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The *Social panorama of Latin America* is prepared each year by the Social Development Division and the Statistics and Economic Projections Division of ECLAC under the supervision of the directors of these two divisions, Mr. Roland Franco and Mr. Hubert Escaith, respectively. Work on the 2002–2003 edition was coordinated by Mr. Juan Carlos Feres, Mr. Arturo León and Ms. Irma Arriagada, who, together with Mr. Ernesto Espíndola, Mr. Xavier Mancero, Mr. Rodrigo Martínez and Mr. Fernando Medina, were also in charge of drafting the individual chapters of the study.

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Notes and explanations of symbols

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

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

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Abstract

The 2002–2003 edition of the *Social panorama of Latin America* explores issues related to many of the Millennium Development Goals. Three of the five chapters (on poverty, hunger and gender inequality) assess how likely it is that the countries of the region will succeed in meeting the targets in these areas agreed upon by the States Members of the United Nations for 2015.

One of the chapters that refers to the Millennium Development Goals deals with hunger and food insecurity. This chapter, which was produced in collaboration with the World Food Programme, provides information on the scale, trends and main causes of child malnutrition and undernourishment in 24 countries in Latin America and the Caribbean.

The chapter on poverty includes figures for Latin American countries in 2001 and 2002, together with estimates for the region as a whole for 2003. This chapter points out that the poverty reduction process has been at a standstill since 1997, but it also notes that many countries may still manage to halve their extreme poverty rates by 2015.

The chapter on gender indicates that poverty in Latin America is more widespread among women than men and that most indigent households are headed by women. Moreover, if it were not for the financial contribution made by women, poverty would increase by at least 10 percentage points in most of the countries. The discussion also deals with other disadvantages suffered by women, such as those linked to the lack of social recognition, unpaid domestic work, the slow pace of progress in their involvement in politics (particularly in decision–making positions), higher rates of unemployment and wage discrimination.

The chapter on social expenditure furnishes information on 18 Latin American countries and analyses trends in social spending over the last decade. The impact on social expenditure of the economic slowdown that began in 1998 is discussed, and the point is made that the higher priority assigned to public social expenditure (measured as a percentage of GDP) avoided what could have been a greater reduction of per capita GDP.

The final chapter examines labour policy and singles out some interesting initiatives aimed at combating unemployment, poor job quality and underemployment. Information supplied by the countries' ministries of labour serves as a basis for an analysis of cross–country differences in terms of legal

working age, minimum wage levels, types of contracts and the right to form labour unions and to strike. It is further noted that, despite some progress in labour legislation, there are still serious problems with the enforcement of existing laws and regulations. The section on the international social agenda summarizes the main points agreed upon at the World Summit on Sustainable Development (Johannesburg, South Africa, August–September 2002), known informally as Rio+10.

Summary

This year's edition of the *Social panorama of Latin America* devotes particular attention to the efforts being made to achieve the goals established by the States Members of the United Nations in the Millennium Declaration. The chapters on poverty, hunger and gender present a detailed review of the existing situation in the Latin American countries and an analysis of how likely they are to attain those goals by 2015.

One of the chapters that evaluates progress towards those goals focuses on hunger in the region. This chapter, which was prepared with support from the United Nations World Food Programme, provides background information on the scale of undernourishment and child malnutrition in 24 Latin American and Caribbean countries during the past decade, the trends detected in this regard and the main causes.

The most recent poverty and indigence estimates available (for 2001 and 2002) are provided for 11 Latin American countries. This analysis indicates that the region's poverty levels have not decreased since 1997 but that, even so, many countries still have a chance of halving extreme poverty by 2015.

The chapter on social spending furnishes data on 18 Latin American countries. This information is used to trace the trends in social expenditure over the past decade and particularly within the last five years. The discussion focuses on how the economic slowdown that began in 1998 has influenced public social expenditure in per capita terms and relative to GDP. The two main conclusions drawn from this analysis are: first, the slowing of the region's growth did in fact check the strong expansion in social spending seen in almost all the countries in 1990–1997, but the higher priority placed on such expenditures (measured as a percentage of GDP) prevented social spending levels from decreasing even further in per capita terms; and, second, thanks to the fact that an even higher priority has been placed on investment in "human capital" (education and health services) than on the other items of social expenditure (especially social security), public social spending has had a greater redistributive impact.

The chapter on gender–related issues indicates that poverty levels in Latin America are higher among women than men and that a majority of indigent households are headed by women. It is estimated that poverty levels would be some 10 points higher in at least eight countries if it were not for their monetary contributions. Single–parent households (most of which are headed by women) are also at a disadvantage due to the lack of social recognition of unpaid domestic work. Women in the region have attained higher levels of education than men and economically active women have, on average, more years of schooling than their male counterparts, but they are also more likely to become unemployed and are more vulnerable to wage discrimination. Progress in the area of political participation and in gaining access to employment at decision–making levels is also still too slow, except in countries that have applied affirmative action policies.

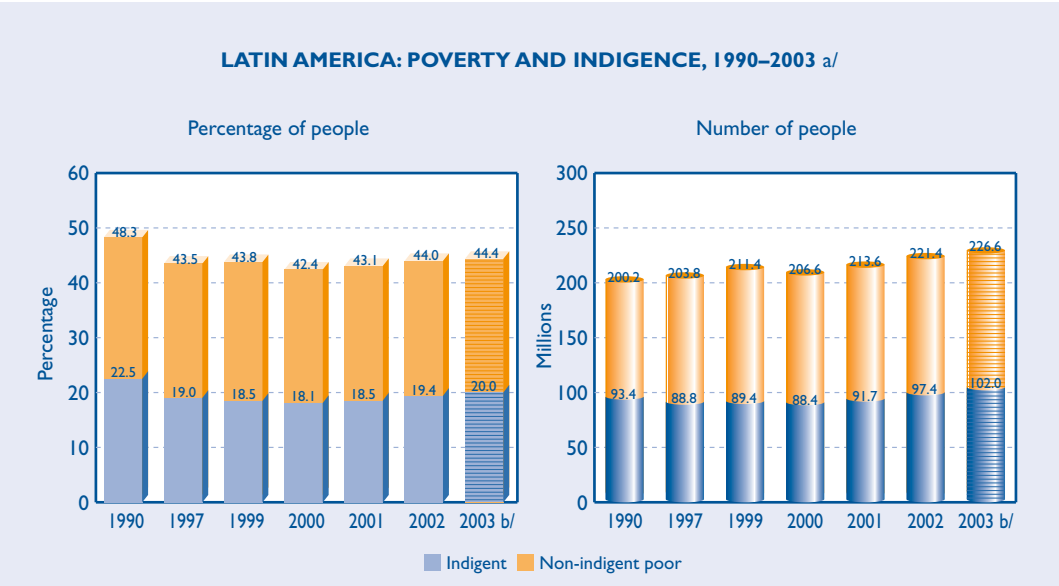
In the 2002–2003 edition, the chapter on the social agenda is devoted to an analysis of the labour market and employment policies in Latin America. Information gathered through a survey questionnaire sent to the countries' ministries of labour reflects a great deal of heterogeneity with respect to the minimum legal working age, minimum wages, hiring practices and workers' rights to unionize and to strike. Despite some legislative progress, serious labour–law enforcement problems persist. This chapter also examines the main types of active and passive policies being applied in the labour market in an effort to tackle the countries' severe problems of unemployment, poor job quality and underemployment. A number of promising initiatives being undertaken in an effort to address these problems are discussed. The final section, on the international social agenda, outlines the main agreements reached at the World Summit on Sustainable Development, also known as "Rio+10" (Johannesburg, South Africa, August 2002).

Poverty and income distribution

According to the most recent available estimates of poverty and indigence levels in the Latin American countries, the start of the new century has been marked by a lull in progress towards overcoming poverty in the region. Between 1999 and 2002, the poverty rate rose by two tenths of a percentage point, moving from 43.8% to 44.0%, while extreme poverty increased by nine tenths of a percentage point to 19.4% of the region's population. This very slight change in the poverty rate is related –among other factors– to the region's feeble economic growth in 2001, of just 0.4%, and the subsequent contraction in 2002 (-0.6%). Consequently, progress has been stalled in the region for a total of five years, since poverty and indigence rates have remained virtually unchanged since 1997.

Within that period, the year 2000 was an exception, since the improved performance of the Latin American economies that year was reflected not only in a 1.3–point decrease in the proportion of poor people compared to the preceding year, but also in a reduction in the actual number of poor people by more than 4 million, which reversed the upward trend of earlier periods (1990–1997 and 1997–1999). Nevertheless, the number of poor people increased again over the next two years, rising to 221 million, including 98 million people classified as indigent (see figure 1).

Figure 1

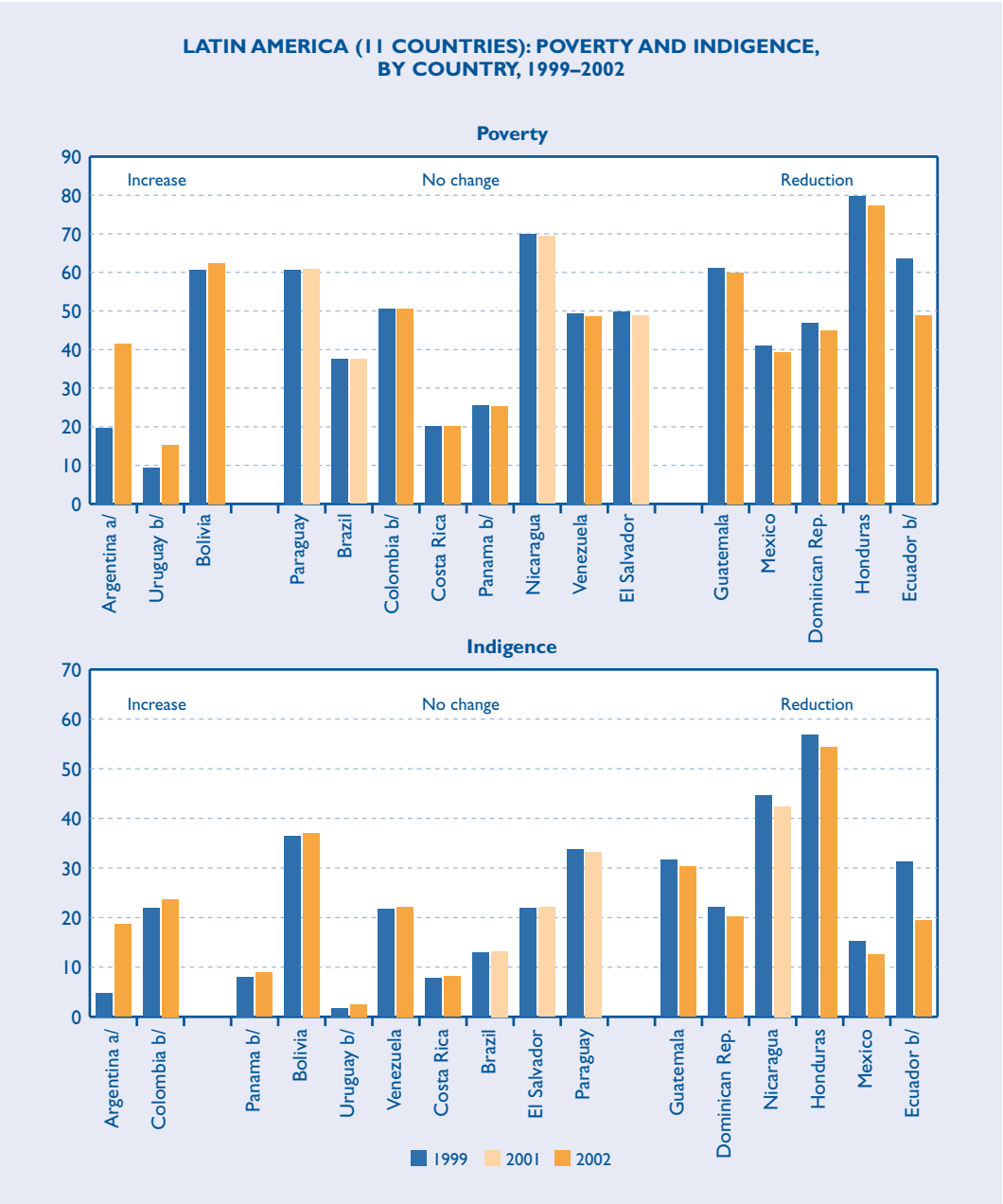


Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.
a/ Estimates for 19 countries of the region. The figures appearing above the light–coloured bars represent the total number of poor people (indigent plus non–indigent poor).
b/ The figures for 2003 are projections.

At the country level, trends in poverty and indigence levels were quite uneven between 1999 and 2001–2002. The only cases in which there was a marked deterioration in the population's living conditions were Argentina and, to a lesser extent, Uruguay. In Argentina, the poverty rate (Greater Buenos Aires) almost doubled between 1999 and 2002, moving from 19.7% to 41.5%, while the indigence rate increased almost fourfold, rising from 4.8% to 18.6%. In both cases, the bulk of the increase occurred following the outbreak of the crisis in late 2001. Uruguay also recorded an increase in poverty (urban areas) but, though significant, it was less dramatic and involved lower rates than the one in Argentina. The poverty rate rose from 9.4% to 15.4%, but indigence remained low, affecting only 2.5% of the population (see figure 2).

The group of countries whose poverty rates showed slight positive or negative variations includes Brazil, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Nicaragua, Panama (urban areas), Paraguay and Venezuela. Except in Paraguay, where poverty increased by 0.4 percentage points, the proportion of poor people stayed the same or diminished (although never by more than one percentage point) between 1999 and 2001–2002. Special mention should be made of the situation in Venezuela, where a small reduction in the poverty rate (by eight tenths of a percentage point) over this period reflected a reduction of more than five percentage points in 2000, followed by a sharp increase in 2002 as a result of the steep drop in GDP in the latter year (-9.6%).

Figure 2



Fuente: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.
a/ Greater Buenos Aires.
b/ Urban areas.

In most of the countries in this group, rates of indigence or extreme poverty tended to rise, albeit slightly, in contrast to the trend observed for total poverty. The divergence between variations in poverty and indigence in 1999–2002 is thought to indicate a relatively greater capacity on the part of the non–indigent poor to deal with the adverse effects of episodes of slow growth or outright stagnation.

It should be noted that Mexico, Ecuador (urban areas), Honduras and the Dominican Republic achieved appreciable decreases in their poverty and indigence levels. Although Mexico's per capita GDP shrank in 2001 and 2002 (-2.6% over the biennium), its most

recent household survey shows a 1.7–point reduction in the nationwide poverty rate and a 2.6–point decrease in the indigence rate, both with respect to the 2000 figure. Nevertheless, this reduction appears to be attributable exclusively to the decline recorded in rural areas, since, in urban areas, poverty remained constant and indigence actually increased slightly.[1] Meanwhile, Ecuador significantly improved its urban poverty and indigence rates in 2002, achieving reductions of 14.6 and 11.9 percentage points, respectively, after having suffered a recession in 1999 that had raised the poverty rate to nearly 64%. Honduras lowered both its poverty rate and its indigence rate by 2.4 percentage points relative to their 1999 levels, bringing the percentage of the population living in poverty to 77.3% and the indigent population to 54.4% of the total. The Dominican Republic posted a reduction of 2.0 percentage points in its poverty rate and one of 1.8 points in its indigence rate, thereby lowering these indicators to 44.9% and 20.3%, respectively.

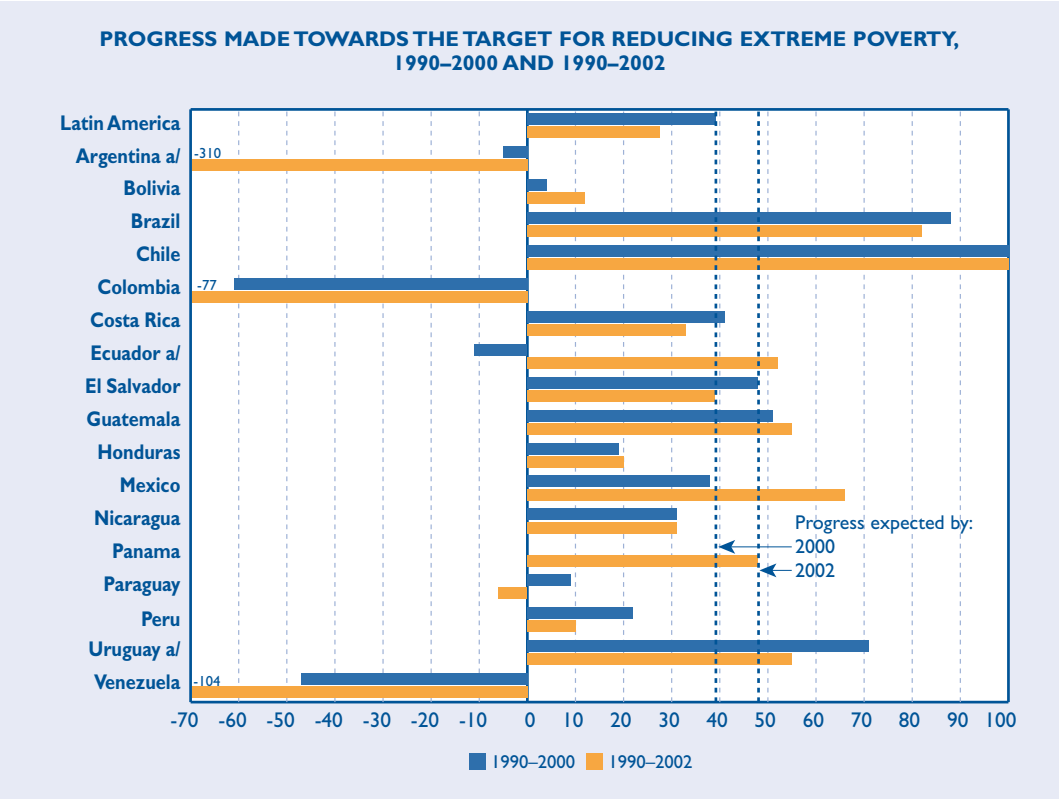
Projections for 2003 based on the economic growth anticipated for the different countries and for the region as a whole indicate that region–wide poverty and indigence rates are likely to rise again this year, mainly because of the absence of growth in per capita GDP. Although the projected increase is small in percentage terms, the number of poor people will still rise by approximately 6 million (see figure 1). Living conditions are expected to show little change in most of the countries. The exceptions are Venezuela, where poverty could increase significantly, and Argentina, where renewed economic growth will probably help to bring down the percentage of poor people.

This situation has a direct impact on the extent to which the different countries have progressed towards the target of halving extreme poverty by 2015, as set out in the Millennium Declaration. By 2000, Latin America as a whole had already made more than 40% of the progress required to achieve this goal. This percentage is equivalent to the amount of time that had elapsed within the period 1990–2015, indicating that the region was advancing quickly enough to meet the target. Nonetheless, the economic and social setbacks of 2001 and 2002 whittled down this cumulative progress to 27.6% as of 2002, whereas 48% of the time allowed for achieving the targeted reduction in extreme poverty had already passed (see figure 3).

Chile is the only country that has already met this target. Out of the other countries, Brazil (which has made 82% of the progress required), Ecuador (52%), Guatemala (55%), Mexico (66%), Panama (48%) and Uruguay (55%, despite the setbacks it suffered in 2002) have made 48% or more of the progress needed. The other countries are generally lagging behind in the effort to reach this target, which comes under the first of the Millennium Goals. The most worrisome cases are those of Argentina, Colombia and Venezuela, whose indigence levels in 2002 were actually higher than their 1990 levels.

1 It should be noted, however, that the changes made in a number of the countries' surveys may make it difficult to compare these figures with the results for previous years. For a brief analysis of this problem, see box I.3 in chapter I. In addition, in the specific case of Mexico, some of the factors that may be interfering with the comparability of its surveys are discussed in box I.4 of chapter I.

Figure 3



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

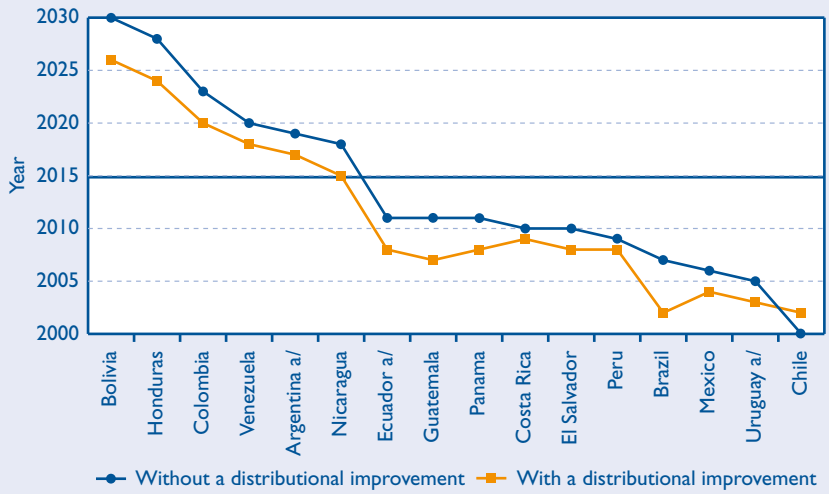
An estimate of the number of years which the different countries covered by this analysis will need to reach the target, assuming growth rates consistent with historical trends, yields a somewhat more optimistic outlook. This estimate was calculated using the simple average of each country's five highest annual growth rates between 1990 and 2002, since that period includes episodes of crisis that drag down the average annual growth rate for the entire period. From this standpoint, in addition to the country that has already met the target, nine more are in a position to achieve it by 2015; that is, nearly half the countries of Latin America, accounting for some 70% of the region's total population, could halve their indigence levels by the target date. Were the deadline to be extended by five years beyond 2015, another four countries would be able to meet the goal, leaving Bolivia, Colombia, Honduras and Paraguay as the only exceptions (see figure 4).

As noted in previous editions of the *Social panorama*, improvements in income distribution can magnify the effect of economic growth in terms of poverty reduction. For example, a 5% reduction in the Gini index (equivalent to approximately 0.025 points of the value of that indicator) can cut down the amount of time needed to halve extreme poverty from two to five years. In fact, if economic growth were combined with redistribution, countries such as Mexico, Uruguay and Brazil could meet the target before 2005, whereas, without any improvement in distribution, none of them will do so by then. In addition, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Guatemala, Panama and El Salvador could achieve the target before or during 2009, but without a change in distribution, this is not a feasible outcome.

Figure 4

LATIN AMERICA: YEAR IN WHICH THE TARGET FOR REDUCING EXTREME POVERTY WILL BE MET, WITH AND WITHOUT AN IMPROVEMENT IN INCOME DISTRIBUTION

(Projection based on the assumption of economic growth equal to the average of the five highest rates in the period 1990–2002)



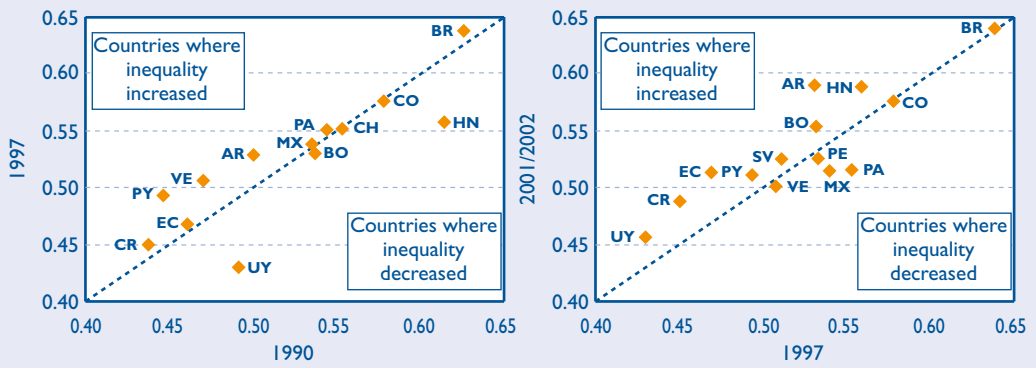
Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.
a/ Urban areas.

And yet, in recent years, trends in income distribution in Latin America have not been encouraging. Even in the period 1990–1997, indicators of income concentration remained largely unchanged and even worsened in some countries. The exceptions were Uruguay and Honduras, which were the only countries that recorded notable improvements in this regard (reductions of over 0.05 points in the Gini index).[2] A similar trend has been observed more recently (1997–2002), since 9 out of the 14 countries analysed witnessed either stagnation or a deterioration in their Gini indices, with the most extreme cases being Argentina (with an 11.3% increase in the index for Greater Buenos Aires), Ecuador (9.4% in its urban areas) and Costa Rica (8.4%). Mexico and Panama (urban areas) were the only cases in which significant reductions in income concentration were achieved, with decreases in their indices being estimated at 4.6% and 6.7%, respectively (see figure 5). Thus, recent figures reaffirm that income concentration in the region's countries has stubbornly resisted efforts to reduce it. Unquestionably, this factor limits the countries' chances of progressing towards this poverty reduction target.

2 It should be borne in mind, however, that data from the 1990s for Honduras exhibit some comparability problems owing to changes in the methodology for measuring income beginning with the household survey conducted in 1994.

Figure 5

LATIN AMERICA: CHANGES IN GINI COEFFICIENTS, 1990–2001/2002 a/



Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.
a/ Calculated on the basis of the distribution of the population by per capita income. The data for Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Panama, Paraguay and Uruguay refer to urban areas. The data for Argentina correspond to Greater Buenos Aires, for Bolivia (1990) to eight major cities plus El Alto and for Paraguay (1990) to the Asunción metropolitan area.

Hunger in Latin America and the Caribbean: its scale, its characteristics and the prospects for its eradication

Food insecurity and hunger in Latin America and the Caribbean are closely linked to extreme poverty, but they are nonetheless distinct phenomena. Nutritionally deficient diets or diets that are not in keeping with social customs are found not only among people who are living in extreme poverty, but also among wider social sectors and groups living in areas where food insecurity is a chronic problem or where access to a nutritious diet is unavailable. Of all the many difficulties faced by extremely poor households, the dire consequences of an insufficient food supply make it the most serious problem and the one that most urgently needs to be addressed.

Malnutrition, especially among children, is the most serious manifestation of an acute, persistent shortage of food that prevents the minimum caloric requirements of the population from being met (undernourishment). The two main signs of malnutrition in children under the age of five are low weight–for–age and low height–for–age. The latter, also known as chronic malnutrition or stunting, is a particularly significant problem in the region both because it is more prevalent than low weight–for–age and because of the irreversible nature of its negative effects.

Undernourishment and malnutrition in Latin America and the Caribbean

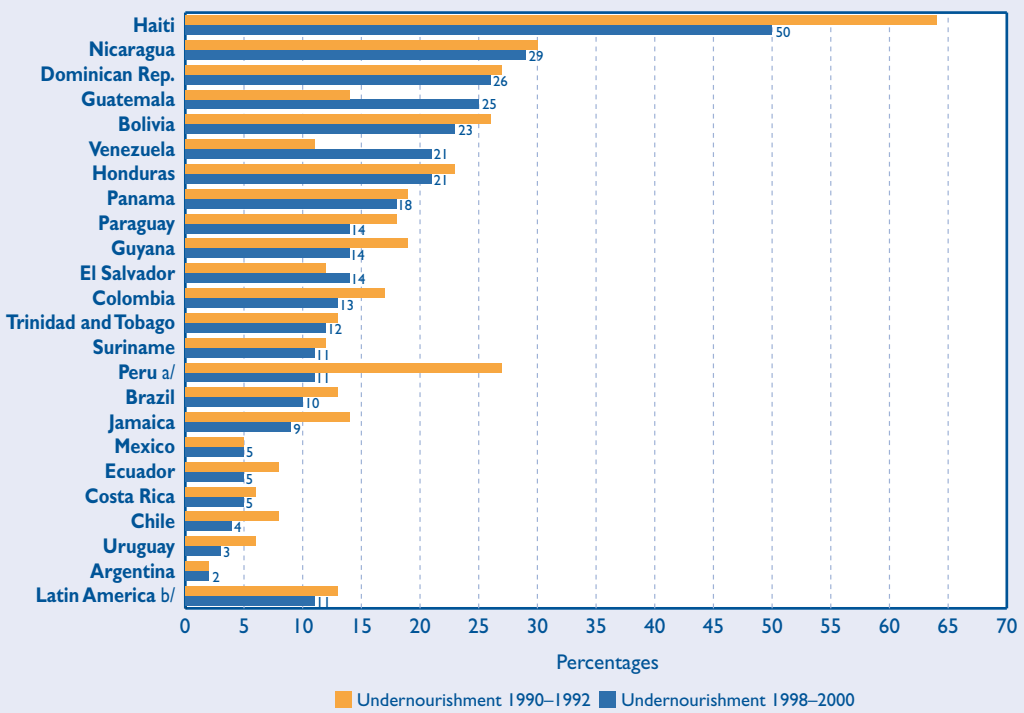
Almost 54 million people in Latin America and the Caribbean were estimated to be suffering from some degree of undernourishment as the 1990s drew to a close (1998–2000). Given the limited progress that most of the countries had made in increasing their food security since 1990–1992, the number of undernourished people was only reduced by slightly more than two million. According to estimates calculated by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), as of the late 1990s over 20% of

the population was undernourished in some countries (Bolivia, Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, and Nicaragua), whereas in others the figure was below 5% (Argentina, Chile and Uruguay).

An increase in the per capita domestic food supply in most countries was the decisive factor in enabling 20 out of 24 countries in Latin America and the Caribbean to reduce the percentage of the population suffering from undernourishment (see figure 6). This positive development more than offset the generally minor increase in inequalities in terms of access to food during the 1990s. In fact, the reduction of extreme poverty or indigence in various countries between 1990 and 1998 translated into an increased food supply for the lowest–income groups, although it did not smooth out the inequalities existing in food consumption levels between low–income groups, on the one hand, and middle– and high–income groups, on the other. In the three countries where the index used to measure undernourishment deteriorated, the decline was mainly attributable to a decrease in the per capita food supply caused by reductions in domestic output and import capacity.

Figure 6

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: TRENDS IN THE PERCENTAGE OF THE POPULATION SUFFERING FROM UNDERNOURISHMENT BETWEEN 1990–1992 AND 1998–2000



Source: ECLAC, on the basis of data furnished by FAO.
a/ The first figure corresponds to 1992–1994.
b/ Weighted average for 23 countries.

Child malnutrition tends to stem from a combination of an actual shortage of food and other factors associated with extreme poverty (such as a lack of access to clean drinking water and sanitation) which often lead to infectious diseases and serious cases of diarrhoea that cause rapid weight loss. In most of the region's countries, however, the most common manifestation of hunger and extreme poverty among children is chronic malnutrition (moderately or extremely low height–for–age, or stunting). The seriousness of this condition lies in the fact that the cumulative effects of inadequate food intake and nourishment during the most critical years in a child's physical and psychomotor development are largely irreversible. Malnutrition is also one of the primary vehicles for the intergenerational transmission of poverty and inequality. Both forms of malnutrition decreased in most of the countries during the 1990s, but the decline in stunting was smaller (see figure 7).

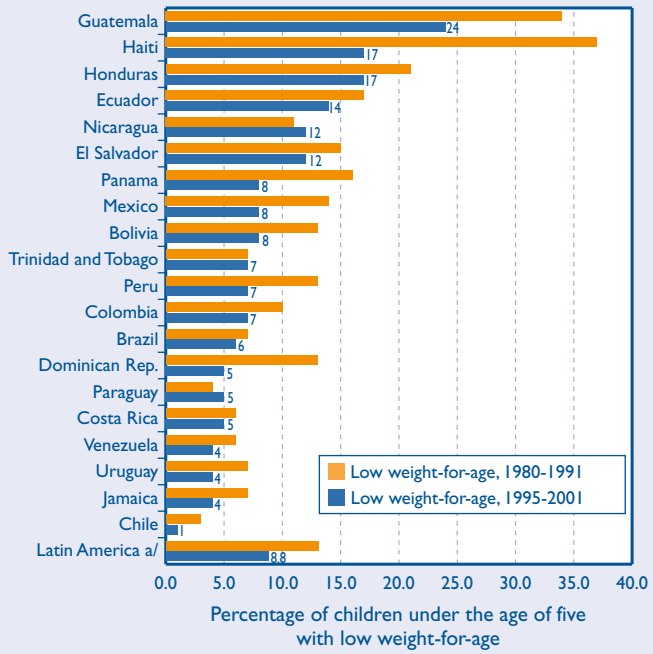
Over the past decade, the percentage of children who were underweight (the indicator to be used in monitoring progress towards meeting the hunger–eradication target set forth in the Millennium Declaration) fell from 13%–14% to 8%–9%, while chronic malnutrition declined from an average of 23%–24% to 18%–19%. These figures indicate that the number of cases of stunted growth is still very high in many countries. Indeed, over 20% of children under the age of five have low height–for–age in nine countries (Bolivia, El Salvador, Guatemala, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, rural areas of Mexico, Nicaragua and Peru). The percentage of children suffering from chronic malnutrition was close to or less than 5% in only three countries (Chile, Costa Rica and Trinidad and Tobago).

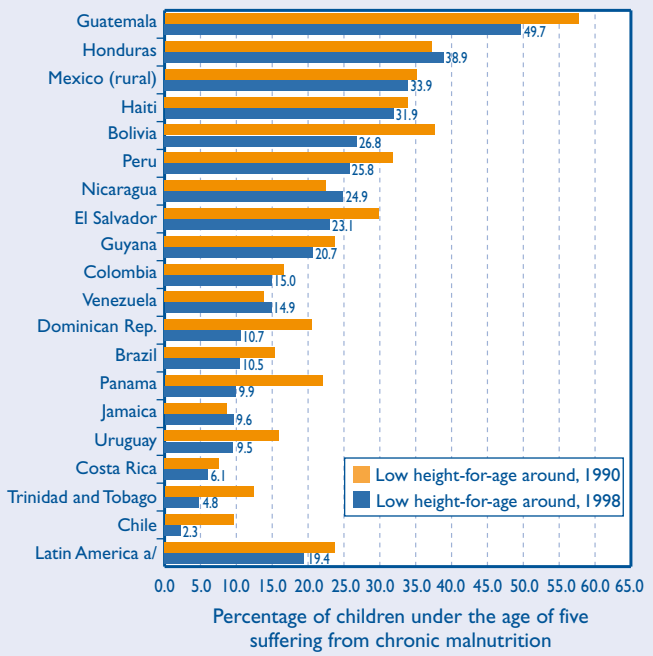
These figures attest to the countries' increased capacity to employ a combination of their own resources and external assistance to deal with the most critical food shortages resulting from emergency situations such as droughts, floods, hurricanes, etc. They also, however, reflect the difficulty that the countries are having in making more rapid progress in reducing child malnutrition among households in pockets of hard–core poverty.

The primary causes of undernourishment in a country are limited food availability (less than what is needed to meet the entire population's energy requirements) and the population's lack of access to food supplies. This latter problem is one (though not the only) of the factors that reflect inequality in the distribution of income and consumption among different strata of the population (see figure 8).

Figure 7

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: TRENDS IN ACUTE AND CHRONIC CHILD MALNUTRITION BETWEEN 1980–1991 AND 1995–2001

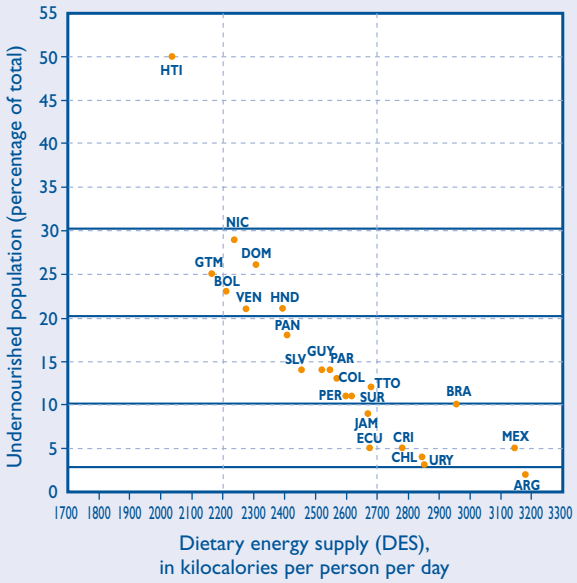




Source: United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), *The State of the World's Children, 1993*, New York, 1993; and *The State of the World's Children, 2003*, New York, 2002.
a/ Simple average for 20 countries.

Figure 8

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: INEQUALITY OF ACCESS TO FOOD, DIETARY ENERGY SUPPLY (DES) AND INCIDENCE OF UNDERNOURISHMENT, 1998–2000



Inequality of access to food for consumption a/

High	Intermediate	Low
Brazil	Bolivia	Argentina
Colombia	Guatemala	Chile
El Salvador	Guyana	Costa Rica
Haiti	Jamaica	Ecuador
Honduras	Panama	Paraguay
Mexico	Peru	Uruguay
Nicaragua	Suriname	
Dominican Rep.	Venezuela	
Trinidad and Tobago		

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of data furnished by FAO.
a/ According to estimates of the coefficient of variability (CV) in dietary energy consumption.
Inequality is considered high when the CV is equal to or greater than 0.285.
Inequality is considered low when the CV is equal to or less than 0.250.

At the aggregate level, food availability basically depends on domestic production and imports. This volume, expressed in kilocalories per person per day, is each country's food availability or dietary energy supply (DES). The capacity to maintain or increase the DES over time, together with the country's degree of autonomy in providing adequate amounts of domestically produced and imported food, are the determinants of food security. A low level of domestic food production that varies significantly over time and that must be supplemented with large quantities of imports to ensure adequate per capita consumption is a constant threat to food security. The situation is even more precarious when such imports are financed primarily with earnings from exports of a limited number of products whose quantities and, especially, prices are subject to wide variations.

The Central American countries, which fit this description, have high undernourishment indices. It should be recalled that a recent drought in Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua significantly reduced the food supply and that the situation was exacerbated by a steep drop in the price of coffee on international markets. These two adverse circumstances (which were largely beyond the countries' control and reinforced each other's negative effects) have compromised the food security of the poor rural population in the affected areas. In Guatemala, it is estimated that adequate food supplies became unavailable and/or inaccessible to some 25,000 families, most of which are engaged in small–scale agriculture.

The situation in Central America highlights the urgent need to ensure that international assistance and initiatives by United Nations agencies (especially the World Food Programme) to help the most vulnerable population groups are coordinated with both governments and non–governmental organizations. The establishment of forums and mechanisms for boosting the effectiveness of actions to mitigate the consequences of situations such as the one in Central America should include, among other things, the adaptation of vulnerability analysis and mapping (VAM) methodologies to the specific problems of the countries of the region with the highest indices of extreme poverty and food insecurity as a result of low DES levels.

In any event, most of the region's countries (the only exceptions being Bolivia, Guatemala and Haiti) have more than 2,200 kilocalories per person per day (below this level, the aggregate food supply becomes critically low). The region's most distinctive feature in this connection is the fact that many countries display intermediate or high degrees of inequality in food consumption. This circumstance raises levels of undernourishment above what they should be in view of the countries' capacity to produce and import food. This is the primary reason why policies to combat hunger in Latin America and the Caribbean should focus on programmes designed to provide people in poorer social groups and geographical areas with readier access to food and nutritients.

In line with this principle, in Brazil the fight against hunger has become the linchpin of social policy. Even though the country currently has available some 3,000 kilocalories per person per day (above the regional average of 2,600) and is a net food exporter, about 10% of its population is undernourished and nearly 11% of its under–five population suffers from chronic malnutrition. Clearly, it is the sharp inequality –increased by regional disparities– in the distribution of income and of access to food for consumption that has made hunger such a pressing problem in Brazil. Accordingly, many of the efforts being made to eradicate hunger under the Zero Hunger Programme are aimed at quickly and permanently increasing the poor population's food purchasing power. These initiatives are complemented by actions to raise agricultural output, reinforce the positive effects of the increase in purchasing power and prevent the consequent upsurge in demand from driving up staple food prices.

Progress towards the hunger eradication target in Latin America and the Caribbean

The first of the Millennium Development Goals refers to the eradication of hunger in the world. However, the target established for 2015 is to halve the proportion of people who suffer from hunger, taking as the point of comparison –as in the case of all the other targets– the situation prevailing in 1990. The sheer seriousness of this problem suggests that this target could be an appropriate one for countries whose populations suffer from more acute hunger, as is the case in many African countries. However, this does not represent a challenge for many Latin American and Caribbean countries, especially since they will have had a quarter–century in which to meet the target.

ECLAC, which has already pointed out the need to "calibrate" the target for the reduction of extreme poverty, believes that, in the case of the target concerning hunger, it would be desirable to propose a different target that represents a real challenge (at least for the countries of the region with higher levels of per capita income), such as the complete eradication of hunger, for example. This target would be consistent with the finding that, for the most part, the problem of hunger in the region is related not so much to an insufficient food supply as to the fact that population groups with very low income have insufficient access to food. This fact is also a determinant of poverty and inequality in the distribution of income and consumption.

With respect to undernourishment (one of the two dimensions of hunger to be addressed under the Declaration), as early as the 1996 World Food Summit, FAO proposed the goal of halving, by 2015, the number of people whose food consumption is insufficient, taking the 1990 figure as the baseline. This more ambitious target (taking population growth into account, it will involve reducing undernourishment by more than 50%) is a more suitable one for many Latin American and Caribbean countries.

With respect to child malnutrition (the other dimension of hunger considered under the Millennium Development Goals), the relevant target also requires that its prevalence be halved between 1990 and 2015. The progress which the region has made towards this target over the past decade is not as easy to measure as its progress in reducing undernourishment because less background information is available on child malnutrition (defined as low weight–for–age in children under the age of five). Nonetheless, some official data are available for measuring the progress made by the different countries between the mid– and late 1990s; these data illustrate the sharp disparities existing accross countries. Here again, the achievements recorded in some countries and the seriousness of the problem indicate that the target established pursuant to the Millennium Declaration is not a suitable one for all of them. It seems desirable to set a more ambitious target that is better suited to the countries which currently have the lowest rates of child malnutrition, considering that as far back as the 1990 World Summit for Children, the countries had already established the goal of halving child malnutrition by the end of the 1990s. On that basis, and considering that some countries have already met this goal or are about to do so, the "hard" target that has been proposed for 2015 is to halve the child malnutrition rate that had previously been set as a target for 2000; that is, to reduce child malnutrition, by 2015, to one fourth of its 1990 level.

What are the chances that the Latin American and Caribbean countries will meet the Millennium Development Goals with respect to hunger? The outlook in relation to undernourishment is not encouraging. In fact, considering levels of dietary energy supply over the past decade and probable trends up to 2015 (using criteria suggested by FAO), and operating under relatively optimistic assumptions regarding inequality of access to food (which has been reduced most dramatically in the countries with the highest poverty rates), it is estimated that 9 out of 22 countries in the region will fail to reach the target of halving undernourishment. In addition to Venezuela and Panama, several Central American and Caribbean countries will fall short of this goal: the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua and Trinidad and Tobago. Six countries (Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Mexico and Paraguay) should be able to meet the less demanding target, while the remaining seven (Argentina, Chile, Ecuador, Guyana, Jamaica, Peru and Uruguay) will probably meet the "hard" target (see table 1).

The forecast is brighter with regard to the reduction of child malnutrition, although it should be noted that this is perhaps the most extreme manifestation of hunger, at least in terms of its contribution to the intergenerational transmission of this scourge. Out of the 22 countries analysed, 19 should be able to meet the target, while 4 (El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua) will probably fail to do so unless they improve on the rates of progress recorded over the past 10 or 15 years. Once again, the four Central American countries with the highest levels of poverty and food insecurity are the ones that are called upon to make greater efforts in this regard.

Table 1

CLASSIFICATION OF THE LATIN AMERICAN AND CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES BY LIKELIHOOD OF MEETING THE MILLENNIUM DECLARATION TARGET AND A MORE DEMANDING TARGET, RESPECTIVELY, FOR THE ERADICATION OF HUNGER

		Child malnutrition (moderately to seriously low weight–for–age)		
		Unlikely to meet target	Likely to meet Millennium Declaration target	Likely to meet more demanding target a/ based on the 1990 World Summit for Children
Undernourishment	Unlikely to meet target	El Salvador Guatemala Honduras Nicaragua	Venezuela Trinidad and Tobago Haiti Cuba	Panama Dominican Republic
	Likely to meet Millennium Declaration target		Bolivia Brazil Colombia Mexico Paraguay	Costa Rica
	Likely to meet more demanding target b/ based on the 1996 World Food Summit		Ecuador Guyana Peru	Argentina Chile Jamaica Uruguay

Source: Prepared by the authors on the basis of information furnished by (FAO).
a/ To reduce the proportion of children under the age of five who are moderately to seriously underweight by three fourths by 2015, in relation to the 1990 figure.
b/ To halve the number of people who are undernourished by 2015, in relation to the 1990 figure.

This situation underscores the fact that international assistance should give priority to these Central American countries; such aid should be incorporated into public policies that cover the essential components of a national food policy. In addition to guaranteeing that the whole population has access to food, such a national policy should guarantee that the countries' food supplies are sufficient, stable, autonomous and sustainable, and should translate into the simultaneous implementation of actions on three fronts: (i) structural improvements with medium– and long–term effects (such as literacy campaigns, access to land, modernization of agriculture and improvement of food distribution channels); (ii) short– and medium–term initiatives (income transfer and school meal projects and programmes, educational campaigns concerning eating habits) to increase households' purchasing power so that they can gain access to food and make sound food choices; and (iii) shorter–term preventive and emergency measures (direct food distribution to populations affected by natural disasters, implementation of food security surveillance

systems focusing on vulnerable locations and population groups) to forestall and mitigate the consequences of a critical lack of access to food.

Poverty and inequality from a gender perspective

The Millennium Goals –which include gender equality and women's empowerment– represent a new way of looking at development. Under these Goals, target 4 is to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and at all levels of education no later than 2015. At the same time, it is recognized that equality between men and women is not only an end in itself, but also an essential means of achieving the other Goals, particularly those relating to poverty reduction, universal access to education, the effort to combat HIV/AIDS and the reduction of maternal and child mortality. Overall, Latin America already has a better–educated female population, especially in terms of women's representation at the higher academic levels, and should regard this as an achievement. Nonetheless, female human capital continues to be underused for development and subjected to multiple forms of discrimination.

Analysing poverty from a gender perspective provides insights as to why certain groups of people are more likely to be poor and makes it possible to identify all the factors that come into play in this process. Social relationships between women and men are based on the sexual division of labour, which, despite having changed in recent years, is still characterized in all the countries by the assignment to women of near–exclusive responsibility for reproductive and caregiving tasks within the home. This cultural mandate overburdens women with work that is not socially recognized and leaves them little or no time for training or recreation, thus limiting their opportunities to enter the labour market and earn a sufficient income or to participate in social and political activity.

Another set of factors is linked to women's unequal access to the use and control of productive resources (work, land, capital, information, new technologies, natural resources, housing), which further limits their capacity to generate income and, especially, to start their own businesses, earn profits that is commensurate with their contributions and accelerate their upward mobility.

The unequal distribution of power between men and women and the obstacles to women's active participation in decision–making within the household, the local community and society as a whole prevent women from taking part in resource allocation and influencing poverty reduction programmes and policies. The existence of both de jure and de facto hurdles to women's exercise of their rights and citizenship heightens their vulnerability and insecurity, making it harder for them to achieve greater autonomy. This problem is epitomized by the phenomenon of violence against women, which continues to be statistically invisible.

Analysing men's and women's unequal access to income makes it possible to determine not only how far a given household diverges from a threshold level of income or a level providing freedom from want, but also how far individuals or members of the same household diverge from each other in this regard. This sheds light on the causes of unequal resource distribution and on the power relations in public and private life that perpetuate them.

The failure to assign economic value to unpaid housework or to regard it as income in households where an individual is exclusively engaged in housekeeping and caregiving severely limits attempts to measure gender inequalities. In particular, this is because such work can make a difference in household income, as households headed by men are more likely to benefit from the housework performed free of charge by the spouse and thus do not incur expenses for housekeeping services. Women heads of household shoulder the burden of housework without receiving compensation. They do so by increasing the time they spend doing unpaid work, incurring additional expenses to buy services available on the market and developing innovative ways of saving and spending. This gives them fewer opportunities to improve their position in the labour market, participate in public affairs or engage in leisure and recreational activities, not to mention the effects of this situation on their physical and mental health. In this connection, identifying specific differences between men and women in terms of their use of time and their spending patterns is a relevant exercise for analysing poverty and the different ways in which individuals experience poverty.

The labour market, as currently conceived, is based on the household labour that permits the reproduction of the workforce and creates the conditions for individual development. Examining the relationship between commercial production, human reproduction and the public sphere, as well as the particular situation of women in this process, is a way of developing a better understanding, from a gender perspective, of the complexity of the existing inequality between men and women and the differences in their experience of poverty.

Women's autonomy

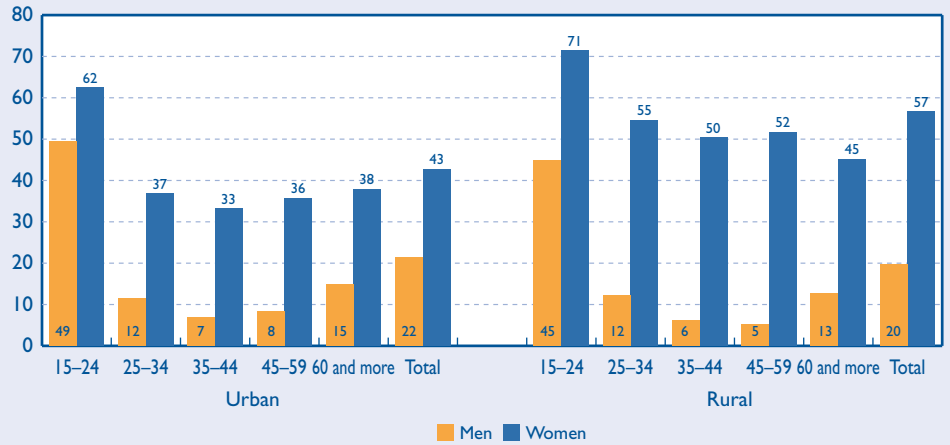
Although available information sources do not permit an exhaustive analysis of all the factors that cause poverty, an analysis of household surveys provides a picture of women's poverty from the standpoint of income and thus illustrates their degree of economic autonomy. The findings of this analysis should be seen as a wake–up call for the region.

An analysis of individuals with no income of their own in poor and non–poor households reveals that more women than men are in this situation and that it is especially common among married women. The percentage of women over the age of 15 who have no income of their own far exceeds the corresponding percentage of men. In urban areas, 43% of all women have no income of their own, while only 22% of all men are in this situation (see figure 9). This fact reveals the existence of a category of people who may be considered the "invisible poor". This situation affects their economic autonomy and decision–making capacity, leaving them highly vulnerable in the event of widowhood or marital break–up; these needs should be addressed by public policies.

Figure 9

LATIN AMERICA (SIMPLE AVERAGE FOR 13 COUNTRIES): NUMBER OF PEOPLE WITH NO INCOME OF THEIR OWN, BY SEX AND AGE BRACKET, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, CIRCA 2002

(Percentages of the total population of each sex)



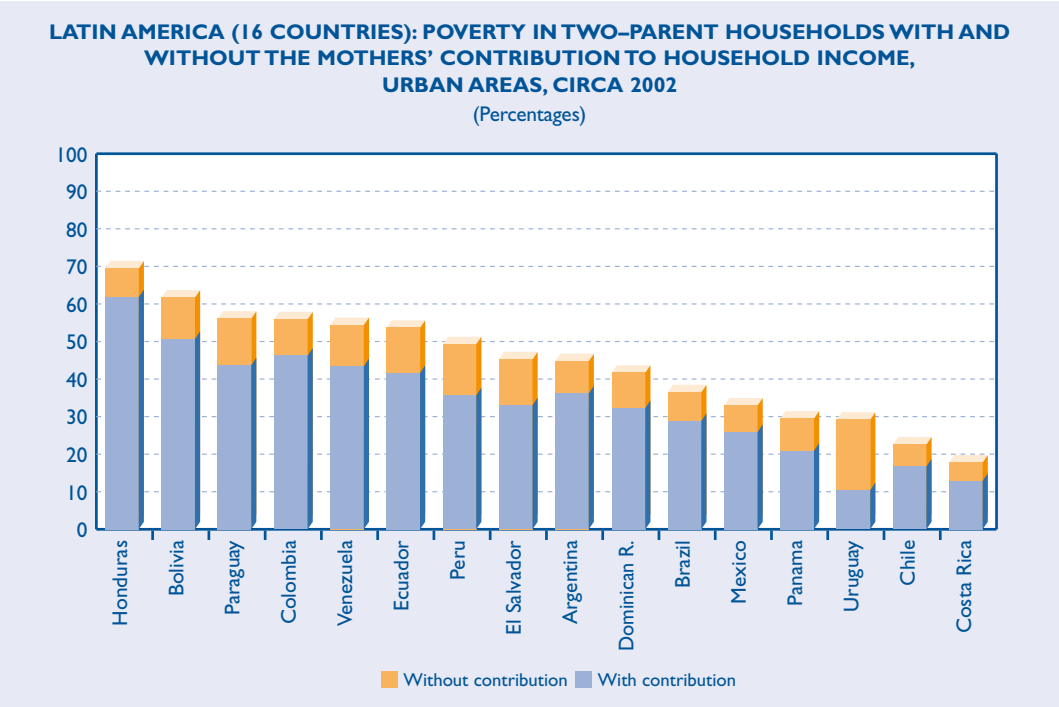
Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

Furthermore, an analysis by type of household and by poverty or non–poverty status, using data for 2002, shows that female heads of household have less monetary income than male heads of household in both poor and non–poor households.

In more general terms, per capita income data tend to reflect the situation at the level of the household, which obscures the fact that the majority of women have lower monetary incomes than men. A gender analysis reveals that this indicator is based on the assumption that income is distributed equitably among the members of the household and that it does not consider at least three types of intra–household inequality: (i) women have less bargaining power, (ii) women have less free time and (iii) women have less mobility. These factors are not reflected in household surveys.

It is important to note that women who do have income of their own contribute significantly to the reduction of household poverty. Available data for 16 countries circa 2002 show that, in 8 of those countries (Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, El Salvador, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay and Venezuela), poverty would have been more than 10 percentage points higher without the contributions made by women (see figure 10).

Figure 10



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

Participation and occupational segmentation

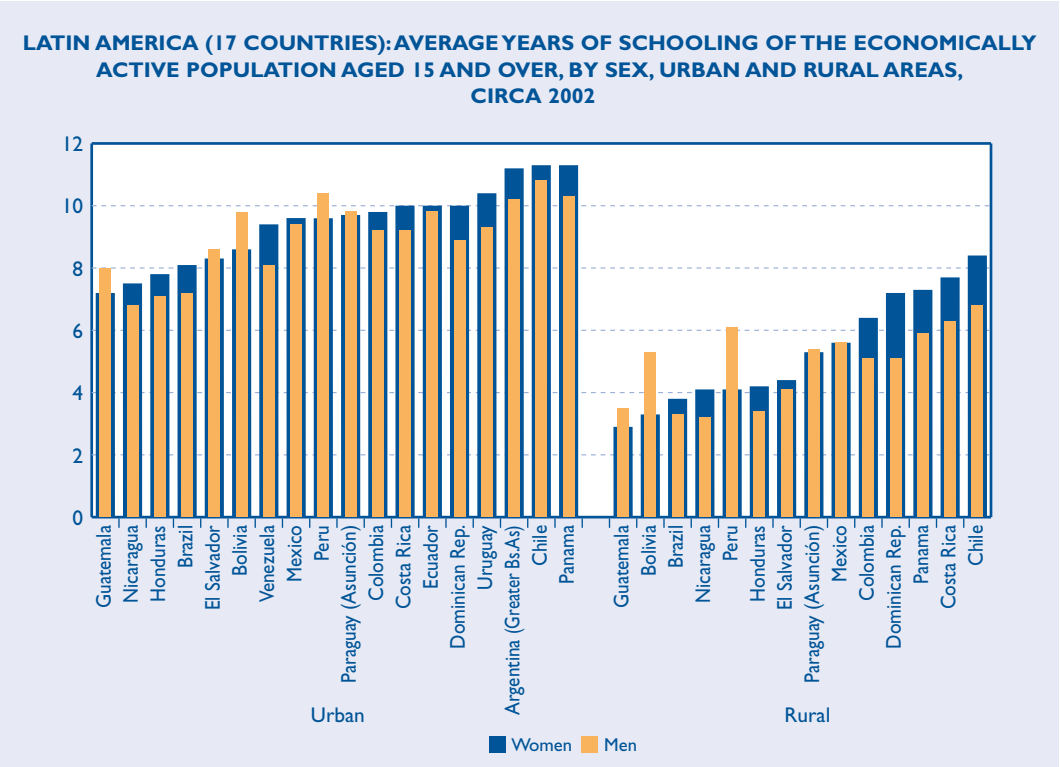
In the 1990s the economic activity rate for women grew faster than the rate for men. Women, however, face greater difficulties in entering the labour market: while unemployment rates for men increased by 2.9 percentage points between 1990 and 1999, rates for women increased by 6.1%, even though economically active women have more years of schooling than men in most of the countries (see figure 11).

Participation rates for women from poor households, though much lower than the rates for women from non–poor households, are on the rise. Poverty status is thus observed to be more significant for women than for men in terms of access to the labour market.

Occupational segmentation remained virtually unchanged between 1990 and 1999, with a slight decrease in the number of women employed in domestic and personal services and a slight increase in the number employed in agriculture and commerce. Although the panorama is varied, women also represent the majority of unpaid family workers. During this period, the gender gap narrowed in low–productivity sectors, mainly because of the decline in the participation rate for men.

In 1999, women's labour–market income represented approximately 75% of that of men, with a wider gap in the case of more highly educated women.

Figure 11



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

Considering that, in many countries of the region, there are more young women with more than 10 years of schooling than men and that the unemployment rate is also higher for women than for men, it may be concluded that for women, more education, and especially higher education, does not yield the same returns as it does for men. That is, the same number of years invested in education does not result in equality of employment or of income.

The challenges

Various challenges can be identified by analysing poverty from a gender perspective. In the first place, it is important to fine–tune the analysis of poverty, taking gender dimensions into account at the conceptual and methodological levels with a view to highlighting the needs and potentials of men and women, at each stage of their lives, for escaping poverty.

In the area of political power, the relevant information shows that women's progress in terms of their representation in both elected and political decision–making posts has been slow and uneven. The countries that have made the most progress over the past decade are the ones that have passed affirmative–action legislation establishing quotas and other mechanisms to promote equity. Empowering women to exercise their rights, building their capacities and eliminating all forms of discrimination in the workplace and the political environment are indispensable in order to overcome poverty.

Policies to combat poverty must foster the harmonization of household and reproductive tasks with the work responsibilities of men and women, with provisions ranging from child care services to parental leave that encourages male participation in family life.

Affirmative–action measures concerning access to assets and particularly to land ownership for women in rural areas must be an integral part of the effort to combat poverty.

Lastly, steps should be taken to facilitate the collection of information that can be disaggregated by sex for use in the design and evaluation of policies and programmes and to monitor transfer and social investment programmes in which women have participated extensively as social policy intermediaries.

Social expenditure in Latin America: positive trends and the impact of the economic slowdown in the region

In view of the fact that the public resources allocated to social sectors have significant distributive effects, ECLAC has established three main objectives in relation to social spending in the region: (i) the intensification of efforts to raise social expenditure and consolidate its return to higher levels, particularly in countries where it is still very low, both in absolute (per capita) terms and relative to GDP; (ii) the stabilization of financing in order to avoid the adverse impact of a reduction in social investment during the recessionary phases of the business cycle; and (iii) increased efficiency and positive impacts of public spending in social sectors, especially in relation to vulnerable population groups and those living in poverty.

The main events affecting public social spending since the Asian crisis have included the slowdown of the region's economy over the past six years; the downturn in public revenues occasioned by the sharp contraction in GDP that occurred at different points in time after 1997 in various countries, especially in South America; and, in many of them, the introduction of fiscal reforms designed to increase and stabilize public revenues. Information on public social spending that spans more than a decade (from 1990 to 2001) is therefore presented in this edition of the *Social panorama of Latin America* so that a comparison can be drawn between the trend of the past few years and the levels seen during the height of the economic boom that lasted from the early 1990s to 1997.

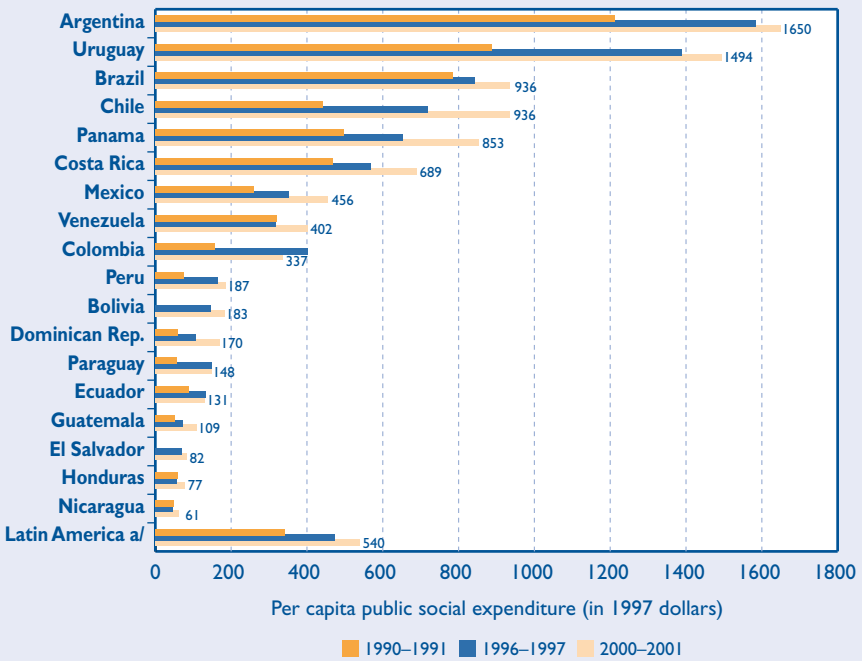
The public spending trends presented for 18 countries of Latin America throw one significant factor into relief: the significant increase seen in the 1990s in the resources allocated to social sectors (education, health, social security and social welfare services, housing and basic services). In fact, between 1990–1991 and 2000–2001, per capita social spending rose by an average of 58% in the region (from US$ 342 to US$ 540 per capita). This increase was widespread, as only a few countries failed to achieve a sizeable expansion in such expenditure; these included El Salvador, Honduras and Nicaragua among the low–expenditure countries (around US$ 100 per capita or less), and, among the countries with expenditure levels in the mid–range (close to US$ 400) Venezuela (see figure 12). This increase in social spending did nothing to diminish the pronounced disparities across countries that had existed at the end of the 1980s, however.

Another factor that has influenced trends in social spending in Latin America since the early 1990s is the considerable effort made to increase the percentage of GDP allocated to social sectors in order to help offset the reduction in fiscal revenues associated with the slowdown. Accordingly, social spending in the region rose from 12.1% of GDP in 1996–1997 to 13.8% in 2000–2001, which is only slightly less than the increase made between 1990–1991 and 1996–1997 (from 10.1% to 12.1%). This was achieved despite the pronounced decline in GDP growth over this period, which, in per capita terms, amounted to a decrease in the growth rate from 2.1% to 0.2%.

Figure 12

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): LEVEL OF PER CAPITA SOCIAL SPENDING IN 1990–1991, 1996–1997 AND 2000–2001

(1997 dollars)



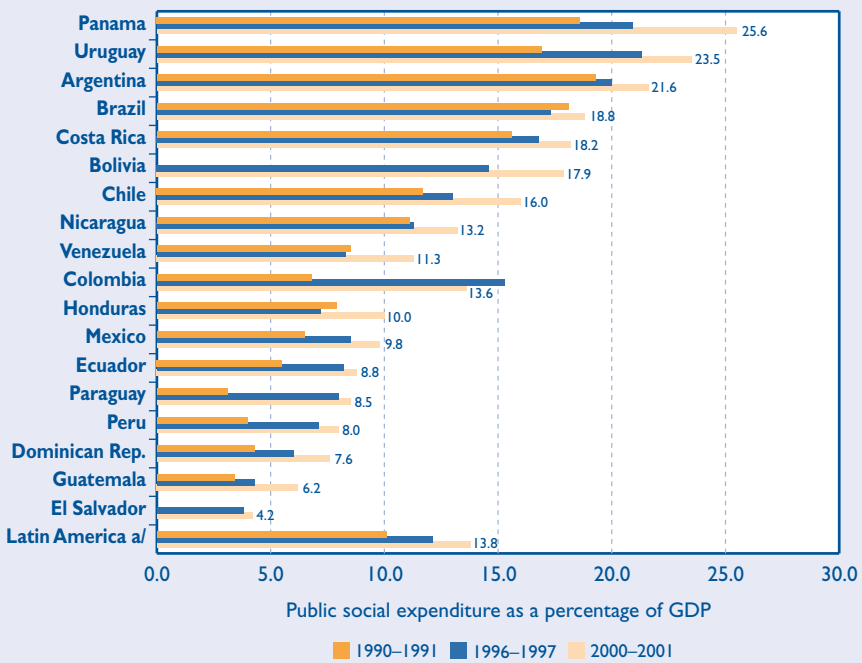
Source: ECLAC, database on social spending.
a/ Simple average for 16 countries; does not include Bolivia or El Salvador.

This slowdown in the economy, and the contraction of GDP in absolute terms that was observed in various countries, did curb the expansion of social spending from 1998 on, however. Although, for the region as a whole, public social spending continued to climb in terms of dollars per capita until 2001 (rising from US$ 501 to US$ 552), it did so more slowly than it had before the crisis. In fact, between 1991 and 1997, per capita social expenditure rose by an annual rate of 6.3%, compared to 4.2% for 1998–2001.

The countries that allocated a very large proportion of GDP to social sectors in the mid–1990s (Panama, Uruguay, Argentina, Brazil, Costa Rica and Bolivia) continued to increase it thereafter, reaching levels of between 18% and 26% of GDP by 2000–2001. Argentina and Uruguay are particularly notable cases. These countries witnessed marked reductions in GDP between 1999 and 2001 (amounting to decreases of 8.5% and 7.4%, respectively), but both increased the percentage of GDP allocated for social spending, thereby preventing a greater drop in per capita expenditure and actually recording higher levels in 2001 than they had in 1996–1997 (see figure 13). It was not until 2002 that the magnitude of the contraction in GDP –close to 11% in both countries– resulted in a substantial cut in per capita social spending. The preliminary data for Argentina point to a reduction of social spending, measured as a proportion of GDP, from 21.8% to 19.4% from 2001 to 2002 and a drop in per capita social expenditure of close to 22%.

Figure 13

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): SOCIAL SPENDING AS A PERCENTAGE OF GDP IN 1990–1991, 1996–1997 AND 2000–2001



Source: ECLAC, database on social spending.
a/ Simple average for 16 countries; does not include Bolivia or El Salvador.

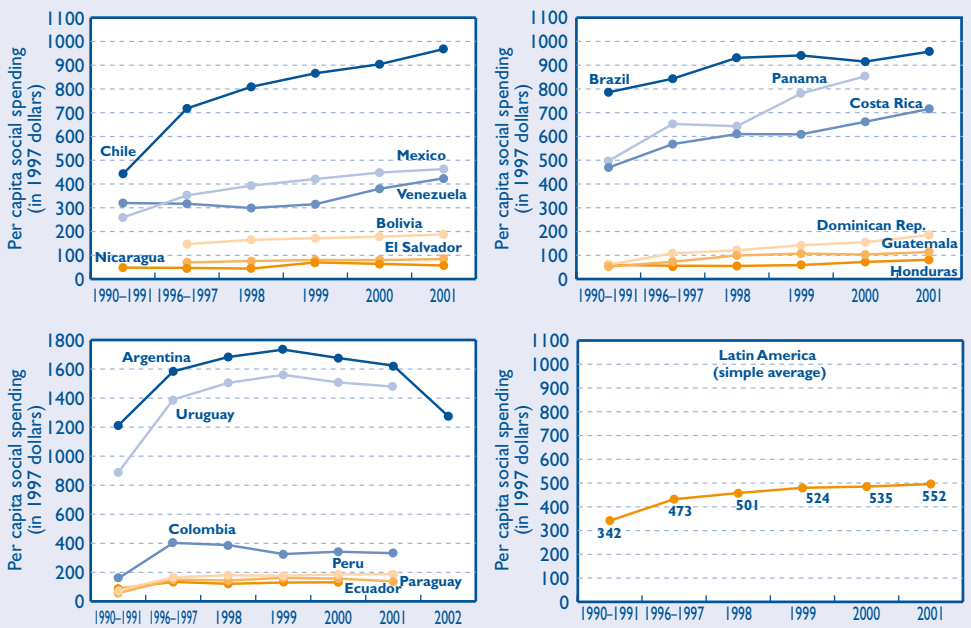
Another case warranting special mention, although for different reasons, is Colombia, where social spending fell from 16.7% of GDP in 1996 to 13.4% in 2001. This caused per capita social spending to slide from US$ 438 to US$ 332 over that period, despite the fact that, after shrinking by 3.8% in 1999, GDP posted positive growth rates for the next two years (2.5% and 1.5%, respectively).

The downward trend in the growth rate of social expenditure in the region over the last five years does, however, mask sharp differences across countries. Generally speaking, the countries in the northern hemisphere recorded greater increases in per capita social spending than those in the southern hemisphere, where the downturn in economic growth was steeper. The clearest exceptions to this trend are perhaps El Salvador and Nicaragua, in the first group, and Brazil and Chile, in the second (see figure 14).

Figure 14

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): PER CAPITA SOCIAL SPENDING FROM 1990–1991 TO 2001

(1997 dollars)



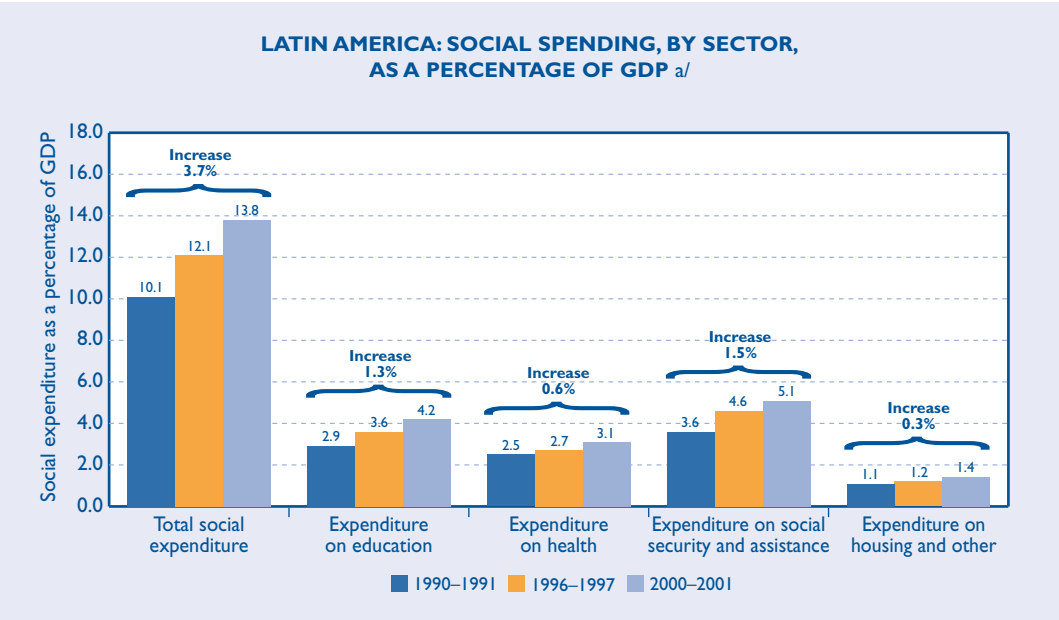
Source: ECLAC, database on social spending.

In addition to the above contrast between the countries in the two hemispheres, differences in social spending are also apparent in absolute terms and relative to GDP. Despite efforts to provide more resources for social sectors, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua have not managed to achieve significant levels of per capita social spending; in 2000–2001, per capita expenditure amounted to around US$ 100 or less, which is less than one fifth the regional average.

A final factor worthy of special mention is the change seen over the last five years in the percentage of social spending allocated to "investment in human capital" (education and health) as compared to spending on social security. In the first half of the 1990s and even up to 1998–1999, expenditure on social security accounted for approximately half of the increase in social spending levels in most countries and for the region as a whole. As the growth rate of social expenditure diminished, however, a number of countries began to make a greater effort to "protect" spending on education. This tendency reflects

the growing importance that many governments attach to that sector, to the expansion of coverage at the primary and especially secondary levels, and to improving the quality of education. As of 1998, the resources allocated to education and health accounted for a higher proportion of GDP than social security (about 1%, versus 0.5%), which reversed the trend observed up to 1998–1999 (see figure 15). As a result, the slowdown in the expansion of social spending over the past few years has been partly counterbalanced by the relatively larger share allocated to the items that have a more pronounced redistributive effect, since, proportionally, they benefit the lowest–income groups the most.

Figure 15



Source: ECLAC, database on social spending.
a/ Simple average for 16 countries; does not include Bolivia or El Salvador.

Social agenda: status of the labour market and employment policies in Latin America[3]

Status of the labour market

The process of modifying the countries' labour laws has continued over the last six years, although at a somewhat slower pace. The governments of all the Latin American countries have ratified the fundamental international conventions dealing with non–discrimination in employment, and most of them have also signed the conventions on forced labour and freedom of association.

This is not the case with respect to the issue of child labour, however. Although legislation raising the minimum working age (Brazil) and establishing special protective provisions for adolescent workers (Costa Rica) has been passed, a number of countries

3 This chapter is based on information provided by the ministries of labour of the Latin American countries in response to a survey questionnaire sent out by ECLAC in September and October 2002.

have not yet signed International Labour Organization Conventions Nos. 138 or 182. In addition, the laws regarding minimum working ages that are currently in force in the region are at variance with the relevant international agreements and vary widely across and within countries.

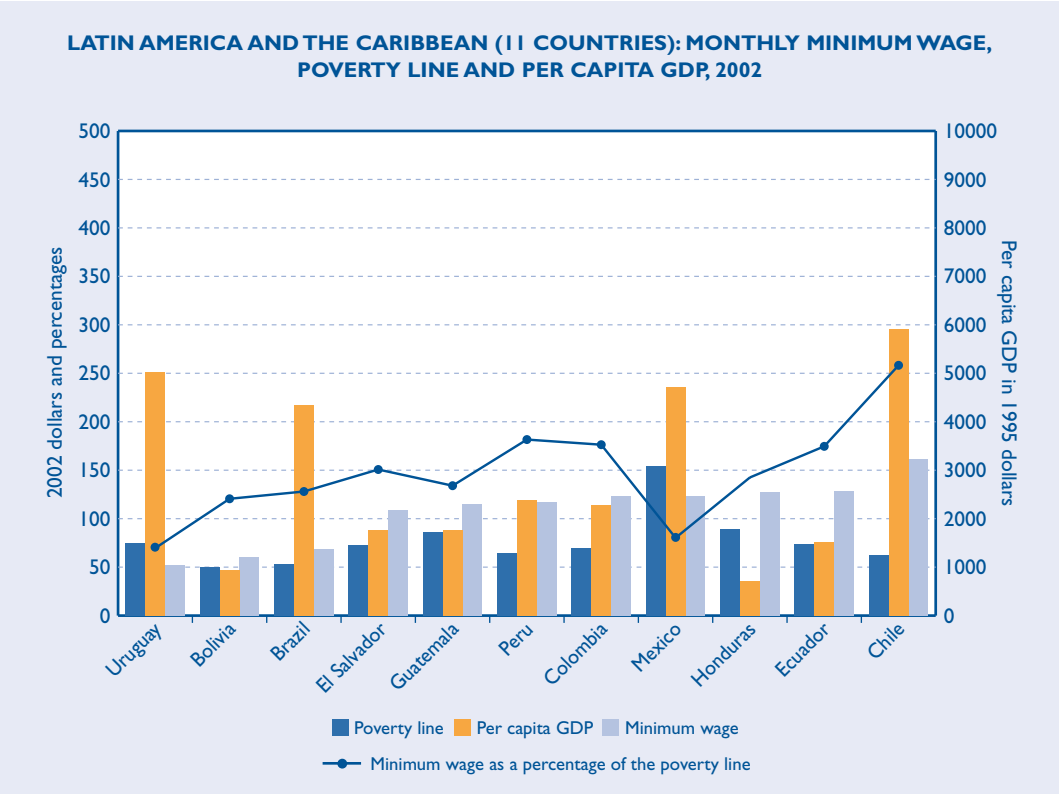
Between 1998 and 2003, Colombia enacted collective labour law reforms, Chile and Guatemala amended their labour codes, and Cuba modified its collective labour agreements and established a special labour justice system. The Dominican Republic and Mexico amended their social security laws, and Cuba adopted business regulations that are conducive to greater participation by trade unions and workers in business management decision–making. In Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia and Mexico, the authorities report that legislation dealing with the status of civil servants has been passed.

New developments include the law enacted by Costa Rica (Act 8220) to protect its citizens from excessive employment regulations and administrative procedures and, in Colombia, the official acknowledgement of the need to improve labour justice and supervisory procedures. The authorities of almost all the countries agree that procedures need to be streamlined and that coverage and oversight should be improved in order to ensure the enforcement of labour laws.

In the 1990s, there was a tendency to replace permanent employment contracts with fixed–term contracts, which could presumably be adapted more easily to fit firms' needs, would reduce labour costs and would permit greater worker mobility. Laws concerning the dismissal of employees were also amended, in some cases to broaden the permissible grounds for dismissal and to simplify the corresponding procedures and, in others, to increase the level of compensation required for firings without cause. The great majority of the governments report that employees in their countries are entitled to severance pay in the event of dismissal. This requirement can be waived on grounds of just cause in cases where the reasons for dismissal are attributable to the employee or when workers are laid off due to the circumstances of employment (completion of a construction project, expiration of the contract, or both). In Uruguay, employers are exempt from severance pay requirements only in cases where blatant misconduct by the worker has been legally proven.

The minimum wage has been neither questioned nor altered by the reforms. In some countries, this wage is set every year. In 7 of the 11 countries providing data for 1995–2002, the real urban minimum wage has risen. The largest decreases in the average wage index for this period were recorded by Ecuador and Uruguay, where recent recessions have dampened economic growth. The real minimum wage has also fallen considerably in Mexico. In most of the countries, there is no correlation between minimum wage levels and per capita GDP or the poverty line. For example, the minimum wage is substantially higher than the national poverty line in Chile, Colombia and Ecuador, but is below that line in Uruguay and Mexico (see figure 16).

Figure 16



Source: ECLAC, on the basis of official figures supplied by the countries.

The countries' Constitutions all include the right to strike as one of the fundamental rights of workers, while their labour codes contain provisions governing the various aspects of the relationship between employers and employees. The question of whether or not the right to strike is actually exercised and, if so, with what results remains to be analysed. Another matter on which more research is needed is the question of whether or not the region's unemployment levels discourage the use of strikes as a collective bargaining tool. Information on unionization rates is also quite scarce but, where such data do exist, the figures are extremely low.

In sum, the regulatory framework for labour policies reflects widely differing standards regarding the minimum working age, employment contracts, the right to unionize and the right to strike. Furthermore, despite the legislative advances that have been mentioned, serious enforcement problems persist.

The modifications made in the regulatory framework include a number of interesting initiatives, some of which are aimed at providing increased protection and bringing national laws into line with international standards. One of these new proposals is to shorten the workday. Chile plans to adopt such a measure around 2005. This measure is intended to improve employees' working conditions; as a parallel measure, training is to be provided to help boost their productivity levels as well.

Governments have implemented various sorts of policies in an effort to mitigate the effects of changes in forms of employment and its increased instability. Passive policy

measures include unemployment insurance, early retirement plans and individual unemployment compensation funds. Only six Latin American countries have unemployment insurance: Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Ecuador, Uruguay and Venezuela. These systems are financed by worker, employer and State contributions, but the percentages that are paid into the system by the employee and by the employer, as well as eligibility criteria, differ from one country to the next. The diversity of these systems' conditions and structures make it difficult to evaluate them. It is clear, however, that because they are all contributory systems, their coverage is primarily limited to workers in the formal sector, i.e., employees who have labour contracts and whose jobs have some measure of continuity. These systems are not linked to training programmes or national employment services. Attention has been drawn to the existence of some degree of inconsistency between the purpose of unemployment insurance and the aims of other income–protection provisions for unemployed persons, since in a number of countries, the level of severance pay is greater than unemployment insurance payments, although they need not be mutually exclusive.

Employment problems as viewed by national authorities

The ECLAC survey questionnaire asked Ministry of Labour officials to identify the main labour problems faced by their countries and to describe the programmes designed to resolve them. Respondents expressed three main concerns, namely, unemployment, job quality and the need to improve skill levels in order to raise labour productivity. Other concerns related to the investment and technological challenges involved in adapting to increasingly competitive and interdependent market economies.

The reasons cited for the existence of these employment problems include the effects of the recent economic crisis and severe recessions in many Latin American economies. Some of the external causes that were mentioned are globalization, financial instability and declining investment flows; in some cases, reference was made to weaker prices for commodities, such as coffee in Guatemala and bananas in Panama. The main causes identified by the Cuban authorities were the economic embargo of the country and the disappearance of the socialist economies which used to be Cuba's main trading partners.

Labour policies

Several countries in the region have implemented labour policies designed to address the extreme poverty and unemployment affecting some sectors of the population (passive policies) and others geared towards creating productive jobs (active policies). The latter include innovative components, both in their design and in the mechanisms established for their application. Most of these programmes are in the process of being implemented, and it would therefore be difficult to make an assessment of them at this stage (see table 2).

In Latin America, the bulk of the funding for employment programmes is used for active policies whose content, institutional framework and evaluation mechanisms are currently being reworked in various innovative ways. One of the central aspects of this process is the need for greater integration and coordination between passive policies, especially in the area of unemployment insurance, and active policies on job placement and occupational training.

Among the active policies, many countries are focusing on promoting job creation by providing assistance, subsidies and loans to small and medium–sized enterprises. This is part of a general tendency that emphasizes the provision of access to credit for entrepreneurs, low–income segments of the population and emerging or expanding sectors.

Resources have also been set aside for training programmes and assisted job searches. These kinds of programmes tend to leave out domestic workers and some at–risk sectors, however, and are often primarily directed at men.

In short, although the existence of these programmes demonstrates growing interest in resolving the acute problems of unemployment, poor job quality and underemployment, they tend to overlook certain sectors (young people and women). In addition, their target groups are not clearly defined, they take little advantage of new information technologies and there is a lack of coordination between the different institutions that administer the active and passive programmes and economic and social policies. Lastly, barring isolated initiatives, there are few programmes whose performance and objectives are being properly evaluated.

Table 2

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): CLASSIFICATION OF LABOUR MARKET POLICIES, 2002

Countries	Passive policies		Active policies								
			Job creation			Public employment services		Job training for:			
	Temporary jobs	Unemployment insurance a/	Subsidies for regular employment in the private sector	Direct job creation in the public sector	Assistance, subsidies and loans to small and medium–sized enterprises	Vocational training and worker relocation	Assisted job searches	Unemployed and population at risk	Women	Economically active adults	Young people
Bolivia				X							
Brazil		X			X	X	X	X			
Colombia	X				X	X	X		X		X
Chile	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Cuba				X		X			X	X	X
El Salvador					X	X	X			X	X
Guatemala	X		X		X		X		X		
Honduras	X				X		X			X	X
Mexico	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Panama					X		X	X	X	X	X
Peru	X				X		X	X	X	X	X
Dominican Republic							X		X		
Uruguay		X			X		X			X	X
Venezuela		X	X						X		X

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of official information furnished by countries in response to the ECLAC survey, September–October 2002.
a/ Argentina and Ecuador also have unemployment insurance.

CHAPTER I

Poverty and income distribution

A. A look at poverty in Latin America today

After having climbed between 2000 and 2002, the poverty rate in Latin America is practically the same as it was in 1997. This shows that, relatively speaking, progress towards the eradication of poverty has stalled in the last five years. The poor now number close to 220 million, of whom 98 million are indigent or extremely poor. What is more, the sluggish economic growth projected for 2003 will probably translate into a fresh downturn in living conditions in the region.

Economic developments

Between 2000 and 2002 the expansion of output slowed sharply: average annual GDP growth barely exceeded 1% and per capita output shrank. After a year of relatively good growth in 2000, when Latin America's overall economic expansion averaged 3.8%, 2001 brought a significant slowdown, with regional output expanding by only 0.4%, the lowest rate in 11 years. Per capita GDP declined by 1.1% with respect to its 2000 level.[1]

The sluggish growth recorded in 2001 was mainly the result of contractions in Argentina (-4.4%) and Uruguay (-3.5%), combined with the poor performance of large economies such as Brazil (1.5%) and Mexico (0.5%). While rates of economic expansion topped 2% in a number of countries, they generally fell short of their levels of the previous year, thereby accentuating the downturn with respect to 2000.

In 2002 regional output contracted. Economic activity slipped by 0.6%, which dragged down per capita GDP for the second year in a row, this time by 2.1%. This was partly attributable to a sharp drop in output in Argentina (-10.9%), Uruguay (-10.7%) and Venezuela (-9%). At the same time, many countries managed to turn in only modest rates of growth, which in most cases did not exceed 2%. The biggest increases in output were achieved by Peru (5.3%), the Dominican Republic (4.3%) and Ecuador (3.8%).

1 See ECLAC (2003a).

According to ECLAC, the countries fall into at least four groups in terms of the factors that impinged most on their economic performance in 2002. Slack growth in United States demand was the main determinant of economic performance in the first group, comprising Mexico, the Central American Common Market countries, Haiti, Panama and the Dominican Republic. Chile and Peru were affected mainly by a downturn in their terms of trade. By contrast, difficulties in access to international financing and high levels of speculation hurt the MERCOSUR countries and, indirectly, Bolivia. Lastly, in Ecuador, Venezuela and Colombia, domestic factors underlay the performance of output.[2]

Despite the poor economic performance recorded in 2002, in general terms a slight upturn in growth is expected for 2003. Indeed, by mid–2002 most of the countries had seen a break in the output trend, which has been interpreted as the onset of a fresh cycle of economic expansion. GDP is expected to climb by 1.5% in 2003, which would represent a stagnation in per capita output.

One of the defining features of 2002 was an increase in unemployment rates across the countries of the region, with few exceptions. This represented a continuation of the upward trend seen in 2001, which brought region–wide unemployment to 8.9%, its highest level in more than a decade. The South American countries have been the hardest hit by the expansion of unemployment over the past few years: unlike the other countries, they had higher average unemployment in the period 2000–2002 than in the period 1990–1999 (see table I.1).

Another feature of 2002 was a substantial rise in the rate of inflation in a number of Latin American countries, particularly Argentina, Venezuela, Uruguay and Paraguay. Those increases reversed the downward trend which inflation had displayed in previous years, and in most cases were associated with currency devaluations. This suggests that they should be interpreted as short–lived phenomena (see table 1 of the statistical appendix).

Changes in poverty and indigence

According to the latest estimates (in 2002) 44% of Latin America's population was living in poverty, while the poor numbered just over 220 million. Of these, a little over 97 million, or 19.4% of the region's population, were indigent or extremely poor (see tables I.2 and I.3).[3]

2 See ECLAC (2002a).
3 See box I.1 for a description of the method used to measure poverty.

Table I.1

LATIN AMERICA: SELECTED SOCIO–ECONOMIC INDICATORS, 1990–2002

Country Year	Per capita GDP (Average annual rate of variation) a/	Urban unemployment	Real average wage c/	Urban minimum wage
		Simple average for the period b/ (Percentages)	(Average annual rate of variation)	
Argentina				
1990–1999	2.6	11.9	0.6	0.8
2000–2002	-6.6	17.4	-4.6	-6.4
Bolivia				
1990–1999	1.6	5.5	3.0	7.4
2000–2002	-0.1	8.2	2.6	6.1
Brazil				
1990–1999	0.2	5.6	-1.0	-0.4
2000–2002	1.0	6.8	-2.7	5.0
Chile				
1990–1999	4.2	7.2	3.5	5.9
2000–2002	1.9	9.1	1.7	4.6
Colombia				
1990–1999	0.6	11.6	1.3	-0.4
2000–2002	0.1	17.7	2.7	0.8
Costa Rica				
1990–1999	2.6	5.4	2.1	1.1
2000–2002	-0.3	6.0	1.9	-0.3
Cuba				
1990–1999	-3.6	…	…	…
2000–2002	3.0	…	…	…
Ecuador				
1990–1999	0.2	9.4	5.3	0.9
2000–2002	1.5	11.0	…	2.9
El Salvador				
1990–1999	2.6	7.8	…	-0.5
2000–2002	0.1	6.6	…	-2.6
Guatemala				
1990–1999	1.4	4.3	5.4	-9.8
2000–2002	0.1	3.6	1.1	4.3
Haiti				
1990–1999	-2.8	…	…	-8.3
2000–2002	-1.5	…	…	-10.8
Honduras				
1990–1999	-0.2	6.1	…	1.0
2000–2002	0.9	6.0	…	4.4
Mexico				
1990–1999	1.5	3.6	0.8	-4.7
2000–2002	0.8	2.5	4.7	0.6
Nicaragua				
1990–1999	0.2	14.3	8.0	-1.8
2000–2002	0.7	10.9	3.4	-4.6
Panama				
1990–1999	2.9	16.6	…	1.5
2000–2002	-0.6	16.1	…	3.3
Paraguay				
1990–1999	-0.6	6.3	0.3	-1.6
2000–2002	-2.7	11.8	-1.4	2.4
Peru				
1990–1999	1.3	8.5	-0.8	1.4
2000–2002	0.9	9.1	1.5	3.9
Dominican Rep.				
1990–1999	2.7	16.9	…	2.6
2000–2002	3.1	15.1	…	1.6
Uruguay				
1990–1999	2.4	10.0	0.5	-5.9
2000–2002	-6.2	15.3	-4.2	-4.5
Venezuela c/				
1990–1999	0.3	10.3	-3.9	-3.0
2000–2002	-2.6	14.3	-2.2	-4.6
Latin America				
1990–1999	0.9	7.3	…	…
2000–2002	-0.4	8.5	…	…

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of official figures.

a/ Based on per capita GDP in constant 1995 dollars. The figure shown for 2002 is a preliminary estimate.

b/ In Chile, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Dominican Republic and Venezuela, refers to total nationwide unemployment. In addition, in place of the periods 1990–1999 and 2000–2002, the following periods were taken into account: 1991–1999 and 2002 (Guatemala), 1990–1999 and 2001–2002 (Honduras), 1991–1999 and 2000–2002 (Dominican Republic) and 1992–1999 and 2000–2002 (Latin America).

c/ In general, the coverage of this index is very incomplete. In most of the countries it refers only to formal–sector workers in industry. The figure shown for 2002 is a preliminary estimate.

Table I.2

LATIN AMERICA: POVERTY AND INDIGENCE RATES, a/
1980–2002

	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
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	37.9

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.
a/ Estimate for 18 countries of the region plus Haiti.
b/ Percentage of the population with income below the poverty line. Includes the population living in indigence.
c/ Percentage of the population with income below the indigence line.

Table I.3

LATIN AMERICA: POOR AND INDIGENT POPULATION, a/
1980–2002

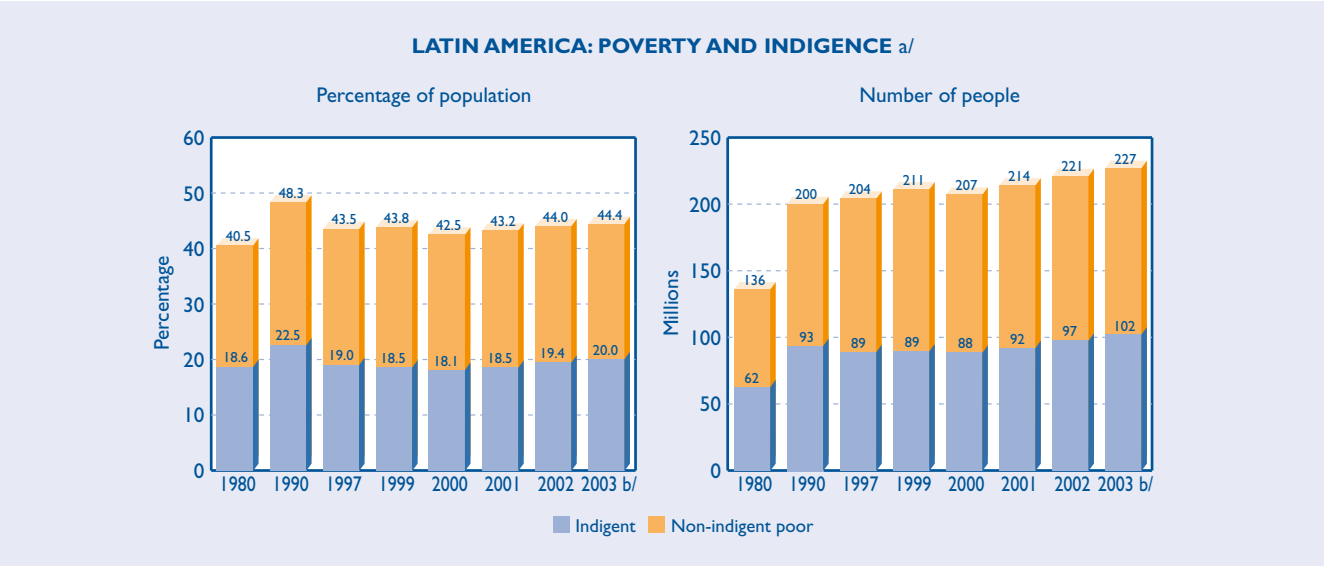
	Millions of people					
	Poor b/			Indigent c/		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
1980	135.9	62.9	73.0	62.4	22.5	39.9
1990	200.2	121.7	78.5	93.4	45.0	48.4
1997	203.8	125.7	78.2	88.8	42.2	46.6
1999	211.4	134.2	77.2	89.4	43.0	46.4
2000	207.1	131.8	75.3	88.4	42.8	45.6
2001	213.9	138.7	75.2	91.7	45.8	45.9
2002	221.4	146.7	74.8	97.4	51.6	45.8

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.
a/ Estimate for 18 countries of the region plus Haiti.
b/ Number of people with income below the poverty line. Includes people living in indigence.
c/ Number of people with income below the indigence line.

When compared with data from previous years, these figures appear to indicate that progress toward the eradication of poverty in the region has come to a relative standstill. Between 1999 and 2002 the poverty rate stayed almost constant, rising by two tenths of a percentage point, while extreme poverty rose by nine tenths of a point. As a result, the poor in Latin America numbered 10 million more than in 1999. Also worrying is the fact that most of this increase reflected a rise in the level of indigence. The number of indigents rose by 8 million, apparently indicating that poverty has deepened.

The upward trend of poverty in earlier periods (1990–1997 and 1997–1999) was broken in 2000, when the improved performance of the Latin American economies was reflected not only in a 1.3–point decrease in the proportion of poor people compared to the preceding year, but also in a reduction in the number of poor people by more than 4 million (see figure I.1).

Figure I.1



Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.
a/ Nationwide total.
b/ The figures for 2003 are projections.

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 are based on the calculation of the cost of a particular basket of 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 the value of this basket, 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]

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.[b] Since 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.

The data on household 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, both missing answers

Box I.1 (concluded)

METHOD USED FOR POVERTY MEASUREMENT

to certain questions on income –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. Income was understood to consist of total current income; i.e., income from wage labour (monetary and in kind), from independent labour (including self–supply and the consumption value of home–made products), from property, from retirement and other pensions and from other transfers received by households. In most of the countries, household income included the imputed rental value of owner–occupied dwellings.

