impact of the economic slowdown (Figure 11 below). Reducing the informality in Bolivia is lagging and challenged by several aspects. A study's estimations showed that the Pension Act's implementation from 2010 created tax evasion and reduced the formal workforce.⁷¹ Also, high minimum wage increases generated some job evasion from the formal sector. Generally, business regulations stay cumbersome, and entrepreneurs often lack awareness or incentives for formalising their business, e.g., they do not perceive the benefits of formalising their micro and small enterprises.⁷² Many informal workers have little, if any, education; not to mention, many are part of the indigenous population. These aspects profoundly

challenge Bolivia capacity to reach the SDG's target to expand enterprises' formalisation (see more in SDG Table, Indicator 8.3.1, Page iv).

Figure 11: Informal employed and informal payments to public officials' trends in Bolivia, 2005-2019



Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators.

High informality in Bolivia is not only due to the rigid regulations and insufficient job creation of formal jobs but also exhibited in cultural heterogeneity. Some informality can be a voluntary choice given their preferences, skills, competing earnings prospects, and job characteristics.

Weaknesses in the scope on social safety nets mainly made informal workers suffer under the Covid-19 pandemic, as their income has shrunken drastically.⁷³ Living from hand-to-mouth makes a sudden lack of income and existential problems for many informal economy workers.

Child Labour

Although child labour experienced a significant drop during the 2010s, it continues being rampant in Bolivia. One of the improvements was when the country brought its labour legislation in line with international standards in December 2018, restoring the minimum age of child labour at 14 years. Legislation sets that work should not interfere with a child's right to education and should not be dangerous or unhealthy. The government furthermore boosted an initiative to tackle child labour in the agricultural sector through a certification scheme.

National survey data disclosed that the number of children in child labour (age 5 to 17) dropped by 51% from 2008 to 2016, reaching 393,000 children (13% of children).⁷⁴ The number of children in hazardous work also significantly plummeted by 79% in the same period, representing 5.1% of children. The broader share of children in employment fell by just three percentage

points since 2008, reaching 25%. Generally, child labour is considerably higher than the Americas region (see more in Table 14). Other comparative estimations of the proportion of children (age 5 to 17) engaged in economic activity and household chores were down to 11% in 2015 in Bolivia, which was lower than Paraguay (16%) and Peru (13%) but higher than Brazil (3.4%) and Chile (2.3%).⁷⁵

Table 14: Status of child labour in Bolivia and Americas, 2016

Country/Region	Type	Rate
Bolivia	Children in employment *	25 %
	Child labour **	13 %
	Hazardous work ***	5.1 %
Americas	Children in employment *	8.8 %
	Child labour **	5.3 %
	Hazardous work ***	3.2 %

* Children in employment: unpaid family workers are people who work without pay in a market-oriented establishment operated by a related person living in the same household.

** Child labour: work that is mentally, physically, socially, or morally dangerous and harmful to children; and interferes with their schooling.

*** Hazardous work: children in dangerous and unhealthy conditions that can lead to a child being killed, injured, or made ill because of poor safety and health standards or employment conditions.

Sources: Instituto Nacional de Estadística, *El trabajo infantil de las Niñas, Niños y Adolescentes se reduce, Junio 2018*; ILO, *Global estimates of child labour: Results and trends, 2012-2016*.

The impressive reduction in child labour during the 2010s connected to other changes. First, the child population cohort declined (revisit Figure 3). Second, the school enrolment in secondary education level rose fast as part of the growing urbanisation rate, not to mention increased funding for a conditional cash transfer programme aimed at bolstering school attendance. Third, these changes were further supported by the declining informal employed rate at the beginning of the 2010s.

Despite the national legislation being broadly in compliance with the ILO fundamental conventions, the country still faces challenges in preventing child labour and effectively enforcing the law in practice. For example, the Ministry of Work, Employment, and Social Security officials stated inspectors had conducted investigations, but the number of inspectors was considered insufficient to deter violations. Government officials listed instances of child labour violations occurred throughout the country, especially in the mining sector.⁷⁶ On this background, to achieve the SDG of eradicating child labour by 2025, the government needs to further accelerate the efforts (see more in SDG Table, Indicator 8.7.1, Page iv).

Generally, child labour is high in rural areas and more frequent among the indigenous population. Boys are slightly more likely to be engaged in child labour compared to girls. Older children were similarly more likely to be both employed and in hazardous work. Among the worst forms of child labour, including in forced labour, children often worked in the sugarcane and Brazil nut harvests, brick production, hospital cleaning, domestic labour, transportation, agriculture, and vending at night. There was little progress in removing children from mining activities.⁷⁷

Gender

Gender aspects in the labour market are linked to complex themes. Despite the advanced legal framework on protection women, widespread informality and cultural heritage halt its implementation in practice. Tackling the gender mechanisms has been considered weak but launched a new Plurinational Service for Women and Depatriarchalisation in January 2019. It is too early to assess the results of this novel institution.⁷⁸

Bolivia's society is shadowed by *machismo* that is part of Latin America culture. Moreover, around half of the Bolivian population identify as indigenous descendants, which keep cultural values that support traditional patriarchal gender roles. Women often feel discriminated in different aspects of their lives.⁷⁹ These dogmas often side-line women's role in decision-making processes and active participation in the labour market.

The gender disparities scope is reflected in data: the global Gender Inequality Index (GII) placed Bolivia as 101 out of 154 countries (1 is best) in 2018 value. What improved the country's ranking was mainly due to women's large share of seats in parliament, at 52% since 2014; it did not reach elected mayors just at around one out of ten. It is worthwhile to mention that one out of three judges in the highest court are women. The women's labour force participation rate stood five percentage points higher than Latin America and the Caribbean average. However, the maternal mortality continued relatively high and with a clear gender gap in the population with at least some secondary education.⁸⁰ The similarly Global Gender Gap Index (GGGI) 2020, measuring gaps and women's empowerment, ranked Bolivia at 42 out of 153 countries (1 is best). The GGGI focuses on measuring gaps rather than levels; gaps in outcome variables rather than gaps in input variables; ranks countries according to gender equality rather than women's empowerment. The country scores well in political empowerment (27) and health and survival (47),

but worse in economic participation (105) and educational attainment (96).⁸¹

Table 15 displays the scope of the gender gaps in other central labour indicators. It clearly shows that more women than men are in vulnerable employment and labour underutilisation. In contrast, more men than women are active in the labour market. However, at a regional perspective, Bolivia is together with Peru taking the lead in including women in the labour market.⁸²

Table 15: Estimation on workforce key indicators gender gaps in Bolivia, 2020

	Men	Women	Men/women ratio gap, percentage point (p.p.)
Employment	78 %	61 %	+17 p.p.
Unemployment	3.1 %	3.8 %	-0.7 p.p.
Labour underutilisation *	7.5 %	11 %	-3.7 p.p.
Employees	35 %	29 %	+6.0 p.p.
Employers	6.8 %	2.5 %	+4.2 p.p.
Vulnerable employment **	58 %	69 %	-11 p.p.

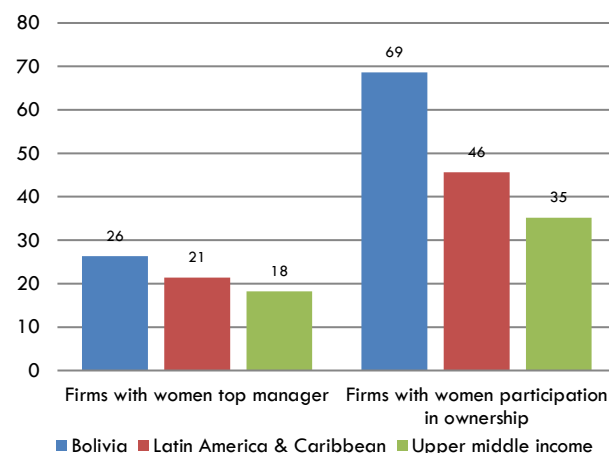
* Labour underutilization refers to mismatches between labour supply and demand, which translate into an unmet need for employment among the population. Imputed observations are not based on national data, are subject to high uncertainty and should not be used for country comparisons or rankings.

