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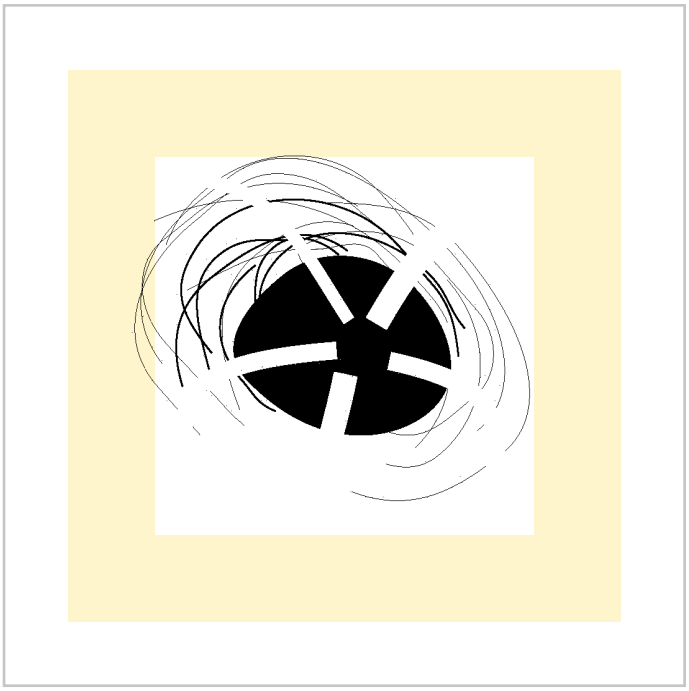

Social Panorama

of Latin America

United Nations

ECLAC

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Explanatory notes

The following symbols are used in tables in this edition of the Social Panorama of Latin America:

Three dots (…) indicate that data are not available or are not separately reported.

A dash (–) indicates that the amount is nil or negligible.

A point (.) is used to indicate decimals.

Use of a hyphen (-) between years (e.g., 2001-2006) indicates reference to the complete period considered, including the beginning and end years.

The word "tons" means metric tons and the word "dollars" means United States dollars, unless otherwise specified.

References to annual rates of growth or variation signify compound annual rates, unless otherwise specified.

Individual figures and percentages in tables do not necessarily add up to the corresponding totals because of rounding.

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Abstract

Per capita GDP has grown more in 2003-2007 than at any other time since the 1970s. ECLAC projections indicate that this trend will continue in 2008, which will thus be the fifth year in a row in which per capita GDP has risen at over 3% per annum. This increase has made further progress in poverty reduction possible, together with a decline in unemployment. Some countries have seen improvements in income distribution as well. A number of problems persist, however, and Latin America continues to lag behind other regions in various areas. Levels of social and economic inequality remain extremely high. After rising sharply during the past decade, social expenditure —measured as a percentage of GDP— has been levelling off and continues to fall short in terms of the coverage of existing social needs. In addition, migratory flows continue to be spurred by unequal levels of development in various locations and areas within individual countries.

The *Social Panorama of Latin America, 2007* provides the latest poverty estimates available for the countries of Latin America. These estimates indicate that 36.5% of Latin America's population (195 million people) were poor and 13.4% (71 million) were extremely poor.

As noted in the chapter devoted to the subject of poverty, these percentages signal a 3.3% drop in poverty and a 2.0% decrease in extreme poverty, or indigence, from these indicators' 2005 levels. This means that 14 million people escaped from poverty in 2006 and 10 million who had been classified as indigent ceased to be so. As a result, the region is well on track to reaching the first Millennium Development Goal target of halving the 1990 extreme poverty rate by 2015. A portion of the progress made in this respect may be accounted for by changes in family composition and in household members' participation in the labour market. Countries are therefore urged to develop ways to reconcile care work in the home with gainful employment, increase occupational productivity and improve the targeting of expenditure on the most vulnerable groups.

A preliminary analysis is also undertaken of the problem of residential segregation, which limits opportunities for learning to live with others under circumstances of inequality. This type of segregation can hinder access to employment and education, thereby contributing to the perpetuation of poverty. This is an issue that calls for a thorough-going review of State action in relation to urban land management and social housing.

This chapter concludes with a discussion of the many psycho-social divides separating the most vulnerable groups from those that are economically better off, which militate against social cohesion. It notes that, in order to make progress in overcoming poverty and achieving social cohesion, multidimensional policies are required that include measures for creating opportunities that will provide vulnerable groups with greater expectations of social mobility, give them greater confidence in their country's institutions, and allow them to feel more included and to participate more actively in decision-making processes that influence their quality of life.

In the chapter on social expenditure, the available statistics are examined in the light of the main social policy challenges facing the region. The discussion of this subject underscores the fact that, apart from a few exceptions, public social expenditure has continued to be accorded a high macroeconomic and fiscal priority,

which ensures funding, stability and greater institutional legitimacy for social policy. Despite the greater effort being made to finance social policies (especially in the less developed nations), however, public social spending is still insufficient, and the structure of such expenditure has to constantly be adapted to changing risk profiles and social needs. The way in which it is administered continues to be highly procyclical, although in recent years it has not been any more so than the trend of GDP.

The impact of such expenditure on people's well-being is analysed on the basis of a review of various case studies. These studies indicate that the gradual expansion of coverage increases the progressiveness of spending on education, that the composition of expenditure on health services influences its neutrality from the standpoint of considerations of equity, that the contributory nature of the social security system's funding makes these expenditures regressive, and that social assistance is becoming markedly pro-poor as conditional transfer programmes come into greater and greater use, although they are not entirely free of leakage issues.

This analysis underscores the importance of distinguishing among countries based on the differing phases they have reached in the demographic transition and their labour markets' degree of maturity, and a typology is outlined for use in examining the level and structure of social spending. It is also noted that a far-reaching social contract will be required in order to overcome the challenges facing the region in relation to the allocation of public social expenditure.

The chapter on education reviews the major advances that the region has made in this field since the early 1990s. It looks at how social inequality is manifested in access to education and in the pace at which students progress through the primary, secondary and tertiary levels as well as their completion rates, and concludes that the degree of inequality has diminished in the last 15 years. It notes that there has been a reduction in the differences in terms of passage through formal education systems associated with economic inequalities, gender inequities, areas of residence, ethnic origin and the stock of educational capital in the home. It also points out, however, that, despite the considerable progress made in all areas, the inter-generational transmission of educational opportunities persists, although, for the most part, this process is now being expressed in access to and completion of the last few years of secondary school and, most of all, at the level of higher education.

The quality of education in five Latin American countries is examined on the basis of the findings of the 2000 Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) test. The main focus of the 2000 PISA test was reading comprehension, and the assessment shows that a close correlation exists between inequalities in terms of socioeconomic origin and the acquisition of language competencies. It also indicates that educational curricula are lacking in relevance (judging from the poor scores of even the best students) and that the extent of teachers' commitment is a very important factor in the learning process. The chapter also includes a discussion of the markedly segregated nature of the school environment in the region, its association with a highly segmented supply of educational services, and the major differences in performance to which this situation leads. A case is made for the need to redesign educational policy in order to address the problem of social inequality through affirmative action in order to give the poorest students a head start and to improve the quality of the learning process by diminishing the sharp stratification of the countries' educational systems.

The chapter on internal migration notes that 1 out of every 3 Latin Americans lives in a different town from the one in which he or she was born and that nearly 1 in 10 Latin Americans moved to a different town in the last five years of the twentieth century. Migrants are usually younger and have a higher skill level than non-migrants, and they are therefore generally an asset for the host area. Conversely, emigration from the more socioeconomically backward areas within countries (including rural zones, chronically poor areas and ones in which indigenous population clusters are located) erodes their human resource base, thereby hindering their progress and hampering efforts to improve the living conditions of those who remain there (geographical poverty traps). A majority of migrants move from one city to another or within cities. In the case of intra-city migration, residential rather than labour-related factors are more influential.

Policies designed to influence internal migration patterns must address a much more diverse and complex set of factors than they did when rural-to-urban migratory flows predominated. Such policies should be based on a recognition of the right of all persons to freely decide when and where to migrate within a given country. No form of coercion should therefore be used to achieve policy objectives. Instead, differing types of incentives for individuals and businesses should be employed to promote the development of given areas within a country. Indirect action may also be taken through various sorts of social policies (particularly policies on housing, transportation and infrastructure) that may influence migration decisions.

The chapter on the social policy agenda offers an assessment of health policies and programmes designed to benefit the indigenous peoples of Latin America based on 16 countries' responses to a survey conducted by ECLAC on this subject and the findings

of the Workshop-Seminar on Indigenous People in Latin America: Health Policies and Programmes, How Much and How Has Progress Been Made? Both the survey and the seminar, which was held at ECLAC on 25 and 26 June 2007, were conducted as part of a project funded by the Government of France.[1]

In the first section of this chapter, emphasis is placed on the existence of minimum standards for the rights of indigenous peoples and on the fact that, although legislative advances have been made in this respect, public policy must do more to ensure the fulfilment of those rights. The discussion covers the persistent structural inequity which puts indigenous people at a disadvantage and which, in the field of health, is manifested in higher morbidity and mortality rates. The evidence also points to more limited access and a failure to ensure the cultural appropriateness of health care services, as well as indigenous peoples' very limited participation and representation in the relevant policies and programmes.

The second section of the chapter discusses the more conducive environment for the design and implementation of health policies and programmes for indigenous peoples created by health-sector reforms and legislative advances. It notes that most countries are taking action in this connection and describes the widely varying situations to be found in this regard, along with major achievements and problems. Two of the main issues covered by this assessment are the management and participation by indigenous peoples of health policies and programmes and the availability of the information needed to design, implement and evaluate measures taken in this area.

Based on the information presented, a number of recommendations are then offered with a view to improving health policies and programmes for indigenous peoples and to fully enforcing their rights.

The international social agenda provides an overview of major United Nations meetings and agreements on social issues. In this year's edition, this section is devoted to the tenth session of the Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean, held in Quito, Ecuador, from 6 to 9 August 2007.

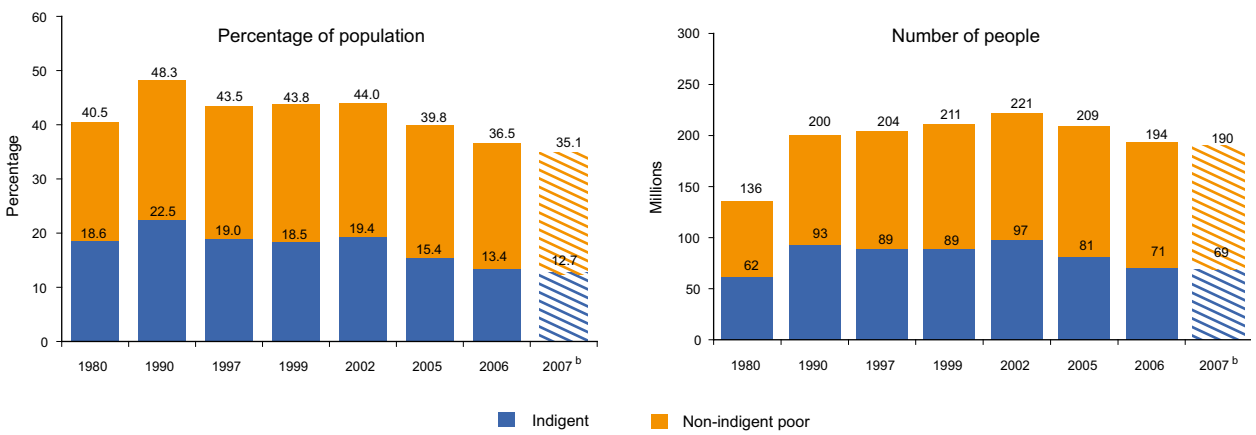
[1] Project on Advances in Policies and Programmes for Indigenous Peoples of Latin America since the Implementation of the International Decade for Indigenous Peoples, Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) - Population Division of ECLAC/Government of France.

Summary

Poverty in the region

The latest poverty estimates available for the countries of Latin America indicate that, as of 2006, 36.5% of Latin America's population (194 million people) were poor and 13.4% (71 million) were extremely poor (see figure 1).

Figure 1
LATIN AMERICA: POVERTY AND INDIGENCE. 1980-2007 [a]



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.
[a] Estimate for 19 countries of the region including Haiti. The figures shown in the orange sections of the bars are the percentages and total number of poor persons (indigent plus non–indigent poor).
[b] Projections.

A comparison with the figures for 2005 shows that further progress was made in reducing poverty and extreme poverty, or indigence, with a 3.3% drop in poverty and a 2.0% decrease in extreme poverty. This means that 15 million people escaped from poverty in 2006 and 10 million who had been classified as indigent ceased to be so.

A comparison of the figures for 2006 and 1990 shows that the poverty rate has been reduced by 11.8 percentage points and that the indigence or extreme poverty rate has decreased by 9.1 points. This means that the number of indigents has fallen by over 20 million and that, for the first time since then. the total number of people living in poverty has dropped below 200 million persons.

Projected per capita GDP growth for the Latin American countries in 2007 is expected to make it possible to bring poverty and indigence rates down to 35.1% (190 million people) and 12.7% (69 million people), respectively. If these projections are borne out, Latin America will have not only the lowest poverty and indigence rates to be recorded since the 1980s, but also fewer poor people than at any other time in the last 17 years (see figure 1).

Poverty and indigence estimates for 2006 for 12 countries in the region reflect a widespread downward trend. All of these countries registered considerable reductions, and in most cases these decreases represented a continuation of the trend observed in 2005.

When the year 2002 is used as a benchmark, Argentina (data for urban areas) displays the greatest improvement, with reductions of 24.4 and 13.7 percentage points in its poverty and extreme poverty rates, respectively. The results for 2006 played an important role in this outcome, with decreases in the two indicators of 5.0 and 1.9 percentage points. This largely counteracted the deterioration in the situation that occurred in 1999-2002. As a result. the poverty rate is now 2.7 points below the 1999 rate, although the indigence rate is still 0.6 points above the figure for 1999 (see table 1).

Table 1
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): PERSONS LIVING IN POVERTY AND INDIGENCE, AROUND 2002, 2005 AND 2006
(Percentages)

Country	Around 2002			Around 2005			2006		
	Year	Poverty	Indigence	Year	Poverty	Indigence	Year	Poverty	Indigence
Argentina [a]	2002	45.4	20.9	2005	26.0	9.1	2006	21.0	7.2
Bolivia	2002	62.4	37.1	2004	63.9	34.7	...	...	...
Brazil	2001	37.5	13.2	2005	36.3	10.6	2006	33.3	9.0
Chile	2000	20.2	5.6	2003	18.7	4.7	2006	13.7	3.2
Colombia	2002	51.1	24.6	2005	46.8	20.2	...	...	...
Costa Rica	2002	20.3	8.2	2005	21.1	7.0	2006	19.0	7.2
Ecuador [a]	2002	49.0	19.4	2005	45.2	17.1	2006	39.9	12.8
El Salvador	2001	48.9	22.1	2004	47.5	19.0	...	...	...
Guatemala	2002	60.2	30.9	...	...	...	...	...	...
Honduras	2002	77.3	54.4	2003	74.8	53.9	2006	71.5	49.3
Mexico	2002	39.4	12.6	2004	37.0	11.7	2006	31.7	8.7
Nicaragua	2001	69.4	42.4	...	...	...	...	...	...
Panama	2002	34.0	17.4	2005	33.0	15.7	2006	30.8	15.2
Paraguay	2001	61.0	33.2	2005	60.5	32.1	...	...	...
Peru	2001 [b]	54.8	24.4	2005 [b]	48.7	17.4	2006 [b]	44.5	16.1
Dominican Rep.	2002	44.9	20.3	2005	47.5	24.6	2006	44.5	22.0
Uruguay [a]	2002	15.4	2.5	2005	18.8	4.1	2006	18.5	3.2
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	2002	48.6	22.2	2005	37.1	15.9	2006	30.2	9.9

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.
[a] Urban areas.
[b] Figures compiled by the National Institute of Statistics and Informatics (INEI) of Peru. These values are not comparable with those of previous years owing to changes in the sample framework used in the household survey. In addition, the figures given for 2001 correspond to the fourth quarter, whereas those shown for 2004 and 2006 correspond to the entire year.

The Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela reduced its poverty and extreme poverty rates by 18.4 and 12.3 percentage points, respectively, between 2002 and 2006. Thanks to rapid GDP growth and the ongoing implementation of broad social programmes, in 2006 alone the poverty rate was lowered from 37.1% to 30.2% and the indigence rate from 15.9% to 9.9%. This swift pace of progress considerably brightens the prospects for further reductions in poverty and significantly increases the feasibility of meeting the first target associated with the first Millennium Development Goal, which is analysed in the following section.

These two countries are followed. in order of magnitude, by Peru,[1] Chile, Ecuador (urban areas), Honduras and Mexico, which have marked up poverty reductions of over five percentage points between 2000-2002 and 2006. With the exception of Peru, at least half of this cumulative reduction occurred in the more recent years in this period in each of these four countries. This is particularly notable in the case of Chile, where 5.0 of the 6.5 percentage points by which the poverty rate was reduced in 2000-2006 correspond to 2003-2006.[2] These countries also witnessed significant reductions in their indigence rates. Particularly share decreases were seen in this indicator for Ecuador and Honduras, which recorded reductions of 8.3, 6.6 and 5.1 percentage points, respectively, Chile also made great strides in this respect since, although its indigence rate fell by just 2.4 percentage points, this amounted to a 43% decrease in that rate relative to 2000.

Brazil registered decreases of 4.2 percentage points in both its poverty and its extreme poverty rates between 2001 and 2006. This has a significant impact at the regional level, since it represents a reduction in the number of indigents of 6 million people. The "Bolsa Familia" public transfer programmes implemented in the country has played a decisive role in this achievement.

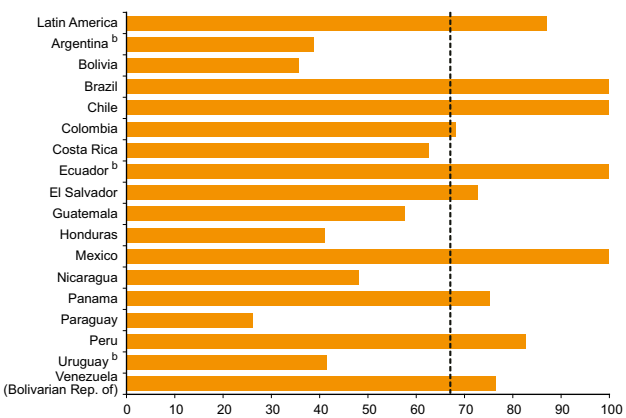
Costa Rica and the Dominican Republic also managed to reduce their poverty levels in 2002-2006, although less dramatically than the above-mentioned countries. Actually, the Dominican Republic recorded a slightly higher indigence rate due to the setbacks it experienced between 2002 and 2004, which later progress has not yet offset entirely. A somewhat similar situation is found in Uruguay, where decreases in the poverty and indigence rates in 2005 and 2006 have not enabled the country to regain the levels it had attained in 2002.

Progress towards meeting the first target of the Millennium Development Goals

Latin America's projected extreme poverty rate for 2007 amounts to 12.7%, which is 9.8 percentage points below the 1990 figure (22.5%). This means that Latin America is 87% of the way towards meeting that target at a point in time when just 68% of the period provided for that achievement has passed.[3] This evidence gives reason to believe that the region as a whole is fully on track to meet its commitment to halve the 1990 extreme poverty rate by 2015 (see figure 2).

The projections for extreme poverty rates in 2007 paint a bright picture for many countries. The most recent figures for Ecuador (urban areas) and Mexico indicate that they will join the ranks of countries that, like Brazil and Chile, have already reached the first target established for the first Millennium Development Goal. The Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Colombia, El Salvador, Panama and Peru have progressed as much or more than expected (68%). All the other countries in Latin America have lower extreme poverty rates than they did in 1990, but some of them are behind where they should be in order to reach this target on time. Argentina, Bolivia, Honduras, Nicaragua, Paraguay and Uruguay are still less than 50% of the way to this target.

Figure 2
LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): PROGRESS IN REDUCING EXTREME POVERTY BETWEEN 1990 AND 2007 [a]



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] The amount of progress made (expressed as a percentage) is calculated by dividing the percentage–point reduction (or increase) in indigence registered during the period by one half of the indigence rate for 1990. The dotted line represents the amount of progress expected by 2007 (68%).

[b] Urban areas.

1 The figures for Peru from 2004 on are not wholly comparable with those for earlier years, since the former refer to the entire year whereas the latter correspond to the last quarter only. No major differences are to be expected between quarterly and annual estimates, however. As a point of reference, it may be noted that in 2006 the indigence and poverty rates estimated for the year as a whole were 0.7 and 1.5 percentage points higher, respectively than the estimates for the final quarter.

2 Indigence and poverty estimates for Chile are available only for 2000, 2003 and 2006, and an analysis of what occurred in the intervening years can therefore not be made.

3 The time allotted for reaching this target is 25 years (from 1990 to 2015); 17 of those 25 years have passed, which amounts to 68% of the total period provided for this effort.

Taken as a whole, the region has a very good chance of reaching this first target. Assuming that no major changes in income distribution occur in the next few years, Latin America will have to achieve GDP growth of 1.1% per year, which is less than its population growth rate. The low level of the required rate is partially due to the fact that four countries have already surpassed the target and are therefore "subsidizing" those that are further behind. This is all the more so because the over-achievers include Brazil and Mexico, which together account for over half of the region's population. In fact, the growth rate for countries that have not yet attained this first target averages 4.0% per annum, which translates into a 2.7% annual increase in per capita GDP.

Factors linked with poverty reduction

In this section the influence on poverty reduction of various demographic, household and labour-related factors in 1990-2005 in the countries of Latin America and the Caribbean will be examined. In view of the progress already made in reducing extreme poverty, the more ambitious target (halving the entire poor population, rather than just the extremely poor population) proposed in the 2005 inter-agency report on the Millennium Development Goals is taken into consideration in this evaluation.[4]

Generally speaking, poverty trends can be understood by looking at changes in three determinants of per capita household income: the ratio of employed persons to total population, labour income per employed person and non-labour income (public transfers, remittances, etc.).[5] When the percentage of employed persons, wages per employed person and non-labour income levels in low-income households rise, poverty levels tend to diminish. These determinants can, in turn, be broken down into a series of factors: changes in labour income are linked with the behaviour of human capital and productivity patterns,[6] changes in non-labour income stem from public and private transfers and from the rate of return on capital, and changes in employment levels can be traced back to demographic changes, shifts in family structures and the way in which households react to employment opportunities.

The high demographic dependency rates[7] of poor households are one of the factors that contribute to the perpetuation of poverty. In Latin America, poor households have higher fertility rates and thus have larger households. and a majority of the members of those households are children. This means that household income has to be distributed among a larger number of people and, at the same time, places limitations on working-age members' participation in the labour market, especially in the case of women. Nonetheless, in recent years the dependency ratio has been on the decline. This situation, which has been described as a "demographic bonus", offers a window of opportunity for poverty reduction.

Poor households' low income levels are also associated, among other factors, with the limited human capital of their economically active members. This situation, which ties in with the fact that these members have few job opportunities, sets up another vicious circle: on the one hand, the members of poor households have insufficient job training and thus are employed in precarious jobs and, on the other, the children and young people living in such households have few educational and training opportunities, are lacking in social capital and are employed in low-productivity occupations if they manage to find any employment at all.

An analysis of poverty trends in 1990-2005 based on this scheme reveals a wide variety of different situations (see table 2). Three points should be noted in this regard. First. the commitment undertaken to achieve the Millennium Development Goals coincides with a period in which the proportion of the total population represented by economically active household members has been on the rise. Second, throughout this entire period no increase has been seen

4 See United Nations, *The Millennium Development Goals: A Latin American and Caribbean Perspective* (LC/G.2331-P), J.L. Machinea, A. Bárcena and A. León (coords.), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), 2005.

5 This breakdown is valid when measuring poverty on the basis of money income, which can be used as a means of gauging people's and household's ability to meet their basic food and non-food needs.

6 Certainly, there are other factors as well that influence labour income, such as the degree of protection enjoyed by the labour force and its bargaining power (degree of unionization, existence of collective bargaining mechanisms, etc.).

7 Ratio of working-age population and total population.

in the labour incomes of employees from the poorest households except in Chile, Brazil and Ecuador (urban areas). Third, there has been a fairly widespread increase in non-labour income in poor sectors of the population. An analysis of the reasons for this increase will not be offered here, however, since disaggregated figures on the wide variety of income sources included under this heading (State transfers, remittances, etc.) are unavailable.

Only 5 of the 16 countries that were analysed have reduced poverty significantly since the early 1990s: the three countries where labour income per employee has risen (Chile, Brazil, Ecuador), Mexico and Panama, where the proportion of employed persons climbed considerably. The other countries have made little or no progress. The main limitation in these cases has been the labour market's poor performance. In the countries that have witnessed sharp reductions in poverty, the main underlying factors have been changes in household composition and in household members' participation in the labour market. Although this trend has been widespread in all the other countries as well, it has not been reinforced by sufficiently large increases in household transfers or remunerations.

Table 2

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): COUNTRY TYPOLOGY BASED ON TRENDS IN THE OVERALL EMPLOYMENT RATE, LABOUR INCOME PER EMPLOYEE AND NON-LABOUR INCOME IN POPULATION DECILES THAT INCLUDE POOR HOUSEHOLDS,1990-2005

Annual variation in poverty, by groups/countries [a]	Poverty – start of period [b]	Overall employment rate [c]	Labour income per employee	Per capita non-labour income	Poverty – end of period [b]
Sharp reduction [d] (variation of more than -1.5% per year)					
Chile 1990-2003	38.3	++	++	++	18.6
Ecuador 1990-2005	61.8	++	+	+	45.1
Brazil 1990-2005	47.4	++	+	++	36.2
Panama 1991-2005	42.8	++	–	+	32.7
Mexico 1989-2005	47.4	++	–	+	35.5
Slight reduction [d] (variation of between -1.5% and -0.5% per year)					
El Salvador 1995-2004	54.0	+	–	+	47.5
Costa Rica 1990-2005	26.2	+	+ –	+	21.1
Colombia 1991-2005	55.6	+	=	+	46.8
Guatemala 1989-2002	70.3	++	=	++	58.4
Nicaragua 1993-2001	73.6	++	– –	=	69.3
Honduras 1990-2003	80.5	++	– –	++	74.6
No progress [d] (variation of between -0.5% and 0.5% per year)					
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of) 1990-2005	40.0	++	– –	–	37.1
Bolivia 1989-2004	52.1	++	– –	+	51.6
Argentina 1990-2005	21.1	+	–	=	22.6
Uruguay 1990-2005	17.8	=	–	+	19.1
Increase (variation of over 0.5% per year)					
Paraguay 1990-2005	42.2	+ –	– –	+	47.7

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

Note: ++: Significant progress; +: Progress; = / +-: No change / progress and setbacks; -: Setbacks; – –: Significant setbacks.

[a] Because of the different years in which surveys are conducted, the values shown for poverty at the beginning and end of the period do not cover the years 1990 and 2005 for all of the countries.

[b] These percentages may not match those shown in last year's edition of the Social Panorama of Latin America because of changes in the treatment of the domestic service category. In the case of Guatemala, it was necessary to adjust the way in which the data were processed to compensate for the absence of measurements covering children under 10 years of age in 1989 and 7 years of age in 2002.

[c] Refers to the number of employed persons relative to the total population.

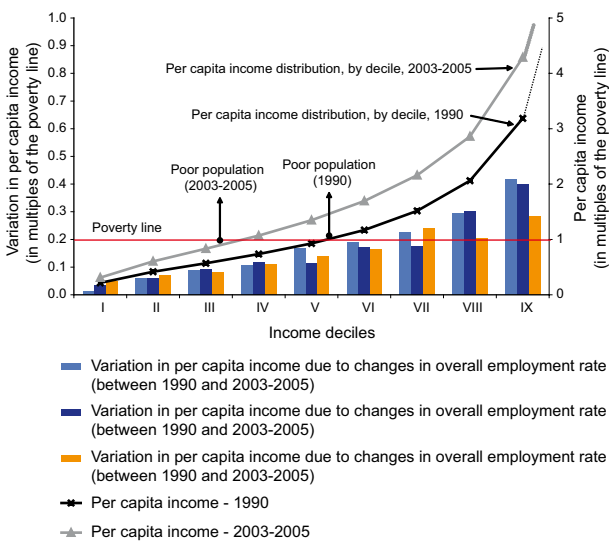
[d] The annual rate of reduction in total poverty for each country, which was used to classify the countries, was estimated using the following formula: ARR = ((FP-IP) / PI) *100)/y, where ARR = annual rate of reduction in poverty, FP = final poverty percentage, IP = initial poverty percentage, and y = number of years contained in the period.

A comparison of the countries in which poverty has decreased the most and the least underscores the importance of behavioural patterns relating to the labour market (see figure 3). For example, in Brazil, Chile and Ecuador (urban areas), which reduced poverty the most, the effect of the increase in the ratio of employed persons to the total population (dark blue bars in figure 3a) has been bolstered by an increase in labour income per employee (light blue bars). This combination signals the presence of a highly dynamic labour market. In addition, there has also been an increase

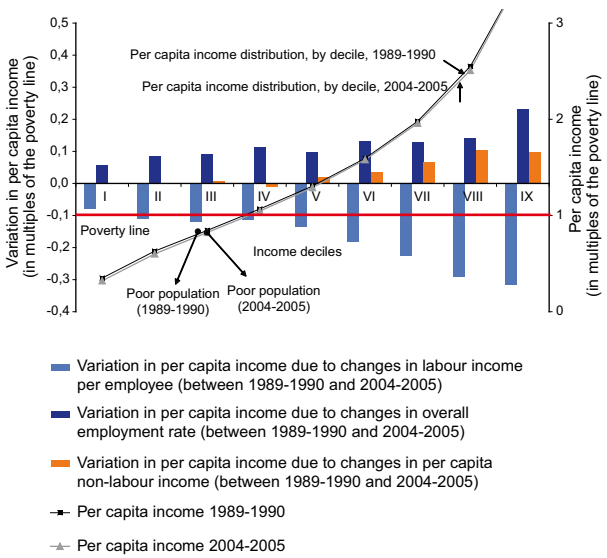
in non-labour income (orange bars). In Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires), Bolivia, Paraguay (Asunción metropolitan area), Uruguay (urban areas) and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, in contrast, labour income per employed person declined in poor sectors of the population, and this decrease was not offset by any increase in the employment rate or non-labour income. Consequently, they made no progress in reducing poverty.

Figure 3
DETERMINANTS OF CHANGES IN POVERTY LEVELS, DECILES I-IX:

(a) Countries recording sharp reductions in poverty and increases in labour productivity (Brazil, Chile and Ecuador, simple averages), 1990-2005



(b) Countries recording no progress or increases in poverty (Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia, Paraguay and Uruguay, simple averages), 1990-2005



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

Quite a few countries in the region are on track to reach the first target associated with the first Millennium Development Goal, thanks in large part to their success in capitalizing upon the "demographic bonus", as declining dependency ratios have been coupled with rising employment levels among the poorest households. There is still a shortfall in terms of increases in labour income and greater job opportunities for the poorest sectors of the population, however. One fact that the countries of the region should bear in mind is that the advantages afforded by this demographic bonus will ultimately be reversed and that, in order to continue making progress, public policies will have to be devised that will reconcile care work in the home with gainful employment, boost productivity in occupations performed by the poorest members of the population and, in the event that this does not occur, target social expenditure at the demands of the most vulnerable groups.

Poverty and residential segregation in urban areas

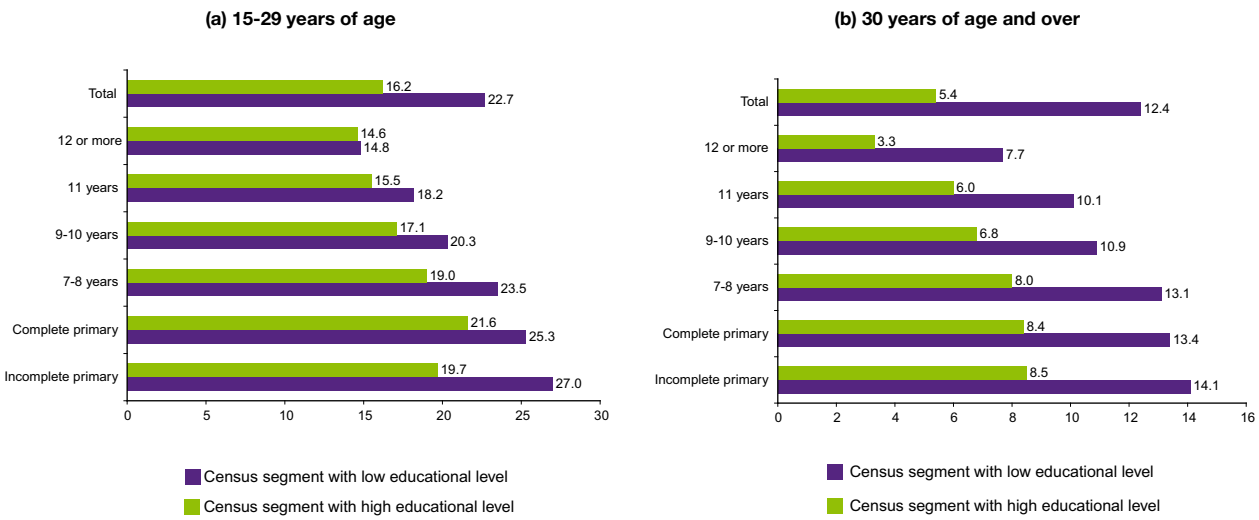
There are clear signs that changes in the labour and housing markets in Latin America are resulting in the increased geographic segregation of low-income (as well as middle- and upper-income) urban households. The possible negative implications of this growing degree of isolation —including the hardening of poverty and its inter-generational reproduction— are a cause of concern. At the same time, these patterns could pose a threat for social cohesion, inasmuch as residential segregation reduces and interferes with the spheres of activity that provide opportunities for learning to live with others under circumstances of inequality and for building bridges between different social groups.

Given the constraints that exist in terms of methodological limitations and the availability of data, it would be premature to say that urban residential segregation

is a causative factor in the perpetuation of poverty over time. There is, nonetheless, evidence of the existence of a relationship in Latin America between patterns of urban segregation involving the poorest sectors of the population and a number of behavioural outcomes in connection with participation in the labour market, educational attainment, reproductive decisions and adolescents' alienation from society's principal institutions.

Entry into the labour market and chances of finding work in the formal sector of the economy are associated with the social make-up of the neighbourhood of residence, above and beyond the individual's level of education. For example, unemployment rates are higher in census districts in Montevideo where educational levels are low than they are in districts with high educational levels, regardless of the years of schooling that people have completed (see figure 4). Analyses of own-account employment rates and the percentage of private-sector employees lacking health coverage or access to services provided by the Ministry of Public Health reveal similar situations. Factors that may account for these tendencies include the distance between residential areas and places of employment, the stigmatization of people residing in poor neighbourhoods, such people's limited access to information and contacts that would allow them to obtain jobs, and the socialization of children and adolescents living in such neighbourhoods in ways that inculcate anti-social modes of behaviour that reinforce their reluctance to utilize education and employment as ways of escaping poverty.

Figure 4
URUGUAY (MONTEVIDEO): OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATE, BY AVERAGE EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF THE CORRESPONDING CENSUS DISTRICT, BY AGE AND YEARS OF SCHOOLING, 1996 [a]
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of Uruguay's 1996 population and housing census.
[a] In Uruguay, the primary education cycle covers a six-year period; secondary education is divided into two three-year cycles. Data for 1996 were used because the relevant tabulations for 2004 census data are not available.

The type of neighbourhood may also influence the stock of human capital. The findings of a study undertaken in Mexico indicate that if the socioeconomic situation in a given neighbourhood deteriorates, the likelihood that students will drop out of school after the end of the first cycle of secondary education rises. Research in Buenos Aires, Santiago and Montevideo also reveals that children and adolescents residing in disadvantaged neighbourhoods score more poorly on achievement tests even when individual, household and school-related traits are controlled for. A study carried out in São Paulo indicates that the effects that neighbourhoods' social make-up can have on educational outcomes can be transmitted indirectly through those neighbourhoods' impact on teachers, since, under the system used to regulate the distribution of teachers in state and municipal schools, teachers who score the lowest in competitive application processes and those who are new entrants into the educational system are assigned to schools in outlying areas.

Residential segregation in urban areas may also be associated with higher teenage pregnancy rates and higher levels of institutional alienation. For example, a study conducted in Montevideo found that young people residing in underprivileged neighbourhoods exhibit higher rates

of non-participation in societal institutions (persons who neither attend an educational institution nor work) regardless of their parents' educational levels. Research findings on how the nature of urban neighbourhoods may influence teenage pregnancy rates in Rio de Janeiro, Santiago and Montevideo indicate that the social make-up of people's places of residence accounts for much of the differences observed in the prevalence of early motherhood.

Aside from the methodological constraints that may be a factor in this regard, in an effort to shed light on the causal relationships between residential segregation and the reproduction of poverty, this section will present evidence that illustrates how the character of neighbourhoods does indeed have an impact. It also shows why it is so important for public policymakers to pay more attention to changes in urban residential segregation, have greater control over the determinants of these processes and undertake a thorough-going review of urban land management measures and social housing programmes. Changes in the location of social housing, transportation and rental subsidies, and the extension of credit to low-income families so that they can purchase dwellings in formally constituted areas of urban centres are some of the types of actions that can shorten commutes between places of residence and employment or that can help rectify their negative effects.

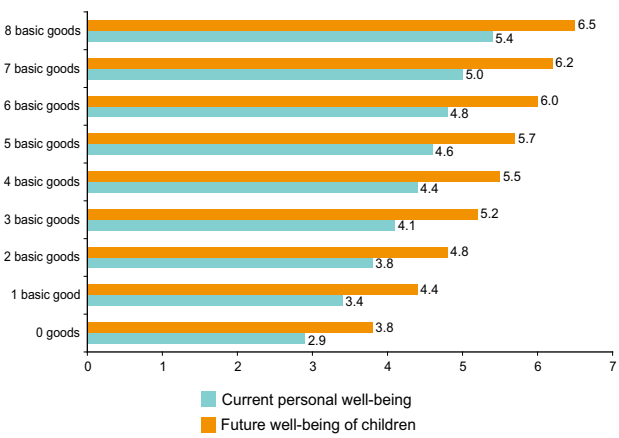
Poverty and social cohesion: psycho-social divides

An analysis of poverty and inequity should not be confined to their material components. An exploration of some of the psycho-social divides existing in 18 Latin American countries demonstrates how widely separated the various socioeconomic strata are in terms of their expectations of social mobility, confidence in State institutions, citizen participation and perceptions of being discriminated against. These divides are the subjective correlates of poverty and inequity. They hinder the inclusion of the poorest sectors, are a threat in terms of social cohesion and underline the need to implement multidimensional policies that will complement material transfers with initiatives designed to narrow the subjective distances separating different sectors from one another.

In terms of expectations of inter-generational mobility, people living in the more vulnerable households have lower expectations regarding their children's future well-being than members of households that are in a better economic position (see figure 5). Perceptions of the social structure also influence expectations of mobility. Regardless of the level of household well-being, people who believe that the social structure is open or egalitarian have greater expectations for their children than those who feel that it is closed or inegalitarian.

Although the most vulnerable sectors have lower expectations in terms of inter-generational mobility, this does not mean that they think their children will be worse off than they are. In fact, of all the socioeconomic groups, the people who think that their children will see the greatest improvement relative to their current situation (i.e., the sector in which the biggest jump in expectations is found) are in the poorest sectors of the countries' capital cities, whereas the least difference is found in the most vulnerable sectors of the most sparsely

Figure 5
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): CURRENT PERSONAL WELL-BEING, FUTURE WELL-BEING OF CHILDREN AND AVAILABILITY OF BASIC GOODS AND SERVICES IN THE HOME, 2006 [a b]
(Values expressed as averages on the basis of a self-evaluation scale of 1-10, where 1 = poorest persons and 10 = richest persons)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of the Latinobarómetro 2006 survey.

[a] Current personal well-being and expectations regarding the future well-being of the respondents' children are measured on the basis of a self-evaluation scale. Respondents were asked to rate their current personal well-being and the future level of well-being that they believe their children will have.

[b] The indicator of household ownership of durable goods and basic services includes the possession of: (1) refrigerator; (2) washing machine; (3) fixed-line telephone; (4) computer; (5) piped-in hot water; (6) automobile; (7) sewerage system and (8) cellular telephone.

populated areas. Policymakers in urban areas therefore face the greatest challenges, especially in connection with the creation of opportunities for employment, education and social inclusion.

Levels of confidence in State institutions are associated with households' economic well-being and per capita GDP, with higher levels being found among households in a more comfortable economic position and in the richer countries, and lower ones among households with lower levels of well-being and those located in poorer countries. These lower levels of trust in State institutions are evident among members of more vulnerable households, people who reside in the most densely populated urban zones and people who say they have less trust in their neighbours, as well. A fairly similar situation exists in terms of political participation, with members of the most vulnerable households participating the least.

This suggests that a segment of the poorest sectors of the urban population is suffering from a syndrome of mistrust that takes the form of low expectations regarding public institutions, very limited civic participation and a tendency to take refuge in family-based relationships and to hold markedly individualistic values. This may not only jeopardize the extent of the poorest sectors' access to social forms of support (owing to the deterioration of relations within their home communities), but may also stop them from organizing and from bringing their needs and demands to the attention of public institutions.

In the 18 countries that were analysed, the percentage of people who feel they are discriminated against is greater among those living in households with insufficient incomes and lower among households that are better off. When the area of residence is factored into the analysis, the highest levels of perceived discrimination are found among the members of the most vulnerable households located in areas with populations of over 100,000. One possible explanation for this is that in the most heavily populated urban areas the exclusions arising out of ascriptive behaviours are more conspicuous due to their dissonance with widely held egalitarian and meritocratic values. It is also plausible that there is a greater chance of being discriminated against in urban areas because of the greater diversity of social identities and actors with whom people come into contact.

Some of the forms of discrimination most frequently reported by people in the more vulnerable sectors of the population are associated with the denial of opportunities to improve their living conditions and ascend the social ladder because they lack various types of "capital" (lack of education and contacts). Age, identification with given ethnic groups (skin colour, race), disabilities and gender represent 31% of the cases of discrimination. This indicates that members of the poorest groups may feel discriminated against because of their membership in different social categories. These latter factors would include the denial of opportunities for social integration based on the obsolescence and/or lack of certain capacities (elderly persons or persons with disabilities).

Public social expenditure in Latin America

The level and structure of public social expenditure in Latin America continue to fall short of what is required to meet the social needs of the vulnerable population. Considerable advances in reducing indigence notwithstanding, these shortcomings are clearly a factor in the slow pace of progress in alleviating non-extreme poverty and in reducing inequalities in the region. On the one hand, the level of such spending is insufficient, and these funds are administered under severe budgetary constraints. On the other, the structure of expenditure has to be constantly adapted to address emerging social needs before existing ones have been met.

Adapting the level and structure of public social expenditure to constantly changing risk profiles and social needs should figure as one of the core elements of a new social contract in which rights constitute the normative horizon for efforts to address existing inequalities and budgetary restrictions. As part of this effort, the allocation of public funds for social ends should be designed to increase the coverage and quality of benefits provided by social programmes through a combination of contributory and non-contributory financing, together with a significant solidarity component.

The following section will explore the main characteristics of the level and structure of public social expenditure in the region and how they have changed over the past 15 years. It will also look at which income groups have been the main recipients of that expenditure and the impact it has had in terms of increased levels of well-being. Finally, with a view to the design of a new social contract, countries will be grouped into various categories based on an indicator that measures the distance existing between social needs and emerging risks, on the one hand, and the State resources allocated to social policies, on the other.

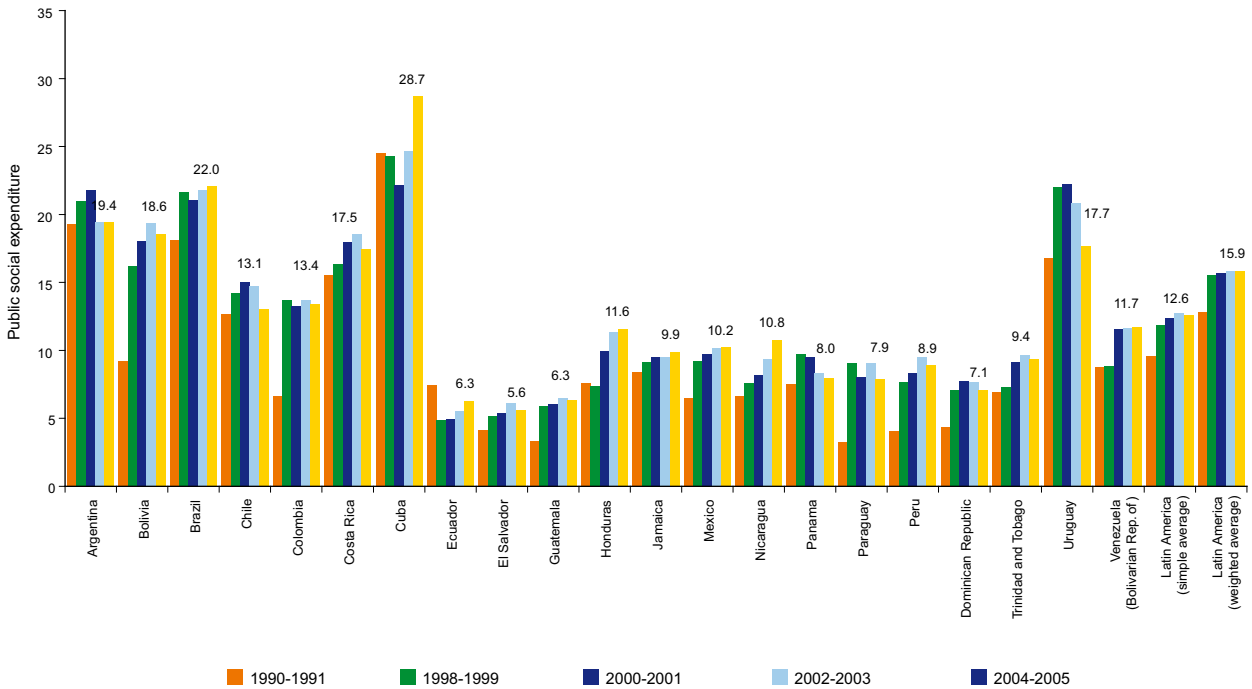
Level and composition of public social expenditure

The level of public social expenditure rose by nearly 10% between 2002-2003 and 2004-2005 to US$ 660 per capita (at 2000 prices). There are enormous differences across countries, however. Per capita expenditure is 15 times greater in the country that spends the most than in the country that spends the least. In all, 12 out of the 21 countries analysed spend less than US$ 350 per capita per year, 6 spend between US$ 550 and US$ 870 per capita, and only two spend more than US$ 1,000 per person per annum.

An examination of the figures points up five main characteristics:

- The trend towards allocating larger amounts of public resources for social policies has levelled off, but has not reversed itself. The upward trend seen up to 2000-2001 in the percentage of GDP that governments are using for social expenditure (or, in other words, the macroeconomic priority assigned to these items of expenditure, which is a measurement of the effort being made by a government to allocate resources for social policies) has been changing since 2002-2003 (see figure 6). Nevertheless, the simple fact that, at the regional level, the macroeconomic and fiscal priority assigned to public social expenditure has been maintained (albeit with some exceptions) provides an assurance of continued financing, stability and greater institutional legitimacy for social policy.
- Public social expenditure remains subject to strong budgetary constraints and in many cases is associated with small tax burdens. As a result, the level of such expenditure is too low in a number of countries, particularly since there are signs that the international assistance and borrowings that used to provide countries with some sort of margin may cease to be available as financing options for countries that no longer receive official development assistance (ODA).
- In the past one and one-half decades, the less developed countries have made greater increases in their efforts to allocate resources for social policies. The effort made by countries in this connection declines as they become richer. The less developed

Figure 6
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (21 COUNTRIES): PUBLIC SOCIAL EXPENDITURE AS A PERCENTAGE OF GDP, 1990-1991 TO 2004-2005

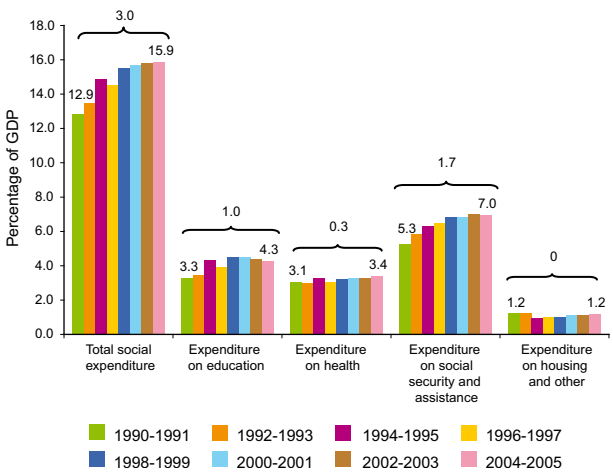


Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information available in the Commission's social expenditure database.

countries that receive ODA have tended to increase their efforts in this area more than the relatively more developed ones have. Bolivia, Honduras and Nicaragua, which are high-priority ODA recipients, are cases in point.

- Social security and assistance continue to be the top priority, followed by education. At the regional level, over the long term (1990-1991 to 2004-2005) the increase in this spending effort is equivalent to three percentage points of GDP. Most of this increase has been channelled into social security and assistance, followed, in order of priority, by education and health (see figure 7). These allocation decisions presumably reflect a growing concern about poverty and about protection for older adults as the population ages.

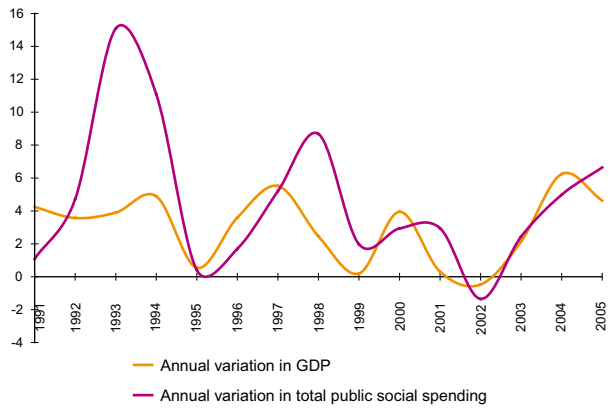
Figure 7
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (21 COUNTRIES): PUBLIC SOCIAL EXPENDITURE AS A PERCENTAGE OF GDP, BY SECTOR, 1990-1991 TO 2004-2005 [a]



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information available in the Commission's social expenditure database.
[a] Weighted average of the countries.

8 The diversity of functional classifications for public social expenditure in the region makes it difficult to separate the social security component from the social assistance component in order to make time series comparisons across countries.

Figure 8
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (21 COUNTRIES): ANNUAL VARIATION IN TOTAL PUBLIC SOCIAL EXPENDITURE AND GDP [a]
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information available in the Commission's social expenditure database and national accounts.
[a] Weighted average of the countries.

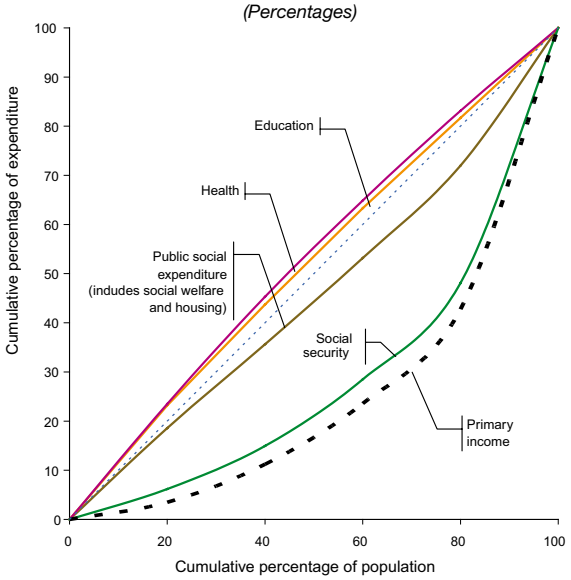
Orientation and redistributive impact of public social expenditure

In the presence of budgetary constraints, governments will try to channel more resources into social services for the lowest-income sectors. Because of budget commitments and the nature of access to public services, however, some components of public expenditure will not exhibit the expected degree of progressiveness, despite governments' best efforts and use of targeting instruments to this end. In recent decades, public social policy has —with some differences across countries— had to counteract the impact of State reforms that have gradually increased the level of private social-service financing and delivery and have tended to be of greater benefit to higher-income sectors.[9] Social spending has become more progressive as the coverage of public services has expanded (particularly in the cases of education and health) to include more economically depressed or isolated geographic (e.g., rural) areas, which tends to benefit lower-income strata proportionately more.[10]

The general information available on the orientation of social spending reveals the following four characteristics:

- A degree of progressiveness is linked to increases in the coverage of spending on education. The

Figure 9
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): DISTRIBUTION OF PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING BY PRIMARY INCOME QUINTILE, 1997-2004 [a]
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) on the basis of national studies.
[a] Weighted average for the significance of each item of expenditure in the primary income of each country. The progressive items in absolute terms are on the diagonal, which is the line of equidistribution.

9 Sectors with greater payment capacity or the ability to exert political pressure due, in part, to their concentrate in large metropolitan areas.
10 This gives medium- and low-income sectors gradual access to education and health care and, at the same time, as part of explicit efforts to combat poverty, caters to population sectors that have traditionally suffered from exclusion.

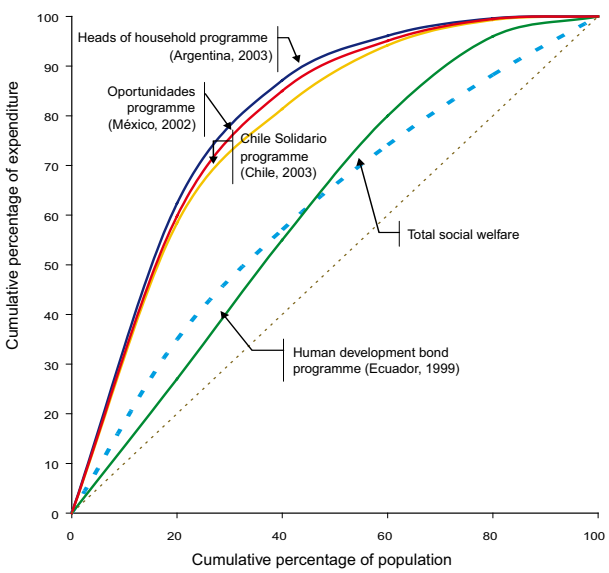
increase that has occurred over time in the coverage of the various levels of public education (preschool, primary, secondary and tertiary) has made it possible to gradually incorporate lower-income sectors of the population into the education system. As a result, today, spending on primary education is highly progressive, unlike the case in the other cycles of the education system. Since progress through these cycles is linked to students' socioeconomic status, public funding for higher education tends to favour the most affluent sectors. In fact, in all countries, public financing for tertiary education is highly regressive.

- The composition and location of benefits determine what impact they will have in terms of the equity of health expenditures. The redistributive effect of such expenditure has increased, and it has become more progressive than spending on education due to the scale of expenditures on preventive health care, first aid and outpatient services in the poorest sectors of the population relative to spending on hospital services (which, depending on the country in question, may be either slightly progressive or actually regressive). The main reason for this is the high investment costs involved in expanding hospital coverage, since this means that such services are frequently confined to the most densely populated areas and those who can afford to make co-payments.
- Because of the essentially contributory nature of social security, expenditure in this category is regressive. Social security systems are generally designed in such a way that access to benefits is determined by people's contributory capacity and, hence, by their position in the labour market. This is why social security expenditure is so highly regressive, since it favours people with formal-sector jobs that give them a greater contributory capacity. Efforts to increase coverage have tended to retain or expand the contributory funding mechanisms that were designed decades ago, which in some cases include subsidies or solidarity components.
- Social assistance is becoming a pro-poor form of social expenditure. The purpose of social assistance is to counterbalance disequilibria in access to productive resources and the labour market as well as to other social benefits. In the case of this type of expenditure, targeting gives expression to a principle of social policy by permitting priority to be placed on minimum levels of benefits for the poorest sectors.

Social assistance should be countercyclical so that, at times of economic crisis, these benefits can be expanded in order to curb or mitigate the deterioration in the well-being of those sectors that are most vulnerable to changes in the business cycle. The wide range of programmes that provide such assistance focus on the sectors subject to the highest degrees of social exclusion. Generally speaking, spending on social assistance in the region is quite progressive: on average, 55% of social assistance expenditure is received by the poorest 40% of the population, and 60% of that reaches the poorest quintile.

Anti-poverty programmes, particularly those that use conditional transfer mechanisms, are among the most progressive categories of social expenditure (see figure 10). The information gathered for this study does indicate, however, that even with these programmes there is some "leakage" into higher-income sectors. This points to the existence of certain problems in the area of targeting.

Figure 10
LATIN AMERICA (11 COUNTRIES): DISTRIBUTION OF PUBLIC SPENDING ON SOCIAL WELFARE PROGRAMMES BY PRIMARY INCOME QUINTILE, 1997-2004 [a]
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of national studies.
[a] Weighted average for the significance of each item of expenditure in the primary income of each country.

Redistributive impact of public social spending [11]

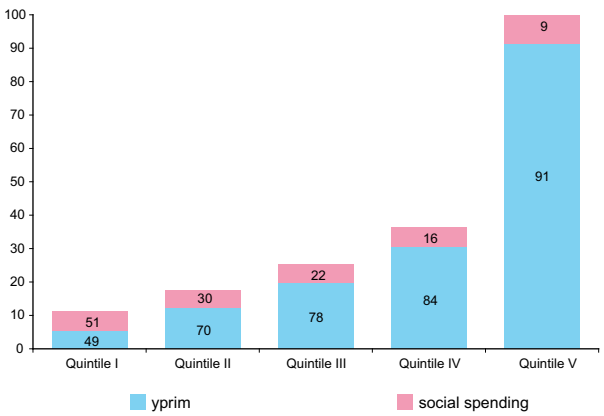
One way of assessing the management of public policy and social programmes is to measure their effect on the distribution of primary income. This involves quantifying goods and services transferred to the population and assessing their monetary value. The way in which social programmes help to increase disposable household income and make short-term changes in the household's primary income distribution can thus be evaluated.

Public social spending does not have a significant redistributive effect in the sense of substantially reducing income concentration. This is mainly because such spending only represents 19.4 % of primary household income. Another reason is that this resource is not allocated solely for the purposes of improving equity. Social spending provides a dramatic boost to the well-being of the poorest in society: on average it doubles the disposable income of the poorest quintile, while also having significant effects on other strata. For the wealthiest quintile, social spending increases their income by 9 % (see figure 11).

Of all the forms of social spending, that which has the greatest impact on the primary income of the poorest groups is education, as it accounts for 40% of the transfers received by the lowest quintile (7.4% of total social spending, see figure 12). The next most important heading is health, followed by social assistance. The order is the same for the second quintile, with social security becoming more important for the third quintile, while representing the most significant transfer for the fourth and fifth quintiles (social security represents 59% of the public resources received by the higher income quintile).

The manoeuvring room that public policy makers have for increasing the progressivity of social spending is understandably limited, as the distribution of certain headings that make up a large proportion of resources (such as social security) are the result of long-standing contractual commitments. In addition, the targeting of expenditure in areas like education and health depends on the level of coverage and widespread access to public services. It also depends on the development of public-private partnerships to guarantee both access for the poorest, as well as high-quality yet affordable private options for those with less resources. This will reopen the debates on which components should be guided by the principle of universality and which expenditure should be targeted;

Figure 11
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): [a] REDISTRIBUTIVE IMPACT OF PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON INCOME, BY PRIMARY INCOME QUINTILES, 1997-2004
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of national studies.
[a] Average weighted by the significance of spending for primary income in each country.

Figure 12
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): [a] BREAKDOWN OF SPENDING BY PRIMARY INCOME DISTRIBUTION QUINTILES, 1997-2004
(In percentages of total social spending)

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of national studies.
[a] Average weighted by the significance of spending for primary income in each country.

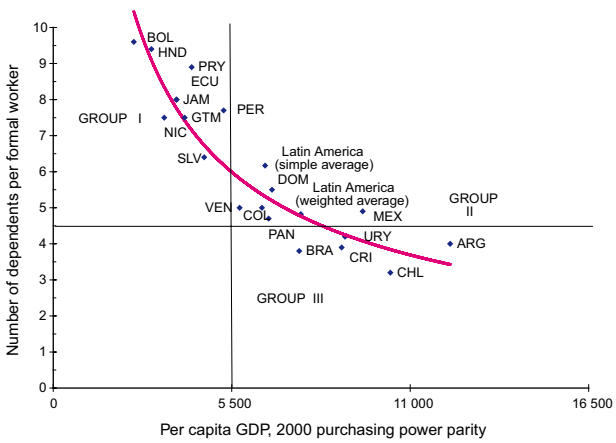
[11] Although it is important to improve means of targeting to focus resources on those who most need them, it is also vital to increase the cost effectiveness of the many social programmes. Low-cost measures (such as distributing food rations to tackle or prevent child undernutrition) often have a significant social impact in terms of improving a situation or reducing the risks for households or the State.

and also, in the light of the principle of efficient allocation of resources, debates on how to set up solidarity-based and non-contributive mechanisms for benefits that should be universal in a social protection system.

Public social spending by groups of countries: towards a composite typology

One aid to understanding the challenges of social policy funding is a new indicator of dependency between citizens working in the formal sector and the rest of the population.[12] The purpose of this indicator is to assess the potential capacity of social protection systems (financed through contributive mechanisms used by formal workers) to meet the needs of those people who do not directly access social services in the context of such a system of financing. The indicator makes it possible to define countries according to their level of development and the stages they have reached in terms of demographic transition and maturity of the labour market (see figure 13).

Figure 13
NUMBER OF DEPENDENTS FOR EVERY FORMAL WORKER, ACCORDING TO PER CAPITA GDP



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of national accounts and household surveys of the countries concerned.

There emerges a first group of countries with per capita GDP of under US$ 5,500 (purchasing power parity (PPP) of 2000), that are at an early stage in terms of demographic transition and mature labour markets. Such countries therefore have high levels of dependency for each formal worker, with needs mainly concentrated among young people and the underemployed. The second group of countries has surpassed the development threshold of a per capita GDP equivalent to US$ 5,500, but is still trailing in the demographic transition and maturing of its labour markets, with between 4.5 and 6 dependents per formal worker. In these countries, the needs of young people remain paramount, although to a lesser degree, while non-workers and the underemployed make up a larger proportion. Like the second group, the third group of countries has exceeded the US$ 5,500 threshold for per capita GDP and has between 3 and 4.5 dependents for every formal worker. The burden of young people's needs remains high, and other groups to emerge include the underemployed, non-workers and older adults (see table 3).

This typology shows six characteristics of the implicit social contracts that govern the allocation of expenditure. First, transition societies in group II have needs that are increasingly similar to those of group III, but with a spending structure that remains more like group I (i.e. a marked lack of spending on social security and assistance).

Second, irrespective of their level of development, all countries allocate a relatively similar percentage of public social spending to health spending. Spending on housing, however, falls in proportion with the rise in a country's level of development. Health spending represents around 20% of public social expenditure. Social spending on housing, on the other hand, differs according to a country's level of development and dependency ratio.

Third, the biggest contrast in the groups of countries is between the allocation of resources for education and those for social assistance and security. The countries of groups I and II allocate the largest percentage of their spending (between 30% and 40%) to education, and the remainder to a combination of social assistance and security and housing (especially the former). In countries of group III, spending on housing represents a mere 5% of the total, whereas they allocate over 50% to social assistance and security.

12 Ratio of children under 15 years of age, older adults, non-workers, the unemployed and informal workers to every worker employed by the formal sector. See Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC)/Ibero-American Secretariat (SEGIB), *Espacios iberoamericanos* (LC/G.2328), Santiago, Chile, October 2006.

Table 3
TYPOLOGY OF COUNTRIES, BY CHALLENGES TO SOCIAL CONTRACT

	GDP per capita, PPP in 2000 dollars	GDP per capita, in 2000 dollars	Dependents per formal worker	Social spending per capita, PPP in 2000 dollars	Social spending per capita, in 2000 dollars	Breakdown of dependents per formal worker (percentage)		Breakdown of public social spending (percentages)		Concentration index	
Group I	2 000 - 5 500	800 - 2 800	6 to 10	230 - 480	90 - 290	Young people	42.4	Education	41.5	Education	-0.087
						Older adults	8.3	Health	19.5	Health	0.074
						Non-workers	18.7	Social security and social welfare	30.7	Social security	0.504
						Unemployed or informal workers	30.6	Housing and others	8.3	Social welfare	-0.089
						Total dependents	100			Housing and others	0.206
										Total public spending	0.143
						Percentage of formal workers [a]	31.7				
Group II			4.5 to 6	500 - 1 210	200 - 845	Young people	38.7	Education	36.8	Education	0.116
						Older adults	10.0	Health	21.9	Health	-0.073
						Non-workers	24.4	Social security and social welfare	27.1	Social security	0.568
						Unemployed or informal workers	26.9	Housing and others	14.2	Social welfare	-0.154
						Total dependents	100			Housing and others	0.067
										Total public spending	0.042
						Percentage of formal workers [a]	45.9				
Group III	more than US$ 5 500	more than US$ 2 800	3 to 4.5	1 400 - 2 400	700 - 1 550	Young people	35.4	Education	21.6	Education	-0.138
						Older adults	12.0	Health	21.3	Health	-0.192
						Non-workers	23.5	Social security and social welfare	52.2	Social security	0.349
						Unemployed or informal workers	29.1	Housing and others	4.9	Social welfare	-0.484
						Total dependents	100			Housing and others	-0.026
										Total public spending	0.044
						Percentage of formal workers [a]	54.2				

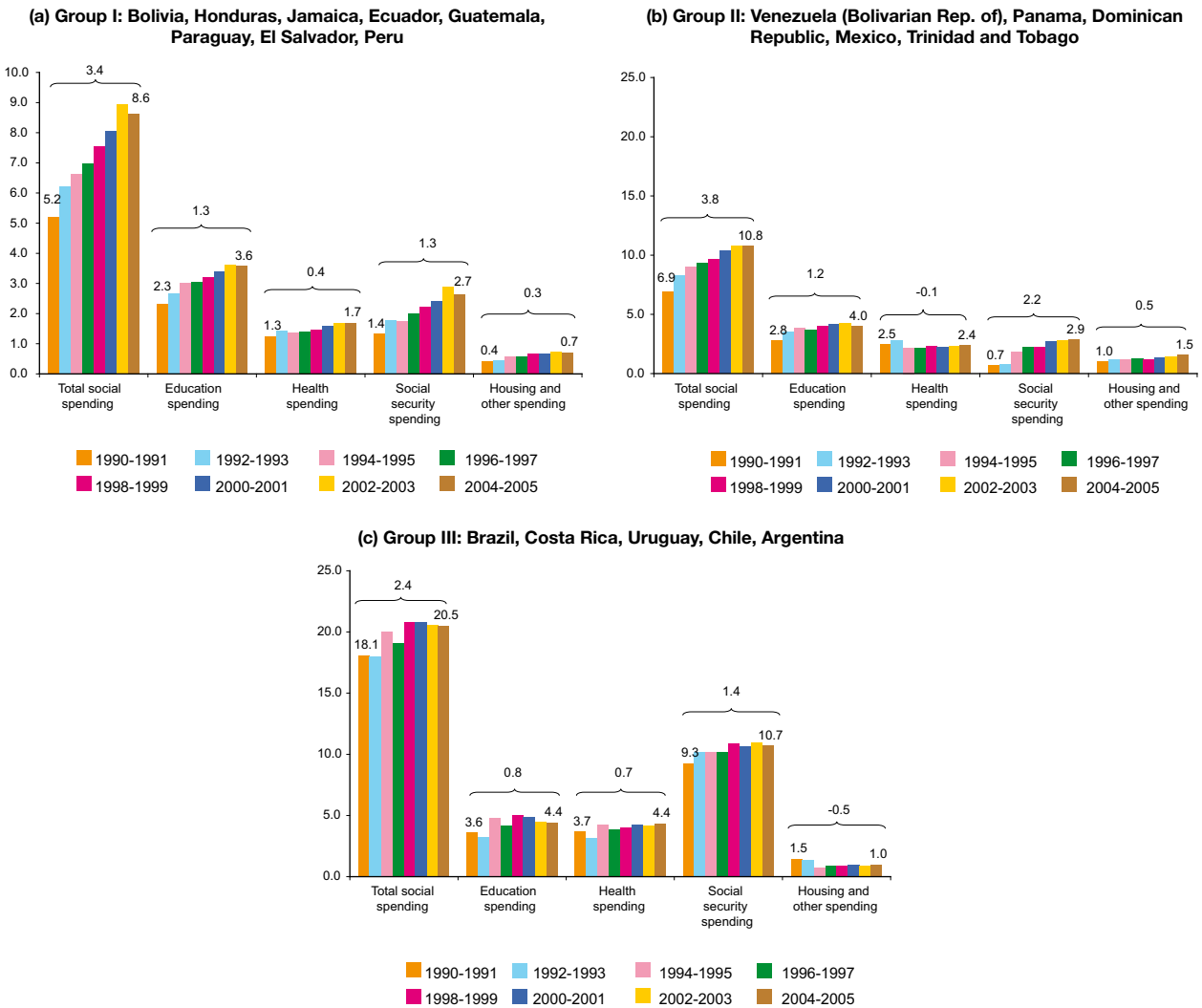
Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of official information from the relevant countries, national reports, household surveys, population estimates from the Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) - Population Division of ECLAC and World Bank, World Development Indicators [online database] www.worldbank.org/data/onlinedatabases/onlinedatabases.html.
[a] Refers to people aged 15 to 59 employed in the formal sector in relation to total employed for that age group.

Fourth, the less developed countries made more effort to increase public funding channelled into social policy between 1990-1991 and 2004-2005 (see figure 8). In all countries, the main priorities are social assistance and security, followed by education. This represents growing concern over the financing of retirement and pension systems, and the priority governments attach to improving the coverage and quality of education. Despite this progress, groups I and II still lag behind in spending on social assistance and security and health in relation to the levels of expenditure of group III and their ageing societies.

Fifth, all three groups of countries tend to manage public social spending on a completely procyclical basis (see figure 14). This is partly to do with the significance of wage expenditure in all countries, and partly to do with the need to manage country risk. Only group I countries display a counter-cyclical trend due to the nature of the official aid they receive for development and natural disasters.

Sixth, the greater levels of social security coverage in countries with higher levels of development and population ageing involves allocating more resources to programmes that do not have a major impact in terms of reducing inequity. However, the regressiveness of such spending falls as countries increase social security coverage.

Figure 14
TRENDS IN PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING, BY GROUPS OF COUNTRIES



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information from the Commission's social expenditure database.

Public spending and social contract

Efforts to increase public social spending seek to bridge the gap between needs and emerging risks, on the one hand, and the scarce resources available in social protection systems, on the other.

The creation of mortgage management sectors has resulted in a gradual handover of housing provision from the public to the private sector, with financing now in the hands of families supported by State subsidies. The same has happened with education in the most developed countries, where private supply has grown to meet the demands of high-income groups. Many countries have changed the ways in which social security and health benefits are funded and provided, basing the system on workers' contributions to social security systems.

The rising presence of the region in global markets has also required spending policy to be linked to the business

cycle to avoid harming countries' access to credit markets, except when fiscal surplus policies have been established in periods of robust growth (as in Chile) to give stability to social investment when the economy stalls. Market-oriented reforms and the practice consisting in making social benefits subject to individual insurance contracts highlight the need for greater regulation and availability of non-contributive financing in order to reconcile efficiency and solidarity. This should form the basis for the debate on a new social contract for social cohesion, as the current system leaves many risks uncovered and requires correction to redistribute resources to the most vulnerable groups and apply the countercyclical rule to social spending.[13]

Latin American societies cannot escape the challenges inherent in the nature of social spending. Sooner or later they will have to discuss specific arrangements and guidelines. Social change is forcing the authorities to devise a feasible strategy for meeting new needs without having satisfied existing ones. Given current low levels of expenditure, resources should be allocated with increasing transparency on the basis of redefined priorities.[14] The right combination of efforts by families and the State should be at the heart of a social contract.[15] Such a contract should study the correct dimension of public funding and identify priorities for the main social investments.[16]

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13 See Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the Ibero-American Secretariat (SEGIB), *Social cohesion. Inclusion and a sense of belonging in Latin America and the Caribbean* (LC/G.2335), Santiago, Chile, January 2007.

14 With universal coverage at certain levels of education to invest in children and young people in group I countries, then support to families to help reconcile work and caregiving in group II countries, and on to basic pension and health guarantees for the countries of group III.

15 In the absence of a social contract, the region has put into practice different proposals aimed at strengthening the market and reducing the role of the State. These have proved costly and resulted in exclusion. To counter this, ECLAC and the Ibero-American Secretariat (SEGIB) suggest the need for an agreement to rebuild public social policy and improve well-being.

16 See Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), *Shaping the Future of Social Protection: Access, Financing and Solidarity* (LC/G.2294(SES.31/3)/E), Santiago, Chile, March, 2006.

The quality of education: inequalities that go beyond access and educational progression

The considerable expansion of education coverage, which in some countries applies to the entire school-age population, is one of the sector's most striking advances in recent decades. These advances have been the result of pro-active social and educational policies, often involving transformations of management methods in education systems, sustained budgetary increases, diversification of funding systems and participation of economic agents and social stakeholders.

Nevertheless, the achievements have not been evenly spread throughout all spheres of education, and have served to highlight shortcomings in terms of the quality of education. To a large extent, the various problems relating to quality and other difficulties of the education system (school completion, repetition and drop-outs) are manifestations of a much deeper and entrenched phenomenon: social inequality.

This document examines different educational advances in the region, the various manifestations of inequality throughout the education cycle, and the way in which some of these are part of the problem of education quality.

Advances in the right to education: access, progression and completion

Access to education. One of the main achievements has been the increased access of children and young people to the formal education system. This is partly the result of significant investment that countries have made in infrastructure, which has made it possible to extend the coverage of educational services. However, this has not always gone hand in hand with the necessary expansion in the number of teachers and the provision of the materials needed to support the learning process.

Since the beginning of the 1990s, access by the school-age population has increased throughout education, especially at the higher levels. This is mainly a reflection of rising standards of attainment in primary education, which are needed for pupils to go on to the next level. However, progress in access to pre-school education has been more moderate, despite the acknowledged importance of early education in stimulating the learning process for the rest of children's lives. Around 2005, just over 84% of children were attending the final year of pre-primary education.

School attendance among children of primary-school age is practically universal (97%), although access was already widespread (91%) at the beginning of the previous decade. There have been significant rises in net access (pupils attending school at the level that corresponds to their age) of children in the lower and upper cycles of secondary education and at the post-secondary level: the net attendance rate in the lower cycle has gone from 45% to 69%; has almost doubled in the upper cycle from 27% to 47%; and in the post-secondary level has risen from 11% to 19%.

General advances in terms of coverage and access have been of greater benefit to low-income strata, although these are also more affected by the progressive reduction in access over all levels of education.

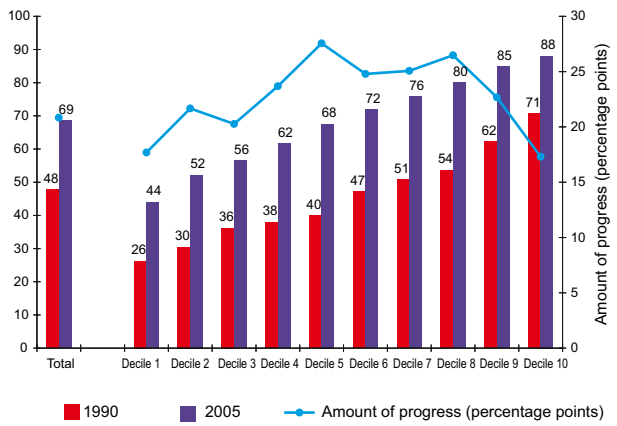
Educational progression. Under-attainment and grade repetition act as a disincentive for retaining low-income students, as the opportunity cost of finishing education cycles rises. High costs are also involved for education systems. According to estimates by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the region spends some US$ 12 billion per year as a result of grade repetition.

According to information from household surveys, between 1990 and 2005 there was a considerable increase in the timely progression of children aged 10 to 14 throughout primary education[17] and in some levels of secondary education (from 55% to 78%). The percentage of timely promotions among students aged 15 to 19 also rose significantly (from 43% to 66%).

[17] Most countries have automatic promotion processes in the first two years of primary school, and sometimes up to the fourth grade of primary. This therefore significantly brings down the level of underachievement for those particular cohorts.

In the youngest cohort, the advances have been proportionally more beneficial to low-income pupils, except those from the first income quintile. In the cohort aged 15 to 19, the advances have been more unequal: favouring mainly students from middle-income strata (see figure 15). Despite considerable increases in access for the most disadvantaged strata, students from such groups nonetheless find it more difficult to progress, particularly when they reach early and late secondary cycles. As a result, disparities in educational underachievement have widened.

Figure 15
LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): YOUNG PEOPLE, AGED 15 TO 19, WHO HAVE MOVED UP STEADILY THROUGH THE SECONDARY SCHOOL SYSTEM BY PER CAPITA INCOME DECILE OF THEIR HOUSEHOLDS, AROUND 1990 AND 2005 [a]
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.
[a] Allowance is made for one year's lag in cases of late entry into the school system.

Completing levels of education. Advances in this area have been even more impressive than progress in terms of access, mainly because levels of achievement recorded in the late 1980s and early 1990s were considerably lower.

Around 2005, approximately 92% of young people aged 15 to 19 had completed their primary education. Completion of the early-secondary cycle rose from 53% to 71%, partly thanks to the efforts of many of the region's countries to make this cycle compulsory. The most significant progress was made in the completion of the second cycle of secondary education. Over the course of about 15 years, the percentage of young people aged 20 to 24 to have completed that cycle almost doubled from 27% to 50%. There were also improvements in the completion of higher education, although on a smaller scale: the percentage of young people aged 25 to 29 to have completed at least five years of higher education increased from 4.8% to 7.4%.

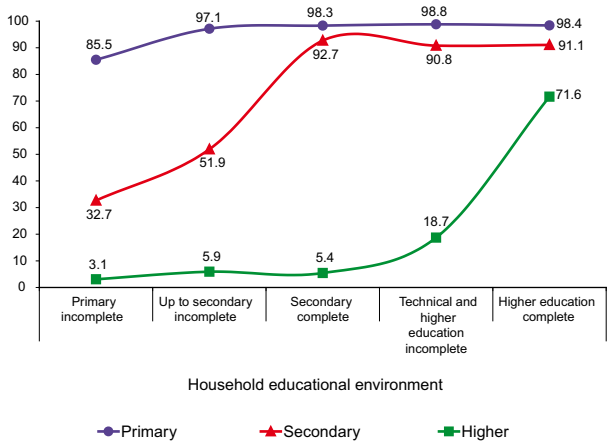
Although the various advances have reduced inequality in educational achievement, the effect has been much less significant at higher levels of education, to the extent that completion progress in higher education has involved a low proportion of low-income students and has almost exclusively benefited young people from middle- and high-income strata.

Transmission of educational opportunities

The principle of universalizing access to education aims to provide people with the necessary opportunities for accessing, progressing through and completing a learning process, plus the certification thereof. Although equal opportunities in education do not guarantee individual and family well-being, unequal opportunities certainly perpetuate poverty. Inequality of opportunities is a factor of reproduction, in that it can either facilitate or hamper the main mechanism for accessing long-term well-being. This has led to claims that educational capital is, to a certain extent, inherited.

The differences in access to education between those from households with low educational capital and those whose parents completed higher education tends to increase in proportion with the age of the children concerned. This difference in educational opportunities is not too great up to the age of 14 or 15 but increases from then onwards, such that only 26% of young people aged 18-19 whose parents have low levels of education continue their studies. There are also major differences in terms of progression through school.

Figure 16
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): COMPLETION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION (YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19), SECONDARY EDUCATION (AGES 20 TO 24) AND HIGHER EDUCATION (AGES 25 TO 29), BY HOUSEHOLD EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT, [a] AROUND 2005
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.
[a] Average number of years of schooling of the head of household and spouse, as a way of estimating parents' education. Among those aged 25 to 29, the indicator is more biased as a relatively significant proportion has set up their own households. However, using young people of that age who describe themselves as children of the head of household considerably reduces sample sizes.

The across-the-board increase in attainment at the primary level has benefited the children of parents with a lower level of education in particular. Although there has also been significant progress in completion rates at the secondary level, the differences remain as entrenched and affect students in the two lowest strata whose parents have a lower level of education. No improvement has been observed in higher education. Although completion rates have risen in higher education, the pattern of attainment remains dependent on the educational environment of the household (see figure 16). All of the above serves to maintain the highly rigid social structure in Latin America, and continues to hinder social mobility. This is because, as the completion of primary and secondary education becomes more commonplace, so such achievements lose some of their value.

Quality of education: another manifestation of inequality

Children enter a system that offers very different services and from the outset are affected by structural inequalities. Initial inequalities are maintained or deepened within the education system, and it can no longer be assumed that children inevitably learn once in school. In this context, equity cannot be conceived as an educational equality whereby all children are treated in the same way, but rather a process of differentiation must be undertaken so that discrepancies can be compensated for in a way that will lead to equal opportunities.

In this sense, ensuring quality education for all would constitute a lifelong process of inclusion (ensuring respect for the right to education, equal opportunities and participation), which would provide the tools needed to face the various obstacles that exclude or discriminate against students and limit their learning or full development as people. Quality education for all, in addition to being the response to a demand for equity, must be significant and relevant.

According to the results of the reading comprehension test organized in 43 countries by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) as part of the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA),[18] the Latin American nations that took part (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Mexico and Peru) generally obtained the worst distributions of results: in the 27 OECD countries about 15% of students were below level 1 (out of 5), compared with 45% in 11 countries from other regions (mainly Asia), and over 54% in Latin America.

Given that the heterogeneity of results within in each country is partly due to the variety of grades or levels among pupils of the same age, students from one grade only were selected: 10th grade, which is usually the final cycle of early secondary school.

18 The 2000 round of the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), which involved the largest number of Latin American countries to date, was based on the language test administered to the entire sample. The mathematics and science tests were only given to partial samples. It was therefore decided to analyse the language test, as this had the most robust statistical results.

Factors associated with differences in educational results

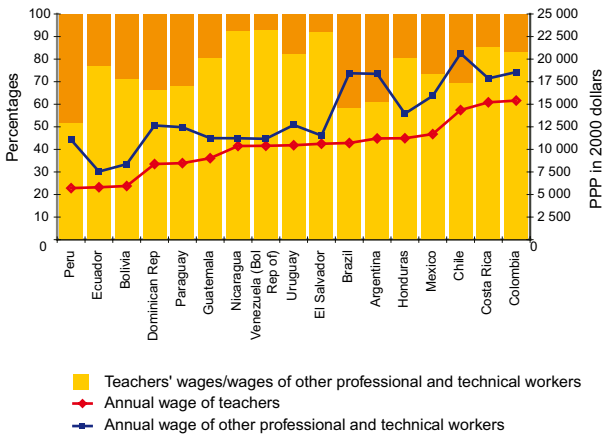
General evidence suggests a strong link between levels of per capita GDP and educational performance. However, the performance of the region's students is lower than expected given the countries' level of wealth, which points to the existence of other factors that have a more direct impact on performance.

- Teachers and school environment. According to evidence from the PISA test, the level of teacher training and support in the region is less associated with heterogeneous performance than in OECD countries. This suggests that, in Latin America, extra-scholastic factors have more effect on differences in performance. There is also a lack of significant difference in the characteristics of teachers (number of teachers, level of training, experience, and so on) in various forms of educational institutions (public as opposed to private, with good or poor infrastructure, or with poor rather than wealthy pupils). The most significant aspect was the level of teacher commitment to activities and to the students,[3] and is associated with the aforementioned characteristics of specific schools. One of the issues that kept cropping up in the analysis of the education sector's problems was that of performance incentives for teachers, particularly in the form of wages. Although wages are not necessarily a source of motivation, they can become a cause of dissatisfaction. Despite the fact that teachers' wages enable most families to live free of poverty, they often do not provide a standard of living that lends itself to professional development (see figure 17). This has a negative effect on continuing professional development and discourages young people in higher education from becoming teachers.

In addition, teachers' commitment may be strengthened or weakened by other work conditions: teaching materials and equipment, management, student ability and motivation, school environment, etc.

- The relevance of education. Although some problems of education quality are usually attributed to social inequality and educational segmentation, the general characteristics of education systems should not be ignored. According to international criteria, not even the more affluent Latin American students sufficiently develop skills in reading comprehension, interpretation, relations and abstraction. The results suggest that educational curricula do not match the skills required in today's world, which is why even the wealthiest students are affected. This strengthens the argument put forward by UNESCO that the need to improve the quality of education is now essential for the region.
- Social inequality and unequal capacity building. The main factors associated with differences in scores are extra-scholastic: parents' educational level and socio-occupational status, material well-being of the household (general equipment) and educational and communication materials available at home. In all countries analysed, the intergenerational transmission of education opportunities continued to operate, this time in the building of capacities and skills essential for a full participation in society.

Figure 17
LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE ANNUAL RATIO OF TEACHERS' INCOME AND WAGES TO THOSE OF OTHER WAGED PROFESSIONALS AND TECHNICAL WORKERS, AROUND 2005
(Purchasing power parity in 2000 United States dollars and percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)/UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Latin America and the Caribbean (OREALC)/International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP), *La inversión educativa en América Latina y el Caribe. Las demandas de financiamiento y asignación de recursos*, Buenos Aires, 2007.

[19] Measured using an index of headteachers' evaluations of teacher morale, commitment to their work, pride and identification with the school and valuing of the academic achievement of pupils.

However, in developed countries there are fewer inequities than in Latin America when people enter education, and the education obtained has less effect on the level of well-being that can be reached in a lifetime. In this sense, socioeconomic inequality is less pronounced and, above all, has less impact on the development of language skills. Differences in the educational "premium" (income) are also smaller. One important challenge facing the region is therefore to reduce inequalities in the quality of employment associated with level of education.

- Educational segregation. One of the common problems in education systems is the socioeconomic and geographic segmentation of service quality. Wealthier parents prefer to send their children to schools with more resources, and those schools usually favour the entry of pupils from families with higher levels of well-being. Those from lower-income backgrounds, on the other hand, often have a very small number of educational options. The schools that take low-income pupils tend to have shortcomings in terms of infrastructure, educational inputs and the number and training level teachers. These are almost always public schools in low-income or rural areas, where they are practically the only school available for nearby students.

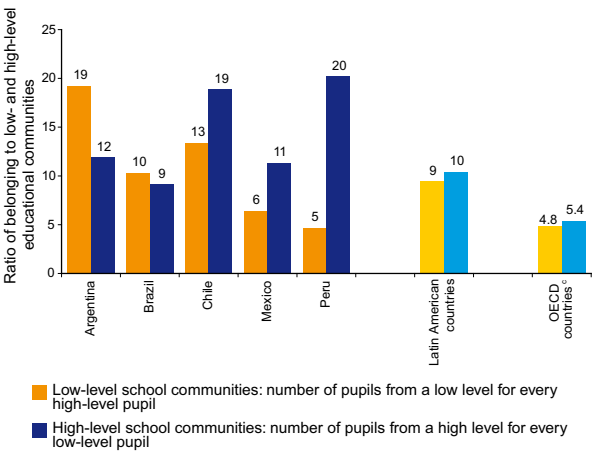
This "self-selection" process, which tends to be concentrated at the two ends of the social spectrum, can turn schools into "ghettos", with both high-income and low-income school communities (educational segregation). This results in some schools having environments conducive to learning and skill-building, while in others difficulties are more likely to be generated.

Latin American countries display much more homogeneity in the composition of school communities (in terms of parents' socio-occupational status and levels of material well-being) compared with developed countries. This is even more true of students from the most comfortable backgrounds, except in Argentina, where the trend is more pronounced among poorer students. In OECD countries, a high-income student is five times more likely to belong to a school community with high well-being than a low-income student. In Latin America, this ratio is 10 to 1. The situation is acute in Peru and Chile, where the ratio is over 20 to 1 (see figure 18a).

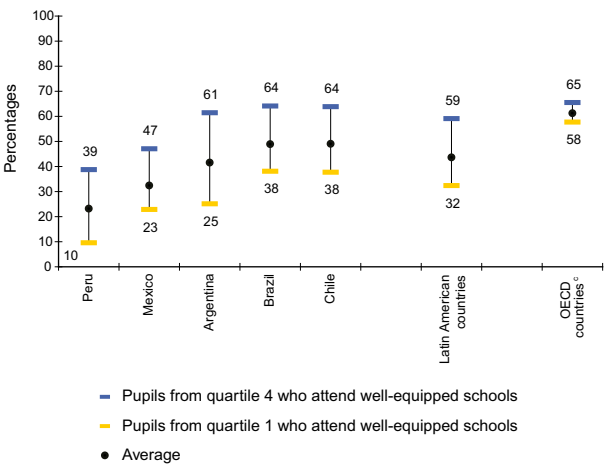
Added to this is the segmentation of educational supply. In the region's countries, inequalities in access according to classification in the upper or lower quartiles of the socio-occupational index are more pronounced than in developed countries. Whereas 59% of students from the highest quartile attend schools with a good level of educational equipment, the same can only be said of 32% of those from the lowest quartile (see figure 18b).

Figure 18
LATIN AMERICA (5 COUNTRIES) AND OECD (7 COUNTRIES): COMPOSITION OF EDUCATIONAL COMMUNITIES BY SOCIO-OCCUPATIONAL LEVEL OF PARENTS, AND PARTICIPATION OF STUDENTS [a] IN SCHOOLS WITH GOOD EDUCATIONAL EQUIPMENT, [b] ACCORDING TO PARENTAL SOCIO-OCCUPATIONAL QUARTILES
(Ratios and percentages)

(a) Homogeneity of educational communities (school segregation)



(b) Students who attend schools with well-equipped schools



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), "Programme for International Student Assessment" [online database] http://www.pisa.oecd.org.

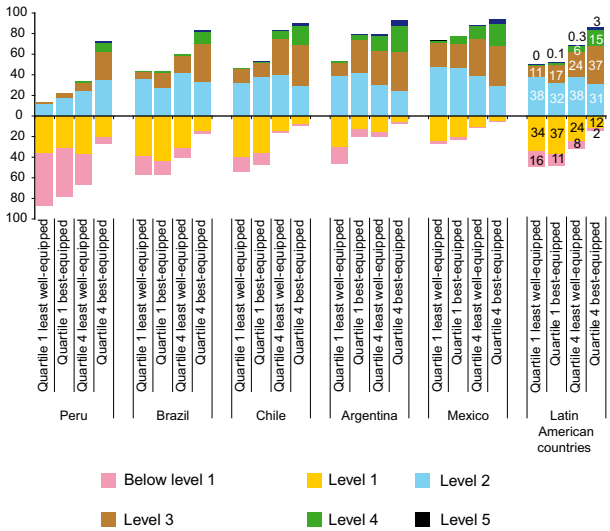
[a] Students in 10th grade.

[b] Schools were divided into two levels on the basis of educational equipment (library, multimedia tools, computer laboratories, chemistry laboratories, etc.).

[c] Total of 27 countries excluding Mexico. Regional totals are weighted.

At the two ends of the social spectrum, school communities tend to be more homogenous. Rich and poor students are separated, with a significant proportion of the latter attending public schools with infrastructure and other problems, while the former attend well-equipped private schools.

Figure 19
LATIN AMERICA (5 COUNTRIES): DISTRIBUTION OF LEVELS OF PERFORMANCE IN THE READING TEST AMONG TENTH GRADE STUDENTS, BY SOCIO-OCCUPATIONAL STATUS OF THEIR PARENTS AND EDUCATIONAL EQUIPMENT OF THEIR SCHOOLS
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), "Programme for International Student Assessment" [online database].

High levels of educational segregation and segmentation reinforce inequalities in how pupils make use of the educational process: the sociocultural disadvantages of low-income students are combined with access to lower-quality educational services, which all results in lower levels of learning. Among poor students who attend poorly equipped schools, 12% performed adequately at the third level or higher in terms of reading skills, while the percentage was 20% among those who attend better equipped schools. In the richest quartile, these percentages rise to 30% and 55%, respectively (see figure 19).

Generally speaking, the educational system in Latin America is more affected by the region's highly unequal social structure. The rise in secondary schooling accentuates the stratification of institutional service provision, and the territorial nature of education services increases school segmentation. Both the traditional and more modern elites send their children to schools that provide a full day of teaching and a varied curriculum. In addition, within their strata these students form bonds that reinforce the social networks and capital needed to find a good job. Poorer students, on the other hand, usually attend schools with greater shortcomings in terms of infrastructure, curriculum and general resources. Social stratification is therefore reproduced at school, thereby weakening the capacity of educational systems to provide children and young people with more equal opportunities. Given the above, the educational system acts more like a social differentiation mechanism that lays the foundations for the inequalities that will be subsequently reproduced on the labour market.

Conclusion

The quality of the education received by children and young people is largely dependent on their economic resources. This is linked to the educational environment of the household, the effects of which include the existence of a home environment more or less suited to reinforcing the learning process. As attainment at the primary and secondary school levels has become more widespread, disparities in educational quality now plays a major differentiating role in the transition to post-secondary education, which provides the key to decent jobs and sufficient wages. The quality of education therefore becomes a focus in the intergenerational reproduction of opportunities for well-being.

Although such extra-scholastic factors carry some weight, any review of student performance shows that these can be offset from within the educational system. Studies of schools with outstanding performance in adverse socioeconomic conditions indicate the importance of school management, including less emphasis on hierarchy and authoritarianism, respect for people, close relations with parents and participation in the decision-making process. In terms of teaching practice, positive factors include a wide range of teaching strategies, emphasis on homework, group work and high expectations for pupils on the part of teachers.

It is also vital to ensure that teachers have post-secondary training to enable them to: acquire the necessary pedagogical tools, earn a wage that is sufficient and perceived as such (to avoid having to hold down another job), and feel that their expertise and working methods help pupils to acquire skills. It is essential to provide schools with enough equipment and support materials

so that teachers have the right tools with which to guide the learning process. Other recommendations include not grouping students according to particular characteristics, involving parents in school activities, promoting a respectful classroom environment and harmonious relations between pupils, allocating more time for reading for pleasure and developing a more positive attitude towards reading, as well as providing a wider range of materials.

Countries must set up or strengthen various compensatory mechanisms to level the conditions of the most disadvantaged pupils, so as to enable them to face promotion systems that provide a higher more homogenous standard of assessment of the skills needed to fully develop social citizenship. This implies, inter alia, ensuring that automatic promotion processes do not become a disincentive for teacher performance.

Lastly, the region must not lose sight of the fact that the high level of school segregation not only reproduces educational gaps between the rich and the poor, but also perpetuates feelings of belonging and social integration in school microcosms, thereby sowing the seed for the high levels of socioeconomic polarization present in Latin American society. Reducing school segregation and segmentation is not only about improving the quality of education for all, but is also part of the strategy needed to tackle the region's economic, social and political fragility. An indispensable part of this task is to build a new social cohesion covenant in Latin America and the Caribbean, while the major stumbling block is the persistent and yawning social inequality in the region. The new social contract must explicitly include educational policies that tackle the problem of social inequality head on, by means of affirmative action to compensate for the disadvantages of the poorest students and improve the quality of the learning process while reducing the high level of stratification within education systems.

Internal migration and development in Latin America and the Caribbean: continuity, changes and policy challenges

Internal migration, which means moving residence from one administrative division to another within the same country, has been experienced by many people in Latin America and the Caribbean. However, the intensity of migration in the region is unexpectedly falling (see table 4). Some of the hypotheses put forward to explain this, which all require further research, include: the replacement of internal migration by international migration or commuting to work or study; increased house ownership as a result of higher incomes; settlement patterns influenced by tele-commuting; and a slowdown of rural-to-urban migratory flows due to urbanization. What can be ruled out as an explanation is a reduction in territorial inequalities within countries, as these remain extremely high in the region.[20]

Table 4
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: PERCENTAGE OF INTERNAL MIGRANTS BY TYPE OF MIGRATION, 1990 AND 2000 [a]

Census round	Lifetime migration		Recent migration (last 5 years)	
	Major administrative division (percentage)	Minor administrative division (percentage)	Major administrative division (percentage)	Minor administrative division (percentage)
1990	17.5	34.2	5.1	12.6
2000	17.7	35.2	4	8.7

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, on the basis of special processing of census microdatabases.
[a] 18 countries in 1990 and 20 in 2000 (not all had data for all four types of migration).

Areas of net in-migration tend to be those offering better living conditions. In this case, migrants' quest for better opportunities appears compatible with a territory's capacity to comfortably receive migrants. Nonetheless, there are some emerging phenomena that may upset this balance. These include suburbanization into areas with limited infrastructure on the outskirts of large cities. Thus, suburbanization, which usually involves private-sector businesses and decisions, requires major public investments.

Socio-economically disadvantaged areas within countries, for their part, tend to be sources of migration. This is the case for the countryside (see table 5) and various poverty-stricken and mainly indigenous areas (see maps 1 and 2). Given that this loss of population is not random, but rather consists mainly of young and generally more skilled migrants, this type of emigration erodes the human-resource base needed for the development of poor areas that are losing population. Migration can therefore offer a means of escape for those who leave, but can aggravate the situation of those who remain, in what could be termed a geographical poverty trap.

The advance of urbanization in the region has modified the profile of internal migrants, who now mainly move between or within cities. In addition, current movements no longer follow the patterns of urban concentration of previous decades. Although the capital city remains attractive in most countries, other large cities have begun to register net emigration since the 1990s, as people leave for other dynamic urban centres. Internal migration is therefore promoting a more diverse and less asymmetric system of cities that is more conducive to economic and social development than the high urban primacy typical of many countries in the region.

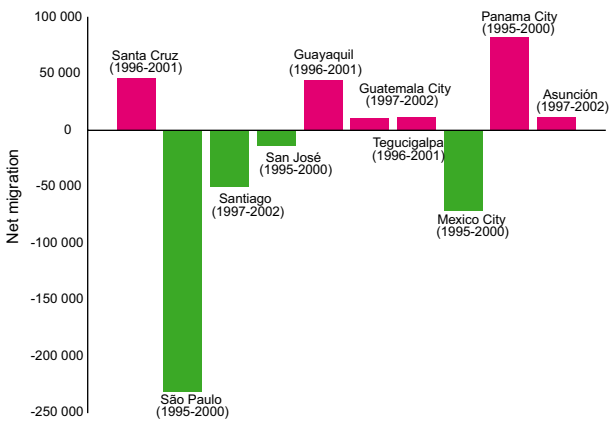
[20] Latin American and Caribbean Institute for Economic and Social Planning (ILPES), "Economía y territorio en América Latina y el Caribe: desigualdades y políticas", document presented at the twelfth Conference of Ministers and Heads of Planning of Latin America and the Caribbean, Brasilia, 26 and 27 June 2007.

Table 5
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: NET MIGRATION FROM THE COUNTRYSIDE TO THE CITY AND GROWTH OF THE URBAN POPULATION, REGIONAL TOTAL AND SELECTED COUNTRIES
(With different levels of urbanization)

Selected countries and regional total	Net rural-to-urban migration, 1990-2000	Growth of urban population aged 10 and over 1990-2000	Relative significance of rural-to-urban migration for urban growth
Chile	382 623	1 939 951	19.7
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	847 392	4 235 917	20.0
Brazil	9 483 867	26 856 555	35.3
Mexico	4 183 486	13 103 802	31.9
Guatemala	824 486	1 384 850	59.5
Honduras	303 742	685 610	44.3
Total	**19 636 438**	**58 344 252**	**33.7**

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, on the basis of indirect processing of inter-censal survival ratios.

Figure 20
LATIN AMERICA: NET INTERNAL MIGRATION FROM LARGEST CITIES, SELECTED COUNTRIES AND DATES



Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, on the basis of special processing of census microdatabases.

Despite its increasingly urban nature, internal migration continues to drive the physical expansion of major cities through intra-metropolitan migration. This form of migration is determined by very different factors from those underlying traditional migration (countryside to city or between regions). Furthermore, this form of migration also has a direct effect on residential segregation, and thus has worrisome implications for the fight against poverty and the promotion of social cohesion.

Migrants tend to be young people, women and people with above average levels of education. Indeed, the stereotype of the unskilled internal migrant from the era of country-to-city migration does not even apply to groups who are still located in mainly rural areas, such as indigenous migrants (see table 6). Predictably, given that many migrants move for work-related reasons, migrants have higher labour participation rates even in countries with high levels of unemployment. This reveals a somewhat complicated adjustment process under way in migrants' areas of destination.

In terms of policies, the underlying principle is to combine the right to migrate in the best possible conditions within a given country, with the fight against territorial discrimination that tends to force outflows from certain disadvantaged areas. There is no place for interventions geared towards hindering migration or pressuring people to move, as they are incompatible with every person's right to freely decide when and where to move within a country. Incentives to move or stay in a particular place of residence should be offered directly to individuals or companies in the form of, inter alia, subsidies, "zonal attachment", tax breaks and labour or professional compensation. Public action in the context of subnational development (through the provision of infrastructure and basic support services for productive clusters) also plays a vital role, although the aim is not always explicitly linked to migration.

Interventions in migration and the spatial distribution of the population are not limited to signals from the market or the State. The high proportion of intra-metropolitan displacement makes current migration more sensitive to urban regulations and the secondary effects of social policy in cities (particularly in terms of housing, transport and infrastructure). Policy instruments, such as development plans or city master plans, have a powerful effect on migration. The same can be said of housing and public transportation policies, which have direct and sometimes mechanical consequences on changes of residence within cities. Examples of interventions that combine the offer of incentives with urban planning and public investment include repopulation programmes in the city centres

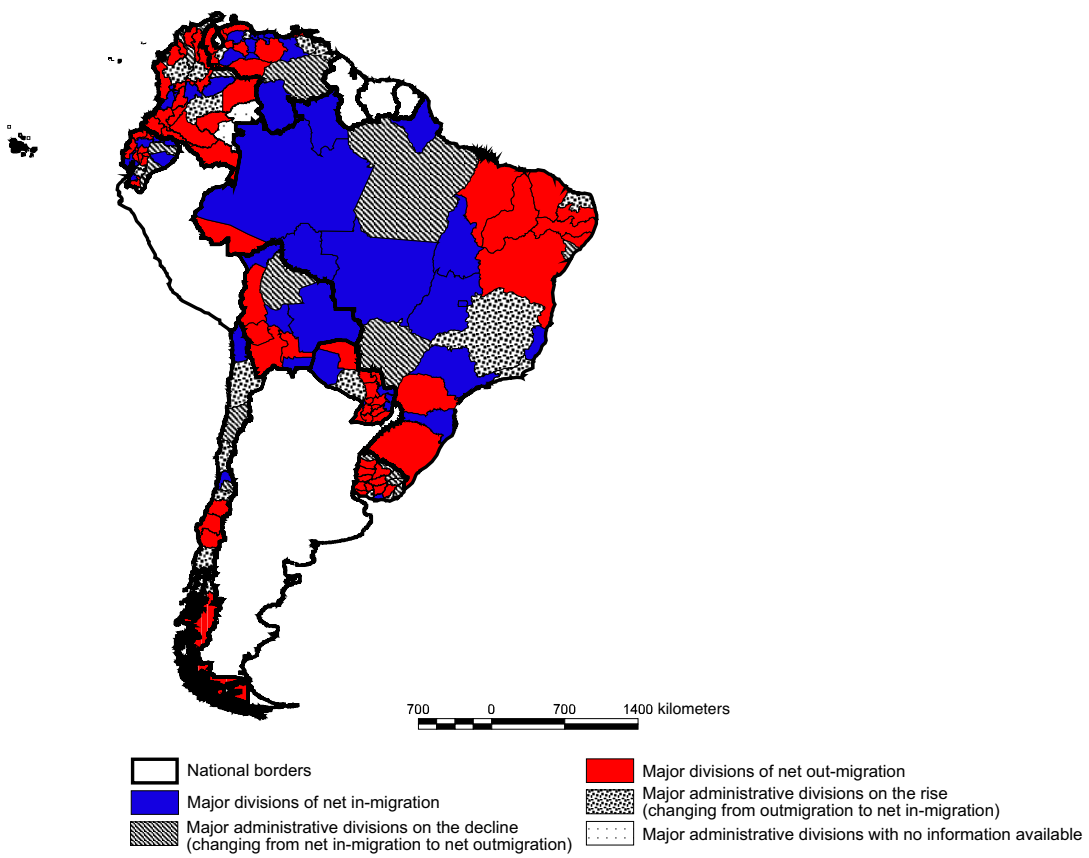
of various metropolises in the region. While the costs, benefits and results of such programmes have yet to be fully assessed in detail, they definitely appear to offer a means of intervening in the decision to migrate.

Table 6
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: PROPORTION OF POPULATION WITH HIGHER EDUCATION, ACCORDING TO INDIGENOUS STATUS AND RECENT MIGRATION BETWEEN MAJOR ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS, SELECTED COUNTRIES AND YEARS

Country and year	Indigenous		Non-indigenous	
	Migrant	Non-migrant	Migrant	Non-migrant
Bolivia, 2001	16.4	12.0	13.2	8.4
Brazil, 2000	3.7	1.8	6.7	5.5
Chile, 2002	14.6	8.8	29.2	17.7
Costa Rica, 2000	5.3	2.6	12.3	10.1
Guatemala, 2002	1.6	0.7	6.3	5.6
Mexico, 2000	4.2	2.2	13.4	8.8

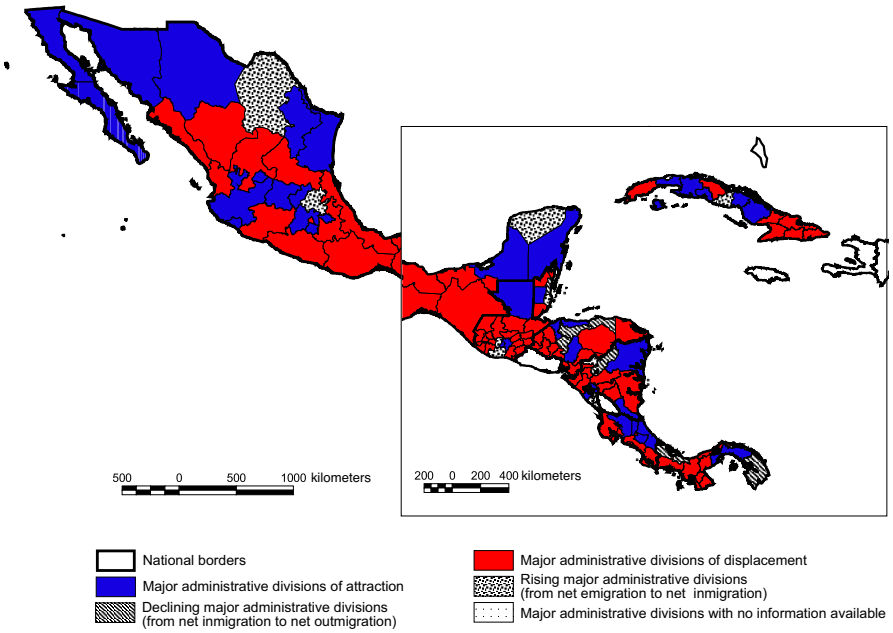
Source: Fabiana del Popolo and others, "Indigenous peoples and urban settlements: spatial distribution, internal migration and living conditions", *Population and development series*, No. 78 (LC/L.2799), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latina America and the Caribbean (ECLAC),

Map 1
SOUTH AMERICA, SELECTED COUNTRIES: MAJOR ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS BY MIGRATION STATUS, CENSUS ROUNDS 1990 AND 2000)



Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, on the basis of figures from the database on Internal Migration in Latin America and the Caribbean (MIALC) [online database] http://www.eclac.cl/migracion/migracion_interna/ and information from countries.
Note: The boundaries and names shown on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the United Nations.

Map 2
CENTRAL AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN, SELECTED COUNTRIES:
MAJOR ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS BY MIGRATION STATUS, CENSUS ROUNDS 1990 AND 2000



Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, on the basis of figures from the database on Internal Migration in Latin America and the Caribbean (MIALC) [online database] http://www.eclac.cl/migracion/migracion_interna/ and information from countries.
Note: The boundaries and names shown on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the United Nations.

Social agenda: health programmes and policies for indigenous peoples in Latin America and the Caribbean and the international social agenda

In Latin America, the emergence of indigenous movements as political actors in democratic contexts more conducive to the creation of pluricultural States has enabled progress to be made towards the recognition of the rights of indigenous peoples. Following 20 years of negotiations, one explicit manifestation of this is the adoption by the United Nations General Assembly of the Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples (13 September 2007), which consists of 46 articles establishing minimum parameters in terms of land ownership rights, access to natural resources in settlement territories, respect and conservation of their traditions, self-determination, etc. The Declaration also recognizes individual and collective rights to education, health and employment.

The above-mentioned Declaration and other international human rights instruments can be used to establish a set of minimum health standards: the right to the highest level of physical and mental health by means of non-discriminatory, adequate and quality access; the right to comprehensive indigenous health including the use, strengthening and monitoring of traditional medicine and the protection of their territories as living areas; the right to participate in the design, implementation, management, administration and evaluation of health policies and programmes, with special emphasis on the autonomy of resources.

These standards bring with them new State obligations in terms of legislation and public policy. Although only

Table 7
LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): SPECIAL LEGISLATION ON THE HEALTH OF INDIGENOUS PEOPLES

Country	Free and preferential access	Traditional practices	Protection of medicinal plants	Health care according to customs	Indigenous participation in management and promotion of the health system	Autonomous management of health resources
ILO Convention No. 169 ratified						
Argentina [b]	X	X	[a]	X	X	---
Bolivia	X	X	X	X	X	X
Brazil	X	X	[a]	X	X	---
Colombia	X	X	[a]	X	X	X
Costa Rica	X	[a]	X [c]	[a]	[a]	
Ecuador	X	X	X	a	X	X
Guatemala	X	X	[a]	a	[a]	---
Honduras	[a]	[a]	[a]	a	[a]	---
Mexico [b]	X	X	X	a	[a]	---
Paraguay	[a]	[a]	[a]	a	[a]	---
Peru	X	X	X	a	X	---
Venezuela (Rep. Bol. de) [b]	X	X	[a]	X	X	X
Not ratified						---
Chile	X	---	---	X	---	---
El Salvador	---	---	---	---		---
Nicaragua	X	X [c]	---	X [c]	X [c]	X
Panama	X	X	X [c]	X	X [c]	X

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), "Indigenous legislation database" [online database] 2006 http://www.iadb.org/sds/ind/site_3152_s.htm.
[a] ILO Convention concerning Indigenous and Tribal Peoples in Independent Countries (ILO Convention No. 169).
[b] Some provinces and states have additional legislation.
[c] Only in indigenous territories (reserve, autonomous regions, *comarcas*).

the constitutions of the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Ecuador and Mexico explicitly recognize the collective health rights of indigenous peoples, some progress can be seen in the legislation of most countries (see table 7). Despite this, the legislative recognition of indigenous peoples' health rights remains far removed from the actual application of those rights, as the indigenous population has more a negative epidemiological profile than the rest of the population.

Health sector reforms geared towards the equity, efficiency and quality of health benefits are conducive to furthering the application of indigenous health rights, with priority given to the active participation of the communities themselves.

Countries fall into four groups when it comes to indigenous health policies: a large number of countries have a national indigenous peoples' plan; a second group has begun the process to devise and implement such a policy; a third group has an explicitly intercultural approach as part of their national health policies; and finally there are those countries that have no specific policies for indigenous peoples (see table 8).

Table 8
LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): HEALTH POLICIES AND INDIGENOUS PEOPLES

Situation	Countries
Countries with a national policy in terms of health and indigenous peoples	Bolivia Brazil Chile Costa Rica Ecuador Mexico Nicaragua Panama Peru Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)
Countries in the process of formulating a policy	Argentina Colombia
No specific policy, but it is a cross-cutting issue in national health policy	Guatemala Honduras
No relevant policy or focus	El Salvador Paraguay

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of results from a survey sent out to countries.

An overview of such programmes shows a heterogeneous supply with two main trends: programmes specially designed to improve the health of indigenous peoples (particularly those that concentrate on specific aspects such as traditional medicine and human resources training); and regular programmes that are part of strategic or policy lines within health systems. Some of the achievements to date include the consolidation of differentiated health models and the improvement of the health conditions of indigenous peoples. There are also limitations, however, including the scarce availability of trained human resources, low levels of financing and a lack of continuity in the allocation of resources. Some programmes have successfully incorporated the participation of indigenous peoples in these processes, while other programmes need to make more progress in this area. The widespread lack of systematic information on the health situation and epidemiological profile of indigenous peoples is one of the main obstacles to defining health goals and assessing the results of enforcing their individual and collective rights.

The major challenge for public policy is to continue advancing towards implementing standards for the health rights of indigenous peoples. This implies considering indigenous health as an integral concept (including territorial rights and the right to cultural integrity) and the full participation of indigenous peoples in the definition, management and assessment of health programmes and policies. This should form the basis for differentiated health care models (intercultural, integral, and complementary).

Furthermore, it is vital to make progress in the training of human resources (in order to achieve an intercultural health dialogue) and in producing knowledge to sustain the development of such models and facilitate the formulation, follow-up and evaluation of health goals. Examples include appropriate systems of indicators, studies on sociocultural epidemiology, participatory community health diagnostics and local research into traditional medicine and health/disease, with an assessment of effectiveness in each context. Adequate and continuous funding is key if these objectives are to be achieved, as this will guarantee the autonomy of indigenous peoples as holders of collective rights.

Implementing minimum standards in the collective health rights of indigenous peoples undoubtedly poses huge challenges for the formulation of public policies, as it involves a State-level rethink of everything from conceptual frameworks to the definition of health targets and actions, as well as requiring indigenous peoples and organizations to make effective progress in exercising and protecting their right to health.

International agenda

The main aims of the tenth session of the Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean, organized by ECLAC from 6 to 9 August 2007 in Quito, Ecuador, were to review political participation and gender parity at all levels of decision-making processes and analyse women's contribution to the economy and social protection (especially in terms of their unpaid work).

Country representatives adopted the Quito Consensus, which contains 36 agreements including ones relating to parity, women's political representation and participation and their contribution to the economy and social protection through unpaid domestic work.

Countries also made a commitment to adopt measures aimed at eliminating the diverse forms of violence perpetrated against women (especially homicide of women), to develop comprehensive, non-sexist public education programmes designed to counter gender and racial stereotypes and other cultural biases against women and promote relationships of mutual support between women and men, and to undertake efforts to sign, ratify and disseminate the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women and its Optional Protocol.

Lastly, countries asked the Presiding Officers of the Conference to specifically devote one of the meetings they hold each year to an evaluation of the fulfilment of the commitments, and agreed that, at the next session of the Regional Conference (scheduled to be held in Brazil in 2010), a general medium-term assessment of the progress made should be undertaken. They also asked ECLAC, together with other organizations in the United Nations system, to create a gender equality observatory.

Chapter I

Advances in poverty reduction and challenges in attaining social cohesion

A. Poverty trends

Poverty and extreme poverty rates in Latin America fell once more in 2006 to 36.5% and 13.4%, respectively, thanks to four years of sustained economic growth. These are the lowest rates recorded since 1980. The number of people living in poverty in the region is now below the 200 million mark recorded in 1990.

1. The Economic Situation

The economies of Latin America and the Caribbean performed well in 2006. The 5.6% increase in GDP, which represented a 4.2% rise in per capita GDP, marked the continuation of a period economic expansion. During the preceding four years, per capita GDP had increased 3.3% per annum, peaking at 4.8% in 2004.[1]

Nearly all the economies of Latin America posted positive results. The most remarkable per capita GDP increases were observed in the Dominican Republic and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela (9.1% and 8.5%, respectively), followed by Argentina (7.4%), Peru (6.8%) and Uruguay (6.8%). Per capita GDP in Haiti grew only 0.7%, but per capita GDP growth in all the other countries was over 2%, an achievement that has not been seen in Latin America for over 20 years (see table 1 in the statistical appendix).

[1] See the detailed analysis of the factors contributing to these results in ECLAC (2007b).

Though barely 1.6%, average per capita GDP growth in 2000-2006 was higher than in 1990-1999 and is expected to continue to increase over the next few years, by 3.7% in 2007 and probably at a slower pace in 2008 (see table I.1).

Table I.1
LATIN AMERICA (20 COUNTRIES): SELECTED SOCIO-ECONOMIC INDICATORS, 1990-2006

Country Year	Per capita GDP (average annual rate of change) [a]	Urban unemployment Simple average for the period [b] (percentages)	Average real earnings [c] (Average annual rate of change)	Country Year	Per capita GDP (average annual rate of change) [a]	Urban unemployment Simple average for the period [b] (percentages)	Average real earnings [c] (Average annual rate of change)
Argentina				Honduras			
1990-1999	2.5	11.9	0.9	1990-1999	-0.2	6.1	…
2000-2006	1.5	15.0	1.2	2000-2006	2.1	6.6	…
Bolivia				Mexico			
1990-1999	1.6	5.3	3.0	1990-1999	1.5	3.6	1.0
2000-2006 [d]	0.6	8.0	2.0	2000-2006 [f]	1.9	4.3	2.3
Brazil				Nicaragua			
1990-1999	0.2	5.6	-1.0	1990-1999	0.6	14.0	8.0
2000-2006	1.6	9.8	-1.9	2000-2006	2.0	9.5	0.8
Chile				Panama			
1990-1999	4.6	7.6	3.5	1990-1999	3.5	16.7	…
2000-2006	3.1	9.4	1.7	2000-2006	2.7	14.5	…
Colombia				Paraguay			
1990-1999	0.9	11.6	2.2	1990-1999	-0.3	6.3	0.3
2000-2006	2.2	16.0	1.8	2000-2006	-0.1	10.7	0.0
Costa Rica				Peru			
1990-1999	2.8	5.4	2.2	1990-1999	1.3	8.5	-0.8
2000-2006	2.3	6.3	0.5	2000-2006	3.3	9.2	0.9
Cuba				Rep. Dominicana			
1990-1999	-2.8	6.9	…	1990-1999	2.8	16.9	…
2000-2004	3.4	3.4	…	2000-2006	3.6	16.4	…
Ecuador				Uruguay			
1990-1999	0.3	9.4	5.3	1990-1999	2.5	9.9	0.5
2000-2006	3.2	10.7	…	2000-2006	1.3	14.2	-2.5
El Salvador				Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)			
1990-1999	2.8	7.8	…	1990-1999	0.2	10.3	-4.0
2000-2006	0.6	6.5	…	2000-2006	2.0	14.1	-1.8
Guatemala							
1990-1999	1.7	4.0	5.4				
2000-2006 [e]	0.9	5.0	-0.5				
Haiti				Latin America			
1990-1999	-2.0	…	…	1990-1999	1.1	7.7	1.0
2000-2006	-1.6	…	…	2000-2006	1.8	10.1	0.1

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of official figures.
[a] Based on the per capita GDP value in dollars, at constant 2000 prices. The 2006 figure is a preliminary estimate.
[b] In the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Chile, Dominican Republic, Guatemala and Nicaragua, the figure refers to total national unemployment. In addition, the period used for Cuba was 1991-1999 instead of 1990-1999.
[c] In general, the coverage of this index is very incomplete. In most of the countries it refers only to formal-sector workers in the manufacturing sector. The figure shown for 2006 is a preliminary estimate.
[d] The figures for urban unemployment and real average earnings correspond to the period 2000-2005.
[e] Average urban unemployment corresponds to the period 2002-2004.
[f] From 2000 onwards, a new methodology for measuring the unemployment rate was used which is not comparable with that used in earlier years.

Unemployment fell in 2006 thanks to the ongoing expansion of the economy. The positive employment trends recorded during the previous three years thus continued and translated into a 2% accumulated increase in employment levels since 2002. Interestingly, wage employment rose 4.1% and accounted for 89% of the new jobs created in 2006. Most of these consisted of jobs in the formal sector, i.e., jobs covered by employment contracts and a social security scheme (ECLAC, 2007b).

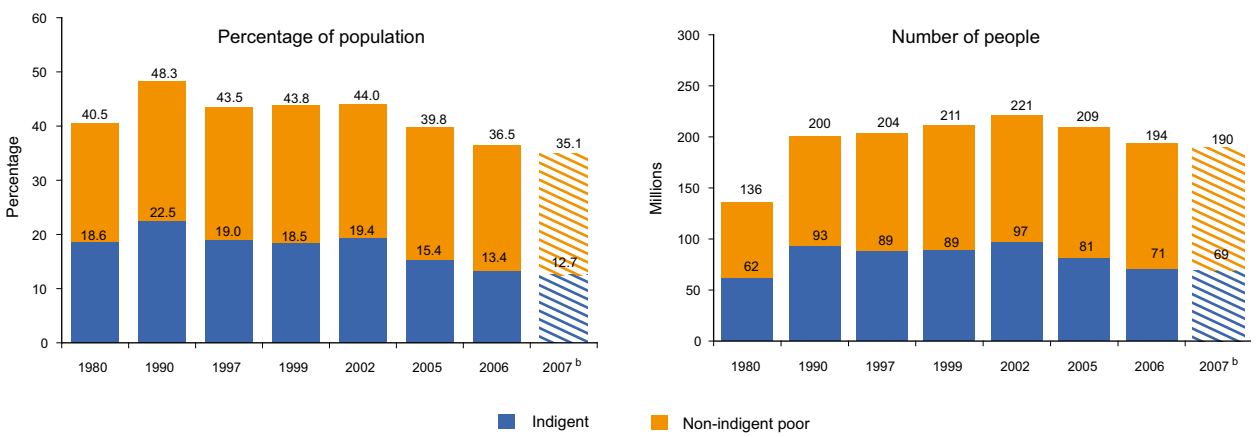
Average urban unemployment fell from 9.1% to 8.7%, a smaller decrease than in 2005, but nonetheless the third consecutive drop since 2000. Unemployment is therefore at its lowest level since the mid-1990s, even though the average rate for 2000-2006 is higher than for 1990-1999. Most countries also significantly reduced their overall unemployment rate. In nine countries unemployment fell at least 0.5%, and only Brazil recorded a slight increase in unemployment (see table I.1 and table 1 of the statistical appendix).

In 2006, for the first time since the turn of the century, average real earnings rose more than 2% on average. In some countries, including Argentina, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Brazil, Colombia and Uruguay, the increase was over 3%, and only Guatemala recorded a drop in real wages. The deterioration of average real earnings in the region in previous years, however, especially in 2003, means that the average increase for 2000-2006 was only 0.1%, compared with 1% for 1990-1999.

2. Poverty in the region

The latest poverty estimates for the countries of Latin America indicate that, as of 2006, 36.5% of the region's population (194 million people) were poor and 13.4% (71 million) were extremely poor or indigent (see figure I.1 and tables I.2 and I.3).[2]

Figure I.1
LATIN AMERICA: POVERTY AND INDIGENCE RATES, 1980-2007 [a]



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

[a] Estimate for 18 countries of the region plus Haiti. The figures shown in the orange sections of the bars are the percentage and total number of poor persons (indigent plus non-indigent poor).

[b] Projections.

[2] In 12 countries (Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Honduras, Mexico, Panama, Peru and Uruguay), the 2006 figures correspond to a combination of estimates based on household surveys conducted that year, and in the other countries, on projections made on the basis of previous surveys. The new poverty and indigence rates are lower than those projected for 2006, reaching 38.5% and 14.7%, respectively.

Table I.2
LATIN AMERICA: POVERTY AND INDIGENCE RATES, 1980-2006 [a]

	Percentage of population					
	Poor [b]			Indigent [c]		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
1980	40.5	29.8	59.9	18.6	10.6	32.7
1990	48.3	41.4	65.4	22.5	15.3	40.4
1997	43.5	36.5	63.0	19.0	12.3	37.6
1999	43.8	37.1	63.7	18.5	11.9	38.3
2002	44.0	38.4	61.8	19.4	13.5	37.9
2004	42.0	36.9	58.7	16.9	12.0	33.1
2005	39.8	34.1	58.8	15.4	10.3	32.5
2006	36.5	31.1	54.4	13.4	8.6	29.4

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of household surveys conducted in the respective countries.
[a] Estimate for 18 countries of the region plus Haiti.
[b] Percentage of the population living below the poverty line. Includes people living in indigence.
[c] Percentage of the population living below the indigence line.

Table I.3
LATIN AMERICA: POOR AND INDIGENT POPULATION, 1980-2006 [a]

	Million people					
	Poor [b]			Indigent [c]		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
1980	135.9	62.9	73.0	62.4	22.5	39.9
1990	200.2	121.7	78.5	93.4	45.0	48.4
1997	203.8	125.7	78.2	88.8	42.2	46.6
1999	211.4	134.2	77.2	89.4	43.0	46.4
2002	221.4	146.7	74.8	97.4	51.6	45.8
2004	217.4	146.5	71.0	87.6	47.6	40.0
2005	209.0	137.9	71.1	81.1	41.8	39.3
2006	194.4	127.6	66.8	71.3	35.2	36.1

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of household surveys conducted in the respective countries.
[a] Estimate for 18 countries of the region plus Haiti.
[b] Number of people living below the poverty line. Includes people living in indigence.
[c] Number of people living below the indigence line.

A comparison with figures for 2005 shows that further progress was made in reducing poverty and extreme poverty, or indigence: there was a 3.3% drop in poverty and a 2.0% decrease in extreme poverty. This means that 15 million people escaped poverty in 2006, and 10 million who had been classified as indigent ceased to be so.

It is not just the magnitude of these figures that is impressive. They reflect steady gains in poverty reduction since 2004, in sharp contrast to the stagnant situation in preceding years. Since 2002, poverty in the region has plummeted 7.5% and extreme poverty 6%. Moreover, in that time, 40 million people have been saved from falling into poverty as they would have done if the poverty reduction rates had not improved.

From a more long-term perspective, a comparison of the figures for 2006 and 1990 shows that the poverty rate has been lowered by 11.8 percentage points and that the indigence rate by 9.1 points. This means that the number of indigents has fallen by over 20 million and that, for the first time since 1990, the total number of people living in poverty has dropped below 200 million persons.

The results for 2005 showed that the poverty rate was falling for the first time since 1980, when 40.5% of the population was ranked as poor, and that the indigence rate had fallen 3 percentage points from the 1980 level of 18.6%. The figures for 2006 reveal a 4.0 and 5.2 percentage-point drop in the poverty and indigence rates, respectively, since 1980. This implies that poverty reduction efforts are

achieving increasingly significant results. Poverty levels are still high in the region, however, and lowering them remains a formidable task.

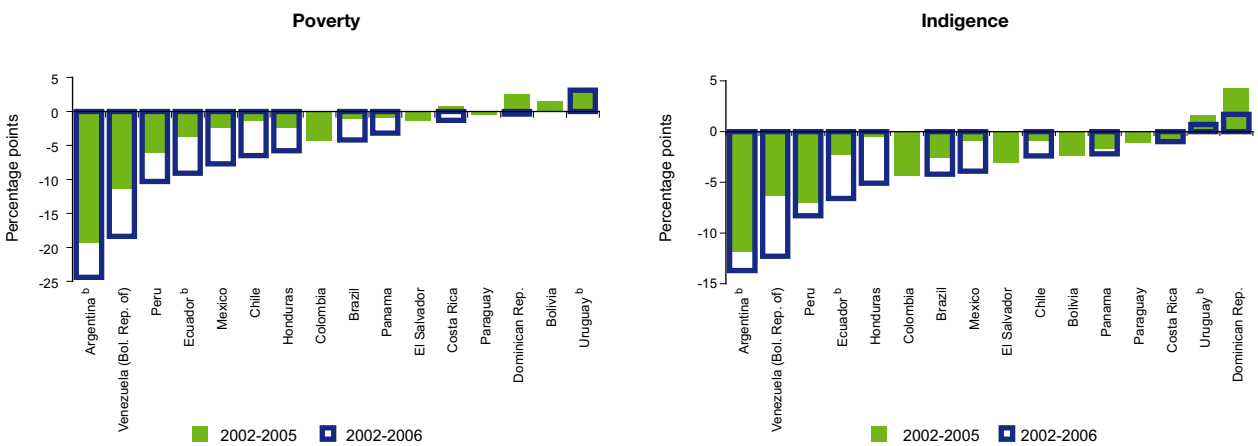
The increases in per capita GDP that the region is expected to enjoy in 2007 means that poverty and indigence rates can be expected to fall even lower, to around 35.1% and 12.7%, respectively, and that the number of people living in poverty and extreme poverty should drop to 190 million and 69 million. These rates would not only be the lowest seen in Latin America since the 1980s, but also represent the smallest number of people living in poverty in the last 17 years (see figure I.1).

3. Poverty and indigence in the different countries

Poverty and indigence estimates for 2006 for 12 countries in the region reflect a general downward trend. Nearly all of these countries registered considerable reductions in both poverty and indigence, which already were diminishing in 2005.

When the year 2002 is used as a benchmark, Argentina (data for urban areas) displays the greatest improvement, with reductions of 24.4 and 13.7 percentage points in its poverty and extreme poverty rates, respectively. The results for 2006 played an important role in this outcome, recording decreases in the two indicators of 5.0 and 1.9 percentage points. This largely counteracted the deterioration in the situation that occurred in 1999-2002. As a result, the poverty rate is now 2.7 points below the 1999 rate, although the indigence rate is still 0.6 points above the figure for 1999 (see figure I.2 and table 1.4).

Figure I.2
LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): POVERTY AND INDIGENCE RATES, AROUND 2002-2005 AND AROUND 2002-2006 [a]



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

[a] The data for 2002 are based on the most recent available estimates for 2000-2002. The data for 2005 reflect the most recent estimates for 2003-2005. The years used in each country are given in table I.4.

[b] Urban areas.

Table I.4
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POVERTY AND INDIGENCE INDICATORS, 1990-2006 [a]
(*Percentages*)

Country	Year	Households and population below the:							
		Poverty line [b]				Indigence line			
		H		PG	FGT_2	H		PG	FGT_2
		Households	Population			Households	Population		
Argentina [c]	1990 [d]	16.2	21.2	7.2	3.4	3.5	5.2	1.6	0.8
	1999	16.3	23.7	8.6	4.3	4.3	6.6	2.1	1.1
	2002	34.9	45.4	21.1	12.8	13.9	20.9	8.4	4.6
	2005	18.7	26.0	10.4	5.8	6.0	9.1	3.4	1.8
	2006	14.7	21.0	8.3	4.6	4.9	7.2	2.8	1.5
Bolivia	1989 [e]	48.9	52.6	24.5	15.0	21.9	23.0	9.7	6.1
	1999	54.7	60.6	33.9	24.1	32.1	36.4	20.3	14.7
	2002	55.5	62.4	34.4	23.8	31.7	37.1	19.5	13.5
	2004	56.4	63.9	32.1	20.1	29.9	34.7	15.0	8.9
Brazil	1990	41.4	48.0	23.5	14.7	18.3	23.4	9.7	5.5
	1999	29.9	37.5	17.0	10.2	9.6	12.9	5.3	3.3
	2001	29.9	37.5	17.3	10.7	10.0	13.2	5.8	3.8
	2005	28.5	36.3	15.9	9.4	7.8	10.6	4.3	2.6
	2006	26.1	33.3	14.3	8.4	6.7	9.0	3.7	2.3
Chile	1990	33.3	38.6	14.9	8.0	10.6	13.0	4.4	2.3
	1998	17.8	21.7	7.5	3.8	4.6	5.6	2.0	1.1
	2000	16.3	20.2	7.0	3.7	4.5	5.6	2.1	1.2
	2003	15.3	18.7	6.3	3.2	3.9	4.7	1.7	1.0
	2006	11.3	13.7	4.4	2.2	2.7	3.2	1.1	0.7
Colombia	1994	47.3	52.5	26.6	17.5	25.0	28.5	13.8	9.1
	1999	48.7	54.9	25.6	15.7	23.2	26.8	11.2	6.9
	2002	45.0	51.1	23.9	14.8	21.6	24.6	10.4	6.5
	2004	45.2	51.1	23.8	14.6	21.4	24.2	10.2	6.3
	2005	40.6	46.8	20.7	12.3	17.4	20.2	8.3	5.0
Costa Rica	1990	23.6	26.3	10.7	6.5	9.8	9.9	4.8	3.4
	1999	18.2	20.3	8.1	4.8	7.5	7.8	3.5	2.3
	2002	18.6	20.3	8.4	5.2	7.7	8.2	3.9	2.7
	2005	19.5	21.1	7.9	4.4	7.1	7.0	2.9	1.9
	2006	18.0	19.0	7.6	4.5	7.3	7.2	3.1	2.0
Ecuador	1990 [c]	55.8	62.1	27.6	15.8	22.6	26.2	9.2	4.9
	1999 [c]	58.0	63.5	30.1	18.2	27.2	31.3	11.5	6.3
	2002 [c]	42.6	49.0	20.8	11.8	16.3	19.4	6.9	3.7
	2005	41.7	48.3	20.9	12.0	17.7	21.2	7.9	4.2
	2006	36.8	43.0	17.2	9.2	13.6	16.1	5.4	2.7
El Salvador	1995	47.6	54.2	24.0	14.3	18.2	21.7	9.1	5.6
	1999	43.5	49.8	22.9	14.0	18.3	21.9	9.4	5.8
	2001	42.9	48.9	22.7	14.0	18.3	22.1	9.5	5.7
	2004	40.4	47.5	21.1	12.6	15.6	19.0	8.1	5.0
Guatemala	1989	63.0	69.1	35.9	23.1	36.7	41.8	18.5	11.2
	1998	53.5	61.1	27.3	15.4	26.1	31.6	10.7	5.1
	2002	52.8	60.2	27.0	15.4	26.9	30.9	10.7	5.5
Honduras	1990	75.2	80.8	50.2	35.9	53.9	60.9	31.5	20.2
	1999	74.3	79.7	47.4	32.9	50.6	56.8	27.9	17.5
	2002	70.9	77.3	45.3	31.2	47.1	54.4	26.6	16.2
	2003	68.5	74.8	44.5	30.9	47.4	53.9	26.3	16.3
	2006	65.7	71.5	...	...	43.4	49.3	...	...

Table I.4 (concluded)
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POVERTY AND INDIGENCE INDICATORS, 1990-2006 [a]
(*Percentages*)

Country	Year	Households and population below the:							
		Poverty line [b]				Indigence line			
		H		PG	FGT_2	H		PG	FGT_2
		Households	Population			Households	Population		
Mexico	1989	39.0	47.7	18.7	9.9	14.0	18.7	5.9	2.7
	1998	38.0	46.9	18.4	9.4	13.2	18.5	5.3	2.2
	2000	33.3	41.1	15.8	8.1	10.7	15.2	4.7	2.1
	2002	31.8	39.4	13.9	6.7	9.1	12.6	3.5	1.4
	2004	29.8	37.0	13.2	6.5	8.7	11.7	3.5	1.6
	2006	24.6	31.7	10.5	4.9	6.0	8.7	2.4	1.0
Nicaragua	1993	68.1	73.6	41.9	29.3	43.2	48.4	24.3	16.2
	1998	65.1	69.9	39.4	27.3	40.1	44.6	22.6	15.1
	2001	62.9	69.4	36.9	24.3	36.3	42.4	19.0	11.7
Panama	1991 [c]	27.4	32.7	13.7	8.1	10.1	11.5	5.2	3.4
	1999 [c]	17.0	20.8	7.6	4.1	4.9	5.9	2.3	1.4
	2002	28.4	34.0	15.8	9.7	13.9	17.4	7.4	4.2
	2005	26.4	33.0	14.8	9.1	12.0	15.7	6.9	4.1
	2006	24.3	30.8	14.1	8.6	11.3	15.2	6.6	3.9
Paraguay	1990 [f]	36.8	43.2	16.1	8.0	10.4	13.1	3.6	1.5
	1999	51.7	60.6	30.2	19.0	26.0	33.8	14.5	8.5
	2001	52.0	61.0	30.3	19.5	26.5	33.2	15.4	9.6
	2004	57.1	65.9	33.0	20.6	29.2	36.9	15.3	8.6
	2005	51.9	60.5	29.5	18.0	25.4	32.1	13.1	7.4
Peru	1997	40.5	47.6	20.8	12.0	20.4	25.1	10.1	5.7
	1999	42.3	48.6	20.6	11.7	18.7	22.4	9.2	5.1
	2001 [g]	46.8	54.8	...	...	20.1	24.4	...	...
	2005 [g]	40.5	48.7	...	...	13.7	17.4	...	...
	2006 [g]	37.2	44.5	...	...	12.7	16.1	...	...
Dominican Republic	2000	43.0	46.9	22.1	13.9	20.6	22.1	10.1	6.7
	2002	40.9	44.9	20.5	12.9	18.6	20.3	9.3	6.3
	2004	50.4	54.4	27.0	16.9	26.1	29.0	12.2	6.9
	2005	43.7	47.5	23.0	14.4	22.4	24.6	10.4	6.2
	2006	41.1	44.5	21.1	13.0	20.2	22.0	9.1	5.4
Uruguay [c]	1990	11.8	17.9	5.3	2.4	2.0	3.4	0.9	0.4
	1999	5.6	9.4	2.7	1.2	0.9	1.8	0.4	0.2
	2002	9.3	15.4	4.5	1.9	1.3	2.5	0.6	0.2
	2005	11.8	18.8	6.0	2.7	2.2	4.1	1.0	0.4
	2006	11.8	18.5	5.5	2.4	1.9	3.2	0.7	0.3
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	1990	34.2	39.8	15.7	8.5	11.8	14.4	5.0	2.4
	1999	44.0	49.4	22.6	13.7	19.4	21.7	9.0	5.5
	2002	43.3	48.6	22.1	13.4	19.7	22.2	9.3	5.7
	2005	32.9	37.1	16.6	10.3	14.4	15.9	7.4	5.0
	2006	26.2	30.2	11.5	6.3	9.0	9.9	3.8	2.4
Latin America [h]	1990	41.0	48.3	...	...	17.7	22.5	...	...
	1999	35.4	43.9	...	...	14.1	18.7	...	...
	2002	36.1	44.0	...	...	14.6	19.4	...	...
	2004	34.1	42.0	...	...	13.1	16.9	...	...
	2005	32.0	39.8	...	...	11.8	15.4	...	...
	2006	29.8	37.3	...	...	10.5	13.8	...	...

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of household surveys conducted in the respective countries.
Note: H = Headcount index; PG = Poverty gap, and FGT_2 = Foster, Greer and Thorbecke index.
[a] See box I.4 for the definition of each indicator. The PG and FGT_2 indices are calculated on the basis of the distribution of the poor population.
[b] Includes households (people) living in extreme poverty.
[c] Urban areas.
[d] Greater Buenos Aires.
[e] Eight departmental capitals plus El Alto.
[f] Metropolitan area of Asunción.
[g] Data from the National Institute of Statistics and Informatics (INEI) of Peru. These figures are not comparable with those of previous years owing to the change in the sample framework used for the household survey. The figures for 2001 refer to the fourth quarter, while those for 2005 and 2006 refer to the whole year.
[h] Estimate for 18 countries of the region plus Haiti.

The Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela reduced its poverty and extreme poverty rates by 18.4 and 12.3 percentage points, respectively, between 2002 and 2006. Thanks to rapid GDP growth and the ongoing implementation of broad social programmes, in 2006 alone the poverty rate was lowered from 37.1% to 30.2% and the indigence rate from 15.9% to 9.9%. This swift pace of progress considerably brightens the prospects for further reductions in poverty and significantly increases the feasibility of meeting the first target associated with the first Millennium Development Goal, which is analysed in the following section.

These two countries (Argentina and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela) are followed, in order of magnitude, by Peru,[3] Ecuador (urban areas), Mexico, Chile and Honduras, which chalked up poverty reductions of over five percentage points between 2000-2002 and 2006. With the exception of Peru, at least half of this cumulative reduction occurred in the later part of this period in each of these four countries. This is particularly notable in the case of Chile, where 5.0 of the 6.5 percentage points by which the poverty rate was reduced in 2000-2006 correspond to 2003-2006.[4] These countries also witnessed significant reductions in their indigence rates. Particularly notable decreases were seen in this indicator for Peru, Ecuador and Honduras, which recorded reductions of 8.3, 6.6 and 5.1 percentage points, respectively. Chile also made great strides in this respect since, although its indigence rate fell by just 2.4 percentage points, this amounted to a 43% decrease in that rate relative to 2000.

Brazil registered decreases of 4.2 percentage points in both its poverty and its extreme poverty rates between 2001 and 2006. This has a significant impact at the regional level, since it represents a reduction of 6 million from the total number of indigents in the region. Public transfer programmes implemented in the country, most notably the "Bolsa Familia" have played a decisive role in this achievement.

Costa Rica and the Dominican Republic also managed to reduce their poverty levels in 2002-2006, although less dramatically than the aforementioned countries. Actually, the Dominican Republic recorded a slightly higher indigence rate due to the setbacks it experienced between 2002 and 2004, which subsequent progress has still not been able to offset entirely. A somewhat similar situation is found in Uruguay, where decreases in the poverty and indigence rates in 2005 and 2006 have not enabled the country to regain the levels it had attained in 2002.

A significant portion of the poverty reduction recorded in Latin America in 2002-2006 was achieved by Argentina, where the number of people living in poverty was slashed by 9 million, followed by Brazil, Mexico and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, where the numbers were cut by 4 to 6 million. Together, these four countries accounted for 23 million less people living in poverty in the region, a notable reduction considering that the poor population of Latin America as a whole is 27 million. The 26 million drop in the number of indigents, on the other hand, was largely attributable to Brazil, which accounted for approximately a quarter of that figure, and Argentina and Mexico, which each lowered their indigent populations by about 5 million.

In several countries, the drop in the number and percentage of people with insufficient income to cover their basic needs has been accompanied by a more even distribution of wealth. Between 2002 and 2006, the Gini coefficient fell significantly in Argentina (data for urban areas), Brazil, Chile and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela.[5] In Argentina and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, the value of the Gini coefficient decreased approximately 10%, from 0.58 to 0.52 and from 0.5 to 0.44, respectively. In Brazil and Chile, the decline was about 6% and 7%, respectively. No significant changes in income distribution were recorded in the other countries for which data was available for 2006, except in the Dominican Republic where the Gini coefficient increased slightly (see tables 14 and 15 of the statistical appendix).

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3 The figures for Peru from 2004 on are not wholly comparable with those for earlier years, since the former refer to the entire year whereas the latter correspond to the last quarter only. No major differences are to be expected between quarterly and annual estimates, however. As a point of reference, it may be noted that in 2006 the indigence and poverty rates estimated for the year as a whole were 0.7 and 1.5 percentage points higher, respectively, than the estimates for the final quarter.

4 Indigence and poverty estimates for Chile are available only for 2000, 2003 and 2006, and it is therefore impossible to perform an analysis of what occurred in the intervening years.

5 The Gini coefficient, which is the most commonly used indicator of inequality in income distribution, takes values ranging from 0 (absolute equality) to 1 (absolute inequality). For further information on this and other inequality indicators, see Box I.7 of *Social Panorama of Latin America, 2006*.

Box I.1
METHOD USED FOR POVERTY MEASUREMENT

The method used in this report to estimate poverty classifies a person as "poor" when the per capita income of the household in which he or she lives is below the "poverty line", or the minimum income the members of a household must have in order to meet their basic needs. Poverty lines expressed in national currency are based on the calculation of the cost of a basket of particular goods and services, employing the "cost of basic needs" method.

Where the relevant information was available, the cost of a basic food basket covering the population's nutritional needs was estimated for each country and geographical area, taking into account consumption habits, the effective availability of foodstuffs and their relative prices, as well as the differences between metropolitan areas, other urban areas and rural areas. To this value, which constituted the "indigence line", was then added an estimate of the resources households need to satisfy their basic non-nutritional needs, to make up the total value of the poverty line. For this purpose, the indigence line was multiplied by a constant factor of 2 for urban areas and 1.75 for rural areas.a/ The monthly equivalent in dollars of the most recent poverty lines varies between US$ 45 and US$ 161 in urban areas, and between US$ 32 and US$ 101 in rural areas. The figure for indigence lines ranges from US$ 23 to US$ 81 in urban areas, and from US$ 18 to US$ 58 in rural areas (in all cases, the lower values relate to Bolivia and the higher ones to Mexico (see table 5 of the statistical appendix).[b]

In most cases, data concerning the structure of household consumption, of both foodstuffs and other goods and services, came from surveys on household budgets conducted in the respective countries.c/ As these surveys were carried out before the poverty estimates were prepared, the value of the poverty lines was updated according to the cumulative variation in the consumer price index.

Data on family income were taken from household surveys conducted in the respective countries, in the years that correspond to the poverty estimates contained in this publication. In line with the usual practice at ECLAC, both partial non-response to income questions —in the case of wage-earners, independent workers and retirees— and probable biases arising from underreporting were corrected. This was done by comparing the survey entries for income with figures from an estimate of the household income and expenditure account of each country's System of National Accounts (SNA), prepared for this purpose using official information. The concept of income corresponds to total current income; i.e., income from wage labour (monetary and in kind), independent labour (including self-supply and the consumption value of home-made products), property, retirement and other pensions and other transfers received by households. In most of the countries, household income included the imputed rental value of owner-occupied dwellings.

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC).

[a] The sole exceptions to this general rule were Brazil and Peru. For Brazil, the study used new indigence lines estimated for different geographical areas within the country, in the framework of a joint project conducted by the Brazilian Geographical and Statistical Institute, the Brazilian Institute of Applied Economic Research and ECLAC in the late 1990s. For Peru, the indigence and poverty lines used were estimates prepared by the National Institute of Statistics and Informatics under the Programme for the Improvement of Surveys and the Measurement of Living Conditions in Latin America and the Caribbean implemented in that country.

[b] The exchange rate used is the average rate from the reference month used to compile information on income through household surveys.

[c] When data from the processing of a recent survey of this type were not available, other information on household consumption was used.

Box I.2
UPDATING THE METHODOLOGY FOR MEASURING POVERTY

In late 2005, ECLAC embarked upon a review of the method it has used to measure poverty and indigence for almost three decades. The review has two main objectives. The first is to use the most recent income and expenditure surveys in the various countries of the region to construct new basic baskets. Most of the indigence and poverty lines currently in use are based on consumption patterns inferred from surveys conducted in the 1980s. Only recently has ECLAC had access to income and expenditure surveys in 18 Latin American countries, most of which were conducted in the 1990s and in some cases more recently. These provide the information needed to construct consumption baskets that better reflect prevailing habits and conditions. The second aim is to look at introducing methodological changes in line with progress made in poverty measurement worldwide, both in the academic domain and in terms of the practical experience of countries themselves. The method developed by ECLAC in the late 1970s became a model which the countries of the region replicated, albeit adapting some of its characteristics to their specific national needs. Since that time, other considerations worth taking into account have emerged on how to quantify household living standards; and rapid technological process has made

it possible to process survey data from new perspectives that were previously unviable. The resulting measures aim to provide comparable data on the social situation in Latin American countries. In order to achieve results that are as comparable between countries as they can be, the aim is to standardize as far as possible the way the method is applied and introduce common criteria for all countries. These aims are complemented by making every effort to keep the system simple, replicable and transparent.

The methodological aspects that are under review cover the whole process of constructing poverty lines. Broadly speaking, these include selection of the reference group for basic baskets; review of the content of the non-food goods basket; calculation of updated Orshansky coefficients; and the possibility of constructing poverty lines differentiated by household type. When measuring household resources, the main points of interest concern the breadth of the income concept used and the review of mechanisms for evaluating the quality and correction of income data from household surveys. The ongoing methodological review aims to obtain better quality and more accurate statistics, as an essential requirement for designing and implementing more appropriate social policies that are better able to alleviate the population's basic needs. In some cases, application of the new standards, together with an updating of information sources, can be expected to produce changes in the indigence and poverty results that have been reported thus far.

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC).

Box I.3

POVERTY, INEQUALITY AND VULNERABILITY IN THE CARIBBEAN

The most recent information available on poverty and inequality in the Caribbean was examined using a procedure similar to that employed in previous editions of the *Social Panorama*. Although several of the countries of the subregion have continuous household survey programmes that focus mainly on employment (Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Cuba, Jamaica, Netherlands Antilles, Puerto Rico, Saint Lucia and Trinidad and Tobago), only a few (Dominican Republic, Guyana, Jamaica and Puerto Rico) have two or more estimates of poverty that are comparable time-wise. The data come from very diverse sources and methodologies, so extreme caution must be exercised in comparing them with each other and —except for the Dominican Republic— with ECLAC estimates for Latin America. The comparability of the poverty and inequality estimates of the countries of the Caribbean and those of ECLAC is affected by factors such as the type of indicator selected for household resources (income or expenditure) and its conceptual scope, the criteria used to determine nutritional requirements and to prepare the basic consumption basket and the way non–nutritional needs are built into the value of the poverty line.

A few general conclusions may nevertheless be drawn concerning poverty and inequality in the Caribbean. Haiti has the highest incidence of poverty and indigence not only in the Caribbean, but probably in the entire region. This situation has been worsened by a deep and prolonged economic recession, in which per capita GDP has shrunk steadily since 2000. The gradual restoration of political and civil order, however, has triggered in slight increase in per capita GDP since 2006, providing grounds for optimism that living standards might improve in the country.

Other countries with high poverty rates in the Caribbean are Dominica, Dominican Republic, Grenada, Guyana, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines and Suriname. At the other end of the spectrum, Antigua and Barbuda, Barbados, and the Bahamas have particularly low levels of absolute poverty which are similar to those of economically highly developed countries. Special mention should be made of Cuba and Puerto Rico. In Cuba, poverty is measured by using the concept of "population at risk", which refers to sectors with insufficient income to purchase a basic basket of food and non-food goods, but who at the same time enjoy guaranteed access to free and subsidized education, health care, social security and welfare. According to this method, in 1999, 20% of Cuba's urban population was "at risk". The National Statistics Office plans, together with ECLAC, to look into coming up with measurements that can be more readily compared with the figures reported by other countries. In Puerto Rico, the poverty rate is based on the official poverty line of the United States Federal Government, which, in 2005, was US$ 15,577 per year for a three-person family. The use of a parameter from a high-income country accounts for the high incidence of poverty on the island in 2006 (45%).

The values of the poverty gap (which vary between 2.3% in Barbados and 31.4% in Suriname) and the Gini coefficient (with a minimum of 0.23 in the British Virgin Islands and a maximum of 0.65 in Haiti) are generally lower in the Caribbean than in the Latin American countries. Thus, the share of the poorest quintile in national income or consumption, which ranges from 2.4% in Haiti to 10% in the British Virgin Islands, is low but not as low as in Latin America.

The available data show that poverty declined substantially in the 1990s, at least in Guyana, where it diminished from 43% in 1993 to 35% in 1999; in Jamaica, where it fell from 28% in 1990 to 15% in 2005; and in Puerto Rico, where the decline was from 59% in 1989 to 45% in 2006. In the

Dominican Republic —where the changes introduced in the household survey in 2000 prevent comparisons being made with previous years (see box I.3, ECLAC, 2004b)— poverty increased between 2002 and 2004 and then declined in 2005 and 2006, such that the level of 44.5% reported for 2006 is barely lower than the 44.9% recorded in 2002 (see table I.4).

Nonetheless, exogenous economic shocks (such as the rise in oil prices) or natural disasters (such as hurricanes, storms or volcanic eruptions) can damage the prospects for continued poverty reduction not only in these four countries but also in the other small and vulnerable countries of the Caribbean.

DEMOGRAPHIC, POVERTY AND INEQUALITY INDICATORS IN THE CARIBBEAN

Economies	Population 2007	Year of estimation of poverty and inequality indicators	Poverty rate	Indigence rate	Poverty gap	Gini coefficient	Share of consumption/national income received by the:	
	(Thousands of people)		(% of people)		(% of poverty line)		poorest 20% of the population (%)	richest 20% of the population (%)
Anguila	13	2002	23.0	2.0	6.9	0.31	6.5	39.7
Antigua and Barbuda	85	Start of 1990s	12.0	...	...	0.53	...	...
Netherlands Antilles	192	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Aruba	104	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bahamas	331	2001	9.3	...	...	0.46	4.4	42.0
Barbados	294	1997	13.9	1.0	2.3	0.39	...	...
Belize	288	2002	33.5	10.8	11.1	0.40	...	...
Cuba	11 248	1999	20.0 [a]	...	4.3 [b]	0.38 [c]	...	...
Dominica	67	2002	39.0	15.0	10.2	0.35	7.6	44.6
Grenada	106	1998	32.1	12.9	15.3	0.45	...	...
Guyana	738	1993	43.2	20.7	16.2	0.40	6.3	46.9
		1999	35.0	21.3	12.4	0.43	4.5	49.7
Haiti	9 602	2001	75.0	56.0	10.0	0.65	2.4	63.4
Turks and Caicos Islands	26	1999	25.9	3.2	5.7	0.37	...	...
British Virgin Islands	23	2002	22.0	1.0	4.1	0.23	10.0	36.0
United States Virgin Islands	111	2000	32.5	...	...	...	...	...
Jamaica	2 714	1990	28.4	...	7.9	0.38	6.0	46.0
		2005	14.8	...	4.6 [d]	0.38 [d]	6.1 [d]	45.9 [d]
Montserrat	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Puerto Rico	3 991	1989	58.9 [e]	...	...	0.51	2.9	53.2
		2006	45.4 [e]	...	...	...	...	...
Dominican Republic	9 749	2000	46.9	22.1	22.1	0.55	2.7	59.5
		2006	44.5	22.0	21.1	0.58	2.5	62.2
Saint Kitts and Nevis	50	2000 (Saint Kitts)	30.5	11.0	2.5	0.40	...	...
		2000 (Nevis)	32.0	17.0	2.8	0.37	...	...
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	120	1996	37.5	25.7	12.6	0.56	...	...
Saint Lucia	165	1995	25.1	7.1	8.6	0.43	5.2	48.3
Suriname	458	2000	69.2	...	31.4	0.46	12.6 [f]	51.8
Trinidad and Tobago	1 333	1992	21.2	11.2	7.3	0.40	5.5	45.9
		1998	24.0	8.3	...	...	...	...
		2005	16.7	1.2	...	...	...	...

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of household surveys conducted in Dominican Republic and information from Elena Álvarez and Jorge Mattar (coords.), *Política social y reformas estructurales: Cuba a principios del siglo XXI* (LC/L.2091), Mexico City, ECLAC Subregional Headquarters in Mexico/Instituto Nacional de Investigaciones Económicas/United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), April 2004; Caribbean Development Bank (CDB), *Anguilla Poverty Assessment Report*, Saint Michael, 2004, *Dominica Poverty Assessment Report*, Saint Michael, 2003, *British Virgin Islands Poverty Assessment Report*, Saint Michael, 2003, *Saint Kitts and Nevis Poverty Assessment Report*, Saint Michael, 2001, *Grenada Poverty Assessment Report*, Saint Michael, 1999, *Saint Vincent and the Grenadines Poverty Assessment Report*, Saint Michael, 1996, *Saint Lucia Poverty Assessment Report*, Saint Michael, 1995, *Turks and Caicos*

Box I.3 (concluded)

Islands Poverty Assessment Report, Saint Michael, 2000; World Bank, *World Development Indicators 2006*, Washington, D.C., *Poverty Reduction and Human Resource Development in the Caribbean*, Washington, D.C., May 1996; Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), "CEPALSTAT" [online database] <http://websie.eclac.cl/sisgen/ConsultaIntegrada.asp>; Ministry of Finance, Department of Statistics, *The Bahamas Living Conditions Survey 2001: Preliminary Findings*, Nassau, 2001, *Labour Force and Household Income Report 2001*, Nassau, 2001; Government of Belize, *2002 Belize Poverty Assessment Report*, Belmopan, 2004; Government of Guyana, *Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper*, Georgetown, May 2002; Government of Jamaica, *Millennium Development Goals*, Kingston, April 2004, *National Poverty Eradication Programme*, Kingston, 2006; Haiti/United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), *Rapport national sur les objectifs du millénaire pour le développement*, Port-au-Prince, 2004; United Nations, *The Millennium Development Goals: A Latin American and Caribbean Perspective* (LC/G.2331-P), José Luis Machinea, Alicia Bárcena and Arturo León (coords.), Santiago, Chile, August 2005; Census Bureau, *2000 Census of Population and Housing*, Washington, D.C., August 2003; P. Sletten and W. Egset, "Poverty in Haiti", *FAFO-paper*, No. 2004; M.D. Thomas and E. Wint, *Inequality and Poverty in the Eastern Caribbean*, document presented at the Seventh Annual Development Conference of the Eastern Caribbean Central Bank (ECCB), Basseterre, 21-22 November 2002; United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), *Suriname MDG Baseline Report*, Paramaribo, 2005; United Nations University/World Institute for Development Economics Research (UNU/WIDER), *World Income Inequality Database (WIID2.0a)*, Helsinki, June 2005; American FactFinder, official site [online] http://factfinder.census.gov; Caribbean Net News "Trinidad publishes poverty survey report for 2005", 11 October 2007, http://www.caribbeannetnews.com/; Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean / United Nations Development Programme (ECLAC/UNDP), *Report of the Caribbean preparatory meeting of the annual ministerial review* (LC/CAR/L.122), June 2007.

[a] Urban areas only; refers to population at risk of falling into poverty.
[b] 1996.
[c] 1996-1998; urban areas.
[d] 2001.
[e] Official poverty line established by the Federal Government of the United States of America.
[f] Refers to the poorest 40% of the population.

Box I.4
INDICATORS FOR MEASURING POVERTY

The process of measuring poverty encompasses at least two stages: (i) the identification of the poor, and (ii) the aggregation of poverty into a synthetic measurement. The first stage, which is described in box I.1, consists in identifying the population whose per capita income is lower than the cost of a basket of items that will satisfy basic needs. The second stage consists in measuring poverty using indicators that synthesize the information into a single figure.

The poverty measurements used in this document belong to the family of parametric indices proposed by Foster, Greer and Thorbecke (1984), which are obtained from the following equation:

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

where ***n*** represents the size of the population, ***q*** denotes the number of people with income below the poverty line (***z***), and the parameter $\alpha > 0$ assigns varying weights to the difference between the income (***y***) of each poor or indigent individual and the poverty or indigence line.

When $\alpha = 0$ equation (1) corresponds to what is known as the headcount index (**H**), which represents the proportion of the population with income lower than the poverty or indigence line:

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

Because it is easy to calculate and interpret, this indicator is the one most commonly used in poverty studies. However, the headcount index provides a very limited view of poverty, since it offers no information on "how poor the poor are", nor does it consider income distribution.

When $\alpha = 1$, however, the equation yields an indicator that measures the relative income shortfall of poor people with respect to the value of the poverty line. This indicator is known as the poverty or indigence gap (**PG**):

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

The poverty and indigence gap index is considered more complete than the headcount index because it takes into account not only the proportion of poor people, but also the difference between their incomes and the poverty line. In other words, it adds information about the depth of poverty or indigence.

Lastly, an index that also considers the degree of disparity in the distribution of income among the poor or indigent is obtained when $\alpha = 2$. This indicator also measures the distance between the poverty line and individual income, but it squares that difference in order to give greater relative weight in the final result to those who fall furthest below the poverty or indigence line:

$$FGT_2 = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{q}\left(\frac{z-y_i}{z}\right)^{2} \qquad (4)$$

The values of the $\mathbf{FGT_2}$ index are not as simple to interpret as those of the **H** and **PG** indices. Since this index is more comprehensive, however, it is the preferred choice for use in designing and evaluating policies and in comparing poverty between geographical units or social groups.

All three of these indicators have the property of "additive decomposability", meaning that a population's poverty index is equal to the weighted sum of the indices of the different subgroups of which it is composed. Accordingly, the national poverty and indigence indices contained in this publication were calculated by averaging the indices for different geographical areas, weighted according to the percentage of the population living in each area.

Source: James Foster, Joel Greer and Erik Thorbecke, "A class of decomposable poverty measures", *Econometrica*, vol. 52, 1984.

B. Progress towards meeting the first target of the millennium development goals

Considering the progress made in reducing extreme poverty in the region in the last two years, attaining the target set out in the Millennium Declaration of halving extreme poverty between 1990 and 2015 has become highly feasible in Latin America and the Caribbean. The region is already 87% of the way towards reaching the target and, according to some estimates, all that is needed to complete the task is for GDP growth to keep up with population growth for the next eight years. Latin America should therefore now take on a more significant challenge, such as halving total poverty. For this challenge to be met, however, there will have to be considerable improvements in resource distribution in the region.

The progress made towards meeting the first Millennium target, which consists of halving the number of people living in extreme poverty or indigence between 1990 and 2015, can be measured on the basis of the poverty and indigence estimates presented in the previous section.

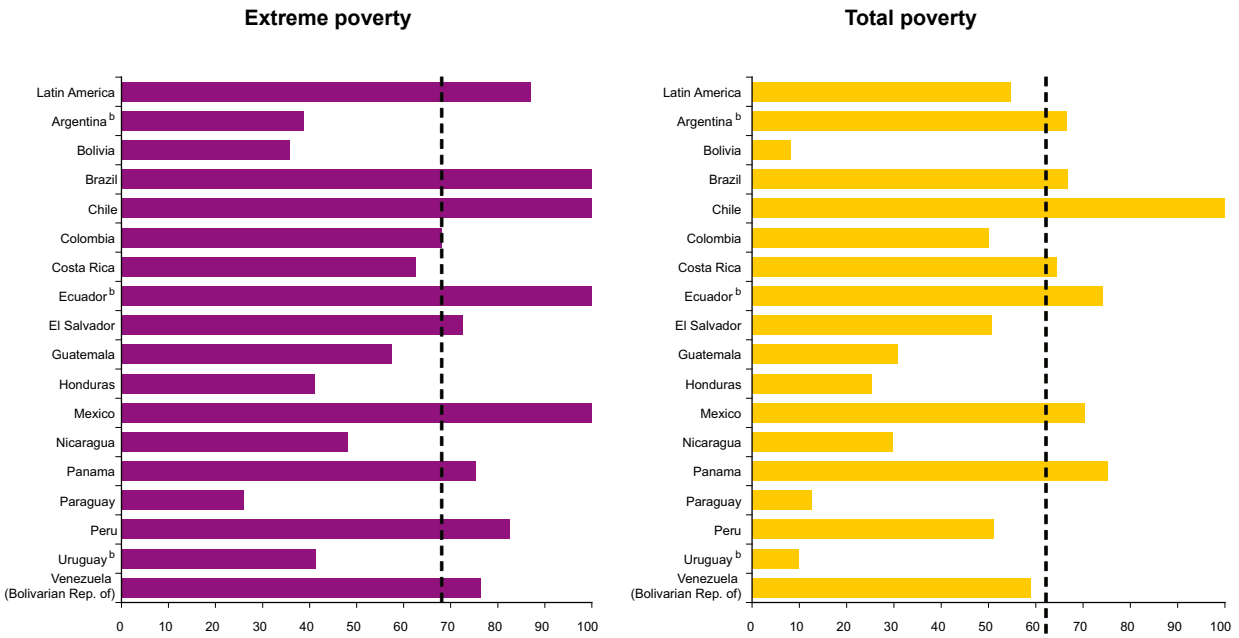
Latin America's projected extreme poverty rate for 2007 amounts to 12.7%, which is 9.8 percentage points below the 1990 figure (22.5%). This means that Latin America is 87% of the way towards meeting the first Millennium target at a point in time when just 68% of the period provided for that achievement has passed.[6] This evidence gives reason to believe that the region as a whole is fully on track to meet its commitment to halve the 1990 extreme poverty rate by 2015 (see figure I.3).

The projections for extreme poverty rates in 2007 paint a bright picture for many countries. The most recent figures for Ecuador (urban areas) and Mexico indicate that they will join the ranks of countries that, like Brazil and Chile, have already reached the first target established for the first Millennium Development Goal. The Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Colombia, El Salvador, Panama and Peru have progressed as much as, or more than, expected (68%). All the other countries in Latin America have lower extreme poverty rates than they did in 1990, but some of them are behind where they should be in order to reach this target on time. It should be pointed out that although Argentina and Uruguay are still less than 40% of the way, they are only 2.5 and 1.0 percentage points, respectively, from their target in absolute terms. On the other hand, Bolivia, Honduras, Nicaragua and Paraguay, who are also less than half way to meeting their target, still have a considerable way to go.

Taken as a whole, the region has a very good chance of reaching this first target. Assuming that no major changes in income distribution occur in the next few years, Latin America will only have to achieve GDP growth of 1.1% per year, which is less than its population growth rate. The low level of growth required is partially due to the fact that four countries have already surpassed the target and are therefore "subsidizing" those that are further behind. This is all the more so because the over-achievers include Brazil and Mexico, which together account for over half of the region's population. In fact, the growth rate for countries that have not yet attained this first target averages 4.0% per annum, which translates into a 2.6% annual increase in per capita GDP (see figure I.4).

[6] The time allotted for reaching this target is 25 years (from 1990 to 2015); 17 of those 25 years have passed, which amounts to 68% of the total period provided for this effort.

Figure I.3
LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): PROGRESS IN REDUCING EXTREME POVERTY AND TOTAL POVERTY BETWEEN 1990 AND 2007 [a]

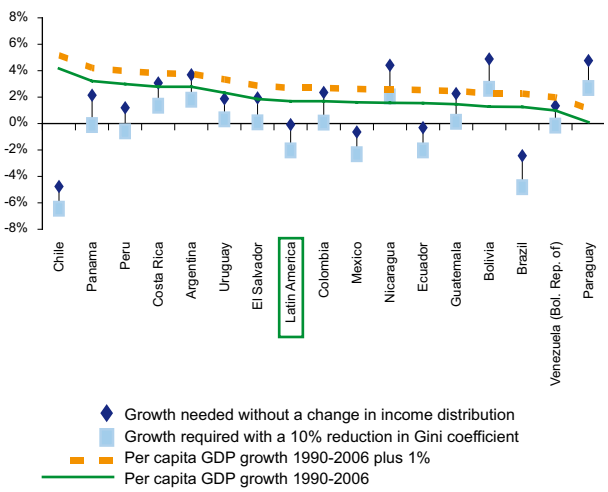


Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] The amount of progress made (expressed as a percentage) is calculated by dividing the percentage–point reduction (or increase) in indigence registered during the period by one half of the indigence rate for 1990. The dotted line represents the amount of progress expected by 2007 (68%).

[b] Urban areas.

Figure I.4
LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): PER CAPITA GDP GROWTH RATES NEEDED TO HALVE THE 1990 EXTREME POVERTY RATE BY 2015



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

The situation among the countries that have still not attained the target of halving the 1990 indigence rate varies considerably. Six of them (the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Panama, Peru and Uruguay) could meet the target as long as their GDP keeps growing at the average rate recorded between 1991 and 2006 and provided that their income distribution levels do not deteriorate. Given their economic performance in recent years, Argentina and Colombia could also be included in this group as they are highly likely to attain the slightly above-average GDP growth rates they need in order to halve their indigence rates.

The remaining countries will have to make far greater progress than they have so far if they are to meet the target. Huge inequalities in income distribution need to be addressed throughout the region, but in these countries in particular, implementing economic growth policies hand in hand with policies aimed at increasing the participation of the poor in the fruits of that growth has become absolutely imperative. The magnitude of the problem varies from country to country. Guatemala is in the best situation in this respect inasmuch as it could attain the first Millennium target without having to bring

about significant changes in income distribution. Bolivia and Nicaragua, on the other hand, need to increase GDP growth by one percentage point above average and achieve a redistribution of income equivalent to a 10% reduction in the Gini coefficient. The situation in Honduras and Paraguay is even more complicated because they will need to attain even higher levels of growth and greater changes in income distribution than Bolivia and Nicaragua. Priority needs to be awarded to providing regional support to the countries that are most behind in meeting the Millennium targets so as to ensure that they really contribute to improving living conditions in Latin America.

ECLAC has, both in previous editions of *Social Panorama of Latin America* and the inter-agency report on the Millennium Development Goals (United Nations, 2005), proposed a more ambitious target that is, in principle, more in accordance with the region's level of economic development. This new proposed target consists of halving the total poor population by 2015. Progress in this respect (13.2 percentage points, from 48.3% to 35.1%) has been slower than in the reduction of extreme poverty, and only 55% of the target has been attained by the region so far. Chile is the only country that has met the target and halved total poverty. Ecuador, Mexico and Panama are on track to do so, having already attained 70% of the reduction required. Next come Argentina, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica and El Salvador, with 50% or more of the required reduction already attained. Less than 50% progress has been recorded in the remaining countries (see figure I.3).

Improving income distribution is an essential factor for attaining this target as it can boost the positive effect economic growth has on poverty reduction. If, for example, in 2008-2015, there is a slight improvement in distribution equivalent to a 5% decline in the Gini coefficient, the target can be met with an annual per capita GDP increase of around 2%, which is barely higher than the historic growth recorded by this indicator in the region. Other demographic, household and labour-related factors, which are analysed in the next section, have contributed to poverty reduction during the past two decades. These can be taken advantage of to ensure that living conditions continue to improve in the region. Halving not only extreme poverty, but also total poverty, is therefore a challenge that is fully compatible with the region's development prospects.

C. Factors linked with poverty reduction

The countries that made the most progress in poverty reduction between 1990 and 2005 also recorded substantial drops in unemployment. This implies that the composition of a household and the extent to which its members can and do participate in the labour market plays a significant role in reducing poverty. The presence of declining dependency rates, also known as the "demographic dividend", has favoured poverty reduction in the region. This dividend is only a window of opportunity, however, and in order to take full advantage of it, countries need to pursue initiatives that increase worker productivity, improve public spending programmes for the more vulnerable sectors of the population and enable people to reconcile the demands of the home with remunerated work.

This section examines the influence of various demographic, household and labour-related factors on poverty reduction in 1990-2005 in the countries of Latin America and the Caribbean. This period constitutes the first 15 years of the 25-year framework established for reaching the first target of the Millennium Development Goals, which consists of halving the percentage of people living in extreme poverty between 1990 and 2015. In view of the progress already made by some of the region's countries in reducing extreme poverty, the more ambitious target of halving the entire poor population, rather than just the extremely poor population, proposed in the inter-agency report on the Millennium Development Goals (United Nations, 2005), is taken into consideration in this evaluation. In order to achieve this new target, the factors that contribute to poverty reduction need to be identified because, in the current situation, unless new initiatives are undertaken, it is unlikely that most of the region's countries will be able to meet this additional challenge.

Generally speaking, poverty trends can be understood by looking at changes in three determinants of per capita household income: the ratio of employed persons to total population, labour income per employed person and non-labour income (public transfers, remittances, etc.).[7] When the percentage of employed persons, wages per employed person and non-labour income levels in low-income households rise, poverty levels tend to diminish. These determinants can, in turn, be broken down into a series of factors: changes in labour income are linked with the behaviour of human capital and productivity patterns; changes in non-labour income stem from public and private transfers and from the rate of return on capital; and changes in employment levels can be traced back to demographic changes, shifts in family structures and the way in which households react to employment opportunities.[8]

The analysis performed in this section focuses on the influence of demographic changes and shifts in the structure and composition of families on poverty in Latin America during 1990-2005. This is particularly important given that the region currently faces a historic window of opportunity, known as the "demographic dividend", which has been created by the declining dependency ratio, i.e., by the increase in the number of working-age people in relation to the population as

[7] This breakdown is valid when measuring poverty on the basis of money income, which can be used as a means of gauging people's and households' ability to meet their basic food and non-food needs.

