



UNITED NATIONS

ECLAC



UNITED NATIONS



UNITED NATIONS PUBLICATION
LC/G.2259-P

Copyright © United Nations, September 2005. All rights reserved.

First edition

ISSN printed version: 1020-5160 / ISSN online version: 1684-1425

ISBN 92-1-121526-9

Sales No. E.04.II.G.148

Printed in Santiago, Chile – United Nations

Applications for the rights to reproduce this work are welcomed and should be sent to the Secretary of the Publications Board, United Nations Headquarters, New York, N.Y. 10017, U.S.A. Member States and their governmental institutions may reproduce this work without prior authorization, but are requested to mention the source and inform the United Nations of such reproduction.

2004



Social Panorama

OF LATIN AMERICA



UNITED NATIONS

ECLAC

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. Martín Hopenhayn and Mr. Hubert Escaith, respectively. Work on the 2004 edition was sponsored by the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) and supported by the Ibero-American Youth Organization (OIJ). The preparation of this edition was coordinated by Juan Carlos Feres, Arturo León and Irma Arriagada, who were also in charge of drafting the individual chapters and summary in conjunction with Guiomar Bay, Simone Cecchini, Fabiana Del Popolo, Ernesto Espíndola, José Miguel Guzmán, Martín Hopenhayn, Sandra Huenchuan, Dirk Jaspers-Faijer, Xavier Mancero, Jorge Martínez, Francisca Miranda, Fernando Medina, Jorge Rodríguez and Miguel Villa. María de la Luz Avendaño, Carlos Daroch, Ernesto Espíndola, Marco Galván, Daniela González and Carlos Howes compiled and processed the statistical information presented in this year's edition.

Notes and explanations of symbols

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

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

ABSTRACT		15
SUMMARY		17
CHAPTER I	POVERTY AND INCOME DISTRIBUTION	51
	A. POVERTY TRENDS	53
	1. Economic developments	53
	2. Overview of poverty in the region	55
	3. Poverty trends	59
	B. OUTLOOK FOR POVERTY REDUCTION	67
	C. CHARACTERISTICS OF POVERTY	72
	1. Demographic factors	74
	2. Educational factors	77
	3. Labour market	79
	4. Factors affecting access to basic services and assets	82
	5. Changes in the poverty profile since 1990	84
	D. INCOME DISTRIBUTION: CONVERGENCE TOWARDS HIGHER LEVELS OF INEQUITY	88
	1. Gini index	89
	2. Atkinson index and others	93
CHAPTER II	DEMOGRAPHIC CHANGES IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN AND THEIR POLICY IMPLICATIONS	97
	Introduction	99
	A. THE DEMOGRAPHIC TRANSITION AND AGEING TRENDS	100
	1. Sustained decline in fertility and mortality	100
	2. Slower growth and the remodelling of the population's age structure	104
	3. The reduction in the demographic dependency rate: the demographic bonus and its use	106
	4. Ageing of the population and the challenges it poses	106
	5. Possible scenarios and main policy challenges	109
	B. TRENDS AND CHANGES IN FERTILITY RATES	111
	1. The drop in fertility and the differences between and within countries	111
	2. Fertility by age and teenage motherhood	116
	3. Reproductive preferences and contraception	119
	4. Social and policy implications	122
	C. TRENDS AND CHANGES IN MORTALITY RATES	124
	1. General mortality	124
	2. Infant mortality	126
	3. Mortality by age and cause	130

	D. INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION AND DEVELOPMENT	133
	1. Migration in development	133
	2. Patterns and trends: transformations underway	135
	3. Hallmarks of migration: increasing complexity	137
	E. INTERNAL MIGRATION AND SPATIAL DISTRIBUTION	145
	1. An urbanized region with a historical debt to the countryside	145
	2. Migration and mobility of the population within countries	148
	3. Spatial redistribution of the population and internal migration: determinants, effects and policies	149
CHAPTER III	THE SOCIAL SITUATION OF LATIN AMERICA’S YOUTH: TENSIONS AND PARADOXES	153
	Introduction	155
	A. YOUNG PEOPLE HAVE MORE EDUCATION BUT FEWER EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES	156
	B. YOUNG WOMEN ARE MORE EDUCATED THAN YOUNG MEN, BUT HAVE LESS ACCESS TO EMPLOYMENT AND INFERIOR EMPLOYMENT CONDITIONS	167
	C. YOUNG PEOPLE ENJOY BETTER HEALTH THAN OTHER AGE GROUPS, BUT HEALTH CARE IS LESS ADAPTED TO THEIR SPECIFIC MORBIMORTALITY	172
	D. DESPITE A SHARP DECLINE IN FERTILITY RATES AMONG YOUNG WOMEN, EARLY MOTHERHOOD REMAINS COMMON	176
	E. RAPID RISE IN SYMBOLIC CONSUMPTION AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE, YET EXTREMELY LIMITED POSSIBILITIES FOR INCREASING MATERIAL CONSUMPTION	183
	F. CAUGHT BETWEEN EARLY AUTONOMY AND POSTPONEMENT	191
CHAPTER IV	FAMILY STRUCTURES, HOUSEHOLD WORK AND WELL-BEING IN LATIN AMERICA	193
	Introduction	195
	A. TRENDS IN DIFFERENT FAMILY STRUCTURES, BY TYPE OF HOUSEHOLD AND STAGE OF THE FAMILY LIFE CYCLE	196
	1. Ways in which given types of households are related to economic and demographic factors	196
	2. Trends in family structure, by type of household	198
	3. The diversity of nuclear families in Latin America	200
	4. Trends in family structures, by stage of the family life cycle	202
	B. TRENDS IN DIFFERENT FAMILY STRUCTURES WITH RESPECT TO WELL-BEING	205
	1. Family structure and well-being	205
	2. Families and household income	208
	C. FAMILIES AND THE DISTRIBUTION OF LABOUR	211
	1. The gender-based division of labour within and outside the home	211
	2. Results of time-use surveys in Mexico and Uruguay	212
	D. POLICIES FOR RECONCILING WORK AND FAMILY LIFE	217

CHAPTER V	SOCIAL AGENDA	225
	NATIONAL YOUTH PROGRAMMES IN LATIN AMERICA	
	Introduction	227
	A. SITUATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE IN LATIN AMERICA AS SEEN BY GOVERNMENT YOUTH ORGANIZATIONS AND BY YOUNG PEOPLE THEMSELVES	228
	1. Age as a benchmark in youth policies and ambiguity of the concept of the young person.	229
	2. Perception of young people's problems by the authorities	230
	3. Main causes of youth problems	231
	4. Young people's perspective	233
	B. NATIONAL YOUTH POLICIES IN LATIN AMERICA	235
	1. Models and approaches to youth policies in Latin America	235
	2. Legal and regulatory framework for national youth policies	238
	3. Public youth institutions.	244
	C. PROVISION OF YOUTH PROGRAMMES	249
	1. Characteristics, financing and types of programmes implemented.	249
	D. INTERNATIONAL AGENDA	253
	ANNEX V.1	256
	ANNEX V.2	258
	ANNEX V.3	259
	ANNEX V.4	261
BIBLIOGRAPHY		263
STATISTICAL APPENDIX		271
ECLAC PUBLICATIONS		391

TABLES, FIGURES AND BOXES

Tables

Table I.1	Latin America (20 countries): selected socio-economic indicators, 1990–2003	54
Table I.2	Latin America: poverty and indigence rates, 1980–2002	55
Table I.3	Latin America: poor and indigent population, 1980–2002	56
Table I.4	Latin America (18 countries): poverty and indigence indicators, 1990–2001/2003	62
Table I.5	Latin America (18 countries): selected characteristics of poor households, 1999–2003	73
Table I.6	Latin America (18 countries): demographic characteristics of poor and non-poor households, 1999–2003	76
Table I.7	Latin America (18 countries): educational characteristics of poor and non-poor households, 1999–2003	79
Table I.8	Latin America (18 countries): employment characteristics of poor and non-poor households, 1999–2003	81
Table I.9	Latin America (18 countries): characteristics of housing and basic services in poor and non-poor households, 1999–2003	83
Table I.10	Latin America (13 countries): selected characteristics of poor households, 1989–1991	85
Table I.11	Stratification of countries according to the Gini coefficient of income distribution, 1990–2002	91
Table I.12	Stratification of countries according to the Atkinson index ($\alpha=2$) of income distribution, 1990–2002	94
Table II.1	Indicators of the demographic ageing process for Latin America and the Caribbean, 2000, 2025 and 2050	107
Table II.2	Latin America and the Caribbean (selected countries and dates): total fertility rate by area of residence and mother's educational level	115
Table II.3	Simple correlations between specific fertility rates and the total fertility rate, worldwide and in Latin America and the Caribbean	117
Table II.4	Latin America (13 countries): infant mortality rate by area of residence and level of mother's education	129
Table II.5	Latin America and the Caribbean: immigrant population by origin, census rounds of 1970–2000	137
Table II.6	United States: stocks of immigrant population of Latin American and Caribbean origin, 1970, 1980, 1990 and 2000	139
Table II.7	Latin American and Caribbean nationals in Europe and other countries with information available, circa 2000	141
Table II.8	Spain: stocks of Latin American and Caribbean residents by country of birth and sex, 1991 and 2001	142
Table II.9	Japan: resident population born in Brazil by sex, 1994–1997	143
Table II.10	Latin America and the Caribbean: percentages and growth rates of the urban and rural population, 1950–2000	146

Table II.11	Latin America and the Caribbean: metropolises (5 million or more inhabitants) in the year 2000	147
Table II.12	Latin America and the Caribbean: changes in the primacy index, 1950–2000	147
Table II.13	Latin America (selected countries): indirect estimates of the contribution of net rural–urban migration to urban growth, 1980–2000	148
Table II.14	Estimates of the extent of migration towards, from and within metropolitan agglomerations and secondary schooling of immigrants, emigrants and non–migrants	149
Map II.1	Latin America and the Caribbean: percentage of urban population by country, 2000	146
Table III.1	Latin America (16 countries): percentage of people employed in low–productivity sectors, by age group and sex, nationwide totals, 1990–2002	163
Table III.2	Latin America (17 countries): employment rate of young people aged 15 to 29, by level of education and sex, nationwide totals, 1990–2002	169
Table III.3	Latin America (18 countries): activity of all young people aged 15 to 29 and of all young heads of household, by sex, nationwide totals, 1999–2002	171
Table III.4	Latin America (14 countries): global mortality rates, by age group and sex, circa 2000	173
Table III.5	Latin America (14 countries): percentage distribution of mortality by cause among young people aged 15 to 24, by sex, circa 2000	174
Table III.6	Latin America (19 countries): concentration of fertility in youth, by country, nationwide totals, 1987 and 2003	177
Table III.7	Latin America (11 countries): proportion of mothers among women aged 15 to 19, by single age, nationwide totals, circa 1990 and 2001.	180
Table III.8	Latin America (7 countries): proportion of 15– to 19–year–old women with children or pregnant for the first time, by level of education, nationwide totals, mid–1980s and mid–1990s	180
Table III.9	Argentina, Chile and Colombia: age of Internet users, nationwide totals, circa 2002.	184
Table III.10	Chile, Colombia and Mexico: activities of young people aged 15 to 29 during their spare time, nationwide totals, circa 2002	185
Table III.11	Latin America (19 countries): poverty and indigence, 1990 and 2002	185
Table III.12	Latin America (13 countries): levels of poverty and indigence in urban and rural areas, 2002	188
Table IV.1	Latin America (18 countries): distribution of households by type, urban areas, 1990–2002.	221
Table IV.2	Latin America (18 countries): types of nuclear families and female employment status in urban areas, 1990–2002.	222
Table IV.3	Latin America (18 countries): distribution of families by stage of the family life cycle, urban areas, 1990–2002.	223
Table IV.4	Latin America (18 countries): poverty rates among households, by type, urban areas, 1990–2002	224
Table V.1	Latin America and the Caribbean (15 countries): main problems in order of importance.	230

Table V.2	Latin America and the Caribbean (15 countries): causes of the main youth problems	232
Table V.3	Models of the youth phase in approaches to policies and programmes.	236
Table V.4	Latin America (15 countries): international regulations on children and adolescents	241
Table V.5	Latin America (11 countries): definition of juvenile criminal liability	243
Table V.6	Latin America and the Caribbean (15 countries): main issues considered in legislative changes up to 2003	245
Table V.7	Latin America (19 countries): administrative hierarchy of official government youth organizations.	246
Table V.8	Latin America (14 countries): source of funding for youth programmes	252

Figures

Figure I.1	Latin America: poverty and indigence, 1990–2004	56
Figure I.2	Latin America: distribution of total, poor and indigent population in urban and rural areas, 2002	58
Figure I.3	Latin America: distribution of poor and indigent population by country, 2002	59
Figure I.4	Latin America (17 countries): poverty and indigence, by country, 1990–1999, 1999–2001/2003	60
Figure I.5	Latin America (18 countries): poverty rate (H), poverty gap (PG) and FGT ₂ index, 2001–2003	64
Figure I.6	Latin America (17 countries): progress made towards reducing extreme poverty and total poverty, in percentages, between 1990 and 2004	69
Figure I.7	Latin America: total GDP and per capita GDP growth rates needed to halve the 1990 poverty rate, 2004–2015	70
Figure I.8	Latin America: change in growth rates required to halve poverty, by percentage changes in income distribution, 2004–2015	71
Figure I.9	Latin America (18 countries): income ratio between the richest decile and the four poorest deciles, 2002	90
Figure I.10	Latin America (18 countries): Gini coefficient including and excluding the richest decile, 2002	90
Figure II.1	Major world regions: total fertility rates, 1970–2005	103
Figure II.2	Major world regions: life expectancy at birth, 1950–2005	103
Figure II.3	Annual growth rates in the region and selected countries, 1950–2050	104
Figure II.4	Latin America and the Caribbean: estimated and projected demographic growth by decade and age groups, 1950–1960, 1990–2000 and 2040–2050	105
Figure II.5	Percentage growth in Latin America and the Caribbean by sex and age, 2000–2010	105
Figure II.6	Latin America and the Caribbean: the year in which the demographic bonus ends, by country	107
Figure II.7	Latin America and the Caribbean (20 countries): total fertility rate (TFR) in 1950–1955 and percentage of change between 1950 and 2005	112
Figure II.8	Latin America and the Caribbean: poverty levels around 2002 and total fertility rate (TFR) estimated for the period 2000–2005	113

Figure II.9	Latin America (5 countries): total fertility rate of indigenous and non-indigenous women (self-definition criterion) by area of residence, 2000 census round	116
Figure II.10	Latin America (10 countries): teenage motherhood by single-year age groups (circa 1990–2000)	118
Figure II.11	Latin America (selected countries and dates): women aged 15–19 years, by economic activity.	118
Figure II.12	Latin America (15 countries): contraceptive prevalence in women in union, circa 1990 and most recent figure.	120
Figure II.13	Latin America and the Caribbean (selected countries and years): unmet demand for family planning, most recent figure	120
Figure II.14	Latin America and the Caribbean: life expectancy at birth, 1950–1955, 1985–1990 and 2000–2005	125
Figure II.15	Latin America and the Caribbean: difference between life expectancy at birth of men and women, 1950–1955, 1985–1990 and 2000–2005	126
Figure II.16	Latin America and the Caribbean: infant mortality rate, 1950–1955, 1985–1990 and 2000–2005	127
Figure II.17	Latin America (selected countries): infant mortality rate in indigenous and non-indigenous population groups (self-definition criterion), by mother's area of residence	130
Figure II.18	Latin America: distribution of deaths by major age groups, 1950–2005	131
Figure II.19	Latin America and the Caribbean: percentage of immigrant population by origin, 1970–2000	136
Figure II.20	Latin America and the Caribbean: international migrants within the region and in the United States, 1970–2000	136
Figure II.21	Latin America and the Caribbean (11 countries): sex ratios of the population born abroad and in the region, circa 2000	138
Figure II.22	Latin America and the Caribbean (11 countries): percentages of the population born abroad, circa 2000	138
Figure II.23	United States: percentage of the immigrant population of Latin American and Caribbean origin by subregions, 1970–2000	140
Figure II.24	United States: sex ratio of the native population and of immigrants by region of origin, 2000	141
Figure II.25	Latin America (selected countries): probability of having been a migrant between smaller administrative divisions in the last five years, by age group, 2000 round of censuses	150
Figure III.1	Latin America (11 countries): primary-school completion rates, by age group, nationwide totals, 1990–2002	157
Figure III.2	Latin America (11 countries): secondary-school completion rates, nationwide totals, 1990–2002	157
Figure III.3	Latin America (14 countries): tertiary completion rates among 25- to 29-year-olds, nationwide totals, 1990–2002	158
Figure III.4	Latin America (11 countries): primary, secondary and tertiary completion rates among 25- to 29-year-olds in selected quintiles, nationwide totals, 2002	159
Figure III.5	Latin America (16 countries): primary-school completion rates among 25- to 29-year-olds, selected quintiles, nationwide totals, 2002	160

Figure III.6	Latin America (16 countries): secondary–school completion rates among 25– to 29–year–olds, selected quintiles, nationwide totals, 2002	161
Figure III.7	Latin America (15 countries): primary–school completion rates, by age group and geographical area, 2002	161
Figure III.8	Latin America (15 countries): secondary–school completion rates, by age group and geographical area, 2002	162
Figure III.9	Latin America (17 countries): unemployment rate among young people aged 15 to 29, by level of education, nationwide totals, 1990–2002	164
Figure III.10	Latin America (17 countries): unemployment rate among young people aged 15 to 29, by selected quintiles, nationwide totals, circa 1990 and 2002	165
Figure III.11	Latin America (16 countries): percentage of young people aged 15 to 29 in low–productivity employment, by selected quintiles, circa 1990 and 2002	165
Figure III.12	Latin America (11 countries): completion of primary and secondary education among young people aged 15 to 29, by sex, 2002	168
Figure III.13	Latin America (16 countries): completion of higher education among young people aged 25 to 29, by sex, nationwide totals, 2002	168
Figure III.14	Latin America (16 countries): unemployment rates by age group and sex, nationwide totals, 1990–2002	169
Figure III.15	Latin America (6 countries): distribution of women aged 15 to 29, by number of children, by socio–economic stratum, circa 2000	178
Figure III.16	Latin America (6 countries): distribution of women aged 17, by number of children, by socio–economic stratum, circa 2000	179
Figure III.17	Latin America (5 countries): women who used modern contraceptives when they became sexually active, nationwide totals, mid–1990s	181
Figure III.18	Latin America (18 countries): youth poverty and total poverty, circa 2002	186
Figure III.19	Latin America (18 countries): average labour income of young people, by age group and category of poverty, nationwide totals, 2002	187
Figure III.20	Latin America (15 countries): young people aged 15 to 29 in low–productivity employment, according to level of education, nationwide totals, circa 2002	189
Figure IV.1	Latin America (18 countries): relationships between per capita GDP, average annual population growth (1995–2000) and different types of households and families, 1990–2002	197
Figure IV.2	Latin America (16 countries): changes in household and family types, urban areas, 1990–2002	199
Figure IV.3	Latin America (18 countries): nuclear family types and female employment status in urban areas, 1990–2002	201
Figure IV.4	Latin America (16 countries): stages of the family life cycle, urban areas, circa 1990 and 2002	202
Figure IV.5	Latin America (18 countries): percentages of families at different stages of the family life cycle and in selected income quintiles, urban areas, 2002	206
Figure IV.6	Latin America (16 countries): rates of indigence and non–indigent poverty, by household and family type, urban areas, 2002	207
Figure IV.7	Latin America (16 countries): rates of indigence and non–indigent poverty, by stage of the family life cycle, urban areas, 2002	207
Figure IV.8	Latin America (16 countries): households and families with and without breadwinners, by household and family type, urban areas, 2002	209

Figure IV.9	Latin America (16 countries): households and families with and without dependants, by household and family type, urban areas, 2002	209
Figure IV.10	Latin America (16 countries): urban households and families that include persons over the age of 65, 2002	210
Figure IV.11	Mexico: weekly average number of hours spent on household activities, by type of activity and sex, 2002	214
Figure IV.12	Mexico: time spent by household members on domestic activities, by type of activity and sex, 2002	215
Figure IV.13	Montevideo: weekly average number of hours spent on household activities, by type of activity and sex, 2003	216

Boxes

Box I.1	Method used for poverty measurement	57
Box I.2	Indicators for measuring poverty	65
Box I.3	Chile: significant progress in poverty reduction.	66
Box I.4	Methodology used for projections	71
Box I.5	Probabilities of poverty	86
Box I.6	Stratification of countries according to the Gini coefficient	92
Box I.7	Measuring changes in inequality	95
Box II.1	Model of the demographic transition.	101
Box II.2	The demographic transition in Latin America and the Caribbean: the status of countries by birth rate	102
Box II.3	Countries by stage of population ageing	108
Box II.4	Economic security of older persons in Latin America and the Caribbean	109
Box II.5	Proximate determinants of fertility: the Bongaarts model	121
Box II.6	Child mortality and the Millennium Development Goals	128
Box II.7	The impacts of remittances at the level of the recipient households	144
Box IV.1	Household and family types constructed on the basis of household survey data	199
Box IV.2	Typology of the family life cycle, constructed on the basis of household survey information	203
Box IV.3	Chile: demands of families participating in the Puente programme, by family type and stage of the family life cycle.	204
Box IV.4	Measuring work through time–use surveys.	213
Box V.1	Different approaches in youth policies.	237
Box V.2	International convention of the Ibero–American Charter on the Rights of Youth	239
Box V.3	Ninth session of the Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean.	254

ABSTRACT

The 2004 edition of the *Social Panorama of Latin America* analyses recent trends in poverty and income distribution in the Latin American countries, examines the main demographic shifts that have occurred in the region over the past few decades, explores the socio-economic status of Latin American youth, looks at institutional and programmatic guidelines for youth policies and describes how household structures and family roles in social well-being have changed.

The chapter on poverty and income distribution contains projections of poverty and indigence rates for 2003 and 2004. The conclusion drawn from these projections is that the region has failed to gain any ground since 1997 in its effort to combat poverty and actually witnessed a slight deterioration in this respect in 2003. Meanwhile, Latin America continues to be the world region with the worst income distribution indicators of all, which heightens the urgency of developing distributive policies to increase low-income strata's income-generating capacity with the help of stronger social safety nets and a more inclusive production model.

The chapter on major demographic changes in Latin America and the Caribbean draws heavily upon work done by the Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) - Population Division of ECLAC in connection, in particular, with the agreements reached at the International Conference on Population and Development (Cairo, 1994). This chapter analyses the demographic transition and the ageing of the population, birth rates, mortality rates, international migration and development, internal migration and the spatial distribution of the population. It then goes on to explore these phenomena's implications for public policy, social equity and human rights.

The third chapter of this year's edition of *Social Panorama of Latin America* focuses on the position of young people in society. This analysis covers their demographic patterns, occupational status, the organizational structure of the households in which they live and their access to health care and education. Various dimensions of young people's participation in society and their cultural consumption patterns are also reviewed. It is noted that the Latin American youth of today are more severely affected than other groups by a series of troubling paradoxes, such as the combination of greater access to education with fewer employment opportunities, of freer access to information with less access to power and of greater expectations of autonomy with fewer chances for

achieving it. In addition, the young people of today possess higher levels of productive skills but yet are largely excluded from the production process.

The fourth chapter delves into the changes that have been taking place in household structures and how they relate to levels of well-being in Latin America. Given the limited coverage of social safety nets in the countries of the region, especially with respect to unemployment, illness, old age and migration, the family continues to play an important role in providing support and protection and is thus a strategic resource in terms of the maintenance of well-being. This chapter also refers to the growing importance placed on the family in the new approaches being taken to social policy-making, especially in the case of poverty-reduction measures.

This edition's chapter on the social agenda analyses the main results of an ECLAC survey of government agencies responsible for youth policies regarding national youth programmes in Latin America. The Governments were found to vary quite markedly in terms of their response capacities in dealing with the problems faced by young people. In addition, the policies implemented in the various countries betray the existence of differing –and sometimes overlapping– paradigms, together with insufficient coordination with the most appropriate institutional mechanisms for building and implementing specific measures for young people.

SUMMARY

The 2004 edition of the *Social Panorama of Latin America* analyses the major demographic changes that have occurred in the region over the past few decades, examines the socio-economic status of Latin American youth, looks at institutional and programmatic guidelines for youth policies and describes how household structures and family roles have changed. As in past years, recent trends in poverty and income distribution in the Latin American countries are also reviewed.

The first chapter presents projections of poverty and indigence rates for 2003 and 2004. The conclusion drawn from these projections is that the region has failed to gain any ground since 1997 in its effort to combat poverty and actually witnessed a slight deterioration in this respect in 2003. Nevertheless, stronger growth projections for 2004 indicate that some countries are still in a position to succeed in halving extreme poverty by 2015.

Meanwhile, Latin America continues to be the world region with the worst income distribution indicators of all. This situation has been exacerbated by the fact that some countries have actually witnessed an increase in income concentration. This heightens the urgency of developing distributive policies to increase low-income strata's income-generating capacity with the help of stronger social safety nets and a more inclusive production model.

The chapter on major demographic changes in Latin America and the Caribbean draws heavily upon work done by the Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC in connection, in particular, with the agreements reached at the International Conference on Population and Development (Cairo, 1994). This chapter analyses the demographic transition and the ageing of the population, birth rates, mortality rates, international migration and development, internal migration and the spatial distribution of the population. It then goes on to explore these phenomena's implications for public policy, social equity and human rights.

The third chapter of this year's edition of *Social Panorama of Latin America* focuses on the position of young people in society. This analysis, which is based on a joint study conducted by ECLAC and the Ibero-American Youth Organization, covers a wide range of aspects relating to Latin American youth, including their demographic patterns, occupational status, the organizational structure of the households in which they live and their access to health care and education. Various dimensions of young people's participation in society and their cultural consumption patterns are also reviewed. It is noted that the Latin American youth of today are more severely affected than other

groups by a series of troubling paradoxes, such as the combination of greater access to education with fewer employment opportunities, of freer access to information with less access to power and of greater expectations of autonomy with fewer chances for achieving it. In addition, the young people of today possess higher levels of productive skills but yet are largely excluded from the production process.

The fourth chapter delves into the changes that have been taking place in household structures and how they relate to levels of well-being in Latin America. Given the limited coverage of social safety nets in the countries of the region, especially with respect to unemployment, illness, old age and migration, the family continues to play an important role in providing support and protection and is thus a strategic resource in terms of the maintenance of well-being. This chapter also refers to the growing importance placed on the family in the new approaches being taken to social policy-making, especially in the case of poverty-reduction measures.

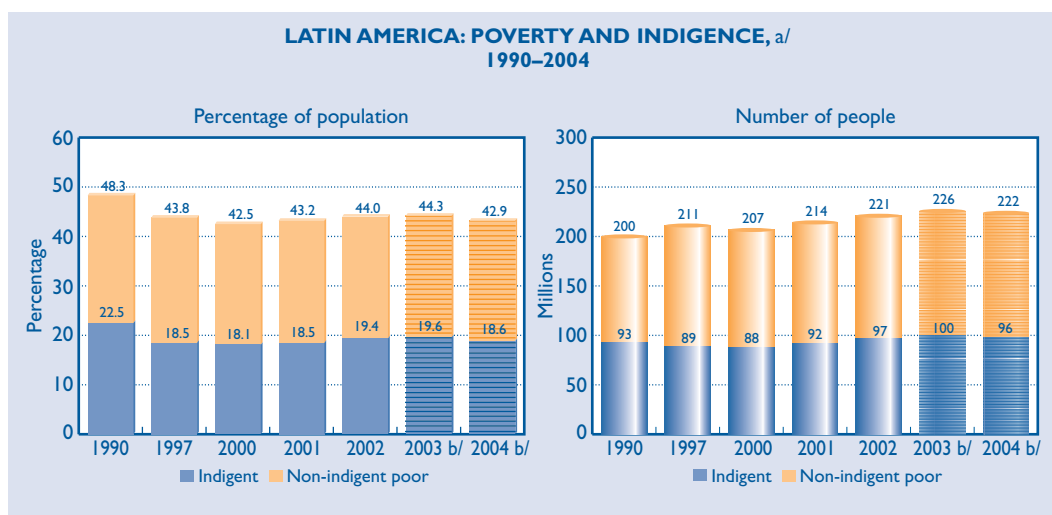
This edition's chapter on the social agenda analyses the main results of an ECLAC survey of government agencies responsible for youth policies regarding national youth programmes in Latin America. The objective was to gather information about how these government agencies view their institutional and programmatic policy guidelines and how national authorities perceive the specific problems and situation of youth in the region. The Governments were found to vary quite markedly in terms of their response capacities in dealing with the problems faced by young people. In addition, the programmatic activities implemented in the various countries betray the existence of differing –and sometimes overlapping– paradigms, together with insufficient coordination with the most appropriate institutional mechanisms for building and implementing specific policies for young people.

POVERTY AND INCOME DISTRIBUTION

The latest available figures on poverty and indigence in Latin America indicate that, as of 2002, there were 221 million poor people in the region (44.0% of the total population) and that 97 million of these people were living in extreme poverty or indigence (19.4%). These statistics represent a lack of progress in the effort to overcome poverty since 1997. When they are compared to the data for 1990, however, the resulting picture is a positive one, with poverty and indigence rates having declined by 4.3 and 3.1 percentage points, respectively (see figure 1).

As a result of the very low growth rate registered for the region's per capita GDP in 2003, poverty and indigence indices for that year appear to have edged up to 44.3% and 19.6%, respectively. Stronger growth in 2004 should lead to a reduction in the poverty rate for the year of somewhat more than one percentage point, however. Accordingly, the poverty rate ought to amount to 42.9%, while the indigence rate is expected to come in at 18.6%. These changes are likely to be insufficient to offset population growth during this period, however, so no reduction in the number of poor or indigent people relative to 2002 is to be expected. The number of poor people is estimated at 222 million and the number of indigents at 96 million.

Figure 1



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

a/ Estimates for 18 countries of Latin America plus Haiti. The figures appearing above the light-coloured sections of the bars represent the total number of poor people (indigent plus non-indigent poor).

b/ The figures for 2003 and 2004 are projections.

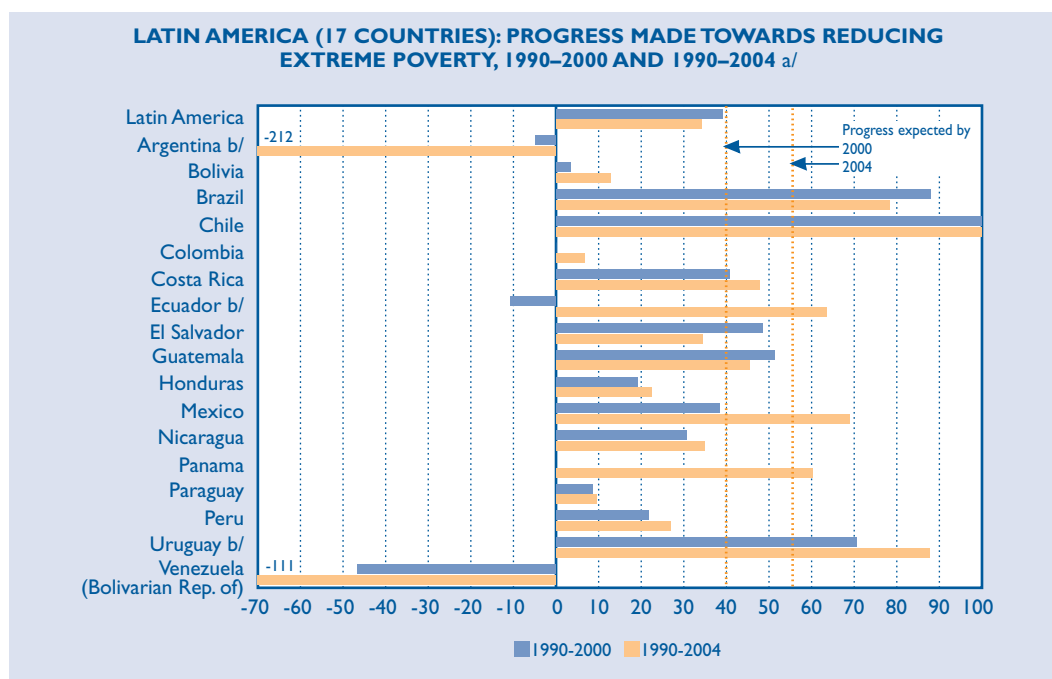
The extent of the progress made towards the first Millennium Development Goal, as measured on the basis of poverty projections for 2004, suggests that Latin America has once again suffered a setback in its effort to reduce extreme poverty. In 2000, the region had made nearly 40% of the progress required to achieve this goal, and the amount of time that had elapsed within the period established for the goal's achievement matched that figure. However, the economic crisis that hit a number of countries in the following years then whittled down the cumulative rate of progress to 27.6% as of 2002, whereas 48% of the time allowed for achieving the goal had already passed. The forecast for 2004, based on the growth projections currently available for that year, indicates that the rate of progress could rise to 34%, which is certainly a significant increase, although still considerably below the target rate (56%) (see figure 2).

Chile had already met the goal for the reduction of extreme poverty by 2000 and was the only country in the region to do so; the figures for 2003 corroborate this state of affairs, as they show a further decrease in indigence. Chile is also the only country in the region that has met the more challenging goal of halving total poverty, and Brazil, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama and Uruguay are the only other countries whose rates of progress towards the first Millennium Development Goal are equivalent to 56% or more. Indigence rates will once again be higher than they were in 1990 in the cases of Argentina and Venezuela.

Since the region is behind schedule in terms of its progress towards the first Millennium Development Goal and fewer years remain before the target date arrives, the countries will have to attain higher economic growth rates in 2004–2015 than had previously been estimated¹ if they are to reach the goal. The simulations conducted on

¹ In the 2002–2003 edition of the *Social Panorama*, the annual growth rate for per capita GDP that the region would have to attain in order to halve extreme poverty was estimated at 2.6%.

Figure 2



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

a/ The progress made (expressed as a percentage) is calculated by dividing the percentage-point reduction (or increase) in indigence registered during the period by one-half the indigence rate for 1990. The dotted lines represent the amount of progress expected by 2000 (40%, the line on the left) and by 2004 (56%, the line on the right).

b/ Urban areas.

the basis of the most recent household surveys in the countries of the region indicate that Latin America's per capita GDP will have to grow at an annual rate of 2.9% over the next 11 years rather than the 2.6% that was estimated in 2002 if it hopes to achieve this goal. All of these estimates are based on the assumption that there will be no substantial variations in income distribution during the period in question. What is more, the countries with the highest indigence rates are faced with an increasingly formidable challenge, since their per capita GDP will have to grow by 4.4% per year (0.8 of a percentage point more than previously estimated).

A point that has been raised repeatedly by ECLAC in relation to the first goal is that improvements in income distribution can magnify the effect of economic growth. In fact, the projected growth rate required in order for the region to reach the goal relating to extreme poverty could be lowered by approximately 0.2 of a percentage point for each one percentage-point reduction in the Gini coefficient. For example, with a 5% reduction in the Gini index (equivalent to approximately 0.025 points of that indicator), the region could reach the goal if its per capita GDP grew at an annual rate of 2.1%, rather than the 2.9% rate mentioned above. Given the fact that the growth rates required to meet the poverty-reduction goals will be quite difficult for the countries –especially the poorer ones– to reach, the importance of moving ahead with the redistribution of income is clear to see.

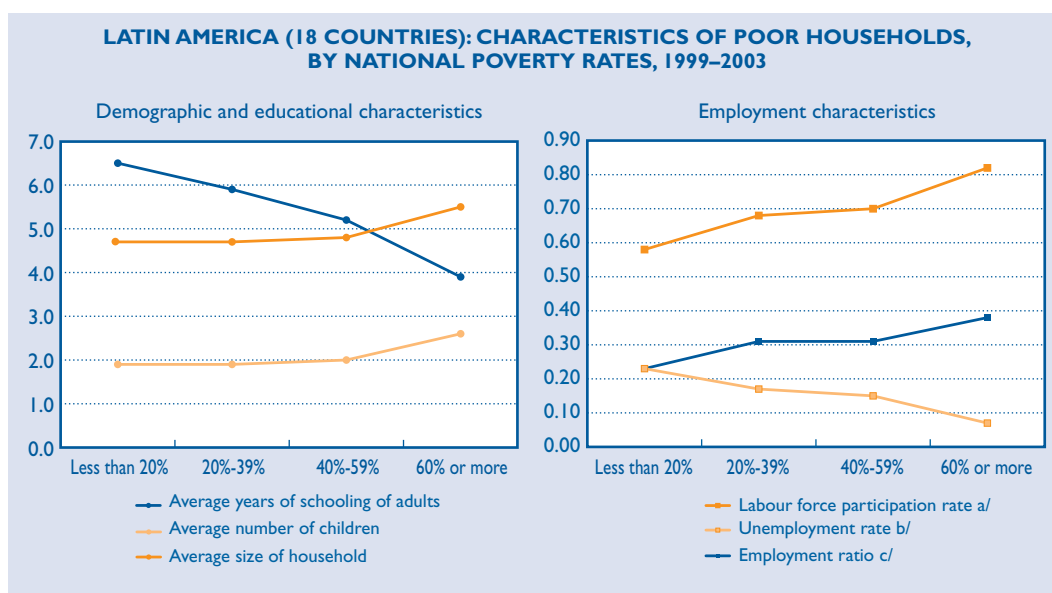
CHARACTERISTICS OF POVERTY

An analysis of the living conditions of poor people in Latin America (as defined on the basis of an insufficient level of monetary resources) is essential in order to gain a fuller understanding of poverty as such and to design policies for overcoming it. Factors that work against poor people's full participation in society cover a wide range and include household size and composition, human capital endowments, opportunities for finding suitable employment and the level of access to housing and basic services.

First of all, poor households tend to be big. They also tend to have a larger number of children and thus to have higher demographic dependency ratios (see figure 3).

Opportunities to generate sufficient income to meet household consumption requirements are restricted both by these households' low employment rates and by the limited income-generating capacity of those household members who are working. On the one hand, poor households' low employment ratios (the total number of household members divided by the total number of employed household members) are aggravated by the difficulties their members have in obtaining jobs. This is particularly the case in countries that have poverty rates above 20%, where only one out of every four household members is employed. On the other hand, a large percentage of a poor household's members may be employed, and in such cases its poverty is attributable to the low level of its members' labour incomes. This type of situation is found more frequently in countries with poverty rates of over 50% (see figure 3).

Figure 3



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

a/ Economically active population (employed and unemployed), divided by the working-age population.

b/ Number of unemployed persons divided by the economically active population.

c/ Number of employed persons divided by the number of household members.

One of the main determinants of the level of labour income and the quality of employment is the human capital endowments of participants in the labour market. In many countries of the region, the adult members of poor households have not completed their primary education and, in some cases, have completed less than three years of schooling (see figure 3). Consequently, those who do manage to obtain jobs are more likely to be employed in low-productivity sectors where there is a great deal of instability and where they lack access to social benefits such as health insurance and retirement pensions. In fact, in most of the countries, the income of an employed member of a poor household will cover that individual's basic needs, but there will be very little left over to help meet the needs of any other member.

Substandard sanitation and a lack of basic services are clear manifestations of the poor quality of life available to members of low-income households, particularly in countries with high poverty rates. In countries with poverty rates of less than 20%, the simultaneous presence of two or more unmet basic needs is found in less than one tenth of all poor households, but this percentage rises to over 50% in countries with higher poverty rates, such as Bolivia, Honduras and Nicaragua. It should be noted, however, that in a number of countries with poverty rates of over 40%, a significant number of non-poor households are also subject to such factors as overcrowding, the absence of a supply of drinking water, and the lack of sanitation services and electric lighting in the home.

INCOME DISTRIBUTION: CONVERGENCE TOWARDS HIGHER LEVELS OF INEQUITY

The trend in income distribution in Latin America has not been encouraging in recent years. The region's marked degree of income concentration has become one of its hallmarks and has earned it the dubious distinction of being the most backward region on the planet in terms of distribution.

One of the traits that makes Latin America's poor income distribution especially conspicuous at the international level is the high percentage of resources concentrated in the richest 10% of households. In fact, if the Gini coefficient is calculated for the other 90% of the region's households, the resulting figure is much lower than the result for the total population. The reductions in the values of the Gini index for the Latin American countries obtained using this procedure range between 0.116 (Uruguay) and 0.192 points (Brazil). These variations are much greater than those found in the case of the United States, for example, where the reduction in the Gini coefficient obtained by excluding the top decile does not exceed 0.040 points.²

When the countries are divided into four categories based on their Gini coefficients, it can be seen that, even though the forms taken by inequality in the region are quite heterogeneous, a large number of countries tend to exhibit similar levels of inequality, especially with respect to strata having a high or very high concentration of income. What is more, a comparison of this classification, which is based on data for 2002, with the classification based on 1990 data indicates that the countries have been converging towards a higher level of distributive inequity (see table 1).

2 The figures for the United States were obtained from: Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), *Facing Up to Inequality in Latin America, Economic and Social Progress in Latin America, Report 1998-1999*, Washington, D.C., 1998.

Table I

STRATIFICATION OF COUNTRIES ACCORDING TO THE GINI COEFFICIENT OF INCOME DISTRIBUTION, 1990–2002										
Level of inequality	1990		1994		1997		1999		2002	
Very high 0.5800 – 1	Brazil Honduras Guatemala	0.627 0.615 0.582	Brazil Nicaragua	0.621 0.582	Brazil Nicaragua	0.638 0.584	Brazil	0.640	Brazil Argentina c/ Honduras	0.639 0.590 0.588
High 0.5200 – 0.5799	Chile Panama b/ Bolivia d/ Mexico Colombia b/	0.554 0.545 0.538 0.536 0.531	Colombia b/ Honduras Chile Panama b/ Mexico	0.579 0.560 0.553 0.548 0.539	Colombia b/ Guatemala Chile Honduras Panama b/ Mexico Peru Bolivia b/ Argentina c/	0.577 0.560 0.560 0.558 0.552 0.539 0.532 0.531 0.530	Honduras Colombia b/ Chile Dominican Rep. Peru Mexico Argentina c/ Panama b/ Ecuador b/	0.564 0.564 0.559 0.554 0.545 0.542 0.542 0.533 0.521	Nicaragua Colombia b/ Bolivia b/ Chile Dominican Rep. Guatemala El Salvador Peru	0.579 0.575 0.554 0.550 0.544 0.543 0.525 0.525
Medium 0.4700 – 0.5199	Argentina c/ Uruguay b/ Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	0.501 0.492 0.471	Bolivia b/ Paraguay b/ Argentina c/ El Salvador Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of) Ecuador b/	0.514 0.511 0.508 0.507 0.486 0.479	El Salvador Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of) Paraguay b/	0.510 0.507 0.493	El Salvador Bolivia b/ Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of) Paraguay b/ Costa Rica	0.518 0.504 0.498 0.497 0.473	Panama b/ Mexico Ecuador b/ Paraguay b/ Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of) Costa Rica	0.515 0.514 0.513 0.511 0.500 0.488
Low 0 – 0.4699	Ecuador b/ Costa Rica	0.461 0.438	Costa Rica Uruguay b/	0.461 0.423	Ecuador b/ Costa Rica Uruguay b/	0.469 0.450 0.430	Uruguay b/	0.440	Uruguay b/	0.455

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

a/ Includes income equal to zero.

b/ Urban areas.

c/ Greater Buenos Aires.

d/ Eight main cities plus El Alto.

The data thus confirm that Latin America is a region with high levels of income concentration and that, furthermore, those levels are increasing. Improving its income distribution is therefore an ethical imperative that would, in addition, help the region achieve higher growth rates and reduce poverty. The negative impact on growth of the region's poor income distribution –and especially the highly unequal distribution of wealth– is heightened by the fact that its markets operate in a way that impedes access to credit and knowledge.

In order to improve income distribution, public policies will need to be directed at the following objectives: (a) facilitating access to assets (land, capital, knowledge and technology); (b) achieving a geographically balanced form of productive development in which small and medium-sized enterprises play an important role; and (c) implementing social policies based on the principles of universality, solidarity and efficiency. The necessary funding for such policies could be obtained by means of an appropriate fiscal covenant and a more efficient allocation of the available resources.

DEMOGRAPHIC CHANGES IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN AND THEIR POLICY IMPLICATIONS

Demographic trends and their implications for development have been a subject of ongoing debate, research and government action in the countries of Latin America and the Caribbean. Since the mid-twentieth century, the region's demographic dynamics have been extensively documented. The pace at which the demographic transition is proceeding provides a very accurate profile of the types of changes that are occurring, particularly with respect to the steady, widespread drop in mortality rates and the steep decrease in birth rates. The accompanying decline in population growth rates has eased the pressure being exerted on ecosystems and public resources.

It is becoming increasingly apparent that, in addition to posing new challenges for public policy makers, population issues are growing more complex, and more detailed information and analyses are therefore required to deal with them. Much remains to be done in terms of reducing mortality rates and the number of unwanted births, which are ongoing problems in the poorer countries and sectors of the population (including indigenous groups). These conditions are of enormous importance inasmuch as they represent a serious hindrance to efforts to achieve the Millennium Development Goals. As the transition progresses, long-standing problems merge with new ones, particularly those associated with the ageing of the population and the narrow window that exists for capitalizing upon the potentially development-friendly effects of the resulting low dependency rates. There are number of other major issues, however, that are not directly associated with the demographic transition as such. These issues include teenage pregnancies, urban concentration and the relationship between international migration and development.

In analysing these demographic changes, use has been made of information from a variety of sources, as well as much of the work done by ECLAC in the field of population, which has focused on the links between population and development. The countries of the region are having to cope with conflicting factors, given the existence of compelling reasons for people to migrate and the increasingly important repercussions of migration, which include the rising level of remittances and the restrictions placed on the entry and integration of immigrants in developed countries.

THE DEMOGRAPHIC TRANSITION AND THE AGEING OF THE POPULATION

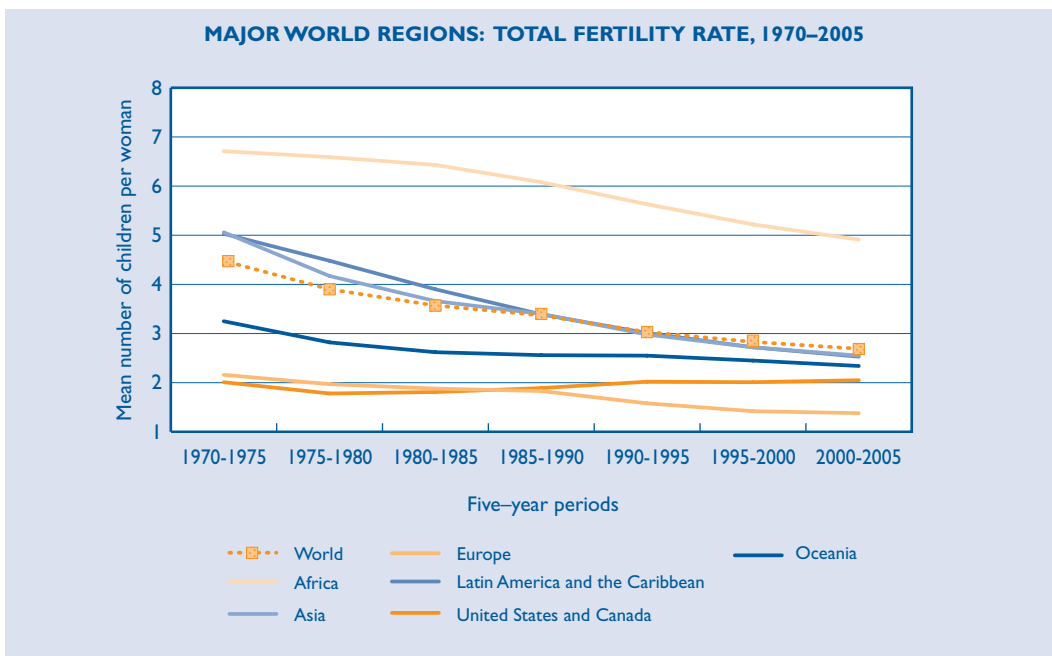
The demographic transition in Latin America and the Caribbean has taken place much more quickly than it did in Europe. The decline in mortality rates, which began in the first half of the twentieth century, and the decrease in birth rates, which started to become widespread in the 1960s, were both much swifter than they were in developed countries. The population growth rate is now quite low (around 1.5% per year). In addition, the phenomenon of population ageing has made its appearance and is

transforming the region's societies. As part of this trend, there has been a steep decrease in birth rates, although their initial levels, the length of time that they have been declining and their current values all vary from one country to the next.

