

UNITED NATIONS

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UNITED NATIONS PUBLICATIONS
LC/G.2138-P

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First edition

ISSN 1020-5160

ISBN 92-1-121322-3

Sales No E.01.II.G.141

Printed in Santiago, Chile

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2000-2001



Social Panorama

OF LATIN AMERICA



UNITED NATIONS



The *Social Panorama of Latin America* is prepared each year by the Social Development Division and the Statistics and Economic Projections Division of ECLAC under the supervision of the directors of these two divisions, Mr. Roland Franco and Mr. Enrique Ordaz, respectively. Work on the 2000–2001 edition was coordinated by Mr. Juan Carlos Feres and Mr. Arturo León, who, together with Ms. Irma Arriagada, Mr. Ernesto Espíndola, Mr. Xavier Mancero, Mr. Fernando Medina and Mr. Pedro Sáinz, were also in charge of drafting the individual chapters of the study. In addition, Mr. Alvaro Fuentes and Mr. Pascual Gerstenfeld collaborated on chapter IV. Ms. Mariluz Avendaño, Mr. Carlos Daroch and Mr. Carlos Howes compiled and processed the statistical information presented in this chapter.

Notes and explanations of symbols

The following symbols have been used in the *Social Panorama of Latin America*.

- The dots (...) indicate that data are missing, are not available or are not separately reported.
- Two dashes and a period (-.-) indicate that the sample size is too small to be used as a basis for estimating the corresponding values with acceptable reliability and precision.
- A dash (-) indicates that the amount is nil or negligible.
- A blank space in a table indicates that the concept under consideration is not applicable or not comparable.
- A minus sign (-) indicates a deficit or decrease, except where otherwise specified.
- A point (.) is used to indicate decimals.
- Use of a hyphen (-) between years, e.g. 1990-1998, indicates reference to the complete number of calendar years involved, including the beginning and end years.
- The word “dollars” refers to United States dollars, unless otherwise specified.
- Individual figures and percentages in tables may not always add up to the corresponding total, because of rounding.

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ABSTRACT

The 2000–2001 edition of the *Social Panorama of Latin America* provides new poverty estimates for the countries of the region based on household surveys conducted around 1999, together with recent statistics on the distribution of income, employment and unemployment. It also examines the levels of public expenditure allocated to social sectors, the status of Latin American households and the main public policies being implemented in this area.

The first chapter presents an analysis of trends in poverty and extreme poverty during recent years and an assessment of the progress made by the Latin American countries in reducing poverty. Some of the basic features of the profile of poor households are described, and the feasibility of halving extreme poverty in the region –and thus meeting the target set for 2015 at the Millennium Summit– is discussed.

A number of indicators are used in the second chapter to analyse the situation in the various countries based on their degree of inequality in income distribution and recent trends in that distribution. The point is made that, although many countries succeeded in expanding their economies and raising their levels of social spending considerably during the 1990s, Latin America has not managed to alter its typically high degree of income concentration to any substantial extent.

Employment and unemployment patterns are examined in the third chapter. For the first time, in this edition aggregate data are provided for the Latin American countries as a group in order to highlight the main trends in relation to labour supply and demand, the segmentation of the labour market, and the patterns associated with the rising open unemployment rates being observed in many countries.

The fourth chapter offers an assessment of trends in public social expenditure. The factors that contributed to the major increase in per capita social spending seen during the 1990s are discussed, and changes in spending levels during upturns and downturns in economic growth are examined. Information is provided on trends in public social expenditure in individual sectors (education, health, social security and housing) and on their impact in terms of income distribution.

The fifth and final chapter deals with the social agenda. Quantitative data on changes in the structure of Latin American households are furnished, with emphasis on how that structure, demographic changes and women's participation in the labour market are related to one another. The structure of social institutions responsible for designing and implementing family-related policies and how they are linked to other public policies are also discussed in this chapter.

This edition of the *Social Panorama* includes a statistical appendix containing 48 tables on a wide range of social phenomena.

SUMMARY

The social situation in Latin America in the late 1990s was influenced by the slowdown and greater volatility of economic growth. Despite the economic recovery seen in 2000, the effects of the contraction were felt in many countries of the region. Thus, although progress was made in improving the Latin American population's living conditions and major strides were taken in terms of increasing and safeguarding public social expenditure (particularly during the first half of the decade), the number of poor people has grown. This phenomenon has been compounded by the persistent inequality of income distribution in the region and by the performance of the labour market, which has generally been unable to absorb the labour force into the formal economy. The result has been increasing informality and unemployment, which has in turn been exacerbated by the recent economic slowdown.

The 2000–2001 edition of the *Social Panorama of Latin America* devotes special attention to poverty trends and rates in the late 1990s, inequality in income distribution, the employment and unemployment situation, the countries' progress in raising social expenditure and the redistributive effects of such increases. In its final chapter it reviews the Governments' agenda in relation to family issues. The analyses of each of the topics covered in the five chapters that make up the *Social Panorama* combine an examination of the latest trends in the main social indicators with an assessment of the trends seen throughout the 1990s.

POVERTY

At the end of the 1990s, approximately 35% of Latin America's households were poor and 14% were extremely poor, or indigent. Both of these percentages are slightly lower than the estimates for 1997, as the poverty rate declined by two tenths of a point during that three-year period (from 35.5% to 35.3%) and the extreme poverty rate decreased somewhat more sharply (from 14.4% to 13.9%).

The trends in individual poverty rates differ slightly from those registered for households. Around 1999, 43.8% of the region's population was living in poverty, or three tenths of a point more than in 1997, while the extreme poverty rate edged downward from 19% to 18.5% during that period. Measured in absolute numbers, there were slightly more than 211 million poor people as of 1999 (7.6 million more than in 1997), of whom somewhat more than 89 million were below the extreme poverty, or indigence, line (0.6 million more than in 1997) (see table 1).

Table 1

LATIN AMERICA: POOR AND INDIGENT HOUSEHOLDS AND INDIVIDUALS, 1980–1999 ^{a/}												
	Poor ^{b/}						Indigent ^{c/}					
	Total		Urban		Rural		Total		Urban		Rural	
	Millions	Percentage	Millions	Percentage	Millions	Percentage	Millions	Percentage	Millions	Percentage	Millions	Percentage
Households												
1980	24.2	34.7	11.8	25.3	12.4	53.9	10.4	15.0	4.1	8.8	6.3	27.5
1990	39.1	41.0	24.7	35.0	14.4	58.2	16.9	17.7	8.5	12.0	8.4	34.1
1994	38.5	37.5	25.0	31.8	13.5	56.1	16.4	15.9	8.3	10.5	8.1	33.5
1997	39.4	35.5	25.1	29.7	14.3	54.0	16.0	14.4	8.0	9.5	8.0	30.3
1999	41.3	35.3	27.1	29.8	14.2	54.3	16.3	13.9	8.3	9.1	8.0	30.7
Population												
1980	135.9	40.5	62.9	29.8	73.0	59.9	62.4	18.6	22.5	10.6	39.9	32.7
1990	200.2	48.3	121.7	41.4	78.5	65.4	93.4	22.5	45.0	15.3	48.4	40.4
1994	201.5	45.7	125.9	38.7	75.6	65.1	91.6	20.8	44.3	13.6	47.4	40.8
1997	203.8	43.5	125.7	36.5	78.2	63.0	88.8	19.0	42.2	12.3	46.6	37.6
1999	211.4	43.8	134.2	37.1	77.2	63.7	89.4	18.5	43.0	11.9	46.4	38.3

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.

a/ Estimate for 19 countries of the region.

b/ Poor households and individuals living in poor households (includes indigent households (individuals)).

c/ Indigent households and individuals living in indigent households.

Poverty trends in Latin America as a whole have been strongly influenced by the trends in a few individual countries, either because those countries have very large populations or because their poverty rates have undergone sizeable changes. For example, poverty rates rebounded in Argentina, Brazil and Colombia, while in Mexico and most of the Central American countries (especially El Salvador and Panama), these rates were down sharply.

Relative poverty rates continue to be far higher in the region's rural areas than in its urban centres (54% versus 30% of all households), even though in 1999 there were nearly 134 million poor people in urban areas versus 77 million in rural areas, since the proportion of the total population residing in urban areas is substantially larger. The situation with respect to indigence is quite different, inasmuch as the size of the population living in extreme poverty is slightly smaller in urban areas (43 million) than in rural areas (46 million).

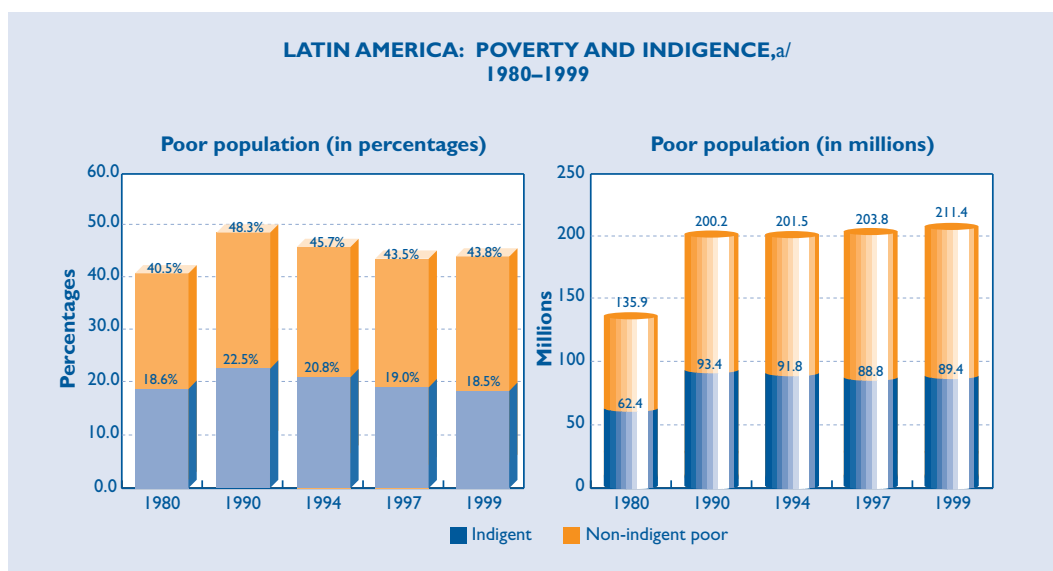
Preliminary projections for Latin America as of the year 2000, based largely on the various countries' macroeconomic performance, indicate that poverty in the region may be edging downward. For 2000, the percentage of poor households is estimated at around 34%, although the figure for indigent households appears to have remained at around 14% of the total. If this proves to be the case, then this decade will have begun with a smaller number of poor people than in 1999 and will therefore have broken away from the upward trend that predominated during the 1990s. This would put the number of poor people as of the year 2000 at about 210 million and the number of indigent at slightly less than 87 million.

The estimated percentage of poor households in Latin America as of 1999 was nearly six percentage points below the 1990 figure. A downward trend was also seen in extreme po-

verty, which gradually declined from 18% of all households in 1990 to 14% in 1999. A comparison with the figures for 1980 shows that the overall percentages of poor and indigent households in 1999 are much the same as they were in that year. This is not the case of the figures for individuals, however, since although the percentage of poor people in the population did decline in the 1990s, it would have had to decrease a further three percentage points to reach its 1980 level (43.8% versus 40.5%).

Given these circumstances, the progress made during the 1990s in reducing relative individual and household poverty levels was not great enough to fully offset population growth, and between 1990 and 1999 the number of poor people thus increased by 11 million. The region did succeed, however, in reducing the size of the indigent or extremely poor population during that period by nearly 4 million persons (see figure 1).

Figure 1



Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.
 a/ Estimates for 19 countries of the region. The figures appearing above the grey bars represent the total number of poor persons (indigents plus non-indigent poor).

The percentage of poor households declined in both urban areas (a reduction of five percentage points) and rural areas (four percentage points) during the 1990s. By the same token, household indigence rates fell from 12% to 9% in urban areas and from 34% to 31% in rural areas. When measured in terms of the number of individuals, however, urban/rural trends were not parallel. Urban poverty climbed by 12.5 million persons, whereas in rural areas the number of poor people was down by 1.3 million.

An analysis of poverty at the country level shows that, although trends were uneven in 1997–1999, the decade as a whole was marked by a widespread downturn in the percentage of poor households. Thus, in 1990–1999 most of the countries of the region saw a

substantial decline in poverty rates. By the end of the decade, in fact, at least 11 countries, which together account for a majority of the region's poor, had managed to push their relative poverty rates below their 1990 levels.

Among the countries that succeeded in lowering their poverty rates, Brazil, Chile and Panama managed to reduce the percentage of poor households by over 10 percentage points. Costa Rica, Guatemala and Uruguay also turned in a strong performance, with reductions in the percentage of poor households ranging from 5 to 10 points. Disturbing trends were seen in some countries, however, with poverty indicators either coming to a standstill or actually worsening during the 1990s. One of the most conspicuous cases in this respect is Venezuela, where the percentage of poor households jumped from 22% in 1981 to 34% in 1990 and has since then climbed to 44%. Ecuador, Colombia and Paraguay have also failed to make any significant progress in easing poverty during the past decade.

An examination of the profile of poor households in Latin America shows that, in a majority of cases, their members reside in housing where they do not have access to drinking water and, to a somewhat lesser extent, in dwellings where there are more than three persons to a room. These households also exhibit high demographic dependency rates and low employment ratios. In addition, the heads of household generally have completed fewer than three years of schooling and are unemployed in some instances. The children and young people belonging to poor households often have deficient educational environments, begin working at an early age and, in many cases, neither study nor work.

In absolute terms, slightly fewer than 77 million people in the region live in overcrowded conditions (29% of poor people and 6% of the non-poor population); 165 million people (of whom over 109 million are poor) do not have access to drinking water; 39% of the 130 million people living in a household headed by a person who has completed fewer than three years of schooling are poor. Although the absence of schooling is increasingly uncommon among both poor and non-poor groups, 74% of the over 83 million people under the age of 15 whose households have a deficient educational environment are poor.

Thus, halving the current rates of extreme poverty by 2015 –one of the prime objectives of the Millennium Declaration– will call for a significant, yet feasible, effort on the part of many Latin American countries. Given existing development patterns, economic growth will necessarily play a key role in the fulfilment of this goal, since mean per capita GDP growth of no less than 2.3% per year will be required in order to do so. (Given projected population growth rates, this will be equivalent to a 3.8% increase in GDP). For the region as a whole, during the 1990s each percentage point of growth lowered the rate of extreme poverty by 1.21%. There was a wide dispersion around this mean value, however, since this poverty-reduction effect was much stronger in urban areas than in rural ones and in countries with extreme poverty levels below the regional average than in the least developed nations.

An even more ambitious goal for the region would be to halve not only extreme poverty but also the percentage of non-indigent poor. In aggregate terms, achieving this goal would entail attaining per capita GDP growth rates of around 2.9% per annum (4.5% of GDP) for the next 15 years. A similar growth rate would be required for the relatively more developed countries, while the rest of the region's economies, which are clearly

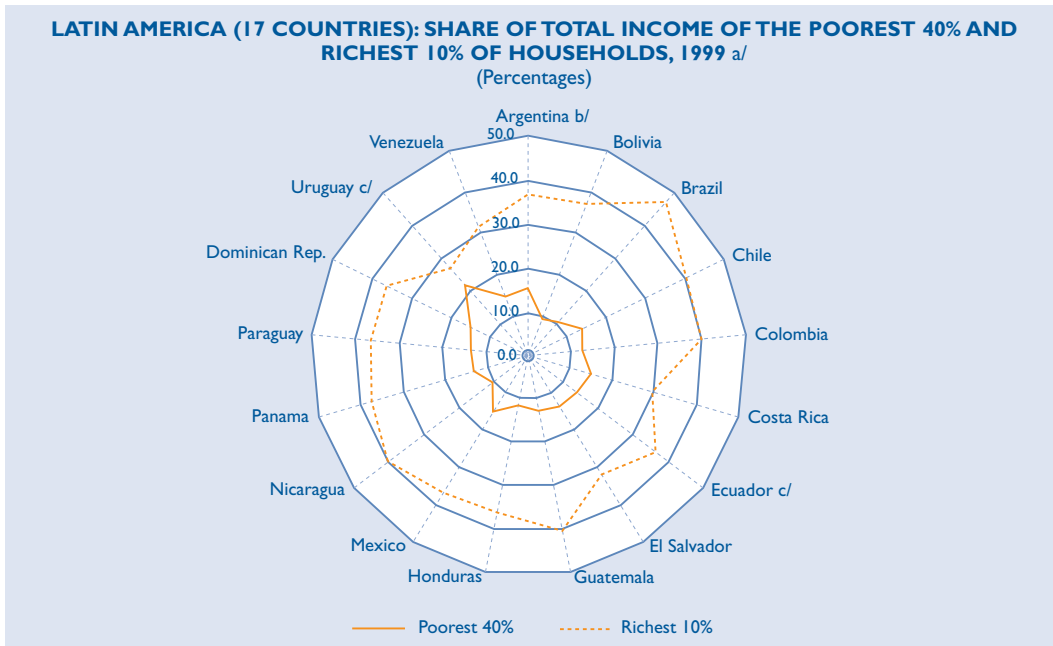
subject to greater demographic pressure, would need to achieve per capita GDP growth of nearly 4% per year.

TRENDS IN INCOME DISTRIBUTION

As of 1999, the inequality of income distribution continued to be one of the conspicuous features of Latin America’s economic and social structure, earning it the dubious distinction of being regarded as the most inequitable region in the world. What is more, the latest estimates indicate that in most of the countries this situation did not improve to any significant degree during the 1990s, and in some countries it actually worsened.

Latin America’s income distribution stands out within an international context due, in particular, to the large share of total income held by the richest 10% of households. This stratum has more than 30% of total income in all the countries of the region except Costa Rica and Uruguay,¹ and in most of them the figure is over 35%. In contrast, the share of total income corresponding to the poorest 40% of households is very small –between 9% and 15% of total income in almost all the countries– with the exception of Uruguay, where the figure is nearly 22% (see figure 2).

Figure 2



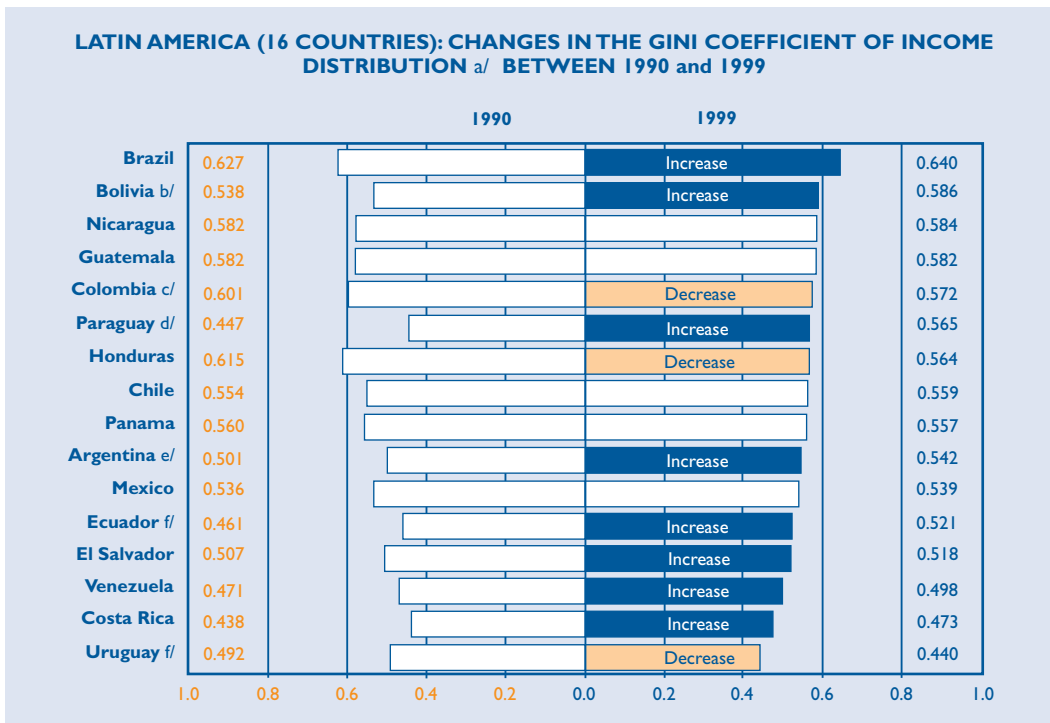
Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.
a/ Households nationwide, ranked by per capita income.
b/ Greater Buenos Aires.
c/ Total for urban areas.

1 Cuba is surely another exception, but no fully comparable statistics are available for this country.

A simple comparison between the mean incomes of the different groups of households shows just how inequitable distribution is in Latin America. In such countries as Bolivia, Brazil and Nicaragua, the per capita incomes of the richest quintile (20% of the total number of households) are more than 30 times higher than those of the poorest quintile. If the ratio between the top decile and the four lowest deciles is calculated, the greatest gap is in Brazil, where the richest decile's mean income is 32 times higher than the total for the four poorest deciles. The simple average for the region as a whole amounts to 19.3 times.

At the end of the 1990s, a country ranking based on the Gini coefficient (calculated using the per capita income distribution for individuals) shows that the highest concentration is found in Brazil, which has a Gini coefficient of 0.64. Bolivia, Nicaragua, Guatemala, Colombia, Paraguay, Chile, Panama and Honduras also have a high degree of inequality, with Gini coefficients of between 0.55 and 0.60. Income concentration is somewhat less in Argentina, Mexico, Ecuador, El Salvador, the Dominican Republic and Venezuela, whose coefficients are 0.50 or slightly higher. Uruguay and Costa Rica again have the least inequality, with indices below 0.48 (see figure 3).

Figure 3



Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

a/ Calculated on the basis of per capita income distribution for individuals throughout the country. The blue bars indicate an increase in income concentration, the orange bars a decrease.

b/ The figure for the starting year (1989) includes only eight major cities and El Alto.

c/ The starting year is 1994.

d/ Asunción metropolitan area in 1990.

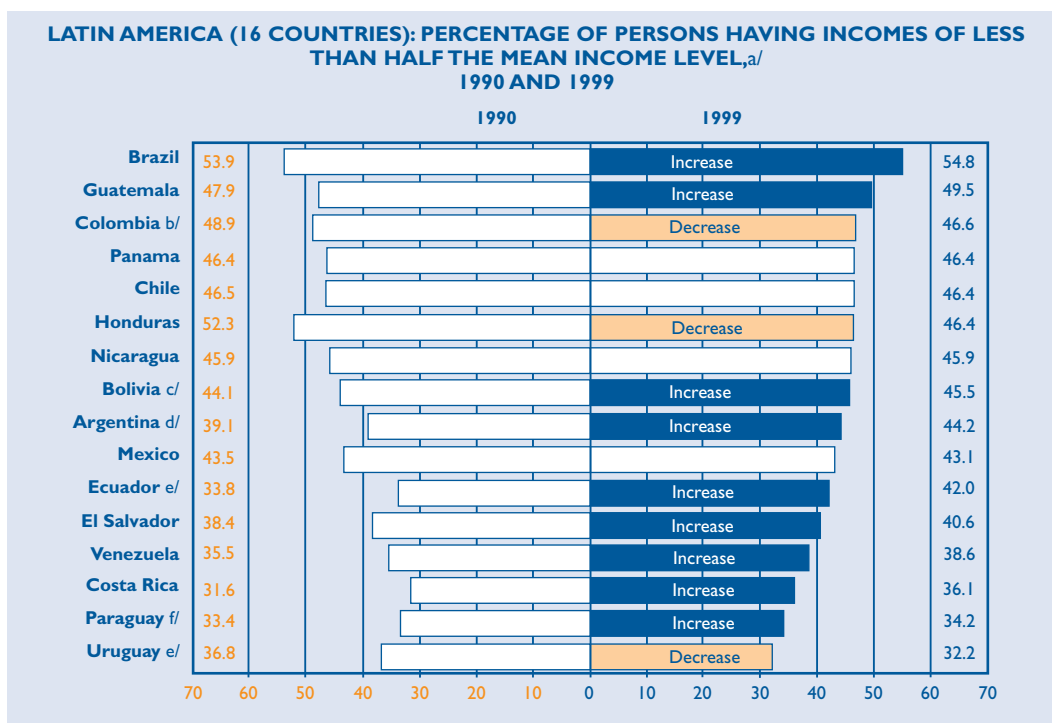
e/ Greater Buenos Aires.

f/ Total for urban areas.

An analysis of variations in Gini coefficients and in the percentages of total income received by the various groups of the population in the different countries in 1997–1999 appears to corroborate the existence of a deterioration in distribution. This index rose in seven countries (for which figures having a comparable coverage are available) and declined in four. In addition, in most cases the increases were larger than the decreases. The trend in income distribution for the decade as a whole also reflects the concentrative pattern which Latin American economies have exhibited for many years now. Of the 13 countries for which nationwide figures are available for the starting and ending years of the decade, eight saw an increase in the income ratio between the top decile and the bottom 40%, whereas only four registered a reduction and in one there was no change.

The results are similar when the percentage of the population having per capita incomes lower than 50% of the average level is examined. Only two countries registered a significant reduction, while in the rest this figure rose, either steeply or moderately, or remained constant. For the great majority of the Latin American countries, this indicator falls within an intermediate range (between 40% and 50% of the population has incomes equivalent to less than one half of the average income level). Uruguay, Costa Rica, Venezuela and the Dominican Republic have the lowest income concentration, with an index of less than 40%. Brazil is the only case in which more than half of the population has an income of less than 50% of the mean (see figure 4).

Figure 4



Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

^{a/} The blue bars indicate an increase in income concentration, the orange bars a decrease.

^{b/} The starting year is 1994.

^{c/} The figure for the starting year (1989) includes only eight major cities and El Alto.

^{d/} Greater Buenos Aires.

^{e/} Total for urban areas.

^{f/} Asunción metropolitan area in 1990.

The variations exhibited by the intermediate strata –i.e., the 50% of all households between the poorest 40% and the richest 10%– generally do not follow a pattern similar to the trend seen in the case of the top and bottom strata. In at least seven countries, changes in income share –increases and decreases alike– amounted to two percentage points or less, and losses of over three percentage points occurred in only two cases. The trend in the income share of intermediate groups thus indicates that in various countries these groups have more powerful means of defending their share of total income than poor groups do.

In summary, even though many countries managed to expand their economies and significantly increase their social expenditure, and despite a continuing and justified concern about distributional issues, the fact is that for the most part Latin America has not succeeded in making any substantial improvement in income distribution. Furthermore, the general consensus is that no promising signals are in evidence at the present time that would provide reason to believe that this situation will change significantly in the short or medium term. In fact, of the 17 countries analysed, only two closed out the decade with results that show progress in reducing distributional inequality. Even in those countries that achieved high growth rates and maintained them over time (such as Chile), the evidence shows that income distribution was extremely recalcitrant in the face of efforts to reduce its high degree of concentration, and income disparities remained one of the prevailing economic and social structure's unwanted features.

EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT

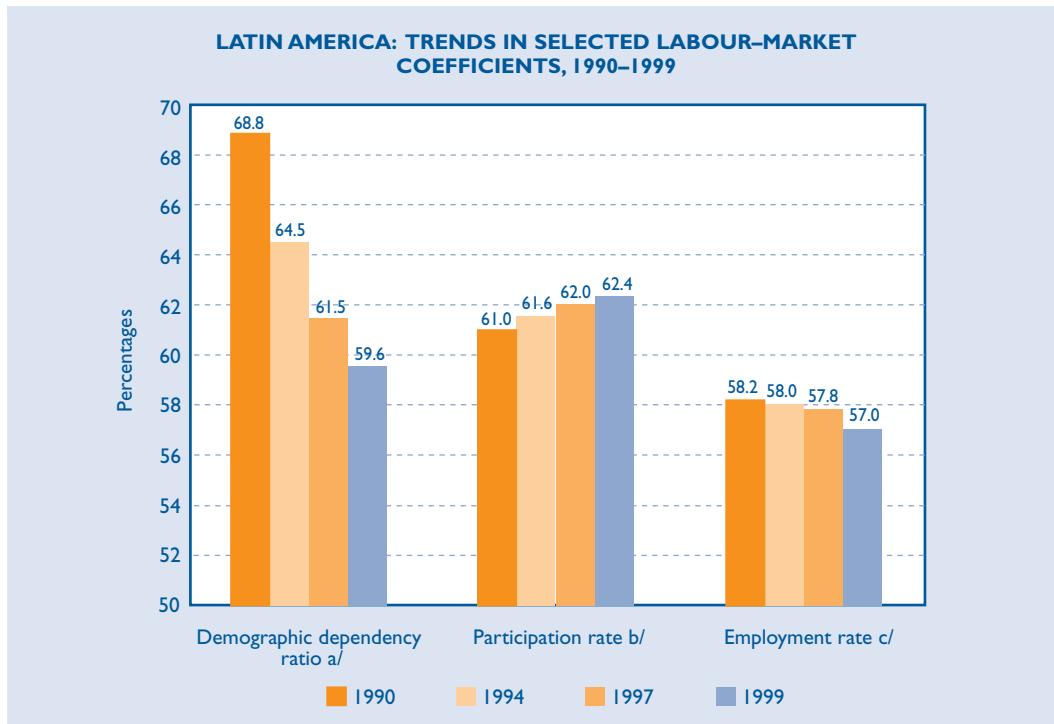
In a demographic context marked by a sharp increase (2.4% per year) in the working-age population and a rising female labour participation rate, the economically active population has been expanding even more swiftly (by an average annual rate of 2.6%). The region's labour force, consisting of nearly 212 million people by the end of the 1990s, grew by 44 million during that decade and represented 42% of the total population as of 1999 (three percentage points more than in 1990) (see figure 5).

In absolute terms, the growth of the labour supply was concentrated in urban areas. Of the 44 million persons who joined the economically active population in the 1990s, 93% of them lived in urban areas. As a result, over three fourths of the region's labour force (76.3%) is now located in the cities, as compared to 72% in 1990.

Some of the characteristics of Latin America's employed population also changed during the 1990s. These changes have been reflected, for example, in increases in the relative size of certain age groups and educational categories, in such groups' positions within different production sectors and in the growing participation of women in certain types of occupations. Changes in the occupational structure have also influenced job quality and the size of the economy's informal sector.

As suggested by the growing proportion of low-productivity jobs, occupational instability increased in the 1990s. Since 1990, the percentage of informal employment in urban areas has climbed by over five percentage points (nearly 20 million individuals). What is more, the percentage of new jobs that were in the informal sector rose from 67.3% in 1990–1994 to 70.7% in 1997–1999.

Figure 5



Source: ECLAC, on the basis of estimates of the ECLAC Population Division – Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) and special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

a/ Population under 15 years of age and over 64 years of age, divided by the population between the ages of 15 and 64.

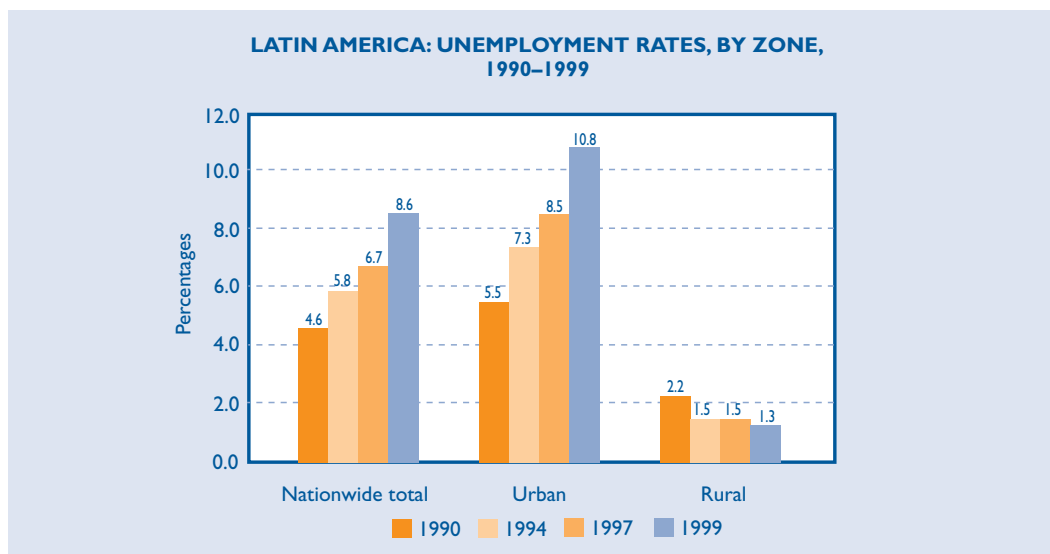
b/ Economically active population divided by the working-age population (both aged 15 years and over).

c/ Employed population divided by the working-age population (both aged 15 years and over).

The steady increase in the economically active population has generated a great deal of pressure for more job creation. The demand for labour has not, however, increased enough to absorb the rapidly expanding labour force. As a result, in the 1990s the number of unemployed persons rose considerably (by an annual rate of 10.1%, with much of this increase being concentrated in 1997–1999). Thus, during the decade more than 10 million people joined the ranks of the unemployed, who represented 8.6% of the labour force at the national level (slightly over 18 million people) by 1999, as compared to 4.6% in 1990. This trend was particularly marked in urban areas, where the unemployment rate jumped from 5.5% to 10.8% for the region as a whole² between 1990 and 1999 (see figure 6).

² These aggregate unemployment figures for Latin America are based on the national surveys used to prepare the various chapters of this edition of the *Social Panorama* and do not necessarily match the figures appearing in other ECLAC publications. For an explanation of these discrepancies, see box III.1.

Figure 6



Source: ECLAC, on the basis of estimates of the ECLAC Population Division – Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) and special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

The increase in unemployment during the 1990s was not spread evenly across the region but was instead seen mainly in South America. In Argentina, Brazil and Colombia (the three largest South American countries), unemployment climbed steadily. An upward trend in unemployment was also observed in Bolivia, Chile, Ecuador, Paraguay, Uruguay and Venezuela. In Mexico and most of the Central American and Caribbean countries, on the other hand, unemployment trended downward. In the Central American countries, unemployment either declined (El Salvador, Honduras and Nicaragua) or remained at fairly moderate levels (Costa Rica). This trend also predominated in the Caribbean island countries (Barbados, Cuba, Dominican Republic, and Trinidad and Tobago), although unemployment levels in these nations (with the exception of Cuba) held steady at higher levels –around 10% or more– than was the case in Central America.

The labour market's lack of dynamism is partially attributable to the reduction of the State's role in direct job creation and to the restructuring of the production system, particularly in the primary and secondary sectors. These sectors' share in total employment has shrunk, with job creation tending to become concentrated in tertiary activities. The progressive technology-intensive modernization of these service activities would appear to portend an increasingly limited job creation capacity for the structured or formal sector. In addition, wage reductions are beginning to decline in importance as a primary adjustment factor for the labour market, as economic slumps increasingly tend to be manifested in job destruction and sagging labour demand rather than in real wage reductions.

Unemployment continues to be disproportionately high in lower-income strata. In 1999, the urban unemployment rate for the poorest 20% of households in the region (22.3%) was more than twice the overall rate (10.6%). Hence, unemployment continues to be one of the main determinants of poverty and inequality. The increase in unemployment seen in the late 1990s also had an increasingly strong impact on middle-income sectors. In the

third and fourth household income quintiles, unemployment levels climbed by over three percentage points, and in the countries having the most serious unemployment problems in the late 1990s, nearly one out of every 10 members of the economically active population in those quintiles was out of work.

The available data for six countries of the region in which unemployment rose during the second half of the 1990s indicate that the average duration of unemployment lengthened from 4.4 to 5.3 months. There is also some evidence that wage levels may have declined for persons finding employment after having been out of work. These income reductions may be functioning as a secondary adjustment mechanisms in labour markets where regulations and procedures regarding the contracting and dismissal of workers are increasingly being loosened. Estimates for Uruguay indicate that these reductions amounted to between 23% and 34% of the previous wage and became larger in the second half of the decade as urban unemployment rose.

The current high unemployment levels in the region may remain fairly constant, since the projected growth rate of around 2% for 2001 represents a substantial drop from the rate of somewhat more than 4% registered for 2000. In addition, there are some indications of the persistence of a structural factor in unemployment, as well as signs that employment levels may be slower to recover following downswings in growth. The greater volatility of growth, together with the vulnerability of middle- and low-income strata during periods of job destruction, followed by slowly recovering employment levels, underscores the need for protective mechanisms to cover this risk.

SOCIAL EXPENDITURE IN LATIN AMERICA IN THE 1990S

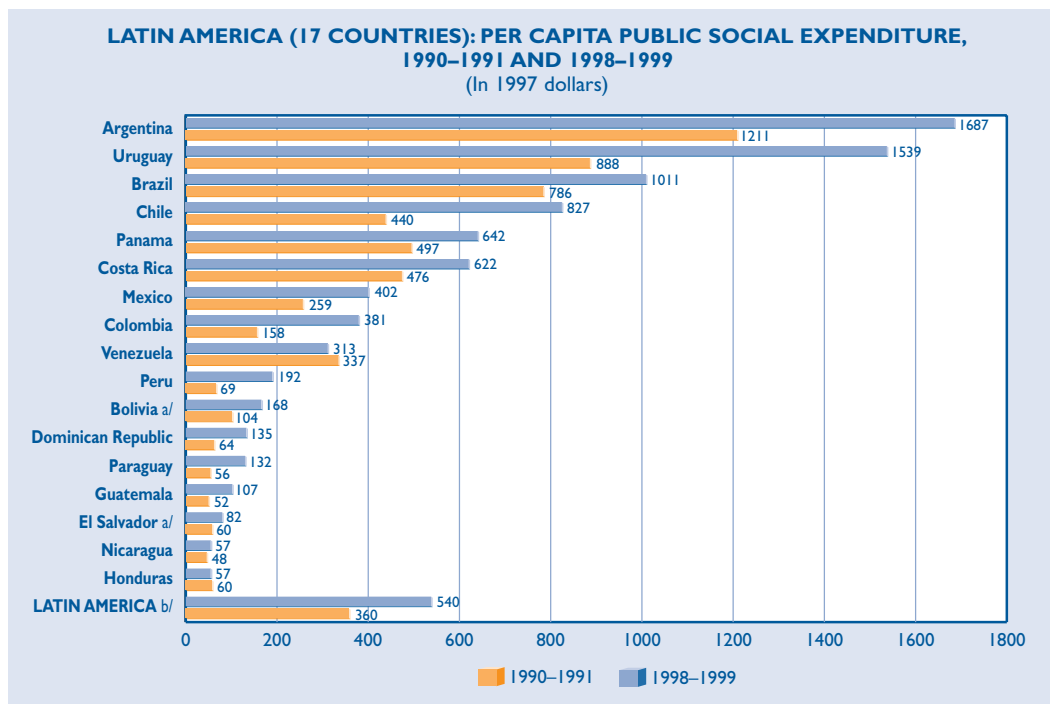
The greater effort made by Latin American countries to allocate more public resources to social sectors in the 1990s resulted in a sizeable increase (around 50%) in per capita social spending. From an average of US\$ 360 per capita at the start of the decade, social expenditure climbed to US\$ 540 per capita by its end (see figure 7).

Most of the countries raised their per capita levels of social spending as a consequence of both a reactivation of economic growth and a decision to place greater fiscal priority on social expenditure (i.e., the percentage of total public expenditure allocated to social sectors). As a result, the percentage of GDP devoted to social sectors climbed from 10.4% to 13.1% (see table 2).

In a majority of the countries, social spending rose more steeply during the first half of the decade (30%). Although it did continue to climb in the second half, it did so more slowly (16%). This trend was related to economic growth trends, since the annual growth rate posted by Latin America was 4.1% of GDP up to 1995 but then dropped to 2.5% in the second half of the decade.

The increase in social spending in the 1990s was not only an outcome of buoyant economic growth, however. It was also associated with an increasing effort on the part of these countries to raise spending levels by boosting government revenues and allocating a larger portion of them to social sectors. The fiscal priority of social spending climbed from nearly 42% to almost 48% of total public expenditure during the decade.

Figure 7



Source: Social Development Division of ECLAC, on the basis of data on social spending.

a/ The starting figure is an average for 1994–1995.

b/ Simple average for the countries shown, except Bolivia and El Salvador.

Table 2

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): PUBLIC SOCIAL EXPENDITURE AS A PERCENTAGE OF GDP					
Country	1990–1991	1992–1993	1994–1995	1996–1997	1998–1999
Latin America a/	10.4	11.4	12.1	12.5	13.1
Argentina	17.7	19.2	21.0	19.8	20.5
Bolivia	12.4	14.6	16.1
Brazil b/	18.1	17.7	20.0	19.7	21.0
Chile	13.0	13.6	13.6	14.4	16.0
Colombia c/	8.0	9.4	11.5	15.3	15.0
Costa Rica	15.7	15.3	16.0	17.0	16.8
El Salvador	3.3	3.8	4.3
Guatemala	3.4	4.1	4.1	4.2	6.2
Honduras	7.9	8.5	7.7	7.2	7.4
Mexico	6.5	8.1	8.8	8.5	9.1
Nicaragua	10.8	10.6	12.6	11.0	12.7
Panama	18.6	19.5	19.8	20.9	19.4
Paraguay	3.1	6.2	7.0	8.0	7.4
Peru	3.3	4.8	5.8	6.1	6.8
Dominican Republic	4.3	5.9	6.1	6.0	6.6
Uruguay	16.8	18.9	20.3	20.9	22.8
Venezuela	9.0	8.9	7.6	8.3	8.6

Source: Social Development Division of ECLAC, on the basis of data on social spending.

a/ Simple average for the countries shown, except Bolivia and El Salvador. If these countries are included, then the averages for Latin America are 11.6% for 1994–1995, 12.1% for 1996–1997 and 12.7% for 1998–1999.

b/ Estimate of consolidated social expenditure.

c/ From 1994 on, these figures were calculated using the new GDP series at current prices.

Although the countries that raised their social expenditure included several which had low social spending levels, the differences among the 17 countries that were analysed did not diminish very much, and the enormous heterogeneity that existed in this respect at the start of the decade therefore persisted. One group of countries, which includes those with the highest per capita social expenditure levels (Argentina, Brazil, Costa Rica, Panama and Uruguay), continued to allocate a larger percentage of their GDP to social sectors than would be expected, given their per capita income levels. Another group, composed of countries with low or very low levels of per capita social expenditure (El Salvador, Guatemala, Paraguay, Peru and the Dominican Republic) devoted a much smaller share of their GDP to social sectors than the regional average. The exception here is Colombia, which more than doubled its per capita social expenditure between 1992–1993 and 1996–1997, thereby greatly increasing its macroeconomic priority and going from being one of the countries with spending levels far below the regional average, in terms of its per capita income level, to one of the countries that exceeds it.

Even though social expenditure was raised considerably during the decade, its current levels are still too low to meet the needs of large segments of the population. Most of the countries also have a great deal of room for expanding their public revenue base and redirecting allocations for social purposes. Yet, in a number of countries, the limited public revenue base is the chief factor that is hindering them from allocating a larger proportion of public revenues for social spending. Nonetheless, there are countries in the region that devote a large proportion of their GDP to social sectors –percentages comparable to those allocated by a number of industrialized countries– and in their cases, the main challenge is to protect those spending levels when economic conditions deteriorate and to enhance their effectiveness and efficiency.

The region's experience has demonstrated not only that the amount of funds traditionally allocated to social sectors has been insufficient but also that social policies are quite vulnerable in times of crisis, as social expenditure tends to rise when larger budgets are available to finance it and to contract when the public sector's finances deteriorate (usually as a consequence of slowdowns in economic growth). This is what is generally known as procyclical behaviour. Hence, one of the priority public policy objectives is to forestall or curtail this type of behaviour under adverse economic conditions in order, in particular, to safeguard spending allocations that benefit the poorest segments of the population and to strengthen practices that consolidate those allocations and give them greater stability.

Progress has recently been made in this respect in the region. In fact, an analysis of trends in total public expenditure and social public expenditure in six countries in which GDP contracted in 1999 (Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Honduras, Uruguay and Venezuela) shows that allocations to social sectors were shielded from the effects of that downturn. In all of these countries except Venezuela, total public expenditure rose in 1998–1999 despite the decrease in GDP, and in Venezuela expenditure levels quickly bounced back in 1999–2000, rising at what were virtually pre-crisis rates.

In addition to the importance of stabilizing social allocations in order to forestall the serious adverse effects of spending cuts during economic downturns, attention has also been drawn to the need to target public social expenditure more accurately and to heighten its positive impacts, especially in the case of vulnerable or poor groups, by real-

locating available funds to those components that have the most progressive influence on income distribution.

An examination of the changes that have occurred over the decade in the different components of social expenditure show that, for the region as a whole, the funds allocated for education, health care and nutrition increased at much the same rate as funding for social security, which has less of a redistributive impact than the other items since it provides relatively greater benefits to middle- and upper-income strata. Between 1990–1991 and 1998–1999, spending on human capital rose by 1.3 percentage points of GDP, while spending on social security climbed by 1.2 points. Expenditure on housing, water and sanitation continued to have a lower priority and rose on average from 1.2% to 1.4% of GDP (see table 3).

Table 3

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES ^{a/}): SOCIAL EXPENDITURE IN THE 1990s, BY SECTOR, AS A PERCENTAGE OF GDP 1990–1991 AND 1998–1999								
Country	Education		Health care and nutrition		Social security		Housing, water, sanitation and other	
	1990–1991	1998–1999	1990–1991	1998–1999	1990–1991	1998–1999	1990–1991	1998–1999
	Percentages							
Simple average	2.9	3.9	2.6	2.9	3.6	4.8	1.2	1.4
Argentina	3.3	4.7	4.0	4.6	8.3	8.7	2.1	2.5
Brazil ^{b/}	3.7	3.9	3.6	3.4	8.1	11.5	2.7	2.2
Chile	2.6	3.9	2.1	2.8	7.0	7.5	1.4	1.8
Colombia	3.2	4.7	1.2	4.1	3.0	5.2	0.6	1.0
Costa Rica	3.8	4.4	5.0	4.9	4.9	5.9	2.1	1.8
Guatemala	1.6	2.3	0.9	1.3	0.8	0.9	0.1	1.7
Honduras	4.3	4.1	2.6	2.0	0.1	0.0	0.9	1.3
Mexico	2.6	3.8	3.0	2.1	0.3	2.3	0.7	0.9
Nicaragua	5.0	5.7	4.6	4.5	0.0	0.0	1.3	2.5
Panama	4.7	6.0	6.1	6.8	5.9	5.4	2.0	1.3
Paraguay	1.2	3.7	0.3	1.1	1.2	2.6	0.4	0.1
Peru	1.3	2.2	0.7	1.3	1.1	2.8	0.1	0.5
Dominican Republic	1.2	2.8	1.0	1.5	0.4	0.8	1.8	1.5
Uruguay	2.5	3.3	2.9	2.8	11.2	16.3	0.3	0.5
Venezuela	3.5	3.8	1.6	1.4	2.4	2.6	1.6	0.8

Source: Social Development Division of ECLAC, on the basis of data on social spending.

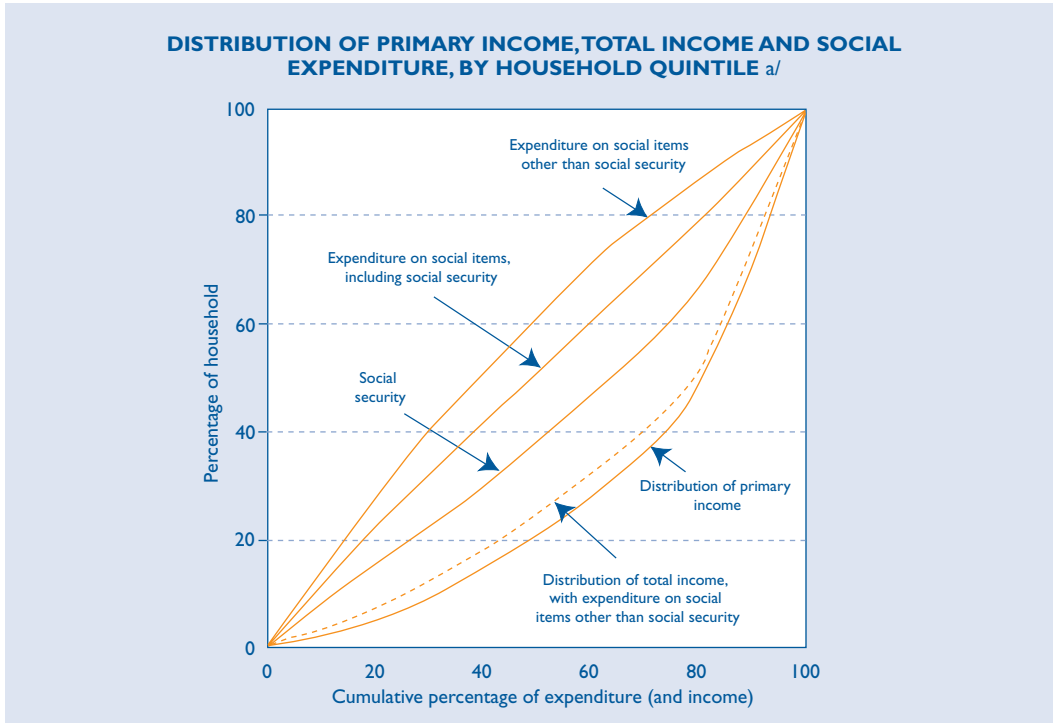
a/ Does not include Bolivia and El Salvador. Data on these countries are available only from 1995 and 1994 on, respectively.

b/ Estimate of consolidated social expenditure. The 1998–1999 average corresponds to the figure for 1998.

Data on eight countries in the region indicate that the most progressive types of expenditure –those that provide relatively greater benefits to the poorest households– are spending on primary and secondary education, followed by spending on health care and nutrition and then by spending on housing and basic services (water and sanitation). In

contrast to the findings of similar studies conducted in the 1970s and early 1980s, expenditure on secondary education appears to have a fairly strong progressive impact; this difference can be accounted for by the notable expansion in the coverage of secondary education since that time (see figure 8).

Figure 8



Source: Table IV.4.

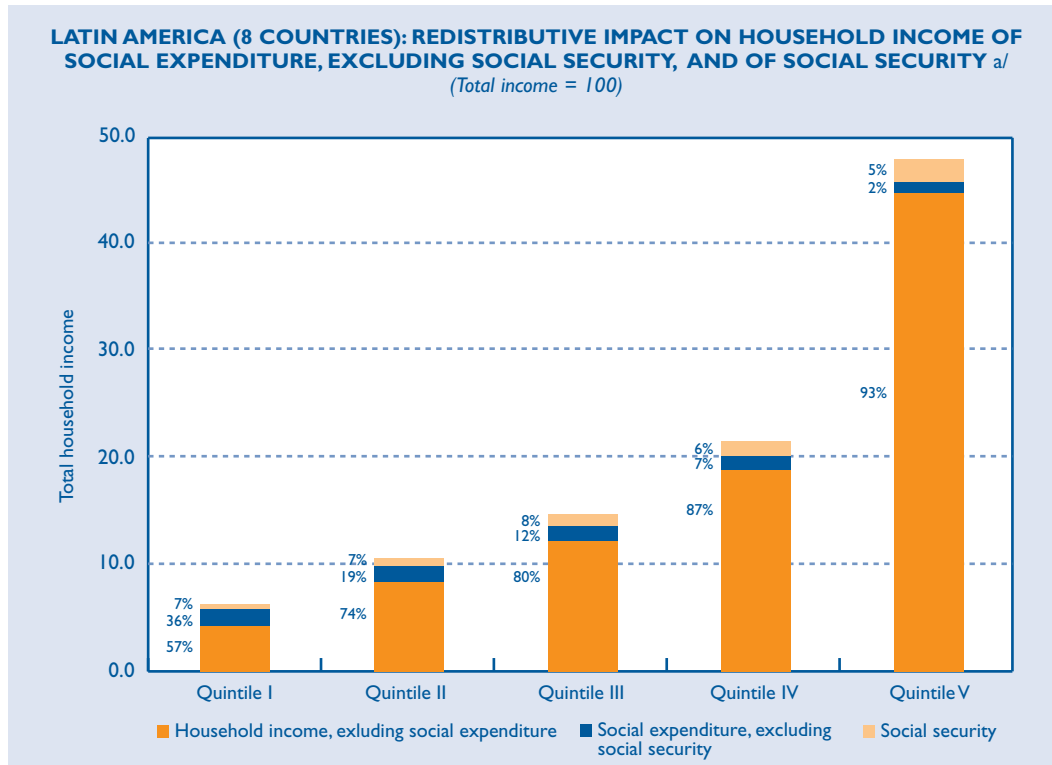
a/ Simple average for Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador and Uruguay.

Taken as a whole, social expenditure is highly redistributive in all the countries and even more so if spending on social security is not included in this category. If social security is not included, then the 20% of households having the lowest incomes receive 28% of total public revenues, whereas the richest 20% of households only receive 12% of those resources. This means that –not counting expenditure on social security– the poorest 20% of households receive, on average, a portion of the funds devoted to social expenditure that is six times greater than their share of primary income (28.2% of funds devoted to social expenditure, versus 4.8% of total primary income). For the richest 20% of households, this ratio is inverted, with such expenditure representing just one fourth of their income share (12.4% of social expenditure versus 50.7% of total primary income).

The net redistributive effect of public social expenditure can also be seen by determining how much of total household income in each stratum corresponds to monetary transfers and the provision of goods and services free of charge or at subsidized prices. This percentage is much higher in lower-income strata, where it amounts to 43%. In upper-income sectors (the fourth and fifth quintiles), the figure is between 13% and 7%,

respectively (see figure 9). Despite the small percentage of social expenditure relative to the incomes of the richest stratum, the actual sums that those households receive are quite high. In fact, in a number of the countries analysed, these transfers are as much as twice the amount that goes to the poorest households. This can be accounted for by the level of social security transfers.

Figure 9



Source: Table IV.5.

a/ Simple average for Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador and Uruguay.

During the 1990s the increase in social expenditure had a relatively greater redistributive effect in countries with lower per capita incomes thanks to the sharp upswing in public spending on education and health care. In the countries with higher per capita incomes, on the other hand, the redistributive impact was less, since nearly 50% of the increase in public social spending was accounted for by expenditure on social security, which is the least progressive component in this category.

SOCIAL AGENDA: LATIN AMERICAN FAMILIES

In a majority of policy proposals and analyses, the family, as an institution, is seen as playing a key role in accounting for individuals' behaviour and in measures for addressing such varied issues as unemployment, drug addiction and violence. Special emphasis has also been placed on the changes occurring in traditional family structures, which are seen as being associated with social disintegration. It is striking, however, that although such great importance is attributed to the family by government officials, civil and religious institutions, and individuals, it receives so little attention within the context of public policy.

In view of these considerations, the chapter on the social agenda in this edition offers a baseline analysis of families in the region. This study has been prepared on the basis of the responses received from national government agencies responsible for family issues to a questionnaire sent out by ECLAC and the results of household surveys conducted in the region. The study's various findings all indicate that families in the region have been confronted with sweeping changes, including far-reaching demographic shifts, the growing number of households headed by women and the increasing number of women entering the labour market.

There have also been changes in symbolic aspects of the family which are being reflected in new types of families and family relationships. The three dimensions of the classical definition of a family –sexuality, procreation and shared living– have undergone major changes and have been evolving in different directions, thus giving rise to a growing range of types of families and living arrangements.³ In addition, as the number of separations and divorces rises, restructured or blended families are becoming a new and growing presence in the region. Nuclear families do, however, continue to predominate in both urban and rural areas.

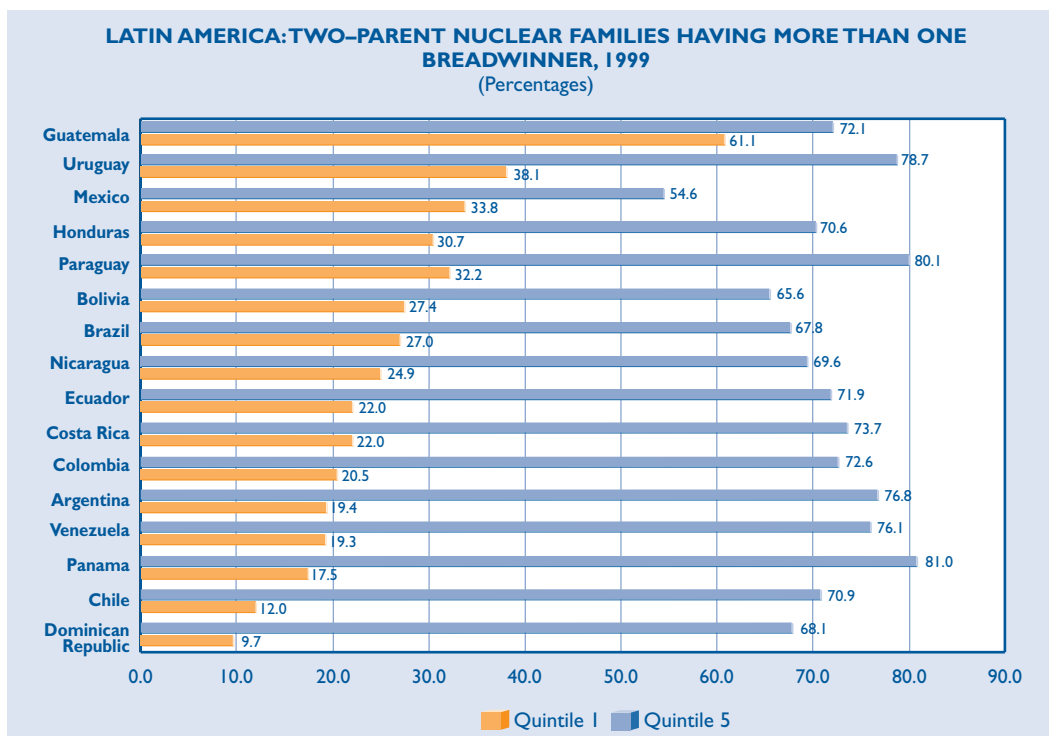
One of the major demographic changes being observed is a reduction in average family size due to a reduction in the number of children and greater birth spacing. In addition, the number of multi-generational families is on the decline and single-person households are on the rise. Migration, which may be undertaken for a variety of reasons (economic considerations, armed conflicts, etc.), is another factor. Between the 1980s and the 1990s, average household size decreased in all the countries of the region. The heterogeneity of the trends in the various countries can be attributed to the fact that they are at different stages in the demographic transition. Uruguay has the smallest average household size (3.2 persons as of 1999); Guatemala and Honduras, with 4.8, and Nicaragua, with 4.9 persons per household on average, are at the opposite extreme.

Another aspect of this situation is that women have continued to join the labour market in increasing numbers. Various studies have shown that in the last decade the largest proportion of new female entrants have been women of reproductive age (women with small children). The economic contributions of working women are what keeps many households above the poverty line.

3 The categories of households used in this study include **single person households** (a single person) and **non-nuclear households** (those in which there is no conjugal nucleus or a father/mother-son/daughter relationship, although there may be other kinship relationships). Families are classified as **nuclear families** (father or mother or both, with or without children), **extended families** (father or mother or both, with or without children, and other relatives) or **composite families** (father or mother or both, with or without children, with or without other relatives, and non-relatives). Families may also be **single-parent** families (one parent only, usually the mother) or **two-parent** families (both parents) and may, further, be classified according to whether or not they have children.

The contribution to household income made by an additional income-earner marks the difference between households in the poorest and richest quintiles (see figure 10). Households with more than one breadwinner are most often composed of two-parent families, extended families or composite families. In the 1990s, almost all the countries saw an increase in the number of households with more than one breadwinner in both poorer households and those that were better off.

Figure 10



Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

The social institutions in charge of designing and implementing family policies in the region vary widely, ranging from government ministries, departments and divisions to councils which are attached to various agencies; in some instances, they are lacking altogether. Government agencies and other types of State institutions also differ as to how they define the concept of “family”.

One of the main changes that government authorities responsible for family issues in the region have witnessed is the transformation of women’s role in the home, either because of their entry into the labour market or because of the increase in the number of households headed by women. Demographic changes and those arising out of cultural and modernization processes have also been striking. The authorities’ responses to these situations reflect the differences between more traditional or more modern concepts of what constitutes a family.

Policy-makers concerned with family issues are largely in agreement as to the chief problems they face. In 16 out of 18 countries, the authorities identify domestic violence as

one of the most serious issues to be addressed. In second place, the authorities in 12 of the 18 countries that were surveyed mentioned unemployment, which is also associated with poverty, economic crises and a deterioration in material living conditions, along with a lack of health care and education services. The disintegration of the family was also mentioned as an important factor.

As this new century begins, family-oriented policies still lack a specific direction, a well demarcated sphere of action and a clearly defined basis of legitimacy. In designing such policy measures, policy-makers have to deal with a variety of stumbling blocks, including the trade-offs existing between family and individual interests and the difficulties involved in balancing individual autonomy and liberty with family responsibilities. Emphasis on the legal dimension of programmes in this area appear to be leading towards a new concept of the family within a context of human rights. Most of the countries in the region, rather than having explicitly designed family policies, engage in scattered, uncoordinated activities that are included as part of programmes and projects dealing with health care, education, poverty reduction, the prevention and elimination of violence, and many other issues. The wide range of family-oriented policies in existence include a number of very interesting initiatives and projects, however, including efforts to cope with the changes being experienced by the region's families and the changing social roles of men and women in the home.

The great variety of family situations to be found in the region and the differences existing across countries make it difficult to establish common guidelines. It is important, however, to emphasize that the fundamental requirement for policy-making in this field is to have a suitable baseline study covering the wide range of situations and recent changes affecting Latin American families. In addition, given the cross-cutting nature of family-related issues, it is important for family-oriented policies and programmes to be closely coordinated.

The international social agenda

As in past editions, this chapter reviews the main meetings and agreements on social issues that have taken place within the United Nations system. In this year's edition, the chapter is devoted to the meeting of the General Assembly held in New York from 6 to 8 September 2000, at which the world's leading statesmen issued the Millennium Declaration.

With a view to shaping common values of liberty, equality, solidarity, tolerance, respect for nature and shared responsibility, the Millennium Declaration set forth a series of core objectives in the following areas:

- Peace, security and disarmament
- Development and the elimination of poverty
- Protection of our shared environment
- Human rights, democracy and good governance
- Protection of vulnerable persons
- Concern with the special needs of Africa
- Strengthening the United Nations

The goal, as set forth in the Millennium Declaration, of halving extreme poverty by the year 2015 is of special importance. The economic growth requirements needed to meet this objective are analysed in chapter I of this edition of the *Social Panorama*.



Achievements and challenges in the fight against poverty

A. POVERTY TRENDS IN THE PERIOD 1997–2000

During the second half of the 1990s, Mexico, the Dominican Republic and most Central American countries experienced sustained economic growth, and several of them made strides in the fight against poverty. In South America, meanwhile, there was a process of slowing growth, stagnation and subsequent recovery, which in some cases translated into the preservation or deterioration of living conditions. Overall, while the number of people living in Latin America grew from 204 million to 211 million in the 1997–1999 period, the percentage of poor households and poor people remained relatively constant.

Latin America's economic development in the last three years was marked by a slowdown in growth in 1998, followed by stagnation in 1999 and then recovery in 2000. More markedly than in other periods, however, this overall pattern actually reflected a wide range of performances among the various countries and groups of countries in the region.

Mexico and the Dominican Republic recorded high and persistent growth in those years, as did most of the Central American countries, although the rate was more modest in the latter. Such growth was a continuation of the trend evident in 1996–1997, thus giving rise to a five-year period of uninterrupted economic expansion. This growth, in turn, caused unemployment to fall, mitigating somewhat the economic difficulties of the poorest families, even though the prevailing development strategies did not increase employment to any significant degree.

This trend was bolstered by the direction of the migration flows that are characteristic of these countries, which had the twofold effect of reducing the growth rate of the working-age population and of increasing the value of remittances from family members living abroad.

These circumstances had a positive effect on the fight against poverty. It should be kept in mind, however, that for some of the aforementioned countries, the 1995 crisis entailed a reversal of the achievements of the early 1990s. Thus, the results for the decade as a whole do not always show a similar level of accomplishment.

The South American countries underwent a different experience during the 1998–2000 period. In general, many of them experienced a downturn, stagnation or recession, followed by recovery. Given the

weight of these countries in the aggregate figures for Latin America, their performance is sometimes attributed to the region as a whole. A closer look at per capita GDP rather than total output, however, will show that the slowdown of 1998 actually caused some decline in several of the South American countries.

The extent of this trend also varied from country to country. The pattern seen in Chile is perhaps most representative of the regional average. In a significant number of countries, however, recovery was weak in 2000. Hence, for example, between 1998 and 2000, Argentina, Paraguay and Uruguay posted negative per capita growth. In Colombia, Ecuador and Venezuela, the 1999 recession was very sharp, with per capita output falling to between -6% and -9%. In 2000 these three countries experienced a slight recovery, ranging from stagnation (Ecuador) to growth of a little over 1% (Colombia and Venezuela). Finally, Brazil was a case apart. The exchange-rate crisis of late 1997 caused a decline in per capita output in 1998 (-1.1%) and 1999 (-0.4%), but this was followed by recovery in 2000 (2.2%). In the latter year, therefore, growth was slightly higher than in 1997. This is significant in terms of the figures for South America as a whole, given Brazil's greater relative size –in both economic and demographic terms– in the regional context (see table I.1).

As a result of the foregoing circumstances, open unemployment rates rose in most South American countries. As was to be expected, that outcome was particularly marked in Colombia, Ecuador and Vene-

zuela where, between 1997 and 2000, unemployment increased from 12% to 20%, from 9% to 14% and from 11% to 14%, in that order. The increase was more moderate in Brazil and Uruguay (slightly under two percentage points), as well as in Peru (one percentage point). Argentina, which had reduced open unemployment by two points in 1998, lost that gain and ended 2000 with open unemployment averaging 15%. In the countries for which information on real wages is available, there was no appreciable fall in average earnings, and in some of them wage earners even saw a slight improvement. Such was the case in Chile (see table 1 of the statistical appendix).

By 1999¹ some 35% of Latin American households were poor and 14% of them were indigent or extremely poor. In other words, 35 of every 100 households in the region lacked the resources to meet their basic needs, while 14 could not even to afford a basic food basket (see table I.2).

A comparison of these figures with the estimates for 1997 shows a slight drop in the percentages of both poverty and indigence. During the 1997–1999 period, poverty decreased by two tenths of a percentage point, from 35.5% to 35.3% of households. The indigence rate fell slightly more, from 14.4% to 13.9% (see table I.2 and figure I.1). Although these changes can hardly be considered to represent significant progress in the fight against poverty, they are consistent with the annual per capita growth rate of just 0.3% in 1999, which had actually been expected to cause a deterioration in the living conditions of the disadvantaged population.

¹ This is the most recent year for which detailed estimates of the magnitude of poverty in individual countries are available. For a description of the methodology used to arrive at these estimates, see box I.1.

Table 1.1

LATIN AMERICA (19 COUNTRIES): TRENDS IN SELECTED SOCIO-ECONOMIC INDICATORS, 1990–2000											
Country	Year	Per capita GDP (Average annual variation) a/	Urban unemployment	Average real wages b/	Minimum urban wage	Country	Year	Per capita GDP (Average annual variation) a/	Urban unemployment	Average real wages b/	Minimum urban wage
			Simple average for the period (Percentages)	(Average annual variation)	(Average annual variation)				Simple average for the period (Percentages)	(Average annual variation)	(Average annual variation)
Argentina	1990-1997	3.6	11.5	0.6	1.0	Honduras	1990-1997	0.2	6.3	...	0.8
	1998-2000	-1.3	14.1	0.9	0.4		1998-2000	-0.5	5.3	...	4.0
Bolivia	1990-1997	1.9	5.2	2.8	6.3	Mexico	1990-1997	1.3	3.8	0.6	-5.5
	1998-2000	0.2	7.2	1.7	8.7		1998-2000	3.6	2.6	3.2	1.8
Brazil	1990-1997	0.5	5.1	-0.7	-1.1	Nicaragua	1990-1997	-0.5	14.9	8.6	...
	1998-2000	0.4	7.4	-1.8	2.8		1998-2000	2.6	11.0	4.4	...
Chile	1990-1997	5.3	7.0	3.7	5.5	Panama	1990-1997	3.4	17.2	...	1.1
	1998-2000	1.4	8.5	2.2	7.3		1998-2000	1.9	14.8	...	3.3
Colombia	1990-1997	1.6	10.1	1.0	-0.7	Paraguay	1990-1997	0.0	5.9	0.9	-1.3
	1998-2000	-2.1	18.3	1.9	1.0		1998-2000	-3.0	8.2	-0.9	-0.5
Costa Rica	1990-1997	1.4	5.3	1.4	0.7	Peru	1990-1997	2.1	8.5	-0.5	0.8
	1998-2000	3.5	5.6	3.7	1.7		1998-2000	-0.2	8.7	-1.0	6.0
Ecuador	1990-1997	0.9	8.5	6.7	3.5	Dominican Republic	1990-1997	1.8	17.7	...	0.3
	1998-2000	-3.9	13.6	-2.0	-7.2		1998-2000	6.0	14.0	...	3.0
El Salvador	1990-1997	2.8	7.9	...	-1.4	Uruguay	1990-1997	3.1	9.8	0.2	-7.8
	1998-2000	0.9	7.1	...	1.1		1998-2000	-1.0	11.7	0.7	0.7
Guatemala	1990-1997	1.3	4.4	5.6	-13.1	Venezuela c/	1990-1997	1.6	9.6	-5.0	-3.9
	1998-2000	1.2	3.8	4.7	4.2		1998-2000	-2.4	13.4	-2.0	-4.5
Haiti	1990-1997	-3.9	-8.0	Latin America	1990-1997	1.4	7.0
	1998-2000	0.5	-10.3		1998-2000	0.6	8.5

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of official statistics.

a/ Based on the value of per capita gross domestic product (GDP) in dollars at constant 1995 prices. The figure for 2000 is a preliminary estimate.

b/ This indicator only covers some cases. In most countries, it refers only to formal workers in the industrial sector. The figure for 2000 is a preliminary estimate.

c/ In the case of the urban minimum wage, the variation shown is for the period 1997–1999.

... No data available.

The trends in individual poverty rates differ slightly from those registered for households. Around 1999, 43.8% of the region's population was living in poverty, or three tenths of a point more than in 1997, while the extreme poverty rate edged downward from 19% to 18.5% during that period. The differences in the poverty rate –depending on whether individuals or households are used as the

unit of analysis– can be sizeable (8.5 percentage points in 1999). This phenomenon may be explained by the larger average size of poor households relative to the average size of households in general. The more members poor households have than those in the average overall population, the higher will be the percentage of poor people in the estimates of poor households.²

2 It is interesting to note that there is a widening gap between poverty measurements in respect of individuals and measurements for households (from 6 percentage points in 1980 to 8.5 points in 1999), even though the average size of households in the region has been falling. This is due to the fact that the average size of poor households (a group that has also been declining) has decreased less than the average size of households in general: while the former barely changed in size between 1990 and 1999 (5.12 and 5.11 members, respectively), the average size of households overall fell from 4.35 to 4.13.

Table 1.2

LATIN AMERICA: EXTENT OF POVERTY AND INDIGENCE ^{a/} 1980–1999						
Year	Percentage of households					
	Poor ^{b/}			Indigent ^{c/}		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
1980	34.7	25.3	53.9	15.0	8.8	27.5
1990	41.0	35.0	58.2	17.7	12.0	34.1
1994	37.5	31.8	56.1	15.9	10.5	33.5
1997	35.5	29.7	54.0	14.4	9.5	30.3
1999	35.3	29.8	54.3	13.9	9.1	30.7

Source: ECLAC, based on special tabulations from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ Estimate for 19 countries of the region.

b/ Percentage of households with incomes below the poverty line. Includes indigent households.

c/ Percentage of households with incomes below the indigence line.

Table 1.3

LATIN AMERICA: POOR AND INDIGENT POPULATION ^{a/} 1980–1999												
Year	Poor ^{b/}						Indigent ^{c/}					
	Total		Urban		Rural		Total		Urban		Rural	
	Millions	Percentage	Millions	Percentage	Millions	Percentage	Millions	Percentage	Millions	Percentage	Millions	Percentage
1980	135.9	40.5	62.9	29.8	73.0	59.9	62.4	18.6	22.5	0.6	39.9	32.7
1990	200.2	48.3	121.7	41.4	78.5	65.4	93.4	22.5	45.0	15.3	48.4	40.4
1994	201.5	45.7	125.9	38.7	75.6	65.1	91.6	20.8	44.3	13.6	47.4	40.8
1997	203.8	43.5	125.7	36.5	78.2	63.0	88.8	19.0	42.2	12.3	46.6	37.6
1999	211.4	43.8	134.2	37.1	77.2	63.7	89.4	18.5	43.0	11.9	46.4	38.3

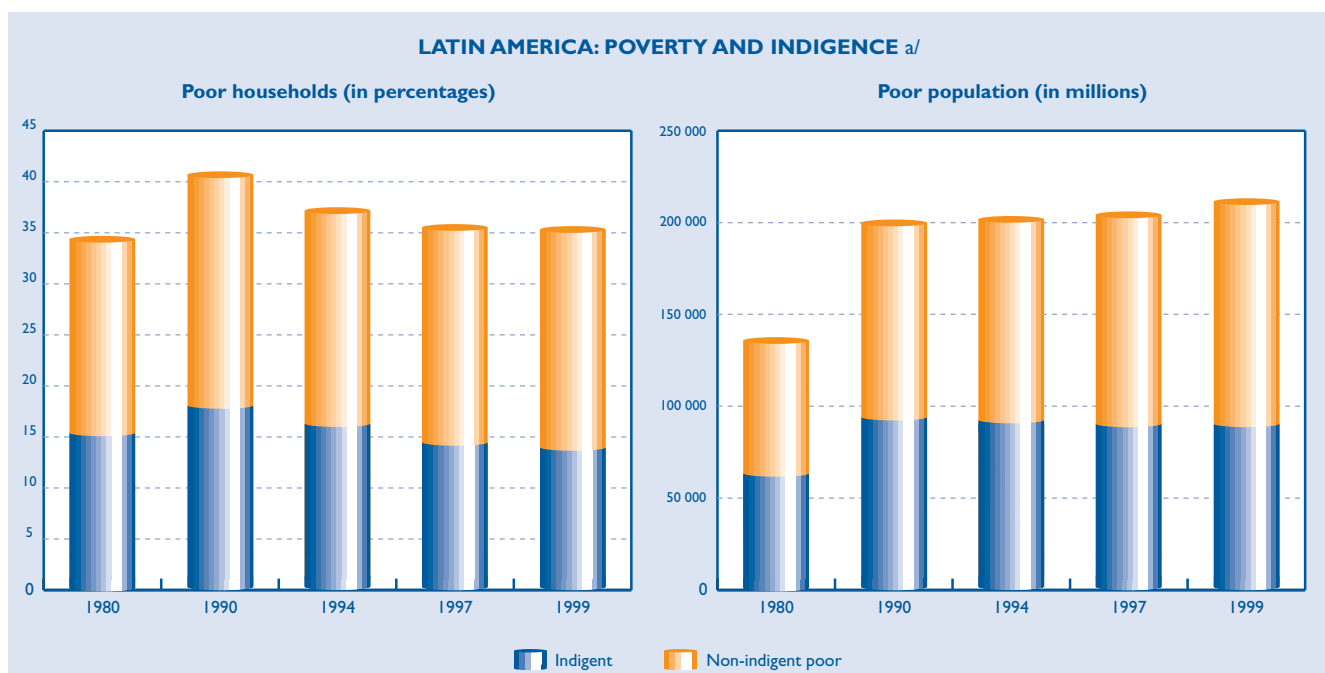
Source: ECLAC, based on special tabulations from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ Estimate for 19 countries of the region.

b/ Percentage of households in poverty. Includes the indigent population.

c/ Percentage of indigent households.

Figure 1.1



Source: ECLAC, based on special tabulations from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ National total.

METHOD USED TO MEASURE POVERTY

The poverty estimates presented in this report were arrived at using the cost-of-basic-needs method, which is based on poverty-line calculations. Poverty lines represent the minimum income required for members of a household to meet their basic needs. Whenever the necessary information was available, the poverty lines for individual countries and geographical regions were estimated from the cost of a basic food basket considered sufficient to cover the nutritional needs of the population, bearing in mind consumption habits and the availability and relative prices of foodstuffs. To the value of this basket was added the estimated amount of resources required by households to meet their basic non-food needs.^a

The indigence line represents the cost of the food basket; people who are indigent (or extremely poor) are those who live in households whose incomes are so low that even if they spent all their money on food, they would not be able to meet the nutritional needs of all their members. The value of the poverty line is calculated by multiplying the value of the indigence line by a constant factor that takes into account basic non-food spending. In urban areas, this value is 2 and in rural areas, it is about 1.75^b (ECLAC, 1999, box I.2).

Indigence-line estimates take into account the differences in food prices between metropolitan areas and other urban and rural areas. Prices in urban and rural areas are usually 5% and 25% lower, respectively, than those in metropolitan areas.

The data on family incomes were obtained from the household surveys conducted in the different countries. Following standard practice, the data were adjusted both for non-response to some questions on income levels—in the case of wage earners, independent workers and retired people—and for probable distortions caused by under-reporting. This latter adjustment was made by contrasting the income items in the survey with the estimated household income and expenditure account of the System of National Accounts (SNA), which is prepared for this purpose on the basis of official information. Income was deemed to consist of earnings from paid work (in cash and in kind), from independent work (including self-supply and consumption of products produced by the household), property rents, pensions and allowances and other transfers received by households. In most countries, household income also includes an amount for the imputed rental value of the home when it is owner-occupied.

The percentages of poor and indigent households and individuals were estimated by comparing the monthly per capita value of the poverty and indigence lines with total household income, also expressed in per capita terms. National poverty and indigence rates were estimated as a weighted average of the rates for each geographical area and are therefore based not only on the incidence of poverty in each area but also on the share of the country's total population that they represent.

a/ The information on the structure of household consumption of foodstuffs and other goods and services was taken from surveys of family budgets that were carried out in the different countries. When no data were available from recent surveys, other pertinent information on family consumption was used.

b/ The only exception to this general rule is Brazil. In this case, use was made of the new indigence lines estimated for different subnational geographical areas in the context of a joint study by the Brazilian Geographical and Statistical Institute (IBGE), the Institute of Applied Economic Research (IPEA) of Brazil and the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC).

Measured in absolute terms, there were slightly more than 211 million poor people as of 1999 (7.6 million more than in 1997); of these, slightly over 89 million lived below the extreme poverty, or indigence, line (0.6 million more than in 1997) (see table I.3 and figure I.1).

Poverty trends in Latin America as a whole have been strongly influenced by the trends in a few individual countries, either because those countries have very large populations or because their poverty rates have undergone sizeable changes. For example, poverty rates rebounded in Argentina, Brazil and Co-

lombia, while in Mexico and most of the Central American countries (especially El Salvador and Panama), these rates were down by three or more percentage points.

Preliminary projections for Latin America as of the year 2000, based largely on the various countries' macroeconomic performance, indicate that poverty in the region may be edging downward thanks to improved growth last year, particularly in Mexico and Brazil, which account for more than half the population of the region. For 2000, the percentage of poor households is estimated at around 34%, although the figure for indigent households appears to have remained at around 14% of the total.

If this proves to be the case, then this decade will have begun with a smaller number of poor people than there were in 1999 and will therefore have broken away from the upward trend that predominated during the 1990s. It is estimated that the poor population fell by 1.9 million, which would put the number of poor people as of the year 2000 at about 210 million. The projection also points to a further decline (of about 2 million) in the number of people living in extreme poverty, so that at the start of this decade, the indigent population stood at about 87 million.

In terms of magnitude, intensity and characteristics, poverty and indigence are evidenced in different ways in urban and rural areas. Hence the crucial need to identify these differences, since the growing prevalence of urban poverty over rural poverty in Latin America has direct implications for the assignment of resources for poverty reduction.

Relative poverty rates continue to be far higher in the region's rural areas than in its urban centres

(54% versus 30% of all households), even though in 1999 there were nearly 134 million poor people in urban areas versus 77 million in rural areas, given that a much larger share of the total population lives in urban areas. The situation with respect to indigence is quite different, inasmuch as the size of the population living in extreme poverty is slightly smaller in urban areas (43 million) than in rural areas (46 million), reflecting the greater severity of rural poverty (see table I.3).

In the 1997–1999 period, variations in urban and rural poverty were less pronounced, not only as regards the percentages of households and individuals living in poverty and indigence –where most variations were under 0.4 percentage points– but also in terms of the number of people who were in one or the other of those circumstances. The number of poor people in urban areas was the exception, inasmuch as that population increased by about 8.5 million during the two-year period.

In the projections for 2000 mentioned above, the expected decline at the household level should be largely apparent in a lower rate (0.8 percentage points) of urban poverty, since in the other cases the decline in the share of households would be below 0.5 percentage points. Hence, urban poverty could be expected to reach 29%, while rural poverty, urban indigence and rural indigence would remain at about 54%, 9% and 30%, in that order. In terms of individuals, urban and rural poverty, as well as rural indigence, could fall by one percentage point. The percentage of urban indigents would be 0.5 percentage points below the 1999 level.

B. POVERTY IN THE 1990S

The 1990s saw a decline in the percentage of households and individuals living in poverty, as well as a reduction in the severity of poverty. In aggregate terms, this decrease helped offset the deterioration of the 1980s. Nevertheless, urban poverty and rural indigence rates are still considerably higher than they were 20 years ago. A positive development in the 1990s was the fact that poverty levels fell by more than 10 percentage points in Brazil, Chile and Panama, against a background of very different per capita growth rates.

An analysis of long-term trends in Latin America shows that in the 1990s, economic recovery programmes, together with progress in the field of public policy, were successful in most countries, at least insofar as they helped reverse the negative trends of the 1980s.

The estimated percentage of poor households in Latin America as of 1999 was nearly six percentage points below the 1990 figure. A downward trend was also seen in extreme poverty, which gradually declined from 18% of all households in 1990 to 14% in 1999. A comparison with the figures for 1980 shows that the overall percentages of poor and indigent households in 1999 are much the same as they were in that year (see table I.2). This reflects a deterioration of the situation with respect to distribution over

the past two decades, inasmuch as the similar poverty level of the latter year occurred in a context of higher per capita income than in 1980.³

This is not the case with the figures for individuals, however; although the percentage of poor people in the population did decline in the 1990s, it would have had to fall a further three percentage points to reach its 1980 level (44% versus 41%). As noted above, this stems from the fact that the size of poor households decreased less than the size of non-poor households.

Given these circumstances, the progress made during the 1990s in reducing relative individual and household poverty levels was not great enough to fully offset population growth, and between 1990

³ In 1980, average per capita income in Latin America was US\$ 3,606 (at constant 1995 prices), while in 1999, it was US\$ 3,761.

and 1999, the number of poor people increased by 11 million. The region did succeed, however, in reducing the size of the indigent or extremely poor popu-

lation during that period by nearly 4 million persons (see table I.3).

Box I.2

POVERTY MEASUREMENT INDICATORS

Poverty is a highly normative concept. Since it is linked to people's well-being, there is no one definition of the phenomenon nor a universal method of measuring it. It is generally agreed, however, that poverty measurement involves at least two stages: (i) identifying the poor and (ii) aggregating poverty by means of a synthetic measurement.

The first stage entails defining a threshold called the poverty line (z). This is used to identify the population whose per capita income (y_{pc}) is lower than the cost of a basket of goods that satisfy their basic needs ($y_{pc} < z$) (see box I.1).

Aggregation is effected by selecting an indicator based on people's income deficit relative to the poverty line. A "good" poverty indicator should fulfil certain axioms, including the following:

i) **Monotonicity.** Other things being equal, a fall in the income of a poor household would raise the poverty index.
 ii) **Transfer.** Other things being equal, a transfer of income from a poor household to a richer household would increase the value of the poverty indicator.

iii) **Additive decomposition.** It should be possible to estimate a population's poverty index as the weighted sum of the indices for the different subgroups that belong to it.

The most widely used poverty measurements may be summarized on the basis of a family of parametric indices proposed by Foster, Greer and Thorbecke:³

$$FGT_{\alpha} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^q \left[\frac{z - y_i}{z} \right]^{\alpha} \quad (1)$$

Where $\alpha > 0$, and q represents the number of persons with incomes lower than z .

When $\alpha = 0$, expression (1) represents what is termed the poverty rate (H) which shows the percentage of persons whose incomes are below the poverty line (z):

$$H = q / n \quad (2)$$

Because this indicator is easy to estimate and interpret, it is the one that is most widely used. However, although it can be decomposed additively, it does not satisfy the first two axioms mentioned earlier, and therefore its usefulness in measuring poverty is somewhat limited.

When $\alpha = 1$ an indicator is obtained that measures the income deficits of the poor relative to the value of z . This is known as the poverty gap (PG):

$$PG = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^q \left[\frac{z - y_i}{z} \right] \quad (3)$$

POVERTY MEASUREMENT INDICATORS

Although the poverty gap (**PG**) satisfies the monotonicity axiom, it does not meet the transfer axiom. Hence this indicator does not address inequality in the distribution of income among the poor.

Finally, an index that considers both the poverty gap and income distribution is obtained when $\alpha = 2$:

$$FGT_2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^q \left[\frac{z - y_i}{z} \right]^2$$

Although this indicator is less intuitive than the others, it is particularly useful for policy design and evaluation. Since it satisfies the three axioms, it can be used to produce conclusive classifications of countries, geographical units or social groups for the purpose of identifying where the most severe poverty is to be found.

a/ James Foster; Joel Greer and Erik Thorbecke, "A class of decomposable poverty measures", *Econometrica*, vol. 52, 1984, pp. 761–766.

These aggregate figures reflect changes in the urban–rural distribution of poor households which are particularly important in view of the differences between urban and rural poverty. The percentage of poor households declined in both urban areas (a reduction of five percentage points) and rural areas (four percentage points) during the 1990s. By the same token, household indigence rates fell from 12% to 9% in urban areas and from 34% to 31% in rural areas. When measured in terms of the number of individuals, however, urban/rural trends were not parallel. Urban poverty climbed by 12.5 million persons, whereas in rural areas the number of poor people was down by 1.3 million.

Moreover, an analysis of the current state of poverty in urban areas shows that it is still considerably higher than it was in 1980 (30% compared to 25%); the figures for rural indigence are similar (31% compared to 28%). This means that despite the progress made in the last decade, much remains to be done with regard to poverty reduction in certain specific areas, just to return to poverty levels similar to those of 20 years ago.

The figures confirm the trend towards urbanization of poverty mentioned in previous editions of *Social*

Panorama. This trend was very marked in the 1980s and somewhat less so in the 1990s: in 1999, 64% of the poor lived in urban areas, while in 1980 and 1990, the percentages stood at 46% and 61%, in that order. The trend with respect to extreme poverty is more moderate: the pattern of indigence by area changed markedly in the 1980s but was fairly stable over the last 10 years, at about 48% in urban areas and 52% in the countryside. Thus, the fight against indigence now calls for similar efforts to be made in both urban and rural areas.

An analysis of poverty at the country level shows that, although trends were uneven in 1997–1999 period, the decade as a whole was marked by a widespread downturn in the percentage of poor households. Thus, in 1990–1999, most countries of the region saw a substantial decline in poverty rates. By the end of the decade, in fact, at least 11 countries, which together account for a majority of the region's poor, had managed to push their relative poverty rates below their 1990 levels. In four cases, the percentage of poor households increased (see tables I.4 and I.5).