[8] Certainly, there are other factors that influence labour income as well, such as the degree of protection enjoyed by the labour force and its bargaining power (degree of unionization, existence of collective bargaining mechanisms, etc.).

whole. If the demographic dividend is to help reduce poverty, however, other conditions need to be met as well. Job opportunities, for example, that encourage people to join the labour market need to be created, and the restrictions derived from the cultural attitudes and economics of caring for the home and family, which prevent women from participating in wage work, need to be lifted (Cecchini and Uthoff, 2007).

1. Preliminary considerations

Two factors contribute to the perpetuation of poverty: the high demographic dependency rates of poor households, in which income has to be distributed among a larger number of people; and the low incomes workers in these households obtain on account of their limited accumulation of human capital and their low productivity. In both cases, but especially with regard to family size, the choices and decisions made by the family, as the basic socio-economic unit, play an essential role.[9]

Decisions regarding the size and composition of the family group and the participation of its members in the labour market directly affect the dependency ratio in a household. The possibilities of generating more income rise when such decisions increase the proportion of working-age members in the family. There is an element of inertia in the impact of these decisions: family size and composition will change anyway according to the different stages of the family life cycle and changes in the fertility of its members. Decisions that affect the family's circumstances, however, such as decisions about where to live, how many children to have, whether to stay together or what new living arrangements to make, also have an impact on the dependency ratio. The break-up of the family or a change in its structure can modify the dependency relationships in different ways: the economically active members might leave the home, younger couples might start to take care of the inactive members, or new family units might be formed to share expenses.

The size and structure of Latin American families vary considerably and are determined by a series of factors, such as the country's level of economic development, the stage of demographic transition and the state of decline of the patriarchal family.[10] In countries that are in an advanced stage of demographic transition, for example, childless couples make up a larger proportion of nuclear families, and more and more economically autonomous elderly and young people live alone. In countries in the moderate or full stages of demographic transition, there are more families with young children, and in the less developed countries, there is a higher proportion of one-parent nuclear families and extended or composite families (ECLAC, 2007a).

The outcome of the interplay of these factors is that poor families in the region have more members than the non-poor and that most members of poor families are children, which drives up the dependency rate. The largest families nowadays are mainly found among the quintile with the lowest income, and the smallest families among the quintile with the highest income. The number of members of the average urban family in the poorest quintile ranges from 4.2 in the Dominican Republic to 6.2 in Guatemala, while the average number in the richest quintile ranges from 2.1 in Uruguay to 4 in Nicaragua.

Despite the declining dependency ratio and the resulting "demographic dividend" (see box I.5), dependency is still high among the most vulnerable socio-economic groups because they have higher fertility rates (see table I.5). Teenage pregnancies are more common among poor girls, and pregnant teenagers tend to drop out of school, which means that poverty is perpetuated from one generation to the next. In Latin America, the fertility rate of teenagers from the poorest quintile is three times higher or more than among girls from the richest quintile, and up to five times higher in some countries. Unlike the total fertility rate, which has come down, the teenage fertility rate has shown few signs of budging in the past 20 years (ECLAC/UNICEF, 2007; ECLAC, 2006a).

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9 The family is a vitally important strategic resource in the region. It is the main institution for support and social protection in times of economic crisis, unemployment, illness, the death of a family member or other traumatic events. The family is also linked to social inequalities, however, that are perpetuated primarily in two ways: through the influence of family origins and ties on behaviour and attitudes and through the influence of the family on access to employment and job hierarchies (Arriagada, 2004).

10 The stages of demographic transition are: (i) incipient, with high birth and mortality rates; (ii) moderate, with high fertility rates but a moderate decline in mortality; (iii) full, with declining mortality and fertility; and (iv) advanced, with low fertility and mortality. When fertility drops to below replacement rates and remains at that low level for a prolonged period of time, a fifth stage may be reached in which the population growth rate is negative and the aging of the population is more pronounced. This is beginning to occur in Cuba and other Caribbean countries (Chackiel 2004; ECLAC, 2005a).

Table I.5

LATIN AMERICA (6 COUNTRIES): TOTAL FERTILITY RATE, BY SOCIO-ECONOMIC STRATA

Country	Year	Stratum					Low / high ratio
		1 (low)	2	3	4	5 (high)	
Brazil	1991	4.3	3.0	2.7	2.2	2.1	2.1
	2000	3.5	2.6	2.4	1.9	1.7	2.1
Chile	1992	2.9	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.5	1.1
	2002	2.3	2.0	2.1	2.0	2.0	1.1
Honduras	1988	7.3	5.5	5.8	5.3	3.5	2.1
	2001	4.6	4.7	3.2	3.5	2.5	1.8
Panama	1990	5.2	3.7	2.7	2.5	2.0	2.6
	2000	4.4	3.1	2.6	2.3	1.8	2.4
Paraguay	1992	6.3	5.8	4.1	4.3	3.2	2.0
	2002	6.2	3.7	4.4	3.5	2.7	2.3
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	1990	4.3	3.8	3.4	3.0	2.5	1.7
	2001	4.1	3.4	2.6	2.5	2.1	2.0

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, on the basis of specialprocessing of census microdatabases.

Note: The table presents survey data. The socio-economic stratum variable was therefore constructed using a combination of two sub-indices: one refers to the assets in the home and the other to the level of education of the head of the household. For further information, see box III.3, ECLAC, 2006a.

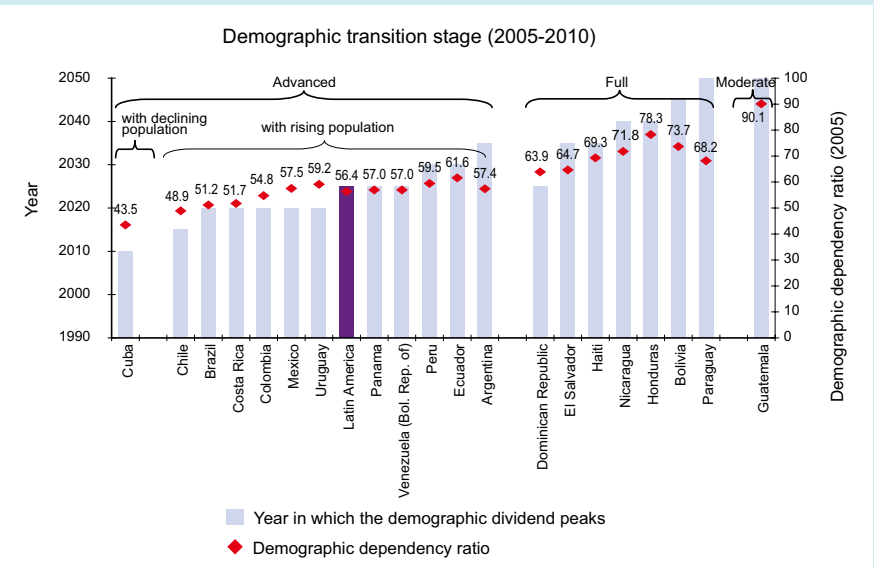
Box I.5

THE DEMOGRAPHIC DIVIDEND

Experts on the subject refer to the period in which the demographic dependency ratio declines as a "demographic dividend". This "dividend" only lasts for a certain period of time because the combination of a lower fertility rate and greater longevity eventually increases the proportion of elderly people in the population to the point at which the dependency ratio rises again and creates new demands for health care and economic security. The figure below presents the demographic dependency ratio in 2005 for 20 Latin American countries, together with estimates of the year in which the ratio will rise again and the demographic dividend will peak.

The year in which the dividend peaks is linked to the stage of demographic transition that the country has reached. In Latin America, most countries are in the advanced stage in which birth and death rates are low and the demographic dependency ratio is less than 62%. In some countries, such as

LATIN AMERICA (20 COUNTRIES): YEARS IN WHICH THE DEMOGRAPHIC DIVIDEND WILL PEAK AND DEMOGRAPHIC DEPENDENCY RATIO IN 2005, ACCORDING TO STAGE OF DEMOGRAPHIC TRANSITION, 2005-2010[a b]



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of population estimates and projections from the Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) - Population Division of ECLAC.

[a] The demographic dependency ratio is equal to: [(population aged between 1 and 14 years + population aged 65 years and over) /population aged 15 to 64 years] x 100.

[b] The countries were grouped as follows: moderate transition = birth rate of 32 to 42 per 1,000; full transition = birth rate of 22 to 32 per 1,000; advanced transition = birth rate of 22 to 12 per 1,000.

Box I.5 (concluded)

Argentina and Uruguay, the fertility and mortality rates have been low for some time. Seven countries are in the full transition stage, with high, but falling, birth rates and a demographic dependency ratio of between 64% and 78%. The dependency ratio in Cuba is already very low, and the country's demographic dividend is expected to be over in 2010. At the other extreme, Guatemala is in the moderate stage of transition with high fertility rates, that are however declining, albeit slowly, and a high demographic dependency ratio (90%) that will probably keep falling until 2050. No Latin American country is at the incipient stage in which birth and mortality rates are both very high.

The year at which the demographic dividend is expected to peak was estimated on the basis of periods of steady decline in the demographic dependency ratio. There may be exceptions, however. The ratio might rise again briefly during the lifetime of the dividend as part of the demographic transition process or as a result of international migration. In Chile, for example, the demographic dependency ratio in 1995 was slightly higher than in 1990, but has declined steadily since then and is expected to continue to do so until 2015. Obviously any projections 40 or 50 years into the future entail a degree of uncertainty. The years given for the demographic dividend to peak must therefore be considered to be indicative estimates only.

For the potential benefits of the dividend to be anything more than demographic, an increasing number of people at the age to be economically active need to actually participate in economic activity. This will require the confluence of a set of less predictable factors, however, linked to: (i) the capacity of the region's economies to create jobs that offer wages that are high enough to motivate people to join the workforce; (ii) the willingness of people to put in more hours of work to satisfy their income needs; and (iii) attitudes towards the care of family members that allow women to overcome the limitations that currently prevent them from devoting more time to paid work.

In other words, attention needs to be paid to the employment conditions awaiting the swelling ranks of the active population to ensure that the benefits of the demographic dividend are reaped and maximized. Significant investments need to be made in innovation to boost the productivity of those that will be joining the workforce in the future. The effects of the demographic dividend on poverty and social inclusion have the potential to reduce the insecurity, precariousness and informality that characterize the labour markets in the region. For this is to happen, however, huge efforts will need to be made in areas such as youth education and training, job creation and the development of comprehensive social protection schemes. Otherwise the number of jobseekers will rise without there being a parallel increase in employment opportunities, and the demographic dividend will turn into another burden for countries.

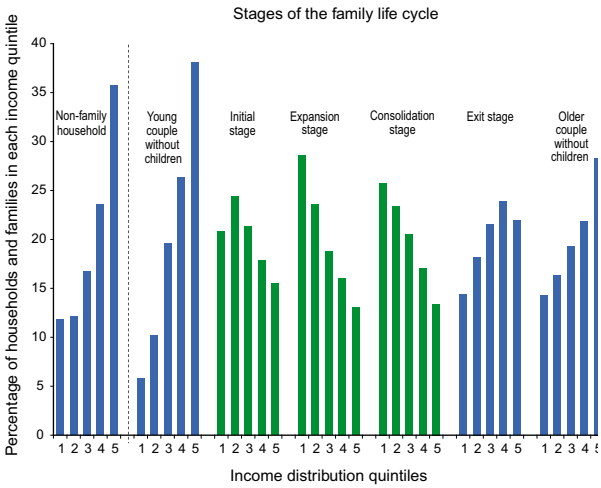
Source: Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), *Good Jobs Wanted: Labor Markets in Latin America*, Washington, D.C., 2003; Simone Cecchini and Andras Uthoff , "Reducción de la pobreza, tendencias demográficas, familias y mercado de trabajo en América Latina", *Políticas sociales series*, No. 136, Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), 2007. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.0X.II.G.110; Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), *Social Panorama of Latin America 2004* (LC/G.2220–P/E), Santiago, Chile, 2005. United Nations publication, Sales No. E.04.II.G.148 and G. Standing, *Labour Force Participation and Development*, Geneva, International Labour Organization (ILO), 1982.

Most families in the initial, expansion and consolidation stages of the family life cycle are in the poorest quintiles. Resources are stretched thin because the family is large and includes dependent-age children. Those who live alone, young couples without children, families in the exit stage of the family life cycle and older couples without children, on the other hand, are mostly found in the richest quintiles (see figure I.5).

Attitudes towards the division of labours in the home can impose significant restrictions on women and their participation in economic life. Around 2005, the number of women working outside the home among the poorest decile was 37%, compared with 61% for the richest decile. The difference among men was minimal: 76% of the poorest and 80% of the richest men were economically active (see figure I.8). The limited scope of the care economy has made it very difficult for women to reconcile remunerated work with the demands of the home and the need to take care of children and elderly relatives.

It is not just low employment and high dependency rates that perpetuate poverty, however. The low income levels of poor households are also associated, among other factors, with the limited human capital of their economically active members. This situation, which is linked to the fact that these members have few job opportunities, generates another vicious circle: members of poor households are inadequately prepared for anything but the most precarious jobs, and the children and young people living in such households have few opportunities for receiving high-quality education and training, which means they fail to accumulate sufficient social capital and end up in low-productivity occupations when they enter

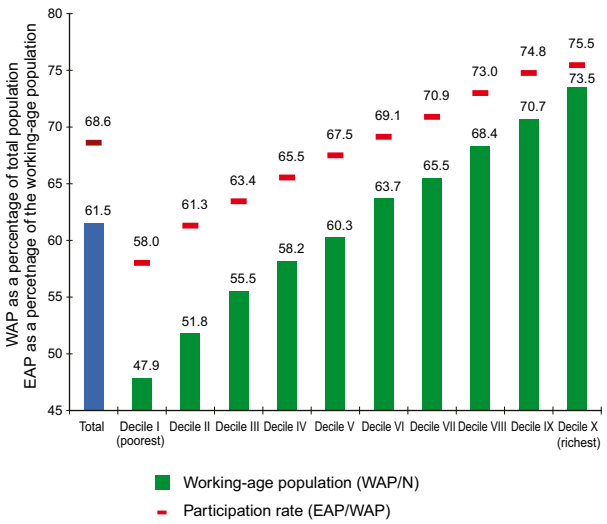
Figure I.5
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF HOUSEHOLDS AND FAMILIES IN DIFFERENT STAGES OF THE FAMILY LIFE CYCLE, BY INCOME QUINTILE, URBAN AREAS, AROUND 2005
(Simple average)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.
Notes:
Quintile 1: poorest; Quintile 5: richest. The percentages represented by the bars for quintiles 1 to 5 for each type of household and family add up to 100%.
Non-family household: single-person homes (occupied by only one person) and homes without a conjugal nucleus (father/mother and son/daughter) although other family ties may exist.
Stages of the family life cycle: (i) young couple: couple that has not had children and the woman is under 40; (ii) initial stage: families with one or more children aged 5 or under; (iii) expansion stage: families whose oldest children are aged 6 to 12 years regardless of the age of the youngest child; (iv) consolidation stage: families whose children are aged 13 to 18 or in which the age difference between the eldest and youngest child is generally 12 to 15 years. The largest proportion of reconstituted families are in this stage because the large age difference between the eldest and youngest children is the result in some cases of the formation of new unions with young children; (v) exit stage: families whose youngest children are 19 or older, and (vi) older couple: couple without children in which the woman is over 40.

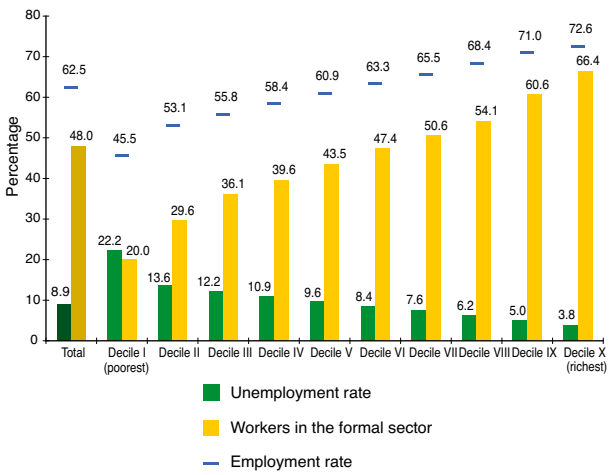
the labour market as well.[11] Being out of work is more common among the poor, and those who do manage to find a job often do so in the informal labour market and not as pay-rolled employees (see figure I.7).[12]

Figure I.6
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): WORKING-AGE POPULATION AND PARTICIPATION IN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY, BY INCOME DECILES, NATIONAL TOTALS, AROUND 2005 [a b]
(Simple average)



[a] The data in Argentina, Bolivia, Ecuador, Paraguay and Uruguay only refer to the urban population and not the national total.
[b] The working age population refers to people aged 15 to 64 years.

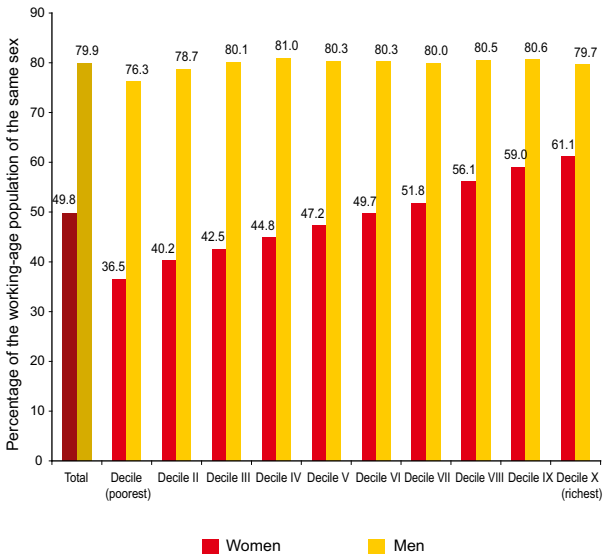
Figure I.7
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): UNEMPLOYMENT RATE, EMPLOYMENT RATE AND PROPORTION OF TOTAL WORKERS EMPLOYED IN THE FORMAL SECTOR OF THE ECONOMY, BY INCOME DECILE, NATIONAL TOTALS, AROUND 2005 [a b]



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.
Note: WAP = working-age population; EAP = economically active population; N = total population.
[a] The data on Argentina, Bolivia, Ecuador, Paraguay and Uruguay only refer to the urban population and not the national total.
[b] The employment rate refers to the number of employed divided by the working-age population ("gross" employment rate).

11 See chapter III on quality in education.
12 According to ILO (2005), in 2005, the unemployment rate among the poor in the region was on average 2.9 times higher than among the non-poor, and unemployment among the indigent population was 4.1 times higher than among the non-poor.

Figure I.8
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): PARTICIPATION IN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY OF MEN AND WOMEN, BY INCOME DECILES, NATIONAL TOTAL, AROUND 2005 [a]
(Simple average)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.
[a] The data on Argentina, Bolivia, Ecuador, Paraguay and Uruguay only refer to the urban population and not the national total.

The statistics reveal a perverse interplay among factors whereby labour and family dynamics actually worsen the shortage of income in poor households and thus ensure the perpetuation of poverty from one generation to the next. The poor tend to only find employment in low-productivity occupations and be at greater risk of ending up unemployed. They also live in households and belong to families that have larger numbers of small children and economic dependents. Moreover, less women from poor households, as a proportion, are economically active than women from the higher income deciles. This means that poor families not only obtain less income, but that that income has to be used to support a larger number of people. The high levels of demographic dependency, low levels of participation in economic activity, low productivity and frequent episodes of unemployment together exacerbate the situation of families living below the poverty line.

2. The factors linked to poverty reduction, 1990 - 2005

The analysis of the factors linked to poverty reduction in Latin America and the Caribbean is based on the breakdown of the determinants of the per capita income of households living below the poverty line: the ratio of employed persons to total population, labour income per employed person and non-labour income (see box I.6.).[13] Improvements in human capital and productivity raise the labour income per employed person, while demographic changes and shifts in family structures affect employment levels. Decisions about the participation of members of the household in the labour market are in turn affected by the attractiveness of the new jobs created and the restrictions imposed by the need to provide care for family members in each country.

[13] It is important to take into account the changes in labour income per employed person, overall employment and non-labour income per capita in households living around or below the poverty line when analysing poverty trends. Increases in the median income can conceal situations of poverty as they may reflect improvements recorded by the richest decile or a reduction in the number of poor.

Box I.6
METHODOLOGY USED FOR ANALYSING PER CAPITA INCOME TRENDS

The indicator used to classify families according to their monetary poverty measures their capacity to generate income in the labour market and to obtain income from other sources, such as public transfers, remittances and financial investments. This indicator can be analysed by examining the three main components of per capita income in a given population (Y/N):

- Overall employment rate or number of employed (O), divided by the total population (N): broad measurement of the participation of different age groups in the labour market and a given economy's capacity to absorb more workers;
- Labour income per employed person (YL/O): measurement that approximates labour productivity;
- Per capita non-labour income (YNL/N): refers to a range of sources of income, from public and private-sector transfers to income from properties and income from imputed rents.

$$\frac{Y}{N} = \left(\frac{O}{N} \times \frac{YL}{O}\right) + \frac{YNL}{N} \quad (1)$$

The global employment rate can be broken down as follows:

- Demographic dependency rate: ratio between the working-age population (WAP) and the total population (N);
- Participation rate: economically active population (EAP) divided by the working-age population (WAP), and
- Net employment rate: number of employed (O) divided by the economically active population (EAP).

$$\frac{Y}{N} = \left[\left(\frac{PET}{N} \times \frac{PEA}{PET} \times \frac{O}{PEA}\right)\right] \times \frac{YL}{O} + \frac{YNL}{N} \quad (2)$$

In order to analyse per capita income trends between 1990 and 2005, the values of the three main components of this indicator, (overall employment rate, labour income per employed person and non-labour income per capita) are presented in annex I.1 according to the following formula:

$$\frac{Y}{N}(2005) - \frac{Y}{N}(1990) = \left[\frac{YL}{O}(2005) \times \left(\frac{O}{N}(2005) - \frac{O}{N}(1990)\right)\right] + \left[\frac{O}{N}(1990) \times \left(\frac{YL}{O}(2005) - \frac{YL}{O}(1990)\right)\right] + \left(\frac{YNL}{N}\right)(2005) - \left(\frac{YNL}{N}\right)(1990) \quad (3)$$

Any increase in the number of employed, labour income per employed person, and non-labour income will help reduce the monetary poverty of poor families and help some escape poverty.

The comparability of the data poses problems for several reasons. The periods taken into consideration vary from country to country: in the case of the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Brazil, Ecuador, Paraguay and Uruguay, for example, the period covered is 1990-2005, while in El Salvador it is 1995-2004. In the case of Argentina, Bolivia, Ecuador, Paraguay and Uruguay, the data only refers to the urban population and not the whole country. In some cases, the data obtained through surveys conducted in the same country but on different dates may not be comparable. Finally, the use of only two points of reference during the period 1990-2005 may conceal natural oscillations of factors that have cyclical components, such as labour income and the net employment rate.

Source: Simone Cecchini and Andras Uthoff , "Reducción de la pobreza, tendencias demográficas, familias y mercado de trabajo en América Latina", Políticas sociales series, No. 136, Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), 2007. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.OX.II.G.110.

The procedure consisted of first classifying households by per capita income level, then ordering the population into deciles from poorest to richest. Table I.6 presents the values of per capita family income for each decile (expressed as multiples of the poverty line) around 1990 and 2005 together with estimated variations of that income according to changes in its three main components: labour income per employed person, the global employment rate and non-labour income per capita.[14] On the basis of the data presented in table I.6, the countries of Latin America are classified in table I.7 according to the variations recorded between 1990 and 2005 in the three components of income in the deciles that around 1990 were below the poverty line. The general variation in total poverty in each country during the period is also given.

[14] As highlighted in box I.6, the analysis of the variations occurring between 1990 and 2005 may conceal the oscillations occurring in the intervening years.

Table I.6

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): PER CAPITA FAMILY INCOME AND BREAKDOWN OF ITS VARIATION BY CHANGES IN LABOUR INCOME PER EMPLOYED PERSON, THE OVERALL EMPLOYMENT RATE AND PER CAPITA NON-LABOUR INCOME (IN MULTIPLES OF THE POVERTY LINE), BY DECILES OF INCOME DISTRIBUTION, 1989-1995 AND 2001-2005 [a]

Country	Per capita income	Total	Decile I	Decile II	Decile III	Decile IV	Decile V	Decile VI	Decile VII	Decile VIII	Decile IX	Decile X
Countries with low poverty rates												
Chile	Y/N 1990	2.41	**0.3**	**0.5**	**0.7**	**0.9**	1.1	1.4	1.8	2.4	3.7	11.1
	Y/N 2003	3.71	**0.5**	**0.9**	1.2	1.5	1.8	2.2	2.8	3.7	5.5	17.2
	Δ Y/N (Δ YL/O)	0.85	0.06	0.15	0.21	0.23	0.40	0.48	0.64	0.83	1.23	4.21
	Δ Y/N (Δ O/N)	0.31	0.02	0.05	0.10	0.14	0.11	0.17	0.21	0.35	0.48	1.51
	Δ Y/N (Δ YNL/N)	0.14	0.10	0.11	0.12	0.15	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.09	0.10	0.37
Uruguay [b]	Y/N 1990	3.09	**0.6**	**0.9**	1.2	1.5	1.8	2.2	2.6	3.2	4.3	12.7
	Y/N 2005	2.77	**0.5**	**0.8**	1.1	1.4	1.8	2.1	2.6	3.3	4.5	9.6
	Δ Y/N (Δ YL/O)	-0.36	-0.10	-0.14	-0.11	-0.15	-0.13	-0.08	-0.10	-0.07	0.20	-2.71
	Δ Y/N (Δ O/N)	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.04	0.05	0.01	-0.02	-0.03	-0.08	-0.16
	Δ Y/N (Δ YNL/N)	0.03	0.05	0.04	0.02	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.12	0.17	0.09	-0.24
Costa Rica	Y/N 1990	2.17	**0.3**	**0.7**	**0.9**	1.2	1.5	1.8	2.2	2.8	3.6	7.0
	Y/N 2005	2.78	**0.4**	**0.8**	1.1	1.4	1.7	2.1	2.6	3.4	4.7	9.8
	Δ Y/N (Δ YL/O)	0.16	0.02	-0.02	-0.02	-0.02	0.00	-0.02	-0.02	0.09	0.45	1.21
	Δ Y/N (Δ O/N)	0.33	0.02	0.08	0.13	0.17	0.22	0.27	0.39	0.47	0.46	0.96
	Δ Y/N (Δ YNL/N)	0.13	0.07	0.05	0.04	0.07	0.03	0.05	0.04	0.05	0.21	0.62
Countries with low-medium poverty rates												
Argentina [c]	Y/N 1990	3.10	**0.5**	**0.8**	1.1	1.4	1.8	2.2	2.7	3.5	4.8	12.2
	Y/N 2005	3.14	**0.4**	**0.8**	1.1	1.4	1.7	2.1	2.6	3.4	4.8	13.1
	Δ Y/N (Δ YL/O)	-0.27	-0.15	-0.14	-0.11	-0.09	-0.06	-0.22	-0.33	-0.45	-0.62	-0.12
	Δ Y/N (Δ O/N)	0.28	0.06	0.15	0.12	0.25	0.04	0.09	0.15	0.23	0.60	0.76
	Δ Y/N (Δ YNL/N)	0.02	-0.02	-0.04	-0.03	-0.16	-0.01	0.05	0.07	0.10	0.02	0.25
Panama	Y/N 1991	2.17	**0.2**	**0.4**	**0.6**	**0.8**	1.0	1.3	1.8	2.4	3.6	9.5
	Y/N 2005	2.68	**0.2**	**0.5**	**0.8**	1.0	1.4	1.8	2.3	3.2	4.7	11.0
	Δ Y/N (Δ YL/O)	0.02	-0.06	-0.05	0.01	0.02	0.08	0.10	0.08	0.04	0.01	0.24
	Δ Y/N (Δ O/N)	0.34	0.04	0.05	0.08	0.15	0.13	0.20	0.28	0.39	0.72	1.01
	Δ Y/N (Δ YNL/N)	0.16	0.02	0.06	0.07	0.08	0.13	0.13	0.22	0.30	0.32	0.25
Mexico	Y/N 1989	1.87	**0.3**	**0.5**	**0.6**	**0.8**	**0.9**	1.2	1.5	1.9	2.7	8.5
	Y/N 2005	2.27	**0.3**	**0.5**	**0.7**	1.0	1.2	1.5	1.9	2.4	3.4	9.8
	Δ Y/N (Δ YL/O)	0.03	-0.04	-0.04	-0.01	-0.03	0.01	-0.01	0.07	0.05	0.06	0.30
	Δ Y/N (Δ O/N)	0.36	0.04	0.08	0.10	0.16	0.19	0.30	0.24	0.44	0.58	1.39
	Δ Y/N (Δ YNL/N)	0.01	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.06	0.05	0.04	0.10	0.03	0.07	-0.31
Brazil	Y/N 1990	2.40	**0.2**	**0.3**	**0.5**	**0.7**	**0.9**	1.2	1.7	2.4	4.0	12.1
	Y/N 2005	2.95	**0.2**	**0.5**	**0.7**	1.0	1.3	1.6	2.1	2.8	4.4	15.0
	Δ Y/N (Δ YL/O)	-0.23	-0.01	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.04	-0.03	-0.11	-0.25	-0.45	-1.22
	Δ Y/N (Δ O/N)	0.22	0.04	0.04	0.07	0.09	0.09	0.17	0.09	0.35	0.36	0.53
	Δ Y/N (Δ YNL/N)	0.56	0.02	0.07	0.09	0.13	0.23	0.27	0.47	0.33	0.52	3.51
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	Y/N 1990	1.80	**0.3**	**0.5**	**0.7**	**0.9**	1.1	1.4	1.7	2.2	3.0	6.5
	Y/N 2005	1.97	**0.2**	**0.5**	**0.7**	1.0	1.2	1.5	1.9	2.4	3.2	7.2
	Δ Y/N (Δ YL/O)	-0.13	-0.06	-0.07	-0.08	-0.11	-0.11	-0.10	-0.07	-0.08	-0.07	0.11
	Δ Y/N (Δ O/N)	0.34	0.06	0.12	0.19	0.22	0.28	0.30	0.28	0.31	0.32	0.60
	Δ Y/N (Δ YNL/N)	-0.03	-0.09	-0.06	-0.07	-0.06	-0.06	-0.06	-0.04	-0.03	0.02	0.04
Countries with medium-high poverty rates												
Ecuador [b]	Y/N 1990	1.19	**0.2**	**0.4**	**0.5**	**0.6**	**0.7**	**0.9**	1.1	1.4	1.9	4.3
	Y/N 2005	1.83	**0.2**	**0.5**	**0.6**	**0.8**	1.0	1.3	1.6	2.1	2.9	7.4
	Δ Y/N (Δ YL/O)	0.27	-0.01	-0.02	0.01	0.04	0.06	0.12	0.16	0.30	0.48	1.86
	Δ Y/N (Δ O/N)	0.24	0.04	0.08	0.11	0.11	0.15	0.18	0.24	0.20	0.36	0.63
	Δ Y/N (Δ YNL/N)	0.13	0.03	0.02	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.08	0.11	0.19	0.22	0.64

Table I.6 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): PER CAPITA FAMILY INCOME AND BREAKDOWN OF ITS VARIATION BY CHANGES IN LABOUR INCOME PER EMPLOYED PERSON, THE OVERALL EMPLOYMENT RATE AND PER CAPITA NON-LABOUR INCOME (IN MULTIPLES OF THE POVERTY LINE), BY DECILES OF INCOME DISTRIBUTION, 1989-1995 AND 2001-2005 [a]

Country	Per capita income	Total	Decile I	Decile II	Decile III	Decile IV	Decile V	Decile VI	Decile VII	Decile VIII	Decile IX	Decile X
El Salvador	Y/N 1995	1.42	**0.1**	**0.3**	**0.5**	**0.7**	**0.8**	1.0	1.3	1.6	2.3	5.6
	Y/N 2004	1.55	**0.2**	**0.4**	**0.6**	**0.7**	**0.9**	1.1	1.4	1.9	2.6	5.7
	Δ Y/N (Δ YL/O)	0.00	-0.12	-0.03	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.09	0.11	0.09	-0.04
	Δ Y/N (Δ O/N)	0.06	0.01	0.04	0.02	0.05	0.06	0.01	0.03	0.09	0.05	0.00
	Δ Y/N (Δ YNL/N)	0.07	0.05	0.03	0.05	0.01	0.00	0.07	0.06	0.06	0.20	0.12
Colombia	Y/N 1991	1.52	**0.2**	**0.4**	**0.5**	**0.6**	**0.8**	1.0	1.2	1.6	2.3	6.6
	Y/N 2005	2.08	**0.2**	**0.4**	**0.6**	**0.8**	**0.9**	1.2	1.5	2.0	3.1	10.2
	Δ Y/N (Δ YL/O)	0.10	0.01	-0.01	-0.01	0.01	0.03	0.06	0.06	0.12	0.26	0.55
	Δ Y/N (Δ O/N)	0.06	-0.02	0.01	0.03	0.04	0.06	0.06	0.12	0.12	0.13	-0.12
	Δ Y/N (Δ YNL/N)	0.41	0.03	0.04	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.07	0.10	0.16	0.37	3.18
Paraguay [d]	Y/N 1990	1.69	**0.3**	**0.5**	**0.7**	**0.9**	1.1	1.2	1.5	2.0	2.8	5.9
	Y/N 2005	1.67	**0.3**	**0.5**	**0.6**	**0.8**	**0.9**	1.2	1.4	1.8	2.6	6.6
	Δ Y/N (Δ YL/O)	-0.21	-0.11	-0.13	-0.19	-0.13	-0.18	-0.27	-0.27	-0.42	-0.50	-0.14
	Δ Y/N (Δ O/N)	0.09	0.02	0.03	0.05	-0.04	-0.02	0.11	0.08	0.10	0.11	0.62
	Δ Y/N (Δ YNL/N)	0.10	0.04	0.05	0.07	0.06	0.08	0.09	0.08	0.13	0.14	0.24
Guatemala [e]	Y/N 1989	1.18	**0.1**	**0.2**	**0.3**	**0.4**	**0.5**	**0.7**	**0.9**	1.2	1.8	5.7
	Y/N 2002	1.47	**0.2**	**0.3**	**0.5**	**0.6**	**0.7**	**0.9**	1.2	1.6	2.4	6.3
	Δ Y/N (Δ YL/O)	0.00	0.03	0.02	-0.02	-0.03	-0.04	-0.08	0.12	0.06	0.14	0.51
	Δ Y/N (Δ O/N)	0.24	0.03	0.05	0.12	0.13	0.13	0.15	0.16	0.30	0.32	0.24
	Δ Y/N (Δ YNL/N)	0.05	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.06	0.16	0.06	0.08	0.15	-0.08
Countries with high poverty rates												
Bolivia [f]	Y/N 1989	1.67	**0.1**	**0.4**	**0.5**	**0.7**	**0.9**	1.1	1.4	1.9	2.8	7.0
	Y/N 2004	1.71	**0.3**	**0.5**	**0.6**	**0.7**	**0.9**	1.1	1.3	1.8	2.7	7.3
	Δ Y/N (Δ YL/O)	-0.38	0.01	-0.07	-0.10	-0.10	-0.19	-0.24	-0.35	-0.45	-0.58	-1.10
	Δ Y/N (Δ O/N)	0.21	0.13	0.11	0.10	0.09	0.14	0.14	0.15	0.10	0.20	0.27
	Δ Y/N (Δ YNL/N)	0.21	0.00	0.03	0.05	0.06	0.07	0.08	0.16	0.26	0.31	1.13
Nicaragua	Y/N 1993	0.99	**0.0**	**0.2**	**0.3**	**0.4**	**0.5**	**0.6**	**0.8**	1.1	1.6	4.5
	Y/N 2001	1.16	**0.1**	**0.2**	**0.3**	**0.4**	**0.6**	**0.7**	**0.9**	1.2	1.8	5.5
	Δ Y/N (Δ YL/O)	-0.06	0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.01	-0.03	-0.11	-0.07	-0.15	-0.18	0.59
	Δ Y/N (Δ O/N)	0.24	0.03	0.05	0.06	0.10	0.11	0.20	0.18	0.25	0.32	0.47
	Δ Y/N (Δ YNL/N)	-0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	-0.02	0.00	0.02	-0.10
Honduras	Y/N 1990	0.87	**0.1**	**0.1**	**0.2**	**0.3**	**0.4**	**0.5**	**0.6**	**0.9**	1.4	4.4
	Y/N 2003	0.95	**0.1**	**0.2**	**0.2**	**0.3**	**0.4**	**0.6**	**0.8**	1.1	1.6	4.4
	Δ Y/N (Δ YL/O)	-0.13	0.00	-0.02	-0.02	-0.02	-0.05	-0.03	-0.05	-0.10	-0.11	-0.68
	Δ Y/N (Δ O/N)	0.09	0.00	0.02	0.03	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.10	0.14	0.07
	Δ Y/N (Δ YNL/N)	0.13	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.06	0.06	0.13	0.19	0.18	0.52

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

Note: The figures in bold type and highlighted in grey indicate deciles whose per capita income is below the poverty line (<1.0). The countries are ordered by poverty level in the period 2001-2005 from lowest to highest proportion of poor people.

[a] The components of the variation of per capita income due to changes in labour income per employed person [Δ Y/N(Δ YL/O)], changes in the overall employment rate [Δ Y/N(Δ O/N)] and changes in per capita non-labour income [Δ Y/N(Δ YNL/N)] (in multiples of the poverty line) were calculated using formula 3 of box I.1.

[b] Urban areas.

[c] Greater Buenos Aires.

[d] Metropolitan area of Asuncion.

[e] In the case of Guatemala, the number of deciles below the poverty line is higher than the number obtained on the basis of the poverty levels published in box I.4 because those levels did not take into account the population aged under 10 years in 1989 and under 7 years in 2002, and adjustments therefore had to be made.

[f] Cochabamba, El Alto, La Paz, Oruro, Potosí, Santa Cruz, Tarija and Trinidad.

Table I.7
LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): COUNTRY TYPOLOGY BASED ON TRENDS IN THE OVERALL EMPLOYMENT RATE, LABOUR INCOME PER EMPLOYED PERSON AND NON-LABOUR INCOME IN POPULATION DECILES THAT INCLUDE POOR HOUSEHOLDS, 1990-2005[a]

Poverty trends (annual average) / countries [b]	Poverty –start of period [c]	Overall employment rate (O/N)	Labour income per employed person (YL/O)	Per capita non-labour income(YNL/N)	Poverty –end of period [c]
Sharp reduction (variation of more than -1.5% per year)					
Chile	38.3	++	++	++	18.6
Ecuador	61.8	++	+	+	45.1
Brazil	47.4	++	+	++	36.2
Panama	42.8	++	–	+	32.7
Mexico	47.4	++	–	+	35.5
Slight reduction (variation of between1.5% and 0.5% per year)					
El Salvador	54.0	+	–	+	47.5
Costa Rica	26.2	+	+ –	+	21.1
Colombia	55.6	+	=	+	46.8
Guatemala	70.3	++	=	++	58.4
Nicaragua	73.6	++	– –	=	69.3
Honduras	80.5	++	– –	++	74.6
No progress (variation of between 0.5% and 0.5% per year)					
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	40.0	++	– –	–	37.1
Bolivia	52.1	++	– –	+	51.6
Argentina	21.1	+	–	=	22.6
Uruguay	17.8	=	–	+	19.1
Increase (variation of more than 0.5% per year)					
Paraguay	42.2	+ –	– –	+	47.7

Note:
++: Significant progress
+: Progress
= / +-: No change/ progress and setbacks
-: Setbacks
– –: Significant setbacks
Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.
[a] Because of the different years in which surveys are conducted, the values shown for poverty at the beginning and end of the period do not cover the years 1990 and 2005 for all of the countries. The data for Chile and Honduras correspond to 1990-2003, the data for Panama and Colombia to 1991-2005, for Mexico to 1989-2005, for El Salvador to 1995-2004, for Guatemala to 1989-2002, for Nicaragua to 1993-2001 and for Bolivia to 1989-2004.
[b] The annual rate of reduction in total poverty for each country, which was used to classify the countries, was estimated using the following formula: ARR = ((FP-IP) / PI) *100)/y, where ARR = annual rate of reduction in poverty, FP = final poverty percentage, IP = initial poverty percentage, and y = number of years contained in the period.
[c] These percentages may not match those shown in table I.4 because of changes in the treatment of the domestic service category. In the case of Guatemala, it was necessary to adjust the way in which the data were processed to compensate for the absence of measurements covering children under 10 years of age in 1989 and under 7 years of age in 2002.

Table I.7 reveals a wide variety of situations. Three salient points need to be made in this regard. First, the commitment undertaken to achieve the Millennium Development Goals coincides with a period in which the proportion of the total population represented by economically active household members has been on the rise. The most notable exceptions in this respect are Uruguay (urban areas) and to a lesser extent, Paraguay (metropolitan area of Asunción). Second, throughout this entire period, no increase has been seen in the labour incomes of employed persons from the poorest households except in Chile, Brazil and Ecuador (urban areas). Third, there has been a fairly widespread increase in non-labour income among poor sectors of the population. An analysis of the reasons for this increase is beyond the scope of this report, however, since without a more detailed breakdown of the wide variety of income sources included in this category, it is impossible to draw conclusions about the relative importance of remittances, State support programmes for families and other sources of income, such as pensions and retirement funds.[15]

[15] In recent years, it has become customary to make State transfers to low-income families conditional upon changes in behaviour. The idea is to help families increase their productivity either by investing more in human capital, helping them spend their time more efficiently or increasing their access to productive assets (CEPAL 2006c). For an examination of the effect of remittances on poverty and inequality, see *Social Panorama of Latin America*, 2005 (ECLAC 2006a).

Only 5 of the 16 countries that were analysed have reduced poverty significantly since the early 1990s: the three countries where labour income per employed person has risen (Chile, Brazil, Ecuador), and Mexico and Panama, where the proportion of employed persons climbed considerably. The other countries have made little or no progress. The main limitation in these cases has been the labour market's poor performance. In the countries that have witnessed sharp reductions in poverty, the main underlying factors have been changes in household composition and in household members' participation in the labour market. Although this trend has been widespread in all the other countries as well, it has not been reinforced by sufficiently large increases in productivity or in transfers to households.

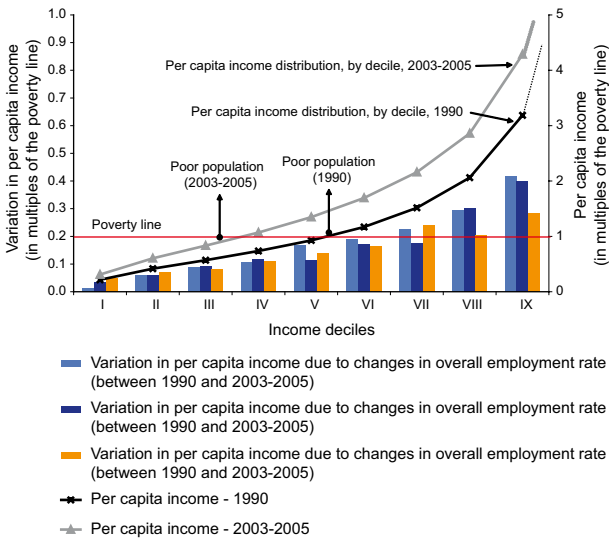
A comparison of the countries in which poverty has decreased the most and the least underscores the importance of behavioural patterns relating to the labour market (see figure I.9). For example, in Brazil, Chile and Ecuador (urban areas), the effect of the increase in the ratio of employed persons to the total population (dark blue bars in figure I.9-A) has been bolstered by an increase in labour income per employed person (light blue bars). This combination signals the presence of a highly dynamic labour market. In addition, there has also been an increase in non-labour income (orange bars). All this helped increase household incomes and lower poverty rates. This progress explains why the per capita income distribution curve for 2003-2005 (grey line) crosses the (red) poverty line among the lower deciles of income distribution, to the left of the per capita income distribution curve for 1990 (black line). In Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires), Bolivia, Paraguay (Asunción metropolitan area), Uruguay (urban areas) and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, in contrast, labour income per employed person declined in poor sectors of the population, and this decrease was not offset by any increase in the employment rate or non-labour income. Consequently, they made no progress in reducing poverty.

The data presented in figure I.9 reveals three other important facts that should be taken into consideration in policy design. First, the more similar the family structure among the deciles and hence the better the income distribution among the families classified into those deciles (shown in the figure by less steep curves), the greater poverty reduction will be when income per employed person rises or State transfers increase.

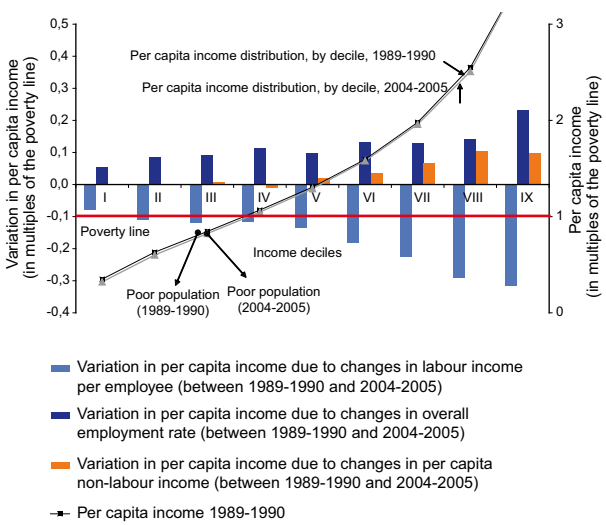
Second, around one third of the population of the countries included in figure I.9, according to per capita income figures, lived below the poverty line around 2005. An even larger number of persons were in a highly vulnerable situation at that time, however, with an income that placed them just above the poverty line but in no

Figure I.9
DETERMINANTS OF CHANGES IN POVERTY LEVELS, DECILES I-IX

(a) Countries recording a significant drop in poverty and increase in labour productivity (Brazil, Chile and Ecuador, simple averages), 1990-2005



(b) Countries recording no progress or increases in poverty (Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia, Paraguay and Uruguay, simple averages), 1989-1990 and 2004-2005



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

position to handle any crisis situation.[16] This applies to the other countries in the region too: in no country in Latin America is the average per capita income of the fifth decile at least twice that of the poverty line (see table I.6).

Third, in terms of the poverty line, the variation of labour income per employed person mirrors the pattern for income distribution: it is substantially greater in the higher income deciles. This reflects the fact that the increase in productivity originates from formal enterprise, benefits workers in the formal sector most and is proportionally distributed among the lower income levels. The effects of the increase are not redistributive; they trickle down the salary scale slowly.

3. Public policy challenges

The evidence shows that quite a few countries in the region are on track to reach the first target associated with the first Millennium Development Goal, thanks in large part to their success in capitalizing upon the demographic dividend. Declining dependency ratios have been complemented by rising employment levels among the poorest households. Improvements in labour income and job opportunities for the poorest sectors of the population, however, are still inadequate.

Policymakers in the region need to remember that the advantages afforded by the demographic dividend will not last forever, in fact, they will ultimately be reversed. In order to continue advancing with poverty reduction, therefore, countries will have to devise policies that make it possible to reconcile care work in the home with gainful employment and boost productivity in the occupations held by the poorest members of the population. Also, if these do not work, they will have to ensure that social spending targets the needs of the most vulnerable segments. Measures that aim to help women, especially in poor families, reconcile the care of the dependent members of the household with remunerated work so that more of them can become economically active need to be implemented and elevated to the status of public policy. Women should also be able to fully enjoy their reproductive rights so that they can decide on the size of their families and the dynamics of the family life cycle. At the same time, comprehensive and targeted labour training policies and initiatives for reinsertion into the labour force need to be developed for the active population at the lower end of the income scale so as to improve their options in the labour market.

These are not new requirements within the context of the countries' socio-economic development strategies. The steady aging of the population will, however, make them increasingly urgent as the rise in per capita income ceases to benefit from demographic trends after the "demographic dividend" peaks.

This challenge is not arising in a vacuum. Solutions can and need to be sought. Public policy must be used to bring about major changes in three areas: the response to the aging of the population and the declining birth rate in the countries of region; the performance of the countries' economic agents (such as raising productivity in a more competitive international context) and the influence of the political economy on the role and size of the State.

[16] In figure I.9, the slope of the per capita income curve is steeper after decile VIII, which implies that 70% of the population are in a highly vulnerable situation as far as subsistence is concerned.

D. Poverty and residential segregation in urban areas

Spatial segregation is polarizing Latin America's largest cities. The formation of poor ghettos at one extreme and gated middle- and upper-income residential areas at the other has serious implications for social cohesion and poverty in the region. Residential segregation reduces and interferes with the spheres of activity that provide opportunities for people to learn to live with others under circumstances of inequality. This poses a threat to social cohesion and blocks access for those from the poorest neighbourhoods, who are also the people most affected by the crises in the labour market, to employment and education. This in turn perpetuates poverty. Public policymakers therefore need to pay more attention to changes in residential segregation in urban areas, exert greater control over the determinants of these processes, and undertake a thorough review of urban land management and social housing programmes.

A series of studies published over the last decade provide new insights into poverty in urban areas. These studies pay more attention than previous works to the reshaping at the local level of the framework that affords the opportunities for upward mobility and to the influence that the community environment has on people's perceptions. The situation of the poor is thus interpreted in light of the immediate social context and the relationships people form with the community. The studies emphasize the probable negative consequences of urban residential segregation, such as the erosion of opportunities for the most vulnerable members of the population to improve their situation and the widening of the gap between the poor and the rest of society.

This approach is inspired by the pioneering work of James J. Wilson, in Chicago, who suggested that changes in the labour and housing markets were resulting in the increased geographic segregation of low-income (as well as middle- and upper-income) urban households and that the growing isolation of the poor from the main social and economic realms of the large cities was hardening poverty and its inter-generational reproduction.[17] With some differences, other authors adopted this more structuralist approach to analyse the dynamics of urban poverty (for example, Borja and Castells, 1997) and began to draw attention to a number of worrying issues. These are summed up below.

The first warning was that the neighbourhoods with the highest levels of privation -which is where unskilled workers, who rarely have a steady job and only precarious ties with the world of employment, tend to live- were being constantly bombarded by the mass media with images of abundance and messages encouraging them to consume. This confluence could trigger the most disruptive correlates of poverty, which would in turn upset social relations in cities and weaken the opportunities for cooperation and solidarity between citizens with different socio-economic backgrounds.

A second source of concern, which is closely linked to the first, is the rapid disappearance of one of the virtues that has characterized cities throughout history: their capacity to provide spaces in which people can learn to live with others under circumstances of inequality. The opportunities for this are fading under the increasing territorial polarisation of urban society (the final expression of which is the formation of poor ghettoes at one end of the spectrum and of gated middle- and upper-class neighbourhoods at the other) and the fragmentation that is taking place with the segregation of services (such as primary education), which are basically organized along

[17] For further detail, see Wilson (1987).

territorial lines. Both processes deepen the social divide and reduce the opportunities for fostering cooperation and building consensus-based norms and mechanisms for dispute settlement.

Another cause for concern is the suspicion that the residential segregation underway in urban areas is somehow rooted in and fuelled by the workings of the new modes of capitalism that are emerging with globalization. It is to be feared that, if this proves to be the case, the increased physical separation of rich and poor into different areas and the negative influence this has on social harmony in cities will be part of a long-term trend rather than a momentary problem.

Finally, concerns have been voiced about the fate of the poor at the micro-social level. Residential segregation runs the risk of reproducing poverty from one generation to the next. Regardless of individual and family traits, living in neighbourhoods with high concentrations of low-income households seems to affect both the ability of adult residents to use the conventional means cities offer for improving living standards and the possibility of the next generation escaping poverty.

All these concerns were incorporated into the studies of what is now termed "urban residential segregation". These studies aim to do more than simply describe cities whose differences have become apparent in concrete forms of social and territorial organization. They propound the idea that the effects of urban residential segregation are increasingly negative and that the discrepancies between social groups tend to mutually reinforce one another and hence become deeply entrenched, which fosters the polarisation of society and the "hardening" and widening of the social divide.

This approach is used in the description of the situation of Latin America presented in this section. Given the impracticality of addressing all the sources of concern mentioned above, only those most closely related to the poverty issues usually examined in *Social Panorama of Latin America* are analysed here. In the 2004 edition, it was suggested that poverty is closely linked to educational opportunities, job opportunities and reproductive patterns. The examination of the influence of the social composition of neighbourhoods therefore focuses on the evidence of its effects on these three factors.

It should be pointed out that although this approach is highly promising for furthering understanding of the phenomena related to urban poverty, empirical progress has been slow in Latin America, and the approach is only just beginning to be developed. This is partly because academic and political interest in the topic is only quite recent and partly due to the complexity of the methodological challenges involved in the corresponding research. The difficulty mainly lies in constructing models that incorporate the mechanisms at work between the social structure of the immediate environment and people's behaviour and in compiling the data needed to test the resulting hypotheses.

One of the purposes of this section is to offer a summary of the empirical knowledge in the region on the influence of the neighbourhood on residents' behaviour. This will hopefully stimulate a debate on the extent to which it would be justifiable for public policymakers to incorporate measures into their social agendas to try to halt or reverse the trend towards residential segregation in urban areas.

1. Employment

People who have problems finding a job also have problems paying the rent, putting up down payments for housing contracts and obtaining loans. It is therefore no surprise that the neighbourhoods with the highest unemployment rates are situated on the cheapest plots in town or wherever there is land for the taking. The fact that the problem of unemployment is largely concentrated in the neighbourhoods where low-skilled workers live can be seen simply as an aggregated result of the crisis in the labour market.

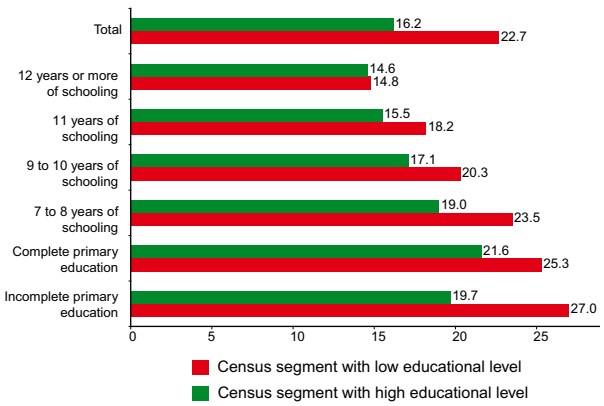
However, the relationship between people's position in the labour and housing markets depends on the action of the public sector. The state can help to weaken the link between labour and housing markets depends on the action of the public sector. The state can help to weaken the link between labour and housing disadvantages through the creation of rental subsidies, the extension of soft loans for home buyers, the location of social housing projects and changes in the public transport system (Muster and Ostendorf, 1998).[18]

[18] Social housing policies can also promote the residential segregation of the poorest members of society. The policies implemented in Chile at the beginning of the 1980s, through which supply subsidies were replaced with a money certificates scheme whereby low-income families could purchase housing constructed by private enterprises, is an example of this. For more details, see Sabatini and Arenas (2000).

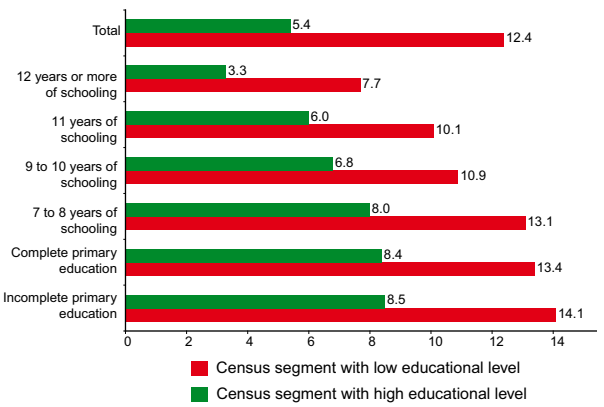
The data presented below suggest a slightly more complex relationship between employment and the social composition of the neighbourhood (Kaztman and Retamoso, 2005). Figures I.10, I.11 and I.12 show that even when the skills level is controlled, the probabilities of a person entering the labour market and of finding work in the formal sector of the economy are systematically linked to the social make-up of his or her place of residence.

Figure I.10
URUGUAY (MONTEVIDEO): OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATE, BY AVERAGE EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF THE CORRESPONDING CENSUS DISTRICT, BY AGE AND YEARS OF SCHOOLING, 1996
(Percentages)

(a) 15 to 29 years of age

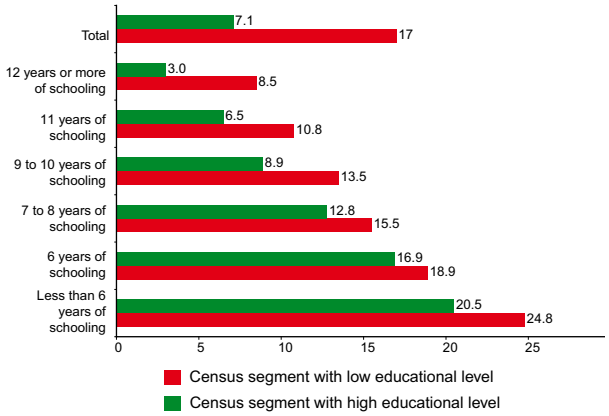


(b) 30 years of age and over



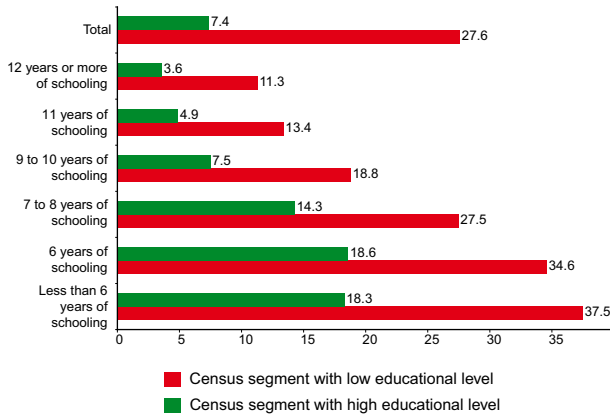
Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of Uruguay's 1996 population and housing census.
Note: Data for 1996 were used because the relevant tabulations for 2004 census data are not available.
In Uruguay, the primary education cycle covers a six-year period; secondary education is divided into two three-year cycles.

Figure I.11
URUGUAY (MONTEVIDEO): OWN-ACCOUNT WORKERS, BY AVERAGE EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF THE CORRESPONDING CENSUS DISTRICT AND YEARS OF SCHOOLING, 1996
(As a percentage of the population)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of Uruguay's 1996 population and housing census.
Note: Own-account workers excludes company executives, professionals and technicians.

Figure I.12
URUGUAY (MONTEVIDEO): PRIVATE-SECTOR EMPLOYEES WITHOUT HEALTH COVERAGE OR ACCESS TO THE PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING AND EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT OF THE CENSUS DISTRICT, 1996
(As a percentage of the population)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of Uruguay's 1996 population and housing census.
Note: According to current legislation, private-sector employees have the right to medical attention in the country's collective medical assistance institutions (IAMC). The number of people without this possibility and without medical coverage or access to medical attention in the Ministry of Public Health probably reflects the number of employed persons not registered with the national social security scheme.

A look at the data presented in figures I.10, I.11 and I.12 raises the question of why people who live in certain neighbourhoods and have a certain amount of schooling (for example, 11 years of formal education in the case of Montevideo) have completely different opportunities when it comes to finding work and the quality of the jobs they obtain than other people who have attained the same level of education but live in neighbourhoods with a different social make-up. Two approaches, each emphasising different causes, will be used to answer this question.

The first approach is based on the classic theory of human capital and maintains that the number and type of employment problems a neighbourhood faces will depend on the individual characteristics of its residents. People with similar levels of education who live in different neighbourhoods have different employment rates because people always have individual traits that can determine their success in the labour market and, consequently, the geographical location of their place of residence.

The second approach, which underscores the importance of structural factors of behaviour, tends to interpret employment differences in terms of the causality that operates within neighbourhoods. This does not so much attempt to override the other approach as to complement it by examining how the influence of the neighbourhood can steadily weaken its residents' ties with the labour market. The characteristics of neighbourhoods that play a role in this process are examined below.

(a) Distribution of job opportunities in urban areas: distance between the place of residence and the place of employment

It has been claimed that the further away people live, the more problems they will have finding and keeping a job, probably due to the time and money that need to be spent on travelling to and from work and the reduced opportunities there are to access information and make contacts with people in the labour market. The experience of working-class neighbourhoods in some Latin American cities that used to be near the shipyards, meatpacking plants, factories, railroad workshops and other sites would seem to bear this argument out.

Since the 1970s there has been a substantial reduction in the number of people working in industry in Latin America and a steady increase in the skills levels required in factory work. Unskilled workers have therefore been forced to find work in the personal services sector. Unlike factories, however, which (like the homes of unskilled workers) tend to be located on the cheapest plots of land in town, the middle class homes in which service jobs can be found are situated in the more upmarket areas. The distance between home and the workplace has therefore become a far more important issue than it was in the past for low-skilled workers.

How much of an issue the commute between places of residence and employment is depends on the layout of the city in question. In Rio de Janeiro, for example, the location of the *favelas* (shanty towns) in different parts of the city enables a significant portion of the poorer population to live near areas with a high demand for personal services. In Buenos Aires and Montevideo, on the other hand, the distance between home and the workplace is far greater because most poor people's homes are on the outskirts of the city.

Part of the problem posed by the distance between home and the workplace for first-time job seekers is the slackness of the economies of poor neighbourhoods. The more stable and protected workers there are in an area, the greater the flow of money and the more dynamic the exchange of goods and services, and vice versa. The fact that the employment rate of people with similar levels of education varies according to the social make-up of the neighbourhood in which they live can be partially attributed to the differences they encounter in job opportunities at the local level.

A study conducted in São Paulo, which compiled data on companies in different types of neighbourhoods (Gomes and Amitrano, 2004), sheds some light on the subject. As shown in table I.8, average wages vary considerably according to the social make-up of the district in which the company is located. These differences are still significant even when adjustments are made for skills levels, company size and the economic sector in which the companies operate. The results of the study seem to indicate that people from poor neighbourhoods end up in low-paying jobs not just because of the distance between where the work is and their place of residence, but because of other factors as well: working conditions in the areas they live in are worse than in more upmarket parts of town; employers discriminate against workers from the more stigmatized neighbourhoods and there is a surplus of unskilled labour in poor neighbourhoods.

The differences in job opportunities suggest that living near the wealthier neighbourhoods represents an important advantage for low-skilled workers. It is therefore not surprising that in Santiago, Montevideo, Buenos Aires and Río de Janeiro, among other cities, pockets of poverty have sprung up around middle and upper class neighbourhoods as people with limited resources try to live close to where they are most likely to find work (Brain and Sabatini, 2007).

Table I.8
BRAZIL (METROPOLITAN REGION OF SÃO PAULO): AVERAGE WAGES OF WORKERS BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL, ECONOMIC SECTOR AND THE SOCIAL COMPOSITION OF THE DISTRICT IN WHICH THE COMPANY IS LOCATED, 2000
(Values in minimum wages of 2000)

Characteristics of establishments	Social composition of the district			Total
	Poor	Middle class	Wealthy	
Level of education of employees				
Incomplete primary	3.64	3.93	4.29	3.86
Complete primary	3.73	4.10	4.67	4.02
Secondary	4.72	5.32	6.49	5.23
Incomplete tertiary	7.32	8.16	10.03	8.09
Complete tertiary	10.71	12.54	16.19	12.29
Economic sector				
Industry	4.65	5.36	7.89	5.40
Services	4.06	5.17	7.43	5.02
Commerce	3.40	3.92	5.48	3.90
Civil engineering	3.46	3.80	4.94	3.84
Public administration	6.39	8.81	13.48	10.29
Average wage (all areas)	4.71	5.36	7.25	5.35

Source: S. Gomes and C. Amitrano, "Local de moradía na metropole e vulnerabilidade ao emprego e desemprego", *Segregaçao, pobreza e desigualdades sociais*, E. Marques and Haroldo Torres (comps.), São Paulo, Editora SENAC, 2004.

(b) Stigmas

The increased separation of poor neighbourhoods, in both physical and social terms, from the rest of the city is altering how the different social classes view one another. Two processes are at work in this. On the one hand, as opportunities for mixing socially with other classes diminish, the members of the upper classes of urban society lose their ability to "put themselves in the shoes of others" (empathize), which means that they are no longer moved by the inequality and misery they see in the streets. On the other hand, the extent of the privation in poor neighbourhoods creates cracks in the social structure which turn into breeding grounds for marginal subcultures. The resulting disorder harms the public image of the neighbourhood. Neighbourhoods whose patterns of behaviour are seen by the rest of urban society to be strange or dangerous are soon labelled as "bad parts of town".

The combination of these two processes leads to the creation of stigmas. Negative images can seriously affect the collective identification of people who, exposed to similar experiences of discrimination, discover they share a painful set of problems and fate with their neighbours.[19] Most importantly for the purposes of this study, the negative images of certain areas of a city are taken into account by employers when hiring unskilled labour.

(c) Social capital: job information and contacts - opportunities that depend on the social composition of each neighbourhood

People whose neighbours have only fragile links with the labour market interact less with working people and, consequently, have limited access to information and contacts that would allow them to obtain a job. The negative synergies in these situations affect people's attitudes to work in different ways: first, because the neighbourhood network turns out to be a useless resource as far as finding a job is concerned; second, because the routines and disciplines of the world of work no longer frame the social and everyday life of the neighbourhood (in addition to lowering the tone of life in the community, this makes it more difficult to uphold the belief that steady work is the best way to escape poverty); and third, because people cannot, in these kinds of neighbourhoods, learn the social skills that would help them obtain and keep a job.

(d) Insecurity

Studies conducted in the neighbourhoods with the most unemployment reveal that these are also the neighbourhoods with the worst public safety and the highest levels of mistrust.[20] Fear of assault and robbery and of exposing their children to dangerous and undesirable influences

[19] For more details on the perception of being the victim of discrimination among the poor in Latin America, see the following section on psycho-social divides.

[20] The next section presents some empirical background information on interpersonal mistrust in the region's countries.

stops households from mobilizing their resources. Instead of sending out their working-age members to find jobs and bring home money, families are forced to assign them to the protection of other family members and the safekeeping of the home and its contents. The lack of security can also make it unsafe to walk through parts of the neighbourhood at certain times of day. This affects the hours people can work and consequently the jobs they can accept (Suárez, 2004; Zaffaroni, 1999).

(e) Socialization

For children and teenagers, the neighbourhood is where they develop their social skills. How well a neighbourhood's young residents are integrated into society depends on the proportion of examples they witness of the relationship between work and success in life. It also depends, however, on the effectiveness of local standard patterns of behaviour and on the extent to which the streets are controlled by the marginal subcultures that reject the conventional means of improving one's situation (education and work) and encourage behaviour that is totally incompatible with making progress by either route. There is a running battle in the poorest neighbourhoods between one option and the other, between those who try not to become alienated from society and those who, disheartened, drop out to explore less legitimate means of making ends meet. Neighbourhoods where people only have weak ties with the world of work cannot offer children and adolescents suitable models for social integration. Nor can they effectively counteract the messages, images and modes of behaviour promoted by the subcultures that justify and reinforce young people's reluctance to utilize education and work as ways of escaping poverty.

2. Education

The formation of human capital is also affected by the type of neighbourhood in which people grow up before they venture into the labour market. The studies described below, which were conducted in large Latin American cities, examined the links between the place of residence and the educational level attained by children and adolescents. In four of these studies (those carried out in Rio de Janeiro, Buenos Aires, Montevideo and Santiago), educational levels were measured by the academic performance tests given to students in the fourth or sixth grade of primary school. In Mexico, the study focused on the school dropout rate among students in their third year of secondary school, and in Sao Paulo, the study examined the indirect effects of the neighbourhood on learning in light of the quality of the teachers working in the neighbourhood.

The results of the research in Buenos Aires show that children living in low-income neighbourhoods scored lower on mathematics and language tests than other children with similar individual, family and educational backgrounds (Groissman and Suarez, 2007). Overall the test scores varied by 21 points in the city of Buenos Aires. Children from poor neighbourhoods, however, scored on average 5 points less than children living in other areas.

The study performed in Santiago, in which neighbourhoods were classified by their unemployment rate, found an inverse relationship between the concentration of unemployed people and the performance of children at school according to the tests administered under the Education Quality Measuring System (SIMCE) of the Chilean Ministry of Education (Flores, 2007). This finding is in keeping with the theories that in neighbourhoods in which the adults have weak ties with the labour market, the sense of community tends to fade and the neighbourhood is incapable of providing useful information and examples that could foster the social integration of the children and teenagers living there. The study also leads to three more conclusions. First, a one- point increase in the unemployment rate of a neighbourhood results in a 1.13 point drop in the SIMCE scores of the children attending the school in that neighbourhood. Second, the SIMCE scores vary according to the administrative status of the school, with public schools scoring lower than subsidised private schools, and these in turn scoring lower than non-subsidised private schools. This is partially explained by the neighbourhood in which the different types of schools are found.[21] Finally, residential segregation also seems to indirectly affect how well children learn in another way: when all other factors are kept constant, a 1% increase in job satisfaction among teachers working in non-segregated neighbourhoods results in a 4.4 point

[21] The ratio between the administrative status of the schools and the score obtained on the assessment tests declines when the local employment rate is used as a control variable, which suggests that part of the variation in children's academic performance is due to the socio-economic characteristics of the neighbourhood in which they live.

increase in the children's performance. In segregated neighbourhoods, however, the same increase in job satisfaction only translates into 0.4 additional points on the SIMCE tests (Flores, 2007).

In Rio de Janeiro, academic performance was measured using an indicator of the number of children who had fallen behind after eight years of schooling (Queiroz Ribeiro, Franco and Alves, 2007). The studied showed that the children living in the *favelas* (shanty towns) near neighbourhoods with a high percentage of middle and upper class residents are more likely to fall behind than those living in the *favelas* surrounded by poor neighbourhoods. The influence of the surrounding neighbourhood became even more apparent when the authors of the studied analyzed school dropout rates among teenagers aged between 14 and 17. The results indicated that the risk of dropping out of school among youths from *favelas* located near wealthy or poor neighbourhoods is, respectively, 74% and 57% higher than among youths living elsewhere.

These findings challenge the hypothesis that the social heterogeneity of a given geographical area improves the academic achievement level of the school children in that area. They therefore have interesting heuristic potential for developing theories about the influence of the neighbourhood and open up a several possible lines of research. Which combinations of children from different social backgrounds, for example, would generate mainly feelings of resentment and rejection among the poor children as they become aware of their relative privation? Or under what circumstances could social mixing, on the contrary, foster empathy and conformity and encourage poor children to integrate as they aspire to social mobility? Also, what kind of (legitimate and illegitimate) opportunities arise in the border zones between rich and poor areas where poor children are constantly and directly exposed to life styles and living conditions so far removed from their own experience?

A study of academic performances in Mexico examined the effects of the social make-up of neighbourhoods on the school dropout rate from primary school through high school (Solís, 2007). The study revealed that if the socio-economic situation of a given neighbourhood deteriorates, the likelihood that students will drop out of school at the end of the first cycle of secondary education rises.[22] The dropout rate remains high even when individual and household traits are controlled for and only falls when the characteristics of the schools are factored into the equation. The study showed that it is the schools that tend to internalize socio-economic inequalities (such as the public or private status of the school, the social background of the teachers and the average socio-economic level of the pupils) that also tend to absorb the effects of the neighbourhood. Rather than being independent influences then, it seems that any deterioration in the socio-economic situation of the neighbourhood combines with and reinforces the internalized socio-economic inequality of the school, and this disproportionately lowers the chances of a student in that neighbourhood completing their secondary education.

A study carried out in São Paulo indicates that the effects of a neighbourhood's social make-up on educational outcomes can be transmitted indirectly to children through the quality of their teachers (Torres et al., 2007). Under the system used to regulate the placement of teachers in state and municipal schools, teachers who score the lowest in competitive application processes and those who are new entrants in the education system are assigned to the schools in outlying areas. The more experienced and qualified teachers, on the other hand, can choose to work in the schools that offer the best conditions in terms of the location, organization and infrastructure of the school, the security of the surrounding area, and the composition of the student body. The rotation and absenteeism of teachers in poor areas is therefore extremely high, especially in the *favelas* (shanty towns), and this makes it difficult to implement permanent measures to improve education in these parts of the city. The incentive schemes set up to reverse this situation are having little success in persuading the more qualified teachers to alter their preferences. A series of in-depth interviews conducted as part of the study with teachers working in different types of neighbourhoods revealed that they consider the marginal areas of the city to be highly dangerous and have very low expectations of what children from those areas can achieve at school.

Another study carried out in Montevideo used linear hierarchical models to determine the effects of the neighbourhood on the academic test scores of children in their sixth year of primary education (Katzman and Retamoso, 2007). The study showed that the impact of one unit of improvement in the socio-economic level of the neighbourhood was greater than the impact of a similar improvement in the socio-economic level of the school or the family, and that this applied even when other characteristics of schools and children were taken into consideration. Another finding was that, using the same control variables, the influence of the neighbourhood on

[22] For each standard deviation from the socio-economic index of the neighbourhood, the probability of dropping out of school after the first basic cycle of secondary school (ninth grade) increases 58%. For further details, see Solís (2007).

the academic scores/socio-economic level ratio was even more pronounced in neighbourhoods in which people had high-status jobs. It was also shown, again using the same control variables, that the greater the geographical extension of neighbourhoods with little educational capital around the residence of a given child, the less influence an improvement in the family's socio-economic level will have on the child's academic test scores.

In short, although much still remains to be discussed, the results of the aforementioned studies support the notion that, in large cities, the social composition of the area in which a child or adolescent lives can significantly affect how well they do at school.

3. The institutional alienation of adolescents

The preceding two sections examined how the social composition of the neighbourhood in which people live affects their education and their employment prospects. This section looks briefly at how the place of residence shapes the ties that adolescents establish with the social institutions of work and education, given the vital role these play in determining their future standard of living. The notion of "institutional alienation" or "disaffiliation" refers to a total weakening of those ties, i.e. to adolescents who neither work nor study. The labour market and the education system are the two most important means by which young people can be integrated into society. Alienation from both increases the likelihood of them ending up living in poverty on the edges of society.

A report by the Ministry of Labour, Employment and Social Security of Argentina identified a hard core of 320,000 young people who did not work, look for work or study, and who had become social outcasts that were "especially prone to situations of anomie and social risk, often linked with the pursuit of illegal or extra-legal forms of subsistence" (Bermúdez, 2005). A study of three Brazilian cities revealed that institutional disaffiliation among Brazilian teenagers and youth was largely concentrated in the poorest areas of town (Queiroz Ribeiro, 2004).

Although the data presented in table I.9 clearly shows that social alienation among adolescents and young people is far more prevalent in the underprivileged neighbourhoods of Brazil's large cities, it is impossible to isolate the hypothetical impact of the social make-up of the neighbourhood from the influence of family characteristics. Table I.10, however, shows data for Montevideo which, in addition to the social composition of the neighbourhood, controls the educational background of the households in which unemancipated adolescents live. This control variable was chosen as one of the most efficient indicators of institutional alienation among young people (ECLAC, 1994; MEMFOD, 2002). Figure I.13 classifies and orders all the neighbourhoods of Montevideo according to the percentage of high-status, high-income jobs held and the percentage of young males aged 15 to 24 that do not study, work or look for work and are living in households in which the adults on average have no more than nine years of schooling.

Table I.9
BRAZIL (THREE CITIES): PERCENTAGE OF THE POPULATION AGED 15 TO 24 THAT DOES NOT STUDY, WORK OR SEEK WORK, BY SOCIAL COMPOSITION OF THE AREA OF RESIDENCE, 2004

City	Social composition of the residential area			
	Low	Middle	High	Total
Río de Janeiro	55	36	9	100%
São Paulo	63	30	7	100%
Belo Horizonte	73	21	6	100%

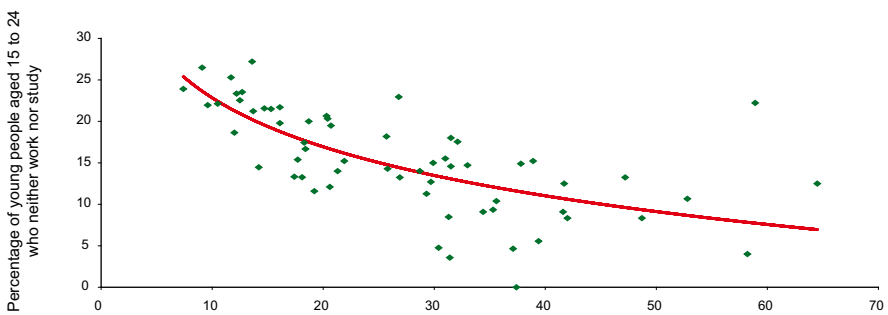
Source: L.C. Queiroz Ribeiro, "Segregación residencial y segmentación social: el efecto vecindario en las metrópolis brasileñas", *Trabajo y producción de la pobreza en Latinoamérica y el Caribe. Estructuras, discursos y actores*, S. Leguizamón (comp.), Buenos Aires, Clacso Libros, 2004.
Note: The classification of the residential areas by social composition was based on the level of education of the population aged 16 and over and on the individual income level of all persons aged 14 and over.

Table I.10
URUGUAY (MONTEVIDEO): PERCENTAGE OF UNEMANCIPATED BOYS AGED 15 TO 19 WHO DO NOT STUDY, WORK OR SEEK WORK, BY EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT OF THE SEGMENT AND THE EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND OF THE HOME, 1996

Educational background of the home (in years of schooling)	Educational context of the segment			
	Low	Middle	High	Total
Up to 6 years	28.2	24.9	19.1	26.3
Over 6 to 9 years	26.2	23.3	16.1	23.1
Over 9 years	21.9	18.1	12.5	15.5
Total	26.8	22.0	13.8	21.4

Source: Rubén Kaztman, "El vecindario también importa", *Activos y estructura de oportunidades: estudio sobre las raíces de la vulnerabilidad social* (LC/MVD/R.180/E), R. Kaztman (coord.), Montevideo, ECLAC office in Montevideo, 1999.

Figure I.13
URUGUAY (MONTEVIDEO): NEIGHBOURHOODS ORDERED BY THE PERCENTAGE OF HIGH-STATUS JOBS AND MALES AGED 15 TO 24 YEARS WHO DO NOT STUDY OR WORK AND LIVE IN HOUSEHOLDS IN WHICH THE ADULTS HAVE LESS THAN NINE YEARS OF SCHOOLING, 1996
(Percentages)



Source: Rubén Kaztman, "El vecindario también importa", *Activos y estructura de oportunidades: estudio sobre las raíces de la vulnerabilidad social* (LC/MVD/R.180/E), R. Kaztman (coord.), Montevideo, ECLAC office in Montevideo, 1999.
Note: Business-owners, managers, executives, administrators, scientists, artists, intellectuals and professionals fall into the high-status job category. Unemancipated 15 to 24 years olds who do not study, work or seek work are included in the numerator of the indicator for institutional alienation. The curve was adjusted using the LOWESS smooth procedure, which operates with weighted moving averages without supposing a specific functional relationship for the purpose of the adjustment.

The results presented in table I.10 and figure I.13 reveal a negative relationship between the average socio-economic level of the neighbourhood in which young people reside and their degree of institutional alienation, regardless of the educational level of their parents.[23] As far as the validity of this finding is concerned, the age of the subjects under study (especially in table I.10) allows one to suppose that the vast majority were born and grew up in the neighbourhood in which they were living and that it was not their decision to do so. Studies of the effects of the social composition of the neighbourhood on adolescents are less likely to be contaminated by the bias of choice.[24] Therefore, when a significant relationship between the effects of the social composition of the neighbourhood and behaviour is detected in the case of adolescents, it is less risky to attribute causality to the neighbourhood context than in the case of adults.

[23] It is possible that the same unobserved family variables that influence where the parents live could affect the institutional alienation of adolescents though the socialization that takes place at the family level. In this case, the relationship between the neighbourhood and teenage behaviour is spurious as it is intermediated by the family. Given that the parents' level of education is known to influence the institutional alienation of children, this would seem to be a valid conclusion. Some data from table I.10, however, contradict this idea because in some cases, the effects of the neighbourhood seem to have a greater influence than the educational level of the family. The rate of institutional alienation among adolescents from households with high educational levels that live in neighbourhoods with a low socio-educational ranking (21.9%), for example, is higher than among those with the opposite circumstances, i.e., a household with a low educational level in a neighbourhood with a high socio-educational ranking (19.1%).

[24] This refers to the possibility that the determinants of the variations in the behaviour under study could be attributed to the concentration in one part of town of people that share unobserved individual attributes related to their decision to make their home in that area.

4. The reproductive behaviour of adolescents

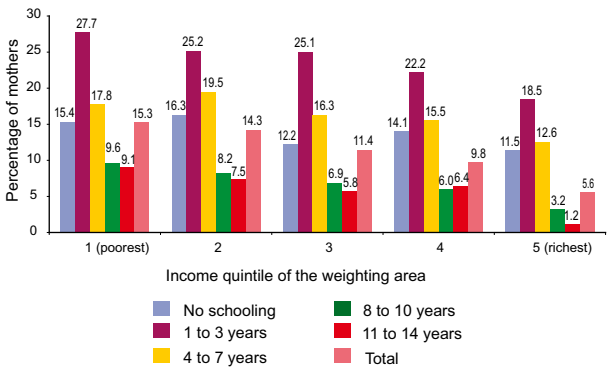
Early motherhood tends to be seen as a phenomenon that makes it difficult to reduce social inequalities and break the cycle of poverty because it has such a direct impact on the future welfare of women and children. The risk of early motherhood is particularly high among the poorest strata of society: girls from poor neighbourhoods in Latin America are five times more likely to be mothers than their counterparts among the upper classes (ECLAC, 2005a).

Early motherhood constitutes a risk for several reasons. First, it prevents girls from finishing their education. Although most girls who drop out do so before they get pregnant, motherhood reduces the probabilities that they will return to school at any point in the future. Second, without education, teenage mothers are at a disadvantage when it comes to entering the labour market, and, as reported in a previous issue of *Social Panorama of Latin America*, the vast majority end up in domestic work (see figure II.11, ECLAC, 2005a). Third, a growing proportion of children born to teenage mothers are born outside of wedlock. This raises the likelihood, given that she is not in a stable relationship with the father, that the mother has to raise the child on her own. Children born in these circumstances grow up without the material or emotional support of their father and without the social capital that their father could pass on to them through his family and his other connections.

By removing them from the education system and the labour market, early motherhood prevents young women with little schooling from accumulating assets during a vital stage for the incorporation of human and social capital and drastically lowers any expectations of upward social mobility that they may have harboured. Early motherhood thus seems to keep low-income women firmly rooted in poverty (Buvinic, 1998).

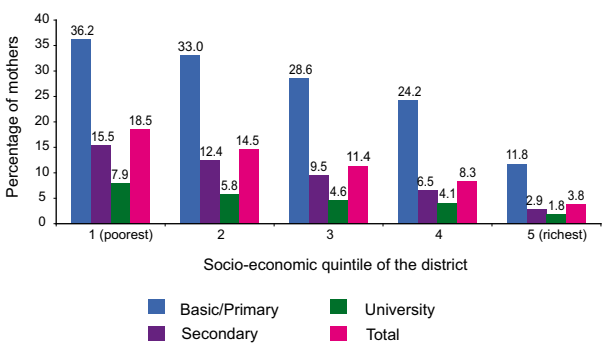
Some research into the impact of the neighbourhood on the teenage pregnancy rate in the cities of Rio de Janeiro, Santiago and Montevideo indicates that as far as early motherhood is concerned, the social composition of the place of residence is a significant factor. All three studies, acknowledging education as an important indicator of type of behaviour, use the last year of schooling completed by the girls under study as the control variable for analysing the relationship between the neighbourhood and early motherhood. The studies use different criteria for classifying neighbourhoods, however: in Rio de Janeiro, income quintiles of the sample weighting area; in Santiago, the socio-economic quintile of the census district (Rodríguez, 2006) and in Montevideo, the percentage of high-status jobs held in each neighbourhood are used (Kaztman, 1999).

Figure I.14
BRAZIL (RIO DE JANEIRO): PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN AGED 15 TO 18 YEARS WHO ARE MOTHERS, BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION AND INCOME QUINTILE OF THE WEIGHTING AREA IN WHICH THEY LIVE, 2000



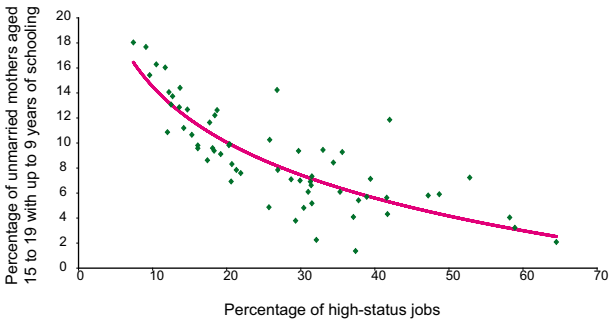
Source: Jorge Rodríguez, "Segregación residencial socioeconómica (SRS) y sus relaciones con la migración intrametropolitana en cuatro aglomerados urbanos de América Latina. Los casos de Ciudad de México, Santiago de Chile, São Paulo y Río de Janeiro en los decenios de 1980 y 1990", paper presented at the second congress of the Latin American Population Association (ALAP), Guadalajara, 3 to 5 September 2006.

Figure I.15
CHILE (SANTIAGO): PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN AGED 15 TO 19 YEARS WHO ARE MOTHERS, BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION AND INCOME QUINTILE OF THE CENSUS DISTRICT IN WHICH THEY LIVE, 2002



Source: Jorge Rodríguez, "Segregación residencial socioeconómica (SRS) y sus relaciones con la migración intrametropolitana en cuatro aglomerados urbanos de América Latina. Los casos de Ciudad de México, Santiago de Chile, São Paulo y Río de Janeiro en los decenios de 1980 y 1990", paper presented at the second congress of the Latin American Population Association (ALAP), Guadalajara, 3 to5 September 2006.

Figure I.16
URUGUAY (MONTEVIDEO): NEIGHBOURHOODS ORDERED BY PERCENTAGE OF UNMARRIED MOTHERS AGED 15 TO 19 YEARS, WITH UP TO NINE YEARS OF SCHOOLING, AND PERCENTAGE OF HIGH-STATUS JOBS, 1996



Source: Rubén Kaztman, "El vecindario también importa", *Activos y estructura de oportunidades: estudio sobre las raíces de la vulnerabilidad social* (LC/MVD/R.180/E), R. Kaztman (coord.), Montevideo, ECLAC office in Montevideo, 1999.
Note: Business-owners, managers, executives, administrators, scientists, artists, intellectuals and professionals fall into the high-status job category. Unemancipated 15 to 24 years olds who do not study, work or seek work are included in the numerator of the indicator for institutional alienation.
The curve was adjusted using the LOWESS smooth procedure, which operates with weighted moving averages without supposing a specific functional relationship for the purpose of the adjustment.

Even though the mechanisms whereby the socio-economic make-up of the place of residence affects the reproductive behaviour of adolescents have not been identified, the evidence produced by the studies conducted in these three cities confirms the significant influence of the neighbourhood's social composition. In Santiago, the probability of a teenage girl who has not completed her basic education being a mother is 37% if she lives in an area that falls into the lowest socio-economic quintile of the city, and only 12% if she lives in an area in the highest quintile (Rodríguez, 2006). In Rio de Janeiro, the proportion of teenage mothers with one to three years of schooling ranges from 28% in the weighting areas of the first income quintile to 18% in the highest income quintile. In Montevideo, the maternity rate is about 18% for teenagers with less than nine years of schooling who live in the neighbourhoods with the lowest proportion of high-status jobs, and only 4% for teenagers from the neighbourhoods with the highest proportion of such jobs.

The findings are by no means conclusive. In addition to education, other household and individual characteristics would have to be controlled for the premise that the place of residence has a decisive influence on the reproductive behaviour of adolescents to be accepted. In the absence of more precise evidence, however, it would seem advisable for those responsible for formulating strategies and policies to reduce poverty and stop poverty being reproduced from one generation to the next to pay close attention to the results of research into the influence of the neighbourhood on teenage pregnancy rates.

5. Conclusions

Given the multiple factors that would need to be controlled, testing the hypothesis that there is a cause-effect relationship between the specific features of poor neighbourhoods and certain behaviour patterns of their residents would be a complex and expensive task. Progress in the research into this topic in the region is therefore likely to be slow and, in the short term at least, it will be impossible to make any conclusive statements about causalities. In the face of such obvious limitations evidence-wise, researchers are forced to formulate hypotheses that are sufficiently sensible and suggestive to persuade colleagues to further their lines of investigation. How well they achieve this depends, to some extent, on the data, despite its weaknesses, lending some credibility to the hypotheses in question and, more importantly, on the researcher's ability to make sense of the data. This means the researcher needs to be able to create an embryonic conceptual framework for the data that orders the different pieces into an intelligible and interesting picture.

The basic idea underlying the summary presented in the previous section is that the social fabric of the urban neighbourhoods in which most people with only tenuous ties to the labour market live is sifting and shifting the opportunities for social improvement that cities usually afford their inhabitants. Neighbourhoods thus become ecological contexts that hamper people's access to the most important sources of physical, social and human assets that the market, the state and the community can offer. The term "the geography of opportunity" coined by Galster and Killen (1995) neatly describes the mediating role that the social composition of neighbourhoods plays in the geographical distribution of sources of assets in large cities.

For the vast majority, work is the main route to amassing physical and financial capital. The findings of some of the studies discussed in this chapter reveal the limitations imposed by the geography of employment opportunities on the people who live in outlying neighbourhoods that have high proportions of unskilled workers. It is not just the distance from their places of employment and their exclusion from the main social and cultural circles of the city that erode people's ties with the labour market. Having a large concentration of constantly frustrated people living in the same area, without the resources they need to satisfy their material aspirations has an aggregated effect that enhances the stigmatized image that the people of the neighbourhood identify themselves with. It also generates mistrust, undermines security, and lowers the tone of social interaction in the community.

Another set of studies revealed a significant link between the homogeneity of the social make-up of poor neighbourhoods and the possibilities of accumulating human capital, which is reflected in the poor academic performance of children and adolescents from those neighbourhoods. This is due to the inability of parents and neighbours to play a complementary role to that of the school and to the numerous difficulties that schools in poor neighbourhoods have in performing their fundamental role as a force for social integration that stops social factors affecting educational achievement. The large cities of Latin America no longer seem to provide the conditions that at one point in time fostered the harmonious interaction of school, home and neighbourhood and enabled children from poor households to accumulate the necessary human capital to escape the clutches of intergenerational poverty.

One basic feature of social capital is that people can obtain useful resources through their participation in the social network. Social capital in poor urban neighbourhoods today, however, is fragile at best, largely due to the lack or instability of such resources. The neighbourhood as a source of social capital is gone, as are the days of the working-class neighbourhoods where life revolved around the factories and working-class values rooted in the shared experience of steady work were bolstered by the daily interaction with the neighbours. Gone too are the illusions held by some urban reformers that social housing projects, land occupation movements and such could recreate the solidarity eroded by the crisis in the labour market.

In the large cities of the United States and Europe, a sweeping range of housing and urban planning policies has been implemented with a view to promoting social integration and reducing the geographical segregation of the homes of the more vulnerable members of the population. The same process, but on a far smaller scale is underway in some parts of Latin America (Brain, Cubillos and Sabatini, 2007). The policies vary considerably in kind and are too many to describe here. They all aim, however, to reduce the physical distances and social differences between the poor and the non-poor. Changes in the location of social housing, transportation and rental subsidies, the extension of soft loans to low-income families so that they can purchase homes in the formally constituted areas of the city, and improvements in the flow of information from where the jobs opportunities for unskilled workers are to where those workers live are some of the types of direct action that can shorten commutes between places of residence and employment or rectify their negative effects.

The creation of crossed housing subsidies, the setting aside of some land in each district in the city for social housing, the promotion of the "social mixing" of the student population in schools, and the upgrading of public services and areas are also measures that, deliberately or not, have the positive side effect of reducing social distances. The idea is to generate, and in some cases recreate, environments that foster the "natural" development of friendly and convivial relations between the classes.

E. Poverty, exclusion and social cohesion: psycho-social divides

An analysis of poverty and inequity should not be confined to the study of their material components. Numerous psycho-social divides currently separate the economically vulnerable from the economically comfortable population and are threatening social cohesion in the region. In order to reduce poverty and foster social integration, efforts to improve the material conditions of the poor need to be complemented with comprehensive policies in order to raise the confidence of the most vulnerable sectors in institutions and encourage them to feel more included and participate more actively in decisions that affect their circumstances and thus meet their expectations of increased well-being.

Greater interest has been shown in the non-material aspects of poverty and inequity in the region in recent years. This interest largely stems from the new dynamics generated by Latin America's insertion in the global economy, a process which has created new modes of exclusion that are threatening social cohesion in the region. The widening social, economic and cultural divides, a waning confidence in State institutions, an increasingly tenuous sense of belonging and a lack of interest in public affairs is thought to be generating conditions that will exclude the poor even more than in the past (ECLAC, 2007). Faced with fading solidarity, weaker community ties, the exhaustion of the survival mechanisms traditionally used by the poor to overcome hardship, and minimal levels of citizen participation and faith in State institutions, the more vulnerable members of the population now find themselves with less resources and in a worse situation for handling crises than before, which could perpetuate the intergenerational transmission of poverty in the region (ECLAC, 2007; Narayan et al., 2000).

Despite the importance now awarded to the non-material aspects of poverty and inequity in the rhetoric underpinning social policy in the region, no quantitative studies have been conducted in Latin America at the regional level to identify the main psycho-social divides among the various socio-economic strata in terms of the quality of social relations, participation and confidence in institutions, and expectations of social mobility (Kaztman, 2007), which are crucial for the design of any social inclusion or cohesion policies that aim to address more than the material aspects of development.[25] This section therefore examines some of these psycho-social divides by analyzing the perceptions and behaviour of people from different socio-economic strata in 18 Latin American countries with regard to the following: (i) inter-generational social mobility; (ii) confidence in State institutions and citizen participation and (iii) perceptions of discrimination.[26]

[25] The available evidence on the psycho-social aspects of poverty and inequity consists only of qualitative data. Some of the first ethnographies include the studies performed by Oscar Lewis in the 1960s which led to the coining of the term the "culture of poverty". More recent research includes *Voices of the poor: can anyone hear us?* (Narayan et al., 2000), a study that covered Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Ecuador and Jamaica.

[26] It is important to highlight the exploratory nature of this exercise. No attempt is made to the identify characteristics of the countries (or groups of countries) that could determine different types of rips in the social fabric nor to dismiss the theories that have attempted to explain the perpetuation of poverty as the result of a subculture or the product of adaptation to unfavourable situations (Rankin and Quane, 2000).

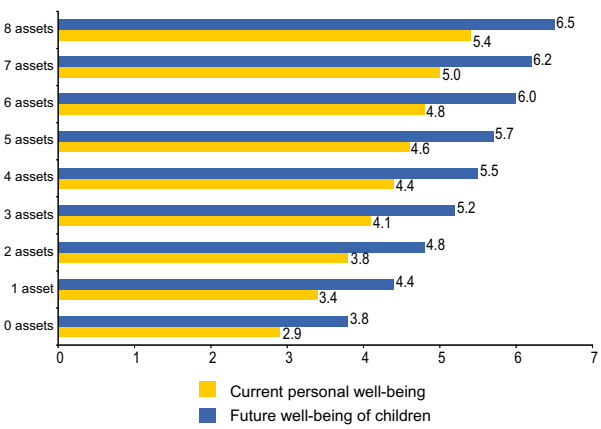
1. Expectations of inter-generational social mobility

Expectations of social mobility are the driving force of any society founded on the principles of meritocracy and equal opportunity. These expectations explain people's motivation as they rest on the belief that by personal effort, people can climb the social ladder and improve their standard of living. In societies in which access to resources is severely limited, however, it is highly unlikely that the poor will have much faith in the principle of meritocracy. This poses a threat to social cohesion. Limitations of this kind tend to increase the gap between expectations and aspirations and can turn into sources of frustration or trigger aggressive reactions that erode social integration (ECLAC, 2007). Repeatedly failing to move up the social ladder and constantly facing a series of disadvantages can create the sensation among poor people that there are no opportunities open to them and no possibilities whatsoever of inter-generational mobility.

Studies on the subject indicate that low expectations of the future are core manifestations of exclusion and extreme poverty. When unemployed for long stretches, people end up feeling powerless to take on forces beyond their control. This logic can be equally applied to those working in the informal economy, where holding a stream of unsteady and poorly paid jobs leads to a similar sense of hopelessness (Atkinson, 1998). Some researchers claim that poverty is reproduced through the transfer of beliefs and attitudes and that despair is one of the most important aspects of living for prolonged periods in marginal conditions (Lewis, 1969). Others maintain that low expectations of mobility and other manifestations of the disintegration of the social fabric are largely attributable to the concentration of poverty in urban areas and the social isolation of those living in them, both of which are mechanisms that perpetuate inequality and hardship.[27]

One way to analyse the gaps in expectations of inter-generational mobility is to examine how different socio-economic groups perceive their current level of well-being and the level of well-being they expect their children to attain. The data for 18 countries in the region show that perceptions of current well-being and expectations of their children's future vary systematically according to the socio-economic situation of the household in question and that people with the most access to goods and services have higher expectations regarding their children's future than people from poorer households. Nevertheless, it should be pointed out that at all socio-economic levels, children are expected to enjoy a better standard of living in the future than their parents do at present. Even people from low-income households believe that their children's situation will be better than their own. They still expect their children to be worse off than average (3.8 on a scale of 1 to 10), however, which implies that the poor believe their children will fare better but still have a below-average standard of living (see figure I.17).

Figure I.17
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): CURRENT PERSONAL WELL-BEING, FUTURE WELL-BEING OF CHILDREN AND AVAILABILITY OF BASIC GOODS AND SERVICES IN THE HOME, 2006
(Values expressed as averages on the basis of a self-evaluation scale of 1-10, where 1 = poorest persons and 10 = richest persons)

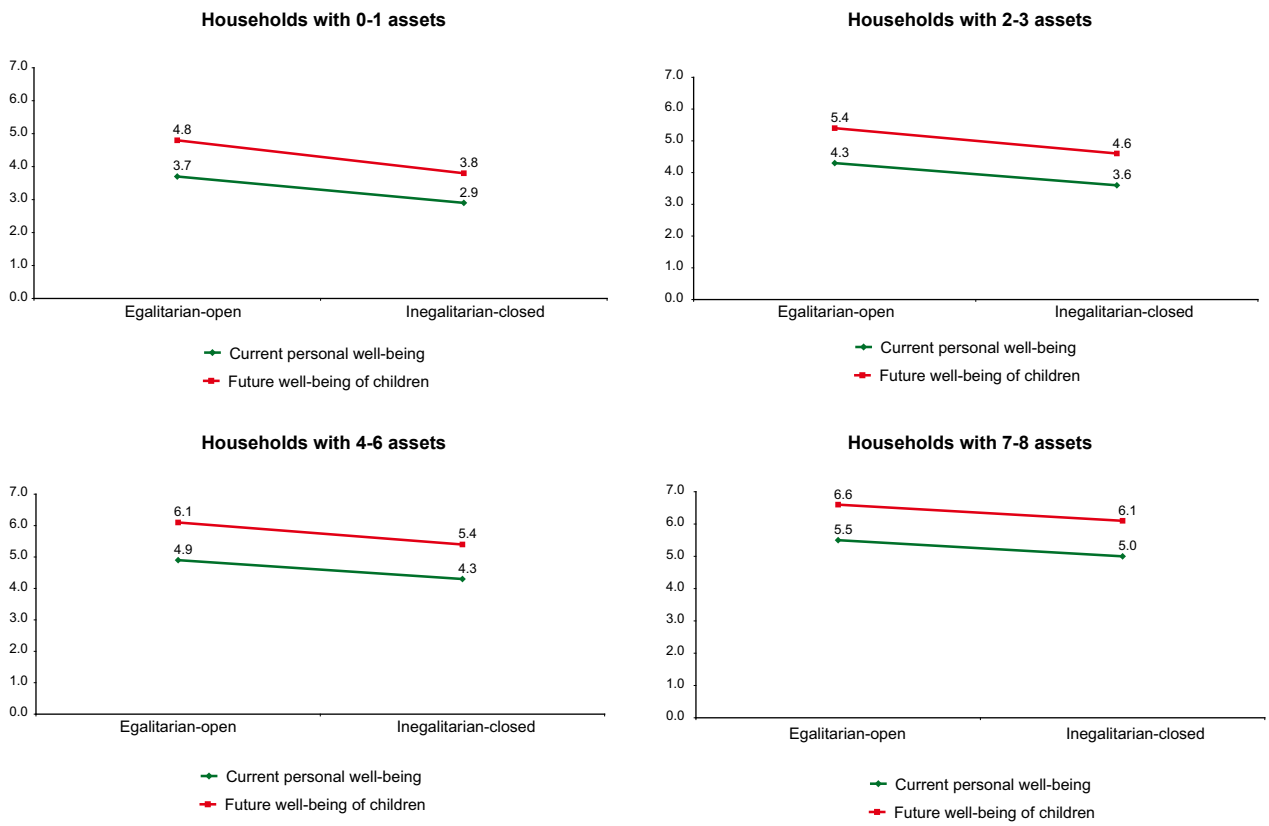


Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of the Latinobarómetro 2006 survey.
Note: Current personal well-being and expectations regarding the future well-being of the respondents' children are measured on the basis of a self-evaluation scale. Respondents were asked to rate their current personal well-being and the future level of well-being that they believe their children will have.
The indicator of household ownership of durable goods and basic services includes the possession of: (1) refrigerator; (2) washing machine; (3) fixed-line telephone; (4) computer; (5) piped-in hot water; (6) automobile; (7) sewerage system and (8) cellular telephone.

[27] For further details, see the previous section of this chapter.

Figure I.18 compares perceptions of current personal well-being and the future well-being of one's children among people from different socio-economic strata, but controls the perception of the social structure.[28] The data reveal the influence of the perception of social structure on expectations of mobility. Regardless of the level of household well-being, people who believe that the social structure is open or egalitarian have greater expectations for their children than those who feel that it is closed or inegalitarian. All people, however, even those who have few resources and think the social structure is closed and inegalitarian, expect their children to be better off than they are. This phenomenon might be explained by factors related to the upward turn in the economic cycle, but the absence of data on expectations during periods of economic recession make it impossible to prove this hypothesis.[29] It is also possible that expectations vary for reasons that having nothing to do with the socio-economic structure.[30]

Figure I.18
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): CURRENT PERSONAL WELL-BEING, FUTURE WELL-BEING OF CHILDREN AND PERCEPTIONS OF THE SOCIAL STRUCTURE, 2006
(Values expressed as averages on the basis of a self-evaluation scale of 1-10, where 1 = poorest persons and 10 = richest persons)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of the Latinobarómetro 2006 survey.
Note: Current personal well-being and expectations regarding the future well-being of the respondents' children are measured on the basis of a self-evaluation scale. Respondents were asked to rate their current personal well-being and the future level of well-being that they believe their children will have.
The indicator of household ownership of durable goods and basic services includes the possession of: (1) refrigerator; (2) washing machine; (3) fixed-line telephone; (4) computer; (5) piped-in hot water; (6) automobile; (7) sewerage system and (8) cellular telephone.

28 For more details on this indicator, see box I.7.

29 In all the countries analysed, the average variation of per capita GDP in 2004-2006 was positive. For more details, see Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) "CEPALSTAT" [online database] http://websie.eclac.cl/sisgen/ConsultaIntegrada.asp..

30 In terms of basic motivation, people may "need" to believe that their children will be better off than they are. This reflects an emotional response rather than a rational formation of expectations of inter-generational mobility based on the evaluation of existing opportunities and the ability to take advantage of them.

Box I.7
THE LATINOBARÓMETRO STUDY

The Latinobarómetro study is conducted annually in 18 countries of Latin America by Corporación Latinobarómetro on the basis of a survey of the opinions, attitudes, behaviour and values of the population in Latin America aged 18 and over towards democracy, political and social institutions, civic participation, public policies, poverty, economic issues, international relations, the media, the environment, gender issues and discrimination. The study focuses on a main theme each year, but the repetition of identical questions in each survey allow opinions on a range of subjects to be traced since 1995.

In 2006, in 16 countries, the survey was conducted in three stages, using probabilistic samples in the first two stages and a quota sample in the last. In Argentina and Chile, probabilistic samples were used in all three stages. Approximately 1,200 people were interviewed in each national sample, and the margins of error were about 3% even though they were only interpretable in the countries in which probabilistic samples were used in all three stages. It should be pointed out that in a few countries, some rural and densely populated urban areas were underrepresented.

Any interpretation of opinion survey data should take into account that the results will be extremely sensitive to the particular situation in the country at the time the survey is taken. Only those indicators that met at least a basic criterion for validity and reliability, were included in this analysis, however. These were as follows:

- *Confidence in State institutions and political parties*. Likert scale, in which individual scores are estimated as a sum of the responses to questions about confidence in: (i) the judiciary, (ii) the president, (iii) political parties, (iv) the police, (v) parliament, (vi) the government and (vii) the electoral tribunal. Each institution was rated on a scale of 1 to 4, where 1 = no confidence and 4 = total confidence. The items of the scale are included in one main component that explains 53% of the variance. The questions that correlate most with that component refer to confidence in the president, the congress and the government, in that order. The scale has an Alpha coefficient of 0.85, which indicates good internal consistency.
- *Indicator of political activity*. Simple sum, in which individual scores are estimated on the basis of total responses to questions about how often the interviewees: (i) talk about politics, (ii) try to convince someone about what they think, (iii) work for a political party or candidate, (iv) sign petitions and (v) participate in demonstrations. The Alpha coefficient of the index is 0.76, which indicates an acceptable level of internal consistency.
- *Indicator of how the social structure is perceived*. Ratio between the people aged 18 and over who believe that the social structure is open and egalitarian and the total population of the same age group, multiplied by 100. The index is constructed on the basis of a simple sum in which people are classified into groups that consider the social structure to be either: (i) open and egalitarian, (ii) ambivalent or (iii) closed and inegalitarian. The classification was made on the basis of whether people agreed or disagreed with the following statements: (i) someone who is born poor and works hard can become rich and (ii) everyone has an equal opportunity to escape poverty. This indicator is a more reliable measurement of people's perceptions of the social structure than the use of separate questions because it also identifies those with ambivalent attitudes.

-*Sense of belonging to a social group that is discriminated against*. Ratio between the number of people aged 18 and over that claim to belong to a group that is for some reason discriminated against and the total population of the same age group, multiplied by 100.

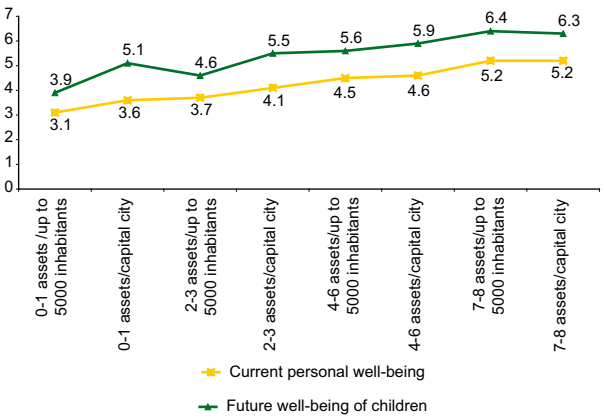
- *Causes of discrimination*. This indicator is based on the interviewees' selection of one type of social discrimination from among several. If an individual feels that he or she is the subject of more than one type of discrimination, the predominant type is selected.

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC)/EUROsociAL, Un sistema de indicadores para el seguimiento de la cohesión social en América Latina y el Caribe, Santiago, Chile, 2007, in press.

The biggest "jump" in expectations of inter-generational mobility is found among the poorest sectors of the countries' capital cities, whereas people from the most vulnerable sectors in rural or sparsely populated urban areas expect the least improvement for their children relative to their current situation. Among this group, expectations are never above half way up the scale. In the poor communities living in capital cities, however, people think their children will enjoy a level of well-being equal to the average for the whole population (see figure I.19). Beyond the fact that these differences obviously respond to the historic pattern of expectations associated with moving from the country to the city, on the whole, people in the cities do not live up to the picture of hopelessness painted by the

ethnographies, which now seems to be more applicable to people in rural areas.[31] These high expectations pose enormous challenges to policymakers in the more heavily populated urban areas, especially as regards the creation of sufficient opportunities for education, employment and social inclusion.

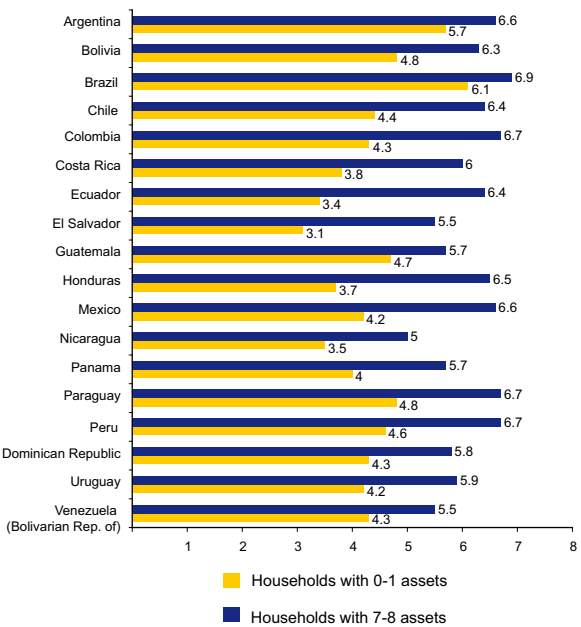
Figure I.19
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): CURRENT PERSONAL WELL-BEING, FUTURE WELL-BEING OF CHILDREN, BY AREA OF RESIDENCE AND ASSETS IN THE HOME, 2006
(Values expressed as averages on the basis of a self-evaluation scale of 1-10, where 1 = poorest persons and 10 = richest persons)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of the Latinobarómetro 2006 survey.
Note: The analysis included data on the capital cities of 17 countries. No data were available for San José de Costa Rica.
In most countries, with the exception of Brazil, the capital city is the most heavily populated urban area.
Settlements with fewer than 5,000 inhabitants were considered to be approximations of rural residential areas because no data was available for settlements with 2,000 inhabitants or less.

The trends observed for the region as a whole are also apparent in each country (see figure I.20). In all countries, people with a comfortable economic situation have higher expectations regarding the future well-being of their children, and people in a more vulnerable socio-economic position have lower expectations. The largest differences were detected in Costa Rica, Colombia, Ecuador, El Salvador, Honduras and Mexico, and the smallest in Argentina, Brazil and Guatemala. At first glance, it would seem that there is no relationship between the gap in expectations of mobility and the objective poverty and inequality indicators. One of the problems of examining the effects of the asymmetry in income distribution on expectations of mobility in the region is that the level of inequality is very high in nearly all the countries.

Figure I.20
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): FUTURE WELL-BEING OF CHILDREN AND AVAILABILITY OF BASIC GOODS AND SERVICES IN THE HOME, 2006
(Values expressed as averages on the basis of a self-evaluation scale of 1-10, where 1 = poorest persons and 10 = richest persons)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of the Latinobarómetro 2006 survey.
Note: Current personal well-being and expectations regarding the future well-being of the respondents' children are measured on the basis of a self-evaluation scale. Respondents were asked to rate their current personal well-being and the future level of well-being that they believe their children will have.
The indicator of household ownership of durable goods and basic services includes the possession of: (1) refrigerator; (2) washing machine; (3) fixed-line telephone; (4) computer; (5) piped-in hot water; (6) automobile; (7) sewerage system and (8) cellular telephone.

[31] The lack of comparable measurements of residential socio-economic segregation in most countries in the region makes it difficult to prove empirically the hypotheses about the effects of the isolation of the poor on their expectations of social mobility. The evidence of the influence of residential socio-economic segregation on employment opportunities, education, reproductive behaviour and the institutional alienation of adolescents was analyzed in the preceding section.

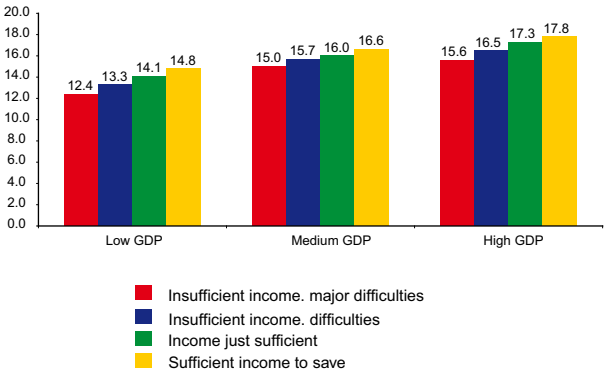
2. Confidence in state institutions and participation in politics

There has been renewed interest in the "confidence gaps" that threaten to undermine the legitimacy of institutions (Paxton, 1999) and hamper social inclusion and cohesion. Confidence is a fundamental component of social capital and has been defined as the expectations people have of other people, institutions and the social order (Paxton, 2002). Confidence in public institutions is essential for social cohesion: a socially efficient and transparent State can generate confidence among its citizens by building bridges between different social groups, creating opportunities for social mobility and developing forums for participation. A lack of confidence in State institutions, on the other hand, weakens the political support for inclusion initiatives (ECLAC, 2007) and, in the case of institutional collapses, can worsen pre-existing asymmetries and create the conditions in which delinquency and corruption thrive.

In Latin America, the shrinking of the State, the privatization of public services, the incidences of government corruption and the continuously high levels of poverty and inequity, among other phenomena, have gradually eroded citizens' confidence in State institutions. Some qualitative studies performed in a few countries in the region have shown that, as far as the poor are concerned, public institutions are in crisis. Even in cases when they work well, State institutions are often seen as inefficient and inaccessible by the more vulnerable members of the population. People point to the cases of corruption and display a deep mistrust of public institutions, often referring to them in tones of despair (Narayan et al., 2000).

Figure I.21 shows how the level of confidence in State institutions varies according to a person's economic situation and per capita GDP in Latin American countries. Confidence is greater among those from wealthier households and those living in countries with a higher per capita GDP, and lower among those living below the poverty line and in countries with a lower per capita GDP. The level of confidence in public institutions among people from the poorest countries, regardless of their personal economic situation, is always lower than among people from countries with an average or high per capita GDP. This implies that the amount of resources available in a country affects the solidity of its institutions, which in turn affects the confidence that citizens place in the State institutions of that country.

Figure I.21
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): CONFIDENCE IN STATE INSTITUTIONS, SUFFICIENCY OF HOUSEHOLD INCOME AND PER CAPITA GDP OF THE COUNTRY, 2006
(Values expressed as averages, in which a higher score denotes greater confidence)



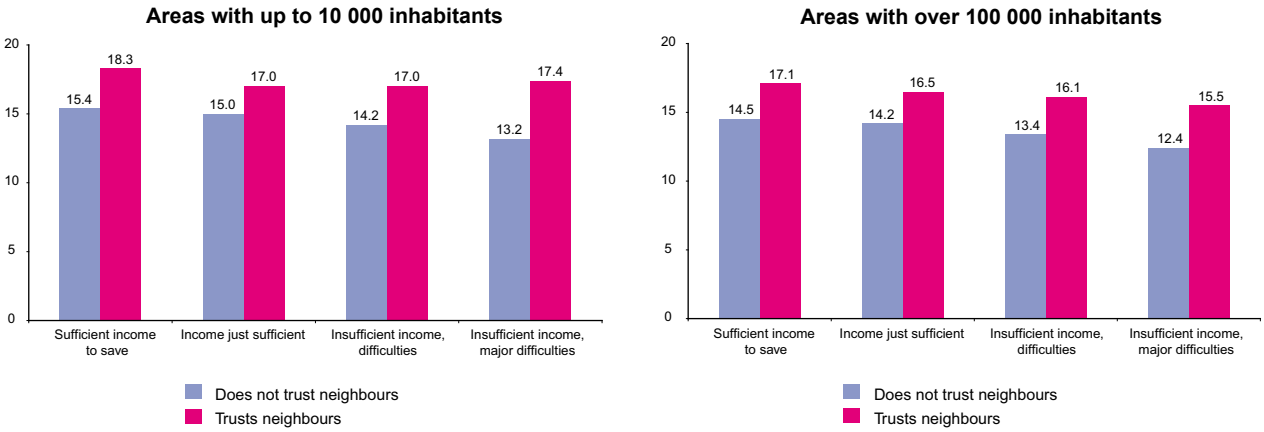
Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of the Latinobarómetro 2006 survey.
Note: The households were classified according to a self-assessment of how sufficient income was to cover basic needs.
The countries were classified according to per capita GDP as follows: high GDP countries = Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Costa Rica, Chile, Mexico and Uruguay; medium GDP countries = Brazil, Colombia, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama and Peru; low GDP countries = Bolivia, Ecuador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and Paraguay.

People from the poorer households in densely populated urban areas who have little confidence in their neighbours also display the least confidence in State institutions (see figure I.22). It seems that a segment of the more vulnerable urban population suffers from a syndrome of mistrust that takes the form of low expectations regarding public institutions and a lack of confidence in social relations with people outside the family circle.[32] These people tend to hold markedly individualistic values, according to which, efforts to improve one's situation are based on personal initiative and achievement, not on participation in collective organizations and social movements.[33] This not only poses a problem for conflict management in poor urban neighbourhoods, it threatens to limit the poorest sectors' access to social forms of support and may stop them from organizing their communities and from bringing their needs and demands to the attention of public institutions.

32 "Syndrome" is understood to be a set of attitudes that are related to one another.

33 As far as expectations of social mobility are concerned, there is no difference between the urban poor that have no confidence in institutions and the urban poor that do.

Figure I.22
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): CONFIDENCE IN STATE INSTITUTIONS BY INCOME SUFFICIENCY OF THE HOUSEHOLD, CONFIDENCE IN THE NEIGHBOURHOOD AND AREA OF RESIDENCE, 2006
(Values expressed as averages, in which a higher score denotes greater confidence)

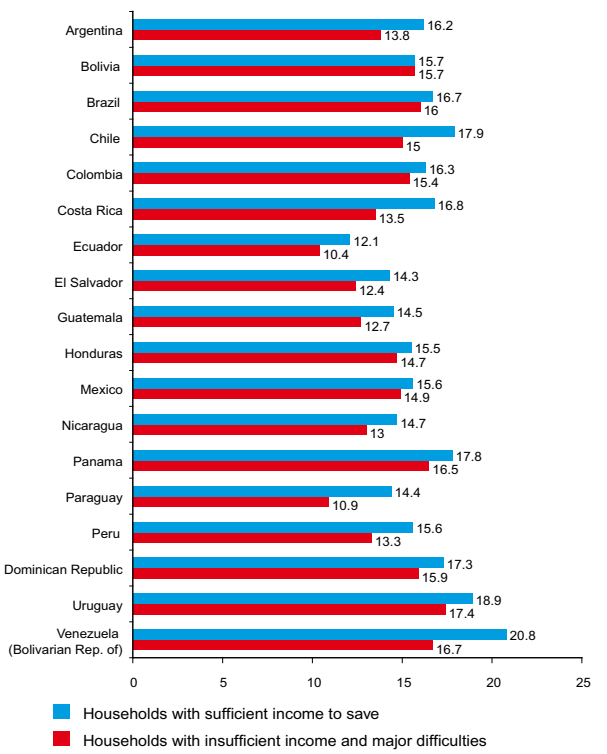


Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of the Latinobarómetro 2006 survey.
Note: The households were classified according to a self-assessment of how sufficient income was to cover basic needs.
The category "trusts neighbours" included those who claimed to trust somewhat or a great deal, while the category "does not trust neighbours" included those who trusted little or not at all.

The validity of measuring the lack of confidence in State institutions against indicators of well-being is born out by the findings at the country level. Figure I.23 shows that, except for in Bolivia, the level of confidence among people living with insufficient income to cover basic needs is lower than among people with higher levels of well-being. The widest gaps were detected in the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Paraguay, Costa Rica, Chile and Argentina, and the smallest in Brazil, Colombia and Mexico. In the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, the size of the gap is largely accounted for by the level of confidence displayed by people who are relatively well-off. In Paraguay, the difference between the economic groups originates from the minimal confidence displayed by the poorest sectors of the population. In Mexico, the small gap is explained by the lack of confidence of the wealthier sectors. A separate analysis should be performed of the situation in Nicaragua, Honduras, El Salvador, Guatemala, Ecuador and Paraguay because the level of confidence among all socio-economic groups in these countries is worryingly low.

It has been suggested that in order to understand people's lack of confidence in State institutions, it may be necessary to look beyond the formal organization and norms of these institutions and examine their actual behaviour patterns. The stated purpose of State institutions may be to serve the common good, but, in practice, the asymmetries of society are often reproduced in their activities and the poorest are often excluded (Narayan et al., 2000). Corruption is one example of deviation from the established norm and could explain the lack of confidence in State institutions. This seems to be the situation in Nicaragua, Honduras,

Figure I.23
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): CONFIDENCE IN STATE INSTITUTIONS, BY SUFFICIENCY OF HOUSEHOLD INCOME AND COUNTRY, 2006
(Values expressed as averages, in which a higher score denotes greater confidence)

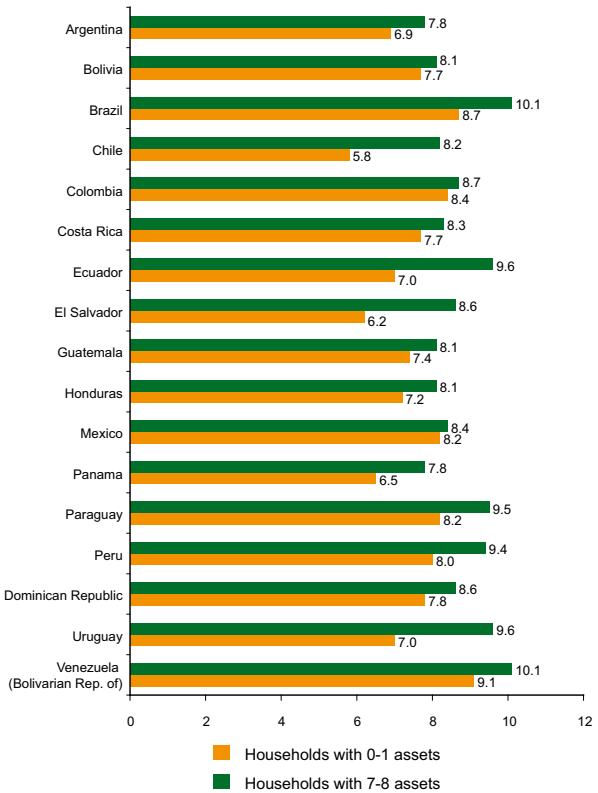


Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of the Latinobarómetro 2006 survey.
Note: The households were classified according to a self-assessment of how sufficient income was to cover basic needs.

Guatemala, Ecuador and Paraguay, whose State institutions all scored low transparency ratings in international studies of corruption.[34] The situation of the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela suggests, however, that the question is not quite so simple. The level of corruption in the country was high according to the Corruption Perceptions Index calculated by Transparency International in 2006, but its citizens displayed the highest level of confidence in its public institutions.[35]

Participation in political and social institutions is another factor in the level of confidence citizens have in public institutions. Participation is important not only because of the role it plays in strengthening democracy but also because it constitutes one way to build up social capital and confidence in institutions, especially among the poor. Much still remains to be done in this respect, however. In all the countries of the region, the poor participate less in politics than the wealthy (see figure I.23). This could worsen the plight of the poor even further because exercising citizenship is one way for people to access the resources that can improve their prospects. The challenge for policymakers, therefore, lies in creating opportunities for the more vulnerable members of the population to not just hold citizens' rights, but to actively exercise them as well.

Figure I.24
LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): POLITICAL PARTICIPATION, AVAILABILITY OF GOODS AND SERVICES IN THE HOME, 2006
(Values expressed as averages, in which a higher score denotes greater political participation)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of the Latinobarómetro 2006 survey.
Note: For more details on the indicator of political participation, see box I.7
The indicator of household ownership of durable goods and basic services includes the possession of: (1) refrigerator; (2) washing machine; (3) fixed-line telephone; (4) computer; (5) piped-in hot water; (6) automobile; (7) sewerage system and (8) cellular telephone.

3. Discrimination

Social inclusion and cohesion policies need to address the fact that the groups that wield the most power in society in material and symbolic terms use a number of mechanisms to hold onto, obtain and control resources. These include discriminatory practices whereby one social elite limits access to resources to its own circle and denies opportunities to individuals from other social groups that it classifies as inferior or ineligible on the grounds of a particular feature associated with those groups (Murphy, 1986). These mechanisms need to be understood within the cultural

34 In 2006, these countries obtained a score of 2.6, 2.5, 2.6, 2.3 and 2.6, respectively, on the Corruption Perceptions Index. This index ranks a country's public institutions on a scale of 1 to 10, where 10 = totally transparent and 1 = not transparent at all. For further details, see Transparency International [online] (http://www.transparency.org/policy_research/surveys_indices/cpi/2006).

36 In 2006, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela obtained a score of 2.3. For further details, see Transparency International [online] (http://www.transparency.org/policy_research/surveys_indices/cpi/2006).

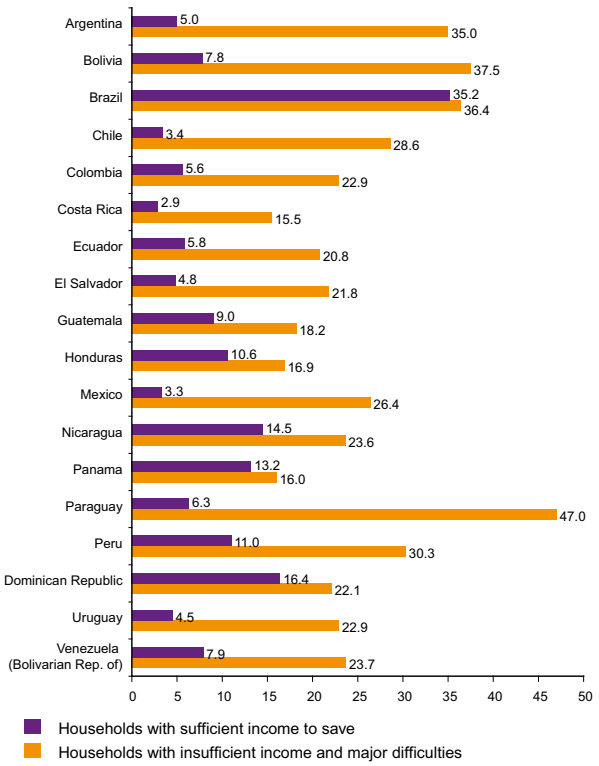
context of each country. Cultural standards and traits are firmly rooted in a nation's history and largely determine to what extent social interaction is regulated by people's shared notions of hierarchy-equality and ascription-acquisition. These constitute the framework for relations between different socio-economic strata in a society and underpin people's attitudes and behaviours (Kaztman, 2007).

In Latin America, discrimination has been traditionally associated with ethnicity or gender, and studies on discrimination have overlooked the denial of opportunities on the grounds of being "poor". Narayan and others (2000) point out that discrimination on socio-economic grounds may be a powerful factor in the inter-generational perpetuation of exclusion. Discrimination and segregation (the most distinctive features of exclusion) have severe negative repercussions on people's quality of life. Being poor can lead to stigmatization and discrimination by institutions, which leads to more poverty. In terms of healthcare, research has shown that the stigmatization of the mentally ill and HIV/AIDS carriers leads to the isolation and exclusion of both these groups. Stigmatization plays an important role in excluding people from the health system and increases their marginalization in other areas, such as education and employment as well (Joffe, 1995; Foucault, 1998).

No comparable data is currently available on discriminatory attitudes or behaviour towards the poor in the region. One way to examine the issue is to look at the perceived level of discrimination among people from different socio-economic strata. Figure I.24 shows that in all the countries the percentage of people who feel they are discriminated against is higher among those living in households with insufficient incomes than among households that are better off. The largest differences were reported in Paraguay, Argentina, Bolivia, Chile and Mexico, and the smallest in Panama and Brazil. The situation in Brazil is highly unusual inasmuch as both socio-economic groups in the country perceive a high level of discrimination. This warrants further investigation beyond the scope of this analysis.

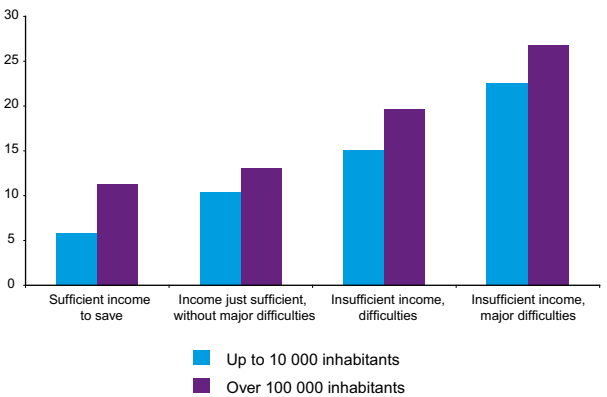
When the area of residence is factored into the analysis, the highest levels of perceived discrimination are found among the members of the most vulnerable households located in areas with populations of over 100,000, while the lowest levels are found among better-off households in areas with populations of less than 10,000. These findings question the validity of a linear interpretation, according to which, there should be less discrimination in large urban areas because, in cities, the logic of estates (in which social position is determined on the basis of ascription) has been replaced by the logic of status groups (in which position is attained through individual achievement). Another interpretation is that the rise of capitalism in developing countries was based on the coexistence of estate and status (Boroez, 1997).

Figure I.25
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): PEOPLE WHO PERCEIVE DISCRIMINATION, BY SUFFICIENCY OF HOUSEHOLD INCOME AND COUNTRY, 2006
(Values as a percentage of the population)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of the Latinobarómetro 2006 survey.
Note: For more details on the indicator of perceived discrimination, see box I.7
The households were classified according to a self-assessment of how sufficient income was to cover basic needs.

Figure I.26
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): PEOPLE WHO PERCEIVE DISCRIMINATION, BY SUFFICIENCY OF HOUSEHOLD INCOME AND AREA OF RESIDENCE, 2006
(Values as a percentage of the population)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of the Latinobarómetro 2006 survey.
Note: For more details on the indicator of perceived discrimination, see box I.7

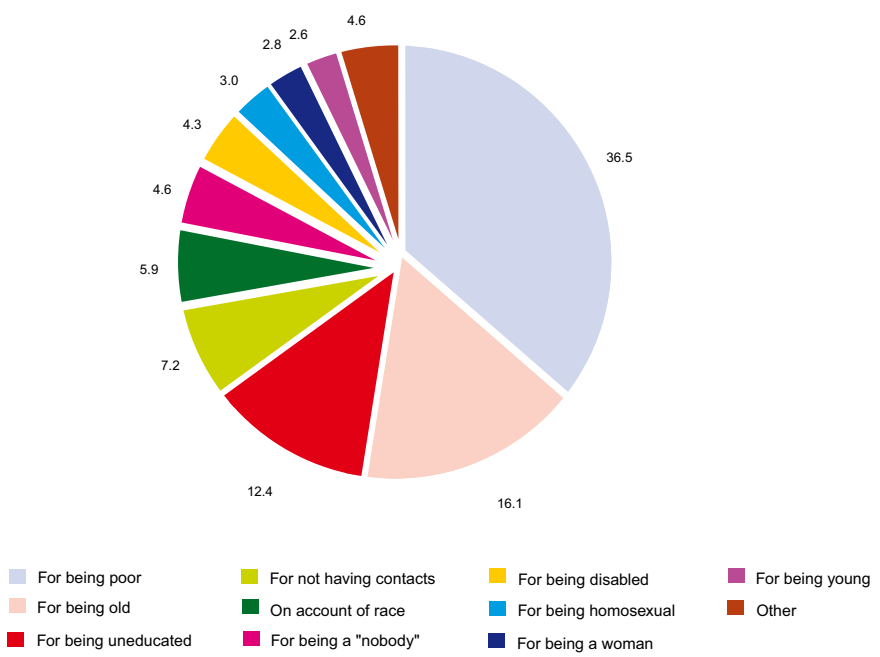
The households were classified according to a self-assessment of how sufficient income was to cover basic needs.

Along this line of argument, it is plausible that in the more densely populated urban areas, the principles of ascription clash with the principles of achievement, which results in a higher perception of discrimination. In more modern urban areas, exclusion on the basis of ascription is the most noticeable because of its dissonance with the egalitarian and meritocratic values that are widely held in such areas. In less populated areas, however, where social relations are more firmly anchored in traditional notions of hierarchy and ascription, people may not even think that determining people's access to resources on the basis of the social group they belong to is an act of discrimination. They may see such practices as "natural", part of the "way of life", especially in the countryside. It is also possible that there is a greater chance of being discriminated against in urban areas because city dwellers come into contact with more diverse social identities and actors. In less urban areas, the population is more homogeneous and has fewer opportunities for contact with members of other social groups. This can be particularly the case in rural areas where communities often live in relative isolation. Either way, the data shows that inequality is still one of the most important problems for social cohesion.

Figure I.27 presents the causes of discrimination described by people with insufficient income. The most common was being "poor" (36.5%), followed by "being old" (16.1%), having insufficient education (12.4%) and not having contacts (7.2%). Several of the discriminatory practices reported by those surveyed are associated with the denial of opportunities to improve living conditions and climb the social ladder. People are discriminated against because they lack certain types of "capital", namely: human capital (education), social capital (contacts) and symbolic capital (sense of "being someone"). Together, the factors directly and indirectly related to poverty and social mobility account for 60% of the causes of discrimination reported by the more vulnerable sectors of the population.

Age ("being young"), ethnic ascription (skin colour, race), disabilities, and gender or sexual orientation ("being a woman" or "being homosexual") were cited as the reasons for a further 31% of discrimination experienced by people living in households with insufficient income, together with practices that deny opportunities for social integration based on the obsolescence and/or lack of certain capacities (discrimination against the elderly and the disabled). This indicates that the poor may feel discriminated against in more than one way because they fall into several different social categories. They may, for example, feel excluded because of their socio-economic situation and because of their age or the ethnic group to which they belong.

Figure I.27
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MAIN CAUSES OF DISCRIMINATION CITED BY MEMBERS OF HOUSEHOLDS WITH INSUFFICIENT INCOMES, 2006
(Values in percentages of the population)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of the Latinobarómetro 2006 survey.
Note: For more details on the indicator of causes of discrimination, see box I.24

Chapter II

Public social expenditure and the need for a social contract in Latin America

The level and structure of public social expenditure in Latin America continue to fall short of what is required to meet the social needs of the vulnerable population. Considerable advances in reducing indigence notwithstanding, these shortcomings have led to slow progress in alleviating non-extreme poverty and reducing inequalities in the region. On the one hand, the level of such spending is insufficient, and funds are administered under severe budgetary constraints resulting from low rates of taxation and the narrow coverage of contributory social protection programmes; on the other, the structure of expenditure has to be constantly adapted to address emerging social needs before existing ones have been met.

Adapting the level and structure of public social expenditure to constantly changing risk profiles and social needs should figure as one of the core elements of a new social contract in which rights constitute the normative horizon for efforts to address existing inequalities and budgetary restrictions. As part of this effort, the allocation of public funds for social ends should be designed to increase the coverage and quality of benefits provided by social programmes through a combination of contributory and non-contributory financing, together with a significant solidarity component.

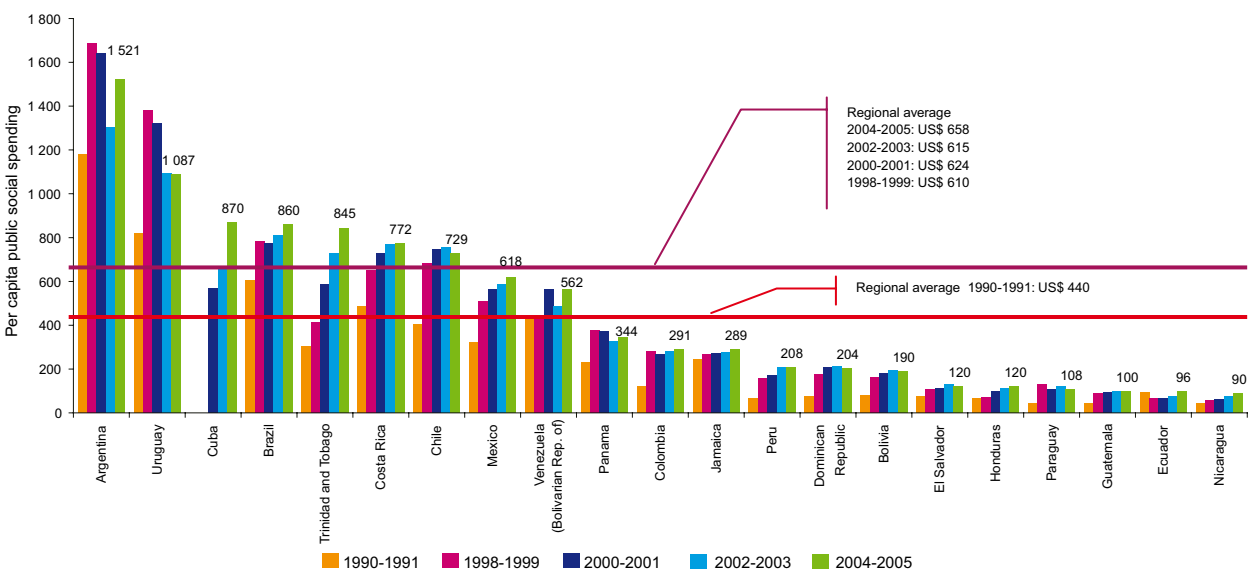
The following section will explore the main characteristics of the level and structure of public social expenditure in the region and how they have changed over the past 15 years. It will also look at which income groups have been the main recipients of that expenditure and the impact it has had in terms of increased levels of well-being. Lastly, with a view to the design of a new social contract, countries will be grouped into various categories based on an indicator that measures the distance existing between social needs and emerging risks, on the one hand, and the State resources allocated to social policies, on the other.

A. Level and composition of public social expenditure

The recent evolution of public social expenditure suggests that the trend towards allocating larger amounts of public resources for social policies has levelled off, but has not reversed itself. This will ensure future financing, stability and improved institutional legitimacy in social policy. These efforts remain largely dependent on the levels of development achieved and, in many cases, on small tax burdens, which result in insufficient levels of public social expenditure in a number of countries in the region. Furthermore, the lack of countercyclical public social expenditure policies in most of the countries makes it difficult to maintain a policy for offsetting social risks when slowing economic activity reduces the ability of the authorities to maintain a social protection system for the most vulnerable sectors of the population.

The level of public social expenditure rose by nearly 10% between 2002-2003 and 2004-2005 to US$ 660 per capita (at 2000 prices) (see figure II.1). There are enormous differences across countries, however. Per capita expenditure is 15 times greater in the country that spends the most than in the country that spends the least. Twelve of the 21 countries analysed spend less than US$ 350 per capita per year, six spend between US$ 550 and US$ 870 per capita, and only two spend more than US$ 1,000 per person per annum.

Figure II.1
LATIN AMERICA (21 COUNTRIES): PER CAPITA PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING, 1990-1991 TO 2004-2005 [a]
(In dollars at 2000 prices)



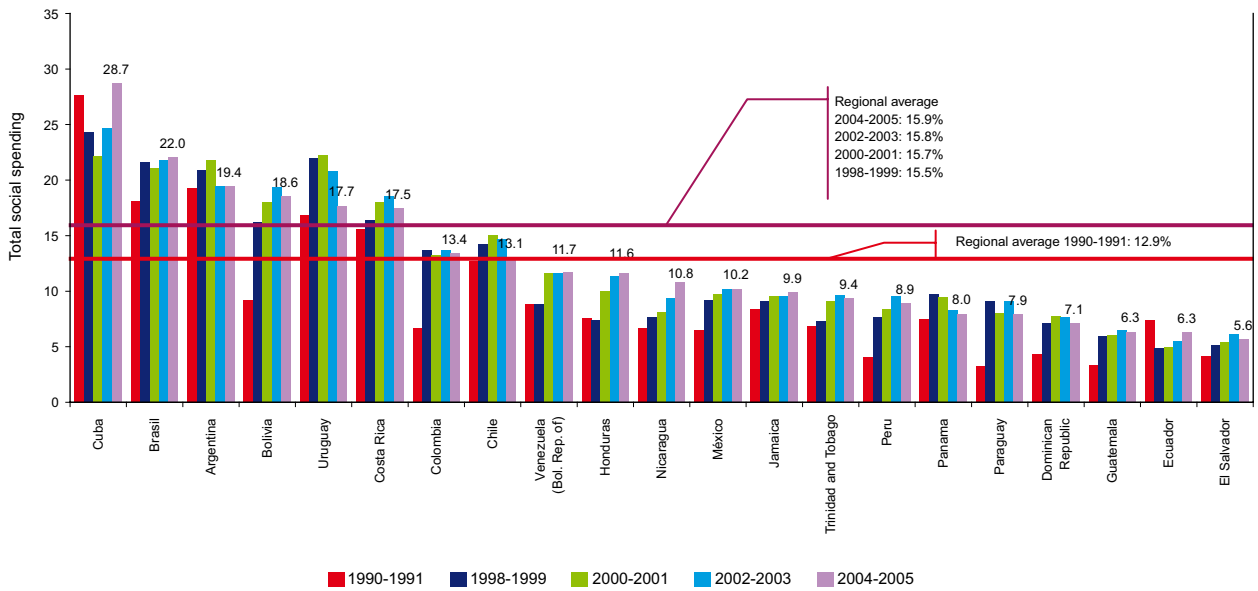
Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information available in the Commission's social expenditure database.

[a] Owing to changes in the GDP base year (1997), information in dollars is available only from 2000 onwards (see box II.6). The regional average does not include Cuba.

An examination of the figures for public social spending points up five main characteristics:

(i) The trend towards allocating larger amounts of public resources for social policies has levelled off, but has not reversed itself. The upward trend seen up to 2000-2001 in the percentage of GDP that governments are using for social expenditure, that is, the macroeconomic priority given to that spending —which is a measurement of the effort being made by a government to allocate resources for social policies— has been changing since 2002-2003 (see figure II.2). Nevertheless, the simple fact that, at the regional level, the macroeconomic and fiscal priority assigned to public social expenditure has been maintained —albeit with some exceptions— provides an assurance of continued financing, stability and greater institutional legitimacy for social policy.

Figure II.2
LATIN AMERICA (21 COUNTRIES): PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING AS A PERCENTAGE OF GDP, 1990-1991 TO 2004-2005
(Percentages)

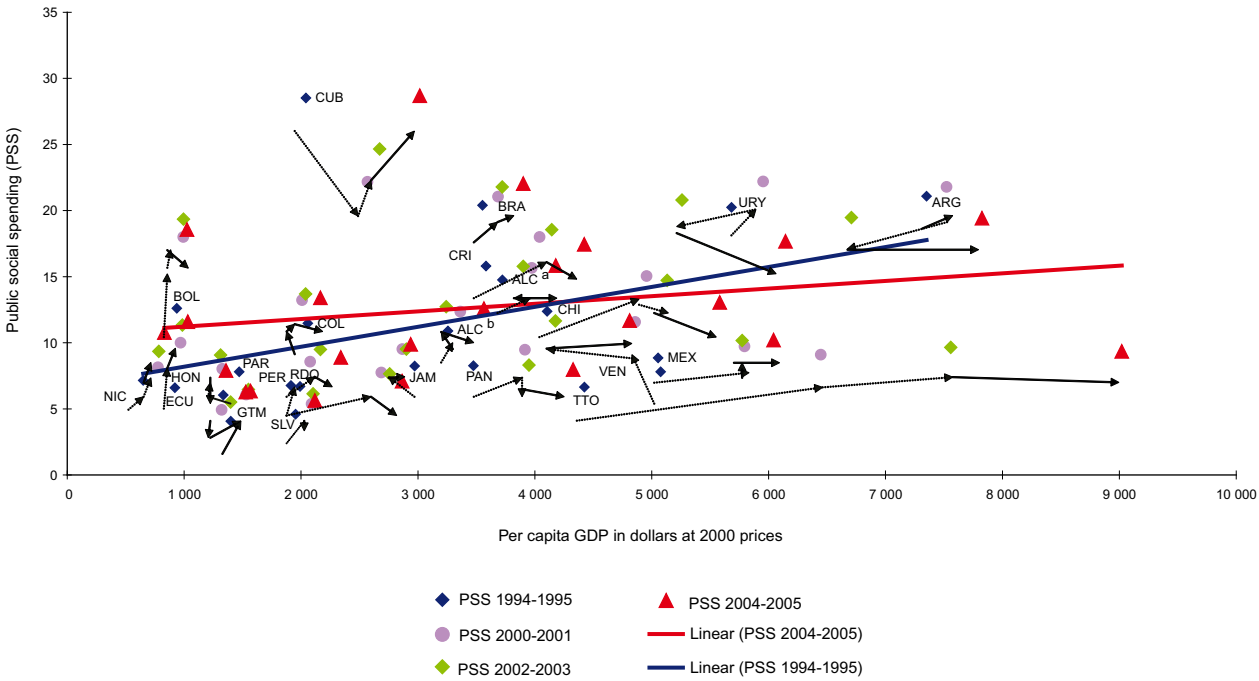


Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information available in the Commission's social expenditure database.

(ii) The profile of public social spending according to the level of GDP shows budgetary constraints resulting from small tax burdens. In a number of countries in the region, public social spending remains limited and procyclical in relation to per capita GDP (see figure II.3). This suggests that the international assistance and borrowings that used to provide countries with some sort of margin may cease to be available as financing options for countries that no longer receive official development assistance (ODA). In terms of the priority they allocate to social spending in relation to their current levels of development, Cuba and Brazil show the highest levels, followed by Argentina, Uruguay and Costa Rica. The efforts being made recently by Bolivia are noteworthy. On the other hand, the countries showing the biggest lags are Trinidad and Tobago and, to a lesser extent, Guatemala, Ecuador, El Salvador, Dominican Republic, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela and Mexico. In the last two cases, figures relate to central government coverage, the only level for which figures are available, as can be seen in the methodological appendix. This subject is discussed further under item 5 of this section.

(iii) Over the past 15 years, the less developed countries have made greater increases in their efforts to allocate resources for social policies. The effort made by countries in this connection declines as they become richer. The less developed countries that receive ODA financing have tended to increase their efforts in this area more than those with relatively higher levels of development. Bolivia, Honduras and Nicaragua, which are high-priority ODA recipients, are cases in point.

Figure II.3
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: RATIO OF PER CAPITA GDP TO PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING AS A PERCENTAGE OF GDP
(Percentages)



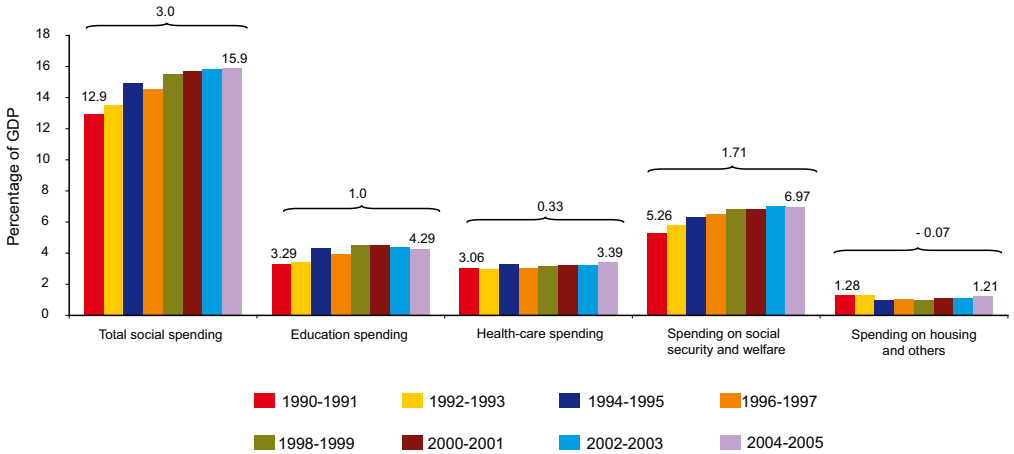
Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information available in the Commission's social expenditure database.
[a] Latin America and the Caribbean, weighted average.
[b] Latin America and the Caribbean, simple average.

(iv) Social security and welfare continue to be the top priority, followed by education. At the regional level, over the long term (1990-1991 to 2004-2005) the increase in this spending effort is equivalent to three percentage points of GDP. Most of this increase has been channelled into social security and welfare, followed, in order of priority, by education and health (see figure II.4). These allocation decisions presumably reflect a growing concern about poverty and about protection for older adults as the population ages.

(v) As a result of the budgetary constraints to which governments are subject, social expenditure remains highly procyclical, rising when GDP increases and falling when it shrinks. This pattern not only reflects an ill-advised macroeconomic policy, but also prevents the implementation of a policy for offsetting social risks during economic slumps (see figure II.5). This, in turn, weakens the public sector's ability to maintain a social protection system for the most vulnerable sectors of the population.

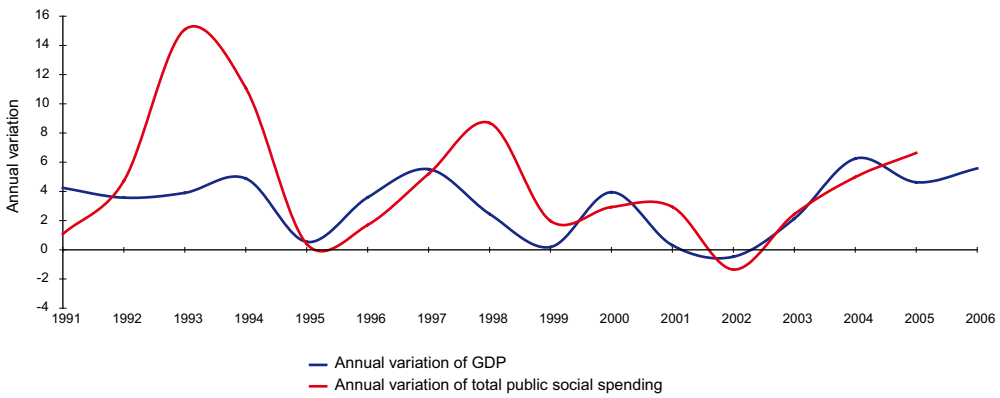
The figures in figure II.5 relate to weighted average levels of GDP and spending in the region and therefore mostly represent that which occurs in larger countries. They may also show that the coverage of spending has a strongly wage-related component whose behaviour is necessarily procyclical. This is detrimental to protection of those sectors most affected by economic downturns.

Figure II.4
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (21 COUNTRIES): PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING AS A PERCENTAGE OF GDP, BY SECTOR, 1990-1991 TO 2004-2005 [a]
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information available in the Commission's social expenditure database.
[a] Weighted average of the countries.

Figure II.5
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (21 COUNTRIES): ANNUAL VARIATION IN TOTAL PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING AND GDP [a]
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information available in the Commission's social expenditure database and the countries' national accounts.
[a] Weighted average of the countries.

B. Orientation and redistributive impact of public social expenditure

The progressive nature of public social spending depends on the coverage achieved by the social benefits it finances, the means of financing and the use of appropriate tools in targeting the resources used in combating poverty and social vulnerability. Education spending has become more progressive and access to education has improved, particularly in primary education. The same has happened with health expenditure thanks to improvements in primary-care coverage. Furthermore, the eminently "pro-poor" nature of social welfare services has been strengthened, although targeting difficulties persist. Social security, however, remains highly regressive because of the continuing existence of contributory financing systems. In sum, public social spending has a limited impact in terms of reducing poverty, but the level of well-being of the poorest sectors is improving significantly. Social welfare currently focuses on investing in the human capital of the recipient families.

In the presence of budgetary constraints, governments will try to channel more resources into social services for the lowest-income sectors. Because of budget commitments and the nature of access to public services, however, some components of public expenditure will not exhibit the expected degree of progressiveness, despite governments' best efforts and use of targeting instruments to this end. These realities raise the question of which population groups benefit the most from public social spending and its various components (including education, health care, social security, social welfare, housing and sanitation).

1. Orientation of public social spending

Subject to certain differences between countries, public social spending policy in recent decades has been conducted against the background of State reforms which have gradually increased the financing and provision of social services in private hands, and have tended to bring about selection by ability to contribute or to make out-of-pocket payments.[1] The orientation of public social spending has had to counteract that trend.[2] The progressiveness of public social spending policies has been increasing, to the extent that the coverage of public services has expanded to the more depressed or isolated geographical areas, such as rural areas. As a result, those at low- to medium-income levels have enjoyed gradually improving access to education, health care and sanitation.

[1] This is due in part to their concentration in major urban areas, in sectors where the ability to pay is higher or political pressure is strong.

[2] In the early 1990s, major efforts were made to boost the rather depressed levels of public social spending, against a background of high levels of poverty.

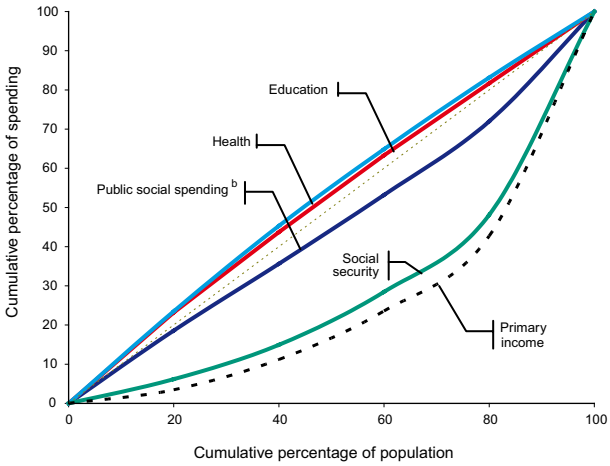
At the same time, in the framework of direct anti-poverty initiatives, a number of social welfare programmes have been implemented to benefit population segments which had traditionally been excluded and had generally suffered from high levels of extreme poverty.

Owing to the different characteristics of investment spending and current spending in the various sectors —and of their financing mechanisms— two different trends can be distinguished. Much of the increase in social spending was directed to increasing the coverage of a variety of social services, especially education and health. Spending on social security also increased significantly. The growth rates of those services have varied from country to country and the inclusion of new beneficiaries has followed differing patterns: the changes have benefited the lowest-income sectors in some cases, and medium- or high-income sectors in others.

The available data indicate that the absolute level of progressiveness of public social spending varies a great deal: only in three of the 15 countries under consideration is that spending progressive, meaning that a significant portion reaches lower-income strata (see table II.1).[3]

Social expenditure is not more regressive than primary income distribution in any of the countries, however. This shows that to a greater or lesser extent, the execution of public social expenditure in the region does diminish inequality (see figure II.6).

Figure II.6
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): DISTRIBUTION OF PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING BY PRIMARY INCOME QUINTILES, 1997-2004 [a]
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of national studies.
[a] Weighted average for the significance of each item of expenditure in the primary income of each country.
[b] Includes education, health, social security and welfare, housing and sanitation.

2. Orientation of sectoral spending

Promoting opportunities in areas considered of social value, so that all citizens can enjoy the benefits and take part in development, requires institutions which sustain the principles of universality, solidarity and efficiency, simultaneously and as a matter of priority. Although it is vital that these principles are applied in the design and financing, provision and regulation of social services, there are still major dilemmas for which there are no single solutions, especially when the involvement of private agents is considered (see ECLAC, 2000). In fact, there are major differences among the sectors targeted by public social spending.

Public spending on education: progressiveness in this area relates to increased coverage. The main efforts to universalize education have been relatively recent (from the 1980s onward, particularly in the 1990s) and have focused on increasing the coverage of primary education. Not until the mid-1990s were encouraging results seen in respect of improved secondary-education coverage, and that improvement was not free of difficulties and deficiencies (see chapter III).

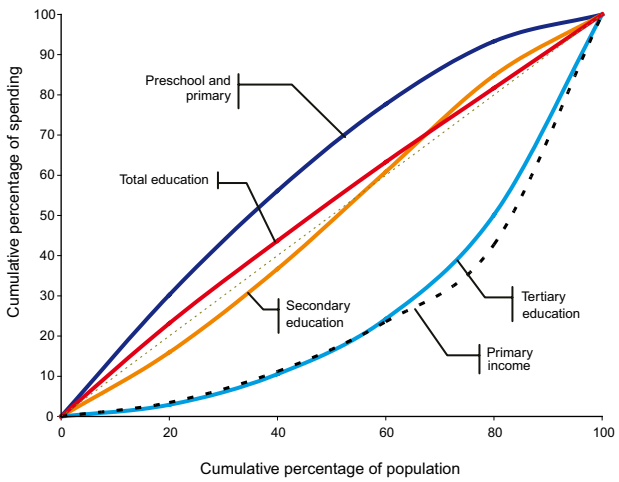
Public spending on the higher levels of education tends to be regressive because extending the coverage of public education at the various educational levels has led to "top-downwards" increases in access;[4] furthermore, difficulties with access, advancement and completion of education are greater for the lower-income strata.[5] This is why countries with a variety of combinations of

3 Excludes the countries which recorded only spending on education (Dominican Republic, Jamaica and Paraguay).
4 In other words, it initially benefited higher-income sectors and then gradually expanded to the poorest sectors.
5 This involves a process of selection at the most advanced levels of education, favouring those who have the greatest financial resources and who therefore experience fewer difficulties in their passage through the educational system.

public and private supply in education will tend to boost the progressiveness of spending, insofar as there are self-selection processes for higher-income groups in the private sector and, additionally, higher levels of access to public education for the neediest sectors.

Improvements in public-education coverage at the different educational levels (preschool, primary, secondary and tertiary) have gradually, over the years, enabled the poorest sectors of the population to gain access. Public spending on preschool education is relatively less progressive than that on primary education, partly because in most countries preschool education is not compulsory. Although the better-off sectors generally use private services, a high proportion of children from the lowest-income sectors do not attend preschool centres. On the other hand, access to primary education is almost universal in the region, making it more progressive (see figure II.7). This is less true in secondary education, with the exceptions of Argentina, Colombia and Costa Rica. On the other hand, public financing at the highest levels of education tends to favour high-income groups: public financing of tertiary education is highly regressive in all the countries. In Brazil, Guatemala, Honduras, Jamaica and Nicaragua, spending on higher education is even more concentrated than primary income (see table II.16).

Figure II.7
LATIN AMERICA (11 COUNTRIES): DISTRIBUTION OF PUBLIC SPENDING ON EDUCATION, OVERALL AND BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION, BY PRIMARY INCOME QUINTILE, 1997-2004 [a]
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of national studies.
[a] Average weighted by the significance of each spending item in each country's primary income.

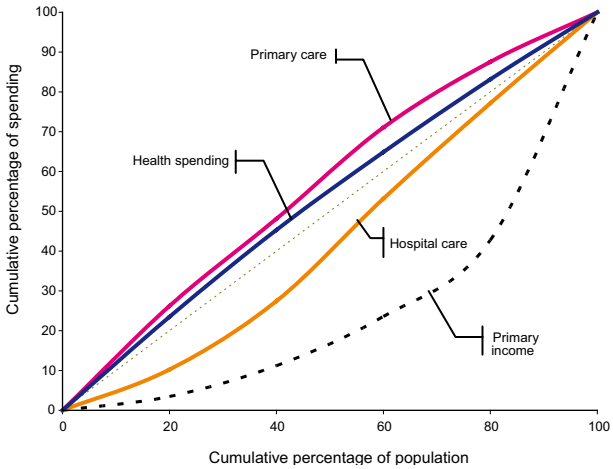
Box II.1
THE ROLE OF THE STATE IN THE FINANCING OF HIGHER EDUCATION

The highly regressive nature of spending on higher education often gives rise to questions as to the role of the State in financing higher education, particularly universities. A number of positions have been taken in respect of the role of social spending, especially when the issue is whether all its components must have a pro-poor bias —and must therefore also have appropriate targeting instruments— or whether they should follow universalistic principles, even if it means some of the resources being spent on upper-income groups which could afford to use private services. When it comes to higher education, the high cost of private educational institutions should be borne in mind. If no public financing were involved, access would be more difficult for many young people from middle-income sectors. Furthermore, access for lower-income groups would be practically impossible if there were no such financing, as can be seen in the study conducted in Ecuador which measured public and private spending on higher education. In other words, deciding to withhold public resources from higher education because they mostly benefit middle-income groups would bring about the perverse effect of excluding the poorest students from that educational level. It should not be forgotten, moreover, that nowadays higher education is of strategic importance for the development of the countries' economies since it promotes technological research and development, which are vital for maintaining and increasing levels of competitiveness in the countries of Latin America. Governments have the greatest capacity for coordination and can guide investment in human capital in the long term.

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of national studies.

Public spending on health: the composition and location of services determine what impact they will have in terms of equitable distribution. The redistributive effect of health expenditure has increased, and it has become more progressive than education spending because of the scale of investment in preventive health care, first aid and outpatient services in the poorest sectors of the population, compared to spending on hospital services —which, depending on the country, may be slightly progressive or even regressive (see figure II.8 and table II.17).

Figure II.8
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): DISTRIBUTION OF PUBLIC SPENDING ON HEALTH AND OF PRIMARY AND HOSPITAL CARE, BY PRIMARY INCOME QUINTILES, 1997-2004 [a b]
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of national studies.
[a] Averages weighted by the proportion of health spending in each country's primary income.
[b] Simple average of four countries.

The main constraint preventing hospital care from producing redistributive effects is the high investment cost involved in expanding its coverage. Given the cost of purchasing and installing highly complex hospital equipment, together with the hygiene and sanitation services required in order to operate such centres and the cost of maintaining specialized staff, the coverage of such services is often restricted to areas where population density is high and patients can afford to make co-payments. In practice, this makes access difficult or impossible for those who live on the outskirts of towns or in rural areas, who generally have lower incomes.

The greatest challenge in the area of health care will undoubtedly be to increase the coverage of hospital care, together with finding the right way to blend contributory regimes (linked to the formal labour market) with non-contributory ones, to avoid the replacement of the latter by the former and reduce the mechanisms which exclude large segments of the population. A number of attempts are being made in the region to overcome these constraints. In practice, there are a number of combinations of health-care systems determined by the priorities of their components.[6]

Spending on social security: its highly contributory nature makes it very regressive. Social security is a key component of social welfare systems and, as such, should be governed by the principles of universality, solidarity and efficiency. Nonetheless, the design of social security systems generally makes access to benefits subject to the ability of their members to pay contributions and, therefore, to their labour market integration. As a result, spending on social security is highly regressive, favouring those who have the best labour market integration (formal employment with greater ability to contribute).

In recent decades, as in the area of health care, systems of social security coverage have diversified in the countries, accentuating the tendency towards selection which is usually linked to potential users' ability to pay. Unlike traditional contributory systems, private-sector management with individual contracts has been promoted, weakening the solidarity or distribution components of the region's reformed systems so that they are even more regressive than the traditional systems. There are some exceptions, of course, such as the Rural Social Security system in Ecuador, which is fairly progressive (see table II.18).

These predominant characteristics of the region's social security systems —in which affiliation is based on the type of employment and is therefore financed mostly through contributory mechanisms— tend to deny benefits to a large percentage of the population. Consequently, there is a growing trend towards expanding affiliation through a rights-based approach; significantly, this requires financing of the solidarity type. The debate on how solidarity financing should be secured, whether through non-contributory sources or cross-transfers within the system to ensure access to basic social security benefits, has been the essence of the second-generation reforms to social security systems.

The intertemporal and intergenerational repercussions of the costs and benefits of social security reforms lay the foundations for future modernizations of fiscal policy. The consequences for public social spending policies include improved measurement, monitoring and management of contingent liabilities and their medium-term effects.

6 In Argentina, for example, a public health system is combined with a social insurance system provided by the National Institute of Social Services for Retirees and Pensioners (INSSJP) and charitable entities (non-profit bodies such as trade unions and associations of various kinds), of a contributory nature. Colombia, however, combines public health systems which subsidize users, supply-side subsidies and a contributory system. Reports from other countries show the existence of systems with non-contributory financing only. The differing combinations of financing mechanisms are reflected in varying levels of progressiveness from country to country. Of course, non-contributory health-care systems tend to be progressive and contributory ones regressive — another example of the latter is the armed forces' health programme and the EsSALUD programme in Peru.

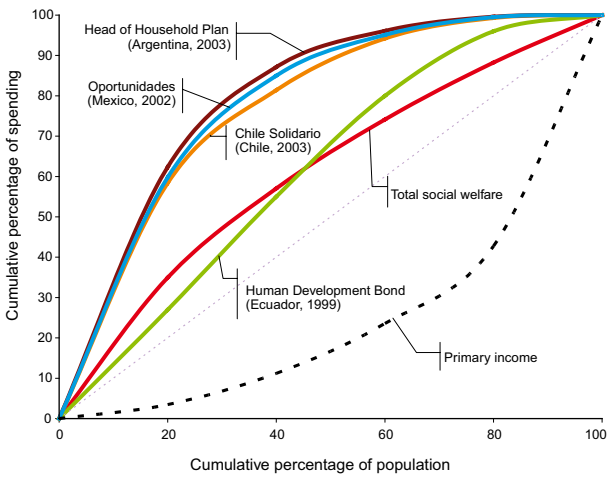
Public spending on social welfare: a "pro-poor" spending modality. Social welfare includes a variety of social programmes such as school meals, maternal nutrition programmes, emergency employment programmes, monetary subsidies (on the supply or demand side) and other direct or indirect transfers (see table II.19). Such programmes sometimes provide or improve access to traditional services such as universal education and health care. Their purpose is to make up for imbalances in access to productive resources and the labour market, and to other social benefits.

In this type of spending, targeting acts as a principle of social policy to prioritize a minimum level of services for the poorest sectors. It should also apply a countercyclical approach, expanding benefits at times of economic crises in order to contain or reduce falls in the levels of well-being in sectors which are vulnerable to the economic cycle.[7] Generally, spending on social welfare in the region is fairly progressive. On average, 55% of the resources spent on social welfare are captured by the poorest 40%, and 60% of that amount goes to the poorest quintile. Among the most progressive spending is that used for anti-poverty programmes, particularly those using conditional transfers (see figure II.9).

Not all the national programmes analysed, however, are designed to target the poorest population groups. The way in which the possible beneficiaries of a social programme are identified entails the problem of not reaching the most marginal groups, precisely because they do not have access to the most traditional services.[8] There are also serious problems which can affect targeting mechanisms, leading to inclusion errors in relation to groups which were not originally selected as beneficiaries and exclusion errors in respect of groups which should be receiving welfare benefits.

In fact, the information collected shows that such programmes show some degree of "leakage" towards higher-income sectors. Thus, the extent to which a programme can be described as pro-poor depends both on the goal of the programme and the methods for selecting beneficiaries, and on failures of those mechanisms. While it is important to improve targeting instruments to optimize the use of funds in favour of those who need them most, it is also necessary to raise the cost-efficiency ratio of the various social programmes.

Figure II.9
LATIN AMERICA (11 COUNTRIES): DISTRIBUTION OF PUBLIC SPENDING ON SOCIAL WELFARE AND EXAMPLES OF DIRECT MONETARY TRANSFERS FROM CERTAIN CONDITIONAL TRANSFER PROGRAMMES, BY PRIMARY INCOME QUINTILE, 1997-2004 [a]
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of national studies.
[a] Average weighted by the significance of each spending item in each country's primary income.

7 Although the principle of targeting should predominate during normal periods of economic growth, it may be necessary during economic crises to extend social welfare to higher-income sectors in order to contain or lessen falls in levels of well-being, which are often very sharp.

8 For example, in some countries the definition of social welfare includes various subsidies in relation to housing and access to basic services. Furthermore, there are a number of difficulties in targeting social welfare programmes towards the poorest sectors of the population. In many cases, the target population groups are defined in terms of their access to various social services such as schools, health centres, hospitals and municipal employment agencies.

Box II.2
SOCIAL POLICY AND REDUCTION OF POVERTY: OPTIMIZING SOCIAL SPENDING

In order to strengthen the analysis and knowledge traditionally provided by the Social Development Division through the statistics —and sometimes descriptive chapters— on social spending which are included in the successive editions of the *Social Panorama of Latin America*, it was decided that a work proposal should be drafted on the basis of these results. This led to the project entitled Social policy and reduction of poverty: optimizing social spending, as a first step to contribute to the effectiveness of the governments of the region in the formulation and implementation of public programmes to eliminate hunger and reduce poverty. The objective of this project, conducted with financial support from the German Agency for Technical Cooperation (GTZ), is to develop methodologies to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of public policies through evaluation and analytical disaggregation of resources to improve their allocation in the medium and long terms.

The statistical data available in the Division show that over the past 13 years, the regional average of social spending has risen by more than two percentage points to 15% of GDP, with the fastest growth in spending on social security and welfare. Analysis shows that over half the growth in per capita social spending is due to overall GDP growth and the increase in macroeconomic priority and, to a lesser extent, results from specific targeted spending policies. Although social spending as a whole is progressive, the breakdown of growth factors shows that even in situations where the fiscal priority given to social spending is falling, there can be a progressive effect if it is applied in sectors with procyclical impacts such as education, especially primary education, and health care. Similarly, some elements of social security spending are of greatest benefit to the higher income quintiles, although they represent only a limited supplement to primary income. In the lower income quintiles, however, social spending on education and health care complement primary income by close to 50%, but the impact is lower in the poorest countries owing to reduced levels of social investment. Thus, shared methodological tools and precise and standardized quantification of social expenditure items provide the means to improve the quality of policies, the transparency of management, and the impact of social spending on the most vulnerable sectors.

The current project is intended to help improve social management by means of an analytical model for the effective assessment of the cost/impact ratio of each country's social programmes in a way that will be comparable region-wide. The proposed analysis model harmonizes the development of satellite accounts through the joint exploitation of government finance statistics and the System of National Accounts, in order to strengthen the analysis of social spending. The analysis of social administration and its results seeks to make use of impact analysis through the assessment of specific programmes and of censuses, household surveys and similar sources. Thus, the aim is to move forward with a number of categories such as function, social sector, type of cost and source of financing, as well as eliminating differences in coverage and classifications and contributing a functional framework which will make possible a deepening of the analysis and presentation of the results, means and beneficiaries to be reached.

Source: Rodrigo Martínez and Ernesto Espíndola, "Gasto social en América Latina: una propuesta para su análisis", a document presented at the technical meeting "La medición del gasto social: avances y desafíos metodológicos," Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), 9 and 10 August 2007.

