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► Non-standard forms of employment in Guyana



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Nadimah Mohammed



A barber plying his trade. Photo compliments rawpixel.com free photos

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► List of definitions

Non-standard forms of employment

Non-standard forms of employment are broadly defined as those employment arrangements which deviate from the “standard employment relationship”; that is work that is “full time, indefinite, as well as part of a subordinate relationship between an employee and an employer” (ILO, 2016). The ILO identifies four employment arrangements which fall under this umbrella, namely, temporary employment; part-time and on-call work; multi-party employment relationships; and disguised employment / dependent self-employment. In this report, we focus on temporary employment, part-time work, and disguised / dependent self-employment; each of which is defined in this section.

Temporary employment

Temporary employment refers to all those employment arrangements where employees are guaranteed a minimum number of hours of work but are employed on a time-limited basis - that is employment contracts are not indefinite. This is further subdivided into short-term and fixed-term employment.

Fixed-term employment / contract employment

Fixed-term employment is defined as per the 20th ICLS Resolution concerning statistics on working relationships (See paragraphs 48-50). In short, the term refers to employment where employees are guaranteed a minimum number of hours of work and are employed on a time-limited basis for a period of three months or more. They are full-time or part-time workers employed for pay, in formal or informal jobs. This type of employment is commonly referred to as “contract employment” or “contract work” in Guyana, hence, these terms are used interchangeably.

Short-term employment

Short-term employment is characterised by work arrangements of a short-term nature, “with a duration of less than three months from the first day of employment to the expected final day of employment” according to the 20th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS). It should be noted that for this study we are unable to separate short-term employees who have a minimum number of guaranteed hours of work per pay period from casual workers who do not have such guarantees.

Permanent employment

As defined in the 20th ICLS Resolution concerning statistics on working relationships (see paragraphs 46-47), “permanent employees are employees who are guaranteed a minimum number of hours of work and are employed on an ongoing or indefinite basis”. They are full-time or part-time workers employed for pay, in formal or informal jobs. The key distinction between permanent and temporary employees (both fixed- and short-term), is the indefinite versus fixed duration of the employment contract, whether written or verbal.

Part-time employment

The 18th ICLS Resolution concerning the measurement of working time defines part-time employment as being characterized by “a voluntary or involuntary reduction of hours or a job that reduces contractual hours or hours usually worked, which are less than those of comparable full-time work (in the same industry or occupation) recognized in the Part-Time Work Convention, 1994”. For the purposes of this report, part-time employment is operationalized as all employment where workers usually work less than 35 hours per week. This is further subdivided into part-time workers who are time-related underemployed, and those part-time workers who are not underemployed. These additional terms are defined below. It should be noted that the definition of part-time employment used in this report includes those who may be de jure full-time employed, that is, full-time employment legally requires them to work less than 35 hours per week.

Part-time, not time-related underemployed

Those who work part-time but are not considered to be time-related underemployed are those who usually work less than 35 hours per week but are neither willing nor available to work more hours.

Part-time, time-related underemployed

In this report, those who work part-time and are classified as being time-related underemployed are those who usually work less than 35 hours per week and are willing and available to work more hours.

Disguised employment / dependent contractor

The terms disguised employment and dependent contractor are used interchangeably in this report and are defined, similarly, as per the 20th ICLS Resolution (paragraphs 35-40). This resolution provides an extensive definition of a “dependent contractor” which considers several factors. For this report, “dependent contractors” are workers who have contractual arrangements of a commercial nature (but not a contract of employment) to provide goods or services for or through another economic unit. They are not employees of that economic unit but are dependent on that unit for organization and execution of the work, income, or for access to the market. They are workers employed for profit, who are dependent on another entity that exercises control over their productive activities and directly benefits from the work they perform. They are commonly required to organize their own social security contributions and payment of income tax. The term “disguised employment” itself does not have a statistical definition but is used to refer to situations where workers are officially hired as independent contractors but are, in practice, treated as employees in the way their work is managed by the employer. Disguised employed workers are a subset of dependent contractors.

Independent worker/ contractor

The definition of an independent worker / contractor used in this report is also taken from the 20th ICLS Resolution (paragraph 12). They are workers who own the economic unit for which they work and control its activities. They make the important strategic and operational decisions about the economic unit for which their work is performed and the organization of their work, are not accountable to or supervised by other persons, nor are they dependent on a single other economic unit or person for access to the market, raw materials or capital items. They may work on their own account or in partnership with other independent workers and may or may not provide work for others.

▶ Executive summary

Across the world, non-standard employment (NSE) arrangements are becoming more common as the global economy changes in the face of globalization and technological transformation. NSE arrangements are those which deviate from the “standard employment relationship” of work that is full time, indefinite, and part of a subordinate relationship between an employee and an employer (ILO, 2016). In Guyana, the type of NSE known as temporary employment or “contract work” locally, where workers are hired for a set period, has been the subject of public debate. However, it has not received the formal research attention to move this debate beyond anecdotal evidence. This paper, therefore, seeks to provide such concrete evidence by investigating the characteristics and consequences of temporary employment in Guyana, along with a brief examination of two other forms of NSE - part-time work, and disguised employment. This is done by analyzing data from Q3 and Q4 of the 2017 Guyana Labour Force Survey, combined with insights from interviews conducted with key informants in the country.

Definitions

In this report temporary employment or contract employment refers to all those employment arrangements where employees are guaranteed a minimum number of hours of work but are employed on a time-limited basis - that is, employment contracts are not indefinite/without limit of time. This is further subdivided into short-term and fixed-term employment. Specifically, fixed term employment refers to where employees are guaranteed a minimum number of hours of work and are employed on a time-limited basis for a period of three months or more. For short-term workers, the definition is essentially the same with the exception that the contract period is for less than three months.

Meanwhile, part-time employment is operationalized as all employment where workers usually work less than 35 hours per week.¹ This is further subdivided into part-time workers who are in time-related underemployment, and those part-time workers who are not underemployed. The former applies to those who are additionally willing and available to work more hours while the latter are neither willing nor available to work more hours.

Finally, the term “disguised employment” itself does not have a statistical definition but is used to refer to situations where workers are officially hired as independent contractors but are, in practice, treated as employees in the way their work is managed by the employer.

Legal environment

While the hiring of workers on a temporary or part-time basis and the hiring of dependent contractors are determined on a contractual basis as agreed upon by both parties, there

¹ It should be noted that the definition of part-time employment used in this report includes those who may be de jure full-time employed, that is, full-time employment legally requires them to work less than 35 hours per week.

are several labour statutes which apply to these workers. Some of these include provisions for national insurance, paid leave, termination of employment, and occupational health and safety. These statutes spell out the minimum requirements, however, temporary or part-time workers may have better provisions negotiated with employers or via trade unions. Still, these are usually less than the provisions afforded to permanent employees. While there have been changes in Government and firm policies with respect to non-standard forms of employment and advocacy for legal changes, no official changes have been made to Guyana's laws as it pertains to temporary, part-time and disguised employed workers in the past 20 years.

Temporary employment: Short-term and fixed-term (Contract)

Incidence

Twenty per cent of all salaried workers in Guyana, almost 36,000 people, are employed on a temporary basis; 11 per cent on fixed-term contracts and nine per cent on short-term contracts of three months or less. This incidence is higher in the public sector generally (16 per cent) and reaches as high as 50 per cent in select Government ministries. By contrast, short-term employment is more common in the private sector and almost non-existent in the public sector.

Demographics

Regarding demographics, differences are most noticeable when the private and public sectors are compared. Men are much more likely to be temporarily employed in the private sector, both on a fixed-term and short-term basis, while in the public sector there is close to gender parity in the hiring of temporary workers. In terms of age, there are no observable differences between temporary and permanent workers in the private sector, except for a higher incidence of 15 to 19-year olds among short-term employees. In the public sector, however, there are younger (20 to 24-year olds) and older workers (aged 60+) among contract employees compared to a bulge of middle-aged workers (30-49) among permanent employees. This provides some evidence for contract employment being a stepping-stone in the public sector, as well as evidence for some of the dynamics underlying the hiring of contract workers. No noteworthy differences were observed between temporary and permanent workers as it relates to geographic location or urban/rural status.

The occupational structure of fixed-term employees is almost identical to that of permanent employees with the highest percentage of workers being employed in mid-level occupations including service and sales, and skilled trades, and the rest being evenly divided between elementary and high-level occupations. The exception is that a higher percentage of contract workers are employed as managers, professionals, technicians and associate professionals. This is linked to the fact that the most common industries of employment for contract workers is in public administration and education - two industries with a relatively high percentage of professional staff. Short-term workers, on the other hand, are almost exclusively employed in mid-level and elementary occupations and are most commonly found in construction; agriculture, forestry and fishing; and wholesale,

retail and vehicle repair. Education levels for temporary workers generally mirror the occupational structure just discussed, with more short-term workers having completed only primary level education or less, and a slightly higher incidence of tertiary level education among contract workers.

Features of employment

Despite expectations of heightened job insecurity, temporary workers are not found to be much more likely to hold more than one job or be engaged in more than one economic activity. Indeed, very few workers in Guyana, overall, fall into this category. We found some evidence of contract workers, particularly in the public sector, being placed on repeated contracts for extended periods of time as proxied by the duration of employment with their current employer.

While we do find evidence of small firms being more likely to hire on a short-term basis, we do not find this to be true for fixed-term employment, nor do we find that the majority of staff in Micro Small and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs) are temporarily employed as has been argued. Although indeed almost half of all contract workers are employed in small firms, this is equally true for permanent workers.

Regarding hours usually worked, temporary workers are not found to work substantially more hours than permanent workers, contrary to findings elsewhere in the world. Informal employment, however, is more common among temporary workers; this being especially true for short-term workers with nine out of 10 being informally employed. Further, we do not find that temporary employment has helped to facilitate a transition to formal employment, bearing the limitations of the data in mind.

Implications - workers

Temporary workers are purported to be more vulnerable as a result of their temporary status, with lower incomes, less social security benefits and protection, less voice and representation and often poorer working conditions. We find this to be especially true for short-term workers who earn, on average, 29 per cent less than permanent workers and 41 per cent less than contract workers, even after considering the differences in occupation level, age, sex, and institutional sector. These workers are also less likely to be unionized and receive dramatically less benefits than both contract and permanent workers across the board. Shorter contract durations make the problem of access to finance more acute for them while the industries in which they tend to be employed increase their likelihood of experiencing lower occupational health and safety protection.

The picture is a little less glaring for contract workers. Regarding income, fixed-term employees appear to generally earn about the same as or marginally more than permanent employees. This does not, however, rule out isolated cases of contract workers being paid significantly more as has often been contended. Still, it appears safe to conclude that contract workers are not worse off on this dimension as compared to permanent workers. In terms of social security benefits, though, contract workers are less likely to receive any benefits at all and, when they do, they generally receive less than the permanently employed.

While no differences are noticeable in unionization rates in the private sector, in the public sector, contract workers are half as likely to be unionized. Access to finance is certainly more of a challenge for contract employees relative to permanent ones, although in the assessment of the ability of applicants to repay a loan, there is room for consideration of employment history and exceptions for jobs where repeated contract renewal is the norm, as is the case with teachers and health professionals. Additionally, job insecurity appears to be higher for contract workers with unemployed workers formerly on fixed-term contracts experiencing the highest unemployment rates relative to those who previously were on short-term contracts (suggesting a relative ease of switching between short term contracts) and permanent workers. They do, however, still appear to find new employment quickly.² Occupational health and safety are also more questionable for contract workers given their higher incidence in hazardous industries, such as in mining and construction, compared to permanent employees. No noticeable differences were found about training and career development.

Implications – public finance

At a more macro-level, examining the impact of contract employment on public finances, we find that wages and salaries for contract workers in the public sector have increased almost threefold over the past decade. We are unable to confirm, however, whether this increased cost is a function of contract employment itself or rather a need for more staff in general. That is, we are unable to say whether the cost would be higher if permanent workers had been hired instead, considering additional benefits to be paid. We do make the argument, though, that across the public and private sectors, the fact that temporary workers receive less benefits and, in particular, are less likely to have national insurance contributions paid, means that in retirement or in the case of disablement, the cost of public assistance will have to be weighed against the foregone one.

Implications – firms

In terms of firm-level impacts, we do not find any noteworthy relationship between the size of a firm's temporary workforce and its performance. It has been suggested, though, by larger firms that a stable permanent workforce contributes more to productivity.

Part-time employment

Incidence

In Guyana, roughly 22,000 or 12 per cent of all salaried workers are part-time workers, that is, they usually work less than 35 hours per week.³ Seven per cent of these can be classified as being time-related underemployed, that is, they are additionally willing and available to work more hours.

² Forty per cent of unemployed fixed-term workers have been unemployed for less than three months and only 33 per cent were unemployed for 12 months or more compared to 32 per cent and 42 per cent, respectively, for former permanent workers.

³ It should be noted that the definition of part-time employment used in this report includes those who may be de jure full-time employed, that is, full-time employment legally requires them to work less than 35 hours per week.

Demographics

Women are more commonly found among part-time workers who are not available nor willing to work more, while this is not the case for the part-time underemployed. Consistent with elsewhere in the world, young people (ages 15 to 29) comprise the largest portion of part-time workers in Guyana.

Education levels are generally lower for part-time workers compared to non-part-time workers, with a large number having completed only primary level education or less. There is an exception among those who are part-time but not willing to work more, with this group having the same level of tertiary education as those who are not part-time.

In terms of institutional sector, there appears to be minimal differences between part-time and non-part-time workers, although underemployed part-time workers are somewhat more likely to be present in the private sector. Regarding occupation levels, part-time workers are more commonly found in elementary occupations, corresponding to the patterns observed for education levels. Similarly, therefore, we find that a higher than expected tertiary education level among part-time workers who are not underemployed is matched by a higher percentage of managers and professionals in this group - almost the same level observed among those who are not part-time.

The foregoing findings are tied together upon examination of the top three industries for part-time workers. Specifically, for part-time workers who are not underemployed, the high representation of women, a higher incidence of tertiary education and professionals than expected, an older age profile, and, to a lesser extent, a sizeable amount in the public sector, corresponds to a significant fraction of this group being employed in education; presumably as teachers who work less than 35 hours per week on average. Households as employers and household production, and construction are also among the most common industries for part-time workers.

Features of employment

While it is expected that part-time workers work much less hours than those who do not work part-time, on average in Guyana, this group works less than 25 hours per week. Part-time workers are also found overwhelmingly in small establishments of less than 10 employees with high levels of informal employment, more so for those who are underemployed. These observations are well aligned with the industries in which part-time workers are most commonly employed.

Implications

Part-time workers are found to be particularly vulnerable in the labour market. As expected, given that they work less hours, part-time workers - the majority of whom are their own main source of financial support - earn dramatically less than non-part-time workers⁴; 50 per cent less for the underemployed part-time, and 30 per cent less for those who are not. The gap is even larger for those whose reason for working part-time is not because full-time work is less than 40 hours.

4 This refers to monthly earnings from ALL jobs.

Underemployed part-time workers are half as likely to be unionized while there is no difference in unionization rates observable between those who are part-time but not underemployed, and non-part-time workers. In terms of social security benefits, part-time workers are much less likely to receive any benefits at all. This is especially acute for underemployed part-time workers. There were no differences observed concerning the training received in the last 12 months among the different groups; training was almost equally low for all.

Disguised employment

Disguised employment has been deemed an irregular occurrence in Guyana. We have, however, found evidence of workers being hired as independent contractors but being treated, in practice, as employees in the mining, construction, and agriculture industries. The nature of the phenomenon, and the absence of specific questions in the ongoing surveys, hinders the pinning down of exact numbers for this incidence. There was one claim made of up to one third of salaried workers in Guyana being hired under this arrangement, but this assertion could not be validated. It should be noted that disguised employed workers are likely to be the most vulnerable in the labour market given the lack of social protection benefits and their presence in industries which are often hazardous and variable in work availability.

Overlap of forms of NSE

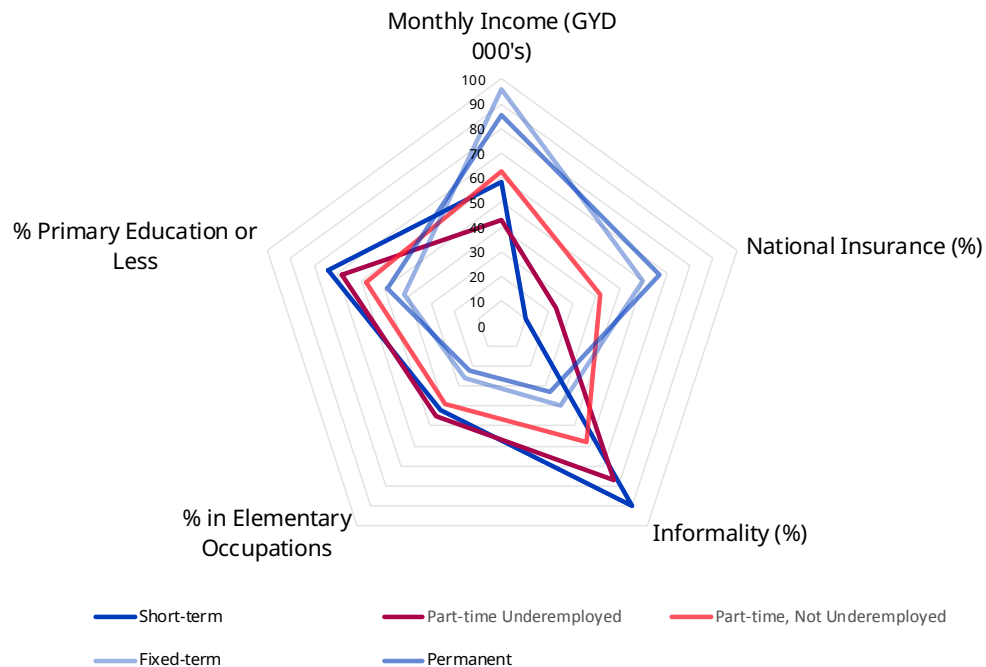
Although only roughly three per cent of all salaried workers are both short-term and part-time, this group is likely to be quite vulnerable in the labour market. This is because both types of workers are the least likely to receive social protection and have the lowest incomes, in addition to being more commonly found in industries that are often hazardous or have lower levels of regulation. Similarly, this is expected to be the case for workers who are among the disguised employed and work part-time. For contract workers who work part-time, this is less applicable since the majority of these are employed de jure in full-time employment with greater social protection, specifically, in public administration and education.

Comparison of types of NSE

The analysis reveals that significantly different dynamics are at play for the types of NSE workers in Guyana who were examined for this report with different related outcomes for each. It is clear that the profile of fixed-term workers is very similar to that of permanent employees, with these workers having the highest monthly incomes and national insurance coverage, and the lowest rates of informality, and percentages of workers in elementary occupations or with only primary education or less, relative to the other types of NSE workers (Fig. I). On the other end are short-term and part-time underemployed workers who have similarly high rates of informality, and the highest percentages of workers with only primary education or less, and in elementary occupations, relative to other worker types. Those who work part-time, but are not underemployed, generally fall between these two pairs on the variables examined.

▶ Figure 1

Summary of key variables for different types of non-standard employment



Notably, worker types who are more common in industries known to be hazardous and/or insecure in terms of social protection and tenure also have the lowest incomes and national insurance coverage, the highest rates of informality, and the highest percentages of workers in elementary occupations and with primary level education or less (Table 1).

Although data is lacking for disguised employed workers, we can speculate that the percentage of these workers in elementary occupations is likely to be high given the industries of employment and, concomitantly, those with only primary education or less is also expected to be high. Average total monthly incomes are therefore likely to be low, at least relative to permanent, and fixed-term workers, and those who work part-time but are not underemployed. Meanwhile, the payment of NIS contributions is expected to be low given that disguised employed workers are themselves responsible for its payment. By construction, therefore, informality is expected to be high.

▶ Table 1.0

Summary of key variables for different types of non-standard employment versus permanent workers

	Disguised self-employed	Short-term	Part-time under-employed	Part-time not under-employed	Fixed term	Permanent
Income (GYD)	unknown	58,054	43,038	62,349	95,957	85,213
National insurance (%)	unknown but required to make own contributions	10	23	42	60	67
Informality (%)	unknown	90	77	58	40	33
% in elementary occupations	unknown	42	45	39	26	22
% primary education or less	unknown	74	68	58	42	49
Main industries	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Mining 2. Construction 3. Agriculture 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Construction 2. Agriculture, forestry and fishing 3. Wholesale, retail, vehicle repair 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Housing as employers and producers 2. Construction 3. Education 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Education 2. Households as employers and producers 3. Public administration 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Public administration 2. Education 3. Construction 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Agriculture, forestry, fishing 2. Public administration 3. Wholesale, retail, vehicle repair

Source: Author's own elaboration based on average of Q3 and Q4 of Guyana Labour Force Survey (2017)

► Introduction

Across the world, non-standard employment (NSE) arrangements are becoming more common as the global economy changes in the face of globalization and technological change (ILO, 2016). Specifically, NSE refers to employment arrangements which deviate from the “standard employment relationship” - that is, work that is “full time, indefinite, as well as part of a subordinate relationship between an employee and an employer” (ILO, 2016). While such arrangements have long been a feature of the developing world, particularly in agricultural economies where casual work is prevalent, the past few decades have seen a rise of NSE in other sectors. As a framework of reference, one can refer to the ILO’s which includes four employment arrangements under the ‘non-standard employment’ umbrella, namely, temporary employment, part-time and on-call work, multi-party employment relationships, and disguised employment / dependent self-employment.⁵

In Guyana, the story of non-standard employment is strongly tied to the growth of the type of temporary employment known as fixed-term or contract employment in the public sector⁶, where workers are hired for a specified period of time, as opposed to indefinitely as with permanent employees, with their contracts often being subject to renewal. This began at the end of the 1980s and has gradually spread to the private sector. There has been considerable public debate on the matter of rising contract employment in the country, including in a 2016 Commission of Inquiry into the Guyana Public Service, due to concerns of contract workers being multidimensionally disadvantaged and exploited by this arrangement.

More recently, disguised employment has surfaced as a matter of concern with its accompanying negative potential implications for workers. Under this arrangement, workers are hired to perform a service as independent contractors or independent workers who are responsible for their own social insurance contributions and income tax payments among other things, but are, in practice, treated and managed as employees. Part-time work, on the other hand, has received much less attention but nevertheless warrants investigation as it too may pose challenges for workers.

Despite this debate, the subject has not previously received the significant research attention needed to move the discussion beyond anecdotal evidence. The objective of this paper, therefore, is to provide such concrete evidence by investigating the characteristics and consequences of NSE in Guyana, focusing on temporary employment, part-time work, and disguised employment.⁷ We achieve this by analyzing data from Q3 and Q4 of the 2017 Guyana Labour Force Survey, and other data sources where relevant, combined with insights from interviews conducted with key informants from both the private and public sectors in Guyana, as well the respective trade union bodies.

5 See list of definitions for meanings of each term.

6 The terms “fixed-term” and “contract” employment are used interchangeably in this report.

7 We do not examine multiparty employment relationships in this report.

The report is structured as follows. An overview of the legal environment as it relates to NSE is first presented as the backdrop for later sections. Temporary employment, subdivided into fixed-term and short-term employment, is then examined in detail and constitutes the bulk of this paper. A brief examination of part-time employment follows, after which, comments on disguised employment in Guyana are made. The overlap of types of NSE is the final matter inspected. A concluding section ties the previous sections together.

► Legal environment

In Guyana, there are no statutory laws concerning whether temporary and part-time workers can be hired, or what the duration of their contracts should be. This is similarly the case for the hiring of independent contractors. Rather, these arrangements are contractually determined as an agreement between the employer and employee, or the contracting agency and the contractor. Therefore, if both parties agree, such arrangements are allowed.

Statutes exist, however, concerning specific matters such as national insurance, annual leave, and termination of employment, which have implications for these types of workers; thus, providing regulation of the terms of their employment. For example, the National Insurance Act mandates that all persons aged 16 to 60 in insurable employment are to be insured under the National Insurance Scheme. This includes all the types of workers in non-standard employment covered in this report.

It should be noted that various benefits under this Act, such as old age (pension) and maternity benefits, have minimum contribution periods to be eligible for receipt which may disadvantage some types of NSE workers who are more likely to have gaps in their employment history. Disguised employed workers are also required to pay their own contributions which means compliance may be low relative to salaried workers who have contributions automatically deducted.

Regarding employment termination as per the Termination of Employment and Severance Pay Act, workers who have been employed for less than one year can be terminated with two weeks' notice, while for those employed over a year, the notice period is one month. This is similarly the case for the Leave with Pay Act which entitles a minimum of one day paid leave for each month worked for full-time employees and half-day per month for part-time employees. Interestingly, the Termination of Employment and Severance Pay Act makes mention of "dependent contractors"⁸, a synonym often used for disguised employed workers, and includes them as employees.

It should be noted that in many cases, these statutes provide the minimum requirements but are superseded by collective agreements negotiated by trade unions. These collective agreements legally apply to all workers regardless of whether or not they are trade union members, as long as they are part of the bargaining unit as defined for that union. For some unions, such as the Guyana Agricultural and General Workers' Union (GAWU), the bargaining unit includes both temporary and part-time workers⁹ while for others, such as the National Association of Agricultural, Commercial and Industrial Employees (NAACIE),

⁸ Specifically, the Act defines a "dependent contractor" as a person, whether or not employed under a contract of employment, who performs work or service for another person for compensation or reward on such terms and conditions that the first mentioned person is, in relation to that other person, in a position of economic dependence on, and under an obligation to perform duties for that other person more as an employee than an "independent contractor".