Table I.4

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): POVERTY INDICATORS a/ 1990–1999 (In percentages)														
Country	Year	Households and population below the poverty line b/												
		Country total				Urban areas				Rural areas				
		H		PG	FGT ₂	H		PG	FGT ₂	H		PG	FGT ₂	
		Households	Population			Households	Population			Households	Population			
Argentina c/	1990	-	-	-	-	16.2	21.2	7.2	3.4	-	-	-	-	
	1994	-	-	-	-	10.2	13.2	4.3	1.9	-	-	-	-	
	1997	-	-	-	-	13.1	17.8	6.2	3.1	-	-	-	-	
	1999	-	-	-	-	13.1	19.7	6.8	3.3	-	-	-	-	
Bolivia	1989 d/	-	-	-	-	49.4	53.1	24.5	15.0	-	-	-	-	
	1994 d/	-	-	-	-	45.6	51.6	21.6	11.8	-	-	-	-	
	1997	56.7	62.1	33.6	22.8	46.8	52.3	23.2	13.6	72.0	78.5	51.0	38.1	
	1999	54.7	60.6	33.6	23.9	42.3	48.7	20.5	11.8	75.6	80.7	55.7	44.4	
Brazil	1990	41.4	48.0	23.5	14.7	35.6	41.2	18.9	11.4	63.9	70.6	38.9	25.7	
	1993	37.1	45.3	21.7	13.6	33.3	40.3	18.2	11.0	52.9	63.0	34.3	23.0	
	1996	28.6	35.8	16.7	10.4	24.6	30.6	13.5	8.2	45.6	55.6	29.0	19.0	
	1999	29.9	37.5	17.0	10.2	26.4	32.9	14.3	8.4	45.2	55.3	27.5	17.2	
Chile	1990	33.3	38.6	14.7	7.9	33.3	38.4	14.8	7.9	33.5	39.5	14.6	7.8	
	1994	23.2	27.5	9.7	5.0	22.8	26.9	9.6	5.0	25.5	30.9	10.4	5.1	
	1998	17.8	21.7	7.5	3.8	17.0	20.7	7.2	3.7	22.7	27.6	9.1	4.3	
	2000	16.6	20.6	7.1	3.7	16.2	20.1	6.9	3.6	19.2	23.8	8.2	4.3	
Colombia	1991	50.5	56.1	24.9	14.5	47.1	52.7	22.0	12.1	55.4	60.7	28.9	17.7	
	1994	47.3	52.5	26.6	17.5	40.6	45.4	20.2	11.9	57.4	62.4	35.7	25.3	
	1997	44.9	50.9	22.9	13.8	39.5	45.0	19.1	10.8	54.0	60.1	28.9	18.1	
	1999	48.7	54.9	25.6	15.7	44.6	50.6	23.1	13.9	55.8	61.8	29.6	18.6	
Costa Rica	1990	23.7	26.2	10.7	6.5	22.2	24.8	9.3	5.6	24.9	27.3	11.7	7.2	
	1994	20.8	23.1	8.6	5.0	18.1	20.7	7.2	4.0	23.1	25.0	9.8	5.8	
	1997	20.3	22.5	8.5	4.9	17.1	19.3	7.1	4.0	22.9	24.8	9.6	5.6	
	1999	18.2	20.3	8.1	4.8	15.7	18.1	6.8	3.8	20.5	22.3	9.3	5.6	
Ecuador	1990	-	-	-	-	55.8	62.1	27.6	15.8	-	-	-	-	
	1994	-	-	-	-	52.3	57.9	26.2	15.6	-	-	-	-	
	1997	-	-	-	-	49.8	56.2	23.9	13.5	-	-	-	-	
	1999	-	-	-	-	58.0	63.6	30.1	18.2	-	-	-	-	
El Salvador	1995	47.6	54.2	24.0	14.3	40.0	45.8	17.8	9.7	58.2	64.4	31.3	19.8	
	1997	48.0	55.5	24.3	13.9	38.6	44.4	17.5	9.4	61.6	69.2	32.7	19.3	
	1999	43.5	49.8	22.9	14.0	34.0	38.7	15.3	8.3	59.0	65.1	33.4	22.0	
	Guatemala	1989	63.0	69.1	32.6	20.7	48.2	53.1	23.0	14.1	72.1	77.7	38.2	24.6
1998		53.5	60.5	29.2	17.2	38.8	46.0	19.7	10.7	64.7	70.0	35.4	21.4	
Honduras		1990	75.2	80.5	50.2	35.9	64.5	69.8	39.0	25.8	83.5	88.0	58.0	42.9
		1994	73.1	77.9	45.3	31.3	69.6	74.5	41.2	27.4	76.1	80.5	48.4	34.2
	1997	73.8	79.1	45.6	30.8	67.0	72.6	39.0	25.2	79.9	84.2	50.7	35.2	
	1999	74.3	79.7	47.4	32.9	65.6	71.7	38.9	25.5	82.3	86.3	54.2	39.0	
Mexico	1989	39.0	47.8	18.7	9.9	33.9	42.1	15.8	8.1	48.4	57.0	23.5	12.7	
	1994	35.8	45.1	17.0	8.4	29.0	36.8	12.6	5.8	46.5	56.5	22.9	12.0	
	1996	43.4	52.1	21.8	11.7	37.5	45.1	17.4	8.7	53.4	62.5	28.2	15.9	
	1998	38.0	46.9	18.4	9.4	31.1	38.9	13.4	6.4	49.3	58.5	25.6	13.9	
Nicaragua	1993	68.1	73.6	41.9	29.3	60.3	66.3	35.0	23.4	78.7	82.7	50.6	36.6	
	1998	65.1	69.9	39.4	27.3	59.3	64.0	32.9	21.2	72.7	77.0	47.3	34.7	
Panama	1991	36.3	42.8	19.2	11.5	33.6	40.9	17.9	10.9	42.5	50.6	22.5	12.8	
	1994	29.7	36.1	15.8	9.0	25.2	30.8	13.1	7.5	40.6	49.2	22.1	12.8	
	1997	27.3	33.2	10.6	6.2	24.6	29.7	9.5	5.7	33.5	41.9	13.2	7.4	
	1999	24.2	30.2	11.8	6.4	20.8	25.7	10.2	5.6	32.6	41.5	16.0	8.3	
Paraguay	1990 e/	-	-	-	-	36.8	42.2	16.1	8.0	-	-	-	-	
	1994	-	-	-	-	42.4	49.9	20.7	11.5	-	-	-	-	
	1996	-	-	-	-	39.6	46.3	18.5	9.8	-	-	-	-	
	1999	51.7	60.6	30.2	19.0	41.4	49.0	20.3	11.2	65.2	73.9	41.7	27.9	
Dominican Republic	1997	32.4	37.2	15.3	8.5	31.6	35.6	14.1	7.7	33.6	39.4	16.7	9.5	
Uruguay	1990	-	-	-	-	11.8	17.8	5.3	2.4	-	-	-	-	
	1994	-	-	-	-	5.8	9.7	2.9	1.3	-	-	-	-	
	1997	-	-	-	-	5.7	9.5	2.8	1.2	-	-	-	-	
	1999	-	-	-	-	5.6	9.4	2.8	1.2	-	-	-	-	
Venezuela	1990	34.2	40.0	15.9	8.7	33.4	38.8	15.4	8.4	38.4	46.5	18.8	10.0	
	1994	42.1	48.7	19.9	10.8	40.9	47.1	19.0	10.3	47.7	55.6	23.8	13.2	
	1997	42.3	48.1	21.1	12.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	1999	44.0	49.4	22.7	13.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Latin America f/	1990	41.0	48.3	-	-	35.0	41.4	-	-	58.2	65.4	-	-	
	1994	37.5	45.7	-	-	31.8	38.7	-	-	56.1	65.1	-	-	
	1997	35.5	43.5	-	-	29.7	36.5	-	-	54.0	63.0	-	-	
	1999	35.3	43.8	-	-	29.8	37.1	-	-	54.3	63.7	-	-	

Source: ECLAC, based on special tabulations from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ H = Poverty rate. PG = Poverty gap. FGT₂ = Severity of poverty. PGT and FGT₂ estimates are based on the distribution of the poor population.

b/ Includes households (persons) living in indigence or extreme poverty.

c/ Greater Buenos Aires.

d/ Eight departmental capitals plus the city of El Alto.

e/ Asunción metropolitan area.

f/ Estimate for 19 countries of the region.

Table I.5

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): INDIGENCE INDICATORS a/ 1990–1999													
(In percentages)													
Country	Year	Households and population below the poverty line											
		Country total				Urban areas				Rural areas			
		H		PG	FGT ₂	H		PG	FGT ₂	H		PG	FGT ₂
		Households	Population			Households	Population			Households	Population		
Argentina b/	1990	-	-	-	-	3.5	5.2	1.6	0.8	-	-	-	-
	1994	-	-	-	-	1.5	2.6	0.7	0.3	-	-	-	-
	1997	-	-	-	-	3.3	4.8	1.5	0.7	-	-	-	-
	1999	-	-	-	-	3.1	4.8	1.4	0.7	-	-	-	-
Bolivia	1989 c/	-	-	-	-	22.1	23.3	9.7	6.1	-	-	-	-
	1994 c/	-	-	-	-	16.8	19.8	6.3	3.0	-	-	-	-
	1997	32.7	37.2	18.6	12.1	19.2	22.6	8.4	4.6	53.8	61.5	35.6	24.6
	1999	32.6	36.5	20.1	14.6	16.4	19.8	6.9	4.0	59.6	64.7	42.3	32.6
Brazil	1990	18.3	23.4	9.7	5.5	13.3	16.7	6.6	3.7	37.9	46.1	20.2	11.6
	1993	15.3	20.2	8.7	5.3	11.6	15.0	6.1	3.8	30.2	38.8	17.8	10.9
	1996	10.5	13.9	6.2	4.0	7.6	9.6	4.3	2.9	23.1	30.2	13.5	8.3
	1999	9.6	12.9	5.3	3.3	7.1	9.3	3.9	2.5	20.5	27.1	10.8	6.1
Chile	1990	10.6	12.9	4.3	2.3	10.2	12.4	4.0	2.1	12.1	15.2	5.4	3.0
	1994	6.2	7.6	2.6	1.5	5.9	7.1	2.5	1.5	7.9	9.8	3.2	1.7
	1998	4.7	5.6	2.0	1.1	4.3	5.1	1.9	1.1	6.9	8.7	2.6	1.2
	2000	4.6	5.7	2.1	1.2	4.2	5.3	1.9	1.2	6.7	8.3	2.9	1.6
Colombia	1991	22.6	26.1	9.8	5.5	17.2	20.0	6.7	3.4	30.6	34.3	14.1	8.3
	1994	25.0	28.5	13.8	9.1	16.2	18.6	7.5	4.5	38.2	42.5	22.6	15.6
	1997	20.1	23.5	9.6	5.8	14.6	17.2	6.1	3.5	29.3	33.4	15.1	9.5
	1999	23.2	26.8	11.2	6.9	18.7	21.9	8.9	5.3	31.1	34.6	15.0	9.4
Costa Rica	1990	9.8	9.8	4.8	3.4	6.9	6.4	3.8	2.9	12.3	12.5	5.7	3.8
	1994	7.7	8.0	3.6	2.4	5.6	5.7	2.4	1.6	9.5	9.7	4.5	3.1
	1997	7.4	7.8	3.5	2.3	5.2	5.5	2.4	1.6	9.1	9.6	4.3	2.9
	1999	7.5	7.8	3.5	2.3	5.4	5.4	2.4	1.5	9.4	9.8	4.4	2.9
Ecuador	1990	-	-	-	-	22.6	26.2	9.2	4.9	-	-	-	-
	1994	-	-	-	-	22.4	25.5	9.7	5.6	-	-	-	-
	1997	-	-	-	-	18.6	22.2	7.7	4.1	-	-	-	-
	1999	-	-	-	-	27.2	31.3	11.5	6.3	-	-	-	-
El Salvador	1995	18.2	21.7	9.1	5.6	12.4	14.9	5.2	2.9	26.5	29.9	13.7	8.8
	1997	18.5	23.3	8.4	4.1	12.0	14.8	5.5	2.7	27.9	33.7	12.1	5.8
	1999	18.3	21.9	9.4	5.8	11.1	13.0	4.6	2.5	29.3	34.3	16.0	10.3
Guatemala	1989	36.7	41.8	16.3	9.9	22.9	26.2	9.2	5.6	45.2	50.1	20.5	12.4
	1998	28.0	34.1	12.6	6.2	12.9	17.2	5.7	2.5	39.6	45.2	17.1	8.6
Honduras	1990	54.0	60.6	31.5	20.2	38.0	43.2	18.9	10.8	66.4	72.8	40.2	26.6
	1994	48.5	53.9	26.3	16.4	40.8	46.0	20.3	11.8	54.9	59.8	30.8	19.9
	1997	48.3	54.4	25.4	15.4	36.8	41.5	17.7	10.2	58.7	64.0	31.5	19.5
	1999	50.6	56.8	27.9	17.5	37.1	42.9	18.3	10.6	63.2	68.0	35.7	23.1
Mexico	1989	14.0	18.8	5.9	2.7	9.3	13.1	3.9	1.9	22.4	27.9	9.0	4.2
	1994	11.8	16.8	4.6	1.8	6.2	9.0	2.1	0.8	20.4	27.5	8.1	3.3
	1996	15.6	21.3	7.1	3.3	10.0	13.8	3.9	1.6	25.0	32.4	11.8	5.8
	1998	13.2	18.5	5.3	2.2	6.9	9.7	2.5	1.0	23.5	31.1	9.5	4.1
Nicaragua	1993	43.2	48.4	24.3	16.2	32.2	36.8	17.0	11.1	58.3	62.8	33.4	22.6
	1998	40.1	44.6	22.6	15.1	30.7	33.9	15.0	9.2	52.6	57.5	31.6	22.2
Panama	1991	16.0	19.2	7.9	4.7	13.9	16.0	7.3	4.7	21.1	26.7	9.4	4.8
	1994	12.0	15.7	6.0	3.2	8.7	11.4	4.5	2.5	19.8	26.2	9.6	4.9
	1997	10.2	13.0	3.7	2.3	8.6	10.7	3.4	2.1	14.1	18.8	4.7	2.7
	1999	8.3	10.7	3.9	2.1	6.6	8.1	3.3	1.9	12.6	17.2	5.4	2.6
Paraguay	1990 d/	-	-	-	-	10.4	12.7	3.6	1.5	-	-	-	-
	1994	-	-	-	-	14.8	18.8	6.5	3.3	-	-	-	-
	1996	-	-	-	-	13.0	16.3	5.0	2.4	-	-	-	-
	1999	26.0	33.9	14.5	8.5	13.9	17.4	6.1	3.3	42.0	52.8	24.3	14.5
Dominican Republic Uruguay	1997	12.8	14.4	5.5	3.0	11.0	11.8	4.2	2.4	15.2	17.9	7.1	3.8
	1990	-	-	-	-	2.0	3.4	0.9	0.4	-	-	-	-
	1994	-	-	-	-	1.1	1.9	0.5	0.2	-	-	-	-
	1997	-	-	-	-	0.9	1.7	0.5	0.2	-	-	-	-
1999	-	-	-	-	0.9	1.8	0.4	0.2	-	-	-	-	
Venezuela	1990	11.8	14.6	5.1	2.5	10.9	13.3	4.8	2.4	16.5	21.7	6.9	3.1
	1994	15.1	19.2	6.2	3.0	13.5	17.1	5.4	2.6	22.9	28.3	9.6	4.8
	1997	17.1	20.5	7.4	3.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1999	19.4	21.7	9.1	5.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Latin America e/	1990	17.7	22.5	-	-	12.0	15.3	-	-	34.1	40.4	-	-
	1994	15.9	20.8	-	-	10.5	13.6	-	-	33.5	40.8	-	-
	1997	14.4	19.0	-	-	9.5	12.3	-	-	30.2	37.6	-	-
	1999	13.9	18.5	-	-	9.1	11.9	-	-	30.7	38.3	-	-

Source: ECLAC, based on special tabulations from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ H = Poverty rate. PG = Poverty gap. FGT₂ = Severity of poverty. PGT and FGT₂ estimates are based on the distribution of the indigent population.

b/ Greater Buenos Aires.

c/ Eight departmental capitals plus the city of El Alto.

d/ Asunción metropolitan area.

e/ Estimate for 19 countries of the region.

Among the countries that succeeded in lowering their poverty rates, Brazil, Chile and Panama managed to reduce the percentage of poor households by over 10 percentage points. Between 1991 and 2000, for example, these countries posted annual per capita growth rates of 1.2%, 5.0% and 2.6%, in that order. These figures highlight the fact that, although all the countries have embarked on liberal reforms, the attendant economic and social changes have varied in effect and intensity, thanks in part to the nature and timeliness of the policies applied and the differences in the circumstances prevailing at the beginning.

Costa Rica, Guatemala and Uruguay also turned in a strong performance, with reductions in the percentage of poor households ranging from 5 to 10 points.

Disturbing trends were seen in some countries, however, with poverty indicators either coming to a standstill or actually worsening during the 1990s; as a result, they are two decades behind in their efforts to move towards greater social equity. One of the most conspicuous cases in this respect is Venezuela, where the percentage of poor households jumped from 22% in 1981 to 34% in 1990 and has since then climbed to 44%. Ecuador, Colombia and Paraguay have also failed to make any significant progress in easing poverty during the past decade.

As regards the Caribbean countries, there is a scarcity of data this makes it hard to determine whether the situation with regard to poverty has changed recently. Nonetheless, the few data available for the 1990s paint a very mixed picture of the extent of poverty in the subregion, as poverty rates range from under 10% to over 50% of the population in the different Caribbean countries (see box I.3).

It should be noted, however, that any assessment of trends in regard to poverty must take into account the fact that some crucial components of public spending policies have medium- and long-term effects. This is particularly important in the case of programmes that are intended to strengthen the human and social capital of lower-income groups.

Although such programmes only bear fruit in the long term, they usually have a marked impact on the capacity of the poorest segments to generate income and on easing structural inequalities.

ALTERNATIVE POVERTY MEASURES AND THE USE OF "EQUIVALENCE SCALES"

It is helpful to supplement the foregoing analysis of changes in the situation with respect to poverty in the region by referring to more comprehensive indices than those used to measure the percentage of poor households or individuals in the population. In particular, the poverty gap (PG) index is a useful tool for measuring the "depth" of poverty, as it allows for an assessment to be made of the difference between the average income of poor households and the poverty line. By using a similar method but assigning greater weight to the differences among the poorest households, the index of the severity of poverty, or FGT₂ reflects distribution-related criteria as well (see box I.2).

To the extent that increases in the income of poor households do not fundamentally change income distribution, there should be a simultaneous improvement in the poverty rate and in indicators of its depth (PG) and severity (FTG₂). Similarly, during times of widespread decline in the income of poor households, all three indicators are likely to deteriorate. In fact, between 1990 and 1999, all the Latin American countries saw their poverty indicators follow these parallel trends (see table I.4).

When well-being is measured in monetary terms, it is advisable to consider the differences in needs of different households, bearing in mind not only size but also demographic structure. The poverty measurements normally used in *Social Panorama* implicitly reflect these differences through the nutritional standards applied in defining poverty lines, which do not represent adult requirements but rather reflect the average composition of households by sex, age and employment status of members.

POVERTY IN THE CARIBBEAN

At present, only some of the Caribbean countries regularly conduct reliable household surveys that can be used for purposes of social analysis and in particular, for measuring poverty and inequity in income distribution. In some of these countries, however, recent studies of poverty and its impact at the national level have been produced either by the governments themselves or by international organizations. Overall, however, only a few statistical summaries have been drawn up in the Caribbean, and no comparative measurements are available for the entire region.

One of the main problems holding back the regional integration of poverty statistics is the inadequacy or complete lack of details on the methodologies followed in arriving at poverty estimates. The methodology followed in poverty-line calculations, the choice of households or individuals as units of analysis, the use of income or consumption as poverty indicators or the reference dates used in presenting data will all substantially influence the results obtained, making it virtually impossible to ascertain real differences in poverty rates. In the case of Jamaica, for example, estimates of poverty rates vary by more than 15 percentage points, even though the same method is used to define the poverty line.

A review of recent studies of poverty in the Caribbean shows that although all the countries have certain shared characteristics, the situation with respect to poverty is not uniform throughout the region, especially as regards the percentages of the population that are affected by it. In general, poor households tend to be much larger than non-poor households, their educational levels are relatively low (even in countries like Barbados, where literacy stands at 98%), they are overcrowded, and they have limited access to drinking water, health services and electricity. Although in some cases poverty is concentrated in rural areas, urban poverty is growing quickly.

Following are some estimates drawn from a variety of sources which provide an overview of the situation with respect to poverty in the Caribbean. It should be noted that these estimates reflect a wide range of methodologies and reference years, and therefore the data are not directly comparable with the figures for Latin America presented in this document; in several cases, in fact, they are not comparable even with the data for other countries included in the table. In any case, the figures bring to light significant differences in living conditions from one country to another. They also show that the country with the highest poverty rate is Haiti, while those with the lowest rates are the Bahamas and Barbados.

ESTIMATED POVERTY RATES IN SELECTED CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES

Country	Year	Method	Households/ Individuals	Poverty rate
Antigua and Barbuda	...	Other	...	12
Bahamas	...	Other	...	5
Barbados a/	1996	Absolute PL b/	Households	9
Belize c/	1995	Absolute PL	Individuals	33
Dominica	...	Other	...	33
Grenada	...	Other	...	20
Guyana	1993	Absolute PL	...	43
Haiti	1987	Other	...	65
Jamaica d/	1995	Absolute PL	Households	50
Saint Kitts and Nevis	...	Other	...	15
Saint Lucia	1995	Absolute PL	...	25
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	...	Other	...	17
Suriname	1986	Other	...	47
Trinidad and Tobago	1992	Absolute PL	...	21

Source: Figures provided in World Bank, *Poverty Reduction and Human Resource Development in the Caribbean*, Washington, D.C., 1996. Exceptions:

a/ Rafael Díez de Medina, *Poverty and Income Distribution in Barbados 1996–1997*, Washington, D.C., Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), 1998.

b/ Absolute poverty line.

c/ Belize, *Poverty Assessment Report—Belize*, Ministry of Economic Development, Central Statistical Office, Caribbean Development Bank, 1996.

d/ Damien King, "Reforma macroeconómica y pobreza en Jamaica: desempeño y perspectivas 1989–2001", *Política macroeconómica y pobreza en América Latina y el Caribe*, Enrique Ganuza, Lance Taylor and Samuel Morley (eds.), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), Madrid, Mundi-Prensa, 1998.

In recent years, so-called equivalence scales have been widely used outside the region as tools for taking into account the different needs of households. In general, equivalence scales tend to be more "discriminating" than those that are implicit in calorie requirements, since they assign less weight to consumption by minors and assume greater economies of scale for large households. As a supplement to this analysis, box I.4 shows poverty estimates obtained by using three different equivalence scales.

In the first place, the data show that the poverty rates estimated with these scales –which are preferred in some developed countries– are always lower than per capita values and that the differences cover a wide range. In the more extreme cases, "adult-equivalent" poverty levels may be as low as 25% of the levels obtained with per capita estimates.

With the sole exception of Mexico, however, poverty trends throughout the 1990s (in per capita terms) followed a pattern similar to that of the estimates arrived at by using equivalence scales. By the

same token, a classification of countries by poverty rates shows that there are a few minor changes with regard to the use of equivalence scales. In particular, all the estimates for 1999 show that Honduras and Nicaragua have the highest poverty rates, while Uruguay has the lowest.

The above analysis leads to the conclusion that the poverty trends identified earlier in this chapter are valid, and that they do not change significantly when other equivalence scales are used. However, the use of such scales does have a significant effect on estimated poverty levels. This is a crucial issue when it comes to choosing an equivalence scale for measuring poverty in Latin America, given that no theoretical basis has been developed for making such a choice. It seems therefore that until such time as there is wider agreement on the application of specific equivalence scales, poverty measurements should continue to be based mainly on per capita indicators, these being defined in terms of needs in such a way as to take into account the average composition of households in the country concerned.

POVERTY STANDARD AND EQUIVALENCE SCALES

The reliability of comparisons of poverty levels, either between countries or over time in a given country, depends on a number of methodological considerations. It is particularly important to take into account the type of measurement indicator to be used, the validity of the findings and the demographic characteristics of the households.

As noted in box 1.2, where poverty indicators are concerned, it is hard to strike a balance between ease of interpretation and the need to meet certain standards that are considered desirable. The most widely used indicator, i.e., the *poverty rate* (H), has only limited usefulness for analytical purposes because it fails to meet certain basic conditions; the *poverty severity index* (FGT_2) can be hard to interpret, although it meets all the requirements of a good poverty indicator. In any case, the FGT_2 index is deemed preferable for comparative purposes, since it better reflects poverty in the various countries.

The statistical reliability of poverty measurements is also an important factor in the analysis and comparison of results. Some methodologies entail using poverty–line bands instead of specific poverty–line values in order to assess the degree of *stochastic dominance*, equivalent to the order used by Lorenz in studies on inequality. Thus, when the incidence of poverty in two populations (**A** and **B**) is compared, the principle of first–order stochastic dominance is satisfied if, for every value of the poverty line, **A** is always lower than **B**. In such a case, it can be said that there is less poverty in **A**, a finding that is consistent with that obtained with other more comprehensive indices (such as PG or FGT_2). If no conclusive results can be derived from H , the analysis should proceed using the PG index (second–order stochastic dominance) or, if this fails, with the FGT_2 index (third–order stochastic dominance).

A third consideration in measuring poverty is that of the demographic composition of households. The income required to satisfy a household's needs differs according to its composition. Consequently, variables such as total household income (or expenditure) or per capita income are inadequate as indicators of well–being, since the former disregards any demographic characteristic of the household's members, and the latter only takes into account the number of members.

A more comprehensive approach to the analysis of well–being involves the use of *equivalence scales*, which are helpful in comparing the relative cost of living of families based on their size and their composition by age and gender. The concept of equivalence draws on two elements simultaneously: *equivalence per consumer unit* (which takes into account the different needs of different household members, expressed in terms of a reference member), and *economies of scale* (whereby the addition of new family members entails ever less spending to keep the household's utility level constant).

Equivalence scales express the size of the household in terms of the number of "adult–equivalents". This value ranges from a minimum of one –when the needs of all the members of the household are equivalent to those of just one member– and a maximum that is the same as the number of members in the household –when every member is equivalent to an adult. Consequently, "income per adult–equivalent" (that is, total income divided by the number of "adult–equivalents") will always be some figure between the household's per capita income and its total income.

Equivalence scale estimates can be obtained by a variety of methods that differ in both their theoretical basis and in the mechanisms used. One of the most widely used options consists of calculating the scales on the basis of observed consumption patterns of families. To that end, the normal practice is to estimate the parameters of the following type of equation: $w = \alpha + \beta \ln(y/n) + \sum_i \gamma_i n_i + \varepsilon$, where y is the household income, n is the total number of persons, and n_i is the number of people in interest category i (age groups, for example); the variable w represents the share of spending on food or on goods consumed exclusively by the adults, depending on whether the Engel or the Rothbart methodology is followed.

For several years, considerable attention has been paid to parametric scales, which explicitly posit degrees of economies of scale and of consumption equivalences in a generic, functional manner. Most parametric scales can be summarized in the expression $(\mathbf{A} + p\mathbf{N})^F$, where the parameter p is the consumption equivalence of a child in terms of that of an adult, parameter F represents economies of scale, and the variables **A** and **N** represent the number of adults and the number of children, respectively.

Despite the foregoing, it should be noted that there is still no consensus as to which type of scale is most appropriate for poverty studies, nor as to the value of the parameters in question. To demonstrate the effect of using equivalence scales, following are some estimates of the incidence of poverty in selected Latin American countries, applying three commonly used parametric scales. The "OECD scale" (used by the Organisation for Economic Co–operation and Development), which applies the formula $1 + 0.7(\mathbf{A}-1) + 0.5\mathbf{N}$, expresses the first adult with the value of 1, each additional adult as 0.7 of the first adult, and each child (under 14) as 0.5 of the first adult. The "USA scale", which is recommended in defining the United States poverty

POVERTY STANDARD AND EQUIVALENCE SCALES

line, applies the formula $(A + 0.7 N)^{0.7}$. Finally, the "LIS scale", proposed by the Luxembourg Income Study and used widely in some developed countries, is equal to the square root of the number of members in the household.

The following table leads to at least two conclusions. Firstly, when equivalence scales are used, poverty rates are lowered to the extent that economies of scale increase and consumer–unit equivalences decline. These reductions can be substantial, indicating that choosing an equivalence scale is no small matter when it comes to estimating poverty.

Secondly, precisely because of the significant effect of equivalence scales on poverty estimates, and given that there is no theoretical basis for determining which scale is most appropriate, there is good reason to continue using the traditional per capita estimates of poverty, at least as long as there is no widespread agreement on certain key issues, such as what type of scale should be used, what values should be assigned to the parameters, or whether different scales should be applied in different countries.

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): POVERTY RATES BASED ON DIFFERENT EQUIVALENCE SCALES NATIONAL TOTAL, 1990 AND 1999 (Percentages of population)											
Country	Year	Measure				Country	Year	Measure			
		Per capita	OECD a/	USA b/	LIS c/			Per capita	OECD a/	USA b/	LIS c/
Argentina d/	1990	21.2	18.4	12.9	8.3	Honduras	1990	80.5	77.6	70.3	60.1
	1999	19.7	16.6	11.2	6.3		1999	79.7	76.6	68.6	56.2
Bolivia	1989 e/	53.1	47.5	37.8	26.8	Mexico	1989	47.8	40.9	29.2	17.6
	1999	60.6	56.1	48.0	39.0		1998	46.9	41.5	31.7	19.8
Brazil	1990	48.0	44.7	37.5	28.9	Nicaragua	1993	73.6	68.1	58.1	46.5
	1999	37.5	34.5	27.8	20.6		1998	69.9	65.2	55.6	43.6
Chile	1990	38.6	34.5	25.7	17.1	Panama	1991	42.8	38.9	30.0	21.1
	1998	21.7	18.4	12.7	7.7		1999	30.2	26.6	19.4	12.7
Colombia	1991	56.1	51.4	40.9	28.4	Paraguay	1990 g/	42.2	37.8	25.8	16.3
	1999	54.9	50.8	41.2	30.2		1999	60.6	56.2	47.3	35.5
Costa Rica	1990	26.2	21.2	14.8	10.2	Dominican Republic	1997	37.2	32.6	24.7	16.7
	1999	20.3	17.0	12.1	8.7						
Ecuador f/	1990	62.1	57.1	40.5	31.3	Uruguay f/	1990	17.8	14.5	9.2	4.8
	1999	63.6	59.5	50.3	36.9		1999	9.4	7.5	4.3	2.2
El Salvador	1995	54.2	48.5	36.8	25.3	Venezuela	1990	40.0	34.4	23.9	15.5
	1999	49.8	44.9	35.0	25.5		1999	49.4	44.8	34.4	24.3
Guatemala	1989	69.1	66.2	54.5	41.0						
	1998	60.5	56.3	44.8	32.3						

Source: ECLAC, based on special tabulations from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ OECD = Scale applied by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD).

b/ USA = Scale recommended for defining the poverty line in the United States.

c/ LIS = Scale proposed by the Luxembourg Income Study (LIS).

d/ Greater Buenos Aires.

e/ Eight main cities and El Alto.

f/ Urban total.

g/ Asunción metropolitan area.

METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS RELATING TO ALTERNATIVE POVERTY ESTIMATES

There are many different methodologies for measuring poverty, and they lead to wide range of findings, some of which may be contradictory. In order to enable the reader to properly interpret and compare the ECLAC findings, we shall discuss certain poverty-measurement techniques other than those used by ECLAC in *Social Panorama of Latin America*. The following description of the procedure followed by the World Bank to compare poverty levels internationally provides an example of an alternative methodology for calculating poverty lines.

To assess poverty comparatively between countries or over time, the World Bank uses a single poverty line. This line, which is designed to reflect the standards of poverty prevailing in lower-income countries, is calculated as the mean value of the 10 lowest national per capita poverty lines worldwide. For 2000, this value is equivalent to US\$ 32.74 PPP (purchasing power parity) per month, or US\$ 1.08 per day. Thus the "dollar-a-day" line reflects an income level that is low enough for anyone to be considered poor anywhere in the world. In addition, the World Bank usually includes in its tables a higher poverty line, which is obtained by multiplying the above value by two, and which reflects slightly higher poverty standards.

Setting a common poverty line for all countries inevitably creates problems of comparability, given the different price levels prevailing in each country. In an effort to resolve this problem, at least in part, the Bank applies exchange rates that reflect "purchasing power parity" (PPP) –that is, exchange rates that are adjusted so that a dollar has the same purchasing power anywhere in the world. In the case of the World Bank, the poverty line published in the *World Development Report 2000–2001: The Fight against Poverty* is expressed in "PPP dollars" at 1993 prices.* The final step in the poverty-measurement procedure consists of taking data from surveys conducted in the same reference year as the poverty line. This is done by deflating the values in keeping with trends in the consumer price index (CPI) for the period in question.

It should be stressed that the poverty line described above is intended to establish a common basis for international comparisons. When the aim is to evaluate and design policy or to make a detailed analysis of the situation with respect to poverty, the World Bank itself recommends the use of poverty lines that reflect the special circumstances of each country. Indeed, this is the type of poverty line ECLAC applies, since it takes into account calorie requirements and the demographic composition of each country.

The following table shows the estimated poverty rates for the Latin American countries provided by the World Bank in *World Development Report*, using international poverty lines equivalent to US\$ 32.74 and US\$ 65.48 per month (1993 PPP). It should be noted that the first figure produces rather low estimates which in almost all cases are below the indigence rates shown by ECLAC. The second figure gives rise to poverty rates which, with one exception, are lower than the estimates based on national lines.

ESTIMATES OBTAINED WITH NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL POVERTY LINES

(Percentages of the population)

Country	National lines (ECLAC)			International lines (World Bank)		
	Year	Indigence	Poverty	Year	Less than 1 dollar per day a/	Less than 2 dollars per day b/
Bolivia	1989 c/	23.3	53.2	1990	11.3	38.6
Brazil	1996	13.9	35.8	1997	5.1	17.4
Chile	1994	8.0	28.6	1994	4.2	20.3
Colombia	1997	23.5	50.9	1996	11.0	28.7
Costa Rica	1997	7.8	22.5	1996	9.6	26.3
Ecuador	1994 d/	25.5	57.9	1995	20.2	52.3
El Salvador	1997	23.3	55.5	1996	25.3	51.9
Guatemala	1989	41.8	69.1	1989	39.8	64.3
Honduras	1997	54.4	79.1	1996	40.5	68.8
Mexico	1996	21.3	52.1	1995	17.9	42.5
Panama	1997	13.0	33.2	1997	10.3	25.1
Paraguay	1994 d/	18.8	49.9	1995	19.4	38.5
Dominican Rep.	1997	14.4	37.2	1996	3.2	16.0
Uruguay	1990 d/	3.4	17.8	1989	< 2.0	6.6
Venezuela	1996	20.5	48.1	1996	14.7	36.4

Source: ECLAC, tables I.4 and I.5; World Bank, *World Development Report 2000–2001: The Fight Against Poverty*, Washington DC, April 2001.

a/ Equivalent to \$32.74 per person per month.

b/ Equivalent to \$65.48 per person per month.

c/ Eight department capitals and El Alto.

d/ Urban area.

* The PPP exchange rates used here were estimated by the World Bank in the context of the International Comparison Project (ICP) 1993, covering 110 countries. These estimates are not comparable with the PPP values used in previous years (which were taken from Penn World Tables) and may vary considerably depending on the methodology followed.

C. THE PROFILE OF POOR HOUSEHOLDS

Most of the poor in Latin America reside in housing where they do not have access to drinking water and, to a somewhat lesser extent, in dwellings where there are more than three persons to a room. These households also exhibit high demographic dependency rates and low employment densities. In addition, the heads of household generally have completed fewer than three years of schooling and are unemployed in some instances. The children and young people belonging to poor households often have deficient educational environments, begin working at an early age and, in many cases, neither study nor work.

Of the 211 million Latin Americans living in poverty in 1999, around 22 million lived in households whose per capita income was at least 90% of the minimum monetary threshold required to meet their basic needs. This means that about a tenth of the poor have a good chance of moving above the poverty line, since their current income is only slightly below the level required to meet their basic consumption needs.⁴ Presumably, this group is in a better position than the rest of the poor and is therefore more likely to benefit from economic and social policies designed to reduce poverty. By contrast, among the non-poor, 45 million people have incomes that are no more than 25% above the poverty line and are at risk of falling into poverty. This population is highly vulnerable to fluctuations in the

economy, inasmuch as any adverse effect on their income, no matter how small, can cause a significant deterioration in their quality of life⁵ (see table I.6).

Another approach to the analysis of the living conditions of the poor, also based on income levels, entails adopting a common reference value for all countries to reflect serious monetary privation. An income level of "one dollar a day", which has traditionally been used by the World Bank as an international poverty line, is very revealing in this respect (see box I.5). It should be noted, however, that the values shown in table I.6 are only ballpark figures, since they are based on current dollars and are not adjusted to reflect purchasing power parity.

4 It should be noted that for the estimates presented up to now in this first chapter of *Social Panorama*, poor people and households have been identified in terms of the inadequacy of their income relative to a preset poverty line for each country.

5 This could also be interpreted, although of course with some reservations, as a plausible range within which the poor population of the region falls, depending on whether the poverty lines used are more or less stringent than those currently applied. In very general terms, it can be said that Latin America's poor population consists of at least 190 million persons, since it is unlikely that any acceptable change in methodology would reduce the value of the poverty lines in individual countries by more than 10%. If higher lines were used, e.g., 25% above the current values, the number of the poor would rise to 256 million, or 53% of the total population.

The estimates indicate that in 1999, 76 million people subsisted on an income of less than one dollar a day, an amount that is insufficient to meet even their minimum food needs (a capita income equivalent to one dollar a day is even lower than the average indigence line). In the same year, about 175 million

persons, or 36% of the total population, had a per capita income of less than two dollars a day. Although these reference lines are not intended to measure indigence and poverty, they clearly reveal the vulnerability of more than a third of the Latin American population.

Table I.6

LATIN AMERICA: SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF THE POVERTY PROFILE, 1999				
Population in households	Number of persons	Share of total population a/ (Percentages)	Probability of b/	
			Poverty (Percentages)	Indigence (Percentages)
Total	482 727	100.0	43.1	18.4
Urban	361 619	74.9	36.6	11.9
Rural	121 108	25.1	62.7	37.8
Poor	211 392	100.0	-	-
Urban	134 229	63.5	-	-
Rural	77 163	36.5	-	-
Indigent	89 368	100.0	-	-
Urban	43 033	48.2	-	-
Rural	46 334	51.8	-	-
With incomes between 0.9 and 1.0 poverty lines, per capita	21 668	4.5	100.0	-
With incomes between 1.0 and 1.25 poverty lines, per capita	44 897	9.3	-	-
With less than 1 dollar per capita per day c/	76 415	15.8	100.0	88.1
With less than 2 dollars per capita per day c/	175 189	36.3	95.1	50.0
In crowded housing d/	76 605	15.9	79.6	46.4
In housing with no access to drinking water e/	164 506	34.1	66.7	34.9
In households with a high demographic dependency rate f/	68 381	14.2	68.1	41.2
In households with low employment density g/	109 995	22.8	65.1	35.9
Description of heads of household:				
Women	90 677	18.8	43.1	17.5
Have a low educational level				
- Fewer than 3 years of schooling	130 465	27.0	63.3	31.8
- Fewer than 10 years of schooling	375 636	77.8	51.7	22.3
Unemployed	15 825	3.3	71.2	43.6
Employed in low-productivity sectors h/	152 615	31.6	48.7	23.4
Employed in agriculture i/	100 696	20.9	65.1	36.8
Employed in establishments of:				
- Up to 5 workers	37 879	7.8 (17.8)	39.0	12.2
- From 6 to 10 workers	12 575	2.6 (5.9)	29.1	8.2
Employed having no professional or technical skills	165 443	34.3 (86.4)	38.5	14.1
Children who do not attend school j/	05 972	1.2 (7.9)	76.5	48.2
Children in households with a deficient educational environment k/	83 661	17.3 (56.0)	74.0	39.2
Youths aged 15 to 19 who work	18 655	3.9 (36.6)	46.9	18.6
Youths aged 15 to 24 who neither study nor work	21 823	4.5 (23.2)	58.1	24.7

Source: ECLAC, based on special tabulations from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ Figures in parentheses indicate the percentage of persons described as a share of the total population in that group (example: children aged 6 to 12 who do not attend school, as a share of all children in that age group).

b/ Percentage of poor and indigent persons divided by the total number of persons in each category.

c/ Calculated on the basis of the prevailing exchange rate in each country.

d/ Housing is deemed "crowded" if there are three or more people to a room (excluding the kitchen and bathroom).

e/ Households without plumbed drinking water inside the home.

f/ Households in which the ratio of persons under 15 and over 64 with respect to persons between the ages of 15 and 64 is higher than 0.75.

g/ Households in which the ratio of employed members with respect to all members is lower than 0.25.

h/ Employers and employees in establishments of up to five persons, domestic employees and own-account workers and unpaid family members with no professional or technical skills.

i/ Includes those employed in agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing.

j/ Refers to children aged 6 to 12.

k/ Children under 15 in households whose adult members (aged 25 and above) have an average of 0 to 5.99 years of schooling.

The above analysis may be supplemented by an examination of certain other elements of poverty that go hand in hand with lack of income and shed further light on the conditions in which the poor of the region live. Other factors in poverty, for example, are crowded housing conditions, unemployment among heads of households and a deficient educational environment. Households in which these conditions are present are very likely to be poor.⁶

Slightly fewer than 77 million people in the region live in overcrowded conditions (three or more people per room), with an 80% probability of being poor and 46% probability of being indigent. Of all the characteristics analysed, this is the one that most clearly establishes the distinction between poor and non-poor groups, since overcrowding is a significant indication that incomes are too low to meet basic needs. Some 29% of the poor live in crowded housing, while only 6% of the non-poor are in a similar situation.

Another housing indicator that reflects inadequate resources, although it is less likely to indicate poverty, is the lack of access to drinking water. Some 165 million persons, of whom 109 million (66.7%) are poor, are in this position. However, not only 52% of the poor but also 20% of the non-poor do not have ready access to drinking water.

There is also a close correlation between the demographic composition of households and poverty, especially as regards the capacity of members to generate income. A high rate of demographic dependency is an important factor, since the fewer the members of working age relative to the number of children and older persons in the household, the more difficult it will be to acquire the resources needed. Similarly, low employment density, understood as the presence of one employed person for every four or more household members, is also associated with an above-average probability of being poor. Although both factors are an indication of poverty (with probabilities of 68.1% and 65.1%, respecti-

vely), the latter is more widespread in the region and affects a third of poor people.

The likelihood of being poor is also related, among other factors, to the employment status and educational level of the head of household, who is usually the main breadwinner. One of the highest probabilities of poverty (71%) is accounted for by the head of household being unemployed. Nonetheless, the share of the poor population who are in this situation is very low (5.3%), and hence this factor has a low quantitative impact on the aggregate characterization of poverty. Consequently, it can be inferred that no matter how well job-creation programmes target poor groups, they have only a limited capacity to make a significant impact on overall poverty. Instead, this objective can better be achieved through actions designed to increase the income of workers, such as wage policies or training and specialization programmes. The need for training programmes is attested to by the fact that 39% of the poor live in a household headed by a person who has completed fewer than three years of schooling, although this is also true of 18% of the non-poor.

Two other characteristics of heads of household are also worth noting. One is the fact that the probability of the almost 91 million people living in households headed by women being poor is similar to the overall average; this suggests that this factor is not of itself a particular determinant of poverty. Similarly, members of households headed by agricultural workers –who typically have low incomes– are no more likely to be poor than they are simply as a result of living in rural areas.

Poverty does, however, have serious implications in terms of the educational deficiencies of minors, such as the absence of schooling and dropping out of school in order to join the labour market. The data show that children who do not attend school are very likely to be poor (76.5%). Nevertheless, the absence of schooling is increasingly uncommon among both poor and non-poor groups, and currently

6 The "probability of poverty" is the proportion of poor people in a given category.

affects only 1.2% of the population and 7.9% of children aged between 6 and 12. On the other hand, 74% of the over 83 million people under the age of 15 whose households have a deficient educational environment –where the adults average fewer than six years of schooling– are poor (56% of all children that age). The educational environment of the household plays a major role in determining whether children and youth continue in school and improve their educational level. Moreover, the presence in the household of young people who work or who neither study nor work is also associated with a higher-than-average probability of poverty. In the region, slightly over 18 million young people between the ages of 15 and 19 work. Among those aged 15 to 24, almost 22 million neither study nor work, i.e., about one fourth of the population in that age group (see table I.6).

In brief, and in very general terms, an analysis of the living conditions of Latin America's poor shows that they have the following profile: they live in houses where they do not have access to drinking water and, to a somewhat lesser extent, in dwellings where there are more than three persons to a room (crowded); they belong to households with a high degree of demographic dependency and low employment density; the head of household has completed fewer than three years of schooling and, in some cases, is unemployed. Among children under 15, a deficient educational environment among the adults is a further symptom of poverty.

D. FUTURE SCENARIOS IN THE FIGHT AGAINST POVERTY

Halving the current rates of extreme poverty by 2015 –one of the prime objectives of the Millennium Declaration– will call for a significant, yet feasible, effort on the part of many Latin American countries. Given existing development patterns, economic growth will necessarily play a key role in the fulfilment of this goal, since mean per capita GDP growth of no less than 2.3% per year will be required in order to do so. For the region as a whole, during the 1990s each percentage point of growth lowered the rate of extreme poverty by 1.21%. There was a wide dispersion around this mean value, however since this poverty–reduction effect was much stronger in urban areas than in rural ones and in countries with extreme poverty levels below the regional average than in the least developed nations.

1. ECONOMIC GROWTH AND POVERTY REDUCTION

Economic recovery, albeit somewhat weak and unstable, undoubtedly played a key role in Latin American poverty trends in the 1990s. The statistics confirm that in periods of growth, poverty rates tended to fall in most countries, while periods of contraction or economic stagnation led to a deterioration in the living conditions of the population, especially among those with fewer resources.

Notwithstanding the clear link between economic growth and poverty reduction, it was also clear, as noted in previous editions of *Social Panorama*, that

the particular types of growth experienced by the different countries had different effects on social development and, specifically, on poverty–alleviation efforts. Thus, while Chile’s 4.5% average annual growth in per capita output in 1990–2000 (measured in 1995 dollars) led to an annual decline of 6.1% in the poverty coefficient (18 percentage points in total), in Uruguay a growth rate of 2.7% caused the poverty rate to fall by 6.8%, and in Brazil an average annual growth rate of just 1% between 1990 and 1999 brought about a 2.7% decline in poverty during that period, as well as a 6.4% drop in indigence or extreme poverty. In Argentina, where per capita income grew on average by 3.3% during the 1990s, poverty was reduced by a modest 0.8%, while Colom-

bia's growth of only 0.6% allowed for poverty to be reduced just slightly less than in Argentina (0.3%).

Among the countries in which GDP remained more or less at a standstill, Honduras nonetheless managed to avert an increase in poverty and to attenuate the growth of indigence to about 0.7% a year, while Venezuela did not manage to prevent some deterioration of social conditions, with poverty rising by 2.4% and indigence by 4.5%. The same was true of Ecuador, where poverty and indigence grew by 0.2% and 2.0%, in that order (see table I.7).

These differences in national circumstances during the 1990s were reflected in a broad range of values of the elasticity coefficient linking changes in per capita GDP with poverty. In some countries, this elasticity –calculated in specific terms– reached a value of almost -1 (Chile, Costa Rica and Guatemala) or was somewhat more marked, ranging between -1 and -1.5 (Panama). This means that each percentage point of growth was reflected in an equivalent change in poverty or a reduction of slightly more than one point in the poverty rate, depending on the situation; in other countries, however, there were mar-

Table I.7

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): TRENDS IN PER CAPITA GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT (GDP) AND IN PERCENTAGE OF POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY AND INDIGENCE, 1990–1999									
Country	Year	Per capita GDP (1995 dollars)	Population percentage		Variation in the period (annual average)			Elasticity coefficient	
			Poor	Indigent	Per capita GDP	Poverty coefficient (P)	Indigence coefficient (I)	(P)/per capita GDP	(I)/per capita GDP
Argentina a/	1990	5545	21.2	5.2					
	1999	7435	19.7	4.8	3.3	-0.8	-0.9	-0.21	-0.23
Brazil	1990	3859	48.0	23.4					
	1999	4204	37.5	12.9	1.0	-2.7	-6.4	-2.45	-5.03
Chile	1990	3425	38.6	12.9					
	2000	5309	20.6	5.7	4.5	-6.1	-7.8	-0.85	-1.01
Colombia	1991	2158	56.1	26.1					
	1999	2271	54.9	26.8	0.6	-0.3	0.3	-0.41	0.51
Costa Rica	1990	2994	26.2	9.8					
	1999	3693	20.4	7.8	2.4	-2.7	-2.5	-0.95	-0.87
Ecuador b/	1990	1472	62.1	26.2					
	1999	1404	63.5	31.3	-0.5	0.2	2.0	-0.49	-4.27
El Salvador	1995	1675	54.2	21.7					
	1999	1750	49.8	21.9	1.1	-2.1	0.2	-1.81	0.21
Guatemala	1989	1347	69.1	41.8					
	1998	1534	60.5	34.1	1.5	-1.5	-2.2	-0.90	-1.33
Honduras	1990	686	80.5	60.6					
	1999	694	79.7	56.8	0.1	-0.1	-0.7	-	-
Mexico	1989	3925	47.8	18.8					
	1998	4489	46.9	18.5	1.5	-0.2	-0.2	-0.13	-0.11
Nicaragua	1993	416	73.6	48.4					
	1998	453	69.9	44.6	1.7	-1.0	-1.6	-0.57	-0.89
Panama	1991	2700	42.8	19.2					
	1999	3264	30.2	10.7	2.4	-4.3	-7.0	-1.41	-2.12
Uruguay b/	1990	4707	17.8	3.4					
	1999	5982	9.4	1.8	2.7	-6.8	-6.8	-1.74	-1.74
Venezuela	1990	3030	40.0	14.6					
	1999	3037	49.4	21.7	0.0	2.4	4.5	-	-
Latin America	1990	3349	48.3	22.5					
	1999	3804	43.8	18.5	1.4	-1.1	-2.2	-0.69	-1.31

Source: ECLAC, based on official figures and special tabulations from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ Greater Buenos Aires.

b/ Urban total.

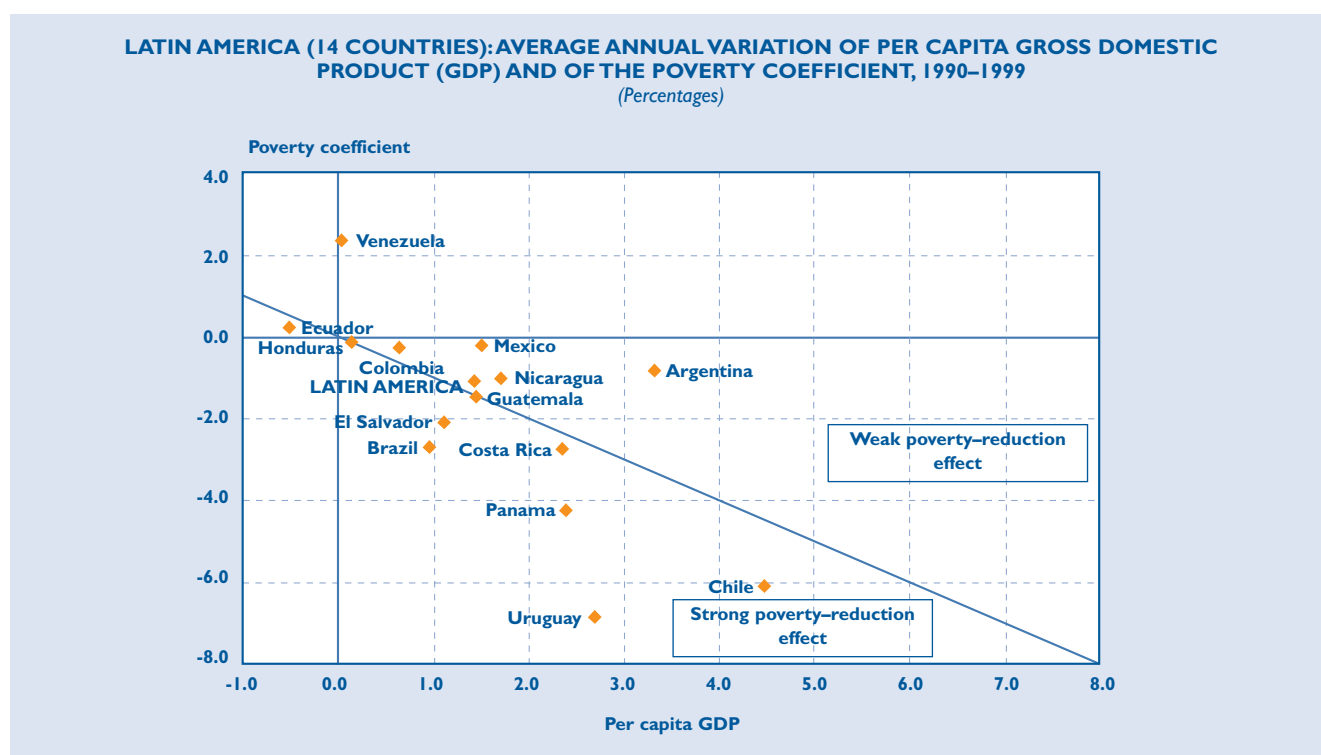
ked upward or downward differences in those values. Taking this dispersion into account, the coefficient for Latin America as a whole stood at about -0.70 for poverty and -1.30 for indigence or extreme poverty.

The above considerations confirm that although economic growth is important, it is not the only determinant of poverty reduction. In the situations just mentioned, certain characteristics of the development model of individual countries are reflected, among other things, in the sectoral dynamics of GDP, the performance of the labour market, the effect of social policies on the income of poor fami-

lies, and the greater or lesser stability of growth –this latter by virtue of the well-known asymmetry in the different stages of the economic cycle with respect to poverty trends (see figure I.2).

A simple regression model linking economic growth and trends in extreme poverty shows that, on average, for each percentage point increase in per capita GDP, the national indigence rate falls by about 1.21%⁷ (see box I.6). It also shows the different effect of growth in different geographical contexts. Thus, in rural areas, for every one-point increase in per capita output the rate of indigence falls by only

Figure I.2



Source: Table I.7.

7 This is very similar to the -1.31 estimated as the specific elasticity between 1990 and 1999.

0.61 percentage points, while growth has much greater effect in urban areas, where the same increase leads to a 1.65% fall in the indigence rate. Moreover, the sensitivity of the indigence indicator is not uniform throughout the region. Those economies that traditionally have been able to keep levels of extreme poverty below the Latin American average (18.5%) –Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Panama and Uruguay– are in a better position to promote positive changes in the living standards of households as a result of growth in per capita GDP. In this group of countries, every point of growth in output has a 27% greater impact in reducing indigence than in the group of countries whose poverty levels were above the regional average during the last decade.

Nevertheless, the recent experience of the region suggests that caution is required in applying the fin-

dings of econometric studies such as the one mentioned, whereby constant ratios are established between economic growth and trends in poverty. The findings discussed in box I.6, as well as of those of similar studies, clearly show that caution is required in using elasticity coefficient (ϵ) values to project future trends in poverty and indigence rates, in order to avoid linking them solely to changes in GDP.⁸ In this respect, it is important at least to constantly fine-tune the value of ϵ and to disaggregate the analysis by countries, as well as to undertake further analysis of a series of new variables that also help explain poverty trends. Attention should be paid to the special characteristics of each country, such as economic performance, demographic structure and trends, operation of the labour market, poverty levels in previous periods, and the expected impact on household incomes of the resources that governments devote to social expenditure.

⁸ Although it is widely recognized that econometric analysis is a useful tool for studying relationships between different economic variables, it should be borne in mind that the lack of systematic information on other dimensions limits the modelling exercise. It is therefore very difficult to use these models to determine exactly how different circumstances interact to explain the behaviour of a phenomenon as multidimensional and complex as poverty.

ECONOMIC GROWTH AND POVERTY TRENDS IN LATIN AMERICA

A number of studies have been made of the relationship between poverty trends and income trends, taking into account the positive influence of economic growth in reducing poverty (Fields, 1989; Morley, 1992 and 1995; Ravallion, 1995). In particular, recent studies (de Javry and Sadoulet, 2000 and ECLAC, 2000) show that there is an inverse relationship between per capita gross domestic product (GDP) and the incidence of poverty. The higher the rate of economic growth, the greater the decline in poverty, especially in those countries where the growth of per capita output has been significant. In periods of economic contraction or stagnation, moreover, poverty levels rise quickly, evidencing the sensitivity of this indicator to declines in real household incomes. As several studies show (Fields, 1982; Morley, 1992 and Psacharopoulos *et al*, 1997), poverty rises faster during crises than it falls in periods of economic recovery and expansion.

The following table presents data on the relationship between economic growth and trends in poverty, as estimated by ECLAC.*

LATIN AMERICA: PER CAPITA GDP- EXTREME POVERTY ELASTICITY COEFFICIENT (ϵ), 1990-1999											
Country	Indigence	Poverty <i>a/</i>	Indigent Population								
			National			Urban			Rural		
			H	PG	FGT ₂	H	PG	FGT ₂	H	PG	FGT ₂
All countries	-1.21	-0.94	-1.21	-1.08	-1.39	-1.65	-1.20	-2.30	-0.61	-0.70	-0.91
Relatively more developed countries <i>b/</i>	-1.31	-0.92	-1.31	-	-	-2.20	-1.75	-2.08	-1.09	-0.61	-0.51
Relatively less developed countries <i>c/</i>	-1.03	-0.63	-1.03	-1.08	-1.16	-1.51	-0.90	-1.40	-0.86	-	-

Source: ECLAC, based on data from household surveys conducted in countries of the region for different years in the period 1990–1999.

-: Statistically insignificant values.

a/ Includes indigence or extreme poverty.

b/ Countries with an indigence rate below or equal to 18%, equivalent to the estimated Latin American average for 2000.

c/ Countries with an indigence rate above 18%.

While growth evidently helps reduce poverty, there are a number of different factors that affect the value of the elasticity coefficient (ϵ). For all the countries, in the period 1990–1999, every percentage point of increase in per capita output led to a 1.21% decline in the national poverty rate. In urban areas the coefficient was -1.65, while in rural areas it was -0.61. This reflects the differences in the effect of growth in the two areas and shows that efforts to improve living standards have had less impact in rural areas. It also appears that the values of ϵ differ from country to country; the contrast is especially striking when countries are grouped according to relative levels of development. Economies with lower rates of extreme poverty ($H \leq 18\%$) benefited more from increases in output, while those with average or high poverty levels showed less improvement because their economic recovery was slow or, in some cases, because they had experienced periods of stagnation and crisis. It also appears that economic progress is more effective in lowering extreme poverty (H) than in reducing overall poverty (indigence plus moderate poverty). Finally, it is evident that the poverty severity index (FGT₂) is more sensitive, since the estimated elasticity coefficients are higher than in the case of the H index. This confirms the differences in the performance of households in different geographical contexts.

* Adjusted models use the rate of change of per capita GDP (ΔGDP_{pc}) in each subperiod as an explanatory variable and, as a dependent variable, the rate of variation in the incidence of extreme poverty among individuals (H), the income gap (ΔPG) or the severity of poverty (ΔFGT_2), as the case may be. The estimated parameters are significant to 1% and 5%, and the models were adjusted bearing in mind the self-correlation and heterocedasticity of the data. A value of $\epsilon = -1.21$ is interpreted to mean that every percentage point of per capita GDP growth is translated into a fall of slightly over 1% in individual indigence rates.

2. THE MAGNITUDE OF THE CHALLENGE

A number of international forums have expressed mounting preoccupation about the need to address the pressing problems associated with the proliferation of poverty and marginalization. The low levels of well-being that are evident in different regions of the world, as well as the rapid deterioration in the quality of life in some countries, have intensified concerns about the increase in poverty and exclusion, which undermine stability and social order. The matter has been taken up increasingly by the international community, and there is now broad consensus regarding the urgent need to make a concerted effort to alleviate poverty, reduce inequality and improve living standards among the people of the developing world.

In this context, at the fifty-fifth session of the United Nations General Assembly, the Heads of State and Government adopted the Millennium Declara-

tion, which includes a set of guidelines aimed at strengthening certain fundamental values and principles and encourages public policies that foster sustained and inclusive development with a view to eradicating poverty and improving the quality of life of people and families who live in extreme poverty. Above all, the Declaration includes a formal pledge to make every effort to bring about a significant improvement in the situation of about 1 billion people who currently subsist, in very precarious circumstances, on incomes that are below the cost of a basic food basket (see box I.7).

This is undoubtedly an ambitious and difficult endeavour. In the case of Latin America, the challenge means that initiatives undertaken over the next 15 years must be geared towards promoting and coordinating economic and social development policies that will give millions of people access to a basic consumption threshold that provides them with minimum conditions of health and productive participation in the economy. Meeting this goal, moreover,

Box I.7

THE MILLENNIUM DECLARATION

The Millennium Summit is the name given to the session of the United Nations General Assembly held in New York in December 2000. The General Assembly, meeting with all the Heads of State and Government belonging to the United Nations, met to reaffirm the countries' commitment to the Organization and to its principles, deeming them to be essential elements of a better future. At this historic event, rulers from all over the world undertook to participate actively in meeting the new development goals established for the coming decades, as summarized in the Millennium Declaration.

The goals and commitments set forth in the Millennium Declaration are based on certain values that are considered to be essential to international relations, such as freedom, equality, solidarity, tolerance, respect for nature and shared responsibility. In this context, the duties of the global community include seeking solutions to problems relating to world peace and disarmament, development and poverty eradication, protection of the environment, human rights and democracy, protection of the vulnerable, special attention to the needs of Africa and strengthening of the United Nations.

The fact that the countries explicitly decided to meet certain shared development objectives and set new goals makes the Millennium Declaration an historic document. Prominent among those goals are certain social development targets for 2015: to halve the number of poor people and the number of people who do not have access to drinking water; to ensure that boys and girls everywhere have equal access to education and that they all complete a full course of primary schooling; to reduce maternal mortality by three quarters and under-five child mortality by two thirds; and to halt and begin to reduce the spread of acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS). In this edition of *Social Panorama of Latin America*, an assessment is made of those conditions that would allow for the first of these goals to be met, i.e., to halve the number of people living in extreme poverty, this category being defined as comprising those who live on less than one dollar a day.

will entail making a sustained effort to harmonize economic development policies with demographic trends, so as to ensure that population growth does not undermine progress towards enabling poor families to obtain more resources.

The meagre performance of the 1990s and the difficult situation in which some of the region's most dynamic economies currently find themselves, coupled with the downturn faced by the major economies of the developed world, shed light on some of the obstacles that must be overcome if these goals are to be met and underscore the scale of the challenge to be met if countries are to comply with their commitments.

At the start of the new millennium, it is estimated that 18% of the Latin American population lives in extreme poverty. If the factors influencing the elasticity coefficients shown in box I.6 remain unchanged (and bearing in mind the above remarks concerning the validity and interpretation of those coefficients for the region as a whole), reducing the current level of indigence by half will call for an average annual growth rate in per capita output of 2.3% over the next 15 years. This means that overall economic activity will have to increase at a minimum annual rate of 3.8%. Although this might seem to be an attainable goal, under the present circumstances this

scenario poses an incredible challenge, given that the region has not experienced growth at that level (as a ten-year average) since the 1970s. On the contrary, if the stagnation or contraction currently prevailing in some countries continues, and if the growth of per capita GDP for the region as a whole continues at the 1990s rate (1.5% per year), it will take about 23 years to cut indigence rates in half.

Given the great diversity of economic performance between and within countries and as the different results obtained in the area of poverty reduction, each situation will call for different actions, since, as mentioned above, a given growth rate has different effects in different countries and varying impacts in urban and rural areas. Among the more backward countries –in which the average indigence rate is about 25%– per capita income would have to grow by about 2.7% a year over a 15-year period, requiring a GDP growth rate of nearly 4.5% per year. Moreover, bearing in mind that growth has different effects in different regions, if there is to be a 50% reduction in the percentage of people living in extreme poverty in the rural areas of those countries, where nearly one out of two people live in indigence, per capita output would have to grow at a sustained rate of about 3.1% per year. This is more than 60% higher than the rate required to meet the same goal in urban areas (1.9%) (see table I.8).

Table I.8

LATIN AMERICA: ECONOMIC GROWTH RATE REQUIRED TO HALVE THE SHARE OF THE POPULATION LIVING IN EXTREME POVERTY OVER THE NEXT FIFTEEN YEARS									
	National			Urban			Rural		
	Extreme poverty (%)		P/c GDP growth a/	Extreme poverty (%)		P/c GDP growth a/	Extreme poverty (%)		P/c GDP growth a/
	Current	Target	(annual average)	Current	Target	(Promedio anual)	Current	Target	(annual average)
Latin America	18	9	2.3	12	6	1.8	38	19	4.1
Countries with less poverty	11	6	2.2	8	4	1.4	23	12	2.5
Countries with more poverty b/	25	13	2.7	16	8	1.9	47	24	3.1

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of the data in box I.6.

a/ P/c GDP= Per capita gross domestic product.

b/ Relative to the regional average in 1999.

Overall, the scenarios outlined above suggest that Latin America will have to make a major effort (although in a context of relative viability) if it is to make satisfactory progress towards meeting the United Nations goal of reducing poverty over the next 15 years. In that regard, it should be borne in mind that some countries are in a better position than others to achieve this, given the disparities mentioned above. The analyses and projections to be carried out should therefore take into account additional factors that will give a better idea of the magnitude of the challenge involved in each case, with a view to creating the necessary conditions to enable half the indigent population to escape their extreme poverty within a maximum period of 15 years.

An even more ambitious goal for the region, which would be consistent with the relative progress made by the region in the international arena, would be to halve not only extreme poverty but also the percentage of non-indigent poor. In aggregate terms, achieving this goal would entail attaining per capita GDP

growth rates of around 2.9% per annum, on average, for the next three five-year periods. A similar growth rate would be required for the relatively more developed countries, while the rest of the region's economies, which are clearly subject to greater demographic pressure, would need to achieve per capita GDP growth of nearly 4% per year.

Meeting this goal unquestionably represents a tremendous challenge given the present development context, coming after the sharp recession of the 1980s and the moderate growth rates of the 1990s. Nevertheless, the growth required to cut poverty in half is not beyond the reach of the region's economies. It is worth recalling that average rates similar to or higher than those mentioned were achieved and sustained during the 1950s, 1960s and 1970s. Consequently, if the necessary changes take place to enable Latin America to recover its historical growth rate, 15 years might be enough not only to meet the goal of the Millennium Declaration, but also to cut overall poverty in half.



Income distribution: characteristics and trends

A. INCOME CONCENTRATION IN THE LATE 1990s

In the late 1990s, the income distribution profile of most of the Latin American countries continued to be one of sharp inequalities. This was reflected, among other things, in the fact that a substantial share of total income was in the hands of the wealthiest 10% of households, whose income was 19 times higher than the average income of the poorest 40% of households. In addition, between two thirds and three quarters of the population, depending on the country, receive per capita incomes that are below the overall average.

At the close of the 1990s, the inequality of income distribution continued to be one of the conspicuous features of Latin America's economic and social structure, earning it the dubious distinction of being regarded as the most inequitable region in the world. What is more, the latest estimates indicate that in most of the countries this situation did not improve to any significant degree during the 1990s, and in some countries it actually worsened, despite the relative pickup in economic growth and the increase in social spending. As a result, it was impossible to counter the marked deterioration in income distribution of the preceding decade.

The high degree of income concentration prevailing in the region becomes evident when an analysis is made of the share of overall income that is received by the various groups of households, classified in terms of their per capita income. Latin America's income distribution stands out within an international context due, in particular, to the large share of total income held by the richest 10% of households. This

stratum has more than 30% of total income in all the countries of the region except Costa Rica and Uruguay, and in most of them, with the sole exception of El Salvador and Venezuela, the figure is over 35% and in Brazil, 45%. During the 3 years from 1997 to 1999, the situation tended to worsen, despite the increase in average household income in several Latin American countries during that period. In the six cases in which the share of the highest decile rose significantly, the increases were higher than one percentage point, and in one case, four points (Ecuador). At the same time, among the five countries in which this group saw its share of total income decline, only in one (Bolivia) did this decline amount to more than two percentage points.

In contrast to the relative share of the wealthiest decile, the share of total income corresponding to the poorest 40% of households is very small –between 9% and 15% of total income– in almost all the countries except Uruguay, where the figure is nearly 22%. In other words, the combined income of two

fifths of all households is equivalent to barely more than one tenth of the total. At the same time, over the past three years, only four of the countries studied (Argentina, Brazil, Chile and Panama) saw an increase in the percentage of income received by the poorest 40% of households. In the other cases, even those with a more equitable distribution, the share of the first four deciles shrank or underwent only minor changes (see table II.1).

The trend was somewhat more uneven among the fifth, sixth, and seventh deciles, whose share fell in seven countries and rose in six. Interestingly, the share of the first seven deciles posted declined simultaneously in quite a few cases, which in and of itself suggests a further concentration of income distribution.¹

Thus, in most countries the percentage of income received by the lower-income groups shrank while the share of the richest decile rose considerably. It is therefore obvious that in the three-year period from 1997 to 1999, income distribution worsened throughout the region, just as it did during the 1990s as a whole, as we shall see later on.

Moreover, a simple comparison of the average income of the various household groups reveals a high degree of inequity in Latin America. In countries such as Bolivia, Brazil and Nicaragua, the per capita income of the richest quintile (20% of households) is more than 30 times greater than the income of the poorest quintile. The case of Bolivia is particularly striking, as there the income of the top quintile is almost 50 times greater than the income of the bottom quintile, whereas the average in the other countries is 23 times. The ratio of the income of the wealthiest decile to the income of the four poorest deciles also

reveals a high concentration. In this case, the largest gap is seen in Brazil, where the income of the most affluent decile is 32 times greater than the combined incomes of the four bottom deciles, while the simple average gap region-wide is 19.3, which is itself rather high when compared, for example, to the figures for Uruguay (8.8) or Costa Rica (12.6), the countries with the best income distribution in the region.²

The high income concentration prevailing in Latin America can also be inferred from the value of a number of synthetic indices, such as the inequality index or Gini coefficient, which make it possible to compare overall income distribution in different countries or different periods. At the end of the 1990s, a country ranking based on the Gini coefficient (calculated using the per capita income distribution for individuals),³ showed the highest concentration to be in Brazil, with a Gini coefficient of 0.64, and in Bolivia, Nicaragua, and Guatemala, in that order, which had values close to 0.60. Uruguay and Costa Rica again had the least inequality, with indices below 0.48 (see box II.2).

Inequality nationwide does not necessarily follow the same pattern in urban and rural areas.⁴ In most countries, the former tend to be less equitable than the latter. Thus, in 7 of 13 cases, the Gini coefficient for urban areas is higher than for rural areas; the most striking cases are those of Brazil, Chile, and Colombia, where the differences between the indices around 1999 were 0.049 point in Brazil and 0.042 point in the other two. Nonetheless, the situation is quite different in some countries, where income concentration is much higher in rural areas than in urban areas. Among the countries that are in the latter situation, the largest gaps between urban and rural Gini coefficients are found in Bolivia and

1 The most striking exception in this regard is Panama. Here, the households grouped in the first seven deciles increased their share of total income from 1997 to 1999 (from 33.9% to 35.3%), while the highest 10% saw its share shrink by 1.5 percentage points (from 38.6% to 37.1%).

2 Cuba should also be mentioned as one of the countries with the best income distribution, even though recent official figures are not available. Although the sweeping economic changes of recent years admittedly worsened income distribution in the 1990s, the country seems to be applying policies that are conducive to equity and social well-being (ECLAC, 2000). The low concentration of income in Cuba is evident, for example, in the small share of the top decile (19.7%) or in the value of the Gini coefficient, which is close to 0.30 when income transfers (monetary and in kind) by the State are taken into account (Ferriol, 2000).

3 This method of calculating the Gini coefficient is different from the one used in previous editions of *Social Panorama*, in which the values were based on household income distribution. In this connection, see box II.1.

4 As is well known, average income levels are different in the two areas and are always higher in urban zones. Although in some cases, these differences are relatively small (in Costa Rica, for example), in others, significant disparities are evident. In Bolivia, average income in urban areas is more than double the average income in rural areas (see table 22 of the Statistical Appendix).

Table II.1

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): HOUSEHOLD INCOME DISTRIBUTION, ^{a/} 1990–1999								
(Percentages)								
Country	Year	Average income ^{b/}	Share in total income of:				Ratio of average per capita income ^{c/}	
			Poorest 40%	Next 30%	20% below richest 10%	Richest 10%	D ¹⁰ /D ^(1 to 4)	Q ⁵ /Q ¹
Argentina ^{d/}	1990	10.6	14.9	23.6	26.7	34.8	13.5	13.5
	1997	12.4	14.9	22.3	27.1	35.8	16.0	16.4
	1999	12.5	15.4	21.6	26.1	37.0	16.4	16.5
Bolivia	1989 ^{e/}	7.7	12.1	22.0	27.9	38.2	17.1	21.4
	1997	5.8	9.4	22.0	27.9	40.7	25.9	34.6
	1999	5.7	9.2	24.0	29.6	37.2	26.7	48.1
Brazil	1990	9.3	9.5	18.6	28.0	43.9	31.2	35.0
	1996	12.3	9.9	17.7	26.5	46.0	32.2	38.0
	1999	11.3	10.1	17.3	25.5	47.1	32.0	35.6
Chile	1990	9.4	13.2	20.8	25.4	40.7	18.2	18.4
	1996	12.9	13.1	20.5	26.2	40.2	18.3	18.6
	2000	13.6	13.8	20.8	25.1	40.3	18.7	19.0
Colombia	1994	8.4	10.0	21.3	26.9	41.8	26.8	35.2
	1997	7.3	12.5	21.7	25.7	40.1	21.4	24.1
	1999	6.7	12.3	21.6	26.0	40.1	22.3	25.6
Costa Rica	1990	9.5	16.7	27.4	30.2	25.6	10.1	13.1
	1997	10.0	16.5	26.8	29.4	27.3	10.8	13.0
	1999	11.4	15.3	25.7	29.7	29.4	12.6	15.3
Ecuador ^{f/}	1990	5.5	17.1	25.4	27.0	30.5	11.4	12.3
	1997	6.0	17.0	24.7	26.4	31.9	11.5	12.2
	1999	5.6	14.1	22.8	26.5	36.6	17.2	18.4
El Salvador	1995	6.2	15.4	24.8	26.9	32.9	14.1	16.9
	1997	6.1	15.3	24.5	27.3	33.0	14.8	15.9
	1999	6.6	13.8	25.0	29.1	32.1	15.2	19.6
Guatemala	1989	6.0	11.8	20.9	26.8	40.6	23.5	27.3
	1998	7.3	12.8	20.9	26.1	40.3	23.6	22.9
Honduras	1990	4.3	10.1	19.7	27.0	43.1	27.4	30.7
	1997	4.1	12.6	22.5	27.3	37.7	21.1	23.7
	1999	3.9	11.8	22.9	28.9	36.5	22.3	26.5
Mexico	1989	8.6	15.8	22.5	25.1	36.6	17.2	16.9
	1994	8.5	15.3	22.9	26.1	35.6	17.3	17.4
	1998	7.7	15.1	22.7	25.6	36.7	18.4	18.5
Nicaragua	1993	5.2	10.4	22.8	28.4	38.4	26.1	37.7
	1998	5.6	10.4	22.1	27.1	40.5	25.3	33.1
Panama	1991	8.9	12.5	22.9	28.8	35.9	20.0	24.3
	1997	11.0	12.4	21.5	27.5	38.6	21.5	23.8
	1999	11.1	12.9	22.4	27.7	37.1	19.5	21.6
Paraguay	1990 ^{g/}	7.7	18.6	25.7	26.9	28.9	10.2	10.6
	1996 ^{f/}	7.4	16.7	24.6	25.3	33.4	13.0	13.4
	1999	6.2	13.1	23.0	27.8	36.2	19.3	22.6
Dominican Republic	1997	8.5	14.5	23.6	26.0	36.0	16.0	17.6
Uruguay ^{f/}	1990	9.3	20.1	24.6	24.1	31.2	9.4	9.4
	1997	11.2	22.0	26.1	26.1	25.8	8.5	9.1
	1999	11.9	21.6	25.5	25.9	27.0	8.8	9.5
Venezuela	1990	8.9	16.7	25.7	28.9	28.7	12.1	13.4
	1997	7.8	14.7	24.0	28.6	32.8	14.9	16.1
	1999	7.2	14.6	25.1	29.0	31.4	15.0	18.0

Source: ECLAC, based on special tabulations from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ Households nationwide ranked by per capita income. Table 22 in the Statistical Appendix shows the breakdown by urban and rural areas.

b/ Average monthly household income, in multiples of the per capita poverty line.

c/ D^(1 to 4) represents the bottom 40% of households in terms of income, while D¹⁰ represents the upper 10% of households in terms of income. The same notation is used in the case of quintiles (Q), which represent groupings of 20% of households

d/ Greater Buenos Aires.

e/ Eight main cities and El Alto.

f/ Urban total.

g/ Asunción metropolitan area.

Paraguay (with 0.136 and 0.073 point, respectively)⁵ (see tables 23 and 24 in the Statistical Appendix).

An analysis of variations in Gini coefficients appears to corroborate the existence of a deterioration in distribution over the last three years. The index rose in seven countries (for which figures having a comparable coverage are available) and declined in four. In addition, in most cases the increases were larger than the decreases. Between 1997 and 1999, the Gini coefficient increased the most in Ecuador, Costa Rica and Argentina, whereas it fell the most in Panama, Venezuela and Bolivia, even though the decline was very slight in each case (between -2.3% and -1.5%).

Another indicator that confirms the above mentioned income concentration is the percentage of persons whose per capita income is below the overall average. Average per capita income in Latin America falls between the seventh and eighth decile, with the share of the population whose incomes are below that threshold ranging from 67% to 77%, depending on the country. This means that at present, around three fourths of all households receive less than the average income, and as a result any increases in per capita GDP are captured to a much greater extent by the 25% of households with the highest incomes than by all the rest. Consequently, Uruguay and Costa Rica are the countries with the lowest percentage of individuals receiving less than the average per capita income, while Brazil and Guatemala are at the opposite end of the scale (see table II.2).

Another form of the above indicator is the percentage of persons with per capita incomes below half of the mean; this option is particularly appropriate to illustrate the heterogeneity of income distribution in the region, inasmuch as it describes a more irregular pattern of distribution. For example, although Uruguay and Costa Rica have practically the same percentage of persons with incomes below the mean, they are shown to be four percentage points apart when 50% of this level is used as a threshold.

According to this indicator, most of the Latin American countries are in an intermediate range (between 40% and 50%), depending on what share of the population has incomes below half of the average. Uruguay, Costa Rica, Venezuela and the Dominican Republic make up the group with the least concentration, since the share in question is under 40%, while Brazil is the only case in which more than half of the population has less than 50% of the mean income (see table II.2).

Indeed, this method has been used in other countries to gauge "relative poverty," this being understood as a situation in which income is insufficient to afford a level of consumption commensurate with the standards prevailing in a given society. In this case, the indicator is used somewhat like a traditional poverty line, except that it moves together with fluctuations in average income (see box II.2).

⁵ Another trait that is common to much of the region is that nationwide inequality is greater than inequality in urban and rural areas taken separately. The only exceptions are Bolivia and Paraguay (where the rural coefficient is higher than the national one). The fact that inequality nationwide is sometimes greater than inequality in the urban and rural subgroups is an indication that the disparities in income distribution between areas can play an extremely important role in shaping the pattern of income distribution.

Table II.2

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION, <i>a/</i> 1990–1999							
Country	Year	Percentage of persons with per capita income below:		Concentration Indices			
		Average	50% of average	Gini <i>b/</i>	Variance of logarithms	Theil	Atkinson
Argentina <i>c/</i>	1990	70.6	39.1	0.501	0.982	0.555	0.570
	1997	72.1	43.4	0.530	1.143	0.601	0.607
	1999	72.5	44.2	0.542	1.183	0.681	0.623
Bolivia	1989 <i>d/</i>	71.9	44.1	0.538	1.528	0.574	0.771
	1997	73.1	47.7	0.595	2.024	0.728	0.795
	1999	70.4	45.5	0.586	2.548	0.658	0.867
Brazil	1990	75.2	53.9	0.627	1.938	0.816	0.790
	1996	76.3	54.4	0.638	1.962	0.871	0.762
	1999	77.1	54.8	0.640	1.913	0.914	0.754
Chile	1990	74.6	46.5	0.554	1.258	0.644	0.671
	1996	73.9	46.9	0.553	1.261	0.630	0.667
	2000	75.0	46.4	0.559	1.278	0.666	0.658
Colombia	1994	73.6	48.9	0.601	2.042	0.794	0.817
	1997	74.2	46.4	0.569	1.399	0.857	0.822
	1999	74.5	46.6	0.572	1.456	0.734	0.945
Costa Rica	1990	65.0	31.6	0.438	0.833	0.328	0.539
	1997	66.6	33.0	0.450	0.860	0.356	0.535
	1999	67.6	36.1	0.473	0.974	0.395	0.573
Ecuador <i>e/</i>	1990	69.6	33.8	0.461	0.823	0.403	0.591
	1997	68.9	34.8	0.469	0.832	0.409	0.510
	1999	72.1	42.0	0.521	1.075	0.567	0.597
El Salvador	1995	69.7	38.4	0.507	1.192	0.502	0.695
	1997	69.9	40.2	0.510	1.083	0.512	0.583
	1999	68.5	40.6	0.518	1.548	0.496	0.798
Guatemala	1989	74.9	47.9	0.582	1.477	0.736	0.700
	1998	75.0	49.5	0.582	1.331	0.795	0.645
Honduras	1990	75.1	52.3	0.615	1.842	0.817	0.746
	1997	72.5	45.4	0.558	1.388	0.652	0.697
	1999	71.8	46.4	0.564	1.560	0.636	0.746
Mexico	1989	74.2	43.5	0.536	1.096	0.680	0.598
	1994	73.1	44.7	0.539	1.130	0.606	0.592
	1998	72.8	43.1	0.539	1.142	0.634	0.599
Nicaragua	1993	71.5	45.9	0.582	1.598	0.671	0.802
	1998	73.1	45.9	0.584	1.800	0.731	0.822
Panama	1991	71.3	46.4	0.560	1.373	0.628	0.661
	1997	72.6	47.6	0.570	1.464	0.681	0.686
	1999	72.1	46.4	0.557	1.363	0.629	0.658
Paraguay	1990 <i>f/</i>	69.2	33.4	0.447	0.737	0.365	0.468
	1996 <i>e/</i>	72.9	37.9	0.493	0.916	0.515	0.544
	1999	72.3	46.3	0.565	1.555	0.668	0.716
Dominican Republic	1997	71.4	39.8	0.517	1.075	0.557	0.603
Uruguay <i>e/</i>	1990	73.2	36.8	0.492	0.812	0.699	0.519
	1997	66.8	31.3	0.430	0.730	0.336	0.475
	1999	67.1	32.2	0.440	0.764	0.354	0.483
Venezuela	1990	68.0	35.5	0.471	0.930	0.416	0.545
	1997	70.8	40.7	0.507	1.223	0.508	0.985
	1999	69.4	38.6	0.498	1.134	0.464	0.664

Source: ECLAC, based on special tabulations from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ Calculated on the basis of individual per capita income nationwide. Tables 23 and 24 in the Statistical Appendix show the breakdown by urban and rural areas.

b/ Includes individuals with zero income.

c/ Greater Buenos Aires.

d/ Eight main cities and El Alto.

e/ Urban total.

f/ Asunción metropolitan area.

METHODOLOGICAL OPTIONS FOR CALCULATING THE GINI COEFFICIENT

The Gini coefficient of inequality is one of the most widely used synthetic indicators for measuring income concentration. Its popularity stems from the ease with which it can be represented graphically based on the Lorenz curve, even though it does not meet all the usual criteria for measuring inequality (for a summary of these criteria, see box II.3).

The Gini coefficient is different from other indicators of inequality, among other things, because of the many methodological options that are available for calculating it. A wide range of formulas can be used that are not necessarily equivalent to each other, given that there is no explicit algebraic formulation for the Lorenz curve. Another range of options has to do with the process of gathering and organizing data prior to calculating the index. In this regard, the options are either to use the same variable for both processes or to use different variables, depending on the analytical purpose of the exercise.

Traditionally, the Gini coefficients presented in the *Social Panorama* series have been based on a ranking of households by per capita income and total cumulative income. Nevertheless, some degree of consensus has been emerging recently favoring the use of a single analytical variable, preferably per capita income of individuals. Beginning with this edition, therefore, in order to make it easier to compare these findings with other measures of inequality, both the ranking of individuals and the aggregation of their income are based on per capita income.

The clarification should be made, however, that in the great majority of cases, this change in methodology only affects the level of Gini coefficients, which turns out to be higher than in previous editions. However, both the comparisons of degrees of inequality between countries and the trends in concentration over time in individual countries remain practically unchanged.

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): GINI COEFFICIENTS, 1990 AND 1999

Country	Year	Individuals a/	Household b/	Country	Year	Individuals a/	Household b/
Argentina c/	1990	0.501	0.423	Honduras	1990	0.615	0.530
	1999	0.542	0.438		1999	0.564	0.477
Bolivia	1989 d/	0.538	0.484	Mexico	1989	0.536	0.427
	1999	0.586	0.508		1998	0.539	0.435
Brazil	1990	0.627	0.546	Nicaragua	1993	0.582	0.499
	1999	0.640	0.552		1998	0.584	0.511
Chile	1990	0.554	0.480	Panama	1991	0.560	0.467
	2000	0.559	0.472		1999	0.557	0.466
Colombia	1994	0.601	0.524	Paraguay f/	1990	0.447	0.357
	1999	0.572	0.487		1999	0.565	0.457
Costa Rica	1990	0.438	0.364	Dominican Republic	1997	0.517	0.439
	1999	0.473	0.402	Uruguay e/	1990	0.492	0.345
Ecuador e/	1990	0.461	0.381		1999	0.440	0.312
	1999	0.521	0.447	Venezuela	1990	0.471	0.381
El Salvador	1999	0.518	0.431		1999	0.498	0.419
Guatemala	1989	0.582	0.498				
	1998	0.582	0.485				

Source: ECLAC, based on special tabulations from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ Calculated on the basis of nationwide distribution of per capita individual income. Includes individuals with zero income.

b/ Calculated on the basis of nationwide distribution of per capita household income.

c/ Greater Buenos Aires.

d/ Eight major cities and El Alto.

e/ Urban total.

f/ Asunción metropolitan area.

INCOME CONCENTRATION AND POVERTY

A number of different tools can be used to measure income concentration, each of which has certain advantages and disadvantages. One simple method is to estimate the percentage of the population whose income is below the average or is a fraction of the average. The higher this percentage, the greater is the difference between the higher and lower values for distribution or, in other words, the greater is the inequality of distribution.

Some countries, particularly in Western Europe, regularly use this type of indicator to gauge "relative poverty." The term "relative poverty" refers to the notion that people are disadvantaged when they are unable to fit into society because they cannot afford certain items that are considered basic in that society. For example, in highly developed countries, people might be classified as deprived if they cannot afford a television set, even though they have satisfied their minimum food and housing needs. This approach makes it almost impossible to establish a "poverty line" similar to the one used in the traditional, or normative, approach to poverty measurement, not only because of the difficulties involved in defining the types, amounts and prices of items to be considered, but also because the threshold has to be changed from time to time to reflect changes in living standards. Bearing this in mind, some fraction of average income might reasonably be used as a "relative poverty line." This figure typically ranges between 40% and 60% of income, represented as either the mean or the median distribution.

Nevertheless, there are several practical drawbacks to this method of measuring "relative poverty." One is the highly arbitrary choice involved in defining the income–level indicator (mean or median) and the respective cut–off fraction, or the fact that the poverty line has an elasticity of one with regard to mean income. Nevertheless, these difficulties aside, this approach underscores the strong interrelationship that exists between definitions and measurements of poverty and income distribution and the advantages of integrating the analysis of the two dimensions.

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PERSONS HAVING INCOMES OF LESS THAN HALF THE MEAN AND HALF THE MEDIAN INCOME LEVELS							
Country	Year	50% of mean	50% of median	Country	Year	50% of mean	50% of median
Argentina a/	1990	39.1	20.5	Honduras	1990	52.3	26.1
	1999	44.2	21.4		1999	46.4	25.7
Bolivia	1989 b/	44.1	20.6	Mexico	1989	43.5	19.7
	1999	45.5	29.5		1998	43.1	22.9
Brazil	1990	53.9	26.6	Nicaragua	1993	45.9	27.4
	1999	54.8	25.9		1998	45.9	26.7
Chile	1990	46.5	20.3	Panama	1991	46.4	24.1
	2000	46.4	20.3		1999	46.4	23.7
Colombia	1994	48.9	26.0	Paraguay d/	1990	33.4	16.4
	1999	46.6	21.8		1999	34.2	15.8
Costa Rica	1990	31.6	19.4	Dominican Republic	1997	39.8	20.8
	1999	36.1	20.7		Uruguay c/	1990	36.8
Ecuador c/	1990	33.8	17.4	1999		32.2	19.0
	1999	42.0	18.8	Venezuela	1990	35.5	20.2
El Salvador	1995	38.4	22.0		1999	38.6	21.6
	1999	40.6	24.3				
Guatemala	1989	47.9	22.7				
	1998	49.5	21.7				

Source: ECLAC, based on special tabulations from household surveys in the countries concerned. The poverty level reported refer to the national level, except in the following cases:

a/ Greater Buenos Aires.

b/ Eight main cities and El Alto.

c/ Urban total.

d/ Asunción metropolitan area.

B. TRENDS OVER THE DECADE

Income distribution in Latin America tended to worsen over the past decade in the wake of a number of economic crises and did not improve appreciably as growth was restored. The most severe recessions hurt the poorest 40% of households most of all, while the wealthiest 10% managed to increase their share of total income and to maintain or expand it during booms. The changes experienced by the intermediate strata were more modest and were not comparable to those of the groups at either end of the scale; in many countries, they had enough bargaining power to be able to benefit, at least partially, from improvements in productivity.

The pattern of income distribution for the decade as a whole also reflects the trend towards concentration, which has characterized the Latin American economies for many years now. Indeed, although over the past decade most countries have managed to boost average household income, marked inequality persists and in several cases the huge gaps between rich and poor have even widened. This confirms the observation made in previous editions of *Social Panorama* regarding the difficulty of achieving any substantial change, over the short term, in the structural factors underlying income distribution.

In the 1990s, the share of income received nationwide by households in the top decile increased in eight countries, declined in five (although the decline was significant in only two, Honduras⁶ and Uruguay) and held steady in one (Mexico). Prominent among the countries in which this group's share increased are several that had been characterized by a better income distribution, relatively speaking, during the post-war period. Thus, the share rose in Argentina from 35% to 37%; in Costa Rica, from 26% to 29%; and in Venezuela, from 29% to 31%. In Chile, it remained at slightly above 40%, and in Uruguay, it rose from 26% to

⁶ It should be noted, however, that the data for Honduras for the 1990s are not entirely comparable with those for other countries, owing to a number of changes in the income-measurement methodology that were introduced with the 1994 household survey. These changes, which have to do in particular with how broad a definition of income was used for the study, may have influenced (although in a way that is hard to pinpoint) the distribution profile of household income in 1990, compared to that of subsequent years; thus, it may have affected the analysis of the trend throughout the decade.

27% between 1997 and 1999, even though it had declined at the beginning and the end of the decade. The share of the highest decile also increased in Brazil, Ecuador, Nicaragua and Panama, from 44% to 47%, 31% to 37%, 38% to 41%, and 36% to 37%, in that order. In contrast, in some countries, such as Colombia (between 1994 and 1999), El Salvador and Honduras, the share of the highest-income group declined, less than two percentage points in Colombia and El Salvador, but more than that in Honduras (see table II.1).

Over the past decade, the share in total income of the top 10% of households continued to increase in most countries. This in itself is highly significant, not only because it supports the assertion that income distribution in Latin America has shown a tendency to worsen, but also because, as mentioned earlier, this group's already large share is considered decisive in the categorization of the region as the one with the worst income distribution worldwide.

Trends differed with regard to the percentage of income received by the poorest 40% of households, which fell during the decade in five countries, rose in eight and held steady in one (Nicaragua). Some of the steepest declines were in the countries that experienced major crises (Ecuador and Venezuela), but El Salvador, Costa Rica and Mexico also fell back somewhat. Moreover, where there were improvements, they were relatively minor, as they surpassed two percentage points in just one case (Colombia between 1994 and 1997, followed, however, by a slight deterioration from 1997 to 1999); they amounted to one percentage point in three others (Honduras, Uruguay and Guatemala); and only around 0.5% in the rest (Brazil, Chile, Argentina and Panama).

The variations exhibited by the intermediate strata –i.e., the 50% of all households between the poorest 40% and the richest 10%– generally do not follow a pattern similar to the trend seen in the case of the top and bottom strata. In at least seven countries, changes in income share –increases and decreases alike– amounted to two percentage points or less.