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 Institute of Geography and Statistics, the Brazilian Institute of Applied Economic Research and ECLAC. For Peru, the indigence and poverty lines used were estimates prepared by the National Institute of Statistics and Informatics under the programme to improve surveys on living conditions in Latin America and the Caribbean (MECOVI) in Peru.

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

In the two years that followed, poverty and indigence indicators worsened again, albeit slightly. In 2001 poverty increased by seven tenths of a percentage point, which was three tenths of a point more than the increase in extreme poverty. Although small, these variations represented an increase of about 7 million in the number of poor people, including 3 million indigents. The downturn in living conditions was slightly worse in 2002, when poverty and indigence rose by eight tenths and nine tenths of a percentage point, respectively. These variations represented increases of 8 and 6 million in the number of people living in poverty and indigence, respectively.

A comparison between poverty and indigence levels in 2002 and in earlier periods reveals mixed trends, which as a rule reflect the region's economic performance. The most recent figures show a rise of half a percentage point in the poverty rate and four tenths of a point in the indigence rate with respect to 1997, which was a very significant year for Latin America because it marked the onset of a series of major financial crises. This confirms that progress towards eradicating poverty has been stalled for at least five years. By contrast, a comparison between recent figures and data from the early 1990s paints a more encouraging picture: despite the increases mentioned, in 2002 poverty and indigence rates were, respectively, 4.3 and 3.1 percentage points lower than the equivalent rates in 1990. This means that, even though the recent crises have undone much of the progress made in reducing poverty over the past decade, the net outcome of the efforts of the past 13 years is still positive. On the other hand, if 1980 is taken as the reference year, it can be seen that standards of living in the region have not improved substantially in the last 22 years, at least in terms of the proportion of people whose income covers their basic needs. Poverty and indigence rates were still higher in 2002 than in 1980, by 3.5 and 0.8 percentage points, respectively.[4]

Poverty and indigence trends were uneven among individual countries between 1999 and 2001–2002. Some countries displayed fairly small

4 In this regard, the lack of progress in raising standards of living in terms of income does not mean that other aspects of living conditions have not improved, as shown by the indicators presented in the third section of this chapter.

variations, while others experienced much bigger changes.[5] Brazil, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Nicaragua, Panama (urban areas), Paraguay and Venezuela recorded variations of less than a percentage point in the poverty rate. Of these countries, only Paraguay saw an increase in poverty, while in Brazil and Costa Rica it remained constant. In Venezuela, a small reduction in the poverty rate (by eight tenths of a percentage point) over this period reflected a reduction of more than five percentage points in 2000, followed by a sharp increase in 2002 as a result of the drastic fall in GDP that year (-9.6%) (see table 15 of the statistical appendix).

Interestingly, in most of the countries in this group, rates of indigence or extreme poverty tended to rise, albeit by less than one percentage point. The only exceptions were Nicaragua, where the indigence rate declined by 2.2 points and the poverty rate, by only half a point, and Paraguay, where the indigence rate dropped by six tenths of a point. The divergence between variations in poverty and variations in indigence in the period 1999–2002 is thought to indicate the relatively greater capacity of the non–indigent poor to deal with the adverse effects of episodes of slow growth or outright stagnation.

The only cases in which there was a marked deterioration in the population's living conditions were Argentina and, to a lesser extent, Uruguay. In Argentina (greater Buenos Aires), the poverty rate doubled between 1999 and 2002, jumping from 19.7% to 41.5%, while indigence nearly quadrupled, from 4.8% to 18.6%, especially after the crisis broke out at the end of 2001. Uruguay (urban areas) also recorded an increase in poverty which, though significant, was less dramatic and involved lower rates than the one in Argentina. The poverty rate rose from 9.4% to 15.4%, but indigence remained low, affecting only 2.5% of the population.

By contrast, in Mexico, Ecuador (urban areas), Honduras and the Dominican Republic, both poverty and indigence declined appreciably. Although Mexico's per capita GDP decreased in 2001 and 2002 (-2.6% over the biennium), the most recent household survey available for that country shows a 1.7–point reduction in the nationwide poverty rate and a 2.6–point reduction in the indigence rate, both with respect to the 2000 figure. Nevertheless, this reduction appears to be attributable exclusively to the decline recorded in rural areas, since, in urban areas, poverty remained constant and indigence even increased slightly.[6] Meanwhile, Ecuador significantly improved its urban poverty and indigence rates in 2002, achieving reductions of 14.6 and 11.9 percentage points, respectively, after having suffered a recession in 1999 that had raised the poverty rate to nearly 64%. The fact that the poor now represent less than 50% of the population is a clear sign of the progress the country has made since the 1990s in improving social conditions. In Honduras the rates of both poverty and indigence fell by 2.4 percentage points in relation to their 1999 levels, bringing the percentage of the population living in poverty to 77.3% and the percentage living in indigence to 54.4% in 2002. In this case, the decrease leaves the country in a better position, or at least no worse off, than in 1990 and 1997. Lastly, in 2002 poverty in the Dominican Republic fell by 2 percentage points and indigence, by 1.8 points in relation to the 2000 rates, placing these indicators at 44.9% and 20.3% of the population, respectively (see table I.4).

5 Box I.5 contains a brief analysis of poverty in the Caribbean countries.

6 It should be noted that, in some countries, the changes introduced in household surveys may make their results hard to compare to those of previous surveys. See box I.3 for a brief analysis of this problem. With respect to Mexico in particular, box I.4 reviews factors that may affect survey comparability.

Table 1.4

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POVERTY AND INDIGENCE INDICATORS, 1990–2001/2002 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	16.2	21.2	7.2	3.4	3.5	5.2	1.6	0.8
	1997	13.1	17.8	6.2	3.1	3.3	4.8	1.5	0.7
	1999	13.1	19.7	6.8	3.3	3.1	4.8	1.4	0.7
	2002	31.6	41.5	19.1	11.5	12.0	18.6	7.5	4.1
Bolivia	1989 d/	48.9	52.6	24.5	15.0	21.9	23.0	9.7	6.1
	1997	56.7	62.1	33.6	22.8	32.7	37.2	18.6	12.1
	1999	54.7	60.6	33.9	24.1	32.5	36.4	20.3	14.7
	2002	55.5	62.4	34.4	23.8	31.7	37.1	19.5	13.5
Brazil	1990	41.4	48.0	23.5	14.7	18.3	23.4	9.7	5.5
	1996	28.6	35.8	16.7	10.4	10.5	13.9	6.2	4.0
	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
Chile	1990	33.3	38.6	14.8	7.9	10.6	12.9	4.3	2.3
	1996	19.7	23.2	7.8	3.8	4.9	5.7	1.9	1.1
	2000	16.6	20.6	7.1	3.7	4.6	5.7	2.1	1.2
Colombia	1994	47.3	52.5	26.6	17.5	25.0	28.5	13.8	9.1
	1997	44.9	50.9	22.9	13.8	20.1	23.5	9.7	5.8
	1999	48.7	54.9	25.6	15.7	23.2	26.8	11.2	6.9
	2002 e/	44.6	50.6	24.1	15.0	20.7	23.7	10.0	6.3
Costa Rica	1990	23.6	26.3	10.7	6.5	10.0	10.1	4.8	3.4
	1997	20.2	22.5	8.5	4.9	7.3	7.8	3.5	2.3
	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
Ecuador e/	1990	55.8	62.1	27.6	15.8	22.6	26.2	9.2	4.9
	1997	49.8	56.2	23.9	13.5	18.6	22.2	7.7	4.1
	1999	58.0	63.5	30.1	18.2	27.2	31.3	11.5	6.3
	2002	42.6	49.0	20.8	11.8	16.3	19.4	6.9	3.7
El Salvador	1995	47.6	54.2	24.0	14.3	18.2	21.7	9.1	5.6
	1997	48.0	55.5	24.4	13.9	18.5	23.3	8.3	4.0
	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
Guatemala	1989	63.0	69.4	35.9	23.1	36.7	42.0	18.5	11.2
	1998	53.5	61.1	27.3	15.4	26.1	31.6	10.7	5.1
	2002	52.3	59.9	26.4	14.8	26.3	30.3	10.1	4.9
Honduras	1990	75.2	80.8	50.2	35.9	53.9	60.9	31.5	20.2
	1997	73.8	79.1	45.6	30.8	48.3	54.4	25.4	15.4
	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
Mexico	1989	39.0	47.7	18.7	9.9	14.0	18.7	5.9	2.7
	1996	43.4	52.9	21.8	11.7	15.6	22.0	7.1	3.3
	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
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 e/	1991	33.6	39.9	17.9	10.9	13.9	16.2	7.3	4.7
	1997	24.6	29.7	12.1	6.9	8.6	10.7	4.3	2.5
	1999	20.8	25.7	9.9	5.4	6.6	8.1	3.1	1.8
	2002	21.4	25.3	10.0	5.6	8.0	8.9	3.3	1.8

Table I.4 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POVERTY AND INDIGENCE INDICATORS, 1990–2001/2002 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		
Paraguay	1990 f/	36.8	43.2	16.1	8.0	10.4	13.1	3.6	1.5
	1996 e/	39.6	46.3	18.5	9.8	13.0	16.3	5.0	2.4
	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
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	-	-
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
Uruguay e/	1990	11.8	17.9	5.3	2.4	2.0	3.4	0.9	0.4
	1997	5.7	9.5	2.8	1.2	0.9	1.7	0.5	0.2
	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
Venezuela	1990	34.2	39.8	15.7	8.5	11.8	14.4	5.0	2.4
	1997	42.3	48.0	21.0	12.0	17.1	20.5	7.4	3.8
	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
Latin America h/	1990	41.0	48.3	-	-	17.7	22.5	-	-
	1997	35.5	43.5	-	-	14.4	19.0	-	-
	1999	35.3	43.8	-	-	13.9	18.5	-	-
	2000	34.5	42.5	-	-	13.8	18.1	-	-
	2001	35.0	43.2	-	-	13.9	18.5	-	-
	2002	36.1	44.0	-	-	14.6	19.4	-	-

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.
a/ See box I.2 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 indigence or extreme poverty.
c/ Greater Buenos Aires.
d/ Eight departmental capitals plus El Alto.
e/ Urban areas.
f/ Asunción metropolitan area.
g/ Figures from the National Institute of Statistics and Informatics (INEI) of Peru. These figures are not comparable to data from earlier years because of a change in the household survey sample frame. According to INEI, the new figures display a relative overestimate in relation to those derived from the previous methodology, of 25% for poverty and 10% for indigence.
h/ Estimate for 18 countries of the region plus Haiti.

As well as the proportion of the population living in poverty and indigence, an analysis of the magnitude of poverty must consider such aspects as the "depth" and "severity" of poverty. The headcount index, which indicates only the proportion of poor people, does not reveal how poor they are or how their income is distributed. This extra information is reflected in the indices known as the "poverty gap" (PG) and "severity of poverty" (FGT_2) indices (see box I.2).

Box I.2

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 of identifying the population whose per capita income is lower than the cost of a basket of items that satisfy basic needs. The second stage –aggregation– consists of measuring poverty using indicators that synthesize the information into a single figure.

The poverty measurements used in this document are in the family of parametric indices proposed by Foster, Greer and Thorbecke, 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 individual and the poverty 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 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 gap (**PG**):

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

The poverty 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.

Lastly, an index that also considers the degree of disparity in the distribution of income among the poor is obtained when $\alpha = 2$. This indicator also measures the distance between the poverty line and each person's income, but it squares that difference in order to give greater relative weight in the final result to those who fall farthest below the poverty 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 the values obtained from this index are more complete, however, they are the most suitable for use in designing and evaluating policies and in comparing poverty between geographical units or social groups.

All three of these indicators have the "additive decomposability" property, 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 document were calculated by averaging the indices for different geographical areas, weighted according to the percentage of the population living in each area.

Source: Prepared on the basis of James Foster, Joel Greer and Erik Thorbecke, "A class of decomposable poverty measures", *Econometrica*, vol. 52, No. 3, 1984.

Box I.3

CHANGES IN INFORMATION SOURCES

The household surveys conducted in the Latin American countries are being used for an increasing number of analytical purposes. For several decades now, ECLAC has made intensive use of these sources of information to monitor trends in poverty and income distribution, among other issues, and to assess the impact of public policies designed to benefit low–income households.

Thanks to the work carried out by national statistical offices, often with the support of international agencies, the household surveys conducted in the countries of the region have improved considerably, and the data they generate are of better quality and more representative. This ongoing process of improvement, however, can sometimes hinder comparisons between data generated by surveys conducted at different times.

The comparability of estimates obtained from survey data can be affected by changes in:

a) The type of survey used (employment, living conditions or household budgets), with their respective conceptual and methodological frameworks for gathering information;
b) The nature of the survey (one–off or continuous);
c) The sample frame and the design, size and distribution of the sample;
d) The survey questionnaire;
e) The income flows considered; i.e., the conceptual coverage of the income variable.

In several of the region's countries, poverty estimates for 2000 to 2002 reflect the effect of one or more of these changes in information sources. This report will not attempt to review all such cases, but it cannot fail to mention at least the countries below, since the changes they have made have had substantial effects on the levels and trends of their indicators.

- Colombia: in 2001 the country introduced a continuous survey with features that differed from earlier ones;
- Guatemala: the types of surveys conducted have changed constantly in the last five years;
- Panama: in 2001 the surveys began to cover the population living in remote and indigenous areas and to include the income of own–account agricultural workers, which had not previously been quantified;
- Peru: in 2001 the sample frame and sample size were changed;
- Dominican Republic: in 2000 the sample's size and geographical coverage were expanded.

Three special cases should be added to the countries mentioned above. One of them is Mexico, which is dealt with in greater detail in box I.4. Another is Argentina. Up to 2002, no changes were made that could affect comparability, but in 2003 a new continuous household survey was introduced. Lastly, Ecuador's most recent surveys need to be examined to rule out the possibility that the substantial decline in poverty they reveal may be due to changes in the source of information used.

In conclusion, any of these circumstances, as well as others not touched on here, can hinder the comparison of surveys and affect the monitoring of trends in indicators of the population's standard of living.

A comparison between the proportion of poor people and the information gleaned from the PG and FGT_2 indices reveals that in one group of countries, comprising Brazil, Costa Rica and Panama (urban areas), the headcount index stayed practically the same between 1999 and 2001–2002, or dropped slightly, in the case of Panama. The PG and FGT_2 indices, however, show that the quality of life declined in this period, in some cases significantly. In other words, although the poverty rate may have remained unchanged or even decreased, the situation of the poor clearly worsened in terms of average income and, in particular, income distribution.

Box 1.4

POVERTY IN MEXICO, 2000–2002

According to estimates for Mexico based on the national household income and expenditure survey (ENIGH), between 2000 and 2002 poverty and indigence declined by 1.7 and 2.6 percentage points, respectively. This reflects an upturn in standards of living, especially in rural areas, with a substantial decrease in income concentration. These findings are particularly striking in the light of the harsh macroeconomic environment prevailing in that period, in which output stood still and per capita income slumped by 2.6%. This had suggested that poverty was likely to increase or at least hold steady with respect to 2000.

In those circumstances, it is natural to question whether these variations are due to economic developments and the impact of social policy or whether they should be viewed as a strictly statistical phenomenon attributable to the fact that the 2002 ENIGH differs from the 2000 version in at least three respects: the considerations used to determine the size of the sample, which is much larger (17,167 households compared to 10,108); the housing distribution criteria used in designing the sample; and changes in the questionnaire, which made it possible to reflect larger amounts of income under certain items.

The following features of the new survey are especially noteworthy:

- The population trends implicit in the survey differ from those revealed by official statistics. While the ENIGH shows an annual population growth rate of 2%, figures from the National Population Council (CONAPO) indicate an annual rate of 1.6%, in keeping with the observed slowdown in population growth, which became more pronounced beginning in 1990.
- According to the 2002 ENIGH survey, the average number of employed persons has increased by 6.3% and the average number of employed persons receiving income, by almost 3%, with the biggest changes observed in rural areas and, in particular, in the groups with the fewest resources. According to the survey, the average size of extremely poor households in localities with fewer than 2,500 inhabitants dropped from 6 to 5.5 members; in rural areas, the average number of employed persons in the second per–capita income decile (which corresponds to extreme poverty) rose from 1.79 to 1.92 and the number of persons per household fell from 5.9 to 5.3.
- The subgroup of households in the primary sample units that coincide in the 2000 and 2002 surveys have an average of 3.98 members, while all the other households report an average of 4.2 members. In turn, in indigent households in localities with fewer than 2,500 inhabitants, the difference between the two groups is 0.6 people per household. Although this situation in itself is not surprising, its effect is far from negligible, considering that in the expanded figures this group represents 37% of households and 36% of the country's total population.
- Nationwide, the survey shows that real household income rose by 2.2%, despite the decline in per capita GDP. It also indicates that 80% of households saw an upturn in their income and that the first two deciles in rural areas increased their contribution to total income by over 20%. Rural families' real income from wages is shown to have risen by 17.5% and their income from transfers under the Direct Rural Support Programme, by 34.6%, even though the Programme's budget showed no appreciable alterations in the biennium.

It is clear that these factors could have a major effect on the findings with regard to poverty and income distribution. By way of illustration, if the size of low–income households had varied in line with expectations –for example, a decline of two tenths of a percentage point with respect to the 2000 figure (5.9 people)– the extreme poverty rate would stand at about 18%, which is higher than the estimates derived from the 2002 ENIGH data.

In short, the findings of the 2002 survey are probably not fully comparable to the 2000 results, particularly in low–density (rural) areas, owing to changes in the sample design of the most recent household income and expenditure survey, basically affecting sample size and distribution.

In a second group of countries, which includes Argentina, on the one hand, and Ecuador, Mexico and Nicaragua, on the other, the PG and FGT_2 indicators moved in the same direction as the poverty rate, but in much larger proportions. In Argentina, between 1999 and 2002, the headcount index increased by a factor of 2.1; the poverty gap, by almost 3; and the severity of poverty, by 3.5. As well as an increase in the proportion of poor people, this points to a downturn in both average income and income distribution among the poor. In Ecuador, Mexico and Nicaragua, the PG and FGT_2 indices

decreased much more than the poverty rate, indicating that the situation of the poor improved more significantly than the reduction in the proportion of poor people alone would suggest (see table I.4).

With regard to geographical trends in the poverty rate, urban and nationwide indicators have behaved in a very similar manner, declining by 1.2 percentage points in 2000 with respect to 1999, then rising by 1.1 and 1.4 percentage points in 2001 and 2002, respectively. Indigence, in turn, dropped by two tenths of a point in 2000, then increased by half a point and by 1.3 points in 2001 and 2002. The region's urban poverty rate currently stands at 38.4% and the indigence rate, at 13.5% (see table I.2).

Rural poverty has behaved somewhat differently. In 2000 both poverty and indigence declined at rates similar to those seen in urban areas, by 1.2 and 0.5 percentage points, respectively. Rural poverty decreased again in 2001 (by two tenths of a point), however, unlike the urban and nationwide indicators. In these three years rural indigence stayed virtually the same, at around 37.9%.

Rural areas have therefore turned in a slightly better cumulative performance than their urban counterparts. This is particularly evident when 1997 is taken as a reference year; between 1997 and 2002 urban poverty and indigence rose by 1.9 and 1.2 percentage points, respectively, by contrast to rural poverty, which decreased by 1.2 points, and rural indigence, which increased by only three tenths of a point.

Projections for 2003 based on the economic growth anticipated for the different countries and for the region as a whole indicate that region–wide poverty and indigence rates are likely to rise slightly this year, mainly because of the absence of growth in per capita GDP. Although the projected increase is small in percentage terms, the number of poor people will swell by about six million. Living conditions are expected to show little change in most of the countries; the exceptions are Venezuela, where poverty could increase significantly, and Argentina, where renewed economic growth will probably help to bring down the percentage of poor people (see figure I.1).[7]

7 According to the nationwide estimates published by Argentina's National Institute of Statistics and Censuses, in May 2003 the urban poverty rate was estimated to be almost 3 percentage points lower than the figure recorded in October 2002, while urban indigence was estimated to have declined by one percentage point.

Box 1.5

POVERTY IN THE CARIBBEAN

As in the past, poverty and inequality are hard to measure in the Caribbean countries, owing mainly to the lack of sufficiently accurate household surveys and to problems of comparability among the survey data available. Nevertheless, a number of positive processes introduced in recent years are worthy of mention: in Jamaica a survey on living conditions has been conducted annually since 1988, in Guyana two surveys were conducted in the 1990s, and since 1995 the Caribbean Development Bank has promoted poverty assessments in countries such as Anguilla, Belize, British Virgin Islands, Dominica, Grenada, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines.

The most recent available information on poverty in the Caribbean was reviewed using a procedure similar to the one employed for the 2000–2001 edition of the *Social panorama*. Since the data come from a wide variety of sources and methodologies, extreme care should be taken in comparing them. They do, however, make it possible to draw some general conclusions about poverty in the subregion. Haiti has the highest rates of poverty (over 80%) and indigence, not only in the Caribbean, but probably in the entire region. Dominica, Guyana, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines and Suriname also have poverty rates higher than those of the other countries, albeit well below Haiti's rates. At the other extreme, absolute poverty in the Bahamas is exceptionally low, rivalling the rates seen in countries with highly developed economies.

Available data show that, at least in Guyana and Jamaica, poverty declined significantly in the 1990s, from 43% in 1993 to 35% in 1999 and from 28% in 1990 to 17% in 1999, respectively. This trend is not uniform throughout the subregion, however. In Dominica, Grenada, Saint Lucia and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, among other countries, an ailing banana industry and a rise in rates of unemployment and underemployment are probably to blame for higher poverty rates.

Despite the differences in the figures, certain features can be found that are common to most of the Caribbean countries. First, as in Latin America, rural poverty is higher than urban poverty. In Jamaica, poverty rates in rural areas are triple the ones found in urban areas, while in Guyana, almost the entire rural population is poor. The situation is similar in Belize, Dominica, Grenada, Guyana, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines.

Another common characteristic is that poor households tend to have more members than non–poor ones and to suffer from overcrowding. In Belize, Grenada, Saint Lucia and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, households in the poorest quintile have an average of 5 to 6 members, while those in the richest quintile have an average of 2 to 3 members.

The poor tend to be less educated than the rest of the population. In Saint Lucia, the gross secondary–school attendance rate for the poorest quintile is a meagre 45.8%, while the rate for the richest quintile is 78.8%. By the same token, in Jamaica and Guyana access to quality education is highly dependent on socio–economic status.

In general, unemployment in the Caribbean countries is high and shows similar rates in poor and non–poor population groups (except in Trinidad and Tobago and Saint Lucia, where unemployment is higher among the poor). The poor tend to remain unemployed for longer periods of time, however. Moreover, it is common for participants in the labour market to earn less than the value of the poverty line, especially when they are employed in the informal sector or in low–paid agricultural work.

Specific studies conducted in some Caribbean countries have found that poverty is strongly linked to crime, drug trafficking, domestic violence and child abuse.

Lastly, natural disasters such as hurricanes, storms and volcanic eruptions, which are common in the Caribbean, are more devastating for people who are poor or whose income is just above the poverty line, since they lack savings to see them through difficult periods.

Source: Prepared on the basis of ECLAC, "Education and its impact on poverty: equity or exclusion" (LC/CAR/G.609), Port of Spain, ECLAC subregional headquarters for the Caribbean, 2000, and "Poverty and social integration in the Caribbean" (LC/CAR/G.619), paper presented at the Regional Meeting on Education for All in the Americas (Santo Domingo, 10–12 February 2000), Port of Spain, ECLAC subregional headquarters for the Caribbean, 2000.

Box 1.5 (concluded)

POVERTY IN THE CARIBBEAN

Population size and poverty and indigence rates in selected Caribbean economies

Economy	Total population 2003 (Thousands of people)	Year of poverty estimate	Poverty rate (Percentage of the population)	Indigence rate (Percentage of the population)
Anguilla	12	2002	23	2
Antigua and Barbuda	65	Early 1990s	12	-
Bahamas	316	..	5	-
Barbados	270	1997	14	1
Belize	240	1995	33	13
Dominica	70	2002	39	15
Grenada	94	1998	32	13
Guyana	767	1999	35	21
Haiti	8 827	1995	81 a/	66 a/
British Virgin Islands	26	2002	22	1
Jamaica	2 645	2001	17	-
Nevis	38 b/	2000	32	17
Saint Kitts	38 b/	2000	31	11
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	115	1996	38	26
Saint Lucia	153	1995	25	7
Suriname	423	1993	77 c/	63 c/
Trinidad and Tobago	1 312	1992	21	11

Source: Prepared on the basis of population data from the United Nations Population Division, *World Population Prospects: The 2002 Revision*, New York, 2002, and on the basis of data from World Bank poverty and indigence studies conducted in Antigua and Barbuda, Bahamas and Trinidad and Tobago, *Poverty Reduction and Human Resource Development in the Caribbean*, Washington, D.C., May 1996; Anguilla, *Poverty Assessment Study*, Anguilla Statistics Unit, 2002; Barbados, European Community, *Country Strategy Paper*, Brussels, 2002; Caribbean Development Bank, *Saint Lucia Poverty Assessment Report*, Saint Michael, 1995, *Belize Poverty Assessment Report*, Saint Michael, 1996, *Saint Vincent and Grenadines Poverty Assessment Report*, Saint Michael, 1996, *Grenada Poverty Assessment Report*, Saint Michael, 1999, *Saint Kitts & Nevis Poverty Assessment Report*, Saint Michael, March 2001, *British Virgin Islands Poverty Assessment Report*, Saint Michael, 2003, *Dominica Poverty Assessment Report*, Saint Michael, 2003; Government of Guyana, *Guyana: Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper*, May 2002; M. Neri and J. Menke, "Poverty in Suriname: Assessment, Monitoring and Capital Enhancing Policies", document prepared by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), 1999; World Bank, "Haiti, The Challenges of Poverty Reduction", *Sector Report*, No. 17242, Washington, D.C., August 1998, and World Bank, "Jamaica Country Assistance Strategy", *Progress Report*, vol. 1, No. 24689, Washington, D.C., September 2002.

a/ Rural areas only.
b/ Total Saint Kitts and Nevis.
c/ Includes only Paramaribo and Wanica.

B. Progress towards the poverty reduction target for 2015

The poor economic performance of the Latin American countries over the past biennium has reduced their chances of meeting the target of halving extreme poverty by 2015. The region's per capita output would have to expand at an annual rate of 2.6% for the next 13 years in order to meet the relevant Millennium Declaration goal, if income distribution remains essentially unchanged throughout the period. Although the target now looks further off than it did in 2000, it may nevertheless still be achieved in a number of countries in the region, if they are able to regain growth rates comparable to their best performances of the 1990s.

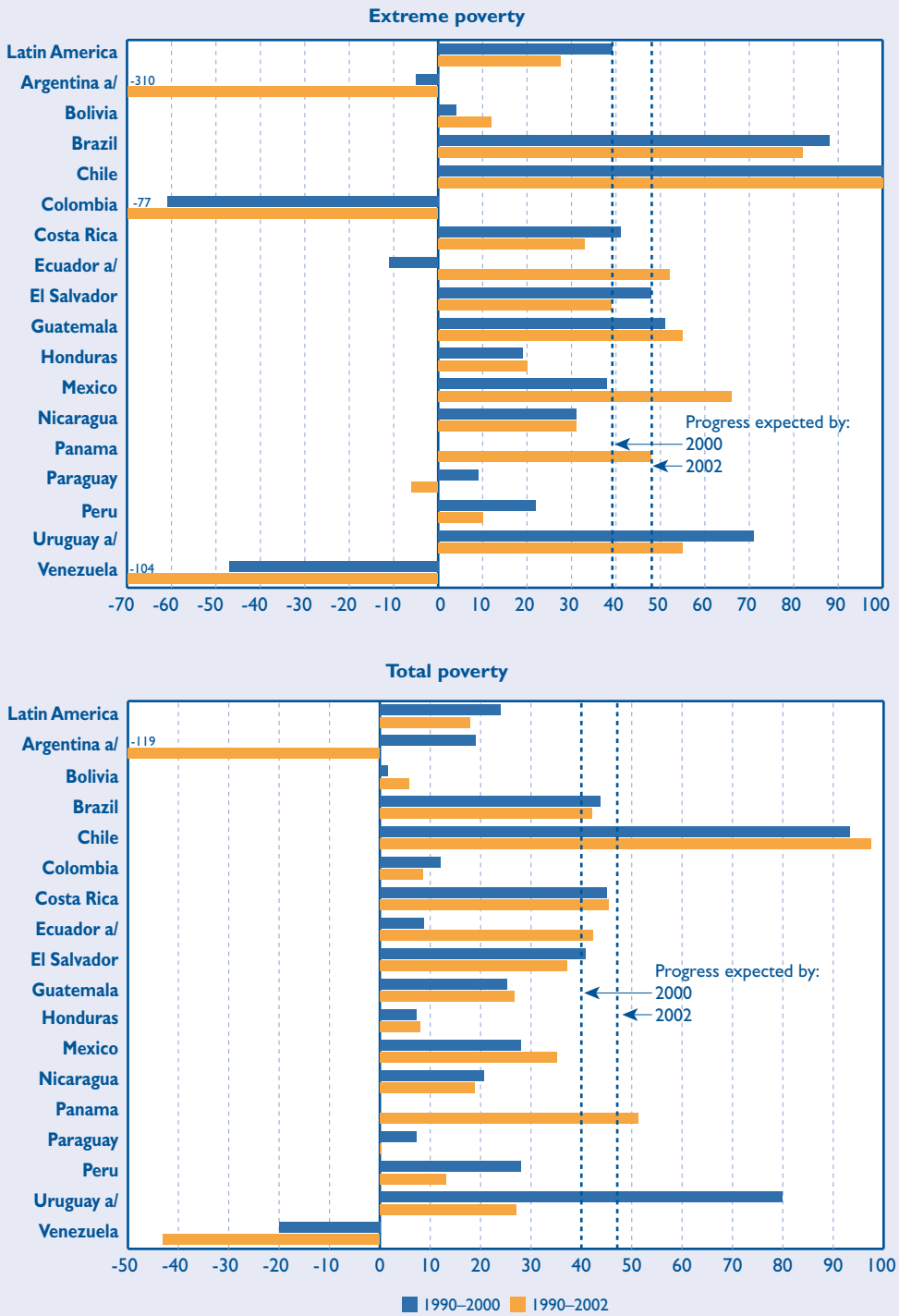
Since the Millennium Declaration was adopted, the goals and targets it contains have become essential benchmarks for assessing development throughout the world, for countries and international agencies alike, including ECLAC.[8] Given the importance of meeting these goals, progress towards them must be constantly monitored and, in particular, potential problems must be identified. Accordingly, this section gives a brief analysis of the region's chances of halving extreme poverty by 2015, to follow up the analyses presented in the last two editions of the *Social panorama*.

By 2000, Latin America had already made about 40% of the progress required towards this goal. This percentage was equivalent to the amount of time that had elapsed within the period 1990–2015, indicating that the region was advancing quickly enough to meet the target. Nonetheless, the economic and social setbacks of 2001 and 2002 whittled down this cumulative progress to 27.6% in 2002, whereas almost half (48%) of the time allowed for achieving the extreme poverty reduction target had already passed (see figure I.2).

8 See ECLAC (2002b), box I.3.

Figure I.2

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): PROGRESS IN REDUCING EXTREME POVERTY AND TOTAL POVERTY, IN PERCENTAGES, BETWEEN 1990 AND 2001/2002



Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.
a/ Urban areas.

Chile is the only country that has already met this target ahead of time. In addition, Brazil (which has made 82% of the progress required), Ecuador (52%), Guatemala (55%), Mexico (66%), Panama (48%) and Uruguay (55%, despite the setbacks it suffered in 2002) have made at least 48% of the progress needed. The other countries, however, are lagging behind with regard to the first of the Millennium Development Goals. The most worrisome cases are unquestionably those of Argentina, Colombia and Venezuela, whose indigence levels in 2002 not only were not lower than their 1990 levels, but actually exceeded them.

Moreover, progress towards halving total poverty by 2015 –a target which, in principle, is more in keeping with Latin America's level of development relative to the rest of the world– has been much slower than progress towards the target of halving extreme poverty. By 2002, poverty rates in the region were only 18% lower than they had been in 1990, which represents a setback of 6 percentage points compared to the 2000 figures.

In contrast to the situation with regard to extreme poverty, none of the countries have yet managed to halve total poverty. Chile and Panama are the only countries that have made more progress than expected, after 12 of the 25 years established as a deadline by the international community have gone by.

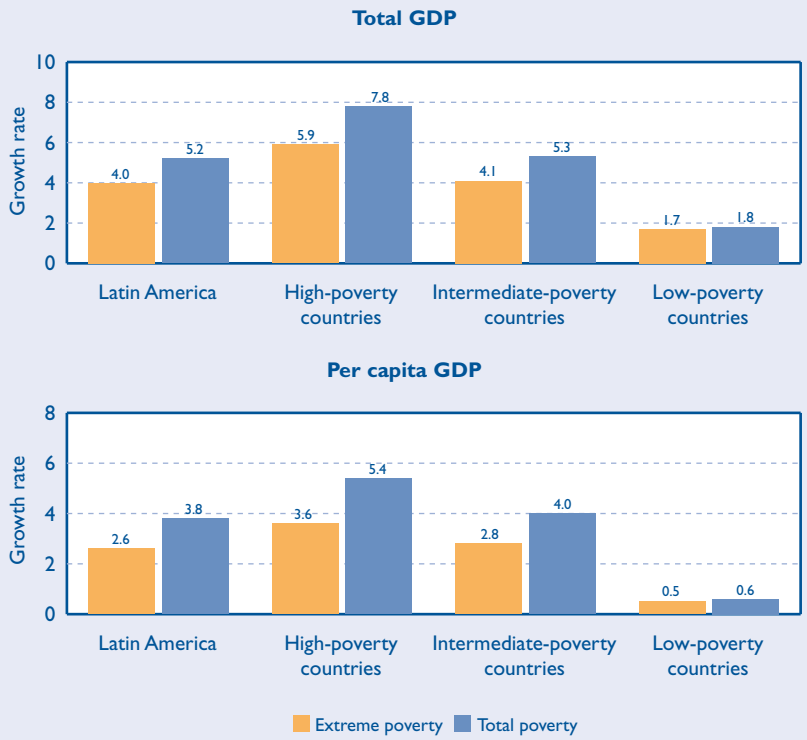
According to simulations based on the most recent available household surveys for the countries of the region, Latin America's per capita output would have to expand at an annual rate of 2.6% for the next 13 years to meet the target of halving extreme poverty, if income distribution remains unchanged over this period. This rate is equivalent to an annual growth rate of 4% in total output.

Because of the differences in extreme poverty rates from one country to another, the rate of expansion each country needs to meet the target also varies enormously. The countries with the highest levels of indigence (above 30%) would have to post per capita GDP growth rates of 3.6% a year to meet the target, while countries with intermediate levels (11% to 30%) would have to post rates of 2.8%, and those with the lowest levels (under 11%), only 0.5% (see figure I.3).[9] As mentioned in the preceding edition of the *Social panorama*, the countries with the highest poverty rates face a much bigger challenge than the others, not only because they have a longer distance to cover (that is, a wider difference in percentage points between indigence in 1990 and the target for 2015), but also because progress between 1990 and 2002 was limited or even negative.

9 The countries in each category do not coincide exactly with those cited in the *Social panorama of Latin America, 2001–2002* (see ECLAC, 2002b). In particular, two countries formerly classified as "low poverty" (Argentina and Panama) and one formerly considered "high poverty" (Ecuador) have moved into the "intermediate poverty" group.

Figure I.3

LATIN AMERICA: TOTAL GDP AND PER CAPITA GDP GROWTH RATES NEEDED TO REDUCE THE 1990 POVERTY RATE BY HALF, 2002–2015
(Annual average)



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

The growth rates needed to halve total poverty are even higher, and in some cases clearly unattainable. Average regional per capita output would have to increase by 3.8% a year, or 5.4% for the countries with the highest poverty levels, 4% for those with intermediate levels and 0.6% for those with the lowest levels.

The setbacks that the poverty reduction effort suffered in 2001 and 2002 mean that the expansion required to meet either of the two targets is much higher than the rates calculated from data for 2000. The progress made up to 2000 indicated that to reduce extreme poverty by half, per capita output would have to grow by 1.4% a year, while 2.6% a year would have been enough to halve total poverty. As noted above, these rates have now risen to 2.6% and 3.8% a year, respectively.

These new estimates do not affect all the countries equally, however. While countries with high and intermediate poverty levels face a tougher challenge than they did in 2000, the minimum growth required by those with low indigence levels is eight tenths of a point lower than it was in 2000. Thus, the differences between countries in terms of their chances of reaching the targets have sharpened in these two years.

The targets' feasibility can also be evaluated in terms of the number of years needed to achieve them, assuming growth rates consistent with historical trends. Although the most obvious historical reference for predicting future economic expansion might appear to be each country's average annual growth in the period 1990–2002, this period includes episodes of crisis that can reasonably be

expected not to recur in the next few years. To exclude these episodes, the estimate uses the simple average of each country's five highest annual growth rates in this period.

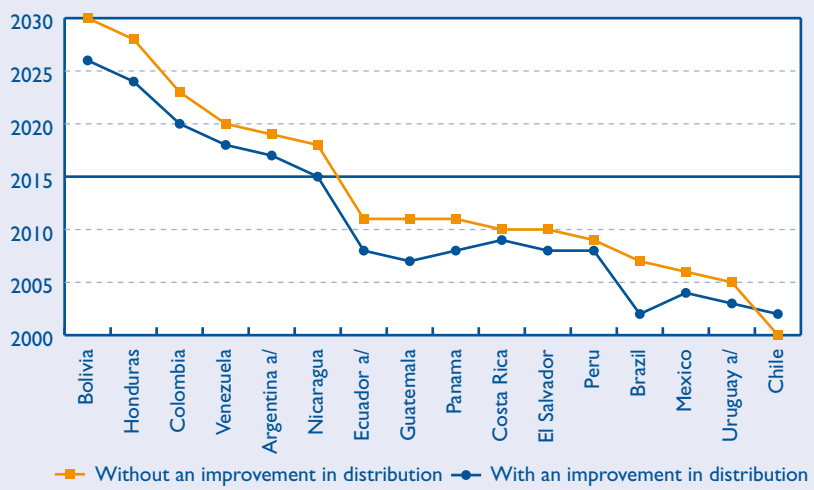
From this standpoint, in addition to Chile, which has already met the target, nine more countries are in a position to do so by 2015. In other words, half the countries of Latin America, accounting for some 70% of the region's population, could halve their indigence levels by the target date. Were the deadline to be extended by five years beyond 2015, Nicaragua, Argentina and Venezuela would be able to meet the goal, while only Bolivia, Colombia, Honduras and Paraguay would need still more time.

In addition, as ECLAC has pointed out time and again, better income distribution can magnify the effect of economic growth on poverty reduction. For example, a 5% reduction in the Gini index (equivalent to approximately 0.025 points of the value of that indicator) can cut down by two to five years the amount of time needed to halve extreme poverty. Growth with redistribution would enable countries such as Mexico, Uruguay and Brazil to meet the target in less than three years, whereas none of them will be able to do so by 2005 without distributive improvements. Similarly, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Guatemala, Panama and El Salvador would reach the target before or during 2009, but are unlikely to do so without such a change in distribution (see figure I.4).

Figure I.4

LATIN AMERICA: YEAR IN WHICH EXTREME POVERTY TARGET WOULD BE REACHED WITH AND WITHOUT IMPROVEMENTS IN DISTRIBUTION

(Projection based on economic growth equal to the average of the five best years of the period 1990–2002)



Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.
a/ Urban areas.

Box 1.6

METHODOLOGY USED FOR PROJECTIONS

Defining the relationship between a country's poverty trends and GDP growth is a highly complex undertaking. Given the paramount importance of assessing the region's chances of improving its standards of living in the years to come, however, poverty projections were made for the 2001–2002 edition of the *Social panorama of Latin America*. Although these projections were very general, they served as a basis for the generation of preliminary estimates of the rates at which the Latin American countries will probably have to grow in order to halve extreme poverty by 2015.

The methodology used consisted of calculating a new distribution of income (y^*) using given rates of growth (β) and of distributive change (α) in households' per capita income (y) in each country, by means of the following equation:

$$y^* = (1+\beta)\left[(1-\alpha)y_i + \alpha\mu\right]$$

where μ denotes the mean value of the income distribution.

The methodological approach used here is similar to the one described above, with a small modification with respect to distributive changes:

When $y \geq \mu$: $y^* = (1+\beta)\left[(1-\alpha)y_i + \alpha\mu\right]$
When $y < \mu$: $y^* = (1+\beta)\left[\theta y_i\right]$, where θ is calculated such that $\mu^* = (1+\beta)\mu$

This means that below–average income has been increased at a rate that is fixed, instead of being proportional to the difference between actual income and the mean value. Applying a constant rate of variation to below–average income yields a truer reflection of the regional data in this regard, which indicate that the share of the poorest deciles tends to change only moderately when income concentration decreases.

The main result of this modification is that the impact of distributive improvements on poverty, and particularly on indigence, is lessened. The previous formula overestimated this impact in some cases by generating an excessive increase in the lowest incomes to reduce income concentration. Lastly, although the new formula is useful for the purposes of this document, it is less general than the original, since it does not keep the distributional ranking unchanged and may not generate the desired results for high values of α.

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean/Institute of Applied Economic Research/United Nations Development Programme (ECLAC/IPEA/UNDP) (2002), "Meeting the Millennium Poverty Reduction Targets in Latin America and the Caribbean", *Libros de la CEPAL* series, No. 70 (LC/G.2188–P), Santiago, Chile, December. United Nations publication, Sales No. E.02.II.G.125.

C. Multidimensional manifestations of poverty

A holistic look at the social situation in Latin America, covering not only the problem of insufficient income to meet basic needs but also shortfalls in other areas, shows that significant headway has been made in improving the population's quality of life in the past decade. Life expectancy, child mortality, illiteracy and access to drinking water are some of the indicators that have improved steadily since at least the 1980s. Social development is far from having reached an acceptable level in many countries of the region, however. Sharp disparities in access to social services within individual countries are another impediment to the achievement of more comprehensive social development.

Poverty is a complex and multidimensional phenomenon that encompasses deprivation in many aspects of individual and collective well–being. This deprivation can be quantified by examining people's capacity to meet their most basic needs, using an indicator such as household income (or consumption). The poverty and indigence estimates in the foregoing sections are based on precisely this approach, which offers the advantage of providing information on well–being in the form of a single figure. An evaluation of standards of living can also be based on indicators that reflect the real extent to which needs are met. This means that there must be at least one variable for each dimension of well–being considered, such as nutrition, education, health, housing, access to water and sanitation, among many others. This approach has the virtue of pinpointing the areas where needs are not being met, but it does not synthesize the information into a single indicator. This section briefly looks at certain dimensions of living conditions in Latin America, in order to build on and enrich the analysis of poverty on the basis of income.

Despite the gradual stagnation of progress in eradicating monetary poverty in the 1990s, a wide variety of social indicators did improve, on average, over this period, in a continuation of the trends observed in earlier decades. In fact, Latin Americans' life expectancy at birth increased by a little over a year, to the age of 70, according to data for the period 1995–2000. In turn, thanks to an average reduction of 13% in the last decade, the child mortality rate in the countries of the region is no higher than 66 per thousand (the figure for Bolivia and Haiti), and in many of them it is less than 30 per thousand. The under–five mortality rate has also declined in the last 10 years, by between 8% (in Ecuador) and 25% (in Cuba). With very few

exceptions, the proportion of undernourished people has also dropped significantly. Excluding Haiti, where malnutrition is as high as 50%, in 2000 the highest figure recorded in the region was 29% in Nicaragua, which was 11 percentage points lower than the highest figure for 1990, which corresponded to Peru.[10] Major improvements have also been seen in education. The illiteracy rate has dropped, in some cases (Bolivia, Guatemala and Haiti) by more than seven percentage points. In 2000 the average proportion of Latin Americans and Caribbeans over the age of 14 who could neither read nor write was 11.1%, or 3.8 percentage points lower than in 1990. In addition, in many countries, access to drinking water and basic sanitation improved considerably in the 1990s. The percentage of the population with access to an improved source of water increased by at least 11 percentage points in Bolivia, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala and Paraguay, and by at least five points in four other countries. The proportion of the population with access to sanitation rose by over 14 percentage points in Bolivia, Ecuador and Honduras, which means that this basic need is now met for an average of 78% of the population of Latin America and the Caribbean (see table I.5).

The relative improvement in these social indicators is not exclusively a phenomenon of the 1990s, but represents the continuation of a more long–standing trend that began in the 1980s. Life expectancy at birth, child mortality and under–five mortality and illiteracy rates improved in all the countries between 1980 and 2000, not only in respect of the total population, but also when disaggregated by sex (see table 2 of the statistical appendix).

The indicators also show, however, that several of the region's countries are lagging behind considerably in terms of social development, with very sharp disparities between different Latin American countries. While life expectancy is 77 years in Costa Rica, it is 61 years in Bolivia and, in Haiti, the average lifespan is only 57 years. The illiteracy rate for the population aged 15 or over is just 3% in Cuba, compared to 36% in Nicaragua and 50% in Haiti. The under–five mortality rate in Haiti, at 109 per thousand live births, is more than 10 times Cuba's rate of 10 per thousand.

Poverty by income level is largely consistent with the rest of the social indicators considered. The countries with the lowest poverty rates, such as Chile, Costa Rica and Uruguay, almost without exception display better social indicators than the rest. By the same token, countries that have high rates of poverty and indigence, such as Bolivia, Guatemala and Nicaragua, suffer the most severe social deficiencies. However, insufficient income is not always correlated with shortfalls in respect of other basic needs. For example, in 2000 Honduras had the highest poverty rate in Latin America, at almost 80%, but the social indicators considered displayed higher values in that country than in many other countries with lower poverty rates.

In this regard, it is illustrative to examine how closely the classification of countries by their rates of monetary poverty is correlated with a ranking based on other social indicators. The indicators most closely correlated with poverty levels are life expectancy and child mortality (0.7 in both cases) and under–five mortality (0.8). This suggests that the degree of insufficiency of monetary resources is a sound indicator of deprivation in other dimensions such the ones mentioned, at least for the purposes of comparison between countries. The correlation between poverty rates and the proportion of people lacking access to sanitation is relatively low (0.4), however, which shows that certain aspects of well–being are less closely associated with monetary poverty.

10 See chapter II for a detailed analysis of the level and development of nutritional deficiencies in Latin America.

Table 1.5

LATIN AMERICA: SELECTED SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS 1990–2000

Country	Life expectancy at birth (Number of years)		Infant mortality rate (Rate per 1,000 live births)		Under–five mortality rate (Rate per 1,000 live births)		Proportion of undernourished persons (Percentage of total population)	
	1990 – 1995	1995 – 2000	1990 – 1995	1995 – 2000	1990 – 1995	1995 – 2000	1990/1992	1998/2000
Argentina	72.1	73.1	24.3	21.8	28	25	2	2
Bolivia	59.3	61.4	75.1	66.7	99	87	26	23
Brazil	66.4	67.9	47.2	42.2	54	48	13	10
Chile	74.4	75.2	14.5	11.8	17	15	8	4
Colombia	68.6	70.7	35.2	30.0	47	39	17	13
Costa Rica	75.7	76.5	13.7	12.1	17	15	6	5
Cuba	75.3	76.0	10.0	7.5	13	10	5	13
Ecuador	68.8	69.9	49.7	45.6	65	60	8	5
El Salvador	67.1	69.4	40.2	32.0	51	41	12	14
Guatemala	62.6	64.2	51.1	46.0	68	61	14	25
Haiti	55.4	57.2	74.1	66.1	121	109	64	50
Honduras	67.7	69.8	43.0	35.0	60	50	23	21
Mexico	71.5	72.4	34.0	31.0	42	38	5	5
Nicaragua	66.1	68.0	48.0	39.5	62	50	30	29
Panama	72.9	74.0	27.0	23.7	33	28	19	18
Paraguay	68.5	69.7	43.3	39.2	53	48	18	14
Peru	66.7	68.3	55.5	42.1	77	65	40	11
Dominican Republic	67.0	68.6	46.6	40.0	65	56	27	26
Uruguay	73.0	74.1	20.1	17.5	23	20	6	3
Venezuela	71.8	72.8	23.2	20.9	28	25	11	21
Latin America	68.6	70.0	40.6	35.7	...	...	13 a/	11 a/

Country	Rate of illiteracy in the population aged 15 or over (Percentage of the population of the same age)		Access to an improved water source (Percentage of total population)		Access to sanitation (Percentage of total population)	
	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000
Argentina	4.3	3.2	94	...	82	...
Bolivia	21.9	14.6	71	83	52	70
Brazil	18.0	13.1	83	87	71	76
Chile	6.0	4.2	90	93	97	96
Colombia	11.6	8.4	94	91	83	86
Costa Rica	6.1	4.4	...	95	...	93
Cuba	4.9	3.3	...	91	98	...
Ecuador	12.4	8.4	71	85	70	86
El Salvador	27.6	21.3	66	77	73	82
Guatemala	39.0	31.5	76	92	70	81
Haiti	60.3	50.2	53	46	23	28
Honduras	31.9	25.0	83	88	61	75
Mexico	12.7	8.8	80	88	70	74
Nicaragua	37.3	33.5	70	77	76	85
Panama	11.0	8.1	...	90	...	92
Paraguay	9.7	6.7	63	78	93	94
Peru	14.5	10.1	74	80	60	71
Dominican Republic	20.6	16.3	83	86	66	67
Uruguay	3.5	2.4	...	98	...	94
Venezuela	11.1	7.5	...	83	...	68
Latin America	14.9 b/	11.1 b/	82 b/	87 b/	72 b/	78 b/

Source: CELADE – Population Division of ECLAC (life expectancy at birth, infant mortality, under–five mortality), FAO (undernourishment), WHO/UNICEF (drinking water, sanitation) and UNESCO (illiteracy).
a/ Population–weighted average for 24 countries.
b/ Includes the Caribbean countries.

An analysis of the social situation in Latin America reveals major disparities in access to social services. For example, in urban areas school attendance among 13– to 19–year–olds living in households in the highest income quintile is invariably higher than it is among those in the poorest quintile. Disparity in access to secondary education varies considerably in magnitude, however. The lowest level of inequity is found in Argentina, where young people in the richest group have an attendance rate of 87.6%, compared to 73.4% in the poorest group. The biggest difference between socio–economic groups is found in Guatemala, where the 86.6% attendance rate of the richest quintile is almost double the figure for the poorest quintile, 43.6% (see table 10 of the statistical appendix).

Access to education among 20– to 24–year–olds, which corresponds roughly to the period of higher education, is even more unequal. With the exception of Venezuela, where enrolment in higher education on the part of young people in the highest income quintile is 1.9 times the rate for the poorest quintile, no country displays a ratio below 2.7, which is the value found in Argentina, Brazil, Ecuador and Peru. At the other extreme, the enrolment of young people from well–off households can be as much as nine times the rate for those from low–income households (Guatemala).

In conclusion, a number of aspects of Latin Americans' quality of life have improved significantly in the last two decades, painting a more optimistic picture than an analysis of poverty in terms of income alone. Much remains to be done, however, not only with regard to levels of social development, but also in terms of equity, with a view to correcting the sharp disparities that persist between different socio–economic groups.[11]

11 In Latin America disparities can be found not only between socio–economic groups, but also between different geographical locations (urban versus rural areas), genders and ethnic or racial groups. The analysis of these kinds of inequity is outside the scope of this section, however.

D. Unequal income distribution at the dawn of the new millennium

Between 2000 and 2002, trends in distributive inequality varied from one country to another in Latin America. Some experienced only slight variations in inequality with respect to 1999, while others saw pronounced changes in terms of either progress or setbacks. In most of the region, however, income distribution has worsened since 1997. From a more long–term perspective, income concentration has been rigid downward since the 1990s, and the failure to conclusively reverse this trend is an obstacle to the timely achievement of the poverty reduction target.

Highly unequal income distribution is one of the hallmarks of Latin America's social panorama. A first approach to analysing this phenomenon is to evaluate the prevailing distribution structure in the countries of the region, based on the percentage of total income received by individual households, ranked in ascending order by per capita income. On average, households in the first four income deciles (the poorest 40%) receive about 13.6% of total income. The proportions observed in the different countries do not diverge much from this average, except in the extreme cases of Bolivia (9.5%) and, particularly, Uruguay (21.6%). In the other countries, the first four deciles receive between 10.2% and 15.7% –in other words, a small share– of total income (see table I.6).

The changes in the proportion of income received by the poorest households between 1999 and 2001–2002 are mixed, but almost invariably small. Indeed, only four countries display variations of more than one percentage point. Furthermore, the biggest of these variations take place in opposite directions: the proportion rose by 1.8 points in Nicaragua and fell by 2 points in Argentina.

On average, households in the fifth, sixth and seventh deciles –the ones in the middle of the income distribution– receive 23% of total national income. In respect of these households, the countries with the lowest and highest shares were Bolivia (17.5%) and Costa Rica (25.6%), respectively. Meanwhile, the eighth and ninth deciles receive an average of 27.3% of monetary household income. This average fluctuates within a small range, from 25.3% in Argentina to 29.7% in Costa Rica. This shows that the relative position of the 20% of households in the upper–middle–income bracket is much the same throughout the region.

Table 1.6

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): HOUSEHOLD INCOME DISTRIBUTION, 1990–2001/2002 a/
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Average income b/	Share of total income of:				Ratio of average per capita income c/	
			Poorest 40%	Next 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
Bolivia	1989 e/	7.7	12.1	22.0	27.9	38.2	17.1	21.4
	1997	5.8	9.4	22.0	27.9	40.7	25.9	34.6
	1999	5.7	9.2	24.0	29.6	37.2	26.7	48.1
	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	17.5	25.6	46.8	32.2	36.9
Chile	1990	9.4	13.2	20.8	25.4	40.7	18.2	18.4
	1996	12.9	13.1	20.5	26.2	40.2	18.3	18.6
	2000	13.6	13.8	20.8	25.1	40.3	18.7	19.0
Colombia	1994	8.4	10.0	21.3	26.9	41.8	26.8	35.2
	1997	7.3	12.5	21.7	25.7	40.1	21.4	24.1
	1999	6.7	12.3	21.6	26.0	40.1	22.3	25.6
	2002 f/	7.2	11.9	22.2	26.8	39.1	25.0	29.6
Costa Rica	1990	9.5	16.7	27.4	30.2	25.6	10.1	13.1
	1997	10.0	16.5	26.8	29.4	27.3	10.8	13.0
	1999	11.4	15.3	25.7	29.7	29.4	12.6	15.3
	2002	11.7	14.5	25.6	29.7	30.2	13.7	16.9
Ecuador f/	1990	5.5	17.1	25.4	27.0	30.5	11.4	12.3
	1997	6.0	17.0	24.7	26.4	31.9	11.5	12.2
	1999	5.6	14.1	22.8	26.5	36.6	17.2	18.4
	2002	6.7	15.4	24.3	26.0	34.3	15.7	16.8
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
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
Mexico	1989	8.6	15.8	22.5	25.1	36.6	17.2	16.9
	1998	7.7	15.1	22.7	25.6	36.7	18.4	18.5
	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
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	40.7	23.6	27.2
Panama f/	1991	9.5	13.3	23.9	28.6	34.2	18.3	22.7
	1997	12.0	13.3	22.4	27.0	37.3	19.6	21.6
	1999	12.2	14.2	23.9	26.8	35.1	17.1	19.1
	2002	11.9	14.2	25.0	28.2	32.7	15.0	17.9

Table 1.6 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): HOUSEHOLD INCOME DISTRIBUTION, 1990–2001/2002 a/
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Average income b/	Share of total income of:				Ratio of average per capita income c/	
			Poorest 40%	Next 30%	20% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%	$D^{10}/D^{(1 \text{ to } 4)}$	Q^5/Q^1
Paraguay	1990 g/	7.7	18.6	25.7	26.9	28.9	10.2	10.6
	1996 f/	7.4	16.7	24.6	25.3	33.4	13.0	13.4
	1999	6.2	13.1	23.0	27.8	36.2	19.3	22.6
	2001	6.2	12.9	23.5	26.4	37.3	20.9	25.6
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
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
Uruguay f/	1990	9.3	20.1	24.6	24.1	31.2	9.4	9.4
	1997	11.2	22.0	26.1	26.1	25.8	8.5	9.1
	1999	11.9	21.6	25.5	25.9	27.0	8.8	9.5
	2002	9.4	21.6	25.4	25.6	27.3	9.5	10.2
Venezuela	1990	8.9	16.7	25.7	28.9	28.7	12.1	13.4
	1997	7.8	14.7	24.0	28.6	32.8	14.9	16.1
	1999	7.2	14.6	25.1	29.0	31.4	15.0	18.0
	2002	7.1	14.3	24.9	29.5	31.3	14.5	18.1

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.
a/ Households ranked by per capita income.
b/ Average monthly household income, in multiples of the per capita poverty line.
c/ $D^{(1 \text{ to } 4)}$ represents the 40% of households with the lowest income, while D^{10} represents the 10% of households with the highest income. The same notation is used in the case of quintiles (Q), each of which represents 20% of total households.
d/ Greater Buenos Aires.
e/ Eight major cities plus El Alto.
f/ Total urban areas.
g/ Asunción metropolitan area.

The share of the middle– and upper–middle–income groups, which account for 50% of the households in the individual countries, shows some noteworthy changes with respect to 1999. In the fifth, sixth and seventh deciles, seven countries posted variations of over one percentage point. This change was negative in three cases (Argentina, Bolivia and Honduras) and positive in four (Ecuador, Mexico, Panama and Peru). Only Argentina and Bolivia recorded variations of more than two percentage points (2.3 and 2.7 points, respectively). The share of the eighth and ninth deciles with respect to 1999 changed by more than one percentage point in seven cases as well. Four of these changes were negative (in Bolivia, Honduras, Nicaragua and Paraguay) and three were positive (in Guatemala, Panama and Peru). Although these variations give an idea of how the structure of income distribution has changed, they do not directly imply that income concentration has become better or worse, since this also depends on simultaneous developments in the richest and poorest groups.

Lastly, the richest decile takes in an average of 36.1% of all household income in the Latin American countries. The figures recorded in some countries diverge substantially from the average, however, ranging from 27.3% in Uruguay to 46.8% in Brazil. Nevertheless, these percentages again reveal that this group's hefty share of total income is one of the hallmarks of income concentration in Latin America.

Between 2000 and 2002 the richest decile's share of income rose by more than one percentage point in five of the countries considered and fell by the same amount in five others. The biggest increases were observed in Argentina, Bolivia and Honduras (5.1, 3.8 and 2.9 percentage points, respectively); at the other extreme, the biggest decreases were seen in Mexico and Peru (3.2 and 3 percentage points, respectively).

Comparatively speaking, although the structure of income distribution in most of the Latin American countries is highly inequitable, this inequity takes different forms. The fact that the richest decile has a large share does not necessarily mean that the poorest decile has a very small share. For example, although Argentina's richest decile receives 42.1% of income (the second–highest figure out of the countries considered), the poorest decile receives 13.4%, which is only just below the regional average. The share of the first four deciles in the Dominican Republic is smaller, at just 12%, but the last decile also receives fewer resources than the richest households in Argentina (38.3%).

The ratio between the average income of the groups at the top and bottom of the income distribution also serves to illustrate the wide disparity in access to monetary resources in Latin America. The average income of the richest decile is 19.1 times the average of the four poorest deciles, while the average income of the last quintile is 22.5 times that of the first. These indicators are significantly higher in Brazil and Bolivia than in the other countries. The ratio of average income between the last decile and the first four deciles is over 30 in both countries, while in the others it does not exceed 24. The ratio of average income between the richest quintile and the poorest quintile is 44.2 in Bolivia and 36.9 in Brazil, whereas the highest ratio among the rest of the countries is 27.2, in Nicaragua.

The figures for 2002 do not reveal any particular prevailing trend in comparison to 1999. Contrary to what might be expected, in some cases the indicators have moved in opposite directions. This is very clear in Bolivia, where the ratio between the average income of the last decile and the first four deciles rose by 3.6 percentage points, but the ratio between the income of the first two deciles and the last two deciles dropped by 3.9 percentage points.

The percentage of people whose income falls short of a given relative threshold, such as the average or median income, also helps to illustrate the pattern of income distribution. At least 67% of Latin America's population receives below–average income, and in Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil and Nicaragua, among others, this figure exceeds 73%.

By taking a fraction of the average as a relative threshold, instead of the average itself, it is also possible to determine relative poverty, or the approximate proportion of the population whose income does not afford them access to goods regarded as essential in their society. On the basis of this method, 44% of Latin America's population receives an income which is lower than 50% of the average.

In the three–year period 2000–2002, income distribution worsened in seven countries, according to the relative threshold approach. The proportion of people whose income was lower than both the average and half the average increased by at least one percentage point in Argentina, Bolivia, Honduras and Nicaragua. Only in Mexico, Panama and Peru did both of these indicators drop significantly (see table I.7).

Table 1.7

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): INCOME CONCENTRATION INDICATORS, 1990–2001/2002 a/

Country	Year	Percentage of people with per capita income lower than:		Concentration indices			
		The average	50% of the average	Gini b/	Logarithmic deviation	Theil	Atkinson
Argentina c/	1990	70.6	39.1	0.501	0.982	0.555	0.570
	1997	72.1	43.4	0.530	1.143	0.601	0.607
	1999	72.5	44.2	0.542	1.183	0.681	0.623
	2002	74.0	47.9	0.590	1.603	0.742	0.702
Bolivia	1989 d/	71.9	44.1	0.538	1.528	0.574	0.771
	1997	73.1	47.7	0.595	2.024	0.728	0.795
	1999	70.4	45.5	0.586	2.548	0.658	0.867
	2002	73.6	49.6	0.614	2.510	0.776	0.865
Brazil	1990	75.2	53.9	0.627	1.938	0.816	0.790
	1996	76.3	54.4	0.638	1.962	0.871	0.762
	1999	77.1	54.8	0.640	1.913	0.914	0.754
	2001	76.9	54.4	0.639	1.925	0.914	0.760
Chile	1990	74.6	46.5	0.554	1.258	0.644	0.671
	1996	73.9	46.9	0.553	1.261	0.630	0.667
	2000	75.0	46.4	0.559	1.278	0.666	0.658
Colombia	1994	73.6	48.9	0.601	2.042	0.794	0.817
	1997	74.2	46.4	0.569	1.399	0.857	0.822
	1999	74.5	46.6	0.572	1.456	0.734	0.945
	2002 e/	74.2	47.0	0.575	1.413	0.714	0.701
Costa Rica	1990	65.0	31.6	0.438	0.833	0.328	0.539
	1997	66.6	33.0	0.450	0.860	0.356	0.535
	1999	67.6	36.1	0.473	0.974	0.395	0.573
	2002	68.5	37.1	0.488	1.080	0.440	0.646
Ecuador e/	1990	69.6	33.8	0.461	0.823	0.403	0.591
	1997	68.9	34.8	0.469	0.832	0.409	0.510
	1999	72.1	42.0	0.521	1.075	0.567	0.597
	2002	72.3	39.8	0.513	1.031	0.563	0.593
El Salvador	1995	69.7	38.4	0.507	1.192	0.502	0.695
	1997	69.9	40.2	0.510	1.083	0.512	0.583
	1999	68.5	40.6	0.518	1.548	0.496	0.798
	2001	69.1	40.8	0.525	1.559	0.528	0.779
Guatemala	1989	74.9	47.9	0.582	1.477	0.736	0.700
	1998	75.3	46.6	0.560	1.182	0.760	0.618
	2002	72.8	47.9	0.543	1.142	0.589	0.595
Honduras	1990	75.1	52.3	0.615	1.842	0.817	0.746
	1997	72.5	45.4	0.558	1.388	0.652	0.697
	1999	71.8	46.4	0.564	1.560	0.636	0.746
	2002	72.8	49.6	0.588	1.607	0.719	0.709
Mexico	1989	74.2	43.5	0.536	1.096	0.680	0.598
	1998	72.8	43.1	0.539	1.142	0.634	0.599
	2000	73.2	44.0	0.542	1.221	0.603	0.621
	2002	71.7	41.2	0.514	1.045	0.521	0.571
Nicaragua	1993	71.5	45.9	0.582	1.598	0.671	0.802
	1998	73.1	45.9	0.584	1.800	0.731	0.822
	2001	74.6	46.9	0.579	1.594	0.783	0.767

Table I.7 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): INCOME CONCENTRATION INDICATORS, 1990–2001/2002 a/

Country	Year	Percentage of people with per capita income lower than:		Concentration indices			
		The average	50% of the average	Gini b/	Logarithmic deviation	Theil	Atkinson
Panama e/	1991	70.3	44.2	0.545	1.312	0.577	0.656
	1997	71.8	45.6	0.552	1.362	0.632	0.673
	1999	71.4	43.8	0.533	1.223	0.558	0.629
	2002	70.3	41.1	0.515	1.217	0.488	0.640
Paraguay	1990 f/	69.2	33.4	0.447	0.737	0.365	0.468
	1996 e/	72.9	37.9	0.493	0.916	0.515	0.544
	1999	72.3	46.3	0.565	1.555	0.668	0.716
	2001	72.9	44.4	0.570	1.705	0.702	0.782
Peru	1997	70.1	41.4	0.532	1.348	0.567	0.663
	1999	71.7	42.7	0.545	1.358	0.599	0.673
	2001	70.3	41.5	0.525	1.219	0.556	0.636
Dominican Republic	2000	71.6	44.3	0.554	1.250	0.583	0.635
	2002	71.6	43.0	0.544	1.216	0.570	0.637
Uruguay e/	1990	73.2	36.8	0.492	0.812	0.699	0.519
	1997	66.8	31.3	0.430	0.730	0.336	0.475
	1999	67.1	32.2	0.440	0.764	0.354	0.483
	2002	67.9	34.6	0.455	0.802	0.385	0.661
Venezuela	1990	68.0	35.5	0.471	0.930	0.416	0.545
	1997	70.8	40.7	0.507	1.223	0.508	0.985
	1999	69.4	38.6	0.498	1.134	0.464	0.664
	2002	68.7	38.8	0.500	1.122	0.456	0.866

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.
a/ Calculated on the basis of the distribution of per capita income.
b/ Includes people with income equal to zero.
c/ Greater Buenos Aires.
d/ Eight major cities plus El Alto.
e/ Total urban areas.
f/ Asunción metropolitan area.

Another way to look at income distribution is to use synthetic indicators that sum up the overall situation on the basis of the income of the entire population, not only of a specific subgroup. There is a wide variety of such indicators, which are differentiated, among other things, by the relative importance they assign to lower–income households versus higher–income households. Although the Gini index is the best known and the most widely used to measure inequality, it does not assign a higher weighting to the lower part of the distribution structure. The Theil and Atkinson indices, however, do offer this trait, which is desirable from a theoretical point of view (see box I.7).

Box I.7

MEASURING INEQUALITY

A wide range of indicators can be used to measure the degree to which income distribution is concentrated. In order to generate coherent findings, however, inequality indicators should have a number of basic properties, including the following:

i) Weak principle of transfers: any transfer of income from a "rich" household to a "poor" one should be reflected in a decline in the degree of inequality shown by the indicator.
ii) Scale independence: the indicator should not be affected by proportional changes in income or changes of scale, such as modifications in the unit of measurement of income.
iii) Population principle: two populations with identical Lorenz curves should exhibit the same income concentration, regardless of their size.
iv) Additive decomposability: a population's income concentration should be equal to the weighted sum of the inequality found in all the subgroups of which it is composed.
v) Strong principle of transfers: any transfer of income from a "rich" household to a "poor" one should generate a decline in inequality that sharpens as the distance between the two households' incomes increases.

The following are among the most commonly used indicators of inequality: a/

i) **Gini index**

$$G = \frac{1}{2n^2 \mu} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left| y_i - y_j \right|$$

Geometrically, the Gini index represents the area between the Lorenz curve and the line of absolute equality. It is the index most widely used to analyse income distribution, even though it does not possess all the desirable properties: specifically, it does not satisfy the strong principle of transfers or the additive decomposability axiom. It takes values between zero and one, with zero corresponding to absolute equity and one to absolute inequity.

ii) **Theil index**

$$T = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{y_i}{\mu} \log\left(\frac{y_i}{\mu}\right)$$

This index gives more weight to transfers that take place at the lower end of the distribution scale, and therefore satisfies the strong principle of transfers. A further advantage is that it exhibits additive decomposability. Its minimum value is zero (absolute equity) and its maximum value is log(n), where n denotes the size of the population.

iii) **Atkinson index**

$$A_\varepsilon = 1 - \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{y_i}{\mu}\right)^{1-\varepsilon} \right]^{\frac{1}{1-\varepsilon}}$$

The Atkinson index takes values between zero and one. It has the special feature of incorporating an "inequality aversion" parameter (ε), which indicates the weighting assigned to observations of the lower end of the distribution scale.

All inequality indicators are ordinal in nature and therefore cannot be compared to each other. Moreover, since each indicator measures partial aspects of inequality, they often generate different distributional rankings. For this reason, no ranking can be regarded as definitive unless it stays the same regardless of the index used. It is therefore best to use different inequality indices in a complementary fashion and to analyse their results in conjunction with one another.

Source: Prepared on the basis of Frank Cowell, "Measuring Inequality", LSE Handbooks in Economics, Prentice Hall, 2000 (http://sticerd.lse.ac.uk/research/frankweb/measuringinequality.pdf).
a/ The notation used is as follows: n = population size, y_i = per capita income of the i–th individual, μ = mean income.

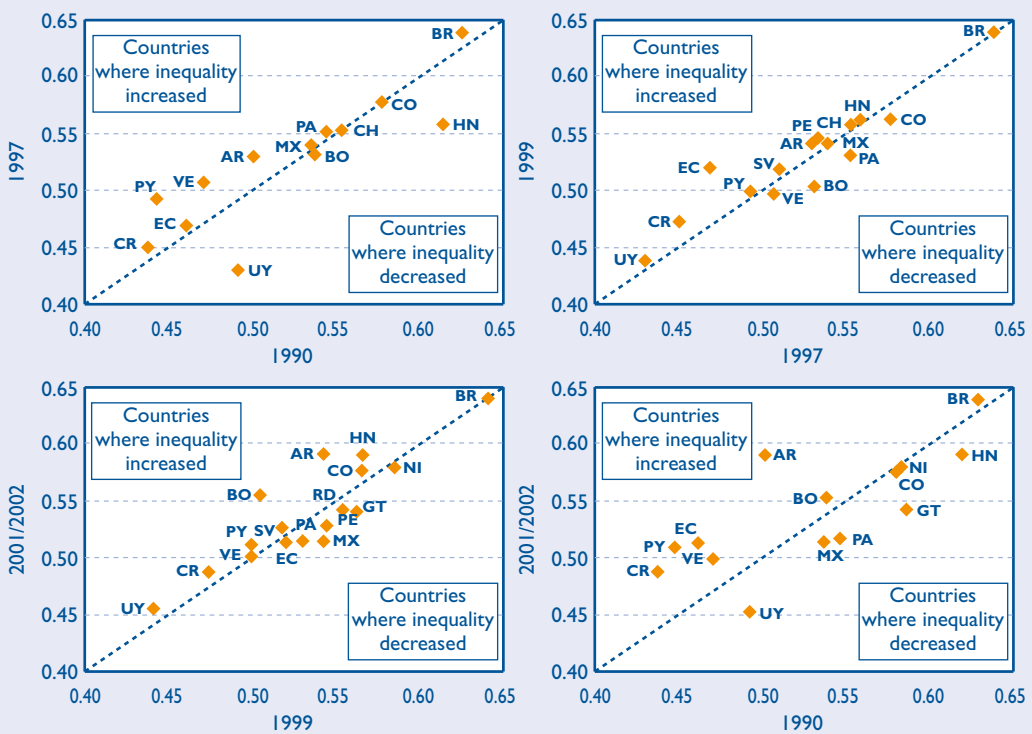
According to the Gini coefficient, the Latin American countries with the highest levels of income concentration in 2002 were Brazil (0.64) and Bolivia (0.61) –the only cases in which the indicator exceeded 0.6–, closely followed by Argentina (0.59), Honduras (0.59), Nicaragua (0.58) and Paraguay (0.57). The region's lowest Gini coefficients were recorded by Uruguay (0.46) and Costa Rica (0.49), the only countries with indicators below 0.5.

Changes in the Gini index between 1999 and 2001–2002 show that distributive inequality remained relatively unchanged in seven countries (Brazil, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Nicaragua, Paraguay and Venezuela). In five others (Argentina, Bolivia, Costa Rica, Honduras and Uruguay), the index's value went up by at least 0.01. Among these, Argentina and Bolivia posted the largest increases, of 0.05 and 0.03, respectively. In Guatemala, Mexico, Panama and Peru the Gini coefficient's value has dropped by more than 0.01 over the last three years, although the results in Mexico and Peru should be viewed with caution, since the latest available data may not be comparable to information from earlier years (see box I.3).

From the standpoint of a longer time–frame, two additional features of the index's behaviour up to 2001–2002 should be mentioned. First, most of the countries have experienced a deterioration in distribution with respect to the Gini coefficients recorded in 1997; very few exhibit less income concentration than they did at that time. The last five years can therefore be labelled, in general terms, as a period of worsening distribution. With respect to 1990, however, the countries where distribution deteriorated do not greatly outnumber those whose concentration indices improved. In effect, the net outcome for the period 1990–2002 was clearly positive for Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Panama and Uruguay, and negative for Argentina, Ecuador, Costa Rica, Paraguay and Venezuela (see figure I.5).

Figure I.5

LATIN AMERICA: CHANGES IN GINI COEFFICIENTS, 1990–2001/2002 a/



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

a/ Calculated on the basis of the distribution of people ranked by per capita income. Data for Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Panama, Paraguay and Uruguay are for urban areas. Data for Argentina are for greater Buenos Aires, those for Bolivia (1990) are for eight major cities plus El Alto and those for Paraguay (1990) are for the Asunción metropolitan area.

The classification of countries by levels of inequality according to the Theil and Atkinson indices does not necessarily coincide with the results obtained using the Gini coefficient.[12] While both the Gini and Theil indices identify Brazil as the country with the region's highest level of inequality, the Atkinson index (calculated using an inequality aversion parameter of two, which places particular emphasis on the poorest households in the distribution analysis) identifies Venezuela. The Atkinson index also diverges from the other two in identifying the country with the lowest income concentration, since six countries display Atkinson indices lower than that of Uruguay.

It is necessary to deal carefully with the ambiguity that arises from using different types of indicators, since it can either help to pinpoint precisely those aspects in which a country has higher income concentration or generate distortions in the analysis. For example, Brazil is more inequitable than Venezuela if the two are compared in terms of the richest decile's share of total income, the ratio of average income between the richest and poorest groups, the percentage of people with below–average income and the Gini and Theil indices. Venezuela's Atkinson index is higher than Brazil's, however, because a small percentage of its poorest population has a smaller share of total income. In this case, therefore, the Atkinson index shows that not all of Brazil's low–income households are worse off, relatively speaking, than low–income households in other countries. Nevertheless, in general terms, Brazil can undoubtedly be considered the country with the region's highest level of inequality, based on the simultaneous analysis of various indices.

12 In this respect, exact comparisons between levels of inequality can only be made when the countries' Lorenz curves do not cross. Otherwise, different indicators will generate dissimilar results, according to the relative weighting they assign to each stratum of the income distribution.

CHAPTER II

Hunger in Latin America and the Caribbean: its scale, characteristics and likelihood of eradication

Introduction

In Latin America and the Caribbean, food insecurity and hunger are closely linked to extreme poverty but not completely correlated with it. Poor nutrition and an inability to adapt to prevailing eating habits affect not only those living in extreme poverty, but also broader social strata and groups living in areas or regions where food insecurity is an ongoing reality. Among the many pressing needs of the extremely poor, a lack of access to food is, by nature of its consequences, the most serious and urgent of all. The fact that eliminating global hunger is the first development goal set forth in the Millennium Declaration reflects the international community's recognition of the vital importance of this problem. Specific targets set in relation to this goal are assigned the same priority as the elimination of extreme poverty per se.

An acute and continuing deficit in the supply of food available to meet the entire population's minimum energy requirements (undernourishment) finds its most serious manifestation in malnutrition, particularly among infants and children. Malnutrition takes two forms among children under five, who may be underweight or short for their age. The latter, also called chronic undernourishment or stunting, is particularly critical in the region, both because of its prevalence –which is greater than the first form– and because of its irreversible impact on the development of individuals and society.

This chapter examines the phenomenon of hunger in the countries of Latin America and the Caribbean by analysing its principal manifestations: undernourishment, which affects people who take in fewer calories than required to carry on a normal life, and malnutrition among children, which is one of the gravest consequences of extreme poverty and is caused by a lack of food and nutrients in sufficient quantity and quality.

Section one contains a review of the scale and evolution over time of undernourishment and child malnutrition, particularly in their global and chronic forms, during the 1990s. Section two analyses the relationship between needs associated with extreme poverty and the prevalence of malnutrition among children under five. Section three examines structural factors that determine the food supply and its impact on undernourishment. Section four explores the fact that the problem of undernourishment and malnutrition in the region today is attributable mainly to unequal access to food rather than an actual lack of food. Section five looks at the nutritional vulnerability approach as a tool for orienting and ranking resources to deal with food scarcity and malnutrition and examines some of the core components in a blueprint for a national policy to combat hunger. The last section considers the likelihood of the countries of Latin America and the Caribbean meeting the first Millennium Development Goal and projections of trends in undernourishment and associated factors.

A. Hunger and food insecurity: the scale of the problem in Latin America and the Caribbean

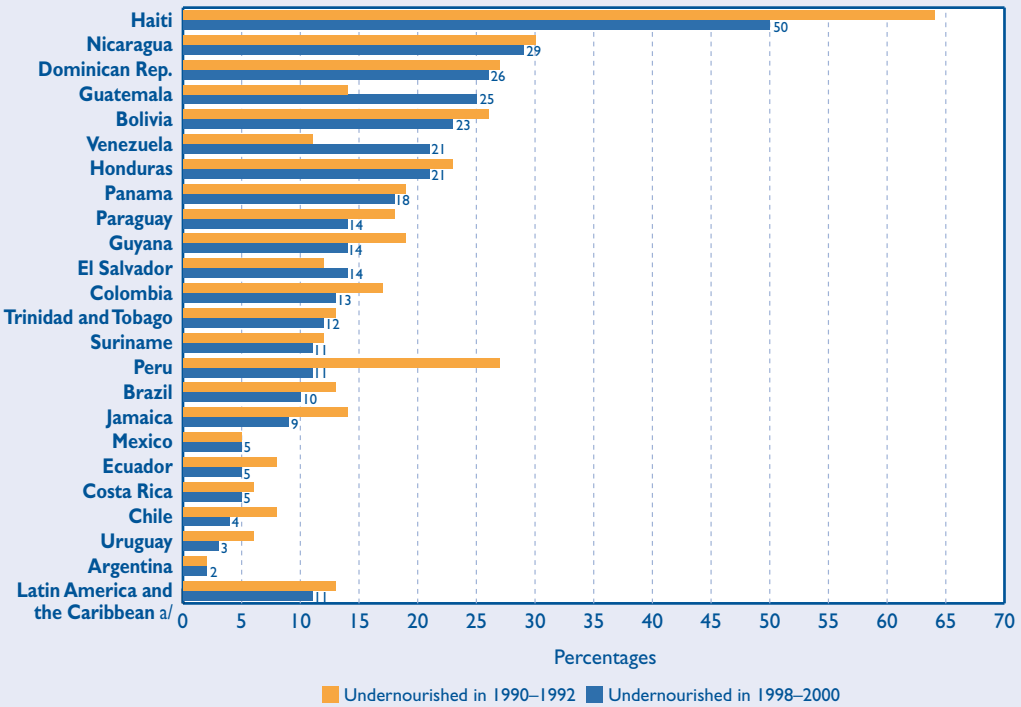
Around the year 2000, 18.5% of the Latin American and Caribbean population were extremely poor, 11% (close to 54 million people) were undernourished to some degree and nearly 8% of children under five exhibited a low weight–for–age. Although these figures indicate that hunger and food insecurity are a less dramatic problem in Latin America and the Caribbean than in other developing regions, the use of more precise indicators paints a more serious picture: undernourishment affects close to 22% of the population when it is measured on the basis of average rather than minimum calorie requirements, and close to 21% of all children suffer from moderate to serious chronic malnutrition. Differences across countries are also quite pronounced: undernourishment estimates developed by the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) indicate that more than 20% of the population suffer from hunger in seven of the region's countries, while no more than 5% of the population go hungry in another six countries.

At the end of the last decade (1998–2000), nearly 54 million people suffered from some degree of undernourishment in Latin America and the Caribbean. The scant progress made in terms of food security since 1990–1992 in most countries made it possible to lower the figure by only slightly over two million. According to FAO estimates, more than 20% of the population were undernourished in some countries (Bolivia, Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras and Nicaragua), but less than 5% of the population in others (Argentina, Chile and Uruguay).

An increase in the per capita domestic food supply in most countries was a decisive factor in lowering the percentage of the population suffering from undernourishment in 20 out of 23 countries in Latin America and the Caribbean (see figure II.1). This more than offset the (slight, in most cases) increase in inequality in access to food during the 1990s. The decrease in extreme poverty achieved in various countries between 1990 and 1998 raised the food consumption capacity for lower–income groups but failed to lessen the inequalities between them and middle– and higher–income groups. In the three countries where the undernourishment index worsened, the change was chiefly attributable to a drop in the per capita food supply as a result of declining domestic production and import capacity.

Figure II.1

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (23 COUNTRIES): PERCENTAGE OF THE POPULATION SUFFERING FROM UNDERNOURISHMENT BETWEEN 1990–1992 AND 1998–2000

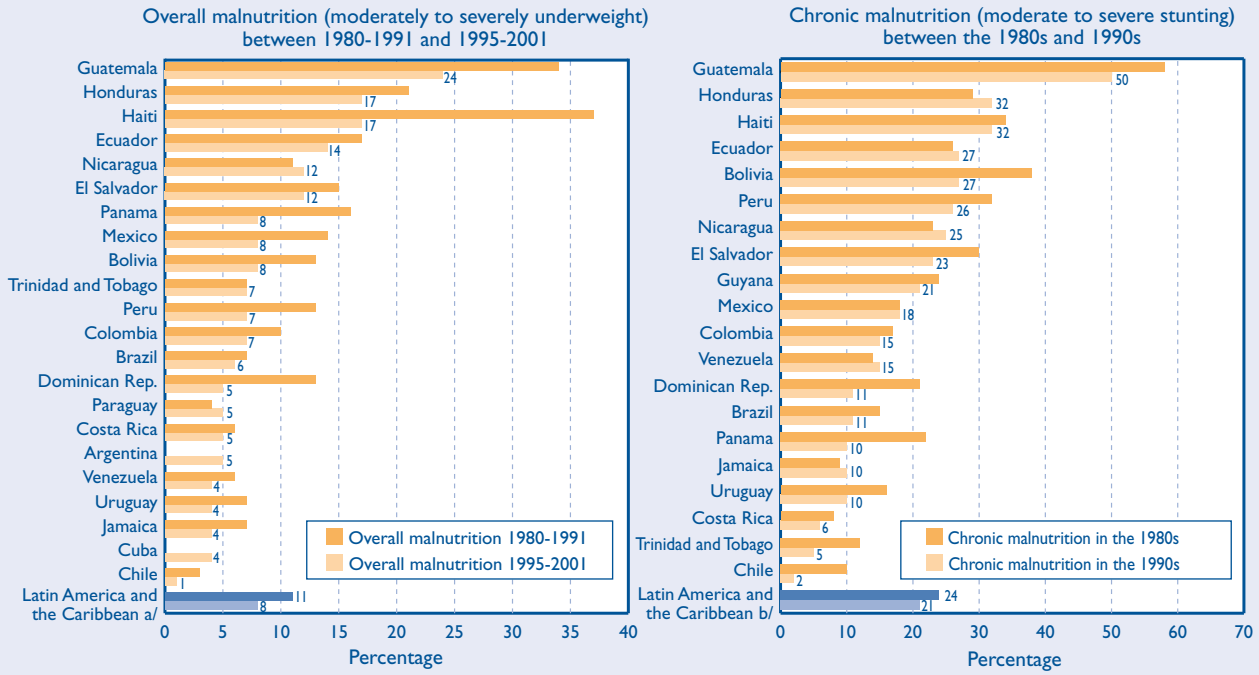


Source: FAO, *The state of food insecurity in the world, 2002*, Rome (http://www.fao.org).
a/ Weighted average for the countries.

Malnutrition among children generally involves, in addition to an insufficient food supply, other circumstances associated with extreme poverty, such as a lack of access to drinking water and poor sanitation. These types of conditions lead to infectious and diarrheic diseases, which in turn result in rapid weight loss. In most countries of the region, however, the most frequent manifestation of hunger and poverty among children is chronic malnutrition (reflected in a moderately or seriously low height–for–age, or stunting). What makes this such a serious problem is that the consequences of insufficient food and nutrition are felt precisely during those years which are most critical to a child's physical and psychomotor development, making the negative effects of this situation largely irreversible. This is one of the principal mechanisms of the intergenerational transmission of poverty and inequality. Although the incidence of both types of undernourishment has declined in most countries over the past decade, the extent of stunting has diminished less (see figure II.2).

Figure II.2

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN UNDER FIVE SUFFERING FROM MALNUTRITION



Source: On underweight children, United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), *The State of the World's Children, 1993*, New York, 1993 and *The State of the World's Children, 2003*, New York, 2003 (http://unicef.org); on chronic undernourishment, Mercedes de Onis, Edward A. Frongillo and Monika Blössner, "Is malnutrition declining? An analysis of changes in levels of child malnutrition since 1980", *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, Compilation, No. 4, Geneva, 2001.

a/ Weighted average in the 22 countries.

b/ Weighted average in the 20 countries.

Box II.1

FOOD: A HUMAN RIGHT

Food is recognized as a human right in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, which, together with the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, constitutes a fundamental legal instrument for the application of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. a/

Article 11 of the former Covenant enshrines the right to an adequate standard of living and includes adequate food and clothing and "the continuous improvement of living conditions" in the definition of that standard.

The above article stipulates that: "The States Parties to the present Covenant, recognizing the fundamental right of everyone to be free from hunger, shall take, individually and through international co–operation, the measures, including specific programmes, which are needed: (a) to improve methods of production, conservation and distribution of food by making full use of technical and scientific knowledge, by disseminating knowledge of the principles of nutrition and by developing or reforming agrarian systems in such a way as to achieve the most efficient development and utilization of natural resources; (b) taking into account the problems of both food–importing and food–exporting countries, to ensure an equitable distribution of world food supplies in relation to need".

Beyond the positions of individual countries on the Covenant, or the scope of rights recognized therein, there is a consensus concerning the notion of the right to food. The Covenant states that States Parties are to meet their obligation to protect, promote and ensure the progressive realization of these rights to the maximum extent of the resources available to them.

Box II.1 (concluded)

FOOD: A HUMAN RIGHT

The concepts of gradualness and rationality have led to the idea of the complementarity of human rights and human development (see UNDP, 2000), that is, that the rights recognized in the Covenant are abstract by nature and represent ideals to work towards in terms of, *inter alia*, food, health, housing, education and employment. b/

Nevertheless, people have a definite right to have appropriate policies put in place in support of the gradual implementation of the Covenant's provisions. The State's obligations therefore encompass the implementation of policies promoting the gradual realization of these abstract rights, either by using the resources available to them or through international cooperation. Food security assistance thus constitutes a fundamental tool for consolidating the right to food.

In improving their social policies in the area of nutrition, States have several frames of reference available to them, such as the draft guidelines on integrating human rights into poverty reduction strategies, published by the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (see OHCHR, 2002), which sets forth a series of objectives and indicators for evaluating progress. c/

The indicators suggested in that document are shown below. These indicators can be used to complement those listed under the goal of eradicating hunger as set forth in the Millennium Declaration, which includes only the first two, i.e. the proportion of people living on less than the minimum level of dietary energy consumption and the prevalence of children under five who are severely or moderately underweight for their age.

Target 1: All people to be free from chronic hunger
Indicators:
- Proportion of people with inadequate intake of dietary energy.
- Proportion of adults and adolescents with low body mass.
- Proportion of underweight among under–five children.

Target 2: Eliminate gender inequality in access to food
Indicators:
- Proportion of males and females with inadequate intake of dietary energy.
- Proportion of male and female adults and adolescents with low body mass.
- Proportion of underweight boys and girls.

Target 3: All people to be free from food insecurity
Indicators:
- Proportion of households not able to have two square meals regularly.
- Proportion of household expenditure on food.
- Variability of prices of staple foods.

Target 4: All people to have access to food of adequate nutritional value
Indicators:
- Proportion of poor people with inadequate intake of protein.
- Proportion of poor people with inadequate intake of micronutrients.

Target 5: All people to have access to safe food
Indicators:
- Proportion of poor people vulnerable to consumption of unsafe food.
- Proportion of people exposed to public information and education (including school instruction) regarding nutrition and food safety.

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a/ The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights entered into force on 3 January 1976. As of this writing, there are 26 States Parties from Latin America and the Caribbean: Argentina, Barbados, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Grenada, Guatemala, Guyana, Honduras, Jamaica, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Suriname, Trinidad and Tobago, Uruguay and Venezuela. With respect to the other countries in the region, Belize has signed but not ratified the Covenant, and Antigua and Barbuda, Bahamas, Cuba, Haiti, Saint Lucia and Saint Kitts and Nevis have not signed it. For further information, see UNHCHR (2002).
b/ See UNDP (2000).
c/ See UNHCHR (2002).

Over the past decade, the percentage of underweight children, which is the indicator to be used in monitoring progress towards the target on hunger set forth in the Millennium Development Goals, has fallen from about 13%–14% to 8%–9%, while chronic malnutrition has declined, on average, from around 23%–24% to 20%–21%. This indicates that stunting continues to be very prevalent in many countries. Indeed, in nine countries, more than 20% of children under five suffer from chronic malnutrition (Bolivia, El Salvador, Guatemala, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua and Peru), whereas the percentage of the population under five suffering from chronic malnutrition was close to or below 5% in only three countries (Chile, Costa Rica and Trinidad and Tobago). On the one hand, this reflects a greater capacity on the countries' part to use their own resources and external assistance to deal with the most critical cases of hunger arising out of emergency situations (such as drought, floods and hurricanes); on the other, it underscores the difficulties encountered in making more rapid progress in reducing child malnutrition in households suffering from hard–core poverty.

Box II.2

MEASURING UNDERNOURISHMENT IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: THE FAO METHODOLOGY

The last section of this chapter presents an analysis of how likely it is that the Latin American and Caribbean countries will be able to achieve, by 2015, the target of halving the proportion of people suffering from hunger. That target, together with the one concerning extreme poverty, constitutes the first Millennium Development Goal. The Millennium Declaration includes two basic indicators for monitoring fulfilment of this goal: the percentage of children under five years of age who are underweight, and the proportion of the population who are undernourished. Outlined here is the procedure used by FAO to estimate the scale of undernourishment.

The procedure in question is one of the five methods of quantifying the prevalence and severity of hunger and malnutrition. a/ Three of them estimate the population's intake of calories and nutrients and compares it to dietary energy requirements. This is what is done in the method used by FAO and in the methods that are based on household income and spending surveys or food consumption surveys. A fourth method draws on subjective perceptions of hunger and observations of people's behaviour. A study of this kind was recently conducted in Argentina. b/ The last method calls for measuring the effects of hunger and malnutrition on weight and height (anthropometric measurements) to generate indicators of undernourishment in children and adults.

The FAO method is unquestionably the most widely used of the first set of methods. FAO estimates of the percentage of the population in developing countries who are undernourished represent the principal –though not the only– documentation on the scale of hunger on the planet and trends in this respect. Their purpose is to quantify the percentage of the population who suffer from acute food deprivation, known as the prevalence of undernourishment, i.e., people whose calorie intake is insufficient to maintain body weight. The FAO method thus emphasizes hunger rather than malnutrition, which is a problem of wider scope.

This procedure can be explained by drawing a parallel with measurements of absolute poverty relative to income. Such measurements are made by comparing per capita income for the household in which a person resides to a poverty line, which serves as a benchmark representing the resources needed to meet the population's basic needs. The incidence of poverty is the percentage of people whose income is less than the minimum budget or poverty line and depends not only on the average income in the country in question, but also on the way in which it is distributed. The greater its dispersion or inequality, the higher will be the percentage of people with incomes below the poverty line. Similarly, measuring undernourishment calls for comparing the quantity of dietary energy available to each individual with a benchmark representing the energy needed to meet caloric requirements, which are determined by age, sex, and activity.

Unlike the situation with respect to poverty measurements, individual caloric intake data are not available for the measurement of undernourishment. These measurements are based on an aggregate total dietary energy supply, which, in this comparison with poverty measurements, is equal to average income distribution. This sum is derived from the food balance sheets that express aggregate domestic supply in terms of calories per person per day. The benchmark established as the

Box II.2

MEASURING UNDERNOURISHMENT IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: THE FAO METHODOLOGY

poverty line is the minimum caloric requirement, expressed in the same unit as the data on the food balance sheets, and is calculated by averaging the individual requirements of the country's inhabitants. The estimate of dispersion in distribution –the other parameter needed to determine the percentage of the population that is undernourished– is more complex owing primarily to inadequate information. Ideally, this parameter ought to be obtained on the basis of data from surveys on the population's food consumption Unfortunately, these are relatively scarce, do not generally provide national coverage and use the household rather than the individual as their basic unit. Assumptions therefore have to be made about the variability in energy consumption among the different strata, in terms of food consumption, of the population and among the members of a household. Accordingly, in measuring undernourishment at the country level, FAO must resort to various sources of information to estimate the coefficient of variability in energy consumption by the population. c/ With respect to the variability in distribution of caloric intake among households, which is tied to individual differences in energy requirements, a constant value of 0.20 is assumed. In any case it has been demonstrated that, within certain ranges, errors in estimating the variability coefficient in dietary energy consumption by the population has less of an effect than errors arising in the measurement of the aggregate availability of calories or those associated with the population's average nutritional requirements. d/

Starting from the assumption that the distribution of dietary energy consumption is unimodal and of the log–normal type and that in order to estimate the percentage of the population that is undernourished, it is necessary to determine the mean (x) distribution of energy consumption and its relative dispersion (coefficient of variation, CV), then based on this information it is possible to determine the two parameters of log–normal distribution,i.e., μ y s^2:

$$\mu = \log_e \bar{x} - s^2 / 2$$

and

$$s^2 = \log_e(CV^2(x)+1)$$

Since $\bar{x}$ is represented by the average per capita dietary energy supply, it is sufficient to determine CV:

$$CV(x) = \sqrt{CV^2(x/v)+CV^2(x/r)}$$

in which $CV(x/v)$ is the dispersion of per capita consumption among households, and $CV(x/r)$ is dispersion within the household. Based on these data, the proportion of the population that is undernourished can then be estimated, with this proportion corresponding to the log–normal area of the curve below the average minimum caloric requirement ($Rmin$):

$$P_{Acum.}\left(\frac{\log_e(RMin) - \left(\log_e(\bar{x}) - \frac{\log_e(CV^2+1)}{2}\right)}{\sqrt{\log_e(CV^2+1)}}\right)$$

Once the undernourishment figure for a country is known, it becomes possible to deduce the estimate's implicit variability coefficient, since the mean availability of calories per person per day and the average energy requirements of the population are known.