⁹ Both temporary and part-time workers under GAWU are entitled to all the benefits provided to permanent workers except for access to retirement pension schemes independent of the National Insurance Scheme.

this is not the case.¹⁰ The entitlements of temporary and part-time workers are, therefore, dependent on the union associated with the workers' industry and occupation level and its collective labour agreement.

Firms and organizations may also have their own policies and schedule of benefits above the levels stipulated in these acts.¹¹ It is generally the case though, that the benefits to which temporary or part-time staff are entitled are less than those of permanent workers. Particularly in the private sector, these workers often have no access to the special benefits such as private health and life insurance, and private pension plans afforded to permanent workers.

Disguised employed workers,¹² being considered independent of the firm or establishment, usually do not receive any benefits at all. Indeed, apart from the Termination of Employment and Severance Pay Act as discussed earlier, most statutory labour laws are silent on benefits for dependent contractors, among whom are those considered to be the disguised employed. Furthermore, there is considerable ambiguity in the legal definitions used for "employers", "employees" and "dependent contractors" with, for example, no precise criteria being spelled out to classify a worker as an employee.¹³ This makes it even more difficult to advocate for disguised employed workers being granted the benefits entitled to employees. Additionally, unique to disguised employed workers is the requirement that, being self-employed, they must provide for their own occupational safety and health coverage. Given the fact that these workers are usually managed as employees, the likelihood of them adequately doing so is very low.

While there have been public discussions about temporary employment¹⁴ and the need to clamp down on disguised employment¹⁵, this has not reached the level of changes to the laws pertaining to either of these. Trade unions have contended in the interviews conducted for this report that they have been making petitions via the National Tripartite Committee to achieve such changes, but these have not yet materialized, nor are the details forthcoming. In the public sector, while there have not been any changes to the official Public Service Rules, following a 2016 Commission of Inquiry into the Public Service which included recommendations to deal with contract employment, the Government introduced a Policy to reduce hiring on a temporary basis and to transition workers to permanent positions.

10 Note that there are some benefits which temporary and part-time workers still enjoy as a result of union negotiations despite not being part of the bargaining unit, for example, in 2018, non-unionized fixed-term workers in one company, under the National Association of Agricultural, Commercial and Industrial Employees, received the same percentage wage increases as unionized workers.

11 One key example is the provision of a gratuity of 22.5 per cent of the basic salary paid to contract workers in the public service on a three-month or six-month basis in lieu of entitlement to the public service pension.

12 As previously defined in the List of Definitions and introduction.

13 This conclusion is based on an examination of the Guyana Labour Act, National Insurance Act, Termination of Employment and Severance Pay Act, the Trade Union Recognition Act, and the Occupational Safety and Health Act.

14 Discussions between trade unions and Government covered in the media, as well as by Government officials independently, leading to the 2016 Commission of Inquiry into the Public Service which examined, among other matters, the issue of contract employment.

15 A statement was made by the Commissioner-General of the Guyana Revenue Authority in 2010 about independent contractors posing as employees: <http://guyanachronicle.com/2010/09/18/gra-concerned-about-independent-contractors-self-employed-persons-posing-as-employees-to-evade-taxes>.

► Temporary employment: Fixed-term (Contract) and short-term

Temporary employment, as defined previously, refers to all those employment arrangements where employees are guaranteed a minimum number of hours of work but are employed on a time-limited basis - that is, employment contracts are not indefinite. This is further subdivided into short-term and fixed-term employment; the former referring to temporary employment arrangements with an employment period of less than three months and the latter an employment period of three months or more.

In Guyana, temporary employment has existed mainly in the form of fixed-term or contract employment. According to multiple informants interviewed for this report, this has its genesis in the public sector, beginning at the end of the 1980s, and then gradually spreading to the private sector. One of its key features, particular to Guyana, is the payment of gratuities to public sector contract workers every six months at a rate of 22.5 per cent of salaries earned over the period in lieu of receiving a public sector pension on retirement.¹⁶

This section examines the causes, incidence, features, and consequences of temporary employment, both short-term and fixed term, in the country.

Causes

Temporary employment in Guyana is synonymous with fixed-term or contract employment, particularly in the public sector. There are several theories as to why the practice of hiring under this arrangement became popular, as outlined by key informants. The most common of these is that in the late 1980s to early 1990s, with the transition to a market economy and a Structural Adjust Programme (SAP) newly in place, the new Government sought to attract and retain highly skilled workers to the public service by offering them fixed-term contracts with pay rates that could be determined independently of the existing system for hiring and firing. The arrangement also served the dual purpose of circumventing a bloated civil service with permanent employees who could not be fired despite often being less suited for the jobs held. The aim at the time, therefore, was a rejuvenated and more efficient public service.

In the present day, however, this sidestepping of the Public Service Commission to hire via fixed-term contracts has also been deemed to be motivated by nepotism, with the exact opposite objective of hiring favoured affiliates who would not meet the qualification requirements of the respective jobs. Another commonly cited cause for fixed-term hiring in the public sector is the rehiring of public sector retirees to fill positions where skills and expertise may be lacking or limited, especially since the early retirement age of 55 means that retirees are often still capable of serving effectively.

¹⁶ The public service pension plan is a non-contributory pension scheme only available to permanent employees in the public sector. This is separate from the National Insurance Scheme to which contributions are made by all workers in the public sector regardless of contract type as mandated by law.

In the private sector, the dynamics of temporary hiring have been argued to be quite different. Although often seen as a practice which has been gradually spreading from the public sector to the private, one contention made by informants is that contract employment in the private sector is a function of two factors: (i) the infancy of the Guyanese market which only opened up in the late 1980s and (ii) the concomitant lack of longevity among young Guyanese firms, and in particular Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs). The argument is that due to their infancy, MSMEs, which constitute most of the private sector (Inter-American Development Bank, 2004: 10), are unable to hire on a permanent basis and offer the benefits associated with permanent employment such as private pension plans.

This contrasts with larger firms which face no such constraint. Indeed, the larger firms interviewed for this study maintained that a stable permanent workforce was preferred over temporary employment arrangements to ensure cohesiveness and greater productivity.

Another common argument encountered with respect to both the private and public sector, and especially put forth by trade unions, is that of employers' exploitation of temporary contracts to fill permanent jobs since they allow for easy hiring and firing and the payment of lower benefits to workers, as discussed previously. In some cases, it is argued that even workers, who are often labelled short-sighted, favour these arrangements as in the case of temporary public sector workers who receive gratuities every six months.

The last possible scenario is where a professional expert is hired on a temporary basis for a specific project whether in the private or public sector. In this case, the job itself is not a permanent one to be filled in the respective establishment.

The foregoing discussion shows that there are likely several dynamics at play in the phenomenon of temporary employment in Guyana. The subsequent sections evaluate the validity of these arguments as much as possible, given the data available.

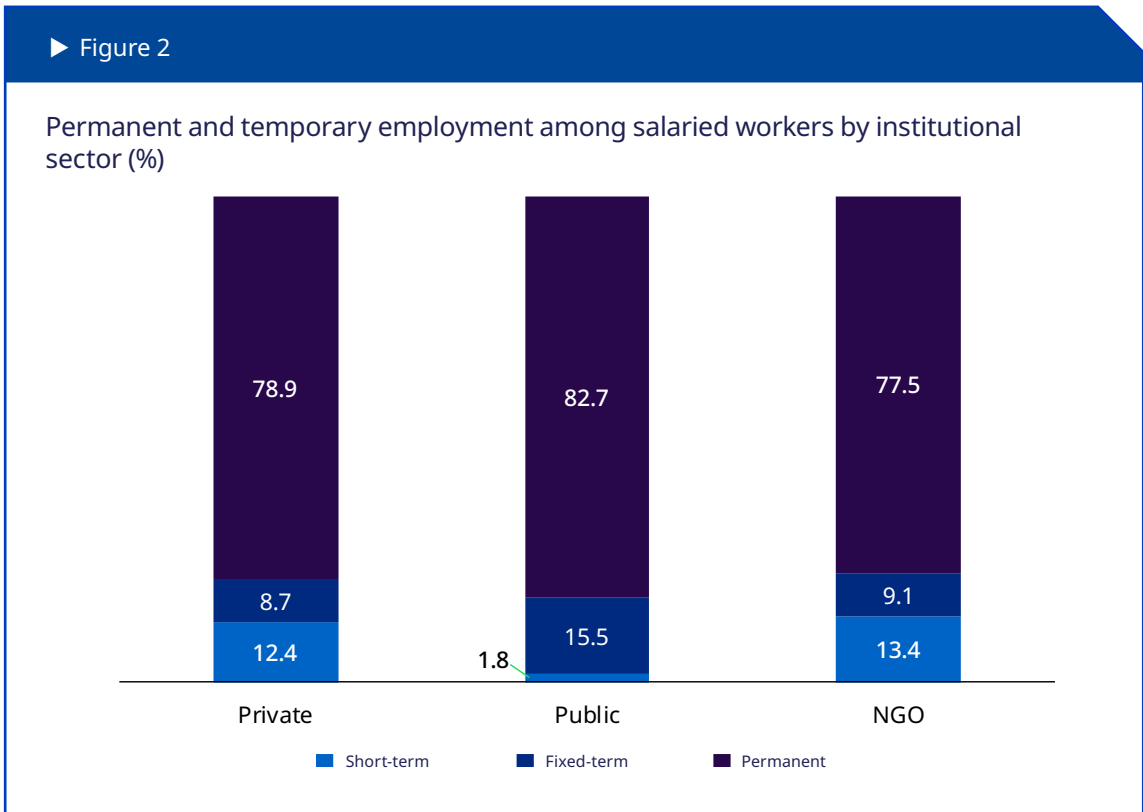
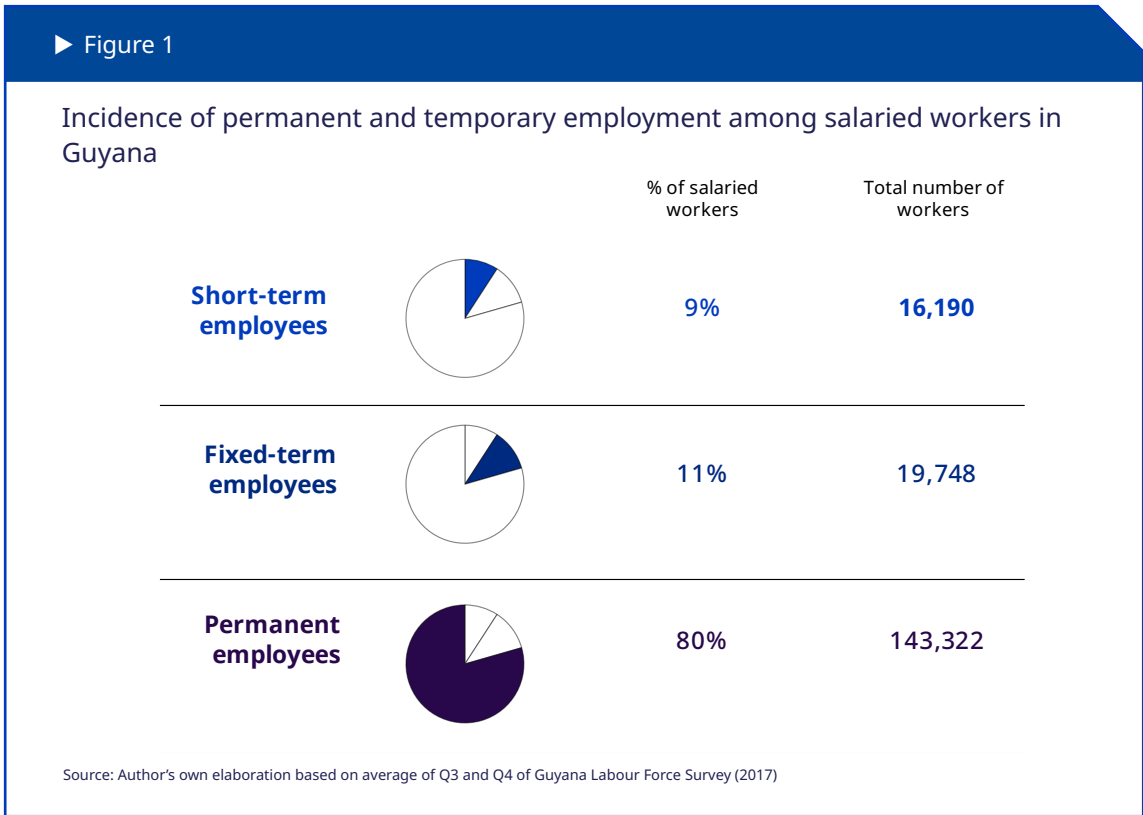
In general, there is no distinction between short-term and fixed-term contracts when temporary employment is discussed in Guyana so separate causes for short-term employment have not been identified a priori.

Incidence

Temporary employees account for about 20 per cent of all salaried workers in Guyana; 11 per cent of those being "contract" or fixed-term workers with employment contracts of three or more months, and the rest being short-term employees with contracts of less than three months (Fig. 1). Overall, therefore, salaried workers in Guyana remain predominantly employed on a permanent basis. This is much lower than estimates for Latin American countries like Mexico, Ecuador, Paraguay and Peru - at around 40 per cent; and higher than that of urban areas of Argentina, Brazil, and Costa Rica - at less than 10 per cent (Maurizio, 2019: 198).

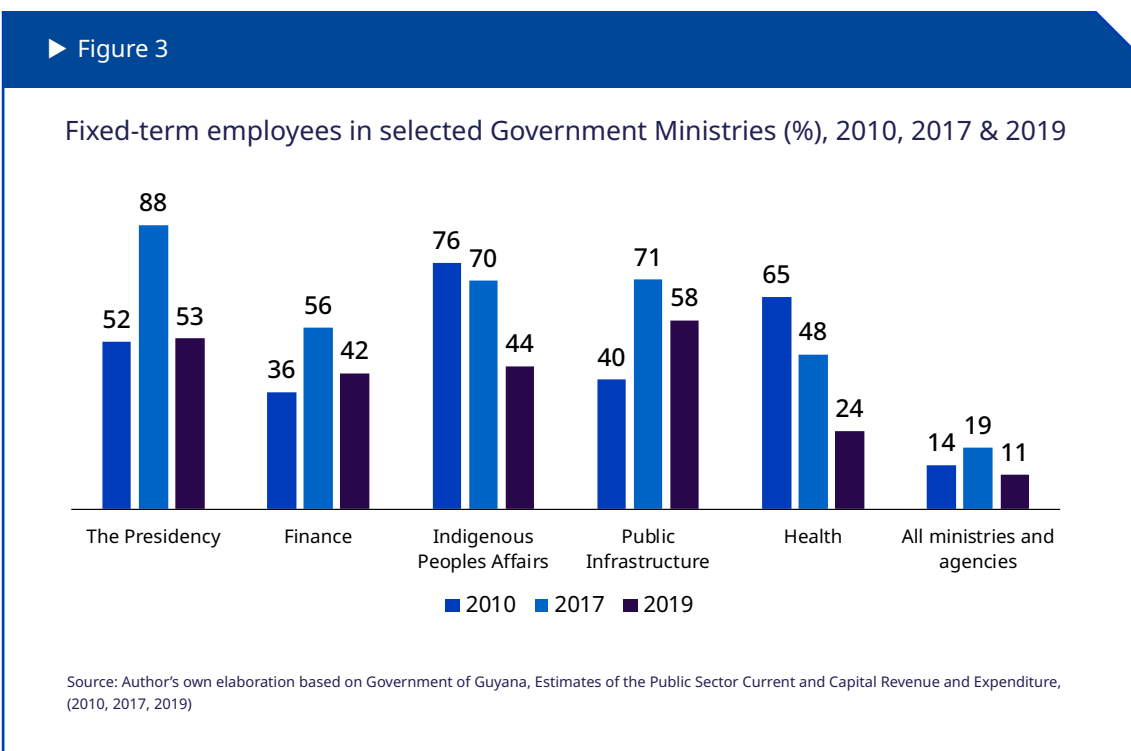
This generally holds true across institutional sectors although, concurrent with public discussion in Guyana, contract employment is found to be more common in the public

sector than the private - at around 16 per cent. Short-term employment, on the other hand, is much more common in the private and NGO sectors (Fig. 2).



A closer inspection of selected ministries in the public sector, however, reveals that even after the implementation of the Government's 2016 Policy to transition contract workers to permanent employment, more than 50 per cent of all staff in the Ministry of the Presidency and the Ministry of Public Infrastructure were contracted in 2019, while more than 40 per cent in the Ministries of Finance, and Indigenous Peoples Affairs remained in this arrangement (Fig. 4). It should be noted that these figures represent a decrease from as high as 88 per cent of all workers being contracted in the Ministry of the Presidency in 2017.

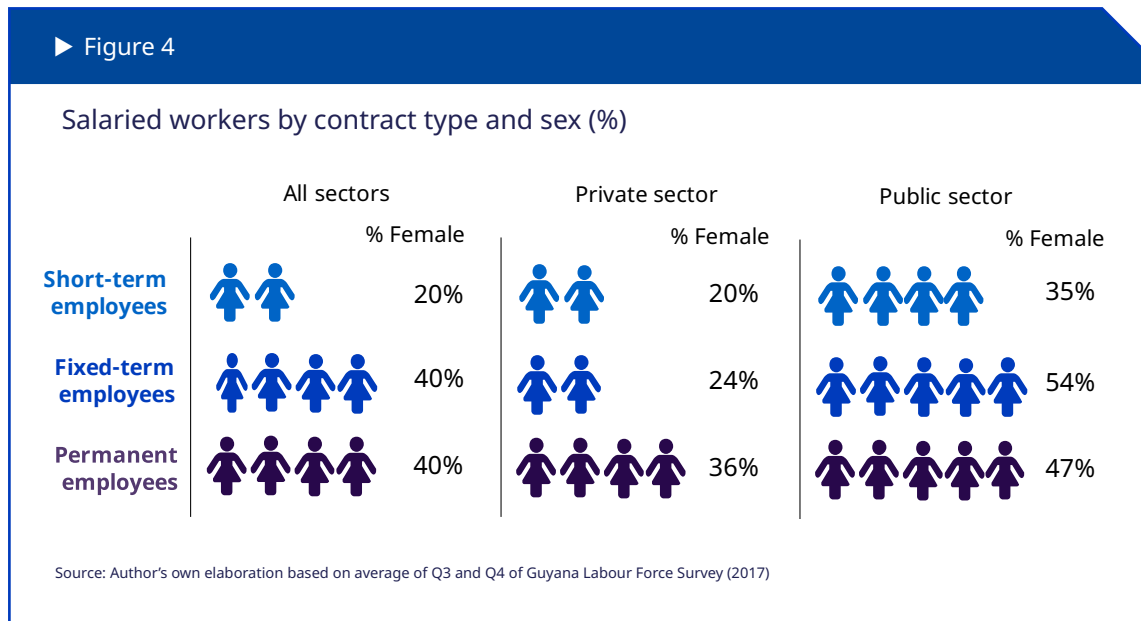
The trend illustrated also allows for speculation that the updated figure for the incidence of contract employment in 2019 is likely to be slightly lower than that provided by the 2017 Labour Force Survey, assuming no significant upsurge in contract employment in the private sector. This is since in 2019 contract employment in the public sector in aggregate stood around 11 per cent, compared to 19 per cent in 2017 when the total incidence for all workers in all institutional sectors was around 11 per cent.



Demographic profile

Sex

In Guyana, overall, there appears to be no difference in the representation of women among fixed-term or contract employees compared to their presence among permanent workers – in both cases women make up around 40 per cent of the subgroup. Indeed, this is consistent with the representation of women in the labour force overall. By contrast, short-term employees are predominantly male with only 20 per cent of this group being women.

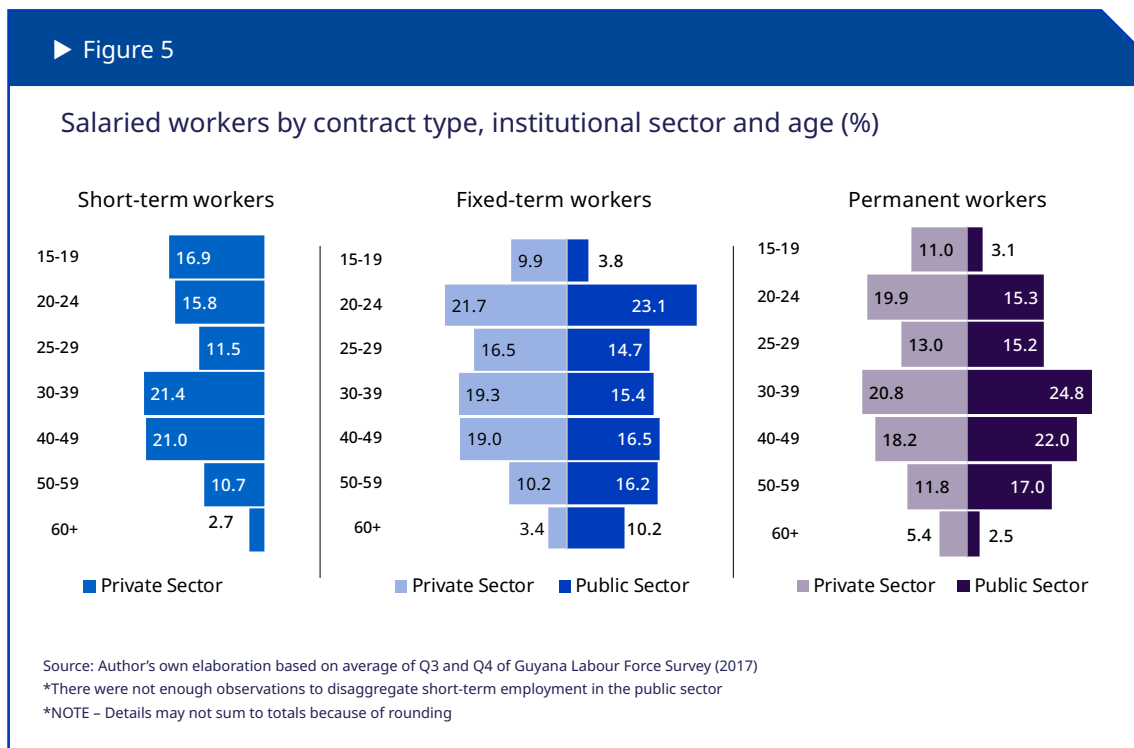


Disaggregation into the private and public sector, however, reveals some marked differences. Close to gender parity exists in the public sector among fixed-term employees and permanent employees indicating that women and men in the public sector are equally likely to be placed on fixed-term contracts as on permanent ones. In the private sector, however, men are much more likely to be fixed-term employees, accounting for around 76 per cent of this group.

Although women account for 35 per cent of short-term employees in the public sector, the fact that only 7 per cent of all short-term employees work in the public sector probably lessens the importance of this figure. Rather, the figure of 20 per cent of women being in this type of employment in the private sector seems to be more meaningful for evaluating the welfare of men and women in this group.

Age

As with sex, differences in the age distribution for workers on different types of employment contracts only become apparent upon disaggregation by institutional sector. Specifically, in the public sector, there is a higher percentage of young people aged 20 to 24 (23 per cent versus 15 per cent) and older workers aged 60+ (10 per cent versus 2.5 per cent) among fixed-term employees compared to permanent workers who are largely comprised of middle-aged to older persons (64 per cent between age 30 to 59 versus 48 per cent of fixed-term workers) (Fig. 5). This finding is consistent with the two parallel dynamics of fixed-term employment discussed by key informants where both young people and retirees are often placed on temporary contracts in the public sector; this arrangement being more lucrative for the latter. For young people, this arrangement is likely due to temporary contracts being used to hire new workers who are also likely to be younger. As previously mentioned, younger workers are also more likely to be attracted to contract employment because of the six-month gratuities without considering provisions for retirement afforded by the public service pension plan, exclusively for permanent workers.