3. Redistributive impact of public social spending

In the area of public social spending, both targeted interventions and those of a more universal nature seek to produce a positive, and if possible permanent, impact on the living conditions of the population. The effects are however difficult to assess, since they may be in the form of: (i) A social impact on the target population, reflected in variations in the social indicators representing the problems which brought about the intervention; (ii) A medium- to long-term economic impact resulting from transfers of goods and services to households; and (iii) A redistributive effect insofar as the spending helps to increase households' disposable income and, in the short term, to alter the distribution of primary income.[9]

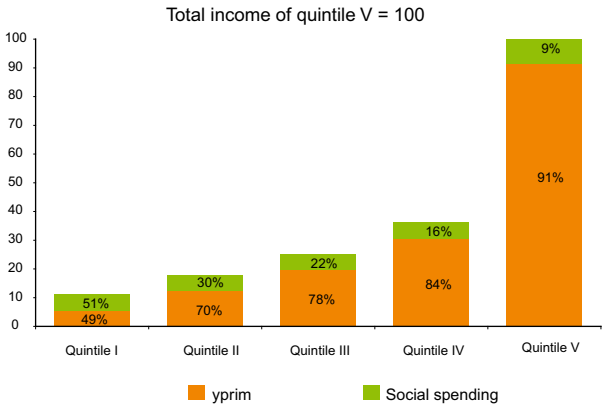
[9] The analysis should include the net estimate of the changes in income resulting from taxation policies (direct and indirect taxes), which can decrease it in a progressive or regressive way, followed by its redistribution in the form of public spending, which increases it. The information available reflects only the latter situation.

The room for manoeuvre that public policy has for increasing the progressiveness of social spending is limited, as the distribution of certain spending items that make up a large proportion of resources (such as social security) are the result of long-standing contractual commitments. While the orientation of the various spending items may vary, their ultimate redistributive impact depends on the volume of resources used.[10] In addition, the targeting of expenditure in areas like education and health depends on the level of coverage and on widespread access to public services. It also depends on the development of public-private partnerships to guarantee both access for the poorest groups, as well as high-quality yet affordable private options for those with fewer resources; this requires agreement on which components should be stressed, in accordance with the principle of universality and which expenditure should be targeted. Also, in light of the principle of efficiency in resource allocation, decisions have to be made on how to set up solidarity-based and non-contributory mechanisms for benefits that should be universal in a social protection system.

It must be recognized that public social spending has only a limited redistributive effect in terms of reducing income concentration. This is mostly because it represents only 19.4% of primary household income, but also because it is not allocated for the sole purpose of improving equity. Social spending provides a dramatic boost to the well-being of the poorest sectors: on average it doubles the disposable income of the poorest quintile. Nonetheless, it also has significant effects on higher strata, particularly the second quintile, whose income is raised by 43%. For the wealthiest quintile, social spending increases income by 9% (see figure II.10). Thus, while social spending does not have a significant redistributive effect on inequality, it has a considerable impact in increasing the well-being of the lowest income groups.

It should be noted that, given the nature of the components of public social spending, the richest quintile captures some 28% of the resources allocated for social purposes, followed by the fourth quintile (18.8%). The first quintile receives only about 18.6%. This is mostly due to the fact that the richest quintile receives over 50% of social security spending (resources distributed on the basis of contributory systems).

Figure II.10
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): REDISTRIBUTIVE EFFECT OF PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON INCOME, BY PRIMARY INCOME QUINTILE, 1997-2004 [a]
(Percentages)

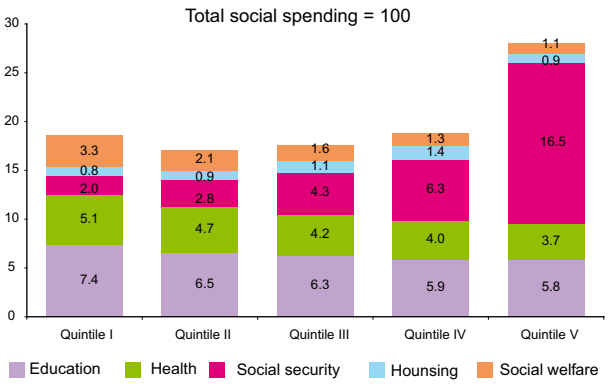


Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of national studies.
[a] Average weighted by the significance of each spending item for primary income in each country.

Measuring the effect on household incomes, public spending on education has the greatest impact on the primary income of the poorest sectors, representing 40% of the transfers received by the first quintile (7.4% of social spending) (see figure II.11). Next in importance are health and social welfare, respectively. The ratio is similar in the second quintile. Social security begins to take on greater relative significance in the third quintile. The most significant transfers are seen in the fourth and fifth quintiles, rising to 59% of public resources captured by the highest income quintile. If social security is excluded, the richest quintile receives only 17% of total resources, while the poorest quintile receives just over 24% (1.4 times more than the highest quintile).

[10] In this way, there can be spending items or specific programmes which are highly progressive, but their redistributive impact may be only modest, so that they are not very significant in terms of increasing disposable income. This does not mean that they are unimportant in combating poverty or improving the standard of living of the lower-income sectors; low-cost actions (such as the distribution of food rations to combat or prevent child undernutrition, or the various conditional transfer programmes) often have a significant social impact in terms of improving a specific situation or reducing risks which in the long term can entail significant costs for households or the State. On the other hand, there are also social spending items which concentrate large-scale expenditure, with an improved redistributive effect, but do not necessarily lead to a significant improvement in various social indicators.

Figure II.11
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF SPENDING BY PRIMARY INCOME DISTRIBUTION QUINTILES, 1997-2004 [a]
(Percentages of total social spending)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of national studies.
[a] Average weighted by the significance of each spending item for primary income in each country.

In short, primary income distribution in the region is highly concentrated (Gini coefficient of 0.476 by quintile group) and, although public social spending affects total disposable income and its distribution among primary income quintiles —making it possible to assess both its impact on income deconcentration and its relative redistributive effectiveness— its effects in terms of primary income redistribution are limited.[11] As a result, Latin America has the world's worst record for socio-economic inequalities. According to the measurements used (see the methodological note at the end of this chapter), the total of social spending items reduces income concentration by 0.064. This means that income concentration, including public social spending transfers, is reduced only slightly (to a Gini coefficient of 0.412).

4. Social welfare spending and anti-poverty programmes

In accordance with the reduced redistributive effect of public social spending, the authorities in the region continue to be concerned at the persistence of large pockets of poverty and numbers of people who are left out of the benefits of economic growth.

On the basis of experiences with social investment funds —the purpose of which was to finance public investments in small projects identified, requested and executed, fully or in part, by local groups of poor people— and of social protection networks —which served as emergency programmes to overcome the impacts of crises— the authorities are now promoting what are known as conditional transfer programmes.

These programmes, implemented in Latin America in recent years, use social welfare programmes not only to alleviate poverty but also to combat its intergenerational reproduction by supporting families' investments in education, health and nutrition. The aim of the conditional transfers is to produce the incentives needed to maintain and increase investment in human capital among poor individuals and families (ECLAC, 2000).

(a) Characteristics

Outstanding among their main characteristics is the fact that they are multidimensional interventions, combining increased monetary incomes in the short term with the goal of building human capital in at least one of its dimensions. The differences lie in the dimensions selected for intervention (mainly education, health and nutrition) and their combination, in the conduct of supply-related interventions, in order to ensure the provision of quality services, and in the level of coordination of transfers with general social welfare mechanisms.

[11] The public social spending items which have the greatest redistributive impact, given their progressiveness and their effect on primary income, are education and health care. Those which contribute the least to reducing inequality are, of course, social security and housing expenditure. Nonetheless, in terms of relative redistributive effectiveness, the expenditure which proportionally produces the greatest primary income redistribution is social welfare, followed by health care. Table II.6 details this information in relation to Latin America as a whole and each of the countries.

The formula for calculating the value and structure of the transfers varies among the different countries implementing conditional transfer programmes. In the case of programmes with education components, in some countries the transfers cover the direct costs of sending children to school (such as enrolment, transport and supplies) and the opportunity cost resulting from the loss of income resulting from the decision to send them to school instead of work; this is the case in Jamaica and Mexico. In low-income countries, the transfers generally cover those costs partially (Rawlings and Rubio, 2003).

The new transfer programmes consider the family as the basic intervention unit and allocate a significant role to women as the direct recipients and managers of the transfers within the family group (Villatoro, 2005a). The policy of delivering transfers to women appears to be a good approach from the viewpoint of the use of funds, since women are more efficient than men in managing the financial aid.

The sustainability of financing systems for conditional transfer programmes has become critically important, since many of these initiatives —which initially were of a temporary nature— now constitute permanent components of the poverty reduction strategies of some countries in the region. The available information, however, suggests that transfer programmes targeting the poorest sectors are subject to considerable budgetary vulnerability. The evidence shows that many welfare programmes are being financed wholly or partially through external borrowing, which represents a risk for their medium-term financial viability and restricts their independence in terms of the design and flexibility of their implementation (Villatoro, 2005b).

These programmes have become very significant. There are three different types, depending on the breadth of their coverage: those which reach over 20% of the population (Brazil and Mexico); those which cover between 6% and 10% (Chile, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Honduras and Jamaica); and those where the proportion is under 6% (see table II.2).

As for their impact on poverty, conditional transfer programmes have achieved mixed results. In some cases they have narrowed the poverty gap which affects poor families, and in others they have alleviated the consequences of economic crises. There is some doubt as to whether they can enable recipients to move above the poverty line, although the probability of this occurring will clearly depend on the amounts of transfers, the targeting of the programme and the absence of economic contractions (Villatoro, 2005c).

Furthermore, these programmes have made great contributions to the building of human capital. As for their educational impact, assessments have shown that conditional transfer programmes have positive impacts in both the short and medium terms, when indicators such as enrolment rates and school attendance, grade promotion and increases in the number of years of schooling are taken into account. There have also been favourable effects, although to a lesser degree, in terms of reducing child labour. The overall impact in terms of health and nutrition is positive: significant improvements have been observed in preventive health check-ups, access to health services and the use of outpatient care, as well as greater consumption of high-calorie and high-protein foodstuffs and a more varied diet (ECLAC, 2006c).

(b) The challenges of conditional transfer programmes

The following five aspects remain central to the debate on conditional transfer programmes: calculating the amount of monetary aid; monitoring the counterpart contributions; psychosocial components of the programme; programme exit criteria; and assessment and monitoring mechanisms.

Box II.3
EARLY CONDITIONAL TRANSFER PROGRAMMES

Conditional transfer programmes were pioneered by Brazil and Mexico, which are among the few countries in the region that had no social investment funds.

The first such programmes in Brazil appeared around 1995, with the Programa de Garantia de Renda Famíliar Mínima and the Programa Bolsa Famíliar para a Educação. By 2001 there were more cash transfer programmes, including the School Scholarship Programme, the Programme to Eradicate Child Labour (PETI), the Federal Minimum Income Programme, Bolsa Alimentação, Agente Jovem and Auxílio-Gás. Currently, the multisectoral Zero Hunger plan includes Cartão Alimentação, the Emergency Nutrition programme, a nutritional education programme, a workers' nutrition programme, anti-undernourishment initiatives and Bolsa Familia.

In Mexico, beginning in 1988, the authorities responded to high levels of poverty by creating a series of major social programmes which gave a distinctive character to the country's social policies. The first was the National Solidarity Programme (PRONASOL) (1989-1994). The problems that arose with that programme

Box II.3 (concluded)

and the social impact of the economic crisis which struck the country in 1994-1995 made it necessary to implement a substantial reform of its anti-poverty programmes. This gave rise to the basic food basket programme for family well-being, based on monetary transfers using an electronic card to be used at food shops affiliated with the programme; the condition was that pregnant women, breastfeeding mothers and children aged under five must attend check-ups at health centres. In 1997, on the basis of that programme, the Education, Health and Nutrition Programme (initially "Progresa", now "Oportunidades") was created. It was designed to deal with targeting problems and other shortcomings of the instruments which had so far been used in combating poverty, improving the supply of health and education services (particularly in the most disadvantaged areas) and promoting their use by means of cash transfers.

Source: Rolando Franco and Ernesto Cohen, "Los programas de transferencias con corresponsabilidad en América Latina. Similitudes y diferencias", *Transferencias con corresponsabilidad. Una mirada latinoamericana*, R. Franco and E. Cohen (comps.), Mexico City, Latin American Faculty of Social Sciences (FLACSO), 2006.

A crucial issue in the design of conditional transfer programmes in the field of education is determining the amount of monetary aid. Methods differ considerably from one programme to another. Perhaps the optimal way of setting an amount to promote school attendance and the eradication of child labour is to estimate it on the basis of the opportunity cost of sending children to school. If we consider that that cost may increase with the children's age and may also be higher in the case of girls, the reasonable choice would be to establish larger transfers for adolescent girls and girl children, as is the case in the Oportunidades programme (Villatoro, 2005c).

Another important challenge is the monitoring of counterpart contributions. In practice, they are not monitored under all conditional transfer programmes, although they are crucial to the thinking behind such programmes. This omission is due to the fact that the monitoring would make managing the programme more expensive and it is difficult to implement, may lead to problems if an attempt is made to withdraw the transfer from those who fail to comply, and may incite those whose job it is to certify compliance to levy a charge for issuing the certificate (Franco and Cohen, 2006).

Studies conducted within the PETI and Oportunidades programmes showed that families continued to attach only limited value to education and did not believe that child labour was harmful for their children's future opportunities. This shows the importance of complementary psychosocial interventions which seek to change such perceptions (World Bank, 2001; González de la Rocha y Escobar, 2002).

Exit strategy is also important. Disconnection between the programme and a recipient family may occur for three reasons: (i) When it is proved that the family should not be benefiting, because of its income; (ii) When it fails to comply with counterpart contributions, or (iii) When the maximum period of connection, if any, is completed. Nonetheless, disconnection should take place at a time when the families do not need the transfers. There appears to be a contradiction between the period of connection to the programme, for which a limit is generally set (four years in the longest programmes), and the time needed for the accumulation of the human capital needed to fulfil the programme's goals.

The wide variety of periods set by different programmes suggests that they are not based on criteria resulting from any theoretical exercise or empirical test as to when the incentives or psychosocial support begin to take effect. It seems that the timing of exit from the programme may have been determined more by financial criteria than on the basis of whether the interventions have yielded results during the selected period (Franco and Cohen, 2006).

Lastly, there is still a need to improve the development and application of systems for the monitoring and assessment of results as a basis for effective programme management. and to conduct comparative evaluations to determine the relative efficiency of various programmes and policies (Rawlings and Rubio, 2003).

Box II.4
CONDITIONAL TRANSFERS IN CUBA: A COMPREHENSIVE IMPROVEMENT COURSE FOR YOUNG PEOPLE

The comprehensive improvement course for young people is one of the programmes that have the greatest social impact, owing to its high level of popular acceptance and the positive changes it has brought about in the behaviour of the young people who have taken part. Its goal is to encourage young people aged between 18 and 30 to return to work or to full-time schooling when they have dropped out for some reason. The goal is for them to be reintegrated into the appropriate level of education (primary, middle school or high school) until they reach higher education or return to work. The young people involved receive a monthly income of between 80 and 150 pesos, or 36% to 67% of the minimum wage for Cuban workers, depending on the year of study and the educational level they have attained.

This programme has proved to be a good choice for young people who have dropped out of education or work, since it plays a positive preventive role which contributes to improving the social climate.

This initiative was implemented initially in 2001 in the eastern part of the country, and was then extended to all the provinces thanks to its high level of social acceptance. The teaching takes place in functioning educational establishments, so that existing facilities and audio-visual and computer equipment can be used. Resources are allocated for the printing of teaching materials, classes are given on the educational channel of Cuban television, and other materials are used, especially the courses of the University for All programme. The necessary books are available from the establishments' school libraries and at the information centres in the various parts of the country.

Attendance at these courses is high, and the lessons take place five evenings a week. The student retention rate is about 90%. When students drop out, it is mostly because they have found jobs, are entering active military service or transferring to other courses.

Annual enrolments in this programme have remained above 100,000 students since 2002. In the academic year 2006-2007, the number rose to over 110,000. All those graduating from this programme have the opportunity to move on to university studies.

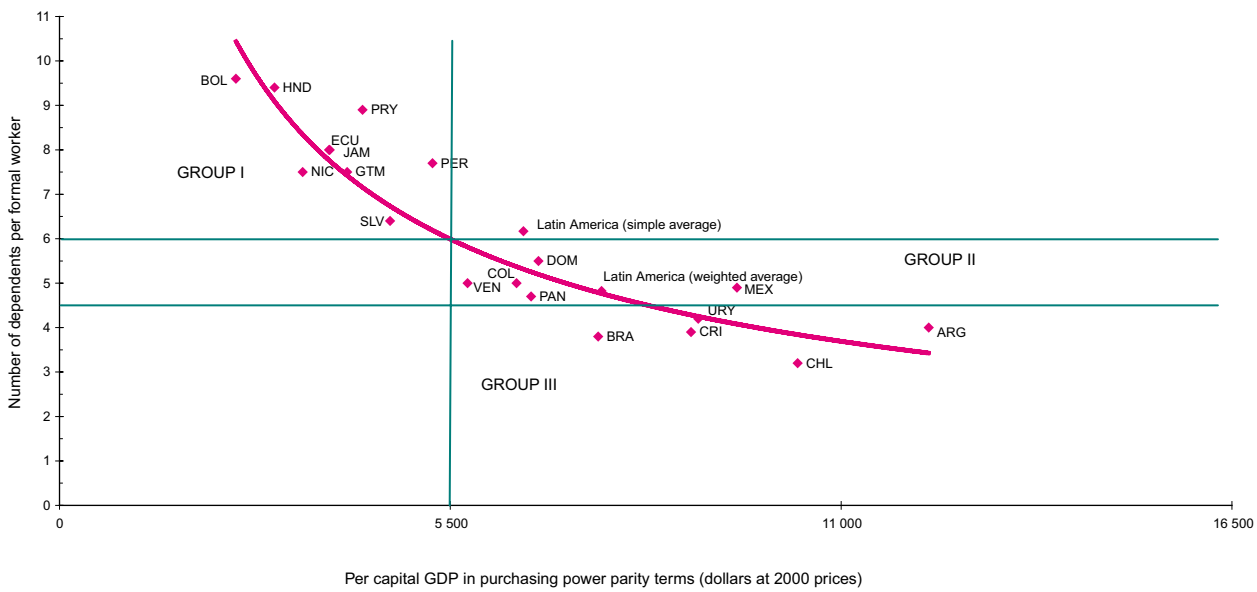
Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information from the Educational Department of the Ministry of Education and the National Statistical Office, *Anuario estadístico. Cuba 2006*, Havana.

C. Public social spending by groups of countries: towards a composite typology

Public social spending policies have to take into account the constraints imposed by inequalities and budgetary restrictions. Grouping the countries of Latin America and the Caribbean according to the maturity of their labour markets and their stage of demographic transition is helpful in that task. The former affects the number of workers contributing to the financing of a contributory social insurance system; the latter determines the level and the structure of dependents.

One aid to understanding the challenges of social policy funding is a new indicator of dependency between citizens employed in the formal sector and the rest of the population.[12] The purpose of this indicator is to assess the potential capacity of the social protection systems paid for by formal workers through contributory mechanisms to meet the needs of those people who do not have direct access to that type of social security. The indicator makes it possible to define countries according to their level of development and the stages they have reached in terms of demographic transition and maturity of the labour market (see figure II.12).

Figure II.12
NUMBER OF DEPENDENTS PER FORMAL WORKER AND PER CAPITA GDP



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries and World Bank, "World Development Indicators" [online database] http://devdata.worldbank.org/dataonline/

[12] Ratio of children under 15 years of age, older adults, non-workers, the unemployed and informal workers to every worker employed by the formal sector. See ECLAC/SEGIB, 2006.

A first group of countries can be defined, with per capita GDP of under US$ 5,500 (purchasing power parity (PPP) of 2000), that are at an early stage in terms of demographic transition and labour market maturity. Such countries have high levels of dependency for every formal worker, with needs mainly concentrated among young people and the underemployed. The second group of countries has surpassed the development threshold of per capita GDP equivalent to US$ 5,500, but they are still trailing in the demographic transition and maturing of their labour markets, with between 4.5 and 6 dependents per formal worker. In these countries, the needs of young people remain paramount although they are less acute, while non-workers and the underemployed make up a larger proportion. Like the second group, the third group of countries has exceeded the US$ 5,500 threshold for per capita GDP; but it has between 3 and 4.5 dependents for every formal worker. The burden of young people's needs remains high, and those of the underemployed, non-workers and older adults are also considerable (see table II.3).

This typology shows six characteristics of the implicit social contracts that govern the allocation of expenditure. First, transition societies in group II have needs that are increasingly similar to those of group III, but with a spending structure that remains more like group I, with a marked lack of spending on social security and welfare (see table II.3, columns 7 and 8).

Second, irrespective of their level of development, all countries allocate a relatively similar percentage of public social spending to health spending. Spending on housing, however, falls in proportion with the rise in a country's level of development. Health spending represents around 20% of public social expenditure. Social spending on housing, on the other hand, differs according to a country's level of development and dependency ratio (see table II.3, column 8).

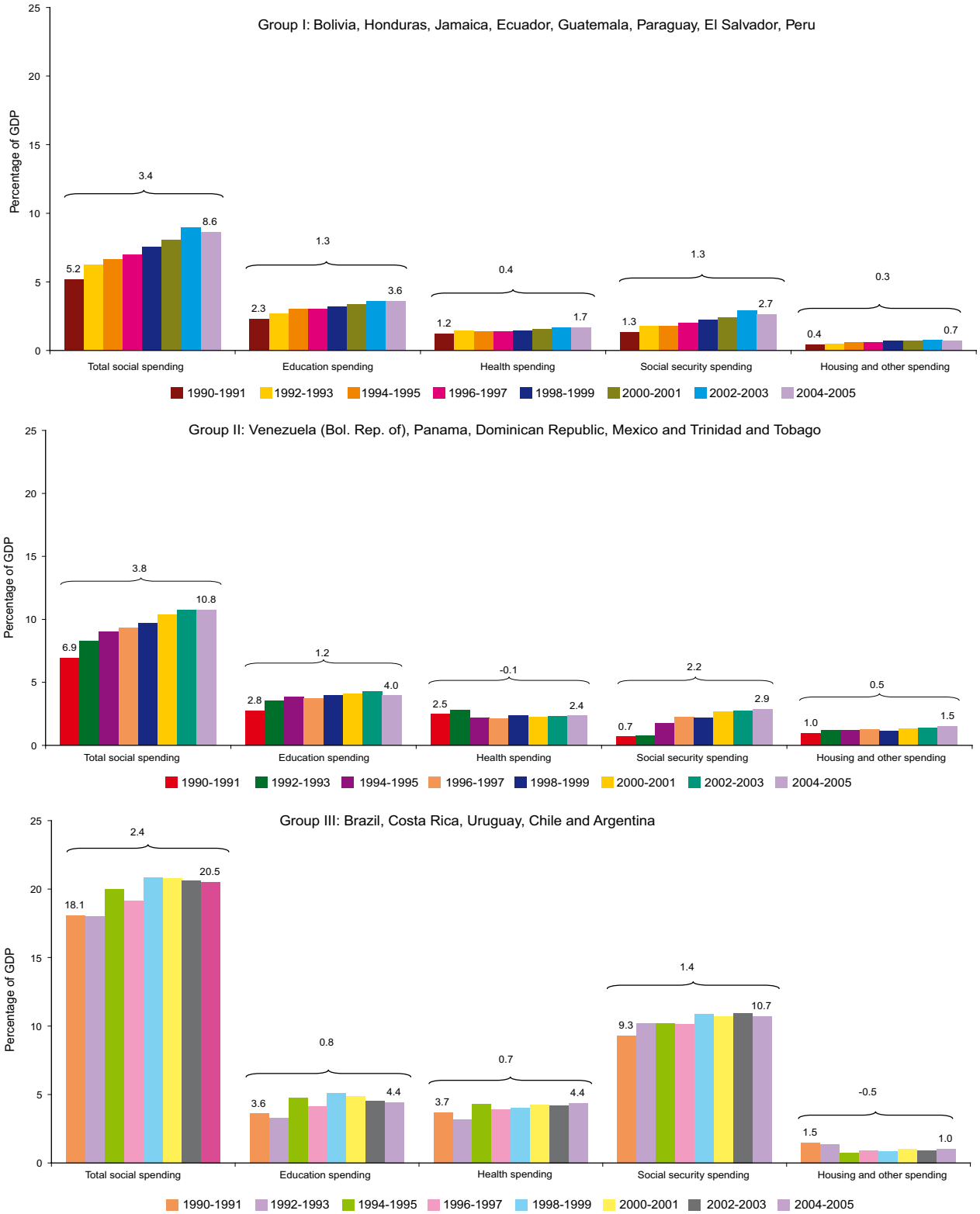
Third, the biggest contrast in the groups of countries is between the allocation of resources for education and those for social security and welfare (see table II.3, column 8). The countries in groups I and II allocate the largest percentage of their spending to education, between 30% and 40%, and the remainder to a combination of social security and welfare and housing (especially the former). In the countries of group III, spending on housing represents a mere 5% of the total, whereas they allocate over 50% to social security and welfare.

Fourth, the less developed countries made more effort to increase the public funding channelled into social policy between 1990-1991 and 2004-2005 (see figure II.13). In all countries, the main priorities are social security and welfare, followed by education. This represents growing concern over the financing of retirement and pension systems as well as the priority governments attach to improving the coverage and quality of education. Despite this progress, groups I and II still lag far behind in spending on social security, welfare and health in relation to the levels of expenditure of the countries in group III with their ageing societies.

Fifth, all three groups of countries tend to manage public social spending on a completely procyclical basis (see figure II.14). This relates to the significance of wage expenditure in the countries, as well as the need to maintain macroeconomic and fiscal balances and manage country risk. Only the group I countries display a countercyclical trend, owing to the nature of official development assistance (ODA) and of the aid they receive in response to natural disasters.

Sixth, the increased social security coverage observed in countries which are more developed and more advanced in the ageing process implies that greater resources are devoted to programmes which have no notable impact on reducing inequality. Nonetheless, as countries increase social security coverage, the regressiveness of spending on such programmes diminishes (see table II.3, column 9).

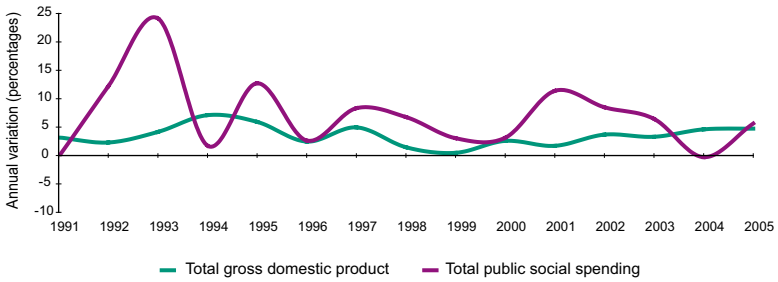
Figure II.13
TRENDS IN PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING BY GROUPS OF COUNTRIES, PERCENTAGES OF GDP



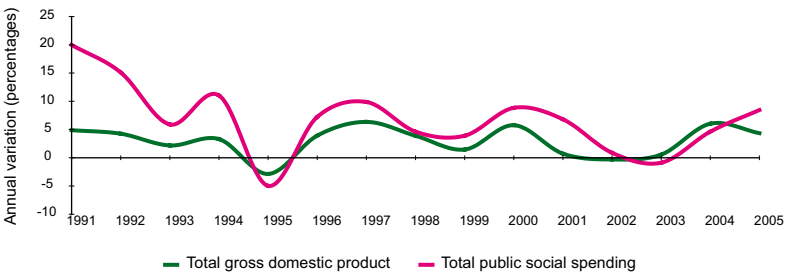
Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information available in the Commission's social expenditure database.

Figure II.14
SPENDING TRENDS OVER THE BUSINESS CYCLE

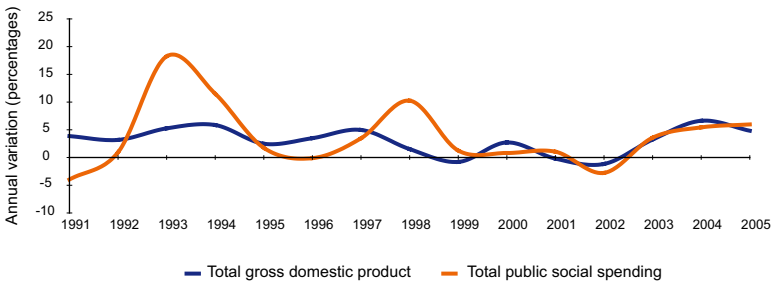
Group I : Annual variation of total public social spending and total gross domestic product



Group II : Annual variation of total public social spending and total gross domestic product



Group III : Annual variation of total public social spending and total gross domestic product



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information available in the Commission's social expenditure database.

D. Public spending and the social contract

To comply with legal requirements for economic, social and cultural rights, social contracts need to overcome constraints relating to budgeting and inequity, perhaps by allocating greater resources to education and health in order to ensure education for children and young people in the countries of group I, to family support in order to reconcile gainful employment and care work in the home in the countries of group II, and initiatives to provide basic guarantees in the area of pensions in the countries of group III. They will also need to make progress in reducing the procyclical nature of the management of public social spending.

The societies of Latin America cannot ignore the challenges relating to changes in their risk profiles and the characteristics of public social spending. Social changes are forcing the authorities to design viable strategies to meet new needs without having satisfied the earlier ones. They must continually seek solutions to the problems resulting from current patterns and modalities in public social spending and their relationship to the population's need profiles and social risks.

A number of reforms have been introduced in the region to close the gap between social needs and the funding of social welfare systems. The creation of mortgage management sectors has resulted in a gradual handover of housing provision from the public to the private sector, with financing now in the hands of families supported by State subsidies. The same has happened with education in the most developed countries, where private supply has grown to meet the demands of high-income groups. Many countries have changed the funding and provision of social security and health benefits which are based on workers' contributions to social security systems.

In light of the constraints affecting the countries, it may be useful to measure the authorities' willingness to finance social spending. This involves dividing sectoral social spending among the target population and, once the "spending per target population" has been determined, expressing that spending as a percentage of per capita GDP.[13] This calculation shows that the willingness to allocate resources to education is very similar in the three groups of countries (the simple average of spending per minor aged under 15 years varies from 12% to 16% of per capita GDP among the three groups. The final result depends, however, on each country's level of development. "Spending by target population" allocated to education is only US$ 202 (US$ 476 at purchasing power parity (PPP) of 2000) in group I, compared with US$ 598 (US$ 977 at PPP of 2000) and US$ 902 (US$ 1,557 at PPP of 2000) in groups II and III, respectively.[14] The conclusion is that the countries in group I need to overcome a huge gap in the funding of education for children and young people (see table II.4 and figure II.15).

It is noteworthy that, despite rising numbers of working-age adults and older adults, the countries' spending structures are unchanged. While the structure in the countries of group II is not changing in relation to that in group I, in the countries of group III there is a considerable rise in willingness to fund social security and welfare and, to a lesser extent, health care. Comparing the "spending per target population" on health with per capita GDP, the willingness to fund that expenditure in the countries of group

[13] This refers to total sectoral spending divided among the target population. The following criteria have been used for this analysis: young people aged under 15 years in the case of education, people aged 15 and above in the case of social security and welfare, and the total population in the case of health.

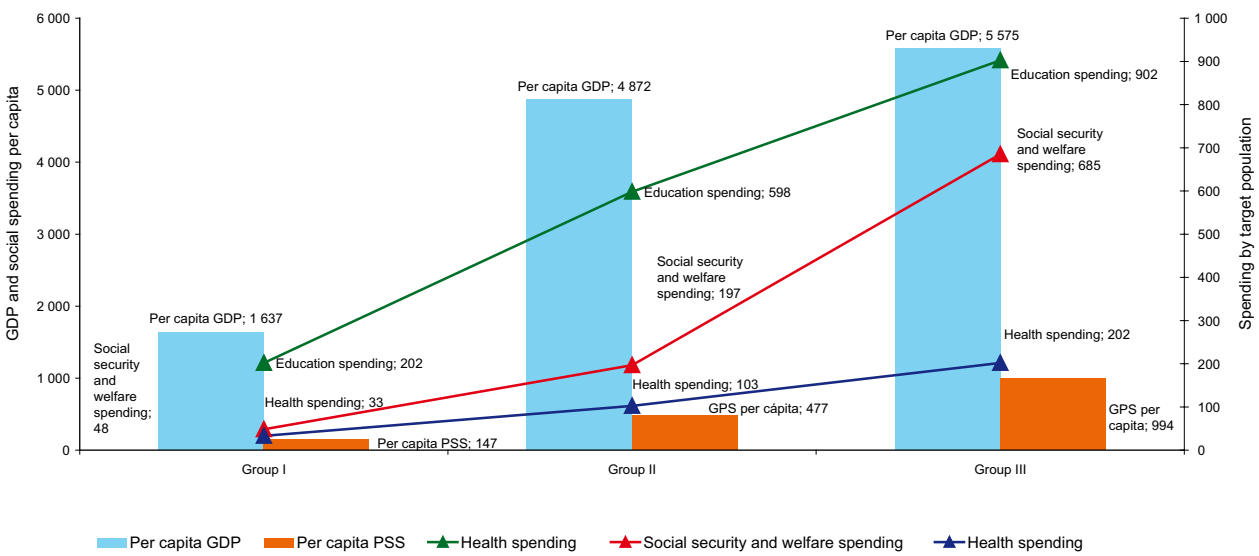
[14] In all cases, these levels of spending by target population are very low compared with international standards, so public education cannot be considered as a factor of upward social mobility. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) recommends that 5% of GDP should be dedicated to education spending, but the figures analysed here reveal much lower percentages.

I is equivalent to 2.3% of per capita GDP. The percentage is 2% of per capita GDP in the countries of group II, but almost double that amount (3.7% of per capita GDP) in the group III countries. The gaps are much wider in respect of social security and welfare spending. Expenditure in that area is equivalent to 3% and 4% of per capita GDP in groups I and II, and 12.3% of per capita GDP in group III. Once again, the levels of development attained by the countries affect the final amount of spending allocated per person in the target group. In dollars at 2000 prices, health spending is US$ 33 in group I, three times that amount at US$ 103 in group II, and almost seven times more in group III, at US$ 202. The gaps are much wider in the areas of social security and welfare, where expenditure amounts to US$ 48 in group I, four times that amount at US$ 197 in group II, but 14 times higher in group III, standing at US$ 685 at 2000 prices.

These gaps sum up the objective factors relating to differences in levels of development, stages in demographic transition and the maturity of labour markets in the different countries, which ultimately affect the coverage and quality of social protection services in public health, social security and welfare. These in turn reflect the constraints on the authorities' attempts to promote access to social protection services in order to provide highly diverse populations with entitlement to economic, social and cultural rights. The social contract must assume responsibility for these issues and lay the foundations for reforming social protection systems and promoting universal access to the corresponding services.

The above analysis reveals three characteristics of implicit social contracts (see figure II.15 and table II.4). First, with the exception of countries eligible for international development assistance or, incidentally, disaster relief, the spending is restricted by each country's level of development, and development gaps therefore tend to be reflected in social protection gaps. Second, despite the priority allocated by the three groups of countries to the education of young people and the health of the population, the inclination to give greater protection to those sectors increases with the level of development. Third, social security and welfare programmes to serve other vulnerable groups (employment, ageing, poverty alleviation) become more significant as the level of development rises.

Figure II.15
LEVELS OF PER CAPITA GDP AND SOCIAL SPENDING BY TARGET POPULATION
(United States dollars)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information available in the Commission's social expenditure database and population estimates by the Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) - Population Division of ECLAC.

In addition to these characteristics, evolution over time shows that public social spending continues to be implemented with a strong procyclical bias. The region's growing integration into world markets has led to expenditure policies being linked to the business cycle in order to avoid jeopardizing the countries' access to credit markets. In a way which is contrary to the nature of a social protection programme, spending increases during boom periods and

falls during recessions; thus, it fails to act as a compensating mechanism for groups which are vulnerable to the business cycle. To rectify this trend, major agreements are needed on the responsibilities of public finances in the course of the cycle. One clear exception is the establishment of policies for fiscal surpluses during periods of strong growth, giving greater stability to social spending during periods of economic slowdown, as in the case of Chile.

Box II.5
COUNTERCYCLICAL POLICIES IN CHILE

The countercyclical role played by public social spending in Chile in recent years is the result of the implementation of a fiscal rule based on the preservation of a structural surplus of 1% of GDP. Its application has brought stability to the conduct of public policies which, together with the maintenance of the necessary fiscal equilibria, has guided the expectations of economic agents in relation to the direction of fiscal policy.

The application of this rule has given two characteristics to social policies: on one hand, stability, and on the other, the capacity for countercyclical action and credibility as a medium-term signal. By stabilizing levels of public spending, the structural-surplus rule has made it possible to continue increasing public social and investment spending, and this has given legitimacy to social policy. Its countercyclical nature has made it possible to implement new programmes in the face of periods of economic slowdown without harming the fiscal equilibria which affect views of country risk.

This rule has laid the foundations for other fiscal policy modernizations in relation to measures designed to strengthen the management of public finances using an approach which is intertemporal as well as countercyclical. This involves, for example, improved measurement, monitoring and management of contingent liabilities and their medium-term effects, as was demonstrated in the analysis which led to the recent pension-system reform.

Source: Alberto Arenas and Julio Guzmán, "Política fiscal y protección social: sus vínculos en la experiencia chilena", *Financiamiento del desarrollo series*, Nº 136 (LC/L.1930-P/E), Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), Santiago, Chile. United Nations publication, Sales no. S.03.II.G.86.

The low levels of service provision mentioned above show that public social spending is still insufficient, so that families have to make huge efforts to deal with their needs and social risks, whether through family solidarity or out-of-pocket payments. In a number of countries, reforms to social protection systems have expanded the use of individual social protection contracts at market prices, ensuring efficiency through agreements linking the benefits to the participants' counterpart contributions. In order to combine efficiency and solidarity, this system requires improved regulation and the use of non-contributory financing. These issues should be the basis for discussions on a new contract for social cohesion, since the current formula leaves many risks uncovered and requires corrections to redistribute resources in favour of the most vulnerable groups. The correct combination of households' individual efforts and the input of State entities should become the nucleus of a social contract.[15] What is needed is an agreement which takes into account the ways in which public and private funding can be combined, using both contributory and non-contributory systems, and identifies priorities for the principal investments in the social field (ECLAC, 2006c).

The agenda should make a distinction between the three groups of countries. The countries should take account of the increasing need to take a countercyclical approach to the management of expenditure and should include different priorities in their respective social contracts.[16] Those in group I are still lagging in terms of educational coverage for young people and the health of their populations. Overcoming this deficiency will be the basis for achieving gradual improvements in equity. The countries in groups II and III have more scope for considering policies to reconcile paid employment with the needs of the home and —in cases where progress is recorded in the privatization of social protection systems— ensuring explicit minimum guarantees of a universal nature. In a context of severe budgetary

[15] In the absence of a social contract, the region has experimented with proposals designed to strengthen the market and reduce the role of the State, which have proved to be exclusive and costly. In contrast, the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the Ibero-American Secretariat (SEGIB) have suggested the need for an agreement to rebuild public social policies and improve well-being.

[16] See the recent ECLAC/SEGIB 2007 publication.

constraints and considerable levels of inequality, the countries of the region should apply selective targeting of benefits to ensure universal access to minimum standards of well-being. This should constitute —for some time to come— the criterion for strengthening integrated solidarity in social protection systems, combining contributory and non-contributory financing mechanisms.

Box II.6
UPDATING OF SOCIAL SPENDING

For this edition of the *Social Panorama of Latin America*, updated data have been obtained for public social spending to 2005, to match the global and sectoral series published in earlier editions. Although data for 2006 were received from 13 of the 21 countries considered, the decision was made not to publish them because of their provisional, estimated or incomplete nature. Data updating took place in the first half of 2007 and ended in mid-September.

In most cases data were collected on central government budget execution, and information was also available in several cases on the actual spending of bodies having an independent budgetary setup, local governments and public non-financial corporations. Although differences in institutional coverage make comparisons between countries difficult, the widest available coverage for each country has been published except when to do so would create significant constraints in constructing a series for the period 1990-2005. This is because the Commission's essential interest is in establishing, to the extent possible, the greatest quantity of public social spending in order to represent the efforts being made by States in this area.

The following table classifies countries according to the institutional coverage of the social spending series used.

Institutional coverage	Country
Total public sector = NFPS + FPS	Costa Rica
Non-financial public sector = GG + NFPE	Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia and Peru
General government = CG + LG	…
Central government = GCB + AA	Chile, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Ecuador,a/ El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Jamaica, Panama, Trinidad and Tobago, Uruguay
Central government budget	Mexico, Nicaragua, Paraguay and Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)

Where:

AA: agencies with budgetary autonomy; LG: local government; NFPE: non-financial public enterprises; FPS: financial public sector.

Since several countries have only very recently adopted the classification system of the *Manual on Government Finance Statistics 2001* of the International Monetary Fund, harmonized with the System of National Accounts (SNA) of 1993, the series for 1990-2005 is not always compatible at the subfunction level. For this reason, only the series for total public social spending has been published, at the level of major functions or sectors. In certain particular cases, the change has meant a lack of information in the complete series or in certain functions (Bolivia from 1990 to 1994, El Salvador from 1990 to 1992, and in the case of Trinidad and Tobago the social welfare —social security— function from 1990 to 1999). In the case of other countries it was not possible to construct the complete series because of insufficient information relating to intermediate periods: Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago from 1997 to 1999. In Cuba, there was a change in the base year for GDP (1997) and the 1989-1995 series was retropolated at 1997 prices and structures, an adjustment which had not yet, at the time this edition went to press, been implemented in respect of the GDP series in dollars at 2000 prices and the implicit deflators needed for that transformation. As a result, per capita social spending figures expressed in dollars are available only for the period 2000-2005, valued according to the country's official exchange rate. In Peru, whereas the 1990-1999 series corresponds to the central government budget, the series for 2000 onwards includes the non-financial public sector. As for public social spending, the differences between the two types of coverage between the years 2000 and 2003 —for which common information is available— average 1.1% of GDP and are growing. Lastly, in the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, the series relates to agreed public social spending (the budgetary law and its modifications at 31 December each year) rather than actual expenditure. Since it is a federal State, the institutional coverage of data for that country relates to the central government budget, and the published figures may underestimate total social spending to a greater extent than in other countries reporting that coverage.

Box II.6 (continued)

The same is true of Mexico, but the available information on the highly-decentralized execution of its spending show that the figures should be studied more carefully than in other cases because the underestimation of social spending levels may be quite considerable (see ECLAC 2006a for some examples of the centralized and decentralized execution of social spending).

As in earlier editions, the *Social Panorama of Latin America 2007* presents social spending data on the basis of two-yearly averages. The indicators shown are for overall public social spending and spending by function or sector —education, health, social security and welfare, and housing, sanitation and other functions not included in the previous categories— as percentages of GDP, in dollars per capita and as percentages of total public spending. In the case of this last indicator, official information from the countries on total public spending is used, but these figures may differ from those based on other classification systems (such as the economic or administrative classification of spending) because interest payments on public debt may or may not be included and different methodological options may be applied to the classification of expenditure.

The figures used for the calculation of percentages are in current prices for each year and each country. These proportions are then applied to the GDP series in dollars at 2000 prices so that per capita social spending can be derived, expressed in dollars. This may result in certain variations in relation to the data in constant currency reported by the countries, which depend on the degree of exchange-rate appreciation or depreciation implicit in the official parity of each country's currency in relation to 2000, and also on the population data on which the per capita calculations are based.

Figures at current prices on overall and social public spending, and the sectoral breakdown of the latter, are official data provided by the corresponding government bodies. Depending on the country, these may be directorates, departments, sections or units for planning, budgeting or social policy within the ministries of the treasury, finance or the economy. In addition, information on budgetary execution was obtained from the countries' general accounting offices or treasury departments, and occasionally from central banks, national statistical institutes, and national social and economic information systems.

Gross domestic product in constant dollars at 2000 prices is derived from official figures contained in the *Statistical Yearbook for Latin America and the Caribbean* (ECLAC, 2004c), and population figures are taken from projections by the Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) - Population Division of ECLAC.

Measuring the redistributive impact of public social expenditure

The measurement of the distribution of social spending and its impact on primary income distribution, and that of the payment of direct taxes and levies affecting households, present a number of problems.

1. There are few instruments that can be used to make that measurement and relate it to the various characteristics of the households, particularly primary income. The main tools for that purpose are surveys of living conditions in various forms and surveys of household income and expenditure.
2. The various surveys and the corresponding reports tend to differ in respect of how primary and (total) disposable income are measured: some measure households' income, others their spending and in some cases their consumption is measured. Furthermore, the figures contained in the reports may be expressed at the household level (total or per capita income) or at the individual level, as a percentage of the total income of the entire universe or as average values in the country's currency.
3. Such instruments do not tend to allow the "primary income" construct to be elaborated in the same way as for national accounts, which do not take into account the payment of taxes and levies. For surveys, what is usually declared is net income or expenditure, with income taxes and social security and health contributions already discounted.
4. It is not possible to measure all transfers, monetary or in kind, and the latter tend to be valued using methods of imputation according to the average amount of the benefits or figures from fiscal accounts. In some cases, this may lead to underestimation of the amount of the transfers, and in others, to its overestimation.
5. Transfers are generally valued at factor cost (the cost to the State of making the transfers), which may include indirect social spending (administration, transport and other costs) in addition to the actual transfers; the valuation is not necessarily equivalent to the alternative cost of obtaining the services at market prices, so this could be considered as an underestimation of the impact of social spending.

The supply of information in this regard generally comes from national studies specifically oriented towards this issue and based on household surveys, and containing data for only one year. The bibliography of this chapter lists the studies which have been used on this occasion.

Measurements for analysing the redistributive effect

There is a series of conventional measurements of the degree of progressiveness or regressiveness of public social spending, its impact in terms of improving or worsening income distribution, its contribution to each item of social spending and the degree of relative sectoral effectiveness in reducing inequalities according to the volume of resources involved.

One of the most widely used indicators is the Gini coefficient, which measures the bias, or degree of concentration, of income. Similarly, it is used for evaluating the orientation of taxation

Box II.6 (concluded)

and public spending. The Gini coefficient varies between the values -1 and 1, where 1 represents maximum concentration (and maximum regressiveness in the distribution of income, taxation or public spending) and -1 maximum progressiveness (of taxation or public spending).

The formula used to obtain the Gini coefficient of concentration is:

$$\underset{i=0}{\overset{N}{G}} = 1 - \sum (\delta Y_{i-1} + \delta Y_i) \times (\delta X_{i-1} - \delta X_i)$$

where σX and σY are the cumulative percentages of *X* (population) and *Y* (income or public spending), respectively. N is the number of percentiles used to divide the population (for example, into quintiles or deciles). For a given distribution of income or public spending, as the number of comparison groups is reduced, the concentration coefficient diminishes. In this chapter, the concentration of income and public-spending has been calculated by quintile (this is generally referred to as a quasi-Gini). These calculations may not coincide with those published in the respective national reports, the analyses for which were in many cases conducted using microdata.

While the calculation of the progressiveness (or regressiveness) of social spending is based only on the concentration coefficient (CC) for spending, the measurement of the progressiveness of spending in relation to income distribution is also derived from the income concentration coefficient (Gini). In 1986, Kakwani proposed a simple measurement known as the relative concentration coefficient or Kakwani index (Ps), whose values vary between -2 and 1. The index is negative when spending is progressive in relation to income distribution, and positive when spending is regressive in relation to it.

$$Ps = CC - Gini_i$$

Where $Gini_i$ is the distribution of primary income. To disaggregate the impact of each item of public social spending on the trend in income concentration, the following formula was used:

The change in income concentration

(a) $$\Delta Gini = Gini_f - Gini_i$$

Where $Gini_f$ is income distribution after State transfers (total disposable income).

b) $$\Delta Gini = \frac{Ps \times \gamma}{1 + \gamma}$$

Where γ is the proportion of financial assistance in total primary income. Given that $Ps = CC - Gini_i$, then

(c) $$\Delta Gini = \frac{(CC - Gini_i) \times \gamma}{1 + \gamma}$$

This identity may be used both for social spending and for each item *j* (since $Gini_{fj}$ is the change in the Gini which produces item *j*). Lastly, the relative effectiveness coefficient (REC) is used. It corresponds to the ratio of the weight of each item as a proportion of total social spending to its weight in the total Gini variation.

$$REC = \frac{\Delta Gini_{fj} / \Delta Gini_f}{Item_j / \sum_{j=1}^{n} item_j}$$

Where *n* is the total of public social spending items.

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), *Social Panorama of Latin America 2005* (LC/G.2288-P), Santiago, Chile. United Nations Publication, Sales No. S.05.II.G.161, Nanak Kakwani, *Analyzing Redistribution Policies: A Study Using Australian Data,* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1986; Francisco Lasso, "Incidencia del gasto público social sobre la distribución del ingreso y la reducción de la pobreza," Lima, Misión para el diseño de una estrategia para la reducción de la pobreza y la desigualdad (MERPD), December 2004, unpublished.

[a] Corresponds to budgetary central government and evaluations of results from the Ecuadorian Social Security Institute. Results for the latter for 2005 are based on estimates.

Table II.1

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): INCIDENCE OF PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING BY INCOME QUINTILE AND CONCENTRATION COEFFICIENT [a]

(Percentage distribution and quasi-Gini)

	Income quintile [a]					Total	Quasi Gini	Sector [b]
	Quintile I	Quintile II	Quintile III	Quintile IV	Quintile V			
Argentina, 1998	21	19	19	21	20	100	-0,004	E, H, SS, W, HO, SAN, O
Argentina, 2003	29	22	19	17	14	100	-0,137	E, H, SS, W, HO, SAN, O
Bolivia, 2002	13	16	17	23	30	100	0,167	E, H, SS
Brazil, 1997	11	12	17	20	41	100	0,272	E, H, SS
Chile, 2006	43	28	18	7	4	100	-0,393	E, S, AS
Colombia, 2003	18	18	17	19	29	100	0,098	E, H, SS, W, HO, SAN, O
Costa Rica, 2004	21	19	17	17	26	100	0,027	E, H, SS, W
Ecuador, 1999	14	18	21	22	25	100	0,108	E, H, SS; W, O (not disaggregated)
El Salvador, 2002	23	23	23	19	12	100	-0,105	E, H
Guatemala, 2000	14	18	19	21	29	100	0,131	E, H, SS, W
Honduras, 2004	20	17	18	18	27	100	0,060	E, H, SS, W
Jamaica, 1997	29	26	21	17	7	100	-0,208	E
Jamaica, 2000	20	19	21	18	22	100	0,012	E
Mexico, 2002	17	18	19	23	23	100	0,066	E, H, SS, W, O
Nicaragua, 2005	19	20	21	21	20	100	0,011	E, H, W, HO, SAN, O
Panama, 2003	15	18	19	21	27	100	0,106	E, H, SS, W
Paraguay, 1998	21	20	19	20	11	100	0,009	E
Peru, 2004	9	12	17	21	40	100	0,284	E, H, SS, W
Dominican Republic, 1998	15	20	23	23	19	100	0,035	E
Uruguay, 1999	22	18	17	19	24	100	0,020	E, H, SS
Uruguay, 2003	21	18	16	18	27	100	0,044	E, H, SS

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of national studies.
[a] Per capita income, spending or consumption.
[b] E = education; H = health; SS = social security; W = welfare; HO = housing; SAN = sanitation; O = others.

Table II.2
CONDITIONAL TRANSFER PROGRAMMES IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN

Country	Name of conditional transfer programme	Start date	Objective	Target population
Argentina	Familias por la Inclusión Social	2004	Promote children's development, health and retention in the educational system and prevent social exclusion	Families with children aged under 19 and low-income pregnant women
Brazil	Bolsa Familia	2003	Reduce poverty and inequality in the short and long term	Families living in extreme poverty with per capita income less than US$ 28
Chile	Chile Solidario	2002	Provide integrated support to families living in extreme poverty	Families living in extreme poverty
Colombia	Familias en Acción	2001	Proteger y promover la formación de capital humano en niños	Poor families with children (0 to 17 years)
Costa Rica	Superémonos	2000	Protect and promote human capital formation among children	Poor families with children aged 7-18 years who are attending school
Ecuador	Human Development Bond	2001	Promote access to and retention in education	Families living in extreme poverty
El Salvador	Red Solidaria	2005	Help to mitigate extreme poverty and hunger	Families living in extreme poverty with children aged under 15 years or pregnant women
Honduras	Programa de Asignación Familiar (PRAF)	1990	Increase human capital among children, persons with disabilities, pregnant women and older adults from poor families	Poor families with children, persons with disabilities, pregnant women and older adults
Jamaica	Programme of Advancement through Health and Education (PATH)	2002	Contribute to progress in education and health, reduce child labour and overcome poverty	Poor families with children, persons with disabilities, pregnant women and older adults
Mexico	Oportunidades	1997	Increase the capacities of families living in extreme poverty by means of human capital	Families below the poverty line
Nicaragua	"Mi Familia" social protection network	2000	Increase educational, nutritional and health-related human capital among children of poor families	Children aged 0-13 years (those over 6 must be enrolled at school)
Panama	Red Oportunidades	2006	Integrate families living in extreme poverty into the country's development dynamic	Families living in extreme poverty
Paraguay	Tekoporâ	2005	Contribute to reducing extreme poverty and increase human and social capital, improving living conditions	Families living in extreme poverty (rural population)
Peru	Juntos	2005	Promote the exercise of fundamental rights by coordinating the supply of services in health, nutrition and education	Families living in extreme poverty and social exclusion
Dominican Rep.	Tarjeta Solidaridad	2005	Reduce extreme poverty and hunger	Population living in extreme poverty
Uruguay	Ingreso Ciudadano, of the National Social Emergency Plan (PANES)	2005	Reduce extreme poverty and hunger	Population living in extreme poverty

Table II.2 (continued)
CONDITIONAL TRANSFER PROGRAMMES IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN

Country	Human capital component	Condition	Percentage of total population	Spending/ GDP	Funding source	Transfer amount	Targeting mechanism
Argentina	Education and health	Educational assistance and health check-ups	2.6% (2006)	0.12% (2006)	IDB	US$ 50 to 99 per month	Geographical targeting
Brazil	Education, health and nutrition	Educational assistance and health check-ups	22.2% (2006)	0.43% (2006)	Ministry of Social Development and Hunger Alleviation and World Bank	US$ 7 to 44 per month	
Chile	Education, health, nutrition, employment, identification, habitability and family development	Fulfilment of 53 minimum standards in education, health, identification, habitability, family development, monetary income and employment	6.45% (2005)	0.10% (2005)	Solidarity and Social Investment Fund of the Ministry of Planning and Cooperation	US$ 5.90 to 19.80 per month	Through the Social Welfare Card, formerly Social Action Committee (CAS) card
Colombia	Education, health and nutrition	Educational assistance (80%), assistance to health facilities for check-ups	4.2% (2006)	0.3% (2006)	World Bank	For education, US$ 6 to 12; for health, US$ 20	Beneficiary Identification System (SISBEN)
Costa Rica	Education and health	Educational assistance and health check-ups	1.12% (2002)	0.02% (2005)	World Bank	Food coupons	Target Population Identification System (SIPO) and identification card (FIS)
Ecuador	Education and health	Educational assistance and health check-ups	8.88% (2007)	0.49% (2006)	IDB, World Bank	US$ 30	System for Identification and Selection of Beneficiaries (SELBEN)
El Salvador	Education, health and nutrition	Educational assistance and health check-ups	24 106 families (2006)	0.023% (2006)	World Bank and IDB	US$ 15 to 30 per month	...
Honduras	Education, health and nutrition	Educational assistance (fewer than 7 days' absence), health check-ups	8.55% (2005)	0.022% (2006)	IDB and Government of Honduras	From US$ 3	....
Jamaica	Education, health and nutrition	Educational assistance (85%) and health check-ups	8.86% (2006)	0.267% (2005)	World Bank and Government of Jamaica	Education and health, US$ 9 each	...
Mexico	Education, health and nutrition	Educational assistance (85%) and health check-ups and workshops	25% (2005)	0.435% (2006)	World Bank and Government of Jamaica	US$ 10 to 63 per child per month	...
Nicaragua	Education, health and nutrition	Educational assistance, parents' meetings and health check-ups	2.7% (2005)	0.237% (2005)	IDB and Government of Nicaragua	Education, US$ 15 per month; health, US$ 28 per month	Geographical
Panama	Education, health and nutrition	Educational assistance and health check-ups<0}	12 000 families (2006)	US$ 46.9 million (project total)	World Bank and IDB	US$ 36 per month	...
Paraguay	Education, health, nutrition and social welfare	Educational assistance and health check-ups	0.65% (2006)	0.0026% (2006)	...	...	Geographical, then individual
Peru	Education, health, nutrition and human development	Educational assistance (85%) and health check-ups	3.6% (2006)	0.114% (2006)	Government of Peru and other sources	US$ 30 per month	Geographical, then individual

Table II.2 (concluded)
CONDITIONAL TRANSFER PROGRAMMES IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN

Dominican Republic	Education, health and nutrition	Educational assistance (85%) and health check-ups	8% (2005)	0.043% (2004)	...	"Comer es primero" programme, US$ 17; the school attendance programme ILAE, US$ 4.50	The single beneficiary identification system (SIUBEN)
Uruguay	Education, health and nutrition	Educational assistance and health check-ups	9.46% (2006)	0.394 (2006)	n/a	US$ 55 per household per month	n/a

Source: Ministry of Social Development, Argentina [online] www.desarrollosocial.gov.ar; Ministry of Social Development and Hunger Alleviation, Brazil [online] www.mds.gov.br/bolsafamilia; Ministry of Planning and Cooperation, Chile [online] www.chilesolidario.gov.cl; Presidency of the Republic, Colombia [online] www.accionsocial.gov.co; Joint Institute for Social Aid, Costa Rica [online] www.imas.go.cr; Social protection program, Ecuador [online] www.pps.gov.ec; Red Solidaria, El Salvador [online] www.redsolidaria.gov.sv, department of the Secretary of State to the Office of the President, Honduras [online] www.sdp.gob.hn and Ministry of Finance; Ministry of Finance and Planning, Jamaica [online] www.mof.gov.jm; Oportunidades [online] www.oportunidades.gob.mx and Secretariat of Social Development (SEDESOL), "Informe de rendición de cuentas. Oportunidades 2000-2006", "Oportunidades, un programa de resultados, 2007"; Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), "Nicaragua. Red de protección social, fase II (NI-0161). Informe de evaluación" [online] www.iadb.org/EXR/doc98/apr/ni1109s.pdf; Ana Fonseca, Los sistemas de protección social en América Latina: un análisis de las transferencias monetarias condicionadas, New York, Regional Bureau of Latin America and the Caribbean (RBLAC), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP); Department of Social Welfare, Paraguay [online] www.sas.gov.py; Juntos, Programa nacional de apoyo directo a los más pobres, Peru [online] www.juntos.gob.pe; Presidency of the Republic, Dominican Republic, "Programas de transferencias condicionadas de ingreso", December 2006, unpublished; Ministry of Social Development, Uruguay [online] www.mides.gub.uy; Presidency of the Eastern Republic of Uruguay, "Balance del Plan de Atención Nacional para Emergencia Social (PANES)" [online] www.presidencia.gub.uy.

Table II.3
TYPOLOGY OF COUNTRIES, BY CHALLENGES TO SOCIAL CONTRACT

	Per capita GDP (purchasing power parity in dollars at 2000 prices)	Per capita GDP (in dollars at 2000 prices)	Dependants per formal worker	Per capita social spending (purchasing power parity in dollars at 2000 prices)	Per capita social spending (in dollars at 2000 prices)	Composition of dependants per formal worker (percentages)		Structure of public social spending (percentages)		Concentration index	
Group I	2 000 - 5 500	800 - 2 800	6 a 10	230 - 480	90 - 290	Young people	42.4	Education	41.3	Education	-0.0866
						Older adults	8.3	Health	19.5	Health	0.0736
						Inactive	18.7	Social security and welfare	30.7	Social security and welfare	0.50404
						Unemployed or informally employed	30.6				-0.08883
						Total dependants	100	Housing and other	8.5	Housing and other	0.20611
						Percentage of formal workers [a]	31.7			Total public social spending	0.143
Group II [b]	> 5 500	> 2 800	4.5 a 6	500 - 1 210	200 - 845	Young people	38.7	Education	36.8	Education	0.11581
						Older adults	10.0	Health	21.9	Health	-0.07334
						Inactive	24.4	Social security and welfare	27.1	Social security and welfare	0.56832
						Unemployed or informally employed	26.9				-0.15359
						Total dependants	100	Housing and other	14.2	Housing and other	0.06679
						Percentage of formal workers [a]	45.9			Total public social spending	0.042
Group III			3 a 4.5	1 400 - 2 400	700 - 1 550	Young people	35.4	Education	21.6	Education	-0.13828
						Older adults	12.0	Health	21.3	Health	-0.19227
						Inactive	23.5	Social security and welfare	52.2	Social security	0.34885
						Unemployed or informally employed	29.1			Welfare	-0.48369
						Total dependants	100	Housing and other	4.9	Housing and other	-0.02647
						Percentage of formal workers [a]	54.2			Total public social spending	0.044

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of official information from the relevant countries, national reports, household surveys, population estimates from the Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) - Population Division of ECLAC and World Bank, World Development Indicators [online database] www.worldbank.org/data/onlinedatabases/onlinedatabases.html.

[a] Refers to people aged 15 to 59 employed in the formal sector in relation to total employed for that age group.

[b] The Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela and Mexico are classified in group II. Since they are federal countries, the available statistics refer only to central government.

Table II.4
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: ESTIMATED SPENDING BY TARGET POPULATION ON EDUCATION, SOCIAL SECURITY AND WELFARE AND HEALTH, BY GROUPS OF COUNTRIES, 2004-2005

Country	Per capita GDP	Per capita GDP	Dependants per formal worker	Per capita social spending	Total social spending	Education						Social security and welfare and employment						Health		
						Public social spending on education		Young people aged under 15 as % of pop. 2005	Spending per target population			Public social spending on social security and welfare		Persons aged 15 and over as % of pop. 2005	Spending per target population			Public spending on health		Spending/ population
									Percentage of per capita GDP	Amount spent per young person aged under 15					percentage of per capita GDP	Spending per person aged 15 and over				Per capita spending (purchasing power parity in dollars at 2000 prices)
	(purchasing power parity in dollars at 2000 prices)	(in dollars at 2000)	2002 [a]	(in dollars at 2000 prices)	Percentage of GDP	per capita (in dollars at 2000 prices)	Percentage of GDP			(purchasing power parity in dollars at 2000 prices)	(in dollars at 2000 prices)	per capita (in dollars at 2000 prices)	Percentage of GDP			(purchasing power parity in dollars at 2000 prices)	(in dollars at 2000)	per capita (in dollars at 2000 prices)	Percentage of GDP	
Grupo I																				
Bolivia	2 483	1 024	9.6	190	18.6	75	7.3	38.0	19.1	474	195	46	4.5	62.0	7.2	179	74	36	3.5	88
Honduras	3 025	1 032	9.4	120	11.6	79	7.7	39.8	19.3	583	199	3	0.3	60.2	0.4	13	5	37	3.5	106
Nicaragua	3 421	831	7.5	90	10.8	39	4.7	37.8	12.4	423	103			62.2				28	3.3	114
Jamaica	3 794	2 939		289	9.9	158	5.4	31.7	17.1	649	503	13	0.5	68.3	0.7	26	20	81	2.8	106
Ecuador	3 802	1 527		96	6.3	40	2.6	32.4	8.1	306	123	34	2.2	67.6	3.3	126	50	19	1.2	46
Guatemala	4 049	1 568	7.5	100	6.3	39	2.5	43.2	5.8	234	91	16	1.0	56.8	1.8	73	28	15	1.0	39
Paraguay	4 266	1 359	8.9	108	7.9	52	3.8	35.9	10.7	456	145	33	2.4	64.1	3.7	158	50	16	1.1	48
El Salvador	4 652	2 119	6.4	120	5.6	63	2.9	34.0	8.6	402	183	1	0.1	66.0	0.1	3	1	33	1.5	72
Peru	5 250	2 341	7.7	208	8.9	73	3.1	31.8	9.8	513	229	98	4.2	68.2	6.1	322	143	37	1.6	82
Simple average	3 860	1 637	8.1	147	9.5	69	4.4	36.1	12.3	476	202	30	1.9	63.9	2.9	114	48	33	2.2	84
Weighted average	4 149	1 722	8.0	150	8.7	62	3.6	35.7	10.1	421	175	47	2.7	64.3	4.1	171	71	30	1.7	72
Grupo II																				
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	5 743	4 810	5.0	562	11.7	240	5.0	31.4	15.9	914	765	198	4.1	68.6	6.0	344	288	77	1.6	92
Colombia	6 433	2 166		291	13.4	82	3.7	30.3	12.3	794	267	148	6.8	69.7	9.7	627	211	50	2.3	147
Panama	6 637	4 327	4.7	344	8.0	165	3.8	30.4	12.5	830	541	47	1.1	69.6	1.6	103	67	98	2.3	151
Dominican Republic	6 740	2 865	5.5	204	7.1	56	2.0	33.5	5.8	392	167	42	1.5	66.5	2.2	149	63	40	1.4	92
Mexico	9 535	6 042	4.9	618	10.2	229	3.8	30.8	12.3	1175	745	130	2.2	69.2	3.1	296	188	153	2.5	240
Trinidad and Tobago	12 648	9 021		845	9.4	407	4.5	22.2	20.2	2559	1825	128	1.4	77.8	1.8	229	164	199	2.2	279
Simple average	7 956	4 872	5.0	477	10.1	196	3.7	29.8	12.3	977	598	115	2.8	70.2	4.0	321	197	103	2.0	160
Weighted average	8 105	4 787	5.0	509	10.8	187	4.0	30.9	12.8	1040	614	138	2.9	69.1	4.2	337	199	111	2.4	191
Grupo III																				
Brazil	7 580	3 901	3.8	860	22.1	178	4.6	27.8	16.3	1239	638	467	12.0	72.2	16.6	1256	646	180	4.6	349
Costa Rica	8 889	4 423	3.9	772	17.4	242	5.5	28.4	19.2	1709	851	234	5.3	71.6	7.4	657	327	220	5.0	442
Uruguay	8 989	6 145	4.2	1087	17.7	201	3.3	23.8	13.7	1234	843	759	12.3	76.2	16.2	1456	995	107	1.7	156
Chile	10 389	5 582	3.2	729	13.1	198	3.5	24.9	14.2	1476	793	364	6.5	75.1	8.7	902	484	156	2.8	290
Argentina	12 232	7 825	4.0	1521	19.4	350	4.5	26.4	16.8	2061	1318	718	9.2	73.6	12.5	1526	976	347	4.4	541
Simple average	9 616	5 575	3.8	994	17.9	233	4.3	26.3	16.2	1557	903	508	9.1	73.7	12.3	1181	685	202	3.7	356
Weighted average	8 523	4 656	3.8	955	20.5	207	4.4	27.4	16.2	1382	755	499	10.7	72.6	14.7	1257	686	204	4.4	372
Latin America and the Caribbean (20 countries)																				
Simple average	6 528	3 592	6.0	457	11.8	148	4.2	31.7	13.2	865	476	183	4.1	68.3	6.0	390	214	96	2.5	164
Weighted average	7 629	4 203	4.8	658	15.7	175	4.2	30.0	13.9	1059	583	295	7.0	70.0	9.9	759	418	141	3.4	256

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of official information from the relevant countries, household surveys, population estimates from the Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) - Population Division of ECLAC and World Bank, World Development Indicators [online database]

Table II.5

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (21 COUNTRIES): PER CAPITA PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING

(In dollars at 2000 prices)

Country	Period							
	1990-1991	1992-1993	1994-1995	1996-1997	1998-1999	2000-2001	2002-2003	2004-2005
Argentina	1 179	1 414	1 553	1 548	1 686	1 640	1 305	1 521
Bolivia [a]	…	…	118	143	163	179	193	190
Brazil	604	584	725	710	781	776	811	860
Chile	403	474	508	594	682	746	755	729
Colombia	123	153	237	322	281	266	280	291
Costa Rica	486	516	566	606	651	728	769	772
Cuba [b]	…	…	…	…	…	570	659	870
Ecuador	94	105	81	76	65	65	77	96
El Salvador [c]	…	76	90	96	107	113	129	120
Guatemala	44	55	57	62	89	93	100	100
Honduras	67	71	61	63	70	97	112	120
Jamaica [d]	243	234	245	267	…	273	276	289
Mexico	324	416	449	438	507	564	588	618
Nicaragua	45	42	46	45	57	63	73	90
Panama	229	317	287	315	377	371	328	344
Paraguay	45	95	115	128	129	107	119	108
Peru [e]	64	85	125	141	152	173	206	208
Dominican Republic	74	111	133	153	176	209	211	204
Trinidad and Tobago [f]	303	312	294	304	…	588	728	845
Uruguay	820	1 008	1 150	1 285	1 382	1 322	1 094	1 087
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	441	490	396	439	435	563	486	562
Latin America and the Caribbean [g]	287	333	362	387	423	446	432	457
Latin America and the Caribbean [h]	440	481	553	560	610	624	616	658

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information available in the Commission's social expenditure database.

[a] The figure for the biennium 1994-1995 relates to 1995.
[b] Owing to changes in the basis of GDP, information in dollars has been available only since 2000 (see box II.6).
[c] The figure for the biennium 1992-1993 relates to 1993.
[d] The figures for the biennium 1996-1997 relate to 1996, and those for 2004-2005 relate to 2004.
[e] Figures earlier than 2000 relate to the central government budget.
[f] The figure for the biennium 1996-1997 relates to 1996.
[g] Simple average of the countries. Includes estimates for years and countries for which information is not available, and does not include Cuba.
[h] Weighted average of the countries. Includes estimates for years and countries for which information is not available, and does not include Cuba.

Table II.6

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (21 COUNTRIES): PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING AS A PERCENTAGE OF GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT

(Percentages)

Country	Period							
	1990-1991	1992-1993	1994-1995	1996-1997	1998-1999	2000-2001	2002-2003	2004-2005
Argentina	19.3	20.1	21.1	19.9	20.9	21.8	19.5	19.4
Bolivia [a]	…	…	12.4	14.6	16.2	18.0	19.4	18.6
Brazil	18.1	17.6	20.4	19.4	21.6	21.1	21.8	22.1
Chile	12.7	12.8	12.4	12.8	14.2	15.1	14.7	13.1
Colombia	6.6	7.9	11.5	15.2	13.7	13.2	13.7	13.4
Costa Rica	15.6	15.2	15.8	16.8	16.4	18.0	18.6	17.4
Cuba	27.6	32.8	28.5	25.0	24.3	22.2	24.7	28.7
Ecuador	7.4	8.0	6.1	5.6	4.9	4.9	5.5	6.3
El Salvador [b]	…	4.1	4.8	5.2	5.4	6.1	5.6	0.0
Guatemala	3.3	4.1	4.1	4.3	5.9	6.1	6.5	6.3
Honduras	7.5	7.6	6.6	6.6	7.4	10.0	11.3	11.6
Jamaica [c]	8.4	8.0	8.2	9.0	…	9.5	9.5	9.9
Mexico	6.5	8.1	8.9	8.5	9.2	9.7	10.2	10.2
Nicaragua	6.6	6.5	7.2	6.5	7.6	8.1	9.3	10.8
Panama	7.5	9.3	8.3	8.8	9.7	9.5	8.3	8.0
Paraguay	3.2	6.6	7.8	8.7	9.1	8.0	9.1	7.9
Peru [d]	3.9	5.1	6.5	6.9	7.4	8.3	9.5	8.9
Dominican Republic	4.3	5.9	6.7	6.9	7.1	7.7	7.6	7.1
Trinidad and Tobago [e]	6.9	7.3	6.6	6.4	…	9.1	9.7	9.4
Uruguay	16.8	18.9	20.2	21.3	22.0	22.2	20.8	17.7
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	8.8	9.2	7.8	8.6	8.8	11.6	11.7	11.7
Latin America and the Caribbean [f]	9.7	10.8	11.1	11.3	11.8	12.4	12.7	12.6
Latin America and the Caribbean [g]	12.9	13.5	14.9	14.6	15.5	15.7	15.8	15.9

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information available in the Commission's social expenditure database.

[a] The figure for the biennium 1994-1995 relates to 1995.

[b] The figure for the biennium 1992-1993 relates to 1993.

[c] The figures for the biennium 1996-1997 relate to 1996, and those for 2004-2005 relate to 2004.

[d] Figures before 2000 relate to the central government budget.

[e] The figure for the biennium 1996-1997 relates to 1996.

[f] Simple average of the countries. Includes estimates for years and countries for which information is not available.

[g] Weighted average of the countries. Includes estimates for years and countries for which information is not available.

Table II.7
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (21 COUNTRIES): PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING AS A PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL PUBLIC SPENDING [a]
(Percentages)

Country	Period							
	1990-1991	1992-1993	1994-1995	1996-1997	1998-1999	2000-2001	2002-2003	2004-2005
Argentina	62.2	63.4	65.6	65.4	64.2	62.7	66.2	64.1
Bolivia [b]	…	…	39.7	44.1	50.0	54.4	60.1	63.0
Brazil	48.9	47.2	58.6	51.0	55.8	61.6	69.3	72.0
Chile	61.2	62.8	64.2	65.2	65.7	67.5	67.6	66.9
Colombia	28.8	32.2	39.9	41.8	32.7	33.2	32.8	…
Costa Rica	38.9	41.2	38.2	42.0	40.6	40.5	37.5	35.8
Cuba	35.6	34.7	39.4	45.7	44.8	47.1	51.4	53.0
Ecuador	42.8	48.5	33.7	27.6	21.7	20.9	25.2	28.5
El Salvador [c]	…	32.1	31.6	35.5	40.0	34.9	30.9	31.2
Guatemala	29.9	33.3	41.3	42.7	45.1	47.3	50.4	53.8
Honduras	40.7	36.6	40.6	40.5	39.5	45.4	49.9	52.8
Jamaica [d]	26.8	23.2	20.6	19.2	…	17.1	17.3	16.3
Mexico	41.3	50.2	53.1	52.3	59.4	61.3	57.8	58.5
Nicaragua	34.0	38.5	39.9	37.0	37.1	38.4	42.0	47.9
Panama	38.1	50.6	48.6	39.6	46.4	42.5	39.1	39.3
Paraguay	39.9	42.9	43.3	47.1	44.5	38.2	41.6	40.2
Peru [e]	39.0	41.3	46.6	46.8	49.5	49.7	51.4	50.8
Dominican Republic	38.4	37.0	45.4	45.5	43.3	47.5	41.4	34.5
Trinidad and Tobago [f]	40.6	40.6	42.8	40.7	…	70.8	73.2	76.4
Uruguay	62.3	67.7	70.8	70.8	69.5	66.6	57.7	57.4
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	32.8	40.1	35.3	35.4	36.6	37.8	38.6	41.0
Latin America and the Caribbean [g]	40.4	42.6	44.2	44.2	45.7	46.9	47.7	48.4
Latin America and the Caribbean [h]	46.6	48.8	55.0	51.7	54.3	56.8	59.3	60.6

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information available in the Commission's social expenditure database.

[a] Official figures for total public spending are taken from the countries' functional classifications of public spending, but may differ from other reports which are also of an official nature, based on different types of classification (see box II.6).

[b] The figure for the biennium 1994-1995 relates to 1995.

[c] The figure for the biennium 1992-1993 relates to 1993.

[d] The figures for the biennium 1996-1997 relate to 1996, and those for 2004-2005 relate to 2004.

[e] Figures before 2000 relate to the central government budget.

[f] The figure for the biennium 1996-1997 relates to 1996.

[g] Simple average of the countries. Includes estimates for years and countries for which information is not available.

[h] Weighted average of the countries. Includes estimates for years and countries for which information is not available.

Table II.8
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (21 COUNTRIES) : PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON EDUCATION AS A PERCENTAGE OF GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT
(Percentages)

Country	Period							
	1990-1991	1992-1993	1994-1995	1996-1997	1998-1999	2000-2001	2002-2003	2004-2005
Argentina	3.6	4.0	4.2	4.2	4.7	5.1	4.2	4.5
Bolivia [a]	…	…	5.3	5.9	6.0	6.7	7.6	7.3
Brazil	3.7	3.0	5.3	4.3	5.5	5.0	4.7	4.6
Chile	2.4	2.5	2.6	3.0	3.7	3.9	4.0	3.5
Colombia	2.6	3.3	3.3	4.8	4.6	4.1	4.8	3.7
Costa Rica	3.9	4.2	4.2	4.6	4.4	5.1	5.7	5.5
Cuba	10.8	11.9	9.0	7.9	8.4	8.5	10.3	12.4
Ecuador	2.8	3.0	2.6	2.5	2.5	2.1	2.6	2.6
El Salvador [b]	…	1.9	2.0	2.3	2.5	3.0	3.2	2.9
Guatemala	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.7	2.3	2.6	2.6	2.5
Honduras	4.3	4.3	3.7	3.9	4.5	6.2	7.1	7.7
Jamaica [c]	4.1	4.0	4.1	4.9	…	5.8	5.2	5.4
Mexico	2.6	3.5	3.9	3.7	3.8	3.9	4.0	3.8
Nicaragua	2.6	2.2	2.8	2.9	3.4	3.7	4.4	4.7
Panama	3.6	3.7	3.5	4.1	4.1	4.2	4.1	3.8
Paraguay	1.3	2.9	3.6	4.2	4.4	4.3	4.4	3.8
Peru [d]	1.6	2.0	2.7	2.5	2.5	2.9	3.0	3.1
Dominican Republic	1.2	1.7	2.1	2.3	2.7	2.9	3.1	2.0
Trinidad and Tobago [e]	3.2	3.3	3.0	3.0	…	4.1	4.4	4.5
Uruguay	2.5	2.5	2.5	3.0	3.2	3.4	3.6	3.3
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	3.5	4.0	3.8	3.2	4.0	5.1	5.1	5.0
Latin America and the Caribbean [f]	3.2	3.5	3.6	3.8	4.1	4.4	4.7	4.6
Latin America and the Caribbean [g]	3.3	3.5	4.3	3.9	4.5	4.5	4.4	4.3

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information available in the Commission's social expenditure database.
[a] The figure for the biennium 1994-1995 relates to 1995.
[b] The figure for the biennium 1992-1993 relates to 1993.
[c] The figures for the biennium 1996-1997 relate to 1996, and those for 2004-2005 relate to 2004.
[d] Figures before 2000 relate to the central government budget.
[e] The figure for the biennium 1996-1997 relates to 1996.
[f] Simple average of the countries. Includes estimates for years and countries for which information is not available.
[g] Weighted average of the countries. Includes estimates for years and countries for which information is not available.

Table II.9

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (21 COUNTRIES) : PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON HEALTH AS A PERCENTAGE OF GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT

(Percentages)

Country	Period							
	1990-1991	1992-1993	1994-1995	1996-1997	1998-1999	2000-2001	2002-2003	2004-2005
Argentina	4.3	4.6	4.9	4.6	4.9	5.0	4.4	4.4
Bolivia [a]	…	…	3.1	3.3	3.3	3.6	3.7	3.5
Brazil	3.6	2.6	4.2	3.8	3.8	4.1	4.3	4.6
Chile	2.0	2.2	2.4	2.4	2.7	2.9	3.0	2.8
Colombia	1.0	1.2	2.9	3.2	3.7	3.0	2.8	2.3
Costa Rica	4.9	4.5	4.7	4.7	4.8	5.2	5.7	5.0
Cuba	5.0	6.6	5.6	5.3	5.8	5.2	5.3	6.0
Ecuador	1.4	1.6	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.8	1.1	1.2
El Salvador [b]	…	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.3	1.5	1.5
Guatemala	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.8	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.0
Honduras	2.9	2.8	2.6	2.3	2.4	3.3	3.8	3.5
Jamaica [c]	2.2	2.4	2.2	2.3	…	2.2	2.5	2.8
Mexico	2.9	3.4	2.3	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.5
Nicaragua	2.8	2.5	2.8	2.5	2.7	2.9	3.3	3.3
Panama	1.6	1.9	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.3	2.0	2.3
Paraguay	0.3	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.3	1.1
Peru [d]	0.9	0.9	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6
Dominican Republic	1.0	1.3	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.8	1.6	1.4
Trinidad and Tobago [e]	2.6	2.8	2.2	2.0	…	2.1	2.3	2.2
Uruguay	2.9	3.0	3.4	2.5	2.7	2.6	2.0	1.7
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	1.6	1.7	1.1	1.1	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.6
Latin America and the Caribbean [f]	2.3	2.6	2.6	2.4	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.7
Latin America and the Caribbean [g]	3.1	3.0	3.3	3.0	3.2	3.3	3.3	3.4

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information available in the Commission's social expenditure database.

[a] The figure for the biennium 1994-1995 relates to 1995.

[b] The figure for the biennium 1992-1993 relates to 1993.

[c] The figures for the biennium 1996-1997 relate to 1996, and those for 2004-2005 relate to 2004.

[d] Figures before 2000 relate to the central government budget.

[e] The figure for the biennium 1996-1997 relates to 1996.

[f] Simple average of the countries. Includes estimates for years and countries for which information is not available.

[g] Weighted average of the countries. Includes estimates for years and countries for which information is not available.

Table II.10
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (20 COUNTRIES) : PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON SOCIAL SECURITY AND WELFARE AS A PERCENTAGE OF GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT
(Percentages)

Country	Period							
	1990-1991	1992-1993	1994-1995	1996-1997	1998-1999	2000-2001	2002-2003	2004-2005
Argentina	9.7	9.9	10.3	9.8	9.9	10.3	9.7	9.2
Bolivia [a]	…	…	1.4	2.8	3.9	4.5	4.7	4.5
Brazil	9.2	10.6	10.4	10.6	11.7	11.1	11.9	12.0
Chile	8.1	7.9	7.2	7.2	7.6	7.9	7.5	6.5
Colombia	2.5	2.9	4.5	6.1	4.3	4.8	5.0	6.8
Costa Rica	4.9	4.7	5.2	5.8	5.7	6.1	5.5	5.3
Cuba	7.0	9.9	8.6	7.6	7.6	6.1	6.6	7.6
Ecuador	3.2	3.4	2.2	2.0	1.5	1.7	1.7	2.2
El Salvador [b]	…	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1
Guatemala	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.0
Honduras	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3
Jamaica [c]	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.3	…	0.4	0.5	0.5
Mexico	0.1	0.1	1.3	1.5	1.9	2.3	2.4	2.2
Panama	1.2	2.2	1.5	1.0	1.9	1.6	1.2	1.1
Paraguay	1.2	2.3	2.4	2.7	3.1	2.1	3.0	2.4
Peru [d]	1.3	2.2	2.5	2.8	3.2	3.9	4.9	4.2
Dominican Republic	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.8	1.1	0.4	1.5
Trinidad and Tobago [e]	…	…	…	…	…	1.4	1.8	1.4
Uruguay	11.2	13.1	13.9	15.3	15.6	15.8	14.8	12.3
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	2.0	2.1	2.3	3.0	2.5	3.7	4.1	4.1
Latin America and the Caribbean [f]	3.2	3.7	3.8	4.0	4.2	4.3	4.3	4.2
Latin America and the Caribbean [g]	5.3	5.8	6.3	6.5	6.8	6.8	7.0	7.0

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information available in the Commission's social expenditure database.
[a] The figure for the biennium 1994-1995 relates to 1995.
[b] The figure for the biennium 1992-1993 relates to 1993.
[c] The figures for the biennium 1996-1997 relate to 1996, and those for 2004-2005 relate to 2004.
[d] Figures before 2000 relate to the central government budget.
[e] In this function, figures before 2000 are not comparable.
[f] Simple average of the countries. Includes estimates for years and countries for which information is not available. Does not include Nicaragua.
[g] Weighted average of the countries. Includes estimates for years and countries for which information is not available. Does not include Nicaragua.

Table II.11
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (21 COUNTRIES): PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON HOUSING AND OTHERS AS A PERCENTAGE OF GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT
(Percentages)

Country	Period							
	1990-1991	1992-1993	1994-1995	1996-1997	1998-1999	2000-2001	2002-2003	2004-2005
Argentina	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.1	1.4
Bolivia [a]	…	…	2.5	2.6	2.9	3.2	3.4	3.3
Brazil	1.5	1.4	0.4	0.8	0.6	0.9	1.0	0.9
Chile	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2
Colombia	0.5	0.6	0.8	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.1	0.6
Costa Rica	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.7
Cuba [b]	1.8	1.7	1.9	2.0	2.5	2.4	2.5	2.7
Ecuador	0.0	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.2
El Salvador [c]	…	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.0	1.4	1.1
Guatemala	0.1	0.5	0.7	1.2	1.7	1.4	1.7	1.9
Honduras	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1
Jamaica [d]	1.5	1.2	1.6	1.4	…	1.1	1.4	1.2
Mexico	0.9	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.8
Nicaragua	1.2	1.8	1.5	1.2	1.5	1.5	1.6	2.8
Panama	1.1	1.4	1.4	1.9	1.7	1.3	1.0	0.8
Paraguay	0.5	0.3	0.6	0.4	0.2	0.5	0.4	0.6
Peru [e]	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1
Dominican Republic	1.8	2.5	3.0	2.6	2.1	2.0	2.6	2.3
Trinidad and Tobago [f]	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.3	…	1.5	1.3	1.2
Uruguay	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.3
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	1.7	1.4	0.6	1.3	0.9	1.3	0.9	1.0
Latin America and the Caribbean [g]	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3
Latin America and the Caribbean [h]	1.2	1.3	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.2

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information available in the Commission's social expenditure database.
[a] The figure for the biennium 1994-1995 relates to 1995.
[b] Housing and sanitation.
[c] The figure for the biennium 1992-1993 relates to 1993.
[d] The figures for the biennium 1996-1997 relate to 1996, and those for 2004-2005 relate to 2004.
[e] Figures before 2000 relate to the central government budget.
[f] The figure for the biennium 1996-1997 relates to 1996.
[g] Simple average of the countries. Includes estimates for years and countries for which information is not available.
[h] Weighted average of the countries. Includes estimates for years and countries for which information is not available.

Table II.12

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (21 COUNTRIES): PER CAPITA PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON EDUCATION

(In dollars at 2000 prices)

Country	Period							
	1990-1991	1992-1993	1994-1995	1996-1997	1998-1999	2000-2001	2002-2003	2004-2005
Argentina	220	279	312	328	375	383	283	350
Bolivia [a]	…	…	50	58	60	67	76	75
Brazil	125	101	190	157	199	183	174	178
Chile	77	94	107	139	176	195	206	198
Colombia	49	63	69	101	95	82	98	82
Costa Rica	123	142	151	165	176	206	235	242
Cuba [b]	…	…	…	…	…	218	277	375
Ecuador	36	39	35	35	33	27	36	40
El Salvador [c]	…	34	40	47	52	62	67	63
Guatemala	21	24	24	25	35	39	40	39
Honduras	39	41	34	37	43	61	71	79
Jamaica [d]	119	117	121	148	…	166	150	158
Mexico	129	178	200	188	211	227	233	229
Nicaragua	17	14	19	20	26	30	35	39
Panama	109	128	122	145	160	164	162	165
Paraguay	18	41	53	62	63	57	58	52
Peru [e]	27	33	51	51	51	60	66	73
Dominican Republic	20	32	41	50	68	77	84	56
Trinidad and Tobago [f]	139	142	134	164	…	264	330	407
Uruguay	120	131	140	183	203	201	189	201
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	177	214	192	165	199	249	212	240
Latin America and the Caribbean [g]	82	94	104	114	128	140	140	148
Latin America and the Caribbean [h]	111	121	161	151	178	178	170	175

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information available in the Commission's social expenditure database.

[a] The figure for the biennium 1994-1995 relates to 1995.

[b] Owing to changes in the basis of GDP, information in dollars has been available only since 2000 (see box II.6).

[c] The figure for the biennium 1992-1993 relates to 1993.

[d] The figures for the biennium 1996-1997 relate to 1996, and those for 2004-2005 relate to 2004.

[e] Figures before 2000 relate to the central government budget.

[f] The figure for the biennium 1996-1997 relates to 1996.

[g] Simple average of the countries. Includes estimates for years and countries for which information is not available, and does not include Cuba.

[h] Weighted average of the countries. Includes estimates for years and countries for which information is not available, and does not include Cuba.

Table II.13

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (21 COUNTRIES): PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON HEALTH, PER CAPITA

(In dollars at 2000 prices)

Country	Period							
	1990-1991	1992-1993	1994-1995	1996-1997	1998-1999	2000-2001	2002-2003	2004-2005
Argentina	264	321	363	356	393	378	295	347
Bolivia [a]	…	…	30	33	33	36	37	36
Brazil	119	87	150	138	137	150	160	180
Chile	62	82	97	113	130	144	153	156
Colombia	18	23	60	69	75	61	57	50
Costa Rica	153	154	168	171	189	210	236	220
Cuba [b]	…	…	…	…	…	135	141	182
Ecuador	18	21	11	12	10	10	15	19
El Salvador [c]	…	22	26	27	31	28	32	33
Guatemala	12	13	12	11	16	16	16	15
Honduras	26	27	24	22	22	32	38	37
Jamaica [d]	63	70	65	68	…	64	72	81
Mexico	147	172	118	111	129	132	135	153
Nicaragua	19	17	18	18	20	23	26	28
Panama	49	66	63	67	79	90	79	98
Paraguay	4	16	18	20	20	16	17	16
Peru [e]	15	15	25	29	31	32	34	37
Dominican Republic	17	24	25	30	36	50	44	40
Trinidad and Tobago [f]	115	119	99	101	…	136	170	199
Uruguay	142	160	196	151	169	153	105	107
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	79	89	56	59	70	71	66	77
Latin America and the Caribbean [g]	68	77	81	80	88	91	89	96
Latin America and the Caribbean [h]	105	106	122	117	125	129	127	141

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information available in the Commission's social expenditure database.

[a] The figure for the biennium 1994-1995 relates to 1995.
[b] Owing to changes in the basis of GDP, information in dollars has been available only since 2000 (see box II.6).
[c] The figure for the biennium 1992-1993 relates to 1993.
[d] The figures for the biennium 1996-1997 relate to 1996, and those for 2004-2005 relate to 2004.
[e] Figures before 2000 relate to the central government budget.
[f] The figure for the biennium 1996-1997 relates to 1996.
[g] Simple average of the countries. Includes estimates for years and countries for which information is not available, and does not include Cuba.
[h] Weighted average of the countries. Includes estimates for years and countries for which information is not available, and does not include Cuba.

Table II.14
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (20 COUNTRIES): PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON SOCIAL SECURITY AND WELFARE, PER CAPITA
(In dollars at 2000 prices)

Country	Period							
	1990-1991	1992-1993	1994-1995	1996-1997	1998-1999	2000-2001	2002-2003	2004-2005
Argentina	592	699	759	757	797	775	653	718
Bolivia [a]	…	…	14	28	39	45	47	46
Brazil	308	351	371	388	422	410	441	467
Chile	259	290	296	333	367	393	387	364
Colombia	47	56	93	129	88	97	102	148
Costa Rica	152	160	187	208	226	248	228	234
Cuba [b]	…	…	…	…	…	156	176	231
Ecuador	41	44	29	27	21	23	23	34
El Salvador [c]	…	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Guatemala	10	11	11	10	13	16	19	16
Honduras	3	4	3	3	4	2	3	3
Jamaica [d]	17	12	12	10	…	11	13	13
Mexico	6	6	65	78	105	132	136	130
Panamá	37	76	54	35	72	64	48	47
Paraguay	17	33	36	40	44	27	40	33
Peru [e]	23	36	48	57	65	81	106	98
Dominican Republic	7	9	9	15	20	28	12	42
Trinidad and Tobago [f]	…	…	…	…	…	90	133	128
Uruguay	544	699	787	924	980	939	780	759
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	101	110	115	153	125	179	169	198
Latin America and the Caribbean [g]	121	145	160	178	189	193	178	186
Latin America and the Caribbean [h]	184	212	240	255	272	276	278	296

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information available in the Commission's social expenditure database.
[a] The figure for the biennium 1994-1995 relates to 1995.
[b] Owing to changes in the basis of GDP, information in dollars has been available only since 2000 (see box II.6).
[c] The figure for the biennium 1992-1993 relates to 1993.
[d] The figures for the biennium 1996-1997 relate to 1996, and those for 2004-2005 relate to 2004.
[e] Peru: figures from 1990 to 1999 relate to the central government budget.
[f] Information in dollars has been available since 2000. In this function, earlier figures are not comparable.
[g] Simple average of the countries. Includes estimates for years and countries for which information is not available, and does not include Cuba, Nicaragua or Trinidad and Tobago.
[h] Weighted average of the countries. Includes estimates for years and countries for which information is not available, and does not include Cuba,

Table II.15
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (21 COUNTRIES): PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING PER CAPITA ON HOUSING AND OTHERS
(In dollars at 2000 prices)

Country	Period							
	1990-1991	1992-1993	1994-1995	1996-1997	1998-1999	2000-2001	2002-2003	2004-2005
Argentina	102	116	121	108	121	103	75	108
Bolivia [a]	…	…	24	25	30	32	33	34
Brazil	52	46	15	29	23	34	36	37
Chile	6	8	8	10	10	15	10	12
Colombia	9	11	16	24	23	27	23	13
Costa Rica	58	61	61	64	60	64	71	77
Cuba [b]	…	…	…	…	…	62	66	83
Ecuador	0	1	6	3	2	6	3	4
El Salvador [c]	…	20	24	21	25	22	29	24
Guatemala [c]	…	8	11	17	26	22	27	30
Honduras	0	0	0	0	2	2	1	1
Jamaica [d]	44	35	48	43	…	33	42	36
Mexico	43	61	68	61	63	73	86	106
Nicaragua	8	11	10	8	11	12	13	23
Panama	35	49	49	68	67	52	40	36
Paraguay	6	5	9	6	4	7	6	8
Peru [e]	0	1	1	1	2	2	1	1
Dominican Republic	31	47	59	58	52	54	72	66
Trinidad and Tobago [f]	46	47	58	64	…	98	95	112
Uruguay	15	19	28	28	32	30	20	21
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	85	77	33	64	44	64	39	48
Latin America and the Caribbean [g]	29	32	32	35	35	37	36	40
Latin America and the Caribbean [h]	42	45	35	40	38	44	44	50

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information available in the Commission's social expenditure database.

[a] The figure for the biennium 1994-1995 relates to 1995.

[b] Owing to changes in the basis of GDP, information in dollars has been available only since 2000 (see box II.6). Includes housing and sanitation.

[c] The figure for the biennium 1992-1993 relates to 1993.

[d] The figures for the biennium 1996-1997 relate to 1996, and those for 2004-2005 relate to 2004.

[e] Figures before 2000 relate to the central government budget.

[f] The figure for the biennium 1996-1997 relates to 1996.

[g] Simple average of the countries. Includes estimates for years and countries for which information is not available, and does not include Cuba.

[h] Weighted average of the countries. Includes estimates for years and countries for which information is not available, and does not include Cuba.

Table II.16
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): ORIENTATION OF EDUCATION SPENDING BY PRIMARY INCOME QUINTILE
(Percentages)

		Income quintile					Total	Gini
		Quintile I	Quintile II	Quintile III	Quintile IV	Quintile V		
Latin America	Education	23	21	20	18	18	100	-0.048
Argentina, 2003	Educational, scientific and technical	25	22	20	18	15	100	-0.097
	Education	26	23	20	17	14	100	-0.122
	Elementary education	35	26	19	13	7	100	-0.273
	Secondary education	27	24	23	16	10	100	-0.169
	Total tertiary	9	14	21	29	31	100	0.196
	Tertiary education	12	17	26	22	23	100	0.112
	Higher education	5	12	17	32	35	100	0.320
	Other education	27	21	19	17	17	100	-0.094
	Cultural, scientific and technical	13	14	16	20	37	100	0.217
Bolivia, 2002	Education	17	17	21	22	23	100	0.068
	Preschool and primary	25	25	23	18	10	100	-0.146
	Secondary and alternative	15	18	24	24	19	100	0.056
	Higher university level	3	5	17	30	45	100	0.440
Brazil, 1997	Education	17	18	18	19	27	100	0.094
	Primary	26	27	23	17	8	100	-0.194
	Secondary	7	12	28	33	19	100	0.190
	Tertiary	0	1	3	22	76	100	0.672
Chile, 2006	Education (subsidies)	35	27	19	9	10	100	-0.273
Colombia, 2003	Education	24	23	20	19	14	100	-0.094
	Primary	37	28	19	12	4	100	-0.322
	Secondary	24	27	23	19	8	100	-0.162
	Higher	3	8	17	31	42	100	0.403
Costa Rica, 2004	Education	26	23	18	18	15	100	-0.112
	Primary	40	26	18	10	5	100	-0.349
	Secondary	23	28	20	20	9	100	-0.150
	Higher	5	11	13	26	44	100	0.371
Ecuador, 1999	Education	15	20	20	22	23	100	0.072
	Primary	35	26	20	13	6	100	-0.284
	Secondary	15	24	25	22	14	100	-0.016
	Tertiary	3	13	16	28	40	100	0.356
	Private tertiary	0	1	6	22	70	100	0.649
El Salvador, 2002	Education	21	23	24	20	12	100	-0.089
	Primary	27	25	23	17	8	100	-0.184
	Secondary	11	20	26	25	18	100	0.076
Guatemala, 2000	Education	17	21	21	21	21	100	0.032
	Preschool and primary	25	24	23	20	10	100	-0.147
	Preschool	39	18	24	14	4	100	-0.301
	Primary	21	25	23	21	10	100	-0.104
	Secondary	3	12	23	31	32	100	0.306
	University	0	0	6	11	82	100	0.705
	School meals	16	25	27	20	11	100	-0.055
	Scholarships	9	4	23	16	48	100	0.360
	School supplies	18	24	24	20	13	100	-0.051
	School transport	0	2	15	56	27	100	0.432

Table II.16 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): ORIENTATION OF EDUCATION SPENDING BY PRIMARY INCOME QUINTILE

(Percentages)

		Income quintile					Total	Gini
		Quintile I	Quintile II	Quintile III	Quintile IV	Quintile V		
Honduras, 2004	Education	20	18	18	20	23	100	0.037
	Primary	28	25	21	17	9	100	-0.184
	Secondary	18	18	20	23	21	100	0.042
	Higher	1	2	6	23	69	100	0.627
Jamaica, 2000	Education	20	19	21	18	22	100	0.012
	Preschool and primary	28	24	23	16	9	100	-0.184
	Preschool	28	24	23	16	9	100	-0.184
	Primary	28	24	23	16	9	100	-0.184
	Secondary	20	21	23	21	15	100	-0.040
	Tertiary	5	6	13	15	61	100	0.484
Mexico, 2002	Education	19	20	19	23	19	100	0.011
	Preschool and primary	30	26	20	16	8	100	-0.217
	Preschool	30	27	20	16	7	100	-0.227
	Primary	30	26	20	16	8	100	-0.214
	Secondary	17	22	21	25	17	100	0.013
	Lower secondary	14	20	21	26	19	100	0.063
	Higher secondary	20	24	21	22	14	100	-0.054
	Tertiary	1	7	15	33	44	100	0.453
Nicaragua, 2005	Education	18	19	20	20	24	100	0.051
	Preschool and primary	27	26	23	18	8	100	-0.180
	Preschool	21	22	23	21	13	100	-0.071
	Total primary	26	26	23	18	8	100	-0.178
	Primary	27	26	23	17	7	100	-0.192
	Subsidized private primary	0	6	12	32	50	100	0.503
	Total secondary	9	16	24	27	23	100	0.150
	Secondary	11	18	26	26	19	100	0.099
	Technical	5	9	20	30	37	100	0.346
	University	1	4	14	23	58	100	0.530
	Adults	39	25	17	14	5	100	-0.317
Panama, 2003	Education	21	22	22	20	15	100	-0.051
	Primary	34	26	20	14	6	100	-0.270
	Secondary	17	26	25	22	11	100	-0.063
	Higher	3	10	20	30	38	100	0.358
Paraguay, 1998	Education	21	20	20	20	19	100	-0.015
	Preschool and primary	33	28	23	16	8	100	-0.297
	Preschool	33	25	3	25	14	100	-0.149
	Primary	33	28	23	15	1	100	-0.306
	Secondary	17	22	30	29	2	100	-0.091
	Total higher education	7	12	10	29	61	100	0.259
	Non-university higher education	7	15	14	34	30	100	0.259
	University	0	1	6	27	66	100	0.627
Peru, 2004	Total education	19	21	23	21	16	100	-0.026
	Preschool and primary	30	26	23	17	7	100	-0.235
	Inicial	20	21	26	24	10	100	-0.064
	Primary	32	27	22	14	6	100	-0.262
	Secondary	18	24	27	21	10	100	-0.083
	Total tertiary	2	7	17	30	44	100	0.431
	Non-university tertiary	4	17	33	28	19	100	0.166
	University tertiary	1	6	13	31	49	100	0.484
	Postgraduate	0	0	0	17	83	100	0.732
Dominican Republic, 1998	Education	15	20	23	23	19	100	0.035
	Primary	25	26	24	16	9	100	-0.168
	Secondary	14	19	25	26	16	100	0.044
	Secundaria	2	13	18	28	39	100	0.356
Uruguay, 2003	Education	36	24	17	13	10	100	-0.257

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of national studies

Table II.17

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): ORIENTATION OF HEALTH SPENDING BY PRIMARY INCOME QUINTILE

(Percentages)

		Income quintile					Total	Gini
		Quintile I	Quintile II	Quintile III	Quintile IV	Quintile V		
Latin America	Health	24	22	20	18	17	100	-0.067
Argentina, 2003	Health	20	21	19	21	19	100	-0.001
	Publicly-funded health care	35	27	18	13	7	100	-0.277
	Health insurance	8	17	21	27	28	100	0.202
	Social work – health care	7	16	20	27	30	100	0.228
	National Institute of Social Services for Retirees and Pensioners (INSSJP) – health care	9	19	22	29	20	100	0.134
Bolivia, 2002	Health	11	15	14	25	35	100	0.232
	Health funds	4	11	13	27	45	100	0.389
	Insurance and other	18	20	14	22	26	100	0.075
Brazil, 1997	Health	16	20	22	23	19	100	0.036
Chile, 2006	Health subsidies	55	33	18	4	-10	100	-0.633
Colombia, 2003	Health	34	29	19	12	6	100	-0.295
	Subsidized system	41	32	16	8	3	100	-0.395
	Supply subsidies	28	27	22	16	8	100	-0.203
	Health – contributory system	18	50	91	121	-180	100	…
Costa Rica, 2004	Health	25	24	24	17	10	100	-0.150
Ecuador, 1999	Health and nutrition (Ministry of Public Health)	19	23	23	24	11	100	-0.060
El Salvador, 2002	Health	26	23	21	18	12	100	-0.132
	Primary health care	29	23	21	17	10	100	-0.176
	Hospital care	20	23	22	19	16	100	-0.048
Guatemala, 2000	Total health	17	18	23	25	17	100	0.028
	Hospital	13	16	21	29	22	100	0.119
	Health centres	20	23	28	20	9	100	-0.100
	Health post	40	22	27	6	5	100	-0.344
	Community centre	39	20	23	8	10	100	-0.280
Honduras, 2004	Health	21	22	23	20	14	100	-0.066
Mexico, 2002	Health	15	18	21	23	22	100	0.078
	Primary	16	18	21	23	22	100	0.061
	Maternal	10	19	23	31	18	100	0.107
	Hospital	3	15	32	21	30	100	0.236
Nicaragua, 2005	Health	21	22	22	20	16	100	-0.046
Panama, 2003	Health	17	24	20	21	19	100	-0.002
Peru, 2004	Total health	6	11	19	26	39	100	0.324
	Ministry of Health (MINSA)	11	19	26	24	20	100	0.089
	MINSA primary care	20	24	23	20	13	100	-0.068
	MINSA hospitals	5	15	29	27	24	100	0.205
	MINSA comprehensive health insurance	17	27	25	22	9	100	-0.081
	EsSALUD [a]	1	5	15	30	49	100	0.482
	Armed forces	0	2	9	19	70	100	0.631
	Private care	4	8	14	25	49	100	0.424
Dominican Republic, 1998	Preventive medicine: Vaccinations	25	23	21	19	13	100	-0.107
	Preventive medicine: Pregnancy care	31	25	20	15	9	100	-0.216
	Preventive medicine: Pap tests	26	24	21	19	10	100	-0.148
	Preventive medicine: Childhood	31	24	21	15	8	100	-0.225
	Curative care Hospital services for mothers	32	26	18	16	8	100	-0.232
	Curative care Hospital services (Social Security)	33	15	17	29	6	100	-0.160
	Curative care Military hospital	18	5	19	16	42	100	0.236
Uruguay, 2003	Health	48	28	15	7	3	100	-0.438

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of national studies.

[a] Insurance for dependent workers.

Table II.18

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): ORIENTATION OF SOCIAL SECURITY SPENDING BY PRIMARY INCOME QUINTILE

(Percentages)

		Income quintile					Total	Gini
		Quintile I	Quintile II	Quintile III	Quintile IV	Quintile V		
Latin America	Social security	6	9	14	20	52	100	0.409
Argentina, 2003	Social insurance and non-contributory pensions (excl. health)	29	23	22	18	9	100	-0.176
	Social insurance and non-contributory pensions	13	19	21	25	23	100	0.099
	Social insurance	11	19	21	25	24	100	0.130
	Social insurance not including health	22	25	23	19	11	100	-0.114
	Social work – health care	7	16	20	27	30	100	0.228
	National Institute of Social Services for Retirees and Pensioners (INSSJP) – health care	9	19	22	29	20	100	0.134
	Non-contributory pensions	53	14	16	14	3	100	-0.400
	Employment	50	25	13	9	4	100	-0.429
	Other employment and unemployment-related programmes	56	22	12	7	3	100	-0.485
	Other employment and unemployment-related programmes without unemployment programmes [a]	61	25	10	4	1	100	-0.574
	Family allowances	18	26	23	21	13	100	-0.066
Bolivia, 2002	Social security	10	13	14	24	39	100	0.276
Brazil, 1997	Social security	7	8	15	19	51	100	0.396
Colombia, 2003	Pensions	0	2	5	13	80	100	0.680
	Training	9	10	17	34	31	100	0.269
Costa Rica, 2004	Pensions	6	7	11	16	60	100	0.471
Ecuador, 1999	Instituto Ecuatoriano de Seguridad Social (IESS)	4	7	21	22	46	100	0.396
	Rural social security	26	35	13	21	5	100	-0.224
Guatemala, 2000	Social insurance	1	3	5	15	76	100	0.648
	Pensions	1	2	4	12	81	100	0.680
	Survival	4	4	4	13	75	100	0.604
	Family maintenance	1	6	10	24	60	100	0.539
Honduras, 2004	Pensions	0	1	4	9	85	100	0.710
Mexico, 2002	Social security	3	11	17	28	42	100	0.377
Panama, 2003	Pensiones	1	4	11	24	60	100	0.552
Peru, 2004	Pensions	1	4	9	18	69	100	0.605
Uruguay, 2003	Retirements and pensions	6	12	17	24	43	100	0.346

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of national studies.

[a] Not including unemployment programmes (see table II.19).

Table II.19

LATIN AMERICA (11 COUNTRIES): ORIENTATION OF WELFARE SPENDING BY PRIMARY INCOME QUINTILE

(Percentages)

		Income quintile					Total	Gini
		Quintile I	Quintile II	Quintile III	Quintile IV	Quintile V		
Latin America	Social welfare	35	22	17	14	12	100	-0.218
Argentina, 2003	Social promotion and assistance (SPaA)	45	25	17	9	4	100	-0.389
	Public SPaA	47	25	16	8	4	100	-0.415
	SPaA – social work and National Institute of Social Services for Retirees and Pensioners (INSSJP)	27	27	24	15	7	100	-0.205
	Welfare and employment (without insurance)	55	25	13	6	2	100	-0.496
	Employment	50	25	13	9	4	100	-0.429
	Heads of Households programme	62	25	9	4	0	100	-0.581
	Unemployment programmes	43	17	18	13	7	100	-0.291
Chile, 2006	Monetary subsidies	52	25	15	5	4	100	-0.460
	Targeted subsidies	59	22	12	4	2	100	-0.523
	Bono Puente (Bridge Bond)	58	21	14	6	1	100	-0.517
	Bono Egreso (Exit Bond)	59	27	11	4	0	100	-0.566
	Total bonds CHS	58	23	13	5	1	100	-0.533
	Non-targeted subsidies	28	33	23	9	8	100	-0.253
Colombia, 2003	Total welfare	27	25	20	17	11	100	-0.163
	Care for children under 7	33	29	21	14	4	100	-0.292
	Instituto Colombiano de Bienestar Familiar (ICBF)	36	28	18	15	3	100	-0.314
	Other official assistance	31	29	23	13	4	100	-0.278
	School meals	37	29	19	12	3	100	-0.336
	Family Subsidies (Caja de Compensación Familiar -- CCF)	1	14	19	31	35	100	0.339
Costa Rica, 2004	Social welfare	53	23	9	8	7	100	-0.433
	Nutrition programme	53	27	11	9	0	100	-0.488
Ecuador, 1999	Social welfare and others (incl. rural insurance)	15	20	20	22	23	100	0.072
	Human Development Bond	27	28	25	16	4	100	-0.232
Guatemala, 2000	Social welfare	14	21	24	21	20	100	0.048
	School meals	16	25	27	20	11	100	-0.061
	Snack	13	21	26	26	14	100	0.028
	Breakfast	17	28	29	17	9	100	-0.108
	Powdered milk	30	26	14	16	14	100	-0.168
	Glass of milk	16	29	25	19	12	100	-0.071
	Glass of atole (hot maize drink)	17	22	25	23	14	100	-0.021
	Scholarships	9	4	23	16	48	100	0.360
	School supplies	18	24	24	20	13	100	-0.057
	School transport subsidies	0	2	15	56	27	100	0.432
	Electric power subsidies	2	3	9	22	65	100	0.575
	Other social welfare	13	20	16	17	34	100	0.156
Honduras, 2004	Social welfare	32	20	17	17	14	100	-0.157
	Nutrition programme	34	22	16	14	13	100	-0.200
Mexico, 2002	Direct transfers	49	21	12	11	8	100	-0.373
	“Oportunidades” programme (direct transfers)	60	25	10	4	1	100	-0.558
	“Procampo” programme (direct transfers)	33	16	13	20	18	100	-0.104
	Other (direct transfers)	60	25	20	1	-6	100	-0.619
Nicaragua, 2005	Social welfare	20	21	21	19	19	100	-0.022
Panama, 2003	Social welfare	21	18	18	19	24	100	0.028
	Nutrition programme	41	26	18	11	5	100	-0.349
Peru, 2004	Total food programmes	24	26	25	20	5	100	-0.177
	Glass of milk	18	23	29	24	7	100	-0.085
	Community kitchens	16	19	33	26	6	100	-0.055
	School breakfasts	53	24	16	5	2	100	-0.482
	Mothers’ clubs	8	30	55	5	1	100	-0.154
	School lunches	39	38	15	7	1	100	-0.423
	Children’s canteens	28	43	24	6	0	100	-0.370
	Others (panFar, pacFo, etc.)	23	41	14	20	3	100	-0.248

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of national studies.

Table II.20

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): REDISTRIBUTIVE EFFECT OF THE VARIOUS SOCIAL SPENDING ITEMS

(Percentages, concentration and progressiveness coefficients, and reason for change in the Gini for the weight of each item as part of total social spending)

Country	Aggregate and sector	Public social spending				
		Significance as part of primary income	Concentration coefficient	Progressiveness coefficient	Variation in concentration coefficent	Relative redistributive effectiveness
Latin América	**Public social spending**	**19.4**	**0.082**	**-0.394**	**-0.064**	**...**
	Education, health and social security	**16.5**	**0.118**	**-0.358**	**-0.051**	**0.93**
	Social welfare	**6.2**	**0.409**	**-0.067**	**-0.004**	**0.19**
	Education and Health	**10.4**	**-0.056**	**-0.532**	**-0.050**	**1.46**
	Education	**6.2**	**-0.048**	**-0.524**	**-0.030**	**1.50**
	Health	**4.2**	**-0.067**	**-0.543**	**-0.022**	**1.58**
	Social assistance	**1.8**	**-0.218**	**-0.694**	**-0.012**	**2.07**
	Housing, sanitation and others	**1.0**	**0.042**	**-0.434**	**-0.004**	**1.30**
	Primary income	**100.0**	**0.476**	**...**	**...**	**...**
	Total income [a]	**...**	**0.425**	**-0.051**	**...**	**...**
	Total income	**...**	**0.412**	**-0.064**	**...**	**...**
Argentina, 1998	Total public social spending	21.3	-0.004	-0.518	-0.091	...
	Education, health and social security	17.0	0.032	-0.482	-0.070	0.97
	Social insurance	6.2	0.212	-0.302	-0.018	0.67
	Education and health	10.8	-0.072	-0.587	-0.057	1.24
	Education	7.7	-0.025	-0.539	-0.038	1.17
	Health	7.9	0.079	-0.435	-0.032	0.94
	Housing, sanitation and others	2.7	0.060	-0.455	-0.012	1.04
	Drinking water and sewerage	0.3	0.032	-0.483	-0.001	1.13
	Housing and town planning	0.9	0.100	-0.414	-0.003	0.96
	Other urban services	1.6	0.042	-0.472	-0.007	1.09
	Social promotion and assistance	1.6	-0.484	-0.998	-0.016	2.30
	Primary income	100.0	0.514	...	...	...
	Total income [a]	...	0.444	-0.070	...	...
	Total income	...	0.423	-0.091	...	...
Argentina, 2003	Total public spending	15.3	-0.137	-0.683	-0.090	...
	Education, health and social security (insurance and non-contrib. pensions)	11.0	-0.064	-0.610	-0.061	0.93
	Social insurance (not including health)	3.9	0.099	-0.447	-0.017	0.73
	Social insurance	3.7	0.130	-0.415	-0.015	0.68
	Social insurance and non-contributory	0.8	-0.114	-0.659	-0.006	1.10
	Seguros sociales y Pensions no contributivas (no incluye Health)	1.1	-0.176	-0.722	-0.008	1.21
	Non-contributory pensions	0.2	-0.400	-0.945	-0.002	1.59
	Education and health (incl. social insurance)	10.0	-0.052	-0.598	-0.054	0.92
	Education and health (not incl. social insurance)	7.1	-0.154	-0.699	-0.046	1.10
	Education, science and technical studies	4.9	-0.097	-0.642	-0.030	1.03
	Health	5.1	-0.001	-0.555	-0.027	0.89
	Health (not including social insurance)	2.3	-0.277	-0.822	-0.018	1.36
	Housing, sanitation and others	1.3	0.042	-0.504	-0.007	0.84
	Water and sewers	0.1	0.001	-0.544	-0.001	0.92
	Housing and town planning	0.4	-0.172	-0.717	-0.003	1.21
	Urban services	0.9	0.138	-0.408	-0.003	0.68
	Social promotion and assistance	1.7	-0.389	-0.934	-0.016	1.55
	Welfare and employment (without social insurance)	2.9	-0.496	-1.041	-0.029	1.71
	Primary income	100.0	0.545	...	...	...
	Total income [a]	...	0.485	-0.061	...	...
	Total income	...	0.455	-0.090	...	...
Bolivia, 2002	Public social spending	19.2	0.167	-0.280	-0.045	...
	Education, health and social security	19.2	0.167	-0.280	-0.045	1.00
	Social security	5.9	0.276	-0.171	-0.001	0.69
	Education and health	13.3	0.118	-0.329	-0.039	1.24
	Education	9.2	0.068	-0.379	-0.032	1.48
	Health	4.1	0.232	-0.216	-0.008	0.88
	Primary income	100.0	0.447	...	...	...
	Total income [a]	...	0.402	-0.045	...	...
	Total income	...	0.402	-0.045	...	...

Table II.20 (continued)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): REDISTRIBUTIVE EFFECT OF THE VARIOUS SOCIAL SPENDING ITEMS

(Percentages, concentration and progressiveness coefficients, and reason for change in the Gini for the weight of each item as part of total social spending)

Country	Aggregate and sector	Public social spending				
		Significance as part of primary income	Concentration coefficient	Progressiveness coefficient	Variation in concentration coefficent	Relative redistributive effectiveness
Brazil, 1997	Public social spending	30.3	0.272	-0.288	-0.067	...
	Education, health and social security	30.3	0.272	-0.288	-0.067	1.00
	Social security	18.9	0.396	-0.164	-0.026	0.62
	Education and health	11.4	0.065	-0.495	-0.050	2.01
	Education	5.8	0.094	-0.466	-0.025	1.99
	Health	5.6	0.036	-0.524	-0.028	2.24
	Primary income	100.0	0.560	...	...	...
	Total income [a]	...	0.493	-0.067	...	...
	Total income	...	0.493	-0.067	...	...
Chile, 2006	Public social spending	10.7	-0.393	-0.845	-0.082	...
	Education and health	9.0	-0.384	-0.836	-0.069	1.00
	Education subsidies	6.3	-0.273	-0.725	-0.043	0.89
	Health subsidies	2.8	-0.633	-1.085	-0.029	1.38
	Monetary subsidies (social welfare)	1.7	-0.460	-0.912	-0.015	1.18
	Primary income	100.0	0.452	...	...	...
	Total income	...	0.370	-0.082	...	...
Colombia, 2003	Public social spending	16.2	0.098	-0.438	-0.061	...
	Education, health and social security	13.7	0.166	-0.370	-0.045	0.86
	Pensions	5.4	0.680	0.144	0.007	-0.36
	Education and health	8.3	-0.167	-0.703	-0.054	1.72
	Education	5.3	-0.094	-0.630	-0.032	1.59
	Health	3.0	-0.295	-0.831	-0.024	2.14
	Social welfare	1.4	-0.163	-0.699	-0.009	1.83
	Housing, sanitation and others	0.8	-0.040	-0.576	-0.005	1.52
	Public services not including sanitation	0.6	0.008	-0.528	-0.003	1.40
	Water supply-basic sanitation	0.3	-0.150	-0.686	-0.002	1.82
	Housing	0.0	0.102	-0.434	-0.000	1.15
	Primary income	100.0	0.536	...	...	...
	Total income [a]	...	0.491	-0.045	...	...
	Total income	...	0.475	-0.061	...	...
Costa Rica, 2004	Public social spending	19.3	0.027	-0.491	-0.079	...
	Education, health and social security	18.3	0.050	-0.468	-0.072	0.96
	Pensions	5.5	0.471	-0.047	-0.002	0.11
	Education and health	12.8	-0.130	-0.648	-0.074	1.39
	Education	6.6	-0.112	-0.630	-0.039	1.43
	Health	6.2	-0.150	-0.668	-0.039	1.53
	Social welfare	0.9	-0.433	-0.951	-0.009	2.29
	Primary income	100.0	0.518	...	...	...
	Total income [a]	...	0.446	-0.072	...	...
	Total income	...	0.439	-0.079	...	...
Ecuador, 1999	Public social spending	9.3	0.108	-0.376	-0.032	...
	Education, health and social security	5.9	0.129	-0.355	-0.020	0.98
	Social Security - Instituto Ecuatoriano de Seguridad Social (IESS)	1.5	0.396	-0.088	-0.001	0.25
	Education and health	4.5	0.041	-0.443	-0.019	1.23
	Education	3.4	0.072	-0.412	-0.014	1.16
	Health and nutrition (Ministry of Health - MINSAL)	1.1	-0.060	-0.544	-0.006	1.56
	Social welfare and others (incl. rural insurance)	3.4	0.072	-0.412	-0.014	1.16
	Primary income	100.0	0.484	...	...	...
	Total income [a]	...	0.464	-0.020	...	...
	Total income	...	0.452	-0.032	...	...
El Salvador, 2002	Public social spending	5.0	-0.105	-0.571	-0.027	...
	Education and health	5.0	-0.105	-0.571	-0.027	1.00
	Education	3.2	-0.089	-0.555	-0.017	0.99
	Health	1.9	-0.132	-0.598	-0.011	1.08
	Primary income	100.0	0.466	...	...	...
	Total income	...	0.439	-0.027	...	...

Table II.20 (continued)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): REDISTRIBUTIVE EFFECT OF THE VARIOUS SOCIAL SPENDING ITEMS

(Percentages, concentration and progressiveness coefficients, and reason for change in the Gini for the weight of each item as part of total social spending)

Country	Aggregate and sector	Public social spending				
		Significance as part of primary income	Concentration coefficient	Progressiveness coefficient	Variation in concentration coefficent	Relative redistributive effectiveness
Guatemala, 2000	Public social spending	6.4	0.131	-0.418	-0.025	...
	Education, health and social security	5.1	0.138	-0.411	-0.020	1.00
	Social insurance	0.9	0.648	0.099	0.001	-0.25
	Education and health	4.2	0.031	-0.518	-0.021	1.27
	Education	2.9	0.032	-0.517	-0.015	1.28
	Health	1.3	0.028	-0.521	-0.006	1.31
	Social welfare	1.3	0.048	-0.501	-0.006	1.26
	Primary income	100.0	0.549	...	...	...
	Total income [a]	...	0.529	-0.020	...	...
	Total income	...	0.524	-0.025	...	...
Honduras, 2004	Public social spending	12.8	0.060	-0.451	-0.051	...
	Education, health and social security	11.1	0.094	-0.418	-0.042	0.94
	Pensions	1.4	0.710	0.199	0.003	-0.49
	Education y Health	9.7	0.005	-0.507	-0.045	1.16
	Education	6.6	0.037	-0.474	-0.030	1.11
	Health	3.1	-0.066	-0.577	-0.017	1.40
	Social welfare	1.7	-0.157	-0.668	-0.011	1.64
	Primary income	100.0	0.511	...	...	...
	Total income [a]	...	0.470	-0.042	...	...
	Total income	...	0.460	-0.051	...	...
Jamaica, 1997	Education	5.8	-0.208	-0.560	-0.031	...
	Primary income	100.0	0.352	...	...	...
	Total income	...	0.322	-0.031	...	...
Jamaica, 2000	Education	9.1	0.012	-0.340	-0.028	...
	Primary income	100.0	0.352	...	...	...
	Total income	...	0.324	-0.028	...	...
México, 2002	Public social spending	12.8	0.066	-0.385	-0.044	...
	Education, health and social security	11.4	0.078	-0.373	-0.038	0.98
	Social security	1.5	0.377	-0.074	-0.001	0.21
	Education and Health	9.9	0.034	-0.417	-0.038	1.11
	Education	6.5	0.011	-0.440	-0.027	1.21
	Health	3.4	0.078	-0.373	-0.012	1.06
	Direct transfers (Social welfare)	0.6	-0.373	-0.824	-0.005	2.40
	Housing, sanitation and others (residential electricity subsidy)	0.8	0.236	-0.215	-0.002	0.62
	Primary income	100.0	0.451	...	...	...
	Total income [a]	...	0.413	-0.038	...	...
	Total income	...	0.407	-0.044	...	...
Nicaragua, 2005	Public social spending	18.3	0.011	-0.423	-0.066	...
	Education y Health	14.8	0.001	-0.425	-0.055	1.04
	Education	8.5	0.051	-0.384	-0.030	0.99
	Health	6.3	-0.046	-0.480	-0.028	1.26
	Social welfare	2.9	-0.022	-0.456	-0.013	1.24
	Housing, sanitation and others	0.7	0.193	-0.242	-0.002	0.67
	Primary income	100.0	0.434	...	...	...
	Total income	...	0.369	-0.066	...	...
Panama, 2003	Public social spending	16.5	0.106	-0.432	-0.061	...
	Education, health and social security	16.1	0.108	-0.430	-0.059	1.00
	Pensions	3.9	0.552	0.014	0.001	-0.04
	Education and Health	12.1	-0.036	-0.574	-0.062	1.38
	Education	8.4	-0.051	-0.589	-0.046	1.47
	Health	3.7	-0.002	-0.539	-0.019	1.40
	Social welfare	0.5	0.028	-0.510	-0.002	1.37
	Primary income	100.0	0.538	...	...	...
	Total income [a]	...	0.478	-0.059	...	...
	Total income	...	0.476	-0.061	...	...

Table II.20 (concluded)

AMÉRICA LATINA (18 PAÍSES): EFECTO REDISTRIBUTIVO DE LAS DIFERENTES PARTIDAS DE GASTO SOCIAL

(*En porcentajes, coeficientes de concentración y progresividad, y razón de cambio en el Gini al peso de cada partida dentro del gasto social total*)

Country	Aggregate and sector	Public social spending				
		Significance as part of primary income	Concentration coefficient	Progressiveness coefficient	Variation in concentration coefficent	Relative redistributive effectiveness
Paraguay, 1998	Education	4.0	-0.015	-0.457	-0.017	…
	Primary income	100.0	0.441	...	...	...
	Total income	...	0.425	-0.017	...	...
Peru, 2004	Public social spending	27.1	0.284	-0.144	-0.031	...
	Education, health and social security	4.9	0.065	-0.364	-0.017	3.05
	Pensiones	9.3	0.605	0.176	0.015	-1.42
	Education and health	16.9	0.133	-0.296	-0.043	2.23
	Education	9.2	-0.026	-0.455	-0.038	3.67
	Health	7.7	0.324	-0.105	-0.007	0.86
	Nutrition programmes (social welfare)	0.9	-0.177	-0.606	-0.006	5.29
	Primary income	100.0	0.429	...	...	...
	Total income [a]	...	0.411	-0.017	...	...
	Total income	...	0.398	-0.031	...	...
Dominican República, 1998	Education	3.3	0.035	-0.393	-0.012	…
	Primary income	100.0	0.428	...	...	...
	Total income	...	0.416	-0.012	...	...
Uruguay, 1999	Public social spending	27.4	0.020	-0.388	-0.083	...
	Education, health and social security	16.9	-0.046	-0.454	-0.065	1.28
	Retirements and pensions	8.4	0.268	-0.139	-0.011	0.42
	Education and health	8.4	-0.361	-0.769	-0.060	2.33
	Education	4.3	-0.274	-0.681	-0.028	2.15
	Health	4.1	-0.452	-0.860	-0.034	2.71
	Social security and welfare	9.5	0.171	-0.237	-0.021	0.71
	Primary income	100.0	0.408	...	...	...
	Total income [a]	...	0.342	-0.065	...	...
	Total income	...	0.324	-0.083	...	...
Uruguay, 2003	Public social spending	26.5	0.044	-0.377	-0.079	...
	Education, health and social security	25.3	0.130	-0.291	-0.059	0.78
	Retirements and pensions	17.3	0.346	-0.074	-0.011	0.21
	Education and health	8.0	-0.341	-0.762	-0.056	2.37
	Education	4.3	-0.257	-0.678	-0.028	2.18
	Health	3.7	-0.438	-0.858	-0.031	2.78
	Social security and welfare	18.5	0.211	-0.210	-0.033	0.59
	Primary income	100.0	0.421	...	...	...
	Total income [a]	...	0.362	-0.059	...	...
	Total income	...	0.342	-0.079	...	...

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of national studies.

[a] Primary income and redistributive impact of education, health and social security.

Chapter III

The quality of education: inequalities that go beyond access and educational progression

The considerable expansion of education coverage, which in some countries applies to the entire school-age population, is one of the sector's most striking advances in recent decades. These advances, which are the result of pro-active social and educational policies, have occurred in periods characterized by relatively sustained (but not very high) economic growth, a gradual modernization of State management and increased institutional development, as well as major sociocultural changes in society and in terms of the relationships between social actors. Such improvements have often involved transformations of management methods in education systems, sustained budgetary increases, diversification of funding systems and participation of economic agents and social stakeholders.

There is consensus around the importance and the benefits of educational achievement for human development, citizenship and rights entitlement, increased economic productivity and a resulting increase in competitiveness, as well as higher and improved levels of social equity and participation. Nevertheless, the achievements have not been evenly spread throughout all spheres of education, and have served to highlight shortcomings in terms of the quality of education. To a large extent, the various problems relating to quality and other difficulties of the education system (school completion, repetition and drop-out) are manifestations of a much deeper and entrenched phenomenon: social inequality.

States have made considerable efforts in education, by steadily increasing public spending in that area. International agencies have proposed guidelines that have been included in legal instruments and agreed at regional and international summits, where participants have also suggested the setting of concrete targets with specific time frames. Although many such targets are on track to being achieved, the effects that major social inequalities have on educational systems have not been significantly tackled. This has been highlighted by the issue of the quality of education, which is linked to the success of universal access to education and higher retention rates.

This chapter examines different educational advances in the region, the various manifestations of inequality throughout the education cycle, and the way in which some of these are part of the problem of education quality.

A. Advances in the right to education: access, progression and completion

Since the early 1990s, Latin America and the Caribbean has made considerable progress in the field of education. Follow-up to the Millennium Development Goals reveals that, although there are some differences among countries, the region is on track to achieving the main educational targets by 2015. Some of this progress, such as increased access to various levels of education, has benefited almost all school-age children and young people. However, most progress has not been sufficiently equitable or has had unequal effects on educational progression and achievement. Having said that, socio-economic inequalities of origin are gradually losing significance in the passage of children and young people through the educational system.

Education is a fundamental part of every human being's development. As stated in article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948):

(1) Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.

(2) Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.

(3) Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children.[1]

Knowledge about the world, as well as about other people and their codes of conduct, enables people to interact, integrate and take on different roles in society. Much of the knowledge acquired in education is adaptive, which facilitates access to new knowledge and advances concerning reality and how that can change. The content of education should therefore enable individuals to adapt to the codes of modernity in their social environment and consider the changes (particularly technological ones) they will face in a globalized world.

Generally speaking, formal education tends to be progressive, that is it establishes steps of increasing difficulty for the development of skills and abilities among children and young people. Pre-primary education is the first stage of organized education, and is mainly intended to prepare very young children for the school environment. Primary education is the beginning of the systematic study of reading, writing and mathematics. As for secondary education, its first cycle is intended to complete basic education and lay the foundation for ongoing education. The second cycle of secondary education is aimed at greater subject specialization and a deeper understanding of particular subjects, while specific new content is also introduced. The completion of the secondary cycle provides access to post-secondary education (tertiary or non-tertiary), where labour and academic specializations are acquired (UNESCO, 1997a).

[1] See <http://www.unhchr.ch/udhr/lang/eng.htm>.

Unlike developed countries, where secondary education is compulsory, most Latin American countries only stipulate the basic cycle (primary and early secondary) as obligatory (see box III.1). However, educational content is delivered when appropriate in the learning process and according to the maturity of pupils, with content relevant to the labour market imparted later in the educational systems (upper secondary and post-secondary). This means that dropping out of school often leaves children and young people without the basic skills needed to function properly in the world of work.

Box III.1
DURATION OF EDUCATION CYCLES, COMPULSORY NATURE OF SECONDARY EDUCATION AND INDICATORS USED TO MEASURE EDUCATIONAL INEQUALITY

Adequate monitoring of the situation of the region's countries, taking account of the specificities of their education systems, requires a consideration of the following general aspects of school cycles: duration, official age of entry and the number of years' compulsory schooling. The table below provides that information for 19 countries.

LATIN AMERICA (19 COUNTRIES): DURATION OF SUBCYCLES, AGE OF ENTRY AND NUMBER OF YEARS COMPULSORY SCHOOLING, 1998

Country	Primary education		Secondary education					
			Duration of cycle (years)		Age upon entry		Years of obligatory schooling	
	Age upon entry	Duration	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary
Argentina	6	6	3	3	12	15	3	0
Bolivia	6	6	2	4	12	14	2	0
Brazil	7	4	4	3	11	15	4	0
Chile	6	6	2	4	12	14	2	4
Colombia	6	5	4	2	12	14	4	0
Costa Rica	6	6	3	2	12	15	3	1
Cuba	6	6	3	3	12	15	3	0
Ecuador	6	6	3	3	12	15	3	0
El Salvador	7	6	3	3	13	16	3	0
Guatemala	7	6	3	2	13	16	3	0
Honduras	7	6	3	3	13	16	0	0
Mexico	6	6	3	3	12	15	3	0
Nicaragua	7	6	3	2	13	16	0	0
Panama	6	6	3	3	12	15	3	0
Paraguay	6	6	3	3	12	15	3	0
Peru	6	6	3	2	12	15	3	2
Dominican Republic	7	6	2	4	12	14	2	0
Uruguay	6	6	3	3	12	15	3	0
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	6	6	3	2	12	15	3	1

ECLAC (with the support of the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Latin America and the Caribbean - OREALC) recently produced a proposal to expand the targets for the second Millennium Development Goal. The official target is to ensure that all boys and girls complete a full course of primary schooling by 2015, and the following three additional targets considered viable in the region have been added: (i) progressive universalization of pre-school education; (ii) universal completion of lower secondary school with increasing access to the upper secondary cycle, and (iii) gradual eradication of illiteracy in the adult population.

The proposal also identified various indicators and data sources relevant to the monitoring of those targets. There are plans to use indicators from institutional records, as they constitute official archives, are generally available in many countries and tend to be representative. However, such records often present shortcomings that range from a lack of more specific indicators (such as information by degree), to their variable quality and the lack of disaggregated information for heterogeneous social groups. It is therefore necessary to use complementary sources, with household surveys constituting the most common and reliable example. As a result, the proposal

Box III.1 (concluded)

included a series of indicators from household surveys, as they have the advantage of displaying inequities according to the different characteristics of children and young people and, in the case of educational completion, provide a highly relevant indicator. It is vital to keep sight of the limitations of household surveys, such as the fact that they use sample information (which may be less representative in the case of small population strata) or the imprecise nature of measuring in complete years for the purposes of educational statistics.

This chapter studies inequities based on household surveys carried out in 18 of the region's countries. The indicators used are: attendance rate irrespective of level or cycle and net rates of attendance and completion for each educational cycle. Indicators of educational progression and drop out are based on methodology from the 2002-2003 edition of the *Social Panorama of Latin America*, and use the criteria indicated in the table above to define age groups and cycle duration.

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), "Hacia la ampliación del segundo objetivo del milenio. Una propuesta para América Latina y el Caribe", *Políticas sociales series*, No. 132 (LC/L.2712-P/E), Santiago, Chile, April 2007. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.07.II.G.60; United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), *Regional EFA Monitoring Report 2003. Education for all in Latin America: a goal within our reach*, Santiago, Chile, January 2004; Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), *Social Panorama of Latin America 2002-2003* (LC/G.2209-P/I), Santiago, Chile, May 2004. United Nations publication, Sales No. E.03.II.G.185.

1. Access to education

One of the main achievements has been the increased access of children and young people to the formal education system. This is partly the result of significant investment that countries have made in infrastructure, which has made it possible to extend the coverage of educational services. However, this has not always gone hand in hand with the necessary expansion in the number of teachers and the provision of the materials needed to support the learning process.

A higher level of supply within the education system is a necessary yet insufficient condition for increasing access by the school-age population. Besides the lack of education services, this population group faces many problems such as scarce resources (such that families steer children and young people towards income-generating activities); the effects of child undernutrition (which can delay children's entry into primary education and hamper educational progression (ECLAC/WFP, 2007)); the large distances to be covered in rural areas (often accompanied by adverse weather conditions); and the lack of incentives for older children to remain in school, due to the opportunity costs associated with studying or the irrelevance of the curriculum to their interests or reality (UNESCO/OREALC, 2007).

Since the beginning of the 1990s, access by the school-age population has increased throughout education, especially at the higher levels, although there are differences among countries (see table III.1). This is mainly a reflection of rising standards of attainment in primary education, which are needed for pupils to go on to the next level. However, progress in access to pre-school education has been more moderate, despite the acknowledged importance of early education in stimulating the learning process for the rest of children's lives. Accordingly the World Education Forum (UNESCO, 2000) set the target of extending and improving protection and integral education in the early years, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children. The Regional Educational Indicators Project, for its part, set a target of universalizing early education, which involves increasing the net rate of enrolment of children aged from 3 to 5 years in Latin America by 100%.[2]

There is evidence to suggest that the benefits of pre-primary education are demonstrated by improved cognitive development and school attainment, lower drop-out rates, higher enrolment in basic education, adults with a greater ability to integrate society, higher social returns, better employment opportunities and increased productivity. Early education makes a lifelong difference to children from low socio-economic groups, as it often provides access to nutrition and food services, primary health care, family support, etc.

In around 2005, almost 84% of boys and girls one year younger than the legal age for starting primary education were attending pre-school education (ages 5

[2] The Regional Educational Indicators Project is supported by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO).

or 6), which was 24 percentage points higher than the figure recorded in the early 1990s (less than 63%). In Costa Rica and the Dominican Republic, the net rate of pre-primary attendance is still below the Latin American average from the early 1990s. The rates are also low in Bolivia and Honduras, with figures of less than 70%. In Chile, although attendance rates remain relatively low, State institutions have been making considerable efforts to increase them (especially among the lower socio-economic strata) (see box III.2).

Box III.2
PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION COVERAGE IN CHILE

Pre-school education is not compulsory in Chile, and families decide on the type of care received by their children. A significant proportion of services are provided by State institutions or State-financed institutions such as the National Board for Nursery Schools (JUNJI), the National Foundation for Integral Child Development (INTEGRA) and municipal establishments with pre-kinder and kindergarten services (mainly for disadvantaged children).

In 2005, out of the 493,709 children attending pre-school education, 61% were covered by the regular Ministry of Education system, while 24.7% attended JUNJI or INTEGRA institutions. Between 2003 and 2006, the net rate of pre-school attendance rose from 15.9% to 36.9% (with the rate in the first income quintile rising from 25.4% to 32.3%). However, there remain major differences in the fifth quintile (households with the highest incomes), where the net rate of pre-school attendance was as high as 47.4% in 2006 (National Socio-economic Survey, CASEN, 2006).

The priorities of the Government of President Bachelet concerning young children include providing boys and girls with more opportunities; offering more equitable coverage; guaranteeing quality care; facilitating higher levels of learning; respecting diversity, creating conditions of equality from birth for all girls and boys; and advocating family participation and integration.

According to data from the Ministry of Education, when the policy to extend coverage for the first level of transition was launched in 2001, only 14% of 4-year olds were covered. By the end of 2006, this figure was in excess of 60%. Although coverage has increased for children aged between 5 and 6, there remain significant gaps in terms of younger children. This limits the economic participation of women in the poorest quintiles, increases the workload of those who are employed and hampers the potential development of the children concerned. In 2006, a quarter (25.5%) of children aged between 0 and 3 were attending day-care centres or nurseries (CASEN, 2006). The challenge of building 800 nurseries has been met, and the new aim is to assess the quality and equity achieved in pre-school education.

Source: Ministry of Education, Chile [online] http://www.mineduc.cl/index0.php?id_portal=1; Consejo Asesor Presidencial para la Reforma de las Políticas de Infancia, *El futuro de los niños es siempre hoy. Propuestas del Consejo Asesor Presidencial para la Reforma de las Políticas de Infancia*, Santiago, Chile, June 2006 and National Socio-economic Survey, CASEN 2006.

Attendance among children of primary-school age is practically universal (97%), although access was already widespread (91%) in the early 1990s.[3] Access by children and young people at the higher cycles of education has also increased considerably (in comparison with the low levels of access of the early 1990s), due to increased school coverage and higher retention rates in education systems. Since 1990, attendance among children and young people of early-secondary age has risen by 12% (from 84% to 94%), while attendance among those of upper-secondary age rose by over 15 percentage points (from about 61% to 76%). Growth was slightly slower at the tertiary level (either secondary or post-secondary), with attendance rising from 28% to 35%. This was mainly due to social pressure on young people to enter the labour market.

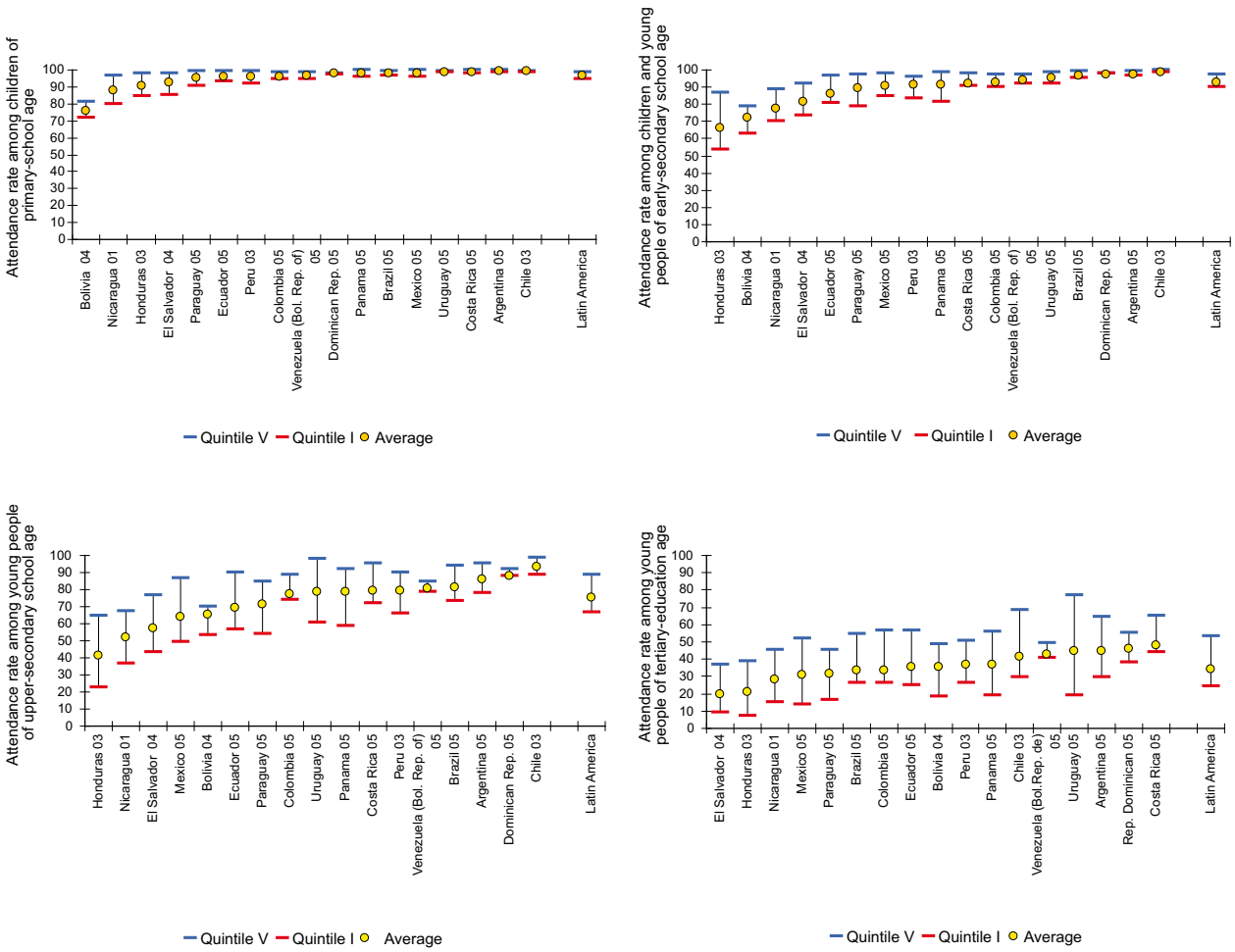
Considerable increases were also recorded in the net access of young people in the first and second cycles of secondary education (considering those students who attend at the level appropriate to their age): the net rate of attendance in the first cycle rose from 45% to 69%, while the rate for the second cycle almost doubled from 27% to 47%. This shows that, in just 15 years, significant

[3] Considering only those children of primary school age who actually attend primary school, the net rates were 90% in 1990 and 94% in 2005. Unlike in higher cycles, at primary level the difference between the two sets of rates is due to pupils who have jumped forward a class. For further details on the indicators based on household surveys, see box III.1.

progress has been made in the percentage of 14 to 17 year olds attending upper-secondary school education. A similar increase was observed in the net access to tertiary education: the percentage of young people aged 18 to 23 studying at post-secondary level rose from 11% to 19%.[4]

However, this significant progress in access to education is undermined by the high level of inequality in the social structure of the region's countries. One of the problems inherent in the structure of education systems —and one that makes them vulnerable to social inequality— is the cumulative dimension. Throughout the life cycle, exclusion factors come into play and have differential (and often permanent) effects on children and young people (see figure III.1).

Figure III.1
LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): SCHOOL ATTENDANCE RATES AMONG SCHOOL-AGE CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE, IRRESPECTIVE OF THEIR CYCLE, BY SELECTED PER CAPITA INCOME QUINTILES, AROUND 2005
(*Percentages of total children/young people of that age group*)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

4 The reference used was the quinquennial age group that should have left secondary education under normal conditions (i.e. those who entered on time without repeating a year or dropping out). This varied among countries (17, 18 or 19 years of age).

There is a close link between the level of access to education and reducing disparities.[5] General advances in terms of coverage and access were of greater benefit to lower income strata, although these same strata are more affected by the gradual reduction in access to higher levels of education. This is particularly relevant to net attendance rates, as it is children and young people from low-income homes who have the most difficulties in progressing through and completing levels of education.

2. Educational progression

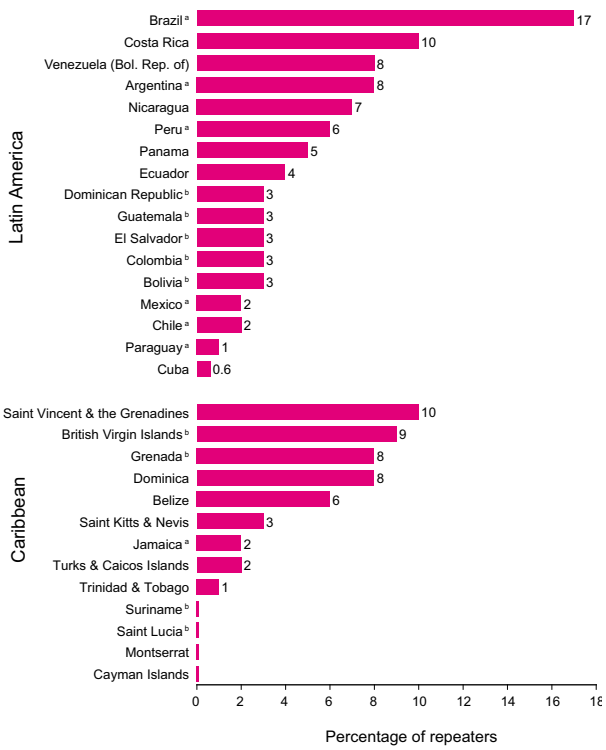
Underachievement and grade repetition act as a disincentive for retaining low-income students, as the opportunity cost of finishing education cycles rises. High costs are also involved for education systems. According to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics, in around 2000, the cost of grade repetition (albeit with differences among countries) represented a non-negligible proportion of GDP in the region. The percentage was less than 0.1% of GDP in Chile and 0.7% in Brazil, while that proportion was just below or above 2% of GDP in Argentina, Colombia, Jamaica, Panama, Peru and Uruguay. It has been calculated that the region loses around US$ 12.0 billion per year due to grade repetition (ECLAC/UNESCO, 2005).

Figure III.2 illustrates the percentage of pupils who repeated secondary level (general programmes) during 2004, according to ministerial records and UNESCO estimates. The regional situation is fairly uneven, with high levels of grade repetition observed in several Caribbean countries/territories, Brazil, Costa Rica, Argentina and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela. However, some of these differences are as much to do with each country's varying demands for school progression and the complexity of subjects or the number of subjects that pupils are allowed to fail without having to repeat the entire grade.

The indicators commonly used to measure educational underachievement (rate of timely completion, estimated time of completion and grade repetition rate) are adequate for analysing the internal efficiency of education systems. Unfortunately, this information does not usually include student characteristics, which means it cannot be used to analyse inequalities. One option is to develop indicators that assess school progression on the basis of household surveys, although these do not isolate the effects of grade repetition on drop-out or re-entry situations that occur prior to measurement.

According to information from household surveys, between 1990 and 2005 there was a considerable increase in the timely progression of children aged 10 to 14 throughout primary education and in some levels of secondary education (from 55% to 78%). The percentage of timely promotions among students aged 15 to 19 also

Figure III.2
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (30 COUNTRIES/ TERRITORIES): STUDENTS OF GENERAL SECONDARY SCHOOL PROGRAMMES WHO REPEATED THE SCHOOL YEAR, 2004
(*Percentages*)



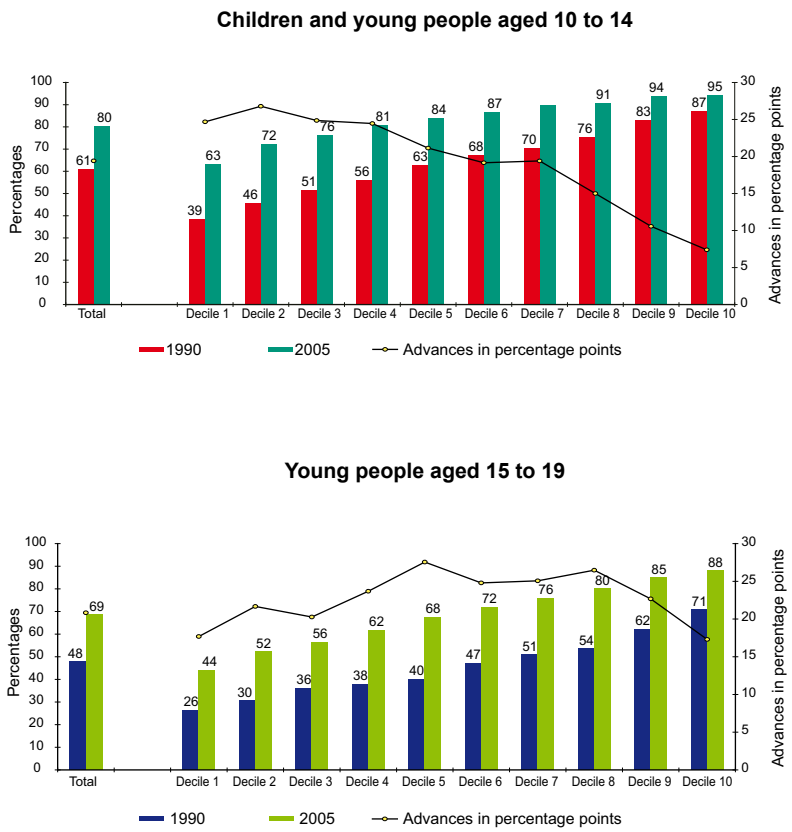
Source: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), *Global Education Digest 2006*, Paris, 2006.
[a] Provisional data.
[b] Estimates from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

[5] The statistical evidence (correlations by periods and cycles) indicates that disparities between quintiles are considerably more rigid in terms of access to tertiary education. Increased access to tertiary education in the region benefited mainly middle-income strata.

rose significantly (from 43% to 66%). In both age groups, the increase was almost 24 percentage points.[6]

In the youngest cohort, the advances have been proportionally more beneficial to low-income pupils (who still have high drop-out rates not captured by the indicator), except those from the first income decile (see figure III.3). In the cohort aged 15 to 19, the advances have been more unequal: favouring mainly students from middle-income strata (advances among the richest strata are naturally smaller as they already had higher rates of timely progression in the early 1990s). Despite considerable increases in access for the most disadvantaged strata, students from such groups nonetheless find it more difficult to progress, particularly when they reach early and upper secondary cycles.

Figure III.3
LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE ACHIEVING TIMELY PROGRESSION IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION CYCLES, BY HOUSEHOLD PER CAPITA INCOME DECILES, AROUND 1990 AND 2005 [a]
(*Percentages*)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.
[a] Possibility of one year's underachievement due to late entry into the school system.

6 Despite the strong link between the progression of pupils aged 10 to 14 and those aged 15 to 19, this is not a longitudinal analysis. Strictly speaking, the situation of the two cohorts is therefore independent.

As a result, disparities in educational underachievement have widened: among pupils aged 10 to 14, the ratio between the percentage of underachieving pupils from the first and fifth per capita income quintiles went from 3:1 to 4:2, while among students aged 15 to 19 the ratio rose from 2:5 to 3:8. A comparison of quintiles of students according to their household per capita income shows that, in 1990, among pupils aged 10 to 14, there were four underachievers from the first quintile for every one underachiever from the fifth quintile. In 2005, there were five underachievers from the first quintile for every one from the fifth quintile (among students with late progression, 35.4% are from the lowest 20% of households in terms of income).[7] Among students aged 15 to 19, the ratio went from 1:2 to 1:4. The lower level of progression inequality among this cohort is mainly due to the drop-out rate among young people from low-income households. However, educational underachievement is precisely one of the factors that influences school drop-out rates.

It is vital for countries to identify the causes of underachievement and grade repetition and to formulate policies that universalize enrolment at a timely age and improve the rate of progression and retention within the system. The savings achieved by tackling such efficiencies can then be used to reinforce those very policies, especially if they incorporate means of compensating for the effects of social inequality, so as to improve the quality of the learning process for those students facing the greatest socio-economic difficulties at school (ECLAC/UNESCO, 2005).

3. Completing levels of education

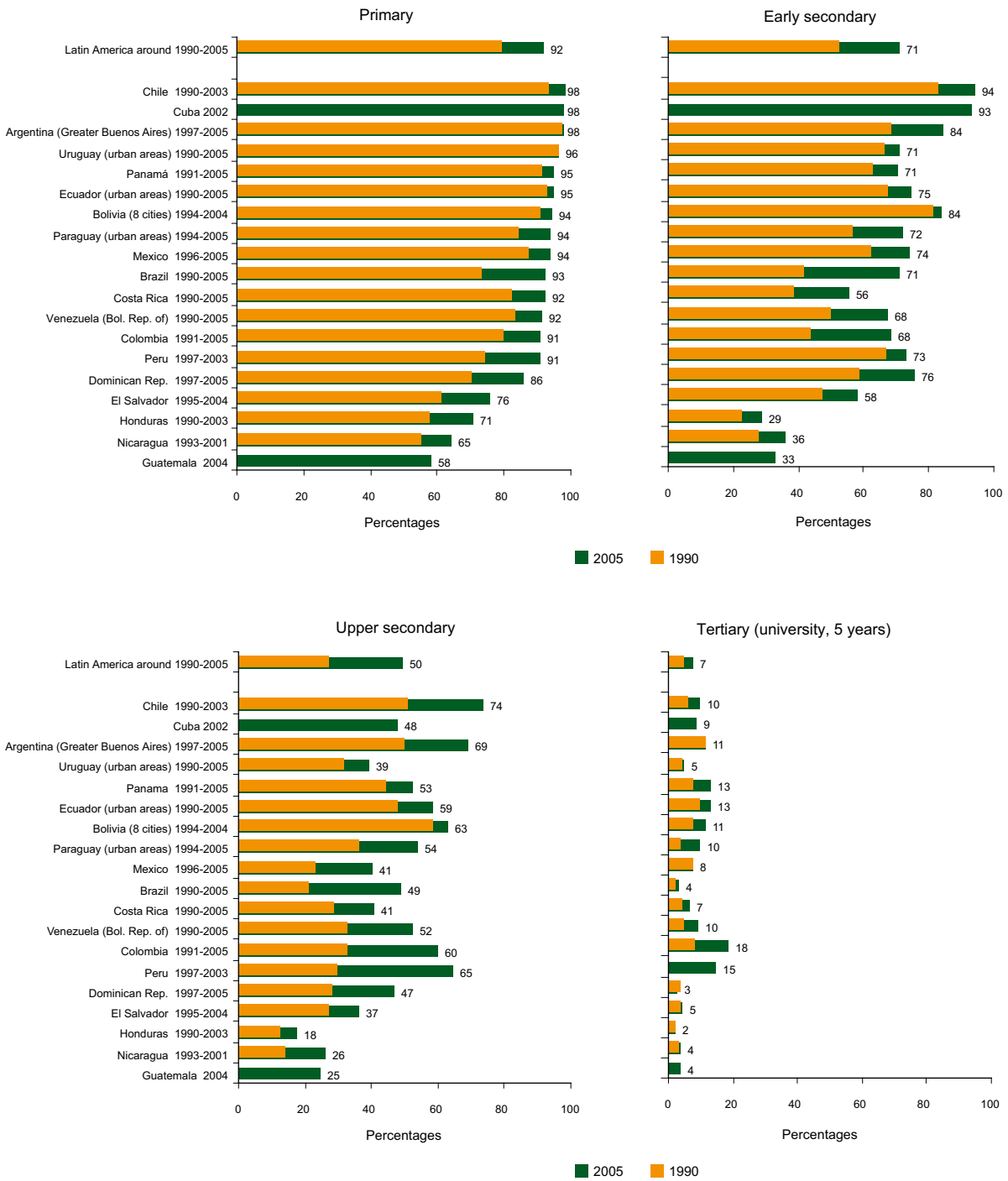
The most substantial progress has been made in the completion of levels of education, which gives some indication of knowledge-acquisition achievements associated with the learning process of each educational cycle.[8]

Advances in this area have been even more impressive than progress in terms of access, mainly because levels of achievement recorded in the late 1980s and early 1990s were considerably lower. Although completion levels for primary education (5 or 6 years study) were already fairly high in the 1990s (79% among 15 to 19 year olds), by 2000 almost 92% of young people were completing the primary cycle. This progress bodes well for achieving universal primary education in less than one generation. However, some countries such as Guatemala, Nicaragua, Honduras and El Salvador are still a long way from achieving this target, as levels of completion there are even lower than the Latin American average from the early 1990s (see figure III.4).

7 Households with higher dependency rates tend to have lower per capita incomes, which is why there tends to be a higher concentration of children and young people in low income strata when the population is divided up into per capita income quintiles. Given that it is not therefore possible to calculate ratios, quintiles of students were constructed based on age group.

8 Although completion of educational cycles is a good indicator of various stages of learning being fulfilled, there are many reasons to point out that its validity is not conclusive: the automatic promotion mechanisms used in some countries (in the first grades of primary education), along with other factors such as differences in the quality of educational services and the learning tools available to students from different social groups, make it difficult to formulate concrete statements on the significance of such completion.

Figure III.4
LATIN AMERICA (19 COUNTRIES): COMPLETION OF CYCLES OF EDUCATION AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 (PRIMARY), 20 TO 24 (SECONDARY) AND 25 TO 29 (TERTIARY), AROUND 1990 AND 2005
(*Percentages of the total number of children/young people in that age group*)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries; the information from Cuba is from the 2002 Housing and Population Census.

The most striking advances were made in the completion of secondary education. Completion of the early-secondary cycle rose from 53% to 71%, partly thanks to the efforts of many of the region's countries to make this two or three year cycle compulsory.

The most significant progress was made in the completion of the second cycle of secondary education. Over the course of about 15 years, the percentage of young people aged 20 to 24 to have completed that cycle almost doubled from 27% to 50%.

There were also improvements in the completion of higher education, although on a smaller scale: the percentage of young people aged 25 to 29 to have completed at least five years of higher education increased from 4.8% to 7.4%.

The importance of these advances for the region is that they have benefited mainly low-income children and young people. Although advances in educational progression have been somewhat uneven, the retention capacity of education systems has nonetheless improved.

In summary, increased access to education systems has mostly benefited low-income strata, although this has not had a wide enough impact in terms of reducing disparities in educational achievement.

In all age groups eligible to attend school, increased access to education has gone hand in hand with a reduction in inequality. As the level of education increases, however, the disparities increase because educational underachievement has a proportionally larger effect on lower income pupils. As a result, although much of the progress made has reduced inequality in school attainment, this reduction is less significant in higher levels of education. This means that, in tertiary education, advances in completion rates benefit only a small proportion of low-income young people, with almost all the progress benefiting students from middle and higher strata.

Box III.3
UNIVERSALIZATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN CUBA

Although higher education in Cuba has been governed by the idea of universalizing knowledge, the latest phase is one of transcending the traditional definition of university to develop the processes involved in close harmony with communities.

The main purpose is to provide mass opportunities for accessing higher education, which involves providing third-level studies within all the country's municipalities so as to facilitate access by young people who have completed levels 3 or 4 of the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) but were unable to continue with university studies for some reason.

The new stage is based on three pillars: a new and flexible model of "blended learning" (face-to-face and distance) that encourages students to complete their studies and recognizes the fact that the pace of learning depends on the individual; the use of public human resources and materials from within local areas; and other equipment guaranteed to be provided by the State.

The design of blended learning plans is intended to help young people combine studies with work responsibilities, on the basis that they should be trained to the same level, receive the same qualification and be able to work in the same areas. Unlike other university programmes, these students are assessed on their individual progress throughout the course, according to those subjects passed. The programme does not use concepts such as grade repetition common in other models of education. There is no time limit for finishing the course, which ends with a state exam that is taken once all the relevant subjects have been passed.

Municipalization promotes the use of the infrastructure of secondary education at different times of day, guarantees essential teaching materials and the use of information and communication technologies (ICTs) and boosts part-time contracts for university teachers and other resident professionals who are qualified to teach and willing to support the programme. These professionals have become key players in the local management of knowledge and the development of human capital.

Municipalized higher education has made it possible to raise the gross take-up rate of tertiary education from 21% in 1998 to 33% in 2002, and up to around 60% in 2007, which is similar to the levels of developed countries.

For the 2006-2007 school year, matriculation for municipal university places made up 80% of total higher education enrolment.

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of A. López, "Las tendencias de la educación superior y su expresión en el proceso de universalización de la educación superior cubana", Havana, Educación Universitaria, 2005; R. Sánchez and others, "La nueva universidad cubana. Universalización de la educación superior", document presented at the high level seminar "Construyendo equidad con políticas sociales", Havana, 2006 and F. Benítez and others, "El impacto de la universalización de la educación superior en el proceso docente educativo", *Revista pedagogía universitaria*, vol. 11, No. 2, 2006.

B. Inequality in educational opportunities: more than differences in income

In recent years, advances in terms of educational access, progression and completion have not been evenly spread through all sections of the population. Girls and young women record better educational achievement, which is offset by the deep inequalities that take hold once they enter employment. Advances have also been made in rural areas, especially among indigenous populations, although these have not been sufficient to close the gaps observed in the early 1990s. The intergenerational transmission of educational opportunities still appears to operate in the form of difficulties in accessing and completing the cycles of upper secondary, and especially tertiary, education.

Although significant progress has been made in education, levels of access to the various cycles, as well as the characteristics of educational progression and achievement remain seriously affected by economic inequalities. However, income disparities are only the expression of a series of processes that differentiate individuals throughout their lives and that often affect how their skills develop There are many individual, family and environmental factors that influence how individuals tackle and make use of life experiences, particularly that of education. Given that many of the variables that affect the ability to compete on equal terms are interlinked, reference is often made to the "syndrome" of social exclusion and inequality. In the same sense, the intergenerational reproduction of poverty is due to the combined effect of a number of factors including undernutrition, low levels of education, non-existent or weak social networks, social discrimination (based on race or gender), lack of access to various social services (especially in rural areas), unemployment, underemployment, informal employment, lack of access to social protection systems, low income and higher rates of dependence.

Many editions of the *Social Panorama of Latin America* and other ECLAC publications have tackled the intergenerational transmission of opportunities for well-being (ECLAC, 1998; 2004c). They have found long-standing transmission mechanisms of opportunities related to family characteristics, especially in terms of assets, educational and cultural levels and capital, family structure, area of residence and ethnic group.

As access to education systems becomes more generalized to include a greater number of children and young people from a range of economic strata, the foundations should be laid for a transition to more meritocratic societies in which individuals' level of well-being is basically dependent on their own efforts and choices, rather than on their origins. However, even as access to education becomes more widely available, socio-economic origin remains a major determining factor for differences in educational progression and completion. The following section outlines the scale of those differences based on certain characteristics of origin that can be measured using household surveys: gender, area of residence and ethnic group, and household educational capital.

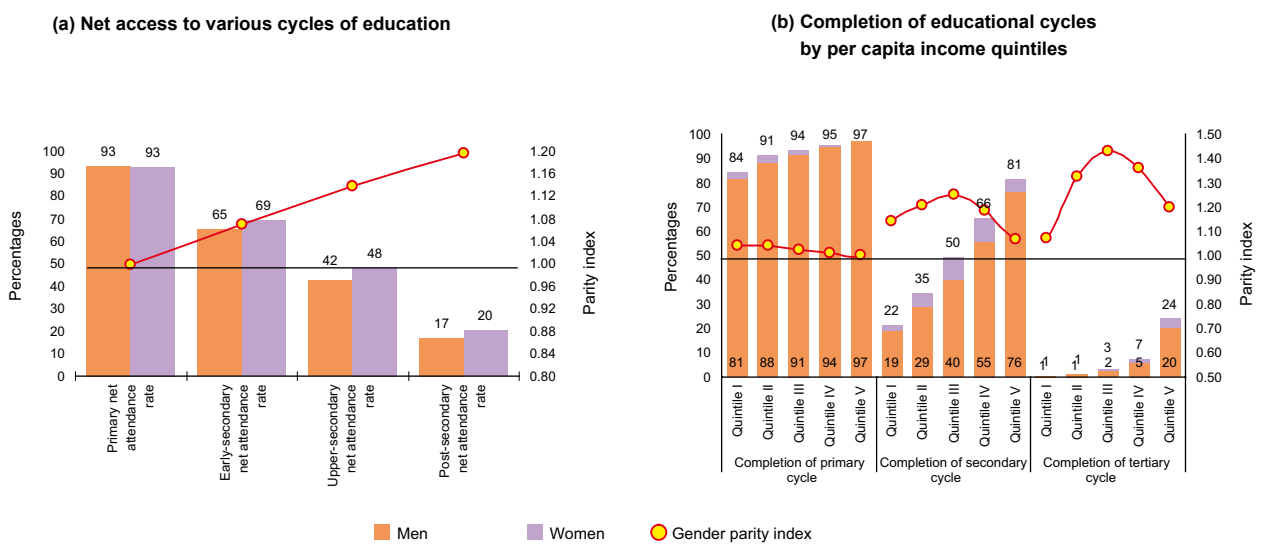
1. Gender differences

Within the international community, there is wide political recognition of the importance of gender equality as an end in itself and as a means to development. In the context of international goals concerning education, gender equality has become important as an integral part of anti-discrimination policies to tackle the various manifestations of inequality. As stated in the regional report on the implementation of the Millennium Development Goals (United Nations, 2005), these include labour discrimination, lack of access to productive resources, inequality in the home, violence against women and a low level of participation in decision-making.

The report stresses that combating poverty needs to involve improvements to the level of education of the population, especially among girls. Increasing education offers women different life paths: promoting autonomy and self-esteem, delaying marriage and motherhood and better equipping them to care for children and stay in school.

Governmental and international agencies alike agree that the greatest advances for women have been precisely those observed in the sphere of education. In all cycles and levels of education, access, progression and achievement among girls and young women exceed that of males. Gender parity has been achieved in terms of access to education. If overage children (starting or leaving school late) are excluded, women outnumber men to a greater extent as they progress higher up in the educational system (see figure III.5a).

Figure III.5
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): INDICATORS OF EDUCATIONAL ACCESS AND ACHIEVEMENT, BY SEX AND INDEX OF DISPARITY BETWEEN MEN AND WOMEN, AROUND 2005 [a]
(*Percentages and rates*)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] The gender parity index is the ratio between the percentage of women and men and vice versa (depending on the indicator), such that a value over 1:00 is favourable to women, while a value below 1:00 is favourable to men.

Differences in timely access at each level are associated with two major factors: rates of drop-out and progression within and between cycles of education. First, although there are no significant gender differences for drop-out rates in the region as a whole, boys do tend to drop out more than girls in all cycles and subcycles of education. However, trends differ in some countries: in Bolivia, Guatemala and Peru, the disparity favours males in all cycles (although this decreases in secondary education). The proportion of girls who drop out during or after completing primary education is substantially higher than among boys. This tendency is even stronger among indigenous populations in rural areas. In Guatemala, the situation is reversed in secondary education, with males displaying higher drop-out rates. Other exceptions include El Salvador, where drop-out rates are higher among girls at the end of primary education and during secondary school. In Mexico, female drop-out is concentrated at the end of primary education, while in Honduras, Paraguay and the Dominican Republic, a higher proportion of girls than boys drop out during the secondary cycle. This is despite the fact that, in all countries, women have higher levels of timely progression through all cycles. One plausible reason for girls' dropping out is the prevalence of cultures and subcultures that, to a greater or lesser extent, define female roles in which the skills acquired in formal education are of no social relevance. This means that less value is attached to their progression through school and improvements in their educational attainment.

On the other hand, women record higher levels of completion of educational cycles than men, with the female bias increasing in the higher levels of education (except in terms of tertiary education). This is because, among women who complete secondary education, a smaller percentage go on to tertiary education than among men.

Although the disparities between men and women in the completion of primary education decreased between 1990 and 2005, amidst a widespread increase in educational achievement, the differences in the completion of the two subcycles of secondary education have remained relatively stable. The trend is different for tertiary education: in 1990, the percentage of men who had completed tertiary education was slightly higher than among women; today, that situation has been reversed.

The disparities in favour of women in the completion of primary education widen further down the income scale, as the poorest groups have a greater incentive to encourage sons to enter the labour market early. The situation is different for secondary education, as the largest achievement disparities are noticeable in the middle-income strata, which may be a continuation of the process observed at the primary level: more teenage boys from low- to middle-income groups enter the labour market, combined with increased drop out rates among girls from low-income groups at the end of primary education. Lastly, tertiary education appears to show a consolidation of earlier processes, because although women tend to outperform men in terms of educational achievement at this level, this trend is more striking in middle-income strata.

In the early 1990s, the situation was different: although the overall levels were lower, in the first three quintiles more men than women completed tertiary education (due to the traditional reproductive role of women that still exists, albeit to a lesser degree). Cultural bias in the type of profession chosen by men and women still exists: in 2004 (according to UNESCO), around 57% of graduates from tertiary education were women. In the areas of education, health and well-being and services, women accounted for 70% of graduates, while only representing 34% of science and technology graduates. Two thirds of the just under 400,000 women who graduated in 2004 had studied education, social sciences, business and law (UNESCO, 2006).

In summary, although the situation was already favourable to women in the early 1990s, further advances have since been made in terms of gender equity within education. On the one hand, disparities between men and women have decreased as part of widespread progress in education and, on the other, tertiary education has seen increased access and achievement by women, thereby reversing the male bias from the beginning of the decade. This constitutes a major step forward for increasing equal opportunities for both genders, as increased educational achievement among women goes some way towards offsetting the deep inequities they experience in the labour market, despite some ongoing segmentation of professions.

2. Inequities between urban and rural areas and ethnic groups

Children and young people living in rural areas find it more difficult to access education services. Besides being more likely to be affected by poverty and other hardships (malnutrition, limited access to health and other basic services), such children are often unable to attend school because of the limited supply of establishments or the distances they would have to cover. In some cases, the inadequate conditions of schooling are the result of insufficient infrastructure, maintenance, teaching materials and teachers.

In the 1980s and 1990s, Latin American countries made significant efforts to extend the supply of education in rural areas. In many countries, such investment (mainly in infrastructure) was made through social investment funds (ECLAC, 1997), and was not always accompanied by a corresponding investment in teacher training, furniture and teaching materials. Nowadays, the difficulties in accessing education faced by low-income groups (often concentrated in rural areas) are combined with a lack of supply of secondary education establishments. This forces young people and their families to develop migration strategies for students to study away from home, in small towns or major cities (depending on the resources available for that purpose).