The share of total income received by this group was very similar at the beginning and the end of the decade in Chile, Colombia (between 1994 and 1999), Guatemala, Mexico and Venezuela. The most interesting case is that of Venezuela, where the intermediate groups maintained their share in spite of the serious crisis that hit the country in the last half of the 1990s. Only El Salvador (from 1995 to 1999), Honduras and Uruguay posted major gains in the relative income received by the intermediate strata, which, in the latter two cases, came at the expense of the top decile. Brazil and Ecuador are the only countries in which relative incomes in this group fell by more than three percentage points, as a result of the strong relative gains made by the upper-income strata. In Argentina, the intermediate groups saw their share of income drop steadily throughout the decade (2.6 percentage points), and in Chile, this group's share shrank by 0.8 percentage point from 1996 to 2000, thus undoing the cumulative gains of the first half of the 1990s. In Uruguay, however, although the share of intermediate groups also fell by 0.8 percentage point between 1997 and 1999, this decline did not reverse the strong improvement of previous years. In any event, despite these fluctuations, the trend in the income share of intermediate groups indicates that in some countries these groups have more powerful means of defending their share of total income than poor groups do.

As a result of the above trends, most of the countries have experienced a widening of the gap between the two groups of households in terms of average income, which strengthens the impression that income distribution has worsened. Among 13 countries in which nationwide data were available for the beginning and end of the decade, eight saw an increase in the ratio between the incomes of the highest decile and that of the poorest 40%, while only four saw a decline and one showed no change. The countries in which this disparity increased most notably were Ecuador (urban area), Costa Rica, Venezuela and Argentina, while the sharpest declines occurred in Colombia (between 1994 and 1997) and probably in Honduras as well (see figure II.1).

The results are similar when the percentage of the population having per capita incomes lower than 50% of the average level is examined. Only two countries registered a significant reduction in this indicator of inequality (Honduras and Uruguay).⁷ The rest showed a marked increase (most notably the same countries which, as mentioned above, saw their income gap widen), a moderate rise (Brazil and Guatemala), or held steady (Chile, Nicaragua and Panama) (see figure II.1).

As for the Gini coefficient, the largest increases nationwide in the 1990s were seen in Costa Rica (where conditions also worsened from 1997 to 1999) and Venezuela. This indicator also worsened in Ecuador (urban area) and Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires). Although to a lesser extent, inequality in income distribution was also somewhat greater at the end than at the beginning of the decade in Brazil and El Salvador (between 1995 and 1999), while in Chile, Guatemala, Mexico, Nicaragua and Panama, the situation remained relatively unchanged. Uruguay (urban area) and Honduras, as well as Colombia (from 1994 to 1999), were the only countries of the region that managed to reduce income concentration, as gauged by the Gini index, during this period (see figure II.2).

Among the countries mentioned, Brazil, in particular, is faced with the serious challenge of attempting to reverse the moderate but rising trend in respect of

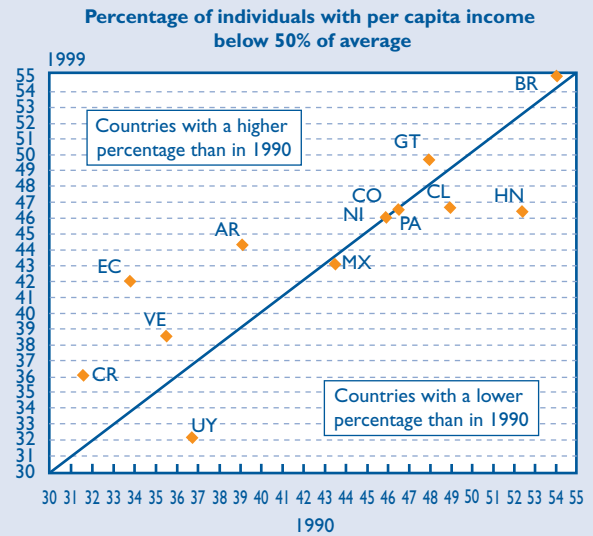
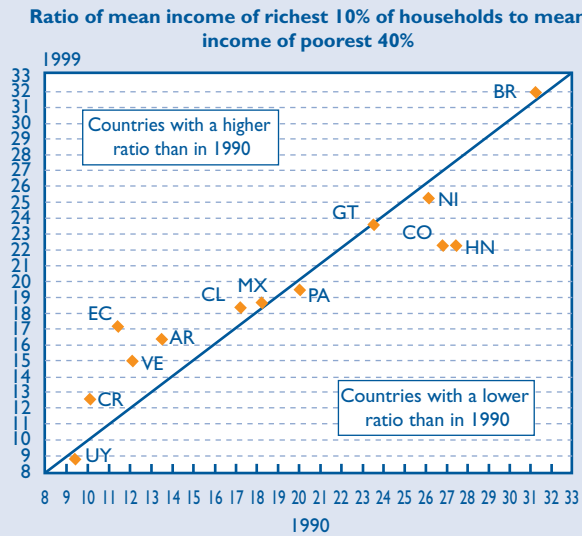
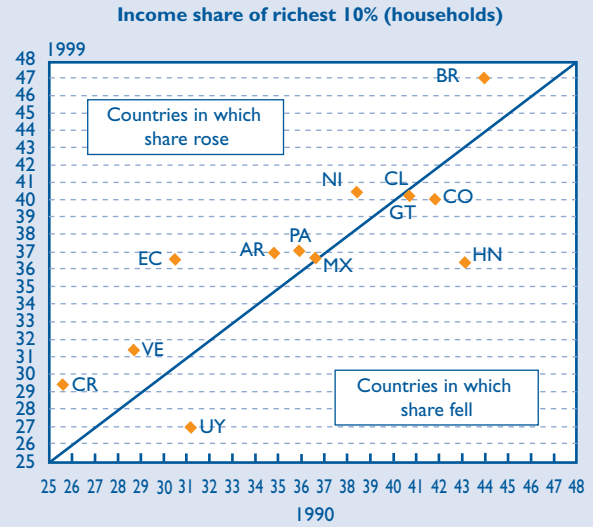
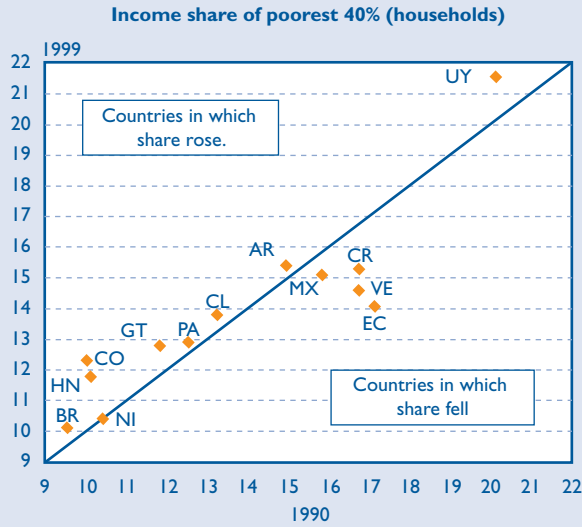
income inequality that occurred during the 1990s, inasmuch as with a Gini coefficient of 0.64, this country now has the highest income concentration indices in the entire region. At the other end of the scale, Uruguay has clearly consolidated the gains it made in reducing inequality, given that, in addition to maintaining low poverty indicators, it has continued to gradually improve its income distribution, albeit with ups and downs during the 1997–1999 period; as a result, in 1999 it again posted the lowest income concentration in the region, with a Gini coefficient of 0.44 in urban areas.

Another group of countries that succeeded in lowering inequality indicators in urban areas over the past decade was that made up of Honduras, Bolivia, Mexico, Guatemala and Panama. In some of these, however, the 1999 levels are still among the highest in the region. At the same time, rural inequality, in the countries in which it could be measured, increased in six cases (especially in Costa Rica and Mexico and, to a lesser extent, in Brazil, Nicaragua, Guatemala and Panama) and decreased in three, namely, Chile, Honduras and Colombia (see figure II.2).

⁷ It should be borne in mind that this index can also be used to measure "relative poverty", as noted in box II.1.

Figure II.1

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): CHANGES IN INCOME CONCENTRATION, a/
NATIONAL TOTAL, 1990–1999

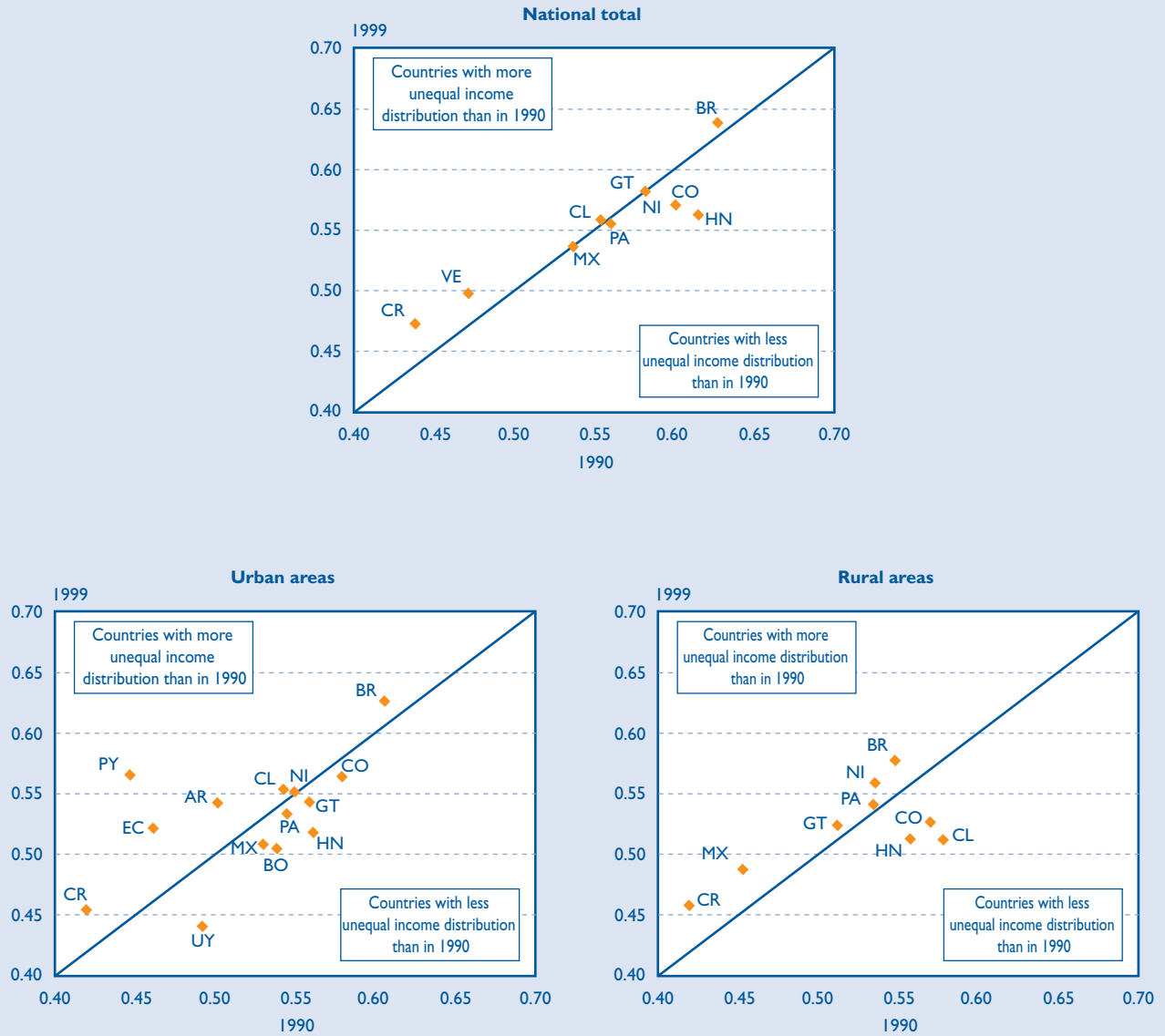


Source: ECLAC, based on special tabulations from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ Calculated according to the distribution of households ranked by per capita income. In the case of Argentina, the figures refer to Greater Buenos Aires, while for Ecuador and Uruguay they refer to the urban areas. For specific years covered by estimates, see tables II.1 and II.2.

Figure II.2

LATIN AMERICA: CHANGES IN THE GINI COEFFICIENT OF INCOME DISTRIBUTION, ^{a/} 1990–1999



Source: ECLAC, based on special tabulations from household surveys in the countries concerned.

^{a/} Calculated according to the distribution of individuals ranked by per capita income. For urban areas, in Argentina the figure refer to Greater Buenos Aires, while for Bolivia (1990 and 1997), they refer to the eight main cities and the Asunción metropolitan area, respectively. For specific years covered by estimates, see tables 23 and 24 in the Statistical Appendix.

A comprehensive analysis makes it possible to round out the description of income trends among upper-, middle- and low-income groups with additional data that confirm the assessments made earlier in *Social Panorama* regarding certain unique aspects of Latin American economies and societies. In general, income distribution is not clearly related to level of development in the countries. For example, Argentina and Uruguay, which stand out for their high income levels in the regional context, currently have very different distribution structures and trends. The situation is similar in the case of the economies with lower average incomes, in which inequalities may be high, intermediate or low (see tables II.3 and II.4). It should also be noted that in the 1980s and 1990s, some countries maintained the status quo in terms of distribution, while in others, the situation changed substantially. Argentina and Chile, which in the 1960s stood out among the Latin American countries for their relatively good income distribution patterns, are currently close to the regional average and some of their indicators are even higher. In contrast, Uruguay and Costa Rica have maintained a social and political structure that tends to protect income distribution, above and beyond the changes in the domestic economy and in external economic relations that have occurred in recent years. Also noteworthy in this regard is Venezuela; although it experienced a serious crisis in the second half of the 1990s and its income distribution worsened considerably over the decade, it is still less inequitable than most of the other countries in the region.

In summary, even though many countries managed to expand their economies and significantly increase their social expenditure in the 1990s, and despite a continuing and justified concern about distributional issues, the fact is that for the most part Latin America has not succeeded in making any substantial improvement in income distribution in recent years. Consequently, although economic growth over the past decade has, as expected, been translated into relative progress in reducing absolute poverty, the growth of output has not had the same effect (either in the direction or the intensity of the changes) on how the fruits of such growth are distributed. Furthermore, the consensus is that no promising signals are in evidence at the present time that would provide reason to believe that this situation will change significantly in the short or medium term.

In fact, of the 17 countries analyzed, only two (Honduras⁸ and Uruguay) closed out the decade with results that show progress in reducing distributional inequality. Even in those countries that achieved high growth rates and maintained them over time (such as Chile), the evidence shows that income distribution was extremely recalcitrant in the face of efforts to reduce its high degree of concentration, and income disparities remained one of the unwanted features of the prevailing economic and social structure.

8 The difficulty of comparing the total household income numbers reported in the 1990 and 1999 surveys, as noted in footnote 6, should be borne in mind here.

Table II.3

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): LEVEL OF PER CAPITA GDP AND DEGREE OF INCOME CONCENTRATION IN URBAN AREAS, 1999		
Per capita income		Income concentration a/
High (more than US\$ 4,000)	Argentina Uruguay Chile Mexico Brazil	High Low High Intermediate High
Intermediate (Between US\$ 2,000 and US\$ 4,000)	Costa Rica Panama Venezuela b/ Dominican Republic Colombia	Low Intermediate Low Intermediate High
Low (Less than US\$ 2,000)	EL Salvador Paraguay Guatemala Ecuador Bolivia Honduras Nicaragua	Low Intermediate High Intermediate Intermediate High High

Source: ECLAC, based on special tabulations from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ **Low** (under 0.48), **intermediate** (between 0.48 and 0.54) and **high** (over 0.54) Gini coefficient.

b/ Refers to national total.

Table II.4

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): CHANGES IN INCOME DISTRIBUTION IN URBAN AREAS, 1990–1997–1999						
Per capita GDP growth in 1990s a/	D ¹⁰ / D ^(1 to 4) ratio b/			Gini index		
	1990–1997	1997–1999	1990–1999	1990–1997	1997–1999	1990–1999
High (more than 4%) Chile Dominican Republic	Increased -	Increased -	Increased -	No change -	Increased -	Increased -
Intermediate (between 2% and 4%) Argentina c/ Panama El Salvador Peru Uruguay Costa Rica	Increased Increased - - Decreased Increased	Increased Decreased No change - Increased Increased	Increased Decreased - - Decreased Increased	Increased Increased - - Decreased Increased	Increased Decreased Decreased - Increased Increased	Increased Decreased - - Decreased Increased
Low (1% to 2%) Mexico Bolivia Guatemala Brazil	- - - Increased	- Decreased - Increased	Decreased - Decreased Increased	- - - Increased	- Decreased - Increased	Decreased - Decreased Increased
Zero or negative (minus 1% to 1%) Colombia d/ Nicaragua Honduras Venezuela e/ Ecuador Paraguay	Decreased - Decreased Increased No change -	Increased Increased Decreased No change Increased Increased	Decreased - Decreased Increased Increased -	No change - Decreased Increased Increased -	Decreased No change Decreased Decreased Increased Increased	Decreased - Decreased Increased Increased -

Source: ECLAC, based on special tabulations from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ Average annual variation in per capita GDP, based on 1995 prices.

b/ D^(1 to 4) represents the bottom 40% of households in terms of income, while D¹⁰ represents the upper 10% of households in terms of income.

c/ Greater Buenos Aires.

d/ The start year is 1994.

e/ Refers to national total.

It is encouraging, nevertheless, that over the past decade, some Central American countries made some progress –albeit to different degrees and with different scope– with regard to income distribution in urban areas, notwithstanding the high levels of concentration that still exists in the region. Economic stability, more moderate financial fluctuations, the benefits brought by the boom in the North American countries, the easing of demographic pressures resulting from international migration, and heavier inflows of remittances from nationals living abroad are some of the factors that contributed to this result.

Alternative measures of income concentration and the use of "equivalence scales"

As indicated in the previous chapter with regard to poverty measurement, a single indicator to gauge distributional inequality may not be sufficient to fully describe the characteristics and evolution of the phenomenon over time. For example, the Gini

coefficient, which is perhaps the one most commonly used in this field, is known to have certain limitations arising from the fact that it does not adequately reflect the changes occurring at either end of the income–distribution range or that it generates ambiguous results when intersecting Lorenz curves are compared (see box II.3). It is therefore advisable to use other types of indices to supplement analyses based on the values obtained with this indicator or any other specific measurement. Accordingly, table II.2 also shows estimates obtained with the log–variance, Theil and Atkinson indices, all three being indicators that are particularly sensitive to what occurs at the lower end of the distribution scale, independently of income categories. Although the magnitudes of these indicators are not comparable to each other, a final conclusion as to the direction of changes in the situation with respect to inequality should be supported, to the extent possible, by all of them (see box II.4).

Box II.3

MEASURING INEQUALITY

The economic and statistical literature offers a wide range of indicators for measuring income inequality. In general, they can be classified as: (i) traditional statistical indicators (absolute and relative range, statistical indicators of order, average relative deviation, variance, variation coefficient, and log variance); (ii) entropy measures (Theil index); (iii) Gini coefficient; (iv) social welfare functions (Dalton and Atkinson indices), and (v) Lorenz curve.

A good indicator of inequality should meet at least the following criteria (Cowell, 1995):

- (i) **"Weak" transfer principle:** When income is transferred from a "wealthy" household to a "poor" one, other things being equal, the indicator should show a decrease in the degree of inequality.
- (ii) **Independence of scale:** The indicator should not vary in response to proportional changes or changes of scale (e.g., changes in the unit used to measure income).
- (iii) **Population principle:** Income concentration in two populations with identical Lorenz curves should be the same, regardless of the size of the populations.
- (iv) **Additive decomposition:** The income concentration for a population should be equal to the weighted sum of inequality among all subgroups within that population.
- (v) **"Strong" transfer principle:** When income is transferred from a "wealthy" household to a "poor" one, the decrease in inequality will be more pronounced as the income gap between the two households widens.

Given the importance of these criteria and in light of certain practical considerations, certain indices that are normally used to analyse income distribution have been chosen. Thus, the Lorenz curve is a basic statistical tool, since it shows the pattern of income distribution and the share held by the different groups in the population. In addition, given the ease with which it can be calculated and interpreted, the Gini coefficient (derived from the Lorenz curve) has become one of the most widely used indicators despite its limitations with regard to additive decomposition.

Among traditional statistical indicators, the variation coefficient and the log variance are also very useful because they take

MEASURING INEQUALITY

advantage of all available distribution data. In addition, the Theil and Atkinson indices are highly recommended, given their usefulness for theoretical purposes and their emphasis on lower incomes in the measurement of inequality.

As far as the comparability of findings among these indicators is concerned, it should be noted that they are all ordinal in nature, they show different ranges of variation, and they meet different criteria; hence, the values obtained are not comparable. Moreover, since they all measure only partial aspects of inequality, the results they generate are normally organized differently. Consequently, a definitive ranking for a given group of distributions can only be established if the group is kept constant regardless of the index used. Inequality indices should therefore be used to complement each other and an overall analysis should be made of all the results.

Lastly, it should be noted that the values of a single index are comparable between different populations, but only as ordinal figures; in other words, they only show where greater or lesser inequality exists, but not the magnitude of the differences.

INCOME CONCENTRATION INDICES

A number of indicators are used to measure degrees of income concentration. As mentioned in box II.2, however, only some of them possess a basic set of properties that are important from the standpoint of theory. Thus, the following inequality indices are commonly used for empirical studies:

i) **Variation coefficient squared:**
$$CV^2 = \frac{V}{\mu^2}$$

where μ represents the average income in the distribution and V the variance. This statistical measure is used to ascertain the dispersion of a variable, and its inclusion in the study of inequality is justified by its relationship with the family of general entropy indices.

ii) **Variance of logarithms:**
$$VL = \sum_{i=1}^n (\log \mu - \log y_i)^2 / n$$

This is considered important because it is one of the few indicators that can be additively decomposed and, in addition, it emphasizes the observations made at the lower end of the distribution scale.

iii) **Gini index:**
$$G = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^m p_i [Q_i + Q_{i+1}]$$

where Q_i represents the cumulate income of group i , and p_i the percentage of persons in it. This is the index most commonly used, as it is easy to interpret and can be derived geometrically from the Lorenz curve.

iv) **Theil index:**
$$IT = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{y_i}{\mu} \log \left(\frac{y_i}{\mu} \right)$$

This index emphasizes the transfers that take place at the lower end of the distribution scale, and it can be additively decomposed.

v) **Atkinson index:**
$$IA_\varepsilon = 1 - \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{y_i}{\mu} \right)^{1-\varepsilon} \right]^{1/(1-\varepsilon)}$$

This index has an implicit utility function whereby greater significance is assigned to observations at the lower end of the distribution scale, to the extent that the value of parameter ε ("aversion to inequality") rises.

With the exception of the Gini and Atkinson indices, which range from 0 to 1, the values of the other indicators do not have an upper limit. In all instances, however, values equal to zero are interpreted as the absence of inequality (when all individuals have the same income).

The values of these indices are strictly ordinal in nature and cannot be compared to each other, inasmuch as each one could lead to a different ranking. In any event, the results yielded by a single indicator can be compared over time. Moreover, it is important to bear in mind certain relationships between the above indicators that also justify analysing them jointly. For example, IA_ε , with parameter $\varepsilon = 1$, is ordinally equivalent to IT . There is also a relationship between VL and IA_ε , with $\varepsilon = 2$, while CV^2 belongs to the same family of indices as IT . Given that each indicator analyses only one aspect of the inequality problem, the indices will not necessarily generate the same value or display a uniform trend over time. Hence the importance of simultaneously using a number of different indicators, in order to broaden the opportunities for analysis.

The estimated values of these indices allow two major conclusions to be drawn about trends in inequality and, in the case of some countries, qualify the above comments on Gini index results. Firstly, the Gini coefficient, despite its limitations, yields conclusive findings regarding recent changes in inequality in about six countries of the region. Since according to this indicator, the direction of these changes is consistent with the direction shown with the more comprehensive, income distribution can be said to have worsened in Argentina, Costa Rica, Ecuador and Venezuela between 1990 and 1999, while the opposite was the case with Honduras and Uruguay, as noted elsewhere in this chapter.

In the case of other countries, however, alternative measurements of income concentration reveal that the trend shown by the Gini concentration index may not represent the trend in distributional inequality in every respect. In Brazil, for example, the Gini coefficient and the Theil index show a deterioration in income distribution, in contrast to the findings obtained with the variance of logarithms and the Atkinson index. In this case, the apparent contradiction might suggest that whereas the lowest-income groups improved their share during the decade, other low-income groups that are in a relatively better position saw theirs shrink. A similar interpretation might be applied in the case of Guatemala, where the levelling off of inequality shown by the Gini coefficient is not consistent with the declines shown by the log variance and the Atkinson index or with the rise in the Theil index. Although the performance of income distribution in its various segments would have to be analysed in greater detail in order to resolve these inconsistencies, which also show up in Chile, Mexico and Panama, it remains clear that the indicators in question provide useful information to round out the analysis of the broad spectrum of situations encompassed in changes in income distribution.

Finally, studies of inequality usually refer –especially

in comparisons of countries and regions– to the effect that differences in the demographic structure and consumption habits of the various types of families have on income–distribution estimates. As noted above in connection with poverty estimates, the economic literature recommends the use of "equivalence scales" to take into account the different needs of households that are attributable to the specific characteristics of their members.

In this regard, the high levels of distributional inequality in the region and the trends noted in recent years would not be substantially altered if these scales were added to calculations of income–concentration indicators. At least, this is the conclusion to be drawn from the findings of an analysis of the sensitivity of the Gini coefficient to the use of three separate equivalence scales, identified by the acronyms OECD, USA and LIS.⁹

In general, the value of this income–concentration index, as estimated with the aforementioned scales, tends to be lower than the value obtained when the per capita criterion is used, but the differences between this and any of the others are quite small (the maximum difference noted was 0.04 in the value of the Gini coefficient). Only in two of the cases analysed was there an increase (albeit minimal) rather than a decrease in inequality (Guatemala in 1989 and Panama in 1999).

The trends reflected by this indicator when equivalence scales are used are practically the same as the ones noted previously. Except in one case (Guatemala), all the countries that show increased concentration, as gauged by per capita income, display the same trend when the OECD and USA scales are used, and all but two (Guatemala and Panama) display the same trend with the LIS scale. Furthermore, using equivalences does not produce any significant changes in the ranking of countries by degree of inequality, compared to the ranking by per capita income. In all cases, Brazil is shown as the country with the greatest income concentration; it is follo-

9 For a description of the meaning of these scales, see box II.5, as well as box I.4 above.

wed by a group made up of Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Guatemala, Honduras, Panama and Paraguay, while

Uruguay and Costa Rica are shown as the most equitable in the region¹⁰ (see box II.5).

Box II.5

MEASURING INEQUALITY AND EQUIVALENCE SCALES

Using monetary indicators to measure well-being entails considering different needs of households and the cost of meeting them. The usual indicators, **total** income (or expenditure) and **per capita** income (or expenditure) are inadequate for this purpose, since the former makes no distinction between households, while the latter ignores the possible differences in needs that are attributable to the characteristics of the members of the household. "Equivalence scales" offer a more inclusive option; in these, household size is dealt with in terms of a fictitious unit ("adult-equivalent") that reflects the proportional cost of meeting the household members' needs, as determined by their number and demographic characteristics, usually age (see box I.4).

The following table shows estimates of the Gini inequality index obtained by using three different equivalence scales –OECD, USA and LIS– which are based on the number of adults (**A**) and children (**C**) in the household. The OECD scale, which is used by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development and follows the formula $1 + 0.7(A-1) + 0.5C$, assigns the first adult a value of 1; each additional adult is expressed as 0.7 in respect of the first adult, and each child (under 14), as 0.5 in respect of the first adult. The USA scale, which is recommended for determining the United States poverty line, follows the formula $(A + 0.7C)^{0.7}$. Lastly, the LIS (Luxembourg Income Study) scale, used extensively in some developed countries, is equivalent to the square root of the number of members in the household.

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): GINI COEFFICIENTS ACCORDING TO DIFFERENT EQUIVALENCE SCALES NATIONAL TOTAL, 1990 AND 1999											
Country	Year	Standard			Country	Year	Standard				
		Per capita	OECD ^a	USA ^b			LIS ^c	Per capita	OECD ^a	USA ^b	LIS ^c
Argentina ^d	1990	0.501	0.484	0.476	0.474	Honduras	1990	0.615	0.599	0.591	0.592
	1999	0.542	0.522	0.513	0.510		1999	0.564	0.546	0.535	0.533
Bolivia	1989 ^e	0.538	0.529	0.524	0.526	Mexico	1989	0.536	0.517	0.502	0.496
	1999	0.586	0.571	0.564	0.563		1998	0.539	0.519	0.505	0.500
Brazil	1990	0.628	0.612	0.602	0.598	Nicaragua	1993	0.582	0.566	0.556	0.563
	1999	0.640	0.623	0.614	0.611		1998	0.583	0.568	0.559	0.565
Chile	1990	0.554	0.541	0.534	0.533	Panama	1991	0.560	0.544	0.533	0.529
	2000	0.560	0.547	0.540	0.537		1999	0.558	0.540	0.529	0.567
Colombia	1994	0.601	0.587	0.578	0.577	Paraguay	1990 ^g	0.447	0.432	0.419	0.415
	1999	0.572	0.554	0.544	0.541		1999	0.565	0.546	0.538	0.540
Costa Rica	1990	0.438	0.422	0.414	0.415	Dominican Republic	1997	0.518	0.502	0.495	0.498
	1999	0.473	0.456	0.447	0.446		Uruguay ^f	1990	0.492	0.476	0.470
Ecuador ^f	1990	0.461	0.446	0.437	0.438	1999		0.440	0.420	0.410	0.407
	1999	0.426	0.511	0.500	0.497	Venezuela	1990	0.471	0.453	0.441	0.441
El Salvador	1995	0.507	0.490	0.479	0.478		1999	0.498	0.480	0.469	0.468
	1999	0.518	0.503	0.493	0.501						
Guatemala	1989	0.583	0.588	0.554	0.553						
	1998	0.582	0.561	0.547	0.543						

Source: ECLAC, based on special tabulations from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ OECD = Scale applied by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD).

b/ USA = Scale recommended for defining the poverty line in the United States.

c/ LIS = Scale proposed by the Luxembourg Income Study (LIS).

d/ Greater Buenos Aires.

e/ Eight main cities and El Alto.

f/ Urban total.

g/ Asunción metropolitan area.

¹⁰ This evidence provides grounds for arguing that the accuracy of an analysis of income distribution in Latin America should not be particularly affected, at least in regard to the Gini coefficient, by the use of equivalence scales; this is in contrast to the conclusion reached in connection with poverty levels.



Trends in employment and unemployment in Latin America during the 1990s

A. TRENDS IN EMPLOYMENT AND CHANGES IN THE OCCUPATIONAL STRUCTURE

During the 1990s, the job supply rose in Latin America at an average annual rate of 2.6%, while the demand for workers increased at 2.2%. As a result of inadequate job creation, unemployment rose significantly in that period to around 8.6% (over 18 million persons) by the end of the decade. At the same time, there was a decline in the quality of employment –measured in terms of the degree of informality of the economy– given that 7 out of every 10 new jobs in urban areas were generated in the informal or low–productivity sectors. Over the last ten years, the female labour force participation rate increased from 37.9% to 42.0% and there was a trend towards the feminization of some occupations; however, the male/female unemployment gap has widened further.

The employment market in Latin America in the 1990s underwent significant changes owing to the interaction between trends in labour supply and demand. The increase in the supply of labour was accentuated by certain demographic changes that occurred during the period, especially the marked growth in the working–age population and, in the case of urban areas, the continuing process of migration to the towns. Also, labour demand maintained a lower growth rate than labour supply, leaving an increasing share of the population without jobs, particularly in urban areas.

The demographic trends of the last decade were reflected in a decline in the region’s population growth rate, mainly as a result of the steady fall in

the fertility rate. From around 1.8% between 1990 and 1994, the average annual population growth rate dropped to 1.6% in the period 1997–1999. This downward trend was especially evident among the youngest segment. The number of persons under age 15, which had been growing very slowly during the first half of the decade (at an annual rate of 0.4%), rose just 0.2% in the latter part of the decade. Also, the population aged over 64 years, which still represents just over 5% of the total, increased at a relatively constant rate during the decade (3.1%) (see table III.1 and figure III.1).

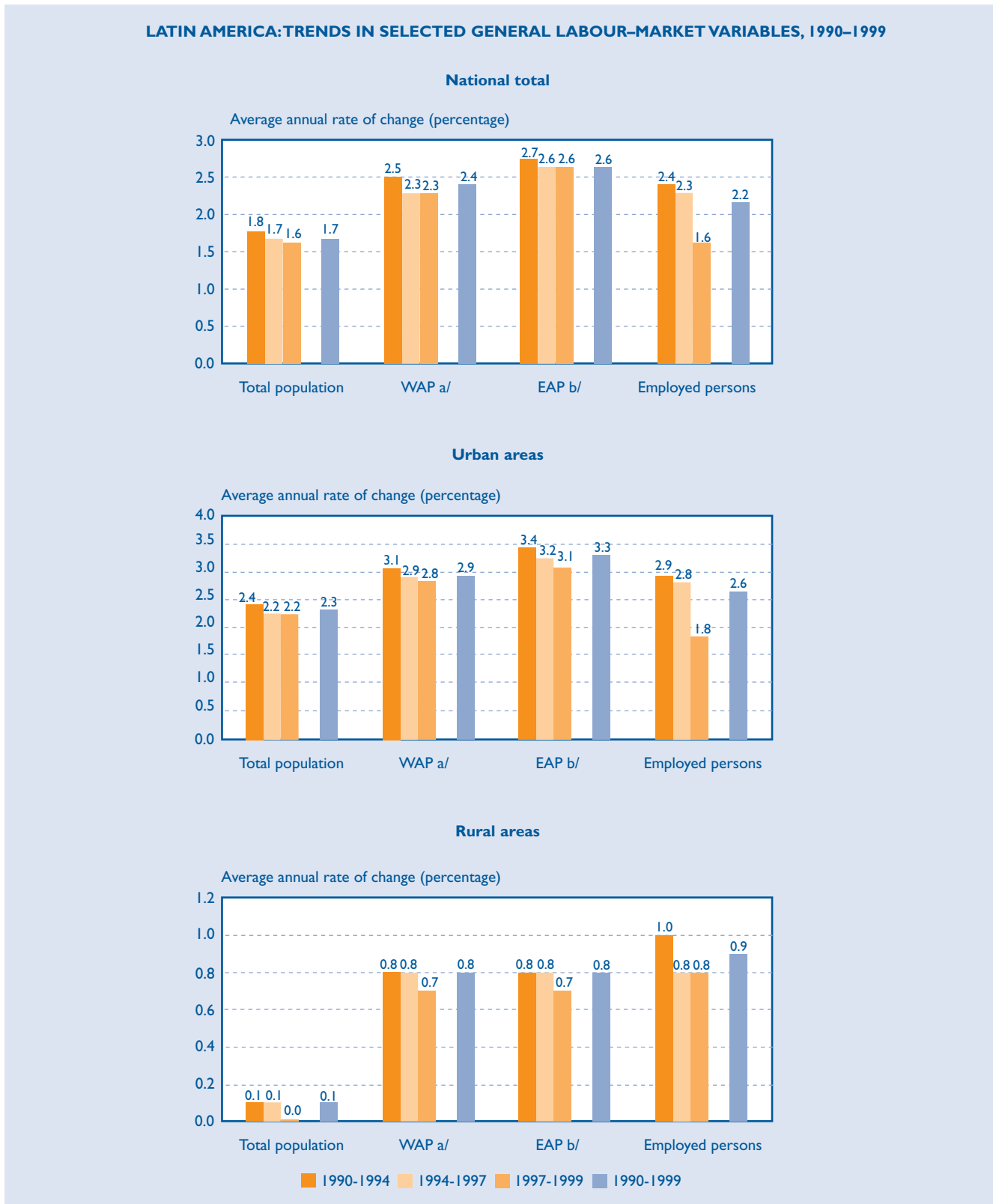
Table III.1

LATIN AMERICA: MAIN LABOUR-MARKET AGGREGATES, 1990-1999								
Description	Persons (thousands)				Average annual rate of change (percentage)			
	1990	1994	1997	1999	1990-1994	1994-1997	1997-1999	1990-1999
Total population	429 775	460 791	484 133	499 872	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.7
Urban	305 252	335 804	358 904	374 553	2.4	2.2	2.2	2.3
Rural	124 524	124 987	125 229	125 319	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1
Population under 15	155 156	157 940	159 447	160 191	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3
Urban	102 798	107 447	110 426	112 199	1.1	0.9	0.8	1.0
Rural	52 358	50 493	49 021	47 992	-0.9	-1.0	-1.1	-1.0
Working-age population	274 619	302 852	324 685	339 680	2.5	2.3	2.3	2.4
Urban	202 454	228 358	248 478	262 354	3.1	2.9	2.8	2.9
Rural	72 165	74 494	76 208	77 327	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.8
 Between 15 and 64	254 569	280 102	299 741	313 203	2.4	2.3	2.2	2.3
Urban	187 968	211 517	229 732	242 187	3.0	2.8	2.7	2.9
Rural	66 601	68 586	70 009	71 016	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7
 Over 64	20 050	22 749	24 944	26 478	3.2	3.1	3.0	3.1
Urban	14 486	16 841	18 745	20 167	3.8	3.6	3.7	3.7
Rural	5 564	5 908	6 199	6 311	1.5	1.6	0.9	1.4
Economically active population a/	167 485	186 446	201 417	211 833	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.6
Urban	120 688	138 097	151 968	161 648	3.4	3.2	3.1	3.3
Rural	46 797	48 349	49 448	50 185	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.8
 Employed persons	159 841	175 632	187 824	193 714	2.4	2.3	1.6	2.2
Urban	114 087	127 987	139 094	144 190	2.9	2.8	1.8	2.6
Rural	45 754	47 645	48 730	49 524	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.9
 Unemployed persons	7 643	10 814	13 593	18 118	9.1	7.9	15.5	10.1
Urban	6 600	10 110	12 874	17 457	11.2	8.4	16.4	11.4
Rural	1 043	704	719	661	-9.4	0.7	-4.1	-4.9
 Laid-off workers	5 932	8 308	10 397	15 391	8.8	7.8	21.7	11.2
Urban	5 225	8 112	10 221	15 204	11.6	8.0	22.0	12.6
Rural	708	196	176	186	-27.4	-3.6	2.9	-13.8
 Seeking work for the first time	1 711	2 506	3 195	2 728	10.0	8.4	-7.6	5.3
Urban	1 376	1 998	2 653	2 253	9.8	9.9	-7.8	5.6
Rural	335	507	543	475	10.9	2.3	-6.5	3.9
Economically inactive population a/	107 135	116 406	123 269	127 848	2.1	1.9	1.8	2.0
Urban	81 766	90 261	96 510	100 706	2.5	2.3	2.2	2.3
Rural	25 369	26 145	26 759	27 141	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.8

Source: ECLAC, based on estimates by the Population Division-Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) and special tabulations of data from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ Aged 15 years and over.

Figure III.1



Source: ECLAC, based on estimates by the Population Division–Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) and special tabulations of data from household surveys in the countries concerned.

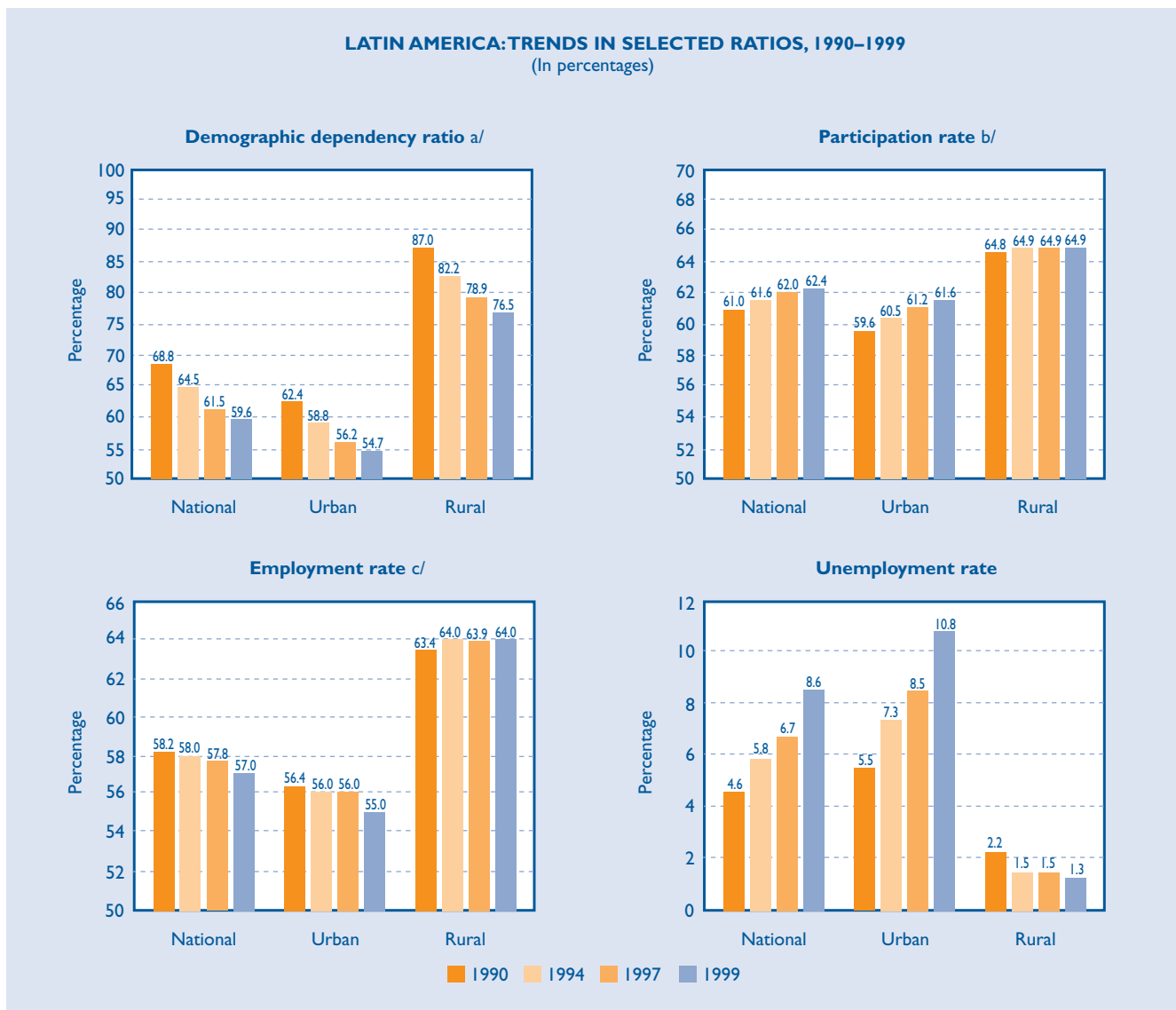
a/ Working-age population (aged 15 years and over).

b/ Economically active population (aged 15 years and over).

Owing to the gradual decrease in the under-15 age group's share of the total population and to the over-64 age group's continuing small share, population growth in the decade was concentrated in the intermediate age group (persons aged between 15 and 64 years). Between 1990 and 1999, the relative size of this group increased from 59.2% to 62.7% of the total population. As a result, the working-age

population (WAP) grew at an average annual rate of 2.4% during the decade. In addition to causing a marked reduction in the demographic dependency rate of more than nine percentage points (from 68.8% to 59.6%), this allowed for a significant increase in the economically active population (EAP) (see figure III.2).

Figure III.2



Source: ECLAC, based on estimates by the Population Division–Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) and special tabulations of data from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ Ratio of the population aged under 15 and over 64 years to the population aged between 15 and 64 years.

b/ Ratio of the economically active population to the working-age population (aged 15 years and over in both cases).

c/ Ratio of the employed population to the working-age population (aged 15 years and over in both cases).

The series of phenomena described above are referred to as the "demographic bonus" of the 1990s, a terms which alludes to the potential increase in regional production that could have been generated as a result of the new demographic structure. However, as has been pointed out by ECLAC (ECLAC, 2000, chapter 2), the benefits of this "bonus" are not necessarily a given. The opportunity of raising per capita output based on an increase in the available labour force was in fact wasted during the decade.

In that demographic context, the EAP grew at an average annual average rate of 2.6%. The region's labour force, consisting of nearly 212 million people by the end of the 1990s, grew by 44 million during that decade and represented 42% of the total population as of 1999 (three percentage points more than in

1990). The extent of the growth of the active population is particularly evident in the rise in the labour force participation rate (the ratio of EAP to WAP), which increased from 61.0% to 62.4% during the 1990s. This phenomenon was noticeable especially in the urban areas, where the ratio rose by two percentage points (from 59.6% to 61.6%), while in rural areas both the EAP and the WAP increased at a similar rate (0.8% per annum), with the participation rate remaining relatively constant (around 64.9%). Changes in this rate at the aggregate level stem essentially from the rapid growth in the female EAP. As described in detail below, the female participation rate rose significantly between 1990 and 1999, in contrast with the gradual reduction that occurred in the male participation rate (see table III.2).

Table III.2

LATIN AMERICA: COMPOSITION OF THE WORKING-AGE POPULATION BY SEX AND AREA a/												
Description	National total				Urban areas				Rural areas			
	1990	1994	1997	1999	1990	1994	1997	1999	1990	1994	1997	1999
	(Thousands)											
Working-age population	274 619	302 852	324 685	339 680	202 454	228 358	248 478	262 354	72 165	74 494	76 208	77 327
Males	134 901	148 463	159 031	166 320	97 109	109 526	119 197	125 878	37 792	38 937	39 834	40 442
Females	139 718	154 389	165 655	173 360	105 345	118 832	129 281	136 476	34 373	35 557	36 374	36 885
Economically active population	167 485	186 446	201 417	211 833	120 688	138 097	151 968	161 648	46 797	48 349	49 448	50 185
Males	114 479	125 101	133 336	138 995	79 065	88 954	96 681	102 005	35 414	36 147	36 655	36 990
Females	53 005	61 345	68 081	72 838	41 623	49 142	55 287	59 642	11 383	12 202	12 794	13 196
Employed persons	159 841	175 632	187 824	193 714	114 087	127 987	139 094	144 190	45 754	47 645	48 730	49 524
Males	109 537	118 678	125 669	129 006	74 834	83 141	89 526	92 460	34 703	35 538	36 143	36 546
Females	50 304	56 954	62 155	64 708	39 253	44 846	49 568	51 730	11 051	12 108	12 586	12 978
Unemployed persons	7 643	10 814	13 593	18 118	6 600	10 110	12 874	17 457	1 043	704	719	661
Males	4 942	6 423	7 667	9 989	4 231	5 814	7 156	9 546	712	609	511	443
Females	2 701	4 391	5 926	8 129	2 370	4 296	5 718	7 912	331	95	208	218
	(Percentages)											
Participation rate b/	61.0	61.6	62.0	62.4	59.6	60.5	61.2	61.6	64.8	64.9	64.9	64.9
Males	84.9	84.3	83.8	83.6	81.4	81.2	81.1	81.0	93.7	92.8	92.0	91.5
Females	37.9	39.7	41.1	42.0	39.5	41.4	42.8	43.7	33.1	34.3	35.2	35.8
Employment rate c/	58.2	58.0	57.8	57.0	56.4	56.0	56.0	55.0	63.4	64.0	63.9	64.0
Males	81.2	79.9	79.0	77.6	77.1	75.9	75.1	73.5	91.8	91.3	90.7	90.4
Females	36.0	36.9	37.5	37.3	37.3	37.7	38.3	37.9	32.2	34.1	34.6	35.2
Unemployment rate	4.6	5.8	6.7	8.6	5.5	7.3	8.5	10.8	2.2	1.5	1.5	1.3
Males	4.3	5.1	5.7	7.2	5.4	6.5	7.4	9.4	2.0	1.7	1.4	1.2
Females	5.1	7.2	8.7	11.2	5.7	8.7	10.3	13.3	2.9	0.8	1.6	1.6

Source: ECLAC, based on estimates by the Population Division–Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) and special tabulations of data from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ Aged 15 years and over.

b/ Ratio of the economically active population to the working-age population.

c/ Ratio of the employed population to the working-age population.

The trend towards urbanization was further accentuated in the 1990s. While the urban population increased at an average annual rate of 2.3%, the rural population remained fairly stable, rising by just 0.1% per annum. In 1999, urban dwellers accounted for 75% of the total population of Latin America, a share that is four percentage points higher than it was in 1990. This phenomenon had a significant effect on the change in labour supply, which was concentrated in urban areas. Of the 44 million persons who joined the economically active population in the 1990s, 93% live in urban areas. As a result, more than three fourths of the region's labour force (76.3%) is now located in the cities, as compared to 72% in 1990.

As was to be expected, this marked and steady increase in the economically active population has generated a great deal of pressure for more job creation. A look at the pattern of labour demand clearly shows that it did not increase enough to absorb the rapidly

growing labour force. New jobs were created at an average annual rate of 2.2%, enabling 34 million people to find work, raising the total number of employed workers to 194 million in 1999. This was not sufficient, however, to prevent a fall in the employment rate from 58.2% in 1990 to 57.0% in 1999 (see figure III.2).

As a result, the number of unemployed persons rose considerably during the 1990s (by an annual rate of 10.1%, with much of this increase being concentrated in 1997–1999). Thus, during the decade more than 10 million people joined the ranks of the unemployed, who represented 8.6% of the labour force (slightly over 18 million people), as compared to 4.6% in 1990 (for an explanation of certain differences between the regional unemployment figures presented here and others included further on in this chapter, see box III.1).

Box III.1

SOURCES OF INFORMATION ON UNEMPLOYMENT

The aggregate unemployment figures for Latin America included in this section, which were estimated from the national surveys used as a basis for preparing the previous chapters of this edition of *Social Panorama*, do not tally either with the numbers shown in figures III.4 and III.5 and table III.6 below or with those shown in other ECLAC publications. In particular, the urban unemployment levels shown here tend to be somewhat higher than those published in other sources.

These discrepancies arise from a number of factors that have to do with how household surveys –the primary sources of information used in measuring unemployment– are conducted. A first point to be considered is the fact that in some cases (such as in Brazil, Chile and Mexico) different surveys were used, and the sampling designs and data-gathering tools (questionnaires) were also different. In the case of Brazil, for example, the country reports unemployment figures based on the monthly employment survey, whereas the unemployment figures used in this section are based on the national household survey. A second factor is that, even where the same survey is involved, some estimates differ in terms of the geographical coverage of the data, even though they are shown as being representative of a country's urban areas. For example, the unemployment estimates for Bolivia that appear in this section cover all the urban areas of the country and not just the departmental capitals, as is the case with the official statistics. Lastly, the reference periods used also play an important role in explaining the discrepancies in unemployment estimates. In some countries, annual unemployment rates are obtained by averaging the estimates drawn up throughout the year on the basis of successive rounds of the same survey, whereas some of the figures shown here are based on only the most recent round of a survey.

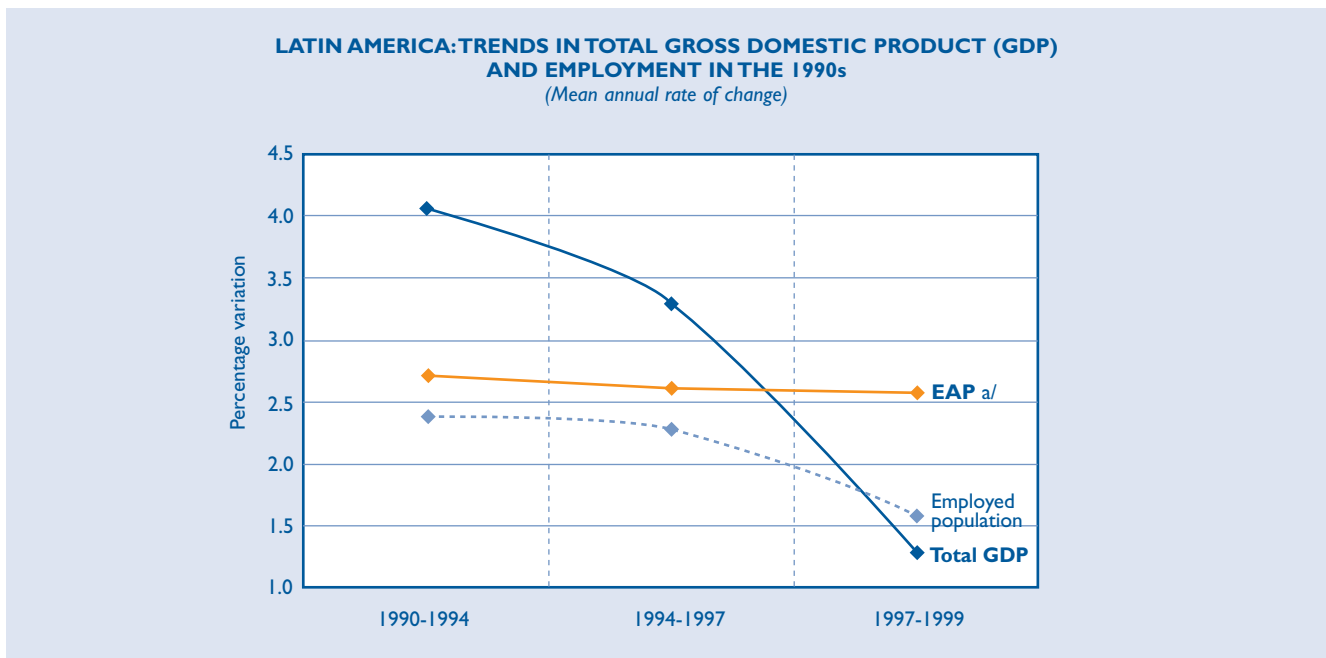
Although in some cases this may give rise to discrepancies with most published unemployment statistics, it was decided that for the sake of consistency, the national surveys used in preparing chapters I and II of this edition of *Social Panorama* should also be used for this chapter. Using a single source of information allows for direct comparisons to be made between the figures on poverty, income concentration and unemployment, thus facilitating the analysis of the interrelationship between these phenomena.

Finally, it should be stressed that both sets of figures show similar trends, in particular as they both indicate that unemployment rose in the region during the 1990s. Thus, the main conclusions on employment put forward in this chapter are consistent with either source.

During the 1990s, the growth rates of both employment and overall output fell steadily in the region, and this decline was accentuated during the last three years of the decade. Between 1990 and 1994, employment grew at an average annual rate of 2.4%, while output increased at an annual rate of 4.1%. During the next period (1994–1997), the rate of increase in employment fell slightly (from 2.4% to 2.3%), while the rate of increase in output dropped

by eight tenths of a point (from 4.1% to 3.3%). Between 1997 and 1999, however, the growth rate of both variables fell sharply; thus, the annual growth rates fell to 1.6% in the case of employment and 1.3% in the case of GDP. In addition to reflecting the slowdown of the economy during the 1990s, these figures bring to light a gradual decline in average labour productivity, which has become more serious in recent years (see figure III.3).

Figure III.3



Source: ECLAC, based on special tabulations of data from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ Economically active population aged 15 years and over.

Some of the characteristics of Latin America's employed population also changed during the 1990s. These changes are reflected, for example, in increases in the relative size of certain age groups and educational categories, in such groups' position within different production sectors and in the growing participation of women in certain types of occupations. Changes in the occupational structure have also influenced job quality and the size of the economy's informal sector.

By the end of the decade, half the jobs in the region were held by persons in the intermediate age group (aged between 25 and 44 years), who totalled 96 million, while nearly all the remaining 50% of jobs were held by young persons (aged between 15 and 24 years). In the over-45 age group, the under-60s were the largest group; even so, just over 14 million people of near-retirement age were still active participants in the labour force (see table III.3).

Table III.3

LATIN AMERICA: SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF THE EMPLOYED POPULATION ^{a/}								
Description	Persons (thousands)				Percentage breakdown			
	1990	1994	1997	1999	1990	1994	1997	1999
Employed persons								
Age (in years)	159 841	175 632	187 824	193 714	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
15 to 24	42 741	44 706	45 450	45 275	26.7	25.5	24.2	23.4
25 to 44	79 612	87 609	94 515	96 042	49.8	49.9	50.3	49.6
45 to 59	27 724	31 051	34 712	38 216	17.3	17.7	18.5	19.7
60 and over	9 764	12 266	13 147	14 181	6.1	7.0	7.0	7.3
Years of schooling	159 841	175 632	187 824	193 714	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
0 to 5	73 387	75 771	74 746	72 505	45.9	43.1	39.8	37.4
6 to 9	41 366	47 910	56 557	59 066	25.9	27.3	30.1	30.5
10 to 12	22 046	26 314	34 095	37 783	13.8	15.0	18.2	19.5
13 and over	23 043	25 636	22 426	24 361	14.4	14.6	11.9	12.6
Branch of activity	159 841	175 632	187 824	193 714	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Agriculture	37 227	39 540	39 424	39 789	23.3	22.5	21.0	20.5
Industry	26 911	28 738	29 564	29 065	16.8	16.4	15.7	15.0
Construction	9 499	12 119	12 057	12 284	5.9	6.9	6.4	6.3
Transport and communications	7 159	8 129	9 337	9 839	4.5	4.6	5.0	5.1
Commerce	27 747	31 211	34 824	36 968	17.4	17.8	18.5	19.1
Finance	4 581	7 359	8 273	8 932	2.9	4.2	4.4	4.6
Social services	30 325	31 042	35 084	36 695	19.0	17.7	18.7	18.9
Personal services	8 131	8 546	9 572	9 960	5.1	4.9	5.1	5.1
Domestic service	7 886	8 552	9 273	9 754	4.9	4.9	4.9	5.0
Unknown	374	395	418	429	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Size of establishment ^{b/} (employers and employees)	100 116	104 779	110 889	113 051	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1 to 5	26 538	27 849	33 495	34 621	30.7	30.2	31.9	32.3
6 to 10	9 242	9 163	11 479	11 687	10.7	9.9	10.9	10.9
11 to 49	28 267	29 972	31 121	31 572	32.7	32.5	29.6	29.4
50 and over	22 514	25 321	29 029	29 352	26.0	27.4	27.6	27.4
Unknown	13 554	12 474	5 764	5 818	-	-	-	-
Secondary workers ^{c/}	71 404	75 031	80 626	82 393	44.7	42.7	42.9	42.5

Source: ECLAC, based on estimates by the Population Division—Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) and special tabulations of data from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ Aged 15 years and over.

b/ By number of persons employed. Percentage breakdown excludes unknown category.

c/ Refers to employed persons whose income is lower than that of the main breadwinner.

Although the structure of employment by age group was characterized by a predominance of young persons throughout the decade, the upward trend in the average age of the workforce is clearly noticeable. This phenomenon is most evident in the increasing participation of employed persons aged between 45 and 59 years and in the steady decline in those between the ages of 15 and 24, whose number declined by almost 200,000 from 1997 to 1999.

As regards the educational level of the labour force, in 1999 over one third of the region's employed population –approximately 73 million people– had fewer than six years of schooling. A significant but slightly smaller group (31% of the employed population) was made up of persons who had completed between six and nine years of education. Thus, nearly 7 out of every 10 employed persons had fewer than 10 years of schooling and only 13% had gone on to higher education (more than 12 years).

Nevertheless, the employed population's educational level rose steadily throughout the 1990s, as shown by the decline in the percentage of those who had fewer than six years of schooling (46% to 37%) and in the rise in the percentage of those who had completed between 10 and 12 years of education (14% to 20%). The increase in this latter group was particularly marked in the second half of the decade. Indeed, between 1994 and 1999, 11.5 million people joined this category, filling 63% of the new jobs created during that period.

With regard to the sectoral structure of employment, by 1999 agriculture, commerce and the social services were the branches of economic activity in which the largest numbers of employed persons were concentrated, with each one accounting for approximately one fifth of all jobs. Of the three, agriculture continues to be the predominant activity, providing work for almost 40 million persons throughout the region. At the other end of the scale, financial, domestic and personal services are the sectors with the lowest participation; these three categories together account for approximately 15% of the employed population, a percentage similar to that of industry.

The slow growth (0.7% per annum) in demand for workers in agriculture (a sector which was unable to absorb the increased supply of labour in rural areas and thus encouraged migration) led to a steady fall in its share, to the benefit of other, faster-growing sectors of employment. The most noticeable of these is the sector comprising financial, insurance, real estate and business services, which practically doubled in size between 1990 and 1999, thanks to a growth of 12.6% per annum in the first four years of the decade, followed by increases of around 4% per annum in subsequent periods. Commerce, transport and communications are also among the sectors that generated the most jobs during the decade, providing work for 35% of newly employed persons in that period.

By contrast, employment in the agricultural sector came to a virtual standstill in the 1990s, as it grew at an average annual rate of less than 1%. The limited ability of agriculture to create new jobs largely explains the gradual abandonment of rural areas –mainly farmland– and the migration to urban areas, a phenomenon already noted as one of the demographic characteristics of the decade. Rural employment tended to diversify into sectors of activity other than agriculture, with substantial increases occurring in commerce (from 8.2% to 9.4%), industry (from 7.9% to 8.8%), construction (from 4.1% to 4.8%) and social services (from 8.6% to 9%).

All other occupations, including those concerned with the provision of social, personal and domestic services, showed more or less average growth, maintaining relatively stable participation rates. In urban areas, where these sectors are most prominent, the service industry displayed slightly stronger growth in recent years, particularly in the case of domestic service, which increased on average by 2.4% per annum.

About 66 million urban dwellers currently work in the informal or low-productivity sector, which accounts for around 48% of urban employment in Latin America. Given the strong correlation

between informality and precariousness in the labour market, these figures may be interpreted as an indication of the poor quality of employment in the region, which is usually related to factors such as job instability and lack of access to social security. Some 52% of the urban employed labour force –around 70 million people– are engaged in activities that fall within the scope of the informal sector (see table III.4).

As suggested by the growing proportion of low-productivity jobs, occupational instability increased in the 1990s. Since 1990, the percentage of informal employment in urban areas has climbed by over five percentage points (nearly 20 million individuals). In other words, seven out of every 10 persons joining the labour market during the decade did so in the in-

formal sector. The deteriorating quality of employment is further evidenced in the fact that the percentage of new jobs that were in the informal sector has been on the rise in recent years, having increased from 67.3% in the period 1990–1994 to 70.7% in the period 1997–1999.

The breakdown of the employed population among establishments of different sizes is relatively even. Each of the categories (micro-, medium-sized and large enterprises) provides work for about 30% of the employed labour force. The remaining 11% are employed at small establishments comprising between 6 and 10 persons. Over the decade, the largest increases occurred in establishments with fewer than 6 workers and in those employing more than 50. Between them, the two categories generated about 15

Table III.4

LATIN AMERICA: LABOUR-MARKET SEGMENTS IN URBAN AREAS ^{a/}				
	1990	1994	1997	1999
Number of employed persons (thousands)				
Total	107 581	120 886	130 996	136 626
Formal sector	61 318	65 668	68 810	70 462
Informal sector	46 264	55 218	62 185	66 164
Percentage breakdown				
Formal sector	57.0	54.3	52.5	51.6
Informal sector	43.0	45.7	47.5	48.4
Absorption of new jobs (percentages)				
	1990–1994	1994–1997	1997–1999	1990–1999
Formal sector	32.7	31.1	29.3	31.5
Informal sector	67.3	68.9	70.7	68.5

Source: ECLAC, based on special tabulations of data from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ Informal or low-productivity employment includes persons working in microenterprises (establishments of up to five persons), domestic service workers, unskilled own-account workers and unpaid family workers.

million new jobs during the decade, which is equivalent to 72% of new employers and wage earners who found work.

Another interesting feature of the region's occupational structure is that four out of every 10 employed persons (over 82 million individuals) are secondary workers, i.e., persons whose income is less than that of the main breadwinner in the household. This means that a significant share of households manage to increase their occupational density by having more than one member participating in the labour market. Nevertheless, although the number of secondary workers rose by almost 11 million persons during the decade, they represent an increasingly small share of the total employed labour force, having fallen by a little over two percentage points. Between 1997 and 1999, secondary workers took up 30% of all new jobs.

In regard to the goal of gender equity in the labour market, some notable advances were made during the decade, while some disparities remain which still pose a major challenge. The growing share of women seeking to enter the labour market is a sign of their increased determination to participate as well as of society's recognition of the importance of affording both sexes the same opportunities for work. In 1990, female participation in the labour force stood at 38%, which meant that of a total of 140 million women of working age, only 53 million had entered or intended to enter the labour market. By contrast, in 1999, the economically active population included almost 73 million women, representing a participation rate of 42% (see table III.2).

Nevertheless, this increase in the female labour force in the 1990s was not a clear-cut gain, given that some positive aspects were accompanied by a relative decline in gender equity. The female employment rate (measured as a percentage of the working-age population) increased by 1.3 percentage points between 1990 and 1999, while the male employment rate fell by 3.6 percentage points. Thus, the percentage of women of working age who enter the labour market rose steadily. However, the rise in female employment was insufficient to accommo-

date the rapid growth of the economically active female population, and this has led to increasingly higher unemployment rates and ever widening gaps with respect to male unemployment. While the female EAP grew at an annual rate of 3.6%, women's employment increased at only 2.8%. Female unemployment thus rose from 5.1% to 11.2% during the decade, and the spread of 0.8 percentage point between female and male unemployment rates in 1990 turned into a gap of 4 percentage points nine years later.

The breakdown of female employment by category shows some variations, although in many cases they are not significant. There are, however, some major differences, as for example with regard to educational levels, where the figures show that the female employed population had more years of schooling than the male employed population. In fact, 39% of employed women had completed more than 10 years of schooling while only 29% of employed men had. Also noteworthy in this connection is the rapid growth in the female share of the employed labour force with 13 or more years of schooling (see table III.5).

Some branches of activity are associated with one sex in particular. This is the case in the construction, transport and telecommunications sectors, where the male labour force share accounts for 90% of all jobs. Although to a lesser extent, men hold 80% of jobs in agriculture and 71% in industry. The only predominantly female occupation is domestic service, where just under 8 million out of almost 10 million people working in that sector are women.

However, some occupations showed a trend towards feminization during the 1990s. Such is the case with agriculture, where the participation of the female labour force increased by more than five percentage points between 1990 and 1994, and in commerce, where the share of women in 1999 was almost three points higher than in 1990. Both this latter category and the social services category play a major role in women's employment, since they each employ around one fourth of the region's female labour force.

Table III.5

LATIN AMERICA: STRUCTURE OF FEMALE EMPLOYMENT ^{a/}												
<i>(In percentages)</i>												
Description	National total				Urban areas				Rural areas			
	1990	1994	1997	1999	1990	1994	1997	1999	1990	1994	1997	1999
Employed persons												
Age (in years)	31.5	32.4	33.1	33.4	34.4	35.0	35.6	35.9	24.2	25.4	25.8	26.2
15 – 24	31.9	31.8	32.1	32.3	36.3	35.6	35.5	35.9	23.4	24.0	24.6	24.4
25 – 44	33.6	34.2	35.0	35.1	35.9	36.3	37.0	37.1	26.6	26.9	27.8	27.7
45 – 59	28.1	31.0	31.9	33.1	30.4	32.7	34.2	34.8	22.1	26.1	24.7	27.3
60 and over	21.6	25.6	25.8	26.3	23.8	27.7	27.7	28.0	18.5	22.6	23.0	23.8
Years of schooling	31.5	32.4	33.1	33.4	34.4	35.0	35.6	35.9	24.2	25.4	25.8	26.2
0 to 5	28.0	29.8	30.1	30.3	31.6	33.1	33.6	33.6	23.7	25.5	25.6	26.1
6 to 9	30.3	30.6	31.1	31.0	32.6	32.9	32.8	32.8	22.4	22.8	24.5	24.6
10 to 12	39.8	38.9	38.0	38.1	40.3	39.4	38.6	38.8	35.0	33.4	31.1	31.0
13 and over	36.7	37.0	40.8	41.1	36.9	37.2	41.2	41.6	32.2	31.4	32.4	31.9
Branch of activity	31.5	32.4	33.1	33.4	34.4	35.0	35.6	35.9	24.2	25.4	25.8	26.2
Agriculture	14.1	20.5	19.2	19.9	10.2	22.5	19.1	19.2	15.1	20.0	19.2	20.1
Industry	28.1	27.1	28.3	28.9	26.6	26.4	27.2	28.2	37.3	31.1	35.2	33.0
Construction	2.8	2.8	2.4	3.2	3.1	3.0	2.8	3.3	1.4	2.2	1.0	2.7
Transport and communications	8.0	7.6	8.2	8.8	8.5	7.9	8.7	9.0	4.9	5.1	4.4	6.3
Commerce	38.3	38.5	40.9	41.2	37.0	38.1	40.3	40.8	46.5	40.8	45.2	44.6
Finance	34.2	33.1	32.5	32.6	34.8	33.6	32.8	33.0	21.7	19.5	24.9	21.7
Social services	47.6	48.5	48.3	46.9	47.2	48.6	48.5	47.2	50.2	48.0	46.6	44.6
Personal services	42.1	41.0	39.8	39.6	39.7	39.1	38.6	38.4	60.4	60.5	53.6	51.9
Domestic services	82.9	81.5	79.4	79.0	83.4	81.8	79.7	79.6	79.4	79.5	76.3	72.9
Unknown	21.3	23.3	28.0	26.0	23.3	27.4	28.4	27.9	10.0	5.1	23.7	9.5
Size of establishment ^{b/}	31.1	30.9	31.8	31.8	33.5	34.3	34.9	35.1	21.2	13.5	14.0	11.9
1 – 5	39.3	37.6	37.8	37.9	43.7	43.7	42.7	43.1	24.8	15.6	16.5	13.7
6 – 10	23.5	22.4	24.7	24.3	25.9	25.7	27.5	27.1	12.4	7.2	9.0	6.0
11 – 49	24.5	25.3	26.1	26.3	25.8	27.0	27.7	28.1	15.9	11.0	11.7	9.5
50 and over	38.2	37.1	38.2	37.7	38.5	38.8	39.7	39.4	36.6	24.7	23.7	21.5
Unknown	22.6	22.7	8.8	10.3	27.7	29.6	12.8	15.6	12.6	5.6	4.7	4.5
Secondary workers ^{c/}	50.2	52.7	54.3	54.8	56.9	57.9	57.4	57.9	37.1	40.3	46.3	46.9

Source: ECLAC, based on estimates by the Population Division–Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) and special tabulations of data from household surveys in the countries concerned.

^{a/} Covers persons aged 15 years and over.

^{b/} By number of persons employed. Includes only employers and employees.

^{c/} Refers to employed persons whose income is lower than that of the main breadwinner.

B. UNEMPLOYMENT IN LATIN AMERICA DURING THE 1990S: SCALE, TRENDS AND PATTERNS

The growth of open unemployment in Latin America during the 1990s is one of the most disturbing results of the current performance of the labour market, given its serious effect on the situation with regard to poverty and inequality in income distribution. The ever-increasing dissociation between economic growth and unemployment levels in the countries suggests that unemployment is caused not only by circumstantial factors but also by structural factors linked to the rapid adoption of new technologies. The adverse effect of unemployment on well-being has been aggravated owing to the growth of the population strata affected, the increased duration of episodes of unemployment –with the resulting decrease in household assets– and the loss of wages suffered by workers who find jobs after a period of unemployment.

Employment is the main link between economic growth and social development. The labour force is the basic factor of production, its utilization is the main source of household income, and work is a source of personal satisfaction. In *Equity, Development and Citizenship*, ECLAC points out that the creation of productive employment is in itself a goal and a prerequisite for growth with equity (ECLAC, 2000). A significant element of social inequality, which is reflected in the inequitable distribution of income that characterizes the region, is transmitted through the organization and functioning of the labour market, where levels of employment, unemployment and underemployment of the labour force, as well as the pay and income that people receive, are determined.

Under the comprehensive approach to development advocated by ECLAC, the State has a key role to play in regard to employment, not only in terms of acting to promote the development of human resources and maximize their potential through the full utilization of the labour force, the expansion of markets, investment and technological development, but also by means of emergency job creation and implementation of policies designed to protect the population groups hit by open unemployment who find themselves in crisis situations.

High and stable economic growth is crucial, although not sufficient in itself, to the improvement of the level and quality of employment. ECLAC has estimated that sustained rates of GDP growth of around 6% per

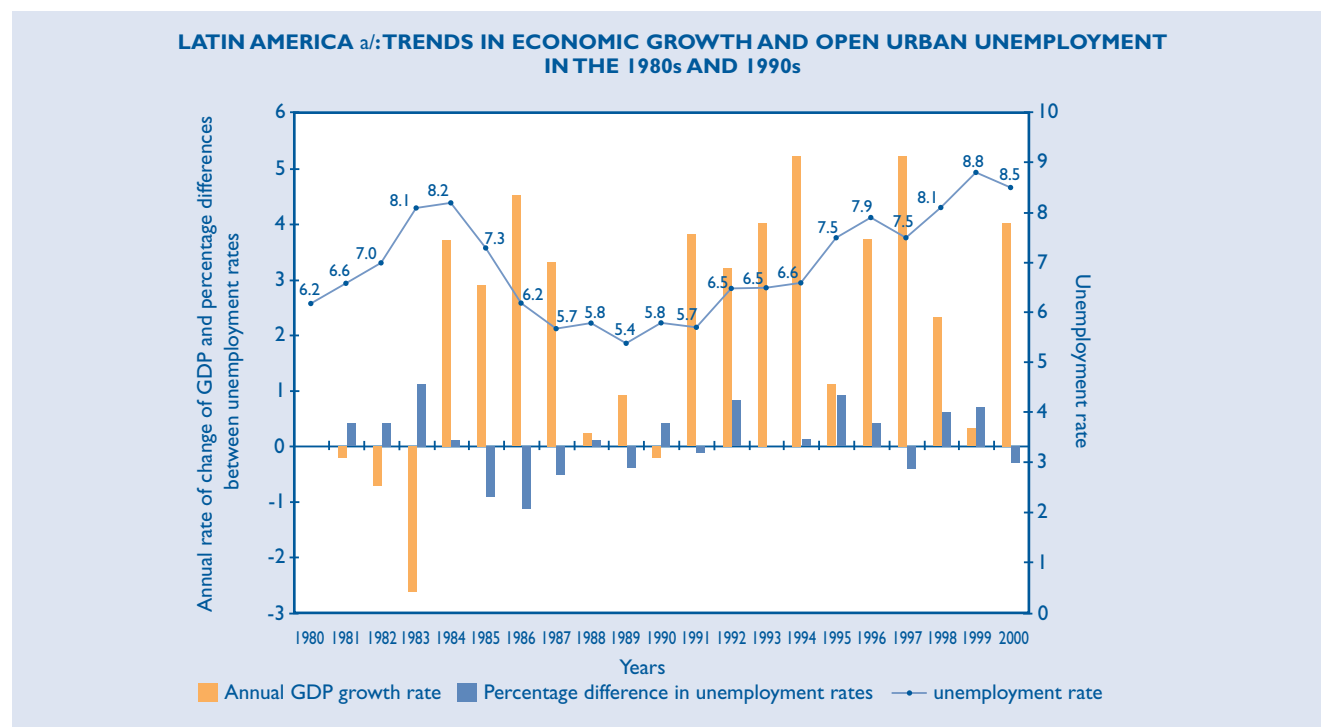
annum are required in order to achieve simultaneous and sustainable advances in employment, technology absorption and equity. The inadequacy of economic growth in the region (3.2% on average in the period 1991–2000) and its increasing volatility,¹ together with the rapid expansion of the workforce (2.6% per annum between 1990 and 1999) and the slowdown in the growth of employment (2.2% per annum), led to rising and persistent unemployment, which was accentuated by the crisis that began in late 1998. By the year 2000, just under 9% of the economically active population were unemployed.

This section provides information on the scale, trends and pattern of the high rate of unemployment which in most of the countries has hit the lower-income strata the hardest and is also increasingly affecting the middle-income strata as well. More and more, unemployment has affected social well-being and has influenced the chronic inequality in income distribution in the region.

1. TRENDS IN UNEMPLOYMENT AND ITS RELATIONSHIP WITH ECONOMIC GROWTH

Open urban unemployment has shown a clearly upward trend throughout the region. As shown in figure III.4, after the substantial drop in unemployment rates which followed the recovery of growth in the period subsequent to the debt crisis of the early 1980s, the rates again rose steadily in the region beginning in 1991, with only two minor dips: a fall in 1997 (from 7.9% to 7.5%) as a result of the high GDP growth rate attained that year in most countries in the region, and the decline (from 8.8% to 8.5%) observed in 2000, which was linked to the recovery of growth in the countries that had been most affected since late 1998 by the Asian and Russian crises.

Figure III.4



Source: ECLAC, based on official figures provided by the countries.

a/ Economic growth figures refer to the weighted average for 19 countries in the region; unemployment figures refer to 22 countries.

¹ The coefficient of variation in annual GDP growth rates was 1.14 for the period 1991–1999, whereas for the period 1991–1997 it was 0.74.

This trend highlights the persistent structural mismatch between labour supply and demand with which the Latin American countries are faced. Overall, this led to an absolute increase of 10.5 million unemployed persons (from 7.6 to 18.1 million). Practically all of this increase was related to the loss of jobs (lay-offs), since the share of unemployed persons seeking work for the first time within total unemployment figures was small. Of the 18.1 persons who were unemployed in 1999, 2.7 million were seeking work for the first time (see table III.6).

the countries, as economic slumps increasingly tend to be manifested in job destruction and sagging labour demand rather than in real wage reductions.

It has also been argued that the persistence of high unemployment rates after the crisis is due to asymmetry in the processes of job destruction and creation in the recessionary and recovery phases of the economic cycle. According to this interpretation, the gap between the growth rates for output and unemployment stems from the fact that

Table III.6

LATIN AMERICA: LEVEL AND COMPOSITION OF UNEMPLOYMENT, BY AREA, 1990–1999			
	Persons (thousands)		Annual rate of change (percentage)
	1990	1999	1990–1999
Unemployed persons	7 643	18 118	10.1
Urban areas	6 600	17 457	11.4
Rural areas	1 043	661	-4.9
Laid-off workers	5 932	15 391	11.2
Urban areas	5 225	15 204	12.6
Rural areas	708	186	-13.8
Seeking work for the first time	1 711	2 728	5.3
Urban areas	1 376	2 253	5.6
Rural areas	335	475	3.9

Source: ECLAC, based on estimates by the Population Division–Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) and special tabulations of data from household surveys in the countries concerned.

Several explanations have been put forward to explain the high level of unemployment in most countries of the region and its persistence despite the recovery in economic growth in the year 2000.

In the first place, it has been argued that a large part, if not all, of the unemployment recorded in 1999 stems from the impact of the crisis that began in 1998 and from the downturn in economic activity in the countries that were hit the hardest. It is argued that the rapid increase in unemployment which the decline in economic activity brought about stems partly from the fact that wage reductions are beginning to decline in importance as a primary adjustment factor for the labour market, owing to the low and decreasing levels of inflation in most of

pre-crisis GDP levels are restored more rapidly, so that the resulting lag in job creation keeps unemployment rates up for a longer period of time. If the growth rate of GDP in the economies most affected by the recession picks up, unemployment rates would revert to pre-crisis levels.

However, unemployment was already high prior to the crisis and had been rising from the early 1990s onward. As shown in figure III.4, the unemployment rate has tended to increase since 1991, even in periods of higher growth. This indicates that, in most of the countries, the supply of jobs has proved to be insufficient to absorb the economically active population (EAP). A simple estimate for recent years shows that, if the same annual employment growth

rate prevalent in the region between 1990 and 1994 (2.4%) had been maintained as from 1997, unemployment in 1999 would have been around 7.1%, i.e., 1.9 percentage points above the average unemployment rate of 5.2% which prevailed in the first four years of the decade (estimate based on the employment and unemployment figures presented in table III.1). Given that unemployment in 1999 stood at 8.8%, only about half the increase for the period analysed can be attributed primarily to the slowdown in growth in the region since 1998.

This structural mismatch between labour supply and demand is said to be attributable to the reduction of the State's role in direct job creation and to the restructuring of the production system, which is said to have led to a downward trend in employment–output elasticity in the primary and secondary sectors. These sectors' share in total employment has shrunk, with job creation tending to become concentrated in tertiary activities.² However, the progressive technology–intensive modernization of some subsectors (financial establishments, telecommunications, insurance and business services) would appear to portend an increasingly limited job–creation capacity.

A look at unemployment over the past decade shows that although the increase was not spread evenly across the region, it affected most of the South American countries. In Argentina, Brazil and Colombia (the three largest South American countries), unemployment climbed steadily throughout the decade, although unemployment levels in Brazil were equivalent to half those recorded in the other two coun-

tries. An upward trend in unemployment was also observed in Bolivia, Chile, Ecuador, Paraguay, Uruguay and Venezuela, although in the case of Chile, the increase occurred only from 1998 onward, after having fallen consistently from the beginning of the decade until that year.

In Mexico and most of the Central American countries, on the other hand, unemployment trended downward. Mexico posted a marked reduction in urban unemployment in the wake of the 1995 crisis, reverting to rates of around 2.5%. In the Central American countries, unemployment either declined (El Salvador, Honduras and Nicaragua) or remained at fairly moderate levels (Costa Rica). This trend also predominated in the Caribbean island countries (Barbados, Cuba, Dominican Republic and Trinidad and Tobago), although unemployment levels in these nations (with the exception of Cuba) held steady at higher levels –around 10% or more– than was the case in Central America. Only in Jamaica did unemployment fail to drop significantly, as it ranged between 15% and 16% throughout the decade (see figure III.5).

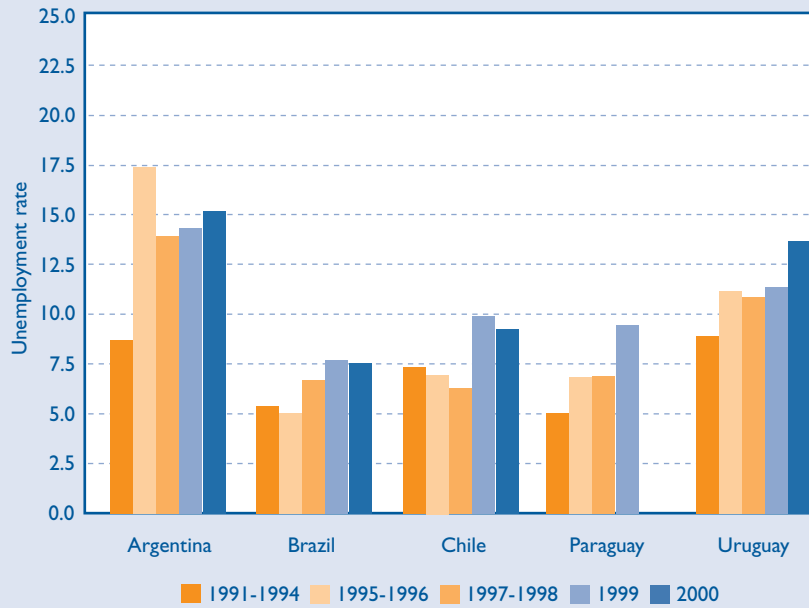
The current high level of unemployment in the region is likely to persist, given that forecasts project a growth rate of around 2% in the year 2001 (ECLAC, 2001a), which represents a substantial decline in relation to the level of just over 4% attained in 2000. In addition, there are signs of the persistence of a structural factor in unemployment and a slowdown in the recovery of unemployment levels following periods of declining growth.

² Of approximately 34 million jobs created between 1900 and 1999, 68% (about 23 million) were in transport and communications, commerce, finance and social services. The figure rises to around 78% (a little over 26 million jobs) when personal and household services, including domestic service, are included.

Figure III.5

**LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (21 COUNTRIES): URBAN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES
1991–1994, 1995–1996, 1997–1998, 1999 AND 2000**

Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Paraguay and Uruguay



Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru and Venezuela

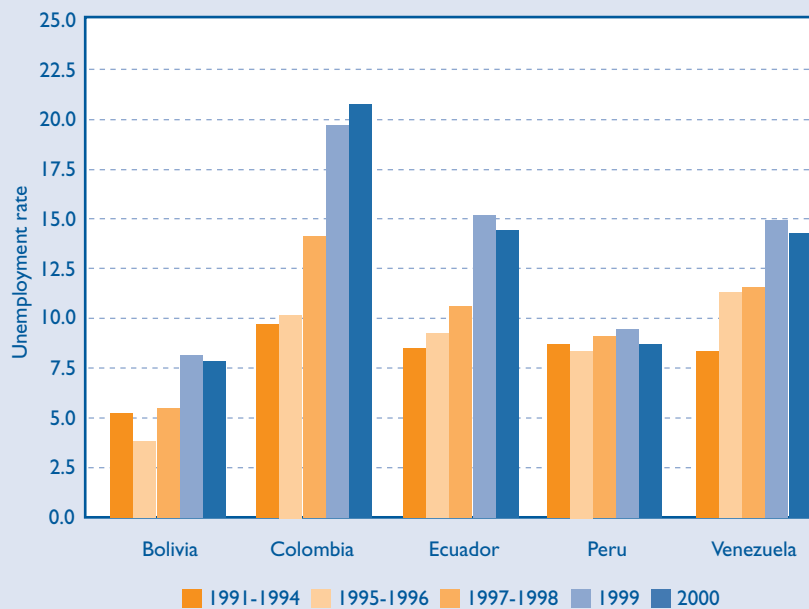
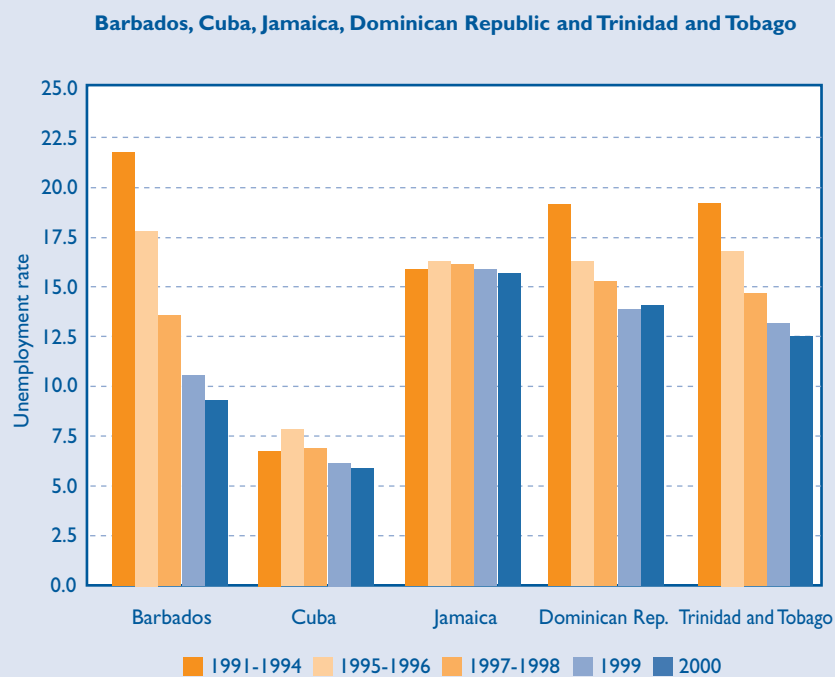
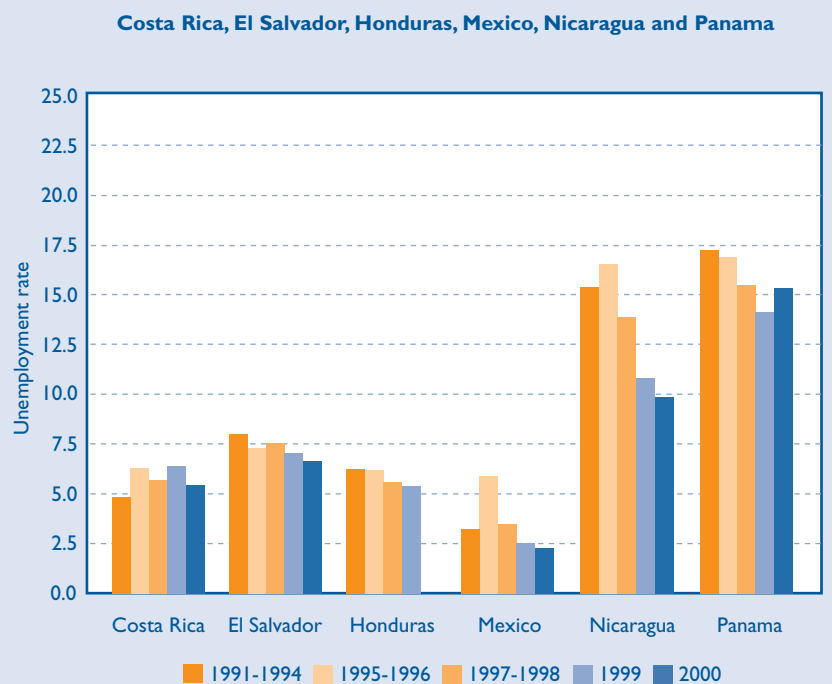


Figure III.5 (concluded)

**LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (21 COUNTRIES): URBAN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES
1991-1994, 1995-1996, 1997-1998, 1999 AND 2000**



Source: ECLAC, based on official figures provided by the countries. See table III.7.

Table III.7

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (22 COUNTRIES): URBAN UNEMPLOYMENT											
(Mean annual rates)											
Country	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000 a/
Latin America and the Caribbean											
Weighted average	5.8	5.7	6.5	6.5	6.6	7.5	7.9	7.5	8.1	8.8	8.5
Simple average	9.5	9.6	9.8	10.0	9.5	10.1	10.5	9.9	9.7	10.6	10.8
Argentina b/	7.4	6.5	7.0	9.6	11.5	17.5	17.2	14.9	12.9	14.3	15.1
Barbados c/	14.7	17.3	23.0	24.3	21.9	19.7	15.6	14.5	12.3	10.4	9.2
Bolivia b/	7.3	5.8	5.4	5.8	3.1	3.6	3.8	4.4	6.1	8.0	7.6
Brazil b/	4.3	4.8	5.8	5.4	5.1	4.6	5.4	5.7	7.6	7.6	7.1
Chile d/	9.2	8.2	6.7	6.5	7.8	7.4	6.4	6.1	6.4	9.8	9.2
Colombia b/ e/	10.5	10.2	10.2	8.6	8.9	8.8	11.2	12.4	15.3	19.4	20.2
Costa Rica	5.4	6.0	4.3	4.0	4.3	5.7	6.6	5.9	5.4	6.2	5.3
Cuba c/	...	7.7	6.1	6.2	6.7	7.9	7.6	7.0	6.6	6.0	5.5
Ecuador e/	6.1	7.7	8.9	8.9	7.8	7.7	10.4	9.3	11.5	15.1	14.1
El Salvador	10.0	7.9	8.2	8.1	7.0	7.0	7.5	7.5	7.6	6.9	6.5
Guatemala	6.0	4.2	1.6	2.6	3.5	3.9	5.2	5.1	3.8
Honduras c/	7.8	7.4	6.0	7.0	4.0	5.6	6.5	5.8	5.2	5.3	...
Jamaica c/	15.3	15.4	15.7	16.3	15.4	16.2	16.0	16.5	15.5	15.7	15.5
Mexico	2.7	2.7	2.8	3.4	3.7	6.2	5.5	3.7	3.2	2.5	2.2
Nicaragua	7.6	11.5	14.4	17.8	17.1	16.9	16.0	14.3	13.2	10.7	9.8
Panama d/ e/	20.0	19.3	17.5	15.6	16.0	16.6	16.9	15.5	15.2	14.0	15.2
Paraguay	6.6	5.1	5.3	5.1	4.4	5.3	8.2	7.1	6.6	9.4	10.7
Peru f/	8.3	5.9	9.4	9.9	8.8	8.2	8.0	9.2	8.5	9.2	8.5
Dominican Republic c/ e/	...	19.6	20.3	19.9	16.0	15.8	16.5	15.9	14.3	13.8	13.9
Trinidad and Tobago c/ e/	20.1	18.5	19.6	19.8	18.4	17.2	16.2	15.0	14.2	13.1	12.5
Uruguay f/	9.2	8.9	9.0	8.3	9.2	10.3	11.9	11.5	10.1	11.3	13.6
Venezuela	11.0	9.5	7.8	6.6	8.7	10.3	11.8	11.4	11.3	14.9	14.0

Source: ECLAC, *Statistical Yearbook for Latin America and the Caribbean, 2000* (LC/G.21 I8–P), Santiago, Chile, 2001. United Nations publication, Sales No. E.00.II.G.1; and *Economic Survey of Latin America and the Caribbean, 2000–2001. Current Conditions and Outlook* (LC/G.2142–P), Santiago, Chile, August 2001. United Nations publication, Sales No. E.01.II.G.121.

a/ Preliminary figures.

b/ Main urban areas.

c/ Nationwide.

d/ Metropolitan region.

e/ Includes hidden unemployment.

f/ Capital city.