On average, the region's population has a birth rate of less than three children per woman and a life expectancy at birth of 72 years, both of which it reached in a much shorter time span than was the case in Europe (see figures 4 and 5). In the mid-twentieth century, the annual population growth rate in Latin America and the Caribbean was 2.7%; the region's population rose from 161 million in 1950 to 512 million in 2000 and is expected to climb to 695 million by 2025. In 1950, the region's population amounted to less than 7% of the world's total population, but now represents nearly 9%. The heterogeneity of the transition is reflected in the fact that current annual growth rates range from less than 0.5% to 2.5% (see figure 6).

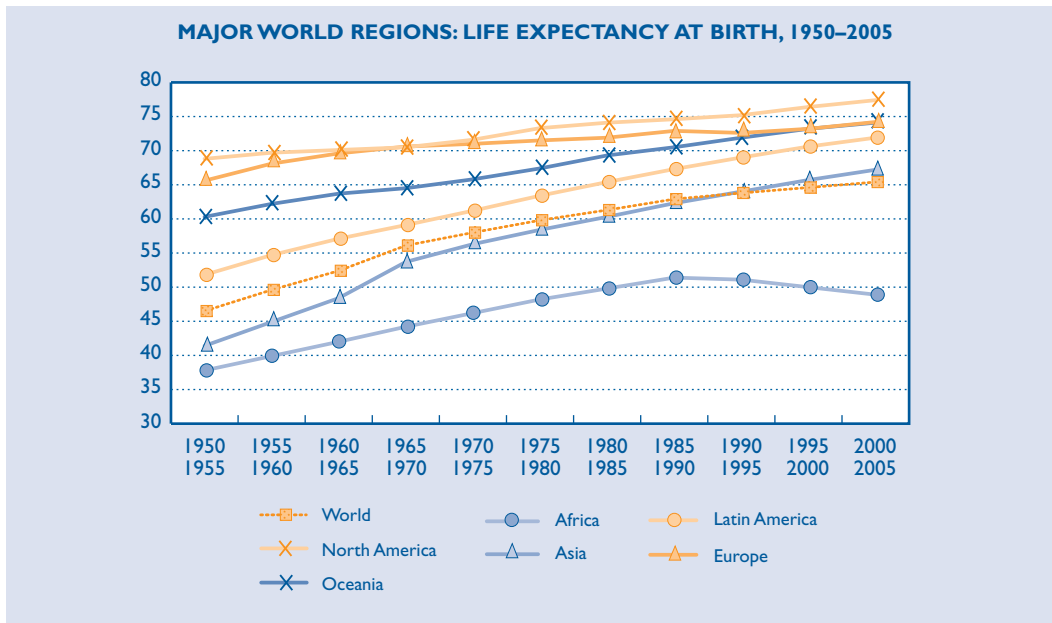
The transition has entailed a decline in the dependency rate, as well as the ageing of the population, and this has opened up a demographic window of opportunity, in the medium term, for economic activity. In contrast, the ageing of the population poses enormous social challenges, since both the percentage and the actual number of persons aged 60 years or over will be rising steadily in the coming decades. In fact, this segment

Figure 4



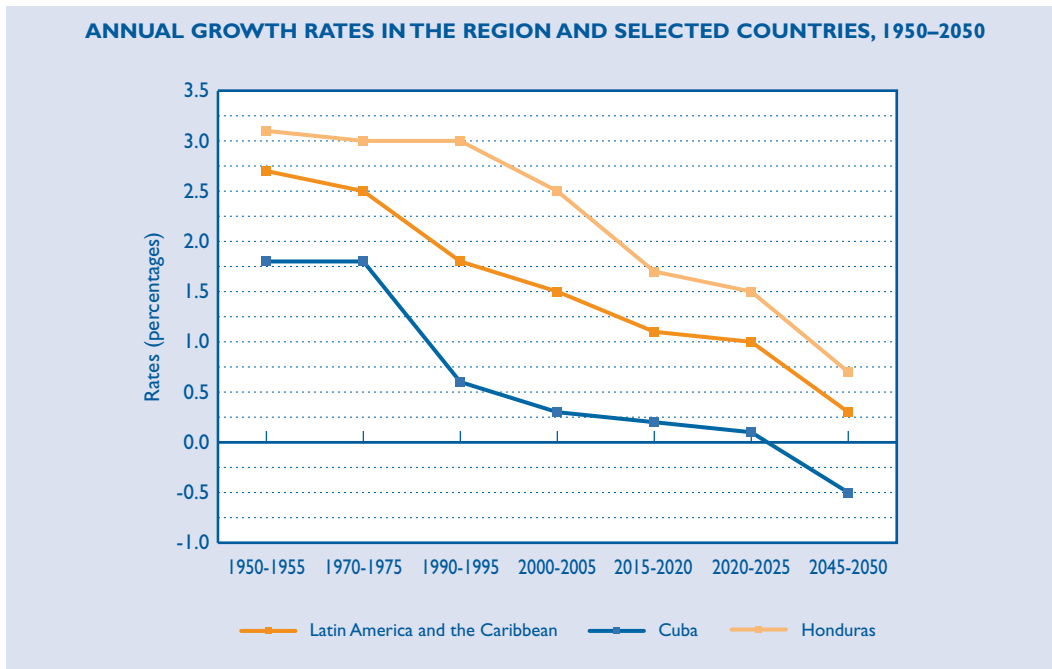
Source: United Nations, *World Population Prospects: the 2002 Revision*, New York, 2003, and Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), "Latin American and Caribbean population estimates and projections, 1950-2050", *Demographic Bulletin*, No. 73 (LC/G.2225-P), Santiago, Chile, Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, 2004. United Nations publication, Sales No. E/S.03.II.G.209.

Figure 5



Source: United Nations, *World Population Prospects: the 2002 Revision*, New York, 2003, and Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), "Latin American and Caribbean population estimates and projections, 1950-2050", *Demographic Bulletin*, No. 73 (LC/G.2225-P), Santiago, Chile, Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, 2004. United Nations publication, Sales No. E/S.03.II.G.209.

Figure 6



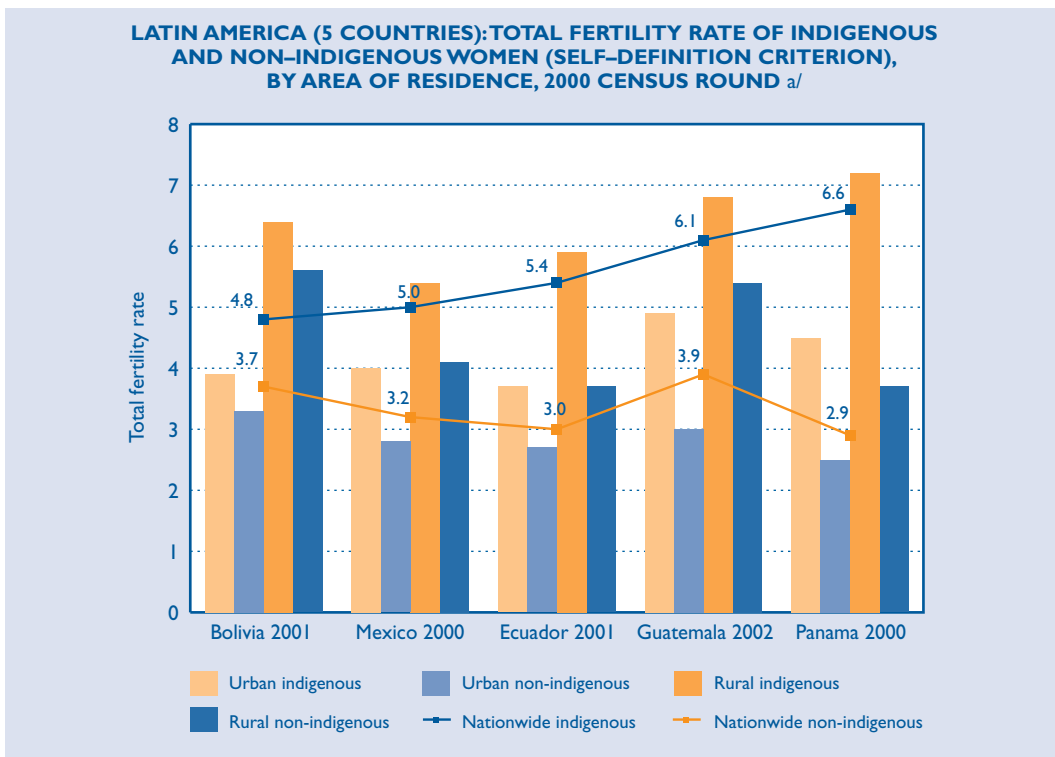
Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of population projections and estimates.

of the population will grow three times faster than the population as a whole in 2000–2025 and five times faster in 2025–2050. As a result, by 2050, one out of every four Latin Americans will be an older adult.

TRENDS AND CHANGES IN BIRTH RATES

The widespread decline in birth rates is one of the most conspicuous features of the region’s population trends, although birth rates remain high in some countries and social groups. Indeed, the rates range from below-reproduction levels in Cuba and other Caribbean island States to indices of over 4 children per woman in Guatemala and Haiti. These differences are related to the extent of contraceptive use and point to the existence of an unmet demand for family planning services. Cross-country differences are mirrored within national borders as well, as birth rates are systematically higher among poor groups and indigenous peoples, especially in countries where more of the population resides in rural areas. In many of these cases, higher birth rates impede the reduction of poverty and constitute yet another manifestation of the lack of social equity. In some countries, the disparities are enormous, with the birth rate for the lowest-income groups being three times as high as the rate for upper-income segments. In addition, many indigenous groups continue to exhibit high birth rates regardless of the stage of the demographic transition that their countries have reached (see figure 7).

Figure 7



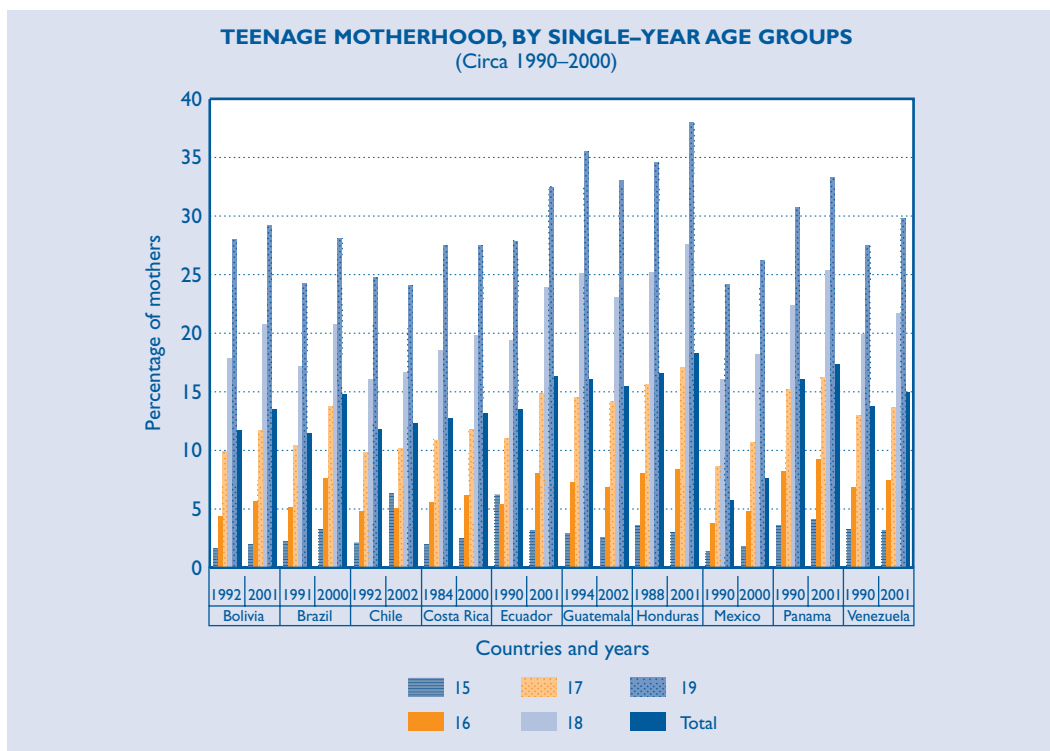
Source: Inter-American Development Bank (IDB)/Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), Project on indigenous peoples and Afro-American populations based on data from the 2000 census round.
^{a/} Indigenous and non-indigenous women, according to a self-definition criterion.

Birth rates have fallen sharply in all age groups except adolescents (under 20 years of age and especially under 18 years of age) (see figure 8). At present, between 25% and 35% of women, depending on the country, have their first child before they are 20 years old, which may undercut the advantages afforded by a decline in birth rates. In some cases teenage pregnancies appear to result from a deliberate choice made in an effort to gain social recognition or to be part of a well defined cultural pattern; nonetheless, the negative effects are well documented and tend to be more severe when the mother is not in a stable union, which is increasingly the case in many countries. Furthermore, the fact that the birth rates for this age group are much higher among the poorest sectors of all the countries' populations attests to the need for public policy measures in this area.

TRENDS AND CHANGES IN MORTALITY RATES

The region's demographic transition started off with the decrease in mortality rates seen during the first half of the twentieth century. Since 1950, the population's life expectancy at birth has risen steadily, and as of the beginning of this century was estimated at 71.9 years, for an increase of 20 years during that time span. Clear differences continue to exist, however, with Martinique, Guadeloupe and Costa Rica registering average life expectancies of over 78 years while, at the other extreme, Haiti's population

Figure 8

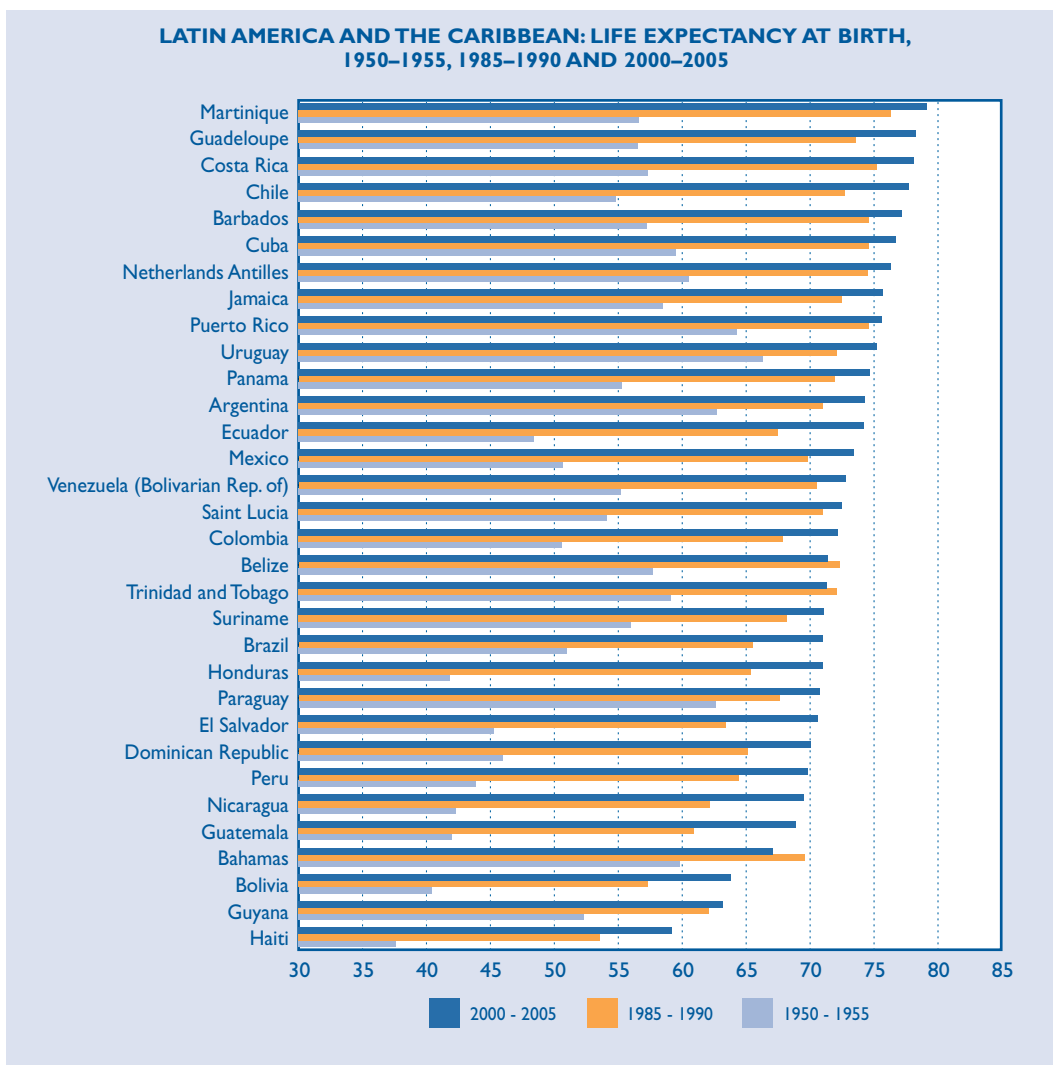


Source: Special processing of census microdata bases, and the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), *Social Panorama of Latin America, 2002–2003* (LC/G.2209–P/I), Santiago, Chile, 2004. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.04.II.G.185.

has an average life expectancy of 59.2 years (see figure 9). In conjunction with this trend, the excess male mortality rate has been on the rise due to the increasing number of deaths attributable to cardiovascular disease, external causes (accidents and traumas), acts of violence and malignant tumours. The difference between the life expectancies of the two sexes widened from 3.5 years more for women in the mid-twentieth century to 6.5 years by its end.

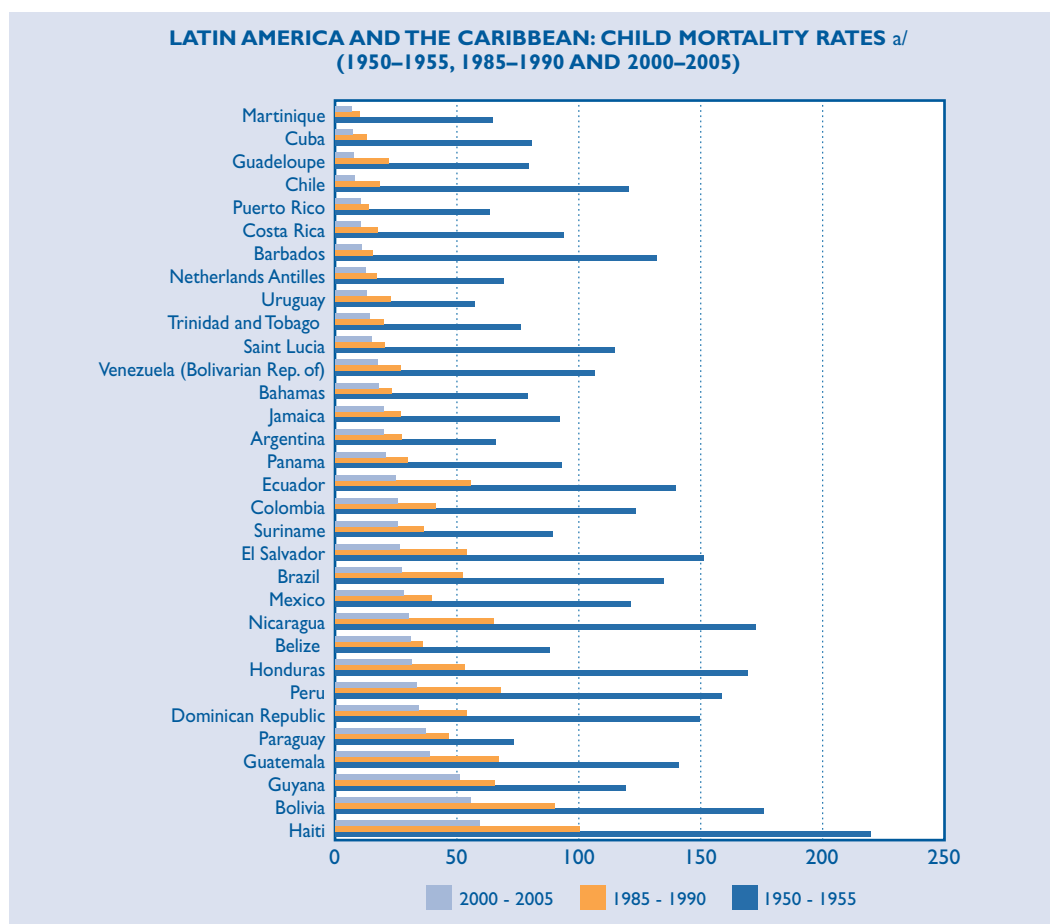
The increase in life expectancy at birth is clearly an achievement for the region and began primarily as a result of the decrease in infant mortality, which has descended from an average of 128 deaths of children under on year of age out of every 1,000 live births in 1950–1955 to 28 deaths per 1,000 in 2000–2005. A number of peculiar features are to be observed in this decline in infant mortality rates. First of all, this decline has occurred in

Figure 9



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), *Demographic Bulletin*, No. 74 (LC/G.2257-P), Santiago, Chile, Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, June 2004.

Figure 10



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), *Demographic Bulletin*, No. 74 (LC/G.2257-P), Santiago, Chile, Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, June 2004. and United Nations, *World Population Prospects. The 2002 Revision*, vol. I (ST/ESA/SER.A/198), New York, 2003.

a/ Deaths of children under one year of age per 1,000 live births.

all the countries and has borne little relationship to the existing social or economic situation. Nevertheless, infant mortality rates continue to reflect social inequalities, since major differences persist across countries and particularly across geographic areas within individual countries (see figure 10), with the highest rates being observed among rural groups and children whose mothers have the lowest levels of schooling. The situation among indigenous groups is a different issue, since their infant mortality rates are invariably higher than those of the rest of the population. These higher rates are associated with the fact that fewer measures designed to reduce infant mortality have been targeted at these groups, which have consequently lagged behind in this respect (see figure 11).

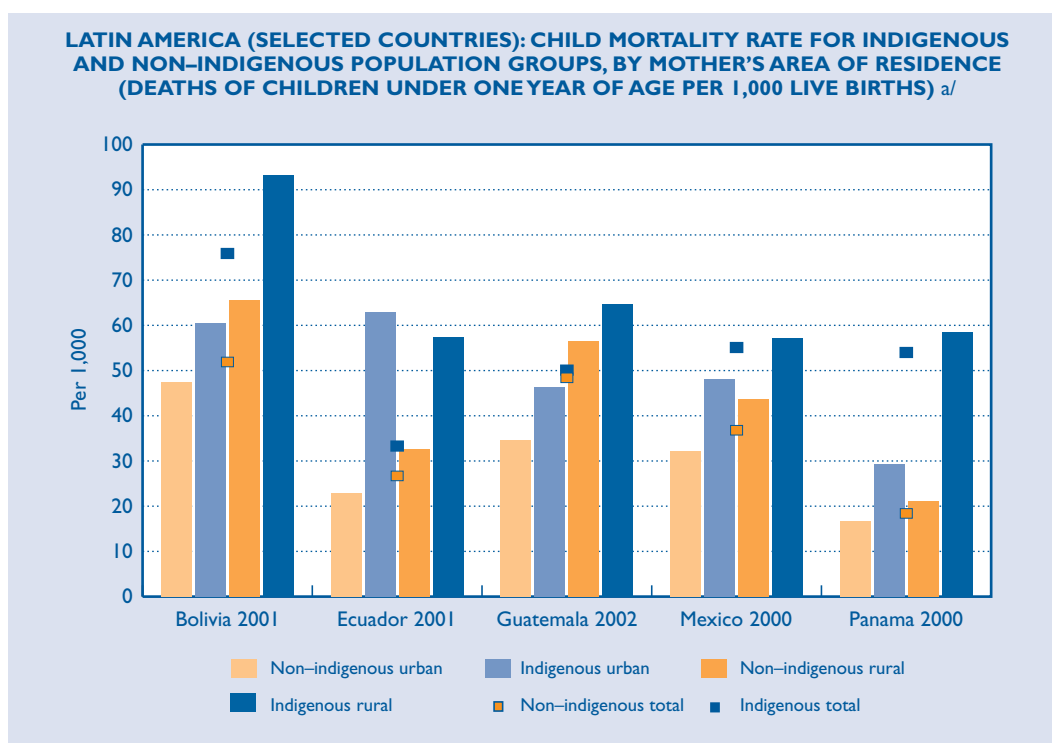
Despite the major strides that have been made in reducing infant mortality, most of the countries in the region will need to maintain or increase the rate of decline in mortality rates for children under five years of age if they are to attain the goal agreed upon at the Millennium Summit, which is to reduce the 1990 infant mortality rate by two thirds.

An epidemiological transition entailing a shift in the cause-based profile of morbidity and mortality and the age-based distribution of deaths is occurring in parallel with the demographic transition. This transition is characterized by a reduction in the percentage of deaths attributable to transmissible diseases (infectious, parasite-borne and respiratory illnesses) and to perinatal causes and by the general predominance of deaths due to chronic and degenerative illnesses (diseases of the circulatory system and malignant tumours) and outside events (deaths caused by violence, accidents and traumas).

INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION AND DEVELOPMENT

International migration is one of the distinguishing features of the Latin American countries' position within the international economy. Large-scale outward migratory flows are to be observed from all the countries as a result of both domestic and external factors. These outward flows –one of whose negative consequences is a loss of human capital– are marked by a lack of support networks for the establishment of links between

Figure 11



Source: Inter-American Development Bank (IDB)/Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), Project on indigenous peoples and Afro-American populations based on data from the 2000 census round, and population censuses in Guatemala (2002) and Mexico (2000).

^{a/} Indigenous and non-indigenous children (self-definition), by mother's area of residence.

migrants and their countries of origin. Meanwhile, the macroeconomic and social impact of migrants' remittances has become considerable in the past five years. Although there has always been a flow of remittances, the volume of these flows now far exceeds the amount of resources coming from other sources of foreign exchange and plays a decisive role in the economic upkeep of a growing number of households in various countries.

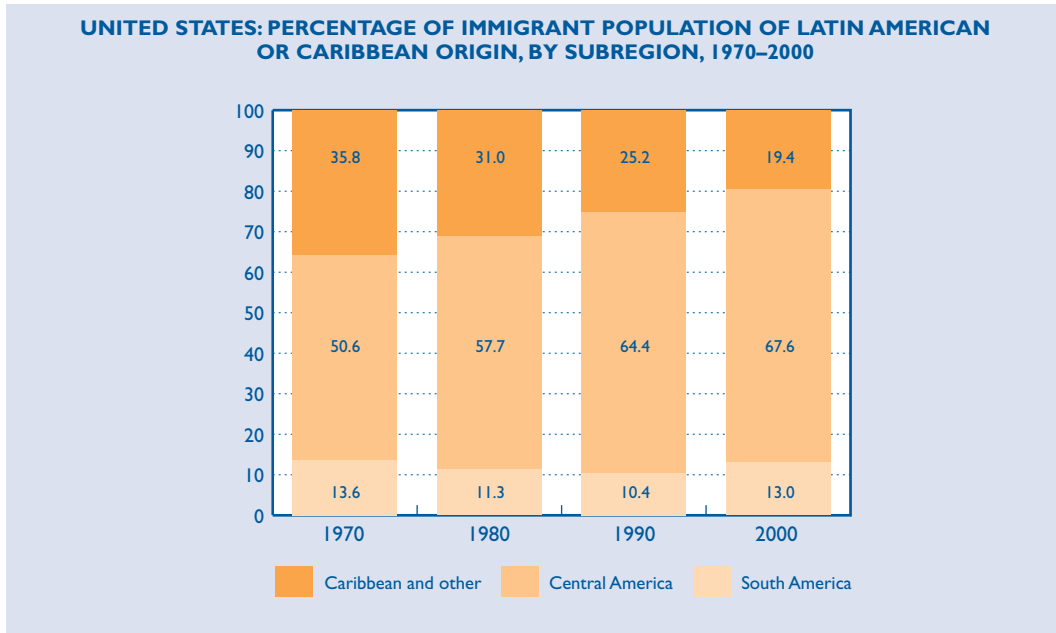
The multiple risks faced by migrants from the region are another important dimension of contemporary migratory flows. A wide variety of underlying factors are at work, but the undocumented status and vulnerability of many migrants are attributable to the failure of many Governments to embrace shared principles of migration governance. As a result, migration issues continue to be addressed unilaterally, as is reflected by the selective nature of most developed countries' policies on the entry and integration of immigrants.

Although regional migratory (and, especially, transboundary) movements persist and there has been a notable decline in overseas migration, the region has gradually been expanding its list of destination countries. In addition, these flows are coming to include new types of migrants, particularly mid-level and highly skilled workers and women. Over 20 million Latin Americans and Caribbeans now reside outside the country of their birth. This is a figure without precedent in these countries' histories and is a reflection of the upsurge in migration seen during the 1990s. Most of this increased migration has been directed to the United States, but new migratory flows to Europe and, within Europe, particularly to Spain have also arisen and are expanding at a record pace.

In terms of international migratory flows of Latin Americans and Caribbeans, Argentina, Costa Rica and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela continue to receive the largest numbers of immigrants from other countries in the region. The United States received an estimated 15 million immigrants from the region in 2000, which is slightly more than half of the total number of immigrants arriving in that country. Most of these immigrants are from Mexico and Central America, and a majority are male (see figures 12 and 13). Approximately 3 million persons emigrated to other destinations in 2000. Some countries received larger flows than before in part because of the return of former emigrants and the granting of citizenship to persons whose relatives or ancestors had been citizens of the country. The marked predominance of women in these flows has been an emerging trend in this respect.

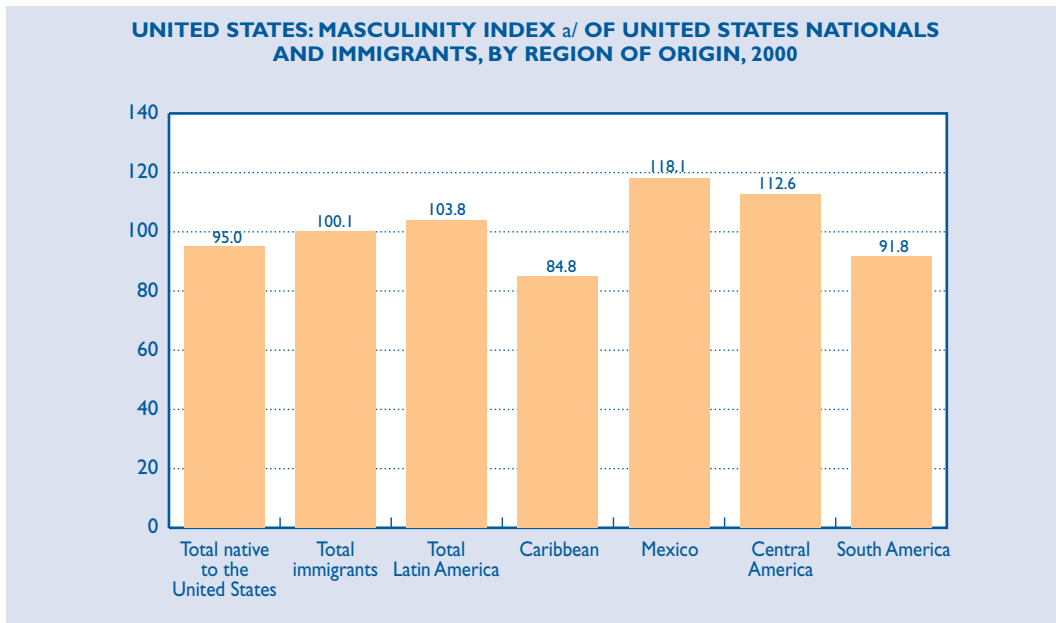
This significant increase in the proportion of women migrants has been coupled with qualitative changes in migratory flows which are associated with varying occupational, family-related and individual motivations. Meanwhile, remittances are becoming one of the most significant and tangible dimensions of Latin American and Caribbean international migration. As of 2003, it is estimated that the region was receiving remittances amounting to over US\$ 35 billion, which made Latin America and the Caribbean the recipient of the largest share of total remittances of all the world's regions. In some countries, these remittances are equivalent to over 10% of GDP and more than 30% of total exports. The high cost of transferring such remittances to migrants' home countries is one of the major issues to be addressed in order to increase the transparency of the remittances market.

Figure 12



Source: Miguel Villa and Jorge Martínez Pizarro, "La migración internacional de latinoamericanos y caribeños en las Américas", *Seminarios y conferencias series*, No. 33 (LC/L.2012–P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), 2003. The information for 2000 is from the *Current Population Survey* of the United States Labor Department.

Figure 13

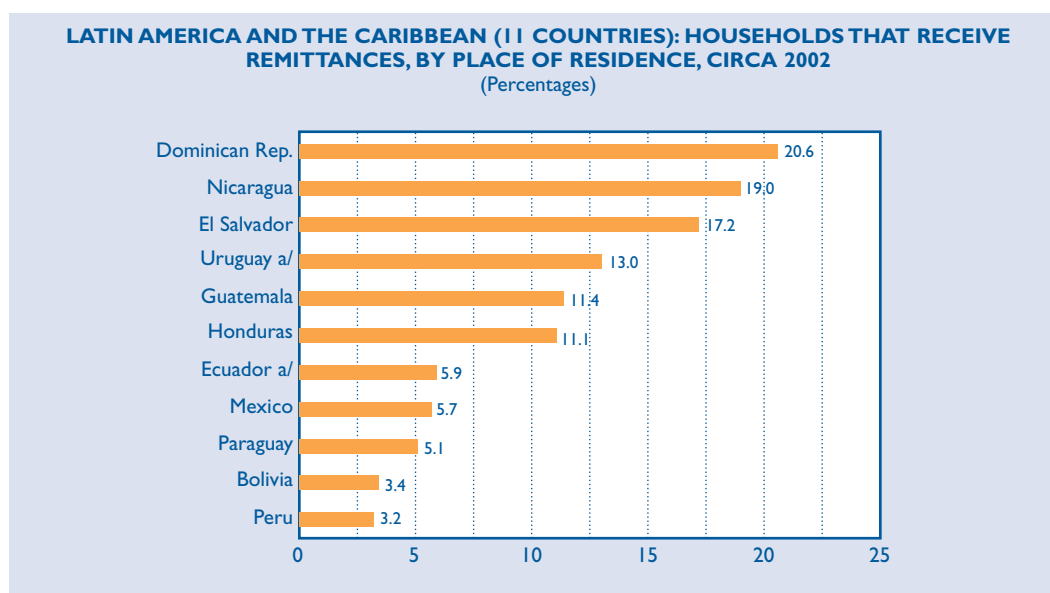


Source: A. Schmidley, "Profile of the foreign-born population in the United States: 2000", *Current Population Reports*, series P23–206, Washington, D.C., United States Census Bureau, 2001, according to data from the *Current Population Survey*, 2000.
^{a/} Percentage of men for every 100 women.

Nearly two thirds of all emigrants send remittances to their families. The amounts they send represent less than 10%, on average, of their incomes but constitute a much larger percentage of the recipient households' incomes. The percentage of households receiving such remittances ranges from 3% (Bolivia, Peru) to nearly 20% (Dominican Republic, Nicaragua) but also varies from one area to another within each country (see figure 14).

Aside from the issue of remittances, the loss of human capital and the fact that migrants' human rights are often placed in jeopardy are priority concerns in terms of the governance of migration. The principal challenge facing the Latin American and Caribbean countries is to find ways of capitalizing upon the enormous development potential of migration. To do so, they will have to make their demands known to developed countries in no uncertain terms and make a commitment to enhancing the governance of migration in order to promote greater mobility for migrants, improve the integration and protection of immigrants, augment the flow and impact of remittances, facilitate the circulation of skilled personnel and help to reduce the asymmetry of the international order.

Figure 14



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

a/ Urban total.

INTERNAL MIGRATION AND SPATIAL DISTRIBUTION

Latin America and the Caribbean are the most urbanized of the world's developing regions, with 75% of the population residing in urban locations (at the country level, this figure ranges from 90% to less than 50%). The region's urban structure is based on large metropolises; in fact, one out of every three people in the region lives in a city that has a population of over one million. Meanwhile, the rural population has remained at around

125 million for the last two decades. Internal migration takes place on a moderate scale and is primarily an inter-urban (and increasingly complex) phenomenon. Younger people and more highly educated people tend to migrate more than others, and a majority of these migrants are women. This latter characteristic is a feature that sets Latin America and the Caribbean apart from other regions.

Although the demographic pattern of the region's urban systems continues to be highly concentrated (in most countries, the largest city accounts for over one fourth of the national population and more than one third of the urban population), internal migration is no longer adding to the populations of major cities. In fact, during the past two decades a number of metropolitan areas, especially the largest ones, have witnessed net emigration. As an accompanying phenomenon, many medium-sized cities have experienced rapid growth and areas specializing in primary production for export have undergone an economic reactivation. Some of the areas which are receiving a great deal of investment have not proved attractive to potential migrants, however, because the jobs being created in these locales are substandard or seasonal in nature. Be this as it may, the region's major cities made somewhat of a recovery in the 1990s, as their net emigration rates have not increased since then and they continue to serve as regional development hubs. The consensus view is that, apart from certain exceptional circumstances, changes in residence are the result of freely made, individual decisions. The State's role is therefore one of averting forced emigration, promoting the dissemination of information about possible destinations and fostering the creation of a discrimination-free environment in those locations. Market forces are clearly the most powerful incentives in terms of location and migration, but public policies and programmes are nonetheless required in order to influence the pattern of human settlements. Such measures are particularly important in order to uphold human rights in all the countries, promote environmentally-friendly human settlement patterns and assist the countries in fully capitalizing upon production opportunities in their territories.

THE SOCIAL SITUATION OF LATIN AMERICA'S YOUTH

The situation of young people in the region is a matter of growing concern, as the mechanisms that link the process of maturation to social integration have become less clear-cut. In other words, the channels through which young people move from education to employment, from their family of origin to the formation of a new household and from material dependence to independence are less straightforward and have increasingly diverse effects on different groups of young people. Not coincidentally, society's image of young people has come to include phenomena such as political antagonism or apathy, dropping out of school, the postponement of procreation, the breakdown of standards and high-risk behaviour.

With respect to the kinds of challenges and conflicts faced by today's youth, attention should be drawn to a series of tensions and paradoxes. While young people enjoy greater access to education and information than their elders, they also have fewer opportunities for employment and access to power. Young people have greater expectations of autonomy than previous generations, as a result of the secularization of values and the

tendency to question authority, but they do not have the productive and institutional means of translating those expectations into reality. Young people have the benefit of better health–care systems, but they lack services adapted to their specific morbidity and mortality profile that take high–risk behaviour and social violence into account as key factors. While they are seen as potential human capital that must be trained for the future, and demands are made on them accordingly, the consumer society urges them to indulge in instant gratification, and the decline of the employment society presents them with an increasingly uncertain future. On the one hand, they have the advantage of registering lower fertility rates than previous generations; on the other, the problem of teenage fertility persists and continues to be a vehicle for the intergenerational transmission of poverty and exclusion.

Young people cannot be regarded as a uniform group, as nearly all the social indicators pertaining to them vary widely according to age subgroup, sex, geographical location, ethnicity and socio–economic status. What they all have in common, however, is that they are experiencing a process of change in which they go through different phases in terms of the principal activities they carry out (studying versus working), their degree of independence and autonomy (economic and affective) and the role they play in the family structure (son or daughter, head of household or spouse). In addition, it is impossible to grasp the reality of "being young" without considering two central dimensions of young people's status as subjects: their manner of appropriating cultural objects, which differs sharply from adults' approach to such objects, and their manner of participating in society and exercising their citizenship, which are key determinants of their social inclusion.

With respect to sociodemographic trends among young people, the Latin American and Caribbean region is currently in the second phase of the demographic transition, in which falling fertility and rising life expectancy are slowing down the growth of the youth population and reducing the proportion of young people out of the total population. Some countries are on the verge of entering a third phase in which the absolute number of young people declines and the drop in the percentage they represent becomes steeper, to the point where this percentage is likely to reach about 25% by the middle of the twenty–first century. This "demographic bonus" generates both challenges and opportunities for policies relating to youth.

Table 2

LIVING SITUATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE (Percentages)				
Type	Chile	Colombia	Bolivia	Mexico
Family of origin	87.7	84.0	68.8	80.0
Own family	12.3	13.0	24.3	20.0
No family	...	3.0	6.9	...

Source: National youth surveys.

As to young people's family situation, a symptom of delayed autonomy can be observed in the region: young people are staying longer in their family of origin, both

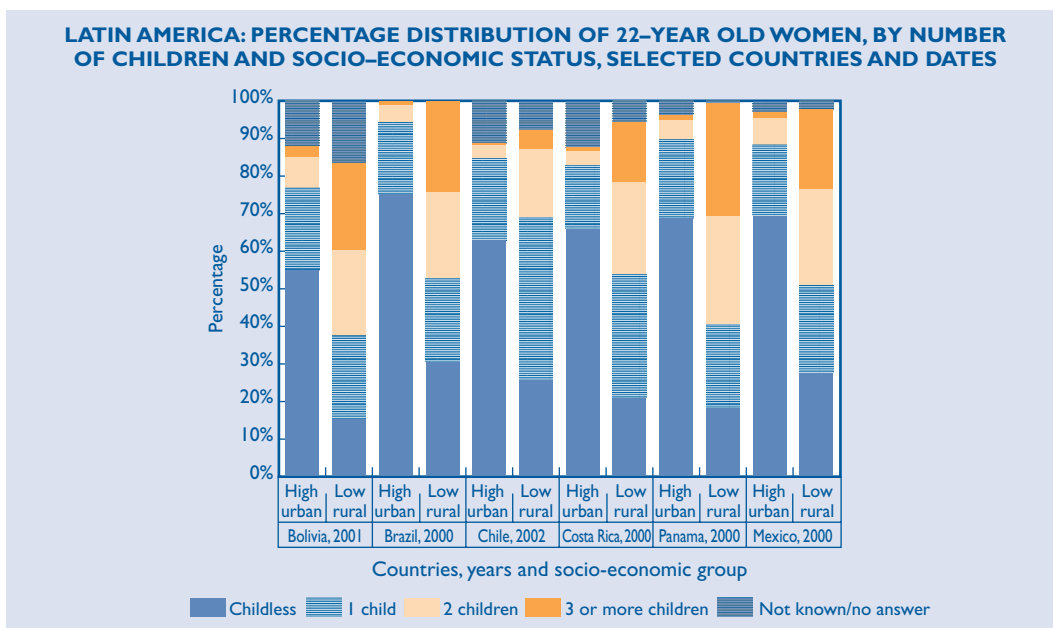
because they tend to undertake more years of formal education and because they have difficulty in obtaining steady employment. This explains why young people who have formed a family of their own represent a relatively small proportion of the total (see table 2). Although today's youth initiate sexual relations at an earlier age, they are also increasingly likely to delay marriage, as reflected by the upturn, in all the Latin American countries, in the proportion of people who are still single upon reaching the end of the phase defined as "youth".

About one sixth of the region's young people have formed their own households. Within this group, some 73% of male heads of household have nuclear families, whereas this figure is just over half (52%) in the case of female heads of household. This indicates that young women are more likely to live in situations that heighten their vulnerability.

In Latin America as a whole, in the late 1980s women averaged 2.2 live births by the age of 30, but today the average has dipped to 1.7 live births by that age, and differences across countries continue to be sharp. Despite this decline, which potentially affords young women in Latin America greater educational and employment opportunities, these women still begin reproduction at relatively early ages, meaning that this phenomenon reflects a decline in the average total number of births in the entire course of their childbearing years. The high and rising rate of teenage fertility, especially in low-income groups, is a serious problem.

There are other good reasons to worry about teenage fertility, given that it is highest by far in poor and undereducated groups, reproduces poverty and exclusion, tends to be correlated with precarious conditions of childbirth and child-raising and poses higher risks for both mother and children (see figure 15).

Figure 15



Source: Special processing of census microdata.

With respect to young people's health, by the late 1990s the mortality risk for Latin American and Caribbean youth had gone down considerably in countries such as Bolivia, Colombia, Peru and some of the Central American countries in relation to what it had been in the early 1980s. Today the mortality rate for young people aged 15 to 24, calculated at 134 per 100,000, averages slightly over half the rate for adults aged 25 to 44, the next age group, which, as a whole, displays the highest rate of labour-force participation.

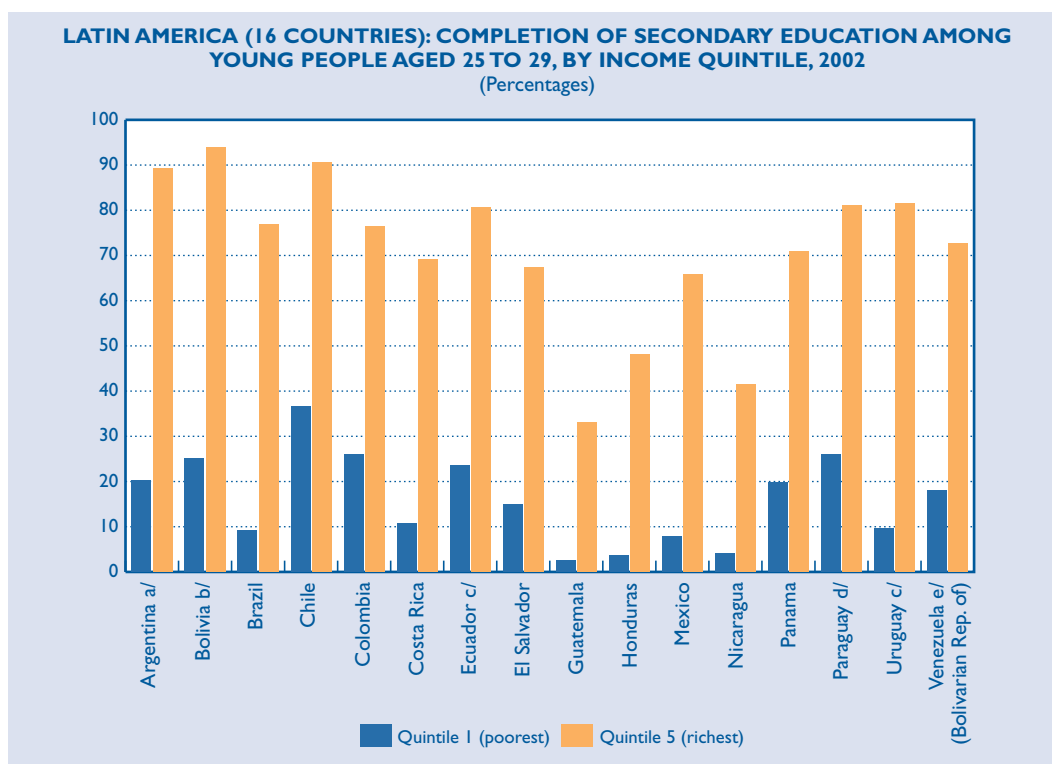
External factors are undoubtedly the most common cause of death, in both absolute and relative terms, among young people of both sexes in the region. However, this cause is relatively more common among young men: out of every 100 male deaths, 77 are attributable to violence or injury. Among young women, 38 out of every 100 deaths are the result of these causes and 62 are the result of morbidity, although there is no single region-wide mortality profile by cause.