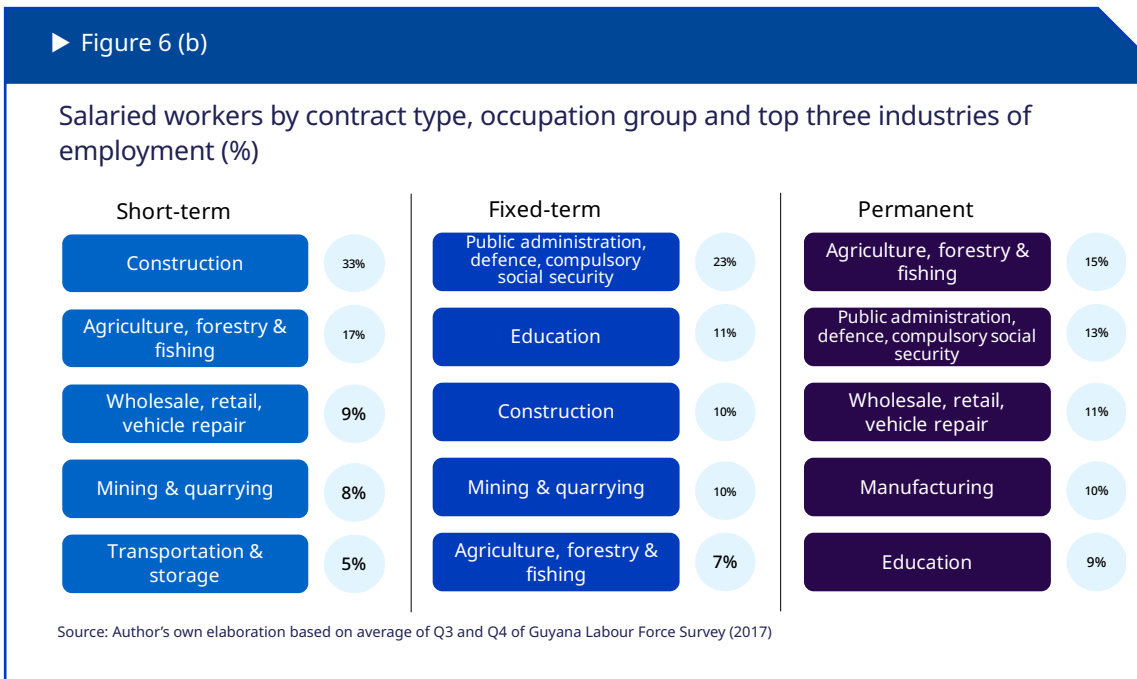
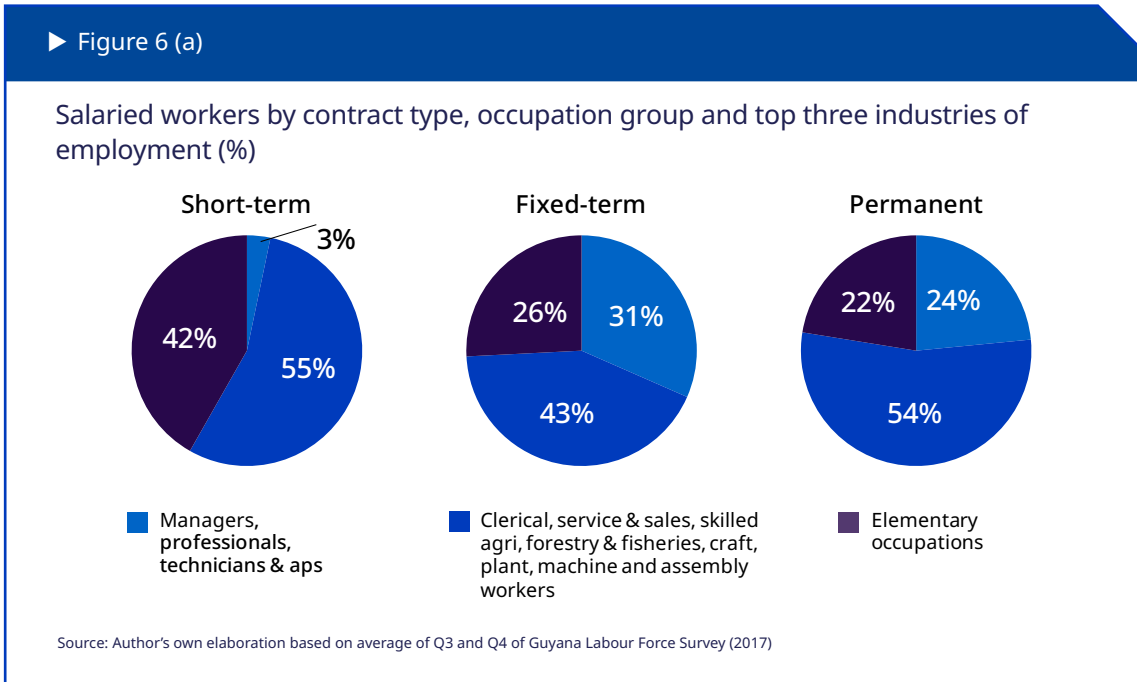
Notably, this finding is also consistent with the “U-shaped” relationship between age and temporary employment identified in Latin America with younger and older workers being the most likely to be temporarily employed, although unlike in Guyana this finding applies to all sectors and not just the public sector (Maurizio, 2019: 201).

The age distribution for fixed-term workers in the public sector also provides a preliminary answer to the question of whether temporary employment acts as a stepping-stone to more permanent employment for young workers. The marked eight percentage point drop (36 per cent) between fixed-term workers aged 20 to 24 to those aged 25 to 29, combined with the bulge in permanent employees after age 30, suggests that this may be the case, at least to some extent (Fig. 5). Still, the fact that around 50 per cent of contract workers in the public sector are between the ages of 30 to 59 leaves room for the possibility that contract employment becomes a trap with many employees remaining on repeated temporary contracts throughout their careers. The alternate explanation for this would be that new workers are hired on contract throughout the age distribution; however, age data alone does not allow us to determine which explanation is correct.

By contrast, in the private sector, there are minimal observable differences in the age distribution of workers on different types of employment contracts. The only noteworthy exception is the higher percentage of youth aged 15 to 19 among short-term workers compared to fixed-term and permanent employees (17 per cent versus 10 per cent and 11 per cent, respectively (figures rounded off); Fig. 5).

Occupation and industry

The occupational structure¹⁷ of fixed-term employees in Guyana is largely the same as that of permanent workers, with the majority employed as clerical, service and sales, skilled agriculture, forestry and fisheries, craft, plant, machine or assembly workers, and the rest almost evenly divided between managers and professionals, and elementary occupations (Fig. 6a).



17 For easier analysis, all occupation categories were collapsed into three broader categories; namely: (i) Managers, Professionals, Technicians and Associate Professionals; (ii) Clerical, Service & Sales, Skilled Agri, Forestry & Fisheries, Craft, Plant, Machine and Assembly Workers; (iii) Elementary Occupations. This approach is taken from ILO (2014). Skills Mismatch in Europe.

The main exception is that managers, professionals, technicians and associate professionals constitute a larger percentage of fixed-term workers than permanent workers (31 per cent versus 24 per cent). This lends some weight to the argument that a significant portion of those hired on fixed-term contracts are as a result of their technical expertise being needed for a fixed period of time or, in the case of retirees in the public service, being needed for an extended period due to a lack of skills in a particular area. Overall, however, these figures do more to prove the exact opposite, that is, that workers are placed on contracts at all occupational levels rather than just professional experts. This supports the idea that multiple dynamics are at play in the hiring of fixed-term employees as opposed to one main cause.

Data on the top three industries for fixed-term employees (Fig. 6b) elaborates on this as, in addition to confirming the higher incidence of contract employment in the public service (23 per cent of fixed-term employees work in public administration), it shows that 11 per cent are employed in education. This makes sense since teachers in Guyana are usually placed on temporary contracts, thereby helping to explain the high incidence of professionals among contract workers. The fact that 40 per cent of public sector workers are managers and professionals also helps to explain this.

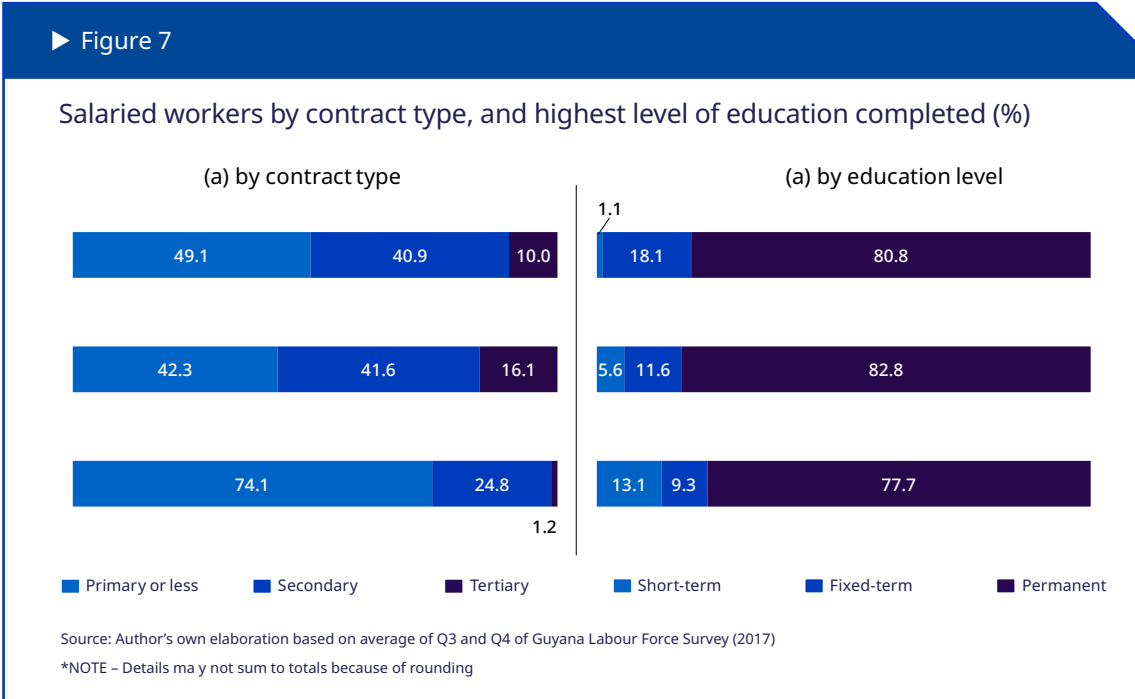
For short-term employees, the occupational structure is drastically different with 42 per cent of this group being employed in elementary occupations compared to around half that among fixed-term and permanent workers (26 per cent and 22 per cent, respectively) and only 3 per cent being managers and professionals (Fig. 6a). This is consistent with the main industries in which these workers are found, namely construction¹⁸ (33 per cent) and agriculture (17 per cent), where unskilled labour is heavily used. Construction is also found to be the most common industry for temporary workers in Latin America (Maurizio, 2019: 201). It should be noted, though, that most short-term workers remain clerical, service and sales, skilled agriculture, forestry and fisheries, and craft, plant, machine or assembly workers (55 per cent), in line with the structure of the economy.

Education level

The education levels of short-term, contract, and permanent employees mirror the distribution of occupation levels just discussed. As illustrated in Figure 7, the distribution of the highest level of education attained is almost identical for fixed-term and permanent employees, with the similar notable exception of more fixed-term employees being educated at the tertiary level (16 per cent versus 10 per cent, respectively). This corresponds to a higher incidence of managers and professionals among this group. It is also worth noting that although slightly more fixed-term workers are employed in elementary occupations (26 per cent versus 22 per cent), there are less fixed term workers with only primary education or less, compared to permanent workers (42 per cent versus 49 per cent). This contrasts with findings from Latin America where temporary workers tend to have lower education levels (Maurizio, 2019: 201).¹⁹

¹⁸ Note that 33 per cent of all construction workers are also short-term employees.

¹⁹ Note that in the study referenced, no distinction is made between short-term and fixed-term workers, hence, it may be possible that the results found in this study for Guyana may be consistent with those found for Latin America once these two groups are combined since short-term workers are less educated on average.

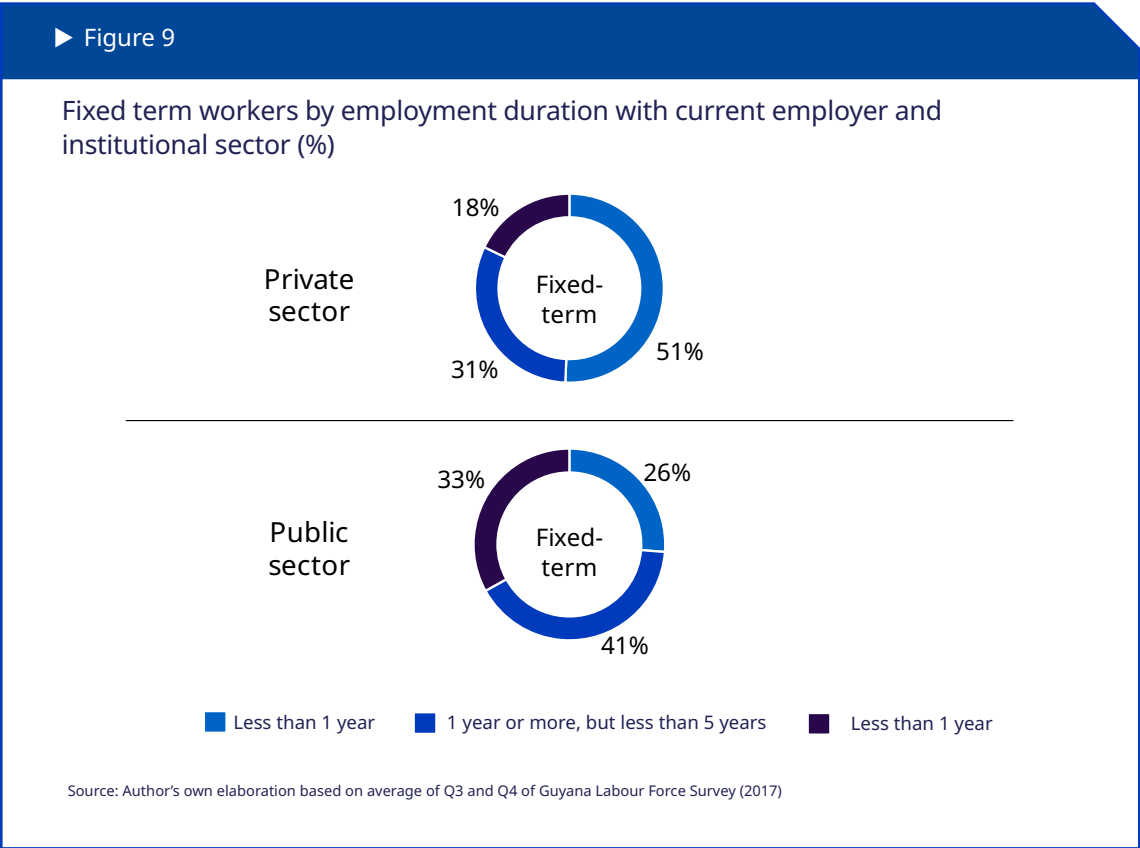
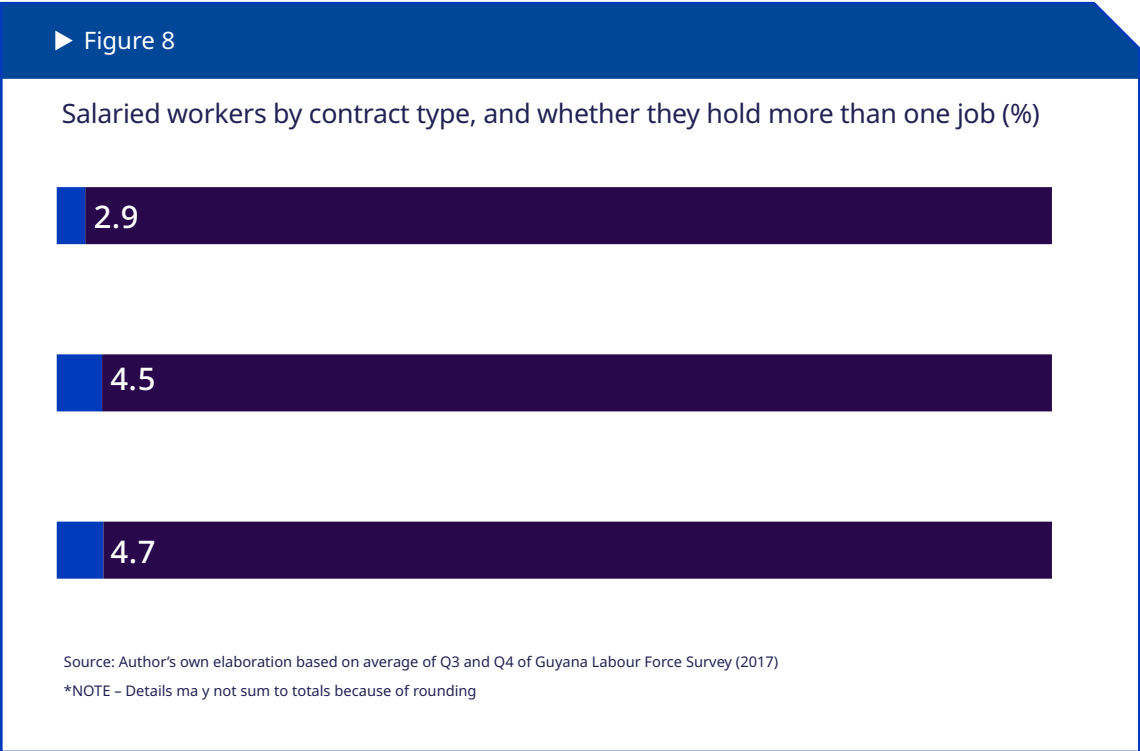


As expected, short-term employees generally have lower levels of education. What is surprising though, is that an overwhelming majority (74 per cent) have only primary education or less (Fig. 7). Given that this education level is usually associated with elementary occupations, and only 42 per cent of short-term workers are employed in this category (Fig. 6a), we would have expected a higher percentage to have at least some level of secondary education. Indeed, a similar observation can be made for the correspondence between elementary occupations and primary level education for fixed-term and permanent employees (26 per cent and 22 per cent in elementary occupations versus 49 per cent and 42 per cent with less than primary education, respectively). The disparity in this result might be explained by the overall lower education level in the Guyanese economy such that occupations usually associated with higher skill levels are filled by workers with lower education levels relative to elsewhere in the world.

Features of employment

More than one job

The question of whether temporary employees hold more than one job was investigated to determine if the uncertainty associated with insecure tenure pushed workers to seek multiple avenues for work and earning. Figure 8 shows that this is not the case. Although temporary workers are more likely to have more than one job relative to permanent workers, the incidence is far too low to validate this hypothesis. Indeed, holding more than one job or having more than one economic activity appears to be uncommon in Guyana, at least based on the data available.



Duration in current employment

The primary objective of examining how long workers have been employed with their current employer is to attempt to ascertain the extent to which temporary employment becomes a trap of repeatedly renewed contracts. As Figure 9 illustrates, as much as 33 per cent of fixed-term employees in the public sector, and 18 per cent in the private sector have been on temporary contracts for five years or more. With the length of fixed-term contracts generally being around one year to three years, we can plausibly assume that repeated contract renewal is operational here. The main counter to this argument would be the possibility of formerly permanent employees being rehired on temporary contracts and providing a response of having been employed with their current employer for a prolonged period. To the extent that this occurs only with retirees, the age data previously examined suggests that this is unlikely to be an enough explanation as this subgroup would not account for 33 per cent of contract workers in the public sector. If, however, the practice exists of permanent employees below retirement age being transitioned to temporary contracts, then this could account for this figure. Information provided via interviews, though, suggests that this is rarely the case, if at all, as workers below retirement age are more commonly transitioned from temporary to permanent positions.

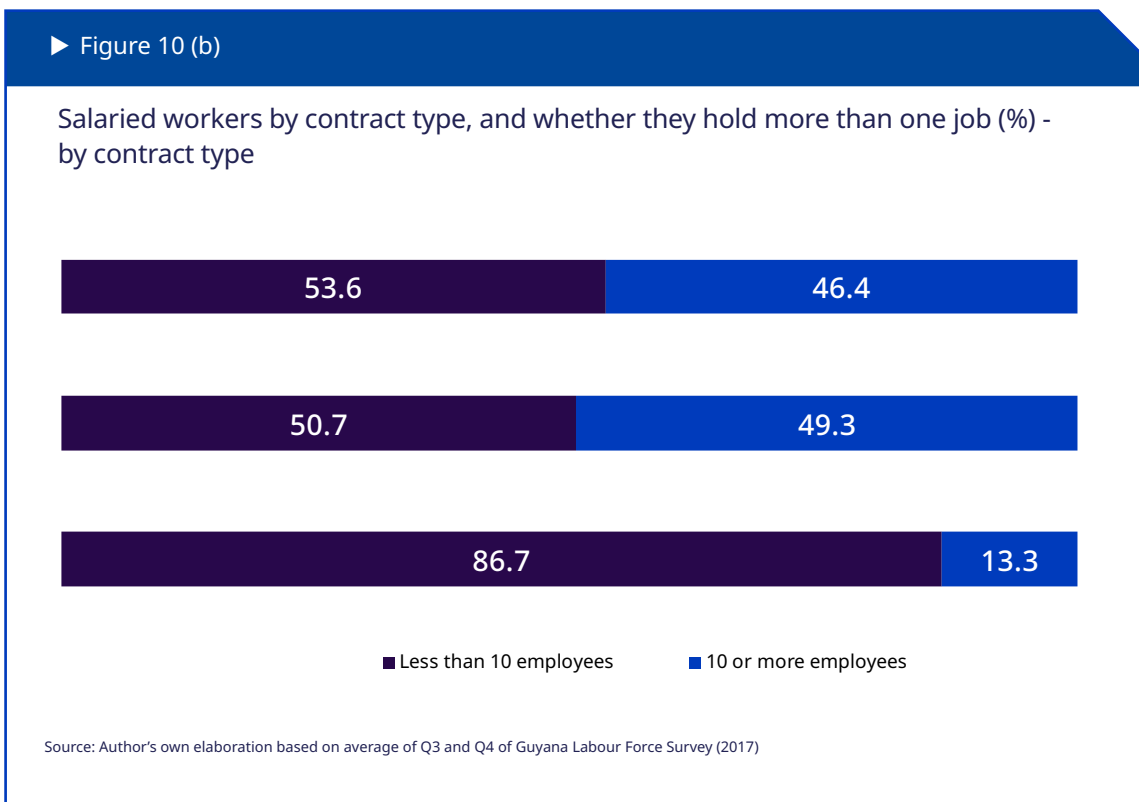
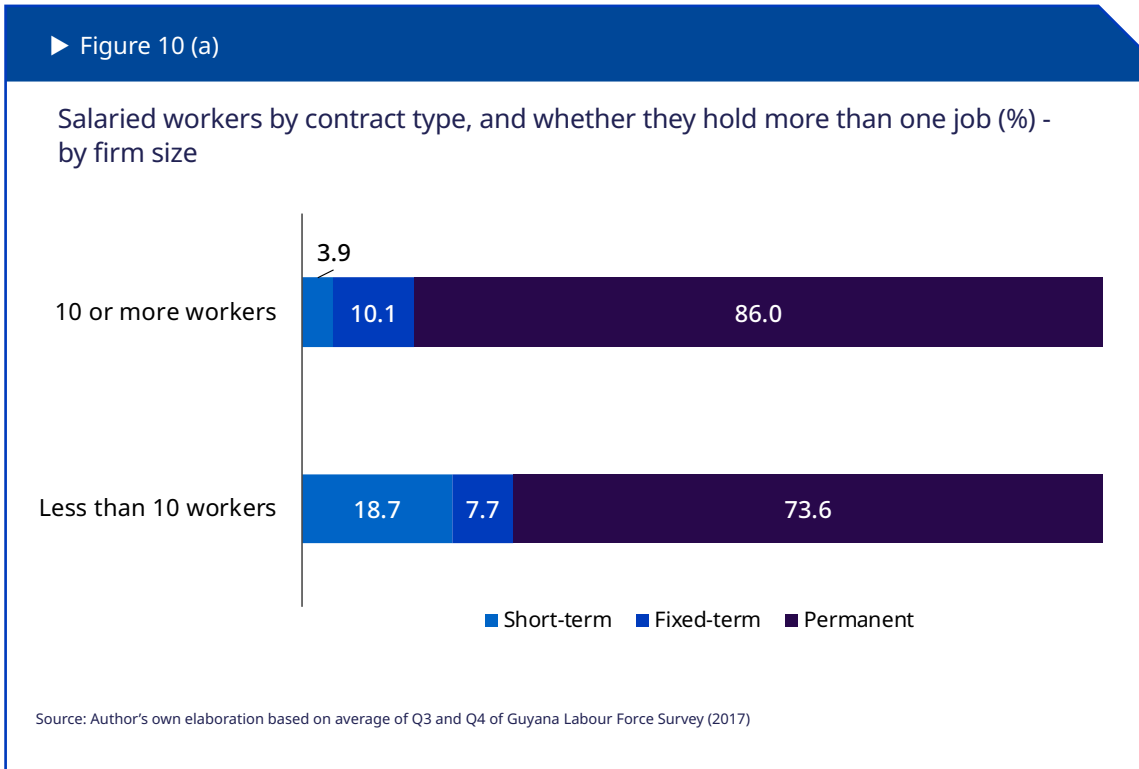
For short-term employees, repeated contracts do not appear to be a significant occurrence with just nine per cent of these workers in the private sector indicating that they have been working with their current employer for five or more years.

It should be noted, however, that this survey question does not take into account cases of workers being hired repeatedly on temporary contracts with more than one employer; for example, working at firm A or ministry A on a two-year contract, followed by firm B on another two-year contract, and then being currently employed at firm C on another two-year contract. The incidence of workers in repeated contract employment for five years or more may therefore be higher than suggested by this data.