** Aggregated own-account workers and contributing family workers.

Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM).

The latest Enterprise Survey from 2017 reported that impressively 69% of firms had women participating in the ownership compared to Latin America and the Caribbean average, at 46%. Instead, 26% and 21% of firms had women as top managers, respectively (Figure 12).

Figure 12: Women in management and ownership, 2017



Source: World Bank, Bolivia Enterprise Survey, 2017

Among the urban population, close to one out of three women is without incomes of their own, and it has been stable during the last decade. Rural women populations without their revenues are significantly higher at 42% in 2018 than men at 7.8%; it fell by 10 percentage points from both since 2008.⁸³ Gender gaps are also present in wage gaps (revisit Working Conditions section).

Spanish is the dominant language in Bolivia, which includes formal enterprise practice. Many Bolivian women who live in rural communities do not speak Spanish and become excluded from the formal sector's possibilities. Reports argue that many companies prefer more men than women, to circumvent labour regulations such as maternity leave.⁸⁴ Around six of every ten women worked in the informal economy and were not protected under labour regulations in practice.

Youth

Youth enrolment in the labour market is entangled in different traits that influence their ability to engage and benefit from development initiatives in decision-making processes depending, for example, urban/rural, educated/non-educated, employed/not employed.

An updated national youth plan was not available. In 2018, Bolivian youth organisations' movement crafted an Agenda of Proposals for Public Politics (APPP) that contains 42 proposals based on the issues that challenge and motivate the younger generations. It is interesting to observe that the youth generation was quite active in protests during 2019 concerning Bolivia's criticised elected president for the fourth time.

Bolivia's youth population represented 2.2 million persons (age 15-24) out of which approximately 1.0 million were in employment in 2020. The formal sector does not create sufficient jobs for youth entering the labour market. Instead, this generation mostly gets more involved in informal activities. Even almost 50% of employed youth aged between 17 and 24 are not paid for their work. Besides, more and more enrolment at higher education levels improves their jobs opportunities supported by promoting education policy and mounting rural-urban migration.

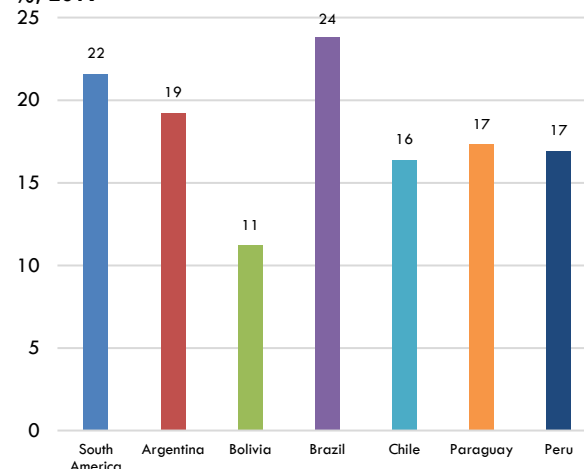
Several programmes target to strengthen youth employment in the formal sector: the Improving Employability and Labour Income of Youth Project and the My First Job with Dignity. These programmes demonstrated some improvement in employment and

working conditions for young people. The programmes' scope in beneficiaries has been limited, though.

The strict youth unemployment rate has not been a critical issue in Bolivia (revisit Table 8). This generation stick in relatively higher underutilisation and vulnerable working conditions. Youth is further hit harder by the economic downturn in 2020 as an impact of the Covid-19 pandemic. For example, young people face a more adverse scenario for their opportunities for educational continuity and entry into the labour market. It will affect their social and labour inclusion trajectories, especially among those belonging to the low-income segment.

The proportion of Bolivian youth not in employment, education, or training (the NEET rate) is mainly among women, at 18%. In contrast, it is down to 5.2% among men in 2019. The NEET rate was on a slow upturn by 1.4 percentage point from 2010 to 2019, reaching 11% in 2019 (see Figure 13). Besides, the total NEET rate stays relatively low compared to the neighbouring countries, which is interrelated to a stronger tradition of combining school with work or looking for work (as secondary activities).⁸⁵

Figure 13: NEET rate in Bolivia and neighbouring countries, %, 2019



Note: NEET rate is the proportion of youth not in employment, education, or training.

Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM).

Rural youth have less access to education than their urban counterparts. It is, in part, due to lack of household income leading families sending their youngsters to work. Lack of relevant education is another factor leading to young people in rural areas dropping out of school or migrating to cities (see more in Education section).⁸⁶

EDUCATION

Education in Bolivia has been marred by a divide between rural and urban areas launched several reforms of the education system during the last three decades. Some of the changes were in the Popular Participation Law of 1994 that decentralised the responsibility for education infrastructure and provision of school supplies to the municipal level, which included establishing participatory education councils and indigenous peoples. Although this reform became criticised by trade unions who argued they became side-lined, studies contended that the public education system generally improved, especially concerning increases in teachers' salaries.⁸⁷ The Avelino Siñani-Elizardo Pérez Law in 2010 is the latest significant reform of the education system, which introduced a new communitarian (plurinational) education system.⁸⁸ Key points include free primary education, harmonising rural and urban education, improving the teachers' education, recognising teachers' seniority and right to organise, and reaffirming indigenous languages and culture.⁸⁹ The implementation of this reform has been slow, challenged by under-funded public schools and maybe even a result of the criticised amended Child Labour Law from 2014. Other studies concluded that the reform has been successful at increasing school attendance.⁹⁰

The spoken languages in Bolivia are mainly in Spanish used by 73% of speakers. Native languages (Aymara, Quechua, Guaraní, among others) represent 26%. There is a marked difference in the language spoken between the rural and urban areas: for the former, 46% speak Spanish; for the latter, 85% of people speak it. This situation is a critical issue in the country's education system: weaknesses in bilingual education cost high school dropouts. During the 2010s, the government put more emphasis on education for rural and indigenous people. It included creating three inter-cultural community indigenous universities, one for the Aymara people; one for the Quechua, and another for the Guaraní. These programmes promote awareness-raising campaigns and educational addressing stereotypes and prejudices against indigenous peoples. In addition, legal literacy campaigns were implementing regarding their rights in the national context. It was essential to promoting understanding and co-existence between different population groups.⁹¹

In Bolivia, public expenditure on education is significantly high at 8.2% of GDP in 2016 compared to the neighbouring countries: Argentina (6.5%), Brazil (5.2%), Chile (5.0%), Paraguay (4.0), and Peru (3.6%).

Bolivia's literacy rate gradually grew from 56% of the population (25-64 years) in 1976 to 93% in 2015. It was mainly a hike among females by 48 percentage points, reaching 90% in the mentioned period; it increased 25 percentage points among males, peaking at 97%. Despite advancements in improving the education system, Bolivia's education infrastructure remains underdeveloped. It is reflected in different gaps, such as indigenous/non-indigenous, female/male, and rural/urban.⁹² For example, rural schools have insufficient access to proper sanitation stemming from a stigma and misconception about menstruation. Many females who pursue secondary and tertiary levels of education experience discrimination attached to indigenous or Afro-descendants.⁹³ Overall, around one-fourth (26%) employed in Bolivia have less than basic education: employed women are overrepresented in this group. Instead, men are more present among the basic and intermediate education levels. At the advanced level, the gender gap is just in the margin (see details in Table 16).