In countries that are home to various native and Afro-descendent populations, the above-mentioned exclusion factors combine with racial discrimination, which manifests itself in the form of increased marginalization and a more engrained reproduction of poverty in such groups. Indigenous peoples, who mainly live in isolated rural or forest areas, often have huge problems in accessing education, the content of which is ill-suited to their sociocultural characteristics and specific needs.

Although disparities in access to education by children from urban and rural areas are not striking at the level of primary education, they do increase noticeably in higher cycles. At the beginning of the period in question, 86% of children of primary-school age in rural areas had access to education, and this figure increased by almost 10 percentage points by 2005. In urban areas, on the other hand, access increased by just under four percentage points. The most noteworthy progress in rural areas is undoubtedly the increased retention rate of young people aged 14 to 18, with 63% of young people of that age continuing to study, irrespective of the level of underachievement, compared with only 41% in 1990.

In terms of educational completion, although there are major differences between young people from urban and rural areas, the disparities are smaller than for level of income (except in the completion of primary education). Furthermore, extremely significant progress has been made in rural areas: the level of primary completion rose from 63% to 84%, completion of early secondary from 28% to 47% and completion of the entire secondary cycle climbed from 9% to 24%.[9] These advances do not seem to translate into considerable increases in the completion of tertiary education (up from 0.9% to 1.9%). The lack of supply of tertiary establishments in rural areas means that young people with sufficient resources travel and to and often end up living in the country's main urban areas where universities and other post-secondary institutions are located (see table III.5).

According to the information available for seven of the region's countries (Brazil, Chile, Ecuador, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Panama and Paraguay), there are some educational disparities based on ethnic origin. When education begins, 88% of the indigenous and Afro-descendent children of primary school age are attending class, compared with 93% among the rest of the population. In rural areas, access among ethnic minorities is as low as 85%.

Among indigenous children, 82% of those of early secondary school age (12 to 14 years) access education, as do 66% of those of upper secondary age (14 to 17 years).[10] Of the latter, only 34% actually attend at secondary school level (compared with 48% among the non-indigenous population).

The overall drop-out rate among indigenous pupils is almost a third higher than among non-indigenous pupils (37% compared with 23%). In both groups, the highest percentage of drop-outs occur in secondary school, although 30% of indigenous pupils who drop out do so in primary school.

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9 Among countries (and areas of geographical coverage) that can be compared over time.

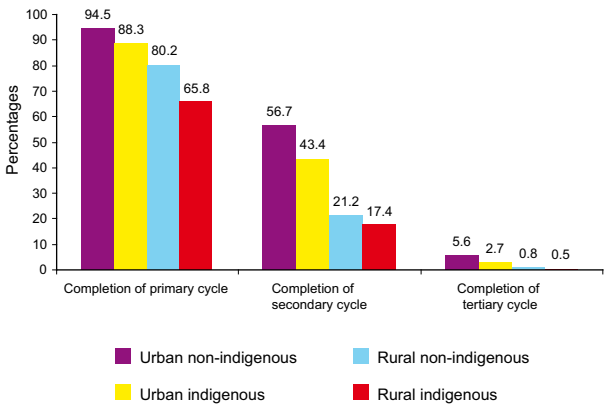
10 The figures include Bolivia, where the question on ethnic group applied to individuals aged 12 and over in the 2003-2004 Continuous Household Survey.

All of these processes translate into striking differences in achievement between indigenous and non-indigenous individuals, differences that only increase throughout education in urban areas. In rural areas, disparities are only wide in primary school, before narrowing during secondary and tertiary education (see figure III.6), because poverty and difficulty in accessing education are common to all inhabitants.

In summary, although there remain major shortfalls in educational coverage in rural areas, these are mainly limited to secondary level. Clear progress has been made in terms of educational access and achievement, although rural areas still lag behind their urban counterparts. This situation increases the challenge of planning educational investment in rural areas, as it is dependent on the population structure but also affects the structure of educational demand through, for instance, youth migration for the purposes of studying, which reinforces the process of rural-to-urban migration.

Besides the inequities arising from the lack of resources in rural areas, another factor that definitely reinforces inequality is the presence of indigenous and other minority populations. The settlement patterns of indigenous peoples tend to be concentrated in rural areas that are often isolated from large or even medium-sized cities, which is a further barrier to social inclusion. In addition, the continued existence of single curricula with no pluricultural content reinforces inequality in access to education services and prevents such services from being adequate, culturally appropriate and relevant to the customs and needs of native ethnic groups.[11]

Figure III.6
LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): EDUCATIONAL ACHIEVEMENT BY AREA OF RESIDENCE AND ETHNIC GROUP, AROUND 2005 [a]
(*Percentages and rates*)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.
[a] The figures only refer to the following eight countries: Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Ecuador, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Panama and Paraguay.

Box III.4
SANDWICH EDUCATION FOR THE THIRD CYCLE OF GENERAL BASIC EDUCATION, PROVINCE OF SANTA FE, ARGENTINA

In 1993, Argentina implemented a reform to transfer the administration of education systems to provinces, extend general basic education from seven to nine years (divided up in three two-year cycles) and create a polymodal level to cover the final three years of secondary education.

The provincial government of Santa Fe decided to implement the third cycle of general basic education in rural areas by hiring one or two teachers and an itinerant teacher who would periodically visit schools to support students' education. Furthermore, the provincial government decided that, in the first year of this cycle, students would go to schools previously attended for primary education, while the following two years would be taught in the new secondary schools. These proposals, born of financial constraints, had a negative effect on the quality of rural education, as they reduced the number of teachers per pupil, teaching hours and the subject areas covered. This meant that students from rural areas were clearly at a disadvantage compared with children from urban areas, especially in terms of entering the polymodal level.

In this context, parents and teachers of the Agricultural Family Schools set up the Union of Agricultural Family Schools in Santa Fe (UEFAS), whose first task was to formulate a study plan involving sandwich education for the third cycle, while maintaining the seventh year in general basic education and adjusting the number of teaching hours and curricula in a way that did not affect the quality of education. They successfully implemented a model of sandwich education in which students board at school for two weeks and then stay at home for two weeks, carrying out research and pre-defined tasks. This method has a series of advantages: lower transport costs (as pupils are not

[11] According to article 3 of the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples (2006) "Indigenous peoples have the right of self–determination. By virtue of that right they freely determine their political status and freely pursue their economic, social and cultural development" (*Social Panorama of Latin America 2006*, chap. III). ECLAC and other regional and national agencies have promoted the implementation of innovative integral bi-literacy methods (simultaneous bilingual literacy) for adults. However, this type of initiative is far from widespread, and does not tend to involve the formal school system (and therefore misses children and young people) (see the chapter on Social Agenda).

Box III.4 (concluded)

travelling every day), fewer pupils dropping out due to distance, a more efficient use of school infrastructure and teaching staff and increased involvement of families in the education of their children (now considered key for quality education).

The main results are: lower costs than the traditional education system (2,867 pesos per pupil per year in agricultural family schools compared with 2,928 pesos per pupil per year in State school); lower rates of grade repetition and higher retention rates (90% of pupils who enter seventh grade go on to the polymodal level, and 85% of them complete that level). In the traditional school system, progression from general basic education to polymodal level is 75.4%, and the average retention rate is 64.2%.

What happens to pupils once they complete schooling is also striking: 52% go on to university, 38% enter labour or productive enterprises in rural areas and 10% work in urban areas. This means that that pupils have put paid to one of the main concerns underpinning the programme: that students from such rural areas may be at a disadvantage compared with those from rural areas.

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information from the ECLAC-Kellogg project.

3. Transmission of educational opportunities

ECLAC has often emphasized the fundamental importance of education and employment as means of economic and social development. Knowledge and skills constitute capital that can be used in the labour market to facilitate social mobility and the maintenance of status through generations. At the macroeconomic level, a society's educational capital increases the productivity and potential growth of the economy.

The principle of universalizing access to education aims to provide people with the necessary opportunities for accessing, progressing through and completing a learning process, plus the certification thereof. Although equal opportunities in education do not guarantee individual and family well-being, unequal opportunities certainly perpetuate poverty. Inequality of opportunities is a factor of reproduction, in that it can either facilitate or hamper the main mechanism for accessing long-term well-being. This has led to claims that educational capital is, to a certain extent, inherited.

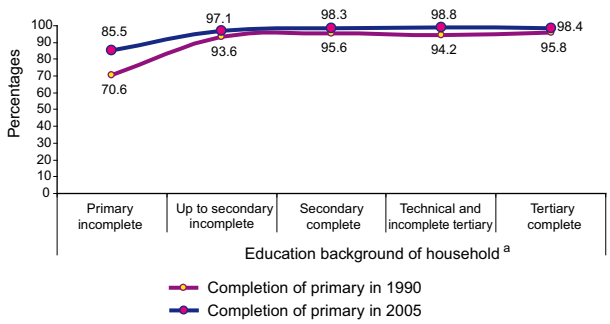
According to evidence from household surveys, the differences in access to education between those from households with low educational capital and those whose parents completed higher education tends to increase in proportion with the age of the children concerned (except in pre-school). This difference in educational opportunities is not too great up to the age of 14 or 15 but increases from then onwards, such that only 26% of young people aged 18-19 whose parents have low levels of education continue their studies. This is clearly reflected in net rates of attendance: only 8% of the low-education group of this age attend post-secondary education, compared with 68% of those from households with high educational capital. Young people whose parents did not complete secondary education currently have a 30% probability of not finishing secondary school themselves.

The above shows the strong differences in school progression among children from households with one of the two levels of educational capital: the figures for timely progression among 10 to 14 year olds are 65% compared with 95%, and among 15 to 19 year olds the figures are 50% and 90%. In that group, the high percentage of students who are three or more years behind (30%) is indicative of the shortfalls with which students from households with lower levels of education enter the education system.

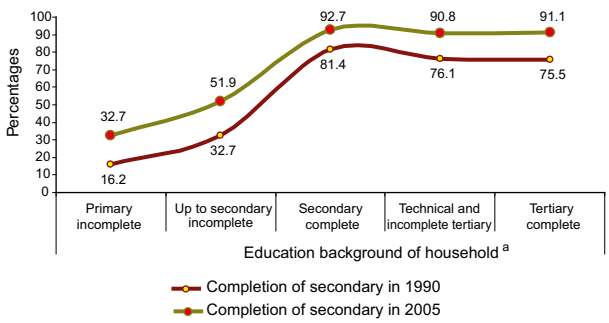
However, efforts to increase coverage and school retention rates have yielded fairly impressive results in terms of dismantling the main mechanism for transmitting opportunities. There has been a generalized increase in the probability of achievement at primary level, especially to the advantage of children of parents with a lower level of education. There have also been advances in the completion of secondary education, although intense differences remain in terms of the two lowest levels of education (see figures III.7a and III.7b).

Figure III.7
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): EDUCATIONAL COMPLETION AMONG DIFFERENT AGE GROUPS, BY EDUCATION BACKGROUND OF HOUSEHOLD, AROUND 2005 [a b]
(Percentages)

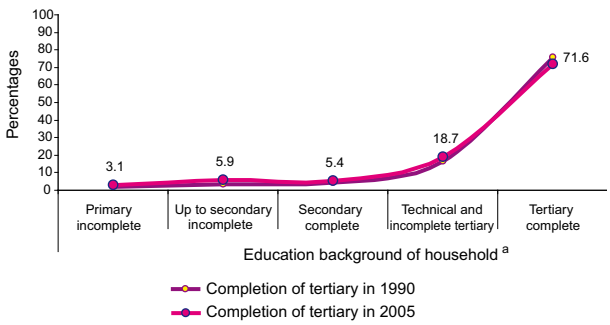
(a) Completion of primary education among young people aged 15 to 19



(b) Completion of secondary education among young people aged 20 to 24



(c) Completion of tertiary education among young people aged 25 to 29



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Average number of years of schooling of the head of household and spouse, as a way of estimating parents' education. Among those aged 25 to 29, the indicator is more biased as a relatively significant proportion has set up their own households. However, using young people of that age who describe themselves as children of the head of household considerably reduces sample sizes (see ECLAC, 2004c, methodological annex to chapter V).

[b] The information comparing 1990 and 2005 does not include Guatemala, but refers to Bolivia (eight main cities and El Alto) and urban areas in Argentina, Ecuador, Paraguay and Uruguay.

There is no improvement as far as tertiary education is concerned. Despite the increase in the completion of tertiary education, the structure of achievement based on household educational background (average number of years schooling of head of household and spouse) remains unchanged (see figure III.7). It is certainly necessary to incorporate differentiated mechanisms for accessing post-secondary and tertiary education that can promote the integration of young people from traditionally excluded social groups through various forms of affirmative action (see box III.5).

Significant progress has doubtlessly been made in combating poverty reproduction by reducing the transmissibility of educational opportunities. However, the fact that the children of parents who did not complete formal education are less likely to complete secondary education suggests that economic growth and government efforts have not been effective enough to dismantle those mechanisms.

Only a complete secondary education offers a high probability of escaping poverty (ECLAC, 2000b).

Box III.5

SELECTED OPINIONS ON AFFIRMATIVE ACTION IN BRAZILIAN UNIVERSITIES

In Brazil, the growing expansion of the education system at the basic and secondary levels is posing problems for the population in terms of entering higher education. As the university system expands, there is increasing demand for the inclusion of groups traditionally excluded from public education such as the poor, Afro-descendents and women. According to the 2003 university census, public university education had one place for every 8.4 applicants (with one place for every 1.5 applicants in private universities).

In Brazil the proportion of Afro-descendent population decreases as level of education increases: while people of African descent make up 53.2% of the total population at the level of basic education, the proportion drops to 23% in higher education, and again to 17.6% among post-graduate students.

Many organizations are involved in tackling the situation through affirmative action, although these measures have been resisted on the basis of certain myths. Such myths and their refutations are as follows:

(i) *The quota system is anti-constitutional as it ignores the principle of equality enshrined in the Constitution of Brazil*. The Constitutions enshrines de jure rather than de facto equality, which should be guaranteed by equal opportunities. Policies that affirm rights are therefore constitutional.

(ii) *Quotas go against the principle of academic merit, which should be the only requirement for entering university*. Academic merit reflects the deep inequalities in Brazilian society. Social opportunities expand and multiply educational opportunities. Public policies to repair injustice are ethically essential.

(iii) *Quotas are pointless, as the real problem is the poor quality of public education*. Problems of coverage and quality should be tackled at the same time, rather than in a given order. Education needs to improve and be more democratic at all levels.

(iv) *The quota system tends to lower the academic standard of universities*. Studies show no loss of quality of education in universities where the quota system has been introduced.

(v) *Brazilian society is opposed to quotas*. Various opinion polls show that Brazilian society recognizes the importance of quota systems. Over half of federal university chancellors (both sexes) are favourable to quota policies.

(vi) *Quotas cannot include racial or ethnic criteria, as the high proportion of mestizos in Brazilian society makes it impossible to distinguish "black" or "white"*. In Brazil, almost half of the population is black. The vast majority are poor, discriminated against and excluded. This is no coincidence.

(vii) *Quotas favour black people and discriminate even further against white poor people*. Bill 73/99 favours male and female pupils from the public education systems and stipulates a racial and ethnic representation that reflects the region where the university is located.

(viii) *Quotas will turn Brazil into a racist society*. Racism already exists in Brazil and it permeates public and private institutions alike. Quota systems do not create racism but make it visible, and the debate is a stand against racism.

(ix) *Quotas are pointless because the problem is not accessing but staying in education*. It is not a case of choosing between access and retention, but rather quotas are an effective means of democratizing opportunities in higher education.

(x) *Quotas harm black people themselves as they stigmatize them as incapable and unworthy of their places at university*. The quota system is considered a democratic victory rather than a blow to the self-esteem of those who benefit from it. Groups that are excluded and discriminated against feel socially recognized when the law creates effective conditions for combating various forms of discrimination and segregation.

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of Pablo Gentili, "Exclusión y desigualdad en el acceso a la educación superior brasileña: el desafío de las políticas de acción afirmativa", *Caminos para la inclusión en la educación superior en Chile*, Pamela Díaz-Romero (ed.), Acción afirmativa: hacia democracias inclusivas series, vol. 5, Santiago, Chile, Fundación Equitas, 2006.

Although basic education (primary and early secondary) is no longer a differentiating factor, completing secondary education and accessing and completing tertiary education are important. This means that the social structure observed in previous studies remains highly rigid (ECLAC, 2004c; ECLAC/GTZ, 2007). This hampers social mobility, as the fact that it is common to complete primary (and even secondary) education reduces its relative value. Widely generalized levels of education are therefore devalued, as the knowledge and skills they provide become commonplace within the labour market.

C. Quality of education: another manifestation of inequality

Latin America and the Caribbean is trailing behind developed countries in the acquisition of the skills needed to function fully in the knowledge society, and this has generated a debate on the quality of education and inequalities in the system. One of the region's main characteristics is the high level of school segregation, which combines with many problems affecting teacher performance and school environment to reinforce the strong hereditary nature of educational opportunities that reproduce the striking structure of social inequality in the education system.

1. Quality of education: a variety of approaches

In recent decades, the efforts of Latin American and Caribbean countries in the sphere of education have resulted in a significant increase in coverage and the expansion of compulsory education, which in turn provides access to formal education for a greater diversity of pupils. In the early 1990s, however, although the demand for education had become more heterogeneous, it was noted that supply within the system remained relatively unchanged. The quantitative growth in access to education was not accompanied by the required levels efficiency, quality and equity, which suggested that traditional models of education were somehow obsolete (Arancibia, 1997).

In this period, policymaking institutions in the field of education stopped focusing solely on the coverage of education services and turned their attention to the quality of teaching and learning processes. This was because, despite considerable investment in education, the results were lower than expected. Given that initial inequalities are maintained or accentuated in the education system (Marchesi, 2000), it is no longer tenable to believe that children inevitably learn once in school. Indeed, inequities affect learning processes and results. Today, the need to improve the quality of education has become an urgent need in the region (UNESCO, 2004).

There is no agreed definition of the quality of education, given that it is multidimensional and covers all aspects of the education sector. Initially, quality of education was conceived as the (internal and external) efficiency of the education system —as an investment contributing to economic development— and its effectiveness in terms of the concrete impact of education on the population (Cohen, 2002). However, these concepts have proved insufficient in providing a global view of the quality of education. According to UNESCO (2004b, p. 35), quality has become a dynamic concept that constantly has to adapt itself to societies undergoing major social and economic changes, and it is increasingly important to encourage predictive and pre-emptive capacity rather than relying on old quality criteria.

Nowadays, children join a system that offers highly differentiated services, although they are also strongly affected by structural inequalities. In this context, equity cannot be conceived as an educational equality whereby all children are treated in the same way, but rather a process of differentiation must be undertaken so that discrepancies can be compensated for in a way that will lead to equal opportunities (UNESCO/OREALC, 2007). In this sense, ensuring quality education for all would constitute a lifelong process of inclusion (ensuring respect for the right to education, equal opportunities and participation, Ministry of Education, Chile, 2004), which would provide the tools needed to face the various obstacles that exclude

or discriminate against students and limit their learning or full development as people (Blanco, 2006). Quality education for all, in addition to being the response to a demand for equity, must be significant and relevant. In other words, the content must be appropriate to the demands of society and the integral development of the individual, and suited to the specific needs of students and the social and cultural context.

According to UNESCO, quality education for all must be based on the following four pillars:

(i) *Learning to know*, combining a sufficiently wide general knowledge with the ability to deepen knowledge in a small number of subjects. This also involves "learning to learn", to be able to make the most of the opportunities of lifelong education;
(ii) *Learning to do*, to obtain not only a professional qualification but also a skill that enables the individual to face a large number of situations and work in a team, in the context of various social and employment experiences;
(iii) *Learning to live together*, developing an understanding of others and perceiving forms of interdependence (common plans and being prepared to tackle conflict), while respecting the values of pluralism, mutual understanding and peace; and
(iv) *Learning to be*, so that the individual personality may blossom and function with increasing autonomy, good judgement and personal responsibility.

The most important lesson is "learning to learn". In the new information society, it is vital to be able to organize the bewildering amount of information available, select what is important and subsequently use that knowledge. Such tasks involve the assimilation of a series of strategies. In a constructivist conception of school learning, "learning to learn" involves discovering and making use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies and conceptual models (the framework for learning and thought). "Learning to learn" involves equipping individuals with the tools to learn and thus develop their learning potential.

The ultimate purpose of learning strategies is teaching to think: educating pupils so they can achieve autonomy, independence and critical judgement. It is vital to develop the ability to reflect critically on the process of learning itself, so that individuals improve how they learn on a daily basis, so that learning becomes a personal adventure that allows them to discover their surroundings and gain knowledge about and explore their personality. This enables individuals to constantly recreate and adapt knowledge and skills in accordance with the economic, social and cultural changes of the new knowledge society.

A significant and relevant education must also consider students as individuals, members of a family and a community, and also citizens of the world who are learning how to fulfil these roles effectively. With this in mind, education must be moulded to the specific social, economic and environmental context by adapting the curriculum or programme to reflect those conditions: quality education must be locally important and culturally appropriate. Such education must therefore be based on the past (native knowledge and traditions), prove significant in the present and prepare people for the future by creating knowledge, essential skills, perspectives, attitudes and values. Quality education should also promote human rights and defend and spread the ideals of a fair, equitable and peaceful world in which people care for the environment, thereby contributing to intergenerational equity and providing means of making today's societies more sustained (Delors and others, 1996; UNESCO, 2004a).

Box III.6
NOTIONS OF QUALITY IN DIFFERENT THEORETICAL APPROACHES

The issue of quality in education can be studied through various approaches based on previous reflections on education. Although one can clearly distinguish between such visions, in practice they are combined and can be complementary. The approach developed by UNESCO seeks to integrate several of these visions.

Humanistic approaches: this ideology is at the crossroads between humanism (Locke, Rousseau) and the constructivist theory of learning (Dewey, Piaget, Vygotsky). From this point of view, pupils are at the centre of education and actively participate in learning, with the teacher as mediator in the learning process. In this framework, the sole purpose of assessment is to show pupils the quality of their learning. Any standardized curriculum is rejected, since failing to match the particular needs of the pupils would be to limit their opportunities.

Behavioural approaches: this is based on behavioural theories (Skinner, Pavlov), which are in turn build around subject conditioning, or using specific stimuli to manipulate individuals' behaviour. From this perspective, pupils are unable to produce knowledge themselves, so that the teacher's role is to direct learning by adjusting stimulus and response. Organized teaching is promoted in which assessment offers an objective indicator of learning, which is then used to introduce a positive or negative response based on the behaviour observed.

Critical approaches: these take a critical position on the above-mentioned approaches. According to this view, quality

Box III.6 (concluded)

is defined by measuring the effectiveness of the transmission of values, as it is values that enable order and stability to be maintained in society. This approach highlights inequalities in educational access and defines education as a legitimization and reproduction of the structure of inequalities within society. This view advocates an education that promotes social change, in which pupils play an active role in learning, and in which the curriculum and teaching stimulate a critical analysis of society.

Indigenous approaches: these stress how important it is for education to be relevant to the sociocultural circumstances of the country and the pupil. This promotes the local formulation of pedagogical methods, assessment and study plans, all with active student participation. This view promotes a notion of learning that transcends the boundaries of school to encompass lifelong learning that builds on previous knowledge.

Adult education approaches: generally speaking, these approaches consider adult experiences as a fundamental element of education. The more radical versions of this view state the importance of adult education as the key to social change. The work of people such as Paulo Freire displays a concern for education and its link with the processes of citizenship building, in the sense that school must create a space for participation where the various actors can make active, voluntary and equitable interventions, thereby encouraging a critical view of reality and stimulating the emergence of political awareness.

Source: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2005. Education for All: the Quality Imperative*, Paris, 2004; Regional Office for Education in Latin America and the Caribbean (UNESCO/OREALC), *Quality education for all: a human rights issue. Educational policies within the framework of the II Intergovernmental Meeting of the Regional Project in Education for Latin America and the Caribbean (EFA/PRELAC). Background document*, Santiago, Chile, 2007; Paulo Freire, *La educación como práctica de la libertad*, Mexico City, Siglo XXI editores; Jacques Delors and others, *La educación encierra un tesoro. Informe a la UNESCO de la Comisión Internacional sobre la Educación para el siglo XXI*, Paris, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), 1996.

2. Measuring the quality of education

Although the characteristics of educational services may be what springs to mind at the mention of "quality of education", quality assessment usually focuses on the results of education. Despite the fact that the various studies differ as to which educational results to measure, the main indicator is an assessment of academic achievement. There are several ways of measuring achievement, ranging from the average marks obtained at a given level, this corrected to the percentage of attendance and the implementation of tests to measure knowledge, to the use of national (based on the country's curriculum) or international standardized tests that aim to measure skills considered essential to function in today's world. International tests have their share of problems, as they need to be linguistically adapted and the cultural specificities of the communities involved must also be considered.

This section uses the reading results from the 2000 round of the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). Unlike mathematics and science tests, the reading test was administered by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) in the entire sample of 43 countries including Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Mexico and Peru (see box III.7). The regional coverage was less extensive than in the 1997 study by the Latin American Laboratory for Assessment of the Quality of Education (LLECE), which administered language and mathematics tests to third and fourth grade primary school pupils in 11 countries (UNESCO/OREALC, 1998a and 1998b). Despite this, the advantage of the PISA test is that it enables the region's countries to be compared with developed countries and is administered to 15 year olds, which provides an assessment of the results of learning at the end of compulsory education. The evidence is illustrative and the aim is not to establish conclusions on the relevance of certain factors to student performance.

Box III.7
PISA SKILLS ASSESSMENT TESTS

The Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) was developed by the Directorate for Education of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) to measure how far students approaching the end of compulsory education have acquired some of the knowledge and skills essential for full participation in the knowledge society.

Three rounds of PISA have been implemented to date, with at least three more planned by 2015. The 2000, 2003 and 2006 rounds concentrated on language, mathematics and science, respectively. Given the relevance of reading skills for developing other skills and the higher number of Latin American countries involved, the focus here will be on the 2000 round.[a] In this round, students were given nine generally booklets (which included the reading test) and only four with the mathematics or science test.

In accordance with recommendations from the PISA technical team, population parameters were estimated using the standardized plausible scores in the reading test of each student (mean = 500 and standard deviation = 100 in OECD countries), based on the estimated distribution of skills according to various response patterns and other information. The statistical tests were carried out using weighted probability estimates of reading skill.

Five categories were used to analyse the distribution of plausible scores:

Level 1 (334.76-407.47): students are only capable of completing less complex tasks such as identifying a single unit of information, the main theme of a text or making simple connections with day-to-day knowledge.

Level 2 (407.48-480.18): students are able to carry out basic tasks such as locating direct information, making simple inferences, finding the meaning of specified parts of a text and using some knowledge to understand it.

Level 3 (480.19-552.89): students are able to carry out moderately complex texts such as locating various units of information, associating different parts of a text and linking texts with knowledge they are familiar with.

Level 4 (552.9-625.61): students are able to carry out more complex tasks such as locating hidden information, constructing meaning from nuanced language and critically evaluating a text.

Level 5 (625.62 +): students are able to carry out sophisticated reading tasks, handle information from complex tests, deduce which information is relevant to the task at hand, critically evaluate and establish hypotheses with the ability to use specialized concepts and knowledge that may go against expectations.

The international database contains a series of indices that summarize scholastic and extra-scholastic conditions, based on questionnaires given to students and school principals.[b/] Some individual indices can be worked on by the school community. The statistical tests used indices summarizing family characteristics (socio-occupational status, material well-being, educational equipment, family support for learning, etc.), individual school indices (pressure to achieve, disciplinary environment, school integration) and school indices (teacher commitment, education equipment, proportion of teachers with tertiary education). Interval and ordinal levels were used, on the basis of quartile groups within countries, except in the cases of educational equipment and infrastructure (that used the complete sample) and some with an unequal distribution (such as the index for household educational resources). In accordance with the recommendations made, the unit of analysis was the student (even in analyses of school characteristics).

Lastly, to control for the effect of untimely progression on scores, students attending tenth grade were chosen, except when the official school starting age or the level of underachievement made it recommendable to use the ninth grade as the sample. This was the case for Bulgaria, Brazil, Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Ireland, Hungary, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Macedonia, Poland, Romania, Sweden and Thailand.

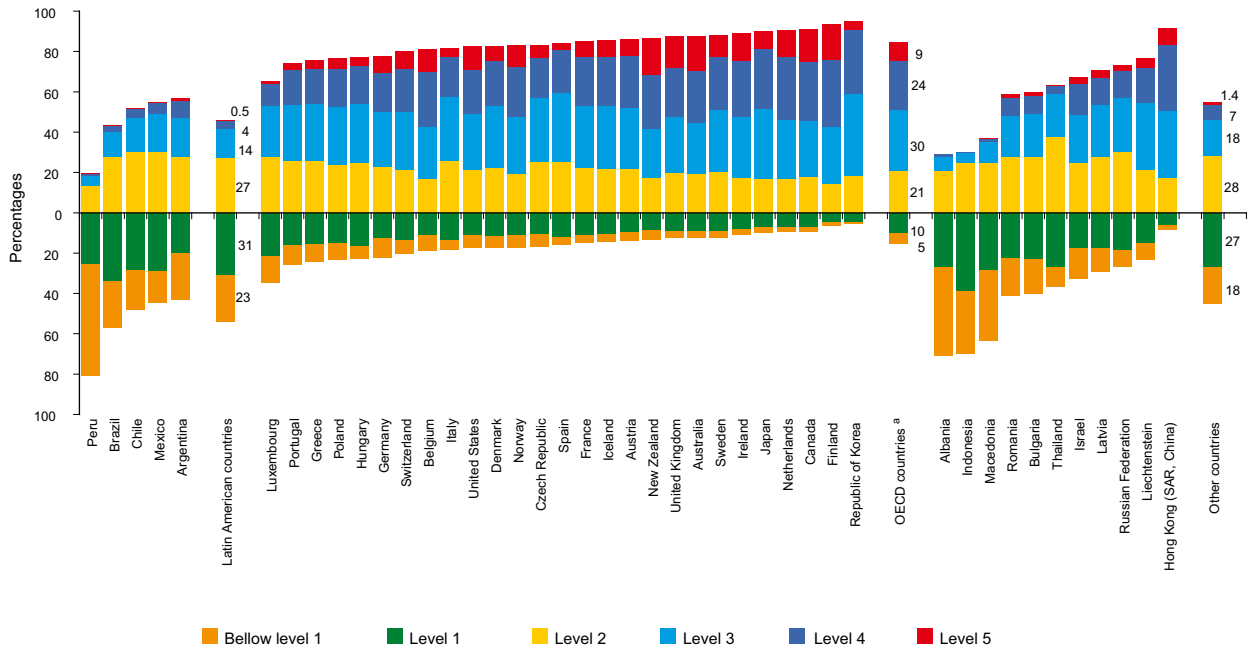
Source: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), "PISA Brochure" [on line] (http://www.pisa.oecd.org) and Regional Office for Education in Latin America and the Caribbean (UNESCO/OREALC), *Universal primary completion in Latin America: Are we really so near the goal? Regional report on Education-related Millennium Development Goals*, Santiago, Chile, October, 2004.

[a] OECD has already published the results of the 2006 PISA round that placed greater emphasis on science and again included a high number of Latin American and Caribbean countries.

[b] Available at <http://www.pisa.oecd.org>.

Based on reading scores classified into five levels of performance, Latin American countries in general recorded the worst distributions of results (see figure III.8). Around 31% of students achieved only a rudimentary level of comprehension of the contents of the reading tests (level 1), while 23% did not even attain this basic level. This is in sharp contrast with OECD countries in particular, where only 15% of students did not exceed level 1 in language skills.

Figure III.8
LATIN AMERICA (5 COUNTRIES), OECD (27 COUNTRIES) AND OTHERS (11 COUNTRIES): DISTRIBUTION OF 15-YEAR OLD STUDENTS, BY LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE IN THE 2000 PISA LANGUAGE TEST [a]
(*Percentages*)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), "Programme for International Student Assessment PISA 2000" [online database] http://www.pisa.oecd.org.
[a] Not including Mexico.

The results reflect not only lower average performance among the region's countries, but also the heterogeneous nature of achievement among students within a given country, due to the variety of grades or levels studied by pupils of a certain age (age 15 in the case of the PISA study). As shown in previous sections, this is the result of grade repetition, underachievement and late entry. To control for the effects of underachievement on performance, students were selected from one level only (tenth grade), the one that usually corresponds to the final year of early secondary school.

3. Factors associated with differences in educational results

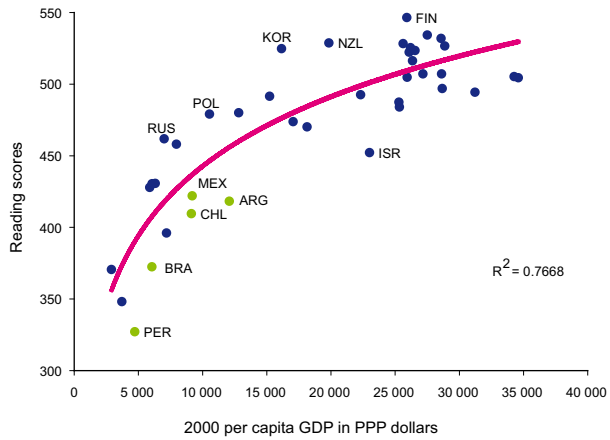
One of the main questions that emerges from the score differences among countries is if these are associated with their level of development. This question is related to the effects of poverty and general levels of well-being in certain societies, and is implicitly linked to level of investment in (particularly public) education. It is also worth wondering whether the low scores of Latin American countries are due to their high levels of social inequality, which could be giving rise to education services of differing quality. General evidence suggests a strong link between levels of per capita GDP and educational performance, which is also partly affected by an unequal income distribution (see figure III.9).

The above-mentioned questions are not intended to ignore the complex nature of educational processes and systems: the performance of the region's students are below that expected for the countries' level of wealth (see figure III.9.a), which points to the existence of other factors having a more direct effect on achievement.

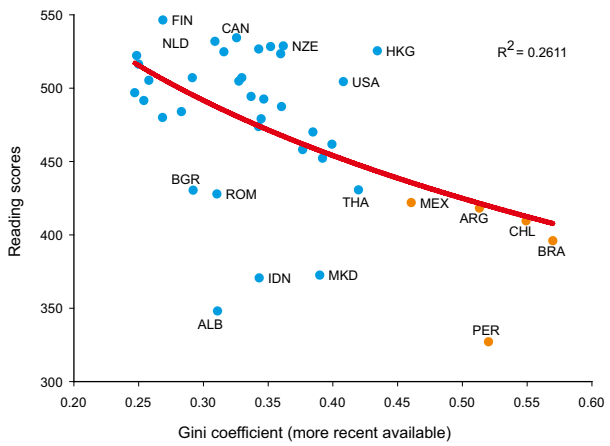
Differentiating between scholastic and extra-scholastic factors separates out the various sets of variables that can effect educational results. Analytically, the results of learning can be understood as the confluence between both sets of factors. In this way, it is possible to distinguish factors associated with the supply of education (infrastructure, teaching materials, teachers, school autonomy and, at

Figure III.9
LATIN AMERICA (5 COUNTRIES), OECD (25 COUNTRIES) [a] AND OTHERS (11 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE SCORES IN THE 2000 PISA LANGUAGE TEST AMONG TENTH-GRADE STUDENTS, 2000 PER CAPITA GDP IN PURCHASING POWER PARITY DOLLARS AND THE GINI COEFFICIENT
(*Averages*)

(a) Per capita GDP and performance



(b) Gini coefficient and performance



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), "Programme for International Student Assessment PISA 2000" [online database] http://www.pisa.oecd.org and World Bank, World Development Indicators [online database] http://devdata.worldbank.org/dataonline/.
[a] Not including Iceland and Luxembourg.

the macro level, education spending and its breakdown) from factors associated with the demand for educational services (school-age children and, in this section, those who actually study) and aspects related to the interaction between the two sets of factors (characteristics of the education community, disciplinary environment, teacher support, pressure to achieve and other school attributes). The question is therefore whether problems of quality in education in the region are due to general shortcomings of education systems (associated with the management of the curriculum, teachers and classroom factors) or to the segmentation of education supply and the socio-economic inequalities affecting pupils, or else a much more complex process of educational segmentation that is the combined result of inequalities of origin and unequal distribution of education services.

(a) Teachers and school environment

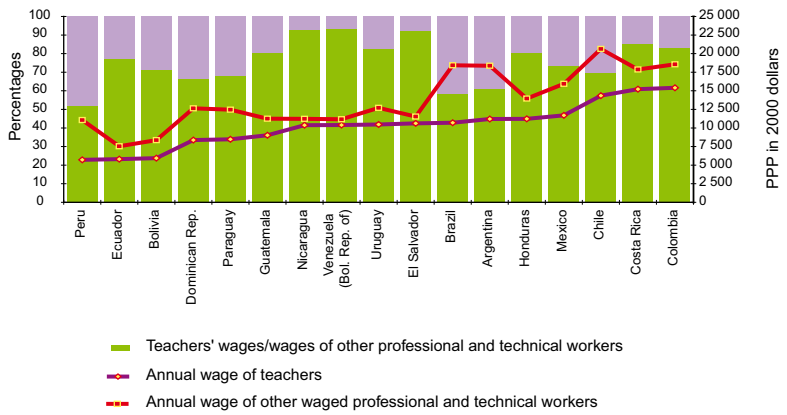
A common notion in the field of education is that the achievement of pupils depends on their teachers. This implies a whole series of individual and group characteristics that may include the number of teachers, their level of training, teaching experience, level of support for the learning process, student commitment, and so on. However, the evidence provided by the PISA test does not lead to the conclusion —in terms of a systematic pattern in the region's countries— that the characteristics of teachers (as a profession or in the classroom) are more decisive in the acquisition of language skills (even after controlling for extra-scholastic factors and the characteristics of the school community).

Although there are some differences linked to sufficient teachers within the school, the level of teacher training and support is less associated with heterogeneous performance in this region than it is in OECD countries. This suggests that, in Latin America, extra-scholastic factors are more relevant to differences. Nor are teacher characteristics decisively linked to segmented educational supply or school segregation: number of pupils per teacher, proportion of teachers with university training and other well-known characteristics are not very different between public and private schools, or between those with differing level of equipment or with higher concentrations of high- or low-income students.

However, the evidence suggests that the level of teacher commitment to activities and to students is more significant (see table III.8).[12] These results are similar to those obtained in the first study carried out by the Latin American Laboratory for Assessment of the Quality of Education (UNESCO/OREALC, 1998b). One of the recurring themes in the analysis of the education sector's problems is that of incentives for teacher performance. Although many mechanisms exist (from wages to assessment systems), it is wages that are usually considered key to performance, not because they are necessarily a factor of motivation, but because they can be a cause of dissatisfaction. Wages are also a way of attracting new applicants to the profession (Morduchowicz and Duro, 2007). In Latin America and the Caribbean, teachers' wages are lower than those of other waged professional and technical workers. Teachers earn just

over 50% of the average wages of other waged professional and technical workers in Peru, while teachers earn just over 90% of the wages of other professions in El Salvador, Nicaragua and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela. In real terms, wages range from US$ 6,000 per year (in purchasing power parity, PPP) to just over US$ 15,000 per year (see figure III.10). Although such wages enable most teachers' families to avoid poverty, they often do not contribute to a standard of living conducive to professional development. This hampers teachers' continuing professional development and training, and discourages young people entering tertiary education from becoming teachers in the future.

Figure III.10
LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE ANNUAL RATIO OF TEACHERS' INCOME AND WAGES TO THOSE OF OTHER WAGED PROFESSIONALS AND TECHNICAL WORKERS, AROUND 2005
(Purchasing power parity in 2000 United States dollars and percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization/Regional Office for Education in Latin America and the Caribbean/International Institute for Educational Planning (UNESCO/OREALC/IIEP), *La inversión educativa en América Latina y el Caribe. Las demandas de financiamiento y asignación de recursos*, Buenos Aires, 2007.

Despite the usual assertion that teachers' level of commitment is closely linked to salary incentives, it is no less true that such commitment can also be strengthened or compromised by other work conditions: teaching material and school equipment, management, student ability and motivation, school environment, and so forth. This reflects the fact that students from less integrated school communities (with a weak sense of belonging) perform significantly worse in the language test (see table III.8). This gives an indication of the potentially negative effect that a poor school environment with more aggressive or excluding relational patterns can have on the learning process, and also reinforces the findings of the 1997 study carried out by UNESCO/OREALC (UNESCO, 1998a and 1998b).

The challenge of improving teacher performance (as a way of raising the level of learning) must go hand in hand with the necessary investment in resources that enable teachers to optimize their performance. In particular, teachers' wages need to be the equivalent of other waged professionals. It is also vital to provide schools with the sufficient equipment and support materials to guide the learning process. Furthermore, consideration must be given to psychosocial aspects and student behaviour that may promote or hamper the acquisition of skills (such as how the family values education, communication, family support for education, study time and strategies, discipline and the level of school integration).

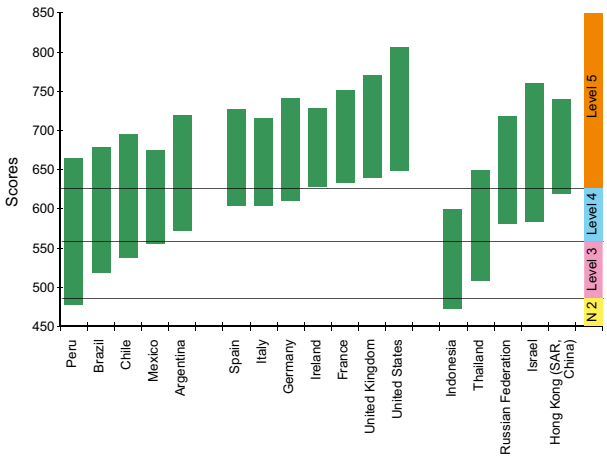
(b) Issues of the relevance and significance of education

Although some problems of education quality are usually attributed to social inequality and educational segmentation, the general characteristics of education systems should not be ignored. Students benefiting from better conditions for the learning process could be expected to attain a similar effective level in different countries. However,

12 This was measured using an index of the assessment made by school principals of teachers in terms of their morale, involvement in their work, their pride in and identification with the school and how they valued the educational achievement of students.

a comparison between the top 10% of scores in Latin American countries and OECD countries reveals a greater dispersion and a lower range of scores among the former (see figure III.11).

Figure III.11
LATIN AMERICA (5 COUNTRIES), SELECTED OECD COUNTRIES (7 COUNTRIES) AND OTHERS (5 COUNTRIES): RANGE AND CATEGORIES OF PERFORMANCE FOR THE HIGHEST SCORING DECILE OF TENTH-GRADE STUDENTS [a]
(*Percentages*)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), "Programme for International Student Assessment PISA 2000" [online database] http://www.pisa.oecd.org.
[a] As ninth-grade students were used in Brazil, estimates are not comparable in terms of number of years of schooling.

According to international criteria, not even the more affluent Latin American students sufficiently develop skills in reading comprehension, interpretation, relations and abstraction. The results flag up some aspects of the educational curricula, as they suggest that score differences could be attributable to the main characteristics of pupils' learning strategies or the content of the teaching they receive in formal education. As the above-mentioned skills are required to participate fully in the knowledge society, the relevance of curricula to developing such skills needs to be seriously examined.

This strengthens the argument put forward by UNESCO that the need to improve the quality of education is now essential for the region. In addition to the various problems of social equity within the education system and beyond, educational curricula do not match the skills required in today's world, which is why even the wealthiest students are affected.

Education also lacks relevance in relation to the characteristics of pupils. Failing to take into account the particular characteristics of pupils (especially those who have entered following the generalization of education) results in an inappropriate "one-size-fits all' model. Manifestations of this include the lack of adaptation of the school calendar (which fails to consider that children in rural areas will not attend continuously at harvest time), or the way that the curriculum is taught, such that the teachers interacting with the least able pupils talk a language they do not understand, using examples that have nothing to do with their situations (thereby implying that their own life experiences are not valued in school) (Reimers, 2002).

(c) Social inequality and unequal capacity building

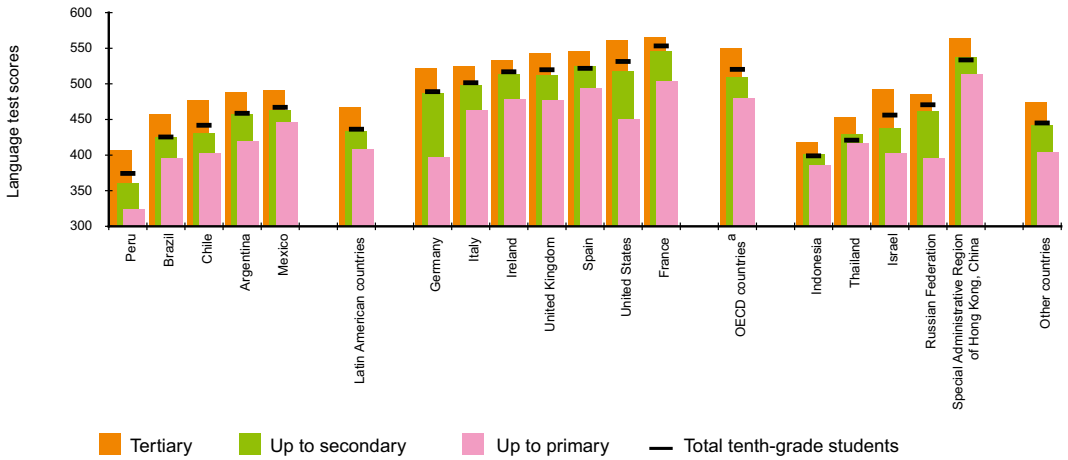
Efforts to generalize educational coverage and access are based on the fact that it constitutes one of the main mechanisms of creating equal opportunities for well-being and social mobility. If capacity building is unequal, it will be difficult for the education system to become a key factor in a more inclusive and sustained long-term economic development.

The main factors associated with differences in the scores of the tenth-grade pupils are extra-scholastic: parents' educational level and socio-occupational status, material well-being of the household (general equipment) and educational and communication materials available at home (see table III.9). The most directly related factor in all of the five countries from the region that took part was the availability of educational materials. In this sense, there is a certain linkage between factors: there is a strong correlation between parents' educational level and socio-occupational status, then between the latter and material well-being, and in turn between that and the availability of educational resources.

In OECD countries, the situation is somewhat different. Although this group of factors remains the most relevant, there are weaker associations between them. Thus although score differences remain strong, the scores are significantly higher overall. The exceptions are the scores of pupils from households with low educational capital, especially in those countries that have experienced major migratory inflows, such as Germany or the United States. Having said that, in all countries analysed, the intergenerational transmission of education opportunities continued to operate, this time in the building of capacities and skills essential for a full participation in society (see figure III.12).

This poses a major problem as, even in developed countries, levels of education and skills appear to remain strongly inherited. However, in developed countries there are fewer inequities than in Latin America when people enter education, and the education obtained has less effect on the level of well-being that can be reached in a lifetime. In this sense, socio-economic inequality

Figure III.12
LATIN AMERICA (5 COUNTRIES), SELECTED OECD COUNTRIES (7 COUNTRIES) AND OTHERS (5 COUNTRIES): LANGUAGE TEST SCORES OF TENTH-GRADE STUDENTS, BY PARENTS' EDUCATIONAL LEVEL



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), "Programme for International Student Assessment PISA 2000" [online database] http://www.pisa.oecd.org.
[a] Total of 26 countries, not including Mexico or Japan.

is less pronounced and, above all, has less impact on the development of language skills. Differences in the educational "premium" (income) are also smaller. One important challenge facing the region is therefore to reduce inequalities in the quality of employment associated with level of education.

(d) Educational segregation

One of the common problems in education systems is the socio-economic and geographic segmentation of service quality. Wealthier parents prefer to send their children to schools with more resources, and those schools usually favour the entry of pupils from families with higher levels of well-being. Those from lower-income backgrounds, on the other hand, often have a very small number of educational options. The schools that take low-income pupils tend to have shortcomings in terms of infrastructure, educational inputs and the number and training level teachers. These are almost always public schools in low-income or rural areas, where they are practically the only school available for nearby students. Broadly speaking, education systems have schools for the poor and schools for the rich.

This "self-selection" process, which tends to be concentrated at the two ends of the social spectrum, can turn schools into "ghettos", with both high-income and low-income school communities (educational segregation). This results in some schools having environments conducive to learning and skill-building, while in others difficulties are more likely to be generated. There are also considerable differences in the quality of educational supply.

The characteristics of the education system and the school environment, are comparatively less relevant if pupils' family backgrounds are taken into account. However, scholastic factors become more important once extra-scholastic factors are controlled for (except in the case of individual characteristics).

According to the results of the PISA test carried out in 43 countries, the characteristics of the educational community are the next most important factor after family aspects in estimating score variability in the reading test. In Latin American countries, in terms of parents' socio-occupational status and levels of material well-being, there is more homogeneity among students than in developed countries due to a considerably more endogenous reproduction of education communities than in developed countries. This is especially true of students from more affluent backgrounds: while in OECD countries a high-income pupil is five times more likely to belong to a school community with higher levels of well-being, in Latin America the ratio is 10 to 1 (and as much as 20 to 1 in Peru and Chile). Although there are about 80 points difference in the reading test scores between communities with high and low resources, that difference is 114 points in Peru and 102 points in Chile. There is also a segmented supply of education services. In the Latin American countries that participated in the test, 78% of students were attending tenth grade in public schools, which is a slightly lower proportion than in the other groups of countries. However, the region's public schools have

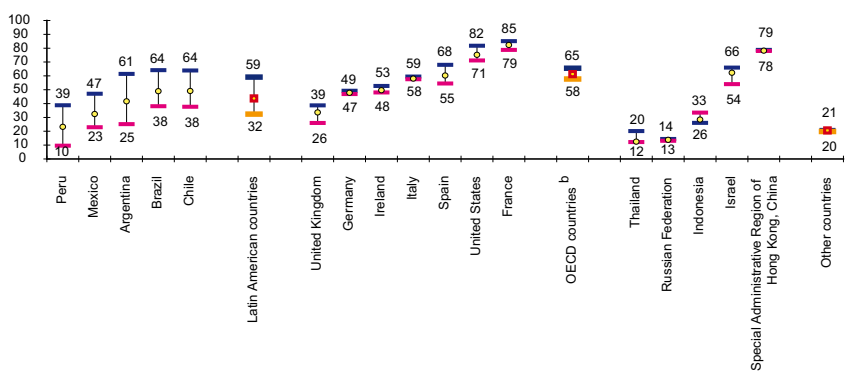
a lower level of educational equipment (computers, laboratories, teaching material, libraries, multimedia systems, etc.). In the region's countries, 72% of pupils in the private system attend well-equipped schools, while this is the case for only 35% of students in the public system. This discrepancy is considerably wider than in other regions studied (see table III.10).

Differences in the availability of educational equipment between the most developed countries and the remainder are not as marked as could be expected. On average, 62% of students in OECD countries attend well-equipped schools, compared with 44% of students in Latin American countries. However, there are sharp inequalities in access depending on whether pupils are from the upper or lower quartiles of the socio-occupational index: whereas 59% of students from the highest quartile attend well-equipped schools, this only applies to 32% of pupils from the lowest quartile (see figure III.13). This reveals the high degree of segmentation of educational services depending on the socio-economic status of the school communities they serve, with communities at both ends of the social spectrum tending to be more homogenous. Rich and poor pupils are therefore separated, and a significant proportion of the poor students attend public schools with infrastructure-related and other problems, while most rich students attend extremely well-equipped private schools.

The high degree of educational segmentation in the region's countries reinforces inequality in the use made of education, as the sociocultural disadvantages of low-income pupils at the outset combine with the fact that the education services they access are of a lower quality than those attended by higher-income pupils, which results in a lower level of learning among poorer students (see figure III.14).

Generally speaking, the educational system in Latin America is more affected by the region's highly unequal social structure. The rise in secondary schooling accentuates the stratification of institutional supply and the territorial nature of the supply increases school segmentation. Both the traditional and more modern elites send their children to schools that provide a full day of teaching and a varied curriculum. In addition, within their strata these students form bonds that reinforce the social networks and capital needed to find a good job. Poorer students, on the other hand, usually attend schools with greater shortcomings in terms of infrastructure, curriculum and general resources (Morduchowicz and Duro, 2007). Social stratification is therefore reproduced at school, thereby weakening the capacity of educational systems to provide children and young people with more equal opportunities. Given the above, the educational system acts more like a social differentiation mechanism that lays the foundations for the inequalities that will be subsequently reproduced on the labour market.

Figure III.13
LATIN AMERICA (5 COUNTRIES), SELECTED OECD COUNTRIES (7 COUNTRIES) AND OTHERS (5 COUNTRIES): PROPORTION OF TENTH-GRADE STUDENTS ATTENDING EDUCATIONALLY WELL-EQUIPPED SCHOOLS, BY QUARTILES OF PARENTS' SOCIO-OCCUPATIONAL STATUS [a]
(*Percentages*)



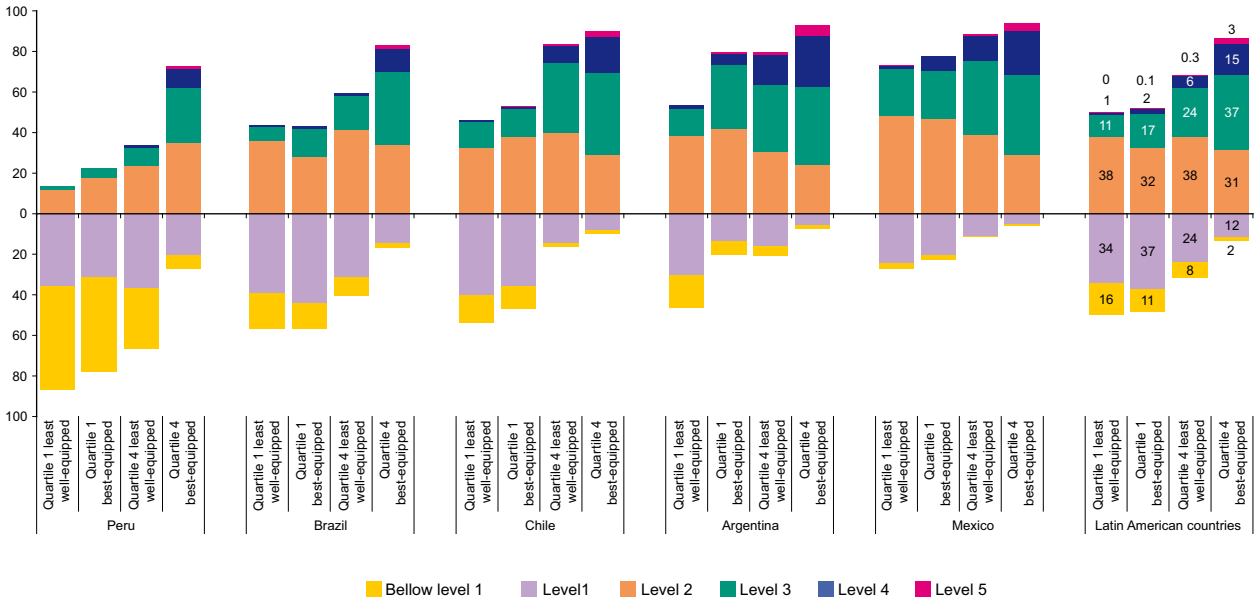
— Quartile 4 students who attend well-equipped schools ○ Quartile 1 students who attend well-equipped schools — Students who attend well-equipped schools

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), "Programme for International Student Assessment PISA 2000" [online database] http://www.pisa.oecd.org.

[a] Schools were grouped into two categories based on their level of educational equipment (library, multimedia tools, computer and chemistry laboratories, etc.).

[b] Total of 27 countries, not including Mexico.

Figure III.14
LATIN AMERICA (5 COUNTRIES): DISTRIBUTION OF LEVELS OF PERFORMANCE IN THE READING TEST AMONG TENTH-GRADE STUDENTS, BY SOCIO-OCCUPATIONAL STATUS OF THEIR PARENTS AND EDUCATIONAL EQUIPMENT OF THEIR SCHOOLS
(Percentages)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), "Programme for International Student Assessment PISA 2000" [online database] http://www.pisa.oecd.org.

D. Conclusion

Spending a higher or lower number of years in school is not the only source of inequality in education. The quality of the education received by children and young people is largely dependent on their economic resources. This is linked to the educational environment of the household, the effects of which include the existence of a home environment more or less suited to reinforcing the learning process. As attainment at the primary and secondary school levels has become more widespread, disparities in educational quality now play a major differentiating role in the transition to post-secondary education, which provides the key to decent jobs and sufficient wages. The quality of education therefore becomes a focus in the intergenerational reproduction of opportunities for well-being.

It is vital to establish or strengthen various compensatory mechanisms to create a level playing field in which the most disadvantaged students can progress through promotion systems that use higher standards to conduct a more homogenous evaluation of the skills now considered essential for the full development of social citizenship. This means levelling upwards, rather than simply raising pupil retention and completion by compromising the quality and effectiveness of teaching processes. This involves, inter alia, ensuring that automatic promotion processes do not become a disincentive for teacher performance.

Although such extra-scholastic factors carry some weight, any review of student performance shows that these can be offset from within the educational system. Studies of schools with outstanding performance in adverse socio-economic conditions indicate the importance of school management, including less emphasis on hierarchy and authoritarianism, respect for people, close relations with parents and participation in the decision-making process. In terms of teaching practice, positive factors include a wide range of teaching strategies, emphasis on homework, group work and high expectations for pupils on the part of teachers (UNESCO/OREALC, 2002).

Educational reform processes need to be boosted not only for the organic restructuring of the education system, a more efficient use of resources and improved infrastructure in a context of the gradual unversalization of education, but also to introduce major innovations in educational models, both in terms of learning methods and content and the participation of various actors in school life.

It is also vital to ensure that teachers have post-secondary training to enable them to: acquire the necessary pedagogical tools, earn a wage that is sufficient and perceived as such (to avoid having to hold down another job), and feel that their expertise and working methods help pupils to acquire skills. It is essential to provide schools with enough equipment and support materials so that teachers have the right tools with which to guide the learning process. Other recommendations include not grouping students according to particular characteristics, involving parents in school activities, promoting a respectful classroom environment and harmonious relations between pupils, allocating more time for reading for pleasure and developing a more positive attitude towards reading, as well as providing a wider range of materials (UNESCO/OREALC, 2004).

It should be borne in mind that education is a fundamental human right, and should therefore contribute to the integral development of individuals. Education should not been seen as simply instrumental, or as merely a preparation for entry into the productive system. Education is a constant learning process, which includes elements from school, non-school and informal systems that come together to promote values, the arts, science and technical skills, interculturalism, respect for ethnic minorities and widespread access to new technologies. At the same time, systems should also promote in students a vocation for democracy, human

rights, peace, freedom, solidarity, acceptance of diversity, tolerance and gender equity (ECLAC/Ibero-American Youth Organization (OIJ), 2004; OIJ, 2005).

Lastly, the region must not lose sight of the fact that the high level of school segregation not only reproduces educational gaps between the rich and the poor, but also perpetuates feelings of belonging and social integration in school microcosms, thereby sowing the seed for the high levels of socio-economic polarization present in Latin American society (see Gasparini and Molina, 2006). From childhood, school can therefore trigger the construction of what are often well-defined but conflicting social identities and subcultures that may undermine the sense of belonging to a common society and hamper the formulation of a new contract to reinforce social cohesion (ECLAC/ Ibero-American Secretariat (SEGIB), 2007).

Reducing school segregation and segmentation is not only about improving the quality of education for all, but is also part of the strategy needed to tackle the region's economic, social and political fragility. An indispensable part of this task is to build a new social cohesion covenant in Latin America and the Caribbean, while the major stumbling block is the persistent and yawning social inequality in the region. The new social contract must explicitly include educational policies that tackle the problem of social inequality head on, by means of affirmative action to compensate for the disadvantages of the poorest students and improve the quality of the learning process while reducing the high level of stratification within education systems.

Table III.1

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): ATTENDANCE RATES IN DIFFERENT CYCLES OF EDUCATION AMONG SCHOOL-AGE CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE, [a] NATIONWIDE TOTALS, AROUND 1990 AND 2005

(*Percentages*)

Country	Year	Children of pre-school age attending…[b]		Children of primary-school age attending…		Children and young people of early-secondary age attending…		Young people of upper-secondary age attending…		Young people of post-secondary age attending…	
		school	pre-school education	school	primary education	school	early-secondary school	school	upper-secondary school	school	post-secondary school
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1997	…	73.3	98.8	97.7	97.3	76.1	74.5	45.1	40.0	27.9
	2005	93.1	92.8	98.9	96.5	98.4	76.8	86.5	42.4	40.3	32.1
Argentina (urban areas)	2005	89.3	89.0	99.0	97.0	97.7	76.0	85.7	39.1	44.9	35.6
Bolivia (8 main cities and El Alto)	1994	55.7	54.8	95.9	92.7	97.6	54.4	87.9	65.2	53.4	36.4
	2004	69.4	68.7	97.6	93.9	96.7	56.4	89.0	65.4	49.4	34.4
Bolivia	2004	52.2	52.0	76.1	74.1	71.9	39.2	65.4	43.9	35.5	22.5
Brazil	1990	58.7	58.1	86.3	85.3	82.3	39.3	56.2	16.1	23.9	5.7
	2005	90.3	88.5	97.9	94.3	96.7	73.3	81.6	46.1	33.6	13.4
Chile	1990	…	53.0	96.6	96.0	97.1	48.7	80.8	60.0	27.8	15.5
	2003	…	77.7	99.1	99.1	99.0	62.3	93.1	71.1	41.7	26.6
Costa Rica	1990	…	6.7	87.2	86.8	77.4	39.2	53.3	17.6	26.6	13.8
	2005	…	57.5	98.7	98.6	91.8	54.1	79.6	26.8	48.0	21.7
Colombia	1991	43.4	39.5	83.2	80.6	81.0	46.4	63.6	21.6	32.2	10.6
	2005	80.5	79.3	96.3	93.7	92.9	65.4	77.4	36.9	33.6	18.4
Ecuador (urban areas)	1990	…	…	96.9	94.9	92.3	65.3	78.5	46.6	45.3	24.4
	2005	85.5	75.1	96.5	81.7	90.8	57.6	77.9	65.5	41.9	29.6
Ecuador	2005	77.8	67.5	95.7	82.7	85.9	54.4	69.5	55.9	35.2	22.8
El Salvador	1995	62.2	58.1	86.0	83.2	72.3	36.0	46.5	25.3	21.5	12.2
	2004	75.3	75.1	92.5	89.3	81.8	50.7	57.4	31.6	19.8	12.7
Guatemala	2004	…	…	84.7	82.5	65.8	29.0	46.4	12.9	18.5	10.8
Honduras	1990	35.9	34.5	81.3	80.2	55.5	19.4	27.5	7.6	13.0	4.8
	2003	69.0	67.7	90.6	88.8	66.0	33.0	41.4	18.9	21.1	8.9
Mexico	1996	…	76.8	96.7	94.9	84.0	58.4	54.6	36.5	23.9	12.8
	2005	…	89.8	98.2	96.9	90.8	72.1	63.7	47.2	30.9	21.0
Nicaragua	1993	48.8	32.9	78.8	75.5	65.7	27.8	48.3	11.5	23.1	7.0
	2001	…	77.2	87.9	83.5	77.3	39.2	51.8	17.2	28.1	14.6
Panama	1991	45.6	45.1	95.2	93.5	86.5	58.3	68.1	42.5	32.2	19.9
	2005	70.5	70.0	97.9	97.2	91.3	65.9	79.0	51.9	37.1	25.2
Paraguay (urban areas)	1994	…	35.3	92.5	92.3	89.2	40.4	64.8	34.9	29.1	13.9
	2005	…	74.2	96.9	95.9	94.8	62.6	83.1	48.4	38.2	21.5
Paraguay	2005	…	60.5	95.3	94.4	89.2	53.3	71.3	38.1	31.8	15.5
Peru	1997	…	69.6	94.5	94.4	88.9	29.2	77.1	11.8	37.1	12.6
	2003	76.7	76.4	95.8	93.6	91.1	61.4	79.6	45.8	36.5	21.0
Dominican Republic	1997	74.4	61.3	92.6	91.3	96.0	22.5	82.6	31.6	39.1	13.1
	2005	95.6	50.6	97.8	92.8	97.5	44.4	88.3	53.7	45.8	21.6
Uruguay (urban areas)	1990	…	72.2	98.5	97.3	93.9	65.7	71.0	44.2	34.2	18.0
	2005	…	96.3	98.6	97.7	95.4	71.6	78.4	53.6	44.8	26.0
Bol. Rep. of Venezuela	1990	…	64.1	92.2	91.5	88.6	42.9	68.6	20.8	36.8	15.8
	2005	85.9	84.3	96.8	91.8	94.3	68.4	81.0	45.0	43.1	26.6
Latin America	1990	61.6	60.5	91.1	89.7	83.6	44.8	60.5	26.7	27.8	11.0
	2005	86.3	84.2	97.2	94.3	93.5	68.7	76.2	46.6	34.5	18.5

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Criteria adopted in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED), 1997.

[b] Children one year younger than the country's official age for entering primary education (see box III.1).

Table III.2

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): TIMELY SCHOOL PROGRESSION AMONG STUDENTS AGED 10 TO 14 AND STUDENTS AND GRADUATES AGED 15 TO 19, BY SELECTED QUINTILES OF PER CAPITA INCOME, NATIONWIDE TOTALS, AROUND 1990 AND 2005 [a]

(*Percentages*)

Country	Year	Students aged 10 to 14 with…						Students aged 15 to 19 with…					
		timely progression			3 or more years behind			timely progression			3 or more years behind		
		Total	Per capita income quintile		Total	Per capita income quintile		Total	Per capita income quintile		Total	Per capita income quintile	
			Quintile I	Quintile V		Quintile I	Quintile V		Quintile I	Quintile V		Quintile I	Quintile V
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1997	95.8	93.5	98.0	3.4	6.0	0.8	85.3	72.0	94.8	14.7	29.5	3.9
	2005	93.9	90.4	96.5	4.7	5.9	3.7	88.8	79.4	94.8	7.3	13.9	4.0
Argentina (urban areas)	2005	93.4	89.7	97.3	5.0	7.2	2.6	87.6	79.2	93.4	9.9	18.6	4.4
Bolivia (8 main cities and El Alto)	1994	89.9	87.3	93.7	7.9	10.0	2.9	86.7	81.8	92.8	12.0	17.9	7.1
	2004	90.8	86.8	95.8	6.0	6.3	0.8	86.0	82.4	93.6	11.7	18.0	6.0
Bolivia	2004	89.0	82.8	95.0	9.4	19.2	3.1	84.4	75.5	91.8	15.5	29.6	5.9
Brazil	1990	71.6	50.6	90.6	33.5	59.3	7.3	56.4	23.1	78.7	52.0	83.6	23.9
	2005	88.0	79.7	97.4	11.5	21.6	2.1	78.7	58.6	93.4	25.3	49.8	6.2
Chile	1990	88.4	83.6	92.1	8.2	13.2	3.0	85.5	79.8	89.3	11.6	19.1	4.0
	2003	91.9	89.1	95.2	2.8	5.2	0.9	87.2	82.0	91.0	6.7	10.7	2.5
Costa Rica	1990	82.9	74.8	91.9	15.1	25.6	4.5	76.8	70.3	87.1	27.4	35.8	13.7
	2005	85.6	79.8	95.6	10.3	16.0	2.4	74.6	65.1	86.8	30.0	41.9	14.9
Colombia	1991	80.4	71.8	91.9	22.3	33.0	7.6	69.4	53.7	79.9	36.7	55.4	23.5
	2005	86.4	81.1	93.1	12.6	19.2	4.7	83.5	75.0	91.6	18.6	29.6	6.6
Ecuador (urban areas)	1990	90.8	88.2	96.3	8.0	10.2	2.7	81.0	76.1	86.8	21.5	26.8	15.5
	2005	96.6	94.2	98.2	3.3	4.1	2.1	91.6	86.8	95.8	8.0	14.3	3.3
Ecuador	2005	94.6	90.3	97.6	5.1	8.6	2.8	89.9	84.3	94.6	10.2	18.3	4.2
El Salvador	1995	80.7	68.3	93.3	21.4	37.8	6.9	80.0	61.1	91.3	23.9	46.6	9.9
	2004	87.3	79.1	96.5	12.7	23.2	2.0	84.2	67.0	92.5	17.7	39.7	5.5
Guatemala	2004	81.0	73.8	90.5	16.8	28.5	5.0	75.2	50.1	89.3	29.7	58.8	12.2
Honduras	1990	77.6	67.5	89.0	23.8	37.5	7.5	66.0	48.5	75.6	41.0	61.5	28.2
	2003	83.9	74.8	94.3	16.3	27.6	5.0	74.8	46.5	87.9	30.2	62.2	12.6
Mexico	1996	90.0	80.6	97.8	9.2	19.8	1.4	83.3	73.9	89.7	17.0	30.4	9.0
	2005	94.4	89.8	98.6	4.1	8.6	0.6	89.7	82.8	94.0	8.8	14.2	4.3
Nicaragua	1993	80.5	68.8	89.5	21.7	37.6	8.8	67.9	51.4	75.3	38.4	58.3	28.4
	2001	83.0	72.3	89.8	18.5	32.9	9.7	75.9	53.3	86.2	28.4	55.6	15.2
Panama	1991	89.4	82.3	98.2	10.1	18.1	2.0	85.3	76.5	92.5	15.8	27.7	7.4
	2005	91.7	84.6	99.3	7.1	14.9	0.4	88.5	80.7	94.5	11.5	20.6	2.4
Paraguay (urban areas)	1994	79.7	69.5	87.8	17.9	34.0	4.8	79.7	68.0	86.3	22.4	38.0	16.0
	2005	88.0	79.8	96.4	9.0	14.9	0.8	83.0	78.6	89.7	15.4	21.2	8.2
	2005	85.1	77.2	96.4	12.1	21.1	2.7	81.5	74.8	88.5	18.1	27.4	7.9
Peru	1997	68.9	52.2	75.3	34.3	57.7	12.1	59.4	37.4	69.0	48.3	72.6	31.6
	2003	88.8	79.8	97.3	9.6	19.9	1.6	86.7	71.6	95.0	15.1	34.1	6.0
Dominican Republic	1997	79.2	72.1	88.9	23.2	29.5	12.2	70.7	60.5	79.0	35.4	47.7	25.2
	2005	91.8	87.3	94.7	7.6	10.2	5.7	85.3	79.6	90.0	16.8	24.4	9.7
Uruguay (urban areas)	1990	90.6	83.4	96.8	5.6	11.6	1.9	84.4	75.6	89.2	15.1	26.9	6.1
	2005	91.7	84.6	99.2	4.5	8.6	0.7	85.2	73.5	92.3	14.6	30.1	3.1
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	79.5	72.1	88.2	21.3	31.3	9.1	70.3	62.2	80.6	35.6	45.6	22.0
	2005	91.3	87.4	95.7	7.1	11.3	3.1	85.0	79.5	90.9	17.4	24.3	10.3
Latin America	1990	76.3	61.8	89.1	27.8	47.6	7.7	65.9	44.2	80.2	42.2	66.3	22.1
	2005	88.9	82.1	95.6	10.4	18.8	3.5	82.1	66.7	92.5	21.2	41.2	7.1

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Criteria adopted in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED), 1997. For further details see box III.1.

Table III.3

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): YOUNG PEOPLE OF DIFFERENT AGE GROUPS WHO HAVE COMPLETED PRIMARY EDUCATION, EARLY SECONDARY AND UPPER SECONDARY AND AT LEAST FIVE YEARS OF TERTIARY EDUCATION, BY SELECTED QUINTILES OF PER CAPITA INCOME, AROUND 1990 AND 2005

(*Percentages*)

Country	Year	Young people aged 15 to 19 who have completed primary education			Young people aged 20 to 24 who have completed early secondary school			Young people aged 20 to 24 who have completed secondary education			Young people aged 25 to 29 who have completed at least five years of tertiary education		
		Total	Per capita income quintile		Total	Per capita income quintile		Total	Per capita income quintile		Total	Per capita income quintile	
			Quintile I	Quintile V		Quintile I	Quintile V		Quintile I	Quintile V		Quintile I	Quintile V
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1997	97.3	93.6	99.3	68.5	35.0	92.3	49.9	13.8	84.3	11.6	0.0	33.2
	2005	97.8	96.2	99.6	84.4	61.9	97.4	69.2	44.0	91.4	11.4	1.4	29.1
Argentina (urban areas)	2005	97.1	94.6	99.4	83.2	64.2	96.0	68.7	45.0	90.2	10.8	0.8	26.7
Bolivia (8 main cities and El Alto)	1994	91.2	90.1	88.9	81.5	79.8	87.6	58.4	54.3	69.7	7.9	2.4	19.8
	2004	94.2	92.2	93.9	84.2	72.5	92.5	63.3	47.7	83.5	11.5	0.5	29.5
Bolivia	2004	88.7	73.4	94.8	74.5	43.4	90.2	51.4	19.6	73.5	7.9	0.1	22.8
Brazil	1990	73.2	46.7	92.7	41.7	12.9	76.6	21.1	3.1	51.5	2.1	0.1	7.4
	2005	92.6	83.9	98.5	70.9	37.4	95.3	48.8	15.2	85.6	3.5	0.1	14.4
Chile	1990	93.5	90.0	97.6	82.9	67.5	95.0	51.0	23.1	79.8	6.0	0.2	19.8
	2003	98.3	97.1	99.5	94.4	85.6	99.0	73.9	50.0	92.5	9.8	1.0	30.0
Costa Rica	1990	82.4	70.8	94.4	38.6	16.0	65.3	28.9	10.6	54.2	4.3	0.0	12.4
	2005	92.3	86.7	97.6	55.5	33.7	79.0	41.2	17.0	69.4	6.8	0.0	20.2
Colombia	1991	80.0	70.6	88.8	43.8	21.7	66.2	32.8	12.9	55.9	8.3	0.7	24.1
	2005	91.1	86.5	96.7	68.4	49.7	88.1	60.3	40.0	84.1	18.4	2.4	50.3
Ecuador (urban areas)	1990	93.2	91.1	93.9	67.7	55.2	79.2	48.1	32.4	64.6	9.9	2.8	22.5
	2005	95.0	90.9	96.2	74.9	53.5	93.5	58.8	32.9	85.1	12.9	1.6	33.5
Ecuador	2005	92.8	86.8	96.4	63.3	35.3	89.7	48.3	22.2	79.4	9.8	0.5	26.5
El Salvador	1995	61.2	37.1	84.3	47.3	16.3	79.6	27.2	6.2	58.0	3.6	0.0	12.0
	2004	76.1	58.6	92.9	58.4	24.6	84.1	36.5	8.2	67.7	4.6	0.5	14.4
Guatemala	2004	58.3	36.2	82.2	33.2	10.3	62.7	24.9	6.9	51.6	3.9	0.0	13.0
Honduras	1990	57.9	39.5	79.9	22.8	7.0	48.1	12.7	1.9	31.1	2.2	0.0	6.8
	2003	70.6	48.1	90.1	28.9	4.9	62.5	17.6	1.2	42.9	2.3	0.0	7.4
Mexico	1996	87.2	69.3	97.5	62.2	24.9	87.2	23.3	3.0	52.6	7.5	0.0	20.7
	2005	93.9	85.4	99.2	74.1	42.0	93.2	40.6	11.9	71.5	7.7	0.4	21.8
Nicaragua	1993	55.2	34.2	81.4	27.7	12.2	51.2	14.4	6.3	30.3	3.2	0.0	9.0
	2001	64.5	37.4	86.3	36.2	11.4	64.9	26.4	4.4	55.4	3.8	0.3	12.4
Panama	1991	91.4	83.6	97.2	62.8	34.9	81.4	44.6	20.5	69.5	7.9	1.4	23.5
	2005	95.0	85.6	99.4	70.7	33.8	90.2	52.6	16.9	76.9	13.2	0.8	34.4
Paraguay (urban areas)	1994	84.3	71.6	91.3	56.5	26.1	80.0	36.5	12.4	57.8	4.0	0.0	13.6
	2005	94.0	86.5	98.4	72.0	38.9	92.5	54.3	18.7	76.4	9.7	0.4	22.6
	2005	89.5	80.9	96.5	61.1	31.7	83.3	43.9	13.5	69.1	6.9	0.3	17.2
Peru	1997	74.2	46.6	91.2	66.9	21.7	87.0	29.7	7.3	47.4	0.8	0.0	2.6
	2003	91.0	76.6	97.5	73.3	32.6	94.4	64.7	23.8	89.5	14.8	2.2	33.8
Dominican Republic	1997	70.3	59.3	83.7	58.5	41.8	72.7	28.5	14.5	45.1	4.0	0.0	11.4
	2005	86.1	81.5	92.0	75.8	60.5	85.5	46.9	29.8	63.3	2.6	0.3	7.7
Uruguay (urban areas)	1990	96.5	92.2	99.7	66.8	33.8	87.9	31.9	7.7	60.0	4.6	0.0	14.3
	2005	96.4	91.7	99.4	71.3	34.1	95.5	39.2	7.3	75.4	5.1	0.3	15.5
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	83.6	75.5	93.0	50.1	37.2	68.8	33.0	23.7	50.3	5.2	0.7	13.9
	2005	91.5	87.5	94.6	67.6	51.0	84.7	52.5	35.4	72.6	9.5	2.6	22.9
Latin America	1990	79.4	61.0	92.9	52.8	23.9	78.8	27.1	7.9	53.9	4.8	0.2	14.2
	2005	91.9	84.1	97.5	71.3	42.4	91.8	49.6	20.5	79.6	7.4	0.7	22.6

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Criteria adopted in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED), 1997. For further details see box III.1.

Table III.4

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): SELECTED EDUCATIONAL INDICATORS FOR CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE OF DIFFERENT AGE GROUPS, BY SEX, NATIONWIDE TOTALS

(*Percentages*)

Country	Year	Pre-school attendance rates		Net attendance rates								Drop-out rate during primary school		Young people aged 15 to 19 with timely progression		Completion of					
				Primary		Early secondary		Upper secondary		Post-secondary or tertiary						primary school among young people aged 15 to 19		secondary school among young people aged 20 to 24		tertiary education among young people aged 25 to 29 [a]	
		Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1997	75.1	71.5	97.4	98.0	75.2	77.2	40.4	50.9	25.0	31.0	1.4	0.7	64.7	77.2	96.9	97.7	46.0	53.6	9.2	14.0
	2005	89.6	96.0	96.3	96.8	75.4	78.6	38.6	46.0	28.0	36.3	1.3	0.4	75.0	83.3	97.4	98.1	63.8	74.7	9.0	13.5
Argentina	2005	87.1	91.2	96.7	97.4	74.5	77.9	35.3	42.9	31.1	39.9	1.7	0.8	71.2	80.2	96.6	97.7	65.0	72.5	9.2	12.1
Bolivia (8 main cities and El Alto)	1994	58.3	53.2	92.6	92.9	52.6	56.1	67.4	63.2	39.3	34.0	3.9	8.6	72.5	74.9	93.5	89.1	63.0	54.3	9.4	6.6
	2004	67.0	71.6	94.0	93.8	55.6	57.3	64.4	66.3	35.9	32.9	2.9	5.4	69.9	75.1	96.0	92.7	66.7	60.0	11.9	11.1
Bolivia	2004	51.6	52.7	73.4	74.9	38.4	40.0	48.5	50.0	24.0	21.0	7.2	10.1	68.0	69.8	90.5	86.8	56.2	46.9	7.8	8.0
Brazil	1990	57.7	59.7	84.5	86.1	36.1	42.4	18.0	23.3	4.8	6.6	15.3	11.4	29.0	35.1	69.0	77.5	17.7	24.4	2.3	1.8
	2005	89.9	90.6	94.6	94.1	69.6	77.3	46.9	55.5	11.5	15.3	3.3	1.6	55.2	66.3	90.6	94.6	44.1	53.6	3.1	3.9
Chile	1990	54.1	51.9	95.8	96.3	46.4	51.1	64.6	66.5	16.7	14.4	4.7	3.9	69.4	74.4	93.0	94.1	49.3	52.6	5.8	6.1
	2003	78.1	77.3	99.0	99.1	59.3	65.2	71.5	74.4	27.2	26.1	1.1	0.7	74.7	80.9	98.0	98.7	71.7	76.1	10.0	9.7
Costa Rica	1990	5.6	7.7	86.7	87.0	40.0	38.3	29.5	25.0	13.8	13.7	13.2	10.9	56.1	57.2	81.0	84.0	26.6	31.3	4.3	4.2
	2005	54.6	60.1	98.5	98.8	49.2	58.9	26.8	36.1	19.7	23.9	5.6	4.1	48.2	56.7	91.0	93.7	39.0	43.4	6.0	7.6
Colombia	1991	43.0	43.8	80.0	81.1	44.0	48.9	29.6	30.9	9.7	11.4	17.8	13.4	41.8	48.0	77.1	82.8	30.6	34.6	8.3	8.3
	2005	80.5	80.5	93.6	93.9	62.0	69.0	40.4	46.8	17.4	19.4	7.4	4.6	62.6	72.4	89.0	93.3	57.8	62.6	17.0	19.5
Ecuador (urban areas)	1990	…	…	94.8	95.1	61.3	69.5	44.3	49.0	23.9	24.9	4.4	2.7	60.0	66.0	91.9	94.5	44.8	51.0	9.7	10.0
	2005	84.0	87.2	80.6	83.0	58.3	56.9	63.2	67.9	28.6	30.5	3.1	2.2	81.2	85.1	94.2	95.8	58.1	59.5	11.3	14.4
Ecuador	2005	76.7	79.0	82.0	83.5	54.0	54.7	63.2	67.9	21.6	24.0	4.6	3.6	77.3	82.6	91.9	93.7	47.4	49.3	8.4	11.1
El Salvador	1995	61.2	63.2	83.3	83.2	35.2	36.9	37.9	38.5	11.7	12.7	24.4	24.8	57.9	68.3	59.3	63.0	25.8	28.5	4.2	3.0
	2004	75.1	75.5	89.6	89.1	48.3	53.1	44.6	39.2	13.4	12.1	15.6	14.8	65.2	73.3	74.4	77.9	36.9	36.1	4.9	4.2
Guatemala	2004	…	…	83.1	81.9	28.5	29.5	24.2	19.2	11.8	9.9	21.3	31.1	50.7	60.4	64.1	52.7	26.8	23.3	3.3	4.3
Honduras	1990	33.5	38.3	79.6	80.8	17.3	21.6	13.8	16.9	4.7	4.9	30.0	24.8	39.0	41.4	54.4	61.4	10.7	14.5	3.0	1.5
	2003	70.1	68.1	88.0	89.7	29.6	36.3	31.7	33.6	7.9	9.8	21.3	15.2	50.9	56.8	66.8	74.4	14.7	20.4	2.2	2.4
Mexico	1996	77.5	76.0	94.8	95.0	58.4	58.4	45.9	50.9	13.9	11.8	9.4	9.6	63.5	69.9	87.4	86.9	26.0	20.8	7.7	7.2
	2005	87.7	91.8	97.1	96.7	72.4	71.8	52.3	55.1	20.2	21.8	4.2	3.8	76.9	82.7	94.2	93.7	40.1	41.0	8.5	7.1
Nicaragua	1993	46.2	51.6	74.1	77.0	24.7	30.9	16.0	20.5	8.1	6.0	25.4	21.8	40.3	43.5	51.6	58.8	12.5	16.1	2.8	3.5
	2001	78.1	76.2	83.9	83.0	35.6	43.3	18.0	31.0	11.5	17.9	23.9	15.6	46.4	61.9	58.6	70.8	22.8	29.7	3.3	4.3

(Concluded)

Table III.4

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): SELECTED EDUCATIONAL INDICATORS FOR CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE OF DIFFERENT AGE GROUPS, BY SEX, NATIONWIDE TOTALS

(*Percentages*)

Country	Year	Pre-school attendance rates		Net attendance rates: Primary		Net attendance rates: Early secondary		Net attendance rates: Upper secondary		Net attendance rates: Post-secondary or tertiary		Drop-out rate during primary school		Young people aged 15 to 19 with timely progression		Completion of: primary school among young people aged 15 to 19		Completion of: secondary school among young people aged 20 to 24		Completion of: tertiary education among young people aged 25 to 29 [a]	
		Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Panama	1991	43.0	48.1	93.1	93.9	56.7	59.9	43.7	53.6	17.8	22.1	6.9	4.6	66.1	75.4	90.0	92.8	42.0	47.2	6.8	8.8
	2005	71.6	69.2	97.0	97.4	63.6	68.3	54.6	66.8	20.3	30.2	2.8	2.8	69.6	84.5	94.8	95.2	48.1	57.3	9.7	16.6
Paraguay (urban areas)	1994	38.8	31.9	92.8	91.8	39.3	41.4	35.0	34.8	13.3	14.4	12.5	12.3	56.8	62.9	84.4	84.1	33.8	38.8	4.6	3.5
	2005	72.0	76.8	95.5	96.4	63.8	61.6	43.2	53.5	20.5	22.4	4.7	3.3	61.7	70.5	93.7	94.2	56.1	52.7	7.5	11.7
Paraguay	2005	56.0	65.2	93.6	95.2	52.1	54.4	43.2	53.5	13.4	17.6	10.4	5.8	57.9	68.3	87.1	92.0	43.6	44.1	5.7	8.1
Peru	1997	67.2	71.9	94.7	94.2	29.0	29.4	15.5	16.2	10.9	14.2	16.3	16.3	21.7	28.4	73.8	74.7	27.0	32.1	1.0	0.6
	2003	75.9	77.5	93.7	93.5	61.6	61.2	54.7	58.2	19.1	23.0	5.0	7.5	71.9	77.0	92.5	89.3	64.9	64.5	14.0	15.6
Dominican Republic	1997	73.8	75.0	90.4	92.2	17.6	27.7	30.9	46.5	10.9	15.3	11.9	8.1	41.7	56.5	64.2	75.9	23.8	32.9	3.6	4.4
	2005	96.2	95.0	93.1	92.4	37.8	50.8	53.4	61.9	19.2	24.3	7.3	5.2	63.9	79.5	82.8	89.7	42.2	52.0	2.0	3.1
Uruguay	1990	72.9	71.5	97.5	97.1	64.8	66.6	38.9	49.8	15.5	20.4	2.9	1.5	65.0	72.2	95.6	97.4	27.2	36.2	4.5	4.7
	2005	95.8	96.8	97.7	97.6	69.5	74.0	48.7	58.7	21.8	30.0	3.2	1.6	65.4	75.3	95.4	97.5	35.2	43.2	4.3	5.9
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	62.9	65.5	31.8	31.1	39.6	49.0	19.6	27.7	13.9	17.8	12.1	7.6	41.3	50.9	80.5	86.9	29.7	36.3	10.8	13.0
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	62.9	65.5	91.0	92.0	38.5	47.3	17.0	24.9	13.9	17.8	12.2	7.6	41.3	50.9	80.5	87.0	29.7	36.3	4.4	6.0
	2005	84.7	87.3	92.3	91.2	65.4	71.6	40.3	49.9	22.2	31.2	6.8	3.2	65.7	76.6	89.1	94.0	46.4	58.8	6.6	12.5
Latin America	1990	62.2	62.8	89.4	90.1	42.7	46.9	31.0	35.4	10.5	11.5	12.6	10.5	35.3	40.6	77.3	81.6	25.4	28.6	4.8	4.7
	2005	85.5	87.1	94.4	94.2	66.4	71.2	49.0	55.3	16.8	20.1	4.6	3.2	61.1	71.0	90.6	93.2	46.6	52.6	6.9	7.9

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Refers to five years of post-secondary education.

Table III.5

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): SELECTED EDUCATIONAL INDICATORS FOR CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE OF DIFFERENT AGE GROUPS, BY GEOGRAPHICAL AREA, NATIONWIDE TOTALS

(*Percentages*)

Country	Year	Net attendance rates									Completion of								
		Primary			Early secondary			Upper secondary			Primary among young people aged 15 to 19			Secondary among young people aged 20 to 24			Tertiary among young people aged 25 to 29 [a]		
		Urban	Rural	Indigenous	Urban	Rural	Indigenous	Urban	Rural	Indigenous	Urban	Rural	Indigenous	Urban	Rural	Indigenous	Urban	Rural	Indigenous
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1997	97.7	…	…	76.1	…	…	45.1	…	…	97.3	…	…	49.9	…	…	11.6	…	…
	2005	96.5	…	…	76.8	…	…	42.4	…	…	97.8	…	…	69.2	…	…	11.4	…	…
Argentina (urban areas)	2005	97.0	…	…	76.0	…	…	39.1	…	…	97.1	…	…	68.7	…	…	10.8	…	…
Bolivia (8 main cities and El Alto)	1994	92.7	…	91.1	54.4	…	41.2	65.2	…	45.3	91.2	…	77.2	58.4	…	39.0	7.9	…	2.8
	2004	93.9	…	…	56.4	…	56.0	65.4	…	65.0	94.2	…	92.7	63.3	…	56.7	11.5	…	7.7
Bolivia	2004	74.5	73.7	…	44.0	32.0	36.3	49.3	34.0	43.5	93.5	78.9	85.4	60.6	26.7	46.3	10.4	1.3	4.9
Brazil	1990	90.0	74.4	76.3	49.3	16.5	26.0	20.7	4.6	6.7	81.6	51.0	62.7	26.2	5.0	10.6	2.5	0.4	0.3
	2005	94.5	93.4	94.4	77.3	58.1	67.2	51.2	25.0	36.8	94.6	84.0	91.0	54.0	20.8	40.7	4.1	0.3	1.2
Chile	1990	97.1	91.2	…	51.4	36.4	…	65.5	33.1	…	95.2	85.3	…	57.1	19.7	…	6.8	1.5	…
	2003	99.3	97.5	98.1	62.7	59.5	58.5	72.9	59.2	63.0	98.7	96.1	96.5	77.5	45.6	60.0	10.9	1.6	3.2
Costa Rica	1990	89.5	84.9	…	54.8	27.6	…	27.4	9.9	…	90.2	76.5	…	44.5	17.1	…	8.4	1.0	…
	2005	99.1	98.0	…	60.7	46.2	…	31.2	20.7	…	94.9	88.8	…	49.0	28.1	…	9.2	3.1	…
Colombia	1991	86.8	73.6	…	62.7	28.1	…	30.3	11.2	…	90.3	67.1	…	44.0	14.4	…	12.3	1.0	…
	2005	94.3	92.5	…	72.4	48.3	…	43.6	20.2	…	95.2	80.5	…	70.3	29.4	…	23.4	2.6	…
Ecuador (urban areas)	1990	94.9	…	…	65.3	…	…	46.6	…	…	93.2	…	…	48.1	…	…	9.9	…	…
	2005	81.7	…	87.8	57.6	…	59.0	65.5	…	42.8	95.0	…	89.1	58.8	…	35.6	12.9	…	3.9
Ecuador	2005	81.7	84.3	86.9	57.6	49.1	51.3	65.5	37.9	36.1	95.0	88.5	87.9	58.8	23.7	26.6	12.9	2.0	2.6
El Salvador	1995	87.8	79.1	…	52.5	19.5	…	38.2	9.1	…	78.7	39.9	…	40.8	8.1	…	5.7	0.1	…
	2004	90.6	87.9	…	61.3	38.1	…	41.8	18.7	…	85.7	64.2	…	49.0	16.6	…	6.7	0.4	…
Guatemala	2004	85.9	80.2	81.4	43.2	19.4	18.6	21.7	5.8	6.1	75.4	44.8	41.5	42.0	8.1	10.3	6.6	0.8	0.9
Honduras	1990	87.2	75.9	…	37.5	7.2	…	15.4	1.7	…	75.8	44.1	…	22.5	3.5	…	4.3	0.2	…
	2003	91.6	87.0	…	51.3	19.0	…	32.7	6.7	…	84.4	58.1	…	31.0	4.1	…	4.5	0.1	…
Mexico	1996	95.3	94.5	…	71.6	43.1	…	48.3	20.4	…	93.7	77.7	…	30.8	9.6	…	10.4	1.6	…
	2005	97.5	96.1	…	79.1	63.3	…	53.6	37.3	…	96.2	90.2	…	48.4	24.8	…	10.0	2.8	…
Nicaragua	1993	83.7	66.5	…	43.9	8.7	…	18.2	2.8	…	75.1	29.9	…	21.8	4.6	…	4.2	1.4	…
	2001	86.7	79.7	78.3	52.9	21.1	20.0	25.2	5.9	6.0	81.2	40.3	48.1	39.3	7.3	7.1	5.4	1.2	0.0
Panama	1991	94.5	91.3	…	65.0	43.5	…	48.6	28.2	…	93.8	85.4	…	50.3	28.4	…	9.4	3.3	…
	2005	98.3	95.6	92.1	75.7	51.7	26.5	60.7	36.3	13.2	98.1	89.1	72.7	63.4	30.0	11.9	17.1	5.1	1.5
Paraguay (urban areas)	1994	92.3	…	86.5	40.4	…	25.4	34.9	…	16.3	84.3	…	62.6	36.5	…	13.8	4.0	…	0.5
	2005	95.9	…	93.8	62.6	…	39.0	48.4	…	28.5	94.0	…	87.7	54.3	…	30.1	9.7	…	3.6
Paraguay	2005	95.9	92.6	92.1	62.6	43.1	38.2	48.4	25.6	23.2	94.0	83.4	83.2	54.3	27.1	26.4	9.7	1.8	2.0
Peru	1997	97.5	90.6	…	38.5	16.3	…	15.8	5.3	…	86.0	51.0	…	37.7	9.5	…	1.1	0.1	…
	2003	95.4	91.4	…	73.6	44.4	…	56.4	27.3	…	95.9	81.4	…	77.9	32.2	…	19.4	4.0	…
República Dominicana (urban areas)	1997	91.7	90.9	…	29.4	15.8	…	39.4	21.7	…	78.5	59.5	…	36.8	14.9	…	5.7	1.1	…
	2005	91.8	94.3	…	49.3	36.0	…	57.7	46.5	…	89.2	80.3	…	54.8	31.5	…	3.4	0.7	…
Uruguay	1990	97.3	…	…	65.7	…	…	44.2	…	…	96.5	…	…	31.9	…	…	4.6	…	…
	2005	97.7	…	…	71.6	…	…	53.6	…	…	96.4	…	…	39.2	…	…	5.1	…	…
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) (urban areas)	1990	32.1	28.7	…	49.5	21.2	…	23.6	7.0	…	87.9	60.1	…	36.7	9.9	…	13.4	1.2	…
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	91.5	…	…	42.9	…	…	20.8	…	…	83.6	…	…	33.0	…	…	5.2	…	…
	2005	91.8	…	…	68.4	…	…	45.0	…	…	91.5	…	…	52.5	…	…	9.5	…	…
Latin America [b]	1990	92.2	84.7	…	54.5	26.3	…	32.1	12.5	…	86.2	62.9	…	32.2	9.2	…	5.8	0.9	…
	2005	95.4	93.5	88.3	75.2	54.6	46.7	52.2	30.1	33.5	94.8	83.6	79.0	56.2	23.8	35.1	8.5	1.9	2.0

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Refers to five years of post-secondary education.

[b] Weighted average of countries that distinguish between urban and rural areas in the two periods considered. The total for indigenous population includes Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Ecuador, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Panama and Paraguay.

Table III.6

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): COMPLETION OF THE VARIOUS EDUCATION CYCLES, BY POVERTY STATUS, NATIONWIDE TOTALS

(*Percentages*)

Country	Year	Completion of primary education among young people aged 15 to 19				Completion of secondary education among young people aged 20 to 24				Completion of tertiary education among young people aged			
		Total	Poverty status			Total	Poverty status			Total	Poverty status		
			Indigent	Non-indigent poor	Non-poor		Indigent	Non-indigent poor	Non-poor		Indigent	Non-indigent poor	Non-poor
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1997	97.3	95.1	92.1	98.4	49.9	7.4	13.8	55.2	11.6	0.0	0.0	13.5
	2005	97.8	97.4	94.2	98.7	69.2	40.9	46.7	74.5	11.4	1.3	1.2	13.8
Argentina (urban areas)	2005	97.1	93.7	95.1	98.4	68.7	38.5	49.6	75.2	10.8	1.1	1.4	13.5
Bolivia (8 main cities and El Alto)	1994	91.2	90.4	92.0	91.0	58.4	53.9	47.8	65.5	7.9	2.4	2.6	12.1
	2004	94.2	91.7	93.9	95.2	63.3	48.6	53.9	71.2	11.5	0.5	2.8	19.2
Bolivia	2004	88.7	79.9	91.2	93.2	51.4	24.5	48.3	66.0	7.9	0.1	2.1	16.0
Brazil	1990	73.2	50.5	68.7	85.0	21.1	4.2	8.1	30.6	2.1	0.1	0.0	3.3
	2005	92.6	81.4	89.6	96.3	48.8	13.5	24.8	62.1	3.5	0.1	0.1	5.3
Chile	1990	93.5	89.2	92.8	94.9	51.0	23.2	33.8	61.3	6.0	0.2	0.8	9.0
	2003	98.3	95.9	97.5	98.7	73.9	45.4	54.4	77.9	9.8	1.0	1.2	11.4
Costa Rica	1990	82.4	72.8	74.6	85.1	28.9	9.6	15.3	32.0	4.3	0.0	0.4	5.3
	2005	92.3	85.9	89.0	93.5	41.2	17.1	17.3	44.5	6.8	0.0	0.7	7.8
Colombia	1991	80.0	73.7	80.3	83.2	32.8	14.4	24.0	43.8	8.3	0.6	2.5	14.3
	2005	91.1	87.4	90.9	92.9	60.3	41.1	50.2	69.5	18.4	2.6	5.2	27.8
Ecuador (urban areas)	1990	93.2	91.9	93.2	94.1	48.1	35.6	40.6	59.4	9.9	2.5	5.7	16.6
	2005	95.0	90.0	94.4	96.9	58.8	32.7	42.8	71.1	12.9	1.8	2.4	19.5
Ecuador	2005	92.8	87.5	92.4	95.0	48.3	25.2	35.8	59.9	9.8	1.1	1.8	15.5
El Salvador	1995	61.2	43.9	55.2	71.5	27.2	10.2	13.3	39.5	3.6	0.3	0.2	6.4
	2004	76.1	62.4	69.0	85.1	36.5	10.4	23.6	48.8	4.6	0.8	0.6	7.2
Guatemala	2004	58.3	39.4	55.0	70.6	24.9	7.9	12.6	36.5	3.9	0.3	0.1	7.3
Honduras	1990	57.9	47.9	66.2	75.6	12.7	3.8	11.8	29.8	2.2	0.2	0.7	7.3
	2003	70.6	58.5	79.2	86.5	17.6	3.6	16.4	37.2	2.3	0.1	1.0	6.3
Mexico	1996	87.2	72.4	86.9	94.4	23.3	5.9	13.7	34.4	7.5	0.1	1.4	12.5
	2005	93.9	83.6	90.8	97.1	40.6	11.8	21.3	50.1	7.7	0.3	1.3	10.7
Nicaragua	1993	55.2	41.3	60.6	73.5	14.4	7.4	13.6	24.8	3.2	0.9	1.8	7.3
	2001	64.5	49.2	71.2	78.7	26.4	10.7	22.8	43.5	3.8	0.5	2.4	8.2
Panama	1991	91.4	85.6	89.9	94.4	44.6	22.7	31.0	54.4	7.9	1.3	2.3	11.3
	2005	95.0	85.3	93.0	97.8	52.6	17.8	33.2	61.3	13.2	1.0	1.8	17.3
Paraguay (urban areas)	1994	84.3	71.1	83.1	88.6	36.5	11.5	19.5	48.0	4.0	0.0	0.0	6.5
	2005	94.0	87.0	93.6	97.6	54.3	21.1	42.1	71.1	9.7	0.4	1.6	16.1
Paraguay	2005	89.5	82.7	90.6	94.7	43.9	18.6	35.9	61.1	6.9	0.2	1.3	12.7
Peru	1997	74.2	50.7	74.0	84.4	29.7	8.5	22.3	37.9	0.8	0.0	0.0	1.3
	2003	91.0	75.5	92.9	96.3	64.7	25.9	53.9	80.3	14.8	1.4	5.7	23.5
Dominican Republic	1997	70.3	58.1	72.0	72.4	28.5	14.2	17.2	32.8	4.0	0.0	0.8	5.3
	2005	86.1	80.6	84.9	89.2	46.9	33.9	36.7	54.4	2.6	0.2	0.4	4.3
Uruguay	1990	96.5	84.7	94.0	97.8	31.9	3.8	8.5	36.2	4.6	0.0	0.0	5.4
	2005	96.4	84.1	93.8	98.2	39.2	1.7	8.8	46.5	5.1	1.4	0.0	6.2
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) (urban areas)	1990	83.6	78.1	80.4	86.3	33.0	26.1	23.8	36.9	11.9	5.5	5.3	14.9
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	83.6	78.1	80.4	86.4	33.0	26.1	23.8	36.9	5.2	0.7	1.3	7.0
	2005	91.5	87.3	89.6	93.3	52.5	36.1	38.7	59.2	9.5	2.9	3.0	12.7
Latin America	1990	79.4	63.9	78.1	87.6	27.1	9.3	15.8	36.9	4.8	0.2	1.0	7.5
	2005	91.9	80.5	89.8	95.7	49.7	20.7	30.8	60.8	7.4	0.8	1.5	10.6

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Refers to five years of post-secondary education.

Table III.7
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): COMPLETION OF THE VARIOUS EDUCATION CYCLES, BY HOUSEHOLD EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND, NATIONWIDE TOTALS [a]
(*Percentages*)

Country	Year	Completion of primary education among young people aged 15 to 19				Completion of secondary education among young people aged 20 to 24				Completion of tertiary education among young people aged 20 to 24 [a]			
		Total	Household educational background [b]			Total	Household educational background [b]			Total	Household educational background [b]		
			Primary incomplete	Secondary completed	Tertiary completed		Primary incomplete	Secondary completed	Tertiary completed		Primary incomplete	Secondary completed	Tertiary completed
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1997	97.3	94.8	100.0	97.1	49.9	25.2	88.1	92.4	11.6	2.2	14.8	77.2
	2005	97.8	95.2	100.0	100.0	69.2	51.2	92.5	98.4	11.4	4.2	6.2	76.0
Argentina (urban areas)	2005	97.1	93.6	99.6	99.5	68.7	46.8	93.4	98.2	10.8	3.1	5.6	74.8
Bolivia (8 main cities and El Alto)	1994	91.2	87.7	96.3	81.6	58.4	47.6	82.5	66.5	7.9	3.8	4.5	88.0
	2004	94.2	91.6	98.1	91.5	63.3	53.9	90.6	92.4	11.5	5.3	3.2	71.3
Bolivia	2004	88.7	84.1	98.3	91.6	51.4	37.8	92.5	92.4	7.9	2.8	3.1	71.8
Brazil	1990	73.2	62.8	92.4	91.6	21.1	10.7	81.6	65.3	2.1	0.4	2.3	61.4
	2005	92.6	86.3	98.3	99.5	48.8	29.7	94.1	95.1	3.5	0.4	1.9	75.6
Chile	1990	93.5	88.6	98.0	97.4	51.0	37.4	85.8	81.9	6.0	2.7	5.7	58.4
	2003	98.3	95.9	99.9	100.0	73.9	55.8	95.6	96.9	9.8	2.5	7.0	67.7
Costa Rica	1990	82.4	75.4	96.4	93.6	28.9	21.2	78.1	83.6	4.3	2.6	5.3	41.4
	2005	92.3	86.3	95.4	100.0	41.2	26.8	73.0	90.9	6.8	1.9	5.0	72.2
Colombia	1991	80.0	72.1	94.2	95.0	32.8	20.5	86.6	54.4	8.3	3.3	10.3	74.0
	2005	91.1	84.8	98.7	98.5	60.3	43.0	95.0	92.3	18.4	6.6	11.9	80.7
Ecuador (urban areas)	1990	93.2	89.7	92.7	95.8	48.1	36.1	88.5	71.1	9.9	6.2	7.4	74.6
	2005	95.0	89.7	97.9	98.0	58.8	38.9	87.4	94.6	12.9	4.8	9.4	61.6
Ecuador	2005	92.8	87.0	97.8	98.0	48.3	28.9	87.7	94.8	9.8	3.1	9.7	62.8
El Salvador	1995	61.2	54.1	96.3	81.3	27.2	17.7	80.1	70.7	3.6	0.8	2.8	67.4
	2004	76.1	68.4	95.7	100.0	36.5	25.5	93.2	98.9	4.6	2.0	5.3	55.5
Guatemala	2004	58.3	52.2	98.8	94.9	24.9	16.4	74.8	98.8	3.9	2.2	0.4	87.3
Honduras	1990	57.9	51.8	93.7	88.2	12.7	6.1	62.8	59.6	2.2	0.3	5.5	61.8
	2003	70.6	63.7	93.2	81.4	17.6	8.9	76.3	64.3	2.3	0.6	4.4	65.6
Mexico	1996	87.2	81.3	100.0	100.0	23.3	15.1	73.8	89.3	7.5	3.3	2.2	90.2
	2005	93.9	89.5	96.7	99.5	40.6	26.1	90.5	81.1	7.7	3.8	10.0	69.7
Nicaragua	1993	55.2	49.4	100.0	92.1	14.4	11.5	81.8	92.5	3.2	1.8	9.4	100.0
	2001	64.5	58.0	93.5	100.0	26.4	18.9	80.8	100.0	3.8	1.8	3.4	89.9
Panama	1991	91.4	86.4	99.1	94.3	44.6	28.8	77.4	70.6	7.9	4.6	4.1	66.7
	2005	95.0	88.1	99.7	99.3	52.6	29.8	86.5	82.3	13.2	5.2	11.3	76.2
Paraguay (urban areas)	1994	84.3	75.5	85.8	100.0	36.5	25.5	87.5	41.8	4.0	1.4	3.0	75.8
	2005	94.0	89.1	100.0	100.0	54.3	41.5	92.7	67.6	9.7	6.3	7.6	75.5
Paraguay	2005	89.5	83.6	100.0	100.0	43.9	30.5	93.0	67.6	6.9	3.1	7.5	71.3
Peru	1997	74.2	64.9	94.8	100.0	29.7	20.2	73.7	100.0	0.8	0.2	0.0	10.5
	2003	91.0	86.1	99.7	94.8	64.7	55.1	89.4	90.8	14.8	10.7	16.4	58.0
Dominican Republic	1997	70.3	63.2	100.0	80.3	28.5	21.2	76.2	64.0	4.0	2.6	0.0	71.1
	2005	86.1	78.9	98.7	100.0	46.9	31.0	82.0	95.7	2.6	0.7	3.9	56.9
Uruguay	1990	96.5	93.2	100.0	100.0	31.9	18.3	65.0	78.6	4.6	1.9	2.6	82.7
	2005	96.4	92.4	99.2	100.0	39.2	21.3	72.7	92.3	5.1	0.9	5.0	69.0
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	83.6	76.9	96.5	92.0	33.0	23.9	83.8	75.1	11.9	6.9	10.4	74.0
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	83.6	77.0	96.9	89.8	33.0	23.9	80.3	70.1	5.2	2.8	6.2	67.2
	2005	91.5	86.0	98.5	97.8	52.5	40.7	87.0	92.8	9.5	4.9	7.2	64.6
Latin America	1990	79.4	70.6	95.6	95.8	27.1	16.2	81.4	75.5	4.8	1.8	4.4	75.5
	2005	91.9	85.5	98.3	98.4	49.7	32.7	92.7	91.1	7.4	3.1	5.4	71.6

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Refers to five years of post-secondary education.

[b] Based on the average number of years of schooling of head of household and spouse. In lone-parent families, this refers to the average years of schooling of the male or female head of household.

Table III.8

LATIN AMERICA (5 COUNTRIES), SELECTED OECD COUNTRIES (7 COUNTRIES) AND OTHERS (5 COUNTRIES): SCORES AND CORRELATIONS OF READING TEST ACCORDING TO VARIOUS CHARACTERISTICS OF THE TEACHING STAFF AND SCHOOL COMMUNITY

(Scores and correlations)

	Pupils-to-teacher ratio		Pearson correlation (0 order)	Level of teacher support		Pearson correlation (0 order)	Pupils per computer		Pearson correlation (0 order)	School environment		Pearson correlation (0 order)	Teacher commitment		Pearson correlation (0 order)	Level of school integration		Pearson correlation (0 order)
	High	Low		Low	High		High	Low		Worse	Better		Low	High		Low	High	
Argentina	456	468	0.050	451	451	-0.059	428	453	0.041	450	459	-0.056	425	477	0.119	403	502	0.357
Brazil	415	461	-0.221	421	432	0.072	403	466	0.089	423	443	-0.071	419	446	0.142	413	459	0.210
Chile	442	465	-0.108	450	442	-0.029	427	442	-0.024	458	449	0.056	422	467	0.197	404	469	0.301
Mexico	477	458	0.060	475	458	-0.070	461	472	0.114	466	475	-0.052	468	471	0.003 *	450	493	0.226
Peru	376	378	0.003 **	365	404	0.187	353	360	-0.213	384	370	0.008	357	390	0.176	333	428	0.375
Latin American countries	**431**	**457**	**...**	**434**	**439**	**...**	**415**	**459**	**...**	**435**	**448**	**...**	**427**	**454**	**...**	**414**	**471**	
Germany	476	456	0.069	531	445	-0.335	507	430	-0.263	512	477	0.169	460	478	0.071	448	515	0.288
Spain	535	504	0.101	517	520	0.007	535	515	-0.067	534	513	0.138	500	531	0.111	514	528	0.098
France	569	532	0.152	550	553	-0.020	573	537	-0.146	567	545	0.110	529	564	0.127	546	553	0.023
United Kingdom	526	524	-0.163	509	520	0.041	517	523	-0.021	554	496	0.247	481	554	0.235	514	522	0.065
Ireland	531	504	0.094	520	512	0.020	526	496	-0.118	528	498	0.131	511	525	0.064	519	504	-0.066
Italy	551	470	0.313	528	459	-0.259	523	489	-0.172	527	464	0.252	498	502	0.024	506	493	-0.051
United States	528	531	-0.018	535	534	-0.006	530	525	-0.067	548	514	0.137	520	554	0.115	533	538	0.053
OECD countries [b]	**530**	**497**	**...**	**520**	**520**	**...**	**530**	**499**	**...**	**547**	**493**	**...**	**494**	**539**	**...**	**496**	**539**	**...**
Hong Kong Special Administrative region	567	476	0.436	534	539	-0.024	545	503	-0.017	569	499	0.304	503	572	0.287	499	556	0.276
Indonesia	409	393	0.142	384	412	0.140	383	399	-0.012	406	404	0.005	395	407	0.011	388	407	0.138
Israel	431	402	0.033	472	431	-0.147	465	445	-0.023	442	493	-0.079	421	505	0.215	434	483	0.143
Russian Federation	447	473	-0.152	475	467	0.006	452	460	-0.014	489	450	0.168	437	492	0.177	467	502	0.182
Thailand	418	415	0.017	420	429	0.030	407	433	0.100	429	405	0.090	414	429	0.080	404	448	0.236
Other countries	**440**	**443**	**...**	**444**	**446**	**...**	**430**	**440**	**...**	**458**	**432**	**...**	**423**	**454**	**...**	**433**	**470**	**...**
Total	**492**	**477**	**...**	**486**	**487**	**...**	**481**	**477**	**...**	**504**	**470**	**...**	**367**	**352**	**...**	**466**	**510**	**...**

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), "Programme for International Student Assessment PISA 2000" [online database] http://www.pisa.oecd.org.

[a] Not including Mexico.

Note: (*) correlations only significant to 5%, and (**) non-significant. The others are significant to 1%.

Table III.9

LATIN AMERICA (5 COUNTRIES), SELECTE OECD COUNTRIES (7 COUNTRIES) AND OTHERS (5 COUNTRIES): SCORES AND CORRELATIONS OF READING TEST ACCORDING TO MAIN EXTRA-SCHOLASTIC FACTORS

(*Scores and correlations*)

	Total students	Total tenth-grade students [a]	Parents' educational level			Spearman correlation (0 order)	Quartiles of socio-occupational index [b]		Quartiles of well-being index	Cuartiles del índice de bienestar [b]		Pearson correlation (0 order)	Strata of the index of educational resourcess [b]		Pearson correlation (0 order)	Disparity index
			Up to primary	Up to secondary	Tertiary		1	4		1	4		1	4		
Argentina	418	459	420	458	488	0.288	420	496	0.326	427	497	0.294	419	493	0.297	118
Brazil	396	425	395	426	457	0.259	398	457	0.261	395	461	0.272	403	461	0.262	114
Chile	410	442	402	431	477	0.313	406	487	0.394	414	482	0.245	413	466	0.242	113
Mexico	422	467	446	464	492	0.237	444	494	0.241	452	491	0.200	446	483	0.206	108
Peru	327	374	324	360	407	0.346	336	410	0.317	342	420	0.284	349	422	0.285	121
Latin American countries	**400**	**436**	**408**	**433**	**467**	**...**	**408**	**469**	**...**	**408**	**472**	**...**	**405**	**473**	**...**	**117**
Germany	484	489	397	486	523	0.263	443	534	0.343	472	504	0.170	411	498	0.152	121
Spain	493	522	495	524	545	0.265	498	548	0.252	507	535	0.120	473	528	0.104	111
France	505	553	504	546	566	0.174	532	574	0.215	541	562	0.122	473	558	0.078	118
Reino Unido	523	520	477	512	543	0.225	481	576	0.363	513	532	0.224	472	538	0.204	114
Ireland	527	517	479	514	533	0.185	482	554	0.289	505	534	0.241	451	535	0.214	119
Italy	487	502	464	499	524	0.208	472	534	0.256	489	515	0.116	480	509	0.114	106
United States	504	531	451	518	561	0.250	500	576	0.291	492	558	0.238	477	553	0.230	116
OECD countries [b]	**506**	**520**	**480**	**509**	**550**	**...**	**491**	**557**	**...**	**504**	**533**	**...**	**467**	**535**	**...**	**115**
Hong Kong Special Administrative Region	525	533	514	537	565	0.218	520	552	0.146	526	537	0.222	477	550	0.205	115
Indonesia	371	399	387	401	418	0.163	378	417	0.226	374	414	0.164	389	426	0.160	109
Israel	452	456	402	438	492	0.319	425	504	0.299	420	492	0.255	381	480	0.244	126
Russian Federation	462	471	396	462	486	0.145	441	508	0.271	459	485	0.213	435	494	0.206	114
Thailand	431	421	417	429	454	0.108	415	443	0.179	417	431	0.198	410	464	0.189	113
Other countries [b]	**422**	**445**	**405**	**441**	**475**	**...**	**421**	**478**	**...**	**439**	**463**	**...**	**411**	**486**	**...**	**118**
Total	460	487	421	476	518	...	456	519	...	469	505	...	421	521	...	124

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), "Programme for International Student Assessment PISA 2000" [online database] http://www.pisa.oecd.org.

[a] In some countries the students selected were from the ninth grade (see box III.7).

[b] Quartile groups of the indices concerned.

[c] Not including Mexico.

Note: All correlations significant to 1%.

Table III.10

LATIN AMERICA (5 COUNTRIES), SELECTD OECD COUNTRIES (7 COUNTRIES) AND OTHERS (5 COUNTRIES): READING TEST SCORES AND STUDENT DISTRIBUTION BY SCHOOL CHARACTERISTICS

(*Percentages and scores*)

	Students attending				Students In public school with		Students in private schools with		Scores according to type of school			
	public schools	private schools (total)	Type of private school						Public	Total private	Type of private school	
			State-funded private schools	Independent private schools	inadequate educational equipment [a]	adequate educational equipment [a]	inadequate educational equipment [a]	adequate educational equipment [a]			State-funded private schools	Independent private schools
	(Percentages)								(Scores)			
Argentina	47.6	52.4	43.6	8.8	40.0	9.3	17.6	28.0	437	479	475	501
Brazil	88.3	11.7	…	11.7	26.2	16.9	3.4	69.9	416	476	…	476
Chile	50.3	49.7	33.7	16.0	31.4	8.4	7.1	44.3	424	458	440	497
Mexico	78.1	21.9	0.0	21.9	46.3	11.7	13.8	57.9	460	486	…	486
Peru	88.0	12.0	1.2	10.7	54.1	1.7	15.0	37.0	355	437	409	440
Latin American countries	**77.8**	**22.2**	**8.6**	**13.5**	**32.9**	**14.2**	**11.3**	**48.4**	**425**	**476**	**466**	**482**
Germany	95.7	4.3	4.3	…	12.9	25.4	0.0	42.1	485	560	560	…
Spain	57.1	42.9	32.3	10.6	16.7	25.6	4.9	48.9	513	531	521	559
France	77.0	23.0	14.4	8.6	3.2	66.2	0.0	43.6	553	550	546	556
United Kingdom	89.0	11.0	…	11.0	30.7	5.9	0.0	87.5	511	601	…	601
Ireland	40.2	59.8	57.6	2.3	9.5	29.8	22.5	20.3	490	534	533	576
Italy	93.3	6.7	0.9	5.8	10.6	35.7	0.0	52.9	501	504	410	518
United States	94.3	5.7	1.2	4.4	0.7	44.4	0.0	60.4	526	553	532	558
OECD countries [b]	**80.8**	**19.2**	**6.4**	**12.8**	**9.3**	**31.3**	**3.3**	**41.8**	**514**	**532**	**538**	**530**
Hong Kong Special Administrative Region	95.7	4.3	3.6	0.6	6.2	55.0	0.0	50.2	537	455	457	445
Indonesia	50.9	49.1	…	49.1	57.2	5.1	35.0	15.3	404	383	…	383
Israel	75.2	24.8	20.4	4.4	10.8	36.3	10.5	33.8	455	480	468	536
Russian Federation	100.0	…	…	…	61.6	4.7	…	…	470	…	…	…
Thailand	95.4	4.6	2.1	2.5	59.6	3.1	27.9	43.4	421	413	383	439
Other countries	**88.0**	**12.0**	**0.8**	**11.3**	**55.9**	**6.3**	**34.4**	**16.5**	**452**	**388**	**429**	**386**
Total	**81.9**	**18.1**	**5.5**	**12.6**	**25.5**	**21.8**	**10.6**	**41.2**	**481**	**497**	**513**	**489**

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), "Programme for International Student Assessment PISA 2000" [online database] http://www.pisa.oecd.org.

[a] Quartile groups for educational equipment.

[b] Not including Mexico.

Chapter IV

Internal migration and development in Latin America and the Caribbean: continuity, changes and policy challenges

A. Introduction

Within the *Social Panorama of Latin America and the Caribbean, 2007,* the chapter on population reviews the main internal migration trends in Latin American and Caribbean countries over the last 25 years, and how these tie in with processes of national and subnational development and the living conditions of the population. The notion of internal migration used in this document refers exclusively to changes of residence across a pre-defined subnational geographical boundary: be it political-administrative, socio-ecological or any other (Macció, 1985). In the context of the many forms of internal migration, this chapter concentrates on movement among (minor and major) administrative divisions, between urban and rural areas, and from one city to another. Most of the information comes from census microdata in REDATAM format.

The chapter is structured around a series of hypotheses outlined in the theoretical framework section. The first concerns the relationship between the intensity of internal migration and the degree of economic and social development in the countries. Starting from the hypothesis that internal migration involves a high percentage of the population, and that its intensity increases in stride with economic and social development, it is postulated that internal migrants should represent a significant proportion of the population, that this fraction should be increasing in the region and that internal migration should be more intense in countries with a relatively high level of development.

The second hypothesis deals with the relationship between internal migration and development within the countries, and suggests that in general, internal displacements are driven by the search for better opportunities that are distributed heterogeneously within a country's territory, which results in migrants being drawn to more developed areas while rejecting less developed areas. Emigration from the latter, due to its selectivity in terms age and education level, may aggravate the existing situation.

According to the third hypothesis, concerning the relationship between migration and urbanization, the advance of urbanization in the region has consolidated the predominance of interurban migratory flows, whether from one city to another or within cities. Many relocations, especially from the metropolises to the suburbs, may be driven by residential opportunities (either in terms of housing or environment), which would represent a break from the traditional search for work or education, or by a comparison between cities, in which the differences in quality of life are crucial and therefore make the large cities less attractive to migrants. Also, persistent socioeconomic inequalities, which leave rural areas in an unfavourable situation, support the prediction that these areas will continue to experience net emigration.

The fourth hypothesis concerns the relationship between migration and characteristics of the population, and raises doubts about whether the higher migration rates (selectivity) among young people, women and those with an above-average level of education will persist.

Lastly, the fifth hypothesis pertains to the integration of the migrants into the workforce at the point of destination, and holds that the predominance of the search for work should lead to greater employment, while the adjustment to the place of destination should lead to greater unemployment.

B. Theoretical framework

There is an interrelationship between internal migration and the development of both countries and individuals. The intensity and direction of internal migration flows depend on national development indices and territorial inequalities within countries. Similarly, the propensity to migrate depends on a wide range of individual characteristics. In addition, internal migration contributes to the development of certain areas of a country, while leaving others at a disadvantage. As far as individuals are concerned, internal migration is their right and may also be a means of improving their living conditions or dealing with adverse situations.

1. Internal migration and social and economic development

Since the work of Ravenstein (1885), the prevailing idea has been that material progress stimulates migration by promoting the expansion of means of transport and a reduction in travel costs (Aroca, 2004; Greenwood and Hunt, 2003; Cardona and Simmons, 1975).

Although this idea remains predominant (Van der Gaag and van Wisen, 2001), the work of Zelinsky (1971) casts some doubts over the predictability of internal migration. These doubts have been strengthened by new arguments such as: (i) development tends to reduce disparities between subnational areas, thereby eroding the main trigger for internal migration; (ii) development brings down the costs of mobility in general, which may result in internal migration being replaced by international migration or daily commuting; (iii) development raises family income and facilitates homeownership (which is a strong factor in territorial fixation); (iv) current development is conducive to the emergence of virtual spaces that inhibit migration by making it possible to "be there without being physically present"; (v) development is concomitant with urbanization, with the latter leading to the exhaustion of rural-to-urban migration and a subsequent reduction in migratory intensity (Van der Gaag and van Wisen, 2001). In short, there is a continuing debate over the long-term trend of migratory intensity and the relationship between migration and development. This chapter provides relevant information on both topics.

2. Relationship between internal migration and development

Territorial inequalities are the main trigger for migratory flows, which means that the countries with more internal heterogeneity should show more intense migration.

Since there are many factors that differentiate one territory from the next, it is necessary to determine which of them have the greatest influence on internal migratory flows. The prevailing theory (Rosenzweig and Stark, 1997) emphasizes the effect of employment and income differences in this regard, and holds that individuals will decide to emigrate if they expect the increased income

resulting from the relocation to compensate for the costs of migrating. Potential migrants also consider the probability of obtaining employment at the point of destination. Consequently, another operating hypothesis about this relationship is that internal flows should move from less developed regions, where income is lower, to more developed regions, characterized by higher income.

The theory operates on the assumption that individuals maximize economic yield, making use of perfect rationality and information to do so. This theory has been criticized, particularly by authors who place fundamental importance on the influence of the forces of expulsion in the place of origin, which greatly reduces the likelihood of a rational and informed choice regarding the destination (Lall, Selod and Shalizi, 2006; Villa, 1991). It has also been criticized for its focus on the search for a higher income, which is not the primary motive for many migration decisions (Rodríguez, 2004a; Aroca, 2004). Displacements for residential reasons, for example, aim to improve the surroundings or daily life, either by moving into a more comfortable home or a more pleasant environment or by reducing commuting time. In general, urbanization intensifies this type of displacement, either within a given city or from one city to another.

In fact, there are specific cases in which the hypothesis of a positive relationship between development and migratory attraction does not apply. One such case is that of frontier regions, whose main appeal is derived not from superior living conditions or higher average wages, but from the abundance of natural resources, expectations for fast earnings and, in many cases, policies that encourage immigration. Another example is regions that have experienced economic progress only recently, due in part to successful integration into the global economy after having relatively low levels of development, but whose dynamic job market becomes a magnet for migrants. A third case is metropolitan regions in the process of suburbanization or deconcentration that, despite having above-average development rates, expel population due to lack of space, deteriorating quality of life or city regulations and policies. A fourth case, which is the flip side of the third, stems from the flow of emigrants from metropolitan regions to areas that have scant resources but are close enough to the metropolitan areas to allow regular contact with them.

3. Contribution of migration to the convergence or divergence of the human resource base at the national level

Considering the previous hypothesis, which posits a positive relationship between development and migratory attraction, and taking into account the selectivity of internal migration in terms of age and education level (a topic that will be examined later), it can be said that internal migratory flows tend to deepen differences between territories in terms of gender and age structure and the availability of human resources. Migration is therefore unlikely to be a factor that favours regional convergence.

The empirical analysis of this hypothesis may be quite varied. At the complex end of the scale are general-equilibrium and partial-equilibrium economic models, and at the opposite end, comparisons of the socioeconomic profiles of migrants to those of the local population. The empirical analysis presented in this text is based on a specific procedure developed by the Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) - Population Division of ECLAC and disseminated in various publications since 2004 (Rodríguez, 2004b).

4. Changes in the patterns and characteristics of internal migration caused by urbanization

As the result of an urbanization process that is taking place in a context of low income, limited resources and institutional deficiencies, the problems that affect cities may be reducing their appeal and, by extension, increasing that of the countryside. This attraction may also be strengthened by the boom in raw materials that the region is experiencing as a result of growing worldwide demand for natural resources, typically located in rural areas. Nevertheless, the persistent

inferiority of living conditions in the countryside, in contrast to those of the cities, lends support to the hypothesis of a net immigration to urban areas, which will continue to drive urbanization, since without such immigration the region would become "ruralized" due to the greater natural population growth in the countryside.

Additionally, urbanization should have consolidated the predominance of interurban flows, whether between cities or within them. Moreover, the increasing percentage of the population represented by city dwellers should turn natural population growth in the cities into the main driver of their growing population, relegating migration from the countryside to second place.

Given the predominance of migration between cities, large cities are likely to lose attraction due to the higher cost of living, the decentralization of production and the expansion of service networks to the rest of the metropolitan area. It follows that migration should be contributing to demographic deconcentration, in contrast to the state of affairs 30 or 40 years ago.[1]

5. Emigrants as a representative sample of the population

Although migratory selectivity in terms of age, sex and education is documented in the region (Rodríguez, 2004a), it is possible that the sociodemographic and economic transformations that have taken place in Latin America and the Caribbean over the last 20 years have modified the factors determining the selectivity.

An example of this statement is the marked female selectivity in internal migration observed in Latin America (Lall, Selod and Shalizi, 2006; Villa, 1991), which was associated with migration from the countryside to the city and the growth of domestic service in the cities. It is worth asking, then, whether this selectivity will continue to exist in the region when migration is predominantly between cities, and domestic service has lost relevance as a source of employment for women.

In the same vein, selectivity in terms of age in the region has historically been concentrated among young people, which begs the question of whether selectivity among the elderly could exist if there is a wider range of living options or if the practice of returning after retirement becomes more common.

And given that migration takes place primarily between urban areas, it is relevant to ask if selectivity according to education level still exists, taking into account that differences in education levels between cities tend to be small.

6. Integration of migrants in places of destination

Adaptation in the place of destination is a multifaceted and gradual process. In general, it should be simpler for internal migrants than for international migrants, given that the former share some attributes with the population of the place of destination, e.g. nationality, a collection of practices and knowledge, such as language and vernacular, and a set of symbols, icons and values, all of which are very important for the purpose of integration into the workforce.

The data used for this study make it possible to examine some aspects of the integration and adaptation of migrants in their place of destination. Unfortunately,

[1] If net migration is positive in the bigger cities, migration will contribute to increasing concentration. While it was taken as a given until a few decades ago that internal migration was a force that contributed to concentration, particularly in the capital, the current hypothesis holds that this migration favours decentralization in urban areas, due to the saturation of the big cities and the relative improvement, in terms of productive positioning and living conditions, of medium-sized and small cities, which ultimately become the "attractive" centres of the system (ILPES, 2007; UNFPA, 2007; Henderson, 2000). This phenomenon has given rise to the hypothesis of "deconcentrated concentration", which posits that behind the apparent deconcentration driven by the new migratory flows, the area of influence of the large cities is in fact expanding (Pinto da Cunha, 2002; Rodríguez, 2002).

they provide no indication of whether the act of migration has resulted in a change in status for the emigrants with respect to their place of origin, as this information is not collected in censuses.

Of all the facets of adaptation, the most relevant are integration into the education system and, above all, into the workforce. Regarding the latter, the employment motive for most of the interregional migrations should translate into a higher rate of employment among migrants compared to the rest of the population, once extrinsic factors have been eliminated. However, due to the process of adapting in the place of destination, unemployment rates for migrants should be higher than for the rest of the population after adjusting for extrinsic factors.

7. Relevant definitions and clarifications

Most of the information presented in this chapter is unpublished, since it was obtained by processing census micro-databases in REDATAM format. Given that the censuses include questions about the previous place of residence, comparing them to data on the current place of residence makes it possible to identify the migrants. The most common methods of inquiring about previous places of residence are questions about place of birth, which make it possible to identify "absolute" or "lifetime" migration, and about the place of residence on a given date in the past, which make it possible to identify cases of recent migration (see box IV.1).

This chapter studies both of the types of migration mentioned above. However, in terms of policy-making on migration in recent years, the second is more relevant, since absolute migration has no reference period, making it impossible to determine whether it corresponds to current flows or outdated flows. Thus, four types of displacements are considered systematically: (i) "permanent" displacement between major administrative divisions; (ii) recent displacement between major administrative divisions; (iii) permanent displacement between minor administrative divisions; and (iv) recent displacement between minor administrative divisions. For rural-urban migration, the direct measurement is used, making it possible to estimate the four possible flows: (i) from one city to another; (ii) from the countryside to the city; (iii) from the city to the countryside; and (iv) from one rural area to another. Since the direct measurement can only be performed on the censuses of four countries in the region

Box IV.1
TWO OPTIONS FOR MEASURING RECENT MIGRATION WITH CENSUSES

The guidelines for measuring internal migration in the censuses are documented in the manual *Principles and Recommendations for Population and Housing Censuses. Revision 2* (United Nations, 2007a) of the United Nations, which is currently undergoing revision, the most recent draft having been published in February of 2007. This draft includes at least two procedures for recording recent migration, which, being relatively current, is the most relevant type for policymaking. The first is based on determining the place of residence on a given date prior to the census (typically five years), and the second involves combining two questions about the duration of residence and the previous place of residence. The first option is more economical and therefore more common in Latin American censuses. Also, its simplicity makes it easier to answer and (in technical terms) makes it possible to classify the entire population according to common time and space coordinates, allowing the construction of precise migration matrices and the calculation of migration rates for the reference period.

However, some authors (Xu-Doeve, 2006) have questioned this procedure because it does not allow the construction of migratory cohorts, it excludes some migrants (all of those who migrated outside the reference period and those who "returned" in that period) and it presupposes a single (and therefore direct) displacement between the place of residence on the given date in the past and the current place of residence. The second procedure, more expensive in every respect, would mitigate some of these deficiencies and include a group of the population that is particularly relevant: those who never migrated. However, the construction of migration matrices with the second procedure is not without weaknesses, particularly because it involves grouping individuals by migratory cohort. This results in previous places of residence being combined with different times, raising doubts as to the validity of the trends provided by such matrices.

Box IV.1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: METHODS OF INQUIRING ABOUT INTERNAL MIGRATION ON CENSUS QUESTIONNAIRES, 1990 AND 2000 ROUNDS

Country and Census Year	Direct question: Place of residence 5 years ago	Indirect question: Previous place of residence	Indirect question: Duration of residence
Antigua and Barbuda: 1991 and 2001		X	X
Argentina: 2001	X		
Barbados: 1990 and 2000	X		
Belice: 1990 and 2000		X	X
Bolivia: 1992 and 2001	X		
Brazil: 1991 and 2000	X		
Chile: 1982, 1992 and 2002	X		
Colombia: 1993 and 2005	X		
Costa Rica: 1984 and 2000	X		
Cuba: 1981	X		
Cuba: 2002		X	X
Ecuador: 1982		X	X
Ecuador: 1990 and 2001	X		
El Salvador: 1992		X	X
Guatemala: 1994		X	X
Guatemala: 2002	X		
Honduras: 1988 and 2001	X		
Mexico: 1990 and 2000	X		
Nicaragua: 1995 and 2005	X		
Panama: 1990	X		
Panama: 2000		X	X
Paraguay: 1982, 1992 and 2002	X		
Peru: 1993			
Dominican Republic: 2002	X		
Saint Lucia: 1991 and 2001		X	X
Uruguay: 1985 y 1996	X		
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of): 1990	X		
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of): 2001	X		

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, on the basis of reviewing census questionnaires and the database on Internal Migration in Latin America and the Caribbean (MIALC) [online database] http://www.eclac.cl/migracion/migracion_interna/

Note: In principle, recent migration in almost all the countries included can be estimated both at the major administrative division (MAD) level and at the minor administrative division (MIAD) level. The exceptions are Barbados, where only the parish of residence five years prior is requested; Mexico 1990, where only the state of residence five years prior is requested; and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, where only the state of residence five years prior is requested. However, not all databases could be processed at the MIAD level, for various reasons. In fact, it has not yet been possible to process at this level all of those that do not show MIAD values in table IV.1 (not to be confused with cases in which it is impossible to perform the calculation), and therefore, they are not available in the MIALC database either.

(Brazil, Nicaragua, Panama and Paraguay), an indirect method (that of intercensal survival ratios (Welti, 1998; Villa, 1991)) has been used for estimating net migration between the countryside and the city in all the countries in the region.

Migration involving the three largest cities in each country is assessed by estimating the entry and exit flows and segmenting the corresponding origin and destination into three categories identified in the literature, particularly because of their relevance to the hypothesis of concentrated deconcentration: the metropolis, its immediate surroundings and the rest of the country.

This process involved using traditional instruments, such as the origin and destination matrix; some newer methods, particularly the matrix of flow indicators; multivariate tables for estimating selectivity, conditional probabilities of migrant status, and standardizations; and maps that are essentially illustrative. In addition, various procedures and calculations (traditional as well) have been used for applying the origin-destination matrices (trends, totals, rates); other newer ones for applying the matrices of flow indicators, e.g. estimating the net and exclusive effect of migration following the methodology developed by Rodríguez (2004a and 2004b); classification quadrants to synthesize information on migration trends at the subnational scale; standardizations designed to control factors extrinsic to the propensity to migrate; and multivariate techniques for more specific analyses and preliminary models of migratory flows.

C. Internal migration and development in countries

In the region's most developed nations, the most common type of migration is to a different area within the same country. In some such countries, people change their municipality of residence at least a couple of times during their lifetime. However, the relative frequency of internal migration in its various forms is on the wane in the region, and this may be partly because it is being superseded by international migration.

Table IV.1 shows the percentages of migrants in each of the four categories of migration between political-administrative divisions in the countries studied in this chapter. Although the figures for the region as a whole suggest an unexpected downward trend in the internal mobility rate, this result is greatly influenced by trends in Brazil and Mexico. For this reason, the following analysis focuses on the situation and the trends that have been verified in the majority of countries.

First, in all of the countries, most of the population resides in the same major administrative division where they were born. Guatemala is in last place in this regard, with 11 percent of the permanent migrant population moving between major administrative divisions, while Paraguay and some of the small island states of the Caribbean are in the lead, with 27 percent or more of the permanent migrant population moving between major administrative divisions. These figures are the result of the massive population displacements observed in the region over the last 50 years. However, they are fewer than those observed in the United States, a country with high internal mobility (31 percent of permanent migrants moving between major administrative divisions, according to the 2000 census). The predominance of non-migrants gives particular weight to the territorial and legal macro-environment in terms of people's sense of belonging. By mere virtue of having remained in the major administrative division of birth, residents are more likely to be familiar with aspects such as the territory, the climate, the authorities and institutions, the activities, the people, the norms and customs, and to have a local social network. This does not necessarily indicate conformity or adhesion to this environment, since it may also be the result of obstacles to leaving.

Second, the figures for lifetime migration between minor administrative divisions indicate that the migratory experience has a direct presence in the lives of a significant proportion, and sometimes a majority, of the population. The low proportion observed in Guatemala, which is barely over 20 percent in the 2000 census, appears to be due to various factors, including the low level of urbanization (this deflates intra-metropolitan migration, which is normally an important part of migration at the minor administrative division level) and the high relative proportion represented by the indigenous population, which tends to have stronger ties to its ancestral lands (Rodríguez, 2007). However, in other countries where indigenous peoples represent a large portion of the population (such as Ecuador), the level of this type of migration is considerably higher. Given that this indicator remains constant in many of the countries, and that the countries in which it falls are more or less comparable to those in which it rises, there is no clear trend in the region.

Thirdly, recent migration between major administrative divisions does not surpass 10 percent in any country, and in several cases it does not even reach 5 percent. In all of the countries indicated in table IV.1 save one, recent migration between major administrative divisions is lower than that observed in the United States during the 1995-2000 period, which was 8.7 percent according to the 2000 census. This percentage was surpassed only in Paraguay in the 1977-1982 and 1987-1992 periods, precisely the most active periods of the programme called "March to the East" (CELADE, 1984).

The data on recent migration between major administrative divisions offer information on the current intensity of migration. In contrast to the case of absolute migration, most of the countries with more than one

Table IV.1
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: PERCENTAGE OF MIGRANTS BETWEEN MAJOR AND MINOR ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS BY MIGRATION TYPE (ABSOLUTE OR RECENT), COUNTRIES AND YEARS AVAILABLE

Country	Census Year	Absolute or lifetime migration		Recent migration or migration within the last five years	
		MAD	MIAD	MAD	MIAD
Antigua and Barbuda	1991	28.6	ND	11.1	ND
	2001	28.4	ND	13.0	ND
Argentina	2001	19.9	ND	3.3	ND
Barbados	1990	29.8	ND	6.9	ND
	2000	31.1	ND	6.4	ND
Belize	1990	14.2	ND	6.6	ND
	2002	14.2	ND	5.1	ND
Bolivia	1992	13.8	25.0	5.6	9.6
	2001	15.2	26.3	6.0	10.0
Brazil	1991	14.8	36.0	3.8	13.4
	2000	15.4	37.1	3.4	10.0
Chile	1982	21.3	50.7	5.9	15.3
	1992	20.3	46.0	6.1	17.1
	2002	21.0	48.9	5.8	16.0
Costa Rica	1984	20.3	35.5	6.6	13.2
	2000	20.2	34.4	5.6	10.8
Cuba	1981	NA	NA	ND	ND
	2002	15.2	28.1	2.1	4.5
Guatemala	1994	10.8	16.9	2.6	4.6
	2002	11.1	20.0	2.9	7.0
Mexico	1990	17.4	NA	5.0	NA
	2000	18.5	NA	4.4	6.9
	2005 (count)	NA	NA	2.7	NA
Colombia	1993	22.1	ND	8.1	ND
	2005	20.6	36.8	4.3	7.6
Ecuador	1982	18.9	31.0	8.5	12.9
	1990	19.2	28.1	5.8	8.3
	2001	19.9	32.8	5.2	8.7
El Salvador	1992	16.7	22.9	4.8	14.4
Honduras	1988	19.5	27.5	4.9	6.8
	2001	17.2	23.3	4.2	6.0
Nicaragua	1995	14.7	19.4	3.5	5.2
	2005	13.3	19.4	2.5	4.0
Panama	1990	18.9	32.9	4.4	9.3
	2000	20.1	34.0	6.3	12.6
Paraguay	1982	28.8	38.7	10.8	16.8
	1992	26.1	31.7	9.1	12.6
	2002	26.4	35.1	7.6	11.5
Peru	1993	22.4	ND	8.6	ND
Dominican Republic	2002	17.7	25.9	4.2	6.4
Saint Lucia	1991	15.9	ND	ND	ND
	2001	18.5	ND	8.0	ND
Uruguay	1985	24.5	ND	7.5	ND
	1996	24.1	ND	6.5	ND
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	23.1	NA	6.0	NA
	2001	23.8	NA	5.1	6.7
Latin America and the Caribbean	1990 Round	17.5	34.2	5.1	12.6
	2000 Round	17.7	35.2	4.0	8.7

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, on the basis of special processing of census microdatabases; National Institute of Statistics, Geography and Informatics (INEGI) of Mexico, "Población de 5 años y más por entidad federativa de residencia actual y lugar de residencia en octubre de 2000 según sexo" [on line] www.inegi.gob.mx/est/contenidos/espanol/sistemas/conteo2005/datos/00/excel/cpv00_mig_1.xls; National Statistics Office (ONE), Cuba; National Statistics Department (DANE) of Colombia, "Sistema de consulta información censal, CENSO 2005. Censo Básico" [on line] http://200.21.49.242/cgibin/RpWebEngine.exe/PortalAction?&MODE=MAIN&BASE=CG2005BASICO&MAIN=WebServerMain.inl.

UA: Unavailable; that is, the result could be obtained, but it was impossible to due so because of problems with the database or undocumented codes.

NA: Not applicable, i.e. the census did not include the necessary questions to make the calculations.

Note: In the case of migration between major administrative divisions (MAD), the figures were taken directly from the estimates derived from the respective migration matrices in the database on internal migration in Latin America and the Caribbean (MIALC) [online database] http://www.eclac.cl/migracion/migracion_interna/ ("basic matrix"). For practical reasons, in the case of migration between minor administrative divisions (MIAD) in some countries, the information was obtained from the tables on migratory status by sex available in MIALC. In all the calculations made on the basis of data available in MIALC, there is a potential loss of migrants as a result of people claiming to be migrants without specifying their place of origin (or of residence in the case of de facto censuses). In all cases, the proportion corresponds to the quotient between the total migrants (by type) and the population included in the census that responded to the relevant questions in the migration module. The aggregate results for Latin America are derived from the sums of the absolute numbers for the countries included in the table.

observation (10 out of 18) show a downward trend in recent migration. Only in four (Antigua and Barbuda, Bolivia, Guatemala and Panama) is there an upward trend, whereas the rest show a constant rate or an erratic trend (countries with three observations). These findings contradict most of the literature, which, as mentioned in the theoretical framework, does not foresee a decline in migratory intensity until the advanced phases of economic and social development (no country in the region has reached that phase to date). This result is also surprising because the available evidence suggests that regional inequalities, which constitute the main trigger for migration between major administrative divisions, have not decreased in the last 30 years (ILPES, 2007). The reasons for this moderation may lie in other determining factors of migration between major administrative divisions, including urbanization (and the resulting decline in migration from the countryside to the city), the strengthening of small-scale trends (such as in the processes of "concentrated deconcentration" and "rurbanization"), the end of major government programmes for population redistribution (which were important in several countries in the region between the 1960s and 1980s), and the increase of international migration, which could be replacing internal migration (Canales and Montiel, 2007).

Lastly, migration in the last five years between minor administrative divisions is particularly high in several countries, surpassing 12 percent of the reference population in all observations, though for different reasons.[2] In the case of Paraguay, the main factor is large-scale redistribution, which was already present in migration between major administrative divisions, as well as the process of reconfiguring the metropolitan area of Asuncion, which entails major exchanges between the municipalities that comprise Greater Asuncion (Causarano, 2006). The process of reconfiguring the metropolitan areas of Chile, particularly Santiago, explains a large part of this high intensity. In contrast, Cuba, Guatemala and Nicaragua stand out for their low intensity. Setting aside the debate over the comparability of these results, the differences are real and have practical implications for the municipalities. Indeed, those of Chile and Paraguay are much more exposed to migratory exchange than those of Cuba, Guatemala and Nicaragua, which affects their socioeconomic dynamics, their administrative performance and resource management, and their relationship with the community. From another angle, the figures in table IV.1 pertaining only to migration in the last five years suggest that in Chile, at the beginning of the 21st century, people change their municipality of residence at least twice in a lifetime, while in Cuba, Guatemala and Nicaragua a considerable portion of the population never does so.

Table IV.1 provides data on migration levels and their evolution over time. However, these are insufficient to answer the question regarding the relationship between this level and the development of the countries. The statistical correlation between the two variables, shown in table IV.2, indicates that there is indeed a positive relation, that is, internal migration levels tend to be higher in countries with greater human development.

Despite the simplicity of the test, there are at least two arguments that support this finding. First, no relation exists between the human development index and the number or size of the administrative divisions. Consequently, that distorting factor does not affect the relation observed. Second, the coefficients always have the same positive sign, showing a significance level of 95 percent in nearly every case and remaining constant in two measurements. Moreover, when levels of recent migration between major administrative divisions are correlated with an indicator of regional inequality, the coefficient is not significant (and is in fact negative, in contradiction to the theory), which suggests that this other powerful factor triggering migration may influence the direction of flows, but not so much their intensity at the national level.

Thus, the first of the hypotheses in this chapter can be affirmed with relative certainty: development is linked to greater levels of migration because, among other factors, it facilitates moves and makes them more affordable, it erodes territorial fixation, and it stimulates intra-metropolitan migration directly and by composition (metropolization). Nevertheless, the data on the evolution of migration indices show that this positive relation has limits, and that once it reaches a certain point it may weaken or even be reversed.

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[2] However, none of the observations shown in table IV.1 is higher than the level recorded in the United States for the 1995-2000 period: 47 million people (18.6 percent of the reference population) resided in a county other than the one where they lived in 1995. All of the figures on internal migration in the United States were obtained from the web page of the US Census Bureau.

Table IV.2
SIMPLE CORRELATION BETWEEN PERCENTAGE OF MIGRANTS (FOUR TYPES) AND THE HUMAN DEVELOPMENT INDEX (HDI), 2000 AND 1990 CENSUS ROUNDS,SELECTED COUNTRIES

Census round	Variable	Lifetime- MAD (16 cases)	Lifetime-MIAD (11 cases)	Recent-MAD (16 cases)	Recent-MIAD (12 cases)
2000	Simple correlation between HDI and migration:	0.695	0.891	0.373	0.677
	p-value	*0.0014*	*0.0001*	*0.0773*	*0.0111*
1990	Simple correlation between HDI and migration:	0.690775	0.854701	0.511543	0.612066
	p-value	*0.00152*	*0.00082*	*0.02564*	*0.03000*

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, on the basis of indicators from table IV.1 and official data from the countries' human development index (HDI) [on line] http://hdr.undp.org/hdr2006/statistics/indicators/default.cfm; and Simple Interactive Statistical Analysis (SISA) [on line] http://www.quantitativeskills.com/sisa/calculations/signif.htm, for the *p-value* of the correlations.

D. Internal migration and countries' development

Areas of positive net migration are usually those with the best living conditions. In contrast, socio-economically disadvantaged subnational areas (the countryside, pockets of chronic poverty that tend to have a high concentration of indigenous peoples) tend to be population exporters. Population losses in these areas are selective, with young people and the educated being overrepresented among those who leave. This erodes the base of human resources needed for development in those areas. Migration can therefore be an escape route for those who emigrate, while worsening the situation of poor areas that export population and adversely affecting those who stay behind.

Presenting a detailed panorama of the migratory situation of the major administrative divisions is a complicated task due to their number and their peculiarities at the local and national levels. On the other hand, an in-depth analysis of migration between minor administrative divisions simply cannot be dealt with in this chapter. Consequently, instruments and procedures have been used to synthesize and condense the information in order to perform analyses that are brief and representative of the countries, as well as to present relevant comparisons between them.

The first procedure consists of correlating the level of development of the major administrative divisions with their migratory attraction. The second instrument will be the classification quadrant, which consists of a double-entry table delimiting four zones (quadrants), each one representing a specific situation pertaining to migration between major administrative divisions: (a) attraction (positive net migration in both censuses); (b) expulsion (negative net migration in both censuses); (c) rising (negative net migration in the first census and positive in the second), and (d) falling (positive net migration in the first census and negative in the second). The results make it possible to establish regularities (some predictable and others less so) and also detect national and subnational peculiarities, which are covered in this text in a very preliminary manner.

The main conclusions drawn from the application of both instruments are: a) higher levels of human development in major administrative divisions tend to be concomitant with higher net migration rates, i.e. greater attraction (or less expulsion) (see table IV.3); b) stability in migratory status prevails, which suggests that the forces that determine the attraction of territories tend to persist (see table IV.4); c) nevertheless, the number of major administrative divisions that oscillate is significant and may be instrumental in discovering the factors with the greatest influence on migratory trends (see tables IV.3 and IV.4 and maps IV.1 and IV.2 of the annex for the general location of the major administrative divisions).

The following is a superficial analysis of the four categories of the quadrant (see table IV.4), including a few illustrative examples using selected cases.

Table IV.3
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: SIMPLE LINEAR CORRELATION BETWEEN THE HUMAN DEVELOPMENT INDEX (HDI) AND THE NET INTERNAL MIGRATION RATE AT THE LEVEL OF MAJOR ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS (MAD), SELECTED COUNTRIES, CENSUSES FROM THE 2000 ROUND

Country, indicator, reference year and number of MAD with data	Coefficient of simple correlation between the HDI and the net migration rate (p-value in parentheses)
Argentina, 2001: 24 MAD, HDI 1996	0.407 (0.0242)[a]
Bolivia, 2002: 9 MAD, HDI 1994	0.619 (0.0378)[a]
Brazil, 2000: 27 MAD, HDI 1996	0.451 (0.0091)[a]
Chile, 2002: 13 MAD, HDI 1998	-0.01136 (0.5147)
Colombia, 2005: 24 MAD, HDI, 2000	0.414 (0.0222)[a]
Cuba, 2002: 14 MAD, HDI 1996	0.770 (0.0006)[a]
Ecuador, 2001: 15 MAD, HDI, 1999	0.650 (0.0044)[a]
Guatemala, 2002: 22 MAD, HDI 1995-1996	0.442 (0.01972)[a]
Honduras, 2001: 18 MAD, HDI 1996	0.697 (0.0006)[a]
Mexico, 2000: 32 MAD, HDI 1995	0.408 (0.0102)[a]
Nicaragua, 2005: 17 MAD, HDI 2000	0.055 (0.4170)
Panama, 2000: 12 MAD, HDI 2000	0.484 (0.0554)
Paraguay, 2002: 18 MAD, HDI 2000	0.133 (0.29936)
Uruguay, 1996: 19 MAD, HDI 1991	0.063 (0.60097)
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of), 2001: 23 MAD, HDI 1996	0.0686 (0.3780)

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special processing of census microdatabases for migration rates; national human development reports and official subnational statistics for the human development index (HDI) on the subnational scale and Simple Interactive Statistical Analysis (SISA) [on line] http://www.quantitativeskills.com/sisa/calculations/signif.htm, for *p-value* of correlations.
[a] Significant coefficient with a significance level of 95 percent (*p-value*<0.05).

Table IV.4
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN, SELECTED COUNTRIES: CLASSIFICATION OF MAJOR ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS BY INTERNAL MIGRATION STATUS IN 1990 AND 2000 CENSUS ROUNDS

Antigua and Barbuda		
	Gaining population NMR (+) 2001-1996	Losing population NMR (-) 2001-1996
NMR (+) 1992-1987	St. John's rural; St. George's; St. Peter's	
TMN (-) 1992-1987		St. Phillip's; St. Paul's St. Mary's; St. John's City; Barbuda

Barbados		
	Gaining population NMR (+) 2000-1995	Losing population NMR (-) 2000-1995
NMR (+) 1991-1986	St. Peter; St. Philip; Christ Church; St. James	
NMR (-) 1991-1986	St. George; St. Thomas	St. Michael; St. John; St. Joseph; St. Andrew; St. Lucia

Belize		
	Gaining population NMR (+) 2001-1996	Losing population NMR (-) 2001-1996
NMR (+) 1992-1987	Cayo District	Belize District
NMR (-) 1992-1987	Stann Creek District	Corozal District; Orange Walk District; Toledo District

Bolivia		
	Gaining population NMR (+) 2001-1996	Losing population NMR (-) 2001-1996
TMN (+) 1992-1987	Cochabamba; Tarija; Santa Cruz; Pando	Beni
TMN (-) 1992-1987		Chuquisaca; La Paz; Oruro; Potosí

Table IV.4 (continued)
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN, SELECTED COUNTRIES: CLASSIFICATION OF MAJOR ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS BY INTERNAL MIGRATION STATUS IN 1990 AND 2000 CENSUS ROUNDS

Brazil		
	Gaining population NMR (+) 2000-1995	Losing population NMR (-) 2000-1995
NMR (+) 1991-1986	Amazonas; Roraima; Amapá; Tocantins; Espírito Santo; São Paulo; Santa Catarina; Mato Grosso; Goiás; Distrito Federal; Rondônia	Pará; Sergipe; Mato Grosso do Sul
NMR (-) 1991-1986	Rio Grande do Norte; Minas Gerais; Rio de Janeiro	Acre; Maranhão; Piauí; Ceará; Paraíba; Pernambuco; Alagoas; Bahia; Paraná; Rio Grande do Sul

Chile		
	Gaining population NMR (+) 2002-1997	Losing population NMR (-) 2002-1997
NMR (+) 1992-1987	Valparaíso; Tarapacá	Atacama; Metropolitan Santiago
NMR (-) 1992-1987	Antofagasta; Coquimbo; Lib. Gral. Bernardo O'Higgins; Los Lagos	Maule; Bío Bío; La Araucanía; Aisén; Magallanes; Antártica

Colombia [a]		
	Gaining population NMR (+) 2005-2000	Losing population NMR (-) 2005-2000
NMR (+) 1993-1988	Bogotá; Risaralda; Valle; Casanare; Cundinamarca; Quindío	Bolívar; Atlántico; Guajira; Arauca
NMR (-) 1993-1988	Antioquia; Santander; Meta	Boyacá; Caldas; Cauca; Córdoba; Chocó; Huila; Magdalena; Nariño; Sucre; Tolima; Amazonas; Caquetá; Cesar; Norte; Santander; Putumayo; San Andrés; Guaviare; Vichada

Costa Rica		
	Gaining population NMR (+) 2001-1996	Losing population NMR (-) 2001-1996
NMR (+) 1984-1979	Alajuela; Cartago; Heredia; Limón	
NMR (-) 1984-1979		San José; Guanacaste; Puntarenas

Cuba		
	Gaining population NMR (+) 2002-1997	Losing population NMR (-) 2002-1997
NMR (+) 1981-1976	La Habana; Ciudad Habana; Matanzas; Cienfuegos; Ciego de Ávila; Camagüey; Isla de la Juventud	
NMR (-) 1981-1976	Sancti Spíritus	Pinar del Río; Villa Clara; Las Tunas; Holguín; Ganma; Santiago de Cuba; Guantánamo

Ecuador [b]		
	Gaining population NMR (+) 2001-1996	Losing population NMR (-) 2001-1996
NMR (+) 1990-1985	El Oro; Guayas; Pastaza; Pichincha; Galápagos; Sucumbíos	Morona Santiago; Napo; Zamora Chinchipe
NMR (-) 1990-1985	Azuay; Cañar	Bolívar; Carchi; Cotopaxi; Chimborazo; Esmeraldas; Imbabura; Loja; Los Ríos; Manabí; Tungurahua

Guatemala		
	Gaining population NMR (+) 2002-1997	Losing population NMR (-) 2002-1997
NMR (+) 1994-1989	Guatemala; Sacatepéquez; Peten	
NMR (-) 1994-1989	Chimaltenango; Escuintla	El Progreso; Santa Rosa; Sololá; Totonicapán; Quetzaltenango; Suchitepéquez; Retalhuleu; San Marcos; Huehuetenango; Quiche; Baja Verapaz; Alta Verapaz; Izabal; Zacapa; Chiquimula; Jalapa; Jutiapa

Honduras		
	Gaining population NMR (+) 2001-1996	Losing population NMR (-) 2001-1996
NMR (+) 1988-1983	Atlántida; Cortés; Francisco Morazán; Islas de la Bahía	Colón; Comayagua; Yoro
NMR (-) 1988-1983		Copán; Choluteca; El Paraíso; Gracias a Dios; Intibuca; La Paz; Lempira; Ocotepeque; Olancho; Santa Bárbara; Valle

Table IV.4 (concluded)
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN, SELECTED COUNTRIES: CLASSIFICATION OF MAJOR ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS BY INTERNAL MIGRATION STATUS IN 1990 AND 2000 CENSUS ROUNDS

Mexico		
	Gaining population NMR (+) 2000-1995	Losing population NMR (-) 2000-1995
NMR (+) 1990-1985	Aguascalientes; Baja California; Baja California Sur; Campeche; Colima; Chihuahua; Guanajuato; Jalisco; México; Morelos; Nuevo León; Querétaro de Arteaga; Quintana Roo; Sonora; Tamaulipas, Tlaxcala	
NMR (-)) 1990-1985	Coahuila; Hidalgo; Yucatán	Chiapas; Distrito Federal; Durango; Guerrero; Michoacán; Nayarit; Oaxaca; Puebla; San Luis Potosí; Sinaloa; Tabasco; Veracruz Llave; Zacatecas

Nicaragua		
	Gaining population NMR (+) 2005-2000	Losing population NMR (-) 2005-2000
NMR (+) 1995-1990	Atlántico Norte; Managua; Río San Juan	Jinotega
NMR (-) 1995-1990	Masaya; Granada; Carazo; Rivas; Nueva Segovia	Madriz; Estelí; Chinandega; León; Matagalpa; Boaco; Chontales; Atlántico Sur

Panama [c]		
	Gaining population NMR (+) 2000-1995	Losing population NMR (-) 2000-1995
NMR (+ 1990-1979	Panamá	Bocas del Toro; Darién
NMR (-) 1984-1979	Coahuila; Hidalgo; Yucatán	Coclé; Colón; Chiriquí; Herrera; Los Santos; Veraguas

Paraguay		
	Gaining population NMR (+) 2002-1997	Losing population NMR (-) 2002-1997
NMR (+) 1992-1987	Alto Paraná; Boquerón; Canindeyú; Central	
NMR (-) 1992-1987	Presidente Hayes	Alto Paraguay; Amambay; Asunción; Caaguazú; Caazapá; Concepción; Cordillera; Guaira; Itapú; Misiones; Ñeembucu; Paraguarí; San Pedro

Uruguay		
	Gaining population NMR (+) 1996-1991	Losing population NMR (-) 1996-1991
NMR (+) 1985-1980	Canelones	Artigas; Cerro Largo; Montevideo; Rivera; Rocha; Treinta y Tres
NMR (-) 1985-1980	Maldonado; San José	Colonia; Durazno; Flores; Florida; Lavalleja; Paysandú; Río Negro; Salto; Soriano; Tacuarembó

Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of) [d]		
	Gaining population NMR (+) 2001-1996	Losing population NMR (-) 2001-1996
NMR (+) 1990-1985	Lara; Anzoategui; Aragua; Barinas; Carabobo; Cojedes; Miranda; Nueva Esparta; Amazonas;	Bolívar
NMR (-) 1990-1985	Delta Amacuro; Mérida; Monagas; Yaracuy	Zulia; Distrito Capital; Portuguesa

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, on the basis of Migration in Latin America and the Caribbean (MIALC) [on line database] http://www.eclac.cl/migracion/migracion_interna/; special processing of census microdatabases; 2005 census of Colombia, Colombia and National Statistical Office, Cuba.
Note: NMR – net migration rate.
[a] No information is available on the major administrative divisions of Guainia and Vaupes in the 1993 census.
[b] No information is available on the major administrative division of Orellana in the 1990 census.
[c] No information is available on the major administrative divisions of Comarca Kuna Yala; Comarca Emberá and Comarca Gnobe Bugle in the 1990 census.
[d] No information is available on the major administrative divisions of Vargas and Federal Dependencies in the 1990 census.

1. Expulsive major administrative divisions

This quadrant contains two main types of major administrative division that differ greatly from one another. On the one hand are those that have higher relative poverty, are more affected by marginalization and tend to be inhabited by indigenous peoples; these are major administrative divisions that are expulsive because of poverty. On the other hand are those in which the principal city has historically been located, and which have overflowed over the last 50 years as a result of the process of metropolization and suburbanization; these are major administrative divisions that are expulsive because of overflow.

Expulsive major administrative divisions of the first type tend to be grouped territorially, forming one or more subnational areas that are very expansive and show a clear socioeconomic lag (see maps 1 and 2 of the appendix). A few examples are northwest Argentina, northeast Brazil, western Bolivia, the centre-south of Chile, eastern Cuba and southern Mexico. In the case of expulsive major administrative divisions of the second type, the opposite is true, as the neighbouring divisions tend to be attractive precisely because they receive a significant portion of the exit flow from the metropolitan major administrative division. Such is the case for the Federal District of Mexico, the city of Buenos Aires or Federal Capital in Argentina, the department of Asuncion in Paraguay and the Federal District of the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela.

The differences between these two types of expulsive major administrative division are not limited to their territorial determinants and characteristics, but are also present in their consequences. For major administrative divisions that are expulsive because of poverty, net emigration means an erosion of the human resource base needed for their development. In those that are expulsive due to overflow, however, the effects are more uncertain, partly because a portion of the emigrating population actually maintains daily contact with the metropolitan major administrative division of origin.

The conclusion regarding major administrative divisions that are expulsive because of poverty is based on evidence discussed further on. Its foundation lies in the notion of selectivity in migration by age and education level. The emigration flows from regions that are expulsive because of poverty contain a disproportionate number of people of working age, particularly youths, with an above-average education level. This means that those who leave these regions belong to their most dynamic and skilled human resource base, which weakens the already deteriorating production conditions in these regions and generates territorial poverty traps. In short, although this emigration also has positive aspects (obviously for the emigrants, who undertake it to better their situation, but also for the major administrative divisions of origin, which have trouble productively absorbing their population and do not have the necessary resources to meet its needs, not to mention the remittances of internal emigrants, though these are usually less substantial than remittances from international migrants), its end result for the territory of origin is an erosion of its human resources base for development.

Regarding metropolitan major administrative divisions that are expulsive due to overflow, the conclusion is based, in addition to the aforementioned argument of continued daily interaction between many emigrants and the major administrative division, on evidence presented in previous studies (Guzmán et al., 2006; Rodríguez, 2004a) and on data that are analysed later on in this chapter. Its foundation is that although these major administrative divisions have net emigration, they still receive a large number of immigrants attracted by factors such as employment and intense social and cultural activity. Consequently, rather than an erosion of the human resource base, a constant replenishment of this base is observed, which does not diminish their levels of skilled labour and productivity.

2. Attractive major administrative divisions

Most of these major administrative divisions are dynamic in economic terms and particularly in terms of employment; however the causes of this dynamism vary. In some cases the major administrative divisions are located along an international border and take advantage of border-related externalities to improve their competitiveness and achieve greater global integration in various sectors. The states along Mexico's northern border, which enjoy growth driven by the industrial sector, exemplify this phenomenon. Other examples are some of the departments along the eastern

borders of Paraguay, Uruguay and Bolivia, though in these cases the dynamic sector is the commercial sector, particularly with respect to trade with Brazil.

In other instances, the dynamism stems from the condition of being a "border" (international or internal), with advantages in terms of the availability of natural resources, specific support from policies for territorial development and promotion (including past settlement programmes) or both.[3] In countries such as Paraguay, energy production in these areas has also been a driver of economic growth and a factor in attracting population. Lastly, tourism, particularly at the global level, has also proven to be a powerful sector of production with an enormous capacity for generating employment and, consequently, attracting population. Quintana Roo, the state in Mexico where Cancun is located, is one of the more notable examples, although the phenomenon can also be observed in the eastern region of the Dominican Republic, among other countries.[4]

Many metropolitan major administrative divisions (those which contain the principal city or at least one of the country's biggest cities) maintain their migratory attraction by combining a booming economy with an ongoing focus on public and private investment and living conditions far above the national average. The department of Santa Cruz in Bolivia, the provinces of Guayas and Pichincha in Ecuador, the department of Guatemala in Guatemala, the departments of Francisco Morazán and Cortés in Honduras and the province of Panama in Panama are a few emblematic cases.

Last are the major administrative divisions that are attractive for their "proximity" to a metropolis in the process of suburbanization. The most notable examples are the province of Buenos Aires in Argentina, the Valparaiso region in Chile, the state of Mexico in Mexico, the provinces of Heredia, Alajuela and Cartago in Costa Rica, the department of Sacatepequez in Guatemala (Valladares and Morán, 2006), Central in Paraguay (Causarano, 2006), Canelones in Uruguay and the state of Miranda in the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela. What is important about these examples is that their attraction is the result of determinants very different from those of traditional migration from the countryside to the city or between regions, which is why some of the major administrative divisions may even have below-average living conditions but receive migrants from the city either because of the suburbanization of high- and middle-income families or the relocation of poor families to the outskirts of the city.

3. "Changing" major administrative divisions

There are few major administrative divisions whose net migration oscillates considerably, but these cases offer a great deal of information on emerging factors in the attraction or expulsion of population.

One factor contributing to changes in the attraction of subnational areas for internal migrants is recent economic restructuring. The sudden attraction of regions containing non-traditional export activity that has been successfully integrated into global markets is emblematic. An example is the region of Los Lagos in Chile, where salmon, forest products and timber have contributed to reversing the area's historical net emigration. This case serves to highlight a point that has not yet been discussed: the heterogeneity that can exist within major administrative divisions. The economic engine of the Los Lagos region, Puerto Montt, has indeed become a very attractive city, but the other two production and political-administrative centres, Valdivia and Osorno, have not experienced the same growth; in fact they continue to have net emigration. [5]

Another relevant factor is the recent suburbanization and saturation of metropolitan areas. The metropolitan region of Chile, where Santiago is located, is a good example because it experienced net emigration for the first time in its history during the 1997-2002 period. This change in migratory trend is due to the combination of negative externalities of build-up and the attraction of alternative regions (including some neighbouring areas,

[3] Examples of this situation are: the Patagonian provinces of Argentina, the department of Pando in Bolivia, the Tarapacá region in Chile, much of eastern Ecuador and some departments of eastern Paraguay, the department of El Petén in Guatemala and several Amazonian states in Brazil.

[4] However, not all major administrative divisions with a large tourism industry are attractive, as evidenced by the coastal areas of central-Pacific and northern Costa Rica, where tourism companies with foreign or mixed-domestic capital undertake activities that do not always manage to retain or productively absorb the local population, making these areas expulsive with regard to internal migrants (Barquero, 2007).

[5] The regional structure in Chile changed in 2007, and a portion of the Los Lagos region broke off to form a new region called Los Ríos, which has its seat of government in Valdivia.

but also other distant ones, which will be discussed later on) with the significant increase in connectivity, which makes it easier to relocate outside the metropolitan area without losing contact with it.

A third relevant factor is the changing of territorial-development policies, particularly in sparsely populated areas that have been the beneficiaries of specific programmes. The department of Beni in Bolivia is a clear example, since its net emigration for the 1996-2001 period can be explained in part by the decline in territorial support programmes, particularly those that promoted settlement. The case of San Luis in Argentina is an illustration of rebounding migration tied to the cumulative effects over much of the 1990s of a regional-promotion policy based on public investment, the development of infrastructure and support for industrial activity.

Lastly, an emerging factor seems to be international emigration. Although intuition would suggest that an increase in this type of emigration should create a similar rise in internal emigration, the opposite seems to be true in some cases, both because departures abroad replace moves to other parts of the country, and because of the stimulating effect of remittances (at least in the short term) on the economy of the place of origin. The mountain provinces of Azuay and Cañar in Southern Ecuador are examples of this change, since despite a long tradition of internal emigration, both became attractive to internal migrants according to the 2001 census.

4. Conclusion

To summarize, in addition to the persistent association between chronic poverty and net internal emigration, there is currently a complex mixture of forces that determine the attraction of subnational areas. Without doubt, better living conditions remain one of the most powerful magnets, but they are counterbalanced by a potential breakdown in these conditions (which have been developed in a long process) or in the economic expansion (which is less predictable than, and to some extent independent of, these living conditions), and the possibility of enjoying such advantages without residing in the advantaged areas (by suburbanization). Moreover, the production-driving forces that operate with globalization and the new services and technology economy may change territories' attraction through emerging and diversified factors.

Two factors appear crucial in this regard. The first is the elasticity that results from employment, since for migrants seeking work the relevant variable is job creation. This is why there are large investments in production that in the long term have little permanent impact on employment and therefore do not necessarily create a lasting migratory attraction. The other is residential conditions, since even when migration is motivated by the search for employment, it is becoming increasingly possible to commute to and from work on a daily basis, especially in work schedules based on shifts. This changes the relationship between the workplace and the place of residence and, by the same token, the effect on the recipient region produced by the new workers, who are not necessarily migrants, but people who come and go with some frequency (Aroca, 2007).

E. Effect of internal migration on the areas of origin and destination

Because migration is selective in nature, it alters the population composition in areas of origin and destination. Net emigration appears to have a negative effect on the demographic structure of poor areas that have historically been population exporters, according to calculations targeting such areas in some of the region's countries, and this contributes to the formation of territorial poverty traps. Moreover, broader calculations show that territorial gaps in terms of age structure and education are tending to widen, which suggests that internal migration does little to reduce territorial inequalities within countries.

The first effect of internal migration on the areas of origin and destination is observed in the volume of the population, and measuring it is quite useful for making subnational demographic projections, which until recently were prepared with little or no information on this type of migration.

The effect of migration is also qualitative. Migrants can change the profile of the population in both the area of origin and the area of destination. Due to migratory selectivity according to sex, age and education level (which will be discussed later in this chapter), the structure of the areas of origin and destination in terms of sex, age and education level tends to be affected by internal migration. Thus, migration directly affects socio-territorial gaps, particularly those of a sociodemographic nature. For example, if ageing adults tended to migrate towards regions with more elderly, this would translate into a widening of disparities in age structure between the subnational areas.

Several procedures have been tested for measuring the effect of internal migration on the populations of origin and destination, as well as its effect on trends in territorial sociodemographic gaps (Soloaga and Lara, 2007; Aroca, 2004; Rodríguez, 2004a and 2004b; Polese 1998; Greenwood, 1997; Lucas, 1997). CELADE – Population Division of ECLAC has developed one such procedure, which has been disseminated and applied since 2004 (Rodríguez, 2007, 2004a and 2004b). The fundamental idea is to use the matrix of flow indicators (derived from the matrix of recent migration), compare its marginals and determine on that basis whether the migration had a positive or negative effect (net and exclusive) on the attribute.[6] The following section contains information on the application of this procedure, which provides evidence regarding two of the hypotheses put forward in this chapter.

[6] One of the marginals corresponds to the attribute at the time of the census, i.e. when the effect of migration has actually occurred, and the other corresponds to the same attribute, but with the territorial distribution that it would have if there had been no migration during the reference period. It is a comparison between a current, observed scenario and a hypothetical scenario. The key assumption of the procedure is the permanence of the attribute over time (which is guaranteed for variables such as sex) or the uniform variation across the entire population (which is guaranteed for variables such as age).

1. Migration and territorial poverty traps

In the previous section it was mentioned that a positive and significant correlation exists between the socioeconomic situation of subnational areas and their migratory attraction, and that in the case of subnational regions that are historically depressed, the emigration that characterizes them may be harmful because those who migrate are predominantly young people with relatively high levels of education. This combination of factors would mean that migration contributes to producing territorial poverty traps.