The FAO undernourishment estimates are drawn up on the basis of minimum energy requirements (roughly 1,800 calories). The following table illustrates that the use of the mean requirement, which supposes a higher level of energy consumption (about 2,100 calories), leads to much higher estimates of undernourishment. These estimates are more closely correlated with ECLAC estimates of extreme poverty, which identify the cost of satisfying nutritional requirements or achieving the value represented by the indigence line based on this mean requirement. e/

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a/ See SICIVA (2002).
b/ See Fiszbein and Giovagnoli (2003).
c/ See FAO (2002).
d/ See Naiken (2002).
e/ See FAO (1994).

Box II.2 (concluded)

MEASURING UNDERNOURISHMENT IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: THE FAO METHODOLOGY

Country	Official FAO estimate				Estimate based on mean requirement	
	Minimum energy requirement	Dietary energy supply (DES)	Variability coefficient (CV)	Under-nourished population	Mean energy requirement	Under-nourished
	(kcal/person/day)			(Percentage)	(kcal/person/day)	(Percentage)
Argentina	1 946	3 181	0.23	2	2 201	7
Bolivia	1 740	2 211	0.28	23	2 037	44
Brazil	1 820	2 957	0.34	10	2 113	20
Chile	1 811	2 845	0.25	4	2 092	12
Colombia	1 771	2 568	0.30	13	2 067	28
Costa Rica	1 803	2 782	0.25	5	2 120	16
Cuba	1 846	2 557	0.26	13	2 152	30
Ecuador	1 793	2 676	0.23	5	2 099	17
El Salvador	1 744	2 454	0.29	14	2 045	30
Guatemala	1 726	2 165	0.28	25	2 024	46
Guyana	1 803	2 522	0.28	14	2 096	30
Haiti	1 842	2 037	0.47	50	2 172	64
Honduras	1 736	2 392	0.34	21	2 036	37
Jamaica	1 851	2 670	0.25	9	2 137	22
Mexico	1 810	3 146	0.31	5	2 102	12
Nicaragua	1 711	2 238	0.38	29	1 987	44
Panama	1 804	2 407	0.28	18	2 078	34
Paraguay	1 915	2 544	0.24	14	2 199	31
Peru	1 799	2 598	0.27	11	2 093	25
Dominican Republic	1 804	2 309	0.32	26	2 113	45
Suriname	1 813	2 617	0.27	11	2 139	27
Trinidad and Tobago	1 812	2 681	0.30	12	2 115	26
Uruguay	1 913	2 853	0.20	3	2 185	11
Venezuela	1 787	2 278	0.26	21	2 024	37

Source: Official FAO data and estimates of implicit variability coefficients and of the percentage of the population that is undernourished, based on mean caloric requirements.

B. Hunger and extreme poverty

Having a high percentage of the population, especially children, suffering from undernourishment is a sure way to perpetuate extreme poverty. Although combating poverty is an important step towards reducing hunger, efforts to eliminate poverty per se cannot be expected to guarantee the achievement, within a reasonable time span, of the first Millennium Development Goal, which is to eradicate hunger. Extreme poverty and hunger are closely related, but they are not the same thing. A portion of the undernourished population does not belong to the poorest population groups. By the same token, not all people with very low incomes exhibit the most acute consequences of food scarcity.

In this section, the relationship between extreme poverty and hunger is examined. The aim is to demonstrate, first, that although combating extreme poverty is an important step towards reducing hunger, efforts to eliminate extreme poverty per se cannot be expected to guarantee, within a reasonable time span, the eradication of hunger and its principal consequence, child malnutrition; and second, that significant progress can be made towards overcoming malnutrition through food programmes even when they are not part of costly, large–scale poverty elimination programmes. As will be shown by the evidence presented below, extreme poverty and hunger are closely related but are not the same thing, since a portion of the undernourished population does not belong to the poorest population groups and, by the same token, not all people with very low incomes exhibit the most acute consequences of food scarcity.

The presence of extreme poverty is established by quantifying the income available to households to meet the nutritional needs of their members. The extreme poverty or indigence line is set at the level of resources needed to meet household members' calorie and nutrient requirements. Therefore, at the aggregate level, a relatively high correlation between indigence and malnutrition can be expected. Figure II.3 illustrates this relationship in 18 of the region's countries.

Extreme poverty accounts for close to half of the difference in the scale of malnutrition across countries. In effect, 49% of the cross–country variability in the overall malnutrition rate (low weight– for–age) and 57% of the cross–country variability in moderate–to–serious chronic malnutrition (low height–for–age) can be attributed to differences in the percentage of extreme poverty. There is thus a close

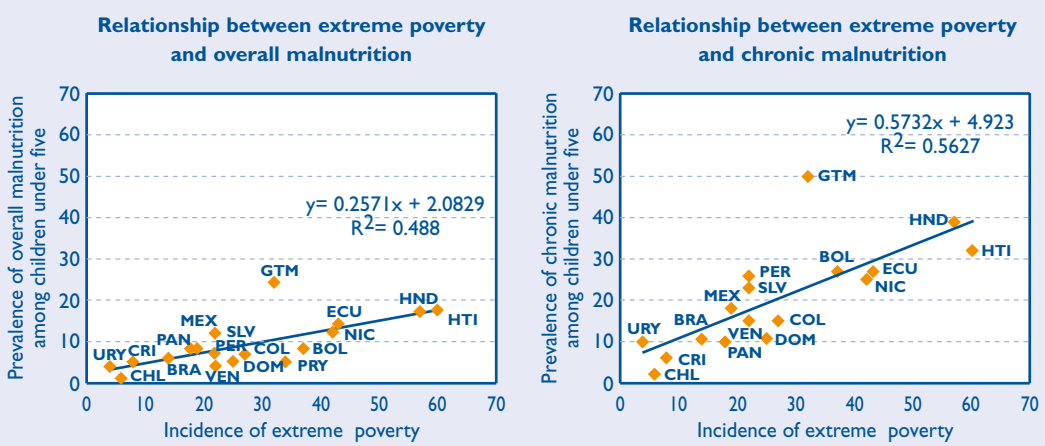
correlation, and it should come as no surprise that indigence and extreme poverty are often regarded as synonymous with hunger and undernourishment. This same figure also shows, however, that a scarcity of resources in the home falls far short of accounting for any given rate of child malnutrition. Countries with very different poverty levels have similar chronic malnutrition rates (Brazil and Dominican Republic, Ecuador and Peru or El Salvador and Nicaragua), and countries with similar levels of extreme poverty exhibit very different rates of chronic malnutrition (Mexico and Panama, Peru and Venezuela or Colombia and Guatemala). The same is true with respect to low body weight.

One surprising fact is the low correlation between the rate of child malnutrition and the level of extreme poverty as measured by the indicator suggested in the Millennium Declaration for monitoring progress towards the goal of poverty eradication. Indeed, in the same 18 countries analysed in the above figure, the correlation between the percentage of people living on less than one dollar per day (in terms of purchasing power parity) and the percentage of the underweight population yields a coefficient of 0.343, while the correlation with the rate of chronic malnutrition is 0.372. Those coefficients would rise to 0.488 and 0.563 if the ECLAC method of measuring extreme poverty were used.

A country–by–country analysis sheds more light on the relationship between the two phenomena, although less information is available for this type of examination. Demographics and health surveys (DHS) are the major source of data.[1] A few of these surveys provide estimates of the scale of malnutrition, disaggregated by income (or well–being) bracket.[2] This type of information is available

Figure II.3

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (18 COUNTRIES): EXTREME POVERTY RELATIVE TO a/ OVERALL MALNUTRITION AND TO CHRONIC MALNUTRITION, CIRCA 1999



Source: On extreme poverty, ECLAC, *Social panorama of Latin America, 2001–2002* (LC/G.2183–P), Santiago, October 2002. United Nations publication, Sales No. E.02.II.G.65; on overall malnutrition (moderate to serious low body weight), United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), *The State of the World's Children, 2003*, New York, 2003; on chronic malnutrition, Mercedes de Onis, Edward A. Frongillo and Monika Blössner, "Is malnutrition declining? An analysis of changes in the levels of child malnutrition since 1980", *Bulletin of the World Health* Organization, Compilation, No. 4, Geneva, 2001.
a/ The figures on the incidence of extreme poverty are ECLAC estimates based on the closest measurements to 1999.

1 The following Web site provides a list of publications on demographics and health surveys from rounds conducted in Latin American countries: www.measuredhs.com.
2 In the case of Guatemala and Nicaragua, no poverty measurement was available based on household income or consumption (as in the case of Brazil). Rankings from the welfare index provided in the surveys were therefore used to approximate the distinction between indigent, poor and non–indigent and non–poor households.

for Brazil, Guatemala and Nicaragua, countries with very different rates of child malnutrition that can be considered representative of the range of situations to be found in the region.[3] Based on these same surveys, it is also possible to look at a larger number of countries, since all the surveys provide information on low body weight and chronic malnutrition in children under five, disaggregated by maternal educational attainment. This last variable is the principal determinant for the risk of malnutrition, which bears a close relation to the poverty stratum to which mothers belong.

This information is used here to examine to what extent the most extreme manifestation of hunger –child malnutrition– is associated with or determined by insufficient income and other poverty–related factors.

In all three countries, the association between extreme poverty and malnutrition is far from being absolute or even very high. A very large proportion of children under five (over 50% in all countries in the region) living in extremely poor households do not have a low weight–for–age. Conversely, a very large proportion of children under five who are underweight live in households that are not extremely poor, and some live in households that are not classified as poor at all (see table II.1). In other words, if resources to combat malnutrition were concentrated in extremely poor households, they would have failed to reach 66% of malnourished children in Brazil, 56% in Guatemala and 42% in Nicaragua. These examples illustrate what one might have expected: as the incidence of extreme poverty drops, the overall rate of child malnutrition falls and the percentage of malnourished children living in non–indigent households rises.

This statement, though it may seem trivial, indicates that the risk of malnutrition is influenced by many different factors. One of those factors is certainly insufficient access to food as a result of low income, but there is also a set of circumstances that provides protection from malnutrition for boys and girls living in households with very scant resources.[4] There is no other way to explain the fact that 85% of children under five in indigent households in Brazil and Nicaragua do not exhibit moderately or seriously underweight, whereas this problem affects 66% of the infant population in Guatemala.

Among these protective circumstances are biological and metabolic mechanisms that allow people to adapt to low levels of food intake and behavioural adaptations, which often take the form of reduced levels of physical activity and performance (James and Schofield, 1990). Other factors that can mitigate the effects of poverty to some extent are intra–family food distribution patterns that favour children over their mothers and social safety nets that allow low–income households to relieve some of the most extreme effects of insufficient access to food.

3 With the exception of countries with very low rates of malnutrition (close to or less than 5%), such as Chile and Trinidad and Tobago.
4 A recent work by Paes de Barros et al. (2003) examines the relationship between extreme poverty and hunger in Brazil and analyses various hypotheses that could explain the low correlation between indicators.

Table II.1

BRAZIL, GUATEMALA AND NICARAGUA: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CATEGORIES OF POVERTY AND PREVALENCE OF OVERALL MALNUTRITION
(Percentages)

BRAZIL, 1996

	Extreme poverty	Non-extreme poverty	Not poor	Total	Rate of extreme poverty
Malnourished	2	2	2	6	**33**
Not malnourished	11	29	54	94	**12**
Total	13	31	56	100	**13**
Malnutrition rate	**15**	**6**	**4**	**6**	

Source: Ricardo Paes de Barros et al., "On the relationship between malnutrition and extreme poverty", paper presented to the World Food Programme (WFP), Panama City, September 2003.

GUATEMALA, 1995

	Extreme poverty	Non-extreme poverty	Not poor	Total	Rate of extreme poverty
Malnourished	12	9	6	27	**44**
Not malnourished	23	18	32	73	**32**
Total	35	27	38	100	**35**
Malnutrition rate	**34**	**33**	**16**	**27**	

Source: Demographics and Health Survey, 1995.

NICARAGUA, 1998

	Extreme poverty	Non-extreme poverty	Not poor	Total	Rate of extreme poverty
Malnourished	7	3	2	12	**58**
Not malnourished	35	27	25	88	**40**
Total	43	31	27	100	**43**
Malnutrition rate	**16**	**10**	**7**	**12**	

Source: Demographics and Health Survey, 1998.

Just as extreme poverty is a multi–faceted phenomenon, so are hunger and child malnutrition. This type of malnutrition is not only a consequence of the lack of access to food or, more precisely, the lack of monetary income to purchase food. When poverty levels decline thanks to an increase in monetary resources among the neediest households, this does not necessarily or automatically lead to a significant drop in malnutrition. In addition to a sustained increase in the ability to purchase food, there also needs to be a reduction in the adverse impact of other risk factors that are not directly tied to extremely poor households' monetary incomes. These factors include, *inter alia*, sanitary conditions in the home, access to drinking water and an adequate sewage disposal system, access to health care, a knowledge of basic hygiene as it relates to the handling of food and eating habits.

In addition to these risk factors relating to overall living conditions, there are factors that determine the level of "biological risk" associated with poverty which exert an adverse effect per se. Among the most important are a mother's nutritional status and

its influence on her children's birth weight, as well as reproductive behaviour within the population. There is compelling empirical evidence that the risk of malnutrition in infancy is related to low birth weight and the circumstances surrounding the birth, as well as to birth order and the interval between births. The latter two factors are directly linked to higher fertility rates among women with little schooling from lower–income households.

Within this set of complex interactions, a mother's educational level is one of the most influential variables in determining the likelihood that her children will suffer from malnutrition. This is clearly illustrated in table II.2, which shows that the children of unschooled mothers stand at four to five times the risk of being underweight than children of mothers with intermediate or higher education.

One very important consideration in the design of programmes to combat malnutrition is the fact that Latin America and the Caribbean make up the region with the greatest inequalities among social strata in relation to all health indicators, particularly infant mortality and malnutrition rates.[5] In addition to information on the major factors underlying these inequalities (household income and consumption levels, parental education, ethnic origin, access to drinking water, basic sanitation and health care), there is abundant evidence that: (i) all these factors are closed interrelated, and (ii) the population groups most affected by these problems are concentrated in particular areas within the countries, especially in those with the highest rates of malnutrition. This implies that geographic location is an appropriate criterion for setting priorities in resource allocation.

Table II.2

LATIN AMERICA (8 COUNTRIES): OVERALL MALNUTRITION AND CHRONIC MALNUTRITION, BY MATERNAL EDUCATION
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Prevalence of overall malnutrition (moderately to seriously underweight)			Prevalence of chronic malnutrition (moderate to serious stunting)		
			Maternal education			Educación de la madre	
		Total	No education	Secondary or higher education	Total	No education	Secondary or higher education
Bolivia	1998	9.5	20.2	4.4	25.6	44.3	12.6
Brazil	1996	5.7	9.9	2.4	10.5	21.2	4.1
Colombia	2000	67	12.4	4.9	13.5	24.1	9.2
Guatemala	1998–1999	24.2	34.8	6.5	46.4	64.4	12.7
Haiti	2000	17.3	20.8	12.1	22.7	28.7	9.7
Nicaragua	2001	9.6	17.8	4.1	20.2	35.7	8.6
Peru	2000	7.1	16.5	2.8	25.4	51.6	12.6
Dominican Rep.	1996	5.9	15.7	2.6	10.7	23.1	4.5

Source: Demographics and health surveys.

5 See Wagstaff (2002). This paper looks at the inequalities to be observed in health indicators (infant mortality, chronic malnutrition and low body mass, among others) and factors affecting the scale of this problem. The eight Latin American and Caribbean countries (Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Haiti, Nicaragua and Peru) included in the sample of 42 developing countries exhibited the highest inequality indexes, on average, on all these indicators.

The principal conclusion is that programmes for combating poverty should include a specific food and nutrition component that covers both demand–related aspects (guaranteeing universal access to food, especially for those lacking purchasing power) and those relating to other risk factors for malnutrition. In addition, a comprehensive food policy should address the factors involved in ensuring a sufficient food supply to meet the needs of the entire population. The "Fome Zero" programme recently initiated in Brazil is a clear example of a food security policy that includes these elements (see box II.3).

Box II.3

THE "ZERO HUNGER" PROGRAMME: THE NEW THRUST OF SOCIAL POLICY IN BRAZIL

The Government of President Luiz Inácio da Silva has assigned priority to combating hunger and food insecurity within a broad context of initiatives and programmes to improve living conditions for the poor. The "Zero Hunger" programme was launched in an effort to address this problem within a reasonable timeframe. This problem is evidenced by a high percentage of undernourishment (10% according to FAO statistics) and of malnutrition in children (11% of children under five are short for their age).

The programme distinctive features are as follows:

- Explicit recognition that quality food is an inalienable right of all citizens and that it is the State's duty to create conditions that will allow Brazil's people to enjoy this right. a/.
- The statement that the fundamental –though not the only– cause of hunger and food insecurity is the lack of access to food as a result of low family income, principally because of unequal income distribution
- The conviction that the problem of hunger can only be solved through a policy of marshalling action on various fronts and considering the structural and cyclical causes of the phenomenon, which in many cases are related.
- The establishment of a set of initiatives and programmes to address the most pressing situations in the short and medium term, including the programme "*Cartão Alimentação*" (see box II.5).

Conceived as an overall food security policy for Brazil, "Zero Hunger" is, more than simply a programme, a nexus at which multiple aspects of social policy can be coordinated and brought together and most of the social programmes already in existence can be incorporated. The Special Ministry for Food Security and the Fight against Hunger created by the new Administration proposes to achieve the programme's objective through structural, specific and local policies.

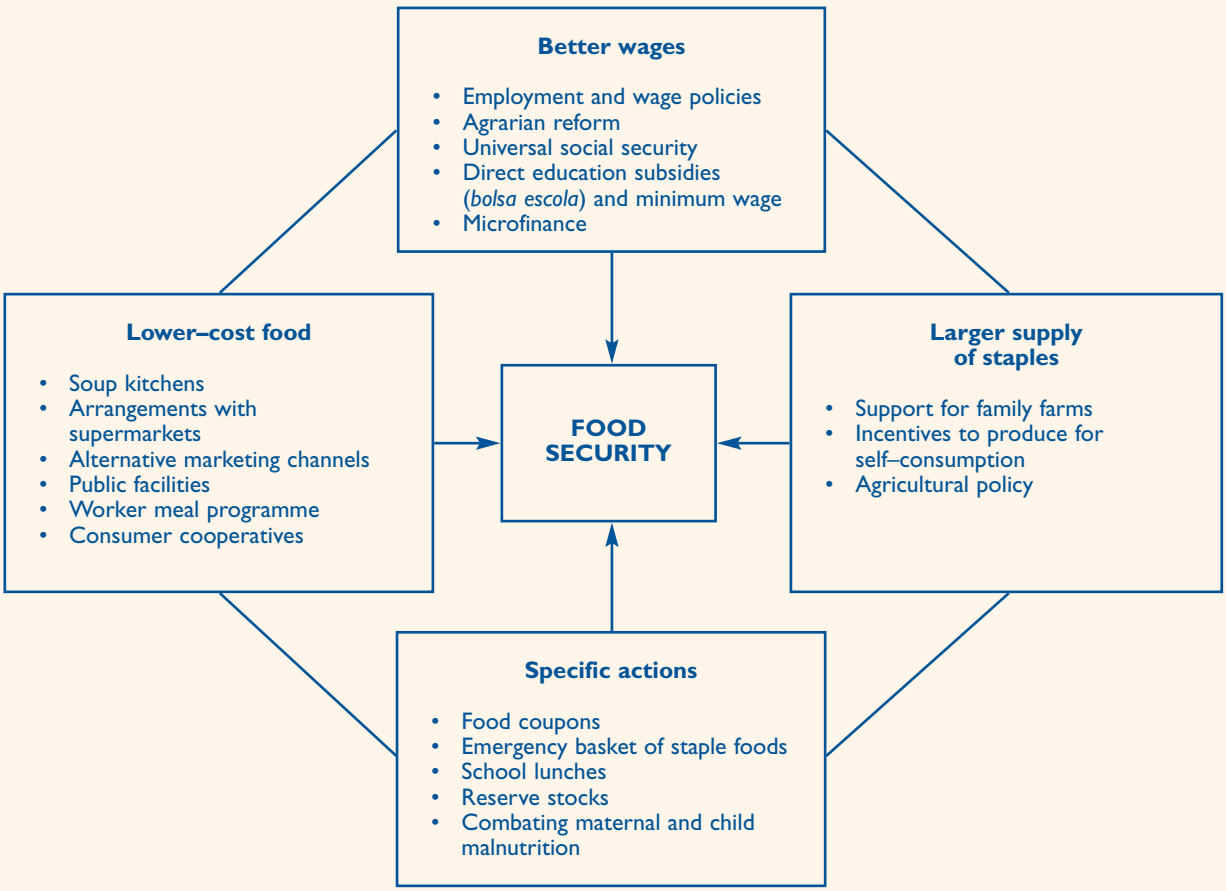
The structural components of these policies are designed to diminish or eradicate households' vulnerability to hunger through a permanent increase in household income and the universalization of social rights and access to a suitable diet in terms of both quantity and quality. The specifically targeted policy components seek to promote food security and directly combat hunger and malnutrition among the neediest sectors of the population. The local policy component encompasses initiatives by states and municipalities, most of which actively involve civil society. Although the intent is that most of the initiatives and programmes included under the first two types of policies are to be carried out in a decentralized fashion, decision–making and coordination take place at the federal level.

The premise is that no one policy or programme in isolation can solve the problem of hunger and food insecurity in Brazil, which is a consequence of low income levels and, according to estimates from late 2001, affects close to 9.3 million households, or 44 million people. An analysis of the problem indicates that, because of the country's high degree of income concentration, low wages and high unemployment levels, which stem from the sluggish pace of activity in potentially job–creating sectors and are inherent to the current economic model, food demand is insufficient; this, in turn, discourages commercial agriculture and agro–industry from producing food for consumption in the country. This sets up a vicious circle of unemployment, low purchasing power, declining food supply, rising unemployment and eroding household incomes, thus leading to an even greater decline in the food supply.

Box II.3 (concluded)

THE "ZERO HUNGER" PROGRAMME: THE NEW THRUST OF SOCIAL POLICY IN BRAZIL

The figure presented below lists the principal "Zero Hunger" policies and shows how they relate to the problem of food (in)security.



Source: Instituto Cidadania, Projeto Fome Zero: Uma proposta de política de segurança alimentar para o Brasil [Project Zero Hunger: Proposal for a food security policy for Brazil], São Paulo, Instituto Cidadania/Fundação Djalma Guimarães, October 2001.

Too little time has passed since the programme's formal launching to permit an assessment of its overall impact, or that of the "*Cartão Alimentação*" (one of its major components) on the population. Nevertheless, implementation of several related initiatives, particularly in the country's poorest states, has enabled local and state authorities to take stock of the difficulties that have arisen and to make adjustments. The lessons learned and the "infrastructure" developed during implementation of the social programmes of prior years have facilitated this task. The compilation of information, preparation of rosters and presence of a vast number of people trained in the application of programmes at the local level (known as "health agents") have contributed to the implementation of complex initiatives, notably those focusing on the identification of target groups for programmes that provide monetary subsidies or assistance in kind, such as the "*Cartão Alimentação*".

a/ See da Silva (2001).

C. Food supply and undernourishment

In the global context, the domestic food supply in Latin America and Caribbean countries ranges from medium to high levels. This is largely attributable to increases in agricultural productivity and the expansion of international trade in food products in recent decades. Nevertheless, several countries –mainly in Central America and the Caribbean– lag far behind in terms of food availability, and this situation is reflected in high rates of undernourishment and malnutrition. This has much to do with the low levels of technology use and agricultural productivity associated with economies where this sector accounts for a large portion of domestic output, their modest foreign–exchange earnings from exports and the need to import large volumes of food. The variability of world prices for basic grains and coffee, natural disasters and weather conditions have all had a significant impact both on the profitability of agricultural exports and on import capacity. This, in turn, heightened the vulnerability of food security systems in the countries of the region and, in some cases, led to an increase in undernourishment.

One of the critical elements of a country's food security status is its domestic food supply. Although aggregate food availability does not in itself guarantee adequate food and nutrition for the entire population, it is a *sine qua non* condition for the satisfaction of demand.

As noted earlier, the reduction in undernourishment seen in the region is largely explained by a hefty increase in the countries' food supply. It must be recognized, however, that supply has risen unevenly and that the absolute levels of dietary energy supply are quite heterogeneous among the region's countries.

A number of factors have an impact on food supply, its rate of growth and the ability to meet domestic demand: (i) agricultural production and growth, which are in turn tied to the level of production technology, export capacity and conditions, land tenure concentration and type of land use; (ii) the ability to use exports to generate sufficient foreign exchange for food imports; and (iii) sustainability over time of production and

export levels for food and other products and, hence, of food import levels.

According to which of these factors exerts a predominant influence over food supply levels and variability at any given point in time, it is possible to identify cyclical declines or problems with respect to aggregate food availability, i.e., mismatches between production or supply and aggregate demand caused by weather disturbances, pests, price fluctuations, strikes and so on. Structural problems exist as well: persistent mismatches between the food supply and aggregate demand owing to deteriorating terms of trade or insufficient food import capacity, inadequate transport and storage infrastructure, the continued application of policies that discourage agricultural investment and therefore stand in the way of its modernization and development and a loss of production potential (as a result of salinization, poor land use and erosion, desertification, etc.).

The following sections provide an overview of the food supply in the countries of Latin America and the Caribbean, trends in this respect and its stabilization in the 1990s. The extent of the countries' dependence on food imports is also discussed.

1. Adequacy of dietary energy supply

Dietary energy supply (DES) represents the final supply of food for human consumption expressed in terms of daily kilocalories per person. It is calculated by adding together annual food production, stocks carried over from the previous period and imports, less food exports and foods used for purposes other than human consumption (animal feed, processing of other products, seed, losses). FAO keeps accounts on the kilocalories available for human consumption by means of its food balance sheets.

As might be expected, food sufficiency depends mainly on the volume of agricultural production, the percentage of the latter allocated for export and the volume exported. Accordingly, variations in production and export levels and each country's capacity to earmark resources for food imports largely determine the level and diversity of energy supply. Considering the various levels of inequality seen in the Latin American and Caribbean countries in terms of people's access to food, the estimated prevalence of undernourishment will largely depend on the ability of national economies to produce or import food in sufficient quantities.[6]

Table II.3 shows food supply levels at the beginning and end of the last decade. Generally speaking, Latin America and the Caribbean posted medium to high levels of food availability in overall terms: in 1998–2000 the average DES for the 23 countries was 2,827 kilocalories per person per day (kcal/person/day), which is slightly higher than the world average (2,791 kcal/person/day) and 13% less than the level for developed countries taken as a whole, but 17% higher than in Africa and much higher than the level recorded for the least developed region of Africa (29%).

6 A country's domestic food supply is also determined by effective demand, which is associated with the population's purchasing power and, thus, levels of poverty and extreme poverty. Any increase in domestic supply and demand for food is therefore associated primarily with lower relative food prices, given the increase in local food supply and/or the drop in prices for imports, or the increase in average income.

Table II.3

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (23 COUNTRIES): DIETARY ENERGY SUPPLY (1990-2000)
(Kilocalories per person per day and cumulative percentage change)

Country	Dietary energy supply (kcal/person/day)			Cumulative percentage change		
	1990/1992	1994/1996	1998/2000	1994/1996–1990/1992	1998/2000–1994/1996	1998/2000–1990/1992
Argentina	2 994	3 163	3 181	5.6	0.6	6.2
Bolivia	2 144	2 155	2 211	0.5	2.6	3.1
Brazil	2 790	2 862	2 957	2.6	3.3	6.0
Chile	2 612	2 754	2 845	5.4	3.3	8.9
Colombia	2 435	2 542	2 568	4.4	1.0	5.5
Costa Rica	2 720	2 757	2 782	1.4	0.9	2.3
Ecuador	2 508	2 666	2 676	6.3	0.4	6.7
El Salvador	2 492	2 514	2 454	0.9	-2.4	-1.5
Guatemala	2 403	2 355	2 165	-2.0	-8.1	-9.9
Guyana	2 350	2 531	2 522	7.7	-0.4	7.3
Haiti	1 794	1 813	2 036	1.0	12.3	13.5
Honduras	2 313	2 371	2 392	2.5	0.9	3.4
Jamaica	2 503	2 606	2 670	4.1	2.4	6.7
Mexico	3 131	3 139	3 146	0.3	0.2	0.5
Nicaragua	2 209	2 133	2 238	-3.4	4.9	1.3
Panama	2 359	2 400	2 407	1.7	0.3	2.0
Paraguay	2 393	2 557	2 544	6.9	-0.5	6.3
Peru	1 979	2 357	2 598	19.1	10.2	31.3
Dominican Republic	2 260	2 288	2 309	1.2	0.9	2.1
Suriname	2 548	2 623	2 617	2.9	-0.2	2.7
Trinidad and Tobago	2 638	2 589	2 681	-1.9	3.5	1.6
Uruguay	2 662	2 789	2 853	4.8	2.3	7.2
Venezuela	2 465	2 413	2 277	-2.1	-5.6	-7.6
Simple average	2 465	2 538	2 571	3.0	1.3	4.3
Weighted average	2 706	2 782	2 827	2.8	1.6	4.5

Source: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), "FAOSTAT – Nutrition, Food, Balance Sheets" (http://faostat.fao.org), 2003.

A better evaluation of the adequacy of the food supply can be obtained by examining the relationship between food supply and inequality in access to food and the resulting rate of undernourishment. As indicated in the previous section, for intermediate levels in term of food supply (ranging from 2,200 to 2,700 kcal/person/day), the problem of unequal access is fundamental in determining levels of undernourishment. When the food supply drops below 2,200 kcal/person/day (in which case undernourishment tends to be widespread throughout the population) or rises above 2,700 or even 3,000 kcal/person/day (indicative of an abundance of food), then lowering inequality in access to food does not substantially affect undernourishment rates. According to this classification, the average DES in Latin America and the Caribbean is medium–high. However, the situation is quite heterogeneous: the seven countries with the smallest food supply in 1998–2000 (Bolivia, Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Haiti, Nicaragua and Venezuela) posted 2,220 kcal/person/day, which is only slightly higher than the figure for sub–Saharan Africa, the poorest region in the world (2,199 kcal/person/day); on the other hand, the seven countries with the most abundant food supply (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Mexico and Uruguay) attained 3,030 kcal/person/ day over the same period, or 36% more than the first group and 7% more than the Latin American average.

Generally speaking, a gradual increase in food supply levels can be observed in the countries of Latin America and the Caribbean: on average, between 1990–1992 and 1998–2000, the DES rose by 4.5%. Notable was an increase of just over 30% in Peru, leading to a significant reduction (from 40% to 11% according to FAO estimates) in the percentage of undernourished people during the period. Haiti –the country with the smallest food supply and highest undernourishment rate in Latin America and the Caribbean– also posted a significant increase in the food supply (about 14% over the period), which goes a long way towards explaining the drop from 64% to 50% in the rate of undernourishment. There are exceptions, however: El Salvador, Guatemala and Venezuela exhibited declines of -1.5%, -9.9% and -7.6% respectively, with a consequent increase in undernourishment, which nearly doubled in the last two countries (see figure II.1 and table II.7). Overall, the six countries with the lowest DES in 1998–2000 showed a drop of 2.7% in food supply over the past decade, while the six with the highest DES posted an increase of 4.4% during the period.

The foregoing points to the existence of a process that is very characteristic of Latin America and the Caribbean: most of the countries have an adequate food supply to meet minimum or even average nutritional requirements for the entire population, and the presence of undernourishment is therefore mainly a result of unequal access to food owing to the inadequate purchasing power of the poorest population groups. To the extent that the countries in the region with the highest DES have had, and continue to have, room for expansion in their domestic food supply, disparities across countries have tended to increase. This has broadened the gap between them and countries with a smaller food supply, and some of the latter have actually lost ground in this respect.

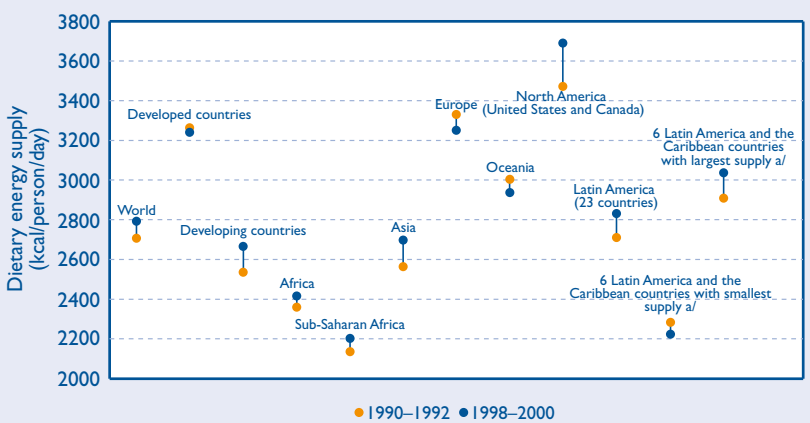
2. Agriculture and how it has evolved in the region

The agricultural sector in the Latin American countries, whose development is key to understanding the problem of food insecurity in the region, has seen its share of domestic output gradually shrink:

Figure II.4

GLOBAL DIETARY ENERGY SUPPLY BETWEEN 1990–1992 AND 1998–2000

(Kilocalories per person per day)



Source: FAO statistical database (FAOSTAT), food balance sheets.

a/ The six countries with the smallest food supply in 1998–2000 were Bolivia, Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Haiti, Nicaragua and Venezuela; the six with the largest were Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Mexico and Uruguay.

in 1990 it accounted for an average of 14.2% of GDP for the countries overall; by 2000 its share had dropped to 13.7%. Agriculture has also created fewer and fewer jobs; in some countries, agricultural employment has even decreased in absolute terms. However, the agricultural sector's GDP grew by an average of 2.5% per annum, or a little less than total GDP, while food production rose at a rate of 2.7% per annum. Two of the factors associated with this upturn are the increasing use of production technology on the region's farms (which has led to productivity gains) and the expansion of the amount of land under cultivation.

Table II.4 indicates that little progress has been made in mechanizing agriculture and that, on average, ground has actually been lost in this respect, in part owing to the increase in the area under cultivation. However, the table also points to huge disparities in the use of agricultural technology: in 2000, Bolivia, Colombia, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Guyana, Honduras, Jamaica and Panama all posted ratios of more than 200 hectares of arable land per tractor. This indicates both a low use rate for agricultural technology and an underutilization of arable land.

Table II.4

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (23 COUNTRIES): SHARE OF AGRICULTURAL GDP IN TOTAL GDP, CHANGE IN AGRICULTURAL GDP AND FOOD PRODUCTION, AGRICULTURAL MECHANIZATION, 1990–2000

	Share of agricultural GDP a/ in total GDP		Annual rate of growth in agricultural GDP a/			Annual rate of growth in food production			Mechanization (ha arable land per tractor)	
	1990	2000	1990–1995	1995–2000	1990–2000	1990–1995	1995–2000	1990–2000	1990	2000
Argentina	5.8	5.1	3.9	1.4	2.6	2.7	3.3	3.0	101	97
Bolivia	15.4	14.3	3.5	2.5	3.0	4.0	4.1	4.1	408	368
Brazil	8.0	8.2	3.1	2.9	3.0	5.2	3.3	4.2	79	81
Chile	6.4	5.6	6.3	2.7	4.5	4.6	0.8	2.7	85	43
Colombia	15.5	14.0	2.0	1.0	1.5	2.3	0.6	1.4	156	216
Costa Rica	12.7	11.6	4.8	3.3	4.1	5.0	3.5	4.2	79	72
Ecuador	12.3	11.7	2.9	-0.1	1.4	5.7	2.7	4.2	644	854
El Salvador	16.5	12.1	1.4	0.8	1.1	0.6	2.5	1.6	336	337
Guatemala	23.0	20.2	2.8	2.7	2.8	3.0	0.5	1.7	237	236
Guyana	40.8	45.6	12.5	4.3	8.8	15.5	0.9	8.0	425	443
Haiti	19.7	18.6	-5.7	0.2	-2.8	-2.0	3.1	0.5	138	137
Honduras	20.5	19.1	3.6	1.0	2.3	0.2	3.2	1.6	4 525	6 500
Jamaica	7.4	7.3	6.3	-2.8	2.2	2.5	-0.3	1.1	403	274
Mexico	5.1	4.2	1.3	1.8	1.5	3.8	2.0	2.9	72	89
Nicaragua	30.8	36.7	3.3	6.9	5.1	2.1	7.3	4.7	152	148
Panama	8.9	7.1	2.3	2.2	2.2	0.2	1.9	1.1	852	1 017
Paraguay	25.6	25.6	2.4	1.1	1.7	2.8	2.7	2.7	129	131
Peru	8.2	9.2	4.8	5.8	5.3	5.6	6.6	6.1	146	144
Dominican Rep.	13.4	11.2	2.8	5.0	3.9	0.4	2.0	1.2	309	319
Suriname	15.4	13.4	1.0	-3.3	-0.9	1.5	-5.3	-2.0	53	50
Trinidad and Tobago	1.9	1.4	2.1	-0.6	0.9	1.6	1.3	1.4	46	45
Uruguay	8.2	7.6	5.1	-0.5	2.2	3.4	2.9	3.1	40	41
Venezuela	5.9	5.2	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.3	2.0	1.7	81	69
Simple average	14.2	13.7	3.2	1.7	2.5	3.1	2.2	2.7	413	509

Source: ECLAC, *Statistical Yearbook on Latin America and the Caribbean, 2002* (LC/G.2190–P), Santiago, April 2003. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.03.II.G.01.
a/ Includes agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing.

Food production trends have differed across countries, and output has grown more slowly since the second half of the 1990s. Chile, Colombia, Guatemala, Guyana, Jamaica and Suriname have shown smaller increases than the regional average and even decreases in some cases. On average, in this subset of countries food production has grown by just 0.5% per annum, except in the case of Suriname, where it declined by 5.3% between 1995 and 2000. Of the 23 countries considered, 13 showed a decrease over the period 1990–1995 in the growth rate of the food supply. Those countries which today have the highest rates of undernourishment, associated essentially with an inadequate food supply (Bolivia, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua and Panama), increased food production at an average annual rate of 2.1% (23.1% total), while, at 3% per annum on average (cumulatively 34.4%), growth was faster in the remaining countries.

3. Food supply stability and autonomy

As mentioned earlier, a country's domestic DES depends largely on its ability to produce food and other goods and services and to export and import food, while the stability of supply depends on the variability of those flows. The level, efficiency and diversity of agricultural production influence whether it will be directed to the domestic or the export market, as well as the volume and structure of food imports.

Table II.5 presents, as a measure of stability, the number of times that the DES fell by 2% or more in one year during the period 1991–2000 (a reduction on the order of 50 kcal/person/day). By this measure, El Salvador, Guatemala, Panama and Venezuela were the countries with the least stable food supply during the last decade. Guatemala stands out in particular, with a 9.9% drop in DES, mainly as a result of four consecutive years of declines amounting to -2% or more starting in 1993. The six countries with the lowest food supply in 1998–2000 recorded, on average, two annual declines of 2% or more in their DES, while the six with the largest food supply recorded no such decrease.

Since, to some extent, instability in the food supply relates to the ability to export food and thus generate foreign exchange for imports, an examination of the degree of stability of exports is of interest. Considering years in which food exports (expressed in kcal/person/day) fell by 10% or more from the previous year, Argentina, Dominican Republic, Haiti, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay and Venezuela have been the most unstable countries. Since Argentina has the largest food supply in the region, instability in its exports is not the determining factor in the availability of food for its population. Also, although Venezuela's food supply is low for the region and has trended downward, instability in its food exports does not have a significant effect on its import capacity given the importance of oil exports within the balance of trade. The six countries with lower DES levels are not in a strong position, since their exports have fallen by 10% or more on an average of just under four occasions during the past decade.

Variations in the DES are of particular concern when the domestic food supply is low and depends largely on import capacity. This situation can become critical if a country's import capacity is eroded by an increase in world food prices or a reduction in available financial resources (mainly export earnings) to meet demand. The information presented in table II.5 shows that the six countries with the lowest DES produced 2,593 kcal/person/day in 1998–2000 as a simple average, or about 38% of the 6,889 kcal/person/day produced during the same period by the countries with the most abundant food supply.

Table II.5

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: FOOD PRODUCTION AND EXPORTS; STABILITY OF DIETARY ENERGY SUPPLY; DEPENDENCE OF FOOD SUPPLY ON FOOD IMPORTS IN 1998–2000

Country	Food supply a/			Stability of food supply		Food imports		Average balance of trade 1998–2000			
	Dietary energy supply (DES)	Food production	Food exports	Number of annual declines recorded between 1991 and 2000 of		Percentage of total food stock b/ (expressed in kcal/person/day)		Value of food exports as a % of exports	Value of food imports as a % of		
	1998–2000	1998–2000	1998–2000	-2% in DES	-10% in exports	1990–1992	1998–2000		Food exports	Total imports	Total exports
	(Kcal/person/day)					(Percentage)		(Percentage of ratios in 1995 dollars)			
Argentina	3 181	15 803	4 797	0	4	1.0	2.2	33.8	12.4	4.1	4.4
Bolivia	2 211	5 136	137	1	3	14.0	15.3	16.2	72.8	7.9	11.8
Brazil	2 957	6 324	703	0	1	7.5	11.2	19.5	40.0	7.0	7.8
Chile	2 845	3 766	823	0	2	18.8	38.4	22.8	27.8	6.5	6.3
Colombia	2 568	2 863	347	0	1	12.9	28.3	24.1	42.7	9.8	10.2
Costa Rica	2 782	4 546	1 669	0	2	31.4	52.9	32.2	20.4	6.1	6.5
Ecuador	2 676	3 671	696	1	1	17.0	22.4	49.9	16.5	9.0	8.5
El Salvador	2 454	2 426	524	2	1	31.3	42.5	41.3	89.9	13.8	36.9
Guatemala	2 165	3 123	1 314	5	2	21.8	35.4	54.2	33.1	9.8	17.9
Guyana	2 522	8 850	6 125	1	1	35.8	32.8	...	...	...	...
Haiti	2 036	1 106	3	1	4	39.1	48.2	...	...	...	...
Honduras	2 392	2 457	162	0	3	14.7	29.1	62.8	51.2	15.4	31.7
Jamaica	2 670	1 875	743	1	1	62.2	70.2	18.7	195.8	15.1	36.6
Mexico	3 146	4 115	205	0	2	25.5	35.2	4.4	100.6	4.0	4.4
Nicaragua	2 238	2 272	256	1	5	27.7	28.9	74.7	54.6	13.7	40.7
Panama	2 407	2 619	599	3	4	34.1	52.2	69.6	68.0	10.0	47.3
Paraguay	2 544	11 953	508	0	6	2.5	5.7	21.0	70.6	5.6	14.8
Peru	2 598	3 175	554	0	2	36.3	34.0	22.6	67.2	12.1	15.0
Dominican Republic	2 309	1 937	318	0	4	42.8	58.2	...	...	...	...
Suriname	2 617	3 425	1 261	0	3	40.3	46.0	...	...	...	...
Trinidad and Tobago	2 681	1 281	993	1	1	68.8	97.6	5.2	170.6	8.6	9.0
Uruguay	2 853	6 782	3 287	0	2	16.2	26.0	45.4	28.9	8.9	13.1
Venezuela	2 277	1 984	70	4	4	39.8	48.8	1.8	362.5	9.6	6.2
Simple average. 6 countries with lowest DES in 1998–2000	2 206	2 593	350	2.0	3.7	30.9	39.1	36.7	130.8	10.2	19.2
Simple average. 6 countries with highest DES in 1998–2000	2 961	6 889	1 914	0.0	2.2	16.7	27.6	26.4	38.4	6.1	7.1
Simple average	2 571	4 413	1 134	0.9	2.6	27.9	37.5	32.6	80.3	9.3	17.3

Source: ECLAC, using FAO data base and methodology, and Loganaden Naiken, FAO Methodology for Estimating the Prevalence of Undernourishment, Rome, Statistics Division, 2002.

a/ The full balance of food supply includes production, exports, imports, changes in stocks and uses other than for human consumption (animal feed, processing for other products, seed, losses, etc.).

b/ The total food stock comprises the domestic food supply for human consumption and other uses.

Since a large part of agricultural production is destined for export markets and is not necessarily produced in the quantity, quality and variety required by the population given its actual eating habits, all the countries import some part of their population's diet. Thus, a population's food supply becomes more vulnerable when agricultural production is insufficient (in quantity and variety) to supply the domestic market and generate significant foreign exchange through exports, and the food supply thus comes to depend largely on imports and their price fluctuations.

Table II.5 shows the proportion of the total food stock (i.e., total internal food supply regardless of whether it is intended for human consumption or other uses) that comes from food imports. Naturally enough, as shown by simple averages for the period 1998–2000, the countries with a greater dependence on imports are island economies. The Dominican Republic, Haiti, Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago import an average of just over 68% of the total food stock, whereas the remaining countries import, on average, less than 31%. The six countries with the least food supply import just over 39% of their total food supply on average, which does not differ strikingly from the 28% recorded by the countries with the most abundant food supply. The gap has been closing over the past decade, for while the former imported nearly 31% of food during the period 1990–1992, the latter imported just 17%. This attests to the effect of globalization and increasing international trade on the market for food products.

A broader view of the food supply process becomes visible if one reviews the degree of autonomy or dependency on food imports from the standpoint of the financial burden they represent in terms of the need to generate export earnings, whether from food exports or other products. First of all, for the period 1998–2000, there are differences across countries with respect to earnings from food exports as a proportion of total exports. Although, as a simple average of the 19 countries for which such information is available, the percentage is close to 33% of total exports, countries such as Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and Panama obtain more than 50% of their export revenues from sales of food. In more general terms, and if Venezuela is excluded,[7] the group of countries with the smallest food supply obtains average revenues on food exports of close to 50% of their total exports; the group with the most abundant food supply, on the other hand, obtains just over one quarter of its export revenues from food sales.

In addition, the countries' ability to finance food imports based on food exports (i.e., whether or not the countries of Latin America and the Caribbean are able to maintain a favourable balance of trade in this category) is a relevant consideration. Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago –the only island countries for which data are available– and Venezuela have the most unfavourable trade balance figures in this respect. The countries with the lowest DES, except for Venezuela, import the equivalent of 54% of the value of their food exports, on average. The corresponding figure for the countries with the largest food supply is slightly over 38%.

7 The fact that food represents so small a share of Venezuela's total exports (1.8%) is largely attributable to the fact that so large a percentage of its total exports corresponds to oil.

Finally, those countries that have to use the largest proportion of their export earnings to pay for food imports are El Salvador, Honduras, Jamaica, Nicaragua and Panama, with 30% or more of total export revenues being used for this purpose. This category also highlights the difference between the six countries with the lowest DES and the six countries with the highest: 19.2% compared to just 7.1%.

Generally speaking, setting national differences aside, it can be said that it is precisely the countries with the lowest levels of DES (and the highest levels of undernourishment) that generate a higher proportion of foreign exchange through agricultural products and depend the most on food imports, despite their scant agricultural export earnings. Much of the difficulty they face in sustaining and increasing food supply has to do with fluctuations in prices, in particular for basic grains and coffee (see box II.4).

Box II.4

THE EFFECTS OF DROUGHT AND FALLING COFFEE PRICES IN CENTRAL AMERICA

In recent years, the agricultural sector in Central America has borne the brunt of both global market behaviour and weather phenomena that have greatly eroded production volumes.

Externally, the vast abundance of exportable agricultural products and, in recent years, weak demand for agricultural imports have led to an increase in surpluses and a drop in world prices for most of these products, in particular for basic grains. In addition, the heavy influx of foreign capital during the 1990s, reflected in currency appreciation, exposed agricultural producers to intense competition that has worked to the detriment of production conditions and income.

World prices for some basic grains

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	1999	2001
	(Dollars per ton)						(Index 1996=100)	
Rice	464.0	441.5	446.3	450.7	367.3	306.6	97.1	66.1
Maize	164.6	117.3	101.6	90.2	88.2	89.6	54.8	54.4
Wheat	222.0	171.3	135.0	120.1	122.2	135.9	54.1	61.2
Sorghum	150.0	109.6	98.0	84.4	88.0	95.2	56.3	63.5

Source: ECLAC, "Istmo Centroamericano: los retos de la sustentabilidad en granos básicos" [The Central America Isthmus: The challenge of sustainability in basic grains] (LC/MEX/L.554), Mexico, ECLAC Subregional Headquarters, May 2003.

Successive natural disasters have pointed up the vulnerability of Central American agriculture. Hurricane Mitch, in whose wake loan defaults and demands for reinvestment continue to mount, was followed by two earthquakes in El Salvador in early 2001 and then a drought that has affected all of the countries in the region to some extent. a/

Between May and August 2001, the period during which basic grain crops' demand for water is the greatest, rainfall fell to record lows that were below the minimum required for agriculture. The reduced rainfall led to a significant drop in yields, already quite low in international terms, and the loss of the entire crop in some areas. Irregular rains in 2002 only exacerbated the problem.

With an estimated 18% of the region's production lost to drought, stocks declined and even more resources had to be earmarked for food imports. Living conditions deteriorated for some 600,000 inhabitants of rural areas.

Box II.4

THE EFFECTS OF DROUGHT AND FALLING COFFEE PRICES IN CENTRAL AMERICA

Central America: estimated losses of basic grains due to drought during the 2000–2001 crop year

Type of grain	Lost production (000s of quintals)	Value of losses (millions of dollars)
Maize	7 058	62.4
Beans	930	21.9
Rice	1 241	13.5
Sorghum	1 341	8.8
Total	10 570	110.4

Source: ECLAC, "El impacto socioeconómico y ambiental de la sequía en 2001 en Centroamérica" [The socio–economic and environmental impact of the 2001 drought in Central America"] (LC/MEX/L.510/Rev.1), Mexico, ECLAC Subregional Headquarters, Central American Environment and Development Commission (CCAD), November 2002.

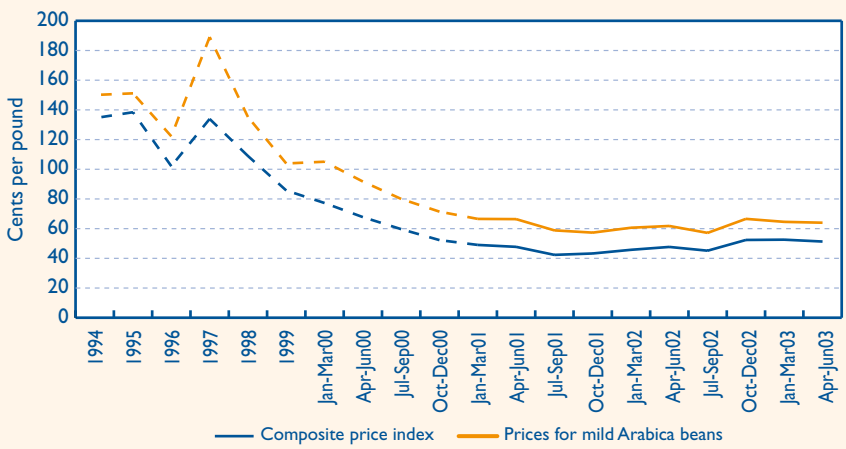
This aggravated the already difficult situation faced by agriculture in the region, which was reeling from an unprecedented crisis in the coffee sector. The world coffee production surplus has greatly increased stocks in the past five years, sending prices on world markets spiralling downward. In 2001, coffee exports brought in an estimated US$ 713 million less than their average during the five–year period 1994–1998 (a loss equivalent to some 1.2% of regional GDP for that year), and their share of total exports of goods fell from 16% during that same period to 7% in 2001.

Value of coffee exports
(Millions of dollars)

	1998	1999	2000	2001
Costa Rica	409.4	288.7	272.0	161.9
El Salvador	323.7	245.1	297.9	115.1
Guatemala	586.5	562.6	573.7	306.5
Honduras	103.3	429.8	256.1	340.6
Nicaragua	173.4	135.3	170.9	104.9
Panama	23.9	18.5	16.0	11.1

Source: ECLAC, "Itsmo Centroamericano: evolución del sector agropecuario, 2001–2002" [The Central American Isthmus: Developments in the agriculture sector 2001–2002] (LC/MEX/L.550), Mexico, Subregional Headquarters, February 2003; for the case of Honduras, ECLAC, Latin America and Caribbean External Trade Database (BADECEL).

Changes in world coffee prices, composite price index and prices for mild arabica beans



Source: International Coffee Organization (ICO), official Web site (http://www.ico.org).

Box II.4 (concluded)

THE EFFECTS OF DROUGHT AND FALLING COFFEE PRICES IN CENTRAL AMERICA

The economic and social impact on coffee–growing areas was significant, as falling prices caused a sharp drop in revenues for the nearly 300,000 coffee producers in the region. This, in turn, led to problems in the repayment of debts and in obtaining access to new loans. Labour demand contracted sharply, triggering a loss of the equivalent of 170,000 permanent jobs in 2001 and the loss of some US$ 140 million in wages. Considering the magnitude of the oversupply, coffee prices are not expected to recover significantly in the short term.

The features and structural dynamics of the agricultural sector in the region –a vast expanse of cropland devoted to livestock, the use of fertile land for non–traditional cash crops, the atomization of agricultural land for subsistence farming, low yields as a result of poor use of technology, overexploitation of fragile areas and deforestation through slash and burn techniques, and declining biodiversity– translate into a highly vulnerable food security situation. In this context, natural disasters, declining international demand and falling prices for basic grains and coffee exports are having disastrous effects on the quality of life for local populations and economies, mainly on slopes and dry tropical areas. This has greatly exacerbated the food deficit for a large part of Central America's rural areas.

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a/ The estimated toll of both earthquakes was 1,142 dead and more than 8,000 injured, the disappearance of 41,440 micro– and small enterprises and 55,000 jobs, the destruction or damage of the housing of 25.6% of the population in El Salvador and an additional 250,000 people joining the ranks of the extremely poor. Total losses mounted to US$ 1.6 billion, equivalent to 13% of GDP and 55% of the country's exports in 2000. See UNDP. The effects of more predictable natural phenomena, such as the El Niño and La Niña ocean currents, must also be taken into account. An estimate prior to the drought placed the aggregate amount of economic damage from natural phenomena in the region at an average of 2% of GDP since 1972. See ECLAC (2002b).

The Latin American and Caribbean region has gradually increased its food supply over the past 30 years. According to FAO statistics, the major strides made during the periods 1969–1971 and 1979–1981 in the 23 countries of the region (the DES rose by 7%) were followed by a slight contraction (a cumulative -0.9% between 1979–1981 and 1990–1992 as a simple average). Subsequently, during the 1990s, growth was moderate (a simple average rate of 4.3%), placing the region among those with a medium–to–large food supply. Naturally, there were exceptions; in El Salvador, Guatemala and Venezuela, the per capita daily food supply shrank, and the gaps between countries at the low and high ends of the spectrum widened, though only slightly.

Part of the region's food supply shortage is attributable to a technological lag in the agricultural sector, which is closely tied to low crop yields and ongoing deforestation and desertification. This makes the poorest countries' food supply systems more vulnerable, as they are obliged to depend on imports; this leaves them at the mercy of fluctuations in world food prices and obliges them to use a large part of their export receipts for food imports.

It must be remembered, however, that since the region's food supply is in the moderate–to–high range, existing levels of undernourishment are explained largely by persistent inequalities in access to food, as outlined below.

D. Inequalities in access to food

Very low income levels in large sectors of the population and the resulting lack of access to food of adequate quantity and quality are one of the major causes of food insecurity and hunger in Latin America and the Caribbean. Generally speaking, the region produces sufficient food to meet the nutritional needs of all its inhabitants (just three of 23 countries produce 2,200 kilocalories or less per person per day), making it clear that hunger has more to do with highly unequal income distribution and consumption than with an inadequate food supply. Problems regarding food access are complicated by the fact that inequalities are heightened by disparities between the inhabitants of a given country caused by geographical location as well as ethnic, family and gender–related factors. During the 1990s, inequalities in food access either remained stable or increased in nearly all the countries in the region; thus, the reduction that was achieved in undernourishment was attributable mainly to an increase in the aggregate food supply.

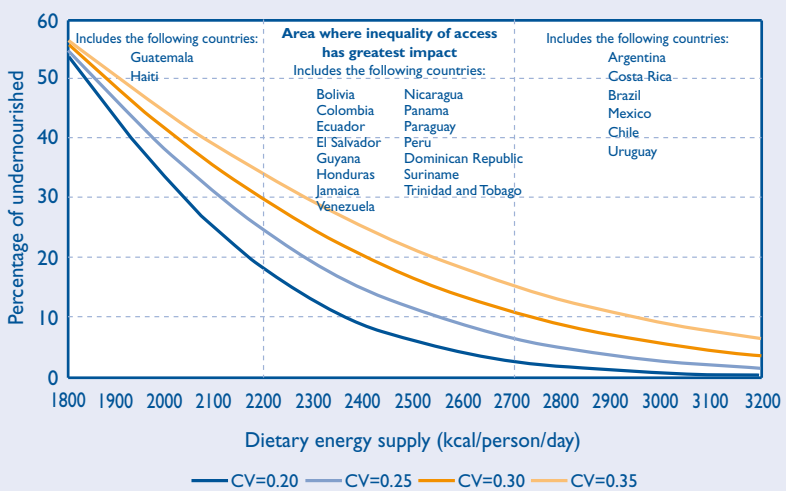
Because of the concentrated pattern of income distribution in Latin America and the Caribbean, many countries exhibit high levels of inequality in food consumption. This fact pushes undernourishment higher than it would otherwise be, given the region's production and import capacity. Figure II.5 illustrates the effect of this inequality in food access on the level of undernourishment present in the countries. At a given level of food supply, greater inequality of access to food leads to a higher increase in the undernourishment rate. This increase is more pronounced in countries providing dietary energy of between 2,200 and 2,700 kcal/person/day. Most of the Latin American countries that have relatively high rates of undernourishment have dietary energy supplies within that range. The exceptions are Guatemala and Haiti, at under 2,200 kilocalories (below which the aggregate food supply becomes critical) and Bolivia, at just over that amount. In these cases, undernourishment is attributable more to an inadequate food supply than to unequal access, although inequalities are undoubtedly present as well.

The situation is quite different in the six countries whose food supply provides energy well above 2,700 kilocalories per day: Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Mexico and Uruguay. By the end of the 1990s, undernourishment stood at 10% or less in all these countries, even though the two most heavily populated ones (Brazil and Mexico) exhibited very high inequalities in food access; in fact, only Haiti and Nicaragua had a coefficient of variability in food consumption as high as Brazil (0.35) or Mexico (0.32).[8] In these countries, inequality exacerbated the population's nutritional problems but was offset in part by the wide margin by which the food supply exceeded minimum energy requirements.

Given these circumstances, policies to combat hunger in the region –even in countries with the lowest undernourishment rates– must be oriented towards reducing the inequalities in access, since, in countries with medium–to–low food supply levels, such inequalities necessarily translate into underconsumption and malnutrition. Brazil's war on poverty, now the major thrust of social policy (see box II.3), is to be seen against this backdrop. Although Brazil currently has close to 2,960 kilocalories available per person per day (higher than the simple average for the countries of the region, which stands at 2,571) and is a net exporter of food, an estimated 10% of the population is undernourished, and close to 11% of children under five suffer from chronic malnutrition. There is no doubt that pronounced inequalities in income distribution and access to food, magnified by regional disparities, are what make hunger such a pressing problem in Brazil. This is the rationale for

Figure II.5

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DIETARY ENERGY SUPPLY (DES) AND UNDERNOURISHMENT ACCORDING TO VARIOUS HYPOTHESES OF INEQUALITY IN FOOD ACCESS a/



Source: ECLAC, based on data and methodology from the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), and Loganaden Naiken, *FAO Methodology for Estimating the Prevalence of Undernourishment*, Rome, Statistics Division, 2002.

a/ Refers to the coefficient of variability in the distribution of food consumption, expressed in kcal/person/day, in various strata of the population. The figure shows undernourishment levels when the coefficient reaches the values 0.20, 0.25, 0.30 and 0.35, with a minimum requirement of 1,800 kcal/person/day, similar to the simple average in Latin America and the Caribbean, which is 1,808 kcal/person/day.

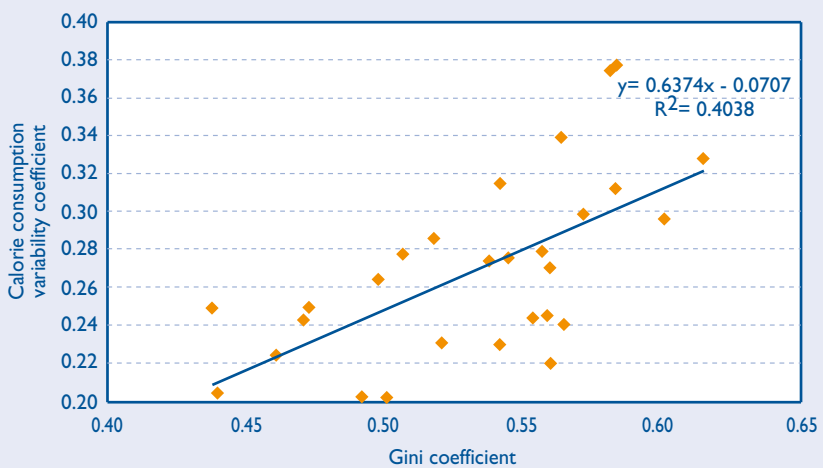
8 See table II.7.

directing a substantial portion of efforts to eradicate hunger, channelled through the programme "Fome Zero", at securing a rapid and sustained increase in food purchasing power for the poorest. Complementary actions are intended to raise agricultural production, reinforce the positive effects of the increase in purchasing power and prevent the rise in demand from pushing up prices for staples (see box II.5).

Although unequal access to food is related to unequal income distribution, the link is not a direct one, but is instead mediated by per capita income (see figure II.6). As income rises, a smaller proportion is used for food, and differences in consumption across strata, expressed in kilocalories, tend to narrow. This explains why significant and permanent declines in the incidence of absolute poverty in the countries are accompanied by a higher increase in food consumption among the poorest strata and reduced inequality of access. The decline in absolute poverty is not necessarily accompanied by a decrease in inequality of income distribution (as occurred during the first half of the 1990s), but can lead to a decrease in inequality of access to food. In order for this to occur, the increase in income (purchasing power) of the poorest strata must be both significant and stable over time. In this sense it can be said that, under certain circumstances, combating poverty is also a way of overcoming hunger.

Figure II.6

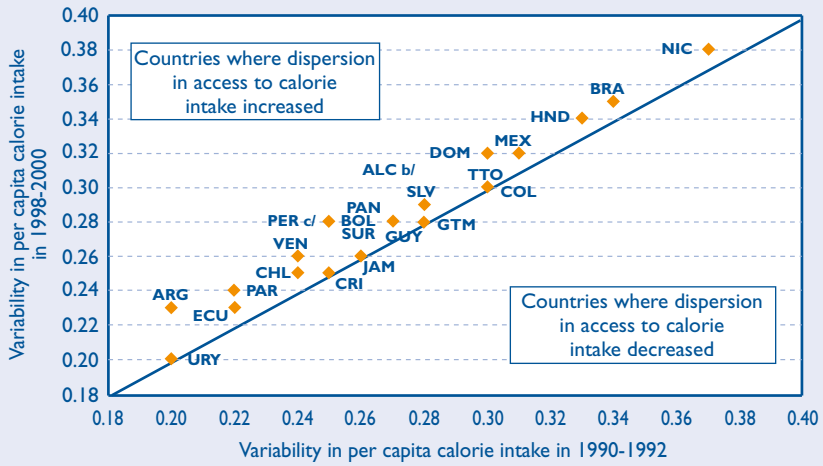
LATIN AMERICA 1990–1999: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE GINI COEFFICIENT AND THE COEFFICIENT OF VARIABILITY IN THE POPULATION'S CALORIE CONSUMPTION



Source: Gini coefficients, ECLAC, based on special tabulations of household surveys in the various countries. Calculated on the basis of distribution of income per capita in 1990 and 1999. Coefficients of variability in calorie consumption by the population are those used by FAO in estimating the percentage of the population suffering from malnutrition in 1990–1992 and 1998–2000.

Figure II.7

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (22 COUNTRIES): a/ CHANGES IN INEQUALITY OF FOOD ACCESS, 1990–1992 AND 1998–2000



Source: Own preparation based on information and methodology used by FAO in estimating undernourishment.
a/ Haiti is not included in the figure. During the reference period, its implicit coefficient of variability in food access fell from 0.70 to 0.47.
b/ Corresponds to the simple average for 22 countries (excluding Haiti).
c/ The initial figure is for 1992–1994.

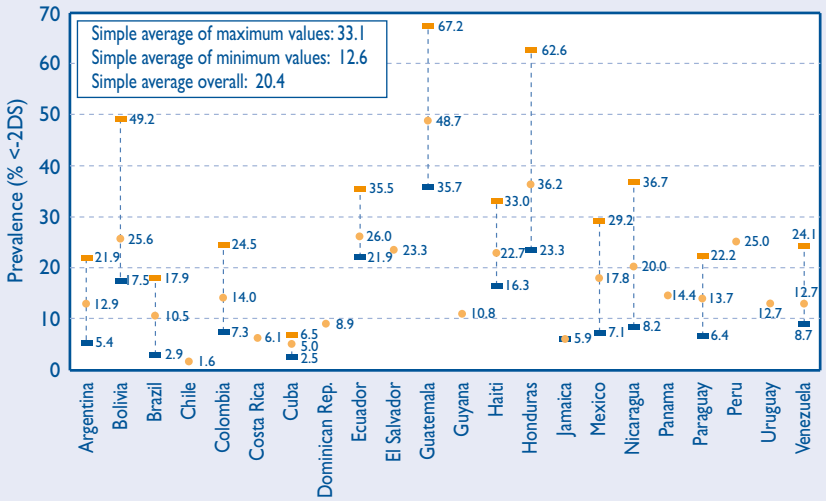
The foregoing makes it clear how influential inequality and absolute poverty in the region are in determining the scale of hunger. The scant progress made in reducing undernourishment during the 1990s is largely explained by the relative stagnation or actual setbacks witnessed in almost all the countries in relation to one of these two key factors: disparities in access to food. In fact, according to FAO estimates, with the exception of Haiti no country in the region reduced the inequality of food access. Between the three–year periods 1990–1992 and 1998–2000, the simple average of variability coefficients in 23 Latin American and Caribbean countries rose from 0.27 to 0.28, while the weighted average rose from 0.30 to 0.31. Although these are moderate increases (only Argentina and Venezuela saw increases higher than the regional average), they underscore the fact that the trend in inequality, which was already decisive, did not help to reduce hunger but rather exacerbated it (see figure II.7). The slight decline in undernourishment in the region as a whole between 1990 and 2000 can only be explained by the increase in food production and imports, which permitted the per capita DES to rise by just over 4%.

One relevant aspect of the great disparities characterizing Latin America is its countries' internal geographical disparities. Contrasts between urban and rural areas, between regions, departments or cantons, and between municipalities provide perhaps the clearest evidence that differences in access and purchasing power among different population groups are the principal cause of hunger in the region. Abundant information exists on the spatial or geographical dimension of inequality. Figure II.8 illustrates these disparities with respect to chronic malnutrition, one of the most serious consequences of hunger in the region. As will be seen in the last section of this chapter, internal inequalities are generally higher precisely in those countries exhibiting higher rates of undernourishment and malnutrition. The figure shows that Bolivia, Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua exhibit the greatest differences in malnutrition rates by geographical area and, together

Figure II.8

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (22 COUNTRIES): DIFFERENCE IN CHRONIC MALNUTRITION BETWEEN THE WORST AND BEST AREAS DURING THE 1990s

(Children under five with moderate to serious chronic malnutrition)



Source: UNICEF Regional Office for Latin America and the Caribbean.

with Ecuador and Haiti, also belong to the group of countries with the highest rates of malnutrition as a national average. Geographical inequalities, reflecting ethnic and purchasing–power inequalities and those among social strata, should be taken into consideration as an important component of any strategy for eradicating hunger.

Box II.5

THE NATIONAL FOOD ACCESS PROGRAMME "*CARTÃO ALIMENTAÇÃO*"

The "Cartão Alimentação" programme is foremost among the components of the "Zero Hunger" initiative involving direct transfers to families to raise food consumption among the poorest sectors of the population. Decree No. 4675 of 17 April 2003 stipulates that its purpose is to guarantee financial resources or food in kind for people subject to food insecurity, i.e. lacking access to food in sufficient quantity, quality and regularity for proper nutrition and preservation of health.

The programme calls for delivery of a monthly benefit equivalent to 50 reales per household (approximately US$ 17 at 2002 prices) to purchase staples at specified registered stores. The use of such stores is a mean of ensuring that the money is actually used to combat hunger. The programme also calls for direct distribution of food aid to deal with specific situations, such as natural disasters, other emergencies or problems in the food distribution infrastructure of retail trade.

To assess the programme's impact in terms of the increase in food–purchasing power, the benefit of 50 reales per household may be compared with the monthly per capita cost of a basic basket of food that meets the population's calorie and protein requirements. According to ECLAC calculations, the average cost per person of such a basket at June 2003 prices is 53 reales per month. a/ This means that the "*Cartão Alimentação*" permits the monthly requirement for basic foods to be met for one member of the family unit. If resources were concentrated on meeting the nutritional needs of children under six, the benefit would cover monthly food for at least two children per household, since their nutritional needs are equivalent to approximately one half those of an average adult.

Box II.5

THE NATIONAL FOOD ACCESS PROGRAMME "*CARTÃO ALIMENTAÇÃO*"

The programme's potential beneficiaries are households whose monthly per capita income does not exceed one half the minimum wage. b/ The duration of the benefit is six months, renewable for up to 12 months. A household's participation in the programme does not disqualify it for other social programmes such as minimum income programmes, direct education subsidies, school lunches, and others. The assistance received by the extremely poor can therefore translate into an increase in access to food that is well above the amount mentioned. The regulating decree stipulates that the benefit is paid against the "*Cartão do Cidadão*", issued to the person responsible for the family unit, preferably the woman, when the household is included in the federal government's unified register of social programmes.

Given the large number of potential beneficiaries, their geographical dispersion and the existence of particular characteristics (inter alia, the degree of community organization, ethnic background and eating patterns), the programme calls for active community participation at the municipal level and encourages the formation of municipal food security boards to coordinate and monitor actions.

In June 2003 some 58,000 families were receiving benefits under the programme. During the first half of that year, coverage increased by 100% per month. Although this is far fewer than the number of families that should be accessing the programme, full coverage could be achieved after 36 months simply by increasing it by 16% per month. c/

Data from the 2001 national housing survey sample (*Pesquisa Nacional por Amostra de Domicílios*) indicate the resources needed to fully extend the programme on the terms stipulated, as well as the importance of the transfers of purchasing power with respect to the income of beneficiary families. The following table presents calculations based on the 1999 and 2001 surveys.

Potential beneficiaries	Year		Value of resources transferred to households	Year	
	1999	2001		1999	2001
Value equivalent to one half the nominal minimum monthly salary	R$ 68.00	R$ 90.00	Annual value with 100% coverage of potential beneficiary population in two six–month periods		
Potential beneficiaries					
Households (thousands)	9 334	11 639	Millions of current reales	5 600.2	6 983.3
(percentage)	21.7	25.0	Percentage of GDP	0.58	0.58
People (thousands)	44 051	53 179	Percentage of income of the wealthiest 5% of households	4.12	4.09
(percentage)	27.6	31.5			
Impact of benefit on household income a/ (percentage)	…	21.7	Percentage of consolidated social spending b/	2.96	3.03

Source: ECLAC, based on tabulations of the PNAD survey in 1999 and 2001, and on official country statistics.
a/ Quotient between programme benefit and average total income of beneficiary households.
b/ Social spending at the federal, state and municipal levels.

The marked increase in the potential number of beneficiary households, from 9.3 to 11.6 million between 1999 and 2001, is attributable to the large increase in the nominal minimum wage over the period (32.4%, compared to a 14.8% increase in the CPI), and growth in the population. Also, the table shows that transfers account for a relatively small percentage of GDP and of total social spending (about 0.6% and 3% in 2001, respectively), as well as of the total income of the wealthiest 5% of the population, at 4.1%. The zero–hunger project paper indicates that the total annual cost of serving 9.3 million families, the potential beneficiaries in 1999, was 20,000 million reales, close to 2% of GDP in that year; that proportion remained virtually unchanged in 2001. d/

Box II.5 (concluded)

THE NATIONAL FOOD ACCESS PROGRAMME "*CARTÃO ALIMENTAÇÃO*"

Two issues bear mentioning here. First, there is the possibility that the programme's success, as shown by the rapid increase in coverage, will lead to short–term budget constraints; this should be countered by giving priority to the most affected families, e.g. the inhabitants of certain states and municipalities, or households with children. Second, it is important to avoid situations in which food shortages might be triggered in certain areas by depletion of unutilized installed capacity for agricultural production, which can translate into price increases; this is essential in order to ensure the sustainability of the "*Cartão Alimentação*" and therefore the "Zero Hunger" programme.

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a/ This figure indicates that, in mid–2003, the average cost of meeting the basic nutritional requirements of a family of five was on the order of 265 reales per month. The cost varies greatly by region, from a low of 190 to a high of 360 reales.

b/ Monthly household income is computed as monetary income obtained by all household members, including resources received from other government transfer programmes. The minimum wage in effect as of mid–2003 was 240 reales, equivalent to US$ 82 at 2002 prices (International Monetary Fund "rf" series).

c/ According to estimates based on the 2001 *Pesquisa Nacional por Amostra de Domicílios*, the number of households with monthly per capita incomes equal to or less than one half of the per capita minimum wage was 11.6 million, or approximately 53.2 million people.

d/ See *Cidadania* (2001b) and Graciano da Silva, Belik and Takagi (2003). According to these authors, the mean annual cost of this programme would be 11 billion reales rather than 20 billion if the poverty rate by fell 50% over a period of 10 years.

E. Food vulnerability and policies to combat hunger

Any social policy oriented towards eradicating hunger and malnutrition must take into consideration the problems of insecurity and vulnerability facing the population. Groups having problems accessing adequate food are living under economic, social and cultural conditions that render them highly vulnerable. Others have adequate access but are not free of the risk of suffering a food deficit as a result of natural disasters or other adverse factors. Making progress on solving problems with food and nutrition in Latin America and the Caribbean will be very difficult without social safety nets (institutional or otherwise) and national food policies that take in all relevant actors and sectors. Such a policy must point towards achieving food security and minimizing the risks besetting the most vulnerable population groups.

1. The food vulnerability approach

Food vulnerability is defined as the likelihood that an acute decrease will occur in access to food, or in its consumption, with respect to a critical value that defines minimum standards of human well–being (WFP, 2002); in other words, the likelihood that food security will be lost.

An analysis of food security determines the quantity of food and nutrients existing in a specific population and identifies those who have access to food in sufficient quantity and quality and those who do not. This is what is known as a "static perspective". The vulnerability approach, on the other hand, seeks to be "dynamic", identifying those population groups which are most likely to find themselves in a situation of insecurity and emphasizing not only those who now suffer from food and nutritional shortages but also those who are highly likely to face such a situation in the future, even if they have adequate access under normal conditions. This permits such episodes to be anticipated so that preventive work can be done to target the supply of goods and services and rationalize resource use as a means of maximizing their efficiency and positive impact.

Food insecurity and vulnerability are self–perpetuating phenomena: those who lack food security are least protected from fluctuations in access and therefore at the greatest risk of more serious problems.

An analysis of both insecurity and vulnerability is necessary to improve the targeting and impact of emergency food and development programmes and to provide rapid and efficient assistance to those localities where the most vulnerable and neediest population groups are concentrated and thus prevent such a risk from becoming a reality. Within this context, the vulnerability analysis and mapping project carried out by the World Food Programme (WFP) implements this model in countries with emergency and development food aid programmes.

2. Factors impacting food vulnerability

Although the potential result of food vulnerability is invariably the loss of food security, there is more than one type of vulnerability. To be sure, qualitative differences between populations can be detected, based on how much of an influence is exerted by various factors. Such factors can be typified by cause (structural or cyclical) and characteristics (generational, gender–based, social, cultural and economic). The former determine whether short, medium or long–term (emergency or development) strategies are needed; information about the latter allows solutions to be adapted to the specific traits of the target population.

When the main causes are structural (access to land and environmentally sustainable food production technologies, high poverty and indigence indices, educational deficits, sanitation problems), the vulnerability of each population group is moderately stable. Differences between population groups can be discerned, and long–term development programmes therefore need to be tailored to specific target groups. When causes are more cyclical or short–term in nature (natural disasters, economic crises), variations over time in a population's vulnerability are high, and emergency programmes must put forward flexible solutions.

An example of this type of situation is the effect of weather cycles on the sowing and harvesting of food crops, which in turn affects availability and access and generates seasonal variations in the market. In rural areas of Central American countries, this occurs from April to July, which are the most difficult months because of the effects of the seasonal drought or dry spells affecting this zone. In some cases the cycles last more than a year, as is the case of economic and social disruptions in the wake of El Niño and La Niña, and the crisis in the coffee crop and other products. According to WFP, vulnerability is a function of risk (the risk of facing limitations on access to food) and response capacity:

$$\textit{Vulnerability} = \textit{Risk} - \textit{Response capacity}$$

Thus, the most vulnerable people are those with the highest risk levels and lowest response capacity.

From this perspective, vulnerability is a vector with two components moving in opposite directions. The first is risk, comprising three dimensions (a) environment (intensity and frequency of flood, drought, frost and other natural disasters); (b) health and nutrition (malnutrition and epidemics of human, plant and animal diseases); and (c) the market (principally variations in prices for goods). The second is response capacity, at two levels: family/community and social/institutional. The family/community level includes all aspects that help or limit an individual, his/her family and those closest to him/her in their efforts to address the risk of insecurity. Its principal determinants are the existence of assets, whether physical (food, land and others), human (health, education and knowledge) or social (family structure, community and internal or external institutional safety nets). Also included here is the degree of production diversification, as well as income and consumption levels.

Elements at the social/institutional level include all measures taken by society to subsidize autonomous capacity where this falls short. Population groups that are at high risk of losing access to food and have a low autonomous response capacity are less vulnerable if they can rely on a group response capacity, whether local, regional, national or international, including:

a) Coverage and responsiveness of food aid programmes;
b) Monetary reserves and food stocks, along with the ability to mobilize them to collect and distribute food;
c) Programmes to mitigate risk by investing in physical infrastructure (irrigation canals, reservoirs, bulking centres), equipment and machinery, transfer of technology and financing; and
d) Coverage of social health care and education services.

One central element in determining response capacity at the social/institutional level is the priority assigned to food and nutrition by the authorities. Countries with long–term national policies that outlast particular Administrations and have definite goals and budgets have the greatest response capacity. Their populations are therefore more likely to achieve food and nutritional security. Every possible scenario can be observed in Latin America, from countries that have applied national policies for several decades (Argentina, Chile, Uruguay) to countries that depend on international aid programmes and have only recently outlined a national food and nutrition security policy or are in the process of doing so (El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua).

3. Policies to combat hunger

A food policy's main objective is to help overcome food insecurity (and vulnerability) among the population. Such programmes must ensure that everyone has continual physical and economic access to adequate, safe and nutritious food to meet their nutritional needs and food preferences so that they may lead active, healthy lives. As indicated, achieving this objective means guaranteeing food access to all, including those who cannot express their nutritional needs in the form of market demand owing to a lack of resources. However, food policy can do not more than help to mitigate the effects of structural factors or conditions, however, which transcend the scope of such policies and which the actual causes of inequality.

Accordingly, a food and nutritional security policy must be understood as a comprehensive system that takes into account the productive, health, environmental, economic, social and cultural dimensions. Strategies are needed to address both emergency situations brought about by cyclical factors and long–term situations stemming from structural factors. This global approach entails moving beyond a sectoral perspective, however, since such a perspective tends to associate the food–supply aspect of the policy solely with the need to stimulate agricultural production and its nutritional aspect solely with disease.

Structural reforms and more open systems have gradually eroded governments' ability to influence production and, consequently, patterns of food supply. Many traditional means of intervention, such as subsidies, differentiated exchange rates, exemptions, State procurement and official prices for staples, have been subordinated to the need for macroeconomic equilibrium and to international agreements based on greater participation in global food trade.

Over the past decade, private agents in Latin America that constitute the final links in food production and distribution chains have become increasingly important in determining what is produced and even who produces food and how. This has limited the ability of small–scale producers to participate as suppliers. Today, supermarkets play a decisive role: at the beginning of the 1990s, they covered between 10% and 20% of distribution; by 2000 that figure had risen to between 50% and 60%;

this change took more than 50 years to occur in the United States (Reardon and Berdegué, 2002). In this context, public food security policy must begin by recognizing these trends and taking advantage of their modernizing effects, while putting forth formulas to avoid the exclusion of small producers and regulating certain contractual practices deriving from the monopsonistic nature of supermarket chains as well as mergers and acquisitions that diminish competition.

Nutritional programmes, generally developed as part of public health policy, are intended to guarantee a balanced diet for the population –especially the most vulnerable groups within it– through mass education (for example, by promoting the intake of foods containing vitamin A, such as green vegetables, to prevent xerophthalmia), enriching available foods (salt with iodine, flour with iron), producing and distributing diet supplements and accrediting medical and health professionals to strengthen nutritional monitoring and food safety systems.

With respect to food aid and security programmes, there are five generic types of targeted measures:

- Those intended to increase household production assets (land, technology, financing, inputs) by assisting small landowners and poor urban families to cultivate family vegetable plots;
- Those aimed at creating jobs (emergency and temporary employment programmes, work– for–food programmes) for landless rural workers and the rural poor;
- Food subsidies, including direct income transfers, bonuses, food stamps and soup kitchens;
- Direct food transfers to vulnerable groups (expectant mothers, pre–schoolers and schoolchildren, the elderly and others), often accompanied by epidemiological surveillance systems; and
- Recovery programmes for sufferers of critical hunger–based pathologies (malnutrition, acute respiratory infection, diarrhoea, kwashiorkor, marasmus).

Recent years have seen the development of strategies that are built into poverty reduction policies and programmes and that either explicitly or implicitly seek to solve food access problems, such as "Zero Hunger" in Brazil and "Opportunities" in Mexico (see boxes II.3 and II.6). One common element is the targeted nature of these initiatives, which are designed to serve vulnerable groups or poor areas.

These kinds of initiatives, or others designed to improve access to food, can reduce hunger or malnutrition. Continuity is needed, however, to avoid the recurrence of these problems if the underlying structural factors persist or if the capacities and opportunities of poor families to achieve food self–sufficiency are not increased.

There is an entire range of actors involved in food and nutrition policies and programmes in Latin America. In some countries (such as Argentina, Chile, Costa Rica, Panama and Uruguay), responsibility and implementation are basically left to the State, through specialized institutions and funding under national budgets. In others (such as Bolivia, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua and Peru), international cooperation agencies, donor countries and non–governmental organizations play a crucial role both in designing and funding and in implementing such programmes.

Box II.6

MEXICO'S "OPPORTUNITIES" PROGRAMME AND ITS NUTRITIONAL IMPACT

"Oportunidades" is Mexico's premier social programme for the development of human capital among the poorest population groups. It aims to enhance the ability of extremely poor households to improve their well–being in the three areas of food, health care and education and thus break the cycle of poverty that ties them to high rates of malnutrition, infant mortality, school leaving, and unhealthy living conditions.

The programme was launched in August 1997 under the name of Progresa and was implemented mainly in rural areas. Today it operates in 2,354 municipalities and 70,398 rural and urban localities all over Mexico.

"Oportunidades" is intended to improve the quality of services and access to them, based on the following principles:

- Comprehensive action, linking all three components (food, health care and education) to provide a global solution to poverty
- A participatory approach so that beneficiaries have both the right to receive goods and services under the programme and the responsibility to attend school and health check–ups regularly
- The essential role of the family, such that the programme has an impact on the entire household, rather than on only some of its members

The programme's goals include completion of basic and intermediate education for children and young people, broader and better health care, better nutrition for expectant mothers and for boys and girls, and greater participation by parents in improving services. The food component is intended to improve the quantity, quality and diversity of food consumption to raise the nutritional status of the target population. To this end, two types of benefits are delivered:

- Monetary contributions to all registered families. During the first half of 2003 these benefits totalled 155 pesos (US$ 14.10) per month per household. Based on ECLAC estimates, this amount represents about 23% of the urban indigence line, 33% of the rural indigence line and 17% of the average minimum wage. a/ During the first two months of 2003, these payments rose to a monthly average of 620 million pesos, equivalent to 41% of all direct transfers (the remaining 59% related to education). This amount –71% more than in January 2001– is equivalent to US$ 56.4 million. Expressed in annualized terms, this represents the equivalent of approximately 1.3% of social spending and 0.13% of GDP in 2001, according to ECLAC estimates.
- Dietary supplements: these supplements are intended augment the existing diet rather than to take the place of existing food inputs in order to prevent or address malnutrition among children. They are given to nursing infants and babies up to 23 months, children between two and five years of age suffering from some degree of malnutrition and expectant and nursing mothers for up to one year. The supplements (a 44–gram formula for children and a 52–gram beverage for women) provide 100% of minimum dietary requirements for micronutrients and between 14% and 20% of average minimum caloric requirements (194 calories for children and 250 for women) and must be taken daily. As of December 2002, the programme had delivered 2,583 million dietary supplements, the number of children being monitored had risen by 42% (to a total of 3.6 million), and consultations on nutritional problems for children under five had increased by 49%.

Figures for January and February 2003 indicate that monetary contributions benefited 4.1 million families (19% of the national total), malnutrition care was provided to 405,000 children under four, and dietary supplements were distributed to 889,000 children under four and to 187,000 expectant and 100,000 nursing mothers.

Evaluations conducted by the International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) conclude that the programme achieved the following nutritional impacts: b/

- Impact on nutrition: The programme has had a significant impact by increasing growth among children and reducing the likelihood of malnutrition at the critical ages of between 12 and 36 months. The increase was equivalent to about 16% in terms of average growth (equivalent to 1 cm per year).
- Impact on health: By improving food and preventive health care, the programme succeeded in reducing the smallest children's vulnerability to disease. Incidence among children from 0 to 5 years of age fell by 12%.
- Acceptance among beneficiaries: Dietary supplements for women and children were broadly accepted by beneficiaries.

Box II.6 (concluded)

MEXICO'S "OPPORTUNITIES" PROGRAMME AND ITS NUTRITIONAL IMPACT

- Efficiency: For every peso spent under the programme, an estimated US$ 0.91 reached beneficiaries in the form of transfers.

The following shortcomings were noted as well:

- Distribution: "A significant proportion of treated children did not receive dietary supplements regularly"; this eroded the programme's impact.

- Targeting: The model that was applied included an exhaustive socio–economic analysis of localities and families which effectively prevented patronage. However, targeting was not perfect and was relatively less effective in identifying extremely poor households than moderately poor households. This may have occasioned errors of inclusion and exclusion (non–poor receiving benefits and poor not receiving benefits) and represents a major challenge for the future.

- Intra–household targeting and efficiency: In some cases, not all supplements were consumed, and in many households they were shared with other family members. Redistribution of food is common in programmes providing economic contributions or food rations; this leads to a loss of efficiency, problems in intra–household targeting and a dilution of programme impact.

For the period 2002–2006, a comprehensive programme evaluation was designed. The preliminary findings, presented by the national public health institute, point to a positive trend in nutritional impact. The number of nutritional consultations is significantly higher in communities participating in the programme, and the proportion of children with severe malnutrition drops with the length of time families have participated. On this basis it can be said that "the objective of improving nutritional levels among this population is being met".

It can be concluded that the "Oportunidades" programme needs to overcome some problems and improve some aspects of its operations in order to ensure that the stated impact objectives are achieved. Nevertheless, its design features and the progress made, as well as ongoing evaluations of management and impact, place this programme among the most innovative social programmes in Latin America.

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a/ Based on the exchange rate in effect at the end of February 2003 (US$ 1.00 = 11 pesos).
b/ See Skoufias (2000).

F. Towards achieving the goal of eradicating hunger in Latin America and the Caribbean

Latin American and the Caribbean are expected to show some progress in combating hunger, although it is likely to prove insufficient considering the serious nature of the problem. It is probable that 13 out of the 22 countries will achieve both of the targets set under the first Millennium Development Goal: halving the proportion of undernourished people and halving the percentage of malnourished children. However, the situation in the region is not promising: four countries with high rates of malnutrition among children (El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua) have not managed to lower the incidence of low body weight among children under five years of age at a rate that will allow them to achieve this target. In addition, it is very probable that nine of the 22 countries (the previous four plus Dominican Republic, Haiti, Panama, Trinidad and Tobago and Venezuela) will not manage to halve the proportion of undernourished people between 1990 and 2015. Only a few countries (Argentina, Chile, Jamaica and Uruguay) are highly likely to meet the most demanding target set at the FAO World Food Summit in 1996: halving the number (not only the proportion) of undernourished people by 2015.

Before examining the likelihood that the countries of the region will meet the hunger–reduction targets set in the Millennium Declaration, the significance of the progress that has been made ought to be clarified. First of all, these targets are not absolute but relative, as they take as their baseline the situation prevailing in the countries in 1990. Achieving them depends on how the rate of undernourishment and malnutrition among children has changed and will continue to change during the quarter century between 1990 and 2015. A country that reduces undernourishment from 12% to 7% during that period will not have met the target, while another country that shows a reduction from 36% to 18% will have met it, even though the percentage of undernourished people in its population in 2015 is more than double that of the first country. The situation of El Salvador compared to that of Haiti provides a good illustration.

Second, the targets must be calibrated; i.e., different achievements must be established in

accordance with the scale of hunger in the countries so as to take into account the enormous diversity of situations in the region. While chronic malnutrition is 5% or less in some countries, it is closer to 30% or more in others. The magnitude of these differences underscores the need to assess the countries' achievements by 2015 using different yardsticks.

The Millennium Development Goal proposes halving the proportion of people suffering from hunger. However, the very seriousness of the phenomenon suggests that, although this target may be appropriate for countries where hunger is acute –as in many countries in Africa and some in Latin America and the Caribbean where the situation is more critical– it is not enough of a challenge for those countries with lower rates of undernourishment and malnutrition among children.

ECLAC, which has already highlighted the need to calibrate the target set for reducing extreme poverty, suggests that, with respect to hunger, an objective is needed that represents a true challenge for those of the region's countries with higher per capita incomes, such as the eradication of hunger or a more pronounced reduction. A more demanding target would be consistent with the fact that, in most of the countries in the region, hunger is largely attributable to a lack of access to food as a result of very low income levels, rather than to insufficient supply.

With regard to undernourishment, as early as 1996, at the World Food Summit, FAO put forward the objective of halving the number of people with an insufficient food intake by the year 2015, based on the situation prevailing in 1990. This goal, which is more ambitious than the one set in the Millennium Declaration (since, given the rate of population growth, undernourishment would need to be lowered by more than 50%), is more appropriate for many Latin American and Caribbean countries that now have undernourishment rates of 10% or less. This group of countries includes Brazil and Mexico, the most populated nations in the region.

With respect to malnutrition among children (the other dimension of hunger considered in the first Millennium Development Goal), the Declaration proposes that this rate be halved between 1990 and 2015. Unlike the situation with undernourishment, in the case of low body mass (children under five who are underweight for their age), there is less data available to determine the region's progress in the past decade. Still, there are some official statistics on the progress made by the countries between the mid– and late 1990s; this information also points up marked differences across countries. The target set in the Millennium Declaration is not appropriate for all. Given the serious nature of this phenomenon, a more ambitious objective should be established that is in accordance with the realities of countries that currently exhibit lower levels of malnutrition among children. In addition, at the World Summit of the Child in 1990, a target for the 1990s was set that consisted precisely of halving the rate of malnutrition among children, i.e. a target identical to the one set out in the Millennium Declaration, but to be achieved within a decade rather than over a period of 25 years. On this basis, the "hard" goal for 2015, proposed first of all for 2000 and consisting of lowering the rate of malnutrition among children to one quarter the 1990 level (achieving a rate under 2% is considered to signify the eradication of primary malnutrition, which is defined as malnutrition resulting from the ingestion of insufficient quantities of food), is more appropriate for countries that have already reached that target or are close to doing so.

What is the likelihood that the Latin American and Caribbean countries will meet the Millennium Development Goal on hunger, and which of them are likely to meet the harder targets? Table II.6

summarizes the situation of the 22 countries studied. Naturally, the placement of the countries is conjectural and is based on changes in undernourishment and malnutrition among children during the 1990s as well as certain hypotheses on probable changes to the year 2015. To this end, the criteria suggested by FAO have been adopted. These criteria constitute relatively optimistic hypotheses as to an increase in food supply and reduction of inequalities of access over the period 2000–2015. They assume a larger increase in energy supply in countries with a smaller supply: close to 11% in those with a supply of 2,200 kilocalories, 9% in those with a supply of between 2,200 and 2,500 kilocalories, and around 8% for those countries with more than 2,500 kilocalories per person per day. These increases are similar to those posted by the region in its best decade: the 1960s.

With respect to inequalities of access, it has been assumed that in coming years the countries will show a relatively small reduction in the food consumption variability coefficient as a result of a probable reduction in extreme poverty. Progress towards achieving this target would lead to a relatively larger increase in food consumption by the lower–income population compared to middle– and high–income population groups. FAO has suggested that the food consumption variability coefficient, which currently ranges from 0.21 to 0.36, could drop to values of between 0.20 and 0.31 by the year 2015. On that basis, and taking into account the region's persistent inequalities and slow progress in reducing absolute poverty, an across–the–board reduction of 5% in this coefficient has been projected.[9] In calculating undernourishment rates for 2015, an increase of 1.3% in minimum energy requirements has been assumed, since FAO estimates that the ageing of the population will raise requirements by 2.6% by 2030 (FAO, 2003a).

Table II.6

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (22 COUNTRIES): PROJECTIONS ON ACHIEVING THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOAL ON HUNGER a/

		Malnutrition among children (moderate to serious low body mass)		
		Will not achieve goal	**Will achieve goal**	**Will achieve more demanding goal set at 1990 World Summit of the Child**
Undernourishment	Will not achieve goal	El Salvador Guatemala Honduras Nicaragua	Venezuela Trinidad and Tobago Haiti	Panama Dominican Rep.
	Will achieve goal		Bolivia Brazil Colombia Mexico Paraguay	Costa Rica
	Will achieve more demanding goal set at 1996 World Food Summit		Ecuador Guyana Peru	Argentina Chile Jamaica Uruguay

Source: ECLAC, based on FAO criteria for projected changes in undernourishment and trends observed in malnutrition among children.
a/ Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of children under five who are underweight for their age and the percentage of people below the standard for minimum dietary energy consumption.

9 For example, a country with a coefficient of variability in food consumption of 0.32 would reduce it to 0.30.

The picture that emerges is not a promising one: nine of 22 countries in the region are not likely to lower their undernourishment rates by half (Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, Trinidad and Tobago, Venezuela). These include countries where undernourishment is particularly severe, with rates of 25% or more being recorded (Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Haiti, Nicaragua). Six countries could achieve the less demanding target (Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Mexico and Paraguay), and the remaining seven are likely to meet the "hard" target of halving the number of people who are undernourished (Argentina,[10] Chile, Ecuador, Guyana, Jamaica, Peru and Uruguay).[11]

The situation is more favourable when it comes to malnutrition among children, although it must be kept in mind that this is the most extreme manifestation of hunger, at least in terms of its intergenerational transmission. Of the 22 countries, 18 can be expected to meet the target, while another four (El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua) will fail to do so if they continue to progress at the rate seen over the past 15 years. Again, the four Central American countries with the highest levels of poverty and food insecurity will be called upon to make a greater effort in this area, and there is no question that a good part of the international assistance to the region should be directed to them.