Firm size²⁰

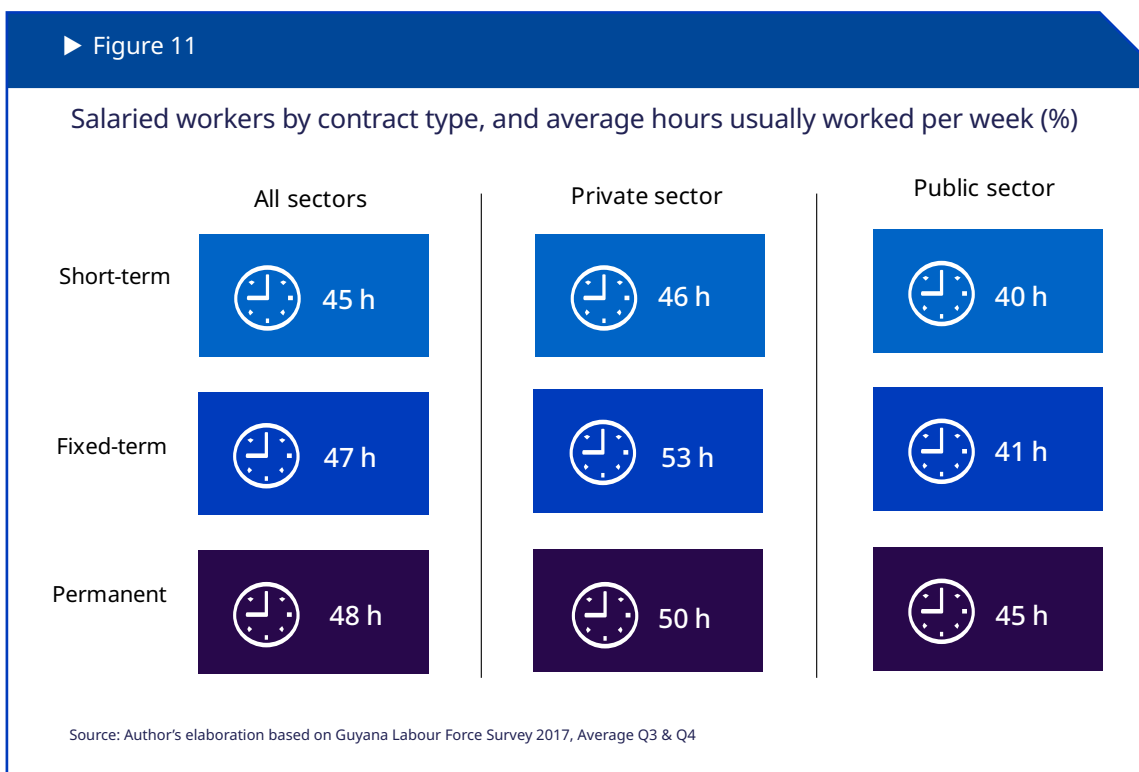
Data show that small firms are more likely than big ones to have temporary staff in their workforce. Specifically, temporary employment, and short-term employment, is more common in firms with less than 10 workers at around 26 per cent and 19 per cent, respectively, compared to 14 per cent in firms with 10 or more employees (Fig. 10a). This is, however, far less than the 75 per cent estimate proposed for MSMEs by one of the experts interviewed. What is more accurate is the reverse, that is, that close to 90 per cent of short-term workers can be found in small firms (Fig. 10b). The same figure also shows that while just over 50 per cent of fixed-term workers are found in small firms, the same is true for permanent employees as well (54 per cent). Therefore, this is more a feature of the Guyanese economy than it is a feature of contract employment.

²⁰ The survey question used for this variable asks respondents the number of workers who usually work at their place of employment, including themselves.



Hours usually worked

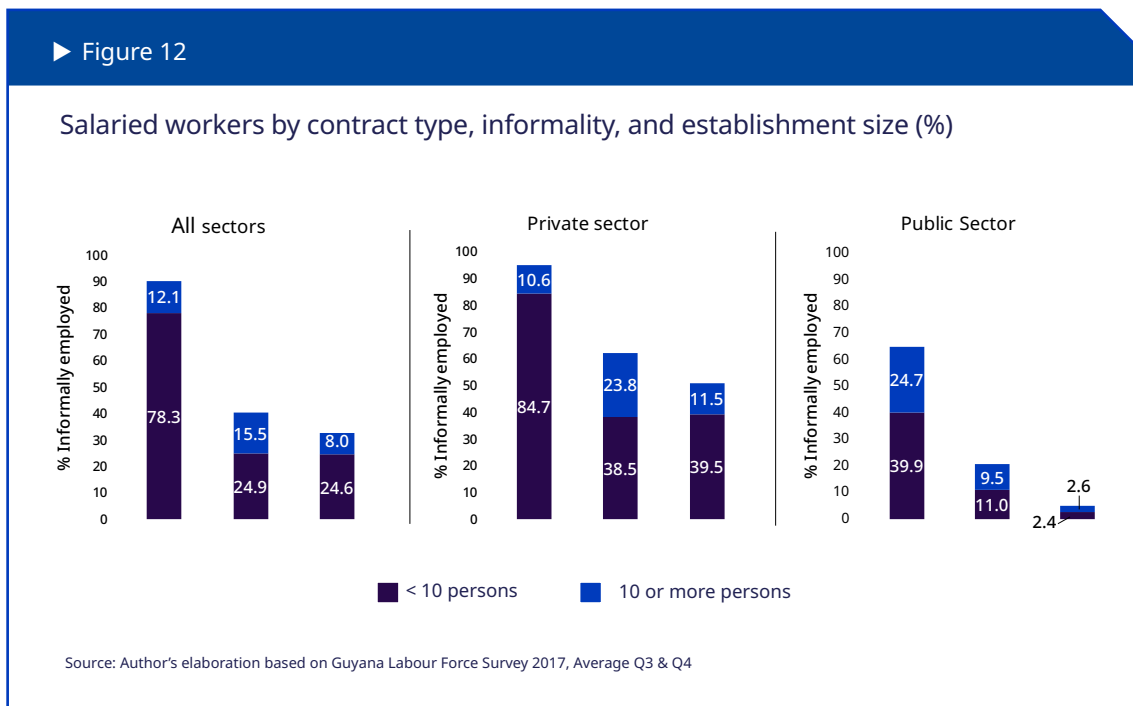
In other countries, fixed-term workers have been found to work more hours than permanent employees, often to prove themselves in the face of uncertain contract renewal (ILO, 2016). Generally, this is not found to be the case in Guyana with negligible differences overall between the number of hours usually worked per week by workers under each contract type (Fig. 11). Upon disaggregation into institutional sectors, it could be argued that temporary workers in the public sector work less hours than permanent ones; and that fixed-term workers in the private sector work more than permanent ones, while short-term employees work less. These differences are small, however, and are not substantial enough to be able to say that they consistently hold across the board.



Informality

Temporary workers are more likely to be informally employed²¹ in Guyana, as is similarly the case in other Latin American countries (Maurizio, 2019: 198). Specifically, nine out of 10 short-term workers, and four out of 10 fixed-term workers are informally employed, compared to three out of 10 permanent workers (Fig. 12). Short-term workers, therefore, are much more vulnerable to informality.

²¹ In line with ILO (2018) "Women and men in the informal economy: a statistical picture (third edition) / International Labour Office – Geneva: ILO, 2018", informal employment is measured by whether or not employers pay national insurance contributions for workers.

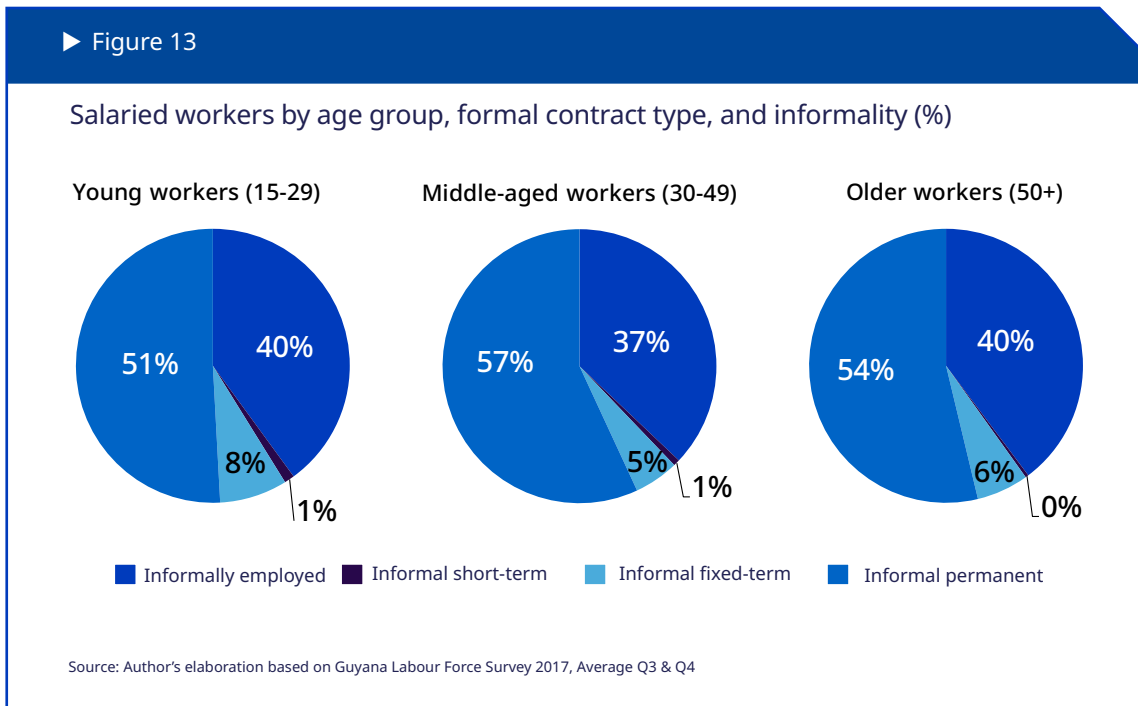


As expected, this problem is more acute in the private sector although the difference in the incidence of informality between the respective types of workers remains fairly the same (Fig. 12). In the public sector where workers are generally expected to be in formal employment, it is interesting to note that there are temporary workers, both short-term and fixed term, who are informally employed. This suggests that, relative to permanent employees, temporary workers are more likely to fall into whatever gaps in national insurance payments exist in this sector. Caution should be taken, however, when interpreting data for short-term employees since, as mentioned previously, this group accounts for less than two per cent of public sector workers.

Looking at the private sector only, another notable observation is that informal employment is much higher in firms with less than 10 employees (Fig. 12). It therefore makes sense that informality should be so high among short-term workers since, as previously illustrated, most of this group is employed in firms of this size (Fig. 10b). Fixed-term workers deviate slightly from this trend since almost 40 per cent of informally employed workers in this group work in firms with 10 or more employees, compared to 11 per cent of short-term workers and 23 per cent of permanent workers (Fig. 12).

In discussions of contract employment, the question is often posed as to whether such arrangements help facilitate the transition out of informality, for example, by making it easier for employers to formally hire workers. Comparing the incidence of formal short-term, fixed-term, and permanent employment, and informal employment among young (15 to 29), middle-aged (30 to 49), and older (50+) workers in an attempt to answer this question, we do not find any sizeable differences in the levels of informality or formal temporary employment (Fig. 13). The answer to this question, therefore, appears to be 'no', based on the assumption that if a transition were to be facilitated it would be young people who would be transitioned to formal employment. If, however, young, middle-aged,

and older workers are equally transitioned to formal employment via fixed-term contracts, then this would not be detectable by such a disaggregation, and it remains a possibility that facilitation is occurring. Still, the fact that less than 10 per cent of each age group is employed via temporary arrangements suggests that even if formalization is being facilitated, it is not being done on a large enough scale to make a significant impact on rates of informality in Guyana.



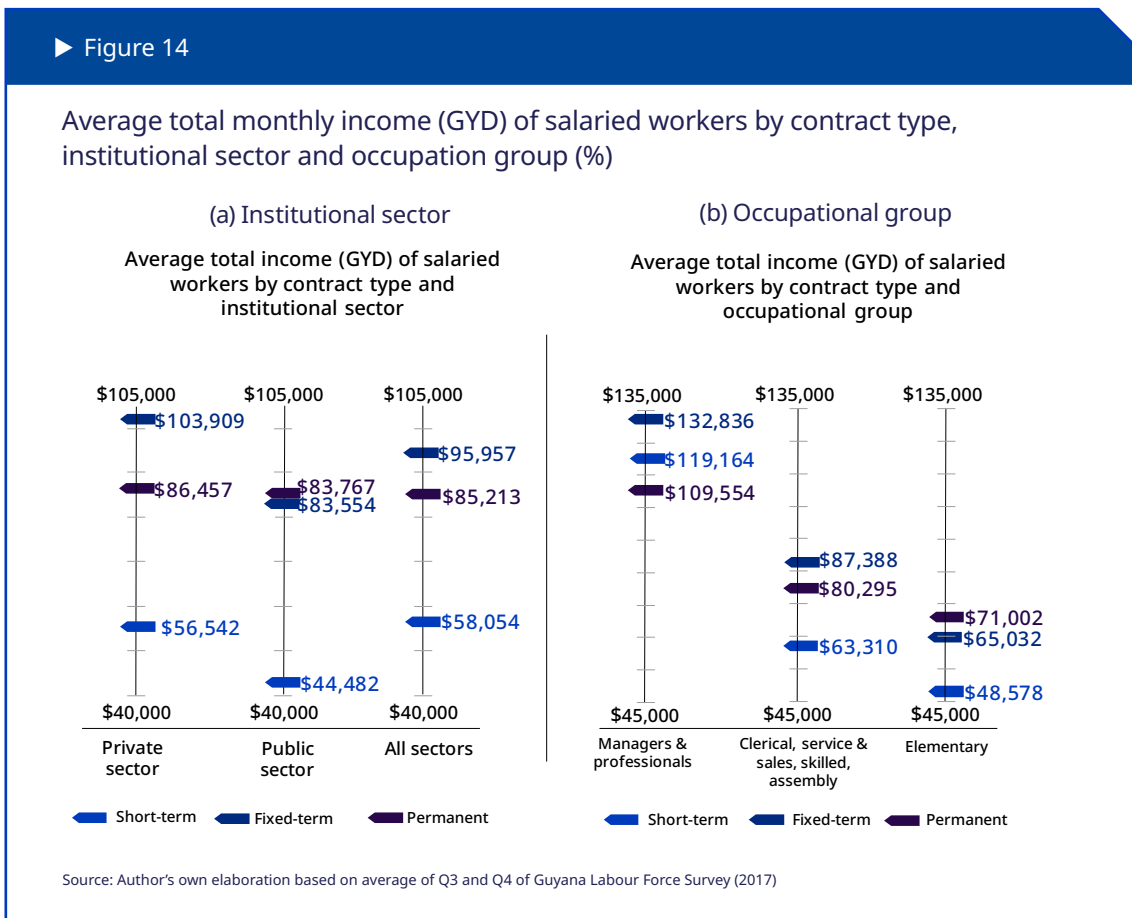
Implications

Income

Especially in the public sector, interviewees indicated that it is often perceived that contract employees earn more than permanent ones due to these workers being hired as a result of nepotism. To assess the validity of such perceptions we examined total monthly incomes for workers on different contract types. Total incomes include considerations of allowances, bonuses and other benefits thereby allowing for a fuller picture of the disposable income available to different worker types compared to looking at labour incomes alone.²²

Figure 14a shows that although overall, fixed-term workers earn just over GYD \$10,000 per month more than permanent workers, this difference is primarily driven by pay differences in the private sector, not the public. In fact, in the public sector, contract and permanent workers earn about the same salary on average, although this does not hold once occupation group is considered which will be discussed later. Across both sectors, short-term workers earn much less than contract and permanent employees, more specifically, an average of 32 per cent less than a permanent employee.

²² It should be noted that when labour incomes alone were examined the differences observed between worker types were fairly the same as that observed when total incomes were used.



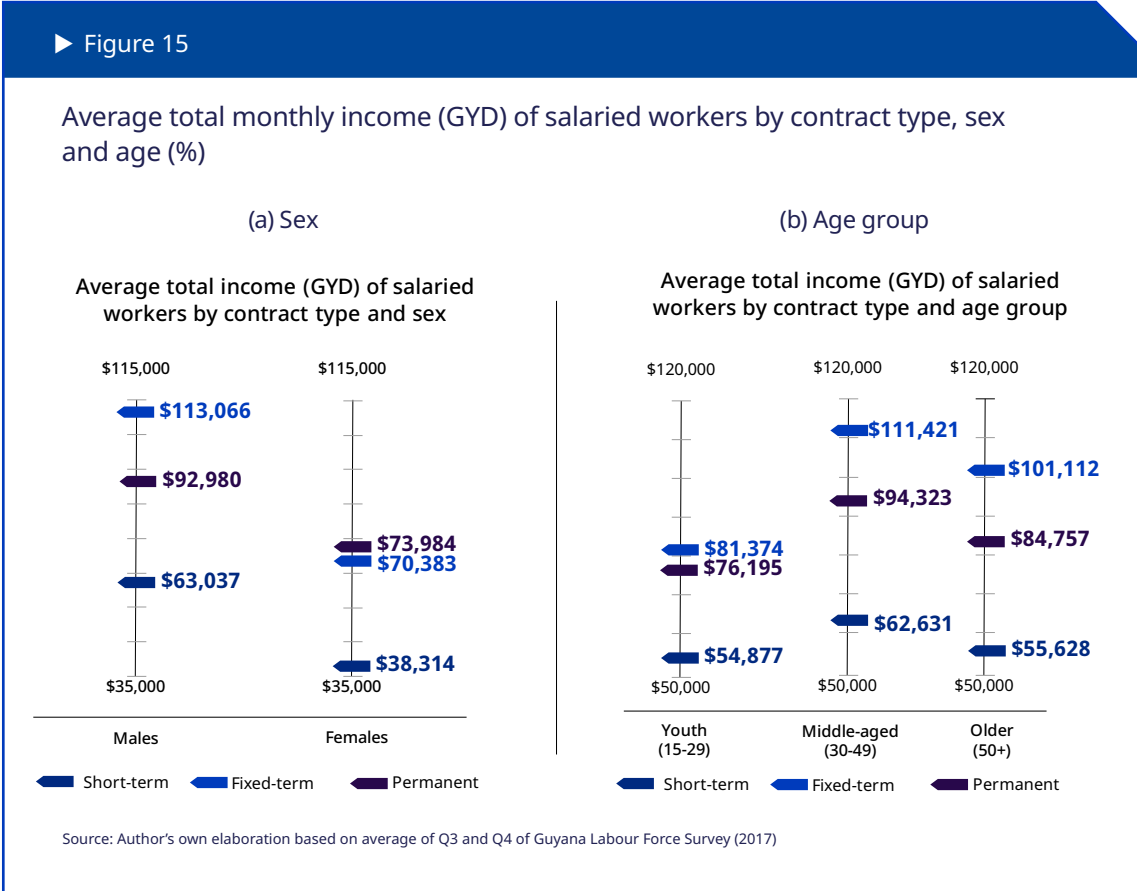
We further disaggregate incomes by occupation group, sex, and age group to determine whether the differences observed between employees on different contract types are driven by any of these factors. For short-term workers, we would have expected this to be the case since much of this group are employed in lower level occupations. Figure 14b shows that even after taking occupation group into account, short-term workers still earn substantially less on average than contract and permanent employees; about GYD \$20,000 less if we take the average of permanent and contract employees' salaries, both among elementary occupations and among middle-level occupations.²³ Indeed, even after considering sex and age group, short-term workers are shown to be consistently paid less than other workers (Fig. 15). This suggests that there is a wage premium for time served with firms as confirmed by private sector informants (recall that 72 per cent of short-term workers have been with their current employer for less than a year).

Similarly, the difference between fixed-term and permanent employees is not explained away by occupation group, with the former still earning more on average than the latter (Fig. 14b). The exception with permanent employees in elementary occupations earning more can be also explained by the fact that years of service and permanence have greater weight in accounting for salary differentials at lower occupation levels. It should equally be noted that the differential is much smaller at this level; just around GYD \$5,000.

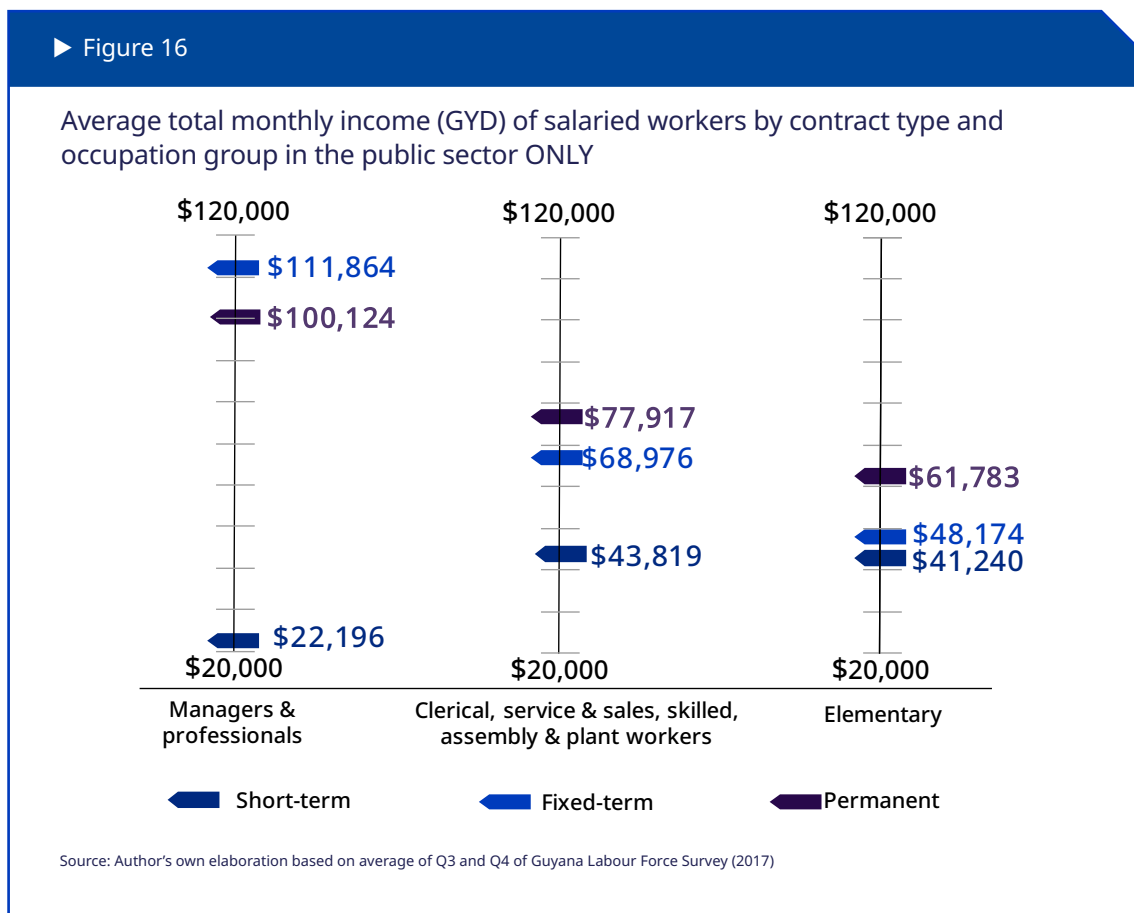
23 Less than three per cent of short-term workers fall into the occupation group of managers and professionals so the salary of this subgroup is not representative of short-term workers more generally and is therefore not discussed.

By contrast, when sex is considered, no difference is found between female contract and permanent employees, however, a sizeable difference remains for men (Fig. 15a). This can be largely explained by the fact that 74 per cent of contract employees in the private sector are men as shown previously (Fig. 4), while women are more commonly found in the public sector where there is close to gender parity. This means, therefore, that the difference observed among men and the lack of difference among women are simply reflecting the dynamics previously recorded for salary differences in the private and public sectors.

The fixed-term employment premium equally persists when age is considered, although this premium is smaller among youth (Fig. 15b).



Returning to the matter of salary differences in the public sector, Fig. 16 shows that once occupation group is considered, there is a wage premium of just over GYD \$11,000 or 12 per cent for fixed-term contract workers in the managers and professionals category. While this is a noteworthy finding, since 45 per cent of workers in the public sector fall into this group, the difference itself is not particularly large and may not consistently hold. Further, given the wide range of skill levels included under this occupation group, it may be possible that this result is reflective of a higher percentage of higher skilled workers being placed on temporary contracts relative to permanent workers overall, as has been explained to often be the case in the public sector (recall Fig. 6a). Disaggregation of occupation groups at a more detailed level, therefore, may cause this discrepancy to disappear.



To obtain a more precise picture, we conducted basic linear regressions of total monthly income on contract type, firstly for all sectors, and then for the private and public sectors, separately (Annex II). Critically, this allows for the simultaneous inclusion of the alternative explanatory variables just examined; namely, sector, occupation group, sex, and age.

When all sectors are considered, permanent workers are found to earn about GYD \$9,000 or eight per cent less than fixed-term workers on average, while in the private sector the difference is about GYD \$13,000 or 10 per cent less. In the public sector, the difference is even smaller at around GYD \$7,000 or eight per cent less per month.²⁴ It should be noted, however, that these findings may only apply to the sample used in this study and not all salaried workers in Guyana.²⁵ Nevertheless, these figures are useful as preliminary estimates in that they show that although fixed-term workers may earn more than permanent ones, this difference is likely to be very small and even negligible.