Providing evidence related to this hypothesis requires techniques that make it possible to isolate the effect of migration and that take into account the number and characteristics of those who leave and those who stay. The procedure developed by CELADE – Population Division of ECLAC produces conclusive results in favour of the hypothesis of the formation of territorial poverty traps.

Table IV.5 presents a synthesis of the information pertaining to six countries in the region for which it is easy to identify the subnational regions that are depressed. The results are displayed for each political-administrative division of the areas that had net emigration according to the latest census. Without exception, this migration produces a harmful effect on the age structure, since it tends to increase the proportion of children and the elderly while reducing the proportion of the working-age population. Thus, emigration increases the demographic dependency of the population of these depressed areas, aggravating an already difficult situation. Moreover, migration in the vast majority of the major administrative divisions examined tends to reduce average education levels, thereby eroding what little human capital they have.

Table IV.5
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (SELECTED COUNTRIES): MAJOR ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS (MAD) BELONGING TO HISTORICALLY DEPRESSED SUBNATIONAL REGIONS WITH NET EMIGRATION, BY EFFECT OF INTERNAL MIGRATION ON THE AGE STRUCTURE AND EDUCATION LEVEL OF THE POPULATION

Northern Argentina					Bolivian Altiplano					Central-Southern Chile				
MAD with net emigration	Net migration rate (per 1,000)	Proportion of children	Proportion of elderly	Education level of heads of household	MAD with net emigration	Net migration rate (per 1,000)	Proportion of children	Proportion of elderly	Education level of heads of household	MAD with net emigration	Net migration rate (per 1,000)	Proportion of children	Proportion of elderly	Education level of heads of household
Salta	-0.91	0.69	0.7	-0.082	Chuquisaca	-6.27	0.76	1.73	1.724	Del Maule	-0.42	1.73	1.22	0.19
Jujuy	-2.09	1.3	1.05	-0.735	La Paz	-3.11	0.14	0.2	-0.393	Bío Bío	-2.21	1.15	1.18	-0.46
Tucumán	-0.27	0.04	0.29	-0.006	Oruro	-8.88	2.38	2.94	-2.268	Araucanía	-0.48	1.66	1.19	0.25
Santiago del Estero	-1.4	0.87	0.71	-0.143	Potosí	-14.76	1.67	3.34	-2.168					

North-eastern Brazil					Mountains of Ecuador					Southern Mexico				
MAD with net emigration	Net migration rate (per 1,000)	Proportion of children	Proportion of elderly	Education level of heads of household	MAD with net emigration	Net migration rate (per 1,000)	Proportion of children	Proportion of elderly	Education level of heads of household	MAD with net emigration	Net migration rate (per 1,000)	Proportion of children	Proportion of elderly	Education level of heads of household
Maranhão	-6.88	0.77	2.52	-0.248	Carchi	-13.13	2.91	2.27	-1.9833	Oaxaca	-4.24	0.79	1.68	0.039
Piauí	-4.06	1.32	1.83	-0.657	Imbabura	-1.89	1.08	0.85	0.23049	Guerrero	-6.42	0.36	2.14	-0.149
Ceará	-0.72	0.47	0.57	0.599	Cotopaxi	-5.13	1.40	0.99	-0.2953	Chiapas	-2.85	0.69	0.99	-0.268
Paraíba	-3.92	0.82	1.86	-0.173	Tungurahua	-1.79	0.94	0.20	-0.2927	Puebla	-1.14	0.28	0.37	0.068
Pernambuco	-3.21	0.49	1.14	-0.072	Bolívar	-15.16	3.67	2.36	-3.0228					
Alagoas	-5.70	0.4	2.61	-0.033	Chimborazo	-9.01	1.91	2.56	0.15052					
Sergipe	-0.61	0.31	1.13	-0.063	Loja	-9.30	2.47	2.30	-0.5514					
Bahia	-4.50	0.42	1.95	0.081										

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, on the basis of Internal Migration in Latin America and the Caribbean (MIALC) [online database] http://www.eclac.cl/migracion/migracion_interna/ and procedures described in the text.

2. Migration and sociodemographic disparities between territories

The analysis of the information in the previous section is insufficient to determine the effect, on average, of migration on disparities between territories. This calculation requires another instrument: the simple correlation coefficient. If the correlation between the net and exclusive effect of migration and the initial value of the attribute is positive, migration would tend to widen the territorial gaps, since the major administrative divisions with higher levels of the attribute at the initial point in time (five years prior to the census) would tend to show a larger increase in this attribute as a result of migration. If the correlation is negative, migration would tend to narrow the territorial gaps. Table IV.6 shows a summary of these correlations in 13 countries with the necessary data for all the indicators measured. The main findings are the following:

- In the vast majority of countries, migration between major administrative divisions tends to widen the territorial disparities in terms of the proportion of children. The widely-prevailing positive coefficients seem to indicate that the major administrative divisions with a higher initial proportion of children (generally the poorer ones) are those in which this proportion increases the most on average as a result of migratory exchange with other major administrative divisions. The mechanism that produces this effect is rather complex, as it is derived not from the arrival of children in these divisions, but from a massive exodus of young adults, which indirectly raises the proportion of children under 15 years of age.
- Migration between major administrative divisions clearly accentuates disparities in terms of the territorial distribution of the population by sex. This distribution, which is predetermined by migratory flows, particularly from the countryside to the city, has been marked by a basic imbalance: women represent a majority in more urbanized major administrative divisions that have historically been areas of attraction. According to the coefficients in table IV.6 (most of which have a significance level of 95 percent), recent migration has widened this gap, inasmuch as major administrative divisions with an initial majority of men have increased this majority as a result of the net and exclusive effect of migration.
- With respect to attributes pertaining to the development of human resources, the coefficients are less conclusive. Although negative coefficients prevail, which would indicate that migration contributes to reducing territorial disparities in terms of education levels, only in three cases does this coefficient have a significance level of 95 percent, and in one of them the coefficient is positive.

Table IV.6
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (SELECTED COUNTRIES): CORRELATIONS BETWEEN SELECTED SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AND THEIR VARIATION DUE TO THE EFFECT OF RECENT INTERNAL MIGRATION, CENSUSES FROM THE 2000 ROUND

Country	Simple correlation between the initial level of the indicator and the net and exclusive effect of migration on the same indicatora				
	Average Age	Percentage of Children	Percentage of Elderly	Male Ratio	Average years of schooling (population aged 30-59 years)
Argentina, 2001	-0.27	0.61	-0.04	0.64	0.02
Bolivia, 2002	0.26	-0.32	0.67	0.17	0.85
Brazil, 2000	-0.05	0.00	0.47	0.46	-0.02
Chile, 2002	0.08	0.18	0.61	0.78	-0.71
Costa Rica, 2000	-0.19	0.42	0.35	0.27	0.06
Ecuador, 2001	-0.27	-0.13	0.43	0.47	-0.55
Guatemala, 2002	-0.67	0.21	-0.21	0.48	-0.04
Honduras, 2001	-0.32	0.62	0.44	0.43	-0.70
Mexico, 2000	-0.17	0.29	0.50	0.19	-0.22
Panama, 2000	-0.34	-0.24	0.23	0.87	0.31
Paraguay, 2002	-0.11	0.26	0.17	0.84	-0.38
Dominican Republic, 2002	-0.43	0.80	0.20	0.92	-0.16
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of), 2001	0.19	0.49	0.46	0.36	0.14

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, on the basis of Internal Migration in Latin America and the Caribbean (MIALC) [online database] http://www.eclac.cl/migracion/migracion_interna/ and procedures described in the text.
[a] Significant coefficients have a significance level of 95 percent.

F. Urbanization and migration

As the region has become more urbanized, movements between cities have increased more than any other type of population flow, and this has changed the profile of internal migrants. The predominance of migration between cities means that those cities have increased in size mainly as a result of their own natural growth. Nevertheless, rural-to-urban migration is still considerable in the region overall because it remains the main type in some of the less urbanized countries, where it is still the driving force behind urbanization (a proportional increase in the urban population). In all countries, rural-to-urban migration continues to have a considerable demographic impact on the rural population, whose reduction in absolute terms across the region is attributable to emigration to cities.

As indicated in the theoretical framework section, the persistent inequality between urban and rural areas (UNFPA, 2007; Guzmán et al, 2006; ECLAC, 2005a) should lead to a continuous flow of migrants from the countryside to the city. In addition, progressive urbanization should accentuate the weight of migration between cities in the total migratory flow from countryside to city. In the section below, direct procedures are applied to generate recent evidence related to both hypotheses. Since these procedures can be applied in only a few countries in the region, the following subsection refers to techniques for making indirect estimates of rural to urban migration, which will provide evidence supporting the first hypothesis for the vast majority of countries in the region.

1. Direct estimates of migration between countryside and city

The 2000 round of censuses included questions that allowed for a direct estimate of migration between the countryside and the city, and therefore the identification of four possible migratory flows between the two, in only four countries of the region: Brazil, Nicaragua, Panama and Paraguay. Table IV.7 shows a summary of the results.[7] The following conclusions can be drawn from the data:

- The predominance of migration between urban areas has become stronger in every country but Nicaragua, where the migratory flow from the countryside to the city is by far the most intense.[8] It should be stressed that in countries such as Brazil, this trend is entirely to be expected, given the high levels of urbanization there (above 80%); but it is also seen in countries with considerably less urbanization (around 65%), such as Panama or even Paraguay (less than 60%).

[7] Only recent migration is taken into consideration, because it was not feasible to calculate absolute migration in at least one of the four countries analysed. Furthermore, the lack of a period of reference introduces an additional ambiguity with respect to the answers respondents gave about the residential area in which they were born (or the place where their mother lived when they were born).

[8] There are solid grounds to conclude that this flow was overestimated in the case of Nicaragua, because it is not consistent with data from other sources, such as the National Household Living Standards Survey of 2001 and in particular with the moderate rate of urbanization seen in the country between 1995 and 2005.

- The net shift of population from the countryside to the city continues, amounting to more than 1 million people in Brazil between 1995 and 2000, more than 200,000 people in Nicaragua between 2000 and 2005, and just over 34,000 people in Panama between 1995 and 2000. The exception is Paraguay, where more than 60,000 internal migrants reportedly moved to the countryside in the 1997-2002 period; but this result has been officially called into question (Sosa, 2007).
- Migration from one rural area to another tends to be less significant, but it may be underestimated because of the seasonal nature of many of these moves. It has been documented that the environmental effects of this type of migration can be considerable, particularly in the case of movements towards the agricultural frontier or settlement areas (Reboratti, 1990; CELADE/IDB, 1996; Pinto da Cunha, 2007).
- Except in the striking and doubtful case of Paraguay, there are no signs of a massive return to the countryside. However, the flow from the city to the countryside should be studied in more depth, because a significant part of it could be the result of suburbanization of metropolitan areas (Guzmán et al, 2006).

In this manner, the data tend to support two hypotheses presented here: migration from the countryside to the city continues as a result of persistent disparities, to the detriment of rural areas, and there is a quantitative predominance of migration between cities.

Table IV.7
POPULATION AGED 5 AND ABOVE: DIRECT ESTIMATES OF RECENT MIGRATION BETWEEN URBAN AND RURAL AREAS: COUNTRIES WHOSE CENSUS INCLUDES RELEVANT QUESTIONS, 2000 ROUND OF CENSUSES [a]

Country and census year	Area of current residence	Area of residence five years previously		
		No migration between minor administrative divisions	Urban	Rural
Brazil, 2000	Urban	111 027 460	10 775 021	3 244 288
	Rural	24 965 713	2 168 599	1 161 891
Nicaragua, 2005	Urban	2 109 103	67 567	338 008
	Rural	1 744 706	119 443	64 210
Panama, 2000	Urban	1 297 825	152 089	74 836
	Rural	832 551	40 798	29 741
Paraguay, 2002	Urban	2 175 943	248 014	31 361
	Rural	1 734 786	91 592	53 867

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, on the basis of special processing of census microdatabases

[a] Some filters are used, such as considering children under the age of five in the case of recent migration; in addition, other standards are taken into consideration for the analysis of internal migration, such as the exclusion of those born or living in other countries five years previously in the case of absolute and recent migration, respectively; and in the interest of data quality, certain items were excluded, such as cases of no replies or outlier replies to base questions (usual place of residence, birthplace and place of residence five years previously). Moreover, other filters apply depending on the census (some countries in the table —Brazil, Paraguay— capture rural-to-urban migration within minor administrative divisions, whereas others —Nicaragua, Panama— do not). Therefore caution should be exercised in making comparisons among them.

2. Indirect estimates

Direct estimates can be made only in a few countries, so procedures have been developed to make indirect estimates that yield net balances combining migration with the reclassification of urban and rural locations.

The figures in table IV.8 were obtained using the indirect procedure known as "survival ratios", and their main contribution is to confirm the hypotesis that migration from the countryside to the city represents a small and shrinking proportion of the urban population expansion. Indeed, for the region as a whole, the net transfer of population from countryside to city, combined with the net reclassification of urban and rural locations, accounted for 36.6% of urban population growth in the 1980s and 33.7% in the 1990s. These figures comport with those yielded by other studies (United Nations, 2001).

However, the persistent net rural-to-urban population transfer continues to be the demographic source of urbanization. Available sources of information (Guzmán et al, 2006; Cohen, 2006; ECLAC, 2005a; MEASURE DHS n/d) suggest that natural population growth is still higher in

rural areas as a result of that population's greater fertility. Consequently, in the absence of this net rural emigration, the region would have become increasingly ruralized in the last few years. The distinction between the effect of migration on urban population growth, on the one hand, and on urbanization, on the other hand, is an important one. This is especially true in the area of policy-making, because measures taken to manage urbanization involve controlling the transfer of population from the countryside to the city (in particular, on rural emigration), whereas managing urban expansion entails controlling the natural growth of the urban population.

Table IV.8
POPULATION AGED 10 AND ABOVE: NET RURAL-TO-URBAN MIGRATION AND URBAN POPULATION GROWTH

Country	Net rural-to-urban migration		Growth of urban population aged 10 and above		Relative share of rural-to-urban migration in urban population growth	
	1980-1990	1990-2000	1980-1990	1990-2000	1980-1990	1990-2000
Argentina	1 248 867	829 981	4 146 455	3 414 868	30.1	24.3
Bolivia	565 718	341 525	882 210	1 174 625	64.1	29.1
Brazil	9 621 574	9 483 867	22 891 555	26 856 555	42.0	35.3
Chile	146 535	382 623	1 447 011	1 939 951	10.1	19.7
Colombia	-	-	-	-	-	-
Costa Rica	82 656	338 002	194 507	717 006	42.5	47.1
Cuba	735 083	370 110	1 525 671	918 531	48.2	40.3
Ecuador	647 934	612 251	1 341 021	1 598 897	48.3	38.3
El Salvador	294 277	-	535 196	-	55.0	-
Guatemala	226 021	824 486	525 724	1 384 850	43.0	59.5
Honduras	258 003	303 742	501 918	685 610	51.4	44.3
Mexico	3 997 266	4 183 486	12 108 257	13 103 802	33.0	31.9
Nicaragua	139 920	-	484 649	-	28.9	-
Panama	113 677	234 038	292 298	432 624	38.9	54.1
Paraguay	280 103	296 914	504 441	652 302	55.5	45.5
Peru	1 001 406	-	2 990 661	-	33.5	-
Dominican Republic	218 172	553 575	709 784	1 096 408	30.7	50.5
Uruguay	83 300	34 446	233 238	132 306	35.7	26.0
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	735 042	847 392	3 171 190	4 235 917	23.2	20.0
Total	20 395 554	19 636 438	54 485 786	58 344 252	37.9	33.7

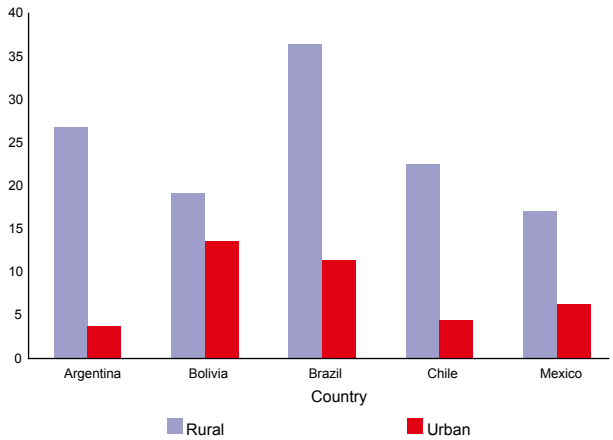
Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, on the basis of intercensal survival ratios.

Table IV.8 suggests that the situation is highly uneven among countries, which is to be expected in view of the different levels of urbanization throughout the region. Not unexpectedly, the most urbanized countries (Argentina, Chile, Uruguay and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela) report the lowest proportion of urban population growth coming from rural emigration, while the highest levels tend to occur in countries with less urbanization (Guatemala, Honduras, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic).

A more thorough analysis of the figures reveals that there are some exceptions to the latter assertion (Panama), and drastic changes from one decade to the other that are difficult to understand (Bolivia). These exceptions may be findings that warrant additional study, or they may be anomalies caused by idiosyncrasies or methodological changes. In other cases, the changes may reflect foreseeable trends. This is true of Chile, where the increasing weight of rural emigration in urban growth and the low rates of natural population growth in urban areas may mean that small net shifts of population from the countryside to the city can have a considerable impact on urban demographic expansion.

From the standpoint of the rural population, the net transfer of population from the countryside to the city is not at all insignificant, as can be seen in figure IV.1. Moreover, in countries like Brazil, rural emigration could be called a mass exodus because it represents a large share of the country's rural population.

Figure IV.1
RATIO BETWEEN NET RURAL-TO-URBAN MIGRATION FROM 1990 TO 2000 AND THE RURAL AND URBAN POPULATION IN 1990
(Percent)



Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, on the basis of intercensal survival ratios.

G. Internal migration, deconcentration of the city system and metropolitan reconfiguration

Internal migration flows no longer follow the pattern of concentration observed in previous decades. Although in most countries the main city still attracts migrants, since the 1990s the largest cities have seen a migratory turnaround that has made them into net exporters of population (as people leave for other dynamic parts of the urban system). Internal migration is therefore leading to the consolidation of a more diverse and less asymmetrical system of cities, which is more favourable to economic and social development than the urban systems with populations highly concentrated in the main city that have been so typical of the region's countries. In addition, intra-metropolitan migration (usually towards the outskirts of cities) tends to extend the area covered by large cities, thereby triggering complex processes of territorial and functional reconfiguration.

It is not possible to analyse migration within minor administrative divisions in the same manner as it has been done with migration at the major administrative division level in this chapter. It is also inadvisable in general terms, because at that level the variety of different possible types of migration multiplies. Identifying patterns associated with territories of origin and destination is complex enough in the case of major administrative divisions, and it is even more so for minor administrative divisions. Nevertheless, the possibility of working at that level is a notable achievement, since the results have a wide variety of applications and are of particular interest to local authorities and analysts, insofar as this is the first time it has been possible to quantify and characterize migration at the municipal level.

Using computing tools to process the data for more precision at this level makes it possible to examine migration in metropolitan areas comprising one or more minor administrative divisions. Once again, examining the migratory patterns of all these areas is beyond the scope and objectives of this chapter. However, it is possible to examine selected metropolises. To contribute to the present discussion of migration to cities and at the same time continue the work on indigenous peoples presented in the *Social Panorama of Latin America 2006*, this section examines the hypothesis of "concentrated deconcentration" in the three most populous cities of 10 countries that included a question on ethnic identity in the 2000 round of censuses. "Nearby migration" represents exchanges with municipalities outside the metropolitan area but within the same major administrative division. "Distant migration" represents exchanges with municipalities outside the major administrative division in which the metropolis is located.

Tables IV.9A and IV.9B show, by way of example, the particular case of the metropolitan area of La Paz-El Alto (Bolivia).[9] This analysis demonstrates that within the same area there may be very different territorial and ethnic migration patterns. With respect to territory, the first distinction to be drawn is between the two parts of the metropolitan area; whereas La Paz has lost nearly 41,000 inhabitants due to migration, El Alto has gained just over 46,000. Thus, the net positive migration of about 5,000 individuals conceals two contrasting patterns: attraction

[9] Official definitions in Bolivia are rigorous; the two places are considered different cities even though they appear in every way to be a single urban conglomerate. For this reason, in table IV.9A the city is shown with its two separate components, but a "total" column is included that sums up the situation of the conglomerate as a whole.

Table IV.9
BOLIVIA: POPULATION AGED FIVE AND ABOVE (INDIGENOUS AND NON-INDIGENOUS)
(a) Matrix of recent migration from the La Paz-El Alto metropolitan area, 1996-2001

Habitual residence	Ethnicity	Residence five years ago				Total
		La Paz	Ciudad El Alto	Rest of the department	Rest of the country	
La Paz	Indigenous	391 967	3 851	13 909	11 622	421 349
	Non-indigenous	245 480	1 553	3 091	10 103	260 227
	Total	637 447	5 404	17 000	21 725	681 576
Ciudad El Alto	Indigenous	13 593	382 526	28 948	7 824	432 891
	Non-indigenous	3 616	89 805	3 552	2 266	99 239
	Total	17 209	472 331	32 500	10 090	532 130
Rest of the department	Indigenous	14 940	3 956	671 450	5 874	696 220
	Non-indigenous	3 025	478	63 694	2 047	69 244
	Total	17 965	4 434	735 144	7 921	765 464
Rest of the country	Indigenous	28 283	2 912	8 754	2 638 474	2 678 423
	Non-indigenous	21 474	1 013	3 298	2 102 922	2 128 707
	Total	49 757	3 925	12 052	4 741 396	4 807 130
Total	Indigenous	448 783	393 245	723 061	2 663 794	4 228 883
	Non-indigenous	273 595	92 849	73 635	2 117 338	2 557 417
	Total	722 378	486 094	796 696	4 781 132	6 786 300

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, on the basis of special processing of census microdatabases

(b) Results derived from matrix of recent migration from the metropolitan area La Paz-El Alto, 1996-2001

		Indigenous			Non-indigenous			Total		
		La Paz	El Alto	Total	La Paz	El Alto	Total	La Paz	El Alto	Total
Immigrants	Nearby	17 760	42 541	42 857	4 644	7 168	6 643	22 404	49 709	49 500
	Distant	11 622	7 824	19 446	10 103	2 266	12 369	21 725	10 090	31 815
	Total	29 382	50 365	62 303	14 747	9 434	19 012	44 129	59 799	81 315
Emigrants	Nearby	28 533	7 807	18 896	6 641	2 031	3 503	35 174	9 838	22 399
	Distant	28 283	2 912	31 195	21 474	1 013	22 487	49 757	3 925	53 682
	Total	56 816	10 719	50 091	28 115	3 044	25 990	84 931	13 763	76 081
Net migration	Nearby	-10 773	34 734	23 961	-1 997	5 137	3 140	-12 770	39 871	27 101
	Distant	-16 661	4 912	-11 749	-11 371	1 253	-10 118	-28 032	6 165	-21 867
	Total	-27 434	39 646	12 212	-13 368	6 390	-6 978	-40 802	46 036	5 234

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, on the basis of table IV.9a.

within the immediate region, that is, from other cantons in the province of La Paz, and loss with respect to other provinces in the country, particularly Santa Cruz. In other words, migration in Bolivia reflects an actual deconcentration and not a concentrated deconcentration, insofar as the most populous city is seeing a significant flow of migrants towards distant cities that are more socioeconomically and demographically dynamic. Finally, the distinctions are also a function of ethnicity; although the La Paz-El Alto metropolitan area is attractive to indigenous people, it is seeing a net emigration of non-indigenous people (see table IV.9A).

If the regional situation is examined, taking into consideration the 10 countries that have the necessary information (see table IV.10), the following conclusions can be reached:[10]

- The majority of cities continue to have net immigration, which reveals how strong the attraction

[10] These results, as tends to be the case in analyses of cities, depend fundamentally on where the metropolitan area's borders are set. In this study, we have followed the territorial-administrative specification proposed in the Spatial Distribution and Urbanization in Latin America and the Caribbean (DEPUALC) of CELADE (CELADE, n/d), as indicated in the table, since it breaks down the data to the appropriate municipal level for the study at hand.

still is to this upper echelon of the region's urban systems; and even in the majority of countries, particularly the smallest or least urbanized (Bolivia, Ecuador, Honduras, Panama, Paraguay, Ecuador), the most populous city still attracts migrants. This shows that the areas that have historically had the most concentrated populations remain robust.

- However, one in three cities experienced net emigration, which suggests a gradual spreading of this trend —non-existent in the region until the late 1980s— among the principal cities of these countries. Considering the experience of developed countries, this pattern could expand in the future (Gans, 2007; Montgomery, 2004).
- The largest cities (especially those with 4 million or more inhabitants) are the most likely to experience net emigration, which could be linked to the effects of saturation, diseconomies of scale and the agglomeration that a variety of recent publications on urban dynamics have highlighted (UNFPA, 2007; Montgomery, 2004; Henderson, 2000). This situation does not mean that immigration to these cities has ceased, since the inflows are still considerable; rather, it is due to a marked increase in emigration that may be to the surrounding region. If so, it could be misinterpreted as expulsion, when in fact it is a manifestation of metropolitan expansion, as the concentrated deconcentration hypothesis suggests. For this reason, it is necessary to break down the migration figures and look at flows to the surrounding region as well as those to the rest of the country.
- When net migration from the cities to surrounding areas is contrasted with that going to the rest of the country, only Brazil seems to be experiencing concentrated deconcentration. Net emigration from São Paulo and Rio de Janeiro is due exclusively to exchanges with other municipalities within the same state, whereas both metropolises continue to gain population in migratory exchanges with the other states. In the other countries, expulsion cities are seeing net emigration at both levels or just to the rest of the country, which means that the deconcentration is real and not apparent. It should be noted that in several cities that are still areas of attraction, a pattern of migratory exchange consistent with the concentrated deconcentration hypothesis can be seen, probably due to ongoing suburbanization processes. This is the case in Guatemala City, Quito, San Pedro Sula and Heredia.
- Generally, both indigenous and non-indigenous populations have the same migration patterns, which suggests that in most cases whether cities attract or expel migrants is not a matter of ethnicity. There are several exceptions, however: In addition to the previously mentioned case of La Paz, Cochabamba, Tegucigalpa, Mexico City, Guadalajara and Asuncion fall into this exceptional category. The Bolivian and Mexican cities are noteworthy not only because of the weight of the indigenous population in both countries, but also because these are all cities that are losing their non-indigenous populations while gaining indigenous inhabitants. This obviously increases the weight of indigenous populations in these cities, but perhaps more important is the fact that indigenous people are coming to cities that are no longer attractive to the non-indigenous. The reasons for this phenomenon and its implications should be studied further.

Table IV.10
LATIN AMERICA (SELECTED COUNTRIES): INTERNAL MIGRATION INDICATORS FOR THREE MAIN METROPOLITAN AREAS, 1990 AND 2000 CENSUS ROUNDS

Country and year	Metropolitan area [a]	Indigenous				Non-indigenous				Total		
		Net migration	Rate (per 1 000)	Net nearby migration	Net distant migration	Net migration	Rate (per 1 000)	Net nearby migration	Net distant migration	Net migration	Net nearby migration	Net distant migration
Bolivia, 2001	La Paz	12 212	2.9	23 961	-11 749	-6 978	-3.8	3 140	-10 118	5 234	27 101	-21 867
	Santa Cruz	24 279	17.9	-338	24 617	21 532	7.0	2 110	19 422	45 811	1 772	44 039
	Cochabamba	752	0.6	-1 159	1 911	-2 528	-3.0	-1 242	-1 286	-1 776	-2 401	625
Brazil, 2000	São Paulo	-164	-1.1	-747	583	-231 657	-2.9	-339 707	108 050	-231 821	-340 454	108 633
	Río de Janeiro	435	3.1	-175	610	-29 854	-0.6	-49 505	19 651	-29 419	-49 681	20 262
	Belo Horizonte	311	4.3	89	222	61 886	3.4	42 691	19 195	62 197	42 780	19 417
Chile, 2002	Santiago	-411	-0.5	-947	536	-49 306	-2.1	-30 945	-18 361	-49 717	-31 892	-17 825
	Valparaíso	231	5.4	24	207	8 927	2.5	1 361	7 566	9 158	1 385	7 773
	Concepción	-387	-5.4	-46	-341	-7 438	-2.5	711	-8 149	-7 825	665	-8 490
Costa Rica, 2000	San José	-78	-2.6	-13	-65	-13 849	-2.8	229	-14 078	-13 927	216	-14 143
	Heredia	6	2.1	5	1	4 442	5.4	-2 265	6 707	4 448	-2 260	6 708
	Cartago	28	36.8	8	20	2 874	3.9	644	2 230	2 902	652	2 250
Ecuador, 2001	Quito	5 005	28.6	-592	5 597	18 198	3.0	-29 157	47 355	23 203	-29 749	52 952
	Guayaquil	3 068	23.9	31	3 037	41 068	4.3	11 609	29 459	44 136	11 640	32 496
	Cuenca	714	49.1	147	567	11 322	9.4	2 968	8 354	12 036	3 115	8 921
Guatemala, 2002	Guatemala City	10 666	14.4	-3 028	13 694	489	0.1	-28 459	28 948	11 155	-31 487	42 642
	Quetzalten	1 007	3.8	681	326	98	0.4	216	-118	1 105	897	208
	Escuintla	-152	-6.7	-9	-143	-2 556	-5.2	-561	-1 995	-2 708	-570	-2 138
Honduras, 2001	Tegucigalpa	-219	-12.7	-32	-187	11 671	3.2	1 218	10 453	11 452	1 186	10 266
	San Pedro Sula	181	3.7	-42	223	6 708	3.1	-11 439	18 147	6 889	-11 481	18 370
	La Ceiba	258	6.7	-10	268	1 089	2.1	203	886	1 347	193	1 154
Mexico, 2000	Mexico City	1 137	1.7	1 226	-89	-72 063	-1.0	17 596	-89 659	-70 926	18 822	-89 748
	Guadalajara	41	1.1	-46	87	-14 719	-1.0	-8 256	-6 463	-14 678	-8 302	-6 376
	Monterrey	1 965	52.9	-2	1 967	40 656	3.0	-148	40 804	42 621	-150	42 771
Panama, 2000	Panama City	8 101	67.7	161	7 940	74 220	14.5	5 979	68 241	82 321	6 140	76 181
	Colón	270	17.3	8	262	1 499	2.1	2 105	-606	1 769	2 113	-344
	David	651	62.2	287	364	266	0.5	5 402	-5 136	917	5 689	-4 772
Paraguay, 2002	Asunción	-219	-12.7	-32	-187	11 671	3.2	1 218	10 453	11 452	1 186	10 266
	Ciudad del Este	88	200.0	11	77	-2 257	-2.4	-1 861	-396	-2 169	-1 850	-319
	Encarnación	4	20.0	-2	6	-3 592	-8.7	-1 213	-2 379	-3 588	-1 215	-2 373

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, on the basis of special processing of census microdatabases

[a] For a definition of metropolitan area on the basis of Spatial distribution and urbanization in Latin America and the Caribbean (DEPUALC) data [on line], see www.eclac.cl.celade/depualc/.

[b] Population aged five and above, residents of the country five years before the census, with valid responses on questions about habitual place of residence and place of residence five years ago.

H. Migration and individual characteristics

Migrants tend to consist mostly of young people, women and people with above-average levels of education. Indeed, the stereotype of the unskilled internal migrant more representative of the period when rural-to-urban flows were the main form of migration no longer applies, even to groups located in mainly rural areas (such as indigenous communities). As is to be expected from the fact that many of them move for work, migrants show higher levels of labour participation, although they also have higher levels of unemployment in some countries. This shows that settling in at destination is not an easy process.

1. Selectivity

Three "individual" characteristics of internal migration that have been well documented in the literature (Rodríguez, 2004a; Welti, 1998; Villa, 1991) are analysed below: sex, education and age. To capture this information, the proportion of males in the population, the proportion of residents without any education and those with a university education, and the percentage of young people among migrants must be determined in each case. Using the criteria applied in the chapter on population in *Social Panorama of Latin America 2006*, the distinction between indigenous and non-indigenous is introduced into the analysis (see table IV.11).

The gender-based analysis of migration reveals that the expected female selectivity cannot be verified systematically, since in some countries the proportion of males among migrants —with respect to both major and minor administrative divisions— is smaller than that of non-migrants, whereas in other countries it is greater. This irregularity is seen in both indigenous and non-indigenous populations. However, the finding is consistent with the conclusion reached by Rodríguez (2004a) that the female predominance among internal migrants has declined. Moreover, in the case of indigenous migrants, female selectivity in internal migration seems to be the exception rather than the rule. These results should be viewed with caution, because they may be a product of combinations of different migratory currents, each with its own gender selectivity. For example, consider the contrast between the rural-to-urban flows (with a high female selectivity) and flows towards frontier regions (with a high male selectivity) that has been observed since this issue was first studied (Cardona and Simmons, 1975).

The pattern that emerges with respect to education is consistent with prevailing theories and previous studies (Rodríguez, 2004a). In all countries analysed, the proportion of individuals with university studies among indigenous migrants is greater than among non-migrant indigenous people, and in the same fashion, the percentage of individuals with no education is smaller among the former than among the latter. In some countries, the differences are quite marked. For example, in Brazil 13.6% of indigenous persons migrating between major administrative divisions have no education, and that figure rises to 30.9% among non-migrant indigenous persons. This pattern is also repeated systematically (with a couple of exceptions) among non-indigenous individuals, leading to the conclusion that educational selectivity is not affected by ethnicity. In indigenous settlement areas —which are generally rural areas with net emigration— this regularity means there is a risk of losing human resources, since those who emigrate tend to be more educated than those who remain (or those migrating in).

Table IV.11
MIGRANTS BETWEEN MAJOR ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS (MAD) AND MINOR ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS (MIAD), SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS ACCORDING TO ETHNICITY, 2000 CENSUS ROUND

	Country and year	Recent between MADs				Recent between MIADs			
		Indigenous migrant	Non-indigenous migrant	Non-migrant indigenous	Non-migrant non-indigenous	Indigenous migrant	Non-indigenous migrant	Non-migrant indigenous	Non-migrant non-indigenous
Percentage of males	Bolivia 2001	94.8	97.3	94.0	95.7	96.0	98.1	93.9	95.6
	Brazil, 2000	92.0	97.4	98.6	95.9	...	...	...	...
	Chile, 2002	105.4	109.0	100.9	94.4	98.6	101.4	101.7	94.1
	Costa Rica, 2000	112.9	104.8	106.7	98.9	111.1	102.1	106.7	98.9
	Guatemala, 2002	107.6	90.8	94.9	93.7	100.5	91.7	94.9	93.7
	Mexico, 2000	97.2	94.5	99.3	93.9	97.6	91.9	99.3	94.0
Higher education	Bolivia 2001	16.4	13.2	12.0	8.4	13.7	11.3	12.1	8.4
	Brazil, 2000	3.7	6.7	1.8	5.5	...	...	...	...
	Chile, 2002	14.6	29.2	8.8	17.7	14.2	28.1	8.2	16.5
	Costa Rica, 2000	5.3	12.3	2.6	10.1	4.9	13.1	2.5	9.9
	Guatemala, 2002	1.6	6.3	0.7	5.6	1.2	9.0	0.7	5.4
	Mexico, 2000	4.2	13.4	2.2	8.8	5.9	14.5	2.1	8.6
No education	Bolivia 2001	7.5	9.1	10.9	15.3	8.1	9.7	11.0	15.5
	Brazil, 2000	13.6	12.6	30.9	15.1	...	...	...	...
	Chile, 2002	6.6	5.1	10.5	6.7	6.7	5.4	10.9	6.8
	Costa Rica, 2000	17.3	10.5	28.4	9.9	17.7	10.2	28.8	9.9
	Guatemala, 2002	36.3	17.0	43.4	20.2	43.2	15.6	43.2	20.5
	Mexico, 2000	19.1	9.4	26.3	11.9	19.2	9.4	26.4	12.0
Young people	Bolivia 2001	46.6	46.3	33.9	30.2	46.0	45.2	33.4	29.6
	Brazil, 2000	45.5	42.9	25.3	31.5	...	...	...	...
	Chile, 2002	45.1	38.9	26.4	25.4	40.0	34.2	25.3	24.6
	Costa Rica, 2000	41.5	37.2	30.8	29.0	39.8	36.0	30.5	28.7
	Guatemala, 2002	47.4	44.8	33.5	33.2	40.7	39.7	33.4	33.1
	Mexico, 2000	51.0	43.3	30.8	32.1	47.5	41.7	30.5	31.8

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, on the basis of special processing of census microdatabases.

With respect to age, it is also clear that indigenous people cannot escape the strong correlation between the life cycle and migration. Indeed, whereas the proportion of young people among indigenous migrants at the level of major administrative divisions is consistently above 40% and even reaches 50% in some cases, it is less than 35% among non-migrant indigenous people, and as low as 25% in some cases.[11] It should be pointed out that this behaviour is not exclusive to indigenous migrants, as non-indigenous migrants also include a much higher percentage of young people than non-migrant non-indigenous groups. In general, however, the differences in the proportion of young people among migrants and non-migrants are greater in the case of indigenous individuals, which suggests that age selectivity is more intense in this group.

This analysis leads to the general conclusion that the main selection factors for migration are the same now as they were in the past, although gender selectivity is declining. In addition, it can be stated that there is no strong evidence of a double spike in migration probability (once during youth and again after retirement), as is typically seen in developed countries (Gans, 2007; Raymer and Rogers, 2007). Some very peculiar and noteworthy migration patterns among older adults have been seen in countries like Chile, however (Rodríguez and González, 2006). And finally, education continues to be a factor contributing to, or at least associated with, migration.

[11] Measured as the percentage of persons aged 15 to 29 years in the total population aged 5 and over (the population aged 0 to 4 years is excluded from the analysis of recent migration by definition).

2. Integration in place of destination

A variety of individual or family characteristics tend to be seen as heavily influenced by migration. Because census data do not indicate what migrants' situation was before they left, the effect of migration can be measured by comparing averages of relevant indicators in the places of origin and destination. In this document, the only indicator compared is the workforce integration of migrants and non-migrants at the destination. Only recent migration between major administrative divisions is taken into consideration, because it is more in line with a known conceptual model —labour migration— than with hypotheses specific to the workforce integration of migrants, as stated in the frame of reference section. To control for exogenous factors (which stem from the selectivity examined in the previous section), migration indicators were standardized by age and education level. This makes it possible to estimate the level that the indicators used (workforce participation and unemployment) would have if migrants had the same age and education structure as non-migrants.

In the first place, it can be seen that in almost all of the countries (the exception is Bolivia in 1992), the rate of workforce participation among migrants is higher than that of non-migrants, and in most cases the difference is greater than three percentage points. This corresponds with the prevailing opinion that migration is undertaken for the purpose of seeking work (see table IV.12).

Table IV.12
LATIN AMERICA: STANDARDIZATION OF WORKFORCE PARTICIPATION RATE AMONG RECENT MIGRANTS BETWEEN MAJOR ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS (MAD), SELECTED COUNTRIES, 1990 AND 2000 CENSUS ROUNDS

Country	Census	Non-migrant	Migrant	Standardization	Difference 1: Non-migrants - migrants	Difference 2: Non-migrants - standardized migrants	Difference 3: Standardized migrants - migrants
Argentina	2001	58.16	64.09	59.27	-5.93	-1.1	-4.8
Bolivia	1992	62.86	61.64	62.02	1.23	0.8	0.4
Bolivia	2001	59.18	62.87	61.73	-3.70	-2.6	-1.1
Brazil	1991	58.86	65.94	62.44	-7.08	-3.6	-3.5
Brasil	2000	63.27	68.00	63.69	-4.73	-0.4	-4.3
Chile	1992	48.77	55.07	51.45	-6.30	-2.7	-3.6
Chile	2002	51.19	55.54	52.09	-4.35	-0.9	-3.5
Costa Rica	1984	51.20	53.55	51.78	-2.35	-0.6	-1.8
Costa Rica	2000	51.50	56.70	53.83	-5.20	-2.3	-2.9
Ecuador	1990	54.32	61.29	60.53	-6.97	-6.2	-0.8
Ecuador	2001	54.15	60.04	58.74	-5.89	-4.6	-1.3
Guatemala	1994	49.64	52.48	51.95	-2.84	-2.3	-0.5
Guatemala	2002	49.37	59.17	57.67	-9.80	-8.3	-1.5
Honduras	1988	55.07	56.87	57.88	-1.80	-2.8	1.0
Honduras	2001	50.62	53.08	52.80	-2.47	-2.2	-0.3
Mexico	1990	47.68	54.08	51.38	-6.40	-3.7	-2.7
Mexico	2000	54.71	61.77	58.64	-7.06	-3.9	-3.1
Nicaragua	1995	57.79	60.23	60.41	-2.44	-2.6	0.2
Nicaragua	2005	52.67	55.03	55.00	-2.36	-2.3	0.0
Panama	1990	54.79	58.28	57.22	-3.49	-2.4	-1.1
Panama	2000	59.33	66.64	63.80	-7.31	-4.5	-2.8
Paraguay	1992	55.04	61.01	59.22	-5.97	-4.2	-1.8
Paraguay	2002	59.57	66.10	64.72	-6.52	-5.2	-1.4
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	2001	54.51	58.94	56.97	-4.43	-2.5	-2.0

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, on the basis of special processing of census microdatabases.

Nonetheless, due to the interaction between migratory selectivity and the propensity to work, this finding must be refined using standardization. Thus, it is noted that if migrants had the same age structure and educational background as non-migrants, their workforce participation rate would be lower than that reported (with the exception of Bolivia in 1992, Honduras in 1988 and Nicaragua in 1995 and 2005). This confirms that the age structure of migrants "extrinsically" favours their participation in the workforce. Even after controlling for these extrinsic factors with standardization, however, migrants' workforce participation remains higher than that of non-migrants in all countries (except for Bolivia in 1992), which reinforces the argument for the employment motivations for migration.

The unemployment situation, in contrast, is less consistent; the results vary by country and by census year (see table IV.13). In the first place, only 7 of the 24 cases studied show lower unemployment for migrants than for non-migrants. Although this may seem to contradict the previous finding and the focus on migration for employment reasons, in fact it does not. When non-contract migration is examined, it is seen that migrants go through a process of looking for work and adapting to the place of destination, which leads to a greater probability of being unemployed.

Table IV.13
LATIN AMERICA: STANDARDIZATION OF MIGRANT UNEMPLOYMENT RATE, SELECTED COUNTRIES, 1990 AND 2000 CENSUS ROUNDS

Country	Census	Non-migrant	Migrant	Standardization	Difference 1: Non-migrants - migrants	Difference 2: Non-migrants - migrants, standardized	Difference 3: Standardized migrants - migrants
Argentina	2001	28.49	24.41	26.45	4.08	2.0	2.0
Bolivia	1992	2.47	3.67	3.56	-1.20	-1.1	-0.1
Bolivia	2001	4.37	4.99	5.18	-0.62	-0.8	0.2
Brazil	1991	5.00	5.09	5.01	-0.08	0.0	-0.1
Brazil	2000	14.88	17.36	16.78	-2.48	-1.9	-0.6
Chile	1992	8.40	8.04	7.92	0.36	0.5	-0.1
Chile	2002	13.90	14.21	14.54	-0.31	-0.6	0.3
Costa Rica	1984	6.57	6.66	7.12	-0.09	-0.5	0.5
Costa Rica	2000	4.40	4.76	4.85	-0.36	-0.4	0.1
Ecuador	1990	2.68	2.93	2.81	-0.26	-0.1	-0.1
Ecuador	2001	2.71	2.94	2.95	-0.24	-0.2	0.0
Guatemala	1994	0.66	0.73	0.67	-0.07	0.0	-0.1
Guatemala	2002	0.86	0.79	0.77	0.07	0.1	0.0
Honduras	1988	8.02	7.39	7.46	0.63	0.6	0.1
Honduras	2001	2.00	2.81	2.67	-0.81	-0.7	-0.1
Mexico	1990	2.65	2.37	2.38	0.28	0.3	0.0
Mexico	2000	1.27	1.50	1.48	-0.23	-0.2	0.0
Nicaragua	1995	17.51	14.56	14.50	2.95	3.0	-0.1
Nicaragua	2005	4.15	4.45	4.43	-0.30	-0.3	0.0
Panama	1990	11.51	13.02	11.67	-1.52	-0.2	-1.3
Panama	2000	12.95	11.63	11.03	1.32	1.9	-0.6
Paraguay	1992	1.90	2.45	2.31	-0.55	-0.4	-0.1
Paraguay	2002	5.44	6.33	5.96	-0.89	-0.5	-0.4
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	2001	8.83	9.97	9.85	-1.14	-1.0	-0.1

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, on the basis of special processing of census microdatabases.

Unlike workforce participation, the standardized unemployment rate of migrants does not change much compared to the non-standardized rate, and most importantly, the change is not systematic. In 10 of 24 cases the unemployment rate increases with standardization. This is reflected in the absence of a regular pattern —after controlling for extrinsic factors of age and education level— although more often than not the standardized rate for migrants is higher than that for non-migrants. This suggests a period of

adaptation or bias in the labour market in the place of destination that works against migrants, because despite their greater propensity and need to participate in economic activity, they are not more likely to be employed than non-migrants.

In short, although employment continues to be the predominant motivation for migrating between major administrative divisions, migration does not guarantee employment, and this introduces a factor of uncertainty and risk for migrants. There is also a concern for developing public and social policies, which must address the adaptation process of internal migrants who do not find employment. Given that these migrants may lack the network of contacts and knowledge that are necessary to lead a normal life in the place of destination, specific support might be required to reduce the time it takes them to find a job.

3. Migration histories

It is generally difficult to examine migration histories because that requires several questions aimed at reconstructing previous migration paths, and the census questions capture only one movement. Moreover, it is assumed that there was a direct migration. The articulation of these questions does, however, allow for an approximation of the notion of "migration history". Indeed, by combining the questions about habitual place of residence, birthplace and place of residence five years before the census, it is possible to generate the following typology: (i) non-migrant: a person whose habitual place of residence, place of residence five years ago, and birthplace are the same; (ii) former migrant: a person whose habitual place of residence is the same as the place of residence five years ago, but whose birthplace is different; (iii) recent migrant: a person whose habitual place of residence is different from the place of residence five years ago, and the latter is the same as the birthplace; (iv) return migrant: a person for whom the habitual place of residence is the same as the birthplace but different from place of residence five years ago; and (v) multiple migrant: a person whose habitual place of residence, place of residence five years ago, and birthplace are different.[12]

Below is a synthesis of this typology, combined once again with the ethnic variable (see table IV.14), which provides added value because there is very little empirical data on the migration histories of indigenous people (Del Popolo et al, 2007; ECLAC, 2007a). To capture the most information about migration and pinpoint the nature of returns, the typology corresponds to migration at the level of minor administrative divisions. The principal findings are the following:

- In all countries, the proportion of migrants (all types combined) is greater in the non-indigenous population, which supports the hypothesis that indigenous people have a greater territorial fixation, associated with their attachment to the land and the link between place, identity and ethnic community. A recent study (Del Popolo et al, 2007), confirms this finding, which persists in the majority of countries even when there are controls for the age and education composition of indigenous and non-indigenous groups.
- Return migration is the least frequent phenomenon in nearly every country, both among indigenous and non-indigenous populations. This is significant because it calls into question the hypothesis of a massive return of indigenous migrants, which is prevalent in the literature.
- Multiple migrants comprise a minority, suggesting that individuals who have left their birthplace are not very likely to migrate again (at least in the five years preceding the census).

[12] Operationalized in REDATAM by Rodríguez (2004a), following the proposal of Villa (1991).

Table IV.14
MIGRATION TYPOLOGY COMBINING LIFETIME AND RECENT MIGRATION AT THE LEVEL OF MINOR ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISION (MIAD), ACCORDING TO ETHNICITY

Country and year	Ethnicity	Former direct migrants	Recent direct migrants	Multiple migrants	Return migrants	Non-migrants	Total
Bolivia, 2001	Indigenous	19.9	5.4	2.2	1.7	70.7	100
	Non-indigenous	21.7	5.3	2.3	2.0	68.7	100
Chile, 2002	Indigenous	31.8	6.3	7.2	2.3	52.4	100
	Non-indigenous	38.0	5.9	8.0	2.0	46.0	100
Costa Rica, 2000	Indigenous	16.0	3.5	2.5	1.1	76.8	100
	Non-indigenous	28.7	4.5	4.3	1.5	61.0	100
Ecuador, 2001	Indigenous	14.5	4.3	1.5	0.7	79.0	100
	Non-indigenous	28.0	4.7	3.1	1.1	63.1	100
Guatemala, 2002	Indigenous	8.9	2.5	0.9	2.2	85.5	100
	Non-indigenous	21.9	4.2	2.2	1.5	70.2	100
Mexico, 2000	Indigenous	6.3	1.8	0.4	0.7	90.9	100
	Non-indigenous	17.3	2.7	0.9	1.0	78.2	100
Honduras, 2000	Indigenous	9.5	2.0	0.6	0.5	87.3	100
	Non-indigenous	21.4	3.8	1.6	0.8	72.4	100
Panama, 2000	Indigenous	15.4	9.6	1.8	0.3	72.9	100
	Non-indigenous	25.2	9.4	2.4	0.8	62.2	100
Paraguay, 2002	Indigenous	17.4	3.8	1.7	1.7	75.5	100
	Non-indigenous	28.6	5.5	4.4	1.6	59.8	100

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, on the basis of special processing of census microdatabases.

I. Policy orientations

It is the duty of the State to guarantee the right to internal migration in the best possible conditions. It is also the responsibility of States to tackle the territorial discriminations that prompt outflows of population from disadvantaged areas. Any intervention aimed at either restricting migration or pressuring people into moving would be inadmissible, since this would be incompatible with each person's right to freely decide when and where to move within the country. A wide range of instruments is available to influence people's migratory decisions. The choice of which to use depends on various factors, including the type of migration in question.

1. Principles

To migrate is to exercise a human right, specifically the right to freely move about within the national territory, recognized in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Therefore, the primary role of public policies in this realm is to guarantee the exercise of this right under the best possible conditions (of information, for example), and to prevent discrimination against those who exercise it.

Although at first glance one might consider that this approach "promotes" migration —in line with a rather liberal political tradition prevailing in the United States (ILPES, 2007)— in fact it does not. The right that must be guaranteed includes the possibility of not migrating, that is, not being forced to move because of expulsive pressures generated by "territorial discrimination" (Diaz, 2007). Although policies cannot prevent expulsion factors altogether, they can work to ensure that the pressure does not infringe or undermine rights simply because of people's location. Policies can also combat the emergence of territorial poverty traps and the erosion of the territorial aspects of social cohesion.[13]

Public interest in migration does not just stem from States' obligation to guarantee the free exercise of human rights or the legitimate concern for territorial equity and for breaking cycles of poverty and population expulsion. Because migration is a decisive factor in the ways countries make use of their geography, and because these uses are relevant to national authorities and stakeholders for different reasons (economic, environmental, political, military, and others), migratory currents —an aggregate of myriad individual movements— require the attention of decision makers. In other words, authorities and other national stakeholders may have an interest in and a need to intervene in these flows to promote changes in population distribution patterns to make them more compatible or functional within the country's development strategy or model.

[13] These assertions are consistent with the ideas expressed recently by ILPES concerning development and regional equity (ILPES, 2007).

2. History

The objective of harmonizing the image that a society projects with the manner in which the population occupies the territory is nothing new in the region. In fact, as early as the era of the original civilizations, and more recently, between 1930 and 1980, this approach could be observed in public efforts to promote the development of the region through a wide range of interventions (ILPES, 2007; CELADE, 1984). After a period of questioning and a dearth of resources in the 1980s, the past 15 years have seen renewed interventions with respect to internal migration.

This is due to a combination of factors. One is the strategic impetus provided by the decentralization processes begun in the 1980s, in which subnational authorities expanded their functions and resources, and hence their importance. In this new scenario, there is a greater diversity of key players whose interests are affected by migratory flows, and the number of possible interventions has expanded. The most recent ILPES document on the subject asserts that "rather than a regional policy in keeping with the formula employed in the 20th century, a family of territorial policies [italicized in the original] should be implemented. These would include not only decentralization/federalism, but also local development and territorial competitiveness, land management and the regionalization of both comprehensive policies (on the environment, poverty, science and technology) and sectoral ones (on stimulating production and developing businesses)" (ILPES, 2007, pp. 105-106).

To be sure, it is not that local and regional governments have begun implementing specific internal migration programmes. What is different is that local and regional development processes are increasingly seen as the responsibility of these same communities and governments, whose proposals and efforts send specific signals —of attraction or rejection— to potential migrants.

Due to asymmetries of power and resources among the different subnational entities, this new scenario may lead to widening territorial gaps. As has already been demonstrated in this chapter, internal migration can contribute to this widening of territorial disparities, which is why programmes for the territorial redistribution of resources and selective public investments by the central government are needed to offset these initial asymmetries, even if only partially. In this regard, the increasingly important role of local stakeholders does not at all mean that national stakeholders are irrelevant. Furthermore, the possibility of competition between subnational entities opens the doors to the formation of alliances and joint efforts by weaker territories, which should also be promoted and perhaps coordinated with central support (ILPES, 2007).

Another important factor is the evaluation of the results of prior interventions. At least two major types of intervention failed in the past: colonization programmes and policies to promote the retention of the rural population. The former involved high financial costs, had adverse environmental impacts, were difficult to sustain over time, and were questioned on the grounds of human rights (both those of the colonists and those of the native population in colonized territories). Although some initiatives of this type still exist, they are very limited and are governed by much stricter human rights and environmental criteria.

On the other hand, all measures and programmes aimed at retaining the rural population seem to have been futile. In fact, the events of the last 20 years tend to support an assertion that was frequently heard in the middle of the last century: although the modernization of the countryside can greatly increase farm productivity, it is difficult to increase the retention of rural inhabitants. What is more, agricultural modernization may serve to expel the rural population and attract more skilled individuals from cities or temporary workers —also primarily urban in many countries— for labour-intensive activities. For all of the above reasons, a recent study concludes that attempts to stop migration from the countryside to the city are futile (UNFPA, 2007).

This conclusion does not reflect a lack of concern for the rural population, which should be given special attention in light of their inferior socioeconomic conditions. On the contrary, it demonstrates that even when living conditions in the countryside are improved there is no guarantee that the population will stay, since such improvements raise expectations for a better life, and in fact the city offers many more possibilities for success.

Experience shows, on the other hand, that some trends thought to be inexorable —such as the growing concentration of population in the principal city— have fallen off, largely due to a shift in the direction of migratory flows. Although this would appear to point to the effectiveness of the numerous policies, programmes and measures implemented since the 1960s to bring about population deconcentration, that is a much-debated issue and there are few suitable methodologies for arriving at solid conclusions (UNFPA, 2007; Rodríguez, 2004a). In any case, the fatalism of the 1980s has given way to a

renewed confidence in the possibility of affecting internal migratory flows and the feasibility of influencing tendencies that were previously considered immutable.

A third consideration is the fact that decision makers have gradually become more familiar with the new scenario in terms of the distribution and movements of the region's population, arising out of the diversity and complexity of flows and the gradual shift from rural-to-urban migration towards flows between and within cities. In a region where three in four people live in urban areas and one in three live in a city of more than 1 million inhabitants (Guzmán et al, 2006), there is no doubt that these movements involve the largest numbers of people and will probably become increasingly predominant in the future.

3. Contemporary situation, strategies and challenges

The diversity of current internal migration increases the range of policies, programmes and measures available to deal with the issue. This situation also calls for greater knowledge, precision and judgement among policymakers, who must choose how to intervene based on the type of migration they are attempting to influence. Any such strategy should always adhere to the principle of combining the exercise of the right to migrate within a country in the best possible conditions, on the one hand, with the struggle against territorial discrimination that leads to poverty traps, on the other.

The four pillars of strategies for internal migration are: incentives for individuals and companies, geographical allocation of infrastructure and public services, use of instruments of territorial land-use planning and economic regeneration, and knowledge and management of the unforeseen migratory effects of various social policies.

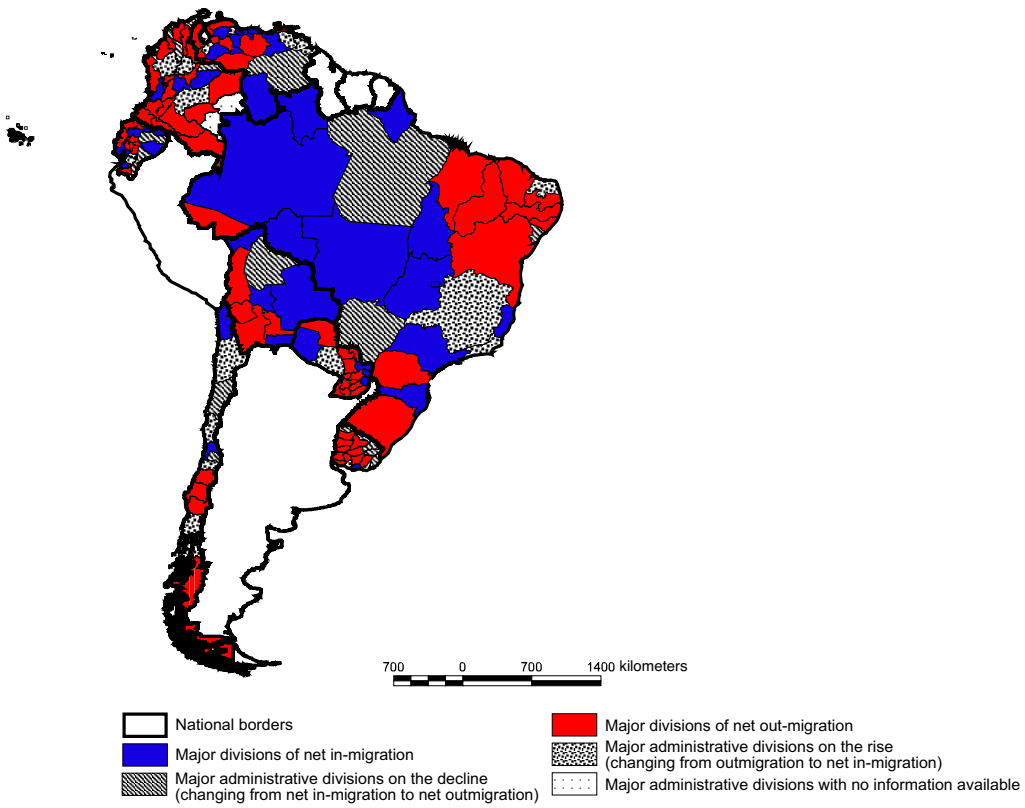
Highly illustrative examples of the above are urban regeneration and resettlement programmes in central areas. To attract immigrants into city centres, decision-makers and technical experts have at their disposal a huge repertoire of economic (subsidies), social (service location) and administrative instruments (amendment of land-use regulations). There is, however, a negative side to this advantage, as these instruments were not designed to influence intra-metropolitan migration, but to organize the city and optimize its functioning (and these remain high-priority strategic objectives). Therefore, if the migratory forces are very strong, using these instruments to counteract them may generate imbalances that eventually result in costs for the city and its inhabitants (rising land prices, overcrowding, congestion, urban sprawl, residential segregation, etc.). As is often the case, having policy instruments is one thing, implementing them with no negative side-effects quite another.

While specific policies to halt advancing urbanization or rural-to-urban migration have proved unsuccessful (not to mention ill-advised and plain wrong according to many experts (UNFPA, 2007)), many countries would nonetheless like to redirect migratory flows between cities. According to recent studies (ILPES, 2007; UNFPA, 2007; Cohen, 2006; Guzmán et al., 2007; Davis and Henderson, 2003), the authorities of countries that consider the population to be overly concentrated in the main city perceive a solid, dense and diversified urban network as being conducive to national development. However, as mentioned previously, there is an ongoing debate on the effectiveness of programmes implemented to reduce such concentration. The natural idea of promoting some cities to the detriment (if only by omission) of others must pass several tests: to be of benefit to national development, to be consistent with or at least not contradict (national and global) market-based economic buoyancy, to be acceptable to all local stakeholders, and to respect individual rights. There are clearly many sources of limitations on the discretionary nature of public action in this domain.

Lastly, it is worth highlighting those public policies that are formulated without consideration for the mobility of the population. These include housing and transport policies, which have direct and often mechanical consequences on changes of residence (particularly within cities or between cities and their surrounding areas). These effects must be taken into account when formulating such policies. Going one step further, they could even be devised to have a certain impact on migration and mobility, obviously without neglecting their natural objectives of providing good-quality connections and living environments for the population.

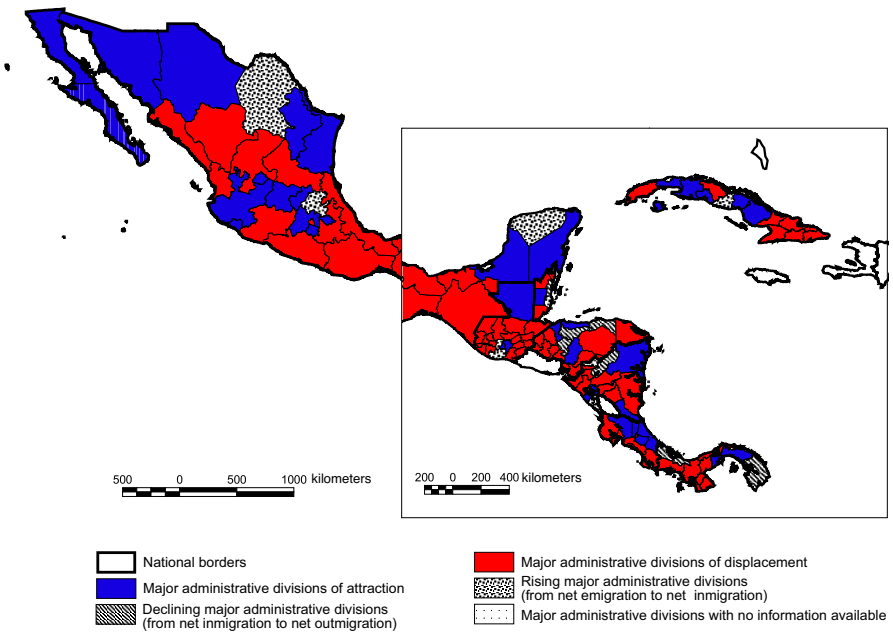
ANNEX

Map IV.1
SOUTH AMERICA (SELECTED COUNTRIES): MAJOR ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISION BY MIGRATORY STATUS (CENSUS ROUNDS 1990 AND 2000)



Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, on the basis of reviewing census cards and the database on Internal Migration in Latin America and the Caribbean (MIALC) [online database] http://www.eclac.cl/migracion/migracion_interna/ and information provided by the countries.
Note: The boundaries and names shown on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the United Nations.

Map IV.2
CENTRAL AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (SELECTED COUNTRIES): MAJOR ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISION BY MIGRATORY STATUS (CENSUS ROUNDS 1990 AND 2000)



Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, on the basis of reviewing census cards and the database on Internal Migration in Latin America and the Caribbean (MIALC) [online database] http://www.eclac.cl/migracion/migracion_interna/ and information provided by the countries.
Note: The boundaries and names shown on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the United Nations.

Chapter V

Social agenda

Public policies and health programmes for indigenous peoples in Latin America

Introduction

The emergence of an organized indigenous movement and a human rights framework for public policy has led to the recognition of indigenous peoples as holders of collective rights.

The rights-based approach - as a coherent system of principles and guidelines applicable to development policies - establishes frameworks for defining the content and orientation of such policies, as well as influencing policymaking and policy implementation. Certain cultural practices and political and legal frameworks that facilitate or promote discrimination against given individuals or groups (women, indigenous peoples or other ethnic groups) have been found to act as social exclusion mechanisms by causing or contributing to poverty (Abramovich, 2006, p.37). Behind the supposedly universal treatment for indigenous peoples, pre-existing inequalities have been shown to be reproduced and expressed in marginalization, exclusion and, in the case of health, in more precarious conditions due to difficulties of access and the low quality and inappropriateness of health services. There is therefore an urgent need to incorporate the right-based approach for indigenous peoples into health programmes and policies, as well as to mainstream the dimension and make more decisive progress towards ratifying international instruments and developing legislation on indigenous peoples, as befits their status as holders of collective rights.

In the light of the above, this chapter continues the analysis of health programmes and policies in Latin America that was started in the Social Panorama of Latin America 2005 and the study of the new and diverse realities of indigenous peoples in the Social Panorama of Latin America 2006. The assessment of public policies and health programmes targeting indigenous peoples in Latin America is based on information provided by 16 countries in response to a survey sent out by ECLAC on the subject. Other relevant inputs included the results of the Workshop-Seminar "Indigenous people in Latin America: health policies and programmes, what progress has been made?", held at the ECLAC headquarters on 25 and 26 June 2007. Both the assessment and the seminar were held as part of a project funded by the Government of France.[1] Annex V.1 includes a list of countries and

[1] A joint project by the Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) - Population Division of ECLAC and the Government of France: Project on Advances in Policies and Programmes for Indigenous Peoples of Latin America since the Implementation of the International Decade for Indigenous Peoples (FRA/06/02).

institutions that replied to the survey and questionnaire sent out. The Pan American Health Organization (PAHO) also provided supplementary information from the assessment carried out in 2004 as part of the International Decade of the World's Indigenous People (1995-2004).

The first section deals with the minimum standards in terms of indigenous peoples' rights and stresses that, despite advances made in terms of legislation, public policy nonetheless needs to tackle the challenge of moving forward with the enforcement of the agreements concerned. Indeed, there is an ongoing structural inequity that, in the sphere of health, is reflected in less favourable morbidity and mortality indicators for indigenous peoples. They also have less access to health care and the care provided is not culturally appropriate. In addition, indigenous peoples have low levels of participation and representation in the policies and programmes that affect them.

The second section acknowledges that health sector reforms, combined with progress in terms of legislation, foster conditions that are more conducive to the incorporation of health programmes and policies targeting indigenous peoples. Most countries have therefore implemented measures in this regard, although the situations vary considerably throughout the region. These differing situations are then described, along with the main achievements to date and challenges that remain pending. The following two key aspects are identified: indigenous participation and management in health programmes and policies; and the availability of information needed to design, implement and assess any measures introduced.

The information presented is then used as a basis for some guidelines and recommendations aimed at improving health programmes and policies targeting indigenous peoples and at moving forward with enforcing their rights.

Lastly, the international social agenda provides details of meetings and agreements on social matters within the framework of the United Nations system, and more specifically the tenth session of the Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean, held in Quito, Ecuador, from 6 to 9 August 2007.

A. Indigenous peoples and the right to health: juridical advances and public policy implications

In Latin America, the emergence of indigenous peoples' movements as political actors (in democracies more conducive to the creation of pluricultural States) has resulted in progress in terms of the recognition of their rights. International human rights instruments can be used as a basis for a set of minimum health standards: the right to the highest level of physical and mental health by means of appropriate, quality and non-discriminatory access; the right to integral indigenous health, including the use, strengthening and control of traditional medicine and the protection of territories as life spaces; and the right to participate in the design, implementation, management, administration and assessment of health programmes and policies, with the emphasis on the autonomy of resources. These standards generate new State obligations in terms of legislation and public policy. Although only the constitutions of Ecuador, Mexico and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela recognize the collective health rights of indigenous peoples, some progress has been made in this area of legislation in most countries. Despite this, there remains a gap between the official recognition of the health rights of indigenous peoples and the effective enforcement of those rights. The indigenous population therefore has a less favourable epidemiological profile than the non-indigenous population.

The emergence of indigenous peoples as political actors and their rights agenda are not exclusive to Latin America, but rather part of a worldwide process under way since the end of the Cold War and just one of a range of struggles for human rights in a globalized and multicultural world (ECLAC, 2007a). In this sense, the active participation of indigenous organizations has resulted in a consensus concerning two elements of human rights doctrine: (i) the need for a special guarantee to protect generally applicable fundamental freedoms and rights, and (ii) the recognition and positivization of specific collective rights, leading to the establishment of standards of rights for indigenous peoples. In other words, this represents the equal enjoyment of human rights and the simultaneous right to constitute different collectives (ECLAC, 2007a). In this context, the last 20 years have seen Latin American States gradually recognize the rights of indigenous peoples within their national legislations and constitutions.

A minimum standard for the rights of indigenous peoples is enshrined in the Convention Concerning Indigenous and Tribal Peoples in Independent Countries of the International Labour Organization (ILO Convention No. 169) approved in 1989 and in the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples, which was approved by the General Assembly on 20 September 2007. Article No. 3 of the Declaration states that: "Indigenous peoples have the right of self– determination. By virtue of that right they freely determine their political status

and freely pursue their economic, social and cultural development" (United Nations, 2007c), and a set of specific collective rights are recognized for indigenous peoples on the basis of this *jus cogens* principle of human rights (ECLAC, 2007a).[2]

The rights-based approach to public policy now provides a conceptual framework that is accepted by the international community as one that guides the process of formulating, implementing and assessing policies. It also serves as a guide for international cooperation, both in terms of the obligations of donor governments and those of recipient governments, and also to define the level of participation and the local and international mechanisms for monitoring and accountability (Abramovich, 2006).

1. Health rights of indigenous peoples: minimum standards and main dimensions

Human rights have resulted in a body of juridical rules (international declarations, conventions and treaties) aimed at promoting and protecting those rights. The following international instruments make explicit mention of the right to health: the Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948, the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights of 1966 (ICESCR) and the Additional Protocol to the American Convention on Human Rights in the Area of Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (Protocol of San Salvador) that entered into force in 1999.[3] Article 12 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) stipulates the right of everyone to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of physical and mental health and that the States Parties shall take steps to achieve the full realization of this right. Article 10 of the Protocol of San Salvador includes a series of measures relating to primary care, coverage, extension of the benefits of health services to all individuals subject to the State's jurisdiction, immunization, prevention and treatment of disease, health education and satisfaction of the health needs of the most vulnerable groups. This right is also enshrined by WHO in the World Health Declaration adopted by the World Health Assembly in 1998, which describes health as a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of illness or infirmity.

These instruments form the foundation for designing public policies aimed at ensuring that indigenous peoples exercise their right to health as citizens. Given the new sociopolitical context, the major challenge for health policies is to recognize, promote, protect and guarantee health care in keeping with the concepts and practices of the health-illness-healing process of indigenous peoples, to the extent that this constitutes a specific collective right.

In this sense, it is vital for policies and programmes to integrate the concept of indigenous health that transcends the internationally accepted definition of the World Health Organization (WHO) to holistically incorporate elements of spirituality, collectivity and the close bond with the ecosystem. For instance, the concept of *kümelkalen* (well-being) of the Mapuche in Chile, whereby individuals are in balance with themselves and with their peers and families (their "nearest and dearest"), as well as being in equilibrium with their *lof* or own territorial unit, their social, cultural, political, environmental, territorial, religious and cosmic environment (Quidel, 2001). In this

[2] In addition, the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (1965), ratified by all countries in Latin America, commits States to prohibiting and bringing racial discrimination to an end and guaranteeing rights to public health, medical care, social security and social services without discrimination of race, colour or national or ethnic origin. The Convention on Biological Diversity (1992), in article 8 (j), states that Parties shall, "subject to its national legislation, respect, preserve and maintain knowledge, innovations and practices of indigenous and local communities embodying traditional lifestyles relevant for the conservation and sustainable use of biological diversity and promote their wider application with the approval and involvement of the holders of such knowledge, innovations and practices and encourage the equitable sharing of the benefits arising from the utilization of such knowledge, innovations and practices".

[3] The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights of 1966 (ICESCR) has been ratified by the following countries: Argentina, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guyana, Honduras, Jamaica, Panama, Peru and Uruguay. The following countries acceded to the Covenant: Barbados, Bolivia, Brazil, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Grenada, Mexico, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Suriname and Trinidad and Tobago. The Protocol of San Salvador was ratified by: Argentina, Bolivia, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Ecuador, Guatemala, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay, and acceded to by Brazil, Colombia and Suriname.

way, *kutran*, or illness, is a result of transgressing the *ad mapu* or order that governs the universe.

The exercise by indigenous peoples of their right to health is linked to the exercise of other rights, hence the importance of controlling their territories and maintaining their ecosystems. In this regard, the Special Rapporteur on the situation of human rights and fundamental freedoms of indigenous people points out that extractive activities, cash crops and unsustainable consumer patterns have generated climate change, widespread pollution and environmental degradation. These phenomena have had a particularly serious impact on indigenous peoples, whose way of life is closely linked to their traditional relationship with their lands and natural resources, and has become a new form of forced eviction of indigenous peoples from their ancestral territories, while increasing the levels of poverty and disease. His most recent report presented to the Human Rights Council states that "although sundry governments have adopted social policies with the aim of "closing the gap" as regards the disparities in human development indicators between indigenous and non-indigenous peoples, the results have thus far been meagre" (United Nations, 2007b).

The Special Rapporteur on the right of everyone to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of physical and mental health carried out missions to Latin American countries and found situations in which indigenous peoples' health rights had been threatened as a result of the invasion of their territories and inequitable access to goods and services of the State (including cultural ones) (United Nations, 2005c). His report included a series of recommendations emphasizing, inter alia, the participation of indigenous groups in policies and programmes and in the production of information aimed at indigenous communities.

Notwithstanding the recognition of the interdependent and indivisible nature of human rights, box V.1 gives details of the articles referring to the health rights of indigenous peoples within the various international instruments.

Box V.1
THE RIGHT TO HEALTH OF INDIGENOUS PEOPLES IN VARIOUS INTERNATIONAL INSTRUMENTS

Article 7 (2) of Convention No. 169 of the International Labour Organization (ILO) stipulates that: "The improvement of the conditions of life and work and levels of health and education of the peoples concerned, with their participation and co-operation, shall be a matter of priority in plans for the overall economic development of areas they inhabit. Special projects for development of the areas in question shall also be so designed as to promote such improvement."

There is also a special section given over to social security and health (part V). Article 24 states that "Social security schemes shall be extended progressively to cover the peoples concerned, and applied without discrimination against them", while article 25 specifies "Governments shall ensure that adequate health services are made available to the peoples concerned, or shall provide them with resources to allow them to design and deliver such services under their own responsibility and control, so that they may enjoy the highest attainable standard of physical and mental health; health services shall, to the extent possible, be community-based. These services shall be planned and administered in co-operation with the peoples concerned and take into account their economic, geographic, social and cultural conditions as well as their traditional preventive care, healing practices and medicines; the health care system shall give preference to the training and employment of local community health workers, and focus on primary health care while maintaining strong links with other levels of health care services; the provision of such health services shall be co-ordinated with other social, economic and cultural measures in the country." According to article 30 "Governments shall adopt measures appropriate to the traditions and cultures of the peoples concerned, to make known to them their rights and duties, especially in regard to labour, economic opportunities, education and health matters, social welfare and their rights deriving from this Convention. If necessary, this shall be done by means of written translations and through the use of mass communications in the languages of these peoples."

In 1989, the Organization of American States (OAS) asked the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights (IACHR) to draft a legal instrument on the rights of indigenous peoples. The Commission gathered comments from governments, indigenous organizations, intergovernmental organizations and experts and, in 1997, approved the draft American Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples, which is still in the process of being reviewed and approved by the General Assembly of OAS. Article XII on health and well-being states that "Indigenous peoples have the right to legal recognition and practice of their traditional medicine, treatment, pharmacology, health practices and promotion, including preventive and rehabilitative practices; indigenous peoples have the right to the protection of vital medicinal plants, animal and mineral in their traditional territories; indigenous peoples shall be entitled to use, maintain, develop and manage their own health services, and they shall also have access, on an equal basis, to all health institutions and services and medical care accessible to the general population; the states shall provide the necessary means to enable the indigenous peoples to eliminate such health conditions in their communities

Box V.1 (concluded)

which fall below international accepted standards for the general population."

The United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples refers to economic, social and cultural rights, including the right to health, and article 23 establishes that "Indigenous peoples have the right to determine and develop priorities and strategies for exercising their right to development. In particular, indigenous peoples have the right to be actively involved in developing and determining health, housing and other economic and social programmes affecting them and, as far as possible, to administer such programmes through their own institutions. According to article 24 "Indigenous peoples have the right to their traditional medicines and to maintain their health practices, including the conservation of their vital medicinal plants, animals and minerals. Indigenous individuals also have the right to access, without any discrimination, to all social and health services; indigenous individuals have an equal right to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of physical and mental health. States shall take the necessary steps with a view to achieving progressively the full realization of this right."

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC).

It is possible to identify specific rights in the area of health related to each of the five dimensions of the minimum standard for indigenous peoples' rights (ECLAC, 2007a) (see table V.1).

Table V.1
SPECIFIC RIGHTS IN THE AREA OF HEALTH RELATED TO EACH OF THE FIVE DIMENSIONS OF THE MINIMUM STANDARD FOR INDIGENOUS PEOPLES' RIGHTS

Five dimensions of the minimum standard for indigenous peoples' rights	Specific rights in the area of health
Right to non-discrimination	Right to access health care
Right to social development and well-being	Right to highest attainable level of physical and mental health by means of adequate and quality access
Right to cultural integrity	Right to use an indigenous language; right to apply the concept of integral health and well-being; right to the use, strengthening and control of traditional medicine
Right of ownership, use, control and access of land, territories and resources	Right to conserve plants, animals, minerals and territorial spaces of vital interest for the health-illness-healing process
Right of political participation	Right to participate in the design, responsibility and social control (resources) of health programmes and policies

The PAHO Initiative on the Health of the Indigenous Peoples of the Americas (SAPIA) sets out the following principles: (i) the need for a holistic approach to health and the right to self–determination; (ii) respect for and revitalization of indigenous cultures; (iii) reciprocity in relations; and (iv) the right to systematic participation by indigenous peoples.

As for traditional medicine, in recent years WHO has been defining its role and remit through strategies for policies, safety, effectiveness, quality, access and rational use of traditional, complementary and alternative medicine (Pedrero, 2003). WHO proposes to: (i) integrate this type of medicine into national health systems through the development and implementation of national programmes and policies; (ii) promote the safety, effectiveness and quality of this type of medicine by applying quality standards and rules; (iii) increase the availability and accessibility of this type of medicine, especially for poor people; and (iv) therapeutically promote the appropriate use of relevant traditional medicine by suppliers and consumers.

The public policy challenge currently facing States is to tackle the unfavourable health situation of indigenous peoples and the structural inequity they suffer by adopting a rights-based approach that takes account of the standard for indigenous peoples' rights, which can be defined as follows: (i) they are peoples' rights, in other words they are attributes of social entities that go beyond individuals and collectivities; (ii) they are made up of political and development rights, as the two kinds are mutually dependent; and (iii) they exist independently of their recognition on the part of the State (Castañeda, 2006). The new obligations of the State can therefore be categorized as follows: obligations to respect, protect, guarantee and promote the right in question (Abramovich, 2006), by establishing mechanisms for the enforcement and assessment of compliance with that right.

2. Constitutional framework and legislation concerning the health of indigenous peoples

The emergence of indigenous movements as active political actors and their demands for a new type of relationship with the State, as well as the return to democracy in Latin American countries, combined to generate a trend toward multicultural constitutionalism (Van Cott, 2000). The constitutional reforms initiated in the 1990s recognize the pluriethnic and pluricultural nature of States. Most of the region's countries incorporated the collective rights of indigenous peoples into these reforms (to a lesser or greater extent) (Barié, 2003). These rights usually refer to the ownership, protection and use of territories (and in some cases to forms of social and political organization), and to the recognition and protection of the use of indigenous languages. According to the detailed analysis carried out by Barié (2003), the most advanced constitutions in the recognition and guarantee of the collective rights of indigenous peoples are (in this order) Ecuador, Colombia, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela and Paraguay.

Constitutional reforms tend to give international human rights law the same status as the Constitution, or in some cases rank it above the Constitution.[4] This status of international law at the national level determines its effectiveness and its supremacy over domestic legislation when the relevant courts are asked to protect human rights.

Constitutional advances have gone hand in hand with the development of specific legislation, although the picture is far from uniform at the regional level. According to the Indigenous Legislation Index, constructed by IDB, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia and Colombia have the maximum scores (between 70% and 80%), while Chile, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras and Uruguay score below 50% (IDB, 2006). Practically all Latin American constitutions recognize the right to health as part of the social rights established by States. However, only three countries (the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Ecuador and Mexico) explicitly acknowledge the right to health of indigenous peoples as separate collectivities, with the Ecuadoran Constitution being the most far-reaching in terms of recognition, respect, promotion and guarantee of the use of traditional medicine, knowledge systems and protection of sacred elements and places.[5]

The most significant advances have been in terms of national legislation, particularly in the last 10 years. Out of the 16 countries examined, the following 13 have some sort of specific legislation on health and indigenous peoples (or population): Argentina, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Guatemala, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama and Peru. This is mainly due to the health demands of indigenous peoples in terms of the accessibility, equity, suitability and comprehensiveness of culturally relevant health benefits (Cavieres, 2006). However, this legislation is not enough to guarantee a real exercise of health rights by indigenous peoples, as situations range from a recognition of the right to health as an individual good or the classification of indigenous peoples as priority groups, to legislation that recognizes and promotes collective rights (traditional medicine, participation and autonomy).

These differences in legislation can be seen in more detail in the IDB database on indigenous legislation (IDB, 2006),

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4 According to Henderson (2004), there are four models for the integration of international law in domestic legislation: (i) the supraconstitutional model, in which international human rights law can modify the Constitution (Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Guatemala, Honduras); (ii) the constitutional model, in which international human rights law is at the same level as the Constitution (Argentina, Brazil); (iii) the supralegal model, in which international human rights law is above national laws but cannot amend the Constitution (Colombia, El Salvador, Ecuador, Paraguay); and (iv) the legal model, in which human rights treaties have the same status as national law (United States, Uruguay).

5 Although the Constitutions of Guatemala and Nicaragua do not explicitly mention indigenous peoples, the former refers to communities (which can be interpreted as indigenous communities), while the latter refers to vulnerable sectors of society, which could include ethnic communities (Castañeda, 2006). As for the Constitution of Ecuador (1998), article 44 stipulates that the State shall recognize, respect and promote the development of traditional and alternative medicine, while article 84 establishes that a series of collective rights of indigenous peoples shall be recognized and guaranteed, including their systems, knowledge and practice of traditional medicine, including the right to the protection of ritualistic and sacred places, plants, animals, mineral and ecosystems of vital interest from that perspective. In the Constitution of Mexico (2001), article 2 states that the authorities must ensure effective access to health services by expanding coverage of the national system, making proper use of traditional medicine and supporting indigenous nutrition through food programmes, especially those targeting children. The Constitution of the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela declares that indigenous peoples have the right to integral health that takes account of their practices and cultures, and that the State shall recognize their traditional medicine and complementary therapies, subject to bioethical principles (article 122, 2001).

which includes some aspects of the minimum standard of indigenous health rights, such as free and preferential access, traditional practices, protection of medicinal plants, health care in accordance with their customs, indigenous participation in the management and promotion of the health system and autonomy in the management of health resources. In terms of the regionwide picture (see table V.2), Bolivia is the only country to have legislated on all dimensions of the standard, while the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Colombia and Ecuador have done so on five out of six dimensions, and they have also ratified ILO Convention No. 169, thereby making its provisions binding. It is no coincidence that these are the countries where national indigenous organizations have long been gaining strength.[6] At the other extreme, Chile, El Salvador and Paraguay have practically no specific legislation in this area, although Paraguay has ratified ILO Convention No. 169.

Generally speaking, this legislation guarantees access to health care for indigenous groups (see table V.2), which ties in with the way in which health-sector reforms over the last 20 years have sought to ensure basic universal coverage, with the emphasis on quality care (ECLAC, 2006a). In Bolivia in recent years, a series of laws and decrees have been adopted to provide indigenous peoples with basic health benefits, such as basic indigenous and native health insurance (2002) and universal mother and child insurance (SUMI) (2002), with article 8 of the corresponding regulations stating the importance of ensuring that health care is in keeping with the practices and customs of indigenous peoples (see annex V.2). Similarly, in Colombia decree 1.811 of 1990 guarantees free health care for indigenous communities, along with institutional adaptation and the relevant human resources training, in a context of respect for indigenous culture (see annex V.2).

Significant progress has been made in the recognition of traditional indigenous medicine. As mentioned previously, this is one of the dimensions of the collective right to health that, along with the individual right of access, forms the basis for intercultural dialogue (Cunningham, 2002). By the late 1990s, Bolivia was about the only country to have made moves towards legislating in this area, although now most countries in the region have laws that recognize traditional health practices (see table V.2 and annex V.2). In Bolivia, ministerial resolution 0231 of 1987 establishes regulations for the practice of traditional indigenous medicine; in Peru, the 1997 General Health Act recognizes traditional indigenous medicine and a Supreme Decree in 2003 established the National Health Institute, which includes an Intercultural Health Centre (CENSI) to promote, inter alia, a new appreciation of this form of medicine. The law on indigenous peoples and communities adopted by the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela in 2005 recognizes the use of traditional indigenous medicine and therapeutic practices for protection, development, prevention and recovery in terms of integral health. The law also considers the incorporation of traditional indigenous medicine and the therapeutic practices of indigenous peoples and communities into the services of the national health system, as well as the relevant training of human resources. This shows that the content of such specific legislation varies enormously: the law in Argentina merely stipulates compliance with the guidelines of the World Health Organization (WHO) in terms of traditional indigenous medicine (law 23.302, 1985), while Colombia's considerable legislation on this matter recognizes the use and practice of traditional medicines, calls for it to be promoted and has resulted in regulations in this regard (IDB, 2006).

It should be pointed out that the right of indigenous peoples to use their own medicine and to maintain and strengthen their health practices is closely linked to intellectual property rights. The safeguarding of traditional medicine and each of its components (traditional indigenous healers, traditional knowledge and natural resources) is one of the basic demands of indigenous peoples in terms of their intellectual rights (WHO, 2002; Huenchuán, 2004). This is a key issue worthy of attention that goes beyond the scope of this chapter. What should, however, be mentioned is that the demands for a specific protection status have not been fully met, and there are two viewpoints on the issue. From the point of view of public health rights, traditional medicine can be used as an input for pharmaceutical research, but also as a source of effective treatment in its own right. This interest is therefore based on how to best use the potential of traditional medicine to provide feasible treatments. From the perspective of indigenous peoples' intellectual property rights, traditional medicine (as other aspects of their heritage) must be protected and therefore requires a specific system for the protection, control and self-management of the collective property

[6] At present, 12 of the 16 countries examined have a national or regional organization that brings together grass-root associations and the various indigenous peoples of the country or region. Some of the first national organizations include the Colombian National Indigenous Organization (ONIC, 1982); the Confederation of Indigenous Nationalities of Ecuador (CONAIE, 1986); and the National Council of Venezuelan Indians (CONIVE, 1989). Long-standing regional organization include the Confederation of Indigenous People of Bolivia) (CIDOB, 1982) and the Confederation of the Nationalities Indigenous to the Ecuadorian Amazon (CONFENIAE).

Table V.2
LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): SPECIAL LEGISLATION ON THE HEALTH OF INDIGENOUS PEOPLES

Countries	Free and preferential access	Traditional practices	Protection of medicinal plants	Health care in keeping with customs	Indigenous participation in the management and promotion of the health system	Autonomy in the management of health resources
ILO Convention No. 169 ratified						
Argentina [b]	X	X	[a]	X	X	---
Bolivia	X	X	X	X	X	X
Brazil	X	X	[a]	X	X	---
Colombia	X	X	[a]	X	X	X
Costa Rica	X	[a]	X [c]	[a]	[a]	
Ecuador	X	X	X	[a]	X	X
Guatemala	X	X	[a]	[a]	[a]	---
Honduras	[a]	[a]	[a]	[a]	[a]	---
Mexico [b]	X	X	X	[a]	[a]	---
Paraguay	[a]	[a]	[a]	[a]	[a]	---
Peru	X	X	X	[a]	X	---
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [b]	X	X	[a]	X	X	X
Not ratified						---
Chile	X	---	---	X	---	---
El Salvador	---	---	---	---		---
Nicaragua	X	X [c]	---	X [c]	X [c]	X
Panama	X	X	X [c]	X	X [c]	X

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of Inter–American Development Bank (IDB), "Databank on Indigenous Legislation" [online] 2004, http://www.iadb.org/sds/ind/site_3152_s.htm.
[a] In application of the ILO Convention concerning Indigenous and Tribal Peoples in Independent Countries (ILO Convention No. 169).
[b] Some provinces and states have additional legislation.
[c] Only in indigenous territories (reserve, autonomous regions, *comarcas*).

associated with that heritage. In other words, the aim is to make advances in protecting traditional knowledge relating to medicine by means of *sui generis* systems of rights or other ways of protecting indigenous intellectual rights, indigenous territories and their biological diversity, as well as preserving indigenous cultural reproduction systems that underlie their healing knowledge, practices and innovations.

Tentative legislative progress is being made in terms of participation and autonomy in health matters, which should be part of every stage from policy and programme design to the administration and management of resources within a rights-based approach. The legislation of Argentina, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica and Peru promotes indigenous participation in health matters (see table V.2 and annex V.2).[7] This participation is promoted by the creation of indigenous institutions, such as the Council for Indigenous Participation of the National Institute for Indigenous Affairs (INAI) in Argentina (resolutions 2004 and 2006), or the National Health Council of Indigenous Peoples (CONASPI) in Costa Rica (2006). In Argentina, the aim of the Council for Indigenous Participation is to create a new space for dialogue and participation for the various representatives of the country's indigenous peoples. In Costa Rica, the function of the National Health Council of Indigenous Peoples is to advise the Ministry of Health on the formulation of public health policy strategies for indigenous peoples. In Colombia, law 691 and decree 1.416 promote and regulate the participation of ethnic groups in the general social security system and other health service providers. The Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia, Colombia and Ecuador all have legislation on the autonomy of health resources, while the laws of Nicaragua and Panama make explicit reference to autonomous regions and *comarcas*, respectively.

To date, there have been different levels of progress made in the recognition of indigenous peoples' rights in international law and the constitutions and legislations of Latin American countries. Behind these changes, however, the situation is critical: there is a lack of compliance with the rules in force and the rights of indigenous peoples

[7] In Mexico, some specific legislation exists in individual states, such as the health act of the state of Chiapas.

continue to be violated (Stavenhagen, 2002). A document by the United Nations (2006b) pointed out that differences in implementation of the rules were attributable to the legislative formalities themselves, in the membership of legislatures, in the scant representation and participation of indigenous people in legislative work, in the lack of consultation of indigenous peoples and in the biases and prejudices against indigenous rights. The problem is not only one of legislating on indigenous issues, but also of doing so with the indigenous people themselves. It is relevant that there are no adequate mechanisms for monitoring the effectiveness of indigenous legislation and assessing its application in the day-to-day practice of public administration and daily society (Castañeda, 2006).

3. Public institutions relating to indigenous peoples and health

The indigenous movement, along with the strengthening of the juridical framework, has created and opened institutional spaces (Stavenhagen, 2004) that have in turn encouraged the setting up of government institutions responsible for indigenous matters. A regional overview shows that these institutions conceal different realities in at least two dimensions: the level of political participation of indigenous peoples and the institutional status achieved within the hierarchy. In the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, the institution responsible for indigenous matters has ministerial status (Ministry for Indigenous Affairs) (see annex 3). Such institutions are also attached to various departments, although most are linked to a ministry. Some such institutions function as decentralized public agencies and a few have operational, technical, budgetary and administrative autonomy, such as the Council for the Development of the Nationalities and Peoples of Ecuador (CODENPE) or the National Commission for the Development of Indigenous Peoples (CDI) in Mexico.

The aim of these institutions is to support and strengthen the integral development of indigenous peoples and promote their rights. One of their main functions is coordination between various sectors (including ministries of health), indigenous organizations and international cooperation. These institutions have evolved from a welfare stance (in which indigenous people were the subject of public policies) towards a recognition of indigenous peoples as holders of collective rights. Nonetheless, in practice the situation is delicate, partly because a lack of political, economic and administrative support means that most institutions have a limited capacity to make a real impact on the various public sectors (Fund for the Development of the Indigenous Peoples of Latin America and the Caribbean, 2004).

These institutions have also expanded into health. In 14 of the 16 countries examined, the ministry of health includes a body responsible for the health of indigenous peoples (the two exceptions are El Salvador and Paraguay). The status of such bodies varies, and this impacts their scope of action. They range from indigenous health programmes that have no institutional status but that influence other ministerial programmes (as in Argentina and Honduras), to an Office of the Under-Secretary of Traditional Medicine and Interculturalism in Bolivia (2006), which aims to promote a new appreciation of traditional medicine intercultural health programmes (see annex 3). The Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Ecuador and Mexico have national departments of indigenous health including traditional medicine, Panama has a technical secretariat on the same level, while Brazil and Chile have units responsible for indigenous health (see annex 3). One of the main problems faced by such institutions is the instability resulting from changes of political regime, which depends largely on the legal status of each institution (whether it is governed by decisions of the executive, parliament, judiciary or public administration).

B. Health programmes and policies for indigenous peoples: how much and in what way has progress been made?

Health sector reforms geared towards the equity, efficiency and quality of health services are conducive to furthering the application of indigenous health rights, with priority given to the active participation of the communities themselves. Countries fall into four groups when it comes to indigenous health policies: a large number of countries have a national indigenous peoples' plan; a second group has begun the process to devise and implement such a policy; a third group has an explicitly intercultural approach as part of their national health policies; and finally there are those countries that have no specific policies for indigenous peoples. An overview of such programmes shows a heterogeneous supply with two main trends: programmes specially designed to improve the health of indigenous peoples (particularly those that concentrate on specific aspects such as traditional medicine and human resources training); and regular programmes that are part of strategic or policy lines within health systems. Some of the achievements to date include the consolidation of differentiated health models and the improvement of the health conditions of indigenous peoples. There are also limitations, however, including the scarce availability of trained human resources, low levels of financing and a lack of continuity in the allocation of resources. Some programmes have successfully incorporated the participation of indigenous peoples in these processes, while other programmes need to make more progress in this area. The widespread lack of systematic information on the health situation and epidemiological profile of indigenous peoples is one of the main obstacles to defining health goals and assessing the results of enforcing their individual and collective rights.

Although the new juridical structure in place remains insufficient, the foundations are considered to have been laid for the next few years to see the battlefield shift from the formulation of laws to their implementation and enforcement. In other words, a new cycle should be based on institutional practice and the effective implementation of the legal framework (Stavenhagen, 2004). Just as the force of the indigenous movement gave rise to the progressive recognition of their collective rights, so it has resulted in the incorporation into State agendas of the need to devise special public policies in keeping with the needs and requirements of indigenous peoples.

The common denominator of indigenous peoples is the structural discrimination against them. Nonetheless, the fact that there are over 670 indigenous peoples with their own territorial, demographic and epidemiological realities means that the particular situation and status of each group needs to be considered individually (ECLAC, 2007a). There are

many movements campaigning for indigenous rights, and the possibility of success depends as much on the State system and national cultural policy as it does on their demographic weight and the geopolitical and economic value that the economic powers attach to their territories (ECLAC, 2007a). Generally speaking, indigenous peoples that make up the majority of a population and have long-standing indigenous organizations with political clout (as in Bolivia and Ecuador) seek to bring about transformations of the State and new plural democracies. On the other hand, indigenous peoples that form a demographic minority tend to call for autonomous regimes, as in countries including Chile, Colombia, Nicaragua and Panama (ECLAC, 2007a). As discussed below, State policies and programmes are in response to indigenous strategies, especially when programmes are territorially based with a wide participation. However, some State initiatives still tend to be designed and implemented without consideration for the heterogeneity of indigenous peoples and therefore continue to reproduce the welfare-based policies of the past based on a monocultural State.

1. Health sector reforms: is the outlook more favourable?

Health policies and programmes for indigenous peoples in Latin America should be analysed in relation to the expansion of the juridical framework of indigenous rights and to the health system reforms initiated in most of the region's countries from the 1980s (ECLAC, 2006a).

Indeed, most Latin American countries are restructuring their State health systems in terms of policies, programmes and service networks. In this context, priority has been given to the strategy of primary health care, based on the principles of universal coverage and accessibility in accordance with people's needs; individual and community commitment, participation and self-sustainment; intersectoral action for health; cost-effectiveness; and the right technology for the resources available (ECLAC, 2006a). One central aspect of this has been to promote the participation of users in the design of new models of care and management, as well as the incorporation of community and family medicine that emphasize communication between the individual, the family and culture, on the one hand, and scientific medicine, on the other (PAHO, 2002). These new approaches are based on the need to adapt public policy in order to generate cross-cutting policies geared towards guaranteeing the rights of specific groups that suffer from structural exclusion (including indigenous peoples) (ECLAC, 2006a). In this sense, primary health care is one of the fundamental strategies for achieving the Millennium Development Goals, as it strengthens health systems and emphasizes equity and social participation in health matters (PAHO, 2002).

Reform processes aimed at achieving equitable, efficient and high-quality health services have therefore generated an environment more conducive to the development of new models of health care based on user participation and empowerment. In the case of indigenous peoples, this is an opportunity for progress in terms of implementing their collective rights, the minimum standard of which was discussed earlier in the chapter. What is more, the fact that Latin American countries have been hailed as pluriethnic and multicultural has been echoed in the health arena in the form of "medical pluralism", which has gradually recognized that biomedicine is just one of many health systems and medical practices. Health systems have their own etiological principles and diagnostic and therapeutic categories, and the key to their effectiveness lies within their own sociocultural context (Kleinman, 1980). This implies that no one system can meet all the health demands of a given population. In the context of primary health care strategies, it has been suggested that traditional medicine be used as a valid, efficient and cheaper medical resource to reduce the inequity suffered by indigenous peoples.

According to a regional progress report on health policies and programmes prepared by ECLAC in 2005, despite the implementation of health reforms aimed at achieving equitable, efficient and quality care, there remain three types of problem for indigenous peoples: (i) their health is worse than that of the non-indigenous population; (ii) they have inequitable access to health

services; and (iii) there is a limited supply of specific health services for indigenous peoples (ECLAC, 2006a). In the light of collective rights, other issues include the lack of cultural accessibility (or limited cultural integration of conventional health interventions) and scarce political participation in decisions that affect them as peoples. Solving these problems would involve developing an intercultural approach to health policies, which is a clear challenge for pluricultural States and new health care models and policies (ECLAC, 2006a).

2. Public health policies and indigenous peoples: concepts and regional situation

A public policy is the explicit manifestation of the commitment of the State and its institutions to respond to a given collective problem. With this in mind, a set of initiatives and guidelines are proposed, along with a juridical framework for their implementation. Aspects of the problem include: a public problem, a diagnosis, formulation of solutions and strategies, the necessary resources and subsequent implementation. Part of the process of policymaking is to establish a rule defining who is responsible for policy implementation. As for programmes, they are a concrete expression of pubic policy guidelines within the established juridical framework and include a coordinated set of concrete measures aimed at achieving objectives that can be assessed using indicators. Box V.2 describes the health policy for indigenous peoples in Brazil, along with its rules and programmes.

The problems faced by a public policy dealing with the health of indigenous peoples are threefold: (i) their complex epidemiological profile with excess mortality and higher levels of vulnerability and injury than the general population; (ii) inequitable access to health care and its limited cultural relevance; and (iii) the lack of political participation of indigenous peoples (ECLAC, 2006a; Montenegro & Stephens, 2006).

Box V.2
NATIONAL HEALTH CARE POLICY FOR INDIGENOUS PEOPLES IN BRAZIL

In Brazil, the national health care policy for indigenous peoples interlinks policy, rules and a programme. The aim of the policy is to guarantee comprehensive health care for indigenous peoples in accordance with the principles and rules of the Single Health System. The policy takes into account social, cultural, geographic, historical and political diversity, with a view to overcoming the factors that make this population more vulnerable and in worse health than the rest of the Brazilian population. It also recognizes the effectiveness of indigenous medicine and these peoples' cultural rights.

To achieve these objectives, a series of rules were established to formulate instruments for the planning, implementation, assessment and control of health care measures for indigenous peoples, including the organization of health care services for indigenous peoples into Special Indigenous Sanitary Districts (DSEI), the training of human resources to work in intercultural settings, the monitoring of health interventions geared towards indigenous peoples (including the creation of a Health Information System for Indigenous Peoples in Brazil (SIASI)) for surveillance and management purposes, the coordination of traditional indigenous health systems, the promotion and appropriate use of medicine, ethics for research and intervention, healthy environments, indigenous health protection and social control by the peoples themselves.

The Special Indigenous Sanitary Districts (DSEI) are a model of territorial service organization for a well-defined ethnic and cultural, geographic, demographic and administrative area, involving technical activities for the implementation of rationalized and proven health care measures. This model promotes and reorganizes health networks and practices by means of administrative and managerial activities needed for the provision of care with social control. The criteria used to define these districts are traditional territory, social relations, demographic distribution, operational logic, epidemiological profiles, availability of human resources, regional infrastructure and access for referrals to the Single Health System. There are currently 34 Special Indigenous Sanitary Districts covering a total of 3,751 villages. Every district has medical facilities in each village. A centre has also been set up for primary care and referrals to Indigenous Health Centres or the Single Health System.

In accordance with the series of rules that derive from the policy, the various programmes that exist include human resources training for interventions in an intercultural context, which is considered essential if health services are to meet the requirements of indigenous peoples and the

Box V.2 (concluded)

new technical, political and organizational realities. The aim of the programme is to train indigenous individuals as health agents, so that they can appropriate the technical resources and knowledge of western medicine, to be combined with their own range of traditional and non-traditional healing and cultural practices. This programme uses a participative methodology to promote intercultural communication as a way of boosting the mutual process of gaining knowledge.

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of Ministry of Health, Brazil, "Política nacional de atençao à saude dos povos indígenas", 2002.

The epidemiological profile of indigenous peoples is linked to their stage of demographic transition. Indigenous age structures are younger than among the non-indigenous population, as a result of higher fertility rates (ECLAC, 2007a). Many studies have shown that indigenous peoples have what is known as epidemiological accumulation, in other words a morbidity and mortality profile with ongoing and worsening diseases related to poverty and underdevelopment, such as communicable or nutritional diseases (including undernutrition, tuberculosis, diarrhoea and bronchopneumonia), along with a gradual increase in chronic and degenerative diseases associated with modern living (such as cancer, hypertension, diabetes and depression), as well as problems associated with urbanization such as violence, murder and accidents (Rojas & Shuqair, 1998). Although these characteristics are similar to other socioeconomically disadvantaged groups, the incidence of some diseases such as tuberculosis is even higher among indigenous peoples and the morbidity and mortality structure is also different (Oyarce & Pedrero, 2006; Montenegro & Stephens, 2006).

Recent data from Latin America confirms a persistent excess mortality, especially at young ages. Although there are considerable differences among countries, in Latin America the average mortality rate among indigenous children is 60% higher than among non-indigenous children (48 per 1,000 live births compared with 30 per 1,000 live births) (ECLAC, 2007a). The gap is even wider in terms of the probability of dying before the age of five, with excess mortality of 70% among indigenous peoples. The causes of death are mainly preventable, with undernutrition being one of the main examples. What is more, indigenous children who manage to survive are more likely to be undernourished than those in the non-indigenous population. Data from the demographic and health surveys show that, in Bolivia, Ecuador, Guatemala and Peru, the incidence of global and chronic undernutrition among children under the age of five is more than twice as high among the indigenous population (with chronic undernutrition of between 48% and 68%) than the non-indigenous population (with a rate of 23% to 37%). Although these results are associated with poverty and a greater indigenous presence in rural areas, there remain inequities between the two groups even after controlling for those factors (United Nations, 2005c).

In the case of infectious diseases, such as tuberculosis, there are considerable gaps even in countries with low rates of the disease such as Chile. Among the Aymara people treated by the health service in Arica, tuberculosis is six times more common than in the non-indigenous population (35.1 people in 100,000 compared with 6.3 people in 100,000) (Oyarce and Pedrero, 2006). According to survey data from Brazil, although the incidence of tuberculosis among indigenous peoples has dropped from 108.6 people in 100,000 in 2002 to 49.7 people in 100,000 in 2005, the nationwide average was still much lower at 24.2 people in 100,000, even in 2003.[8]

Data from the survey sent to 16 countries of the region suggest there are four groups of countries (see table V.3). The first group is made up of countries that have explicitly recognized that the health problems of indigenous peoples require a different approach and that have therefore formulated specific national policies to tackle them. A second group of countries is in the process of devising a specific national policy. The third group has a national health policy that explicitly incorporates an intercultural approach, while the fourth group has no specific policies for indigenous peoples. As shown in table V.3, countries with a national health policy for indigenous peoples form the largest group.

Many countries explicitly recognize these health policies for indigenous peoples as being part of the conceptual framework of an intercultural health model. Broadly speaking, interculturalism in health matters is understood as a collective process of negotiation and construction of meaning between social actors from different cultures around epistemologies and models of reality, life stages and cycles, the health-illness-healing

[8] Data correspond to the incidence of tuberculosis with positive baciloscopy.

process, concepts of person, time and space, and the quest for well-being by a people in a socially significant and clinically appropriate territory (Oyarce and Pedrero, 2007). Nonetheless, this process may be associated with different levels of interpretation and development within each of the existing policies. Similarly, the heterogeneous nature of indigenous peoples may also give rise to different intercultural health models.

Table V.3
LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): HEALTH POLICIES AND INDIGENOUS PEOPLES

Situation	Country
1. Countries with a national policy on health and indigenous peoples	Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama and Peru
2. Countries in the process of formulating such a national policy	Argentina and Colombia
3. Countries with no specific policy but with a cross-cutting intercultural approach in their national health policy	Guatemala and Honduras
4. Countries with no specific policy or approach for indigenous health	El Salvador and Paraguay

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of countries' replies to surveys.

In Bolivia and Ecuador, these policies are explicitly formulated in intercultural terms with a strong emphasis on traditional medicine, with the latter also being the case in the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela. In Brazil and Chile, the policies are defined in terms of health and indigenous peoples. In Brazil, the emphasis is on health care and services in indigenous territories (see box V.3). In Chile, the policy is aimed at developing a health model of indigenous peoples. In Peru, the indigenous health policy includes intercultural coordination and implementation by the National Intercultural Health Centre. The two main orientations in this area are: mainstreaming policies (as in Chile and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela) and territorial policies (as in Brazil, Costa Rica and Nicaragua).

The development of such policies is a recent phenomenon, with most dating from after the year 2000. An exhaustive assessment of these policies from a rights-based perspective involves reviewing an intercultural, integral and complementary approach to construct new knowledge that respects, promotes and protects the various meanings of indigenous life events and cycles within their particular worldview. This perspective forces biomedicine to break with its hegemonic logic and be open to other forms of knowledge in a context where indigenous cultural rights are increasingly recognized.

In terms of policymaking at the national level as included in the survey, the participation of indigenous peoples has tended to take the form of consultations, mostly at the stage of policy design (10 countries), and less so at the stage of defining content (9 countries) and policy implementation (7 countries). According to the survey, indigenous participation occurred at all three levels in the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Brazil, Costa Rica, Nicaragua and Peru. From this point of view, interculturalism needs to be part of a broader sociopolitical framework that recognizes that the relationship between indigenous culture and western culture is currently one where the former is subordinate to the latter. All actors involved in health dialogue, negotiation and planning must also participate in the acquisition of skills and abilities relevant to intercultural dialogue. One fundamental requirement is clearly the creation of democratic spaces in which indigenous peoples' own participatory and decision-making processes and dynamics are protected (PAHO/CELADE/Universidad de la Frontera, Chile (UFRO), 2007; Pedrero 2007; Castañeda, 2006). In practice, intercultural and integral health policies can only be developed if the collective rights of indigenous peoples are protected. Otherwise, these models could become yet another means of State domination (Boccara, 2007).

3. Programmes of, for and with indigenous peoples: passive recipients or rights-holders?

Although programmes are a concrete expression of public policy, the relationship between the two is not necessarily linear or sequential. A concrete problem usually gives rise to a specific programme, which is then institutionalized as a policy as the issue takes on national significance. In Chile, health programmes for indigenous peoples were introduced

in the early 1990s in the region of Araucanía, which has traditionally recorded the worst health indicators in the country. The region is the territory of the Mapuche people, which are the country's largest indigenous group and a strong political and social presence. On the basis of that regional experience, a nationwide programme for indigenous peoples was rolled out in the mid-1990s and subsequently extended to 22 health services in the year 2000. Chile's National Policy on Health and Indigenous Peoples was devised in 2006 and was, in some way, the institutional culmination of the activities carried out within individual territories over the previous two decades (Pedrero, 2007). The heterogeneous nature of policies and programmes is shown in box V.3. In the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, the policy is supported by laws that recognize, promote and protect the health rights of indigenous peoples, and is implemented throughout the country by means of a series of programmes. In Colombia, despite the fact that there is considerable legislation on such matters, there is no national health policy for indigenous peoples. Paradoxically, however, the way health systems are organized has enabled programmes to be developed on the basis of indigenous territories that are controlled by traditional structures on the basis of indigenous world visions.

Box V. 3
PUBLIC POLICIES AND PROGRAMMES FOR INDIGENOUS HEALTH IN THE BOLIVARIAN REPUBLIC OF VENEZUELA AND COLOMBIA

During the constitutional reforms of 1999, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela extended the rights of indigenous peoples and formulated laws to, inter alia, recognize indigenous medicine, protect medicinal resources and promote the training of human resources. In 2004, a body for the coordination of indigenous health was set up within the Ministry of Health and in 2006 became the Department for Indigenous Health, whose mission it is to formulate and assess health policies in the framework of an intercultural approach and in conjunction with indigenous peoples and communities, so as to guarantee compliance with the Constitution and the Act on the Health of Indigenous Peoples and Communities. The Department is run by an epidemiologist who is a member of the Wayúu people and employs around 600 indigenous health professionals, hospital and community intercultural brokers, health advocates and indigenous community health representatives. The health policy includes special programmes for the 40 indigenous peoples spread throughout the country. These include the Office for Indigenous Health, indigenous health advocates, the Mother Project, the Yanomami Health Plan, the Delta Plan and bilateral plans in conjunction with Colombia. The policy also promotes an intercultural approach throughout the services and programmes of the national public health system. The main results of the policy include direct consultation with indigenous peoples, the accreditation of indigenous doctors, harmonization with formal medicine and social auditing. The success of this policy is based on solidarity throughout all levels of government. Interestingly, the country's health records include identification by ethnic group, which means that the various programmes can be monitored and assessed.

In Colombia, the General System of Social Security in Health has coverage that is subsidized, contributory or linked to health maintenance organizations (HMOs) that manage and give contracts to service providers. Thanks to enforceability mechanisms such as consultation and negotiations concerning work in their territories, indigenous organizations have been able to bring about changes in the rules so that traditional authorities are now allowed to set up indigenous HMOs and service providers to receive resources from the State. These include the indigenous service provider Dusakawi, which is an example of the State-promoted management model at the service of indigenous interests and needs, as is possible in a context of self-government and autonomy. The Dusakawi indigenous service provider is the result of a broad process of consultation and comprises the Association of the Indigenous Councils of the departments of César and la Guajira. It is an indigenous health tool for the north of Colombia covering 12 indigenous peoples living in the Sierra Nevada de Santa Marta. The principles, values, concepts and programmes are developed in accordance with the world vision of these peoples and with the principle of interculturalism, and are based on the ancestral order for life that values sacred sites and territory as fundamental for integral health, with western medicine considered as complementary. Programmes include the recognition of traditional medicine, indigenous health education, food and nutritional autonomy, rehabilitation centres for patients and relatives from far afield, the adaptation of western medicine, specific programmes (for high blood pressure, oral health and tuberculosis) and epidemiological monitoring.

Source: Workshop-Seminar "Indigenous People in Latin America: Health Policies and Programmes, How Much and How Has Progress Been Made?, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), Santiago, Chile, 25 and 26 June 2007.

In 13 of the 14 countries surveyed, there is a specific supply of health programmes for, of and with indigenous peoples. These programmes fall into two main categories: (i) special programmes, in other words specifically designed for indigenous peoples, and (ii) programmes specifically targeting indigenous peoples but incorporated into traditional health service strategies or programme areas such as primary care, sexual and reproductive health, infectious diseases, nutrition or basic sanitation.

(a) Special programmes

This group includes general programmes, which are those geared towards improving the health and quality of life of indigenous peoples through access to culturally appropriate services, the strengthening of traditional medicine, human resource training and research (with this final aspect being the least developed to date). Such programmes exist in the following 10 countries: Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Honduras and Nicaragua (see annex 4).

One major characteristic is that, while such general programmes tend to be designed as national schemes, in practice they are focused on specific territories (usually rural or urban areas with a concentration of indigenous population). The only initiative with nationwide coverage is the Ethnic Health Care Programme in Honduras, which aims to coordinate health service provision, strengthen the health services of indigenous communities, train local resources, promote an equitable, timely and efficient intercultural approach to health and, lastly, to set up interinstitutional teams to define policy, promote research and evaluate the quality of services. An example of a targeted initiative is the Integral Indigenous Health Care Programme in Brazil, which is aimed at providing comprehensive care in all regular programmes of the single health system in specific territories known as sanitary districts (see box V.3). More specifically targeted programmes include those for displaced individuals in the border regions of Colombia and for indigenous immigrants entering Costa Rica from Panama (see annex 4).

A second group of special programmes focus on specific aspects of the health model, mainly on strengthening traditional medicine and training human resources. In terms of the former, these programmes aim to develop traditional medicine and reverse the historical subordination or even persecution of traditional healers that, along with the degradation of ecosystems, has resulted in a significant loss of such practices. In response to this, Bolivia, Costa Rica and Guatemala have developed specific programmes to recognize, value and revive traditional medicine, especially in terms of medicinal plants and traditional midwives. In both areas, the idea is to recognize the health epistemologies, knowledge and practices of indigenous peoples and incorporate them in the official health care systems of western medicine. In Guatemala, the purpose of the national programme for popular and traditional medicine is to recognize, value and revive traditional popular medicine and other alternative models of care at the political, technical, normative and operational levels. Achievements include the incorporation of traditional treatments in primary and secondary health care. It has been pointed out by indigenous organizations and academics that, without social control by indigenous peoples, such practices may lead to the alienation and loss of indigenous medicine (Pedrero, 2007; Boccara, 2007).

In parallel, human resources training programmes are developed in intercultural health or for work in indigenous areas, with a view to training professionals to respect the indigenous conception of the health-illness process (Mexico and Peru) or training people from indigenous communities in western medicine while maintaining their cultural heritage (Argentina and Panama). The purpose of this training is to technically prepare health teams to manage biomedicine and indigenous medicine. In Mexico, since 2002 there has been a national intercultural health training programme covering all health teams working in regular programmes. One common characteristic of programmes to strengthen traditional medicine or train human resources is their focus on rural territories with a high indigenous population.

(b) Regular programmes

Regular programmes are those that are part of strategic areas (such as primary care and sexual and reproductive health) or those that are implemented as part of regular programmes of health systems (infectious diseases, basic sanitation and food and nutrition).

Argentina, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Costa Rica and Ecuador have implemented primary health care programmes aimed at improving access while respecting cultural specificities. In Argentina, the community doctors programme aims to train professionals in community and intercultural health, with a view to improving primary health care and strengthening national and provincial management while respecting traditions and customs. These programmes are implemented in defined indigenous territories. In terms of sexual health and reproductive rights, programmes in Ecuador and Panama have implemented specific actions that combine a gender-based and intercultural approach in support of women's rights. Panama has two such programmes, with targets of reducing maternal mortality and rates of abortion, child mortality and teenage pregnancy (see annex 4).

As far as regular health programmes are concerned, Panama is the region's only country with specific programmes for infectious diseases (mainly HIV/

AIDS, tuberculosis and malaria). Brazil and Panama are implementing specific programmes for environmental sanitation and also food and nutrition (see annex 4).[9]

In addition to policies and programmes, most countries have introduced intercultural initiatives into strategies for primary health care (nine countries), sexual health and reproductive rights (seven countries), mother and child (nine countries); mental health (Brazil and Costa Rica; and infectious diseases (HIV/AIDS in Brazil, Ecuador and Panama, tuberculosis and malaria in Panama; Chagas' disease in Argentina and diarrhoea in Costa Rica). Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Honduras, Mexico and Peru are developing training activities with an intercultural approach and all except Peru also carry out State-sponsored actions to strengthen and promote traditional medicine.

Lastly, there are various experiences where indigenous and western medicine complement each other in specific territories: in Ecuador there is the Indigenous Hospital of Tungurahua, the Andean Hospital of Riobamba, the Jambihuasi Centre for Alternative Medicine in Cañar and the plural networks of Loreto. Chile has similar experiences, the most well-known of which include the Mapuche Hospital in Makewe, the Boroa-Filu Lawen Intercultural Health centre and the Intercultural Health Complex in Nueva Imperial (all located in the region of Araucanía). Examples in Bolivia include the Health Centre in Curva, which incorporates Kallawaya medicine.

4. Main achievements and difficulties

The main achievements of programmes to date (see annex 4) include the consolidation of differentiated health care models and the development of appropriate health care for indigenous peoples in the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia, Brazil, Costa Rica, Colombia and Panama. The model places special emphasis on progress in human resource training, with Chile, Colombia, Mexico, Panama and Peru providing illustrative examples of intercultural awareness-raising and training of health teams. Another important aspect is indigenous participation in the entire process of programme design, implementation and assessment (Argentina, Brazil and Chile).

One of the major achievements in Argentina, Brazil, Bolivia and Peru has been the improved health conditions of indigenous peoples, especially in the area of mother and infant mortality and tuberculosis. Brazil has been the only country to provide specific data on this progress. Between 2000 and 2006, infant mortality among indigenous peoples in the sanitary districts of Brazil fell from 74.6 for every 1,000 live births to 38.5 per 1,000 live births, while the incidence of pulmonary tuberculosis fell from 108.6 in every 100,000 inhabitants in 2002 to 49.7 in 2005.

Mention should be made of the coordination between various public sectors and advances in terms of public policies and programmes in Argentina, Chile and Colombia. Other aspects worthy of note are State recognition of the cultural specificities of indigenous peoples, the expansion of culturally relevant health services and the development of particular studies, particularly epidemiological diagnoses (Chile, Colombia and Brazil). Other progress includes the complementarity achieved between different types of medicine and the guidelines for childbirth (Ecuador, Panama and Peru), schemes to incorporate traditional birth attendants into the State health system (Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Guatemala, Panama and Peru) and the use of medicinal plants in the therapeutic strategies of regular programmes (Bolivia).

Given the importance of having suitably trained human resources for an intercultural approach to health, the fact that little or no progress has been made in this aspect of the model appears to be the main obstacle to success for the policies and programmes in question. There is a lack of trained staff and the training itself is insufficient.

There is little information from countries on the funding of specific programmes for the indigenous population. Only seven countries provided the figures for such financing (up to 2006) (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Honduras, Mexico, Panama and Peru). Brazil allocates 1.7% of GDP to health spending and channels 1% of that health expenditure (US$ 173 million) to such programmes. The country's budget targeting the indigenous population doubled between 2004 and 2006. However, the same cannot be said of other countries, which cite the lack or insufficiency of resources to cover all initiatives as a major stumbling block.

Another aspect that must be analysed from a more conceptual perspective is the need to develop the "intercultural" content of health care, in what should be a process of collective construction (Argentina and Brazil).

[9] In Brazil, the Food Security Programme is implemented by the Ministry of Social Development and Hunger Alleviation, while the food and nutrition surveillance actions are carried out by the Ministry of Health.

5. Indigenous management and participation

As mentioned previously, participation is both a lynchpin of health reform and a fundamental right of indigenous peoples. It is a crucial part of policymaking to ensure that policies are relevant to the living conditions and world visions of indigenous peoples. Participation must be part of every stage of reform, including the management and use of resources. Indeed, participation and joint efforts by planners, health providers and the representatives of indigenous peoples are the only means of ensuring the relevance of issues, the effectiveness of the measures to tackle them and the suitability of health care and management models (both epidemiologically and in terms of their meanings in various contexts).

According to the replies provided by countries, in 13 of the 15 intercultural health programmes the Ministry of Health coordinates its activities with indigenous organizations. Indigenous participation is also an achievement attained by many of these programmes. Indigenous organizations have played a major role in the sphere of health, especially indigenous women's organizations that started off working in matters related to production and the economy. With the support of non-governmental organizations (NGOs and international cooperation agencies), these bodies promoted a gender approach as the basis for their work, before gradually extending their efforts to other areas (especially health) and becoming more independent.

Other initiatives include the creation of community ombudsman groups in the department of Cusco, Peru, which constitute an efficient model for tackling domestic violence. The ombudsmen are leading women chosen by the community and subsequently trained to deal with and support victims of violence. As part of their work, they inform women that it is their right to file a complaint, accompany them to medical examinations and police stations and demand and monitor the authorities' fulfilment of their duties. The ombudsmen make domestic violence visible within the community and provide concrete solutions for those affected. In the process, not only are the female ombudsmen empowered but men are also encouraged to share responsibility as, despite the difficulties involved, they too are an important part of the ombudsman team, given that family violence is the problem of the community and society as a whole, rather than just that of the women and children affected. There are currently 38 ombudsman groups with 380 female ombudsmen, mostly in isolated rural areas with a mainly Quechua-speaking indigenous population where many women do not speak Spanish.[10]

As was the case with policies, all stages of programme participation in the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia, Brazil and Nicaragua take place through indigenous organizations (including the administration of resources). In other countries, such as Chile, the participation there is in programme design, content, administration and assessment takes place on an individual level rather than through indigenous organizations. The situation in Argentina is midway between the two: some programmes aim for autonomy and participation, while others where participation is only at the programme-design stage. Lastly, Honduras, Costa Rica and Peru are in the process of generating conditions to guarantee participation.

As previously mentioned, one may wonder if there can be a genuine participatory process if there is no equality in the power and decision-making structure in which indigenous peoples have always been subordinate to the rest of society (Valdés, 2007). This is a complex issue that is the subject of ongoing social debate and that encompasses the following aspects: how to define indigenous participation (given that not every space with indigenous people is participatory by definition); how do participation mechanisms provided by State institutions fit in with the participation mechanisms of indigenous peoples in a way that responds to community and territorial dynamics; how and who should define representation by an indigenous people and how can the rights to political participation be linked to participation in health programmes.

[10] For further details, see Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and W.K. Kellogg Foundation, Contest: Experiences in social innovation in Latin America and the Caribbean [online] http://www.eclac.cl/dds/innovacionsocial/.

6. Health information: how to measure the advances?

Information undoubtedly plays a crucial role in health, both in terms of epidemiological diagnostics in public policymaking (especially to define health objectives) and for the follow-up and assessment of measures implemented. In addition, research (particularly into the health situation, determinants, risk factors and inequities faced by indigenous peoples) requires basic data that should also be disaggregated by ethnic group. Furthermore, a rights-based approach and the implementation of the above-mentioned standards of rights of indigenous peoples require the production of public information, statistics and systems of indicators for the purposes of monitoring and assessment.

The demand for information on the part of States, indigenous organizations, civil society and cooperation agencies, among others, is therefore a central and recurring issue at the national, regional and international levels (ECLAC, 2006a). In Latin America, national statistical systems have begun to respond to these requirements, specifically in terms of identifying ethnic group in population censuses, particularly in the 2000 round (ECLAC, 2006a) and, to a lesser extent, in household surveys. However, sources of health-sector data such as vital statistics and hospital records are lagging behind in this area. This is reflected in information provided by the Pan American Health Organization (PAHO) as part of an assessment of the first International Decade of the World's Indigenous People. Of the 16 countries under consideration, 15 reported having information on the demographic profile of indigenous peoples (based on censuses), while only 7 have epidemiological profiles. However, such diagnostics are not carried out systematically but on the basis of information available, and are often studies limited to certain territories or indigenous peoples.

As for the ethnic identification in health sources, some local and territorial progress is being made in the region. In Argentina, information on certain health districts within provinces includes the percentage of indigenous population. In Chile, local experiences include the health service for the southern and northern Araucanía (populated by the Mapuche people). The Hernán Henríquez Aravena Hospital (the region's main one) uses an information system that includes membership of the Mapuche people (self-definition and family names), both in the in-patient database and the "medical agenda" system (a consultation and referral system connected to all hospitals and health centres in the South Araucanía Health Service). There are also records from the Amuldungun Intercultural Office, in which people are identified on the basis of a community criterion used by an intercultural broker.[11] In Nicaragua, the health information systems of the North and South Atlantic Autonomous Regions of Nicaragua (RAAN and RAAS) and the Mayagna people are currently being consolidated.

Brazil, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela and, to a lesser extent, Chile are the countries that have made the most progress in including ethnic identity in sources of basic health data across the board.

In Brazil, data sources (censuses, household surveys and records such as the Single Health System (SUS)) tend to use the race or colour criterion, which includes the category "indigenous". In a major regional initiative, since 2000 the National Health Foundation in Brazil (FUNASA) has been implementing a Health Information System for Indigenous Peoples (SIASI) in the Special Indigenous Sanitary Districts. The system has been designed for epidemiological purposes and service delivery, as it makes it possible to monitor, plan, assess and control the health of the indigenous population. The system includes information on deaths, births, morbidity, immunization and service output. The development of the service is directly linked to the national health care policy for indigenous peoples and there are plans to link it to the Single Health System. The data-collection instruments used for the Health Information System for Indigenous Peoples (SIASI) are: family records, consultation forms, personal records, indigenous health agents' record books, consolidated monthly activity reports, referral and back-referral forms and vaccination records. The data sources are villages, indigenous health centres and public and private health units. Although the system is still being implemented and has had its share of operational problems, there is a consensus that the system is easy to access, comprehensive, with the possibility of local disaggregation and the production and analysis of information at the local level and with community participation (de Sousa, Scatena & Ventura Santo, 2007).

[11] In the Mapuche language, the term "amuldungun" means to spread the word, guide or disseminate knowledge/information.

The health information system of the Ministry of People's Power for Health in the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela now includes an ethnic identity variable in data-collection instruments for primary care, immunizations, and epidemiological records (for HIV/AIDS and other chronic diseases such as diabetes and kidney disease). The ethnic identity variable also appears in medical consultation records. However, the criteria used vary and include the concept of "race", ethnic group (34 indigenous peoples, white and mestizo) and indigenous peoples. As for Chile, in 2007 the Ministry of Health incorporated membership of an indigenous people in the hospital discharge form, using the same criterion as the population census and household surveys.

The fact that there are basic data disaggregated by ethnic group or people does not necessarily mean that such data are processed, analysed, used or disseminated, let alone returned to the local area and communities of origin. This limits indigenous use and social control of that information. Programmes are usually devised using nationwide averages that conceal cultural and territorial heterogeneity. This creates health targets that do not always fit in with the various epidemiological profiles on the ground.

Yet health information does not come from the State alone; information systems are also being created by indigenous organizations, such as the Colombian National Indigenous Organization, the Confederation of Indigenous Nationalities of Ecuador and the Confederation of Indigenous Peoples of Bolivia. Some studies are led by universities, including the University of the Autonomous Regions of the Caribbean Coast of Nicaragua (URACCAN) and the Universidad de la Frontera (see box V.4).

Box V.4
REGIONAL OBSERVATORY FOR HEALTH EQUITY IN TERMS OF GENDER AND THE MAPUCHE PEOPLE, REGION OF ARAUCANÍA, CHILE

The regional observatory for health equity in terms of gender and the Mapuche people is an interesting initiative in terms of information collection and the development of specific indicators for gender and the indigenous population. The observatory is part of the 2004-2005 health reform and the 2000-2010 plan for equal opportunities for men and women in Chile, and was created as a regional space for analysis, reflection and follow-up of the gender inequity suffered by women in the region of Araucanía.

The observatory, which is made up of representatives from various regional civil-society organizations (Mapuche and non-Mapuche) and academics from the Universidad de la Frontera, has two teams: a coordination team responsible for communicating with the various civil-society organizations; and a technical team to coordinate contact with senior staff and heads of services to link civil society with public institutions, generate data for methodologies and strategies appropriate to the sociocultural characteristics of the region, and produce information and documents on the current situation of health equity in terms of gender and the Mapuche population.

The aims of the regional observatory of Araucanía are to: make visible the gender and ethnic inequalities and inequities in terms of health, provide civil society with the information it needs to advocate in situations of inequity, legitimize the observatory as a valid reference in this area, establish networks with the Pan American Health Organization (PAHO) and the national observatory and produce new regional knowledge using official information in the fields of observation established. The following five fields of observation had corresponding categories of indicators (impact or process), values (in some cases) and their assessment and target:

Violence: sexual, psychological and physical domestic violence, access to comprehensive domestic violence attention, sexual violence outside the home, workplace violence, extreme violence resulting in death and institutional violence.

Sexual and reproductive health: pregnancy and birth, access to contraceptive methods, information, adolescent care and education, male participation in sexual and reproductive health, HIV/AIDS, advice, guidance and care for women going through the menopause.

Mental health: consultation for mental health pathologies, addictions and disabilities.

Quality of care: care in public health institutions, rights of male and female health service users, citizen participation in health, intercultural health (establishments with male and female intercultural brokers).

Environment: environmental pollution by particles and pesticides, health of female seasonal workers, traditional Mapuche medicine (regional and national records of medicinal herbs, surface area of plantations with native forest, effective ecosystem-improvement programmes, improvement of general living conditions of those responsible for traditional Mapuche health) and the legislative context.

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information from the regional observatory for health equity in terms of gender and the Mapuche [online] http://www.observatoriogenerosalud.cl.

To counter the information shortfalls in the region, the Indigenous Peoples Fund is developing an Information System for Indigenous Peoples. As part of the initiative, the Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) - Population Division of ECLAC and the Indigenous Peoples Fund have formulated the System of Sociodemographic Indicators for Indigenous Peoples and Populations of Latin America (SISPPI). This includes over 50 demographic and socioeconomic indicators including child and infant mortality (CELADE & Indigenous Peoples Fund, 2007). The Pan American Health Organization (PAHO), in conjunction with CELADE, is implementing a project to include ethnic identity in vital statistics and health records. Efforts so far have concentrated on the Mapuche territory in Argentina and Chile, more specifically in Araucanía (Chile) and the province of Neuquén (Argentina).

The lack of information on the health and living conditions of indigenous peoples remains one of the main obstacles to defining health objectives that are relevant to their situation and that guide and facilitate the assessment of interventions aimed at closing gaps in the enforcement of individual rights (increased coverage and quality of care) and collective rights (cultural appropriateness of services and programmes, development of traditional medicine, and so forth).

There are at least two complementary action lines underpinning the development of national information systems based on integral health: first, the inclusion of ethnic identity in traditional sources of health data to construct indicators used for comparing the indigenous and non-indigenous population; second, the development of quantitative and qualitative indicators in keeping with the integral health models of indigenous peoples (these could include indicators relating to the environment, territory and political participation).

As part of the joint PAHO and CELADE project "An ethnic approach in sources of health data (the Mapuche experience in the southern corridor of Argentina and Chile): recommendations for future development in the Americas", a binational workshop was held at which delegates stated that indigenous participation was essential. The recommendations made were as follows: (i) the inclusion of questions and the record system need to be the result of a participatory process involving all actors, with form and content negotiated and agreed in a collective process covering the definition of questions and the analysis and control of the information; (ii) participation must be at the policymaking and decision-making levels, rather than the merely consultative, as participation is what generates change; (iii) the debate should take place at a territorial level, with full participation of communities and technical experts, in a flexible framework geared towards the local adaptation of instruments for generating and using statistical records, with social control on the part of indigenous peoples; (iv) different forms of participation must be considered for the State and Mapuche organizations and institutions (traditional authorities); (v) the time frames of indigenous peoples must absolutely be respected; and (vi) institutions also require dialogue and discussion at the senior level that will eventually lead to decision-making and change.

C. Closing remarks and policy recommendations

The major challenge facing public policy is to continue moving forward with complying with standards of health rights for indigenous peoples, which implies an integral concept of indigenous health (including territorial rights and cultural integrity) and their full participation in the definition, management and assessment of health policies and programmes. This should form the basis of all differentiated health care models (intercultural, integral or complementary). It is also vital to make progress in terms of training human resources to generate an intercultural health dialogue, as well as producing knowledge to support those models and facilitate the setting, follow-up and evaluation of health goals. Requirements include systems of appropriate indicators, studies on sociocultural epidemiology, participatory community health diagnoses, local research into health, illness and traditional medicine, and an assessment of its effectiveness in each context. Continuous and adequate financing is also essential to guarantee the autonomy of indigenous peoples as holders of collective rights.

Strengthening the rule of law is closely linked to the effective enjoyment of citizens' rights in their economic, social and cultural dimensions. Although rights have gained a legal status, there are serious shortfalls in their content, scope and protection mechanisms. One example is the gap between the recognition of the rights of indigenous peoples and their actual enforcement, which in health terms is expressed in less favourable morbidity and mortality indicators compared with the non-indigenous population, pointing to cumulative and more serious ill health among the former.

The principle of rights entitlement, which should guide public policy, is a difficult one to apply in Latin America's ethnically and culturally heterogeneous societies, with their asymmetrical distribution of power. What is needed is social consensus around indigenous peoples' rights, as well as the institutions to enforce those rights in response to that consensus.

The region of Latin America has made progress in recognizing the existence of pluricultural democracies and the contribution of the identity, world vision, roots and humanity of the region's indigenous peoples (ECLAC, 2006a). One significant achievement is the creation of government institutions responsible for indigenous affairs, despite variations in the level of political participation among indigenous peoples and the hierarchical status accorded to the institution concerned. Many of the rights enshrined in countries' constitutions and legislations are not, however, enjoyed by indigenous peoples. These include the right to good health, which is one of the main factors in the well-being of individuals, families and communities, as well as being a necessity for human development. Health policies for the indigenous population must therefore consider the national and international instruments that constitute the standard of rights and ensure that no one is excluded from the right to access health services that provide comprehensive and quality care for all.

Noteworthy steps in this direction include the gradual recognition of indigenous peoples' health rights, their incorporation in the legislation of some Latin American countries and their inclusion in most of the region's health policies and programmes. The main advances in terms of health policies and programmes for indigenous peoples have therefore taken the form of improving access and

adapting services to indigenous cultural realities. Significant progress has been made in services, but less so in indigenous peoples' right to health as an integral concept including traditional medicine and protection of the underlying ecosystems. The participation of indigenous peoples in these processes has also been limited, and this remains one of the main challenges for constructing public policies that consider them as holders of collective rights.

It is difficult to ascertain what has been achieved in terms of improving objective health conditions and reducing inequity, given that there are no information and diagnosis systems for action follow-up and assessment, and that the implementation of indigenous health policies is a fairly recent phenomenon. There is also a striking lack of information on the level of resources channelled into such policies and programmes. There is no up-to-date information on how much funding is specifically targeting the indigenous population or the level of continuity and increases, as such funds cannot be distinguished from total resources used for health programmes.

A review of the replies of governments to the ECLAC survey on health policies and programmes for indigenous peoples and the results of the Workshop-Seminar "Indigenous People in Latin America: Health Policies and Programmes, How Much and How Has Progress Been Made?" resulted in the following recommendations.

As far as the normative framework is concerned, progress should be made in strengthening legislation in accordance with specific health rights for indigenous peoples, with due consideration for the minimum standards that can be summarized as follows:

- Right of access and preferential health care
- Right to quality and non-discriminatory health care
- Right of recognition for integral indigenous health, including the use and control of traditional medicine and the territorial spaces that are vital for healing
- Right to participate in the design, implementation, management, administration and assessment of health policies and programmes.

Complying with this normative framework requires institutions that take responsibility for these issues and raise the visibility of the relevant policies and programmes, such that they become ongoing State policies that are not affected by changes of government.

Enforcing the framework of rights for indigenous peoples demands permanent political will on the part of decision-makers, as well as constant vigilance by indigenous organizations to ensure that rules are applied and that gaps in the implementation of rights are closed.

A framework of rights is insufficient without mechanisms for the enforcement and assessment of public policies and rules, with a view to reducing gaps in the implementation of health rights. Countries are recommended to make creative use of institutional resources such as peoples' advocates, special reports on indigenous health, new laws, accountability and lobbying of the executive. It is also necessary to promote the protection of indigenous rights and the legal punishment of a lack of compliance by declaring such actions unconstitutional and producing shadow reports on the enforcement of indigenous health rights (in the context of, inter alia, the International Labour Organization, and the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights).

As for policymaking, a key element should be the indigenous concept of integral health, which ties in with other aspects affecting the life of indigenous communities and peoples (such as land, territory and culture). This calls for an intersectoral approach (environment, territory, public works, water and sanitation), especially if the structural causes of discrimination and poverty are to be taken to task. What is needed is fair and equitable participation in distributing the benefits of the exploitation of natural resources in indigenous territories, so that living conditions can be improved in an integral way.

Territoriality becomes a key aspect of health and disease, and policies should therefore have a territorial basis that is meaningful to indigenous peoples. Some research into best health practices show that there are clear advantages to that approach (O'Neil, Bartlett & Mignone, 2005). What is more, there have been some positive experiences and good governance in the sphere of health based on indigenous cultural and community processes within their territories.

Public policy should move forward with complementarity in health and link traditional medicine with conventional health systems. It is therefore vital to generate appropriate juridical frameworks, in order to provide specific guarantees for the practices of traditional indigenous healers and protect the traditional knowledge and natural resources that ensure the sustainable development of indigenous medicine. In addition to legal harmonization, PAHO/WHO (2003) distinguished conceptual and practical harmonization. This implies designing and strengthening intercultural health care models based on local research into indigenous health practices and medicines that constitute healing resources. Lines of research also need to be developed into sociocultural epidemiology and participatory community health diagnoses (Arriagada, Aranda & Miranda, 2005). A crucial factor in the implementation of these models is human resource training using methodologies that respect cultural diversity and the learning processes of each people and culture (such as oral and intergenerational transmission).

Obviously, such processes of designing and implementing health policies and programmes for

indigenous peoples require their active participation, taking account of their own mechanisms and spaces, through their organizations and authorities, so as to guarantee genuine participation in the decision-making around the problems that affect them. The medium- and long-term sustainability of public policy should be guaranteed by legal bases, participation and community empowerment.

As far as financing is concerned, more resources are needed to make progress in implementing public health policies for indigenous peoples, assess the scale of public health spending and "out-of-pocket" health spending and establish mechanisms of accountability for the use of resources targeting the indigenous population. New and continuous resources are required to fund the expansion of the system while ensuring that said resources result in a real improvement of health services for indigenous peoples, as well as autonomy in the management of those resources.

In terms of information, it is important to bear in mind that shortfalls exist, especially in the area of public health. Quality information is needed to form the basis for policies, as well as for the implementation and assessment of their results. Similarly, basic data are needed to carry out studies into the social determinants of the health of indigenous peoples and the distribution of medical resources, as well as to create information, monitoring and evaluation systems. This implies incorporating questions on ethnic identity in conventional data sources (population censuses and health records) and developing alternative sources that pick up the specific characteristics and requirements of each people. Information is also needed on access to the supply of public health resources: services, medicine and access to hospitals and other health centres. All of the above is fundamental for assessing the quality of programmes and the effects of policies and programmes on improvements in indigenous health.

The implementation of the minimum standard of the collective health rights of indigenous peoples, and particularly the recent adoption of the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples, poses enormous challenges for public policymaking. This is because States must undertake a massive rethink that goes from the conceptual framework to the design of health targets and initiatives, while indigenous organizations and peoples must in turn make effective progress in exercising and protecting their right to health.

D. International agenda. Tenth session of the Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean

The main aims of the Tenth session of the Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean, organized by ECLAC from 6 to 9 August 2007 in Quito, Ecuador, were to examine political participation and gender parity in decision-making processes at all levels and analyse women's contribution to the economy and social protection, especially in terms of their unpaid work.

The Regional Conference is organized by ECLAC every three years to analyse public policies from a gender perspective. The Conference was attended by the President of Ecuador, the President of Chile, the Vice-President of Spain, Special Adviser to the Secretary-General on Gender Issues and Advancement of Women and Ministers and others in charge of gender policy in 33 Latin American and Caribbean countries and members of ECLAC.

Three preparatory meetings had been held prior to the Conference (Guatemala City, Guatemala, 16 and 17 May 2007; Saint John's, Antigua and Barbuda, 22 and 23 May 2007; and Santiago, Chile, 28 and 29 May 2007), with a view to reviewing, analysing and providing opinions on the document *Women's contribution to equality in Latin America and the Caribbean*, produced by the Women and Development Unit of ECLAC to facilitate dialogue between governments and offer guidelines for devising policies and specific measures in each of the region's countries. The preparatory process and the Conference also involved side events involving social and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) working at the national and regional levels for the interests of women in Latin America and the Caribbean.

In the parallel events organized by various United Nations agencies and NGOs alongside the official sessions of the Conference, the issues studied included the contribution of the care economy to social protection (ECLAC); policies for shared responsibility in terms of productive and reproductive work (United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) and the World Bank); the invisible economy and gender inequalities: the importance of measuring and valuing unpaid work (Pan American Health Organization, United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) and the Higher Council for Scientific Research Spain); legal systems for paid domestic work in MERCOSUR (the feminist coalition "Articulación Feminista MARCOSUR"); gender parity policies in and for the information society (UNESCO Regional Chair); and the political participation of indigenous women and those of African descent (United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), UNIFEM, International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW), Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues).

The Quito Consensus contains 36 resolutions, including those referring to parity, participation and the political representation of women and their contribution to the economy and social protection in the form of unpaid domestic work (see box V.1).

Countries undertook to adopt measures that contribute to the elimination of all forms of violence and its manifestations against women, especially the murder of women, to develop comprehensive non-sexist public education programmes aimed at tackling gender and racial stereotypes and other cultural bias against women and to promote relations of mutual support between men and women. Countries also agreed to make efforts to sign, ratify, implement and disseminate the Convention for the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women and its Optional Protocol.

Lastly, countries requested the Presiding Officers of the Conference to devote one of its annual meetings to assessing the above-mentioned targets and decided to dedicate the next Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean (scheduled to be held in 2010 in Brazil) to a general assessment of progress made. Countries also requested ECLAC, along with other United Nations organizations, to set up a gender equality observatory.

Box V.5

TENTH REGIONAL CONFERENCE ON WOMEN IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN

Place and date: Quito, Ecuador, 6 to 9 August 2007

Participants: Representatives from 33 governments of ECLAC member countries, intergovernmental organizations and United Nations agencies.

Organized by: ECLAC

Preparatory activities during 2007:

- Subregional preparatory meeting for Central America and Mexico for the tenth session of the Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean, Guatemala City, 16-17 May.
- Subregional Preparatory Meeting for the Caribbean for the tenth session of the Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean, St. Johns, Antigua and Barbuda, 22-23 May.
- Subregional preparatory meeting for South America for the tenth session of the Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean, Santiago, Chile, 28-29 May.

Some of the main agreements included in the Quito Consensus:

With regard to political parity and gender equity

- To adopt all necessary affirmative action measures and mechanisms, including the necessary legislative reforms and budgetary allocations, to ensure the full participation of women in public office and in political representative positions with a view to achieving parity in the institutional structure of the State (executive, legislative and judicial branches, as well as special and autonomous regimes) and at the national and local levels as an objective for Latin American and Caribbean democracies;
- To broaden and strengthen participatory democracy and the inclusion of women on an egalitarian, pluralistic and multicultural basis in the region, guaranteeing and encouraging their participation and valuing the function they perform in social and economic affairs and in public policymaking, and adopting measures and strategies for positioning them in decision-making spheres, opinion, information and communication;
- To promote activities that will enable the countries of the region to share strategies, methodologies, indicators, policies, agreements and experiences that facilitate progress towards the achievement of parity in public office and political representative office;
- To develop electoral policies of a permanent character that will prompt political parties to incorporate women's agendas in their diversity, the gender perspective in their content, actions and statutes, and the egalitarian participation, empowerment and leadership of women with a view to consolidating gender parity as a policy of State;
- To seek the commitment of political parties to implement affirmative action and strategies for communication, financing, training, political education, oversight and internal organizational reforms in order to achieve participation by women on a basis of parity, taking into account their diversity, both internally and at decision-making levels;
- To adopt legislative measures and institutional reforms to prevent, punish and eradicate political and administrative harassment of women who reach decision-making positions through electoral means or by appointment at national and local levels, as well as in political parties and movements.

With regard to women's contribution to the economy and social protection, especially in terms of unpaid work

- To adopt measures in all spheres of institutional democratic affairs and, in particular, in economic and social areas, including legislative measures and institutional reforms, to ensure recognition of unpaid work and its contribution to families' well-being and to countries' economic development, and to promote its inclusion in national accounts;
- To implement comprehensive public social security systems, with universal access and coverage, that are linked to a broad spectrum of public policies and are capable of ensuring women's well-being, quality of life and full citizenship;
- To formulate and apply State policies conducive to the equitable sharing of responsibilities by women and men in the family, overcoming gender stereotypes and recognizing the importance of caregiving and domestic work for economic reproduction and the well-being of society as one of the ways of overcoming the sexual division of labour;
- To equalize the labour conditions and rights of domestic work with those of other types of paid work in accordance with ratified International Labour Organization conventions and international standards of women's rights, and to eradicate all forms of exploitation of domestic work by girl and boy children;
- To develop instruments, especially time-use surveys, for periodically measuring unpaid work performed by women and men in order to make such work visible and recognize its value, to incorporate their results into the System of National Accounts and to design economic and social policies accordingly,
- To adopt the necessary measures, especially of an economic, social and cultural nature, to ensure that States assume social reproduction, caregiving and the well-being of the population as an objective for the economy and as a public responsibility that cannot be delegated.

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC).

Annex V.1
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (16 COUNTRIES): COUNTRIES AND INSTITUTIONS THAT REPLIED TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE ON HEALTH POLICIES AND PROGRAMMES FOR INDIGENOUS PEOPLES

Country	Institution	Position	Name
Argentina	National Institute for Indigenous Affairs (INAI), Ministry of Health	Technical chief, intercultural health	Inés Quilici
		Coordinator, National Support for Humanitarian Actions for Indigenous Peoples (ANAHI)	Gabriela Martínez
Bolivia	Office of the Under-Secretary of Traditional Medicine and Interculturalism	Advisor	Oscar Laguna
Brazil	National Health Foundation (FUNASA)	Advisor, Department for Indigenous Health	Edgard Magalhaes
Chile	Ministry of Health	Chief, health and indigenous peoples programme	Margarita Sáez
Colombia	Ministry of Social Protection	Coordinator, equity and gender group	Gina Carrioni Denyer
Costa Rica	Ministry of Health	Chief, health analysis unit	César Gamboa
Ecuador	National Department for the Health of Indigenous Peoples	Director	Juan Naula
El Salvador	National Council for Culture and Art	Director	José Manuel Bonilla Alvarado
Guatemala	Ministry of Health	Coordinator, programme of traditional and alternative medicine	Mynor López
Honduras	Special Prosecutor's Office for Ethnic Groups and Cultural Heritage	Special Prosecutor for Ethnic Groups	Jany Del Cid
Mexico	Department of Strategic Programmes in Rural and Indigenous Areas	Assistant Director	Luciano Rangel Castillos
Nicaragua	Pan America Health Organization (PAHO) - Association of Promoters and Defenders of the Indigenous Rights of Nicaragua (APRODIN)	Focal Point for indigenous peoples APRODIN Focal Point	Marianela Corriols María José Mendoza
Panama		Director	Ignacio Rodríguez
Paraguay	Ministry of Public Health and Social Welfare	Expert on indigenous health	Silvio Ortega
Peru	Intercultural Health Centre	Director	Oswaldo Salaverry
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	Coordination of indigenous health, Ministry of Health	Director	Noly Coromoto

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of countries' responses to the ECLAC survey on health policies and programmes for indigenous peoples.

Annex V. 2
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (15 COUNTRIES): HEALTH LEGISLATION FOR INDIGENOUS PEOPLES IN FORCE IN 2006[a]

Country	Legislation	Date	Content
Argentina	Law 23.302	1985	Indigenist policy and support for the National Institute for Indigenous Affairs (INAI), which formulates health and sanitation plans
	Resolution Nº 152/2004 and amendatory Resolutions Nº 301/2004; 142/2006 of the National Institute for Indigenous Affairs (INAI)	2004 2006	Creation of the Council for Indigenous Participation
Bolivia	Ministerial Resolution 0231	1987	Regulation of the practice of traditional Bolivian medicine
	Supreme Decree 25.265	1998	Basic health insurance
	Supreme Decree 26.330	2001	Basic indigenous and native health insurance
	Law 2.426	2002	Law on universal mother and child insurance (SUMI)
	Supreme Decree 26.874	2002	Regulation of universal mother and child insurance (SUMI). According to article 8, benefits must be in keeping with the practices, customs and languages of peasant, indigenous and native peoples, with respect for identity, cultural basis and gender approach
	Bill	2005	Promoting the development of a new intercultural health policy
	Supreme Decree 28.631	2006	Creation of the Office of the Under-Secretary for Traditional Medicine and Interculturalism, tasked with developing intercultural health plans and increasing the appreciation of traditional medicine
Brazil	Law 9.836	1999	Creation of the subsystem of health care for the indigenous population
	Decree 3.156	1999	Creating the conditions for providing assistance to indigenous peoples
	Ministerial Decree Nº 852 (FUNASA)	1999	Regulation of the functioning of the Special Indigenous Sanitary Districts
	Ministerial Decree Nº 254 and its annexes	2002	National health care policy for indigenous peoples
	Ministerial Decree 70/GM	2004	Approval of guidelines for managing indigenous health
	Decree Nº 644 (FUNASA)	2006	Creation of the permanent forum of presidents in Special Indigenous Sanitary Districts
	Presidential Decree, Ministry of Justice	2006	Creation of the National Commission for Indigenist Policy
Chile	Law Decree 2.763	2004	Incorporation of the indigenous population as a priority group in the national health plan. The Ministry of Health should be incorporating an intercultural approach into health programmes
	Prerogative Resolution Nº 91, Ministry of Health	2006	Formulation of the policy on health and indigenous peoples
	Prerogative Resolution Nº 261	2006	Indicating the need to consider cultural relevance, interculturalism and complementarity in health
Colombia	Decree 1.811	1990	Partial regulation of law 10 of 1990 in terms of the provision of health services to indigenous communities
	Decree 1.416	1990	Stipulating rules on the organization and establishment of arrangements for community participation in the provision of health service delivery
	Resolution Nº 005.078	1992	Adoption of technical and administrative rules on traditional medicine and alternative therapies, and the creation of the advisory council for their preservation and development
	Law 100	1993	Introducing mechanisms to guarantee access to health coverage for the indigenous population
	Law 691	2001	Regulation of the participation of ethnic groups in the General System of Social Security
	Decree Nº 330	2001	Establishing rules for the formation and functioning of health maintenance organizations (HMOs) comprising traditional indigenous authorities and councils
	Agreement 244	2003	Prioritizing indigenous people as beneficiaries of the subsidized scheme of the General System of Social Security in Health by producing census lists from traditional authorities
	Agreement 326	2006	Adoption of certain guidelines for the organization and functioning of the subsidized scheme for indigenous peoples of the General System of Social Security in Health

Annex V. 2 (continued)

Country	Legislation	Date	Content
Costa Rica	Bill on the autonomous development of indigenous peoples	2006	Recognition of the use of traditional medicine for the purposes of prevention and treatment, plus a proposal to develop specific health programmes for indigenous peoples
	Decree Nº 33.121-S	2006	Creation of the National Health Council of Indigenous Peoples (CONASPI)
Ecuador	Decree Nº 1.642	1999	Creation of the National Department for the Health of Indigenous Peoples (with technical, administrative and functional autonomy) within the Ministry of Public Health
	Decree Nº 2.717	2005	Development of intercultural models of health and traditional medicine in the framework of the policy on sexual health and reproductive rights
	Health Act	2006	Recognition of the need to develop traditional medicine and adopt an intercultural approach to health policy
Guatemala	Legislative Decree 42-2001 (Social Development Act)	2001	Guarantees the right to an integral health care model, respecting the use of traditional indigenous medicine
Mexico	General Health Act	(Updated as of June 2003)	Establishing the Department of traditional medicine and intercultural development, which is responsible for indigenous health care
	Social Security Act	(Updated as of August 2006)	Establishing that indigenous people shall have access to social solidarity benefits in the way and terms stipulated by law
Nicaragua	General Health Act 423 and Regulations Decree Nº 001-2003	2002-2003	Establishing that autonomous regions shall be able to define a health care model in accordance with their traditions, culture, practices and customs, within the framework of the policies, plans, programmes and projects of the Ministry of Health
	Bill on traditional medicine and complementary and alternative therapies in Nicaragua	2007	Proposing to legalize traditional medicine to support natural leaders, healers or doctors
	Regulation for Law Nº 28, Statute of autonomy of the regions of the Atlantic coast of Nicaragua	2003	Articulating relations between the Ministry of Health and regional health councils in autonomous regions, and establishing health commissions
Panama	Ministerial Resolution Nº 4.376	1999	Creation of the Unit of Traditional Medicine in the Ministry of Health
	Executive Decree Nº 117	2003	Creation of the National Commission of Traditional Indigenous Medicine
Peru	Law 27.300	2000	Regulation and promotion of the sustainable use of medicinal plants
	Supreme Decree 001-2003-SA	2003	Regulation of the organization and functions of the National Health Institute
	Ministerial Resolution 771	2004	Establishing the national health strategies of the Ministry of Health, including that concerning the health of indigenous peoples, as run by the Intercultural Health Centre of the National Health Institute
	Law 28.736	2006	Establishing the special transectorial regime protecting the rights of the indigenous peoples of the Peruvian Amazon who are in isolation or at the early stages of contact
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	Law 37.600, Social Security System Act	2002	Establishing that the social security system shall afford special protection to indigenous people and other groups in need
	Act on indigenous peoples and communities	2005	Incorporation of traditional medicine and the healing practices of indigenous peoples and communities into national health system services, as well as the training of staff in charge of health care for indigenous peoples and communities
	Health and national public health system bill	2007	Creation of the Advisory Council of the national public health system, including representatives of indigenous communities. The right to the use and practice of traditional medicine is recognized and health policies and programmes are made to be culturally and linguistically relevant

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of countries' replies to the ECLAC survey; Inter–American Development Bank (IDB), "Databank on Indigenous Legislation" [online] 2006, http://www.iadb.org/sds/ind/site_3152_s.htm; Pan American Health Organization (PAHO), "Initiative on the Health of the Indigenous Peoples of the Americas (SAPIA)".

[a] El Salvador, Honduras and Paraguay do not mention specific legislation on health and indigenous peoples. Given that the IDB database has no such references either, these countries are assumed to have no legislation in this area.

Annex V.3
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (16 COUNTRIES):
MAIN GOVERNMENT INSTITUTIONS RESPONSIBLE FOR INDIGENOUS HEALTH

Country	Institutions	Year of creation	Institutional status	Attached to	Government entities responsible for indigenous health
Argentina	National Institute for Indigenous Affairs (INAI)	1985	Decentralized administration	Secretariat for social policies and human development, Ministry of Social Development	National Support for Humanitarian Actions for Indigenous Peoples (ANAHI), Ministry of Health
Bolivia [a]					Office of the Under-Secretary for Traditional Medicine and Interculturalism, Ministry of Health
Brazil	Indian National Foundation (FUNAI)	1967	Public foundation	Ministry of Justice	Department of Indigenous Health, National Health Foundation (FUNASA), Ministry of Health
Chile	National Indigenous Development Corporation (CONADI)	1993	Public body	Ministry of Planning and Cooperation	Unit for indigenous peoples' health, Ministry of Health
Colombia	Division of indigenous affairs, Council on Ethnic Groups	2005	National Division	Office of the Under-Secretary for the Interior, Ministry of the Interior and Justice	Equity and Gender Group, Ministry of Social Protection
Costa Rica	National Commission on Indigenous Affairs (CONAI)	1973	Public service institution	Ministry of National Planning and Economic Policy	Costa Rican Social Security Fund, Ministry of Health
Ecuador	Council for the Development of the Nationalities and Peoples of Ecuador (CODENPE)	1998	National Council with a ministerial rank executive secretary	Office of the President of the Republic	National Department for the health of indigenous peoples, Ministry of Public Health
El Salvador	Unit of indigenous affairs, National department of cultural development spaces	1995	National department	National Council for Culture and Art, Ministry of Education	None
Guatemala	Guatemalan Indigenous Development Fund (FODIGUA)	1994	Public bipartite entity	Office of the President of the Republic	National programme of popular traditional and alternative medicine, Ministry of Public Health and Social Welfare
Honduras	Special Prosecutor's Office for Ethnic Groups and Cultural Heritage	1994	Special Prosecutor's Office	General Department of Prosecutors, Public Prosecutor's Office	Ethnic care programme, Secretary of Health, Ministry of Health
Mexico [b]	National Commission for the Development of Indigenous Peoples (CDI)	2003	Public body	Office of the President of the Republic	Department of traditional medicine and intercultural development, Health Department
Nicaragua [c]	Council for the development of the Caribbean coast	2007			Health commissions and regional councils of the North and South Atlantic Autonomous Regions of Nicaragua (RAAN and RAAS)
Panama	National department for indigenist policy	1954		Ministry of Interior and Justice	Technical department for the traditional medicine of indigenous peoples and the health departments of indigenous comarcas, Ministry of Health
Paraguay [d]	Paraguayan Indigenous Institute (INDI)	1981	National Institute	Office of the Presidency of the Republic	None
Peru [e]	National Institute for the Development of Andean, Amazonian and Afro-Peruvian Peoples (INDEPA)	2005	Public body with a ministerial rank executive secretary	Presidency of the Council of Ministers	Intercultural Health Centre (CENSI), National Health Institute, Ministry of Health
Venezuela (Rep. Bol. of)	Ministry of Indigenous Affairs	2007	Ministry	Office of the Presidency of the Republic	Department of Indigenous Health, Ministry of Health

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of countries' replies to the ECLAC survey.
[a] The Ministry of Peasant Affairs, Indigenous and First Peoples (MACPIO) was eliminated in January 2006.
[b] The National Commission for the Development of Indigenous Peoples replaced the National Indigenist Institute of Mexico created in 1950.
[c] The Council for the development of the Caribbean coast replaced the Technical Secretariat of the Office of the President for Indigenous Affairs created in 1991.
[d] The Paraguayan Indigenous Institute replaced the National Indigenous Institute created in 1975.
[e] The National Institute for the Development of Andean, Amazonian and Afro-Peruvian Peoples replaced the National Commission for the Development of Andean, Amazonian and Afro-Peruvian Peoples created in 2001.

Annex V.4

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): HEALTH PROGRAMMES AND INDIGENOUS PEOPLES

	Type of programme	Objectives	Coverage	Target population	Coordinating institution	Achievements	Aspects requiring review	Funding	Country
1. Special									
1.1. General	Health for indigenous peoples (1999)	To improve health and quality of life. To promote integral development. To respect and value cultural specificities	Targeted: rural	Communities of indigenous peoples	Ministry of Health	Interinstitutional articulation		National budget	Argentina
	Intercultural health (2005)	Health care with participatory management, empowerment and leadership	Targeted: rural and by area (Andean, valley and the east)	Indigenous population aged 5 to 45	Ministry of Health, indigenous organizations, NGOs and international agencies	Participation of indigenous and Afro-Bolivian organizations	Implementation of real interculturalism in health centres	National and international budget and NGOs	Bolivia
	Adaptation of health services (2005)		Targeted: by area (Andean and valley)	Indigenous population					Bolivia
	Health care for indigenous peoples (1999)	Integral health care for indigenous peoples	Targeted: 34 Special Indigenous Sanitary Districts (DSEI), rural and urban areas	Indigenous communities	Ministry of Health and other government entities	Formulation of indicators and visibility of health in indigenous lands. Professionalization of services. Articulation and adoption of strategies in the single health system. Increased investment	Policy of human resources and professionalization of indigenous agents. Care of indigenous people outside their territories and in urban areas. Regionalization and greater autonomy of Indigenous Sanitary Districts. Intersectoral dialogue	National budget	Brazil
	Single health system: indigenous health component (2000)	To strengthen the health care model: management, financing, organization and community initiatives with traditional medicine	Targeted: 34 Special Indigenous Sanitary Districts (DSEI), rural and urban areas	Indigenous population	Ministry of Health			National budget, International Fund	Brazil
	Health and indigenous peoples (1996)	To improve health and the environment. To satisfy needs in an integral way. To consider sociocultural characteristics with the participation of indigenous peoples	Targeted: 22 health services	Peoples: Aimara, Atacaman, Colla, Diaguita, Rapa Nui, Mapuche, Yánama, Kawésqar	Ministry of Health	Increased coverage. Improved geographical and cultural access (technical rules and procedures). Improved quality of care and capacity to resolve problems. Awareness raising and training for health teams. Coordination between services and indigenous organizations. Epidemiological studies. Intercultural facilitators. Care for indigenous migrants.	Low participation of communities. Lack of training and human resources. Overworked local teams. Difficulty in achieving consensus around intercultural health. Insufficient media exposure. The programme is not implemented in a cross-cutting way throughout the health system	National budget	Chile

Annex V.4 (continued)

Type of programme	Objectives	Coverage	Target population	Coordinating institution	Achievements	Aspects requiring review	Funding	Country
Intercultural health components (Origins program me) (2001)	To improve the health of the indigenous population. To eliminate cultural barriers. To expand physical access to services.	Targeted: 44 rural areas	Aimara, Atacaman and Mapuche peoples	Ministry of Planning and Cooperation (MIDEPLAN), National Indigenous Development Corporation (CONADI) and other ministries (health, education and agriculture)	Training of health teams that is recognized in a public service career. Coordination with municipalities. Cultural adaptation projects in the area of health. Appreciation, revival and strengthening of indigenous medicine	Administratively complex health services. Implementation and assessment of pilot experiments: Complementarity of indigenous and official medicine.	International Fund (Inter-American Development Bank)	Chile
Adapting the compulsory health plan (POS) for indigenous peoples (2007)	To formulate integral and intercultural health models	Targeted: areas of Cauca and Sierra Nevada de Santa Marta	Peoples: Nasa, Guambiano Yanacona, Arhuaco, Kogui, Wiwa	Ministry of Health, indigenous organizations and international agencies	Raising of awareness at the national level. Round table discussions between indigenous peoples and health authorities	Lack of specific resources and trained staff. Relaunching indigenous health promoters and linking them to the system. Producing follow-up and assessment instruments	National budget	Colombia
Basic health care plan (PAB) (2004)	To agree and adapt collective public health measures in aspects of traditional medicine	Targeted: municipalities and departments	Peoples of indigenous reserves	Ministry of Social Protection and other government agencies			National budget	Colombia
Integral health care for the indigenous population (2002)	Integral health care and accessibility at least equal to that enjoyed by the rest of the population	Targeted: Coto Brus canton	Indigenous population	Ministry of Health, other government entities and indigenous organizations	Improvement in the social and health conditions, morbidity and mortality. Reduction in the number of hospitalizations and emergencies. Positive financial effect	Cultural adaptation of health services	National budget	Costa Rica
Integral health care for indigenous migrants (2002)	To provide quality preventive and health care services in an integral and timely way in the spheres of infectious diseases, mother and child, older adults, housing, drinking water and nutrition	Targeted: Coto Brus canton	Indigenous migrants	Ministry of Health, other government entities and indigenous organizations			National budget	Costa Rica
Intercultural health (1999)	To develop intercultural health models. To strengthen traditional systems. To strengthen organization and human resources			Ministry of Public Health			National budget	Ecuador

Annex V.4 (continued)

Type of programme	Objectives	Coverage	Target population	Coordinating institution	Achievements	Aspects requiring review	Funding	Country
Ethnic care programme (1996)	To coordinate health care with ethnic organizations and institutions. To strengthen community health services. To provide culturally relevant training to local resources and interinstitutional teams: to define policies, research and assessment. To promote an equitable, timely and efficient intercultural approach.	Nationwide	All the country's indigenous and Afro-descendent groups (9)	Ministry of Health, indigenous organizations and NGOs	Human resource training with an intercultural approach in all health programmes. Use of methodologies incorporated and agreed upon with indigenous peoples.	Shortage of technical and financial resources. Human resources with limited training.	National budget and International Fund	Honduras
Health models of the North and South Atlantic Autonomous Regions of Nicaragua (RAAN and RAAS) (2005)	To promote the development of the care model for the autonomous regions of the Caribbean coast of Nicaragua	Targeted: North and South Atlantic Autonomous Regions of Nicaragua (RAAN and RAAS)	620,000 people from indigenous and ethnic communities	Ministry of Health and other government entities: regional government and council of North and South Atlantic Autonomous Regions	Integrating the population of autonomous regions into health care. Social participation (especially of indigenous peoples) in model management. Cultural revival. Social solidarity and reciprocity. Equitable care	Insufficient funding. Cultural adaptation of programmes and standards under way. Decentralization under way. Progress in terms of the model does not extend to the Pacific, central and northern regions.	National budget	Nicaragua
Office for Indigenous Health "An intercultural vision" (2005)	To provide quality and efficient care to indigenous patients, while promoting intercultural communication	Targeted: eight states, rural and urban areas	40 indigenous peoples	Ministry of Health, other government agencies, indigenous organizations and international agencies	Establishment of seven offices in hospitals in the states of Bolívar, Delta Amacuro, Distrito Capital and Zulia	Extension of Offices for Indigenous Health to state hospitals with the most referrals for indigenous patients	National budget	Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)
Indigenous health advocates (2006)	To improve communication between the health care team and the users of hospitals, primary care centres and communities	Targeted: eight states, rural and urban areas	40 indigenous peoples	Ministry of Health, other government agencies, indigenous organizations	Training of 427 indigenous health advocates in eight states with indigenous population	Incorporating and training community indigenous health agents	National budget	Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)

Annex V.4 (continued)

	Type of programme	Objectives	Coverage	Target population	Coordinating institution	Achievements	Aspects requiring review	Funding	Country
	Delta Plan (2007)	To treat and accommodate Warao patients and their relatives. Nutrition and food care. To strengthen traditional Warao medicine. To provide integral health care and train integrated community health agents. Revival and intercultural adaptation of health establishments.	Targeted: Delta Amacuro state, rural and urban areas	Warao people	Ministry of Health and other ministries				Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)
1.2. Specific									
1.2.1. Traditional medicine	Artisanal laboratories (2005)	To transform medicinal plants into pharmaceuticals	Targeted: rural areas	People aged 20 to 50 in indigenous communities	Ministry of Health, indigenous organizations, international agencies	Training in converting medicinal plants into pharmaceuticals. Preparation of guides, leaflets and other written materials. Participation of indigenous and Afro-Bolivian organizations	Lack of adequate regulation for registering pharmaceutical products. Sources of funding, training of human resources	National budget, International Fund and NGOs	Bolivia
	Traditional birth attendants (2000)								Costa Rica
	Traditional, popular and alternative medicine (2003)	To recognize value and revive traditional popular medicine and other alternative care models at the political, technical, normative and operational levels	Targeted: Totonicapán, Quetzaltenango Huehuetenango Chimaltenango Quiché and Sololá	Women of childbearing age and traditional healers	Ministry of Public Health and Social Welfare, other government entities, indigenous organizations and NGOs	Traditional medicine guides and standards. Vademecum of medicinal plants. Strengthening and revival of the practices of traditional healers.	Lack of funding. Limited human resources. Lack of political will to implement the programme. Programme at a standstill.	No funding	Guatemala
	Mother Project (2006)	To reduce infant mortality in indigenous populations	Targeted: eight states with an indigenous population in urban and rural areas	40 indigenous peoples	Ministry of Health, other government entities and indigenous organizations	Participation in the programme of traditional doctors, birth attendants and midwives from indigenous communities	Health services need to provide a timely response to the needs of the indigenous population as well as integrating indigenous peoples and assessing, monitoring, controlling and defining the effect of the programme		Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)

Annex V.4 (continued)

	Type of programme	Objectives	Coverage	Target population	Coordinating institution	Achievements	Aspects requiring review	Funding	Country
1.2.2. Intercultural human resources	Intercultural health training (no other information)								Bolivia
	Training for health workers who treat the indigenous population (2002)	To train human resources to be respectful of the different concepts of the health-disease process	Targeted: rural areas with a high indigenous population	Children and pregnant or breastfeeding women	Health Department	Incorporation in the regular training programmes of health workers	Training of intercultural health instructors for operational levels	National budget	Mexico
	Strengthening the health care capacity of communities and their institutions (2004)	To improve development in childhood, adolescence and young adults in indigenous areas	Targeted: territories of the seven indigenous peoples	Indigenous peoples	Ministry of Health		Increasing promotion of the use of condoms and other methods of birth control	National budget	Panama
	Intercultural training for mobile teams (2006)	To incorporate interculturalism in the provision of health services to the population currently treated by mobile teams	Targeted: geographically isolated or highly dispersed communities	Amazonian and Andean indigenous peoples	Ministry of Health	Training of all mobile health care teams	Insufficient funding and limited human resources for training	National budget	Peru
2. Regular									
2.1. Primary health care	Community doctors (2005)	To train professionals in intercultural and community health to improve primary health care. To strengthen national and provincial management, while respecting traditions and customs.	Targeted: indigenous communities, urban and rural areas	Indigenous peoples and communities	Ministry of Health	Formulation and implementation of an action plan: diagnosis, assistance, local participative and intersectoral intervention		National budget	Argentina
	Primary health care by indigenous workers (2000)	To train indigenous individuals to care for their peoples	Targeted: indigenous territories	Peoples in indigenous territories	Other government entities				Costa Rica
	Primary health care in Amazonia (2000)	To set up intercultural task forces providing integrated care through mobile unit networks and programmes	Targeted: Amazonia	Amazonian peoples					Ecuador

Annex V.4 (continued)

	Type of programme	Objectives	Coverage	Target population	Coordinating institution	Achievements	Aspects requiring review	Funding	Country
	Yanomami health plan (no further information)	To increase the coverage of culturally and linguistically appropriate primary health care, with participation of indigenous workers and the implementation of strategies adapted to the geographical conditions of the area	Targeted: Alto Orinoco and Río Negro municipalities of the state of Amazonas (rural)	Peoples: Yanomami, Yekuana and Arahuaco (around 21,000 indigenous individuals)		Training of health agents in methodology based on demands and priorities. Bilingual training. Exchange of western and traditional healing practices and knowledge.	Lack of mechanisms to enable significant participation by indigenous peoples in the design, follow-up and control of pubic health policies (especially in Alto Orinoco)		Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)
2.2. Sexual health and reproductive rights	National plan for sexual health and reproductive rights (2005)	To include interculturalism in the National plan for sexual health and reproductive rights of the National Health System							Ecuador
	Care services for women during pregnancy and labour (2004)	To develop emergency obstetric services and reduce maternal mortality	Targeted: territories of seven indigenous peoples	Women of indigenous communities	Ministry of Health, at the level of regions, provinces and comarcas	Consolidation of the traditional birth attendant programme for care during pregnancy and labour in indigenous communities		National budget and International Fund	Panama
	Strengthening of institutional capacity to offer sexual health and reproductive services with a gender and intercultural focus (2004)	To reduce rates of abortion, child mortality and teenage pregnancy through the use of contraceptive methods	Nationwide and targeted in indigenous territories	All indigenous and non-indigenous population (with emphasis on adolescents and young people)	Ministry of Health, at the level of regions, provinces and comarcas		Increasing promotion of the use of condoms and other methods of birth control	National budget	Panama
3. Particular programmes, according to regular programme areas									
3.1. Infectious diseases	Intersectoral and intercultural prevention and control of STIs/ HIV/AIDS, (2004)	To halt the progress of HIV/AIDS	Nationwide and targeted in indigenous territories	Emphasis on indigenous territories and people living with HIV/AIDS	Ministry of Health, at the level of regions, provinces and comarcas		Raising awareness around the use of condoms in indigenous areas	National budget	Panama
	Care and prevention of tuberculosis and malaria (2004)	To detect outbreaks of tuberculosis and malaria for eradication (treatment and cure)	Nationwide and targeted in indigenous territories	General	Ministry of Health, at the level of regions, provinces and comarcas	The low number of cases of tuberculosis and malaria in indigenous regions		National budget	Panama

Annex V.4 (concluded)

	Type of programme	Objectives	Coverage	Target population	Coordinating institution	Achievements	Aspects requiring review	Funding	Country
3.2 Basic sanitation	Improving the sanitation infrastructure of communities (2005)	To improve the quality of service	Targeted: rural and peri-urban areas	Peoples: Diaguita Toba, Wichi, Pilagá	Ministry of Health, Ministry of Labour, Employment and Social Security, indigenous organizations and NGOs	Participation of communities in the formulation and management of health policies and programmes. Improved service and more dignified working conditions.	Raising awareness of the responsibilities of the health system and communities in maintaining infrastructure		Argentina
	Basic sanitation in indigenous areas	To build water-supply and sanitation systems and control their quality; to rebuild indigenous health centres and clinics	Nationwide	General	Ministry of Health			National budget	Brasil
	Safe drinking water and basic sanitation in rural and indigenous areas (2004)	To provide the inhabitants of indigenous territories with drinking water	Nationwide and targeted in indigenous territories	General and rural and indigenous communities	Ministry of Health, at the level of regions, provinces and comarcas		Although indigenous territories have water resources, few communities have drinking water	National budget	Panama
3.3 Food and nutrition	Food and nutritional security (2003)	To reduce chronic undernutrition in rural and indigenous communities	Nationwide and targeted in indigenous territories	Rural and indigenous communities	Ministry of Health, at the level of regions, provinces and comarcas, NGOs	Reduction in the level of undernutrition		National budget	Panama

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of countries' replies to the ECLAC survey.