Table 16: Employment by education in Bolivia, % of employment distribution, age 15+, 2018

	Less than basic	Basic	Intermediate	Advanced
Total	26 %	30 %	24 %	20 %
Men	20 %	33 %	28 %	19 %
Women	33 %	26 %	20 %	21 %

Source: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM).

There are five years of elementary education at the primary school level in the primary cycle for 6- to 10-year-olds; three years of intermediate education in the middle schools for 11- to 13-year-olds. It is free and compulsory. Approximately 20% of children receive no benefit. School-time split into two shifts (morning and afternoon), which creates some pressure in the system.

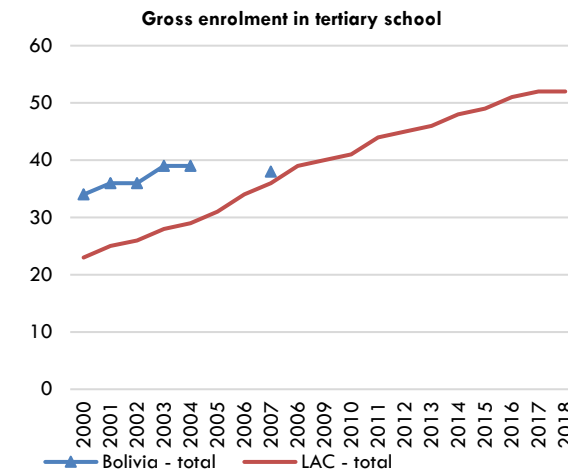
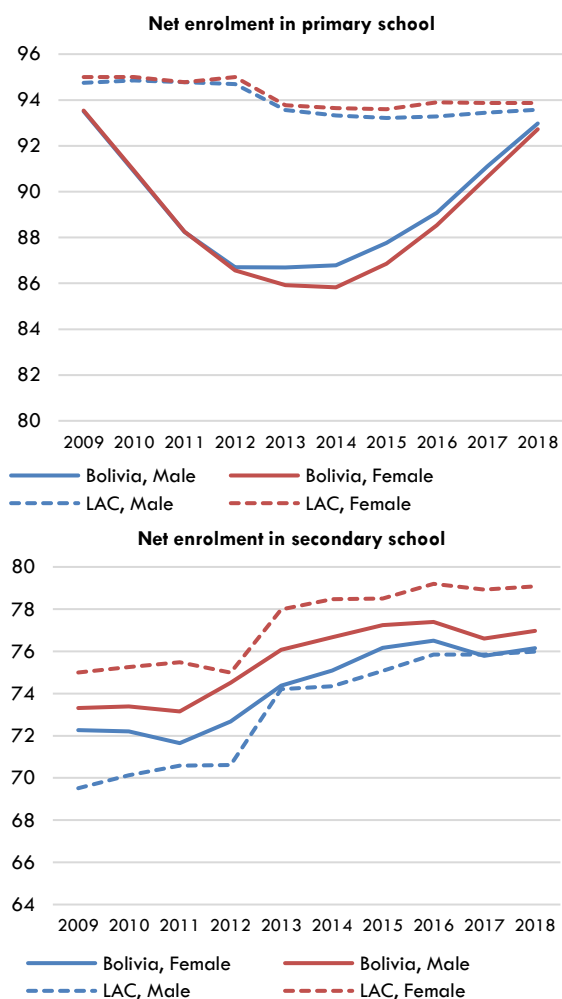
The net enrolment rate in primary school dropped at the beginning of the 2010s, which created a deep gap to Latin America and the Caribbean average. The rate rebounded since 2014 (Figure 14). Repeaters in primary education were 2.3%, and an effective transition rate from primary to lower secondary general education was at 97%. Children out-of-school grew at the beginning of the 2010s, peaking at 160,472 in 2014. Afterwards, it fell to 95,364 in 2018. Changes in the population structure could also save it.

The four years of secondary education are non-compulsory. At this level and above, the educational structure is somewhat skewed. A majority go to private schools; some of these based on the American model.

Others are religiously affiliated and espouse traditional values. During the 2010s, the secondary school's net enrolment rate increased in line to the regional average, just with a slight gap among Bolivian girls in 2018 (Figure 14). Generally, government spending per student in secondary education is relatively low at US\$1,235 (constant 2011 international US\$, PPP) compared to the neighbouring countries: US\$4,374 in Argentina, US\$3,438 in Brazil, 4,274 in Chile, US\$1,481 in Paraguay, and US\$2,016 in Peru.⁹⁴

Information is scarce for Bolivia's gross enrolment rate at the tertiary level. Data suggested that it stalled during the 2000s and supposedly superseded by the regional average (Figure 14). Other more recent INA data pointed out that 26% attained a higher education at the university level in 2015.⁹⁵

Figure 14: Enrolment in primary, secondary, and tertiary school, male and female, Bolivia and Latin America & Caribbean (LAC), %, 2000-2018



Note: Net enrolment is the ratio of children of official school age, who are enrolled in school to the population of the corresponding official school age. Gross enrolment is the ratio of total enrolment, regardless of age, to the population of the corresponding official school age. Source: World Bank, Education Statistics; KNOEMA.

In August 2020, as an impact of COVID-19, Bolivia cancelled the rest of its school year, instead of running digital classes as originally planned, as most children in the country do not have internet access.⁹⁶ It was somewhat patchy internet and media access that threatens to reduce the number of low-income groups that pursue higher education.⁹⁷

Vocational Training

Bolivia's constitution guarantees vocational education and humanist technical learning. As part of the broader reform of the education system in 2010, the government introduced a programme in 2012 that provided access to credit and training courses for an estimated 200,000 small-scale artisanal workers in the country.

Most of the formal vocational training centres provide qualifications for basic level technicians. They target school dropouts at the primary level and excluded people who had not completed secondary education. The centres often suffer from a lack of equipment in workshops just as many teachers and instructors are insufficiently trained or lack the technical skills they were supposed to teach. The vocational training system is considered uncoordinated and concentrated in urban areas.⁹⁸

Close to 789,000 students were enrolled in vocational training in 2018, close to half (49%) of these were females. The segment of vocational students increased by 13% from 2010 to 2018. Remarkably, the ratio of pupils in vocational training to all pupils in secondary education reached 63% in Bolivia, which was 52 percentage points higher than the regional average, at 11% (Table 17).

Table 17: Status of Vocational Training, 2018

Bolivia		Values
Pupils in vocational training		788,570
Growth in pupils in vocational training, 2010-2018		13%
Ratio of females in secondary vocational to all secondary vocational		49%
Comparative estimations	Country/region	%
Ratio of pupils in vocational to all pupils in secondary education, 2010-2018, average	Bolivia	63 %
	LAC	11 %

Note: Secondary vocational pupils represent the number of secondary students enrolled in technical and vocational education programmes, including teacher training.

Source: World Bank, Education Statistics.