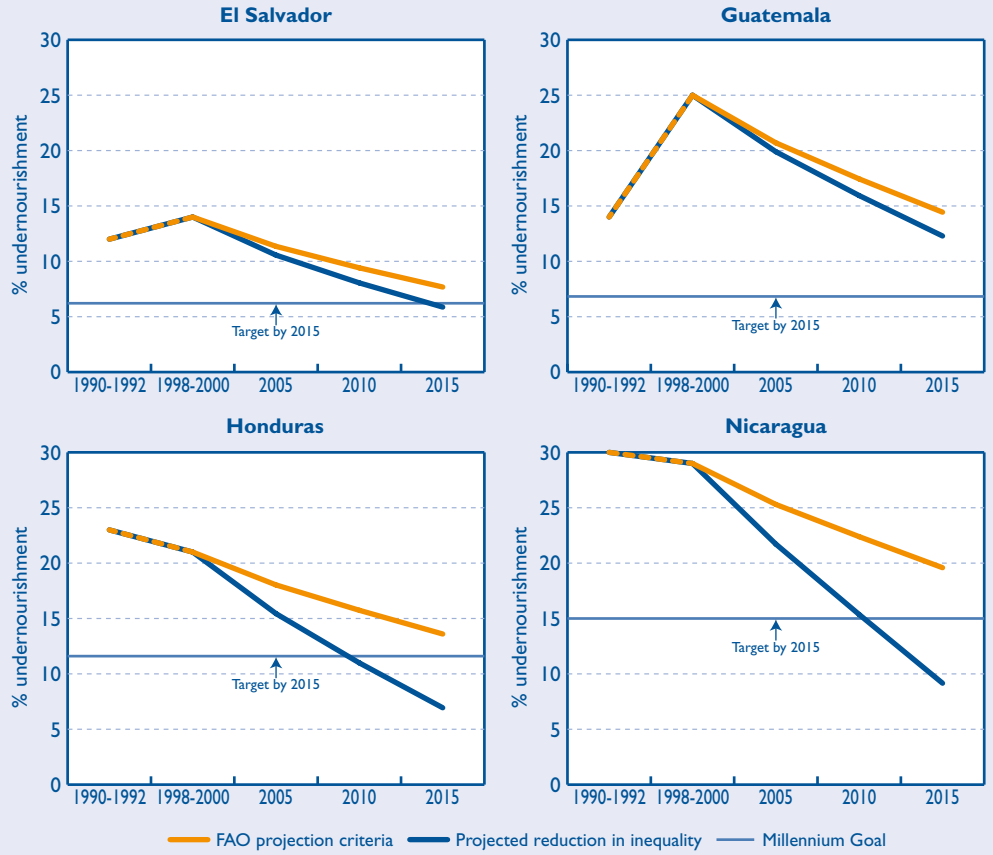
Throughout this chapter it has been emphasized that one of the region's hallmarks in terms of the problem of hunger is the inequality (the highest in the world, on average) that exists in access to food. This means that part of the population lacks access to food because the funds needed to buy food are lacking. This explains why a high percentage of the population continues to face serious undernourishment in countries with a food supply in the middle range (about 2,500 kilocalories) or towards the low end of the scale (2,200 kilocalories per person per day or less). This evaluation is based on minimum energy requirements of about 1,800 kilocalories rather than mean requirements (around 2,100 kilocalories), which would indicate a much more serious problem. Moreover, although it can be hypothesized that the food supply will gradually increase in coming years in countries that are most severely affected by this problem, it is very likely that that will not be enough for El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua to meet the Millennium Development Goal on hunger.

10 Note that this evaluation is based on figures for food supply and inequality of access to food in effect during the three–year period 1998–2000. Since the 2002 crisis in Argentina drastically reduced purchasing power for the lowest–income population groups, it would not come as a surprise if the country's rank in achieving hunger targets had changed. See also box II.7.

11 During the preparation of this document, FAO published new world undernourishment estimates for the three–year period 1999–2001 that introduce minor changes from the 1998–2000 figures used here: the undernourishment rate remained steady in 13 countries in the region and fell by one percentage point in seven countries. In two countries the changes are considerable: a reduction of three points in Venezuela and an increase of eight points in Panama. Except in the latter case, the new figures do not change the analysis. See FAO (2003b).

Figure II.9

CENTRAL AMERICA (FOUR COUNTRIES): UNDERNOURISHMENT PROJECTIONS BASED ON FAO CRITERIA, WITH INEQUALITY IN FOOD ACCESS REDUCED TO EXISTING LEVEL IN COSTA RICA, 2005, 2010 AND 2015



Source: ECLAC. Projected undernourishment levels based on the FAO hypothesis concerning changes in dietary energy supply, minimum nutritional needs and the variability coefficient in food access. The second projection includes the criterion for reduction in the variability coefficient at the current level in Costa Rica (0.25).

As can be seen in figure II.9, closing the gap in access to food across geographical areas and different income strata will be essential if these countries are to meet the Millennium Goal. If, in the coming years (until 2015), inequality of access to food should fall to the level seen today in Costa Rica, then three of them would meet the target for reducing undernourishment: El Salvador, Honduras and Nicaragua. Only Guatemala would not, although reducing inequality would allow the percentage of undernourished people to be reduced to below its level of the early 1990s. This indicates that the determining factor for food insecurity in that country is the very low domestic food supply, exacerbated by inequality of access.

This fact underscores the need for international assistance to give priority to these Central American countries. Assistance must be built into public policies so as to address the essential elements of a national food policy. In addition to giving the entire population access to food, such a national policy must guarantee that food supply is sufficient, stable, autonomous and sustainable. In addition, three kinds of concurrent actions will be called for: (i) structural measures having medium–to long–term effects (campaigns to increase literacy rates, promote access to land, modernize agricultural production, improve food distribution channels, etc.); (ii) short– and medium–term initiatives that raise the purchasing power of households so as to

increase their access to food and their ability to use it appropriately (income transfer and school meal programmes, campaigns to educate people about proper eating habits); and (iii) preventive and emergency actions in the very short term to avert the worsening of critical food access situations and mitigate their effects (direct distribution of food aid to people affected by natural disasters, implementation of food security surveillance systems targeting vulnerable populations and localities).

Box II.7

HUNGER IN ARGENTINA: THE EFFECTS OF THE MACROECONOMIC CRISIS ON THE POPULATION'S FOOD SECURITY

The pronounced drop in household income and the rapid increase in poverty unleashed by the recent crisis in Argentina demonstrates that a macroeconomic decline of such magnitude, whether internal or external in origin, causes food insecurity and hunger even in countries with large food production surpluses and a high per capita energy supply. In this case, the crisis not only exacerbated the nutritional problems of the extremely poor but also increased the number of people suffering from hunger.

A recent study has assessed the deterioration in access to food for the most vulnerable population groups in Argentina and the way in which the crisis –especially since early 2002– translated into hunger and acute malnutrition (Britos, 2002). GDP shrank by almost 15% during the 2001–2002 biennium, driving up poverty and indigence to record levels in the country. The rise in unemployment and the decrease in real wage levels led to an increase in the percentage of people lacking sufficient income to buy food. According to ECLAC estimates, the percentage of the urban population living in poverty rose from 24% to 46% and indigence from 8% to 21% between October 1999 and October 2002. According to Argentina's National Statistics Institute (INDEC), which used poverty and indigence lines somewhat higher than those of ECLAC, urban poverty increased from 36% to nearly 55% and indigence from 12% to 26% between May 2001 and May 2003.

The food insecurity experienced by broad segments of Argentina's population was not attributable to structural causes in the agro–food system, for the country continued to have a broad and varied supply of food available. This supply amounted to about 3,180 kilocalories per person per day, which is much higher than the Latin American average of 2,570 kilocalories and 51% higher than the mean energy requirement, i.e. a level of food production sufficient to meet the minimum calorie requirements of 262 million people as well as to permit exports equivalent to 8,370 kilocalories per inhabitant per day. Accordingly, the causes of hunger and malnutrition in this case clearly had to do with the lack of household resources to buy food in sufficient quantity and quality; in other words, there was a drastic change in the principal determinant of food access. Argentina is perhaps the country in the region with the greatest contrast between the availability of food as indicated by balance–sheet data and the inadequate, limited and monotonous diet of lower–income households.

The crisis exacerbated the situation of these households. In the middle of the 1990s, well before the crisis began, the diet of persons belonging to households in the poorest quintile, expressed in adult equivalent units, was quite deficient in kilocalories, vitamin B1, niacin, vitamin C and particularly calcium. Intake of these elements was 26%, 17%, 18%, 23% and 73% lower than the recommended levels, respectively. The Britos study shows that a decisive factor in the worsening of the nutritional situation and problems in gaining access to food was the abrupt deterioration in purchasing power for the poor and other population groups, with income reductions being compounded by rapidly increasing food prices, particularly for staples consumed by the poorest households.

The end of foreign exchange parity and devaluation of the peso in early 2002 marked the beginning of an inflationary spiral. Since Argentina is an exporter of staple foods, and export prices in dollars determine domestic prices, the latter rose rapidly. Also, the most tradable foods account for close to two thirds of the caloric intake of persons living in poor households and one third of such households' expenditure on food. Following devaluation, both the food price index and the cost of the basic food basket used by INDEC in its poverty estimates rose much faster than the CPI. From December 2001 to May 2003, the food price index climbed by 62% and prices for the staples included in the INDEC basket rose by 73%, while the CPI increased by 44%. The marked deterioration in food security in Argentina is largely attributable to the fact that foodstuffs, including the products most often purchased by poor households, were among the products most affected by devaluation and inflation. This led to commercial brand and product substitutions, domestic and community strategies to optimize scarce resources and, ultimately, a net decrease in purchasing and consumption (Britos, 2002).

Box II.7 (concluded)

HUNGER IN ARGENTINA: THE EFFECTS OF THE MACROECONOMIC CRISIS ON THE POPULATION'S FOOD SECURITY

Variation in general prices and selected staples between December 2001 and May 2003

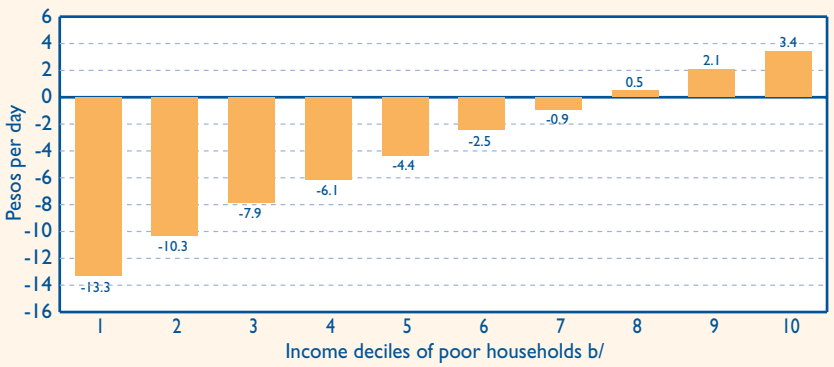
Price indices	May 2003
Consumer Price Index	144.0
Food Price Index	162.3
Basic food basket	173.0

Selected staples	May 2003		May 2003
Vegetable oil	219.8	French bread	139.3
White rice	230.1	Potatoes	194.9
Beef brisket	163.9	Chicken	203.5
Sugar	233.3	Table salt	133.3
Pasta	149.7	Tomatoes	140.2
Eggs	213.2	Yerba mate	120.2
Fresh whole milk	174.4	Carrots	141.5

Source: Sergio Britos, "Crisis 2001–2002: pobreza, precios y alimentación" [The 2001–2002 Crisis: poverty, prices and food], Buenos Aires, Centro de Estudios sobre Nutrición Infantil [Centre for Studies on Child Nutrition] (CESNI), August 2003, unpublished.

Problems in gaining access to food and the deterioration in food security in Argentina can be measured by analysing the extent and severity of poverty. People living in indigent or extremely poor households, whose income is insufficient to meet nutritional needs even if it were allocated entirely to purchasing food, account for only a fraction of those suffering from hunger, since some portion of household income must be used to meet other basic needs. Based on the cost of the basic basket of foods and an estimate of the minimum amount needed to meet food and non–food needs, Britos suggests that the minimum monetary income per adult equivalent or "food access security line" in Argentina today is 1.66 times the value of the basket or of the indigence line. Using this criterion, households living in poverty, whether indigent or poor but non–indigent, can be classified according to their income shortfall in terms of the funds needed to purchase the foods included in the basic basket. The following figure indicates how large poor households' income deficit is in relation to the need to ensure an adequate diet for their members.

Poor households' income deficits in relation to the basic food basket, a/ by income deciles October 2002



Source: Centro de Estudios sobre Desnutrición Infantil (CESNI), "Situación nutricional en Argentina" [The situation of nutrition in Argentina], presentation, May 2003 (http:/www.cesni.org.ar).
a/ Assumes that 66% of total household income is used to buy food.
b/ In October 2002, 45.7% of urban households were poor according to INDEC figures.

Table II.7

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (23 COUNTRIES): a/ OBSERVED AND PROJECTED PERCENTAGES OF UNDERNOURISHED PEOPLE AND HUNGER TARGETS FOR 2015

Country	Percentage of undernourished people					Hunger targets for 2015		
	Percentage	Variability coefficient b/	Percentage	Variability coefficient b/	Projection for 2015 c/	Halve percentage of undernourished people	Halve number of undernourished people	Eradicate hunger (% of undernourished less than 1.0%)
	1990–1992		1998–2000					
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Argentina	2	0.20	2	0.23	0.7	1.0	0.8	< 1.0
Bolivia	26	0.27	23	0.28	12.8	13.0	7.8	< 1.0
Brazil	13	0.34	10	0.35	5.8	6.5	4.8	< 1.0
Chile	8	0.24	4	0.25	1.6	4.0	3.0	< 1.0
Colombia	17	0.30	13	0.30	7.5	8.5	5.7	< 1.0
Costa Rica	6	0.25	5	0.25	2.1	3.0	1.8	< 1.0
Ecuador	8	0.22	5	0.23	2.0	4.0	2.6	< 1.0
El Salvador	12	0.28	14	0.29	7.7	6.0	3.9	< 1.0
Guatemala	14	0.28	25	0.28	14.4	7.0	3.8	< 1.0
Guyana	19	0.27	14	0.28	7.6	9.5	9.3	< 1.0
Haiti	64	0.70	50	0.47	40.9	32.0	20.9	< 1.0
Honduras	23	0.33	21	0.34	13.6	11.5	6.4	< 1.0
Jamaica	14	0.25	9	0.25	4.4	7.0	5.6	< 1.0
Mexico	5	0.31	5	0.32	2.4	2.5	1.8	< 1.0
Nicaragua	30	0.37	29	0.38	19.6	15.0	8.2	< 1.0
Panama	19	0.27	18	0.28	10.4	9.5	6.7	< 1.0
Paraguay	18	0.22	14	0.24	7.4	9.0	5.0	< 1.0
Peru	27 d/	0.25	11	0.28	5.9	13.5	9.7	< 1.0
Dominican Rep.	27	0.30	26	0.32	17.3	13.5	9.3	< 1.0
Suriname	12	0.27	11	0.28	5.9	6.0	5.5	< 1.0
Trinidad and Tobago	13	0.30	12	0.30	6.8	6.5	5.7	< 1.0
Uruguay	6	0.20	3	0.20	1.0	3.0	2.5	< 1.0
Venezuela	11	0.24	21	0.26	12.3	5.5	3.6	< 1.0
Simple average e/	17	0.27	15	0.28	9.1	8.6	5.8	< 1.0
Weighted average	13	0.30	11	0.31	6.5	6.6	4.5	< 1.0

Source: Columns 1 and 3, FAO, *The State of Food Insecurity in the World, 2002*, Rome (http://www.fao.org); columns 2 and 4 contain variability coefficients implicit in the figures shown in columns 1 and 3; column 5 corresponds to the estimated percentage of undernourished people by 2015; columns 6, 7 and 8 are targets for 2015 relative to 1990–1992 (column 1) as the base year.

a/ For lack of information, FAO undernourishment data do not include: Antigua and Barbuda, Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Bermuda, Dominica, Grenada, Netherlands Antilles, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Santa Lucia or Saint Vincent and the Grenadines.

b/ The variability coefficient refers to the dispersion of dietary energy consumption (measured in kilocalories per person per day) by population stratum.

c/ Projection based on average DES in 1997–1999, as shown in FAO food balance sheets, and estimated rate of growth, published in 2003 by FAO in *World Agriculture: Towards 2015/2030. A FAO Perspective* (http://www.fao.org/docrep/005/y4252e/y4252e00.htm), assuming that the variability coefficient implicit in FAO estimates of the percentage of undernourished people in 1998–2000 has fallen by 5% by 2015.

d/ According to FAO estimates for 1990–1992, 40% of the population was undernourished. However, a review of DES for the years 1990 and 1991 shows that the results are quite atypical and well below the values observed in prior and subsequent years. Accordingly, and considering the weight assigned to the value observed in the early 1990s in setting targets for 2015, the percentage of undernourishment derived from the average values reported in food balance sheets between 1992 and 1994 was used instead.

e/ Does not include Haiti.

Table II.8

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (23 COUNTRIES): OBSERVED AND PROJECTED DIETARY ENERGY SUPPLY (DES) AND DES NEEDED TO MEET TARGETS

Country	Dietary energy supply (DES)						Deficit in DES with respect to targets		
	Observed		Projected to 2015 a/	Needed to meet target for			halve percentage	halve number	eradicate under-nourishment (< 1.0%)
	1990–1992	1998–2000		lower percentage	lower number	eradication			
Argentina	2 994	3 181	3 445	3 332	3 406	3 332	3.4	1.1	3.4
Bolivia	2 144	2 211	2 450	2 445	2 638	3 342	0.2	-7.1	-26.7
Brazil	2 790	2 957	3 202	3 144	3 296	4 075	1.8	-2.8	-21.4
Chile	2 612	2 845	3 081	2 816	2 904	3 214	9.4	6.1	-4.1
Colombia	2 435	2 568	2 784	2 731	2 894	3 561	1.9	-3.8	-21.8
Costa Rica	2 720	2 782	3 013	2 912	3 062	3 231	3.5	-1.6	-6.8
Ecuador	2 508	2 676	2 901	2 717	2 829	3 078	6.8	2.5	-5.7
El Salvador	2 492	2 454	2 678	2 770	2 926	3 403	-3.3	-8.5	-21.3
Guatemala	2 403	2 165	2 398	2 677	2 894	3 354	-10.4	-17.1	-28.5
Guyana	2 350	2 522	2 751	2 665	2 674	3 479	3.2	2.9	-20.9
Haiti	1 794	2 037	2 256	2 497	2 891	5 529	-9.6	-22.0	-59.2
Honduras	2 313	2 392	2 610	2 695	2 982	3 840	-3.1	-12.5	-32.0
Jamaica	2 503	2 670	2 894	2 740	2 814	3 354	5.6	2.8	-13.7
Mexico	3 131	3 146	3 407	3 396	3 539	3 780	0.3	-3.8	-9.9
Nicaragua	2 209	2 238	2 479	2 640	2 988	4 133	-6.1	-17.0	-40.0
Panama	2 359	2 407	2 626	2 661	2 793	3 467	-1.3	-6.0	-24.3
Paraguay	2 393	2 544	2 758	2 692	2 881	3 362	2.4	-4.3	-18.0
Peru	2 152 b/	2 598	2 816	2 501	2 629	3 424	12.6	7.1	-17.8
Dominican Rep.	2 260	2 309	2 519	2 640	2 816	3 785	-4.6	-10.6	-33.5
Suriname	2 548	2 617	2 837	2 829	2 860	3 448	0.3	-0.8	-17.7
Trinidad and Tobago	2 638	2 681	2 906	2 926	2 984	3 679	-0.7	-2.6	-21.0
Uruguay	2 662	2 853	3 089	2 831	2 870	3084	9.1	7.7	0.2
Venezuela	2 465	2 278	2 485	2 767	2 912	3 312	-10.2	-14.7	-25.0
Simple average	2 473	2 571	2 799	2 784	2 934	3 577	0.6	-4.6	-21.7
Weighted average	2 713	2 827	3 054	3 019	3 171	3 743	1.1	-3.7	-18.4

Source: FAO statistical database (FAOSTAT), food balance sheets.

a/ Projection based on average DES in 1997–1999, from FAO food balance sheets, and growth rate estimates published in 2003 by FAO in *World Agriculture: Towards 2015/2030. A FAO Perspective* (http://www.fao.org/docrep/005/y4252e/y4252e00.htm), assuming that the variability coefficient implicit in the FAO estimate of the percentage of undernourished people in 1998–2000 falls 5% by 2015.

b/ Average for 1992–1994.

Table II.9

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (22 COUNTRIES): OBSERVED PERCENTAGE OF MALNOURISHED CHILDREN UNDER FIVE AND TARGETS FOR THE REDUCTION OF MALNUTRITION BY 2015

Country	Moderate–to–severe low body mass (percentages) a/		Goals for the reduction of malnutrition by 2015					
			Halve percentage of malnourished children in 1990 b/		Continue lowering percentage of malnourished children based on UNICEF goal c/		Eradicate malnutrition among children	
	Percentage in 1980–1991	Percentage in 1995–2001	Percentage of malnourished children	Additional increase in coverage needed d/	Percentage of malnourished children	Additional increase in coverage needed d/	Percentage of malnourished children	Additional increase in coverage needed d/
Argentina	...	5	...	...	...	...	< 1.0	141 706
Bolivia	13	8	6.5	19 416	3.3	61 485	< 1.0	90 739
Brazil	7	6	3.5	412 153	1.8	700 660	< 1.0	825 955
Chile	3 e/	1	1.5	-.-	0.8	-.-	< 1.0	-.-
Colombia	10	7	5.0	96 856	2.5	217 927	< 1.0	291 054
Costa Rica	6	5	3.0	9 650	1.5	16 887	< 1.0	19 347
Cuba	...	4	...	...	...	...	< 1.0	19 198
Ecuador	17	14	8.5	78 729	4.3	139 564	< 1.0	186 229
El Salvador	15	12	7.5	35 099	3.8	64 348	< 1.0	85 875
Guatemala	34 e/	24	17.0	148 472	8.5	328 759	< 1.0	488 049
Haiti	37 e/	17	18.5	-.-	9.3	100 808	< 1.0	208 250
Honduras	21	17	10.5	66 166	5.3	119 608	< 1.0	162 972
Jamaica	7	4	3.5	1 235	1.8	5 556	< 1.0	7 433
Mexico	14	8	7.0	104 002	3.5	468 010	< 1.0	729 056
Nicaragua	11	12	5.5	56 105	2.8	79 842	< 1.0	95 034
Panama	16	8	8.0	-.-	4.0	11 439	< 1.0	20 048
Paraguay	4	5	2.0	28 064	1.0	37 419	< 1.0	37 513
Peru	13 e/	7	6.5	14 677	3.3	110 076	< 1.0	176 415
Dominican Rep.	13 e/	5	6.5	-.-	3.3	17 148	< 1.0	39 293
Trinidad and Tobago	7 e/	7 e/	3.5	3 288	1.8	4 933	< 1.0	5 647
Uruguay	7 e/	4	3.5	1 377	1.8	6 194	< 1.0	8 287
Venezuela	6 e/	4	3.0	28 548	1.5	71 369	< 1.0	85 929
Simple average f/	13.1	8.8	6.5	1 103 837	3.3	2 562 033	< 1.0	3 563 122
Weighted average g/	11.5	7.9	5.9		2.9		< 1.0	
Number of children	5 721 947	3 991 028	3 006 356		1 503 178		546 836	

Source: On underweight children, United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), *The State of the World's Children, 1993*, New York, 1993 and *The State of the World's Children, 2003*, New York, 2003 (http://unicef.org/spanish(sowc03/tables/tables2.html).

a/ The indicator used to identify moderately to severely underweight children refers to the percentage of children under five years of age whose weight for their age is two or more standard deviations below the norm in the reference population.

b/ Millennium Development Goal.

c/ UNICEF, at the World Summit for Children held in 1990, proposed the goal of halving moderate–to–severe malnutrition in children under five years of age between 1990 and 2000. The target proposed here extends that goal out to 2015 –for a reduction of the percentage of malnourished children to one–fourth its level in 1990 by that date– at a slower rate (over 15 years), considering the greater difficulty in treating children with problems in gaining access to health care services.

d/ Corresponds to the additional number of children under the age of five that would need to be treated under nutritional programmes in order to reach the target, based on the percentage of malnourished children in 2000 applied to the number of children under five in 2015.

e/ Data refer to years or periods other than those specified in the column heading, to definitions other than the norm or simply to another part of the country.

f/ Does not include Argentina or Cuba in either year. In the case of additional increases in the coverage needed, corresponds to the sum of the number of additional children that would need to be treated.

g/ Does not include Argentina or Cuba in either year. The figure below the average target corresponds in each case to the total number of children who would still be malnourished (moderately to seriously underweight) today and in 2015.

-.-: Signifies that the number is very low or equal to 0.

Table II.10

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (20 COUNTRIES): CHILDREN UNDER FIVE WITH STUNTED GROWTH, 1980s AND 1990s

Countries	Percentage of children with stunted growth a/	
	Starting year	Ending year
Bolivia	37.7	26.8
Brazil	15.4	10.5
Chile	9.6	2.3
Colombia	16.6	15.0
Costa Rica	7.6	6.1
Ecuador	26.4	27.0
El Salvador	29.9	23.1
Guatemala	57.7	49.7
Guyana	23.7	20.7
Haiti	33.9	31.9
Honduras	29.2	31.9
Jamaica	8.7	9.6
Mexico	18.0	17.7
Nicaragua	22.5	24.9
Panama	22.0	9.9
Peru	31.8	25.8
Dominican Republic	20.6	10.7
Trinidad and Tobago	12.4	4.8
Uruguay	15.9	9.5
Venezuela	13.8	14.9
Simple average	23.9	20.3
Weighted average	23.8	20.7

Source: Mercedes de Onis, Edward A. Frongillo and Monika Blössner, "Is malnutrition declining? An analysis of changes in the levels of child malnutrition since 1980", *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, Compilation, No. 4, Geneva, 2001.

a/ Percentage of children under the age of five who are two standard deviations below the international reference norm for height established by the United States National Center for Health Statistics.

CHAPTER III

Poverty and inequality from a gender perspective

Introduction

Chapter III provides information on developments during the 1990s, following on the analysis begun in an earlier edition of the *Social panorama of Latin America* (ECLAC, 1995). This chapter attempts to answer the key question of whether poverty affects women and men differently. To this end, it presents a conceptual framework for an analysis of poverty from a gender perspective; analyses the quantitative impact of poverty, which is greater for women; demonstrates inequalities existing within families and households which are associated with the constraints of poverty and time; analyses labour–market inequalities and their effects on women's economic autonomy; and finally, presents two dimensions of poverty not traditionally examined: inequalities in decision–making autonomy and unequal access to power. The main conclusion is that poverty has more severe effects on women, whose contribution is critical if poverty is to be overcome in the region. Accordingly, gender equality –that is, the elimination of social inequalities between men and women– must be one of the overriding objectives of any policy to overcome poverty.

A. Households and poverty: a gender analysis

Gender inequality stems from sociocultural and historical constructs that translate sexual differences into discrimination. Such discrimination is expressed in a division of labour by sex and in differential, hierarchical access to material and symbolic resources and to power in all its manifestations.

The division of labour by sex assigns domestic tasks of a reproductive and caregiving nature almost exclusively to women. In addition to overburdening women with work, this takes time away from training and recreational activity and limits women's options in joining the labour force, obtaining more diversified work and earning sufficient income; it also limits their ability to take part in social and political activity.

An unequal distribution of access to, use and control of productive resources (labour, land, capital, information, new technologies, natural resources, housing) explains the limitations on women's ability to generate income (in particular to undertake entrepreneurial initiatives) and to obtain benefits commensurate with the contributions they make, as well as to join processes of upward mobility.

The unequal distribution of power between men and women –and the difficulties encountered by women in taking an active role in decision–making, both in the home and in local communities and society as a whole– have to do with obstacles to their participation in allocating resources and setting objectives for programmes and policies designed to overcome poverty.

Legal and practical barriers to women's exercise of their rights and citizenship leave them vulnerable and insecure, and hinder the development of autonomy. In this sense, the phenomenon of violence against women, and the asymmetrical distribution and allocation of household resources, are paradigmatic.

A gender analysis seeks to identify inequalities faced by women as compared to their male peers. These inequalities stand in the way of women's achieving a better quality of life, becoming more independent and exercising their rights as citizens. Adopting a gender perspective means recognizing that men and women experience poverty differently and that the likelihood of being poor is not randomly distributed throughout the population (Sen, 1998).

This chapter addresses some of those assumptions, based on information compiled through household surveys conducted in the countries of Latin America. Although these sources are not sufficient in themselves in terms of information and coverage to analyse gender inequality and female poverty, the data they provide are eloquent in drawing attention to disparities between men and women in the region. Gaps between individuals and between members of the same household are identified and included in an explanation of unequal resource distribution and power relations in the domestic and public spheres. The findings also point to the need for new sources of quantitative and qualitative information such as surveys on time use, perception and career path studies and panel–type surveys, which will allow for a more effective analysis of poverty.

The debate on measuring poverty from a gender perspective

It is generally recognized that poverty is a multidimensional phenomenon. Still, in measuring it, priority has been given to monetary metrics applied to household income as a proxy for access to resources and satisfactors. The debate about gender–based poverty has led to an evaluation of these metrics and has brought to light crucial aspects that must be examined. On the one hand it is maintained that this kind of measurement is inadequate for capturing gender–based poverty, i.e., comparing the status of men and women and identifying factors that cause each to face different problems in overcoming poverty. In addition, it is clear that most current indicators of poverty are not gender–sensitive, in that they are aggregates based on the household as the unit of analysis rather than individuals; that is, they were not designed to answer the question that inspired this study. Further, under this methodological option it is assumed that there is an equitable distribution of resources among all household members, that their needs are equivalent and that all decisions are democratic and consensus–based, as if negotiation and conflict, even violence, did not exist.

The failure to assign economic value to unpaid domestic work or to regard it as income in households where one person is devoted exclusively to housekeeping and caregiving also limits the ability of traditional poverty measurements to capture gender inequalities. This is all the more true since this circumstance can make a major difference in household income, especially considering that households headed by men are more likely to benefit from the housework performed free of charge by the spouse or partner and therefore do not have to incur expenses for housekeeping services. Women heads of household shoulder the burden of housework without receiving compensation, generally by increasing the time they spend doing unpaid work and incurring additional expenses to buy services available on the market. This gives them fewer opportunities to improve their position in the labour market, participate in public life or enjoy leisure and recreation, not to mention the effects of this situation on their physical and mental health. This difference demonstrates other dimensions of poverty that are not always taken into consideration. Identifying specific differences between men and women terms of their use of time and their spending patterns is therefore relevant to an analysis of poverty and the different ways in which it may be experienced.

One innovative aspect of poverty analysis is that it considers the situation of individuals who have no income of their own, in both poor and non–poor households. This situation, which is common to most women (especially those living with a spouse or partner), limits economic autonomy and decision–making capacity and leaves women more vulnerable in the event of widowhood or marital or family break–up. This vulnerability must be addressed with adequate policies.

Occupying an increasingly important place in the poverty debate is the consideration of qualitative methods that can pick up subjective perceptions and definitions of poverty. In combination with quantitative methods, this allows poverty to be measured more fully, by identifying other possible causes and proposing solutions more in accordance with the specific circumstances of each social segment. The relevance of such methods is closely tied to a more comprehensive concept of poverty that encompasses not only material needs but also symbolic factors. Their consequences can be significant in considering poverty from a gender perspective.

B. Are there more poor women than poor men?

About half of the region's women over the age of 15 do not earn their own income, while just 20% of men are in that position. In 2002 the femininity index of the urban poor population (among women aged 20 to 59) was greater than 100 in 17 of the 18 countries analysed in the region.

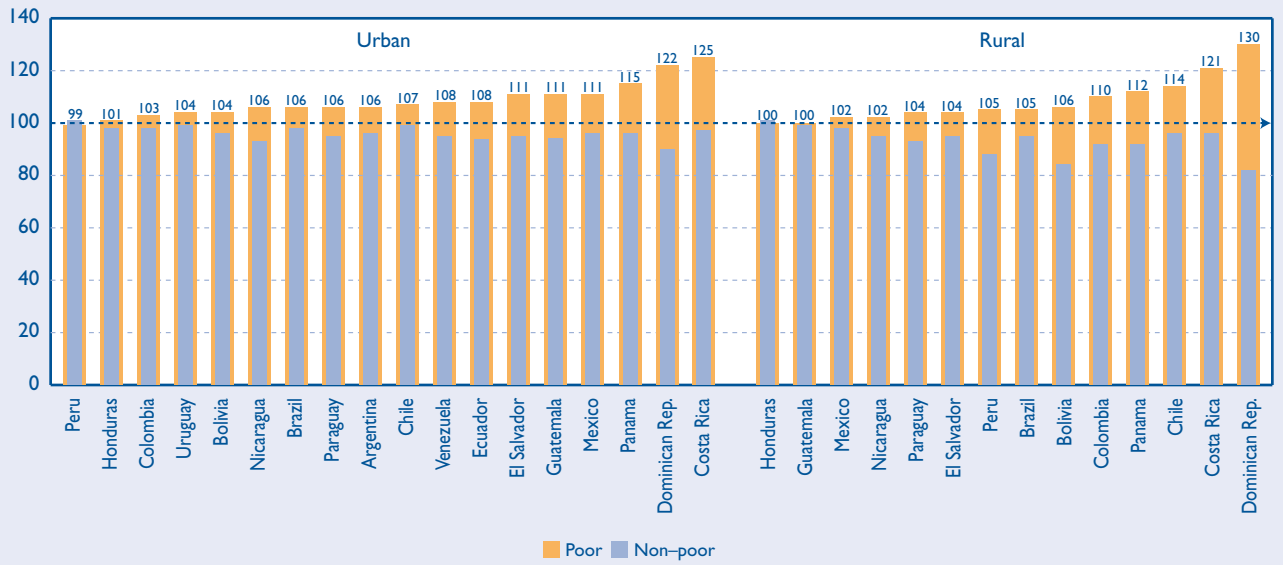
The femininity index is a ratio representing the number of women as compared to the number of men. The index shows that there are more females than males in both poor and non–poor households. This is not an unexpected finding, since there are more women than men in most of the countries in absolute terms, mainly because women have a longer life expectancy than men.

To control for this population effect, an adjusted femininity index was calculated by dividing the femininity index in poor households by the index in all households. This procedure was followed in all five age groups (0–6, 7–12, 13–19, 20–59, 60 and older) to determine whether certain female populations were more vulnerable to poverty than the male population by reason of age.

As a result of this process, it was observed that in most of the countries studied the index was greater than 100 in both urban and rural areas. This indicates a greater female presence in poor households, especially in the group aged 20 to 59, where the index is greater than 100 in virtually all countries in both urban and rural areas. It can therefore be said that women of active age are more at risk of being poor (see figure III.1 and table III.1).

Figure III.1

LATIN AMERICA (SELECTED COUNTRIES): FEMININITY INDEX a/ IN THE 20–59 AGE BRACKET, POOR AND NON–POOR HOUSEHOLDS, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, CIRCA 2002



Source: ECLAC, Women and Development Unit, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the countries.
a/ Number of women per 100 men.

Finally, the femininity index reveals a larger number of women living alone, for whom an equivalent male population does not exist among the poor. These are generally separated women, widows and single mothers, including female heads of household and heads of family without a male partner.

A gender–based analysis of poverty recognizes the importance of economic autonomy –defined as a person's ability to generate income and make spending decisions– in determining who is poor or at risk of becoming poor. Although it is known that resources within households are transferred from income earners to their dependents, household surveys provide critical information about the status of men and women with respect to their own income, which is a very important indicator of vulnerability to be taken into account in designing policy.

In 2002 it was observed that close to 43% of women over 15 in urban areas lacked their own income, whereas just 22% of men were in that situation (see figure III.2). Rural women were even more economically dependent in all age groups. In the case of men, the opposite was true: the percentage of men without income was slightly higher in urban areas than in rural areas.

Table III.1

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): FEMALE RATIO a/ IN POOR AND NON-POOR HOUSEHOLDS, BY AGE GROUP, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, CIRCA 1994, 1999 AND 2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas												Rural areas											
		Poor households						Non-poor households						Poor households						Non-poor households					
		Age group												Age group											
		0–6	7–12	13–19	20–59	60 and over	Total	0–6	7–12	13–19	20–59	60 and over	Total	0–6	7–12	13–19	20–59	60 and over	Total	0–6	7–12	13–19	20–59	60 and over	Total
Argentina b/	1994	96.0	106.9	118.3	110.2	85.8	102.5	101.4	97.8	96.2	98.7	102.5	99.5												
	1999	99.2	100.0	104.7	111.5	85.9	99.3	100.6	100.0	98.1	97.6	101.9	100.2												
	2002	101.6	99.1	97.6	106.5	90.2	98.3	97.2	101.7	103.2	96.1	103.8	101.4												
Bolivia c/	1994	95.9	98.9	101.0	106.0	93.6	100.1	107.2	101.7	99.0	95.3	104.9	99.9												
	1999	95.0	98.4	109.5	106.8	99.0	101.4	108.2	102.3	90.3	95.4	100.5	98.6	99.1	105.6	105.9	104.0	99.7	102.8	105.5	74.2	79.5	87.8	101.2	89.0
	2002	98.9	96.3	92.0	104.4	107.9	97.9	102.0	106.4	109.1	96.5	96.3	102.3	99.7	101.3	97.2	106.0	100.2	101.8	101.5	93.2	113.8	84.3	99.5	93.6
Brazil d/	1994	101.5	99.9	98.2	105.1	85.7	99.2	98.6	100.1	101.0	98.2	102.7	100.4	101.6	100.8	104.6	105.4	73.3	102.3	95.1	98.1	93.3	94.2	106.5	96.9
	1999	101.2	101.1	101.7	104.6	86.4	99.5	98.8	99.1	99.0	98.3	102.2	100.3	100.1	99.5	102.1	105.2	74.3	101.6	99.6	101.2	97.0	95.0	105.2	98.0
	2001	100.8	101.4	101.1	105.7	90.5	100.0	99.1	98.7	99.3	97.8	101.5	100.0	100.8	99.0	101.5	104.7	65.9	101.3	97.7	102.6	97.7	95.4	106.0	98.4
Chile	1994	95.9	105.4	104.2	107.7	110.1	101.9	102.7	96.9	98.2	97.8	98.4	99.3	99.7	94.9	119.5	117.8	92.1	108.4	100.2	104.1	90.7	94.1	101.4	96.5
	1998	105.7	94.3	103.3	109.1	98.2	101.0	97.6	102.5	98.9	98.2	100.2	99.8	99.0	104.8	107.9	114.7	112.9	109.1	100.6	97.0	96.5	95.7	97.6	96.7
	2000	100.3	100.3	107.3	107.1	90.0	100.3	99.9	99.9	97.7	98.6	100.9	99.9	98.8	103.2	109.1	113.9	80.8	107.1	100.6	98.4	96.2	96.5	102.0	97.9
Colombia	1994	103.2	97.2	97.1	102.1	107.0	99.1	95.7	104.1	102.8	98.7	96.4	100.7	100.9	100.8	97.7	105.8	111.5	102.6	98.1	98.2	104.2	92.8	86.3	95.9
	1999	99.2	100.2	99.8	103.5	109.0	100.4	101.5	99.6	100.2	97.2	95.1	99.6	98.7	102.0	106.0	110.2	109.5	105.8	103.5	95.0	91.0	88.4	90.4	91.3
	2002	100.4	99.6	100.9	102.9	104.1	99.9	99.3	100.7	98.9	97.7	97.5	100.1	105.6	99.9	104.5	109.9	109.4	106.1	91.5	100.2	94.8	92.4	93.4	93.7
Costa Rica	1994	90.9	102.3	115.9	121.8	106.7	107.0	104.2	99.1	95.6	96.6	98.1	98.3	104.6	106.4	113.2	122.7	120.9	113.2	98.0	96.8	96.4	95.3	91.4	96.0
	1999	103.3	96.0	109.8	134.6	134.3	114.4	98.8	101.4	97.6	95.6	93.9	97.1	98.8	107.0	132.3	125.1	119.4	114.5	100.5	97.1	93.5	95.4	93.8	96.2
	2002	97.7	95.4	103.4	125.1	118.2	108.3	100.7	101.6	99.1	96.8	95.7	98.3	108.5	100.5	95.3	121.2	106.2	108.5	96.6	99.8	101.5	95.6	97.1	97.4
Ecuador	1994	105.4	101.2	99.2	104.1	114.0	102.5	89.1	97.2	101.3	96.0	88.7	96.7												
	1999	100.6	96.4	98.6	104.5	107.9	101.3	98.3	110.9	103.0	94.1	89.7	97.8												
	2002	98.5	100.0	102.0	108.4	107.3	103.1	102.4	100.0	98.0	94.3	94.7	97.1												
El Salvador	1995	102.4	100.9	100.4	108.2	92.4	100.7	97.0	98.8	99.7	95.3	106.3	99.4	99.3	101.6	99.5	107.9	101.0	102.2	102.1	95.9	100.7	89.8	98.8	96.2
	1999	101.9	99.3	104.0	109.2	106.0	102.8	98.2	100.6	97.3	95.9	96.7	98.2	101.2	98.0	99.8	103.9	102.7	100.8	96.9	105.8	100.4	94.7	96.0	98.5
	2001	91.6	99.5	95.2	110.6	94.9	98.9	109.3	100.5	103.7	95.2	103.1	100.7	103.3	101.4	109.8	103.9	98.5	103.1	92.3	96.5	86.1	95.1	101.9	95.1
Guatemala	1998	99.4	105.7	99.0	106.4	92.7	101.0	100.7	92.9	100.8	96.1	105.4	99.2	99.9	97.0	100.7	102.7	113.2	100.4	100.3	109.5	98.4	95.3	80.9	99.0
	2002 e/	...	111.6	114.2	110.7	100.2	109.8	...	88.4	89.9	94.3	99.9	93.6	...	97.8	94.4	100.4	103.1	98.0	...	106.1	111.2	99.4	97.4	103.5
Honduras	1994	101.1	97.5	98.1	103.9	97.3	99.8	95.4	113.1	105.3	92.2	107.4	100.5	101.7	100.1	101.4	103.9	100.2	101.7	89.8	99.5	94.4	89.1	99.5	93.1
	1999	98.4	104.3	91.1	101.7	94.3	97.9	106.4	85.4	129.6	97.1	114.4	105.5	100.0	102.1	99.4	100.0	101.9	100.2	100.0	83.5	103.9	100.0	91.8	98.8
	2002	102.2	97.0	97.5	101.3	100.2	98.5	93.7	110.1	105.7	98.2	99.8	103.0	99.2	100.9	98.6	99.8	100.0	99.6	107.8	92.5	109.5	101.0	100.1	102.6
Mexico	1994	99.9	101.5	97.0	102.0	93.5	98.0	100.1	98.6	102.1	99.1	102.6	101.2	97.6	97.9	97.1	102.1	102.4	99.2	105.2	104.0	104.0	98.0	98.3	101.0
	1998	98.5	106.8	96.9	103.5	102.2	101.0	101.5	93.4	102.4	98.3	99.1	99.4	98.0	100.7	98.8	103.0	104.1	100.6	104.7	98.3	101.8	96.8	96.8	99.2
	2002	98.9	97.0	107.4	110.8	110.9	103.6	100.8	102.4	96.2	96.3	96.5	98.3	104.7	103.9	96.4	101.9	95.9	100.1	92.7	93.6	104.4	98.5	102.5	99.9
Nicaragua	1993	98.5	102.1	98.4	104.1	100.2	100.6	104.0	94.7	103.5	94.2	99.5	98.8	99.9	97.6	102.3	100.8	99.1	100.0	100.4	116.0	89.8	96.9	103.9	100.2
	1998	99.3	95.3	98.4	112.8	90.6	101.7	102.0	112.4	103.2	85.2	114.8	97.0	97.7	97.1	96.3	102.7	95.0	99.0	111.3	112.6	113.5	93.2	119.3	103.3
	2001	97.2	102.4	98.0	105.5	93.5	100.2	108.5	93.9	104.1	93.3	110.9	99.7	100.1	101.9	100.8	102.0	104.3	101.6	99.4	91.4	97.4	94.9	90.7	94.7
Panama	1994	97.4	97.8	99.7	117.9	124.6	103.8	101.6	101.3	100.1	96.5	96.1	98.9												
	1999	100.5	92.4	96.8	116.6	98.3	103.1	99.6	105.7	101.5	96.4	100.3	98.9												
	2002	99.9	97.4	103.6	115.3	122.5	105.2	100.1	101.5	98.5	96.5	96.4	98.3	97.3	101.0	108.2	111.5	105.7	106.0	103.9	98.6	92.2	92.4	96.1	94.6
Paraguay	1994	99.8	92.1	97.2	104.9	104.5	98.5	100.3	114.7	102.8	96.7	97.1	101.5												
	1999	93.2	90.2	94.8	105.9	94.8	97.1	112.2	116.5	106.0	96.0	102.8	102.9	99.5	102.0	99.2	105.1	100.9	101.9	102.3	91.1	102.4	90.4	98.7	94.9
	2002	97.9	93.6	99.1	106.5	101.8	100.2	103.4	111.4	101.0	95.3	98.8	99.8	98.2	98.1	98.4	103.8	96.6	99.9	109.2	108.1	105.7	92.9	105.7	100.4
Peru	2001	97.7	97.8	97.3	99.0	98.1	97.4	102.6	102.8	102.3	100.6	100.8	101.9	100.8	100.8	99.4	104.6	111.0	102.7	95.3	95.6	102.2	88.5	80.7	90.9
Dominican Republic	2002	101.6	102.5	102.6	121.8	124.4	110.3	98.3	97.3	97.9	90.1	84.1	93.2	97.6	105.3	102.7	129.6	118.7	113.3	104.2	91.8	97.1	82.4	83.8	87.8
Uruguay	1994	108.0	108.5	111.9	108.2	75.3	97.9	98.0	98.0	98.3	99.4	100.7	100.2												
	1999	99.3	107.3	121.5	104.2	86.9	97.3	100.2	98.5	97.2	99.7	100.3	100.3												
	2002	97.7	101.3	105.7	103.6	83.0	93.6	101.2	99.5	98.4	99.5	100.7	101.2												
Venezuela	1994	103.1	101.6	101.9	116.9	124.9	108.4	95.8	97.7	98.1	90.5	86.7	93.1	96.0	105.7	104.1	117.3	122.3	107.0	109.5	89.3	95.1	86.5	91.9	92.0
	1999 f/	99.1	98.0	105.2	110.1	105.6	104.3	101.5	103.3	94.5	93.2	95.9	96.0												
	2002 f/	101.5	100.8	103.6	107.7	108.0	104.2	97.7	98.8	96.3	94.9	94.7	96.2												

Source: ECLAC, Women and Development Unit, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

a/ Female ratio in poor households = $\frac{\text{(Female population in poor households/Male population in poor households)}}{\text{(Female population in all households/Male population in all households)}}$

b/ 1994: Greater Buenos Aires and 18 population centres. 1999: Greater Buenos Aires and 26 population centres. 2002: Greater Buenos Aires and 30 population centres.

c/ 1994: 7 departments and the city of Trinidad. 1999: 8 departments and Cobija. 2002: 9 departments.

d/ 1994: 7 metropolitan areas and other urban areas. 1999 and 2001: 10 metropolitan areas and other urban areas.

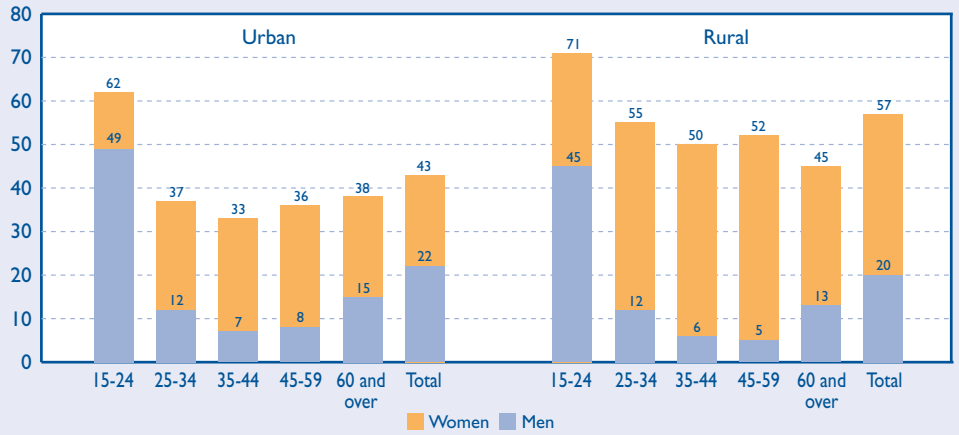
e/ The survey collects information on the population aged 7 years and over.

f/ National total.

Figure III.2

LATIN AMERICA (SIMPLE AVERAGE OF 16 COUNTRIES IN URBAN AREAS a/, 13 COUNTRIES IN RURAL AREAS b/): POPULATION WITHOUT OWN INCOME, BY SEX AND AGE BRACKET, CIRCA 2002

(Percentage of total for each sex)



Source: ECLAC, Women and Development Unit, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the countries.

a/ Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Dominican Republic and Uruguay.

b/ Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, Peru and Dominican Republic.

A considerable proportion of women living with a spouse or partner lack their own income in both poor and non–poor households. Between 1994 and 2002, in urban areas, the average percentage of women without income declined from 72% to 61% among poor households and from 48% to 42% among non–poor households (see table III.2). This is consistent with the higher proportion of women in the labour force. However, the indicator reflects the lack of economic autonomy and strong likelihood of being or becoming poor that affect a high proportion of the female population, especially in the event of changes in family or partner relationships. Separation or widowhood raises the likelihood that these women will end up in poor households. The situation is even clearer in urban areas, where in 2002 the percentage of women with no income in poor households ranged from 45% in Peru to 78% in Costa Rica, while in non–poor households it ranged from 32% in Uruguay to 54% in Mexico.

This information, in addition to underscoring the increase in poverty among women, demonstrates that a lack of economic autonomy, expressed as the ability to generate income, places women in a more vulnerable position and raises the likelihood that large groups of women will become poor if their family or spousal circumstances change. Although it is recognized that distribution processes within families attenuate this risk, attention must be drawn to the link between autonomy and poverty established by the gender perspective and the resulting need for policies to reinforce women's economic autonomy.

Table III.2

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): FEMALE SPOUSES OR PARTNERS WITHOUT INCOME OF THEIR OWN a/ IN POOR AND NON–POOR HOUSEHOLDS, BY AREA, CIRCA 1994, 1999 AND 2002

(Percentages)

Country b/	Year	Urban			Rural		
		Poor	Non–poor	Total	Poor	Non–poor	Total
Argentina c/	1994	84.9	57.2	60.9	…	…	…
	1999	79.3	52.8	57.5	…	…	…
	2002	63.0	46.6	52.9	…	…	…
Bolivia d/	1994	60.7	42.4	51.3	…	…	…
	1999	60.0	36.8	47.2	76.4	51.7	71.3
	2002	51.1	35.3	43.1	83.0	59.1	77.6
Brazil e/	1995	68.9	46.8	52.9	78.6	53.0	66.7
	1999	66.0	43.2	51.3	73.5	45.5	62.2
	2001	65.8	41.4	48.5	67.5	43.1	55.4
Chile f/	1994	83.0	57.9	63.9	87.1	68.7	73.9
	1998	74.0	52.5	56.3	67.0	57.8	60.1
	2000	74.2	51.3	55.2	63.9	57.2	58.6
Colombia	1994	72.9	47.3	58.2	78.4	65.4	73.1
	1999	67.2	43.5	54.6	77.0	60.7	70.2
	2002	64.5	40.9	51.9	…	…	…
Costa Rica	1994	83.6	58.4	62.7	90.8	78.0	80.7
	1999	78.7	55.4	58.3	88.2	71.8	74.7
	2002	77.8	51.4	55.0	84.9	70.1	73.2
Ecuador	1994	74.1	47.5	61.8	…	…	…
	1999	51.0	39.2	46.2	…	…	…
	2002	54.9	39.9	46.6			
El Salvador	1995	62.1	36.7	46.8	73.7	57.6	67.4
	1999	59.1	36.7	45.2	74.9	58.6	69.4
	2001	61.6	38.6	46.4	75.5	57.0	68.2
Guatemala	1999	42.9	33.1	37.1	…	…	…
	2002	52.1	34.6	41.8	59.6	45.3	54.0
Honduras	1994	68.0	41.8	60.0	78.7	56.6	73.7
	1999	55.6	31.4	47.5	65.7	42.1	61.8
	2002	67.1	47.4	59.8	82.8	62.1	79.5
Mexico	1994	77.0	64.7	68.6	71.9	66.9	69.4
	1998	71.1	58.2	62.6	63.1	62.2	62.7
	2002	70.1	53.7	58.2	35.7	44.5	40.4
Panama	1994	77.2	45.6	51.5	…	…	…
	1999	75.5	44.0	50.5	…	…	…
	2002	41.7	31.6	33.7	42.5	36.1	38.9
Paraguay	1994	62.2	40.6	49.9	…	…	…
	1999	60.8	36.4	47.4	65.6	45.1	59.2
	2002	54.4	37.5	45.1	54.9	42.5	50.8
Peru	2001	44.9	36.2	39.5	62.0	42.0	57.2
Dominican Republic	2002	69.1	43.3	51.9	76.7	62.2	68.9
Uruguay	1994	62.6	34.8	36.6	…	…	…
	1999	58.6	34.0	35.6	…	…	…
	2002	45.5	32.7	34.1	…	…	…
Venezuela	1994	76.7	56.0	64.5	85.8	72.3	79.5
	1999 g/	70.3	44.6	55.9	…	…	…
	2002 g/	67.4	39.6	51.7	…	…	…

Source: ECLAC, Women and Development Unit, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

a/ $\frac{\text{Female spouses or partners without income}}{\text{All female spouses or partners}} * 100$

b/ Nicaragua does not identify individual income.

c/ 1994: Greater Buenos Aires and 18 population centres.
1999: Greater Buenos Aires and 26 population centres.
2002: Greater Buenos Aires and 30 population centres.

d/ 1994: 7 departments and the city of Trinidad.
1999: 8 departments and Cobija.
2002: 9 departments.

e/ 1994: 7 metropolitan areas and other urban areas.
1999 and 2002: 10 metropolitan areas and other urban areas.

f/ 1994: Rural area: includes cities with fewer than 2,000 inhabitants, chosen at random and without regard to economic activity.
As of 1998: Rural area: area of concentrated or dispersed housing with 1,000 inhabitants or fewer, or between 1,001 and 2,000 inhabitants with less than 50% of its economically active population working in secondary and/or tertiary activities.

g/ National total.

C. Households and families

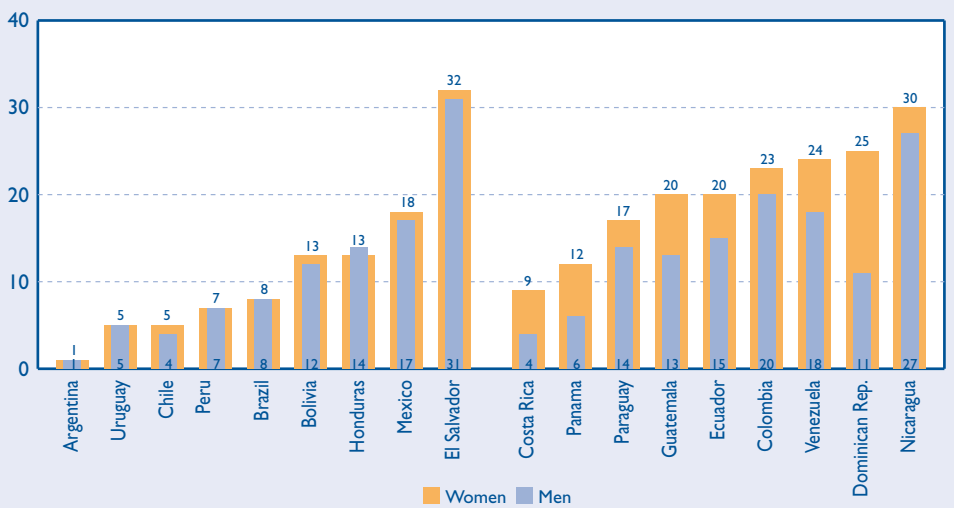
1. Poverty and heads of household

Over the past decade the number of households headed by women, both poor and non–poor, has continued to grow. These households have enjoyed less monetary income than households headed by men. In 2002 average per capita income among households headed by women stood at 94% of that for households headed by men in 17 countries of the region. Similarly, in 9 out of 18 countries, the proportion of indigence is clearly higher among female heads of household than among their male counterparts. Also, according to data on urban areas, in 2002 close to 90% of households headed by women lacked a spouse or partner, whereas only 13% of households headed by men were in that situation.

A disaggregation of heads of household by sex gives an initial approximation to the link between gender and poverty. The information available on urban areas in 2002 shows that the proportion of indigence is higher among households headed by women than among those headed by men. Nine of the 18 countries analysed demonstrate this gap, with varying intensity. In Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Guatemala, Panama and Venezuela the gap is greater than five percentage points (see figure III.3).

Figure III.3

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): PERCENTAGE OF INDIGENT HOUSEHOLDS OUT OF TOTAL HOUSEHOLDS HEADED BY WOMEN AND MEN, URBAN AREAS, CIRCA 2002



Source: ECLAC, Women and Development Unit, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the countries.

According to data from 1990 and 2002 (see table 22 in the statistical annex), urban areas saw a steady upturn in the number of female heads of household in both poor and non–poor households. Fifteen out of 16 countries showed an increase in the percentage of female heads of household in non–indigent poor and non–poor households. Among indigent households, this percentage increased in 11 of the 16 countries analysed. In four of them (Costa Rica, Mexico, Panama and Paraguay), it rose by more than 10 percentage points over the value observed in 1990; in contrast, five countries (Argentina, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua and Venezuela) showed a decrease in the percentage of indigent households headed by women. In 2002 female headship was more common among extremely poor households than among non–indigent poor and non–poor households in 11 of the 16 countries.

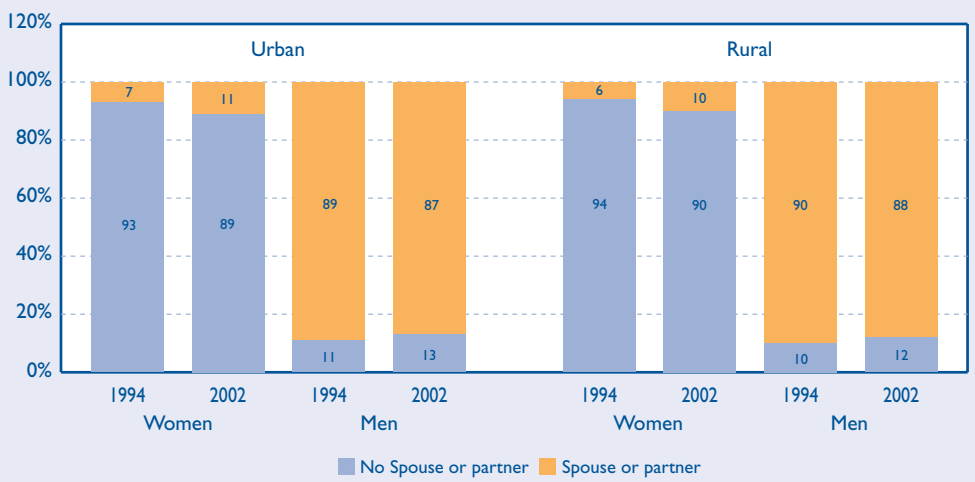
In order to better understand the relationship between heads of household and poverty, it is necessary first to consider the various types of household, their size and structure and the policy framework of each country. In this sense, households headed by women are not necessarily poorer, although this is frequently the case in the region.

Since the available literature does not contain a consensus–based definition of the term "head of household", the subjective meaning attributed to it by respondents prevails in practice. Given current cultural norms, which are often mirrored in legislation, the notion of a household head has tended to be associated with that of a male provider, as opposed to the notion of a dependent woman. As indicated above, this is now changing thanks to the massive influx of women into the workforce and growing acceptance of the idea that unpaid domestic work is a socially necessary function.

Approximately 90% of the households that identify themselves as being headed by women do not include a spouse or partner, whereas only 13% of those that claim to be headed by men are in that situation (see figure III.4). It is important to take this into account in designing policy, since households headed by women do not have the same opportunities as other households to generate additional income, unless children or other relatives engage in paid work.

Figure III.4

LATIN AMERICA (SIMPLE AVERAGE OF 14 COUNTRIES IN URBAN AREAS AND 9 COUNTRIES IN RURAL AREAS): HEADS OF HOUSEHOLD, BY SEX AND PRESENCE OF SPOUSE OR PARTNER, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, CIRCA 1994 AND 2002



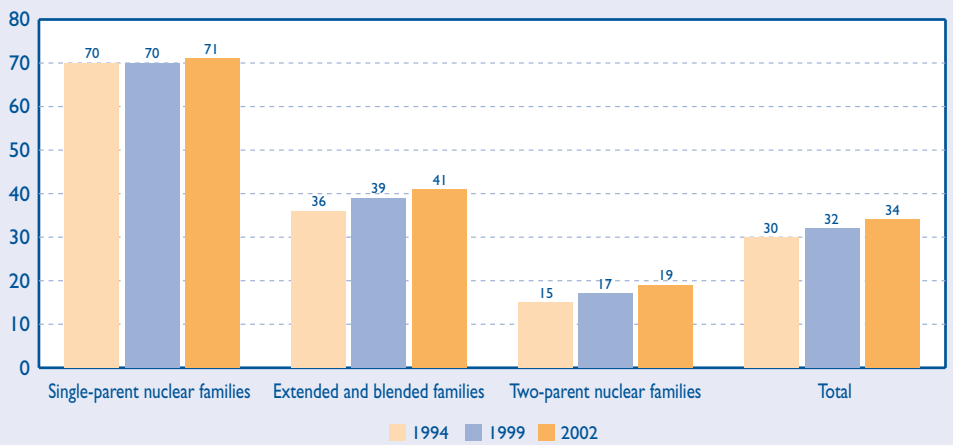
Source: ECLAC, Women and Development Unit, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the countries.

According to 2002 data, 26% of urban multi–person households (single–parent, two–parent, extended and blended) were headed by women, but 34% of them had a woman as the main breadwinner (see table III.3 and figure III.5). The fact that many women who are the main breadwinners in their households are not recognized as heads of household can be attributed to cultural factors that tend to identify the adult male, when present, as the head of household even when he is not the main provider. This phenomenon reflects deeply held values whereby the role of family provider is assigned to the male and is associated with symbolic aspects such as the authority and prestige denoted by the fact of being the "head". The bias built into information collection processes by the surveyors themselves may be just as important.

Figure III.5

LATIN AMERICA (SIMPLE AVERAGE, 14 COUNTRIES): a/ HOUSEHOLDS WITH WOMEN AS PRIMARY BREADWINNERS, BY TYPE OF HOUSEHOLD, URBAN AREAS, CIRCA 1994, 1999 AND 2002

(Percentage of total households)



Source: ECLAC, Women and Development Unit, on the basis of special tabulations of household surveys conducted in the countries.
a/ Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay and Uruguay.

Table III.3

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): FEMALE HEADSHIP, BY TYPE OF HOUSEHOLD, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, CIRCA 1994, 1999 AND 2002

(Percentages of all households)

Country	Year	Urban households					Rural households				
		Total	One–person	Two–parent nuclear	Single–parent nuclear	Extended or composite	Total	One–person	Two–parent nuclear	Single–parent nuclear	Extended or composite
Argentina a/	1994	23.8	66.2	1.6	84.3	32.1	...	...	...	...	...
	1999	27.6	62.3	3.2	83.7	39.9	...	...	...	...	...
	2002	28.6	64.9	3.4	81.3	38.2	...	...	...	...	...
Bolivia b/	1994	18.2	38.8	*	84.2	30.5	...	...	...	...	...
	1999	20.4	42.2	2.0	84.3	38.1	15.8	40.7	0.3	76.5	23.1
	2002	23.5	47.4	2.5	84.4	34.6	13.8	39.1	*	74.8	18.6
Brazil c/	1995	22.1	55.8	0.9	89.8	35.8	12.9	34.8	0.2	79.6	21.9
	1999	25.4	54.9	3.5	89.0	38.8	13.4	32.6	0.6	78.3	24.7
	2001	26.3	53.5	3.6	88.8	40.7	13.5	32.0	0.9	78.8	24.1
Chile d/	1994	22.4	55.9	1.8	86.2	33.4	15.6	35.2	1.1	80.4	24.3
	1998	24.0	57.6	3.2	87.9	35.4	15.3	32.8	1.3	77.9	23.5
	2000	24.3	54.8	4.2	85.0	37.0	16.0	32.0	2.1	76.9	24.5
Colombia	1994	24.2	54.3	1.6	89.5	36.0	18.7	32.7	1.4	85.2	27.4
	1999	28.8	46.8	2.8	87.7	40.0	18.7	37.8	1.6	78.7	25.7
	2002	30.3	49.3	4.5	87.6	41.1	19.7	35.1	2.6	80.4	29.3
Costa Rica	1994	24.0	54.4	1.4	87.3	37.3	16.0	38.6	1.0	82.5	27.8
	1999	27.9	51.9	3.8	90.8	41.4	18.6	36.4	2.5	86.9	29.5
	2002	28.4	50.2	4.1	91.7	45.1	19.7	29.9	2.7	89.3	31.7
Ecuador	1994	18.7	42.9	1.4	83.4	25.7	...	...	...	...	...
	1999	20.1	34.2	2.3	83.1	29.1	...	...	...	...	...
	2002	21.4	34.9	2.6	76.9	29.0	...	...	...	...	...
El Salvador	1995	30.8	52.9	1.9	89.3	42.5	23.4	38.5	*	85.1	33.7
	1999	31.4	44.6	4.2	88.1	44.3	24.5	37.9	3.6	82.4	34.6
	2001	35.3	46.4	5.9	89.5	47.1	27.3	34.2	3.7	85.3	40.2
Guatemala	1998	24.3	51.8	1.2	88.7	34.1	17.7	35.9	0.3	89.2	22.6
Honduras	1994	25.0	43.3	1.6	88.0	36.6	18.7	37.8	0.8	90.6	28.9
	1999	30.3	37.5	2.5	91.1	40.8	20.7	47.7	1.2	86.0	29.6
	2002	31.4	45.3	3.5	87.7	42.8	19.2	30.2	1.6	82.8	29.3
Mexico	1994	17.0	50.5	0.2	90.3	27.9	11.2	39.9	0.5	72.6	17.1
	1998	19.4	42.8	0.9	90.0	32.4	15.8	42.0	0.6	83.6	24.1
	2002	21.4	47.8	1.9	86.5	34.2	17.6	56.8	*	84.4	26.5
Nicaragua	1993	34.9	42.7	8.4	87.3	48.3	18.9	27.8	3.1	79.2	28.6
	1998	34.5	44.6	4.8	90.2	46.5	18.5	32.2	1.9	81.0	27.0
	2001	34.2	44.0	5.9	90.3	46.0	18.9	29.6	*	79.2	30.1
Panama	1994	27.0	36.6	3.8	85.0	38.1	...	...	...	...	...
	1999	27.4	34.0	5.0	85.8	36.4	...	...	...	...	...
	2002	28.9	37.0	4.7	87.3	39.6	15.9	18.7	2.2	71.9	20.7
Paraguay	1994	23.7	42.0	3.3	89.9	30.8	...	...	...	...	...
	1999	27.3	51.9	3.9	89.0	36.6	20.1	38.3	4.0	85.0	25.6
	2002	29.6	42.1	8.2	85.8	39.4	19.6	26.3	3.5	74.8	31.3
Peru	2001	22.1	35.5	2.0	79.2	30.4	17.1	39.9	1.1	77.6	25.4
Dominican Republic	2002	34.2	44.8	6.2	88.3	46.8	23.3	24.8	2.7	76.3	38.5
Uruguay	1994	27.1	72.2	1.8	86.4	34.6	...	...	...	...	...
	1999	30.5	65.7	6.0	85.8	37.9	...	...	...	...	...
	2002	32.3	63.5	7.0	84.6	42.1	...	...	...	...	...
Venezuela	1994	24.6	36.8	1.5	88.1	35.3	17.6	20.3	*	78.0	26.9
	1999 e/	27.2	35.6	4.5	87.4	37.8	...	...	...	...	...
	2002 e/	28.8	29.3	6.1	87.9	40.2	...	...	...	...	...

Source: ECLAC, Women and Development Unit, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

* Insufficient sample size.

a/ 1994: Greater Buenos Aires and 18 population centres. 1999: Greater Buenos Aires and 26 population centres. 2002: Greater Buenos Aires and 30 population centres.

b/ 1994: 7 departments and the city of Trinidad. 1999: 8 departments and Cobija. 2002: 9 departments.

c/ 1994: 7 metropolitan areas and other urban areas. 1999 and 2002: 10 metropolitan areas and other urban areas.

d/ 1994: Rural area: includes cities with fewer than 2,000 inhabitants, chosen at random without regard to economic activity. As of 1998: Rural area: area of concentrated or dispersed housing with 1,000 inhabitants or fewer, or between 1,001 and 2,000 inhabitants with less than 50% of its economically active population working in secondary and/or tertiary activities.

e/ National total.

Head of household: "Head of household" is defined as a person who designates himself/herself as head or who is designated and recognized as such by other members of the household.

One–person household: A household consisting of just one person.

Two–parent nuclear: A household formed by a cohabiting or legally married couple with or without children.

Single–parent nuclear: A household consisting of one parent and one or more children.

Extended or composite: A household that is any of the types mentioned above, with the addition of one or more relatives or non–relatives of the head of household.

The foregoing is observable, for example, when two–parent nuclear family households are analysed; about 95% of such households are headed by men in most countries. If these data are compared to data on the sex of the person contributing the bulk of the family's income, it becomes apparent that women account for an average of 19%.

An analysis of women's income circa 1999 shows that, individually, female heads of household had less monetary income than male heads of household in both poor and non–poor households (see figure III.6).

With respect to household size, households headed by women or partners are generally smaller than those headed by men. This is attributable mainly to the presence of spouses or partners in the latter. At the same time, female spouses or partners show a high rate of unpaid domestic activity, which, since it is not recognized as a contribution, places them in a position of dependency with respect to the head of household and generates an increase in the dependency rate of households headed by men as compared to those headed by women (see table III.4).

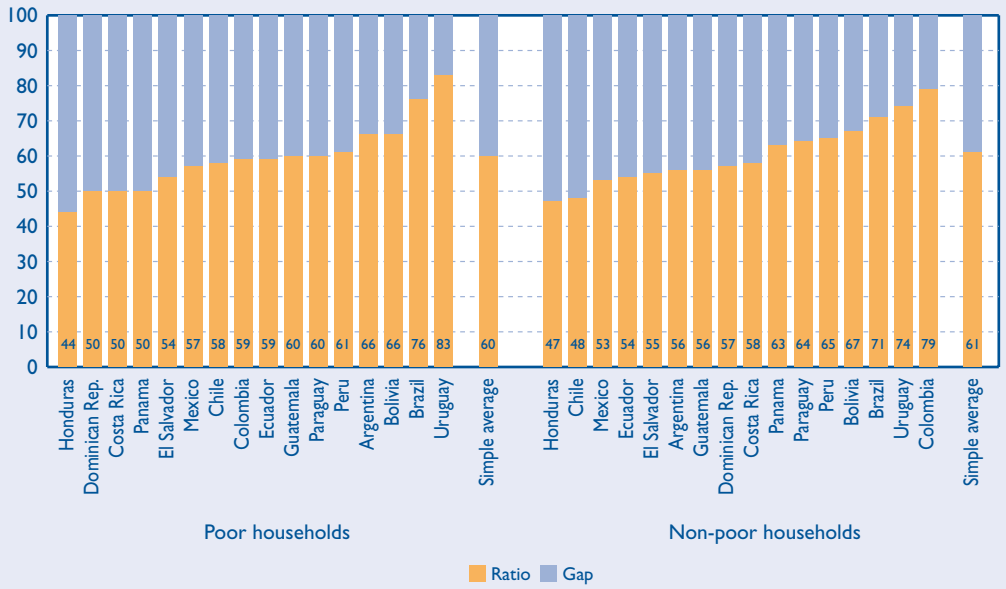
A comparison of per capita income in households headed by women and those headed by men shows that the gap between them is significantly smaller than the gap between the two sexes in terms of individual income, since total income in female–headed households is divided among a smaller number of members.

In most countries households headed by women are at a disadvantage compared to those headed by men in terms of per capita income, in both poor and non–poor households. This is true in 10 out of 17 countries, where per capita income in households headed by women ranges from 80% to 95% of per capita income in households headed by men.

Figure III.6

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): RATIO OF INDIVIDUAL MONETARY INCOME OF WOMEN HEADS OF HOUSEHOLD COMPARED TO MEN, BY POVERTY STATUS, URBAN AREAS, CIRCA 2002

(Percentages)



Source: ECLAC, Women and Development Unit, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the countries.

Table III.4

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE HOUSEHOLD SIZE AND DEPENDENCY RATE a/ IN FEMALE– AND MALE–HEADED HOUSEHOLDS, BY PRESENCE OF SPOUSE OR PARTNER, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, CIRCA 2002

Country	Presence of spouse or partner	Urban								Rural							
		Poor				Non–poor				Poor				Non–poor			
		Average number of persons in the household		Dependency rate		Average number of persons in the household		Dependency rate		Average number of persons in the household		Dependency rate		Average number of persons in the household		Dependency rate	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Argentina	Without	3.2	3.6	2.7	3.4	1.8	2.0	1.5	1.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	With	4.9	4.9	4.1	3.6	3.6	3.3	2.4	2.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	All households	4.8	3.7	4.0	3.4	3.2	2.1	2.3	1.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Bolivia	Without	3.1	3.9	2.7	3.0	1.9	2.9	1.6	2.2	2.7	3.1	1.4	1.8	1.6	2.6	1.2	1.6
	With	5.5	5.2	3.4	2.8	4.5	4.3	2.5	2.4	5.3	3.0	2.3	1.4	4.3	2.9	2.3	1.4
	All households	5.3	4.0	3.4	3.0	4.0	3.0	2.3	2.2	5.0	3.1	2.2	1.8	3.6	2.6	2.0	1.6
Brazil	Without	2.7	4.0	2.5	3.2	1.8	2.6	1.4	2.0	2.6	4.5	1.7	2.7	1.6	2.5	1.2	1.8
	With	4.7	4.9	3.5	3.4	3.7	3.7	2.2	2.1	5.0	5.3	2.6	2.7	3.7	3.6	1.8	1.8
	All households	4.6	4.0	3.4	3.2	3.4	2.7	2.1	2.0	4.9	4.5	2.6	2.7	3.3	2.6	1.7	1.8
Chile	Without	3.4	4.4	3.4	3.9	2.2	2.9	1.7	2.3	3.4	4.3	2.9	3.9	2.1	3.0	1.7	2.6
	With	4.9	5.4	4.2	4.2	4.1	4.0	2.8	2.5	5.0	5.5	4.3	4.4	4.1	4.4	3.0	2.8
	All households	4.9	4.5	4.2	4.0	3.9	3.0	2.7	2.3	4.9	4.5	4.2	4.0	3.8	3.2	2.8	2.6
Colombia	Without	3.1	3.9	2.5	3.0	2.2	3.0	1.6	2.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	With	4.8	5.2	3.4	3.1	4.0	4.2	2.3	2.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	All households	4.7	4.0	3.4	3.0	3.7	3.1	2.2	2.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Costa Rica	Without	2.5	3.7	2.6	4.0	2.2	3.2	1.6	2.2	2.1	3.6	2.1	3.6	1.9	3.6	1.4	2.5
	With	4.8	4.3	4.2	3.3	4.1	4.3	2.6	1.9	4.8	5.2	4.1	4.5	4.3	5.1	2.9	2.7
	All households	4.6	3.8	4.2	3.9	3.9	3.4	2.5	2.2	4.5	3.7	4.0	3.7	4.0	3.8	2.7	2.5
Ecuador	Without	3.7	4.1	2.9	2.9	2.2	2.8	1.6	2.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	With	4.9	5.0	3.5	3.3	4.2	4.0	2.4	2.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	All households	4.8	4.2	3.5	2.9	3.8	3.0	2.2	2.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
El Salvador	Without	3.1	4.2	2.9	3.3	2.2	3.3	1.7	2.2	3.0	4.7	2.4	3.3	2.4	3.8	1.6	2.5
	With	5.0	5.6	3.5	3.4	4.3	4.4	2.4	2.3	5.7	6.0	3.8	3.7	4.7	5.1	2.7	2.4
	All households	4.8	4.3	3.5	3.3	4.0	3.4	2.3	2.2	5.5	4.8	3.7	3.4	4.3	4.0	2.5	2.4
Guatemala	Without	3.6	4.1	2.9	2.8	2.2	3.2	1.7	2.0	5.1	5.0	3.2	2.9	2.9	3.3	2.1	1.9
	With	5.2	5.4	3.3	3.2	4.4	5.0	2.3	1.8	6.3	6.5	3.4	2.7	5.0	3.1	2.6	1.7
	All households	5.1	4.1	3.3	2.8	4.1	3.3	2.2	2.0	6.2	5.1	3.4	2.9	4.8	3.3	2.5	1.9
Honduras	Without	3.9	4.7	2.7	3.3	2.4	3.5	1.6	2.4	4.0	5.0	2.5	3.3	2.1	3.6	1.5	2.5
	With	5.4	5.6	3.5	3.0	4.4	4.4	2.6	2.2	6.0	6.1	3.8	3.2	4.5	4.5	2.7	2.6
	All households	5.3	4.8	3.5	3.2	4.1	3.6	2.4	2.4	5.9	5.1	3.7	3.3	4.1	3.7	2.5	2.6
Mexico	Without	4.4	4.5	2.7	3.0	2.1	2.9	1.5	2.0	3.6	4.4	2.4	3.0	1.9	2.6	1.5	1.9
	With	5.1	5.0	3.6	3.0	4.1	4.4	2.5	2.4	5.4	6.0	3.5	3.2	4.1	4.7	2.6	2.1
	All households	5.1	4.5	3.6	3.0	3.9	3.0	2.4	2.1	5.3	4.5	3.4	3.0	3.9	2.6	2.4	1.9
Nicaragua	Without	3.9	5.2	2.6	3.4	2.5	4.2	1.5	2.2	5.1	5.5	2.7	3.4	2.2	4.6	1.4	2.2
	With	5.9	6.7	3.5	3.2	4.6	4.9	2.4	2.5	6.4	7.5	3.5	3.5	5.1	6.9	2.5	2.8
	All households	5.7	5.4	3.4	3.4	4.3	4.3	2.3	2.2	6.3	5.8	3.5	3.4	4.5	4.7	2.3	2.2
Panama	Without	3.0	3.9	3.2	3.8	2.2	3.3	1.7	2.4	2.5	4.1	1.9	3.3	1.9	3.1	1.4	2.4
	With	5.2	5.8	4.3	4.7	4.2	4.3	2.6	2.4	5.8	6.3	3.9	3.6	4.5	4.7	2.9	2.6
	All households	4.9	4.1	4.2	4.0	3.8	3.4	2.4	2.4	5.3	4.3	3.6	3.4	3.9	3.3	2.5	2.5
Paraguay	Without	3.5	4.7	2.7	3.0	2.0	3.3	1.4	2.2	3.4	4.6	2.2	3.7	1.9	3.2	1.4	2.0
	With	5.5	5.4	3.4	3.2	4.4	4.2	2.4	2.3	6.1	6.3	3.2	3.6	4.3	4.6	2.5	2.6
	All households	5.4	4.8	3.4	3.1	4.0	3.5	2.2	2.2	5.8	5.1	3.1	3.7	3.8	3.4	2.2	2.1
Peru	Without	4.5	5.0	2.7	3.0	2.2	3.3	1.6	2.2	3.3	3.6	1.9	2.2	1.6	2.5	1.2	1.6
	With	5.8	5.8	3.2	2.7	4.5	5.0	2.6	2.7	5.5	5.7	2.7	2.3	4.2	4.9	2.1	2.1
	All households	5.7	5.1	3.2	3.0	4.1	3.4	2.4	2.3	5.3	3.7	2.7	2.2	3.5	2.6	1.9	1.7
Dominican Republic	Without	2.9	3.6	3.1	3.5	2.1	3.2	1.6	2.3	2.1	3.4	2.3	3.5	1.9	3.3	1.4	2.2
	With	4.8	5.2	3.8	4.1	4.1	3.8	2.5	2.3	5.0	4.5	4.3	3.6	4.1	3.7	2.7	2.4
	All households	4.5	3.8	3.8	3.6	3.8	3.3	2.4	2.3	4.7	3.5	4.2	3.5	3.6	3.4	2.4	2.3
Uruguay	Without	4.1	4.8	3.2	3.7	1.7	2.1	1.6	2.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	With	5.3	5.2	4.1	3.8	3.5	3.4	2.4	2.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	All households	5.2	4.9	4.1	3.7	3.2	2.3	2.3	2.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Venezuela b/	Without	3.2	4.5	2.7	3.5	2.2	3.7	1.4	2.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	With	5.3	5.8	3.9	3.8	4.4	4.9	2.4	2.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	All households	5.1	4.7	3.8	3.6	4.1	3.9	2.2	2.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…

Source: ECLAC, Women and Development Unit, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.
a/ The dependency rate is calculated by dividing the number of persons in the household by the number of employed persons in the household.
b/ National total.

From a gender perspective, one of the failings of current measurement methods –particularly per capita income calculations– is that they do not reveal the gap in income between male and female heads of household, since the division of total household income by the number of members minimizes income differences, considering that households headed by women are smaller. A second problem with these methods is the assumption that resources are distributed equitably within households, since available data indicate that women have less bargaining power, less free time and less mobility than men, all of which implies that resource distribution is not in fact equal. However, household surveys in their current form do not afford any possibility of testing this hypothesis.

2. Women and the caring economy

Unpaid domestic work, which is crucial to household survival, is performed almost exclusively by women. In 2002 housework was the principal activity of close to 45% of women living with a spouse or partner. This is an obstacle to reconciling paid work with reproductive work, a particularly thorny problem for women heads of household.

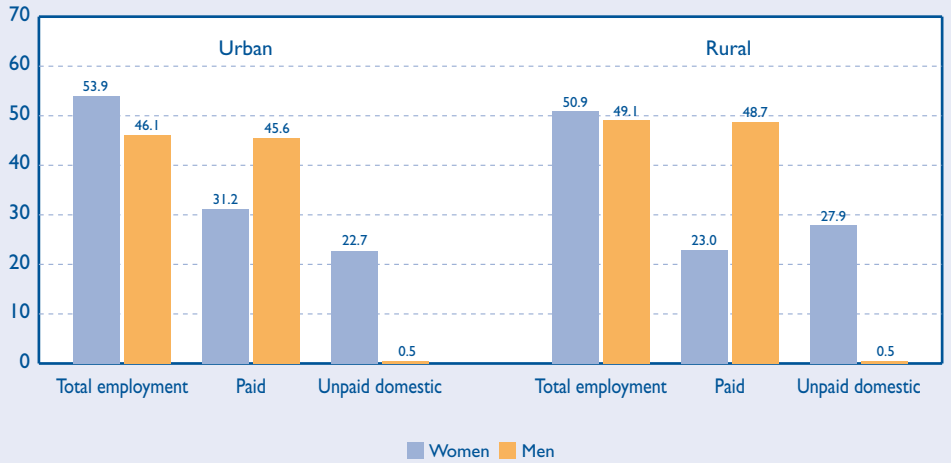
Changes in Latin American families have been caused largely by the accelerated entry of women into the workforce. This process has not been accompanied by an equivalent increase in men's participation in unpaid domestic activity associated with daily housekeeping, family health care and child and elder care. Consequently, despite the diversity of family structures that have emerged in recent decades, together with demographic changes and changes in men's and women's career paths, the proportion of men who handle family responsibilities continues to be minimal.

Information available for Latin America shows that unpaid domestic work is almost exclusively the responsibility of women, in both rural and urban areas (see figure III.7). This makes it hard to reconcile with paid work, particularly for women heads of household, most of whom live in single–parent households without a spouse or partner to perform the work habitually assigned to women in two–parent households headed by men. Conversely, men are more likely to be able to rely on another unpaid adult to look after the home. In 2002 household chores were the principal activity for close to 44% of women living with a spouse or partner (see figure III.8), which implies that these households allocated fewer resources to purchasing such goods and services in the market. It may also be inferred that, in these cases, the head of household invests less time in unpaid work within the home and therefore, as an individual, has more time to look for better job opportunities, enjoy leisure and participate in social and political activity.

Female heads of household generally cannot rely on another person in this way, and are more likely to allocate a larger proportion of their monetary resources to obtaining such services on the market. This obliges them to work harder in both paid and unpaid activities. When this is not possible, they must rely on other household members, principally young women and girls; finally, they may seek family and community solutions, generally involving unpaid work by women as well.

Figure III.7

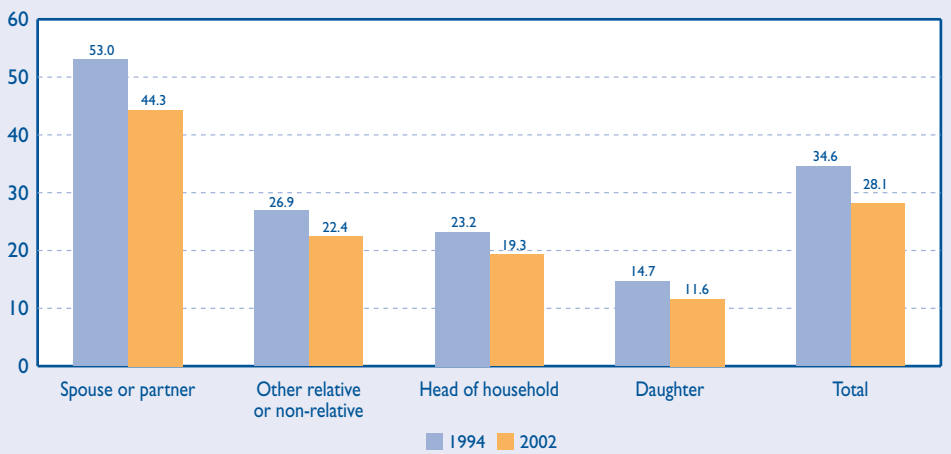
LATIN AMERICA (WEIGHTED AVERAGE, OF 15 COUNTRIES IN URBAN AREAS, a/ 12 COUNTRIES IN RURAL AREAS b/): TOTAL EMPLOYMENT, TOTAL PAID EMPLOYMENT AND UNPAID DOMESTIC EMPLOYMENT, CIRCA 2002



Source: ECLAC, Women and Development Unit, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the countries.
a/ Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Dominican Republic and Uruguay.
b/ Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay and Dominican Republic.

Figure III.8

LATIN AMERICA (SIMPLE AVERAGE, 12 COUNTRIES): DOMESTIC ACTIVITY RATE a/ IN THE FEMALE POPULATION AGED 15 AND OVER, BY RELATIONSHIP TO HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD, URBAN AREAS, CIRCA 1994 AND 2002



Source: ECLAC, Women and Development Unit, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the countries.
a/ Percentage of female population performing domestic work as principal activity.

The fact that reproductive work is outside the system of commercial exchanges not only renders this fundamental contribution to social wealth invisible, but also conceals a significant share of the cost of production; in this connection, domestic work must be rescued from the limbo of the "non–economic". An analysis of available information shows that in order to measure poverty from a gender perspective it is necessary to assign a value to unpaid domestic work, either as income or as an expense, principally in households where one person's main activity is reproductive work. This valuation is compatible with the poverty line measurement procedure and would adjust per capita household income, making the intensity of poverty easier to gauge. It can be inferred that, although the household never receives the value of unpaid work, the fact of not having to pay for it implies an increase in purchasing power that can be used for other purposes. This perspective would, in turn, make it possible to reflect poverty of time, which is not reflected in data on income.

In any case, the average rate of domestic activity by women, understood as the percentage of the female population whose main activity consists of performing household chores, declined between 1994 and 2002 in all the countries, regardless of the role women played in the family structure (spouse, partner, head of household, daughter or other unpaid relative) (see figure III.8). This situation is attributable principally to the increase in women's economic participation and, to a lesser extent, to the increase in the supply of household services offered by the market and the State.

Between 1994 and 2002, in all the countries analysed, more than 48% of young women between the ages of 20 and 24 and classified as "inactive" (i.e. unemployed and not looking for work) declared domestic work as their principal activity. Among young men, nearly 80% cite the pursuit of education as the reason for economic inactivity, while only 2% cite domestic work.

The labour market, as currently conceived, relies on household labour to reproduce the workforce and set the stage for daily life. Examining the relationship between commercial production, human reproduction and the public sphere, as well as the specific situation of women in this process, offers a more effective way of addressing the complexity of the existing inequality between men and women, as well as their distinct experiences of poverty.

3. Reproductive work and time distribution

An analysis of households shows that work is unequally distributed within the family. Case studies of time distribution confirm that women invest more time in unpaid activities than men. This indicates that their workday is longer, to the detriment of their health, nutrition, civic participation and recreation.

Determining the quality of life of the various members of society is a fundamental step in setting appropriate public policy to promote social equity and overcome poverty. The fact that domestic work is invisible in official statistics means that the concept of production is indistinguishable from that of market production and the concept of work, from that of employment. Accordingly, the production of goods and services within the family environment is not considered work. As a result, traditional analytical models focus exclusively on paid work outside the home, disregarding unpaid domestic work done by women in the home. Labour surveys do not customarily take into account the important interrelation between employment and unpaid domestic work –a bias that gives rise to the fallacy that men and women participate in the paid labour market on a level playing field. "Family constraints" such as caring for children and elders and the gender–based division of labour are dismissed as non–economic issues. Nevertheless, it would be more appropriate to state that the way market production is organized today constitutes a constraint on family care (Carrasco, 2001).

An analysis of daily time use in households shows how work is distributed unequally within the family. Since 1995, data have been compiled on the use of time in 46 countries (in Latin America and the Caribbean, studies of this nature have been conducted in Cuba, Mexico and Nicaragua) (ONE, 2002a and 2002b; INEGI, 2002). They confirm that women invest more time than men in unpaid work and that their workday is longer, to the detriment of their health, nutrition and recreation.

The national household survey on living standards in Nicaragua conducted between April and August 1998 included a module for measuring the amount of time the population over the age of six spent on each activity in the 24 hours prior to the survey. Activities were classified into eight types: paid work, unpaid housework or household maintenance, studies, personal activity, social and community activity, and other. Time spent on more than one activity concurrently was identified as well.

Figure III.9 presents the number of hours per day spent on various activities by female and male heads of household between the ages of 15 and 60. Wide differences between men and women can be identified, especially with respect to work. Men in poor and non–poor households spent a very similar average number of hours on paid work, at 7.8 and 7.7 hours respectively. Women in both poor and non–poor households spent much less time than men on paid work, at 4 and 5.9 hours respectively.

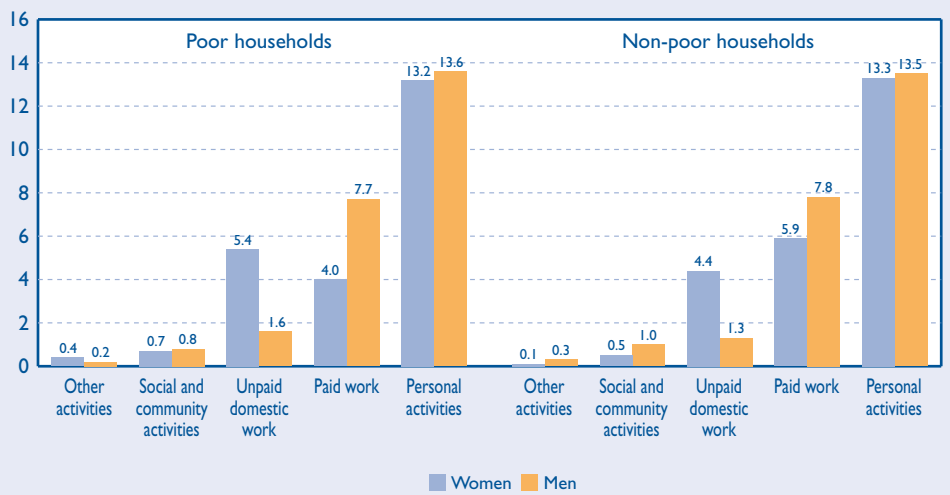
Female heads of poor households spent an average of 5.4 hours on unpaid domestic work, while those in non–poor households spent 4.4 hours on such activities. By contrast, male heads of household spent just 1.3 hours on unpaid domestic work in poor households and 1.6 hours in non–poor households.

The main activities performed by men are home repairs, followed by childcare. The third–ranked task for male heads of poor households is gathering firewood, while for male heads of non–poor households it is shopping.

Figure III.9

NICARAGUA: DAILY TIME DISTRIBUTION FOR FEMALE AND MALE HEADS OF HOUSEHOLD, AGED 20 TO 59, AMONG VARIOUS ACTIVITIES, BY HOUSEHOLD POVERTY STATUS, NATIONAL TOTAL, 1998

(Hours)



Source: ECLAC, Women and Development Unit, special tabulation of data from the national household survey on living standards, Nicaragua, 1998.

Women, however, spent more than 50% of their time on two types of domestic work: cooking and housework, in both poor and non–poor households.

This information, despite its limitations, confirms that considering the problem of reconciling family work with paid work as a women's time management issue perpetuates the view, on the one hand, that this is a personal and private issue specific to women, and, on the other, that most women cannot expect to join the labour market in the same manner as men, given the prevailing division of labour by gender (Carrasco and Mayordomo, 2001). In this regard, bringing women into the labour market and ensuring their equitable access to better and more income calls for a simultaneous social reorganization of time. This is a social and political issue that calls for collective, public solutions which cannot be divorced from economic and poverty reduction policy.

Box III.1

EXPERIENCES WITH TIME USE SURVEYS IN LATIN AMERICA

Time use surveys were designed to analyse how people divide their time between work and leisure inside and outside the family home. They are especially important for measuring and placing a value on domestic work and for evaluating men's and women's quality of life. The three methods most often used to compile this information are direct observation, interviews relying on respondents' memories and records kept by the respondents themselves.

These surveys reveal how much time is spent proportionally on each activity by population groups that share characteristics such as sex, ethnicity, socio–economic status and religion. They can also show why, for whom, with whom and when each activity is performed.

In Latin America national time use surveys have been conducted in Cuba, Mexico and Nicaragua. In Mexico a module was added to national household income and expenditure surveys in 1986 and 1998. The 1986 survey contained a questionnaire based on yes–or–no questions and pre–codified activities. The results point to gender differences in terms of contributions to the household and time use by sociodemographic characteristics and types of activity. In 1998 respondents were asked to keep a daily record of all activities performed during the day, with the amount of time allotted to each. The Nicaragua survey, conducted in 1998, recorded activities performed in a single day, keeping track of the number of minutes spent on employment /work, studying, housekeeping, personal and community activities, and other activities. The Cuban survey took place in 2002 and collected data through self–administered questionnaires in which family members were asked to record all activities performed during all 24 hours of two specified weekdays, at 10–minute intervals.

One of the main drawbacks of these kinds of surveys is the cost of formulating, applying and processing them, especially the cost of training interviewers and respondents in the case of self–administered surveys. Also, the potential for self–administered questionnaires is limited in Latin America, particularly in rural areas, given the high rates of illiteracy in rural populations and among women.