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Statistical appendix

Table contents

SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONTEXT

POVERTY AND INCOME DISTRIBUTION

LABOUR MARKET

WAGES

EDUCATION

MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONTEXT

Table 1

TRENDS IN SELECTED ECONOMIC INDICATORS, 1990-2006

Country	Year	Per capita GDP (in 2000 dollars)	Per capita income (in 2000 dollars) [a]	Urban unemployment (percentage)	Annual variation in consumer prices	Average annual variations in the period				
						Period	Per capita GDP	Per capita income [a]	Mean real remuneration	Urban minimum wage
Argentina	1990	5 833	5 690	7.4	1 343.9					
	1999	7 874	7 620	14.3	-1.8	1990-1999	3.4	3.3	0.5	15.0
	2000	7 730	7 536	15.1	-0.7	2000	-1.8	-1.1	2.3	0.9
	2001	7 315	7 112	17.4	-1.5	2001	-5.4	-5.6	-0.8	1.1
	2002	6 456	6 169	19.7	41.0	2002	-11.7	-13.3	-13.9	-19.5
	2003	6 961	6 722	17.3	3.7	2003	7.8	9.0	-1.9	3.3
	2004	7 518	7 286	13.6	6.1	2004	8.0	8.4	10.0	54.5
	2005	8 131	7 947	11.6	12.3	2005	8.1	9.1	6.1	31.8
	2006	8 733	8 633	10.4	9.8	2006	7.4	8.6	8.6	12.9
Bolivia	1990	870	901	7.3	18.0					
	1999	995	1 016	7.2	3.1	1990-1999	1.5	1.3	2.1	10.2
	2000	996	1 016	7.5	3.4	2001	0.1	-0.0	1.4	2.9
	2001	990	1 005	8.5	0.9	2001	-0.6	-1.0	5.8	10.8
	2002	992	1 038	8.7	2.4	2002	0.2	3.3	3.3	4.7
	2003	996	1 076	9.2	3.9	2003	0.4	3.6	1.6	0.8
	2004	1 015	1 114	6.2	4.6	2004	1.9	3.5	2.9	-4.2
	2005	1 033	1 151	8.2	4.9	2005	1.8	3.3	-3.9	-5.1
	2006	1 059	1 272	…	4.9	2006	2.5	10.5	…	4.5
Brazil	1990	3 349	3 274	4.3	1 583.9					
	1999	3 589	3 481	7.6	8.9	1990-1999	0.8	0.7	0.2	3.1
	2000	3 689	3 595	7.1	6.0	2000	2.8	3.3	-1.1	2.6
	2001	3 682	3 570	6.2	7.7	2001	-0.2	-0.7	-4.9	9.8
	2002	3 727	3 619	11.7	12.5	2002	1.2	1.4	-2.1	4.2
	2003	3 715	3 610	12.3	9.3	2003	-0.3	-0.3	-8.8	2.7
	2004	3 872	3 776	11.5	7.6	2004	4.2	4.6	0.7	3.4
	2005	3 930	3 841	9.8	5.7	2005	1.5	1.7	-0.3	5.8
	2006	4 021	3 973	10.1	3.1	2006	2.3	3.4	3.5	13.1
Chile	1990	3 081	2 952	9.2 [c]	27.3					
	1999	4 751	4 579	10.1 [c]	2.3	1990-1999	4.9	5.0	4.0	5.5
	2000	4 903	4 754	9.7 [c]	4.5	2000	3.2	3.8	1.4	7.1
	2001	5 009	4 759	9.9 [c]	2.6	2001	2.2	0.1	1.7	3.8
	2002	5 061	4 841	9.8 [c]	2.8	2002	1.0	1.7	2.0	2.9
	2003	5 203	4 957	9.5 [c]	1.1	2003	2.8	2.4	0.9	1.4
	2004	5 456	5 410	10.0 [c]	2.4	2004	4.9	9.1	1.8	2.8
	2005	5 708	5 850	9.2 [c]	3.7	2005	4.6	8.1	1.9	1.9
	2006	5 873	6 411	7.9 [c]	2.6	2006	2.9	9.6	1.9	2.5
Colombia	1990	1 837	1 751	10.5	32.4					
	1999	1 986	1 948	19.4	9.2	1990-1999	0.9	1.2	2.6	-0.1
	2000	2 011	1 996	17.2	8.8	2000	1.3	2.5	3.9	0.5
	2001	2 008	1 979	18.2	7.6	2001	-0.1	-0.8	-0.3	1.2
	2002	2 016	1 985	17.6	7.0	2002	0.4	0.3	3.6	0.7
	2003	2 062	2 038	16.7	6.5	2003	2.3	2.7	-0.2	0.1
	2004	2 131	2 143	15.4	5.5	2004	3.3	5.1	1.3	1.8
	2005	2 201	2 241	14.0	4.9	2005	3.3	4.6	1.2	1.2
	2006	2 319	2 389	13.0	4.5	2006	5.4	6.6	3.2	2.8

Table 1 (continued)

TRENDS IN SELECTED ECONOMIC INDICATORS, 1990-2006

Country	Year	Per capita GDP (in 2000 dollars)	Per capita income (in 2000 dollars) [a]	Urban unemployment (percentage)	Annual variation in consumer prices	Average annual variations in the period				
						Period	Per capita GDP	Per capita income [a]	Mean real remuneration	Urban minimum wage
Costa Rica	1990	3 123	3 035	5.4	27.3					
	1999	4 081	3 737	6.2	10.1	1990-1999	3.0	2.3	2.2	1.1
	2000	4 063	3 767	5.3	10.2	2000	-0.5	0.8	0.8	-0.6
	2001	4 022	3 884	5.8	11.0	2001	-1.0	3.1	1.0	0.2
	2002	4 056	3 968	6.8	9.7	2002	0.9	2.2	4.1	-0.6
	2003	4 234	4 043	6.7	9.9	2003	4.4	1.9	0.4	-0.4
	2004	4 336	4 153	6.7	13.1	2004	2.4	2.7	-2.6	-1.6
	2005	4 510	4 326	6.9	14.1	2005	4.0	4.2	-1.9	0.3
	2006	4 780	4 569	6.0	9.4	2006	6.0	5.6	1.6	1.7
Cuba [b]	1990	3 064	3 341	5.4 [c]	…					
	1999	2 395	2 462	6.3 [c]	-2.9	1990-1999	-2.7	-3.3	…	…
	2000	2 534	2 529	5.4	-2.3	2000	5.8	2.7	…	…
	2001	2 603	2 619	5.2	-1.5	2001	2.7	3.5	…	…
	2002	2 636	2 646	3.3	7.0	2002	1.3	1.0	…	…
	2003	2 708	2 746	2.3	-3.8	2003	2.7	3.8	…	…
	2004	2 825	2 818	2.0	2.9	2004	4.3	2.6	…	…
	2005	…	…	2.3	3.7	2005	…	…	…	…
	2006	…	…	2.0	5.7	2006	…	…	…	…
Ecuador	1990	1 252	1 096	6.1	49.5					
	1999	1 279	1 214	15.1	60.7	1990-1999	0.2	1.1	38.7	2.1
	2000	1 296	1 291	14.1	91.0	2000	1.3	6.4	-4.7	-3.6
	2001	1 345	1 305	10.4	22.4	2001	3.8	1.0	11.9	11.5
	2002	1 382	1 356	8.6	9.3	2002	2.8	3.9	10.9	0.9
	2003	1 412	1 381	9.8	6.1	2003	2.1	1.8	…	6.1
	2004	1 502	1 459	11.0	1.9	2004	6.4	5.6	…	2.4
	2005	1 551	1 614	10.7	3.1	2005	3.3	10.7	…	3.0
	2006	1 591	1 732	10.1	2.9	2006	2.6	7.3	…	3.3
El Salvador	1990	1 639	1 704	10.0	19.3					
	1999	2 089	2 296	6.9	-1.0	1990-1999	2.7	3.4	…	0.1
	2000	2 093	2 339	6.5	4.3	2000	0.2	1.9	…	-2.2
	2001	2 089	2 432	7.0	1.4	2001	-0.2	4.0	…	-3.6
	2002	2 098	2 380	6.2	2.8	2002	0.4	-2.1	…	-1.8
	2003	2 108	2 361	6.2	2.5	2003	0.5	-0.8	…	2.1
	2004	2 108	2 399	6.5	5.4	2004	0.0	1.6	…	-1.4
	2005	2 129	2 428	7.3	4.3	2005	1.0	1.2	…	-4.5
	2006	2 181	2 527	5.7	4.9	2006	2.5	4.1	…	-0.7
Guatemala	1990	1 290	1 268	6.3 [c]	59.6					
	1999	1 514	1 572	…	4.9	1990-1999	1.8	2.4	5.4	-7.4
	2000	1 532	1 591	…	5.1	2000	1.2	1.2	3.8	4.4
	2001	1 530	1 610	…	8.9	2001	-0.1	1.2	0.5	8.3
	2002	1 550	1 698	5.4	6.3	2002	1.3	5.4	-0.9	0.3
	2003	1 551	1 722	5.2	5.9	2003	0.0	1.4	0.4	8.0
	2004	1 560	1 752	4.4	9.2	2004	0.6	1.7	-2.2	0.3
	2005	1 575	1 780	…	8.6	2005	0.9	1.6	-4.0	-1.4
	2006	1 611	1 829	…	5.8	2006	2.3	2.8	-1.1	3.2

Table 1 (continued)

TRENDS IN SELECTED ECONOMIC INDICATORS, 1990-2006

Country	Year	Per capita GDP (in 2000 dollars)	Per capita income (in 2000 dollars) [a]	Urban unemployment (percentage)	Annual variation in consumer prices	Average annual variations in the period				
						Period	Per capita GDP	Per capita income [a]	Mean real remuneration	Urban minimum wage
Haiti	1990	516	557	…	…					
	1999	431	517	…	9.7	1990-1999	-2.0	-0.8	…	-7.3
	2000	427	515	…	19.0	2000	-0.8	-0.4	…	-11.9
	2001	416	501	…	8.1	2001	-2.7	-2.7	…	-11.6
	2002	408	491	…	14.8	2002	-1.8	-2.1	…	-8.9
	2003	403	498	…	40.4	2003	-1.2	1.5	…	33.5
	2004	383	479	…	20.2	2004	-5.0	-3.9	…	-14.7
	2005	384	493	…	14.8	2005	0.2	3.1	…	-13.2
	2006	386	502	…	…	2006	0.7	1.9	…	-12.0
Honduras	1990	890	857	7.8	36.4					
	1999	934	1 048	5.3	10.9	1990-1999	0.5	2.3	…	-1.1
	2000	967	1 065	…	10.1	2000	3.6	1.7	…	3.1
	2001	972	1 088	5.9	8.8	2001	0.5	2.1	…	2.5
	2002	978	1 085	6.1	8.1	2002	0.6	-0.3	…	2.1
	2003	992	1 084	7.6	6.8	2003	1.4	-0.1	…	8.6
	2004	1 021	1 113	8.0	9.2	2004	3.0	2.7	…	0.8
	2005	1 042	1 209	6.5	7.7	2005	2.0	8.6	…	5.8
	2006	1 083	1 283	5.2	5.3	2006	3.9	6.1	…	5.1
Mexico	1990	4 914	4 756	2.7	29.9					
	1999	5 541	5 455	3.7	12.3	1990-1999	1.3	1.5	0.7	-4.1
	2000	5 826	5 746	3.4	9.0	2000	5.1	5.3	6.0	0.7
	2001	5 761	5 674	3.6	4.4	2001	-1.1	-1.2	6.7	0.4
	2002	5 756	5 701	3.9	5.7	2002	-0.1	0.5	1.9	0.7
	2003	5 791	5 778	4.6	4.0	2003	0.6	1.4	1.4	-0.7
	2004	5 986	6 058	5.3	5.2	2004	3.4	4.8	0.3	-1.3
	2005	6 099	6 222	4.7	3.3	2005	1.9	2.7	-0.3	-0.1
	2006	6 323	6 486	4.6	4.1	2006	3.7	4.2	0.4	0.0
Nicaragua	1990	681	577	7.6 [c]	13 490.2					
	1999	753	799	10.7 [c]	7.2	1990-1999	1.1	3.7	3.1	0.8
	2000	771	812	7.8	9.9	2000	2.4	1.6	0.0	-0.5
	2001	783	807	11.3	4.7	2001	1.5	-0.7	1.0	2.1
	2002	778	812	11.6	4.0	2002	-0.6	0.7	3.5	3.7
	2003	787	826	10.2	6.6	2003	1.2	1.7	1.9	3.1
	2004	819	857	9.3	8.9	2004	4.0	3.8	-2.2	4.0
	2005	843	887	7.0	9.6	2005	3.0	3.5	0.2	4.0
	2006	863	890	…	10.2	2006	2.3	0.3	1.4	8.8
Panama	1990	2 942	3 017	20.0	0.8					
	1999	3 912	3 816	13.6	1.5	1990-1999	3.2	2.6	…	1.7
	2000	3 942	3 812	15.2	0.7	2000	0.8	-0.1	…	3.8
	2001	3 891	3 834	17.0	0.0	2001	-1.3	0.6	…	7.0
	2002	3 905	3 942	16.5	1.9	2002	0.4	2.8	…	-1.2
	2003	3 994	3 835	15.9	1.5	2003	2.3	-2.7	…	0.7
	2004	4 219	3 942	14.1	1.5	2004	5.6	2.8	0.3	0.9
	2005	4 434	4 066	12.1	3.4	2005	5.1	3.1	1.9	-3.0
	2006	4 713	4 301	10.4	2.2	2006	6.3	5.8	2.9	3.5
Paraguay	1990	1 400	1 397	6.6	44.0					
	1999	1 402	1 454	9.4	5.4	1990-1999	0.0	0.4	1.3	-1.3
	2000	1 327	1 364	10.0	8.6	2000	-5.3	-6.2	1.3	4.3
	2001	1 327	1 359	10.8	8.4	2001	0.0	-0.4	1.4	3.7
	2002	1 300	1 294	14.7	14.6	2002	-2.0	-4.8	-5.0	-0.7
	2003	1 324	1 331	11.2	9.3	2003	1.8	2.9	-0.8	2.8
	2004	1 352	1 357	10.0	2.8	2004	2.1	2.0	1.7	-3.3
	2005	1 365	1 346	7.6	9.9	2005	0.9	-0.8	1.1	2.0
	2006	1 396	1 396	…	12.5	2006	2.3	3.6	0.6	2.2

Table 1 (concluded)
TRENDS IN SELECTED ECONOMIC INDICATORS, 1990-2006

Country	Year	Per capita GDP (in 2000 dollars)	Per capita income (in 2000 dollars) [a]	Urban unemployment (percentage)	Annual variation in consumer prices	Average annual variations in the period				
						Period	Per capita GDP	Per capita income [a]	Mean real remuneration	Urban minimum wage
Peru	1990	1 649	1 595	8.3	7 646.8					
	1999	2 047	2 043	9.2	3.7	1990-1999	2.4	2.8	0.6	2.3
	2000	2 079	2 063	8.5	3.7	2000	1.6	1.0	0.8	11.1
	2001	2 057	2 039	9.3	-0.1	2001	-1.1	-1.2	-0.9	1.2
	2002	2 137	2 115	9.4	1.5	2002	3.9	3.7	4.6	-0.2
	2003	2 194	2 165	9.4	2.5	2003	2.7	2.4	1.6	1.2
	2004	2 281	2 245	9.4	3.5	2004	4.0	3.7	1.1	4.6
	2005	2 400	2 385	9.6	1.5	2005	5.2	6.3	-1.9	-1.6
	2006	2 563	2 638	8.5	1.1	2006	6.8	10.6	1.2	6.6
Dominican Republic	1990	1 717	1 684	…	79.9					
	1999	2 526	2 667	13.8 [c]	7.8	1990-1999	4.4	5.2	…	2.6
	2000	2 679	2 778	13.9 [c]	9.0	2000	6.1	4.1	…	-0.4
	2001	2 696	2 814	15.6 [c]	4.4	2001	0.6	1.3	…	5.7
	2002	2 786	2 929	16.1 [c]	10.5	2002	3.3	4.1	…	-0.5
	2003	2 731	2 762	16.7 [c]	42.7	2003	-2.0	-5.7	…	-9.2
	2004	2 760	2 759	18.4 [c]	28.7	2004	1.1	-0.1	-24.2	-15.0
	2005	2 970	2 964	18.0 [c]	7.4	2005	7.6	7.4	16.7	18.7
	2006	3 239	3 237	16.4 [c]	5.0	2006	9.1	9.2	…	-7.1
Uruguay	1990	4 802	4 852	8.5	128.9					
	1999	6 174	6 144	11.3	4.2	1990-1999	2.8	2.7	1.4	-5.3
	2000	6 061	6 051	13.6	5.1	2000	-1.8	-1.5	-1.3	-1.6
	2001	5 845	5 853	15.3	3.6	2001	-3.6	-3.3	-0.3	-1.3
	2002	5 200	5 247	17.0	25.9	2002	-11.0	-10.4	-10.7	-10.1
	2003	5 317	5 163	16.9	10.2	2003	2.2	-1.6	-12.5	-12.4
	2004	5 949	5 743	13.1	7.6	2004	11.9	11.2	0.0	-0.2
	2005	6 341	6 071	12.2	4.9	2005	6.6	5.7	4.6	70.2
	2006	6 770	6 483	11.6	6.4	2006	6.8	6.8	4.3	16.1
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	4 828	4 522	10.4 [c]	36.5					
	1999	4 738	4 218	15.0 [c]	20.0	1990-1999	-0.2	-0.8	-3.9	-0.8
	2000	4 822	4 758	13.9 [c]	13.4	2000	1.8	12.8	4.0	3.8
	2001	4 894	4 569	13.3 [c]	12.3	2001	1.5	-4.0	6.9	-0.0
	2002	4 381	4 102	15.8 [c]	31.2	2002	-10.5	-10.2	-11.0	-5.4
	2003	3 970	3 844	18.0 [c]	27.1	2003	-9.4	-6.3	-17.6	-11.9
	2004	4 615	4 667	15.3 [c]	19.2	2004	16.2	21.4	0.2	11.3
	2005	5 005	5 556	12.4 [c]	14.4	2005	8.5	19.0	2.6	11.8
	2006	5 430	6 318	9.8 [c]	17.0	2006	8.5	13.7	5.1	9.9
Latin America [d]	1990	3 405	3 301	7.3	…					
	1999	3 877	3 772	11.0	9.7	1990-1999	1.5	1.5	1.0	2.2
	2000	3 970	3 901	10.4	9.0	2000	2.4	3.4	1.7	2.2
	2001	3 926	3 833	10.2	6.1	2001	-1.1	-1.7	0.3	4.5
	2002	3 855	3 768	11.0	12.2	2002	-1.8	-1.7	-1.5	0.2
	2003	3 886	3 812	11.0	8.5	2003	0.8	1.2	-4.1	1.4
	2004	4 074	4 037	10.3	7.4	2004	4.8	5.9	1.4	5.3
	2005	4 208	4 223	9.1	6.1	2005	3.3	4.6	0.4	5.6
	2006	4 384	4 465	8.7	4.8	2006	4.2	5.8	2.8	6.8

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of official information from the relevant countries.

[a] Real per capita gross national income.

[b] The figures for per capita GDP and per capita available income are unofficial estimates calculated by ECLAC. According to information supplied by the Government of Cuba, in 2005, the Cuban economy grew by 11.8% in per capita GDP terms. This growth rate was calculated using a new methodology currently being studied by ECLAC and the Government of Cuba.

[c] Nationwide total.

[d] The aggregate figures for Latin America are obtained from weighted averages for all countries for which data are available in each indicator.

Table 2

TOTAL REGIONAL POPULATION BY COUNTRY OR TERRITORY, 1980-2010

(Thousands at mid-year)

Country or territory	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010
Netherlands Antilles	174	182	191	191	181	186	199
Argentina	28 094	30 305	32 581	34 779	36 784	38 592	40 519
Bahamas	210	233	255	280	303	323	343
Barbados	249	260	271	280	286	292	297
Belize	144	163	186	214	245	276	306
Bolivia	5 355	5 964	6 669	7 482	8 428	9 427	10 426
Brazil	121 672	136 178	149 690	162 019	174 719	187 601	199 992
Chile	11 174	12 102	13 179	14 395	15 398	16 267	17 094
Colombia	28 356	31 564	34 875	38 259	41 661	44 907	47 859
Costa Rica	2 347	2 697	3 076	3 475	3 925	4 322	4 695
Cuba	9 823	10 086	10 605	10 930	11 129	11 242	11 236
Dominica	73	72	69	69	68	68	67
Ecuador	7 961	9 099	10 272	11 396	12 297	13 211	14 200
El Salvador	4 586	4 769	5 110	5 669	6 276	6 874	7 453
Granada	89	100	96	98	100	105	105
Guadeloupe	327	355	391	406	421	438	454
Guatemala	7 013	7 935	8 908	10 004	11 225	12 700	14 362
Guyana	761	754	731	739	734	739	731
French Guiana	68	88	116	139	164	187	208
Haiti	5 691	6 388	7 108	7 836	8 576	9 292	10 085
Honduras	3 634	4 236	4 901	5 588	6 231	6 893	7 614
Jamaica	2 133	2 297	2 369	2 485	2 589	2 682	2 756
Martinique	326	341	360	375	386	396	402
Mexico	69 325	76 826	84 002	91 823	99 684	104 159	110 056
Nicaragua	3 257	3 715	4 141	4 664	5 106	5 457	5 825
Panama	1 949	2 176	2 411	2 670	2 948	3 228	3 497
Paraguay	3 198	3 702	4 248	4 799	5 346	5 899	6 451
Peru	17 325	19 523	21 762	23 857	25 650	27 254	28 861
Puerto Rico	3 197	3 378	3 528	3 696	3 834	3 947	4 056
Dominican Republic	5 935	6 609	7 296	8 014	8 740	9 465	10 169
Saint Lucia	118	127	138	146	153	161	171
Suriname	356	383	402	416	436	452	465
Trinidad and Tobago	1 082	1 179	1 224	1 270	1 301	1 324	1 348
Uruguay	2 914	3 009	3 106	3 218	3 314	3 317	3 363
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	15 091	17 317	19 731	22 034	24 296	26 556	28 807
Regional total [a]	**364 007**	**404 109**	**443 997**	**483 716**	**522 935**	**558 239**	**594 472**

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, population estimates and projections database, 2006 revision, Santiago, Chile; United Nations Population Division, World Population Prospects: The 2006 Revision (ST/ESA/SER.A/266) [CD-ROM]

[a] Includes 20 countries: Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, and Uruguay.

Table 2.1

ESTIMATED TOTAL POPULATION GROWTH RATES BY FIVE-YEAR PERIOD, 1980-2010

(Rates per thousand)

Country	1980-1985	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2005-2010
Netherlands Antilles	9.0	9.7	0.0	-10.8	5.4	13.5
Argentina	15.2	14.5	13.1	11.2	9.6	9.7
Bahamas	20.8	18.0	18.7	15.8	12.8	12.0
Barbados	8.6	8.3	6.5	4.2	4.2	3.4
Belize	24.8	26.4	28.0	27.1	23.8	20.6
Bolivia	21.5	22.3	23.0	23.8	22.4	20.1
Brazil	22.5	18.9	15.8	15.1	14.2	12.8
Chile	16.0	17.1	17.7	13.5	11.0	9.9
Colombia	21.4	19.9	18.5	17.0	15.0	12.7
Costa Rica	27.8	26.3	24.4	24.4	19.3	16.6
Cuba	5.3	10.0	6.0	3.6	2.0	-0.1
Dominica	-2.8	-8.5	0.0	-2.9	0.0	-3.0
Ecuador	26.7	24.3	20.8	15.2	14.4	14.4
El Salvador	7.8	13.8	20.7	20.4	18.2	16.2
Granada	23.3	-8.2	4.1	4.0	9.8	0.0
Guadeloupe	16.5	19.2	7.7	7.3	7.9	7.2
Guatemala	24.7	23.1	23.2	23.0	24.7	24.6
Guyana	-1.8	-6.2	2.2	-1.4	1.4	-2.2
French Guiana	50.8	55.8	34.9	34.1	25.3	21.8
Haiti	23.1	21.4	19.5	18.0	16.0	16.4
Honduras	30.6	29.2	26.2	21.8	20.2	19.9
Jamaica	14.8	6.2	9.6	8.2	7.1	5.4
Martinique	8.6	11.3	8.0	5.6	5.3	3.0
Mexico	20.5	17.9	17.8	16.4	8.8	11.0
Nicaragua	26.3	21.7	23.8	18.1	13.3	13.0
Panama	22.0	20.5	20.4	19.8	18.2	16.0
Paraguay	29.3	27.5	24.4	21.6	19.7	17.9
Peru	23.9	21.7	18.4	14.5	12.1	11.5
Puerto Rico	11.0	8.7	9.3	7.3	5.8	5.4
Dominican Republic	21.5	19.8	18.8	17.3	15.9	14.3
Saint Lucia	14.7	16.6	11.3	9.4	10.2	12.1
Suriname	14.6	9.7	6.8	9.4	7.2	5.7
Trinidad and Tobago	17.2	7.5	7.4	4.8	3.5	3.6
Uruguay	6.4	6.3	7.1	5.9	0.2	2.7
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	27.5	26.1	22.1	19.5	17.8	16.3
Regional total [a]	**20.9**	**18.8**	**17.1**	**15.6**	**13.1**	**12.6**

Source: Figures based on table 2 of the statistical appendix.

[a] Includes 20 countries: Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, and Uruguay.

Table 2.2

ESTIMATED GLOBAL FERTILITY RATES BY COUNTRY AND FIVE-YEAR PERIOD, 1980-2010

(Children per woman)

Country	1980-1985	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2005-2010
Netherlands Antilles	2.36	2.30	2.28	2.12	2.06	1.85
Argentina	3.15	3.05	2.90	2.63	2.35	2.25
Bahamas	3.16	2.62	2.60	2.40	2.11	2.02
Barbados	1.92	1.75	1.60	1.50	1.50	1.50
Belize	5.40	4.70	4.35	3.85	3.35	2.94
Bolivia	5.30	5.00	4.80	4.32	3.96	3.50
Brazil	3.80	3.10	2.60	2.45	2.34	2.25
Chile	2.67	2.65	2.55	2.21	2.00	1.94
Colombia	3.69	3.17	2.93	2.70	2.47	2.22
Costa Rica	3.53	3.37	2.95	2.58	2.28	2.10
Cuba	1.85	1.85	1.65	1.61	1.63	1.49
Ecuador	4.70	4.00	3.40	3.10	2.82	2.58
El Salvador	4.50	3.90	3.52	3.17	2.88	2.68
Guadeloupe	2.55	2.45	2.10	2.10	2.06	2.11
Guatemala	6.10	5.70	5.45	5.00	4.60	4.15
Guyana	3.26	2.70	2.55	2.50	2.43	2.33
French Guiana	3.58	3.73	4.05	3.93	3.68	3.27
Haiti	6.21	5.70	5.15	4.62	4.00	3.54
Honduras	6.00	5.37	4.92	4.30	3.72	3.31
Jamaica	3.55	3.10	2.84	2.67	2.63	2.43
Martinique	2.14	2.14	1.96	1.90	1.98	1.91
Mexico	4.25	3.63	3.19	2.67	2.40	2.21
Nicaragua	5.85	5.00	4.50	3.60	3.00	2.76
Panama	3.52	3.20	2.87	2.79	2.70	2.56
Paraguay	5.20	4.77	4.31	3.88	3.48	3.08
Peru	4.65	4.10	3.70	3.10	2.70	2.51
Puerto Rico	2.46	2.26	2.18	1.99	1.84	1.83
Dominican Republic	4.00	3.47	3.20	3.05	2.95	2.81
Saint Lucia	4.20	3.65	2.99	2.36	2.24	2.18
Suriname	3.70	3.00	2.60	2.80	2.60	2.42
Trinidad and Tobago	3.22	2.80	2.10	1.73	1.61	1.64
Uruguay	2.57	2.53	2.49	2.30	2.20	2.12
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	3.96	3.65	3.25	2.94	2.72	2.55
Regional total [a]	**3.94**	**3.42**	**3.02**	**2.76**	**2.57**	**2.43**

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, population estimates and projections database, 2006 revision, Santiago, Chile; United Nations Population Division, World Population Prospects: The 2006 Revision (ST/ESA/SER.A/266) [CD-ROM]

[a] Includes 20 countries: Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, and Uruguay.

Table 2.3

LIFE EXPECTANCY AT BIRTH, BOTH SEXES, BY FIVE-YEAR PERIOD, BY COUNTRY, 1980-2010

(Number of years)

Country	1980-1985	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2005-2010
Netherlands Antilles	73.8	74.5	74.5	74.6	75.0	75.1
Argentina	70.2	71.0	72.1	73.2	74.3	75.2
Bahamas	67.9	69.5	69.2	68.5	71.1	73.5
Barbados	72.7	74.0	74.9	74.9	76.0	77.3
Belize	71.0	71.9	72.5	74.4	75.6	76.1
Bolivia	53.9	57.3	60.0	62.0	63.8	65.5
Brazil	63.6	65.5	67.5	69.4	71.0	72.4
Chile	70.7	72.7	74.3	75.7	77.7	78.5
Colombia	66.8	68.0	68.7	70.3	71.6	72.8
Costa Rica	73.8	75.2	76.2	77.3	78.1	78.8
Cuba	74.3	74.6	74.8	76.2	77.1	78.3
Ecuador	64.5	67.5	70.0	72.3	74.2	75.0
El Salvador	57.1	63.4	67.1	69.4	70.6	71.8
Guadeloupe	72.5	73.6	75.9	77.3	78.4	79.2
Guatemala	58.3	60.9	63.6	66.3	68.9	70.2
Guyana	60.9	61.8	62.5	62.1	63.6	66.8
French Guiana	69.4	71.2	72.8	74.2	75.1	75.9
Haiti	51.5	53.6	55.2	56.9	58.1	60.6
Honduras	61.6	65.4	67.7	69.8	71.0	72.0
Jamaica	71.2	71.8	71.8	72.3	72.0	72.6
Martinique	73.7	75.4	76.4	77.7	78.8	79.5
Mexico	67.7	69.8	71.8	73.6	74.8	76.1
Nicaragua	59.5	62.2	66.0	68.4	70.8	72.9
Panama	70.8	71.9	72.9	73.8	74.7	75.6
Paraguay	67.0	67.6	68.5	69.4	70.8	71.8
Peru	61.6	64.4	66.7	68.4	69.9	71.4
Puerto Rico	73.8	74.6	73.9	74.9	77.8	78.7
Dominican Republic	64.0	66.6	69.1	70.1	71.2	72.2
Saint Lucia	70.5	71.0	71.3	71.5	72.5	73.7
Suriname	67.6	68.2	68.6	69.0	69.1	70.2
Trinidad and Tobago	68.8	69.6	69.9	69.5	69.0	69.8
Uruguay	71.0	72.1	73.0	74.1	75.2	76.2
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	68.8	70.5	71.5	72.2	72.8	73.8
Regional total [a]	**65.4**	**67.3**	**69.0**	**70.6**	**71.9**	**73.0**

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, population estimates and projections database, 2006 revision, Santiago, Chile; United Nations Population Division, World Population Prospects: The 2006 Revision (ST/ESA/SER.A/266) [CD-ROM]

[a] Includes 20 countries: Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, and Uruguay.

Table 2.4

ESTIMATED INFANT MORTALITY RATES BOTH SEXES, BY FIVE-YEAR PERIOD, 1980-2010

(Deaths of children under the age of one year per thousand live births)

Country	1980-1985	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2005-2010
Netherlands Antilles	18.0	17.0	15.1	15.5	15.0	14.8
Argentina	32.2	27.1	24.4	21.8	15.0	13.4
Bahamas	30.4	24.4	21.3	17.5	15.3	13.8
Barbados	19.3	16.1	14.0	13.6	12.3	10.1
Belize	39.3	35.9	29.3	23.3	18.5	16.4
Bolivia	109.2	90.1	75.1	66.7	55.6	45.6
Brazil	63.3	52.4	42.5	34.1	27.3	23.6
Chile	23.7	18.4	14.1	11.5	8.0	7.2
Colombia	43.0	35.3	27.6	24.0	20.5	19.1
Costa Rica	19.2	17.4	14.5	11.8	10.5	9.9
Cuba	17.4	15.9	15.3	9.6	6.1	5.1
Ecuador	68.5	55.5	44.2	33.3	24.9	21.1
El Salvador	77.0	54.0	40.2	32.0	26.4	21.5
Guadeloupe	24.7	22.0	9.2	8.3	7.3	6.8
Guatemala	79.3	67.1	54.8	45.5	38.6	30.1
Guyana	69.5	67.0	62.6	57.5	49.4	42.9
French Guiana	32.0	25.0	19.9	16.4	14.8	13.4
Haiti	122.1	100.1	85.3	70.1	56.1	48.6
Honduras	65.0	53.0	43.0	35.0	31.2	27.8
Jamaica	30.5	27.0	16.8	15.7	14.9	14.1
Martinique	14.0	10.1	9.4	8.0	7.0	6.6
Mexico	47.0	39.5	33.1	27.7	20.5	16.7
Nicaragua	79.8	65.0	48.0	33.6	26.4	21.5
Panama	31.6	29.6	27.0	23.7	20.6	18.2
Paraguay	48.9	46.7	42.9	39.2	35.5	32.0
Peru	81.6	68.0	47.6	38.8	30.3	21.2
Puerto Rico	17.2	13.8	11.6	10.9	8.1	7.2
Dominican Republic	75.2	62.9	47.6	41.3	34.9	29.6
Saint Lucia	22.7	20.1	16.8	16.7	14.6	12.6
Suriname	38.7	35.9	34.8	33.5	31.8	27.7
Trinidad and Tobago	19.2	16.6	15.1	16.1	15.1	12.4
Uruguay	33.5	22.6	20.1	15.6	14.4	13.1
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	33.6	26.9	23.1	20.7	18.9	17.0
Regional total [a]	**57.5**	**47.5**	**39.2**	**33.0**	**27.7**	**24.2**

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, population estimates and projections database, 2006 revision, Santiago, Chile; United Nations Population Division, World Population Prospects: The 2006 Revision (ST/ESA/SER.A/266) [CD-ROM]

[a] Includes 20 countries: Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, and Uruguay.

Table 3

TRENDS IN SELECTED SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS, 1980-2010

Country	Five-year periods	Life expectancy at birth (years of life)			Infant mortality (per 1 000 live births)			Under-five mortality rate (per 1 000 live births)			Illiteracy rate in population aged 15 and over (percentage)		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina	1980-1985	70.2	66.8	73.7	32	36	29	37	41	34	5.6	5.3	6.0
	1985-1990	71.0	67.6	74.6	27	30	24	32	35	29	4.3	4.1	4.4
	1990-1995	72.1	68.6	75.8	24	27	22	28	31	25	3.7	3.6	3.7
	1995-2000	73.2	69.7	77.0	22	24	19	24	27	22	3.2	3.2	3.2
	2000-2005	74.3	70.6	78.1	15	17	13	18	20	15	2.8	2.8	2.7
	2005-2010	75.2	71.6	79.1	13	15	12	16	17	14	2.4	2.5	2.4
Bolivia	1980-1985	53.9	52.0	55.9	109	116	102	163	174	153	31.3	20.4	41.7
	1985-1990	57.3	55.6	59.1	90	96	84	127	134	120	21.9	13.2	30.2
	1990-1995	60.0	58.3	61.8	75	79	71	99	103	95	17.9	10.4	25.2
	1995-2000	62.0	60.1	64.0	67	70	63	85	89	81	14.6	8.1	20.8
	2000-2005	63.8	61.8	66.0	56	60	51	71	76	67	11.7	6.2	17.0
	2005-2010	65.5	63.4	67.7	46	50	41	60	65	56	9.4	4.8	13.8
Brazil	1980-1985	63.6	60.4	66.9	64	70	56	77	85	70	24.0	22.0	25.9
	1985-1990	65.5	62.0	69.2	53	59	46	65	73	58	18.0	17.1	18.8
	1990-1995	67.5	63.7	71.5	43	48	36	54	61	47	15.3	14.9	15.7
	1995-2000	69.4	65.7	73.3	34	39	29	42	48	37	13.1	13.0	13.2
	2000-2005	71.0	67.3	74.9	27	31	24	34	38	29	11.1	11.3	11.0
	2005-2010	72.4	68.9	76.1	24	27	20	29	33	25	9.6	10.0	9.3
Chile	1980-1985	70.7	67.4	74.2	24	26	22	28	30	26	8.6	7.7	9.5
	1985-1990	72.7	69.6	75.9	18	20	17	22	24	20	6.0	5.6	6.4
	1990-1995	74.3	71.5	77.4	14	15	13	17	19	15	5.1	4.8	5.3
	1995-2000	75.7	72.8	78.8	12	13	10	14	15	12	4.2	4.1	4.4
	2000-2005	77.7	74.8	80.8	8	9	7	10	11	9	3.5	3.4	3.6
	2005-2010	78.5	75.5	81.5	7	8	6	9	10	8	2.9	2.8	2.9
Colombia	1980-1985	66.8	63.6	70.2	43	47	38	60	65	54	16.0	15.1	16.8
	1985-1990	68.0	64.5	71.7	35	39	31	48	53	44	11.6	11.2	11.9
	1990-1995	68.7	64.5	73.0	28	31	24	38	42	34	9.9	9.7	10.0
	1995-2000	70.3	66.5	74.2	24	27	21	33	37	29	8.4	8.4	8.4
	2000-2005	71.6	68.0	75.4	21	23	17	29	32	25	7.1	7.2	6.9
	2005-2010	72.8	69.2	76.6	19	22	16	26	30	23	5.9	6.1	5.7
Costa Rica	1980-1985	73.8	71.6	76.1	19	21	17	24	26	21	8.3	8.1	8.5
	1985-1990	75.2	72.9	77.5	17	20	15	20	23	18	6.1	6.1	6.2
	1990-1995	76.2	74.0	78.6	15	16	13	17	19	15	5.2	5.3	5.2
	1995-2000	77.3	75.0	79.7	12	13	10	14	16	12	4.4	4.5	4.4
	2000-2005	78.1	75.8	80.6	11	12	9	12	14	11	3.8	3.9	3.7
	2005-2010	78.8	76.5	81.2	10	11	9	12	13	10	3.2	3.3	3.0
Cuba	1980-1985	74.3	72.6	76.0	17	19	16	21	23	20	7.5	7.5	7.5
	1985-1990	74.6	72.8	76.6	16	18	14	19	22	17	4.9	4.8	4.9
	1990-1995	74.8	72.9	76.7	15	17	13	19	21	16	4.1	4.0	4.2
	1995-2000	76.2	74.2	78.2	10	11	8	12	14	10	3.3	3.2	3.4
	2000-2005	77.1	75.3	79.1	6	7	5	8	8	7	2.7	2.6	2.8
	2005-2010	78.3	76.2	80.4	5	6	5	6	7	6	2.1	1.9	2.2

Table 3 (continued)

TRENDS IN SELECTED SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS, 1980-2010

Country	Five-year periods	Life expectancy at birth (years of life)			Infant mortality (per 1 000 live births)			Under-five mortality rate (per 1 000 live births)			Illiteracy rate in population aged 15 and over (percentage)		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Ecuador	1980-1985	64.5	62.5	66.7	69	76	61	94	102	86	18.1	14.2	22.0
	1985-1990	67.5	65.3	69.9	56	62	49	74	81	67	12.4	9.8	14.9
	1990-1995	70.0	67.6	72.6	44	50	39	57	63	51	10.2	8.2	12.3
	1995-2000	72.3	69.7	75.1	33	37	29	41	46	36	8.4	6.8	10.1
	2000-2005	74.2	71.3	77.2	25	29	21	30	35	25	7.0	5.6	8.3
	2005-2010	75.0	72.1	78.0	21	24	18	26	29	22	5.8	4.7	6.9
El Salvador	1980-1985	57.1	50.8	63.8	77	83	71	118	123	113	34.2	29.4	38.7
	1985-1990	63.4	59.0	68.0	54	60	48	77	82	72	27.6	23.9	30.9
	1990-1995	67.1	63.3	71.0	40	44	36	51	57	45	24.1	20.9	27.1
	1995-2000	69.4	66.5	72.5	32	35	29	41	45	37	21.3	18.5	23.9
	2000-2005	70.6	67.7	73.7	26	29	24	35	38	32	18.9	16.4	21.2
	2005-2010	71.8	68.8	74.9	22	23	20	29	32	27	16.6	14.4	18.6
Guatemala	1980-1985	58.3	56.1	60.6	79	84	75	118	121	115	47.0	39.0	55.1
	1985-1990	60.9	58.3	63.7	67	72	62	96	99	92	39.0	31.2	46.8
	1990-1995	63.6	60.5	66.8	55	60	50	74	78	70	35.1	27.4	42.7
	1995-2000	66.3	62.9	70.0	46	51	40	59	64	53	31.5	24.0	38.9
	2000-2005	68.9	65.5	72.5	39	44	33	48	55	42	28.2	20.9	35.4
	2005-2010	70.2	66.7	73.8	30	35	25	39	45	34	25.2	18.3	32.1
Haiti	1980-1985	51.5	50.2	52.9	122	128	116	172	178	165	69.5	65.9	72.8
	1985-1990	53.6	52.2	55.0	100	105	95	146	151	140	60.3	57.4	63.1
	1990-1995	55.2	53.7	56.8	85	90	80	126	132	121	55.3	52.7	57.7
	1995-2000	56.9	55.2	58.6	70	74	66	107	112	102	50.2	48.0	52.2
	2000-2005	58.1	56.4	59.9	56	61	51	93	98	87	45.2	43.5	46.8
	2005-2010	60.6	59.0	62.4	49	52	45	80	85	76	41.1	39.8	42.3
Honduras	1980-1985	61.6	59.4	63.8	65	72	58	101	109	92	40.1	38.1	42.0
	1985-1990	65.4	63.2	67.7	53	59	47	74	81	67	31.9	31.1	32.7
	1990-1995	67.7	65.4	70.1	43	48	38	60	66	54	28.3	28.0	28.6
	1995-2000	69.8	67.5	72.3	35	40	30	50	55	44	25.0	25.1	25.0
	2000-2005	71.0	68.6	73.4	31	36	27	45	50	39	22.0	22.4	21.7
	2005-2010	72.0	69.7	74.5	28	32	24	40	45	35	19.4	20.0	18.8
Mexico	1980-1985	67.7	64.4	71.2	47	53	41	57	64	51	18.7	13.7	23.5
	1985-1990	69.8	66.8	73.0	40	43	36	48	53	44	12.7	9.4	15.7
	1990-1995	71.8	69.0	74.6	33	36	31	40	44	37	10.5	7.9	13.0
	1995-2000	73.6	71.3	76.1	28	30	25	33	36	30	8.8	6.7	10.9
	2000-2005	74.8	72.4	77.4	21	23	18	25	28	22	7.4	5.7	9.1
	2005-2010	76.1	73.7	78.6	17	19	15	20	23	18	6.2	4.8	7.6
Nicaragua	1980-1985	59.5	56.5	62.6	80	88	72	117	128	106	41.2	41.0	41.4
	1985-1990	62.2	59.0	65.5	65	72	58	90	98	82	37.3	37.3	37.2
	1990-1995	66.0	63.5	68.7	48	54	42	62	69	54	35.4	35.5	35.2
	1995-2000	68.4	65.9	71.1	34	37	30	44	48	39	33.5	33.8	33.3
	2000-2005	70.8	68.0	73.8	27	30	23	32	36	28	31.9	32.2	31.6
	2005-2010	72.9	69.9	76.0	22	24	19	26	29	23	30.3	30.7	29.9

Table 3 (concluded)

TRENDS IN SELECTED SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS, 1980-2010

Country	Five-year periods	Life expectancy at birth (years of life)			Infant mortality (per 1 000 live births)			Under-five mortality rate (per 1 000 live births)			Illiteracy rate in population aged 15 and over (percentage)		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Panama	1980-1985	70.8	68.4	73.3	32	36	27	43	48	38	15.1	14.4	15.9
	1985-1990	71.9	69.3	74.6	30	34	25	38	43	33	11.0	10.3	11.6
	1990-1995	72.9	70.2	75.7	27	31	23	34	38	29	9.4	8.8	10.1
	1995-2000	73.8	71.3	76.4	24	28	20	30	34	26	8.1	7.5	8.8
	2000-2005	74.7	72.3	77.4	21	24	17	27	31	23	7.0	6.4	7.6
	2005-2010	75.6	73.0	78.2	18	21	15	24	27	20	6.0	5.4	6.6
Paraguay	1980-1985	67.0	64.9	69.3	49	55	43	64	72	56	14.1	10.5	17.6
	1985-1990	67.6	65.4	69.9	47	52	41	61	69	53	9.7	7.6	11.7
	1990-1995	68.5	66.3	70.8	43	48	37	54	62	47	8.1	6.6	9.6
	1995-2000	69.4	67.2	71.7	39	44	34	48	55	42	6.7	5.6	7.8
	2000-2005	70.8	68.7	72.9	36	40	30	42	49	36	5.6	4.8	6.4
	2005-2010	71.8	69.7	73.9	32	37	27	38	44	33	4.7	4.1	5.3
Peru	1980-1985	61.6	59.5	63.8	82	88	75	117	124	109	20.6	11.7	29.4
	1985-1990	64.4	62.1	66.8	68	75	61	94	102	86	14.5	8.0	20.9
	1990-1995	66.7	64.4	69.2	48	53	42	75	83	66	12.2	6.6	17.6
	1995-2000	68.4	66.0	70.9	39	43	34	57	63	51	10.1	5.3	14.8
	2000-2005	69.9	67.5	72.5	30	34	27	40	44	37	8.4	4.4	12.3
	2005-2010	71.4	68.9	74.0	21	24	18	29	31	27	7.0	3.5	10.3
Dominican Republic	1980-1985	64.0	62.1	66.1	75	82	69	86	93	79	26.0	24.9	27.2
	1985-1990	66.6	64.3	69.0	63	69	56	71	78	65	20.6	20.2	21.0
	1990-1995	69.1	66.5	71.9	48	53	42	55	61	49	18.3	18.2	18.5
	1995-2000	70.1	67.3	73.1	41	47	36	46	52	41	16.3	16.3	16.3
	2000-2005	71.2	68.1	74.4	35	40	30	38	43	33	14.5	14.7	14.4
	2005-2010	72.2	69.2	75.5	30	34	25	33	37	28	12.9	13.2	12.6
Uruguay	1980-1985	71.0	67.6	74.5	34	37	30	37	41	34	5.0	5.4	4.6
	1985-1990	72.1	68.6	75.8	23	25	20	26	29	23	3.5	4.0	3.0
	1990-1995	73.0	69.2	76.9	20	23	18	23	26	20	2.9	3.4	2.5
	1995-2000	74.1	70.5	78.0	16	17	14	18	21	16	2.4	2.9	2.0
	2000-2005	75.2	71.6	78.9	14	16	13	17	19	15	2.0	2.5	1.6
	2005-2010	76.2	72.8	79.9	13	14	12	16	17	14	1.7	2.1	1.3
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1980-1985	68.8	65.8	71.8	34	38	29	43	47	38	16.1	13.9	18.3
	1985-1990	70.5	67.7	73.5	27	30	23	34	38	30	11.1	9.9	12.3
	1990-1995	71.5	68.7	74.5	23	26	20	29	33	26	9.1	8.3	9.9
	1995-2000	72.2	69.3	75.2	21	23	18	26	29	24	7.5	7.0	8.0
	2000-2005	72.8	69.9	75.8	19	21	16	24	27	21	6.0	5.8	6.2
	2005-2010	73.8	70.9	76.8	17	19	15	22	25	19	4.8	4.8	4.9

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, population estimates and projections database, 2006 revision, Santiago, Chile; UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) database (literacy) [online].

POVERTY AND INCOME DISTRIBUTION

Table 4

POVERTY AND INDIGENCE LEVELS, 1990-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Population below the poverty line [a]					Population below the indigence line				
		Country total	Urban areas			Rural areas	Country total	Urban areas			Rural areas
			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas	
Argentina	1990	…	…	21.2	…	…	…	…	5.2	…	…
	1994	…	16.1	13.2	21.2	…	…	3.4	2.6	4.9	…
	1997	…	…	17.8	…	…	…	…	4.8	…	…
	1999	…	23.7	19.7	28.5	…	…	6.7	4.8	8.8	…
	2002	…	45.4	41.5	49.6	…	…	20.9	18.6	23.3	…
	2004	…	29.4	25.9	33.6	…	…	11.1	9.6	12.9	…
	2005	…	26.0	22.6	30.0	…	…	9.1	7.6	10.8	…
	2006	…	21.0	19.3	22.8	…	…	7.2	6.7	7.9	…
Bolivia	1989	…	52.6	…	…	…	…	23.0	…	…	…
	1994	…	51.6	…	…	…	…	19.8	…	…	…
	1997	62.1	52.3	…	…	78.5	37.2	22.6	…	…	61.5
	1999	60.6	48.7	45.0	63.9	80.7	36.4	19.8	17.5	29.0	64.7
	2002	62.4	52.0	48.0	58.2	79.2	37.1	21.3	18.8	25.0	62.9
	2004	63.9	53.8	50.5	60.4	80.6	34.7	20.2	17.3	26.0	58.8
Brazil	1990	48.0	41.2	…	…	70.6	23.4	16.7	…	…	46.1
	1993	45.3	40.3	…	…	63.0	20.2	15.0	…	…	38.8
	1996	35.8	30.6	…	…	55.6	13.9	9.6	…	…	30.2
	1999	37.5	32.9	…	…	55.3	12.9	9.3	…	…	27.1
	2001	37.5	34.1	…	…	55.2	13.2	10.4	…	…	28.0
	2003	38.7	35.7	…	…	54.5	13.9	11.4	…	…	27.5
	2004	37.7	34.3	…	…	54.1	12.1	9.7	…	…	24.0
	2005	36.3	32.8	…	…	53.2	10.6	8.2	…	…	22.1
	2006	33.3	29.9	…	…	50.1	9.0	6.7	…	…	20.5
Chile	1990	38.6	38.5	32.1	43.5	38.8	13.0	12.5	9.3	14.9	15.6
	1994	27.6	27.0	18.4	33.4	31.1	7.6	7.1	4.2	9.3	9.9
	1996	23.2	22.0	13.4	27.8	30.4	5.7	5.1	2.4	6.9	9.4
	1998	21.7	20.7	14.6	25.0	27.5	5.6	5.1	3.3	6.4	8.6
	2000	20.2	19.7	14.4	23.4	23.7	5.6	5.1	3.9	6.0	8.4
	2003	18.7	18.5	12.4	22.7	20.0	4.7	4.4	2.8	5.6	6.2
	2006	13.7	13.9	10.4	16.0	12.3	3.2	3.2	2.3	3.7	3.5
Colombia [b]	1991	56.1	52.7	…	…	60.7	26.1	20.0	…	…	34.3
	1994	52.5	45.4	37.6	48.2	62.4	28.5	18.6	13.6	20.4	42.5
	1997	50.9	45.0	33.5	48.9	60.1	23.5	17.2	11.3	19.1	33.4
	1999	54.9	50.6	43.1	53.1	61.8	26.8	21.9	19.6	22.7	34.6
	2002	51.1	50.6	39.8	53.8	52.0	24.6	23.7	17.1	25.7	26.7
	2004	51.1	49.8	37.5	53.2	54.8	24.2	22.5	15.7	24.3	28.9
	2005	46.8	45.4	33.8	48.6	50.5	20.2	18.2	12.0	19.9	25.6
Costa Rica	1990	26.3	24.9	22.8	27.7	27.3	9.9	6.4	4.9	8.4	12.5
	1994	23.1	20.7	19.1	22.7	25.0	8.0	5.7	4.6	7.1	9.7
	1997	22.5	19.3	18.8	20.1	24.8	7.8	5.5	5.7	5.3	9.6
	1999	20.3	18.1	17.5	18.7	22.3	7.8	5.4	4.3	6.5	9.8
	2002	20.3	17.5	16.8	18.0	24.3	8.2	5.5	5.5	5.6	12.0
	2004	20.5	18.7	17.0	25.3	23.1	8.0	5.8	5.1	8.6	11.0
	2005	21.1	20.0	18.7	24.9	22.7	7.0	5.6	5.1	7.3	9.0
	2006	19.0	18.0	16.5	23.8	20.4	7.2	5.4	4.8	7.9	9.8

Table 4 (continued)

POVERTY AND INDIGENCE LEVELS, 1990-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Population below the poverty line [a]					Population below the indigence line				
		Country total	Urban areas			Rural areas	Country total	Urban areas			Rural areas
			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas	
Ecuador	1990	…	62.1	…	…	…	…	26.2	…	…	…
	1994	…	57.9	…	…	…	…	25.5	…	…	…
	1997	…	56.2	…	…	…	…	22.2	…	…	…
	1999	…	63.5	…	…	…	…	31.3	…	…	…
	2002	…	49.0	…	…	…	…	19.4	…	…	…
	2004	51.2	47.5	…	…	58.5	22.3	18.2	…	…	30.5
	2005	48.3	45.2	…	…	54.5	21.2	17.1	…	…	29.2
	2006	43.0	39.9	…	…	49.0	16.1	12.8	…	…	22.5
El Salvador	1995	54.2	45.8	34.7	55.1	64.4	21.7	14.9	8.8	20.1	29.9
	1997	55.5	44.4	29.8	56.6	69.2	23.3	14.8	6.3	21.9	33.7
	1999	49.8	38.7	29.8	48.7	65.1	21.9	13.0	7.7	19.0	34.3
	2001	48.9	39.4	32.1	47.7	62.4	22.1	14.3	9.9	19.2	33.3
	2004	47.5	41.2	33.2	48.6	56.8	19.0	13.8	8.4	18.8	26.6
Guatemala	1989	69.4	53.6	…	…	77.7	42.0	26.4	…	…	50.2
	1998	61.1	49.1	…	…	69.0	31.6	16.0	…	…	41.8
	2002	60.2	45.3	…	…	68.0	30.9	18.1	…	…	37.6
Honduras	1990	80.8	70.4	59.9	79.5	88.1	60.9	43.6	31.0	54.5	72.9
	1994	77.9	74.5	68.7	80.4	80.5	53.9	46.0	38.3	53.7	59.8
	1997	79.1	72.6	68.0	77.2	84.2	54.4	41.5	35.5	48.6	64.0
	1999	79.7	71.7	64.4	78.8	86.3	56.8	42.9	33.7	51.9	68.0
	2002	77.3	66.7	56.9	74.4	86.1	54.4	36.5	25.1	45.3	69.5
	2003	74.8	62.7	50.3	72.5	84.8	53.9	35.1	23.3	44.5	69.4
	2006	71.5	59.4	48.7	67.8	81.5	49.3	30.0	19.9	37.9	65.3
Mexico	1989	47.7	42.1	…	…	56.7	18.7	13.1	…	…	27.9
	1994	45.1	36.8	…	…	56.5	16.8	9.0	…	…	27.5
	1996	52.9	46.1	…	…	62.8	22.0	14.3	…	…	33.0
	1998	46.9	38.9	…	…	58.5	18.5	9.7	…	…	31.1
	2000	41.1	32.3	…	…	54.7	15.2	6.6	…	…	28.5
	2002	39.4	32.2	…	…	51.2	12.6	6.9	…	…	21.9
	2004	37.0	32.6	…	…	44.1	11.7	7.0	…	…	19.3
	2005	35.5	28.5	…	…	47.5	11.7	5.8	…	…	21.7
	2006	31.7	26.8	…	…	40.1	8.7	4.4	…	…	16.1
Nicaragua	1993	73.6	66.3	58.3	73.0	82.7	48.4	36.8	29.5	43.0	62.8
	1998	69.9	64.0	57.0	68.9	77.0	44.6	33.9	25.8	39.5	57.5
	2001	69.3	63.8	50.8	72.1	77.0	42.4	33.4	24.5	39.1	55.1
Panama	1991	…	32.7	…	…	…	…	11.5	…	…	…
	1994	…	25.3	…	…	…	…	7.8	…	…	…
	1997	…	24.7	…	…	…	…	8.0	…	…	…
	1999	…	20.8	…	…	…	…	5.9	…	…	…
	2002	34.0	25.3	…	…	48.5	17.4	8.9	…	…	31.5
	2004	31.8	22.4	…	…	47.9	14.8	6.8	…	…	28.6
	2005	33.0	24.4	…	…	47.8	15.7	7.7	…	…	29.4
	2006	30.8	21.7	…	…	46.6	15.2	6.4	…	…	30.4
Paraguay	1990	…	…	43.2	…	…	…	…	13.1	…	…
	1994	…	49.9	42.2	59.3	…	…	18.8	12.8	26.1	…
	1996	…	46.3	39.2	55.9	…	…	16.3	9.8	25.2	…
	1999	60.6	49.0	39.5	61.3	73.9	33.9	17.4	9.2	28.0	52.8
	2001	61.0	50.1	42.7	59.1	73.6	33.2	18.4	10.4	28.1	50.3
	2004	65.9	59.1	55.6	63.8	74.6	36.9	26.8	22.9	31.8	50.2
	2005	60.5	55.0	48.5	64.3	68.1	32.1	23.2	15.5	34.5	44.2

Table 4 (concluded)

POVERTY AND INDIGENCE LEVELS, 1990-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Population below the poverty line [a]					Population below the indigence line				
		Country total	Urban areas			Rural areas	Country total	Urban areas			Rural areas
			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas	
Peru	1997	47.6	33.7	…	…	72.7	25.1	9.9	…	…	52.7
	1999	48.6	36.1	…	…	72.5	22.4	9.3	…	…	47.3
	2001 [d]	54.8	42.0	…	…	78.4	24.4	9.9	…	…	51.3
	2003 [d]	54.7	43.1	…	…	76.0	21.6	8.6	…	…	45.7
	2004 [d]	48.6	37.1	…	…	69.8	17.1	6.5	…	…	36.8
	2005 [d]	48.7	36.8	…	…	70.9	17.4	6.3	…	…	37.9
	2006 [d]	44.5	31.2	…	…	69.3	16.1	4.9	…	…	37.1
Dominican Republic	2000	46.9	42.3	…	…	55.2	22.1	18.5	…	…	28.7
	2002	44.9	41.9	…	…	50.7	20.3	17.1	…	…	26.3
	2004	54.4	51.8	…	…	59.0	29.0	25.9	…	…	34.7
	2005	47.5	45.4	…	…	51.4	24.6	22.3	…	…	28.8
	2006	44.5	41.8	…	…	49.5	22.0	18.5	…	…	28.5
Uruguay	1990	…	17.9	11.3	24.3	…	…	3.4	1.8	5.0	…
	1994	…	9.7	7.5	11.8	…	…	1.9	1.5	2.2	…
	1997	…	9.5	8.6	10.3	…	…	1.7	1.5	1.8	…
	1999	…	9.4	9.8	9.0	…	…	1.8	1.9	1.6	…
	2002	…	15.4	15.1	15.8	…	…	2.5	2.7	2.2	…
	2004	…	20.9	20.8	21.0	…	…	4.7	6.1	4.3	…
	2005	…	18.8	19.7	17.9	…	…	4.1	5.8	2.4	…
Venezuela [c] (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	39.8	38.6	29.2	41.2	46.0	14.4	13.1	8.0	14.5	21.3
	1994	48.7	47.1	25.8	52.0	55.6	19.2	17.1	6.1	19.6	28.3
	1997	48.0	…	…	…	…	20.5	…	…	…	…
	1999	49.4	…	…	…	…	21.7	…	…	…	…
	2002	48.6	…	…	…	…	22.2	…	…	…	…
	2004	45.4	…	…	…	…	19.0	…	…	…	…
	2005	37.1	…	…	…	…	15.9	…	…	…	…
	2006	30.2	…	…	…	…	9.9	…	…	…	…
Latin America [e]	1990	48.3	41.4	…	…	65.4	22.5	15.3	…	…	40.4
	1994	45.7	38.7	…	…	65.1	20.8	13.6	…	…	40.8
	1997	43.5	36.5	…	…	63.0	19.0	12.3	…	…	37.6
	1999	43.9	37.2	…	…	63.7	18.7	12.1	…	…	38.2
	2000	42.5	35.9	…	…	62.5	18.1	11.7	…	…	37.8
	2001	43.2	37.0	…	…	62.3	18.5	12.2	…	…	38.0
	2002	44.0	38.4	…	…	61.8	19.4	13.5	…	…	37.8
	2003	44.2	39.0	…	…	61.1	19.1	13.7	…	…	36.4
	2004	42.0	36.9	…	…	58.7	16.9	12.0	…	…	33.1
	2005	39.8	34.1	…	…	58.8	15.4	10.3	…	…	32.5
	2006	36.5	31.1	…	…	54.4	13.4	8.6	…	…	29.4
	2007	35.1	29.8	…	…	53.6	12.7	8.1	…	…	28.7

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Includes persons below the indigence line or living in extreme poverty.

[b] As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban and rural areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[c] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

[d] Figures from the Peruvian National Institute of Statistics and Informatics (INEI). Figures are not comparable with previous years owing to a change in the sample framework of the household survey. According to INEI, the new framework results in estimates that are 25% higher for poverty and 10% higher for indigence than estimates produced using the previous methodology.

[e] Estimate for 19 countries in the region.

Table 5

INDIGENCE LINES (IL) AND POVERTY LINES (PL)

(Monthly values per person)

Country	Year	Income reference period	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	…	…
	2002	Oct.	$	99	198	…	…	3.6	27.5	55.0	…	…
	2004	2nd half	$	111	221	…	…	3.0	37.4	74.8	…	…
	2005	2nd half	$	125	250	…	…	2.9	42.9	85.8	…	…
	2006	2nd half	$	138	276	…	…	3.1	45.1	90.2	…	…
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
	2002	Oct.-nov.	Bs	167	334	133	234	7.4	22.6	45.2	18.1	31.6
	2004	Nov. 03 - nov. 04	Bs	180	359	144	252	7.9	22.7	45.4	18.2	31.8
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
	2001	Oct.	R$	58	142	50	105	2.7	21.2	51.9	18.2	38.2
	2003	Oct.	R$	75	178	65	133	2.9	26.1	62.3	22.6	46.7
	2004	Oct.	R$	79	191	68	149	2.9	27.7	67.1	23.9	52.2
	2005	Oct.	R$	83	209	72	161	2.3	36.4	91.7	31.6	71.0
	2006	Oct.	R$	85	221	75	172	2.2	39.8	102.7	34.7	80.0
Chile	1990	Nov.	Ch$	9 297	18 594	7 164	12 538	327.4	28.4	56.8	21.9	38.3
	1994	Nov.	Ch$	15 050	30 100	11 597	20 295	413.1	36.4	72.9	28.1	49.1
	1996	Nov.	Ch$	17 136	34 272	13 204	23 108	420.0	40.8	81.6	31.4	55.0
	1998	Nov.	Ch$	18 944	37 889	14 598	25 546	463.3	40.9	81.8	31.5	55.1
	2000	Nov.	Ch$	20 281	40 562	15 628	27 349	525.1	38.6	77.2	29.8	52.1
	2003	Nov.	Ch$	21 856	43 712	16 842	29 473	625.5	34.9	69.9	26.9	47.1
	2006	Nov.	Ch$	23 549	47 099	18 146	31 756	527.4	44.6	89.3	34.4	60.2
Colombia	1991	Aug.	Col$	18 093	36 186	14 915	26 102	645.6	28.0	56.1	23.1	40.4
	1994	Aug.	Col$	31 624	63 249	26 074	45 629	814.8	38.8	77.6	32.0	56.0
	1997	Aug.	Col$	53 721	107 471	44 333	77 583	1 141.0	47.1	94.2	38.9	68.0
	1999	Aug.	Col$	69 838	139 716	57 629	100 851	1 873.7	37.3	74.6	30.8	53.8
	2002	Year	Col$	86 616	173 232	71 622	125 339	2 504.2	34.6	69.2	28.6	50.1
	2004	Year	Col$	98 179	196 357	81 264	142 214	2 628.6	37.4	74.7	30.9	54.1
	2005	Year	Col$	103 138	206 276	85 365	149 389	2 320.8	44.4	88.9	36.8	64.4
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
	2002	June	¢	14 045	28 089	11 132	19 481	358.1	39.2	78.4	31.1	54.4
	2004	June	¢	18 010	36 019	14 042	24 576	435.9	41.3	82.6	32.2	56.4
	2005	June	¢	20 905	41 810	16 298	28 522	476.3	43.9	87.8	34.2	59.9
	2006	June	¢	23 562	47 125	18 372	32 148	511.6	46.1	92.1	35.9	62.8

Table 5 (continued)

INDIGENCE LINES (IL) AND POVERTY LINES (PL)

(Monthly values per person)

Country	Year	Income reference period	Currency [a]	Urban IL	Urban PL	Rural IL	Rural PL	Exchange rate [b]	Urban IL	Urban PL	Rural IL	Rural PL
				Local currency					US dollars			
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	…	…
	2002	Nov.	S/.	863 750	1 727 500	…	…	25 000.0	34.6	69.1	…	…
	2004	July	S/.	932 750	1 865 500	657 500	1 150 750	25 000.0	37.3	74.6	26.3	46.0
	2005	Nov.	S/.	963 750	1 927 750	679 500	1 189 000	25 000.0	38.6	77.1	27.2	47.6
	2006	Nov.	S/.	994 750	1 989 500	701 250	1 227 250	25 000.0	39.8	79.6	28.1	49.1
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
	2001	Jan.-Dec.	¢	305	610	197	394	8.8	34.9	69.7	22.5	45.0
	2004	Year	¢	333	666	215	430	8.8	38.1	76.1	24.6	49.2
Guatemala	1989	Apr.	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
	2002	Oct. -Nov.	Q	334	669	255	446	7.7	43.6	87.2	33.3	58.2
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
	2002	Aug.	L	689	1 378	485	849	16.6	41.6	83.3	29.3	51.3
	2003	Aug.	L	707	1 414	498	871	17.5	40.5	81.0	28.5	49.9
	2006	Aug.	L	869	1 738	612	1 070	18.9	46.0	91.9	32.4	56.6
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
	2000	3rd. quarter	MN$	665	1 330	475	831	9.4	71.0	142.1	50.7	88.8
	2002	3rd. quarter	MN$	742	1 484	530	928	9.9	75.0	150.1	53.6	93.8
	2004	3rd. quarter	MN$	809	1 618	578	1 012	11.5	70.6	141.3	50.5	88.4
	2005	Aug. -Nov. 05	MN$	845	1 690	604	1 057	10.7	78.7	157.3	56.2	98.4
	2006	Aug. -Nov. 06	MN$	879	1 758	628	1 099	10.9	80.5	161.0	57.5	100.6
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 Apr.-31 Aug.	C$	275	550	212	370	10.4	26.3	52.7	20.3	35.5
	2001	30 Apr. - 31 July	C$	369	739	284	498	13.4	27.6	55.2	21.3	37.2
Panama	1991	Aug.	B	35.0	70.1	…	…	1.0	35.0	70.1	…	…
	1994	Aug.	B	40.1	80.2	…	…	1.0	40.1	80.2	…	…
	1997	Aug.	B	40.6	81.3	…	…	1.0	40.6	81.3	…	…
	1999	July	B	40.7	81.4	…	…	1.0	40.7	81.4	…	…
	2002	July	B	40.7	81.4	31.4	55.0	1.0	40.7	81.4	31.4	55.0
	2004	July	B	42.1	84.2	32.6	57.1	1.0	42.1	84.2	32.6	57.1
	2005	July	B	43.6	87.3	33.8	59.1	1.0	43.6	87.3	33.8	59.1
	2006	July	B	43.9	87.8	34.0	59.5	1.0	43.9	87.8	34.0	59.5
Paraguay	1990 [d]	June, July, Aug.	G	43 242	86 484	…	…	1 207.8	35.8	71.6	…	…
	1994	Aug.-Sept.	G	87 894	175 789	…	…	1 916.3	45.9	91.7	…	…
	1996	July-Nov.	G	108 572	217 143	…	…	2 081.2	52.2	104.3	…	…
	1999	July-Dec.	G	138 915	277 831	106 608	186 565	3 311.4	42.0	83.9	32.2	56.3
	2001	Sept. 00-Aug. 01	G	155 461	310 922	119 404	208 956	3 718.3	41.8	83.6	32.1	56.2
	2004	July - Oct. 04	G	212 145	424 290	162 786	284 876	5 915.6	35.9	71.7	27.5	48.2
	2005	June 05	G	224 499	448 997	172 013	301 023	6 137.9	36.6	73.2	28.0	49.0

Table 5 (concluded)

INDIGENCE LINES (IL) AND POVERTY LINES (PL)

(Monthly values per person)

Country	Year	Income reference period	Currency [a]	Urban		Rural		Exchange rate [b]	Urban		Rural	
				IL	PL	IL	PL		IL	PL	IL	PL
				Local currency					US dollars			
Peru	1997	4th quarter	N$	103	192	83	128	2.7	42.1	84.3	31.6	55.3
	1999	4th quarter	N$	109	213	89	141	3.5	31.2	61.2	25.5	40.5
	2001	4th quarter	N$	117	230	102	159	3.5	34.0	66.8	29.5	46.0
	2003	4th quarter	N$	120	239	107	167	3.5	34.5	68.9	30.8	48.2
Dominican Republic	2000	Sept.	RD$	713	1 425	641	1 154	16.5	43.1	86.2	38.8	69.8
	2002	Sept.	RD$	793	1 569	714	1 285	18.8	42.2	83.5	38.0	68.4
	2004	Sept.	RD$	1 715	3 430	1 543	2 778	37.5	45.8	91.5	41.2	74.1
	2005	Sept.	RD$	1 649	3 298	1 484	2 672	31.1	53.1	106.2	47.8	86.0
	2006	Sept.	RD$	1 724	3 449	1 552	2 793	33.3	51.8	103.5	46.6	83.9
Uruguay	1990	2nd half	NUr$	41 972	83 944	…	…	1 358.0	30.9	61.8	…	…
	1994	2nd half	$	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	…	…
	2002	Year	$	793	1 586	…	…	21.3	37.3	74.6	…	…
	2004	Year	$	1 027	2 054	…	…	28.7	35.8	71.6	…	…
	2005	Year	$	1 073	2 147	…	…	24.5	43.8	87.7	…	…
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	2nd half	Bs	1 924	3 848	1 503	2 630	49.4	38.9	77.9	30.4	53.2
	1994	2nd half	Bs	8 025	16 050	6 356	11 124	171.3	46.9	93.7	37.1	65.0
	1997 [e]	2nd half	Bs	31 711	62 316	…	…	488.6	64.9	127.5	…	…
	1999 [e]	2nd half	Bs	48 737	95 876	…	…	626.3	77.8	153.1	…	…
	2002 [e]	2nd half	Bs	80 276	154 813	…	…	1 161.0	69.1	133.4	…	…
	2004 [e]	2nd half	Bs	122 936	236 597	…	…	1 918.0	64.1	123.4	…	…
	2005 [e]	2nd half	Bs	141 699	272 689	…	…	2 147.0	66.0	127.0	…	…
	2006 [e]	2nd half	Bs	163 503	314 700	…	…	2 147.0	76.2	146.6	…	…

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC).

[a] Local 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: (G) Guaraní
Peru: (N$) Peso
Dominican Republic: (RD$) Peso
Uruguay: (Nur$) Nuevo Peso; ($) Peso
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of): (Bs) Bolívar

[b] International Monetary Fund rf series.

[c] Greater Buenos Aires.

[d] Asunción.

[e] Nationwide total.

Table 6

BREAKDOWN OF HOUSEHOLDS BY PER CAPITA INCOME BRACKETS, EXPRESSED AS MULTIPLES OF THE POVERTY LINE URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

Country	Year	Per capita income bracket, in multiples of the poverty line							
		0 - 0.5 (indigents)	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	8.4	1.6	13.1	6.2	19.1	17.8	43.9
	2002	12.0	15.4	4.2	31.6	8.7	19.3	15.8	24.7
	2004	6.5	9.3	3.1	18.9	7.1	21.4	18.7	33.9
	2005	4.9	8.6	2.6	16.1	5.6	22.6	19.2	36.6
	2006	4.6	6.8	2.2	13.6	6.4	17.7	20.4	42.0
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
	2002	17.3	23.1	4.4	44.9	9.1	18.8	10.2	17.1
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
	2001	11.0	13.1	3.3	27.4	7.4	18.0	15.4	31.9
	2003	11.5	13.5	3.4	28.4	7.7	18.4	15.5	30.1
	2004	10.3	13.7	3.3	27.3	7.8	18.5	16.0	30.6
	2005	9.5	13.1	3.2	25.8	7.6	18.4	16.7	31.4
	2006	8.2	12.3	3.0	23.5	7.5	18.1	17.2	33.7
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
	2000	4.3	9.1	2.9	16.3	7.5	19.2	18.0	39.1
	2003	3.7	8.7	2.7	15.1	7.6	19.9	18.5	39.0
	2006	2.7	6.4	2.4	11.4	6.5	19.5	19.7	43.0
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
	2002	20.7	19.9	4.0	44.6	9.3	17.1	11.2	17.9
	2004	19.8	20.1	4.0	43.9	8.7	17.1	11.5	18.8
	2005	15.6	19.4	4.2	39.1	9.2	17.6	12.2	21.9
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
	2002	5.5	7.7	2.7	15.9	6.1	19.2	18.3	40.6
	2004	6.3	8.4	2.9	17.6	6.9	18.8	18.2	38.6
	2005	5.9	9.5	2.8	18.2	7.5	20.3	17.6	36.4
	2006	5.4	8.3	2.7	16.4	7.1	19.3	18.1	39.1

Table 6 (continued)

BREAKDOWN OF HOUSEHOLDS BY PER CAPITA INCOME BRACKETS, EXPRESSED AS MULTIPLES OF THE POVERTY LINE URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

Country	Year	Per capita income bracket, in multiples of the poverty line							
		0 - 0.5 (indigents)	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
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
	2002	16.3	21.7	4.6	42.6	10.5	19.5	12.0	15.5
	2004	15.3	21.4	4.3	40.9	9.7	19.4	13.2	16.8
	2005	14.3	19.7	4.8	38.8	9.0	20.1	13.8	18.3
	2006	11.1	19.0	4.0	34.1	9.6	21.3	14.7	20.4
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
	2001	12.0	18.7	4.0	34.7	10.3	20.8	14.8	19.5
	2004	11.5	19.4	3.9	34.8	10.0	23.0	14.7	17.5
Guatemala	1989	22.9	21.0	4.3	48.2	8.5	17.3	11.0	15.0
	1998	12.2	23.0	6.0	41.3	11.4	20.9	11.6	14.9
	2002	14.8	20.3	4.0	39.0	9.8	20.4	12.9	17.9
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	65.6	8.2	12.9	6.4	7.0
	2002	31.3	24.8	4.4	60.5	8.9	14.5	7.6	8.6
	2003	30.5	22.2	3.7	56.3	10.7	15.5	7.9	9.6
	2006	26.6	23.3	4.4	54.3	10.1	16.2	9.4	10.1
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
	2000	4.7	17.3	4.5	26.5	10.9	22.7	16.3	23.6
	2002	4.8	16.2	5.0	26.0	11.2	23.2	15.6	24.0
	2004	5.2	16.3	4.7	26.2	10.9	23.6	15.0	24.4
	2005	4.1	14.4	4.3	22.9	10.3	24.2	16.7	26.0
	2006	3.1	13.8	3.8	20.7	10.0	23.4	17.8	28.2
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
	2001	28.3	25.2	4.2	57.7	8.3	16.4	8.4	9.2
Panama	1991	10.1	13.5	3.9	27.5	8.7	16.5	15.4	32.0
	1994	6.1	11.0	3.3	20.4	7.5	18.5	18.0	35.7
	1997	6.7	10.5	3.3	20.5	6.8	18.4	15.9	38.4
	1999	4.9	9.3	2.8	17.0	6.8	17.6	17.6	41.1
	2002	8.0	10.5	3.0	21.4	7.5	17.5	16.8	36.8
	2004	6.0	9.6	3.3	18.9	7.0	18.6	16.3	39.2
	2005	6.5	10.4	2.7	19.7	6.9	18.4	16.8	38.2
	2006	5.4	9.4	2.8	17.7	7.0	18.8	17.5	39.0

Table 6 (concluded)

BREAKDOWN OF HOUSEHOLDS BY PER CAPITA INCOME BRACKETS, EXPRESSED AS MULTIPLES OF THE POVERTY LINE URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

Country	Year	Per capita income bracket, in multiples of the poverty line							
		0 - 0.5 (indigents)	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
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	20.8	5.2	32.9	11.9	19.9	16.2	19.2
	2001	9.1	20.1	5.9	35.0	8.9	21.4	13.2	21.5
	2004	18.1	24.9	5.3	48.3	10.8	18.7	10.9	11.4
	2005	12.6	25.0	4.0	41.5	10.8	22.0	11.8	13.9
Peru	1997	6.5	17.1	4.4	28.0	10.3	23.8	16.2	21.8
	1999	7.4	18.7	4.8	30.9	11.3	24.5	13.0	20.4
	2001	10.9	20.6	4.9	36.4	12.1	22.4	13.1	16.1
	2003	7.3	20.6	5.1	33.1	12.0	24.6	14.6	15.7
Dominican Republic	2000	17.7	17.2	4.1	39.0	8.9	18.3	13.9	19.9
	2002	16.0	18.1	4.3	38.4	9.1	18.3	13.9	20.4
	2004	23.4	20.8	3.7	47.9	7.7	15.7	9.7	18.9
	2005	20.1	17.4	4.0	41.5	8.6	15.7	11.8	22.5
	2006	17.1	18.3	3.2	38.7	8.2	16.0	12.3	24.8
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	1.3	5.6	3.6	13.5	20.5	56.9
	2002	1.3	6.1	1.9	9.3	5.6	18.0	21.6	45.5
	2004	2.5	7.8	2.9	13.2	6.8	20.9	22.0	37.2
	2005	2.2	7.3	2.3	11.8	6.2	20.0	23.1	38.9
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [c]	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
	2002	18.6	20.0	4.7	43.3	9.8	18.9	12.0	15.9
	2004	15.8	19.3	4.8	39.9	9.9	20.7	13.6	15.8
	2005	13.7	15.4	3.8	32.9	9.1	21.2	16.2	20.7
	2006	8.5	13.8	3.9	26.2	9.7	22.0	18.2	24.0

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted In the relevant countries.

[a] In this country, the values given for indigence (0 – 0.5 times the poverty line) and poverty (0-1.0 times the poverty line) may not coincide with the ones given in table 14. This is because the poverty line in Brazil is calculated by multiplying the indigence line by a variable coefficient instead of a fixed one (2.0), as in the other countries.

[b] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[c] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 7

POVERTY RATES IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006[a]

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Total population	Total employed	Public-sector wage or salary earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional non-technical occupations			Own-account workers in non-professional, non-technical occupations	
					Establishments employing more than 5 persons	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
	2002	42	27	40	31	40	43	31	19
	2004	26	15	22	14	22	26	15	12
	2005	23	13	15	13	21	23	12	21
	2006	19	11	11	10	17	25	9	11
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
	2002	52	43	25	41	47	30	63	48
	2004	54	45	20	39	57	38	62	51
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
	2001	34	24	13	26	33	40	35	27
	2003	36	25	13	25	33	41	33	32
	2004	34	25	12	23	32	41	33	31
	2005	33	23	12	21	30	39	32	30
	2006	30	21	10	19	28	36	29	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
	2000	20	14	6	16	22	17	14	12
	2003	18	10	5	14	19	15	10	10
	2006	14	7	5	9	12	15	8	7
Colombia [e]	1991	52	41	27	45 [f]	…	38	54	53
	1994	45	34	15	41 [f]	…	31	42	42
	1997	40	33	15	37 [f]	…	34	48	42
	1999	51	38	12	38 [f]	…	35	60	54
	2002	51	40	11	36 [f]	…	44	59	56
	2004	50	39	9	34 [f]	…	43	62	57
	2005	45	35	8	31 [f]	…	39	56	52
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
	2002	18	9	1	8	12	18	19	18
	2004	19	10	2	8	13	16	19	24
	2005	20	11	2	11	15	27	20	21
	2006	18	10	2	7	11	19	25	23

Table 7 (continued)

POVERTY RATES IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006[a]

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Total population	Total employed	Public-sector wage or salary earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional non-technical occupations			Own-account workers in non-professional, non-technical occupations	
					Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons [b]	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
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
	2002	49	39	18	39	53	51	48	45
	2004	48	37	14	37	50	45	52	46
	2005	45	35	11	35	48	47	46	42
	2006	40	31	9	28	44	40	38	40
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
	2001	39	30	8	28	42	40	45	35
	2004	41	31	9	30	44	42	46	35
Guatemala	1989	53	42	20	47	61	42	48	35
	1998	49	42	20	45	58	33	50	41
	2002	44	34	8	33	54	42	48	33
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
	2002	67	58	28	57	75	48	80	68
	2003	63	54	25	44	69	52	76	69
	2006	59	50	19	49	66	46	71	66
Mexico	1989	42	33	…	37 [g]	…	60	32	28
	1994	37	29	…	33 [g]	…	56	27	…
	1996	45	38	19	41	59	63	48	41
	1998	39	31	12	36	49	57	39	30
	2000	32	25	11	26	44	38	34	24
	2002	32	25	11	27	40	46	27	21
	2004	33	25	…	25 [c]	41	45	26	23
	2005	29	21	…	22 [c]	37	40	25	18
	2006	27	20	…	21 [c]	33	39	23	17
Nicaragua	1993	66	52	47	54	64	74	60	45
	1998	64	54	…	54 [c]	68	74	59	52
	2001	64	54	36	54	67	74	65	55
Panama	1991	33	19	9	22	31	25	35	33
	1994	25	14	6	15	23	23	24	23
	1997	25	14	6	15	26	23	29	23
	1999	21	11	4	10	22	17	19	23
	2002	25	14	5	12	15	22	27	29
	2004	22	13	3	10	21	23	22	27
	2005	24	15	4	11	24	25	25	27
	2006	22	12	3	8	18	26	24	25

Table 7 (concluded)

POVERTY RATES IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006[a]

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Total population	Total employed	Public-sector wage or salary earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional non-technical occupations			Own-account workers in non-professional, non-technical occupations	
					Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons [b]	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
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
	2001	43	32	14	37	38	36	42	47
	2004	56	43	26	43	54	46	55	56
	2005	49	37	20	37	50	39	48	51
Peru	1997	34	25	14	20	28	16	36	33
	1999	36	28	14	21	32	23	52	36
	2001	42	36	20	37	47	27	43	41
	2003	43	38	21	37	49	30	44	44
Dominican Republic	2000	42	27	26	29	35	55	26	26
	2002	42	27	27	28	37	49	29	28
	2004	52	38	43	49	50	65	23	26
	2005	45	30	32	40	44	59	18	19
	2006	42	28	29	38	41	52	12	21
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
	2002	15	10	2	8	15	17	21	18
	2004	21	14	3	12	21	26	26	25
	2005	19	13	3	10	19	25	24	24
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [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
	2002	49	35	21	42	51	53	30	33
	2004	45	32	19	37	48	53	28	29
	2005	37	24	15	29	38	46	20	22
	2006	30	18	9	21	29	36	18	17

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted In the relevant countries.

[a] Refers to the percentage of persons employed in each category who live in households with income below the poverty line.

[b] For the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama (up to 2002) and Uruguay, establishments with up to four employees are taken into account.

[c] Includes public-sector wage or salary earners.

[d] For 1990, the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing more than five persons includes wage earners who have an employment contract ("carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to five persons includes workers who do not have such contracts.

[e] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992 the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[f] Includes wage earners in establishments that employ up to five persons.

[g] Includes public-sector wage and salary earners and wage earners in establishments that employ up to five persons.

[h] Refers to all own-account non-professional, non-technical workers.

[i] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 8

POVERTY RATES IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES, RURAL AREAS, 1990-2006 [a]

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Total population	Total employed	Public-sector wage or salary earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional non-technical occupations			Own-account workers in non-professional, non-technical occupations	
					Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons [b]	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
Bolivia	1997	79	79	35	48	41	49	87	89
	1999	81	80	14	25	58	37	86	88
	2002	79	79	32	42	50	42	84	88
	2004	81	78	31	57	75	17	83	87
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
	2001	55	48	30	47	42	42	52	53
	2003	55	47	29	47	35	43	51	52
	2004	54	47	26	43	40	41	52	53
	2005	53	46	25	42	38	40	52	52
	2006	50	43	24	39	32	36	48	48
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
	2000	24	16	9	16	20	10	16	21
	2003	20	11	4	10	17	9	13	14
	2006	12	7	4	6	10	7	7	8
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
	2002	52	41	8	32 [e]	…	41	52	55
	2004	55	45	13	32 [e]	…	42	56	51
	2005	51	41	7	32 [e]	…	39	50	44
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
	2002	24	15	1	5	13	16	33	46
	2004	23	13	2	5	11	13	30	45
	2005	23	13	2	5	13	17	28	39
	2006	20	11	2	3	9	14	27	42
Ecuador	2004	59	53	18	33	51	45	61	65
	2005	55	47	10	31	44	31	55	59
	2006	49	43	8	24	40	28	52	56
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
	2001	62	53	14	38	54	49	64	79
	2004	57	47	16	35	50	38	59	76
Guatemala	1989	78	70	42	72	76	61	71	76
	1998	69	63	42	62	74	53	63	67
	2002	68	60	27	63	62	41	65	73

Table 8 (continued)

POVERTY RATES IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES, RURAL AREAS, 1990-2006 [a]

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Total population	Total employed	Public-sector wage or salary earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional non-technical occupations			Own-account workers in non-professional, non-technical occupations	
					Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons [b]	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
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
	2002	86	82	34	65	89	69	86	91
	2003	85	81	29	57	88	72	86	90
	2006	82	77	24	58	85	65	86	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
	2000	55	46	16	44	59	64	49	61
	2002	51	44	21	36	54	48	48	62
	2004	44	36	…	26 [d]	49	39	41	55
	2005	48	39	…	32 [d]	52	47	41	57
	2006	40	34	…	24 [d]	43	34	38	50
Nicaragua	1993	83	75	71	64	77	59	82	89
	1998	77	70	…	61	69	49	80	87
	2001	77	70	46	57	67	63	80	87
Panama	1991	49	38	12	22	44	40	53	58
	1994	48	37	9	20	39	43	51	61
	1997	42	29	7	20	37	29	38	44
	1999	40	28	5	16	35	28	37	42
	2002	49	40	6	13	16	27	60	70
	2004	48	41	4	11	26	33	61	71
	2005	48	41	4	9	26	31	59	69
	2006	47	40	4	9	24	26	60	68
Paraguay	1999	74	65	10	47	57	43	75	79
	2001	74	67	13	35	68	44	75	81
	2004	75	69	32	42	57	54	77	81
	2005	68	62	21	38	53	55	70	72
Peru	1997	73	66	23	47	57	54	76	77
	1999	73	66	33	42	54	38	73	78
	2001	78	74	39	65	75	53	78	82
	2003	76	72	27	58	65	63	76	79

Table 8 (concluded)

POVERTY RATES IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES, RURAL AREAS, 1990-2006 [a]

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Total population	Total employed	Public-sector wage or salary earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional non-technical occupations			Own-account workers in non-professional, non-technical occupations	
					Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons [b]	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
Dominican Republic	2000	55	38	33	35	44	54	39	47
	2002	51	34	29	31	44	58	34	42
	2004	59	45	44	53	55	59	43	60
	2005	51	36	38	42	47	47	33	51
	2006	50	35	33	37	45	47	35	57
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	47	31	22	35	36	44	31	36
	1994	56	42	27	50	50	53	42	44

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Refers to the percentage of persons employed in each category who live in households with income below the poverty line.

[b] For the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador and Panama (up to 2002), includes establishments with up to four employees only.

[c] For 1990, the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing more than five persons includes wage earners who have an employment contract ("carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to five persons includes workers who do not have such contracts.

[d] Includes public-sector wage earners.

[e] Includes wage earners in establishments employing up to 5 persons. As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for rural areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[f] Includes public-sector wage earners and wage earners in establishments employing up to 5 persons.

Table 9

BREAKDOWN OF THE TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(Percentages of the total employed urban population living in poverty)

Country	Year	Public-sector wage or salary earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations			Own-account non-professional, non-technical workers		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
	2002	25	26	22	9	8	8	98
	2004	23	28	20	11	6	9	97
	2005	16	31	22	13	5	10	97
	2006	13	32	21	18	4	10	98
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
	2002	6	15	14	3	18	33	88
	2004	4	12	21	4	15	32	88
Brazil [c]	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
	2001	7	29	12	15	7	17	87
	2003	6	30	13	14	8	16	87
	2004	6	31	12	14	8	16	87
	2005	6	30	12	14	9	16	87
	2006	6	31	22	15	8	15	97
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
	2000	7	52	15	9	5	10	98
	2003	6	52	13	10	5	9	95
	2006	7	51	10	12	5	10	95
Colombia [d]	1991	…	48 [e]	…	5	8	26	87
	1994	4	58 [e]	…	5	8	22	97
	1997	4	46 [e]	…	5	10	30	95
	1999	3	38 [e]	…	5	12	37	95
	2002	2	32 [e]	…	6	12	39	91
	2004	2	31 [e]	…	6	12	41	92
	2005	2	33 [e]	…	6	12	40	93
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
	2002	3	24	15	8	10	25	85
	2004	3	24	14	5	8	32	87
	2005	3	28	16	12	7	22	88
	2006	4	21	12	10	11	28	87

Table 9 (continued)

BREAKDOWN OF THE TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(Percentages of the total employed urban population living in poverty)

Country	Year	Public-sector wage or salary earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations			Own-account non-professional, non-technical workers		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	
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
	2002	5	23	18	6	9	27	89
	2004	4	21	19	5	9	31	89
	2005	3	22	21	7	8	28	89
	2006	3	21	23	5	6	32	90
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
	2001	3	24	19	6	10	27	88
	2004	3	25	19	5	10	27	88
Guatemala	1989	7	26	20	7	8	12	80
	1998	4	21	28	3	10	20	86
	2002	2	24	21	5	13	19	83
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
	2002	5	24	17	3	14	24	86
	2003	4	19	17	4	14	28	87
	2006	2	24	13	3	13	16	72
Mexico	1989	…	72 [e]	…	5	3	11	91
	1994	…	71 [e]	…	7	17 [f]	…	95
	1996	7	36	23	6	5	17	94
	1998	14	33	15	4	3	16	85
	2000	6	36	27	5	5	15	94
	2002	6	35	28	9	5	13	95
	2004	…	40 [g]	28	9	4	14	95
	2005	…	43 [g]	27	8	4	13	95
	2006	…	41 [g]	28	8	4	13	94
Nicaragua	1993	19	17	15	9	9	15	84
	1998	…	25	18	9	5	26	83
	2001	8	22	19	6	7	26	88
Panama	1991	14	30	8	10	7	20	89
	1994	12	34	9	13	8	20	95
	1997	10	32	10	11	10	22	94
	1999	7	28	12	9	7	30	94
	2002	7	28	9	10	8	31	93
	2004	5	24	13	12	7	33	94
	2005	4	24	14	12	7	31	93
	2006	5	22	12	15	8	31	92

Table 9 (concluded)

BREAKDOWN OF THE TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(Percentages of the total employed urban population living in poverty)

Country	Year	Public-sector wage or salary earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations			Own-account non-professional, non-technical workers		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	
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
	2001	5	28	13	12	7	28	93
	2004	7	19	17	12	8	29	92
	2005	7	21	18	11	7	25	89
Peru	1997	7	15	14	3	8	38	85
	1999	5	12	15	5	9	38	84
	2001	7	17	18	4	6	33	84
	2003	6	16	16	4	6	34	82
Dominican Republic	2000	13	33	10	8	7	20	92
	2002	14	30	9	8	8	23	91
	2004	14	38	10	9	4	14	88
	2005	14	36	9	9	5	14	87
	2006	14	35	11	9	3	16	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
	2002	4	20	16	17	17	23	97
	2004	4	22	17	17	14	22	95
	2005	3	23	20	14	13	23	97
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [h]	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
	2002	8	28	16	4	6	25	87
	2004	9	27	16	4	6	24	85
	2005	10	28	16	4	5	22	85
	2006	8	28	16	4	6	23	86

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] For Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama and Uruguay (1990), includes establishments employing up to four persons only.

[b] In most cases, the total amounts to less than 100%, since employers, professional and technical workers and public-sector employees have not been included.

[c] For 1990, the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing more than five persons includes wage earners who have an employment contract ("carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to five persons includes workers who do not have such contracts.

[d] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[e] Includes wage earners in establishments employing up to 5 persons.

[f] Refers to all non-professional, non-technical own-account workers.

[g] Includes public-sector wage earners.

[h] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguis between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 10

BREAKDOWN OF THE TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS, 1990-2006

(Percentages of the employed urban population living in poverty)

Country	Year	Public-sector wage and salary 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
	2002	1	2	2	0	91	88	97
	2004	2	3	7	0	84	72	96
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
	2001	3	22	2	3	69	64	99
	2003	2	22	2	4	69	63	99
	2004	2	21	2	4	70	64	99
	2005	2	21	2	4	70	61	99
	2006	3	21	2	4	69	61	99
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
	2000	3	40	22	2	33	28	100
	2003	2	38	23	3	33	29	99
	2006	2	41	20	5	30	22	98
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
	2002	1	25 [d]	…	4	68	40	98
	2004	1	24 [d]	…	3	70	39	98
	2005	0	26 [d]	…	3	68	38	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
	2002	1	9	16	5	62	41	91
	2004	1	13	14	5	58	40	91
	2005	2	12	19	7	50	30	90
	2006	1	9	13	7	58	37	88
Ecuador	2004	1	8	17	2	70	59	97
	2005	1	8	19	1	67	60	96
	2006	0	8	17	1	71	64	98
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
	2001	1	13	19	5	58	43	96
	2004	1	18	24	5	51	34	98
Guatemala	1989	2	23	12	2	61	52	100
	1998	1	22	19	1	54	37	98
	2002	1	18	15	1	63	47	97
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
	2002	1	9	21	1	67	52	99
	2003	1	8	22	2	66	49	99
	2006	1	9	20	2	61	49	92

Table 10 (concluded)

BREAKDOWN OF THE TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS, 1990-2006

(Percentages of the employed urban population living in poverty)

Country	Year	Public-sector wage and salary 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	
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
	2000	2	20	27	3	46	33	98
	2002	4	14	28	5	48	36	98
	2004	…	21 [e]	32	4	39	26	97
	2005	…	21 [e]	30	6	40	28	96
	2006	…	15 [e]	32	5	45	29	97
Nicaragua	1993	6	13	11	4	62	54	96
	1998	…	17	16	3	60	49	96
	2001	3	11	13	3	65	55	96
Panama	1991	4	10	9	4	72	60	99
	1994	3	11	13	5	67	55	100
	1997	2	13	14	4	66	50	99
	1999	2	11	17	4	65	45	99
	2002	1	5	5	2	86	68	99
	2004	1	4	8	3	83	62	99
	2005	1	3	8	3	84	63	99
	2006	1	4	8	3	84	66	99
Paraguay	1999	1	5	10	3	80	66	99
	2001	1	3	13	3	78	66	98
	2004	1	4	9	3	81	68	98
	2005	2	3	10	4	79	68	98
Peru	1997	1	5	7	1	82	71	96
	1999	1	4	7	1	82	73	95
	2001	2	7	9	1	78	68	96
	2003	2	5	5	1	85	76	97
Dominican Republic	2000	7	17	8	7	59	40	98
	2002	7	15	7	8	60	43	97
	2004	9	24	7	6	52	38	97
	2005	8	22	9	6	53	40	97
	2006	8	20	8	8	55	44	98
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	5	27	15	4	47	39	98
	1994	5	23	19	6	45	31	98

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] In the case of the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador and Panama (up to 2002), this category includes establishments employing up to 4 employees only.

[b] In most cases, the total amounts to less than 100%, since employers, professional and technical workers and public-sector employees have not been included.

[c] For 1990, the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing more than 5 persons includes wage earners who have an employment contract ("carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to five persons includes workers who do not have such contracts.

[d] Includes wage earners in establishments employing up to 5 persons. As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for rural areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[e] Includes public-sector wage earners.

Table 11

EXTENT AND DISTRIBUTION OF POVERTY AND INDIGENCE IN HOUSEHOLDS HEADED BY WOMEN, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

Country	Year	Percentage of households headed by women at each poverty level				Distribution of households headed by women by poverty level			
		Total households	Indigent	Non- indigent poor	Non-poor	Total households	Indigent	Non- indigent poor	Non-poor
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	21	26	12	22	100	4.3	7.0	88.7
	1994	24	22	20	24	100	1.0	7.5	91.1
	1997	26	32	24	26	100	4.1	9.0	86.9
	1999	27	37	28	27	100	4.2	10.4	85.4
	2002	27	20	25	28	100	8.9	18.5	72.6
	2004	30	39	27	29	100	8.6	11.5	79.9
	2005	31	40	29	31	100	6.2	10.3	83.5
	2006	32	44	32	31	100	6.4	9.1	84.5
Bolivia	1989	17	23	16	15	100	30.2	25.5	44.3
	1994	18	20	17	18	100	18.1	27.0	54.9
	1997	21	24	22	19	100	22.2	30.0	47.8
	1999	21	24	19	21	100	19.2	23.4	57.4
	2002	24	24	19	26	100	17.6	22.1	60.3
	2004	26	27	24	26	100	16.5	28.2	55.3
Brazil	1990	20	24	23	18	100	16.0	25.1	58.9
	1993	22	23	21	22	100	12.3	20.9	66.8
	1996	24	24	22	24	100	7.7	15.9	76.4
	1999	25	24	24	26	100	6.7	18.3	74.9
	2001	26	27	25	27	100	8.2	18.3	73.5
	2003	28	28	27	28	100	8.7	18.7	72.6
	2004	29	31	28	29	100	8.1	19.1	72.8
	2005	30	33	28	31	100	6.7	18.3	75.1
	2006	31	36	31	31	100	6.0	18.0	76.0
Chile	1990	21	25	20	22	100	11.7	21.3	67.0
	1994	22	27	21	22	100	7.1	16.0	76.8
	1996	23	29	22	23	100	5.3	13.6	81.1
	1998	24	28	23	24	100	4.9	12.3	82.7
	2000	24	28	23	24	100	5.0	11.5	83.6
	2003	18	26	16	18	100	2.3	9.0	88.7
	2006	31	48	36	30	100	4.1	10.2	85.7
Colombia [a]	1991	24	28	22	24	100	19.8	27.6	52.6
	1994	24	24	24	24	100	16.1	24.0	59.9
	1997	27	32	28	25	100	17.5	25.9	56.6
	1999	29	31	27	29	100	20.4	24.0	55.6
	2002	30	34	29	30	100	23.1	22.8	54.1
	2004	32	38	31	31	100	23.6	22.8	53.6
	2005	33	38	31	32	100	18.1	22.0	59.9
Costa Rica	1990	23	36	25	21	100	10.9	16.5	72.6
	1994	24	42	27	22	100	9.8	14.0	76.2
	1997	27	51	36	24	100	9.9	15.7	74.4
	1999	28	56	39	25	100	10.9	14.1	75.0
	2002	28	48	34	27	100	9.2	12.5	78.3
	2004	30	51	34	28	100	10.5	12.5	77.0
	2005	31	54	35	29	100	10.3	13.9	75.7
	2006	32	54	37	30	100	9.2	12.7	78.1

Table 11 (continued)

EXTENT AND DISTRIBUTION OF POVERTY AND INDIGENCE IN HOUSEHOLDS HEADED BY WOMEN, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

Country	Year	Percentage of households headed by women at each poverty level				Distribution of households headed by women by poverty level			
		Total households	Indigent	Non- indigent poor	Non-poor	Total households	Indigent	Non- indigent poor	Non-poor
Ecuador	1990	17	22	16	15	100	28.9	31.2	39.9
	1994	19	23	18	18	100	27.3	28.1	44.6
	1997	19	24	19	17	100	23.9	31.1	45.0
	1999	20	23	21	18	100	30.9	31.4	37.6
	2002	21	26	21	20	100	20.0	26.0	53.9
	2004	24	29	23	22	100	19.2	25.5	55.4
	2005	23	28	21	23	100	17.4	21.9	60.7
	2006	23	25	25	24	100	13.5	23.3	63.2
El Salvador	1995	31	38	31	29	100	15.4	28.1	56.5
	1997	30	36	33	28	100	14.2	29.3	56.5
	1999	31	36	36	29	100	12.6	25.9	61.5
	2001	35	37	40	33	100	12.6	25.9	61.5
	2004	35	35	39	34	100	11.4	25.5	63.1
Guatemala	1989	22	23	21	22	100	24.2	24.3	51.5
	1998	24	26	21	26	100	12.9	24.8	62.3
	2002	22	30	21	21	100	19.8	22.7	57.5
Honduras	1990	27	35	21	21	100	50.4	21.1	28.5
	1994	25	28	25	21	100	45.8	29.2	25.0
	1997	29	32	28	28	100	40.3	28.6	31.1
	1999	30	32	30	28	100	39.4	28.7	31.9
	2002	31	32	31	31	100	31.7	29.0	39.3
	2003	31	31	29	32	100	30.7	24.5	44.8
	2006	34	37	35	31	100	28.9	28.9	42.2
Mexico	1989	16	14	14	17	100	8.2	21.9	69.9
	1994	17	11	16	18	100	4.0	21.3	74.7
	1996	18	17	15	19	100	9.8	23.0	67.3
	1998	19	18	16	20	100	6.3	20.0	73.7
	2000	20	14	16	21	100	3.4	17.5	79.1
	2002	21	24	22	21	100	5.4	21.4	73.1
	2004	25	24	26	25	100	5.0	21.4	73.6
	2005	24	24	22	25	100	4.1	16.8	79.1
	2006	26	25	24	27	100	3.0	16.1	80.9
Nicaragua	1993	35	40	34	32	100	36.8	27.2	36.1
	1998	35	39	36	30	100	34.9	30.2	34.9
	2001	34	37	36	32	100	30.2	30.7	39.0
Panama	1991	29	42	36	26	100	14.6	21.5	63.9
	1994	27	45	29	25	100	10.0	15.6	74.4
	1997	30	48	34	27	100	10.8	16.0	73.2
	1999	30	59	34	27	100	9.7	13.9	76.4
	2002	29	44	31	27	100	12.3	14.6	73.1
	2004	30	50	34	28	100	9.7	14.7	75.6
	2005	30	55	32	28	100	11.9	14.0	74.2
	2006	30	46	35	29	100	8.2	14.1	77.7

Table 11 (concluded)

EXTENT AND DISTRIBUTION OF POVERTY AND INDIGENCE IN HOUSEHOLDS HEADED BY WOMEN, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

Country	Year	Percentage of households headed by women at each poverty level				Distribution of households headed by women by poverty level			
		Total households	Indigent	Non- indigent poor	Non-poor	Total households	Indigent	Non- indigent poor	Non-poor
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	20	21	23	18	100	11.2	30.5	58.3
	1994	23	20	26	22	100	8.4	29.3	62.3
	1996	27	25	26	27	100	7.4	24.7	67.9
	1999	27	30	23	29	100	7.7	21.9	70.4
	2001	31	37	29	32	100	10.6	23.7	65.7
	2004	30	38	26	30	100	22.9	25.8	51.3
	2005	34	39	37	32	100	14.2	31.1	54.6
Peru	1997	20	21	19	21	100	8.0	18.6	73.3
	1999	21	17	21	21	100	6.3	23.9	69.7
	2001	22	22	21	23	100	7.2	25.2	67.6
	2003	25	30	20	26	100	7.2	24.3	68.5
Dominican Republic	2000	31	48	33	26	100	27.2	22.3	50.5
	2002	34	54	39	27	100	25.2	25.6	49.2
	2004	33	41	35	28	100	29.5	26.4	44.1
	2005	35	48	37	30	100	27.5	22.3	50.2
	2006	34	50	39	28	100	25.0	24.8	50.2
Uruguay	1990	25	28	22	26	100	2.2	8.4	89.4
	1994	27	21	23	27	100	0.8	4.0	95.1
	1997	29	27	23	29	100	0.8	3.9	95.3
	1999	31	29	26	31	100	0.8	4.0	95.2
	2002	32	31	27	33	100	1.3	6.7	92.0
	2004	32	27	27	33	100	2.1	8.9	89.0
	2005	34	34	31	35	100	2.2	8.8	89.0
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [b]	1990	22	40	25	18	100	19.6	25.4	55.1
	1994	25	34	28	21	100	18.7	30.8	50.5
	1997	26	28	29	24	100	18.6	28.4	53.0
	1999	27	34	27	25	100	23.8	24.8	51.3
	2002	29	35	29	26	100	24.0	24.1	51.9
	2004	31	39	32	28	100	20.9	24.1	55.0
	2005	32	40	33	30	100	18.2	19.3	62.5
	2006	33	44	35	31	100	12.3	18.3	69.4

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992 the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[b] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 12

HOUSEHOLD INCOME DISTRIBUTION, NATIONAL TOTALS, 1990-2006 [a]

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Average income [b]	Share of total income of:				Ratio of average per capita income [c]	
			40% poorest	Next poorest 30%	20% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%	$D^{10}/D^{(1 \text{ to } 4)}$	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
	2002	8.1	13.4	19.3	25.3	42.1	20.0	21.8
	2004	9.4	16.0	22.3	24.5	37.3	15.5	16.6
	2005	10.0	16.7	22.2	25.4	35.7	14.6	15.5
	2006	10.8	16.9	23.6	25.4	34.1	13.8	14.9
Bolivia	1989 [e]	7.7	12.1	21.9	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
	2002	6.1	9.5	21.3	28.3	41.0	30.3	44.2
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
	2001	11.0	10.2	17.4	25.6	46.8	32.2	36.9
	2003	9.9	11.2	18.3	25.7	44.9	27.9	31.8
	2004	9.9	11.7	18.7	25.6	44.1	26.6	29.4
	2005	10.1	11.9	18.5	25.0	44.6	26.5	28.8
	2006	10.5	12.2	18.8	25.2	44.0	24.9	27.2
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
	2003	13.6	13.7	20.7	25.5	40.0	18.8	18.4
	2006	14.4	14.6	21.5	26.7	37.2	15.9	15.7
Colombia [f]	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
	2002	6.9	12.3	22.4	26.5	38.8	24.1	28.5
	2004	6.9	12.1	22.0	26.0	39.9	25.1	29.1
	2005	7.8	12.2	21.4	25.4	41.0	25.2	27.8
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
	2002	11.7	14.5	25.6	29.7	30.2	13.7	16.9
	2004	10.9	14.3	26.2	30.1	29.5	13.3	16.6
	2005	10.3	15.2	26.2	29.9	28.7	12.7	15.1
	2006	11.2	14.6	25.7	29.3	30.4	13.4	16.1
Ecuador	1990 [g]	5.5	17.1	25.4	27.0	30.5	11.4	12.3
	1997 [g]	6.0	17.0	24.7	26.4	31.9	11.5	12.2
	1999 [g]	5.6	14.1	22.8	26.5	36.6	17.2	18.4
	2002 [g]	6.7	15.4	24.3	26.0	34.3	15.7	16.8
	2004	6.4	15.0	24.5	27.5	33.0	15.2	16.7
	2005	6.9	14.0	23.8	26.9	35.3	17.0	19.2
	2006	7.7	14.5	23.7	25.9	36.0	18.0	18.6

Table 12 (continued)

HOUSEHOLD INCOME DISTRIBUTION, NATIONAL TOTALS, 1990-2006 [a]

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Average income [b]	Share of total income of:				Ratio of average per capita income [c]	
			40% poorest	Next poorest 30%	20% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%	$D^{10}/D^{(1 \text{ to } 4)}$	Q^5/Q^1
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
	2001	6.7	13.4	24.6	28.7	33.3	16.2	20.3
	2004	6.2	15.9	26.0	28.8	29.3	13.3	16.3
Guatemala	1989	6.0	11.8	20.9	26.8	40.6	23.5	27.3
	1998	7.1	14.3	21.6	25.0	39.1	20.4	19.8
	2002	6.8	14.2	22.2	26.8	36.8	18.4	18.7
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
	2002	4.3	11.3	21.7	27.6	39.4	23.6	26.3
	2003	4.3	10.6	22.1	28.6	38.8	24.4	28.2
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
	2000	8.5	14.6	22.5	26.5	36.4	17.9	18.5
	2002	8.2	15.7	23.8	27.3	33.2	15.1	15.5
	2004	8.3	15.8	23.3	26.3	34.6	15.9	16.0
	2005	8.7	15.4	23.2	26.0	35.4	16.7	17.0
	2006	8.7	16.9	24.1	26.1	32.9	14.7	14.8
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
	2001	5.9	12.2	21.5	25.7	40.6	23.6	27.2
Panama	1991 [g]	10.8	14.1	23.8	29.4	32.7	16.8	20.1
	1994 [g]	12.7	14.6	23.6	25.1	36.8	17.0	18.3
	1997 [g]	13.2	13.7	22.5	26.9	36.9	18.6	20.2
	1999 [g]	12.6	15.6	25.2	27.8	31.5	14.0	15.9
	2002	10.7	11.8	24.4	29.0	34.9	19.8	26.5
	2004	10.2	13.0	24.6	28.0	34.4	17.3	22.6
	2005	9.6	13.2	24.8	28.9	33.1	16.9	22.4
	2006	10.1	13.2	24.8	28.1	33.8	17.7	22.8
Paraguay	1990 [h]	7.7	18.6	25.7	26.9	28.9	10.2	10.6
	1996 [g]	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
	2001	6.2	12.9	23.5	26.4	37.3	20.9	25.6
	2004	5.2	14.6	22.9	26.5	36.1	18.6	20.1
	2005	5.5	15.0	23.9	26.5	34.7	16.0	18.2
Peru	1997	8.1	13.4	24.6	28.7	33.3	17.9	20.8
	1999	8.2	13.4	23.1	27.1	36.5	19.5	21.6
	2001	6.2	13.4	24.6	28.5	33.5	17.4	19.3
	2003	6.2	14.9	23.7	27.9	33.6	15.6	16.3

Table 12 (concluded)

HOUSEHOLD INCOME DISTRIBUTION, NATIONAL TOTALS, 1990-2006 [a]

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Average income [b]	Share of total income of:				Ratio of average per capita income [c]	
			40% poorest	Next poorest 30%	20% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%	$D^{10}/D^{(1 to 4)}$	Q^5/Q^1
Dominican Republic	2000	7.2	11.4	22.2	27.6	38.8	21.1	26.9
	2002	7.2	12.0	22.6	27.0	38.3	19.3	24.9
	2004	6.5	10.2	20.1	28.2	41.5	26.1	28.0
	2005	7.3	10.4	21.4	29.9	38.3	22.7	28.1
	2006	8.1	9.9	20.2	29.0	40.9	24.5	29.1
Uruguay [g]	1990	9.3	20.1	24.6	24.1	31.2	9.4	9.4
	1997	11.2	21.9	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
	2002	9.4	21.6	25.4	25.6	27.3	9.5	10.2
	2004	8.2	21.3	24.8	25.4	28.6	10.1	10.6
	2005	8.1	21.6	25.0	25.6	27.8	9.3	10.0
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [b]	1990	8.9	16.7	25.7	28.9	28.7	12.1	13.4
	1997	7.8	14.7	23.9	28.6	32.8	14.9	16.1
	1999	7.2	14.6	25.1	29.0	31.4	15.0	18.0
	2002	7.1	14.3	24.9	29.5	31.3	14.5	18.1
	2004	7.0	16.1	26.5	28.9	28.5	12.0	14.9
	2005	8.5	14.8	26.1	28.3	30.8	13.7	17.9
	2006	9.0	17.4	27.0	28.3	27.4	10.5	12.3

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Households arranged in order of per capita income. Table 13 presents disaggregated figures for urban and rural areas.

[b] Average monthly household income in multiples of the per capita poverty line.

[c] $D^{(1 to 4)}$ means the 40% of households with the lowest income, while D10 means the 10% of households with the highest income. Similar notation is used for quintiles (Q), where each group represents 20% of total households.

[d] Greater Buenos Aires.

[e] Eight major cities and El Alto.

[f] As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban areas and rural areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[g] Urban total.

[h] Asunción metropolitan area.

Table 13

HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVELS AND DISTRIBUTION, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1990-2006 [a]

(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 richest 10%	Richest 10%		Poorest 40%	Next poorest 30%	20% below richest 10%	Richest 10%
		Urban areas					Rural areas, 1990-2006				
Argentina	1990 [c]	10.6	14.9	23.6	26.7	34.8	…	…	…	…	…
	1997 [c]	12.4	14.9	22.3	27.1	35.8	…	…	…	…	…
	1999	11.6	15.9	22.1	25.4	36.7	…	…	…	…	…
	2002	7.3	14.3	20.4	24.6	40.6	…	…	…	…	…
	2004	8.9	16.3	22.5	25.2	36.0	…	…	…	…	…
	2005	9.6	16.5	22.7	25.4	35.4	…	…	…	…	…
	2006	10.8	16.9	22.9	25.2	35.0	…	…	…	…	…
Bolivia	1989 [d]	7.7	12.1	21.9	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
	2002	7.7	13.9	21.4	26.4	38.4	3.5	8.2	21.6	30.7	39.5
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
	2001	11.8	10.5	17.7	26.0	45.7	6.5	13.9	23.8	23.2	39.1
	2003	10.5	11.4	18.4	26.2	44.1	6.3	14.4	24.8	23.7	37.1
	2004	10.5	11.9	18.8	26.0	43.3	6.3	15.2	24.7	23.7	36.4
	2005	10.8	12.0	18.6	25.4	43.9	6.3	15.6	25.6	24.1	34.7
	2006	11.2	12.4	18.8	25.5	43.4	6.6	15.3	26.0	24.4	34.3
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
	2003	13.9	13.9	21.0	25.6	39.4	11.1	16.5	22.6	22.2	38.8
	2006	14.6	14.8	21.8	26.8	36.5	13.1	16.3	21.7	22.6	39.3
Colombia [e]	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
	2002	7.2	11.9	22.2	26.8	39.1	6.4	14.7	25.2	28.0	32.1
	2004	7.4	11.7	21.8	26.4	40.1	5.4	16.3	28.4	27.6	27.7
	2005	8.3	12.0	21.1	26.0	40.9	6.2	15.2	26.0	27.2	31.6
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	16.1	26.8	29.9	27.2	10.9	15.8	26.7	29.3	28.2
	2002	12.3	15.5	26.2	29.3	29.0	10.8	14.4	26.6	29.2	29.8
	2004	11.4	15.0	27.0	29.4	28.6	10.1	15.0	27.4	30.0	27.6
	2005	10.7	16.1	26.5	30.1	27.3	9.8	15.9	27.6	29.2	27.3
	2006	11.5	15.4	26.1	28.9	29.6	10.6	15.1	27.6	28.9	28.4
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	…	…	…	…	…
	2002	6.7	15.4	24.3	26.0	34.3	…	…	…	…	…
	2004	6.9	15.8	24.7	27.5	32.0	5.3	18.9	27.3	28.1	25.8
	2005	7.4	15.1	24.3	26.3	34.3	5.8	16.4	27.4	27.4	28.8
	2006	8.1	15.7	24.0	26.2	34.1	6.8	17.2	24.9	25.3	32.7

Table 13 (continued)

HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVELS AND DISTRIBUTION, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1990-2006 [a]

(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 richest 10%	Richest 10%		Poorest 40%	Next poorest 30%	20% below richest 10%	Richest 10%
		Urban areas					Rural areas, 1990-2006				
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
	2001	7.6	15.6	25.1	28.5	30.8	5.2	14.7	27.4	30.3	27.7
	2004	6.7	17.9	26.3	28.5	27.3	5.2	16.6	29.7	27.9	25.8
Guatemala	1989	7.7	12.1	22.6	27.4	37.9	5.0	14.4	24.7	25.7	35.1
	1998	8.2	16.0	22.4	24.7	36.9	6.3	15.7	23.5	23.5	37.3
	2002	7.9	13.9	22.8	26.6	36.7	6.1	17.1	24.7	27.7	30.6
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	23.9	27.9	33.9	3.3	13.9	23.9	29.1	33.0
	2002	5.3	13.8	23.3	26.0	36.8	3.3	15.4	23.1	28.3	33.2
	2003	5.6	13.8	23.6	26.8	35.8	3.1	14.7	24.3	30.4	30.7
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	17.9	23.7	26.8	31.5
	2000	9.0	16.9	23.3	26.1	33.6	7.4	15.6	21.5	24.3	38.7
	2002	8.9	17.9	24.0	26.9	31.2	6.9	18.0	23.2	26.5	32.3
	2004	8.9	17.5	23.4	26.2	33.0	7.1	18.1	24.5	26.2	31.2
	2005	9.5	17.5	23.1	24.9	34.5	7.1	18.1	24.9	26.6	30.4
	2006	9.4	18.5	24.1	26.1	31.3	7.6	19.6	25.4	25.9	29.1
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
	2001	6.8	13.2	21.2	24.3	41.4	4.4	14.3	26.4	28.6	30.7
Panama	1991	10.8	14.1	23.8	29.4	32.7	…	…	…	…	…
	1994	12.7	14.6	23.6	25.1	36.8	…	…	…	…	…
	1997	13.2	13.7	22.5	26.9	36.9	…	…	…	…	…
	1999	12.6	15.6	25.2	27.8	31.5	…	…	…	…	…
	2002	11.9	14.2	24.9	28.2	32.7	8.5	11.1	23.9	30.7	34.3
	2004	11.8	15.5	24.9	27.8	31.9	7.4	14.0	26.6	29.2	30.2
	2005	11.0	15.7	25.0	28.2	31.1	7.0	14.2	26.8	29.9	29.2
	2006	11.6	15.7	24.8	27.4	32.1	7.3	14.2	26.7	30.2	28.9
Paraguay	1990 [f]	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
	2001	7.4	15.9	23.4	27.5	33.1	4.6	14.6	24.9	27.7	32.9
	2004	5.5	16.4	24.2	26.4	33.0	4.8	15.0	22.6	23.5	39.0
	2005	5.9	16.4	23.6	26.4	33.6	4.9	15.6	26.2	26.2	32.0
Peru	1997	9.2	17.3	25.4	26.7	30.6	4.4	17.8	27.1	29.4	25.7
	1999	9.2	16.2	23.6	26.6	33.6	4.4	17.4	17.9	23.8	40.9
	2001	7.6	16.9	25.4	26.9	30.8	3.7	19.2	27.6	28.0	25.2
	2003	7.7	17.9	25.2	26.8	30.1	3.4	25.0	29.7	27.5	17.7

Table 13 (concluded)

HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVELS AND DISTRIBUTION, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1990-2006 [a]

(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 richest 10%	Richest 10%		Poorest 40%	Next poorest 30%	20% below richest 10%	Richest 10%
		Urban areas					Rural areas, 1990-2006				
Dominican Republic	2000	8.2	11.4	22.2	28.0	38.4	5.5	14.0	25.6	27.0	33.5
	2002	8.2	11.6	21.7	28.4	38.4	5.5	15.0	27.5	29.1	28.5
	2004	7.3	9.8	19.5	28.1	42.5	5.0	13.6	23.5	30.3	32.7
	2005	7.9	10.4	21.5	30.0	38.1	6.2	11.6	23.0	28.9	36.5
	2006	9.0	9.7	20.3	28.3	41.7	6.4	11.6	22.9	31.1	34.4
Uruguay	1990	9.3	20.1	24.6	24.1	31.2	…	…	…	…	…
	1997	11.2	21.9	26.1	26.1	25.8	…	…	…	…	…
	1999	11.9	21.6	25.5	25.9	27.0	…	…	…	…	…
	2002	9.4	21.6	25.4	25.6	27.3	…	…	…	…	…
	2004	8.2	21.3	24.8	25.4	28.6	…	…	…	…	…
	2005	8.1	21.6	25.0	25.6	27.8	…	…	…	…	…
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [b]	1990	9.1	16.8	26.1	28.8	28.4	7.7	19.8	28.6	27.8	23.8

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys

[a] Households 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] As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban and rural areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[f] Asunción metropolitan area.

Table 14

INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION, NATIONAL TOTALS, 1990-2006 [a]

Country	Year	Percentage of persons with per capita income of less than:		Concentration indices			
		average	50% of average	Gini [b]	Variance of logarithm of income	Theil	Atkinson (ε=1.5)
Argentina [c]	1990	70.6	39.1	0.501	0.982	0.555	0.473
	1997	72.1	43.4	0.530	1.143	0.601	0.514
	1999	72.5	44.2	0.542	1.183	0.681	0.528
	2002	74.0	47.9	0.590	1.603	0.742	0.609
	2004	72.8	42.2	0.537	1.246	0.675	0.542
	2005	72.6	39.9	0.524	1.165	0.605	0.520
	2006	70.9	38.9	0.510	1.146	0.561	0.513
Bolivia	1989 [d]	71.9	44.1	0.538	1.528	0.574	0.600
	1997	73.1	47.6	0.595	2.024	0.728	0.674
	1999	70.4	45.5	0.586	2.548	0.658	0.738
	2002	73.6	49.6	0.614	2.510	0.776	0.738
Brazil	1990	75.2	53.9	0.627	1.938	0.816	0.664
	1996	76.3	54.4	0.638	1.962	0.871	0.668
	1999	77.1	54.8	0.640	1.913	0.914	0.663
	2001	76.9	54.4	0.639	1.925	0.914	0.665
	2003	76.2	52.5	0.621	1.802	0.838	0.647
	2004	76.0	51.6	0.612	1.707	0.826	0.632
	2005	76.5	51.4	0.613	1.690	0.840	0.629
	2006	75.9	50.7	0.602	1.646	0.807	0.621
Chile	1990	74.6	46.5	0.554	1.258	0.644	0.545
	1996	73.9	46.9	0.553	1.261	0.630	0.544
	2000	75.0	46.4	0.559	1.278	0.666	0.550
	2003	74.8	45.9	0.550	1.198	0.668	0.533
	2006	73.3	42.2	0.522	1.065	0.568	0.497
Colombia [e]	1994	73.6	48.9	0.601	2.042	0.794	0.684
	1997	74.2	46.4	0.569	1.399	0.857	0.584
	1999	74.5	46.6	0.572	1.456	0.734	0.603
	2002	74.2	46.2	0.569	1.396	0.524	0.580
	2004	75.2	47.3	0.577	1.410	0.727	0.580
	2005	75.9	48.7	0.584	1.460	0.752	0.591
Costa Rica	1990	65.0	31.6	0.438	0.833	0.328	0.412
	1997	66.6	33.0	0.450	0.860	0.356	0.422
	1999	67.6	36.1	0.473	0.974	0.395	0.457
	2002	68.5	37.1	0.488	1.080	0.440	0.491
	2004	68.2	36.3	0.478	1.030	0.411	0.473
	2005	68.0	35.1	0.470	0.959	0.399	0.453
	2006	68.6	36.4	0.478	1.031	0.427	0.475
Ecuador	1990 [f]	69.6	33.8	0.461	0.823	0.403	0.422
	1997 [f]	68.9	34.8	0.469	0.832	0.409	0.419
	1999 [f]	72.1	42.0	0.521	1.075	0.567	0.498
	2002 [f]	72.3	39.8	0.513	1.031	0.563	0.487
	2004	71.3	41.5	0.513	1.089	0.519	0.495
	2005	71.8	42.1	0.531	1.190	0.565	0.522
	2006	72.2	42.3	0.526	1.083	0.711	0.504

Table 14 (continued)

INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION, NATIONAL TOTALS, 1990-2006 [a]

Country	Year	Percentage of persons with per capita income of less than:		Concentration indices			
		average	50% of average	Gini [b]	Variance of logarithm of income	Theil	Atkinson (ε=1.5)
El Salvador	1995	69.7	38.4	0.507	1.192	0.502	0.525
	1997	69.9	40.2	0.510	1.083	0.512	0.492
	1999	68.5	40.6	0.518	1.548	0.496	0.601
	2001	69.1	40.8	0.525	1.559	0.528	0.602
	2004	68.1	37.5	0.493	1.325	0.449	0.552
Guatemala	1989	74.9	47.9	0.582	1.477	0.736	0.590
	1998	75.3	46.6	0.560	1.182	0.760	0.534
	2002	72.8	47.9	0.543	1.142	0.589	0.515
Honduras	1990	75.1	52.3	0.615	1.842	0.817	0.649
	1997	72.5	45.4	0.558	1.388	0.652	0.571
	1999	71.8	46.4	0.564	1.560	0.636	0.603
	2002	72.8	49.6	0.588	1.607	0.719	0.608
	2003	72.3	49.8	0.587	1.662	0.695	0.615
Mexico	1989	74.2	43.5	0.536	1.096	0.680	0.509
	1994	73.1	44.7	0.539	1.130	0.606	0.511
	1998	72.8	43.1	0.539	1.142	0.634	0.515
	2000	73.2	44.0	0.542	1.221	0.603	0.530
	2002	71.7	41.2	0.514	1.045	0.521	0.485
	2004	72.6	41.0	0.516	1.045	0.588	0.490
	2005	72.5	41.6	0.528	1.125	0.635	0.513
	2006	71.9	40.2	0.506	0.992	0.527	0.481
Nicaragua	1993	71.5	45.9	0.582	1.598	0.671	0.619
	1998	73.1	45.9	0.584	1.800	0.731	0.654
	2001	74.6	46.9	0.579	1.594	0.783	0.619
Panama	1991	71.3	46.4	0.560	1.373	0.628	0.562
	1994	72.5	46.1	0.567	1.440	0.706	0.579
	1997	72.6	47.6	0.570	1.464	0.681	0.583
	1999	70.5	44.2	0.536	1.283	0.541	0.538
	2002	70.2	45.5	0.561	1.715	0.592	0.620
	2004	70.7	44.0	0.548	1.562	0.554	0.592
	2005	69.9	43.4	0.545	1.587	0.547	0.598
	2006	70.3	43.3	0.548	1.639	0.571	0.609
Paraguay	1990 [g]	69.2	33.4	0.447	0.737	0.365	0.386
	1996 [f]	72.9	37.9	0.493	0.916	0.515	0.453
	1999	72.3	46.3	0.565	1.555	0.668	0.599
	2001	72.9	44.4	0.570	1.705	0.702	0.631
	2004	72.1	44.3	0.548	1.316	0.668	0.551
	2005	71.0	42.1	0.536	1.319	0.614	0.553

Table 14 (concluded)

INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION, NATIONAL TOTALS, 1990-2006 [a]

Country	Year	Percentage of persons with per capita income of less than:		Concentration indices			
		average	50% of average	Gini [b]	Variance of logarithm of income	Theil	Atkinson (ε=1.5)
Peru	1997	70.1	41.4	0.532	1.348	0.567	0.554
	1999	71.7	42.7	0.545	1.358	0.599	0.560
	2001	70.3	41.5	0.525	1.219	0.556	0.527
	2003	…	…	0.506	1.051	0.503	0.484
	2004	69.5	…	0.505	1.018	0.510	0.478
	2005	70.0	…	…	…	…	…
	2006	69.7	…	…	…	…	…
Dominican Republic	2000	71.5	44.3	0.554	1.250	0.583	0.535
	2002	71.6	43.0	0.544	1.216	0.570	0.529
	2004	73.5	49.2	0.586	1.552	0.762	0.606
	2005	72.0	46.9	0.569	1.536	0.629	0.595
	2006	72.5	48.6	0.578	1.597	0.692	0.614
Uruguay [f]	1990	73.2	36.8	0.492	0.812	0.699	0.441
	1997	66.8	31.3	0.430	0.730	0.336	0.381
	1999	67.1	32.2	0.440	0.764	0.354	0.393
	2002	67.9	34.6	0.455	0.802	0.385	0.412
	2004	68.5	35.8	0.464	0.824	0.412	0.414
	2005	68.2	33.6	0.452	0.798	0.383	0.414
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	68.0	35.5	0.471	0.930	0.416	0.446
	1997	70.8	40.7	0.507	1.223	0.508	0.637
	1999	69.4	38.6	0.498	1.134	0.464	0.507
	2002	68.7	38.8	0.500	1.122	0.456	0.507
	2004	67.5	35.4	0.470	0.935	0.389	0.453
	2005	68.1	36.4	0.490	1.148	0.472	0.510
	2006	66.5	32.9	0.441	0.811	0.359	0.409

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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 throughout the country. Tables 15 and 16 present disaggregated figures for urban and rural areas.

[b] Includes individuals with zero income.

[c] Greater Buenos Aires.

[d] Eight major cities and El Alto.

[e] As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban areas and rural areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[f] Urban total.

[g] Asunción metropolitan area.

Table 15

INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION, NATIONAL TOTALS, URBAN AREAS,1990-2006 [a]

Country	Year	Percentage of persons with per capita income of less than:		Concentration indices			
		average	50% of average	Gini [b]	Variance of logarithm of income	Theil	Atkinson (ε=1.5)
Argentina	1990 [c]	70.6	39.1	0.501	0.982	0.555	0.473
	1997 [c]	72.1	43.4	0.530	1.143	0.601	0.514
	1999	72.1	43.3	0.539	1.194	0.667	0.530
	2002	73.1	47.2	0.578	1.510	0.724	0.593
	2004	72.0	40.9	0.531	1.225	0.633	0.534
	2005	72.4	40.5	0.526	1.190	0.602	0.525
	2006	71.2	40.0	0.519	1.173	0.626	0.522
Bolivia	1989 [d]	71.9	44.1	0.538	1.528	0.574	0.600
	1997	72.5	43.0	0.531	1.772	0.573	0.521
	1999	70.4	40.1	0.504	1.131	0.487	0.511
	2002	74.7	46.6	0.554	1.286	0.633	0.549
Brazil	1990	74.7	52.2	0.606	1.690	0.748	0.625
	1996	75.7	53.1	0.620	1.735	0.815	0.634
	1999	76.5	53.8	0.625	1.742	0.865	0.637
	2001	76.4	53.3	0.628	1.777	0.875	0.643
	2003	75.9	51.9	0.612	1.691	0.806	0.629
	2004	75.9	51.0	0.603	1.608	0.797	0.615
	2005	76.1	51.0	0.604	1.586	0.810	0.612
	2006	75.7	50.2	0.593	1.532	0.776	0.601
Chile	1990	73.8	45.1	0.542	1.204	0.600	0.531
	1996	73.5	45.7	0.544	1.206	0.604	0.532
	2000	74.7	45.9	0.553	1.246	0.643	0.542
	2003	75.0	45.1	0.547	1.184	0.661	0.529
	2006	72.8	41.8	0.517	1.048	0.553	0.492
Colombia [e]	1994	74.6	48.1	0.579	1.491	0.749	0.597
	1997	73.8	46.5	0.577	1.571	0.714	0.545
	1999	74.2	46.1	0.564	1.312	0.707	0.559
	2002	74.0	46.7	0.576	1.418	0.716	0.580
	2004	74.8	48.2	0.582	1.425	0.728	0.581
	2005	75.7	49.3	0.587	1.435	0.749	0.583
Costa Rica	1990	63.6	29.6	0.419	0.727	0.295	0.376
	1997	65.3	32.2	0.429	0.779	0.323	0.394
	1999	66.3	34.5	0.454	0.881	0.356	0.427
	2002	67.3	35.2	0.465	0.916	0.398	0.443
	2004	66.8	34.3	0.462	0.924	0.384	0.443
	2005	67.2	34.8	0.459	0.895	0.379	0.434
	2006	68.2	36.2	0.469	0.961	0.404	0.454
Ecuador	1990	69.6	33.8	0.461	0.823	0.403	0.422
	1997	68.9	34.8	0.469	0.832	0.409	0.419
	1999	72.1	42.0	0.521	1.075	0.567	0.498
	2002	72.3	39.8	0.513	1.031	0.563	0.487
	2004	70.3	38.8	0.498	0.991	0.485	0.469
	2005	71.1	41.1	0.513	1.070	0.517	0.491
	2006	71.4	39.8	0.505	0.979	0.610	0.474

Table 15 (continued)

INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION, NATIONAL TOTALS, URBAN AREAS,1990-2006 [a]

Country	Year	Percentage of persons with per capita income of less than:		Concentration indices			
		average	50% of average	Gini [b]	Variance of logarithm of income	Theil	Atkinson (ε=1.5)
El Salvador	1995	69.5	34.3	0.466	0.836	0.428	0.424
	1997	70.0	34.6	0.467	0.864	0.428	0.430
	1999	68.0	35.7	0.462	1.002	0.388	0.483
	2001	68.6	36.8	0.477	1.090	0.435	0.501
	2004	67.3	34.8	0.455	0.970	0.379	0.462
Guatemala	1989	72.2	45.6	0.558	1.377	0.640	0.566
	1998	74.5	40.3	0.525	0.997	0.653	0.486
	2002	71.8	42.2	0.524	1.106	0.532	0.508
Honduras	1990	73.1	46.6	0.561	1.397	0.661	0.570
	1997	71.8	40.9	0.527	1.142	0.578	0.516
	1999	70.8	41.6	0.518	1.138	0.528	0.509
	2002	72.3	42.3	0.533	1.227	0.580	0.533
	2003	71.0	41.9	0.527	1.256	0.548	0.535
Mexico	1989	75.2	42.5	0.530	1.031	0.678	0.495
	1994	73.6	41.6	0.512	0.934	0.544	0.460
	1998	73.2	41.5	0.507	0.901	0.578	0.455
	2000	72.1	38.7	0.493	0.856	0.500	0.436
	2002	71.6	31.2	0.477	0.800	0.444	0.415
	2004	72.8	39.3	0.493	0.848	0.537	0.436
	2005	73.2	39.2	0.497	0.843	0.582	0.440
	2006	72.1	37.2	0.478	0.809	0.469	0.436
Nicaragua	1993	71.4	42.6	0.549	1.256	0.595	0.541
	1998	72.3	43.4	0.551	1.271	0.673	0.552
	2001	73.9	44.0	0.560	1.225	0.746	0.546
Panama	1991	70.3	44.0	0.530	1.254	0.543	0.534
	1994	72.5	42.9	0.537	1.198	0.642	0.530
	1997	72.1	44.1	0.543	1.304	0.611	0.550
	1999	68.4	39.7	0.499	1.088	0.459	0.490
	2002	70.3	41.1	0.515	1.217	0.488	0.522
	2004	69.6	40.1	0.500	1.105	0.449	0.494
	2005	68.7	40.4	0.500	1.154	0.454	0.508
	2006	69.8	40.2	0.501	1.096	0.472	0.496
Paraguay	1990 [f]	69.2	33.4	0.447	0.737	0.365	0.386
	1996	72.9	37.9	0.493	0.916	0.515	0.453
	1999	70.0	39.1	0.497	0.997	0.490	0.472
	2001	72.0	40.2	0.511	1.081	0.549	0.501
	2004	70.5	38.9	0.496	0.971	0.518	0.468
	2005	71.1	40.8	0.504	1.000	0.545	0.477
Peru	1997	70.4	36.0	0.473	0.863	0.453	0.433
	1999	74.0	39.4	0.498	0.954	0.499	0.465
	2001	70.6	35.7	0.477	0.903	0.465	0.448
	2003	…	…	0.456	0.790	0.412	0.409
	2004	70.0	…	0.471	0.856	0.444	0.432
	2005	69.8	…	…	…	…	…
	2006	70.0	…	…	…	…	…

Table 15 (concluded)

INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION, NATIONAL TOTALS, URBAN AREAS,1990-2006 [a]

Country	Year	Percentage of persons with per capita income of less than:		Concentration indices			
		average	50% of average	Gini [b]	Variance of logarithm of income	Theil	Atkinson (ε=1.5)
Dominican Republic	2000	71.5	43.6	0.550	1.236	0.569	0.532
	2002	71.8	44.4	0.548	1.232	0.569	0.532
	2004	74.1	50.6	0.598	1.652	0.799	0.625
	2005	71.6	47.1	0.568	1.533	0.622	0.593
	2006	73.0	49.4	0.584	1.648	0.703	0.628
Uruguay	1990	73.2	36.8	0.492	0.812	0.699	0.441
	1997	66.8	31.3	0.430	0.730	0.336	0.381
	1999	67.1	32.2	0.440	0.764	0.354	0.393
	2002	67.9	34.6	0.455	0.802	0.385	0.412
	2004	68.5	35.8	0.464	0.824	0.412	0.414
	2005	68.2	33.6	0.452	0.798	0.383	0.414
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	67.7	34.4	0.464	0.903	0.403	0.437

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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 in urban areas.

[b] Includes individuals with zero income.

[c] Greater Buenos Aires.

[d] Eight major cities and El Alto.

[e] As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of earlier years.

[f] Asunción metropolitan area.

Table 16

INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION, RURAL AREAS, 1990-2006 [a]

Country	Year	Percentage of persons with per capita income of less than:		Concentration indices			
		average	50% of average	Gini [b]	Variance of logarithm of income	Theil	Atkinson (ε=1.5)
Bolivia	1997	75.4	53.6	0.637	2.133	0.951	0. 692
	1999	71.3	52.9	0.640	2.772	0.809	0.752
	2002	73.4	51.1	0.632	2.662	0.799	0.746
Brazil	1990	72.5	45.5	0.548	1.266	0.627	0.545
	1996	73.1	47.6	0.578	1.424	0.727	0.578
	1999	73.8	47.4	0.577	1.357	0.773	0.569
	2001	73.0	47.1	0.581	1.451	0.790	0.587
	2003	72.1	46.2	0.564	1.401	0.734	0.576
	2004	72.4	45.0	0.552	1.286	0.675	0.550
	2005	71.6	43.8	0.542	1.239	0.658	0.539
	2006	70.9	43.6	0.538	1.282	0.664	0.546
Chile	1990	79.0	47.9	0.578	1.269	0.854	0.563
	1996	73.9	36.2	0.492	0.887	0.542	0.452
	2000	74.5	38.7	0.511	0.956	0.669	0.478
	2003	75.5	38.1	0.507	0.909	0.622	0.464
	2006	75.7	38.7	0.506	0.904	0.614	0.463
Colombia [c]	1994	69.8	45.5	0.570	2.047	0.621	0.674
	1997	73.8	46.5	0.554	1.571	0.714	0.509
	1999	72.1	39.5	0.525	1.291	0.626	0.582
	2002	70.4	37.0	0.499	1.133	0.524	0.525
	2004	67.3	33.0	0.465	0.982	0.443	0.469
	2005	70.5	35.6	0.495	1.124	0.511	0.512
Costa Rica	1990	63.3	27.9	0.419	0.771	0.301	0.390
	1997	65.7	30.4	0.426	0.757	0.316	0.387
	1999	66.8	33.0	0.457	0.895	0.377	0.434
	2002	67.5	34.6	0.481	1.056	0.436	0.487
	2004	65.7	32.4	0.453	0.936	0.360	0.444
	2005	66.0	32.3	0.444	0.860	0.352	0.422
	2006	65.8	32.3	0.449	0.930	0.385	0.445
Ecuador	2004	66.0	31.7	0.431	0.755	0.333	0.388
	2005	67.6	34.8	0.469	0.885	0.466	0.439
	2006	71.0	35.3	0.479	0.795	0.872	0.433
El Salvador	1995	64.4	29.9	0.442	0.961	0.352	0.457
	1997	66.3	30.9	0.423	0.670	0.343	0.361
	1999	64.8	34.0	0.462	1.302	0.382	0.540
	2001	65.2	35.5	0.477	1.329	0.414	0.549
	2004	64.9	32.4	0.456	1.231	0.385	0.525
Guatemala	1989	72.6	37.6	0.513	1.076	0.593	0.500
	1998	75.0	40.6	0.510	0.882	0.697	0.461
	2002	72.5	36.1	0.470	0.794	0.420	0.416
Honduras	1990	73.9	45.6	0.558	1.326	0.692	0.559
	1997	70.9	38.7	0.504	1.083	0.520	0.498
	1999	69.8	39.8	0.512	1.244	0.516	0.537
	2002	71.8	42.6	0.519	1.072	0.567	0.495
	2003	70.9	40.2	0.508	1.060	0.501	0.486

Table 16 (concluded)

INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION, RURAL AREAS, 1990-2006 [a]

Country	Year	Percentage of persons with per capita income of less than:		Concentration indices			
		average	50% of average	Gini [b]	Variance of logarithm of income	Theil	Atkinson (ε=1.5)
Mexico	1989	68.8	33.5	0.453	0.769	0.401	0.401
	1994	69.5	34.9	0.451	0.720	0.385	0.384
	1998	70.2	41.5	0.486	0.846	0.467	0.430
	2000	75.3	46.1	0.553	1.125	0.682	0.517
	2002	72.7	39.7	0.498	0.879	0.528	0.444
	2004	69.9	36.7	0.480	0.886	0.518	0.443
	2005	70.9	37.6	0.486	0.932	0.493	0.455
	2006	70.1	34.5	0.466	0.784	0.470	0.413
Nicaragua	1993	69.2	41.6	0.536	1.348	0.553	0.573
	1998	68.2	42.4	0.558	1.765	0.598	0.644
	2001	67.6	37.9	0.506	1.367	0.503	0.562
Panama	1991	70.2	40.4	0.514	0.999	0.579	0.477
	1994	68.3	39.0	0.491	0.983	0.459	0.463
	1997	71.6	40.2	0.511	1.031	0.563	0.486
	1999	69.8	36.5	0.481	0.882	0.461	0.439
	2002	70.3	41.1	0.515	1.217	0.488	0.623
	2004	69.6	43.7	0.542	1.390	0.580	0.561
	2005	68.5	42.5	0.536	1.432	0.540	0.548
	2006	68.9	43.0	0.546	1.568	0.568	0.593
Paraguay	1999	74.1	47.1	0.570	1.389	0.839	0.578
	2001	70.6	42.4	0.548	1.483	0.752	0.595
	2004	75.1	45.0	0.570	1.282	0.878	0.562
	2005	70.3	40.5	0.523	1.258	0.597	0.538
Peru	1997	66.5	33.9	0.451	0.868	0.383	0.424
	1999	65.8	31.1	0.427	0.803	0.320	0.400
	2001	66.9	31.8	0.439	0.745	0.380	0.390
	2003	…	…	0.358	0.473	0.222	0.276
	2004	67.5	…	0.398	0.562	0.309	0.323
	2005	67.6	…	…	…	…	…
	2006	66.9	…	…	…	…	…
Dominican Republic	2000	70.2	37.0	0.501	0.969	0.456	0.460
	2002	67.0	34.4	0.473	0.919	0.403	0.443
	2004	67.9	40.1	0.503	1.133	0.460	0.503
	2005	71.1	42.9	0.542	1.369	0.568	0.564
	2006	68.3	42.4	0.520	1.261	0.513	0.532
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	67.0	31.3	0.431	0.724	0.348	0.379

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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 in rural areas.

[b] Includes individuals with zero income.

[c] As a result of the changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for rural areas are not strictly comparable with those of earlier years.

LABOUR MARKET

Table 17

MALE AND FEMALE ECONOMIC ACTIVITY RATES BY AGE GROUP, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

Country	Year	Age									
		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	76	58	96	97	62	47	42	66	63	29
	2000	76	57	96	97	62	46	43	63	62	29
	2002	75	52	96	98	63	48	40	66	70	28
	2004	78	61	96	97	65	52	45	71	70	34
	2005	78	61	96	97	65	51	41	69	71	35
	2006	77	58	96	97	65	52	46	69	70	35
(Urban)	1999	74	53	94	97	59	44	36	62	61	27
	2000	74	52	94	96	60	45	36	62	62	28
	2002	72	48	93	96	60	46	35	64	67	27
	2004	75	55	94	96	63	50	39	69	70	33
	2005	75	55	94	96	64	50	37	68	70	34
	2006	75	54	94	96	64	50	38	67	69	34
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
	2000	77	51	92	98	74	54	36	68	74	42
	2002	77	51	93	98	75	57	39	71	75	49
	2004	79	58	93	97	76	58	41	68	76	55
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
	2001	79	70	94	93	59	53	52	67	65	29
	2003	79	70	94	93	59	55	53	70	68	30
	2004	79	71	95	93	59	56	55	72	69	30
	2005	80	72	95	93	59	57	57	73	70	32
	2006	79	71	94	93	60	57	56	73	71	33
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
	2000	73	39	92	96	64	42	28	57	56	26
	2003	73	40	92	96	64	45	31	60	59	29
	2006	73	43	92	96	65	45	31	64	61	31
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
	2002	79	61	96	96	65	57	51	76	72	32
	2004	78	59	96	96	66	56	48	74	71	33
	2005	78	57	95	96	64	55	46	75	71	32
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
	2000	77	59	96	96	60	43	38	59	54	49
	2002	77	57	97	97	61	46	37	63	60	25
	2004	78	59	96	97	62	45	35	61	61	23
	2005	78	56	97	98	67	48	39	65	63	27
	2006	78	57	96	96	66	48	40	66	64	27

Table 17 (continued)

MALE AND FEMALE ECONOMIC ACTIVITY RATES BY AGE GROUP, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

Country	Year	Age									
		Males					Females				
		Total	15 - 24	25 - 34	35 - 49	50 and over	Total	15 - 24	25 - 34	35 - 49	50 and over
Cuba [b]	2000	71	48	91	94	50	44	28	63	67	20
	2001	71	45	90	94	51	44	26	63	65	20
	2002	69	40	90	93	50	47	23	61	66	24
	2003	68	38	89	93	50	46	25	61	66	25
	2004	68	38	88	93	50	43	25	60	66	21
	2005	68	38	88	93	49	42	27	60	65	21
	2006	67	38	88	92	49	43	29	61	66	20
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
	2000	80	59	95	97	74	51	41	63	63	36
	2002	81	60	96	98	74	53	40	65	67	41
	2004	81	59	96	99	76	54	44	68	67	40
	2005	81	60	97	98	76	54	40	68	68	42
	2006	82	62	96	98	77	55	40	70	70	42
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
	2000	75	56	93	96	66	51	35	68	70	37
	2001	75	57	93	95	64	51	35	68	70	36
	2002	73	52	92	94	61	51	35	67	70	35
	2004	74	55	92	95	61	51	36	67	69	35
Guatemala	1989	84	69	97	97	78	43	42	50	49	29
	1998	82	66	95	97	77	54	47	60	68	44
	2002	85	75	95	97	78	58	54	65	72	41
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
	2002	79	63	94	96	74	47	38	58	62	36
	2003	78	63	93	94	73	50	40	63	66	37
	2006	76	56	94	96	72	48	37	62	64	35
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
	2000	82	62	97	97	71	42	36	52	53	26
	2002	79	59	95	96	70	45	36	55	57	29
	2004	80	61	97	97	69	47	37	58	60	30
	2005	80	60	96	97	69	47	36	59	60	33
	2006	81	61	96	97	71	51	40	62	64	36
Nicaragua	1993	71	50	86	89	66	44	26	57	62	32
	1998	81	66	95	95	74	51	36	66	67	38
	2001	83	72	96	95	73	52	40	62	68	39
Panama	1991	72	52	95	96	48	48	39	66	65	20
	1994	77	59	97	97	54	49	40	66	66	21
	1997	78	60	96	97	59	50	40	66	69	26
	1999	77	61	97	96	58	50	42	67	68	26
	2002	79	58	98	98	65	54	39	71	69	34
	2004	78	60	96	97	62	51	39	68	70	29
	2005	78	58	97	97	61	51	39	67	70	30
	2006	77	55	96	97	60	50	37	67	68	31

Table 17 (concluded)

MALE AND FEMALE ECONOMIC ACTIVITY RATES BY AGE GROUP, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

Country	Year	Age									
		Males					Females				
		Total	15 - 24	25 - 34	35 - 49	50 and over	Total	15 - 24	25 - 34	35 - 49	50 and over
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
	2001	81	67	95	96	69	57	52	76	68	38
	2004	83	69	96	97	74	59	51	74	72	43
	2005	81	62	96	97	69	60	51	73	72	48
(Urban)	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
	2001	81	68	95	96	70	57	51	72	67	40
	2004	83	66	96	98	72	59	50	75	73	42
	2005	81	65	96	97	70	59	50	72	71	46
Peru	1997	83	66	96	98	77	62	54	74	76	45
	1999	73	53	87	91	68	55	49	66	66	39
	2001	74	56	88	92	66	54	46	67	69	38
	2003	74	56	88	93	66	54	45	62	72	34
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
	2000	78	61	93	95	68	51	41	66	70	26
	2002	78	62	95	97	65	53	45	73	71	25
	2003	80	62	96	96	68	51	43	69	66	27
	2004	79	64	95	97	64	56	49	73	72	29
	2005	78	62	95	96	61	53	46	71	72	24
	2006	78	61	95	96	66	54	46	73	72	29
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
	2000	74	68	96	98	50	50	52	75	75	26
	2002	72	63	96	96	51	50	47	76	76	28
	2004	71	61	96	97	51	49	44	75	75	29
	2005	71	60	95	96	50	50	46	76	77	29
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [c]	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
	2000	82	64	96	97	72	47	34	60	63	32
	2002	84	67	97	97	74	55	42	69	71	37
	2004	82	63	96	97	76	54	39	69	71	37
	2005	81	60	96	97	74	52	35	66	69	37
	2006	81	59	96	97	73	51	33	65	69	37

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992 the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[b] National Statistical Office (ONE), Cuba, on the basis of tabulations of data from the National Occupation Survey, 2006.

[c] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 18

MALE AND FEMALE ECONOMIC ACTIVITY RATES BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

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)	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	76	60	73	73	79	86	47	28	32	35	50	76
	2000	76	56	63	74	79	87	46	27	32	36	51	72
	2002	75	61	70	73	74	86	48	32	32	36	50	74
	2004	78	65	72	75	81	85	52	30	37	41	53	77
	2005	78	61	74	74	80	88	51	30	38	38	51	77
	2006	77	64	67	72	81	87	52	30	40	39	55	76
(Urban)	1999	74	58	71	72	76	80	44	25	30	34	47	70
	2000	70	57	71	70	72	74	42	24	31	34	44	63
	2002	72	60	69	71	73	79	46	27	33	36	48	68
	2004	75	62	69	74	77	81	50	29	35	41	51	71
	2005	75	59	71	72	77	82	50	28	37	38	50	71
	2006	75	62	68	71	79	82	50	27	37	37	52	71
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
	2000	77	79	92	75	73	74	54	53	63	52	47	58
	2002	77	81	89	72	73	77	57	62	61	52	51	63
	2004	79	82	89	73	78	76	58	62	62	50	53	66
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
	2001	79	71	79	78	86	88	53	36	47	51	67	80
	2003	79	70	78	77	86	88	55	36	48	52	68	80
	2004	79	69	78	77	87	88	56	36	48	53	69	80
	2005	80	68	78	78	87	88	57	36	49	54	71	81
	2006	79	67	77	77	87	88	57	35	49	53	70	80
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
	2000	73	57	70	65	76	80	42	20	28	32	44	64
	2003	73	55	66	64	78	80	45	21	29	33	47	66
	2006	73	52	65	62	78	81	45	21	28	33	49	67
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
	2002	79	73	82	72	84	80	57	40	51	50	65	74
	2004	78	73	81	69	84	79	56	38	49	48	62	73
	2005	78	70	80	69	83	79	56	36	48	47	62	73
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
	2000	77	58	83	73	76	85	43	20	37	36	49	68
	2002	77	58	82	70	75	86	46	23	40	40	49	70
	2004	78	58	82	70	81	85	45	20	35	39	50	69
	2005	78	60	84	71	78	86	48	24	42	41	49	70
	2006	78	58	83	71	78	86	48	23	42	41	49	70
Cuba [c]	2006	67	16	34	68	73	81	43	3	9	30	55	75

Table 18 (continued)

MALE AND FEMALE ECONOMIC ACTIVITY RATES BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

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
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
	2000	80	74	87	75	73	84	51	43	46	43	49	70
	2002	81	76	87	75	76	85	53	45	52	46	51	67
	2004	81	73	89	74	77	85	54	41	51	47	51	73
	2005	81	74	87	77	77	86	54	41	50	48	50	74
	2006	82	74	88	76	80	85	55	41	48	49	52	75
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
	2000	75	72	78	71	77	78	51	46	52	44	55	65
	2001	75	72	80	70	77	78	51	43	51	46	56	65
	2002	73	68	76	68	75	77	51	43	50	44	56	66
	2004	74	69	78	71	77	76	51	41	50	44	59	68
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
	2002	85	86	93	78	80	87	58	54	57	56	62	75
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
	2002	79	81	87	63	75	80	47	41	48	38	53	65
	2003	78	78	86	65	76	79	50	42	51	42	56	66
	2006	76	77	86	62	70	78	48	38	50	39	53	69
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
	2000	82	72	85	87	80	83	42	32	35	36	45	55
	2002	79	73	83	84	79	79	45	29	38	40	47	63
	2004	80	72	84	83	76	83	47	34	40	45	49	65
	2005	80	69	85	82	76	83	47	34	42	45	48	65
	2006	81	71	85	83	77	82	51	36	44	49	53	68
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
	2001	83	84	89	77	78	86	52	43	50	52	58	72
Panama	1991	72	56	70	69	72	81	48	24	37	39	50	71
	1994	77	61	76	73	77	88	49	20	37	41	53	73
	1997	78	64	76	72	80	85	50	23	39	41	52	73
	1999	77	57	74	75	77	85	50	19	39	41	50	73
	2002	79	75	81	75	77	86	54	45	43	41	54	73
	2004	78	60	77	76	78	86	51	21	37	42	50	74
	2005	78	65	76	71	80	85	51	24	38	42	51	73
	2006	77	60	76	74	78	83	50	23	35	41	49	72
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
	2001	81	69	83	80	79	88	57	39	56	51	58	79
	2004	83	74	86	81	80	88	59	44	57	57	58	75
	2005	81	69	86	75	82	87	60	45	61	48	61	78

Table 18 (concluded)

MALE AND FEMALE ECONOMIC ACTIVITY RATES BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

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
(Urban)	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
	2001	81	72	86	80	79	87	57	41	58	50	57	79
	2004	83	76	88	80	81	89	59	44	59	56	58	77
	2005	81	71	86	75	81	89	59	45	57	49	60	80
Peru	1997	83	77	82	71	85	92	62	58	61	51	62	77
	1999	73	70	71	65	78	83	55	54	58	51	53	70
	2001	74	72	78	69	79	82	54	50	57	50	55	65
	2003	74	68	77	71	80	81	54	55	53	51	56	67
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
	2000	78	70	81	77	77	90	51	30	44	46	55	78
	2002	78	74	80	77	77	87	53	32	45	48	57	79
	2003	80	74	80	77	80	89	51	33	41	45	55	79
	2004	79	70	80	77	82	87	46	37	47	53	58	79
	2005	78	69	78	78	78	86	53	32	45	49	57	75
	2006	78	70	79	77	80	88	54	33	45	47	58	77
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
	2000	74	39	71	82	77	80	50	18	37	58	59	73
	2002	72	38	67	77	78	83	50	15	36	51	61	74
	2004	71	34	66	75	78	83	49	14	36	51	58	72
	2005	71	33	64	77	76	83	50	13	35	54	59	74
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [d]	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
	2000	82	79	87	81	80	81	47	28	43	44	53	69
	2002	84	80	88	81	83	84	55	35	50	52	59	75
	2004	82	80	88	80	80	82	54	34	50	50	58	74
	2005	81	78	87	79	79	80	52	33	47	47	54	70
	2006	81	77	87	79	79	79	51	31	45	45	51	69

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted In the relevant countries.

[a] For 1990 and 1994, the following categories of schooling were considered: complete primary but incomplete secondary education; complete secondary education; and higher education.

[b] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992 the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[c] National Statistical Office (ONE), Cuba, on the basis of tabulations by the National Occupation Survey, 2006.

[d] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 19

BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary 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	5.4	69.0	…	69.0	6.9	44.8	11.6	5.7	25.5	22.9
	1994	4.8	70.2	…	70.2	17.1	34.9	13.4	4.8	25.0	19.7
	1997	5.3	73.2	…	73.2	17.8	35.8	14.5	5.1	21.5	16.7
	1999	4.6	73.2	11.6	61.6	10.7	32.1	13.6	5.2	21.8	17.3
	2000	4.7	73.4	11.8	61.6	10.5	31.3	14.6	5.2	22.0	17.0
	2002	4.2	73.5	17.6	55.9	12.4	22.9	15.0	5.6	22.3	17.5
	2004	3.8	74.7	15.6	59.1	9.5	29.5	14.0	6.1	21.5	16.4
	2005	3.8	75.5	13.2	62.3	11.6	30.5	13.1	7.1	20.8	15.8
	2006	3.8	76.7	12.4	64.3	10.9	32.5	13.4	7.5	19.5	15.4
(Urban)	1999	4.4	72.7	15.6	57.1	9.1	28.5	13.7	5.8	23.0	18.6
	2000	4.6	72.0	15.9	56.1	8.9	27.3	14.1	5.8	23.4	19.0
	2002	4.0	73.1	21.7	51.4	10.3	21.1	14.0	6.0	23.0	18.4
	2004	4.1	74.2	19.3	54.9	8.6	25.8	14.0	6.5	21.8	17.2
	2005	4.1	74.7	16.8	57.9	10.0	27.5	13.2	7.2	21.1	16.7
	2006	4.1	75.7	16.2	59.5	9.4	29.3	13.4	7.4	20.1	16.2
Bolivia	1989	2.2	53.9	17.9	36.0	4.3	16.3	9.6	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	47.6	10.3	37.3	7.3	15.1	11.8	3.1	48.2	45.9
	2000	3.0	48.2	10.7	37.5	5.9	17.2	10.2	4.2	48.8	46.4
	2002	4.3	47.6	10.4	37.2	4.6	15.5	13.2	3.9	48.1	45.7
	2004	4.9	49.2	8.7	40.5	4.7	14.5	16.7	4.6	45.8	44.1
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
	2001	4.6	68.8	12.7	56.1	11.6	26.8	8.9	8.8	26.6	24.4
	2003	4.7	68.6	12.6	56.0	6.7	31.0	9.8	8.5	26.7	23.6
	2004	4.6	69.9	12.5	57.4	6.7	32.6	9.6	8.5	25.5	22.5
	2005	4.7	69.6	12.4	57.2	6.9	32.4	9.4	8.5	25.7	22.6
	2006	5.0	70.3	12.5	57.8	7.1	33.0	9.3	8.4	24.8	21.6
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
	2000	4.4	75.7	13.1	62.6	11.2	37.5	7.7	6.2	19.9	14.8
	2003	4.1	75.5	11.4	64.1	12.2	38.3	7.1	6.5	20.4	14.9
	2006	3.2	76.5	10.5	66.0	11.3	42.4	6.5	5.8	20.4	15.9

Table 19 (continued)

BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary 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		
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
	2002	5.1	53.6	7.6	46.0	4.3	35.8	…	5.9	41.4	38.5
	2004	5.5	52.4	7.6	44.8	4.4	35.2	…	5.2	42.2	39.4
	2005	5.3	54.2	7.5	46.7	4.4	37.2	…	5.1	40.4	37.5
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
	2000	5.7	74.6	18.7	55.9	8.4	31.2	11.8	4.5	19.8	17.5
	2002	8.1	71.3	17.3	54.0	11.9	27.2	10.9	4.0	20.6	17.8
	2004	8.3	70.5	17.0	53.5	11.6	28.6	9.9	3.4	21.2	18.1
	2005	7.3	73.6	17.2	56.4	11.9	28.2	11.4	4.9	19.1	16.1
	2006	7.5	72.6	17.2	55.4	12.2	27.9	10.3	5.0	19.9	17.0
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
	2000	4.6	59.4	11.0	48.4	6.0	23.9	13.8	5.4	35.9	33.8
	2002	6.9	58.3	11.5	46.8	6.4	22.6	13.3	4.5	34.8	32.9
	2004	6.5	57.7	10.6	47.1	7.4	21.5	14.0	4.2	35.8	34.2
	2005	6.4	60.1	10.0	50.1	7.6	22.2	15.1	5.2	33.6	31.6
	2006	6.5	59.5	9.7	49.8	7.0	23.0	15.7	4.1	34.0	32.2
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
	2001	5.0	62.1	11.3	50.8	7.5	25.7	13.4	4.2	32.8	31.6
	2002	5.0	60.8	11.2	49.6	8.9	24.5	12.5	3.7	34.1	33.0
	2004	4.9	61.2	10.6	50.6	7.7	25.8	13.2	3.9	33.8	32.5
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	59.0	8.2	50.8	7.3	19.5	20.1	3.9	36.3	34.5
	2002	6.8	57.1	6.9	50.2	8.4	24.7	13.1	4.0	36.1	34.5
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
	2002	4.3	58.7	9.7	49.0	7.2	24.9	12.9	4.0	36.8	34.9
	2003	5.1	56.9	9.6	47.3	5.9	23.9	13.4	4.1	38.0	36.8
	2006	3.9	59.2	10.6	48.6	10.9	24.1	9.9	3.7	37.0	25.2

Table 19 (continued)

BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary 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		
Mexico [i]	1989	3.3	76.4	…	76.4	9.0	64.7	…	2.7	20.3	18.9
	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
	2000	4.5	74.2	13.6	60.6	8.1	34.6	14.9	3.0	21.3	19.6
	2002	4.3	73.1	13.2	59.9	6.3	32.0	17.0	4.6	22.7	20.9
	2004	3.2	75.7	…	75.7	13.6	39.7	17.5	4.9	21.1	19.0
	2005	3.6	75.4	…	75.4	13.7	41.7	15.5	4.5	21.0	18.8
	2006	3.9	73.5	…	73.5	13.9	38.8	16.9	3.9	22.6	20.2
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
	2001	4.7	58.5	11.9	46.6	4.1	22.3	15.8	4.4	36.9	35.3
Panama	1991	3.0	78.6	30.1	48.5	9.0	27.0	5.1	7.4	18.4	17.2
	1994	2.8	79.6	27.6	52.0	8.3	30.8	5.4	7.5	17.6	16.8
	1997	3.3	77.1	24.5	52.6	11.4	29.2	5.5	6.5	19.7	18.4
	1999	3.2	76.7	21.1	55.6	12.1	31.2	6.2	6.1	20.2	18.9
	2002	3.4	74.3	20.4	53.9	6.7	32.4	8.1	6.7	22.1	20.6
	2004	3.4	73.7	19.6	54.1	6.1	32.9	8.2	6.9	22.9	20.9
	2005	3.6	73.2	18.3	54.9	6.8	32.6	8.7	6.8	23.2	21.5
	2006	3.7	73.6	17.8	55.8	8.6	32.3	8.0	6.9	22.7	21.1
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
	2001	7.3	65.8	11.5	54.3	7.8	23.9	11.3	11.3	35.4	24.4
	2004	5.3	61.3	11.4	49.9	6.1	18.9	13.7	11.2	33.4	31.2
	2005	6.9	63.9	13.4	50.5	5.9	20.6	13.3	10.7	29.3	25.9
(Urban)	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
	2001	7.6	59.9	11.1	48.8	5.5	19.6	13.3	10.4	32.5	30.1
	2004	5.3	57.9	11.0	46.9	4.8	16.6	15.0	10.5	36.7	34.6
	2005	6.0	61.9	12.7	49.2	4.9	18.0	15.2	11.1	32.0	29.4
Peru	1997	5.8	53.7	11.3	42.4	7.4	18.7	11.9	4.4	40.5	38.2
	1999	5.6	52.9	11.0	41.9	7.0	16.1	13.0	5.8	41.5	38.1
	2001	4.8	53.0	12.0	41.0	6.5	15.9	13.4	5.2	42.1	39.6
	2003	4.6	51.1	10.7	40.4	6.6	15.8	12.4	5.6	44.4	42.0

Table 19 (concluded)

BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary 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		
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
	2000	2.9	64.2	13.8	50.4	7.5	31.0	7.8	4.1	32.9	30.7
	2002	3.9	61.3	13.8	47.5	8.0	28.8	6.4	4.3	34.8	32.7
	2003	3.9	60.8	13.7	47.1	8.3	28.1	6.6	4.1	35.2	32.7
	2004	5.5	61.5	11.9	49.6	8.0	29.2	7.1	5.3	32.9	30.6
	2005	4.9	58.9	13.1	45.8	7.7	26.9	6.4	4.8	36.3	34.1
	2006	4.5	58.8	13.2	45.6	7.5	26.0	7.2	4.9	36.7	34.2
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
	2000	3.7	73.3	17.2	56.1	6.3	29.6	11.1	9.1	23.2	19.4
	2002	3.7	70.5	17.3	53.2	5.9	26.4	11.0	9.9	25.8	21.8
	2004	3.5	70.6	17.0	53.6	6.2	26.6	11.4	9.4	25.9	21.8
	2005	3.9	71.7	16.3	55.4	6.2	28.3	13.7	7.2	24.4	20.3
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [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
	2000	5.0	56.3	14.6	41.7	4.6	23.8	11.2	2.1	38.6	37.1
	2002	5.4	54.6	13.8	40.8	3.9	23.2	11.1	2.6	39.9	38.2
	2004	4.7	55.4	15.4	40.0	4.7	22.5	10.3	2.5	39.8	38.0
	2005	4.8	57.4	15.8	41.6	6.1	23.4	10.2	1.9	37.7	35.3
	2006	4.5	58.3	16.6	41.7	5.3	24.2	10.1	2.1	37.3	35.3

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted In the relevant countries.

[a] For Argentina (except 1999 and 2000), Brazil (except 1993, 1996 and 1999), Chile (except 1996 and 2000), Mexico (1998 and 2004) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public-sector wage or salary earners.

[b] For Colombia, Dominican Republic (1992, 1995 and 1998) 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 persons were included in the figures for establishments employing more than 5 persons. For Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panamá (up to 2002) and Uruguay (1990), establishments employing up to 4 persons 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, 1996 and 1999. Therefore, the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing more than five persons includes wage earners who have an employment contract ("carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to 5 persons includes workers who do not have such contracts.

[e] Includes private-sector employees engaged in non-professional, non-technical occupations in business establishments of undeclared size.

[f] Information from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).

[g] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[h] The figures for 1990 are not strictly comparable with those for 1997 owing to changes made in the classification of professional and technical workers.