For short-term workers, on the other hand, linear regressions unequivocally confirm the previous findings that these workers earn substantially less than contract and permanent workers. Specifically, they earn 29 per cent less than permanent workers and 41 per cent less than fixed-term workers.²⁶ This latter finding is consistent with findings for Latin America

²⁴ These values are the combined averages for regressions conducted for Q3 and Q4 of the 2017 Labour Force Survey, separately.

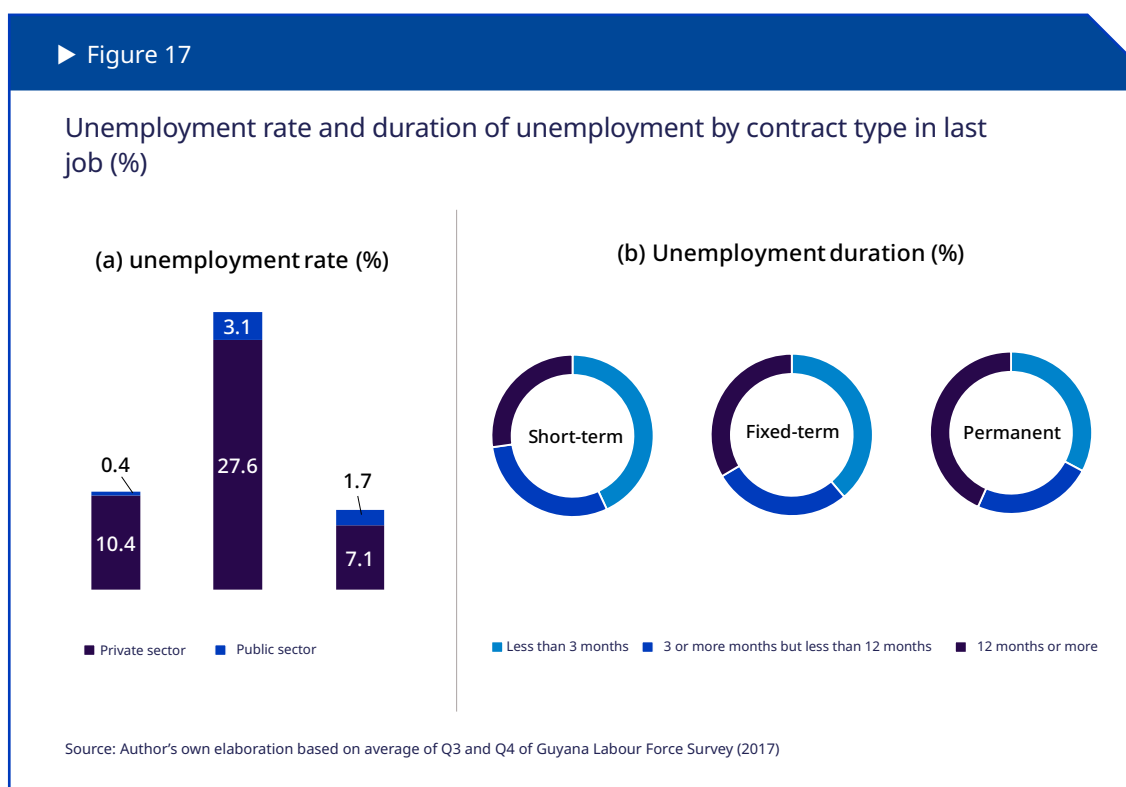
²⁵ These findings were not statistically significant.

²⁶ These findings are statistically significant for short-term workers.

where a wage penalty ranging from four per cent to 35 per cent has been identified for temporary workers (Maurizio, 2019: 204).²⁷

Unemployment²⁸

Job insecurity is usually identified as one of the main disadvantages of temporary employment contracts. As discussed previously in the legal section, the ability of employers to fire temporary workers - both short-term and fixed-term - with only one month's notice means that the likelihood of these workers being the first to go when job cuts need to be made is higher due to the low cost of doing so. Hence, unemployment among workers who were previously employed on temporary contracts represents one way to measure the job insecurity experienced by temporary workers.



As Figure 17a shows, unemployment is particularly high among former fixed-term employees at around 30 per cent, compared to nine per cent for former permanent employees and 11 per cent for former short-term workers. Additionally, the majority of the unemployed are in the private sector, although this is common to all contract types. While this suggests that contract workers are more insecure in the job market, it should be noted that, relative to permanent workers, former contract workers appear to spend less time in unemployment with 40 per cent being unemployed for less than three months; and only 33 per cent being unemployed for 12 months or more compared to 32 per cent

²⁷ As mentioned in a previous footnote, in the referenced study, no distinction is made between short-term and fixed-term workers, hence, it may be possible that the results found in this study for Guyana may be consistent with those found for Latin America overall and not just for short-term workers once these two groups are combined.

²⁸ Unemployment rates were calculated as the unemployed by contract type in their last job, divided by the sum of the unemployed by contract type in their last job and the employed by contract type in their present jobs.

and 42 per cent respectively, for former permanent workers (Fig. 17b). This may mean that the nature of contract employment results in short spells of unemployment between jobs which, in aggregate, may be less than ideal for workers' welfare with gaps in income and the negative mental consequences of uncertainty.

Voice and representation

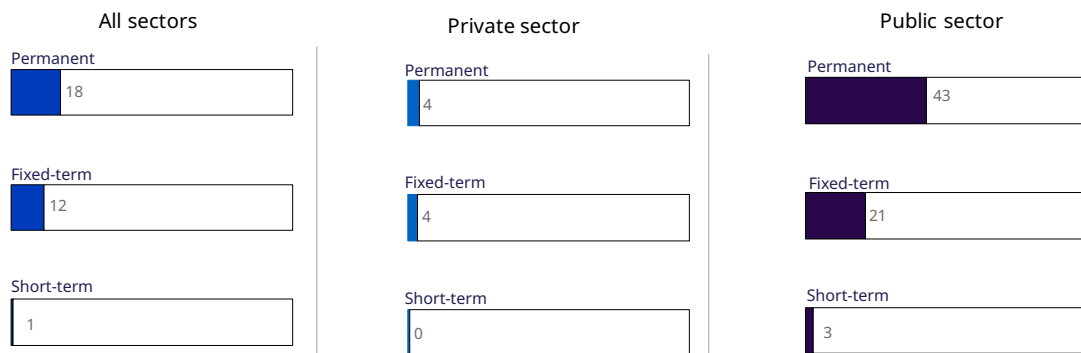
While all workers in Guyana, regardless of contract type, are legally permitted to join trade unions, one of the main challenges with temporary contracts identified by union leaders is the perception by temporary employees that doing so is forbidden. Even when this is not perceived, it is argued that the ability of employers to dismiss temporary workers with only one month's notice makes them fearful for their jobs should they join a trade union. Indeed, trade unionists often argue that one of the reasons for increased contract employment has been the desire to undermine trade unions in Guyana, as discussed previously.

Legally, however, the collective agreement negotiated by a trade union is binding on every employee if he/she falls within the bargaining unit for that agreement whether or not he/she is a union member. The extent to which temporary workers are disadvantaged, therefore, depends on whether they fall within the bargaining unit for their respective unions. It could also be argued that not being a member means that their voices and interests are less represented in the agreements negotiated on their behalf. Membership may also entitle workers to special benefits such as union-provided training which would not be accessible to temporary workers if they are not members.

In the private sector in Guyana, unionization rates are equally extremely low for workers under all contract types; four per cent for permanent and contract workers, and zero per cent for short-term workers (Fig. 18). The argument of temporary contracts disincentivizing unionization does, however, seem to have more merit for the public sector with the unionization rate of fixed-term workers being less than half that of permanent workers; 21 per cent versus 43 per cent. The figure for short-term workers is not very meaningful as less than two per cent of public sector workers are in this category.

► Figure 18

Salaryed workers by contract type and membership in a union or professional association (%)



Source: Author's own elaboration based on average of Q3 and Q4 of Guyana Labour Force Survey (2017)

Social security benefits

Workers on temporary contracts are generally thought to receive less benefits in their jobs relative to permanent employees. These benefits range from having their national insurance contributions paid to the amount of paid annual and sick leave received, to rates of overtime and holiday pay, and travel and meal allowances. This therefore constitutes another dimension in which temporary workers may experience insecurity.

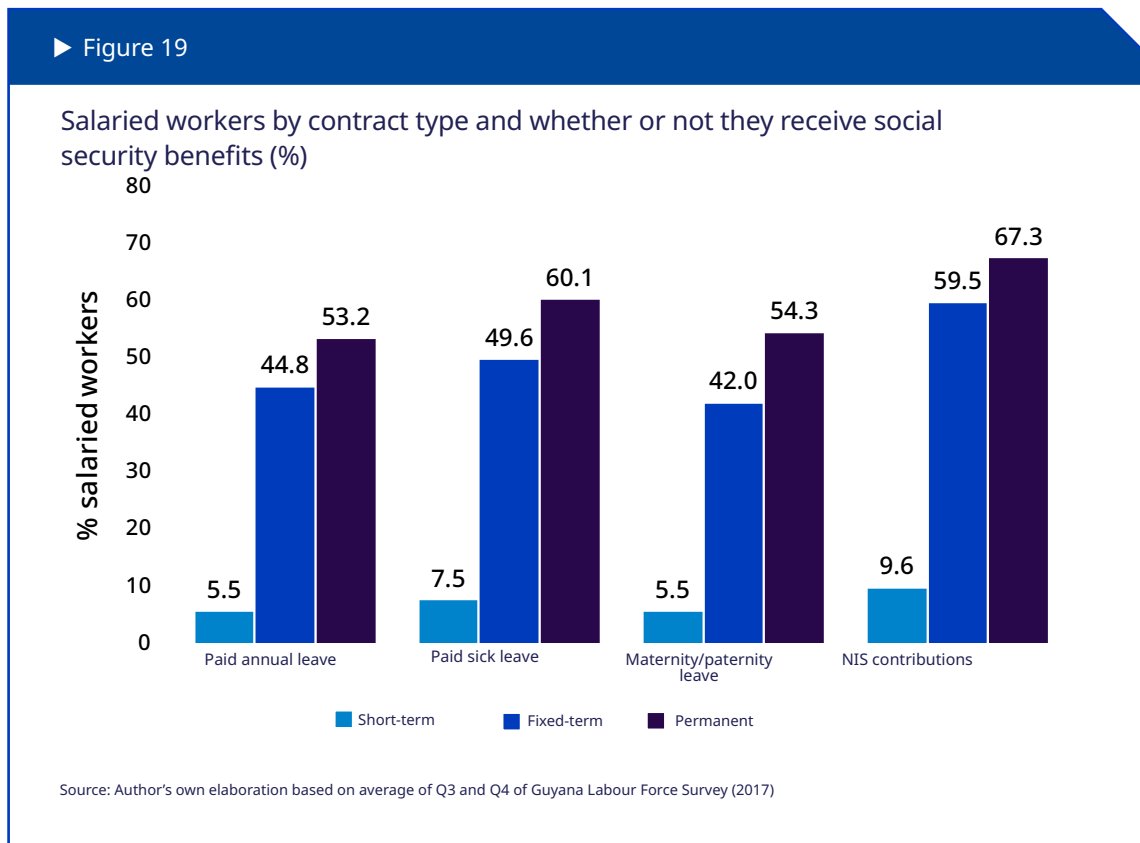
Labour force survey data shows that this is in fact the case. For all four benefit types examined – namely, paid annual leave, paid sick leave, maternity/paternity leave, and the payment of national insurance contributions – fixed-term workers are less likely to have received any benefit compared to permanent workers; specifically eight to 12 per cent less workers have received the respective benefit (Fig. 19). For short-term workers, the difference is much more pronounced with one in nine workers not having any national insurance contributions paid,²⁹ and one in eight not receiving paid sick leave.

Even for fixed-term workers, the disparity relative to permanent workers is likely to be much worse than suggested by this data since the survey questions ask only whether a benefit was received and takes no account of the quantity associated with that benefit. Based on the interviews conducted for this study, except for National Insurance contributions which are based on salary amount, contract workers receive less for every benefit type. For example, in the public sector, the highest amount of paid annual leave for any permanent employee is 42 days while the corresponding figure for contract employees is 35 days. It should also be recalled that temporary workers generally do not gain access to company-specific benefits such as private pension, health, and life insurance plans, or in the case of the public service, the public service pension plan and other allowances such as duty-free vehicle purchases. The fact that contract workers in the public sector receive gratuities, however, may partially compensate for the absence of a pension plan, although the extent of this compensation is unknown.

One trade union representative argued that contract workers are generally given the minimum benefits required by the law and no more while permanent workers benefit from better arrangements made by unions. Of course, there are exceptions to this practice since some of the larger firms interviewed indicated that short-term and temporary workers enjoyed all the same benefits as permanent workers, particularly with reference to temporary factory workers.

This trend in disparity is sustained across both the public and private sectors although benefits are uniformly received less by all types of workers in the private sector.

29 By construction, this corresponds to the incidence of informality among short-term employees.



Access to finance

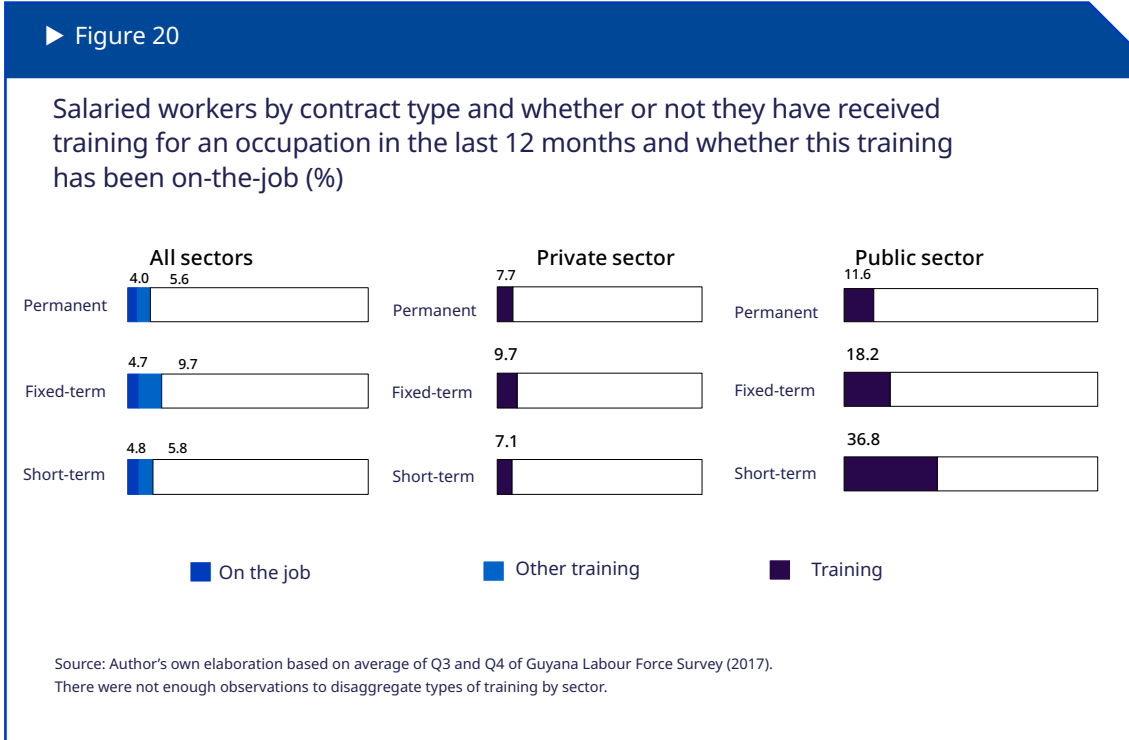
While there is no quantitative data to assess the comparative access to credit between temporary and permanent employees, expert interviews indicate that a disparity does, in fact, exist. In most cases, lending institutions, whether commercial banks or credit unions, require that an employment contract last for the duration of the loan term for approval. In the case that the loan is approved, it is likely to come with higher interest rates, or higher security requirements.

Loan approvals are done on a case-by-case basis and there is room for unique considerations. For example, as one informant stated, "some contracts are considered more valuable or reliable than others", in reference to temporary contracts with the Ministry of Public Health or teachers' contracts which, although temporary, come with a certain level of confidence that they will be renewed. In this case, it is argued that there is an understanding that temporary contracts are simply the way this type of job or work is organized. There is also arguably room for considerations of past employment history showing repeated contract renewal, however, this is less solid relative to those of teachers and health workers. These criteria are likely considered in the same way for other financial instruments such as credit cards.

Overall, therefore, temporary workers face more challenges in accessing financial products because of the insecurity associated with their job tenure. This challenge is likely to be more acute the shorter the contract duration, and thus the most acute for short-term workers.

Training and development

Given that the employment horizons of short-term and fixed-term workers are limited relative to permanent employees, there is a concern that temporary workers would receive less training from employers since their future with the establishment is uncertain. Indeed, this has been found to be the case in other countries by several previous studies of the subject (Maurizio, 2019: 202). The consequence of this, if true, is that temporary workers' career development and progression are more likely to be hindered or stunted.



In the Guyanese private sector, there appears to be little difference in the training received by workers on different types of contracts; the percentage of workers saying that they have received occupational training is low across the board at around seven to ten per cent (Fig. 20). Training, although still low, is higher in the public sector and, more interestingly, somewhat higher for fixed-term workers, with 19 per cent reported to have received occupational training compared to 12 per cent of permanent workers (Fig. 20). Further investigation would be needed to ascertain why exactly this might be the case given that it is the opposite of what was anticipated. One possibility might be that in the public sector, young people comprise a higher percentage of fixed-term workers and younger people are more likely to need and access training. Indeed, 36 per cent of workers who accessed training in the public sector are between the ages of 20 to 24. Although short-term workers appear to receive a much larger amount of training in the public sector, as mentioned previously, the fact that less than two per cent of public sector workers fall into this category means that this figure is not very reliable.

The limitations of the survey questions presented here mean that, in general, these findings about training should not be taken conclusively but rather as a preliminary suggestion as to what the case might be. Specifically, the question of whether workers receive training is not specific to them receiving it on-the-job; indeed, workers may pursue training and education on their own. This therefore gives no indication of the extent to which different types of workers' career development is helped or hindered by training or a lack thereof in the workplace. Even when on-the-job training alone is examined, the numbers for all sectors show no difference between workers on different types of contracts (Fig. 20). Still, this question has its limitations since workers may be sent by their employers for training off-the-job which would not be captured here. More precise data, therefore, would be needed to definitively answer this question.

It should be noted that one public sector informant indicated that contract and permanent workers are trained equally because employers do not know who will stay or leave. It was also mentioned that some of the larger corporate firms hire workers temporarily as part of trainee programmes whereby the new employees are sent for a couple years of schooling and on-the-job training before being transitioned to working at the firms or factories, often on temporary contracts.³⁰ In another large private sector company group, it was mentioned that young workers on short-term contracts are encouraged to access schooling and training before being transitioned to more permanent positions. These observations, of course, do not tell the whole story of training and temporary employment in Guyana, but are nevertheless useful in building up the preliminary image of what is occurring.

Occupational health and safety

Although we are unable to definitively say anything about occupational health and safety for different types of workers using labour force survey data, considering the most common industries of employment can give a preliminary picture since some industries are likely to be more unsafe than others. Indeed, we find that of the top five industries for short-term workers, three are known to have a higher incidence of workplace accidents; namely, the construction industry, which is the most common industry for short-term workers in which 33 per cent are employed; agriculture, forestry and fishing, with 17 per cent employed;³¹ and mining and quarrying with eight per cent employed. Similarly, for contract workers, construction, mining and quarrying, and agriculture, forestry and fishing are the third, fourth and fifth most common industries of employment. This contrasts with permanent workers for whom only the agriculture, forestry and fishing industry is among the top five industries of employment.

While it should be noted that permanent employees remain the most numerous in each of these three industries mentioned, the high incidence of employment in these industries among temporary workers means that as a group, their vulnerability to occupational hazards is greater. There have also been suggestions by trade union representatives that in some cases, temporary workers do not enjoy the same levels of occupational health and safety protection.

³⁰ In this case, trade union representatives indicated that while the training is beneficial for the young workers, they are trapped as employees of the corporations thereafter and have no choice but to take the repeated contracts that they are given; contracts that are often less than one year in duration.

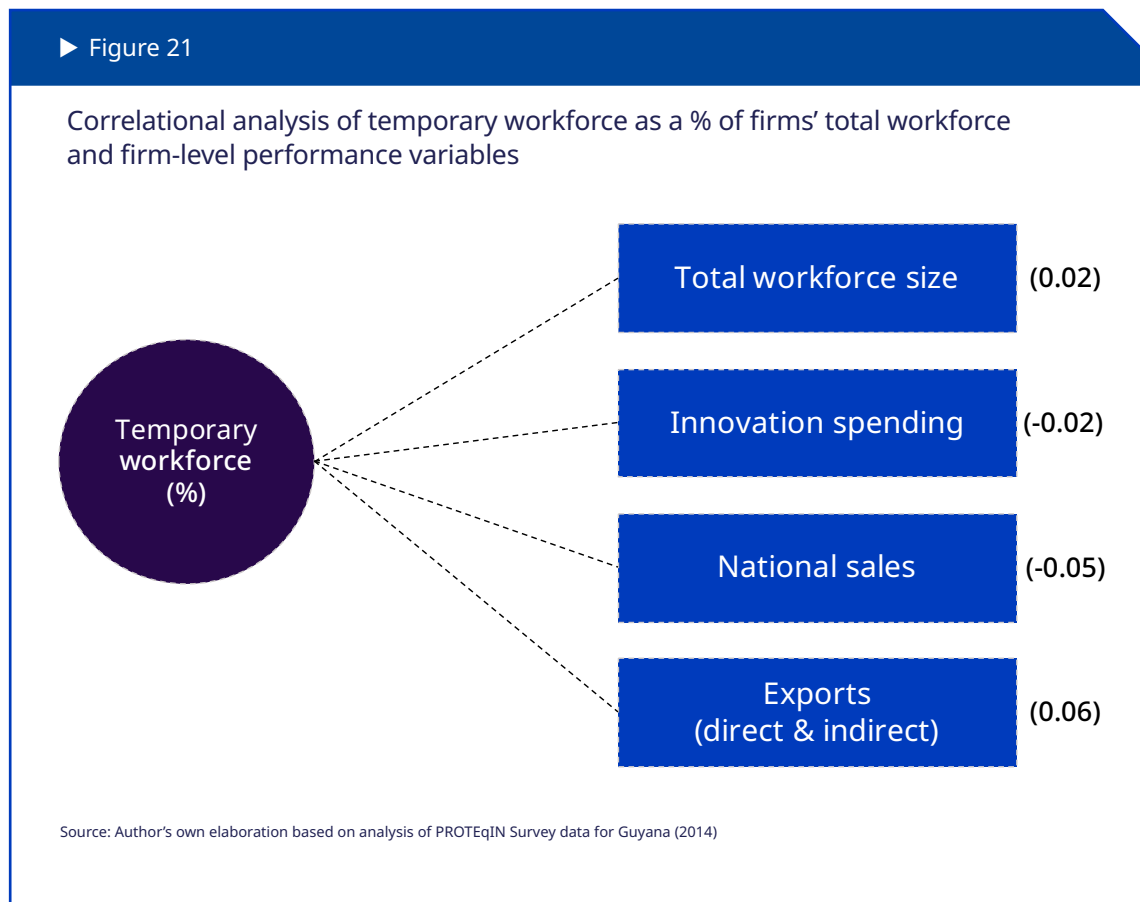
³¹ Specifically, the forestry industry is more hazardous than others.

Another point to note is that while National Insurance injury benefits are payable to all insured workers without any requirements for length of contributions, as previously shown, temporary workers, and especially short-term workers, are less likely to be insured. Consequently, temporary workers are less likely to receive injury benefits in the event of workplace accidents.

Firm impacts

Prior research on the impacts of temporary employment on firms - and non-standard employment more broadly - suggests that there are potentially negative impacts on long-term productivity and reduced innovation, as firms underinvest in training, the more temporary workers they have (ILO 2016).

Using data from the 2014 Productivity, Technology and Innovation Survey for Guyana, we attempt to investigate similar impacts for Guyanese firms by conducting a simple correlational analysis between the temporary³² workforce as a percentage of firms' total workforce and firm-level variables: size of the total firm workforce, the amount spent on innovation, national sales, and total exports. We find very limited relationships between the percentage of temporary staff and the variables examined (Fig. 21).



32 Note that in this survey, all temporary workers are lumped together so we cannot make inferences for short-term and fixed-term workers separately.

Insights obtained from informant interviews may shed some further light on the matter. As previously discussed, it has been argued that younger MSMEs are afforded flexibility by hiring temporary workers. Some doubt has been cast on this contention, though, by data showing that most workers, even in MSMEs, are permanently employed.