Another methodological difficulty is the codification of activities, which can be extremely complex. In open questionnaires, each activity mentioned by respondents must be codified, with a risk of compiling unnecessary information. Another methodological challenge is how to deal with the performance of more than one activity at the same time, which is quite common among women.

Finally, there is the question of the units employed to measure time. For the respondent, it may be difficult to answer questions on activities performed during the past week in "hours per week". Also, in some rural areas time is not experienced in units such as hours or minutes.

In view of the constraints mentioned, it is suggested that special modules be included in household surveys that take the household as the unit of analysis and account for all pre–codified activities by household members in half–hour units. This method, which has already been tested in surveys in developed countries, makes it possible to account for all the work done by all individuals, regardless of whether they are active or inactive; to classify the population by activity (paid work, family assistance, domestic work, studies, volunteer work); to place a value on the domestic work performed by various household members; and, in short, to measure quality of life.

Source: María José Araya, "Un acercamiento a las encuestas sobre el uso del tiempo con orientación de género", Informe final de práctica profesional en la CEPAL, Santiago, Chile, 2002, unpublished; Cristina Carrasco and others, "Hacia una nueva metodología para el estudio del trabajo: propuesta para una EPA alternativa", *Tiempos, trabajos y género*, Cristina Carrasco (ed.), Barcelona, Publicaciones Universitat; National Statistical Office (ONE)/United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)/United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM), *Relatoría final del Taller internacional sobre encuestas de uso del tiempo* (La Habana, 10 al 12 de abril de 2002), 2002; Ruth Dixon–Muellery and Richard Anker, *Assessing women's economic contribution to development*, Basic studies for training in population, human resources and development planning, No. 6, Geneva, International Labour Organization (ILO), 1989.

D. Labour market inequality and poverty

Women's participation in the labour market has long been a subject of study, and numerous analyses have been prepared on this topic. More information is available on this subject than on others of equal importance for understanding poverty. Although there are abundant data and analyses in this area, significant gaps persist. Among the main contributions to the study of employment from a gender perspective is the analysis of women's participation in the labour market in the light of their dominant role in the reproductive sphere, in what is called the caring economy. Attempts to promote the recognition of unpaid domestic work have helped to reformulate the concept of labour as an activity that includes but is not limited to paid work. Another key concept that has been called into question is the distinction between activity and inactivity. From a gender perspective, those persons considered to be inactive are, generally speaking, unpaid and are represented by data on the domestic activity rate included in this chapter (see figure III.8.)

The massive and rapid influx of women into the workforce and changes in its composition over the past three decades are part of a process that includes demographic, economic, educational, technological and cultural factors which –though common to all the countries– have had varying degrees of influence, for varying lengths of time, on the transformation of prior patterns of participation. These factors explain why women's incorporation into the workforce in emerging economic models differs in terms of its structure and development trajectory and the level of participation attained (León, 2000).

This trend remained virtually unchanged during the period analysed. It has withstood the impact of increasing economic globalization, persistent poverty and the need to generate income to overcome it, together with significant changes in social perceptions of women's role and a widespread recognition of women's rights. Latin American women today look for paid work because they need to, but also because they wish to, which explains why women prefer to stay in the workforce to leverage their economic independence, despite their tendency to have less job security. Interestingly, the increase in the number of economically active women exhibits similar features regardless of economic growth rates. Indeed, countries such as Chile, where economic growth has been relatively robust, still have the smallest population of economically active women.

In the 1990s the labour participation rate grew faster among women than among men. However, it is more difficult for women to enter the workforce, and their unemployment rates are higher even though, on average, economically active Latin American women have more years of schooling than men. Participation rates among women living in poor households, which are much lower than those of women in non–poor households, are increasing, and it may be observed that the fact of being poor is more relevant for them than for men with respect to access to the labour market.

Between 1990 and 2002 occupational segmentation continued to prevail among workers in different branches of economic activity, although developments within each branch have varied somewhat. Women's employment fell slightly in the area of personal services and rose systematically in agriculture and commerce. Domestic service, which had followed a downward trend over the last decade, spiked in 2002. Although the panorama is varied, women also predominate among unpaid family workers. During the reference period, the gender gap narrowed in low–productivity sectors, mainly as a result of fewer men entering the workforce.

In 2002 women in the labour market earned 68% as much as men. It may therefore be concluded that women's higher average level of schooling does not yield the same returns as it does for men; that is, the same number of years invested in education does not result in equality of income. This gap has been narrowing, albeit slowly.

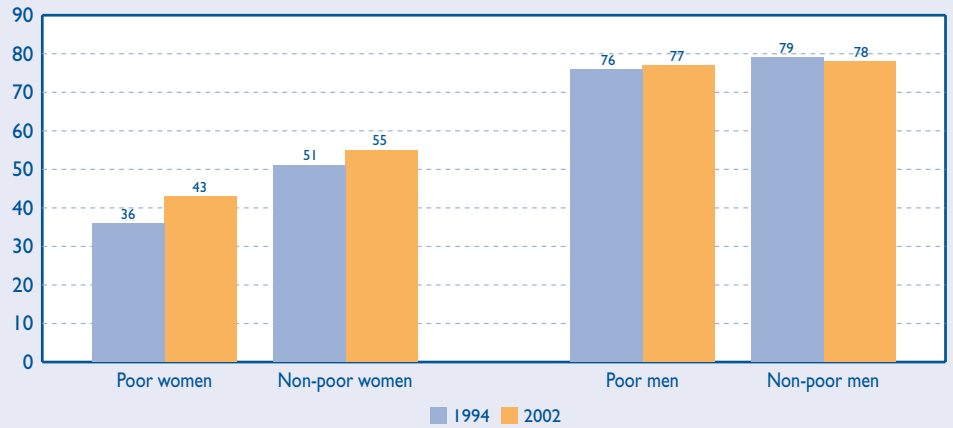
In the 1990s the labour participation rate grew among women but fell slightly among men. Nonetheless, men continue to account for the majority of the population considered economically active in the region (see table III.5).

The participation rate among women living in poor households has risen, although it is still much lower than that of women in non–poor households. While the participation rate of women in poor households in urban areas ranges from 28% to 53% (according to 2002 data), for an average in all the countries of 43%, in non–poor households the range is 44% to 61%, for an average of 55%. Similarly, in all the countries except Uruguay the participation rate is lowest among women in poor households.

Poor women's participation rate increased between 1994 and 2002 in all 15 countries for which information is available. While this increase averages 7 percentage points in the countries overall, it was 4 percentage points for non–poor women. The rate for poor men, on the other hand, rose by a single percentage point, while that of non–poor men fell by one point (see figure III.10).

Figure III.10

LATIN AMERICA (SIMPLE AVERAGE, 14 COUNTRIES): a/ ECONOMIC ACTIVITY RATE, BY POVERTY STATUS, URBAN AREAS, CIRCA 1994 AND 2002
(Percentage of total population aged 15 and over)



Source: ECLAC, Women and Development Unit, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the countries.
a/ Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay and Uruguay.

Available information on female employment by age bracket between 1990 and 2002 shows that the most significant increase was 10 percentage points in the 45–to–59 age group, followed by 9 percentage points for women aged 60 or over, 6 points for women aged 25 to 44, and 5 points for those between the ages of 15 and 24 (see table III.5). This could be explained by the fact that unemployment affects young women most and by the significant increase in the proportion of women enrolled in secondary and post–secondary studies.

In this connection, it may be pointed out that in most of the region's countries young women are now enrolling in higher education in larger numbers than their male counterparts and that economically active women have a higher average level of education than men. In most countries the average number of years of schooling is higher for women than for men in both urban and rural areas. This means that Latin America and the Caribbean is the only region in the developing world that is in a position to achieve the third Millennium Goal, which calls for gender equality in education. In urban areas women have an average of 9.4 years of schooling, while men have 9 years. The average in rural areas is 4.9 years for men and 5.3 years for women, although there is greater variability among women as well. The countries where women still have lower average levels of education than men are Bolivia, El Salvador, Guatemala and Peru (urban areas) and Bolivia, Guatemala and Peru (rural areas). In Paraguay there is practically no difference between men and women in this regard (see table 34 in the statistical annex).

The workforce continues to be highly segmented, with women in less stable and more poorly paid jobs and in those that perpetuate gender stereotypes, such as domestic service. Moreover, women are excluded from jobs such as construction which, though unstable, are not associated with feminine qualities. Notwithstanding these circumstances, women's participation helps to reduce poverty, as shown by the fact that households are less likely to be poor when both spouses or partners contribute income (see figure III.11).

Table III.5a

LATIN AMERICA: PARTICIPATION AND UNEMPLOYMENT RATES a/
(Percentages)

	National total					Urban areas					Rural areas				
	1990	1994	1997	1999	2002	1990	1994	1997	1999	2002	1990	1994	1997	1999	2002
Participation rate b/	61.0	61.6	62.0	62.4	65.0	59.6	60.5	61.2	61.6	64.3	64.8	64.9	64.9	64.9	67.3
Men	84.9	84.3	83.8	83.6	81.0	81.4	81.2	81.1	81.0	78.9	93.7	92.8	92.0	91.5	87.7
Women	37.9	39.7	41.1	42.0	49.7	39.5	41.4	42.8	43.7	50.9	33.1	34.3	35.2	35.8	44.9
Unemployment rate	4.6	5.8	6.7	8.6	9.0	5.5	7.3	8.5	10.8	10.7	2.2	1.5	1.5	1.3	3.9
Men	4.3	5.1	5.7	7.2	7.7	5.4	6.5	7.4	9.4	9.3	2.0	1.7	1.4	1.2	3.2
Women	5.1	7.2	8.7	11.2	11.1	5.7	8.7	10.3	13.3	12.7	2.9	0.8	1.6	1.6	5.2

Table III.5b

LATIN AMERICA: FEMALE EMPLOYMENT a/
(Percentages of total employed)

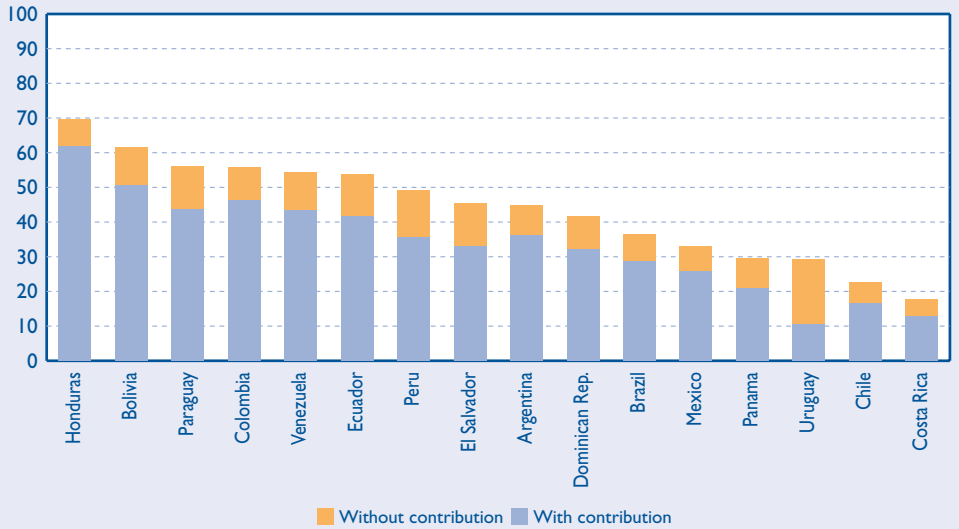
Employed	National total					Urban areas					Rural areas				
Age (in years)	1990	1994	1997	1999	2002	1990	1994	1997	1999	2002	1990	1994	1997	1999	2002
Total	**31.5**	**32.4**	**33.1**	**33.4**	**38.4**	**34.4**	**35.0**	**35.6**	**35.9**	**40.4**	**24.2**	**25.4**	**25.8**	**26.2**	**32.4**
15–24	31.9	31.8	32.1	32.3	36.7	36.3	35.0	35.6	35.9	39.9	24.2	25.4	25.8	26.2	28.4
25–44	33.6	34.2	35.0	35.1	40.3	35.9	35.6	35.5	35.9	41.8	23.4	24.0	24.6	24.4	34.9
45–59	28.1	31.0	31.9	33.1	38.3	30.4	36.3	37.0	37.1	39.7	26.6	26.9	27.8	27.7	33.8
60 y más	21.6	25.6	25.8	26.3	31.4	23.8	32.7	34.2	34.8	32.0	22.1	26.1	24.7	27.3	29.6
Years of education															
Total	**31.5**	**32.4**	**33.1**	**33.4**	**38.4**	**34.4**	**35.0**	**35.6**	**35.9**	**40.4**	**24.2**	**25.4**	**25.8**	**26.2**	**32.4**
0 a 5	28.0	29.8	30.1	30.3	35.8	31.6	33.1	33.6	33.6	37.6	23.7	25.5	25.6	26.1	32.8
6 a 9	30.3	30.6	31.1	31.0	35.1	32.6	32.9	32.8	32.8	36.7	22.4	22.8	24.5	24.6	29.6
10 a 12	39.8	38.9	38.0	38.1	41.3	40.3	39.4	38.6	38.8	42.5	35.0	33.4	31.1	31.0	33.3
13 y más	36.7	37.0	40.8	41.1	45.5	36.9	37.2	41.2	41.6	46.1	32.2	31.4	32.4	31.9	39.8
Area of activity															
Total	**31.5**	**32.4**	**33.1**	**33.4**	**38.1**	**34.4**	**35.0**	**35.6**	**35.9**	**40.1**	**24.2**	**25.4**	**25.8**	**26.2**	**31.4**
Agriculture	14.1	20.5	19.2	19.9	25.0	10.2	22.5	19.1	19.2	23.9	15.1	20.0	19.2	20.1	24.3
Industry	28.1	27.1	28.3	28.9	36.3	26.6	26.4	27.2	28.2	34.4	37.3	31.1	35.2	33.0	44.1
Construction	2.8	2.8	2.4	3.2	2.8	3.1	3.0	2.8	3.3	3.1	1.4	2.2	1.0	2.7	1.1
Transport and communications	8.0	7.6	8.2	8.8	10.4	8.5	7.9	8.7	9.0	11.0	4.9	5.1	4.4	6.3	6.6
Commerce	38.3	38.5	40.9	41.2	46.5	37.0	38.1	40.3	40.8	45.6	46.5	40.8	45.2	44.6	53.5
Finance	34.2	33.1	32.5	32.6	37.5	34.8	33.6	32.8	33.0	38.2	21.7	19.5	24.9	21.7	28.3
Social services	47.6	48.5	48.3	46.9	56.3	47.2	48.6	48.5	47.2	57.3	50.2	48.0	46.6	44.6	49.8
Personal services	42.1	41.0	39.8	39.6	37.2	39.7	39.1	38.6	38.4	37.5	60.4	60.5	53.6	51.9	36.4
Domestic service	82.9	81.5	79.4	79.0	83.5	83.4	81.8	79.7	79.6	83.3	79.4	79.5	76.3	72.9	85.2
Not known	21.3	23.3	28.0	26.0	25.0	23.3	27.4	28.4	27.9	26.1	10.0	5.1	23.7	9.5	14.7

Source: ECLAC, Women and Development Unit, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.
a/ Persons aged 15 years and over.
b/ Ratio of the economically active population to the working–age population.

Figure III.11

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): MAGNITUDE OF POVERTY IN TWO–PARENT FAMILIES WITH AND WITHOUT SPOUSE OR PARTNER'S CONTRIBUTION TO FAMILY INCOME, URBAN AREAS, CIRCA 2002

(Percentages)



Source: ECLAC, Women and Development Unit, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the countries.

The discrimination that most women continue to experience can be seen both in occupational categories and in branches of economic activity. Between 1990 and 2002 women's participation rose steadily in agriculture and commerce and fell in personal services. Participation in industry, finance and social services, which had remained constant over the past decade, showed a considerable increase in 2002. Domestic service, which had been declining, showed an increase, perhaps as a result of economic crisis (see figure III.12).

In 2002 over 90% of domestic employees in most countries were women. Conversely, women accounted for less than 50% of wage or salary earners in all the countries (see table III.6). Although the overall picture is mixed, women predominated among unpaid family workers in urban areas in 13 of the 15 countries. Gaps greater than 5 percentage points were observable in Bolivia, Ecuador, Guatemala, Mexico and Peru. In rural areas, 10 out of 14 countries for which information is available had a larger percentage of women employed in that category. In five of them (Dominican Republic, Honduras, Panama, Paraguay and Peru) the gap was greater than 10 percentage points, while in Costa Rica, Colombia and Guatemala the percentage of men among unpaid rural family workers was higher than the percentage of women (see table III.7).

Between 1990 and 2002 the gender gap in low–productivity sectors narrowed by just 3 percentage points, owing mainly to a decline in the rate of employment for men, from 46% to 43%, while the rate for women remained unchanged. Around 2002 in urban areas in 13 out of 17 countries, a higher percentage of women were employed in low–productivity sectors. The gap between women and men ranged from 1.4 percentage points in Panama to 18 in Bolivia (see figures III.13 and tables 11.1 and 11.2 in the statistical annex).

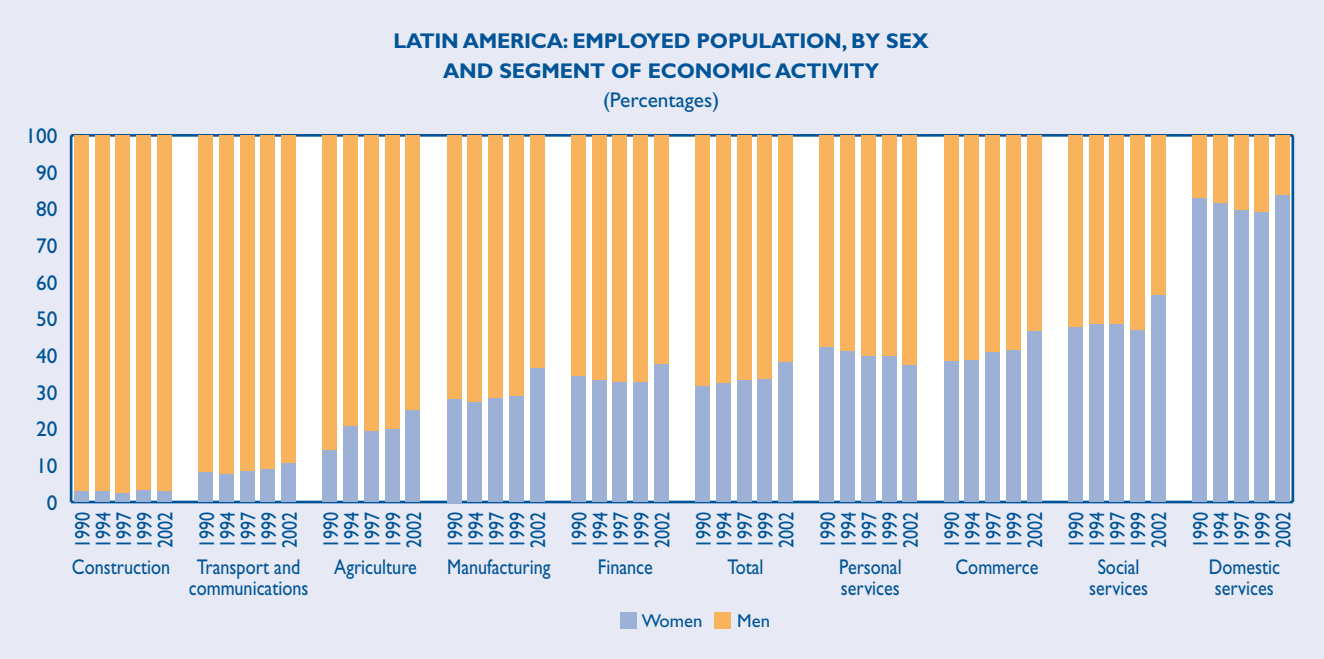
Table III.6

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): PROPORTION OF WOMEN EMPLOYED, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, a/ CIRCA 1994, 1999 AND 2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban employed						Rural employed					
		Employers	Employees	Own-account	Unpaid workers	Domestic service	Total	Employers	Employees	Own-account	Unpaid workers	Domestic service	Total
Argentina c/	1994	18.7	38.7 b/	34.4	63.7	...	37.1	...	...	...	...	...	...
	1999	22.2	42.0 b/	35.9	55.6	...	40.0	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2002	24.6	46.4 b/	31.3	60.0	...	42.2	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bolivia d/	1994	20.2	29.1	57.9	71.8	93.9	43.3	...	...	...	...	...	...
	1999	22.8	30.3	53.6	61.5	95.1	43.9	15.8	25.6	29.3	63.3	95.4	46.2
	2002	23.3	31.7	54.3	63.2	97.4	45.1	15.9	19.9	21.2	68.5	97.3	41.4
Brazil e/	1995	21.3	34.7	36.8	60.0	94.4	40.5	8.2	21.5	39.3	59.1	84.3	39.1
	1999	23.2	36.3	34.1	55.9	94.4	40.9	10.4	23.5	37.8	51.6	83.6	38.2
	2001	25.0	36.8	34.9	62.0	94.8	41.6	11.0	22.7	36.3	58.6	83.1	37.6
Chile f/	1994	24.6	31.5	31.1	74.0	98.5	35.8	11.6	16.0	13.5	35.2	96.3	18.3
	1998	27.1	34.5	32.6	73.1	98.4	38.0	13.8	18.3	15.8	30.9	97.7	20.5
	2000	22.4	34.4	34.7	68.9	98.8	38.3	13.2	18.8	16.2	40.0	96.6	21.4
Colombia	1994	22.7	38.7	36.1	75.4	97.7	40.8	15.8	19.2	30.3	44.6	94.1	27.1
	1999	27.4	41.4	38.8	63.0	95.0	43.1	17.1	20.1	29.1	41.0	92.5	27.7
	2002	25.4	41.7	40.8	70.9	96.0	44.7	17.8	20.4	30.4	55.3	92.0	30.4
Costa Rica	1994	21.7	34.8	33.0	50.4	97.5	36.2	11.5	20.6	22.3	30.4	94.1	24.0
	1999	21.2	35.6	38.3	64.8	94.7	38.5	14.4	22.3	22.5	37.3	94.0	26.4
	2002	23.1	36.9	41.2	68.3	96.0	39.5	15.3	23.1	24.5	43.9	92.8	27.1
Ecuador	1994	24.2	31.6	39.7	70.7	95.4	38.3	...	...	...	...	...	...
	1999	22.1	41.4	41.1	67.4	93.2	38.7	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2002	24.9	31.7	41.5	68.0	91.7	38.4	...	...	...	...	...	...
El Salvador	1995	24.2	35.2	61.1	65.7	94.6	45.5	8.3	19.7	38.3	21.8	85.7	27.3
	1999	28.5	37.6	62.5	62.7	93.2	47.1	14.0	19.7	37.2	26.7	87.2	29.9
	2001	32.2	36.9	62.6	62.3	94.1	47.1	11.3	18.4	38.5	28.5	88.7	30.2
Guatemala	1998	25.7	33.4	55.0	51.6	87.3	44.0	5.1	19.6	40.3	31.1	74.2	30.6
	2002	20.9	34.3	55.5	57.4	97.8	43.1	*	19.2	38.3	49.3	98.6	32.6
Honduras	1994	17.1	33.2	43.7	48.7	100.0	39.4	*	20.9	24.2	14.7	100.0	23.2
	1999	26.3	38.0	52.5	57.3	92.6	45.1	18.8	20.2	30.1	26.4	95.0	27.6
	2002	28.8	38.0	45.3	54.5	94.7	43.0	19.5	16.8	25.4	21.8	86.1	22.6
Mexico	1994	13.8	34.4 b/	38.6	55.6	...	35.2	10.1	21.1 b/	37.9	39.2	...	28.5
	1998	16.9	35.3 b/	42.9	59.3	...	37.1	11.8	24.8 b/	40.7	44.7	...	32.9
	2002	17.5	37.3 b/	41.6	67.4	...	38.8	14.3	27.6 b/	44.5	43.7	...	34.4
Nicaragua	1993	*	33.2	48.2	50.7	97.7	43.1	...	17.0	18.6	21.8	94.3	22.2
	1998	15.1	39.5 b/	50.3	51.5	...	42.7	9.1	24.9 b/	24.4	19.2	...	22.8
	2001	22.5	37.0 b/	54.8	55.3	...	42.6	*	24.5 b/	27.7	25.9	...	24.9
Panama	1994	20.9	38.4	22.5	44.9	92.0	39.3	...	...	...	...	...	...
	1999	21.2	37.1	27.6	42.5	90.2	37.9	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2002	20.7	38.9	29.7	71.6	90.8	40.1	15.0	20.6	17.6	38.6	77.9	23.0
Paraguay	1994	23.9	30.3	49.5	66.2	92.6	41.8	...	...	...	...	...	...
	1999	21.4	31.0	49.9	50.0	94.6	42.1	10.9	16.7	34.7	22.9	95.5	29.5
	2002	24.7	33.9	50.0	57.0	91.7	44.5	7.2	12.4	38.8	27.2	91.5	31.6
Peru	2001	22.0	32.9	50.8	65.0	95.2	44.0	19.3	22.0	32.2	74.0	96.0	42.7
Dominican Republic	2002	24.2	41.4	28.7	60.2	89.1	38.7	*	28.8	15.5	*	89.3	23.2
Uruguay	1994	24.0	42.7 b/	38.0	72.8	...	41.5	...	...	...	...	...	...
	1999	24.0	44.9 b/	35.2	71.5	...	42.4	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2002	23.6	46.1 b/	33.4	67.8	...	42.4	...	...	...	...	...	...
Venezuela	1994	9.2	37.5 b/	29.3	41.2	...	33.4	*	24.4 b/	18.3	12.3	...	20.1
	1999 g/	13.4	36.2 b/	37.8	37.8	...	35.6	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2002 g/	17.2	38.5 b/	40.1	55.8	...	38.4	...	...	...	...	...	...

Source: ECLAC, Women and Development Unit, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.
* Insufficient sample size.
a/ Calculated as the number of employed women aged 15 years or more divided by the total of employed persons aged 15 years or more in each occupational category, multiplied by 100.
b/ The employees category includes domestic service.
c/ 1994: Greater Buenos Aires and 18 population centres. 1999: Greater Buenos Aires and 26 population centres. 2002: Greater Buenos Aires and 30 population centres.
d/ 1994: 7 departments and the city of Trinidad. 1999: 8 departments and Cobija. 2002: 9 departments.
e/ 1994: 7 metropolitan areas and other urban areas. 1999 and 2002: 10 metropolitan areas and other urban areas.
f/ 1994: Rural area: includes cities with fewer than 2,000 inhabitants, chosen at random without regard to economic activity. As of 1998: Rural area: area of concentrated or dispersed housing with 1,000 inhabitants or fewer, or between 1,001 and 2,000 inhabitants with less than 50% of its economically active population working in secondary and/or tertiary activities.
g/ National total.

Figure III.12



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

Table III.7

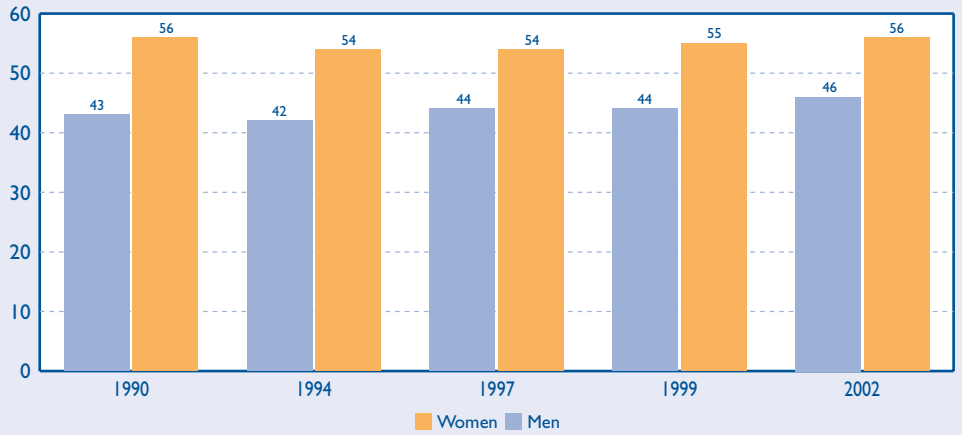
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): UNPAID FAMILY WORKERS AS A PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL EMPLOYED WORKERS, BY SEX, URBAN AREAS, CIRCA 2002

Country	Year	Urban employed		Rural employed	
		Females	Males	Females	Males
Argentina	2002	1.4	0.7	...	...
Bolivia	2002	11.5	5.5	2.3	2.2
Brazil	2001	4.4	1.9	6.8	2.8
Chile	2000	2.1	0.6	7.3	3.5
Colombia	2002	5.5	1.8	11.5	12.5
Costa Rica	2002	2.9	0.9	12.6	13.2
Ecuador	2002	8.0	2.3	...	...
El Salvador	2001	7.6	4.1	12.8	8.6
Guatemala	2002	11.6	6.5	14.4	17.8
Honduras	2002	6.9	4.3	15.6	5.5
Mexico	2002	9.3	2.8	17.8	8.5
Nicaragua	2001	9.5	5.7	21.6	20.5
Panama	2002	1.4	0.4	27.2	13.5
Paraguay	2002	5.3	3.2	31.7	13.5
Peru	2001	9.8	4.1	52.2	13.6
Dominican Republic	2002	1.5	0.6	71.1	23.0
Uruguay	2002	2.4	0.8	...	...
Venezuela a/	2002	3.8	1.9	...	...

Source: ECLAC, Women and Development Unit, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.
a/ National total.

Figure III.13

LATIN AMERICA (SIMPLE AVERAGE, 10 COUNTRIES): a/ MALE AND FEMALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW–PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, URBAN AREAS



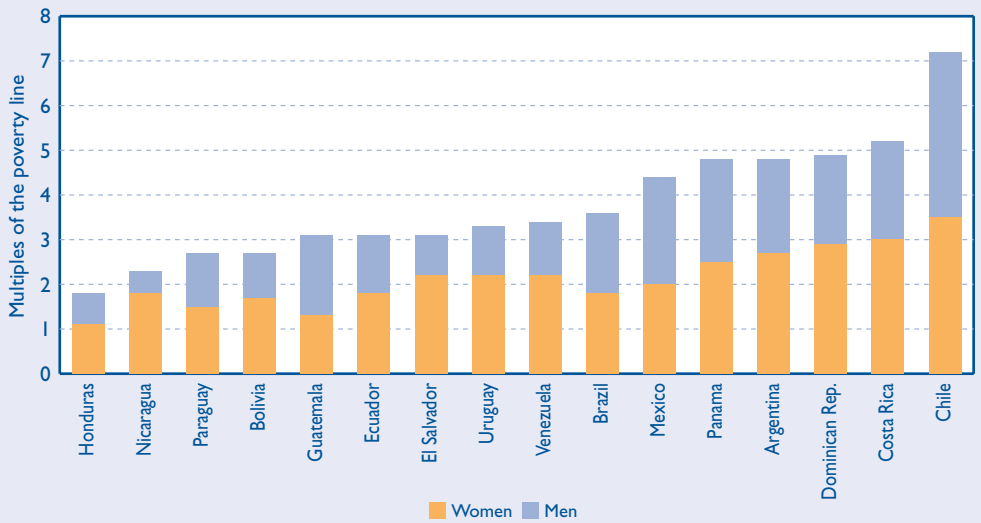
Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.
a/ Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, Honduras, Panama, Paraguay and Uruguay.

An analysis of urban areas in 14 countries in 2002 showed that women employed in low–productivity sectors earned significantly less than men. The gap between the sexes ranged from 0.5 to nearly 4 times the poverty line, with an average of 1.5 times the poverty line for the countries as a whole (see figure III.14).

Figure III.14

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOME OF THE MALE AND FEMALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW–PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, URBAN AREAS, CIRCA 2002

(Multiples of the respective per capita poverty lines)



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

The number of children is considered to be one of the factors affecting women's labour participation. Information for 2002 shows that women work regardless of the number of children under 15 living in the household. This is true of women in both poor and non–poor households. On the other hand, men's participation rises significantly with the rate of dependency in the household. This may suggest that men's role as providers continues to prevail (see figure III.15).

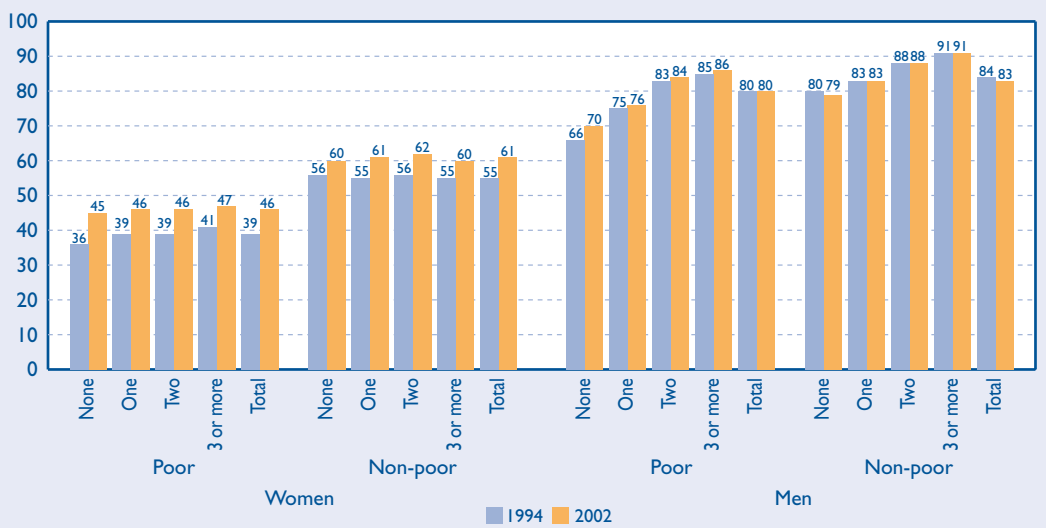
Despite the progress made in terms of women's economic participation, problems such as workforce segmentation, the income gap and higher unemployment rates persist, regardless of educational level.

Women's contribution to total household income is particularly significant in reducing poverty, above all in poor households. This is evident when the income contributed by female spouses or partners is subtracted from total income in two–parent households (see figure III.11).

Households are an important decision–making sphere. Accordingly, it is vital to identify the opportunities open to adult household members to take part in decisions and, in particular, the degree of autonomy they enjoy in so doing. This is especially relevant because it may be supposed that poverty is also perpetuated by unequal distributive practices within the family. It is important to identify the internal allocation and distribution of household resources. With respect to spending patterns, there is evidence that women in various contexts spend a higher proportion of their income on the home and family, to the detriment of their personal needs. Men, on the other hand, tend to reserve a large proportion of their income for personal consumption; there are even data indicating that the proportion of income contributed by men for household spending declines with drops in their effective intake, meaning that men give priority to maintaining their personal consumption levels (Baden and Milward, 1997).

Figure III.15

LATIN AMERICA (SIMPLE AVERAGE, 14 COUNTRIES): a/ LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE OF THE POPULATION AGED 15 TO 60, BY NUMBER OF CHILDREN AGED 0 TO 14 IN THE HOUSEHOLD, URBAN AREAS, CIRCA 1994 AND 2002



Source: ECLAC, Women and Development Unit, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.
a/ Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay and Uruguay.

In addition to having a positive effect on income, women's economic autonomy helps to empower them by boosting their ability to make choices and take action and by strengthening certain subjective dimensions that make them feel less vulnerable (Chant, 2003). This, together with the positive effects of women's education in promoting child health and reducing maternal mortality, makes it clear that investing in women's empowerment is crucial if the Millennium Development Goals are to be met.

When women enter the workforce, they generally earn about 65% as much as men. The gap persists even when adjustments are made for the number of hours worked and the level of education. The biggest differences are found at the higher levels of education; according to the regional average, women's hourly pay is equivalent to 72% of men's hourly pay (see figure III.16). It can be concluded that education does not provide the same returns for women as it does for men; that is, it does not translate into equal income for all individuals having invested the same number of years in education. This is particularly true for the population with the highest levels of education.

Women over the age of 65 face a number of inequities in the labour market and a socially imposed obligation to perform unpaid domestic work. Available data for 13 countries show fewer female than male income earners in all of them, with an income gap of between 60% and 90%, averaging 77% for the countries taken as a whole (see tables III.8 and III.9).

In short, available data show that although Latin American women make a significant contribution to reducing poverty, they suffer its effects more severely and therefore have an incentive to enter the workforce. More women are employed in paid jobs than in the past, but unemployment rates are much higher for women than for men regardless of education. Also, women are paid less than men and enjoy less social protection. Unemployment rose for both men and women in the 1990s and up to 2002. Nevertheless, there is a large difference between the two groups. Unemployment rose by 3.4 percentage points among men between 1990 and 2002, but by 6 points among women (see table III.5).

The foregoing indicates that women are interested in entering the labour market but face greater obstacles in both entering and staying in the workforce.

Table III.8

LATIN AMERICA (11 COUNTRIES): RETIREMENT AND PENSION INCOME OF THE POPULATION AGED 60 YEARS AND OVER, BY AGE GROUP AND SEX, URBAN AREAS, CIRCA 2002
(Percentage of recipients)

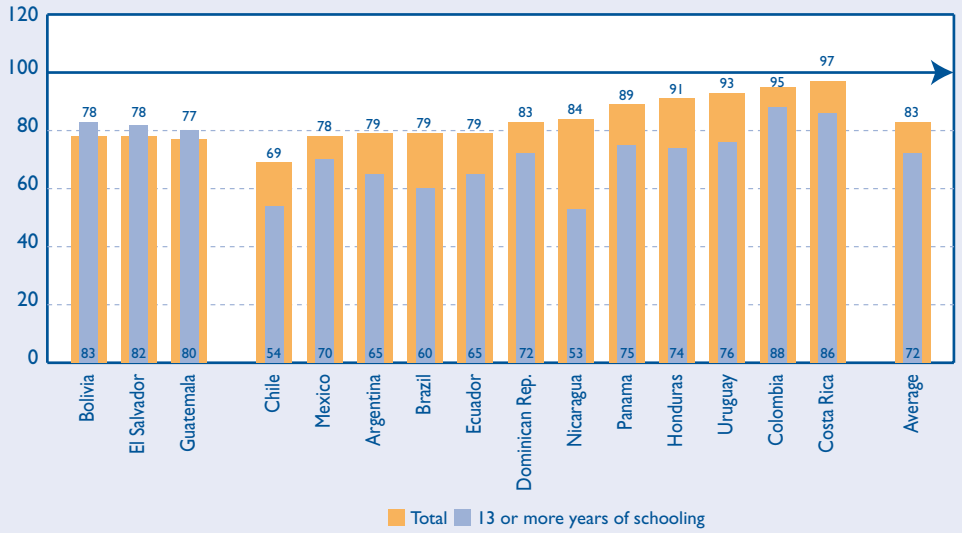
Country	Age group of older adults									
	60–64		65–69		60 and above		65 and above		70 and above	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Argentina	25.5	21.3	56.2	51.7	56.7	56.8	66.8	73.0	71.5	82.7
Bolivia	21.6	31.4	16.1	27.4	22.0	32.8	22.1	33.6	25.0	36.9
Brazil	57.6	57.8	72.6	78.9	74.0	78.3	80.9	88.4	85.5	94.4
Chile	35.0	37.1	50.1	66.5	52.0	62.8	58.8	73.5	63.3	77.9
Colombia	15.4	26.3	16.2	32.8	19.6	31.5	21.5	34.0	24.1	34.7
Ecuador	12.4	14.5	16.5	23.7	17.2	25.8	19.5	30.8	20.9	34.6
El Salvador	11.6	27.1	16.7	26.5	14.1	28.7	15.0	29.3	14.2	30.7
Mexico	11.8	28.7	17.6	43.6	15.9	37.2	17.7	41.7	17.7	40.6
Panama	42.7	43.4	48.8	74.6	46.8	63.4	48.5	72.5	48.4	71.4
Paraguay	13.1	18.9	18.6	24.3	20.0	26.3	23.0	29.6	25.1	32.7
Uruguay	57.0	45.9	75.0	77.0	79.4	78.0	86.3	89.6	90.7	95.5

Source: ECLAC, Women and Development Unit, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

Figure III.16

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): RATIO OF FEMALE TO MALE AVERAGE INCOME PER HOUR WORKED, TOTAL AND FOR INDIVIDUALS WITH 13 OR MORE YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AREAS, CIRCA 2002

(Percentages)



Source: ECLAC, Women and Development Unit, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

Table III.9

LATIN AMERICA (11 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE RETIREMENT AND PENSION INCOME a/ OF WOMEN AS A PERCENTAGE OF THAT OF MEN, URBAN AREAS, CIRCA 2002

(Percentages)

Country	Age group of older adults				
	60–64	65–69	60 and above	65 and above	70 and above
Argentina	77.9	71.1	72.0	71.2	71.0
Bolivia	77.5	92.2	75.8	74.9	69.7
Brazil	62.9	62.8	69.9	72.9	79.2
Chile	60.3	67.0	66.2	67.6	68.1
Colombia	71.5	76.2	81.4	86.3	93.2
Ecuador	63.4	94.4	84.1	90.2	88.6
El Salvador	65.1	78.0	73.0	76.8	75.8
Mexico	91.3	85.9	79.9	76.8	70.6
Panama	100.3	85.3	81.4	74.9	70.0
Paraguay	47.7	81.7	60.9	64.3	58.6
Uruguay	56.2	74.1	71.1	74.3	74.4

Source: ECLAC, Women and Development Unit, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household.
a/ Calculated by dividing women's average income by men's average income and multiplying the result by 100.

E. Participation in decision–making

Women's autonomy and participation in private and public decision–making are a key indicator for measuring the inequalities affecting them.

The distribution of power in the family, the community and society as a whole indicates the degree to which women's right to exercise citizenship, take autonomous decisions and participate in building a democratic society is recognized. Constraints in these areas are greater in situations of poverty. Autonomy and participation in private and public decision–making are assets that help women overcome this condition, especially with respect to resource allocation and other decisions that affect women personally or their families, their communities and society as a whole.

If poverty is regarded as a lack of freedom to do things to which value is attached, the bargaining processes whereby women and men gain a greater or lesser degree of control over their lives must be analysed in order to yield an understanding of the gender dynamic of poverty.

1. Participation in society's decisions

Women's progress in terms of participation in political life has been slow and uneven, especially with regard to government positions. The countries that have made significant progress over the past decade are the ones that have passed legislation establishing quotas and other mechanisms to promote women's integration.

The mechanisms established to improve women's political representation vary by country and by level (national or municipal government, national legislation or party regulations). The most common approach has been to establish mandatory affirmative–action measures stipulating a minimum number of positions or parliamentary seats that must be occupied by women. Another approach is to establish obligations or incentives for political actors to raise the number of women participants. For example, a portion of State subsidies may be directed to political parties to enable them to take such action, or subsidy amounts may increase with the number of positions filled by women.

The pioneer in this field is Argentina (Barreiro and others, undated). By law, a minimum of 30% of candidates for elective office must be women (article 60 of the National Electoral Code, as amended by Law No. 24012). Political parties are required to establish in their charters a minimum quota for women in their internal lists of candidates. These mechanisms are mandatory, and electoral bodies may not endorse lists of candidates that fail to comply. In addition, any citizen may challenge lists of candidates that do not meet this requirement.

Several countries have adopted similar models. Brazil, for example, established a minimum of 30% and a maximum of 70% for candidates of either sex for any party or coalition (article 10, paragraph 3 of Law No. 9504). Colombia passed a gender quota law stipulating that at least 30% of senior public positions must be occupied by women, and adopted provisions for promoting the participation and representation of people of indigenous or African descent, establishing special constituencies to guarantee their representation in the Congress.

This concept of inclusion also prevails in Panama, where the Electoral Code prohibits political parties from discriminating among their members on the grounds of race, sex, religious belief, culture or social status. In internal elections, political parties must guarantee that at least 30% of the candidates for party positions or elective office are women, although no penalties are provided for in the event of non–compliance.

Panama has four indigenous regions whose boundaries coincide with those of the country's electoral districts. This has functioned as an affirmative–action mechanism for indigenous peoples, in particular the Kuna, Emberá and Ngobe.

Bolivia's Electoral Code establishes different measures for each type of elective office, such as:

- Senators: In the candidate lists for each department, at least one out of every four candidates must be a woman (article 112a, paragraph b);

- Deputies of multi–member districts: For each department, at least one out of every three candidates must be a woman (article 112, paragraph 1(c));

- Municipal council members: Candidate lists must be drawn up so that the first council member has an alternate of the opposite sex. Second and third council members must be assigned alternately (man/woman, woman/man). The complete list must include at least 30% women (article 112, paragraphs 2(a), (b) and (c)).

These provisions are mandatory; in the event of non–compliance, the National Electoral Court rejects the list and so notifies the party or alliance, which has 72 hours to make the necessary adjustments (article 112, paragraph 1(c)).

Under the formula in force in Mexico, neither sex may account for more than 70% of the candidates presented by political parties for the offices of senator and deputy (article 75–A, Federal Code of Electoral Institutions and Procedures). In the event of non–compliance, the Federal Electoral Institute issues a warning and sets a deadline for correcting the anomaly. In the event of a second violation, registration of the candidates is denied (article 75–C).

In Costa Rica electoral legislation promotes the inclusion of women by various means:

- Party by–laws must provide for a mechanism for ensuring women's participation in the proportion stipulated in article 60 of the Electoral Code, both in the party structure and among the candidates for elective office (article 58 (n)).

- Concerning regional party structure, the Electoral Code provides that at least 40% of the representatives in assemblies at the district, canton and provincial levels must be women (article 60).

Also, the "Real Equality Act" of 1990 includes a very innovative measure whereby a portion of political parties' funds must be earmarked for women's political training.

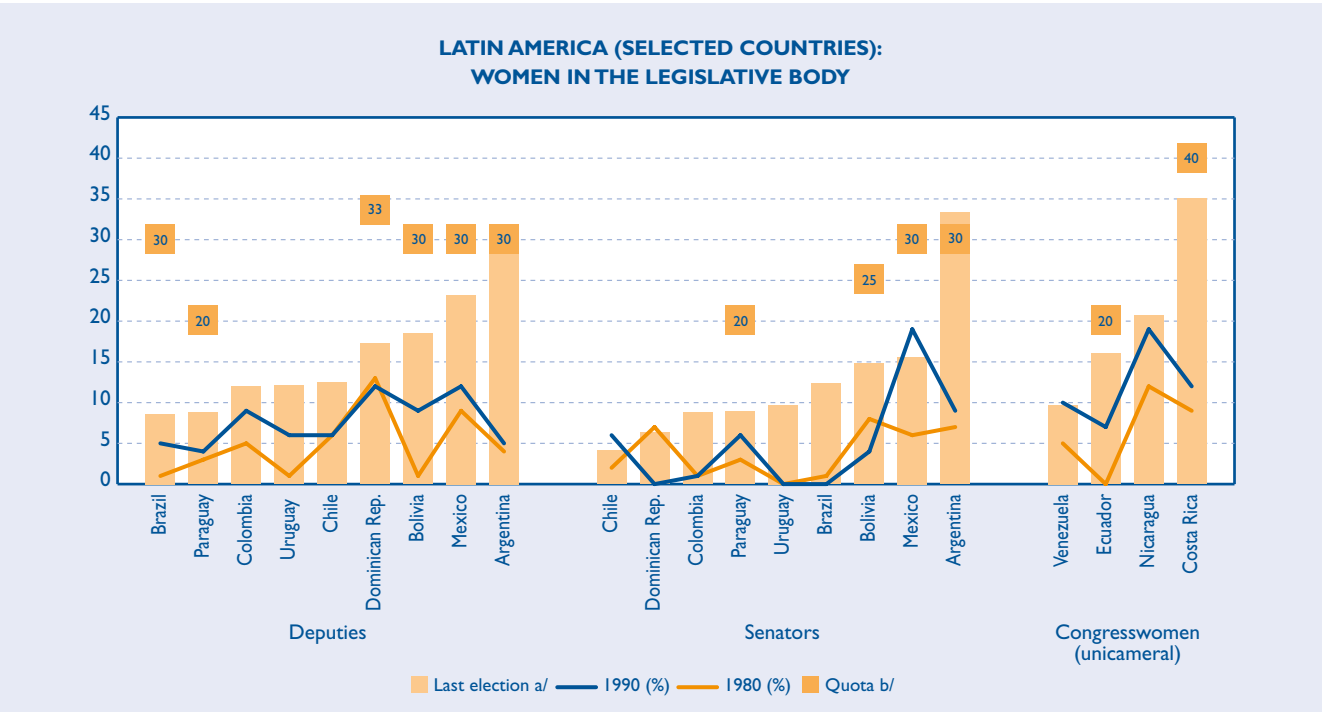
Of special interest is Ecuador's legislation, which stipulates a minimum mandatory quota of 30% including alternates, to be increased by 5% in each election until it reaches 50%.

In Peru the minimum percentage allocated to women is 25%. Neither sex may account for more than 75% of the candidates for Congress from each district. In constituencies where the slate consists of three candidates, not more than two of them may be of the same sex (article 116 of the Electoral Act). Lists of candidates for regional councils must comprise one candidate from each province in the order in which the political party or movement decides, including a quota in each case of not less than 30% and not more than 70% of either sex. Other measures promote the participation of representatives of indigenous peoples, but are not part of the Electoral Act.

Very low quotas have been set in Paraguay. The Electoral Code requires political parties and movements to ensure that at least 20% of the individuals competing in internal elections to select candidates for office are women. Accordingly, the percentage of women on the lists presented for national elections is much lower. Although all the parties have amended their by–laws to reflect this requirement, there are no specific penalties in place for non–compliance. The countries of the region that have no affirmative–action measures in place to improve women's representation are Chile, El Salvador, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Uruguay and Venezuela.

Only three countries in the region have seen a significant increase in the number of women in

Figure III.17



Source: ECLAC, prepared by the Women and Development Unit using data obtained from *Women and Power in the Americas* (www.thedialogue.org), the Inter–Parliamentary Union (www.ipu.org) and the International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (www.idea.int).

a/ Uruguay (1999), Venezuela (2000), Argentina (2001), Chile (2001), Nicaragua (2001), Bolivia (2002), Brazil (2002), Colombia (2002), Costa Rica (2002), Dominican Republic (2002), Paraguay (2003).

b/ Chile, Colombia, Nicaragua, Uruguay and Venezuela do not have quota laws.

legislative bodies: Argentina, Costa Rica and Mexico (see figure III.17 and table III.10). The figure shows the situation in the period 2000–2003, when women's representation ranged in most countries from 10% to 20%. Women's presence in legislative bodies has increased since the adoption of quota laws, generally after 1995, the year of the Fourth World Conference on Women. Prior to the enactment of affirmative–action legislation, women's representation was very volatile. These more erratic trends are illustrated in figure III.17, which is based on data for 1980 and 1990.

Table III.10

LATIN AMERICA (SELECTED COUNTRIES): PRESENCE OF WOMEN IN THE LEGISLATURE, CIRCA 1980, 1990, 2000 AND 2002

Country	Legislative body	Last election (%)	2000 (%)	1990 (%)	1980 (%)	Year of affirmative-action law	Percentage quota	Where applied
Argentina		2001						
	Chamber of Deputies	30.7	27	5	(1983) 4	1991	30%	Both chambers
	Senate	33.3	3	9	(1983) 7			
Bolivia		2002						
	Chamber of Deputies	18.5	12	9	1	1997	30%	Lower chamber
	Senate	14.8	4	4	8		25%	Upper chamber
Brazil		2002						
	Chamber of Deputies	8.6	6	5	1	1997	30%	Lower chamber
	Senate	12.3	7	0	1			
Chile		2001						
	Chamber of Deputies	12.5	11	6	(1970) 6	No law		
	Senate	4.1	4	6	(1970) 2			
Colombia		2002				2000	30% a/	Executive branch
	Chamber of Deputies	12	12	9	5	No law		
	Senate	8.8	13	1	1	No law		
Costa Rica		2002						
	Congress	35.1	19	12	9	1997/2000	40%	Unicameral
Dominican Republic		2002						
	Chamber of Deputies	17.3	16	12	13	1997	33%	Lower chamber
	Senate	6.3	7	0	7			
Ecuador		2002						
	Congress	16	15	7	0	1997	20%	Unicameral
Mexico		2003						
	Chamber of Deputies	23.2	16	12	9	1996/2000	30%	Both chambers
	Senate	(2000)15.6	16	19	6			
Nicaragua		2001						
	Congress	20.7	10	19	12	No law		Unicameral
Paraguay		2003						
	Chamber of Deputies	8.8	3	4	3	1996	20%	Both chambers
	Senate	8.9	18	6	3			
Uruguay		1999						
	Chamber of Deputies	12.1	12	6	(1972) 1	No law		
	Senate	9.7	10	0	(1972) 0			
Venezuela		2000						
	Congress	9.7	10	10	5	1998	30% b/	Unicameral

Source: ECLAC, Women and Development Unit, on the basis of data obtained from *Women and Power in the Americas* (www.thedialogue.org), the Inter–Parliamentary Union (www.ipu.org) and the International *Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance* (www.idea.int).
a/ Refers to administrative posts in the executive branch.
b/ The quota law was recently repealed.

Chapter IV

Social spending in Latin America: positive trends and consequences of the economic slowdown in the region

Introduction

Since the public resources allocated to social sectors have significant distributive effects, ECLAC has highlighted three general objectives in relation to such spending: (i) intensifying efforts to raise the level and consolidate the recovery of social expenditure in the region, especially in those countries where it is still very low, both in absolute (per capita) terms and in relation to the gross domestic product (GDP); (ii) stabilizing its financing to forestall the serious adverse effects of spending cuts during economic downturns; and (iii) increasing its efficiency and positive impact, particularly for those components directed to vulnerable or poor groups.

Slower economic growth, a reduction in public revenues owing to the strong contraction in GDP which various countries (particularly those in South America) experienced in different years and the introduction of fiscal reforms aimed mainly at increasing and stabilizing State income have all affected public social spending since the Asian crisis of 1997. Accordingly, the present edition of the *Social panorama of Latin America* contains background information for use in considering trends in social spending over more than a decade (from 1990 to 2001) and comparing the situation of the past few years with that of the economic boom that lasted from the early 1990s to 1997.

A. Trends in social spending between 1990 and 2001

The effort that has been under way for more than a decade to achieve a steady increase in public spending in the social sectors is one of the outstanding features of development in the vast majority of the Latin American countries. As a result of this effort, the per capita resources allocated to education, health, housing and social security have increased by about 60% in real terms and their share of region–wide GDP has risen by almost four percentage points. Even though the region's economic growth has slowed considerably and become more volatile in the past five years, per capita social spending continued to increase until 2001, although at a lower rate than in the initial years of the past decade.

Public spending patterns in 18 Latin American countries reveal a significant fact: the 1990s saw a large increase in the resources allocated to social sectors (education, health, social security and assistance, housing and basic services). Between 1990–1991 and 2000–2001 per capita social spending rose by an average of 58% in the region, from US$ 342 to US$ 540 per person (see table IV.1). The only countries that failed to achieve a significant expansion in this area were El Salvador, Honduras and Nicaragua, of the countries with low spending levels (less than or close to US$ 100 per capita), and Venezuela, of the ones with intermediate spending levels (around US$ 400). This increase in social spending in the region, however, did not reduce the marked disparities between countries that could be observed at the end of the 1980s (see figure IV.1).

Table IV.1

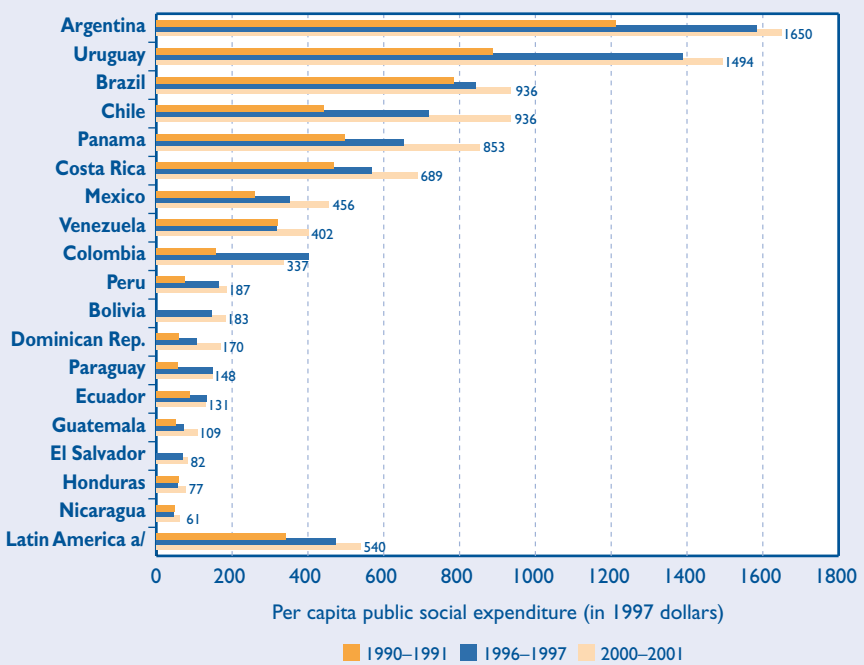
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): PER CAPITA PUBLIC SOCIAL EXPENDITURE
(1997 dollars)

Country	Period					
	1990–1991	1992–1993	1994–1995	1996–1997	1998–1999	2000–2001
Argentina	1 211	1 452	1 589	1 584	1 709	1 650
Bolivia a/	...	...	121	147	169	183
Brazil	786	773	906	843	936	936
Chile	441	540	598	718	838	936
Colombia	158	195	297	403	357	337
Costa Rica	469	492	533	568	610	689
Ecuador b/	88	94	121	134	126	131
El Salvador c/	...	53	63	70	78	82
Guatemala	52	65	67	73	103	109
Honduras	60	63	60	56	57	77
Mexico	259	334	358	352	407	456
Nicaragua	48	44	49	47	57	61
Panama d/	497	582	606	653	712	853
Paraguay	57	114	132	150	153	148
Peru	76	101	146	166	178	187
Dominican Rep.	60	87	104	108	132	170
Uruguay	888	1 095	1 248	1 390	1 533	1 494
Venezuela	320	355	287	317	307	402
Latin America e/	342	399	444	473	513	540

Source: ECLAC, social expenditure database.
a/ The figure in the 1994–1995 column refers to 1995.
b/ The figures in the 1990–1991 and 2000–2001 columns refer to 1991 and 2000, respectively.
c/ The figure in the 1992–1993 column refers to 1993.
d/ The figure in the 2000–2001 column refers to 2000.
e/ Simple average for the countries shown, except Bolivia and El Salvador. If these countries are included, then the averages for Latin America are US$ 404 for 1994–1995, US$ 432 for 1996–1997, US$ 470 for 1998–1999 and US$ 494 for 2000–2001.

Figure IV.1

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): PER CAPITA SOCIAL SPENDING IN 1990–1991, 1996–1997 AND 2000–2001
(1997 dollars)



Source: ECLAC, social expenditure database.
a/ Simple average for the countries shown, except Bolivia and El Salvador.

The second main feature of social spending trends in Latin America since the beginning of the 1990s is the significant effort made by the countries to increase the share of GDP allocated to social sectors in order to compensate in part for the reduction in fiscal revenue associated with the lower level of economic growth. Accordingly, the ratio between social spending and GDP increased in the region from 12.1% in 1996–1997 to 13.8% in 2000–2001. This increase is only slightly smaller than the one recorded between 1990–1991 and 1996–1997; from 10.1% to 12.1% (see table IV.2). The increase was achieved despite a sharp downturn in GDP growth: in per capita terms, this growth slowed from 2.1% to 0.2% over the period.

From 1998 onward, however, the economic slowdown and the absolute contraction in GDP in a number of countries curbed the expansion of social spending. Although public social spending in the region as a whole continued to increase in terms of per capita dollars between 1998 and 2001 (from US$ 501 to US$ 552), its growth was slower than in the pre–crisis period. Per capita social spending expanded by 6.3% a year between 1991 and 1997, but by only 4.2% a year between 1998 and 2001.

Table IV.2

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): PUBLIC SOCIAL EXPENDITURE AS A PERCENTAGE OF GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT
(Percentages)

Country	Period					
	1990–1991	1992–1993	1994–1995	1996–1997	1998–1999	2000–2001
Argentina	19.3	20.1	21.1	20.0	20.8	21.6
Bolivia a/	...	...	12.4	14.6	16.3	17.9
Brazil	18.1	17.7	19.3	17.3	19.3	18.8
Chile	11.7	12.4	12.3	13.0	14.7	16.0
Colombia	6.8	8.1	11.5	15.3	14.0	13.6
Costa Rica	15.6	15.2	15.8	16.8	16.4	18.2
Ecuador b/	5.5	5.8	7.4	8.2	8.1	8.8
El Salvador c/	...	3.1	3.4	3.8	4.1	4.2
Guatemala	3.4	4.1	4.1	4.3	6.0	6.2
Honduras	7.9	8.1	7.8	7.2	7.5	10.0
Mexico	6.5	8.1	8.8	8.5	9.2	9.8
Nicaragua	11.1	10.9	12.2	11.3	13.0	13.2
Panama d/	18.6	19.5	19.8	20.9	21.6	25.5
Paraguay	3.1	6.2	7.0	8.0	8.5	8.5
Peru	4.0	5.3	6.7	7.1	7.7	8.0
Dominican Rep.	4.3	5.9	6.1	6.0	6.6	7.6
Uruguay	16.9	18.9	20.3	21.3	22.8	23.5
Venezuela	8.5	8.9	7.6	8.3	8.4	11.3
Latin America e/	10.1	10.9	11.7	12.1	12.8	13.8

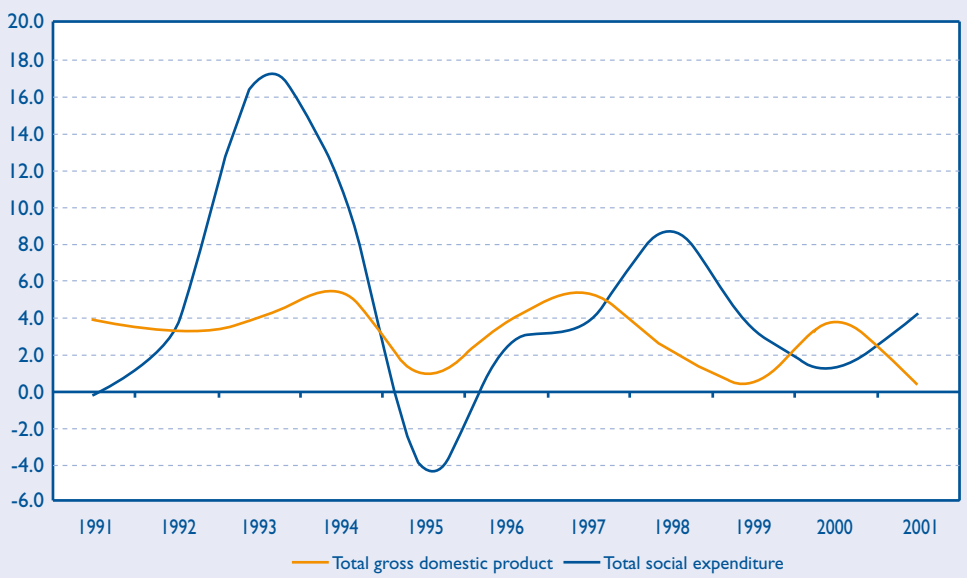
Source: ECLAC, social expenditure database.
a/ The figure in the 1994–1995 column refers to 1995.
b/ The figures in the 1990–1991 and 2000–2001 columns refer to 1991 and 2000, respectively.
c/ The figure in the 1992–1993 column refers to 1993.
d/ The figure in the 2000–2001 column refers to 2000.
e/ Simple average for the countries shown, except Bolivia and El Salvador. If these countries are included, then the averages for Latin America are 11.3% for 1994–1995, 11.7% for 1996–1997, 12.5% for 1998–1999 and 13.5% for 2000–2001.

During the period considered social spending did not exhibit countercyclical behaviour, in the sense that it did not increase in response to the absolute reduction in GDP or in total public spending. The pattern of aggregate spending in the social sectors was geared to "protecting" them in adverse conditions. In fact, just as social spending in the region had risen faster than GDP and total public spending in the first half of the 1990s, its slowdown in recent years (from 1998 to 2001) was less dramatic than the slowdown in economic growth. This meant that education, health, social security and assistance, housing and other basic social services had higher macroeconomic priority in terms of their share of GDP. Figure IV.2 shows changes in the region's GDP between 1990 and 2001 and changes in social spending in these sectors.[1]

Information from 18 Latin American countries on the relative importance of social expenditure in total public spending (in other words, its fiscal priority) clearly shows that the "protection" referred to above was achieved through the reorientation of public revenues. The restructuring of public spending by functions increased the share of social sectors from less than 42% to close to 49% between 1990–1991 and 2000–2001. The increase in fiscal priority was most pronounced in the first four years of the 1990s, when fiscal revenues were boosted by economic expansion in most of the countries, yet the more volatile growth observed in later years did not prevent the share of social expenditure from continuing to increase. In fact, between 1996–1997 and 2000–2001 the proportion of public expenditure allocated to social sectors declined in only five of these 18 countries (Argentina, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador and Paraguay) (see table IV.3).

Figure IV.2

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): a/ **GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT AND SOCIAL EXPENDITURE**
(Annual rates of variation)



Source: ECLAC, social expenditure database.
a/ Aggregate for the countries able to supply information on social expenditure, except Bolivia and El Salvador.

1 The figure shows the annual percentage variations in GDP and social spending in 16 countries of the region, in weighted averages.

Table IV.3

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): PUBLIC SOCIAL EXPENDITURE AS A PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL PUBLIC EXPENDITURE
(Percentages)

Country	Period					
	1990–1991	1992–1993	1994–1995	1996–1997	1998–1999	2000–2001
Argentina	62.2	63.5	65.6	65.4	63.9	62.4
Bolivia a/	...	...	47.3	54.2	56.8	60.4
Brazil	48.9	47.2	58.2	51.0	55.5	61.6
Chile	60.8	62.5	64.8	65.9	66.9	69.7
Colombia	28.8	32.2	39.9	41.8	33.4	33.5
Costa Rica	38.9	41.2	38.3	42.0	40.7	40.5
Ecuador b/	35.4	37.9	36.1	32.9	31.8	29.8
El Salvador c/	...	24.2	23.7	27.9	31.3	30.9
Guatemala	29.9	33.4	40.6	41.2	43.9	45.6
Honduras	36.5	28.0	32.3	31.7	31.4	38.7
Mexico	40.8	49.7	52.4	51.9	59.5	61.5
Nicaragua	34.1	38.5	39.9	37.1	37.0	38.4
Panama d/	40.0	37.9	43.2	38.2	42.2	49.7
Paraguay	39.9	43.0	43.4	47.1	44.6	43.8
Peru	33.9	36.0	40.2	41.0	43.4	46.8
Dominican Rep.	38.4	37.0	41.2	39.0	39.7	45.2
Uruguay	62.4	67.7	70.8	70.8	72.2	75.0
Venezuela	32.9	40.1	35.3	35.5	36.6	37.9
Latin America e/	41.5	43.5	46.4	45.8	46.4	48.7

Source: ECLAC, social expenditure database.
a/ The figure in the 1994–1995 column refers to 1995.
b/ The figures in the 1990–1991 and 2000–2001 columns refer to 1991 and 2000, respectively.
c/ The figure in the 1992–1993 column refers to 1993.
d/ The figure in the 2000–2001 column refers to 2000.
e/ Simple average for the countries shown, except Bolivia and El Salvador. If these countries are included, then the averages for Latin America are 45.2% for 1994–1995, 45.2% for 1996–1997, 46.1% for 1998–1999 and 48.4% for 2000–2001.

Despite the significant increase in social expenditure (both in absolute terms and in terms of macroeconomic and fiscal priority), the disparities between countries in this regard showed little change in the 1990s and are still very wide. While some countries allocate close to or more than 20% of their GDP to social spending, others allocate less than 10%. In the biennium 2000–2001 five countries (Argentina, Brazil, Costa Rica, Panama and Uruguay) allocated more than 18% of their GDP to social sectors, while five others (the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, Paraguay and Peru) allocated less than 9%. The differences are even greater in absolute terms, as the countries with the highest per capita income are the ones that assign the highest proportion of their income to social sectors. Thus, in 2000–2001 social spending amounted to US$ 1,140 per person in the first group of countries, but averaged only US$ 140 in the other group.[2]

In a number of Latin American countries, social investment suffers from tight structural constraints as a result of the low level of resources allocated to these sectors, low saving rates and a dearth of external development assistance (which is far from achieving the suggested target percentages). Under these circumstances, countries where unmet social needs, extreme poverty and hunger are most severe should strive not only to maximize the efficiency and effectiveness of social policies and programmes, but also to increase the share of social spending out of

2 Both figures are expressed in 1997 dollars.

total GDP. This is not an impossible task, at least in the light of the progress made by these countries over the past decade. In fact, four of the five countries that assign a very small fraction of GDP to social sectors (the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Paraguay and Peru) managed to double that percentage.

Box IV.1

METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES AND SOURCES OF STATISTICS ON TOTAL PUBLIC EXPENDITURE AND SOCIAL EXPENDITURE

Statistical series on total public expenditure and social expenditure in the region differ in terms of methodology and, particularly, coverage. The most important methodological differences have to do with the way social spending is defined and recorded in public accounts. The variations in coverage are related to differences between States' institutional structures and to whether or not local government expenditure is included.

Public expenditure can be broken down according to the different agencies involved. An initial distinction may be drawn between expenditure by the public financial sector (PFS), which includes the central bank and other State–owned financial institutions, and the non–financial public sector (NFPS), which includes the central government (CG), public enterprises (PE) and local governments (LG). In five of the countries considered the information covers NFPS expenditure.

The statistical series of 12 of the 18 countries considered refer to central government expenditure. This category includes both agencies with budgetary autonomy (AA) and those whose funds come directly from the central government budget (budgetary central government, or BCG). For three of the countries, the information covers only the second group of agencies. In the case of one country, the series cover general government expenditure (GG), which includes spending by the central government and local governments.

The following list groups the countries according to the institutional coverage of their social expenditure series.

Institutional coverage	**Countries**
NFPS = CG + PE + LG	Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Panama
GG = CG + LG	Bolivia
CG = BCG + AA	Chile, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Peru, Uruguay, Venezuela
BCG	Mexico, Nicaragua, Paraguay

In terms of the accounting definitions used in the series for these 18 countries, as well as the way social expenditure is financed and implemented in each of them, the figures for 17 of these countries can be described as reasonably comparable. Because Mexico's series do not include social spending carried out at the local level, and the financing of such spending is to some degree decentralized, its public social spending figures are underestimated and are therefore not fully comparable.

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

The figures in current values for total public expenditure, social expenditure and the sectoral breakdown of social expenditure are official figures provided by government agencies in each country. GDP at current prices and the implicit GDP deflator are also official figures obtained from the ECLAC Annual Statistics Data Bank (BADEANU). The exchange rate used is the average rate for 1997 in the "rf" series, taken from the International Monetary Fund publication *International Financial Statistics*. The population figures used come from projections prepared by the ECLAC Population Division – Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) and published in its *Demographic Bulletin*.

B. Protection of social expenditure over the past five years

Social spending in Latin America has exhibited two main trends since 1996–1997: the share of resources allocated to social sectors has increased in relation to both total public expenditure and gross domestic product, despite the economic slowdown, and these resources have been reoriented towards education and health, where their redistributive effects are greatest. Thanks to both trends, the investment in human capital that most countries in the region have been making was not reduced over the past five years.

Countries which in the mid–1990s had allocated a very high proportion of their GDP to social sectors (Panama, Uruguay, Argentina, Brazil, Costa Rica and Bolivia) continued to raise it to levels of between approximately 18% and 26% of GDP in 2000–2001. On average, the macroeconomic priority of social spending in those countries increased from 18.5% to 20.9% between 1996–1997 and 2000–2001. Even in Chile, where economic growth fell off sharply (from nearly 6% a year to less than half that figure), the percentage of GDP allocated to social spending was significantly increased, from 13% to 16% (see table IV.2).

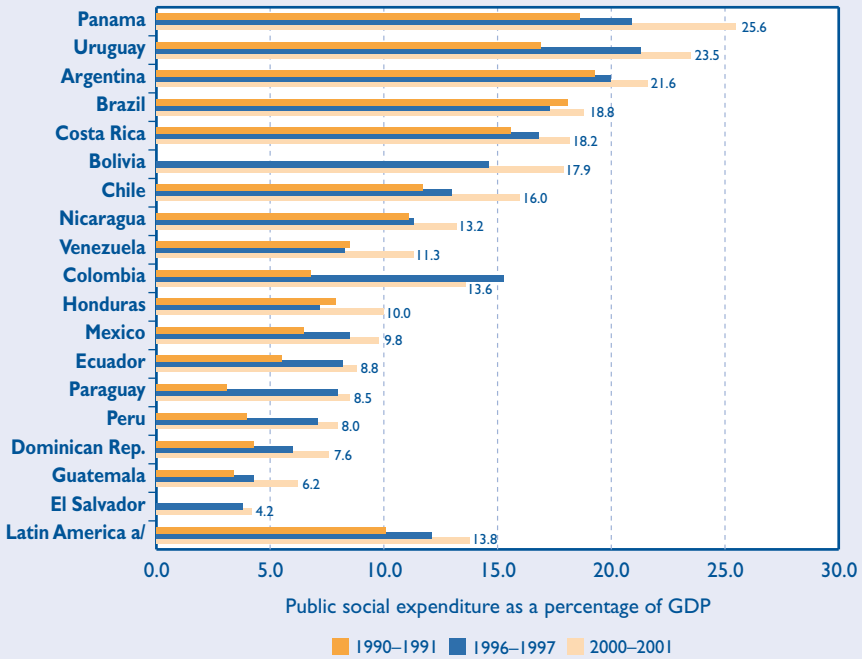
Argentina and Uruguay witnessed steep cumulative declines in GDP between 1999 and 2001 (of 8.5% and 7.4%, respectively). In both countries increases in social spending in relation to GDP softened the impact on per capita spending, so that the level of such spending was still higher in 2001 than it had been in 1996–1997 (see figure IV.3). Only in 2002 did the effects of the crisis on fiscal revenue lead to an absolute contraction in social spending. The substantial drop in GDP that year –of close to 11% in both countries– brought about sharp cutbacks in per capita social spending. Preliminary information for Argentina indicates that this spending fell from 21.8% to 19.4% of GDP between 2001 and 2002 and that the decline in absolute terms amounted to nearly 22%.[3]

The case of Colombia is also interesting, but for different reasons. Social spending as a percentage of GDP, after having reached 16.7% in 1996, fell to 13.4% in 2001. Per capita social spending declined systematically over that period, from US$ 438 to US$ 332, even though the country's GDP, after slumping by 3.8% in 1999, showed positive growth rates in 2000 and 2001 (of 2.5% and 1.5%, respectively).

3 At the time of writing, information on Uruguay's social spending in 2002 was not yet available.

Figure IV.3

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): SOCIAL EXPENDITURE AS A PERCENTAGE OF GDP IN 1990–1991, 1996–1997 AND 2000–2001
(Percentages)



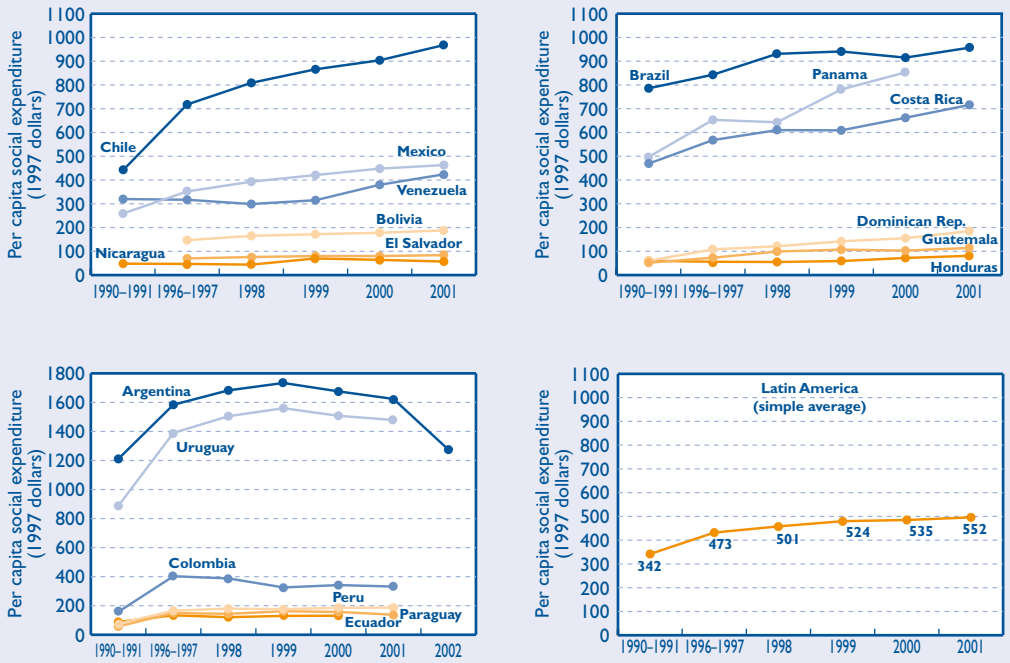
Source: ECLAC, social expenditure database.
a/ Simple average for the countries shown, except Bolivia and El Salvador.

In any event, the tendency of social spending to grow more slowly in the region over the past five years masks significant differences between countries. As a general rule, countries in the northern hemisphere showed bigger increases in per capita social spending than countries in the southern hemisphere, which were more strongly affected by the economic slowdown. Perhaps the clearest exceptions to this rule are El Salvador and Nicaragua in the first group and Brazil and Chile in the second (see figure IV.4).

In addition to this contrast between countries in the northern and southern hemispheres, differences can be observed in the absolute level of social spending and its relative size in terms of GDP. Despite their efforts to allocate more resources to social sectors, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua have not managed to achieve significant volumes of per capita social expenditure: in 2000–2001 this expenditure amounted to about US$ 100 or less, which is not even one fifth of the regional average. As mentioned in chapter II, these are the countries of the region which are very unlikely to achieve, by 2015, the Millennium Declaration targets relating to hunger.

Figure IV.4

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): TRENDS IN PER CAPITA SOCIAL EXPENDITURE BETWEEN 1990–1991 AND 2001
(1997 dollars)



Source: ECLAC, social expenditure database.

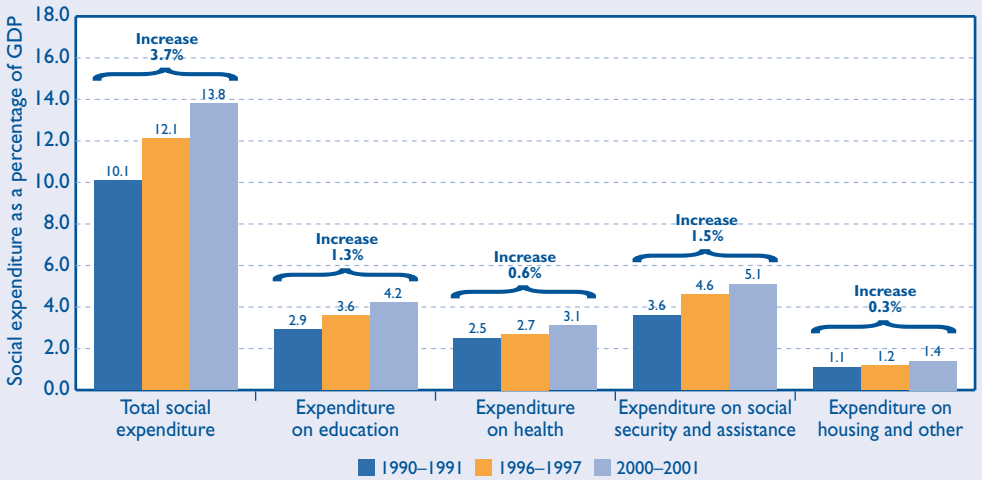
There has been a change over the past five years in terms of spending on "human capital investment" items (education and health) in comparison to spending on social security. In the first half of the 1990s and even up to 1998–1999, social security expenditure absorbed almost half of the increase in social spending in most of the countries and in the regional average. As the growth of social spending slowed down, however, a number of countries tended to be more "protective" of education spending, evincing the higher priority that governments have been giving to that sector in terms of both the extension of coverage at the primary and, particularly, the secondary level and the improvement of education quality. Since 1998 the total amount of resources earmarked for education and health has represented a higher proportion of GDP than social security spending (1% compared to 0.5%), in a reversal of the trend observed until 1998–1999 (see figure IV.5 and tables IV.4, IV.5, IV.6 and IV.7). As a result, the slowdown in social spending in the past few years has in part been offset by faster increases in the items that have the strongest redistributive effects because their benefits are proportionally greater for the lowest–income groups.[4]

4 For an analysis of the redistributive effect of the different components of social spending (that is, the extent to which spending on health, education, housing and social security reduces inequality in the distribution of household income), see ECLAC, 2002b, chapter IV.

Figure IV.5

LATIN AMERICA: a/ **SOCIAL EXPENDITURE, BY SECTOR, AS A SHARE OF GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT**

(Percentages)



Source: ECLAC, social expenditure database.

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

Table IV.4

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): PER CAPITA PUBLIC SOCIAL EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION
(1997 dollars, percentages of GDP and absolute variations)

Country	Period 1996–1997		Absolute variation in relation to 1990–1991		Period 2000–2001		Absolute variation in relation to 1996–1997	
	In per capita dollars	% of GDP	In per capita dollars	In point of GDP	In per capita dollars	% of GDP	In per capita dollars	In points of GDP
Argentina	336	4.2	110	0.6	385	5.0	49	0.8
Bolivia	59	5.9	…	…	66	6.5	7	0.6
Brazil	157	3.2	-5	-0.5	185	3.8	28	0.6
Chile	169	3.1	82	0.7	238	4.1	69	1.0
Colombia	126	4.8	64	2.1	97	3.9	-30	-0.9
Costa Rica	148	4.4	35	0.6	189	5.0	41	0.6
Ecuador a/	56	3.4	11	0.5	45	3.0	-11	-0.4
El Salvador	43	2.3	…	…	51	2.6	8	0.3
Guatemala	28	1.7	4	0.2	46	2.6	18	0.9
Honduras	28	3.5	-5	-0.8	45	5.8	17	2.3
Mexico	153	3.7	49	1.2	190	4.1	37	0.4
Nicaragua	21	5.0	2	0.7	28	6.1	8	1.1
Panama b/	181	5.8	56	1.1	199	6.0	19	0.3
Paraguay	73	3.9	51	2.7	70	4.0	-4	0.2
Peru	57	2.5	27	0.8	58	2.5	1	0.0
Dominican Rep.	41	2.3	25	1.1	67	3.0	26	0.7
Uruguay	198	3.0	68	0.6	213	3.4	16	0.4
Venezuela	119	3.1	-10	-0.4	178	5.0	59	1.9
Latin America c/	118	3.6	35	0.7	139	4.2	21	0.6

Source: ECLAC, social expenditure database.
a/ The figure in the 2000–2001 column refers to 2000, and the absolute variation in relation to 1990–1991 refers to 1991.
b/ The figure in the 2000–2001 column refers to 2000.
c/ Simple average for the countries shown, except Bolivia and El Salvador.

Table IV.5

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): PER CAPITA PUBLIC SOCIAL EXPENDITURE ON HEALTH
(1997 dollars, percentages of GDP and absolute variations)

Country	Period 1996–1997		Absolute variation in relation to 1990–1991		Period 2000–2001		Absolute variation in relation to 1996–1997	
	In per capita dollars	% of GDP	In per capita dollars	In point of GDP	In per capita dollars	% of GDP	In per capita dollars	In points of GDP
Argentina	362	4.6	91	0.3	379	5.0	17	0.4
Bolivia	34	3.4	…	…	38	3.7	4	0.3
Brazil	139	2.9	-17	-0.7	151	3.0	13	0.2
Chile	128	2.3	58	0.5	165	2.8	37	0.5
Colombia	86	3.3	63	2.3	107	4.3	21	1.1
Costa Rica	160	4.7	12	-0.2	199	5.3	40	0.6
Ecuador a/	18	1.1	4	0.2	16	1.1	-2	0.0
El Salvador	25	1.4	…	…	29	1.5	4	0.2
Guatemala	13	0.8	-2	-0.2	19	1.1	6	0.3
Honduras	17	2.2	-3	-0.5	24	3.1	7	0.9
Mexico	90	2.2	-29	-0.8	86	1.9	-4	-0.3
Nicaragua	18	4.3	-3	-0.5	22	4.8	5	0.5
Panama b/	211	6.8	47	0.7	274	8.2	64	1.5
Paraguay	23	1.2	17	0.9	19	1.1	-4	-0.1
Peru	34	1.5	17	0.6	41	1.8	7	0.3
Dominican Rep.	25	1.4	11	0.4	42	1.9	17	0.5
Uruguay	163	2.5	10	-0.4	175	2.8	12	0.3
Venezuela	43	1.1	-14	-0.5	50	1.4	8	0.3
Latin America c/	95	2.7	16	0.1	110	3.1	15	0.4

Source: ECLAC, social expenditure database.
a/ The figure in the 2000–2001 column refers to 2000, and the absolute variation in relation to 1990–1991 refers to 1991.
b/ The figure in the 2000–2001 column refers to 2000.
c/ Simple average for the countries shown, except Bolivia and El Salvador.

Table IV.6

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): PER CAPITA PUBLIC SOCIAL EXPENDITURE ON SOCIAL SECURITY a/
(1997 dollars, percentages of GDP and absolute variations)

Country	Period 1996–1997		Absolute variation in relation to 1990–1991		Period 2000–2001		Absolute variation in relation to 1996–1997	
	In per capita dollars	% of GDP	In per capita dollars	In point of GDP	In per capita dollars	% of GDP	In per capita dollars	In points of GDP
Argentina	704	8.9	135	-0.3	705	9.2	1	0.4
Bolivia	28	2.8	…	…	47	4.6	19	1.8
Brazil	537	11.0	135	1.8	588	11.8	52	0.8
Chile	335	6.1	98	-0.3	435	7.4	100	1.4
Colombia	161	6.1	101	3.6	109	4.4	-52	-1.8
Costa Rica	195	5.8	48	0.9	235	6.2	40	0.5
Ecuador b/	52	3.2	24	1.4	68	4.6	17	1.5
El Salvador	1	0.0	…	…	2	0.1	1	0.1
Guatemala	12	0.7	0	-0.1	19	1.1	7	0.4
Honduras	1	0.2	0	0.1	2	0.2	1	0.1
Mexico	75	1.8	64	1.6	131	2.8	56	1.0
Nicaragua	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2	1	0.2
Panama c/	182	5.8	27	0.0	192	5.7	10	-0.1
Paraguay	50	2.6	30	1.5	56	3.2	6	0.6
Peru	65	2.8	39	1.5	77	3.3	13	0.5
Dominican Rep.	12	0.7	7	0.3	31	1.4	19	0.7
Uruguay	1 000	15.4	410	4.2	1 075	16.9	75	1.6
Venezuela	110	2.9	36	0.9	128	3.6	19	0.7
Latin America d/	218	4.6	72	1.1	241	5.1	23	0.5

Source: ECLAC, social expenditure database.
a/ Includes items of expenditure relating to labour.
b/ The figure in the 2000–2001 column refers to 2000, and the absolute variation in relation to 1990–1991 refers to 1991.
c/ The figure in the 2000–2001 column refers to 2000.
d/ Simple average for the countries shown, except Bolivia and El Salvador.

Table IV.7

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): PER CAPITA PUBLIC SOCIAL EXPENDITURE ON HOUSING AND OTHER
(1997 dollars, percentages of GDP and absolute variations)

Country	Period 1996–1997		Absolute variation in relation to 1990–1991		Period 2000–2001		Absolute variation in relation to 1996–1997	
	In per capita dollars	% of GDP	In per capita dollars	In point of GDP	In per capita dollars	% of GDP	In per capita dollars	In points of GDP
Argentina	181	2.3	37	0.0	183	2.4	2	0.1
Bolivia	26	2.6	…	…	33	3.2	7	0.7
Brazil	11	0.2	-57	-1.4	12	0.2	2	0.0
Chile	88	1.6	40	0.4	99	1.7	11	0.1
Colombia	30	1.2	18	0.7	26	1.0	-5	-0.2
Costa Rica	67	2.0	5	-0.1	67	1.8	1	-0.2
Ecuador a/	10	0.6	10	0.6	3	0.2	-7	-0.4
El Salvador	1	0.0	…	…	1	0.0	0	0.0
Guatemala	20	1.2	18	1.1	26	1.5	6	0.3
Honduras	11	1.4	5	0.5	7	0.9	-4	-0.6
Mexico	35	0.9	8	0.2	50	1.1	16	0.2
Nicaragua	8	2.0	-1	0.0	10	2.2	2	0.2
Panama b/	81	2.6	28	0.7	188	5.6	107	3.0
Paraguay	5	0.3	-3	-0.2	3	0.2	-2	-0.1
Peru	11	0.5	8	0.3	13	0.6	2	0.1
Dominican Rep.	30	1.7	6	-0.1	33	1.5	3	-0.2
Uruguay	30	0.5	14	0.2	31	0.5	1	0.0
Venezuela	46	1.2	-16	-0.4	46	1.3	0	0.1
Latin America c/	41	1.2	7	0.1	50	1.4	8	0.2

Source: ECLAC, social expenditure database.
a/ The figure in the 2000–2001 column refers to 2000, and the absolute variation in relation to 1990–1991 refers to 1991.
b/ The figure in the 2000–2001 column refers to 2000.
c/ Simple average for the countries shown, except Bolivia and El Salvador.

CHAPTER V

Social agenda

Labour situation and employment policies in Latin America

Introduction

The major changes that have taken place in employment patterns during the last decade point up the need for a re–examination of both the current regulatory framework in the labour sphere and the efforts of the governments of the region to address the challenges arising from globalization and a process of uneven development. The Latin American economies continue to grapple with the difficulty of generating enough productive, high–quality employment for all individuals entering the labour force. This situation translates into growing open unemployment and low–productivity jobs for a significant segment of the labour force. At the same time, new forms of labour insecurity have emerged: continued lack of social security coverage for the majority of workers, coupled with steady declines in formal employment, poor working conditions and low wages.

This chapter updates and expands on the information on the social agenda presented in the 1996 edition of *Social panorama of Latin America*, which analysed the prevailing labour situation and the employment programmes being implemented at the time. The source of information for this update is two surveys sent to ministries of labour in the region during September and October 2002. The annex contains the survey form and the list of countries, institutions and individuals surveyed (see tables 1 and 2 of the annex).

The chapter is divided into four sections. The first section examines the current labour situation, placing special emphasis on recent regulatory changes and on the laws governing child labour, hiring and firing of workers; minimum wages; workers' rights to organize and strike; the existence, coverage, eligibility requirements and financing of insurance plans for workers; and other issues relating to labour policy.

The second section explores the views of the government authorities responsible for labour matters with regard to the most important employment–related problems they face in their respective countries and the causes to which they attribute those problems.

The next section analyses employment, labour and labour market policies, focusing in particular on the latter and highlighting some innovative experiences.

Finally, the section on the international agenda outlines the principal agreements emanating from the World Summit on Sustainable Development (Johannesburg, South Africa, September 2002), which established specific goals and outcomes to be achieved in relation to sustainable development. Those objectives reaffirm some of the goals established in the United Nations Millennium Declaration and envisage the creation of a special fund to eradicate poverty and foster social and human development in developing countries.

A. Labour situation

The process of modifying countries' labour laws has continued over the last six years, albeit at a somewhat slower pace. The regulatory framework for labour policies reflects widely differing standards regarding the minimum working age, employment contracts, the right to unionize and the right to strike. It is also reflects the emergence of new types of collective agreements between multinational corporations and unions. However, although legislative advances have occurred, non–enforcement of existing regulations remains a problem.

1. International labour standards

Within the International Labour Organization (ILO), governments have signed a number of legal instruments recognizing labour rights, including Convention 29 on forced labour, Convention 105 on abolition of forced labour, Convention 87 on freedom of association and protection of the right to organize, Convention 98 on the right to organize and collective bargaining, Convention 100 on equal remuneration, Convention 111 on discrimination, Convention 138 on the minimum working age and Convention 182 on the prohibition of the worst forms of child labour.

The governments of all the Latin American countries have ratified the fundamental conventions on non–discrimination in employment, and most have also signed those on forced labour and freedom of association (the exceptions are El Salvador and Mexico in the case of Convention 98). The situation is different, however, with respect to the issue of child labour. Although legislation has been enacted to raise the minimum working age (Brazil, which has set the age at 16) and afford special protection for adolescent workers (Costa Rica), several countries have still not signed Convention 138 (Haiti, Paraguay and Peru) or Convention 182 (Bolivia, Colombia, Cuba, Haiti and Venezuela) (ILO, 2002).

One recent development in the area of labour regulations is the emergence of a new form of collective agreement between transnational companies and global unions on some of the principal labour rights set forth in the ILO conventions (see box V.1). Although this modality is still incipient, it could ultimately help strengthen respect for labour standards; on the other hand, however, it might also widen the gap between workers who enjoy legal protections and those in the informal sector who do not.

Box V.1

GLOBAL FRAMEWORK AGREEMENTS

The late 1980s saw the emergence of a new type of collective agreement between multinational corporations and international labour organizations. Under these "framework agreements" signed by major industrial companies with their workers, the parties commit to respect a set of minimum standards in their activities around the world. The earliest of these agreements goes back to 1988. To date, multinational companies in a wide range of sectors have signed a total of 20 agreements (examples include the framework agreements between the IKEA group, a furniture manufacturer and seller, and the International Federation of Building and Wood Workers (IFBWW), between Volkswagen and the International Metalworkers' Federation (IMF), between Ballast Nedam and the IFBWW and between the Carrefour and Telefónica companies and Union Network International (UNI)). This trend has been led mainly by companies headquartered in Western Europe, but there are also examples from New Zealand and South Africa. The multinational firms appear to consider it important, from a corporate ethics standpoint, to comply with basic labour standards in their relations with their workers. At the same time, these agreements allow unions to monitor how well the company is living up to its commitments in practice. Generally, global framework agreements address the following issues: freedom of association and collective bargaining (clauses appear in 100% of the agreements signed thus far); non–discrimination in employment (90%); forced labour (85%); child labour (85%); protection and facilitation of the work of workers' representatives (66%); health and safety in the workplace (66%); minimum wages (55%); employment promotion and protection against unemployment (27%); vocational training and guidance (16%).

Source: International Labour Organization (ILO), *World of Work Magazine* No. 45, Geneva, December 2002.

2. Principal changes in labour legislation

During the 1990s, legislative changes helped to increase the flexibility of labour markets in the region and protect some groups of workers. Between 1998 and 2002, the pace of legislative reform slowed, and most of the changes that did occur had to do with the introduction of adjustments in the national regulatory framework to bring it into line with international agreements on child labour and unionization. In some countries, labour codes were revised, and in two countries, social security systems were overhauled.

Traditionally, the purpose of labour legislation in Latin America has been to protect workers and improve their bargaining power, because workers were considered the weaker side in the employer–employee equation. Laws were designed to regulate a relationship that was perceived to be one of permanent conflict between capital and labour. However, this protective legislation engendered a long tradition of labour market rigidity and protection of employment (Saavedra, 2003).