[i] Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

[j] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 19.1

BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary 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	1990	6.9	68.3	…	68.3	6.3	47.8	12.4	1.8	24.7	23.1
(Greater	1994	6.2	69.0	…	69.0	14.6	39.5	14.5	0.4	24.7	20.8
Buenos	1997	6.4	72.5	…	72.5	14.3	40.3	17.5	0.4	21.1	16.2
Aires)	1999	6.0	71.3	8.7	62.6	9.4	37.1	15.9	0.2	22.5	18.1
	2000	5.8	71.1	8.7	62.4	10.4	35.5	16.4	0.1	23.1	18.6
	2002	5.4	67.7	11.6	56.1	11.9	26.6	17.5	0.1	26.9	21.9
	2004	5.0	71.9	11.5	60.4	8.7	34.9	16.7	0.1	23.2	18.4
	2005	4.9	72.9	9.8	63.1	10.9	35.0	16.3	0.9	22.3	17.8
	2006	4.9	73.6	9.0	64.6	10.3	38.8	15.4	0.1	21.4	17.9
(Urban)	1999	5.8	70.1	12.3	57.8	8.2	33.6	15.8	0.2	24.1	19.7
	2000	5.8	69.1	12.5	56.6	8.6	31.7	16.1	0.2	25.1	20.6
	2002	5.2	67.0	15.5	51.5	9.8	25.0	16.6	0.1	28.0	23.2
	2004	5.4	70.8	14.3	56.5	8.1	31.0	17.2	0.2	23.7	19.3
	2005	5.4	71.5	12.8	58.7	9.5	32.1	16.4	0.7	23.2	19.0
	2006	5.3	72.5	12.3	60.2	8.9	35.3	15.9	0.1	22.2	18.6
Bolivia	1989	3.2	60.4	20.0	40.4	4.8	22.1	12.9	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
	2000	4.1	54.2	11.2	43.0	6.7	21.8	14.3	0.2	41.7	38.7
	2002	6.1	54.8	10.2	44.6	5.5	21.8	17.1	0.2	39.1	36.3
	2004	7.0	57.3	8.1	49.2	5.6	20.0	23.4	0.2	35.6	33.5
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
	2001	5.9	65.8	9.9	55.9	9.6	34.4	11.1	0.8	28.3	26.4
	2003	6.0	65.8	9.9	55.9	6.4	37.5	11.2	0.8	28.3	25.0
	2004	5.8	67.0	9.9	57.1	6.6	38.8	10.9	0.8	27.2	24.0
	2005	5.9	67.1	9.6	57.5	6.9	39.1	10.7	0.8	27.0	23.8
	2006	5.9	67.6	9.9	57.7	7.0	39.3	10.6	0.8	26.1	22.7
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
	2000	5.5	74.1	11.8	62.3	11.0	43.3	7.9	0.1	20.5	15.8
	2003	4.8	72.6	8.3	64.3	11.8	44.7	7.6	0.2	22.6	17.8
	2006	3.7	75.9	9.2	66.7	10.5	49.4	6.7	0.1	20.3	16.2

Table 19.1 (continued)

BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary 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		
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
	2002	6.9	50.6	6.5	44.1	3.8	39.9	…	0.4	42.4	39.3
	2004	7.2	49.6	6.6	43.0	4.0	38.6	…	0.4	43.2	40.2
	2005	7.0	51.6	6.7	44.9	4.0	40.6	…	0.3	41.3	38.1
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
	2000	7.1	71.8	15.7	56.1	8.7	34.7	12.4	0.3	21.0	18.5
	2002	10.3	70.4	13.6	56.8	13.6	31.5	11.4	0.3	19.4	16.1
	2004	10.7	69.5	13.2	56.3	12.4	33.1	10.5	0.3	19.8	16.6
	2005	9.2	72.4	13.8	58.6	12.7	32.9	12.6	0.4	18.3	15.0
	2006	9.4	70.7	13.9	56.8	12.6	32.5	11.2	0.5	19.7	16.3
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
	2000	5.9	60.5	9.8	50.7	5.4	27.8	16.8	0.7	33.5	31.1
	2002	8.4	60.5	10.6	49.9	5.6	27.6	16.0	0.7	31.2	28.9
	2004	8.3	61.1	9.9	51.2	6.3	26.7	17.7	0.5	30.7	28.9
	2005	7.7	62.2	9.3	52.9	6.5	26.9	18.6	0.9	30.1	27.8
	2006	7.8	62.9	8.9	54.0	5.9	28.0	19.7	0.4	29.2	27.3
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
	2000	8.0	68.4	12.9	55.5	10.0	28.3	16.8	0.4	23.6	22.0
	2001	6.4	69.5	11.2	58.3	8.7	30.7	18.4	0.5	24.0	22.1
	2002	7.0	67.5	11.3	56.2	10.2	28.6	16.9	0.5	25.5	23.9
	2004	6.5	68.6	10.9	57.7	8.6	31.0	17.6	0.5	24.9	23.1
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	64.4	8.4	56.0	7.5	23.8	24.4	0.3	29.5	27.2
	2002	9.4	61.1	7.0	54.1	8.1	29.6	16.3	0.1	29.5	27.6
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
	2002	5.4	60.1	7.7	52.4	7.2	27.6	17.2	0.4	34.6	32.6
	2003	6.7	59.0	7.6	51.4	6.0	26.9	18.0	0.5	34.4	33.1
	2006	4.9	60.7	8.2	52.5	11.2	27.4	13.3	0.6	34.4	25.2

Table 19.1 (continued)

BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary 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		
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
	2000	6.0	76.9	11.3	65.6	8.9	37.4	18.4	0.9	17.3	15.3
	2002	5.8	74.2	11.9	62.3	6.2	35.3	19.4	1.4	20.0	18.2
	2004	4.3	77.6	…	77.6	11.5	44.3	20.8	1.0	18.1	15.8
	2005	4.5	77.1	…	77.1	12.1	46.4	17.9	0.7	18.5	15.9
	2006	5.1	76.0	…	76.0	12.7	43.0	19.7	0.6	18.9	16.3
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
	2001	6.3	63.6	9.8	53.8	4.0	28.2	21.5	0.1	30.1	28.6
Panama	1991	4.0	72.5	26.9	45.6	10.2	28.9	5.7	0.8	23.5	22.0
	1994	3.7	74.1	24.7	49.4	8.9	33.4	6.1	1.0	22.2	21.2
	1997	4.6	72.3	21.9	50.4	12.2	31.4	5.8	1.0	23.2	21.4
	1999	4.2	73.2	19.0	54.2	13.1	33.4	6.8	0.9	22.5	20.9
	2002	4.6	70.0	17.7	52.3	6.2	35.5	9.6	1.0	25.4	23.6
	2004	4.7	69.2	16.7	52.5	5.1	37.1	9.2	1.1	26.1	23.7
	2005	4.9	69.3	15.1	54.2	6.0	37.1	9.9	1.2	25.7	23.4
	2006	4.9	70.2	14.8	55.4	6.1	38.6	9.9	0.8	24.8	23.0
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
	2001	9.5	66.4	10.5	55.9	7.7	32.2	13.7	2.3	24.0	20.3
	2004	7.3	61.9	10.9	51.0	5.8	25.0	17.7	2.5	30.6	28.3
	2005	9.7	64.9	13.3	51.6	5.4	26.0	18.7	1.5	25.4	21.4
(Urban)	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
	2001	10.3	60.7	9.9	50.8	5.4	25.8	18.0	1.6	29.1	26.1
	2004	7.2	59.0	10.0	49.0	4.5	22.6	20.0	1.9	33.7	31.5
	2005	8.3	62.5	11.6	50.9	4.8	23.0	21.6	1.5	29.3	26.3
Peru	1997	8.5	58.8	11.6	47.2	7.3	23.8	15.9	0.2	32.6	29.5
	1999	8.0	55.8	11.4	44.4	7.6	20.3	16.1	0.4	36.1	32.0
	2001	6.7	58.0	12.6	45.4	7.0	20.4	17.5	0.5	35.4	32.2
	2003	6.3	55.1	11.6	43.5	6.2	20.6	15.9	0.8	38.7	35.8

Table 19.1 (concluded)

BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary 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		
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
	2000	3.5	58.6	11.4	47.2	6.3	32.6	7.7	0.6	38.0	35.6
	2002	4.8	55.2	12.5	42.7	6.7	29.1	6.1	0.8	39.9	37.8
	2003	5.1	53.8	11.1	42.7	6.7	29.5	6.1	0.4	41.1	38.3
	2004	6.6	54.9	9.9	45.0	6.2	30.6	7.1	1.1	38.5	36.0
	2005	5.9	53.0	10.7	42.3	6.4	28.2	6.8	0.9	41.1	38.9
	2006	5.4	52.1	10.7	41.4	6.2	27.6	6.9	0.7	42.6	40.0
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
	2000	4.9	69.7	16.5	53.2	5.3	35.2	11.4	1.3	25.2	21.9
	2002	4.9	65.6	16.8	48.8	4.9	30.3	12.2	1.4	29.5	25.7
	2004	4.6	66.7	16.3	50.4	5.5	31.2	12.3	1.4	28.6	24.6
	2005	5.3	67.4	15.0	52.4	5.6	32.4	13.3	1.1	27.3	23.0
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [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
	2000	6.8	55.6	10.4	45.2	3.7	27.7	13.7	0.1	37.6	36.3
	2002	7.3	54.4	9.9	44.5	3.2	27.4	13.8	0.1	38.3	36.8
	2004	6.3	54.2	10.9	43.3	4.0	26.4	12.8	0.1	39.5	37.8
	2005	6.4	56.9	11.1	45.8	5.4	27.5	12.8	0.1	36.8	34.5
	2006	6.0	57.0	11.5	45.5	4.5	28.5	12.4	0.1	36.9	35.0

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] For Argentina (except 1999 and 2000), Brazil (except 1993, 1996 and 1999), Chile (except 1996 and 2000), Mexico (1998 and 2004) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public-sector wage or salary earners

[b] For Colombia, Dominican Republic (1992, 1995 and 1998) 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 persons were included in the figures for establishments employing more than 5 persons. In the case of the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama (up to 2002) and Uruguay (1990), establishments employing up to 4 persons 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, 1996 and 1999. Therefore, the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing more than five persons includes wage earners who have an employment contract ("carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to 5 persons includes workers who do not have such contracts.

[e] Includes private-sector employees engaged in non-professional, non-technical occupations in business establishments of undeclared size.

[f] Information from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).

[g] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[h] The figures for 1990 are not strictly comparable with those for 1997 owing to changes made in the classification of professional and technical workers.

[i] Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

[j] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 19.2

BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary 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	72.2	…	72.2	21.4	27.0	11.5	12.3	25.4	18.7
	1997	3.5	74.2	…	74.2	23.6	28.3	9.6	12.7	22.2	17.5
	1999	2.6	76.3	15.9	60.4	12.6	24.8	10.3	12.7	20.7	15.3
	2000	3.0	76.8	16.4	60.4	10.7	24.8	12.0	12.9	20.1	15.7
	2002	2.5	81.3	25.9	55.4	13.0	17.6	11.6	13.2	16.2	11.5
	2004	2.2	78.6	21.2	57.4	10.6	22.0	10.3	14.5	19.1	13.6
	2005	2.3	79.1	17.8	61.3	12.5	24.4	8.7	15.7	18.7	13.0
	2006	2.3	80.8	17.0	63.8	11.7	24.1	10.7	17.3	16.8	12.0
(Urban)	1999	2.5	76.2	20.4	55.8	10.4	20.7	10.5	14.2	21.3	16.9
	2000	2.8	76.5	21.1	55.4	9.4	20.7	11.1	14.2	20.7	16.5
	2002	2.3	81.6	30.3	51.3	11.0	15.9	10.4	14.0	16.1	11.8
	2004	2.4	78.6	26.0	52.6	9.3	18.6	9.5	15.2	19.0	14.2
	2005	2.4	79.0	22.0	57.0	10.7	21.3	8.9	16.1	18.4	13.6
	2006	2.5	80.3	21.6	58.7	10.1	21.2	10.2	17.2	17.3	13.0
Bolivia	1989	0.8	45.3	15.0	30.3	3.6	8.6	5.2	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
	2000	1.6	40.7	10.0	30.7	4.9	11.5	4.9	9.4	57.8	56.3
	2002	2.2	39.0	10.7	28.3	3.6	7.8	8.6	8.3	58.7	56.9
	2004	2.3	39.5	9.4	30.1	3.7	7.8	8.6	10.0	58.2	57.0
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
	2001	2.8	73.0	16.5	56.5	14.5	16.1	5.9	20.0	24.3	21.6
	2003	2.9	72.6	16.4	56.2	7.1	22.2	7.8	19.1	24.5	21.7
	2004	2.9	73.8	16.1	57.7	6.8	24.2	7.8	18.9	23.3	20.5
	2005	3.1	73.1	16.1	57.0	7.0	23.6	7.7	18.7	23.9	20.9
	2006	3.2	73.8	15.9	57.9	7.2	24.8	7.6	18.3	23.1	20.1
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
	2000	2.5	78.4	15.3	63.1	11.5	28.2	7.4	16.0	19.1	13.3
	2003	3.0	80.0	16.2	63.8	12.8	28.3	6.4	16.3	17.0	10.5
	2006	2.3	77.2	12.5	64.7	12.4	31.8	6.2	14.3	20.4	15.4

Table 19.2 (continued)

BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary 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		
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
	2002	2.9	57.1	8.9	48.2	4.9	30.6	…	12.7	40.0	37.5
	2004	3.4	55.8	8.8	47.0	4.9	30.9	…	11.2	40.8	38.3
	2005	3.3	57.4	8.4	49.0	5.0	32.9	…	11.1	39.3	36.8
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
	2000	3.2	79.1	23.6	55.5	7.8	25.4	10.9	11.4	17.5	15.7
	2002	4.7	72.8	23.0	49.8	9.3	20.6	10.1	9.8	22.6	20.4
	2004	4.4	72.3	23.2	49.1	10.3	21.4	9.0	8.4	23.4	20.5
	2005	4.3	75.3	22.4	52.9	10.7	20.8	9.4	12.0	20.5	17.9
	2006	4.6	75.5	22.2	53.3	11.6	21.0	9.0	11.7	19.9	17.9
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
	2000	2.5	57.7	12.8	44.9	7.0	17.8	9.0	11.1	39.8	38.1
	2002	4.5	55.0	12.8	42.2	7.6	14.7	9.1	10.8	40.5	39.3
	2004	3.7	52.9	11.7	41.2	9.1	13.9	8.5	9.7	43.4	42.1
	2005	4.4	56.8	10.9	45.9	9.3	15.1	10.0	11.5	38.8	37.3
	2006	4.5	54.4	10.9	43.5	8.6	15.5	9.6	9.8	41.1	39.4
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
	2000	3.4	54.5	12.0	42.5	6.6	20.0	7.7	8.2	42.1	41.5
	2001	3.4	53.9	11.5	42.4	6.2	20.0	7.8	8.4	42.7	42.3
	2002	3.0	53.6	11.1	42.5	7.5	20.2	7.8	7.0	43.4	42.8
	2004	3.1	53.3	10.3	43.0	6.8	20.1	8.4	7.7	43.6	43.0
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	52.0	7.8	44.2	7.1	14.1	14.6	8.4	45.2	43.9
	2002	3.3	51.5	6.8	44.7	8.6	18.1	8.8	9.2	45.1	43.9
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
	2002	2.9	57.2	12.4	44.8	7.2	21.4	7.3	8.9	39.9	38.0
	2003	3.0	54.2	12.1	42.1	5.8	20.1	7.5	8.7	42.8	41.6
	2006	2.7	56.9	13.5	43.4	10.5	19.8	5.4	7.7	40.3	25.2

Table 19.2 (continued)

BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary 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		
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
	2000	1.9	70.2	17.5	52.7	6.6	30.0	9.6	6.5	27.9	26.8
	2002	1.9	71.1	15.2	55.9	6.4	26.7	13.1	9.7	27.0	25.3
	2004	1.6	73.0	…	73.0	16.7	32.9	12.8	10.6	25.5	23.7
	2005	2.1	72.8	…	72.8	16.0	34.7	12.0	10.1	25.1	23.3
	2006	2.1	70.2	…	70.2	15.6	33.1	12.9	8.6	27.8	25.6
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
	2001	2.5	51.2	14.7	36.5	4.2	14.0	8.0	10.3	46.2	44.5
Panama	1991	1.6	87.2	34.6	52.6	7.4	24.4	4.4	16.4	11.3	10.6
	1994	1.5	88.1	32.0	56.1	7.3	26.9	4.2	17.7	10.4	10.0
	1997	1.4	83.9	28.2	55.7	10.2	25.9	5.1	14.5	14.8	14.2
	1999	1.6	81.8	24.2	57.6	10.7	28.0	5.2	13.7	16.6	15.9
	2002	1.8	81.2	24.6	56.6	7.6	27.8	5.9	15.3	17.1	16.1
	2004	1.4	80.5	23.8	56.7	7.7	26.7	6.6	15.7	18.1	16.7
	2005	1.8	78.8	22.9	55.9	7.9	26.2	6.9	14.9	19.6	18.8
	2006	1.8	78.4	22.2	56.2	12.2	23.0	5.0	16.0	19.6	18.3
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
	2001	4.8	64.3	12.7	51.6	7.8	14.3	8.4	21.1	30.9	29.0
	2004	2.7	60.2	12.0	48.2	6.5	11.0	8.6	22.1	37.1	34.9
	2005	3.7	62.5	13.5	49.0	6.4	14.3	6.9	21.4	33.8	31.2
(Urban)	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
	2001	4.2	59.0	12.6	46.4	5.6	11.8	7.5	21.5	36.8	35.2
	2004	2.9	56.5	12.2	44.3	5.2	8.8	8.5	21.8	40.6	38.6
	2005	3.3	61.3	14.1	47.2	5.1	11.9	7.2	23.0	35.4	33.3
Peru	1997	2.3	47.3	10.9	36.4	7.6	12.1	6.9	9.8	50.5	49.1
	1999	2.5	49.3	10.5	38.8	6.3	11.0	9.1	12.4	48.2	45.7
	2001	2.4	46.9	11.3	35.6	5.8	10.2	8.3	11.3	50.7	49.0
	2003	2.4	46.1	9.4	36.7	7.1	10.0	8.1	11.5	51.5	49.7

Table 19.2 (concluded)

BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary 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		
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
	2000	2.0	73.3	17.7	55.6	9.4	28.4	8.1	9.7	24.8	22.8
	2002	2.4	71.0	15.9	55.1	10.0	28.4	6.7	10.0	26.6	24.6
	2003	1.8	72.4	17.9	54.5	11.1	25.8	7.4	10.2	25.7	23.5
	2004	3.7	72.6	15.2	57.4	11.1	26.9	7.2	12.2	23.6	21.7
	2005	3.1	68.6	17.0	51.6	9.8	24.8	5.6	11.4	28.2	26.1
	2006	3.1	69.7	17.2	52.5	9.7	23.6	7.7	11.5	27.0	24.8
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
	2000	2.2	77.7	18.0	59.7	7.6	22.0	10.6	19.5	20.3	15.9
	2002	2.1	77.1	18.0	59.1	7.2	20.9	9.5	21.5	20.9	16.6
	2004	2.0	75.9	17.9	58.0	7.2	20.4	10.1	20.3	22.1	18.0
	2005	2.3	76.9	17.9	59.0	6.9	23.2	14.1	14.8	20.8	16.8
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [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
	2000	1.9	57.6	22.1	35.5	6.3	16.7	6.9	5.6	40.4	38.4
	2002	2.4	55.0	20.0	35.0	5.1	16.6	6.7	6.6	42.6	40.6
	2004	2.2	57.4	22.7	34.7	5.8	16.2	6.4	6.3	40.5	38.4
	2005	2.3	58.7	23.5	35.2	7.3	16.8	6.1	5.0	39.1	36.6
	2006	1.9	60.3	25.0	35.3	6.7	17.1	6.2	5.3	37.8	35.6

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted In the relevant countries.

[a] For Argentina (except 1999 and 2000), Brazil (except 1993, 1996 and 1999), Chile (except 1996 and 2000), Mexico (1989 and 2004) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public-sector wage or salary earners.

[b] For Colombia, Dominican Republic (1992, 1995 and 1998) 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 persons were included in the figures for establishments employing more than 5 persons. In the case of the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama and Uruguay (1990), establishments employing up to 4 persons 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, 1996 and 1999. Therefore, the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing more than five persons includes wage earners who have an employment contract ("carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to 5 persons includes workers who do not have such contracts.

[e] Includes private-sector employees engaged in non-professional, non-technical occupations in business establishments of undeclared size.

[f] Information from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).

[g] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. As a result ot a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[h] The figures for 1990 are not strictly comparable with those for 1997 owing to changes made in the classification of professional and technical workers.

[i] Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

[j] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas. and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 20

BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS, 1990-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary earners					Own-account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector [a]				
						Total	Agriculture	Other	Total	Agriculture
Bolivia	1997	100.0	3.3	8.9	2.4	6.5	2.7	3.8	87.8	79.9
	1999	100.0	1.2	9.2	2.3	6.9	2.7	4.2	89.6	82.1
	2000	100.0	0.5	8.6	2.8	5.8	2.1	3.7	90.9	83.0
	2002	100.0	4.2	9.8	2.3	7.5	4.2	3.3	86.0	79.0
	2004	100.0	4.4	16.4	4.4	12.0	5.4	6.6	79.2	64.2
Brazil	1990	100.0	3.0	44.3	…	44.3	22.7	21.6	52.7	44.3
	1993	100.0	1.9	33.6	5.1	28.5	20.8	7.7	64.5	58.4
	1996	100.0	1.8	34.3	4.4	29.9	20.6	9.3	63.8	57.2
	1999	100.0	2.0	34.3	5.2	29.1	15.6	13.5	63.7	56.4
	2001	100.0	2.5	33.7	4.3	29.4	17.4	12.0	63.8	57.3
	2003	100.0	2.2	33.1	3.8	29.3	17.2	12.1	64.7	57.8
	2004	100.0	2.2	34.2	4.3	29.9	16.7	13.2	63.7	56.6
	2005	100.0	2.4	35.0	4.2	30.8	16.8	14.0	62.5	54.0
	2006	100.0	2.3	35.3	4.4	30.9	16.3	14.6	62.4	53.8
Chile [b]	1990	100.0	2.8	64.9	…	64.9	45.4	19.5	32.3	25.0
	1994	100.0	2.6	66.6	…	66.6	42.2	24.4	30.8	21.5
	1996	100.0	2.4	64.2	3.6	60.6	39.9	20.7	33.3	26.6
	1998	100.0	2.8	64.5	…	64.5	39.8	24.7	32.7	24.4
	2000	100.0	2.5	65.1	4.9	60.2	38.7	21.5	32.5	24.3
	2003	100.0	2.5	65.6	4.0	61.6	38.9	22.7	32.0	23.4
	2006	100.0	2.4	69.3	4.1	65.2	39.0	26.2	28.3	18.6
Colombia [c]	1991	100.0	6.3	48.6	…	48.6	28.8	19.8	45.0	25.5
	1994	100.0	4.5	54.2	…	54.2	28.6	25.6	41.3	22.4
	1997	100.0	4.2	50.6	…	50.6	27.7	22.9	45.1	25.0
	1999	100.0	3.7	47.2	3.7	43.5	25.9	17.6	49.2	27.9
	2002	100.0	4.6	40.6	3.5	37.1	21.3	15.8	54.8	30.2
	2004	100.0	4.0	39.2	2.0	37.2	22.7	14.5	56.7	34.7
	2005	100.0	5.0	39.1	2.2	36.9	24.5	12.4	56.0	35.7
Costa Rica	1990	100.0	5.1	66.2	10.5	55.7	24.1	31.6	28.7	16.8
	1994	100.0	6.8	69.0	9.6	59.4	22.5	36.9	24.2	11.1
	1997	100.0	7.1	67.8	9.0	58.8	20.7	38.1	25.2	11.3
	1999	100.0	8.2	69.2	8.9	60.3	21.3	39.0	22.7	9.5
	2000	100.0	5.8	66.9	9.6	57.3	22.7	34.6	27.3	12.3
	2002	100.0	7.5	63.5	8.8	54.8	19.4	35.4	29.0	13.2
	2004	100.0	7.8	65.8	9.2	56.6	19.2	37.4	26.4	11.5
	2005	100.0	7.8	67.9	9.3	58.6	20.4	38.2	24.3	9.7
	2006	99.9	8.0	67.4	9.9	57.5	18.5	39.0	24.5	9.5
Ecuador	2000	100.0	3.2	42.4	3.9	38.5	23.1	15.3	54.3	40.7
	2004	100.0	4.2	35.4	3.1	32.3	19.4	12.9	60.4	48.2
	2005	100.0	5.5	37.7	2.4	35.3	21.6	13.7	56.8	47.6
	2006	100.0	4.3	36.9	2.3	34.6	20.0	14.6	58.7	49.0

Table 20 (continued)

BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS, 1990-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary earners					Own-account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector [a]				
						Total	Agriculture	Other	Total	Agriculture
El Salvador	1995	100.0	6.0	49.6	3.2	46.4	24.9	21.2	44.3	26.8
	1997	100.0	4.0	50.9	3.1	47.8	24.8	23.0	45.1	28.1
	1999	100.0	4.1	50.8	3.9	46.9	20.2	26.7	45.2	26.3
	2000	100.0	4.6	47.2	3.9	43.3	18.0	25.3	48.1	26.7
	2001	100.0	3.8	47.0	3.8	43.2	17.8	25.4	49.2	28.9
	2002	100.0	3.9	45.9	3.8	42.1	14.7	27.4	50.3	27.6
	2004	100.0	3.2	56.3	3.4	52.9	21.2	31.7	40.5	20.9
Guatemala	1989	100.0	0.6	38.7	2.9	35.8	23.6	12.2	60.7	47.5
	1998	100.0	2.0	42.9	1.7	41.2	26.6	14.6	55.1	34.8
	2002	100.0	6.3	35.3	1.6	33.7	17.4	16.3	58.4	38.8
Honduras	1990	100.0	0.6	34.9	4.0	30.9	21.0	9.9	64.6	47.6
	1994	100.0	1.7	37.0	4.8	32.2	17.5	14.7	61.4	43.5
	1997	100.0	2.6	34.8	3.4	31.4	19.2	21.2	62.6	41.6
	1999	100.0	3.1	33.4	3.7	29.7	16.4	13.3	63.5	41.3
	2002	100.0	1.3	35.0	1.8	33.2	19.8	13.4	63.7	46.9
	2003	100.0	1.4	35.6	1.9	33.7	20.1	13.6	63.0	43.6
	2006	100.0	1.6	36.4	2.3	34.1	19.3	14.8	62.0	42.6
Mexico [d]	1989	100.0	2.5	50.2	…	50.2	21.9	28.3	47.3	34.6
	1994	100.0	4.0	48.6	5.5	43.1	18.8	24.3	47.4	30.8
	1996	100.0	5.1	48.1	6.4	41.7	16.9	24.8	46.7	28.6
	1998	100.0	4.5	45.6	6.0	39.6	16.0	23.6	49.9	29.2
	2000	100.0	5.0	51.0	6.6	44.4	18.1	26.3	44.0	25.1
	2002	100.0	3.3	52.4	7.8	44.6	15.7	28.9	44.3	25.4
	2004	100.0	3.4	61.1	…	61.1	16.4	44.7	35.4	16.8
	2005	100.0	4.1	56.8	…	56.8	16.0	40.8	39.1	19.0
	2006	100.0	4.2	55.2	…	55.2	14.6	40.6	40.6	19.5
Nicaragua	1993	100.0	0.2	38.4	6.6	31.8	17.4	14.4	61.3	45.8
	1998	100.0	3.3	43.7	…	43.7	23.8	19.9	53.0	39.7
	2001	100.0	5.4	37.4	4.9	32.5	17.8	14.7	57.2	44.5
Panama	1991	100.0	3.6	43.4	12.8	30.6	12.1	18.5	53.0	39.3
	1994	100.0	2.5	49.1	10.5	38.6	15.7	22.9	48.5	33.1
	1997	100.0	2.2	46.2	10.1	36.1	13.1	23.0	51.6	33.4
	1999	100.0	2.4	48.1	9.5	38.6	14.3	24.3	49.5	29.7
	2002	100.0	2.0	40.1	8.3	31.8	14.3	17.5	57.9	39.1
	2004	100.0	2.8	40.9	8.5	32.3	13.3	19.0	56.3	35.5
	2005	100.0	2.0	39.4	8.1	31.3	12.5	18.8	58.7	37.3
	2006	99.8	1.9	41.3	8.3	33.0	13.2	19.8	56.7	38.6
Paraguay	1997	100.0	2.3	24.8	3.2	21.6	10.1	11.5	72.8	57.3
	1999	100.0	3.4	27.0	3.4	23.6	7.2	16.4	69.7	54.0
	2001	100.0	3.6	27.1	2.5	24.6	8.8	15.8	69.4	53.7
	2004	100.0	2.7	24.5	2.4	22.1	7.4	14.7	72.9	58.2
	2005	100.0	2.4	26.8	4.5	22.3	7.5	14.8	70.9	58.5

Table 20 (concluded)

BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS, 1990-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary earners					Own-account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector [a]			Total	Agriculture
						Total	Agriculture	Other		
Peru	1997	100.0	5.3	19.8	4.4	15.4	9.9	5.5	74.8	61.0
	1999	100.0	6.3	19.9	3.7	16.2	10.9	5.3	73.9	61.9
	2001	100.0	5.4	20.6	4.1	16.5	12.0	4.5	74.0	61.2
	2003	100.0	5.0	14.6	3.5	11.1	8.2	2.9	80.5	69.5
Dominican Republic	1992	100.0	4.0	52.4	13.2	39.2	14.8	24.4	43.7	21.6
	1995	100.0	2.1	56.1	11.5	44.6	10.3	33.3	41.9	15.7
	1997	100.0	3.4	45.6	10.3	35.3	7.3	28.0	51.0	28.5
	2000	100.0	1.8	40.3	8.1	32.2	7.2	25.0	57.8	32.6
	2002	100.0	1.7	36.6	8.3	28.3	5.5	22.8	61.7	34.9
	2003	100.0	2.7	42.4	8.9	33.5	4.5	29.0	54.9	25.3
	2004	100.0	2.9	42.0	8.7	33.3	4.7	28.6	55.1	28.0
	2005	100.0	3.3	39.4	7.8	31.6	4.1	27.5	57.2	27.9
	2006	100.0	2.5	41.9	7.9	34.0	4.8	29.2	55.5	27.4
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	100.0	6.9	46.6	8.3	38.3	22.9	15.4	46.5	33.3
	1994	100.0	7.6	47.6	7.4	40.2	19.4	20.8	44.8	29.7
	1997	100.0	5.4	49.6	5.4	44.2	34.6	9.6	44.9	33.1

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted In the relevant countries.

[a] Includes domestic employees. For Brazil (1990), Chile (1990, 1994 and 1998), Mexico (1989, 2004 - 2006) and Nicaragua (1998), public-sector wage or salary earners are included.

[b] Information from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).

[c] As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for rural areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[d] Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

Table 21

URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-2006

(Percentages of the total employed urban population)

Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises [a]				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers [b]		
			Employers	Wage or salary earners						
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical		Total [c]	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
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
	2000	42.2	3.4	16.0	1.4	14.6	5.3	17.5	5.1	12.4
	2002	42.1	2.9	16.1	1.1	15.0	5.6	17.5	6.8	10.7
	2004	44.6	2.5	15.0	1.0	14.0	6.1	21.0	10.3	10.7
	2005	39.8	2.5	14.5	1.4	13.1	7.1	15.7	5.5	10.1
	2006	39.9	2.7	14.4	1.0	13.4	7.5	15.3	5.0	10.3
(Urban)	1999	42.2	3.2	14.9	1.4	13.5	5.8	18.3	5.4	12.7
	2000	43.5	3.3	15.4	1.3	14.1	5.9	18.9	5.6	13.2
	2002	42.5	2.9	15.2	1.2	14.0	6.0	18.4	6.4	11.8
	2004	40.9	2.8	15.2	1.2	14.0	5.9	17.0	5.9	11.1
	2005	41.2	2.8	14.5	1.3	13.2	7.2	16.7	5.6	10.9
	2006	41.0	2.9	14.4	1.0	13.4	7.4	16.3	5.2	10.9
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
	2000	63.1	1.7	10.8	0.6	10.2	4.2	46.4	12.1	30.9
	2002	66.7	3.2	13.9	0.7	13.2	3.9	45.7	12.3	29.4
	2004	70.9	4.1	18.1	1.4	16.7	4.6	44.1	10.8	28.9
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
	2001	46.2	2.2	10.8	1.9	8.9	8.8	24.4	4.8	15.4
	2003	45.0	2.2	10.7	0.9	9.8	8.5	23.6	6.5	12.6
	2004	43.7	2.2	10.5	0.9	9.6	8.5	22.5	6.0	12.3
	2005	43.6	2.2	10.3	0.9	9.4	8.5	22.6	6.3	12.0
	2006	42.4	2.3	10.1	0.8	9.3	8.4	21.6	5.9	11.7
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
	2000	32.5	2.4	9.0	1.0	8.0	6.2	14.9	4.3	9.6
	2003	31.8	2.4	7.9	0.8	7.1	6.5	15.0	4.9	9.2
	2006	30.6	1.7	7.3	0.8	6.5	5.8	15.8	4.8	10.1
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
	2002	…	…	…	…	…	5.9	38.5	8.0	27.8
	2004	…	…	…	…	…	5.2	39.5	7.9	28.1
	2005	…	…	…	…	…	5.3	37.6	7.6	27.2
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
	2000	39.1	4.1	13.0	1.2	11.8	4.5	17.5	4.5	11.9
	2002	40.2	6.2	12.3	1.4	10.9	4.0	17.7	4.7	12.2
	2004	38.9	6.2	11.2	1.3	9.9	3.4	18.1	4.3	12.9
	2005	39.9	5.9	13.0	1.6	11.4	4.9	16.1	3.8	11.5
	2006	39.7	6.2	11.6	1.3	10.3	5.0	16.9	4.2	11.8

Table 21 (continued)

URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-2006

(Percentages of the total employed urban population)

Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises [a]				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers [b]		
			Employers	Wage or salary earners						
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical		Total [c]	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
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
	2000	56.5	3.0	15.0	1.2	13.8	4.7	33.8	7.1	24.1
	2002	56.3	4.8	14.2	0.9	13.3	4.5	32.8	6.9	23.6
	2004	58.6	5.1	15.1	1.1	14.0	4.2	34.2	6.5	25.2
	2005	57.9	4.8	16.3	1.2	15.1	5.2	31.6	5.8	23.3
	2006	57.8	4.9	16.7	1.0	15.7	4.1	32.1	5.1	24.5
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
	2000	53.8	5.0	13.5	1.0	12.5	4.1	31.2	7.0	21.7
	2001	54.4	4.4	14.1	0.7	13.4	4.2	31.7	6.7	22.8
	2002	54.8	4.6	13.5	1.0	12.5	3.7	33.0	6.8	23.9
	2004	54.6	4.4	13.9	0.7	13.2	3.9	32.4	6.5	23.9
Guatemala	1989	54.6	2.1	14.6	0.8	13.8	7.0	30.9	7.4	14.9
	1998	64.4	3.6	22.4	2.3	20.1	3.9	34.5	8.2	20.7
	2002	57.6	5.2	13.9	0.8	13.1	4.0	34.5	8.9	19.8
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
	2002	56.5	3.6	14.0	1.1	12.9	4.0	34.9	9.8	20.1
	2003	59.4	4.3	14.3	0.9	13.4	4.1	36.7	10.0	22.0
	2006	43.2	3.2	11.1	1.2	9.9	3.7	25.2	9.2	11.7
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
	2000	42.5	3.9	16.0	1.1	14.9	3.0	19.6	3.6	15.1
	2002	47.2	3.4	18.3	1.3	17.0	4.6	20.9	4.2	16.1
	2004	45.7	2.3	19.5	2.0	17.5	4.9	19.0	3.5	14.7
	2005	42.9	2.4	17.1	1.6	15.5	4.5	18.9	3.2	15.1
	2006	45.7	2.8	18.8	1.9	16.9	3.9	20.2	3.8	15.9
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
	2001	59.9	3.6	16.5	0.7	15.8	4.4	35.4	5.5	25.7
Panama	1991	32.3	1.8	5.9	0.8	5.1	7.4	17.2	3.9	11.5
	1994	32.0	1.9	5.8	0.4	5.4	7.5	16.8	4.4	11.6
	1997	33.6	2.2	6.4	0.9	5.5	6.5	18.5	4.6	12.8
	1999	34.2	2.2	7.0	0.8	6.2	6.1	18.9	4.3	13.8
	2002	38.4	2.3	8.8	0.7	8.1	6.7	20.6	4.4	15.2
	2004	39.3	2.5	8.9	0.7	8.2	6.9	21.0	4.2	15.9
	2005	40.5	2.8	9.4	0.7	8.7	6.8	21.5	4.0	16.4
	2006	40.1	2.8	9.3	1.3	8.0	6.9	21.1	4.1	16.0
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	51.9	4.7	14.9	1.3	13.6	9.1	23.2	5.2	17.1
	2001	54.5	6.1	13.0	1.7	11.3	11.0	24.4	5.1	19.0
	2004	61.1	3.9	14.8	1.1	13.7	11.2	31.2	6.4	22.9
	2005	56.0	5.2	14.2	0.9	13.3	10.7	25.9	5.4	18.1

Table 21 (concluded)

URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-2006

(Percentages of the total employed urban population)

Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises [a]				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers [b]		
			Employers	Wage or salary earners						
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical		Total [c]	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
(Urban)	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	59.1	5.0	15.8	0.9	14.9	9.2	29.1	5.2	21.3
	2001	61.6	6.4	14.7	1.4	13.3	10.4	30.1	5.3	21.9
	2004	65.4	4.2	16.1	1.1	15.0	10.5	34.6	6.2	23.8
	2005	61.3	4.6	16.1	0.9	15.2	11.1	29.5	5.7	19.3
Peru	1997	60.6	4.9	13.1	1.2	11.9	4.4	38.2	5.4	28.6
	1999	63.3	4.5	14.9	1.9	13.0	5.8	38.1	4.9	29.4
	2001	63.1	4.0	14.4	1.0	13.4	5.2	39.5	5.0	28.8
	2003	64.6	3.7	13.3	0.9	12.4	5.6	42.0	5.3	29.7
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
	2000	45.1	1.8	8.5	0.7	7.8	4.1	30.7	7.3	20.6
	2002	46.3	2.3	7.0	0.6	6.4	4.3	32.7	7.4	22.0
	2003	46.9	2.7	7.4	0.8	6.6	4.1	32.7	7.8	21.4
	2004	48.1	4.3	7.9	0.8	7.1	5.3	30.6	6.8	20.2
	2005	49.3	3.5	6.9	0.5	6.4	4.8	34.1	7.9	22.3
	2006	50.0	3.1	7.8	0.6	7.2	4.9	34.2	8.1	22.0
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
	2000	42.6	2.4	11.8	0.7	11.1	9.1	19.3	7.3	10.9
	2002	45.7	2.4	11.6	0.6	11.0	9.9	21.8	8.1	12.5
	2004	45.3	2.1	12.0	0.6	11.4	9.4	21.8	7.4	13.0
	2005	44.3	2.5	14.3	0.6	13.7	7.2	20.3	6.9	12.3
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [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
	2000	54.6	3.8	11.6	0.4	11.2	2.1	37.1	7.4	24.7
	2002	56.5	4.2	11.5	0.4	11.1	2.6	38.2	6.5	26.4
	2004	54.9	3.6	10.8	0.5	10.3	2.5	38.0	6.5	25.8
	2005	52.0	3.7	11.2	1.0	10.2	1.9	35.2	6.0	24.4
	2006	51.4	3.4	10.6	0.5	10.1	2.1	35.3	6.5	24.0

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted In the relevant countries.

[a] Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons. For Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama (up to 2002) and Uruguay (1990), includes establishments employing up to four persons.

[b] Refers to own-account and unpaid family workers without professional or technical skills.

[c] Includes persons employed in agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing.

[d] Until 1990, the "microenterprises" category included wage earners without an employment contract. In 1993 and from 1996 to 1999, this category Included wage earners in establishments employing up to 5 persons, so that the figures for these years are not comparable with those of previous years.

[e] Information from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).

[f] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[g] Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH). In the 1994 survey, no Information was given on the size of the establishments employing wage or salary earners.

[h] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 21.1

MALE URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-2006

(Percentages of the total employed urban population)

Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises [a]				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers [b]		
			Employers	Wage or salary earners						
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical		Total [c]	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
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
	2000	40.8	4.1	17.9	1.5	16.4	0.2	18.6	7.2	11.4
	2002	43.9	3.4	18.4	0.9	17.5	0.1	22.0	9.5	12.5
	2004	39.4	3.2	17.7	1.0	16.7	0.1	18.4	7.5	10.9
	2005	39.2	2.9	17.6	1.3	16.3	0.9	17.8	7.5	10.1
	2006	37.7	3.4	16.3	0.9	15.4	0.1	17.9	6.9	10.9
(Urban)	1999	40.9	4.1	16.8	1.2	15.6	0.2	19.8	7.6	11.9
	2000	42.5	4.1	17.6	1.5	16.1	0.2	20.6	8.0	12.4
	2002	44.6	3.5	17.7	1.1	16.6	0.1	23.3	9.2	13.8
	2004	41.5	3.7	18.3	1.1	17.2	0.2	19.3	7.5	11.6
	2005	40.9	3.5	17.7	1.3	16.4	0.7	19.0	7.6	11.1
	2006	39.3	3.7	16.9	1.0	15.9	0.1	18.6	7.0	11.4
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
	2000	56.2	2.2	15.1	0.8	14.3	0.2	38.7	15.3	19.2
	2002	58.5	4.2	17.8	0.7	17.1	0.2	36.3	13.1	18.4
	2004	64.4	5.7	25.0	1.6	23.4	0.2	33.5	12.5	17.2
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
	2001	42.3	2.8	12.3	1.2	11.1	0.8	26.4	7.1	14.9
	2003	40.7	2.8	12.1	0.9	11.2	0.8	25.0	7.8	12.5
	2004	39.3	2.7	11.8	0.9	10.9	0.8	24.0	7.2	12.2
	2005	39.0	2.8	11.6	0.9	10.7	0.8	23.8	7.6	11.7
	2006	37.8	2.9	11.4	0.8	10.6	0.8	22.7	7.2	11.3
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
	2000	27.9	2.9	9.1	0.9	8.2	0.1	15.8	5.2	9.2
	2003	27.8	2.7	8.3	0.7	7.6	0.2	16.6	6.1	9.1
	2006	25.7	2.0	7.3	0.6	6.7	0.1	16.3	5.7	9.2
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
	2002	…	…	…	…	…	0.4	39.3	8.2	26.7
	2004	…	…	…	…	…	0.4	40.2	8.0	26.7
	2005	…	…	…	…	…	0.3	38.0	8.0	25.5

Table 21.1 (continued)

MALE URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-2006

(Percentages of the total employed urban population)

Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises [a]				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers [b]		
			Employers	Wage or salary earners						
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical		Total [c]	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
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
	2000	37.4	5.1	13.5	1.1	12.4	0.3	18.5	5.3	11.6
	2002	37.3	7.9	13.0	1.6	11.4	0.3	16.1	5.1	9.8
	2004	36.7	7.9	11.9	1.4	10.5	0.3	16.6	4.5	10.6
	2005	36.6	7.3	13.9	1.3	12.6	0.4	15.0	4.0	9.8
	2006	36.8	7.5	12.4	1.2	11.2	0.5	16.4	4.8	10.2
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
	2000	53.6	3.8	18.0	1.2	16.8	0.7	31.1	7.5	20.6
	2002	52.1	5.7	16.8	0.8	16.0	0.7	28.9	6.9	19.4
	2004	54.5	6.4	18.7	1.0	17.7	0.5	28.9	7.0	19.4
	2005	54.0	5.7	19.7	1.1	18.6	0.9	27.7	6.3	18.6
	2006	54.1	5.6	20.7	1.0	19.7	0.4	27.4	5.4	19.2
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
	2000	47.1	6.6	18.1	1.3	16.8	0.4	22.0	5.0	12.5
	2001	47.5	5.5	19.3	0.9	18.4	0.5	22.2	4.4	13.9
	2002	48.4	6.1	18.0	1.1	16.9	0.5	23.8	4.8	14.9
	2004	47.8	5.8	18.3	0.7	17.6	0.5	23.2	5.0	14.5
Guatemala	1989	49.5	2.5	18.2	0.8	17.4	0.2	28.6	5.7	10.1
	1998	59.1	4.7	26.9	2.5	24.4	0.3	27.2	5.6	13.3
	2002	51.5	6.9	16.9	0.6	16.3	0.1	27.6	7.6	11.3
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
	2002	55.7	4.5	18.2	1.0	17.2	0.4	32.6	8.4	15.9
	2003	57.9	5.6	18.8	0.8	18.0	0.5	33.0	8.0	17.1
	2006	44.2	3.9	14.6	1.3	13.3	0.6	25.1	8.2	9.7
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
	2000	40.7	5.1	19.3	1.2	18.1	0.9	15.4	3.6	10.7
	2002	44.9	4.6	20.7	1.3	19.4	1.4	18.2	3.9	13.5
	2004	42.2	3.0	22.5	1.7	20.8	1.0	15.7	3.7	11.0
	2005	38.9	3.0	19.4	1.5	17.9	0.7	15.8	3.5	11.6
	2006	42.0	3.6	21.5	1.8	19.7	0.6	16.3	4.0	11.7

Table 21.1 (continued)

MALE URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-2006

(Percentages of the total employed urban population)

Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises [a]				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers [b]		
			Employers	Wage or salary earners						
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical		Total [c]	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
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
	2001	55.7	4.9	22.1	0.6	21.5	0.1	28.6	4.6	17.3
Panama	1991	31.8	2.4	6.6	0.9	5.7	0.8	22.0	5.4	13.5
	1994	31.2	2.5	6.5	0.4	6.1	1.0	21.2	5.8	14.0
	1997	31.9	2.9	6.6	0.8	5.8	1.0	21.4	6.1	13.5
	1999	32.2	2.8	7.6	0.8	6.8	0.9	20.9	5.4	14.3
	2002	37.8	2.9	10.3	0.7	9.6	1.0	23.6	5.9	16.2
	2004	38.1	3.4	9.8	0.6	9.2	1.1	23.8	5.4	17.0
	2005	38.9	3.7	10.6	0.7	9.9	1.2	23.4	4.9	16.7
	2006	38.1	3.6	10.7	0.8	9.9	0.8	23.0	5.1	16.3
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	43.8	6.1	16.4	1.9	14.5	0.8	20.5	4.9	14.5
	2001	45.7	7.8	15.3	1.6	13.7	2.3	20.3	4.2	15.8
	2004	55.3	5.6	18.9	1.2	17.7	2.5	28.3	6.6	20.1
	2005	50.4	7.6	19.9	1.2	18.7	1.5	21.4	5.9	13.7
(Urban)	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	51.9	6.8	19.1	1.2	17.9	0.9	25.1	4.9	16.8
	2001	55.6	8.6	19.3	1.3	18.0	1.6	26.1	4.8	18.0
	2004	60.2	5.7	21.1	1.1	20.0	1.9	31.5	6.2	20.9
	2005	57.0	6.4	22.7	1.1	21.6	1.5	26.4	6.0	15.8
Peru	1997	53.7	7.0	17.0	1.1	15.9	0.2	29.5	5.3	19.2
	1999	56.5	6.2	18.0	1.9	16.1	0.4	31.9	5.0	21.7
	2001	56.7	5.5	18.5	1.0	17.5	0.5	32.2	5.4	20.4
	2003	58.1	4.8	16.7	0.8	15.9	0.8	35.8	5.1	23.5
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
	2000	46.6	1.9	8.5	0.8	7.7	0.6	35.6	10.1	21.3
	2002	48.1	2.7	6.7	0.6	6.1	0.8	37.9	10.3	22.5
	2003	48.9	3.4	6.8	0.7	6.1	0.4	38.3	10.8	22.0
	2004	49.6	5.0	7.5	0.4	7.1	1.1	36.0	9.7	20.6
	2005	51.1	4.0	7.3	0.5	6.8	0.9	38.9	11.1	21.8
	2006	51.7	3.5	7.5	0.6	6.9	0.7	40.0	11.7	21.8

Table 21.1 (concluded)

MALE URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-2006

(Percentages of the total employed urban population)

Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises [a]				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers [b]		
			Employers	Wage or salary earners						
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical		Total [c]	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
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
	2000	38.3	3.1	12.0	0.6	11.4	1.3	21.9	9.6	10.7
	2002	43.0	3.2	12.8	0.6	12.2	1.4	25.6	10.7	13.3
	2004	41.6	2.7	12.9	0.6	12.3	1.4	24.6	9.3	13.4
	2005	41.4	3.3	13.9	0.6	13.3	1.1	23.1	8.8	12.8
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [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
	2000	55.6	5.1	14.0	0.3	13.7	0.1	36.4	8.4	20.6
	2002	56.4	5.6	14.0	0.2	13.8	0.1	36.7	7.1	21.9
	2004	55.7	4.7	13.2	0.4	12.8	0.1	37.7	7.4	21.9
	2005	52.9	4.8	13.6	0.8	12.8	0.1	34.4	6.7	20.7
	2006	52.6	4.6	12.8	0.4	12.4	0.1	35.1	7.7	20.4

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted In the relevant countries.

[a] Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons. For Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama (up to 2002), and Uruguay (1990), includes establishments employing up to four persons.

[b] Refers to own-account and unpaid family workers without professional or technical skills.

[c] Includes persons employed in agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing.

[d] Until 1990, the "microenterprises" category included wage earners without an employment contract. In 1993 and from 1996 to 1999, this category included wage earners in establishments employing up to 5 persons, so that the figures for these years are not comparable with those of previous years.

[e] Information from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).

[f] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[g] Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH). In the 1994 survey, no information was given on the size of the establishments employing wage or salary earners.

[h] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 21.2

FEMALE URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-2006

(Percentages of the total employed urban population)

Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises [a]				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers [b]		
			Employers	Wage or salary earners						
				Total	Professional and technical	Non professional, non-technical		Total [c]	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
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
	2000	44.1	2.2	13.2	1.2	12.0	13.0	15.7	2.0	13.7
	2002	40.0	2.3	13.0	1.4	11.6	13.2	11.5	3.1	8.4
	2004	41.1	1.6	11.4	1.1	10.3	14.5	13.6	4.1	9.5
	2005	40.7	1.8	10.2	1.5	8.7	15.7	13.0	2.8	10.2
	2006	42.9	1.8	11.8	1.1	10.7	17.3	12.0	2.5	9.5
(Urban)	1999	44.0	1.7	11.8	1.6	10.2	14.2	16.3	2.1	14.1
	2000	45.2	2.2	12.2	1.1	11.1	14.3	16.5	2.1	14.3
	2002	39.5	2.0	11.8	1.4	10.4	14.0	11.7	2.6	9.1
	2004	41.8	1.7	10.7	1.2	9.5	15.2	14.2	3.7	10.4
	2005	41.7	1.8	10.3	1.4	8.9	16.1	13.5	2.8	10.7
	2006	43.4	1.9	11.3	1.1	10.2	17.2	13.0	2.7	10.3
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
	2000	71.9	1.1	5.2	0.3	4.9	9.4	56.2	8.1	45.7
	2002	76.7	2.1	9.4	0.8	8.6	8.3	56.9	11.3	42.6
	2004	78.7	2.0	9.7	1.1	8.6	10.0	57.0	8.7	43.2
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
	2001	51.6	1.3	8.8	2.9	5.9	20.0	21.5	1.6	16.1
	2003	51.1	1.4	8.8	1.0	7.8	19.1	21.8	4.6	12.9
	2004	49.7	1.5	8.7	0.9	7.8	18.9	20.6	4.4	12.5
	2005	49.7	1.5	8.6	0.9	7.7	18.7	20.9	4.5	12.3
	2006	47.8	1.5	8.4	0.8	7.6	18.3	19.6	4.3	12.2
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
	2000	39.8	1.6	8.9	1.1	7.8	16.0	13.3	2.8	10.2
	2003	38.0	1.9	7.3	0.9	6.4	16.3	12.5	3.0	9.3
	2006	38.2	1.4	7.1	0.9	6.2	14.3	15.4	3.5	11.6
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
	2002	…	…	…	…	…	12.7	37.4	7.7	29.2
	2004	…	…	…	…	…	11.2	38.3	7.6	29.8
	2005	…	…	…	…	…	11.1	36.8	7.0	29.2

Table 21.2 (continued)

FEMALE URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-2006

(Percentages of the total employed urban population)

Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises [a]				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers [b]		
			Employers	Wage or salary earners						
				Total	Professional and technical	Non professional, non-technical		Total [c]	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
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
	2000	41.7	2.3	12.3	1.4	10.9	11.4	15.7	3.2	12.4
	2002	45.1	3.7	11.2	1.1	10.1	9.8	20.4	4.2	16.0
	2004	42.4	3.4	10.1	1.1	9.0	8.4	20.5	3.8	16.6
	2005	44.9	3.7	11.4	2.0	9.4	12.0	17.8	3.5	14.2
	2006	44.4	4.2	10.5	1.5	9.0	11.7	18.0	3.4	14.4
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
	2000	61.0	1.7	10.1	1.1	9.0	11.1	38.1	6.5	29.6
	2002	64.1	3.3	10.0	0.9	9.1	10.8	40.0	7.8	30.3
	2004	64.6	3.1	9.7	1.2	8.5	9.7	42.1	5.9	33.8
	2005	63.8	3.4	11.5	1.5	10.0	11.5	37.4	5.1	30.2
	2006	63.4	3.7	10.5	0.9	9.6	9.8	39.4	4.7	32.5
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
	2000	61.1	3.1	8.3	0.6	7.7	8.2	41.5	9.3	32.0
	2001	62.3	3.1	8.4	0.6	7.8	8.4	42.4	9.3	32.8
	2002	61.0	2.9	8.6	0.8	7.8	7.0	42.5	8.9	33.6
	2004	62.5	2.8	9.0	0.6	8.4	7.7	43.0	8.3	34.5
Guatemala	1989	62.7	1.3	8.7	0.8	7.9	18.1	34.6	10.1	22.7
	1998	71.2	2.2	16.7	2.1	14.6	8.4	43.9	11.6	30.2
	2002	65.7	2.9	9.8	1.0	8.8	9.2	43.8	10.6	31.2
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
	2002	57.9	2.4	8.6	1.3	7.3	8.9	38.0	11.7	25.6
	2003	61.5	2.6	8.6	1.1	7.5	8.7	41.6	12.6	28.3
	2006	41.7	2.3	6.5	1.1	5.4	7.7	25.2	10.5	14.2
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
	2000	45.7	1.8	10.6	1.0	9.6	6.5	26.8	3.7	22.4
	2002	51.0	1.6	14.4	1.3	13.1	9.7	25.3	4.6	20.3
	2004	50.7	1.3	15.2	2.4	12.8	10.6	23.6	3.1	20.1
	2005	48.7	1.6	13.7	1.7	12.0	10.1	23.3	2.8	20.2
	2006	50.8	1.6	15.0	2.1	12.9	8.6	25.6	3.4	21.8

Table 21.2 (continued)

FEMALE URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-2006

(Percentages of the total employed urban population)

Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises [a]				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers [b]		
			Employers	Wage or salary earners						
				Total	Professional and technical	Non professional, non-technical		Total [c]	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
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
	2001	65.5	1.9	8.7	0.7	8.0	10.3	44.6	6.7	37.2
Panama	1991	32.9	1.0	5.0	0.6	4.4	16.4	10.5	1.8	8.7
	1994	33.4	1.0	4.7	0.5	4.2	17.7	10.0	2.1	7.9
	1997	35.8	1.0	6.1	1.0	5.1	14.5	14.2	2.4	11.7
	1999	37.0	1.4	6.0	0.8	5.2	13.7	15.9	2.6	13.1
	2002	39.2	1.3	6.5	0.6	5.9	15.3	16.1	2.2	13.8
	2004	41.1	1.2	7.4	0.8	6.6	15.7	16.8	2.4	14.3
	2005	42.8	1.6	7.6	0.7	6.9	14.9	18.7	2.7	15.9
	2006	42.9	1.6	7.0	2.0	5.0	16.0	18.3	2.6	15.5
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	64.3	2.9	13.0	0.6	12.4	20.1	28.3	5.7	22.1
	2001	64.6	4.2	10.3	1.9	8.4	21.1	29.0	6.1	22.7
	2004	68.6	1.9	9.6	1.0	8.6	22.1	35.0	6.2	26.4
	2005	62.6	2.5	7.5	0.6	6.9	21.4	31.2	4.8	23.3
(Urban)	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	69.1	2.5	11.3	0.5	10.8	20.7	34.6	5.6	27.5
	2001	71.9	3.7	9.0	1.5	7.5	21.5	37.7	6.0	26.7
	2004	72.2	2.3	9.5	1.0	8.5	21.8	38.6	6.3	27.6
	2005	66.4	2.4	7.8	0.6	7.2	23.0	33.2	5.3	23.6
Peru	1997	69.3	2.2	8.2	1.3	6.9	9.8	49.1	5.4	40.4
	1999	71.5	2.5	10.9	1.8	9.1	12.4	45.7	4.8	38.8
	2001	71.7	2.2	9.3	1.0	8.3	11.3	48.9	4.5	39.6
	2003	72.5	2.3	9.0	0.9	8.1	11.5	49.7	5.5	37.5
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
	2000	42.8	1.6	8.7	0.6	8.1	9.7	22.8	2.9	19.4
	2002	43.7	1.8	7.3	0.6	6.7	10.0	24.6	2.8	21.3
	2003	43.6	1.6	8.3	0.9	7.4	10.2	23.5	2.8	20.5
	2004	45.9	3.3	8.6	1.4	7.2	12.2	21.8	2.1	19.4
	2005	46.3	2.6	6.1	0.5	5.6	11.4	26.2	2.7	23.1
	2006	47.2	2.5	8.3	0.6	7.7	11.5	24.9	2.3	22.4

Table 21.2 (concluded)

FEMALE URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-2006

(Percentages of the total employed urban population)

Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises [a]				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers [b]		
			Employers	Wage or salary earners						
				Total	Professional and technical	Non professional, non-technical		Total [c]	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
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
	2000	48.2	1.4	11.4	0.8	10.6	19.5	15.9	4.2	11.3
	2002	49.6	1.4	10.1	0.6	9.5	21.5	16.6	4.6	11.5
	2004	50.3	1.3	10.7	0.6	10.1	20.3	18.0	4.8	12.5
	2005	48.0	1.6	14.8	0.7	14.1	14.8	16.8	4.6	11.7
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [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
	2000	52.9	1.5	7.4	0.5	6.9	5.6	38.4	5.6	32.0
	2002	56.6	2.0	7.4	0.7	6.7	6.6	40.6	5.4	33.8
	2004	53.6	1.8	7.1	0.7	6.4	6.3	38.4	5.0	32.0
	2005	50.2	1.3	7.4	1.3	6.1	5.0	36.5	4.8	30.4
	2006	49.3	1.5	6.9	0.7	6.2	5.3	35.6	4.5	29.9

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted In the relevant countries.

[a] Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons. For Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama (up to 2002), and Uruguay (1990), includes establishments employing up to four persons.

[b] Refers to own-account and unpaid family workers without professional or technical skills.

[c] Includes persons employed in agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing.

[d] Until 1990, the "microenterprises" category included wage earners without an employment contract. In 1993 and from 1996 to 1999, this category included wage earners in establishments employing up to 5 persons, so that the figures for these years are not comparable with those of previous years.

[e] Information from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).

[f] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[g] Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH). In the 1994 survey, no information was given on the size of the establishments employing wage or salary earners.

[h] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 22

OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND AGE IN URBAN AREAS, AROUND 1990, 1994, 1997, 1999, 2003, 2004. 2005 AND 2006 [a]

Country	Sex	Age group: Total								15 - 24								25 - 34								35 - 44								45 and over							
		1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	2006	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	2006	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	2006	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	2006	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	2006
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	Total	5.9	13.0	14.3	14.7	19.0	13.5	11.5	10.5	13.0	22.8	24.2	24.3	33.8	29.4	25.8	26.0	4.9	10.0	12.7	12.0	15.4	11.4	11.0	8.0	4.1	10.5	10.6	11.6	18.1	8.5	6.2	5.9	3.8	10.3	11.6	12.9	14.1	9.9	8.1	7.2
	Males	5.7	11.5	12.4	13.4	18.5	11.9	9.9	8.2	11.5	20.3	21.1	22.8	31.7	26.9	23.2	20.0	5.0	8.8	10.1	11.3	15.3	9.3	8.4	5.9	3.9	7.3	8.6	8.0	14.8	6.3	4.8	3.5	4.2	10.5	11.1	12.7	16.7	9.2	7.2	6.8
	Females	6.4	15.5	17.2	16.5	19.5	15.8	13.7	13.4	15.6	26.7	28.9	26.3	36.3	32.9	29.4	32.9	4.9	11.9	16.8	13.0	15.7	14.1	14.4	10.6	4.3	15.4	13.8	16.1	22.1	11.4	7.8	8.7	3.0	10.0	12.4	13.2	10.3	10.8	9.4	7.7
Bolivia	Total	9.4	3.2	3.7	7.1	6.4	6.0	...	...	17.4	5.8	6.4	15.3	11.2	12.0	...	...	8.5	2.8	3.7	6.3	7.1	5.2	...	...	5.1	2.0	2.9	3.8	4.6	3.3	...	...	6.6	2.1	2.1	3.7	3.3	3.3	...	...
	Males	9.5	3.4	3.7	6.0	5.2	4.9	...	...	18.2	6.3	5.8	12.5	9.2	10.1	...	...	7.5	2.5	3.4	4.8	4.8	3.3	...	...	5.5	2.1	3.1	2.3	3.2	2.0	...	...	8.5	2.9	2.8	4.9	4.0	3.9	...	...
	Females	9.1	2.9	3.7	8.5	7.9	7.3	...	...	16.5	5.2	7.1	18.5	13.4	14.5	...	...	9.9	3.2	4.2	8.2	9.7	7.5	...	...	4.6	1.9	2.5	5.5	6.1	4.8	...	...	3.8	0.9	1.2	1.9	2.4	2.7	...	...
Brazil	Total	4.5	7.4	8.0	11.4	11.1	10.2	10.7	9.5	8.3	14.3	15.1	21.7	21.7	20.9	22.2	20.1	4.4	6.9	7.4	10.5	10.4	9.3	9.7	9.1	2.4	4.3	5.0	7.0	7.1	6.3	6.3	5.6	1.5	2.6	3.8	5.5	5.4	4.6	4.7	4.2
	Males	4.8	6.4	6.7	9.4	9.0	8.0	8.3	7.4	8.7	12.4	12.8	18.4	17.7	17.1	18.1	16.2	4.7	5.5	5.6	8.0	7.5	6.4	6.7	6.3	2.8	3.8	4.2	5.5	5.8	4.5	4.3	3.7	2.0	2.7	3.7	5.3	5.2	4.2	4.1	4.0
	Females	3.9	8.9	10.0	14.1	13.8	13.0	13.7	12.1	7.7	17.0	18.2	26.2	26.9	25.6	27.4	24.7	3.8	8.8	9.8	13.8	13.8	12.9	13.4	12.4	1.7	5.0	6.2	9.0	8.6	8.4	8.7	7.7	0.6	2.5	4.0	5.8	5.6	5.2	5.5	4.6
Chile	Total	8.7	6.8	6.0	10.1	10.1	...	...	7.6	17.9	16.1	13.2	21.8	22.1	...	...	18.2	8.3	6.5	5.9	9.9	10.2	...	...	8.1	5.1	3.7	4.1	7.4	7.4	...	...	5.4	5.3	3.7	3.4	6.3	6.6	...	...	4.3
	Males	8.1	5.9	5.1	9.4	8.5	...	...	6.3	17.0	14.0	10.7	20.4	19.0	...	...	15.8	7.5	5.5	5.0	9.3	9.0	...	...	6.3	4.8	3.0	3.6	6.4	5.6	...	...	4.2	5.6	3.9	3.7	6.7	6.0	...	...	3.8
	Females	9.7	8.4	7.3	11.2	12.4	...	...	9.5	19.1	19.3	17.1	23.7	26.3	...	...	21.6	9.8	8.4	7.4	10.9	12.0	...	...	10.7	5.8	4.9	5.0	8.9	10.0	...	...	7.2	4.7	3.4	2.9	5.6	7.6	...	...	5.0
Colombia [b]	Total	9.3	8.0	11.8	19.2	17.2	15.1	13.3	...	19.7	16.2	24.3	36.6	32.0	29.7	27.4	...	8.3	7.6	11.8	17.8	17.0	15.4	13.7	...	4.2	4.7	6.5	13.2	11.4	10	8.7	...	3.8	3.3	5.8	10.3	10.1	8.3	7.1	...
	Males	6.7	5.4	9.7	16.2	14.8	12.6	11.0	...	15.3	11.9	20.7	32.0	28.7	25.6	23.7	...	5.5	4.4	8.6	14.0	13.4	11.3	10.4	...	2.8	3.4	5.4	10.5	9.2	7.7	6.3	...	3.7	2.9	6.1	10.6	10.4	8.6	7.1	...
	Females	13	11.6	14.7	23.0	20.0	18.1	16.0	...	24.8	21.0	28.3	41.6	35.6	34.3	31.6	...	11.8	11.6	15.6	22.1	20.9	19.8	17.2	...	6.2	6.3	7.9	16.4	13.8	12.5	11.2	...	3.9	4.2	5.1	9.7	9.7	8.0	6.9	...
Costa Rica	Total	5.3	4.2	5.8	6.1	6.8	6.7	6.9	6.0	10.5	9.7	13.0	14.8	16.4	15.0	15.9	15.5	4.9	3.8	4.4	5.3	5.1	5.2	4.8	5.1	2.5	2.3	3.9	3.0	3.7	4.6	4.9	2.7	2.9	1.6	3.0	2.3	3.3	3.6	3.8	2.7
	Males	4.9	3.7	5.3	5.3	6.2	5.7	5.6	4.5	9.8	8.6	11.4	14.8	14.7	13.2	13.2	12.2	4.1	3.7	3.6	3.8	4.4	4.0	3.2	3.0	2.3	1.5	3.9	2.1	3.0	3.1	4.0	1.4	3.1	1.6	3.1	1.9	3.4	3.8	3.5	2.6
	Females	6.2	5.1	6.7	7.4	7.7	8.1	8.8	8.2	11.6	11.6	16.2	14.9	19.0	18.0	20.0	20.2	6.2	4.0	5.6	7.4	6.0	7.1	7.2	7.9	2.8	3.5	4.0	4.2	4.6	6.5	6.0	4.4	2.3	1.5	2.8	3.2	3.3	3.1	4.2	2.8
Cuba [c]	Total	5.4	6.5	7.1	6.3	2.3	2.0	2.3	2.0	...	...	...	...	6.4	5.3	5.1	3.7	...	...	...	...	3.4	2.9	3.3	3.2	...	...	...	...	1.7	1.6	2.1	1.9	...	...	...	...	0.8	0.6	0.8	0.8
	Males	3.6	5.3	4.7	4.3	1.9	1.9	2.2	2.0	...	...	...	...	6.1	5.1	5.3	3.9	...	...	...	...	2.8	2.7	3.3	3.1	...	...	...	...	1.3	1.6	1.9	1.7	...	...	...	...	0.6	0.6	0.9	0.9
	Females	8.5	8.7	11.2	9.6	2.9	2.1	2.3	2.1	...	...	...	...	6.8	5.5	4.6	3.4	...	...	...	...	4.2	3.2	3.3	3.3	...	...	...	...	2.3	1.5	2.3	2.2	...	...	...	...	1.1	0.7	0.7	0.7
Ecuador	Total	6.1	7.1	9.2	14.2	9.1	9.9	7.7	7.7	13.5	14.9	18.9	25.9	17.4	20.5	15.5	16.3	6.4	6.6	9.7	13.6	9.2	9.5	8.3	7.5	2.7	3.9	4.7	9.0	5.9	6.3	5.8	4.5	1.3	2.7	3.8	8.3	5.2	5.4	3.5	4.4
	Males	4.2	5.7	6.9	10.5	5.8	7.5	5.6	5.3	11.2	12.7	15.1	20.0	12.0	16.8	12.2	12.2	3.2	4.4	6.4	8.0	4.7	6.1	5.1	4.3	1.7	3.1	3.6	5.5	3.1	3.6	3.6	2.2	1.3	2.9	3.4	8.6	4.3	4.9	2.9	3.5
	Females	9.2	9.2	12.6	19.5	13.9	13.4	10.8	11.0	17.2	17.8	24.5	33.9	25.5	25.7	20.6	22.9	11.3	9.8	14.3	21.3	15.3	14.0	12.5	11.7	4.5	5.2	6.3	13.6	9.8	9.9	8.4	7.2	1.4	2.2	4.6	7.7	6.7	6.3	4.5	5.7
El Salvador	Total	9.9	6.8	7.3	6.9	6.2	6.5	...	...	19.3	14.0	14.6	13.9	11.7	12.7	...	...	9.2	6.8	7.7	6.1	5.9	6.4	...	...	5.7	2.6	4.4	4.4	4.5	4.5	...	...	4.3	3.4	3.5	3.8	3.9	3.8	...	...
	Males	10.0	8.3	8.8	8.9	8.6	8.8	...	...	17.7	15.4	16.1	16.2	14.2	14.9	...	...	8.4	7.5	8.1	6.0	7.3	8.4	...	...	7.0	3.7	6.1	6.0	6.9	6.6	...	...	6.5	5.4	5.4	6.1	6.7	6.2	...	...
	Females	9.7	4.9	5.5	4.6	3.5	3.8	...	...	21.3	11.9	12.4	10.6	8.4	9.6	...	...	10.0	6.0	7.2	5.1	4.3	4.1	...	...	4.3	1.5	2.5	2.6	2.0	2.3	...	...	1.3	0.6	0.8	1.0	0.8	0.8	...	...
Guatemala	Total	3.5	...	...	2.8	6.0	...	...	...	7.1	...	...	4.8	11.1	...	...	...	2.9	...	...	3.8	3.8	...	...	...	1.6	...	...	1.8	3.2	...	...	...	1.2	...	...	0.9	3.4	...	...	...
	Males	3.3	...	...	3.6	5.2	...	...	...	7.2	...	...	6.0	8.2	...	...	...	2.6	...	...	4.5	3.3	...	...	...	1.5	...	...	2.4	2.7	...	...	...	1.4	...	...	1.3	5.1	...	...	...
	Females	3.8	...	...	1.9	7.0	...	...	...	7.0	...	...	3.4	14.6	...	...	...	3.4	...	...	2.8	4.6	...	...	...	1.8	...	...	1.0	3.8	...	...	...	0.9	...	...	0.4	0.9	...	...	...
Honduras	Total	6.9	4.1	5.2	5.3	7.5	...	...	4.7	11.2	7.1	8.9	9.0	12.0	...	...	7.7	7.0	3.6	5.4	4.7	8.9	...	...	5.1	4.3	3.1	2.9	2.9	4.4	...	...	3.0	3.7	1.3	2.3	3.0	3.6	...	...	2.6
	Males	7.6	4.5	5.9	6.2	7.2	...	...	4.3	11.5	7.5	9.2	10.3	10.9	...	...	6.7	6.6	3.7	5.6	5.3	7.8	...	...	4.2	6.0	4.1	4.5	3.6	5.0	...	...	2.9	5.3	2.0	3.4	4.3	4.2	...	...	3.3
	Females	5.9	3.4	4.3	4.0	7.8	...	...	5.1	10.7	6.6	8.5	7.4	13.4	...	...	9.0	7.6	3.6	5.2	4.1	10.2	...	...	6.3	2.0	1.3	0.8	2.2	3.8	...	...	3.1	0.7	0.1	0.7	1.1	2.7	...	...	1.5

Table 22 (concluded)

OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND AGE IN URBAN AREAS, AROUND 1990, 1994, 1997, 1999, 2003, 2004. 2005 AND 2006 [a]

Country	Sex	Age group																																									
		Total								15 - 24								25 - 34								35 - 44								45 and over							
		1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	2006	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	2006	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	2006	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	2006	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	2006
Mexico	Total	3.3	4.5	5.1	3.2	3.4	4.1	4.1	3.7	8.1	9.4	12.5	7.4	7.2	9.7	9.8	9.0	2.4	2.9	3.2	2.8	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.3	0.7	2.3	1.7	1.5	1.5	2.0	1.9	1.5	0.8	3.1	2.8	1.1	1.8	2.0	2.2	2.1
	Males	3.4	5.1	5.8	3.6	3.9	4.7	4.9	4.3	8.4	10.0	13.8	8.1	8.2	10.6	11.3	10.2	2.5	3.0	3.4	3.1	3.9	4.2	3.9	3.2	0.9	2.8	2.1	1.8	1.6	2.4	2.6	1.7	1.0	4.2	3.9	1.5	2.2	2.7	3.1	3.0
	Females	3.1	3.6	3.9	2.6	2.6	3.1	2.9	2.8	7.6	8.3	10.3	6.2	5.4	8.3	7.4	7.0	2.0	2.7	2.9	2.3	2.9	2.7	3.4	3.3	0.2	1.2	1.0	0.8	1.3	1.6	1.0	1.4	0.1	0.4	0.5	0.4	1.0	3.1	0.6	0.7
Nicaragua	Total	...	14.1	13.1	13.8	12.5	...	...	...	...	20.1	20.9	20.9	21.5	...	...	...	...	14.5	13.7	11.0	10.2	...	...	...	...	11.1	9.2	12.3	9.7	...	...	...	...	10.6	7.4	10.5	6.3	...	...	...
	Males	...	16.5	13.6	14.0	13.1	...	...	...	...	20.3	18.9	17.9	21.8	...	...	...	...	17.3	13.2	10.3	10.7	...	...	...	...	13.5	11.2	14.3	9.6	...	...	...	...	13.9	10.1	12.9	6.6	...	...	...
	Females	...	10.8	12.6	13.6	11.7	...	...	...	...	19.7	23.8	25.8	20.9	...	...	...	...	10.6	14.3	11.7	9.6	...	...	...	...	7.9	7.2	9.9	9.8	...	...	...	...	6.3	3.9	7.0	5.8	...	...	...
Panama	Total	20.0	15.8	15.4	13.6	19.4	14.0	12.1	10.4	38.8	31.1	31.5	28.3	35.1	30.0	26.3	23.4	21.7	15.8	14.9	13.5	17.6	13.8	12.2	11.0	10.4	9.6	9.7	8.4	11.3	9.3	7.8	7.0	8.1	6.2	6.9	5.9	17.1	7.0	6.4	4.7
	Males	17.9	13.0	13.3	11.4	16.5	11.5	10.0	8.6	37.0	28.9	29.2	24.3	31.7	26.8	23.1	19.4	17.8	10.5	10.9	9.7	14.1	9.6	9.3	7.9	8.4	7.1	7.5	6.5	8.3	6.3	5.1	5.4	9.1	6.1	7.4	6.8	14.3	6.5	6.2	5.4
	Females	22.8	19.7	18.2	16.7	23.5	17.6	15.0	13.0	41.0	34.4	34.6	33.6	40.3	34.8	30.9	29.1	26.5	22.5	20.1	19.0	22.0	19.1	15.9	15.3	12.7	12.9	12.2	10.5	15.3	13.0	11.2	9.2	6.4	6.3	6.0	4.5	21.1	7.8	6.6	3.7
Paraguay	Total	6.3	4.4	8.4	10.1	11.5	10.5	8.0	...	15.5	8.3	17.8	19.5	21.4	20.0	17.4	...	4.8	3.2	5.2	6.7	11.8	7.8	6.0	...	2.3	2.9	3.4	5.9	4.5	5.5	4.1	...	1.4	2.6	5.8	8.4	6.4	8.3	5.2	...
(Asunción)	Males	6.2	5.1	8.2	10.2	11.0	8.8	7.0	...	14.7	9.9	17.4	21.6	21.0	16.1	16.8	...	5.0	3.4	4.2	5.2	9.5	7.5	2.3	...	3.2	3.1	1.9	6.2	3.0	3.0	3.1	...	2.0	3.9	7.6	8.8	8.5	8.7	6.9	...
	Females	6.5	3.5	8.7	10.1	12.1	12.5	9.2	...	16.5	6.5	18.2	17.1	21.8	24.2	18.0	...	4.7	3.0	6.5	8.8	14.3	8.3	9.9	...	1.1	2.6	5.1	5.5	6.2	8.8	5.5	...	0.0	0.7	3.4	7.7	3.9	7.9	3.3	...
Peru	Total	...	...	10.7	7.3	6.8	...	...	...	...	...	18.2	15.3	15.4	...	...	...	...	...	7.4	5.5	3.9	...	...	...	...	...	6.0	4.1	2.8	...	...	...	...	...	10.5	4.5	5.5	...	...	...
	Males	...	...	8.1	7.0	7.3	...	...	...	...	...	15.3	15.3	18.0	...	...	...	...	...	4.8	4.7	3.8	...	...	...	...	...	2.6	3.8	2.6	...	...	...	...	...	9.0	5.0	5.1	...	...	...
	Females	...	...	13.8	7.7	6.2	...	...	...	...	...	21.3	15.2	12.1	...	...	...	...	...	10.3	6.3	4.1	...	...	...	...	...	9.7	4.5	2.9	...	...	...	...	...	13.0	3.7	6.1	...	...	...
Dominican	Total	19.7	17.0	17.0	13.8	17.8	20.4	18.6	16.8	34.1	30.6	27.8	18.8	31.8	36.3	34.2	32.2	17.3	16.1	15.7	13.7	18.0	18.0	20.0	17.7	9.2	10.0	10.2	13.3	13.6	15.0	14.1	11.9	7.4	7.4	8.7	9.4	7.9	12.7	5.6	6.5
Republic	Males	11.3	12.1	10.9	8.8	12.0	12.6	12.1	10.6	22.3	24.0	20.0	12.9	24.8	26.6	26.6	24.1	9.2	10.4	8.0	8.0	10.2	8.7	11.5	10.3	5.0	6.3	6.9	7.5	7.0	6.8	6.5	6.4	4.0	5.8	6.1	7.1	6.9	8.5	4.2	3.4
	Females	31.5	24.8	26.0	20.7	25.8	30.5	27.4	25.1	47.3	39.9	38.2	27.1	41.5	49.4	44.9	42.6	27.7	23.4	25.5	20.4	27.1	28.3	30.7	26.8	15.8	15.5	15.0	20.0	21.9	24.4	23.5	18.2	15.4	11.5	14.8	14.0	9.8	19.7	8.0	11.9
Uruguay	Total	8.9	9.7	11.4	11.2	16.9	13.0	12.1	...	24.4	24.7	26.3	25.8	37.9	33.0	29.2	...	8.2	8.4	10.5	10.0	16.4	12.9	12.8	...	4.3	5.5	7.1	7.2	12.1	8.0	8.2	...	3.5	3.8	5.3	6.1	9.6	6.8	6.2	...
	Males	7.3	7.3	8.9	8.6	13.4	10.2	9.5	...	22.2	19.8	21.8	21.4	32.0	27.9	25.1	...	6.0	4.9	7.5	7.2	12.7	9.0	8.7	...	2.5	3.4	4.4	3.7	7.8	4.6	5.1	...	3.0	3.4	4.4	4.9	7.7	5.4	4.8	...
	Females	11.1	13.0	14.7	14.5	21.1	16.6	15.3	...	27.5	31.5	32.7	31.9	46.1	40.2	34.7	...	11.0	12.8	14.3	13.5	20.9	17.6	17.5	...	6.4	7.8	10.2	11.1	16.8	12.0	11.4	...	4.4	4.5	6.7	7.7	12.1	8.6	7.9	...
Venezuela	Total	10.2	8.9	10.6	14.5	16.8	13.9	11.4	9.3	19.3	17.1	19.8	25.7	28.0	23.0	19.8	17.0	11.3	9.1	10.6	14.7	17.6	14.3	11.8	10.0	5.9	5.3	6.8	10.2	11.9	9.9	8.0	6.6	4.5	4.2	5.5	7.8	10.7	9.9	7.6	5.6
(Bolivarian	Males	11.2	9.1	9.0	13.6	14.4	12..3	10.3	8.2	19.9	17.2	16.4	22.2	23.7	19.6	17.3	14.3	12.3	8.8	8.3	12.8	13.4	11.5	9.6	7.8	6.9	5.9	5.7	10.1	10.1	8.4	7.4	5.8	5.5	4.9	5.6	9.4	11.2	10.6	8.2	6.2
Republic of) [d]	Females	8.4	8.3	13.6	16.1	20.3	16.4	13.0	11.1	18.0	17.0	26.6	32.6	34.8	28.6	24.1	22.0	9.6	9.6	14.3	17.7	23.3	18.4	15.1	13.2	4.0	4.2	8.5	10.4	14.4	12.0	8.9	7.7	1.7	2.5	5.3	4.7	9.8	8.7	6.5	4.8

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted In the relevant countries.

[a] For the exact years of the surveys in each country, see table 21.

[b] As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[c] National Statistical Office (ONE), Cuba; 1990-1999, total unemployment (urban and rural), 2003-2006, urban unemployment; on the basis of tabulations of data from the National Occupation Survey, 1990-1999.

[d] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas. and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 23

OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND YEARS OF SCHOOLING, IN URBAN AREAS, AROUND 1990, 1994, 1997, 1999, 2003, 2004, 2005 AND 2006 [a]

Country	Sex	Years of schooling																																							
		Total								0 - 5								6 - 9								10 - 12								13 and over							
		1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	2006	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	2006	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	2006	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	2006	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	2006
Argentina [b]	Total	5.9	13.0	14.3	14.7	19.0	13.5	10.6	10.5	6.8	14.0	16.8	17.0	17.1	15.1	9.7	9.5	5.9	...	16.6	17.4	20.7	15.3	12.0	11.8	3.0	15.0	14.4	14.5	21.5	16.0	12.8	12.8	...	7.7	9.4	10.2	14.3	8.0	6.7	6.9
(Greater	Males	5.7	11.5	12.4	13.4	18.5	11.9	9.2	8.2	6.1	13.1	15.6	19.4	23.5	15.9	10.2	8.9	4.7	...	15.7	15.8	20.6	12.7	10.6	9.8	3.4	12.1	9.8	12.2	18.5	13.8	9.9	8.5	...	5.9	7.6	8.1	13.4	6.5	5.8	5.3
Buenos Aires)	Females	6.4	15.5	17.2	16.5	19.5	15.8	12.5	13.4	8.5	15.8	18.7	13.5	6.5	13.8	8.7	10.3	7.4	...	18.4	20.5	20.9	19.6	14.2	15.2	2.5	19.7	21.3	17.8	25.2	19.3	17.0	18.4	...	9.5	11.3	12.0	15.1	9.4	7.5	8.2
Bolivia	Total	9.4	3.2	3.7	7.1	6.4	6.0	...	...	7.1	2.4	2.7	3.4	4.2	12.0	...	...	9.3	2.8	2.1	7.9	7.3	5.2	...	...	13.1	3.7	5.4	10.5	7.5	3.3	...	...	8.1	3.8	4.1	6.0	7.0	3.3	...	...
	Males	9.5	3.4	3.7	6.0	5.2	4.9	...	...	9.0	3.1	3.2	2.8	4.0	10.1	...	...	8.2	3.1	1.8	7.0	5.9	3.3	...	...	12.5	3.9	4.6	7.5	6.0	2.0	...	...	7.9	3.1	4.7	5.5	4.6	3.9	...	...
	Females	9.1	2.9	3.7	8.5	7.9	7.3	...	...	5.4	1.7	2.3	3.9	4.4	14.5	...	...	11.1	2.4	2.6	9.2	9.2	7.5	...	...	14.1	3.4	6.8	15.7	9.8	4.8	...	...	8.4	5.0	3.1	6.7	10.0	2.7	...	...
Brazil	Total	4.5	7.4	8.0	11.4	11.1	10.2	10.7	9.5	4.2	6.5	7.5	9.9	9.2	8.3	8.3	7.6	6.2	11.0	11.3	15.6	15.0	13.5	14.6	12.5	4.5	7.3	7.5	12.2	12.4	11.8	12.0	10.9	1.8	3.3	3.4	5.2	5.2	4.8	5.4	4.9
	Males	4.8	6.4	6.7	9.4	9.0	8.0	8.3	7.4	4.8	5.9	6.5	8.5	7.8	6.5	6.6	6.2	6.2	8.8	9.0	12.7	12.3	10.5	11.4	9.8	4.6	5.9	5.8	9.5	9.3	8.9	8.7	8.0	1.6	2.4	2.6	4.0	4.5	4.0	4.7	3.7
	Females	3.9	8.9	10.0	14.1	13.8	13.0	13.7	12.1	3.1	7.4	9.2	12.1	11.6	11.1	11.1	9.7	6.2	14.4	14.8	20.1	19.1	17.8	19.2	16.5	4.5	8.8	9.3	14.9	15.7	14.8	15.6	14.0	2.1	4.2	4.2	6.4	5.9	5.5	5.9	6.0
Chile	Total	8.7	6.8	6.0	10.1	10.1	...	...	7.6	9.3	5.9	6.7	12.8	10.8	...	...	7.0	10.1	8.1	6.7	12.2	10.6	...	...	7.6	9.2	7.8	6.6	10.2	11.2	...	...	8.5	6.3	4.4	4.0	7.1	7.5	...	...	6.2
	Males	8.1	5.9	5.1	9.4	8.5	...	...	6.3	9.3	5.8	6.8	14.0	10.5	...	...	6.7	10.3	7.4	5.9	12.1	9.6	...	...	6.0	7.9	6.5	5.2	8.7	8.9	...	...	6.7	4.9	3.3	3.4	5.7	6.2	...	...	5.5
	Females	9.7	8.4	7.3	11.2	12.4	...	...	9.5	9.2	6.2	6.6	10.7	11.4	...	...	7.6	9.5	9.6	8.1	12.5	12.3	...	...	10.2	11.7	10.2	9.1	12.5	14.7	...	...	11.1	8.0	6.0	4.8	8.8	9.4	...	...	7.1
Colombia [c]	Total	9.3	8.0	11.8	19.2	17.2	15.1	13.3	...	6.6	6.2	9.3	15.3	13.1	11.0	9.1	...	11.3	9.7	14.5	23.2	19.3	16.2	13.9	...	12.4	10.2	14.7	23.2	21.1	18.6	17.0	...	7.4	5.2	7.6	14.1	16.1	15.2	13.1	...
	Males	6.7	5.4	9.7	16.2	14.8	12.6	11.0	...	5.1	4.7	8.7	13.8	11.4	9.7	8.0	...	8.2	6.3	11.5	19.2	16.9	12.9	11.5	...	8.1	6.5	11.4	18.6	17.6	15.1	13.8	...	0.6	3.4	5.9	12.4	14.5	13.3	11.2	...
	Females	13.0	11.6	14.7	23.0	20.0	18.1	16.0	...	9.0	8.5	10.4	17.4	15.4	12.8	10.7	...	16.3	14.9	18.6	28.2	22.2	20.5	17.0	...	17.6	14.6	18.4	28.2	24.9	22.4	20.5	...	9.1	7.3	9.6	16.0	17.6	17.0	14.9	...
Costa Rica	Total	5.3	4.2	5.8	6.1	6.8	6.7	6.9	6.0	6.4	5.0	5.5	9.2	9.7	7.8	8.0	7.6	6.0	5	7.3	7.8	8.4	7.7	8.5	7.4	5.7	4.1	6.1	4.7	6.2	7.6	7.3	6.3	3.0	2.7	3.4	2.8	3.4	3.8	3.5	3.1
	Males	4.9	3.7	5.3	5.3	6.2	5.7	5.6	4.5	6.9	4.3	4.8	6.8	11.1	7.4	7.4	6.5	5.4	3.7	6.4	7.1	7.3	6.6	6.8	5.1	4.6	4.3	5.4	3.6	4.6	5.8	5.4	5.0	2.3	2.7	3.2	2.1	2.7	3.4	2.5	1.9
	Females	6.2	5.1	6.7	7.4	7.7	8.1	8.8	8.2	5.2	6.6	7.2	13.3	7.1	8.6	9.3	9.7	7.3	7.5	8.9	9.3	10.4	9.9	11.6	11.4	7.2	3.9	7.1	6.1	8.3	10.2	9.9	8.0	3.9	2.6	3.6	3.6	4.1	4.3	4.5	4.4
Cuba [d]	Total	5.4	6.5	7.1	6.3	2.3	2.0	2.3	2.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.7
	Males	3.6	5.3	4.7	4.3	1.9	1.9	2.2	2.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.8
	Females	8.5	8.7	11.2	9.6	2.9	2.1	2.3	2.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.6
Ecuador	Total	6.1	7.1	9.2	14.2	9.1	9.9	7.7	7.7	2.6	5.0	5.9	9.0	7.5	8.7	5.9	7.3	4.8	5.7	7.8	13.8	9.4	10.3	7.0	6.7	10.3	10.2	12.9	19.0	11.1	12.4	10.2	9.5	6.1	6.7	8.1	11.5	7.3	7.5	6.8	7.1
	Males	4.2	5.7	6.9	10.5	5.8	7.5	5.6	5.3	3.0	4.9	6.0	8.5	6.1	8.6	3.4	4.9	3.3	4.9	6.4	10.9	5.7	7.4	4.9	4.6	6.8	7.8	9.2	12.8	6.6	8.8	7.4	6.6	4.2	4.9	5.4	7.7	5.0	5.6	5.4	5.2
	Females	9.2	9.2	12.6	19.5	13.9	13.4	10.8	11.0	2.0	5.0	5.9	9.5	9.4	8.8	9.4	10.2	8.0	7.3	10.5	18.8	15.8	15.2	10.4	10.3	14.9	13.6	18.3	27.0	17.2	17.3	14.3	13.9	8.7	9.0	11.7	16.1	10.3	13.4	8.3	9.2
El Salvador	Total	9.9	6.8	7.3	6.9	6.2	6.5	...	...	8.1	6.0	5.3	4.9	5.4	6.0	...	...	9.9	6.8	8.0	7.4	5.9	6.9	...	...	14.6	9.2	9.6	9.3	8.2	7.0	...	...	7.6	4.9	6.4	6.1	4.9	6.1	...	...
	Males	10.0	8.3	8.8	8.9	8.6	8.8	...	...	11.0	9.2	8.8	7.8	9.8	10.8	...	...	9.1	8.1	9.4	9.4	8.6	9.0	...	...	11.8	9.6	9.8	11.0	9.6	8.2	...	...	6.9	4.7	5.5	6.5	5.2	6.4	...	...
	Females	9.7	4.9	5.5	4.6	3.5	3.8	...	...	5.2	2.6	1.6	1.9	1.3	1.3	...	...	11.2	4.8	5.8	4.7	2.2	3.6	...	...	17.8	8.7	9.3	7.3	6.6	5.5	...	...	8.6	5.2	7.4	5.7	4.5	5.8	...	...
Guatemala	Total	3.5	...	...	2.8	6.0	...	...	...	2.3	...	...	1.7	2.0	...	...	...	4.3	...	...	2.9	7.0	...	...	...	5.9	...	...	5.4	9.1	...	...	...	2.3	...	...	1.7	6.9	...	...	...
	Males	3.3	...	...	3.6	5.2	...	...	...	2.3	...	...	3.0	1.5	...	...	...	4.1	...	...	4.1	5.8	...	...	...	5.3	...	...	5.1	8.2	...	...	...	2.3	...	...	0.8	5.8	...	...	...
	Females	3.8	...	...	1.9	7.0	...	...	...	2.3	...	...	0.3	2.6	...	...	...	4.7	...	...	1.1	8.8	...	...	...	6.5	...	...	5.8	10.3	...	...	...	2.3	...	...	3.3	8.8	...	...	...
Honduras	Total	6.9	4.1	5.2	5.3	7.5	...	...	4.7	5.1	3.0	4.8	4.8	5.5	...	...	3.0	7.7	5.0	5.4	6.3	7.3	...	...	4.3	9.3	4.4	6.3	4.3	9.6	...	...	6.8	6.3	2.8	3.6	4.0	9.0	...	...	5.6
	Males	7.6	4.5	5.9	6.2	7.2	...	...	4.3	7.3	3.8	6.6	7.0	5.8	...	...	3.0	8.1	5.9	6.0	6.9	8.0	...	...	3.9	8.0	3.8	5.9	4.9	7.6	...	...	6.4	5.3	2.3	3.3	3.3	7.1	...	...	5.7
	Females	5.9	3.4	4.3	4.0	7.8	...	...	5.1	1.7	1.7	2.2	2.0	5.1	...	...	2.9	6.9	3.5	4.5	5.5	6.3	...	...	4.8	10.6	5.3	6.7	3.8	11.4	...	...	7.2	7.8	3.6	4.0	5.0	11.2	...	...	5.5

Table 23 (concluded)

OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND YEARS OF SCHOOLING, IN URBAN AREAS, AROUND 1990, 1994, 1997, 1999, 2003, 2004, 2005 AND 2006 [a]

Country	Sex	Years of schooling																																							
		Total								0 - 5								6 - 9								10 - 12								13 and over							
		1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	2006	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	2006	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	2006	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	2006	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	2006
Mexico	Total	3.3	4.5	5.1	3.2	3.4	4.1	4.1	3.7	1.3	3.9	3.5	2.1	1.9	2.9	3.2	3.7	4.3	5.0	5.8	2.6	2.8	4.3	4.3	3.8	3.8	4.9	5.2	3.7	3.7	4.9	4.0	3.8	2.4	2.6	4.6	3.9	4.4	3.7	4.3	3.4
	Males	3.4	5.1	5.8	3.6	3.9	4.7	4.9	4.3	1.6	5.4	4.8	3.2	2.8	4.2	5.0	4.8	4.4	5.7	6.7	3.0	3.5	4.9	5.1	4.7	4.4	5.3	5.7	4.0	4.1	5.4	4.9	4.6	2.1	2.8	4.2	3.9	4.6	4.0	4.2	3.1
	Females	3.1	3.6	3.9	2.6	2.6	3.1	2.9	2.8	0.4	1.2	1.2	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.6	2.2	4.0	3.7	4.3	1.9	1.7	3.1	2.8	2.3	2.7	4.2	4.2	3.2	3.1	4.3	2.9	2.9	3.3	5.2	5.5	3.9	4.1	3.4	4.3	3.8
Nicaragua	Total	...	14.1	13.1	13.8	12.5	...	...	...	...	14.1	10.9	11.8	8.7	...	...	...	...	15.0	14.3	14.2	14.3	...	...	...	...	12.6	14.9	18.5	16.6	...	...	...	...	13.6	11.6	12.4	11.5	...	...	...
	Males	...	16.5	13.6	14.0	13.1	...	...	...	...	16.4	12.5	13.8	9.1	...	...	...	...	16.8	14.7	13.0	15.4	...	...	...	...	14.8	15.1	19.2	19.5	...	...	...	...	19.2	10.7	10.8	9.8	...	...	...
	Females	...	10.8	12.6	13.6	11.7	...	...	...	...	11.1	9.0	9.0	8.0	...	...	...	...	12.0	13.8	16.2	12.5	...	...	...	...	10.2	14.7	17.8	14.1	...	...	...	...	4.8	12.7	14.0	13.6	...	...	...
Panama	Total	20.0	15.8	15.4	13.6	19.4	14.0	12.1	10.4	15.5	11.5	12.1	9.3	40.3	9.1	6.2	4.4	19.8	15.5	16.6	15.5	19.1	13.6	11.3	10.1	25.3	19.8	18.2	16.0	20.2	16.9	14.7	13.2	15.2	12.2	11.3	9.7	13.2	12.5	11.3	8.9
	Males	17.9	13.0	13.3	11.4	16.5	11.5	10.0	8.6	16.3	13.3	13.6	9.4	34.1	9.3	6.9	4.7	18.2	13.5	15.6	14.2	16.9	12.4	10.2	9.8	21.0	14.4	14.4	11.8	16.2	12.8	11.9	9.7	13.5	10.0	8.2	7.2	9.9	8.9	8.1	6.3
	Females	22.8	19.7	18.2	16.7	23.5	17.6	15.0	13.0	14.1	7.8	9.1	9.1	49.7	8.8	4.8	3.8	22.4	19.1	18.4	17.9	23.4	16.0	13.3	10.8	30.4	27.0	23.5	21.6	25.5	22.7	18.6	18.3	16.8	14.5	14.2	12.2	16.1	15.6	14.2	11.2
Paraguay	Total	6.3	4.4	8.4	10.1	11.5	10.5	8.0	...	7.0	9.2	7.8	16.3	10.3	8.2	7.7	...	6.4	5.2	9.4	9.8	12.5	10.4	9.2	...	8.4	4.5	10.6	11.1	13.8	13.5	8.2	...	3.7	1.3	3.4	5.3	7.8	7.6	6.1	...
(Asunción)	Males	6.2	5.1	8.2	10.2	11.0	8.8	7.0	...	4.2	7.6	9.3	19.8	9.5	9.0	10.5	...	6.7	6.2	9.0	9.8	13.9	8.6	9.7	...	7.9	4.1	8.8	9.9	13.9	10.0	5.1	...	2.9	1.1	3.4	7.1	4.9	6.8	3.8	...
	Females	6.5	3.5	8.7	10.1	12.1	12.5	9.2	...	4.7	2.5	5.9	12.0	11.0	7.2	5.2	...	6.0	3.8	9.8	9.7	13.7	12.7	5.6	...	9.1	4.9	12.9	12.8	13.7	18.4	12.46	...	4.8	1.5	3.5	12.0	10.8	12.5	8.3	...
Peru	Total	...	...	10.7	7.3	6.8	...	...	...	...	...	9.4	4.9	3.3	...		...	...	...	11.5	10.0	9.8	...		...	...	...	12.8	7.1	7.8	...		...	...	...	8.1	7.7	6.3	...		...
	Males	...	...	8.1	7.0	7.3	...	...	...	...	...	7.5	5.8	3.4	...		...	...	...	10.4	10.1	10.7	...		...	...	...	8.9	7.0	7.4	...		...	...	...	5.6	5.8	7.5	...		...
	Females	...	...	13.8	7.7	6.2	...	...	...	...	...	11	4.1	3.3	...		...	...	...	12.9	9.8	8.7	...		...	...	...	18.2	7.3	8.5	...		...	...	...	11.4	10.2	4.8	...		...
Dominican	Total	19.7	17.0	17.0	13.8	17.8	20.4	18.6	16.8	15.6	13.6	15.3	12.0	15.0	18.1	14.6	11.33	19.6	18.7	18.9	13.5	18.8	20.7	19.0	17.4	25.2	21.4	18.1	16.4	21.5	25.3	23.47	22.3	16.6	13.4	15.1	12.9	14.9	16.5	15.4	14.3
Republic	Males	11.3	12.1	10.9	8.8	12.0	12.6	12.1	10.6	7.0	10.2	10.4	8.5	9.6	9.9	9.0	6.3	11.1	12.8	11.2	8.3	12.8	11.4	11.8	10.9	15.5	14.3	11.5	9.1	14.5	16.5	15.0	14.6	11.2	10.9	10.0	9.8	10.5	12.5	12.2	9.3
	Females	31.5	24.8	26.0	20.7	25.8	30.5	27.4	25.1	30.5	21.3	24.8	18.7	24.7	31.9	24.8	20.4	34.7	29.8	32.7	22.4	29.8	35.3	30.9	28.8	37.2	30.5	26.2	25.1	30.3	36.1	34.2	31.9	21.8	16.1	19.5	15.8	18.8	20.0	18.33	18.3
Uruguay	Total	8.9	9.7	11.4	11.2	16.9	13.0	12.1	...	5.6	5.7	8.1	8.9	13.2	10.9	10.3	...	10.2	12.4	13.2	13.1	19.1	14.7	13.9	...	10.0	9.5	11.8	11.4	17.8	14.3	12.8	...	5.9	4.9	6.8	6.3	12.2	8.8	8.5	...
	Males	7.3	7.3	8.9	8.6	13.4	10.2	9.5	...	5.6	5.2	6.7	7.4	10.6	8.3	7.6	...	8.4	9.1	10.1	9.8	15.1	10.8	10.6	...	7.5	6.1	8.9	8.6	13.3	11.3	9.6	...	4.4	4.0	4.8	4.3	10.2	7.7	7.2	...
	Females	11.1	13.0	14.7	14.5	21.1	16.6	15.3	...	5.6	6.5	10.7	11.9	18.3	15.6	15.3	...	13.0	17.5	18.1	18.2	25.3	20.8	18.9	...	12.8	13.3	14.9	14.5	22.7	17.8	16.3	...	7.2	5.6	8.3	7.8	13.8	9.8	9.4	...
Venezuela	Total	10.2	8.9	10.6	14.5	16.8	13.9	11.4	9.3	9.7	7.9	9.4	11.7	13.4	12.0	9.3	7.5	12.1	9.8	11.0	15.5	17.3	14.2	11.4	9.1	9.3	9.1	12.7	16.2	18.8	15.3	12.7	11	6.1	6.7	8.4	12.7	16.6	13.3	11.3	9.0
(Bolivarian	Males	11.2	9.1	9.0	13.6	14.4	12.3	10.3	8.2	11.4	8.2	7.9	12.2	12.1	11.2	8.7	7.3	12.9	10.4	9.5	14.8	14.8	12.7	10.7	8.4	9.7	9.0	10.6	13.7	16.0	13.0	11.2	9.3	5.6	5.9	6.6	11.2	14.3	11.8	9.7	7.3
Republic of) [e]	Females	8.4	8.3	13.6	16.1	20.3	16.4	13	11.1	5.4	7.1	13.4	10.6	16.2	13.9	10.5	8.3	10.1	8.5	14.3	17.0	21.6	17.1	12.5	10.7	8.7	9.2	15.5	19.7	22.3	18.3	14.9	13.3	6.7	7.8	10.4	14.0	18.6	14.6	12.7	10.5

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted In the relevant countries.

[a] For the exact years of the surveys in each country, see table 21.

[b] For 1990, the levels of schooling for which figures are given are 0 to 6 years, 7 to 9 years and 10 or more years, respectively. For 1994, however, the 0 to 5 category actually refers to between 0 and 9 years of schooling.

[c] As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban and rural areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[d] National Statistical Office (ONE), Cuba; 1990-1999, total unemployment (urban and rural), 2003-2006, urban unemployment; on the basis of tabulations of data from the National Occupation Survey.

[e] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas. and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

WAGES

Table 24

AVERAGE INCOME OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(In multiples of the relevant per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary 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	6.4	20.6	4.7	…	4.7	9.4	4.5	3.6	2.5	7.9	7.2
	1994	8.6	28.3	6.4	…	6.4	10.2	5.7	4.7	3.3	10.8	9.1
	1997	7.2	24.2	5.6	…	5.6	9.4	4.8	3.7	2.6	8.6	6.5
	1999	6.4	22.0	5.1	6.2	4.8	8.5	4.9	3.5	2.4	7.3	8.1
	2002	4.7	20.9	3.5	3.3	3.5	6.7	3.1	2.1	1.7	5.6	4.1
	2004	5.0	17.1	4.0	4.0	4.0	6.8	4.0	2.9	1.7	6.6	5.1
	2005	5.7	24.6	4.4	5.1	4.2	6.9	4.2	3.1	1.8	7.0	5.8
	2006	5.9	21.0	4.8	5.7	4.6	7.4	4.9	3.4	1.7	7.4	6.2
Bolivia	1989	4.2	16.2	3.9	4.1	3.5	7.7	3.5	2.6	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
	2002	3.2	7.3	4.0	5.2	3.7	7.7	4.0	2.4	2.0	2.0	1.9
	2004	2.9	7.6	3.4	5.0	3.1	7.4	3.6	1.9	1.4	1.7	1.6
Brazil [c]	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
	2001	4.3	14.8	4.1	6.7	3.5	6.9	3.1 [d]	2.1	1.4	3.2	2.8
	2003	4.0	13.4	3.8	6.2	3.3	6.9	3.4 [d]	2.0	1.3	2.8	2.2
	2004	4.0	13.3	3.7	6.2	3.2	6.7	3.3 [d]	2.0	1.3	7.9	2.3
	2005	4.0	13.2	3.8	6.3	3.3	6.7	3.4 [d]	2.1	1.4	2.8	2.2
	2006	4.2	13.9	4.2	6.8	3.3	6.7	3.4 [d]	2.2	1.4	2.9	2.2
Chile [e]	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
	2000	7.2	32.7	5.8	7.4	5.5	13.3	4.1	3.0	2.4	7.1	5.2
	2003	7.4	36.7	5.7	7.7	5.3	12.4	4.0	2.9	2.4	7.8	5.8
	2006	6.6	26.9	5.5	7.7	5.1	11.5	4.1	3.1	2.3	7.5	5.6
Colombia [f]	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
	2002	3.0	7.2	3.6	6.4	3.1	6.3	3.0	…	1.7	1.8	1.5
	2004	3.1	7.6	3.7	6.1	3.3	7.0	3.0	…	1.8	1.8	1.6
	2005	3.3	8.6	3.8	6.6	3.4	6.8	3.2	…	1.9	1.9	1.7

Table 24 (continued)

AVERAGE INCOME OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(In multiples of the relevant per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary 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		
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
	2002	6.5	10.2	6.8	9.5	6.0	9.7	5.9	3.7	2.0	3.7	3.1
	2004	6.3	8.2	7.1	9.8	6.2	10.0	5.9	3.9	2.2	3.1	2.6
	2005	5.5	7.3	6.0	8.8	5.1	8.1	5.1	3.3	1.6	3.2	2.6
	2006	6.1	9.1	6.7	10.3	5.6	8.8	5.6	3.6	2.0	3.0	2.5
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
	2002	3.5	8.7	3.4	4.7	3.1	5.0	3.4	2.1	1.5	2.6	2.4
	2004	3.3	7.2	3.7	5.5	3.3	5.6	3.5	2.2	1.7	2.0	1.9
	2005	3.6	8.6	3.6	5.8	3.2	5.5	3.5	2.2	1.7	2.4	2.2
	2006	3.6	8.8	3.8	5.8	3.4	5.6	3.7	2.3	2.0	2.4	2.2
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
	2001	3.9	9.2	4.2	6.6	3.7	7.4	3.6	2.3	2.0	2.4	2.2
	2004	3.4	7.1	3.7	6.1	3.2	5.3	3.2	2.3	2.1	2.3	2.2
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	3.4	15.7	3.1	4.5	2.9	5.2	3.4	2.0	0.6	2.2	2.1
	2002	2.9	7.4	3.3	5.6	3.0	5.4	3.2	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.2
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
	2002	2.3	5.1	2.7	4.3	2.4	5.3	2.3	1.4	0.8	1.3	1.2
	2003	2.3	4.7	3.0	4.9	2.6	6.6	2.5	1.5	1.2	1.0	1.0
	2006	2.4	4.6	2.9	4.9	2.5	4.6	2.3	1.4	1.2	1.3	0.9
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
	2000	4.3	16.5	3.9	5.2	3.6	7.7	3.4	2.1	1.3	3.4	3.0
	2002	4.1	16.1	3.6	5.4	3.2	7.1	3.3	2.1	1.4	3.5	3.2
	2004	4.1	16.5	3.6	…	3.6	6.7	3.5	2.2	1.4	4.0	3.3
	2005	4.4	21.3	3.7	…	3.7	6.9	3.4	2.1	1.6	4.0	3.4
	2006	4.1	15.2	3.7	…	3.7	6.9	3.5	2.1	1.4	3.4	2.9

Table 24 (continued)

AVERAGE INCOME OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(In multiples of the relevant per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary 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		
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
	2001	3.2	14.3	3.1	4.5	2.7	5.4	3.0	1.8	1.4	1.9	1.8
Panama	1991	5.6	14.9	5.8	7.8	4.6	9.8	4.2	2.7	1.3	3.1	2.8
	1994	5.5	17.8	5.4	7.5	4.3	9.6	3.9	2.4	1.3	4.2	4.0
	1997	6.0	16.0	6.0	8.3	5.0	10.3	4.2	2.6	1.4	4.4	3.9
	1999	6.2	11.9	6.7	9.0	5.8	11.3	4.9	2.8	2.1	3.6	3.3
	2002	6.4	13.0	7.1	9.1	6.3	9.7	6.5	5.9	2.5	3.0	2.8
	2004	5.5	11.5	6.0	8.9	5.0	9.5	5.4	3.1	1.6	2.9	2.5
	2005	5.2	11.0	5.8	8.6	4.8	8.7	5.2	2.9	1.7	2.6	2.3
	2006	5.4	10.8	5.9	8.4	5.1	8.0	5.6	3.0	1.5	2.9	2.5
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
	2001	3.4	8.1	3.4	5.2	3.0	4.5	3.6	2.2	1.6	2.2	1.7
	2004	2.6	8.3	2.6	3.7	2.4	4.2	2.8	1.8	1.5	1.6	1.4
	2005	2.9	9.6	2.9	4.4	2.5	3.9	3.0	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.3
(Urban)	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
	2001	3.1	8.6	3.1	5.2	2.6	4.5	3.3	1.9	1.4	1.8	1.5
	2004	2.5	7.7	2.4	3.5	2.2	4.1	2.7	1.7	1.4	1.7	1.5
	2005	2.7	8.8	2.7	4.1	2.3	4.2	2.9	1.7	1.4	1.5	1.3
Peru	1997	3.3	7.9	3.8	4.1	3.7	6.1	3.9	2.3	2.3	1.9	1.7
	1999	3.2	7.0	3.9	4.6	3.8	6.9	4.2	2.0	2.9	1.8	1.6
	2001	2.8	6.7	3.3	3.9	3.1	5.9	3.4	1.9	2.0	1.8	1.7
	2003	2.7	7.9	3.2	4.1	3.0	5.5	3.3	1.8	2.0	1.6	1.5
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
	2000	4.6	18.5	3.9	4.8	3.6	7.7	3.3	2.3	1.2	4.7	4.3
	2002	4.7	19.8	3.9	4.7	3.7	7.0	3.5	2.3	1.3	4.4	4.1
	2004	3.9	16.8	2.3	2.7	2.2	4.3	2.1	1.4	0.9	4.7	4.4
	2005	3.1	7.8	3.0	3.5	2.9	5.6	2.7	1.6	1.3	2.6	2.4
	2006	3.3	8.7	3.2	3.9	3.0	4.9	3.1	1.6	1.4	2.8	2.6

Table 24 (concluded)

AVERAGE INCOME OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(In multiples of the relevant per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary 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		
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
	2002	4.3	10.6	4.4	5.8	3.9	7.9	4.3	2.6	2.0	3.1	2.4
	2004	3.7	10.2	3.7	5.2	3.2	6.3	3.6	2.0	1.7	2.7	2.1
	2005	3.7	9.7	3.8	5.4	3.3	6.6	3.6	2.0	1.7	2.7	2.0
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [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
	2002	3.3	9.9	2.9	4.5	2.4	4.8	2.5	1.7	1.2	2.9	2.8
	2004	3.2	9.3	2.9	4.1	2.5	4.1	2.6	1.7	1.2	2.8	2.7
	2005	3.9	11.8	3.4	4.8	2.9	4.5	3.0	2.0	1.4	3.6	3.5
	2006	4.0	9.7	4.0	5.6	3.3	5.4	3.4	2.4	1.7	3.3	3.2

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted In the relevant countries.

[a] For Argentina (except 1999), Brazil (1990), Chile (1990, 1994 and 1998), Mexico (1989 and 2004) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public-sector wage or salary earners. For Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama (up to 2002) and Uruguay (1990), in the case of non-professional, non-technical workers, this includes establishments employing up to 4 persons. Where no information was available on the size of the establishments, no figures are given for the 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 more than five persons includes wage earners who have an employment contract ("carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to five persons includes workers who do not have such contracts.

[d] Includes private-sector employees engaged in non-professional, non-technical occupations in business establishments of undeclared size.

[e] Information from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).

[f] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[g] Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

[h] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 24.1

AVERAGE INCOME OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(In multiples of the relevant per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary 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 (Great 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	12.3	6.0	4.9	4.5	12.3	10.6
	1997	8.2	25.7	6.0	…	6.0	11.5	5.1	3.8	2.7	10.2	7.6
	1999	7.4	24.0	5.7	7.1	5.3	9.9	5.1	3.8	2.6	8.5	7.1
	2002	5.7	23.8	4.0	3.9	4.0	8.2	3.3	2.2	3.6	6.3	4.7
	2004	6.0	18.6	4.6	5.0	4.5	8.3	4.2	3.1	3.7	7.7	6.1
	2005	6.6	22.3	5.1	6.2	4.9	8.5	4.6	3.2	3.4	8.3	7.0
	2006	7.0	22.7	5.6	6.7	5.4	8.9	5.2	3.6	1.0	8.3	7.3
Bolivia	1989	5.1	17.1	4.3	4.8	4.0	9.6	3.6	2.7	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
	2002	4.0	7.7	4.5	5.9	4.2	8.8	4.4	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.5
	2004	3.5	7.8	3.8	5.7	3.5	8.3	3.7	2.1	1.3	2.3	2.2
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
	2001	5.1	15.8	4.7	8.0	4.1	8.8	3.4 [d]	2.2	2.0	4.0	3.5
	2003	4.7	14.6	4.3	7.4	3.8	8.0	3.6 [d]	2.1	1.9	3.6	2.9
	2004	4.7	14.6	4.3	7.4	3.8	7.8	3.6 [d]	2.1	1.8	3.5	2.8
	2005	4.7	14.3	4.3	7.6	3.8	7.5	3.6 [d]	2.1	1.8	3.4	2.7
	2006	4.9	15.0	4.5	8.0	3.9	7.7	3.7 [d]	2.2	1.9	3.6	2.8
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
	2000	8.5	36.9	6.6	8.3	6.2	15.8	4.3	3.1	3.0	7.9	5.8
	2003	8.6	41.0	6.3	8.6	6.0	14.7	4.2	3.0	3.4	8.9	6.5
	2006	7.5	29.8	6.0	8.4	5.7	13.5	4.4	3.3	3.1	8.9	6.8
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
	2002	3.4	7.6	3.7	6.7	3.3	6.9	3.0	…	2.2	2.2	1.9
	2004	3.5	8.0	3.9	6.5	3.5	8.0	3.1	…	2.1	2.2	2.0
	2005	3.8	9.5	4.1	7.1	3.7	7.8	3.3	…	2.8	2.3	2.1

Table 24.1 (continued)

AVERAGE INCOME OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(In multiples of the relevant per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary 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		
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
	2002	7.2	10.2	7.5	10.3	6.8	10.6	6.3	3.9	2.3	4.6	4.1
	2004	7.0	8.5	7.6	10.7	6.9	11.1	6.3	4.1	2.9	3.9	3.3
	2005	6.2	7.9	6.5	9.7	5.7	8.9	5.4	3.5	1.9	4.0	3.4
	2006	6.8	10.3	7.2	11.4	6.2	9.5	5.8	3.7	3.0	3.9	3.3
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
	2002	4.0	9.6	3.7	5.3	3.3	6.1	3.5	2.1	1.9	3.2	3.0
	2004	3.9	7.9	4.0	6.4	3.5	7.0	3.5	2.2	2.8	2.6	2.5
	2005	4.1	9.2	3.9	6.2	3.5	6.8	3.5	2.3	2.1	3.1	2.7
	2006	4.2	9.8	3.9	6.5	3.5	6.3	3.8	2.3	2.0	3.1	2.8
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
	2001	4.4	10.4	4.4	6.6	4.0	7.7	3.9	2.4	2.3	3.0	2.6
	2004	3.8	7.9	3.9	5.9	3.5	5.8	3.4	2.5	2.8	2.6	2.5
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	4.3	17.2	3.6	4.9	3.4	6.3	3.7	2.2	1.2	3.1	2.9
	2002	3.6	8.3	3.7	6.1	3.4	6.6	3.5	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.5
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
	2002	2.6	5.3	2.9	4.9	2.6	6.1	2.5	1.4	1.2	1.6	1.5
	2003	2.6	5.0	3.0	5.2	2.7	7.1	2.6	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.2
	2006	2.7	5.1	3.1	5.3	2.7	5.0	2.4	1.5	1.8	1.7	1.2
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
	2000	5.2	17.1	4.3	5.6	4.1	9.3	3.7	2.3	2.1	5.2	4.7
	2002	4.9	16.5	4.0	5.8	3.6	8.3	3.6	2.3	2.0	4.9	4.5
	2004	4.9	17.9	4.0	…	4.0	8.2	3.7	2.3	2.3	5.6	4.6
	2005	5.3	24.9	4.1	…	4.1	8.4	3.7	2.3	3.3	5.7	4.9
	2006	4.9	16.7	4.1	…	4.1	8.3	3.8	2.2	2.7	4.7	4.1

Table 24.1 (continued)

AVERAGE INCOME OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(In multiples of the relevant per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary 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		
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
	2001	3.7	14.1	3.3	5.8	2.8	6.9	3.0	1.8	1.0	2.4	2.2
Panama	1991	6.2	15.4	6.6	8.5	5.5	10.6	4.3	2.7	1.3	3.4	3.1
	1994	6.3	19.4	6.1	8.5	4.9	10.8	3.9	2.4	2.2	4.7	4.5
	1997	6.9	17.2	6.8	9.4	5.7	11.3	4.2	2.6	2.0	5.1	4.5
	1999	6.8	12.7	7.3	10.0	6.4	12.1	5.0	2.7	2.4	4.2	3.9
	2002	7.1	13.3	7.9	10.3	7.1	11.1	6.7	6.6	2.4	3.5	3.3
	2004	6.1	12.4	6.6	10.3	5.4	11.1	5.3	3.0	2.2	3.5	3.1
	2005	5.8	11.6	6.3	9.9	5.3	10.2	5.2	3.0	2.1	3.2	2.9
	2006	5.9	11.7	6.4	9.5	5.6	9.7	5.6	3.1	2.4	3.4	3.1
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
	2001	3.9	7.6	3.7	5.3	3.4	5.5	3.6	2.2	1.9	3.0	2.1
	2004	3.1	9.0	2.8	3.9	2.6	3.9	2.9	1.8	2.0	2.2	1.8
	2005	3.7	11.2	3.2	4.9	2.7	4.5	3.1	1.7	2.2	2.2	1.8
(Urban)	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
	2001	3.7	8.8	3.4	5.5	3.0	5.4	3.3	1.9	1.8	2.4	1.9
	2004	2.9	8.2	2.6	3.8	2.4	4.1	2.8	1.7	1.9	2.3	2.0
	2005	3.3	10.1	3.0	4.7	2.6	4.8	3.0	1.7	1.8	1.9	1.7
Peru	1997	4.0	8.5	4.2	4.6	4.1	7.0	4.3	2.5	2.7	2.5	2.3
	1999	3.9	7.9	4.3	5.4	4.1	7.0	4.5	2.1	1.8	2.3	2.1
	2001	3.4	7.1	3.7	4.3	3.5	6.8	3.6	2.0	1.8	2.2	2.0
	2003	3.4	9.0	3.7	4.6	3.4	7.2	3.4	1.9	3.6	2.0	1.9
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
	2000	5.2	20.1	4.4	5.0	4.2	9.2	3.7	2.4	2.0	5.2	4.9
	2002	5.4	21.7	4.3	4.9	4.1	7.9	3.6	2.3	2.5	4.9	4.6
	2004	4.6	17.4	2.6	2.9	2.5	5.2	2.3	1.5	1.2	5.2	4.9
	2005	3.4	8.6	3.2	3.6	3.1	5.9	2.8	1.8	1.8	2.9	2.7
	2006	3.7	9.3	3.5	4.1	3.4	6.0	3.2	1.8	2.1	3.2	2.9

Table 24.1 (concluded)

AVERAGE INCOME OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(In multiples of the relevant per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary 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		
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
	2002	4.9	11.0	5.0	6.3	4.6	9.9	4.6	2.8	3.3	3.4	2.7
	2004	4.3	11.1	4.3	5.7	3.9	7.7	3.9	2.2	2.6	3.1	2.4
	2005	4.3	10.7	4.3	5.8	3.9	8.0	3.9	2.3	2.7	3.0	2.3
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [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
	2002	3.6	10.2	2.9	4.8	2.5	5.6	2.6	1.7	1.6	3.3	3.2
	2004	3.5	9.6	3.0	4.5	2.6	4.7	2.7	1.7	1.7	3.2	3.1
	2005	4.2	12.2	3.4	5.1	3.0	4.8	3.1	2.1	1.7	4.1	4.0
	2006	4.3	9.8	4.1	6.3	3.5	5.9	3.6	2.5	1.8	3.7	3.6

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted In the relevant countries.

[a] For Argentina (except 1999), Brazil (1990), Chile (1990, 1994 and 1998), Mexico (1989 and 2004) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public-sector wage or salary earners. For Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama (up to 2002) and Uruguay (1990), in the case of non-professional, non-technical workers, this includes establishments employing up to 4 persons. Where no information was available on the size of the establishments, no figures are given for the 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 more than five persons includes wage earners who have an employment contract ("carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to five persons includes workers who do not have such contracts.

[d] Includes private-sector employees engaged in non-professional, non-technical occupations in business establishments of undeclared size.

[e] Information from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).

[f] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[g] Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

[h] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 24.2

AVERAGE INCOME OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(In multiples of the relevant per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary 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	4.7	13.6	3.9	…	3.9	6.6	4.0	3.4	2.0	5.8	4.5
	1994	6.7	29.4	5.4	…	5.4	7.8	6.2	4.2	3.2	8.3	6.4
	1997	5.6	19.6	4.8	…	4.8	7.3	5.8	3.4	2.5	6.2	4.7
	1999	4.8	15.0	4.4	5.5	4.0	6.8	4.3	3.0	2.1	5.3	4.3
	2002	3.3	12.4	2.8	3.0	2.7	4.8	2.6	1.8	1.7	4.2	2.7
	2004	3.6	12.4	3.1	3.2	3.1	5.1	3.4	2.4	1.6	4.7	3.3
	2005	4.4	31.0	3.5	4.2	3.3	5.0	3.6	2.6	1.7	5.0	3.7
	2006	4.5	16.3	3.9	5.0	3.6	5.6	4.2	3.0	1.7	5.9	4.2
Bolivia	1989	2.9	10.7	3.6	2.9	3.4	4.1	3.1	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
	2002	2.3	5.9	3.1	4.3	2.7	5.7	2.9	2.0	2.0	1.5	1.4
	2004	2.1	6.5	2.9	4.3	2.4	5.6	3.2	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.3
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
	2001	3.2	11.7	3.4	5.6	2.7	5.0	2.4 [d]	1.8	1.4	2.0	1.6
	2003	3.0	10.2	3.1	5.2	2.5	5.4	2.8 [d]	2.0	1.3	1.8	1.3
	2004	3.0	9.9	3.1	5.3	2.5	5.3	2.8 [d]	1.9	1.3	1.8	1.3
	2005	3.1	10.3	3.1	5.3	2.5	5.6	2.8 [d]	2.0	1.3	1.8	1.3
	2006	3.2	11.3	3.3	5.8	2.6	5.3	2.9 [d]	2.1	1.4	1.9	1.4
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
	2000	5.2	18.1	4.7	6.3	4.3	9.4	3.6	2.8	2.4	5.6	3.9
	2003	5.5	25.5	4.7	6.7	4.3	9.0	3.6	2.8	2.4	5.6	4.0
	2006	5.1	19.7	4.6	6.9	4.2	9.0	3.5	2.7	2.3	5.3	3.8
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
	2002	2.5	6.1	3.3	6.0	2.8	5.7	2.8	…	1.7	1.1	0.9
	2004	2.6	6.5	3.4	5.8	2.9	6.0	2.8	…	1.8	1.1	1.0
	2005	2.7	6.3	3.5	6.1	3.1	5.8	3.1	…	1.9	1.2	1.0

Table 24.2 (continued)

AVERAGE INCOME OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(In multiples of the relevant per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary 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		
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
	2002	5.3	10.0	5.8	8.7	4.5	7.6	4.9	3.4	2.0	2.6	2.0
	2004	5.3	6.8	6.2	8.9	4.9	8.0	5.0	3.5	2.2	2.1	1.7
	2005	4.5	5.4	5.1	8.0	3.9	6.7	4.4	2.8	1.6	1.9	1.4
	2006	5.1	5.3	6.0	9.2	4.6	7.5	5.1	3.3	1.9	1.7	1.5
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
	2002	2.5	5.9	2.9	3.9	2.6	3.8	3.1	2.1	1.5	1.7	1.6
	2004	2.5	5.0	3.2	4.5	2.8	4.1	3.3	1.9	1.6	1.4	1.3
	2005	2.8	6.9	3.3	5.3	2.8	4.2	3.3	2.1	1.6	1.7	1.6
	2006	2.9	6.3	3.5	5.1	3.1	4.7	3.4	2.1	2.0	1.6	1.5
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
	2001	3.2	6.8	4.0	6.6	3.3	7.0	3.2	2.1	1.9	2.0	2.0
	2004	3.0	5.1	3.5	6.3	2.8	4.6	2.9	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.1
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	2.2	11.2	2.3	3.9	2.0	3.6	2.7	1.4	0.6	1.5	1.5
	2002	2.0	3.8	2.7	4.8	2.4	4.0	2.6	1.3	1.6	1.0	1.0
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
	2002	1.9	4.5	2.5	3.9	2.1	4.4	2.1	1.2	0.8	0.9	0.9
	2003	2.1	4.0	3.0	4.7	2.5	6.1	2.3	1.5	1.2	0.8	0.8
	2006	2.1	3.6	2.8	4.6	2.3	4.0	2.1	1.4	1.2	0.9	0.6
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
	2000	2.8	13.4	3.0	4.8	2.5	4.0	2.7	1.6	1.1	1.6	1.5
	2002	2.9	14.1	3.0	4.7	2.5	5.2	2.7	1.7	1.3	1.8	1.7
	2004	2.9	10.7	3.0	…	3.0	5.2	3.0	1.8	1.3	2.1	1.9
	2005	3.0	10.0	3.1	…	3.1	5.3	2.9	1.8	1.5	2.2	1.9
	2006	3.0	9.8	3.1	…	3.1	5.3	3.1	1.8	1.3	2.1	1.8

Table 24.2 (continued)

AVERAGE INCOME OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(In multiples of the relevant per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary 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		
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
	2001	2.5	14.8	2.7	3.3	2.4	3.4	3.1	1.9	1.4	1.7	1.6
Panama	1991	4.8	13.1	5.0	7.0	3.7	8.2	4.2	2.7	1.3	2.2	1.8
	1994	4.3	11.8	4.4	6.2	3.3	7.3	3.8	2.4	1.2	2.7	2.6
	1997	4.8	10.3	5.1	7.1	4.1	8.5	4.1	2.7	1.4	2.9	2.6
	1999	5.3	8.9	5.8	7.7	5.0	10.1	4.9	2.9	2.0	2.3	2.1
	2002	5.3	11.7	6.0	7.8	5.2	8.1	6.1	4.2	2.5	1.6	1.5
	2004	4.7	6.9	5.4	7.5	4.5	7.9	5.5	3.1	1.6	1.6	1.3
	2005	4.5	8.4	5.1	7.3	4.2	7.1	5.2	2.7	1.7	1.5	1.3
	2006	4.6	7.1	5.2	7.3	4.4	6.8	5.5	2.5	1.5	1.9	1.4
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
	2001	2.8	9.1	2.9	5.1	2.4	3.4	3.4	2.1	1.5	4.7	1.3
	2004	2.0	5.7	2.3	3.3	2.1	4.5	2.4	1.7	1.5	1.0	0.9
	2005	2.1	4.8	2.4	3.7	2.1	3.4	2.7	1.7	1.5	1.0	0.9
(Urban)	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
	2001	2.4	8.2	2.8	4.8	2.2	3.4	3.3	1.9	1.4	1.3	1.2
	2004	1.9	6.1	1.9	3.2	1.7	4.1	2.4	1.6	1.3	1.1	1.0
	2005	1.9	5.0	2.3	3.5	1.9	3.3	2.7	1.7	1.3	1.0	0.9
Peru	1997	2.3	5.1	3.0	3.5	2.9	5.0	2.8	1.6	2.3	1.4	1.3
	1999	2.4	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.3	6.7	3.3	1.7	2.9	1.3	1.2
	2001	2.1	5.0	2.7	3.3	2.5	4.4	2.8	1.5	2.0	1.4	1.4
	2003	1.9	4.1	2.6	3.3	2.4	3.6	2.8	1.6	1.9	1.1	1.1
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
	2000	3.6	14.4	3.3	4.6	2.9	6.1	2.7	2.1	1.1	3.5	2.9
	2002	3.7	13.9	3.5	4.4	3.2	6.0	3.2	2.2	1.1	3.2	2.9
	2004	2.8	13.1	2.0	2.5	1.9	3.6	1.9	1.1	0.8	3.4	3.0
	2005	2.6	5.3	2.7	3.3	2.5	5.2	2.4	1.3	1.2	1.9	1.6
	2006	2.6	7.0	2.7	3.6	2.4	3.9	2.7	1.3	1.3	1.9	1.7

Table 24.2 (concluded)

AVERAGE INCOME OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(In multiples of the relevant per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary 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		
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
	2002	3.5	9.2	3.6	5.1	3.1	6.2	3.7	2.2	1.9	2.5	1.8
	2004	2.9	7.4	3.0	4.6	2.5	4.9	2.9	1.7	1.6	2.1	1.6
	2005	3.0	6.7	3.1	4.9	2.6	5.3	3.1	1.7	1.6	2.1	1.5
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [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
	2002	2.8	8.6	3.0	4.3	2.2	4.0	2.3	1.6	1.2	2.3	2.2
	2004	2.7	8.0	2.8	3.9	2.1	3.4	2.3	1.5	1.2	2.2	2.1
	2005	3.3	9.6	2.6	4.5	2.6	4.1	2.7	1.8	1.4	2.8	2.7
	2006	3.5	9.1	3.9	5.1	3.0	4.7	3.0	2.1	1.7	2.5	2.4

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted In the relevant countries.

[a] For Argentina (except 1999), Brazil (1990), Chile (1990, 1994 and 1998), Mexico (1989 and 2004) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public-sector wage or salary earners. For Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama (up to 2002) and Uruguay (1990), in the case of non-professional, non-technical workers, this includes establishments employing up to 4 persons. Where no information was available on the size of the establishments, no figures are given for the 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 more than five persons includes wage earners who have an employment contract ("carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to five persons includes workers who do not have such contracts.

[d] Includes private-sector employees engaged in non-professional, non-technical occupations in business establishments of undeclared size.

[e] Information from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).

[f] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[g] Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

[h] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 25

AVERAGE INCOME OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS, 1990-2006

(In multiples of the relevant per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary earners					Own-account and unpaid family workers	
				Total [a]	Public sector	Private sector			Total [b]	Agriculture
						Total	Agriculture	Other		
Bolivia	1997	1.3	10.5	3.5	3.7	3.4	3.1	3.6	0.8	0.6
	1999	0.8	3.9	3.4	4.2	3.1	2.9	3.2	0.6	0.4
	2000	1.2	5.9	3.2	3.6	3.0	2.7	3.2	1.0	0.8
	2002	1.2	4.1	3.4	4.2	3.2	3.1	3.4	0.8	0.6
	2004	1.1	3.3	2.3	3.7	1.8	1.5	2.0	0.7	0.5
Brazil	1990	2.0	9.3	2.2	…	2.2	1.4	2.9	1.5	1.3
	1993	1.8	11.6	2.2	2.9	2.1	1.7	3.4	1.3	1.2
	1996	2.0	13.5	2.8	4.0	2.6	2.0	3.8	1.3	1.1
	1999	1.8	12.4	2.6	3.8	2.4	2.1	2.8	1.0	0.8
	2001	1.7	10.6	2.3	2.8	2.2	2.1	2.4	1.0	0.9
	2003	1.7	12.7	2.3	3.3	2.2	2.0	2.5	1.0	0.9
	2004	1.8	10.7	2.4	3.5	2.2	2.1	2.4	1.1	1.0
	2005	1.7	10.1	2.4	3.5	2.3	2.1	2.5	1.0	0.9
	2006	1.8	11.0	2.6	3.8	2.4	2.2	2.7	1.1	0.9
Chile [c]	1990	4.9	39.3	3.2	…	3.2	2.8	4.3	5.2	5.2
	1994	4.6	28.9	3.8	…	3.8	3.1	5.1	4.2	3.7
	1996	4.2	24.0	3.5	5.3	3.4	2.9	4.3	4.0	3.5
	1998	5.3	32.8	3.9	…	3.9	3.2	4.9	6.3	5.3
	2000	5.3	36.8	4.2	7.0	3.9	3.5	4.5	5.6	4.8
	2003	5.7	33.6	4.5	7.9	4.3	3.6	5.5	6.3	5.3
	2006	6.0	38.9	4.9	8.4	4.7	4.0	5.8	5.9	4.2
Colombia [d]	1991	3.1	10.7	2.9	…	2.9	3.1	2.6	2.3	1.7
	1994	2.5	5.8	2.8	…	2.8	2.9	2.6	1.9	2.3
	1997	2.7	7.0	3.1	5.0	3.0	3.2	3.0	1.8	1.8
	1999	2.9	5.6	3.9	6.4	3.7	3.5	3.9	1.8	1.9
	2002	2.9	7.9	3.8	7.6	3.4	3.8	2.9	1.8	1.9
	2004	2.6	6.6	3.3	6.0	3.2	3.5	2.6	3.1	2.3
	2005	2.8	6.6	3.5	6.9	3.3	3.5	2.8	2.0	2.5
Costa Rica	1990	5.1	9.9	5.2	8.4	4.6	4.1	4.9	4.0	3.9
	1994	5.8	11.7	5.4	8.4	4.9	4.8	5.0	5.4	6.3
	1997	5.6	9.3	5.5	9.4	4.9	4.3	5.2	4.7	4.9
	1999	6.3	11.3	6.0	10.2	5.4	4.5	5.8	5.3	5.5
	2000	6.1	8.5	6.8	10.5	6.2	6.1	6.2	3.9	2.9
	2002	6.2	9.0	7.2	11.9	6.5	7.1	6.2	3.2	2.2
	2004	6.3	7.7	7.5	12.6	6.7	7.4	6.3	3.1	2.1
	2005	5.7	7.4	6.5	10.0	5.9	6.5	5.6	3.1	2.4
	2006	6.4	8.1	7.2	11.5	6.5	7.2	6.1	3.5	2.4
Ecuador	2000	2.5	8.4	2.7	4.6	2.5	2.2	2.9	2.0	1.8
	2004	2.1	5.6	3.0	5.6	2.7	2.3	3.4	1.2	1.0
	2005	2.4	5.5	3.1	6.2	2.9	2.4	3.6	1.6	1.4
	2006	2.4	7.1	3.4	6.8	3.2	2.6	4.0	1.5	1.3
El Salvador	1995	2.4	5.5	2.7	5.4	2.6	2.0	3.2	1.7	1.4
	1997	2.4	4.3	3.1	5.7	2.9	2.2	3.6	1.5	1.1
	1999	3.4	10.2	3.3	6.8	3.0	2.2	3.7	2.8	3.1
	2000	3.5	9.3	3.5	7.3	3.2	2.2	3.9	2.9	3.1
	2001	2.4	3.8	3.3	6.8	3.0	2.0	3.7	1.4	0.5
	2004	2.7	7.6	3.2	6.6	3.0	2.0	3.6	1.6	0.6
Guatemala	1989	2.5	21.1	2.3	4.9	2.1	1.8	2.7	2.4	2.1
	1998	2.6	25.3	2.3	3.9	2.2	2.0	2.5	2.1	2.1
	2002	1.7	5.7	2.3	4.4	2.2	1.8	2.6	1.0	0.8

Table 25 (concluded)

AVERAGE INCOME OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS, 1990-2006

(In multiples of the relevant per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary earners					Own-account and unpaid family workers	
				Total [a]	Public sector	Private sector			Total [b]	Agriculture
						Total	Agriculture	Other		
Honduras	1990	1.7	14.7	2.2	4.9	1.8	1.4	2.7	1.3	1.3
	1994	2.0	8.6	2.1	4.1	1.8	1.6	2.1	1.8	1.8
	1997	1.7	9.0	1.6	3.4	1.4	1.3	1.7	1.4	1.5
	1999	1.8	6.1	2.0	4.4	1.7	1.4	2.0	1.4	1.4
	2002	1.4	6.3	1.9	4.7	1.7	0.9	2.9	1.1	1.0
	2003	1.2	3.6	1.8	5.3	1.6	0.8	2.8	0.9	0.8
	2006	1.3	3.5	2.1	5.4	1.9	0.9	3.1	0.8	0.6
Mexico [e]	1989	3.0	9.3	2.7	…	2.7	1.8	3.5	3.0	2.6
	1994	2.7	9.7	2.6	5.1	2.3	1.7	2.7	2.2	1.8
	1996	2.3	7.1	2.4	4.9	2.0	1.5	2.3	1.6	1.3
	1998	2.6	8.7	2.9	5.2	2.5	1.8	2.9	1.8	1.6
	2000	3.2	14.9	2.9	5.8	2.5	1.8	3.0	2.3	1.5
	2002	3.0	10.1	3.2	5.8	2.7	1.8	3.2	2.2	1.5
	2004	3.3	9.2	3.4	…	3.4	1.9	4.0	2.6	1.7
	2005	3.1	9.0	3.2	…	3.2	1.9	3.7	2.4	1.6
	2006	3.2	11.9	3.3	…	3.3	2.1	3.7	2.1	1.5
Nicaragua	1993	2.2	4.8	2.7	3.0	2.6	2.1	3.2	1.9	1.4
	1998	2.1	8.8	2.8	…	2.8	2.1	3.5	1.1	0.8
	2001	1.9	4.6	2.6	3.3	2.5	2.0	3.2	1.1	0.8
Panama	1991	3.6	9.2	5.1	7.4	4.2	4.4	4.1	2.0	1.5
	1994	3.5	13.6	4.1	6.3	3.5	3.2	3.7	2.4	1.6
	1997	4.0	15.4	4.4	6.9	3.7	3.1	4.0	3.1	2.3
	1999	4.2	13.5	5.2	9.1	4.2	3.2	4.8	2.8	2.2
	2002	4.5	12.8	8.1	8.8	7.9	9.4	6.7	1.8	1.5
	2004	3.4	11.0	5.4	8.8	4.5	5.0	4.1	1.6	1.2
	2005	3.1	7.7	5.2	8.4	4.4	4.9	4.1	1.5	1.2
	2006	3.2	11.0	5.2	8.2	4.5	4.9	4.2	1.4	1.2
Paraguay	1999	2.2	17.2	2.9	5.3	2.5	1.8	2.7	1.3	1.1
	2001	1.8	9.4	2.8	5.3	2.6	1.9	3.0	1.0	0.8
	2004	1.9	12.2	2.5	3.3	2.4	2.4	2.4	1.3	1.3
	2005	1.9	5.9	2.7	3.9	2.4	2.4	2.4	1.5	1.4
Peru	1997	1.6	4.3	2.8	3.8	2.5	2.1	3.3	1.0	0.9
	1999	1.4	3.3	2.2	3.8	1.9	1.9	3.3	0.9	0.8
	2001	1.2	2.8	2.4	3.8	2.0	1.8	2.4	0.8	0.6
	2003	1.0	2.0	2.3	3.1	2.0	1.8	2.4	0.7	0.6
Dominican Republic	1997	4.3	6.6	4.3	6.2	3.8	3.2	4.0	4.2	3.4
	2000	3.7	13.0	3.0	4.0	2.7	2.2	2.9	3.8	3.3
	2002	3.5	13.3	2.9	3.5	2.7	2.2	2.8	3.6	3.3
	2004	3.0	8.6	2.0	2.2	1.9	1.5	2.0	3.5	1.9
	2005	2.6	7.7	2.6	3.1	2.5	1.9	2.6	2.4	1.7
	2006	2.6	6.0	2.7	3.1	2.6	2.3	2.7	2.4	1.6
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	3.8	9.5	3.3	4.3	3.1	2.6	3.9	3.5	2.9
	1994	3.4	7.2	2.9	4.3	2.6	2.1	3.1	3.4	3.2

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted In the relevant countries.

[a] Includes domestic employees. For Brazil (1990), Chile (1990, 1994 and 1998), Colombia (1991 and 1994) Mexico (1989 and 2004) and Nicaragua (1998), includes public-sector wage earners.

[b] Includes wages earners in all branches of activity. Information from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).

[d] As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for rural areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[e] Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

Table 26

RATIO OF AVERAGE FEMALE INCOME TO AVERAGE MALE INCOME, BY AGE GROUP, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Disparity in labour income by age group [a]						Wage disparity by age group [b]					
		Total	15- 24 years	25 - 34 years	35 - 44 years	45 - 54 years	55 and over	Total	15 - 24 years	25 - 34 years	35 - 44 years	45 - 54 years	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
	2002	59	89	73	60	54	43	71	82	79	71	61	54
	2004	61	86	69	62	57	48	68	86	72	66	67	50
	2005	67	86	75	80	58	47	69	87	80	62	63	50
	2006	65	78	76	62	62	52	70	78	80	63	59	64
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
	2002	61	80	68	56	53	44	77	83	90	69	66	43
	2004	63	70	70	53	62	57	90	83	97	69	102	101
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
	2001	66	84	74	64	59	52	86	100	91	81	79	79
	2003	66	86	76	63	58	51	87	100	92	79	78	80
	2004	66	83	73	64	58	55	86	97	89	83	76	83
	2005	67	85	74	65	61	55	87	99	88	84	80	76
	2006	67	82	75	67	61	52	86	96	90	85	81	75
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
	2000	61	87	79	59	50	56	72	91	82	68	64	67
	2003	64	90	79	65	55	55	83	99	92	82	74	92
	2006	70	88	81	67	64	63	86	93	93	79	84	100
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
	2002	77	99	83	73	73	58	99	108	101	90	97	104
	2004	76	96	88	72	70	53	95	106	101	88	92	85
	2005	75	93	87	73	70	53	95	104	100	91	91	90
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
	2002	75	86	78	69	68	70	85	98	85	79	86	95
	2004	76	96	75	72	76	55	88	102	85	81	95	65
	2005	73	86	83	68	71	48	89	99	98	82	84	69
	2006	75	91	84	65	75	61	92	98	99	82	91	98

Table 26 (continued)

RATIO OF AVERAGE FEMALE INCOME TO AVERAGE MALE INCOME, BY AGE GROUP, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Disparity in labour income by age group [a]						Wage disparity by age group [b]					
		Total	15- 24 years	25 - 34 years	35 - 44 years	45 - 54 years	55 and over	Total	15 - 24 years	25 - 34 years	35 - 44 years	45 - 54 years	55 and over
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
	2002	67	83	77	66	55	50	87	95	96	89	69	70
	2004	68	101	74	63	59	63	89	107	91	85	80	94
	2005	74	93	83	70	62	67	102	99	99	79	90	94
	2006	73	105	78	65	70	61	95	111	97	85	93	93
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
	2001	73	87	79	73	62	51	100	95	100	92	104	100
	2004	77	80	78	78	76	52	98	85	96	99	112	81
Guatemala	1998	55	87	74	51	34	39	70	85	73	67	71	48
	2002	58	78	62	54	42	45	80	88	81	79	65	73
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
	2002	76	86	78	70	71	63	95	102	90	86	98	103
	2003	83	98	81	77	89	64	107	110	98	101	111	117
	2006	81	94	85	77	76	69	101	107	98	96	103	120
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
	2000	58	79	76	53	42	58	72	83	92	65	83	82
	2002	63	83	67	63	59	43	76	87	78	74	72	64
	2004	63	89	72	61	59	42	78	92	84	71	84	56
	2005	58	83	70	55	50	47	76	88	80	69	78	69
	2006	63	83	69	59	58	54	76	90	82	69	70	77
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
	2001	69	87	85	72	34	85	82	94	91	74	66	67
Panama	1991	78	73	89	81	68	78	89	95	95	90	75	77
	1994	69	80	76	71	56	58	84	107	95	77	68	62
	1997	70	81	78	68	68	46	85	104	92	80	79	64
	1999	78	98	87	74	73	57	89	120	92	81	83	75
	2002	76	76	86	77	70	57	85	83	92	80	79	83
	2004	78	89	92	72	79	50	94	109	107	85	87	71
	2005	79	96	89	72	81	60	93	108	103	84	91	72
	2006	78	84	85	78	76	60	95	100	97	91	92	90

Table 26 (concluded)

RATIO OF AVERAGE FEMALE INCOME TO AVERAGE MALE INCOME, BY AGE GROUP, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Disparity in labour income by age group [a]						Wage disparity by age group [b]					
		Total	15 - 24 years	25 - 34 years	35 - 44 years	45 - 54 years	55 and over	Total	15 - 24 years	25 - 34 years	35 - 44 years	45 - 54 years	55 and over
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
	2001	70	86	76	70	55	71	95	102	104	101	81	44
	2004	65	102	65	64	53	57	101	106	88	113	111	99
	2005	58	90	81	70	33	39	93	101	100	87	86	60
Peru	1997	60	80	67	58	49	41	73	89	79	79	67	48
	1999	63	95	83	63	47	32	78	99	94	86	61	40
	2001	67	91	75	59	59	56	80	92	90	74	63	72
	2003	61	93	76	65	41	33	78	92	91	87	46	52
Dominican Republic	1997	75	95	77	76	51	69	90	97	87	90	84	67
	2000	69	84	76	67	58	53	84	106	90	71	85	52
	2002	68	87	70	66	60	59	89	101	84	93	71	111
	2004	59	62	59	63	45	77	85	96	79	78	81	122
	2005	77	91	88	75	64	59	93	98	106	82	85	82
	2006	72	82	72	75	67	61	84	91	75	92	87	72
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
	2002	72	87	79	68	69	61	71	85	78	67	64	62
	2004	69	88	80	63	66	58	70	84	77	64	67	58
	2005	71	85	79	70	68	59	74	83	80	69	68	67
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [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
	2002	76	86	80	74	70	58	99	96	97	97	94	90
	2004	77	90	78	74	71	66	96	97	92	95	89	100
	2005	76	88	78	78	71	56	98	97	95	99	91	90
	2006	79	86	84	74	73	68	95	95	96	87	93	100

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Refers to the income differential in the total employed population. This differential is calculated as the quotient of average female income and average male income, multiplied by 100.

[b] Refers to total income differentials between wage earners. This differential is calculated as the quotient of average female income and average male income, multiplied by 100.

[c] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[d] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 27

RATIO OF AVERAGE FEMALE INCOME TO AVERAGE MALE INCOME, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Differential in labour income Years of schooling [a]						Wage differential 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] (Geater 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
	2002	59	62	81	55	61	46	71	76	68	55	67	60
	2004	61	52	52	48	60	56	68	51	53	50	69	65
	2005	67	44	39	53	55	66	69	42	43	55	65	65
	2006	65	63	49	48	57	63	70	49	51	50	67	69
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
	2002	61	61	67	75	66	60	77	39	83	95	74	60
	2004	63	61	73	62	69	64	90	53	69	67	78	67
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
	2001	66	58	54	55	56	54	86	76	71	70	64	57
	2003	66	59	54	55	57	55	87	78	71	70	67	57
	2004	66	61	53	57	57	56	86	79	70	71	67	59
	2005	67	61	55	57	60	56	87	79	71	71	67	60
	2006	67	63	55	58	59	57	86	81	73	72	68	60
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
	2000	61	75	71	68	68	48	72	82	73	73	74	60
	2003	64	68	68	64	69	53	83	77	80	73	81	64
	2006	70	71	73	65	67	62	86	79	76	76	76	71
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
	2002	77	61	68	70	72	73	99	83	88	87	84	79
	2004	76	51	56	67	72	73	95	75	85	83	86	77
	2005	75	57	63	66	71	71	95	80	85	86	84	77
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
	2002	75	62	56	60	72	72	85	74	71	74	79	69
	2004	76	62	57	68	72	70	88	83	73	78	80	68
	2005	73	53	54	62	67	70	89	74	75	79	77	71
	2006	75	54	58	63	66	70	92	75	81	73	76	73

Table 27 (continued)

RATIO OF AVERAGE FEMALE INCOME TO AVERAGE MALE INCOME, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Differential in labour income Years of schooling [a]						Wage differential 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
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
	2002	67	73	69	66	70	57	87	96	90	78	80	64
	2004	68	67	62	68	75	57	89	92	78	83	85	61
	2005	74	79	64	70	76	65	94	76	77	83	84	70
	2006	73	78	72	74	71	62	95	87	80	80	88	69
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
	2001	73	80	69	69	82	69	100	82	78	81	92	78
	2004	77	83	79	77	73	77	98	93	79	76	82	83
Guatemala	1998	55	61	52	59	56	53	70	56	58	66	71	61
	2002	58	57	61	65	62	58	80	82	71	81	71	68
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
	2002	76	66	69	67	77	65	95	87	84	81	83	64
	2003	83	71	71	72	86	79	107	97	87	88	92	78
	2006	81	72	69	73	83	71	101	106	84	86	88	75
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
	2000	58	67	59	55	72	49	72	67	61	63	84	60
	2002	63	57	59	61	64	62	76	63	70	68	79	70
	2004	63	59	59	69	74	52	78	66	67	80	81	64
	2005	58	59	60	64	69	47	76	70	66	70	81	64
	2006	63	48	59	68	72	56	76	61	69	74	82	66
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
	2001	69	85	76	60	80	52	82	76	82	66	75	62
Panama	1991	78	47	55	69	82	69	89	60	72	82	86	73
	1994	69	54	51	58	68	62	84	92	73	80	83	63
	1997	70	52	48	60	68	62	85	73	77	78	80	64
	1999	78	61	56	63	75	71	89	80	75	75	81	71
	2002	76	65	48	55	80	67	85	64	52	67	83	68
	2004	78	46	50	57	71	67	94	76	68	73	88	69
	2005	79	61	57	58	74	70	93	62	73	76	88	70
	2006	78	49	46	55	75	68	95	81	65	76	85	72

Table 27 (concluded)

RATIO OF AVERAGE FEMALE INCOME TO AVERAGE MALE INCOME, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Differential in labour income Years of schooling [a]						Wage differential 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
Paraguay (Asunción)	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
	2001	70	59	63	78	74	69	95	59	66	97	97	68
	2004	65	50	61	71	75	53	101	120	84	91	94	75
	2005	58	60	68	68	46	59	93	103	81	104	75	66
Peru	1997	60	69	66	61	71	53	73	79	69	62	80	65
	1999	63	65	65	…	67	62	78	78	80	…	69	72
	2001	67	80	82	72	71	63	80	52	75	74	75	67
	2003	61	63	68	72	65	56	78	73	66	59	72	65
Dominican Republic	1997	75	57	60	60	75	66	90	67	71	67	95	75
	2000	69	56	53	65	61	60	84	77	74	76	70	65
	2002	68	53	54	60	66	62	89	79	64	73	82	78
	2004	59	41	54	55	54	51	85	64	67	75	64	68
	2005	77	60	54	60	66	75	93	71	64	73	71	82
	2006	72	59	54	62	62	62	84	79	65	64	74	64
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
	2002	72	76	65	62	66	60	71	61	60	62	68	61
	2004	69	63	64	59	64	57	70	53	60	59	69	60
	2005	71	66	61	61	63	62	74	55	58	61	68	67
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [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
	2002	76	67	67	65	70	69	99	84	80	80	79	85
	2004	77	72	69	67	69	70	96	81	83	80	83	81
	2005	76	74	65	68	65	73	98	75	78	82	80	88
	2006	79	63	66	68	69	75	95	72	78	79	81	84

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Refers to the income differential in the total employed population. This differential is calculated as the quotient of average female income and average male income multiplied by 100.

[b] Refers to total income differentials between wage earners. This differential is calculated as the quotient of average female income and average male income multiplied by 100.

[c] The levels of schooling in Argentina are 0 – 6; 7 – 9; 10 and over.

[d] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[e] Except in 1990, the levels of schooling in Mexico are 0 – 5; 6 – 9; 10 – 12; and 13 and over.

[f] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 28

AVERAGE INCOME OF THE URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-2006

(In multiples of the relevant per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises [a]				Unskilled self-employed workers [b]			Domestic employment
			Employers	Wage or salary earners						
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional non-technical	Total [c]	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
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
	2002	4.0	15.1	2.4	6.4	2.1	4.1	3.7	4.4	1.7
	2004	4.4	16.0	3.0	4.2	2.9	5.2	4.4	5.6	1.7
	2005	4.9	17.5	3.0	5.0	3.1	5.8	5.5	5.9	1.8
	2006	5.2	19.4	3.5	4.5	3.4	6.2	5.8	6.4	1.7
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
	2002	2.2	5.4	2.4	3.3	2.4	1.8	1.6	2.1	2.0
	2004	2.0	5.8	2.1	4.5	1.9	1.6	1.9	1.7	1.4
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
	2001	2.8	10.6	2.4	3.6	2.1	2.8	2.6	3.4	1.4
	2003	2.4	9.5	2.1	3.7	2.0	2.3	2.4	2.7	1.3
	2004	2.4	9.4	2.0	3.8	2.0	2.3	2.2	2.8	1.3
	2005	2.4	8.8	2.2	3.8	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.6	1.4
	2006	2.6	9.5	2.3	4.0	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.7	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
	2000	5.3	21.8	3.6	8.2	3.0	5.2	5.1	5.4	2.4
	2003	5.8	24.2	3.3	7.3	2.9	5.8	5.6	5.9	2.4
	2006	5.5	19.4	3.4	6.6	3.1	5.6	5.7	5.7	2.3
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
	2002	…	…	…	…	…	1.4	1.2	1.5	1.7
	2004	…	…	…	…	…	1.6	1.2	1.5	1.8
	2005	…	…	…	…	…	1.7	1.3	1.6	1.9
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
	2002	4.3	6.5	4.1	6.9	3.7	3.1	3.2	3.1	2.0
	2004	3.6	6.9	4.3	7.3	3.9	2.6	2.8	2.6	2.2
	2005	3.2	6.4	3.6	5.9	3.3	2.5	2.5	2.6	1.6
	2006	3.5	7.5	3.9	6.2	3.6	2.5	2.4	2.6	2.0

Table 28 (continued)

AVERAGE INCOME OF THE URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-2006

(In multiples of the relevant per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises [a]				Unskilled self-employed workers [b]			Domestic employment
			Employers	Wage or salary earners						
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional non-technical	Total [c]	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
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
	2002	2.6	6.2	2.2	3.4	2.1	2.4	2.2	2.5	1.5
	2004	2.3	6.0	2.3	3.4	2.2	1.9	1.8	2.0	1.7
	2005	2.7	6.7	2.4	4.4	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.3	1.7
	2006	2.5	6.7	2.4	4.6	2.3	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.0
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
	2001	2.7	7.4	2.4	3.4	2.3	2.2	1.6	2.6	2.0
	2004	2.7	7.0	2.3	2.9	2.3	2.2	1.8	2.5	2.1
Guatemala	1989	2.8	13.1	1.8	3.9	1.7	2.8	2.4	3.5	1.4
	1998	2.5	9.9	2.2	3.5	2.0	2.1	1.6	2.4	0.6
	2002	1.7	5.4	1.7	3.9	1.6	1.2	1.1	1.4	1.6
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
	2002	1.5	4.4	1.6	3.5	1.4	1.2	1.0	1.4	0.8
	2003	1.3	4.2	1.6	3.8	1.5	1.0	0.9	1.1	1.2
	2006	1.2	3.8	1.6	3.0	1.4	0.9	1.1	0.9	1.2
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
	2000	3.5	12.9	2.2	3.5	2.1	3.0	2.7	3.2	1.3
	2002	3.3	12.6	2.3	5.3	2.1	3.2	2.9	3.3	1.4
	2004	3.1	12.7	2.5	4.7	2.2	3.2	3.2	3.3	1.4
	2005	3.3	11.3	2.3	4.4	2.1	3.5	3.3	3.5	1.6
	2006	3.0	10.5	2.3	4.5	2.1	2.9	2.8	3.0	1.4
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
	2001	2.1	6.1	1.9	3.4	1.8	1.8	1.5	2.1	1.4
Panama	1991	2.9	9.7	3.1	7.4	2.7	2.3	2.7	3.0	1.3
	1994	3.6	11.6	2.6	6.0	2.4	4.0	3.7	4.3	1.3
	1997	3.6	11.7	3.0	5.4	2.6	3.9	3.8	4.1	1.4
	1999	3.5	10.9	3.4	7.9	2.8	3.3	3.1	3.4	2.1
	2002	4.0	9.7	6.1	8.2	5.9	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.5
	2004	2.9	9.3	3.3	5.9	3.1	2.5	2.9	2.5	1.6
	2005	2.8	9.7	3.3	7.4	2.7	2.8	2.7	3.0	1.3
	2006	3.0	8.2	3.4	6.2	3.0	2.5	2.8	2.5	1.5
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
	2001	2.3	6.4	2.3	3.1	2.2	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.6
	2004	1.9	7.5	1.8	2.4	1.8	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5
	2005	1.7	4.8	1.8	3.2	1.7	1.3	1.5	1.3	1.6

Table 28 (concluded)

AVERAGE INCOME OF THE URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-2006

(In multiples of the relevant per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises [a]				Unskilled self-employed workers [b]			Domestic employment
			Employers	Wage or salary earners						
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional non-technical	Total [c]	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
(Urban)	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
	2001	2.1	6.2	2.0	3.1	1.9	1.5	1.4	1.6	1.4
	2004	2.0	7.0	1.7	2.3	1.7	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.4
	2005	1.8	5.5	1.8	3.1	1.7	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.4
Peru	1997	2.4	6.5	2.4	3.6	2.3	1.8	1.6	1.9	2.3
	1999	2.1	4.5	2.2	3.9	2.0	1.6	1.4	1.7	2.9
	2001	2.0	5.5	2.0	3.0	1.9	1.7	1.6	1.9	2.0
	2003	1.8	5.4	1.8	2.1	1.8	1.5	1.6	1.7	2.0
Dominican Republic	1997	3.8	9.9	2.6	5.1	2.4	4.0	4.2	4.1	1.4
	2000	4.1	14.3	2.8	8.5	2.3	4.3	4.6	4.3	1.2
	2002	4.0	14.5	2.4	4.0	2.3	4.1	4.4	4.2	1.3
	2004	4.5	15.2	1.5	2.4	1.4	4.4	5.3	4.5	0.9
	2005	2.5	6.8	1.7	2.8	1.6	2.4	2.7	2.4	1.3
	2006	2.7	7.7	1.7	3.3	1.6	2.6	2.9	2.6	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
	2002	2.4	8.8	2.7	4.2	2.6	2.4	2.1	2.5	2.0
	2004	2.3	8.0	2.1	3.1	2.0	2.1	1.9	2.2	1.7
	2005	2.2	7.9	2.1	4.1	2.0	2.0	1.8	2.1	1.7
Venezuela [h] (Bol. Rep. of)	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
	2002	2.9	8.7	1.7	2.6	1.7	2.8	3.3	2.9	1.2
	2004	2.9	8.3	1.7	2.7	1.7	2.7	3.1	2.9	1.2
	2005	3.6	10.3	2.0	2.5	2.0	3.5	3.8	3.6	1.4
	2006	3.3	8.6	2.5	3.8	2.4	3.2	3.6	3.3	1.7

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons. For Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama (up to 2002) and Uruguay (1990), includes establishments employing up to four persons. Where no information was available on the size of the establishments, no figures are given for the population employed in low-productivity sectors.

[b] Refers to own-account and unpaid family workers without professional or technical skills.

[c] Includes persons employed in agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing.

[d] Until 1990, the "microenterprises" category included wage earners without an employment contract.

[e] Information from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).

[f] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992,the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[g] Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

[h] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 28.1

AVERAGE INCOME OF THE URBAN MALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET

(In multiples of the relevant per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises [a]				Unskilled self-employed workers [b]			Domestic employment
			Employers	Wage or salary earners						
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional non-technical	Total [c]	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
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
	2002	4.8	16.7	2.6	10.0	2.2	4.7	4.1	5.1	3.6
	2004	5.7	16.9	3.2	4.9	3.1	6.1	5.2	6.8	3.7
	2005	6.1	18.6	3.4	5.6	3.2	7.0	6.1	7.5	3.4
	2006	6.8	21.0	3.7	4.9	3.6	7.3	6.6	7.6	1.0
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
	2002	2.7	5.4	2.5	3.7	2.5	2.5	2.0	3.2	2.6
	2004	2.4	5.6	2.3	5.1	2.1	2.1	2.4	2.2	1.3
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
	2002	3.6	11.0	2.4	4.3	2.2	3.5	2.8	4.5	2.0
	2003	3.1	9.9	2.3	4.3	2.1	2.8	2.8	3.5	1.9
	2004	3.1	10.0	2.3	4.1	2.1	2.8	2.6	3.6	1.8
	2005	3.1	9.4	2.3	4.2	2.1	2.8	2.7	3.4	1.8
	2006	3.1	10.0	2.3	4.2	2.2	2.8	2.7	3.5	1.9
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
	2000	7.2	24.5	3.7	9.4	3.1	5.8	5.6	6.2	3.0
	2003	7.5	26.8	3.6	9.6	3.0	6.5	6.2	6.8	3.4
	2006	6.9	21.6	3.7	7.7	3.3	6.8	6.6	7.2	3.1
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
	2002	…	…	…	…	…	1.9	1.5	2.0	2.2
	2004	…	…	…	…	…	2.0	1.5	1.9	2.1
	2005	…	…	…	…	…	2.1	1.6	2.0	2.8
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
	2002	5.2	8.6	4.4	7.7	3.9	4.0	3.7	4.4	2.3
	2004	4.6	7.0	4.6	8.0	4.1	3.3	3.2	3.5	2.9
	2005	4.3	6.8	3.7	6.0	3.5	3.5	3.1	3.8	1.9
	2006	4.4	8.5	3.9	6.0	3.7	3.3	2.9	3.6	3.0

Table 28.1 (continued)

AVERAGE INCOME OF THE URBAN MALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET

(In multiples of the relevant per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises [a]				Unskilled self-employed workers [b]			Domestic employment
			Employers	Wage or salary earners						
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional non-technical	Total [c]	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
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
	2002	3.1	6.5	2.2	3.8	2.1	3.0	2.7	3.2	1.9
	2004	3.0	6.5	2.3	4.2	2.2	2.5	2.3	2.7	2.8
	2005	3.2	7.4	2.5	5.3	2.3	2.6	2.7	2.9	2.1
	2006	3.2	7.4	2.4	4.9	2.3	2.8	2.7	3.0	2.0
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
	2001	3.1	7.9	2.5	3.9	2.4	2.6	2.2	3.4	2.3
	2004	3.1	7.9	2.5	2.9	2.5	2.8	2.5	2.9	2.8
Guatemala	1989	3.5	13.7	1.9	4.9	1.8	3.6	3.4	5.4	2.6
	1998	3.3	11.3	2.4	4.0	2.2	2.8	2.5	3.7	1.2
	2002	3.1	6.0	1.8	3.9	1.7	1.5	1.6	2.0	1.7
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
	2002	1.8	4.6	1.6	4.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.8	1.2
	2003	1.7	4.4	1.6	3.6	1.5	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.4
	2006	1.7	4.2	1.7	3.3	1.5	1.2	1.6	1.4	1.8
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
	2000	4.6	13.5	2.4	3.9	2.3	4.7	3.5	5.4	2.1
	2002	4.4	13.1	2.5	5.5	2.3	4.5	3.8	4.9	2.0
	2004	4.1	13.7	2.6	5.7	2.3	4.6	4.3	4.9	2.3
	2005	4.2	11.7	2.5	5.4	2.3	4.9	4.4	5.1	3.3
	2006	3.8	11.0	2.7	5.0	2.2	4.1	3.6	4.3	2.7
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
	2001	2.3	5.5	1.9	4.6	1.8	2.2	1.9	2.8	1.0
Panama	1991	3.6	9.5	3.4	7.9	2.7	3.1	3.1	3.5	1.3
	1994	4.8	12.1	2.6	6.1	2.4	4.5	4.1	4.9	2.2
	1997	4.8	12.3	2.9	5.1	2.6	4.5	4.3	4.9	2.0
	1999	4.3	11.6	3.3	8.5	2.7	3.9	3.6	4.2	2.4
	2002	4.8	10.0	6.8	9.5	6.6	3.3	3.0	3.5	2.4
	2004	3.8	10.1	3.2	6.4	3.0	3.1	3.4	3.2	2.2
	2005	3.8	9.5	3.2	6.1	3.0	2.9	3.0	3.0	2.1
	2006	3.6	8.8	3.6	9.4	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.2	2.4

Table 28.1 (concluded)

AVERAGE INCOME OF THE URBAN MALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET

(In multiples of the relevant per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises [a]				Unskilled self-employed workers [b]			Domestic employment
			Employers	Wage or salary earners						
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional non-technical	Total [c]	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
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
	2001	2.9	7.0	2.4	3.7	2.2	2.1	2.1	2.1	1.9
	2004	2.5	8.2	1.8	2.3	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.0
	2005	2.3	5.2	1.8	2.8	1.7	1.8	1.9	1.9	2.2
(Urban)	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
	2001	2.7	6.5	2.0	3.6	1.9	1.9	1.8	2.1	1.8
	2004	2.4	7.6	1.7	2.5	1.7	1.9	1.8	2.0	1.9
	2005	2.3	5.9	1.8	3.0	1.7	1.8	1.6	2.0	1.8
Peru	1997	3.0	6.9	2.6	4.3	2.5	2.3	2.2	2.5	2.7
	1999	2.4	4.9	2.3	4.3	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.3	1.8
	2001	2.5	5.9	2.1	3.5	2.0	2.0	2.2	2.3	1.8
	2003	2.3	5.9	1.9	2.5	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.3	3.6
Dominican Republic	1997	4.4	10.8	2.7	4.8	2.6	4.7	4.6	4.8	2.2
	2000	4.9	15.0	3.0	8.6	2.4	4.9	5.0	5.0	2.0
	2002	4.9	14.8	2.4	3.2	2.3	4.6	4.6	5.0	2.5
	2004	5.5	16.4	1.5	2.4	1.5	4.9	5.6	5.3	1.2
	2005	2.9	7.4	1.9	3.1	1.8	2.6	2.8	2.8	1.8
	2006	3.1	7.8	1.9	3.6	1.8	3.0	3.1	3.2	2.1
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
	2002	3.3	9.0	2.9	4.7	2.8	2.6	2.3	2.8	3.3
	2004	2.8	8.7	2.2	2.9	2.2	2.4	2.2	2.5	2.6
	2005	2.9	8.4	2.4	4.7	2.3	2.4	2.1	2.5	2.7
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [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
	2002	3.4	8.9	3.3	3.3	1.7	1.7	3.9	3.6	1.9
	2004	3.3	8.5	1.7	2.9	1.7	3.1	3.6	3.5	1.7
	2005	4.0	10.6	2.1	2.9	2.1	4.0	4.5	4.4	1.7
	2006	3.8	8.6	2.5	3.7	2.5	3.7	4.1	4.1	1.8

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons. For Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama (up to 2002) and Uruguay (1990), includes establishments employing up to four persons. Where no information was available on the size of the establishments, no figures are given for the population employed in low-productivity sectors.

[b] Refers to own-account and unpaid family workers without professional or technical skills.

[c] Includes persons employed in agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing.

[d] Until 1990, the "microenterprises" category included wage earners without an employment contract.

[e] Information from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).

[f] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[g] Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

[h] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 28.2

AVERAGE INCOME OF THE URBAN FEMALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-2006

(In multiples of the relevant per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises [a]				Unskilled self-employed workers [b]			Domestic employment
			Employers	Wage or salary earners			Total [c]	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
	2002	2.7	11.9	2.0	3.3	1.8	2.7	2.1	2.9	1.7
	2004	2.7	13.3	2.5	3.4	2.4	3.3	2.5	3.6	1.6
	2005	3.2	15.3	2.8	4.2	2.6	3.7	3.3	3.8	1.7
	2006	3.3	15.4	3.1	4.1	3.0	4.2	2.7	4.6	1.7
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
	2002	1.7	5.4	2.1	2.9	2.0	1.4	1.1	1.6	2.0
	2004	1.5	6.5	1.7	3.4	1.5	1.2	1.0	1.4	1.4
Brazil [d]	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
	2001	1.8	9.5	2.3	3.2	1.8	1.6	1.3	2.0	1.4
	2003	1.7	8.4	2.1	3.1	2.0	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.4
	2004	1.7	8.1	2.1	3.4	1.9	1.3	1.4	1.7	1.3
	2005	1.7	7.3	2.1	3.3	2.0	1.3	1.3	1.7	1.3
	2006	1.7	8.5	2.3	3.7	2.1	1.4	1.4	1.8	1.4
Chile [e]	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
	2000	3.5	14.0	3.3	6.6	2.8	3.9	3.6	4.0	2.4
	2003	3.8	18.3	3.0	4.6	2.8	4.0	3.4	4.2	2.4
	2006	3.3	14.7	3.1	5.5	2.7	3.8	3.3	4.0	2.3
Colombia [f]	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
	2002	…	…	…	…	…	1.0	0.8	1.0	1.7
	2004	…	…	…	…	…	1.0	0.8	1.0	1.8
	2005	…	…	…	…	…	1.0	0.8	1.1	1.9
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
	2002	3.0	9.2	3.6	5.2	3.4	2.0	2.3	1.9	2.0
	2004	2.7	6.7	3.7	5.6	3.5	1.7	1.9	1.6	2.2
	2005	2.3	5.1	3.3	5.9	2.8	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.6
	2006	2.6	5.1	3.7	6.3	3.3	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.9

Table 28.2 (continued)

AVERAGE INCOME OF THE URBAN FEMALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-2006

(In multiples of the relevant per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises [a]				Unskilled self-employed workers [b]			Domestic employment
			Employers	Wage or salary earners			Total [c]	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional non-technical				
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
	2002	1.8	5.2	2.2	2.8	2.1	1.7	1.4	1.8	1.5
	2004	1.6	4.4	2.0	2.5	1.9	1.3	0.9	1.4	1.6
	2005	1.9	5.1	2.3	3.5	2.1	1.6	1.2	1.7	1.6
	2006	2.0	5.1	2.3	4.0	2.1	1.5	1.3	1.6	2.0
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
	2001	2.2	6.3	2.1	2.4	2.1	2.0	1.3	2.2	1.9
	2004	2.3	4.8	1.4	2.8	2.0	2.1	1.4	2.3	2.0
Guatemala	1989	1.6	11.1	1.8	2.5	1.5	1.9	1.6	2.1	1.4
	1998	1.6	6.2	1.6	2.8	1.4	1.5	1.0	1.7	0.6
	2002	1.3	3.5	1.6	4.0	1.3	1.0	0.7	1.1	1.6
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
	2002	1.1	4.0	1.4	2.7	1.2	0.9	0.6	1.0	0.8
	2003	1.2	3.7	1.8	3.9	1.5	0.8	0.5	0.9	1.2
	2006	1.0	3.0	1.6	2.5	1.4	0.6	0.7	0.6	1.2
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
	2000	1.7	9.7	1.7	2.7	1.6	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.1
	2002	2.0	10.3	2.0	5.0	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.7	1.3
	2004	1.9	9.5	2.1	3.7	1.8	1.9	1.3	2.0	1.3
	2005	2.2	10.0	2.0	3.2	1.8	1.9	1.4	2.0	1.5
	2006	2.0	8.8	2.1	3.8	1.8	1.8	1.4	1.9	1.3
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
	2001	1.8	8.0	1.9	2.0	1.9	1.6	1.2	1.7	1.4
Panama	1991	2.0	10.3	3.1	6.3	2.7	1.8	1.3	1.9	1.3
	1994	1.9	9.4	2.8	5.8	2.4	2.6	2.2	2.7	1.2
	1997	2.3	9.6	3.2	5.7	2.7	2.5	2.2	2.6	1.4
	1999	2.6	8.8	3.4	7.0	2.9	2.1	1.9	2.2	2.0
	2002	2.5	8.8	4.4	5.9	4.2	1.6	1.5	1.6	2.5
	2004	2.0	5.8	3.3	5.3	3.1	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.6
	2005	2.0	6.0	2.9	5.1	2.7	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.7
	2006	1.9	6.4	3.0	4.4	2.5	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.5

Table 28.2 (concluded)

AVERAGE INCOME OF THE URBAN FEMALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-2006

(In multiples of the relevant per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises [a]				Unskilled self-employed workers [b]			Domestic employment
			Employers	Wage or salary earners			Total [c]	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional non-technical				
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
	2001	1.8	5.2	2.2	2.4	2.1	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.5
	2004	1.4	5.1	1.8	2.4	1.7	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.5
	2005	1.4	3.7	1.9	4.1	1.7	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.5
(Urban)	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
	2001	1.5	5.6	2.0	2.5	1.9	1.2	1.0	1.3	1.4
	2004	1.4	5.3	1.7	2.2	1.6	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.3
	2005	1.2	4.1	1.8	3.3	1.7	1.0	0.8	1.1	1.3
Peru	1997	1.7	5.0	1.8	2.7	1.6	1.3	0.8	1.5	2.3
	1999	1.7	3.2	2.0	3.5	1.7	1.2	0.6	1.3	2.9
	2001	1.6	4.4	1.6	2.4	1.5	1.4	0.7	1.6	2.0
	2003	1.4	4.1	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.9
Dominican Republic	1997	2.5	5.8	2.4	5.6	2.0	2.9	2.5	3.0	1.4
	2000	2.9	12.9	2.5	8.3	2.1	2.9	2.3	3.0	1.1
	2002	2.9	13.6	2.5	5.4	2.2	2.9	3.3	2.9	1.1
	2004	2.8	12.0	1.3	2.4	1.1	3.0	2.9	3.0	0.8
	2005	1.7	5.1	1.4	2.2	1.3	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.2
	2006	1.8	7.5	1.4	2.8	1.3	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.3
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
	2002	2.2	7.9	2.3	3.4	2.2	1.8	1.4	2.0	1.9
	2004	1.8	6.2	1.8	3.2	1.7	1.6	1.2	1.7	1.6
	2005	1.7	6.6	1.8	3.5	1.7	1.5	1.1	1.7	1.6
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [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
	2002	2.2	7.7	1.7	2.2	1.6	2.2	2.0	2.3	1.2
	2004	2.1	7.4	1.6	2.5	1.5	2.1	2.0	2.2	1.2
	2005	2.7	8.9	1.9	2.2	1.8	2.7	2.3	2.8	1.4
	2006	2.6	8.4	2.3	3.8	2.1	2.4	2.2	2.5	1.7

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons. For Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama (up to 2002), and Uruguay (1990), includes establishments employing up to four persons. Where no information was available on the size of the establishments, no figures are given for the population employed in low-productivity sectors.