In terms of young people's education, clear progress has been made at all levels of schooling with respect to the rates recorded for previous generations. Among 15- to 29-year-olds, women have higher rates of educational achievement than men at the primary and secondary levels; this difference is not found in older age groups. In higher education, gender-based inequalities of access in favour of men have diminished radically. There are still severe quality and achievement gaps between different socio-economic groups (see figure 16) and geographical locations, to the detriment of young people in poor and rural groups.

The region's educational systems face multiple challenges, especially if they are to succeed in training young people for productive employment, active citizenship and participation in the knowledge society. It is necessary to lower the high repetition and dropout rates that reduce levels of educational achievement; mitigate inequalities of educational opportunity and achievement to prevent their transmission from one generation to the next; redress the quality problems reflected in unsatisfactory learning outcomes, which limit young people's career and life prospects and inhibit society's development of human capital; fill gaps with regard to training for participation in the knowledge society and contemporary democracy; and address areas in which education does not adequately prepare young people for the new challenges they will face in the world of work.

With respect to employment, at the beginning of the current decade the unemployment rate for young people (15.7%) was more than double the rate for adults (6.7%), and the gap between young people and adults was similar for both men and women. In addition, the labour situation of Latin American youth is deteriorating, as shown by the rise in unemployment, the growing concentration of employment in low-productivity sectors and the decline in labour income in this age group. This deterioration reflects general trends in the region's labour markets, especially since the late 1990s. Young people have benefited from the expansion of employment in the tertiary sector, which has opened up significant opportunities, especially for women. But they have been adversely affected by the relative contraction of employment in manufacturing, where they had previously represented a sizeable share of the workforce.

Figure 16



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

a/ Greater Buenos Aires.

b/ Eight major cities and El Alto.

c/ Urban total.

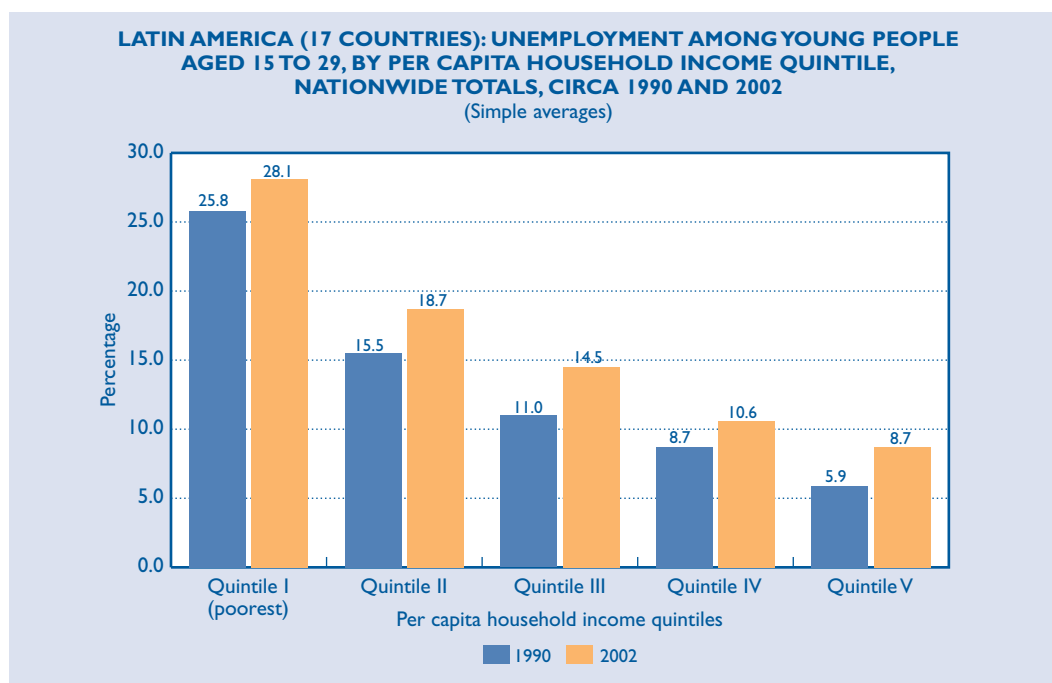
d/ Asunción and Departamento Central.

e/ Nationwide total.

Among young people, the unemployment rate for women is nearly 50% higher than the rate for men, and no significant changes have been observed in recent years. Lastly, unemployment among young people is clearly stratified by socio-economic status (see figure 17).

Data on young people's poverty status in 18 Latin American countries show that some 41%, or about 58 million, of the young people in those countries were living in poverty in 2002; of that group, 21.2 million were extremely poor (see table 3). This represents a two-percentage-point decline in relation to the 1990 figure. In absolute terms, however, between 1990 and 2002 the number of young people living in poverty rose by 7.6 million, and the number living in extreme poverty, by 800,000. The poverty rate for young people is lower than the rate for the total population (except in Chile and Uruguay), but it is declining more slowly. With respect to the urban-rural divide, in 2002 poverty among young people (weighted average) reached 54.8% in rural areas, versus 33.4% in urban areas. In the case of indigence, these indices were 27.9% and 8.9%, respectively.

Figure 17



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

Table 3

LATIN AMERICA (19 COUNTRIES): POVERTY AND INDIGENCE RATES, CIRCA 1990 AND 2002 (Percentages)			
	1990	2002	Variation
Poverty			
Young people	43 (50.4)	41 (58.0)	-4.7 (15.1)
Total population	48 (200.0)	44 (221.0)	-8.3 (10.5)
Indigence			
Young people	17 (20.4)	15 (21.2)	-11.8 (3.9)
Total population	23 (93.0)	18 (97.0)	-21.7 (4.3)

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys, circa 1990 and 2002.
The numerals in parentheses refer to the number of people, in millions.

An analysis of cultural consumption, for which free time is a prerequisite, provides insight into young people's everyday life and identity. Watching television, listening to music, "chatting", reading, going to the movies, dancing, engaging in sports and playing video games are the most common forms of cultural consumption. The centrality of media consumption indicates that the household has become the setting for intensive symbolic consumption and the growing convergence of communication technologies, with a diversification of media that includes the consumption of cable television, videos, DVDs,

Internet and other devices. Young people's affinity for new communication technologies marks a cognitive and perceptual difference with respect to the world of adults. Here again, however, socio-economic disparities are evident: in higher-income groups, the Internet is accessed primarily through home computers, whereas in low-income sectors such access, which is much less readily available, usually takes place through public facilities.

As to young people's participation, a number of substantial changes have taken place in the region over the past decade. Most of them appear to be trends, with different degrees of significance and varying implications for the countries: (i) the discrediting of political institutions and the redefinition of the idea of a democratic system, notwithstanding the premium placed on participation as a means of personal fulfilment and the achievement of specific purposes; (ii) the high levels of association between young people through religious practices and sports; (iii) the growing importance of new kinds of informal association; (iv) the emergence of issues that have struck a chord with young people, such as human rights, peace, feminism, ecology and the cultures of specific ethnic groups or indigenous peoples; and (v) the increasing impact of the mass media—particularly television—on the generation of new patterns of association among young people.

A corollary of this last trend is the centrality of audio-visual experience, which seems to entail a "television" of public life and a tendency to participate in it through the television screen. At the same time, increasing use is being made of virtual networks as a platform for mobilizing youth. Lastly, young people's propensity for joining volunteer groups reveals their desire to contribute to social well-being, but without going through the political system.

From the standpoint of public management, it is important to include a strong beneficiary-participation component in youth policies and to seek to involve young people in public policies designed to support other groups. Young people should also be included in initiatives to prevent and mitigate the problems that affect them most directly, such as campaigns to combat teenage pregnancy, the spread of sexually transmitted diseases, drug addiction and youth violence. Lastly, the designers and implementers of public policies for young people must take into account the cultural changes experienced by today's youth, the influence of the communications media and the cultural industry, the greater autonomy to which young people aspire and the tension between more training and less employment and between greater expectations and fewer means of satisfying them.

FAMILY STRUCTURES, HOUSEHOLD WORK AND WELL-BEING IN LATIN AMERICA

In Latin America the family continues to perform a strategic function as a source of support and protection, given the still-limited coverage of social systems in the region, especially with regard to unemployment, illness, old age and migration. At the same time, the family has been assigned an increasingly important role in the new cross-cutting, comprehensive approaches that are being used more often in the design of

social policies, particularly those aimed at reducing poverty. These circumstances make it imperative to update and expand information on the family structure and on the functions it performs.

One of the features of Latin American families in urban areas is the widening diversity of family structures (in terms of size and composition by type of family member), which reflects the different stages of demographic transition and the different levels of development reached by the countries of the region. As shown in figure 18, these two factors account for the greater or lesser incidence of both one-person households and households consisting of an older couple whose children have left home.

In a little over a decade, family structures have undergone a number of changes, including a considerable increase in one-person households and households headed by women, while the proportion of nuclear and two-parent families has declined. The most visible trend is the increase in single-parent households headed by women, which has been the subject of numerous studies in Latin America (ECLAC, 1995, 2004) and is related to a variety of demographic, cultural and socio-economic factors. The demographic factors include the increase in life expectancy (especially for women) and in migration, together with a rise in separation and divorce rates. With respect to cultural factors, it is clear that women's growing participation in economic activity has given them the economic independence and social autonomy they need to form or continue to live in households without a partner. The increase in single parenthood is observed in both nuclear and extended families: in 2002 about one fifth of the region's nuclear families and over one third of its extended families were headed by women. The largest proportions of nuclear families headed by women are found in Bolivia, Costa Rica, Colombia, Honduras, Panama and the Dominican Republic.

Although the traditional nuclear-family model –consisting of a father-breadwinner, a mother-housewife (with no paid employment) and their children– continues to be the most common type of family, it is clearly no longer the predominant family model in Latin America, as it accounts for only 36% of the total (see figure 19).

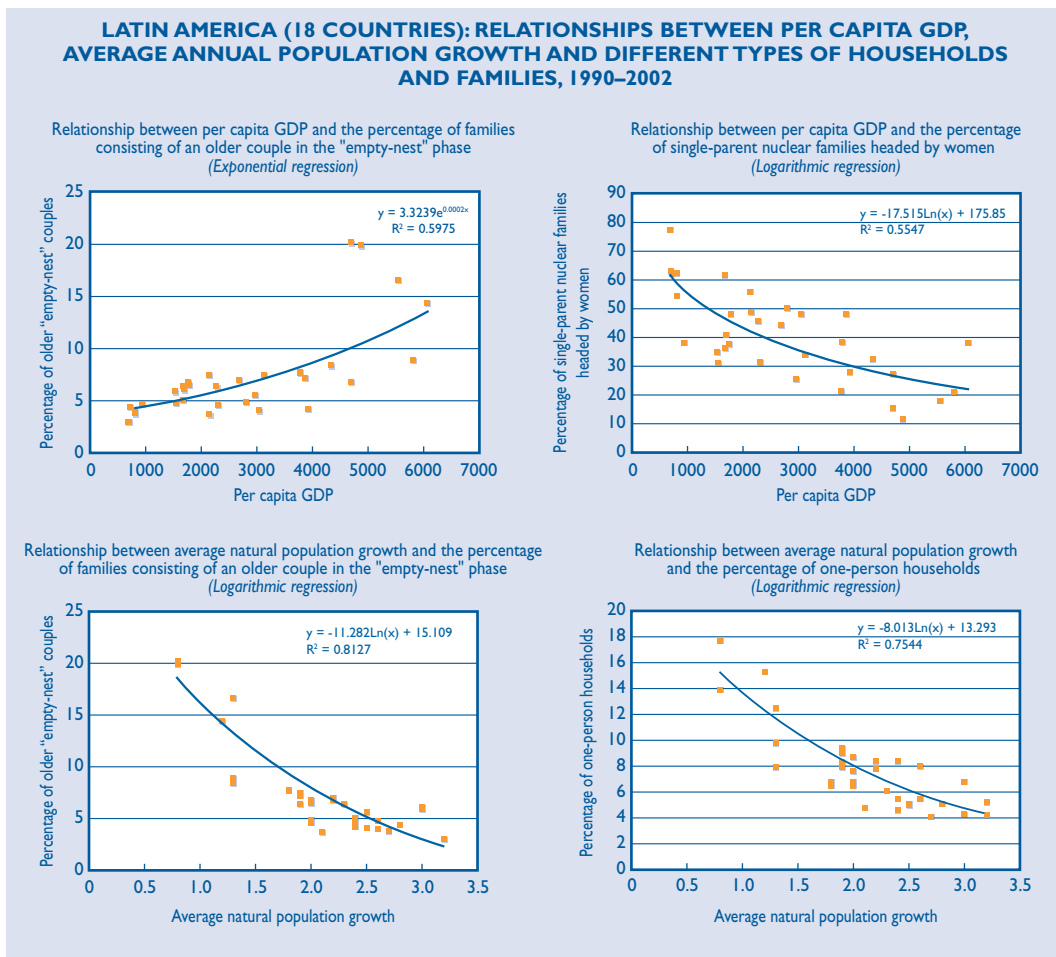
Generally speaking, it may be inferred that even though the decline in the average number of children per household has reduced the total burden of socialization, the increase in single-parent families has also reduced the number of adults available to carry out this task. This is particularly evident in the case of women, who, in many families, have exclusive responsibility for both productive and reproductive tasks. Added to this is the growing complexity of socialization in the region's societies, which are increasingly heterogeneous and fraught with risk.

The current configuration of Latin American households and families calls for new policies aimed at both men and women, in their capacity as parents, and the social institutions whose support is required to help families meet their needs. A dual approach should be taken: policies designed to help reconcile the demands of family life and work, on the one hand, and policies to provide the necessary support for the care of children and older adults, on the other. Many of the changes observed in the family are the

outcome of individual desires and choices, rather than social pathologies. Policies must therefore be geared to facilitating, not limiting, individual choices by providing the resources needed to ensure the well-being of all family members.

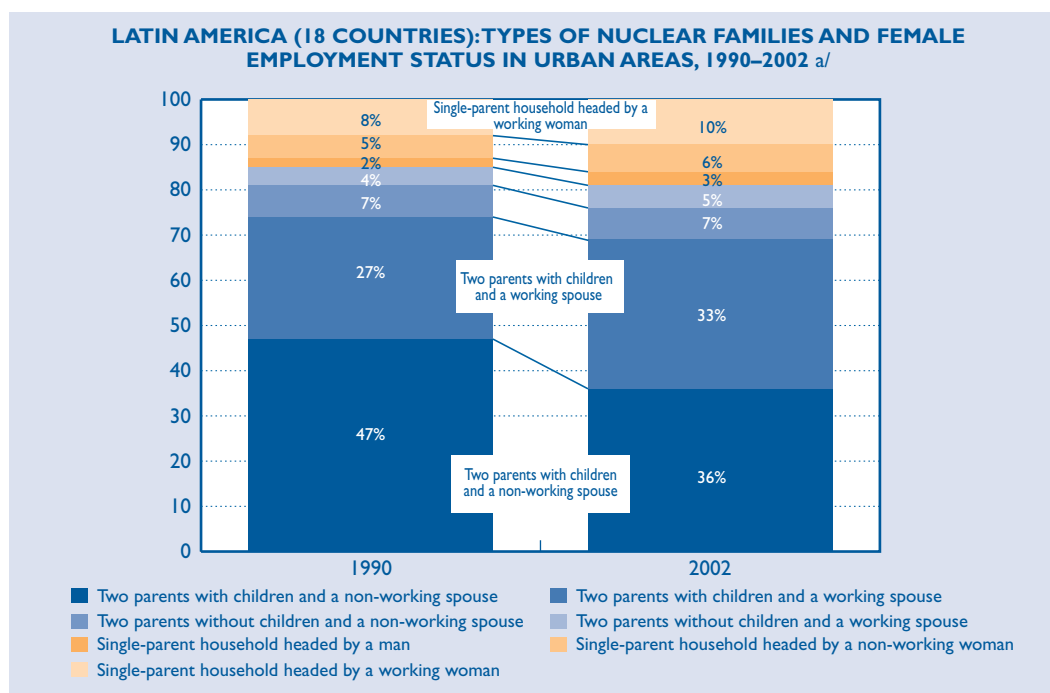
The distribution of Latin American families among the six stages of the family life cycle identified on the basis of household survey information reveals that most of them are at the expansion and consolidation stage; i.e., the point at which childbearing has been completed. This is a stage at which family resources come under strong pressure, as the family has reached its maximum size and children are still at an age of economic dependence. There has also been considerable growth in the number of families at the stage where children are becoming independent and at the subsequent "empty nest" stage, when the household consists of an older couple without dependants.

Figure 18



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

Figure 19



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

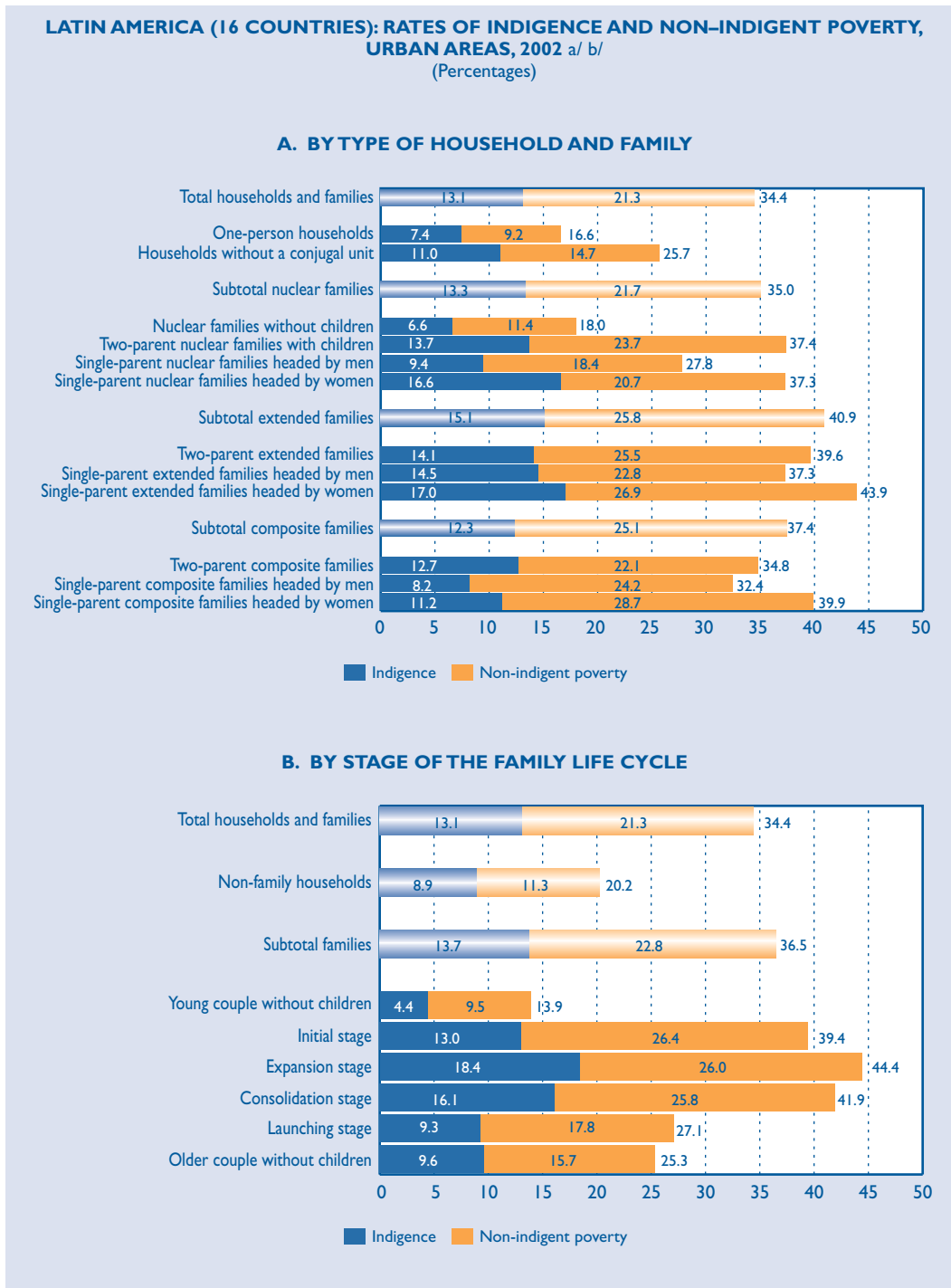
a/ Simple average.

The relationship between the family and the processes that perpetuate social inequality has long been recognized. The reproduction of social inequalities is believed to take place through two main channels. The first is related to families' kinship system and original circumstances, which provide their members with access to social, economic and symbolic assets, while the second concerns the accessibility and hierarchical structure of occupations.

Families' quality of life and well-being are related to family and household structure and to the stage reached in the family life cycle. An analysis of poverty and indigence rates by type of household confirms that these rates are highest among extended and composite families and, within this group, among single-parent households headed by women. Poverty rates are also higher among nuclear families, especially two-parent nuclear families with children and single-parent nuclear families headed by women (see figure 20).

In terms of the family life cycle, poverty rates are lowest at the stage where the family consists of a young couple without children, and highest at the expansion stage, when the number of children increases and all of them are still dependent. Some 63% of the region's households and families have two or more economic dependants, and 46% of them have two or more contributors to household income. Two-parent nuclear families with children, extended families and composite families have more contributors of labour income, but also two or more dependants, and this latter factor is reflected in their generally lower quality of life.

Figure 20



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

a/ Simple average.

b/ The figures to the right of the bars are the rates of total poverty, including indigence.

Households and families with one or more adults over the age of 65 accounted for one fifth of all Latin American households in 2002. Older adults were concentrated in households without a conjugal unit, one-person households and two-parent nuclear families without children.

The distribution of household work and paid work within families continues to be highly unequal between men and women. Although little information is available on the distribution of work within households, in all the countries women's participation in the domestic sphere is considerably higher than men's, regardless of the increase in women's economic activity rates and the larger number of households with two or more breadwinners.

The sweeping changes that have taken place in both the family and labour conditions call for new policy approaches that encourage the redistribution of household work and of responsibility for the care of children and older adults. Employed persons, especially women, face three major conflicts between work and family life: time constraints, as the demands of one type of work impede the performance of the other; the tension generated by the obligation to perform well in both roles; and the different qualities required by the two types of work. To help the population cope with these problems, it is important to adopt measures related to the organization of working hours, services to assist with household and family chores and work-related advisory and support services.

There is an urgent need to evaluate models for the care and protection of children and older adults and their compatibility with the labour market, and to review labour flexibility in terms of both working hours and maternity and paternity leave, in addition to facilitating flexibility for workers with minor children or older dependants. This problem has taken on special significance in today's world. On the one hand, it poses challenges for the projection and planning of public expenditure on the creation and expansion of care services for children and other dependants. On the other, it requires policy makers to view the care and socialization of children as not just a private family matter, but a task incumbent on society as a whole.

THE SOCIAL AGENDA: YOUTH PROGRAMMES IN LATIN AMERICA

Since 1985 the Latin American countries have established a variety of institutions to deal with youth-related issues. Although a number of different information sources have been developed –including the national youth surveys carried out in 12 countries of the region³– there is still no clear definition of "youth" as a population category; accordingly, it has been defined from a demographic standpoint. Thus, the age ranges included in the category of "youth" vary widely from one country to another, and two trends can be observed: a reduction of the age at which the period of "youth" is deemed to begin and an extension of the age range in the opposite direction, to include

3 Such surveys have been carried out in Argentina (1993, 1997), Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela (1991), Bolivia (1996, 2003), Colombia (1991, 2000), Chile (1994, 1997, 2000, 2004), Ecuador (1991), Guatemala (1999), Mexico (2000), Paraguay (1998), Peru (1991), Dominican Republic (1992, 1999) and Uruguay (1989, 1995) (OJ, 2004a).

older ages. The first trend creates an overlap between the ages of adolescence and youth in the definition of a "young person". As to the second trend, young people over 18 have not been visible as policy subjects in their own right; instead, this group tends to be subsumed under programmes for adults. This creates a dual reality for young people, in the form of a mismatch between their social and legal status. This ambiguity with regard to young people is also reflected in the lack of an in-depth discussion on social representations of the relationship between youth and adulthood and on how they influence the design of public policies for youth.

An ECLAC survey on youth programmes revealed that institutions responsible for youth-related issues in Latin America have three main concerns with respect to young people: unemployment and the quality of employment; problems in the area of education; and health risks (HIV/AIDS and teenage pregnancy) and lack of access to health care. These problem areas have the effect of worsening poverty and social exclusion among young people.

In their answers, government authorities identified a broad spectrum of causal factors associated with the problems affecting youth. Most of these causes are related to economic and employment conditions, poverty, inequality, poor quality of life and social exclusion. In the specific areas of education and health, attention was drawn to the shortage of technical and professional training and to young people's insufficient access to services and risk prevention in the area of health care. Lastly, authorities in some countries highlighted young people's insufficient civic participation and the lack of initiatives to train them in the exercise of their rights as citizens.

The replies concerning young people's self-image emphasized identity, family and emotional issues. Young people's perceptions of their difficulties in finding employment, the devaluation of education and shortcomings in the areas of civic participation and rights closely mirrored those of the authorities.

Between 1995 and 1999 national processes of formulating youth policies gained momentum, albeit at different speeds in the various Latin American countries. These policies are currently very diverse because they reflect differences in the paradigms of and approaches to youth, in the legislative foundations for youth policy (legal and regulatory sphere), in the levels of public administration that have responsibility for youth-related issues and in the specific kinds of management carried out by government institutions of youth affairs in each country.

Four typical approaches to youth are observed in the region: youth as a preparatory phase, youth as a problem phase, young people as citizens and young people as strategic agents of development. Each of these approaches is reflected in the design of specific policies and programmes found in various combinations in the countries of the region. Depending on the perspective from which they were designed, youth policies can be divided into more traditional ones and more modern ones.

The chief legal instruments governing the situation of youth are the national Children's and Adolescents' Codes, the Convention on the Rights of the Child,

International Labour Organization (ILO) Convention No. 138 on the minimum age for admission to employment and ILO Convention No. 182 on the worst forms of child labour. The Convention on the Rights of the Child is the international instrument that has had the most direct impact on the recognition of young people's rights. Progress is being made in the ratification of the Ibero–American Charter of the Rights of Adolescents and Youth, whose aim is to provide a legal basis throughout Ibero–America for the full recognition of youth as a specific status and for protecting and guaranteeing young people's exercise of their rights.

With respect to the construction of a public institutional framework for youth, progress has been uneven. There are ministries, deputy ministries, under–secretariats, institutes and departments of youth in the Latin American region, with different degrees of influence and different ranks in the political hierarchy. These entities perform a variety of functions: governance, consultancy, supervision and promotion of youth–oriented activities and services. Some countries have no government institutions of youth affairs.

All the countries, however, have both universal and sectoral youth programmes, in addition to some specific youth programmes, but these initiatives are often subsumed under programmes for adolescents and children or are ill–equipped to meet the varying needs of different segments of the youth population. Only a few countries offer specialized services for rural youth (Bolivia, Colombia and Mexico), indigenous youth (Colombia and Mexico) or young people with disabilities (Colombia), or programmes that take a gender approach or are geared to young women (Colombia and Mexico). Most youth programmes include these categories, but do not fully meet their specific needs. Costa Rica, Colombia, Mexico and Nicaragua are the countries that offer the most varied and targeted programmes and projects for youth.

Table 4

PARADIGMS OF YOUTH IN POLICY AND PROGRAMME APPROACHES		
Phases of the paradigm	Policies	Programmes
Preparatory <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Transition to adulthood Preparatory stage 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Oriented towards preparation for adulthood Aimed at extending education coverage Healthy and recreational use of free time Military service 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Universal Undifferentiated Isolated
Problematic <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Risk and transgression Social problem stage 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Compensatory Sectoral (mainly justice and health) Targeted 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Assistance–based approach aimed at controlling specific problems Priority given to working–class urban youth Dispersion of programme offerings
Citizenship–related <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Youth as citizens Social development stage 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spelled out in public policy Cross–sectoral Inclusion of young people as explicit subjects of political, social, cultural and economic rights 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Comprehensive Participatory Alliance–building
Development–related <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Young people as strategic agents of development Training and productive contribution stage 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spelled out in public policy Cross–sectoral Oriented towards incorporating young people into human capital and the development of social capital 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Equity and institutional mainstreaming Combating exclusion Young people's contribution to development strategies

Source: Dina Krauskopf, "La construcción de políticas de juventud en Centroamérica", *Políticas públicas de juventud en América Latina: políticas nacionales*, O. Dávila (ed.), Viña del Mar, Chile, CIDPA editions, 2003.

As to the diversification of programme offerings, efforts have been made to launch programmes to disseminate information on the rights and duties of the youth population and on laws pertaining to youth (Argentina, Costa Rica, Ecuador and Nicaragua). Initiatives of this kind help to strengthen youth organizations, familiarize public officials with the legislation in force and put the issue of youth on the political agenda in different sectors.

At the same time, youth programmes suffer from problems of targeting and coverage and a lack of adequate assessment systems. Accordingly, much remains to be done in terms of adopting youth policies that offer a broad range of options reflecting the different interests and circumstances of Latin American youth.



Poverty and income distribution

A. POVERTY TRENDS

Forecasts of per capita GDP growth indicate that approximately 4 million Latin Americans have been lifted out of poverty in 2004. This improvement is not large enough to offset the deterioration recorded between 2001 and 2003, however, and the projected poverty and indigence rates for 2004 (almost 42.9% and 18.6%, respectively) are therefore higher than the figures recorded in 2000. What is more, trends in the countries' poverty indices have been quite uneven, with most countries registering higher or constant rates in 2001–2003.

1. ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENTS

Since the beginning of the decade, GDP growth in Latin America (a necessary but insufficient condition for reducing poverty) has not been fast enough to offset population growth. Although the GDP growth rate in 2000 was 3.7%, it slowed in the ensuing years. After expanding by 0.4% in 2001, GDP shrank by 0.6% in 2002 before picking up again by 1.6% in 2003. As a result, the region's real per capita GDP is still lower than it was at the end of the 1990s, with an annual variation rate of -0.2% (see table I.1).

In 2003, per capita GDP in the region displayed varying trends. After four consecutive years of negative growth rates, Argentina posted the highest per capita GDP growth rate in the region (7.7%), while the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, which

had also seen a sharp decline in 2002, posted the strongest contraction (-11.3%). Per capita GDP was also down in Brazil (-1.8%), Guatemala (-0.5%), Mexico (-0.2%) and, after more than a decade of continuous growth, the Dominican Republic (-2.0%). Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Panama, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay performed well, and this was reflected in per capita GDP growth rates of 2% or above (see table 1 of the statistical appendix).

The situation is expected to improve in 2004 on the strength of a favourable international context, national economic policies geared towards greater monetary and fiscal control, and competitive exchange rates. GDP is predicted to grow by around 5.3%, which corresponds to a 3.7% expansion in per capita GDP.

In 2003, the fledgling economic recovery being seen in Latin America had some positive effects on the labour market, particularly in the form of job creation. However, these encouraging signs not only

stimulated labour demand, but also prompted more people to join the workforce. Many failed to find jobs, thereby driving up the already high unemployment rate (10.5%) (ECLAC, 2004a). In six countries of the

Table I.1

LATIN AMERICA (20 COUNTRIES): SELECTED SOCIO-ECONOMIC INDICATORS, 1990–2003											
Country	Year	Per capita GDP (Average annual rate of variation) a/	Urban unemployment	Real average wage c/	Urban minimum wage	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)					Simple average for the period b/ (Percentages)	(Average annual rate of variation)	
Argentina	1990–1999	2.7	11.9	0.9	0.8	Honduras	1990–1999	-0.2	6.1	...	0.6
	2000–2003	-3.0	16.8	-3.7	-4.1		2000–2003	0.9	6.5	...	4.0
Bolivia	1990–1999	1.6	5.3	3.0	7.4	Mexico	1990–1999	1.5	3.6	1.0	-4.7
	2000–2003	-0.1	8.6	2.6	4.7		2000–2003	0.6	2.7	3.9	0.3
Brazil	1990–1999	0.0	5.6	-1.0	-0.4	Nicaragua d/	1990–1999	0.3	14.0	8.0	-0.2
	2000–2003	0.1	9.3	-4.3	3.9		2000–2003	0.6	10.5	3.2	-3.6
Chile	1990–1999	4.1	7.6	3.5	5.9	Panama	1990–1999	3.4	16.7	...	1.5
	2000–2003	2.1	9.0	1.5	3.8		2000–2003	0.9	16.1	...	2.5
Colombia	1990–1999	0.8	11.6	2.2	-0.4	Paraguay	1990–1999	-0.8	6.3	0.3	-1.6
	2000–2003	0.9	17.4	1.6	0.6		2000–2003	-1.3	11.7	-1.5	2.5
Costa Rica	1990–1999	2.6	5.4	2.2	1.1	Peru	1990–1999	1.3	8.5	-0.8	1.4
	2000–2003	0.9	6.2	1.6	-0.3		2000–2003	1.3	9.2	1.1	3.2
Cuba	1990–1999	-3.2	6.9	Dominican Rep.	1990–1999	2.8	16.9	...	2.6
	2000–2003	2.8	3.8		2000–2003	2.2	15.5	...	-1.3
Ecuador	1990–1999	0.5	9.4	5.3	0.9	Uruguay	1990–1999	2.4	9.9	0.5	-6.0
	2000–2003	1.6	10.7	...	3.6		2000–2003	-4.7	15.7	-6.4	-6.5
El Salvador	1990–1999	2.6	7.8	...	-0.6	Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	1990–1999	0.2	10.3	-4.0	-3.0
	2000–2003	0.1	6.5	...	-1.4		2000–2003	-4.8	15.3	-6.1	-3.1
Guatemala	1990–1999	1.5	4.0	5.4	-9.8						
	2000–2003	0.1	3.3	1.1	5.2						
Haiti	1990–1999	-2.8	-8.3	Latin America	1990–1999	0.9	7.7
	2000–2003	-1.4	-1.4		2000–2003	-0.2	10.2

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

a/ Based on per capita GDP in constant 1995 dollars. The figure shown for 2003 is a preliminary estimate.

b/ In Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Chile, Guatemala, Nicaragua and Dominican Republic, refers to total nationwide unemployment. In addition, in place of the period 1990–1999, the period 1991–1999 was taken into account for Cuba.

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 2003 is a preliminary estimate. For Bolivia and Guatemala, the final year is 2002.

d/ For Nicaragua, the period begins in 1992.

region (Argentina, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Panama and Uruguay), the rate of urban employment between 2000 and 2003 exceeded 15%, and in 12 out of 19 countries, unemployment was higher than during the 1990s (see table I.1). At the same time, there has been an increasing informalization of employment and a growing lack of job security; in fact, since 1990, 66% of new workers have joined the informal sector and only 44% of new workers are covered by social security (ILO, 2003).

The results of inflation control efforts, which are a key factor in protecting the purchasing power of the poor, were quite good in 2003, with the rate of price increases slowing by almost four percentage points compared with the previous year (from 12.1% to 8.5%). Average monthly variations in the consumer price index were below 1% in all countries except the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela and the Dominican Republic (see table 1 of the statistical appendix). In the same year, the weighted average for real wages dipped by 4.4% owing to moderate increases in a few countries and sharp declines in

others, especially Argentina, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Brazil and Uruguay. This indicator reflected the stagnation or decline seen in economic activity in several countries during that period (see table I.1). Minimum wages remained stable in 2003 and, in real terms, climbed slightly in most countries. However, they retreated noticeably in the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela (-11.8%), the Dominican Republic (-9.6%) and Uruguay (-12.4%). In 2000–2003, the purchasing power of minimum urban wages also dropped in Argentina, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Haiti and Nicaragua.

2. OVERVIEW OF POVERTY IN THE REGION

In the above-mentioned economic context, poverty remains an enormous challenge for the Latin American countries. In 2002, there were 221 million poor people in the region (44.0% of the population), and 97 million of these people (19.4%) were living in extreme poverty or indigence (see tables I.2 and I.3 and figure I.1).

Table I.2

LATIN AMERICA: POVERTY AND INDIGENCE RATES, 1980–2002 a/						
	Percentage of population					
	Poor b/			Indigent c/		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
1980	40.5	29.8	59.9	18.6	10.6	32.7
1990	48.3	41.4	65.4	22.5	15.3	40.4
1997	43.5	36.5	63.0	19.0	12.3	37.6
1999	43.8	37.1	63.7	18.5	11.9	38.3
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: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

a/ Estimate for 18 countries of the region plus Haiti.

b/ Percentage of the population with income below the poverty line. Includes people living in indigence.

c/ Percentage of the population with income below the indigence line.

Table I.3

LATIN AMERICA: POOR AND INDIGENT POPULATION, 1980–2002 <i>a/</i>						
	Millions of people					
	Poor <i>b/</i>			Indigent <i>c/</i>		
	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: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

a/ Estimate for 18 countries of the region plus Haiti.

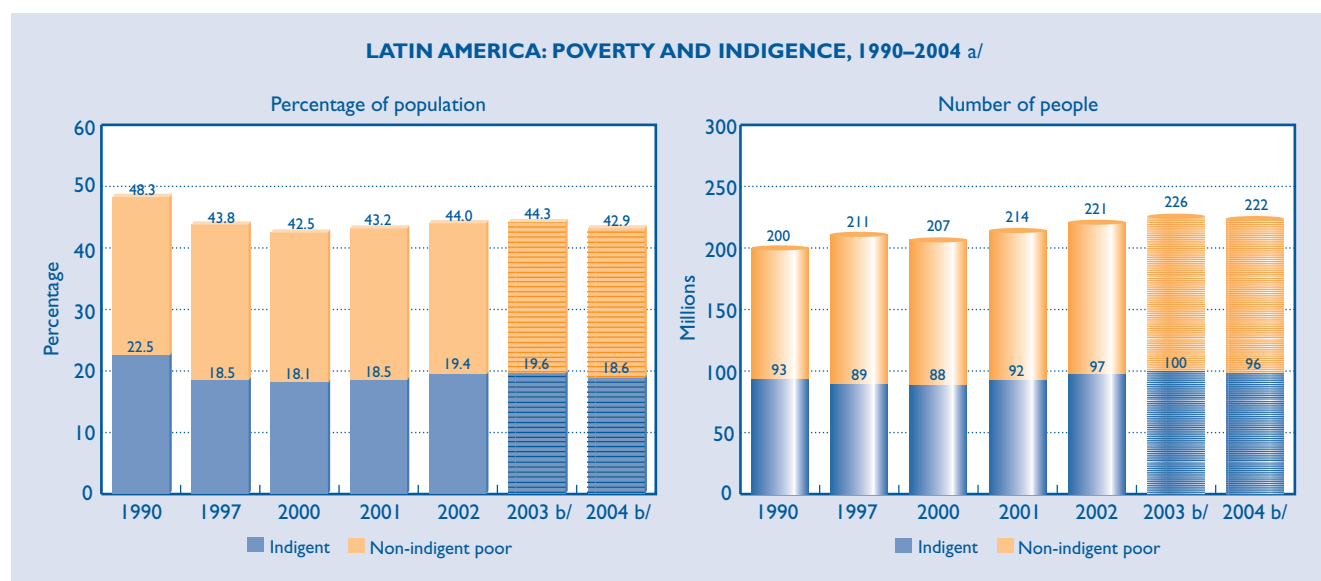
b/ Number of people with income below the poverty line. Includes people living in indigence.

c/ Number of people with income below the indigence line.

Between 1999 and 2002, no significant progress was made in overcoming poverty. In fact, the poverty rate rose by 0.2 percentage points, while the indigence rate climbed by 0.9 points. In absolute terms, the number of poor people increased by almost 10 million, of whom 8 million were living in extreme poverty.

A comparison of the figures from 2002 and 1990 reveals that the poverty rate has dropped from 48.3% to 44.0%, and the indigence rate from 22.5% to 19.4%. These percentage reductions were not enough to offset population growth, which means that, in absolute terms, there were 21 million more poor people in 2002 than in 1990, 4 million of whom were indigent.

Figure I.1



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

a/ Estimates for 18 countries of the region plus Haiti. The figures appearing above the orange sections of the bars represent the total number of poor people (indigent plus non-indigent poor).

b/ Projections.

The poverty and indigence rates continue to be higher in rural areas of Latin America than in urban areas. In urban areas, 38.4% of the population was poor, whereas the figure was as high as 61.8% in rural areas. Also, the rate of extreme poverty in rural areas was over 24 percentage points higher than in urban areas. However, given the region's high level of urbanization (around 75% of the population live in

cities), two thirds of the poor lived in urban areas in 2002, as did over half (53%) of the region's indigent population (see figure I.2).¹

In terms of the geographical distribution of the poor, almost half are concentrated in two countries: Brazil (30%) and Mexico (17%). Colombia and the Central American countries (Costa Rica, El

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 expressed in each country's currency and 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 2001–2003, the monthly equivalent in dollars of poverty lines varies between 32 for rural areas of Bolivia and 45 dollars for urban areas, and between 94 and 150 dollars in rural and urban areas in Mexico.^{b/} The figure for indigence lines varies between 18 dollars in rural areas of Brazil and 21 dollars in urban areas, and between 53 and 75 dollars in rural and urban areas in Mexico (see table I.6 of the appendix).

In most cases, data concerning the structure of household consumption, of both foodstuffs and other goods and services, came from surveys on household budgets conducted in the respective countries.^{c/} 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 family income were taken from household surveys conducted in the respective countries, in the years that correspond to the poverty estimates contained in this publication. In line with the usual practice, both missing answers 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.

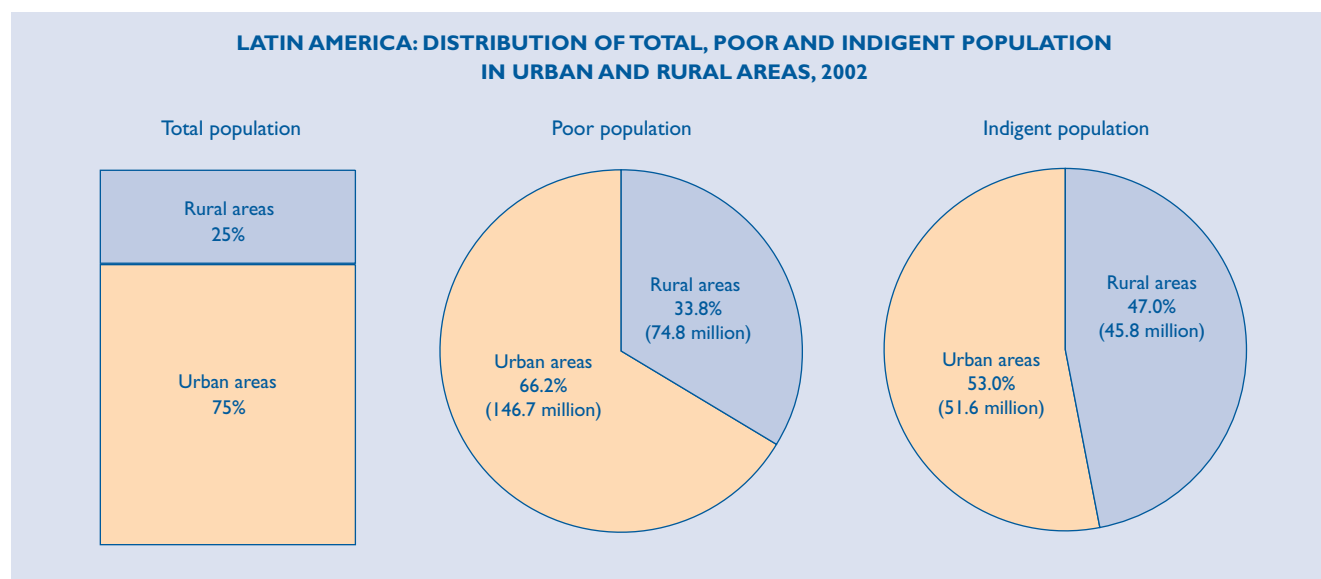
a/ The sole exceptions to this general rule were Brazil and Peru. For Brazil, the study used new indigence lines estimated for different geographical areas within the country, in the framework of a joint project conducted by the Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics, the Brazilian Institute 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/ The exchange rate used is the average rate from the reference month used to compile information on income by means of household surveys.

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

1 The concepts "urban" and "rural" often vary from country to country and over time.

Figure I.2



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

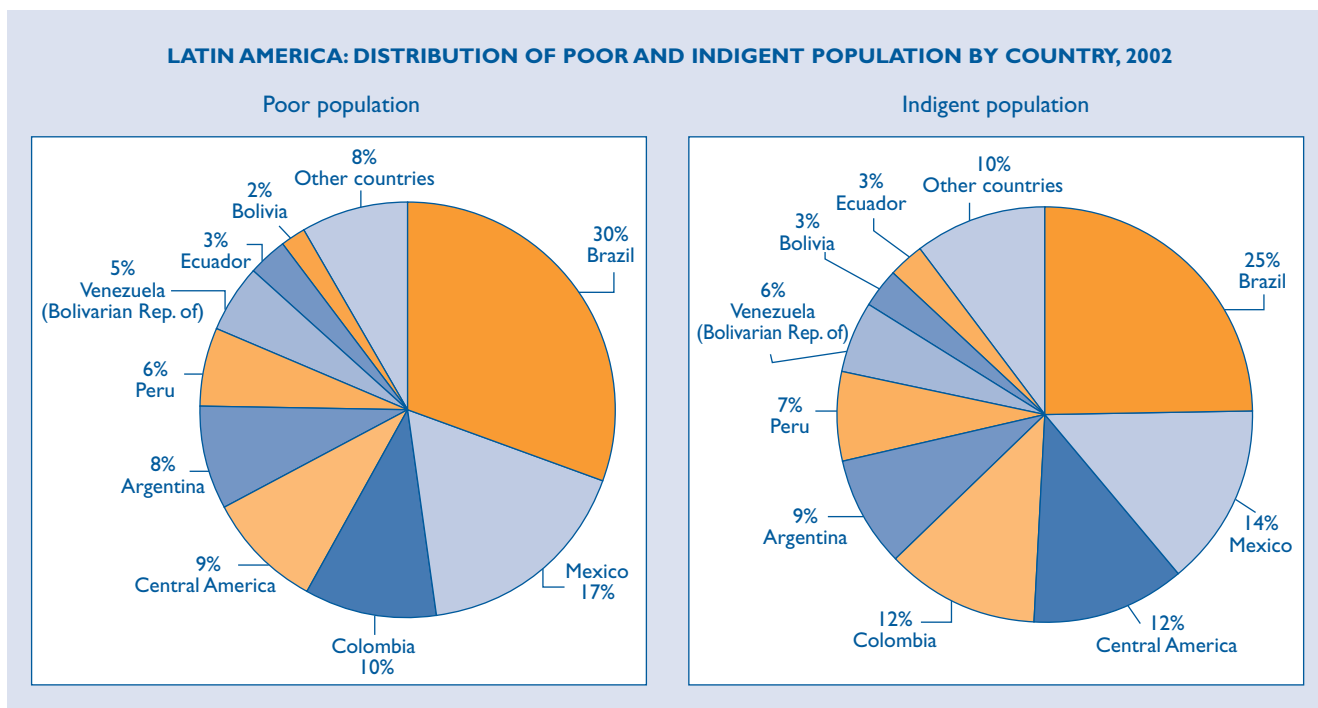
Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and Panama) each account for around 10% of the region's total poor population. For the indigent poor, the percentages of Brazil and Mexico are somewhat lower (25% and 14%, respectively), whereas they are higher in Colombia (12%), Central American countries (12%) and other countries (10%) (the latter mainly due to the inclusion of Haiti). Other countries with a high proportion of poor and indigent people are Argentina (8% and 9%, respectively), Peru (6% and 7%) and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela (5% and 6%) (see figure I.3).