In 2017, around 50% of Bolivian's firms offered formal training (firms offering formal training are the percentage of firms offering formal training programmes for their permanent, full-time employees). This rate fell by seven percentage points since 2010. Nevertheless, it stayed above Argentine (40%), Brazil (42%), Paraguay (46%); but lower than Chile (58%) and Peru (66%).⁹⁹ The contribution rate of TVET related payroll taxes was 1% for employers in Bolivia, which is similarly Paraguay (down to 0.75% in Peru), none in Argentine and Brazil. This relatively high tax rate has been associated with firms' tax benefits to incentivise investment in education and training for their employees.¹⁰⁰

Bolivia's education in Information and Communications Technology (ICT) has been haunted by digital divide in both a slower tempo compared to other Latin American countries and imbalances regarding the access to technology-learning among the low-income/rural groups. Its scope signalled that 38% of households have access to a computer and 24% to the internet in urban areas. In rural areas, these figures are 5.8% and 0.6%, respectively. Access to mobile telephony is 77% and 53%, respectively.¹⁰¹ At the education level, application of ICT tools in teaching is challenged by a lack of adequate computers, no connection of appropriate electric power, no internet connection, among others.¹⁰²

Among the unemployed youth, students with a vocational training certificate were relatively small since many end up finding paid jobs. For example, entrepreneurship courses help them set up their own small-scale business such as a car, computer, or mobile phone repair workshop; or become a farmer who knows how to profit. Nevertheless, many vocational training centres were reluctant to offer entrepreneurship courses as part of their curriculum.¹⁰³

A series of new initiatives to launch vocational training is in progress in Bolivia. For example, in 2018, a technical assistance project around vocational training in construction has been established for women prisoners to provide them with viable employment training opportunities after release.¹⁰⁴

SOCIAL PROTECTION

Bolivia is taken steps forward towards creating a national social protection floor. The social protection policies changed significantly and supported by the new Constitution from 2009. The social security system was set in the Law on Pensions from 2010 (see ahead). The country has a nearly comprehensive scope of legal coverage based on eight central statutory programmes: child and family, maternity (cash), sickness (cash), unemployment, disability/invalidity, survivors, and old age); just missing employment injury. The central ILO conventions on social protection (C102, C121, C128, and C130) are ratified; not yet the convention on unemployment benefits (C168) (see Appendix Table 23).

Table 18 shows the coverage of social protection in Bolivia. All persons above retirement age receive a pension. Around six million of the population are covered by health social security (short-term: 4.0 million persons and long-term: 1.9 million workers). More social protection coverage indicators are available in Appendix Table 25.

Table 18: Proportion of population covered by social protection systems in Bolivia, %, 2016

Group	Coverage
Health security coverage (2019)	66 %
Persons covered by at least one social protection benefit.	41 %
Persons above retirement age receiving a pension.	100 %
Persons with severe disabilities collecting disability social protection benefits.	2.1 %
Unemployed receiving unemployment benefits.	3.0 %
Mothers with newborns receiving maternity benefits.	52 %
Children and households receiving child and family cash benefits.	65 %
Poor persons covered by social protection systems.	80 %
Vulnerable persons covered by social assistance.	34 %

Source: Instituto Nacional de Estadística and ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM).

The coverage of social insurance programmes is targeting the wealthiest segments while the social safety net programmes are better directed towards the most

impoverished part. The social safety net programmes experienced growth in coverage for the most advantage group, but it was even increased higher among the most disadvantaged segments.

Privatisation of the pension system initiated in 1996, which included mandatory defined contribution private pillar. In the period from 2006 to 2010, the government and COB started discussions to undo this privatisation. Among others, COB agreed to suspend the mobilisation for higher wages in exchange for comprehensive pension reform (revisit Figure 2). The reformed constitution from 2009 banned private administration of social security schemes. Reversal of the privatisation and rebuilding a public pension system was approved by Law No 065 in December 2010, presenting a new public Pay-As-You-Go (PAYG) system, known as *Sistema Integral de Pensiones* (SIP). This reform achieved a series of improvements, for example, consolidation and expansion of the *Renta Dignidad* to all elderly residents.

The 2010 pension reform introduced mandatory coverage of self-employed consultants; improved gender equity with a reduction in mothers' retirement age for each child born alive, and a larger female share in the non-contributory pension. The pensionable age was reduced from 65 years to 58 years for men and 55 years old for women.¹⁰⁵ The pension system seeks to extend pension benefits to all workers, including those working in the informal economy.

The mentioned *Renta Dignidad* programme initiated in 2007 introduced the old-age pension with non-contributory components, achieving universal pension coverage.¹⁰⁶ The system is divided into two different schemes: mandatory individual account and universal pension. The pension provides benefit at two levels: 350 bolivianos (US\$51) per month/beneficiary without a contributory pension and 300 bolivianos (US\$43) for recipients of contributory schemes in 2020. The programme costs around 1% of GDP, financed from a direct tax on hydrocarbons and dividends from state-owned companies. The pension has led to a 14% poverty reduction at the household level.¹⁰⁷ While 83% of older women receive the non-contributory *Renta Dignidad*, it is down to 66% for older men.

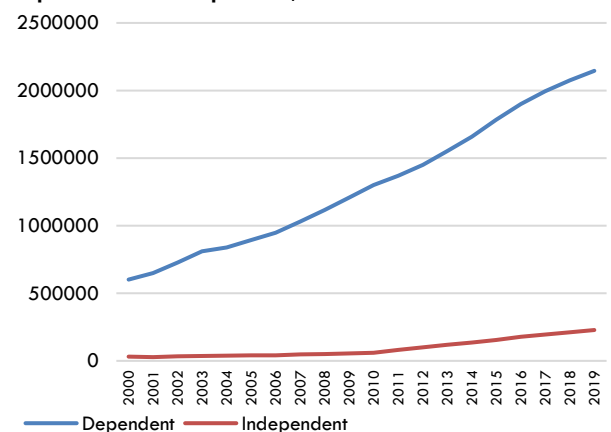
The pension reform also launched a semi-contributory tier and a solidarity pension, financed by a contribution partly paid by employers (who previously only contributed the employment-injury premium) and partly by the insured (particularly those with higher incomes). It

strengthened social solidarity with progressive effects on distribution.

Studies found many challenges in the aftermath of the 2010 pension reform. Contributory coverage remains relatively low and stagnant due to the widespread informal economy and evasion of labour and business regulations. In 2018, around 15% of the population covered by the system. Furthermore, contributions increased in the 'new' contributory scheme: employers' contribution of workers' pay increased from 2.7 to 4.8 times, which contrasted the ILO minimum standard: in the semi-contributory system, the workers' share in the two lowest levels is lower than the employers' share, while the opposite in the top two levels. Organised workers and employers do not participate in SIP administration.¹⁰⁸ The system has received criticism from teachers, factory workers and health workers, arguing that many workers without job stability will be marginalised from the retirement rights. There are still questions about how much the system departs from the existing market-based pension scheme and its financial sustainability.¹⁰⁹

Data revealed an upsurge in affiliation in pension funds from 633,152 in 2000 to 2,373,688 in 2019, a growth of 275% (see more in Figure 15). Since Bolivia's employment rate was around 5,5 million workers in 2019, the affiliation constituted 43%. As mentioned, the still significant gap in the coverage of affiliation in pensions remains challenged by the widespread informal economy.

Figure 15: Affiliated to pension funds in Bolivia, number of dependent and independent, 2000-2019



Source: Instituto Nacional de Estadística.

The healthcare scheme affiliation also expanded steady, from 18% in 2006 to 37% in 2018; then skyrocketed to 66% in 2019. This significant shift was a result of the new healthcare bill launched in February 2019. The legislation designed to provide comprehensive and free

medical care to more than five million citizens who do not have insurance. The scheme's coverage is supported mostly (98%) from the public sector. Besides, Bolivia's government is investing US\$200 million as part of a hospital plan, of which at least US\$30 million will be invested in specialist hospitals.

Table 19 below illustrates that the health expenditures' share of GDP has been slightly low compared to the regional average and significant monetary values gaps. In the Bolivian Constitution framework, all unpaid salaries, labour rights, social benefits, and contributions to the social security system rank above any other credits. Employers and employees must pay specific social security contributions. Data show that social contribution is likewise considerably lower than the regional average.