The increased volatility of growth, combined with the vulnerability of the middle- and low-income strata during periods of job destruction and slow recovery of employment levels, underscores the need to develop mechanisms to guard against this risk.

In the following section, we take a look at the characteristics of the unemployed population and the changes that occurred during the course of the decade. The significance of the longer duration of episodes of unemployment and the impact of the resulting wage losses are also discussed.

2. CHARACTERISTICS OF THE UNEMPLOYED POPULATION AND AVERAGE DURATION OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Unemployment has become increasingly significant as one a factor standing in the way of improvements both in social well-being and in income distribution. Unemployment continues to be disproportionately high in lower-income strata. As shown in table III.8, both in the 17 Latin American countries together and in the group of eight countries which posted a greater increase in unemployment between the middle and end of the 1990s (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Paraguay, Uruguay and Venezuela), the percentage of unemployed persons among the poorest 40% of the population (first and second quintiles) was still much higher than the

overall unemployment rate and rose significantly between 1994 and 1999. Consequently, this phenomenon remains one of the main determinants of poverty and inequality.

In the second place, the middle-income sectors were increasingly affected. Among the 40% of households (third and fourth quintiles) above the poorest 40%, unemployment levels climbed in the region as a whole, but especially in the eight countries most affected by the crisis, during the second half of the 1990s (see table III.8). The increase in urban unemployment even touched the population in the richest quintile; by the end of the decade, the middle- and high-income strata posted unemployment rates that were twice –and in some countries three times– the mid-decade levels.

accounted for nearly half the total number of unemployed persons. Between 1994 and 1999, the level of youth unemployment for the region as a whole increased from 14% to 20%, while in the eight countries most affected by the phenomenon, the figure stood at 24.8%. In those countries, the share of this group within the total urban unemployed population fell slightly, owing to the increase in lay-offs among the primary labour force as a result of job destruction.

Finally, the differences between female and male unemployment became more pronounced. In the urban areas of 17 countries in the region, female unemployment rose from 7.7% to 12.3% on average, while the male unemployment rate rose from 6.7% to 9.4%. In the eight countries most affected, these differences rose even more, to the detriment of women.

Table III.8

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES) AND COUNTRIES WITH SHARPLY RISING UNEMPLOYMENT: a/				
URBAN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES, 1994–1999				
	Latin America		Countries with sharply rising unemployment	
	1994	1999	1994	1999
Unemployment rate:				
Both sexes	7.1	10.6	6.6	13.1
Males	6.7	9.4	5.8	11.3
Females	7.7	12.3	7.8	15.5
15–24 years	14.0	20.0	14.0	24.8
First quintile (20% lowest-income bracket)	14.8	22.3	15.8	27.8
Second quintile	8.1	12.7	8.3	15.6
Third quintile	5.6	9.4	5.5	11.2
Fourth quintile	3.9	6.5	3.7	8.0
Fifth quintile (20% highest-income bracket)	2.3	4.3	2.0	4.6

Source: ECLAC, special tabulations of data from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ Includes countries with rising unemployment rates during the period, of nearly or more than 10% (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Paraguay, Uruguay and Venezuela).

Unemployment is especially prevalent among young people (aged 15 to 24 years), who account for between a quarter and a fifth of the Latin American workforce. Up until the Asian crisis, unemployment among this group was almost double the regional average and, in most of the countries, young people

The impact of unemployment on the well-being of the different groups affected is linked not only to the incidence of the phenomenon (unemployment levels) but also to the average duration of episodes of unemployment and to wage losses suffered by those who do find jobs again (see figure III.6). In economies

with open unemployment rates that are way above levels considered normal –levels associated with frictional unemployment– prolonged unemployment has a significant negative impact on the individuals affected (owing to loss of human capital and to re–employment at lower wages), on the well–being of the members of the family unit (liquidation of assets, child labour and school drop–out) and on the economy as a whole (lowering of the mean wage level, decline in the demand for goods and resulting recessionary effects).

months on average and slightly more in the case of women (from 4.7 to 5.7 months). The fact that the period of joblessness increased to the same extent (around one month) among heads of household as among non–heads of household seems to indicate that their inability to find employment was mainly due to a shortage of jobs. Given the importance of the contribution of heads of household to the household budget, their reserve wage –the level of pay at which they are prepared to take a job– is lower precisely because of their greater sense of urgency

Figure III.6



Source: ECLAC, based on special tabulations of data from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ Excludes laid–off workers who have been seeking work for more than two years.

In periods of rising unemployment, the duration of episodes of unemployment normally tends to lengthen, with the outcomes described above. The available data for six countries in which unemployment nearly doubled indicate that the average duration of unemployment³ lengthened from 4.4 to 5.3

about the need to minimize the duration of unemployment.

Although the reserve wage should account for many of the marked differences in the mean duration of unemployment among unemployed persons with

³ Not all household surveys in the countries of the region gather information on the duration of unemployment, and the available data for 11 of them record the time elapsed from the beginning of an episode of unemployment to the date on which the data were collected. This measurement refers to the time spent seeking work and not to the total duration of a period of unemployment, which lasts until the end of the unemployment situation.

different levels of educational attainment, the greater increase in the duration of joblessness among less skilled workers also seems to reflect the problems of job vacancies and job destruction that currently affect the region's economies. In the 11 countries for which details are available, as well as in the six countries that recorded a greater increase in unemployment (see

table III.9 and figure III.7), the period of joblessness among more highly skilled workers far exceeds that of less skilled ones. However, the mean duration of episodes of unemployment between 1994 and 1999 increased more among unemployed persons with less than 10 years of schooling.

Table III.9

LATIN AMERICA (11 COUNTRIES): TIME SPENT SEEKING WORK ^{a/} BY PERSONS WHO HAVE LOST THEIR JOBS (In months)												
Country	Year	Overall unemployment rate	Average length of job search (in months)									
			Total	Males	Females	Heads of household	Non-heads of household	Number of years of schooling				
							0 to 5	6 to 9	10 to 12	13 to 16	17 and over	
Argentina ^{b/}	1990	5.9	4.4	4.3	4.5	4.0	4.5	3.0	4.0	5.5	6.3	
	1999	14.7	4.9	3.8	6.2	4.5	5.1	3.7	4.7	4.6	6.4	6.5
Bolivia	1994	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.1	3.7	2.8	2.1	2.9	2.5	4.5	6.1
	1999	7.1	3.9	3.7	4.2	3.9	4.0	3.5	2.9	3.9	5.1	7.5
Colombia	1994	8.0	5.9	5.6	6.1	6.0	5.9	5.0	5.5	6.5	7.3	14.3
	1999	19.2	8.2	7.9	8.5	8.0	8.3	7.6	7.7	8.5	9.9	8.0
Ecuador	1994	7.1	4.6	4.1	5.1	3.8	4.8	4.0	3.1	5.1	6.6	6.9
	1999	14.2	5.3	5.4	5.2	5.1	5.4	5.0	4.5	5.8	6.7	6.4
El Salvador	1999	6.9	1.9	1.8	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.3	1.5	2.1	2.2	4.8
Guatemala	1989	3.5	3.3	3.4	3.0	4.2	2.9	2.0	3.0	4.3	7.4	...
	1998	2.8	2.2	2.3	2.1	1.3	2.6	0.9	1.9	3.7	2.2	1.6
Nicaragua	1993	14.1	4.7	5.1	3.9	5.2	4.5	3.9	4.8	5.9	5.6	8.2
	1998	13.8	2.1	2.7	1.3	3.2	1.4	2.7	1.6	2.0	1.6	11.5
Panama	1991	18.6	7.7	6.9	8.6	8.0	7.6	6.8	6.7	7.8	9.8	11.1
	1999	13.1	6.3	5.6	7.2	5.8	6.5	3.3	6.0	6.4	7.7	8.2
Paraguay	1999	9.1	3.7	4.1	3.1	3.4	3.8	2.5	3.3	5.3	4.8	6.8
Uruguay	1992	8.4	5.5	4.9	6.0	5.1	5.5	3.9	4.9	7.0	7.4	4.5
	1999	11.2	6.2	5.8	6.6	6.1	6.3	6.2	6.0	6.7	6.5	6.7
Venezuela ^{c/ d/}	1994	8.4	3.0	2.9	3.2	2.9	3.1	3.1	2.9	3.3	3.3	2.8
	1999	14.5	3.3	3.1	3.7	3.1	3.3	2.8	3.1	3.7	3.9	4.1
Latin America ^{e/}	1994	8.6	4.7	4.5	4.8	4.8	4.6	3.8	4.2	5.3	6.5	7.7
	1999	12.3	4.7	4.5	5.0	4.6	4.8	4.0	4.3	5.0	5.6	6.7
Simple average (6 countries) ^{f/}	1994	6.8	4.4	4.2	4.7	4.3	4.4	3.5	3.9	5.0	5.8	6.9
	1999	13.5	5.3	5.0	5.7	5.1	5.4	4.8	4.8	5.5	6.4	6.5

Source: ECLAC, based on special tabulations of data from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ Excludes laid-off workers who have been seeking work for more than two years.

b/ Greater Buenos Aires.

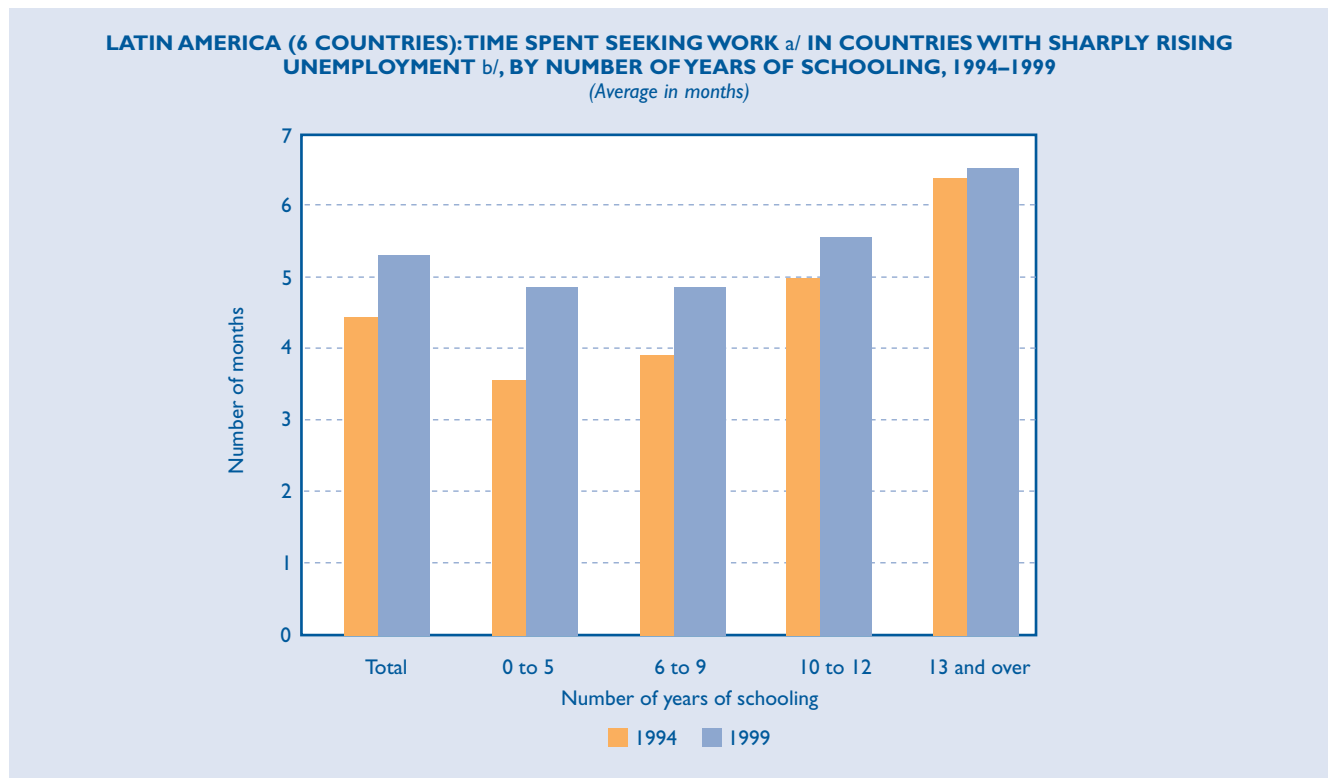
c/ Indicates the time the respondent has been out of work, not the time spent seeking work.

d/ National total.

e/ Simple average for nine countries.

f/ Countries where open urban unemployment rose during the period concerned (Argentina, Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Uruguay y Venezuela).

Figure III.7



Source: ECLAC, based on special tabulations of data from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ Refers to time spent seeking work by persons who have lost their jobs (laid-off workers). Excludes those stating that they have been seeking work for more than two years.

b/ Countries where open urban unemployment rose during the period (Argentina, Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Uruguay and Venezuela).

Finally, reference should be made to the possible role played by income reductions among workers re-joining the workforce, which may be functioning as a secondary adjustment mechanism in labour markets where regulations and procedures regarding the hiring and firing of workers are increasingly being loosened. Although the data are incomplete, the findings obtained in a recent ECLAC study on Uruguay are significant because they illustrate what happens

in urban markets in which high levels of temporary recruitment and relatively high and persistent rates of unemployment prevail. The study led to the conclusion that income reductions suffered by private-sector wage earners aged between 23 and 59 years who found jobs after having been out of work represented between 23% and 34% of the previous wage (see box III.2).

WAGE LOSSES LINKED TO UNEMPLOYMENT

The high and rising levels of unemployment in the region during the 1990s and their persistence over the last biennium have heightened concern about the impact which this phenomenon has on social well-being. Although there is evidence of the longer average duration of periods of joblessness that accompany rises in unemployment, no details are available on the effect of unemployment on the wages received by workers once they re-enter the labour market.

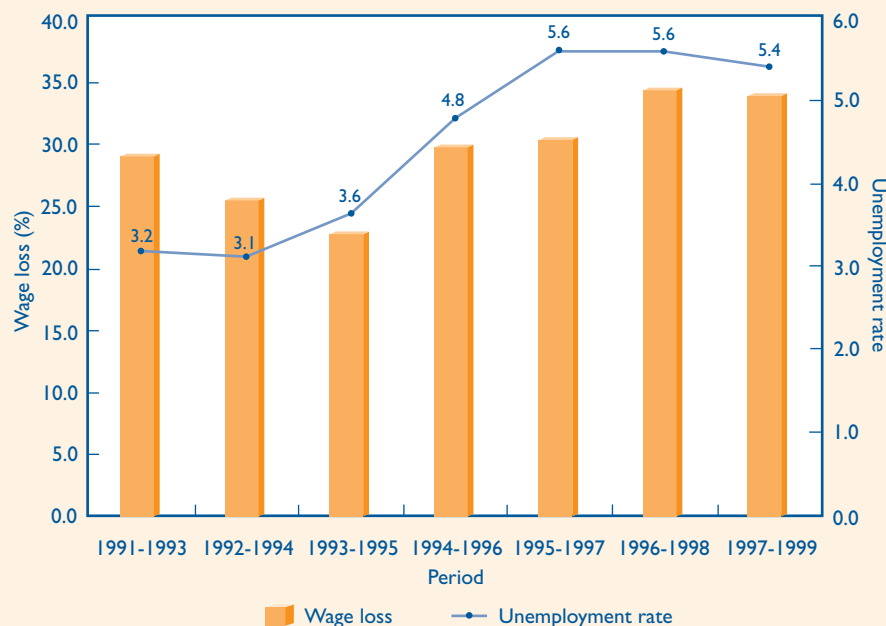
The problems arising from unemployment are therefore not limited to the present situation of unemployed persons but also extend to their prospects for future employment. Not surprisingly, when unemployment rates are high, people become apprehensive not only about their prospects of finding another job and how long this will take, but also about whether they might have to accept lower-quality employment, possibly including lower hourly wages, longer hours, less job stability or reduced social security coverage.

The data gathered for developed countries indicate that when changes in production patterns and technology are accompanied by reforms in the regulatory frameworks that affect the demand for labour, wage earners who have lost their jobs suffer income reductions when they find employment again, basically for three reasons. The first is the difficulty of finding new employment as wage earners, as a result of which some turn to own-account work, where they usually earn less per hour. Secondly, those who do find employment again as wage earners often work fewer hours than they did in their previous jobs, with the resulting reduction in their monthly income. Finally, even those who find full-time jobs often earn lower hourly wages than they did in their previous jobs, and this income reduction tends to continue over time. Consequently, episodes of unemployment—aggravated by their duration—can significantly reduce the income and well-being of workers and their families for longer periods than just the period of unemployment.

In the case of the Latin American countries, however, no reliable data are available on the occupational earnings obtained by unemployed persons once they find employment again. A pioneer study conducted by ECLAC for Uruguay (ECLAC, 2001b) provides evidence of substantial wage losses in situations of rising unemployment.

The study, which was based on information from the *Encuesta Continua de Hogares* (ongoing household survey) for the years 1991 to 1999, produced estimates of wage losses in the seven rolling trienniums of the decade (1991–1993 to 1997–1999) experienced by male private-sector wage earners aged between 23 and 59 years who were not in the educational system and who resided in Montevideo.

URUGUAY (MONTEVIDEO): WAGE LOSSES AND UNEMPLOYMENT RATES AMONG MALE PRIVATE-SECTOR WAGE EARNERS AGED BETWEEN 23 AND 59 YEARS WHO WERE NOT IN SCHOOL, 1991–1999



Source: ECLAC, Impacto del desempleo sobre el salario. Una estimación de la pérdida salarial para Uruguay (LC/MVD/R.188.Rev.1), Montevideo, ECLAC office in Montevideo, June 2001.

WAGE LOSSES LINKED TO UNEMPLOYMENT

To estimate these losses, the hourly earnings received by wage earners who had experienced an episode of unemployment during the year preceding the survey, irrespective of their previous employment category (wage earner or own-account worker), were compared with those of wage earners having similar characteristics (education, duration of employment, activity sector and occupation) who had not been unemployed. The results were obtained on the basis of an adjusted wage equation (1) to which a binary variable (*des*) was added to reflect the occurrence or non-occurrence of unemployment during the 12 months prior to the survey, applying controls for sector of activity and current occupation.

$$(1) \quad \ln S_i = \alpha + \sum_j \beta_j X_{ji} + \mu \text{des}_i + \varepsilon_i$$

In the equation, which was estimated using the least-squares method, $\ln S_i$ represents the logarithm of the hourly wage and X_j represents typical human-capital variables: a linear expression of years of schooling completed in the official education system; and employment experience, calculated as the difference between age and years of schooling minus six, in addition to a quadratic expression of this same experience.

The results showed the existence of substantial wage losses which were attributable to the occurrence of an episode of unemployment during the previous year and which fluctuated during the decade between 23% and 34% of the wage level. This indicates that persons who rejoined the workforce as wage earners after the episode of unemployment did so at significantly lower real wages. Moreover, the magnitude of the loss was associated with the increased duration of periods of joblessness that accompanied the rise in open unemployment in Uruguay; this in turn was accentuated by the closing down of businesses, dismissals and lay-offs, especially during the second half of the 1990s.

In summary, this evidence, albeit limited to one country, is indicative of the adjustment mechanisms that might be operating in the region's urban labour markets in periods of rising unemployment. The longer periods of unemployment appear to lower the reserve wage (the wage a person is willing to accept when taking a new job); this, together with the increase in the size of the workforce, allows for the hiring of workers at lower real wages, thus increasing wage losses.

Source: ECLAC, Impacto del desempleo sobre el salario. Una estimación de la pérdida salarial para Uruguay (LC/MVD/R.188/Rev.1), Montevideo, ECLAC office in Montevideo, June 2001.



Social expenditure in Latin America: overview of a decade

INTRODUCTION

ECCLAC has often highlighted three general objectives for social expenditure in the region. Bearing in mind the importance of the distributive effect of public resources allocated to the social sectors, it has stressed the need to: (i) intensify efforts to raise social expenditure and consolidate its recovery, given that it has been quite low in the countries of the region and fell sharply during the 1980s; (ii) stabilize social allocations in order to forestall the serious adverse effects of spending cuts during economic downturns, and (iii) target public social expenditure more accurately and heighten its positive impact, especially in the case of vulnerable or poor groups, by reallocating available funds to those components that have the most progressive influence on income distribution.

In the light of those three main objectives, this chapter provides an overview of patterns of public social spending in Latin America during the 1990s with the aim of answering a number of key questions:

- (a) What volume of resources did the Latin American countries allocate to social spending and what were the trends in such spending between 1990 and 1999?
- (b) To what extent did economic growth, budgetary pressure and fiscal priorities contribute to the increase in social expenditure over the past decade?
- (c) How was social spending affected by the economic recession experienced by several countries in the last two years of the 1990s?
- (d) Did social expenditure change with increases or decreases in public spending during the 1990s?
- (e) Has the structure of public social spending become more progressive or less progressive?
- (f) Has greater priority been given to expenditures aimed at improving human capital in the region?

As in previous editions of *Social Panorama of Latin America*, the data discussed in this chapter were taken from official information on the functional classification of public spending provided by 17 countries in the region. They cover the period from 1990 to 1999¹ and in all cases include the countries' total public current and investment expenditure on education (including pre-school, primary, secondary and higher levels), health and nutrition, social security and welfare, housing, water and sanitation.

¹ Budgeted public social spending figures for the year 2000 were available for only a small group of countries, precluding any analysis of the full extent of the impact of the crisis –the effects of which have affected most of the countries since 1999– on the amount of resources allocated to social sectors in Latin America.

A. TRENDS IN PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING DURING THE 1990S

The greater efforts made by Latin American countries to allocate more public resources to social sectors in the 1990s resulted in a sizeable increase (around 50%) in per capita social spending. Although much of this rise was due to the reactivation of economic growth, especially during the first half of the decade, it is significant that around two fifths of it stemmed from the reallocation of public revenues for social purposes and a smaller part, around one fifth, from increased resources for the public budget. As a result, the percentage of gross domestic product (GDP) devoted to social sectors climbed from 10.4% to 13.1%.

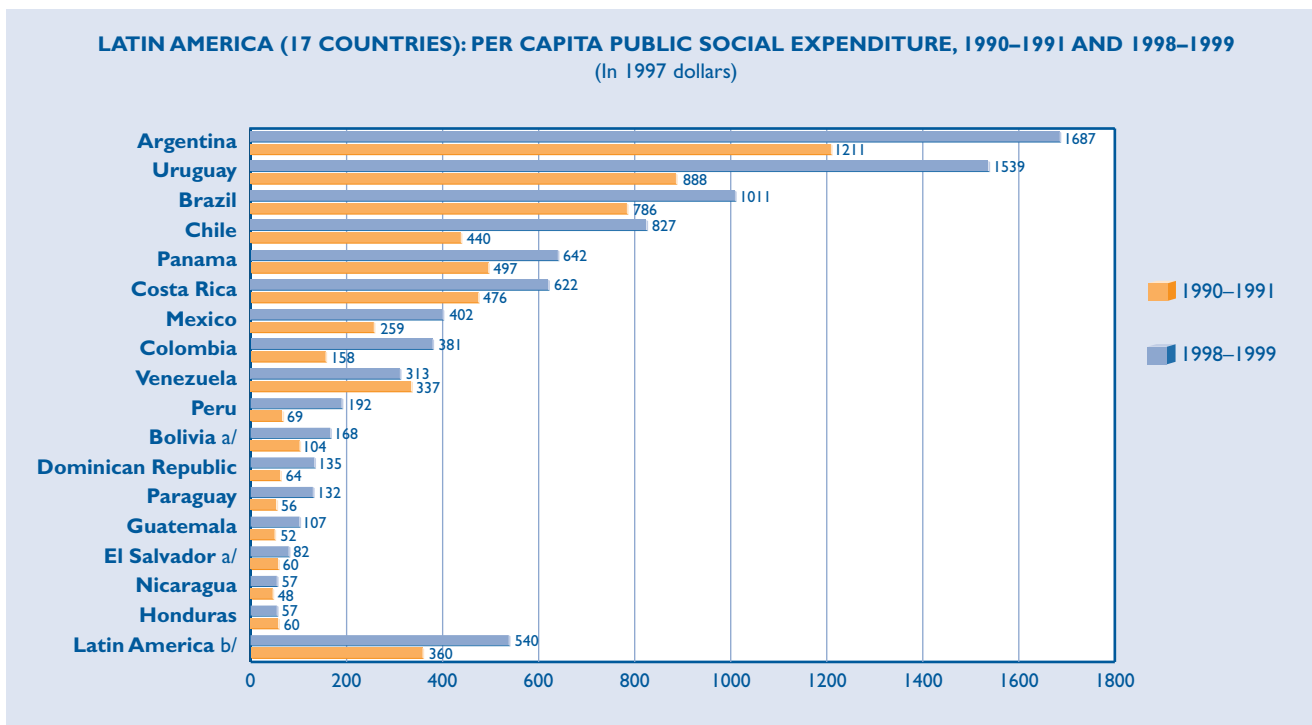
Social spending rose considerably during the 1990s. In most of the countries, the per capita amount of resources allocated to social sectors increased as a result of economic reactivation and, to some extent, of the higher fiscal priority assigned to social expenditure (percentage of total public spending devoted to social sectors), which in turn raised its macroeconomic priority (percentage of GDP earmarked for social sector spending). In fact, in the 17 countries of the region as a whole, per capita public spending between the 1990–1991 and 1998–1999 bienniums rose on average by about 50%. Thus, from an average of US\$ 360 per capita at the start of the decade, social expenditure climbed to US\$ 540 per capita per annum.² Social expenditure increased throughout the region as a whole, having fallen in real terms in only two countries, Honduras and Venezuela (see table IV.1).

The increases were not uniform throughout the region, however, and tended to be greater in countries with moderate or low levels of per capita social expenditure. It rose by over 100% in Colombia, Guatemala, Paraguay, Peru and the Dominican Republic, while in countries with relatively high levels of spending (Argentina, Brazil, Costa Rica and Panama), the increases were somewhat smaller, amounting to between 20% and 40% compared with the start of the decade.

As noted below, the increase in social expenditure in the region was not uniform throughout the decade either. In most countries, social spending rose more steeply during the first half of the decade and, although it continued to climb in the second half, it did so more slowly. Between 1990–1991 and 1994–1995, per capita expenditure in Latin America

² Refers to the simple average of the figures for all countries. Per capita social expenditure is expressed in 1997 dollars.

Figure IV.1



Source: ECLAC, Social Development Division, social expenditure database.

a/ The starting figure is an average for 1994–1995.

b/ Simple average for the countries shown, except Bolivia and El Salvador.

as a whole rose by 30%, whereas the increase between 1994–1995 and 1998–1999 was only 16%. This trend was closely related to economic growth trends in the region during the 1990s, since the annual growth rate in Latin America was 4.1% of GDP up to 1995 but then dropped to 2.5% in the second half of the decade. This indicates the existence of a strong linkage between the amount of resources that each country is able to allocate to social sectors and the level and growth rate of its GDP, independently of the governments' efforts to assign greater priority to the social components of public spending.

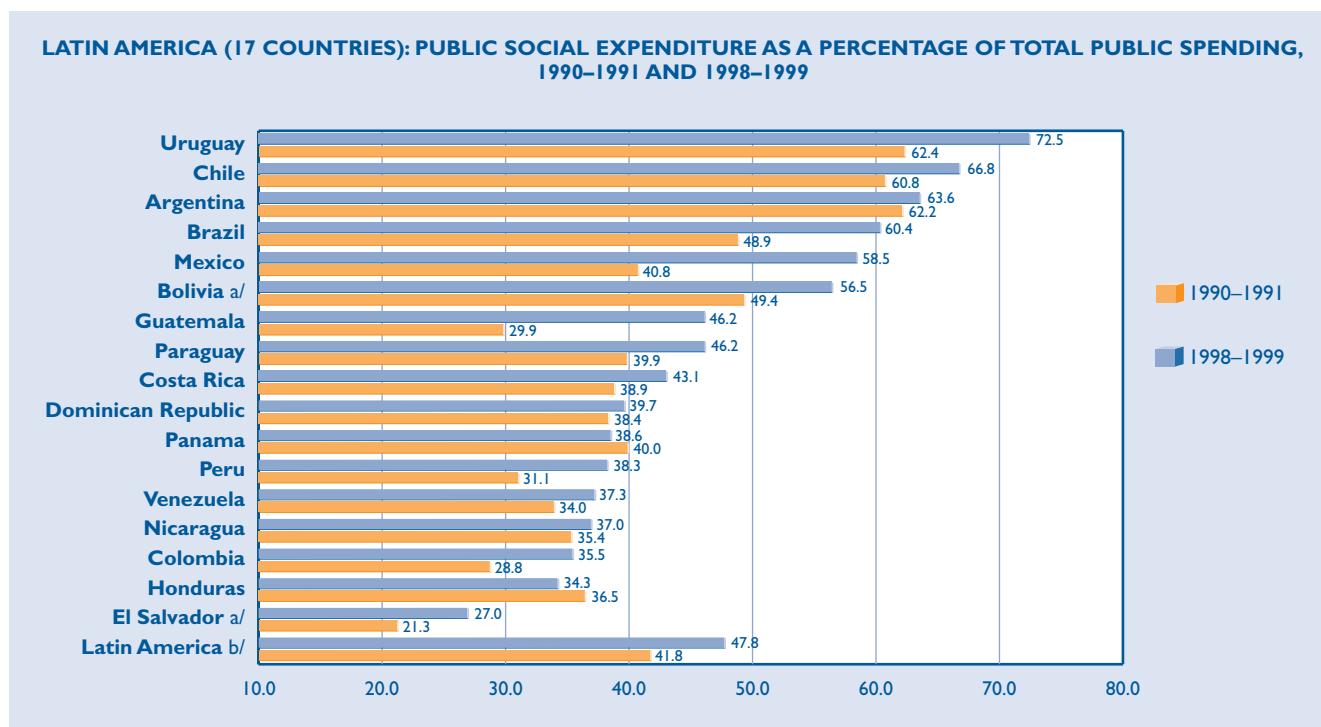
The increase in social spending in the 1990s was not only an outcome of buoyant economic growth. It was also associated with an increasing effort on the part of these countries to raise spending levels by boosting government revenues and allocating a larger portion of them to social sectors.

The fiscal priority of social spending in the region as a whole thus climbed from nearly 42% to almost 48% of total public expenditure (see table IV.2).

This trend, which was general throughout the region—the share of public spending earmarked for social purposes fell only in Honduras and, to a lesser extent, in Panama—did not allow for any reduction in the marked differences existing in that respect between countries. These differences are due to two factors: On the one hand, the social security component of spending is considered a higher good, and its relative weight increases as a country's per capita income rises (see figure IV.4A and table IV.4), owing to the extension of coverage provided by social security systems, which is associated with the relative size of the older adult population. On the other hand, a very high percentage of the meagre revenues received by the State in some countries is used for general purposes (government, defence and justice) and to meet the country's basic economic needs.

The combined effect of the two factors, i.e., the increased budgetary pressure (the percentage of GDP represented by public spending) and the decision to assign greater fiscal priority to social expenditure (the percentage of total public expenditure allocated

Figure IV.2

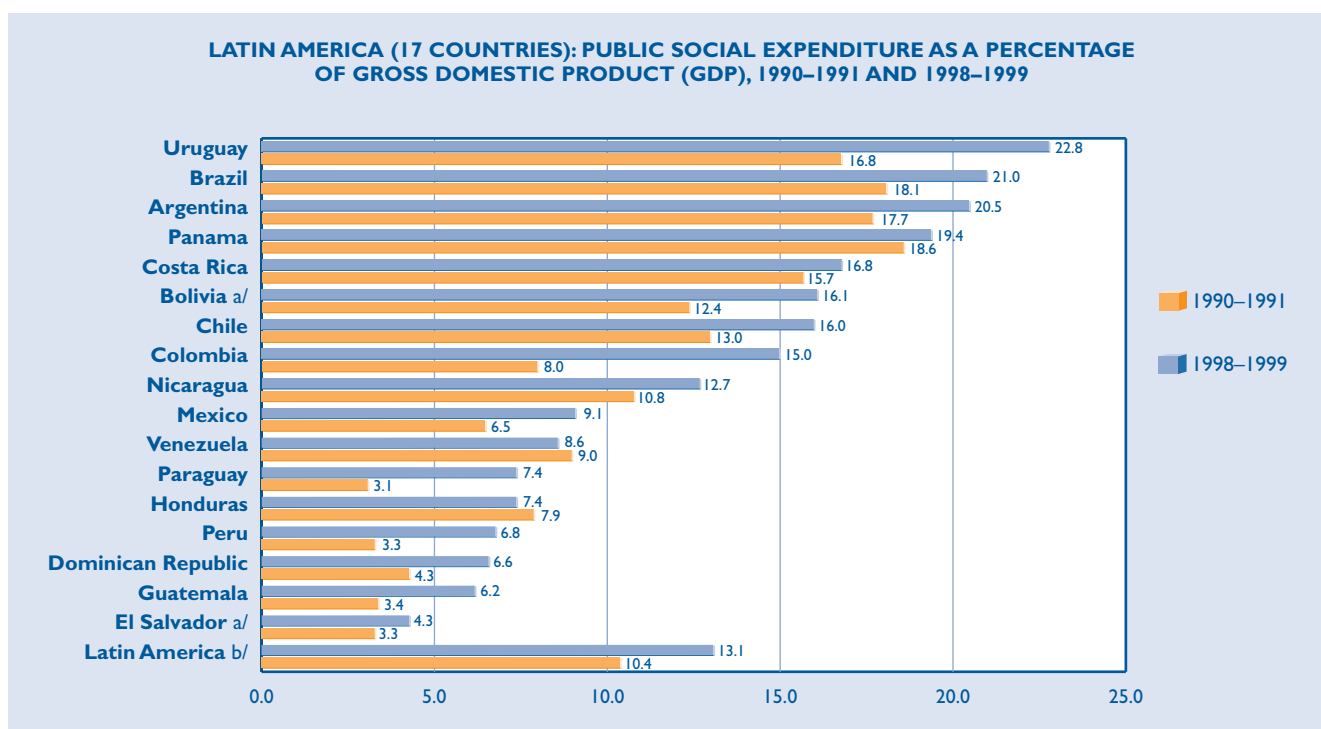


Source: ECLAC, Social Development Division, social expenditure database.

a/ The starting figure is an average for 1994–1995.

b/ Simple average for the countries shown, except Bolivia and El Salvador.

Figure IV.3



Source: ECLAC, Social Development Division, social expenditure database.

a/ The starting figure is an average for 1994–1995.

b/ Simple average for the countries shown, except Bolivia and El Salvador.

DECENTRALIZATION AND FINANCING OF SOCIAL EXPENDITURE: THE CASE OF BRAZIL

In countries where the financing of public and social expenditure is decentralized to a considerable degree, consolidated national totals must be used when making a comparative regional analysis of total public spending and social expenditure over time. This makes it possible to avoid the considerable underestimation of expenditure levels that occurs when only central government spending is recorded so as to produce figures that are more in line with actual absolute and relative variations in per capita overall and sectoral expenditure.

The case of the Federative Republic of Brazil—where a high percentage of public revenues and social expenditure is obtained and administered on a decentralized basis—illustrates this problem, as well as the differences that occur in the various social expenditure indicators when all levels of the administration are taken into consideration. In Brazil, for example, if only federal expenditure is analysed, the per capita social expenditure figure for 1998 comes to US\$ 613 (in 1997 dollars), and the real increase for the period 1990–1998 comes to 20.7%. However, if the source of the resources is taken into account, and total spending by the three spheres of government (federal, state and municipal) is consolidated, per capita social expenditure in 1998 rises to US\$ 1,011, which is about 65% higher than the federal expenditure figure, with the variation being 21.5% over the same period.

Since social expenditure is so highly decentralized in Brazil, there are major differences between sectors (health, education, social security and others), and thus, the differences in spending levels and the corresponding variations from year to year become more significant. For example, the gradual decentralization of education funding caused federal government spending in this area to fall from 34% of expenditure in all spheres of government in 1990 to 26.1% in 1996.

No systematic compilation of consolidated expenditure levels for the three spheres of government has been developed. Three studies were used as the basis for estimating the ratio between sectoral increases in federal spending and spending by the three spheres of government. This made it possible to obtain the data on consolidated social expenditure between 1990 and 1998 that are used in this chapter.

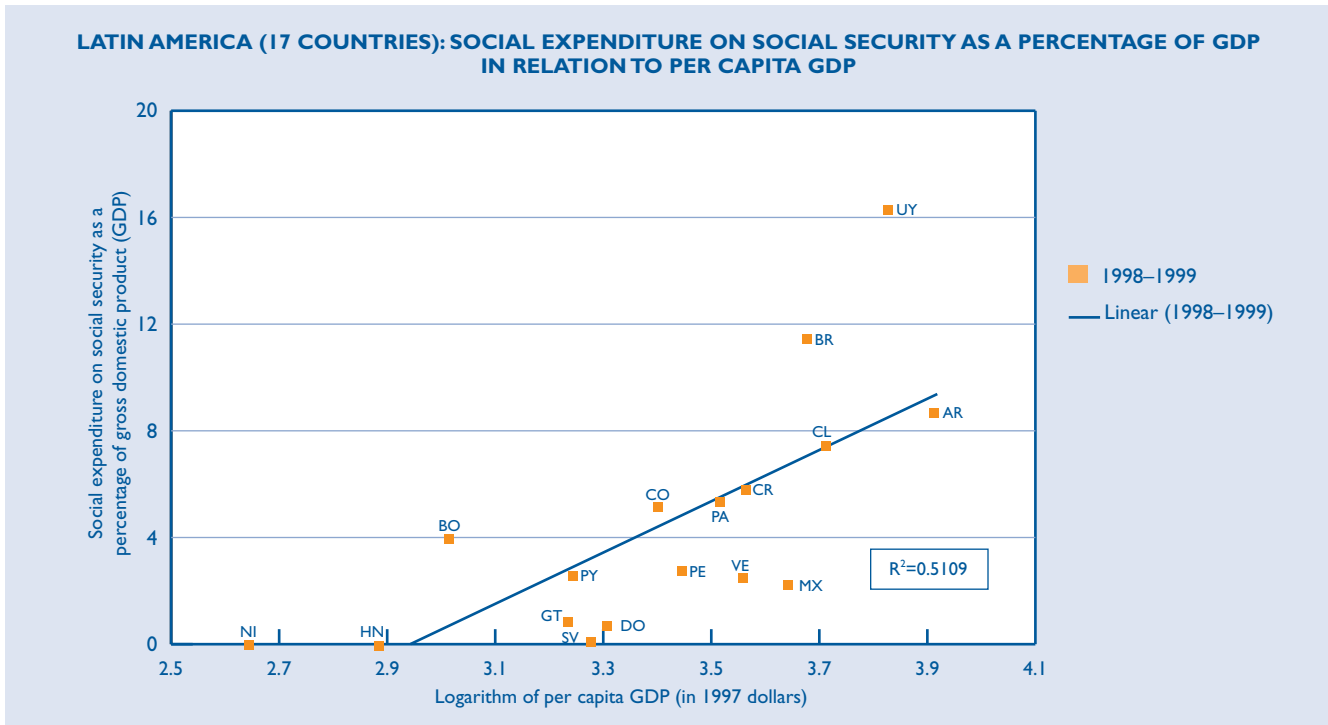
BRAZIL: FEDERAL AND CONSOLIDATED SOCIAL EXPENDITURE				
Social sector	Average for 1990–1991		Average for 1997–1998	
	Per capita social expenditure (in 1997 dollars)	Social expenditure as a percentage of GDP ^{a/}	Per capita social expenditure (in 1997 dollars)	Social expenditure as a percentage of GDP ^{a/}
Federal social expenditure	476	11.0	605	12.5
Education, science and technology	55	1.3	43	0.9
Health, food and nutrition	115	2.7	95	2.0
Social security and welfare	254	5.8	423	8.7
Labour and training	36	0.8	35	0.7
Housing and sanitation	16	0.4	9	0.2
Consolidated social expenditure (Federal, state and municipal)	786	18.1	1007	20.8
Education, science and technology	162	3.7	188	3.9
Health, food and nutrition	156	3.6	174	3.6
Social security and welfare	351	8.1	540	11.1
Labour and training	50	1.2	45	0.9
Housing and sanitation	67	1.5	60	1.2

a/ Gross domestic product.

This structure of ratios was extrapolated to the nearest years on the assumption that they remained constant. That assumption is based on the studies referred to below, which show that the coefficients do not vary significantly from year to year and indicate a gradual process of decentralization of social expenditure in Brazil, as evidenced by the ratios between the growth of federal expenditure and consolidated expenditure: in the early 1980s, the coefficients were around 1.50; between 1984 and 1989, they varied between 1.60 and 1.65, and during the 1990s, they ranged around 1.70.

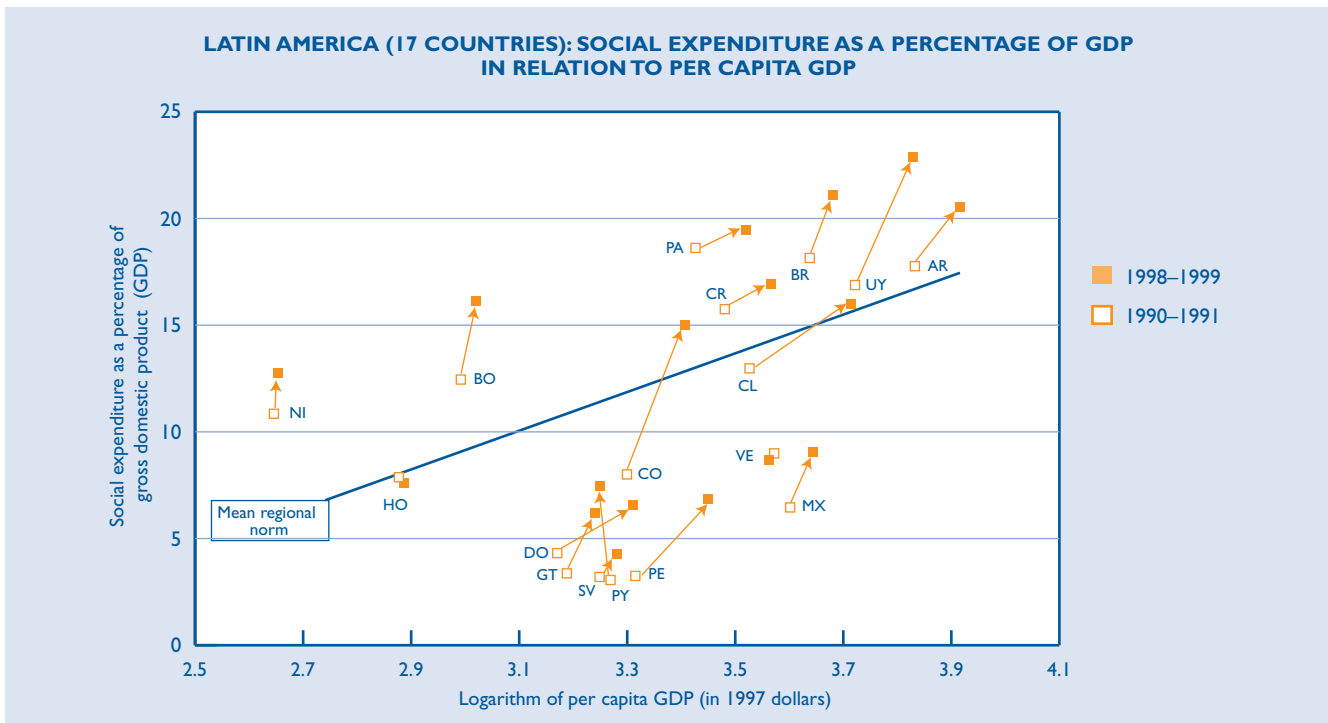
Source: For 1990–1993: Andrés A. Médici, "A dinamica do gasto social no Brasil nas tres esferas do governo: uma análise do período 1980–1992", Rio de Janeiro, Foundation for Administrative Development (FUNDAPE)/ Institute of Public Sector Economics (IESP), June 1994. For 1994–1996: Institute of Applied Economic Research (IPEA), "Gastos sociais das tres esferas de governo–1995", Rio de Janeiro, 1995. For 1997–1998: Institute of Applied Economic Research (IPEA), "Gastos sociais das tres esferas de governo–1996", Rio de Janeiro, 1996.

Figure IV.4a



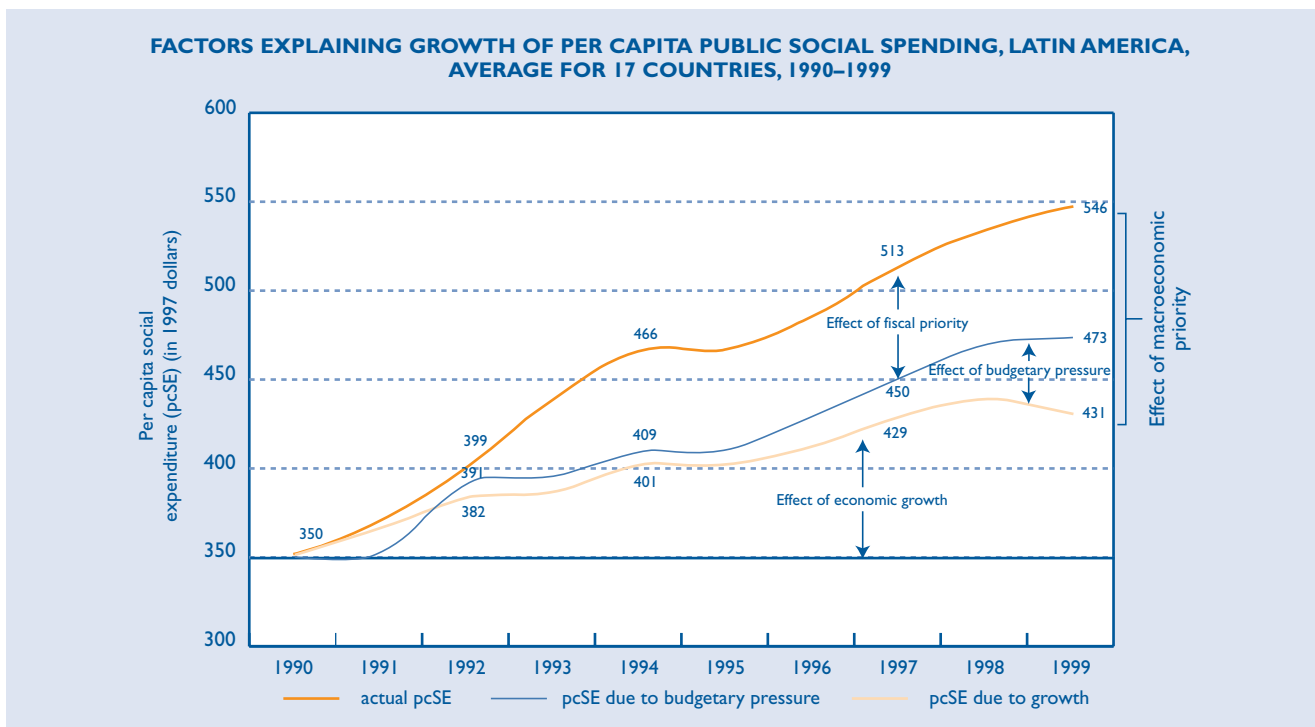
Source: ECLAC, Social Development Division, social expenditure database.

Figure IV.4b



Source: ECLAC, Social Development Division, social expenditure database.

Figure IV.5



Source: ECLAC, Social Development Division, social expenditure database.

to social sectors) was reflected in a substantial increase in the share of GDP allocated to public social spending (macroeconomic priority). In the region as a whole, this share rose from 10.4% to 13.1% between 1990–1991 and 1998–1999 (see table IV.3). It should be noted that between 1996–1997 and 1998–1999, the share of social spending continued to climb in most countries of the region, since several of those countries made an effort to sustain to some degree their pre-crisis levels of social expenditure. However, that trend can also be explained by the lag in budgetary adjustments as a result of declining output and consequently, in public revenues.

Although 12 countries substantially increased the macroeconomic priority of social expenditure, and several of them had low spending levels, the differences between the 17 countries that were analysed did not diminish very much, and the considerable disparities that existed in this respect at the start of the decade persisted. As shown in figure IV.4b, there was no significant change in the

regional situation as regards the countries' efforts to allocate resources to the social sectors based on their per capita income levels. Thus, one group of countries, which includes those with the highest per capita social expenditure levels (Argentina, Brazil, Costa Rica, Panama and Uruguay), continued to allocate a larger percentage of their GDP to social sectors than would be expected, given the regional pattern. Only Bolivia and Nicaragua spent more than would be expected given their income levels, even though they belong to the group of countries with low per capita social expenditure. Another group, composed of countries with low or very low levels of per capita social expenditure, devoted a much smaller share of their GDP to social sectors than the regional average. The exception is Colombia, which more than doubled its per capita social expenditure between 1992–1993 and 1996–1997, thereby greatly increasing its macroeconomic priority and going from being one of the countries with spending levels far below the regional average to one of the countries that exceeds it.

Bearing in mind the abovementioned factors that account for a rise in per capita social expenditure (GDP growth, increased budgetary pressure and greater priority assigned to social sectors in the fiscal budget), it appears that throughout the decade, there was an increase in the macroeconomic priority of social expenditure with respect to GDP growth (see figure IV.5). Efforts to raise the share of GDP allocated to the social sectors accounted for approximately 60% (US\$ 115) of the total increase in per capita social spending (from US\$ 350 in 1990 to

US\$ 546 in 1999, i.e., around US\$ 196 per capita). However, the restructuring of total public spending so as to increase its social components also played a part: of the US\$ 115 rise in per capita social expenditure that was not attributable to economic growth, around US\$ 73 stemmed solely from the increased fiscal priority accorded to social expenditure. Thus, the increase in total public resources arising from increased budgetary pressure would appear to be the least important factor in raising social expenditure in the region during the past decade (see box IV.2).

Box IV.2

A PROCEDURE FOR ESTIMATING THE EFFECT OF THE DIFFERENT FACTORS AFFECTING PER CAPITA SOCIAL EXPENDITURE

To analyse the relative importance of the factors involved in the growth of per capita social expenditure (pcSE) in the region as a whole, a decomposition method was chosen whereby the cumulative effect of individual factors can be analysed in the order in which they occur when public budget decisions are made: firstly, the separate effect of growth in gross domestic product (GDP) in a situation of continuing budgetary pressure (BP) of total public spending (TPS) and within that, of the fiscal priority of social expenditure (FP); secondly, the effect on per capita social expenditure of increased budgetary pressure given the growth of GDP, and, thirdly, the effect of increased fiscal priority of social expenditure given the increase in budgetary pressure and economic growth.

To identify each of the effects, the following ratio has been used:

$pcSE = SE/TPS \times TPS/GDP \times pcGDP$, where

SE/TPS = fiscal priority of social expenditure (FP),
 TPS/GDP = budgetary pressure (BP) and
 SE/GDP = macroeconomic priority.

Hence:

(1) Net effect of growth = constantFP × constantBP × pcGDP

(2) Effect of growth + budgetary pressure = constantFP × BP × pcGDP

Since this effect includes economic growth, the net effect of budgetary pressure can be calculated by deducting (1) from (2).

(3) Effect of growth + budgetary pressure + fiscal priority = FP × BP × pcGDP

Since this effect includes economic growth, the net effect of budgetary pressure and fiscal priority (macroeconomic priority of social expenditure) can be calculated by deducting (1) from (3).

(4) Effect of growth + fiscal priority = FP × BPconstant × pcGDP

Finally, since this last effect includes economic growth, the net effect of fiscal priority can be calculated by deducting (1) from (4) or alternatively by deducting (1) and (2) from (3).

On balance, it appears that during the decade both economic growth and efforts to increase the social sector's share of the budget account for most of the increase in social expenditure (approximately 80%) to similar relative degrees, and that only one fifth of the increase was due to growth of public resources.

Following is a classification of Latin American countries according to their social expenditure priorities (fiscal and macroeconomic) and the participation of total public spending (TPS) in the gross domestic product (GDP) during the 1998–1999 biennium.

se is the main factor that hinders them from allocating a larger proportion of public revenues for social spending. Countries that have more budgetary flexibility need to make a greater effort to redistribute public resources in such a way as to increase social expenditure. Nonetheless, there are countries in the region that devote a large proportion of their GDP to social sectors –percentages comparable to those allocated by a number of industrialized countries– and in their cases, the main challenge is to protect those spending levels when economic conditions deteriorate, and to enhance their effectiveness and efficiency.

Total public spending as a percentage of GDP a/ (budgetary pressure) b/	Percentage of total public spending allocated to social sectors (fiscal priority of social expenditure) b/		
	Under 40%	Between 40% and 60%	Over 60%
Over 30%	Nicaragua (12.7) Colombia (15.0) Panama (19.4)	Costa Rica (16.8)	Argentina (20.5) Brazil (21.0) Uruguay (22.8)
Between 20% and 30%	Honduras (7.4) Venezuela (8.6)	Bolivia (16.1)	Chile (16.0)
Under 20%	El Salvador (4.3) Dominican Republic (6.6) Peru (6.8)	Guatemala (6.2) Mexico (9.1) Paraguay (7.4)	

a/ See box IV.3.

b/ Figures in parentheses show the percentage of GDP allocated to social expenditure.

Even though social expenditure rose considerably during the decade, the per capita levels of resources earmarked for social sector spending are still too low to meet the needs of large segments of the population. Moreover, it is evident from the above classification that most of the countries also have a great deal of room for expanding their public revenue base and redirecting allocations for social purposes. This is reflected in the marked disparities in the efforts of different countries: while some countries allocated around 20% of GDP to social sectors, others devote less than 10% to social expenditure. In the case of the latter, the limited public revenue ba-

METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS AND SOURCES OF STATISTICS ON TOTAL PUBLIC SPENDING AND SOCIAL EXPENDITURE

The methodologies and the coverage of statistical series on total public spending and on social expenditure vary throughout the region. The main differences in methodology have to do with how expenditure is recorded in the accounts and how social expenditure is defined. As regards coverage, the disparities have to do with the different characteristics of public institutions and whether or not spending by local governments is included (see box IV.1).

Public spending can be broken down according to the different entities that implement it. A first distinction is between public spending by the financial public sector (FPS), i.e. the central bank and other State-owned financial institutions, and the non-financial public sector (NFPS), i.e., central government (CG), public enterprises (PE) and local government (LG). In five countries, the series covered the latter (NFPS).

In 11 of the 17 countries analysed, the series refer to central government expenditure. Within this category, a distinction can be made between entities that manage their own budgets (autonomous entities (AE)) and entities that are funded directly by the treasury (central government budget (CGB)). The latter is the expenditure coverage in three countries. In another case, coverage relates to expenditure of general government (GG), which comprises CG and LGs.

Following is a classification of countries according to the institutions covered by social expenditure series:

Institutions covered	Countries
NFPS = CG + PE + LG	Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica and Panama
GG = CG + LG	Bolivia
CG = CGB + AE	Chile, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Peru, Dominican Republic, Uruguay and Venezuela
CGB	Mexico, Nicaragua and Paraguay

Bearing in mind the accounting definitions applied to the series for these 17 countries and the way in which social expenditure was funded and executed in each one, the figures can be regarded as reasonably comparable for 16 countries. In the case of Mexico, however, the fact that social expenditure at the local level is not included and that there is a degree of decentralization in its funding leads in practice to an underestimation of public social spending, and this limits its comparability.

The indicators of priority (social expenditure/GDP and social expenditure/total public spending) are ratios that are calculated using each year's current-price figures. Per capita social expenditure in 1997 dollars was estimated on the basis of total social expenditure at current prices. To express it in constant 1997 dollars, the implicit GDP deflator and the average exchange rate for that year were used.

The data in current prices on total public spending and social expenditure, as well as the sectoral breakdown of social expenditure, are official figures provided by the relevant public institutions in each country. GDP at current prices and the implicit GDP deflator are also official figures obtained from the ECLAC Annual Statistics Data Bank (BADEANU). The exchange rate used corresponds to the 1997 average of the "rf" series, taken from *International Financial Statistics*, published by the International Monetary Fund (IMF). The population figures are derived from projections prepared by the Population Division – Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) and published in its *Demographic Bulletin*.

B. IMPACT OF THE CRISIS AND TRENDS IN SOCIAL EXPENDITURE DURING PERIODS OF STRONG OR WEAK ECONOMIC GROWTH

In those years of the past decade in which economic growth was strong, most of the Latin American countries managed to increase social expenditure, both as a share of the public budget and as a percentage of GDP. Likewise, thanks to the measures taken by a number of countries to protect it, social expenditure did not decline as a result of the economic slowdown and reduced flexibility of the public budget of the last few years.

In order to overcome poverty and inequality in the region, the countries will need to give high priority to social expenditure, which must be viewed in all its complexity as an important component of public spending to which explicit criteria aimed at achieving greater equity must be applied. Thus, priorities for social investment must be identified with a view to breaking the cycles that perpetuate inequality.

Around the mid-1990s, public spending as a share of GDP in the Latin American countries was around nine percentage points below the standard that would apply for their output level (IDB, 1998, p. 200)³, thus limiting the ability of States to promote redistributive policies through social expenditure. It appears that for all the countries in the region there is room to raise expenditure from 3.5 to 4.5 percentage points of GDP by increasing public

resources, given that social expenditure typically represents between 40% and 50% of total public spending.

The region's experience has demonstrated not only that the amount of funds traditionally allocated to social sectors has been insufficient but also that social policies are quite vulnerable in times of crisis, as social expenditure tends to rise when larger budgets are available to finance it and to contract when the public sector's finances deteriorate (usually as a consequence of slowdowns in economic growth). This is what is generally known as procyclical behaviour, as opposed to countercyclical behaviour, which would obtain in the opposite situation, i.e. that of increased social expenditure in years of economic recession leading to a reduction in government revenues and expenditures. That would make it possible to protect

³ The low level of public spending in relation to GDP is in turn associated with the fact that the taxation levels of several countries in the region are also below international standards and even well below those applying to the English-speaking Caribbean. Estimates by ECLAC, which concur with those of other organizations such as the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), indicate tax receipts as a percentage of GDP are some 6 percentage points below those that would apply according to the countries' standard of development (ECLAC, 1998).

social welfare resources during economic downturns, precisely when they are most needed to prevent or counter the decline in living conditions of the most vulnerable population groups. Hence, one of the priority public policy objectives is to forestall or curtail procyclical behaviour under adverse economic conditions in order, in particular, to safeguard spending allocations that benefit the poorest segments of the population and to strengthen practices that consolidate those allocations and give them greater stability.

1. PATTERNS OF PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING IN SITUATIONS OF HIGHLY VOLATILE GROWTH

Analyses of trends in the allocation of resources to social sectors have often focused on year-on-year variations in social expenditure with respect to fluctuations in the government budget. Since the total amount of public resources tends to co-vary with countries' GDP levels, social expenditure in the Latin American countries has usually followed trends in the macroeconomic cycle, falling during slow-downs and rising during upturns in economic growth.

In recent years, much attention has been paid to the objective of countering the severe negative impact of recessionary crises on the most vulnerable population groups by protecting resources allocated to social sectors and improving public policies aimed at enhancing their impact (ECLAC, 1998). This can be explained not only by the limited amount of resources that have traditionally been earmarked for social purposes in most countries in the region but also by the increasing volatility of economic growth. Indeed, during the past decade, most of them continued to develop in a context of vulnerability owing to the fact that macroeconomic stability has increasingly depended on sizeable current-account deficits, often financed with volatile capital, and this has

been reflected in short cycles of growth and adjustment, in line with the performance of that capital.⁴ Added to that are the fragility of production and financial systems and the impact of the various international crises on economies, which entail high costs for public finance.

All of this points to the need for a schematic presentation for describing the range of logical and empirical possibilities arising from the different trends in the aggregates that influence changes in the amount of resources allocated to social sectors over a given period, i.e. the type of macroeconomic scenario, determined by trends in GDP and financial resources available to the State for allocation to the different components of social expenditure, and what actually happens with regard to social expenditure, in real terms, in those scenarios. It should be noted that the schematic presentation proposed below –which is especially useful when growth is volatile– is suitable for assessing short-term decisions on the allocation of budgetary resources as reflected in the figures for actual total public spending and social expenditure.

Bearing this in mind, a distinction must be made between scenarios of rising and falling GDP, as shown in the charts below. In the scenario in which economic growth was predominant, between 1990 and 2000 –124 episodes out of a total of 144– those episodes in which GDP growth was accompanied by an increase in total public resources (TPS) stand out (95 episodes). In those situations, the cases when social expenditure rose at a higher rate than increases in TPS were more frequent, and they led to a rise in the fiscal priority of social expenditure (54 episodes). In some cases, social expenditure rose (34 out of a total of 88) while its priority declined, given that social expenditure increased less than TPS. A third and much less frequent situation (7 episodes) was that in which the resources earmarked for social expenditure declined in real terms, marking a sharp drop in its fiscal priority, in circumstances when public resources increased.

⁴ One indication of the increasing volatility of economic growth in the region arises from a comparison of the variability coefficients of annual GDP growth rates: this coefficient was 0.71 during the period 1990–1997 and 1.1 between 1990 and 1999 (ECLAC, 2001a).

Naturally, when the government budget was reduced in a context of economic growth (a total of 29 episodes), in more than half of the instances (16), social expenditure rose, and so did its priority.

Although less frequent, the situations arising in years when GDP fell deserve special mention. Unlike the scenario described above, where rises in social expenditure entailed an increase in its *priority* in a context of economic growth, it is useful here to highlight those situations in which countries managed to *protect* the amount of resources allocated to social sectors. That was achieved in those cases where social expenditure rose more than TPS (strong protection) or even when it rose at a lower rate than TPS, a situation that might be viewed as one of "moderate protection" of social expenditure, since, although its share of the government budget declined, this happened in a context of recession, and the absolute amount of resources increased. There were only

three episodes in which social expenditure increased while TSP fell; such situations provide the clearest example of *protection* of the resources allocated to the social components of spending.

Finally, the "least desirable" situations, which are referred to in stressing the need to protect social sectors under circumstances of highly volatile growth, occurred when resources earmarked for social expenditure fell in absolute terms and so did the fiscal priority of such expenditure. In the course of the decade, this happened in only six of the 20 episodes of contraction of GDP (see box IV.4).

Figures IV.6a to IV.6d show the trends in social expenditure during the 1990s. These figures provide a summary of all the episodes involving annual variations in social expenditure, public spending and gross domestic product in 17 Latin American countries.

SCENARIO OF RISING GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT ^{a/}			
Social expenditure		Total public spending (TPS)	
		Declining	Increasing
Increases...	at a rate higher than that of TPS	I. Strong increase in priority (16)	II.1. Increase in priority (54)
	at a rate lower than that of TPS		II.2. Decrease in priority (34)
Decreases ...	at a rate lower than that of TPS	IV.1. Increase in priority (9)	III. Strong decrease in priority (7)
	at a rate higher than that of TPS	IV.2. Decrease in priority (4)	

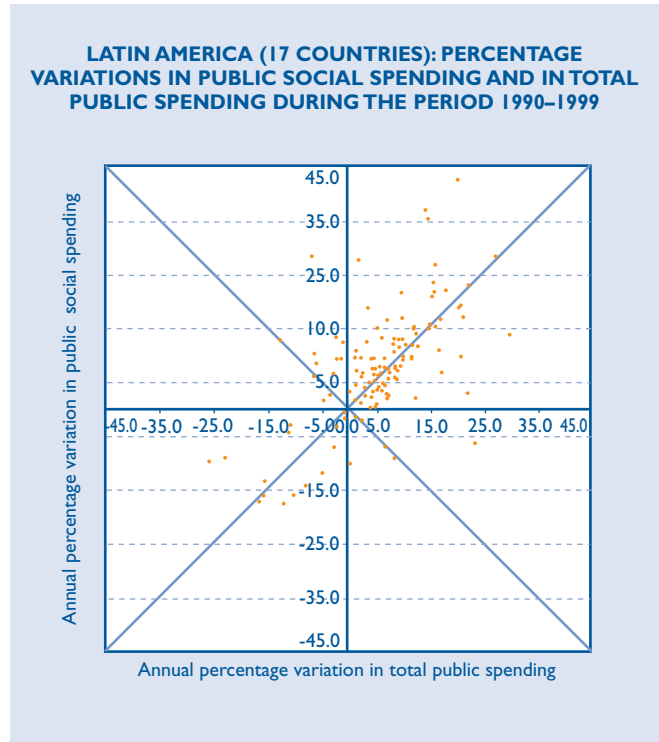
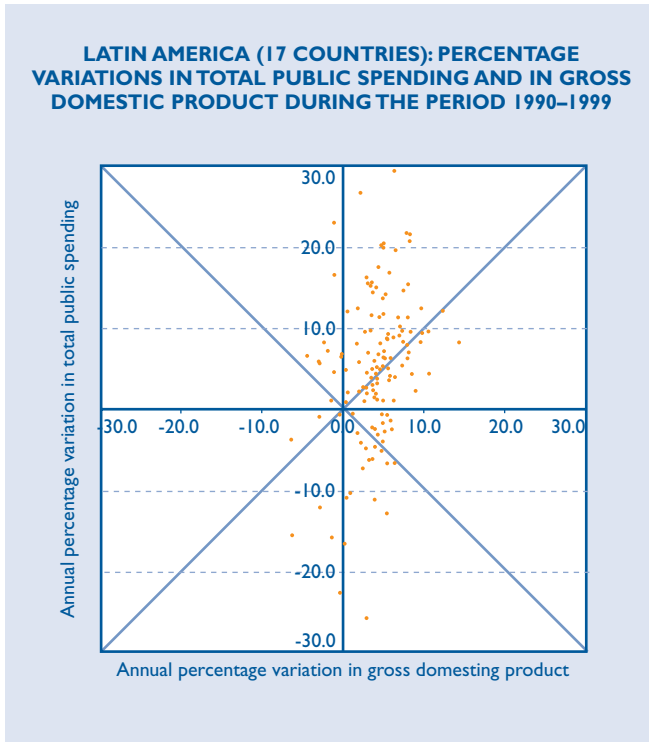
a/ Figures in parentheses indicate the number of episodes that occurred in the 17 countries during the period 1990–2000.

SCENARIO OF DECLINING GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT ^{a/}			
Social expenditure		Total public spending (TPS)	
		Declining	Increasing
Increases...	at a rate higher than that of TPS	I. Strong protection (3)	II.1. Strong protection (4)
	at a rate lower than that of TPS		II.2. Moderate protection (4)
Decreases...	at a rate lower than that of TPS	IV.1. Moderate protection (3)	III. Strong lack of protection (3)
	at a rate higher than that of TPS	IV.2. Lack of protection (3)	

a/ Figures in parentheses indicate the number of episodes that occurred in the 17 countries during the period 1990–2000.

Figure IV.6a

Figure IV.6b

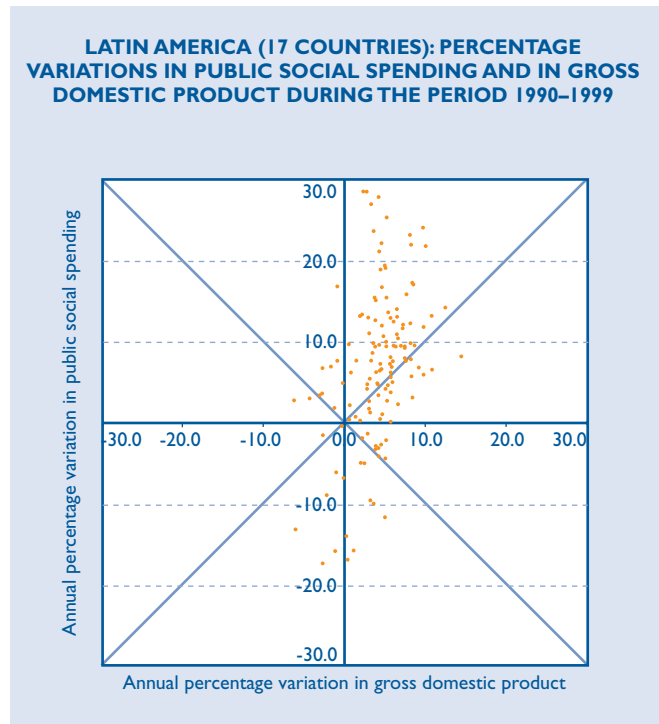
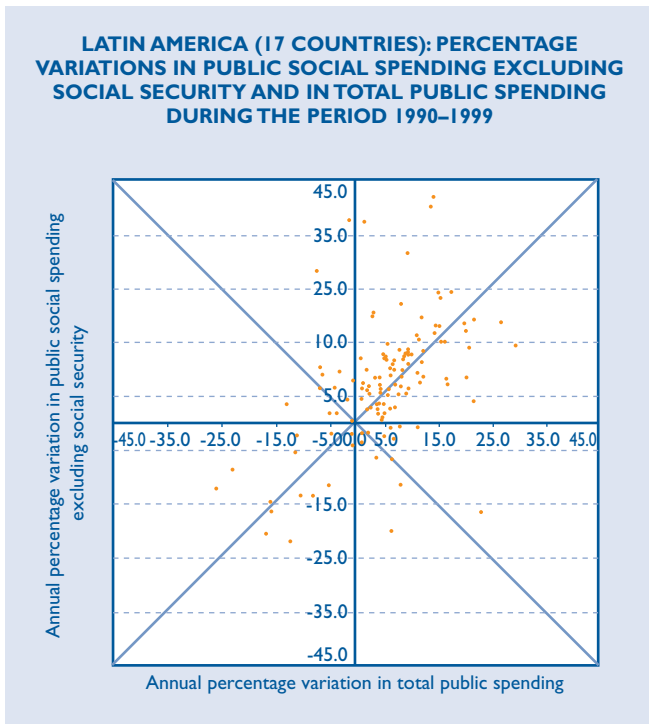


Source: ECLAC, Social Development Division, social expenditure database.

Source: ECLAC, Social Development Division, social expenditure database.

Figure IV.6c

Figure IV.6d



Source: ECLAC, Social Development Division, social expenditure database.

Source: ECLAC, Social Development Division, social expenditure database.

As shown in figure IV.6a, public spending tended to co-vary closely with GDP: the vast majority of the episodes of economic growth were accompanied by an increase in budgetary resources, and those increases were usually greater than the increases in output. Nevertheless, during the decade there were also episodes of moderate increases in output, which were accompanied by absolute reductions in public sector financial resources, and in some cases, those reductions were greater than the relevant increases in GDP. There were also situations where moderate drops in output were not accompanied by a decline in public spending.

The question arises as to whether, in cases when total public resources rose, the situations that tended to predominate were those in which social expenditure was maintained or increased, i.e., whether or not there was a propensity to prioritize social components. As shown in figure IV.6b, not only did social expenditure rise when the government budget increa-

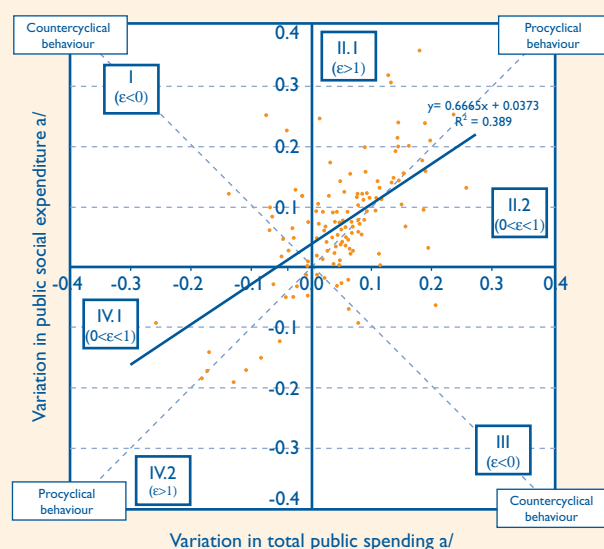
sed, but also, in a very high percentage of cases, the resources allocated to social components rose at a higher rate. This indicates that during the 1990s, the tendency was to prioritize social expenditure within the government budget. It is interesting to note that this also occurs when social security –the component that has a less progressive effect on income distribution– is excluded from social expenditure; thus, the increased prioritization of social expenditure seems to work more to the benefit of the middle- and low-income sectors, even though social security was the spending component that increased the most during the past decade, as noted in section C.

To summarize, in a decade when episodes of economic growth prevailed, social expenditure rose, and it usually did so at a higher rate (see figure IV.6d). But this tendency to give greater priority to social sectors is not sufficient in itself to account for the redistributive effect of social expenditure.

A MODEL FOR ANALYSING PATTERNS OF PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING

One way to summarize patterns of social expenditure in terms of its higher or lower fiscal priority in different macroeconomic scenarios is to estimate social expenditure/public spending elasticity, i.e., the extent to which social expenditure increases or decreases with a rise or fall in total public spending. This parameter (ϵ) can be estimated by taking as reference points the different episodes shown as dots on the graph below, which represent variations, in consecutive years, in the total government budget and total social expenditure for each of the 17 countries and for the bienniums for which data were available.

VARIATIONS IN PUBLIC SOCIAL EXPENDITURE AND TOTAL PUBLIC SPENDING ^{a/}



a/ Corresponds to differences in the logarithms of public social expenditure and total public spending in consecutive years.

The estimate for ϵ can be arrived at from the following formula:

$$\frac{SE_{t+1}}{SE_t} = \alpha \left[\frac{TPS_{t+1}}{TPS_t} \right]^\epsilon$$

where SE_{t+1} and SE_t represent social expenditure in consecutive years, and TPS_{t+1} and TPS_t represent total public spending.

With logarithms, the following equation is obtained:

$$\log SE_{t+1} - \log SE_t = \alpha' + \epsilon [\log TPS_{t+1} - \log TPS_t] + e_t$$

where α' is the logarithm of α , ϵ is the social expenditure/public spending elasticity, and e is the estimation error.*

The estimate of ϵ for the 144 episodes observed between 1990 and 2000 produced a value of $\epsilon = 0.666$, a highly significant parameter ($t = 9.58$), with a value of R^2 adjusted = 0.385. The estimation of this elasticity for the episodes in which public spending rose –the most frequent situation during the decade (106 out of 144 episodes)– shows a social expenditure/total public spending elasticity value closer to one ($\epsilon = 0.937$, with a value of $t = 7.40$ and $R^2 = 0.368$). This demonstrates the inertia and the procyclical nature of social expenditure, given that its growth was in most instances similar to the rate of increase in budgetary resources.

This is the case both for total social expenditure and for social expenditure excluding the amounts allocated by the countries to social security. In this latter case, the average elasticity for all episodes shows a value of $\epsilon = 0.701$ ($t = 4.61$), a figure which is not very different from that estimated for overall spending earmarked for social sectors. Finally, it should be noted that the social expenditure/GDP elasticity value is greater than one ($\epsilon = 1.147$, $t = 6.16$), which tallies with the fact that throughout the decade, the macroeconomic priority of social expenditure rose for all countries of the region (see figure IV.3).

* For an extended application of the model in the case of Argentina, see Martin Ravallion, "Are the poor protected from budget cuts? Theory and evidence for Argentina", Toulouse, World Bank/University of Social Sciences, 1999.

2. PATTERNS OF SOCIAL EXPENDITURE DURING THE RECESSION OF THE LATE 1990S

In order to analyse patterns of social expenditure in relation to trends in total public spending during the late-1990s recession, six countries in which GDP contracted in 1999 were selected, namely, Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Honduras, Uruguay and Venezuela. In all these countries, the fall in output followed a period of growth, so that conditions were suitable for an analysis of social expenditure patterns.

An analysis of trends in total public spending and public social expenditure in a context of declining GDP in those countries shows that allocations to social sectors were shielded, partly because of the inertia of many of the current expenditure items within social expenditure (see figure IV.7). In all of these countries except Venezuela, total public spending rose in 1998–1999 despite the decrease in GDP, and in Venezuela, expenditure levels quickly bounced back in 1999 and 2000, rising at what were virtually pre-crisis rates.

With regard to social expenditure, Argentina, Chile and Uruguay clearly decided to reallocate resources so to benefit the social sectors, albeit with some important differences in each case. In Argentina, although more resources were allocated to social sectors, this measure worked more to the benefit of the poorest strata in the 1998–1999 biennium, whereas in the following period (1999–2000), the greater increase occurred in the social security component, which accounts for the bulk of social spending in the country. Overall, the increased priority assigned to the social components in total expenditure –national public administration, Buenos Aires and provincial governments, and local governments– prevented the decline in GDP from leading to a fall in per capita social expenditure. In Chile, both total social expenditure and social expenditure excluding social security rose at similar rates, and the rates of increase were slightly lower during the budget year 2000 compared with those of the previous year, reflecting the inertia of the main components of social

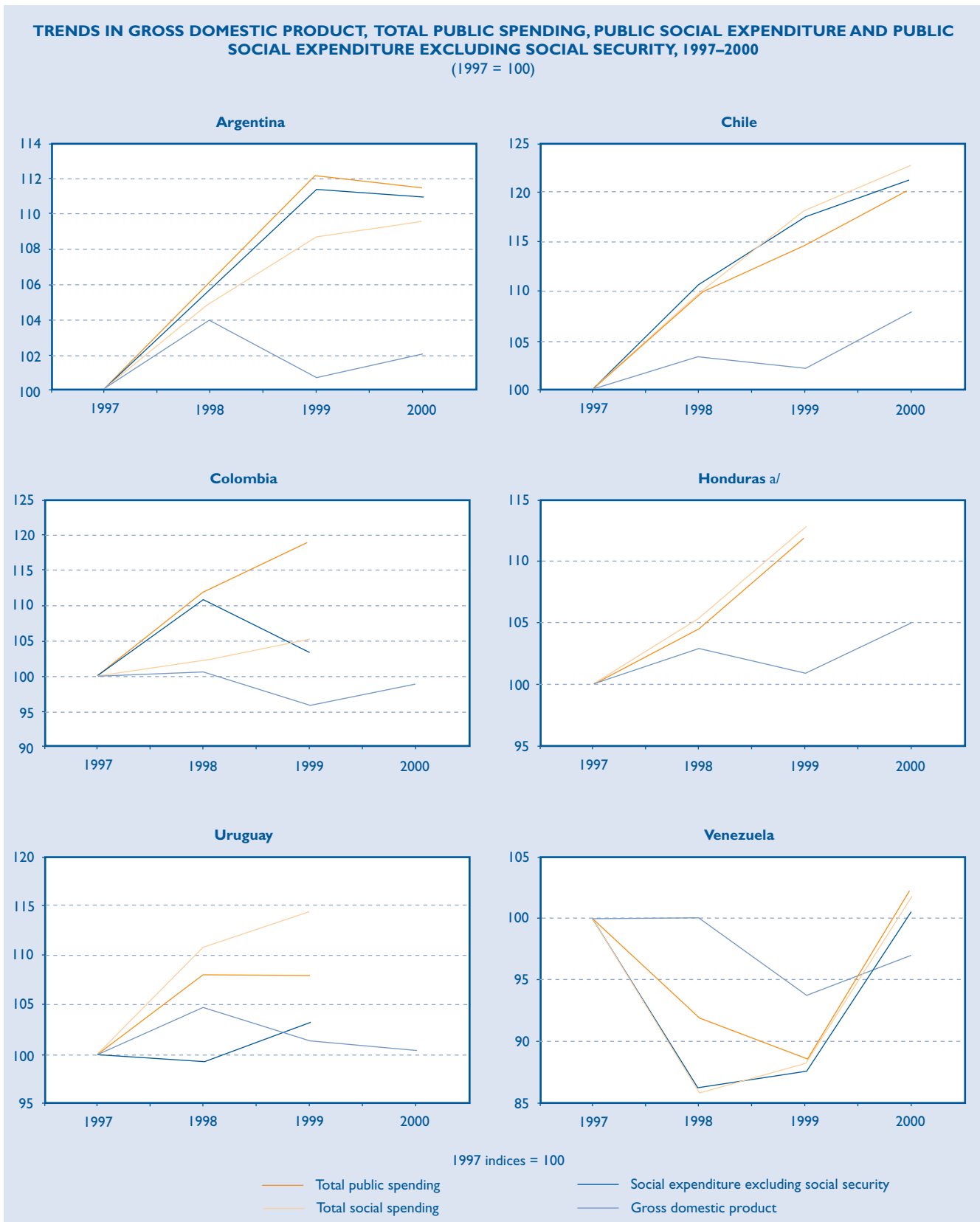
expenditure. The data available for Uruguay up to 1999 are indicative of a definite protection of social expenditure, both including and excluding social security, since both aggregates showed similar levels of increase in the 1998–1999 biennium in a context of zero growth in public spending.

The case of Colombia is a special one, since the fall in expenditure excluding social security does not mean that fewer resources were allocated to the components that benefit mostly the middle- and low-income strata, these being the ones who suffer the most during periods of slowing growth. In fact, as a result of the extension of social security coverage and of the health and welfare benefits included in it, social security spending was the component that grew the most in real terms between 1998 and 1999, so that social expenditure overall rose at a much higher rate than that of total public spending despite the fall in GDP in those two years.

Honduras provides an illustration of spending patterns in countries that allocate a relatively small share of their resources to social sectors. In this case, social expenditure –which does not have a significant social security component– and public spending rose at relatively high rates before and during the 1999 recession. However, that inertia is due less to an explicit policy of protection and more to the impact of resources from international aid that are channelled through the government budget.

Finally, what stands out in the case of Venezuela is the volatility of its growth and hence of the volume of public resources and of those that are allocated to social sectors. The substantial rise in public spending and social expenditure in 1996 and 1997, both including and excluding social security, stems from the reactivation brought about by the growth of output following the sharp downturn of 1996. Nevertheless, the pattern of social expenditure in 1998–1999 indicates that an effort was definitely made to protect the resources earmarked for social purposes, since during that same year, total budgetary resources fell as a result of the contraction of GDP. In 1999 and 2000, however, all the components of public spending began to rise again at virtually the same rate (around 15%).

Figure IV.7



Source: ECLAC, Social Development Division, social expenditure database.

a/ Sectoral information available on Honduras does not show social security expenditure.

C. SECTORAL TRENDS IN SOCIAL EXPENDITURE AND THEIR IMPACT ON INCOME DISTRIBUTION

During the 1990s, increases in social expenditure had a relatively greater redistributive effect in countries with lower per capita income levels owing to the marked rise in public spending on education and health. By contrast, the redistributive effect was less pronounced in countries with higher per capita income levels, since approximately 50% of the increase in public social expenditure went to social security, its least progressive component.

This section discusses the impact which public social expenditure has had on the distribution of income of Latin American households. For that purpose, a summary is first given of the results of a series of studies on eight countries that make it possible to assess the impact on different population strata of public spending on the social sectors. Secondly, sectoral trends during the decade are analysed with a view to ascertaining whether or not the increase in public social spending has had a levelling-out effect on income distribution.

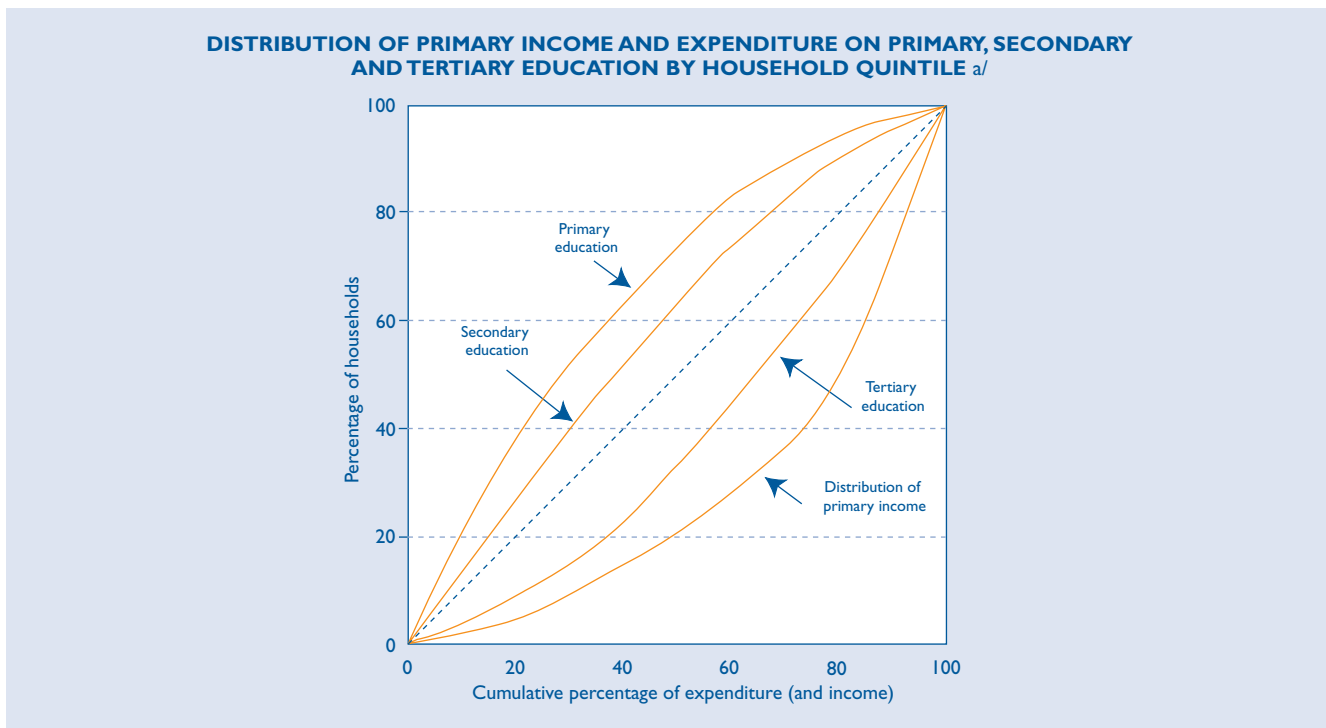
1. THE REDISTRIBUTIVE EFFECT OF SOCIAL EXPENDITURE COMPONENTS

Data on eight countries in the region show marked differences in the distributive progressiveness of the different components of public social expenditure. The data on the share of expenditure received by households in each quintile of income distribution are summarized in box IV.5.⁵ As will be noted, the most

progressive types of expenditure –those that provide relatively greater benefits to the poorest households– are spending on primary and secondary education, followed by spending on health care and nutrition and then by spending on housing and basic services (water and sanitation). These data confirm that expenditure on primary education continues to be the most progressive item and has the greatest levelling-out effect on income distribution (see figure IV.8). It should be noted that, in contrast to the findings of similar studies conducted in the 1970s and early 1980s, expenditure on secondary education seems to have a fairly strong progressive impact, similar to that of spending on health and nutrition. This difference can be accounted for by the notable expansion in the coverage of secondary education since that time (ECLAC, 2000), especially over the last twenty years. That led to very significant increases in secondary-school enrolment ratios, which have been of proportionally more benefit to young people from middle- and low-income strata.

⁵ Two indices of the progressiveness of this expenditure are also shown: the Gini coefficient and an index comparing the share of total expenditure on each item that goes to households in the 40% lowest-income bracket with the share of primary income they obtain (see box IV.4).

Figure IV.8



Source: Table IV.4.

^{a/} Simple average of data relating to eight countries: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador and Uruguay.

Box IV.5

PROGRESSIVENESS OF SOCIAL EXPENDITURE BY SECTOR

To analyse the degree of distributive progressiveness of social expenditure in each sector (education, health, housing and social security), a synthetic index based on the share of expenditure received by households in each income–distribution quintile was used.

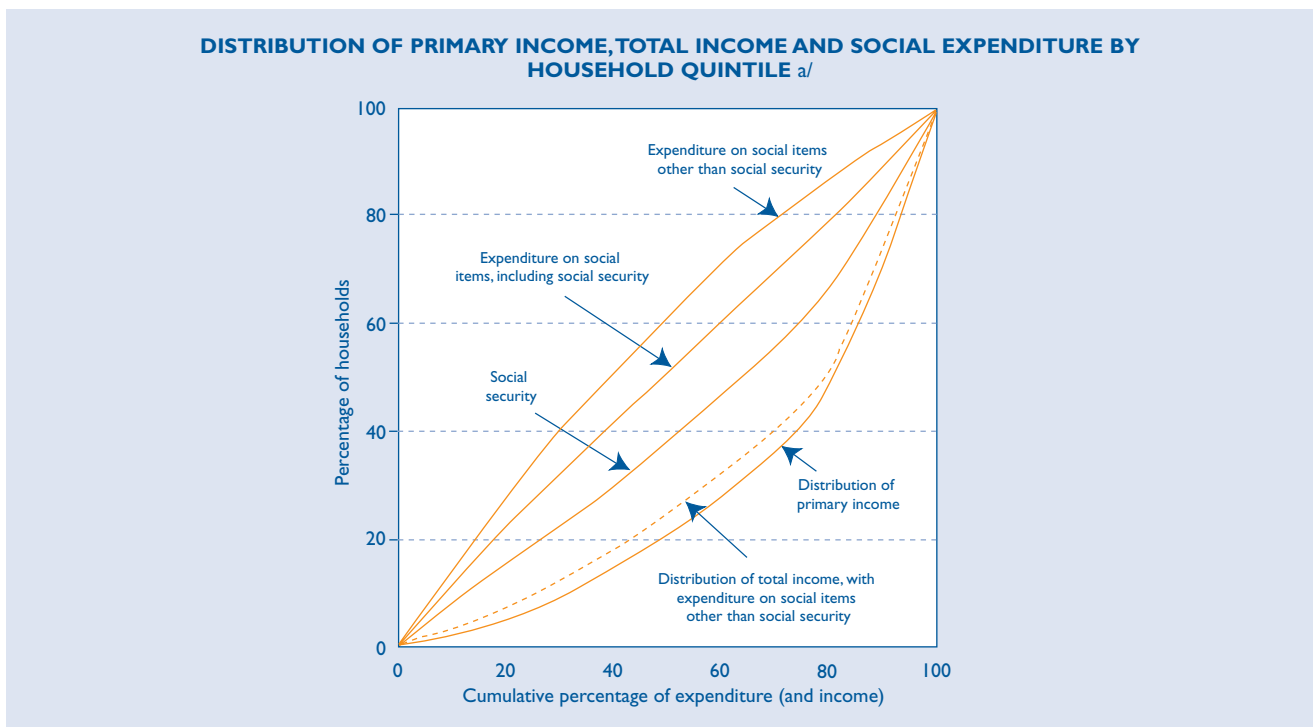
The index was calculated on the basis of the following equation:

$$I_G = \frac{N+1}{N} - \frac{2}{N} * \sum_{i=1}^N Q_i$$

in which N represents the number of segments into which the population was divided (5 segments) and Q_i represents the cumulative percentage of expenditure received by the population in each of the quintiles based on distribution of households' autonomous income.