The standstill in the region's per capita GDP in 2003 suggests that poverty and indigence have probably grown marginally, to 44.3% and 19.6%,

respectively. Although these increases are small in terms of percentages, they will be reflected in around 5 million more poor people, bringing the total number of poor to 226 million, including 100 million living in extreme poverty (see figure I.1).

The improved outlook for growth in 2004 means that the poverty rate is expected to drop by around 1.4 percentage points, which would result in a poverty rate of approximately 42.9% and an indigence rate of 18.6%. Such a variation should be larger than population growth during the period, which could mean a slight reduction in the number of poor and indigent people. According to projections, both groups could decrease by approximately four million individuals.

Figure I.3



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

3. POVERTY TRENDS

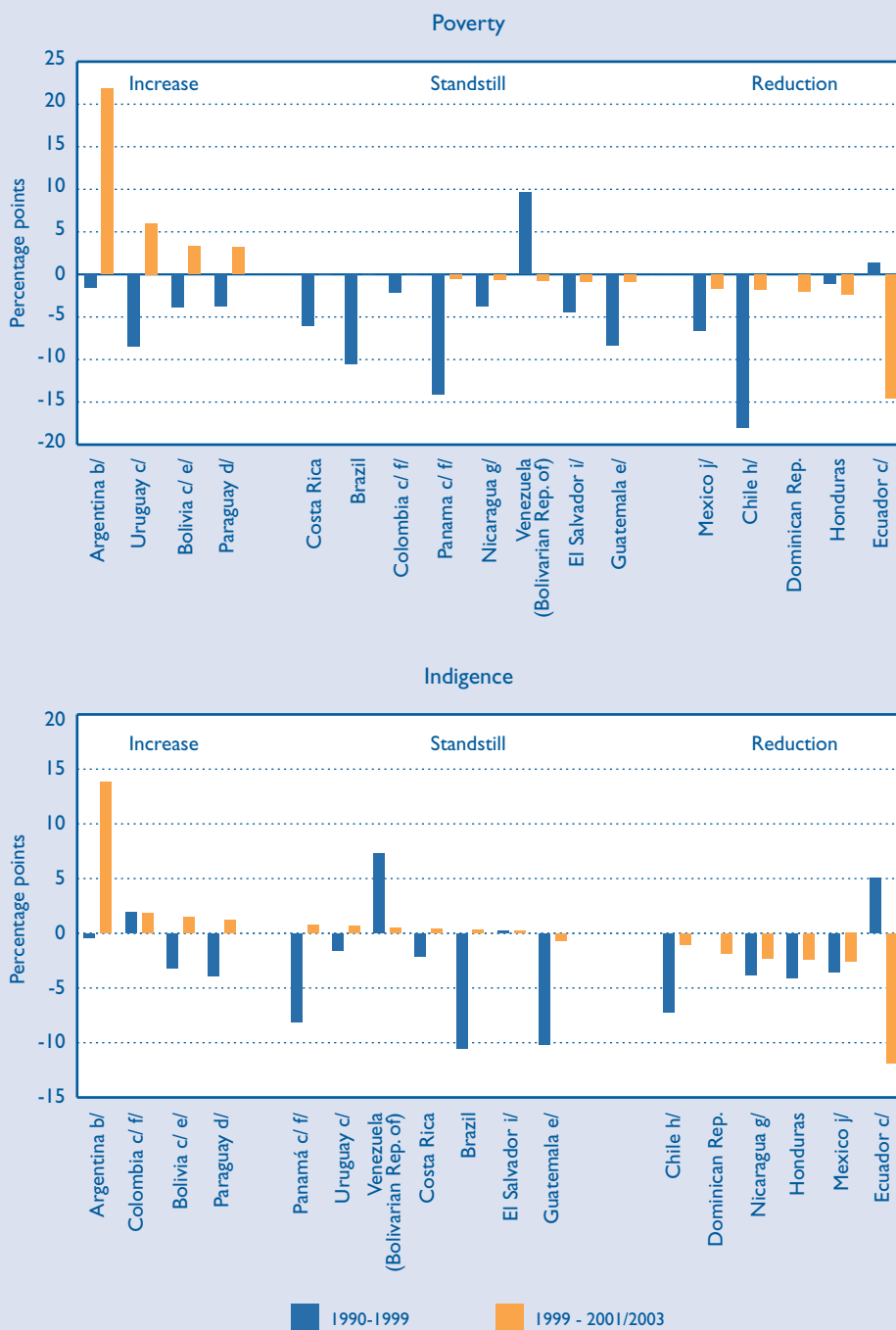
At the regional level, poverty and indigence trends between 1999 and 2001–2003 were heterogeneous. While some countries made significant progress in reducing the two phenomena, other countries took a step backwards. The latter group included Argentina and Uruguay, which were hit by a crippling economic crisis at the beginning of the decade. In Argentina (data from Greater Buenos Aires only), poverty fell from 21.2% in 1990 to 19.7% in 1999, only to double and reach 41.5% in 2002. The indigence trend was even more negative, as it more than tripled from 4.8% in 1999 to 18.6% in 2002. Poverty in Uruguay dropped from 17.9% to 9.4% during the 1990s, before climbing by six percentage points in 2002, although Uruguay still has the lowest levels of poverty (15.4%) and indigence (2.5%) in the region. In recent years, urban areas in Bolivia and the metropolitan area of Paraguay also recorded increases in poverty of around three percentage

points and, to a lesser extent, a growth in indigence, which marked a reversal of the downward trend observed between 1990 and 1999 (see table I.4 and figure I.4).

In the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Brazil, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala and Nicaragua and urban areas of Colombia and Panama, the process of overcoming poverty came to a standstill, which affected the entire region. The poverty rate in these countries and areas varied by less than one percentage point, which was in sharp contrast to the progress made in 1990–1999, especially in Brazil and Panama, where poverty rates had fallen by 10 percentage points or more. Given that the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela is the only country in this group to have experienced a dramatic deterioration in the period 1990–1999, the slight reduction of 0.8 percentage points between 1999 and 2002 signalled a change.

Figure I.4

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): POVERTY AND INDIGENCE, BY COUNTRY, 1990–1999, 1999–2001/2003 a/



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

a/ Countries listed in order of progress during 1999–2001/2003. Any positive or negative variation of less than one percentage point is considered a "standstill".

b/ Greater Buenos Aires. c/ Urban areas. d/ Asunción metropolitan area. e/ 1989–1999. f/ 1991–1999. g/ 1993–1998. h/ 1990–2000 and 2000–2003. i/ 1995–1999. j/ 1989–2000.

Lastly, poverty in Chile, Ecuador, Honduras, Mexico and the Dominican Republic decreased by more than one percentage point in the period 1999–2001/2003.² At this point, it is worth mentioning the case of urban areas in Ecuador, where poverty dropped by 14.5 percentage points and indigence by 11.9 percentage points, indicating a strong recovery from the recession experienced at the end of the 1990s. Also worthy of note is Chile, where the poverty rate declined by only two percentage points between 2000 and 2003, despite it being the only Latin American country to have made clear and sustained progress in reducing poverty since 1990. New figures available for Chile reveal that poverty dropped from 38.6% in 1990 to 18.8% in 2003, while indigence fell from 12.9% to 4.7% in the same period (see box I.3).

On the basis of the expected growth in countries' per capita GDP, there are unlikely to be any significant variations in the poverty and indigence rates in 2003 and 2004. The largest reductions predicted are for Argentina and Uruguay, which should continue on the road to recovery, especially in 2004. In Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Panama, Paraguay and Peru, the poverty rate could drop by almost 2 percentage points. On the other hand, if the most vulnerable population groups continue to suffer the negative effects of adverse macroeconomic fluctuations, the social situation in the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela and the Dominican Republic could well deteriorate.

On a different level, an analysis of the scale and trends of poverty based on the poverty rate (or

headcount index) can be combined with indices such as the "poverty gap" (PG) and "severity of poverty" (FGT₂ (Foster, Greer and Thorbecke)), which provide information on the level of poverty of the poor and how their income is distributed (see box I.2). As shown in figure I.5, although there is a linear relation between the poverty headcount, gap and severity indices, they are not perfectly interrelated.

Although the headcount indices of Bolivia, Paraguay and Guatemala were all around 60% in 2001–2002, the figures were considerably different for the poverty gap index. This indicates a higher relative income deficit of the poor in relation to the poverty line in Bolivia (34.4) than in Paraguay (30.3) and Guatemala (27.0). Although the headcount index in Brazil (37.5) was lower than in Peru (54.8), the former's serious income distribution problems gave the two countries a very similar "severity of poverty" index (FGT₂) of almost 11.

Argentina and Ecuador provide two contrasting examples of PG and FGT₂ trends between 1999 and 2001–2003. In Greater Buenos Aires, the poverty headcount index multiplied by 2.1, while the poverty gap tripled and severity of poverty increased 3.5 times. This reveals that, besides an increase in the percentage of poor people, average income and its distribution among the poor also worsened. In the urban areas of Ecuador, on the other hand, the PG and FGT₂ indices dropped more than the poverty rate, which attests to a considerable improvement in the situation of the poor.

2 It should be noted that, in some countries, the changes introduced in household surveys may make their results difficult to compare with those of previous surveys. Figure I.4 does therefore not include figures for Peru or the Dominican Republic from before 2000, since both countries changed the framework, design and size of the sample in many ways. Comparability may also have been affected by measures to improve household surveys in Colombia, Guatemala, Panama and Mexico. More detailed information on this subject is presented in ECLAC (2004b), boxes I.3 and I.4.

Table I.4

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POVERTY AND INDIGENCE INDICATORS, 1990–2001/2003 ^{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	32.1	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
	2003	15.4	18.8	6.3	3.2	3.9	4.7	1.7	1.0
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	9.8	9.9	4.8	3.4
	1997	20.2	22.5	8.5	4.9	7.4	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	69.1	35.9	23.1	36.7	41.8	18.5	11.2
	1998	53.5	61.1	27.3	15.4	26.1	31.6	10.7	5.1
	2002	52.8	60.2	27.0	15.4	26.9	30.9	10.7	5.5
Honduras	1990	75.2	80.8	50.2	35.9	53.9	60.9	31.5	20.2
	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

Table I.4 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POVERTY AND INDIGENCE INDICATORS, 1990–2001/2003 ^{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		
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
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 (Bolivarian Rep. of)	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	35.4	43.5	–	–	14.4	19.0	–	–
	1999	35.4	43.9	–	–	14.1	18.7	–	–
	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: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

Note: H = headcount index; PG = poverty gap, and FGT₂ = Foster, Greer and Thorbecke index.

^{a/} See box I.2 for the definition of each indicator. The PG and FGT₂ indices are calculated on the basis of the distribution of the poor population.

^{b/} Includes households (people) living in extreme poverty.

^{c/} Greater Buenos Aires.

^{d/} Eight departmental capitals plus El Alto.

^{e/} Urban areas.

^{f/} Asunción metropolitan area.

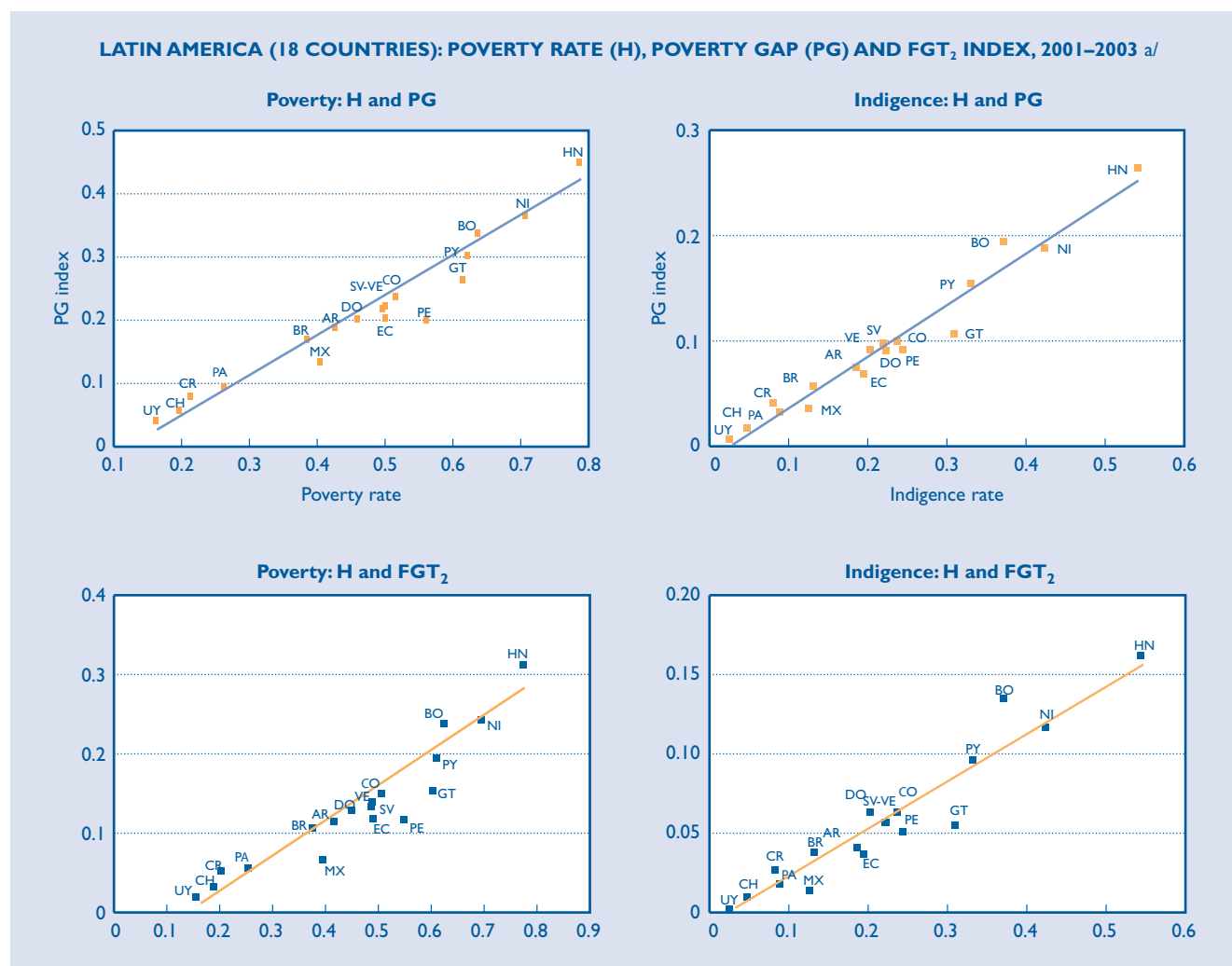
^{g/} Figures from the National Institute of Statistics and Informatics (INEI) of Peru. These figures are not comparable to data from earlier years because of a change in the household survey sample frame. According to INEI, the new figures display a relative overestimate in relation to those derived from the previous methodology, of 25% for poverty and 10% for indigence.

^{h/} Estimate for 18 countries of the region plus Haiti.

Despite stalled progress to reduce monetary poverty in the region, a wide variety of social indicators –such as life expectancy at birth, mortality rates for infants and children under five and illiteracy– have continued to improve in recent

years, in a continuation of the trend observed in previous decades (see table 2 of the statistical appendix). There does tend to be a certain correlation between these indicators and countries' relative poverty levels. Indeed, countries with the lowest

Figure I.5



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information contained in table I.2.
a/ Data from Argentina correspond to Greater Buenos Aires. Data from Colombia, Ecuador, Panama and Uruguay are for urban areas.

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, Paraguay and Guatemala, suffer the most severe social lacks.

It is also important to point out that, beyond the averages presented, social indicators vary considerably according to level of income and place of residence.³ In urban areas, for instance, school attendance in the poorest households is notably

lower than in the highest income quintile, especially among the 13- to 19-year-olds and 20- to 24-year-olds. Also, the percentage of people with less than five years' schooling is much higher in rural than in urban areas, and the average number of years' schooling is systematically lower in the former (see tables 28 to 34 of the statistical appendix). This shows that much remains to be done to reduce poverty, and that considerations of equity cannot be ignored if the sharp disparities that persist between different socio-economic groups are to be corrected.

³ In Latin America, disparities can be found not only between socio-economic groups, but also between gender and ethnic or racial groups. The analysis of these kinds of inequity, however, is outside the scope of this section.

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, ^{a/} which are obtained from the following equation:

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

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:

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

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)**:

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

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 or indigence.

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:

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

The values of the **FGT₂** 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.

a/ Prepared on the basis of James Foster, Joel Greer and Erik Thorbecke (1984), "A class of decomposable poverty measures", *Econometrica*, vol. 52, pp. 761–766.

CHILE: SIGNIFICANT PROGRESS IN POVERTY REDUCTION

For many years, Chile has stood out as one of the best examples of poverty reduction in Latin America. Between 1990 and 2000, the country's poverty rate dropped by 18 percentage points from 38.6% to 20.6%, while indigence fell by 7 percentage points from 12.9% to 5.7%.

New figures available for 2003 confirm that trend. Following another reduction, poverty and indigence rates stood at 18.8% and 4.7% respectively. This not only makes Chile the country with the second lowest percentage of poor people (after Uruguay), but also means it is the only Latin American nation to have halved extreme and total poverty, thus meeting the first target of the Millennium Development Goals.

The satisfactory results achieved in overcoming poverty are undoubtedly due mainly to the significant economic development in Chile over the last few years. Between 1990 and 2003, the cumulative increase of per capita GDP was 62% in real terms. This is equivalent to an annual growth rate of 3.8%, three percentage points more than the growth rate for the region as a whole.

It would have been difficult, however, for GDP growth to be reflected in a concrete improvement in living conditions without an increase in social investment and the implementation of poverty reduction programmes. Public social spending expanded considerably, both as a percentage of GDP (from 11.7% in 1990–1991 to 16.0% in 2000–2001) and in relation to total public expenditure (from 60.8% to 69.7% in the same period) ECLAC (2004b), chapter IV.

In Chile, the situation of poor households is better than that of low-income families in other countries. In terms of demographics, poor households in Chile have the lowest average number of children in the region (1.7), along with Argentina, Costa Rica and the Dominican Republic, and the lowest demographic dependency ratio (0.84). The average number of years' schooling of poor heads of household and their spouses (7.7 and 7.9 years respectively) are the highest in the region, along with urban areas of Argentina. Chile also has one of the highest levels of schooling among 6- to 15-year-olds in poor households, with an average of 3.8 years. In addition, Chile has the lowest percentages of poor households with two or more unmet needs in terms of housing and access to basic services (see tables 1.5, 1.7 and 1.9).

Despite its strong economic growth and the significant increase in social spending, Chile has one of the highest income concentration indices. This situation calls for the strengthening of social development with policies that enable a more equitable distribution of economic surplus among segments of society and that are aimed at improving the wages and working conditions of the most disadvantaged sectors of the work force.

B. OUTLOOK FOR POVERTY REDUCTION⁴

Meeting the target of halving extreme poverty seems more of a challenge than predicted last year, although it does appear feasible for many individual countries in the region. The percentage progress projected up to 2004 for the region as a whole is only 34.2%, whereas just over half of the time stipulated in the Millennium Declaration has already passed. If income distribution remains relatively unchanged, per capita output would have to increase by an average of 2.9% over the next 11 years for the target to be met. It is therefore essential to adopt redistributive policies aimed at increasing social investment and extending welfare programmes that supplement productive development, so that the majority of countries can rise to the challenge of poverty reduction.

One of the development targets that has attracted the most attention since the adoption of the Millennium Declaration is the aim to halve the proportion of people living in extreme poverty between 1990 and 2015.⁵ In view of the growing interest in the extent to which Latin America has responded to the challenge and its chances of meeting the target, this chapter provides an update of the analyses presented in previous editions of the *Social Panorama*.

For the last few years, ECLAC has been suggesting monitoring progress towards the first Millennium target using extreme poverty measurements specific to each country. The target to "halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar a day" underestimates the magnitude of social lacks in many of the region's countries (ECLAC, 2002).

⁴ In order to establish a similar basis of comparison for all countries, the figures on indigence and poverty in this section are the national projections for 2004 (see methodology explained in box I.4). As a result, these trends may not correspond exactly to those described in the previous section, which used the most recent figures available, i.e. those that were mainly from 2001 or 2002 and often related to subnational coverage.

⁵ See ECLAC (2002), box I.3.

According to new projections for the poverty situation in 2004, based on extrapolations of measurements taken in 2002 using the economic growth observed in each country over the last year, Latin America has not made enough progress towards reducing extreme poverty. By 2000, the region had already made about 40% of the progress required towards this goal, indicating that it was advancing quickly enough to reach the target. The economic crisis that affected several countries over the next few years brought down the percentage to 27.6% in 2002, however. If the economic projections for 2004 are accurate, progress would be around 34.2%, which would constitute a significant achievement, albeit considerably less than the hoped-for progress of 56% (see figure I.6).

By 2000, Chile was the only country in the region to have achieved the target of halving extreme poverty. More recent figures for 2004 confirm this situation and show a new reduction in indigence. If countries' economic performance in 2004 is taken as a reference, the percentage progress could be 56% or more only in Brazil, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama and Uruguay (in addition to Chile). Meanwhile, the level of indigence in Argentina and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela is expected to remain higher than in 1990.

As for the target of halving total poverty by 2015 (with respect to 1990), Latin America has only progressed by 22%. As is the case with extreme poverty, this percentage is somewhat higher than the 2002 level.

For total poverty as well, Chile is the first country in the region to meet the more demanding target of halving the poverty rate. Projections reveal that Costa Rica, Panama and Uruguay are

progressing at a reasonable pace, given that their percentages are slightly higher than required for the time elapsed. Brazil, Ecuador and Mexico have probably made progress of 40% or more.

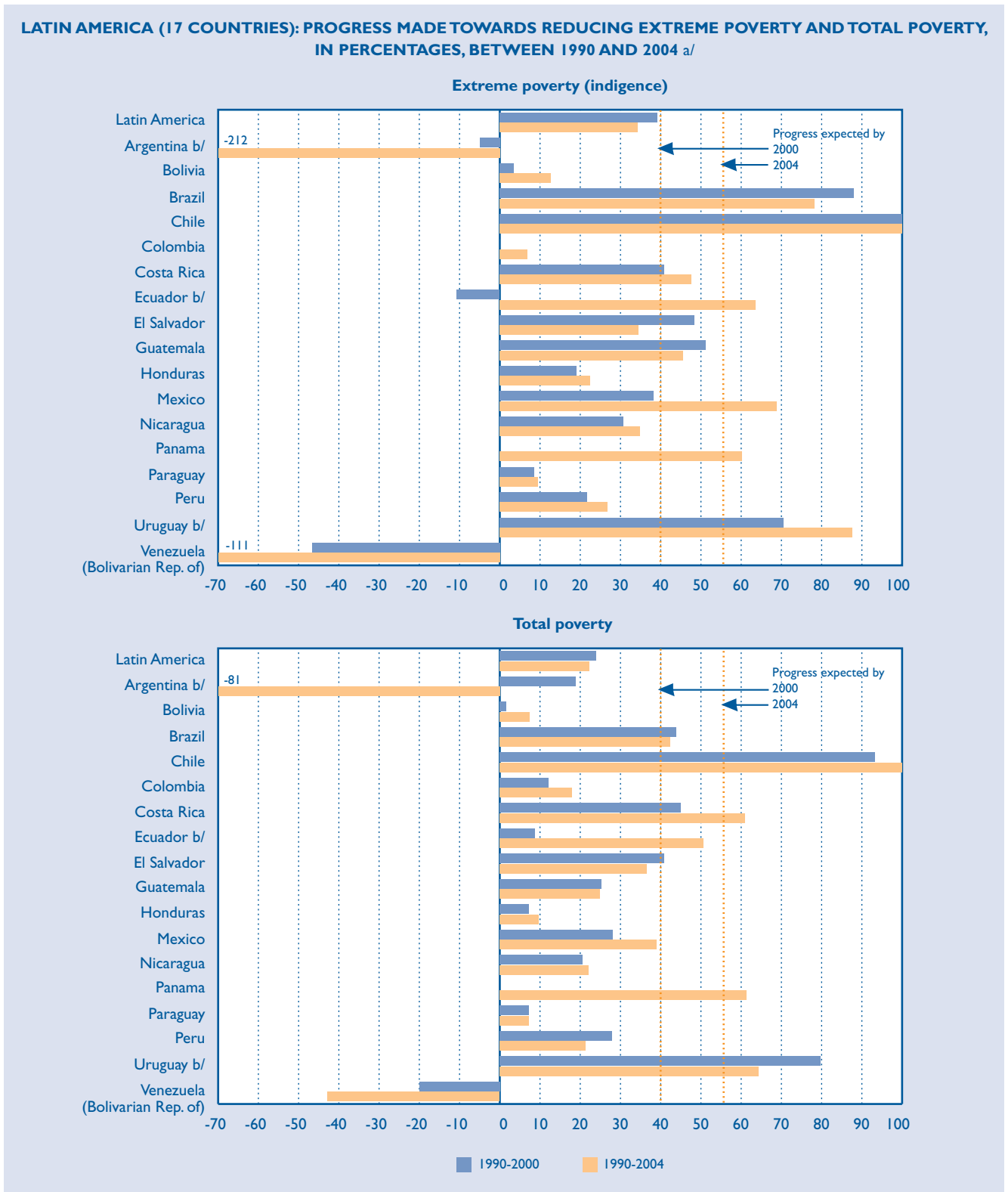
The insufficient progress towards meeting the first Millennium target, together with the reduced time available, directly affects the rate of economic growth that the region needs to achieve between 2004 and 2015 in order to achieve the objective. Simulations carried out using the most recent household surveys indicate that per capita GDP in the region would have to increase by an annual rate of 2.9% for 11 years for extreme poverty to be halved, assuming that income distribution remained relatively unchanged during the period (see figure I.7).⁶

The increase in GDP varies from country to country, according to their levels of extreme poverty. In the group of countries where extreme poverty is the lowest (Chile, Costa Rica and Uruguay), per capita GDP only needs to grow by an annual 0.4%. This is clearly illustrated by the cases of Chile and Uruguay that only require a total increase of GDP in keeping with population growth.

Countries with a mid-range level of indigence include Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, El Salvador, Mexico, Panama and Peru, which need an average annual per capita growth of 3.1% in order to halve extreme poverty. This average figure depends largely on the situation in Argentina and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, which have suffered setbacks in poverty reduction in recent years. Both countries therefore need to grow extremely quickly, assuming that income distribution remains the same.

⁶ See box I.4 for a detailed description of the methodology used.

Figure I.6

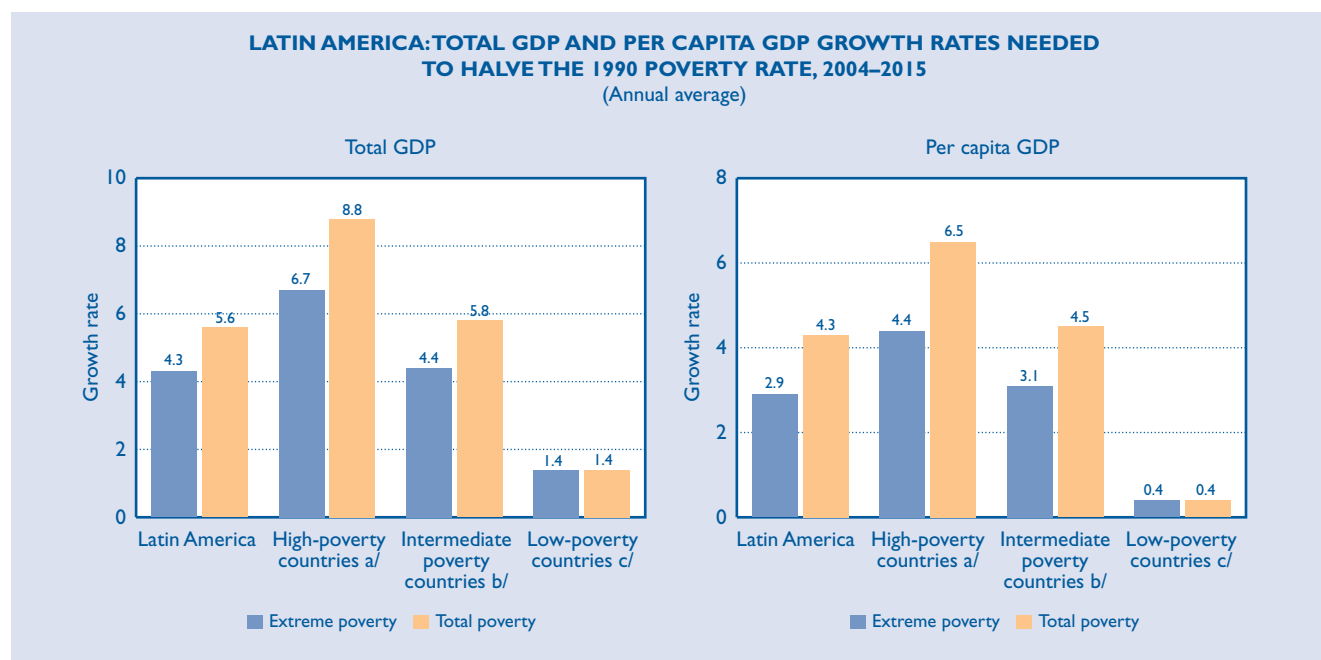


Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

a/ The progress (expressed as a percentage) is calculated by dividing the percentage-point reduction (or increase) in poverty (or indigence) registered during the period by one-half the poverty (or indigence) rate for 1990. The dotted lines represent the amount of progress expected by 2000 (40%, the line on the left) and by 2004 (56%, the line on the right).

b/ Urban areas.

Figure I.7



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

a/ Bolivia, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and Paraguay.

b/ Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, El Salvador, Mexico, Panama and Peru.

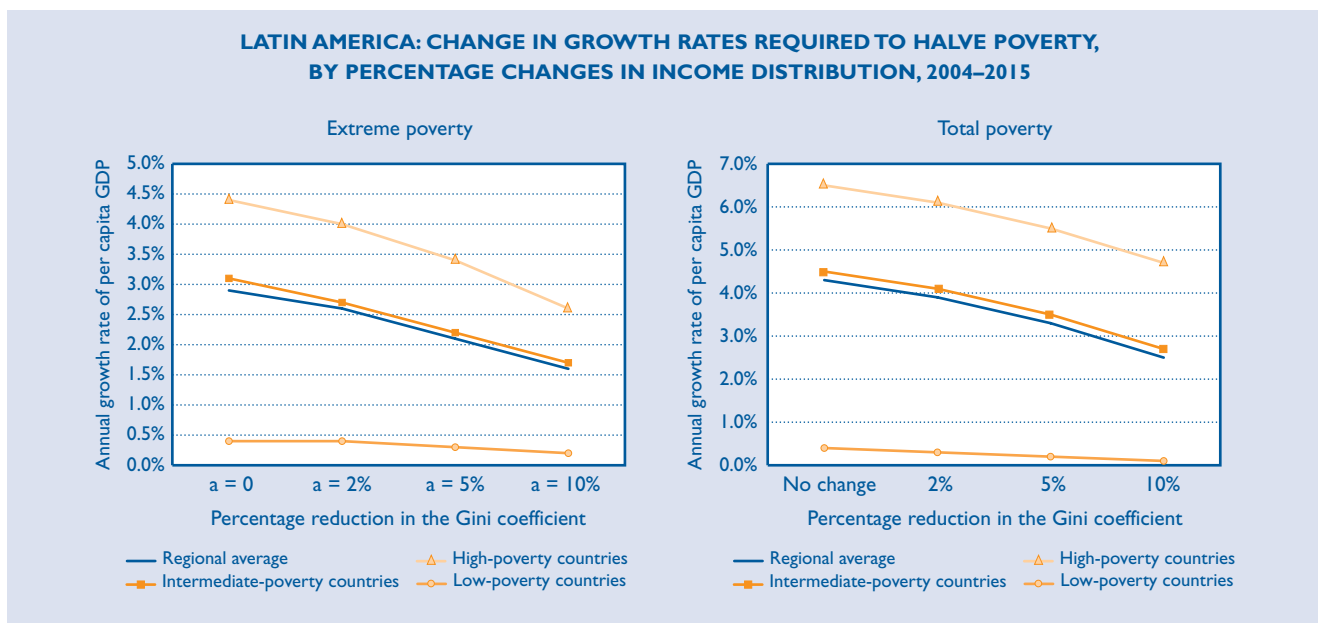
c/ Chile, Costa Rica and Uruguay.

In Bolivia, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and Paraguay, where indigence levels are over 30%, per capita GDP would have to increase by an annual rate of 4.4% for 12 years, which would signify a 6.7% expansion per year in total output. There are also considerable differences within this group of countries, whose annual growth rates range from 2.1% in Guatemala to 6.7% in Bolivia.

A point that has been raised repeatedly by ECLAC in relation to the goal of halving poverty is that improvements in income distribution can magnify the effect of economic growth. In fact, as shown in figure I.8, the projected growth rate required in order for the region to reach the goal relating to extreme poverty could be lowered by approximately 0.2 of a percentage point for each one percentage-point reduction in the Gini coefficient. For example, with a 5% reduction in the Gini index

(equivalent to approximately 0.025 points of that indicator), the region could reach the goal if its per capita GDP grew at an annual rate of 2.1%, rather than the 2.9% rate mentioned above (see figure I.8). It should be borne in mind that even with this improvement in income distribution, the region will continue to be one of the most inequitable in the world, as analysed in section D of this chapter.

The above confirms the importance of income redistribution as a factor in helping the region to meet poverty reduction targets, particularly in countries that would find it difficult to achieve the required growth rates. More social investment and welfare programmes and greater integration of low-income groups into the productive base are therefore essential if progress is to be made in the right direction.



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

Box I.4

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, some very general poverty projections have been made to serve as a basis for the generation of preliminary estimates of the rates at which the Latin American countries would have to grow in order to halve extreme poverty by 2015.

The methodology used consists 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 (determined using household surveys), by means of the following equations:^{a/}

$$\text{When } y \geq \mu: y^* = (1+\beta)[(1-\alpha)y_i + \alpha\mu]$$

$$\text{When } y < \mu: y^* = (1+\beta)[\theta y_i], \text{ where } \theta \text{ is calculated such that } \mu^* = (1+\beta)\mu$$

(where μ denotes the mean value of the income distribution)

This means that below-average income has been increased at a rate that is fixed, and above-average income at a rate that is proportional to the difference between each income level 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.

Although the new formula is useful for the purposes of this document, it is less general than the original one, 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 (ECLAC).

a/ This methodology is slightly different from the one used in ECLAC, *Social Panorama of Latin America 2001–2002* (LC/G.2183–P), Santiago, Chile, 2002. United Nations publication, Sales No. E.02.II.G.65. ECLAC, "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, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC)/Institute of Applied Economic Research (IPEA)/United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), December 2002. United Nations publication, Sales No. E.02.II.G.125.

C. CHARACTERISTICS OF POVERTY

The typical characteristics of poor households include their large average size, higher number of children, low educational capital endowments of adults and job insecurity among employed members. These characteristics are even more manifest in countries with higher levels of poverty, where a high percentage of the population still has no access to appropriate housing and basic social services such as drinking water and sanitation. Even if some progress has been made in reducing demographic dependence or increasing levels of education since the 1990s, the factors associated with poverty remain practically the same as in the previous decade. Achieving sustainable progress in poverty reduction is a challenge involving policies that take account of the particular characteristics of each country by combining demographic, educational and labour market dimensions and attaching special importance to social welfare and the provision of basic services.

An analysis of the living conditions of poor people in Latin America (as defined on the basis of an insufficient level of monetary resources) is essential in order to gain a fuller understanding of poverty as such and to design policies for overcoming it. For the purpose of contributing to that aim, this section offers an analysis of those features of poor households which serve as distinguishing factors. These factors range from household size and composition, human capital endowments and opportunities for finding suitable employment, to the level of access to housing and basic services.

It is not the purpose of this document to identify a causal relationship with poverty, but to identify certain factors that are closely linked with insufficient income. To determine if the described characteristics are causes or consequences of poverty, it would be necessary to take account of changes in each country, and particularly the time perspective adopted for the analysis. For instance, the fact that children from poor households have to leave school to help generate income is a consequence of poverty in the short term. However, the insufficient formation of educational capital in such children

will considerably limit their possibilities for escaping poverty in the future, and is therefore one of the causes of intergenerational transmission of poverty.

As for household size, poor households do indeed have a large number of members, most of whom are children, which gives rise to high rates of

demographic dependence. In 14 of the region's countries, the number of children and older adults living in poor households is equal to or higher than the number of working-age persons, which generates a demographic dependency ratio equal to or above one, and therefore a heavy burden for members responsible for supporting the family (see table I.5).

Table I.5

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF POOR HOUSEHOLDS, 1999–2003											
Country	Year	Poverty rate (house-holds)	Household size			Education	Income generating capacity				Housing and basic services
			Average size	Average number of children	Demographic dependency ratio b/	Average years of schooling of adults	Participation rate c/	Unemployment rate d/	Unemployment density e/	Average labour income per employed person f/	At least 2 unmet needs g/
Uruguay a/	2002	9.3	5.1	2.2	1.05	6.7	0.70	0.28	0.27	1.45	8.4
Chile	2003	15.4	4.6	1.7	0.84	7.8	0.51	0.24	0.21	2.03	2.5
Costa Rica	2002	18.6	4.3	1.7	1.05	5.0	0.52	0.16	0.21	2.07	9.2
Panama	2002	21.4	4.9	2.1	1.03	5.9	0.69	0.24	0.29	1.45	...
Brazil	2001	29.9	4.5	1.9	0.91	3.8	0.73	0.14	0.35	1.15	21.1
Argentina a/	2002	31.6	4.5	1.7	0.87	7.9	0.64	0.26	0.25	1.57	1.7
Mexico	2002	31.8	5.1	2.1	1.02	...	0.65	0.03	0.35	1.33	30.1
Dominican Republic	2002	40.9	4.3	1.7	1.05	5.5	0.62	0.24	0.23	1.91	19.6
Peru	1999	42.3	5.4	2.3	1.08	5.4	0.79	0.05	0.40	3.23	58.3
Ecuador a/	2002	42.6	4.7	1.9	0.99	...	0.70	0.08	0.34	1.57	20.8
El Salvador	2001	42.9	5.0	2.1	1.13	3.6	0.69	0.11	0.31	2.20	68.7
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	2002	43.3	5.0	2.1	0.98	6.2	0.71	0.23	0.29	1.64	16.6
Colombia	1999	48.7	4.7	1.8	0.90	5.1	0.71	0.20	0.31	1.54	10.3
Paraguay	2001	52.0	5.5	2.5	1.15	4.9	0.79	0.10	0.37	1.10	31.0
Guatemala	2002	52.3	5.7	3.0	0.68	2.4	0.86	0.04	0.37	1.18	42.0
Bolivia	2002	55.5	4.9	2.2	1.09	4.9	0.95	0.04	0.49	0.87	52.9
Nicaragua	2001	62.9	5.9	2.6	1.11	3.7	0.78	0.12	0.34	1.27	78.2
Honduras	2002	70.9	5.5	2.5	1.18	3.5	0.69	0.04	0.34	1.05	53.3

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

a/ Urban areas.

b/ Number of persons aged 0 to 14 and over 65, divided by the number of working-age persons (15 to 64 years of age).

c/ Economically active population (employed and unemployed) divided by the working-age population.

d/ Number of unemployed divided by the economically active population. It should be noted that this figure is not, strictly speaking, comparable with the rates of unemployment reported in other ECLAC publications, since they come from different information sources.

e/ Number of employed persons divided by the number of household members.

f/ Average income of the employed expressed as a fraction of the value of the poverty line.

g/ The variables considered are listed in table I.9.

Opportunities to generate sufficient income to meet household consumption requirements are restricted both by these households' low employment rates and by the limited income-generating capacity of those household members who are working. On the one hand, poor households' low employment ratios (the total number of employed household members divided by the total number of household members) are a result of both low participation rates and the difficulties of finding work for those actively seeking employment. This is particularly the case in countries such as Chile, Costa Rica or the Dominican Republic, where only one out of every four household members is employed. On the other hand, a large percentage of a poor household's members may be employed, and in such cases its poverty is attributable to the low level of its members' labour incomes. One of the most striking examples of this is Bolivia, where half the members of poor households work but that income does not even cover the workers' own basic needs.

One of the main determinants of the level of labour income and the quality of employment is the human capital endowment of participants in the labour market. In many countries of the region, the adult members of poor households have not completed primary education and, in some cases, have less than three years of schooling.

Consequently, those who do manage to obtain jobs are more likely to be employed in low-productivity sectors with great instability and a lack of access to social benefits such as health insurance and retirement pensions. In fact, in most of the countries, the income of an employed member of a poor household will cover that individual's basic needs, but there will be very little left over to help meet the needs of another member. As mentioned above, Bolivia is the most striking example of this phenomenon in Latin America.

Substandard sanitation and a lack of basic services are clear manifestations of the poor quality of life available to members of low-income households, particularly in countries with high poverty rates. In countries with poverty rates of less than 20%, the simultaneous presence of two or more unmet basic needs is found in less than one tenth of all poor households, but this percentage rises to over 50% in countries with higher poverty rates, such as Bolivia, Honduras and Nicaragua. It should be noted, however, that in a number of countries with poverty rates of over 40%, a significant number of non-poor households are also subject to such factors as overcrowding and a lack of drinking water supply, sanitation services and electric lighting in the home.

The combined effect of these factors is a complex framework that limits the development of personal skills and diminishes the opportunities for poor families to earn the income needed to overcome poverty through their own efforts. The structural nature of poverty is made even clearer by the fact that, despite the passing of more than a decade, the factors related to poverty remain practically the same as during the 1990s. Breaking the rigid structure that perpetuates poverty through intergenerational transmission requires coordinated public policies that can act simultaneously upon all the relevant spheres.

1. DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS

Despite the significant reduction in the region's birth rate over the last few decades, a high number of inhabitants per household remains closely linked to limited resources, both when comparing groups of poor households with other households, and for comparisons between countries with different levels of poverty.

Countries with the lowest poverty rates tend to have the smallest households, which shows that they are at a more advanced stage of demographic transition.⁷ In Chile, Costa Rica and Uruguay, which have the lowest poverty rates in the region, the average household size is less than four people. The situation is similar in Argentina and the Dominican Republic which, despite having mid-range poverty rates at present, had much lower levels of poverty in the past. In certain countries with high poverty rates, including Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and Paraguay, the average household size is six people (see table I.5).

At the national level, the relationship between poverty and size of family becomes particularly obvious when comparing poor households with all other households. On average, there are 1.2 more persons in poor households than in other households, and in extreme cases the difference can be 2.3 persons.

The size of poor households is attributable to a great extent to the number of members who are children aged between 0 and 14 years. Between 70% and 90% of poor households in Latin America include at least one boy or girl, whereas the percentage is considerably lower in other households. One of the most striking examples of the link between children and household poverty is Uruguay, where the percentage of poor households with children is more than double that of other poor households.⁸

Three or more children in the household is a highly distinctive characteristic of low-income groups, even in countries with low fertility rates. In

Argentina, Chile and Costa Rica, between 24% and 28% of poor households have more than two children, and the level is over 40% in Bolivia, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Paraguay and Peru. In many Latin American countries, this characteristic alone is an important predictor of insufficient household resources. Indeed, in at least 11 countries, three quarters of households with three or more children are poor, even in Argentina where around 30% of all households are poor (see table I.6).

The high concentration of children in poor households emphasizes the urgent need to invest in this segment of the population to improve their well-being and avoid the intergenerational transmission of poverty. The above figures, combined with the fact that a high percentage of poor households lack drinking water and sanitation, reveal that many children are exposed to undernutrition and a range of serious illnesses that can cause permanent growth disorders or even be fatal. It is therefore vital to meet the needs of these population groups in order to avoid jeopardizing their future, along with the economic and social viability of their countries.

As for older persons, they undoubtedly suffer from an increasing lack of social protection. However, this is not apparent from the simple profile of poor households since, unlike the situation regarding children, such households are not necessarily characterized by a greater number of older persons.⁹ In any event, a study of family structures in which the link between old age and low-income would be more apparent would require analysis that is beyond the scope of this chapter.

7 The section on fertility in chapter IV includes similar information and establishes a close link between fertility levels and a country's level of socio-economic development.

8 Given that Uruguay has one of the lowest levels of poverty, it is striking that some characteristics of its poor population are similar to those in less socially developed countries. In particular, the average size of poor households in Uruguay is over five persons (5.1), and almost 40% have three or more children, which is comparable to the figures for Central American countries.

9 Chapter IV provides more information on ageing and the problems affecting the economic security of the region's older adults.