Table 19: Expenditure of health and social protection issues in Bolivia and Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC), 2010-2017 average

Service	Bolivia	LAC
Total health expenditure (% of GDP)	6.0 %	7.4 %
Current health expenditure per capita (current)	US\$169	US\$686
Public social security (excluding healthcare) (% of GDP) (latest year)	8.0 %	N/a
Social contributions (% of revenue) (latest year) *	7.0 %	12 %

* Social contributions include social security contributions by employees, employers, and self-employed individuals, and other contributions whose source cannot be determined. They also include actual or imputed contributions to social insurance schemes operated by governments.

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators and World Social Protection Report 2017-2019.

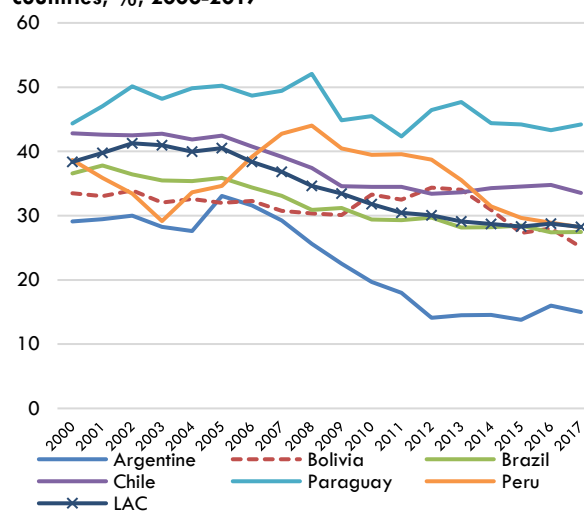
Bolivia's economy was hit hard by the Covid-19 pandemic. The poverty rate projected to increase around 1.3 percentage point (low scenario: 33.6%) to 3.2 percentage points (high scenario: 35.5%) in 2020. The country announced social protection measures for the population living in, or vulnerable to, poverty to address the pandemic's effects in cash transfers, new cash transfers, provisions of food and medicines, and basic services. Among others, Bolivia launched the Family Grant (*Bono Familia*), under which a one-time payment of 500 bolivianos (US\$70) provided to low-income families with children in primary school who are unable to receive school breakfasts during the quarantine. It is worth mentioning that since Bolivia's pension system, based on a substitutive model, will see a sharp reduction in cumulative funds and pension amounts for those about to retire.¹¹⁰

The National Health System (SNS) provides health insurance. There is a public implementation branch; a social insurance branch run by the National Health

Insurance Institute (INASES). A range of private providers also operate by NGOs, the Catholic Church, and private consultations. In recent years, the public health sector budget was affected by the economic downturn.

Figure 16 shows how Bolivia's share of health-care expenditure financed by private households' out-of-pocket payments (25%) situated above Argentina (16%) but below the rest neighbouring countries. The out-of-pocket payments have decreased by nine percentage points from 2000 to 2017.

Figure 16: Out-of-pocket expenditure as a percentage of total expenditure on health in Bolivia and neighbouring countries, %, 2000-2017



Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators.

Women have the right to safe maternity, with an inter-cultural practice and vision; they shall enjoy the special assistance and protection of the State during pregnancy and birth as well as prenatal and postnatal periods.¹¹¹ More than half of all women (52%) receive maternity benefits.

The social security system does not encompass unemployment insurance. Nevertheless, the Labor Code requires employers to provide severance pay to dismissed employees with more than 90 days of continuous employment. The payment amount is 100% of the employee's average monthly earnings in the last three months of occupation multiplied by the number of years (or a proportional sum for continuous employment of less than a year). Dismissed employees are covered for medical and maternity benefits for up to two months after employment ceases. Several employment programmes offer intermediation and advisory services to people looking for work and companies needing staff. Just 3.0% of the unemployed receive unemployment benefits (revisit Table 18).

APPENDIX: ADDITIONAL DATA

Table 20: Ease of Doing Business in Bolivia, 2019-2020

Topics	2019	2020	Changes
Overall	156	150	-6
Starting a Business	178	175	-3
Dealing with Construction Permits	160	139	-21
Getting Electricity	111	96	-15
Registering Property	148	148	0
Getting Credit	134	144	+10
Protecting Minority Investors	149	136	-13
Paying Taxes	186	186	0
Trading Across Borders	96	100	+4
Enforcing Contracts	113	109	-4
Resolving Insolvency	102	103	-1

Note: Doing Business 2019-2020 indicators are ranking from 1 (top) to 190 (bottom) among countries.

Source: World Bank, Ease of Doing Business 2020 in Bolivia.

Table 21: Major Legislation on Employment and Labour in Bolivia

Legislation
1. Constitution of the Plurinational State of Bolivia, 2009.
2. General Labour Act, 1939.
3. Decree enacting the Regulation of the General Labour Act, 1943.
4. Supreme Decree No. 107, 2009.
5. Supreme Decree, 2016 (No.2750).
6. Supreme Decree 28699, 2006.
7. Decreto Ley N° 16187 de 16 de febrero de 1979.
8. Supreme Decree, 2012 (No. 1212).
9. General Law on Occupational Health, Safety and Welfare, 1979.
10. Supreme Decree on Organizational Structure of the Executive, 2009 (No. 29894).
11. Ministerial Resolution on Labour inspection, 1987 (340/87).
12. Social Security Code, 1956.
13. Law on Pensions, 2010.
14. Comprehensive Law to Guarantee Women a Life Free of Violence, 2013 (No. 348).
15. Law against Racism and All Forms of Discrimination, 2010 (No. 45).
16. Penal Code, 1972.
17. Child and Adolescent Code, 2014.
18. Avelino Siñani-Elizardo Pérez Education Law, 2010.
19. Benefits of Integral Health Services Law, 2013 (No. 475)
20. Decree Law No. 13214 of 1975.
21. Supreme Decree that creates an incentive- bonus mother-child for a safe motherhood, 2009 (No. 0066).

Source: WageIndicator.org, Decent Work Check 2020: Bolivia.