The economic changes of the 1990s led to the development of more open, less protected markets. In consonance with that trend, labour legislation in most of the countries was modified with two main aims: to increase labour market flexibility and to improve working conditions for certain sectors or groups of workers in precarious and vulnerable situations. In some countries, labour costs were reduced and the rules governing unemployment compensation funds were made more flexible. At the same time, regulations that facilitated hiring and firing of workers were introduced, and collective bargaining rules were modified (ECLAC, 1997 and 2000c).

Argentina and Peru are the countries that have undertaken the most thoroughgoing reforms in order to increase labour market flexibility. In Chile, the tendency during the 1990s was to try to improve upon some aspects of the deregulatory provisions promulgated by the military regime, which had introduced excessive flexibility into the labour market. In Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Panama and Paraguay, the modifications have tended to be less oriented towards increasing

flexibility. In Bolivia, Honduras, Mexico and Uruguay, although legal changes have been introduced, they do not constitute labour reform in the strict sense (ILO, 2000). In all the countries, many employers are still not complying with existing labour standards and workers continue to face obstacles in their battle to win better working conditions, and these problems have been exacerbated by the rising unemployment rates in the region.

All the governments that responded to the ECLAC survey reported legislative changes during the period 1998–2002. However, these changes have been rather narrow in scope, and most have been linked to ratification of ILO conventions, in particular Convention 182 on child labour (Costa Rica, Honduras, Mexico and Uruguay), Convention 154 on unionization and collective bargaining rights and Convention 151 on labour relations in public service (Colombia), as well as to non–discrimination against disabled persons (El Salvador). Colombia enacted collective labour law reforms,[1] Chile and Guatemala amended their labour codes, and Cuba modified its collective labour agreements and established a special labour justice system. The Dominican Republic and Mexico amended their social security laws, and Cuba adopted corporate behaviour standards. Authorities in Brazil, Costa Rica, Chile, Honduras, Panama and Uruguay[2] reported that minimum wage levels had been established, while authorities in Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia and Mexico indicated that legislation dealing with the status of civil servants had been passed (see tables 1 and 3 in the annex).

New regulatory developments include the law enacted by Costa Rica (Law 8220) to protect its citizens from excessive bureaucratic requirements and procedures (see table 3 in the annex) and, in Colombia, the official acknowledgement of the need to improve labour justice and oversight procedures. The authorities of almost all the countries agree on the need to streamline procedures and increase the number of labour inspectors (Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Chile, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala). El Salvador proposes to establish more inspection offices to expand enforcement capacity; Ecuador and Guatemala are seeking to enhance legal procedures; and Chile is working to improve and expand the powers of its inspection offices. In Brazil, the authorities emphasize the need for State institutions to ensure protection of workers' rights. In sum, the authorities surveyed express an interest in streamlining procedures and improving coverage and control in order to assure effective enforcement of labour regulations.

1 In late 2002, after the survey had been conducted, Colombia also reformed the pension system.
2 However, the nominal minimum wage rose in all the countries during the period.

Table V.1

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): MAIN ISSUES ADDRESSED BY LEGISLATIVE CHANGES, /a 1998–2002

Issues	Bolivia	Brazil	Chile	Colombia	Costa Rica	Cuba	Dominican Republic	Ecuador	El Salvador	Guatemala	Honduras	Mexico	Panama	Peru	Uruguay
Adolescent labour													X		X
Child labour		X			X						X	X			X
Civil service	X	X	X	X								X			
Collective bargaining			X	X		X				X		X			
Contracts					X										
Dismissals			X												
Employment opportunities for the disabled									X						
Labour inspection														X	
Labour justice		X				X									
Maternity protection			X			X									X
Migrant labour															X
Minimum wage			X								X		X		
Pensions			X												
Pension amounts			X												
Right to organize				X											
Safety in the workplace								X			X	X			
Sex discrimination				X	X										
SME and reform of state enterprises					X	X									
Social security							X					X			X
Vacations and leave					X								X		
Unemployment compensation			X												
Other issues				X										X	

Source: ECLAC, based on table 3 in the annex.
a/ Issues appear in alphabetical order for ease of reference.

a) Child labour

Most of the countries have ratified the conventions on child labour. However, the laws regarding minimum working age currently in force in the region are not all consistent with international standards, and the age at which young people are permitted to work varies widely across and within countries (see table V.2). In some countries, it is 18 (Bolivia, Colombia), in one it is 17 (Cuba), while in others it is 16 (Brazil, Chile, Dominican Republic), 15 (Uruguay) or 14 (Ecuador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Panama). Peruvian legislation establishes different minimum ages for workers in agriculture (15), mining and industry (16) and industrial fishing (17).

In all the countries, youths under the minimum age are allowed to work provided certain requirements are met, such as having parental consent or authorization by some government child protection authority (e.g., Council on Children, Secretariat or Ministry of Labour, a juvenile court judge), working a reduced number of hours, remaining in school, and performing light, non–hazardous work. El Salvador and Peru are the countries with the lowest minimum working age: 12 years.

In Latin America, the percentage of children who work remains high. In the countries for which figures were available, the proportion of young people aged 13 to 17 who worked ranged, in 1997, from 39% in Bolivia to 6% in Chile (ECLAC, 1999 and 2000d). However, this information does not reflect the total number of young people and children in the labour market, since child labour, because it is illegal, is often not declared. Underreporting is compounded, moreover, by deficiencies in information systems. There is substantial accumulated evidence of the importance of investment in education and of the difficulties faced by students who work, which leads to a high rate of school dropout among child workers (ECLAC, 2000d and 2002b). The number of children and young people in the labour force makes it all the more urgent to step up efforts to enforce existing laws and underscores the importance of policies and programmes targeting child and adolescent workers.

Table V.2

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): CHILD LABOUR SITUATION, 2002

Country	Child labour Ratification of conventions		Minimum legal working age
	Convention 138	Convention 182	
Bolivia	1997	–	18 14–18, with parental consent; continued school attendance; light, non–hazardous work; reduced working hours.
Brazil	2001	2000	16 16–18, with parental consent or authorization by judge of juvenile court; light, non–hazardous work; reduced working hours.
Chile	1999	2000	16 18–21, contingent upon exam for fitness to work in underground mining 16–18, with consent of parents and legal representatives. Under 16, with continued school attendance; light, non–hazardous work; reduced working hours.
Colombia	2001	–	18 Under 18, with continued school attendance; light, non–hazardous work; reduced working hours; authorization by Ministry of Labour and Social Security.
Costa Rica	1976	2001	15 15–18 years, with continued school attendance; light, non–hazardous work; reduced working hours; in accordance with regulations of the Child and Adolescent Welfare Code, Law 7739 (6 February 1998).
Cuba	1975	–	17 15–16, as apprentice in business or trade school, with authorization by the Ministry of Labour and Social Security, with health certificate, reduced working hours and light work.
Dominican Republic	1999	2000	16 16–18 years, with parental consent; continued school attendance; light, non–hazardous work; reduced working hours; prior authorization by the Ministry of Labour.
Ecuador	2000	2000	14 14–18, with parental consent; continued school attendance; light, non–hazardous work; reduced working hours.
El Salvador	1996	2000	12 12–18 years, with parental consent; continued school attendance; light, non–hazardous work; reduced working hours.
Guatemala	1999	2001	14 Under 14, with parental consent; continued school attendance; light, non–hazardous work; reduced working hours.
Honduras	1980	2001	14 14–18, with parental consent; continued school attendance; light, non–hazardous work; reduced working hours (not more than 6 hours, no overtime or work on mandatory holidays).
Mexico	–	2000	14 14–18, with parental consent, reduced working hours (not more than 6 hours, no overtime or work on mandatory holidays).
Panama	2000	2000	14
Peru	–	2002	14 15 for non–industrial agricultural work. 16 for industrial, commercial and mining work. 17 for industrial fishing work. 12–18, with parental consent; continued school attendance; light, non–hazardous work; reduced working hours.
Uruguay	1977	2001	15 15–18, with parental consent and authorization by Council on Children, continued school attendance, work that does not pose a risk to life or to physical or mental health.

Source: ECLAC, based on official information supplied by the countries in response to the ECLAC survey conducted in September–October 2002, and International Labour Organization (ILO), *Globalization and Decent Work in the Americas. Report of the Director–General*, Fifteenth American Regional Meeting, Lima, December 2002 (http://www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/relm/rgmeet/pdf/am15–dg.pdf).

b) Contracting modalities, severance compensation and dismissal

The 1990s saw a trend towards replacement of permanent employment contracts with fixed–term contracts, which, arguably, were better suited to firms' needs, would reduce labour costs and would permit greater worker mobility (Argentina, Colombia, Chile, Peru and, to a lesser extent, Brazil, Ecuador and Panama). Laws concerning dismissal of employees were also modified, in some cases broadening the grounds for dismissal and simplifying the corresponding procedures (Peru, Argentina). In other cases, however, the changes increased protection for workers by increasing the level of compensation required for unjustified firings (Chile, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador and Paraguay) (ECLAC, 2000c).

At present, the vast majority of the governments report that employees in their countries are entitled to severance pay in the event of dismissal (the exceptions being El Salvador, Guatemala and Honduras). Where this right exists, however, it can be waived on grounds of just cause (except in Cuba and Peru), when the reasons for dismissal are attributable to the employee (except in Colombia, Cuba and Dominican Republic) or (in Bolivia, Colombia, Cuba, Ecuador and Panama) when workers are laid off due to the circumstances of employment (completion of the job, expiration of the contract, or both). In Uruguay, employers are exempt from severance pay requirements only in cases where gross misconduct by the worker has been legally proven.

In almost all the countries, labour dispute cases are heard by ordinary labour courts, although in some cases it is the labour inspection office of the ministry or secretariat of labour that handles labour disputes. Only Mexico and Panama report the existence of mediation and arbitration services (see table V.3). In Cuba, the recently created labour justice system is responsible for settling grievances caused by the imposition of disciplinary measures or cases having to do with recognition or enforcement of rights emanating from labour legislation. Such disputes are settled by labour justice committees established in individual workplaces or by municipal courts. Authorities in many countries reported that their labour inspection offices lack sufficient personnel to carry out their functions and that more effective and expedient legal processes are needed.

Table V.3

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (15 COUNTRIES): RIGHT TO SEVERANCE PAY AND ENTITIES RESPONSIBLE FOR SETTLING LABOUR DISPUTES, 2002

Country	Right to severance pay	Circumstances justifying non-payment of severance compensation			Entities responsible for settling labour disputes					
		Just cause	Circumstances attributable to the job	Circumstances attributable to the worker	Superior courts	Ordinary labour courts	Ministry of Labour	Labour inspection offices	Mediation and arbitration services	Other
Bolivia	X	X	X	X	X					
Brazil	X	X		X		X	X	X		
Colombia	X	X	X			X				X
Costa Rica	X	X		X		X		X		
Chile	X	X		X	X			X		
Cuba	X		X		X	X				
Dominican Republic	X	X				X				
Ecuador	X	X	X	X		X		X		
El Salvador						X	X			
Guatemala		X		X		X		X		
Honduras		X		X		X			X	
Mexico	X	X		X		X			X	
Panama	X	X	X	X	X	X		X		
Peru	X			X	X	X				
Uruguay	X	X		X		X	X			

Source: ECLAC, based on official information supplied by the countries in response to the ECLAC survey conducted in September–October 2002.

c) Minimum wage

The existence of a minimum wage has not been debated or modified in the framework of recent reforms. In some countries, the amount of the minimum wage is set every year. In 4 of the 11 countries that have information for the period 1995–2001/2002, the value of the urban real minimum wage declined (see table V.4).

Peru showed the greatest increase in the minimum wage index, the value of which doubled between 1995 and 2002; next in terms of wage index growth were Bolivia, with a rise of close to 50%, and Chile, with 42%. The largest declines in average wage index during the same years occurred in Ecuador and Uruguay, countries recently affected by economic crises, which hindered economic growth during the period. In Mexico, too, the real minimum wage decreased significantly.

While it is not possible to determine the purchasing power of the minimum wage in each country, converting the minimum wage and the urban poverty line to 2002 dollars does provide an idea of the variability of minimum wages, which ranged from approximately US$ 52 per month in Uruguay to US$ 161 in Chile.

The poverty line represents the absolute minimum capacity for consumption, and most minimum wages are above that line. In Chile, for example, the minimum wage is almost three times higher, but in Mexico and Uruguay it is below the

poverty line, which means that those who earn only the minimum wage figure among the extremely poor population.

In most of the countries, the minimum wage bears little relation to the magnitude of the per capita gross domestic product. This is particularly true of Uruguay, whose per capita GDP is one of the highest in the region, but its minimum wage is the lowest (see table V.4). The serious erosion of the bargaining power of Uruguayan and Mexican workers may account for their inability to maintain a minimum wage level that is adequate to meet their most basic needs.

d) Right to strike and organize

All the countries' Constitutions include the right to strike as one of the fundamental rights of workers, while their labour codes contain provisions governing various aspects of the employer–employee relationship.

According to the information provided by the countries, in Bolivia, Colombia, Dominican Republic and El Salvador, providers of essential public services do not have the right to strike; in Brazil, Ecuador and Guatemala, members of the armed forces, police officers and firefighters are not

Table V.4

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (12 COUNTRIES): MINIMUM WAGE AND PER CAPITA GDP, 2002

Country	Monthly minimum wage (at current 2002 prices)	Currency	Monthly minimum wage (in 2002 dollars) a/	Urban poverty line in dollars b/	Urban real minimum wage index, 2002 (1995=100)	GDP per capita, 2002 (in constant 1995 dollars) c/
Bolivia	430	Boliviano	60.0	49.8	147.1	941.8
Brazil	200	Real	68.5	53.5	129.9	4 343.8
Chile	111 200	Chilean peso	161.4	62.5	142.3	5 919.1
Colombia	309 000	Colombian peso	123.4	70.0	105.4 d/	2 271.0
Cuba	100 e/	Cuban peso	–	–	–	–
Ecuador	128	US dollar	128.0	73.3	96.7	1 516.0
El Salvador	109 f/	US dollar	109.1	72.4	91.9 d/	1 763.7
Guatemala	900 g/	Quetzal	115.1	85.9	121.2 d/	1 763.7
Honduras	2 099 g/	Lempira	127.7	89.6	121.3 d/	704.9
Mexico	1 192 g/	Mexican peso	123.4	153.9	89.6	4 708.6
Peru	410	Nuevo sol	116.6	64.2	217.7	2 376.3
Uruguay	1 110	Uruguayan peso	52.2	75.0	86.0	5 023.6

Source: ECLAC, based on official information supplied by the countries in response to the ECLAC survey conducted in September–October 2002, and other official figures (minimum wage index and per capita GDP).
a/ Calculated using the IMF "rf" series, with the exception of Guatemala, for which the "wf" series was used.
b/ Poverty line values around 1999 were converted to 2002 prices based on the annual averages of the General Consumer Price Index available on the IMF online database (http://imfstatistics.org) because the CPI for food, a more suitable index for this type of conversion, was not available.
c/ Provisional figures subject to revision.
d/ Information for 2001.
e/ Minimum wage established in 1987 for certain service occupations. Other differential minimum wages have been established based on the complexity of the work, with ranges by category.
f/ Based in the simple average of daily minimum wages for industry, trade and services, multiplied by 30.
g/ Based on daily wages multiplied by 30.

entitled to strike, while in Honduras, Chile and Costa Rica no government employees may strike. Cuban labour legislation does not regulate the right to strike.

In Chile, strikes are authorized only in the framework of a collective bargaining process–specifically, if the workers participating in the negotiation, after voting, do not accept the employer's offer. Workers are not legally permitted to strike out of solidarity or as a means of exacting compliance with individual or collective contracts. Moreover, the law gives employers the right to hire replacement workers, even when workers are engaged in a legal strike.

The question of whether or not the right to strike is actually exercised and, if so, with what results remains to be analysed, as does the question of whether or not the increase in the region's unemployment levels has discouraged the use of strikes as a collective bargaining tool. However, according to statistics from the Directorate of Labour of Chile, in 2002 only 4.9% of wage earners who had the right to participate in collective bargaining did so, compared to 5.5% in 2001. In Peru, only 13.4% of wage earners are covered by collective bargaining.

The constitutions and labour codes of the various countries contain provisions regarding unionization which are, generally speaking, consistent with the international conventions of the ILO. In some cases, the regulation of collective labour agreements occurred as a result of the need to harmonize national legislation with the ILO conventions on unionization ratified by the countries (see tables 1, 3 and 6 in the annex). The scope of collective bargaining is variable. In some countries it is restricted to the company level (Costa Rica, Chile, Guatemala and Honduras), while in others collective agreements may be negotiated at the company and at the sector level (Bolivia, Cuba, Ecuador, El Salvador, Mexico and Peru), and in a few cases the scope of collective bargaining is broader and encompasses companies, sectors and territories (Brazil, Colombia, Dominican Republic). In Uruguay, all levels have free access to collective bargaining.

There are also variations with regard to the minimum number of workers required to form a union. Only Brazil and Uruguay have no legally established minimum. In the other countries, the required number of members ranges from 8 (Chile) to 40 (Panama). As for employer organizations, only two countries have data on minimum membership: the Dominican Republic, where the requirement is at least three members, and Honduras, where it is five.

Information on unionization rates is also quite scarce but, where such data do exist, they reveal that the proportions of unionized workers are extremely small, with the sole exception of Cuba, where almost all workers are union members. In Brazil, a survey is under way to obtain these data.[3] In the rest of the countries for which information is available, the proportion of unionized workers ranges from 11% in Chile to 6% in Colombia and 5.7% in El Salvador –very low figures, which in some cases (for example, Chile and Colombia, which supplied data for earlier years) are falling. Without question, the working population has continued to lose bargaining power during the period.

3 The Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics conducted a union survey in 2002, the most recent survey of its kind, which looked at four basic areas: numbers of union organizations and unionized workers; organization and structure of the union movement, and available means and resources; capacity for mobilization and action; institutional representation and bargaining power. The survey is currently being finalized, and the initial results are to be released during 2003.

Table V.5

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (15 COUNTRIES): RIGHT TO STRIKE AND APPLICABLE LEGISLATION, 2002

Country	Legal right to strike			
	Applicable legislation	Workers without the right to strike		
		Members of armed forces, police and firefighters	Essential public service employees	Workers in government institutions
Bolivia	General Labour Law, art. 44.		X	
Brazil	Federal Constitution, art. 9, right to strike of wage earners; art. 37 VII, right to strike of civil servants; Law No. 7783 (28 June 1989) on the exercise of and essential activities associated with the right to strike.	X		
Colombia	Substantive Labour Code, art. 429, 430, 431, 444–451.	X	X	
Costa Rica	Political Constitution, art. 61 Labour code, art. 371–374, 377, 378, 386–391.	X a/	X	X
Chile	Political Constitution of the Republic, art. 19, para.16 Labour Code, art. 384.	X b/	X	X
Cuba	Labour laws do not regulate the right to strike.	No legal restrictions on right to strike in any sector.		
Dominican Republic	Constitution of the Republic, art. 8, para. 11, sub–para. d Art. 401–412 of the Labour Code (Law 16–92).	X	X	
Ecuador	Political Constitution and Labour Code, art. 35.	X		
El Salvador	Labour code, articles 527–538: a) Initial establishment or revision of labour contract and collective labour agreement. b) Protection of the common professional interests of professionals.	X	X	
Guatemala	Political Constitution, art. 104; Labour Code, art. 206–234.	X		
Honduras	Constitution of the Republic; Labour Code, title VII, ch. II: "Declaration and Execution of Strikes".	X		X
Mexico	Federal Labour Law: Title 8, ch. I "General Provisions" and ch. II "Objectives and Procedures for Strikes", art. 440.	Workers in all sectors have the right to strike.		
Panama	Constitution of the Republic, articles 475–519. Labour code, art. 65.			
Peru	Political Constitution, Regulations Decree No. 011–92–TR and Decree–law 25593, "Law on Collective Labour Relations".	Administrative personnel and managers, unless a union expressly admits them as members.		
Uruguay	The right to strike is enshrined in the Constitution, but the applicable regulations have not been established.	Workers in all sectors have the right to strike.		

Source: ECLAC, based on official information supplied by the countries in response to the ECLAC survey conducted in September–October 2002.
a/ Costa Rica has no armed forces; hence, the restriction applies only to police officers and firefighters.
b/ In Chile, firefighters are unpaid volunteers; hence, the restriction applies only to members of the police and armed forces.

Table V.6

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (15 COUNTRIES): RIGHT TO ORGANIZE AND APPLICABLE LEGISLATION, 2002

Countries	Right to organize			
	Applicable legislation	Level at which collective bargaining occurs	Minimum number to form a union	Number/total rate of unionization (percentage)
Bolivia	General Labour Law, art. 99 *et seq.*	Company and sector	20	–
Brazil	Federal Constitution of Brazil, art. 8. Art. 37 VI extends the right to civil servants.	Company, sector and territory	No legal requirement	Government does not have these data
Colombia	Political Constitution of Colombia, articles 38 and 39; Substantive Labour Code, ILO Conventions 87 and 98.	Company, sector and territory	25	1999: 6.9% 2000: 6.3% 2001: 6.2% 2002: 6.0%
Costa Rica	Political Constitution of Costa Rica, art. 60; ILO Conventions 87 and 98; Labour Code, Art. 332–370.	Company	12	1998: 10.4% 2000: 12.8% 2001: 9.4%
Chile	Political Constitution, ch. III, art. 19, para. 16; Labour Code, volume III, title I, ch. I, art. 212–213.	Company	8 For workers employed at the same establishment, a minimum of 25, or at least 30% of the employees	1998: 11.3% 1999: 15.3%
Cuba	Constitution of the Republic, art. 54; Labour Code, art. 13, ch. I, section 4.	Company and sector	30	1998–2001: 95% 2001–2002: 96%
Dominican Republic	Constitution of the Republic, art. 8, para. 11; ILO. Conventions 87 and 98; Labour Code, art. 317–394.	Company, sector and territory (professional)	20 for workers' union 3 for employers' union	–
Ecuador	Constitution, section III, chap. IV, art. 35; Ministry of Labour, ILO Conventions 87 and 98.	Empresa y rama	30	–
El Salvador	Labour Code, art. 204–263: a) Private–sector employers and workers. b) Workers in autonomous public institutions.	Company and sector	35	1998: 5.4% 1999: 5.2% 2000: 5.9% 2001: 5.7%
Guatemala	Political Constitution of the Republic, art. 102, para. (q); Labour Code, art. 206–234.	Company	20	1998: 3 570 1999: 4 224 2000: 2 697 2001: 2 557 2002: 1 287
Honduras	Labour Code and ILO Conventions 87 and 98.	Company, company–based unions	30 for workers' unions 5 for employers'unions	2001: 91 182
Mexico	Federal Labour Law, title 7, on collective labour relations; ch. II, on unions, federations and confederations, art. 356.	Company and sector	20	–
Panama	Labour code, vol. III, on collective relations, art. 331–519.	Primarily company, occasionally sector	40	–
Peru	Constitution, Decree–law No. 25593; Law on labour relations and the applicable regulations; Supreme Decree No. 011–92–TR.	Company, sector or union	20	1998: 860 397 1999: 860 304 2000: 852 113 2001: 860 397
Uruguay	Right to organize emanates from ratified ILO conventions.	Free access to collective bargaining at all levels	No legal requirements for forming unions	

Source: ECLAC, based on official information supplied by the countries in response to the ECLAC survey conducted in September–October 2002.

In summary, changes during the period 1998–2002 have been less extensive than those recorded in the rest of the 1990s. Serious problems with enforcement of existing labour standards persist, as was pointed out by the Director–General of the ILO in his report: "The failure to implement fundamental rights is especially widespread in the [Latin American] region... complaints relating to freedom of association and collective bargaining account for 52% of the world total. The minimum age requirement is violated frequently, especially in the most hazardous forms of work, and there are increasing numbers of complaints about failure to apply equal treatment" (ILO, 2002). Weak labour organization and low levels of union membership among workers, coupled with rising unemployment, are hindering the improvement of labour conditions.

3. Innovative initiatives

The modifications made in the regulatory framework include a number of interesting initiatives, some of which are aimed at providing increased protection for workers and bringing national laws into line with international standards, while others are innovative approaches to unemployment compensation. Efforts are currently under way to evaluate the impact of some of these initiatives.

a) Shortened workday

One of the new proposals is to shorten the workday. Chile plans to adopt a shorter workday around 2005, with the aim of improving working conditions for workers and, especially, enhancing their skill levels, thereby also boosting their productivity (see box V.2).

Box V.2

PRODUCTIVITY AND SHORTENING OF THE WORKDAY IN CHILE

Currently, Chile has one of the longest workdays of any country in the world, but there is little correlation between number of hours worked and relative productivity. Moreover, continual lengthening of the workday, especially in the services sector, has had a negative effect on the physical and mental health of workers, their family lives and their possibilities for pursuing other activities, such as study, recreation and leisure.

The effect of shortening the workday will be felt mainly by workers who work 45–49 hours or more than 48 hours a week, who make up 42% and 27%, respectively, of the total workforce (according to the Encuesta Nacional de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional (CASEN) [National Socioeconomic Characterization Survey], 1998). An employment survey conducted by the National Statistics Institute (INE) puts the proportion at 13% for the three–month period between March and May 2001.

If this initiative is to be successful, additional effort will be needed to raise productivity. In the last decade, productivity grew at high rates (9.3% in 1995, its highest level, and 6.4% in 2000). The increases are attributable to various factors (decline in employment during periods of crisis, higher labour productivity and intensity in periods of economic growth or increased capital investment). To raise productivity, companies will have to improve workers' skill levels in order to enhance their performance, so that, despite the shortened workday, output will be the same or greater. For companies that are currently utilizing their full installed capacity, it will be necessary to increase the number of workdays or shifts, which will require adequate planning.

During the last decade, the behaviour of wages has not tended to hinder employment generation, and the increase in wages therefore been compatible with productivity. The relationship between remuneration and productivity needs to remain stable, however, in order not to thwart the workday reduction initiative.

Source: Ministerio del Trabajo y Previsión Social, *El trabajo y la protección social en Chile 2000–2003*, Santiago, Chile, Editorial Atenas, 2003.

b) Unemployment compensation

Governments have implemented various sorts of policies in an effort to mitigate the effects of changes in forms of employment and the increase in job instability. Recently introduced passive policy measures include unemployment insurance, early retirement schemes and individual unemployment compensation funds.

Only six Latin American countries have unemployment insurance: Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Ecuador, Uruguay and Venezuela. These insurance systems are not new. In Uruguay, the earliest legislation on unemployment compensation dates from 1934; in Ecuador, from 1951 (Diez de Medina y Bucheli, 2002); and in Chile, from 1937 (ILO, 2001). However, the new wave of unemployment insurance modalities differs in several important ways (see table V.7).

In all the countries, unemployment insurance is of the contributory type, with mixed financing, contributed by workers, employers and the State, although the percentage of wages paid in by workers varies (1% in Argentina, 0.6% in Chile, 0.5% in Venezuela), as do employer contributions (1.5% of the worker's wage in Argentina, 1.6% in Chile and 2% in Venezuela).

In general, unemployment compensation is available only to workers in the formal sector of the economy. In Brazil, all workers with contracts (*carteira*) are covered by unemployment insurance; in Chile, coverage is mandatory for workers who sign a contract, excluding domestic employees, for whom the requirements are different. In Argentina and Venezuela, self–employed and domestic workers are excluded from coverage, and in Uruguay, as well as those two groups, public sector employees are not covered.

The eligibility criteria for payment of unemployment compensation also differ. In Argentina, the worker must be unemployed for causes beyond his/her control; in Brazil, Chile, Uruguay and Venezuela workers must have paid into the unemployment fund for a minimum period before they can receive benefits, the time varying from 6 months in Brazil and Uruguay to 12 months in Chile and Venezuela. In Ecuador, the eligibility criterion is age. The duration of benefits ranges from 5 months to a maximum of 12 months. In Ecuador, unemployed workers receive a single lump sum payment.

It is difficult to evaluate these unemployment insurance schemes, owing to the diversity of situations and formats. However, it can be said that because of their contributory nature, their coverage is limited mainly to formal–sector workers –i.e., workers who have contracts and who have been employed for a certain amount of time. These systems are generally not linked to training programmes or national employment services. In addition, certain inconsistencies have been found between the objectives of some of insurance schemes and other mechanisms designed to protect the incomes of unemployed persons; in several countries, for example, severance pay provides better financial compensation than unemployment insurance (ILO, 2001).

The new unemployment insurance system in Chile is remarkable in several ways. One is that it is a tripartite system, financed by employer and employee contributions to the employee's individual account and state and employer contributions to a collective fund. Benefits are paid out in the event of dismissal, resignation, retirement or death of the worker. The funds are administered by a sole entity, which makes payments and collects contributions. The fund administrator is selected by means of public competitive bidding. The entity selected receives a contract for a period of 5 to 10 years, during which time its work is supervised by the Superintendent of Pension Fund Administrators. A significant proportion of the country's workers are now covered by this insurance.[4] However, the system needs to have been in operation for a longer time before its results can be evaluated.

4 According to the fund administrator, Administradora de Fondos de Cesantía (AFC), during its first six months of operation the fund received a massive influx of new members, with around a million workers joining between October 2002 and April 2003. That number is roughly one third the total number of workers who are eligible for coverage (AFC, 2003).

Table V.7

LATIN AMERICA (6 COUNTRIES): FEATURES OF UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE SYSTEMS, 2002

Country	Year applicable legislation instituted	Subsequent reforms	Financing	Coverage	Eligibility criteria	Duration of benefits	Administration	Purposes
Argentina	1967 (for construction workers only) 1992	1995	Collective fund financed by contributions from workers (1% of wage) and employers (1.5% of payroll)	Workers legally employed on permanent or temporary contracts; self–employed and domestic service workers excluded	Worker must be unemployed for causes beyond his/her control	Amount of benefits declines over time, maximum duration: 12 months	National Social Security Administration	The fund is linked to training and employment services
Brazil	1986	1990 1994	Workers' Protection Fund [Fundo de Amparo ou Trabalhador (FAT)]	All workers with formal contracts	Dismissal without just cause; worker must have been earning wages for the last 6 of the previous 36 months	Maximum duration: 5 months	Ministry of Labour and Employment, tripartite directorate	The Fund finances other programmes
Chile	2001	Implemented in 2002	Individual accounts with contributions from the worker (0.6% of wages) and the employer (1.6% of the worker's remuneration), plus a collective fund (solidarity fund) that supplements the monetary bene-fits of the lowest–income workers	Coverage mandatory for workers who sign an employment contract as provided in the labour code Includes special conditions for contributions by workers who do piecework or taskwork	Worker must have made 12 or more contributions to their individual accounts, whether continuously or discontinuously	Maximum duration: 5 months Amount of benefits decreases over time	Ministry of Labour and Social Assistance	Provides retirement benefits for workers, who are entitled to withdraw the entire amount accumulated in their accounts at retirement; this is in addition to the funds accumulated in their pension accounts
Ecuador	1951 2001 (New Social Security Law)	1958 1988 2001	Mixed system, in effect since 2001; financed through a reserve fund collected by the Ecuadorian Social Security Institute (IESS), contributed by workers affiliated with the new mandatory unemployment insurance system	Mandatory general insurance provides differential protection for workers, based on their age in 2001; contributions are transferred to individual accounts in the worker's name, which function as mandatory involuntary savings accounts, administered by pension investment agencies (Agencias Colocadoras de Ahorro Previsional (ACAP)), selected by the insured	Covers persons under 40 years of age in 2001, persons aged 40 to 49 years who choose the mixed system, and IESS members as of 2001 who have lost their jobs for reasons beyond their control	Single lump sum payment to the unemployed person	ACAPs	

Table V.7 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (6 COUNTRIES): FEATURES OF UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE SYSTEMS, 2002

Country	Year applicable legislation instituted	Subsequent reforms	Financing	Coverage	Eligibility criteria	Duration of benefits	Administration	Purposes
Uruguay	1934	1981	Contributions from employers and workers. The State contributes general revenue resources to cover fund deficits	Covers private–sector wage–earners who have contributed to the Retirement and Pension Fund for Industry and Commerce Workers (Caja de Jubilaciones y Pensiones de la Industria y Comercio); excludes self–employed workers and public–sector employees	Worker must have worked for 6 of the previous 12 months; covers those who have suffered a 25% reduction in their working hours; excludes workers dismissed for causes attributable to themselves	Maximum duration of 6 months, after which 12 months must pass before a worker is again entitled to benefits	Retirement and Pension Fund for Industry and Commerce Workers	Used for various purposes (retirement/ old–age pensions, family allowances, etc.)
Venezuela	1989 (not implemented immediately)	1999	Unemployment Fund financed by contributions from workers (0.5%), employers (2%) and the government. This Fund is part of the Unemployment and Labour Training System	Public– and private–sector workers with fixed contracts; excludes domestic workers	Workers must have been contributing to the Fund for 12 of the previous 18 months	Maximum duration: 5 months of payments equivalent to 60% of the average of worker's last 12 pay–cheques	–	In addition to monetary benefits, unemployed workers are entitled to training and job placement services

Source: Rafael Diez de Medina and Marisa Bucheli, *Seguro de desempleo: análisis comparativo regional e internacional de sus opciones de diseño* (LC/MVD/R.198), Montevideo, ECLAC Office in Montevideo, September 2002.

B. National authorities' views on employment problems

The authorities surveyed expressed three main concerns with regard to employment, namely, unemployment, job quality and the need to improve skill levels in order to raise labour productivity. Other concerns related to the investment and technological challenges involved in adapting to increasingly competitive and interdependent market economies.

National authorities have a clear grasp of the employment problems confronting their respective countries. In Chile, Colombia and Uruguay, unemployment is identified as the foremost problem, and it is also viewed as a serious problem in Mexico. Authorities in Colombia, Ecuador and Honduras regard underemployment as the second most important problem, while those in Brazil, Colombia, Cuba and Ecuador express concern about job quality, growth in informal employment, employment instability and job insecurity (see table V.8).

In some countries, authorities consider the most serious problems to be gaps in worker training and education, labour skills not suited to meet the demands of the productive sectors, and low worker skill levels (Chile, Dominican Republic, El Salvador and Peru). Authorities in other countries list a variety of concerns, ranging from economic crisis, the impact of technological change and problems relating to demand for products to the decline in private investment, inadequacy of incomes and other difficulties associated with international trade and the growing interdependence of the world's economies.

These employment problems are attributed to a variety of causes, including the effects of recent economic crises and severe recession in many Latin American economies. Globalization, financial instability and declining investment flows are among the external causes cited. In some cases, the authorities point to weaker prices for commodities, such as coffee in Guatemala and bananas in Panama. The main causes identified by the Cuban authorities were the economic embargo that the country is experiencing and the demise of the socialist economies that were formerly Cuba's main trading partners.

The authorities also mention a wide array of internal problems, including lack of economic dynamism (Ecuador, Colombia, Uruguay); closing of businesses, with the resulting unemployment (Bolivia and Venezuela); changes in employment patterns, owing to an increase in subcontracting (Ecuador); lower productivity and competitiveness of labour–intensive economic sectors (Uruguay); rising cost of labour, which is a disincentive to investment (Panama); lack of active employment policies (El Salvador); insufficient and inadequate training of the labour force (Dominican Republic,

Guatemala); low worker skill levels (Brazil, Dominican Republic, Peru); lack of coordination among training institutions, productive sectors and workers (El Salvador); non–existence of a labour culture (Mexico); and, in the specific case of Colombia, violence.

Hence, there appears to be general consensus that some employment problems in the countries of the region are linked to external factors, in particular the changes induced by globalization and its negative repercussions on very interdependent economies.

Table V.8

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): PRINCIPAL EMPLOYMENT PROBLEMS IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE

Country	Employment problems		
	First in importance	Second in importance	Third in importance
Bolivia	Economic crisis		
Brazil	Modernization and technological innovation	Worker skills and training	Growth of informal employment in the labour market
Colombia	16% unemployment	35.5% underemployment	59.9% informal employment
Chile	High unemployment	Low worker skill level	
Cuba	Lack of financing in freely convertible currency (FCC) and difficulties in accessing the international market	Profound restructuring of the economy in the last 10 years	Unemployment levels higher than the national average in the eastern provinces
Dominican Republic	Training/education	Population living in disadvantaged conditions	Loss of confidence in the tourism sector and free trade zone
Ecuador	Labour instability	Underemployment	Job insecurity
El Salvador	Worker skills inadequate to meet the high demands of the productive sectors	Concentration of sources of employment in certain economic sectors and constraints on development of the agricultural sector	Insufficient integration of occupational training systems with employment
Guatemala	Demand for export products	Limited budgets for execution of programmes	Growth in maquila industries
Honduras	Decrease in private investment	Little employment generation	Lack of competitiveness of private enterprise
Mexico	Inadequate incomes	Underinvestment	Unemployment among vulnerable groups
Panama	Reduction in exports of goods	Little national or international investment	Termination of public and private mega–projects
Peru	Progressive deterioration of job quality	Scarce employment opportunities	Jobs characterized by low productivity and efficiency
Uruguay	High unemployment	Job quality	

Source: ECLAC, based on official information supplied by the countries in response to the ECLAC survey conducted in September–October 2002.

C. Labour market policies

Several countries in the region have implemented labour policies designed to address the extreme poverty and unemployment affecting some sectors of the population (passive policies). At the same time, they have adopted other policies geared towards creating productive jobs (active policies). The latter contain innovative elements both in their design and in the mechanisms established for their application. Most of the programmes examined here are currently in the process of being implemented, and it would therefore be difficult to assess their impact at this stage.

This section briefly examines some of the labour market policies being implemented in the countries of the region. As is explained in the box below, two main types of policies can be distinguished: employment and labour policies –discussed in the preceding section– and policies relating to the labour market.

In Latin America, the bulk of funding for employment programmes is used to implement active policies, whose content, institutional framework and mechanisms for evaluation are currently being reworked in various innovative ways. One of the central aspects of this process is the need for greater integration and coordination between passive policies, especially in the area of unemployment insurance, and active policies on job placement and labour force training.

Under the active policies currently being applied, many countries are focusing on promoting job creation by providing assistance, subsidies and loans to small and medium–sized enterprises (SMEs) (Brazil, Colombia, Chile, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Panama, Peru, Uruguay and Venezuela) (see tables V.9 and V.10). This is part of a general trend towards facilitating access to credit for entrepreneurs, low–income segments of the population and emerging or expanding sectors.

Resources have also been set aside for training programmes and employment and job placement services (Brazil, Colombia, Chile, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Panama, Peru, and Uruguay). These kinds of programmes tend to leave out domestic workers and some at–risk sectors, however, and they are often directed primarily at men.

Although most of the programmes are national in scope, with both urban and rural coverage, and their target populations include young people and women, few countries target the latter groups specifically. Chile, Cuba, Peru and Honduras have implemented programmes designed specially to promote women's integration into the labour

Box V.3

DISTINCTION BETWEEN EMPLOYMENT, LABOUR AND LABOUR MARKET POLICIES

Employment policies

Employment policies comprise a wide range of very different measures and instruments which are applied in the economic, social and institutional realms and which affect the level and the quality of employment. They are designed to influence demand for labour, which in turn is influenced by macroeconomic factors, including factors of a fiscal and monetary nature, prices, incomes and technological development, as well as regional development policies and programmes and the current regulatory framework in the labour market. On the supply side, these policies have medium–and long–term impacts on demographic trends and social behaviours, an area in which measures relating, inter alia, to education, health and social protection are important. Employment policies are broad and multidisciplinary in scope, and responsibility for their formulation therefore cannot be entrusted exclusively to ministries of labour or employment services, but, rather, requires extensive coordination between different spheres of government, coupled with a good dose of social consensus–building.

Labour policies

Labour policies affect relations between workers and employers and influence the framework and conditions in which work is carried out. They include provisions relating to minimum wages, benefits, social security, safety and health in the workplace, job security, non–discrimination, restrictions on child labour, right to strike and the whole set of regulatory and institutional matters that come into play in this area.

Labour market policies

Labour market policies have two purposes: to alleviate the situation of poverty associated with unemployment (passive policies) and to mitigate tensions in the labour market utilizing various means (active policies), such as: (i) increasing demand for labour, (ii) improving the quality of the labour supply, and (iii) helping workers get jobs. Labour policies can also be classified according to their beneficiaries (young people, women, displaced workers and other groups), types of intervention (training, employment and job placement services, subsidies for employment generation and others) or the objective pursued (mitigating the effects of economic cycles, reducing structural imbalances, improving labour market functioning and others).

Source: Norma Samaniego, *Las políticas de mercado de trabajo y su evaluación en América Latina*, Macroeconomía del desarrollo series No. 19 (LC/L.1836–P), Santiago, Chile, December 2002. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.02.II.G.142; Stefano Farné, "La administración de Pastrana", *Políticas de mercado de trabajo en un país en crisis. El caso de Colombia*, part I, Observatorio del Mercado de Trabajo y la Seguridad Social, Bogotá, D.C., Universidad Externado de Colombia, 2002.

market. Specific programmes also exist for vulnerable populations in rural areas of Brazil (Employment and Income Generation Programme–PROGER Rural); Colombia (Agricultural Supply Programme (PROAGRO) and creation of temporary jobs in areas where illicit crops are grown); Chile (training for temporary agricultural workers); Honduras (infrastructure and basic services for rural areas); and Panama ("Proyecto Cabra," which is assisting 13 extremely poor urban and rural communities).

Other support initiatives that reflect a special concern for at–risk minority populations who are often denied employment opportunities include programmes targeting the disabled (Chile and El Salvador), pregnant women (Honduras) and informal–sector workers (Brazil).

Efforts have been made to adapt labour supply to the demand for work and the high unemployment rates among young people with high educational levels, but only Brazil, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Honduras, Panama and Peru have implemented strategies aimed specifically at facilitating entry into the labour market for recent university graduates.

Relatively little headway has been made in modernizing national employment services in the region. Only Venezuela has undertaken concrete reforms in this area, although Brazil, Chile and Honduras have introduced computerized systems and technological applications into the activities of their employment services, which has helped to automate and gradually minimize the bureaucratic aspects of their functions.

The aforementioned deficiencies may hinder articulation between the national and local levels of programmes, which in turn may reduce their capacity to meet beneficiaries' expectations. Only in El Salvador do the authorities report that these activities have helped strengthen the productive base at the municipal level.

Evaluation and monitoring mechanisms are needed to measure the differential impacts of these programmes on the various population groups and to provide a long–term perspective that will make it possible to track the status of workers and determine the length of time they remain in the jobs in which they have been placed. This will help to minimize side effects such as deadweight, displacement and substitution.

Among the considerations raised by the authorities surveyed in relation to these programmes is the fact that many are still in the early stages or have only recently been implemented (Cuba, Dominican Republic, Venezuela); in some cases, the limited time devoted to design and planning meant that the programme was implemented rather hastily (Peru). It is also suggested that some of these programmes need improvements in terms of administrative aspects, such as supervision, decentralization, organization and management models for marketing (Peru), and improvement of the flow of resources (Panama). Some authorities also highlight the lack of specific policies aimed at the population at risk of unemployment, at older and disabled persons and at long–term unemployed persons. The use of exclusively financial criteria in the evaluation of funding recipients and in the transfer of resources was mentioned as well (Brazil).

To summarize, although the existence of these programmes demonstrates growing interest in addressing the acute problems of unemployment, poor job quality and underemployment, in their current state the programmes tend to overlook certain sectors (e.g., young people and women). In addition, their target groups are not clearly defined, they take little advantage of new information technologies and there is a lack of coordination between economic and social policies and the various institutions that administer active and passive programmes (Samaniego, 2002). Lastly, except in some isolated cases, there are few programmes whose performance and objectives are being adequately evaluated.

Table V.9

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): CLASSIFICATION OF LABOUR MARKET POLICIES, 2002

Countries	Passive policies		Active policies								
			Job creation			Public employment services			Employment training for:		
	Temporary jobs	Unemployment insurance	Subsidies for regular employment in the private sector	Direct job creation in the public sector	Assistance, subsidies and loans to SMEs	Vocational training and worker relocation	Employment and job placement services	Unemployed and population at risk of unemployment	Women	Economically active adults	Young people
Bolivia				X							
Brazil		X			X	X	X	X			
Colombia	X				X	X	X		X		X
Chile	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Cuba				X		X			X	X	X
El Salvador					X	X	X			X	X
Guatemala	X		X		X		X		X		
Honduras	X				X		X			X	X
Mexico	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Panama					X		X	X	X	X	X
Peru	X				X		X	X	X	X	X
Dominican Republic							X		X		
Uruguay		X			X		X			X	X
Venezuela		X		X					X		X

Source: ECLAC, based on official information supplied by the countries in response to the ECLAC survey conducted in September–October 2002.

Table V.10

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (15 COUNTRIES): TYPES AND CHARACTERISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT PROGRAMMES, 2002

Type	Objectives	Target population	Coordinating institution	Positive outcomes	Drawbacks	Financing	Countries
I. Temporary emergency programmes	To generate temporary employment in infrastructure works and community services	Extremely poor unemployed population	Ministries of labour and employment, provincial and municipal governments, banks	Generation of employment for the poorest segment of the unemployed population	Temporary nature of the employment, poor–quality jobs, lack of methods for evaluation and generation of official data	National budgets, reimbursable and non– reimbursable international funding	Bolivia Brazil Colombia Chile Cuba a/ El Salvador Guatemala Honduras Mexico Peru Venezuela
II. Incentives to private enterprise	To encourage recruitment and worker skill development by the private sector	Young and middle–aged individuals who are suitable candidates for training	Ministries of labour, international cooperation organizations, non–governmental organizations (NGOs)	Involvement of private enterprise, inter–institutional cooperation agreements	Volume of employment generated, need to simplify procedures and reduce cost–time	National budgets, banks, development aid	Brazil Colombia Chile El Salvador Guatemala Mexico Panama
III. Training and on–the–job practice	To provide training and promote employment through apprenticeship contracts	Young, urban and rural populations who are neither studying nor employed	Ministries of labour and planning, employment services, youth institutes, ministries of education, international cooperation organizations	Training that develops the potential of young people	Training not relevant for market needs, lack of mechanisms for facilitating entry into the labour market	National budgets, non– reimbursable international funding, banks, foundations, combination of private enterprise and cooperatives	Brazil Colombia Chile Cuba Dominican Republic El Salvador Guatemala Honduras Mexico Uruguay Venezuela
IV. Occupational training and retraining	To increase workers' probability of obtaining productive employment	Population displaced by industrial restructuring or decrease in public employment	Ministries of labour, employment services	Training and retraining, implementation of electronic job listing services	Training not relevant for market needs, high cost	National budgets, reimbursable and non– reimbursable loans	Brazil Colombia El Salvador Mexico
V. Subsidies and small credits to microenterprises	To improve access to credit and enhance managerial and administrative capabilities	Small and micro–entrepreneurs (men and women)	Ministries of labour, national employment services	Enhancement of managerial capabilities	Difficult to sustain without credit support	Reimbursable loans from national and international banks	Brazil Colombia Chile Dominican Republic Honduras Mexico Panama Uruguay
VI. Employment counselling and job placement for young people	To facilitate young people's entry into the labour market, to improve young people's employability	Primarily young people entering the labour market for the first time	Ministries of labour	New youth employment strategies, enhancement of young people's skills, job placement for recent graduates	Requirements need to be more flexible to allow participation by young people with few skills, lack of resources for supervision mechanisms	National budgets, combination financing (interinstitutional partnerships)	Brazil Colombia Dominican Republic El Salvador Guatemala Honduras Mexico Panama Uruguay

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of official information furnished by countries in response to the ECLAC survey conducted in September–October 2002.
a/ In Cuba, these programmes are intended to generate permanent jobs.

D. International social agenda

1. World Summit on Sustainable Development

As agreed during the Fiftieth–fifth Session of the General Assembly of the United Nations, the Rio+10 Summit –officially called the World Summit on Sustainable Development– was held from 26 August to 4 September 2002 in Johannesburg, South Africa. The United Nations General Assembly had called for a ten–year review of progress achieved in the implementation of the agreements signed at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (Rio de Janeiro, June 1992) in order to reinvigorate, at the highest political level, the global commitment to sustainable development. To that end, it emphasized that the Summit should assure a balance between economic development, social development and environmental protection as interdependent and mutually reinforcing components of sustainable development. The General Assembly also stressed that the review should focus on action in the areas in which greater effort was needed for the implementation of Agenda 21.

Pursuant to that mandate, the Department of Economic and Social Affairs at United Nations Headquarters, together with the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), and with the cooperation of other agencies and organizations in the United Nations system, launched a regional process of preparation for the Summit which began with an assessment of the progress achieved in implementing Agenda 21 and the Rio Declaration on Environment and Development at the national and subregional levels. This process culminated in the Regional Preparatory Conference of Latin America and the Caribbean for the World Summit on Sustainable Development, held on 23 and 24 October 2001 in Rio de Janeiro.

As part of the preparatory process, ECLAC and UNEP produced a document entitled *Sustainability of development in Latin America and the Caribbean: challenges and opportunities* (ECLAC, 2002d), which analysed the region's progress towards sustainable development and examined the challenges and opportunities for future action. The document was presented at the Regional Preparatory Conference and served as the basis for discussions by the representatives of governments and other sectors participating in the meeting.

In the framework of the Regional Conference, ECLAC and UNDP organized a panel of eminent economic authorities from the region, who explored the issue of financing for sustainable development, based on a document prepared specially for the occasion (ECLAC, 2001). The panel generated an interesting debate in which economic and environmental authorities exchanged views on the possibilities for greater coordination and complementarity between the policies of their respective sectors.

The most important agreement to come out of the preparatory stage at the regional level was the Rio de Janeiro Platform for Action on the Road to Johannesburg, 2002 (ECLAC, 2001) which engendered a high degree of political consensus.

The regional preparatory process also afforded opportunities for input from civil society through the participation of civil society representatives in national sustainable development councils and their presence at both the subregional meetings and the Regional Conference. At those events, the principal nongovernmental organizations were able to present their views, which were incorporated into the agreement reached by the governments at the Regional Conference.

Between the Regional Conference and the Johannesburg Summit, various activities were carried out. In May 2002, the region was involved in developing and discussing the Latin American and Caribbean Initiative for Sustainable Development, which embodied the spirit and policy content of the Rio de Janeiro Platform for Action. The Initiative was approved at the Johannesburg Summit and mentioned specifically in its plan of implementation (United Nations, 2002a).

By broadening the understanding of the concept of sustainable development and highlighting the linkages between poverty, environment and use of natural resources, the Johannesburg Summit helped to affirm the importance of sustainable development as a central element on the international agenda.

The concept of partnerships between governments, markets and civil society was strongly emphasized in the discussions during the Summit and in its plan of action. Before the Conference, 220 partnerships were identified (with resources totalling upwards of US$ 235 million), and some 60 more, involving a great diversity of countries, were announced during the meeting (United Nations, 2002b).

The Governments accepted and reaffirmed concrete commitments with a view to making effective progress towards the objectives of sustainable development (see box V.4). In that sense, the Johannesburg Summit went beyond prior processes, setting specific goals and expected outcomes with regard to sustainable development. The Johannesburg goals reaffirm those set out in the United Nations Millennium Declaration and constitute a solid step towards the creation of a social and human development fund aimed at eradicating poverty in developing countries.

Box V.4

WORLD SUMMIT ON SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT (RIO + 10)

Place and date: Johannesburg, South Africa, 26 August–4 September 2002
Participants: Representatives of 188 governments of Member States of the United Nations, intergovernmental organizations and agencies of the United Nations system
Organizer: United Nations system

Preparatory activities in Latin America and the Caribbean:

- Subregional preparatory meetings for the World Summit on Sustainable Development: Southern Cone and Brazil (Santiago, Chile, 14 and 15 June 2001); Caribbean (Havana, Cuba, 28 and 29 June 2001); Andean Area (Quito, Ecuador, 2 and 3 July 2001), and Meso–America (Central America and Mexico) (San Salvador, El Salvador, 16 and 17 July 2001)
- Regional Roundtable of Eminent Persons (Bridgetown, Barbados, 18–20 June 2001)
- Regional Preparatory Conference of Latin America and the Caribbean for the World Summit on Sustainable Development (Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, 23 and 24 October 2001)

Declaration of the World Summit on Sustainable Development

Agreements on social issues

The governments:

- Reaffirm their pledge to give priority attention to, the fight against the worldwide conditions that pose severe threats to sustainable development, including chronic hunger; malnutrition; foreign occupation; armed conflict; illicit drug problems; organized crime; corruption; natural disasters; illicit arms trafficking; trafficking in persons; terrorism; intolerance and incitement to racial, ethnic, religious and other hatreds; xenophobia; and endemic, communicable and chronic diseases, in particular HIV/AIDS, malaria and tuberculosis.

Box V.4 (concluded)

WORLD SUMMIT ON SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT (RIO + 10)

- Commit themselves to ensuring that women's empowerment, emancipation and gender equality are integrated in all the activities encompassed within Agenda 21, the Millennium Development Goals and the Plan of Implementation of the Summit.
- Recognize that global society has the means and is endowed with the resources to address the challenges of poverty eradication and sustainable development confronting all humanity.
- To contribute to the achievement of development goals and targets, urge developed countries that have not done so to make concrete efforts to reach the internationally agreed levels of official development assistance.
- Reaffirm the vital role of indigenous peoples in sustainable development.
- Recognize that sustainable development requires a long–term perspective and broad–based participation in policy formulation, decision–making and implementation at all levels. As social partners, the governments agree to continue working for stable partnerships with all major groups, respecting the independent, important roles of each of them.
- Agree that in pursuit of its legitimate activities the private sector, including both large and small companies, has a duty to contribute to the evolution of equitable and sustainable communities and societies.
- Also agree to provide assistance to increase income–generating employment opportunities, taking into account the Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work of the International Labour Organization.
- Agree that there is a need for private sector corporations to enforce corporate accountability, which should take place within a transparent and stable regulatory environment.
- Undertake to strengthen and improve governance at all levels for the effective implementation of Agenda 21, the Millennium Development Goals and the Plan of Implementation of the Summit.

Plan of Implementation of the World Summit on Sustainable Development

Principal measures in relation to social issues

The Plan seeks to:

- Halve, by the year 2015, the proportion of the world's people whose income is less than 1 dollar a day (Millennium Development Goal).
- By 2020, achieve a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum–dwellers, as proposed in the "Cities without Slums" initiative (Millennium Development Goal).
- Establish a world solidarity fund to eradicate poverty and to promote social and human development in the developing countries.
- Halve, by the year 2015, the proportion of people who do not have access to safe drinking water —currently 20% (Millennium Development Goal).
- Halve, by the year 2015, the proportion of people who do not have access to health and basic sanitation services.
- Promote the development of a 10–year framework of programmes for the development of sustainable consumption and production patterns.
- Support protection and management of the natural resource base of economic and social development.
- Promote sustainable development in a globalizing world.

The Plan also addresses the means of implementation and the institutional framework for sustainable development.

Annex 1

ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (ECLAC)

SURVEY ON THE LABOUR SITUATION

Identification Institution: _____ Country: _____
Name of person completing questionnaire: _____ Position: _____

Please be brief

1. What were the main changes in labour legislation over the past five years (1998 – 2002). Feel free to include additional information where necessary.

Law number	Year	Content

2. What is the minimum working age?

10____ 12____ 14____ 15____ 16____ 18____

3. Under what conditions are those under the age of 18 allowed to work? No restrictions_____

a. With authorization of parents/legal representatives_____
b. Provided they have full school attendance_____
c. Undemanding and safe jobs_____
d. Part time_____
e. Other_____

4. What is the minimum wage?

Type	In force since	Currency	Amount	Comments
Minimum wage				
Other minimum wages:				
– By age				
– By function				
– By occupation				
– By location				

5. What regulations govern employees' right to strike?

_____

_____

6. Are there sectors whose workers do not have the right to strike? No____ Yes____ Which ones?_____

_____

_____

7. What regulations govern the right to unionization?

_____

_____

8. What is the minimum number of workers necessary to constitute a union? _____

9. At what level does collective bargaining take place?

a. Enterprise _____ b. Sector _____ c. Territorial _____

10. What is the overall rate of unionization (by sector and gender)?

Year	Overall rate of unionization	Sector		Gender	
		Public	Private	Males	Females
1998					
1999					
2000					
2001					
2002					

11. What percentage of the work force is covered by collective bargaining?

Percentage of total work force _____ %

12. Are work contracts compulsory? Yes _____ No _____

13. Is there unemployment insurance and, if so, what are the conditions? Yes _____ No _____
Conditions

_____

_____

14. Is there accident insurance and, if so, what are the conditions? Yes _____ No _____
Conditions

_____

_____

15. What percentage of employees are in the following situations?

Employees	Year	Percentage of total employees
No contract		
Fixed–term full–time contract		
Temporary full–time contract		
Part–time contract		

16. Are employees entitled to compensation for dismissal? Yes _____ No _____
Under what circumstances?

_____

_____

Annex 1 (concluded)

17. What are the grounds for dismissal without compensation?

_____

_____

_____

18. To which body can dismissals and labour disputes be appealed or referred?
(e.g. courts, industrial tribunals, etc.)

_____

_____

_____

19. What aspects of labour supervision and justice need to be improved?
Streamlining procedures_____ Increasing the number of inspectors_____
Other

_____

_____

_____

Send replies to: Irma Arriagada, CEPAL, Casilla 179–D, Santiago, CHILE
FAX: 56 2 2102523 – 56 2 2081946
Or preferably by e–mail: iarriagada@cepal.cl

Annex 2

ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (ECLAC)

SURVEY ON NATIONAL JOB CREATION AND WORK INCENTIVE PROGRAMMES

Identification Institution: _____ Country: _____
Name of person completing questionnaire: _____ Position: _____

Please be brief

1. What are the country's three main employment problems? What are the causes?

	Main problems	Causes
1		
2		
3		

2. Does the country have programmes to combat employment problems? Yes_____ No_____

3. Give details of the type of programmes and their cover, resources and first year of implementation?

Type of programme	Cover (urban, rural, regional)	Amount of resources		Year of launch
		Annual	Total	
Creation of temporary employment				
Private enterprise incentives				
Work experience and training				
Training and relocation				
Training and credit				
Assistance for job seekers				
Other				

4. What is the target population of the programme(s): men/women, adults/young people, urban/rural?

Name of programme	Target population					
	Men	Women	Adults	Young people	Urban	Rural

5. Which institutions are responsible for coordinating the programmes that have been implemented?

_____

_____

Annex 2 (concluded)

6. Where do the programmes' resources come from?

Name of programme	Origin of resources						
	National budget	Banks	Repayable international funding	Non–repayable international unding	Non–governmental organizations	Foundations	Combination

7. What are the mechanisms for devising, monitoring and assessing programmes?

Name of programme	Mechanisms		
	Devising	Monitoring	Assessing

8. Which aspects of the programmes have been successful and which need to be changed?

Name of programme	Successes	Change needed

9. Please detail the number of jobs generated and/or number of people who benefited

Name of programme	Jobs generated	Total people benefited

Send replies to: Irma Arriagada, CEPAL, Casilla 179–D, Santiago, CHILE
FAX: 56 2 2102523 – 56 2 2081946
Or preferably by e–mail: iarriagada@cepal.cl

Table 1

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (19 COUNTRIES): INDIVIDUALS AND INSTITUTIONS THAT REPLIED TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE ON THE LABOUR SITUATION

Country	Institution	Position	Name
Argentina	No reply		
Bolivia	Ministry of Labour and Small Enterprises	Director General for Labour	Jorge A. Orihuela
Brazil	Ministry of Labour and Employment	Chief of International Affairs Minister's cabinet	María Helena Gomes dos Santos
Colombia	Ministry of Labour and Social Security	Director General for Labour	Nel Hernando Mejía B.
Costa Rica	Ministry of Labour and Social Security	Chief of International Labour Affairs Director of Legal Affairs	Grace Gamboa Acuña Germán Cascante Castillo
Cuba	Ministry of Labour and Social Security	Minister	Alfredo Morales Cartaya
Chile	Ministry of Labour Directorate of Labour	Researcher	Diego López
Ecuador	Ministry of Labour and Human Resources	Chief of International Affairs	Walter Tapia
El Salvador	Ministry of Labour and Social Security	Minister of Labour and Social Security	Jorge Isidoro Nieto Menéndez
Guatemala	Ministry of Labour and Social Security	Director General for Labour	José Girón Canon
Honduras	Secretariat of Labour and Social Security	Director General for Labour	Ivonne Zelaya Moreno
Mexico	Secretariat of Labour and Social Provision	Director of Legal Affairs	Concepción Gálvez Coeto
Nicaragua	No reply		
Panama	Ministry of Labour and labour development	Consultant for International Affairs	Carlos de Icaza Ruiz
Paraguay	No reply		
Peru	Ministry of Labour and Social Mobility	Minister of Labour and Social Mobility	Fernando Villarán de la Puente
Dominican Republic	Ministry of Labour	Director General for Employment	Aída Avila Jiménez
Uruguay	Ministry of Labour and Social Security	Assistant in the General Department	Mario Arizti Brusa
Venezuela	No reply		

Table 2

LATIN AMERICA (19 COUNTRIES): INDIVIDUALS AND INSTITUTIONS THAT REPLIED TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE ON EMPLOYMENT SCHEMES

Country	Institution	Position	Name
Argentina	No reply		
Bolivia	Ministry of Labour and Small Enterprises	Director General for Labour	Jorge A. Orihuela
Brazil	Ministry of Labour and Employment	Chief of International Affairs Minister's Cabinet	María Helena Gomes dos Santos
Colombia	Ministry of Labour and Social Security	Director General for Employment	Gladys Fernández Giraldo
Costa Rica	No reply		
Cuba	Ministry of Labour and Social Security	Minister	Alfredo Morales Cartaya
Chile	Subsecretariat of Labour	Head of cabinet, Subsecretariat of Labour	Felipe Sáez Carlier
Ecuador	Ministry of Labour and Human Resources	Chief of International Affairs	Walter Tapia
El Salvador	Ministry of Labour and Social Security	Minister of Labour and Social Security	Jorge Isidoro Nieto Menéndez
Guatemala	Ministry of Labour and Social Security	Director of Planning and Modernization	Bertha Leonor Falla Alonzo
Honduras	Secretariat of Labour and Social Security	Director General for Employment	Ismael Mendoza Ayala
Mexico	Secretariat of Labour and Social Provision	Employment Link Director	Hernán Aldrete Valencia
Nicaragua	No reply		
Panama	Ministry of Labour and Labour Development	Chief of the Labour Force Department in the General Department for Employment	Benedicta Montenegro
Paraguay	No reply		
Peru	Self–employment and Micro Enterprise programme, PRODAME. Emergency social and production plan "A trabajar urbano" Women's Employment Consolidation Programme (PROFECE)	Subdirector for the promotion of employment Chief of monitoring and assessment National PROFECE coordinator	Rafael Cotrina Chávez Jorge Arrunátegui Gadea María Isabel González Mimbela
Dominican Republic	Ministry of Labour	Director General for Employment	Aída Ávila Jiménez
Uruguay	Secretariat of Labour and Social Security	Subdirector, General Department for Employment	Teresita Ribas
Venezuela	Ministry of Labour	Director General for Employment	Martín Villarroel

Table 3

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (15 COUNTRIES): LEGISLATIVE CHANGES, 1998–2002

Country	Law No.	Date	Legislative changes 1998–2002
Bolivia	2017	1999	Civil service statute.
Brazil	Constitutional amendment No. 20	1998	Minimum age for entering the labour market raised to 16 years, except for apprentices (age 14).
	Law 10.097		
	9.958	1998	Authorization to set up conciliation commissions with worker and employer representatives to solve individual work disputes.
	10.192	2001	Fixing of wages and working conditions through collective bargaining and the creation of public and private mediation.
Chile	19.539	1998	Adjustment of minimum pensions and surviving spouse's pension.
	19.553	1998	Modernization allowance for civil servants. Special retirement plan for women workers.
	19.578	1998	Increase in, inter alia, pensions and minimum pensions.
	19.591	1998	Amendment of the Labour Code rules governing maternal welfare. Ban on hiring, extending service or promoting female employees on the basis of pregnancy.
	19.618	1999	Benefits for civil servants.
	19.631	1999	Obligation to pay social security contributions in order to terminate a work contract.
	19.670	2000	Extension of maternity rights to parents adopting children.
	19.759	2001	General reform of labour legislation in terms of individual and collective labour rights.
	19.728	2001	Unemployment insurance
Colombia	411	1997	Ratifying Conventions 151 and 154 of the International Labour Organization (ILO) on rights to organize.
	584	2000	Reforming collective labour laws.
	581	2000	Discrimination against women (regulating participation in the public sector).
	Decree 049	2000	Special economic export zones.
Costa Rica	7739	1998	Amendments to the Code of childhood and adolescence.
	8237	2002	
	325	1943 1998	Regulation of annual leave.
	7805	2000	
	7989		
	8089	2001	Protocol on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women.
	8107	2001	New Labour Code title on non–discrimination.
	8108	2001	Reforming the worker protection law.
	8122	2001	Ratifying ILO Convention 182 on child labour.
	8153	2001	Reforming the comprehensive law on older persons.
	8220	2002	Citizen protection against excessive administrative requirements and procedures.
	8251	2002	Reforming the force account law.
	8262	2002	Law strengthening small and medium–sized enterprises.
	8259	2002	Authorizing the southern regional development board (JUDESUR) to transfer resources from the Ministry of Labour and Social Security.

Table 3

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (15 COUNTRIES): LEGISLATIVE CHANGES, 1998–2002

Country	Law No.	Date	Legislative changes 1998–2002
	8261	2002	Young persons' Act.
Cuba	Decree–law No. 176	1998	Changes in the basic labour justice system: establishing and defining authority and functions of the bodies of a basic labour justice system.
	Decree–law No. 187	1998	Approving the general basis for enterprise development.
	Resolution No. 11	2001	Extending maternity benefit to 60% of salary for one year.
	Decree–law No. 229 y Resolution No. 27	2002	General provisions on labour agreements. Establishing conciliation and arbitration procedures.
Ecuador			Worker risks.
El Salvador	Decree–law No. 888	2000	Law on equal opportunities for disabled persons, ratification of international conventions
Guatemala	Decree–law No. 35–98	1998	Reforming five articles of the Labour Code.
	Decree–law No. 13 y 18	2001	Reforming 39 articles of the Labour Code.
Honduras	Decree N° 001–98	1998	Minimum wage for a normal working day.
	Decree N° 004–99	1999	
	Decree N° 180–2000	2000	
	Executive decree N° 011	2002	
	Executive decree N° STSS N° 138–2000	2000	Ratifying ILO Convention 182 on child labour.
	Executive decree N° STSS N° 116–01	2001	Safety and occupational health regulations for diving.
	Executive decree N° STSS–211–01	2001	Regulations on child labour in Honduras.
	Executive decree N° STSS–001–02	2002	General regulations on measures to prevent work accidents and occupational diseases.
	Executive decree N° STSS–154–2000	2002	Regulation on payment of education vouchers.
Mexico		1998	Regulation on applying sanctions for violations of labour legislation.
		1999	Organization, authority and functioning of the Federal Attorney's Office for Labour.
		2000	Regulations on the organization and functioning of the Federal Board for Conciliation and Arbitration
		2001	Ratifying ILO Convention 182 on child labour.
		2001	Law on social security, health and pensions.
		2001	Setting up the National Housing Fund for workers.
		2001	Safety and hygiene at work.
		2002	Law of the Welfare and Social Services Institute for State Employees
Panama	59	2000	Decree on the minimum wage.
	65	2001	Long weekends/compulsory time off.
	12	2002	Young first–time workers.

Table 3 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (15 COUNTRIES): LEGISLATIVE CHANGES, 1998–2002

Country	Law No.	Date	Legislative changes 1998–2002
Peru	Decree–law 910	2001	Act on the Inspectorate of Labour.
	27626	2002	Law regulating the activity of special enterprises.
	27735	2002	Law regulating the award of bonuses.
Dominican Republic	87–01	2001	Social security law.
Uruguay	16.906	1998	Reducing the limitation period for applying for labour loans (article 29 of the Law on investments).
	17.107	1999	Approving the United Nations International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families
	17.138	1999	Extending family allowance to all low–income homes.
	17.164	1999	Concerning invention patents, utility models and industrial designs.
	17.207	1999	Approving the Mercosur Multilateral Agreement on Social Security.
	17.215	1999	Protecting pregnant or lactating women (right to change duties during this time or, failing that, special leave).
	17.230	2000	Establishing a system of internships (for students over 15 years of age in the public job training sector).
	17.242	2000	According special leave for genital and breast cancer screening.
	17.292	2001	(2nd emergency law) Establishing leave for men and women adopting children (article 33 et seq.).
	17.298	2001	Ratifying ILO Convention 182 on child labour.
	17.449	2002	Enabling private sector employees, in the calculation of their retirement, to take into account years spent in exile or as political prisoners during the dictatorship between 9 February 1973 and 28 February 1985.
	17.474	2002	Amending the family allowance system for twins.

Source: Irma Arriagada, "Chile y Uruguay en los noventa: cambios en el mercado laboral urbano por género", *Trabajo, género y ciudadanía en los países del Cono Sur*, Montevideo, Facultad de Ciencias Sociales, Universidad de la República/Inter–American Research and Documentation Centre on Vocational Training (CINTERFOR), International Labour Organization (ILO), 2000; Martha Márquez Garmendia, "Legislación laboral relativa a la mujer en los países de Mercosur y Chile: un estudio comparativo", Santiago, Chile, International Labour Organization (ILO).

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Table 1

LATIN AMERICA (19 COUNTRIES): TRENDS IN SELECTED ECONOMIC INDICATORS, 1990–2002

Country	Year	Per capita GDP (in 1995 dollars)	Per capita income (in 1995 dollars) a/	Urban unemployment (percentage)	Mean monthly variation in consumer price index	Percentage variations over the period				
						Period	Per capita GDP	Per capita income a/	Mean real remuneration	Urban minimum wage
Argentina	1990	5 545	5 291	7.4	24.92					
	1999	7 435	7 183	14.3	-0.15	1990-1999	34.1	35.8	1.1	250.7
	2000	7 283	7 095	15.1	-0.06	2000	-2.0	-1.2	1.5	0.9
	2001	6 875	6 645	17.4	-0.13	2001	-5.6	-6.3	-0.6	1.1
	2002	6 055	5 824	19.7	2.90	2002	-11.9	-12.4	-13.9	-19.5
Bolivia	1989	804	821	10.2	1.28					
	1999	941	961	8.0	0.26	1989-1999	17.0	17.0	28.8	106.4
	2000	941	959	7.5	0.28	2000	-0.1	-0.2	0.8	2.9
	2001	934	950	8.5	0.08	2001	-0.7	-1.0	3.8	10.8
	2002	938	930	8.7	0.20	2002	0.4	-2.1	3.2	5.0
Brazil	1990	3 859	3 733	4.3	26.53					
	1999	4 217	4 057	7.6	0.72	1990-1999	9.3	8.7	42.7	27.8
	2000	4 328	4 180	7.1	0.48	2000	2.6	3.0	-1.0	3.5
	2001	4 335	4 155	6.2	0.62	2001	0.2	-0.6	-5.0	9.0
	2002	4 340	4 163	7.1	0.99	2002	0.1	0.2	-2.1	2.6
Chile	1990	3 779	3 511	7.8 b/	2.03					
	1999	5 631	5 299	9.8 b/	0.19	1990-1999	49.0	50.9	38.6	61.8
	2000	5 792	5 459	9.2 b/	0.37	2000	2.9	3.0	1.4	7.1
	2001	5 902	5 475	9.1 b/	0.22	2001	1.9	0.3	1.6	3.8
	2002	5 952	5 560	9.0 b/	0.23	2002	0.8	1.6	2.1	2.9
Colombia	1991	2 158	2 142	10.5	2.00					
	1999	2 272	2 232	19.4	0.74	1991-1999	5.3	4.2	15.0	-0.9
	2000	2 288	2 222	17.2	0.70	2000	0.7	-0.5	3.9	0.5
	2001	2 282	2 205	18.2	0.62	2001	-0.3	-0.8	0.3	1.2
	2002	2 277	2 216	17.6	0.56	2002	-0.2	0.5	4.1	0.8
Costa Rica	1990	2 960	2 870	5.4	2.03					
	1999	3 793	3 379	6.2	0.81	1990-1999	28.1	17.7	21.6	10.4
	2000	3 775	3 359	5.3	0.82	2000	-0.5	-0.6	0.8	-0.5
	2001	3 741	3 506	5.8	0.87	2001	-0.9	4.4	1.0	0.2
	2002	3 762	3 558	6.8	0.77	2002	0.6	1.5	4.0	-0.6
Cuba	1990	5 034	5 206	...	...					
	1999	3 624	3 591	...	...	1990-1999	-28.0	-31.0	...	...
	2000	3 836	3 730	...	...	2000	5.9	3.9	...	...
	2001	3 933	3 859	...	...	2001	2.5	3.5	...	...
	2002	3 965	3 897	...	...	2002	0.8	1.0	...	...
Ecuador	1990	1 670	1 588	6.1	3.41					
	1999	1 699	1 627	14.4	4.03	1990-1999	1.7	2.4	...	20.5
	2000	1 682	1 677	14.1	5.54	2000	-1.0	3.1	...	-3.5
	2001	1 742	1 689	10.4	1.70	2001	3.5	0.7	...	11.5
	2002	1 776	1 740	8.6	0.75	2002	2.0	3.0	...	1.1
El Salvador	1990	1 406	1 462	10.0	1.48					
	1999	1 755	1 897	6.9	-0.09	1990-1999	24.8	29.8	...	0.5
	2000	1 757	1 880	6.5	0.35	2000	0.1	-0.9	...	-2.2
	2001	1 757	1 877	7.0	0.12	2001	0.0	-0.2	...	-3.7
	2002	1 761	1 916	6.2	0.23	2002	0.3	2.1	...	-1.7
Guatemala	1989	1 347	1 304	6.0 b/	1.54					
	1998	1 534	1 575	3.8 b/	0.60	1989-1998	13.9	20.8	31.7	-51.7
	2000	1 562	1 572	...	0.41	1998-2000	1.9	-0.2	9.8	8.3
	2001	1 562	1 598	...	0.71	2001	0.0	1.7	0.5	8.3
	2002	1 554	1 663	3.6 b/	0.51	2002	-0.5	4.1	-0.9	0.3

Table 1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (19 COUNTRIES): TRENDS IN SELECTED ECONOMIC INDICATORS, 1990–2002

Country	Year	Per capita GDP (in 1995 dollars)	Per capita income (in 1995 dollars) a/	Urban unemployment (percentage)	Mean monthly variation in consumer price index	Percentage variations over the period				
						Period	Per capita GDP	Per capita income a/	Mean real remuneration	Urban minimum wage
Honduras	1990	686	614	7.8	2.62					
	1999	694	738	5.3	0.87	1990-1999	1.2	20.1	…	-5.2
	2000	714	750	…	0.81	2000	2.8	1.6	…	8.4
	2001	714	738	5.9	0.71	2001	0.1	-1.5	…	6.7
	2002	713	742	6.1	0.65	2002	-0.2	0.5	…	-1.6
Mexico	1989	3 925	3 853	2.7	1.51					
	1998	4 484	4 430	3.2	1.43	1989-1998	14.2	15.0	8.5	-28.8
	2000	4 813	4 878	2.2	0.72	1998-2000	7.3	10.1	7.1	-2.9
	2001	4 720	4 810	2.5	0.36	2001	-1.9	-1.4	6.6	0.5
	2002	4 690	4 813	2.7	0.46	2002	-0.6	0.1	1.5	0.6
Nicaragua	1990	454	362	7.6 b/	50.58					
	1998	453	448	13.2 b/	1.42	1990-1998	-0.3	23.9	28.2	…
	2000	492	472	9.8 b/	0.79	1998-2000	8.6	5.3	6.1	-14.9
	2001	494	448	11.3 b/	0.38	2001	0.5	-5.0	4.3	-4.4
	2002	484	466	11.6 b/	0.33	2002	-1.9	4.0	4.3	0.0
Panama	1991	2 682	2 477	19.3	0.13					
	1999	3 183	3 193	14.0	0.13	1991-1999	18.7	28.9	…	18.1
	2000	3 205	3 246	15.2	0.06	2000	0.7	1.6	…	3.7
	2001	3 157	3 135	17.0	0.00	2001	-1.5	-3.4	…	7.2
	2002	3 123	3 159	16.1	0.16	2002	-1.1	0.8	…	-1.0
Paraguay	1990	1 697	1 705	6.6	3.09					
	1999	1 603	1 638	9.4	0.44	1990-1999	-5.5	-3.9	12.4	-11.4
	2000	1 552	1 588	10.0	0.69	2000	-3.1	-3.0	1.0	4.2
	2001	1 550	1 577	10.8	0.67	2001	-0.1	-0.7	1.4	3.7
	2002	1 477	1 503	14.7	1.15	2002	-4.7	-4.7	-6.4	-0.7
Peru	1990	1 879	1 795	8.3	43.69					
	1999	2 310	2 236	9.2	0.31	1990-1999	23.0	24.6	5.8	22.9
	2000	2 330	2 227	8.5	0.31	2000	0.8	-0.4	0.8	11.0
	2001	2 290	2 179	9.3	-0.01	2001	-1.7	-2.2	-0.9	1.2
	2002	2 376	2 258	9.4	0.13	2002	3.8	3.6	4.7	-0.2
Dominican Republic	1990	1 378	1 380	…	5.02					
	1998	1 831	2 009	14.3 b/	0.63	1990-1998	32.8	45.6	…	27.5
	2000	2 052	2 207	13.9 b/	0.72	1998-2000	12.1	9.8	…	4.8
	2001	2 079	2 274	15.4 b/	0.36	2001	1.3	3.0	…	5.5
	2002	2 133	2 334	16.1 b/	0.84	2002	2.6	2.6	…	-0.5
Uruguay	1990	4 707	4 577	8.5	7.15					
	1999	5 984	5 917	11.3	0.34	1990-1999	27.1	29.3	13.7	-38.9
	2000	5 826	5 668	13.6	0.41	2000	-2.6	-4.2	-1.3	-1.6
	2001	5 580	5 413	15.3	0.29	2001	-4.2	-4.5	-0.2	-1.3
	2002	4 946	4 778	17.0	1.94	2002	-11.4	-11.7	-10.7	-10.0
Venezuela	1990	3 045	3 310	10.4 b/	2.63					
	1999	3 028	3 003	14.9 b/	1.53	1990-1999	-0.5	-9.3	-29.9	-6.8
	2000	3 082	3 519	13.9 b/	1.06	2000	1.8	17.2	1.5	3.8
	2001	3 130	3 292	13.3 b/	0.97	2001	1.5	-6.5	2.4	0.8
	2002	2 796	2 929	15.8 b/	2.29	2002	-10.7	-11.0	-10.0	-4.4

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of official figures supplied by the countries.

a/ Refers to real per capita gross national income.
b/ Nationwide total.

Table 2

LATIN AMERICA (20 COUNTRIES): TRENDS IN SELECTED SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS, 1980–2000

Country	5–year period	Life expectancy at birth (years of life)			Infant mortality rate (per 1 000 live births)			Under–five mortality rate (per 1 000 live births)			Illiteracy rate in population aged 15 or 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	32.2	35.5	28.8	37	41	34	5.6	5.3	6.0
	1985-1990	71.0	67.6	74.6	27.1	30.0	24.1	32	35	29	4.3	4.1	4.4
	1990-1995	72.1	68.6	75.7	24.3	27.0	21.5	28	31	25	3.7	3.6	3.7
	1995-2000	73.1	69.7	76.8	21.8	24.5	19.0	25	28	22	3.2	3.2	3.2
Bolivia	1980-1985	53.7	51.9	55.6	109.2	116.0	102.0	162	173	152	31.3	20.4	41.7
	1985-1990	56.8	55.1	58.6	90.1	96.0	84.0	127	134	119	21.9	13.2	30.2
	1990-1995	59.3	57.7	61.0	75.1	79.2	70.8	99	103	95	17.9	10.4	25.2
	1995-2000	61.4	59.8	63.2	66.7	70.3	62.8	87	92	82	14.6	8.1	20.8
Brazil	1980-1985	63.4	60.2	66.7	64.4	71.5	57.0	77	84	70	24.0	22.0	25.9
	1985-1990	64.9	61.4	68.6	55.0	62.0	47.7	64	72	57	18.0	17.1	18.8
	1990-1995	66.4	62.7	70.4	47.2	54.0	40.0	54	61	47	15.3	14.9	15.7
	1995-2000	67.9	64.1	71.9	42.2	48.5	35.6	48	55	41	13.1	13.0	13.2
Chile	1980-1985	70.7	67.4	74.2	23.7	25.8	21.6	28	30	26	8.6	7.7	9.5
	1985-1990	72.7	69.6	75.9	18.4	19.9	16.7	22	24	20	6.0	5.6	6.4
	1990-1995	74.4	71.5	77.4	14.0	15.2	12.8	17	18	15	5.1	4.8	5.3
	1995-2000	75.2	72.3	78.3	12.8	13.8	11.6	15	17	14	4.2	4.1	4.4
Colombia	1980-1985	66.8	63.6	70.2	48.4	53.4	43.1	67	73	61	16.0	15.1	16.8
	1985-1990	67.9	64.2	71.7	41.4	46.2	36.4	57	63	52	11.6	11.2	11.9
	1990-1995	68.6	64.3	73.0	35.2	39.5	30.6	47	52	42	9.9	9.7	10.0
	1995-2000	70.7	67.3	74.3	30.0	34.0	25.8	39	43	36	8.4	8.4	8.4
Costa Rica	1980-1985	73.8	71.6	76.1	19.2	21.4	16.9	24	26	21	8.3	8.1	8.5
	1985-1990	74.8	72.6	77.2	17.4	19.6	15.0	19	21	17	6.1	6.1	6.2
	1990-1995	75.7	73.5	78.1	14.5	16.4	12.6	17	19	15	5.2	5.3	5.2
	1995-2000	76.5	74.3	78.9	11.8	13.3	10.3	15	17	13	4.4	4.5	4.4
Cuba	1980-1985	73.9	72.3	75.7	17.0	18.8	15.1	21	23	19	7.5	7.5	7.5
	1985-1990	74.6	72.8	76.5	12.9	14.6	11.1	16	18	14	4.9	4.8	4.9
	1990-1995	75.3	73.5	77.3	10.0	11.7	8.3	13	15	11	4.1	4.0	4.2
	1995-2000	76.0	74.2	78.0	7.5	9.2	5.8	10	12	8	3.3	3.2	3.4
Ecuador	1980-1985	64.5	62.5	66.7	68.4	75.5	61.1	94	102	86	18.1	14.2	22.0
	1985-1990	67.1	64.7	69.5	57.1	63.5	50.5	76	84	69	12.4	9.8	14.9
	1990-1995	68.8	66.4	71.4	49.7	55.4	43.7	65	72	58	10.2	8.2	12.3
	1995-2000	69.9	67.3	72.5	45.6	50.8	40.1	60	66	54	8.4	6.8	10.1
El Salvador	1980-1985	57.1	50.8	63.8	77.0	82.7	71.0	118	123	113	34.2	29.4	38.7
	1985-1990	63.4	59.0	68.0	54.0	59.9	47.9	77	82	72	27.6	23.9	30.9
	1990-1995	67.1	63.3	71.1	40.2	43.9	36.3	51	57	45	24.1	20.9	27.1
	1995-2000	69.4	66.5	72.5	32.0	34.9	29.0	41	45	37	21.3	18.5	23.9
Guatemala	1980-1985	58.2	56.0	60.4	78.8	83.1	74.4	117	120	114	47.0	39.0	55.1
	1985-1990	59.7	57.3	62.2	65.0	69.6	60.2	98	102	94	39.0	31.2	46.8
	1990-1995	62.6	59.8	65.5	51.1	56.0	46.0	68	72	64	35.1	27.4	42.7
	1995-2000	64.2	61.4	67.2	46.0	50.5	41.3	61	65	57	31.5	24.0	38.9
Haiti	1980-1985	51.9	50.6	53.3	122.1	128.0	116.0	168	178	158	69.5	69.5	72.8
	1985-1990	53.6	52.2	55.0	100.1	105.0	95.0	146	156	137	60.3	57.4	63.1
	1990-1995	55.4	54.0	56.8	74.1	78.0	70.0	121	130	112	55.3	52.7	57.7
	1995-2000	57.2	55.8	58.7	66.1	70.0	62.0	109	117	101	50.2	48.0	52.2
Honduras	1980-1985	61.6	59.4	63.8	65.0	71.7	57.9	101	109	92	40.1	38.1	42.0
	1985-1990	65.4	63.2	67.7	53.0	58.9	46.8	74	81	67	31.9	31.1	32.7
	1990-1995	67.7	65.4	70.1	43.0	48.2	37.6	60	66	54	28.3	28.0	28.6
	1995-2000	69.8	67.5	72.3	35.0	39.7	30.2	50	55	44	25.0	25.1	25.0

Table 2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (20 COUNTRIES): TRENDS IN SELECTED SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS, 1980–2000

Country	5–year period	Life expectancy at birth (years of life)			Infant mortality rate (per 1 000 live births)			Under–five mortality rate (per 1 000 live births)			Illiteracy rate in population aged 15 or over (percentage)		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Mexico	1980-1985	67.7	64.4	71.2	47.0	52.9	40.9	57	64	51	18.7	13.7	23.5
	1985-1990	69.8	66.8	73.0	39.5	43.0	35.9	48	53	44	12.7	9.4	15.7
	1990-1995	71.5	68.5	74.5	34.0	36.2	31.6	42	45	38	10.5	7.9	13.0
	1995-2000	72.4	69.5	75.5	31.0	33.0	28.9	38	41	35	8.8	6.7	10.9
Nicaragua	1980-1985	59.5	56.5	62.6	79.8	87.5	71.7	117	128	106	41.2	41.0	41.4
	1985-1990	62.2	59.0	65.5	65.0	71.8	57.8	90	98	82	37.3	37.3	37.3
	1990-1995	66.1	63.5	68.7	48.0	53.8	41.9	62	69	55	35.4	35.5	35.2
	1995-2000	68.0	65.7	70.4	39.5	44.6	34.1	50	57	44	33.5	33.8	33.3
Panama	1980-1985	70.8	68.6	73.1	31.6	36.0	27.1	42	46	39	15.1	14.4	15.9
	1985-1990	71.7	69.4	74.2	29.6	33.9	25.2	38	41	35	11.0	10.3	11.6
	1990-1995	72.9	70.9	75.0	27.0	31.1	22.7	33	34	32	9.4	8.8	10.1
	1995-2000	74.0	71.8	76.4	23.7	27.6	19.7	28	30	26	8.1	7.5	8.8
Paraguay	1980-1985	67.1	64.9	69.3	48.9	54.7	42.7	62	70	55	14.1	10.5	17.6
	1985-1990	67.6	65.4	69.9	46.7	52.5	40.6	58	65	51	9.7	7.6	11.7
	1990-1995	68.5	66.3	70.8	43.3	48.6	37.8	53	60	47	8.1	6.6	9.6
	1995-2000	69.7	67.5	72.0	39.2	43.8	34.4	48	54	43	6.7	5.6	7.8
Peru	1980-1985	61.6	59.5	63.8	81.6	87.9	75.1	117	124	109	20.6	11.7	29.4
	1985-1990	64.4	62.1	66.8	68.0	74.7	61.0	94	102	86	14.5	8.0	20.9
	1990-1995	66.7	64.4	69.2	55.5	61.8	48.8	77	85	69	12.2	6.6	17.6
	1995-2000	68.3	65.9	70.9	42.1	50.1	39.6	65	72	59	10.1	5.3	14.8
Dominican Republic	1980-1985	63.2	61.4	65.1	62.5	70.8	53.9	87	94	81	26.0	24.9	27.2
	1985-1990	65.1	63.2	67.0	54.1	61.5	46.3	76	82	70	20.6	20.2	21.0
	1990-1995	67.0	65.0	69.0	46.6	53.5	39.4	65	72	59	18.3	18.2	18.5
	1995-2000	68.6	66.5	70.8	40.0	46.0	33.7	56	62	51	16.3	16.3	16.3
Uruguay	1980-1985	71.0	67.6	74.5	33.5	36.9	30.0	37	41	34	5.0	5.4	4.6
	1985-1990	72.1	68.6	75.8	22.6	25.0	20.0	26	29	23	3.5	4.0	3.0
	1990-1995	73.0	69.2	76.9	20.1	22.5	17.5	23	26	20	2.9	3.4	2.5
	1995-2000	74.1	70.5	78.0	17.5	20.5	14.4	20	23	17	2.4	2.9	2.0
Venezuela	1980-1985	68.8	65.9	71.8	33.6	37.6	29.4	42	47	38	16.1	13.9	18.3
	1985-1990	70.5	67.7	73.5	26.9	30.3	23.4	33	36	29	11.1	9.9	12.3
	1990-1995	71.8	69.0	74.7	23.2	26.2	20.1	28	31	25	9.1	8.3	9.9
	1995-2000	72.8	70.0	75.7	20.9	23.6	18.2	25	28	22	7.5	7.0	8.0

Source: ECLAC Population Division – CELADE and UNESCO (illiteracy rates).