Table I.6

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF POOR AND NON-POOR HOUSEHOLDS, 1999–2003 (Percentage of households)											
		Percentage of households, by presence of children						Poverty rate by number of children in the household			
		Non-poor households			Poor households			Households with 1 to 2 children		Households with 3 or more children	
		No children	1 to 2 children	3 or more children	No children	1 to 2 children	3 or more children	Poor	Non-poor	Poor	Non-poor
Uruguay <i>a/</i> (2002)	Total	66.7	29.1	4.1	15.0	46.9	38.1	14.2	85.8	48.5	51.5
	Female head	37.8	22.6	20.5	28.1	30.4	24.1	18.1	81.9	52.5	47.5
	Children 0–4 years	...	34.5	64.4	...	42.5	77.7	16.9	83.1	53.2	46.8
Chile (2003)	Total	48.7	45.2	6.1	18.4	57.7	23.9	18.8	81.2	41.5	58.5
	Female head	32.6	20.0	16.7	34.8	26.4	25.0	23.5	76.5	51.6	48.4
	Children 0–4 years	...	37.1	66.9	...	42.4	71.6	20.9	79.1	43.1	56.9
Costa Rica (2002)	Total	41.6	47.0	11.4	30.2	41.9	27.9	16.9	83.1	35.9	64.1
	Female head	28.6	20.1	16.4	39.3	31.9	27.3	24.5	75.5	48.3	51.7
	Children 0–4 years	...	40.7	66.5	...	40.1	70.5	16.8	83.2	37.3	62.7
Panama (2002)	Total	47.1	42.1	10.9	25.1	38.6	36.3	26.7	73.3	57.0	43.0
	Female head	26.0	21.9	18.5	30.9	29.8	19.4	33.1	66.9	58.2	41.8
	Children 0–4 years	...	45.0	71.4	...	48.1	78.6	28.0	72.0	59.3	40.7
Brazil (2001)	Total	55.6	40.4	4.0	16.7	54.8	28.5	36.6	63.4	75.5	24.5
	Female head	31.1	18.8	15.0	28.3	21.7	18.6	39.9	60.1	79.2	20.8
	Children 0–4 years	...	38.5	60.4	...	47.1	68.7	41.5	58.5	77.8	22.2
Argentina <i>a/</i> (2002)	Total	68.0	28.6	3.4	30.3	43.8	25.9	45.1	54.9	80.2	19.8
	Female head	35.4	17.3	12.4	34.9	26.0	19.3	55.2	44.8	86.4	13.6
	Children 0–4 years	...	39.4	63.2	...	45.1	74.5	48.5	51.5	82.7	17.3
Mexico (2002)	Total	46.4	43.6	10.0	17.1	45.4	37.5	32.7	67.3	63.6	36.4
	Female head	28.7	15.8	10.0	24.0	17.5	14.5	35.0	65.0	71.7	28.3
	Children 0–4 years	...	40.6	68.3	...	42.6	66.0	33.8	66.2	62.8	37.2
Dominican Republic (2002)	Total	47.6	40.6	11.8	26.2	44.6	29.1	43.2	56.8	63.0	37.0
	Female head	27.1	23.4	16.7	47.7	40.4	29.6	56.8	43.2	75.2	24.8
	Children 0–4 years	...	40.4	58.8	...	38.5	63.0	42.1	57.9	64.6	35.4
Peru (1999)	Total	40.5	47.1	12.4	15.3	41.1	43.6	39.0	61.0	72.0	28.0
	Female head	28.6	15.1	14.9	26.7	22.0	12.1	48.2	51.8	67.6	32.4
	Children 0–4 years	...	40.3	62.6	...	38.9	72.5	38.2	61.8	74.8	25.2
Ecuador <i>a/</i> (2002)	Total	46.4	45.4	8.1	19.3	50.9	29.8	45.4	54.6	73.1	26.9
	Female head	25.7	15.6	13.9	31.4	21.5	20.8	53.3	46.7	80.3	19.7
	Children 0–4 years	...	43.3	65.5	...	49.8	75.2	48.9	51.1	75.7	24.3
El Salvador (2001)	Total	42.8	45.2	12.0	21.8	41.7	36.5	41.0	59.0	69.6	30.4
	Female head	35.7	31.0	25.6	38.1	31.9	29.3	41.6	58.4	72.4	27.6
	Children 0–4 years	...	44.3	65.0	...	44.9	72.9	41.3	58.7	72.0	28.0
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of) (2002)	Total	41.6	47.6	10.8	19.2	46.2	34.6	42.6	57.4	71.0	29.0
	Female head	29.9	24.2	21.8	39.8	31.6	28.2	49.2	50.8	76.0	24.0
	Children 0–4 years	...	39.8	66.7	...	44.5	72.7	45.3	54.7	72.8	27.2
Colombia (1999)	Total	48.5	44.6	6.9	21.7	50.3	28.0	51.7	48.3	79.4	20.6
	Female head	31.6	20.8	14.2	33.7	23.7	19.1	55.0	45.0	83.9	16.1
	Children 0–4 years	...	39.6	62.9	...	43.7	71.4	54.1	45.9	81.4	18.6
Paraguay (2001)	Total	43.4	44.3	12.3	16.2	39.6	44.2	49.2	50.8	79.5	20.5
	Female head	31.0	21.9	22.6	30.0	26.6	21.0	54.1	45.9	78.3	21.7
	Children 0–4 years	...	47.3	65.5	...	45.7	77.2	48.4	51.6	82.1	17.9
Guatemala (2002)	Total	34.0	42.8	23.2	9.8	30.7	59.5	44.6	55.4	74.2	25.8
	Female head	23.5	22.9	10.2	25.8	22.3	16.8	43.9	56.1	82.6	17.4
	Children 0–4 years
Bolivia (2002)	Total	42.8	42.7	14.5	20.5	39.1	40.3	53.3	46.7	77.6	22.4
	Female head	31.0	19.9	11.9	27.7	17.9	10.4	50.6	49.4	75.2	24.8
	Children 0–4 years	...	42.6	68.3	...	44.0	78.6	54.2	45.8	80.0	20.0

Table I.6 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF POOR AND NON-POOR HOUSEHOLDS, 1999–2003 (Percentage of households)											
		Percentage of households, by presence of children						Poverty rate by number of children in the household			
		Non-poor households			Poor households			Households with 1 to 2 children		Households with 3 or more children	
		No children	1 to 2 children	3 or more children	No children	1 to 2 children	3 or more children	Poor	Non-poor	Poor	Non-poor
Nicaragua (2001)	Total	35.3	47.9	16.8	13.3	41.1	45.6	59.3	40.7	82.2	17.8
	Female head	31.5	24.8	26.1	41.3	30.7	23.4	64.4	35.6	80.5	19.5
	Children 0–4 years	...	43.2	64.2	...	46.9	73.7	61.3	38.7	84.1	15.9
Honduras (2002)	Total	37.8	48.1	14.2	13.6	40.7	45.7	67.5	32.5	88.7	11.3
	Female head	32.2	27.9	23.4	32.2	24.8	20.1	64.9	35.1	87.1	12.9
	Children 0–4 years	...	46.0	66.5	...	49.2	76.9	68.9	31.1	90.1	9.9

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

a/ Urban areas.

Female-headed households, especially those with children, are more likely to slip into poverty. The differences between poor groups and other groups in terms of the effect of a female head in households with children are fairly high in Costa Rica and the Dominican Republic, followed by Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Chile, Ecuador and Uruguay. The only exceptions are Bolivia and Honduras (see table I.6).¹⁰

2. EDUCATIONAL FACTORS

Investment in educational capital is an essential factor in reducing poverty and inequality, mainly because of its capacity to contribute to social mobility and to breaking the intergenerational transmission of poverty. Education has a significant effect on people's standard of living, not only because of the link with subsequent employment but also because of consequences in areas as varied as healthcare, social capital development and the

strengthening of democratic systems. Although, generally speaking, Latin America has made significant progress in the level of education of the population, there remain major differences between socio-economic groups (see table 29 of the statistical appendix). While acknowledging that individuals' characteristics and abilities are relevant in determining their educational performance, unequal access to education opportunities is clearly a predominant factor.

On average, just over half of the poor households in Latin America are headed by someone who has not completed six years of primary education, and only 8% of heads of poor households have 12 years of schooling.¹¹ The percentage of heads of household with less than six years of schooling is 50% or more in Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Paraguay and Peru (see table I.7).

¹⁰ See ECLAC (2004b) for a more detailed analysis of poverty from a gender perspective.

¹¹ In most Latin American countries, all of the instruction corresponding to primary education is given in the first six years of schooling, according to the 1997 UNESCO International Standard Classification of Education. Only Brazil and Colombia have shorter basic education cycles (four and five years, respectively).

The average years of schooling of the head of household is closely linked to the educational level of the rest of the adults in the household. What is more, the (usually female) spouses of heads of household often have higher levels of schooling than the heads themselves, especially in countries with lower poverty rates. This situation, which is much more common in non-poor families, does not, however, mean that women from poor families have been able to find better employment or secure higher wages.

Figures from recent years reveal that the educational level of poor households continues to be considerably lower than in other groups. In over half the countries analysed, heads of non-poor households had an average of three years more schooling than heads of households living below the poverty line, with similar figures for the educational level of spouses.

It is worrying that such differences between poor and other groups are also seen among children aged 6 to 15, as this translates into increased repetition and dropout rates among low-income households during primary education, thereby reducing the possibilities for those children to achieve appropriate levels of education. Argentina, Chile and Costa Rica are the only countries in which the difference between the two groups is less than six months. In Brazil, Honduras, Nicaragua and Uruguay, there is a difference of an entire year.

When studying the link between poverty and education, it is essential to analyse the transmission of educational inequalities, i.e., the extent to which the parents' level of education conditions their children. In this context, one highly useful indicator

is the difference between the years of schooling of offspring aged over 25 and the head of household. In households headed by someone with between 0 and 5 years of schooling, differences vary between two years, in Guatemala, and more than five, in Argentina, Chile, Peru and Uruguay.

Although the new generation has much more educational capital than their parents, only Argentina and Chile have exceeded the threshold of 12 years, which is the minimum needed to notably reduce the chances of living in poverty.¹² On the other hand, when the analysis is extended to households whose heads have six or more years of schooling, the differences lessen and are even negative in some countries. This seems to indicate that the increased educational capital of the poor has been due to increased minimum schooling more than to a higher number of years spent in secondary and higher education.

Available information underscores how urgent it is for governments to step up efforts to provide more and better education to the most disadvantaged families. It is therefore vital to recognize the dilemma that children and young people (especially the poor) constantly face of choosing between studying and contributing to household income. In most cases, monetary transfers are made to parents to delay the incorporation of students into the labour market and facilitate the continuation of their studies. Although these programmes tend to focus on basic and the first part of secondary education, especially in Brazil and Mexico, it would certainly be useful to apply the scheme to all secondary education and extend it to the national level (given that programmes tend to be limited to certain areas).

12 Maintaining a good chance of achieving well-being requires completing secondary education at least, i.e., 12 years or more of schooling (ECLAC, 1994, chapter VI).

Lastly, the education gap between poor and other households, analysed on the basis of average years of schooling, would definitely widen if the quality of education was also considered, given that some studies show significant differences between the academic performance of pupils in public and private schools (UNESCO, 2003). If education is to provide a solid base for eradicating poverty, enhancing education quality should be a main focus of public policy.

3. LABOUR MARKET

The characteristics of the labour market and the way in which people join and progress within that market are undoubtedly fundamental in understanding the mechanisms that lead to poverty and in formulating policies aimed at eradicating it. Such policies include those oriented to generating employment, increasing productivity and labour income, training and extending access to social welfare services.

Table I.7

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): EDUCATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF POOR AND NON-POOR HOUSEHOLDS, 1999–2003																	
	Average years of schooling						Percentage of households by years of schooling of head						Difference in years of schooling between children and heads, by schooling of head ^{c/}		Poverty rate according to years of schooling of head of household		
	Non-poor households			Poor households			Non-poor households			Poor households			Poor households				
	Heads	Spouses	Children ^{b/}	Heads	Spouses	Children ^{b/}	0-5 years	6-11 years	12 years or more	0-5 years	6-11 years	12 years or more	0-5 years	6 years or more	0-5 years	6-11 years	12 years or more
	(Years)						(Percentages)						(Years)		(Percentages)		
Uruguay ^{a/}	8.6	9.2	4.2	6.6	6.9	3.3	18.4	55.2	26.4	23.8	70.7	5.5	5.1	1.2	11.7	11.6	2.1
Chile	9.9	10.0	4.1	7.7	7.9	3.8	18.2	34.9	46.9	27.4	50.0	22.6	5.3	1.9	21.4	20.6	8.0
Costa Rica	8.1	8.2	3.5	5.0	5.4	3.1	21.5	56.2	22.3	46.4	50.1	3.4	3.5	-0.6	33.2	17.0	3.4
Panama	9.4	9.8	3.9	6.0	5.9	3.3	15.9	43.7	40.4	36.6	51.6	11.8	4.4	1.5	47.6	31.9	10.4
Brazil	6.6	7.1	3.4	3.7	4.1	2.3	49.9	37.0	13.1	74.8	24.4	0.8	3.5	-0.5	39.0	21.9	2.5
Argentina ^{a/}	10.6	11.0	4.4	7.7	8.0	3.9	9.7	39.3	51.0	19.1	63.2	17.8	5.3	1.9	51.4	46.3	15.8
Mexico	28.2	43.5	28.3	51.5	42.1	6.4	46.0	31.1	9.6
Dominican Republic	7.7	8.4	4.1	5.4	5.3	3.3	37.8	33.9	28.3	54.2	33.5	12.3	4.7	0.9	49.8	40.6	23.1
Peru	9.1	8.1	4.0	5.2	4.7	3.2	32.9	38.4	28.6	61.0	33.6	5.4	5.7	-1.2	57.2	38.7	11.9
Ecuador ^{a/}	65.1	51.8	22.8
El Salvador	7.0	7.1	3.2	3.5	3.4	2.3	40.9	31.1	28.0	70.4	23.5	6.1	3.6	2.5	56.4	36.3	14.0
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	8.8	9.3	4.3	6.1	6.4	3.7	18.1	58.9	23.0	34.5	60.3	5.2	4.8	2.1	59.3	43.9	14.7
Colombia	8.0	8.1	3.8	4.9	5.2	3.1	44.1	35.5	20.4	68.1	29.5	2.4	3.7	0.2	59.5	44.2	10.2
Paraguay	8.2	8.3	3.9	4.9	4.7	3.1	31.3	37.4	31.4	55.9	38.1	6.0	3.8	1.8	66.0	52.6	17.1
Guatemala	6.0	4.8	...	2.8	1.9	...	48.9	32.7	18.4	75.9	22.0	2.0	2.1	0.6	63.5	43.0	11.0
Bolivia	9.4	8.3	4.3	5.5	4.1	3.6	30.1	27.2	42.7	59.0	28.9	12.0	4.7	1.7	71.0	57.0	26.0
Nicaragua	6.4	6.7	3.8	3.5	3.3	2.8	44.4	39.1	16.5	71.1	26.2	2.8	4.0	1.0	73.0	53.1	22.0
Honduras	7.8	8.0	3.5	3.4	3.6	2.4	30.6	37.1	32.3	67.8	27.9	4.2	3.2	1.1	84.4	64.8	24.2

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

a/ Urban areas.

b/ Aged between 6 and 15.

c/ Difference in years of schooling between children aged 25 or above and the head of household, by years of schooling of head.

Labour policies designed to overcome poverty usually prioritize job creation, on the basis that poor families tend to be worst affected by high unemployment. Although unemployment rates among the poor are considerably higher than in other groups, the situation varies considerably from one country to another,¹³ which makes it necessary to tackle the problem with different policy strategies.

When poverty is closely linked to unemployment, excellent results can be obtained by reactivating the productive base, boosting the job market and facilitating the creation of quality employment, while ensuring the provision of social welfare. These strategies are particularly effective in those countries where poverty is most clearly linked to the level of unemployment. When unemployment has little effect on poor households, its members usually work in low-productivity jobs in self-employment, unskilled or domestic work and micro-enterprises. Priority measures should therefore include training human resources and the generation of formal employment in labour-intensive sectors that can absorb those working without adequate social welfare protection.

As shown in table I.5, the highest unemployment rates among the poor are in Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Chile, Colombia, Dominican Republic, Panama and Uruguay, where they vary between 20% and 28%. These countries also have the highest number of households with at least two unemployed members, and the lowest proportion of families with at least two employed members (see table I.8). One factor that explains high unemployment in poor households in this group of countries is that, since they possess a solid stock of educational capital, greater job expectations may result in people spending longer seeking employment. In turn, some of the countries with the

highest poverty rates (including Bolivia, Guatemala, Honduras and Peru) have an unemployment rate among poor households of less than 5% and a percentage of households with at least two employed members of usually over 50%. As explained below, this does not, however, imply greater earning capacity, given that those working tend to be absorbed in very low-productivity employment.

The employment density of poor homes (number of employed persons divided by number of household members) also varies from one country to another, yet it always changes in proportion with the poverty rate. While in Chile and Costa Rica, employment density is only 0.21 (one out of every five household members is employed), in Bolivia, Guatemala, Paraguay and Peru it is over 0.35 (one employed person for every three household members). Employment density is also an indicator that varies between poor and other groups within one country. Indeed, in 16 countries the employment density of non-poor households is at least 0.15 points higher than in poor households.

The main characteristics of the employment situation of the members of poor households is their concentration in low-productivity sectors. In 13 of the region's countries, 70% or more of employed members of poor households work in establishments employing up to five people, carry out domestic work or are own account workers with no professional or technical qualification (see table I.8). This is also true of many workers from non-poor households, which is a sign of the regional spread of precarious employment. Indeed, even in countries with lower levels of poverty (with the exception of Chile), it is common for 40% of non-poor workers to be working in the informal sector, with the figure exceeding 60% in many countries with higher poverty rates.

13 Tabulations of data from household surveys show that differences in unemployment rates between poor and non-poor households vary between 3 percentage points (Bolivia, Guatemala, Honduras and Peru) and over 15 percentage points (Chile, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Dominican Republic and Uruguay).

Table I.8

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): EMPLOYMENT CHARACTERISTICS OF POOR AND NON-POOR HOUSEHOLDS, 1999–2003																		
	Percentage of households, by activity status of members												Poverty rate, by activity status of household members					
	Non-poor households						Poor households						At least 1 empl. member	At least 2 empl. members	At least 1 unempl. member	At least 2 unempl. members	Inactive head	Empl. in low-prod. sectors ^{b/}
	At least 1 empl. member	At least 2 empl. members	At least 1 unempl. member	At least 2 unempl. members	Inactive head	Empl. in low-prod. sectors ^{b/}	At least 1 empl. member	At least 2 empl. members	At least 1 unempl. member	At least 2 unempl. members	Inactive head	Empl. in low-prod. sectors ^{b/}						
	(Percentages)												(Percentages)					
Uruguay ^{a/}	72.5	36.2	18.0	2.5	37.9	42.3	85.0	33.3	44.6	13.7	17.2	74.9	10.7	8.6	20.3	35.7	4.4	16.5
Chile	88.0	47.2	10.3	1.2	23.9	34.0	74.7	17.6	29.1	6.7	26.2	42.5	13.3	6.3	34.0	50.8	16.6	12.6
Costa Rica	94.5	51.9	7.7	0.7	17.2	44.0	68.0	18.6	17.0	2.8	38.0	79.6	14.1	7.6	33.6	49.1	33.6	18.6
Panama	90.5	49.3	22.1	3.8	19.1	41.3	81.2	28.7	33.0	8.4	16.0	81.9	26.2	18.7	37.2	46.7	24.9	38.6
Brazil	87.1	52.3	10.5	1.3	24.1	44.8	87.2	41.0	21.8	4.7	15.5	65.5	30.0	25.1	47.1	60.6	21.5	37.1
Argentina ^{a/}	76.9	39.2	14.2	1.2	30.7	39.8	76.6	25.5	35.7	9.2	23.3	47.3	34.9	25.9	57.4	80.8	29.0	35.3
Mexico	92.1	51.9	3.9	0.7	16.2	51.3	93.1	46.5	5.3	0.9	13.9	69.5	32.0	29.5	38.7	39.0	28.4	38.6
Dominican Republic	95.7	50.7	16.9	2.3	15.5	52.1	72.6	21.0	30.8	5.6	33.4	61.9	34.4	22.3	55.8	62.6	59.8	32.9
Peru	94.1	65.2	10.2	0.8	17.2	60.8	95.2	63.2	9.4	1.7	9.1	87.0	42.6	41.6	40.4	60.8	27.7	51.1
Ecuador ^{a/}	94.2	57.1	6.3	0.7	12.6	66.3	89.9	40.7	12.9	1.6	15.0	78.7	41.5	34.6	60.6	61.2	46.8	47.0
El Salvador	91.7	56.4	7.1	0.4	21.6	52.8	86.2	39.2	16.3	2.2	25.1	78.2	41.4	34.3	63.2	81.8	46.7	48.4
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	97.1	64.2	18.3	3.0	13.6	68.6	84.4	35.7	36.6	9.3	20.2	70.7	39.9	29.8	60.4	70.6	53.3	35.4
Colombia	91.6	56.9	16.8	2.8	20.3	...	87.6	37.1	32.0	8.6	16.8	...	47.6	38.2	64.4	74.3	44.1	...
Paraguay	94.0	60.6	9.8	1.2	15.5	60.6	91.1	54.4	16.5	3.2	17.6	85.9	51.2	49.3	64.6	73.8	55.1	61.3
Guatemala	96.0	59.3	4.6	0.2	8.8	64.4	92.9	55.1	6.0	0.7	10.3	78.2	52.0	51.0	59.6	79.4	56.7	55.3
Bolivia	93.2	57.5	6.9	0.8	13.3	63.3	94.7	62.2	7.8	1.2	8.1	88.8	55.9	57.5	58.7	64.8	43.1	67.8
Nicaragua	97.4	66.5	13.6	2.1	12.5	55.8	93.3	55.2	22.6	6.3	17.5	75.6	61.9	58.5	73.8	83.4	70.3	68.0
Honduras	92.0	55.4	5.8	0.4	16.7	48.1	93.3	49.0	6.4	0.9	16.3	80.5	71.3	68.4	73.0	83.3	70.5	80.6

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

a/ Urban areas.

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

Limited education and unstable employment are obviously reflected in the level of income of poor workers, which is usually insufficient to cover the basic needs of anyone besides the individual employed (see table I.5). This situation is even more prevalent in countries with higher poverty indices as they have the lowest rates of unemployment and levels of adult education, plus a high percentage of people employed in low-productivity activities, which results in an average per capita income that is

barely above the poverty line. On the other hand, there are few countries where workers' income is double the poverty line or more. This small group of countries includes two of the countries with the lowest poverty rates (Chile and Costa Rica) but also those with mid-range rates, such as El Salvador, Peru and the Dominican Republic. These examples do not conform to the inverse relationship between level of poverty and average labour income observed in other countries.

The countries can be classified in two groups in terms of the labour profile of the poor population. The first group has high unemployment rates (over 20%) among the poor, low employment density and a higher number of unemployed persons per household. The second group has higher poverty rates, lower unemployment rates and high levels of employment density, which implies a large number of people working in low-productivity activities. However, all countries share certain characteristics, such as the precarious employment situation of a high proportion of poor workers. Whatever the prevailing trend in a particular country, it is clearly necessary for job creation policies to be combined with strategies to increase productivity and labour income while ensuring workers' access to basic social security cover.

4. FACTORS AFFECTING ACCESS TO BASIC SERVICES AND ASSETS

Hardships in the form of low-quality housing and lack of access to certain basic services are the most visible manifestations of poverty. In the long term, severe lacks affecting a large segment of the population seriously hinder any progress that could be achieved by public poverty-reduction measures in the areas of health, food and nutrition. This reflects, *inter alia*, the fact that the living conditions associated with poverty differ enormously from country to country and between urban and rural areas.

Insalubrious homes and residential areas directly affect the health of household members, especially infants and children who are prone to infections and diarrhoea. These illnesses are closely associated with inadequate access to drinking water and the lack of appropriate sewerage systems, which is further aggravated within the household by the absence of basic hygiene procedures to avoid accumulation of

refuse and stagnant water inside and around the home. It is also essential that dwellings afford their inhabitants protection from adverse factors in their surroundings, as well as a certain degree of privacy and insulation. Mud floors and bedrooms shared by many people are two indications that the residence does not meet minimum habitability requirements.

It is to be expected that in countries where a high proportion of people do not have the income needed to buy staple goods, there would be other unmet basic needs. Indeed, countries that have traditionally had low poverty indices, such as Argentina, Chile, Costa Rica and Uruguay, have a lower rate of unmet basic needs as listed in table I.9. In contrast, countries with higher poverty rates also have the highest percentages of unmet basic needs. Peru constitutes an exception, in that it has a mid-range poverty rate while a high percentage of its population suffer from the above-mentioned lacks. In specific terms, Peru has the highest number of residences with mud floors and, along with Nicaragua and Bolivia, is the only country where at least half of poor households have this type of floor. In these countries, up to 27% of the non-poor population also lives in housing with mud floors (see table I.9).

The percentage of poor households without drinking water (or a well in rural areas) is over 30% in El Salvador and Peru, and over 20% in Bolivia, Ecuador (urban areas), Honduras and Nicaragua. As for sanitation, almost all poor households now have some connection to the system in Argentina (urban areas), Costa Rica, Ecuador (urban areas) and Uruguay (urban areas), with less than 6% remaining unconnected. In several other countries, this problem affects no more than a sixth of poor households. Nevertheless, the percentage of poor households with no sanitation services in Bolivia and Peru is 47% and 33%, respectively.

Table I.9

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): CHARACTERISTICS OF HOUSING AND BASIC SERVICES IN POOR AND NON-POOR HOUSEHOLDS, 1999–2003																		
	Percentage of households, by characteristics of home												Poverty rate, by characteristics of home					
	Non-poor households						Poor households											
	Earther floor	No public water connection	No sanitation services	No electricity	More than 3 people to a room	No television	Earther floor	No public water connection	No sanitation services	No electricity	More than 3 people to a room	No television	Earther floor	No public water connection	No sanitation services	No electricity	More than 3 people to a room	No television
(Percentages)												(Percentages)						
Uruguay a/	...	1.4	0.3	...	1.0	6.0	...	3.1	2.6	...	16.4	17.8	...	18.4	44.6	...	63.3	23.3
Chile	1.0	3.1	2.0	1.2	0.0	...	2.2	5.2	7.1	2.8	0.0	...	28.3	23.1	38.8	30.0
Costa Rica	0.7	3.6	0.5	0.9	7.3	7.2	5.7	8.0	1.2	4.2	19.6	22.2	65.7	33.9	37.2	53.3	38.0	41.4
Panama
Brazil	3.8	2.2	9.0	10.7	16.6	8.2	33.9	31.7	65.0	61.9	61.6	55.7
Argentina a/	1.1	0.3	5.0	0.7	70.8	59.6
Mexico	4.1	...	3.7	1.1	18.5	12.4	21.8	...	13.2	4.6	53.7	37.0	70.9	...	62.5	67.0	57.5	58.1
Dominican Republic	3.1	...	3.3	...	14.5	13.4	6.8	...	5.9	...	32.3	19.8	60.2	...	55.4	...	60.6	50.2
Peru	27.2	19.1	9.1	13.1	0.0	...	66.9	41.3	33.4	43.4	0.0	...	64.5	61.4	72.8	70.9
Ecuador a/	2.1	9.2	0.9	0.2	16.5	...	7.1	22.9	3.8	0.9	50.6	...	71.6	64.8	74.7	75.2	69.5	...
El Salvador	12.3	15.8	3.9	5.3	35.4	13.8	39.6	33.0	12.6	23.0	71.2	37.9	70.7	61.1	70.7	76.4	60.2	67.3
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	2.6	6.3	5.2	1.0	16.4	6.4	7.5	12.3	13.7	2.0	39.5	13.1	68.8	59.8	66.9	62.0	64.7	61.0
Colombia	5.2	4.2	5.4	4.0	0.0	17.5	11.8	8.0	11.3	7.3	0.0	35.2	68.2	64.4	66.7	63.5
Paraguay	5.3	14.0	0.6	3.2	14.9	14.3	30.7	15.6	1.3	14.3	47.1	33.0	86.3	54.7	70.4	82.7	77.4	71.4
Guatemala	13.6	41.4	33.6	76.9	73.5	67.5	...
Bolivia	15.7	12.9	16.9	20.8	31.1	25.3	49.6	28.9	46.8	48.2	66.0	56.6	79.7	73.6	77.5	74.3	72.6	73.6
Nicaragua	27.3	9.4	6.5	13.1	42.4	42.8	52.9	25.2	18.2	36.4	74.4	76.0	76.7	82.0	82.7	82.6	74.9	75.1
Honduras	6.6	6.8	5.7	10.7	25.0	...	37.8	23.1	24.4	46.1	69.0	...	93.3	89.2	91.2	91.3	87.1	...

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

a/ Urban areas.

Certain needs for housing and basic services are more likely to be met among poor people living in urban areas than in rural areas. Indeed, the percentage of poor households living in housing with mud floors and no electricity is, without exception, higher in rural areas. The differences between urban and rural areas can be acute. In the urban areas of El Salvador, Guatemala and Honduras, for instance,

less than 10% of poor households live without electricity, whereas, in rural areas, the percentages vary between 40% and 73%. This is also the case in countries where there is a low proportion of unmet basic needs among households. In Chile, for example, 25% of poor rural households are not supplied with water through the public network or through wells, whereas the figure is only 2% in urban areas.

Even if unmet basic needs appear to be an intrinsic characteristic of poor households, there are several countries where families with sufficient income have certain unmet needs, especially countries with higher poverty rates. While in Chile, Costa Rica and Uruguay, less than 4% of non-poor households have an unmet basic need, the figure can be as high as 20% or even 30% in Bolivia, El Salvador, Guatemala, Nicaragua and Peru.

In most countries, the selected variables for quality of housing and lack of access to basic services are nonetheless good indicators of the level of poverty of households. In general, no less than 60% of the households with one of those characteristics are poor, and in some countries the proportion is considerably higher (see the right section of table I.9). The main exception to this is Chile, where 30% or less of the households with mud floors, no public water connection or electricity are poor. However, this result is mainly due to the fact that a significant number of homes without access to certain services have income that is low, but above the poverty line, and therefore still demonstrate, in a general manner the link between such lacks and insufficient resources.

From a different perspective, it can be interesting to analyse some of the durable goods owned by poor households. The least common objects were non-essentials such as washing machines and computers, as well as vehicles, which have a very high cost in relation to the income of poor households. Refrigerators were more common, especially in Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, the

Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela and Uruguay, where they were present in 70% or more of poor households. Members of poor households undoubtedly see buying a television set as a priority. Indeed, in 9 out of the 11 countries with information available, over half of poor homes have a television, with the percentage over 75% in four of the countries (see table I.9).

5. CHANGES IN THE POVERTY PROFILE SINCE 1990

The characteristic features of poverty did not change a great deal between 1990 and 2002. At the beginning of the 1990s, poor families were also characterized by a larger number of members with fewer years of schooling than the rest of the population, high demographic dependency ratios and more limited access to basic services. Trends in the prevalence of such factors shows not only the positive changes achieved during the decade but also the difficulty of dissociating poverty from the structural factors that condition it (see table I.10).

One of the most striking changes during the period was the reduction in the average size of poor households, which is mainly attributable to the lower number of children per family.¹⁴ In all countries, the proportion of households with one or two children climbed, while the percentage of households with three or more children dipped considerably. The only exception to this trend is Uruguay, where average household size decreased in all population segments.

14 This is part of the regional trend towards lower fertility, analysed in chapter IV.

Table I.10

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF POOR HOUSEHOLDS, 1989–1991																
Country	Year	Household poverty rate	Average household size	Percentage of households with 1 to 2 children b/	Percentage of households with 3 or more children b/	Average years of schooling			Participation rate d/	Employment density e/	Average labour income per employed person f/	At least 1 unemployed person	No public network water	No sanitary services	No electricity	3 or more persons to a room
						Adults c/	Heads	Spouses								
Uruguay a/	1990	11.8	4.93	49.0	34.9	5.5	5.3	5.9	0.61	0.26	1.7	25.2	18.0	3.0	10.1	40.3
Chile	1990	33.3	4.70	57.1	26.0	7.0	7.0	7.1	0.49	0.23	1.9	18.0	16.3	3.2	10.0	...
Costa Rica	1990	23.6	4.91	35.6	41.3	4.5	4.4	4.8	0.52	0.21	2.3	12.0
Panama	1990	36.3	5.09	39.5	38.2	5.7	5.5	5.5	0.57	0.24	1.8	27.3
Brazil	1990	41.4	4.74	43.6	34.5	2.7	2.6	2.9	0.70	0.35	1.2	8.6	22.2	24.7	21.8	33.7
Argentina a/	1990	16.2	4.51	32.4	36.1	0.47	0.16	2.5	20.7	...	25.9	1.1	...
Mexico	1989	39.0	6.03	34.4	53.5	0.58	0.29	1.6	4.5	24.0	38.6	15.0	69.3
Ecuador a/	1990	55.8	5.18	46.8	36.5	0.64	0.32	1.7	12.5
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	1990	34.2	5.82	34.5	51.5	5.4	5.3	5.3	0.49	0.19	2.5	23.3	...	18.3	3.4	35.8
Colombia a/	1990	34.6	5.02	52.8	33.7	5.6	5.6	5.6	0.83	0.29	1.7	52.1	3.2	1.8	1.1	41.1
Guatemala	1989	63.0	5.89	1.5	1.8	1.2	0.64	0.29	1.5	3.1	26.8	38.8	62.3	83.7
Bolivia a/	1989	49.4	5.00	38.4	41.9	6.9	7.3	5.8	0.62	0.25	1.9	19.2	34.2	42.6	7.4	67.9
Honduras	1990	75.2	5.83	34.0	55.2	2.8	2.8	2.8	0.66	0.31	1.2	7.2	28.4	36.2	61.7	80.3

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

a/ Urban areas.

b/ Children aged between 0 and 14.

c/ Persons aged 25 and above.

d/ Economically active population (employed and unemployed) among the working-age population.

e/ Number of employed persons out of total household members.

f/ Multiple of the poverty line.

Another notable trend was the increase in the number of years of schooling of the adult population, an across-the-board phenomenon among heads of household, their spouses and other family members over the age of 25. Nevertheless, several countries recorded a slight widening of the educational gap between poor and other households.¹⁵ The average number of years schooling in non-poor households increased by more in the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Chile, Costa Rica, Honduras and Panama, whereas the opposite trend was observed in Brazil, Guatemala and Uruguay.

During the 1990s, there was a widespread rise in the participation rate of members of poor households in the labour force. A high proportion of labour force entrants swelled the ranks of the unemployed, whose number increased among poor households in most countries. The situation is made clearer by the number of households with at least one unemployed member, which increased by more than 10 percentage points in Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Brazil, Chile and Uruguay by at least five percentage points in Costa Rica and Panama.

¹⁵ It should be borne in mind that the widening of the educational gap between the poor and non-poor may be at least partly due to groups escaping from poverty on the strength of higher levels of education, which tends to reduce the average years of study of those who continue to live in poverty.

According to available data, poor households' insufficient income is increasingly due to low wages, and less to a low number of employed persons per household. Indeed, average income per employed person is in decline in almost all countries analysed,

while the percentage of employed persons for every household member has increased.

In the few cases where comparable information is available for the two reference years, there is a

Box 1.5

PROBABILITIES OF POVERTY

In addition to analysing the poverty profile on the basis of elements summarized in tables 1.5 to 1.9, it is useful to carry out a statistical check on the extent to which those elements are actually linked with poverty, and to estimate the effects of variation on the probability of the household having insufficient resources to meet its needs. Although this type of analysis is usually said to concern "determining factors of poverty", it should be pointed out that the results do not make it possible to establish a causal relationship between these factors and poverty, they simply highlight their close link with insufficient income. The factors under consideration can therefore be causes or consequences of poverty.

One conventional methodology for analysing poverty factors is logistic regression ("logit"), using the natural logarithm of the poverty probability quotient (PQ) as the dependent variable (i.e. the probability of being poor over the probability of not being poor), as shown in the following equation:

$$\ln(PQ) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_n X_n$$

Were

$$PQ = \frac{\text{Prob (poor)}}{\text{Prob (not poor)}} = \frac{e^{\beta X}}{1 + e^{\beta X}} \times \frac{1 + e^{\beta X}}{1} = e^{\beta X},$$

and β is the vector for coefficients β_1, \dots, β_n associated with each vector X of factors X_1, \dots, X_n .

The coefficients β are linear with respect to the poverty "probability quotient" and are therefore not linear with respect to the probability of poverty. In order to calculate the effect of changes in the independent variables on the probability of a household being poor, base values must be defined for those variables. a/

The application of this methodology, based on information from household surveys of urban areas, confirms the conclusions presented in this section (see below): b/

- In almost all countries, one more child per family increases the probability of being poor by 10 to 19 percentage points; the only exceptions are Honduras, where the marginal effect is 7 percentage points, and Brazil and Argentina, where the marginal effect is 23 percentage points. This variation has less effect in countries with higher poverty rates, with the exception of Costa Rica.
- Households headed by women are more likely to be poor in six countries, while they are less likely to be poor in two countries. However, this conclusion, and the fact that it is not a significant factor in the other countries, is partly a result of how the model is defined, i.e., the number of variables taken into consideration. It should also be pointed out that the regression includes all households, and therefore does not reflect specific family configurations that demonstrate a stronger link between poverty and female heads of household.
- All countries show a negative correlation between years of schooling of the adult population and poverty. Each year of schooling reduces the probability of living in poverty by between four and seven percentage points.
- An unemployed head of household is one of the main determining factors for poverty. In most countries, the risk of poverty for such households increases by over 25 percentage points, which confirms the importance of job creation in overcoming poverty.

a/ The base values for calculating marginal effects in this exercise are the average observed in poor households in the case of continuous variables (number of children, number of older people and years of education) and zero in the case of discrete variables (female head, inactive head and unemployed head of household).

b/ The results for rural areas, which are not reproduced here for lack of space, show a similar link between poverty and the variables analysed.

PROBABILITIES OF POVERTY

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): CHANGES IN PROBABILITY OF POVERTY ACCORDING TO SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF POOR HOUSEHOLDS, URBAN AREAS 2001/2002 a/ b/							
(Variation in percentage points)							
	Probability of poverty	Number of children	Number of older persons	Female head of household	Years of education of adults	Inactive head of household	Unemployed head of household
Argentina	51.4	+ 23.1	...	+ 8.1	- 6.9	+ 11.4	+ 36.1
Bolivia	67.7	+ 11.8	- 8.9	...	- 4.6	+ 7.2	+ 23.9
Brazil	53.1	+ 22.7	- 26.7	+ 5.0	- 7.2	+ 2.4	+ 37.8
Chile	21.7	+ 13.3	- 14.2	...	- 4.3	+ 16.9	+ 48.5
Colombia	70.7	+ 15.0	- 5.1	+ 3.7	- 6.2	- 3.8	+ 21.6
Costa Rica	22.1	+ 11.0	-3.5	...	- 4.5	+ 28.8	+ 49.6
Ecuador	57.0	+ 17.3	- 5.6	+ 13.9	+ 26.2
El Salvador	56.3	+ 14.6	- 5.9	+ 12.9	+ 33.3
Guatemala	72.0	+ 11.7	- 4.8	+ 16.5	+ 23.2
Honduras	88.1	+ 6.7	- 3.4	+ 1.9	+ 7.6
Mexico	35.3	+ 16.9	+ 9.6	+ 6.7	...	+ 7.0	+ 31.5
Nicaragua	74.9	+ 10.2	- 4.3	+ 11.9	+ 18.4
Panama	37.6	+ 14.7	- 16.6	+ 10.2	- 6.0	+ 10.9	+ 42.4
Paraguay	74.4	+ 12.9	- 6.2	+ 7.3	+ 21.5
Peru	57.6	+ 15.6	- 8.5	...	- 5.6	+ 10.9	+ 29.9
Dominican Republic	38.8	+ 14.2	...	+ 10.3	- 4.1	+ 32.0	+ 47.9
Uruguay	28.4	+ 18.8	- 13.8	+ 5.9	- 6.5	...	+ 28.6
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	49.5	+ 14.9	- 8.0	+ 5.0	- 5.4	+ 21.8	+ 39.9

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

a/ Only includes marginal effects of statistically significant variables with a probability of at least 95%.

b/ The marginal effects are illustrated using a reference household that reflects the average incidence of each characteristic in the country's poor households.

general trend towards improved living conditions for the poor. By way of example, the percentage of poor households without sanitation services dropped by between 5% and 25% in Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Brazil, Honduras and

Mexico; only Chile and Uruguay recorded no progress in this area. It is worth remembering, however, that the problem of a lack of community infrastructure and basic services in homes is still far from being resolved in much of the region.

D. INCOME DISTRIBUTION: CONVERGENCE TOWARDS HIGHER LEVELS OF INEQUITY

Inequality indicators over the past 13 years show that countries are converging towards higher levels of inequity in income distribution. This trend is apparent even in economies that had historically shown the lowest levels of inequality in the region, which have gradually been losing the gains they had made in this area. As a result, a high proportion of countries currently have high or very high levels of unequal income distribution. The high concentration of income is mainly due to the significant percentage of resources concentrated in the richest 10% of households, which distinguishes income distribution in Latin America from that observed in the rest of the world.

The marked degree of income concentration is one of the hallmarks of Latin America's social panorama. This has earned the region the dubious distinction of being the most inequitable region on the planet in terms of income distribution, even when compared with less socially developed regions with higher poverty rates.¹⁶

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. Households in the fifth, sixth and seventh deciles –the ones in the mid-range of the income distribution– receive 23.0% of total national income. Meanwhile, the eighth and ninth deciles receive an average of 27.3% of monetary household income. Lastly, the richest decile takes in an average of 36.1% of all household income in the Latin American countries, although the percentage can exceed 45%, as is the case in Brazil (see table 25 of the statistical appendix).

¹⁶ According to World Bank figures (2003), the average Gini coefficient in Latin America during the 1990s was higher than in all other regions, including sub-Saharan Africa.

These figures show that the high percentage of resources concentrated in the richest 10% of households is the hallmark of income distribution in Latin America. This becomes obvious when observing the gulf between average per capita income in households from the richest decile and those from the four poorest deciles. In 2002, the country with the smallest difference between the two groups was Uruguay, where the average income of the tenth decile, which received 27.3% of household income, was 9.5 times higher than that of the first four deciles. At the other end of the scale, data on the situation in Brazil in 2001 show that while the poorest 40% only received 10.2% of total income, the richest decile received almost half (46.8%). This means that the average income of the richest decile was 32.2 times higher than that of the poorest four. In addition, in seven countries the average income of the richest decile was at least 20 times higher than that of the poorest four. These figures reveal serious disparities at the national level, which restrict the opportunities for large segments of the population to enjoy an acceptable level of well-being (see figure I.9).

The high percentage of resources concentrated in the richest decile is a distinguishing characteristic of Latin America. Data on income concentration in more developed countries show that the richest 10% of households receive about 25% of the income, which is below the figures for any economy in Latin America.¹⁷

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 versus higher-income households. Although the Gini index is the best known and most widely used to measure inequality, it does not assign a higher weighting to the lower part of the distribution structure.¹⁸ The Atkinson and other indices, however, do offer this trait, which is desirable from a theoretical point of view. Besides this, the Atkinson index has the special feature of incorporating an "inequality aversion" parameter, which indicates the weighting assigned to observations of the lower end of the distribution scale.¹⁹

1. GINI INDEX

One way to look at the high concentration of income in the richest decile compared with other countries is to use a synthetic indicator like the Gini index. Calculating the Gini coefficient for the other 90% of the region's households generates a reduction of between 0.115 (Uruguay) and 0.192 points (Brazil) in relation to the figure for the total population.²⁰ In contrast, the reduction in the Gini coefficient obtained by excluding the top decile in a country such as the United States does not exceed 0.040 points (see figure I.10).²¹

17 Simple average of 18 OECD countries during the period 1995–2000, based on information from the World Bank's database, World Development Indicators Online.

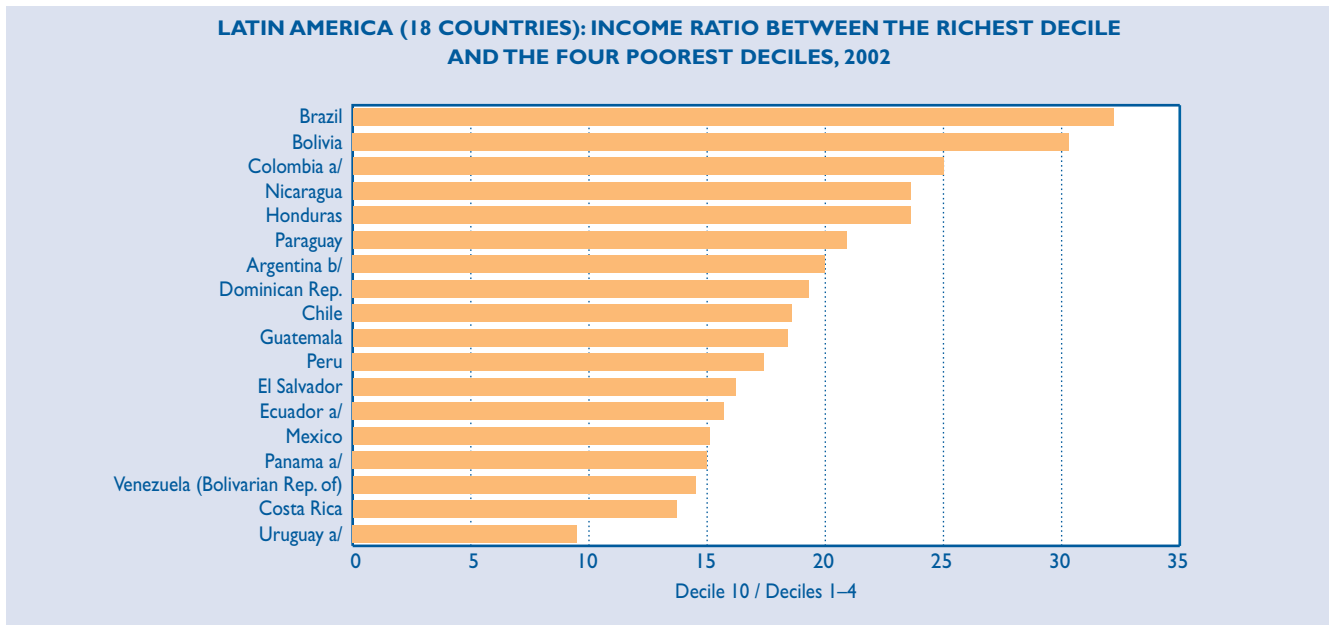
18 Geometrically, the Gini index represents the area between the Lorenz curve and the line of absolute equality. It is the index most widely used to analyse income distribution, even though it does not possess all the desirable properties. It takes values between zero and one, with zero corresponding to absolute equity and one to absolute inequity.

19 Index proposed in Atkinson (1970), "On the measurement of income inequality", *Journal of Economic Theory* Vol.2. Box I.7 of the *Social Panorama 2002–2003* includes additional information on inequality indices and the functional form of the Atkinson index.

20 The sole purpose of this exercise was to illustrate what would happen if data from the richest 10% of families were not taken into account. To corroborate the validity of this finding, however, the 90% weighting of the remaining observations would have to be extended to the country's total population, taking account of the statistical design used to generate the sample observed.

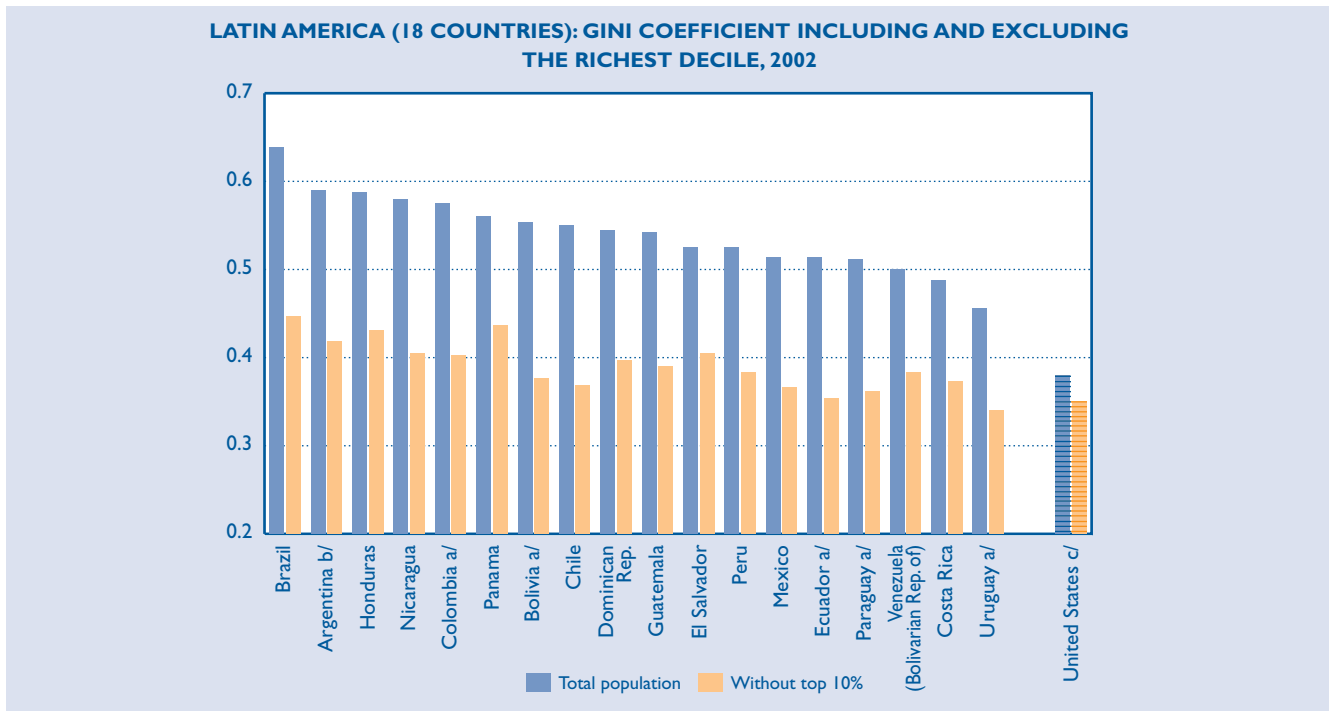
21 The figures for the United States were obtained from Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), *Economic and Social Progress in Latin America, Report 1998–1999*, Washington, D.C., 1988.