Depending on how progressive expenditure is, this index can take the following values:

- If $-1 \leq I_G < 0$ then expenditure distribution is progressive, i.e., if low–income households receive a proportionally higher share of expenditure than middle– and high–income households.
- If $0 < I_G \leq 1$ then expenditure distribution is regressive, i.e., if low–income households receive a proportionally lower share of expenditure than middle– and high–income households.



Source: Table IV.4.

a/ Simple average of data relating to eight countries: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador and Uruguay.

Expenditures on social security and university education are the least progressive components of public spending, especially the latter. This reflects the fact that medium- and low-income strata still have less access to this level of education.

Expenditures on housing, the regional average of which indicates an intermediate degree of progressiveness, follow a rather uneven pattern in the countries examined. This is due to the marked differences among programmes and the extent to which households in the 40% lowest-income category have access to them.

Taken as a whole, social expenditure is highly redistributive in all the countries and even more so if spending on social security is excluded from the figures (see figure IV.9). If social security is not included, then the 20% of households having the lowest incomes receive 28% of total public revenues, while the

richest 20% of households only receive 12% of those resources. These differences are evident when these figures are compared with those relating to the distribution of households' primary income, i.e., income excluding monetary transfers from the State and social expenditure benefits. This means that –not counting expenditure on social security– the poorest 20% of households receive, on average, a portion of the funds devoted to social expenditure that is six times greater than their share of primary income (28.2% of funds devoted to social expenditure, versus 4.8% of total primary income). For the richest 20% of households, this ratio is inverted, with such expenditure representing just one fourth of their income share (12.4% of social expenditure versus 50.7% of total primary income).

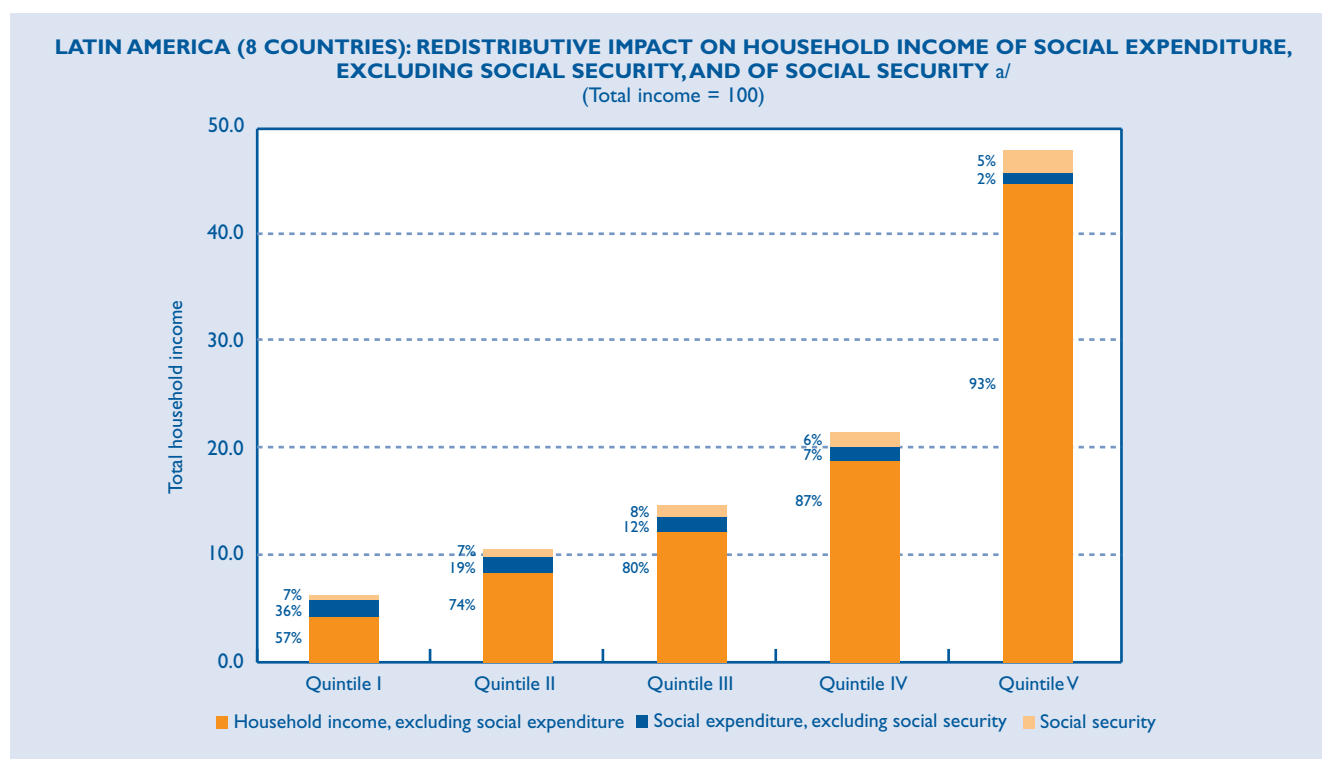
The same pattern in the progressiveness of spending is apparent from the Gini coefficient values. With few exceptions, the Gini coefficient for spending on

tertiary education and social security in all the countries, unlike the other spending components, shows positive values, albeit lower than the primary income–distribution value (see table IV.5). The fact that the Gini coefficient value for certain specific items of expenditure is greater than zero (0) does not mean that the expenditure has a net regressive impact on the final distribution of households' income. For its effect to be progressive, the value of this coefficient must be lower than the autonomous income–distribution value. As shown in figure IV.9, all the components of social expenditure are, although to different degrees, progressive in relation to primary income distribution.

The countries analysed differ considerably in terms of how they target social expenditure other than so-

cial security. Chile and Colombia, which have made an effort to direct the benefits of social programmes to the lower-income strata, show the highest degree of targeting of expenditure on the poorest 40% of households compared with the share of income they receive. The indices are 4.9 for Chile and 4.2 for Colombia (see again table IV.5). Costa Rica and Uruguay, with the lowest levels of relative targeting, have indices of 2.6 and 2.9, in that order. Both countries have been focused more on comprehensive social programmes that benefit a high percentage of all households to similar degrees. Argentina, Bolivia and Ecuador show intermediate levels of progressiveness of social expenditure, with targeting for the poorest 40% showing indices of 3.7, 3.8 and 3.5, in that order.

Figure IV.10



Source: Table IV.5.

a/ Simple average of data relating to eight countries: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador and Uruguay.

The net redistributive effect of public social expenditure is shown in figure IV.10 (and in greater detail in table IV.6), where estimates of the sectoral distribution of subsidies are combined with data on the size of subsidies to determine how much of total household income in each stratum corresponds to monetary transfers and the provision of goods and services free of charge or at subsidized prices. This percentage is much higher in lower-income strata, where it amounts to 43%. In upper-income sectors (the fourth and fifth quintiles), the figure is between 13% and 7%. If social security (mainly retirement and other pensions) is deducted, the effect of social expenditure falls by a far smaller proportion among the poorest strata; in the highest stratum more than 60% of the transfers correspond to social security, whereas in the poorest quintile they represent only about 25% of the total. It should be noted that, despite the low impact of social expenditure on the incomes of the richest stratum, the actual sums that those households receive are quite high. In fact, in several of the countries analysed, these transfers are as much as twice the amount that goes to the poorest households. This can be accounted for by the level of social security transfers. It should also be stressed that the aforementioned figures do not represent the net redistributive action of the State, since they do not take into account the funding of social expenditure from tax revenues.

The major redistributive effect of all items of social expenditure, excluding social security, is clearly shown in figure IV.9, in which the Lorenz curves for spending, with and without social security, are compared with the curve for distribution of primary income and total income of households. Although these curves represent the norm for the eight countries on which information is available, the expenditure and income-distribution curves follow the same pattern in every case.

2. SECTORAL TRENDS IN SOCIAL EXPENDITURE BETWEEN 1990 AND 1999

In considering the different redistributive effects of individual components of public social expenditure in the countries, it is important to ascertain whether the substantial increase in per capita social expenditure during the 1990s was directed towards its more progressive components, since the effect on equity of raising social expenditure is linked to the relative extent of the increase in each social sector. For the region as a whole, approximately 44% of the growth in spending went to education and health (28% and 16% respectively); 51% to social security, mainly retirement and other pensions; and the remaining 5% to other expenditures, such as housing, drinking water and sanitation. These variations seem to indicate that, in the region as a whole, the increase in spending was accounted for to similar degrees by the most and the least progressive social sectors.

The effect on equity was not uniform in all the countries. In countries with lower per capita income levels, spending increases were relatively greater in the more progressive components (education and health), which accounted for 56% of the total, while social security represented only one fifth. In countries where expenditure was highest, social security accounted for around one half of the total increase (see table IV.7).

The substantial increase in spending on education was linked to the implementation of reform programmes, especially at the primary and secondary levels, designed to improve quality and equity in education. These reforms included teacher training and salary increases, with the latter expenditure having a significant impact on the sector's budget. The rise in current and capital expenditure items also contributed to this increase, especially in those countries which decided to improve their physical and technological infrastructure, update teaching methods and materials and establish systems for measuring educational output.

As regards trends in expenditure on health, the greatest progress was achieved in Argentina, Chile and Colombia (between US\$ 76 and US\$ 109 per capita). This is much higher than the US\$ 28 by which the regional average rose.

Finally, the largest increases in spending on social security occurred precisely in those countries in which that component receives a greater share of public resources (Argentina, Brazil, Chile and Uruguay). In Argentina, Brazil and Chile, the per capita increase ranged between US\$ 150 and US\$ 200 per capita, and in Uruguay, just over US\$ 500. These increases stem from improvements in retirement and other pensions, especially in Uruguay, where four-monthly adjustments were introduced pursuant

to a constitutional amendment adopted in 1989. Other factors involved in these increases were the acknowledgement and amortization of liabilities accumulated by the system and increases in the coverage and amount of benefits provided.

The trends discussed above indicate that the increased efforts of the countries which allocate a lower share of GDP to the social sectors had a positive effect on the distribution of well-being, which was more marked there than in countries with the highest per capita social expenditure levels, in which social security, which mostly benefits the middle- and high-income strata, accounts for a much larger share of public resources.

Box IV.6

PUBLIC SPENDING ON BASIC SOCIAL SERVICES AND THE 20/20 INITIATIVE

The World Summit for Social Development (Copenhagen, March 1995) adopted the 20/20 initiative, which is aimed at achieving universal coverage of basic social services (BSS). To that end, countries are asked to allocate 20% of the national budget and 20% of official development assistance to basic social programmes. The initiative is based on the assumption that providing BSS is one of the most efficient and cost-effective ways to combat extreme poverty. It is believed that by redirecting existing resources, mobilizing new resources and increasing effective delivery of BSS based on criteria of efficiency and quality, it will be possible, within a relatively short but realistic period of time, to ensure universal access to those services.

As a follow-up to the initiative, the Governments of Norway and the Netherlands convened an international meeting (Oslo, April 1996), which produced the Oslo Consensus on 20/20. A follow-up meeting to exchange information, examine national experiences and evaluate progress in the matter was held in Hanoi in October 1998.

In Oslo, basic social services were defined in greater detail than in Copenhagen. Such services comprise basic education, primary health care including reproductive health and population programmes, nutrition programmes and safe drinking water and sanitation, as well as the institutional capacity for delivering those services.

The United Nations system decided to support this initiative, being persuaded that the debate on adjustment, reforms and development should focus not only on the macro and global levels but also on the micro and subnational levels and on policy instruments that affect resource allocation and distribution. They include, *inter alia*, allocation of public spending, use of foreign aid, assignment of credit, price and income policy and taxation policy. Among those instruments, the 20/20 initiative emphasises the restructuring of public spending and of aid flows to countries.

Against that background, studies were conducted in 13 Latin American and Caribbean countries (Belize, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Jamaica, Nicaragua and Peru). The main objectives of the studies were:

- to determine what percentages of national budgets and international development aid are currently being spent on BSS;
- to analyse the impact of public spending for basic social services on the different socio-economic strata of the population;
- to assess the possibilities for intersectoral and intrasectoral restructuring of national budgets to enhance basic social services;
- to identify areas in which the impact and cost-effectiveness of BSS delivery can be improved.

Among other findings, those studies showed that although most of the countries had increased social expenditure during the 1990s, none of them had managed to ensure universal access to quality services in the areas of basic education, basic health care and safe drinking water, nor had they met the targets of the initiative. Spending on basic social services represents only 12.4% of total public spending (just over one third of public social expenditure) and 10% of official development assistance allocated for these services.

Source: Enrique Ganuza, Arturo León and Pablo Sauma (eds.), *Gasto público en servicios sociales básicos en América Latina y el Caribe. Análisis desde la perspectiva de la iniciativa 20/20 (LC/R.1933)*, Santiago, Chile, United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)/Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC)/United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), October 1999.

Table IV.1

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): PER CAPITA PUBLIC SOCIAL EXPENDITURE (In 1997 dollars)					
Country	1990–1991	1992–1993	1994–1995	1996–1997	1998–1999
Latin America a/	360	419	466	499	540
Argentina	1 211	1 447	1 583	1 576	1 687
Bolivia	121	147	168
Brazil b/	786	765	932	952	1 011
Chile	440	538	597	719	827
Colombia	158	195	297	403	381
Costa Rica	476	495	536	568	622
El Salvador	60	70	82
Guatemala	52	65	66	69	107
Honduras	60	67	59	56	57
Mexico	259	333	358	352	402
Nicaragua	48	44	52	47	57
Panama	497	582	606	653	642
Paraguay	56	114	131	149	132
Peru	69	100	140	158	192
Dominican Republic	64	92	100	108	135
Uruguay	888	1 095	1 248	1 358	1 539
Venezuela	337	355	287	318	313

Source: ECLAC, Social Development Division, social expenditure database.

a/ Simple average for the countries, excluding Bolivia and El Salvador. The average for Latin America if those countries are included in the 1994–1995, 1996–1997 and 1998–1999 bienniums is 422, 453 and 491 dollars respectively.

b/ Estimate of consolidated social expenditure. See box IV.1.

Table IV.2

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): PUBLIC SOCIAL EXPENDITURE AS A PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL PUBLIC SPENDING					
Country	1990–1991	1992–1993	1994–1995	1996–1997	1998–1999
Latin America a/	41.8	43.9	46.7	46.7	47.8
Argentina	62.2	63.3	65.3	65.3	63.6
Bolivia	49.4	54.9	56.5
Brazil b/	48.9	47.2	60.0	60.4	60.4
Chile	60.8	62.4	64.7	65.9	66.8
Colombia	28.8	32.2	39.9	41.8	35.5
Costa Rica	38.9	41.2	38.3	42.2	43.1
El Salvador	21.3	24.9	27.0
Guatemala	29.9	33.4	38.5	37.4	46.2
Honduras	36.5	33.7	32.7	34.6	34.3
Mexico	40.8	49.7	52.4	51.9	58.5
Nicaragua	35.4	38.1	40.9	37.1	37.0
Panama	40.0	37.9	43.2	38.2	38.6
Paraguay	39.9	42.9	43.4	47.1	46.2
Peru	31.1	32.5	34.8	35.2	38.3
Dominican Republic	38.4	37.0	41.2	39.0	39.7
Uruguay	62.4	67.7	70.8	69.9	72.5
Venezuela	34.0	40.1	35.3	35.5	37.3

Source: ECLAC, Social Development Division, social expenditure database.

a/ Simple average for the countries, excluding Bolivia and El Salvador. The average for Latin America if those countries are included in the 1994–1995, 1996–1997 and 1998–1999 bienniums is 45.5%, 45.9% and 47.1% respectively.

b/ Estimate of consolidated social expenditure. See box IV.1.

Table IV.3

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): PUBLIC SOCIAL EXPENDITURE AS A PERCENTAGE OF GDP					
Country	1990–1991	1992–1993	1994–1995	1996–1997	1998–1999
Latin America a/	10.4	11.4	12.1	12.5	13.1
Argentina	17.7	19.2	21.0	19.8	20.5
Bolivia	12.4	14.6	16.1
Brazil b/	18.1	17.7	20.0	19.7	21.0
Chile	13.0	13.6	13.6	14.4	16.0
Colombia c/	8.0	9.4	11.5	15.3	15.0
Costa Rica	15.7	15.3	16.0	17.0	16.8
El Salvador	3.3	3.8	4.3
Guatemala	3.4	4.1	4.1	4.2	6.2
Honduras	7.9	8.5	7.7	7.2	7.4
Mexico	6.5	8.1	8.8	8.5	9.1
Nicaragua	10.8	10.6	12.6	11.0	12.7
Panama	18.6	19.5	19.8	20.9	19.4
Paraguay	3.1	6.2	7.0	8.0	7.4
Peru	3.3	4.8	5.8	6.1	6.8
Dominican Republic	4.3	5.9	6.1	6.0	6.6
Uruguay	16.8	18.9	20.3	20.9	22.8
Venezuela	9.0	8.9	7.6	8.3	8.6

Source: ECLAC, Social Development Division, social expenditure database.

a/ Simple average for the countries, excluding Bolivia and El Salvador. The average for Latin America if those countries are included in the 1994–1995, 1996–1997 and 1998–1999 bienniums is 11.6%, 12.1% and 12.7% respectively.

b/ Estimate of consolidated social expenditure. See box IV.1.

c/ From 1994 onward, the figures were calculated using the new gross domestic product (GDP) series at current prices.

Table IV.4

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): TRENDS IN SOCIAL EXPENDITURE EXCLUDING SOCIAL SECURITY DURING THE 1990s						
Country	Real per capita social expenditure excluding social security		Social expenditure excluding social security as a percentage of GDP a/		Social security as a percentage of social expenditure	
	1990–1991	1998–1999	1990–1991	1998–1999	1990–1991	1998–1999
Argentina	641	969	9.4	11.8	47.0	42.6
Bolivia b/	107	127	11.0	12.2	11.6	24.2
Brazil c/	435	456	10.0	9.5	44.8	54.8
Chile	204	438	6.0	8.5	53.7	47.0
Colombia	98	250	4.9	9.8	38.0	34.5
Costa Rica	327	406	10.8	11.0	31.3	34.7
El Salvador b/	56	81	3.2	4.3	0.8	1.2
Guatemala	40	92	2.6	5.3	22.3	14.4
Honduras	59	57	7.8	7.4	1.3	0.0
Mexico	249	299	6.2	6.8	4.1	25.5
Nicaragua	48	57	10.8	12.7	0.0	0.0
Panama	342	463	12.8	14.0	31.5	27.9
Paraguay	35	86	1.9	4.9	37.1	34.9
Peru	45	113	2.2	4.0	33.6	41.5
Dominican Republic	58	118	3.9	5.8	8.7	11.8
Uruguay	299	438	5.7	6.5	66.3	71.6
Venezuela	248	220	6.6	6.0	26.7	29.9
Regional average d/	212	304	6.5	8.0	30.5	33.1

Source: ECLAC, Social Development Division, social expenditure database.

a/ Gross domestic product.

b/ The figure for 1990–1991 refers to 1995 in the case of Bolivia and to 1994 in the case of El Salvador.

c/ Estimate of consolidated social expenditure. See box IV.1. The final figure refers to 1998.

d/ Simple average excluding Honduras and Nicaragua.

Table IV.5

LATIN AMERICA (8 COUNTRIES): DISTRIBUTION OF SOCIAL EXPENDITURE BY INCOME STRATA a/ AND PROGRESSIVENESS OF ITS DIFFERENT COMPONENTS							
Country	Percentage distribution of social expenditure by quintile					Gini coefficient b/	Index of progressiveness of social expenditure c/
	I (Poorest)	II	III	IV	V (Richest)		
Argentina 1991 d/							
Education	32.5	18.7	21.1	15.4	12.4	-0.17	3.69
Primary	42.7	21.0	19.9	11.9	4.5	-0.34	4.60
Secondary	28.7	19.0	26.0	15.6	10.7	-0.16	3.45
Tertiary	8.3	11.1	16.0	25.8	38.8	0.30	1.40
Health and nutrition	38.7	16.6	25.5	14.8	4.5	-0.28	3.99
Housing and other	20.5	18.0	25.8	19.0	16.7	-0.03	2.77
Social security	11.0	17.2	20.9	22.5	28.4	0.16	2.04
Social expenditure excluding social security	33.1	17.9	23.0	15.6	10.3	-0.19	3.68
Social expenditure including social security	21.1	17.5	21.9	19.3	20.1	-0.001	2.79
<i>Income distribution e/</i>	5.3	8.6	14.1	21.4	50.6	0.41	
Bolivia 1990							
Education	32.0	24.3	20.0	14.8	8.9	-0.22	4.66
Primary and secondary	36.6	26.3	19.3	12.3	5.5	-0.30	5.21
Tertiary	12.4	15.5	22.9	25.8	23.4	0.13	2.31
Health and nutrition	15.2	14.7	24.4	24.4	21.3	0.09	2.48
Housing and other	7.8	11.1	14.7	20.6	45.8	0.34	1.56
Social security	13.5	19.9	22.4	19.0	25.2	0.09	2.76
Social expenditure excluding social security	25.8	20.5	19.6	16.9	17.2	-0.08	3.83
Social expenditure including social security	23.5	20.4	20.2	17.3	18.7	-0.05	3.63
<i>Income distribution e/</i>	3.4	8.7	13.1	20.5	54.3	0.45	
Brazil 1994 f/							
Primary education	30.1	27.3	21.6	14.3	6.8	-0.24	4.34
Health and nutrition	31.5	26.5	19.5	14.2	8.3	-0.23	4.38
Housing and other	30.8	26.9	20.6	14.2	7.5	-0.24	4.36
Social security	42.0	10.1	13.5	15.1	19.4	-0.16	3.94
Social expenditure including social security	33.8	22.1	18.1	14.8	11.3	-0.21	4.22
<i>Income distribution e/</i>	4.5	8.8	11.8	19.5	55.4	0.45	
Chile 1996							
Education	34.0	26.1	19.4	14.0	6.5	-0.27	5.05
Primary	38.2	26.3	17.6	12.5	5.3	-0.32	5.42
Secondary	26.5	24.7	22.2	17.6	9.1	-0.17	4.30
Tertiary	6.3	16.3	37.9	20.5	19.0	0.12	1.90
Health and nutrition	30.9	23.2	22.2	16.5	7.2	-0.22	4.55
Housing and other	37.3	27.5	20.3	11.2	3.8	-0.33	5.45
Social security g/	4.0	9.0	15.0	25.0	47.0	0.41	1.09
Social expenditure excluding social security	33.3	25.0	20.5	14.4	6.8	-0.25	4.90
Social expenditure including social security g/	16.0	16.0	17.0	21.0	30.0	0.13	2.69
<i>Income distribution e/</i>	3.9	8.0	11.8	19.2	57.1	0.47	
Colombia 1997							
Education	21.4	21.2	21.5	18.1	17.6	-0.04	3.40
Primary	35.9	28.7	21.2	10.2	4.1	-0.33	5.15
Secondary	24.9	26.8	24.4	16.6	7.3	-0.18	4.12
Tertiary	3.4	8.0	19.1	27.6	41.6	0.39	0.91
Health and nutrition	17.5	19.7	22.2	20.7	19.7	0.02	2.97
Social expenditure excluding social security g/	27.0	25.0	21.0	17.0	10.0	-0.17	4.15
Social expenditure including social security g/	23.0	23.0	20.0	18.0	15.0	-0.07	3.67
<i>Income distribution e/</i>	3.9	8.7	12.9	19.7	54.9	0.45	

Table IV.5 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (8 COUNTRIES): DISTRIBUTION OF SOCIAL EXPENDITURE BY INCOME STRATA ^{a/} AND PROGRESSIVENESS OF ITS DIFFERENT COMPONENTS							
Country	Percentage distribution of social expenditure by quintile					Gini coefficient ^{b/}	Index of progressiveness of social expenditure ^{c/}
	I (Poorest)	II	III	IV	V (Richest)		
Costa Rica 1986							
Education	15.7	18.4	19.6	23.8	22.5	0.08	2.04
Primary	30.0	27.0	22.0	13.0	8.0	-0.23	3.40
Secondary	17.8	21.4	23.1	21.2	16.5	-0.01	2.34
Tertiary	1.7	9.1	15.5	35.0	38.7	0.40	0.65
Health and nutrition	27.7	23.6	24.1	13.9	10.7	-0.17	3.06
Social security	7.1	13.2	12.0	23.1	44.6	0.34	1.21
Social expenditure excluding social security	22.1	21.2	22.0	18.5	16.2	-0.06	2.58
Social expenditure including social security	17.6	18.8	19.0	19.9	24.8	0.06	2.17
<i>Income distribution ^{e/}</i>		5.1	11.6	16.7	24.5	42.0	0.35
Ecuador 1994							
Education	26.5	31.8	18.5	12.8	10.4	-0.20	3.74
Primary	37.5	25.6	18.2	10.8	7.9	-0.30	4.04
Secondary	26.7	34.5	17.3	15.6	5.9	-0.24	3.92
Tertiary	22.3	32.8	18.8	12.1	14.0	-0.15	3.53
Health and nutrition	18.8	41.9	16.0	16.3	7.0	-0.20	3.89
Social expenditure including social security	24.5	30.3	18.5	14.4	12.2	-0.16	3.51
<i>Income distribution ^{e/}</i>	5.0	10.6	15.9	22.2	46.3	0.38	
Uruguay 1993							
Education	33.2	21.3	16.5	14.7	14.3	-0.18	3.03
Primary	51.6	22.2	12.7	9.9	3.7	-0.43	4.10
Secondary	30.3	28.9	17.6	14.2	9.0	-0.23	3.30
Tertiary	5.4	7.2	21.4	24.3	41.7	0.36	0.70
Health and nutrition	34.9	19.9	22.1	13.2	10.0	-0.23	3.05
Housing and other	14.1	17.2	13.6	25.3	29.8	0.16	1.74
Social security	12.4	16.2	20.5	20.1	30.8	0.16	1.59
Social expenditure excluding social security	31.8	20.1	19.1	15.2	13.9	-0.16	2.88
Social expenditure including social security	19.6	17.6	20.0	18.3	24.5	0.04	2.07
<i>Income distribution ^{e/}</i>	7.3	10.7	13.3	23.8	44.9	0.35	
Non-weighted average							
Education	27.9	23.1	19.5	16.2	13.2	-0.14	3.66
Primary	38.0	25.4	19.0	11.8	5.8	-0.31	4.44
Secondary	25.8	25.9	21.8	16.8	9.7	-0.17	3.57
Tertiary	8.5	14.3	21.7	24.4	31.0	0.22	1.63
Health and nutrition	26.9	23.3	22.0	16.7	11.1	-0.15	3.54
Housing and other	22.1	20.1	19.0	18.1	20.7	-0.02	3.18
Social security	15.0	14.3	17.4	20.8	32.6	0.17	2.11
Social expenditure excluding social security	28.2	22.9	20.5	16.0	12.4	-0.15	3.65
Social expenditure including social security	22.1	19.3	19.4	18.4	20.6	-0.01	3.03
<i>Income distribution ^{e/}</i>	4.8	9.4	13.7	21.4	50.7	0.41	

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of national studies and official information provided by the countries.

a/ Refers to quintile groups of households ranked according to their per capita income.

b/ See box IV.3.

c/ Refers to the quotient between the proportion of social expenditure items earmarked for households in the poorest 40% of the population and their share of primary income distribution.

d/ Refers to Greater Buenos Aires.

e/ Refers to the distribution of households ranked according to their autonomous per capita income. Autonomous income is the sum of income received by individuals after deduction of social security contributions, income tax and monetary subsidies provided by the State. For purposes of comparison, the Gini coefficient of autonomous income distribution was calculated on the basis of household quintile groups.

f/ Refers to São Paulo. In Brazil, social security expenditure only includes pensions.

g/ See ECLAC, 1994, p. 65.

Table IV.6

LATIN AMERICA (8 COUNTRIES): IMPACT ON HOUSEHOLD INCOME OF PUBLIC SOCIAL EXPENDITURE (Social expenditure as a percentage of primary income and of total income of households)												
Country	Total	Includes public expenditure on social security					Total	Excludes public expenditure on social security				
		Quintile 1 (poorest)	Quintile 2	Quintile 3	Quintile 4	Quintile 5		Quintile 1 (poorest)	Quintile 2	Quintile 3	Quintile 4	Quintile 5
Argentina (1991)												
% of primary income	40	90	46	35	21	9	26	73	31	15	9	2
% of total income a/	25	48	32	26	17	2	18	42	24	13	8	2
Bolivia (1990)												
% of primary income	16	49	15	10	6	2	14	42	13	8	5	2
% of total income a/	12	31	13	9	5	2	11	29	11	8	4	2
Brazil (1994)												
% of primary income	57	170	56	35	17	5
% of total income a/	29	63	36	26	15	4
Chile (1994)												
% of primary income	32	72	35	25	19	9	23	68	25	14	6	1
% of total income a/	22	42	26	20	16	8	16	40	20	12	6	1
Colombia (1997)												
% of primary income	38	99	45	26	15	5	26	72	30	17	9	2
% of total income a/	24	50	31	21	13	4	18	42	23	15	8	2
Costa Rica (1986)												
% of primary income	31	70	33	23	16	12	26	66	28	20	11	6
% of total income a/	22	41	25	19	14	11	19	40	22	17	10	6
Ecuador (1994)												
% of primary income	16	39	23	9	5	2
% of total income a/	12	28	19	8	5	2
Uruguay (1993)												
% of primary income	38	71	43	40	20	14	15	39	17	13	6	3
% of total income a/	26	41	30	28	17	13	12	28	14	11	5	3
Simple average												
% of primary income	32	76	37	25	15	7	21	57	24	14	7	3
% of total income a/	22	43	26	20	13	7	15	36	19	12	7	2

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of national studies and official information provided by the countries.

a/ Includes social expenditure.

Table IV.7

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): LEVEL OF AND TRENDS IN SOCIAL EXPENDITURE BY SECTOR IN THE 1990s a/								
(In 1997 dollars)								
Country	Education		Health and nutrition		Social security		Housing, water, sanitation and other	
	Per capita social expenditure in 1998–1999	Absolute variation in relation to 1990–1991	Per capita social expenditure in 1998–1999	Absolute variation in relation to 1990–1991	Per capita social expenditure in 1998–1999	Absolute variation in relation to 1990–1991	Per capita social expenditure in 1998–1999	Absolute variation in relation to 1990–1991
Simple average	137	51	111	28	243	91	49	10
Argentina	383	157	380	109	719	150	206	62
Brazil b/	187	26	163	8	554	203	107	-11
Chile	202	115	145	76	389	154	92	45
Colombia	120	58	104	81	132	72	26	14
Costa Rica	163	48	181	31	216	68	63	1
Guatemala	40	16	22	8	16	4	30	28
Honduras	32	-1	16	-4	0	-1	10	4
Mexico	167	63	93	-26	103	92	40	14
Nicaragua	26	4	20	0	0	0	12	6
Panama	198	73	223	60	179	24	42	-11
Paraguay	66	44	19	14	46	25	2	-6
Peru	62	34	38	23	80	57	14	11
Dominican Republic	57	40	31	16	16	10	31	5
Uruguay	218	88	187	34	1101	511	33	17
Venezuela	140	11	49	-8	94	5	31	-31

Source: ECLAC, Social Development Division, social expenditure database.

a/ Excludes Bolivia and El Salvador. For these countries, information is only available from 1995 onward and from 1994 onward, in that order.

b/ Estimate of consolidated social expenditure. See box IV.1. The 1998–1999 average refers to the figure for 1998.



Families in Latin America: current profile and public policies

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the social agenda is to provide a baseline analysis of the current situation of the region with regard to a number of emerging social issues with a view to contributing up-to-date knowledge on these subjects that can help improve social policy. The assessment should also make it possible to detect new concerns arising in this sphere and share successful experiences. Earlier editions of *Social Panorama* have addressed such issues as social integration and governance in the countries of Latin America, emphasizing topics such as citizen security, increased levels of violence, and the production, trafficking and consumption of illicit drugs (ECLAC, 1999; ECLAC, 2000d).

In a majority of policy proposals and analyses, the family, as an institution, is seen as playing a key role in accounting for individuals' behaviour and in measures for addressing such varied issues as unemployment, drug addiction and violence. Special emphasis has also been placed on the changes occurring in traditional family structures, which are seen as being associated with social disintegration. With these two considerations in mind, this report focuses on an analysis of public policy on families.

Social policies, as traditionally designed and implemented, take a sectoral approach, focusing on persons as individuals, not as members of a family.¹ They usually lack an integrated, comprehensive approach, which is why family issues continue to be addressed as if they pertained to the private sphere. The impact of public policy on families and family members becomes very difficult to perceive in such a system. Thus, the tendency to exalt the family in government discourse and in the public utterances of civil and religious institutions and individuals stands in clear contrast to the scant attention given to families in public policies.

Individuals tend to place great trust in the family, the first institution they turn to in times of crisis or difficulty, and also one of the leading topics of conversation. The family has been called a field of action where the most basic dimensions of human security are defined: the processes of personal physical reproduction and social integration (UNDP, 1998).

This chapter will take a look at the current situation of families in the region, based on information supplied by official family agencies in response to an ECLAC questionnaire (see appendices 1 and 2).² It also discusses family service institutions and their role within the bureaucratic structure. Finally, it attempts to determine whether or not governments in the countries of Latin America are designing and implementing family-oriented policies and highlights a few innovative initiatives in this sphere.

In keeping with usual practice, the chapter also outlines the international social agenda, including major United Nations meetings and agreements on social issues. In this case, the focus is on the Millennium Assembly, held in New York from 6 to 8 September 2000, at which the main world leaders adopted the Millennium Declaration.

1 Nevertheless, in the 1960s and 1970s, the centralized state model attached great importance to strengthening the family.

2 There has been renewed interest in family issues, not only in Latin America, but outside the region as well. The *Cambridge Journal of Economics* (Humphries, 1999) devoted a special issue just to this topic, and *Journal of Marriage and the Family* (Milardo, 2000) published an evaluation of the family in the United States covering the past 10 years. Additionally, *Feminist Economics* (Folbre and Himmelweit, 2000) released a special issue on policies targeting families and children.

A. ASSESSMENT OF FAMILIES IN LATIN AMERICA: MAJOR CHANGES

Scholars and policy designers agree that the families in the region have been confronted with sweeping changes, including far-reaching demographic shifts, the growing number of households headed by women and the increasing number of women entering the labour market. There have also been changes in symbolic aspects of the family which are reflected in new types of families and family relationships.

In today's world, all three dimensions of the classic definition of family –sexuality, procreation and cohabitation– have witnessed profound transformation and have begun to evolve in diverging directions, resulting in an ever-greater multiplicity of family and cohabitation models (Jelin, 1998). Studies agree that most of the changes in family structure have been gradual and are greatly influenced by setting (urban versus rural), social class and the diverse experiences that Latin American societies have undergone.

Other transformations have also been decisive, including the highly dynamic evolution of social roles for women inside and outside the family. On the economic front, women have entered the labour market in fast-growing numbers, while in the family, more and more households are headed by women.

Some of the major demographic and social changes taking place in the family have been the following (Ariza and Oliveira, 1997; Arriagada, 1998; Jelin, 1998; Salles and Tuirán, 1997):³

1. DEMOGRAPHIC CHANGES

Average family size has declined owing to a reduction in the number of children and greater birth spacing. In addition, the number of multi-generational families is on the decline and one-person households are on the rise. Migration, which may be undertaken for a variety of reasons (economic considerations, armed conflicts and others), is another factor.

Between the 1980s and the 1990s, average household size decreased in all the countries of the region.

³ Numerous studies have focused on the situation of families in various countries of Latin America from the demographic, psychological, sociological and economic standpoints. Suffice it to note that 104 papers from the region were presented at the fifth Ibero-American Conference on Family (Madrid, 2000). There is still a great need, however, for comparative studies.

The heterogeneity of the trends in the various countries can be attributed to the fact that they are at different stages in the demographic transition. Uruguay has the smallest average household size (3.2 persons as of 1999); Guatemala and Honduras, with 4.8, and Nicaragua, with 4.9 persons per household on average, are at the opposite extreme. Household size also varies widely by income level. In 1999, the

difference in family size between the first quintile (poorest) and the fifth (wealthiest) was 1.4 persons in the Dominican Republic and 1.5 in Costa Rica, while it was 2.8 in Guatemala and 2.7 in Mexico (see table V.1). The very small difference in Costa Rica and the Dominican Republic may be attributable to the fact that in both countries, family patterns are similar throughout the culture.

Table V.1

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE SIZE OF URBAN HOUSEHOLDS BY INCOME QUINTILES ^{a/} AROUND 1987 AND 1999 (Number of persons)					
Country	Year	Family income quintiles			
		Total	Quintile 1	Quintile 5	Q1–Q5
Argentina ^{b/}	1986	3.5	4.2	2.9	1.3
	1999	3.3	4.7	2.6	2.1
Bolivia ^{c/}	1989	4.7	4.9	4.0	0.9
	1999	4.3	5.2	3.4	1.8
Brazil	1987	3.9	4.4	3.2	1.2
	1999	3.6	4.7	2.9	1.8
Chile	1987	4.2	5.0	3.4	1.6
	1998	3.9	4.7	3.1	1.6
Colombia ^{d/}	1986	4.6	5.2	3.6	1.6
	1999	4.1	4.8	3.2	1.6
Costa Rica	1988	4.4	5.0	3.5	1.5
	1999	4.0	4.6	3.1	1.5
Ecuador	1990	4.7	5.3	3.7	1.6
	1999	4.4	5.0	3.4	1.6
El Salvador	1997	4.3	5.1	3.4	1.7
Guatemala	1998	4.8	6.3	3.5	2.8
Honduras	1988	5.1	6.0	4.0	2.0
	1999	4.8	5.6	3.7	1.9
Mexico	1984	5.0	6.6	3.5	3.1
	1998	4.1	6.1	3.5	2.6
Nicaragua	1997	4.9	5.6	3.8	1.8
Panama	1986	4.5	5.6	3.3	2.3
	1999	3.9	4.8	2.9	1.9
Paraguay ^{e/}	1986	4.6	5.5	3.7	1.8
	1999	4.3	5.4	3.1	2.3
Dominican Republic	1997	4.2	4.7	3.3	1.4
Uruguay	1986	3.4	4.5	2.9	1.6
	1999	3.2	4.6	2.3	2.3
Venezuela ^{f/}	1986	5.1	6.1	3.7	2.4
	1999	4.7	5.3	3.7	1.6

Source: ECLAC, based on special tabulations from household surveys in the countries concerned, and ECLAC, *Statistical Yearbook of Latin America and the Caribbean, 1999* (LC/G.2066–P), Santiago, Chile, 2000. United Nations publication, Sales No. E/S.00.II.G.1.

^{a/} By per capita income quintiles. Quintile 1 includes the poorest households and quintile 5 the richest.

^{b/} Greater Buenos Aires.

^{c/} Eight department capital plus El Alto.

^{d/} Eight largest cities.

^{e/} Includes the metropolitan area.

^{f/} National total.

2. NEW TYPES OF FAMILIES

New family configurations have emerged in Latin America, such as couples without children and non-nuclear households; at the same time, households headed by women continue to increase in number.⁴ Also, with the rising incidence of separation and divorce, blended families have emerged as a new, growing phenomenon in the region. While nuclear families continue to be the norm in Latin America, in urban and rural areas alike, individual nuclear families may in fact represent many different situations; the internal configuration of these households thus needs to be studied in more depth.⁵ At the same time, although two-parent nuclear households (including blended families) are still the most numerous, single-parent families – usually headed by women – are on the increase, as are childless nuclear families usually consisting of older adults whose children have established their own homes. Regardless of their magnitude, these new family structures are beginning to appear more often in

the media; for example, the greater visibility of childless families, non-nuclear households and one-person households is changing society's image of the diversity of family types to be found in the region.

As was indicated at the beginning, the structure of families in Latin America is highly variable, depending on income level. For example, setting up a one-person household requires financial resources not available to everyone who would like to live alone. Meanwhile, the percentage of extended and composite families is rising steadily at the lower end of the income spectrum. The number of children marks the difference between nuclear families that fall into the poorest quintile and those that are in the wealthiest (see table V.2). While no direct temporal cause-effect relationship can be established (Does having more children make a household poor, or does greater poverty tend to cause people to have more children?), there is no denying the existence of a significant correlation between household income and family structure.

Table V.2

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): TYPES OF URBAN HOUSEHOLDS, BY LEVEL OF FAMILY INCOME, 1997 ^{a/}											
(As percentage of total households)											
Country Income quintiles	Total	Types of households									
		Single-person		Nuclear, two parent		Nuclear, single parent		Nuclear no children		Extended and composite	
		I	5	I	5	I	5	I	5	I	5
Argentina ^{b/}	100.0	8.4	26.0	46.6	35.2	9.7	8.7	11.7	18.1	23.6	12.0
Bolivia	100.0	4.5	18.7	58.0	42.2	13.9	10.2	2.7	8.0	20.8	20.9
Brazil	100.0	3.2	14.3	53.0	44.7	13.7	8.4	4.9	16.5	25.2	16.0
Chile	100.0	3.2	13.7	54.5	44.0	9.8	9.3	2.3	13.9	30.2	18.9
Colombia	100.0	3.7	13.5	44.8	40.3	12.6	10.6	3.1	12.1	35.8	23.4
Costa Rica	100.0	5.1	13.9	40.8	46.0	17.1	9.2	4.6	13.6	32.4	17.3
Ecuador	100.0	3.6	13.4	50.0	42.8	11.0	7.6	2.2	10.5	33.3	25.8
El Salvador	100.0	3.9	11.7	38.1	40.0	12.6	11.0	2.5	8.8	42.9	28.4
Honduras	100.0	5.1	11.6	37.1	36.5	12.0	8.9	2.8	6.6	43.0	36.5
Mexico	100.0	0.5	16.3	62.5	45.9	6.7	9.7	1.7	14.1	28.7	14.0
Nicaragua	100.0	3.3	10.8	36.3	37.4	16.8	13.6	1.5	7.8	42.0	30.4
Panama	100.0	4.8	15.7	42.9	36.2	17.5	11.4	3.3	13.8	31.5	22.9
Paraguay	100.0	2.8	17.4	43.7	34.3	8.6	9.0	4.0	12.7	40.9	26.5
Dominican Republic	100.0	6.1	16.7	33.5	32.7	16.1	9.7	2.0	11.1	42.4	29.8
Uruguay	100.0	2.7	32.4	48.7	25.5	10.9	8.1	4.4	22.2	33.3	11.8
Venezuela ^{c/}	100.0	1.8	9.2	49.0	42.5	11.0	9.8	2.1	10.2	36.1	28.4

Source: ECLAC, based on household surveys from the countries concerned.

a/ By per-capita income quintiles. Quintile 1 includes the poorest households, and quintile 5, the wealthiest.

b/ Greater Buenos Aires.

c/ National total.

4 This study focuses on the following types of households and families: one-person households (just one person); non-nuclear households (households with no conjugal nucleus or parent-child relationship, although other kinship ties may exist); nuclear families (one or both parents, with or without children), extended families (one or both parents, with or without children, and other relatives) and composite families (one or both parents, with or without children, with or without other relatives, and with other non-relatives). Families may be either single-parent (just one parent, usually the mother) or two-parent (both parents are present), and they may or may not have children.

5 The phenomenon of blended households or blended families is difficult to quantify in household surveys, as questionnaires generally do not ask whether the household in question consists of a first marriage or a subsequent marriage and makes no distinction between children and stepchildren. Such households are therefore recorded as two-parent, nuclear families.

The number of households headed by women has continued to grow since the early 1990s, so that this group now makes up between one fourth and one third of all households, depending on the country. The highest rates of households headed by women were found in Nicaragua (35%) in 1998 and in the

Dominican Republic and Uruguay (31%) in 1999. At the same time, poverty rates continue to be consistently higher among these households: in Costa Rica and the Dominican Republic, more than half of all indigent households were headed by women (see table V.3).

Table V.3

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): POVERTY AND EXTREME POVERTY IN HOUSEHOLDS HEADED BY WOMEN, URBAN AREAS, AROUND 1990 AND 1999 (Percentages)					
Country	Year	Households headed by women, by poverty strata			
		Total households	Indigent	Non-indigent poor	Non-poor
Argentina	1990	21	26	12	22
	1999	27	37	28	27
Bolivia	1989	17	23	16	15
	1999	21	24	19	21
Brazil	1990	20	24	23	18
	1999	25	24	24	26
Chile	1990	21	25	20	22
	1998	24	28	23	24
Colombia	1991	24	28	22	24
	1999	29	31	27	29
Costa Rica	1990	23	36	25	21
	1999	28	56	39	25
Ecuador	1990	17	22	16	15
	1999	20	23	21	18
El Salvador	1995	31	38	31	29
	1997	31	36	36	29
Guatemala	1987	20	23	19	20
	1998	24	24	22	25
Honduras	1990	27	35	21	21
	1999	30	32	30	28
Mexico	1989	16	14	14	17
	1998	19	18	16	20
Nicaragua	1993	35	40	34	32
	1998	35	39	36	30
Panama	1991	26	34	29	24
	1999	27	45	28	26
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	20	21	23	18
	1999	27	30	23	29
Dominican Rep.	1997	31	50	31	29
Uruguay	1990	25	28	22	26
	1999	31	29	26	31
Venezuela	1990	22	40	25	18
	1999 a/	27	34	27	25

Source: ECLAC, based on special tabulations from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ National total.

3. TRANSFORMATION OF THE SOCIAL ROLES OF WOMEN

The massive entry of women into the labour force has altered traditional patterns of home life in Latin America. In the region as a whole, female employment rates rose from 39% in 1990 to 44.7% in 1998 (Abramo, Valenzuela and Pollack, 2000), although considerable differences were found by country, area of residence, age and educational level. The highest levels of employment are to be found among women with more education; even so, as Latin American households grapple with ever-greater financial difficulties, larger number of less-educated women are also entering the labour market. More and more family members now contribute to household income (including women, teens and children), marking the demise of the single-breadwinner system in households most exposed to social vulnerability.

Although demographic changes have been gradual, women have continued to join the labour market in increasing numbers. A number of studies have shown that in the last decade, the largest proportion of new female entrants have been women of reproductive age (women with small children). The economic contributions of working women are what keep many households above the poverty line (ECLAC, 1995; Arriagada, 1998).

The contribution to household income made by an additional income-earner marks the difference between households in the poorest and richest quintiles (see table V.4). Households with more than one breadwinner are most often composed of two-parent families, extended families or composite families. Because of their characteristics, single-parent families tend to post lower rates of multiple income-earners, as the only possible source of a second income is to have children enter the labour market. In the 1990s,

almost all the countries saw an increase in the number of households with more than one breadwinner in both the poorer quintiles and in those that were better off.

Since women have been participating more actively in public life, new perceptions of the role of women have begun to take shape, even as women discover the possibility of becoming more self-sufficient with respect to their families. This cultural change can be seen in delayed first marriages, later motherhood, lower fertility, conflicts in two-career couples⁶ and the need to balance domestic chores with paid employment.

Rapid social, economic and cultural change has an inevitable impact on family relationships, on attitudes and on social practices. This occurs when the new patterns (self-sufficiency, lower maternity rates, economic independence for women) continue to coexist with the traditional ones (subjective dependency, gender-based division of labour for domestic chores).

Cultural concepts and images regarding power continue to prevail in the social sphere, as well as patterns of behaviour based on those concepts, which help explain the inconsistencies between the traditional discourse and new practices in the family. A new and different definition of conjugal roles has emerged in which the principle of equality is gradually gaining acceptance, in step with the growing economic contribution of women and children to the household. Changing parent-child relationships reflect an increase in the rights of children along with diminished emphasis on relationships of hierarchy and submission. Still incipient but clearly visible is a greater emphasis on the individual, with personal rights taking precedence over family rights, and individual satisfaction overriding family interests. In these processes of cultural change, glo-

6 The two-career couple is a conjugal union in which the husband and wife both carry out professional activities requiring comparable levels of skill and responsibility. Four different types of relationship can be distinguished: accommodators, in which each spouse is committed to a separate sphere, whether professional or family; allies, when both are committed to the same sphere and are willing to tolerate imperfection in the other; adversaries, in which one is more committed to work and would like the other to be more committed to the home; and acrobats, when both are deeply committed to both job and home (Viveros, 1997).

alized images of different family types have helped drive this move towards individual rights and self-sufficiency, as well as changing models of sexua-

lity, especially among adolescents, and a greater emphasis on peer culture (in which young people identify above all with other young people).

Table V.4

LATIN AMERICA (10 COUNTRIES): URBAN FAMILIES WITH MORE THAN ONE BREADWINNER, BY TYPE OF HOUSEHOLD IN SELECTED QUINTILES, 1990–1999					
Country Income quintiles	Year	Total households		Two-parent nuclear families	
		1	5	1	5
Argentina a/	1990	12.4	34.3	14.5	44.8
	1999	18.8	51.7	19.4	76.8
Bolivia	1989	14.5	60.1	16.3	68.0
	1999	28.4	50.3	27.4	65.6
Brazil	1990	30.3	55.3	31.1	67.3
	1999	28.2	48.1	27.0	67.8
Chile	1990	30.3	55.3	31.1	67.3
	1998	17.3	53.2	12.0	70.9
Colombia	1991	30.3	55.3	31.1	67.3
	1999	25.3	56.9	20.5	72.6
Costa Rica	1990	17.8	56.2	14.2	69.9
	1999	22.8	59.2	22.0	73.7
Ecuador	1990	20.6	60.3	18.5	72.0
	1999	24.8	57.2	22.0	71.9
Mexico	1989	32.2	43.1	24.8	48.6
	1998	35.0	46.1	33.8	54.6
Paraguay b/	1990	36.0	66.3	24.3	79.0
	1999	35.9	61.4	32.2	80.1
Uruguay	1990	31.0	35.7	33.6	67.4
	1999	37.1	38.2	38.1	78.7

Source: ECLAC, Social Development Division, based on special tabulations from household surveys in the countries concerned.

a/ Greater Buenos Aires.

b/ Asunción and the Central Department.

B. THE FAMILY AND THE STATE

1. STATE AGENCIES CONCERNED WITH FAMILY ISSUES

The government agencies in charge of designing and implementing family policies in the region vary widely, ranging from government ministries, departments and divisions to councils which are attached to various agencies; in some instances, they are lacking altogether. Government agencies and other types of State institutions also differ as to their definition or concept of what constitutes a family.

The government agencies responsible for family matters operate within a wide range of institutions. Although very few countries currently have a ministry of the family (one exception being Nicaragua), others have assigned family issues to agencies concerned with women/gender matters, children and youth (as in Panama, which has a Ministry of Youth, Women, Children and the Family). Some have created a national women's secretariat or bureau which reports directly to the Presidency of the Republic (Chile, Paraguay, Dominican Republic), while others have assigned the family bureau to the ministry for social development (Argentina, Bolivia) or to sectoral agencies such as the ministry of education and culture (Uruguay) or health (Mexico⁷ and Colombia). Some family bureaus operate under the office of the first lady, while others are autonomous or semi-autonomous institutions (Costa Rica, Cuba) (see appendix, table 1).

Several important facts regarding the operation of family bureaus should be stressed. In the first place, their position in the organization chart reflects the degree of importance they enjoy, while the scope of the tasks they are expected to carry out always outweighs the amount of resources allocated to them. Ministries and bureaus of family affairs do not always define concepts of social development, family and gender (especially the latter two) in quite the same terms as other government departments, and as a result, theory is more and more distant from actual bureaucratic practice. This hampers implementation of policies and programmes. Differences are also evident between traditional approaches to the family (inclusion in sectoral offices such as ministries of health and housing, for example) and those that are less traditional (entities concerned with gender and family issues).

⁷ Subsequent to the ECLAC survey, the Government of Mexico transferred its National System for Integral Family Development (DIF) from the health sector to the Secretariat of Social Development (SEDESOL).

How are efforts coordinated? Most agencies responsible for family-oriented policies cooperate with other social-sector ministries, especially health, education, housing and labour. They also interact with ministries of justice and, to a lesser extent, economic affairs, the treasury, and the interior. In all cases they coordinate their work with non-governmental organizations (especially those dedicated to fighting violence in the family or those that work in education and training), with international agencies of the United Nations system, and with cooperation organizations in general. By pursuing this type of coordination, family agencies are able to maximize the use of their resources, gain greater legitimacy for their work, widen their coverage, round out their activities and make their achievements more sustainable. There are also disadvantages: more bureaucracy, difficulty building consensus and jurisdictional disputes with other state bodies. Taken as a whole, these factors can greatly slow decision making. In certain cases, as many as four different institutions are responsible for family issues, frequently competing with one another and not always working in coordination: the women and gender institute, agencies that target the family per se, the office of the first lady, and more recently, local or municipal bodies that carry out family-related programmes.

Family issues are frequently combined with women's affairs or gender issues, either explicitly or implicitly. Some countries have set up institutions for the family that also handle women's and children's affairs, reinforcing that idea that the family is centred on the mother-child relationship and overlooking the presence of a father altogether. While it is true that approximately one fourth of all households in the region are headed by women (usually in the absence of a father), this model is inconsistent with the design of other sectoral policies that target men as fathers or heads of families. The family is usually regarded as accessory to its members and not as an institution on its own merits; this is even more striking in view of the tendency to understand "family" as nearly synonymous with "women". Significantly, those institutions that combine family concerns with gender issues tend to develop a much more

up-to-date approach based on rights and with an emphasis on bringing about changes in the law.

In short, the tendency to overstate the prevalence of women as being "in charge" of the family stands in clear contrast to the glaring absence of women's concerns in the design of policies and programmes that might strengthen their position. This dichotomy could lend itself to considerable conflict in view of the fact that the opportunity cost of a woman's family-care activities is rising very fast. The gradual entry of women –especially married women with children– into the job market calls for public policies that focus on the economics of care giving as a core issue. Clearly, as women participate increasingly in the public arena, they begin to undertake new projects of their own, becoming more independent from their families.

2. CHANGES AND PROBLEMS FACING FAMILIES IN LATIN AMERICA: THE OFFICIAL VIEW

(a) The main changes

One of the main changes that government authorities responsible for family issues in the region have witnessed is the transformation of women's role in the home, either because of their entry into the labour market or because of the increase in the number of households headed by women. Demographic changes and those arising out of cultural and modernization processes have also been striking. The authorities' responses to these situations reflect the differences between more traditional and more modern concepts of what constitutes a family.

Government authorities responsible for family issues have different perceptions of the changes that have occurred in the region (see table V.5).

The differences can be understood more clearly by dividing trends in family life into three categories: (i) the changing role of women in the family, either because of their increasingly common position at the head of the household (mentioned by Argentina, Brazil, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Panama, Paraguay and Peru), or because of their entry into the labour market (Bolivia, Chile, Cuba, Mexico and Uruguay); (ii) changes in family composition and size as a result of declining birth rates and migration, the emergence of new family configurations, increased numbers of single-parent families, the transition from extended families to nuclear families and the increase in consensual unions, as well as in separations and divorces (Bolivia, Cuba, El Salvador, Peru, Uruguay); and (iii) phenomena associated with cultural patterns and modernization, such as changes in the system of family values, the breakdown of family ties, and the decline in the role of religion as the influence of the media grows, with the uncertainty that brings (Argentina, Chile, Colombia and Peru).

Values and behaviours within the family have undergone significant changes as the proportion of households headed by women rises and more and more women enter the job market. Patterns and models of family relationships and gender roles have loosened, women have become more self-sufficient, and male and female identities have changed. Another factor mentioned by numerous respondents is the declining role of religion and the growing influence of the mass media in all households of Latin America. Both phenomena are closely associated with rapid modernization in the region. Little in-depth knowledge is available on this trend, given the lack of studies on changes in internal family dynamics. Nevertheless, case studies suggest that the changes within families have occurred very slowly, and are often reflected in increased violence against women, along with the heavier burdens that women shoulder as they attempt to juggle paid work with domestic chores.

Table V.5

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): THE THREE MOST SIGNIFICANT CHANGES IN FAMILIES IN THE VIEW OF STATE AGENCIES			
Country	Most important change	Second most important change	Third most important change
Argentina	Lack of stable or temporary work. High percentage of women heads of household.	Breakdown of family ties.	Difficulty obtaining housing, whether for purchase or rental.
Bolivia	More domestic violence.	Entry of all family members into the job market.	Migration of families.
Brazil	More households headed by women.	More single-parent families.	Declining birth rates.
Chile	Massive entry of women into the job market, accompanied by tensions in connection with traditional assignment of roles.	Diversification of family structures.	Families assume new functions in a social setting fraught with uncertainty.
Colombia	Changes in family structure: more separations, consensual unions and successive unions, more households headed by women.	Changes in sexual and reproductive behaviour: declining fertility rates and birth rates, earlier start of sexual relations.	Changes in the system of traditional values and in gender relations (woman-provider). Declining influence of religion and increased influence of the media.

Table V.5 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): THE THREE MOST SIGNIFICANT CHANGES IN FAMILIES IN THE VIEW OF STATE AGENCIES			
Country	Most important change	Second most important change	Third most important change
Costa Rica	More households headed by women.	Widening gaps between poor and wealthy households.	Changes in family structure.
Cuba	Entry of women into wage labour.	Changes in family composition and size: declining average size, more one-person households and households headed by women.	Earlier marriage, more consensual unions, more participation of older adults in economic production, in the socialization of younger generations and in family life.
Ecuador	Expanded concept of the family in the 1998 Constitution.	More households headed by women.	Most women heads of household have no spouse.
El Salvador	Demographic.	Migration.	Transition from extended families to nuclear families.
Mexico	Entry of mothers into the job market.	More flexible patterns and models of family relationships.	
Panama	Fewer children per family.	Transition from extended families to nuclear or single-parent families.	More households headed by women.
Paraguay	Recognition of family rights in the 1992 Constitution.	More households headed by women.	
Peru	More visible role for women in heading and running households.	Changing concepts and observance of moral values in the family.	Institutionalization of consensual unions.
Dominican Republic	More households headed by women.	Higher percentage of teenage mothers.	Declining fertility rates.
Uruguay	Entry of women into the job market and increased independence.	Transition from nuclear to single-parent families.	Declining fertility rates due to changes associated with modernization.

Source: Based on ECLAC, *Encuesta sobre programas dirigidos hacia la familia en América Latina*, Santiago, Chile, Social Development Division, 2000.

(b) The main problems

Authorities in the field agree that the main problems facing families in Latin America are domestic violence, unemployment and family breakdown.

Policy-makers concerned with family issues are largely in agreement as to the chief problems families

face. In all countries except Chile and Cuba, the authorities identify domestic violence as one of the most serious issues that need to be addressed. In second place, the authorities in 12 of the 18 countries surveyed mentioned unemployment, which is also associated with poverty, economic crises and a deterioration in material living conditions, along with a lack of health care and education services. The disintegration of the family was also mentioned as an important factor (Bolivia, Colombia, Cuba, El Salvador, Mexico and Panama) (see table V.6).

One of the great achievements of the women's movement in the 1990s was the recognition of domestic violence as a serious social ill. This led to the creation of legal mechanisms for place this issue on the institutional agenda (Araujo, Guzmán and Mauro, 2000). Most of the countries have now enacted legislation on the subject, although it should be noted that less emphasis has been placed on preventive programmes to combat domestic violence. This will be discussed in the next section.

Unemployment has increased over the past decade, hitting certain sectors of the population more than others. Authorities have identified this as one of the most serious problems facing Latin American families.

Even though many countries mention family breakdown as a problem, none specifies what exactly is meant by this expression. In many cases, it seems to be related to rising divorce rates, but in others, it is associated with changing roles of family members. Other respondents could even be referring to lack of communication in the home. Highly diverse positions continue to be espoused on all these subjects. A typical example is the debate over early childhood education, with the emphasis moving away from the need for broader coverage with public resources and toward considering mothers as the only acceptable caregivers for small children.

Wider access to the labour market has translated into an overload for women, as domestic chores have not been redistributed. In some cases, older daughters have had to take over housework and care for their younger siblings. Traditional roles for women have been redefined, but male roles remain un-

changed. Greater tension has ensued with the coexistence of two different approaches: the traditional structure, heavily sexist and patriarchal, which is coming under fire, alongside a new view based on democratization and gender equity, which is still incipient. To a certain point, it seems likely that these tensions lead to an increase in domestic violence, as many men feel threatened when women encroach upon a sphere in which their power was once unchallenged. They see the new social roles of women as undermining their male identity.

The concept of family breakdown seems to embrace violence in general, but even more, the structural problems of poverty, unemployment and limited access to basic housing, health and education services. The concept is applied to a wide range of situations: families living in extreme poverty, headed by women and abandoned by fathers; children out working instead of in school; children living in the streets; increased drug use and alcoholism; and the spread of domestic violence.

If the difficulties now faced by families are examined alongside the major transformations taking place in the family, a number of approaches for solving the problem can be found, running the gamut from the extremely modern to those based on traditional wisdom. For example, those who prefer to work for the defence of rights emphasize the fight for equality and recognition as a solution. By contrast, if poverty in all its manifestations is considered the primary problem, the tendency is to look towards traditional social service policies and programmes. Clearly, even though the emphasis on rights is necessary, it is not enough, in and of itself, to improve the lot of countless needy families in Latin America.

Table V.6

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): THE THREE MOST SERIOUS PROBLEMS FACING FAMILIES, IN THE VIEW OF STATE AGENCIES			
Country	Most serious problem	Second most serious problem	Third most serious problem
Argentina	Unemployment, serious economic hardship.	Exclusion from healthcare systems. Inability to maintain an adequate diet. Diseases associated with basic unmet needs.	Breakdown of relationships, violence.
Bolivia	Breakdown of relationships, violence.	Domestic violence.	Family breakdown.
Brazil	Social violence, unemployment and social inequality.	Domestic violence.	Persistence of sexist patterns.
Brazil	Unemployment.	Domestic violence.	Death of male children and youths due to urban violence.
Chile	Lack of support infrastructure for family life, and excessive demand from society.	Tensions resulting from new duties and need to adjust roles of family members.	Poverty, which intensifies the first two problems.
Colombia	Declining well-being and deteriorating quality of life due to impoverishment and unemployment.	Domestic violence, daily violence, social and political violence in conflict zones, triggering migration.	Weakening family and social ties and relationships.
Costa Rica (no order of priority indicated)	Domestic violence.	Increase in households headed by women.	Increase in number of children born out of wedlock.
Cuba	Deterioration of material living conditions.	Problems making family life work. Excessive work for women, failure of fathers to meet responsibilities. Sexist models.	Need for young people to receive more orientation and preparation for marriage and family life. Unrealistic concept of marriage, leading to divorce.
Ecuador	Lack of paid employment. High unemployment.	Lack of money and high cost of foodstuffs.	Domestic violence.
El Salvador	Poverty and lack of access to services.	Lack of communication and family breakdown.	Domestic violence and citizen insecurity.
Mexico	Poverty and marginalization.	Family breakdown.	Violence and abuse.
Panama	Family breakdown.	Domestic violence.	Unemployment.
Paraguay	Unemployment, or informal employment at low wages.	Lack of public awareness concerning responsible parenting (mothers and fathers).	Domestic and structural violence.
Peru	Domestic violence, especially against women and children.	Low income levels.	Increased consumption of drugs and alcohol, especially among adolescents and youths.
Dominican Republic	High unemployment.	Domestic violence.	Deficient public services.
Uruguay	Violence in the home.	Teenage pregnancy.	Unemployment among different members of the family.

Source: Based on ECLAC, *Encuesta sobre programas dirigidos hacia la familia en América Latina*, Santiago, Chile, Social Development Division, 2000.

C. FAMILY-ORIENTED POLICIES AND PROGRAMMES

As this new century begins, family-oriented policies still lack a specific direction, a well demarcated sphere of action and a clearly defined basis of legitimacy. In designing such policy measures, policy-makers have to deal with a variety of stumbling blocks, including the trade-offs existing between family and individual interests and the difficulties involved in balancing individual autonomy and liberty with family responsibilities. Emphasis on the legal dimension of programmes in this area appears to be leading towards a new concept of the family within a context of human rights.

1. DIFFICULTIES IN THE DESIGN OF FAMILY POLICIES

Most studies of the family start with the assumption that such a thing exists. However, there is no clear definition or universal conception of the family, whether as an institution, a system, or a group of social actors. While explicit definitions of "the family" are hard to find, its complexity, heterogeneity and changing character are much easier to pinpoint (Government of Colombia, 1999). When specific family-oriented policies are proposed in societies that are in transition and undergoing processes of change, several focal points of tension within the family come to the fore (SERNAM, 2000):

- Tension between the subject as an individual and the subject as a component of a family, bearing in mind the conflicting interests in different spheres. In the modern view, the "subject" seeks satisfaction of certain rights and a broadening of roles historically attributed to female and male identities.
- Tension between the view of the family as an institution or as a value system in which one type of family is defined as the "ideal" to which all real families must aspire. If the family is seen as belonging to the world of emotions, altruism and solidarity, it is easy to neglect the State's role in providing the ways and means for families to make these values a reality.
- Tension between the autonomy and freedom of individuals whose needs and desires are increasing, and the demands imposed by the family.
- The dichotomy between individual rights and family rights, which until recently was generally resolved in favour of the family, but in which priority now tends to be given to the individual.
- Tension between the public sphere and the private sphere. Some believe that the family is a prototype of the private sphere, leading to the view that public policy should not encroach on it.

PANAMA: BASIC CRITERIA FOR THE DESIGN OF FAMILY POLICIES

Subsidiarity and participation: the State facilitates the work of intermediate organizations (educational, health, cultural) to bolster each family's ability to solve its own problems.

Universality: rights and obligations are applicable to all families regardless of social class, religion, type, place of residence, sex or identity of the head of household.

Integrity: the needs of families and their members must be considered as a whole.

Family unity: it is the job of the State to promote the stability and cohesion of families by providing services that will guarantee the enjoyment of shared family life.

Source: Ruby Moscoso de Young, "Incidencia de la globalización en las familias. Las políticas públicas para promoción familiar en Panamá: avances y dificultades", paper presented at the fifth Ibero–American Conference on Family (Madrid, 19–22 September, 2000).

Debates over family policy frequently begin with a discussion of the concept *per se*, in view of the fact that all public policies have a direct or indirect impact on families (Meil, 1995). Family-oriented policies can be described as the full array of public policy measures or instruments whose purpose it is to strengthen the roles that families play in society. Such measures may be either explicit or implicit (Jelin, 1994).

If the idea is to promote equity and lessen social inequality, active intervention is needed by extra-family institutions whose tasks relate to compensation or transformation. The purpose of such intervention would be to widen the gamut of public guarantees pertaining to the rights of social citizenship, and this in turn means applying an egalitarian, universalist policy (Jelin, 1998). Additional actions should target the high-risk population, and these will necessarily be selective in nature.

Accordingly, family policy should be guided by a carefully crafted combination of universal coverage, participation and subsidiarity. Such an approach is reflected in a proposal drawn up by Panama (see box V.1).

Families, as agents and beneficiaries, are important in the design of public policies for the following reasons:

- Relationships within the family can generate both positive and negative externalities for family members.
- The characteristics of families are useful in defining targeting criteria.
- Families can be considered at every stage of a programme: conception, implementation and evaluation.
- Social policies can affect patterns of family organization or be affected by them (de Souza, 2000).

2 ABSENCE OF FAMILY POLICIES AND LACK OF FAMILY-ORIENTED PROGRAMMES AND PROJECTS

Two types of interventions are commonly used to target families: legal action, and economic or compensation programmes. Instead of implementing explicit family policies, most countries of the region carry out a number of scattered, uncoordinated interventions through programmes and projects in the fields of health care, education, poverty reduction, prevention and eradication of violence, among others.

Because public institutions responsible for family policies⁸ often combine family considerations with gender issues, the most innovative family policies in the countries of Latin America focus primarily on women (domestic violence policies); social assistance policies targeting "vulnerable" groups assign priority to at-risk children and teens (school breakfast programmes, soup kitchens, adoption of children). Both government institutions and civil-society organizations have adopted approaches revealing a diverse mix of the modern and the traditional. For example, the debate over sexual violence and domestic abuse includes a wide range of positions. Some prefer to downplay the problem in order to avoid eroding the institution of the family, instead covering up inequalities that exist within the family. The more modern approaches envision the family as a place where people find affection, protection and trust, in which democratic methods should rule.

Since the beginning of the 1990s, the most widespread measures for responding to domestic violence in the region have consisted of legislation aimed at controlling and punishing such behaviour. Less attention has been given to preventing violence through education (Arriagada, 1998). In some cases, child-protection laws have been added to the body of family legislation. Chile, for example, has enacted a filiation law which eliminates the differences between natural, legitimate and illegitimate children, giving them all equal rights and benefits. Even so, Chile is still the only country in Latin America that has no divorce law allowing for the legal dissolution of the marriage bond.

Even though family policies are targeted to certain members of the family, usually women and children, they do not include explicit references to childcare nor do they provide integral support for children. In this regard, they resemble the Spanish model of childcare (see box V.2).

⁸ Family-oriented policies are understood here as actions that involve: (i) legal provisions governing the family, in accordance with domestic legislation; (ii) issues regarding family composition, development and dissolution, such as age at marriage, formalization of unions, number of children, stability of the union, stage of the life cycle, etc.; (iii) internal relationships such as husband-wife, parents-children, sibling relationships, nuclear family-kinship network, forms of socialization, distribution of power within the family, communication, etc.; (iv) external relations of the family as a group and the various factors affecting family welfare, such as income, housing, infrastructure services, access to health care, education and social security services, etc.

CHILDCARE: THREE EUROPEAN MODELS

The main trends in social policy geared to families and children are illustrated in the approaches applied by three European countries: Sweden, Spain and Germany.

Sweden's policy is considered woman-friendly, as its explicit purpose is to reconcile family responsibilities and job demands. Mothers, whether married or single, are considered workers and are offered a high-quality public childcare system, around 90% of which is financed with tax money.

Policies in Germany encourage mothers to specialize in family care, and women who stay at home receive a subsidy, on the assumption that children will be better cared for at home by one of their own parents. The income earned by both spouses is added together, and one spouse is taxed for half of the total (*Ehegattensplitting*); this benefits marriages in which one member earns considerably more than the other.

Spanish policy ignores the problem altogether. Only limited public support is provided for childcare, which is still seen as a problem to be dealt with by the families themselves. Children are placed in the care of extended family members (usually grandmothers) or are cared for informally by friends or neighbour women. The state only finances 2% of childcare expenses for children aged between zero and three years; this is the lowest percentage in all of Europe. Public support is substantially greater (around 84%) for the care of children between the ages of three and six.

Source: Nancy Folbre and Susan Himmelweit (eds), "Children and family policy: a feminist issue", *Feminist Economics: A Special Issue on Children and Family Policy*, vol. 6, No. 1, March 2000.

Family policy (when it exists at all) is concerned less with the family per se than with the rights and responsibilities of individual family members. Indeed, most of the countries focus on issues involving the formation and dissolution of marriage, parental obligations and children's rights (Bruce, 1998). In general, the preferred objective of family policy is to regulate internal relations and set the rules for their establishment, development and dissolution. Much less progress has been made in designing and implementing policies concerning the external relationships of families and the factors that shape a family's circumstances such as income, housing,

infrastructure services, and access to health care, education and social security.

Consequently, programmes are frequently limited to anti-poverty actions, generally consisting of microsocial, short-term interventions involving government assistance, and they tend to be fragmented, having little or no connection to broader social policy. Most countries define as family policies those policies that are aimed at fighting poverty, drug abuse and child labour. Only in a few exceptional cases (Brazil, Cuba) do family policies reflect an approach based on community and social citizenship.

3. GOOD PRACTICES: WORTHWHILE PROGRAMMES, INITIATIVES AND PROJECTS

The wide range of family-oriented policies in existence include a number of very interesting initiatives and projects, however, including efforts to cope with the changes being experienced by the region's families and the changing social roles of men and women in the home.

Despite growing recognition of the major changes that have occurred in the functioning and structure of families in Latin America, very little has changed in the mechanisms or approaches applied in family programmes and projects. Most of the countries have made major changes in their legislation, since they must bring it in line with international standards. In this regard, some progress has been

made in the area of domestic violence. Some examples of interesting initiatives are a bill on the creation of family courts in Chile (see box V.3), and a proposal put forth by a state in Mexico which is aimed at enacting legislation on blended families so as to ensure that the law is consistent with changing family structures (see box V.4).

Box V.3

CHILE: DRAFT BILL ON FAMILY COURTS

Proposal:

To create a jurisdiction to handle all family-related matters that are currently considered in juvenile court and civil court.

Objectives:

To provide a more efficient, higher quality system for the administration of justice on issues relating to the family.

Deficiencies of the current system:

- Problems with coverage.
- Slow, cumbersome procedures.
- Bureaucratic overload, as each court has only one judge who is responsible for administrative tasks as well as the administration of justice.

Implementation:

Initially, the family court system would consist of 35 courts distributed throughout the country. Under the new organization, the number of judges could vary, and would include a presiding judge (on a revolving basis), a technical council of social workers and psychologists, a professional administrator holding an academic degree, and a secretarial staff.

This system eliminates the position of court secretary and creates the position of administrator, as well as the technical council. Management processes would be improved, and specialized personnel would be available to help find integrated solutions to cases being considered.

CHILE: DRAFT BILL ON FAMILY COURTS

The bill also provides for a mediation system as an alternative method of conflict resolution. The proceedings would be oral, public, informal and concentrated.

Basic preliminary studies:

A cost–benefit analysis shows that although the new family court system would entail higher costs, especially in the first few years, the situation would level out over the long term, once heavy initial investments have been covered. Under the new system, the user–cost/system–cost ratio would be lower than it is in the juvenile courts and civil courts. Users of the family court system would also spend less time on each case (indirect costs). In short, the cost–benefit analysis, taking into account only the monetary value of measurable benefits, shows that the net cost would be 23 billion pesos, an amount which would clearly be exceeded by the net benefits of the system.

Difficulties:

Implementation of the new family court system would require highly qualified professionals with expertise in this area.

Source: Graduate programme in economics of the Latin American Institute of Social Theory and Social Studies (ILADES) and Georgetown University.

MEXICO (STATE OF SINALOA): PROPOSED LEGISLATION ON BLENDED FAMILIES

One of the many family types existing today is the blended family (also referred to as assembled family, new family or second family) which comes into being as a result of divorce, annulment of marriage, widowhood or break–up of a consensual union. One of the consequences of this situation is that the children do not grow up with both birth parents. Such blended groups need clear rules to regulate participation and cooperation among members and thus ensure healthy coexistence. Laws are also needed to govern the rights and duties of stepmothers or stepfathers regarding children from other unions and, even if on a secondary level, with respect to the role of birth parents as legal guardians or caregivers.

The chief magistrate of the Family Division of the Supreme Court of the State of Sinaloa proposes the following legal measures:

1. Articles on relationships by affinity, or stepparenting, should be amended.
2. Stepparents should provide support, on either a primary or subsidiary basis, for their stepchildren.
3. The law should provide stepparents with the authority to socialize their stepchildren, especially in the home and at school.
4. Stepparents and stepchildren need to have clear rules on child rearing and support.
5. No biological parent may be exempted from the duty to pay child support when the other parent becomes part of a blended family.
6. Stepchildren and stepparents must be guaranteed the right to communicate with and visit each other even after dissolution of the marriage.
7. The law should allow for a stepchild to inherit from a stepparent.
8. The law should define the power of stepparents to use, administer and dispose of the stepchild's assets and even to receive some type of compensation for doing so, if it can be demonstrated that these assets have increased thanks to the stepparent's efforts.
9. It may be useful to extend to stepparents the rules on suspension, removal, limitation and termination of parental authority over minors, as set forth in articles 283, 444, 445 and 448 of the Civil Code of the State of Sinaloa.

Source: Claudio Gámez Perea, "La familia recompuesta", paper presented to the national colloquium "Convenciones internacionales en el proceso de impartición de justicia", Mexico D.F., November 2000.

CANTERA: A PROGRAMME DESIGNED TO PREVENT DOMESTIC VIOLENCE

Cantera is a non-governmental organization in Nicaragua that carries out programmes with and among women. Since 1993, it has been concerned with the issue of masculinity and offers courses that are open to all men in the country. Cantera seeks to apply a systems approach to the family and understands the need to take a chronological look at the issues, fears, prejudices and goals that usually concern men in connection with gender and masculinity.

The courses discuss such issues as:

- Male identity.
- Gender, power and violence.
- Unlearning machismo: methods for working with men.
- Building fair relationships (co-ed workshop).

Cantera takes an innovative view of gender problems and recognizes the need for a process in which both men and women can participate, so that both can take responsibility for any tensions that might arise. Prevention implies creating options, and this programme can offer an interesting alternative for men and women to work together in building new ways of relating to each other and new identities.

Source: Replies to the ECLAC survey.

Several experiences and pilot programmes have been designed to adapt male roles to the changing social roles of women. Most of these initiatives are components of programmes for the prevention of domestic violence. Several countries of the region have held workshops for men, such as the Paternar programme

in Colombia and Cantera in Nicaragua (see box V.5), with a view to addressing paternal and male roles and changing the ways in which maleness is expressed. Parenting schools for fathers and mothers have also played an important role in Cuba, El Salvador and Mexico.

4. STANDARDS FOR THE DESIGN OF FAMILY-ORIENTED POLICIES

The great variety of family situations to be found in the region and the differences existing across countries make it difficult to establish common guidelines. It is important, however, to emphasize that the fundamental requirement for policy-making in this field is to have a suitable baseline study covering the wide range of situations and recent changes affecting Latin American families. In addition, given the cross-cutting nature of family-related issues, it is important for family-oriented policies and programmes to be closely coordinated.

The following basic criteria must be considered in designing policies for families:

- Recognize the duty of the State to guarantee all family rights, especially the right of family members to citizenship and dignity; and the responsibility of the State, society and families to protect and respect the unique characteristics of families and their members.
- Respect the pluralism of family structures, so that none comes under discrimination of any kind, and respect the bonds of affection developed in the home. Adapt family policies to the cultural situations in which they are to be applied; this means respecting individual choices based on a recognition of diverse family forms and structures. Identify the needs inherent in new family configurations in order to anticipate and provide the best possible mechanisms for meeting these needs (Rico, 1997).
- Respect, recognize the legitimacy and guarantee the full exercise of cultural expressions as an essential element in forming and strengthening family identity.
- Recognize equal rights and responsibilities in the roles of men and women in the family. Guarantee the freedom and right to practice family planning in order to exercise responsible parenting. Emphasize the importance of adult roles and functions in providing for the family so as to free children and adolescents from having to take on such obligations. Develop a favourable environment in which individuals can fulfil their family duties and women can balance domestic chores with paid employment, especially in families threatened by poverty.
- Support and reinforce the family's role in socialization through a range of policy measures (walk-in centres, family counselling, promoting

equal opportunities). More than supporting families themselves, this means supporting some of their functions, recognizing the heterogeneous nature of families and providing them with assistance so they can fulfil their duties of social protection; as an example, it would be necessary to provide care for the elderly and infirm.

- Introduce family policies based on the principle of universality, bearing in mind the special needs of families that take on extra family burdens, and the personal and financial cost this entails. Offer public compensation for such family burdens, including built-in provisions for rising costs.

- Practice the principle of complementarity among public, private and mixed agents in covering family needs.

In short, it is essential to strengthen families and recognize that the rights accruing to the family unit need to mesh flexibly with the rights of individual members. Special care must be taken for those families that have the greatest needs and for family members with the most severe disadvantages.

D. THE INTERNATIONAL SOCIAL AGENDA: THE MILLENNIUM ASSEMBLY

The Millennium Assembly of the United Nations was held in the second half of 2000. The most important twenty-first century meeting of its kind to date, it was preceded by numerous regional preparatory meetings. At the Assembly, the heads of State and Government reaffirmed their commitment to strengthen the United Nations and the principles set forth in the Charter. They also adopted specific decisions relating to peace, development, environmental protection and human rights.

By resolution A/RES/202, of 17 December 1998, the General Assembly of the United Nations decided to designate its fifty-fifth session "The Millennium Assembly of the United Nations", being convinced that the change of century constituted a unique and symbolically compelling moment for the 188 Member States to articulate and affirm an animating vision for the United Nations in the new era. At the same time, plans were set in motion to hold a Millennium Forum closely tied to the agenda of the Millennium Assembly and the Millennium Summit of the United Nations.

The Millennium Declaration outlines numerous measures on development and poverty eradication. Among other things, the governments of the Member States agreed to "halve, by the year 2015, the proportion of the world's people whose income is less than one dollar a day and the proportion of people who suffer from hunger and, by the same date, to halve the proportion of people who are

unable to reach or to afford safe drinking water". They agreed, moreover, "to ensure that, by the same date, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling", and to reduce "maternal mortality by three quarters, and under-five child mortality by two thirds..." They pledged to halt and begin to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS and to lend "special assistance to children orphaned by" the disease. They set the goal, "by 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers".

Among the other decisions adopted were the following: "to promote gender equality and empowerment of women, as effective ways to combat poverty, hunger and disease and to stimulate development that is truly sustainable"; "to develop and implement strategies that give young people everywhere a real chance to find decent and productive work"; "to encourage the pharmaceutical

industry to make essential drugs more widely available and affordable by all who need them in developing countries"; "to develop strong partnerships with the private sector and with civil society organizations in pursuit of development and poverty eradication"; and "to ensure that the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communication technologies,...are available to all".

Finally, the Assembly stressed the importance of strengthening the United Nations system (General

Assembly, Security Council, Economic and Social Council, International Court of Justice) in order to achieve priority objectives in the fight for development and against poverty, ignorance and disease; the fight against injustice, violence, terror and crime; and the fight against the degradation and destruction of the planet.

Box V.6

**THE MILLENNIUM ASSEMBLY OF THE UNITED NATIONS AND THE MILLENNIUM SUMMIT,
FIFTY-FIFTH SESSION OF THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY**

Place and date:	New York, 6 to 8 September 2000
Participants:	Representatives of 188 Governments of Member States of the United Nations, inter-governmental organizations and specialized agencies of the United Nations system
Organizers:	The United Nations System
Preparatory activities:	Regional meetings held at the sites of the Regional Commissions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Africa, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, 24–26 June 1999 • Latin America and the Caribbean, Santiago, Chile, 1–2 September 1999 • Western Asia, Beirut, Lebanon, 23–24 May 1999 • Asia and the Pacific, Tokyo, Japan, 9–10 September 1999 • Europe, Geneva, Switzerland, 7–8 July 1999
Main agreements:	<p>Millennium Declaration</p> <p>The heads of State and Government expressed their conviction that the values of freedom, equality, solidarity, tolerance, respect for nature and shared responsibility were essential to international relations. In order to reaffirm these shared values, they drew up a list of key objectives in the following areas:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Peace, security and disarmament • Development and poverty eradication • Protecting our common environment • Human rights, democracy and good governance • Protecting the vulnerable • Meeting the special needs of Africa • Strengthening the United Nations

COUNTRIES, INSTITUTIONS AND INDIVIDUALS RESPONDING TO THE SURVEY OF THE ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (ECLAC)			
Country	Authority and institution	Position	Name
Argentina	Ministry of Social Development and Environment National Juvenile and Family Council	National Coordinator of Planning and Design, Coordinator of the Programme to Strengthen the Family and Programme for Inter-institutional Relations	Silvia Stuchlik
			Graciela Piltz
			María Rosa Avila
Bolivia	Ministry of Sustainable Development and Planning Office of the Under-Secretary for Gender Issues, Generational Affairs and Family	Unit Head of the Department of Generational Affairs and Family	Mirtha K. Villarroel G.
Brazil	Ministry of Justice, State Secretariat of Human Rights National Council for the Rights of Women (CNDM)	Programme Manager	Juliana Villar
Brazil	Community Partnership against Domestic Violence, Secretariat Pro Tempore SEDH/MJ	Coordinator of the Community Partnership against Domestic Violence	Roseane Correa
Chile	National Women's Service (SERNAM)	Professional, Family Section of the Department of Planning and Studies	Andrea Bagnara Calvo
	Family Foundation	Director	Nuria Núñez
Colombia	Ministry of Health Colombian Family Welfare Institute	Specialist in the Territorial Management Department, with contributions from the Promotion and Development Section of the Technical Department	María del Carmen Sánchez
Costa Rica	National Women's Institute	International Relations and Planning	Gina Valitutti Ch.
Cuba	Federation of Cuban Women (FMC)	Officers and researchers from the Women's Studies Centre	Magalys Arocha
Ecuador	National Women's Council (CONAMU)	Specialist in Statistics and Strategic Information	Lily Jara
El Salvador	Salvadoran Women's Development Institute (ISDEMU)	Executive Director	Jenny Flores de Coto
Mexico ^{a/}	Secretariat of Health National System for Integral Family Development (DIF) Coordination Office for the Advisors to the General Directorate	Head of the Department of Family Services	Amado Villa Acevedo
		Director of Child Protection	Edgardo Rocha P.
Nicaragua	Ministry of the Family	Director General of the Planning Division	Omara Sequeira García
Panama	Ministry of Youth, Women, Children and the Family	National Family Director	Haydeé Jurado de Romero
Paraguay	Department of Women's Affairs Planning Division	Director of Planning	Sonia Brucke
Peru	Ministry for Women's Affairs and Human Development (PROMUDEH)	Head of the Population Office of the Department of Human Development	Patricia Neyra
Dominican Republic	Secretariat of State for Women's Affairs	Chief a.i. of the Planning Department	Carmen J. Gómez
Uruguay	Ministry of Education and Culture National Institute for Family and Women's Affairs	Social worker	Rosa Almenares

a/ Subsequent to the survey, the new government administration of President Vicente Fox placed the National System for Integral Family Development (DIF) under the Secretariat of Social Development (SEDESOL), and Ana Teresa Aranda was appointed Director General of DIF.



ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (ECLAC)

SURVEY ON FAMILY-ORIENTED PROGRAMMES IN LATIN AMERICA

Name of institution: _____ Country: _____
 Respondent: _____ Position: _____

Please reply briefly

1. What are the three most significant changes that have occurred in regard to families in your country? List in order of importance:

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

2. What are the three most serious problems faced by families? List in order of importance:

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

3. Do these problems have a similar impact on all families regardless of social sector?

	Families living in extreme poverty	Poor families	Non-poor families
Yes / No			
Why?			

4. What specific problems face the different members of the family: father/mother/children/ others?

1. Father _____
2. Mother _____
3. Children _____
4. Other (be specific) _____

5. What are the most important measures your programme has implemented to strengthen families?

General measures _____

Measures targeting families living in extreme poverty _____

Measures targeting poor families _____

6. What are the most important measures your programme has implemented to strengthen the different members of the family?

Father _____

Mother _____

Children _____

7. What policies, programmes and measures have been the most successful, and why?

Policies _____

Programmes _____

Measures _____

8. Do you work regularly with other organizations in the implementation of programmes and policies that target families? Which ones?

Governmental _____

NGOs (community/local) _____

NGOs (national) _____

Other _____

9. In the implementation of policies to strengthen the family, do you coordinate your work with specific ministries or sectoral offices? Which ones? What are the advantages and disadvantages of this type of networking?

Advantages

Disadvantages

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

ADDITIONAL PAGES MAY BE ATTACHED IF NECESSARY

Please include all available information on families: types, structure, breakdown by social groups; or provide instructions on how we can search for the information electronically.