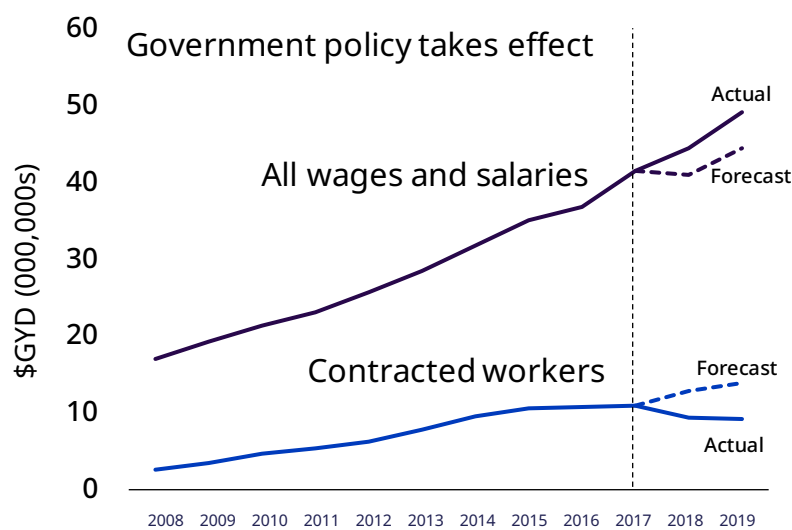
In the case of larger firms and company groups, informants have contended that a permanent workforce is more conducive to higher firm productivity as employees feel a greater sense of belonging and commitment to the firm. In the case of factory workers, it has also been argued that permanent staff reduce the risk of injury to personnel and to equipment as long-term workers have greater knowledge and familiarity with equipment. Still, the ability to take on temporary staff helps to meet demand during periods of increased production such as over the Christmas period.

Public finance impacts

There has been considerable public debate in Guyana as to the cost to the country of having an increased number of contract workers, especially in the public sector (Ram and McRae, 2017: 46). Data from the Ministry of Finance shows that prior to the change of administration in 2015, wages and salaries for contracted workers had been steadily increasing from GYD \$2.5 million in 2008 (14 per cent of all public sector wages and salaries) to GYD \$10.6 million in 2015 (30 per cent of all wages and salaries); a more than threefold increase (Fig. 22). There was a subsequent plateau until 2017 when the Government's Policy to reduce contract employment in the public sector took effect, leading to a 13 per cent reduction in 2018 to GYD \$9.4 million and a budgeted reduction to GYD \$9.1 million in 2019. Figure 22 shows what the projected increase would have been without this Policy.

► Figure 22

All public sector wages and salaries and contracted workers' wages and salaries, 2008-2019 (\$GYD)



Source: Author's own elaboration and projections based on Government of Guyana, Estimates of the Public Sector Current and Capital Revenue and Expenditure, (2010-2019)

While the data shows that the public cost of hiring contracted workers has increased overall over time, a comparison to the trend in total wages and salaries post-2017 suggests that it may not be the hiring of contract workers, specifically, that costs more, but rather the hiring of additional staff, in general. The reduction in wages for contracted workers is not matched by a reduction in total wages and salaries – the dashed line for all wages and salaries shows what the expected cost would have been if this were the case. Instead, total public sector wages and salaries continued to steadily increase between 2017 and 2019. This makes sense since contracted workers were not laid off, but instead, were transitioned to permanent positions.

It is therefore interesting to know whether contracted employees cost more than permanent ones. As shown previously (Fig. 14a), the average contracted worker in the public sector earns about the same as a permanent employee, with these workers being paid more, on average, only in the manager and professionals category (Fig. 16). This discrepancy was not found to be large (about GYD \$11,000) and was potentially attributed to professionals being hired in areas where skills were lacking. Of course, the possibility for cases of retirees being rehired on more lucrative terms cannot be altogether ruled out but this does not appear to be the dominant scenario. Indeed, regression analysis factoring in alternative explanatory variables, including occupation level, showed no sizeable difference between contract and permanent worker salaries in the public sector, as previously discussed.

While no difference was found in monthly incomes, the aggregate public cost of paying public service pensions to permanent employees relative to the cost of paying gratuities every three or six months at a rate of 22.5 per cent of salaries is unknown. Unfortunately, we do not have the data to make this comparison and, according to our informants, no such calculations have been previously carried out by the Government. This may be the main area in which a difference in public cost might arise.

For the private sector, according to the Guyana Revenue Authority, it does not cost the public when firms hire contract employees versus permanent ones - that is, there is no difference in the public taxes collected at the employee or firm level. Of course, to the extent that temporary workers are paid less for the same job, less taxes would be raised but, as shown earlier, contract workers are, if anything, paid marginally more in the private sector.

One potential way in which temporary workers may also cost the public more is that because these workers have lower national insurance coverage rates, they may rely on public transfers more in old age or in the case of disablement. It is, therefore, in the public interest to ensure that the legal rights of temporary workers are enforced.



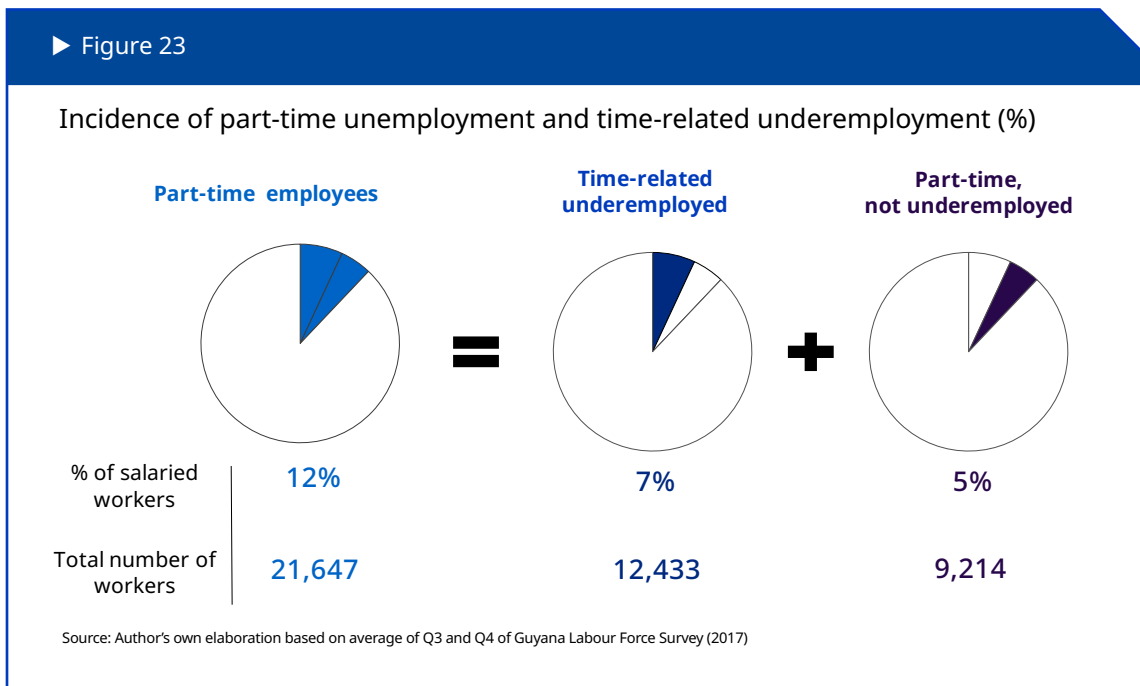
Janitor on night work. Photo compliments rawpixel.com free photos

► Part-time employment (< 35 hours usually worked per week)

Part-time employment has not been identified as a major occurrence in Guyana nor has it garnered much public attention or debate as has arisen with contract employment. Still, we take a brief look at this type of employment in this section, at the very least, to determine whether greater policy attention should be paid to this subgroup of workers. Specifically, part-time workers are all those employees who usually work less than 35 hours per week.³³

Incidence

Part-time workers account for 12 per cent of all salaried workers in Guyana (Fig. 23). Seven per cent of these can be classified as being time-related underemployed given their availability and desire to work more, while the remainder are not. As contended by our interviewees, this group indeed comprises a very small subset of salaried workers in the country.



Demographic profile

In Guyana, as in other countries in the world, women are more commonly found among part-time workers who are not underemployed (60 per cent of this subgroup), but not among those who are (40 per cent) (Fig. 24a). This stems from the fact that women tend

³³ This definition includes those who are de jure employed full-time but full-time work is less than 35 hours, for example, teachers. Specifically, 51 per cent of underemployed part-time workers, and 69 per cent of non-underemployed part-time workers indicated that they work less than 40 hours because full-time work is less than 40 hours. This means that de jure part-time employment is even lower than Figure 23 indicates; about seven per cent in total (3.6 per cent time-related underemployed part-time, 3.4 per cent part-time, not underemployed).

to engage in part-time work more than men as a result of other demands on their time such as childcare and household responsibilities. Hence, they are less likely to identify themselves as being willing and available for more work.

Part-time workers, especially those who are not underemployed, are also likely to be younger than those who do not work part-time (Fig. 24b). Among the non-underemployed part-time workers, 43 per cent are aged 15 to 29, while for underemployed part-time workers, 35 per cent are in this group. This is compared to 27 per cent of those who work full-time. This is consistent with the global trend where young people often work on a part-time basis alongside schooling or because they are unable to secure full-time employment.

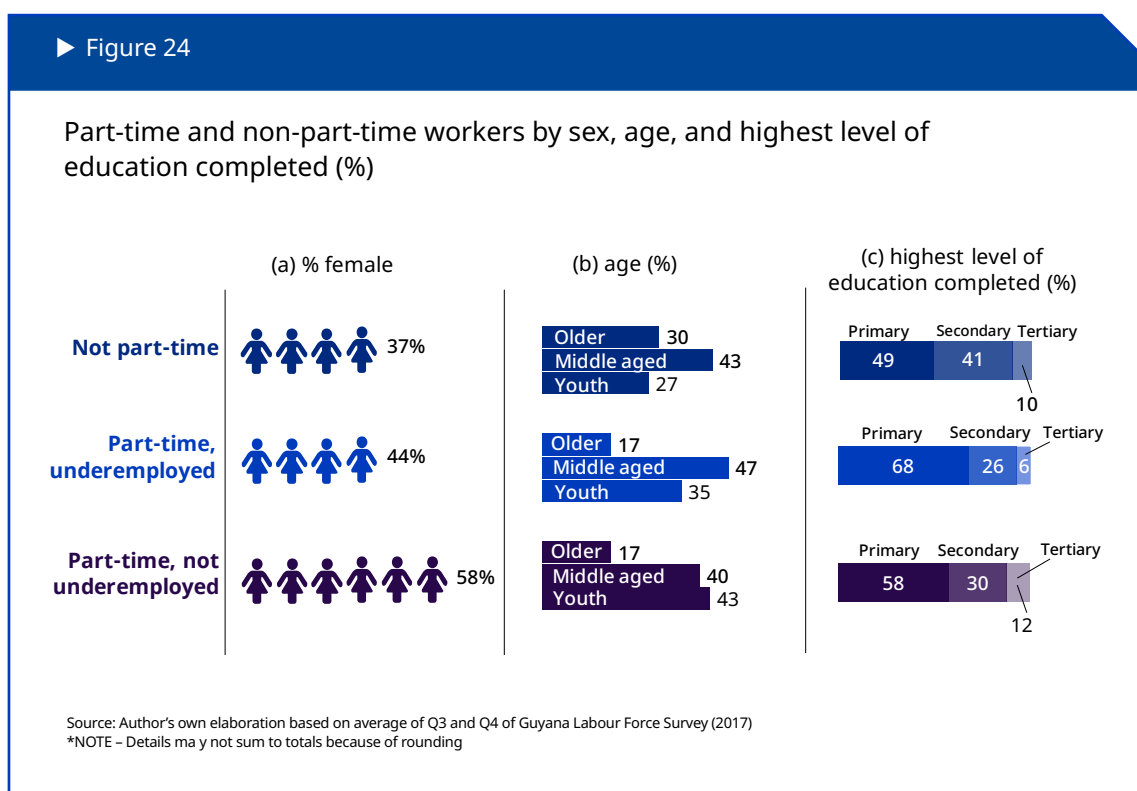


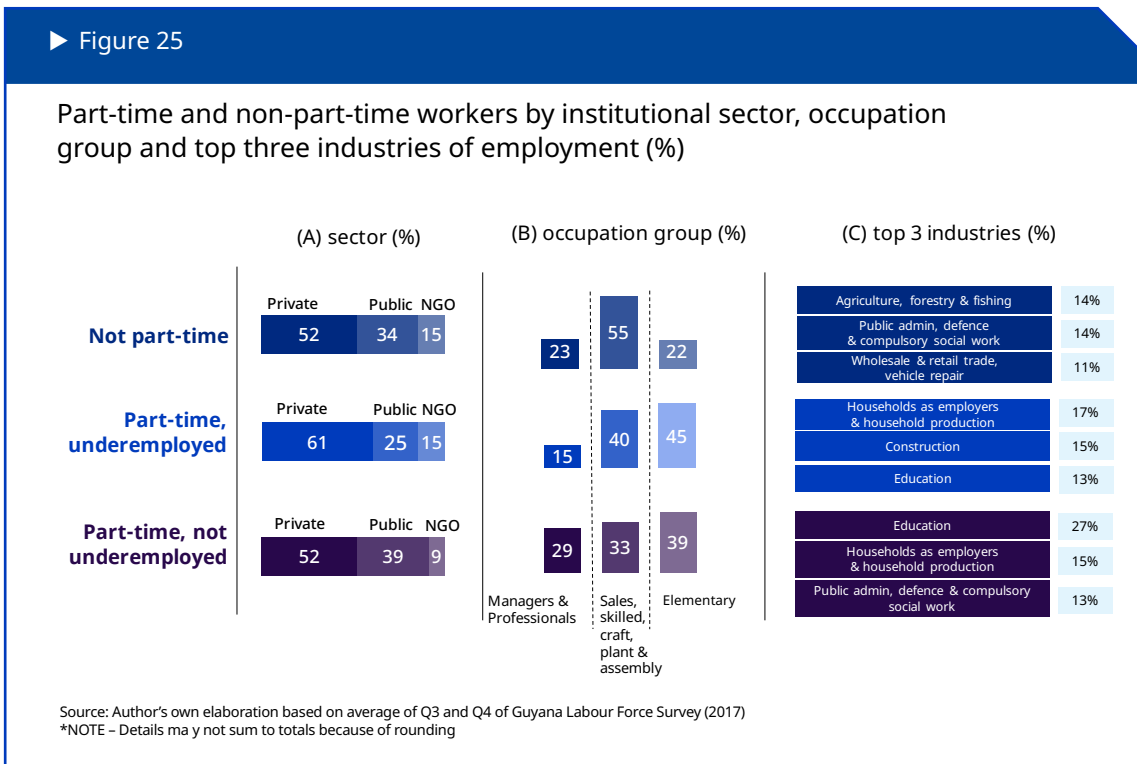
Figure 24c shows that part-time workers generally have lower levels of education; this being more acute for underemployed part-time workers as expected. Specifically, 68 per cent of underemployed part-time workers have primary education or less, while this figure is close to 60 per cent for those who are not underemployed. This is compared to 50 per cent of full-time workers. Less part-time workers also have at least a secondary education. It should be noted, however, that roughly the same percentage of part-time workers who are not underemployed have completed some form of tertiary education relative to those who work full-time.

Features of employment

Institutional sector, occupation, and industry

There do not appear to be major differences between part-time and non-part-time workers in their distribution across institutional sectors (Fig. 25a). The only exception applies to underemployed part-time workers who are slightly more present in the private sector (61 per cent) than in the public (25 per cent) relative to their counterparts. This is logical since public sector employment tends to be more stable than in the private sector, hence, we are less likely to expect part-time underemployment here.

Consistent with their lower overall education levels, we find that part-time workers are more employed in elementary occupations than full-time workers; around 40 per cent compared to half that at 22 per cent (Fig. 25b). Again, closely following education levels, we see almost the same or slightly more managers and professionals among part-time non-underemployed workers compared to full-time workers which matches their similar tertiary education levels.



These prior findings, including those related to demographics, are made more sensible when the top three industries of employment are examined. Specifically, for part-time workers who are not underemployed, the overrepresentation of women, a higher incidence of tertiary education and professionals than expected, an older age profile, and, to a lesser extent, a sizeable amount in the public sector corresponds to a significant fraction of this group (27 per cent) being employed in education; presumably as teachers who work

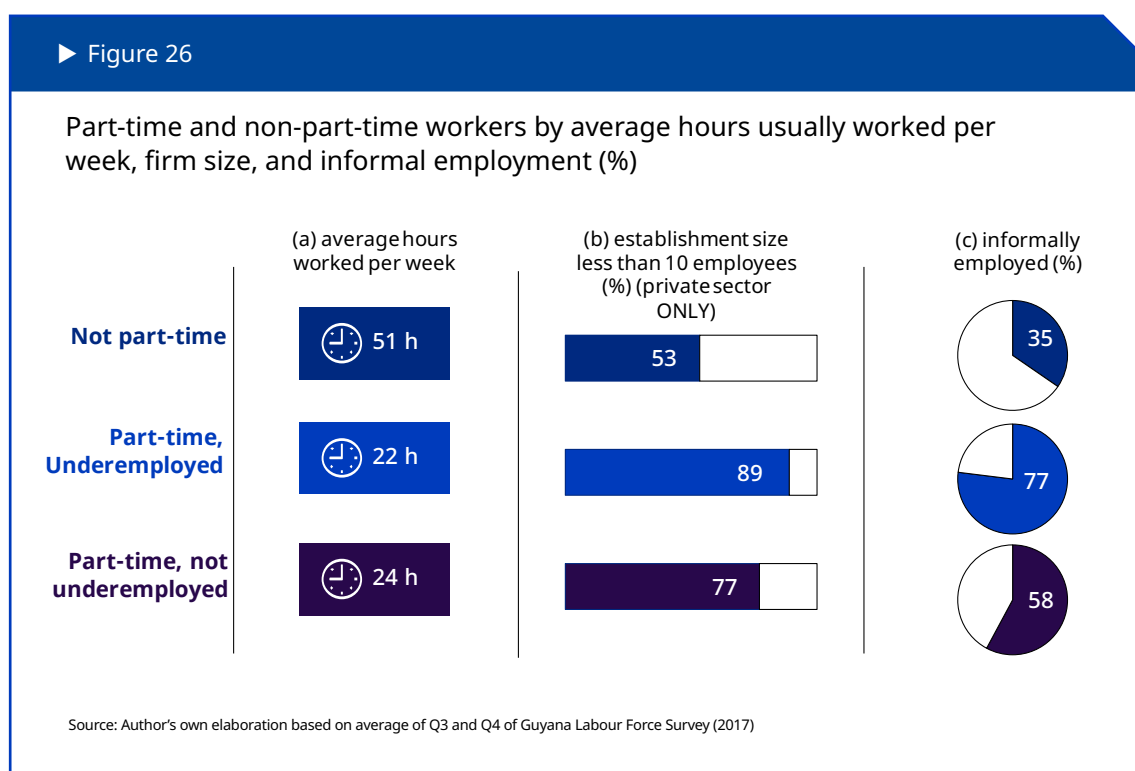
less than 35 hours per week on average (Fig. 25c). It should be noted that 13 per cent of those who claim to be willing and available for more work are also found in the education industry. This is likely to be despite being legally employed full-time.

The appearance of households as employers, and household production as one of the top industries for both types of part-time workers, is also logical since this type of work tends to be irregularly structured. This is similarly the case for the construction industry which is the second most common industry for underemployed part-time workers and is subject to highly varying demand. It should be noted that the nature of work in both industries is also likely to increase the vulnerability of part-time workers in terms of income stability, access to benefits, and occupational health and safety among other issues, as will be discussed below.

It is also worth noting that these findings are contrary to the expectations of our expert interviewees, most of whom anticipated that if part-time work existed at all, it would be in agriculture.

Hours worked, establishment size, informality

As expected, part-time workers dramatically work less hours per week as compared to full-time employees (Fig. 26a). What is interesting, however, is that for both those who claim to be available and willing to do more work and those who are not, the average number of hours worked per week is well below the part-time threshold of 35 hours (22 hours and 24 hours, respectively). It is also surprising that there is practically no difference in the number of hours worked per week between the underemployed part-time and those who are not underemployed.



Part-time workers are overwhelmingly found in small establishments; 89 per cent of underemployed part-time workers, and 77 per cent of those who are not underemployed, compared to around half of those who work full-time (Fig. 26b). Recalling the industries in which part-time workers are most commonly found, this data fits well. More precisely, households as employers and producers are by nature small establishments, while small contractors far outnumber large construction companies in the construction industry. The data, however, fits less neatly for the education industry.

Given their industries of occupation, especially for the underemployed, it naturally follows that informal employment should be high among part-time workers. Indeed, this is found to be the case with 77 per cent of underemployed part-time workers being informally employed, compared to 58 per cent of those who are part-time but not underemployed, and 35 per cent for full-time workers (Fig. 26c).

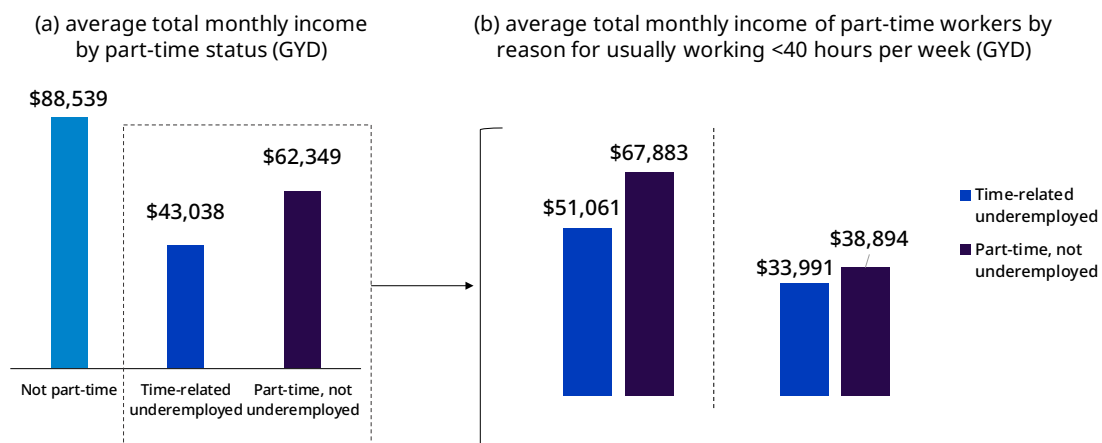
Implications

Income

As expected, part-time workers earn substantially less than non-part-time workers (Fig. 27a). This is a worthy comparison considering that the figure presented compares total incomes from all jobs, and that 76 per cent of part-time workers are their own main source of financial support. Another noteworthy finding is that the difference is much larger for part-time workers who are underemployed. Specifically, while the average non-part-time worker earns GYD \$88,000 per month from all jobs, time-related underemployed part-time workers earn an average of GYD \$43,000 per month or just over 50 per cent less, while those who are not underemployed earn an average of GYD \$62,000 or 30 per cent less from all jobs combined.

► Figure 27

Average total monthly income from all jobs by part-time status and reason for working part-time (\$GYD)



Source: Author's own elaboration based on average of Q3 and Q4 of Guyana Labour Force Survey (2017)

Digging further into this data by disaggregating part-time workers by the reason for working part-time, we find that the situation is even worse for those whose reason is not because full-time work is less than 40 hours (Fig. 27b). For this subgroup, the underemployed earn around GYD \$34,000 per month while those who are not underemployed do only marginally better with an average total monthly income of about GYD \$39,000. This is compared to GYD \$51,000 and GYD \$68,000, respectively, or 50 per cent and 74 per cent more, for those who indicated full-time work to be less than 40 hours. This raises great concern for the welfare of part-time workers since, as mentioned previously, 76 per cent of them indicate that they are their own main source of financial support and less than 10 per cent of them have more than one job.

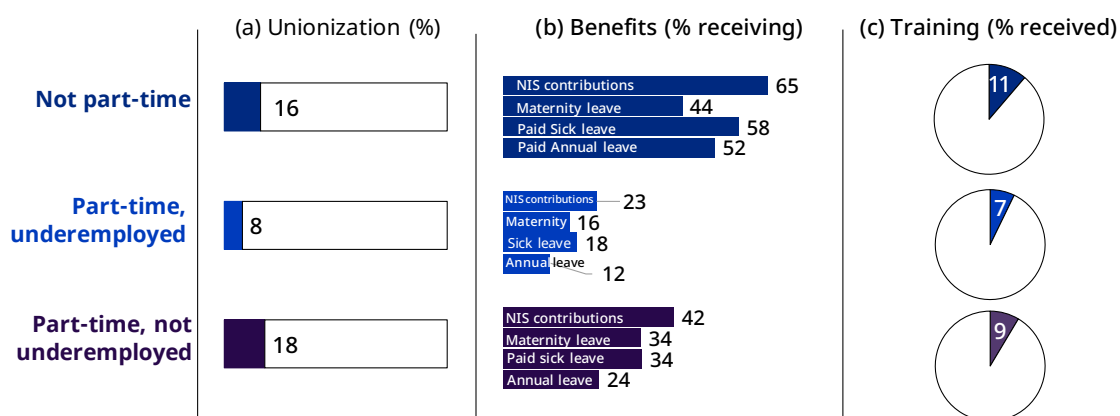
Voice and representation, social security benefits, and training

Underemployed part-time workers are half as likely to be unionized compared to non-part-time workers while, interestingly, unionization rates are about the same for non-part-time workers and part-time workers who are not underemployed (Fig. 28a). This may be related to the high incidence of teachers or education workers in the latter group. Ultimately, therefore, it is underemployed part-time workers who are disadvantaged to the extent that not being a union member means less bargaining power and less access to preferential arrangements.