Figure I.9



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.
 a/ Urban areas.
 b/ Greater Buenos Aires.

Figure I.10



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.
 a/ Urban areas.
 b/ Greater Buenos Aires.
 c/ Figures for the United States taken from IDB (1998) may not be strictly comparable with other data observed.

When countries are divided into four categories based on their Gini coefficients (see box I.6), it can be seen that, even though the forms taken by inequality in the region are quite heterogeneous, a large number of countries tend to exhibit similar levels of inequality, especially with respect to strata having a high or very high income concentration. According to the most recent data, the only country in the low inequality stratum is Uruguay, with an indicator of less than 0.470. The intermediate

stratum includes Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Costa Rica, Ecuador (urban areas), Mexico and Paraguay (urban areas), with Gini coefficients ranging from 0.488 to 0.514. The high inequality stratum has the highest number of countries (nine), whose indices vary between 0.525 and 0.579. Lastly, Brazil, Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)²² and Honduras, in that order, make up the very high inequity stratum, with indices of over 0.580 (see table I.11).

Table I.11

STRATIFICATION OF COUNTRIES ACCORDING TO THE GINI COEFFICIENT OF INCOME DISTRIBUTION, 1990–2002 ^{a/}										
Level of inequality	1990		1994		1997		1999		2002	
Very high 0.5800 – 1	Brazil	0.627	Brazil	0.621	Brazil	0.638	Brazil	0.640	Brazil	0.639
	Honduras	0.615	Nicaragua	0.582	Nicaragua	0.584			Argentina c/ Honduras	0.590
	Guatemala	0.582							Honduras	0.588
High 0.5200 – 0.5799	Chile	0.554	Colombia b/	0.579	Colombia b/	0.577	Honduras	0.564	Nicaragua	0.579
	Panama b/	0.545	Honduras	0.560	Guatemala	0.560	Colombia b/	0.564	Colombia b/	0.575
	Bolivia d/	0.538	Chile	0.553	Chile	0.560	Chile	0.559	Bolivia b/	0.554
	Mexico	0.536	Panama b/	0.548	Honduras	0.558	Dominican Rep.	0.554	Chile	0.550
	Colombia b/	0.531	Mexico	0.539	Panama b/	0.552	Peru	0.545	Dominican Rep.	0.544
					Mexico	0.539	Mexico	0.542	Guatemala	0.543
					Peru	0.532	Argentina c/	0.542	El Salvador	0.525
					Bolivia b/	0.531	Panama b/	0.533	Peru	0.525
					Argentina c/	0.530	Ecuador b/	0.521		
Intermediate 0.4700 – 0.5199	Argentina c/	0.501	Bolivia b/	0.514	El Salvador	0.510	El Salvador	0.518	Panama b/	0.515
	Uruguay b/	0.492	Paraguay b/	0.511	Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	0.507	Bolivia b/	0.504	Mexico	0.514
	Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	0.471	Argentina c/	0.508	Paraguay b/	0.493	Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	0.498	Ecuador b/	0.513
			El Salvador	0.507			Paraguay b/	0.497	Paraguay b/	0.511
			Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	0.486			Costa Rica	0.473	Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	0.500
			Ecuador b/	0.479					Costa Rica	0.488
Low 0 – 0.4699	Ecuador b/	0.461	Costa Rica	0.461	Ecuador b/	0.469	Uruguay b/	0.440	Uruguay b/	0.455
	Costa Rica	0.438	Uruguay b/	0.423	Costa Rica Uruguay b/	0.450 0.430				

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

a/ Includes income equal to zero.

b/ Urban areas.

c/ Greater Buenos Aires.

d/ Eight main cities plus El Alto.

22 Data for Greater Buenos Aires are used to maintain comparability with the year 1990. However, data from urban areas for 2002 place Argentina between Honduras and Nicaragua, although it remains in the high inequality stratum.

A comparison of this classification, which is based on data from 2002, with the classification based on 1990 data indicates that the countries have been converging towards a higher level of distributive inequity.²³ First, the upper and lower values of the Gini coefficient have both risen. In 1990, the low and high extremes of the indicator were 0.438 (Costa Rica) and 0.627 (Brazil) respectively. In 2002, these values had shifted to 0.456 (Uruguay) and 0.639 (Brazil). Also, several countries have experienced a noticeable deterioration in income distribution (including Argentina, Costa Rica, Ecuador and Colombia), and only three (Guatemala, Mexico and Panama) posted a notable improvement.

Among the countries in the high inequality group in 2002, Brazil is the most striking example given that, during the 13 years covered by this study, it has posted the highest levels of the Gini coefficient (between 0.627 and 0.640). Argentina should also be mentioned (data from Greater Buenos Aires only), as its constantly increasing Gini coefficient climbed by almost 18% between 1990 and 2002, thereby moving it from the intermediate stratum to that of very high income concentration. Nevertheless, the situation in 2002 was the result of a serious economic crisis and should therefore not be considered representative of a more long-term distribution trend.

Box I.6

STRATIFICATION OF COUNTRIES ACCORDING TO THE GINI COEFFICIENT

With a view to providing an overview of the heterogeneity of inequality among the region's countries, they were classified using a logarithm of statistical stratification of k-measures. The aim of this methodology is to generate internally homogenous strata but with maximum variability between them.

In any such exercise, it is crucial to determine the optimum number of groups. The proposed stratification into four categories was considered most appropriate as it accounts for over 95% of the total variance of the Gini coefficient values observed around the reference year (1990).

The strata can be broken down as follows:

Strata	Number of countries	Average Gini coefficient	Standard deviation	Limits	
				Lower	Upper
Lower	3	0.4458	0.0113	0	0.4699
Intermediate	3	0.4818	0.0163	0.4700	0.5199
High	5	0.5435	0.0123	0.5200	0.5799
Very high	3	0.6099	0.0204	0.5800	1

The greatest dispersion –measured from the standard deviation– is observed in the stratum comprising Guatemala, Honduras and Brazil, countries which have the most inequality, with average Gini coefficients of 0.610. The stratum with the lowest inequality also reported the lowest dispersion. The lowest Gini coefficient observed was in Costa Rica (0.438), which was also the country with the lowest income concentration in the region in 1990.

The stratification based on the Atkinson index (table I.12) was devised using a similar statistical procedure to the one described here.

23 Taking account of the error margins for inequality indicators (see box I.7).

The regional deterioration in income distribution is particularly apparent in countries that were traditionally examples of greater equity in the region. Both Uruguay and Costa Rica, which have headed the list of lower-inequity countries since the mid-1990s, have experienced a process of income concentration reflected in significant increases in the Gini coefficient. In 2002, Uruguay posted the lowest value (0.456) and was the only country classified in the low concentration stratum. Since 1994, however, income distribution in Uruguay has deteriorated, and it posted a cumulative increase of 0.032 points compared with the 2002 figure. The Gini coefficient of Costa Rica has been rising constantly since 1990, climbing from 0.438 that year to 0.488 in 2002. As a result, Costa Rica went from the low inequity stratum to the intermediate stratum in 1999.

There are a few countries to have reduced the levels of inequality recorded in 1990. However, in several of those cases, progress was made in the first half of the 1990s and the trend was subsequently reverted. The only countries to have made progress between the beginning and end of the period, and not to have slipped back in recent years, are Guatemala, Mexico and Panama (urban areas). Nonetheless, the fact that those improvements have been observed only in a small number of years casts doubt over whether they constitute consolidated progress in income distribution or whether they are simply the result of an economic situation that does not necessarily herald a move towards greater equity.²⁴

2. ATKINSON INDEX AND OTHERS

The complex changes in a society's income distribution profile cannot easily be captured by a single indicator. Furthermore, as stated above, the Gini coefficient does not enable an adequate assessment of the situation of households with the lowest income. To find out what has happened to the poorest groups over the 13 years, it is therefore relevant to incorporate complementary indicators

that emphasize variations in the lower part of the distribution structure. With this in mind, a stratification of countries was prepared using the Atkinson index, in addition to that using the Gini coefficient exercise (see table I.12).

The first point worthy of note is that the relative position of countries using the Atkinson index is significantly different to the one obtained using the Gini coefficient, given that the former assigns a higher weighting to the lowest-income groups. For instance, if countries are placed in descending order on the basis of data from 2002, Costa Rica and El Salvador are in a worse position than with the Gini coefficient, while Guatemala's levels of inequality are somewhat lower.

Notwithstanding this difference in the order, trends in the classification of countries in the inequality strata between 1990 and 2002 tend to confirm the convergence towards higher levels of income concentration observed with the Gini coefficient. In 1990, the number of countries in the intermediate inequality stratum was similar to the number in the high and very high strata. By 2002, however, there were only three countries in the intermediate group, and the rest (except Uruguay) were classified in the high or very high strata.

Variations in inequality observed between 1990 and 2002 using other complementary indices (generalized entropy index with parameters -1 and 2, Theil index and log variance, etc.) show that six countries (Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salvador and Paraguay) suffered a deterioration in income distribution. The only countries in which all indicators identified a reduction in inequity were Guatemala, Honduras and Mexico. However, it should be borne in mind that inequality in Honduras has been increasing since 1999, and that Mexico's result in is uniquely due to the past triennium, which means that these countries' advances cannot be interpreted as a strong trend in the long term.

²⁴ In many countries, changes made to surveys may make it difficult to compare results with previous years. See ECLAC (2004b), boxes I.3 and I.4 for further details.

Table I.12

STRATIFICATION OF COUNTRIES ACCORDING TO THE ATKINSON INDEX ($\alpha=2$) OF INCOME DISTRIBUTION, 1990–2002 a/ b/					
Level of inequality	1990	1994	1997	1999	2002
Very high 0.720 – 1	Bolivia e/ Brazil Honduras	Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of) Nicaragua Brazil Colombia c/	Nicaragua Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of) Brazil	El Salvador Brazil Honduras	El Salvador Nicaragua Brazil Panama c/
High 0.600 – 0.719	Guatemala Panama c/ Chile Colombia c/	Honduras El Salvador Panama c/ Chile	Honduras Panama c/ Peru Chile Bolivia c/ Guatemala Mexico Argentina d/ Colombia c/	Bolivia c/ Peru Colombia c/ Chile Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of) Dominican Rep. Argentina d/ Mexico Panama c/	Colombia c/ Honduras Argentina d/ Bolivia c/ Costa Rica Chile Dominican Rep. Paraguay c/ Peru Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)
Intermediate 0.550 – 0.599	Mexico Ecuador c/ Argentina d/	Mexico Paraguay c/ Argentina d/ Bolivia c/	El Salvador	Ecuador c/ Paraguay c/ Costa Rica	Guatemala Ecuador c/ Mexico
Low 0 – 0.549	Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of) Costa Rica Uruguay c/	Costa Rica Ecuador c/ Uruguay c/	Paraguay c/ Costa Rica Ecuador c/ Uruguay c/	Uruguay c/	Uruguay c/

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

a/ Not including income equal to zero.

b/ On the basis of data grouped in 10,000 sets of equal population size. This stratification is therefore not exactly the same as it would be using ungrouped data, which are included in table 25 of the statistical appendix.

c/ Urban areas.

d/ Greater Buenos Aires.

e/ Eight main cities plus El Alto.

In summary, the data in this section confirm that Latin America remains a region with high levels of income concentration and that, more importantly, there was a convergence towards higher levels of inequality between 1990 and 2002. Income distribution improved in a few countries during that period, while a deterioration was confirmed in others, including those that were traditionally considered more equitable. One factor behind the high inequality indices is the concentration of national income in the richest 10% of households, which is a distinguishing characteristic of the region at the international level.

Improving income distribution is therefore an ethical imperative that would, in addition, help the region achieve higher growth rates and reduce

poverty. The negative impact on growth of the region's poor income distribution—and especially the highly unequal distribution of wealth—is heightened by the fact that its markets operate in a way that impedes access to credit and knowledge. Improvements in income distribution will intensify the positive effects of growth on poverty reduction.

In order to improve income distribution, public policies will need to be directed at the following objectives: (a) facilitating access to assets (land, capital, knowledge and technology); (b) achieving a geographically balanced form of productive development in which small and medium-sized enterprises play an important role; and (c) implementing social policies based on the principles of universality, solidarity and efficiency. The

necessary funding for such policies could be obtained by means of an appropriate fiscal covenant and a more efficient allocation of the available resources.

In summary, equity needs to be established as the foundation and focus of development policy.

Box I.7

MEASURING CHANGES IN INEQUALITY

In order to assess the effect of public policies on the living conditions of the population, it is vital to determine whether variations in the indices of well-being are statistically significant or simply random. The margin of error associated with poverty and inequality indices, and with all indicators generated with survey data, is established on the basis of the coefficient of variation (CV), which takes into account the specifications for the sample design of the information source used. If the coefficient of variation is low (usually less than 10%), the estimates are assumed to be reliable and useful for extrapolating population data from the sample.

Establishing whether there have been significant changes in the Gini coefficient between two particular dates requires hypothesis testing. One concrete application of this is to assess the extent to which the changes observed between 1990 and 2002 were significant. The null hypothesis established was that there were no changes in the period ($G_{90}=G_{02}$), with the alternative hypothesis that the measures for the two years were different. When the value of the test statistic (z) is higher than the value for 99% confidence, the null hypothesis is rejected on the basis of insufficient statistical evidence for assuming the contrary.

$$Z = \frac{G_{02} - G_{90}}{\sqrt{S^2_{G02} + S^2_{G90}}}$$

where z has normal standardized distribution, G_x is the Gini coefficient for x, and S^2_{Gx} is the square of the standard error of that indicator.

Country	Year	Gini	Confidence limits		Standard error	Test statistic (z)
			Lower	Upper		
Brazil	1990	0.6273	0.6237	0.6314	0.0015	3.59*
	2001	0.6388	0.6349	0.6434	0.0017	
Chile	1990	0.5533	0.5468	0.5580	0.0023	-0.57
	2003	0.5500	0.5427	0.5584	0.0034	
Nicaragua	1993	0.5822	0.5717	0.5943	0.0052	-0.17
	2001	0.5793	0.5503	0.6015	0.0116	
Peru	1997	0.5317	0.5201	0.5435	0.0048	0.13
	2001	0.5246	0.5160	0.5313	0.0030	
Dominican Republic	2000	0.5540	0.5308	0.5500	0.0042	-1.18
	2002	0.5449	0.5348	0.5517	0.0036	

Note: Asterisk (*) indicates that the value is 99% statistically significant.

The bootstrap technique was used to remain close to standard error by setting the limits to 99% confidence. This exercise shows that the estimated values of the Gini coefficient should not be assumed to be absolute as they correspond to one of the many possible values contained in the confidence interval. In 2001, for instance, the coefficient for the Dominican Republic was between 0.5348 and 0.5517, which means that any value in between would be equally valid for expressing the degree of income concentration in that country.

This methodology also confirms that Brazil posted a statistically significant increase in income concentration between 1990 and 2001, while the data does not lead to that conclusion in the other countries. As indicated in the text, caution must therefore be exercised in stating that, between 1990 and 2003, distributive inequality decreased in Chile, Peru or the Dominican Republic, or that it increased in Nicaragua, given that these countries' Gini coefficients in the two periods are not always different from the viewpoint of statistical significance.



Demographic changes in Latin America and the Caribbean and their policy implications

INTRODUCTION

Demographic shifts are part of the process of social and economic change that has been taking place in the region over the last few decades, and they are producing age structures that are completely different from those that had prevailed until the middle of the last century. These changes have not always occurred exactly as predicted, but they have at least fallen within the main lines that define the process of demographic transition. Patterns that are already beginning to seem usual (small families, increasing life expectancy) previously existed only in some societies and in the most privileged sectors of some countries. It is clear that these changes introduce qualitative differences into the ways in which societies organize themselves and provide a framework for the cultural and economic changes that have accompanied this process.

The challenges posed by these changes are not always identified in time or taken sufficiently into account, even though they tend to be fairly predictable, at least in terms of the major trends. This chapter considers the main demographic changes taking place in the Latin American and Caribbean countries and highlights their implications for public policy, social equity and human rights. Five major topics are considered: population trends and, in particular, ageing; fertility; mortality; international migration; and internal migration and the spatial redistribution of the population. The information used was obtained from censuses and national household and demographic surveys. National population projections have also been used.

A. THE DEMOGRAPHIC TRANSITION AND AGEING TRENDS

The countries of Latin America and the Caribbean have experienced profound demographic changes, most notably a reduction in population growth (from an annual rate of 2.7% in 1950–1955 to 1.5% at present) and an increasing upward shift in age structures. One of the main factors underlying these changes has been the rapid drop in fertility, especially since the mid-1960s, which was preceded by a sustained reduction in mortality starting midway through the twentieth century; the result, today, is a life expectancy at birth of 72 years, which is eight years higher than the figure for developing regions as a whole.

The demographic transition has been rapid, but there are variations both between and within countries; nevertheless, at the regional level it has brought about two significant changes: a reduction in the demographic dependency ratio and population ageing. While the first contributes to a demographic window of opportunity in the medium term, the second is definitely a source of formidable challenges for societies, as the proportion and absolute number of persons aged 60 years and over will increase steadily over the next few decades, and this population will grow three to five times faster than the total population in 2000–2025 and 2025–2050, respectively. Thus, the proportion of persons aged 60 years and over will triple between 2000 and 2050, and one out of every four Latin Americans will be an older adult.

1. SUSTAINED DECLINE IN FERTILITY AND MORTALITY

The countries of Latin America and the Caribbean have undergone major demographic changes that have led to a reduction in population growth and a progressive upward shift in the age structure (see boxes II.1 and II.2). One of the most decisive factors has been the rapid change in fertility, which is one of the most significant events in recent Latin American and Caribbean demographic history: in just 40 years the region has gone from reproductive indices that were among the highest in the world to levels that are lower than the world average (see figure II.1).

The drop in fertility was preceded by a sustained reduction in mortality, which had already begun to appear towards the end of the first half of the twentieth century. This lag brought about a rapid increase in the regional's population, especially between 1950 and 1970. In the last 50 years, the average life expectancy at birth of Latin Americans has increased by 20 years to 72 years for both sexes in 2000–2005 (see figure II.2). This figure is 8 years

higher than the life expectancy for developing regions as a whole and the second highest among the major world regions. Even so, the mortality rate in the region is similar to the level reached by the most developed countries 35 years ago. This indicates that it can and should be reduced further, especially since a body of experience has now been accumulated concerning how this can be achieved.

Box II.1

MODEL OF THE DEMOGRAPHIC TRANSITION

The initial stage of the demographic transition process consists of a sustained decline in mortality and subsequently in fertility; this is followed by a phase in which the levels of both variables are low.

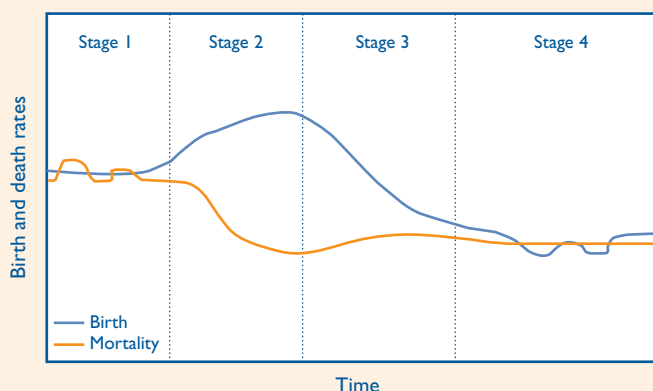
The following figure illustrates this process clearly. It shows how, prior to the demographic transition, population growth rates are relatively low, in particular because of high mortality rates. In the second stage, the reduction in mortality and the continuing high birth rate lead to an increase in population growth rates. Later, there is a more pronounced fall in the birth rate and a consequent reduction in the rate of population growth. Lastly, these variables tend towards an equilibrium point at which low mortality and birth rates result in a low level of population growth.

Four stages can thus be identified in this process:

- i) Pre-transitional stage: high and relatively stable birth and death rates; low population growth;
- ii) Initial transitional stage: the mortality rate diminishes while the birth rate remains stable or increases as a result of better living conditions; high population growth;
- iii) Transitional stage: the birth rate diminishes while mortality stabilizes; lower population growth;
- iv) Post-transitional stage: low levels are reached in both rates and population growth is low or zero.

Although there may be exceptions to the continuous process described above, it provides a useful model for analysing recent demographic trends in the countries of Latin America and the Caribbean.

STAGES OF DEMOGRAPHIC TRANSITION



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), 2004.

**THE DEMOGRAPHIC TRANSITION IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN:
THE STATUS OF COUNTRIES BY BIRTH RATE**

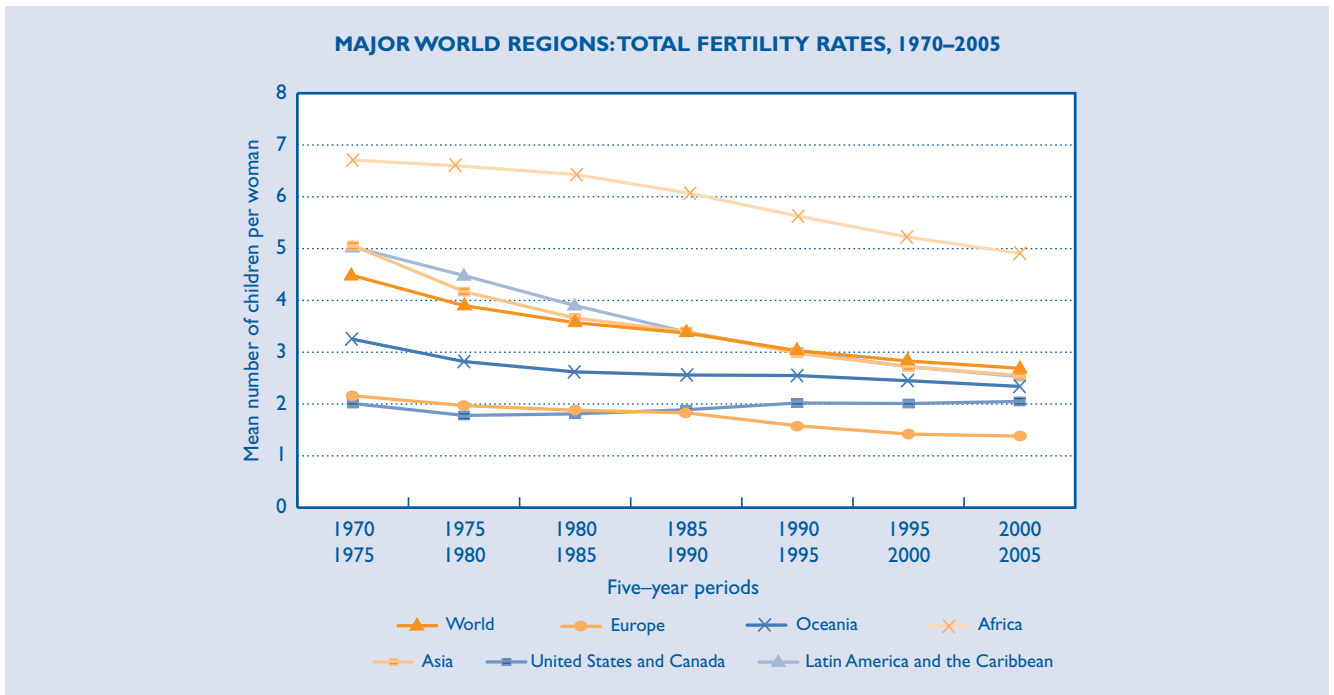
Traditionally, the Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC has classified the countries of the region by the stage of demographic transition they have reached on the basis of crude mortality and birth rates, because this transition works as a process which starts with high crude birth and mortality rates and culminates in low rates for both variables.

These rates depend both on the levels of fertility and mortality and on the age structure of the population. Therefore, as the population ages, the proportion of the population at ages where there is a higher risk of dying increases and the crude death rate records a slower decline and subsequently starts to rise. Consequently, at advanced stages of transition, the crude death rate becomes less important as an indicator of the transitional status. Since, demographic transition is now consolidated across the region, the figure illustrates a four-stage classification which is based only on crude birth rates. The five-year period 1960–1965, during which most of the countries entered the transition and the current period, 2000–2005, are compared in order to show the significant change that has taken place in the birth rate. The countries are grouped as follows: **incipient transition**: birth rate of 42 or more per 1,000; **moderate transition**: birth rate of between 32 and 42 per 1,000; **full transition**: birth rate of between 22 and 32 per 1,000; **advanced transition**: birth rate of 22 or less per 1,000. The values shown after the name of each country express the average natural rate of increase over the five-year period (percentages). The figures at the foot of each column indicate the average population of the countries in that category for the five-year period and the respective percentage of the total population of the region.

1960–1965			
Incipient transition	Moderate	Full	Advanced
Belize (3.2) Bolivia (2.4) Brazil (3.0) Colombia (3.3) Costa Rica (3.4) Ecuador (3.0) El Salvador (3.3) Guatemala (2.8) Haiti (2.0) Honduras (3.3) Mexico (3.3) Nicaragua (3.3) Peru (2.9) Dominican Republic (3.5) Santa Lucia (3.4) Suriname (3.4) Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of) (3.6) 184.7 million (78.9%)	Bahamas (3.0) Chile (2.6) Cuba (2.6) Guadeloupe (2.8) Guyana (2.7) Jamaica (3.1) Martinique (2.7) Panama (3.1) Paraguay (2.9) Trinidad and Tobago (3.0) 22.6 million (9.6%)	Netherlands Antilles (2.1) Argentina (1.4) Barbados (2.0) French Guyana (1.8) Puerto Rico (2.4) 24.3 million (10.4%)	Uruguay (1.2) 2.6 million (1.1%)
2000–2005			
Incipient transition	Moderate	Full	Advanced
	Guatemala (3.0) 12.0 million (2.2%)	Belize (2.2) Bolivia (2.2) Colombia (1.7) Ecuador (1.8) El Salvador (1.9) French Guyana (2.1) Haiti (2.1) Honduras (2.5) Mexico (1.7) Nicaragua (2.4) Panama (1.8) Paraguay (2.5) Peru (1.7) Dominican Republic (1.8) Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of) (1.8) 266.4 million (49.1%)	Netherlands Antilles (0.9) Argentina (1.1) Bahamas (1.1) Barbados (0.4) Brazil (1.4) Chile (1.1) Costa Rica (1.5) Cuba (0.5) Guadeloupe (1.0) Guyana (1.3) Jamaica (1.5) Martinique (0.7) Puerto Rico (0.6) Santa Lucia (1.5) Suriname (1.6) Trinidad and Tobago (0.6) Uruguay (0.8) 264.3 million (48.7%)

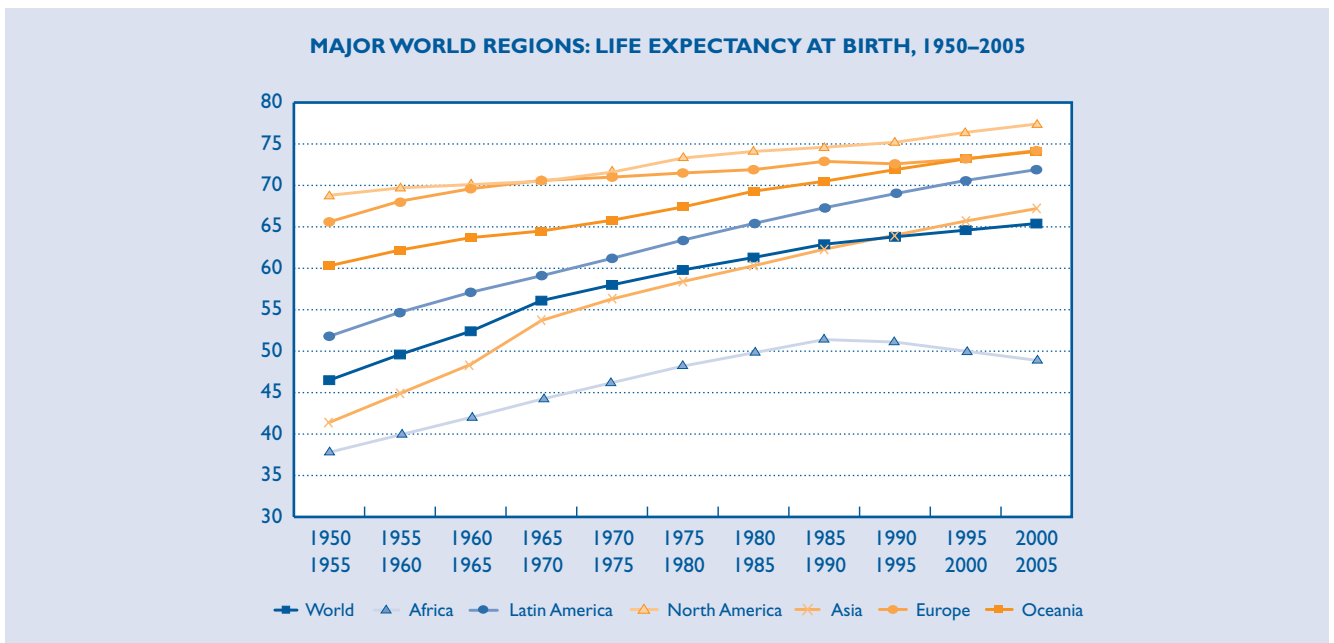
Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), 2004.

Figure II.1



Source: United Nations, *World Population Prospects. The 2002 Revision (ST/ESA/SER.A/222)*, vol. I, New York, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2003; and Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), "Latin America and the Caribbean: population estimates and projections, 1950-2050", *Demographic Bulletin*, No. 73 (LC/G.2225-P), January 2004.

Figure II.2



Source: United Nations, *World Population Prospects. The 2002 Revision*, New York, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2003; and Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), "Latin American and the Caribbean population: estimates and projections, 1950-2050", *Demographic Bulletin*, No. 73 (LC/G.2225-P), Santiago, Chile, Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, January 2004.

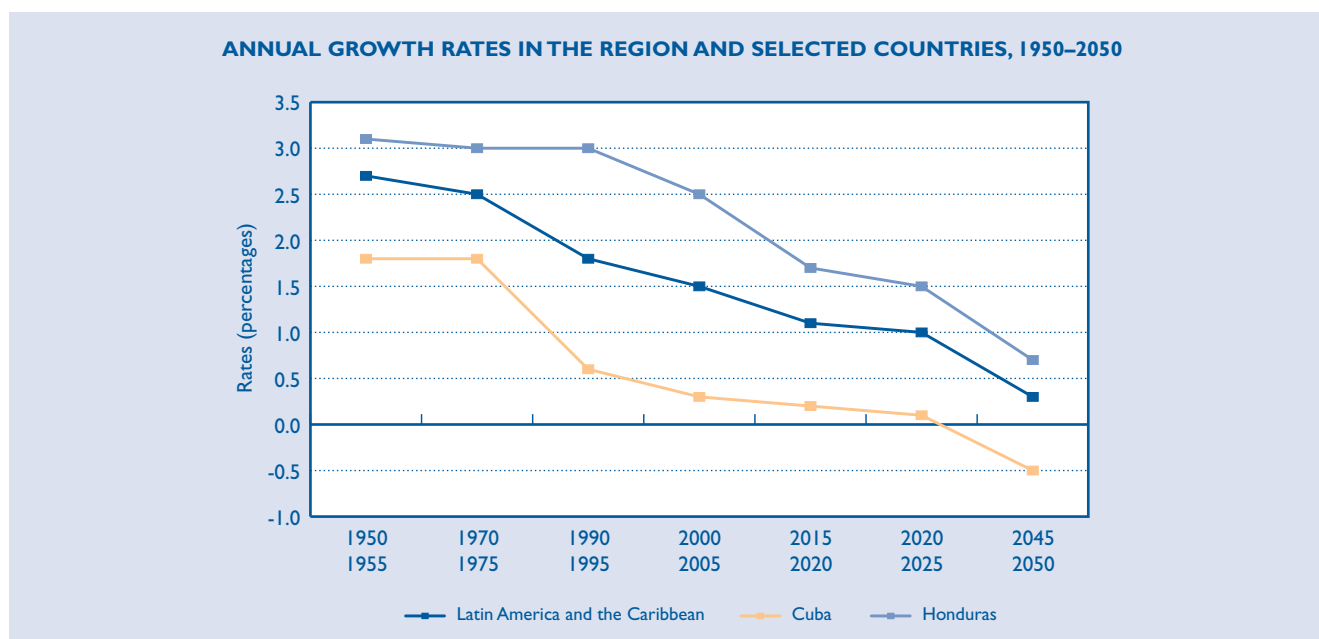
2. SLOWER GROWTH AND THE REMODELLING OF THE POPULATION'S AGE STRUCTURE

In the mid-twentieth century, annual population growth in Latin America and the Caribbean stood at 2.7%, while at present it is 1.5%. In view of the relatively high growth rates registered in the first few decades, the region's population more than tripled between 1950 and 2000, expanding from 161 million inhabitants in 1950 to 512 million in the year 2000. According to the projections, the population will reach 695 million in 2025 and 794 million in 2050. Consequently, whereas in 1950 the population of the region represented less than 7% of the world population, this proportion has now risen to around 9%. In view of the uneven nature of the transition, the rates in some countries are far from the current average level; in fact, they range from a low of 0.3% in Cuba to a high of 2.5% in Honduras (see figure II.3). In countries with high population growth rates, the resulting demands in terms of basic social

investments have a negative impact on their capacity to achieve the Millennium Development Goals, especially those relating to the reduction of poverty and inequality.

Population growth rates vary significantly for different age groups (see figures II.4 and II.5). The rates for children, which were the fastest-growing group in the mid-twentieth century, will tend to continue to diminish through the first half of the twenty-first century. In fact, by the 2040s, all the five-year age groups below the age of 40 will have shrunk in absolute terms. At present, the population in the middle age ranges has the highest absolute growth rate, but this pattern will shift towards persons aged 60 years and over by the year 2050. Changes in the age composition of the population represent the most significant challenges from a social and economic point of view. The demographic dependency ratio¹ and demographic ageing indicators provide an overview of these changes.

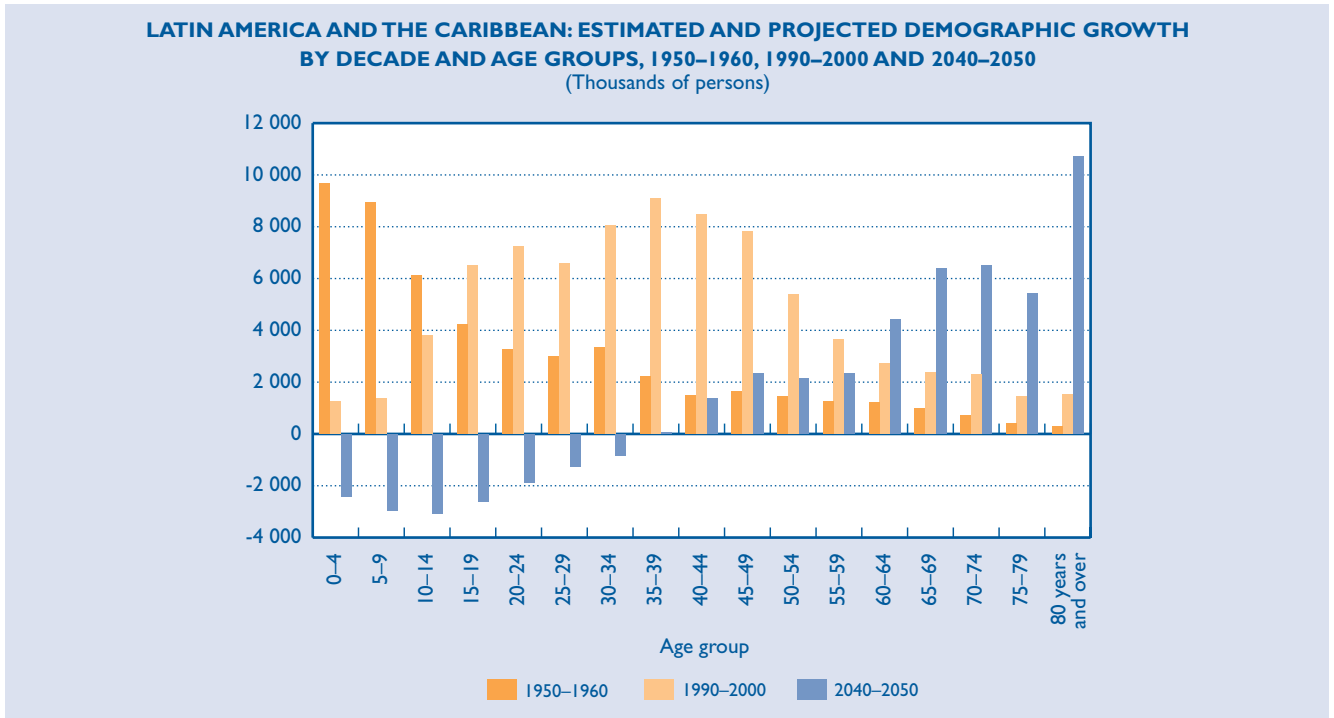
Figure II.3



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of current population estimates and projections.

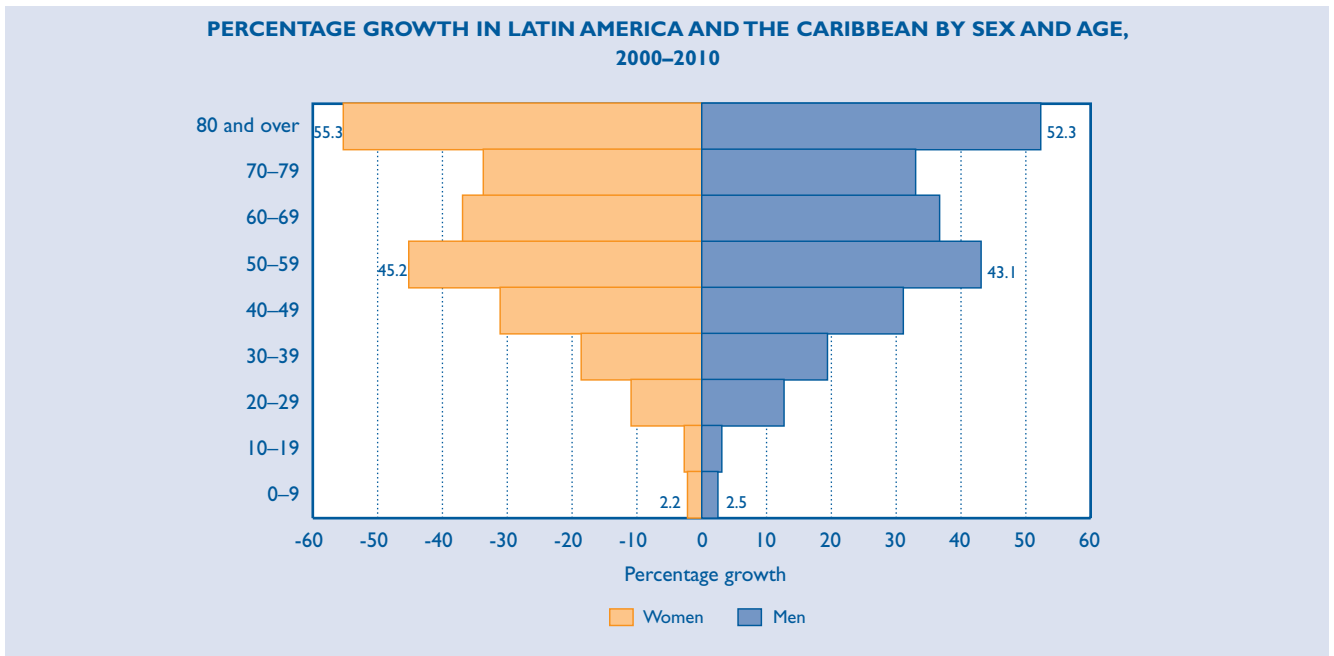
¹ The ratio of the population 0–14 years of age, plus the population 60 years and over, to the potentially active population (15–59 years of age).

Figure II.4



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of current population estimates and projections.

Figure II.5



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of current population estimates and projections.

3. THE REDUCTION IN THE DEMOGRAPHIC DEPENDENCY RATE: THE DEMOGRAPHIC BONUS AND ITS USE

The drop in the demographic dependency ratio has given rise to the idea of a "demographic bonus". This term refers to a development-friendly situation in which the potential burden on persons of working age is low. At the beginning of the demographic transition, the dependency ratio was high owing to the large percentage of children in the population, which placed huge demands on the countries' education and health systems, especially in relation to maternal and child health care. In a second stage, thanks to the drop in the fertility rate, the dependency ratio fell to values of less than 60 persons at the two extremes of the age spectrum (under 15 or over 60 years) for every 100 persons between the ages of 15 and 59, with the values being lower in countries where the transition was more advanced. The lower pressure of the demands generated by the child population, which initially occurs before any significant increase in the group of older persons has taken place, is currently sustaining the demographic bonus. This situation opens up opportunities for generating productive investments or increasing social investment in order to combat poverty, improve education and reform the health system. It would also be useful to make investments in preparation for the increase in the older adult population before it occurs, as the requirements associated with this age group will be more costly.

The demographic bonus is also referred to as a "window of opportunity" for capitalizing upon the initial effect of the drop in fertility, since this is when the age structure of the population offers the most advantageous conditions. This is because the dependency rate during this stage is low, as the proportion of children and adolescents has declined but the proportion of the population represented by

older age groups has not yet risen significantly (Filgueira and Peri, 2004).

The demographic bonus is limited in time, as shown in figure II.6, because lower fertility, together with increased longevity, eventually increases the proportion of older persons and the dependency ratio thus rises again, generating additional demand for health services and economic security. The point at which the dependency ratio increases marks the end of the demographic bonus (in eight of the countries, it will disappear in the next decade).² At the same time, not all of the benefits of this bonus are guaranteed, as they depend partly on the capacity of the region's economies to generate employment while the window exists. In order to take full advantage of the demographic bonus, efforts must be made to absorb the labour supply of a growing working-age population, while also reducing the insecurity, precariousness and informality that are typical of the region's labour markets. Otherwise, the bonus will simply represent an additional burden for the countries, in the form of strong pressure from the population seeking employment in a context of limited growth of work opportunities.

4. AGEING OF THE POPULATION AND THE CHALLENGES IT POSES

As the demographic transition advances, the population of Latin America and the Caribbean is slowly but inevitably ageing. In all countries of the region, the proportion and the absolute number of persons aged 60 and over will increase in a sustained fashion over the next few decades (see table II.1 and box II.3). In absolute terms, between 2000 and 2025, 57 million older persons will be added to the current 41 million, and between 2025 and 2050 there will be a further increase of 86 million.³ These figures reflect a rapidly expanding population (3.5%), which will outstrip the growth rates of younger age groups.

2 In the populations of the developed countries, such as those in Europe, the demographic bonus has been disappearing as of the second half of the twentieth century. This is a systematic trend that accompanies demographic ageing (United Nations, 2003a).

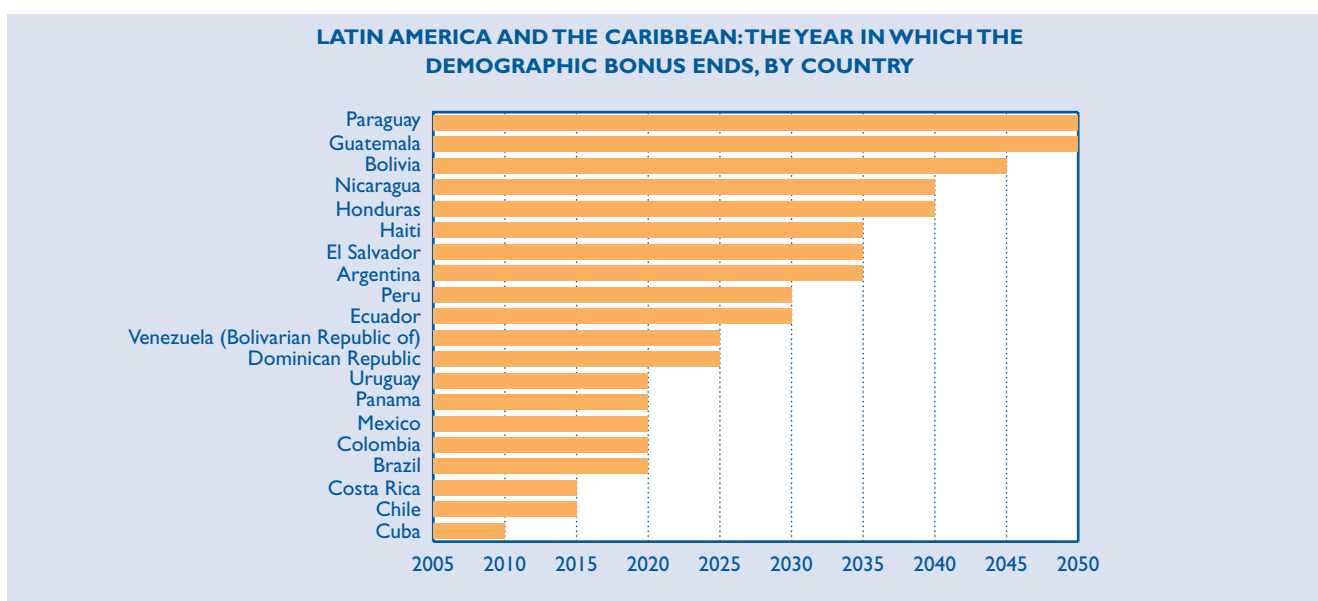
3 The data presented are based on projections that, by their very nature, are to some degree uncertain. They do however point to major demographic trends that are unlikely to change, because the older persons of the next 60 years have already been born.

The rate of increase in this older population will be three and five times higher than that of the total population for the periods 2000–2025 and 2025–2050, respectively. The result of this growth is that the proportion of persons aged 60 and over will triple between 2000 and 2050; by this last year, one in four Latin Americans will be an older adult. In the European populations, in 1950, persons aged 60 and over represented, on average, 12% of the total, while in 2000 they accounted for 20% and, according to

projections, this figure will be 35% by the year 2050, a figure that only a few Caribbean countries will match by that date (for example, Cuba; United Nations, 2003a).

Owing to the increase in longevity, the proportion of the oldest persons among the older age groups will also be higher; the population aged 75 and over will rise from 2% to 8% between 2000 and 2050.

Figure II.6



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of current population estimates and projections.

Table II.1

INDICATORS OF THE DEMOGRAPHIC AGEING PROCESS FOR LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN, 2000, 2025 AND 2050			
Indicators	2000	2025	2050
Population aged 60 years and over (in thousands)	41 284.7	98 234.8	184 070.7
Percentage of persons aged 60 years and over	8.0	14.1	23.4
Annual growth rate (2000–2025 and 2025–2050)	3.5	2.5	...
Percentage of persons aged 75 years and over	1.9	3.5	7.9
Median age of the population	24.6	32.5	39.4
Ageing index a/	25.2	60.7	128.2

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of current population estimates and projections.

a/ Population aged 60 years and over divided by the population aged under 15, multiplied by 100.

COUNTRIES BY STAGE OF POPULATION AGEING

Situations in the region vary widely. This can be shown by arranging the countries into four categories, according to the stage they have reached in the ageing process:

- **Incipient ageing:** countries whose percentage of persons aged 60 years and over ranges from 5% to 7% in the year 2000 and will reach between 15% and 18% in 2050. They include Bolivia, Guatemala, Haiti, Nicaragua and Paraguay. This process may speed up if the decline in fertility in these countries is consolidated and increases.
- **Moderate ageing:** countries whose percentage of persons aged 60 years and over is between 6% and 8%, and will reach values of over 20% around the year 2050. This group includes Belize, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guyana, Mexico and Peru.
- **Moderate to advanced ageing:** countries which at present have percentages of older persons of between 8% and 10%, and which will experience a rapid increase in this percentage to reach figures of between 25% and 30% in 2050. These countries include the Bahamas, Brazil, Chile, Jamaica, Suriname and Trinidad and Tobago.
- **Advanced ageing:** the countries furthest along in the ageing process in Latin America, including Argentina, Cuba, Uruguay, and various Caribbean countries: Barbados, Guadeloupe, Martinique, Netherlands Antilles, and Puerto Rico, where the current percentages of older persons are higher than 10%.