Please send your replies to: Irma Arriagada, Social Development Division, ECLAC, Casilla 179–D, Santiago, CHILE; Fax: 56 2 2080252 or 56 2 2081946; E-mail: iarriaga@eclac.cl

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Table 1

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): TRENDS IN SELECTED SOCIO-ECONOMIC INDICATORS, 1990-2000										
Country	Year	Per capita GDP (in 1995 dollars)	Per capita income (in 1995 dollars) a/	Urban unemployment (percentage)	Mean monthly variation in consumer price index (percentage)	Percentage variation over the period				
						Period	Per capita GDP	Per capita income a/	Real mean remuneration	Urban minimum wage
Argentina	1990	5 545	5 403	7.4	24.92	1990-1994	28.7	30.8	2.1	264.1
	1994	7 138	7 065	11.5	0.32	1994-1997	6.5	5.8	-1.8	-4.0
	1997	7 599	7 473	14.9	0.03	1997-2000	-3.9	-4.9	2.7	1.2
	2000	7 305	7 104	15.1	-0.06	1990-2000	31.8	31.5	3.0	253.9
Bolivia	1989	816	834	10.2	1.29	1989-1994	8.6	5.9	10.3	70.5
	1994	886	883	3.1	0.68	1994-1997	7.2	9.6	8.2	-3.6
	1997	950	967	4.4	0.54	1997-2000	0.1	-0.9	10.7	29.3
	2000	951	959	7.6	0.28	1989-2000	16.5	15.0	32.1	112.4
Brazil	1990	3 859	3 733	4.3	26.53	1990-1993	0.5	1.5	28.8	13.0
	1993	3 877	3 790	5.4	31.15	1993-1996	8.7	9.6	12.9	5.1
	1996	4 213	4 155	5.4	0.73	1996-2000	2.9	0.2	-2.9	11.3
	2000	4 337	4 163	7.1	0.43	1990-2000	12.4	11.5	41.2	32.2
Chile	1990	3 425	3 164	7.8 b/	2.03	1990-1994	24.8	23.9	18.7	24.3
	1994	4 273	3 920	7.8 b/	0.72	1994-1996	13.1	13.1	8.3	9.0
	1996	4 834	4 433	6.4 b/	0.54	1996-2000	9.8	6.1	9.2	27.8
	2000	5 309	4 705	9.2 b/	0.37	1990-2000	55.0	48.7	40.5	73.2
Colombia	1991	2 158	2 142	10.5	2.15	1991-1994	8.1	8.4	4.2	-4.0
	1994	2 332	2 321	8.9	1.73	1994-1997	4.2	2.8	5.5	0.8
	1997	2 431	2 387	12.4	1.37	1997-2000	-6.2	-8.5	5.8	3.0
	2000	2 282	2 184	20.2	0.70	1991-2000	5.7	1.9	16.2	-0.4
Costa Rica	1990	2 994	2 896	5.4	2.03	1990-1994	9.0	13.1	13.5	1.0
	1994	3 264	3 275	4.3	1.52	1994-1997	1.6	0.4	-3.2	3.4
	1997	3 316	3 288	5.9	0.89	1997-2000	10.7	-0.5	11.6	5.1
	2000	3 672	3 273	5.3	0.81	1990-2000	22.6	13.0	22.6	9.8
Ecuador	1990	1 472	1 390	6.1	3.41	1990-1994	5.5	6.3	39.0	15.9
	1994	1 553	1 478	7.8	1.90	1994-1997	2.9	1.3	13.3	25.4
	1997	1 597	1 497	9.3	2.25	1997-2000	-11.3	-10.1	...	-20.0
	2000	1 417	1 346	14.1	5.54	1990-2000	-3.7	-3.2	...	16.2
El Salvador	1990	1 406	1 462	10.0	1.48	1990-1995	19.1	30.5	...	3.1
	1995	1 675	1 908	7.0	0.90	1995-1997	1.7	-1.9	...	-7.8
	1997	1 704	1 873	7.5	0.16	1997-2000	2.6	-1.0	...	3.5
	2000	1 749	1 854	6.7	0.35	1990-2000	24.4	26.8	...	-1.6
Guatemala	1989	1 347	1 304	6.0 b/	1.54	1989-1994	6.7	10.5	0.7	-44.5
	1994	1 437	1 440	3.5 b/	0.92	1992-1998	6.7	9.7	30.7	-13.0
	1998	1 534	1 579	3.8 b/	0.60	1998-2000	1.3	-1.1	...	7.7
	2000	1 554	1 562	...	0.41	1989-2000	15.4	19.9	...	-48.0
Honduras	1990	686	614	7.8	2.62	1990-1994	1.4	11.2	...	-5.2
	1994	695	683	4.0	2.14	1994-1997	3.6	2.7	...	-3.6
	1997	720	701	5.8	1.00	1997-2000	-1.6	5.1	...	12.5
	2000	709	737	...	0.85	1990-2000	3.3	20.1	...	2.8

Table 1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): TRENDS IN SELECTED SOCIO-ECONOMIC INDICATORS, 1990-2000										
Country	Year	Per capita GDP (in 1995 dollars)	Per capita income (in 1995 dollars) a/	Urban unemployment (percentage)	Mean monthly variation in consumer price index (percentage)	Percentage variation over the period				
						Period	Per capita GDP	Per capita income a/	Real mean remuneration	Urban minimum wage
Mexico	1989	3 925	3 853	2.7	1.51	1989-1994	10.1	11.0	36.2	-10.4
	1994	4 320	4 277	3.7	0.57	1994-1996	-4.4	-4.7	-21.6	-20.7
	1996	4 131	4 075	5.5	2.06	1996-2000	16.9	20.3	8.8	5.1
	2000	4 831	4 901	2.2	0.72	1989-2000	23.1	27.2	16.2	-25.3
Nicaragua	1990	454	361	7.6 b/	50.58	1990-1994	-7.4	-14.3	20.0	...
	1994	420	310	17.1 b/	0.98	1992-1998	7.8	44.7	6.8	...
	1998	453	448	13.2 b/	1.42	1998-2000	6.4	3.1	6.1	...
	2000	482	462	9.0 b/	0.79	1990-2000	6.2	27.8	36.0	...
Panama	1991	2 700	2 463	19.3	0.13	1991-1994	11.1	25.9	...	8.5
	1994	3 001	3 101	16.0	0.12	1994-1997	4.0	3.5	...	2.5
	1997	3 122	3 208	15.5	-0.04	1997-2000	5.9	-2.4	...	10.2
	2000	3 306	3 133	15.2	0.06	1991-2000	22.4	27.2	...	22.5
Paraguay	1990	1 697	1 705	6.6	3.09	1990-1994	0.2	-2.1	...	-14.0
	1994	1 701	1 669	4.4	1.41	1994-1996	0.2	5.5	...	4.0
	1996	1 704	1 760	8.2	0.66	1996-2000	-8.9	-9.8	...	3.3
	2000	1 552	1 589	8.6	0.69	1990-2000	-8.5	-6.8	...	-7.6
Peru	1990	1 894	1 811	8.3	43.69	1990-1995	20.2	22.5	16.7	-36.7
	1995	2 277	2 218	8.2	0.81	1995-1997	5.7	7.2	-5.5	81.2
	1997	2 406	2 378	9.2	0.52	1997-2000	-0.7	-4.2	-2.9	19.0
	2000	2 390	2 279	8.5	0.31	1990-2000	26.2	25.8	7.1	36.5
Dominican Republic	1990	1 370	1 407	...	5.02	1990-1994	8.3	8.4	...	19.3
	1994	1 484	1 525	16.0 b/	1.12	1994-1997	15.3	18.3	...	2.5
	1997	1 711	1 804	15.9 b/	0.67	1997-2000	19.0	21.5	...	9.2
	2000	2 035	2 192	13.9 b/	0.72	1990-2000	48.6	55.7	...	33.6
Uruguay	1990	4 707	4 577	8.5	7.15	1990-1994	20.9	22.0	12.2	-32.7
	1994	5 690	5 585	9.2	3.09	1994-1997	5.8	6.5	-2.0	-12.6
	1997	6 019	5 947	11.5	1.18	1997-2000	-3.0	-5.0	2.1	2.2
	2000	5 841	5 649	13.6	0.41	1990-2000	24.1	23.4	12.2	-39.9
Venezuela	1990	3 030	3 294	10.4 b/	2.63	1990-1994	3.4	-8.2	-24.1	21.0
	1994	3 133	3 025	8.7 b/	4.56	1994-1997	6.4	9.2	-8.1	-24.4
	1997	3 332	3 303	11.4 b/	2.70	1998-2000	-7.1	7.6	-6.0	...
	2000	3 097	3 553	13.9 b/	1.06	1990-2000	2.2	7.8	-34.5	...

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of official figures supplied by the countries.

a/ Refers to real per capita gross national income.

b/ National total.

Table 2

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): MALE AND FEMALE LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES BY AGE GROUP, URBAN AREAS, 1990-1999											
Country	Year	Ages									
		Males					Females				
		Total	15 - 24	25 - 34	35 - 49	50 and over	Total	15 - 24	25 - 34	35 - 49	50 and over
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	76	62	97	97	55	38	41	53	52	19
	1994	76	65	98	97	54	41	43	59	56	21
	1997	76	61	97	97	59	45	44	61	60	27
	1999	74	53	94	97	59	44	36	62	61	27
	(Urban areas)	1999	76	58	96	97	62	47	42	66	63
Bolivia	1989	73	47	90	97	64	47	35	57	61	34
	1994	75	50	92	98	65	51	37	62	68	37
	1997	75	48	92	98	73	51	35	61	68	42
	1999	75	49	93	98	72	54	40	64	71	46
Brazil	1990	82	78	96	95	59	45	48	56	53	21
	1993	83	77	96	95	60	50	51	60	60	27
	1996	80	72	94	94	59	50	50	63	61	26
	1999	80	72	95	93	59	53	51	67	64	28
Chile	1990	72	47	94	95	56	35	29	47	46	20
	1994	75	49	94	96	62	38	32	50	50	23
	1996	74	44	94	96	62	39	29	53	51	23
	1998	74	44	93	97	64	41	30	57	54	26
Colombia a/	1991	81	62	97	97	69	48	44	63	56	22
	1994	79	58	96	97	65	48	43	65	59	21
	1997	78	55	96	97	65	50	42	68	63	24
	1999	79	59	96	96	64	55	48	73	69	27
Costa Rica	1990	78	62	96	95	61	39	39	53	49	14
	1994	76	59	94	96	57	40	35	54	52	17
	1997	77	60	96	96	58	42	33	61	54	21
	1999	79	61	95	96	65	45	40	58	58	23
Ecuador	1990	80	56	95	98	78	43	33	54	56	31
	1994	81	59	96	98	76	47	39	58	58	34
	1997	81	58	97	98	75	49	38	61	62	35
	1999	82	64	97	98	76	54	45	65	67	36
El Salvador	1990	80	64	95	96	72	51	41	66	66	36
	1995	78	61	95	96	68	49	36	65	69	34
	1997	75	54	95	97	66	48	33	65	68	34
	1999	75	58	93	94	63	52	38	68	69	37
Guatemala	1989	84	69	97	97	78	43	42	50	49	29
	1998	82	66	95	97	77	54	47	60	68	44
Honduras	1990	81	66	95	97	73	43	35	54	57	30
	1994	80	64	93	96	74	43	35	54	51	31
	1997	83	70	96	98	74	51	43	63	63	35
	1999	82	67	97	96	78	54	45	64	69	37
Mexico	1989	77	58	96	97	68	33	31	45	39	18
	1994	81	63	97	97	69	38	34	49	46	21
	1996	80	60	97	97	68	41	36	50	50	24
	1998	81	61	96	98	71	43	39	51	51	28
Nicaragua	1993	71	50	86	89	66	44	26	57	62	32
	1998	81	66	95	95	74	51	36	66	67	38

Table 2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): MALE AND FEMALE LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES BY AGE GROUP, URBAN AREAS, 1990-1999											
Country	Year	Ages									
		Males					Females				
		Total	15 - 24	25 - 34	35 - 49	50 and over	Total	15 - 24	25 - 34	35 - 49	50 and over
Panama	1991	74	58	95	96	52	43	37	59	59	18
	1994	79	62	97	97	56	47	39	61	61	20
	1997	78	60	96	97	59	50	40	66	69	26
	1999	78	62	97	97	60	48	41	61	65	25
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	84	69	97	99	75	50	51	63	58	27
	1994	82	69	99	98	66	58	58	74	76	31
	1996	86	76	97	97	75	59	54	69	71	40
	1999	83	68	97	95	73	54	46	65	66	39
(Urban areas)	1994	86	75	98	98	71	53	53	62	62	32
	1996	86	78	98	97	73	58	54	65	69	40
	1999	83	64	97	95	76	55	47	66	67	42
Dominican Republic	1992	86	77	96	98	76	53	57	66	57	25
	1995	78	62	95	98	68	44	40	64	57	20
	1997	83	70	96	97	71	49	44	65	61	22
Uruguay	1990	75	68	98	97	54	44	47	69	64	21
	1994	75	72	97	97	52	47	52	74	70	23
	1997	73	71	96	97	49	47	51	74	71	23
	1999	73	67	96	97	50	50	50	75	74	26
Venezuela b/	1990	78	55	93	96	71	38	25	51	52	21
	1994	79	58	94	97	68	38	26	52	53	20
	1997	83	66	96	97	73	46	34	59	61	28
	1999	84	67	97	97	75	48	36	61	64	30

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country.

Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

b/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 3

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): MALE AND FEMALE LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AREAS, 1990-1999													
Country	Year	Years of schooling											
		Males						Females					
		Total	0 - 3	4 - 6	7 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over	Total	0 - 3	4 - 6	7 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires) (Urban areas)	1990	76	74	86	84	38	31	50	66
	1994	76	74	85	83	41	33	53	70
	1997	76	63	68	73	77	88	45	27	29	35	48	74
	1999	74	58	71	72	76	80	44	25	30	34	47	70
	1999	71	56	68	71	72	73	40	21	28	32	42	62
Bolivia	1989	73	78	87	68	71	68	47	50	51	41	40	53
	1994	75	80	87	69	71	75	51	54	56	43	45	57
	1997	75	83	88	67	72	72	51	55	57	41	45	58
	1999	75	78	86	76	71	73	54	57	57	53	47	61
Brazil	1990	82	76	84	83	88	91	45	33	41	45	61	77
	1993	83	77	84	83	88	90	50	38	47	50	65	79
	1996	80	73	80	80	86	89	50	36	46	50	64	80
	1999	80	72	80	79	86	88	53	37	47	52	67	79
Chile	1990	72	59	74	66	74	80	35	20	28	26	35	62
	1994	75	59	74	67	79	80	38	21	28	29	40	58
	1996	74	61	74	67	78	79	39	20	26	31	41	62
	1998	74	60	72	66	78	81	41	23	29	31	43	64
Colombia b/	1991	81	80	85	76	81	83	48	37	42	42	56	70
	1994	79	75	84	71	80	86	48	35	43	39	56	76
	1997	78	73	82	69	79	84	50	34	43	42	57	76
	1999	79	74	83	70	79	85	55	38	49	48	61	78
Costa Rica	1990	78	66	84	73	77	82	39	21	33	35	47	62
	1994	76	62	83	70	77	81	40	22	33	34	46	64
	1997	77	59	82	72	77	83	42	19	37	35	44	68
	1999	79	61	84	75	80	84	45	28	39	38	49	67
Ecuador	1990	80	82	90	69	73	81	43	39	39	34	44	65
	1994	81	79	90	70	76	84	47	41	45	37	47	66
	1997	81	81	88	71	76	86	49	43	45	37	46	70
	1999	82	81	89	74	78	86	54	45	50	44	53	72
El Salvador	1990	80	80	86	75	78	80	51	45	56	45	56	68
	1995	78	77	84	71	77	79	49	43	52	43	53	67
	1997	75	76	80	71	74	76	48	44	49	40	53	65
	1999	75	72	80	73	75	78	52	43	53	46	57	69
Guatemala	1989	84	90	89	65	81	87	43	38	41	37	57	77
	1998	82	85	88	68	81	82	54	53	54	45	58	74
Honduras	1990	81	84	88	61	80	76	43	39	43	31	59	53
	1994	80	81	88	59	82	79	43	37	45	29	50	63
	1997	83	83	90	72	80	82	51	43	53	38	59	67
	1999	82	85	87	64	81	84	54	48	56	41	61	65
Mexico	1989	77	79	87	74	65	80	33	21	33	37	42	55
	1994	81	80	88	81	69	83	38	29	32	41	40	58
	1996	80	75	87	81	71	82	41	32	36	42	41	62
	1998	81	71	83	85	79	81	43	33	39	38	43	63
Nicaragua	1993	71	70	74	66	70	83	44	39	43	40	51	67
	1998	81	83	87	79	75	90	51	46	49	46	54	76

Table 3 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): MALE AND FEMALE LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AREAS, 1990-1999													
Country	Year	Years of schooling											
		Males						Females					
		Total	0 - 3	4 - 6	7 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over	Total	0 - 3	4 - 6	7 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over
Panama	1991	74	67	78	69	73	81	43	21	31	37	49	71
	1994	79	70	81	74	78	88	47	18	34	41	52	73
	1997	78	64	76	72	80	85	50	23	39	41	52	73
	1999	78	66	80	75	77	85	48	19	36	40	50	73
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	84	75	88	82	83	87	50	29	53	45	50	71
	1994	82	64	83	78	82	89	58	39	57	51	57	74
	1996	86	76	91	82	86	91	59	43	57	53	63	81
	1999	83	73	88	79	81	91	54	40	51	49	57	79
(Urban areas)	1994	86	76	92	83	84	91	53	38	53	47	58	78
	1996	86	77	92	82	87	92	58	44	57	53	63	81
	1999	83	70	87	80	81	91	55	43	49	50	57	78
Dominican Republic	1992	86	87	91	85	85	88	53	38	43	48	61	80
	1995	78	74	81	76	74	86	44	28	37	39	47	72
	1997	83	77	84	84	82	90	49	34	41	42	56	80
Uruguay	1990	75	50	74	79	84	83	44	18	36	48	57	72
	1994	75	41	74	84	82	83	47	17	36	56	61	74
	1997	73	40	70	82	80	84	47	16	35	57	59	71
	1999	73	39	69	83	78	83	50	17	38	57	59	74
Venezuela c/	1990	78	73	84	74	77	76	38	23	34	34	47	58
	1994	79	73	86	78	76	76	38	22	34	36	45	58
	1997	83	80	87	81	82	82	46	28	40	43	53	69
	1999	84	80	88	81	82	83	48	28	41	46	55	70

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

- a/ For 1990 and 1994, the categories of schooling considered were: completed primary but incomplete secondary; completed secondary; and higher education.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country.
Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.
- c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 4

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-1999 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Employers	Wage earners							Own account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector						
					Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical			Total c/	Non- professional, non-technical
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons b/	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	5.4	69.0	...	69.0	6.9	44.8	11.6	5.7		
	1994	4.8	70.2	...	70.2	...	50.7	14.7	4.8	25.0	...
	1997	5.3	73.3	...	73.3	...	52.3	15.9	5.1	21.5	...
	1999	4.6	73.5	11.6	61.9	10.7	32.1	13.9	5.2	21.8	17.3
	(Urban areas)	1999	4.4	72.7	15.6	57.1	9.1	28.5	13.7	5.8	23.0
Bolivia	1989	2.2	53.8	17.9	35.9	4.3	13.5	12.3	5.8	43.8	41.0
	1994	7.6	54.1	12.8	41.3	6.8	15.5	13.8	5.2	38.4	36.8
	1997	7.0	46.1	10.5	35.6	6.7	14.3	11.0	3.6	46.8	44.9
	1999	4.2	48.1	10.3	37.8	7.3	15.1	11.8	3.1	48.2	45.9
Brazil d/	1990	5.2	72.0	...	72.0	14.3	34.2	17.3	6.2	22.8	21.5
	1993	4.1	67.2	14.4	52.8	4.6	31.5 e/	8.5	8.2	27.8	26.4
	1996	4.2	68.5	13.7	54.8	4.8	31.7 e/	9.9	8.4	27.3	25.7
	1999	4.7	66.6	13.0	53.6	11.0	25.7	8.4	8.5	28.6	26.5
Chile f/	1990	2.5	75.0	...	75.0	12.9	45.7	9.4	7.0	22.5	20.6
	1994	3.3	75.0	...	75.0	15.4	44.9	8.6	6.1	21.8	17.4
	1996	3.9	76.4	10.9	65.5	11.6	38.7	9.1	6.1	19.7	16.1
	1998	4.2	76.0	...	76.0	17.0	43.4	9.7	5.9	19.8	15.2
Colombia g/	1991	4.2	66.2	11.6	54.6	4.9	44.1	...	5.6	29.6	27.3
	1994	4.8	68.2	8.6	59.6	6.0	48.3	...	5.3	27.1	25.0
	1997	4.4	62.2	9.9	52.3	6.4	41.4	...	4.5	33.4	30.7
	1999	4.3	57.4	8.7	48.7	5.7	37.8	...	5.2	38.3	35.7
Costa Rica	1990	5.5	74.8	25.0	49.7	6.1	29.5	9.7	4.4	19.7	17.6
	1994	6.6	75.3	21.8	53.5	7.5	31.0	11.2	3.8	18.2	16.5
	1997	7.7	72.4	20.5	51.9	7.3	29.9	11.2	3.5	19.8	17.7
	1999	8.0	72.7	17.2	55.5	8.9	29.7	11.8	5.1	19.2	17.2
Ecuador	1990	5.0	58.9	17.5	41.4	4.5	21.1	11.3	4.5	36.1	34.5
	1994	7.9	58.0	13.7	44.3	5.6	21.8	12.2	4.7	34.1	32.1
	1997	7.8	59.1	13.8	45.3	6.3	23.0	11.0	5.0	33.1	31.1
	1999	8.8	59.0	10.7	48.3	7.0	22.5	13.4	5.4	32.1	31.5
El Salvador h/	1990	3.4	62.9	13.8	49.1	3.4	26.3	13.3	6.1	33.7	33.3
	1995	6.2	61.8	12.5	49.3	7.2	27.2	10.5	4.4	32.1	31.1
	1997	5.7	61.7	13.3	48.4	7.8	25.0	11.2	4.4	32.6	31.5
	1999	4.6	65.2	12.3	52.9	9.1	25.7	13.8	4.3	30.3	29.2
Guatemala	1989	2.8	64.2	14.4	49.8	6.2	22.8	13.8	7.0	33.0	30.9
	1998	4.7	60.0	8.2	51.8	9.2	18.3	17.6	6.7	35.4	24.3
Honduras	1990	1.5	65.5	14.4	51.1	4.9	26.3	13.2	6.7	33.0	31.7
	1994	4.2	65.0	11.3	53.7	6.8	30.5	11.0	5.4	30.8	29.5
	1997	6.3	60.4	10.1	50.3	6.5	27.7	11.0	5.1	33.4	32.3
	1999	6.2	60.2	9.7	50.5	7.5	27.0	11.2	4.8	33.6	33.1

Table 4 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-1999 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Employers	Wage earners							Own account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Total a/	Private sector					
						Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical			Total c/	Non-professional, non-technical
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons b/	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Mexico i/	1989	3.3	76.4	...	76.4	9.0	64.7	...	2.7		
	1994	3.7	74.5	16.1	58.4	6.6	48.1	...	3.7	21.7	20.4
	1996	4.5	73.5	15.1	58.4	7.1	33.1	14.6	3.6	22.1	20.5
	1998	4.8	72.9	14.2	58.7	6.6	33.1	14.9	4.1	22.4	20.5
Nicaragua	1993	0.7	60.8	20.3	40.5	6.6	16.0	11.7	6.2	38.5	29.3
	1998	3.8	59.8	...	59.8	13.5	25.4	14.5	6.4	36.5	35.1
Panama	1991	3.4	73.2	26.6	46.6	7.4	27.0	5.2	7.0	23.4	22.4
	1994	2.5	76.3	24.8	51.5	7.2	31.3	5.7	7.3	21.2	20.5
	1997	3.0	73.9	22.4	51.5	10.1	29.4	5.6	6.4	23.0	21.8
	1999	2.8	74.2	19.4	54.8	10.8	31.4	6.5	6.1	23.0	21.9
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	8.9	68.4	11.9	56.5	5.5	24.9	15.6	10.5	22.7	21.2
	1994	9.4	67.0	11.6	55.4	6.3	24.3	13.3	11.5	23.6	23.1
	1996	7.0	62.3	11.3	51.0	5.0	22.9	13.8	9.3	30.7	28.6
	1999	6.4	67.7	12.7	55.0	6.9	25.4	13.6	9.1	25.8	23.2
(Urban areas)	1994	9.2	62.0	10.5	51.5	4.5	21.5	15.0	10.5	28.9	28.6
	1996	6.8	57.9	10.0	47.9	3.8	20.4	14.4	9.3	35.3	33.7
	1999	6.6	62.1	11.8	50.3	5.1	21.1	14.9	9.2	31.2	29.1
Dominican Republic	1992	2.8	61.9	14.3	47.6	8.7	35.7	...	3.2	35.3	32.8
	1995	4.2	62.8	13.1	49.7	9.0	36.9	...	3.8	33.2	30.6
	1997	3.7	62.5	11.9	50.6	6.7	31.1	8.4	4.4	33.9	31.4
Uruguay	1990	4.6	74.2	21.8	52.4	5.1	30.1	10.3	6.9	21.3	19.0
	1994	4.8	72.3	18.7	53.6	5.4	31.8	9.4	7.0	22.9	20.1
	1997	4.3	72.2	17.7	54.5	5.9	30.5	11.0	7.1	23.6	20.8
	1999	4.0	72.4	16.2	56.2	6.5	31.8	10.4	7.5	23.6	20.6
Venezuela j/	1990	7.5	70.0	21.4	48.6	5.8	30.0	6.5	6.3	22.5	21.4
	1994	6.1	64.5	18.1	46.4	6.1	27.1	9.2	4.0	29.3	27.4
	1997	5.0	62.8	16.8	46.0	5.5	25.4	10.8	4.3	32.3	30.3
	1999	5.1	57.9	14.9	43.0	4.9	24.0	12.1	2.0	36.9	35.3

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ For Argentina (except 1999), Brazil (1990), Chile (except 1996), Mexico (1989) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public-sector wage earners.

b/ For Argentina (1994), Chile (1990), Colombia and Mexico (1989 and 1994), no information was available on the size of business establishments. In those cases, wage earners in non-professional non-technical occupations in establishments employing up to 5 workers are included in the figures for establishments employing over 5 workers. For Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, establishments employing up to 4 workers are taken into account.

c/ Includes professional and technical workers.

d/ Brazil's national household survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments, except in 1993 and 1996.

Therefore, the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing over 5 workers shows the percentage of wage earners who have an employment contract ("Carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to 5 workers shows the percentage of workers who do not have such contracts.

e/ Includes private sector employees in non-professional, non-technical occupations in business establishments of undeclared size.

f/ Information from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).

g/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country.

Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

h/ The figures for 1990 are not strictly comparable with those of 1997, owing to changes made in the classification of professional and technical workers.

i/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (NHIES).

j/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 4.1

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-1999 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Employers	Wage earners							Own account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector					Total ^{c/}	Non-professional, non-technical
					Total ^{a/}	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons ^{b/}	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires) (Urban areas)	1990	6.9	68.3	...	68.3	6.3	47.8	12.4	1.8	24.7	23.1
	1994	6.2	69.1	...	69.1	...	53.0	15.7	0.4	24.7	...
	1997	6.4	72.6	...	72.6	...	53.5	18.7	0.4	21.1	...
	1999	6.0	71.5	8.7	62.8	9.4	37.1	16.2	0.1	22.5	18.1
	1999	5.8	70.1	12.3	57.8	8.2	33.6	15.8	0.2	24.1	19.7
Bolivia	1989	3.2	60.4	20.0	40.4	4.8	18.6	16.4	0.6	36.4	32.8
	1994	10.7	62.0	13.9	48.1	7.8	21.5	18.3	0.5	27.4	25.4
	1997	10.1	52.0	10.0	42.0	7.8	19.6	14.1	0.5	37.9	35.5
	1999	5.8	55.5	10.3	45.2	9.1	20.2	15.6	0.3	38.7	35.5
Brazil ^{d/}	1990	6.9	71.0	...	71.0	10.4	39.1	21.1	0.4	22.1	20.9
	1993	5.6	66.5	11.8	54.7	4.5	39.3 ^{e/}	10.1	0.8	27.9	26.7
	1996	5.4	65.8	10.9	54.9	4.4	38.3 ^{e/}	11.4	0.8	28.7	27.2
	1999	6.2	63.4	10.2	53.2	9.1	32.8	10.5	0.8	30.4	28.5
Chile ^{f/}	1990	3.1	73.0	...	73.0	9.9	52.9	10.0	0.2	23.9	22.0
	1994	3.9	73.7	...	73.7	13.4	51.1	9.1	0.1	22.5	18.3
	1996	4.5	75.0	9.6	65.4	11.4	44.1	9.7	0.2	20.5	17.0
	1998	5.0	74.2	...	74.2	14.9	49.5	9.7	0.1	20.7	16.4
Colombia ^{g/}	1991	5.6	63.1	10.8	52.3	4.4	47.6	...	0.3	31.3	28.5
	1994	6.3	65.3	8.0	57.3	5.2	51.9	...	0.2	28.4	26.1
	1997	5.6	58.8	8.7	50.1	5.9	44.0	...	0.2	35.6	32.5
	1999	5.4	54.4	7.9	46.5	5.1	40.9	...	0.5	40.2	37.4
Costa Rica	1990	7.2	72.1	23.0	49.1	7.0	31.6	10.3	0.2	20.6	18.1
	1994	8.1	73.2	20.1	53.1	7.7	33.5	11.6	0.3	18.7	16.7
	1997	9.9	70.7	16.5	54.2	7.7	33.9	12.4	0.2	19.4	17.1
	1999	10.2	71.2	14.6	56.6	9.6	33.3	13.3	0.4	18.5	16.7
Ecuador	1990	6.3	60.3	17.4	42.9	4.0	24.5	13.8	0.6	33.5	31.7
	1994	9.7	59.6	13.0	46.6	5.3	26.0	15.0	0.3	30.7	28.5
	1997	9.8	59.6	12.8	46.8	5.7	27.3	13.1	0.7	30.6	28.3
	1999	10.2	60.7	10.4	50.3	5.8	27.3	16.6	0.6	28.2	27.7
El Salvador ^{h/}	1990	4.8	71.4	15.5	55.9	4.2	33.1	18.2	0.4	23.8	23.2
	1995	8.6	68.7	13.0	55.7	8.3	32.6	14.3	0.5	22.7	21.3
	1997	7.6	68.1	14.1	54.0	8.8	30.3	14.6	0.3	24.4	22.9
	1999	6.2	72.4	12.9	59.5	10.3	30.0	18.6	0.6	21.5	20.0
Guatemala	1989	3.6	66.1	15.0	51.1	6.2	27.3	17.4	0.2	30.3	28.6
	1998	6.2	64.8	8.4	56.4	9.7	22.4	22.8	1.5	28.9	21.0
Honduras	1990	1.9	69.8	13.6	56.2	5.4	33.0	17.4	0.4	28.3	26.8
	1994	5.7	65.9	10.3	55.6	6.9	34.5	14.2	0.0	28.4	26.9
	1997	8.8	62.5	8.3	54.2	6.1	31.5	15.8	0.8	28.9	27.8
	1999	8.4	63.3	8.0	55.3	6.6	31.9	16.2	0.6	28.4	28.0

Table 4.1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-1999 (Percentages)												
Country	Year	Employers	Wage earners							Own account and unpaid family workers		
			Total	Public sector	Total a/	Private sector			Total c/	Non-professional, non-technical		
						Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical					
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons b/	Establishments employing up to 5 persons			Domestic employment	
Mexico i/	1989	4.3	76.4	...	76.4	9.3	66.5	...	0.6	19.2	17.4	
	1994	4.9	75.5	13.9	61.6	6.9	54.1	...	0.6	19.6	18.0	
	1996	5.8	75.2	13.7	61.5	7.2	36.1	17.3	0.9	19.0	17.4	
	1998	6.3	75.0	12.9	62.1	6.8	36.7	17.4	1.2	18.9	16.6	
Nicaragua	1993	0.9	64.3	18.8	45.5	6.6	22.4	16.2	0.3	34.9	27.5	
	1998	5.6	63.1	...	63.1	11.7	31.5	18.7	1.2	31.3	30.0	
Panama	1991	4.4	65.5	23.2	42.3	7.7	28.1	5.9	0.6	30.0	28.8	
	1994	3.0	70.6	21.7	48.9	7.4	33.6	6.7	1.2	26.4	25.4	
	1997	4.0	68.3	19.3	49.0	10.4	31.6	6.0	1.0	27.8	26.2	
	1999	3.6	70.1	17.0	53.1	11.1	33.6	7.4	1.0	26.4	25.1	
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	13.5	69.2	12.3	56.9	4.9	31.4	20.6	0.0	17.4	16.4	
	1994	12.3	68.1	11.7	56.4	6.5	30.2	18.1	1.6	19.5	19.1	
	1996	9.3	64.3	10.3	54.0	5.1	29.5	18.4	1.0	26.3	24.6	
	1999	8.5	69.4	13.4	56.0	7.4	33.3	14.5	0.8	22.1	19.5	
(Urban areas)	1994	11.9	63.4	10.2	53.2	4.6	27.0	20.2	1.4	24.7	24.5	
	1996	9.1	60.3	9.0	51.3	4.0	27.1	19.3	0.9	30.6	29.2	
	1999	9.0	64.0	11.9	52.1	5.3	28.0	17.9	0.9	27.0	25.1	
Dominican Republic	1992	3.9	57.1	13.8	43.3	6.9	36.2	...	0.2	39.0	36.1	
	1995	5.3	56.7	11.0	45.7	8.0	37.5	...	0.2	37.9	35.2	
	1997	4.9	58.1	11.4	46.7	5.6	31.3	9.4	0.4	37.0	34.5	
Uruguay	1990	6.4	73.0	22.8	50.2	4.4	33.9	11.8	0.1	20.5	18.9	
	1994	6.3	70.8	18.6	52.2	4.8	36.7	10.6	0.1	23.0	20.7	
	1997	5.8	69.2	17.3	51.9	4.9	34.8	12.0	0.2	24.9	22.6	
	1999	5.2	69.1	15.6	53.5	5.4	36.2	11.7	0.2	25.6	23.2	
Venezuela j/	1990	10.2	66.1	16.8	49.3	5.5	33.9	8.0	1.9	23.6	22.5	
	1994	8.4	60.6	13.0	47.6	5.2	30.0	10.9	1.5	31.1	29.2	
	1997	6.7	61.2	12.1	49.1	5.0	29.2	13.4	1.5	32.0	30.3	
	1999	6.9	57.5	10.6	46.9	4.0	27.9	14.9	0.1	35.6	34.1	

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ For Argentina (except 1999), Brazil (1990), Chile (except 1996), Mexico (1989) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public-sector wage earners.

b/ For Argentina (1994), Chile (1990), Colombia and Mexico (1989 and 1994), no information was available on the size of business establishments. In those cases, wage earners in non-professional non-technical occupations in establishments employing up to 5 workers are included in the figures for establishments employing over 5 workers. For Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, establishments employing up to 4 workers are taken into account.

c/ Includes professional and technical workers.

d/ Brazil's national household survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments, except in 1993 and 1996.

Therefore, the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing over 5 workers shows the percentage of wage earners who have an employment contract ("Carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to 5 workers shows the percentage of workers who do not have such contracts.

e/ Includes private sector employees in non-professional, non-technical occupations in business establishments of undeclared size.

f/ Information from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).

g/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country.

Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

h/ The figures for 1990 are not strictly comparable with those of 1997, owing to changes made in the classification of professional and technical workers.

i/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (NHIES).

j/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 4.2

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-1999 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Employers	Wage earners							Own account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector					Total c/	Non-professional, non-technical
					Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons b/	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	2.8	70.3	...	70.3	8.0	39.6	10.2	12.5	27.1	22.7
	1994	2.4	72.1	...	72.1	...	46.7	13.1	12.3	25.4	...
	1997	3.5	74.2	...	74.2	...	50.3	11.2	12.7	22.2	...
	1999	2.6	76.7	15.9	60.8	12.6	24.8	10.7	12.7	20.7	16.1
	(Urban areas)	1999	2.5	76.2	20.4	55.8	10.4	20.7	10.5	14.2	21.3
Bolivia	1989	0.8	45.2	15.0	30.2	3.6	7.1	6.6	12.9	54.0	52.2
	1994	3.5	43.7	11.4	32.3	5.4	7.8	7.9	11.2	52.9	51.7
	1997	2.8	38.5	11.1	27.4	5.4	7.3	7.0	7.7	58.7	57.4
	1999	2.2	37.4	10.2	27.2	5.0	8.6	6.9	6.7	60.6	59.3
Brazil d/	1990	2.5	73.6	...	73.6	20.7	26.1	11.2	15.6	24.0	22.4
	1993	1.8	70.7	18.3	52.4	4.7	21.9 e/	6.0	19.8	27.4	25.8
	1996	2.5	72.3	17.9	54.4	5.4	21.7 e/	7.6	19.7	25.2	23.4
	1999	2.7	71.2	16.9	54.3	13.8	15.5	5.3	19.7	26.1	23.6
Chile f/	1990	1.4	78.6	...	78.6	18.4	32.6	8.2	19.4	20.1	18.2
	1994	2.2	77.4	...	77.4	19.1	33.8	7.7	16.8	20.6	15.8
	1996	2.8	78.9	13.2	65.7	12.0	29.2	8.2	16.3	18.4	14.5
	1998	3.0	78.8	...	78.8	20.6	33.3	9.7	15.2	18.1	13.2
Colombia g/	1991	2.2	70.7	12.8	57.9	5.5	38.8	...	13.6	27.1	25.5
	1994	2.7	72.3	9.4	62.9	7.2	43.0	...	12.7	25.2	23.4
	1997	2.8	66.9	11.6	55.3	6.9	38.0	...	10.4	30.3	28.2
	1999	2.7	61.7	9.9	51.8	6.6	33.7	...	11.5	35.6	33.4
Costa Rica	1990	2.3	79.6	28.7	50.9	4.5	25.8	8.6	12.0	18.1	16.6
	1994	4.0	78.6	24.7	53.9	7.1	26.4	10.3	10.1	17.3	16.1
	1997	4.0	75.7	27.5	48.2	6.6	23.2	9.2	9.2	20.4	18.7
	1999	4.4	75.0	21.5	53.5	7.5	24.0	9.4	12.6	20.4	18.1
Ecuador	1990	2.7	56.4	17.7	38.7	5.5	14.9	6.7	11.6	40.8	39.5
	1994	5.0	55.5	14.8	40.7	6.2	15.0	7.7	11.8	39.5	37.8
	1997	4.5	57.5	15.5	42.0	7.3	15.8	8.0	10.9	37.1	35.7
	1999	5.0	56.7	11.3	45.4	8.9	15.0	8.4	13.1	38.3	37.4
El Salvador h/	1990	1.6	52.5	11.7	40.8	2.5	18.0	7.2	13.1	45.9	45.8
	1995	3.3	53.4	11.8	41.6	5.9	20.8	5.8	9.1	43.3	42.8
	1997	3.3	53.9	12.2	41.7	6.5	18.7	7.1	9.4	42.8	42.0
	1999	2.7	57.0	11.5	45.5	7.6	20.9	8.4	8.6	40.2	39.6
Guatemala	1989	1.5	61.2	13.4	47.8	6.1	15.7	7.9	18.1	37.3	34.6
	1998	2.7	53.6	7.8	45.8	8.5	13.0	11.0	13.3	43.6	28.4
Honduras	1990	0.9	59.0	15.5	43.5	4.1	16.5	6.9	16.0	40.0	39.0
	1994	1.8	63.6	12.9	50.7	6.7	24.3	6.0	13.7	34.6	33.6
	1997	3.1	57.4	12.4	45.0	7.0	22.6	4.7	10.7	39.4	38.3
	1999	3.6	56.6	11.8	44.8	8.6	21.2	5.1	9.9	39.8	39.2

Table 4.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-1999 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Employers	Wage earners							Own account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Total a/	Professional and technical	Private sector			Total c/	Non-professional, non-technical
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons b/	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Mexico i/	1989	1.3	76.3	...	76.3	8.4	60.8	...	7.1	22.4	21.9
	1994	1.5	72.8	20.3	52.5	6.1	36.8	...	9.6	25.8	25.0
	1996	2.1	70.4	17.5	52.9	7.0	27.7	9.9	8.3	27.5	25.9
	1998	2.2	69.5	16.5	53.0	6.5	26.8	10.7	9.0	28.4	27.1
Nicaragua	1993	0.5	56.2	22.4	33.8	6.6	7.5	5.6	14.1	43.4	31.7
	1998	1.3	55.4	...	55.4	15.8	17.2	8.9	13.5	43.3	41.9
Panama	1991	1.7	86.1	32.5	53.6	6.9	24.9	4.0	17.8	12.2	11.5
	1994	1.5	86.6	30.3	56.3	6.9	27.3	4.0	18.1	12.0	11.7
	1997	1.4	83.3	27.4	55.9	9.7	25.9	5.0	15.3	15.4	14.8
	1999	1.6	81.1	23.5	57.6	10.3	27.7	5.2	14.4	17.3	16.7
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	2.4	67.5	11.3	56.2	6.5	15.5	8.6	25.6	30.2	28.1
	1994	5.7	65.5	11.5	54.0	6.1	16.6	7.0	24.3	28.8	28.2
	1996	4.0	59.5	12.5	47.0	4.9	14.3	7.8	20.0	36.5	33.9
	1999	3.7	65.4	11.7	53.7	6.3	14.9	12.4	20.1	30.8	28.2
(Urban areas)	1994	5.3	59.7	10.9	48.8	4.3	13.7	7.5	23.3	34.9	34.5
	1996	3.5	54.7	11.4	43.3	3.5	11.3	7.7	20.8	41.8	39.9
	1999	3.4	59.7	11.6	48.1	5.0	11.6	10.8	20.7	36.9	34.6
Dominican Republic	1992	0.9	70.9	15.1	55.8	12.1	35.0	...	8.7	28.3	26.7
	1995	2.0	73.7	16.9	56.8	10.7	35.6	...	10.5	24.3	21.9
	1997	1.5	70.1	12.6	57.5	8.6	30.6	6.7	11.6	28.4	25.8
Uruguay	1990	1.9	75.9	20.2	55.7	6.1	24.4	8.1	17.1	22.3	19.1
	1994	2.8	74.4	18.9	55.5	6.2	24.9	7.6	16.8	22.8	19.2
	1997	2.3	75.9	18.1	57.8	7.2	24.4	9.5	16.7	21.8	18.3
	1999	2.3	76.7	17.0	59.7	7.9	25.8	8.6	17.4	21.1	17.1
Venezuela j/	1990	2.3	77.5	30.4	47.1	6.4	22.3	3.4	15.0	20.2	19.1
	1994	1.7	72.3	28.1	44.2	8.0	21.3	5.9	9.0	26.0	23.9
	1997	1.9	65.7	25.7	40.0	6.4	18.1	5.8	9.7	32.5	30.1
	1999	1.9	58.9	22.7	36.2	6.5	17.1	7.0	5.6	39.2	37.4

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ For Argentina (except 1999), Brazil (1990), Chile (except 1996), Mexico (1989) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public-sector wage earners.

b/ For Argentina (1994), Chile (1990), Colombia and Mexico (1989 and 1994), no information was available on the size of business establishments. In those cases, wage earners in non-professional non-technical occupations in establishments employing up to 5 workers are included in the figures for establishments employing over 5 workers. For Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, establishments employing up to 4 workers are taken into account.

c/ Includes professional and technical workers.

d/ Brazil's national household survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments, except in 1993 and 1996.

Therefore, the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing over 5 workers shows the percentage of wage earners who have an employment contract ("Carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to 5 workers shows the percentage of workers who do not have such contracts.

e/ Includes private sector employees in non-professional, non-technical occupations in business establishments of undeclared size.

f/ Information from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).

g/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country.

Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

h/ The figures for 1990 are not strictly comparable with those of 1997, owing to changes made in the classification of professional and technical workers.

i/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (NHIES).

j/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 5

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS, 1990-1999 (Percentages)								
Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage earners			Own account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector ^{a/}	Total	Agriculture
Bolivia	1997	100.0	3.3	8.9	2.4	6.5	87.8	79.9
	1999	100.0	1.2	9.2	2.3	6.9	89.6	82.1
Brazil	1990	100.0	3.0	44.3	...	44.3	52.7	44.3
	1993	100.0	1.9	33.6	5.1	28.5	64.5	58.4
	1996	100.0	1.8	34.3	4.4	29.9	63.8	57.2
	1999	100.0	2.0	34.3	5.2	29.1	63.7	56.4
Chile ^{b/}	1990	100.0	2.8	64.9	...	64.9	32.3	25.0
	1994	100.0	2.6	66.6	...	66.6	30.8	21.5
	1996	100.0	2.4	64.2	3.6	60.6	33.3	26.6
	1998	100.0	2.8	64.5	...	64.5	32.7	24.4
Colombia	1991	100.0	6.3	48.6	...	48.6	45.0	25.5
	1994	100.0	4.5	54.2	...	54.2	41.3	22.4
	1997	100.0	4.2	50.6	...	50.6	45.1	25.0
	1999	100.0	3.7	47.2	3.7	43.5	49.2	27.9
Costa Rica	1990	100.0	5.1	66.2	10.5	55.7	28.7	16.8
	1994	100.0	6.8	69.0	9.6	59.4	24.2	11.1
	1997	100.0	7.1	67.8	9.0	58.8	25.2	11.3
	1999	100.0	8.2	69.2	8.9	60.3	22.7	9.5
EL Salvador	1995	100.0	6.0	49.6	3.2	46.4	44.3	26.8
	1997	100.0	4.0	50.9	3.1	47.8	45.1	28.1
	1999	100.0	4.1	50.8	3.9	46.9	45.2	26.3
Guatemala	1989	100.0	0.6	38.7	2.9	35.8	60.7	47.5
	1998	100.0	2.0	42.9	1.7	41.2	55.1	34.8
Honduras	1990	100.0	0.6	34.9	4.0	30.9	64.6	47.6
	1994	100.0	1.7	37.0	4.8	32.2	61.4	43.5
	1997	100.0	2.6	34.8	3.4	31.4	62.6	41.6
	1999	100.0	3.1	33.4	3.7	29.7	63.5	41.3
Mexico ^{c/}	1989	100.0	2.5	50.2	...	50.2	47.3	34.6
	1994	100.0	4.0	48.6	5.5	43.1	47.4	30.8
	1996	100.0	5.1	48.1	6.4	41.7	46.7	28.6
	1998	100.0	4.5	45.6	6.0	39.6	49.9	29.2
Nicaragua	1993	100.0	0.2	38.4	6.6	31.8	61.3	45.8
	1998	100.0	3.3	43.7	...	43.7	53.0	39.7
Panama	1991	100.0	2.9	39.1	12.5	26.6	58.0	45.5
	1994	100.0	3.3	47.0	11.8	35.2	49.7	34.4
	1997	100.0	2.2	46.1	10.1	36.0	51.6	33.4
	1999	100.0	3.2	44.9	10.1	34.8	51.9	31.6
Paraguay	1997	100.0	2.3	24.8	3.2	21.6	72.8	57.3
	1999	100.0	3.4	27.0	3.4	23.6	69.7	54.0
Dominican Republic	1992	100.0	4.0	52.4	13.2	39.2	43.7	21.6
	1995	100.0	2.1	56.1	11.5	44.6	41.9	15.7
	1997	100.0	3.4	45.6	10.3	35.3	51.0	28.5
Venezuela	1990	100.0	6.9	46.6	8.3	38.3	46.5	33.3
	1994	100.0	7.6	47.6	7.4	40.2	44.8	29.7
	1997	100.0	5.4	49.6	5.4	44.2	44.9	33.1

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ Includes domestic employees. For Brazil (1990), Chile (1990 and 1994), Colombia (1991 and 1994), Mexico (1989) and Nicaragua (1998), public sector wage earners are included.

b/ Information from national socio-economic survey (CASEN).

c/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (NHIES).

Table 6

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-1999 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)												
Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage earners							Own account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector						
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
								Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	6.4	20.6	4.7	...	4.7	9.4	4.5	3.6	3.5	7.9	7.2
	1994	8.6	28.3	6.5	...	6.5	3.3	10.8	...
	1997	7.2	24.2	5.6	...	5.6	2.6	8.6	...
	1999	6.4	22.0	5.1	6.2	4.8	8.5	4.9	3.4	2.1	7.3	6.1
Bolivia	1989	4.2	16.2	3.9	4.1	3.5	7.7	3.6	2.7	1.6	4.1	3.8
	1994	3.5	10.3	3.2	3.9	3.0	7.3	2.7	2.0	1.0	2.5	2.2
	1997	3.6	10.1	3.9	4.6	3.6	8.8	3.2	2.2	1.1	2.5	2.3
	1999	3.4	8.2	4.1	4.7	3.7	7.4	3.8	2.4	1.8	2.3	2.2
Brazil <i>c/</i>	1990	4.7	16.1	4.1	...	4.1	8.2	3.8	2.6	1.0	3.8	3.4
	1993	4.3	15.6	4.2	6.4	3.6	10.9	3.5 d/	2.0	1.1	3.1	2.7
	1996	5.0	19.1	4.5	7.0	3.9	10.7	3.9 d/	2.5	1.5	4.2	3.7
	1999	4.4	14.7	4.1	6.6	3.5	6.9	3.2 d/	2.1	1.4	3.2	2.8
Chile <i>e/</i>	1990	4.7	24.8	3.8	...	3.8	7.4	3.5	2.4	1.4	5.4	5.0
	1994	6.2	34.2	4.9	...	4.9	9.6	4.0	2.9	2.0	6.3	4.9
	1996	6.8	33.7	5.1	6.5	4.8	11.2	3.8	2.9	2.0	8.3	6.4
	1998	7.4	33.8	5.6	...	5.6	11.7	4.3	3.0	2.2	8.6	6.5
Colombia <i>f/</i>	1991	2.9	7.4	2.7	3.9	2.5	5.3	2.4	...	1.3	2.4	2.2
	1994	3.8	13.1	3.4	5.5	3.1	7.9	2.6	...	1.7	3.4	3.0
	1997	3.8	10.9	3.6	5.7	3.2	6.9	2.7	...	1.6	3.2	2.9
	1999	3.3	9.5	3.7	6.3	3.2	6.8	2.8	...	2.1	2.2	1.9
Costa Rica	1990	5.2	6.8	5.4	7.3	4.4	9.0	4.3	3.2	1.5	3.7	3.4
	1994	5.7	10.8	5.5	7.8	4.6	8.4	4.4	3.6	1.6	4.4	4.0
	1997	5.6	8.4	5.8	8.2	4.8	9.0	4.8	3.2	1.8	3.8	3.6
	1999	6.0	10.4	5.9	8.8	5.1	9.7	4.8	3.6	1.7	4.4	4.0
Ecuador	1990	2.8	4.8	3.2	4.1	2.8	6.0	2.9	2.3	0.8	1.9	1.9
	1994	2.9	6.6	2.8	3.5	2.5	5.2	2.6	1.9	0.9	2.2	2.0
	1997	3.0	6.0	3.0	3.9	2.7	5.7	2.9	1.8	0.9	2.2	2.1
	1999	2.9	7.6	2.8	3.8	2.6	4.5	2.9	1.7	0.9	1.8	1.8
El Salvador	1995	3.4	8.6	3.5	5.3	3.0	6.9	2.8	2.0	1.0	2.1	2.0
	1997	3.8	9.9	4.5	5.9	3.8	7.8	3.2	2.3	1.9	2.2	2.1
	1999	4.2	9.9	4.6	6.9	4.0	8.2	3.7	2.4	2.1	2.5	2.3
Guatemala	1989	3.5	17.7	3.0	4.8	2.5	5.2	2.6	1.7	1.4	3.2	2.9
	1998	3.0	12.1	3.0	4.4	2.8	6.2	2.7	1.9	0.7	1.7	1.3
Honduras	1990	2.8	16.4	3.1	4.9	2.5	6.5	2.7	1.6	0.8	1.6	1.5
	1994	2.3	7.3	2.2	3.4	2.0	4.5	1.9	1.3	0.5	1.7	1.6
	1997	2.0	6.5	2.1	2.9	1.9	4.2	1.8	1.1	0.5	1.3	1.2
	1999	2.0	5.1	2.1	2.9	1.9	3.0	2.1	1.1	0.5	1.2	1.2

Table 6 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-1999												
(In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)												
Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage earners							Own account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector					Total b/	Non-professional, Non-technical
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
								Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Mexico g/	1989	4.4	21.7	3.5	...	3.5	6.9	3.1	...	1.4	4.8	4.4
	1994	4.4	18.3	3.9	5.0	3.6	9.5	3.0	...	1.2	3.7	3.3
	1996	3.7	15.2	3.3	4.9	2.9	6.4	2.8	1.7	1.2	2.5	2.3
	1998	4.1	18.2	3.5	5.3	3.1	6.9	3.1	1.9	1.3	3.0	2.6
Nicaragua	1993	3.5	8.5	3.3	3.4	3.2	6.1	3.1	2.3	2.1	3.6	2.9
	1998	3.1	11.1	3.2	...	3.2	6.3	2.6	1.9	1.7	2.1	2.0
Panama	1991	5.0	11.8	5.5	7.4	4.4	9.4	4.1	2.6	1.3	2.5	2.3
	1994	5.1	17.7	5.1	7.3	4.1	9.4	3.8	2.4	1.3	3.5	3.4
	1997	5.6	15.4	5.6	8.0	4.6	10.0	4.1	2.6	1.4	3.7	3.4
	1999	5.8	11.4	6.3	8.7	5.5	11.1	4.8	2.7	2.2	3.3	3.0
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	3.4	10.3	2.5	3.4	2.2	4.7	2.6	1.8	0.8	3.8	3.6
	1994	3.6	10.0	3.0	4.4	2.7	6.7	2.7	2.0	1.3	2.9	2.9
	1996	3.6	10.6	3.3	5.1	2.9	6.5	3.1	2.3	1.2	2.8	2.5
	1999	3.6	8.9	3.5	4.6	3.2	6.5	3.4	2.3	1.7	2.7	2.3
(Urban areas)	1994	3.3	9.6	2.8	4.3	2.5	6.6	2.6	1.9	1.2	2.5	2.5
	1996	3.3	9.7	3.1	5.1	2.6	6.3	3.0	2.1	1.1	2.5	2.3
	1999	3.3	8.8	3.3	4.8	2.9	6.7	3.1	2.1	1.6	2.2	1.9
Dominican Republic	1997	4.4	13.5	3.9	4.7	3.7	7.5	3.5	2.4	1.4	4.3	4.0
Uruguay	1990	4.3	12.0	3.7	4.0	3.6	7.6	3.7	2.5	1.5	5.1	5.1
	1994	4.8	12.3	4.6	5.3	4.2	9.6	4.5	2.9	1.7	3.9	3.5
	1997	4.9	11.5	4.8	5.9	4.5	9.8	4.6	3.0	1.8	4.0	3.5
	1999	5.4	14.1	5.3	6.7	4.9	11.2	4.9	3.2	2.1	4.1	3.6
Venezuela h/	1990	4.5	11.9	3.7	4.0	3.6	6.6	3.6	2.5	2.1	4.5	4.3
	1994	3.8	8.9	3.2	2.7	3.4	6.7	3.4	2.0	1.9	4.1	3.8
	1997	3.6	11.2	2.6	2.9	2.5	5.8	2.4	1.7	1.4	4.2	3.9
	1999	3.5	9.2	3.2	3.7	2.9	6.4	2.9	2.0	1.4	3.2	3.0

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ For Argentina (except 1999), Brazil (1990), Chile (1990, 1994 and 1998), Mexico (1989) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public-sector wage earners. In addition, for Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, this includes non-professional, non-technical wage earners in establishments employing up to four workers. Where no information was available about the size of the establishments, no data are provided for the total population employed in low-productivity sectors.

b/ Includes own account professional and technical workers.

c/ Brazil's national household survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments, except in 1993, 1996 and 1999. Therefore, the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing over 5 workers shows the percentage of wage earners who have an employment contract ("Carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to 5 workers shows the percentage of workers who do not have such contracts.

d/ Includes private sector employees in non-professional, non-technical occupations in business establishments of undeclared size.

e/ Information from national socio-economic survey (CASEN).

f/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country.

Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

g/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (NHIES).

h/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 6.1

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-1999												
(In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)												
Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage earners							Own account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector					Total b/	Non-professional, Non-technical
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
								Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	7.3	22.2	5.1	...	5.1	11.4	4.7	3.7	4.4	9.4	8.8
	1994	9.7	28.0	7.1	...	7.1	4.5	12.3	...
	1997	8.2	25.7	6.1	...	6.1	2.7	10.2	...
	1999	7.4	24.0	5.7	7.1	5.3	9.9	5.1	3.5	2.6	8.5	7.1
Bolivia	1989	5.1	17.1	4.3	4.8	4.0	9.6	3.7	2.8	4.0	5.4	4.9
	1994	4.4	10.8	4.4	4.7	3.5	8.3	2.8	2.2	1.7	3.6	3.2
	1997	4.5	10.5	4.4	5.4	4.2	9.8	3.3	2.4	1.8	3.1	2.9
	1999	4.1	7.9	4.5	5.2	4.4	8.0	4.1	2.6	1.9	3.0	2.8
Brazil ^{c/}	1990	5.7	17.2	4.8	...	4.8	11.3	4.2	2.8	1.3	4.9	4.4
	1993	5.3	16.6	4.9	7.9	4.2	14.5	3.7 ^{d/}	2.0	1.5	4.0	3.6
	1996	6.0	20.1	5.2	8.4	4.6	13.8	4.2 ^{d/}	2.6	2.0	5.2	4.7
	1999	5.2	15.5	4.7	7.9	4.1	8.9	3.4 ^{d/}	2.2	2.1	4.1	3.6
Chile ^{e/}	1990	5.4	27.4	4.4	...	4.4	10.4	3.6	2.5	1.9	5.8	5.3
	1994	7.0	37.6	5.4	...	5.4	12.0	4.1	3.1	2.2	6.7	5.4
	1996	7.7	36.3	5.7	7.2	5.5	13.3	4.0	3.0	2.4	9.2	7.2
	1998	8.4	37.0	6.3	...	6.3	14.1	4.5	3.2	3.3	9.5	7.1
Colombia ^{f/}	1991	3.3	7.8	3.1	4.2	2.8	6.5	2.5	...	1.5	3.0	2.7
	1994	4.4	14.5	3.6	6.1	3.3	9.8	2.6	...	1.7	4.0	3.5
	1997	4.4	11.8	4.0	6.4	3.5	8.4	2.9	...	1.6	3.9	3.4
	1999	3.8	10.2	4.0	7.1	3.4	7.9	2.9	...	2.7	2.6	2.3
Costa Rica	1990	5.8	7.0	6.0	7.9	5.1	9.9	4.6	3.3	1.5	4.8	4.3
	1994	6.4	11.9	6.0	8.2	5.2	9.6	4.7	3.9	2.1	5.3	4.9
	1997	6.1	8.9	6.1	8.7	5.3	9.7	5.0	3.5	2.3	5.0	4.6
	1999	6.8	11.1	6.5	9.5	5.7	10.7	5.1	3.8	2.3	5.6	5.2
Ecuador	1990	3.3	4.9	3.6	4.6	3.2	8.0	3.0	2.4	1.1	2.4	2.3
	1994	3.4	7.2	3.1	3.8	2.9	6.7	2.6	2.0	1.1	2.9	2.6
	1997	3.4	6.3	3.3	4.1	3.1	6.9	2.9	1.8	1.3	2.7	2.6
	1999	3.4	8.2	3.0	4.2	2.7	4.9	2.9	1.7	1.4	2.3	2.3
El Salvador	1995	4.1	9.4	3.9	5.5	3.5	7.6	3.0	2.2	1.7	2.1	2.8
	1997	4.4	10.5	4.3	5.9	3.9	8.5	3.3	2.4	2.8	2.9	2.7
	1999	4.8	10.3	4.8	6.9	4.4	9.1	3.9	2.5	2.9	3.2	2.9
Guatemala	1989	4.0	18.6	3.3	4.8	2.8	6.2	2.7	1.8	2.6	3.9	3.6
	1998	3.8	13.3	3.5	4.8	3.3	7.6	3.0	2.0	1.0	2.4	1.8
Honduras	1990	3.4	20.3	3.3	5.1	2.9	7.3	2.8	1.7	1.6	2.4	2.2
	1994	2.7	7.8	2.5	3.8	2.2	5.2	2.0	1.3	1.6	2.1	2.0
	1997	2.5	7.1	2.2	3.3	2.0	5.3	1.9	1.1	0.8	1.8	1.7
	1999	2.4	6.7	2.3	3.1	2.1	3.8	2.3	1.2	0.8	1.7	1.6

Table 6.1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-1999												
(In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)												
Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage earners							Own account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector						
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
								Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Mexico g/	1989	5.1	23.4	3.8	...	3.8	7.8	3.3	...	2.1	6.1	5.6
	1994	5.2	19.4	4.4	5.6	4.1	11.5	3.2	...	2.0	5.0	4.4
	1996	4.3	16.0	3.6	5.3	3.3	7.7	3.1	1.8	1.9	3.4	3.1
	1998	4.9	19.2	3.9	5.9	3.5	8.2	3.4	2.1	1.9	4.3	3.6
Nicaragua	1993	3.8	9.4	3.6	3.9	3.5	7.4	3.1	2.4	1.3	4.1	3.2
	1998	3.7	12.0	3.5	...	3.5	7.9	2.8	2.0	3.3	2.5	2.4
Panama	1991	5.3	11.9	6.1	7.9	5.0	10.2	4.2	2.7	1.4	2.7	2.5
	1994	5.6	19.2	5.7	8.2	4.6	10.6	3.8	2.3	2.0	3.9	3.7
	1997	6.2	16.6	6.4	9.0	5.3	11.0	4.1	2.6	2.0	4.3	3.8
	1999	6.2	12.1	6.8	9.7	5.9	11.7	4.8	2.7	2.3	3.8	3.5
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	4.2	10.4	2.9	4.0	2.6	5.8	2.6	1.9	...	4.8	4.6
	1994	4.4	10.6	3.5	5.1	3.2	8.5	2.7	2.1	2.1	3.5	3.5
	1996	4.3	11.7	3.6	5.5	3.3	7.3	3.2	2.4	2.0	3.5	3.2
	1999	4.1	8.9	3.8	4.7	3.6	7.0	3.4	2.3	1.9	3.1	2.6
(Urban areas)	1994	4.0	10.0	3.2	5.0	2.9	8.2	2.7	2.0	1.9	3.0	3.0
	1996	3.9	10.3	3.4	5.5	3.0	6.9	3.1	2.2	1.7	3.1	2.9
	1999	3.8	8.7	3.6	5.2	3.2	7.5	3.2	2.0	1.7	2.6	2.3
Dominican Republic	1997	4.8	14.5	4.0	4.6	3.9	8.0	3.6	2.6	2.2	4.8	4.5
Uruguay	1990	5.5	13.0	4.3	4.4	4.2	10.1	4.0	2.7	1.5	7.3	7.3
	1994	5.8	13.1	5.5	6.0	5.3	12.5	5.0	3.1	3.0	4.9	4.4
	1997	5.8	12.3	5.6	6.6	5.3	12.9	5.0	3.2	2.0	4.8	4.2
	1999	6.3	14.9	6.2	7.5	5.8	14.6	5.3	3.4	2.7	4.8	4.2
Venezuela h/	1990	5.1	12.0	4.0	4.4	3.9	7.6	3.7	2.5	3.4	5.1	4.9
	1994	4.3	9.1	3.4	3.1	3.5	7.6	3.4	2.0	2.9	4.6	4.3
	1997	4.0	11.4	2.8	3.2	2.7	6.7	2.5	1.7	2.2	4.6	4.3
	1999	3.8	9.4	3.3	4.1	3.2	7.4	3.0	2.0	2.0	3.7	3.5

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ For Argentina (except 1999), Brazil (1990), Chile (1990, 1994 and 1998), Mexico (1989) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public-sector wage earners.

In addition, for Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, this includes non-professional, non-technical wage earners in establishments employing up to four workers. Where no information was available about the size of the establishments, no data are provided for the total population employed in low-productivity sectors.

b/ Includes own account professional and technical workers.

c/ Brazil's national household survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments, except in 1993, 1996 and 1999.

Therefore, the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing over 5 workers shows the percentage of wage earners who have an employment contract ("Carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to 5 workers shows the percentage of workers who do not have such contracts.

d/ Includes private sector employees in non-professional, non-technical occupations in business establishments of undeclared size.

e/ Information from national socio-economic survey (CASEN).

f/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country.

Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

g/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (NHIES).

h/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 6.2

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-1999 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)												
Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage earners							Own account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector						
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
								Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	4.7	13.6	4.7	...	3.9	6.6	4.0	3.4	2.0	5.8	4.5
	1994	6.7	29.4	6.5	...	5.4	3.2	8.3	...
	1997	5.6	19.6	4.8	...	4.8	2.5	6.2	...
	1999	4.8	15.0	4.4	5.5	4.0	6.8	4.3	3.0	2.1	5.3	4.4
Bolivia	1989	2.9	10.7	3.6	2.9	3.4	4.1	3.4	2.2	1.6	4.1	2.9
	1994	2.2	8.4	2.3	2.7	2.1	5.3	2.2	1.5	0.9	2.5	1.6
	1997	2.5	8.1	3.0	3.5	2.8	6.8	2.6	1.8	1.0	1.8	1.7
	1999	2.4	9.0	3.2	4.1	2.9	5.8	2.9	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7
Brazil c/	1990	3.1	11.1	3.1	...	3.1	5.6	2.9	2.0	0.9	2.2	1.9
	1993	2.8	11.1	3.0	4.9	2.3	5.7	2.8 d/	1.8	1.1	1.7	1.4
	1996	3.6	15.4	3.6	5.7	3.1	7.0	3.2 d/	2.3	1.5	2.5	2.0
	1999	3.2	12.4	3.3	5.4	2.6	5.0	2.4 d/	1.8	1.4	2.0	1.6
Chile e/	1990	3.4	14.3	3.0	...	3.0	4.5	3.2	2.2	1.4	4.4	4.2
	1994	4.7	26.4	3.8	...	3.8	6.5	3.5	2.6	2.0	5.8	3.8
	1996	5.1	26.4	4.1	5.5	3.9	7.8	3.6	2.8	2.0	6.4	4.4
	1998	5.6	24.9	4.7	...	4.7	8.8	3.8	2.7	2.2	6.8	5.0
Colombia f/	1991	2.2	5.9	2.3	3.5	2.1	3.9	2.1	...	1.2	1.6	1.4
	1994	3.0	8.4	3.0	4.8	2.7	5.9	2.5	...	1.7	2.3	2.0
	1997	2.9	8.4	3.0	5.0	2.6	5.2	2.4	...	1.6	2.3	2.0
	1999	2.8	7.7	3.4	5.5	2.9	5.7	2.7	...	2.1	1.5	1.3
Costa Rica	1990	4.0	5.4	4.4	6.5	3.3	6.5	3.7	2.9	1.5	1.9	1.7
	1994	4.4	6.9	4.6	7.1	3.5	6.1	3.7	2.9	1.6	2.7	2.5
	1997	4.7	6.2	5.3	7.7	3.9	7.6	4.2	2.8	1.8	2.2	2.1
	1999	4.7	7.9	5.1	8.0	3.9	7.7	4.1	3.3	1.7	2.5	2.1
Ecuador	1990	2.0	4.5	2.5	3.4	2.0	3.5	2.6	1.9	0.7	1.2	1.2
	1994	2.1	4.8	2.3	3.1	2.1	3.2	2.7	1.7	0.9	1.5	1.4
	1997	2.4	5.2	2.7	3.6	2.4	4.2	3.1	1.7	0.9	1.5	1.4
	1999	2.1	5.3	2.5	3.2	2.3	4.1	2.9	1.4	0.9	1.2	1.2
El Salvador	1995	2.5	5.8	3.0	4.9	2.5	5.7	2.5	1.5	0.9	1.6	1.6
	1997	3.1	8.1	4.0	6.0	3.6	6.6	3.1	2.0	1.8	1.8	1.7
	1999	3.5	8.8	4.2	6.9	3.5	6.8	3.5	2.1	2.0	2.0	2.0
Guatemala	1989	2.6	14.4	2.7	5.0	2.0	3.5	2.4	1.5	1.4	2.1	1.9
	1998	2.0	8.6	2.2	3.8	1.9	4.2	2.2	1.5	0.6	1.2	0.9
Honduras	1990	2.0	4.3	2.2	4.7	1.9	4.8	2.5	1.2	0.8	1.0	0.9
	1994	1.6	5.1	1.8	2.9	1.5	3.3	1.7	1.1	0.5	1.2	1.1
	1997	1.4	4.6	1.7	2.5	1.5	2.9	1.6	0.9	0.5	1.3	0.8
	1999	1.5	3.8	1.8	2.7	1.5	2.4	1.8	1.0	0.5	0.8	0.8

Table 6.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-1999 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)												
Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage earners							Own account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector						
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
								Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Mexico g/	1989	2.8	9.4	2.9	...	2.9	4.8	2.8	...	1.3	2.3	2.3
	1994	2.9	11.6	3.0	4.2	2.6	5.3	2.5	...	1.1	2.0	1.8
	1996	2.5	11.8	2.7	4.2	2.2	4.1	2.3	1.4	1.1	1.4	1.3
	1998	2.7	13.2	2.8	4.4	2.3	4.5	2.5	1.5	1.1	1.7	1.6
Nicaragua	1993	2.9	6.6	2.8	2.9	2.7	4.4	2.8	2.3	2.1	3.0	2.6
	1998	2.3	6.0	2.7	...	2.7	4.7	2.4	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.6
Panama	1991	4.6	11.2	4.8	6.9	3.3	7.9	4.0	2.6	1.3	2.0	1.6
	1994	4.1	12.0	4.2	6.1	3.2	7.1	3.7	2.5	1.2	2.4	2.3
	1997	4.6	10.1	4.8	6.8	3.9	8.3	4.0	2.7	1.4	2.5	2.3
	1999	5.1	8.7	5.7	7.6	4.9	9.9	4.8	2.9	2.2	2.1	1.9
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	2.3	9.0	1.8	2.4	1.6	3.4	2.4	1.5	0.8	3.0	2.9
	1994	2.6	8.6	2.3	3.4	2.0	4.3	2.5	1.8	1.2	2.3	2.3
	1996	2.7	7.2	2.8	4.7	2.3	5.5	2.8	2.0	1.2	2.2	1.9
	1999	3.0	8.9	3.0	4.4	2.7	5.5	3.1	2.4	1.7	2.2	1.9
(Urban areas)	1994	2.4	8.5	2.2	3.4	1.9	4.2	2.4	1.7	1.2	2.0	2.0
	1996	2.4	7.5	2.6	4.6	2.0	5.3	2.7	2.0	1.1	1.9	1.7
	1999	2.7	9.3	2.8	4.3	2.5	5.6	3.0	2.2	1.6	1.8	1.6
Dominican Republic	1997	3.6	7.7	3.7	4.7	3.4	7.0	3.5	2.0	1.4	3.3	2.9
Uruguay	1990	2.7	6.9	2.7	3.4	2.5	4.8	2.8	1.9	1.5	2.1	1.8
	1994	3.4	9.9	3.4	4.4	3.1	6.4	3.4	2.5	1.7	2.7	2.2
	1997	3.7	8.3	3.8	5.0	3.4	6.7	3.8	2.6	1.8	2.9	2.3
	1999	4.1	11.5	4.2	5.6	3.8	8.0	4.0	2.8	2.1	3.1	2.4
Venezuela h/	1990	3.3	10.8	3.2	3.6	2.9	4.9	3.3	2.4	1.7	2.9	2.7
	1994	3.0	7.5	2.8	2.3	3.2	5.6	3.3	2.0	1.5	3.1	2.6
	1997	2.8	9.4	2.4	2.6	2.2	4.5	2.2	1.6	1.2	3.4	3.0
	1999	2.9	7.9	3.0	3.3	2.8	5.4	2.6	1.9	1.3	2.5	2.3

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ For Argentina (except 1999), Brazil (1990), Chile (1990, 1994 and 1998), Mexico (1989) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public-sector wage earners.

In addition, for Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, this includes non-professional, non-technical wage earners in establishments employing up to four workers. Where no information was available about the size of the establishments, no data are provided for the total population employed in low-productivity sectors.

b/ Includes own account professional and technical workers.

c/ Brazil's national household survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments, except in 1993, 1996 and 1999.

Therefore, the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing over 5 workers shows the percentage of wage earners who have an employment contract ("Carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to 5 workers shows the percentage of workers who do not have such contracts.

d/ Includes private sector employees in non-professional, non-technical occupations in business establishments of undeclared size.

e/ Information from national socio-economic survey (CASEN).

f/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country.

Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

g/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (NHIES).

h/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 7

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS, 1990-1999 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)								
Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage earners			Own account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector a/	Total b/	Agriculture
Bolivia	1997	1.3	10.5	3.5	3.7	3.4	0.8	0.6
	1999	0.8	3.9	3.4	4.2	3.1	0.6	0.4
Brazil	1990	2.0	9.3	2.2	...	2.2	1.5	1.3
	1993	1.8	11.6	2.2	2.9	2.1	1.3	1.2
	1996	2.0	13.5	2.8	4.0	2.6	1.3	1.1
	1999	1.8	12.4	2.6	3.8	2.4	1.0	0.8
Chile c/	1990	4.9	39.3	3.2	...	3.2	5.2	5.2
	1994	4.6	28.9	3.8	...	3.8	4.2	3.7
	1996	4.2	24.0	3.5	5.3	3.4	4.0	3.5
	1998	5.3	32.8	3.9	...	3.9	6.3	5.3
Colombia	1991	3.1	10.7	2.9	...	2.9	2.3	1.7
	1994	2.5	5.8	2.8	...	2.8	1.9	2.3
	1997	2.7	7.0	3.1	5.0	3.0	1.8	1.8
	1999	2.9	5.6	3.9	6.4	3.7	1.8	1.9
Costa Rica	1990	5.1	9.9	5.2	8.4	4.6	4.0	3.9
	1994	5.8	11.7	5.4	8.4	4.9	5.4	6.3
	1997	5.6	9.3	5.5	9.4	4.9	4.7	4.9
	1999	6.3	11.3	6.0	10.2	5.4	5.3	5.5
El Salvador	1995	2.4	5.5	2.7	5.4	2.6	1.7	1.4
	1997	2.4	4.3	3.1	5.7	2.9	1.5	1.1
	1999	3.4	10.2	3.3	6.8	3.0	2.8	3.1
Guatemala	1989	2.5	21.1	2.3	4.9	2.1	2.4	2.1
	1998	2.2	19.5	2.2	3.7	2.1	1.7	1.7
Honduras	1990	1.7	14.7	2.2	4.9	1.8	1.3	1.3
	1994	2.0	8.6	2.1	4.1	1.8	1.8	1.8
	1997	1.7	9.0	1.6	3.4	1.4	1.4	1.5
	1999	1.8	6.1	2.0	4.4	1.7	1.4	1.4
Mexico d/	1989	3.0	9.3	2.7	...	2.7	3.0	2.6
	1994	2.7	9.7	2.6	5.1	2.3	2.2	1.8
	1996	2.3	7.1	2.4	4.9	2.0	1.6	1.3
	1998	2.6	8.7	2.9	5.2	2.5	1.8	1.6
Nicaragua	1993	2.2	4.8	2.7	3.0	2.6	1.9	1.4
	1998	2.1	8.8	2.8	...	2.8	1.1	0.8
Panama	1991	3.4	10.8	5.2	7.7	4.0	1.9	1.9
	1994	3.5	13.8	4.1	6.7	3.2	2.2	1.6
	1997	4.0	16.4	4.5	8.1	3.3	3.1	2.3
	1999	4.2	15.4	5.1	9.7	3.8	3.8	2.3
Paraguay	1999	2.2	17.2	2.9	5.3	2.5	1.3	1.1
Dominican Republic	1997	4.3	6.6	4.3	6.2	3.8	4.2	3.4
Venezuela	1990	3.8	9.5	3.3	4.3	3.1	3.5	2.9
	1994	3.4	7.2	2.9	4.3	2.6	3.4	3.2

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ Includes domestic employees. For Brazil (1990), Chile (1990, 1994 and 1998), Colombia (1991 and 1994), Mexico (1989) and Nicaragua (1998), public-sector wage earners are included.

b/ Includes workers in all sectors of activity.

c/ Information from national socio-economic survey (CASEN).

d/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (NHIES).

Table 8

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): RATIO OF AVERAGE FEMALE INCOME TO AVERAGE MALE INCOME IN URBAN AREAS, BY AGE GROUPS, 1990-1999 (Percentages)													
Country	Year	Earned income disparity by age group a/						Wage disparity by age group b/					
		Total	15 - 24	25 - 34	35 - 44	45 - 54	55 and over	Total	15 - 24	25 - 34	35 - 44	45 - 54	55 and over
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	65	87	77	61	59	51	76	94	82	72	72	54
	1994	71	87	88	64	72	50	76	94	80	69	73	61
	1997	70	95	83	66	67	49	79	98	92	77	63	66
	1999	65	94	76	64	58	54	79	95	84	69	78	73
Bolivia	1989	59	71	65	54	54	62	60	74	68	60	54	44
	1994	54	61	61	58	44	40	61	60	71	68	56	40
	1997	60	60	67	72	47	40	69	65	74	85	64	39
	1999	63	72	70	55	67	54	72	81	85	63	72	63
Brazil	1990	56	73	64	54	47	35	65	77	71	63	57	52
	1993	56	74	66	53	43	48	61	77	68	56	46	54
	1996	62	77	67	62	51	54	68	80	72	65	56	60
	1999	64	80	71	62	57	54	70	83	75	66	58	59
Chile	1990	61	81	67	60	56	52	66	86	72	63	54	61
	1994	67	81	84	71	56	54	70	84	78	67	64	56
	1996	67	86	82	60	64	57	73	93	82	67	62	67
	1998	66	90	77	69	59	54	74	93	83	69	67	69
Colombia c/	1991	68	88	77	64	56	55	77	87	79	73	75	74
	1994	68	97	80	69	52	48	83	104	90	82	67	57
	1997	79	90	95	83	60	58	77	92	85	73	64	60
	1999	75	101	86	69	68	55	83	101	94	76	75	66
Costa Rica	1990	72	86	75	66	60	61	74	87	78	66	62	81
	1994	69	82	76	64	60	55	75	84	79	70	65	77
	1997	78	99	79	73	74	51	87	102	87	79	87	55
	1999	70	87	75	67	64	59	78	89	79	75	72	70
Ecuador	1990	66	80	70	61	60	64	67	78	73	63	63	60
	1994	67	77	73	65	57	58	76	81	82	76	65	72
	1997	75	90	84	70	64	67	83	94	90	77	75	62
	1999	67	99	82	61	51	55	83	99	93	78	69	52
El Salvador	1995	63	76	70	58	52	47	79	80	81	72	85	61
	1997	72	97	74	69	64	53	88	100	85	85	91	73
	1999	75	84	79	71	67	60	88	87	93	84	86	70
Guatemala	1998	55	57	51	58	58	56	70	86	83	67	72	48
Honduras	1990	59	77	68	51	56	43	78	81	80	70	89	103
	1994	63	80	72	69	47	43	73	82	80	82	67	32
	1997	60	81	72	58	47	37	77	86	78	74	70	72
	1999	65	78	65	68	51	52	78	80	76	82	69	86
Mexico	1989	55	71	63	52	46	48	73	86	78	69	59	82
	1994	57	83	65	57	45	46	68	91	74	78	49	49
	1996	59	83	61	62	45	52	73	90	73	66	72	84
	1998	57	84	71	51	54	40	72	89	79	68	63	72
Nicaragua	1993	77	107	87	62	64	67	77	90	88	54	64	95
	1998	65	92	73	60	47	43	77	103	77	73	56	47

Table 8 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): RATIO OF AVERAGE FEMALE INCOME TO AVERAGE MALE INCOME IN URBAN AREAS, BY AGE GROUPS, 1990-1999 (Percentages)													
Country	Year	Earned income disparity by age group a/						Wage disparity by age group b/					
		Total	15 - 24	25 - 34	35 - 44	45 - 54	55 and over	Total	15 - 24	25 - 34	35 - 44	45 - 54	55 and over
Panama	1991	80	76	90	83	73	74	80	71	89	86	74	67
	1994	71	81	77	73	58	54	75	80	86	73	63	52
	1997	74	82	81	71	73	52	76	81	87	73	73	50
	1999	83	101	90	79	79	61	84	99	92	77	78	59
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	55	63	68	52	50	60	63	66	72	58	63	77
	1994	60	73	71	58	68	33	64	77	71	58	70	47
	1996	64	76	66	71	48	56	76	76	74	82	72	93
	1999	71	96	84	67	69	44	79	102	92	70	62	69
Dominican Republic	1997	75	95	77	76	51	69	90	97	87	90	84	67
Uruguay	1990	45	63	60	46	37	30	64	79	73	61	59	49
	1994	61	76	65	58	56	51	63	76	66	59	60	51
	1997	65	79	72	63	59	55	67	79	71	64	60	55
	1999	67	79	77	63	65	55	68	79	75	61	66	53
Venezuela d/	1990	66	80	72	64	57	48	79	86	82	74	68	66
	1994	70	96	77	64	56	57	83	106	84	75	67	69
	1997	69	84	77	62	60	55	83	92	87	77	73	65
	1999	74	92	76	71	65	57	91	99	91	85	79	91

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ Income differential among the entire employed population.

b/ Income differential among wage earners.

c/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country.

Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

d/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 9

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): RATIO OF AVERAGE FEMALE INCOME TO AVERAGE MALE INCOME IN URBAN AREAS, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, 1990-1999 (Percentages)													
Country	Year	Earned income disparity by years of schooling ^{a/}						Wage disparity by years of schooling ^{b/}					
		Total	0 - 3	4 - 6	7 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over	Total	0 - 3	4 - 6	7 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over
Argentina ^{c/} (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	65	...	66	...	63	51	76	...	73	...	68	62
	1994	71	...	62	65	65	63	76
	1997	70	73	66	67	69	55	79	60	57	69	76	64
	1999	65	64	82	58	63	51	79	63	72	58	77	66
Bolivia	1989	59	62	67	76	77	46	60	40	49	69	85	49
	1994	54	60	58	67	65	54	61	44	48	56	70	60
	1997	60	59	66	53	75	57	69	61	46	48	79	60
	1999	63	63	64	66	71	66	72	55	59	42	82	65
Brazil	1990	56	46	46	50	49	49	65	56	51	57	53	52
	1993	56	49	46	49	51	46	61	56	51	56	55	45
	1996	62	57	52	53	53	53	68	65	57	57	57	56
	1999	64	58	51	55	55	56	70	65	58	59	60	57
Chile	1990	61	56	58	69	62	49	66	64	49	66	69	55
	1994	67	93	70	69	69	54	70	83	68	66	72	58
	1996	67	83	65	70	70	53	73	74	68	74	73	60
	1998	66	71	63	65	71	54	74	72	64	71	75	63
Colombia ^{d/}	1991	68	57	60	70	72	64	77	71	70	78	78	68
	1994	68	59	68	65	71	57	83	80	81	83	86	66
	1997	79	69	65	108	88	61	77	74	74	71	78	67
	1999	75	66	71	75	73	70	83	79	86	84	81	74
Costa Rica	1990	72	53	62	65	73	67	74	58	66	67	76	66
	1994	69	61	55	58	64	70	75	61	63	68	67	75
	1997	78	61	58	61	77	75	87	66	67	70	83	77
	1999	70	49	62	57	65	68	78	59	68	66	73	71
Ecuador	1990	66	49	57	68	79	57	67	42	47	70	77	56
	1994	67	60	61	70	72	59	76	56	59	68	83	66
	1997	75	57	60	61	87	70	83	64	61	63	92	72
	1999	67	63	62	62	71	60	83	55	60	68	87	71
El Salvador	1995	63	61	56	63	69	65	79	59	56	67	83	72
	1997	72	77	67	76	80	66	88	80	73	85	92	71
	1999	75	73	75	78	80	71	88	79	79	81	88	73
Guatemala	1998	55	57	51	58	58	56	70	56	59	66	71	62
Honduras	1990	59	47	50	58	69	54	78	55	55	66	82	63
	1994	63	60	65	66	67	56	73	57	70	80	74	63
	1997	60	52	56	58	66	54	77	60	69	76	76	59
	1999	65	60	62	59	66	66	78	67	68	60	76	74
Mexico ^{e/}	1989	55	61	50	70	62	46	73	71	68	83	78	63
	1994	57	...	58	65	70	48	68	...	59	78	76	56
	1996	59	56	67	71	63	49	73	67	69	81	76	63
	1998	57	72	56	65	63	47	72	61	65	75	78	56

Table 9 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): RATIO OF AVERAGE FEMALE INCOME TO AVERAGE MALE INCOME IN URBAN AREAS, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, 1990-1999 (Percentages)													
Country	Year	Earned income disparity by years of schooling a/						Wage disparity by years of schooling b/					
		Total	0 - 3	4 - 6	7 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over	Total	0 - 3	4 - 6	7 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over
Nicaragua	1993	77	95	73	71	91	58	77	86	76	72	77	65
	1998	65	68	80	67	52	53	77	72	75	64	57	67
Panama	1991	80	45	55	67	80	72	80	45	52	66	78	76
	1994	71	51	52	60	68	61	75	57	53	62	76	62
	1997	74	58	54	58	69	62	76	49	55	65	75	63
	1999	83	57	60	66	75	71	84	58	58	68	80	71
Paraguay	1990	55	69	55	60	65	42	63	51	50	58	72	58
	1994	60	64	59	66	67	52	64	64	59	66	75	51
	1996	64	69	62	55	67	58	76	56	61	60	81	70
	1999	71	62	76	62	74	63	79	72	75	61	86	67
Dominican Republic	1997	75	57	60	60	75	66	90	67	71	67	95	75
Uruguay	1990	45	50	41	40	42	37	64	52	57	63	59	57
	1994	61	59	55	55	56	50	63	57	54	59	59	51
	1997	65	54	57	60	58	56	67	51	57	62	62	57
	1999	67	61	58	61	62	56	68	54	56	63	65	58
Venezuela f/	1990	66	62	58	68	61	62	79	73	68	77	78	71
	1994	70	68	62	70	63	67	84	83	75	90	71	76
	1997	69	71	61	64	60	63	83	74	73	71	75	70
	1999	74	71	65	66	63	66	91	83	73	75	77	74

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ Income differential among the entire employed population.

b/ Income differential among wage earners.

c/ The levels of schooling in Argentina are 0 to 6 years, 7 to 9 years, and 10 years and over.

d/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country.

Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

e/ For years after 1989, the levels of instruction in Mexico are: 0-5 years, 6-9 years, 10-12 years, and 13 years and over.

f/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 10

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-1999										
(Percentages of the total employed urban population)										
Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers b/		
			Employers	Wage earners				Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	44.4	3.8	12.0	0.4	11.6	5.7	22.9	6.9	16.0
	1994	42.7	3.4	14.8	1.4	13.4	4.8	19.7	6.0	13.6
	1997	41.4	3.7	15.9	1.4	14.5	5.1	16.7	4.6	12.1
	1999	40.4	3.2	14.9	1.3	13.6	5.3	17.0	5.1	11.9
	(Urban areas)	1999	42.2	3.2	14.9	1.4	13.5	5.8	18.3	5.4
Bolivia	1989	58.5	1.1	10.5	0.9	9.6	5.8	41.1	9.8	30.0
	1994	63.0	6.2	14.8	1.0	13.8	5.2	36.8	9.1	27.1
	1997	65.5	5.0	12.0	1.0	11.0	3.6	44.9	11.9	27.7
	1999	64.3	2.5	12.8	1.0	11.8	3.1	45.9	12.1	31.1
Brazil d/	1990	49.2	...	21.6	4.3	17.3	6.2	21.4	3.5	15.8
	1993	45.5	1.9	9.0	0.5	8.5	8.2	26.4	4.7	16.0
	1996	46.7	2.0	10.6	0.7	9.9	8.4	25.7	5.0	15.9
	1999	47.3	2.2	10.1	1.7	8.4	8.5	26.5	5.2	16.4
Chile e/	1990	38.8	0.8	10.3	0.9	9.4	7.0	20.7	5.7	14.0
	1994	34.6	1.8	9.4	0.8	8.6	6.1	17.3	5.4	11.2
	1996	34.3	2.0	10.1	1.0	9.1	6.1	16.1	4.2	10.7
	1998	34.4	2.6	10.7	1.0	9.7	5.9	15.2	4.1	10.2
Colombia f/	1991	5.6	27.3	6.4	20.0
	1994	5.3	25.0	6.2	18.4
	1997	4.5	30.8	7.1	22.9
	1999	5.2	35.7	7.5	26.7
Costa Rica	1990	36.9	4.4	10.5	0.8	9.7	4.4	17.6	6.4	10.1
	1994	38.0	5.0	12.6	1.4	11.2	3.8	16.6	4.6	11.1
	1997	39.6	6.1	12.2	1.0	11.2	3.5	17.8	4.8	12.4
	1999	41.6	6.0	13.2	1.4	11.8	5.1	17.3	4.5	11.9
Ecuador	1990	54.5	3.6	11.9	0.6	11.3	4.5	34.5	7.8	24.4
	1994	56.5	6.5	13.2	1.0	12.2	4.7	32.1	6.0	24.1
	1997	56.6	6.2	12.6	0.8	11.8	5.0	32.8	6.9	23.6
	1999	58.9	7.0	15.0	1.6	13.4	5.4	31.5	5.6	23.8
El Salvador	1990	55.6	2.7	13.6	0.3	13.3	6.1	33.2	8.7	21.8
	1995	51.0	4.9	10.7	0.2	10.5	4.4	31.0	8.1	20.2
	1997	52.5	4.8	11.8	0.6	11.2	4.4	31.5	7.1	21.5
	1999	52.2	4.1	14.6	0.8	13.8	4.3	29.2	6.7	20.0
Guatemala	1989	54.6	2.1	14.6	0.8	13.8	7.0	30.9	7.4	14.9
	1998	55.1	3.6	20.5	2.9	17.6	6.7	24.3	7.3	11.6
Honduras	1990	53.3	1.0	13.9	0.7	13.2	6.7	31.7	8.9	18.7
	1994	49.9	3.0	11.9	0.9	11.0	5.4	29.5	8.1	16.1
	1997	54.3	5.3	11.6	0.6	11.0	5.1	32.3	7.6	20.4
	1999	55.2	5.1	12.2	1.0	11.2	4.8	33.1	7.4	22.0

Table 10 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-1999 (Percentages of the total employed urban population)										
Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers b/		
			Employers	Wage earners				Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
Mexico g/	1989	...	2.8	2.7	18.9	3.0	12.5
	1994	...	3.3	3.7	20.4	4.2	14.9
	1996	43.6	3.8	15.8	1.2	14.6	3.6	20.4	3.8	15.7
	1998	44.3	3.9	15.9	1.0	14.9	4.1	20.4	3.2	16.4
Nicaragua	1993	49.2	0.5	13.3	1.6	11.7	6.2	29.2	7.7	17.5
	1998	60.6	3.0	16.2	1.7	14.5	6.4	35.0	4.3	26.4
Panama	1991	37.9	2.6	5.8	0.6	5.2	7.0	22.5	4.3	11.2
	1994	35.4	1.7	6.0	0.3	5.7	7.3	20.4	4.4	11.4
	1997	36.6	2.0	6.4	0.8	5.6	6.4	21.8	4.8	12.6
	1999	37.3	2.1	7.2	0.7	6.5	6.1	21.9	4.6	13.5
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	55.5	6.8	17.0	1.1	15.9	10.5	21.2	5.2	15.5
	1994	54.6	7.1	14.6	1.3	13.3	11.5	21.4	5.3	15.9
	1996	57.1	4.7	14.6	0.8	13.8	9.3	28.5	6.4	19.9
	1999	54.4	4.7	14.9	1.3	13.6	9.1	25.7	5.7	19.2
(Urban areas)	1994	61.2	7.2	16.0	1.0	15.0	10.5	27.5	5.4	20.2
	1996	62.9	4.9	15.0	0.6	14.4	9.3	33.7	5.6	24.3
	1999	61.1	5.0	15.8	0.9	14.9	9.2	31.1	5.5	23.0
Dominican Republic	1992	3.2	32.8	5.6	23.0
	1995	3.8	30.6	4.9	22.1
	1997	47.0	2.1	9.1	0.7	8.4	4.4	31.4	6.8	21.3
Uruguay	1990	39.2	2.7	10.6	0.3	10.3	6.9	19.0	5.6	12.0
	1994	40.3	3.3	9.9	0.5	9.4	7.0	20.1	6.4	12.7
	1997	42.2	2.8	11.5	0.5	11.0	7.1	20.8	6.8	12.7
	1999	41.5	2.4	11.0	0.6	10.4	7.5	20.6	7.0	12.7
Venezuela h/	1990	39.2	4.9	6.7	0.2	6.5	6.3	21.3	4.1	15.3
	1994	45.3	4.2	9.7	0.5	9.2	4.0	27.4	5.9	19.0
	1997	49.4	3.6	11.3	0.5	10.8	4.3	30.2	6.1	19.9
	1999	53.7	3.9	12.6	0.5	12.1	2.0	35.2	6.7	23.7

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons. In the cases of Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, this refers to establishments employing up to four persons.

b/ Refers to own account workers and non-paid family workers engaged in non-professional, non-technical occupations.

c/ Includes persons employed in the agricultural, forestry, hunting and fisheries sectors.

d/ To 1990, the heading "Micro-enterprises" refers to wage earners lacking an employment contract. In 1993 and from 1996 to 1999, however, it refers to wage earners in establishments employing up to five persons, so that the figures from these years are not comparable to those of previous years.

e/ Information from national socio-economic survey (CASEN).

f/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country.

Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

g/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (NHIES). In the 1989 and 1994 surveys, no information was provided about the size of establishments in which wage earners were employed.

h/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 10.1

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): URBAN MALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-1999 (Percentages of the total employed urban population)										
Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers b/		
			Employers	Wage earners				Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
				Total	Professional and technical	Non- professional, non-technical				
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	42.2	4.6	12.7	0.3	12.4	1.8	23.1	8.5	14.6
	1994	41.3	4.4	15.7	1.2	14.5	0.4	20.8	8.4	12.3
	1997	39.8	4.5	18.7	1.2	17.5	0.4	16.2	6.0	10.2
	1999	39.4	4.2	16.9	1.0	15.9	0.2	18.1	7.2	10.8
	(Urban areas)	1999	40.9	4.1	16.8	1.2	15.6	0.2	19.8	7.6
Bolivia	1989	48.8	1.5	13.8	0.9	12.9	0.6	32.9	11.5	19.9
	1994	53.7	8.6	19.2	0.9	18.3	0.5	25.4	9.1	15.6
	1997	58.4	7.1	15.2	1.1	14.1	0.5	35.6	12.6	17.1
	1999	57.2	3.0	16.7	1.1	15.6	0.3	37.2	12.7	19.5
Brazil d/	1990	44.7	...	23.4	2.3	21.1	0.4	20.9	5.1	12.9
	1993	40.6	2.5	10.6	0.5	10.1	0.8	26.7	6.7	14.8
	1996	42.6	2.5	12.0	0.6	11.4	0.8	27.3	7.4	15.1
	1999	43.7	2.9	11.6	1.1	10.5	0.8	28.4	7.5	15.9
Chile e/	1990	33.8	0.9	10.7	0.7	10.0	0.2	22.0	6.3	14.3
	1994	30.1	2.0	9.8	0.7	9.1	0.1	18.2	6.2	10.9
	1996	30.2	2.3	10.7	1.0	9.7	0.2	17.0	4.8	10.6
	1998	30.0	2.9	10.5	0.8	9.7	0.1	16.5	5.0	10.2
Colombia f/	1991	0.3	28.4	6.2	20.9
	1994	0.2	26.0	6.7	18.7
	1997	0.2	32.6	8.4	22.9
	1999	0.5	37.3	8.4	26.5
Costa Rica	1990	35.1	5.7	11.1	0.8	10.3	0.2	18.1	5.7	10.8
	1994	36.2	6.1	13.1	1.5	11.6	0.3	16.7	4.4	10.9
	1997	38.5	7.8	13.4	1.0	12.4	0.2	17.1	5.2	11.0
	1999	39.5	7.7	14.7	1.4	13.3	0.4	16.7	4.4	10.9
Ecuador	1990	50.7	4.3	14.2	0.4	13.8	0.6	31.6	8.0	20.7
	1994	52.5	7.8	15.9	0.9	15.0	0.3	28.5	5.8	20.2
	1997	52.2	7.6	14.8	0.6	14.2	0.7	29.1	6.5	19.5
	1999	54.9	8.6	18.0	1.4	16.6	0.6	27.7	5.4	19.6
El Salvador	1990	45.9	3.8	18.6	0.4	18.2	0.4	23.1	6.0	12.8
	1995	43.0	6.7	14.5	0.2	14.3	0.5	21.3	5.2	11.5
	1997	44.7	6.3	15.2	0.6	14.6	0.3	22.9	5.6	12.2
	1999	45.7	5.5	19.6	1.0	18.6	0.6	20.0	4.2	11.3
Guatemala	1989	49.5	2.5	18.2	0.8	17.4	0.2	28.6	5.7	10.1
	1998	53.4	4.7	26.1	3.3	22.8	1.5	21.1	5.2	7.8
Honduras	1990	46.6	1.2	18.2	0.8	17.4	0.4	26.8	6.6	13.5
	1994	43.0	4.1	12.0	0.9	14.2	0.0	26.9	5.6	12.6
	1997	52.1	7.3	16.2	0.4	15.8	0.8	27.8	4.7	15.7
	1999	52.4	6.7	17.1	0.9	16.2	0.6	28.0	4.1	17.6

Table 10.1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): URBAN MALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-1999 (Percentages of the total employed urban population)										
Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers b/		
			Employers	Wage earners				Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
				Total	Professional and technical	Non- professional, non-technical				
Mexico g/	1989	...	3.5	0.6	17.5	2.5	10.5
	1994	...	4.4	0.6	17.9	4.0	12.6
	1996	41.7	5.1	18.3	1.0	17.3	0.9	17.4	3.6	12.9
	1998	41.3	5.1	18.4	1.0	17.4	1.2	16.6	2.6	13.2
Nicaragua	1993	45.8	0.6	17.4	1.2	16.2	0.3	27.5	6.8	14.2
	1998	55.8	4.2	20.4	1.7	18.7	1.2	30.0	4.9	18.2
Panama	1991	39.3	3.4	6.5	0.6	5.9	0.6	28.8	5.4	12.7
	1994	35.7	2.1	7.0	0.3	6.7	1.2	25.4	5.6	13.0
	1997	36.6	2.7	6.7	0.7	6.0	1.0	26.2	6.0	13.2
	1999	36.7	2.5	8.1	0.7	7.4	1.0	25.1	5.5	13.7
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	48.0	10.2	21.4	0.8	20.6	0.0	16.4	4.3	11.5
	1994	47.9	8.8	19.3	1.2	18.1	1.6	18.2	5.4	11.9
	1996	51.1	6.2	19.3	0.9	18.4	1.0	24.6	6.6	15.0
	1999	45.4	6.1	16.4	1.9	14.5	0.8	22.1	5.7	15.3
(Urban areas)	1994	55.1	9.0	21.2	1.0	20.2	1.4	23.5	5.3	15.4
	1996	56.7	6.6	20.1	0.8	19.3	0.9	29.1	6.0	18.4
	1999	53.7	6.8	19.1	1.2	17.9	0.9	26.9	5.3	18.2
Dominican Republic	1992	0.2	36.2	5.8	24.0
	1995	0.2	35.1	5.3	24.4
	1997	47.5	2.7	9.9	0.5	9.4	0.4	34.5	8.7	20.8
Uruguay	1990	34.8	3.7	12.1	0.3	11.8	0.1	18.9	5.4	11.7
	1994	36.0	4.2	11.0	0.4	10.6	0.1	20.7	6.9	12.4
	1997	38.2	3.6	12.3	0.3	12.0	0.2	22.1	8.1	12.8
	1999	38.6	3.1	12.1	0.4	11.7	0.2	23.2	9.0	13.0
Venezuela h/	1990	39.1	6.5	8.2	0.2	8.0	1.9	22.5	4.0	15.7
	1994	47.8	5.8	11.3	0.4	10.9	1.5	29.2	6.5	19.0
	1997	50.4	4.8	13.8	0.4	13.4	1.5	30.3	6.8	17.4
	1999	54.6	5.2	15.2	0.3	14.9	0.1	34.1	7.2	19.9

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons. In the cases of Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, this refers to establishments employing up to four persons.

b/ Refers to own account workers and non-paid family workers engaged in non-professional, non-technical occupations

c/ Includes persons employed in the agricultural, forestry, hunting and fisheries sectors.

d/ To 1990, the heading "Micro-enterprises" refers to wage earners lacking an employment contract. In 1993 and from 1996 to 1999, however, it refers to wage earners in establishments employing up to five persons, so that the figures from these years are not comparable to those of previous years.

e/ Information from national socio-economic survey (CASEN).

f/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country.

Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

g/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (NHIES). In the 1989 and 1994 surveys, no information was provided about the size of establishments in which wage earners were employed.

h/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 10.2

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): URBAN FEMALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-1999 (Percentages of the total employed urban population)										
Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers b/		
			Employers	Wage earners				Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
				Total	Professional and technical	Non- professional, non-technical				
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	48.0	2.3	10.6	0.4	10.2	12.5	22.6	4.0	18.6
	1994	45.6	1.6	13.0	1.5	11.5	12.3	18.7	1.8	16.8
	1997	43.9	2.5	11.2	1.6	9.6	12.7	17.5	2.3	15.2
	1999	41.9	1.7	12.2	1.9	10.3	12.7	15.3	1.9	13.4
	(Urban areas)	1999	44.0	1.7	11.8	1.6	10.2	14.2	16.3	2.1
Bolivia	1989	71.5	0.4	6.1	0.9	5.2	12.9	52.1	7.5	43.6
	1994	75.0	3.1	9.0	1.1	7.9	11.2	51.7	9.1	42.1
	1997	75.2	2.1	7.9	0.9	7.0	7.7	57.5	11.1	41.8
	1999	75.3	1.7	7.6	0.7	6.9	6.7	59.3	11.3	45.9
Brazil d/	1990	56.8	...	18.8	7.6	11.2	15.6	22.4	0.9	20.7
	1993	53.2	1.0	6.6	0.6	6.0	19.8	25.8	1.6	17.8
	1996	52.7	1.3	8.3	0.7	7.6	19.7	23.4	1.6	17.1
	1999	53.1	1.3	8.0	2.7	5.3	20.3	23.5	1.7	17.1
Chile e/	1990	47.5	0.5	9.5	1.3	8.2	19.4	18.1	4.6	13.3
	1994	42.7	1.5	8.6	0.9	7.7	16.8	15.8	4.0	11.7
	1996	41.5	1.5	9.2	1.0	8.2	16.3	14.5	3.2	10.9
	1998	41.7	2.1	11.1	1.4	9.7	15.2	13.3	2.8	10.3
Colombia f/	1991	13.6	25.5	6.8	18.6
	1994	12.7	23.4	5.4	17.9
	1997	10.4	28.2	5.2	22.9
	1999	11.5	33.4	6.3	26.8
Costa Rica	1990	40.1	1.9	9.5	0.9	8.6	12.0	16.7	7.7	8.9
	1994	40.9	3.1	11.5	1.2	10.3	10.1	16.2	4.9	11.3
	1997	41.3	3.3	10.1	0.9	9.2	9.2	18.7	4.0	14.7
	1999	45.1	3.3	11.0	1.6	9.4	12.6	18.2	4.6	13.5
Ecuador	1990	61.1	2.3	7.6	0.9	6.7	11.6	39.6	7.5	31.0
	1994	62.8	4.4	8.8	1.1	7.7	11.8	37.8	6.2	30.5
	1997	62.8	4.0	9.2	1.2	8.0	10.9	38.7	7.5	30.2
	1999	65.1	4.4	10.3	1.9	8.4	13.1	37.3	5.8	30.5
El Salvador	1990	67.9	1.4	7.5	0.3	7.2	13.1	45.9	12.1	33.0
	1995	60.8	2.8	6.1	0.3	5.8	9.1	42.8	11.6	30.7
	1997	62.0	3.0	7.6	0.5	7.1	9.4	42.0	8.9	32.8
	1999	59.6	2.6	8.9	0.5	8.4	8.6	39.5	9.5	29.7
Guatemala	1989	62.7	1.3	8.7	0.8	7.9	18.1	34.6	10.1	22.7
	1998	57.3	2.2	13.3	2.3	11.0	13.3	28.5	10.0	16.5
Honduras	1990	63.3	0.8	7.5	0.6	6.9	16.0	39.0	12.3	26.5
	1994	55.6	1.5	6.8	0.8	6.0	13.7	33.6	12.0	21.4
	1997	57.3	2.7	5.5	0.8	4.7	10.7	38.4	11.4	26.7
	1999	58.5	3.2	6.3	1.2	5.1	9.9	39.1	11.3	27.2

Table 10.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): URBAN FEMALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-1999 (Percentages of the total employed urban population)										
Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers b/		
			Employers	Wage earners				Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
				Total	Professional and technical	Non- professional, non-technical				
Mexico g/	1989	...	1.2	7.1	21.9	4.0	16.7
	1994	...	1.1	9.6	25.0	4.6	19.1
	1996	47.6	2.0	11.4	1.5	9.9	8.3	25.9	4.2	20.7
	1998	49.6	1.9	11.6	0.9	10.7	9.0	27.1	4.4	22.0
Nicaragua	1993	54.2	0.5	7.9	2.2	5.7	14.1	31.7	9.0	22.0
	1998	67.4	1.3	10.7	1.8	8.9	13.5	41.9	3.6	37.4
Panama	1991	35.1	1.3	4.5	0.5	4.0	17.8	11.5	2.3	8.6
	1994	35.3	1.0	4.5	0.5	4.0	18.1	11.7	2.3	8.7
	1997	37.1	1.0	6.0	1.0	5.0	15.3	14.8	2.8	11.8
	1999	38.6	1.4	6.0	0.8	5.2	14.4	16.8	3.1	13.3
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	65.9	2.0	10.2	1.6	8.6	25.6	28.1	6.5	21.1
	1994	65.0	4.9	9.0	1.5	7.5	24.3	26.8	5.3	21.1
	1996	65.1	2.8	8.4	0.6	7.8	20.0	33.9	6.3	26.4
	1999	66.8	2.9	13.0	0.6	12.4	20.1	30.8	5.8	24.5
(Urban areas)	1994	69.9	4.7	8.5	1.0	7.5	23.3	33.4	5.6	27.0
	1996	71.4	2.5	8.1	0.4	7.7	20.8	40.0	5.1	32.4
	1999	71.5	2.5	11.3	0.5	10.8	20.7	37.0	5.8	29.7
Dominican Republic	1992	8.7	26.7	5.2	21.4
	1995	10.5	21.9	4.0	17.8
	1997	46.0	1.1	7.6	0.9	6.7	11.6	25.7	3.6	22.0
Uruguay	1990	46.1	1.4	8.5	0.4	8.1	17.1	19.1	6.0	12.3
	1994	46.3	2.0	8.2	0.6	7.6	16.8	19.3	5.7	13.0
	1997	46.8	1.6	10.2	0.7	9.5	16.7	18.3	5.0	12.6
	1999	45.4	1.6	9.3	0.7	8.6	17.4	17.1	4.4	12.2
Venezuela h/	1990	39.6	1.7	3.7	0.3	3.4	15.0	19.2	4.4	14.6
	1994	40.7	1.2	6.6	0.7	5.9	9.0	23.9	4.7	19.0
	1997	47.9	1.4	6.6	0.8	5.8	9.7	30.2	5.0	24.6
	1999	52.2	1.5	7.7	0.7	7.0	5.6	37.4	5.9	30.6

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons. In the cases of Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, this refers to establishments employing up to four persons.

b/ Refers to own account workers and non-paid family workers engaged in non-professional, non-technical occupations.

c/ Includes persons employed in the agricultural, forestry, hunting and fisheries sectors.

d/ To 1990, the heading "Micro-enterprises" refers to wage earners lacking an employment contract. In 1993 and from 1996 to 1999, however, it refers to wage earners in establishments employing up to five persons, so that the figures from these years are not comparable to those of previous years.

e/ Information from national socio-economic survey (CASEN).

f/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country.

Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

g/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (NHIES). In the 1989 and 1994 surveys, no information was provided about the size of establishments in which wage earners were employed.

h/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 11

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-1999 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)										
Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises ^{a/}				Unskilled self-employed workers ^{b/}			Domestic employment
			Employers	Wage earners			Total ^{c/}	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	6.6	18.4	3.7	7.6	3.6	7.2	7.0	7.4	2.5
	1994	8.3	24.8	5.0	7.7	4.7	9.1	8.8	9.2	3.3
	1997	6.5	23.1	3.9	6.0	3.7	6.5	6.6	6.4	2.6
	1999	5.7	19.7	3.8	6.1	3.5	8.1	5.7	6.2	2.4
Bolivia	1989	3.6	11.8	2.8	4.5	2.6	3.9	3.3	4.0	1.6
	1994	2.7	8.1	2.4	3.6	2.0	2.2	2.0	2.3	1.0
	1997	2.6	7.1	2.5	5.7	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.6	1.1
	1999	2.5	7.1	2.6	5.0	2.4	2.2	1.9	2.4	1.8
Brazil ^{d/}	1990	4.1	...	3.6	7.6	2.6	3.4	3.3	3.6	1.0
	1993	2.6	11.3	2.2	5.1	2.0	2.7	2.6	3.4	1.1
	1996	3.4	14.0	2.7	5.9	2.5	3.7	3.5	4.5	1.5
	1999	3.0	10.3	2.4	3.6	2.1	2.8	2.7	3.5	1.4
Chile ^{e/}	1990	3.8	18.8	2.6	4.8	2.4	4.7	3.9	5.1	1.4
	1994	4.3	17.4	3.2	6.8	2.9	4.6	4.6	4.6	2.0
	1996	5.6	22.3	3.4	7.9	2.9	6.0	5.5	6.1	2.0
	1998	5.9	24.0	3.4	7.1	3.0	5.9	5.5	6.2	2.2
Colombia ^{f/}	1991	2.2	2.0	2.3	1.3
	1994	2.9	2.6	2.9	1.7
	1997	2.8	2.4	2.8	1.6
	1999	1.9	1.6	1.9	2.1
Costa Rica	1990	3.7	6.5	3.5	6.7	3.2	3.4	2.9	3.6	1.5
	1994	4.3	9.2	3.8	6.3	3.5	4.0	2.9	4.2	1.6
	1997	3.9	7.4	3.3	4.9	3.2	3.6	3.3	3.7	1.8
	1999	4.5	9.3	4.0	7.0	3.6	4.0	3.6	4.1	1.7
Ecuador	1990	2.0	4.0	2.3	3.4	2.3	1.8	1.7	1.9	0.8
	1994	2.4	6.1	2.0	3.9	1.9	2.0	1.8	2.1	0.9
	1997	2.3	5.5	2.0	5.0	1.8	2.1	1.8	2.2	0.9
	1999	1.9	6.0	1.8	2.6	1.7	1.8	1.6	1.9	0.9
El Salvador	1995	2.4	6.8	2.0	3.1	2.0	2.0	1.6	2.4	1.0
	1997	2.6	7.3	2.5	6.4	2.3	2.1	2.0	2.4	1.9
	1999	2.9	8.8	2.5	4.4	2.4	2.4	1.7	2.6	2.1
Guatemala	1989	2.8	13.1	1.8	3.9	1.7	2.8	2.4	3.5	1.4
	1998	2.0	7.7	2.2	4.1	1.9	1.3	1.2	1.5	0.7
Honduras	1990	1.6	7.6	1.7	3.9	1.6	1.5	1.1	1.6	0.8
	1994	1.6	4.8	1.4	2.5	1.3	1.6	1.1	1.7	0.5
	1997	1.5	4.7	1.2	2.6	1.1	1.2	1.0	1.3	0.5
	1999	1.5	4.4	1.1	1.7	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.3	0.5

Table 11 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-1999 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)										
Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Unskilled self-employed workers b/			Domestic employment
			Employers	Wage earners			Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
Mexico g/	1989	...	15.5	3.8	3.5	5.2	1.4
	1994	...	13.8	3.3	2.7	3.6	1.2
	1996	3.2	13.7	1.8	2.9	1.7	2.3	1.9	2.4	1.2
	1998	3.1	11.7	2.1	4.7	1.9	2.6	2.1	2.7	1.3
Nicaragua	1993	3.0	8.8	2.6	4.8	2.3	2.9	2.7	3.3	2.1
	1998	2.3	6.9	2.2	5.2	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.1	1.7
Panama	1991	2.5	7.7	3.1	7.4	2.6	2.3	2.5	3.0	1.3
	1994	3.3	11.4	2.6	6.4	2.4	3.4	3.7	4.2	1.3
	1997	3.4	11.6	2.9	5.1	2.6	3.4	3.7	3.9	1.4
	1999	3.5	11.4	3.2	7.8	2.7	3.0	3.1	3.4	2.2
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	3.1	8.2	1.9	3.8	1.8	3.6	2.4	4.1	0.8
	1994	3.0	8.7	2.3	4.9	2.0	2.4	2.0	2.6	1.3
	1996	2.5	7.2	2.3	3.3	2.3	2.5	2.1	2.7	1.2
	1999	2.6	6.2	2.5	4.1	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.3	1.7
(Urban areas)	1994	2.7	8.3	2.1	4.7	1.9	2.3	1.9	2.4	1.2
	1996	2.4	6.8	2.2	3.7	2.1	2.3	2.2	2.5	1.1
	1999	2.3	5.7	2.2	3.8	2.1	2.0	1.9	2.1	1.6
Dominican Republic	1997	3.8	9.9	2.6	5.1	2.4	4.0	4.2	4.1	1.4
Uruguay	1990	3.8	8.9	2.6	4.8	2.5	5.1	2.1	3.0	1.5
	1994	3.5	10.5	3.0	4.6	2.9	3.5	2.8	3.9	1.7
	1997	3.5	9.8	3.1	4.2	3.0	3.5	2.8	3.8	1.8
	1999	3.7	11.6	3.3	5.4	3.2	3.6	3.1	3.9	2.1
Venezuela h/	1990	4.2	9.5	2.5	3.5	2.5	4.3	4.0	4.5	2.1
	1994	3.6	7.5	2.2	6.0	2.0	3.8	3.5	4.0	1.9
	1997	3.6	9.4	1.8	2.9	1.7	3.8	4.0	4.2	1.4
	1999	3.1	7.6	2.1	4.0	2.0	3.1	3.3	3.1	1.4

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons. In the cases of Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, this refers to establishments employing up to four persons. In cases where no information was available on the size of establishments, no data are given for the total population employed in low-productivity sectors.

b/ Refers to own account workers and non-paid family workers engaged in non-professional, non-technical occupations.

c/ Includes persons employed in the agricultural, forestry, hunting and fisheries sectors.

d/ In 1990 wage earners without a contract of employment were included under the heading "Micro-enterprises".

e/ Information from national socio-economic survey (CASEN).

f/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

g/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (NHIES).

h/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 11.1

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN MALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-1999 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)										
Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises ^{a/}				Unskilled self-employed workers ^{b/}			Domestic employment
			Employers	Wage earners			Total ^{c/}	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	8.3	19.9	3.8	8.9	3.7	8.8	7.3	9.6	4.4
	1994	10.1	25.2	5.2	9.4	4.9	10.6	9.3	11.4	4.5
	1997	7.7	23.8	4.0	6.5	3.8	7.6	7.3	7.8	2.7
	1999	7.3	21.7	4.0	7.9	3.8	7.1	6.1	7.8	3.1
Bolivia	1989	4.6	12.9	2.9	5.4	2.7	4.9	3.6	5.6	4.0
	1994	3.6	8.2	2.3	4.3	2.2	3.2	2.5	3.6	1.7
	1997	3.3	7.3	2.6	5.3	2.4	2.9	2.6	3.8	1.8
	1999	2.9	6.0	2.8	5.0	2.6	2.8	2.6	3.2	1.9
Brazil ^{d/}	1990	4.0	...	3.7	11.6	2.8	4.4	3.5	5.2	1.3
	1993	3.7	12.0	2.2	6.6	2.0	3.5	2.8	4.6	1.5
	1996	4.7	14.4	2.8	7.3	2.6	4.7	3.8	6.0	2.0
	1999	3.8	10.4	2.5	5.0	2.2	3.6	3.0	4.5	2.1
Chile ^{e/}	1990	5.0	21.5	2.8	6.7	2.5	5.2	4.3	5.7	1.9
	1994	5.2	17.5	3.4	8.9	3.0	5.2	5.1	5.4	2.2
	1996	7.0	23.1	3.6	9.1	3.0	7.0	6.4	7.3	2.1
	1998	7.6	27.1	3.6	8.1	3.2	7.0	6.2	7.4	3.0
Colombia ^{f/}	1991	2.8	2.4	2.9	1.5
	1994	3.5	3.0	3.5	1.7
	1997	3.4	2.6	3.5	1.6
	1999	2.4	1.9	2.4	2.7
Costa Rica	1990	4.5	6.8	3.6	8.0	3.3	4.3	3.9	4.5	1.5
	1994	5.4	9.9	4.3	7.4	3.9	4.8	3.7	4.9	2.1
	1997	4.7	7.9	3.7	5.7	3.5	4.5	3.9	4.9	2.3
	1999	5.7	10.1	4.2	8.0	3.8	5.2	4.6	5.5	2.3
Ecuador	1990	2.5	3.9	2.4	4.0	2.4	2.3	1.9	2.5	1.1
	1994	3.0	6.6	2.2	5.3	2.0	2.6	2.2	2.8	1.1
	1997	2.9	5.6	2.0	7.9	1.8	2.6	2.3	2.8	1.3
	1999	2.8	6.4	1.8	2.9	1.7	2.3	2.1	2.5	1.4
El Salvador	1995	3.2	7.4	2.2	3.4	2.2	2.8	2.2	3.8	1.7
	1997	3.3	7.9	2.5	5.8	2.4	3.2	2.7	3.5	2.8
	1999	3.5	9.3	2.6	4.5	2.5	2.9	2.4	3.4	2.9
Guatemala	1989	3.5	13.7	1.9	4.9	1.8	3.6	3.4	5.4	2.6
	1998	2.7	8.7	2.3	4.6	2.0	1.8	1.9	2.2	1.0
Honduras	1990	2.2	9.4	1.8	4.1	1.7	2.2	1.7	2.4	1.6
	1994	2.1	5.1	1.4	2.5	1.3	2.0	1.6	2.3	1.6
	1997	1.9	5.0	1.1	2.2	1.1	1.7	1.6	1.8	0.8
	1999	1.9	4.7	1.2	1.4	1.2	1.6	2.1	1.8	0.8

Table 11.1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN MALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-1999 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)										
Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Unskilled self-employed workers b/			Domestic employment
			Employers	Wage earners			Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
Mexico g/	1989	...	16.5	5.5	4.8	7.2	2.1
	1994	...	14.2	4.4	3.7	4.9	2.0
	1996	3.9	14.2	1.9	3.1	1.8	3.1	2.5	3.4	1.8
	1998	3.8	11.6	2.3	5.6	2.1	3.6	2.8	3.8	1.9
Nicaragua	1993	3.0	9.9	2.7	7.4	2.4	3.2	2.8	4.0	1.3
	1998	2.8	7.1	2.3	5.1	2.0	2.4	2.5	2.8	3.3
Panama	1991	4.0	7.5	2.7	7.8	2.7	2.5	2.9	3.4	1.4
	1994	3.8	11.7	2.5	6.7	2.3	3.7	4.1	4.8	2.0
	1997	4.1	12.1	2.8	4.8	2.6	3.8	4.2	4.7	2.0
	1999	4.2	12.1	3.2	8.2	2.7	3.5	3.6	4.2	2.3
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	4.2	8.2	2.0	4.8	1.9	4.5	2.9	5.2	...
	1994	3.9	9.0	2.3	5.8	2.1	2.9	2.5	3.2	2.1
	1996	3.3	7.6	2.5	3.5	2.4	3.1	2.6	3.6	2.0
	1999	3.0	6.4	2.5	3.9	2.3	2.6	2.4	2.8	1.9
(Urban areas)	1994	3.5	8.4	2.2	5.3	2.0	2.8	2.5	3.0	1.9
	1996	3.1	7.0	2.3	4.0	2.2	2.9	2.7	3.3	1.7
	1999	2.8	5.8	2.1	3.7	2.0	2.3	2.1	2.6	1.7
Dominican Republic	1997	4.4	10.8	2.7	4.8	2.6	4.7	4.6	4.8	2.2
Uruguay	1990	6.1	9.6	2.8	6.3	2.7	7.3	2.7	3.8	1.5
	1994	4.7	10.8	3.2	7.0	3.1	4.4	3.5	5.0	3.0
	1997	4.5	10.5	3.3	6.0	3.2	4.1	3.3	4.6	2.0
	1999	4.7	12.1	3.5	7.1	3.4	4.2	3.5	4.7	2.7
Venezuela h/	1990	5.1	9.5	2.5	3.9	2.5	4.9	4.8	5.4	3.4
	1994	4.2	7.6	2.2	6.4	2.0	4.2	3.9	4.7	2.9
	1997	4.1	9.5	1.7	2.8	1.7	4.3	4.6	5.0	2.2
	1999	3.4	7.7	2.1	4.3	2.0	3.3	3.8	3.8	2.0

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons. In the cases of Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, this refers to establishments employing up to four persons. In cases where no information was available on the size of establishments, no data are given for the total population employed in low-productivity sectors.

b/ Refers to own account workers and non-paid family workers engaged in non-professional, non-technical occupations.

c/ Includes persons employed in the agricultural, forestry, hunting and fisheries sectors.

d/ In 1990 wage earners without a contract of employment were included under the heading "Micro-enterprises".

e/ Information from national socio-economic survey (CASEN).

f/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

g/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (NHIES).

h/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 11.2

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN FEMALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-1999 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)										
Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises <i>a/</i>				Unskilled self-employed workers <i>b/</i>			Domestic employment
			Employers	Wage earners			Total <i>c/</i>	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	4.2	13.2	3.5	5.8	3.4	4.5	5.7	4.2	2.0
	1994	5.5	23.0	4.4	5.5	4.2	6.4	4.2	6.5	3.2
	1997	4.9	21.1	3.7	5.3	3.4	4.7	3.4	4.9	2.5
	1999	3.7	12.6	3.2	4.6	3.0	4.3	3.4	4.4	2.4
Bolivia	1989	2.7	6.1	2.4	3.4	2.2	2.9	2.7	3.0	1.4
	1994	1.8	7.5	1.7	2.8	1.5	1.6	1.4	1.7	0.9
	1997	1.9	6.6	2.3	6.3	1.8	1.7	1.3	2.0	1.0
	1999	1.9	9.7	2.1	5.1	1.8	1.6	0.9	1.9	1.8
Brazil <i>d/</i>	1990	2.2	...	3.5	5.6	2.1	1.9	1.1	2.0	0.9
	1993	1.5	8.4	2.1	3.3	1.8	1.4	1.1	1.9	1.1
	1996	2.2	12.6	2.5	4.1	2.3	2.0	1.5	2.6	1.5
	1999	1.9	10.1	2.2	2.9	1.8	1.6	1.2	2.0	1.4
Chile <i>e/</i>	1990	2.6	10.2	2.3	3.1	2.2	2.9	2.9	3.9	1.4
	1994	3.2	17.2	2.7	3.8	2.6	3.3	3.2	3.3	2.0
	1996	3.6	20.4	3.1	5.6	2.8	3.9	3.3	4.1	2.0
	1998	3.7	16.8	3.2	6.2	2.6	4.2	3.6	4.4	2.2
Colombia <i>f/</i>	1991	2.2	1.9	2.3	1.2
	1994	2.0	1.9	2.0	1.7
	1997	2.0	1.9	2.0	1.6
	1999	1.3	1.1	1.3	2.1
Costa Rica	1990	2.1	5.0	3.1	4.5	2.9	1.7	1.6	1.8	1.5
	1994	2.8	6.5	2.9	4.0	2.8	2.5	1.7	2.9	1.6
	1997	2.4	5.3	2.9	3.7	2.8	2.1	2.1	2.1	1.8
	1999	2.7	6.1	3.6	5.6	3.3	2.1	2.0	2.1	1.7
Ecuador	1990	1.3	4.2	2.0	2.8	1.9	1.3	1.2	1.3	0.7
	1994	1.6	4.4	1.7	1.9	1.7	1.4	1.3	1.4	0.9
	1997	1.7	4.9	1.9	2.9	1.7	1.5	1.0	1.6	0.9
	1999	1.4	4.7	1.6	2.2	1.4	1.2	0.8	1.3	0.9
El Salvador	1995	1.7	5.2	1.6	2.9	1.5	1.6	1.3	1.7	0.9
	1997	2.1	5.9	2.3	7.2	2.0	1.7	1.5	1.8	1.8
	1999	2.4	7.6	2.2	4.2	2.1	2.0	1.4	2.2	2.0
Guatemala	1989	1.6	11.1	1.8	2.5	1.5	1.9	1.6	2.1	1.4
	1998	1.3	4.8	1.8	3.2	1.5	0.9	0.7	1.0	0.6
Honduras	1990	1.0	4.0	1.4	3.5	1.2	0.9	0.7	0.9	0.8
	1994	1.0	3.5	1.3	2.6	1.1	1.1	0.7	1.2	0.5
	1997	0.9	3.5	1.2	2.9	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.9	0.5
	1999	1.0	3.5	1.2	1.9	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.5

Table 11.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN FEMALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-1999 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)										
Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Unskilled self-employed workers b/			Domestic employment
			Employers	Wage earners			Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
Mexico g/	1989	...	9.4	2.3	1.7	2.6	1.3
	1994	...	11.6	1.8	1.1	2.1	1.1
	1996	1.7	11.3	1.6	2.6	1.4	1.3	1.1	1.4	1.1
	1998	1.9	12.5	1.6	3.2	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.1
Nicaragua	1993	2.5	7.0	2.4	2.8	2.3	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.1
	1998	1.8	6.0	2.2	5.4	1.6	1.6	1.3	1.7	1.5
Panama	1991	2.0	8.4	3.1	6.7	2.6	1.6	1.1	1.8	1.3
	1994	1.9	10.1	2.9	6.0	2.5	2.3	1.9	2.5	1.2
	1997	2.4	9.3	3.2	5.5	2.7	2.3	1.8	2.5	1.4
	1999	2.6	8.7	3.5	7.1	2.9	2.0	1.5	2.1	2.2
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	2.0	8.2	1.8	3.1	1.5	2.9	1.9	3.2	0.8
	1994	2.1	8.0	2.2	4.0	1.8	1.9	1.3	2.1	1.2
	1996	1.8	6.1	2.1	2.8	2.0	1.9	1.4	2.1	1.2
	1999	2.2	5.7	2.5	5.1	2.4	2.1	1.9	2.0	1.7
(Urban areas)	1994	2.0	7.9	2.0	3.9	1.7	1.8	1.1	2.0	1.2
	1996	1.7	6.1	2.0	2.8	2.0	1.7	1.3	1.9	1.1
	1999	1.9	5.4	2.3	4.0	2.0	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.6
Dominican Republic	1997	2.5	5.8	2.4	5.6	2.0	2.9	2.5	3.0	1.4
Uruguay	1990	1.9	6.3	2.0	3.1	1.9	1.8	1.2	1.9	1.5
	1994	2.2	9.4	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.2	1.5	2.5	1.7
	1997	2.4	7.4	2.6	2.9	2.6	2.3	1.6	2.6	1.8
	1999	2.5	10.4	2.9	4.1	2.8	2.5	1.9	2.7	2.1
Venezuela h/	1990	2.5	9.8	2.5	3.1	2.4	2.7	2.6	2.8	1.7
	1994	2.6	6.7	2.4	5.6	2.0	2.6	2.4	2.6	1.5
	1997	2.6	8.3	1.2	3.0	1.6	3.1	2.5	3.2	1.2
	1999	2.4	6.7	2.1	3.7	1.9	2.3	2.1	2.4	1.3

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

- a/ Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons. In the cases of Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, this refers to establishments employing up to four persons. In cases where no information was available on the size of establishments, no data are given for the total population employed in low-productivity sectors.
- b/ Refers to own account workers and non-paid family workers engaged in non-professional, non-technical occupations.
- c/ Includes persons employed in the agricultural, forestry, hunting and fisheries sectors.
- d/ In 1990 wage earners without a contract of employment were included under the heading "Micro-enterprises".
- e/ Information from national socio-economic survey (CASEN).
- f/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.
- g/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (NHIES).
- h/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 12

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND AGE IN URBAN AREAS, AROUND 1990, 1994, 1997 AND 1999 ^{a/}																					
Country	Sex	Age groups																			
		Total				15 - 24				25 - 34				35 - 44				45 and over			
		1990	1994	1997	1999	1990	1994	1997	1999	1990	1994	1997	1999	1990	1994	1997	1999	1990	1994	1997	1999
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	Total	5.9	13.0	14.3	14.7	13.0	22.8	24.2	24.3	4.9	10.0	12.7	12.0	4.1	10.5	10.6	11.6	3.8	10.3	11.6	12.9
	Males	5.7	11.5	12.4	13.4	11.5	20.3	21.1	22.8	5.0	8.8	10.1	11.3	3.9	7.3	8.6	8.0	4.2	10.5	11.1	12.7
	Females	6.4	15.5	17.2	16.5	15.6	26.7	28.9	26.3	4.9	11.9	16.8	13.0	4.3	15.4	13.8	16.1	3.0	10.0	12.4	13.2
Bolivia	Total	9.4	3.2	3.7	7.1	17.4	5.8	6.4	15.3	8.5	2.8	3.7	6.3	5.1	2.0	2.9	3.8	6.6	2.1	2.1	3.7
	Males	9.5	3.4	3.7	6.0	18.2	6.3	5.8	12.5	7.5	2.5	3.4	4.8	5.5	2.1	3.1	2.3	8.5	2.9	2.8	4.9
	Females	9.1	2.9	3.7	8.5	16.5	5.2	7.1	18.5	9.9	3.2	4.2	8.2	4.6	1.9	2.5	5.5	3.8	0.9	1.2	1.9
Brazil	Total	4.5	7.4	8.0	11.4	8.3	14.3	15.1	21.7	4.4	6.9	7.4	10.5	2.4	4.3	5.0	7.0	1.5	2.6	3.8	5.5
	Males	4.8	6.4	6.7	9.4	8.7	12.4	12.8	18.4	4.7	5.5	5.6	8.0	2.8	3.8	4.2	5.5	2.0	2.7	3.7	5.3
	Females	3.9	8.9	10.0	14.1	7.7	17.0	18.2	26.2	3.8	8.8	9.8	13.8	1.7	5.0	6.2	9.0	0.6	2.5	4.0	5.8
Chile	Total	8.7	6.8	6.0	10.1	17.9	16.1	13.2	21.8	8.3	6.5	5.9	9.9	5.1	3.7	4.1	7.4	5.3	3.7	3.4	6.3
	Males	8.1	5.9	5.1	9.4	17.0	14.0	10.7	20.4	7.5	5.5	5.0	9.3	4.8	3.0	3.6	6.4	5.6	3.9	3.7	6.7
	Females	9.7	8.4	7.3	11.2	19.1	19.3	17.1	23.7	9.8	8.4	7.4	10.9	5.8	4.9	5.0	8.9	4.7	3.4	2.9	5.6
Colombia	Total	9.3	8.0	11.8	19.2	19.7	16.2	24.3	36.6	8.3	7.6	11.8	17.8	4.2	4.7	6.5	13.2	3.8	3.3	5.8	10.3
	Males	6.7	5.4	9.7	16.2	15.3	11.9	20.7	32.0	5.5	4.4	8.6	14.0	2.8	3.4	5.4	10.5	3.7	2.9	6.1	10.6
	Females	13.0	11.6	14.7	23.0	24.8	21.0	28.3	41.6	11.8	11.6	15.6	22.1	6.2	6.3	7.9	16.4	3.9	4.2	5.1	9.7
Costa Rica	Total	5.3	4.2	5.8	6.1	10.5	9.7	13.0	14.8	4.9	3.8	4.4	5.3	2.5	2.3	3.9	3.0	2.9	1.6	3.0	2.3
	Males	4.9	3.7	5.3	5.3	9.8	8.6	11.4	14.8	4.1	3.7	3.6	3.8	2.3	1.5	3.9	2.1	3.1	1.6	3.1	1.9
	Females	6.2	5.1	6.7	7.4	11.6	11.6	16.2	14.9	6.2	4.0	5.6	7.4	2.8	3.5	4.0	4.2	2.3	1.5	2.8	3.2
Ecuador	Total	6.1	7.1	9.2	14.2	13.5	14.9	18.9	25.9	6.4	6.6	9.7	13.6	2.7	3.9	4.7	9.0	1.3	2.7	3.8	8.3
	Males	4.2	5.7	6.9	10.5	11.2	12.7	15.1	20.0	3.2	4.4	6.4	8.0	1.7	3.1	3.6	5.5	1.3	2.9	3.4	8.6
	Females	9.2	9.2	12.6	19.5	17.2	17.8	24.5	33.9	11.3	9.8	14.3	21.3	4.5	5.2	6.3	13.6	1.4	2.2	4.6	7.7
El Salvador	Total	9.9	6.8	7.3	6.9	19.3	14.0	14.6	13.9	9.2	6.8	7.7	6.1	5.7	2.6	4.4	4.4	4.3	3.4	3.5	3.8
	Males	10.0	8.3	8.8	8.9	17.7	15.4	16.1	16.2	8.4	7.5	8.1	6.0	7.0	3.7	6.1	6.0	6.5	5.4	5.4	6.1
	Females	9.7	4.9	5.5	4.6	21.3	11.9	12.4	10.6	10.0	6.0	7.2	5.1	4.3	1.5	2.5	2.6	1.3	0.6	0.8	1.0
Guatemala	Total	3.5	2.8	7.1	4.8	2.9	3.8	1.6	1.8	1.2	0.9
	Males	3.3	3.6	7.2	6.0	2.6	4.5	1.5	2.4	1.4	1.3
	Females	3.8	1.9	7.0	3.4	3.4	2.8	1.8	1.0	0.9	0.4
Honduras	Total	6.9	4.1	5.2	5.3	11.2	7.1	8.9	9.0	7.0	3.6	5.4	4.7	4.3	3.1	2.9	2.9	3.7	1.3	2.3	3.0
	Males	7.6	4.5	5.9	6.2	11.5	7.5	9.2	10.3	6.6	3.7	5.6	5.3	6.0	4.1	4.5	3.6	5.3	2.0	3.4	4.3
	Females	5.9	3.4	4.3	4.0	10.7	6.6	8.5	7.4	7.6	3.6	5.2	4.1	2.0	1.3	0.8	2.2	0.7	0.1	0.7	1.1
Mexico	Total	3.3	4.5	5.1	3.2	8.1	9.4	12.5	7.4	2.4	2.9	3.2	2.8	0.7	2.3	1.7	1.5	0.8	3.1	2.8	1.1
	Males	3.4	5.1	5.8	3.6	8.4	10.0	13.8	8.1	2.5	3.0	3.4	3.1	0.9	2.8	2.1	1.8	1.0	4.2	3.9	1.5
	Females	3.1	3.6	3.9	2.6	7.6	8.3	10.3	6.2	2.0	2.7	2.9	2.3	0.2	1.2	1.0	0.8	0.1	0.4	0.5	0.4
Nicaragua	Total	...	14.1	13.1	13.8	...	20.1	20.9	20.9	...	14.5	13.7	11.0	...	11.1	9.2	12.3	...	10.6	7.4	10.5
	Males	...	16.5	13.6	14.0	...	20.3	18.9	17.9	...	17.3	13.2	10.3	...	13.5	11.2	14.3	...	13.9	10.1	12.9
	Females	...	10.8	12.6	13.6	...	19.7	23.8	25.8	...	10.6	14.3	11.7	...	7.9	7.2	9.9	...	6.3	3.9	7.0
Panama	Total	18.6	15.7	15.4	13.1	35.1	31.0	31.5	26.9	20.6	15.1	14.9	12.7	9.5	9.7	9.7	8.3	6.9	5.9	6.9	5.6
	Males	15.9	12.4	13.3	10.6	31.9	27.5	29.2	22.5	16.5	9.7	10.9	8.7	7.4	6.8	7.5	6.1	7.0	5.7	7.4	6.1
	Females	22.8	21.0	18.2	17.0	39.9	36.9	34.6	33.5	26.3	22.7	20.1	18.8	12.5	14.0	12.2	11.0	6.5	6.2	6.0	4.6

Table 12 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND AGE IN URBAN AREAS, AROUND 1990, 1994, 1997 AND 1999 ^{a/}																					
Country	Sex	Age groups																			
		Total				15 - 24				25 - 34				35 - 44				45 and over			
		1990	1994	1997	1999	1990	1994	1997	1999	1990	1994	1997	1999	1990	1994	1997	1999	1990	1994	1997	1999
Paraguay (Asunción)	Total	6.3	4.4	8.4	10.1	15.5	8.3	17.8	19.5	4.8	3.2	5.2	6.7	2.3	2.9	3.4	5.9	1.4	2.6	5.8	8.4
	Males	6.2	5.1	8.2	10.2	14.7	9.9	17.4	21.6	5.0	3.4	4.2	5.2	3.2	3.1	1.9	6.2	2.0	3.9	7.6	8.8
	Females	6.5	3.5	8.7	10.1	16.5	6.5	18.2	17.1	4.7	3.0	6.5	8.8	1.1	2.6	5.1	5.5	0.0	0.7	3.4	7.7
Dominican Republic	Total	19.7	17.0	17.0	...	34.1	30.6	27.8	...	17.3	16.1	15.7	...	9.2	10.0	10.2	...	7.4	7.4	8.7	...
	Males	11.3	12.1	10.9	...	22.3	24.0	20.0	...	9.2	10.4	8.0	...	5.0	6.3	6.9	...	4.0	5.8	6.1	...
	Females	31.5	24.8	26.0	...	47.3	39.9	38.2	...	27.7	23.4	25.5	...	15.8	15.5	15.0	...	15.4	11.5	14.8	...
Uruguay	Total	8.9	9.7	11.4	11.2	24.4	24.7	26.3	25.8	8.2	8.4	10.5	10.0	4.3	5.5	7.1	7.2	3.5	3.8	5.3	6.1
	Males	7.3	7.3	8.9	8.6	22.2	19.8	21.8	21.4	6.0	4.9	7.5	7.2	2.5	3.4	4.4	3.7	3.0	3.4	4.4	4.9
	Females	11.1	13.0	14.7	14.5	27.5	31.5	32.7	31.9	11.0	12.8	14.3	13.5	6.4	7.8	10.2	11.1	4.4	4.5	6.7	7.7
Venezuela ^{b/}	Total	10.2	8.9	10.6	14.5	19.3	17.1	19.8	25.7	11.3	9.1	10.6	14.7	5.9	5.3	6.8	10.2	4.5	4.2	5.5	7.8
	Males	11.2	9.1	9.0	13.6	19.9	17.2	16.4	22.2	12.3	8.8	8.3	12.8	6.9	5.9	5.7	10.1	5.5	4.9	5.6	9.4
	Females	8.4	8.3	13.6	16.1	18.0	17.0	26.6	32.6	9.6	9.6	14.3	17.7	4.0	4.2	8.5	10.4	1.7	2.5	5.3	4.7

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ For the exact years of the surveys in each country, see for example table 11.

b/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 13

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND YEARS OF SCHOOLING IN URBAN AREAS, AROUND 1990, 1994, 1997 AND 1999 ^{a/}																					
Country	Sex	Years of schooling																			
		Total				0–5				6–9				10–12				13 and more			
		1990	1994	1997	1999	1990	1994	1997	1999	1990	1994	1997	1999	1990	1994	1997	1999	1990	1994	1997	1999
Argentina b/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	Total	5.9	13.0	14.3	14.7	6.8	14.0	16.8	17.0	5.9	...	16.6	17.4	3.0	15.0	14.4	14.5	...	7.7	9.4	10.2
	Males	5.7	11.5	12.4	13.4	6.1	13.1	15.6	19.4	4.7	...	15.7	15.8	3.4	12.1	9.8	12.2	...	5.9	7.6	8.1
	Females	6.4	15.5	17.2	16.5	8.5	15.8	18.7	13.5	7.4	...	18.4	20.5	2.5	19.7	21.3	17.8	...	9.5	11.3	12.0
Bolivia	Total	9.4	3.2	3.7	7.1	7.1	2.4	2.7	3.4	9.3	2.8	2.1	7.9	13.1	3.7	5.4	10.5	8.1	3.8	4.1	6.0
	Males	9.5	3.4	3.7	6.0	9.0	3.1	3.2	2.8	8.2	3.1	1.8	7.0	12.5	3.9	4.6	7.5	7.9	3.1	4.7	5.5
	Females	9.1	2.9	3.7	8.5	5.4	1.7	2.3	3.9	11.1	2.4	2.6	9.2	14.1	3.4	6.8	15.7	8.4	5.0	3.1	6.7
Brazil	Total	4.5	7.4	8.0	11.4	4.2	6.5	7.5	9.9	6.2	11.0	11.3	15.6	4.5	7.3	7.5	12.2	1.8	3.3	3.4	5.2
	Males	4.8	6.4	6.7	9.4	4.8	5.9	6.5	8.5	6.2	8.8	9.0	12.7	4.6	5.9	5.8	9.5	1.6	2.4	2.6	4.0
	Females	3.9	8.9	10.0	14.1	3.1	7.4	9.2	12.1	6.2	14.4	14.8	20.1	4.5	8.8	9.3	14.9	2.1	4.2	4.2	6.4
Chile	Total	8.7	6.8	6.0	10.1	9.3	5.9	6.7	12.8	10.1	8.1	6.7	12.2	9.2	7.8	6.6	10.2	6.3	4.4	4.0	7.1
	Males	8.1	5.9	5.1	9.4	9.3	5.8	6.8	14.0	10.3	7.4	5.9	12.1	7.9	6.5	5.2	8.7	4.9	3.3	3.4	5.7
	Females	9.7	8.4	7.3	11.2	9.2	6.2	6.6	10.7	9.5	9.6	8.1	12.5	11.7	10.2	9.1	12.5	8.0	6.0	4.8	8.8
Colombia	Total	9.3	8.0	11.8	19.2	6.6	6.2	9.3	15.3	11.3	9.7	14.5	23.2	12.4	10.2	14.7	23.2	7.4	5.2	7.6	14.1
	Males	6.7	5.4	9.7	16.2	5.1	4.7	8.7	13.8	8.2	6.3	11.5	19.2	8.1	6.5	11.4	18.6	0.6	3.4	5.9	12.4
	Females	13.0	11.6	14.7	23.0	9.0	8.5	10.4	17.4	16.3	14.9	18.6	28.2	17.6	14.6	18.4	28.2	9.1	7.3	9.6	16.0
Costa Rica	Total	5.3	4.2	5.8	6.1	6.4	5.0	5.5	9.2	6.0	5.0	7.3	7.8	5.7	4.1	6.1	4.7	3.0	2.7	3.4	2.8
	Males	4.9	3.7	5.3	5.3	6.9	4.3	4.8	6.8	5.4	3.7	6.4	7.1	4.6	4.3	5.4	3.6	2.3	2.7	3.2	2.1
	Females	6.2	5.1	6.7	7.4	5.2	6.6	7.2	13.3	7.3	7.5	8.9	9.3	7.2	3.9	7.1	6.1	3.9	2.6	3.6	3.6
Ecuador	Total	6.1	7.1	9.2	14.2	2.6	5.0	5.9	9.0	4.8	5.7	7.8	13.8	10.3	10.2	12.9	19.0	6.1	6.7	8.1	11.5
	Males	4.2	5.7	6.9	10.5	3.0	4.9	6.0	8.5	3.3	4.9	6.4	10.9	6.8	7.8	9.2	12.8	4.2	4.9	5.4	7.7
	Females	9.2	9.2	12.6	19.5	2.0	5.0	5.9	9.5	8.0	7.3	10.5	18.8	14.9	13.6	18.3	27.0	8.7	9.0	11.7	16.1
El Salvador	Total	9.9	6.8	7.3	6.9	8.1	6.0	5.3	4.9	9.9	6.8	8.0	7.4	14.6	9.2	9.6	9.3	7.6	4.9	6.4	6.1
	Males	10.0	8.3	8.8	8.9	11.0	9.2	8.8	7.8	9.1	8.1	9.4	9.4	11.8	9.6	9.8	11.0	6.9	4.7	5.5	6.5
	Females	9.7	4.9	5.5	4.6	5.2	2.6	1.6	1.9	11.2	4.8	5.8	4.7	17.8	8.7	9.3	7.3	8.6	5.2	7.4	5.7
Guatemala	Total	3.5	2.8	2.3	1.7	4.3	2.9	5.9	5.4	2.3	1.7
	Males	3.3	3.6	2.3	3.0	4.1	4.1	5.3	5.1	2.3	0.8
	Females	3.8	1.9	2.3	0.3	4.7	1.1	6.5	5.8	2.3	3.3
Honduras	Total	6.9	4.1	5.2	5.3	5.1	3.0	4.8	4.8	7.7	5.0	5.4	6.3	9.3	4.4	6.3	4.3	6.3	2.8	3.6	4.0
	Males	7.6	4.5	5.9	6.2	7.3	3.8	6.6	7.0	8.1	5.9	6.0	6.9	8.0	3.8	5.9	4.9	5.3	2.3	3.3	3.3
	Females	5.9	3.4	4.3	4.0	1.7	1.7	2.2	2.0	6.9	3.5	4.5	5.5	10.6	5.3	6.7	3.8	7.8	3.6	4.0	5.0
Mexico	Total	3.3	4.5	5.1	3.2	1.3	3.9	3.5	2.1	4.3	5.0	5.8	2.6	3.8	4.9	5.2	3.7	2.4	2.6	4.6	3.9
	Males	3.4	5.1	5.8	3.6	1.6	5.4	4.8	3.2	4.4	5.7	6.7	3.0	4.4	5.3	5.7	4.0	2.1	2.8	4.2	3.9
	Females	3.1	3.6	3.9	2.6	0.4	1.2	1.2	0.5	4.0	3.7	4.3	1.9	2.7	4.2	4.2	3.2	3.3	5.2	5.5	3.9
Nicaragua	Total	...	14.1	13.1	13.8	...	14.1	10.9	11.8	...	15.0	14.3	14.2	...	12.6	14.9	18.5	...	13.6	11.6	12.4
	Males	...	16.5	13.6	14.0	...	16.4	12.5	13.8	...	16.8	14.7	13.0	...	14.8	15.1	19.2	...	19.2	10.7	10.8
	Females	...	10.8	12.6	13.6	...	11.1	9.0	9.0	...	12.0	13.8	16.2	...	10.2	14.7	17.8	...	4.8	12.7	14.0
Panama	Total	18.6	15.7	15.4	13.1	10.7	9.6	12.1	7.2	18.4	16.0	16.6	14.2	24.9	19.7	18.2	16.2	14.8	12.5	11.3	9.6
	Males	15.9	12.4	13.3	10.6	9.6	9.6	13.6	7.1	16.5	13.2	15.6	12.4	20.5	13.9	14.4	11.7	12.9	9.9	8.2	7.1
	Females	22.8	21.0	18.2	17.0	13.9	9.3	9.1	7.7	22.5	21.6	18.4	18.0	30.4	27.7	23.5	22.7	16.6	15.1	14.2	12.0

Table 13 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND YEARS OF SCHOOLING IN URBAN AREAS, AROUND 1990, 1994, 1997 AND 1999 ^{a/}																					
Country	Sex	Years of schooling																			
		Total				0-5				6-9				10-12				13 and more			
		1990	1994	1997	1999	1990	1994	1997	1999	1990	1994	1997	1999	1990	1994	1997	1999	1990	1994	1997	1999
Paraguay (Asunción)	Total	6.3	4.4	8.4	10.1	4.4	5.2	7.8	16.3	6.4	5.2	9.4	9.8	8.4	4.5	10.6	11.1	3.7	1.3	3.4	5.3
	Males	6.2	5.1	8.2	10.2	4.2	7.6	9.3	19.8	6.7	6.2	9.0	9.8	7.9	4.1	8.8	9.9	2.9	1.1	3.4	7.1
	Females	6.5	3.5	8.7	10.1	4.7	2.5	5.9	12.0	6.0	3.8	9.8	9.7	9.1	4.9	12.9	12.8	4.8	1.5	3.5	12.0
Dominican Republic	Total	19.7	17.0	17.0	...	15.6	13.6	15.3	...	19.6	18.7	18.9	...	25.2	21.4	18.1	...	16.6	13.4	15.1	...
	Males	11.3	12.1	10.9	...	7.0	10.2	10.4	...	11.1	12.8	11.2	...	15.5	14.3	11.5	...	11.2	10.9	10.0	...
	Females	31.5	24.8	26.0	...	30.5	21.3	24.8	...	34.7	29.8	32.7	...	37.2	30.5	26.2	...	21.8	16.1	19.5	...
Uruguay	Total	8.9	9.7	11.4	11.2	5.6	5.7	8.1	8.9	10.2	12.4	13.2	13.1	10.0	9.5	11.8	11.4	5.9	4.9	6.8	6.3
	Males	7.3	7.3	8.9	8.6	5.6	5.2	6.7	7.4	8.4	9.1	10.1	9.8	7.5	6.1	8.9	8.6	4.4	4.0	4.8	4.3
	Females	11.1	13.0	14.7	14.5	5.6	6.5	10.7	11.9	13.0	17.5	18.1	18.2	12.8	13.3	14.9	14.5	7.2	5.6	8.3	7.8
Venezuela ^{c/}	Total	10.2	8.9	10.6	14.5	9.7	7.9	9.4	11.7	12.1	9.8	11.0	15.5	9.3	9.1	12.7	16.2	6.1	6.7	8.4	12.7
	Males	11.2	9.1	9.0	13.6	11.4	8.2	7.9	12.2	12.9	10.4	9.5	14.8	9.7	9.0	10.6	13.7	5.6	5.9	6.6	11.2
	Females	8.4	8.3	13.6	16.1	5.4	7.1	13.4	10.6	10.1	8.5	14.3	17.0	8.7	9.2	15.5	19.7	6.7	7.8	10.4	14.0

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

^{a/} For the exact years of the surveys in each country, see for example table 11.

^{b/} In 1990, the levels of schooling which have data entered correspond to 0-6 years, 7-9 years and 10 years or more, respectively. In 1994, however, the range of 0-5 years actually represents 0-9 years of schooling.

^{c/} The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 14

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): POVERTY AND INDIGENCE LEVELS, 1990-1999 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Households below the poverty line ^{a/}					Households below the indigence line				
		Total	Urban areas			Rural areas	Total	Urban areas			Rural areas
			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas	
Argentina	1990	16.2	3.5
	1994	...	12.3	10.2	16.3	2.1	1.5	3.3	...
	1997	13.1	3.3
	1999	...	16.3	13.1	20.5	4.3	3.1	5.8	...
Bolivia	1989	...	49.4	22.1
	1994	...	45.6	16.8
	1997	...	46.8	19.2
	1999	54.7	42.3	39.1	56.4	75.6	32.6	16.4	14.5	25.0	59.6
Brazil	1990	41.4	35.6	63.9	18.3	13.3	37.9
	1993	37.1	33.3	52.9	15.3	11.6	30.2
	1996	28.6	24.6	45.6	10.5	7.6	23.1
	1999	29.9	26.4	45.2	9.6	7.1	20.5
Chile ^{b/}	1990	33.3	33.3	27.7	36.5	33.5	10.6	10.2	7.8	11.4	12.1
	1994	23.2	22.8	15.8	28.0	25.5	6.2	5.9	3.6	7.5	7.9
	1996	19.7	18.5	12.4	22.0	26.0	4.9	4.3	2.4	5.8	7.9
	1998	17.8	17.0	12.4	19.4	22.7	4.7	4.3	3.0	4.6	6.9
Colombia ^{c/}	1991	50.5	47.1	55.4	22.6	17.2	30.6
	1994	47.3	40.6	34.6	43.0	57.4	25.0	16.2	12.3	17.7	38.2
	1997	44.9	39.5	29.7	43.2	54.0	20.1	14.6	10.3	16.3	29.3
	1999	48.7	44.6	38.1	47.1	55.8	23.2	18.7	17.2	19.2	31.1
Costa Rica	1990	23.7	22.2	19.8	25.1	24.9	9.8	6.9	5.0	9.3	12.3
	1994	20.8	18.1	16.2	20.5	23.1	7.7	5.6	4.3	7.3	9.5
	1997	20.3	17.1	16.3	18.1	22.9	7.4	5.2	5.2	5.2	9.1
	1999	18.2	15.7	14.7	16.8	20.5	7.5	5.4	4.7	6.2	9.4
Ecuador	1990	...	55.8	22.6
	1994	...	52.3	22.4
	1997	...	49.8	18.6
	1999	...	58.0	27.2
El Salvador	1995	47.6	40.0	29.5	49.5	58.2	18.2	12.4	7.3	16.9	26.5
	1997	48.0	38.6	25.7	50.3	61.6	18.5	12.0	5.6	17.8	27.9
	1999	43.5	34.0	26.4	43.2	59.0	18.3	11.1	6.8	16.3	29.3
Guatemala	1998	53.5	38.8	30.9	48.0	64.7	28.0	12.9	6.6	20.1	39.6
Honduras	1990	75.2	64.5	54.9	68.8	83.5	54.0	38.0	26.8	43.0	66.4
	1994	73.1	69.6	63.7	75.8	76.1	48.5	40.8	33.5	48.6	54.9
	1997	73.8	67.0	62.3	71.7	79.9	48.3	36.8	30.9	42.7	58.7
	1999	74.3	65.6	58.4	72.9	82.3	50.6	37.1	28.7	45.6	63.2
Mexico	1989	39.3	34.2	48.7	14.0	9.3	22.4
	1994	35.8	29.0	46.5	11.8	6.2	20.4
	1996	43.4	37.5	53.4	15.6	10.0	25.0
	1998	38.0	31.1	49.3	13.2	6.9	23.5
Nicaragua	1993	68.1	60.3	51.6	67.9	78.7	43.2	32.2	24.5	39.0	58.3
	1998	65.1	59.3	52.4	64.5	72.7	40.1	30.7	24.0	35.8	52.6

Table 14 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): POVERTY AND INDIGENCE LEVELS, 1990-1999 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Households below the poverty line ^{a/}					Households below the indigence line				
		Total	Urban areas			Rural areas	Total	Urban areas			Rural areas
			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas	
Panama	1991	36.3	33.6	32.1	39.5	42.5	16.0	13.9	13.5	15.4	21.1
	1994	29.7	25.2	23.0	34.7	40.6	12.0	8.7	7.6	13.4	19.8
	1997	27.3	24.6	23.5	29.4	33.5	10.2	8.6	8.4	9.6	14.1
	1999	24.2	20.8	19.6	25.8	32.6	8.3	6.6	6.3	8.0	12.6
Paraguay	1990	36.8	10.4
	1994	...	42.4	35.4	51.1	14.8	9.5	21.3	...
	1996	...	39.6	33.5	48.1	13.0	8.0	20.1	...
	1999	51.7	41.4	32.9	52.7	65.2	26.0	13.9	6.9	23.0	42.0
Dominican Republic	1997	32.4	31.6	33.6	12.8	11.0	15.2
Uruguay	1990	...	11.8	7.2	16.7	2.0	1.0	3.0	...
	1994	...	5.8	4.2	7.4	1.1	0.8	1.4	...
	1997	...	5.7	5.2	6.2	0.9	0.8	1.0	...
	1999	...	5.6	5.8	5.4	0.9	0.9	0.8	...
Venezuela ^{d/}	1990	34.2	33.4	25.3	36.0	38.4	11.8	10.9	6.9	12.2	16.5
	1994	42.1	40.9	21.4	46.2	47.7	15.1	13.5	4.3	15.9	22.9
	1997	42.3	17.1
	1999	44.0	19.4
Latin America ^{e/}	1990	41.0	35.0	58.2	17.7	12.0	34.1
	1994	37.5	31.8	56.1	15.9	10.5	33.5
	1997	35.5	29.7	54.0	14.4	9.5	30.2
	1999	35.3	29.8	54.3	13.9	9.1	30.7

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ Includes households below the indigence line.

b/ Calculations based on the 1990, 1994, 1996 and 1998 national socio-economic surveys (CASEN). Estimates adjusted for the latest figures for the household income and expenditure account from the Ministry of Planning and Cooperation.

c/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country.

Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

d/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

e/ Estimate for 19 countries of the region.

Table 15

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): INDIGENCE LINES (IL) AND POVERTY LINES (PL)												
(In monthly values per person)												
Country	Year	Reference period of income	Currency a/	Urban		Rural		Exchange rate b/	Urban		Rural	
				IL	PL	IL	PL		IL	PL	IL	PL
				Local currency					US dollars			
Argentina	1990 c/	Sept.	A	255 928	511 856	5 791.0	44.2	88.4
	1994	Sept.	\$	72	144	1.0	72.0	143.9
	1997 c/	Sept.	\$	76	151	1.0	75.5	151.0
	1999	Sept.	\$	72	143	1.0	71.6	143.3
Bolivia	1989	Oct.	Bs	68	137	2.9	23.8	47.5
	1994	June-Nov.	Bs	120	240	4.7	25.7	51.4
	1997	May	Bs	155	309	125	219	5.3	29.4	58.8	23.9	41.8
	1999	Oct.-Nov.	Bs	167	333	130	228	5.9	28.0	56.1	21.9	38.3
Brazil	1990	Sept.	Cr\$	3 109	6 572	2 634	4 967	75.5	41.2	87.0	34.9	65.7
	1993	Sept.	Cr\$	3 400	7 391	2 864	5 466	111.2	30.6	66.5	25.8	49.2
	1996	Sept.	R\$	44	104	38	76	1.0	43.6	102.3	37.2	74.9
	1999	Sept.	R\$	51	126	43	91	1.9	26.7	66.2	22.7	48.1
Chile	1990	Nov.	\$	9 297	18 594	7 164	12 538	327.4	28.4	56.8	21.9	38.3
	1994	Nov.	\$	15 050	30 100	11 597	20 295	413.1	36.4	72.9	28.1	49.1
	1996	Nov.	\$	17 136	34 272	13 204	23 108	420.0	40.8	81.6	31.4	55.0
	1998	Nov.	\$	18 944	37 889	14 598	25 546	463.3	40.9	81.8	31.5	55.1
Colombia	1991	Aug.	\$	18 093	36 186	14 915	26 102	645.6	28.0	56.1	23.1	40.4
	1994	Aug.	\$	31 624	63 249	26 074	45 629	814.8	38.8	77.6	32.0	56.0
	1997	Aug.	\$	53 721	107 471	44 333	77 583	1 141.0	47.1	94.2	38.9	68.0
	1999	Aug.	\$	69 838	139 716	57 629	100 851	1 873.7	37.3	74.6	30.8	53.8
Costa Rica	1990	June	¢	2 639	5 278	2 081	3 642	89.7	29.4	58.9	23.2	40.6
	1994	June	¢	5 264	10 528	4 153	7 268	155.6	33.8	67.7	26.7	46.7
	1997	June	¢	8 604	17 208	6 778	11 862	232.6	37.0	74.0	29.1	51.0
	1999	June	¢	10 708	21 415	8 463	14 811	285.3	37.5	75.1	29.7	51.9
Ecuador	1990	Nov.	S/.	18 465	36 930	854.8	21.6	43.2
	1994	Nov.	S/.	69 364	138 729	2 301.2	30.1	60.3
	1997	Oct.	S/.	142 233	284 465	4 194.6	33.9	67.8
	1999	Oct.	S/.	301 716	603 432	15 656.8	19.3	38.5
El Salvador	1995	Jan.-Dec.	¢	254	508	158	315	8.8	29.0	58.1	18.0	35.9
	1997	Jan.-Dec.	¢	290	580	187	374	8.8	33.1	66.2	21.4	42.8
	1999	Jan.-Dec.	¢	293	586	189	378	8.8	33.5	66.9	21.6	43.2
Guatemala	1989	April	Q	64	127	50	88	2.7	23.6	47.1	18.7	32.7
	1998	Dec. 97-Dec. 98	Q	260	520	197	344	6.4	40.7	81.5	30.8	54.0
Honduras	1990	Aug.	L	115	229	81	141	4.3	26.5	52.9	18.6	32.6
	1994	Sept.	L	257	513	181	316	9.0	28.6	57.1	20.1	35.2
	1997	Aug.	L	481	963	339	593	13.1	36.8	73.6	25.9	45.3
	1999	Aug.	L	561	1 122	395	691	14.3	39.3	78.6	27.7	48.4
Mexico	1989	3rd quarter	\$	86 400	172 800	68 810	120 418	2 510.0	34.4	68.8	27.4	48.0
	1994	3rd quarter	MN\$	213	425	151	265	3.3	63.6	127.2	45.3	79.3
	1996	3rd quarter	MN\$	405	810	300	525	7.6	53.6	107.2	39.7	69.5
	1998	3rd quarter	MN\$	537	1 074	385	674	9.5	56.8	113.6	40.7	71.3
Nicaragua	1993	21 Feb.-12 June	C\$	167	334	129	225	4.6	36.6	73.3	28.2	49.4
	1997	Oct.	C\$	247	493	9.8	25.3	50.5
	1998	15 April-31 Aug.	C\$	275	550	212	370	10.4	26.3	52.7	20.3	35.5

Table 15 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): INDIGENCE LINES (IL) AND POVERTY LINES (PL)												
(In monthly values per person)												
Country	Year	Reference period of income	Currency a/	Urban		Rural		Exchange rate b/	Urban		Rural	
				IL	PL	IL	PL		IL	PL	IL	PL
				Local currency					US dollars			
Panama	1991	Aug.	B	35	70	27	47	1.0	35.0	70.1	27.1	47.5
	1994	Aug.	B	40	80	31	54	1.0	40.1	80.2	31.0	54.3
	1997	Aug.	B	41	81	31	55	1.0	40.6	81.3	31.4	55.0
	1999	julio	B	41	81	31	55	1.0	40.7	81.4	31.5	55.1
Paraguay	1990 d/	June, July, Aug.	₵	43 242	86 484	1 207.8	35.8	71.6
	1994	Aug. - Sept.	₵	87 894	175 789	1 916.3	45.9	91.7
	1996	July - Nov.	₵	108 572	217 143	2 081.2	52.2	104.3
	1999	July- Dec.	₵	138 915	277 831	106 608	186 565	3 311.4	42.0	83.9	32.2	56.3
Dominican Republic	1997	April	\$	601	1 203	451	789	14.3	42.1	84.3	31.6	55.3
Uruguay	1990	2° quarter	NUr\$	41 972	83 944	1 358.0	30.9	61.8
	1994	2° quarter	\$	281	563	5.4	52.1	104.1
	1997	Year	\$	528	1 056	9.4	55.9	111.9
	1999	Year	\$	640	1 280	11.3	56.4	112.9
Venezuela	1990	2° quarter	Bs	1 924	3 848	1 503	2 630	49.4	38.9	77.9	30.4	53.2
	1994	2° quarter	Bs	8 025	16 050	6 356	11 124	171.3	46.9	93.7	37.1	65.0
	1997 e/	2° quarter	Bs	31 711	62 316	488.6	64.9	127.5
	1999 e/	2° quarter	Bs	49 368	97 622	626.3	78.8	155.9

Source: ECLAC, Statistics and Economic Projections Division.

a/ National currencies:

Argentina: (A) Austral; (\$) Peso

Bolivia: (Bs) Boliviano

Brazil: (Cr\$) Cruzeiro; (R\$) Real

Chile: (Ch\$) Peso

Colombia: (Col\$) Peso

Costa Rica: (₵) Colón

Ecuador: (S/.) Sucre

El Salvador: (₵) Colón

Guatemala: (Q) Quetzal

Honduras: (L) Lempira

Mexico: (\$) Peso; (MN\$) New Peso

Nicaragua: (C\$) Córdoba

Panama: (B) Balboa

Paraguay: (₵) Guaraní

Dominican Republic: (RD\$) Peso

Uruguay: (NUr\$) New Peso; (\$) Peso

Venezuela: (Bs) Bolívar

b/ "rf" series of the International Monetary Fund (IMF).

c/ Greater Buenos Aires.

d/ Asunción.

e/ National total.

Table 16

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF HOUSEHOLDS BY PER CAPITA INCOME BRACKETS, EXPRESSED AS MULTIPLES OF THE POVERTY LINE, URBAN AREAS, 1990-1999									
Country	Year	Per capita income expressed as multiples of the poverty line							
		0-0.5 (Indigent)	0.5-0.9	0.9-1.0	0.0-1.0 (Poor)	1.0-1.25	1.25-2.0	2.0-3.0	More than 3.0
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	3.5	10.6	2.1	16.2	7.3	22.5	18.7	35.3
	1994	1.5	6.6	2.1	10.2	7.4	16.7	19.0	46.7
	1997	3.3	7.0	2.8	13.1	7.2	19.0	17.5	43.2
	1999	3.1	8.5	1.6	13.2	6.2	19.1	17.8	43.9
Bolivia	1989	22.1	23.2	4.1	49.4	9.0	16.4	10.6	14.5
	1994	16.8	24.2	4.6	45.6	9.8	19.3	10.2	14.9
	1997	19.2	22.6	5.1	46.8	9.7	17.2	11.2	15.2
	1999	16.4	20.8	5.1	42.3	10.8	18.5	11.4	17.0
Brazil a/	1990	14.8	17.3	3.7	35.8	8.3	16.6	12.3	27.1
	1993	13.5	16.0	3.8	33.3	8.5	19.0	13.3	26.0
	1996	9.7	11.9	3.1	24.6	7.3	17.5	15.5	35.1
	1999	9.9	13.1	3.4	26.4	8.0	18.1	15.3	32.3
Chile	1990	10.2	18.6	4.5	33.3	9.5	20.3	14.3	22.7
	1994	5.9	13.3	3.6	22.8	8.5	20.7	16.6	31.4
	1996	4.3	11.0	3.2	18.5	8.5	20.5	17.2	34.1
	1998	4.3	9.9	2.8	17.0	7.3	19.4	17.6	38.8
Colombia b/	1994	16.2	20.3	4.1	40.6	9.1	18.2	12.6	19.5
	1997	14.6	20.3	4.5	39.5	9.6	18.9	12.6	19.4
	1999	18.7	21.5	4.4	44.6	9.5	17.7	10.8	17.4
Costa Rica	1990	7.8	11.2	3.7	22.2	7.9	21.9	20.2	27.9
	1994	5.6	9.1	3.4	18.1	7.9	20.4	20.7	32.9
	1997	5.2	9.1	2.8	17.1	8.1	20.5	20.3	34.0
	1999	5.4	7.9	2.4	15.7	8.5	19.3	17.7	38.8
Ecuador	1990	22.6	28.1	5.2	55.8	10.5	16.7	8.8	8.2
	1994	22.4	24.7	5.2	52.3	10.1	19.1	9.1	9.4
	1997	18.6	25.6	5.6	49.8	10.0	19.4	10.7	10.0
	1999	27.2	25.5	5.3	58.0	7.9	16.1	7.9	10.1
El Salvador	1995	12.4	22.4	5.1	40.0	12.0	22.0	12.8	13.3
	1997	12.0	21.8	4.8	38.6	11.0	21.8	13.6	15.0
	1999	11.1	19.0	3.9	34.0	9.8	21.7	15.4	19.1
Guatemala	1989	22.9	21.0	4.3	48.2	8.5	17.3	11.0	15.0
	1998	12.9	21.7	4.2	38.8	10.9	20.0	12.5	17.8
Honduras	1990	38.0	22.7	3.8	64.5	8.2	12.0	6.5	8.8
	1994	40.8	24.5	4.3	69.6	7.6	12.0	5.1	5.8
	1997	36.8	26.0	4.2	67.0	8.2	12.5	5.9	6.4
	1999	37.1	24.4	4.2	66.2	8.2	12.9	6.4	7.0
Mexico	1989	9.3	19.8	4.8	33.9	11.0	22.3	13.1	19.8
	1994	6.2	18.2	4.6	29.0	10.8	21.8	14.4	24.0
	1996	10.0	22.2	5.3	37.5	10.7	21.3	12.4	18.1
	1998	6.9	19.1	5.1	31.1	11.0	22.0	15.3	20.6
Nicaragua	1993	32.2	23.5	4.6	60.3	8.2	15.7	6.9	9.0
	1998	30.7	24.1	4.5	59.3	8.6	15.8	7.6	8.7

Table 16 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF HOUSEHOLDS BY PER CAPITA INCOME BRACKETS, EXPRESSED AS MULTIPLES OF THE POVERTY LINE, URBAN AREAS, 1990-1999									
Country	Year	Per capita income expressed as multiples of the poverty line							
		0-0.5 (Indigent)	0.5-0.9	0.9-1.0	0.0-1.0 (Poor)	1.0-1.25	1.25-2.0	2.0-3.0	More than 3.0
Panama	1991	13.9	15.5	4.2	33.6	8.5	17.0	13.7	27.2
	1994	8.7	13.2	3.3	25.2	7.7	19.2	16.5	31.3
	1997	8.6	12.2	3.7	24.6	7.5	18.8	15.4	33.7
	1999	6.6	10.9	3.3	20.8	7.6	18.2	16.2	37.1
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	10.4	21.7	4.7	36.8	13.6	19.6	14.2	15.9
	1994	9.5	20.9	5.0	35.4	11.6	20.4	13.4	19.3
	1996	8.0	19.2	6.4	33.5	11.3	22.2	13.5	19.5
	1999	6.9	20.7	5.2	32.9	11.9	19.9	16.2	19.2
Dominican Republic	1997	11.0	16.6	4.0	31.6	10.4	21.5	15.6	21.0
Uruguay	1990	2.0	7.0	2.8	11.8	7.1	22.7	23.1	35.3
	1994	1.1	3.4	1.3	5.8	3.6	15.4	23.2	52.0
	1997	0.9	3.5	1.4	5.7	4.0	15.2	21.4	53.8
	1999	0.9	3.4	1.4	5.6	3.6	13.5	20.5	56.9
Venezuela <i>c/</i>	1990	10.9	17.5	5.0	33.4	10.9	21.5	14.8	19.4
	1994	13.5	22.0	5.4	40.9	10.4	21.4	12.9	14.4
	1997	17.1	20.7	4.5	42.3	10.6	19.3	11.5	16.3
	1999	19.4	20.5	4.1	44.0	10.3	19.5	11.5	14.8

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

- a/ The figures shown for indigence (0–0.5 poverty lines) and poverty (0–1.0 poverty lines) may not correspond to those given in table 14 because, in calculating the poverty line for Brazil, the value of the indigence line was multiplied by a variable coefficient. For all the other countries, it was multiplied by a fixed (2.0) coefficient.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.
- c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 17

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): INCIDENCE OF POVERTY IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES, a/ URBAN AREAS, 1990-1999 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Total population	Total employed	Public-sector wage earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional non-technical occupations			Own account workers in non-professional, non-technical occupations	
					In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons b/	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	21	10	...	12 c/	15	21	6	8
	1994	13	5	...	5 c/	7	10	4	3
	1997	18	8	...	8 c/	12	18	8	6
	1999	20	10	6	9	17	22	14	8
Bolivia	1989	53	39	...	42	53	31	46	40
	1994	52	41	35	48	58	31	52	44
	1997	52	43	30	42	50	35	59	46
	1999	49	41	23	41	53	27	66	43
Brazil d/	1990	41	32	...	30	48	49	40	36
	1993	40	32	20	31	39	47	43	33
	1996	31	22	14	22	27	35	28	22
	1999	33	24	14	26	32	39	33	27
Chile	1990	38	29	...	30 c/	38	37	28	23
	1994	28	20	...	20 c/	27	21	20	17
	1996	22	15	7	18	24	20	10	10
	1998	21	14	...	14 c/	21	19	11	9
Colombia f/	1991	52	41	27	45 e/	...	38	54	53
	1994	45	34	15	41 e/	...	31	42	42
	1997	40	33	15	37 e/	...	34	48	42
	1999	51	38	12	38 e/	...	35	60	54
Costa Rica	1990	25	15	...	15	22	28	28	24
	1994	21	12	5	11	19	25	24	18
	1997	23	10	4	10	17	23	21	18
	1999	18	10	3	9	14	27	17	16
Ecuador	1990	62	51	33	50	60	56	70	61
	1994	58	46	31	49	58	56	60	56
	1997	56	45	28	46	62	53	56	54
	1999	64	53	30	55	70	61	68	62
El Salvador	1995	54	34	14	35	50	32	50	41
	1997	56	35	13	35	48	40	50	43
	1999	39	29	9	26	44	41	43	35
Guatemala	1989	53	42	20	47	61	42	48	35
	1998	46	40	19	41	53	46	51	46
Honduras	1990	70	60	29	60	76	51	81	73
	1994	75	66	42	71	83	56	84	77
	1997	73	64	44	69	83	52	84	72
	1999	72	64	41	64	81	58	80	72
Mexico	1989	42	33	...	37 g/	...	60	32	28
	1994	37	29	...	33 g/	...	56	27 h/	...
	1996	45	38	19	41	59	63	48	41
	1998	39	31	12	36	49	57	39	30

Table 17 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): INCIDENCE OF POVERTY IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES, <i>a/</i> URBAN AREAS, 1990-1999 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Total population	Total employed	Public-sector wage earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional non-technical occupations			Own account workers in non-professional, non-technical occupations	
					In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons <i>b/</i>	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
Nicaragua	1993	66	52	47	64	74	60	45	
	1998	64	54	...	54 <i>c/</i>	68	74	59	52
Panama	1991	40	26	12	24	38	31	42	38
	1994	31	18	6	16	30	28	26	25
	1997	33	18	6	17	27	26	32	25
	1999	26	15	5	12	24	20	24	26
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	42	32	23	40	49	29	41	31
	1994	42	31	14	38	44	36	42	37
	1996	39	29	13	27	40	33	44	37
	1999	40	26	11	27	40	27	42	31
Dominican Republic	1997	37	21	21	18	25	26	20	25
Uruguay	1990	18	11	8	10	17	25	21	14
	1994	10	6	2	6	7	13	12	7
	1997	10	6	2	5	9	12	10	9
	1999	9	5	2	5	9	12	12	9
Venezuela <i>i/</i>	1990	39	22	20	24	34	33	25	22
	1994	47	32	38	29	48	41	32	32
	1997	48	35	34	44	50	52	27	27
	1999	49	35	28	37	52	50	33	34

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ Refers to the percentage of employed persons in each category residing in households below the poverty line.

b/ For Bolivia (1999), Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, this category includes establishments employing up to four persons only.

c/ Includes public-sector wage earners.

d/ For 1990, the columns corresponding to establishments employing more than 5 persons and up to 5 persons refer to wage earners with and without a contract of employment ("carteira"), respectively.

e/ Includes wage earners in establishments employing up to 5 persons.

f/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country.

Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

g/ Includes public sector wage earners and those occupied in establishments employing up to 5 persons.

h/ Refers to all non-professional, non-technical own account workers.

i/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 18

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): INCIDENCE OF POVERTY IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES, a/ RURAL AREAS, 1990-1999 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Total population	Total employed	Public-sector wage earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional non-technical occupations			Own account workers in non-professional, non-technical occupations	
					In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons b/	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Agricultural forestry and fisheries
Bolivia	1997	79	79	35	48	41	49	87	89
	1999	81	80	14	25	58	37	86	88
Brazil c/	1990	71	64	...	45	72	61	70	74
	1993	63	57	56	58	53	53	59	60
	1996	56	49	33	46	35	40	54	56
	1999	55	49	39	47	40	41	54	55
Chile	1990	40	27	...	28	36	23	22	24
	1994	32	22	...	20	28	13	21	24
	1996	31	21	13	21	27	16	18	21
	1998	28	18	...	16 d/	21	13	17	21
Colombia	1991	60	53	...	42 d/ e/	...	54	67	73
	1994	62	55	...	55 d/ e/	...	57	61	59
	1997	60	48	16	40 e/	...	48	62	67
	1999	62	50	12	41 e/	...	45	64	66
Costa Rica	1990	27	17	...	13	23	22	24	27
	1994	25	14	7	3	20	23	21	24
	1997	25	14	5	9	20	25	21	24
	1999	22	12	3	7	21	22	17	21
El Salvador	1995	64	53	24	43	56	50	63	72
	1997	69	58	26	47	57	49	67	79
	1999	65	55	16	42	56	47	71	80
Guatemala	1989	78	70	42	72	76	61	71	76
	1998	70	66	40	63	77	60	69	69
Honduras	1990	88	83	...	71	90	72	88	90
	1994	81	73	40	65	79	74	78	81
	1997	84	79	37	75	86	74	83	85
	1999	86	81	38	79	89	75	85	89
Mexico	1989	57	49	...	53 f/	...	50	47	54
	1994	57	47	...	53 f/	...	53	46	54
	1996	62	56	23	57	67	64	59	68
	1998	58	51	23	48	60	64	55	64
Nicaragua	1993	83	75	71	64	77	59	82	89
	1998	77	70	...	61	69	49	80	87
Panama	1991	51	40	10	25	43	43	52	57
	1994	49	38	6	23	39	40	52	61
	1997	42	29	6	22	39	33	36	42
	1999	42	29	5	19	39	30	37	42
Paraguay	1999	74	65	10	47	57	43	75	79
Dominican Republic	1997	39	25	17	14	26	40	30	42
Venezuela	1990	47	31	22	35	36	44	31	36
	1994	56	42	27	50	50	53	42	44

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ Refers to the percentage of employed persons in each category residing in households below the poverty line.

b/ For Bolivia (1999), Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic and Venezuela, this category includes establishments employing up to four persons only.

c/ For 1990, the columns corresponding to establishments employing more than 5 persons and up to 5 persons refer to wage earners with and without a contract of employment ("carteira"), respectively.

d/ Includes public-sector wage earners.

e/ Includes wage earners in establishments employing up to five persons.

f/ Includes public-sector wage earners and those occupied in establishments employing up to five persons.

Table 19

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-1999 (Percentages of total employed urban population living in poverty)								
Country	Year	Public-sector wage earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations			Own account workers in non-professional, non-technical occupations		Total b/
			In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons a/	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	...	53	17	12	6	10	98
	1994	...	52	22	10	6	10	100
	1997	...	49	23	11	5	12	100
	1999	7	36	25	12	7	13	100
Bolivia	1989	18	15	17	5	12	31	98
	1994	11	18	19	4	11	29	92
	1997	7	14	13	3	16	29	82
	1999	6	15	15	2	19	33	90
Brazil d/	1990	...	32	26	10	5	18	91
	1993	9	32	11	12	6	17	87
	1996	8	31	12	13	7	16	87
	1999	7	28	11	14	7	18	85
Chile	1990	...	53	14	10	6	12	95
	1994	...	54	14	8	7	11	94
	1996	6	53	16	9	3	8	95
	1998	...	56	18	10	4	8	96
Colombia e/	1991	...	48 c/	...	5	8	26	87
	1994	4	58 c/	...	5	8	22	97
	1997	4	46 c/	...	5	10	30	95
	1999	3	38 c/	...	5	12	37	95
Costa Rica	1990	...	28	13	8	12	17	78
	1994	11	28	18	9	10	18	94
	1997	7	30	18	8	10	22	95
	1999	6	28	17	15	8	20	94
Ecuador	1990	11	21	13	5	11	29	90
	1994	9	23	15	6	8	29	90
	1997	9	24	15	6	8	27	89
	1999	6	23	18	6	7	27	87
El Salvador	1995	5	28	15	4	12	25	89
	1997	5	25	16	5	10	27	88
	1999	4	23	21	6	10	24	88
Guatemala	1989	7	26	20	7	8	12	80
	1998	4	19	24	8	9	13	77
Honduras	1990	7	27	17	6	12	23	92
	1994	7	33	14	5	10	19	88
	1997	7	30	14	4	10	23	88
	1999	6	27	14	4	9	25	85
Mexico	1989	...	72 c/	...	5	3	11	91
	1994	...	71 c/	...	7	17 f/	...	95
	1996	7	36	23	6	5	17	94
	1998	14	33	15	4	3	16	85

Table 19 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-1999 (Percentages of total employed urban population living in poverty)								
Country	Year	Public-sector wage earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations			Own account workers in non-professional, non-technical occupations		Total b/
			In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons a/	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
Nicaragua	1993	19	17	15	9	9	15	84
	1998	...	25	18	9	5	26	83
Panama	1991	12	24	8	8	7	16	75
	1994	9	30	19	14	7	19	98
	1997	8	29	9	10	9	18	83
	1999	6	26	11	8	7	24	82
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	8	30	24	10	7	15	94
	1994	5	30	19	14	7	19	94
	1996	5	22	19	11	10	26	93
	1999	6	26	21	10	8	20	91
Dominican Republic	1997	12	27	10	6	7	26	88
Uruguay	1990	16	30	11	15	10	15	97
	1994	8	32	13	16	13	15	97
	1997	7	27	17	15	12	19	97
	1999	5	26	15	17	15	20	98
Venezuela g/	1990	19	33	10	10	5	15	92
	1994	21	26	14	5	6	19	91
	1997	17	32	15	7	5	15	91
	1999	12	26	18	3	7	24	90

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ For Bolivia (1999), Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, this category includes establishments employing up to four persons only.

b/ In most cases, the totals amount to less than 100%, since employers, professional and technical wage earners and public-sector employees have not been included.

c/ Includes wage earners in establishments employing up to five persons.

d/ For 1990, the columns corresponding to establishments employing more than 5 persons and up to 5 persons refer to wage earners with and without a contract of employment ("carteira"), respectively.

e/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

f/ Refers to all non-professional, non-technical own account workers.

g/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 20

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS, 1990-1999 (Percentages of total employed rural population living in poverty)								
Country	Year	Public-sector wage earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations			Own account workers in non-professional, non-technical occupations		Total b/
			In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons a/	Domestic employees	Total	Agriculture	
Bolivia	1997	1	2	2	0	94	89	99
	1999	0	1	2	0	95	90	98
Brazil c/	1990	...	9	26	4	57	51	96
	1993	5	23	2	3	66	61	99
	1996	3	21	2	3	70	65	99
	1999	4	20	2	3	69	64	98
Chile	1990	...	40	29	3	27	23	99
	1994	...	39	26	2	31	25	98
	1996	2	29	35	3	30	27	99
	1998	...	36	25	3	35	31	99
Colombia	1991	...	34 d/	...	2	58	35	94
	1994	...	47 d/	...	4	45	24	96
	1997	1	35 d/	...	3	57	35	96
	1999	1	31 d/	...	3	62	36	97
Costa Rica	1990	-	25	23	6	41	27	95
	1994	5	20	28	7	35	19	95
	1997	3	20	28	9	36	19	96
	1999	2	19	34	10	30	16	95
El Salvador	1995	1	23	15	3	52	36	94
	1997	1	23	15	4	54	39	97
	1999	1	18	17	5	55	38	96
Guatemala	1989	2	23	12	2	61	52	100
	1998	1	21	17	3	49	35	91
Honduras	1990	2	11	17	2	68	51	100
	1994	3	14	15	2	65	49	99
	1997	2	13	16	2	65	45	98
	1999	2	12	16	2	66	45	98
Mexico	1989	...	50 d/	...	3	45	38	98
	1994	...	50 d/	...	3	45	35	98
	1996	3	20	22	4	49	35	98
	1998	6	19	18	2	49	29	94
Nicaragua	1993	6	13 d/	11	4	62	54	96
	1998	-	17 d/	16	3	60	49	96
Panama	1991	3	9	9	3	75	65	99
	1994	3	10	15	4	68	56	100
	1997	2	11	17	4	65	50	99
	1999	2	9	20	4	65	45	100
Paraguay	1999	1	5	10	3	80	66	99
Dominican Republic	1997	7	12	9	5	63	48	96
Venezuela	1990	5	27	15	4	47	39	98
	1994	5	23	19	6	45	31	98

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ For Bolivia (1999), Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic and Venezuela, this category includes establishments employing up to four persons only.

b/ In most cases, the totals amount to less than 100%, since employers, professional and technical wage earners and public-sector employees have not been included.

c/ In 1990, the columns corresponding to establishments employing more than 5 persons and up to 5 persons refer to wage earners with and without a contract of employment ("carteira"), respectively.

d/ Includes wage earners in establishments employing up to five persons.