About social security benefits, significantly fewer part-time workers receive the benefits measured, this situation being more acute for underemployed part-time workers (Fig. 28b). For example, only 18 per cent of underemployed part-time workers receive paid sick leave compared to 34 per cent for part-time workers who are not underemployed, and 58 per cent for those who work more than 35 hours. The average underemployed part-time worker, and to a lesser extent the average part-time worker who is not underemployed, are significantly more vulnerable and insecure in their jobs compared to non-part-time workers.

► Figure 28

Part-time and non-part-time workers by unionization rates, benefits received, and whether training was received for any occupation in the past 12 months (%)



Source: Author's own elaboration based on average of Q3 and Q4 of Guyana Labour Force Survey (2017)

On the matter of training received in the last 12 months, similar to the observation made during the discussion of temporary employment, there is not much difference between part-time and non-part-time workers (Fig. 28c). Across all categories, very few workers have received such training.



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▶ Disguised employment

As mentioned previously, workers in disguised employment are defined as those who are hired under contracts for service as independent workers or contractors but are treated and managed, in practice, as employees³⁴. This arrangement is often used by employers to hire workers in positions normally held by employees in order to avoid paying the benefits and other protections associated with employment via contracts of service. Guyana is not unique in the lack of data to pin down the incidence of this practice in the country; indeed, this is the main problem with measuring the practice globally. Insights from expert interviews, however, do provide a starting point for understanding what may be taking place.

For the most part, informants deemed disguised employment to be an uncommon and isolated practice in the country. The one exception came from one of the trade union representatives who contended that up to one third of all workers in Guyana are hired under the guise of being self-employed but are treated as employees.

More precise information was given regarding the industries in which this arrangement is likely to occur. In particular, the mining and construction industries were identified³⁵. This is likely due to the way in which work is organized in these two industries, with several small contractors operating. In the case of the mining industry, only about 20 per cent of mining operations are structured or company-owned with workers being paid a fixed monthly salary. The rest comprise small and medium scale operations with erratic tenure and lots of room for faux independent contractor arrangements, that is, those where contractors are employees in practice. It should be noted, however, that the Guyana Geological and Mines Commission deemed this arrangement to be non-existent to their knowledge.

Agriculture was another industry in which the practice of disguised employment was pinpointed.³⁶ Specifically, it was contended that up to 1,000 former sugar workers had been rehired by small contractors as self-employed workers to work in sugar production. While these workers are responsible for their own equipment, occupational health and safety, and the payment of national insurance contributions, trade union representatives stated that their work is managed and directed as regular employees. The practice was also identified as occurring among workers in the rice industry, but the exact number of workers was unknown.

In a preliminary attempt to validate these findings, we examined data for self-employed workers with and without help in Guyana to see whether there were any similarities that could be identified. This is since we anticipate that disguised employed workers would be officially classified as self-employed workers. Unfortunately, we do not find any such

34 See full definition in the List of Definitions section.

35 This identification was made by a number of trade unions and the Guyana Revenue Authority.

36 This identification was made by a trade union involved in the representation of these workers.

corroboration in the top industries of employment, apart from agriculture, forestry and fishing. Similarly, attempts to identify misclassifications by looking for workers who claim to be self-employed with or without help, but work in larger firms, were not fruitful. This does not mean that the findings from the interviews mentioned previously are not valid, but rather that they could not be confirmed.

We can confirm, however, that disguised employment does occur in Guyana and we have some clue as to in which industries this might be the case. Of course, it is highly possible that it occurs as well in industries not mentioned. It seems reasonable to conclude that it does not align with the 'Uber-type' model where technology is involved.

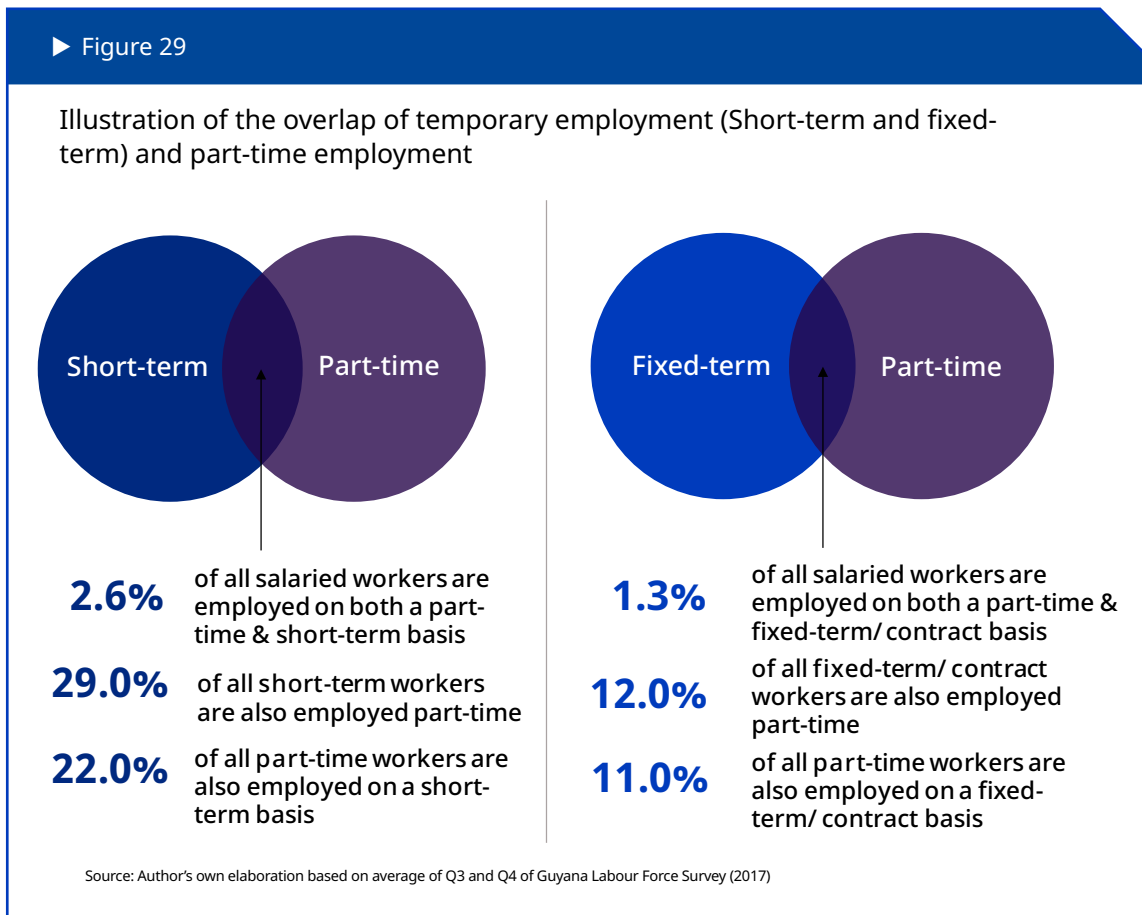
The little information we do have also suggests that disguised employed workers may be among the most vulnerable and unprotected in the labour market. In addition to the responsibility of paying their own national insurance contributions, which is often not fulfilled, work in the industries we have identified tends to be variable and highly insecure in terms of tenure, in addition to the higher likelihood of poor safety given the fact that this work is often hazardous in nature.

► Overlap of types of non-standard employment

Given the lack of quantitative data for disguised employment, we are unable to conclusively say anything about the overlap of this employment arrangement with the two others examined in this study. We are, however, able to examine the overlap between temporary and part-time employment as Figure 31 illustrates.

Out of all salaried workers, those who fall into the category of both short-term and part-time, and fixed-term and part-time are ultimately a very small group, 2.6 per cent and 1.3 per cent of all salaried workers, respectively. Looking within short-term workers and part-time workers, though, the numbers are a bit higher, as 29 per cent of short-term workers also work part-time while the figure is 22 per cent for the reverse.

Considering the nature of the jobs occupied by part-time workers, and indeed by short-term workers as well, this appears logical. For example, recall that 33 per cent of short-term workers are in construction while 15 per cent of underemployed part-time workers are also in this category. Inspecting the data reveals that most of this small subgroup are found where households are employers or producers, in construction, and in agriculture, forestry and fishing.



Although a very small fraction of all salaried workers, this group represents perhaps one of the most vulnerable since very few short-term and part-time workers receive social security benefits and incomes are lowest among these groups as well. This is in addition to the fact that the main industries in which they are found tend to have higher incidences of occupational safety risks, in the case of construction and agriculture, forestry, and fishing; and extremely low rates of regulation and monitoring in the case of all three.

With fixed-term workers generally being quite similar to permanent employees in terms of work characteristics, it is not surprising that the overlap is even smaller for contract and part-time workers. Indeed, it is possible that the overlap is largely comprised of teachers since they have been identified as working less than 35 hours and having fixed-term contracts. Examining the data shows that more than half of these are in education and public administration with the rest being dispersed across other industries. This means that, in terms of vulnerability, this subgroup is perhaps not as extremely vulnerable relative to others.

Despite the lack of data, we can make some informed suggestions as to what the overlap might be between the disguised employed and temporary, and part-time workers. The main commonality between these groups is that the mining, construction and agriculture industries are among the top ones for these types of workers; particularly for the disguised employed and for short-term workers. Even if the overlap is small, as with part-time and short-term workers, we can reasonably conclude that this subgroup will be highly vulnerable in the workplace. This is especially since disguised employed workers are the least likely of all types of workers to receive social security benefits, and to be protected by occupational health and safety regulations.

► Conclusion - Comparison of types of NSE

From the foregoing analysis, non-standard employment has been found to be a sizeable phenomenon in Guyana. This is particularly true for temporary employment. Having explored the causes and features of the different types of NSE, we can conclude that unique dynamics are at play for each type, influencing the implications they have for workers' welfare.

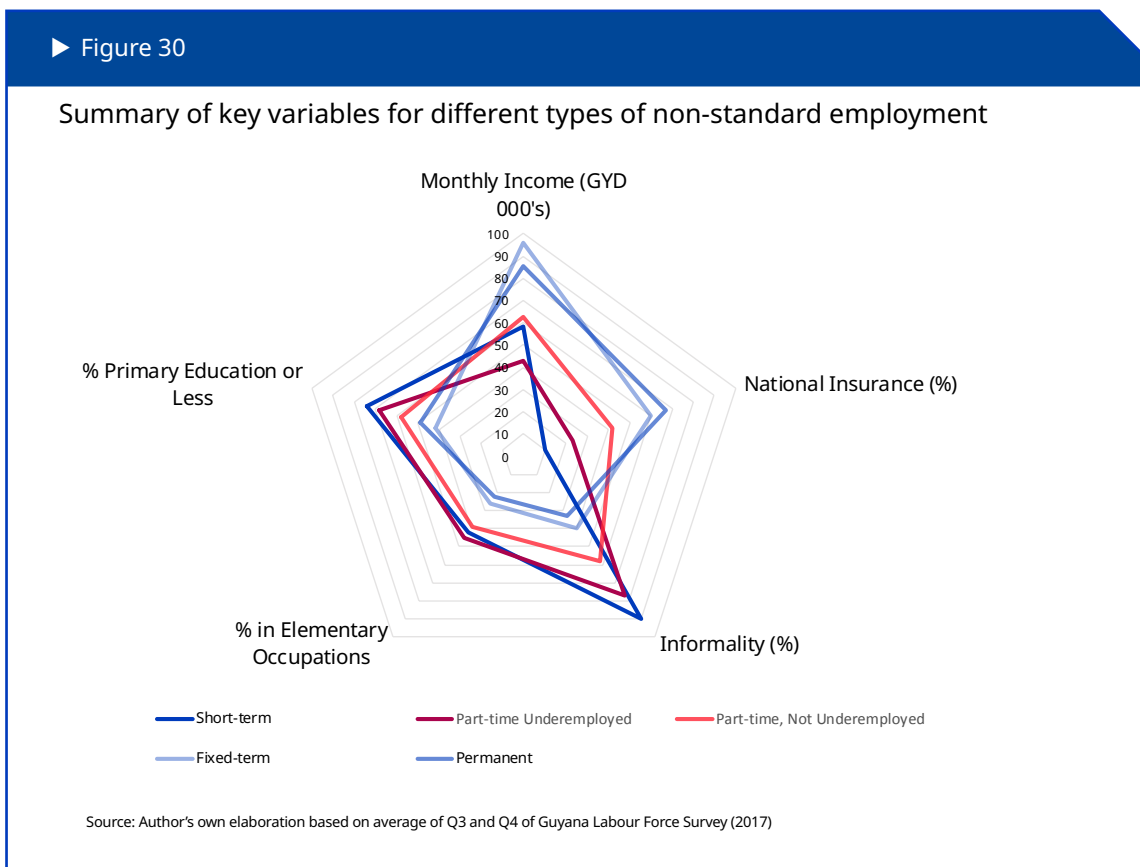


Figure 30 provides a comparison of the types of NSE covered in this report on key selected variables relative to permanent employment. Specifically, average total monthly income, percentage of workers whose employers pay National Insurance contributions on their behalf, percentage of workers employed in informal employment³⁷, percentage of workers in elementary occupations, and the percentage of workers who have only completed primary education or less, for each contract type are presented.

It is clear from this graph that the profile of fixed-term workers is very similar to that of permanent employees, with these workers having the highest monthly incomes and national insurance coverage, and the lowest rates of informality, and percentages of workers in elementary occupations or with only primary education or less, relative to the other types of NSE workers. On the other end of the spectrum are short-term workers and part-time underemployed workers who have similarly high rates of informality, and the

37 By construction, this is the reverse of the percentage who have NIS contributions paid.

highest percentages of workers with only primary education or less, and in elementary occupations, relative to other worker types. Those who work part-time - but are not underemployed - generally fall between these two pairs on the variables examined. This may be because a considerable portion of this group are de jure full-time employed workers who are often professionals in education or the public service, as previously discussed.

Although not presented graphically, it is worth comparing the main industries of employment for the different worker types (Table 2.0). Based on the data, it appears that worker types who are more common in industries known to be hazardous and / or insecure in terms of social protection and tenure, such as mining, construction, and households as employers and producers, also have the lowest incomes and national insurance coverage, the highest rates of informality, and the highest percentages of workers in elementary occupations and with primary education or less.

Despite the lack of data on disguised employed workers, their presence in mining, construction and agriculture, and the fact that they are responsible for their own national insurance contributions allows us to speculate as to what these figures might be.

► Table 2.0

Summary of key variables for different types of non-standard employment versus permanent workers

	Disguised self-employed	Short-term	Part-time under-employed	Part-time not under-employed	Fixed term	Permanent
Income (GYD)	unknown	58,054	43,038	62,349	95,957	85,213
National insurance (%)	unknown but required to make own contributions	10	23	42	60	67
Informality (%)	unknown	90	77	58	40	33
% in elementary occupations	unknown	42	45	39	26	22
% primary education or less	unknown	74	68	58	42	49
Main industries	1. Mining 2. Construction 3. Agriculture	1. Construction 2. Agriculture, forestry and fishing 3. Wholesale, retail, vehicle repair	1. Housing as employers and producers 2. Construction 3. Education	1. Education 2. Households as employers and producers 3. Public administration	1. Public administration 2. Education 3. Construction	1. Agriculture, forestry, fishing 2. Public administration 3. Wholesale, retail, vehicle repair

Source: Author's own elaboration based on average of Q3 and Q4 of Guyana Labour Force Survey (2017)

Specifically, the percentage of these workers in elementary occupations is likely to be high given the industries of employment and, concomitantly, those with only primary education or less is also expected to be high. It naturally follows, therefore, that average total monthly incomes are likely to be low, at least relative to permanent, and fixed-term workers, and those who work part-time but are not underemployed. Meanwhile, the payment of NIS contributions is expected to be low given that disguised employed workers are themselves responsible for its payment. By construction, therefore, informality is expected to be high.

The above analysis, together with the one presented in the previous chapters, allows depicting a figure where nonstandard forms of employment appear to imply some costs or losses for workers therein implicated. Lower salary, informal employment, non-application / reception of social security benefits and a generally a lower union membership (with possible implications in terms of voice and representation) seem to be common. Similarly, access to private finance tends to be negatively affected by the status in employment. Such situation is partially compensated, for fixed-term contracts by a higher take home pay. In terms of public finance, the picture is mixed: while the majority of such contracts may entail a lower disbursement for the State (or for the private sector), the absence or partial coverage in terms of benefits and, in particular, of social security contributions, may generate a longer term cost in terms of sustainability of pension schemes and for other public finances (e.g. health costs stemming from injuries).

More generally, there seems to be an association between nonstandard employment and the higher flexibility which such contracts warrant for employers, often allowing for lower short-term operational cost, even noting the fact that fixed-term employees tend to receive higher take-home pay vis à vis permanent ones. Such immediate gain needs to be assessed against the longer term horizon and considerations must be made about whether it can translate into aggregated net productivity gains at the country level.



Workers in the hospitality industry. Photo compliments rawpixel.com free photos

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► Annexes



Worker arc welding. Photo compliments rawpixel.com free photos

► Annex I: List of interviewees

Aslim Singh	Assistant General Secretary, Guyana Agricultural and General Workers' Union (GAWU)
Charles Ogle	Labour Commissioner, Ministry of Social Protection
Christopher Ram	Attorney-at-Law and Chartered Accountant, Ram and McCrae Ltd.
Dawchan Nagasar	General Secretary, National Association of Agricultural, Commercial and Industrial Employees (NAACIE) and the Federation of Independent Trade Unions of Guyana (FITUG)
Jairam Petam	Group Human Resources Executive, Edward B. Beharry Group of Companies Ltd.
Krishna Ramdas	Manager of Mines (ag.), Guyana Geology and Mines Commission (GGMC)
Lincoln Lewis	General Secretary, Guyana Trades Unions Congress (GTUC)
Marvalyn Stephens	Secretary, Public Service Commission
Mavis Benn	Deputy Commissioner, Public Service Commission
Patrick Yarde	President, Guyana Public Service Union (GPSU)
Rhonda Wilson	Human Resources Supervisor, Massy Gas Products, Guyana.
Richard Isava	Executive Director, Guyana Bank for Trade and Industry; and President, Guyana Bankers Association Inc. (GABI)
Richard Rambarran	Executive Director, Georgetown Chamber of Commerce and Industry (GCCCI)
Samuel Goolsarran	Consultant Adviser / Executive Director, Consultative Association of Guyanese Industry Ltd (CAGI)
Sharon Carrington	Deputy Commissioner Inland Revenue (ag), Large Taxpayers Division, Guyana Revenue Authority (GRA)



Teleworking. Photo compliments rawpixel.com free photos

► Annex 2: Statistical annex

Temporary employment - Tables from average Q3 & Q4 Guyana LFS 2017

► Table 1.0

Salaried workers by contract type and sex

Short term (all sectors) total 16189.64									
	All sectors			Private sector			Public sector		
	Sex			Sex			Sex		
Contract type	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Short-term	12927.06	3262.58	16189.6	9338.94	2311.02	11649.97	668.04	412.35	1080.39
As % of total salaried workers	79.85	20.15	100.00	80.26	19.74	100.00	64.86	35.14	100.00
As % of total salaried workers by sex	11.72	4.73	9.03	14.79	7.50	12.41	2.17	1.42	1.81
Fixed-term	11997.72	7750.68	19748.40	6222.86	1945.54	8168.40	4204.90	5024.13	9229.03
As % of total salaried workers	60.72	39.29	100.00	76.15	23.86	100.00	45.55	54.45	100.00
As % of total salaried workers by sex	10.87	11.24	11.01	9.85	6.32	8.69	13.63	17.45	15.47
Permanent	85392.80	57929.27	143322.05	47603.31	26547.14	74150.44	25980.52	23364.88	49345.40
As % of total salaried workers	59.58	40.42	100.00	64.20	35.81	100.00	52.65	47.35	100.00
As % of total salaried workers by sex	77.42	84.03	79.96	75.37	86.18	78.90	84.21	40.28	82.73
Total	110317.57	68942.53	179260.15	63165.10	30803.70	93968.80	30853.47	28801.37	59654.83
As % of total salaried workers	61.54	38.46	100.00	67.22	32.79	100.00	51.73	48.28	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Note:
 Fixed term As percent of total salaried workers total 100.01
 Permanent (all sectors) total 14332.07
 Total all sectors 179260.1

▶ Table 3.0

Salaried workers by contract type and zone

Contract type	Zone		
	Rural	Urban	Total
Short-term	12,819.37	3,370.27	16,189.65
As % of total salaried workers	79.34	20.66	100.00
As % of total salaried workers by zone	10.33	6.03	9.03
Fixed-term	13,794.79	5,953.62	19,748.40
As % of total salaried workers	69.89	30.11	100.00
As % of total salaried workers by zone	11.12	10.79	11.01
Permanent	97,514.59	45,807.49	143,322.05
As % of total salaried workers	68.05	31.96	100.00
As % of total salaried workers by zone	78.56	83.18	79.96
Total	124,128.70	55,131.38	179,260.15
As % of total salaried workers	69.27	30.74	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00

▶ Table 4.0

Salaried workers by contract type and occupation group

Contract type	Managers, professionals, technicians & APs	Clerical, service & sales, Skilled agriculture, forestry & fisheries, craft, plant, machine and assembly workers	Elementary occupations	Total
Short-term	538.56	8866.86	6736.46	16141.88
As % of total salaried workers	3.28	54.95	41.77	100.00
As % of total salaried workers by occupation group	1.35	9.50	15.54	9.15
Fixed-term	6059.93	8219.76	4970.83	19250.52
As % of total salaried workers	31.58	42.63	25.80	100.00
As % of total salaried workers by occupation group	15.28	8.80	11.45	10.91
Permanent	33089.34	76268.29	31673.98	141031.58
As % of total salaried workers	23.47	54.08	22.46	100.00
As % of total salaried workers by occupation group	83.38	81.71	73.02	79.95
Total	39687.82	93354.91	43381.27	176423.97
As % of total salaried workers	22.50	52.92	24.59	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

▶ Table 5.0

Salaried workers by contract type and top five industries of employment

Type of contract		
Short-term		
Industry	Frequency	Percentage
Construction	5359.77	33.30
Agriculture, forestry & fishing	2660.45	16.56
Wholesale and retail trade, vehicle repair	1532.12	9.48
Mining & quarrying	1367.54	8.47
Households as employers and household-production	1249.06	7.80
Fixed-term		
Industry	Frequency	Percent
Public admin, defence, compulsory social work	4604.14405	23.41
Education	2177.0696	11.09
Construction	1980.34805	10.01
Mining & quarrying	1930.52065	9.78
Agriculture, forestry & fishing	1460.46385	7.365
Permanent		
Industry	Frequency	Percentage
Agriculture, forestry & fishing	21043.133	14.71
Public admin, defence, compulsory social work	18819.689	13.15
Wholesale and retail trade, vehicle repair	16052.4765	11.22
Manufacturing	14307.605	10.005
Education	12971.839	9.07

▶ Table 6.0

Salaried workers by contract type and highest level of education completed

Contract type	Primary or less	Secondary	Tertiary	Total
Short-term	11757.65	3957.48	188.55	15903.68
As % of total salaried workers	74.08	24.76	1.17	100.00
As % of total salaried workers by education level	13.09	5.62	1.08	8.95
Fixed-term	8340.68	8121.75	3176.93	19639.36
As % of total salaried workers	42.29	41.58	16.14	100.00
As % of total salaried workers by education level	9.26	11.58	18.12	11.05
Permanent	69782.45	58178.93	14172.11	142133.50
As % of total salaried workers	49.10	40.93	9.98	100.00
As % of total salaried workers by education level	77.65	82.81	80.81	80.01
Total	89880.79	70258.17	17537.59	177676.55
As % of total salaried workers	50.59	39.54	9.88	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

▶ Table 7.0

Salaried workers by contract type and institutional sector

Contract type	Private	Public	NGO	Total
Short-term	11649.97	1080.39	3459.29	16189.65
As % of total salaried workers	72.11	6.63	21.27	100.00
As % of total salaried workers by institutional sector	12.41	1.81	13.43	9.03
Fixed-term	8168.40	9229.03	2350.97	19748.40
As % of total salaried workers	41.42	46.81	11.77	100.00
As % of total salaried workers by institutional sector	8.69	15.47	9.10	11.01
Permanent	74150.44	49345.40	19826.24	143322.05
As % of total salaried workers	51.73	34.43	13.84	100.00
As % of total salaried workers by institutional sector	78.90	82.73	77.47	79.96
Total	93968.80	59654.83	25636.49	179260.15
As % of total salaried workers	52.42	33.29	14.30	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

▶ Table 8

Salaried workers by contract type and whether they hold more than one job

Contract type	In the last 7 days did you have more than one job or economic activity?		
	Yes	No	Total
Short-term	763.76	15425.89	16189.65
As % of total salaried workers	4.69	95.32	100.00
As % of total salaried workers by whether or not they hold more than one job	13.15	8.89	9.03
Fixed-term	880.11	18868.30	19748.40
As % of total salaried workers	4.49	95.52	100.00
As % of total salaried workers by whether or not they hold more than one job	15.56	10.87	11.01
Permanent	4090.11	139231.95	143322.05
As % of total salaried workers	2.85	97.15	100.00
As % of total salaried workers by whether or not they hold more than one job	71.30	80.25	79.96
Total	5733.98	173526.15	179260.15
As % of total salaried workers	3.20	96.81	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00