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), 2004.

Population ageing is not a uniform process and the differences are due to the fact that demographic changes are the result of social, economic and cultural changes that have specific subnational characteristics. In Latin America, rural areas show a slightly higher rate of ageing than urban areas, despite their higher fertility rates and lower life expectancy. In 11 Latin American countries, the proportion of older adults in rural areas is higher than in urban areas; the rural ageing index, however, is lower than the urban index. This is because, in rural areas, there is a preponderance of two generations: those aged under 15 years and those aged over 60 years. Rural ageing, therefore, reflects changes in the age structure that are due to country-to-town migratory flows of the young population, but also, in some areas, to the return to the place of origin in old age. Older adults in rural areas constitute a demographic group that requires special attention –especially in those countries in which the proportion of the rural population is high, such as Guatemala, Haiti and Honduras, where more than half of older adults reside in rural areas—as these areas have historically had a lower level

of coverage of services and a higher incidence of economic decline.

In the case of indigenous societies, population trends are usually different from that of the rest of the population within the national borders. On the specific question of ageing, they usually show significant differences compared with the population as a whole. Information available around the year 2000, depicts a very uneven situation. Only in Bolivia and Mexico is the percentage of older persons higher in the indigenous populations than in the non-indigenous populations (the ageing index is similar in the case of Mexico), although there are some differences according to the place of residence. In rural areas, the indigenous population tends to be older than in urban areas, a characteristic that is not repeated in non-indigenous rural populations. These patterns can be explained in terms of phenomena that may combine in different ways in different countries: (i) the persistently higher mortality rate for rural and indigenous populations, which reduces the ageing index, and (ii) the effects of emigration out of these areas by young people, which increases the ageing index.

5. POSSIBLE SCENARIOS AND MAIN POLICY CHALLENGES

Demographic ageing offers significant challenges for governments, families and older persons themselves. There is a consensus that in order to ensure economic security (see box II.4), it is essential to increase the social security coverage of the current work force and halt the trends towards stagnation or to an outright decline in coverage that have been seen in the last few years in various countries, and expand the coverage of persons who are already older adults, including the option of non-contributory or welfare pensions. Unfortunately, welfare pensions are available only in one third of the countries undergoing structural reforms. Solidarity financing is required as a way of strengthening the insurance function of these systems with guaranteed access to a pension. The political decisions in each case should be taken not only by the government and the private sector, but with the participation of society as a whole. In short, social security systems should

continue to maintain and increase the capacity of the pension systems, in order to achieve their social objectives, ensure their financial viability, improve their capacity to respond to changes in society and in the persons who will be older in the future, and guarantee equality of opportunity for men and women with regard to employment and social protection, and the coverage of the rural population.

In terms of health care, there is the challenge of redefining the role and characteristics of health care in old age (Guzmán, 2004). First, the fatalistic vision of old age which results in discrimination in care, must be replaced by the new paradigm of a healthy old age, focusing on the need to maintain functionality as long as possible, and delay the onset of limitations. Second, there is a need to reengineer health systems, which requires, among other things, a human resources training plan to qualify staff to offer comprehensive care for older persons. Third, the focus of care must be shifted to afford more importance to preventive care and health promotion

Box II.4

ECONOMIC SECURITY OF OLDER PERSONS IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN

In relation to the welfare of older persons, the following is indicated in the reference document of the Regional Intergovernmental Conference on Ageing: Towards a Regional Strategy for the Implementation in Latin America and the Caribbean of the Madrid International Plan of Action on Ageing, which was held at ECLAC headquarters in Santiago, Chile, in November 2003:

Economic security in old age: "Economic security conditions in Latin America and the Caribbean are deficient, unequal and inequitable. ... more than a third of the region's inhabitants aged 65 or over, including both urban and rural residents, have no income, pension or retirement plans or paid work. Two out of every five older persons in urban areas have social security income, whereas the proportion is just one out of five in rural areas." It is therefore clear that in most countries, a significant proportion (more than 80%) do not have a retirement or welfare pension. The situation is aggravated by the fact that even in the countries with higher levels of coverage, and contrary to expectations, the proportion of the current labour force that is contributing to social security has diminished in the processes of system reform. The participation of older persons in economic activity is directly related to social security coverage, and decreases as the proportion of the population with access to a pension increases.

In this context, the high level of participation of older adults in the work force is not so much a voluntary option as a necessity in order to guarantee the minimum of economic resources needed to survive. Unfortunately, in the case of the countries with a relatively lower level of development, older persons find themselves in informal jobs that can not remove them from socioeconomic vulnerability, although in some cases the worst aspects of their poverty may be mitigated.

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), *Older persons in Latin America and the Caribbean: situation and policies; summary* (LC/L.1973), Santiago, Chile, 2003.

not only in old age, but also at all other stages of the life cycle. Lastly, training, regulation and oversight must be provided for agencies responsible for long-term care, while at the same time initiating actions to prevent excessive institutionalization. Health systems should thus deal with the process of change in health services by including health care for older persons (with special emphasis on reducing the health care gap in old age), making use of specialized health personnel, adapting the installed infrastructure and biomedical culture, and seeking to strengthen preventive mechanisms that would help to reduce health care costs in the context of progressive population ageing.

Lastly, services and care for older persons will exert a strong pressure on families, which have traditionally been responsible for providing assistance and care in old age. Support mechanisms will have to be created to enable families to continue to play this role, in view of the changes now taking place. Within families, women are mainly

responsible for the care of both children and older adults. But not only the family requires support. Some kind of support for community networks is also essential so that part of the help required by older persons can be provided at the local level and older persons can continue their lives in an enabling environment that allows them to exercise their rights and potential. In this context, special attention should be given to the greater longevity of women, as its effects will have to be considered at the policy level. This does not necessarily mean a negative outlook. The greater ageing of the population is an achievement of humanity. Older people are now and should continue to be important in the development of our societies, and should become, if they are not already, active citizens who fully exercise their rights and duties. As in the case of other population groups, however, older adults require specific measures to ensure that they, and especially the most vulnerable among them, can live their lives with dignity and in security.

B. TRENDS AND CHANGES IN FERTILITY RATES

The drop in fertility levels over the past 30 years is one of the most significant demographic developments in the region and has followed a path that is relatively independent of economic and social cycles. At present, fertility varies from rates lower than replacement level in Cuba and other island states of the Caribbean to more than 4 children per woman in Guatemala and Haiti. These differences are explained by less widespread use of modern contraceptives and a higher unmet need for family planning in the latter countries, which provides some pointers for the policy-making process.

Within countries, fertility and unmet family planning needs are higher in poor groups, which makes it difficult for them to overcome poverty and constitutes an obstacle to the exercise of their reproductive rights. In some countries the differences are so large that the fertility of the less-privileged groups is three times as high as that of the well-off groups. Among indigenous peoples, meanwhile, high fertility continues to be a distinguishing feature, irrespective of the stage of demographic transition achieved by the country in general.

The drop in the total fertility rate contrasts with the change in adolescent fertility, which is reported to have increased in most countries in recent years, especially among the under-18s. This phenomenon,

which is much more frequent in low-income groups, is associated with school dropout and with child-raising problems. It has also become more complex because it is occurring with greater frequency outside of marriage or a stable union.

1. THE DROP IN FERTILITY AND THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN AND WITHIN COUNTRIES

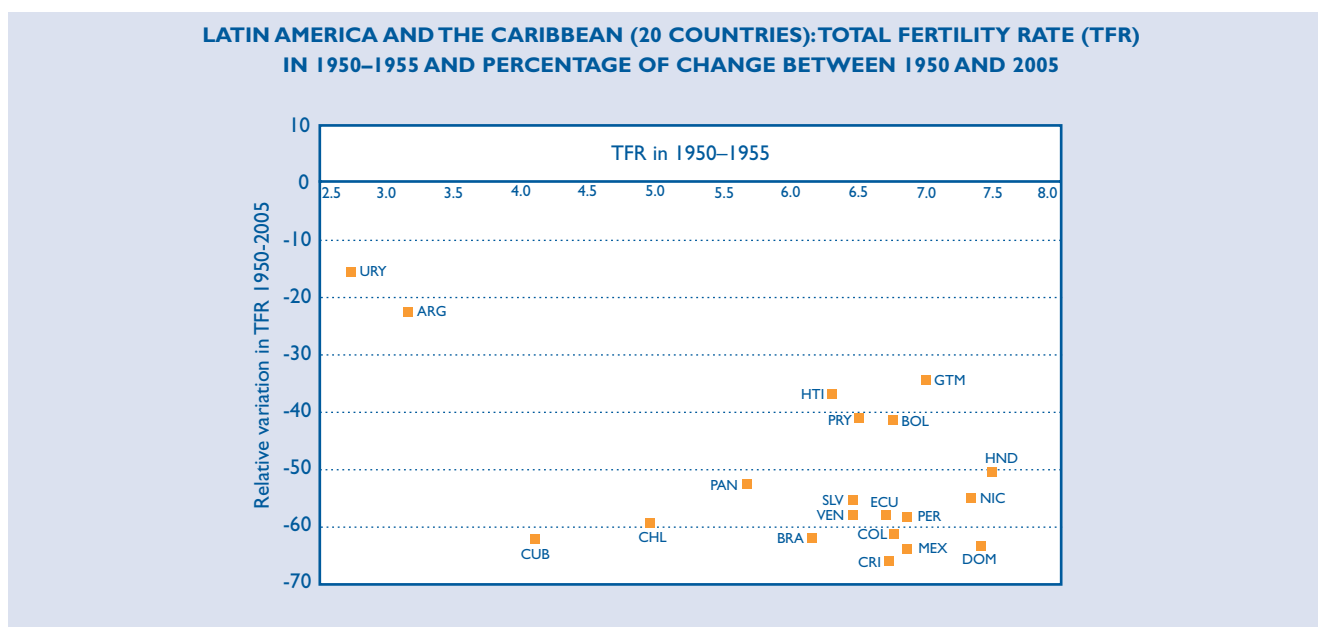
There has been a drop in fertility in all the countries of the region. In the last four decades of the past century, Latin American and Caribbean couples changed their reproductive patterns, moving from a fairly widespread pattern of large families to a new model of low fertility, in which the number of

children tends to be close to two per woman. There are still significant differences, however, and the total fertility rate –the mean number of children that women would have without taking account of mortality and changes in the fertility pattern according to age– varies from below replacement level (that is, less than 2.1 children per woman) in Cuba and other island states of the Caribbean, to values of over 4 children per woman in Guatemala and Haiti.⁴

In Argentina and Uruguay, which experienced a substantial economic and social development in the first half of the twentieth century together with the influence of European immigration, fertility declined much earlier than in the rest of the region and, in

fact, by 1950 both countries already had a total fertility rate (TFR) of around 3 children per woman. It is therefore not surprising that these two countries experienced the lowest decrease in fertility between 1950 and 2005 (less than 25%; see figure II.7). In 1950, the rest of the countries in the region had fertility levels higher than 4 children per woman, in some cases over 7 children per woman; in all of these, the decline in fertility was over 30% in the past 50 years, and in some cases was of the order of 70%. The countries with the highest levels of fertility at present –Bolivia, Haiti and Guatemala– stand out because, their fertility rates fell from high or very high levels in 1950, to less than 40% of the initial value over the last 50 years (see figure II.7).

Figure II.7



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of current population estimates and projections.

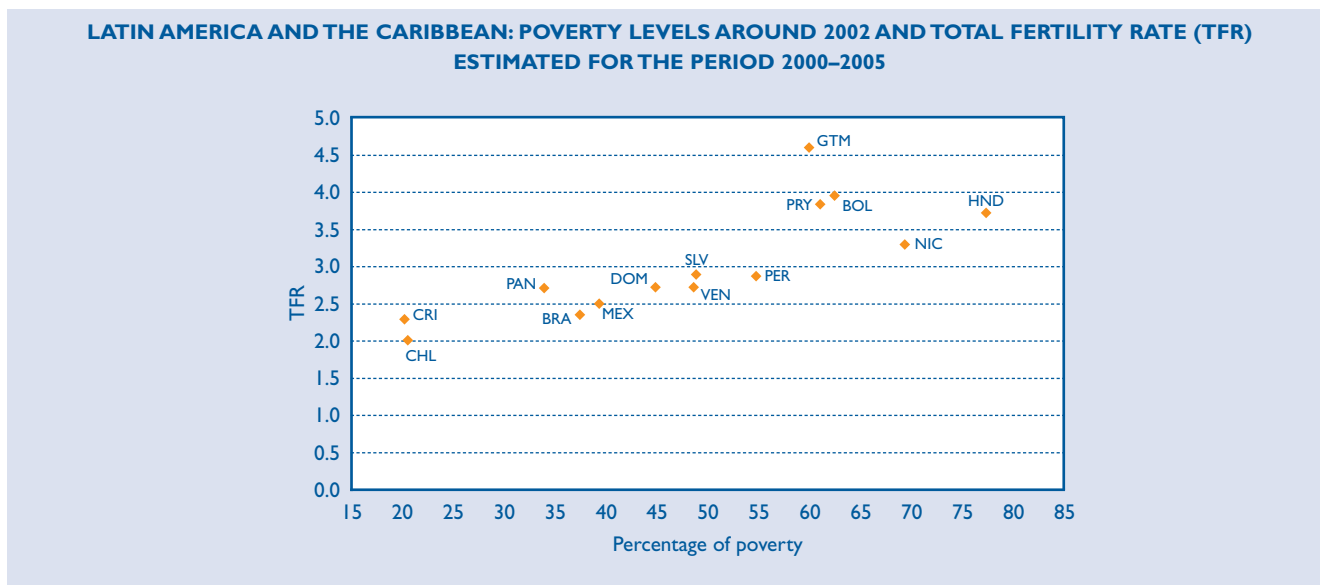
⁴ See www.cepal.org/celade/proyecciones/basedatos_BD.htm.

A number of studies indicate that the fertility level of countries depends to a large extent on their degree of economic and social development (ECLAC/CELADE, 2004c; Bulatao and Casterline, 2001; IDB, 2000; United Nations, 1987; World Bank, 1984). In various ways that have been well documented in the specialized literature (United Nations, 2002b; ECLAC, 1998a), the improvement in living conditions, the increase in the educational level of men and women, urbanization and the improvement in the status of women –including their entry into the labour market– raise the social and economic cost of having children and encourage fertility decisions which place individual life plans (which are increasingly less compatible with high fertility levels) before other influences such as tradition or religion. A significant proportion of the decline in fertility in Latin America and the Caribbean has thus been attributed to progress in

these dimensions of development (Guzmán and others (eds.), 1996).

In general, simple correlations between selected indicators of economic and social development –per capita product, level of schooling, illiteracy rate, exposure to mass media, poverty levels– are high and point in the expected direction (i.e., more development is associated with lower fertility). This is illustrated in figure II.8, which shows the proportion of the population that is poor and the TFR. The results speak for themselves, as the relationship is positive and the correlation coefficient reaches a value of 0.8. The figures also suggest a pattern of accumulating challenges in the poor countries of the region, which, in addition to their greater economic and social needs, have to deal with more rapid growth of the total and child population as a result of their higher reproductive indicators.

Figure II.8



Source: TFR: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of current population estimates and projections; for the percentage of poverty at the national level: *Social Panorama of Latin America, 2002–2003* (LC/G.2209–P/E), Santiago, Chile, 2003. United Nations publication, Sales No. E.03.II.G.185.

When multivariate analyses are performed relating current fertility to various economic and social development indicators (percentage of poverty, per capita product, levels of schooling and literacy, degree of urbanization, indices of mass media exposure, and others) and a standard indicator is also included for contraceptive use (prevalence of modern methods among women in a union), this latter variable is shown to cover the bulk of the variation in fertility among countries, with most of the other variables not statistically significant. A simple model, which relates current fertility to the prevalence of modern contraceptives and the human development index of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (<http://hdr.undp.org/>), shows that both variables are highly significant and that together they account for 88% of the variation in TFR between countries.

At the national level, there is a positive correlation between contraceptive prevalence and the level of economic and social development. In fact, there is a consensus among specialists that the latter favours birth control precisely through the use of modern contraceptives and not through other intermediary variables of fertility, such as the marriage rate, sexual abstinence or breast-feeding (ECLAC/CELADE, 2004). Nevertheless, multivariate analyses suggests that this relationship between economic and social development and modern contraceptive prevalence is not so strong, which indicates that family planning programmes may succeed in countries with lagging levels of economic and social development. In Latin America and the Caribbean, El Salvador, Nicaragua and Dominican Republic are clear examples of this possibility.

The differences within countries are even greater than those between them, as fertility is higher among poor groups, that is, among those with less education and those who belong to historically underprivileged indigenous groups, as shown in tables II.1 and II.2 and in figure II.9. The research

that has been gathered in the region indicates that education is the most significant of these factors, to the extent that in some countries when this variable is controlled for the differences between areas of residence tend to disappear (Chackiel and Schkolnik, 2003; ECLAC, 1998a). It should be noted that recent research indicates that the net reduction in fertility derived from an additional year of education is currently very limited when it refers to the primary level, but significant when it is at the secondary level (Rodríguez, 2004; Lindstrom and Brambila, 2002; United Nations 2002b), which constitutes further evidence of the need for girls to remain in school until they complete the school cycle.

In some countries, fertility rates among uneducated women are three times higher than those with secondary or higher education; this is the case of countries such as Bolivia, Guatemala and Honduras, where significant segments of the population do not yet commonly use modern, safe methods of birth control. In other countries, in contrast, the differences are minor and the figures tend to indicate a convergence of fertility among socio-economic groups; this is the case of Brazil, Colombia and Mexico (see table II.2, in particular the comparison of figures for the percentage reduction of fertility by social group).

In short, the body of evidence confirms the persistence of inequities in reproductive matters, the clearest expression of which are the indicators of unwanted fertility, which are significantly higher among poor women (ECLAC/CELADE, 2004; ECLAC, 2002b and 1998a). The data also indicate, however, that poverty and economic inequality are not insuperable barriers to expanding control of the reproductive process to all socio-economic groups. The challenge, then, lies in how to take advantage of the manoeuvring room generated by the decline in fertility to improve the living conditions of the population and the economic and social performance of the countries.

Table II.2

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (SELECTED COUNTRIES AND DATES): TOTAL FERTILITY RATE BY AREA OF RESIDENCE AND MOTHER'S EDUCATIONAL LEVEL						
Country and year of survey	Total fertility rate by area of residence and educational level					Total
	Area of residence		Highest educational level reached			
	Urban	Rural	No education	Primary	Secondary or above	
Belize, 1991	3.9	5.8	6.0	4.5	3.2	4.5
Belize, 1999	3.1	4.2	5.1	3.6	2.7	3.7
Percentage change	-20.5	-27.6	-15.0	-20.0	-15.6	-17.8
Bolivia, 1989	4.0	6.6	6.4	6.0	3.3	5.0
Bolivia, 1998	3.3	6.4	7.1	5.7	2.9	4.2
Percentage change	-17.5	-3.0	10.9	-5.0	-12.1	-16.0
Brazil, 1986	2.8	5.1	6.2	3.6	2.0	3.4
Brazil, 1996	2.3	3.5	4.9	3.3	2.1	2.5
Percentage change	-17.9	-31.4	-21.0	-8.3	5.0	-26.5
Colombia, 1986	2.6	4.7	5.2	3.9	2.4	3.2
Colombia, 2000	2.3	3.8	4.0	3.6	2.2	2.6
Percentage change	-11.5	-19.1	-23.1	-7.7	-8.3	-18.8
Ecuador, 1987	–	–	6.4	5.2	3.0	4.3
Ecuador, 2001	–	–	5.6	4.2	2.4	3.3
Percentage change	–	–	-12.5	-19.2	-20.0	-23.3
Guatemala, 1987	4.0	6.4	6.8	5.1	2.7	5.5
Guatemala, 2002	3.4	5.2	6.4	4.72	2.1	4.4
Percentage change	-15.0	-18.8	-5.9	-7.5	-22.2	-20.0
Haiti, 1994/95	3.3	5.9	6.1	4.8	2.5	4.8
Haiti, 2000	3.4	5.8	6.1	5.3	2.7	4.7
Percentage change	3.0	-1.7	0.0	10.4	8.0	-2.1
Honduras, 1983	–	–	8.0	6.2	3.3	6.3
Honduras, 2001	3.3	5.6	6.5	5.2	2.7	4.4
Percentage change	–	–	-18.8	-16.1	-18.2	-30.2
Mexico, 1982	–	–	7.2	4.8	3.0	4.7
Mexico, 1997	–	–	4.7	3.3	2.2	2.7
Percentage change	–	–	-34.7	-31.3	-26.7	-42.6
Dominican Republic, 1986	3.1	4.8	5.2	4.2	2.7	3.7
Dominican Republic, 2002	2.8	3.3	4.7	3.6	2.4	3.0
Percentage change	-9.7	-31.3	-9.6	-14.3	-11.1	-18.9
Peru, 1986	3.1	6.3	6.6	5.0	2.9	4.1
Peru, 2000	2.2	4.3	5.1	4.1	2.2	2.8
Percentage change	-29.0	-31.7	-22.7	-18.0	-24.1	-31.7

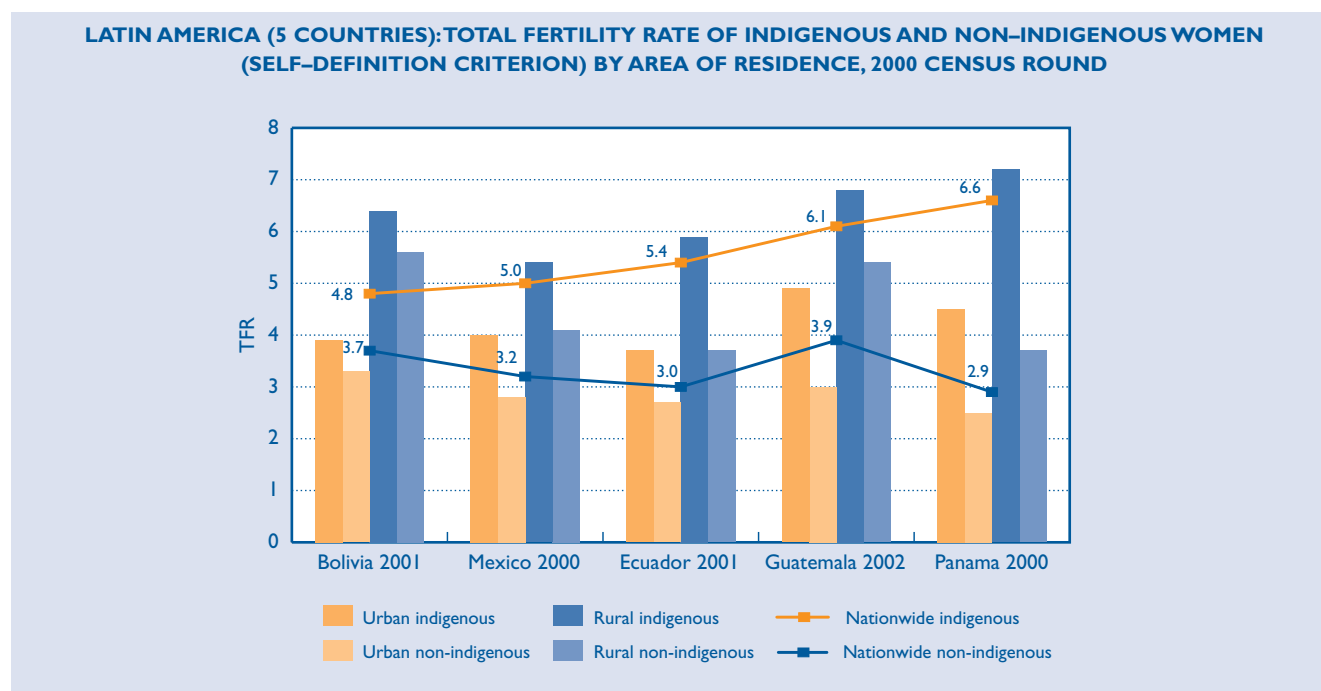
Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of Demographic and Health Surveys [online] <<http://www.measuredhs.com>>; Juan Chackiel and Susana Schkolnik, "América Latina: los sectores rezagados en la transición de la fecundidad", *Población y desarrollo series*, No. 42 (LC/L.1952-P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), 2003. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.03.II.G.120; for Guatemala, *Encuesta nacional de salud maternoinfantil 2002. Informe resumido*, 2002.

Note 1: The reference period for the TFR is the three years prior to the survey.

Note 2: The percentage change was calculated as $\frac{TFR_{final} - TFR_{initial}}{TFR_{initial}} * 100$. A minus sign, which appears in most cases, indicates a decline in fertility. As

the time interval is different for each country, the results shown in the table for the percentage change in fertility are not directly comparable between countries.

Figure II.9



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information from the project "Los pueblos indígenas y la población afrodescendiente en los censos" (ATN/SF-8043-RG), Santiago, Chile.

With regard to the differences in fertility among ethnic groups, the data of the 2000 census round show that high fertility continues to be a hallmark of the indigenous population. Figure II.9, for example, shows that fertility among indigenous women in Bolivia and Panama is much higher than the national averages. This is related to the socio-economic disadvantages among these groups, such as extreme poverty and low levels of formal education, but also to cultural patterns that are reflected in reproductive behaviour. Within countries, the panorama is also diverse for indigenous peoples and ethnic groups. By way of illustration, in Panama, the fertility of Kuna women is 4.7 children compared to 7.5 children for the Ngöbe–buglé. Meanwhile, a study on high fertility conducted by ECLAC/CELADE (2004) shows that the effect of ethnic origin persists even when economic and educational factors are controlled for. There have also, however, been cases in which this variable has the opposite effect, as in

the case of the Aymara women of Bolivia who, in the same socio-economic situation, tend to start their families later and have fewer children than non-indigenous women (ECLAC/CELADE, 2004).

2. FERTILITY BY AGE AND TEENAGE MOTHERHOOD

With the decline in fertility, the rates have dropped enormously for all age groups, except for the group of young women under 20 years of age (teenage fertility), resulting in a weaker correlation between the fertility level of this group and the total, especially in Latin America (see table II.3). In other words, the change in reproductive patterns does not seem to have significantly altered the patterns of onset of motherhood, which are in turn related to the patterns of onset of union.

Table II.3

SIMPLE CORRELATIONS BETWEEN SPECIFIC FERTILITY RATES AND THE TOTAL FERTILITY RATE, WORLDWIDE ^{a/} AND IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN ^{b/}			
Age-group specific rate (years)	World total	Latin America and the Caribbean	Latin America and the Caribbean ^{c/}
15–19	0.700	0.330	0.480
20–24	0.837	0.837	0.960
25–29	0.959	0.980	0.992
30–34	0.953	0.928	0.952
35–39	0.934	0.900	0.892
40–44	0.907	0.889	0.863
45–49	0.863	0.688	0.571

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information taken from Demographic and Health Surveys [online] <<http://www.measuredhs.com>>

a/ Fifty-one countries, eight of which are Latin American, with data from surveys conducted after 1995.

b/ Bolivia, 1998; Brazil, 1996; Colombia, 2000; Dominican Republic, 2002; Guatemala 1998/1999; Haiti, 2000; Nicaragua, 1997/1998; and Peru, 2000.

c/ Excluding Haiti.

Recent evidence provided by specialized censuses and surveys (www.measuredhs.com) suggests that adolescent fertility has increased in the last few years in most countries, in particular among young women aged under 18 years (see figure II.10; ECLAC/CELADE, 2004; Flórez and Núñez, 2003). This is a worrying trend, because adolescent motherhood brings well-documented hardships for the young parents (and their families, in particular, the parents of adolescents girls) and their children (Flórez and Núñez, 2003; ECLAC, 2002b). Although the significance of these hardships is a subject of debate (ECLAC, 2004b; Rodríguez, 2004), it is a fact that society, governments and parents consider adolescent motherhood to be a problem (Guzmán and others, 2001). In addition, the persistently early initiation of reproductive behaviour may reduce the benefits deriving from low fertility rates; more specifically, it narrows options, especially for women.

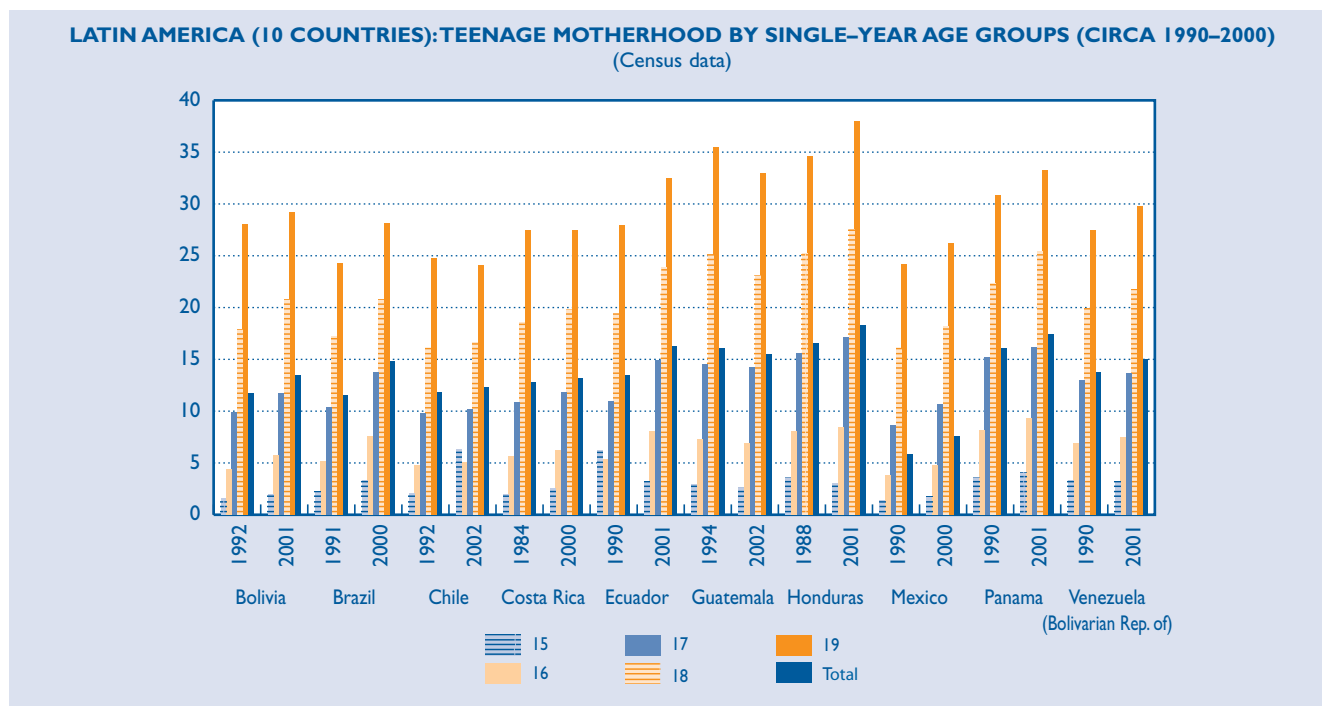
In recent studies (ECLAC/OIJ, 2004b; ECLAC/CELADE, 2004; ECLAC, 2003b; Flórez and Núñez, 2003; ECLAC, 2002b and 2000c; Guzmán and others, 2001), adolescent fertility in the region has been analysed in greater depth, and it has been found that:

- i) Reproduction in adolescents is increasingly occurring outside marriage and even outside a

union; in fact, in many countries of the region most adolescent mothers are not in a stable relationship;

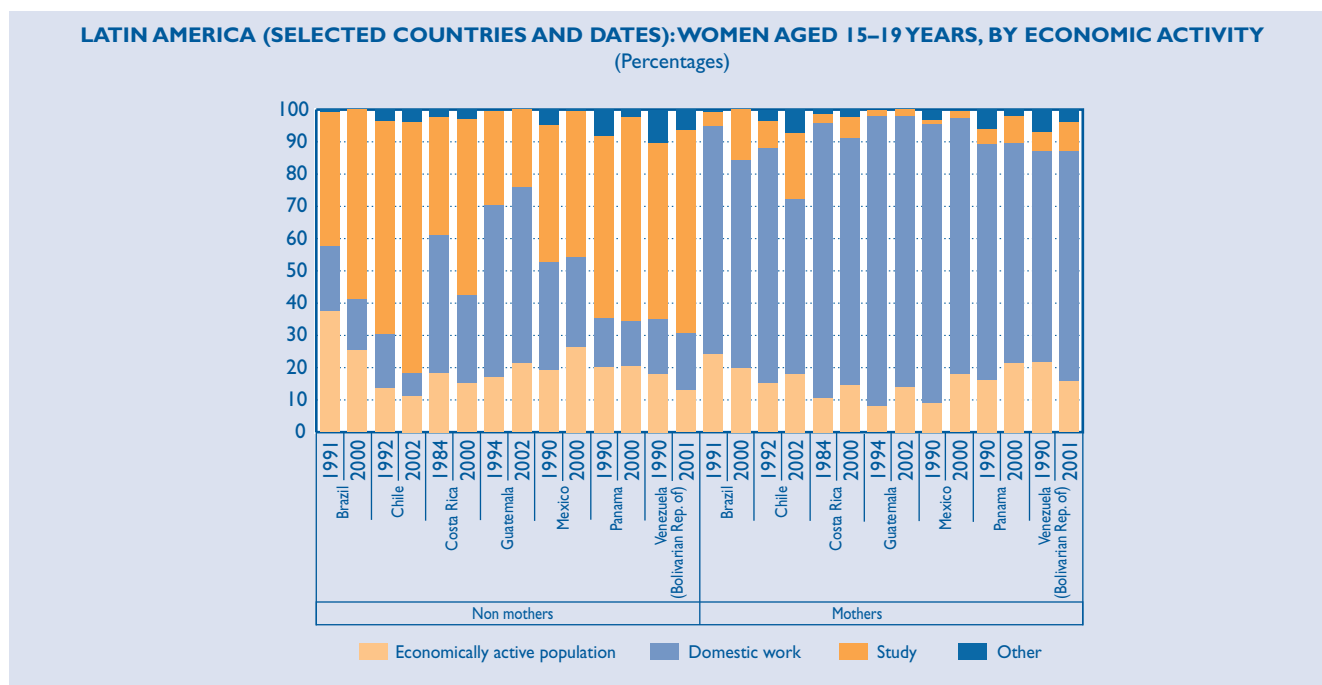
- ii) There are no signs that early reproduction leads to widespread emancipation, as most adolescent mothers live with their parents or the parents of the father;
- iii) Early reproduction is associated with school dropout (without implying that motherhood is the main cause of leaving the school system early, as in most cases dropout occurs prior to pregnancy) and it does not help young women to enter the labour market, as many adolescent mothers are occupied in domestic activities (see figure II.11; ECLAC/CELADE, 2004; ECLAC–OIJ, 2003);
- iv) Sometimes, pregnancy seems to be a deliberate strategy employed by the young women for gaining social recognition or for dealing with a future that seems uncertain; in other cases it may form part of a relatively accepted cultural pattern;
- v) Lastly, and perhaps most importantly, adolescent fertility is much higher among the poorest groups in society, and its adverse

Figure II.10



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special processing of microdata from census databases and *Demographic Bulletin*, No. 74 (LC/G.2257–P), Santiago, Chile, July 2004.

Figure II.11



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special processing of microdata from census databases and *Demographic Bulletin*, No. 74 (LC/G.2257–P), Santiago, Chile, Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, July 2004.

impacts on social mobility are felt both by the adolescents and their children (and also the adolescents' parents); the data available indicate that, in general and with national variations, girls from the lowest socio-economic stratum are at least five times more likely to be teenage mothers than girls from the highest stratum.

3. REPRODUCTIVE PREFERENCES AND CONTRACEPTION

In all countries, the decline in fertility was due to an increasing preference for smaller families. As far back as 1960, Contraceptive Prevalence Surveys (CPS) showed that the desired number of children was less than the number observed, especially in urban areas (ECLAC, 1972). In the 1970s, the World Fertility Survey, which was conducted in 13 Latin American and Caribbean countries (United Nations, 1987), found a TFR of 4.7, whereas the desired number of children was 4.2; this disparity was also reflected in high indices of unwanted fertility. In the 1980s and 1990s, the average number of children wanted continued to decline, as shown by demography and health surveys.⁵ This change in values is the result of the social and economic modernization that has taken place in the region, which through various mechanisms has made it disadvantageous to have a large family. Various symbolic channels, especially schools and the mass media, have helped to disseminate ideals that tend towards fewer offspring, as has already occurred in the developed countries. In addition, the opening of education and work opportunities and opinion forums for women, which are associated with productive and cultural modernization, have given women a broader range of life choices, with the result that many women and couples are less keen, or have less opportunity to have large families. Thus,

the decline in fertility has occurred as a result of changes in the behaviour of individuals in a context of growing, although still insufficient, capacities for exercising their basic reproductive rights, especially in relation to having the desired number of children.

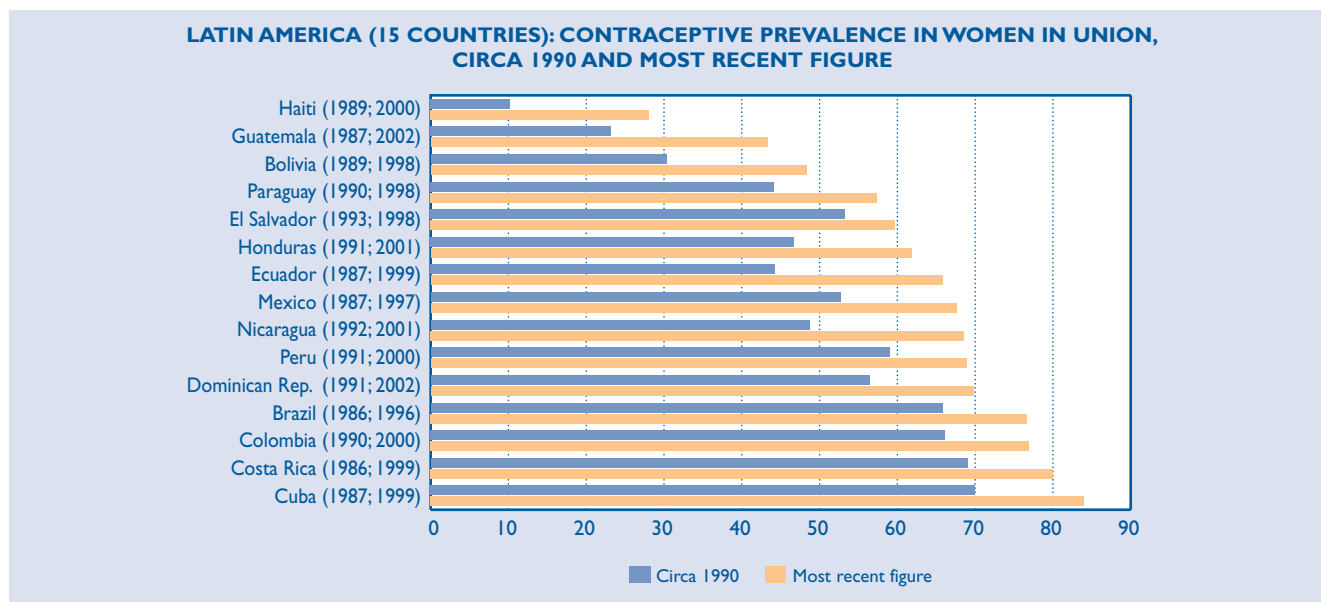
It has been possible to act on this preference for smaller families thanks to the "contraceptive revolution", the foundations of which were: i) biotechnological: large increase in the production, efficiency and quality of contraceptive methods; ii) political: strenuous efforts to implement public family planning programmes in many countries; and iii) cultural: erosion of the value barriers to the use of modern methods. These elements combined in different ways in different countries, resulting in differences in the use of contraceptives, both in terms of prevalence and the type of methods.

In the 1990s, in all countries of the region (see figure II.12) contraceptive prevalence continued to increase and, in general, the relative increase was greater in countries which began with a lower level of contraceptive use.⁶ Until 2000, the differences between countries persisted, with rates ranging from 28% in Haiti to 84% in Cuba. Nevertheless, in 10 of the 15 countries considered, more than 60% of women in union were using some kind of contraceptive method. As indicated above, there is a strong correlation between the national indicators for contraceptive prevalence and the level of fertility; this correlation, however, is less strong in the case of adolescent fertility. In fact, the increase in contraceptive use in this group has not reduced fertility. The causes of this apparent paradox seem to lie in inadequate use (the contraceptives are not used correctly or are not used systematically) and in supply shortages (for example, adolescents may be excluded from sexual and reproductive health services or accepted in family planning programmes only after having their first child).

⁵ See ECLAC, 2002b and 1998a; also www.measuredhs.com.

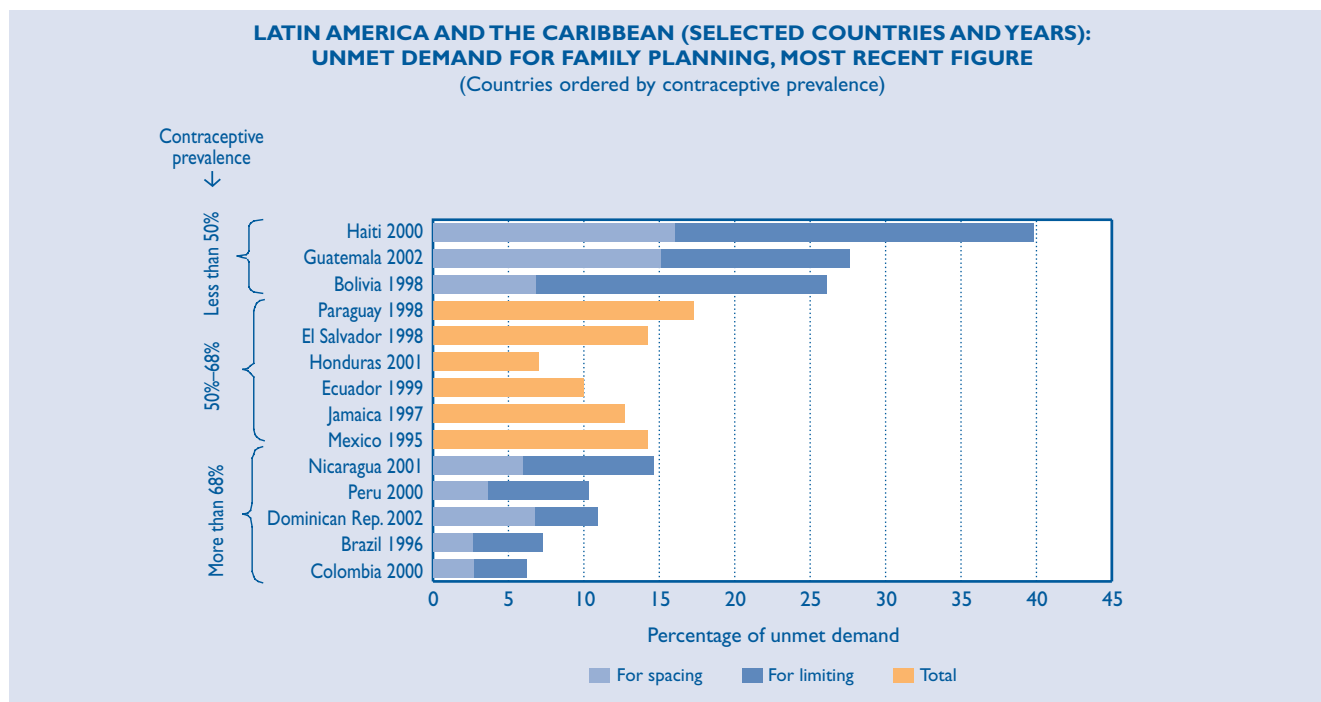
⁶ This is measured as the percentage of women currently living in a legal or consensual union who were using some form of contraception in order to prevent pregnancy at the time of the survey.

Figure II.12



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of "Sistema de Indicadores para el seguimiento de Conferencias Internacionales en América Latina y el Caribe" [online] <<http://www.eclac.cl/celade/indicadores/default.htm>>.

Figure II.13



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of "Sistema de Indicadores para el seguimiento de Conferencias Internacionales en América Latina y el Caribe" [online] <<http://www.eclac.cl/celade/indicadores/default.htm>>.

Although a number of Latin American countries show a prevalence similar to that of the developed countries (United Nations, 2003b), there are substantial differences in the types of method used and, in general, traditional methods are used more frequently in the region. Female sterilization is at levels rarely seen in other regions of the world; in 8 of the 13 countries with recent information, sterilization is the main contraceptive method used by women.

Lastly, the Bongaarts model (see box II.5), which considers, proximate determinants such as the marriage rate, induced abortion and postpartum infertility, as well as contraception, showed that the most influential proximate determinant for fertility reduction has been contraception. By the end of the 1990s, this factor had even increased its relative

importance in relation to other determinants. According to the figures from the 2000 surveys (or close to that date), the model indicates that, with other determinants constant, contraception is responsible for reducing total fertility by between 55% and 70% (Bay, Del Popolo and Ferrando, 2003). According to the model, second in order of importance is the marriage rate, which indicates the likelihood of living in union at different ages, and has slightly less impact than contraception. This fact is consistent with the findings of various studies (ECLAC/OIJ, 2004; Guzmán and others, 1996 (eds.)), namely that the pattern of conjugal unions in the region does not show significant changes in the last few decades, either in relation to the age at which the union takes place or in the percentage of women who remain single.

Box II.5

PROXIMATE DETERMINANTS OF FERTILITY: THE BONGAARTS MODEL

Also known as intermediate variables, proximate determinants of fertility are biological and behavioural factors through which the reproductive trajectory is affected by economic, cultural and environmental variables. They are distinctive insofar as they impact directly on fertility since, in combination, they define exposure to the risk of pregnancy and live childbirth. Bongaarts (1978 and 1982) demonstrated that fertility differences among populations can be attributed to variations in proximate determinants, in particular four of these: marriage, use of contraceptives, postpartum infertility and induced abortion. Bongaarts developed a formula relating the estimated average number of children per woman (TGF) in any given population, on the one hand, and potential fertility (PF) and the indices associated with proximate determinants (which deflate potential fertility to real fertility), on the other, in the form of the following equation:

$$TGF = PT \times Cm \times Ca \times Cc \times Ci$$

Where:

TGF is the estimated global fertility rate at a given point in time;

PT is potential fertility;

Cm is the marriage index;

Cc is the contraceptive index;

Ca is the induced abortion index; and

Ci is the postpartum infertility index.

The fertility-inhibiting action of the four intermediate variables is measured in the model using empirical indexes whose values range from 0 to 1 depending on the deflationary effect. Where this effect is total, the index is zero and observed fertility is nil, and where it is absent, the index has a value of one and that particular proximate determinant does not contribute to lowering fertility from its potential level. Bay, Del Popolo and Ferrando (2003) provide a recent description and application of this methodology. The model has been used for a number of purposes, including: the measurement of the impact of each variable on fertility in whole countries and in specific population groups; the establishment of probable future patterns of fertility based on hypotheses of variation in the intermediate variables; and the preparation of abortion rate estimates, by controlling for the effects of the other determinants.

PROXIMATE DETERMINANTS OF FERTILITY: THE BONGAARTS MODEL

Brief description of the indices and example

The contraception index seeks to measure the fertility-inhibiting effect of contraceptive use. In order to calculate this, it is necessary to know the proportion of women using contraceptives, disaggregated by contraceptive method, as well as the effectiveness of each method.