Table 21

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): EXTENT AND DISTRIBUTION OF POVERTY AND INDIGENCE IN FEMALE-HEADED HOSEHOLDS, URBAN AREAS, 1990-1999									
Country	Year	Percentage of female-headed households at each poverty level				Distribution of female-headed households by poverty level			
		Total	Indigent	Non-indigent poor	Non-poor	Total	Indigent	Non-indigent poor	Non-poor
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	21	26	12	22	100.0	4.3	7.0	88.7
	1994	24	22	20	24	100.0	1.0	7.5	91.1
	1997	26	32	24	26	100.0	4.1	9.0	86.9
	1999	27	37	28	27	100.0	4.2	10.4	85.4
Bolivia	1989	17	23	16	15	100.0	30.2	25.5	44.3
	1994	18	20	17	18	100.0	18.1	27.0	54.9
	1997	21	24	22	19	100.0	22.2	30.0	47.8
	1999	21	24	19	21	100.0	19.2	23.4	57.4
Brazil	1990	20	24	23	18	100.0	16.0	25.1	58.9
	1993	22	23	21	22	100.0	12.3	20.9	66.8
	1996	24	24	22	24	100.0	7.7	15.9	76.4
	1999	25	24	24	26	100.0	6.7	18.3	74.9
Chile	1990	21	25	20	22	100.0	11.7	21.3	67.0
	1994	22	27	21	22	100.0	7.1	16.0	76.8
	1996	23	29	22	23	100.0	5.3	13.6	81.1
	1998	24	28	23	24	100.0	4.9	12.3	82.7
Colombia a/	1991	24	28	22	24	100.0	19.8	27.6	52.6
	1994	24	24	24	24	100.0	16.1	24.0	59.9
	1997	27	32	28	25	100.0	17.5	25.9	56.6
	1999	29	31	27	29	100.0	20.4	24.0	55.6
Costa Rica	1990	23	36	25	21	100.0	10.9	16.5	72.6
	1994	24	42	27	22	100.0	9.8	14.0	76.2
	1997	27	51	36	24	100.0	9.9	15.7	74.4
	1999	28	56	39	25	100.0	10.9	14.1	75.0
Ecuador	1990	17	22	16	15	100.0	28.9	31.2	39.9
	1994	19	23	18	18	100.0	27.3	28.1	44.6
	1997	19	24	19	17	100.0	23.9	31.1	45.0
	1999	20	23	21	18	100.0	30.9	31.4	37.6
El Salvador	1995	31	38	31	29	100.0	15.4	28.1	56.5
	1997	30	36	33	28	100.0	14.2	29.3	56.5
	1999	31	36	36	29	100.0	12.6	25.9	61.5
Guatemala	1989	22	23	21	22	100.0	24.2	24.3	51.5
	1998	24	24	22	25	100.0	12.8	23.4	63.8
Honduras	1990	27	35	21	21	100.0	50.4	21.1	28.5
	1994	25	28	25	21	100.0	45.8	29.2	25.0
	1997	29	32	28	28	100.0	40.3	28.6	31.1
	1999	30	32	30	28	100.0	39.4	28.7	31.9
Mexico	1989	16	14	14	17	100.0	8.2	21.9	69.9
	1994	17	11	16	18	100.0	4.0	21.3	74.7
	1996	18	17	15	19	100.0	9.8	23.0	67.3
	1998	19	18	16	20	100.0	6.3	20.0	73.7
Nicaragua	1993	35	40	34	32	100.0	36.8	27.2	36.1
	1998	35	39	36	30	100.0	34.9	30.2	34.9

Table 21 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): EXTENT AND DISTRIBUTION OF POVERTY AND INDIGENCE IN FEMALE-HEADED HOSEHOLDS, URBAN AREAS, 1990-1999									
Country	Year	Percentage of female-headed households at each poverty level				Distribution of female-headed households by poverty level			
		Total	Indigent	Non-indigent poor	Non-poor	Total	Indigent	Non-indigent poor	Non-poor
Panama	1991	26	34	29	24	100.0	18.0	22.0	60.0
	1994	25	35	25	24	100.0	12.1	16.2	71.7
	1997	28	37	29	26	100.0	11.4	16.7	71.9
	1999	27	45	28	26	100.0	10.8	14.5	74.7
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	20	21	23	18	100.0	11.2	30.5	58.3
	1994	23	20	26	22	100.0	8.4	29.3	62.3
	1996	27	25	26	27	100.0	7.4	24.7	67.9
	1999	27	30	23	29	100.0	7.7	21.9	70.4
Dominican Republic	1997	31	50	31	29	100.0	17.5	20.5	62.0
Uruguay	1990	25	28	22	26	100.0	2.2	8.4	89.4
	1994	27	21	23	27	100.0	0.8	4.0	95.1
	1997	29	27	23	29	100.0	0.8	3.9	95.3
	1999	31	29	26	31	100.0	0.8	4.0	95.2
Venezuela b/	1990	22	40	25	18	100.0	19.6	25.4	55.1
	1994	25	34	28	21	100.0	18.7	30.8	50.5
	1997	26	28	29	24	100.0	18.6	28.4	53.0
	1999	27	34	27	25	100.0	23.8	24.8	51.3

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country.

Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

b/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 22

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVELS AND DISTRIBUTION, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, a/ 1990-1999 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Average income b/	Share of total income of:				Average income b/	Share of total income of:			
			Poorest 40%	Next poorest 30%	20% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%		Poorest 40%	Next poorest 30%	20% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%
Urban areas						Rural areas					
Argentina c/	1990	10.6	14.9	23.6	26.7	34.8
	1997	12.4	14.9	22.3	27.1	35.8
	1999	12.5	15.4	21.6	26.1	37.0
Bolivia	1989 d/	7.7	12.1	22.0	27.9	38.2
	1997	7.2	13.6	22.5	26.9	37.0	3.6	9.8	19.4	28.8	42.0
	1999	7.2	15.2	24.1	28.0	32.7	3.1	6.9	21.3	33.6	38.3
Brazil	1990	10.4	10.3	19.4	28.5	41.8	4.7	14.5	21.3	26.1	38.2
	1996	13.6	10.5	18.1	27.0	44.3	6.8	13.4	23.3	23.7	39.6
	1999	12.3	10.6	17.7	26.1	45.7	6.7	14.0	23.1	22.8	40.2
Chile	1990	9.4	13.4	21.2	26.2	39.2	9.7	13.8	20.4	20.6	45.1
	1996	13.5	13.4	20.9	26.4	39.4	9.4	16.8	24.3	23.4	35.6
	2000	14.1	14.0	20.9	25.4	39.7	10.6	16.9	24.5	22.4	36.1
Colombia	1994	9.0	11.6	20.4	26.1	41.9	5.7	10.0	23.3	32.2	34.6
	1997	8.4	12.9	21.4	26.1	39.5	5.3	15.4	26.3	28.2	30.1
	1999	7.3	12.6	21.9	26.6	38.8	5.6	13.9	24.7	25.9	35.5
Costa Rica	1990	9.6	17.8	28.7	28.9	24.6	9.3	17.6	28.0	29.9	24.5
	1997	10.5	17.3	27.6	28.4	26.8	9.6	17.3	27.9	28.9	25.9
	1999	11.9	16.2	26.8	29.9	27.2	10.9	15.8	26.7	29.3	28.2
Ecuador	1990	5.5	17.1	25.4	27.0	30.5
	1997	6.0	17.0	24.7	26.4	31.9
	1999	5.6	14.1	22.8	26.5	36.6
El Salvador	1995	6.9	17.3	25.1	25.8	31.7	5.1	17.0	29.6	27.3	26.1
	1997	7.1	17.2	24.8	26.9	31.1	4.7	19.4	28.6	27.3	24.7
	1999	7.7	16.3	25.9	28.6	29.2	4.9	15.6	28.8	29.8	25.9
Guatemala	1989	7.7	12.1	22.6	27.4	37.9	5.0	14.4	24.7	25.7	35.1
	1998	8.8	14.7	22.0	26.0	37.5	6.2	15.2	21.8	25.2	37.9
Honduras	1990	5.5	12.2	20.8	28.1	38.9	3.3	13.1	22.1	27.3	37.4
	1997	4.7	14.3	22.8	26.1	36.8	3.6	14.4	24.6	27.5	33.5
	1999	4.6	14.3	24.0	27.9	33.9	3.3	13.9	23.9	29.1	33.0
Mexico	1989	9.6	16.3	22.0	24.9	36.9	6.7	18.7	26.5	27.4	27.4
	1994	9.7	16.8	22.8	26.1	34.3	6.6	20.1	25.3	27.6	27.0
	1998	8.6	17.2	22.3	25.7	34.8	6.2	18.0	23.7	26.8	31.5
Nicaragua	1993	6.1	12.9	23.6	26.9	36.5	3.9	12.4	24.3	30.0	33.4
	1998	6.4	12.3	22.3	26.4	39.1	4.5	10.8	24.1	27.8	37.3
Panama	1991	9.5	13.3	23.9	28.6	34.2	7.3	15.0	23.7	25.7	35.6
	1997	12.0	13.3	22.4	27.0	37.3	8.6	14.9	22.4	25.0	37.7
	1999	12.2	14.2	23.9	26.8	35.1	8.3	16.2	22.1	23.8	37.8

Table 22 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVELS AND DISTRIBUTION, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, a/ 1990-1999 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Average income b/	Share of total income of:				Average income b/	Share of total income of:			
			Poorest 40%	Next poorest 30%	20% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%		Poorest 40%	Next poorest 30%	20% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%
Urban areas						Rural areas					
Paraguay	1990 e/	7.7	18.6	25.7	26.9	28.9
	1996	7.4	16.7	24.6	25.3	33.4
	1999	7.1	16.5	24.9	25.8	32.8	5.0	15.1	21.2	24.3	39.4
Dominican Republic	1997	9.0	14.8	23.8	25.8	35.5	7.7	16.5	25.7	25.2	32.6
Uruguay	1990	9.3	20.1	24.6	24.1	31.2
	1997	11.2	22.0	26.1	26.1	25.8
	1999	11.9	21.6	25.5	25.9	27.0
Venezuela	1990	9.1	16.8	26.1	28.8	28.4	7.7	19.8	28.6	27.8	23.8

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys of the respective countries.

a/ Households of each area arranged in order of per capita income.

b/ Average monthly household income in multiples of the per capita poverty line.

c/ Greater Buenos Aires.

d/ Eight major cities and El Alto.

e/ Asunción metropolitan area.

Table 23

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION ^{a/} , URBAN AREAS, 1990-1999							
Country	Year	Percentage of persons with per capita income of less than:		Concentration indices			
		average	50% of average	Gini b/	Logarithm variance	Theil	Atkinson
Argentina ^{c/}	1990	70.6	39.1	0.501	0.982	0.555	0.570
	1997	72.1	43.4	0.530	1.143	0.601	0.607
	1999	72.5	44.2	0.542	1.183	0.681	0.623
Bolivia	1989 ^{d/}	71.9	44.1	0.538	1.528	0.574	0.771
	1997	72.5	43.0	0.531	1.772	0.573	0.627
	1999	70.4	40.2	0.504	1.131	0.487	0.680
Brazil	1990	74.7	52.2	0.606	1.690	0.748	0.749
	1996	75.7	53.1	0.620	1.735	0.815	0.728
	1999	76.5	53.8	0.625	1.742	0.865	0.729
Chile	1990	73.8	45.1	0.542	1.204	0.600	0.663
	1996	73.5	45.7	0.544	1.206	0.604	0.662
	2000	74.7	45.9	0.553	1.246	0.643	0.654
Colombia	1994	74.6	48.1	0.579	1.491	0.749	0.724
	1997	73.8	46.5	0.577	1.571	0.714	0.866
	1999	74.2	46.1	0.564	1.312	0.707	0.701
Costa Rica	1990	63.6	29.6	0.419	0.727	0.295	0.493
	1997	65.3	32.2	0.429	0.779	0.323	0.507
	1999	66.3	34.5	0.454	0.881	0.356	0.538
Ecuador	1990	69.6	33.8	0.461	0.823	0.403	0.591
	1997	68.9	34.8	0.469	0.832	0.409	0.510
	1999	72.1	42.0	0.521	1.075	0.567	0.597
El Salvador	1995	69.5	34.3	0.466	0.836	0.428	0.526
	1997	70.0	34.6	0.467	0.864	0.428	0.523
	1999	68.0	35.7	0.462	1.002	0.388	0.768
Guatemala	1989	72.2	45.6	0.558	1.377	0.640	0.679
	1998	74.6	43.4	0.543	1.131	0.670	0.602
Honduras	1990	73.1	46.6	0.561	1.397	0.661	0.679
	1997	71.8	40.9	0.527	1.142	0.578	0.650
	1999	70.8	41.6	0.518	1.138	0.528	0.630
Mexico	1989	75.2	42.5	0.530	1.031	0.678	0.583
	1994	73.6	41.6	0.512	0.934	0.544	0.534
	1998	73.2	41.5	0.507	0.901	0.578	0.530
Nicaragua	1993	71.4	42.6	0.549	1.256	0.595	0.661
	1998	72.3	43.4	0.551	1.271	0.673	0.689
Panama	1991	70.3	44.2	0.545	1.312	0.577	0.656
	1997	71.8	45.6	0.552	1.362	0.632	0.673
	1999	71.4	43.8	0.533	1.223	0.558	0.629

Table 23 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION ^{a/} , URBAN AREAS, 1990-1999							
Country	Year	Percentage of persons with per capita income of less than:		Concentration indices			
		average	50% of average	Gini ^{b/}	Logarithm variance	Theil	Atkinson
Paraguay	1990 ^{e/}	69.2	33.4	0.447	0.737	0.365	0.468
	1996	72.9	37.9	0.493	0.916	0.515	0.544
	1999	70.0	39.1	0.497	0.997	0.490	0.575
Dominican Republic	1997	71.9	39.5	0.509	1.003	0.538	0.574
Uruguay	1990	73.2	36.8	0.492	0.812	0.699	0.519
	1997	66.8	31.3	0.430	0.730	0.336	0.475
	1999	67.1	32.2	0.440	0.764	0.354	0.483
Venezuela	1990	67.7	34.4	0.464	0.903	0.403	0.538

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ Calculated on the basis of the per capita income distribution for persons in urban areas.

b/ Includes persons with no source of income.

c/ Greater Buenos Aires.

d/ Eight major cities and El Alto.

e/ Asunción metropolitan area.

Table 24

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION, a/ RURAL AREAS, 1990-1999							
Country	Year	Percentage of persons with per capita income of less than:		Concentration indices			
		average	50% of average	Gini b/	Logarithm variance	Theil	Atkinson
Bolivia	1997	75.4	53.6	0.637	2.133	0.951	0.788
	1999	71.3	52.9	0.640	2.772	0.809	0.846
Brazil	1990	72.5	45.5	0.548	1.266	0.627	0.704
	1996	73.1	47.6	0.578	1.424	0.727	0.675
	1999	73.8	47.4	0.577	1.357	0.773	0.662
Chile	1990	79.0	47.9	0.578	1.269	0.854	0.663
	1996	73.9	36.2	0.492	0.887	0.542	0.554
	2000	74.5	38.7	0.511	0.956	0.669	0.576
Colombia	1994	69.8	45.5	0.570	2.047	0.621	0.806
	1997	73.8	46.5	0.577	1.571	0.714	0.866
	1999	72.1	39.5	0.525	1.291	0.626	0.963
Costa Rica	1990	63.3	27.9	0.419	0.771	0.301	0.518
	1997	65.7	30.4	0.426	0.757	0.316	0.498
	1999	66.8	33.0	0.457	0.895	0.377	0.551
El Salvador	1995	64.4	29.9	0.442	0.961	0.352	0.656
	1997	66.3	31.0	0.423	0.670	0.343	0.441
	1999	64.8	34.0	0.462	1.302	0.382	0.768
Guatemala	1989	72.6	37.6	0.513	1.076	0.593	0.620
	1998	74.1	43.7	0.523	0.934	0.707	0.550
Honduras	1990	73.9	45.6	0.558	1.326	0.692	0.658
	1997	70.9	38.7	0.504	1.083	0.520	0.630
	1999	69.8	39.8	0.512	1.244	0.516	0.695
Mexico	1989	68.8	33.5	0.453	0.769	0.401	0.490
	1994	69.5	34.9	0.451	0.720	0.385	0.458
	1998	70.2	41.5	0.486	0.846	0.467	0.506
Nicaragua	1993	69.2	41.6	0.536	1.348	0.553	0.790
	1998	68.2	42.4	0.558	1.765	0.598	0.819
Panama	1991	72.9	44.0	0.535	1.083	0.949	0.588
	1997	74.1	45.4	0.555	1.211	0.696	0.627
	1999	74.0	44.5	0.540	1.089	0.720	0.597
Paraguay	1999	74.1	47.1	0.570	1.389	0.839	0.684
Dominican Republic	1997	69.8	36.2	0.483	0.940	0.484	0.570
Venezuela	1990	67.0	31.3	0.431	0.724	0.348	0.468

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ Calculated on the basis of the per capita income distribution for persons in urban areas.

b/ Includes persons with no source of income.

Table 25

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999									
(Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	7.6		77.3	15.0
	1990	3.3		78.6	18.2
	1994	3.9		77.2	18.9
	1999	2.5	40.6	41.5	15.5
Bolivia	1997	11.9	31.1	44.4	12.6	48.3	34.9	15.3	1.5
	1999	7.2	25.8	48.1	18.9	47.4	30.5	21.1	1.0
Brazil	1979	48.2	34.6	14.1	3.1	86.8	9.7	1.9	1.6
	1990	41.0	37.5	18.2	3.3	79.0	16.9	3.7	0.3
	1993	40.7	38.9	17.6	2.8	77.9	17.4	4.3	0.3
	1999	27.0	42.7	26.7	3.7	62.8	27.2	9.5	0.5
Chile	1990	5.6	33.1	45.5	15.8	16.9	56.5	22.6	4.1
	1994	4.2	31.2	46.4	18.2	14.4	54.8	26.1	4.7
	1998	3.1	31.5	47.4	18.0	10.7	52.1	32.3	4.9
Colombia b/	1980	31.2	40.9	21.1	6.8
	1990	19.6	40.4	31.0	9.0
	1991	21.8	37.9	29.7	10.6	60.1	25.7	13.6	0.5
	1994	17.7	37.9	35.9	8.4	55.8	29.5	14.0	0.7
	1999	14.6	32.4	43.2	9.8	46.2	30.7	21.8	1.3
Costa Rica	1981	7.3	50.5	33.9	8.2	19.8	64.7	13.8	1.7
	1990	9.1	50.1	29.8	10.9	20.0	64.5	13.6	2.0
	1994	8.6	49.6	30.9	10.9	21.2	64.3	12.3	2.2
	1999	8.5	50.8	28.3	12.4	18.5	61.9	15.9	3.7
Ecuador	1990	5.8	45.9	37.0	11.4
	1994	4.8	42.3	39.5	13.4
	1999	6.0	41.0	39.5	13.6
El Salvador	1995	20.6	41.4	28.8	9.2	60.4	31.2	7.3	1.1
	1999	15.6	38.7	33.5	12.2	49.7	38.5	10.0	1.9
Guatemala	1989	33.9	42.6	19.2	4.3	75.9	21.8	2.1	0.2
	1998	25.3	43.5	24.3	6.9	67.3	29.1	3.4	0.2
Honduras	1990	24.1	55.7	15.3	5.0	57.6	39.8	2.3	0.3
	1994	20.5	56.1	17.3	6.0	45.9	49.3	4.4	0.4
	1999	16.3	57.7	19.9	6.2	45.5	49.1	5.2	0.3
Mexico a/	1989	8.3	60.5	22.1	9.1	31.4	59.2	7.7	1.7
	1994	7.5	57.5	24.4	10.6	25.8	65.1	8.0	1.1
	1998	6.0	55.2	24.3	12.3	21.6	62.3	12.7	3.0
Nicaragua	1993	24.6	53.8	19.5	2.1	68.9	26.5	4.3	0.3
	1998	21.7	50.5	22.2	5.5	61.2	32.6	5.3	0.9
Panama	1979	6.3	49.1	35.5	9.1	20.5	61.3	16.2	1.9
	1991	6.3	42.7	39.5	11.5	15.6	57.3	23.6	3.5
	1994	5.0	45.9	36.4	12.6	16.4	56.3	23.3	4.0
	1999	3.9	40.8	39.1	16.2	12.9	55.4	26.3	5.4

Table 25 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	10.6	50.9	31.1	7.5
	1990	7.3	46.7	36.8	9.3
	1994	7.9	49.0	34.8	8.3
	1999	5.4	44.3	40.2	10.2	29.0	56.5	12.3	2.2
Dominican Republic	1997	20.2	39.7	29.7	10.4	41.2	39.6	17.1	2.1
Uruguay	1981	7.4	55.5	31.8	5.3
	1990	3.7	52.6	35.4	8.3
	1994	3.5	51.1	37.6	7.8
	1999	2.8	48.6	39.4	9.2
Venezuela <i>c/</i>	1981	13.5	58.5	20.4	7.7	46.1	46.4	6.8	0.7
	1990	10.3	56.5	23.6	9.6	39.0	51.3	8.5	1.2
	1994	10.2	48.2	28.8	12.8	38.2	48.4	10.9	2.5
	1999	10.7	48.2	27.3	13.8

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

- a/ Information allowing the calculation of the number of years of schooling became available in 1996 in Mexico and 1997 in Argentina. Previous figures correspond to estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary schooling, complete primary and incomplete secondary, complete secondary, and higher education.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.
- c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 25.1

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): MALE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	7.6		78.9	13.5
	1990	3.1		81.6	15.3
	1994	4.8		80.1	15.0
	1999	2.5	46.0	39.9	11.7
Bolivia	1997	9.2	31.3	46.6	12.9	40.0	39.1	19.8	1.1
	1999	5.3	24.8	51.5	18.5	40.2	32.8	25.6	1.4
Brazil	1979	49.2	34.6	13.1	3.1	87.0	9.5	1.6	2.0
	1990	44.4	37.0	15.8	2.9	81.7	15.6	2.6	0.2
	1993	44.8	37.4	15.5	2.2	81.0	15.6	3.2	0.2
	1999	30.7	42.9	23.4	3.0	68.1	23.7	7.8	0.4
Chile	1990	6.0	33.5	45.6	14.9	18.8	57.0	20.5	3.6
	1994	4.5	32.1	45.6	17.8	16.2	55.5	24.1	4.1
	1998	3.4	33.4	46.6	16.7	11.3	54.7	29.8	4.2
Colombia b/	1980	29.5	42.7	21.3	6.6
	1990	18.2	42.5	30.7	8.6
	1991	22.1	39.8	28.4	9.7	64.3	23.5	11.6	0.5
	1994	18.1	39.0	35.1	7.8	60.3	28.3	10.9	0.5
	1999	15.0	34.0	42.2	8.9	50.2	29.7	19.1	1.0
Costa Rica	1981	7.8	52.4	31.6	8.2	19.6	65.8	12.7	1.9
	1990	10.5	50.1	28.6	10.8	22.3	63.7	12.2	1.8
	1994	9.4	47.9	31.5	11.2	22.4	64.7	11.0	1.9
	1999	9.5	52.0	26.8	11.6	19.3	63.3	13.6	3.7
Ecuador	1990	6.7	48.9	33.9	10.6
	1994	4.9	42.9	39.9	12.3
	1999	6.0	43.7	39.2	11.0
El Salvador	1995	20.7	43.5	26.7	9.1	61.1	31.5	6.7	0.7
	1999	16.0	38.7	32.8	12.4	48.6	40.6	9.0	1.8
Guatemala	1989	27.6	47.5	18.6	6.2	70.8	26.5	2.5	0.2
	1998	24.3	45.8	21.8	8.1	61.1	34.8	3.9	0.1
Honduras	1990	23.8	57.3	14.6	4.3	60.2	38.2	1.6	0.1
	1994	21.4	56.2	15.9	6.5	48.2	47.9	3.5	0.4
	1999	17.7	58.8	18.5	5.0	46.7	49.0	4.2	0.1
Mexico a/	1989	7.6	58.1	23.8	10.5	31.4	58.6	8.4	1.5
	1994	7.1	56.1	25.2	11.5	27.4	63.5	7.9	1.2
	1998	6.2	55.5	25.3	12.4	19.9	62.6	13.6	3.4
Nicaragua	1993	26.0	54.2	17.7	2.1	72.1	23.3	4.4	0.2
	1998	24.0	50.7	20.6	4.7	65.7	30.1	3.5	0.8
Panama	1979	6.5	52.6	32.3	8.6	20.3	63.5	14.6	1.6
	1991	7.2	47.1	36.0	9.7	17.8	58.2	21.2	2.8
	1994	5.6	49.5	34.8	10.1	18.2	59.1	19.9	2.8
	1999	4.3	43.9	37.9	13.8	14.8	59.4	21.9	3.9

Table 25.1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): MALE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	7.7	52.3	31.2	8.8
	1990	5.6	46.6	38.8	9.1
	1994	7.4	47.5	37.2	7.8
	1999	5.3	43.1	42.8	8.8	30.4	56.0	11.8	1.7
Dominican Republic	1997	24.5	39.2	27.5	8.8	46.6	36.7	14.5	2.1
Uruguay	1981	8.8	57.4	28.7	5.1
	1990	4.0	57.3	31.8	6.9
	1994	4.1	56.5	33.2	6.2
	1999	3.3	55.4	34.2	7.2
Venezuela <i>c/</i>	1981	15.3	59.0	18.6	7.1	49.0	44.5	6.0	0.5
	1990	11.9	58.4	21.1	8.6	44.4	48.8	6.0	0.8
	1994	12.2	51.0	26.0	10.8	43.5	45.2	9.7	1.6
	1999	13.5	51.4	24.7	10.4

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ Information allowing the calculation of the number of years of schooling became available in 1996 in Mexico and 1997 in Argentina.

Previous figures correspond to estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary schooling, complete primary and incomplete secondary, complete secondary, and higher education.

b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.

c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 25.2

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): FEMALE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	7.7		75.9	16.5
	1990	3.4		75.2	21.3
	1994	3.0		74.1	22.9
	1999	2.4	35.4	43.0	19.1
Bolivia	1997	14.5	30.9	42.3	12.4	56.9	30.5	10.8	1.8
	1999	9.0	26.9	44.9	19.2	55.0	28.1	16.4	0.5
Brazil	1979	47.3	34.5	15.0	3.2	86.6	9.9	2.2	1.3
	1990	37.9	38.0	20.4	3.7	76.1	18.5	5.0	0.4
	1993	36.8	40.3	19.5	3.4	74.3	19.5	5.7	0.4
	1999	23.4	42.4	29.9	4.3	56.7	31.1	11.5	0.7
Chile	1990	5.3	32.6	45.4	16.7	14.7	55.9	24.7	4.6
	1994	3.8	30.3	47.2	18.6	12.5	54.0	28.2	5.3
	1998	2.9	29.6	48.2	19.3	10.2	49.2	35.0	5.7
Colombia b/	1980	32.5	39.5	21.0	7.0
	1990	20.8	38.7	31.2	9.3
	1991	21.5	36.3	30.8	11.4	55.9	28.0	15.6	0.5
	1994	17.4	37.1	36.6	8.9	50.9	30.8	17.4	0.8
	1999	14.3	31.1	44.0	10.6	41.8	31.8	24.8	1.7
Costa Rica	1981	6.9	48.7	36.2	8.2	19.9	63.7	14.8	1.6
	1990	7.7	50.1	31.1	11.1	17.4	65.4	15.0	2.2
	1994	7.7	51.4	30.3	10.6	19.8	63.9	13.8	2.5
	1999	7.5	49.7	29.7	13.1	17.8	60.5	18.1	3.6
Ecuador	1990	5.0	43.1	39.8	12.1
	1994	4.8	41.8	39.2	14.3
	1999	5.9	38.3	39.8	16.0
El Salvador	1995	20.5	39.6	30.6	9.3	59.7	30.9	7.8	1.5
	1999	15.3	38.7	34.1	12.0	50.8	36.4	11.0	1.9
Guatemala	1989	38.9	38.7	19.6	2.8	80.8	17.4	1.7	0.2
	1998	26.2	41.5	26.6	5.8	73.2	23.7	2.8	0.3
Honduras	1990	24.2	54.4	15.9	5.5	55.0	41.5	3.1	0.4
	1994	19.8	56.0	18.5	5.6	43.4	50.8	5.3	0.4
	1999	15.2	56.7	21.1	7.1	44.2	49.2	6.3	0.4
Mexico a/	1989	8.9	62.7	20.5	7.8	31.4	59.8	6.9	1.9
	1994	7.8	58.8	23.6	9.8	24.3	66.7	8.1	0.9
	1998	5.8	54.9	23.4	12.3	23.2	62.0	11.7	2.6
Nicaragua	1993	23.4	53.4	21.1	2.1	65.7	29.8	4.3	0.3
	1998	19.7	50.3	23.7	6.3	56.4	35.4	7.2	1.0
Panama	1979	6.1	46.1	38.2	9.6	20.8	58.6	18.2	2.3
	1991	5.4	38.4	42.9	13.3	12.9	56.2	26.5	4.4
	1994	4.5	42.3	38.0	15.2	14.4	53.0	27.2	5.4
	1999	3.5	37.7	40.3	18.5	10.8	51.1	31.2	7.0

Table 25.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): FEMALE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	12.4	49.9	31.0	6.7
	1990	8.7	46.7	35.1	9.4
	1994	8.3	50.2	32.8	8.7
	1999	5.4	45.2	38.0	11.4	27.4	57.0	12.9	2.6
Dominican Republic	1997	16.7	40.1	31.5	11.6	35.2	42.7	20.0	2.1
Uruguay	1981	6.1	53.9	34.6	5.5
	1990	3.3	48.0	38.9	9.7
	1994	2.8	45.8	42.0	9.4
	1999	2.3	41.6	44.8	11.3
Venezuela <i>c/</i>	1981	11.8	58.0	22.0	8.2	42.2	48.8	7.9	1.0
	1990	8.7	54.5	26.2	10.6	32.5	54.3	11.5	1.7
	1994	8.3	45.3	31.6	14.8	32.0	52.1	12.4	3.5
	1999	7.7	44.9	30.0	17.4

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ Information allowing the calculation of the number of years of schooling became available in 1996 in Mexico and 1997 in Argentina.

Previous figures correspond to estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary schooling, complete primary and incomplete secondary, complete secondary, and higher education.

b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.

c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 26

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	21.6	67.4		11.1
	1990	12.4	69.6		18.0
	1994	10.3	70.7		19.0
	1999	8.5	38.2	30.6	22.7
Bolivia	1997	34.1	17.3	28.4	20.3	78.3	12.2	5.8	3.8
	1999	27.9	19.9	23.7	28.5	79.4	12.6	4.8	3.2
Brazil	1979	70.0	12.6	10.0	7.3	96.0	1.9	1.0	1.0
	1990	55.5	17.1	16.8	10.7	89.2	6.3	3.7	0.8
	1993	53.4	19.0	17.7	10.0	88.3	6.8	3.9	1.0
	1999	45.3	21.6	21.8	11.3	82.6	10.2	5.8	1.4
Chile	1990	15.7	29.4	34.6	20.3	43.7	37.5	13.1	5.7
	1994	14.0	24.2	39.0	22.8	39.6	38.7	15.8	5.9
	1998	10.8	24.4	39.0	25.7	36.8	42.3	15.8	5.1
Colombia b/	1980	52.4	22.3	13.7	11.6
	1990	37.4	23.4	23.1	16.1
	1991	39.9	23.0	21.3	15.8	78.2	12.4	7.3	2.1
	1994	35.9	22.9	25.3	15.9	76.2	12.0	9.5	2.4
	1999	33.3	21.5	27.6	17.6	72.8	12.5	10.9	3.9
Costa Rica	1981	27.2	41.5	17.8	13.5	58.1	33.5	5.8	2.6
	1990	16.7	40.5	22.1	20.7	40.0	44.8	10.6	4.5
	1994	14.1	39.5	24.9	21.5	34.8	49.2	10.7	5.3
	1999	12.7	41.1	22.5	23.7	28.8	52.0	11.7	7.5
Ecuador	1990	16.1	43.0	21.9	19.0
	1994	11.7	39.8	24.6	24.0
	1999	11.5	37.2	27.1	24.2
El Salvador	1995	35.8	30.2	19.7	14.3	80.2	16.3	2.6	0.9
	1999	30.6	29.8	22.0	17.7	75.2	19.6	3.7	1.5
Guatemala	1989	51.5	26.6	13.8	8.1	90.7	7.3	1.5	0.5
	1998	42.4	29.9	17.5	10.2	87.1	10.2	2.3	0.5
Honduras	1990	42.7	31.0	18.2	8.1	81.4	15.9	2.5	0.2
	1994	35.1	34.4	22.0	8.5	69.9	25.1	4.5	0.5
	1999	31.4	36.6	21.0	11.0	69.3	24.8	5.0	0.9
Mexico a/	1989	29.5	47.2	9.6	13.7	70.0	25.1	2.3	2.6
	1994	23.0	48.4	11.8	16.8	63.3	31.4	3.4	1.9
	1998	19.7	49.0	13.1	16.8	51.9	38.0	4.6	2.9
Nicaragua	1993	41.4	34.1	15.9	8.7	81.7	15.0	2.1	1.1
	1998	36.5	35.2	14.0	14.4	75.9	16.6	4.1	3.4
Panama	1979	18.2	47.8	20.5	13.5	57.4	36.6	4.4	1.7
	1991	13.8	39.6	25.1	21.6	37.6	43.9	12.3	6.1
	1994	11.2	39.9	26.6	22.3	35.0	44.8	13.2	6.9
	1999	8.0	38.7	27.8	25.4	27.2	48.4	16.1	8.3

Table 26 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	21.6	37.5	23.3	17.6
	1990	16.9	40.5	28.1	14.6
	1994	17.9	42.1	22.9	17.1
	1999	13.1	45.4	23.8	17.6	59.1	34.0	4.6	2.3
Dominican Republic	1997	32.0	26.9	25.5	15.6	62.1	25.2	9.9	2.7
Uruguay	1981	26.6	46.4	18.2	8.8
	1990	17.2	46.3	23.6	12.8
	1994	14.5	46.3	25.3	13.8
	1999	9.2	47.8	27.4	15.6
Venezuela ^{c/}	1981	29.9	49.4	11.9	8.7	73.5	22.8	2.8	0.9
	1990	19.4	48.3	17.8	14.5	61.0	32.4	5.2	1.4
	1994	18.5	45.8	20.2	15.5	54.0	36.3	7.0	2.8
	1999	18.6	45.2	20.0	16.3

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ Information allowing the calculation of the number of years of schooling became available in 1996 in Mexico and 1997 in Argentina.

Previous figures correspond to estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary schooling, complete primary and incomplete secondary, complete secondary, and higher education.

b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.

c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 26.1

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): MALE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	20.9		66.1	13.1
	1990	11.2		70.1	18.7
	1994	9.1		71.9	19.1
	1999	8.1	39.8	31.4	20.7
Bolivia	1997	25.1	18.4	32.3	24.2	71.3	15.6	7.9	5.2
	1999	19.4	21.1	27.0	32.6	69.9	19.0	6.9	4.3
Brazil	1979	67.9	13.7	9.7	8.6	95.9	2.0	1.0	1.1
	1990	54.6	17.8	16.6	11.0	89.0	6.6	3.4	0.9
	1993	52.8	19.7	17.4	10.1	88.4	6.9	3.7	1.0
	1999	45.7	22.6	20.6	11.1	83.5	10.3	5.0	1.3
Chile	1990	13.8	28.5	35.3	22.4	42.9	38.5	12.9	5.7
	1994	12.9	23.6	39.5	24.0	38.3	40.4	15.1	6.2
	1998	9.9	23.5	39.7	27.0	36.2	43.3	15.9	4.6
Colombia b/	1980	48.8	21.0	13.8	16.4
	1990	34.6	22.8	23.3	19.2
	1991	36.9	23.0	21.6	18.5	78.0	12.4	7.3	2.2
	1994	33.8	22.8	25.4	18.0	76.9	11.4	9.2	2.6
	1999	31.8	21.2	27.4	19.6	73.9	12.1	10.3	3.7
Costa Rica	1981	25.4	40.3	18.4	15.8	55.5	35.9	5.9	2.7
	1990	15.0	40.1	22.1	22.9	38.1	46.6	10.7	4.7
	1994	13.4	38.3	24.5	23.7	34.3	49.9	10.3	5.5
	1999	11.7	41.8	22.0	24.5	28.2	53.2	11.3	7.3
Ecuador	1990	14.0	43.4	20.6	22.1
	1994	10.1	39.7	23.7	26.5
	1999	10.1	37.8	25.8	26.3
El Salvador	1995	29.4	32.8	20.4	17.3	75.0	20.6	3.4	1.0
	1999	25.4	31.8	22.5	20.3	70.2	24.0	4.3	1.5
Guatemala	1989	45.3	29.9	13.9	10.9	87.9	9.9	1.6	0.6
	1998	34.2	34.6	17.9	13.3	82.2	14.1	3.1	0.6
Honduras	1990	39.7	32.9	17.2	10.2	81.0	16.5	2.2	0.3
	1994	32.3	34.3	21.9	11.5	69.0	26.8	3.6	0.6
	1999	29.3	38.2	18.7	13.8	71.2	23.1	4.7	1.0
Mexico a/	1989	25.3	43.9	10.7	20.1	66.8	25.7	3.6	3.9
	1994	19.8	45.5	12.3	22.4	59.7	33.0	4.4	2.9
	1998	17.2	44.3	15.7	20.9	47.5	38.2	5.4	3.6
Nicaragua	1993	36.6	37.4	15.3	10.6	80.3	15.9	2.1	1.6
	1998	32.3	38.0	13.9	15.8	75.8	17.5	3.4	3.3
Panama	1979	17.6	46.8	20.4	15.1	56.5	37.3	4.5	1.7
	1991	13.9	40.3	24.5	21.3	37.3	45.0	12.1	5.5
	1994	11.4	40.4	26.4	21.7	35.4	46.5	11.7	6.4
	1999	7.8	40.3	27.7	24.3	27.4	50.8	14.6	7.1

Table 26.1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): MALE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	17.4	37.6	23.7	21.3
	1990	15.1	40.6	28.3	16.0
	1994	15.7	42.2	23.3	18.8
	1999	11.1	44.4	26.0	18.4	56.3	36.1	5.3	2.2
Dominican Republic	1997	31.6	27.9	25.8	14.7	60.2	27.0	9.8	2.9
Uruguay	1981	26.6	47.4	18.3	7.7
	1990	17.5	47.4	23.4	11.7
	1994	14.7	47.7	25.7	11.9
	1999	9.8	50.2	26.6	13.4
Venezuela <i>c/</i>	1981	26.0	50.9	12.1	11.1	70.9	25.0	2.9	1.2
	1990	17.5	49.6	17.4	15.5	58.9	34.5	5.1	1.6
	1994	17.3	46.5	19.7	16.4	53.6	37.4	6.2	2.8
	1999	18.4	47.1	19.7	14.8

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

- a/ Information allowing the calculation of the number of years of schooling became available in 1996 in Mexico and 1997 in Argentina. Previous figures correspond to estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary schooling, complete primary and incomplete secondary, complete secondary, and higher education.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.
- c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 26.2

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): FEMALE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	22.3	68.3		9.4
	1990	13.5	69.1		17.4
	1994	11.4	69.7		19.0
	1999	8.8	36.8	29.9	24.6
Bolivia	1997	42.0	16.3	24.9	16.8	85.3	8.8	3.6	2.3
	1999	35.6	18.8	20.8	24.8	88.2	6.6	2.9	2.2
Brazil	1979	72.0	11.6	10.3	6.1	96.2	1.8	1.1	0.9
	1990	56.2	16.4	17.0	10.3	89.4	5.9	3.9	0.8
	1993	53.9	18.4	17.9	9.8	88.1	6.7	4.2	1.0
	1999	45.0	20.6	22.9	11.5	81.7	10.2	6.6	1.6
Chile	1990	17.4	30.1	34.0	18.5	44.5	36.4	13.4	5.8
	1994	15.0	24.7	38.5	21.8	40.9	37.0	16.5	5.6
	1998	11.7	25.3	38.5	24.5	37.4	41.2	15.8	5.6
Colombia b/	1980	55.5	23.5	13.7	7.4
	1990	39.9	23.9	22.9	13.3
	1991	42.3	23.0	21.1	13.6	78.4	12.4	7.3	2.0
	1994	37.6	23.0	25.3	14.2	75.5	12.6	9.7	2.2
	1999	34.6	21.8	27.7	16.0	71.5	12.9	11.5	4.1
Costa Rica	1981	28.7	42.6	17.3	11.4	60.9	31.1	5.6	2.5
	1990	18.2	40.9	22.1	18.9	42.0	43.0	10.6	4.4
	1994	14.8	40.4	25.3	19.5	35.3	48.5	11.1	5.1
	1999	13.6	40.4	22.9	23.0	29.5	50.8	12.1	7.7
Ecuador	1990	18.0	42.7	23.1	16.2
	1994	13.1	39.8	25.4	21.7
	1999	12.8	36.6	28.3	22.3
El Salvador	1995	40.7	28.2	19.1	12.0	84.7	12.6	1.9	0.7
	1999	34.7	28.2	21.5	15.6	79.5	15.9	3.1	1.5
Guatemala	1989	56.7	23.9	13.7	5.8	93.4	4.9	1.3	0.3
	1998	49.0	26.2	17.1	7.6	91.3	6.8	1.5	0.4
Honduras	1990	45.1	29.6	18.9	6.4	81.8	15.4	2.7	...
	1994	37.4	34.5	22.1	6.0	70.8	23.5	5.3	0.5
	1999	33.1	35.4	22.8	8.7	67.6	26.3	5.3	0.9
Mexico a/	1989	33.3	50.1	8.6	8.1	72.9	24.6	1.1	1.4
	1994	25.9	51.0	11.3	11.9	66.6	29.9	2.5	1.1
	1998	22.0	53.1	10.7	13.1	55.9	37.8	3.9	2.2
Nicaragua	1993	45.5	31.1	16.3	7.0	83.1	14.1	2.1	0.6
	1998	39.9	32.9	14.0	13.3	76.0	15.7	4.8	3.5
Panama	1979	18.6	48.6	20.6	12.1	58.3	35.9	4.2	1.6
	1991	13.7	39.0	25.6	21.8	37.9	42.7	12.6	6.7
	1994	10.9	39.5	26.8	22.8	34.6	43.1	14.7	7.5
	1999	8.3	37.3	27.9	26.5	26.9	45.9	17.6	9.5

Table 26.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): FEMALE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	25.4	37.5	22.9	14.3
	1990	18.4	40.3	27.9	13.3
	1994	19.8	42.0	22.6	15.6
	1999	15.0	46.2	21.8	16.9	62.0	31.7	3.9	2.4
Dominican Republic	1997	32.3	26.0	25.3	16.4	64.1	23.4	10.0	2.5
Uruguay	1981	26.6	45.6	18.1	9.7
	1990	17.0	45.4	23.9	13.7
	1994	14.4	45.2	25.0	15.4
	1999	8.7	45.6	28.2	17.6
Venezuela <i>c/</i>	1981	33.6	48.1	11.7	6.6	76.5	20.1	2.7	0.6
	1990	21.3	46.9	18.1	13.6	63.5	30.0	5.4	1.1
	1994	19.6	45.1	20.7	14.6	54.4	35.0	7.9	2.8
	1999	18.7	43.3	20.2	17.7

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

- a/ Information allowing the calculation of the number of years of schooling became available in 1996 in Mexico and 1997 in Argentina. Previous figures correspond to estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary schooling, complete primary and incomplete secondary, complete secondary, and higher education.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.
- c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 27

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION OF 15 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	17.8		67.2	15.0
	1990	13.1		69.0	17.9
	1994	8.1		70.2	21.7
	1999	7.3	35.9	32.7	24.2
Bolivia	1997	31.7	19.7	30.8	17.8	74.5	15.9	6.7	2.8
	1999	23.3	22.7	28.8	25.2	74.5	15.1	7.9	2.4
Brazil	1979	60.9	19.2	12.4	7.6	93.2	4.0	1.3	1.4
	1990	47.5	24.3	18.4	9.8	85.0	10.3	3.9	0.8
	1993	53.6	23.0	16.2	7.2	86.5	9.2	3.6	0.7
	1999	39.5	25.4	24.5	10.6	79.3	13.1	6.5	1.1
Chile	1990	12.9	26.9	36.5	23.8	36.8	40.9	15.2	7.1
	1994	11.7	22.8	40.2	25.4	34.3	40.9	17.7	7.1
	1998	9.4	22.6	40.9	27.0	33.0	42.4	19.1	5.6
Colombia b/	1980	47.1	25.3	16.1	11.5
	1990	28.4	28.2	26.9	16.5
	1991	35.3	24.4	24.2	16.0	75.9	13.5	8.8	1.8
	1994	32.0	23.1	28.7	16.2	73.1	13.3	11.2	2.4
	1999	29.3	21.5	31.7	17.5	68.4	14.0	13.8	3.7
Costa Rica	1981	20.4	43.4	23.0	13.3	42.0	47.3	8.2	2.5
	1990	14.1	41.1	24.1	20.7	32.9	50.7	11.7	4.6
	1994	12.7	39.7	25.8	21.7	31.1	52.6	11.2	5.0
	1999	11.6	41.9	23.2	23.3	26.3	54.0	12.2	7.5
Ecuador	1990	14.5	43.1	24.1	18.2
	1994	11.1	39.5	27.0	22.4
	1999	11.3	38.0	28.4	22.3
El Salvador	1995	33.7	31.5	21.3	13.5	74.2	20.9	4.0	1.0
	1999	28.9	30.3	24.2	16.5	68.0	25.0	5.4	1.6
Guatemala	1989	45.5	29.9	16.2	8.4	84.1	13.5	1.9	0.5
	1998	39.5	31.8	19.0	9.7	80.2	16.8	2.6	0.4
Honduras	1990	38.2	36.7	18.2	7.0	74.8	22.2	2.8	0.2
	1994	32.0	38.9	20.5	8.7	62.3	32.2	4.9	0.6
	1999	29.3	41.0	20.3	9.4	63.1	30.9	5.2	0.9
Mexico a/	1989	21.7	50.4	13.2	14.6	59.8	34.1	3.5	2.6
	1994	19.0	50.0	14.0	16.9	54.6	39.4	4.0	2.0
	1998	17.3	49.7	15.2	17.8	47.1	43.7	6.3	3.0
Nicaragua	1993	33.5	41.0	18.1	7.4	74.1	21.4	3.5	1.1
	1998	33.8	38.0	15.3	12.9	70.9	21.8	4.4	2.9
Panama	1979	14.0	46.3	25.3	14.4	47.8	42.3	7.8	2.1
	1991	11.7	37.6	29.1	21.6	34.0	45.2	14.9	5.8
	1994	9.3	38.7	29.2	22.8	32.4	45.8	15.2	6.6
	1999	7.2	36.7	29.8	26.3	26.9	48.0	16.8	8.3

Table 27 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION OF 15 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	18.7	40.8	24.8	15.7
	1990	14.7	41.6	29.3	14.4
	1994	15.7	42.1	25.8	16.4
	1999	11.9	42.2	28.1	17.7	52.6	38.5	6.4	2.4
Dominican Republic	1997	28.3	29.0	26.4	16.2	57.0	27.5	12.4	3.2
Uruguay	1981	21.3	47.4	21.8	9.5
	1990	14.2	46.3	26.2	13.3
	1994	12.2	46.9	27.6	13.4
	1999	8.4	47.5	28.7	15.3
Venezuela ^{c/}	1981	24.3	52.3	14.7	8.7	67.0	28.8	3.5	0.8
	1990	16.6	49.6	19.7	14.1	56.7	36.1	5.8	1.4
	1994	16.3	45.9	22.1	15.7	51.4	37.8	7.9	2.9
	1999	17.3	44.6	21.5	16.6

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

- a/ Information allowing the calculation of the number of years of schooling became available in 1996 in Mexico and 1997 in Argentina. Previous figures correspond to estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary schooling, complete primary and incomplete secondary, complete secondary, and higher education.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.
- c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 27.1

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION OF 15 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	18.6	68.1		13.3
	1990	12.5	71.1		16.3
	1994	8.3	73.7		18.0
	1999	7.4	40.7	32.7	19.2
Bolivia	1997	25.7	21.0	34.3	18.9	68.2	19.1	9.0	3.6
	1999	17.8	23.7	32.5	26.0	66.8	20.1	10.2	2.9
Brazil	1979	63.5	19.2	10.4	7.0	93.7	3.9	1.0	1.4
	1990	51.4	23.8	16.2	8.6	87.3	9.2	2.9	0.6
	1993	53.7	23.4	15.5	7.4	87.5	8.8	3.1	0.7
	1999	43.0	26.5	21.4	9.1	81.0	12.8	5.3	0.9
Chile	1990	13.2	28.7	37.3	20.8	39.2	42.0	13.8	5.0
	1994	12.2	24.2	40.7	22.8	36.4	42.0	16.0	5.5
	1998	10.0	24.3	41.5	24.3	35.2	43.8	16.9	4.0
Colombia b/	1980	46.8	25.3	15.3	12.7
	1990	29.8	28.6	25.4	16.1
	1991	36.8	25.5	22.5	15.2	78.4	13.0	7.2	1.4
	1994	33.8	24.1	27.0	15.1	77.0	12.8	8.4	1.8
	1999	31.1	22.0	30.1	16.7	73.3	13.2	10.9	2.6
Costa Rica	1981	21.7	45.6	20.5	12.2	44.9	46.3	6.9	2.0
	1990	15.7	43.1	22.4	18.8	35.7	50.9	10.0	3.4
	1994	13.9	41.7	24.7	19.7	33.9	52.7	9.5	3.9
	1999	12.2	44.9	22.1	20.7	29.1	54.7	10.6	5.7
Ecuador	1990	14.2	46.9	21.9	17.1
	1994	10.8	41.9	26.2	21.2
	1999	11.2	40.8	27.2	20.8
El Salvador	1995	31.7	34.4	20.6	13.3	74.6	21.1	3.6	0.7
	1999	27.0	32.9	23.7	16.4	68.2	25.9	4.7	1.2
Guatemala	1989	45.0	32.1	14.1	8.8	84.2	14.0	1.4	0.4
	1998	36.6	35.2	17.7	10.6	78.0	19.1	2.6	0.4
Honduras	1990	39.1	38.7	15.1	7.1	76.0	22.1	1.7	0.2
	1994	32.7	39.3	19.0	9.1	64.9	31.7	2.9	0.5
	1999	30.0	42.8	17.5	9.8	65.8	29.7	3.9	0.7
Mexico a/	1989	23.3	48.5	12.3	15.9	59.8	34.1	3.5	2.5
	1994	19.1	49.6	13.4	17.8	54.5	39.9	3.7	1.9
	1998	17.0	49.0	16.2	17.8	46.5	44.1	6.4	3.0
Nicaragua	1993	33.3	42.2	16.6	7.8	78.0	18.2	2.7	1.1
	1998	33.9	40.6	14.0	11.5	74.3	20.5	3.0	2.1
Panama	1979	16.2	48.3	22.8	12.8	50.6	42.3	5.8	1.3
	1991	14.2	42.0	26.4	17.5	38.3	46.0	11.9	3.8
	1994	11.5	42.2	27.5	18.7	36.5	47.2	11.8	4.4
	1999	8.8	40.9	28.8	21.5	30.6	50.2	13.6	5.5

Table 27.1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION OF 15 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	17.5	40.8	24.3	17.4
	1990	14.6	41.5	30.0	13.8
	1994	14.9	43.3	26.2	15.6
	1999	11.6	42.9	29.2	16.3	52.8	39.1	6.1	1.9
Dominican Republic	1997	31.6	31.4	24.5	12.6	60.1	27.1	10.4	2.4
Uruguay	1981	22.9	49.6	20.4	7.2
	1990	16.0	49.4	24.3	10.3
	1994	13.8	50.5	25.7	10.0
	1999	9.8	51.8	26.6	11.8
Venezuela ^{c/}	1981	25.6	53.8	12.5	8.1	68.7	28.0	2.6	0.6
	1990	17.8	52.5	17.4	12.3	58.7	35.8	4.6	1.0
	1994	18.1	48.8	19.8	13.4	55.2	36.8	6.1	1.9
	1999	19.7	48.0	19.7	12.7

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

- a/ Information allowing the calculation of the number of years of schooling became available in 1996 in Mexico and 1997 in Argentina. Previous figures correspond to estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary schooling, complete primary and incomplete secondary, complete secondary, and higher education.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.
- c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 27.2

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION OF 15 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	16.2		65.6	18.2
	1990	14.0		65.7	20.3
	1994	7.7		64.5	27.7
	1999	7.1	29.1	32.6	31.2
Bolivia	1997	39.6	17.9	26.3	16.2	82.4	12.0	3.8	1.9
	1999	30.4	21.4	24.1	24.2	83.6	9.4	5.3	1.7
Brazil	1979	55.7	19.1	16.3	9.0	91.8	4.5	2.0	1.6
	1990	41.6	25.0	21.7	11.7	80.0	12.7	6.3	1.1
	1993	53.4	22.7	16.7	7.1	85.4	9.7	4.2	0.7
	1999	34.9	23.8	28.6	12.7	76.7	13.5	8.3	1.4
Chile	1990	12.3	23.5	35.1	29.2	24.8	35.2	22.5	17.4
	1994	10.6	20.3	39.3	29.8	25.2	36.1	24.8	13.9
	1998	8.6	20.0	40.1	31.2	24.6	37.0	26.8	11.6
Colombia b/	1980	47.6	25.4	17.4	9.6
	1990	26.5	27.6	29.0	16.9
	1991	33.2	22.8	26.8	17.2	69.9	14.8	12.5	2.8
	1994	29.4	21.7	31.1	17.8	63.4	14.7	18.2	3.7
	1999	27.1	20.8	33.6	18.5	57.5	15.9	20.5	6.2
Costa Rica	1981	17.5	38.8	28.0	15.7	31.1	51.3	13.3	4.3
	1990	11.4	37.5	27.1	24.0	23.5	50.2	17.6	8.7
	1994	10.6	36.4	27.7	25.3	22.5	52.5	16.6	8.4
	1999	10.6	37.3	24.9	27.2	18.8	52.3	16.6	12.2
Ecuador	1990	15.1	36.6	28.0	20.2
	1994	11.6	35.8	28.3	24.3
	1999	11.5	34.0	30.0	24.5
El Salvador	1995	36.2	28.0	22.0	13.8	73.0	20.3	5.0	1.7
	1999	31.3	27.3	24.8	16.7	67.7	22.7	7.0	2.7
Guatemala	1989	46.3	26.3	19.8	7.6	83.8	11.2	4.0	1.0
	1998	43.3	27.6	20.6	8.5	85.0	11.6	2.8	0.6
Honduras	1990	36.8	33.7	22.7	6.8	69.6	22.7	7.3	0.4
	1994	31.0	38.2	22.8	8.0	53.6	33.9	11.4	1.1
	1999	28.4	38.8	23.8	9.0	56.3	33.8	8.6	1.4
Mexico a/	1989	18.5	54.4	15.0	12.0	60.0	33.8	3.2	2.9
	1994	18.9	50.6	15.1	15.3	54.9	38.4	4.5	2.2
	1998	17.7	50.9	13.6	17.8	48.2	42.9	5.9	3.0
Nicaragua	1993	33.6	39.5	20.0	6.9	62.3	30.8	5.7	1.2
	1998	33.6	34.6	17.0	14.8	60.5	25.6	8.5	5.3
Panama	1979	10.6	43.3	29.1	16.9	32.1	42.2	19.2	6.5
	1991	7.9	30.7	33.4	28.0	17.5	42.2	26.5	13.8
	1994	5.7	33.0	31.9	29.4	18.2	40.8	26.8	14.2
	1999	4.7	30.4	31.3	33.6	15.1	40.8	27.1	17.0

Table 27.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION OF 15 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	20.2	40.9	25.4	13.5
	1990	14.7	41.8	28.3	15.2
	1994	16.8	40.4	25.3	17.5
	1999	12.4	41.4	26.7	19.5	52.1	37.1	7.2	3.6
Dominican Republic	1997	23.5	25.6	29.3	21.6	48.7	28.6	17.5	5.2
Uruguay	1981	18.6	43.7	24.2	13.4
	1990	11.6	42.0	29.0	17.4
	1994	10.0	42.2	30.0	17.8
	1999	6.6	42.1	31.5	19.8
Venezuela ^{c/}	1981	21.2	48.9	19.9	9.9	56.9	33.5	8.2	1.5
	1990	14.0	43.9	24.3	17.8	46.7	38.0	12.1	3.2
	1994	12.8	40.2	26.6	20.4	37.1	41.6	14.7	6.6
	1999	13.1	38.9	24.7	23.3

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

- a/ Information allowing the calculation of the number of years of schooling became available in 1996 in Mexico and 1997 in Argentina. Previous figures correspond to estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary schooling, complete primary and incomplete secondary, complete secondary, and higher education.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.
- c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 28

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Averages)							
Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Average years of schooling			Average years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	7.8	7.8	7.7
	1990	9.0	8.9	9.2
	1994	9.1	8.8	9.4
	1999	10.1	9.8	10.5
Bolivia	1989	10.2	10.6	9.9
	1994	10.0	10.3	9.7
	1999	10.4	10.5	10.2	6.2	6.9	5.6
Brazil	1979	6.4	6.4	6.4	4.2	4.4	4.1
	1990	6.6	6.3	6.8	3.6	3.3	4.0
	1993	6.5	6.2	6.8	3.7	3.4	4.2
	1999	7.5	7.2	7.9	4.9	4.4	5.4
Chile	1987	9.9	9.9	10.0	7.4	7.1	7.6
	1990	10.1	10.0	10.2	7.9	7.6	8.1
	1994	10.4	10.4	10.5	8.2	8.0	8.4
	1998	11.4	11.2	11.5	9.6	9.4	9.8
Colombia b/	1980	7.5	7.6	7.5
	1990	8.5	8.5	8.5
	1991	8.5	8.4	8.7	5.5	5.2	5.8
	1994	8.7	8.6	8.8	5.8	5.5	6.2
	1999	9.2	9.0	9.3	6.5	6.2	6.8
Costa Rica	1981	8.8	8.7	8.9	6.7	6.6	6.8
	1990	9.1	8.9	9.3	6.9	6.7	7.2
	1994	8.8	8.8	8.8	6.6	6.5	6.7
	1999	8.8	8.6	9.0	7.0	6.8	7.1
Ecuador	1990	9.4	9.1	9.6
	1994	9.7	9.6	9.8
	1999	9.6	9.4	9.8
El Salvador	1997	8.8	8.7	8.9	5.2	5.2	5.1
	1999	9.0	8.9	9.0	5.5	5.5	5.5
Guatemala	1989	6.7	7.3	6.2	2.9	3.4	2.4
	1998	7.5	7.6	7.5	3.6	4.1	3.1
Honduras	1990	7.0	6.9	7.0	4.1	3.9	4.3
	1994	7.3	7.2	7.4	4.8	4.7	5.0
	1999	7.6	7.3	7.8	4.9	4.7	5.1
Mexico a/	1984	9.7	9.9	9.5	8.3	8.5	8.1
	1989	8.7	8.9	8.6	6.8	6.8	6.7
	1994	8.9	9.0	8.8	7.0	6.9	7.1
	1998	10.1	10.2	10.0	7.8	8.1	7.5
Nicaragua	1993	7.0	6.8	7.2	3.6	3.3	4.0
	1998	7.5	7.2	7.8	4.2	3.8	4.6

Table 28 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Averages)							
Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Average years of schooling			Average years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Panama	1979	9.2	9.0	9.3	6.9	6.8	7.0
	1991	9.6	9.2	9.9	7.6	7.3	8.0
	1994	9.6	9.3	9.9	7.6	7.3	8.1
	1999	10.0	9.8	10.3	8.0	7.6	8.4
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	8.7	9.0	8.5
	1990	9.3	9.5	9.1
	1994	9.1	9.1	9.0
	1999	9.4	9.5	9.4	6.5	6.4	6.5
Dominican Republic	1997	8.4	8.0	8.8	6.3	6.0	6.7
Uruguay	1981	8.6	8.4	8.7
	1990	9.2	8.9	9.4
	1994	9.2	8.9	9.5
	1999	9.5	9.1	9.8
Venezuela <i>c/</i>	1981	8.0	7.7	8.2	5.1	4.9	5.4
	1990	8.4	8.2	8.7	5.7	5.2	6.2
	1994	8.7	8.4	9.1	6.0	5.7	6.4
	1999	8.8	8.2	9.3

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

- a/ Information allowing the calculation of the number of years of schooling became available in 1996 in Mexico and 1997 in Argentina. Previous figures correspond to estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary schooling, complete primary and incomplete secondary, complete secondary, and higher education.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.
- c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 29

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Averages)							
Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Average years of schooling			Average years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	7.4	7.0	7.7
	1990	8.8	8.9	8.8
	1994	9.0	9.0	9.0
	1999	10.2	10.1	10.3
Bolivia	1989	8.8	9.9	7.8
	1994	9.3	10.3	8.3
	1999	9.4	10.5	8.5	3.6	4.7	2.5
Brazil	1979	5.1	5.3	4.9	2.4	2.5	2.3
	1990	6.2	6.3	6.1	2.6	2.6	2.6
	1993	6.3	6.4	6.2	2.7	2.7	2.8
	1999	7.0	6.9	7.1	3.3	3.2	3.4
Chile	1987	9.3	9.7	9.0	5.5	5.6	5.5
	1990	9.7	10.1	9.5	6.2	6.3	6.2
	1994	10.2	10.4	10.0	6.6	6.7	6.5
	1998	11.5	11.7	11.3	7.2	7.2	7.1
Colombia b/	1980	6.8	7.4	6.2
	1990	8.2	8.6	7.8
	1991	8.1	8.5	7.8	4.1	4.1	4.1
	1994	8.3	8.6	8.1	4.4	4.3	4.4
	1999	8.6	8.9	8.4	4.8	4.7	4.9
Costa Rica	1981	7.5	7.9	7.3	4.6	4.7	4.5
	1990	9.6	10.0	9.3	6.3	6.6	6.0
	1994	9.1	9.3	8.9	6.0	6.0	6.0
	1999	9.3	9.4	9.1	6.5	6.5	6.5
Ecuador	1990	8.9	9.2	8.6
	1994	9.7	10.0	9.5
	1999	9.9	10.1	9.7
El Salvador	1997	7.9	8.7	7.4	2.9	3.3	2.6
	1999	8.2	8.8	7.7	3.2	3.6	2.9
Guatemala	1989	5.6	6.4	4.9	1.5	1.9	1.1
	1998	6.5	7.2	5.8	1.9	2.4	1.4
Honduras	1990	6.4	6.8	6.1	2.5	2.6	2.4
	1994	7.0	7.5	6.6	3.4	3.4	3.4
	1999	7.3	7.6	7.1	3.5	3.5	3.6
Mexico a/	1984	8.4	8.8	8.1	6.9	7.1	6.7
	1989	7.5	8.1	7.0	4.7	5.0	4.5
	1994	8.0	8.5	7.6	5.0	5.3	4.8
	1998	8.9	9.4	8.5	4.7	4.9	4.5
Nicaragua	1993	6.4	6.8	6.0	2.4	2.4	2.3
	1998	7.0	7.4	6.6	3.2	3.2	3.2

Table 29 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Averages)							
Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Average years of schooling			Average years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Panama	1979	8.5	8.6	8.3	4.4	4.4	4.3
	1991	9.6	9.6	9.7	6.1	6.1	6.2
	1994	9.9	9.9	10.0	6.4	6.3	6.6
	1999	10.4	10.4	10.5	7.1	6.9	7.2
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	8.8	9.4	8.3
	1990	9.0	9.3	8.8
	1994	8.9	9.2	8.6
	1999	9.3	9.6	9.0	4.8	5.0	4.5
Dominican Republic	1997	8.2	8.2	8.2	4.7	4.8	4.6
Uruguay	1981	7.3	7.3	7.3
	1990	8.3	8.3	8.4
	1994	8.6	8.6	8.7
	1999	9.2	9.0	9.3
Venezuela <i>c/</i>	1981	6.8	7.3	6.4	3.1	3.3	2.7
	1990	8.2	8.4	8.0	4.0	4.2	3.8
	1994	8.3	8.4	8.1	4.7	4.7	4.6
	1999	8.3	8.2	8.5

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

- a/ Information allowing the calculation of the number of years of schooling became available in 1996 in Mexico and 1997 in Argentina. Previous figures correspond to estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary schooling, complete primary and incomplete secondary, complete secondary, and higher education.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.
- c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figure therefore refer to the national total.

Table 30

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY THE ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION OVER 15 YEARS OF AGE, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Averages)							
Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Average years of schooling			Average years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	7.4	7.0	8.2
	1990	8.7	8.6	8.9
	1994	9.3	9.0	9.7
	1999	10.4	10.0	11.1
Bolivia	1989	9.0	9.7	8.2
	1994	9.3	10.0	8.5
	1999	9.6	10.2	8.8	3.8	4.7	2.8
Brazil	1979	5.9	5.6	6.4	3.1	3.0	3.4
	1990	6.7	6.3	7.2	3.0	2.7	3.5
	1993	6.0	6.0	6.0	2.8	2.7	2.9
	1999	7.3	6.9	7.9	3.5	3.3	3.8
Chile	1987	9.9	9.7	10.3	6.2	5.9	7.6
	1990	10.2	10.0	10.6	6.8	6.4	8.5
	1994	10.6	10.4	10.9	7.1	6.8	8.3
	1998	11.7	11.5	12.0	7.4	7.1	8.7
Colombia b/	1980	7.1	7.2	6.9
	1990	8.7	8.6	8.8
	1991	8.4	8.2	8.6	4.3	4.1	4.9
	1994	8.6	8.4	8.9	4.7	4.3	5.6
	1999	8.9	8.7	9.1	5.1	4.7	6.1
Costa Rica	1981	8.1	7.8	8.6	5.4	5.2	6.3
	1990	10.1	9.7	10.6	6.7	6.4	7.8
	1994	9.2	9.0	9.7	6.2	5.9	7.1
	1999	9.3	9.1	9.7	6.6	6.3	7.5
Ecuador	1990	9.0	8.8	9.3
	1994	9.7	9.6	10.0
	1999	9.8	9.6	10.0
El Salvador	1997	8.1	8.2	7.9	3.5	3.5	3.6
	1999	8.3	8.5	8.2	3.9	3.8	4.0
Guatemala	1989	6.1	6.2	6.0	2.2	2.2	2.2
	1998	6.7	6.9	6.4	2.5	2.7	2.1
Honduras	1990	6.5	6.4	6.8	2.9	2.8	3.4
	1994	7.1	7.1	7.2	3.8	3.6	4.7
	1999	7.2	7.1	7.4	3.8	3.6	4.4
Mexico a/	1984	8.9	8.8	9.0	7.2	7.2	7.3
	1989	8.0	8.0	8.1	5.2	5.2	5.2
	1994	8.3	8.3	8.3	5.5	5.5	5.5
	1998	9.5	9.5	9.5	5.5	5.6	5.3
Nicaragua	1993	6.8	6.8	6.9	3.0	2.7	4.1
	1998	7.1	7.0	7.3	3.5	3.2	4.6

Table 30 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY THE ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION OVER 15 YEARS OF AGE, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Averages)							
Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Average years of schooling			Average years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Panama	1979	8.9	8.6	9.5	5.0	4.7	6.8
	1991	9.9	9.2	10.8	6.4	5.8	8.6
	1994	10.2	9.6	11.0	6.6	6.0	8.6
	1999	10.6	10.1	11.5	7.1	6.5	9.0
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	8.9	9.1	8.6
	1990	9.2	9.2	9.1
	1994	9.1	9.1	9.1
	1999	9.5	9.5	9.5	5.2	5.2	5.2
Dominican Republic	1997	8.5	8.0	9.3	5.2	4.9	6.0
Uruguay	1981	7.8	7.5	8.2
	1990	8.6	8.2	9.2
	1994	8.8	8.4	9.3
	1999	9.3	8.9	9.8
Venezuela ^{c/}	1981	7.2	7.0	7.7	3.5	3.4	4.3
	1990	8.4	8.1	9.2	4.3	4.1	5.3
	1994	8.5	8.1	9.3	4.9	4.6	6.3
	1999	8.5	7.9	9.5

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

- a/ Information allowing the calculation of the number of years of schooling became available in 1996 in Mexico and 1997 in Argentina. Previous figures correspond to estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary schooling, complete primary and incomplete secondary, complete secondary, and higher education.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.
- c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 31

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): MONTHLY LABOUR INCOME CAPACITY EQUIVALENT (CEMIT) ^{a/} OF 15 TO 24 YEAR-OLDS WHO WORK 20 HOURS OR MORE PER WEEK, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Averages)							
Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		CEMIT average			CEMIT average		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	5.1	5.3	4.8
	1990	2.7	2.6	2.7
	1994	5.2	5.2	5.2
	1999	4.1	3.9	4.4
Bolivia	1989	2.4	2.8	2.0
	1994	2.0	2.3	1.6
	1999	2.4	2.6	2.1	2.1	2.3	1.3
Brazil	1979	2.8	3.1	2.2	1.8	2.0	1.5
	1990	2.3	2.5	2.0	2.1	2.2	1.7
	1993	2.3	2.5	2.1	1.8	1.9	1.5
	1999	2.4	2.6	2.3	2.0	2.1	1.8
Chile	1990	2.2	2.3	2.0	2.3	2.4	2.3
	1994	3.1	3.3	2.8	2.9	2.9	2.7
	1998	3.5	3.5	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.2
Colombia b/	1980	2.2	2.3	2.2
	1990	2.3	2.3	2.2
	1991	1.8	1.9	1.7	2.2	2.4	1.7
	1994	2.1	2.1	2.1	1.9	2.0	1.7
	1999	2.2	2.1	2.3	2.8	2.9	2.4
Costa Rica	1981	3.8	3.7	4.0	3.3	3.4	2.8
	1990	3.5	3.6	3.4	4.2	4.3	3.6
	1994	3.6	3.7	3.4	4.2	4.4	3.7
	1999	3.9	3.9	3.9	4.5	4.6	4.4
Ecuador	1990	2.2	2.3	2.0
	1994	2.1	2.3	1.9
	1999	1.7	1.8	1.7
El Salvador	1997	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.5	2.6	2.4
	1999	2.8	2.9	2.5	3.1	3.2	2.9
Guatemala	1989	2.3	2.5	2.1	2.2	2.2	1.9
	1998	2.0	2.1	2.0	1.5	1.6	1.1
Honduras	1990	1.6	1.8	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4
	1994	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.7	1.7	1.5
	1999	1.5	1.6	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.7
Mexico	1984	3.2	3.1	3.3	2.6	2.6	2.8
	1989	2.4	2.6	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.7
	1994	2.0	2.1	1.9	2.0	2.2	1.6
	1998	1.7	1.4	2.1	1.1	1.0	1.5
Nicaragua	1993	2.6	2.4	2.8	2.3	2.2	2.9
	1998	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.9	2.0	1.8

Table 31 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): MONTHLY LABOUR INCOME CAPACITY EQUIVALENT (CEMIT) ^{a/} OF 15 TO 24 YEAR-OLDS WHO WORK 20 HOURS OR MORE PER WEEK, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Averages)							
Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		CEMIT average			CEMIT average		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Panama	1979	3.9	4.3	3.4	4.1	3.9	4.7
	1991	2.8	3.1	2.3	2.8	3.0	2.1
	1994	2.8	2.9	2.4	2.7	2.8	2.4
	1999	3.8	3.7	3.8	3.2	3.2	3.1
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	1.4	1.7	1.1
	1990	1.6	1.9	1.2
	1994	2.1	2.4	1.8
	1999	1.6	1.5	1.8
Dominican Republic	1997	3.2	3.1	3.3	4.0	4.2	3.5
Uruguay	1981	3.1	3.3	2.8
	1990	2.3	2.4	2.1
	1994	2.8	2.9	2.7
	1999	3.2	3.3	3.0
Venezuela ^{c/}	1981	5.7	5.9	5.3	5.9	6.0	5.3
	1990	3.3	3.4	2.9	3.2	3.3	2.9
	1994	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.8	3.0	2.2
	1999	2.6	2.6	2.6

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ Represents monthly income calculated on the basis of value per hour worked, expressed as multiples of the poverty line.

Does not include unpaid family workers.

b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.

c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 32

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): MONTHLY LABOUR INCOME CAPACITY EQUIVALENT (CEMIT) ^{a/} OF 25 TO 59 YEAR-OLDS WHO WORK 20 HOURS OR MORE PER WEEK, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999											
(Averages)											
Country	Year	Urban areas					Rural areas				
		CEMIT average					CEMIT average				
		Total	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more	Total	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	9.0	5.7	7.4	12.2	16.3
	1990	4.6	2.9	3.4	4.6	7.9
	1994	9.7	6.0	6.8	10.0	16.4
	1999	7.6	4.2	4.6	7.2	12.6
Bolivia	1989	4.8	3.2	3.6	4.7	7.6
	1994	4.6	2.5	3.2	4.0	8.4
	1999	4.0	2.4	2.7	3.7	6.5	1.7	1.2	2.1	3.1	6.4
Brazil	1979	7.0	4.2	7.4	10.8	20.7	3.1	2.9	6.6	9.6	11.0
	1990	5.7	3.0	4.5	7.1	15.2	3.4	2.9	5.3	7.2	16.8
	1993	5.7	2.9	4.4	7.1	15.8	3.3	2.7	5.4	7.1	17.5
	1999	5.6	2.8	3.9	6.2	14.8	3.2	2.4	4.0	6.4	18.1
Chile	1990	4.1	2.1	2.4	3.2	7.5	3.3	2.5	2.6	3.7	8.8
	1994	6.5	3.2	3.5	5.1	12.1	4.6	3.0	3.4	5.3	15.9
	1998	7.9	3.3	4.0	6.0	14.3	5.5	3.9	4.1	7.7	16.1
Colombia b/	1980	4.6	2.3	3.7	5.9	12.3
	1990	4.3	2.3	3.0	4.6	8.6
	1991	3.1	1.9	2.4	3.3	5.8	3.7	3.0	4.7	6.4	10.1
	1994	4.1	2.1	2.7	4.1	8.9	2.9	2.4	3.1	4.2	8.2
	1999	3.6	1.9	2.1	3.4	7.6	3.4	2.6	3.4	5.1	8.5
Costa Rica	1981	7.8	5.2	6.1	8.8	13.9	8.0	7.1	7.5	11.4	18.3
	1990	5.7	3.2	4.0	5.9	9.4	5.9	4.9	5.4	7.4	11.6
	1994	6.3	3.6	4.3	6.2	10.1	6.5	5.2	5.8	8.0	13.7
	1999	6.4	3.4	4.3	6.2	10.3	7.0	5.2	6.1	8.2	14.1
Ecuador	1990	3.5	2.1	2.7	3.8	5.7
	1994	3.4	1.8	2.4	3.5	5.2
	1999	3.5	1.6	2.0	3.2	6.0
El Salvador	1997	4.8	2.2	3.3	5.7	9.9	3.2	2.8	4.9	2.9	13.8
	1999	5.2	2.8	3.7	5.3	10.1	4.4	4.0	4.8	5.7	10.9
Guatemala	1989	4.4	2.6	3.8	6.3	10.5	3.4	3.1	4.6	8.5	15.9
	1998	4.1	2.2	3.0	5.8	9.4	3.3	2.8	5.1	6.3	14.1
Honduras	1990	3.4	1.6	2.5	5.2	10.0	2.3	1.9	3.3	7.4	8.4
	1994	2.6	1.4	1.8	3.1	7.0	2.7	2.0	3.7	5.2	6.6
	1999	2.9	1.5	2.1	3.5	6.6	2.5	2.0	2.5	7.1	6.0
Mexico	1984	5.4	2.4	4.6	6.4	8.8	4.0	2.5	3.9	8.0	10.6
	1989	4.8	3.1	3.8	5.8	8.8	3.7	3.0	4.5	6.0	7.9
	1994	5.1	2.3	3.6	5.8	10.1	3.4	2.6	3.8	6.3	8.8
	1998	5.8	1.9	3.3	5.4	12.0	3.8	2.1	3.1	26.0	10.2
Nicaragua	1993	3.7	2.8	3.4	4.0	6.9	2.7	2.3	3.7	4.6	9.1
	1998	4.0	2.0	3.1	4.0	9.6	2.9	2.2	3.6	4.2	8.5
Panama	1979	7.0	3.8	5.0	8.0	13.2	4.7	3.4	5.1	8.6	14.3
	1991	6.5	3.3	4.1	5.9	10.7	6.1	3.8	5.1	7.5	12.2
	1994	6.2	3.4	3.8	5.7	10.3	5.4	3.4	4.7	6.7	10.1
	1999	6.7	3.1	3.9	6.1	10.8	5.8	3.4	4.4	7.1	11.6

Table 32 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): MONTHLY LABOUR INCOME CAPACITY EQUIVALENT (CEMIT) ^{a/} OF 25 TO 59 YEAR-OLDS WHO WORK 20 HOURS OR MORE PER WEEK, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Averages)											
Country	Year	Urban areas					Rural areas				
		CEMIT average					CEMIT average				
		Total	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more	Total	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	3.7	1.5	2.3	4.1	7.4
	1990	3.7	2.0	2.7	4.0	7.1
	1994	4.0	1.9	2.7	4.1	8.3
	1999	4.7	1.9	4.8	3.4	9.5
Dominican Republic	1997	5.2	3.5	4.4	5.1	9.0	5.2	4.6	5.6	6.1	8.8
Uruguay	1981	6.3	4.3	5.4	7.2	12.1
	1990	4.3	2.8	3.4	5.0	6.8
	1994	5.3	3.4	4.1	5.9	8.8
	1999	6.0	3.7	4.4	6.5	10.2
Venezuela ^{c/}	1981	9.1	6.1	8.1	11.4	17.8	7.4	6.2	9.3	14.2	23.3
	1990	5.4	3.9	4.6	5.8	8.5	5.1	4.4	5.8	6.8	9.4
	1994	4.3	3.1	3.7	4.5	6.7	4.1	3.5	4.6	4.7	7.1
	1999	4.3	2.7	3.5	4.4	7.2

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

a/ Represents monthly income calculated on the basis of value per hour worked, expressed as multiples of the poverty line.

Does not include unpaid family workers.

b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.

c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 33

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING INDICATORS, a/								
1990/1991-1998/1999								
Country and coverage c/	Period	Public social spending			Period	Percentage variations in public social spending b/		
		per capita (1997 dollars)	as percentage of GDP	as percentage of total public spending		per capita (1997 dollars)	as percentage of GDP	as percentage of total public spending
Argentina d/ (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	1211	17.7	62.2	1990/1991-1994/1995	30.7	3.3	3.1
	1994/1995	1583	21.0	65.3	1994/1995-1998/1999	6.6	-0.5	-1.7
	1998/1999	1687	20.5	63.6	1990/1991-1998/1999	39.4	2.8	1.4
Bolivia (GG)	1990/1991	1990/1991-1994/1995
	1994/1995	121	12.4	49.4	1994/1995-1998/1999	38.4	3.7	7.1
	1998/1999	168	16.1	56.5	1990/1991-1998/1999
Brazil e/ (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	786	18.1	48.9	1990/1991-1994/1995	18.6	1.9	11.2
	1994/1995	932	20.0	60.0	1994/1995-1998/1999	8.5	1.0	0.4
	1998/1999	1011	21.0	60.4	1990/1991-1998/1999	28.6	2.9	11.6
Chile (CG)	1990/1991	440	13.0	60.8	1990/1991-1994/1995	35.7	0.6	3.9
	1994/1995	597	13.6	64.7	1994/1995-1998/1999	38.6	2.4	2.1
	1998/1999	827	16.0	66.8	1990/1991-1998/1999	88.2	3.0	6.0
Colombia (NFPS)	1990/1991	158	8.0	28.8	1990/1991-1994/1995	88.0	3.5	11.1
	1994/1995	297	11.5	39.9	1994/1995-1998/1999	28.3	3.5	-4.4
	1998/1999	381	15.0	35.5	1990/1991-1998/1999	141.1	7.0	6.7
Costa Rica (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	476	15.7	38.9	1990/1991-1994/1995	12.6	0.3	-0.6
	1994/1995	536	16.0	38.3	1994/1995-1998/1999	16.2	0.8	4.8
	1998/1999	622	16.8	43.1	1990/1991-1998/1999	30.8	1.1	4.2
El Salvador (CG)	1990/1991	1990/1991-1994/1995
	1994/1995	60	3.3	21.3	1994/1995-1998/1999	37.8	1.0	5.7
	1998/1999	82	4.3	27.0	1990/1991-1998/1999
Guatemala (CG)	1990/1991	52	3.4	29.9	1990/1991-1994/1995	27.2	0.7	8.7
	1994/1995	66	4.1	38.5	1994/1995-1998/1999	63.4	2.1	7.7
	1998/1999	107	6.2	46.2	1990/1991-1998/1999	107.8	2.8	16.4
Honduras (CG)	1990/1991	60	7.9	36.5	1990/1991-1994/1995	-0.8	-0.2	-3.8
	1994/1995	59	7.7	32.7	1994/1995-1998/1999	-3.4	-0.3	1.6
	1998/1999	57	7.4	34.3	1990/1991-1998/1999	-4.2	-0.5	-2.2
Mexico (Public sector budget)	1990/1991	259	6.5	40.8	1990/1991-1994/1995	38.0	2.3	11.6
	1994/1995	358	8.8	52.4	1994/1995-1998/1999	12.4	0.3	6.1
	1998/1999	402	9.1	58.5	1990/1991-1998/1999	55.2	2.6	17.7
Nicaragua (CG budget)	1990/1991	48	10.8	35.4	1990/1991-1994/1995	8.4	1.8	5.5
	1994/1995	52	12.6	40.9	1994/1995-1998/1999	10.7	0.1	-3.9
	1998/1999	57	12.7	37.0	1990/1991-1998/1999	20.0	1.9	1.6
Panama (NFPS)	1990/1991	497	18.6	40.0	1990/1991-1994/1995	22.0	1.2	3.2
	1994/1995	606	19.8	43.2	1994/1995-1998/1999	5.9	-0.4	-4.7
	1998/1999	642	19.4	38.6	1990/1991-1998/1999	29.2	0.8	-1.5

Table 33 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING INDICATORS, a/								
1990/1991-1998/1999								
Country and coverage c/	Period	Public social spending			Period	Percentage variations in public social spending b/		
		per capita (1997 dollars)	as percentage of GDP	as percentage of total public spending		per capita (1997 dollars)	as percentage of GDP	as percentage of total public spending
Paraguay (CG) budget)	1990/1991	56	3.1	39.9	1990/1991-1994/1995	133.9	3.9	3.5
	1994/1995	131	7.0	43.4	1994/1995-1998/1999	0.4	0.5	2.8
	1998/1999	132	7.4	46.2	1990/1991-1998/1999	134.8	4.4	6.3
Peru (CG)	1990/1991	69	3.3	31.1	1990/1991-1994/1995	104.4	2.5	3.7
	1994/1995	140	5.8	34.8	1994/1995-1998/1999	37.1	1.1	3.6
	1998/1999	192	6.8	38.3	1990/1991-1998/1999	180.3	3.5	7.2
Dominican Republic (CG)	1990/1991	64	4.3	38.4	1990/1991-1994/1995	56.3	1.8	2.8
	1994/1995	100	6.1	41.2	1994/1995-1998/1999	34.5	0.5	-1.5
	1998/1999	135	6.6	39.7	1990/1991-1998/1999	110.2	2.3	1.3
Uruguay (CG)	1990/1991	888	16.8	62.4	1990/1991-1994/1995	40.5	3.5	8.5
	1994/1995	1248	20.3	70.8	1994/1995-1998/1999	23.3	2.5	1.7
	1998/1999	1539	22.8	72.5	1990/1991-1998/1999	73.3	6.0	10.1
Venezuela (CG)	1990/1991	337	9.0	34.0	1990/1991-1994/1995	-14.9	-1.4	1.3
	1994/1995	287	7.6	35.3	1994/1995-1998/1999	9.2	1.1	2.0
	1998/1999	313	8.6	37.3	1990/1991-1998/1999	-7.0	-0.4	3.33.3

Source: ECLAC, database on social spending, Social Development Division.

a/ Includes public spending on education, health and nutrition, social security, employment and social assistance, and housing and sewerage systems.

b/ The last two columns show the differences between the percentages for the final period and the initial period.

c/ NFPS: non-financial public sector; GG: general government; CG: central government.

d/ Includes expenditure of the national government, the provincial governments and the Central Government of Buenos Aires, and also the municipal governments.

e/ Estimate of consolidated social spending, including federal, state and municipal expenditure.

Table 34

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): INDICATORS FOR PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON EDUCATION AND HEALTH, 1990-1991 AND 1998-1999							
Country and coverage ^{a/}	Period	Public social spending on education			Public social spending on health		
		per capita (1997 dollars)	as percentage of GDP	as percentage of total public spending	per capita (1997 dollars)	as percentage of GDP	as percentage of total public spending
Argentina b/ (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	226	3.3	11.6	271	4.0	14.0
	1994/1995	318	4.2	13.1	373	5.0	15.4
	1998/1999	383	4.7	14.4	380	4.6	14.3
Bolivia (GG)	1990/1991
	1994/1995	52	5.3	21.1	31	3.1	12.5
	1998/1999	62	6.0	20.9	34	3.3	11.4
Brazil c/ (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	162	3.7	9.9	156	3.6	9.6
	1994/1995	226	4.9	14.6	158	3.4	10.2
	1998/1999	187	3.9	11.2	163	3.4	9.7
Chile (CG)	1990/1991	87	2.6	12.0	70	2.1	9.6
	1994/1995	129	2.9	13.9	108	2.5	11.8
	1998/1999	202	3.9	16.3	145	2.8	11.7
Colombia (NFPS)	1990/1991	63	3.2	11.5	23	1.2	4.2
	1994/1995	86	3.4	11.6	75	2.9	10.1
	1998/1999	120	4.7	11.2	104	4.1	9.7
Costa Rica (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	115	3.8	9.4	150	5.0	12.3
	1994/1995	136	4.1	9.8	159	4.7	11.4
	1998/1999	163	4.4	11.3	181	4.9	12.5
El Salvador (CG)	1990/1991
	1994/1995	35	2.0	12.6	23	1.3	8.3
	1998/1999	52	2.7	17.0	29	1.5	9.4
Guatemala (CG)	1990/1991	25	1.6	14.3	14	0.9	8.1
	1994/1995	29	1.8	16.6	15	0.9	8.8
	1998/1999	40	2.3	17.3	22	1.3	9.6
Honduras (CG)	1990/1991	32	4.3	19.9	20	2.6	12.0
	1994/1995	31	4.1	17.2	21	2.8	11.7
	1998/1999	32	4.1	18.9	16	2.0	9.4
Mexico (Public sector budget)	1990/1991	104	2.6	16.4	118	3.0	18.6
	1994/1995	157	3.8	23.0	96	2.4	14.0
	1998/1999	167	3.8	24.4	93	2.1	13.5
Nicaragua (CG budget)	1990/1991	22	5.0	16.3	20	4.6	15.0
	1994/1995	20	4.9	15.8	20	4.7	15.2
	1998/1999	26	5.7	16.7	20	4.5	13.2
Panama (NFPS)	1990/1991	125	4.7	10.2	164	6.1	13.3
	1994/1995	151	5.0	10.8	204	6.7	14.5
	1998/1999	198	6.0	11.9	223	6.8	13.5

Table 34 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): INDICATORS FOR PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON EDUCATION AND HEALTH, 1990-1991 AND 1998-1999							
Country and coverage ^{a/}	Period	Public social spending on education			Public social spending on health		
		per capita (1997 dollars)	as percentage of GDP	as percentage of total public spending	per capita (1997 dollars)	as percentage of GDP	as percentage of total public spending
Paraguay (CG budget)	1990/1991	22	1.2	15.8	6	0.3	3.8
	1994/1995	61	3.2	20.0	20	1.1	6.7
	1998/1999	66	3.7	23.0	19	1.1	6.5
Peru (CG)	1990/1991	28	1.3	12.7	15	0.7	6.8
	1994/1995	56	2.3	13.9	27	1.1	6.5
	1998/1999	62	2.2	12.3	38	1.3	7.5
Dominican Republic (CG)	1990/1991	18	1.2	10.5	15	1.0	8.7
	1994/1995	34	2.1	13.9	21	1.3	8.7
	1998/1999	57	2.8	16.9	31	1.5	9.0
Uruguay (CG)	1990/1991	130	2.5	9.1	154	2.9	10.8
	1994/1995	151	2.5	8.6	212	3.5	12.1
	1998/1999	218	3.3	10.3	187	2.8	8.8
Venezuela (CG)	1990/1991	129	3.5	13.1	57	1.6	5.8
	1994/1995	139	3.7	17.1	41	1.1	5.0
	1998/1999	140	3.8	16.7	49	1.4	5.9

Source: ECLAC, database on social spending, Social Development Division.

a/ NFPS: non-financial public sector; GG: general government; CG: central government.

b/ Includes expenditure of the national government, the provincial governments and the Central Government of Buenos Aires, and the municipal governments.

c/ Estimate of consolidated social spending, including federal, state and municipal expenditure.