Table 3

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MALE AND FEMALE ECONOMIC ACTIVITY RATES, BY AGE GROUP, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002

Country	Year	Ages									
		Males					Females				
		Total	15 – 24	25 – 34	35 – 49	50 and over	Total	15 – 24	25 – 34	35 – 49	50 and over
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	76	62	97	97	55	38	41	53	52	19
	1994	76	65	98	97	54	41	43	59	56	21
	1997	76	61	97	97	59	45	44	61	60	27
	1999	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
(Urban areas)	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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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

Table 3 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MALE AND FEMALE ECONOMIC ACTIVITY RATES, BY AGE GROUP, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002

Country	Year	Ages									
		Males					Females				
		Total	15 – 24	25 – 34	35 – 49	50 and over	Total	15 – 24	25 – 34	35 – 49	50 and over
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
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	74	58	95	96	52	43	37	59	59	18
	1994	79	62	97	97	56	47	39	61	61	20
	1997	78	60	96	97	59	50	40	66	69	26
	1999	78	62	97	97	60	48	41	61	65	25
	2002	79	58	98	98	65	54	39	71	69	34
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
(Urban areas)	1994	86	75	98	98	71	53	53	62	62	32
	1996	86	78	98	97	73	58	54	65	69	40
	1999	83	64	97	95	76	55	47	66	67	42
	2001	81	68	95	96	70	57	51	72	67	40
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
Dominican Republic	1992	86	77	96	98	76	53	57	66	57	25
	1995	78	62	95	98	68	44	40	64	57	20
	2000	78	61	93	95	68	51	41	66	70	26
	2002	78	62	95	97	65	53	45	73	71	25
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
Venezuela b/	1990	78	55	93	96	71	38	25	51	52	21
	1994	79	58	94	97	68	38	26	52	53	20
	1997	83	66	96	97	73	46	34	59	61	28
	1999	84	67	97	97	75	48	36	61	64	30
	2000	82	64	96	97	72	47	34	60	63	32
	2002	84	67	97	97	74	55	42	69	71	37

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

b/ The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 4

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MALE AND FEMALE ECONOMIC ACTIVITY RATES, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002

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
(Urban areas)	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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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

Table 4 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MALE AND FEMALE ECONOMIC ACTIVITY RATES, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002

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
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
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	74	67	78	69	73	81	43	21	31	37	49	71
	1994	79	70	81	74	78	88	47	18	34	41	52	73
	1997	78	64	76	72	80	85	50	23	39	41	52	73
	1999	78	66	80	75	77	85	48	19	36	40	50	73
	2002	79	75	81	75	77	86	54	45	43	41	54	73
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	84	75	88	82	83	87	50	29	53	45	50	71
	1994	82	64	83	78	82	89	58	39	57	51	57	74
	1996	86	76	91	82	86	91	59	43	57	53	63	81
	1999	83	73	88	79	81	91	54	40	51	49	57	79
	2001	81	69	83	80	79	88	57	39	56	51	58	79
(Urban areas)	1994	86	76	92	83	84	91	53	38	53	47	58	78
	1996	86	77	92	82	87	92	58	44	57	53	63	81
	1999	83	70	87	80	81	91	55	43	49	50	57	78
	2001	81	72	86	80	79	87	57	41	58	50	57	79
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
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
	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
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
Venezuela c/	1990	78	73	84	74	77	76	38	23	34	34	47	58
	1994	79	73	86	78	76	76	38	22	34	36	45	58
	1997	83	80	87	81	82	82	46	28	40	43	53	69
	1999	84	80	88	81	82	83	48	28	41	46	55	70
	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

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

c/ The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 5

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own–account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector						
					Total a/	Professional and technical	Non–professional, non-technical			Total c/	Non-professional, non-technical
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons b/	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	5.4	69.0	…	69.0	6.9	44.8	11.6	5.7	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
(Urban areas)	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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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

Table 5 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own-account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector						
					Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical			Total c/	Non-professional, non-technical
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons b/	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
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
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	3.4	73.2	26.6	46.6	7.4	27.0	5.2	7.0	23.4	22.4
	1994	2.5	76.3	24.8	51.5	7.2	31.3	5.7	7.3	21.2	20.5
	1997	3.0	73.9	22.4	51.5	10.1	29.4	5.6	6.4	23.0	21.8
	1999	2.8	74.2	19.4	54.8	10.8	31.4	6.5	6.1	23.0	21.9
	2002	3.4	74.3	20.4	53.9	6.7	32.4	8.1	6.7	22.1	20.6
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
(Urban areas)	1994	9.2	62.0	10.5	51.5	4.5	21.5	15.0	10.5	28.9	28.6
	1996	6.8	57.9	10.0	47.9	3.8	20.4	14.4	9.3	35.3	33.7
	1999	6.6	62.1	11.8	50.3	5.1	21.1	14.9	9.2	31.2	29.1
	2001	7.6	59.9	11.1	48.8	5.5	19.6	13.3	10.4	32.5	30.1
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
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
	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
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
Venezuela j/	1990	7.5	70.0	21.4	48.6	5.8	30.0	6.5	6.3	22.5	21.4
	1994	6.1	64.5	18.1	46.4	6.1	27.1	9.2	4.0	29.3	27.4
	1997	5.0	62.8	16.8	46.0	5.5	25.4	10.8	4.3	32.3	30.3
	1999	5.1	57.9	14.9	43.0	4.9	24.0	12.1	2.0	36.9	35.3
	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

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

a/ For Argentina (except 1999 and 2000), Brazil (except 1993, 1996 and 1999), Chile (except 1996 and 2000), Mexico (1989) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public–sector wage or salary earners.

b/ For Colombia, Mexico (1989 and 1994) and Domincan Republic (1992, 1995 and 1998), 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 are included in the figures for establishments employing more than 5 persons.
For Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, 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 5 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.

h/ The figures for 1990 are not strictly comparable to 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 used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 5.1

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own-account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector						
					Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical			Total c/	Non-professional, non-technical
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons b/	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	6.9	68.3	…	68.3	6.3	47.8	12.4	1.8	24.7	23.1
	1994	6.2	69.0	…	69.0	14.6	39.5	14.5	0.4	24.7	20.8
	1997	6.4	72.5	…	72.5	14.3	40.3	17.5	0.4	21.1	16.2
	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
(Urban areas)	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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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

Table 5.1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own-account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector						
					Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical			Total c/	Non-professional, non-technical
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons b/	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
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
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	4.4	65.5	23.2	42.3	7.7	28.1	5.9	0.6	30.0	28.8
	1994	3.0	70.6	21.7	48.9	7.4	33.6	6.7	1.2	26.4	25.4
	1997	4.0	68.3	19.3	49.0	10.4	31.6	6.0	1.0	27.8	26.2
	1999	3.6	70.1	17.0	53.1	11.1	33.6	7.4	1.0	26.4	25.1
	2002	4.6	70.0	17.7	52.3	6.2	35.5	9.6	1.0	25.4	23.6
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
(Urban areas)	1994	11.9	63.4	10.2	53.2	4.6	27.0	20.2	1.4	24.7	24.5
	1996	9.1	60.3	9.0	51.3	4.0	27.1	19.3	0.9	30.6	29.2
	1999	9.0	64.0	11.9	52.1	5.3	28.0	17.9	0.9	27.0	25.1
	2001	10.3	60.7	9.9	50.8	5.4	25.8	18.0	1.6	29.1	26.1
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
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
	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
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
Venezuela j/	1990	10.2	66.1	16.8	49.3	5.5	33.9	8.0	1.9	23.6	22.5
	1994	8.4	60.6	13.0	47.6	5.2	30.0	10.9	1.5	31.1	29.2
	1997	6.7	61.2	12.1	49.1	5.0	29.2	13.4	1.5	32.0	30.3
	1999	6.9	57.5	10.6	46.9	4.0	27.9	14.9	0.1	35.6	34.1
	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

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

a/ For Argentina (except 1999 and 2000), Brazil (except 1993, 1996 and 1999), Chile (except 1996 and 2000), Mexico (1989) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public–sector wage or salary earners.
b/ For Colombia, Mexico (1989 and 1994) and Domincan Republic (1992, 1995 and 1998), 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 are included in the figures for establishments employing more than 5 persons. For Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, 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 5 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.
h/ The figures for 1990 are not strictly comparable to 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 used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 5.2

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own-account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector						
					Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical			Total c/	Non-professional, non-technical
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons b/	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	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
(Urban areas)	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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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

Table 5.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own-account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector						
					Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical			Total c/	Non-professional, non-technical
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons b/	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
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
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	1.7	86.1	32.5	53.6	6.9	24.9	4.0	17.8	12.2	11.5
	1994	1.5	86.6	30.3	56.3	6.9	27.3	4.0	18.1	12.0	11.7
	1997	1.4	83.3	27.4	55.9	9.7	25.9	5.0	15.3	15.4	14.8
	1999	1.6	81.1	23.5	57.6	10.3	27.7	5.2	14.4	17.3	16.7
	2002	1.8	81.2	24.6	56.6	7.6	27.8	5.9	15.3	17.1	16.1
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
(Urban areas)	1994	5.3	59.7	10.9	48.8	4.3	13.7	7.5	23.3	34.9	34.5
	1996	3.5	54.7	11.4	43.3	3.5	11.3	7.7	20.8	41.8	39.9
	1999	3.4	59.7	11.6	48.1	5.0	11.6	10.8	20.7	36.9	34.6
	2001	4.2	59.0	12.6	46.4	5.6	11.8	7.5	21.5	36.8	35.2
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
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
	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
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
Venezuela j/	1990	2.3	77.5	30.4	47.1	6.4	22.3	3.4	15.0	20.2	19.1
	1994	1.7	72.3	28.1	44.2	8.0	21.3	5.9	9.0	26.0	23.9
	1997	1.9	65.7	25.7	40.0	6.4	18.1	5.8	9.7	32.5	30.1
	1999	1.9	58.9	22.7	36.2	6.5	17.1	7.0	5.6	39.2	37.4
	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

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

a/ For Argentina (except 1999 and 2000), Brazil (except 1993, 1996 and 1999), Chile (except 1996 and 2000), Mexico (1989) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public–sector wage or salary earners.
b/ For Colombia, Mexico (1989 and 1994) and Domincan Republic (1992, 1995 and 1998), 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 are included in the figures for establishments employing more than 5 persons. For Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, 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 5 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.
h/ The figures for 1990 are not strictly comparable to 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 used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 6

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS, 1990–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary earners			Own-account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector a/	Total	Agriculture
Bolivia	1997	100	3.3	8.9	2.4	6.5	87.8	79.9
	1999	100	1.2	9.2	2.3	6.9	89.6	82.1
	2000	100	0.5	8.6	2.8	5.8	90.9	83.0
	2002	100	4.2	9.8	2.3	7.5	86.0	79.0
Brazil	1990	100	3.0	44.3	...	44.3	52.7	44.3
	1993	100	1.9	33.6	5.1	28.5	64.5	58.4
	1996	100	1.8	34.3	4.4	29.9	63.8	57.2
	1999	100	2.0	34.3	5.2	29.1	63.7	56.4
	2001	100	2.5	33.7	4.3	29.4	63.8	57.3
Chile b/	1990	100	2.8	64.9	...	64.9	32.3	25.0
	1994	100	2.6	66.6	...	66.6	30.8	21.5
	1996	100	2.4	64.2	3.6	60.6	33.3	26.6
	1998	100	2.8	64.5	...	64.5	32.7	24.4
	2000	100	2.5	65.1	4.9	60.2	32.5	24.3
Colombia	1991	100	6.3	48.6	...	48.6	45.0	25.5
	1994	100	4.5	54.2	...	54.2	41.3	22.4
	1997	100	4.2	50.6	...	50.6	45.1	25.0
	1999	100	3.7	47.2	3.7	43.5	49.2	27.9
Costa Rica	1990	100	5.1	66.2	10.5	55.7	28.7	16.8
	1994	100	6.8	69.0	9.6	59.4	24.2	11.1
	1997	100	7.1	67.8	9.0	58.8	25.2	11.3
	1999	100	8.2	69.2	8.9	60.3	22.7	9.5
	2000	100	5.8	66.9	9.6	57.3	27.3	12.3
	2002	100	7.5	63.5	8.8	54.8	29.0	13.2
Ecuador	2000	100	3.2	42.4	3.9	38.5	54.3	40.7
El Salvador	1995	100	6.0	49.6	3.2	46.4	44.3	26.8
	1997	100	4.0	50.9	3.1	47.8	45.1	28.1
	1999	100	4.1	50.8	3.9	46.9	45.2	26.3
	2000	100	4.6	47.2	3.9	43.3	48.1	26.7
	2001	100	3.8	47.0	3.8	43.2	49.2	28.9
Guatemala	1989	100	0.6	38.7	2.9	35.8	60.7	47.5
	1998	100	2.0	42.9	1.7	41.2	55.1	34.8
	2002	100	6.3	35.3	1.6	33.7	58.4	38.8
Honduras	1990	100	0.6	34.9	4.0	30.9	64.6	47.6
	1994	100	1.7	37.0	4.8	32.2	61.4	43.5
	1997	100	2.6	34.8	3.4	31.4	62.6	41.6
	1999	100	3.1	33.4	3.7	29.7	63.5	41.3
	2002	100	1.3	35.0	1.8	33.2	63.7	46.9
Mexico c/	1989	100	2.5	50.2	...	50.2	47.3	34.6
	1994	100	4.0	48.6	5.5	43.1	47.4	30.8
	1996	100	5.1	48.1	6.4	41.7	46.7	28.6
	1998	100	4.5	45.6	6.0	39.6	49.9	29.2
	2000	100	5.0	51.0	6.6	44.4	44.0	25.1
	2002	100	3.3	52.4	7.8	44.6	44.3	25.4
Nicaragua	1993	100	0.2	38.4	6.6	31.8	61.3	45.8
	1998	100	3.3	43.7	...	43.7	53.0	39.7
	2001	100	5.4	37.4	4.9	32.5	57.2	44.5

Table 6 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS, 1990–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary earners			Own-account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector a/	Total	Agriculture
Panama	1991	100	2.9	39.1	12.5	26.6	58.0	45.5
	1994	100	3.3	47.0	11.8	35.2	49.7	34.4
	1997	100	2.2	46.1	10.1	36.0	51.6	33.4
	1999	100	3.2	44.9	10.1	34.8	51.9	31.6
	2002	100	2.0	40.1	8.3	31.8	57.9	39.1
Paraguay	1997	100	2.3	24.8	3.2	21.6	72.8	57.3
	1999	100	3.4	27.0	3.4	23.6	69.7	54.0
	2001	100	3.6	27.1	2.5	24.6	69.4	53.7
Peru	1997	100	5.3	19.8	3.6	16.2	74.8	61.0
	1999	100	6.3	19.9	2.3	17.6	73.9	61.9
	2001	100	5.4	20.6	4.1	16.5	74.0	61.2
Dominican Republic	1992	100	4.0	52.4	13.2	39.2	43.7	21.6
	1995	100	2.1	56.1	11.5	44.6	41.9	15.7
	2000	100	1.8	40.3	8.1	32.2	57.8	32.6
	2002	100	1.7	36.6	8.3	28.3	61.7	34.9
Venezuela	1990	100	6.9	46.6	8.3	38.3	46.5	33.3
	1994	100	7.6	47.6	7.4	40.2	44.8	29.7
	1997	100	5.4	49.6	5.4	44.2	44.9	33.1

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

a/ Includes domestic employees. For Brazil (1990), Chile (1990, 1994 and 1998), Mexico (1989) and Nicaragua (1998), public–sector wage or salary earners are included.

b/ Information from national socio–economic surveys (CASEN).

c/ Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

Table 7

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002
(In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own-account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector						
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical			Total b/	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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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

Table 7 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002
(In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own-account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector						
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical			Total b/	Non-professional, non-technical
								Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Mexico g/	1989	4.4	21.7	3.5	…	3.5	6.9	3.1	…	1.4	4.8	4.4
	1994	4.4	18.3	3.9	5.0	3.6	9.5	3.0	…	1.2	3.7	3.3
	1996	3.7	15.2	3.3	4.9	2.9	6.4	2.8	1.7	1.2	2.5	2.3
	1998	4.1	18.2	3.5	5.3	3.1	6.9	3.1	1.9	1.3	3.0	2.6
	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
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	5.0	11.8	5.5	7.4	4.4	9.4	4.1	2.6	1.3	2.5	2.3
	1994	5.1	17.7	5.1	7.3	4.1	9.4	3.8	2.4	1.3	3.5	3.4
	1997	5.6	15.4	5.6	8.0	4.6	10.0	4.1	2.6	1.4	3.7	3.4
	1999	5.8	11.4	6.3	8.7	5.5	11.1	4.8	2.7	2.2	3.3	3.0
	2002	6.4	13.0	7.1	9.1	6.3	9.7	6.5	5.9	2.5	3.0	2.8
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
(Urban areas)	1994	3.3	9.6	2.8	4.3	2.5	6.6	2.6	1.9	1.2	2.5	2.5
	1996	3.3	9.7	3.1	5.1	2.6	6.3	3.0	2.1	1.1	2.5	2.3
	1999	3.3	8.8	3.3	4.8	2.9	6.7	3.1	2.1	1.6	2.2	1.9
	2001	3.1	8.6	3.1	5.2	2.6	4.5	3.3	1.9	1.4	1.8	1.5
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
Dominican Republic	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
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
Venezuela h/	1990	4.5	11.9	3.7	4.0	3.6	6.6	3.6	2.5	2.1	4.5	4.3
	1994	3.8	8.9	3.2	2.7	3.4	6.7	3.4	2.0	1.9	4.1	3.8
	1997	3.6	11.2	2.6	2.9	2.5	5.8	2.4	1.7	1.4	4.2	3.9
	1999	3.5	9.2	3.2	3.7	2.9	6.4	2.9	2.0	1.4	3.2	3.0
	2002	3.3	9.9	2.9	4.5	2.4	4.8	2.5	1.7	1.2	2.9	2.8

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

a/ For Argentina (except 1999), Brazil (1990), Chile (1990, 1994 and 1998), Mexico (1989) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public–sector wage or salary earners. In addition, for Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, in the case of non–professional, non–technical wage earners, 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 5 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.

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.

g/ Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

h/ The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 7.1

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002
(In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own-account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector						
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical			Total b/	Non-professional, non-technical
								Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	7.3	22.2	5.1	…	5.1	11.4	4.7	3.7	4.4	9.4	8.8
	1994	9.7	28.0	7.1	…	7.1	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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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

Table 7.1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002
(In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own-account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector						
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical			Total b/	Non-professional, non-technical
								Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Mexico g/	1989	5.1	23.4	3.8	…	3.8	7.8	3.3	…	2.1	6.1	5.6
	1994	5.2	19.4	4.4	5.6	4.1	11.5	3.2	…	2.0	5.0	4.4
	1996	4.3	16.0	3.6	5.3	3.3	7.7	3.1	1.8	1.9	3.4	3.1
	1998	4.9	19.2	3.9	5.9	3.5	8.2	3.4	2.1	1.9	4.3	3.6
	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
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	5.3	11.9	6.1	7.9	5.0	10.2	4.2	2.7	1.4	2.7	2.5
	1994	5.6	19.2	5.7	8.2	4.6	10.6	3.8	2.3	2.0	3.9	3.7
	1997	6.2	16.6	6.4	9.0	5.3	11.0	4.1	2.6	2.0	4.3	3.8
	1999	6.2	12.1	6.8	9.7	5.9	11.7	4.8	2.7	2.3	3.8	3.5
	2002	7.1	13.3	7.9	10.3	7.1	11.1	6.7	6.6	2.4	3.5	3.3
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
(Urban areas)	1994	4.0	10.0	3.2	5.0	2.9	8.2	2.7	2.0	1.9	3.0	3.0
	1996	3.9	10.3	3.4	5.5	3.0	6.9	3.1	2.2	1.7	3.1	2.9
	1999	3.8	8.7	3.6	5.2	3.2	7.5	3.2	2.0	1.7	2.6	2.3
	2001	3.7	8.8	3.4	5.5	3.0	5.4	3.3	1.9	1.8	2.4	1.9
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
Dominican Republic	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
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
Venezuela h/	1990	5.1	12.0	4.0	4.4	3.9	7.6	3.7	2.5	3.4	5.1	4.9
	1994	4.3	9.1	3.4	3.1	3.5	7.6	3.4	2.0	2.9	4.6	4.3
	1997	4.0	11.4	2.8	3.2	2.7	6.7	2.5	1.7	2.2	4.6	4.3
	1999	3.8	9.4	3.3	4.1	3.2	7.4	3.0	2.0	2.0	3.7	3.5
	2002	3.6	10.2	2.9	4.8	2.5	5.6	2.6	1.7	1.6	3.3	3.2

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

a/ For Argentina (except 1999), Brazil (1990), Chile (1990, 1994 and 1998), Mexico (1989) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public–sector wage or salary earners. In addition, for Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, in the case of non–professional, non–technical wage earners, 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 5 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.

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.

g/ Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

h/ The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 7.2

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002
(In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own-account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector						
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical			Total b/	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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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

Table 7.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002
(In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own-account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector						
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical			Total b/	Non-professional, non-technical
								Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Mexico g/	1989	2.8	9.4	2.9	…	2.9	4.8	2.8	…	1.3	2.3	2.3
	1994	2.9	11.6	3.0	4.2	2.6	5.3	2.5	…	1.1	2.0	1.8
	1996	2.5	11.8	2.7	4.2	2.2	4.1	2.3	1.4	1.1	1.4	1.3
	1998	2.7	13.2	2.8	4.4	2.3	4.5	2.5	1.5	1.1	1.7	1.6
	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
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	4.6	11.2	4.8	6.9	3.3	7.9	4.0	2.6	1.3	2.0	1.6
	1994	4.1	12.0	4.2	6.1	3.2	7.1	3.7	2.5	1.2	2.4	2.3
	1997	4.6	10.1	4.8	6.8	3.9	8.3	4.0	2.7	1.4	2.5	2.3
	1999	5.1	8.7	5.7	7.6	4.9	9.9	4.8	2.9	2.2	2.1	1.9
	2002	5.3	11.7	6.0	7.8	5.2	8.1	6.1	4.2	2.5	1.6	1.5
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
(Urban areas)	1994	2.4	8.5	2.2	3.4	1.9	4.2	2.4	1.7	1.2	2.0	2.0
	1996	2.4	7.5	2.6	4.6	2.0	5.3	2.7	2.0	1.1	1.9	1.7
	1999	2.7	9.3	2.8	4.3	2.5	5.6	3.0	2.2	1.6	1.8	1.6
	2001	2.4	8.2	2.8	4.8	2.2	3.4	3.3	1.9	1.4	1.3	1.2
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
Dominican Republic	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
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
Venezuela h/	1990	3.3	10.8	3.2	3.6	2.9	4.9	3.3	2.4	1.7	2.9	2.7
	1994	3.0	7.5	2.8	2.3	3.2	5.6	3.3	2.0	1.5	3.1	2.6
	1997	2.8	9.4	2.4	2.6	2.2	4.5	2.2	1.6	1.2	3.4	3.0
	1999	2.9	7.9	3.0	3.3	2.8	5.4	2.6	1.9	1.3	2.5	2.3
	2002	2.8	8.6	3.0	4.3	2.2	4.0	2.3	1.6	1.2	2.3	2.2

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

a/ For Argentina (except 1999), Brazil (1990), Chile (1990, 1994 and 1998), Mexico (1989) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public–sector wage or salary earners. In addition, for Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, in the case of non–professional, non–technical wage earners, 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 5 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.

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.

g/ Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

h/ The sample design used 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

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS, 1990–2002
(In multiples of the respective 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
Bolivia	1997	1.3	10.5	3.5	3.7	3.4	0.8	0.6
	1999	0.8	3.9	3.4	4.2	3.1	0.6	0.4
	2002	1.2	4.1	3.4	4.2	3.2	0.8	0.6
Brazil	1990	2.0	9.3	2.2	…	2.2	1.5	1.3
	1993	1.8	11.6	2.2	2.9	2.1	1.3	1.2
	1996	2.0	13.5	2.8	4.0	2.6	1.3	1.1
	1999	1.8	12.4	2.6	3.8	2.4	1.0	0.8
	2001	1.7	10.6	2.3	2.8	2.2	1.0	0.9
Chile c/	1990	4.9	39.3	3.2	…	3.2	5.2	5.2
	1994	4.6	28.9	3.8	…	3.8	4.2	3.7
	1996	4.2	24.0	3.5	5.3	3.4	4.0	3.5
	1998	5.3	32.8	3.9	…	3.9	6.3	5.3
	2000	5.3	36.8	4.2	7.0	3.9	5.6	4.8
Colombia	1991	3.1	10.7	2.9	…	2.9	2.3	1.7
	1994	2.5	5.8	2.8	…	2.8	1.9	2.3
	1997	2.7	7.0	3.1	5.0	3.0	1.8	1.8
	1999	2.9	5.6	3.9	6.4	3.7	1.8	1.9
Costa Rica	1990	5.1	9.9	5.2	8.4	4.6	4.0	3.9
	1994	5.8	11.7	5.4	8.4	4.9	5.4	6.3
	1997	5.6	9.3	5.5	9.4	4.9	4.7	4.9
	1999	6.3	11.3	6.0	10.2	5.4	5.3	5.5
	2002	6.2	9.0	7.2	11.9	6.5	3.2	2.2
El Salvador	1995	2.4	5.5	2.7	5.4	2.6	1.7	1.4
	1997	2.4	4.3	3.1	5.7	2.9	1.5	1.1
	1999	3.4	10.2	3.3	6.8	3.0	2.8	3.1
	2001	2.4	3.8	3.3	6.8	3.0	1.4	0.5
Guatemala	1989	2.5	21.1	2.3	4.9	2.1	2.4	2.1
	1998	2.6	25.3	2.3	3.9	2.2	2.1	2.1
	2002	1.7	5.7	2.3	4.4	2.2	1.0	0.8
Honduras	1990	1.7	14.7	2.2	4.9	1.8	1.3	1.3
	1994	2.0	8.6	2.1	4.1	1.8	1.8	1.8
	1997	1.7	9.0	1.6	3.4	1.4	1.4	1.5
	1999	1.8	6.1	2.0	4.4	1.7	1.4	1.4
	2002	1.4	6.3	1.9	4.7	1.7	1.1	1.0
Mexico d/	1989	3.0	9.3	2.7	…	2.7	3.0	2.6
	1994	2.7	9.7	2.6	5.1	2.3	2.2	1.8
	1996	2.3	7.1	2.4	4.9	2.0	1.6	1.3
	1998	2.6	8.7	2.9	5.2	2.5	1.8	1.6
	2000	3.2	14.9	2.9	5.8	2.5	2.3	1.5
	2002	3.0	10.1	3.2	5.8	2.7	2.2	1.5
Nicaragua	1993	2.2	4.8	2.7	3.0	2.6	1.9	1.4
	1998	2.1	8.8	2.8	…	2.8	1.1	0.8
	2001	1.9	4.6	2.6	3.3	2.5	1.1	0.8
Panama	2002	4.5	12.8	8.1	8.8	7.9	1.8	1.5
Paraguay	1999	2.2	17.2	2.9	5.3	2.5	1.3	1.1
	2001	1.8	9.4	2.8	5.3	2.6	1.0	0.8
Peru	1997	1.6	4.3	2.8	4.2	2.5	1.0	0.9
	1999	1.4	3.3	2.7	4.7	2.4	0.9	0.8
Dominican Republic	2000	3.7	13.0	3.0	4.0	2.7	3.8	3.3
	2002	3.5	13.3	2.9	3.5	2.7	3.6	3.3
Venezuela	1990	3.8	9.5	3.3	4.3	3.1	3.5	2.9
	1994	3.4	7.2	2.9	4.3	2.6	3.4	3.2

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

a/ Includes domestic employees. For Brazil (1990), Chile (1990, 1994 and 1998), Colombia (1991 and 1994), Mexico (1989) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public–sector wage or salary earners.

b/ Includes wage or salary earners in all sectors of activity.

c/ Information from national socio–economic surveys (CASEN).

d/ Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

Table 9

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): RATIO OF AVERAGE FEMALE INCOME TO AVERAGE MALE INCOME, BY AGE GROUP, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Earned income gap, by age group a/						Wage gap, by age group b/					
		Total	15 – 24	25 – 34	35 – 44	45 – 54	55 and over	Total	15 – 24	25 – 34	35 – 44	45 – 54	55 and over
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	65	87	77	61	59	51	76	94	82	72	72	54
	1994	71	87	88	64	72	50	76	94	80	69	73	61
	1997	70	95	83	66	67	49	79	98	92	77	63	66
	1999	65	94	76	64	58	54	79	95	84	69	78	73
	2002	59	89	73	60	54	43	71	82	79	71	61	54
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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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

Table 9 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): RATIO OF AVERAGE FEMALE INCOME TO AVERAGE MALE INCOME, BY AGE GROUP, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Earned income gap, by age group a/						Wage gap, by age group b/					
		Total	15 – 24	25 – 34	35 – 44	45 – 54	55 and over	Total	15 – 24	25 – 34	35 – 44	45 – 54	55 and over
Panama	1991	80	76	90	83	73	74	80	71	89	86	74	67
	1994	71	81	77	73	58	54	75	80	86	73	63	52
	1997	74	82	81	71	73	52	76	81	87	73	73	50
	1999	83	101	90	79	79	61	94	122	96	86	85	76
	2002	76	76	86	77	70	57	85	83	92	80	79	83
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
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
Dominican Republic	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
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
Venezuela d/	1990	66	80	72	64	57	48	79	86	82	74	68	66
	1994	70	96	77	64	56	57	83	106	84	75	67	69
	1997	69	84	77	62	60	55	83	92	87	77	73	65
	1999	74	92	76	71	65	57	91	99	91	85	79	91
	2002	76	86	80	74	70	58	99	96	97	97	94	90

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

a/ Income differential among the entire employed population.
b/ Income differential among wage or salary earners.
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.
d/ The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 10

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): RATIO OF AVERAGE FEMALE INCOME TO AVERAGE MALE INCOME, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Earned income gap, by years of schooling a/						Wage gap, by years of schooling b/					
		Total	0 – 3	4 – 6	7 – 9	10 – 12	13 and over	Total	0 – 3	4 – 6	7 – 9	10 – 12	13 and over
Argentina c/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	65	…	66	…	63	51	76	…	73	…	68	62
	1994	71	…	62	65	65	63	76	…	…	…	…	…
	1997	70	73	66	67	69	55	79	60	57	69	76	64
	1999	65	64	82	58	63	51	79	63	72	58	77	66
	2002	59	62	81	55	61	46	71	76	68	55	67	60
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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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

Table 10 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): RATIO OF AVERAGE FEMALE INCOME TO AVERAGE MALE INCOME, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Earned income gap, by years of schooling a/						Wage gap, by years of schooling b/					
		Total	0 – 3	4 – 6	7 – 9	10 – 12	13 and over	Total	0 – 3	4 – 6	7 – 9	10 – 12	13 and over
Nicaragua	1993	77	95	73	71	91	58	77	86	76	72	77	65
	1998	65	68	80	67	52	53	77	72	75	64	57	67
	2001	69	85	76	60	80	52	82	76	82	66	75	62
Panama	1991	80	45	55	67	80	72	80	45	52	66	78	76
	1994	71	51	52	60	68	61	75	57	53	62	76	62
	1997	74	58	54	58	69	62	76	49	55	65	75	63
	1999	83	57	60	66	75	71	94	80	78	75	82	70
	2002	76	65	48	55	80	67	85	64	52	67	83	68
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
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
Dominican Republic	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
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
Venezuela f/	1990	66	62	58	68	61	62	79	73	68	77	78	71
	1994	70	68	62	70	63	67	84	83	75	90	71	76
	1997	69	71	61	64	60	63	83	74	73	71	75	70
	1999	74	71	65	66	63	66	91	83	73	75	77	74
	2002	76	67	67	65	70	69	99	84	80	80	79	85

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

a/ Income differential among the entire employed population.
b/ Income differential among wage or salary earners.
c/ For Argentina the categories of schooling considered are 0–6 years, 7–9 years and 10 years 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.
e/ Except in 1990, the categories of schooling considered for Mexico are 0–5 years, 6–9 years, 10–12 years and 13 years and over.
f/ The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 11

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW–PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2002
(Percentages of the 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
(Urban areas)	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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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

Table 11 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW–PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2002
(Percentages of the 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
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
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	37.9	2.6	5.8	0.6	5.2	7.0	22.5	4.3	11.2
	1994	35.4	1.7	6.0	0.3	5.7	7.3	20.4	4.4	11.4
	1997	36.6	2.0	6.4	0.8	5.6	6.4	21.8	4.8	12.6
	1999	37.3	2.1	7.2	0.7	6.5	6.1	21.9	4.6	13.5
	2002	38.4	2.3	8.8	0.7	8.1	6.7	20.6	4.4	15.2
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
(Urban areas)	1994	61.2	7.2	16.0	1.0	15.0	10.5	27.5	5.4	20.2
	1996	62.9	4.9	15.0	0.6	14.4	9.3	33.7	5.6	24.3
	1999	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
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
Dominican Republic	1992	…	…	…	…	…	3.2	32.8	5.6	23.0
	1995	…	…	…	…	…	3.8	30.6	4.9	22.1
	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
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
Venezuela h/	1990	39.2	4.9	6.7	0.2	6.5	6.3	21.3	4.1	15.3
	1994	45.3	4.2	9.7	0.5	9.2	4.0	27.4	5.9	19.0
	1997	49.4	3.6	11.3	0.5	10.8	4.3	30.2	6.1	19.9
	1999	53.7	3.9	12.6	0.5	12.1	2.0	35.2	6.7	23.7
	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

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

a/ Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons. In the cases of Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, includes establishments employing up to 4 persons.
b/ Refers to own–account workers 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 lacking 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 to those for 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.
g/ Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH). In the 1994 survey no information was given on the size of establishments employing wage or salary earners.
h/ The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 11.1

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): URBAN MALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW–PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2002
(Percentages of the 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 & 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
(Urban areas)	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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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

Table 11.1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): URBAN MALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW–PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2002
(Percentages of the 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 & construction	Commerce and services
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
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	39.3	3.4	6.5	0.6	5.9	0.6	28.8	5.4	12.7
	1994	35.7	2.1	7.0	0.3	6.7	1.2	25.4	5.6	13.0
	1997	36.6	2.7	6.7	0.7	6.0	1.0	26.2	6.0	13.2
	1999	36.7	2.5	8.1	0.7	7.4	1.0	25.1	5.5	13.7
	2002	37.8	2.9	10.3	0.7	9.6	1.0	23.6	5.9	16.2
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
(Urban areas)	1994	55.1	9.0	21.2	1.0	20.2	1.4	23.5	5.3	15.4
	1996	56.7	6.6	20.1	0.8	19.3	0.9	29.1	6.0	18.4
	1999	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
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
Dominican Republic	1992	…	…	…	…	…	0.2	36.2	5.8	24.0
	1995	…	…	…	…	…	0.2	35.1	5.3	24.4
	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
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
Venezuela h/	1990	39.1	6.5	8.2	0.2	8.0	1.9	22.5	4.0	15.7
	1994	47.8	5.8	11.3	0.4	10.9	1.5	29.2	6.5	19.0
	1997	50.4	4.8	13.8	0.4	13.4	1.5	30.3	6.8	17.4
	1999	54.6	5.2	15.2	0.3	14.9	0.1	34.1	7.2	19.9
	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

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

a/ Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons. In the cases of Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, includes establishments employing up to 4 persons.
b/ Refers to own–account workers 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 lacking 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 to those for 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.
g/ Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH). In the 1994 survey no information was given on the size of establishments employing wage or salary earners.
h/ The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 11.2

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): URBAN FEMALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW–PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2002
(Percentages of the 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 & 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
(Urban areas)	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
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
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
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
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
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
	1999	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
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
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
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

Table 11.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): URBAN FEMALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW–PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2002
(Percentages of the 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 & construction	Commerce and services
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
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	35.1	1.3	4.5	0.5	4.0	17.8	11.5	2.3	8.6
	1994	35.3	1.0	4.5	0.5	4.0	18.1	11.7	2.3	8.7
	1997	37.1	1.0	6.0	1.0	5.0	15.3	14.8	2.8	11.8
	1999	38.6	1.4	6.0	0.8	5.2	14.4	16.8	3.1	13.3
	2002	39.2	1.3	6.5	0.6	5.9	15.3	16.1	2.2	13.8
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
(Urban areas)	1994	69.9	4.7	8.5	1.0	7.5	23.3	33.4	5.6	27.0
	1996	71.4	2.5	8.1	0.4	7.7	20.8	40.0	5.1	32.4
	1999	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
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
Dominican Republic	1992	…	…	…	…	…	8.7	26.7	5.2	21.4
	1995	…	…	…	…	…	10.5	21.9	4.0	17.8
	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
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
Venezuela h/	1990	39.6	1.7	3.7	0.3	3.4	15.0	19.2	4.4	14.6
	1994	40.7	1.2	6.6	0.7	5.9	9.0	23.9	4.7	19.0
	1997	47.9	1.4	6.6	0.8	5.8	9.7	30.2	5.0	24.6
	1999	52.2	1.5	7.7	0.7	7.0	5.6	37.4	5.9	30.6
	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

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

a/ Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons. In the cases of Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, includes establishments employing up to 4 persons.
b/ Refers to own–account workers 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 lacking 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 to those for 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.
g/ Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH). In the 1994 survey no information was given on the size of establishments employing wage or salary earners.
h/ The sample design used 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

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW–PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2002
(In multiples of the respective 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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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

Table 12 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW–PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2002
(In multiples of the respective 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	
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
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	2.5	7.7	3.1	7.4	2.6	2.3	2.5	3.0	1.3
	1994	3.3	11.4	2.6	6.4	2.4	3.4	3.7	4.2	1.3
	1997	3.4	11.6	2.9	5.1	2.6	3.4	3.7	3.9	1.4
	1999	3.4	10.6	3.2	7.8	2.7	3.0	3.1	3.4	2.2
	2002	4.0	9.7	6.1	8.2	5.9	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.5
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
(Urban areas)	1994	2.7	8.3	2.1	4.7	1.9	2.3	1.9	2.4	1.2
	1996	2.4	6.8	2.2	3.7	2.1	2.3	2.2	2.5	1.1
	1999	2.3	5.7	2.2	3.8	2.1	2.0	1.9	2.1	1.6
	2001	2.1	6.2	2.0	3.1	1.9	1.5	1.4	1.6	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
Dominican Republic	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
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
Venezuela h/	1990	4.2	9.5	2.5	3.5	2.5	4.3	4.0	4.5	2.1
	1994	3.6	7.5	2.2	6.0	2.0	3.8	3.5	4.0	1.9
	1997	3.6	9.4	1.8	2.9	1.7	3.8	4.0	4.2	1.4
	1999	3.1	7.6	2.1	4.0	2.0	3.1	3.3	3.1	1.4
	2002	2.9	8.7	1.7	2.6	1.7	2.8	3.3	2.9	1.2

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

a/ Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons. In the cases of Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, 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/ Refers to own–account workers and unpaid family workers without professional or technical skills.
c/ Includes persons employed in agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing.
d/ In 1990 wage earners without a contract of employment were included in the "microenterprises" category.
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.
g/ Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).
h/ The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 12.1

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN MALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW–PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2002
(In multiples of the respective 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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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

Table 12.1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN MALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW–PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2002
(In multiples of the respective 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	
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
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	4.0	7.5	2.7	7.8	2.7	2.5	2.9	3.4	1.4
	1994	3.8	11.7	2.5	6.7	2.3	3.7	4.1	4.8	2.0
	1997	4.1	12.1	2.8	4.8	2.6	3.8	4.2	4.7	2.0
	1999	3.9	11.3	3.2	8.2	2.7	3.5	3.6	4.2	2.3
	2002	4.8	10.0	6.8	9.5	6.6	3.3	3.0	3.5	2.4
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
(Urban areas)	1994	3.5	8.4	2.2	5.3	2.0	2.8	2.5	3.0	1.9
	1996	3.1	7.0	2.3	4.0	2.2	2.9	2.7	3.3	1.7
	1999	2.8	5.8	2.1	3.7	2.0	2.3	2.1	2.6	1.7
	2001	2.7	6.5	2.0	3.6	1.9	1.9	1.8	2.1	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
Dominican Republic	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
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
Venezuela h/	1990	5.1	9.5	2.5	3.9	2.5	4.9	4.8	5.4	3.4
	1994	4.2	7.6	2.2	6.4	2.0	4.2	3.9	4.7	2.9
	1997	4.1	9.5	1.7	2.8	1.7	4.3	4.6	5.0	2.2
	1999	3.4	7.7	2.1	4.3	2.0	3.3	3.8	3.8	2.0
	2002	3.4	8.9	3.3	3.3	1.7	1.7	3.9	3.6	1.9

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

a/ Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons. In the cases of Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, 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/ Refers to own–account workers and unpaid family workers without professional or technical skills.
c/ Includes persons employed in agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing.
d/ In 1990 wage earners without a contract of employment were included in the "microenterprises" category.
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.
g/ Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).
h/ The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 12.2

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN FEMALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW–PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2002
(In multiples of the respective 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	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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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

Table 12.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN FEMALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW–PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2002
(In multiples of the respective 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	
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
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	8.4	3.1	6.7	2.6	1.6	1.1	1.8	1.3
	1994	1.9	10.1	2.9	6.0	2.5	2.3	1.9	2.5	1.2
	1997	2.4	9.3	3.2	5.5	2.7	2.3	1.8	2.5	1.4
	1999	2.5	8.5	3.5	7.1	2.9	2.0	1.5	2.1	2.2
	2002	2.5	8.8	4.4	5.9	4.2	1.6	1.5	1.6	2.5
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
(Urban areas)	1994	2.0	7.9	2.0	3.9	1.7	1.8	1.1	2.0	1.2
	1996	1.7	6.1	2.0	2.8	2.0	1.7	1.3	1.9	1.1
	1999	1.9	5.4	2.3	4.0	2.0	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.6
	2001	1.5	5.6	2.0	2.5	1.9	1.2	1.0	1.3	1.4
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
Dominican Republic	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
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
Venezuela h/	1990	2.5	9.8	2.5	3.1	2.4	2.7	2.6	2.8	1.7
	1994	2.6	6.7	2.4	5.6	2.0	2.6	2.4	2.6	1.5
	1997	2.6	8.3	1.2	3.0	1.6	3.1	2.5	3.2	1.2
	1999	2.4	6.7	2.1	3.7	1.9	2.3	2.1	2.4	1.3
	2002	2.2	7.7	1.7	2.2	1.6	2.2	2.0	2.3	1.2

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

a/ Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons. In the cases of Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, 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/ Refers to own–account workers and unpaid family workers without professional or technical skills.

c/ Includes persons employed in agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing.

d/ In 1990 wage earners without a contract of employment were included in the "microenterprises" category.

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.

g/ Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

h/ The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 13

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND AGE IN URBAN AREAS, CIRCA 1990, 1994, 1997, 1999 AND 2002 a/

Country	Sex	Age groups																								
		Total					15 – 24					25 – 34					35 – 44					45 and over				
		1990	1994	1997	1999	2002	1990	1994	1997	1999	2002	1990	1994	1997	1999	2002	1990	1994	1997	1999	2002	1990	1994	1997	1999	2002
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	Total	5.9	13.0	14.3	14.7	19.0	13.0	22.8	24.2	24.3	33.8	4.9	10.0	12.7	12.0	15.4	4.1	10.5	10.6	11.6	18.1	3.8	10.3	11.6	12.9	14.1
	Males	5.7	11.5	12.4	13.4	18.5	11.5	20.3	21.1	22.8	31.7	5.0	8.8	10.1	11.3	15.3	3.9	7.3	8.6	8.0	14.8	4.2	10.5	11.1	12.7	16.7
	Females	6.4	15.5	17.2	16.5	19.5	15.6	26.7	28.9	26.3	36.3	4.9	11.9	16.8	13.0	15.7	4.3	15.4	13.8	16.1	22.1	3.0	10.0	12.4	13.2	10.3
Bolivia	Total	9.4	3.2	3.7	7.1	6.4	17.4	5.8	6.4	15.3	11.2	8.5	2.8	3.7	6.3	7.1	5.1	2.0	2.9	3.8	4.6	6.6	2.1	2.1	3.7	3.3
	Males	9.5	3.4	3.7	6.0	5.2	18.2	6.3	5.8	12.5	9.2	7.5	2.5	3.4	4.8	4.8	5.5	2.1	3.1	2.3	3.2	8.5	2.9	2.8	4.9	4.0
	Females	9.1	2.9	3.7	8.5	7.9	16.5	5.2	7.1	18.5	13.4	9.9	3.2	4.2	8.2	9.7	4.6	1.9	2.5	5.5	6.1	3.8	0.9	1.2	1.9	2.4
Brazil	Total	4.5	7.4	8.0	11.4	10.7	8.3	14.3	15.1	21.7	20.5	4.4	6.9	7.4	10.5	10.0	2.4	4.3	5.0	7.0	6.7	1.5	2.6	3.8	5.5	5.2
	Males	4.8	6.4	6.7	9.4	8.7	8.7	12.4	12.8	18.4	17.4	4.7	5.5	5.6	8.0	7.3	2.8	3.8	4.2	5.5	5.2	2.0	2.7	3.7	5.3	5.0
	Females	3.9	8.9	10.0	14.1	13.4	7.7	17.0	18.2	26.2	24.6	3.8	8.8	9.8	13.8	13.4	1.7	5.0	6.2	9.0	8.7	0.6	2.5	4.0	5.8	5.5
Chile	Total	8.7	6.8	6.0	10.1	10.6	17.9	16.1	13.2	21.8	22.6	8.3	6.5	5.9	9.9	10.8	5.1	3.7	4.1	7.4	7.9	5.3	3.7	3.4	6.3	7.4
	Males	8.1	5.9	5.1	9.4	9.9	17.0	14.0	10.7	20.4	21.8	7.5	5.5	5.0	9.3	9.6	4.8	3.0	3.6	6.4	7.3	5.6	3.9	3.7	6.7	7.6
	Females	9.7	8.4	7.3	11.2	11.6	19.1	19.3	17.1	23.7	23.7	9.8	8.4	7.4	10.9	12.5	5.8	4.9	5.0	8.9	8.9	4.7	3.4	2.9	5.6	7.1
Colombia	Total	9.3	8.0	11.8	19.2	17.2	19.7	16.2	24.3	36.6	32.0	8.3	7.6	11.8	17.8	17.0	4.2	4.7	6.5	13.2	11.4	3.8	3.3	5.8	10.3	10.1
	Males	6.7	5.4	9.7	16.2	14.8	15.3	11.9	20.7	32.0	28.7	5.5	4.4	8.6	14.0	13.4	2.8	3.4	5.4	10.5	9.2	3.7	2.9	6.1	10.6	10.4
	Females	13.0	11.6	14.7	23.0	20.0	24.8	21.0	28.3	41.6	35.6	11.8	11.6	15.6	22.1	20.9	6.2	6.3	7.9	16.4	13.8	3.9	4.2	5.1	9.7	9.7
Costa Rica	Total	5.3	4.2	5.8	6.1	6.8	10.5	9.7	13.0	14.8	16.4	4.9	3.8	4.4	5.3	5.1	2.5	2.3	3.9	3.0	3.7	2.9	1.6	3.0	2.3	3.3
	Males	4.9	3.7	5.3	5.3	6.2	9.8	8.6	11.4	14.8	14.7	4.1	3.7	3.6	3.8	4.4	2.3	1.5	3.9	2.1	3.0	3.1	1.6	3.1	1.9	3.4
	Females	6.2	5.1	6.7	7.4	7.7	11.6	11.6	16.2	14.9	19.0	6.2	4.0	5.6	7.4	6.0	2.8	3.5	4.0	4.2	4.6	2.3	1.5	2.8	3.2	3.3
Ecuador	Total	6.1	7.1	9.2	14.2	9.1	13.5	14.9	18.9	25.9	17.4	6.4	6.6	9.7	13.6	9.2	2.7	3.9	4.7	9.0	5.9	1.3	2.7	3.8	8.3	5.2
	Males	4.2	5.7	6.9	10.5	5.8	11.2	12.7	15.1	20.0	12.0	3.2	4.4	6.4	8.0	4.7	1.7	3.1	3.6	5.5	3.1	1.3	2.9	3.4	8.6	4.3
	Females	9.2	9.2	12.6	19.5	13.9	17.2	17.8	24.5	33.9	25.5	11.3	9.8	14.3	21.3	15.3	4.5	5.2	6.3	13.6	9.8	1.4	2.2	4.6	7.7	6.7
El Salvador	Total	9.9	6.8	7.3	6.9	7.0	19.3	14.0	14.6	13.9	13.2	9.2	6.8	7.7	6.1	6.6	5.7	2.6	4.4	4.4	4.7	4.3	3.4	3.5	3.8	4.6
	Males	10.0	8.3	8.8	8.9	8.8	17.7	15.4	16.1	16.2	15.2	8.4	7.5	8.1	6.0	8.3	7.0	3.7	6.1	6.0	5.6	6.5	5.4	5.4	6.1	6.2
	Females	9.7	4.9	5.5	4.6	5.0	21.3	11.9	12.4	10.6	10.2	10.0	6.0	7.2	5.1	4.7	4.3	1.5	2.5	2.6	3.8	1.3	0.6	0.8	1.0	2.7
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	6.0	11.2	7.1	8.9	9.0	9.3	7.0	3.6	5.4	4.7	6.1	4.3	3.1	2.9	2.9	4.1	3.7	1.3	2.3	3.0	3.5
	Males	7.6	4.5	5.9	6.2	6.3	11.5	7.5	9.2	10.3	9.4	6.6	3.7	5.6	5.3	5.5	6.0	4.1	4.5	3.6	4.9	5.3	2.0	3.4	4.3	4.5
	Females	5.9	3.4	4.3	4.0	5.6	10.7	6.6	8.5	7.4	9.3	7.6	3.6	5.2	4.1	6.8	2.0	1.3	0.8	2.2	3.3	0.7	0.1	0.7	1.1	2.0
Mexico	Total	3.3	4.5	5.1	3.2	3.4	8.1	9.4	12.5	7.4	7.2	2.4	2.9	3.2	2.8	3.5	0.7	2.3	1.7	1.5	1.5	0.8	3.1	2.8	1.1	1.8
	Males	3.4	5.1	5.8	3.6	3.9	8.4	10.0	13.8	8.1	8.2	2.5	3.0	3.4	3.1	3.9	0.9	2.8	2.1	1.8	1.6	1.0	4.2	3.9	1.5	2.2
	Females	3.1	3.6	3.9	2.6	2.6	7.6	8.3	10.3	6.2	5.4	2.0	2.7	2.9	2.3	2.9	0.2	1.2	1.0	0.8	1.3	0.1	0.4	0.5	0.4	1.0
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	18.6	15.7	15.4	13.1	19.4	35.1	31.0	31.5	26.9	35.1	20.6	15.1	14.9	12.7	17.6	9.5	9.7	9.7	8.3	11.3	6.9	5.9	6.9	5.6	17.1
	Males	15.9	12.4	13.3	10.6	16.5	31.9	27.5	29.2	22.5	31.7	16.5	9.7	10.9	8.7	14.1	7.4	6.8	7.5	6.1	8.3	7.0	5.7	7.4	6.1	14.3
	Females	22.8	21.0	18.2	17.0	23.5	39.9	36.9	34.6	33.5	40.3	26.3	22.7	20.1	18.8	22.0	12.5	14.0	12.2	11.0	15.3	6.5	6.2	6.0	4.6	21.1

Table 13 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND AGE IN URBAN AREAS, CIRCA 1990, 1994, 1997, 1999 AND 2002 a/

Country	Sex	Age groups																								
		Total					15 – 24					25 – 34					35 – 44					45 and over				
		1990	1994	1997	1999	2002	1990	1994	1997	1999	2002	1990	1994	1997	1999	2002	1990	1994	1997	1999	2002	1990	1994	1997	1999	2002
Paraguay (Asunción)	Total	6.3	4.4	8.4	10.1	11.5	15.5	8.3	17.8	19.5	21.4	4.8	3.2	5.2	6.7	11.8	2.3	2.9	3.4	5.9	4.5	1.4	2.6	5.8	8.4	6.4
	Males	6.2	5.1	8.2	10.2	11.0	14.7	9.9	17.4	21.6	21.0	5.0	3.4	4.2	5.2	9.5	3.2	3.1	1.9	6.2	3.0	2.0	3.9	7.6	8.8	8.5
	Females	6.5	3.5	8.7	10.1	12.1	16.5	6.5	18.2	17.1	21.8	4.7	3.0	6.5	8.8	14.3	1.1	2.6	5.1	5.5	6.2	0.0	0.7	3.4	7.7	3.9
Peru	Total	...	...	10.7	7.3	7.2	...	...	18.2	15.3	12.4	...	...	7.4	5.5	6.4	...	...	6.0	4.1	4.7	...	...	10.5	4.5	5.6
	Males	...	...	8.1	7.0	6.8	...	...	15.3	15.3	12.6	...	...	4.8	4.7	5.2	...	...	2.6	3.8	3.9	...	...	9.0	5.0	6.0
	Females	...	...	13.8	7.7	7.6	...	...	21.3	15.2	12.2	...	...	10.3	6.3	7.7	...	...	9.7	4.5	5.7	...	...	13.0	3.7	5.0
Dominican Republic	Total	19.7	17.0	...	13.8	16.8	34.1	30.6	...	18.8	31.0	17.3	16.1	...	13.7	18.0	9.2	10.0	...	13.3	11.4	7.4	7.4	...	9.4	7.2
	Males	11.3	12.1	...	8.8	11.1	22.3	24.0	...	12.9	22.6	9.2	10.4	...	8.0	10.3	5.0	6.3	...	7.5	6.6	4.0	5.8	...	7.1	5.8
	Females	31.5	24.8	...	20.7	24.5	47.3	39.9	...	27.1	42.5	27.7	23.4	...	20.4	26.7	15.8	15.5	...	20.0	17.3	15.4	11.5	...	14	9.5
Uruguay	Total	8.9	9.7	11.4	11.2	16.9	24.4	24.7	26.3	25.8	37.9	8.2	8.4	10.5	10.0	16.4	4.3	5.5	7.1	7.2	12.1	3.5	3.8	5.3	6.1	9.6
	Males	7.3	7.3	8.9	8.6	13.4	22.2	19.8	21.8	21.4	32.0	6.0	4.9	7.5	7.2	12.7	2.5	3.4	4.4	3.7	7.8	3.0	3.4	4.4	4.9	7.7
	Females	11.1	13.0	14.7	14.5	21.1	27.5	31.5	32.7	31.9	46.1	11.0	12.8	14.3	13.5	20.9	6.4	7.8	10.2	11.1	16.8	4.4	4.5	6.7	7.7	12.1
Venezuela b/	Total	10.2	8.9	10.6	14.5	16.2	19.3	17.1	19.8	25.7	28.2	11.3	9.1	10.6	14.7	16.3	5.9	5.3	6.8	10.2	11.1	4.5	4.2	5.5	7.8	9.9
	Males	11.2	9.1	9.0	13.6	14.4	19.9	17.2	16.4	22.2	24.4	12.3	8.8	8.3	12.8	13.5	6.9	5.9	5.7	10.1	9.9	5.5	4.9	5.6	9.4	10.4
	Females	8.4	8.3	13.6	16.1	18.8	18.0	17.0	26.6	32.6	34.5	9.6	9.6	14.3	17.7	20.4	4.0	4.2	8.5	10.4	12.9	1.7	2.5	5.3	4.7	9.0

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from househod surveys in the respective countries.

a/ For the exact years of the surveys in each country, see table 11.

b/ The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 14

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND YEARS OF SCHOOLING IN URBAN AREAS, CIRCA 1990, 1994, 1997, 1999 AND 2002 a/

Country	Sex	Years of schooling																								
		Total					0 to 5					6 to 9					10 to 12					13 or more				
		1990	1994	1997	1999	2002	1990	1994	1997	1999	2002	1990	1994	1997	1999	2002	1990	1994	1997	1999	2002	1990	1994	1997	1999	2002
Argentina b/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	Total	5.9	13.0	14.3	14.7	19.0	6.8	14.0	16.8	17.0	17.1	5.9	...	16.6	17.4	20.7	3.0	15.0	14.4	14.5	21.5	...	7.7	9.4	10.2	14.3
	Males	5.7	11.5	12.4	13.4	18.5	6.1	13.1	15.6	19.4	23.5	4.7	...	15.7	15.8	20.6	3.4	12.1	9.8	12.2	18.5	...	5.9	7.6	8.1	13.4
	Females	6.4	15.5	17.2	16.5	19.5	8.5	15.8	18.7	13.5	6.5	7.4	...	18.4	20.5	20.9	2.5	19.7	21.3	17.8	25.2	...	9.5	11.3	12.0	15.1
Bolivia	Total	9.4	3.2	3.7	7.1	6.4	7.1	2.4	2.7	3.4	4.2	9.3	2.8	2.1	7.9	7.3	13.1	3.7	5.4	10.5	7.5	8.1	3.8	4.1	6.0	7.0
	Males	9.5	3.4	3.7	6.0	5.2	9.0	3.1	3.2	2.8	4.0	8.2	3.1	1.8	7.0	5.9	12.5	3.9	4.6	7.5	6.0	7.9	3.1	4.7	5.5	4.6
	Females	9.1	2.9	3.7	8.5	7.9	5.4	1.7	2.3	3.9	4.4	11.1	2.4	2.6	9.2	9.2	14.1	3.4	6.8	15.7	9.8	8.4	5.0	3.1	6.7	10.0
Brazil	Total	4.5	7.4	8.0	11.4	10.7	4.2	6.5	7.5	9.9	9.6	6.2	11.0	11.3	15.6	14.2	4.5	7.3	7.5	12.2	11.3	1.8	3.3	3.4	5.2	4.8
	Males	4.8	6.4	6.7	9.4	8.7	4.8	5.9	6.5	8.5	8.1	6.2	8.8	9.0	12.7	11.5	4.6	5.9	5.8	9.5	8.6	1.6	2.4	2.6	4.0	3.9
	Females	3.9	8.9	10.0	14.1	13.4	3.1	7.4	9.2	12.1	12.1	6.2	14.4	14.8	20.1	18.3	4.5	8.8	9.3	14.9	14.2	2.1	4.2	4.2	6.4	5.6
Chile	Total	8.7	6.8	6.0	10.1	10.6	9.3	5.9	6.7	12.8	12.4	10.1	8.1	6.7	12.2	13.2	9.2	7.8	6.6	10.2	11.4	6.3	4.4	4.0	7.1	6.6
	Males	8.1	5.9	5.1	9.4	9.9	9.3	5.8	6.8	14.0	12.8	10.3	7.4	5.9	12.1	13.2	7.9	6.5	5.2	8.7	9.7	4.9	3.3	3.4	5.7	6.0
	Females	9.7	8.4	7.3	11.2	11.6	9.2	6.2	6.6	10.7	11.5	9.5	9.6	8.1	12.5	13.0	11.7	10.2	9.1	12.5	14.1	8.0	6.0	4.8	8.8	7.4
Colombia	Total	9.3	8.0	11.8	19.2	17.2	6.6	6.2	9.3	15.3	13.1	11.3	9.7	14.5	23.2	19.3	12.4	10.2	14.7	23.2	21.1	7.4	5.2	7.6	14.1	16.1
	Males	6.7	5.4	9.7	16.2	14.8	5.1	4.7	8.7	13.8	11.4	8.2	6.3	11.5	19.2	16.9	8.1	6.5	11.4	18.6	17.6	0.6	3.4	5.9	12.4	14.5
	Females	13.0	11.6	14.7	23.0	20.0	9.0	8.5	10.4	17.4	15.4	16.3	14.9	18.6	28.2	22.2	17.6	14.6	18.4	28.2	24.9	9.1	7.3	9.6	16.0	17.6
Costa Rica	Total	5.3	4.2	5.8	6.1	6.8	6.4	5.0	5.5	9.2	9.7	6.0	5.0	7.3	7.8	8.4	5.7	4.1	6.1	4.7	6.2	3.0	2.7	3.4	2.8	3.4
	Males	4.9	3.7	5.3	5.3	6.2	6.9	4.3	4.8	6.8	11.1	5.4	3.7	6.4	7.1	7.3	4.6	4.3	5.4	3.6	4.6	2.3	2.7	3.2	2.1	2.7
	Females	6.2	5.1	6.7	7.4	7.7	5.2	6.6	7.2	13.3	7.1	7.3	7.5	8.9	9.3	10.4	7.2	3.9	7.1	6.1	8.3	3.9	2.6	3.6	3.6	4.1
Ecuador	Total	6.1	7.1	9.2	14.2	9.1	2.6	5.0	5.9	9.0	7.5	4.8	5.7	7.8	13.8	9.4	10.3	10.2	12.9	19.0	11.1	6.1	6.7	8.1	11.5	7.3
	Males	4.2	5.7	6.9	10.5	5.8	3.0	4.9	6.0	8.5	6.1	3.3	4.9	6.4	10.9	5.7	6.8	7.8	9.2	12.8	6.6	4.2	4.9	5.4	7.7	5.0
	Females	9.2	9.2	12.6	19.5	13.9	2.0	5.0	5.9	9.5	9.4	8.0	7.3	10.5	18.8	15.8	14.9	13.6	18.3	27.0	17.2	8.7	9.0	11.7	16.1	10.3
El Salvador	Total	9.9	6.8	7.3	6.9	7.0	8.1	6.0	5.3	4.9	7.1	9.9	6.8	8.0	7.4	7.0	14.6	9.2	9.6	9.3	8.7	7.6	4.9	6.4	6.1	4.4
	Males	10.0	8.3	8.8	8.9	8.8	11.0	9.2	8.8	7.8	9.9	9.1	8.1	9.4	9.4	8.9	11.8	9.6	9.8	11.0	10.1	6.9	4.7	5.5	6.5	4.5
	Females	9.7	4.9	5.5	4.6	5.0	5.2	2.6	1.6	1.9	4.3	11.2	4.8	5.8	4.7	4.2	17.8	8.7	9.3	7.3	7.1	8.6	5.2	7.4	5.7	4.2
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	6.0	5.1	3.0	4.8	4.8	4.8	7.7	5.0	5.4	6.3	6.1	9.3	4.4	6.3	4.3	7.6	6.3	2.8	3.6	4.0	5.9
	Males	7.6	4.5	5.9	6.2	6.3	7.3	3.8	6.6	7.0	5.8	8.1	5.9	6.0	6.9	6.5	8.0	3.8	5.9	4.9	7.1	5.3	2.3	3.3	3.3	5.6
	Females	5.9	3.4	4.3	4.0	5.6	1.7	1.7	2.2	2.0	3.3	6.9	3.5	4.5	5.5	5.6	10.6	5.3	6.7	3.8	8.0	7.8	3.6	4.0	5.0	6.2
Mexico	Total	3.3	4.5	5.1	3.2	3.4	1.3	3.9	3.5	2.1	1.9	4.3	5.0	5.8	2.6	2.8	3.8	4.9	5.2	3.7	3.7	2.4	2.6	4.6	3.9	4.4
	Males	3.4	5.1	5.8	3.6	3.9	1.6	5.4	4.8	3.2	2.8	4.4	5.7	6.7	3.0	3.5	4.4	5.3	5.7	4.0	4.1	2.1	2.8	4.2	3.9	4.6
	Females	3.1	3.6	3.9	2.6	2.6	0.4	1.2	1.2	0.5	0.5	4.0	3.7	4.3	1.9	1.7	2.7	4.2	4.2	3.2	3.1	3.3	5.2	5.5	3.9	4.1
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	18.6	15.7	15.4	13.1	19.4	10.7	9.6	12.1	7.2	40.3	18.4	16.0	16.6	14.2	19.1	24.9	19.7	18.2	16.2	20.2	14.8	12.5	11.3	9.6	13.2
	Males	15.9	12.4	13.3	10.6	16.5	9.6	9.6	13.6	7.1	34.1	16.5	13.2	15.6	12.4	16.9	20.5	13.9	14.4	11.7	16.2	12.9	9.9	8.2	7.1	9.9
	Females	22.8	21.0	18.2	17.0	23.5	13.9	9.3	9.1	7.7	49.7	22.5	21.6	18.4	18.0	23.4	30.4	27.7	23.5	22.7	25.5	16.6	15.1	14.2	12.0	16.1

Table 14 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND YEARS OF SCHOOLING IN URBAN AREAS, CIRCA 1990, 1994, 1997, 1999 AND 2002 a/

Country	Sex	Years of schooling																								
		Total					0 to 5					6 to 9					10 to 12					13 or more				
		1990	1994	1997	1999	2002	1990	1994	1997	1999	2002	1990	1994	1997	1999	2002	1990	1994	1997	1999	2002	1990	1994	1997	1999	2002
Paraguay (Asunción)	Total	6.3	4.4	8.4	10.1	11.5	4.4	5.2	7.8	16.3	10.3	6.4	5.2	9.4	9.8	12.5	8.4	4.5	10.6	11.1	13.8	3.7	1.3	3.4	5.3	7.8
	Males	6.2	5.1	8.2	10.2	11.0	4.2	7.6	9.3	19.8	9.5	6.7	6.2	9.0	9.8	13.9	7.9	4.1	8.8	9.9	13.9	2.9	1.1	3.4	7.1	4.9
	Females	6.5	3.5	8.7	10.1	12.1	4.7	2.5	5.9	12.0	11.0	6.0	3.8	9.8	9.7	13.7	9.1	4.9	12.9	12.8	13.7	4.8	1.5	3.5	12.0	10.8
Peru	Total	...	...	10.7	7.3	7.2	...	...	9.4	4.9	5.2	...	...	11.5	10.0	6.4	...	...	12.8	7.1	9.3	...	...	8.1	7.7	6.5
	Males	...	...	8.1	7.0	6.8	...	...	7.5	5.8	5.8	...	...	10.4	10.1	6.3	...	...	8.9	7.0	8.3	...	...	5.6	5.8	6.0
	Females	...	...	13.8	7.7	7.6	...	...	11.0	4.1	4.7	...	...	12.9	9.8	6.5	...	...	18.2	7.3	10.9	...	...	11.4	10.2	7.3
Dominican Republic	Total	19.7	17.0	...	13.8	16.8	15.6	13.6	...	12.0	12.8	19.6	18.7	...	13.5	19.1	25.2	21.4	...	16.4	19.8	16.6	13.4	...	12.9	14.5
	Males	11.3	12.1	...	8.8	11.1	7.0	10.2	...	8.5	9.4	11.1	12.8	...	8.3	12.7	15.5	14.3	...	9.1	12.6	11.2	10.9	...	9.8	9.1
	Females	31.5	24.8	...	20.7	24.5	30.5	21.3	...	18.7	19.4	34.7	29.8	...	22.4	29.1	37.2	30.5	...	25.1	28.1	21.8	16.1	...	15.8	19.6
Uruguay	Total	8.9	9.7	11.4	11.2	16.9	5.6	5.7	8.1	8.9	13.2	10.2	12.4	13.2	13.1	19.1	10.0	9.5	11.8	11.4	17.8	5.9	4.9	6.8	6.3	12.2
	Males	7.3	7.3	8.9	8.6	13.4	5.6	5.2	6.7	7.4	10.6	8.4	9.1	10.1	9.8	15.1	7.5	6.1	8.9	8.6	13.3	4.4	4.0	4.8	4.3	10.2
	Females	11.1	13.0	14.7	14.5	21.1	5.6	6.5	10.7	11.9	18.3	13.0	17.5	18.1	18.2	25.3	12.8	13.3	14.9	14.5	22.7	7.2	5.6	8.3	7.8	13.8
Venezuela c/	Total	10.2	8.9	10.6	14.5	16.2	9.7	7.9	9.4	11.7	13.4	12.1	9.8	11.0	15.5	16.6	9.3	9.1	12.7	16.2	18.0	6.1	6.7	8.4	12.7	15.7
	Males	11.2	9.1	9.0	13.6	14.4	11.4	8.2	7.9	12.2	12.7	12.9	10.4	9.5	14.8	15.1	9.7	9.0	10.6	13.7	14.9	5.6	5.9	6.6	11.2	14.1
	Females	8.4	8.3	13.6	16.1	18.8	5.4	7.1	13.4	10.6	14.9	10.1	8.5	14.3	17.0	19.4	8.7	9.2	15.5	19.7	21.9	6.7	7.8	10.4	14.0	17.1

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from househod surveys in the respective countries.

a/ For the exact years of the surveys in each country, see table 11.

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/ The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 15

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POVERTY AND INDIGENCE LEVELS, 1990–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Population below the poverty line a/					Population below the indigence line				
		Total	Urban areas			Rural areas	Total	Urban areas			Rural areas
			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas	
Argentina	1990	...	...	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	...
Bolivia	1989	...	53.1	...	...	...	...	23.2	...	...	...
	1994	...	51.6	...	...	...	...	19.8	...	...	...
	1997	...	52.3	...	...	...	...	22.6	...	...	...
	1999	60.6	48.7	45.0	63.9	80.7	36.5	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
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
Chile	1990	38.6	38.4	32.1	42.0	39.5	12.9	12.4	9.3	13.9	15.2
	1994	27.5	26.9	18.5	33.2	30.9	7.6	7.1	4.2	9.3	9.8
	1996	23.2	21.8	13.6	27.6	30.6	5.7	5.0	2.4	6.9	9.4
	1998	21.7	20.7	15.4	22.5	27.6	5.6	5.1	3.5	5.5	8.7
	2000	20.6	20.1	14.5	23.5	23.8	5.7	5.3	4.0	6.0	8.3
Colombia	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	...	50.6	39.8	53.8	...	...	23.7	17.1	25.7	...
Costa Rica	1990	26.2	24.8	22.7	27.7	27.3	9.8	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
Ecuador	1990	...	62.1	...	...	...	...	26.2	...	...	...
	1994	...	57.9	...	...	...	...	25.5	...	...	...
	1997	...	56.2	...	...	...	...	22.2	...	...	...
	1999	...	63.6	...	...	...	...	31.3	...	...	...
	2002	...	49.0	...	...	...	...	19.4	...	...	...
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
Guatemala	1998	61.1	49.1	...	...	69.0	31.6	16.0	...	...	41.8
	2002	59.9	44.3	...	...	67.8	30.3	17.0	...	...	37.2
Honduras	1990	80.5	69.8	59.2	74.4	88.0	60.6	43.2	30.3	48.9	72.8
	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
Mexico	1989	47.8	42.1	...	...	57.0	18.8	13.1	...	...	27.9
	1994	45.1	36.8	...	...	56.5	16.8	9.0	...	...	27.5
	1996	52.1	45.1	...	...	62.5	21.3	13.8	...	...	32.4
	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
Nicaragua	1993	73.6	66.3	58.3	73.0	82.7	48.4	36.8	29.5	43.0	62.8
	1998	64.0	57.0	68.9	64.0	77.0	44.6	33.9	25.8	39.5	57.5
	2001	69.3	63.8	50.8	72.0	76.9	42.3	33.2	24.3	38.9	54.9

Table 15 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POVERTY AND INDIGENCE LEVELS, 1990–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Population below the poverty line a/					Population below the indigence line				
		Total	Urban areas			Rural areas	Total	Urban areas			Rural areas
			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas	
Panama	1991	...	39.6	37.9	45.9	...	...	16.0	15.5	18.2	...
	1994	...	30.8	28.3	41.2	...	...	11.4	9.7	18.1	...
	1997	...	29.7	27.9	37.3	...	...	10.7	9.9	13.8	...
	1999	...	25.8	24.2	32.5	...	...	8.1	7.5	10.6	...
	2002	34.0	25.3	...	...	48.5	17.4	8.9	...	...	31.5
Paraguay	1990	...	...	42.2	...	...	...	...	12.7	...	...
	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
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 c/	54.8	42.0	...	...	78.4	24.4	9.9	...	...	51.3
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
Uruguay	1990	...	17.8	11.2	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	...
Venezuela b/	1990	40.0	38.8	28.8	41.4	46.5	14.6	13.3	7.9	14.7	21.7
	1994	48.7	47.1	25.8	52.0	55.6	19.2	17.1	6.1	19.6	28.3
	1997	48.1	...	...	...	...	20.5	...	...	...	...
	1999	49.4	...	...	...	...	21.7	...	...	...	...
	2002	48.6	...	...	...	...	22.2	...	...	...	...
Latin America c/	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	43.8	37.1	...	...	63.7	18.5	11.9	...	...	38.3
	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	...	...	37.9

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from househod surveys in the respective countries.

a/ Includes the population below the indigence line or living in extreme poverty.

b/ The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

c/ Figures from the Peruvian National Institute of Statistics and Informatics (INEI). Figures are not comparable with previous years owing to the change in the sample framework of the household survey. According to INEI, the new figures constitute a relative overestimation of 25% for poverty and 10% for indigence in relation to the previous methodology.

d/ Estimate for 19 countries of the region.

Table 16

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): INDIGENCE LINES (IL) AND POVERTY LINES (PL)
(In 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.	Arg$	72	144	...	...	1.0	72.0	143.9	...	...
	1997 c/	Sept.	Arg$	76	151	...	...	1.0	75.5	151.0	...	...
	1999	Sept.	Arg$	72	143	...	...	1.0	71.6	143.3	...	...
	2002	Oct.	Arg$	99	198	...	...	3.6	27.5	55.0	...	...
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
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
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
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	...	71 622	...	2 504.2	34.6	...	28.6	...
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
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	1727 500	...	...	25 000.0	34.6	69.1	...	...
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
Guatemala	1989	April	Q	64	127	50	88	2.7	23.6	47.1	18.7	32.7
	1998	Dec.97 - Dec.98	Q	260	520	197	344	6.4	40.7	81.5	30.8	54.0
	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
Mexico	1989	3rd quarter	Mex$	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
Nicaragua	1993	21 Feb.-12 June	C$	167	334	129	225	4.6	36.6	73.3	28.2	49.4
	1997	Oct.	C$	247	493	...	...	9.8	25.3	50.5	...	...
	1998	15 April - 31 Aug.	C$	275	550	212	370	10.4	26.3	52.7	20.3	35.5
	2001	30 April - 31 July	C$	369	739	284	498	13.4	27.6	55.2	21.3	37.2

Table 16 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): INDIGENCE LINES (IL) AND POVERTY LINES (PL)
(In 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			
Panama	1991	Aug.	B	35	...	27	...	1.0	35.0	...	27.1	...
	1994	Aug.	B	40	...	31	...	1.0	40.1	...	31.0	...
	1997	Aug.	B	41	...	31	...	1.0	40.6	...	31.4	...
	1999	July	B	41	...	31	...	1.0	40.7	...	31.5	...
	2002	July	B	41	...	31	...	1.0	40.7	...	31.5	...
Paraguay	1990 d/	June, July, Aug.	₲	43 242	86 484	...	...	1 207.8	35.8	71.6	...	...
	1994	Aug.- Sept.	₲	87 894	175 789	...	...	1 916.3	45.9	91.7	...	...
	1996	July- Nov.	₲	108 572	217 143	...	...	2 081.2	52.2	104.3	...	...
	1999	July- Dec.	₲	138 915	277 831	106 608	186 565	3 311.4	42.0	83.9	32.2	56.3
	2001	Sept. 00 - Aug. 01	₲	155 461	310 922	119 404	208 956	3 718.3	41.8	83.6	32.1	56.2
Peru	1997	4th quarter	S/.	103	192	83	128	2.7	42.1	84.3	31.6	55.3
	1999	4th quarter	S/.	109	213	89	141	3.5	31.2	61.2	25.5	40.5
	2001	4th quarter	S/.	117	230	102	159	3.5	34.0	66.8	29.5	46.0
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
Uruguay	1990	2nd half	NUr$	41 972	83 944	...	...	1 358.0	30.9	61.8	...	...
	1994	2nd half	Ur$	281	563	...	...	5.4	52.1	104.1	...	...
	1997	Year	Ur$	528	1 056	...	...	9.4	55.9	111.9	...	...
	1999	Year	Ur$	640	1 280	...	...	11.3	56.4	112.9	...	...
	2002	Year	Ur$	793	1 586	...	...	21.3	37.3	74.6	...	...
Venezuela	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	49 368	97 622	...	...	626.3	78.8	155.9	...	...
	2002 e/	2nd half	Bs	80 276	154 813	...	...	1 161.0	69.1	133.4	...	...

Source: ECLAC.

a/ Local currencies:
Argentina: (A) austral; (Arg$) peso
Bolivia: (Bs) boliviano
Brazil: (Cr$) cruzeiro; (R$) real
Chile: (Ch$) peso
Colombia: (Col$) peso
Costa Rica: (¢) colón
Ecuador: (S/.) sucre
El Salvador: (¢) colón
Guatemala: (Q) quetzal
Honduras: (L) lempira
Mexico: (Mex$) peso; (MN$) new peso
Nicaragua: (C$) córdoba
Panama: (B) balboa
Paraguay: (₲) guaraní
Peru: (S/.) nuevo Sol
Dominican Republic: (RD$) peso
Uruguay: (NUr$) new peso; (Ur$) peso
Venezuela: (Bs) bolívar

b/ According to the International Monetary Fund's "rf" series
c/ Greater Buenos Aires.
d/ Asunción.
e/ Nationwide total.

Table 17

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF HOUSEHOLDS BY PER CAPITA INCOME BRACKETS, EXPRESSED AS MULTIPLES OF THE POVERTY LINE, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002

Country	Year	Per capita income bracket, in multiples of the poverty line							
		0–0.5 (Indigent)	0.5–0.9	0.9–1.0	0.0–1.0 (Poor)	1.0–1.25	1.25–2.0	2.0–3.0	More than 3.0
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	3.5	10.6	2.1	16.2	7.3	22.5	18.7	35.3
	1994	1.5	6.6	2.1	10.2	7.4	16.7	19.0	46.7
	1997	3.3	7.0	2.8	13.1	7.2	19.0	17.5	43.2
	1999	3.1	8.4	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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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

Table 17 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF HOUSEHOLDS BY PER CAPITA INCOME BRACKETS, EXPRESSED AS MULTIPLES OF THE POVERTY LINE, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002

Country	Year	Per capita income bracket, in multiples of the poverty line							
		0–0.5 (Indigent)	0.5–0.9	0.9–1.0	0.0–1.0 (Poor)	1.0–1.25	1.25–2.0	2.0–3.0	More than 3.0
Panama	1991	13.9	15.5	4.2	33.6	8.5	17.0	13.7	27.2
	1994	8.7	13.2	3.3	25.2	7.7	19.2	16.5	31.3
	1997	8.6	12.2	3.7	24.6	7.5	18.8	15.4	33.7
	1999	6.6	10.9	3.3	20.8	7.7	18.3	16.3	37.0
	2002	8.0	10.5	3.0	21.4	7.5	17.5	16.8	36.8
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
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
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
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
Venezuela 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

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

a/ In Brazil 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 16. 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.

c/ The sample design used 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

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POVERTY RATES IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES, a/ URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Population	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	
					In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons b/	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	21	10	...	12 c/	15	21	6	8
	1994	13	5	...	5 c/	7	10	4	3
	1997	18	8	...	8 c/	12	18	8	6
	1999	20	10	6	9	17	22	14	8
	2002	42	27	40	31	40	43	31	19
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
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
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
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
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
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
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
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
Mexico	1989	42	33	...	37 g/	...	60	32	28
	1994	37	29	...	33 g/	...	56	27 h/	...
	1996	45	38	19	41	59	63	48	41
	1998	39	31	12	36	49	57	39	30
	2000	32	25	11	26	44	38	34	24
	2002	32	25	11	27	40	46	27	21

Table 18 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POVERTY RATES IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES, a/ **URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002**
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Population	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	
					In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons b/	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
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	40	26	12	24	38	31	42	38
	1994	31	18	6	16	30	28	26	25
	1997	33	18	6	17	27	26	32	25
	1999	26	15	5	12	24	20	24	26
	2002	25	14	5	12	15	22	27	29
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
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
Dominican Republic	2000	42	27	26	29	35	55	26	26
	2002	42	27	27	28	37	49	29	28
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
Venezuela 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

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

a/ Refers to the percentage of employed persons in each category residing in households with income below the poverty line.
b/ For Bolivia (1999), Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, this category includes establishments employing up to 4 persons only.
c/ Includes public–sector wage or salary earners.
d/ 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 5 persons includes workers who do not have such contracts.
e/ Includes wage earners in establishments employing up to 5 persons.
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.
g/ Includes wage earners in the public sector and in establishments employing up to 5 persons.
h/ Refers to all non–professional, non–technical own–account workers.
i/ The sample design used 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

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): POVERTY RATES IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES, a/ RURAL AREAS, 1990–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Population	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	
					In establishments employing more 'than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons b/	Domestic employees	Total	Agriculture, forestry and fishing
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
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
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
Colombia	1991	60	53	...	42 d/ e/	...	54	67	73
	1994	62	55	...	55 d/ e/	...	57	61	59
	1997	60	48	16	40 e/	...	48	62	67
	1999	62	50	12	41 e/	...	45	64	66
Costa Rica	1990	27	17	...	13	23	22	24	27
	1994	25	14	7	3	20	23	21	24
	1997	25	14	5	9	20	25	21	24
	1999	22	12	3	7	21	22	17	21
	2002	24	15	1	5	13	16	33	46
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
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
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
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
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	2002	49	40	6	13	16	27	60	70

Table 19 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): POVERTY RATES IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES, a/ RURAL AREAS, 1990–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Population	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	
					In establishments employing more 'than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons b/	Domestic employees	Total	Agriculture, forestry and fishing
Paraguay	1999	74	65	10	47	57	43	75	79
	2001	74	67	13	35	68	44	75	81
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
Dominican Republic	2000	55	38	33	35	44	54	39	47
	2002	51	34	29	31	44	58	34	42
Venezuela	1990	47	31	22	35	36	44	31	36
	1994	56	42	27	50	50	53	42	44

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

a/ Refers to the percentage of employed persons in each category residing in households with income below the poverty line.
b/ For Bolivia (1999), Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic and Venezuela, this category includes establishments employing up to 4 persons only.
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 5 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.
f/ Includes wage earners in the public sector and in establishments employing up to 5 persons.

Table 20

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002

(Percentages of the employed urban population living in poverty)

Country	Year	Public-sector wage earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations			Own-account workers in non-professional, non-technical occupations		Total b/
			In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons a/	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	...	53	17	12	6	10	98
	1994	...	52	22	10	6	10	100
	1997	...	49	23	11	5	12	100
	1999	7	36	25	12	7	13	100
	2002	25	26	22	9	8	8	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
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
	2002	7	29	12	15	7	17	87
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
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
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
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
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
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
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

Table 20 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002

(Percentages of the employed urban population living in poverty)

Country	Year	Public-sector wage earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations			Own-account workers in non-professional, non-technical occupations		Total b/
			In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons a/	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
Nicaragua	1993	19	17	15	9	9	15	84
	1998	...	25	18	9	5	26	83
	2001	8	22	19	6	7	26	88
Panama	1991	12	24	8	8	7	16	75
	1994	9	30	19	14	7	19	98
	1997	8	29	9	10	9	18	83
	1999	6	26	10	8	8	24	83
	2002	7	28	9	10	8	31	93
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
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
Dominican Republic	2000	13	33	10	8	7	20	92
	2002	14	30	9	8	8	23	91
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
Venezuela g/	1990	19	33	10	10	5	15	92
	1994	21	26	14	5	6	19	91
	1997	17	32	15	7	5	15	91
	1999	12	26	18	3	7	24	90
	2002	8	28	16	4	6	25	87

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

a/ For Bolivia (1999), Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, this category includes establishments employing up to 4 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 5 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.

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.

e/ Includes wage earners in establishments employing up to 5 persons.

f/ Refers to all non–professional, non–technical own–account workers.

g/ The sample design used 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

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS, 1990–2002

(Percentages of the employed rural population living in poverty)

Country	Year	Public-sector wage earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations			Own-account workers in non-professional, non-technical occupations		Total b/
			In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons a/	Domestic employees	Total	Agriculture	
Bolivia	1997	1	2	2	0	94	89	99
	1999	0	1	2	0	95	90	98
	2002	1	2	2	0	91	88	97
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
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
Colombia	1991	...	34 d/	...	2	58	35	94
	1994	...	47 d/	...	4	45	24	96
	1997	1	35 d/	...	3	57	35	96
	1999	1	31 d/	...	3	62	36	97
Costa Rica	1990	-	25	23	6	41	27	95
	1994	5	20	28	7	35	19	95
	1997	3	20	28	9	36	19	96
	1999	2	19	34	10	30	16	95
	2002	1	9	16	5	62	41	91
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
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
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
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	2002	1	5	5	2	86	68	99
Paraguay	1999	1	5	10	3	80	66	99
	2001	1	3	13	3	78	66	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
Dominican Republic	2000	7	17	8	7	59	40	98
	2002	7	15	7	8	60	43	97
Venezuela	1990	5	27	15	4	47	39	98
	1994	5	23	19	6	45	31	98

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

a/ For Bolivia (1999), Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic and Venezuela, this category includes establishments employing up to 4 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 5 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.

d/ Includes wage earners in establishments employing up to 5 persons.

Table 22

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): EXTENT AND DISTRIBUTION OF POVERTY AND INDIGENCE IN HOUSEHOLDS HEADED BY WOMEN, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002

Country	Year	Household poverty rate	Percentage of households headed by women at each poverty level				Distribution of households headed by women by poverty level			
			Total	Indigent	Non-indigent poor	Non-poor	Total	Indigent	Non-indigent poor	Non-poor
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	16	21	26	12	22	100	4.3	7.0	88.7
	1994	10	24	22	20	24	100	1.0	7.5	91.1
	1997	13	26	32	24	26	100	4.1	9.0	86.9
	1999	13	27	37	28	27	100	4.2	10.4	85.4
	2002	32	27	20	25	28	100	8.9	18.5	72.6
Bolivia	1989	49	17	23	16	15	100	30.2	25.5	44.3
	1994	46	18	20	17	18	100	18.1	27.0	54.9
	1997	44	21	24	22	19	100	22.2	30.0	47.8
	1999	42	21	24	19	21	100	19.2	23.4	57.4
	2002	45	24	24	19	26	100	17.6	22.1	60.3
Brazil	1990	36	20	24	23	18	100	16.0	25.1	58.9
	1993	33	22	23	21	22	100	12.3	20.9	66.8
	1996	25	24	24	22	24	100	7.7	15.9	76.4
	1999	26	25	24	24	26	100	6.7	18.3	74.9
	2002	27	26	27	25	27	100	8.2	18.3	73.5
Chile	1990	33	21	25	20	22	100	11.7	21.3	67.0
	1994	24	22	27	21	22	100	7.1	16.0	76.8
	1996	19	23	29	22	23	100	5.3	13.6	81.1
	1998	17	24	28	23	24	100	4.9	12.3	82.7
	2000	16	24	28	23	24	100	5.0	11.5	83.6
Colombia a/	1991	47	24	28	22	24	100	19.8	27.6	52.6
	1994	41	24	24	24	24	100	16.1	24.0	59.9
	1997	40	27	32	28	25	100	17.5	25.9	56.6
	1999	45	29	31	27	29	100	20.4	24.0	55.6
	2002	45	30	34	29	30	100	23.1	22.8	54.1
Costa Rica	1990	22	23	36	25	21	100	10.9	16.5	72.6
	1994	18	24	42	27	22	100	9.8	14.0	76.2
	1997	17	27	51	36	24	100	9.9	15.7	74.4
	1999	16	28	56	39	25	100	10.9	14.1	75.0
	2002	16	28	48	34	27	100	9.2	12.5	78.3
Ecuador	1990	56	17	22	16	15	100	28.9	31.2	39.9
	1994	52	19	23	18	18	100	27.3	28.1	44.6
	1997	50	19	24	19	17	100	23.9	31.1	45.0
	1999	58	20	23	21	18	100	30.9	31.4	37.6
	2002	43	21	26	21	20	100	20.0	26.0	53.9
El Salvador	1995	40	31	38	31	29	100	15.4	28.1	56.5
	1997	39	30	36	33	28	100	14.2	29.3	56.5
	1999	34	31	36	36	29	100	12.6	25.9	61.5
	2001	35	35	37	40	33	100	12.6	25.9	61.5
Guatemala	1989	48	22	23	21	22	100	24.2	24.3	51.5
	1998	39	24	26	21	26	100	12.9	24.8	62.3
	2002	39	22	30	21	21	100	19.8	22.7	57.5
Honduras	1990	65	27	35	21	21	100	50.4	21.1	28.5
	1994	70	25	28	25	21	100	45.8	29.2	25.0
	1997	67	29	32	28	28	100	40.3	28.6	31.1
	1999	66	30	32	30	28	100	39.4	28.7	31.9
	2002	60	31	32	31	31	100	31.7	29.0	39.3
Mexico	1989	34	16	14	14	17	100	8.2	21.9	69.9
	1994	29	17	11	16	18	100	4.0	21.3	74.7
	1996	38	18	17	15	19	100	9.8	23.0	67.3
	1998	31	19	18	16	20	100	6.3	20.0	73.7
	2000	27	20	14	16	21	100	3.4	17.5	79.1
	2002	26	21	24	22	21	100	5.4	21.4	73.1
Nicaragua	1993	60	35	40	34	32	100	36.8	27.2	36.1
	1998	59	35	39	36	30	100	34.9	30.2	34.9
	2001	58	34	37	36	32	100	30.2	30.7	39.0

Table 22 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): EXTENT AND DISTRIBUTION OF POVERTY AND INDIGENCE IN HOUSEHOLDS HEADED BY WOMEN, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002

Country	Year	Household poverty rate	Percentage of households headed by women at each poverty level				Distribution of households headed by women by poverty level			
			Total	Indigent	Non-indigent poor	Non-poor	Total	Indigent	Non-indigent poor	Non-poor
Panama	1991	34	26	34	29	24	100	18.0	22.0	60.0
	1994	25	25	35	25	24	100	12.1	16.2	71.7
	1997	25	28	37	29	26	100	11.4	16.7	71.9
	1999	21	27	45	28	26	100	10.8	14.4	74.8
	2002	21	29	44	31	27	100	12.3	14.6	73.1
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	37	20	21	23	18	100	11.2	30.5	58.3
	1994	35	23	20	26	22	100	8.4	29.3	62.3
	1996	34	27	25	26	27	100	7.4	24.7	67.9
	1999	33	27	30	23	29	100	7.7	21.9	70.4
	2001	35	31	37	29	32	100	10.6	23.7	65.7
Peru	1997	24	20	21	19	21	100	8.0	18.6	73.3
	1999	27	21	17	21	21	100	6.3	23.9	69.7
	2001	34	22	22	21	23	100	7.2	25.2	67.6
Dominican Republic	2000	39	31	48	33	26	100	27.2	22.3	50.5
	2002	38	34	54	39	27	100	25.2	25.6	49.2
Uruguay	1990	12	25	28	22	26	100	2.2	8.4	89.4
	1994	6	27	21	23	27	100	0.8	4.0	95.1
	1997	6	29	27	23	29	100	0.8	3.9	95.3
	1999	6	31	29	26	31	100	0.8	4.0	95.2
	2002	9	32	31	27	33	100	1.3	6.7	92.0
Venezuela b/	1990	33	22	40	25	18	100	19.6	25.4	55.1
	1994	41	25	34	28	21	100	18.7	30.8	50.5
	1997	42	26	28	29	24	100	18.6	28.4	53.0
	1999	44	27	34	27	25	100	23.8	24.8	51.3
	2002	43	29	35	29	26	100	24.0	24.1	51.9

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

b/ The sample design used 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

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): HOUSEHOLD INCOME DISTRIBUTION a/, NATIONAL TOTALS, 1990–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Average income b/	Share of total income of: Poorest 40%	Next poorest 30%	20% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%	Ratio of average income per capita c/ $D^{10}/D^{(1 \text{ to } 4)}$	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
Bolivia	1989 e/	7.7	12.1	22.0	27.9	38.2	17.1	21.4
	1997	5.8	9.4	22.0	27.9	40.7	25.9	34.6
	1999	5.7	9.2	24.0	29.6	37.2	26.7	48.1
	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	17.5	25.6	46.8	32.2	36.9
Chile	1990	9.4	13.2	20.8	25.4	40.7	18.2	18.4
	1996	12.9	13.1	20.5	26.2	40.2	18.3	18.6
	2000	13.6	13.8	20.8	25.1	40.3	18.7	19.0
Colombia	1994	8.4	10.0	21.3	26.9	41.8	26.8	35.2
	1997	7.3	12.5	21.7	25.7	40.1	21.4	24.1
	1999	6.7	12.3	21.6	26.0	40.1	22.3	25.6
	2002 f/	7.2	11.9	22.2	26.8	39.1	25.0	29.6
Costa Rica	1990	9.5	16.7	27.4	30.2	25.6	10.1	13.1
	1997	10.0	16.5	26.8	29.4	27.3	10.8	13.0
	1999	11.4	15.3	25.7	29.7	29.4	12.6	15.3
	2002	11.7	14.5	25.6	29.7	30.2	13.7	16.9
Ecuador f/	1990	5.5	17.1	25.4	27.0	30.5	11.4	12.3
	1997	6.0	17.0	24.7	26.4	31.9	11.5	12.2
	1999	5.6	14.1	22.8	26.5	36.6	17.2	18.4
	2002	6.7	15.4	24.3	26.0	34.3	15.7	16.8
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
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
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

Table 23 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): HOUSEHOLD INCOME DISTRIBUTION a/, NATIONAL TOTALS, 1990–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Average income b/	Share of total income of:				Ratio of average income per capita c/	
			Poorest 40%	Next poorest 30%	20% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%	$D^{10}/D^{(1 \text{ to } 4)}$	Q^5/Q^1
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	40.7	23.6	27.2
Panama f/	1991	9.5	13.3	23.9	28.6	34.2	18.3	22.7
	1997	12.0	13.3	22.4	27.0	37.3	19.6	21.6
	1999	12.2	14.2	23.9	26.8	35.1	17.1	19.1
	2002	11.9	14.2	25.0	28.2	32.7	15.0	17.9
Paraguay	1990 g/	7.7	18.6	25.7	26.9	28.9	10.2	10.6
	1996 f/	7.4	16.7	24.6	25.3	33.4	13.0	13.4
	1999	6.2	13.1	23.0	27.8	36.2	19.3	22.6
	2001	6.2	12.9	23.5	26.4	37.3	20.9	25.6
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
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
Uruguay f/	1990	9.3	20.1	24.6	24.1	31.2	9.4	9.4
	1997	11.2	22.0	26.1	26.1	25.8	8.5	9.1
	1999	11.9	21.6	25.5	25.9	27.0	8.8	9.5
	2002	9.4	21.6	25.4	25.6	27.3	9.5	10.2
Venezuela	1990	8.9	16.7	25.7	28.9	28.7	12.1	13.4
	1997	7.8	14.7	24.0	28.6	32.8	14.9	16.1
	1999	7.2	14.6	25.1	29.0	31.4	15.0	18.0
	2002	7.1	14.3	24.9	29.5	31.3	14.5	18.1

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

a/ Households arranged in order of per capita income. Table 24 presents disaggregated figures for urban and rural areas.
b/ Average monthly household income in multiples of the per capita poverty line.
c/ Households are divided into deciles (D), each of which represents 10% of total households. $D^{(1 \text{ to } 4)}$ means the 40% of households with the lowest income, and D^{10} 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/ Total urban areas.
g/ Asunción metropolitan area.

Table 24

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVELS AND DISTRIBUTION, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, a/ 1990–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Average income b/	Share of total income of: Poorest 40%	Next poorest 30%	20% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%	Average income b/	Share of total income of: Poorest 40%	Next poorest 30%	20% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%
		Urban areas					Rural areas				
Argentina c/	1990	10.6	14.9	23.6	26.7	34.8	…	…	…	…	…
	1997	12.4	14.9	22.3	27.1	35.8	…	…	…	…	…
	1999	12.5	15.4	21.6	26.1	37.0	…	…	…	…	…
	2002	8.1	13.4	19.3	25.3	42.1	…	…	…	…	…
Bolivia	1989 d/	7.7	12.1	22.0	27.9	38.2	…	…	…	…	…
	1997	7.2	13.6	22.5	26.9	37.0	3.6	9.8	19.4	28.8	42.0
	1999	7.2	15.2	24.1	28.0	32.7	3.1	6.9	21.3	33.6	38.3
	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
Chile	1990	9.4	13.4	21.2	26.2	39.2	9.7	13.8	20.4	20.6	45.1
	1996	13.5	13.4	20.9	26.4	39.4	9.4	16.8	24.3	23.4	35.6
	2000	14.1	14.0	20.9	25.4	39.7	10.6	16.9	24.5	22.4	36.1
Colombia	1994	9.0	11.6	20.4	26.1	41.9	5.7	10.0	23.3	32.2	34.6
	1997	8.4	12.9	21.4	26.1	39.5	5.3	15.4	26.3	28.2	30.1
	1999	7.3	12.6	21.9	26.6	38.8	5.6	13.9	24.7	25.9	35.5
	2002	7.2	11.9	22.2	26.8	39.1	…	…	…	…	…
Costa Rica	1990	9.6	17.8	28.7	28.9	24.6	9.3	17.6	28.0	29.9	24.5
	1997	10.5	17.3	27.6	28.4	26.8	9.6	17.3	27.9	28.9	25.9
	1999	11.9	16.2	26.8	29.9	27.2	10.9	15.8	26.7	29.3	28.2
	2002	12.3	15.5	26.2	29.3	29.0	10.8	14.4	26.6	29.2	29.8
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	…	…	…	…	…
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
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	24.0	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
Mexico	1989	9.6	16.3	22.0	24.9	36.9	6.7	18.7	26.5	27.4	27.4
	1994	9.7	16.8	22.8	26.1	34.3	6.6	20.1	25.3	27.6	27.0
	1998	8.6	17.2	22.3	25.7	34.8	6.2	18.0	23.7	26.8	31.5
	2000	9.0	17.0	23.3	26.1	33.6	7.4	15.6	21.5	24.3	38.7
	2002	8.9	17.9	24.0	27.0	31.2	6.9	18.0	23.2	26.5	32.3

Table 24 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVELS AND DISTRIBUTION, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, a/ **1990–2002**
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Average income b/	Share of total income of: Poorest 40%	Next poorest 30%	20% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%	Average income b/	Share of total income of: Poorest 40%	Next poorest 30%	20% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%
		Urban areas					Rural areas				
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	9.5	13.3	23.9	28.6	34.2	...	...	...	...	...
	1997	12.0	13.3	22.4	27.0	37.3	...	...	...	...	...
	1999	11.6	15.0	25.1	27.8	32.2	...	...	...	...	...
	2002	11.9	14.2	25.0	28.2	32.7	8.5	11.1	23.9	30.7	34.3
Paraguay	1990 e/	7.7	18.6	25.7	26.9	28.9	...	...	...	...	...
	1996	7.4	16.7	24.6	25.3	33.4	...	...	...	...	...
	1999	7.1	16.5	24.9	25.8	32.8	5.0	15.1	21.2	24.3	39.4
	2001	7.4	15.9	23.4	27.5	33.1	4.6	14.6	24.9	27.7	32.9
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	33.7	4.4	17.4	17.9	23.8	40.9
	2001	7.6	16.9	25.4	27.0	30.8	3.7	19.2	27.6	28.0	25.2
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
Uruguay	1990	9.3	20.1	24.6	24.1	31.2	...	...	...	...	...
	1997	11.2	22.0	26.1	26.1	25.8	...	...	...	...	...
	1999	11.9	21.6	25.5	25.9	27.0	...	...	...	...	...
	2002	9.4	21.6	25.4	25.6	27.3	...	...	...	...	...
Venezuela	1990	9.1	16.8	26.1	28.8	28.4	7.7	19.8	28.6	27.8	23.8

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

a/ Households in each area (urban and rural) arranged in order of per capita income.
b/ Average monthly household income in multiples of the per capita poverty line.
c/ Greater Buenos Aires.
d/ Eight major cities and El Alto.
e/ Asunción metropolitan area.