Table 22: List of approved labour related legislations in Bolivia, 2014-2020

Type of legislation	Legislation
2014	
General provisions	Ley núm. 622, de 29 de diciembre de 2014, de Alimentación Escolar en el Marco de la Soberanía Alimentaria y la Economía Plural
	Decreto Supremo núm. 2167, de 29 de octubre de 2014, que aprueba la Política de Alimentación y Nutrición
	Ley núm. 516 de promoción de inversiones
Elimination of child labour, protection of children and young persons	Ley núm. 548 que dicta el Código Niña, Niño y Adolescente
Employment policy, promotion of employment and employment services	Decreto Supremo núm. 1959 que crea el Programa de Empleo Temporal (PET)
	Decreto Supremo núm. 1893 que reglamenta la Ley núm. 223 general para personas con discapacidad
Cooperatives	Decreto Supremo núm. 1995 que dicta el Reglamento de la Ley núm. 356, Ley General de Cooperativas
Occupational safety and health	Decreto supremo núm. 2235, de 31 de diciembre de 2014, que modifica el Decreto Supremo núm. 1557, de 10 de abril de 2013, que reglamenta la Ley núm. 315, de 10 de diciembre de 2012, de Seguro Privado de Vida e Invalidez Permanente por Accidentes, Enfermedades en General u Otras Causas, para las trabajadoras y los trabajadores de la Prensa de Bolivia "Hermanos Peñasco Layme", modificada por la Ley núm. 554, de 1 de agosto de 2014
	Ley núm. 573, de 11 de septiembre de 2014, que norma el acceso a los beneficios del Sistema Integral de Pensiones con reducción de edad para trabajos en condiciones insalubres
	Ley núm. 554, de 1 de agosto de 2014, que modifica la Ley núm. 315, de 10 de diciembre de 2012
Social security (general standards)	Decreto supremo núm. 2235, de 31 de diciembre de 2014, que modifica el Decreto Supremo núm. 1557, de 10 de abril de 2013, que reglamenta la Ley núm. 315, de 10 de diciembre de 2012, de Seguro Privado de Vida e Invalidez Permanente por Accidentes, Enfermedades en General u Otras Causas, para las trabajadoras y los trabajadores de la Prensa de Bolivia "Hermanos Peñasco Layme", modificada por la Ley núm. 554, de 1 de agosto de 2014
	Ley núm. 622, de 29 de diciembre de 2014, de Alimentación Escolar en el Marco de la Soberanía Alimentaria y la Economía Plural
	Decreto Supremo núm. 2152, de 22 de octubre de 2014, que reglamenta el pago de aguinaldo a los beneficiarios de la Renta Universal de Vejez (Renta Dignidad)
	Ley núm. 573, de 11 de septiembre de 2014, que norma el acceso a los beneficios del Sistema Integral de Pensiones con reducción de edad para trabajos en condiciones insalubres
	Ley núm. 562, de 27 de agosto de 2014, que establece el pago de aguinaldo a los beneficiarios de la Renta Universal de Vejez (Renta Dignidad)
	Decreto Supremo núm. 1888 que complementa y modifica el Reglamento de Desarrollo Parcial a la Ley núm. 065 de pensiones en materia de prestaciones de vejez, prestaciones solidarias de vejez, prestaciones por riesgos, pensiones por muerte derivadas de éstas y otros beneficios, aprobado por Decreto Supremo núm. 0822, de 16 de marzo de 2011
Migrant workers	Decreto Supremo núm. 1923 que reglamenta la Ley núm. 370 de migración
Indigenous and tribal peoples	Ley núm. 502 de ampliación del plazo y modificación a la Ley núm. 337 de apoyo a la producción de alimentos y restitución de bosques
Specific categories of workers	Ley núm. 545, de 14 de julio de 2014, que ratifica el Convenio núm. 167 (Convenio Sobre Seguridad y Salud en la Construcción) de la Organización Internacional del Trabajo
	Ley de minería y metalurgia
2015	
General provisions	Decreto Supremo núm. 2483, de 26 de agosto de 2015, que crea el Fondo de Desarrollo Indígena y dispone la liquidación del Fondo de Desarrollo para los Pueblos Indígenas, Originarios y Comunidades Campesinas (FDPPIOYCC)
Freedom of association, collective bargaining and industrial relations	Decreto Supremo núm. 2349, de 1 de mayo de 2015, sobre el trámite de la personalidad jurídica de Sindicatos, Federaciones, Confederaciones y Centrales Obreras cuyo objeto sea la defensa de sus derechos laborales
Education, vocational guidance and training	Decreto Supremo núm. 2506, de 2 de septiembre de 2015, que regula el subsidio de incentivo a la permanencia escolar denominado Bono "Juancito Pinto", para el año 2015

Conditions of employment	Decreto Supremo núm. 2348, de 1 de mayo de 2015, que establece los requisitos y procedimientos que deberán cumplir las empresas públicas y las empresas en las cuales el Estado tenga mayoría accionaria, para beneficiar a sus trabajadoras y trabajadores del incremento salarial
Social security (general standards)	Ley núm. 754, de 27 de octubre de 2015, que establece una dotación gratuita de medicamentos antihemofílicos para pacientes que no cuentan con seguro de salud y que reciben tratamiento en establecimientos de salud públicos
	Decreto Supremo núm. 2480, de 6 de agosto de 2015, que instituye el "Subsidio Universal Prenatal por la Vida"
Maternity protection	Decreto Supremo núm. 2480, de 6 de agosto de 2015, que instituye el "Subsidio Universal Prenatal por la Vida"
Indigenous and tribal peoples	Decreto Supremo núm. 2483, de 26 de agosto de 2015, que crea el Fondo de Desarrollo Indígena y dispone la liquidación del Fondo de Desarrollo para los Pueblos Indígenas, Originarios y Comunidades Campesinas (FDPPIOYCC)
Specific categories of workers	Ley núm. 721, de 12 de agosto de 2015, que reconoce trabajos insalubres del sector minero
	Decreto Supremo núm. 2348, de 1 de mayo de 2015, que establece los requisitos y procedimientos que deberán cumplir las empresas públicas y las empresas en las cuales el Estado tenga mayoría accionaria, para beneficiar a sus trabajadoras y trabajadores del incremento salarial
2016	
General provisions	Ley núm. 798, de 25 de abril de 2016, que modifica los artículos 1, 2 y 3 de la Ley núm. 252, de 3 de julio de 2012
Cooperatives	Ley núm. 823, de 19 de agosto de 2016, que modifica la Ley núm. 356, de 11 de abril de 2013, General de Cooperativas
Education, vocational guidance and training	Ley núm. 842, de 12 de octubre de 2016, que ratifica el "Acuerdo sobre la Creación e Implementación de un Sistema de Acreditación de Carreras Universitarias para el Reconocimiento Regional de la Calidad Académica de las respectivas titulaciones en el MERCOSUR y Estados Asociados"
Indigenous and tribal peoples	Ley núm. 813, de 12 de Julio de 2016, que crea la Unidad Territorial "Territorio Indígena Originario Campesino de Raqaypampa"
Occupational safety and health	Decreto Supremo núm. 2936, de 5 de octubre de 2016, que reglamenta la Ley núm. 545, de 14 de julio de 2014, que ratifica el Convenio núm. 167 "Convenio Sobre Seguridad y Salud en la Construcción", de la Organización Internacional del Trabajo – OIT
Specific categories of workers	Decreto Supremo núm. 2950, de 14 de octubre de 2016, que instituye incentivos a maestras y maestros que participen en el desarrollo de los procesos educativos de la "Educación Sociocomunitaria en Casa para Personas con Discapacidad" a desarrollarse en el Sistema Educativo Plurinacional
	Decreto Supremo núm. 2936, de 5 de octubre de 2016, que reglamenta la Ley núm. 545, de 14 de julio de 2014, que ratifica el Convenio núm. 167 "Convenio Sobre Seguridad y Salud en la Construcción", de la Organización Internacional del Trabajo – OIT
2017	
General provisions	Ley núm. 997, de 13 de noviembre de 2017, que modifica la Ley núm. 370 de 8 de mayo de 2013, de Migración
	Ley núm. 936, de 3 de mayo de 2017, que establece modificaciones e incorporaciones a la Ley núm. 1005, de 15 de diciembre de 2017, que sanciona el Código del Sistema Penal
	Ley núm. 977, de 26 de septiembre de 2017, de inserción laboral y de ayuda económica para personas con discapacidad
Equality of opportunity and treatment	Ley núm. 977, de 26 de septiembre de 2017, de inserción laboral y de ayuda económica para personas con discapacidad
Social security (general standards)	Ley núm. 959, de 19 de junio de 2017, que promueve la implementación de programas y proyectos de vivienda social
	Ley núm. 922, de 29 de marzo de 2017, que establece la libre afiliación al subsector público de salud
	Ley núm. 890, de 26 de enero de 2017, que modifica el artículo 8 del Decreto Ley núm. 13214 de 24 de diciembre de 1975, elevado a rango de Ley mediante la Ley núm. 006 de 1 de mayo de 2010, en cuanto al "Aviso de Baja de Asegurado"
Medical care and sickness benefits	Ley núm. 922, de 29 de marzo de 2017, que establece la libre afiliación al subsector público de salud
Social assistance and services	Ley núm. 959, de 19 de junio de 2017, que promueve la implementación de programas y proyectos de vivienda social
International agreements	Ley núm. 1011, de 26 de diciembre de 2017, que ratifica el "Protocolo a la Convención Americana de Derechos Humanos relativo a la Abolición de la Pena de Muerte", adoptado el 8 de junio de 1990
	Ley núm. 998, de 27 de noviembre de 2017, que ratifica el "Protocolo de Enmienda del Acuerdo de Marrakech por el que se establece la Organización Mundial del Comercio", adoptado en Ginebra, Confederación Suiza, el 27 de noviembre de 2014.