[b] Refers to own-account and unpaid family workers without professional or technical skills.

[c] Includes persons employed in agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing.

[d] Until 1990, the "microenterprises" category included wage earners without an employment contract.

[e] Information from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).

[f] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. As a result of a changeover to a new survey sample design in 2001, the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

[g] Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

[h] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

EDUCATION

Table 29

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE IN URBAN AREAS, BOTH SEXES, BY PER CAPITA HOUSEHOLD INCOME QUINTILE AND AGE GROUP, 1989-2006

(In percentages of the population of the same age group)

Country	Year	7 - 12			13 - 19			20 - 24		
		Total	Poorest 20%	Richest 20%	Total	Poorest 20%	Richest 20%	Total	Poorest 20%	Richest 20%
Argentina	1990 [a]	98.4	97.9	100.0	68.8	62.6	79.3	23.6	12.4	39.8
	2002 [b]	99.4	99.1	100.0	83.2	76.3	96.4	40.5	21.7	61.6
	2004	98.9	98.7	99.4	78.7	73.9	88.8	38.2	22.9	60.7
	2005	99.0	98.7	99.8	79.8	75.1	90.0	38.1	22.4	62.7
	2006	99.2	99.1	99.6	78.4	73.6	89.3	38.9	24.0	62.2
Bolivia	1989 [c]	97.3	95.9	96.3	85.0	84.4	87.5	44.3	45.6	52.7
	2002	96.9	95.6	98.3	84.6	84.2	88.2	43.3	32.9	74.3
	2004	97.8	96.6	99.8	82.5	83.5	90.6	38.9	28.2	64.8
Brazil	1990	91.4	83.6	98.5	64.6	56.1	86.7	19.8	11.6	39.8
	2001	97.6	95.8	99.6	77.5	72.6	90.6	27.5	18.7	52.9
	2003	98.2	96.8	99.7	78.4	74.5	90.5	28.1	19.5	55.3
	2004	98.0	96.7	99.8	77.4	73.9	89.4	26.8	18.5	54.0
	2005	98.3	97.4	99.6	76.9	73.6	89.8	26.3	17.4	53.9
	2006	98.7	97.9	99.6	76.8	74.0	90.0	26.9	16.9	56.0
Chile	1990	98.8	97.9	99.4	78.6	74.3	89.6	18.7	8.2	41.5
	1998	99.2	98.7	99.9	81.5	75.1	92.2	30.0	12.8	62.0
	2003	99.5	99.2	99.6	85.3	81.4	94.1	35.3	18.9	67.8
	2006	99.2	98.9	99.9	82.7	81.6	89.0	36.4	19.1	64.1
Colombia	1990 [d]	96.0	92.6	99.1	74.9	66.3	92.8	28.1	15.3	48.9
	2002	96.3	94.0	99.4	68.2	64.3	85.1	23.5	12.7	52.2
	2004	96.9	94.9	98.1	71.0	68.4	86.3	25.0	12.6	53.0
	2005	97.4	95.8	99.6	73.0	70.1	89.2	25.0	11.6	56.6
Costa Rica	1990	96.8	95.3	98.4	68.6	57.9	86.2	28.5	20.0	52.1
	2002	98.5	97.2	99.4	76.9	72.9	90.2	43.3	29.7	60.6
	2004	99.5	99	100.0	77.9	74.5	89.1	44.1	22.9	65.2
	2005	99.4	99	100.0	80.2	78.2	93.4	41.3	26.4	67.5
	2006	99.2	97.8	100.0	78.6	71.3	94.9	43.0	23.2	65.7
Ecuador	1990	97.8	97.1	98.6	77.2	78.1	84.5	35.4	32.5	42.0
	2002	95.9	92.6	98.6	73.3	68.1	87.3	30.2	17.1	50.4
	2004	96.8	95.3	99.1	75.6	66.4	91.7	33.6	17.2	55.2
	2005	96.4	93.1	99.7	75.3	70.2	88.9	32.6	21.4	52.0
	2006	97.1	94.0	100.0	75.9	67.4	92.0	33.0	15.6	58.1
El Salvador	1995	92.2	85.8	99.6	70.5	64.2	87.0	27.2	13.1	49.6
	2001	92.6	85.9	100.0	73.4	66.0	87.0	25.5	11.3	49.5
	2004	94.7	91.6	99.0	75.1	67.5	90.2	24.3	14.5	43.6
Guatemala	1990	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2002	90.4	84.2	94.3	66.9	63.3	78.3	25.5	11.1	43.9
Honduras	1990	89.5	85.1	98.3	57.7	51.2	79.2	22.2	13.4	41.1
	2002	92.3	86.2	98.1	63.8	50.0	85.8	26.9	9.8	51.1
	2003	94.7	89.9	99.2	66.7	55.8	83.6	28.7	13.3	53.0
	2006	95.5	92.4	98.6	70.8	63.5	85.1	32.4	18.7	52.6

Table 29 (concluded)

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE IN URBAN AREAS, BOTH SEXES, BY PER CAPITA HOUSEHOLD INCOME QUINTILE AND AGE GROUP, 1989-2006

(In percentages of the population of the same age group)

Country	Year	7 - 12			13 - 19			20 - 24		
		Total	Poorest 20%	Richest 20%	Total	Poorest 20%	Richest 20%	Total	Poorest 20%	Richest 20%
Mexico	1992	97.4	95.8	99.5	62.7	55.6	80.7	23.9	7.1	47.3
	2002	98.1	96.3	99.6	68.9	57.6	92.8	30.7	16.4	55.1
	2004	98.6	97.1	100.0	68.0	62.2	86.2	27.7	12.3	50.2
	2005	97.9	96.3	99.1	70.0	60.5	87.1	27.4	14.4	48.7
	2006	98.7	97.2	99.7	70.4	61.0	88.6	28.7	13.1	51.4
Nicaragua	1993	88.7	82.5	97.3	69.5	56.7	80.4	24.4	17.1	34.0
	2001	93.1	88.1	96.3	69.9	61.5	79.2	31.5	15.4	52.1
Panama	1991	98.7	98.4	99.5	81.3	76.1	91.1	37.6	25.8	57.0
	2002	98.9	98.4	99.3	81.4	78.0	89.1	35.6	22.6	55.0
	2004	99.0	97.8	100.0	82.7	77.9	94.5	34.6	21.6	58.8
	2005	99.1	98.4	100.0	81.4	76.4	94.4	34.4	20.8	52.5
	2006	99.1	98.7	100.0	81.7	79.5	94.1	36.5	20.0	58.9
Paraguay	1994	96.0	94.5	99.2	71.2	62.0	85.3	23.6	12.0	43.0
	2001	97.7	97.4	99.9	74.1	63.8	86.8	31.9	13.7	61.5
	2004	98.0	95.8	99.3	77.6	73.3	82.7	27.9	11.0	53.0
	2005	99.4	99.1	100.0	78.8	70.7	88.2	29.6	10.4	57.2
Peru	1997	97.6	96.2	99.5	72.4	73.1	84.1	29.8	20.7	44.6
	2001	98.6	97.7	98.9	72.9	72.2	74.8	27.7	18.9	40.6
	2003	98.2	97.6	100.0	73.0	74.3	77.0	33.5	24.4	61.0
Dominican Republic	2000	97.6	95.3	99.5	82.6	84.6	87.6	43.2	38.6	56.3
	2002	97.7	95.9	99.2	83.7	83.3	89.3	44.3	34.4	60.5
	2004	98.0	96.9	99.5	83.2	82.9	84.2	42.1	34.3	48.3
	2005	97.6	97.2	98.1	83.3	83.0	84.2	40.9	30.7	57.9
	2006	97.9	97.3	99.1	82.6	82.2	85.0	42.5	38.2	55.8
Uruguay	1990	99.1	98.9	100.0	70.6	60.5	89.4	26.7	8.6	54.2
	2002	98.2	98.2	98.8	76.5	64.2	94.9	34.8	12.7	73.0
	2004	98.5	98.2	99.0	77.8	67.5	96.1	37.0	15.7	73.4
	2005	98.6	98.6	99.6	76.6	66.4	96.2	37.4	14.1	72.5
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	95.4	94.3	97.9	68.7	68.8	78.3	27.3	27.0	39.3
	2002 [e]	96.7	94.6	98.6	67.2	62.7	77.8	33.6	20.8	54.7
	2004 [e]	96.6	95.0	97.8	74.6	72.6	80.6	40.7	33.5	58.0
	2005 [e]	97.5	96.1	98.9	75.4	74.4	80.6	43.2	34.3	60.4
	2006 [e]	97.8	96.5	99.5	76.4	74.6	85.2	45.9	36.7	63.4

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Metropolitan area.

[b] Twenty-eight urban agglomerates.

[c] Cochabamba, El Alto, La Paz, Oruro, Potosí, Santa Cruz, Sucre, Tarija and Trinidad.

[d] Barranquilla, Bogotá, Bucaramanga, Cali, Cartagena, Manizales, Medellín and Pasto.

[e] Nationwide total.

Table 30

POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over
Argentina [a]	1980	7.6	77.3	...	15.0	...	...	...	...
(Greater Buenos	1990	3.3	78.6	...	18.2	...	...	...	...
Aires)	1994	3.9	77.2	...	18.9	...	...	...	...
	1999	2.5	40.6	41.5	15.5	...	...	...	...
	2002	2.9	35.2	44.5	17.4	...	...	...	...
	2004	2.8	34.0	47.5	15.6	...	...	...	...
	2006	1.5	39.9	42.0	16.6	...	...	...	...
Bolivia	1997	11.9	31.1	44.4	12.6	48.3	34.9	15.3	1.5
	2002	8.8	29.5	45.8	15.9	44.3	34.1	20.5	1.2
	2004	8.6	31.3	43.8	16.3	27.2	39.3	31.0	2.6
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
	2001	23.1	41.1	31.6	4.1	58.6	30.7	10.3	0.4
	2003	18.2	40.8	35.9	5.1	48.2	37.9	13.2	0.7
	2006	13.6	39.0	41.0	6.4	39.2	41.3	18.7	0.7
Chile	1990	5.7	33.2	45.4	15.8	16.6	57.1	22.4	3.9
	1994	4.2	31.3	46.4	18.1	14.3	54.8	26.2	4.8
	2000	2.6	29.9	51.1	16.5	8.4	49.8	37.1	4.6
	2003	1.6	28.3	51.8	18.4	5.4	45.4	44.2	5.1
	2006	1.3	26.5	53.0	19.2	3.3	38.3	51.8	6.5
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
	2002	13.5	29.5	37.1	19.9	...	...	...	...
	2005	10.9	28.2	37.8	23.2	...	...	...	...
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
	2002	7.3	49.4	30.4	12.8	19.1	61.4	15.5	4.0
	2006	5.6	48.8	31.8	13.8	14.3	60.0	20.2	5.5
Cuba [c]	2002	1.4	36.2	39.3	23.1	3.9	54.1	26.8	12.2
	2006	0.8	23.9	49.3	26.0	1.9	32.6	49.4	16.0
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	...	...	...	...
	2002	6.5	39.4	37.6	16.5	...	...	...	...
	2006	4.0	35.6	42.3	18.1	11.4	58.9	25.6	4.1

Table 30 (continued)

POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over
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
	2001	13.8	39.5	33.7	13.0	43.9	41.8	12.3	2.0
	2004	14.8	40.5	32.4	12.3	38.9	44.9	14.8	1.4
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
	2004	25.0	43.2	24.8	7.0	58.4	35.5	5.9	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
	2003	16.1	52.4	23.8	7.7	45.4	49.9	4.1	0.6
	2006	12.5	51.5	28.2	7.8	37.3	54.2	7.8	0.6
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
	2002	6.3	42.2	37.2	14.3	15.2	59.7	20.2	4.9
	2004	4.5	46.6	32.2	16.7	14.1	56.8	23.1	6.0
	2006	3.5	45.2	34.1	17.2	11.5	57.6	27.0	3.9
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
	2001	19.8	46.4	26.1	7.7	60.5	33.2	5.5	0.7
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
	2002	3.5	38.6	41.8	16.1	20.2	53.6	21.2	5.1
	2006	2.3	33.8	43.7	20.2	14.1	52.9	27.3	5.7
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	...	...	...	...
	1997	6.2	48.1	37.1	8.6	...	...	...	...
	2001	7.3	39.0	40.7	12.9	...	...	...	...
	2005	3.6	38.8	45.2	12.4	...	...	...	...
Peru	1999	3.4	32.9	49.6	14.1	25.1	49.0	22.7	3.2
	2001	5.6	31.6	44.0	18.8	22.1	48.7	23.5	5.7
	2003	3.9	25.8	47.8	22.5	19.9	47.5	26.5	6.1
Dominican Republic	2000	13.1	35.5	37.1	14.3	37.4	38.7	20.4	3.5
	2002	11.7	35.1	37.3	15.9	31.3	41.6	23.4	3.7
	2006	10.1	33.7	40.4	15.8	20.4	39.3	34.3	6.0

Table 30 (concluded)

POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over
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	...	...	...	...
	2002	3.3	47.4	35.5	13.8	...	...	...	...
	2005	3.2	45.5	36.7	14.6	...	...	...	...
Venezuela	1981	13.5	58.5	20.4	7.7	46.1	46.4	6.8	0.7
(Bol. Rep. of) [d]	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	...	...	...	...
	2002	9.9	46.3	29.0	14.8	...	...	...	...
	2006	7.7	38.3	34.0	20.0	...	...	...	...

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Information from which the number of years of schooling could be calculated became available for Mexico in 1996 and for Argentina in 1997.The figures for previous years are estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary education, complete primary education, incomplete secondary education, complete secondary education and higher education.

[b] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. The figures for 1980 and 1990 therefore refer to eight major cities only.

[c] Figures supplied by the National Statistical Office (ONE) of Cuba, on the basis of 2002 population and housing censuses and the 2006 National Employment Survey.

[d] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 30.1

MALE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over
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	...	...	...	...
	2002	3.7	39.2	41.6	15.4	...	...	...	...
	2004	3.6	35.8	47.8	12.7	...	...	...	...
	2006	1.7	43.1	41.6	13.5	...	...	...	...
Bolivia	1997	9.2	31.3	46.6	12.9	40.0	39.1	19.8	1.1
	2002	6.8	29.1	48.6	15.5	37.5	36.1	24.9	1.5
	2004	5.6	31.6	46.3	16.5	20.9	40.2	35.1	3.8
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
	2001	26.2	42.3	28.3	3.2	63.0	28.1	8.5	0.3
	2003	21.1	42.0	32.7	4.1	53.2	35.3	11.1	0.5
	2006	16.3	40.5	37.8	5.4	44.2	39.6	15.6	0.5
Chile	1990	6.1	33.7	45.4	14.8	18.7	57.6	20.5	3.1
	1994	4.6	32.3	45.5	17.7	16.2	55.5	24.2	4.2
	2000	2.7	30.8	49.6	16.8	9.5	52.7	34.3	3.5
	2003	2.0	29.3	50.9	17.9	6.2	46.5	43.3	3.9
	2006	1.6	27.6	52.3	18.5	3.7	40.4	50.9	5.1
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
	2002	14.3	30.8	36.1	18.8	...	...	...	...
	2005	12.0	30.1	36.1	21.8	...	...	...	...
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
	2002	8.0	50.5	29.8	11.7	20.9	61.9	13.4	3.7
	2006	6.4	51.8	29.9	11.9	15.8	60.8	18.7	4.7
Cuba [c]	2002	1.8	40.0	36.5	21.7	4.8	59.0	24.0	12.2
	2006	1.0	26.7	48.5	23.8	2.7	33.9	48.1	15.3
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	...	...	...	...
	2002	7.1	40.5	37.2	15.2	...	...	...	...
	2006	3.5	37.4	42.9	16.2	11.5	59.4	25.5	3.5
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
	2001	13.0	41.6	33.4	11.9	42.4	43.6	12.0	2.0
	2004	15.0	39.9	32.9	12.1	38.9	45.8	14.2	1.2
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
	2004	19.9	46.9	26.2	6.9	52.0	41.4	6.3	0.4

Table 30.1 (concluded)

MALE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over
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
	2003	18.1	53.4	21.5	7.0	48.6	47.4	3.6	0.5
	2006	13.7	53.2	25.5	7.6	41.9	51.8	5.7	0.6
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
	2002	5.3	44.3	35.9	14.5	14.9	61.2	19.7	4.3
	2004	4.9	47.5	32.1	15.5	14.4	58.3	21.1	6.2
	2006	3.7	47.2	32.9	16.1	11.3	58.4	25.7	4.6
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
	2001	23.5	49.0	21.3	6.2	64.2	30.7	4.7	0.4
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
	2002	4.1	42.3	40.0	13.6	19.0	58.1	19.5	3.4
	2006	2.4	38.0	42.3	17.3	13.3	54.9	27.0	4.8
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	...	...	...	...
	1997	5.3	45.8	40.1	8.7	...	...	...	...
	2001	6.5	41.9	40.3	11.3	...	...	...	...
	2005	3.4	39.1	46.5	11.0	...	...	...	...
Peru	1999	3.1	33.3	50.0	13.7	20.3	50.6	27.5	1.6
	2001	4.4	31.5	46.5	17.6	16.9	51.9	26.2	5.0
	2003	3.5	26.7	49.1	20.8	14.4	48.7	31.4	5.5
Dominican Republic	2000	15.6	39.4	33.9	11.0	41.9	38.1	17.3	2.8
	2002	14.1	36.9	35.6	13.3	36.0	44.1	17.7	2.2
	2006	12.7	37.6	37.9	11.7	24.8	41.6	29.1	4.4
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	...	...	...	...
	2002	4.0	52.4	32.8	10.7	...	...	...	...
	2005	4.0	48.9	34.6	12.4	...	...	...	...
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [d]	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	...	...	...	...
	2002	12.3	49.8	26.2	11.7	...	...	...	...
	2006	10.0	42.2	31.9	15.9	...	...	...	...

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Information from which the number of years of schooling could be calculated became available for Mexico in 1996 and for Argentina in 1997. The figures for previous years are estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary education, complete primary education, incomplete secondary, complete secondary and higher education.

[b] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. The figures for 1980 and 1990 therefore refer to eight major cities only.

[c] Figures supplied by the National Statistical Office (ONE) of Cuba, on the basis of the 2002 population and housing census and the 2006 National Employment Survey.

[d] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 30.2

FEMALE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over
Argentina [a]	1980	7.7	75.9	...	16.5	...	...	...	...
(Greater Buenos	1990	3.4	75.2	...	21.3	...	...	...	...
Aires)	1994	3.0	74.1	...	22.9	...	...	...	...
	1999	2.4	35.4	43.0	19.1	...	...	...	...
	2002	2.1	31.4	47.3	19.2	...	...	...	...
	2004	2.1	32.2	47.3	18.5	...	...	...	...
	2006	1.3	37.0	42.3	19.5	...	...	...	...
Bolivia	1997	14.5	30.9	42.3	12.4	56.9	30.5	10.8	1.8
	2002	10.5	29.9	43.4	16.3	52.0	31.7	15.4	0.8
	2004	11.4	31.1	41.5	16.0	33.6	38.3	26.7	1.4
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
	2001	20.2	40.0	34.7	5.0	53.5	33.8	12.2	0.4
	2003	15.4	39.6	39.0	6.0	42.4	40.9	15.7	0.9
	2006	11.0	37.5	44.2	7.4	33.6	43.3	22.3	0.8
Chile	1990	5.3	32.7	45.3	16.7	14.3	56.5	24.5	4.8
	1994	3.9	30.4	47.2	18.5	12.4	54.1	28.2	5.4
	2000	2.4	28.9	52.6	16.1	7.3	46.8	40.2	5.7
	2003	1.1	27.2	52.7	19.0	4.5	44.0	45.2	6.3
	2006	1.0	25.4	53.7	19.8	3.0	36.1	52.9	8.0
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
	2002	12.9	28.3	38.0	20.8	…	…	…	…
	2005	9.8	26.5	39.3	24.4	...	...	...	...
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
	2002	6.6	48.2	31.1	14.0	17.2	60.8	17.8	4.2
	2006	4.8	45.8	33.7	15.7	12.8	59.1	21.7	6.4
Cuba [c]	2002	1.0	32.4	42.1	24.5	2.8	55.2	29.8	12.1
	2006	0.5	20.9	50.2	28.4	1.1	31.2	50.9	16.7
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	...	...	...	...
	2002	5.9	38.3	38.0	17.8	...	...	...	...
	2006	4.5	33.8	41.7	20.0	11.3	58.3	25.6	4.7

Table 30.2 (continued)

FEMALE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over
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
	2001	14.6	37.6	33.9	13.9	45.5	40.0	12.6	1.9
	2004	14.6	41.1	31.9	12.4	38.9	44.0	15.4	1.6
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
	2004	29.8	39.7	23.4	7.1	64.2	30.1	5.6	0.1
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
	2003	14.3	51.6	25.7	8.3	42.0	52.6	4.8	0.6
	2006	11.5	50.2	30.5	7.9	32.6	56.7	10.0	0.7
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
	2002	7.3	40.0	38.5	14.2	15.5	58.3	20.6	5.6
	2004	4.1	45.7	32.3	17.9	13.9	55.4	24.9	5.8
	2006	3.2	43.2	35.3	18.3	11.7	56.9	28.2	3.2
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
	2001	16.4	44.0	30.5	9.1	56.4	36.0	6.5	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
	2002	3.0	34.6	43.6	18.8	21.5	48.5	23.0	7.0
	2006	2.1	29.9	45.0	22.9	15.0	50.6	27.5	6.8
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	...	...	...	...
	1997	6.9	50.1	34.5	8.5	...	...	...	...
	2001	8.0	36.6	41.1	14.3	...	...	...	...
	2005	3.7	38.6	44.1	13.6	...	...	...	...
Peru	1999	3.6	32.6	49.3	14.5	30.3	47.2	17.4	5.1
	2001	6.8	31.7	41.5	20.0	27.8	45.3	20.5	6.5
	2003	4.2	25.0	46.5	24.3	26.1	46.2	20.9	6.8
Dominican Republic	2000	10.6	31.8	40.2	17.4	32.5	39.4	23.9	4.2
	2002	9.3	33.3	39.0	18.4	25.0	38.5	30.7	5.7
	2006	7.5	29.9	42.8	19.7	15.2	36.5	40.4	7.9

Table 30.2 (concluded)

FEMALE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over
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	...	...	...	...
	2002	2.7	42.3	38.2	16.9	...	...	...	...
	2005	2.4	42.0	38.8	16.7	...	...	...	...
Venezuela	1981	11.8	58.0	22.0	8.2	42.2	48.8	7.9	1.0
(Bol. Rep. of) [d]	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	...	...	...	...
	2002	7.5	42.6	31.9	18.0	...	...	...	...
	2006	5.3	34.2	36.2	24.2	...	...	...	...

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Information from which the number of years of schooling could be calculated became available for Mexico in 1996 and for Argentina in 1997. The figures for previous years are estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary education, complete primary education, incomplete secondary, complete secondary and higher education.

[b] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. The figures for 1980 and 1990 therefore refer to eight major cities only.

[c] Figures supplied by the National Statistical Office (ONE) of Cuba, on the basis of the 2002 population and housing census and the 2006 National Employment Survey.

[d] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 31

POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over
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	...	...	...	...
	2002	7.6	37.0	29.7	25.7	...	...	...	...
	2004	6.6	36.9	29.9	26.6	...	...	...	...
	2006	6.5	33.3	31.1	29.1	...	...	...	...
Bolivia	1997	34.1	17.3	28.4	20.3	78.3	12.2	5.8	3.8
	2002	31.0	18.6	25.7	24.6	74.6	16.5	6.4	2.5
	2004	33.0	18.1	25.7	23.3	67.3	17.3	9.1	6.3
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
	2001	43.1	21.9	23.4	11.5	83.7	9.9	5.3	1.1
	2003	39.8	21.7	25.9	12.5	79.9	11.8	7.1	1.2
	2006	34.7	21.1	30.0	14.2	74.5	13.9	9.8	1.8
Chile	1990	15.8	29.4	34.5	20.3	43.8	37.3	13.2	5.7
	1994	14.1	24.2	38.9	22.8	39.5	38.7	15.8	6.0
	2000	9.6	22.8	40.6	27.1	34.9	43.4	17.0	4.7
	2003	8.6	21.5	42.0	27.9	29.6	45.4	19.5	5.5
	2006	8.3	21.2	43.8	26.7	24.6	43.6	25.1	6.7
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
	2002	33.2	19.0	26.8	21.0	...	...	...	...
	2005	30.7	18.1	27.6	23.7	...	...	...	...
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
	2002	11.0	42.4	21.7	24.9	28.8	53.0	10.3	7.9
	2006	10.6	40.9	21.6	26.9	25.1	53.8	11.6	9.5
Cuba [c]	2002	4.5	33.3	24.7	37.5	13.4	54.2	17.0	15.4
	2006	2.8	30.9	31.3	35.0	8.1	52.8	24.6	14.5
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	...	...	...	...
	2002	11.4	36.5	25.5	26.5	...	...	...	...
	2006	10.1	34.4	27.7	27.8	36.0	49.1	10.1	4.7
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
	2001	29.7	29.9	22.9	17.5	72.2	21.0	5.1	1.8
	2004	27.6	30.5	23.6	18.3	68.7	23.4	6.1	1.8
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
	2004	41.5	29.9	19.4	9.2	81.9	14.4	2.9	0.8
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
	2003	29.7	37.8	20.0	12.5	68.5	27.4	3.2	0.9
	2006	26.6	38.9	20.9	13.7	64.5	30.4	3.7	1.3

Table 31 (concluded)

POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over
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
	2002	17.2	43.3	21.3	18.1	50.3	36.9	7.6	5.2
	2004	15.7	43.8	18.9	21.6	41.0	43.3	9.1	6.5
	2006	12.9	43.0	20.9	23.2	39.4	46.3	8.9	5.4
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
	2001	37.6	33.8	17.3	11.4	76.8	18.0	3.6	1.5
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
	2002	6.6	36.3	29.1	28.0	32.5	47.7	13.3	6.6
	2006	5.7	34.4	29.8	30.1	26.2	48.5	16.4	8.9
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	...	...	...	...
	1997	17.0	39.0	25.5	18.5	...	...	...	...
	2001	17.5	34.6	26.7	21.3	...	...	...	...
	2005	11.3	35.5	28.6	24.5	...	...	...	...
Peru	1999	21.3	13.8	35.3	29.6	69.3	15.7	10.9	4.2
	2001	22.3	15.5	31.5	30.6	63.4	18.8	12.3	5.5
	2003	20.4	13.9	31.8	33.9	61.2	19.4	13.7	5.8
Dominican Republic	2000	26.4	29.0	23.5	21.1	58.6	26.6	10.4	4.3
	2002	24.7	27.7	25.7	21.9	55.8	26.8	11.7	5.7
	2006	23.0	27.6	25.9	23.6	45.2	29.1	16.2	9.5
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	...	...	...	...
	2002	8.0	43.7	27.2	21.1	...	...	...	...
	2005	7.0	43.2	26.6	23.1	...	...	...	...
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [d]	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	...	...	...	...
	2002	17.8	43.5	20.5	18.1	...	...	...	...
	2006	14.7	39.6	24.3	21.5	...	...	...	...

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Information from which the number of years of schooling could be calculated became available for Mexico in 1996 and for Argentina in 1997. The figures for previous years are estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary education, complete primary education, incomplete secondary, complete secondary and higher education.

[b] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. The figures for 1980 and 1990 therefore refer to eight major cities only.

[c] Figures supplied by the National Statistical Office (ONE) of Cuba, on the basis of the 2002 population and housing census and the 2006 National Employment Survey.

[d] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 31.1

MALE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over
Argentina [a]	1980	20.9	66.1	...	13.1	...	...	...	...
(Greater Buenos	1990	11.2	70.1	...	18.7	...	...	...	...
Aires)	1994	9.1	71.9	...	19.1	...	...	...	...
	1999	8.1	39.8	31.4	20.7	...	...	...	...
	2002	8.5	39.0	28.9	23.6	...	...	...	...
	2004	6.6	38.5	30.5	24.4	...	...	...	...
	2006	6.8	35.7	31.8	25.7	...	...	...	...
Bolivia	1997	25.1	18.4	32.3	24.2	71.3	15.6	7.9	5.2
	2002	22.9	19.5	30.2	27.3	64.5	22.3	9.8	3.3
	2004	23.7	19.4	30.7	26.2	55.9	23.3	13.2	7.6
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
	2001	43.7	22.6	22.7	11.0	85.4	9.5	4.3	0.9
	2003	40.4	22.7	25.3	11.6	81.5	11.8	5.8	0.9
	2006	35.6	22.0	29.4	13.0	76.9	13.3	8.4	1.4
Chile	1990	13.9	28.6	35.2	22.3	42.8	38.7	12.9	5.6
	1994	13.0	23.6	39.4	23.9	38.3	40.4	15.0	6.3
	2000	9.0	21.8	40.5	28.7	35.1	44.2	16.2	4.5
	2003	7.9	21.0	41.9	29.2	28.7	47.0	19.0	5.3
	2006	7.8	20.2	44.3	27.7	24.4	45.1	24.1	6.4
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
	2002	32.5	18.9	26.7	22.0	...	...	...	...
	2005	30.4	17.8	27.2	24.6	...	...	...	...
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
	2002	10.3	43.2	20.9	25.7	28.0	54.4	9.4	8.2
	2006	10.8	41.5	21.7	26.1	25.0	55.1	10.8	9.2
Cuba [c]	2002	4.2	33.6	25.5	36.7	12.1	53.2	17.6	16.9
	2006	2.8	30.9	32.9	33.5	7.2	51.4	26.1	15.3
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	...	...	...	...
	2002	10.1	37.4	24.5	28.0	...	...	...	...
	2006	8.8	35.0	28.0	28.3	31.6	52.5	11.1	4.8

Table 31.1 (continued)

MALE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over
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
	2001	24.2	32.3	23.9	19.6	67.0	24.8	6.5	1.7
	2004	21.0	33.3	25.4	20.2	63.2	27.5	7.5	1.8
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
	2004	34.2	33.4	21.1	11.3	76.9	19.0	3.3	0.8
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
	2003	29.7	38.5	18.0	13.8	69.5	26.8	2.7	1.0
	2006	26.0	39.8	19.3	14.9	65.8	29.3	3.5	1.3
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
	2002	15.5	42.2	19.9	22.4	47.4	38.9	7.4	6.2
	2004	13.5	43.7	18.6	24.2	37.6	45.6	9.9	6.9
	2006	11.1	42.5	20.3	26.2	35.6	48.7	9.2	6.4
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
	2001	35.9	35.7	15.0	13.3	76.3	17.9	3.7	2.2
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
	2002	6.5	38.8	29.4	25.4	31.4	51.4	12.5	4.7
	2006	5.5	37.1	30.4	26.9	24.7	51.2	16.5	7.7
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	...	...	...	...
	1997	13.3	39.4	28.5	18.9	...	...	...	...
	2001	14.3	34.9	28.2	22.6	...	...	...	...
	2005	9.9	35.3	31.5	23.4	...	...	...	...
Peru	1999	14.6	14.2	37.7	33.5	59.3	19.9	16.0	4.8
	2001	16.4	15.8	33.8	34.0	53.6	21.9	17.3	7.2
	2003	14.7	13.3	34.8	37.2	52.1	22.7	18.2	6.9
Dominican Republic	2000	25.9	30.1	23.2	20.8	56.9	28.2	9.9	5.0
	2002	24.8	28.5	24.9	21.8	56.8	26.4	11.7	5.1
	2006	22.9	29.7	26.9	20.5	45.6	31.3	15.1	8.0

Table 31.1 (concluded)

MALE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over
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	...	...	...	...
	2002	8.5	46.1	26.7	18.7	...	...	...	...
	2005	7.7	46.1	26.3	19.9	...	...	...	...
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [d]	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	...	...	...	...
	2002	18.5	45.0	20.3	16.2	...	...	...	...
	2006	16.1	41.9	23.8	18.2	...	...	...	...

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Information from which the number of years of schooling could be calculated became available for Mexico in 1996 and for Argentina in 1997. The figures for previous years are estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary education, complete primary education, incomplete secondary, complete secondary and higher education.

[b] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. The figures for 1980 and 1990 therefore refer to eight major cities only.

[c] Figures supplied by the National Statistical Office (ONE) of Cuba, on the basis of the 2002 population and housing census and the 2006 National Employment Survey.

[d] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 31.2

FEMALE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over
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	...	...	...	...
	2002	6.8	35.1	30.4	27.7	...	...	...	...
	2004	6.6	35.4	29.3	28.7	...	...	...	...
	2006	6.2	31.2	30.5	32.2	...	...	...	...
Bolivia	1997	42.0	16.3	24.9	16.8	85.3	8.8	3.6	2.3
	2002	38.3	17.8	21.7	22.2	85.0	10.5	2.9	1.6
	2004	41.0	16.9	21.3	20.8	78.7	11.3	5.0	5.1
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
	2001	42.7	21.3	24.1	11.9	81.8	10.3	6.5	1.3
	2003	39.3	20.9	26.5	13.3	78.2	11.7	8.5	1.6
	2006	33.9	20.3	30.6	15.3	71.8	14.5	11.3	2.4
Chile	1990	17.5	30.1	33.9	18.5	45.0	35.7	13.5	5.8
	1994	15.0	24.7	38.5	21.8	40.7	37.0	16.6	5.6
	2000	10.0	23.7	40.6	25.7	34.7	42.5	17.8	5.0
	2003	9.3	21.9	42.0	26.7	30.5	43.7	20.0	5.8
	2006	8.7	22.1	43.4	25.8	24.9	42.0	26.1	7.1
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
	2002	33.8	19.1	26.9	20.1	...	...	...	...
	2005	30.9	18.3	27.9	23.0	...	...	...	...
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
	2002	11.6	41.7	22.5	24.3	29.5	51.7	11.3	7.5
	2006	10.5	40.3	21.4	27.7	25.2	52.6	12.5	9.8
Cuba [c]	2002	4.8	33.1	23.9	38.2	14.8	55.2	16.2	13.8
	2006	2.8	31.0	29.7	36.5	9.0	54.4	22.9	13.7
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	...	...	...	...
	2002	12.7	35.6	26.5	25.1	...	...	...	...
	2006	11.4	33.8	27.4	27.4	40.3	45.8	9.1	4.7
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
	2001	33.9	28.0	22.2	15.9	76.6	17.8	3.8	1.8
	2004	32.9	28.2	22.2	16.7	73.3	19.9	4.9	1.9
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
	2004	47.4	26.9	18.0	7.6	86.5	10.3	2.4	0.9
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
	2003	29.7	37.2	21.6	11.5	67.6	28.0	3.7	0.7
	2006	27.1	38.1	22.1	12.7	63.3	31.4	4.0	1.3

Table 31.2 (concluded)

FEMALE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over
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
	2002	18.7	44.2	22.6	14.5	52.8	35.2	7.6	4.4
	2004	17.6	43.8	19.2	19.3	44.0	41.3	8.4	6.2
	2006	14.4	43.5	21.4	20.7	42.6	44.4	8.6	4.5
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
	2001	38.9	32.2	19.2	9.7	77.4	18.2	3.6	0.8
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
	2002	6.7	34.0	28.9	30.4	33.7	43.6	14.1	8.6
	2006	5.9	31.9	29.2	33.0	27.8	45.7	16.3	10.2
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	...	...	...	...
	1997	20.3	38.7	22.9	18.1	...	...	...	...
	2001	20.1	34.3	25.5	20.1	...	...	...	...
	2005	12.7	35.8	26.0	25.6	...	...	...	...
Peru	1999	27.2	13.6	33.1	26.2	78.5	11.8	6.1	3.6
	2001	27.5	15.3	29.6	27.7	72.8	15.8	7.5	3.9
	2003	25.6	14.5	29.1	30.8	70.1	16.1	9.2	4.7
Dominican Republic	2000	26.8	28.2	23.7	21.4	60.4	25.0	10.9	3.6
	2002	24.7	27.1	26.4	21.9	54.9	27.1	11.7	6.3
	2006	23.1	25.6	24.9	26.3	44.8	26.7	17.4	11.1
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	...	...	...	...
	2002	7.6	41.4	27.7	23.3	...	...	...	...
	2005	6.5	40.8	26.8	25.9	...	...	...	...
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [d]	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	...	...	...	...
	2002	17.2	42.1	20.8	20.0	...	...	...	...
	2006	13.3	37.2	24.7	24.7	...	...	...	...

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Information from which the number of years of schooling could be calculated became available for Mexico in 1996 and for Argentina in 1997. The figures for previous years are estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary education, complete primary education,incomplete secondary, complete secondary and higher education.

[b] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. The figures for 1980 and 1990 therefore refer to eight major cities only.

[c] Figures supplied by the National Statistical Office (ONE) of Cuba, on the basis of the 2002 population and housing census and the 2006 National Employment Survey.

[d] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 32

ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION AGED 15 AND OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over
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	...	...	...	...
	2002	7.2	34.1	31.9	26.8	...	...	...	...
	2006	6.1	31.9	33.1	29.0	...	...	...	...
Bolivia	1997	31.7	19.7	30.8	17.8	74.5	15.9	6.7	2.8
	2002	27.3	21.2	29.3	22.2	69.1	19.5	9.4	2.0
	2004	28.5	20.8	29.7	21.0	62.0	20.6	12.6	4.8
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
	2001	36.7	24.8	27.4	11.1	79.1	13.7	6.4	0.9
	2003	33.2	24.3	30.3	12.1	74.1	16.5	8.2	1.1
	2006	28.5	23.1	34.5	13.9	68.5	18.4	11.6	1.6
Chile	1990	13.0	26.9	36.4	23.7	36.8	40.9	15.2	7.0
	1994	11.7	22.8	40.1	25.3	34.2	40.9	17.7	7.2
	2000	8.4	21.4	42.3	27.9	32.1	42.3	20.1	5.5
	2003	7.5	19.9	44.0	28.5	26.6	42.7	24.7	6.0
	2006	7.6	19.2	45.5	27.7	22.5	39.6	30.5	7.5
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
	2002	29.6	19.1	29.9	21.4	...	...	...	...
	2005	27.4	17.6	30.2	24.8	...	...	...	...
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
	2002	10.1	42.0	22.7	25.2	26.2	54.2	11.2	8.4
	2006	9.8	40.6	23.1	26.6	23.0	53.2	13.5	10.3
Cuba [c]	2002	2.8	28.7	24.7	43.8	11.2	50.9	17.9	20.0
	2006	1.4	25.5	32.1	41.0	5.8	46.4	27.9	19.9
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	...	...	...	...
	2002	12.0	37.4	25.9	24.7	...	...	...	...
	2006	10.4	34.1	29.0	26.5	35.5	48.1	12.3	4.1
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
	2001	27.6	30.6	25.5	16.3	64.2	26.9	7.1	1.8
	2004	26.1	30.8	25.9	17.3	60.1	28.8	9.2	1.8
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
	2004	36.2	33.1	21.5	9.3	72.9	22.2	4.2	0.7
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
	2003	28.6	39.7	20.3	11.3	63.6	32.1	3.3	1.0
	2006	24.4	40.8	21.9	12.8	59.5	34.8	4.4	1.3

Table 32 (concluded)

ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION AGED 15 AND OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over
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
	2002	14.7	42.9	23.5	18.9	45.2	40.1	9.7	5.0
	2004	14.3	42.8	20.8	22.1	37.1	45.4	10.6	6.9
	2006	11.8	42.2	22.6	23.4	37.3	45.5	11.9	5.3
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
	2001	33.6	36.7	18.8	10.9	71.8	22.6	4.4	1.2
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
	2002	7.6	34.4	30.7	27.3	34.8	45.7	13.2	6.3
	2006	5.2	32.6	31.5	30.7	28.0	46.6	16.9	8.5
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	...	...	...	...
	1997	15.0	39.8	27.9	17.3	...	...	...	...
	2001	15.3	34.4	29.1	21.2	...	...	...	...
	2005	10.8	34.3	32.0	22.9	...	...	...	...
Peru	1999	19.7	17.3	36.8	26.2	62.9	21.7	12.3	3.0
	2001	20.9	18.2	33.6	27.4	57.8	23.8	13.8	4.5
	2003	19.0	15.7	34.5	30.8	56.2	24.0	15.1	4.6
Dominican Republic	2000	22.7	29.0	26.2	22.1	54.6	27.7	12.6	5.0
	2002	22.0	27.9	27.3	22.9	51.5	28.1	14.2	6.2
	2006	21.6	26.7	27.8	24.0	42.2	29.6	18.4	9.8
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	...	...	...	...
	2002	7.1	43.2	28.5	21.2	...	...	...	...
	2005	6.4	42.7	27.9	23.0	...	...	...	...
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [d]	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	...	...	...	...
	2002	17.1	42.9	22.0	18.0	...	...	...	...
	2006	14.6	38.6	25.1	21.7	...	...	...	...

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Information from which the number of years of schooling could be calculated became available for Mexico in 1996 and for Argentina in 1997. The figures for previous years are estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary education, complete primary education incomplete secondary, complete secondary and higher education.

[b] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. The figures for 1980 and 1990 therefore refer to eight major cities only.

[c] Figures supplied by the National Statistical Office (ONE) of Cuba, on the basis of the 2002 population and housing census and the 2006 National Employment Survey.

[d] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 32.1

ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION AGED 15 AND OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over
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	...	...	...	...
	2002	7.7	38.8	30.7	22.7	...	...	...	...
	2006	6.5	35.8	33.9	23.8	...	...	...	...
Bolivia	1997	25.7	21.0	34.3	18.9	68.2	19.1	9.0	3.6
	2002	22.0	22.0	33.0	23.0	61.6	23.5	12.6	2.4
	2004	21.9	22.5	34.2	21.4	52.7	25.1	16.5	5.7
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
	2001	40.1	26.0	24.5	9.3	80.8	13.4	5.1	0.6
	2003	36.4	25.8	27.7	10.0	75.6	16.9	6.8	0.7
	2006	31.7	24.6	32.1	11.7	70.8	18.4	9.8	1.0
Chile	1990	13.4	28.8	37.1	20.7	39.1	42.2	13.8	4.9
	1994	12.3	24.2	40.6	22.8	36.4	42.0	16.0	5.6
	2000	9.1	22.7	42.3	25.9	34.9	43.2	17.8	4.1
	2003	7.8	21.6	44.3	26.3	28.9	44.4	22.1	4.6
	2006	8.2	20.4	46.0	25.4	24.9	41.9	27.5	5.7
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
	2002	31.8	19.7	28.7	19.7	...	...	...	...
	2005	29.9	18.4	29.1	22.6	...	...	...	...
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
	2002	11.0	44.9	21.6	22.4	28.9	55.2	9.4	6.4
	2006	10.9	43.8	22.5	22.8	25.7	55.0	11.7	7.6
Cuba [c]	2002	3.5	33.8	25.1	37.5	12.6	54.0	16.8	16.7
	2006	1.8	30.3	33.2	34.8	6.8	50.5	26.8	15.9
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	...	...	...	...
	2002	11.6	39.6	25.2	23.6	...	...	...	...
	2006	9.8	36.8	29.8	23.6	32.8	50.8	12.8	3.6
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
	2001	25.3	33.5	25.3	15.9	64.3	27.6	6.9	1.3
	2004	23.5	34.0	26.1	16.4	61.0	28.9	8.7	1.4
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
	2004	33.9	35.7	21.0	9.3	71.8	24.4	3.3	0.5
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
	2003	30.5	41.4	17.4	10.7	66.0	30.8	2.4	0.7
	2006	26.4	43.1	18.8	11.8	62.5	33.4	3.2	0.9

Table 32.1 (concluded)

ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION AGED 15 AND OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over
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
	2002	15.0	44.8	21.2	18.9	44.1	42.4	8.8	4.6
	2004	14.4	44.8	19.8	20.9	38.2	45.8	10.5	5.5
	2006	11.6	44.3	21.4	22.7	36.4	47.4	11.0	5.2
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
	2001	35.9	38.6	15.3	10.2	74.7	20.6	3.5	1.2
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
	2002	7.9	39.3	30.3	22.5	35.7	49.2	11.5	3.6
	2006	5.9	37.2	32.2	24.7	28.6	49.4	16.1	5.9
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	...	...	...	...
	1997	13.1	39.6	30.8	16.5	...	...	...	...
	2001	13.9	36.4	29.8	20.0	...	...	...	...
	2005	9.2	35.6	34.5	20.6	...	...	...	...
Peru	1999	15.7	17.3	40.1	26.9	54.4	25.9	16.5	3.1
	2001	17.2	18.6	36.3	27.9	50.6	27.1	17.2	5.2
	2003	15.8	16.1	36.8	31.3	48.9	26.9	19.1	5.2
Dominican Republic	2000	25.6	31.6	24.4	18.4	58.1	27.5	10.1	4.4
	2002	25.1	29.7	25.6	19.6	56.9	27.7	11.4	4.0
	2006	24.2	29.9	27.4	18.4	46.6	30.6	16.2	6.6
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	...	...	...	...
	2002	8.4	47.8	26.9	16.8	...	...	...	...
	2005	7.7	47.1	27.0	18.3	...	...	...	...
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [d]	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	...	...	...	...
	2002	19.6	45.8	20.6	14.0	...	...	...	...
	2006	17.2	42.4	24.1	16.2	...	...	...	...

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Information from which the number of years of schooling could be calculated became available for Mexico in 1996 and for Argentina in 1997. The figures for previous years are estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary education, complete primary education, incomplete secondary, complete secondary and higher education.

[b] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. The figures for 1980 and 1990 therefore refer to eight major cities only.

[c] Figures supplied by the National Statistical Office (ONE) of Cuba, on the basis of the 2002 population and housing census and the 2006 National Employment Survey.

[d] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 32.2

ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION AGED 15 AND OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over
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	...	...	...	...
	2002	6.5	27.5	33.7	32.4	...	...	...	...
	2006	5.5	27.0	32.1	35.4	...	...	...	...
Bolivia	1997	39.6	17.9	26.3	16.2	82.4	12.0	3.8	1.9
	2002	33.7	20.2	24.8	21.3	79.7	14.0	4.9	1.4
	2004	36.4	18.7	24.4	20.5	72.9	15.3	8.1	3.8
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
	2001	32.0	23.2	31.2	13.6	76.2	14.2	8.4	1.2
	2003	29.0	22.4	33.7	14.8	71.9	16.0	10.5	1.6
	2006	24.6	21.2	37.5	16.7	65.0	18.3	14.4	2.4
Chile	1990	12.3	23.4	35.0	29.2	25.1	34.8	22.4	17.8
	1994	10.7	20.4	39.3	29.7	25.1	36.0	25.0	13.9
	2000	7.2	19.4	42.3	31.0	22.0	39.2	28.4	10.5
	2003	6.9	17.5	43.7	31.9	19.3	37.4	32.9	10.4
	2006	6.7	17.4	44.9	31.0	16.2	33.5	38.3	12.0
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
	2002	27.0	18.4	31.2	23.4	...	...	...	...
	2005	24.4	16.7	31.5	27.4	...	...	...	...
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
	2002	8.7	37.7	24.2	29.4	19.0	51.8	15.8	13.5
	2006	8.2	35.9	23.9	32.0	17.0	49.2	17.6	16.2
Cuba [c]	2002	1.7	20.8	24.0	53.6	6.4	40.4	21.9	31.2
	2006	0.7	18.5	30.6	50.2	3.0	35.3	31.0	30.6
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	...	...	...	...
	2002	12.7	34.1	26.8	26.3	...	...	...	...
	2006	11.2	30.3	27.9	30.6	39.8	43.7	11.4	5.0
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
	2001	30.4	27.2	25.6	16.8	63.9	25.3	7.7	3.1
	2004	29.2	27.0	25.6	18.2	58.0	28.5	10.4	3.0
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
	2004	39.3	29.3	22.1	9.2	75.8	16.6	6.3	1.3
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
	2003	26.2	37.4	24.1	12.2	56.1	36.1	6.1	1.6
	2006	21.9	38.0	25.9	14.2	51.1	38.7	7.9	2.3

Table 32.2 (concluded)

ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION AGED 15 AND OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over
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
	2002	14.1	39.8	27.2	18.9	47.1	35.6	11.5	5.7
	2004	14.2	39.7	22.3	23.8	34.7	44.8	10.8	9.7
	2006	12.1	39.2	24.2	24.4	38.8	42.3	13.4	5.5
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
	2001	30.4	34.1	23.5	11.9	63.9	27.8	6.9	1.4
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
	2002	7.2	27.7	31.2	33.9	32.0	35.8	18.0	14.1
	2006	4.2	26.1	30.6	39.1	26.4	39.4	19.0	15.2
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	...	...	...	...
	1997	17.3	40.1	24.5	18.1	...	...	...	...
	2001	17.0	32.1	28.4	22.5	...	...	...	...
	2005	12.7	32.7	29.2	25.5	...	...	...	...
Peru	1999	24.6	17.3	32.9	25.2	74.6	16.1	6.6	2.8
	2001	25.5	17.6	30.2	26.7	67.6	19.5	9.3	3.7
	2003	23.0	15.2	31.6	30.2	65.6	20.5	10.0	3.9
Dominican Republic	2000	18.7	25.3	28.7	27.3	45.3	28.4	19.5	6.8
	2002	17.7	25.4	29.5	27.4	38.5	29.1	21.0	11.4
	2006	17.6	21.7	28.3	32.5	30.9	26.8	24.2	18.1
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	...	...	...	...
	2002	5.4	37.6	30.6	26.5	...	...	...	...
	2005	4.8	37.5	29.0	28.6	...	...	...	...
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [d]	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	...	...	...	...
	2002	13.4	38.4	24.2	24.0	...	...	...	...
	2006	10.5	32.5	26.5	30.5	...	...	...	...

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Information from which the number of years of schooling could be calculated became available for Mexico in 1996 and for Argentina in 1997. The figures for previous years are estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary education, complete primary education, incomplete secondary, complete secondary and higher education.

[b] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. The figures for 1980 and 1990 therefore refer to eight major cities only.

[c] Figures supplied by the National Statistical Office (ONE) of Cuba, on the basis of the 2002 population and housing census and the 2006 National Employment Survey.

[d] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 33

YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY THE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Years of schooling			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	…	…	…
	2002	10.4	10.2	10.6	…	…	…
	2004	10.5	10.3	10.7	…	…	…
	2006	10.6	10.3	10.8	…	…	…
Bolivia	1989	10.2	10.6	9.9	…	…	…
	1994	10.0	10.3	9.7	…	…	…
	2002	10.1	10.2	9.9	6.6	7.2	6.0
	2004	10.0	10.2	9.8	7.8	8.4	7.3
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
	2001	7.9	7.6	8.2	5.1	4.7	5.5
	2003	8.4	8.0	8.7	5.8	5.4	6.2
	2006	8.8	8.5	9.1	6.5	6.1	6.9
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	10.3	10.5	8.2	8.0	8.4
	2000	10.6	10.6	10.7	9.0	8.7	9.2
	2003	10.9	10.8	11.0	9.4	9.3	9.6
	2006	11.0	10.9	11.1	10.0	9.8	10.1
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
	2002	9.8	9.6	10.0	…	…	…
	2005	10.2	9.9	10.4	…	…	…
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
	2002	9.0	8.8	9.1	7.1	6.9	7.3
	2006	9.2	8.9	9.5	7.7	7.4	7.9
Cuba [c]	2002	10.4	10.1	10.7	9.2	9.0	9.4
	2006	11.0	10.8	11.3	10.3	10.2	10.5
Ecuador	1990	9.4	9.1	9.6	…	…	…
	1994	9.7	9.6	9.8	…	…	…
	1999	9.6	9.4	9.8	…	…	…
	2002	9.7	9.5	9.8	…	…	…
	2006	10.2	10.1	10.3	8.0	7.9	8.0
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
	2001	9.2	9.2	9.2	6.0	6.0	5.9
	2004	9.1	9.1	9.1	6.3	6.3	6.4
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
	2004	7.6	8.0	7.3	4.3	4.8	3.9

Table 33 (concluded)

YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY THE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Years of schooling			Years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
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
	2003	7.9	7.6	8.1	4.9	4.7	5.1
	2006	8.3	8.1	8.5	5.5	5.1	5.9
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
	2002	9.8	9.9	9.8	7.9	7.9	7.9
	2004	10.0	9.8	10.1	8.2	8.2	8.2
	2006	10.1	10.0	10.3	8.5	8.5	8.5
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
	2001	7.9	7.4	8.3	4.3	4.0	4.6
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
	2002	10.2	9.9	10.5	7.4	7.3	7.5
	2006	10.6	10.4	10.9	8.1	8.0	8.1
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	8.7	9.0	8.5	…	…	…
	1990	9.3	9.5	9.1	…	…	…
	1994	9.1	9.1	9.0	…	…	…
	2001	9.6	9.6	9.6	…	…	…
	2005	10.0	10.0	10.0	…	…	…
Peru	1997	9.0	9.0	9.0	6.1	6.4	5.7
	2001	10.1	10.2	10.1	7.6	7.9	7.2
	2003	10.6	10.5	10.6	7.8	8.2	7.2
Dominican Republic	2000	9.4	8.8	9.9	6.7	6.3	7.2
	2002	9.5	9.1	9.9	7.1	6.5	7.9
	2006	9.7	9.2	10.2	8.3	7.7	9.0
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	…	…	…
	2002	9.6	9.2	10.0	…	…	…
	2005	9.7	9.4	10.0	…	…	…
Venezuela (Rep. Bol.de) [d]	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	…	…	…
	2002	8.9	8.5	9.4	…	…	…
	2006	9.6	9.1	10.2	…	…	…

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Information from which the number of years of schooling could be calculated became available for Mexico in 1996 and for Argentina in 1997. The figures for previous years are estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary education, complete primary education, incomplete secondary, complete secondary and higher education.

[b] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. The figures for 1980 and 1990 therefore refer to eight major cities only.

[c] Figures supplied by the National Statistical Office (ONE) of Cuba, on the basis of the 2002 population and housing census and the 2006 National Employment Survey.

[d] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 34

YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY THE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Averages)

Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Years of schooling			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	…	…	…
	2002	10.5	10.2	10.7	…	…	…
	2004	10.5	10.4	10.7	…	…	…
	2006	10.9	10.6	11.2	…	…	…
Bolivia	1989	8.8	9.9	7.8	…	…	…
	1994	9.3	10.3	8.3	…	…	…
	2002	9.2	10.1	8.3	4.0	5.1	3.0
	2004	8.9	9.9	8.0	4.9	6.1	3.7
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
	2001	7.2	7.1	7.2	3.2	3.0	3.4
	2003	7.5	7.4	7.6	3.6	3.3	3.8
	2006	8.0	7.9	8.2	4.0	3.8	4.4
Chile	1987	9.3	9.7	9.0	5.5	5.6	5.5
	1990	9.7	10.1	9.4	6.2	6.2	6.1
	1994	10.2	10.4	10.0	6.6	6.7	6.5
	2000	10.9	11.1	10.7	6.8	6.8	6.9
	2003	11.1	11.3	10.9	7.3	7.3	7.3
	2006	11.1	11.3	11.0	7.9	7.8	7.9
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
	2002	9.3	9.4	9.2	…	…	…
	2005	9.7	9.8	9.6	…	…	…
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
	2002	9.4	9.5	9.3	6.5	6.5	6.5
	2006	9.7	9.6	9.7	6.9	6.8	7.0
Cuba [c]	2002	10.9	10.9	10.9	8.6	8.8	8.4
	2006	11.3	11.2	11.3	9.2	9.4	9.0
Ecuador	1990	8.9	9.2	8.6	…	…	…
	1994	9.7	10.0	9.5	…	…	…
	1999	9.9	10.1	9.7	…	…	…
	2002	10.1	10.3	9.9	…	…	…
	2006	10.3	10.5	10.2	5.8	6.1	5.5
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
	2001	8.3	8.9	7.9	3.5	3.9	3.2
	2004	8.6	9.3	8.0	3.8	4.3	3.5
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
	2004	6.5	7.3	5.8	2.4	2.9	1.9

Table 34 (concluded)

YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY THE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Averages)

Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Years of schooling			Years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
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
	2003	7.5	7.5	7.4	3.5	3.4	3.6
	2006	7.8	7.9	7.7	3.8	3.7	3.8
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
	2002	9.1	9.6	8.7	5.3	5.5	5.1
	2004	9.4	9.8	9.0	6.2	6.5	5.9
	2006	9.8	10.2	9.5	6.1	6.5	5.8
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
	2001	6.9	7.1	6.7	3.1	3.2	3.0
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
	2002	10.8	10.6	11.0	6.4	6.3	6.5
	2006	11.1	10.9	11.3	7.1	7.1	7.1
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	8.8	9.4	8.3	…	…	…
	1990	9.0	9.3	8.8	…	…	…
	1994	8.9	9.2	8.6	…	…	…
	2001	9.6	9.9	9.3	…	…	…
	2005	10.1	10.3	10.0	…	…	…
Peru	1999	10.1	10.9	9.5	4.6	5.7	3.6
	2001	10.2	10.9	9.6	5.1	6.3	3.9
	2003	10.6	11.3	10.0	5.3	6.4	4.3
Dominican Republic	2000	8.9	8.9	8.9	5.1	5.2	5.0
	2002	9.1	9.1	9.1	5.4	5.2	5.6
	2006	9.4	9.2	9.5	6.5	6.2	6.7
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	…	…	…
	2002	9.7	9.5	9.9	…	…	…
	2005	9.9	9.6	10.2	…	…	…
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [d]	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	…	…	…
	2002	8.6	8.3	8.8	…	…	…
	2006	9.2	8.8	9.5	…	…	…

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Information from which the number of years of schooling could be calculated became available for Mexico in 1996 and for Argentina in 1997. The figures for previous years are estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary education, complete primary education, incomplete secondary, complete secondary and higher education.

[b] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. The figures for 1980 and 1990 therefore refer to eight major cities only.

[c] Figures supplied by the National Statistical Office (ONE) of Cuba, on the basis of the 2002 population and housing census and the 2006 National Employment Survey.

[d] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 35

YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY THE ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION AGED 15 AND OVER, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Averages)

Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Years of schooling			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	…	…	…
	2002	10.7	10.2	11.2	…	…	…
	2004	10.7	10.3	11.1	…	…	…
	2006	11.0	10.6	11.7	…	…	…
Bolivia	1989	9.0	9.7	8.2	…	…	…
	1994	9.3	10.0	8.5	…	…	…
	2002	9.2	9.8	8.6	4.5	5.3	3.3
	2004	9.0	9.7	8.3	5.1	6.1	3.9
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
	2001	7.6	7.2	8.1	3.5	3.3	3.8
	2003	8.0	7.5	8.5	3.9	3.7	4.3
	2006	8.5	8.1	9.0	4.4	4.1	4.8
Chile	1987	9.9	9.7	10.3	6.2	5.9	7.6
	1990	10.2	10.0	10.6	6.7	6.4	8.5
	1994	10.6	10.4	10.9	7.1	6.8	8.4
	2000	11.1	10.9	11.4	7.2	6.8	8.4
	2003	11.3	11.2	11.6	7.7	7.4	8.8
	2006	11.3	11.1	11.6	8.3	7.9	9.3
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
	2002	9.5	9.2	9.8	…	…	…
	2005	9.9	9.6	10.3	…	…	…
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
	2002	9.5	9.2	10.0	6.7	6.3	7.7
	2006	9.8	9.4	10.3	7.1	6.7	8.1
Cuba [c]	2006	11.7	11.4	12.5	9.8	9.5	10.8
Ecuador	1990	9.0	8.8	9.3	…	…	…
	1994	9.7	9.6	10.0	…	…	…
	1999	9.8	9.6	10.0	…	…	…
	2002	9.9	9.8	10.0	…	…	…
	2006	10.3	10.1	10.5	5.9	6.0	5.7
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
	2001	8.5	8.6	8.3	4.2	4.1	4.4
	2004	8.7	8.8	8.5	4.6	4.5	4.9
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
	2004	6.9	7.1	6.6	3.1	3.2	3.1

Table 35 (concluded)

YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY THE ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION AGED 15 AND OVER, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2006

(Averages)

Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Years of schooling			Years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
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
	2003	7.4	7.2	7.8	3.8	3.5	4.4
	2006	7.9	7.6	8.3	4.0	3.8	4.8
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
	2002	9.4	9.4	9.6	5.6	5.6	5.6
	2004	9.6	9.5	9.8	6.4	6.3	6.7
	2006	10.0	9.9	10.0	6.4	6.4	6.3
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
	2001	7.1	6.8	7.5	3.4	3.2	4.1
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
	2002	10.7	10.3	11.3	6.3	5.9	7.3
	2006	11.2	10.7	12.0	7.0	6.7	7.7
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	8.9	9.1	8.6	…	…	…
	1990	9.2	9.2	9.1	…	…	…
	1994	9.1	9.1	9.1	…	…	…
	2001	9.7	9.8	9.7	…	…	…
	2005	10.1	10.2	10.1	…	…	…
Peru	1999	10.0	10.4	9.4	4.8	5.6	3.7
	2001	10.0	10.4	9.6	5.3	6.1	4.1
	2003	10.4	10.8	10.0	5.4	6.3	4.3
Dominican Republic	2000	9.3	8.8	10.0	5.5	5.1	6.5
	2002	9.4	8.9	10.0	5.8	5.1	7.2
	2006	9.5	8.9	10.4	6.7	6.1	8.4
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	…	…	…
	2002	9.8	9.3	10.4	…	…	…
	2005	10.0	9.5	10.6	…	…	…
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) [d]	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	…	…	…
	2002	8.6	8.1	9.4	…	…	…
	2006	9.2	8.6	10.3	…	…	…

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] Information from which the number of years of schooling could be calculated became available for Mexico in 1996 and for Argentina in 1997. The figures for previous years are estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary education, complete primary education, incomplete secondary, complete secondary and higher education.

[b] In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. The figures for 1980 and 1990 therefore refer to eight major cities only.

[c] Figures supplied by the National Statistical Office (ONE) of Cuba, on the basis of the 2002 population and housing census and the 2006 National Employment Survey.

[d] The sample design in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 36

CLASSIFICATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 BY EDUCATIONAL STATUS, NATIONAL TOTAL, AROUND 2006 [a]

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Sex	Educational status											Total
				Dropouts					Students and graduates					
			Did not enter educational system	Early dropouts (during primary cycle)	Dropouts at end of primary cycle	Dropouts in lower secondary cycle	Dropouts at end of lower secondary or during upper secondary cycle	Dropout subtotal	Students who are far behind	Students who are slightly behind	Up-to-date students	Graduates	Subtotal students and graduates	
Bolivia	2004	Both sexes	0.7	8.6	3.0	3.4	21.9	36.9	9.7	9.8	29.5	13.5	62.5	100.0
		Males	0.6	7.1	2.7	3.4	22.1	35.3	11.0	9.5	30.6	12.9	64.0	100.0
		Females	0.8	10.1	3.3	3.4	21.7	38.5	8.4	10.0	28.3	14.1	60.8	100.0
Brazil	2006	Both sexes	1.3	2.2	2.5	9.0	7.6	21.3	18.1	10.5	33.6	15.1	77.3	100.0
		Males	1.6	3.0	2.9	9.7	7.6	23.2	21.7	11.0	30.2	12.4	75.3	100.0
		Females	0.9	1.5	2.2	8.4	7.6	19.7	14.5	9.9	37.1	17.9	79.4	100.0
Chile	2006	Both sexes	0.2	0.8	0.7	0.9	9.7	12.1	4.7	12.1	51.1	19.7	87.6	100.0
		Males	0.3	1.0	0.7	1.1	10.3	13.1	6.1	12.5	49.2	18.8	86.6	100.0
		Females	0.2	0.6	0.7	0.8	9.1	11.2	3.3	11.6	53.1	20.5	88.5	100.0
Colombia	2005	Both sexes	1.6	5.9	7.4	6.4	6.0	25.7	13.6	10.0	24.0	25.3	72.9	100.0
		Males	2.0	7.2	8.0	6.5	5.7	27.4	16.0	10.4	22.4	21.8	70.6	100.0
		Females	1.1	4.5	6.8	6.3	6.2	23.8	11.2	9.5	25.5	28.7	74.9	100.0
Costa Rica	2006	Both sexes	0.7	5.6	16.4	4.8	3.1	29.9	20.9	12.0	23.3	13.2	69.4	100.0
		Males	0.9	6.3	17.9	4.5	3.4	32.1	22.2	11.8	21.5	11.5	67.0	100.0
		Females	0.5	4.9	14.8	5.1	2.8	27.6	19.6	12.1	25.2	14.9	71.8	100.0
Ecuador	2006	Both sexes	1.0	3.6	7.8	12.1	7.3	30.8	7.0	6.7	38.0	16.6	68.3	100.0
		Males	1.1	3.7	7.9	12.5	6.9	31.0	7.9	7.2	37.5	15.3	67.9	100.0
		Females	0.9	3.4	7.7	11.6	7.8	30.5	6.0	6.2	38.4	17.9	68.5	100.0
El Salvador	2004	Both sexes	4.2	14.6	5.8	6.0	8.3	34.7	10.8	8.1	33.3	9.0	61.2	100.0
		Males	4.5	14.9	5.4	4.6	8.0	32.9	13.2	8.6	32.4	8.4	62.6	100.0
		Females	3.8	14.3	6.2	7.5	8.6	36.6	8.3	7.6	34.2	9.5	59.6	100.0
Guatemala	2004	Both sexes	11.5	23.1	15.9	3.8	4.1	46.9	12.7	6.5	19.9	2.5	41.6	100.0
		Males	7.7	19.6	17.0	4.8	4.3	45.7	15.6	7.9	20.0	3.0	46.5	100.0
		Females	15.1	26.4	14.9	2.8	3.8	47.9	9.9	5.2	19.8	2.1	37.0	100.0
Honduras	2006	Both sexes	4.9	14.0	24.9	3.8	4.2	46.9	10.6	6.8	26.2	4.6	48.2	100.0
		Males	6.0	15.2	26.4	3.9	4.1	49.6	10.4	6.8	23.3	4.0	44.5	100.0
		Females	3.8	12.9	23.4	3.7	4.3	44.3	10.9	6.8	29.0	5.2	51.9	100.0
Mexico	2006	Both sexes	1.2	3.3	7.6	5.8	20.8	37.5	4.7	6.6	35.8	14.3	61.4	100.0
		Males	1.3	3.5	7.7	6.1	21.2	38.5	5.2	8.1	34.5	12.3	60.1	100.0
		Females	1.1	3.0	7.5	5.4	20.3	36.2	4.2	5.0	37.2	16.4	62.8	100.0
Nicaragua	2001	Both sexes	10.6	17.6	10.2	6.8	2.1	36.7	14.9	8.8	18.6	10.2	52.5	100.0
		Males	12.9	20.8	10.5	6.8	2.2	40.3	15.7	9.5	14.7	7.1	47.0	100.0
		Females	8.2	14.3	10.0	6.9	2.1	33.3	14.2	8.1	22.7	13.5	58.5	100.0

Table 36 (concluded)

CLASSIFICATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 BY EDUCATIONAL STATUS, NATIONAL TOTAL, AROUND 2006 [a]

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Sex	Educational status											Total
				Dropouts					Students and graduates					
			Did not enter educational system	Early dropouts (during primary cycle)	Dropouts at end of primary cycle	Dropouts in lower secondary cycle	Dropouts at end of lower secondary or during upper secondary cycle	Dropout subtotal	Students who are far behind	Students who are slightly behind	Up-to-date students	Graduates	Subtotal students and graduates	
Panama	2006	Both sexes	1.6	2.9	9.8	6.4	6.0	25.1	8.2	8.3	40.5	16.2	73.2	100.0
		Males	0.8	3.6	10.1	7.6	6.6	27.9	10.3	9.5	37.9	13.5	71.2	100.0
		Females	2.5	2.3	9.4	5.3	5.3	22.3	6.0	7.2	43.2	18.9	75.3	100.0
Paraguay	2005	Both sexes	0.7	8.1	10.8	6.2	7.1	32.2	12.1	12.6	33.0	9.3	67.0	100.0
		Males	0.9	10.3	10.8	5.4	6.8	33.3	13.2	14.5	29.3	8.8	65.8	100.0
		Females	0.6	5.8	10.8	6.9	7.4	30.9	11.0	10.7	36.8	9.9	68.4	100.0
Peru	2003	Both sexes	0.9	6.1	7.5	6.1	11.4	31.1	8.9	6.2	20.6	32.2	67.9	100.0
		Males	0.6	4.9	6.4	6.4	11.3	29.0	10.0	7.2	21.1	32.0	70.3	100.0
		Females	1.1	7.5	8.6	5.8	11.5	33.4	7.7	5.1	20.2	32.5	65.5	100.0
Dominican Republic	2006	Both sexes	1.9	5.2	1.7	1.9	6.7	15.5	13.8	9.8	45.2	13.8	82.6	100.0
		Males	2.6	7.0	1.6	2.1	6.9	17.6	16.9	10.7	41.4	10.9	79.9	100.0
		Females	1.2	3.3	1.9	1.7	6.6	13.5	10.4	8.8	49.3	16.8	85.3	100.0
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	2006	Both sexes	1.5	4.3	6.8	5.9	3.7	20.7	11.5	8.2	27.2	30.9	77.8	100.0
		Males	1.8	5.8	8.4	6.6	3.5	24.3	13.6	9.5	24.6	26.1	73.8	100.0
		Females	1.2	2.8	5.2	5.1	3.8	16.9	9.3	6.9	29.8	35.9	81.9	100.0

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] The methodology for calculating dropout rates is described in ECLAC, Social Panorama of Latin America 2001-2002 (LC/G.2183-P), Santiago, Chile, October 2002, box III.1, except that the division into cycles is based strictly on the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 1997.

Table 37

CLASSIFICATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 BY EDUCATIONAL STATUS, URBAN AREAS, AROUND 2006 [a]

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Sex	Educational status											Total
				Dropouts					Students and graduates					
			Did not enter educational system	Early dropouts (during primary cycle)	Dropouts at end of primary cycle	Dropouts in lower secondary cycle	Dropouts at end of lower secondary or during upper secondary cycle	Subtotal dropouts	Students who are far behind	Students who are slightly behind	Up-to-date students	Graduates	Subtotal students and graduates	
Argentina	2006	Both sexes	0.2	0.8	1.0	11.5	4.5	17.8	14.5	14.7	21.1	31.8	82.1	100.0
		Males	0.3	1.1	1.1	13.1	4.4	19.7	15.0	14.9	19.8	30.2	79.9	100.0
		Females	0.1	0.5	0.9	9.9	4.6	15.9	13.9	14.5	22.2	33.5	84.1	100.0
Bolivia	2004	Both sexes	0.6	5.1	2.3	3.1	20.9	31.4	8.7	10.5	32.2	16.5	67.9	100.0
		Males	0.6	3.6	1.9	2.9	21.6	30.0	9.8	11.2	32.9	15.6	69.5	100.0
		Females	0.6	6.5	2.6	3.3	20.3	32.7	7.7	10.0	31.6	17.4	66.7	100.0
Brazil	2006	Both sexes	1.0	1.6	1.9	8.1	7.8	19.4	15.5	10.5	36.4	17.2	79.6	100.0
		Males	1.3	2.1	2.2	8.8	8.0	21.1	18.9	11.4	33.1	14.2	77.6	100.0
		Females	0.7	1.1	1.5	7.5	7.6	17.7	12.2	9.7	39.7	20.1	81.7	100.0
Chile	2006	Both sexes	0.2	0.8	0.6	0.8	9.1	11.3	4.5	12.0	51.7	20.3	88.5	100.0
		Males	0.3	0.9	0.6	0.9	9.7	12.1	5.9	12.3	50.1	19.3	87.6	100.0
		Females	0.1	0.6	0.6	0.7	8.5	10.4	3.1	11.8	53.3	21.4	89.6	100.0
Colombia	2005	Both sexes	1.0	3.0	4.0	5.4	5.9	18.3	11.7	10.4	27.7	30.8	80.6	100.0
		Males	1.2	3.5	4.3	5.7	5.7	19.2	14.2	11.6	26.6	27.2	79.6	100.0
		Females	0.8	2.4	3.8	5.2	6.0	17.4	9.5	9.3	28.8	34.2	81.8	100.0
Costa Rica	2006	Both sexes	0.2	3.3	11.3	5.1	2.9	22.6	21.8	12.3	26.9	16.1	77.1	100.0
		Males	0.2	3.8	12.8	3.9	3.0	23.5	23.4	13.0	25.7	14.2	76.3	100.0
		Females	0.3	2.8	9.8	6.4	2.7	21.7	20.2	11.6	28.2	18.0	78.0	100.0
Ecuador	2006	Both sexes	0.6	2.1	4.6	8.3	7.7	22.7	6.1	6.1	43.3	21.2	76.7	100.0
		Males	0.7	1.8	4.6	9.1	7.5	23.0	6.8	6.6	43.0	19.8	76.2	100.0
		Females	0.4	2.3	4.6	7.4	7.9	22.2	5.4	5.6	43.7	22.6	77.3	100.0
El Salvador	2004	Both sexes	2.2	8.3	3.7	5.0	7.6	24.6	8.7	8.7	42.7	13.2	73.3	100.0
		Males	2.2	8.7	3.3	3.6	7.3	22.9	10.5	8.0	43.9	12.7	75.1	100.0
		Females	2.2	7.9	4.0	6.4	7.8	26.1	6.9	9.4	41.6	13.6	71.5	100.0
Guatemala	2004	Both sexes	5.3	15.9	13.3	5.2	6.3	40.7	9.3	7.7	31.8	5.2	54.0	100.0
		Males	3.6	13.2	13.2	6.0	6.9	39.3	11.8	8.0	31.3	6.0	57.1	100.0
		Females	6.8	18.5	13.3	4.5	5.7	42.0	7.0	7.5	32.3	4.4	51.2	100.0
Honduras	2006	Both sexes	2.1	6.6	15.7	4.7	4.6	31.6	10.9	8.4	38.6	8.4	66.3	100.0
		Males	2.5	7.1	17.7	4.9	4.7	34.4	10.8	8.7	35.7	7.9	63.1	100.0
		Females	1.8	6.1	13.9	4.6	4.6	29.2	11.0	8.0	41.1	8.8	68.9	100.0
Mexico	2006	Both sexes	0.6	1.9	5.7	6.0	19.0	32.6	4.5	6.7	38.8	16.8	66.8	100.0
		Males	0.6	2.3	5.6	7.0	18.7	33.6	5.0	8.4	37.9	14.5	65.8	100.0
		Females	0.5	1.5	5.8	5.0	19.3	31.6	3.9	4.9	39.8	19.3	67.9	100.0

Table 37 (concluded)

CLASSIFICATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 BY EDUCATIONAL STATUS, URBAN AREAS, AROUND 2006 [a]

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Sex	Educational status											Total
				Dropouts					Students and graduates					
			Did not enter educational system	Early dropouts (during primary cycle)	Dropouts at end of primary cycle	Dropouts in lower secondary cycle	Dropouts at end of lower secondary or during upper secondary cycle	Subtotal dropouts	Students who are far behind	Students who are slightly behind	Up-to-date students	Graduates	Subtotal students and graduates	
Nicaragua	2001	Both sexes	4.9	9.5	8.8	8.2	2.5	29.0	13.7	11.3	25.5	15.6	66.1	100.0
		Males	6.2	11.9	10.0	9.1	3.0	34.0	15.0	13.5	20.6	10.9	60.0	100.0
		Females	3.7	7.3	7.6	7.3	2.1	24.3	12.5	9.2	30.2	20.1	72.0	100.0
Panama	2006	Both sexes	0.4	1.1	4.6	6.1	5.6	17.4	6.9	9.0	45.8	20.4	82.1	100.0
		Males	0.3	1.5	4.8	7.6	6.8	20.7	8.8	10.4	42.9	17.0	79.1	100.0
		Females	0.5	0.8	4.4	4.6	4.5	14.3	5.0	7.7	48.6	23.7	85.0	100.0
Paraguay	2005	Both sexes	0.5	3.9	6.2	4.4	7.4	21.9	12.0	14.2	38.2	13.2	77.6	100.0
		Males	0.2	4.7	6.0	3.4	7.0	21.1	11.8	18.4	36.1	12.5	78.8	100.0
		Females	0.7	3.3	6.3	5.4	7.8	22.8	12.2	10.4	40.2	13.8	76.6	100.0
Peru	2003	Both sexes	0.5	2.6	3.2	4.8	11.3	21.9	6.8	5.5	23.9	41.3	77.5	100.0
		Males	0.5	2.5	3.2	4.7	11.0	21.4	6.8	6.5	24.3	40.5	78.1	100.0
		Females	0.5	2.6	3.3	4.8	11.7	22.4	6.8	4.5	23.6	42.2	77.1	100.0
Dominican Republic	2006	Both sexes	1.4	4.3	1.6	1.8	7.0	14.7	11.6	9.5	47.3	15.4	83.8	100.0
		Males	1.9	5.3	1.3	2.2	8.0	16.8	13.8	10.5	44.4	12.6	81.3	100.0
		Females	0.9	3.3	1.8	1.4	6.1	12.6	9.5	8.6	50.2	18.1	86.4	100.0
Uruguay	2005	Both sexes	0.2	2.4	8.9	8.5	9.5	29.3	10.3	10.5	39.6	10.0	70.4	100.0
		Males	0.4	3.2	10.8	8.9	9.1	32.0	12.1	11.2	36.1	8.1	67.5	100.0
		Females	0.0	1.6	6.9	8.1	9.9	26.5	8.3	9.9	43.2	12.1	73.5	100.0

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] The methodology for calculating dropout rates is described in ECLAC, Social Panorama of Latin America 2001-2002 (LC/G.2183-P), Santiago, Chile, October 2002, box III.1, except that the division into cycles is based strictly on the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 1997.

Table 38

CLASSIFICATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 BY EDUCATIONAL STATUS THROUGHOUT THE SCHOOL CYCLE, RURAL AREAS, AROUND 2006 [a]

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Sex	Educational status											Total
				Dropouts					Students and graduates					
			Did not enter educational system	Early dropouts (during primary cycle)	Dropouts at end of primary cycle	Dropouts in lower secondary cycle	Dropouts at end of lower secondary or during upper secondary cycle	Subtotal dropouts	Students who are far behind	Students who are slightly behind	Up-to-date students	Graduates	Subtotal students and graduates	
Bolivia	2004	Both sexes	1.0	15.7	4.5	3.9	23.8	47.9	11.8	8.2	23.9	7.3	51.2	100.0
		Males	0.8	13.5	4.1	4.2	22.9	44.7	13.3	6.5	26.5	8.1	54.4	100.0
		Females	1.2	18.2	4.9	3.6	24.8	51.5	10.0	10.1	20.8	6.4	47.3	100.0
Brazil	2006	Both sexes	2.5	5.1	5.4	13.2	7.0	30.7	29.7	10.1	21.0	5.8	66.6	100.0
		Males	3.0	6.5	5.6	13.6	6.1	31.8	33.6	9.2	17.7	4.6	65.1	100.0
		Females	2.0	3.6	5.3	12.7	8.0	29.6	25.3	11.2	24.7	7.2	68.4	100.0
Chile	2006	Both sexes	0.4	1.2	1.5	1.6	14.2	18.5	6.2	12.5	47.3	15.0	81.0	100.0
		Males	0.3	1.4	1.6	1.9	14.7	19.6	7.6	14.2	42.9	15.5	80.2	100.0
		Females	0.5	0.9	1.3	1.3	13.8	17.3	4.7	10.7	52.1	14.6	82.1	100.0
Colombia	2005	Both sexes	3.1	13.4	16.2	8.9	6.1	44.6	18.3	8.8	14.2	11.0	52.3	100.0
		Males	4.0	16.0	16.7	8.4	5.5	46.6	20.2	7.7	12.5	9.0	49.4	100.0
		Females	2.2	10.5	15.6	9.4	6.8	42.3	16.2	10.1	16.2	13.2	55.7	100.0
Costa Rica	2006	Both sexes	1.3	8.8	23.5	4.4	3.4	40.1	19.6	11.5	18.4	9.2	58.7	100.0
		Males	1.8	9.6	24.8	5.4	3.9	43.7	20.4	10.3	15.8	7.9	54.4	100.0
		Females	0.8	7.9	22.1	3.4	2.8	36.2	18.6	12.8	21.0	10.5	62.9	100.0
Ecuador	2006	Both sexes	1.9	6.4	13.9	19.4	6.6	46.3	8.7	7.9	27.6	7.6	51.8	100.0
		Males	1.8	7.2	13.9	18.6	5.7	45.4	9.9	8.3	27.6	7.0	52.8	100.0
		Females	1.9	5.6	14.0	20.3	7.5	47.4	7.2	7.4	27.7	8.4	50.7	100.0
El Salvador	2004	Both sexes	6.7	22.4	8.4	7.2	9.2	47.2	13.5	7.4	21.5	3.8	46.2	100.0
		Males	7.2	22.0	7.7	5.8	8.8	44.3	16.4	9.2	19.3	3.6	48.5	100.0
		Females	6.1	22.9	9.2	8.9	9.6	50.6	10.2	5.2	24.0	3.9	43.3	100.0
Guatemala	2004	Both sexes	16.4	28.7	18.1	2.6	2.3	51.7	15.5	5.5	10.4	0.5	31.9	100.0
		Males	10.9	24.7	20.0	3.8	2.3	50.8	18.7	7.8	11.1	0.7	38.3	100.0
		Females	21.9	32.7	16.2	1.4	2.3	52.6	12.3	3.3	9.7	0.2	25.5	100.0
Honduras	2006	Both sexes	7.4	20.6	33.1	3.0	3.8	60.5	10.4	5.4	15.2	1.1	32.1	100.0
		Males	8.9	21.8	33.4	3.0	3.6	61.8	10.1	5.2	13.2	0.7	29.2	100.0
		Females	5.8	19.5	32.7	2.9	4.1	59.2	10.7	5.5	17.2	1.6	35.0	100.0
Mexico	2006	Both sexes	2.2	5.4	10.6	5.4	23.7	45.1	5.0	6.4	31.0	10.3	52.7	100.0
		Males	2.3	5.4	11.1	4.8	25.4	46.7	5.4	7.6	29.1	8.9	51.0	100.0
		Females	2.1	5.3	10.2	6.0	22.0	43.5	4.5	5.1	33.0	11.8	54.4	100.0
Nicaragua	2001	Both sexes	19.0	29.4	12.4	4.8	1.6	48.2	16.7	5.2	8.5	2.4	32.8	100.0
		Males	21.8	32.4	11.1	3.8	1.2	48.5	16.6	4.2	6.9	2.1	29.8	100.0
		Females	15.7	25.8	14.0	6.2	2.1	48.1	16.9	6.3	10.4	2.7	36.3	100.0

Table 38 (concluded)

CLASSIFICATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 BY EDUCATIONAL STATUS THROUGHOUT THE SCHOOL CYCLE, RURAL AREAS, AROUND 2006 [a]

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Sex	Educational status											Total
				Dropouts					Students and graduates					
			Did not enter educational system	Early dropouts (during primary cycle)	Dropouts at end of primary cycle	Dropouts in lower secondary cycle	Dropouts at end of lower secondary or during upper secondary cycle	Subtotal dropouts	Students who are far behind	Students who are slightly behind	Up-to-date students	Graduates	Subtotal students and graduates	
Panama	2006	Both sexes	3.7	6.0	18.6	7.0	6.6	38.2	10.3	7.2	31.5	9.1	58.1	100.0
		Males	1.6	7.2	19.1	7.6	6.4	40.3	12.8	8.0	29.5	7.7	58.0	100.0
		Females	5.9	4.8	18.1	6.4	6.8	36.1	7.7	6.3	33.5	10.5	58.0	100.0
Paraguay	2005	Both sexes	1.1	13.7	17.0	8.5	6.7	45.9	12.4	10.6	25.9	4.2	53.1	100.0
		Males	1.6	16.5	16.2	7.8	6.6	47.1	14.7	10.1	21.8	4.6	51.2	100.0
		Females	0.4	9.9	18.2	9.5	6.8	44.4	9.2	11.2	31.3	3.6	55.3	100.0
Peru	2003	Both sexes	1.5	12.9	15.6	8.7	11.6	48.8	12.7	7.5	14.4	15.1	49.7	100.0
		Males	0.8	9.1	11.9	9.4	12.0	42.4	15.5	8.5	15.6	17.2	56.8	100.0
		Females	2.4	17.5	19.8	7.8	11.1	56.2	9.4	6.4	13.0	12.5	41.3	100.0
Dominican Republic	2006	Both sexes	2.8	6.8	2.1	2.2	6.1	17.2	17.6	10.3	41.4	10.8	80.1	100.0
		Males	3.6	9.7	2.1	2.0	5.0	18.8	21.9	11.0	36.6	8.1	77.6	100.0
		Females	1.8	3.1	2.0	2.4	7.5	15.0	12.3	9.4	47.5	14.1	83.3	100.0

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] The methodology for calculating dropout rates is described in ECLAC, Social Panorama of Latin America 2001-2002 (LC/G.2183-P), Santiago, Chile, October 2002, box III.1, except that the division into cycles is based strictly on the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 1997.

Table 39

OVERALL DROPOUT RATE AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE 15 TO 19, 1990-2005 [a]

(Percentages)

Country		National			Urban			Rural		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Ambos sexos	Males	Females
Argentina [b]	1990	…	…	…	35.6	37.6	33.2	…	…	…
	2006	…	…	…	17.8	19.8	15.8	…	…	…
Argentina	2006	…	…	…	17.5	20.2	14.9	…	…	…
Bolivia	2004	37.2	35.5	38.8	31.7	30.2	33.0	48.4	45.1	52.1
Brazil	1990	45.9	49.0	43.0	39.7	42.7	36.9	64.5	67.3	61.7
	2006	21.7	23.5	19.9	19.6	21.4	17.8	31.6	32.9	30.2
Chile	1990	26.8	26.6	27.1	20.7	20.1	21.3	57.3	58.4	56.3
	2006	12.2	13.1	11.3	11.3	12.1	10.4	18.6	19.6	17.5
Colombia	1991	42.5	45.0	40.1	29.7	29.8	29.7	59.1	62.7	55.2
	2005	26.0	28.0	24.1	18.5	19.5	17.6	46.0	48.5	43.1
Costa Rica	1990	53.2	53.2	53.1	32.9	32.2	33.7	68.8	69.3	68.3
	2006	30.1	32.4	27.8	22.7	23.6	21.7	40.6	44.5	36.5
Ecuador	1990	…	…	…	24.3	28.3	20.5	…	…	…
	2006	31.1	31.3	30.8	22.8	23.3	22.3	47.2	46.3	48.3
El Salvador	1995	45.1	44.1	46.1	32.4	30.8	33.7	62.9	60.8	65.0
	2004	36.2	34.4	38.0	25.1	23.3	26.8	50.6	47.7	53.8
Guatemala	2004	52.9	49.6	56.3	43.0	40.8	45.1	61.9	57.1	67.2
Honduras	1990	66.1	69.6	62.9	49.1	51.9	46.7	81.5	83.8	79.0
	2006	49.3	52.7	46.1	32.3	35.3	29.7	65.4	67.9	62.9
Mexico	2006	37.9	39.1	36.6	32.8	33.8	31.7	46.2	47.8	44.5
Nicaragua	1993	44.3	43.2	45.3	32.0	31.4	32.7	65.1	62.8	67.3
	2001	41.2	46.2	36.3	30.5	36.2	25.2	59.6	61.9	57.0
Panama	1991	35.3	38.8	31.6	28.0	30.5	25.5	53.4	58.4	47.6
	2006	25.5	28.2	22.8	17.6	20.7	14.5	39.7	41.0	38.4
Paraguay	2005	32.4	33.7	31.1	22.1	21.2	22.9	46.5	47.9	44.6
Peru	1997	40.3	40.6	39.9	36.3	36.2	36.3	48.4	48.5	48.4
	2003	31.4	29.2	33.8	22.0	21.5	22.5	49.5	42.8	57.7
Dominican Republic	1997	22.9	25.1	21.0	19.3	22.7	16.8	28.1	28.0	28.2
	2006	15.9	18.1	13.6	14.9	17.2	12.8	17.6	19.6	15.3
Uruguay	1990	…	…	…	36.5	41.1	31.9	…	…	…
	2005	…	…	…	29.4	32.2	26.5	…	…	…
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	39.6	43.2	35.8	35.5	38.7	32.3	63.2	67.4	58.1
	2006	21.0	24.8	17.1	…	…	…	…	…	…

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] The methodology for calculating dropout rates is described in ECLAC, Social Panorama of Latin America 2001-2002 (LC/G.2183-P), Santiago, Chile, October 2002, box III.1, except that the division into cycles is based strictly on the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 2002.

[b] Greater Buenos Aires.

Table 40

EARLY DROPOUT RATE (DURING THE PRIMARY CYCLE) AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19,1990-2005 [a]

Country		National			Urban			Rural		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina [b]	1990	…	…	…	2.4	2.4	2.4	…	…	…
	2006	…	…	…	0.8	1.1	0.5	…	…	…
Argentina	2006	…	…	…	1.2	1.5	0.8	…	…	…
Bolivia	2004	8.7	7.2	10.1	5.2	3.6	6.6	15.9	13.6	18.5
Brazil	1990	13.3	15.3	11.4	9.2	10.5	7.9	25.7	29.1	22.2
	2006	2.3	3.0	1.5	1.6	2.2	1.1	5.3	6.7	3.7
Chile	1990	4.3	4.7	3.9	2.9	3.1	2.7	11.3	12.5	10.1
	2006	0.8	1.0	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.6	1.2	1.4	0.9
Colombia	1991	15.5	17.8	13.4	7.3	7.6	7.1	26.1	29.5	22.4
	2005	6.0	7.4	4.6	3.0	3.6	2.5	13.8	16.6	10.7
Costa Rica	1990	12.1	13.2	10.9	4.6	5.2	4.1	17.9	19.3	16.4
	2006	5.6	6.3	4.9	3.3	3.8	2.8	8.9	9.8	8.0
Ecuador	1990	…	…	…	3.5	4.4	2.7	…	…	…
	2006	3.6	3.8	3.4	2.1	1.9	2.3	6.6	7.3	5.7
El Salvador	1995	24.6	24.4	24.8	12.6	10.9	14.1	41.3	41.4	41.1
	2004	15.2	15.6	14.8	8.5	8.9	8.1	24.0	23.8	24.4
Guatemala	2004	26.1	21.3	31.1	16.8	13.7	19.9	34.4	27.7	41.8
Honduras	1990	27.3	30.0	24.8	15.2	15.5	14.9	38.2	41.8	34.6
	2006	14.7	16.1	13.4	6.7	7.3	6.2	22.3	23.9	20.7
Mexico	2006	3.3	3.6	3.0	1.9	2.3	1.5	5.5	5.6	5.4
Nicaragua	1993	23.6	25.4	21.8	11.8	13.7	10.0	43.7	45.0	42.5
	2001	19.7	23.9	15.6	10.0	12.7	7.5	36.3	41.4	30.6
Panama	1991	5.8	6.9	4.6	3.9	4.5	3.2	10.7	12.6	8.5
	2006	3.0	3.6	2.3	1.1	1.5	0.8	6.2	7.3	5.1
Paraguay	2005	8.2	10.4	5.8	4.0	4.7	3.3	13.9	16.8	10.0
Peru	1997	16.3	16.3	16.3	8.2	8.4	7.9	32.9	30.4	36.0
	2003	6.2	4.9	7.5	2.6	2.5	2.6	13.1	9.2	17.9
Dominican Republic	1997	9.9	11.9	8.1	6.8	8.0	5.8	14.3	16.5	11.8
	2006	5.3	7.2	3.3	4.4	5.5	3.4	7.0	10.1	3.2
Uruguay	1990	…	…	…	2.2	2.9	1.5	…	…	…
	2005	…	…	…	2.4	3.2	1.6	…	…	…
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	9.9	12.1	7.6	7.0	8.6	5.4	26.8	31.1	21.6
	2006	4.4	5.9	2.8	…	…	…	…	…	…

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] The methodology for calculating dropout rates is described in ECLAC, Social Panorama of Latin America 2001-2002 (LC/G.2183-P), Santiago, Chile, October 2002, box III.1, except that the division into cycles is based strictly on the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 1997.

[b] Greater Buenos Aires.

Table 41

DROPOUT RATE AT THE END OF THE PRIMARY CYCLE AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19, 1990-2005 [a]

(Percentages)

Country		National			Urban			Rural		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Ambos sexos	Males	Females
Argentina [b]	2006	…	…	…	1.0	1.1	0.9	…	…	…
Argentina	2006	…	…	…	1.3	1.7	0.9	…	…	…
Bolivia	2004	3.3	2.9	3.7	2.4	2.0	2.8	5.4	4.8	6.1
Brazil	1990	14.1	14.9	13.4	9.4	9.9	8.9	31.3	33.0	29.7
	2006	2.6	3.0	2.2	1.9	2.3	1.6	5.9	6.2	5.6
Chile	1990	3.9	4.0	3.8	2.1	2.1	2.1	13.6	14.0	13.2
	2006	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	1.5	1.6	1.4
Colombia	1991	18.0	19.2	16.8	9.5	9.4	9.7	31.6	34.2	29.1
	2005	8.0	8.8	7.3	4.2	4.5	3.9	19.4	20.9	17.9
Costa Rica	1990	35.8	35.6	36.0	18.7	17.1	20.3	51.1	52.0	50.2
	2006	17.5	19.3	15.7	11.7	13.3	10.1	26.1	28.0	24.2
Ecuador	1990	…	…	…	12.1	13.8	10.6	…	…	…
	2006	8.2	8.3	8.0	4.7	4.7	4.8	15.2	15.3	15.1
El Salvador	1995	9.1	8.5	9.6	6.1	6.0	6.3	15.1	13.4	16.9
	2004	7.1	6.7	7.6	4.1	3.7	4.5	11.8	10.8	12.9
Guatemala	2004	24.4	23.4	25.4	16.8	15.9	17.8	33.0	31.1	35.6
Honduras	1990	46.4	49.4	43.8	31.3	34.8	28.4	65.1	66.5	63.8
	2006	30.7	33.4	28.1	17.2	19.5	15.1	46.0	48.2	43.8
Mexico	2006	8.0	8.1	7.8	5.9	5.8	5.9	11.5	12.0	11.0
Nicaragua	1993	16.0	17.2	14.9	12.4	14.2	10.8	25.5	24.9	26.0
	2001	14.3	15.8	12.9	10.2	12.2	8.6	24.1	24.3	23.9
Panama	1991	18.7	22.0	15.3	12.3	14.7	9.9	36.0	41.0	30.6
	2006	10.2	10.6	9.9	4.7	4.9	4.5	20.6	20.9	20.3
Paraguay	2005	11.9	12.2	11.5	6.5	6.3	6.6	20.0	19.8	20.3
Peru	1997	2.8	2.2	3.3	2.5	2.0	2.9	3.5	2.7	4.6
	2003	8.1	6.8	9.5	3.3	3.3	3.4	18.2	13.3	24.8
Dominican Republic	1997	4.3	4.5	4.1	3.0	3.0	3.0	6.2	6.4	6.0
	2006	1.9	1.8	2.0	1.7	1.4	1.9	2.3	2.4	2.1
Uruguay	1990	…	…	…	13.1	13.7	12.5	…	…	…
	2005	…	…	…	9.1	11.2	7.0	…	…	…
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	17.8	20.5	15.1	15.6	17.9	13.4	34.3	39.5	28.7
	2006	7.3	9.1	5.4	…	…	…	…	…	…

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

[a] The methodology for calculating dropout rates is described in ECLAC, Social Panorama of Latin America 2001-2002 (LC/G.2183-P), Santiago, Chile, October 2002, box III.1, except that the division into cycles is based strictly on the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 1997.

[b] Greater Buenos Aires.

Table 42

DROPOUT RATE DURING THE SECONDARY CYCLE AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 1990-2005 [a]

(Percentages)

Country		National			Urban			Rural		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina [b]	1990 [c]	…	…	…	34.0	36.1	31.5	…	…	…
	2006	…	…	…	16.3	18.0	14.7	…	…	…
Argentina	2006	…	…	…	15.5	17.6	13.5	…	…	…
Bolivia	2004	28.8	28.4	29.2	26.2	26.1	26.2	35.2	33.3	37.5
Brazil	1990	27.4	29.3	25.7	26.8	28.9	24.8	30.5	31.2	29.9
	2006	17.8	18.7	16.8	16.6	17.8	15.6	23.3	23.3	23.3
Chile	1990	20.4	19.8	21.1	16.6	15.7	17.4	44.3	44.7	44.0
	2006	10.9	11.6	10.1	10.1	10.8	9.3	16.4	17.1	15.6
Colombia	1991	17.1	17.3	16.9	16.2	16.1	16.2	19.0	19.6	18.5
	2005	14.5	14.7	14.3	12.3	12.6	12.1	22.2	22.0	22.5
Costa Rica	1990	17.0	16.5	17.6	13.5	13.7	13.3	22.3	20.7	23.9
	2006	10.2	10.6	9.9	9.4	8.4	10.4	11.7	14.5	9.0
Ecuador	1990	…	…	…	10.8	13.1	8.7	…	…	…
	2006	22.1	22.2	22.1	17.3	17.9	16.5	33.4	31.6	35.4
El Salvador	1995	20.0	19.1	20.8	17.5	17.4	17.7	25.6	22.8	28.5
	2004	19.0	16.8	21.2	14.7	12.6	16.6	26.3	23.1	29.9
Guatemala	2004	15.8	16.4	15.1	17.6	18.5	16.6	13.3	13.9	12.4
Honduras	1990	13.0	14.0	12.3	12.6	12.7	12.6	14.0	16.9	11.5
	2006	14.2	15.2	13.4	12.4	13.2	11.7	17.5	18.4	16.6
Mexico	2006	30.2	31.3	29.1	27.2	28.0	26.3	35.6	37.2	34.0
Nicaragua	1993	13.2	8.0	17.8	12.0	7.4	16.1	16.8	10.0	23.2
	2001	14.6	16.1	13.3	14.0	16.8	11.6	16.4	14.2	18.6
Panama	1991	15.5	15.7	15.3	14.6	14.7	14.6	18.5	19.5	17.6
	2006	14.5	16.6	12.3	12.5	15.4	9.7	19.0	19.5	18.5
Paraguay	2005	16.5	15.8	17.3	13.3	11.7	14.7	22.3	21.9	22.8
Peru	1997	26.6	27.4	25.8	28.8	28.9	28.8	20.3	23.8	15.5
	2003	20.5	20.2	20.9	17.2	16.7	17.6	28.9	27.4	31.4
Dominican Republic	1997	10.7	11.0	10.4	10.8	13.4	8.9	10.5	7.8	13.3
	2006	9.5	10.1	8.8	9.5	11.1	8.0	9.4	8.3	10.6
Uruguay	1990	…	…	…	25.3	29.7	21.0	…	…	…
	2005	…	…	…	20.4	21.1	19.7	…	…	…
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	18.4	18.7	18.1	17.9	18.4	17.4	23.4	21.8	24.9
	2006	10.9	12.0	9.9	…	…	…	…	…	…

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries

[a] The methodology for calculating dropout rates is described in ECLAC, Social Panorama of Latin America 2001-2002 (LC/G.2183-P), Santiago, Chile, October 2002, box III.1, except that the division into cycles is based strictly on the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 1997.

[b] Greater Buenos Aires.

[c] Includes dropouts at the end of the primary cycle.

Table 43
PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING INDICATORS [a]
1990/1991-2004/2005 [b]

Country	Institutional coverage	Public social spending											
		Per capita (2000 dollars)				As a percentage of gross domestic product				As a percentage of total public spending [c]			
		1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005	1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005	1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005
Argentina [d]	National government - federal	695	825	824	752	11.4	11.2	11.0	9.6	60.3	66.6	61.3	63.1
	National Government and provincial governments	1103	1444	1516	1410	18.1	19.7	20.2	18.0	62.7	66.7	63.2	64.6
	National Government, provincial governments and local governments	1179	1553	1640	1521	19.3	21.1	21.8	19.4	62.2	65.6	62.7	64.1
Bolivia	Central government	47	68	120	...	5.2	7.2	12.0	...	34.4	27.5	35.4	...
	Non-financial public sector [e]	...	118	179	190	...	12.4	18.0	18.6	...	36.3	54.4	63.0
Brazil	Union (Federal Government)	337	420	445	501	10.1	11.8	12.1	12.8	...	...	...	...
	Federal, state and municipal [f]	604	725	776	860	18.1	20.4	21.1	22.0	48.9	58.6	61.6	72.0
Chile	Central government	403	508	746	729	12.7	12.4	15.1	13.1	61.2	64.2	67.5	66.9
Colombia	Non-financial public sector	123	237	266	291	6.6	11.5	13.2	13.4	28.8	39.9	33.2	...
Costa Rica	Total public sector	486	566	728	772	15.6	15.8	18.0	17.4	38.9	38.2	40.5	35.8
Cuba	Central government	...	...	570	870	27.6	28.5	22.2	28.7	35.6	39.4	47.0	53.0
Ecuador	Central government	94	81	65	96	7.4	6.1	4.9	6.3	42.8	33.7	20.9	28.5
El Salvador	Central government	...	90	113	120	...	4.6	5.4	5.6	...	31.6	34.9	31.2
Guatemala	Central government	44	57	93	100	3.3	4.1	6.1	6.3	29.9	41.3	47.3	53.8
Honduras	Central government	67	61	97	120	7.5	6.6	10.0	11.6	40.7	40.6	45.4	52.8
Jamaica [g]	Central government	243	245	273	289	8.4	8.2	9.5	9.9	26.8	20.6	17.1	16.3
Mexico	Budgetary central government	324	449	564	618	6.5	8.9	9.7	10.2	41.3	53.1	61.3	58.6
Nicaragua	Budgetary central government	45	46	63	90	6.6	7.2	8.1	10.8	34.0	39.9	38.4	47.9
Panama	Central government	229	287	371	344	7.5	8.3	9.5	8.0	38.1	48.6	42.5	39.3
	Non-financial public sector [g]	496	578	680	724	16.2	16.6	17.4	17.2	40.0	41.5	44.3	40.0
Paraguay	Budgetary central government	45	115	107	108	3.2	7.8	8.0	7.9	39.9	43.3	38.3	40.2
Peru	Budgetary central government	64	125	160	...	3.9	6.5	7.7	...	33.0	39.4	45.0	...
	Total public sector	...	...	173	208	...	...	8.3	8.9	...	...	49.7	50.8

Table 43 (concluded)

INDICADORES DEL GASTO PÚBLICO SOCIAL [a]

1990/1991-2004/2005 [b]

Country	Institutional coverage	Public social spending											
		Per capita (2000 dollars)				As a percentage of gross domestic product				As a percentage of total public spending [c]			
		1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005	1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005	1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005
Dominican Republic	Central government	74	133	209	204	4.3	6.7	7.7	7.1	38.4	45.4	47.5	34.5
Trinidad and Tobago	Central government	303	294	588	845	6.9	6.6	9.1	9.4	40.6	42.8	70.8	76.4
Uruguay	Consolidated central government [h]	820	1150	1322	1087	16.8	20.2	22.2	17.7	62.3	70.8	66.6	57.4
	General government	...	...	1405	...	...	...	23.6	...	...	...	62.8	...
	Non-financial public sector	...	...	1506	...	...	...	25.3	...	...	...	64.4	...
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	Budgetary central government – approved [i]	441	396	563	562	8.8	7.8	11.6	11.7	32.8	35.3	37.8	41.0
	Budgetary central government - executed	...	...	494	...	...	...	10.2	...	...	...	43.5	...

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information from the Commission's social expenditure database.

[a] Includes public spending on education, health and nutrition, social security, labour, social welfare, housing, water and sewerage systems.

[b] The figures are simple averages for the relevant bienniums.

[c] The implicit figures in total public spending may differ from other published figures owing to methodological differences in accounting for expenditure in economic, administrative and functional classifications.

[d] At all levels of government, includes non-financial public corporations.

[e] The figure under the heading 1994/1995 relates to 1995.

[f] From 1990 to 1999, the figure for consolidated social spending – which includes federal, state and municipal spending – is an estimate. At all levels of government, includes non-financial public corporations.

[g] The figure under the heading 2004/2005 relates to 2004.

[h] Includes social security transfers to social security organizations.

[i] Relates to the budgetary law and includes the modifications made yearly on 31 December.

Table 44

INDICATORS OF PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON EDUCATION [a]

1990/1991-2004/2005 [b]

Country	Institutional coverage	Public social spending											
		Per capita (2000 dollars)				As a percentage of gross domestic product				As a percentage of total public spending [c]			
		1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005	1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005	1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005
Argentina [d]	National government - federal	80	72	74	70	1.3	1.0	1.0	0.9	7.0	5.8	5.5	5.8
	National Government and provincial governments	216	303	372	341	3.5	4.1	4.9	4.3	12.3	14.0	15.5	15.5
	National Government, provincial governments and local governments	220	312	383	350	3.6	4.2	5.1	4.5	11.6	13.2	14.7	14.7
Bolivia	Central government	29	46	55	...	3.3	4.9	5.5	...	21.7	18.7	16.3	...
	Non-financial public sector [e]	...	50	67	75	...	5.3	6.7	7.3	...	15.5	20.1	24.6
Brazil	Union (Federal Government)	46	53	39	36	1.4	1.5	1.1	0.9	…	…	…	…
	Federal, state and municipal [f]	125	190	183	178	3.7	5.3	5.0	4.6	9.9	15.4	14.5	14.9
Chile	Central government	77	107	195	198	2.4	2.6	3.9	3.5	11.6	13.5	17.6	18.1
Colombia	Non-financial public sector	49	69	82	82	2.6	3.3	4.1	3.7	11.4	11.6	10.3	...
Costa Rica	Total public sector	123	151	206	242	3.9	4.2	5.1	5.5	9.9	10.2	11.5	11.2
Cuba	Central government	…	…	218	375	10.8	9.0	8.5	12.4	13.9	12.4	18.0	22.9
Ecuador	Central government	36	35	27	40	2.8	2.6	2.1	2.6	16.0	14.6	8.7	11.8
El Salvador	Central government	...	40	62	63	...	2.0	3.0	2.9	...	14.0	19.3	16.3
Guatemala	Central government	21	24	39	39	1.6	1.7	2.6	2.5	14.3	17.6	19.9	21.2
Honduras	Central government	39	34	61	79	4.3	3.7	6.2	7.7	23.2	22.9	28.4	35.0
Jamaica [g]	Central government	119	121	166	158	4.1	4.1	5.8	5.4	13.1	10.1	10.4	8.9
Mexico	Budgetary central government	129	200	227	229	2.6	3.9	3.9	3.8	16.4	23.6	24.6	21.7
Nicaragua	Budgetary central government	17	19	30	39	2.6	2.8	3.7	4.7	13.0	15.8	17.6	20.8
Panama	Central government	109	122	164	165	3.6	3.5	4.2	3.8	18.3	20.7	18.8	18.8
	Non-financial public sector [g]	125	150	192	181	4.1	4.3	4.9	4.3	10.1	10.8	12.5	10.0
Paraguay	Budgetary central government	18	53	57	52	1.3	3.6	4.3	3.8	15.7	20.0	20.6	19.5
Peru	Budgetary central government	27	51	51	...	1.6	2.7	2.5	...	13.8	16.1	14.4	...
	Total public sector	...	...	60	73	...	...	2.9	3.1	...	...	17.2	17.7

Table 44 (concluded)

INDICATORS OF PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON EDUCATION [a]

1990/1991-2004/2005 [b]

Country	Institutional coverage	Public social spending											
		Per capita (2000 dollars)				As a percentage of gross domestic product				As a percentage of total public spending [c]			
		1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005	1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005	1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005
Dominican Republic	Central government	20	41	77	56	1.2	2.1	2.9	2.0	10.5	14.0	17.6	9.4
Trinidad and Tobago	Central government	139	134	264	407	3.2	3.0	4.1	4.5	18.6	19.5	31.7	36.7
Uruguay	Consolidated central government	120	140	201	201	2.5	2.5	3.4	3.3	9.1	8.6	10.1	10.6
	General government	...	...	209	...	...	...	3.5	...	...	...	9.4	...
	Non-financial public sector	...	...	209	...	...	...	3.5	...	...	...	9.0	...
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	Budgetary central government – approved [h]	177	192	249	240	3.5	3.8	5.1	5.0	13.2	17.1	16.8	17.5
	Budgetary central government - executed	...	...	258	...	...	...	5.3	...	...	...	22.6	...

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information from the Commission's social expenditure database.

[a] Includes public spending on primary, secondary and tertiary education. In some countries, includes feeding programmes (school cantines).

[b] The figures are simple averages for the relevant bienniums.

[c] The implicit figures in total public spending may differ from other published figures owing to methodological differences in accounting for expenditure in economic, administrative and functional classifications.

[d] At all levels of government, includes non-financial public corporations.

[e] The figure under the heading 1994/1995 relates to 1995.

[f] From 1990 to 1999, the figure for consolidated social spending — which includes federal, state and municipal spending – is an estimate. At all levels of government, includes non-financial public corporations.

[g] The figure under the heading 2004/2005 relates to 2004.

[h] Relates to the budgetary law and includes the modifications made yearly on 31 December.

Table 45

INDICATORS OF SOCIAL SPENDING ON HEALTH [a]

1990/1991-2004/2005 [b]

Country	Institutional coverage	Public social spending											
		Per capita (2000 dollars)				As a percentage of gross domestic product				As a percentage of total public spending [c]			
		1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005	1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005	1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005
Argentina [d]	National government - federal	155	190	184	172	2.5	2.6	2.5	2.2	13.4	15.3	13.7	14.4
	National Government and provincial governments	251	341	353	325	4.1	4.6	4.7	4.2	14.3	15.7	14.7	14.9
	National Government, provincial governments and local governments	264	363	378	347	4.3	4.9	5.0	4.4	14.0	15.3	14.5	14.6
Bolivia	Central government	9	12	13	...	1.0	1.2	1.3	...	6.9	4.9	3.8	...
	Non-financial public sector [e]	...	30	36	36	...	3.1	3.6	3.5	...	9.2	10.9	12.0
Brazil	Union (Federal Government)	38	76	66	67	1.1	2.1	1.8	1.7	...	...	...	...
	Federal, state and municipal [f]	119	150	150	180	3.6	4.2	4.1	4.6	9.6	12.1	11.9	15.0
Chile	Central government	62	97	144	156	2.0	2.4	2.9	2.8	9.4	12.2	13.0	14.3
Colombia	Non-financial public sector	18	60	61	50	1.0	2.9	3.0	2.3	4.2	10.1	7.5	...
Costa Rica	Total public sector	153	168	210	220	4.9	4.7	5.2	5.0	12.3	11.3	11.7	10.2
Cuba	Central government	...	...	135	182	5.0	5.6	5.2	6.0	6.4	7.8	11.1	11.0
Ecuador	Central government	18	11	10	19	1.4	0.8	0.8	1.2	8.1	4.5	3.3	5.5
El Salvador	Central government	...	26	28	33	...	1.3	1.3	1.5	...	9.1	8.9	8.5
Guatemala	Central government	12	12	16	15	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.0	8.1	8.8	8.2	8.1
Honduras	Central government	26	24	32	37	2.9	2.6	3.3	3.5	15.5	15.9	15.2	16.0
Jamaica [g]	Central government	63	65	64	81	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.8	7.0	5.4	4.0	4.6
Mexico	Budgetary central government	147	118	132	153	2.9	2.3	2.3	2.5	18.6	13.9	14.4	14.4
Nicaragua	Budgetary central government	19	18	23	28	2.8	2.8	2.9	3.3	14.5	15.6	13.9	14.8
Panama	Central government	49	63	90	98	1.6	1.8	2.3	2.3	8.0	10.5	10.3	11.2
	Non-financial public sector [g]	164	202	232	240	5.4	5.8	5.9	5.7	13.3	14.4	15.1	13.3
Paraguay	Budgetary central government	4	18	16	16	0.3	1.2	1.2	1.1	3.8	6.7	5.7	5.7
Peru	Budgetary central government	15	25	36	...	0.9	1.3	1.7	...	7.4	7.6	10.2	...
	Total public sector	...	...	32	37	...	...	1.5	1.6	...	...	9.0	8.9

Table 45 (concluded)

INDICATORS OF SOCIAL SPENDING ON HEALTH [a]

1990/1991-2004/2005 [b]

Country	Institutional coverage	Public social spending											
		Per capita (2000 dollars)				As a percentage of gross domestic product				As a percentage of total public spending [c]			
		1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005	1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005	1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005
Dominican Republic	Central government	17	25	50	40	1.0	1.2	1.8	1.4	8.6	8.4	11.3	6.6
Trinidad and Tobago	Central government	115	99	136	199	2.6	2.2	2.1	2.2	15.4	14.4	16.3	18.0
Uruguay	Consolidated central government	142	196	153	107	2.9	3.4	2.6	1.7	10.8	12.0	7.7	5.6
	General government	...	...	166	...	...	...	2.8	...	...	...	7.4	...
	Non-financial public sector	...	...	190	...	...	...	3.2	...	...	...	8.1	...
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	Budgetary central government - approved [h]	79	56	71	77	1.6	1.1	1.5	1.6	5.9	5.0	4.7	5.6
	Budgetary central government - executed	...	...	67	...	...	...	1.4	...	...	...	5.8	...

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information from the Commission's social expenditure database.

[a] Includes public spending on health and nutrition.

[b] The figures are simple averages for the relevant bienniums.

[c] The implicit figures in total public spending may differ from other published figures owing to methodological differences in accounting for expenditure in economic, administrative and functional classifications.

[d] At all levels of government, includes non-financial public corporations.

[e] The figure under the heading 1994/1995 relates to 1995.

[f] From 1990 to 1999, the figure for consolidated social spending — which includes federal, state and municipal spending – is an estimate. At all levels of government, includes non-financial public corporations.

[g] The figure under the heading 2004/2005 relates to 2004.

[h] Relates to the budgetary law and includes the modifications made yearly on 31 December.

Table 46

INDICATORS OF PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON SOCIAL SECURITY [a]

1990/1991-2004/2005 [b]

Country	Institutional coverage	Public social spending											
		Per capita (2000 dollars)				As a percentage of gross domestic product				As a percentage of total public spending [c]			
		1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005	1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005	1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005
Argentina [d]	National government - federal	456	560	565	508	7.5	7.6	7.5	6.5	39.5	45.3	42.0	42.7
	National Government and provincial governments	581	740	745	685	9.5	10.1	9.9	8.8	33.0	34.1	31.1	31.5
	National Government, provincial governments and local governments	592	759	775	718	9.7	10.3	10.3	9.2	31.2	32.1	29.7	30.3
Bolivia	Central government	6.5	8.5	50	...	0.7	0.9	5.0	...	4.5	3.4	14.6	...
	Non-financial public sector [e]	...	14	45	46	...	1.4	4.5	4.5	...	4.2	13.6	15.1
Brazil	Union (Federal Government)	252	291	337	394	7.6	8.2	9.1	10.1	…	…	…	…
	Federal, state and municipal [f]	308	371	410	467	9.2	10.4	11.1	12.0	25.0	30.0	32.6	39.1
Chile	Central government	259	296	393	364	8.1	7.2	7.9	6.5	39.3	37.5	35.5	33.4
Colombia	Non-financial public sector	47	93	97	148	2.5	4.5	4.8	6.8	10.9	15.6	12.0	...
Costa Rica	Total public sector	152	187	248	234	4.9	5.2	6.1	5.3	12.2	12.6	13.8	10.9
Cuba	Central government	…	…	156	231	7.0	8.6	6.1	7.6	8.9	11.9	12.9	14.0
Ecuador	Central government	41	29	23	34	3.2	2.2	1.7	2.2	18.5	12.1	7.3	10.1
El Salvador	Central government	...	1	1	1	...	0.0	0.1	0.0	...	0.2	0.3	0.2
Guatemala	Central government	10	11	16	16	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.0	6.6	7.6	8.1	8.7
Honduras	Central government	3	3	2	3	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3	1.9	1.8	1.0	1.2
Jamaica [g]	Central government	17	12	11	13	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.5	1.9	1.0	0.7	0.8
Mexico	Budgetary central government	6	65	132	130	0.1	1.3	2.3	2.2	0.8	7.6	14.4	12.3
Panama	Central government	37	54	64	47	1.2	1.5	1.6	1.1	6.1	9.1	7.3	5.3
	Non-financial public sector [g]	155	175	205	254	5.1	5.0	5.2	6.0	12.6	12.5	13.4	14.0
Paraguay	Budgetary central government	17	36	27	33	1.2	2.4	2.1	2.4	14.6	13.3	9.6	12.1
Peru	Budgetary central government	23	48	68	...	1.3	2.5	3.3	...	11.4	14.9	19.2	...
	Total public sector	...	...	81	98	...	...	3.9	4.2	...	...	23.2	23.9
Dominican Republic	Central government	7	9	28	42	0.4	0.4	1.1	1.5	3.4	2.8	6.5	7.3

Table 46 (concluded)

INDICATORS OF PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON SOCIAL SECURITY [a]

1990/1991-2004/2005 [b]

Country	Institutional coverage	Public social spending											
		Per capita (2000 dollars)				As a percentage of gross domestic product				As a percentage of total public spending [c]			
		1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005	1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005	1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005
Trinidad and Tobago	Central government	3	4	90	128	0.1	0.1	1.4	1.4	0.4	0.5	11.0	11.5
Uruguay	Consolidated central government [h]	544	787	939	759	11.2	13.9	15.8	12.3	41.3	48.4	47.3	40.1
	General government	...	...	948	...	...	...	15.9	...	...	...	42.4	...
	Non-financial public sector	...	...	948	...	...	...	15.9	...	...	...	40.6	...
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	Budgetary central government - approved [i]	101	115	179	198	2.0	2.3	3.7	4.1	7.5	10.3	12.0	14.4
	Budgetary central government - executed	...	...	100	...	...	...	2.0	...	...	...	8.8	...

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information from the Commission's social expenditure database.

[a] Includes public spending on social security, employment and social welfare.

[b] The figures are simple averages for the relevant bienniums.

[c] The implicit figures in total public spending may differ from other published figures owing to methodological differences in accounting for expenditure in economic, administrative and functional classifications.

[d] At all levels of government, includes non-financial public corporations.

e The figure under the heading 1994/1995 relates to 1995.

[f] From 1990 to 1999, the figure for consolidated social spending — which includes federal, state and municipal spending – is an estimate. At all levels of government, includes non-financial public corporations.

[g] The figure under the heading 2004/2005 relates to 2004.

[h] Includes social security transfers to social security organizations (recorded in general government accounts); these amounted to approximately 6% of GDP in 2000/2001.

[i] Relates to the budgetary law and includes the modifications made yearly on 31 December.

Table 47

INDICATORS OF PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON HOUSING AND OTHER ITEMS [a]

1990/1991-2004/2005 [b]

Country	Institutional coverage	Public social spending											
		Per capita (2000 dollars)				As a percentage of gross domestic product				As a percentage of total public spending [c]			
		1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005	1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005	1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005
Argentina [d]	National government - federal	4	3	1	2	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.2
	National Government and provincial governments	56	62	46	61	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.8	3.2	2.9	1.9	2.7
	National Government, provincial governments and local governments	102	121	103	108	1.7	1.6	1.4	1.4	5.4	5.1	3.9	4.5
Bolivia	Central government	2	2	3	...	0.2	0.1	0.3	...	1.4	0.6	0.7	...
	Non-financial public sector [e]	...	24	32	34	...	2.5	3.2	3.3	...	7.4	9.7	11.3
Brazil	Union (Federal Government)	2	1	4	4	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	…	…	…	…
	Federal, state and municipal [f]	52	15	34	37	1.5	0.4	0.9	0.9	4.4	1.1	2.7	3.1
Chile	Central government	6	8	15	12	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.9	1.0	1.3	1.1
Colombia	Non-financial public secto	9	16	27	13	0.5	0.8	1.3	0.6	2.2	2.6	3.4	...
Costa Rica	Total public sector	58	61	64	77	1.9	1.7	1.6	1.7	4.6	4.1	3.6	3.5
Cuba	Central government	…	…	62	83	4.8	5.3	2.4	2.8	6.4	7.3	5.1	5.1
Ecuador	Central government	0	6	6	4	0.0	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.1	2.5	1.5	1.1
El Salvador	Central government	...	24	22	24	...	1.2	1.0	1.1	...	8.3	6.4	6.1
Guatemala	Central government	2	11	22	30	0.1	0.7	1.4	1.9	0.9	7.4	11.1	15.8
Honduras	Central government	0	0	2	1	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.9	0.6
Jamaica [g]	Central government	44	48	33	36	1.5	1.6	1.1	1.2	4.9	4.1	2.0	2.0
Mexico	Budgetary central government	43	68	73	106	0.9	1.3	1.3	1.8	5.4	8.0	7.9	10.0
Nicaragua	Budgetary central government	8	10	12	23	1.2	1.5	1.5	2.8	6.6	8.5	6.9	12.2
Panama	Central government	35	49	52	36	1.1	1.4	1.3	0.8	5.6	8.3	6.0	4.0
	Non-financial public sector [g]	53	52	52	50	1.7	1.5	1.3	1.2	4.0	3.8	3.4	2.7
Paraguay	Budgetary central government	6	9	7	8	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.6	5.8	3.4	2.4	2.9
Peru	Budgetary central government	1	3	5	...	0.1	0.1	0.2	...	0.4	0.9	1.3	...
	Total public sector	...	...	2	1	...	...	0.1	0.1	...	...	0.4	0.3

Table 47 (concluded)

INDICATORS OF PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON HOUSING AND OTHER ITEMS [a]

1990/1991-2004/2005 [b]

Country	Institutional coverage	Public social spending											
		Per capita (2000 dollars)				As a percentage of gross domestic product				As a percentage of total public spending [c]			
		1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005	1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005	1990/1991	1994/1995	2000/2001	2004/2005
Dominican Republic	Central government	31	59	54	66	1.8	3.0	2.0	2.3	15.9	20.2	12.2	11.2
Trinidad and Tobago	Central government	46	58	98	112	1.0	1.3	1.5	1.2	6.1	8.5	11.7	10.1
Uruguay	Consolidated central government	15	28	30	21	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.3	1.1	1.7	1.5	1.1
	Gobierno general	...	...	82	...	...	...	1.4	...	...	...	3.7	...
	Non-financial public sector	...	...	158	...	...	...	2.7	...	...	...	6.8	...
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	Budgetary central government - approved [h]	85	33	64	48	1.7	0.6	1.3	1.0	6.2	2.9	4.4	3.4
	Budgetary central government - executed	...	...	71	...	...	...	1.5	...	...	...	6.2	...

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information from the Commission's social expenditure database.

[a] Includes public spending on housing, water and sewerage systems and other items not listed in the remaining functions. In some countries, includes social welfare.

[b] The figures are simple averages for the relevant bienniums.

[c] The implicit figures in total public spending may differ from other published figures owing to methodological differences in accounting for expenditure in economic, administrative and functional classifications.

[d] At all levels of government, includes non-financial public corporations.

[e] The figure under the heading 1994/1995 relates to 1995.

[f] From 1990 to 1999, the figure for consolidated social spending — which includes federal, state and municipal spending – is an estimate. At all levels of government, includes non-financial public corporations.

[g] The figure under the heading 2004/2005 relates to 2004.

[h] Relates to the budgetary law and includes the modifications made yearly on 31 December.

MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

Table 48

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: PROGRESS TOWARDS THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS [a]

Country or territory	Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger								
	Target 1: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar a day					Target 2: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger			
	Indicator 1 Population living in extreme poverty, measured by national poverty lines		Indicator 2 Poverty gap ratio		Indicator 3 Share of poorest quintile in national consumption	Indicator 4 Prevalence of underweight children under five years of age		Indicator 5 Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption	
	Level 1990	Level 2006	Level 1990	Level 2006	Level 2006	Level 1981/1993	Level 1995/2006	Level 1990/1992	Level 2001/2003
Latin America and the Caribbean	…	…	9.8	6.7	3.1	10.3	7.2	13	10
Latin America	22.5	12.7	9.8	6.7	3.1	10.4	7.2	13	10
Argentina [b]	8.2	7.2	1.6	2.8	3.6	1.9	5.4	2	2
Bolivia	39.5	34.7 [c]	9.7	15.0 [c]	1.5 [c]	13.2	7.5	28	23
Brazil	23.4	9.0	9.7	3.7	2.5	7.0	5.7	12	8
Chile	12.9	3.2	4.4	1.1 [c]	4.1	0.9	0.7	8	4
Colombia	26.1	20.2 [c]	9.8	8.3 [c]	2.9 [c]	10.1	6.7	17	14
Costa Rica	9.8	7.2	4.8	3.1	3.9	2.8	5.1	6	4
Cuba	…	…	…	…	…	…	4.0	8	2
Ecuador [b]	26.2	12.8	9.2	5.4	4.1	16.5	11.6	8	5
El Salvador	27.7	19.0 [c]	9.1	8.1 [c]	3.4 [c]	16.1	10.3	12	11
Guatemala	41.8	30.9	18.5	10.7 [c]	3.7 [c]	33.2	22.7	16	23
Haiti	…	…	…	…	…	26.8	17.3	65	47
Honduras	60.6	49.3	31.5	26.3 [c]	1.6	20.6	16.6	23	22
Mexico	18.8	8.7	5.9	2.4	4.2	13.9	7.5	5	5
Nicaragua	51.4	42.4 [c]	24.3	19.0 [c]	2.5 [c]	11.9	9.6	30	27
Panama [b]	11.5	6.4	7.3	6.6	3.9	7.0	6.8	21	25
Paraguay	35.0	32.1 [c]	3.6	13.1 [c]	3.2	3.7	4.6	18	15
Peru	25.0	16.1	…	9.2 [c]	3.8 [c]	10.7	7.1	42	12
Dominican Republic	…	22.0	…	9.1	2.5	10.4	5.3	27	27
Uruguay [b]	3.4	4.1 [c]	0.9	0.7	4.8 [c]	7.4	4.5	7	3
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	14.4	9.9	5.0	3.8	4.6	7.7	4.4	11	18
Caribbean countries	…	…	…	…	…	9.0	5.9	14	10
Anguila	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Antigua and Barbuda	…	…	…	…	…	9.5	1.6	…	…
Netherlands Antilles	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	14	12
Aruba	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Bahamas	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	9	7
Barbados	…	…	…	…	…	5.9	…	…	…
Belize	…	…	…	…	…	6.2	…	7	5
Dominica	…	…	…	…	…	…	5.9	4	8
Grenada	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.1	9	7
Guadeloupe	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
French Guiana	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Guyana	…	…	…	…	…	18.3	13.6	21	9
Cayman Islands	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Turks and Caicos Islands	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
British Virgin Islands	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
United States Virgin Islands	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Jamaica	…	…	…	…	…	7.2	3.6	14	10
Martinique	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…

Table 48 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: PROGRESS TOWARDS THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS [a]

Country or territory	Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger								
	Target 1: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar a day					Target 2: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger			
	Indicator 1 Population living in extreme poverty, measured by national poverty lines		Indicator 2 Poverty gap ratio		Indicator 3 Share of poorest quintile in national consumption	Indicator 4 Prevalence of underweight children under five years of age		Indicator 5 Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption	
	Level 1990	Level 2006	Level 1990	Level 2006	Level 2006	Level 1981/1993	Level 1995/2006	Level 1990/1992	Level 2001/2003
Montserrat	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Puerto Rico	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Saint Kitts and Nevis	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	13	11
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	…	…	…	…	…	…	19.5	22	12
Saint Lucia	…	…	…	…	…	13.8	…	8	5
Suriname	…	…	…	…	…	…	13.3	13	10
Trinidad and Tobago	…	…	…	…	…	6.7	5.9	13	11

Source: United Nations, Millennium Development Goals: a Latin America and Caribbean perspective (LC/G.2331-P), J.L. Machinea, A. Bárcena and A. León (coords.), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), June 2005; United Nations, Millennium Indicators Database [online] http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Default.aspx.

[a] The indicators appear in the order in which they are listed officially; the absence of any indicator is due to lack of information. Figures are percentages unless otherwise indicated. For indicators recorded at two different times, the regional and subregional averages take into account only those countries for which information is available at both times.

[b] The figures for indicators 1, 2 and 3 relate to urban areas.

[c] Figures relate to the most recent year for which information was available (as distinct from the year in the heading of the column).

Table 49

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: PROGRESS TOWARDS THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS [a]

Country or territory	Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education					
	Target 3: Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling					
	Indicator 6 Net enrolment ratio in primary education		Indicator 7 Pupils completing primary education according to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 1997		Indicator 8 Literacy rate of 15-24 year-olds	
	Level 1990	Level 2005	Level 1992	Level 2005	Level 1990	Level 2000/2005
Latin America and the Caribbean	87.5	96.3	…	…	92.6	95.8
Latin America	87.5	96.3	83.8	90.9	92.6	95.8
Argentina	93.8	99.5 [b]	97.1	97.1	98.2	98.6
Bolivia	90.8	96.5 [b]	67.1	88.7 [b]	92.6	97.3
Brazil	85.6	96.4 [b]	82.2	92.6	91.8	96.8
Chile	87.7	94.1	95.5	98.3 [b]	98.1	99.0
Colombia	68.1	89.9	85.6	91.1	94.9	98.0
Costa Rica	87.3	90.4 [b]	84.6	92.3	97.4	98.4
Cuba	98.6	99.4	96.0	97.9	96.2 [c]	100.0
Ecuador	97.8	97.7 [b]	89.8	92.8	95.5	96.4
El Salvador	72.8	94.8	69.0	76.1 [b]	83.8	88.9
Guatemala	64.0	95.6	52.2	58.3 [b]	73.4	80.1
Haiti	22.1	…	…	…	54.8	66.2
Honduras	89.9	93.7	61.7	70.6 [b]	79.7	88.9
Mexico	100.0	99.8	86.7	93.9	95.2	96.6
Nicaragua	72.2	93.7	60.2	64.5 [b]	68.2	86.2
Panama	91.5	99.1	89.3	95.0	95.3	97.0
Paraguay	92.8	88.2 [b]	78.3	89.5	95.6	96.3
Peru	87.8	99.2	85.4	91.6 [b]	94.5	97.1
Dominican Republic	58.2	89.5	76.3	86.1	87.5	91.7
Uruguay	91.9	96.2 [b]	96.2	96.4	98.7	99.1
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	88.1	92.8	88.3	91.5	96.0	98.2
Caribbean countries	91.5	93.7	…	…	95.1	96.6
Anguila	…	92.4	…	…	…	…
Antigua and Barbuda	…	…	…	…	…	…
Netherland Antilles	…	88.4 [b]	…	…	97.5	98.3
Aruba	…	99.5	…	…	…	…
Bahamas	89.6	91.4	…	…	96.5	…
Barbados	80.1	97.6	…	…	99.8	99.8
Belize	94.0	97.5	…	…	96.0	84.2
Dominica	…	88.5	…	…	…	…
Grenada	…	86.5	…	…	…	…
Guadeloupe	…	…	…	…	…	…
French Guiana	…	…	…	…	…	…
Guyana	88.9	99.2 [b]	…	…	99.8	…
Cayman Islands	…	87.2 [b]	…	…	…	…
Turks and Caicos Islands	…	80.7	…	…	…	…
British Virgin Islands		97.6	…	…	…	…
United States Virgin Islands	…	…	…	…	…	…
Jamaica	95.7	90.7	…	…	91.2	94.5
Martinique	…	…	…	…	…	99.8
Montserrat	…	98.2	…	…	…	…
Puerto Rico	…	…	…	…	96.1	97.7
Saint Kitts and Nevis	…	95.6	…	…	…	…
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	…	92.4	…	…	…	…
Saint Lucia	95.1	97.9	…	…	…	…
Suriname	78.4	95.7	…	…	…	94.9
Trinidad and Tobago	90.9	94.8	…	…	99.6	99.8

Source: United Nations, Millennium Development Goals: a Latin America and Caribbean perspective (LC/G.2331-P), J.L. Machinea, A. Bárcena and A. León (coords.), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), June 2005; United Nations Millennium Indicators Database [online] http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Default.aspx.

[a] The indicators appear in the order in which they are listed officially; the absence of any indicator is due to lack of information. Figures are percentages unless otherwise indicated. For indicators recorded at two different times, the regional and subregional averages take into account only those countries for which information is available at both times.

[b] Figures relate to the most recent year for which information was available (as distinct from the year appearing in the heading of the column).

[c] The information provided is from the 1981 population and housing census.

Table 50

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: PROGRESS TOWARDS THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS [a]

Country or territory	Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women													
	Target 4: Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005 and in all levels of education no later than 2015													
	Indicator 9 Ratio of girls to boys in:						Indicator 9 Ratio of women to men completing primary education according to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 1997		Indicator 10 Literacy gender parity index		Indicator 11 Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector		Indicator 12 Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament	
	Primary		Secondary		Tertiary									
	Level 1990	Level 2005	Level 1990	Level 2005	Level 1990	Level 2005	Level 1992	Level 2005	Level 1990	Level 2000/2004	Level 1990	Level 2005	Level 1990	Level 2007
Latin America and the Caribbean	1.98	0.96	1.08	1.07	0.97	1.22	…	…	1.06	1.01	37.8	43.2	8	17
Latin America	0.98	0.96	1.08	1.07	0.97	1.21	1.01	1.02	1.07	1.01	37.7	43.2	8	17
Argentina	1.04	0.99 [b]	…	1.07 [b]	…	1.41 [b]	1.01	1.01	0.81	1.00	37.3	45.1	6	35
Bolivia	0.91	1.00 [b]	0.85	0.97 [b]	…	0.55 [b]	0.89	0.96 [b]	2.88	0.98	35.2	36.5 [b]	9	17
Brazil	0.94	0.93 [b]	…	1.10 [b]	1.06	1.32 [b]	1.05	1.04	0.72	1.03	40.2	46.7 [b]	5	9
Chile	0.98	0.95 [b]	1.08	1.01 [b]	…	0.95 [b]	1.01	1.01 [b]	0.80	1.00	36.2	37.9	…	15
Colombia	1.15	0.98	1.13	1.11	1.07	1.09	1.03	1.05	0.78	1.01	39.9	48.3 [b]	5	8
Costa Rica	0.99	0.99	1.05	1.06	…	1.26	1.00	1.03	0.80	1.01	37.2	39.6	11	39
Cuba	0.93	0.95	1.10	0.96	1.34	1.80	…	1.01 [b]	1.09	1.00	39.6	43.1	34	36 [b]
Ecuador	0.99	1.00	…	1.10	…	…	0.99	1.02	1.28	1.00	37.3	42.0	5	25
El Salvador	1.01	0.96	1.06	1.03	0.71	1.23	0.96	1.05 [b]	1.17	0.98	32.3	34.8 [b]	12	17
Guatemala	0.88	0.92	…	0.91	…	0.72 [b]	0.72	0.82 [b]	1.73	0.86	36.8	38.8 [b]	7	8
Haiti	0.94	…	0.96	…	…	…	…	…	1.05	1.01	…	…	…	4
Honduras	1.05	1.00	…	1.24	0.77	1.46 [b]	1.06	1.11 [b]	0.89	1.05	48.1	45.3	10	23
Mexico	0.98	0.98	1.01	1.07	0.74	0.99	0.97	0.99	1.38	1.00	35.3	39.1	12	23
Nicaragua	1.06	0.97	1.37	1.15	1.06	1.11 [b]	1.09	1.21 [b]	0.97	1.06	…	…	15	19
Panama	0.96	0.97	1.07	1.07	…	1.63	1.01	1.00	1.21	0.99	44.3	43.4	8	17
Paraguay	0.97	0.97 [b]	1.04	1.02 [b]	0.88	1.34 [b]	0.96	1.06	1.17	1.00	40.5	43.9 [b]	6	10
Peru	0.97	1.00	…	1.01	…	1.03	0.90	0.97 [b]	2.53	0.98	28.9	37.5	6	29
Dominican Republic	1.02	0.95	…	1.21	…	1.64 [b]	1.09	1.08	0.90	1.02	35.5	38.3	8	20
Uruguay	0.99	0.98 [b]	…	1.15 [b]	…	2.04 [b]	1.01	1.02	0.53	1.01	41.9	48.0	6	11
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1.03	0.98	1.38	1.13	…	1.08	1.05	1.05	0.74	1.01	35.2	41.5 [b]	10	18
Caribbean countries	0.99	0.99	1.08	1.06	0.81	2.00	…	…	0.56	1.03	45.3	43.0	12	17
Anguila	…	1.06	…	0.97	…	3.11	…	…	…	…	…	46.9 [b]	…	…
Antigua and Barbuda	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	11
Netherland Antilles	…	0.98 [b]	…	1.09 [b]	…	1.48 [b]	…	…	0.85	1.00	43.1	48.8 [b]	…	…
Aruba	…	0.97	…	1.03	…	1.49	…	…	…	…	…	44.4 [b]	…	…
Bahamas	1.03	1.00	…	1.00	…	…	…	…	0.54	…	49.2	50.0	4	20
Barbados	1.00	1.00	…	1.00	1.26	2.47 [b]	…	…	1.00	1.00	45.5	48.7 [b]	4	13
Belize	0.98	0.96	1.15	1.02	…	2.43 [b]	…	…	0.73	1.01	37.4	41.3 [b]	…	7
Dominica	…	0.99	…	0.97	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	45.8 [b]	10	13
Grenada	…	0.96	…	1.03	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	42.7 [b]	…	27
Guadeloupe	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
French Guiana	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	41.6 [b]	…	…
Guyana	0.98	0.98	1.06	1.02	…	2.13	…	…	1.00	…	…	39.9 [b]	37	29
Cayman Islands	…	0.89	…	0.92	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	50.6 [b]	…	…
Turks and Caicos Islands	…	1.04	…	0.94	…	0.44	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
British Virgin Islands	…	0.96	…	1.18	…	2.28	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…

Table 50 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: PROGRESS TOWARDS THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS [a]

Country or territory	Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women													
	Target 4: Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005 and in all levels of education no later than 2015													
	Indicator 9 Ratio of girls to boys in:						Indicator 9 Ratio of women to men completing primary education according to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 1997		Indicator 10 Literacy gender parity index		Indicator 11 Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector		Indicator 12 Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament	
	Primary		Secondary		Tertiary									
	Level 1990	Level 2005	Level 1990	Level 2005	Level 1990	Level 2005	Level 1992	Level 2005	Level 1990	Level 2000/2004	Level 1990	Level 2005	Level 1990	Level 2007
United States Virgin Islands	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Jamaica	0.99	1.00	1.06	1.03	0.73	2.29 [b]	…	…	0.37	1.07	49.6	47.4	5	12
Martinique	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.55	1.00	…	48.1 [b]	…	…
Montserrat	…	1.04	…	1.10	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Puerto Rico	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.65	1.01	46.5	39.3 [b]	…	…
Saint Kitts and Nevis	…	1.06	…	0.98	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	7	0
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	0.99	0.90	1.24	1.24	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	10	18
Saint Lucia	0.94	0.97	1.45	1.21	1.38	2.80	…	…	…	…	…	48.0	…	6
Suriname	1.00	1.00	1.15	1.33	…	1.69 [b]	…	…	…	…	39.1	33.1 [b]	8	26
Trinidad and Tobago	0.99	0.97	1.05	1.04	0.79	1.27	…	…	…	1.00	35.6	43.6	17	19

Source: United Nations, Millennium Development Goals: a Latin America and Caribbean perspective (LC/G.2331-P), J.L. Machinea, A. Bárcena and A. León (coords.), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), June 2005; United Nations Millennium Indicators Database [online] http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Default.aspx.

[a] The indicators appear in the order in which they are listed officially; the absence of any indicator is due to lack of information. Figures are percentages unless otherwise indicated. For indicators recorded at two different times, the regional and subregional averages take into account only those countries for which information is available at both times.

[b] Figures relate to the most recent year for which information was available (as distinct from the year appearing in the heading of the column).

Table 51

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: PROGRESS TOWARDS THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS [a]

Country or territory	Goal 4: Reduce child mortality						Goal 5: Improve maternal health	
	Target 5: Reduce by two thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate						Target 6: Reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio	
	Indicator 13 Under-five mortality rate (per 1 000 live births)		Indicator 14 Infant mortality rate (per 1 000 live births)		Indicator 15 Children immunized against measles		Indicator 16 Maternal mortality ratio (per 100 000 live births)	Indicator 17 Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel
	Level 1990	Level 2007	Level 1990	Level 2007	Level 1990	Level 2007	Level 2005	Level 2000
Latin America and the Caribbean	…	…	41.9	21.4	76	92	126	85
Latin America	55.6	27.8	42.3	21.6	76	92	127	85
Argentina	30.0	16.1	25.8	13.6	93	99	77	99
Bolivia	113.0	62.1	81.9	46.6	53	64	290	65
Brazil	59.6	29.5	47.5	24.0	78	99	110	97 [b]
Chile	19.3	9.1	16.3	7.3	82	90	16	100
Colombia	52.3	26.2	31.1	19.2	82	89	120	86 [b]
Costa Rica	18.6	11.1	16.0	10.0	90	89	30	98
Cuba	13.2	7.1 [b]	10.7	5.3 [b]	94	96 [b]	51	100 [b]
Ecuador	65.3	26.4	49.9	21.5	60	93	110	69 [b]
El Salvador	64.1	29.6	47.1	22.0	98	99	170	69
Guatemala	85.0	39.9	60.4	31.0	68	77	290	41
Haiti	133.5	73.0	92.1	49.6	31	54	670	24 [b]
Honduras	66.8	42.4	47.7	28.5	90	92	280	56
Mexico	44.3	20.5	36.3	17.1	75	96	60	85 [b]
Nicaragua	75.8	26.6	55.7	22.0	82	96	170	67
Panama	35.8	24.3	28.3	18.4	73	99	83	90 [b]
Paraguay	55.8	38.4	45.0	32.4	69	90	150	86 [b]
Peru	85.7	30.2	56.9	22.1	64	80	240	59 [b]
Dominican Republic	70.7	33.6	54.6	30.1	96	99	77 [b]	99
Uruguay	25.0	16.2	21.4	13.2	97	95	20	100 [b]
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	30.3	24.0	25.0	17.2	61	76	57	94 [b]
Caribbean countries	…	21.8	22.3	14.6	75	89	70	94
Anguila	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Antigua and Barbuda	…	12.0 [b]	…	11.0 [b]	89	99	65 [b]	100 [b]
Netherland Antilles	…	17.0	16.6	14.8	…	…	…	…
Aruba	…	20.2	16.9	17.2	…	…	…	99 [b]
Bahamas	…	17.2	21.5	14.0	86	85	16	99 [b]
Barbados	…	11.3	14.6	10.3	87	93	16	98 [b]
Belize	…	20.3	32.3	16.6	86	95	52	100 [b]
Dominica	…	15.0 [b]	…	13.0 [b]	88	98	…	100 [b]
Grenada	…	41.6	44.1	34.2	85	99	…	100 [b]
Guadeloupe	…	9.1	15.6	6.9	…	…	…	…
French Guiana	…	15.2	22.4	13.5	…	…	…	…
Guyana	…	58.1	64.6	43.6	73	92	470	90 [b]
Cayman Islands	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Turks and Caicos Islands	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	88 [b]
British Virgin Islands	…	…	…	…	…	95 [b]	…	…
United States Virgin Islands	…	10.1	15.6	8.7	…	…	…	…
Jamaica	…	17.2	21.9	13.7	74	84	26	95 [b]
Martinique	…	8.1	9.8	6.6	…	…	…	…
Montserrat	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Puerto Rico	…	9.1	12.7	7.3	…	…	18	…

Table 51 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: PROGRESS TOWARDS THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS [a]

Country or territory	Goal 4: Reduce child mortality						Goal 5: Improve maternal health	
	Target 5: Reduce by two thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate						Target 6: Reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio	
	Indicator 13 Under-five mortality rate (per 1 000 live births)		Indicator 14 Infant mortality rate (per 1 000 live births)		Indicator 15 Children immunized against measles		Indicator 16 Maternal mortality ratio (per 100 000 live births)	Indicator 17 Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel
	Level 1990	Level 2007	Level 1990	Level 2007	Level 1990	Level 2007	Level 2005	Level 2000
Saint Kitts and Nevis	…	…	…	18.0 [b]	99	99	…	99
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	…	28.4	32.3	23.6	96	97	…	100 [b]
Saint Lucia	…	16.3	18.4	12.0 [b]	82	94	35 [b]	100 [b]
Suriname	…	35.4	34.9	28.1	65	91	72	91 [b]
Trinidad and Tobago	…	18.2	15.8	12.7	70	93	45	96 [b]

Source: United Nations, Millennium Development Goals: a Latin America and Caribbean perspective (LC/G.2331-P), J.L. Machinea, A. Bárcena and A. León (coords.), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), June 2005; United Nations Millennium Indicators Database [online] http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Default.aspx.

[a] The indicators appear in the order in which they are listed officially; the absence of any indicator is due to lack of information. Figures are percentages unless otherwise indicated. For indicators recorded at two different times, the regional and subregional averages take into account only those countries for which information is available at both times.

[b] Figures relate to the most recent year for which information was available (as distinct from the year appearing in the heading of the column).

Table 52

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: PROGRESS TOWARDS THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS [a]

Country or territory	Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases						
	Target 7: Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS		Target 8: Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases				
	Indicator 18a HIV/AIDS prevalence among the population aged 15-49		Indicator 21a Incidence of malaria per 100 000 population	Indicator 23a Incidence of tuberculosis per 100 000 population		Indicator 23b Tuberculosis death rate per 100 000 population	
	Level 2001	Level 2005	Level 2000	Level 1990	Level 2005	Level 1990	Level 2005
Latin America and the Caribbean	0.63	0.57	217	155	78	14	9
Latin America	0.61	0.55	210	157	79	15	9
Argentina	0.7	0.6	1	113	51	10	6
Bolivia	0.1	0.1	378	454	280	42	31
Brazil	0.6	0.5	344	146	76	14	8
Chile	0.3	0.3	…	90	16	8	1
Colombia	0.5	0.6	250	90	66	8	7
Costa Rica	0.6	0.3	42	34	17	3	1
Cuba	0.1	0.1	0	4	5	0.5	0.3
Ecuador	0.3	0.3	728	315	202	29	27
El Salvador	0.6	0.9	11	155	68	14	8
Guatemala	1.1	0.9	386	154	110	14	13
Haiti	5.5	3.8	15	604	405	56	58
Honduras	1.6	1.5	541	181	99	17	12
Mexico	0.3	0.3	8	76	27	7	2
Nicaragua	0.2	0.2	402	241	74	22	8
Panama	0.7	0.9	36	110	46	10	4
Paraguay	0.4	0.4	124	118	100	11	12
Peru	0.4	0.6	258	618	206	57	20
Dominican Republic	1.8	1.1	6	214	116	20	14
Uruguay	0.3	0.5	…	54	33	5	3
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	0.6	0.7	94	68	52	6	6
Caribbean countries	1.73	2.02	1 421	34	29	3	4
Anguila	…	…	…	49	39	5	4
Antigua and Barbuda	…	…	…	13	9	1	1
Netherland Antilles	…	…	…	18	18	2	2
Aruba	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Bahamas	3.0	3.3	…	84	49	8	6
Barbados	1.5	1.5	…	27	12	3	1
Belize	2.1	2.5	657	64	55	6	5
Dominica	…	…	…	30	24	3	3
Grenada	…	…	…	10	8	1	1
Guadeloupe	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
French Guiana	…	…	2 073	…	…	…	…
Guyana	2.5	2.4	3 074	61	194	6	25
Cayman Islands	…	…	…	…	6	…	1
Turks and Caicos Islands	…	…	…	…	31	…	3
British Virgin Islands	…	…	…	29	24	3	3
United States Virgin Islands	…	…	…	26	17	2	2
Jamaica	0.8	1.5	…	13	10	1	1
Martinique	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Montserrat	…	…	…	18	12	2	1
Puerto Rico	…	…	…	30	6	3	1
Saint Kitts and Nevis	…	…	…	21	17	2	2
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	…	…	…	56	42	5	5
Saint Lucia	…	…	…	32	22	3	2
Suriname	1.3	1.9	2 954	152	99	14	13
Trinidad and Tobago	3.0	2.6	1	21	13	2	1

Source: United Nations, Millennium Development Goals: a Latin America and Caribbean perspective (LC/G.2331-P), J.L. Machinea, A. Bárcena and A. León (coords.),Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), June 2005; United Nations Millennium Indicators Database [online] http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Default.aspx.

[a] The indicators appear in the order in which they are listed officially; the absence of any indicator is due to lack of information. Figures are percentages unless otherwise indicated. For indicators recorded at two different times, the regional and subregional averages take into account only those countries for which information is available at both times.

Table 53

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: PROGRESS TOWARDS THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS [a]

Country or territory	Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability											
	Target 9: Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources											
	Indicator 25 Proportion of land area covered by forest		Indicator 26 Ratio of area protected to maintain biological diversity to surface area		Indicator 27 Energy use (kg oil equivalent) per US$ 1 000 GDP PPP (purchasing power parity)		Indicator 28a Carbon dioxide (CO_2) emissions, metric tons per 1 000 population		Indicator 28b Ozone-depleting chlorofluorocarbons, consumption in ozone-depleting potential (ODP) metric tons		Indicator 29 Per capita consumption of biomass fuels (fuelwood+cane residues+other primary fuels)	
	Level 1990	Level 2005	Level 1990	Level 2005	Level 1990	Level 2004	Level 1990	Level 2004	Level 1990	Level 2003	Level 1990	Level 2001
Latin America and the Caribbean	49.2	45.8	12.9	18.4	170	170	2.5	2.6	34 480	8 611	0.07	0.06
Latin America	48.4	44.9	13.3	18.9	166	167	2.4	2.5	33 331	8 521	0.08	0.07
Argentina	12.9	12.1	5.0	6.2	161	141	3.4	3.7	2 138	1 676	…	…
Bolivia	57.9	54.2	8.8	19.8	202	225	0.8	0.8	23	27	0.09	0.02
Brazil	61.5	56.5	15.7	18.7	138	148	1.4	1.8	8 539	967	0.05	0.04
Chile	20.4	21.5	13.4	20.8	186	171	2.7	3.9	662	222	0.14	0.18
Colombia	59.1	58.5	31.5	31.6	129	99	1.7	1.2	2 026	557	0.10	0.04
Costa Rica	50.2	46.8	18.9	23.3	105	100	0.9	1.5	342	96	0.16	0.01
Cuba	18.7	24.5	…	15.7	…	270	3.3	2.3	778	209	…	…
Ecuador	49.9	39.2	16.3	53.5	184	207	1.6	2.3	604	133	0.05	0.03
El Salvador	18.1	14.4	0.9	0.9	138	143	0.5	0.9	384	119	0.17	0.16
Guatemala	43.8	36.3	25.9	30.8	148	153	0.6	1.0	357	58	0.30	0.27
Haiti	4.2	3.8	0.1	0.1	108	180	0.1	0.2	0	81	0.11	0.11
Honduras	66.0	41.5	14.6	20.0	181	183	0.5	1.1	0	123	0.25	0.16
Mexico	36.2	33.7	2.5	8.7	194	173	4.9	4.2	12 037	1 604	0.07	0.06
Nicaragua	53.9	42.7	8.1	18.2	192	191	0.6	0.7	87	36	0.22	0.22
Panama	58.8	57.7	18.9	24.6	137	124	1.3	1.8	252	93	0.13	0.13
Paraguay	53.3	46.5	2.9	5.8	165	164	0.5	0.7	171	251	0.27	0.18
Peru	54.8	53.7	4.8	13.3	120	93	1.0	1.2	801	128	0.11	0.07
Dominican Republic	28.4	28.4	11.5	32.6	132	126	1.3	2.1	256	204	0.08	0.06
Uruguay	5.2	8.6	0.3	0.4	104	100	1.3	1.6	531	98	0.10	0.09
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	59.0	54.1	39.8	62.9	386	390	6.0	6.6	3 343	1 842	…	…
Caribbean countries	81.7	81.6	2.0	5.5	552	565	5.5	7.9	1 149	91	0.09	0.10
Anguila	75.0	75.0	…	0.1	…	…			214	10	…	…
Antigua and Barbuda	20.5	20.5	0.9	0.9	…	…	4.9	5.1	421	1	…	…
Netherlands Antilles	1.3	1.3	…	1.1	…	…	6.3	22.2			…	…
Aruba	2.2	2.2	…	0.1	…	…	28.9	21.3			…	…
Bahamas	51.4	51.4	0.4	0.9	…	…	7.6	6.3	51	13	…	…
Barbados	4.7	4.7	0.1	0.1	…	…	4.0	4.4	21	7	…	…
Belize	72.5	72.5	14.9	30.4	…	…	1.7	2.9	15	10	…	…
Dominica	66.7	61.3	3.7	4.5	…	…	0.9	1.6		1	…	…
Grenada	11.8	11.8	0.1	0.1	…	…	1.3	2.1	4	1	0.04	0.05
Guadeloupe	49.7	47.3	…	3.1	…	…	3.3	4.0			…	…
French Guiana	91.8	91.5	…	5.4	…	…	6.9	5.4			…	…
Guyana	76.7	76.7	…	2.2	…	…	1.6	2.0	19	24	0.28	0.29
Cayman Islands	46.2	46.2	…	92.7	…	…	9.5	7.0			…	…
Turks and Caicos Islands	79.1	79.1	…	…	…	…	…	…			…	…
British Virgin Islands	26.7	26.7	…	34.6	…	…	2.9	3.9			…	…
United States Virgin Islands	35.3	29.4	…	3.0	…	…	…	…			…	…

Table 53 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: PROGRESS TOWARDS THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS [a]

Country or territory	Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability											
	Target 9: Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources											
	Indicator 25 Proportion of land area covered by forest		Indicator 26 Ratio of area protected to maintain biological diversity to surface area		Indicator 27 Energy use (kg oil equivalent) per US$ 1 000 GDP PPP (purchasing power parity)		Indicator 28a Carbon dioxide (CO_2) emissions, metric tons per 1 000 population		Indicator 28b Ozone-depleting chlorofluorocarbons, consumption in ozone-depleting potential (ODP) metric tons		Indicator 29 Per capita consumption of biomass fuels (fuelwood+cane residues+other primary fuels)	
	Level 1990	Level 2005	Level 1990	Level 2005	Level 1990	Level 2004	Level 1990	Level 2004	Level 1990	Level 2003	Level 1990	Level 2001
Jamaica	31.9	31.3	3.6	13.5	383	409	3.4	4.0	424	5	0.03	0.04
Martinique	43.4	43.4	…	10.5	…	…	5.7	3.3			…	…
Montserrat	40.0	40.0	…	10.7	…	…	3.1	11.6			…	…
Puerto Rico	45.5	46.0	…	2.5	…	…	…	…			…	…
Saint Kitts and Nevis	13.9	13.9	9.6	9.6	…	…	1.6	2.6	6	2	…	…
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	23.1	28.2	1.3	1.3	…	…	0.7	1.7	3	1	…	…
Saint Lucia	27.9	27.9	2.2	2.4	…	…	1.2	2.3	8	2	…	…
Suriname	94.7	94.7	2.2	11.5	…	…	4.5	5.1	40	8	0.08	0.09
Trinidad and Tobago	45.8	44.1	1.7	1.8	706	712	13.8	24.7	138	18	…	…

Source: United Nations, Millennium Development Goals: a Latin America and Caribbean perspective (LC/G.2331-P), J.L. Machinea, A. Bárcena and A. León (coords.), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), June 2005; United Nations Millennium Indicators Database [online] http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Default.aspx.

[a] The indicators appear in the order in which they are listed officially; the absence of any indicator is due to lack of information. Figures are percentages unless otherwise indicated. For indicators recorded at two different times, the regional and subregional averages take into account only those countries for which information is available at both times.

Table 54

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: PROGRESS TOWARDS THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS [a]

Country or territory	Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability													
	Target 10. Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and sanitation												Target 11: By 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum-dwellers	
	Indicator 30 Sustainable access to improved water sources National total		Indicator 30 Sustainable access to improved water sources Urban areas		Indicator 30 Sustainable access to improved water sources Rural areas		Indicator 31 Access to improved sanitation National totall		Indicator 31 Access to improved sanitation Urban areas		Indicator 31 Access to improved sanitation Rural areas		Indicator 32 Slum dwellers in urban areas	
	Level 1990	Level 2004	Level 1990	Level 2004	Level 1990	Level 2004	Level 1990	Level 2004	Level 1990	Level 2004	Level 1990	Level 2004	Level 1990	Level 2001
Latin America and the Caribbean	83	91	93	96	60	73	68	77	81	86	36	49	35	32
Latin America	84	92	92	78	60	72	68	78	81	87	34	48	36	33
Argentina	94	96	97	98	72	80	81	91	86	92	45	83	31	33
Bolivia	72	85	91	95	49	68	33	46	49	60	14	22	70	61
Brazil	83	90	93	96	55	57	71	75	82	83	37	37	45	37
Chile	90	95	98	100	49	58	84	91	91	95	52	62	4	9
Colombia	92	93	98	99	78	71	82	86	95	96	52	54	26	22
Costa Rica	…	97	100	100	…	92	…	92	…	89	97	97	12	13
Cuba	…	…	84	98	78	87	…	…	96	98	68	86	…	…
Ecuador	73	94	82	97	61	89	63	89	77	94	45	82	28	26
El Salvador	67	84	87	94	48	70	51	62	70	77	33	39	45	35
Guatemala	79	95	89	99	72	92	58	86	73	90	47	82	66	62
Haiti	47	54	60	52	42	56	24	30	25	57	23	14	85	86
Honduras	84	87	92	95	79	81	50	69	77	87	31	54	24	18
Mexico	82	97	89	10	64	87	58	79	75	91	13	41	23	20
Nicaragua	70	79	91	90	46	63	45	47	64	56	24	34	81	81
Panama	90	90	99	99	79	79	71	73	89	89	51	51	31	31
Paraguay	62	86	81	99	44	68	58	80	72	94	45	61	37	25
Peru	74	83	89	89	41	65	52	63	69	74	15	32	60	68
Dominican Republic	84	95	98	97	66	91	52	78	60	81	43	73	56	38
Uruguay	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	99	99	7	7
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	…	83	…	85	…	70	…	68	…	71	…	48	41	41
Caribbean countries	93	93	96	96	89	90	88	90	93	96	77	80	13	10
Anguila	…	60	…	60	…	…	99	99	99	99	…	…	40	41
Antigua and Barbuda	…	91	95	95	…	89	…	95	98	98	…	94	7	7
Netherlands Antilles	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	1	1
Aruba	100	100	100	100	100	100	…	…	…	…	…	…	2	2
Bahamas	…	97	98	98	…	86	100	100	100	100	100	100	2	2
Barbados	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	99	99	100	100	1	1
Belize	…	91	100	100	…	82	…	47	…	71	…	25	54	62
Dominica	…	97	100	100	…	90	…	84	…	86	…	75	17	14
Grenada	…	95	97	97	…	93	97	96	96	96	97	97	7	7
Guadeloupe	…	98	98	98	…	93	…	64	…	64	…	61	7	7
French Guiana	…	84	88	…	71	…	78	…	85	…	57	…	13	13
Guyana	…	83	…	83	…	83	…	70	…	86	…	60	5	5
Cayman Islands	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	2	2
Turks and Caicos Islands	100	100	100	100	100	100	…	96	98	98	…	94	2	3

Table 54 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: PROGRESS TOWARDS THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS [a]

Country or territory	Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability													
	Target 10. Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and sanitation												Target 11: By 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum-dwellers	
	Indicator 30 Sustainable access to improved water sources National total		Indicator 30 Sustainable access to improved water sources Urban areas		Indicator 30 Sustainable access to improved water sources Rural areas		Indicator 31 Access to improved sanitation National totall		Indicator 31 Access to improved sanitation Urban areas		Indicator 31 Access to improved sanitation Rural areas		Indicator 32 Slum dwellers in urban areas	
	Level 1990	Level 2004	Level 1990	Level 2004	Level 1990	Level 2004	Level 1990	Level 2004	Level 1990	Level 2004	Level 1990	Level 2004	Level 1990	Level 2001
British Virgin Islands	100	100	98	98	98	98	100	100	100	100	100	100	3	3
United States Virgin Islands	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	2	2
Jamaica	92	93	98	98	86	88	75	80	86	91	64	69	29	36
Martinique	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	2	2
Montserrat	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	96	96	96	96	11	9
Puerto Rico	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	2	2
Saint Kitts and Nevis	100	100	99	99	99	99	95	95	96	96	96	96	5	5
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	…	…	…	…	…	93	…	…	…	…	96	96	5	5
Saint Lucia	98	98	98	98	98	98	…	89	…	89	…	89	12	12
Suriname	…	92	98	98	…	73	…	94	99	99	…	76	7	7
Trinidad and Tobago	92	91	93	92	89	88	100	100	100	100	100	100	35	32

Source: United Nations, Millennium Development Goals: a Latin America and Caribbean perspective (LC/G.2331-P), J.L. Machinea, A. Bárcena and A. León (coords.), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), June 2005; United Nations Millennium Indicators Database [online] http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Default.aspx. The figures for indicators relating to Cuba were supplied directly by the National Statistical Office (ONE).

[a] The indicators appear in the order in which they are listed officially; the absence of any indicator is due to lack of information. Figures are percentages unless otherwise indicated. For indicators recorded at two different times, the regional and subregional averages take into account only those countries for which information is available at both times.

Table 55

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: PROGRESS TOWARDS THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS [a]

Country or territory	Goal 8: Develop a global partnership for development											
	Target 16: In cooperation with developing countries, develop and implement strategies for decent and productive work for youth						Target 18: In cooperation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications					
	Indicator 45a Unemployment rate among young people aged 15-24 Both sexes		Indicator 45b Unemployment rate among young people aged 15-24 Males		Indicator 45c Unemployment rate among young people aged 15-24 Females		Indicator 47b Telephone lines and cellular subscribers per 100 population		Indicator 48b Personal computers in use per 100 population		Indicator 48d Internet users per 100 population	
	Level 1990	Level 2005	Level 1990	Level 2005	Level 1990	Level 2005	Level 1990	Level 2004	Level 1998	Level 2004	Level 1996	Level 2006
Latin America and the Caribbean	12.5	20.0	11.6	16.6	13.9	24.7	6.4	50.2	3.4	9.2	0.3	16.3
Latin America	12.2	19.9	11.2	16.5	13.5	24.7	6.1	49.3	3.3	9.2	0.3	16.0
Argentina	13.0	24.2	11.5	21.6	15.6	28.0	9.3	58.1	5.5	8.2 [b]	0.2	20.9
Bolivia	4.5	8.5 [b]	3.1	7.0 [b]	8.7	10.4 [b]	2.8	27.0	0.8	2.3 [b]	0.2	6.2
Brazil	6.7	18.1 [b]	6.7	14.2 [b]	6.8	23.3 [b]	6.5	59.8	3.0	10.7	0.5	17.2 [b]
Chile	13.1	17.3	13.4	15.2 [b]	12.4	21.0	6.7	83.6	6.3	13.9	0.7	25.5
Colombia	27.1	25.0 [b]	23.4	20.2 [b]	31.4	31.7 [b]	6.9	40.1	3.2	5.5	0.3	14.5
Costa Rica	8.3	15.0	7.6	11.3	10.0	21.5	10.1	53.4	7.8	21.9	0.9	27.6
Cuba	…	3.7 [b]	…	3.9 [b]	…	3.4 [b]	3.1	10.0 [b]	1.4 [c]	3.8 [b]	0.5 [c]	2.3
Ecuador	13.5	15.5	11.1	12.2	17.3	20.6	4.8	39.1	1.9	5.5	0.1	11.5
El Salvador	…	11.5 [b]	…	12.7	…	9.4 [b]	2.4	41.1	…	4.5	0.1	9.3 [b]
Guatemala	…	…	…	…	…	…	2.1	34.0	0.8	1.8	0.0	10.2
Haiti	…	17.9 [b]	…	…	…	21.1 [b]	0.7	6.6	…	…	0.0	7.5
Honduras	…	7.0	…	5.2	…	11.2	1.7	15.7	0.8	1.6	0.0	4.6
Mexico	…	6.6	…	6.1	…	7.4	6.6	53.9	3.7	10.7	0.2	16.9 [b]
Nicaragua	11.1	12.5 [b]	8.6	10.8 [b]	16.7	15.8 [b]	1.3	16.8	1.9	3.5	0.1	2.8
Panama	…	22.5	…	18.5	…	29.6	9.3	38.8	2.7	4.1	0.2	6.7
Paraguay	15.7	13.8 [b]	15.0	11.7 [b]	16.5	17.3 [b]	2.7	34.6 [b]	1.0	5.9	0.0	4.1
Peru	15.8	20.9	12.6	21.0	19.7	20.7	2.6	22.1	3.0	9.7	0.3	21.5
Dominican Republic	…	23.1 [b]	…	…	…	34.3 [b]	4.8	39.5	…	…	0.1	13.7
Uruguay	24.9	29.5	22.6	25.4	28.1	34.9	13.4	49.4	9.1	13.3	1.9	20.6 [b]
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	19.4	28.0	20.0	23.7 [b]	17.9	34.8 [b]	7.7	45.0	3.9	8.2	0.3	15.2
Caribbean countries	32.9	23.8	32.0	22.8	34.5	28.1	18.2	87.8	6.3	9.5	0.4	27.0
Anguila	…	13.3 [b]	…	10.3 [b]	…	16.6 [b]	…	69.0 [b]	…	…	…	30.7 [b]
Antigua and Barbuda	…	…	…	…	…	…	25.3	119.5	…	…	2.9	35.6 [b]
Netherlands Antilles	…	27.2 [b]	…	24.9 [b]	…	30.0 [b]	24.7	50.8 [b]	…	…	0.2	0.9 [b]
Aruba	…	20.4 [b]	…	16.8 [b]	…	24.5 [b]	28.2	85.0 [b]	…	…	2.7	24.1 [b]
Bahamas	…	20.2	…	16.9	…	24.1	28.1	102.8	…	…	1.8	31.9 [b]
Barbados	30.7	26.2 [b]	21.8	21.3 [b]	40.5	26.0 [b]	28.1	123.9	7.5	12.6	0.4	59.5 [b]
Belize	…	22.5 [b]	…	15.4 [b]	…	34.7 [b]	9.2	48.0	8.8	13.8 [b]	0.9	12.4
Dominica	…	40.6 [b]	…	36.4 [b]	…	46.3 [b]	16.4	88.1	…	18.2	1.1	28.8 [b]
Grenada	…	31.5 [b]	…	25.4 [b]	…	39.4 [b]	17.8	73.8	10.8	15.5	0.3	16.9 [b]
Guadeloupe	29.5	…	21.1	…	40.4	…	30.6	116.6 [b]	19.1	20.3	0.0	19.0 [b]
French Guiana	…	…	…	…	…	…	26.5	74.9 [b]	13.2	18.0	0.4	22.5 [b]
Guyana	…	20.0 [b]	…	17.5 [b]	…	24.4 [b]	2.0	27.0	2.4	3.5	0.1	21.3 [b]
Cayman Islands	…	9.5 [b]	…	…	…	…	47.0	122.9 [b]	…	…	…	…
Turks and Caicos Islands	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
British Virgin Islands	…	…	…	…	…	…	41.8	89.6 [b]	…	…	…	18.2 [b]
United States Virgin Islands	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	121.7	…	…	…	26.8 [b]

Table 55 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: PROGRESS TOWARDS THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS [a]

Country or territory	Goal 8: Develop a global partnership for development											
	Target 16: In cooperation with developing countries, develop and implement strategies for decent and productive work for youth						Target 18: In cooperation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications					
	Indicator 45a Unemployment rate among young people aged 15-24 Both sexes		Indicator 45b Unemployment rate among young people aged 15-24 Males		Indicator 45c Unemployment rate among young people aged 15-24 Females		Indicator 47b Telephone lines and cellular subscribers per 100 population		Indicator 48b Personal computers in use per 100 population		Indicator 48d Internet users per 100 population	
	Level 1990	Level 2005	Level 1990	Level 2005	Level 1990	Level 2005	Level 1990	Level 2004	Level 1998	Level 2004	Level 1996	Level 2006
Jamaica	…	28.1 [b]	…	22.0 [b]	…	36.3 [b]	4.5	96.8	3.9	6.2	0.6	46.5 [b]
Martinique	…	…	…	…	…	…	33.9	118.4 [b]	10.6	20.8	…	32.8 [b]
Montserrat	…	…	…	…	…	…	32.7	…	…	…	…	…
Puerto Rico	31.3	23.3	33.3	24.8	27.6	20.9	28.5	97.4	…	…	0.3	23.2 [b]
Saint Kitts and Nevis	…	…	…	…	…	…	23.8	70.0	11.3	22.0	2.0	21.4 [b]
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	…	…	…	…	…	…	12.4	75.2	8.9	13.2	0.5	8.4 [b]
Saint Lucia	…	40.0 [b]	…	31.8 [b]	…	49.2 [b]	12.9	40.9 [b]	13.3	17.3	0.7	36.7 [b]
Suriname	36.6	34.1 [b]	29.0	23.9 [b]	46.2	58.2 [b]	9.2	67.1	…	4.6 [b]	0.2	7.1 [b]
Trinidad and Tobago	36.4	21.1 [b]	33.1	17.4 [b]	42.5	26.4 [b]	14.1	74.4	4.7	8.0 [b]	0.4	12.5 [b]

Source: United Nations, Millennium Development Goals: a Latin America and Caribbean perspective (LC/G.2331-P), J.L. Machinea, A. Bárcena and A. León (coords.), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), June 2005; United Nations Millennium Indicators Database [online] http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Default.aspx.

[a] The indicators appear in the order in which they are listed officially; the absence of any indicator is due to lack of information. Figures are percentages unless otherwise indicated. For indicators recorded at two different times, the regional and subregional averages take into account only those countries for which information is available at both times.

[b] Figures relate to the most recent year for which information was available (as distinct from the year appearing in the heading of the column).

[c] Indicator 48b relates to the year 2000 and indicator 48d to 2002.