▶ Table 13.0

Salaried workers by contract type, formality, and age group

Age group	Informally employed	Formal short-term	Formal fixed-term	Formal permanent	Total
Young salaried workers (15-29)	29546.89	895.20	5907.82	37594.70	73944.60
%	39.96	1.20	7.99	50.85	100.00
Middle-aged salaried workers (30-49)	26985.05	555.29	3830.18	41408.79	72779.30
%	37.08	0.76	5.26	56.90	100.00
Older (50+) salaried workers	12875.71	121.47	1987.44	17405.07	32389.69
%	39.75	0.37	6.14	53.75	100.00

▶ Table 14.0

Unemployed workers by contract type in last job, size of salaried labour force by contract type (unemployed + employed), and unemployment rate by contract type

Contract type	"Number of unemployed (1)"	"Labour force size (unemployed + employed) (2)"	"Unemployment rate (%) (1)/(2)"
Short-term	1967.93	18157.57	10.83
Fixed-term	8747.50	28495.90	30.74
Permanent	13819.80	157141.87	8.78
Total	24535.23	203795.35	12.04

► Table 15.0

Unemployed workers by contract type and institutional sector in last job and percentage of total unemployment rate (%)

Contract type in last job	Less than 3 months	3 months or more but less than 12 months	12 months or more	Total
Short-term	902.4057	575.54938	489.973931	1967.929
% of all unemployed salaried workers	43.05	29.71	27.24	100
% of all unemployed salaried workers by institutional sector	10.235	9.02	5.33	8.11
Fixed-term	3399.8505	2415.6915	2931.958	8747.5005
% of all unemployed salaried workers	38.825	27.68	33.495	100
% of all unemployed salaried workers by institutional sector	39.025	36.625	31.995	35.73
Permanent	4400.1275	3643.2625	5776.4075	13819.795
% of all unemployed salaried workers	31.94	26.095	41.96	100
% of all unemployed salaried workers by institutional sector	50.745	54.355	62.68	56.16
Total	8702.3835	6634.50335	9198.33985	24535.2255
% of all unemployed salaried workers	35.55	26.965	37.48	100
	100	100	100	100

▶ Table 16.0

Unemployed workers by contract type and institutional sector in last job and percentage of total unemployment rate (%)

Contract type in Last Job	Private sector	Public sector	Total
Short-term	1894.75	73.18	1967.93
% of all unemployed salaried workers	95.61	4.39	100.00
% of all unemployed salaried workers by institutional sector	9.17	2.04	9.64
% unemployment rate by contract type	10.43	0.40	10.83
Fixed-term	7872.54	874.96	8747.50
% of all unemployed salaried workers	90.05	9.96	100.00
% of all unemployed salaried workers by institutional sector	37.65	24.44	51.48
% unemployment rate by contract type	27.65	3.09	30.74
Permanent	11181.33	2638.47	13819.80
% of all unemployed salaried workers	80.81	19.19	100.00
% of all unemployed salaried workers by institutional sector	53.19	73.52	88.88
% unemployment rate by contract type	7.10	1.68	8.78
Total	20948.63	3586.60	24535.23
% of all unemployed salaried workers	85.37	14.63	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00

► Table 17.0

Salaried workers' average mean total monthly income (GYD) with confidence intervals by contract type and institutional sector

Contract type	All sectors			Private sector			Public sector		
	Mean (GYD)	95% Confidence	Interval	Mean (GYD)	95% Confidence	Interval	Mean (GYD)	95% Confidence	Interval
Short-term	58054.20	47480.33	68628.06	56542.40	44393.09	68691.70	44482.03	29244.01	59720.07
Fixed-term	95956.64	82328.85	109584.44	103908.67	79657.96	128159.40	83554.36	65967.81	101140.95
Permanent	85212.95	81059.28	89366.62	86456.92	80153.05	92760.78	83767.00	78013.83	89520.17

► Table 18.0

Salaried workers' average mean total monthly income (GYD) with confidence intervals by contract type and sex

Contract type	Males			Females		
	Mean (GYD)	95% Confidence	Interval	Mean (GYD)	95% Confidence	Interval
Short-term	63036.75	52829.77	73243.74	38313.72	14364.28	62263.16
Fixed-term	113065.74	93084.51	133046.90	70382.82	58826.09	81939.55
Permanent	92979.80	87414.32	98545.29	73983.59	68751.07	79216.11

▶ Table 19.0

Salaried workers' average mean total monthly income (GYD) with confidence intervals by contract type and age group

Contract type	Young workers (15-29)			Middle aged workers (30-49)			Older workers (50+)		
	Mean (GYD)	95% Confidence	Interval	Mean (GYD)	95% Confidence	Interval	Mean (GYD)	95% Confidence	Interval
Short-term	54877.31	37744.49	72010.14	62631.29	47821.39	77441.18	55627.92	39883.37	71372.47
Fixed-term	81373.77	68002.46	94745.09	111421.49	84051.90	138791.05	101112.16	73012.66	129211.70
Permanent	76195.35	71187.28	81203.41	94323.37	88103.73	100543.01	84756.90	73906.99	95606.83

▶ Table 20.0

Salaried workers' average mean total monthly income (GYD) with confidence intervals by contract type and occupation group

Contract type	Managers, professionals, technicians & associate professionals			Clerical, service & sales, skilled agriculture, forestry & fisheries, craft, plant, machine and assembly workers			Elementary occupations		
	Mean (GYD)	95% Confidence	Interval	Mean (GYD)	95% Confidence	Interval	Mean (GYD)	95% Confidence	Interval
Short-term	119164.24	43340.44	194988.10	63309.70	48603.85	78015.55	48578.47	36925.42	60231.52
Fixed-term	132835.65	99367.34	166304.00	87388.14	73971.63	100804.65	65032.85	53048.11	77017.60
Permanent	109554.40	100774.65	118334.20	80295.49	75511.81	85079.18	71001.63	62029.99	79973.27

▶ Table 21.0

Linear regression of average monthly total income (GYD) on contract type (only fixed-term and permanent), with controls for sex, occupation group, age bands, and institutional sector (private and public only)

Dependent variable – total monthly income (GYD)			
Independent variables	β Coefficient	Robust std. error	t
Contract type			
Permanent	-9151.81	7041.90	-1
Sex			
Female	-28323.88**	4198.82	-6.945
Occupation group			
Middle level	-39486.72**	5728.82	-6.91
Elementary	-53450.19**	6766.31	-7.94
Age bands			
20-24	8103.89	7526.54	2.205
25-29	26068.38	8726.92	3.69
30-39	35454.3**	8479.49	5.185
40-49	28723.73	8402.17	4.505
50-59	29508.71	9103.85	3.945
60+	20971.57	21062.69	0.53
Institutional sector			
Public	-14906.71**	4007.29	-3.73
Constant	121242.25**	12552.38	9.66

Note:

**means statistically significant at the 0.05 level

Regression based on 2,505 observations. Robust standard errors calculated to account for any heteroskedasticity.

▶ Table 22.0

Linear regression of average monthly total income (GYD) on contract type (only fixed-term and permanent), with controls for sex, occupation group, age bands, for the private sector ONLY

Dependent variable – total monthly income (GYD)			
Independent variables	β Coefficient	Robust std. error	t
Contract type			
Permanent	-12986.28	10482.3335	-0.9
Sex			
Female	-31956.46**	5929.4655	-5.565
Occupation group			
Middle level	-49897.44**	10528.156	-4.79
Elementary	-58255.25**	11999.27	-4.88
Age bands			
20-24	7107.13	8961.9365	1.735
25-29	27577.72	11441.7985	2.785
30-39	33459.57**	10078.3095	4.135
40-49	27573.32	10340.007	3.375
50-59	21352.7	11596.565	2.095
60+	31648.65	27873.445	0.575
Constant	134612.40**	17728.345	7.6

Note:

**means statistically significant at the 0.05 level

Regression based on 1,425 observations. Robust standard errors calculated to account for any heteroskedasticity.

▶ Table 23.0

Linear regression of average monthly total income (GYD) on contract type (only fixed-term and permanent), with controls for sex, occupation group, age bands, for the public sector ONLY

Dependent variable – total monthly income (GYD)			
Independent variables	β Coefficient	Robust std. error	t
Contract type			
Permanent	-6920.91	9597.732	-0.66
Sex			
Female	-21573.42**	5821.896	-3.83
Occupation group			
Middle level	-28763.54**	5543.803	-5.13
Elementary	-54701.41**	7404.287	-7.515
Age bands			
20-24	15510.27**	7693.467	2.025
25-29	29159.56**	8309.526	3.535
30-39	42949.72**	10777.0195	4.08
40-49	36770.37**	8883.175	4.145
50-59	44390.02**	9951.056	4.465
60+	531.35	12154.14	0.215
Constant	90129.94**	12736.206	7.575

Note:

**means statistically significant at the 0.05 level

Regression based on 1,081 observations. Robust standard errors calculated to account for any heteroskedasticity.

▶ Table 24.0

Linear regression of average monthly total income (GYD) on contract type (only fixed-term and permanent), with controls for sex, occupation group, age bands, for the private sector ONLY

Dependent variable – total monthly income (GYD)			
Independent variables	β Coefficient	Robust std. error	t
Contract type			
Fixed-term	35568.17**	7995.13	4.26
Permanent	24589.03**	5729.22	4.28
Occupation group			
Middle level	-39361.09**	5243.47	-7.51
Elementary	-53089.52**	6016.32	-8.83
Age bands			
20-24	11593.31	5918.46	2.89
25-29	26888.75**	6826.40	4.43
30-39	37790.57**	6711.60	6.31
40-49	28825.47**	6471.03	5.22
50-59	28078.38**	7047.73	4.50
60+	19051.64	15996.47	0.86
Sex			
Female	-28474.31**	3660.90	-7.84
Institutional sector			
Public	-14718.54**	3817.28	-3.88
NGO	-810.25	4799.39	-0.14

Note:

**means statistically significant at the 0.05 level

Regression based on 3,166 observations. Robust standard errors calculated to account for any heteroskedasticity.

▶ Table 25.0

Salaried workers by contract type, and main source of financial support

Contract Type	Other	Self	Total
Short-term	3237.37	12952.27	16189.65
As % of total salaried workers	19.95	80.05	100.00
As % of total salaried workers by main source of financial support	18.32	8.02	9.03
Fixed Term	2040.35	17708.05	19748.40
As % of total salaried workers	10.40	89.60	100.00
As % of total salaried workers by main source of financial support	11.53	10.95	11.01
Permanent	12406.92	130915.15	143322.05
As % of total salaried workers	8.66	91.34	100.00
As % of total salaried workers by main source of financial support	70.15	81.03	79.96
Total	17684.65	161575.45	179260.15
As % of total salaried workers	9.87	90.13	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00

▶ Table 32.0

Salaried workers in all sectors who have received training in the Last 12 months by contract type and where they received training

Contract type	On-the-job	Other	Total
Short-term	642.18	757.62	1399.80
As % of total salaried workers	46.25	53.76	100.00
As % of total salaried workers by training location	8.66	6.47	7.30
Fixed-term	1304.01	2040.34	3344.36
As % of total salaried workers	38.39	61.61	100.00
As % of total salaried workers by training location	17.74	17.03	17.17
Permanent	5443.11	9243.90	14687.02
As % of total salaried workers	37.29	62.72	100.00
As % of total salaried workers by training location	73.61	76.51	75.55
Total	7389.30	12041.87	19431.17
As % of total salaried workers	38.12	61.88	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00

► Table 33.0

Salaried workers by average total monthly income (GYD) and occupation group for the public sector ONLY

Contract type	Managers, professionals, technicians & associate professionals			Clerical, service & sales, skilled agriculture, forestry & fisheries, craft, plant, machine and assembly workers			Elementary occupations		
	Mean (GYD)	95% Confidence	Interval	Mean (GYD)	95% Confidence	Interval	Mean (GYD)	95% Confidence	Interval
Short-term	119164.24	43340.44	194988.10	43818.96	23265.10	64372.81	41240.01	16716.75	65763.27
Fixed-term	132835.65	99367.34	166304.00	68976.46	56380.30	81572.62	48174.21	37668.22	58680.20
Permanent	109554.40	100774.65	118334.20	77916.66	71950.79	83882.52	61782.50	53600.19	69964.81

Part-time - Tables from average Q3 & Q4 Guyana LFS 2017

► Table 34.0

Salaried workers by average total monthly income (GYD) and occupation group for the public sector ONLY

Part-time Status	Male	Female	Total
Not part-time	99496.64	58116.29	157612.95
% of total salaried workers	63.13	36.87	100.00
% of total salaried workers by sex	90.19	84.29	87.92
Time-related underemployed	6968.21	5465.09	12433.30
% of total salaried workers	56.06	43.95	100.00
% of total salaried workers by sex	6.32	7.94	6.94
Part-time, not underemployed	3852.72	5361.15	9213.87
% of total salaried workers	41.82	58.19	100.00
% of total salaried workers by sex	3.50	7.78	5.15
Total	110317.57	68942.53	179260.15
% of total salaried workers	61.54	38.46	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00

▶ Table 36.0

Salaried workers by part-time status and zone

	Rural	Urban	Total
Part-time status			
Not part-time	107917.71	49695.24	157612.95
% of total salaried workers	68.50	31.51	100.00
% of total salaried workers by zone	86.94	90.16	87.92
Time-related underemployed	9270.19	3163.11	12433.30
% of total salaried workers	74.56	25.45	100.00
% of total salaried workers by zone	7.47	5.77	6.94
Part-time, not underemployed	6940.84	2273.03	9213.87
% of total salaried workers	75.22	24.79	100.00
% of total salaried workers by zone	5.59	4.08	5.15
Total	124128.70	55131.38	179260.15
% of total salaried workers	69.27	30.74	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00

► Table 37.0

Salaried workers by part-time status and occupation group

Part-time status	Managers, professionals, technicians & associate professionals	Clerical, service & sales, skilled agri, forestry & fisheries, craft, plant, machine and assembly workers	Elementary occupations	Total
Not part-time	35158.27	85436.64	34291.32	154886.25
% of total salaried workers	22.69	55.17	22.14	100.00
% of total salaried workers by occupation group	88.56	91.52	79.06	87.79
Time-related underemployed	1900.02	4937.19	5535.88	12373.09
% of total salaried workers	15.33	39.87	44.80	100.00
% of total salaried workers by occupation group	4.80	5.29	12.76	7.02
Part-time, not underemployed	2629.52	2981.09	3554.07	9164.67
% of total salaried workers	28.66	32.51	38.83	100.00
% of total salaried workers by occupation group	6.64	3.20	8.19	5.20
Total	39687.82	93354.91	43381.27	176423.97
% of total salaried workers	22.50	52.92	24.59	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

▶ Table 38.0

Salaried workers by part-time status and highest level of education

Part-time Status	Primary or Less	Secondary	Tertiary	Total
Not part-time	76306.67	64357.18	15637.93	156301.75
% of total salaried workers	48.82	41.17	10.01	100.00
% of total salaried workers by highest level of education completed	84.89	91.59	89.17	87.96
Time-related underemployed	8378.24	3201.46	786.48	12366.18
% of total salaried workers	67.76	25.89	6.36	100.00
% of total salaried workers by highest level of education completed	9.33	4.56	4.49	6.97
Part-time, not underemployed	5195.88	2699.52	1113.18	9008.59
% of total salaried workers	57.71	29.92	12.38	100.00
% of total salaried workers by highest level of education completed	5.79	3.85	6.35	5.08
Total	89880.79	70258.17	17537.59	177676.55
% of total salaried workers	50.59	39.54	9.88	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

▶ Table 39.0

Salaried workers by part-time status and top 3 industries of employment

Not part-time		
Industry	Frequency	Percentage
Agriculture, forestry & fishing	22249.97	14.16
Public admin, defence, compulsory social work	22115.55	14.07
Wholesale and retail trade, vehicle repair	16609.51	10.56
Time-related underemployed		
Industry	Frequency	Percentage
Households as employers and household production	2112.56	17.01
Construction	1876.03	15.13
Agriculture, forestry & fishing	1568.43	12.65
Part-time, not underemployed		
Industry	Frequency	Percentage
Education	2462.87	26.71
Agriculture, forestry & fishing	1345.64	14.63
Households as employers and household production	1040.88	11.30

► Table 40.0

Salaried workers by part-time status and institutional sector

	Private	Public	NGO	Total
Part-time status				
Not part-time	81622.54	52992.21	22998.21	157612.95
% of total salaried workers	51.79	33.63	14.58	100.00
% of total salaried workers by institutional sector	86.86	88.83	89.66	87.92
Time-related underemployed	7539.77	3048.79	1844.75	12433.30
% of total salaried workers	60.69	24.53	14.79	100.00
% of total salaried workers by institutional sector	8.02	5.12	7.26	6.94
Part-time, not underemployed	4806.50	3613.83	793.54	9213.87
% of total salaried workers	52.13	39.25	8.63	100.00
% of total salaried workers by institutional sector	5.12	6.06	3.09	5.15
Total	93968.80	59654.83	25636.49	179260.15
% of total salaried workers	52.42	33.29	14.30	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

▶ Table 42.0

Salaried workers by part-time status and average hours usually worked per week

Part-time status	Mean hours worked	"95% confidence"	Interval
Not part-time	51.38	50.55	52.21
Time-related underemployed	22.17	20.56	23.77
Part-time, not underemployed	24.46	22.42	26.49

▶ Table 43.0

Salaried workers by part-time status and average monthly total income (GYD)

Part-time status	Mean total income (GYD)	"95% confidence"	Interval
Not part-time	88539.06	84188.12	92890.00
Time-related underemployed	43037.93	36988.53	49087.33
Part-time, not underemployed	62348.83	48521.35	76176.32

► Table 44.0

Salaried workers by part-time status, average monthly total income (GYD) and reason for working less than 40 hours per week

Reason for working less than 40 hours per week	Part-time status	Mean total income (GYD)	"95% confidence"	Interval
Full time work is <40 hours	Time-related underemployed	51060.96	40346.36	61775.55
	Part-time, not underemployed	67882.74	51888.89	83876.60
Other reason	Time-related underemployed	33991.18	28144.54	39837.82
	Part-time, not underemployed	38894.44	26226.14	51562.75

► Table 45.0

Salaried workers by part-time status and informality

Part-time status	Formal	Informal	Total
Not part-time	103077.67	54535.31	157612.95
% of total salaried workers	65.41	34.59	100.00
% of total salaried workers by informal status	93.86	78.52	87.92
Time-related underemployed	2864.70	9568.60	12433.30
% of total salaried workers	23.04	76.96	100.00
% of total salaried workers by informal status	2.61	13.79	6.94
Part-time, not underemployed	3880.41	5333.46	9213.87
% of total salaried workers	42.14	57.86	100.00
% of total salaried workers by informal status	3.53	7.70	5.15
	0.00	0.00	0.00
Total	109822.75	69437.37	179260.15
% of total salaried workers	61.27	38.73	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00

► Table 46.0

Salaried workers by part-time status and main source of financial support

Part-time status	Other	Self	Total
Not part-time	12591.49	145021.45	157612.95
% of total salaried workers	7.99	92.02	100.00
% of total salaried workers by main source of financial support	71.22	89.76	87.92
Time-related underemployed	2956.49	9476.81	12433.30
% of total salaried workers	23.76	76.24	100.00
% of total salaried workers by main source of financial support	16.72	5.87	6.94
Part-time, not underemployed	2136.67	7077.21	9213.87
% of total salaried workers	23.13	76.87	100.00
% of total salaried workers by main source of financial support	12.07	4.38	5.15
Total	17684.65	161575.45	179260.15
% of total salaried workers	9.87	90.13	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00

▶ Table 47.0

Salaried workers by part-time status and whether or not they are members of a union or professional association

Part-time status	Yes	No	Total
Not part-time	25342.76	132270.20	157612.95
% of total salaried workers	16.09	83.92	100.00
% of total salaried workers by whether or not they are unionised	90.47	87.44	87.92
Time-related underemployed	1014.23	11419.07	12433.30
% of total salaried workers	8.15	91.85	100.00
% of total salaried workers by whether or not they are unionised	3.62	7.56	6.94
Part-time, not underemployed	1656.88	7556.99	9213.87
% of total salaried workers	18.01	81.99	100.00
% of total salaried workers by whether or not they are unionised	5.92	5.00	5.15
Total	28013.87	151246.25	179260.15
% of total salaried workers	15.64	84.37	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00

▶ Table 48.0

Salaried workers by part-time status and whether or not their employers deduct national insurance contributions

Part-time status	Yes	No	Total
Not part-time	103077.67	54535.31	157612.95
% of total salaried workers	65.41	34.59	100.00
% of total salaried workers by whether employers deducts NIS contributions	93.86	78.52	87.92
Time-related underemployed	2864.70	9568.60	12433.30
% of total salaried workers	23.04	76.96	100.00
% of total salaried workers by whether employers deducts NIS contributions	2.61	13.79	6.94
Part-time, not underemployed	3880.41	5333.46	9213.87
% of total salaried workers	42.14	57.86	100.00
% of total salaried workers by whether employers deducts NIS contributions	3.53	7.70	5.15
Total	109822.75	69437.37	179260.15
% of total salaried workers	61.27	38.73	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00

▶ Table 49.0

Salaried workers by part-time status and whether they receive paid annual leave

	Yes	No	Total
Part-time status			
Not part-time	82388.10	75224.86	157612.95
% of total salaried workers	52.26	47.74	100.00
% of total salaried workers by whether receive paid annual leave	95.79	80.67	87.92
Time-related underemployed	1444.88	10988.42	12433.30
% of total salaried workers	11.61	88.40	100.00
% of total salaried workers by whether receive paid annual leave	1.69	11.79	6.94
Part-time, not underemployed	2176.71	7037.16	9213.87
% of total salaried workers	23.66	76.34	100.00
% of total salaried workers by whether receive paid annual leave	2.53	7.55	5.15
Total	86009.69	93250.44	179260.15
% of total salaried workers	47.97	52.04	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00

▶ Table 50.0

Salaried workers by part-time status and whether or not they receive paid sick leave

	Yes	No	Total
Part-time status			
Not part-time	91759.78	65853.18	157612.95
% of total salaried workers	58.23	41.77	100.00
% of total salaried workers by whether receive paid sick leave	94.42	80.22	87.92
Time-related underemployed	2269.09	10164.21	12433.30
% of total salaried workers	18.19	81.81	100.00
% of total salaried workers by whether receive paid sick leave	2.34	12.39	6.94
Part-time, not underemployed	3154.52	6059.36	9213.87
% of total salaried workers	34.32	65.68	100.00
% of total salaried workers by whether receive paid sick leave	3.24	7.41	5.15
Total	97183.38	82076.75	179260.15
% of total salaried workers	54.22	45.78	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00

▶ Table 51.0

Salaried workers by part-time status and whether they receive paid annual leave

Part-time status	No	Yes	Total
Not part-time	88044.65	69568.30	157612.95
% of total salaried workers	55.88	44.13	100.00
% of total salaried workers by whether receive maternity/paternity leave	84.20	93.13	87.92
Time-related underemployed	10424.83	2008.47	12433.30
% of total salaried workers	83.87	16.13	100.00
% of total salaried workers by whether receive maternity/paternity leave	9.97	2.70	6.94
Part-time, not underemployed	6090.88	3122.99	9213.87
% of total salaried workers	66.05	33.96	100.00
% of total salaried workers by whether receive maternity/paternity leave	5.83	4.18	5.15
Total	104560.35	74699.77	179260.15
% of total salaried workers	58.34	41.66	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00

▶ Table 52.0

Salaried workers by part-time status and whether they have received training for any occupation in the last 12 months

Part-time status	Yes	No	Total
Not part-time	17742.65	139870.30	157612.95
% of total salaried workers	11.27	88.73	100.00
% of total salaried workers by whether received training in the last 12 months	91.32	87.50	87.92
Time-related underemployed	896.99	11536.31	12433.30
% of total salaried workers	7.21	92.79	100.00
% of total salaried workers by whether received training in the last 12 months	4.62	7.22	6.94
Part-time, not underemployed	791.54	8422.34	9213.87
% of total salaried workers	8.59	91.42	100.00
% of total salaried workers by whether received training in the last 12 months	4.07	5.28	5.15
Total	19431.17	159828.95	179260.15
% of total salaried workers	10.85	89.15	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00

Overlap of types of NSE - Tables from average Q3 & Q4 Guyana LFS 2017

▶ Table 53.0

Salaried workers by contract type and part-time status

Contract type	Not part-time	Time-related underemployed	part-time not underemployed	Total
Short-term	11485.63	3844.65	859.37	16189.65
% of total salaried workers	70.83	23.85	5.33	100
% of total salaried workers by part-time status	7.28	30.88	9.32	9.03
Fixed-term	17341.19	1591.11	816.10	19748.4
% of total salaried workers	87.86	7.98	4.18	100
% of total salaried workers by part-time status	11.00	12.86	8.84	11.01
Permanent	128786.15	6997.53	7538.40	143322.05
% of total salaried workers	89.86	4.88	5.26	100
% of total salaried workers by part-time status	81.73	56.27	81.85	79.96
Total	157612.95	12433.30	9213.87	179260.15
% of total salaried workers	87.92	6.94	5.15	100
	100	100	100	100