	<p>Ley núm. 967, de 2 de agosto de 2017, que ratifica el "Convenio Suprimiendo la Exigencia de Legalización de los Documentos Públicos Extranjeros" (Convención de La Haya sobre la Apostilla)</p> <p>Ley núm. 905, de 22 de febrero de 2017, que ratifica la "Enmienda de la Convención sobre Protección Física de Materiales Nucleares"</p>
Other international agreements	<p>Ley núm. 1011, de 26 de diciembre de 2017, que ratifica el "Protocolo a la Convención Americana de Derechos Humanos relativo a la Abolición de la Pena de Muerte", adoptado el 8 de junio de 1990</p> <p>Ley núm. 998, de 27 de noviembre de 2017, que ratifica el "Protocolo de Enmienda del Acuerdo de Marrakech por el que se establece la Organización Mundial del Comercio", adoptado en Ginebra, Confederación Suiza, el 27 de noviembre de 2014.</p> <p>Ley núm. 967, de 2 de agosto de 2017, que ratifica el "Convenio Suprimiendo la Exigencia de Legalización de los Documentos Públicos Extranjeros" (Convención de La Haya sobre la Apostilla)</p> <p>Ley núm. 905, de 22 de febrero de 2017, que ratifica la "Enmienda de la Convención sobre Protección Física de Materiales Nucleares"</p>
2018	
General provisions	<p>Ley núm. 1139, de 20 de diciembre de 2018, que modifica las leyes núm. 254, "Código Procesal Constitucional", núm. 548, "Código Niña, Niño y Adolescente", y núm. 1104 de "Creación de Salas Constitucionales"</p> <p>Ley núm. 1093, de 29 de agosto de 2018, que modifica la Ley núm. 1768, de 10 de marzo de 1997, "Código Penal"</p> <p>Ley núm. 1027, de 25 de enero de 2018, que abroga la Ley núm. 1005, de 15 de diciembre de 2017, "Código del Sistema Penal"</p>
Elimination of child labour, protection of children and young persons	<p>Ley núm. 1139, de 20 de diciembre de 2018, que modifica las leyes núm. 254, "Código Procesal Constitucional", núm. 548, "Código Niña, Niño y Adolescente", y núm. 1104 de "Creación de Salas Constitucionales"</p>
Social security (general standards)	<p>Decreto Supremo núm. 3561, 16 de mayo de 2018, que crea la Autoridad de Supervisión de la Seguridad Social de Corto Plazo</p> <p>Decreto Supremo núm. 3648, 22 de agosto de 2018, que modifica el Decreto Supremo núm. 1984, de 30 de abril de 2014</p>
International agreements	<p>Ley núm. 1136, de 20 de diciembre de 2018, que ratifica las "Enmiendas al Tratado para la Proscripción de las Armas Nucleares en la América Latina"</p> <p>Ley núm. 1137, de 20 de diciembre de 2018, que ratifica el "Tratado de Marrakech para facilitar el acceso a las obras publicadas a las personas ciegas, con discapacidad visual o con otras dificultades para acceder al texto impreso"</p> <p>Ley núm. 1116, de 29 de octubre de 2018, que ratifica el "Acuerdo entre el Gobierno de la República de Bolivia y el Gobierno de la República Federativa del Brasil sobre el ejercicio de actividad remunerada para dependientes del personal Diplomático, Consular, Militar, Administrativo y Técnico"</p> <p>Ley núm. 1108, de 5 de octubre de 2018, que ratifica el "Protocolo relativo a una enmienda al Convenio sobre Aviación Civil Internacional [Artículo 50 a)]" y el "Protocolo relativo a una enmienda al Convenio sobre Aviación Civil Internacional [Artículo 56]"</p>
Other international agreements	<p>Ley núm. 1136, de 20 de diciembre de 2018, que ratifica las "Enmiendas al Tratado para la Proscripción de las Armas Nucleares en la América Latina"</p> <p>Ley núm. 1137, de 20 de diciembre de 2018, que ratifica el "Tratado de Marrakech para facilitar el acceso a las obras publicadas a las personas ciegas, con discapacidad visual o con otras dificultades para acceder al texto impreso"</p> <p>Ley núm. 1108, de 5 de octubre de 2018, que ratifica el "Protocolo relativo a una enmienda al Convenio sobre Aviación Civil Internacional [Artículo 50 a)]" y el "Protocolo relativo a una enmienda al Convenio sobre Aviación Civil Internacional [Artículo 56]"</p>
2019	
General provisions	<p>Ley núm. 1182, de 23 de mayo de 2019, que ratifica el "Acuerdo Regional sobre el Acceso a la Información, la Participación Pública y el Acceso a la Justicia en Asuntos Ambientales en América Latina y el Caribe"</p> <p>Ley núm. 1167, de 11 de abril de 2019, que ratifica la "Convención Conjunta sobre Seguridad en la Gestión del Combustible Gastado y sobre Seguridad en la Gestión de Desechos Radiactivos"</p> <p>Ley núm. 1156, de 12 de marzo de 2019, que modifica la Ley núm. 321, de 18 de diciembre de 2012</p>
Environmental, climate and sustainable development laws	<p>Ley núm. 1167, de 11 de abril de 2019, que ratifica la "Convención Conjunta sobre Seguridad en la Gestión del Combustible Gastado y sobre Seguridad en la Gestión de Desechos Radiactivos"</p> <p>Ley núm. 1182, de 23 de mayo de 2019, que ratifica el "Acuerdo Regional sobre el Acceso a la Información, la Participación Pública y el Acceso a la Justicia en Asuntos Ambientales en América Latina y el Caribe"</p>