Table 25

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION a/, NATIONAL TOTALS, 1990–2002

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
Argentina c/	1990	70.6	39.1	0.501	0.982	0.555	0.570
	1997	72.1	43.4	0.530	1.143	0.601	0.607
	1999	72.5	44.2	0.542	1.183	0.681	0.623
	2002	74.0	47.9	0.590	1.603	0.742	0.702
Bolivia	1989 d/	71.9	44.1	0.538	1.528	0.574	0.771
	1997	73.1	47.7	0.595	2.024	0.728	0.795
	1999	70.4	45.5	0.586	2.548	0.658	0.867
	2002	73.6	49.6	0.614	2.510	0.776	0.865
Brazil	1990	75.2	53.9	0.627	1.938	0.816	0.790
	1996	76.3	54.4	0.638	1.962	0.871	0.762
	1999	77.1	54.8	0.640	1.913	0.914	0.754
	2001	76.9	54.4	0.639	1.925	0.914	0.760
Chile	1990	74.6	46.5	0.554	1.258	0.644	0.671
	1996	73.9	46.9	0.553	1.261	0.630	0.667
	2000	75.0	46.4	0.559	1.278	0.666	0.658
Colombia	1994	73.6	48.9	0.601	2.042	0.794	0.817
	1997	74.2	46.4	0.569	1.399	0.857	0.822
	1999	74.5	46.6	0.572	1.456	0.734	0.945
	2002 e/	74.2	47.0	0.575	1.413	0.714	0.701
Costa Rica	1990	65.0	31.6	0.438	0.833	0.328	0.539
	1997	66.6	33.0	0.450	0.860	0.356	0.535
	1999	67.6	36.1	0.473	0.974	0.395	0.573
	2002	68.5	37.1	0.488	1.080	0.440	0.646
Ecuador e/	1990	69.6	33.8	0.461	0.823	0.403	0.591
	1997	68.9	34.8	0.469	0.832	0.409	0.510
	1999	72.1	42.0	0.521	1.075	0.567	0.597
	2002	72.3	39.8	0.513	1.031	0.563	0.593
El Salvador	1995	69.7	38.4	0.507	1.192	0.502	0.695
	1997	69.9	40.2	0.510	1.083	0.512	0.583
	1999	68.5	40.6	0.518	1.548	0.496	0.798
	2001	69.1	40.8	0.525	1.559	0.528	0.779
Guatemala	1989	74.9	47.9	0.582	1.477	0.736	0.700
	1998	75.3	46.6	0.560	1.182	0.760	0.618
	2002	72.8	47.9	0.543	1.142	0.589	0.595
Honduras	1990	75.1	52.3	0.615	1.842	0.817	0.746
	1997	72.5	45.4	0.558	1.388	0.652	0.697
	1999	71.8	46.4	0.564	1.560	0.636	0.746
	2002	72.8	49.6	0.588	1.607	0.719	0.709
Mexico	1989	74.2	43.5	0.536	1.096	0.680	0.598
	1994	73.1	44.7	0.539	1.130	0.606	0.592
	2000	73.2	44.0	0.542	1.221	0.603	0.621
	2002	71.7	41.2	0.514	1.045	0.521	0.571
Nicaragua	1993	71.5	45.9	0.582	1.598	0.671	0.802
	1998	73.1	45.9	0.584	1.800	0.731	0.822
	2001	74.6	46.9	0.579	1.594	0.783	0.767
Panama e/	1991	70.3	44.2	0.545	1.312	0.577	0.656
	1997	71.8	45.6	0.552	1.362	0.632	0.673
	1999	71.4	43.8	0.533	1.223	0.558	0.629
	2002	70.3	41.1	0.515	1.217	0.488	0.640

Table 25 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION a/, NATIONAL TOTALS, 1990–2002

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
Paraguay	1990 f/	69.2	33.4	0.447	0.737	0.365	0.468
	1996 e/	72.9	37.9	0.493	0.916	0.515	0.544
	1999	72.3	46.3	0.565	1.555	0.668	0.716
	2001	72.9	44.4	0.570	1.705	0.702	0.782
Peru	1997	70.1	41.4	0.532	1.348	0.567	0.663
	1999	71.7	42.7	0.545	1.358	0.599	0.673
	2001	70.3	41.5	0.525	1.219	0.556	0.636
Dominican Republic	2000	71.6	44.3	0.554	1.250	0.583	0.635
	2002	71.6	43.0	0.544	1.216	0.570	0.637
Uruguay e/	1990	73.2	36.8	0.492	0.812	0.699	0.519
	1997	66.8	31.3	0.430	0.730	0.336	0.475
	1999	67.1	32.2	0.440	0.764	0.354	0.483
	2002	67.9	34.6	0.455	0.802	0.385	0.661
Venezuela	1990	68.0	35.5	0.471	0.930	0.416	0.545
	1997	70.8	40.7	0.507	1.223	0.508	0.985
	1999	69.4	38.6	0.498	1.134	0.464	0.664
	2002	68.7	38.8	0.500	1.122	0.456	0.866

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

a/ Calculated on the basis of income distribution per capita throughout the country. Tables 26 and 27 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/ Total urban areas.
f/ Asunción metropolitan area.

Table 26

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION, a/ URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002

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
Argentina c/	1990	70.6	39.1	0.501	0.982	0.555	0.570
	1997	72.1	43.4	0.530	1.143	0.601	0.607
	1999	72.5	44.2	0.542	1.183	0.681	0.623
	2002	74.0	47.9	0.590	1.603	0.742	0.702
Bolivia	1989 d/	71.9	44.1	0.538	1.528	0.574	0.771
	1997	72.5	43.0	0.531	1.772	0.573	0.627
	1999	70.4	40.2	0.504	1.131	0.487	0.680
	2002	74.7	46.6	0.554	1.286	0.633	0.657
Brazil	1990	74.7	52.2	0.606	1.690	0.748	0.749
	1996	75.7	53.1	0.620	1.735	0.815	0.728
	1999	76.5	53.8	0.625	1.742	0.865	0.729
	2001	76.4	53.3	0.628	1.777	0.875	0.738
Chile	1990	73.8	45.1	0.542	1.204	0.600	0.663
	1996	73.5	45.7	0.544	1.206	0.604	0.662
	2000	74.7	45.9	0.553	1.246	0.643	0.654
Colombia	1994	74.6	48.1	0.579	1.491	0.749	0.724
	1997	73.8	46.5	0.577	1.571	0.714	0.866
	1999	74.2	46.1	0.564	1.312	0.707	0.701
	2002	74.2	47.0	0.575	1.413	0.714	0.701
Costa Rica	1990	63.6	29.6	0.419	0.727	0.295	0.493
	1997	65.3	32.2	0.429	0.779	0.323	0.507
	1999	66.3	34.5	0.454	0.881	0.356	0.538
	2002	67.3	35.2	0.465	0.916	0.398	0.564
Ecuador	1990	69.6	33.8	0.461	0.823	0.403	0.591
	1997	68.9	34.8	0.469	0.832	0.409	0.510
	1999	72.1	42.0	0.521	1.075	0.567	0.597
	2002	72.3	39.8	0.513	1.031	0.563	0.593
El Salvador	1995	69.5	34.3	0.466	0.836	0.428	0.526
	1997	70.0	34.6	0.467	0.864	0.428	0.523
	1999	68.0	35.7	0.462	1.002	0.388	0.768
	2001	68.6	36.8	0.477	1.090	0.435	0.702
Guatemala	1989	72.2	45.6	0.558	1.377	0.640	0.679
	1998	74.5	40.3	0.525	0.997	0.653	0.568
	2002	71.8	42.2	0.524	1.106	0.532	0.596
Honduras	1990	73.1	46.6	0.561	1.397	0.661	0.679
	1997	71.8	40.9	0.527	1.142	0.578	0.650
	1999	70.8	41.6	0.518	1.138	0.528	0.630
	2002	72.3	42.3	0.533	1.227	0.580	0.659
Mexico	1989	75.2	42.5	0.530	1.031	0.678	0.583
	1994	73.6	41.6	0.512	0.934	0.544	0.534
	1998	73.2	41.5	0.507	0.901	0.578	0.530
	2000	72.1	38.7	0.493	0.856	0.500	0.512
	2002	71.6	31.2	0.477	0.800	0.444	0.489

Table 26 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION, a/ URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002

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
Nicaragua	1993	71.4	42.6	0.549	1.256	0.595	0.661
	1998	72.3	43.4	0.551	1.271	0.673	0.689
	2001	73.9	44.0	0.560	1.225	0.746	0.658
Panama	1991	70.3	44.2	0.545	1.312	0.577	0.656
	1997	71.8	45.6	0.552	1.362	0.632	0.673
	1999	71.4	43.8	0.533	1.223	0.558	0.629
	2002	70.3	41.1	0.515	1.217	0.488	0.640
Paraguay	1990 e/	69.2	33.4	0.447	0.737	0.365	0.468
	1996	72.9	37.9	0.493	0.916	0.515	0.544
	1999	70.0	39.1	0.497	0.997	0.490	0.575
	2000	72.0	40.2	0.511	1.081	0.549	0.638
Peru	1997	70.4	36.0	0.473	0.852	0.453	0.523
	1999	74.0	39.4	0.498	0.954	0.499	0.581
	2001	70.6	35.7	0.477	0.903	0.465	0.572
Dominican Republic	2000	71.5	43.6	0.550	1.236	0.569	0.636
	2002	71.8	44.4	0.548	1.232	0.569	0.639
Uruguay	1990	73.2	36.8	0.492	0.812	0.699	0.519
	1997	66.8	31.3	0.430	0.730	0.336	0.475
	1999	67.1	32.2	0.440	0.764	0.354	0.483
	2002	67.9	34.6	0.455	0.802	0.385	0.661
Venezuela	1990	67.7	34.4	0.464	0.903	0.403	0.538

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

a/ Calculated on the basis of income distribution per capita in urban areas.
b/ Includes individuals with zero income.
c/ Greater Buenos Aires.
d/ Eight major cities and El Alto.
e/ Asunción metropolitan area.

Table 27

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION, a/ RURAL AREAS, 1990–2002

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
Bolivia	1997	75.4	53.6	0.637	2.133	0.951	0.788
	1999	71.3	52.9	0.640	2.772	0.809	0.846
	2002	73.4	51.2	0.632	2.662	0.799	0.851
Brazil	1990	72.5	45.5	0.548	1.266	0.627	0.704
	1996	73.1	47.6	0.578	1.424	0.727	0.675
	1999	73.8	47.4	0.577	1.357	0.773	0.662
	2001	73.0	47.2	0.581	1.451	0.790	0.687
Chile	1990	79.0	47.9	0.578	1.269	0.854	0.663
	1996	73.9	36.2	0.492	0.887	0.542	0.554
	2000	74.5	38.7	0.511	0.956	0.669	0.576
Colombia	1994	69.8	45.5	0.570	2.047	0.621	0.806
	1997	73.8	46.5	0.554	1.571	0.714	0.866
	1999	72.1	39.5	0.525	1.291	0.626	0.963
	2002	...	...	...	...	...	...
Costa Rica	1990	63.3	27.9	0.419	0.771	0.301	0.518
	1997	65.7	30.4	0.426	0.757	0.316	0.498
	1999	66.8	33.0	0.457	0.895	0.377	0.551
	2002	67.5	34.6	0.481	1.056	0.436	0.658
El Salvador	1995	64.4	29.9	0.442	0.961	0.352	0.656
	1997	66.3	31.0	0.423	0.670	0.343	0.441
	1999	64.8	34.0	0.462	1.302	0.382	0.768
	2001	65.2	35.5	0.477	1.329	0.414	0.730
Guatemala	1989	72.6	37.6	0.513	1.076	0.593	0.620
	1998	75.0	40.6	0.510	0.882	0.697	0.541
	2002	72.5	36.1	0.470	0.794	0.420	0.490
Honduras	1990	73.9	45.6	0.558	1.326	0.692	0.658
	1997	70.9	38.7	0.504	1.083	0.520	0.630
	1999	69.8	39.8	0.512	1.244	0.516	0.695
	2002	71.8	42.6	0.519	1.072	0.567	0.593
Mexico	1989	68.8	33.5	0.453	0.769	0.401	0.490
	1994	69.5	34.9	0.451	0.720	0.385	0.458
	1998	70.2	41.5	0.486	0.846	0.467	0.506
	2000	75.3	46.1	0.553	1.125	0.682	0.592
	2002	72.7	39.7	0.498	0.879	0.528	0.519
Nicaragua	1993	69.2	41.6	0.536	1.348	0.553	0.790
	1998	68.2	42.4	0.558	1.765	0.598	0.819
	2001	67.6	37.9	0.506	1.367	0.503	0.734
Panama	2002	70.3	41.1	0.515	1.217	0.488	0.640
Paraguay	1999	74.1	47.1	0.570	1.389	0.839	0.684
	2001	70.6	42.4	0.548	1.483	0.752	0.750
Peru	1997	66.5	33.9	0.451	0.868	0.383	0.525
	1999	65.8	31.1	0.427	0.803	0.320	0.507
	2001	66.9	31.8	0.439	0.745	0.380	0.478
Dominican Republic	2000	70.2	37.0	0.501	0.969	0.456	0.557
	2002	67.0	34.4	0.473	0.919	0.403	0.560
Venezuela	1990	67.0	31.3	0.431	0.724	0.348	0.468

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

a/ Calculated on the basis of income distribution per capita in rural areas.
b/ Includes individuals with zero income.

Table 28

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): SCHOOL ATTENDANCE IN URBAN AREAS, BOTH SEXES, BY PER CAPITA HOUSEHOLD INCOME QUINTILE AND AGE GROUP, 1989–2002
(Percentages of the population in each age group)

Country	Year	Aged 7 to 12			Aged 13 to 19			Aged 20 to 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	99.4	99.1	100.0	83.2	76.3	96.4	40.5	21.7	61.6
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
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
Chile	1990	98.8	97.9	99.4	78.7	74.6	89.6	18.7	8.4	41.7
	1998	99.2	98.6	99.8	81.5	75.1	92.2	30.0	12.9	62.3
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	85.0	23.9	13.1	52.7
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
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
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
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
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
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	97.6	95.9	99.5	72.6	61.7	89.8	30.7	16.8	54.2
	2002	98.9	98.4	99.3	81.4	78.0	89.1	35.6	22.6	55.0
Paraguay	1994	96.0	94.5	99.2	71.2	62.0	85.3	23.6	12.0	43.0
	2000	97.7	97.4	99.9	74.1	63.8	86.8	31.9	13.7	61.5
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
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
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
Venezuela	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

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

a/ Metropolitan area.
b/ Cochabamba, El Alto, La Paz, Oruro, Potosí, Santa Cruz, Sucre, Tarija and Trinidad.
c/ Barranquilla, Bogotá, Bucaramanga, Cali, Cartagena, Manizales, Medellín and Pasto.
d/ Nationwide.

Table 29

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	7.6	77.3		15.0	…	…	…	…
	1990	3.3	78.6		18.2	…	…	…	…
	1994	3.9	77.2		18.9	…	…	…	…
	1999	2.5	40.6	41.5	15.5	…	…	…	…
	2002	2.9	35.2	44.5	17.4	…	…	…	…
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
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
Chile	1990	5.6	33.1	45.5	15.8	16.9	56.5	22.6	4.1
	1994	4.2	31.2	46.4	18.2	14.4	54.8	26.1	4.7
	2000	2.7	30.1	51.1	16.2	8.5	49.9	37.0	4.6
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	…	…	…	…
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
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	…	…	…	…
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
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
	2002	19.1	42.4	30.2	8.3	56.5	35.4	7.2	0.8
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
	2002	17.0	54.4	21.1	7.5	47.3	48.5	3.8	0.4
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
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

Table 29 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	10.6	50.9	31.1	7.5	…	…	…	…
	1990	7.3	46.7	36.8	9.3	…	…	…	…
	1994	7.9	49.0	34.8	8.3	…	…	…	…
	1997	6.2	48.1	37.1	8.6	33.2	54.2	11.4	1.3
	2001	7.3	39.0	40.7	12.9	32.0	48.8	17.2	1.9
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
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
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	…	…	…	…
Venezuela c/	1981	13.5	58.5	20.4	7.7	46.1	46.4	6.8	0.7
	1990	10.3	56.5	23.6	9.6	39.0	51.3	8.5	1.2
	1994	10.2	48.2	28.8	12.8	38.2	48.4	10.9	2.5
	1999	10.7	48.2	27.3	13.8	…	…	…	…
	2002	9.9	46.3	29.0	14.8	…	…	…	…

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

a/ Information from which the number of years of schooling may 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. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.

c/ The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 29.1

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MALE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	7.6	78.9		13.5	…	…	…	…
	1990	3.1	81.6		15.3	…	…	…	…
	1994	4.8	80.1		15.0	…	…	…	…
	1999	2.5	46.0	39.9	11.7	…	…	…	…
	2002	3.7	39.2	41.6	15.4	…	…	…	…
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
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
Chile	1990	6.0	33.5	45.6	14.9	18.8	57.0	20.5	3.6
	1994	4.5	32.1	45.6	17.8	16.2	55.5	24.1	4.1
	2000	2.8	31.0	49.7	16.5	9.5	52.4	34.5	3.6
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	…	…	…	…
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
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	…	…	…	…
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
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
	2002	14.4	45.9	30.1	9.6	51.8	40.6	6.0	1.6
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
	2002	18.4	56.1	18.7	6.8	51.2	45.4	3.1	0.3
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
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

Table 29.1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MALE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	7.7	52.3	31.2	8.8	...	...	...	...
	1990	5.6	46.6	38.8	9.1	...	...	...	...
	1994	7.4	47.5	37.2	7.8	...	...	...	...
	1997	5.3	45.8	40.1	8.7	36.5	53.2	10.0	0.3
	2001	6.5	41.9	40.3	11.3	35.0	46.1	17.7	1.2
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
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
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	...	...	...	...
Venezuela c/	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	...	...	...	...

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

a/ Information from which the number of years of schooling may 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. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.

c/ The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 29.2

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): FEMALE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	7.7	75.9		16.5	…	…	…	…
	1990	3.4	75.2		21.3	…	…	…	…
	1994	3.0	74.1		22.9	…	…	…	…
	1999	2.4	35.4	43.0	19.1	…	…	…	…
	2002	2.1	31.4	47.3	19.2	…	…	…	…
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
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
Chile	1990	5.3	32.6	45.4	16.7	14.7	55.9	24.7	4.6
	1994	3.8	30.3	47.2	18.6	12.5	54.0	28.2	5.3
	2000	2.5	29.2	52.5	15.8	7.4	47.2	39.8	5.6
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	…	…	…	…
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
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	…	…	…	…
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
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
	2002	23.4	39.2	30.3	7.1	60.8	30.7	8.3	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
	2002	15.9	52.9	23.2	8.0	43.1	51.8	4.6	0.5
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
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

Table 29.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): FEMALE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	12.4	49.9	31.0	6.7	…	…	…	…
	1990	8.7	46.7	35.1	9.4	…	…	…	…
	1994	8.3	50.2	32.8	8.7	…	…	…	…
	1997	6.9	50.1	34.5	8.5	29.6	55.2	12.9	2.2
	2001	8.0	36.6	41.1	14.3	28.2	52.4	16.6	2.8
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
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
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	…	…	…	…
Venezuela c/	1981	11.8	58.0	22.0	8.2	42.2	48.8	7.9	1.0
	1990	8.7	54.5	26.2	10.6	32.5	54.3	11.5	1.7
	1994	8.3	45.3	31.6	14.8	32.0	52.1	12.4	3.5
	1999	7.7	44.9	30.0	17.4	…	…	…	…
	2002	7.5	42.6	31.9	18.0	…	…	…	…

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

a/ Information from which the number of years of schooling may 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. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.

c/ The sample design used 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

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	21.6	67.4		11.1	…	…	…	…
	1990	12.4	69.6		18.0	…	…	…	…
	1994	10.3	70.7		19.0	…	…	…	…
	1999	8.5	38.2	30.6	22.7	…	…	…	…
	2002	7.6	37.0	29.7	25.7	…	…	…	…
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
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
Chile	1990	15.7	29.4	34.6	20.3	43.7	37.5	13.1	5.7
	1994	14.0	24.2	39.0	22.8	39.6	38.7	15.8	5.9
	2000	10.0	23.4	40.3	26.3	35.1	43.5	16.8	4.7
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	…	…	…	…
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
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	…	…	…	…
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
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
	2002	34.5	30.4	21.3	13.8	80.1	16.0	2.6	1.3
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
	2002	30.8	36.8	19.9	12.5	70.4	25.6	3.1	0.8
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
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

Table 30 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	21.6	37.5	23.3	17.6	…	…	…	…
	1990	16.9	40.5	28.1	14.6	…	…	…	…
	1994	17.9	42.1	22.9	17.1	…	…	…	…
	1997	17.0	39.0	25.5	18.5	59.5	34.1	4.8	1.7
	2001	17.5	34.6	26.7	21.3	53.8	38.1	4.3	3.8
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
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
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	…	…	…	…
Venezuela c/	1981	29.9	49.4	11.9	8.7	73.5	22.8	2.8	0.9
	1990	19.4	48.3	17.8	14.5	61.0	32.4	5.2	1.4
	1994	18.5	45.8	20.2	15.5	54.0	36.3	7.0	2.8
	1999	18.6	45.2	20.0	16.3	…	…	…	…
	2002	17.8	43.5	20.5	18.1	…	…	…	…

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

a/ Information from which the number of years of schooling may 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. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.

c/ The sample design used 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

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MALE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	20.9	66.1		13.1	…	…	…	…
	1990	11.2	70.1		18.7	…	…	…	…
	1994	9.1	71.9		19.1	…	…	…	…
	1999	8.1	39.8	31.4	20.7	…	…	…	…
	2002	8.5	39.0	28.9	23.6	…	…	…	…
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
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
Chile	1990	13.8	28.5	35.3	22.4	42.9	38.5	12.9	5.7
	1994	12.9	23.6	39.5	24.0	38.3	40.4	15.1	6.2
	2000	9.6	22.4	40.2	27.8	35.3	44.2	16.0	4.4
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	…	…	…	…
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
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	…	…	…	…
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
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
	2002	27.0	34.3	20.9	17.9	73.2	22.4	2.5	2.0
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
	2002	29.8	38.4	18.1	13.7	70.5	25.6	3.0	0.9
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
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

Table 30.1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MALE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	17.4	37.6	23.7	21.3	…	…	…	…
	1990	15.1	40.6	28.3	16.0	…	…	…	…
	1994	15.7	42.2	23.3	18.8	…	…	…	…
	1997	13.3	39.4	28.5	18.9	57.7	35.4	5.0	1.9
	2001	14.3	34.9	28.2	22.6	51.0	40.8	4.8	3.4
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
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
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	…	…	…	…
Venezuela c/	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	…	…	…	…

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

a/ Information from which the number of years of schooling may 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. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.

c/ The sample design used 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

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): FEMALE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	22.3	68.3		9.4	…	…	…	…
	1990	13.5	69.1		17.4	…	…	…	…
	1994	11.4	69.7		19.0	…	…	…	…
	1999	8.8	36.8	29.9	24.6	…	…	…	…
	2002	6.8	35.1	30.4	27.7	…	…	…	…
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
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
Chile	1990	17.4	30.1	34.0	18.5	44.5	36.4	13.4	5.8
	1994	15.0	24.7	38.5	21.8	40.9	37.0	16.5	5.6
	2000	10.4	24.3	40.4	24.9	34.8	42.7	17.6	5.0
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	…	…	…	…
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
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	…	…	…	…
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
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
	2002	41.2	27.0	21.6	10.1	86.6	9.9	2.7	0.8
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
	2002	31.6	35.5	21.3	11.6	70.4	25.6	3.2	0.8
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
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

Table 30.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): FEMALE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	25.4	37.5	22.9	14.3	...	...	...	...
	1990	18.4	40.3	27.9	13.3	...	...	...	...
	1994	19.8	42.0	22.6	15.6	...	...	...	...
	1997	20.3	38.7	22.9	18.1	61.4	32.6	4.5	1.5
	2001	20.1	34.3	25.5	20.1	56.9	35.1	3.8	4.1
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
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
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				
Venezuela c/	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	...	...	...	...

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

a/ Information from which the number of years of schooling may 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. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.

c/ The sample design used 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

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION AGED 15 OR OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	17.8	67.2		15.0	…	…	…	…
	1990	13.1	69.0		17.9	…	…	…	…
	1994	8.1	70.2		21.7	…	…	…	…
	1999	7.3	35.9	32.7	24.2	…	…	…	…
	2002	7.2	34.1	31.9	26.8	…	…	…	…
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
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
Chile	1990	12.9	26.9	36.5	23.8	36.8	40.9	15.2	7.1
	1994	11.7	22.8	40.2	25.4	34.3	40.9	17.7	7.1
	2000	8.8	22.0	42.1	27.1	32.1	42.5	20.0	5.4
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	…	…	…	…
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
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	…	…	…	…
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
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
	2002	30.1	34.2	23.2	12.5	71.0	23.6	4.1	1.3
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
	2002	28.3	40.9	19.3	11.5	65.0	31.0	3.2	0.8
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
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

Table 31 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION AGED 15 OR OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	18.7	40.8	24.8	15.7	...	...	...	...
	1990	14.7	41.6	29.3	14.4	...	...	...	...
	1994	15.7	42.1	25.8	16.4	...	...	...	...
	1997	15.0	39.8	27.9	17.3	53.8	37.9	6.4	1.9
	2001	15.3	34.4	29.1	21.2	51.0	38.5	7.2	3.2
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
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
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	...	...	...	...
Venezuela c/	1981	24.3	52.3	14.7	8.7	67.0	28.8	3.5	0.8
	1990	16.6	49.6	19.7	14.1	56.7	36.1	5.8	1.4
	1994	16.3	45.9	22.1	15.7	51.4	37.8	7.9	2.9
	1999	17.3	44.6	21.5	16.6	...	...	...	...
	2002	17.1	42.9	22.0	18.0	...	...	...	...

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

a/ Information from which the number of years of schooling may 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. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.

c/ The sample design used 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

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION AGED 15 OR OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	18.6	68.1		13.3	…	…	…	…
	1990	12.5	71.1		16.3	…	…	…	…
	1994	8.3	73.7		18.0	…	…	…	…
	1999	7.4	40.7	32.7	19.2	…	…	…	…
	2002	7.7	38.8	30.7	22.7	…	…	…	…
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
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
Chile	1990	13.2	28.7	37.3	20.8	39.2	42.0	13.8	5.0
	1994	12.2	24.2	40.7	22.8	36.4	42.0	16.0	5.5
	2000	9.6	23.3	42.0	25.1	34.9	43.6	17.6	4.0
Colombia b/	1980	46.8	25.3	15.3	12.7	…	…	…	…
	1990	29.8	28.6	25.4	16.1	…	…	…	…
	1991	36.8	25.5	22.5	15.2	78.4	13.0	7.2	1.4
	1994	33.8	24.1	27.0	15.1	77.0	12.8	8.4	1.8
	1999	31.1	22.0	30.1	16.7	73.3	13.2	10.9	2.6
	2002	31.8	19.7	28.7	19.7	…	…	…	…
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
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	…	…	…	…
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
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
	2002	26.6	37.4	21.9	14.0	68.4	26.7	3.4	1.6
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
	2002	29.8	43.1	16.6	10.5	67.1	29.9	2.4	0.6
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
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

Table 31.1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION AGED 15 OR OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	17.5	40.8	24.3	17.4	…	…	…	…
	1990	14.6	41.5	30.0	13.8	…	…	…	…
	1994	14.9	43.3	26.2	15.6	…	…	…	…
	1997	13.1	39.6	30.8	16.5	55.9	37.4	5.4	1.3
	2001	13.9	36.4	29.8	20.0	50.6	39.2	7.6	2.6
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
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
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				
Venezuela c/	1981	25.6	53.8	12.5	8.1	68.7	28.0	2.6	0.6
	1990	17.8	52.5	17.4	12.3	58.7	35.8	4.6	1.0
	1994	18.1	48.8	19.8	13.4	55.2	36.8	6.1	1.9
	1999	19.7	48.0	19.7	12.7	…	…	…	…
	2002	19.6	45.8	20.6	14.0	…	…	…	…

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

a/ Information from which the number of years of schooling may 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. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.

c/ The sample design used 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

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION AGED 15 OR OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	16.2	65.6		18.2	…	…	…	…
	1990	14.0	65.7		20.3	…	…	…	…
	1994	7.7	64.5		27.7	…	…	…	…
	1999	7.1	29.1	32.6	31.2	…	…	…	…
	2002	6.5	27.5	33.7	32.4	…	…	…	…
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
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
Chile	1990	12.3	23.5	35.1	29.2	24.8	35.2	22.5	17.4
	1994	10.6	20.3	39.3	29.8	25.2	36.1	24.8	13.9
	2000	7.5	20.0	42.2	30.4	22.2	38.6	28.5	10.6
Colombia b/	1980	47.6	25.4	17.4	9.6	…	…	…	…
	1990	26.5	27.6	29.0	16.9	…	…	…	…
	1991	33.2	22.8	26.8	17.2	69.9	14.8	12.5	2.8
	1994	29.4	21.7	31.1	17.8	63.4	14.7	18.2	3.7
	1999	27.1	20.8	33.6	18.5	57.5	15.9	20.5	6.2
	2002	27.0	18.4	31.2	23.4	…	…	…	…
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
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	…	…	…	…
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
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
	2002	34.7	30.0	24.7	10.6	76.4	17.3	5.5	0.8
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
	2002	26.2	38.0	22.9	12.8	57.7	34.7	5.9	1.6
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
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

Table 31.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION AGED 15 OR OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	20.2	40.9	25.4	13.5	...	...	...	...
	1990	14.7	41.8	28.3	15.2	...	...	...	...
	1994	16.8	40.4	25.3	17.5	...	...	...	...
	1997	17.3	40.1	24.5	18.1	48.4	39.2	8.9	3.4
	2001	17.0	32.1	28.4	22.5	51.9	37.0	6.6	4.5
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
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
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	...	...	...	...
Venezuela c/	1981	21.2	48.9	19.9	9.9	56.9	33.5	8.2	1.5
	1990	14.0	43.9	24.3	17.8	46.7	38.0	12.1	3.2
	1994	12.8	40.2	26.6	20.4	37.1	41.6	14.7	6.6
	1999	13.1	38.9	24.7	23.3	...	...	...	...
	2002	13.4	38.4	24.2	24.0	...	...	...	...

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

a/ Information from which the number of years of schooling may 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. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.

c/ The sample design used 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

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY THE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Averages)

Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Average years of schooling			Average years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	7.8	7.8	7.7	…	…	…
	1990	9.0	8.9	9.2	…	…	…
	1994	9.1	8.8	9.4	…	…	…
	1999	10.1	9.8	10.5	…	…	…
	2002	10.4	10.2	10.6	…	…	…
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
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
Chile	1987	9.9	9.9	10.0	7.4	7.1	7.6
	1990	10.1	10.0	10.2	7.9	7.6	8.1
	1994	10.4	10.4	10.5	8.2	8.0	8.4
	2000	10.6	10.6	10.7	8.9	8.7	9.2
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	…	…	…
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
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	…	…	…
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
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
	2002	8.2	8.5	7.9	4.5	4.9	4.2
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
	2002	7.7	7.5	7.9	4.7	4.4	5.0
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
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

Table 32 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY THE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Averages)

Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Average years of schooling			Average years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Panama	1979	9.2	9.0	9.3	6.9	6.8	7.0
	1991	9.6	9.2	9.9	7.6	7.3	8.0
	1994	9.6	9.3	9.9	7.6	7.3	8.1
	1999	10.0	9.8	10.3	8.0	7.6	8.4
	2002	10.2	9.9	10.5	7.4	7.3	7.5
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	6.6	6.5	6.7
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
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
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	...	...	...
Venezuela c/	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	...	...	...

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

a/ Information from which the number of years of schooling may 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. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.

c/ The sample design used 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

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY THE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Averages)

Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Average years of schooling			Average years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	7.4	7.0	7.7	…	…	…
	1990	8.8	8.9	8.8	…	…	…
	1994	9.0	9.0	9.0	…	…	…
	1999	10.2	10.1	10.3	…	…	…
	2002	10.5	10.2	10.7	…	…	…
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
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
Chile	1987	9.3	9.7	9.0	5.5	5.6	5.5
	1990	9.7	10.1	9.5	6.2	6.3	6.2
	1994	10.2	10.4	10.0	6.6	6.7	6.5
	2000	10.8	11.0	10.6	6.8	6.7	6.8
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	…	…	…
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
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	…	…	…
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
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
	2002	7.4	8.3	6.6	2.5	3.0	2.0
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
	2002	7.4	7.5	7.3	3.3	3.3	3.3
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
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

Table 33 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY THE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Averages)

Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Average years of schooling			Average years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Panama	1979	8.5	8.6	8.3	4.4	4.4	4.3
	1991	9.6	9.6	9.7	6.1	6.1	6.2
	1994	9.9	9.9	10.0	6.4	6.3	6.6
	1999	10.4	10.4	10.5	7.1	6.9	7.2
	2002	10.8	10.6	11.0	6.4	6.3	6.5
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	5.1	5.3	4.9
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
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
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	…	…	…
Venezuela c/	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	…	…	…

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

a/ Information from which the number of years of schooling may 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. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.

c/ The sample design used 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

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY THE ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION OVER 15 YEARS OF AGE, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Averages)

Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Average years of schooling			Average years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	7.4	7.0	8.2	…	…	…
	1990	8.7	8.6	8.9	…	…	…
	1994	9.3	9.0	9.7	…	…	…
	1999	10.4	10.0	11.1	…	…	…
	2002	10.7	10.2	11.2	…	…	…
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
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
Chile	1987	9.9	9.7	10.3	6.2	5.9	7.6
	1990	10.2	10.0	10.6	6.8	6.4	8.5
	1994	10.6	10.4	10.9	7.1	6.8	8.3
	2000	11.0	10.8	11.3	7.2	6.8	8.4
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	…	…	…
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
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	…	…	…
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
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
	2002	7.6	8.0	7.2	3.3	3.5	2.9
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
	2002	7.4	7.1	7.8	3.6	3.4	4.2
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
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

Table 34 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY THE ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION OVER 15 YEARS OF AGE, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Averages)

Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Average years of schooling			Average years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Panama	1979	8.9	8.6	9.5	5.0	4.7	6.8
	1991	9.9	9.2	10.8	6.4	5.8	8.6
	1994	10.2	9.6	11.0	6.6	6.0	8.6
	1999	10.6	10.1	11.5	7.1	6.5	9.0
	2002	10.7	10.3	11.3	6.3	5.9	7.3
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	5.4	5.4	5.3
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
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
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	...	...	...
Venezuela c/	1981	7.2	7.0	7.7	3.5	3.4	4.3
	1990	8.4	8.1	9.2	4.3	4.1	5.3
	1994	8.5	8.1	9.3	4.9	4.6	6.3
	1999	8.5	7.9	9.5	...	...	...
	2002	8.6	8.1	9.4	...	...	...

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

a/ Information from which the number of years of schooling may 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. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.

c/ The sample design used 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

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): CLASSIFICATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 BY EDUCATIONAL STATUS, a/ NATIONAL TOTAL, 2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Sex	Educational status											Total
			Drop-outs						Students and graduates					
			Did not enter educational system	Early drop-outs (during primary cycle)	Drop-outs at end of primary cycle	Drop-outs at beginning of secondary cycle	Drop-outs at end of secondary cycle	Drop-out subtotal	Students who are very behind	Students who are slightly behind	Up-to-date students	Graduates	Subtotal Students and graduates	
Bolivia	2002													
		Both sexes	**0.8**	21.3	7.0	6.9	10.1	**45.3**	9.1	9.7	22.4	12.6	**53.8**	100.0
		Males	**0.6**	21.1	6.4	6.4	9.6	**43.5**	8.6	11.6	23.1	12.5	**55.8**	100.0
		Females	**1.1**	21.6	7.5	7.4	10.6	**47.1**	9.6	8.0	21.6	12.7	**51.9**	100.0
Brazil b/	2001													
		Both sexes	**2.5**	16.9	3.7	1.9		**22.5**	25.6	11.6	27.0	10.9	**75.1**	100.0
		Males	**2.9**	17.4	3.3	1.7		**22.4**	29.7	11.9	24.0	9.0	**74.6**	100.0
		Females	**2.0**	16.5	4.0	2.1		**22.6**	21.4	11.3	30.0	12.8	**75.5**	100.0
Chile	2000													
		Both sexes	**0.2**	5.2	4.3	3.0	4.1	**16.6**	7.4	13.0	47.1	15.7	**83.2**	100.0
		Males	**0.2**	5.8	4.3	2.9	3.6	**16.6**	9.0	14.0	45.3	14.7	**83.0**	100.0
		Females	**0.2**	4.5	4.2	3.1	4.7	**16.5**	5.8	12.0	48.9	16.6	**83.3**	100.0
Colombia	2002													
		Both sexes	**2.0**	6.7	9.6	10.0	4.3	**30.6**	14.4	9.9	20.1	23.0	**67.4**	100.0
		Males	**2.6**	7.9	10.3	9.9	3.8	**31.9**	16.0	10.4	19.1	19.9	**65.4**	100.0
		Females	**1.5**	5.5	8.8	10.0	4.7	**29.0**	12.9	9.4	21.2	26.0	**69.5**	100.0
Costa Rica	2002													
		Both sexes	**1.3**	7.7	18.9	4.8	2.2	**33.6**	20.6	11.5	19.7	13.2	**65.0**	100.0
		Males	**1.2**	8.9	19.5	5.6	2.3	**36.3**	22.0	11.4	17.2	11.9	**62.5**	100.0
		Females	**1.4**	6.4	18.3	4.1	2.1	**30.9**	19.2	11.5	22.4	14.5	**67.6**	100.0
El Salvador b/	2001													
		Both sexes	**4.5**	28.6	6.3	1.9		**36.8**	9.5	8.7	32.4	8.0	**58.6**	100.0
		Males	**4.7**	28.4	6.9	1.6		**36.9**	11.2	9.2	31.3	6.7	**58.4**	100.0
		Females	**4.3**	28.9	5.8	2.2		**36.9**	7.9	8.2	33.5	9.2	**58.8**	100.0
Guatemala	2002													
		Both sexes	**13.7**	20.8	14.0	7.1	0.9	**42.8**	11.2	5.9	22.7	3.7	**43.5**	100.0
		Males	**9.1**	20.2	16.1	7.3	0.7	**44.3**	13.5	7.1	22.3	3.8	**46.7**	100.0
		Females	**17.8**	21.3	12.2	6.8	1.0	**41.3**	9.1	4.9	23.2	3.7	**40.9**	100.0
Honduras	2002													
		Both sexes	**8.1**	18.2	29.6	2.6	2.0	**52.4**	11.5	6.1	14.8	7.2	**39.6**	100.0
		Males	**10.1**	20.1	29.6	2.1	1.8	**53.6**	11.6	5.8	13.3	5.6	**36.3**	100.0
		Females	**6.2**	16.3	29.6	3.1	2.1	**51.1**	11.4	6.3	16.2	8.7	**42.6**	100.0
Mexico	2002													
		Both sexes	**2.6**	4.9	11.6	20.6	2.4	**39.5**	5.3	7.3	32.9	12.3	**57.8**	100.0
		Males	**1.7**	5.6	11.8	21.0	1.8	**40.2**	6.0	8.6	32.0	11.6	**58.2**	100.0
		Females	**3.5**	4.3	11.4	20.2	3.0	**38.9**	4.7	6.1	33.8	13.0	**57.6**	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 35 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): CLASSIFICATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 BY EDUCATIONAL STATUS, a/ NATIONAL TOTAL, 2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Sex	Educational status											Total
			Drop-outs						Students and graduates					
			Did not enter educational system	Early drop-outs (during primary cycle)	Drop-outs at end of primary cycle	Drop-outs at beginning of secondary cycle	Drop-outs at end of secondary cycle	Drop-out subtotal	Students who are very behind	Students who are slightly behind	Up-to-date students	Graduates	Subtotal Students and graduates	
Panama	2002													
		Both sexes	**1.6**	5.0	12.7	9.5	2.5	**29.7**	9.4	8.2	36.3	14.6	**68.5**	100.0
		Males	**1.0**	5.6	13.8	10.2	2.1	**31.7**	11.7	9.5	33.4	12.8	**67.4**	100.0
		Females	**2.3**	4.4	11.5	8.7	3.1	**27.7**	6.9	6.9	39.5	16.7	**70.0**	100.0
Paraguay	2001													
		Both sexes	**1.8**	15.1	14.5	7.4	1.5	**38.5**	6.3	6.7	37.8	9.0	**59.8**	100.0
		Males	**1.6**	17.7	13.0	8.0	1.4	**40.1**	7.5	6.3	36.9	7.5	**58.2**	100.0
		Females	**2.0**	12.1	16.2	6.7	1.5	**36.5**	4.8	7.1	38.9	10.7	**61.5**	100.0
Peru	2001													
		Both sexes	**0.9**	6.8	7.4	4.6	4.0	**22.8**	16.0	11.8	24.0	24.5	**76.3**	100.0
		Males	**0.5**	5.1	7.0	4.8	3.9	**20.8**	18.4	12.7	23.7	23.8	**78.6**	100.0
		Females	**1.2**	8.5	7.9	4.5	4.2	**25.1**	13.4	10.8	24.4	25.2	**73.8**	100.0
Dominican Republic	2002													
		Both sexes	**3.0**	11.5	2.5	0.9	1.4	**16.3**	17.9	11.8	39.6	11.4	**80.7**	100.0
		Males	**4.0**	10.8	2.5	0.9	1.0	**15.2**	23.3	12.8	35.7	9.0	**80.8**	100.0
		Females	**2.0**	12.2	2.5	0.9	1.8	**17.4**	12.0	10.8	43.9	14.0	**80.7**	100.0
Venezuela c/	2002													
		Both sexes	**1.8**	25.8	3.2	1.2		**30.2**	13.9	8.9	21.3	23.9	**68.0**	100.0
		Males	**2.2**	30.1	2.7	1.1		**33.9**	16.1	9.5	18.7	19.5	**63.8**	100.0
		Females	**1.3**	21.4	3.7	1.3		**26.4**	11.6	8.3	24.0	28.3	**72.2**	100.0

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

a/ The methodology for constructing this classification is described in ECLAC, *Social panorama of Latin America 2001–2002* (LC/G.2183–P), boxes III.1 and III.5.

b/ Since these countries' secondary cycle is only three years long, the category "Drop–outs at beginning of secondary cycle" is included in the category "Drop–outs at end of secondary cycle".

c/ Since Venezuela's secondary cycle is only two years long, the category "Drop–outs at end of secondary cycle" is limited to those who do not complete the final year of secondary school.

Table 36

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): CLASSIFICATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 BY EDUCATIONAL STATUS, a/ URBAN AREAS, 2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Sex	Educational status											Total
			Drop-outs						Students and graduates					
			Did not enter educational system	Early drop-outs (during primary cycle)	Drop-outs at end of primary cycle	Drop-outs at beginning of secondary cycle	Drop-outs at end of secondary cycle	Drop-out subtotal	Students who are very behind	Students who are slightly behind	Up-to-date students	Graduates	Subtotal Students and graduates	
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	2002													
		Both sexes	**0.2**	2.9	5.0	4.5	3.4	**15.8**	7.3	12.7	46.4	17.6	**84.0**	100.0
		Males	**0.4**	3.8	6.0	4.0	2.9	**16.7**	6.7	15.2	44.2	17.0	**83.1**	100.0
		Females	**0.0**	2.0	4.0	5.1	3.9	**15.0**	8.0	10.1	48.7	18.2	**85.0**	100.0
(Urban areas)	2002													
		Both sexes	**0.3**	3.0	6.7	4.9	2.8	**17.4**	9.4	12.7	42.0	18.1	**82.2**	100.0
		Males	**0.4**	4.1	7.9	4.8	2.4	**19.2**	9.9	14.0	40.0	16.4	**80.3**	100.0
		Females	**0.2**	1.9	5.5	4.9	3.2	**15.5**	9.0	11.4	44.1	19.7	**84.2**	100.0
Bolivia	2002													
		Both sexes	**0.3**	10.3	6.1	7.4	11.2	**35.0**	8.4	10.5	28.0	17.7	**64.6**	100.0
		Males	**0.2**	9.0	6.1	7.3	9.8	**32.2**	7.7	12.6	29.1	18.1	**67.5**	100.0
		Females	**0.4**	11.4	6.1	7.5	12.3	**37.3**	9.1	8.7	27.1	17.3	**62.2**	100.0
Brazil b/	2001													
		Both sexes	**1.8**	14.8	3.7	2.0		**20.5**	23.1	12.1	29.9	12.5	**77.6**	100.0
		Males	**2.0**	15.4	3.4	1.9		**20.7**	27.1	12.6	27.1	10.4	**77.2**	100.0
		Females	**1.6**	14.2	4.1	2.2		**20.5**	19.3	11.6	32.5	14.5	**77.9**	100.0
Chile	2000													
		Both sexes	**0.2**	3.7	3.3	2.9	4.1	**14.0**	7.0	13.1	48.9	16.7	**85.7**	100.0
		Males	**0.1**	4.4	3.3	2.8	3.4	**13.9**	8.5	14.2	47.4	15.9	**86.0**	100.0
		Females	**0.2**	3.0	3.4	3.0	4.8	**14.2**	5.5	12.0	50.4	17.5	**85.4**	100.0
Colombia	2002													
		Both sexes	**1.2**	3.5	5.8	9.7	4.4	**23.4**	13.1	10.4	23.4	28.5	**75.4**	100.0
		Males	**1.5**	3.6	6.2	9.6	4.1	**23.5**	15.1	11.5	22.7	25.6	**74.9**	100.0
		Females	**0.9**	3.4	5.5	9.7	4.6	**23.2**	11.3	9.5	23.9	31.2	**75.9**	100.0
Costa Rica	2002													
		Both sexes	**1.0**	4.6	11.8	5.3	2.4	**24.1**	22.2	13.1	22.6	17.1	**75.0**	100.0
		Males	**0.4**	5.0	12.2	6.0	2.6	**25.8**	23.4	13.8	20.1	16.5	**73.8**	100.0
		Females	**1.5**	4.2	11.4	4.6	2.2	**22.4**	20.9	12.3	25.1	17.8	**76.1**	100.0
Ecuador	2002													
		Both sexes	**1.4**	3.2	13.1	8.3	2.6	**27.2**	8.3	7.8	36.7	18.6	**71.4**	100.0
		Males	**1.7**	3.5	14.0	7.9	2.5	**27.9**	7.6	8.7	37.0	17.1	**70.4**	100.0
		Females	**1.1**	2.8	12.1	8.8	2.6	**26.3**	9.0	6.9	36.4	20.1	**72.4**	100.0
El Salvador b/	2001													
		Both sexes	**2.2**	17.4	6.0	2.5		**25.9**	7.8	8.3	43.8	12.0	**71.9**	100.0
		Males	**2.1**	16.5	6.8	2.0		**25.3**	8.8	8.8	44.1	11.0	**72.7**	100.0
		Females	**2.4**	18.2	5.4	3.0		**26.6**	6.8	7.8	43.6	12.9	**71.1**	100.0
Guatemala	2002													
		Both sexes	**6.0**	11.1	11.2	10.4	1.7	**34.4**	8.7	6.8	37.1	6.9	**59.5**	100.0
		Males	**2.8**	10.7	13.3	11.4	1.2	**36.6**	8.9	8.4	37.0	6.2	**60.5**	100.0
		Females	**8.9**	11.5	9.3	9.4	2.2	**32.4**	8.5	5.4	37.3	7.5	**58.7**	100.0

Table 36 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): CLASSIFICATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 BY EDUCATIONAL STATUS, a/ URBAN AREAS, 2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Sex	Educational status											Total
			Drop-outs						Students and graduates					
			Did not enter educational system	Early drop-outs (during primary cycle)	Drop-outs at end of primary cycle	Drop-outs at beginning of secondary cycle	Drop-outs at end of secondary cycle	Drop-out subtotal	Students who are very behind	Students who are slightly behind	Up-to-date students	Graduates	Subtotal Students and graduates	
Honduras	2002													
		Both sexes	**3.3**	9.5	22.9	3.8	2.9	**39.1**	12.0	8.6	23.5	13.5	**57.6**	100.0
		Males	**3.8**	10.3	23.5	3.5	2.9	**40.2**	12.6	8.9	23.3	11.2	**56.0**	100.0
		Females	**2.9**	8.9	22.3	4.0	2.9	**38.1**	11.6	8.4	23.6	15.4	**59.0**	100.0
Mexico	2002													
		Both sexes	**2.3**	3.1	7.3	19.5	3.1	**33.0**	5.2	7.0	36.4	16.0	**64.6**	100.0
		Males	**1.0**	3.2	7.5	20.8	2.7	**34.2**	5.8	7.7	36.3	14.8	**64.6**	100.0
		Females	**3.7**	3.0	7.1	18.2	3.4	**31.7**	4.7	6.3	36.4	17.2	**64.6**	100.0
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	2002													
		Both sexes	**0.7**	1.8	6.0	9.1	2.9	**19.8**	9.0	9.2	42.9	18.4	**79.5**	100.0
		Males	**0.7**	2.2	6.3	9.4	2.4	**20.3**	11.2	10.5	40.9	16.6	**79.2**	100.0
		Females	**0.6**	1.4	5.7	8.9	3.5	**19.5**	6.6	7.8	45.2	20.3	**79.9**	100.0
Paraguay (Asunción and Central Department)	2001													
		Both sexes	**0.4**	5.4	8.4	8.2	3.3	**25.3**	5.9	5.4	47.1	15.8	**74.2**	100.0
		Males	**0.5**	5.0	6.5	9.9	3.4	**24.8**	5.7	4.9	48.6	15.5	**74.7**	100.0
		Females	**0.4**	5.8	10.2	6.6	3.3	**25.9**	6.1	5.8	45.7	16.1	**73.7**	100.0
(Urban areas)	2001													
		Both sexes	**0.8**	6.5	9.9	8.4	2.4	**27.2**	7.0	6.1	45.1	13.9	**72.1**	100.0
		Males	**0.7**	6.4	8.9	9.1	2.3	**26.7**	8.5	6.4	44.9	12.7	**72.5**	100.0
		Females	**0.9**	6.6	10.9	7.7	2.4	**27.6**	5.5	5.8	45.3	15.0	**71.6**	100.0
Peru	2001													
		Both sexes	**0.6**	3.7	4.0	4.7	4.4	**16.8**	12.4	10.7	27.7	31.9	**82.7**	100.0
		Males	**0.4**	2.7	3.8	5.0	4.1	**15.6**	12.8	11.3	28.3	31.6	**84.0**	100.0
		Females	**0.7**	4.7	4.1	4.4	4.6	**17.8**	12.0	10.2	27.1	32.3	**81.6**	100.0
Dominican Republic	2002													
		Both sexes	**2.1**	8.0	2.0	0.9	1.5	**12.4**	13.0	11.8	44.9	15.8	**85.5**	100.0
		Males	**2.8**	7.8	2.4	1.1	1.6	**12.9**	15.7	12.5	42.4	13.9	**84.5**	100.0
		Females	**1.3**	8.3	1.7	0.7	1.3	**12.0**	10.2	11.2	47.5	17.7	**86.6**	100.0
Uruguay	2002													
		Both sexes	**0.2**	2.6	9.7	13.3	3.9	**29.5**	9.9	11.9	39.0	9.4	**70.2**	100.0
		Males	**0.1**	3.5	12.5	13.9	3.8	**33.7**	10.6	12.7	35.7	7.2	**66.2**	100.0
		Females	**0.2**	1.7	6.7	12.7	4.0	**25.1**	9.3	11.0	42.6	11.8	**74.7**	100.0
Venezuela c/	2002													
		Both sexes	**1.8**	25.8	3.2	1.2		**30.2**	13.9	8.9	21.3	23.9	**68.0**	100.0
		Males	**2.2**	30.1	2.7	1.1		**33.9**	16.1	9.5	18.7	19.5	**63.8**	100.0
		Females	**1.3**	21.4	3.7	1.3		**26.4**	11.6	8.3	24.0	28.3	**72.2**	100.0

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

a/ The methodology for constructing this classification is described in ECLAC, *Social panorama of Latin America 2001–2002* (LC/G.2183–P), boxes III.1 and III.5.

b/ Since these countries' secondary cycle is only three years long, the category "Drop–outs at beginning of secondary cycle" is included in the category "Drop–outs at end of secondary cycle".

c/ Nationwide total. Since Venezuela's secondary cycle is only two years long, the category "Drop–outs at end of secondary cycle" is limited to those who do not complete the final year of secondary school.

Table 37

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): CLASSIFICATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 BY EDUCATIONAL STATUS, a/ RURAL AREAS, 2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Sex	Educational status											Total
			Drop-outs						Students and graduates					
			Did not enter educational system	Early drop-outs (during primary cycle)	Drop-outs at end of primary cycle	Drop-outs at beginning of secondary cycle	Drop-outs at end of secondary cycle	Drop-out subtotal	Students who are very behind	Students who are slightly behind	Up-to-date students	Graduates	Subtotal Students and graduates	
Bolivia	2002													
		Both sexes	**1.7**	40.7	8.6	6.0	8.3	**63.6**	10.2	8.4	12.4	3.7	**34.7**	100.0
		Males	**1.1**	38.7	7.0	5.1	9.3	**60.1**	9.8	10.0	14.4	4.4	**38.6**	100.0
		Females	**2.4**	43.2	10.5	7.2	7.0	**67.9**	10.7	6.3	9.8	2.8	**29.6**	100.0
Brazil b/	2001													
		Both sexes	**5.6**	27.4	3.2	1.2		**31.8**	37.4	9.2	12.9	3.0	**62.5**	100.0
		Males	**6.9**	26.7	2.8	1.0		**30.5**	41.9	8.6	9.8	2.4	**62.7**	100.0
		Females	**4.1**	28.3	3.7	1.4		**33.4**	32.4	9.9	16.4	3.8	**62.5**	100.0
Chile	2000													
		Both sexes	**0.6**	13.9	10.1	3.4	4.3	**31.7**	10.0	12.3	36.3	9.1	**67.7**	100.0
		Males	**0.8**	14.4	10.3	3.5	4.8	**33.0**	12.4	13.1	33.1	7.6	**66.2**	100.0
		Females	**0.4**	13.4	9.8	3.3	3.7	**30.2**	7.5	11.4	39.7	10.7	**69.3**	100.0
Colombia	2002													
		Both sexes	**3.8**	13.7	17.7	10.6	4.0	**46.0**	17.2	8.8	13.1	11.1	**50.2**	100.0
		Males	**4.8**	16.6	18.6	10.6	3.1	**48.9**	17.7	8.4	11.7	8.6	**46.4**	100.0
		Females	**2.7**	10.6	16.8	10.7	5.0	**43.1**	16.7	9.2	14.6	13.8	**54.3**	100.0
Costa Rica	2002													
		Both sexes	**1.9**	12.2	29.4	4.1	1.9	**47.6**	18.4	9.2	15.6	7.4	**50.6**	100.0
		Males	**2.4**	14.6	30.1	4.9	1.7	**51.3**	20.0	8.1	12.9	5.4	**46.4**	100.0
		Females	**1.3**	9.6	28.7	3.3	2.0	**43.6**	16.7	10.3	18.4	9.6	**55.0**	100.0
El Salvador b/	2001													
		Both sexes	**7.4**	42.5	6.7	1.1		**50.3**	11.7	9.3	18.3	3.0	**42.3**	100.0
		Males	**7.7**	41.5	7.0	1.2		**49.7**	13.9	9.7	17.1	2.0	**42.7**	100.0
		Females	**7.1**	43.6	6.3	1.1		**51.0**	9.4	8.9	19.6	4.0	**41.9**	100.0
Guatemala	2002													
		Both sexes	**18.8**	27.2	15.9	4.9	0.3	**48.3**	12.8	5.3	13.2	1.6	**32.9**	100.0
		Males	**13.3**	26.6	17.9	4.6	0.3	**49.4**	16.6	6.3	12.3	2.1	**37.3**	100.0
		Females	**23.5**	27.7	14.1	5.1	0.3	**47.2**	9.5	4.5	13.9	1.3	**29.2**	100.0
Honduras	2002													
		Both sexes	**12.5**	26.0	35.6	1.6	1.2	**64.4**	11.0	3.7	7.0	1.5	**23.2**	100.0
		Males	**15.0**	27.7	34.4	1.1	1.0	**64.2**	10.8	3.3	5.5	1.2	**20.8**	100.0
		Females	**9.6**	23.9	37.0	2.2	1.3	**64.4**	11.2	4.2	8.7	1.9	**26.0**	100.0
Mexico	2002													
		Both sexes	**2.9**	7.8	18.3	22.3	1.4	**49.8**	5.5	7.9	27.5	6.5	**47.4**	100.0
		Males	**2.7**	9.3	18.5	21.2	0.4	**49.4**	6.2	10.0	25.1	6.6	**47.9**	100.0
		Females	**3.1**	6.3	18.0	23.4	2.4	**50.1**	4.7	5.8	29.9	6.4	**46.8**	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 37 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): CLASSIFICATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 BY EDUCATIONAL STATUS, a/ RURAL AREAS, 2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Sex	Educational status											Total
			Drop-outs						Students and graduates					
			Did not enter educational system	Early drop-outs (during primary cycle)	Drop-outs at end of primary cycle	Drop-outs at beginning of secondary cycle	Drop-outs at end of secondary cycle	Drop-out subtotal	Students who are very behind	Students who are slightly behind	Up-to-date students	Graduates	Subtotal Students and graduates	
Panama	2002													
		Both sexes	**3.3**	10.8	24.6	10.1	1.8	**47.3**	10.2	6.6	24.5	8.0	**49.3**	100.0
		Males	**1.6**	11.4	26.3	11.5	1.5	**50.7**	12.5	7.8	21.0	6.5	**47.8**	100.0
		Females	**5.4**	10.1	22.6	8.4	2.1	**43.2**	7.5	5.2	28.9	9.9	**51.5**	100.0
Paraguay	2001													
		Both sexes	**3.0**	26.2	20.4	6.1	0.3	**53.0**	5.3	7.4	28.5	2.7	**43.9**	100.0
		Males	**2.6**	30.1	17.5	6.8	0.4	**54.8**	6.5	6.3	28.1	1.8	**42.7**	100.0
		Females	**3.6**	20.7	24.4	5.3	0.2	**50.6**	3.7	9.1	29.0	4.0	**45.8**	100.0
Peru	2001													
		Both sexes	**1.4**	12.7	14.1	4.6	3.4	**34.8**	22.9	13.8	17.0	10.2	**63.9**	100.0
		Males	**0.7**	9.4	12.7	4.4	3.5	**30.0**	28.5	15.2	15.5	10.0	**69.2**	100.0
		Females	**2.2**	16.6	15.7	4.8	3.2	**40.3**	16.4	12.1	18.7	10.3	**57.5**	100.0
Dominican Republic	2002													
		Both sexes	**4.6**	17.4	3.3	0.9	1.2	**22.8**	26.4	11.8	30.5	3.8	**72.5**	100.0
		Males	**5.8**	15.5	2.8	0.6	0.0	**18.9**	35.3	13.3	25.3	1.3	**75.2**	100.0
		Females	**3.2**	19.7	3.8	1.2	2.8	**27.5**	15.3	9.9	37.1	6.9	**69.2**	100.0

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countrie

a/ The methodology for constructing this classification is described in ECLAC, *Social panorama of Latin America 2001–2002* (LC/G.2183–P), boxes III.1 and III.5.

b/ Since these countries' secondary cycle is only three years long, the category "Drop–outs at beginning of secondary cycle" is included in the category "Drop–outs at end of secondary cycle".

Table 38

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): OVERALL DROP–OUT RATE a/ AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19, 1990–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Nationwide			Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	...	...	...	36	38	33	...	...	...
	2002	...	...	...	16	17	15	...	...	...
(Urban areas)	1999	...	...	...	23	25	21	...	...	...
	2002	...	...	...	17	19	16	...	...	...
Bolivia	1999	51	49	54	45	42	47	67	64	70
	2002	46	44	48	35	32	37	65	61	70
Brazil	1990	46	49	43	40	43	37	65	67	62
	2001	23	23	23	21	21	21	34	33	35
Chile	1990	27	27	28	21	20	21	56	57	56
	2000	17	17	17	14	14	14	32	33	30
Colombia	1991	43	45	40	30	30	30	59	63	55
	2002	...	...	...	24	24	23	...	...	...
Costa Rica	1990	53	53	53	33	32	34	69	69	68
	2002	34	37	31	24	26	23	49	53	44
Ecuador	1990	...	...	...	24	28	21	...	...	...
	2002	...	...	...	28	28	27	...	...	...
El Salvador	1995	45	44	46	32	31	34	63	61	65
	2001	39	39	38	27	26	27	54	54	55
Guatemala	1998	59	59	60	40	40	41	76	73	78
	2002	49	49	50	37	38	35	59	57	62
Honduras	1990	66	69	63	49	52	46	81	84	79
	2002	57	60	54	40	42	39	74	76	71
Mexico	2000	45	45	45	35	35	36	60	59	60
	2002	41	41	40	34	35	33	51	51	52
Nicaragua	1993	44	43	45	32	31	33	65	63	67
	2001	41	46	36	31	36	25	60	62	57
Panama	1991	35	39	32	28	31	26	53	58	48
	2002	30	32	28	20	20	20	49	52	46
Paraguay (Asunción and Central Dept.)	1994	...	...	...	34	26	41	...	...	...
	2001	...	...	...	25	25	26	...	...	...
(Urban areas)	1994	...	...	...	40	36	43	...	...	...
	2001	39	41	37	27	27	28	55	56	53
Peru	1999	26	26	27	16	17	16	45	42	49
	2001	23	21	25	17	16	18	35	30	41
Dominican Republic	1997	23	25	21	19	23	17	28	28	28
	2002	17	16	18	13	13	12	24	20	28
Uruguay	1990	...	...	...	37	41	32	...	...	...
	2002	...	...	...	30	34	25	...	...	...
Venezuela	1990	44	46	41	40	42	38	65	69	61
	2002	31	35	27	...	...	...	...	...	...

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

a/ The methodology for calculating drop-out rates is described in ECLAC, *Social panorama of Latin America 2001–2002* (LC/G.2183–P), boxes III.1 and III.5.

Table 39

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): EARLY DROP–OUT RATE a/ AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19, 1990–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Nationwide			Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	...	...	...	2	2	2	...	...	...
	2002	...	...	...	3	4	2	...	...	...
(Urban areas)	1999	...	...	...	2	2	2	...	...	...
	2002	...	...	...	3	4	2	...	...	...
Bolivia	1999	21	19	24	10	8	12	48	43	54
	2002	22	21	22	10	9	11	41	39	44
Brazil	1990	40	44	38	34	36	31	61	64	58
	2001	17	18	17	15	16	14	29	29	30
Chile	1990	11	12	10	7	7	6	30	32	28
	2000	5	6	5	4	4	3	14	15	14
		5	6	4	4	4	3	14	15	13
Colombia	1991	16	18	13	7	8	7	26	30	22
	2002	...	...	...	4	4	3	...	...	...
Costa Rica	1990	12	13	11	5	5	4	18	19	16
	2002	8	9	6	5	5	4	12	15	10
Ecuador	1990	...	...	...	4	4	3	...	...	...
	2002	...	...	...	3	4	3	...	...	...
El Salvador	1995	37	36	38	23	22	24	56	54	58
	2001	30	30	30	18	17	19	46	45	47
Guatemala	1998	32	30	34	16	15	17	46	42	50
	2002	24	22	26	12	11	13	33	31	36
Honduras	1990	27	30	25	15	16	15	38	42	35
	2002	20	22	17	10	11	9	30	33	26
Mexico	2000	7	8	6	4	4	3	12	12	12
	2002	5	6	4	3	3	3	8	10	7
Nicaragua	1993	24	25	22	12	14	10	44	45	42
	2001	20	24	16	10	13	8	36	41	31
Panama	1991	6	7	5	4	5	3	11	13	9
	2002	5	6	4	2	2	1	11	12	11
Paraguay (Asunción and Central Dept.)	1994	...	...	...	7	6	7	...	...	...
	2001	...	...	...	5	5	6	...	...	...
(Urban areas)	1994	...	...	...	12	13	12	...	...	...
	2001	15	18	12	7	6	7	27	31	22
Peru	1999	8	5	10	2	1	2	18	12	25
	2001	7	5	9	4	3	5	13	9	17
Dominican Republic	1997	17	19	16	12	14	11	25	25	24
	2002	12	11	12	8	8	8	18	16	20
Uruguay	1990	...	...	...	2	3	2	...	...	...
	2002	...	...	...	3	3	2	...	...	...
Venezuela	1990	36	40	31	32	35	28	61	66	55
	2002	26	31	22	...	...	...	...	...	...

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

a/ The methodology for calculating drop–out rates is described in ECLAC, *Social panorama of Latin America 2001–2002* (LC/G.2183–P), boxes III.1 and III.5.

Table 40

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): DROP–OUT RATE AT THE END OF THE PRIMARY CYCLE a/ AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19, 1990–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Nationwide			Urban areas			Rural		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	...	...	...	20	20	20	...	...	...
	2002	...	...	...	5	6	4	...	...	...
(Urban areas)	1999	...	...	...	12	14	11	...	...	...
	2002	...	...	...	7	8	6	...	...	...
Bolivia	1999	7	7	7	6	6	6	12	12	11
	2002	9	8	10	7	7	7	15	12	19
Brazil	1990	7	7	6	7	7	6	7	8	7
	2001	5	4	5	4	4	5	5	4	6
Chile	1990	8	7	8	5	4	5	24	23	25
	2000	5	5	4	4	3	4	12	12	11
		5	5	4	3	3	3	12	12	11
Colombia	1991	18	19	17	10	9	10	32	34	29
	2002	10	12	9	6	7	6	21	24	19
Costa Rica	1990	36	35	36	19	17	20	51	52	50
	2002	21	22	20	13	13	12	34	36	32
Ecuador	1990	...	...	...	12	14	10	...	...	...
	2002	...	...	...	14	15	13	...	...	...
El Salvador	1995	11	11	11	10	10	9	14	14	14
	2001	9	10	9	8	8	7	13	14	13
Guatemala	1998	29	31	27	16	16	17	46	48	43
	2002	21	23	20	14	15	12	29	30	29
Honduras	1990	46	49	44	31	35	28	65	67	64
	2002	40	42	38	26	27	25	58	60	56
Mexico	2000	16	15	16	10	10	11	24	24	25
	2002	13	13	12	8	8	8	20	21	20
Nicaragua	1993	16	17	15	12	14	11	25	25	26
	2001	14	16	13	10	12	9	24	24	24
Panama	1991	19	22	15	12	15	10	36	41	30
	2002	14	15	12	6	6	6	29	30	27
Paraguay (Asunción and Central Dept.)	1994	...	...	...	15	7	20	...	...	...
	2001	...	...	...	9	7	11	...	...	...
(Urban areas)	1994	...	...	...	17	12	20	...	...	...
	2001	17	16	19	11	10	12	29	26	32
Peru	1999	9	9	9	4	3	4	21	20	22
	2001	8	7	9	4	4	4	16	14	19
Dominican Republic	1997	3	4	3	4	5	4	2	2	3
	2002	3	3	3	2	3	2	4	4	5
Uruguay	1990	...	...	...	13	14	12	...	...	...
	2002	...	...	...	10	13	7	...	...	...
Venezuela	1990	5	4	5	5	4	5	5	4	5
	2002	4	4	5	...	...	...	...	...	...

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

a/ The methodology for calculating drop–out rates is described in ECLAC, *Social panorama of Latin America 2001–2002* (LC/G.2183–P), boxes III.1 and III.5.

Table 41

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): DROP–OUT RATE DURING THE SECONDARY CYCLE a/ AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19, 1990–2002
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Nationwide			Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	...	...	...	17	20	15	...	...	...
	2002	...	...	...	9	8	10	...	...	...
(Urban areas)	1999	...	...	...	10	10	10	...	...	...
	2002	...	...	...	9	8	9	...	...	...
Bolivia	1999	34	32	35	35	33	37	27	27	27
	2002	24	22	26	22	20	24	29	27	32
Brazil	1990	3	2	3	3	3	3	1	2	1
	2001	2	2	3	3	2	3	2	2	2
Chile	1990	11	11	12	11	10	11	19	18	19
	2000	8	7	9	8	7	8	10	11	9
Colombia	1991	17	17	17	16	16	16	19	20	19
	2002	...	...	...	16	16	16	...	...	...
Costa Rica	1990	17	16	18	14	14	13	22	21	24
	2002	10	11	8	9	11	8	11	13	9
Ecuador	1990	...	...	...	11	13	9	...	...	...
	2002	...	...	...	13	13	14	...	...	...
El Salvador	1995	3	2	3	3	2	4	2	1	3
	2001	3	3	4	3	3	4	3	3	2
Guatemala	1998	16	15	17	15	16	15	17	13	23
	2002	15	15	16	17	17	16	14	12	16
Honduras	1990	13	14	12	12	12	12	14	17	12
	2002	10	10	11	10	10	10	11	9	12
Mexico	2000	30	29	30	25	24	26	39	39	40
	2002	28	28	29	26	27	25	33	31	36
Nicaragua	1993	13	8	18	12	7	16	17	10	23
	2001	15	16	13	14	17	12	16	14	19
Panama	1991	16	16	15	15	15	15	19	20	18
	2002	15	15	14	13	13	13	19	21	17
Paraguay (Asunción and Central Dept.)	1994	...	...	...	18	15	20	...	...	...
	2001	...	...	...	13	15	12	...	...	...
(Urban areas)	1994	...	...	...	18	16	19	...	...	...
	2001	13	14	12	13	14	12	13	14	11
Peru	1999	12	14	11	11	13	10	15	17	13
	2001	10	10	10	10	10	10	11	10	12
Dominican Republic	1997	3	4	3	4	6	3	2	2	3
	2002	3	2	3	3	3	2	3	1	5
Uruguay	1990	...	...	...	25	30	21	...	...	...
	2002	...	...	...	20	21	18	...	...	...
Venezuela	1990	8	6	9	8	6	9	7	5	9
	2002	2	2	2	...	...	...	...	...	...

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

a/ The methodology for calculating drop–out rates is described in ECLAC, *Social panorama of Latin America 2001–2002* (LC/G.2183–P), boxes III.1 and III.5.

Table 42

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MONTHLY LABOUR INCOME CAPACITY EQUIVALENT (CEMIT) a/ OF 15– TO 24–YEAR–OLDS WHO WORK 20 HOURS OR MORE PER WEEK, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Averages)

Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Average CEMIT			Average CEMIT		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	5.1	5.3	4.8	…	…	…
	1990	2.7	2.6	2.7	…	…	…
	1994	5.2	5.2	5.2	…	…	…
	1999	4.1	3.9	4.4	…	…	…
	2002	2.6	2.6	2.6	…	…	…
Bolivia	1989	2.4	2.8	2.0	…	…	…
	1994	2.0	2.3	1.6	…	…	…
	1999	2.4	2.6	2.1	2.1	2.3	1.3
	2002	2.1	2.2	2.0	2.1	2.2	1.8
Brazil	1979	2.8	3.1	2.2	1.8	2.0	1.5
	1990	2.3	2.5	2.0	2.1	2.2	1.7
	1993	2.3	2.5	2.1	1.8	1.9	1.5
	1999	2.4	2.6	2.3	2.0	2.1	1.8
	2001	2.5	2.5	2.4	1.9	2.0	1.8
Chile	1990	2.2	2.3	2.0	2.3	2.4	2.3
	1994	3.1	3.3	2.8	2.9	2.9	2.7
	1998	3.5	3.5	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.2
	2000	3.5	3.6	3.2	3.5	3.5	3.4
Colombia b/	1980	2.2	2.3	2.2	…	…	…
	1990	2.3	2.3	2.2	…	…	…
	1991	1.8	1.9	1.7	2.2	2.4	1.7
	1994	2.1	2.1	2.1	1.9	2.0	1.7
	1999	2.2	2.1	2.3	2.8	2.9	2.4
	2002	2.0	1.9	2.1	…	…	…
Costa Rica	1981	3.8	3.7	4.0	3.3	3.4	2.8
	1990	3.5	3.6	3.4	4.2	4.3	3.6
	1994	3.6	3.7	3.4	4.2	4.4	3.7
	1999	3.9	3.9	3.9	4.5	4.6	4.4
	2002	4.4	4.5	4.2	5.1	5.2	4.8
Ecuador	1990	2.2	2.3	2.0	…	…	…
	1994	2.1	2.3	1.9	…	…	…
	1999	1.7	1.8	1.7	…	…	…
	2002	2.3	2.4	2.2	…	…	…
El Salvador	1997	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.5	2.6	2.4
	1999	2.8	2.9	2.5	3.1	3.2	2.9
	2001	2.8	2.9	2.6	3.1	3.2	2.8
Guatemala	1989	2.3	2.5	2.1	2.2	2.2	1.9
	1998	2.0	2.1	2.0	1.5	1.6	1.1
	2002	2.2	2.3	2.1	2.1	2.2	1.8
Honduras	1990	1.6	1.8	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4
	1994	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.7	1.7	1.5
	1999	1.5	1.6	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.7
	2002	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.2	1.1	1.8
Mexico	1984	3.2	3.1	3.3	2.6	2.6	2.8
	1989	2.4	2.6	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.7
	1994	2.0	2.1	1.9	2.0	2.2	1.6
	1998	1.7	1.4	2.1	1.1	1.0	1.5
	2000	2.1	2.2	1.9	1.9	2.0	1.7
	2002	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.7	1.8	1.5
Nicaragua	1993	2.6	2.4	2.8	2.3	2.2	2.9
	1998	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.9	2.0	1.8
	2001	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.0	2.1

Table 42 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MONTHLY LABOUR INCOME CAPACITY EQUIVALENT (CEMIT) a/ OF 15– TO 24–YEAR–OLDS WHO WORK 20 HOURS OR MORE PER WEEK, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Averages)

Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Average CEMIT			Average CEMIT		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Panama	1979	3.9	4.3	3.4	…	…	…
	1991	2.8	3.1	2.3	…	…	…
	1994	2.8	2.9	2.4	…	…	…
	1999	3.8	3.7	3.8	…	…	…
	2002	4.3	4.8	3.5	6.1	6.7	3.1
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	1.4	1.7	1.1	…	…	…
	1990	1.6	1.9	1.2	…	…	…
	1994	2.1	2.4	1.8	…	…	…
	1999	1.6	1.5	1.8	…	…	…
	2001	2.0	2.1	2.0	1.7	1.6	1.8
Peru	1997	2.1	2.3	2.0	1.9	2.0	1.7
	1999	2.1	2.2	2.0	1.8	1.9	1.3
	2001	1.9	2.0	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.4
Dominican Republic	1997	3.2	3.1	3.3	4.0	4.2	3.5
	2002	2.8	2.8	2.7	3.1	3.3	2.7
Uruguay	1981	3.1	3.3	2.8	…	…	…
	1990	2.3	2.4	2.1	…	…	…
	1994	2.8	2.9	2.7	…	…	…
	1999	3.2	3.3	3.0	…	…	…
	2002	2.6	2.5	2.6	…	…	…
Venezuela c/	1981	5.7	5.9	5.3	5.9	6.0	5.3
	1990	3.3	3.4	2.9	3.2	3.3	2.9
	1994	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.8	3.0	2.2
	1999	2.6	2.6	2.6	…	…	…
	2002	2.5	2.5	2.5	…	…	…

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

a/ Represents monthly income calculated on the basis of value per hour worked for a 44–hour work week and expressed in multiples of the poverty line. Does not include unpaid family workers.

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. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.

c/ The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 43

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MONTHLY LABOUR INCOME CAPACITY EQUIVALENT (CEMIT) a/ OF 25– TO 59–YEAR–OLDS WHO WORK 20 HOURS OR MORE PER WEEK, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Averages)

Country	Year	Urban areas					Rural areas				
		Promedio de CEMIT					Promedio de CEMIT				
		Total	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	Total	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	9.0	5.7	7.4	12.2	16.3	…	…	…	…	…
	1990	4.6	2.9	3.4	4.6	7.9	…	…	…	…	…
	1994	9.7	6.0	6.8	10.0	16.4	…	…	…	…	…
	1999	7.6	4.2	4.6	7.2	12.6	…	…	…	…	…
	2002	5.6	2.5	3.2	4.5	9.6	…	…	…	…	…
Bolivia	1989	4.8	3.2	3.6	4.7	7.6	…	…	…	…	…
	1994	4.6	2.5	3.2	4.0	8.4	…	…	…	…	…
	1999	4.0	2.4	2.7	3.7	6.5	1.7	1.2	2.1	3.1	6.4
	2002	4.1	2.3	2.6	3.5	7.9	2.8	2.3	3.2	3.8	7.6
Brazil	1979	7.0	4.2	7.4	10.8	20.7	3.1	2.9	6.6	9.6	11.0
	1990	5.7	3.0	4.5	7.1	15.2	3.4	2.9	5.3	7.2	16.8
	1993	5.7	2.9	4.4	7.1	15.8	3.3	2.7	5.4	7.1	17.5
	1999	5.6	2.8	3.9	6.2	14.8	3.2	2.4	4.0	6.4	18.1
	2001	5.6	2.6	3.7	6.0	15.7	3.0	2.5	3.7	6.1	13.5
Chile	1990	4.1	2.1	2.4	3.2	7.5	3.3	2.5	2.6	3.7	8.8
	1994	6.5	3.2	3.5	5.1	12.1	4.6	3.0	3.4	5.3	15.9
	1998	7.9	3.3	4.0	6.0	14.3	5.5	3.9	4.1	7.7	16.1
	2000	7.9	3.2	3.8	5.4	14.7	5.2	3.7	4.3	6.2	15.3
		7.9	3.2	3.8	5.4	14.7	5.2	3.7	4.3	6.2	15.3
Colombia b/	1980	4.6	2.3	3.7	5.9	12.3	…	…	…	…	…
	1990	4.3	2.3	3.0	4.6	8.6	…	…	…	…	…
	1991	3.1	1.9	2.4	3.3	5.8	3.7	3.0	4.7	6.4	10.1
	1994	4.1	2.1	2.7	4.1	8.9	2.9	2.4	3.1	4.2	8.2
	1999	3.6	1.9	2.1	3.4	7.6	3.4	2.6	3.4	5.1	8.5
	2002	3.5	1.7	1.9	3.0	7.2	…	…	…	…	…
Costa Rica	1981	7.8	5.2	6.1	8.8	13.9	8.0	7.1	7.5	11.4	18.3
	1990	5.7	3.2	4.0	5.9	9.4	5.9	4.9	5.4	7.4	11.6
	1994	6.3	3.6	4.3	6.2	10.1	6.5	5.2	5.8	8.0	13.7
	1999	6.4	3.4	4.3	6.2	10.3	7.0	5.2	6.1	8.2	14.1
	2002	7.1	3.5	4.1	6.5	12.1	7.0	4.9	5.6	8.3	16.2
Ecuador	1990	3.5	2.1	2.7	3.8	5.7	…	…	…	…	…
	1994	3.4	1.8	2.4	3.5	5.2	…	…	…	…	…
	1999	3.5	1.6	2.0	3.2	6.0	…	…	…	…	…
	2002	4.1	2.2	2.8	3.6	6.5	…	…	…	…	…
El Salvador	1997	4.8	2.2	3.3	5.7	9.9	3.2	2.8	4.9	2.9	13.8
	1999	5.2	2.8	3.7	5.3	10.1	4.4	4.0	4.8	5.7	10.9
	2001	5.1	2.8	3.6	5.2	9.8	4.6	4.0	5.0	6.9	10.6
Guatemala	1989	4.4	2.6	3.8	6.3	10.5	3.4	3.1	4.6	8.5	15.9
	1998	4.1	2.2	3.0	5.8	9.4	3.3	2.8	5.1	6.3	14.1
	2002	4.6	2.8	3.1	4.7	10.5	3.7	3.0	4.6	6.4	14.3
Honduras	1990	3.4	1.6	2.5	5.2	10.0	2.3	1.9	3.3	7.4	8.4
	1994	2.6	1.4	1.8	3.1	7.0	2.7	2.0	3.7	5.2	6.6
	1999	2.9	1.5	2.1	3.5	6.6	2.5	2.0	2.5	7.1	6.0
	2002	2.8	1.3	1.9	3.5	6.6	1.8	1.3	2.2	5.2	9.4
Mexico	1984	5.4	2.4	4.6	6.4	8.8	4.0	2.5	3.9	8.0	10.6
	1989	4.8	3.1	3.8	5.8	8.8	3.7	3.0	4.5	6.0	7.9
	1994	5.1	2.3	3.6	5.8	10.1	3.4	2.6	3.8	6.3	8.8
	1998	5.8	1.9	3.3	5.4	12.0	3.8	2.1	3.1	26.0	10.2
	2000	4.8	2.3	3.1	4.6	9.6	4.4	2.4	3.5	6.7	17.6
	2002	3.5	1.7	2.2	3.7	6.9	2.7	1.5	2.3	4.0	10.5
Nicaragua	1993	3.7	2.8	3.4	4.0	6.9	2.7	2.3	3.7	4.6	9.1
	1998	4.0	2.0	3.1	4.0	9.6	2.9	2.2	3.6	4.2	8.5
	2001	3.6	2.2	2.6	3.1	10.4	2.7	2.3	3.4	3.8	9.2
Panama	1979	7.0	3.8	5.0	8.0	13.2	…	…	…	…	…
	1991	6.5	3.3	4.1	5.9	10.7	…	…	…	…	…
	1994	6.2	3.4	3.8	5.7	10.3	…	…	…	…	…
	1999	6.7	3.1	3.9	6.1	10.8	…	…	…	…	…
	2002	7.0	4.3	4.5	5.7	11.0	5.6	4.0	5.2	6.9	11.1

Table 43 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MONTHLY LABOUR INCOME CAPACITY EQUIVALENT (CEMIT) a/ OF 25– TO 59–YEAR–OLDS WHO WORK 20 HOURS OR MORE PER WEEK, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2002
(Averages)

Country	Year	Urban areas					Rural areas				
		Promedio de CEMIT					Promedio de CEMIT				
		Total	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	Total	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	3.7	1.5	2.3	4.1	7.4	…	…	…	…	…
	1990	3.7	2.0	2.7	4.0	7.1	…	…	…	…	…
	1994	4.0	1.9	2.7	4.1	8.3	…	…	…	…	…
	1999	4.7	1.9	4.8	3.4	9.5	…	…	…	…	…
	2001	4.1	1.9	2.5	3.4	8.1	2.9	1.8	3.0	9.8	6.7
Peru	1997	3.6	2.2	2.6	3.3	5.6	2.4	2.0	2.8	3.3	5.9
	1999	3.6	2.0	2.2	2.9	5.6	2.3	1.9	2.0	3.6	4.7
	2001	3.3	2.1	2.2	2.6	5.2	2.0	1.6	1.9	2.6	4.7
Dominican Republic	1997	5.2	3.5	4.4	5.1	9.0	5.2	4.6	5.6	6.1	8.8
	2002	5.3	3.6	3.9	4.7	8.9	4.2	3.7	4.0	5.2	6.5
Uruguay	1981	6.3	4.3	5.4	7.2	12.1	…	…	…	…	…
	1990	4.3	2.8	3.4	5.0	6.8	…	…	…	…	…
	1994	5.3	3.4	4.1	5.9	8.8	…	…	…	…	…
	1999	6.0	3.7	4.4	6.5	10.2	…	…	…	…	…
	2002	4.9	2.7	3.4	4.8	7.8					
Venezuela c/	1981	9.1	6.1	8.1	11.4	17.8	7.4	6.2	9.3	14.2	23.3
	1990	5.4	3.9	4.6	5.8	8.5	5.1	4.4	5.8	6.8	9.4
	1994	4.3	3.1	3.7	4.5	6.7	4.1	3.5	4.6	4.7	7.1
	1999	4.3	2.7	3.5	4.4	7.2	…	…	…	…	…
	2002	4.4	2.8	3.6	4.5	7.2	…	…	…	…	…

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

a/ Represents monthly income calculated on the basis of value per hour worked for a 44–hour work week and expressed in multiples of the poverty line. Does not include unpaid family workers.

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. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.

c/ The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 44

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING INDICATORS, a/ 1990/1991–2000/2001

Country & coverage d/	Period	Public social spending b/			Period	Percentage variations in public social spending c/		
		Per capita (1997 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending		Per capita (1997 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending
Argentina e/ (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	1211	19.3	62.2	1990/91-1994/95	31.3	1.8	3.5
	1994/1995	1589	21.1	65.6	1994/95-1998/99	7.5	-0.3	-1.7
	1998/1999	1709	20.8	63.9	1998/99-2000/01	-3.4	0.8	-1.5
	2000/2001	1650	21.6	62.4	1990/91-2000/01	36.3	2.3	0.3
Bolivia (GG)	1990/1991	...	...	...	1990/91-1994/95	...	...	...
	1994/1995	121	12.4	47.3	1994/95-1998/99	39.3	3.9	9.5
	1998/1999	169	16.3	56.8	1998/99-2000/01	8.6	1.6	3.6
	2000/2001	183	17.9	60.4	1990/91-2000/01	...	...	...
Brazil f/ (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	786	18.1	48.9	1990/91-1994/95	15.2	1.2	9.4
	1994/1995	906	19.3	58.2	1994/95-1998/99	3.4	0.1	-2.7
	1998/1999	936	19.3	55.5	1998/99-2000/01	0.0	-0.5	6.1
	2000/2001	936	18.8	61.6	1990/91-2000/01	19.1	0.7	12.8
Chile (CG)	1990/1991	441	11.7	60.8	1990/91-1994/95	35.6	0.6	4.0
	1994/1995	598	12.3	64.8	1994/95-1998/99	40.1	2.5	2.2
	1998/1999	838	14.7	66.9	1998/99-2000/01	11.8	1.3	2.8
	2000/2001	936	16.0	69.7	1990/91-2000/01	112.2	4.3	8.9
Colombia (NFPS)	1990/1991	158	6.8	28.8	1990/91-1994/95	88.0	4.7	11.1
	1994/1995	297	11.5	39.9	1994/95-1998/99	20.2	2.6	-6.6
	1998/1999	357	14.0	33.4	1998/99-2000/01	-5.6	-0.4	0.1
	2000/2001	337	13.6	33.5	1990/91-2000/01	113.3	6.8	4.7
Costa Rica (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	469	15.6	38.9	1990/91-1994/95	13.6	0.3	-0.6
	1994/1995	533	15.8	38.3	1994/95-1998/99	14.4	0.6	2.4
	1998/1999	610	16.4	40.7	1998/99-2000/01	13.0	1.8	-0.1
	2000/2001	689	18.2	40.5	1990/91-2000/01	46.9	2.6	1.6
Ecuador g/ (CG)	1990/1991	88	5.5	35.4	1990/91-1994/95	37.5	1.9	0.7
	1994/1995	121	7.4	36.1	1994/95-1998/99	3.7	0.7	-4.4
	1998/1999	126	8.1	31.8	1998/99-2000/01	4.4	0.8	-2.0
	2000/2001	131	8.8	29.8	1990/91-2000/01	48.9	3.3	-5.6
El Salvador (CG)	1990/1991	...	...	...	1990/91-1994/95	...	...	...
	1994/1995	63	3.4	23.7	1994/95-1998/99	24.8	0.7	7.6
	1998/1999	78	4.1	31.3	1998/99-2000/01	5.1	0.2	-0.4
	2000/2001	82	4.2	30.9	1990/91-2000/01	...	...	...
Guatemala (CG)	1990/1991	52	3.4	29.9	1990/91-1994/95	29.1	0.8	10.7
	1994/1995	67	4.1	40.6	1994/95-1998/99	54.9	1.9	3.3
	1998/1999	103	6.0	43.9	1998/99-2000/01	5.3	0.2	1.7
	2000/2001	109	6.2	45.6	1990/91-2000/01	110.7	2.8	15.7
Honduras (CG)	1990/1991	60	7.9	36.5	1990/91-1994/95	0.0	-0.2	-4.2
	1994/1995	60	7.8	32.3	1994/95-1998/99	-4.2	-0.3	-0.9
	1998/1999	57	7.5	31.4	1998/99-2000/01	34.2	2.5	7.4
	2000/2001	77	10.0	38.7	1990/91-2000/01	28.6	2.1	2.3
Mexico (Budgetary public sector)	1990/1991	259	6.5	40.8	1990/91-1994/95	38.0	2.3	11.6
	1994/1995	358	8.8	52.4	1994/95-1998/99	13.8	0.4	7.1
	1998/1999	407	9.2	59.5	1998/99-2000/01	11.9	0.6	2.0
	2000/2001	456	9.8	61.5	1990/91-2000/01	75.9	3.3	20.7
Nicaragua (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	48	11.1	34.1	1990/91-1994/95	2.1	1.1	5.9
	1994/1995	49	12.2	39.9	1994/95-1998/99	17.5	0.9	-2.9
	1998/1999	57	13.0	37.0	1998/99-2000/01	6.1	0.2	1.4
	2000/2001	61	13.2	38.4	1990/91-2000/01	27.4	2.1	4.3

Table 44 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING INDICATORS, a/
1990/1991–2000/2001

Country & coverage d/	Period	Public social spending b/			Period	Percentage variations in public social spending c/		
		Per capita (1997 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending		Per capita (1997 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending
Panama (NFPS)	1990/1991	497	18.6	40.0	1990/91-1994/95	22.0	1.2	3.2
	1994/1995	606	19.8	43.2	1994/95-1998/99	17.6	1.9	-1.1
	1998/1999	712	21.6	42.2	1998/99-2000/01	19.8	3.9	7.6
	2000/2001	853	25.5	49.7	1990/91-2000/01	71.8	7.0	9.7
Paraguay (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	57	3.1	39.9	1990/91-1994/95	133.6	3.9	3.5
	1994/1995	132	7.0	43.4	1994/95-1998/99	15.9	1.5	1.2
	1998/1999	153	8.5	44.6	1998/99-2000/01	-3.6	0.0	-0.8
	2000/2001	148	8.5	43.8	1990/91-2000/01	161.1	5.4	3.9
Peru (CG)	1990/1991	76	4.0	33.9	1990/91-1994/95	93.4	2.7	6.4
	1994/1995	146	6.7	40.2	1994/95-1998/99	21.9	1.0	3.2
	1998/1999	178	7.7	43.4	1998/99-2000/01	4.8	0.4	3.4
	2000/2001	187	8.0	46.8	1990/91-2000/01	147.0	4.0	13.0
Dominican Republic (CG)	1990/1991	60	4.3	38.4	1990/91-1994/95	73.9	1.8	2.8
	1994/1995	104	6.1	41.2	1994/95-1998/99	27.1	0.5	-1.5
	1998/1999	132	6.6	39.7	1998/99-2000/01	29.3	1.1	5.5
	2000/2001	170	7.6	45.2	1990/91-2000/01	185.7	3.3	6.8
Uruguay (CG)	1990/1991	888	16.9	62.4	1990/91-1994/95	40.5	3.4	8.5
	1994/1995	1248	20.3	70.8	1994/95-1998/99	22.8	2.5	1.4
	1998/1999	1533	22.8	72.2	1998/99-2000/01	-2.5	0.7	2.8
	2000/2001	1494	23.5	75.0	1990/91-2000/01	68.2	6.6	12.6
Venezuela (CG)	1990/1991	320	8.5	32.9	1990/91-1994/95	-10.3	-1.0	2.5
	1994/1995	287	7.6	35.3	1994/95-1998/99	7.2	0.9	1.3
	1998/1999	307	8.4	36.6	1998/99-2000/01	30.9	2.9	1.3
	2000/2001	402	11.3	37.9	1990/91-2000/01	25.8	2.8	5.0

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

a/ Includes public spending on education, health and nutrition, social security, employment and social assistance, and housing and sewerage systems.
b/ The figures are simple averages for the relevant bienniums.
c/ The last two columns show the differences between the percentages in the first and second periods.
d/ NFPS: non–financial public sector; GG: general government; CG: central government.
e/ Includes expenditure of the national government, the provincial governments and the central government of Buenos Aires, and also the municipal governments.
f/ Estimate of consolidated social spending, including federal, state and municipal expenditure.
g/ Includes the estimated volume of social security expenditure, which is not part of the central government's budget.

Table 45

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): INDICATORS OF PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON EDUCATION AND HEALTH, a/ 1990/1991 – 2000/2001

Country & coverage b/	Period	Public social spending on education			Public social spending on health		
		Per capita (1997 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending	Per capita (1997 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending
Argentina c/ (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	226	3.6	11.6	271	4.3	14.0
	1994/1995	318	4.2	13.1	371	5.0	15.3
	1998/1999	385	4.7	14.4	394	4.8	14.8
	2000/2001	385	5.0	14.6	379	5.0	14.3
Bolivia (GG)	1990/1991	...	...	...	...	...	...
	1994/1995	52	5.3	20.2	31	3.1	12.0
	1998/1999	62	6.0	21.0	36	3.4	11.9
	2000/2001	66	6.5	21.8	38	3.7	12.5
Brazil d/ (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	162	3.7	9.9	156	3.6	9.6
	1994/1995	212	4.6	13.7	157	3.4	10.1
	1998/1999	202	4.2	12.0	140	2.9	8.3
	2000/2001	185	3.8	12.2	151	3.0	9.9
Chile (CG)	1990/1991	87	2.4	12.0	70	1.9	9.6
	1994/1995	131	2.7	14.1	109	2.2	11.8
	1998/1999	206	3.7	16.5	147	2.6	11.7
	2000/2001	238	4.1	17.7	165	2.8	12.3
Colombia (NFPS)	1990/1991	63	2.7	11.5	23	1.0	4.2
	1994/1995	86	3.4	11.6	75	2.9	10.1
	1998/1999	118	4.6	11.1	94	3.7	8.8
	2000/2001	97	3.9	9.6	107	4.3	10.5
Costa Rica (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	114	3.8	9.4	148	4.9	12.3
	1994/1995	136	4.1	9.8	158	4.7	11.4
	1998/1999	160	4.3	10.7	177	4.8	11.8
	2000/2001	189	5.0	11.1	199	5.3	11.7
Ecuador (CG)	1990/1991	45	2.9	18.3	14	0.9	5.6
	1994/1995	51	3.1	15.3	16	1.0	4.9
	1998/1999	55	3.5	13.9	18	1.1	4.5
	2000/2001	45	3.0	10.1	16	1.1	3.6
El Salvador (CG)	1990/1991	...	...	...	...	...	...
	1994/1995	37	2.0	14.0	24	1.3	9.2
	1998/1999	48	2.5	19.4	28	1.5	11.3
	2000/2001	51	2.6	19.0	29	1.5	11.0
Guatemala (CG)	1990/1991	25	1.6	14.3	14	0.9	8.1
	1994/1995	29	1.8	17.3	14	0.9	8.7
	1998/1999	40	2.3	16.8	19	1.1	7.9
	2000/2001	46	2.6	19.2	19	1.1	7.9
Honduras (CG)	1990/1991	32	4.3	19.9	20	2.6	12.0
	1994/1995	29	3.8	15.6	20	2.6	10.9
	1998/1999	33	4.2	17.7	18	2.3	9.7
	2000/2001	45	5.8	22.6	24	3.1	12.0
Mexico (Budgetary public sector)	1990/1991	104	2.6	16.4	118	3.0	18.6
	1994/1995	157	3.8	23.0	96	2.4	14.0
	1998/1999	169	3.8	24.7	82	1.9	12.0
	2000/2001	190	4.1	25.6	86	1.9	11.6
Nicaragua (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	19	4.3	13.0	20	4.7	14.5
	1994/1995	20	4.8	15.8	19	4.8	15.6
	1998/1999	26	5.8	16.7	20	4.6	13.2
	2000/2001	28	6.1	17.7	22	4.8	13.9

Table 45 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): INDICATORS OF PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON EDUCATION AND HEALTH, a/ **1990/1991 – 2000/2001**

Country & coverage b/	Period	Public social spending on education			Public social spending on health		
		Per capita (1997 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending	Per capita (1997 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending
Panama (NFPS)	1990/1991	125	4.7	10.2	164	6.1	13.3
	1994/1995	151	5.0	10.8	204	6.7	14.5
	1998/1999	220	6.7	13.0	249	7.6	14.8
	2000/2001	199	6.0	11.6	274	8.2	16.0
Paraguay (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	22	1.2	15.8	6	0.3	3.8
	1994/1995	61	3.2	20.0	21	1.1	6.7
	1998/1999	75	4.1	21.7	23	1.3	6.8
	2000/2001	70	4.0	20.6	19	1.1	5.7
Peru (CG)	1990/1991	31	1.7	13.8	17	0.9	7.4
	1994/1995	59	2.7	16.1	28	1.3	7.6
	1998/1999	57	2.5	13.9	35	1.5	8.5
	2000/2001	58	2.5	14.4	41	1.8	10.2
Dominican Republic (CG)	1990/1991	17	1.2	10.5	14	1.0	8.7
	1994/1995	35	2.1	13.9	22	1.3	8.7
	1998/1999	56	2.8	16.9	30	1.5	9.0
	2000/2001	67	3.0	17.7	42	1.9	11.1
Uruguay (CG)	1990/1991	130	2.5	9.1	154	2.9	10.8
	1994/1995	151	2.5	8.6	212	3.5	12.1
	1998/1999	218	3.3	10.3	188	2.8	8.9
	2000/2001	213	3.4	10.7	175	2.8	8.8
Venezuela (CG)	1990/1991	128	3.4	13.2	57	1.6	5.9
	1994/1995	139	3.7	17.1	41	1.1	5.0
	1998/1999	140	3.8	16.7	50	1.4	5.9
	2000/2001	178	5.0	16.8	50	1.4	4.7

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

a/ The figures are simple averages for the relevant bienniums.
b/ NFPS: non–financial public sector; GG: general government; CG: central government.
c/ Includes expenditure of the national government, the provincial governments and the central government of Buenos Aires, and also the municipal governments.
d/ Estimate of consolidated social spending, including federal, state and municipal expenditure.