Occupational safety and health	Ley núm. 1155, de 12 de marzo de 2019, que establece el Seguro Obligatorio de Accidentes de la Trabajadora y el Trabajador en el Ámbito de la Construcción
Social security (general standards)	Ley núm. 1152, de 20 de febrero de 2019, que modifica la Ley núm. 475, de 30 de diciembre de 2013, de Prestaciones de Servicios de Salud Integral del Estado Plurinacional de Bolivia, modificada por Ley núm. 1069, de 28 de mayo de 2018, "Hacia el Sistema Único de Salud, Universal y Gratuito"
Specific categories of workers	Ley núm. 1153, de 25 de febrero de 2019, que modifica la Ley núm. 348, de 9 de marzo de 2013, "Ley Integral para Garantizar a las Mujeres una Vida Libre de Violencia"
International agreements	Ley núm. 1182, de 23 de mayo de 2019, que ratifica el "Acuerdo Regional sobre el Acceso a la Información, la Participación Pública y el Acceso a la Justicia en Asuntos Ambientales en América Latina y el Caribe"
	Ley núm. 1162, de 11 de abril de 2019, que ratifica el "Tratado sobre la Prohibición de las Armas Nucleares", adoptado por la Conferencia de las Naciones Unidas el 7 de julio de 2017
	Ley núm. 1164, de 11 de abril de 2019, que ratifica las "Enmiendas al Estatuto de Roma de la Corte Penal Internacional relativas al Crimen de Agresión", adoptadas el 11 de junio de 2010 por la Conferencia de Revisión del Estatuto de Roma de la Corte Penal Internacional
	Ley núm. 1166, de 11 de abril de 2019, que ratifica la "Convención sobre Seguridad Nuclear", aprobada el 17 de junio de 1994 en una Conferencia Diplomática convocada por el Organismo Internacional de Energía Atómica, celebrada en su Sede, Viena, República de Austria
	Ley núm. 1167, de 11 de abril de 2019, que ratifica la "Convención Conjunta sobre Seguridad en la Gestión del Combustible Gastado y sobre Seguridad en la Gestión de Desechos Radiactivos"
Other international agreements	Ley núm. 1182, de 23 de mayo de 2019, que ratifica el "Acuerdo Regional sobre el Acceso a la Información, la Participación Pública y el Acceso a la Justicia en Asuntos Ambientales en América Latina y el Caribe"
	Ley núm. 1162, de 11 de abril de 2019, que ratifica el "Tratado sobre la Prohibición de las Armas Nucleares", adoptado por la Conferencia de las Naciones Unidas el 7 de julio de 2017
	Ley núm. 1164, de 11 de abril de 2019, que ratifica las "Enmiendas al Estatuto de Roma de la Corte Penal Internacional relativas al Crimen de Agresión", adoptadas el 11 de junio de 2010 por la Conferencia de Revisión del Estatuto de Roma de la Corte Penal Internacional
	Ley núm. 1166, de 11 de abril de 2019, que ratifica la "Convención sobre Seguridad Nuclear", aprobada el 17 de junio de 1994 en una Conferencia Diplomática convocada por el Organismo Internacional de Energía Atómica, celebrada en su Sede, Viena, República de Austria
	Ley núm. 1167, de 11 de abril de 2019, que ratifica la "Convención Conjunta sobre Seguridad en la Gestión del Combustible Gastado y sobre Seguridad en la Gestión de Desechos Radiactivos".
2020	
General provisions	Decreto Presidencial núm. 4226, de 4 de mayo de 2020, que establece la concesión de amnistía o indulto por razones humanitarias en el marco de la emergencia sanitaria nacional, en todo el territorio del Estado Plurinacional.

Source: ILO, NATLEX, Country Profile, Basic Laws, Bolivia.

Table 23: Ratified ILO Conventions in Bolivia

Subject and/or right	Convention	Ratification date
Fundamental Conventions		
Freedom of association and collective bargaining	C087 - Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise, 1948	1965
	C098 - Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949	1973
Elimination of all forms of forced labour	C029 - Forced Labour Convention, 1930	2005
	C105 - Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957	1990
Effective abolition of child labour	C138 - Minimum Age Convention, 1973	1997
	C182 - Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999	2003
Elimination of discrimination in employment	C100 - Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951	1973
	C111 - Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958	1977
Governance Conventions		
Labour inspection	C081 - Labour Inspection Convention, 1947	1973
	C129 - Labour Inspection (Agriculture) Convention, 1969	1977
Employment policy	C122 - Employment Policy Convention, 1964	1977
Tripartism	C144 - Tripartite Consultation (International Labour Standards) Convention, 1976	Not ratified
Technical Conventions (Up-to-date)		
Working time	C014 - Weekly Rest (Industry) Convention, 1921 (No. 14)	1954
	C106 - Weekly Rest (Commerce and Offices) Convention, 1957	1973
Elimination of child labour and protection of children and young persons	C077 - Medical Examination of Young Persons (Industry) Convention, 1946	1973
	C078 - Medical Examination of Young Persons (Non-Industrial Occupations) Convention, 1946	1973
	C124 - Medical Examination of Young Persons (Underground Work) Convention, 1965	1977
Wages	C095 - Protection of Wages Convention, 1949	1977
	C131 - Minimum Wage Fixing Convention, 1970	1977
Social security	C102 - Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952	1977
	C118 - Equality of Treatment (Social Security) Convention, 1962	1977
	C121 - Employment Injury Benefits Convention, 1964	1977
	C128 - Invalidity, Old-Age and Survivors' Benefits Convention, 1967	1977
	C130 - Medical Care and Sickness Benefits Convention, 1969	1977
Occupational Safety and Health	C120 - Hygiene (Commerce and Offices) Convention, 1964	1977
	C162 - Asbestos Convention, 1986	1990
	C167 - Safety and Health in Construction Convention, 1988	2015
Equality of opportunity and treatment	C156 - Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention, 1981	1998
Employment policy and promotion	C159 - Vocational Rehabilitation and Employment (Disabled Persons) Convention, 1983	1996
Labour administration and inspection	C160 - Labour Statistics Convention, 1985	1990
Indigenous and tribal peoples	C169 - Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention, 1989	1991
Specific categories of workers	C189 - Domestic Workers Convention, 2011	2013

Note: Fundamental Conventions are the eight most important ILO conventions that cover four fundamental principles and rights at work. Governance Conventions are four conventions that the ILO has designated as important to building national institutions and capacities that serve to promote employment. There are also 73 Technical Conventions, which ILO considers "up-to-date" and actively promoted.

Source: ILO, NORMLEX, Country Profiles, Bolivia.

Table 24: Trade Union members in Bolivia

Trade Union Centre / Trade Unions	National affiliation	Total Members	Female Members	Dues US\$ per month
COB - Central Obrera Boliviana	N/a	2,000,000	-	-
CSTSPB - Confederacion Sindical de Trabajadores en Salud Bolivia (health workers) *	COB	13,000	-	0.7
CONMERB Confederacion Nacional de Maestros de Educacion Rural en Bolivia (rural teachers)	COB	60,000	70 %	0.7
CTEUB - Confederacion de Trabajadores de Educacion Urbana de Bolivia (urban teachers)	COB	95,000	60 %	4.4
CSUTCB - Confederación Sindical Única de Trabajadores Campesinos de Bolivia (highland peasants' union)	COB	100,000	-	-
FENATRAM - Federación Nacional de Trabajadores Municipales de Bolivia	COB	20,000	-	-
FNMCB-BS - Federación Nacional de Mujeres Campesinas de Bolivia – Bartolina Sisa (women peasants' union)	COB	-	-	-
CSCIB - Confederación Sindical de Comunidades Interculturales de Bolivia (migrants from the indigenous peasant communities of the Altiplano and the valleys)	COB	-	-	-
FSTMB - Federación Sindical de Trabajadores Mineros de Bolivia (miners)	COB	-	-	-
FNCMB - Federación Nacional cooperativistas Mineros de Bolivia	COB	-	-	-
CGTFB - Confederación de Trabajadores Fabriles (manufacturing)	COB	-	-	-
Gremiales (informal workers association)	COB	-	-	-
CUB - Confederación Universitarios de Bolivia	COB	-	-	-
MST - Movimiento Sin Tierra (landless)	Not aff. to COB	-	-	-
FEJUVE - Federacion de Juntas Vecinales (urban)	Not aff. to COB	-	-	-

* The CSTSPB includes non-licensed nurses, X-ray workers, stretcher-bearers, administrative staff of hospitals and health posts, ambulance drivers, etc.).

Source: DTDA data-collection tool, ICTUR & <http://www.boliviainfoforum.org.uk>.

Table 25: Social protection coverage in Bolivia, % of population, 2016

Group	Coverage
Coverage of social protection and labour programmes	84 %
Poor persons covered by social protection systems	80 %
Coverage of social safety net programmes	78 %
Coverage of social insurance programmes	8.0 %

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

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