The marriage index expresses the effect on total fertility of celibacy (remaining single) in women of reproductive age. In fact, the women exposed to the risk of pregnancy correspond to the group who are sexually active, which does not necessarily depend on their marital status (not all married women are sexually active, nor are all single women sexually inactive), but the basic data for measuring this are not always available, which means that marital status usually provides the closest approximation. To calculate this index it is necessary to know the specific rates of fertility by age group, and the proportion of women married or in consensual unions in those age groups.

The calculation of the postpartum infertility index is based on the average duration of amenorrhea and postpartum abstinence. Where a direct estimate of postpartum infertility is not available, an approximate value may be derived from the duration of lactation, using an empirical function to relate the two.

The calculation of the induced abortion index requires the abortion rate. Since this information is often unavailable or of dubious quality, for most of the region's countries the effect is estimated indirectly on the basis of the previous indices and a theoretical total fertility value.

The following example uses data from the Demographic and Health Survey of Peru (www.measuredhs.com):

	TGF (indirectly estimated)	CC (contraception)	Cm (marriage)	Ci (postpartum infection)	Ca (induced abortion)
Peru 1992:	3.5	0.57	0.51	0.67	0.85
Peru 2000:	2.8	0.47	0.52	0.63	0.88

In 1992 the existence of a consensual union was the factor to have the strongest effect on the reduction of total fertility, bringing about a reduction to almost half where the other determinants remain constant. Contraceptive use came second, followed by postpartum infection and induced abortion. The figures for 2000 show a change in the relative importance of the determinants, with contraceptive use becoming the most influential factor. This development was common to the rest of the countries in the region for which this information was available. This is consistent with shifts that occurred during the decade, since in 1992 59.0% of Peruvian women in a consensual union used some type of contraception to avoid becoming pregnant, while in 2000 this figure had reached 68.9%. The counterpart to this was that the proportion of women married or in consensual unions remained practically unchanged, showing a minimal rise from 55.1% to 56.1%.

Source: G. Bay, F. Del Popolo and D. Ferrando, "Determinantes próximos de la fecundidad. Una aplicación a países latinoamericanos", *Población y desarrollo series*, No. 43 (LC/L.1953-P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), September 2003. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.03.II.G.121.

4. SOCIAL AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

The fertility decline has positive aggregate effects in the short and medium term, mainly owing to the stabilization of the target population for maternal and child health services and the school system. Equally or more important is that the decline reduces

the quantitative requirements for child-rearing, which allows a proportionally greater investment in the care and education of children and offers the parents more options, especially women from all socio-economic groups who can more easily "get out of the house" and begin working (ECLAC/CELADE, 2004). The smaller number of children, however, is appearing in the context of an increase

in the direct and opportunity costs of child-rearing, as well as growing indices of family instability. This means that the family –in its various forms– continues to need support in its function of educating the new generations. These services can be provided in ways such as the provision of quality public services for infant care and children's education. They can also be provided using tools that are employed in other regions of the world, such as family policies, which may be briefly defined as the contribution of resources to help people to deal with their family responsibilities. A series of legal and institutional adjustments would also seem necessary in order to make the requirements of modern life (including women's work) compatible with reproduction and child-rearing in the family.

There is concern at the persistent association of a low level of development and high fertility in some countries. This means that the countries with the least resources and tightest public budgets are precisely those that have to face the greatest challenges and pressures with regard to mother and infant services and care, and also school education. There is a need for programmes that can generate the human resources and capable citizens needed to form the foundations of sustainable development; such programmes may be viewed as investments. Nevertheless, a significant part of the social benefits are slow to materialize, so that this allocation of resources to the child population displaces projects targeting other population groups. The persistent association of poverty and a large number of children per household generates a new and paradoxical situation: families with fewest resources for child care and education have to bear the greatest burden of child-rearing, diluting their small budget and making it difficult to build up the family's resources to rise above the poverty line. In addition, the poor show the highest indices of unwanted fertility, which leads to a clear policy conclusion: the need to

redouble efforts to increase the capacity of the poor to match reproductive wishes and behaviour, thus simultaneously contributing to the exercise of a right and to the expansion of opportunities and options for the accumulation and productive use of resources.

Meanwhile, the sustained drop in fertility in no way makes the contraceptive supply less important, as public supply programmes are amply justified by their contribution to guaranteeing the exercise of a right. The aspiration to a small family is strengthened, as is the concept of avoiding unwanted fertility, leading to a demand for more and better sexual and reproductive health services. At this level there are still gaps to cover, especially for poor women and couples and adolescents of both sexes. In relation to this last groups, it is essential to expand and improve sexual and reproductive health services and make them more specialized and more accessible, as part of the comprehensive health services provided for the population. It is also important, however, to increase the competence and empowerment of these groups so that they can freely exercise their rights. The great challenge will then be the use of time and resources that are liberated because of smaller families and a later reproductive initiation. The creation of jobs for a growing female labour supply –compatible with motherhood and child-rearing– and educational options for young people are the ideal solutions, although often elusive.

Lastly, the promotion of gender equity is seen as a policy that will produce a "win-win" situation. Male involvement is fundamental in child-rearing and a facilitating factor in women's labour participation which, in the long term, can help to prevent fertility from falling below replacement level. It is also an investment for men because children are an important asset in old age.

C. TRENDS AND CHANGES IN MORTALITY RATES

Changes in living conditions, medical progress and increasing knowledge of disease causation have resulted in a substantial reduction in mortality, especially in early life, which is reflected in an increase in the average life expectancy of the Latin American and Caribbean population. Since 1950, the average for the population has increased by 20 years, reaching values of over 70 years in the five-year period 2000–2005. Although there are significant differences among countries, this is a widespread process which has been halted in some Caribbean countries only by the appearance of HIV/AIDS, which has reduced their capacity to continue making progress in that direction. The decline in child mortality has to a certain degree occurred independently of changes in the indicators that reflect the socio-economic situation of households. Significant differences also persist in the risk of child mortality among and within countries; less favoured are the groups from rural areas and those in which the mothers have a lower level of education. This means that child mortality continues to be higher in populations with fewer resources, which indicates that the fight against early mortality is not fully over in the region.

1. GENERAL MORTALITY

The process of demographic transition began with the fall in regional mortality. The progressive improvement of the population's living conditions in the context of urbanization, medical

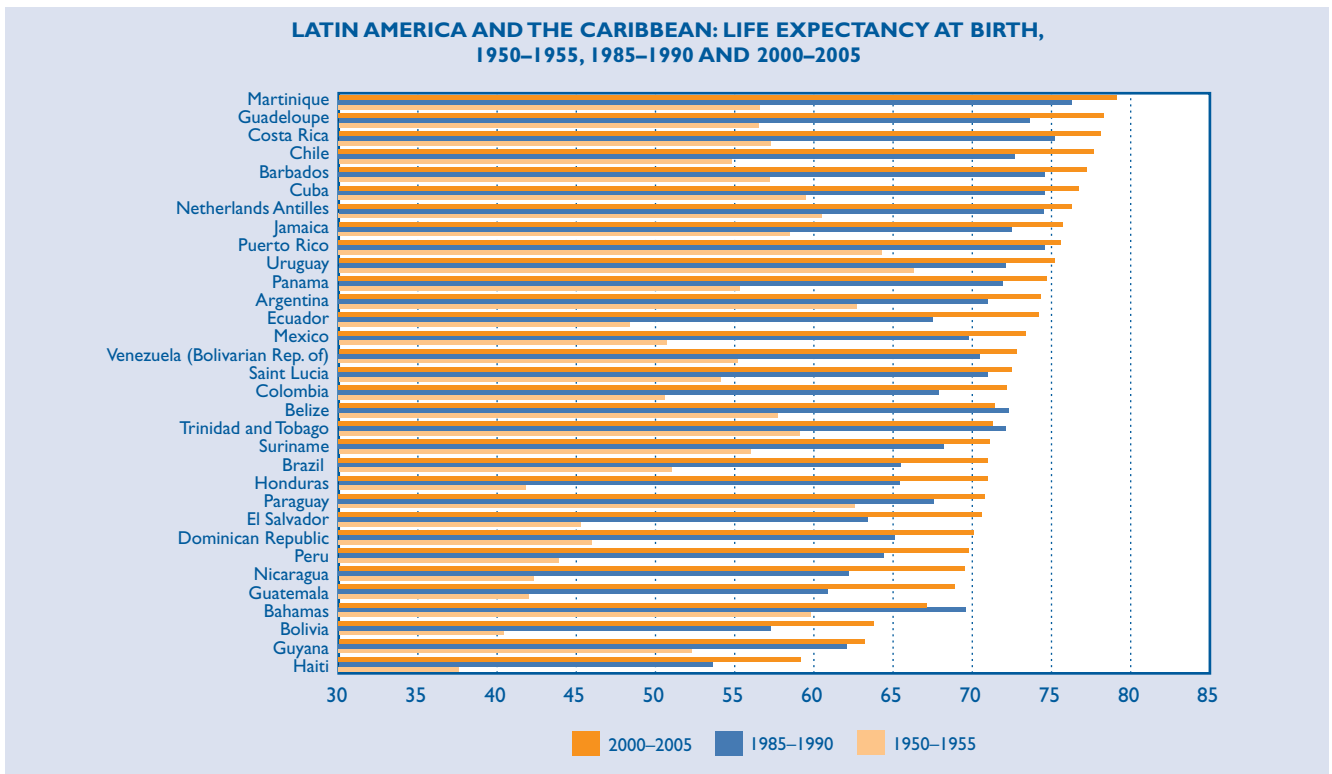
advances and institution-building for national health systems (in particular broader coverage), are some of the factors that led to this significant achievement. In Latin America and the Caribbean these changes began in the first half of the twentieth century, thus preceding the changes in fertility.

In the past 50 years, the average life expectancy of the Latin American population has increased by 20 years, reaching 71.9 years in the five-year period 2000–2005. This change has been widespread and for 2005 some countries in the region have life expectancies at birth approaching 80 years for both sexes (Martinique, Guadeloupe, Costa Rica and Chile). Although the differences among countries in life expectancy at birth are tending to narrow, there are still significant inequalities (see figure II.14). In the five-year period 1950–1955, the maximum difference occurred between life expectancies in Uruguay (66.3 years) and in Haiti (37.6 years), while in the period 2000–2005 the maximum difference was between Martinique (79.1 years) and Haiti (59.2 years).

In all the countries of Latin America, female mortality is lower than male, which is expressed in a

higher life expectancy at birth for women (see figure II.14). This difference, which tends to be repeated in all societies, is associated with the sex-based differential in prevalence of the diseases or circumstances that cause deaths and the possibility of dealing with them. In addition to biological differences between the sexes, there are diseases specific to women, such as complications in pregnancy and birth, which have been controlled more successfully than those that mostly affect men, such as those related to cardiovascular problems, external causes, violence and certain types of malignant tumours. The difference in life expectancy at birth is therefore not only favourable to women, but in general shows an increasing trend. This circumstance brings many implications for women’s lives, as their longevity will continue to increase and they will therefore require specific kinds of family and institutional support.

Figure II.14



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), *Demographic Bulletin*, No. 74 (LC/G.2257-P), Santiago, Chile, Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, July 2004 and United Nations, *World Population Prospects. The 2002 Revision* (ST/ESA/SER.A/198), vol. 1, New York, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2003.

In the region, the average difference by sex in life expectancy at birth changed from 3.5 years in favour of women in the mid-twentieth century to approximately 6.5 years at the end of that century. An inter-country comparison gives very variable results and, in some cases, does not show the expected relationship of a larger difference as the life expectancy at birth increases. Figure II.15 illustrates these differences.

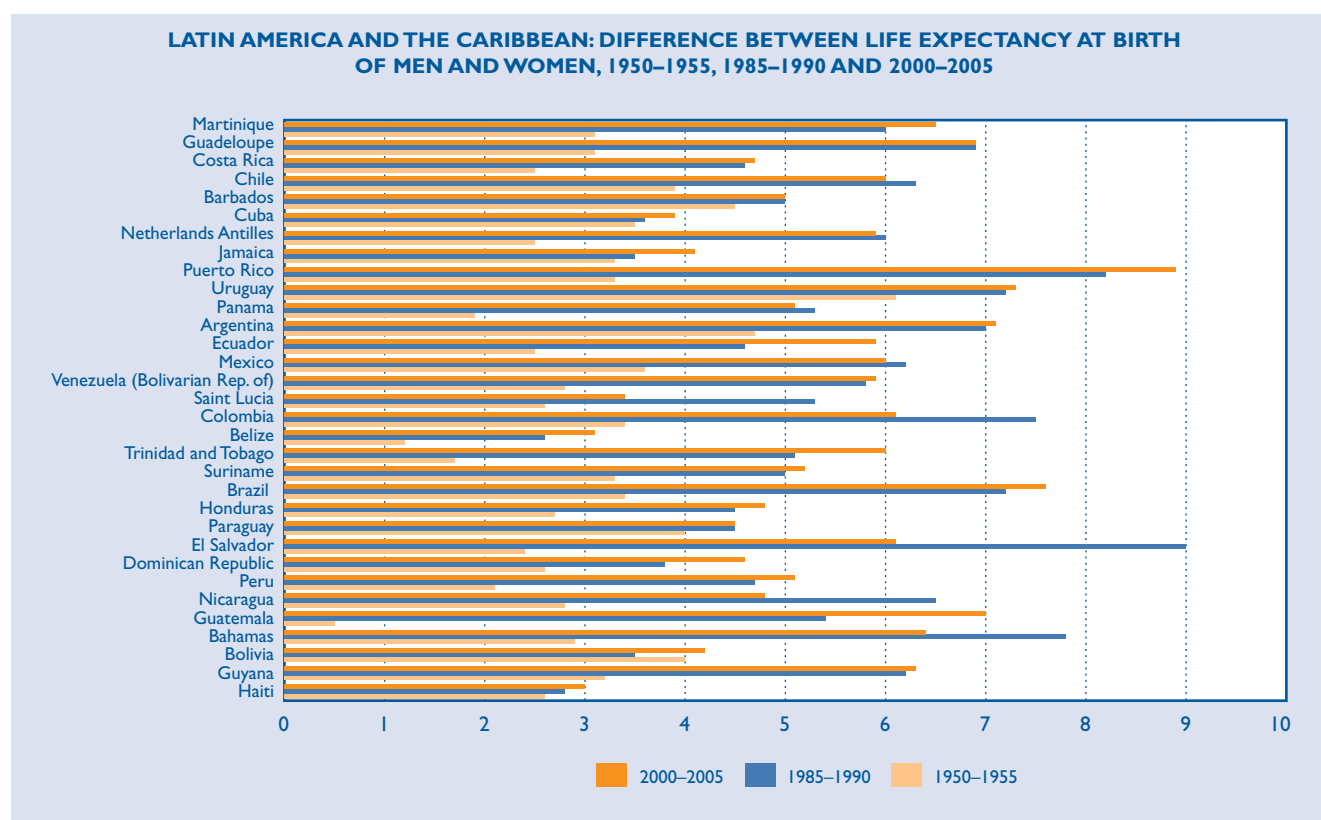
2. INFANT MORTALITY

The increase in life expectancy at birth was basically due to the decline in infant mortality. To a

large extent, this trend is the result of successful control of causes of death related to infection, parasites and the respiratory apparatus, which was achieved through the sustained implementation of programmes for mass vaccination, oral rehydration and well-child and respiratory check-ups.

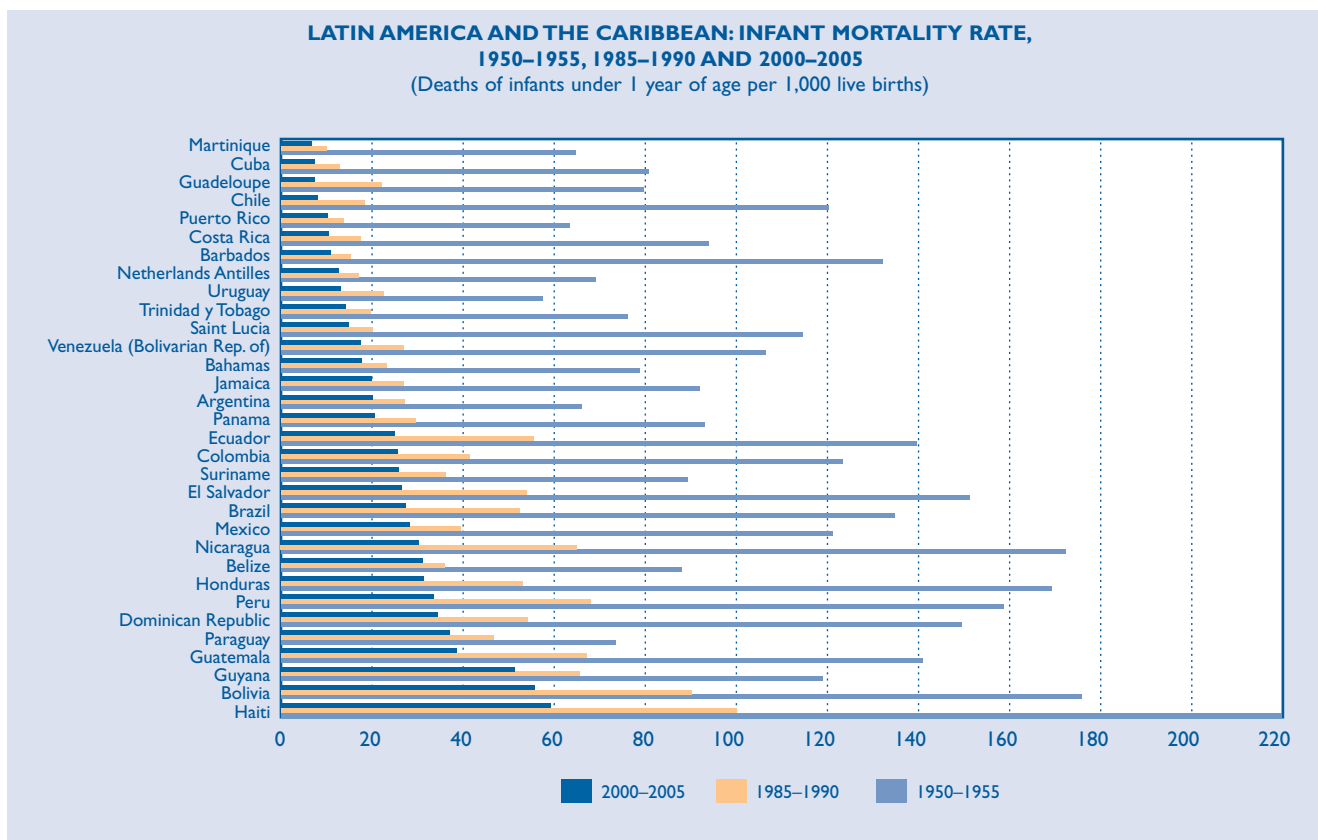
The infant mortality rate in Latin America has been reduced from an average of 128 deaths in infants aged under one year per 1,000 live births in 2000–2005, to 28 deaths in 2000–2005. Figure II.16 shows the rate of decline by country and the trend towards convergence.

Figure II.15



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), *Demographic Bulletin*, No. 74 (LC/G.2257-P), Santiago, Chile, Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, July 2004 and United Nations, *World Population Prospects. The 2002 Revision (ST/ESA/SER.A/198)*, vol. I, New York, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2003.

Figure II.16



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), *Demographic Bulletin*, No. 74 (LC/G.2257-P), Santiago, Chile, Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, July 2004 and United Nations, *World Population Prospects. The 2002 Revision (ST/ESA/SER.A/198)*, vol. I, New York, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2003.

It is striking that infant mortality has declined throughout the period, which reflects a certain degree of independence from social and economic indicators. This appears to be basically because relatively small investments are required for the programmes that are most effective in ensuring children's survival. The sustained implementation of programmes, together with other factors such as the broader coverage of health infrastructure, the increase in schooling and the fertility decline, accounts for the absence of reversals during economic crises, such as in the 1980s. Box II.6 shows the progress the countries have made towards achieving the goal on child mortality arising out of the Millennium Declaration.

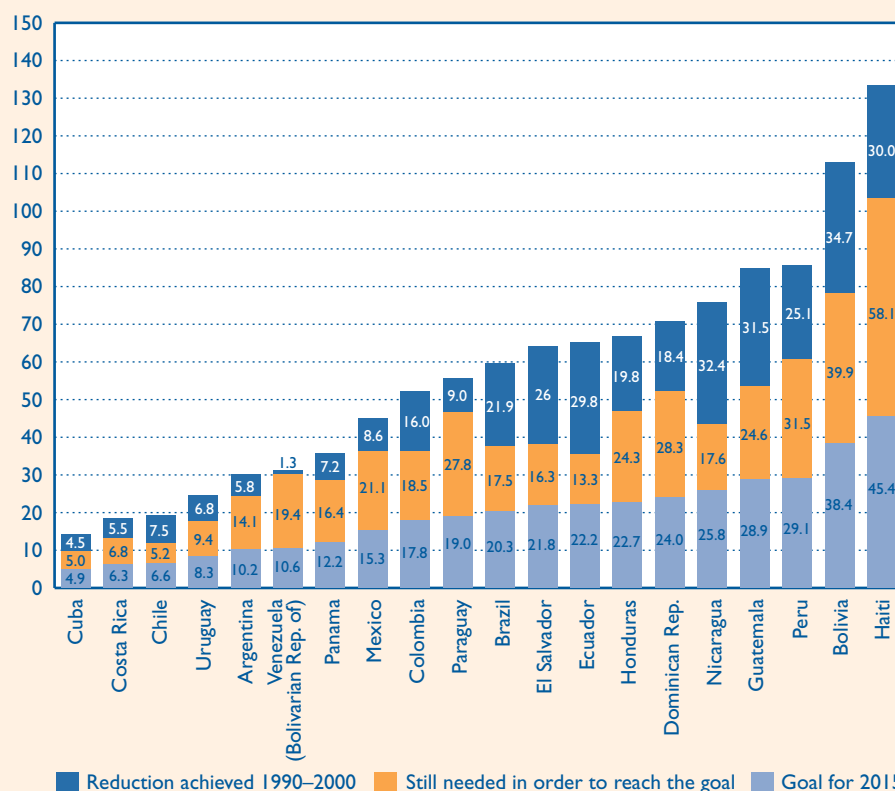
The continued decline in infant mortality at the national level is a very significant factor in the region; nevertheless, the persistence of significant differences in the risks of infant death within each country is a cause for concern. Infant mortality is systematically higher in rural areas, and especially in social groups in which the mothers have less education. In this latter case, the differences are becoming more acute, as the rate for the children of mothers without education is in some cases three times higher than the rate of those who have secondary education or more (see table II.4).

CHILD MORTALITY AND THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

Goal 4 derived from the Millennium Declaration (reduce child mortality) includes the target "reduce by two thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate". What is the situation in the region in this connection?

Despite the significant achievements in reducing infant mortality (children under age 1), in most countries of the region the rate of decline in mortality for children aged under 5 years would have to be maintained or even increased in order to achieve the target established at the Millennium Summit. For countries such as Chile, Costa Rica and Cuba, however, which have low mortality levels in children under age 5, the target would not apply. Some other countries, such as Brazil, El Salvador, Ecuador, Nicaragua and Guatemala, will reach the target established for the year 2015 if they maintain the current rate of decline in under-five mortality.

LATIN AMERICA: CHILD MORTALITY. WHAT HAS BEEN ACHIEVED AND WHAT REMAINS TO BE DONE TO REACH THE TARGET FOR 2015?



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), *Demographic Bulletin*, No. 74 (LC/G.2257-P), Santiago, Chile, July 2004 and United Nations, *World Population Prospects. The 2002 Revision*, vol. I (ST/ESA/SER.A/198), New York, 2003.

The values over time, however, indicate that the drop in infant mortality is a widespread phenomenon, including rural areas and groups in which the mothers have no education. The problem

is that there are no clear signs that the relative differences between areas of residence and educational levels are narrowing. On the contrary, in some cases the inequities are growing.

Table II.4

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): INFANT MORTALITY RATE BY AREA OF RESIDENCE AND LEVEL OF MOTHER'S EDUCATION (Deaths of infants aged under 1 year per 1,000 live births)									
Country	Date of survey	Total	Area of residence			Highest level of education			
			Urban	Rural	Rural/ urban ratio	None	Primary	Secondary or above	None/ secondary or above ratio
Bolivia	1994 a/	86.6	68.8	105.8	1.5	122.2	99.5	48.2	2.5
	1998 a/	73.5	53.0	99.9	1.9	112.5	86.6	41.3	2.7
Brazil	1986 b/	84.0	72.9	106.0	1.5	113.2	89.1	23.1	4.9
	1996 a/	48.1	42.4	65.3	1.5	93.2	58.1	32.0	2.9
Colombia	1990 b/	27.0	28.9	23.4	0.8	60.5	27.3	20.4	3.0
	2000 b/	24.4	21.3	31.1	1.5	42.3	28.2	19.6	2.2
Ecuador*	1989 b/	40.0	34.0	58.0	1.7	–	51.0	24.0	–
	1999 b/	35.3	26.1	40.0	1.5	67.7	39.9	23.6	2.9
El Salvador*	1993 a/	41.0	36.4	44.0	1.2	38.0	46.4	33.5	1.1
	1998 a/	35.0	27.0	41.0	1.5	41.0	39.8	25.0	1.6
Guatemala	1995 b/	57.0	45.0	63.0	1.4	70.0	54.0	26.0	2.7
	2002 b/	44.0	35.0	48.0	1.4	57.0	40.0	17.0	3.4
Haiti	1995 a/	87.1	83.2	88.9	1.1	95.2	78.4	75.6	1.3
	2000 a/	89.4	87.0	90.5	1.0	90.9	97.5	55.9	1.6
Honduras*	1996 a/	36.0	33.0	37.0	1.1	43.0	36.2	24.0	1.8
	2001 a/	34.0	29.0	38.0	1.3	63.0	32.8	18.0	3.5
Mexico	1987 1992/1993*	–	41.6	79.2	1.9	27.6	–	83.9	0.3
Nicaragua	b/	60.0	51.0	68.0	1.3	71.1	44.9	29.0	2.5
	2001/a	35.0	28.0	43.0	1.5	54.0	34.5	21.0	2.6
Paraguay	1990 b/	35.9	32.6	38.7	1.2	52.2	39.1	22.9	2.3
Peru	1992 b/	63.7	47.5	89.9	1.9	100.0	83.2	33.9	2.9
	2000 b/	43.2	28.4	60.3	2.1	73.4	53.5	27.4	2.7
Dominican Republic	1991 b/	44.4	37.2	54.4	1.5	46.8	54.1	25.9	1.8
	1999 b/	36.8	35.3	39.1	1.1	34.7	50.6	17.9	1.9

Source: Macro International Inc., Demography and Health Survey; for the countries and periods marked with an asterisk (*): Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), "National Mother and Child Health Survey".

a/ Estimates referring to births that occurred in the 5-year period prior to the survey.

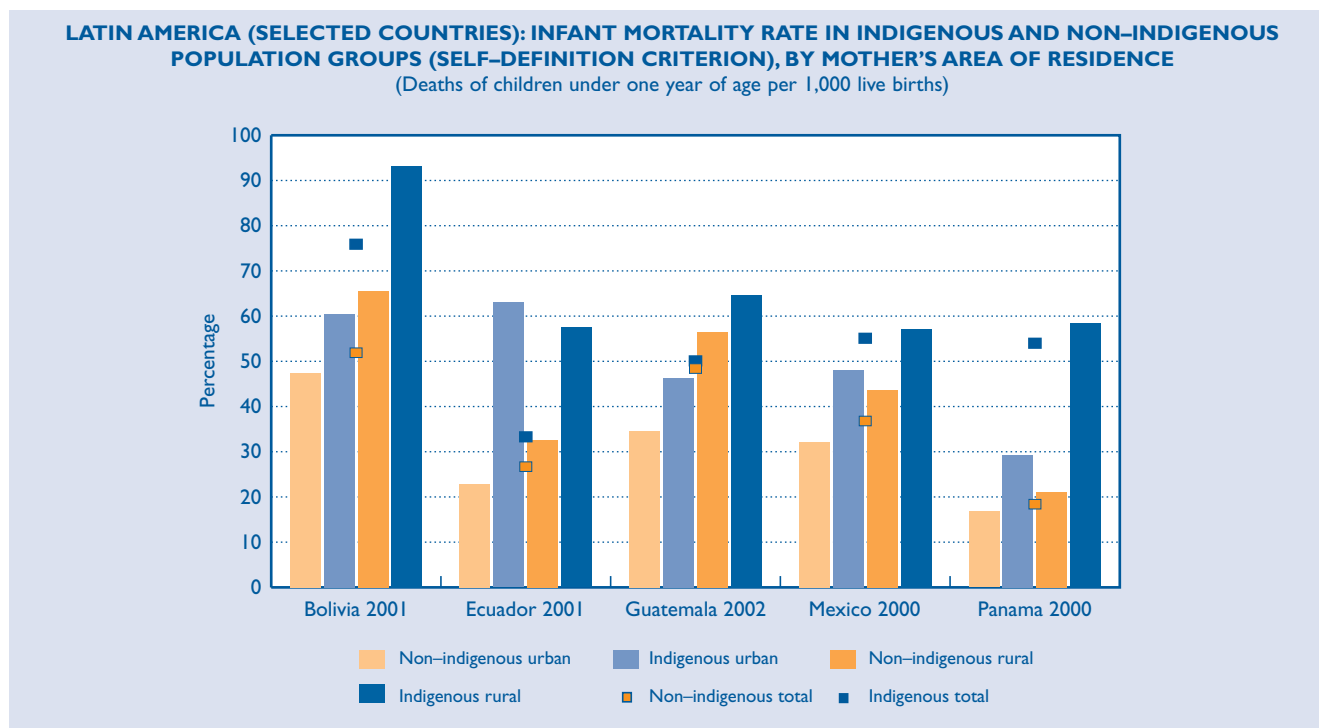
b/ Estimates referring to births that occurred in the 10-year period prior to the survey.

Similarly, figure II.17, which presents data on infant mortality for the indigenous and non-indigenous populations of some countries in the region, indicates that differences persist in both urban and rural areas. Infant mortality is in all cases higher in the indigenous population, independently of the general mortality rate of each country, which shows that ethnic status is a variable that must be considered in policies to reduce infant mortality.

Apart from the factors relating to health services provision, a low level of maternal education is in

general closely linked to higher infant mortality. This is the result of a combination of variables, which include knowledge of how to care for healthy and sick children, family decisions concerning household resources allocation (for example, distribution of food among the members), and decisions and timeliness in relation to seeking medical help. Thus, the excess mortality in the incipient stages of the demographic transition is mainly due to avoidable causes originating in infectious processes (Paz and others, 2004).

Figure II.17



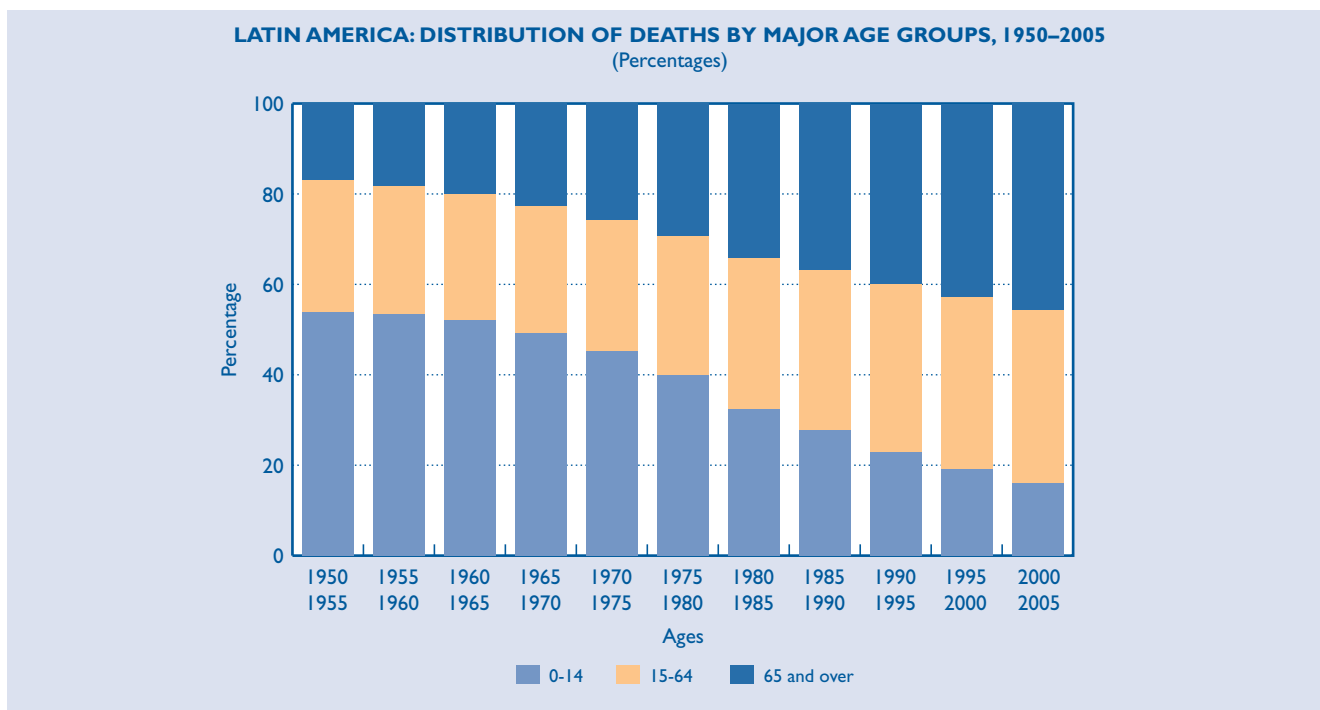
Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information from the project "Los pueblos indígenas y la población afrodescendiente en los censos" (ATN/SF-8043-RA), Santiago, Chile.

3. MORTALITY BY AGE AND CAUSE

The demographic transition has been closely accompanied by an epidemiological transition in the area of health, that is, a change in the profile of morbidity and mortality by cause, and the distribution of deaths by age. This transition is apparent in the percentage reduction in deaths caused by transmissible (respiratory, infectious and parasite-borne) diseases and in those in the perinatal period, giving rise to a relative predominance of deaths caused by chronic and degenerative diseases (of the circulatory apparatus and malignant tumours), as well as external causes (caused by violence, accidents and injuries). This reflects both the greater drop in mortality for the first group of causes, which mainly occur in children, as well as by the change in the population's age structure, which leads to an increase in deaths of older adults.

The extent of this epidemiological shift can be seen in the countries which have experienced a strong decline in mortality in recent decades. One example is Mexico, where the proportion of deaths from transmissible and perinatal diseases has diminished from 55% to 15% over a 35-year period. The opposite occurs with the percentage of deaths caused by chronic, degenerative and external diseases, which rose from 22% to approximately 50% (Chackiel, 2004).

There has also been a significant change in the age structure of deaths, as the causes of death referred to are associated with mortality by ages. The deaths caused by transmissible and early-childhood diseases have their greatest impact in the early ages, while chronic and degenerative diseases predominate in the older age groups. Figure II.18 illustrates the changes in mortality by age observed over the past 50 years in Latin America.



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), "Latin American and the Caribbean Population estimates and Projections 1950–2050" *Demographic Bulletin*, No. 73 (LC/G.2225–P), Santiago, Chile, Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre CELADE – Population Division of ECLAC, January, 2004.

Another important fact is that the young adult male mortality rate has not shown any decline in the past 10 years, and in some countries there has even been an increase in the mortality rates for young ages. This may be due to an increase in mortality owing to external causes, especially those associated with violence (see ECLAC, 2004b).

Although the pattern of mortality by causes of death is going through profound changes in the countries of the region, these changes have not been linear, but consist of a series of advances and setbacks in combating diseases that had apparently been eliminated. In the 1990s, for example, transmissible diseases such as cholera, the hanta virus, malaria, Chagas disease, tuberculosis and dengue reappeared in a number of countries. There are also health problems in a number of metropolitan areas and cities owing to the increase in respiratory diseases due to air pollution.

The continuing reappearance of diseases that were thought to have been eliminated is related to the persistently high incidence of poverty, and in particular to the fact that large sectors of the population are not benefiting from the improvements in sanitation and live in overcrowded conditions. In any case, in view of their nature, these outbreaks and situations have not resulted in high mortality, mostly thanks to timely epidemiological monitoring.

The most worrying case is that of HIV/AIDS. Although its incidence is lower than in other regions of the world, it is significant in some Latin American countries (PAHO/WHO/UNAIDS, 2001). The region accounts for approximately 8% of the world population, and, at the end of 2002, there were one and a half million persons infected with HIV or AIDS (210,000 contracted the disease in 2002), representing 3.6% of the global total of 42 million (UNAIDS/WHO, 2002).

Maternal morbidity and mortality have been two of the most significant public health issues for the developing countries. Although the deaths related to pregnancy and childbirth are not so high in number, it is unacceptable for deaths to occur when in most cases they are easily preventable. According to the estimates available, the number of women who died around the world from such causes in 1995 was a little over half a million (515,000). In Latin America and the Caribbean, maternal deaths that year were approximately 22,000, around 4% of the world total (PAHO/WHO/UNAIDS, 2001).

In view of the significant inequalities in the incidence of maternal mortality and the preventable

nature of these deaths, an international consensus has emerged to give priority to their reduction, and this view has been expressed at various global forums. Thus, at the Safe Motherhood International Conference (1987), the World Summit for Children (1990), the International Conference on Population and Development (1994) and the Fourth World Conference on Women: Action for Equality, Development and Peace (1995), a goal was set for reducing the maternal mortality rate by 50% by the year 2000 (PAHO/WHO, 2003).⁷ More recently, at the Millennium Summit of 2000, a recommendation was made to reduce the maternal mortality rate by three quarters by the year 2015.

7 At the International Conference on Population and Development in 1994, targets were also established for rates lower than 100 and 125 per 100,000 by 2005, for countries with intermediate mortality and with high mortality, respectively. A general target was set for the year 2015 of 50% of the rate in the year 2000 and less than 60% or 75% for countries with intermediate and high mortality rates, respectively.

D. INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION AND DEVELOPMENT

International migration, as an element of demographic dynamics and a multi-faceted social phenomenon, is one of the distinguishing features of the relationship of the region's countries to the global scenario and will continue to have significant effects on national development processes.

The positive nature of migration is confused with its problematic aspects, as there are no common principles for migratory governance that would make it possible to take advantage of human mobility. This is the cause of the contradictions that are observed. Human capital is therefore eroded, as there is a high level of selectivity and the most skilled emigrants circulate little and few linkages are formed with their countries of origin. At the same time, remittances have a significant macroeconomic impact, and in many cases represent a quantity several times higher than other sources of foreign exchange. Nevertheless, migrants face numerous risks owing to the selectivity of policies for migrant admission and integration. The restrictive nature of these policies leads to irregular and vulnerable situations. There are still flows between countries of the region, especially in border areas, but migration outside the region has expanded to include new actors, in particular women. Over 20 million persons from Latin America and the Caribbean live outside their country of birth, an unprecedented figure that is due to the huge increase in emigration to the United States in the 1990s; new flows also emerged with expansion on an unseen scale of migration to Europe, and in particular to Spain. In terms of international Latin American migration, Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela and Costa Rica

continue to record the greatest number of immigrants from countries of the region. The flow of remittances, the loss of human capital and the vulnerability of migrants –with gender-specific features– are inevitably significant issues for migratory governance which must be taken into account in a creative manner in order to benefit from the advantages that increasing freedom of movement could bring for development.

1. MIGRATION IN DEVELOPMENT

International migration is a significant component of the process of demographic change that is occurring in Latin America and the Caribbean. Not only has it brought changes in the rate of population growth in many countries, but its specific effects in terms of gender, age and socioeconomics have had strong repercussions on social and family structures.

From a broader perspective, the issue of migration between countries is multi-faceted and has rapidly acquired a place on national development agendas. It would be artificial to separate its social dimensions from the economic, political and cultural aspects, as illustrated by the matter of remittances. A more holistic perspective is needed to understand

this process, which actually forms part of the history of Latin American and Caribbean societies, although it now tends to be seen as an entirely new process, perhaps because of its current magnitude.

Until the mid-twentieth century, there was intense immigration from overseas into the region, especially from Europe (more than 11 million persons have arrived since the beginning of the nineteenth century, most of them Italian, Spanish or Portuguese), which combined with the intraregional flows. Various countries benefited from the transatlantic immigration and many immigrants were able to consolidate their life plans. Migration within the region passed virtually unnoticed, not so much because of its volume as because of the stronger impact of rural-to-urban mobility. Since then, in addition to the socio-economic and socio-political problems that the countries have faced and in response to the forces of contemporary globalization, profound changes have taken place that have visibly altered the migratory map. One of the distinguishing features of the position of the region's countries in the global scene is, precisely, the intense flow of emigration abroad which affects all the countries. It is a cause of concern in relation to taking advantage of the development opportunities that migration offers and the obstacles that make this difficult to achieve in open economies.

Analyses of the factors of migration indicate that, in the current international context, restrictions coexist with an environment that encourages increased mobility: the difficulties of finding work for the new contingents that enter the labour force and the deterioration in living standards in many countries of the region, advances in information and communication technologies which provide information on opportunities far away, improved transport facilities and the existence of migrant communities are incentives for migration (ECLAC, 2002). The receiving countries, which apply restrictive and selective criteria in their migratory policies, have enormous wage gaps in their favour and continue to require workers to support their productive processes, in order to fill vacancies that

their local populations may look down upon, or for inclusion in high-technology sectors where their skills can be used (Martínez and Villa, 2004). These factors are unlikely to change in the short and medium terms, and thus contribute to irregular migration. The positive aspects of migration for development are thus diminished in the absence of common criteria for its governance.

The most widespread consequences of migration of Latin American and Caribbean persons include at least the three following.

First, the emigration of human capital continues to be a problem on an aggregate scale, as the individual characteristics of the migrants (high selectivity) and their mobility features (little circulation and linkage with their countries of origin) tend to restrict the level of national resources available to enhance competitiveness, in addition to affecting international inequalities of income by qualifications.

Second, remittances have an exceptionally high macroeconomic impact in the region, as their estimated level in 2003 was over US\$ 30 billion, which is an amount several times higher than other sources of foreign exchange. This shows that the individual strategies of migrant workers have a symbolic linking potential and represent a material substratum of support for the national economy which challenges public policies.

Third, migration involves many risks for migrants as the policies for admission and integration of immigrants are highly selective, since they aim to attract skilled human resources and retain the best students. At the same time, they are essentially restrictive, as selection takes place in conjunction with strict quotas for foreign workers. Temporary admission is subject to quantitative restrictions and additional requirements on the part of the developed countries, as shown by the General Agreement on Trade in Services (Martínez and Villa, 2004; ECLAC, 2002c).

These contradictions highlight the growing risks for migrants, and result in the better-known aspects of contemporary migration: the irregular situation of some migrants, the vulnerability of regular migrant workers, because of very weak integration mechanisms and the negative impact of discrimination (especially for women), and outbreaks of xenophobia.

In the situation described above, little is being done to take full advantage of the positive aspects of migration for the countries involved, the migrants and their communities. At the individual level, there is evidence of improvements in social performance, a higher share of power at the domestic and public levels, and also substantial wage improvements, which could lead to development and equity. But this does not seem to be the most common situation. Hence the need for more States to ratify the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, and for dialogue and cooperation between States to be strengthened in the coming years.⁸

2. PATTERNS AND TRENDS: TRANSFORMATIONS UNDERWAY

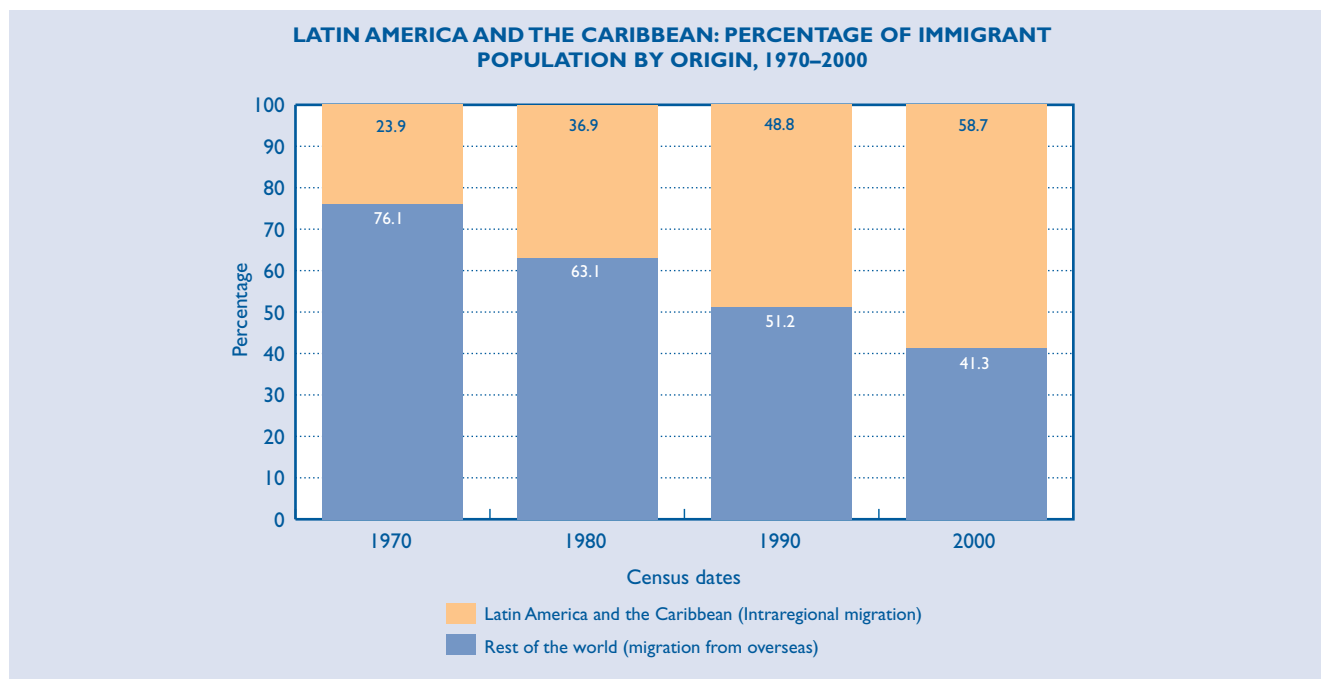
An overview of the region shows that persistent movements between countries in the region, especially in border areas, are part of a pattern that is deeply rooted in history and precedes the establishment of borders, while immigration from overseas has declined significantly. In the first case,

cultural continuity, some common historical roots and the complementarity of the labour markets are the basis for the migration exchanges. In the second case, the European economic recovery since the post-war period and the declining appeal of making a fortune in the Americas has caused a halt in transatlantic migration. Thus, immigration in the countries as a whole came to be predominantly regional in origin (see figure II.19).

The most distinguishing feature is that the region is a source of emigration, with a range of destinations that has progressively widened while new actors have been incorporated, especially from the medium- and highly-skilled sectors, and including a significant proportion of women. The number of emigrants is increasing and it is estimated that more than 20 million persons from Latin America and the Caribbean live outside their country of birth. This unprecedented figure was arrived at as a result of the large expansion in the 1990s, especially in migration to the United States, although new flows have been increasing at historic rates to Europe, in particular to Spain. The United States accounts for three quarters of the emigrants (see figure II.20), which places this country at the very centre of the debates that are fuelling the various concerns about contemporary migration and its implications for development. Spain receives more emigrants from the region than Canada, making it the second destination in terms of numbers, and introducing a platform for negotiations on migration affairs within the European Union (Martínez and Villa, 2004; Pellegrino, 2004c).

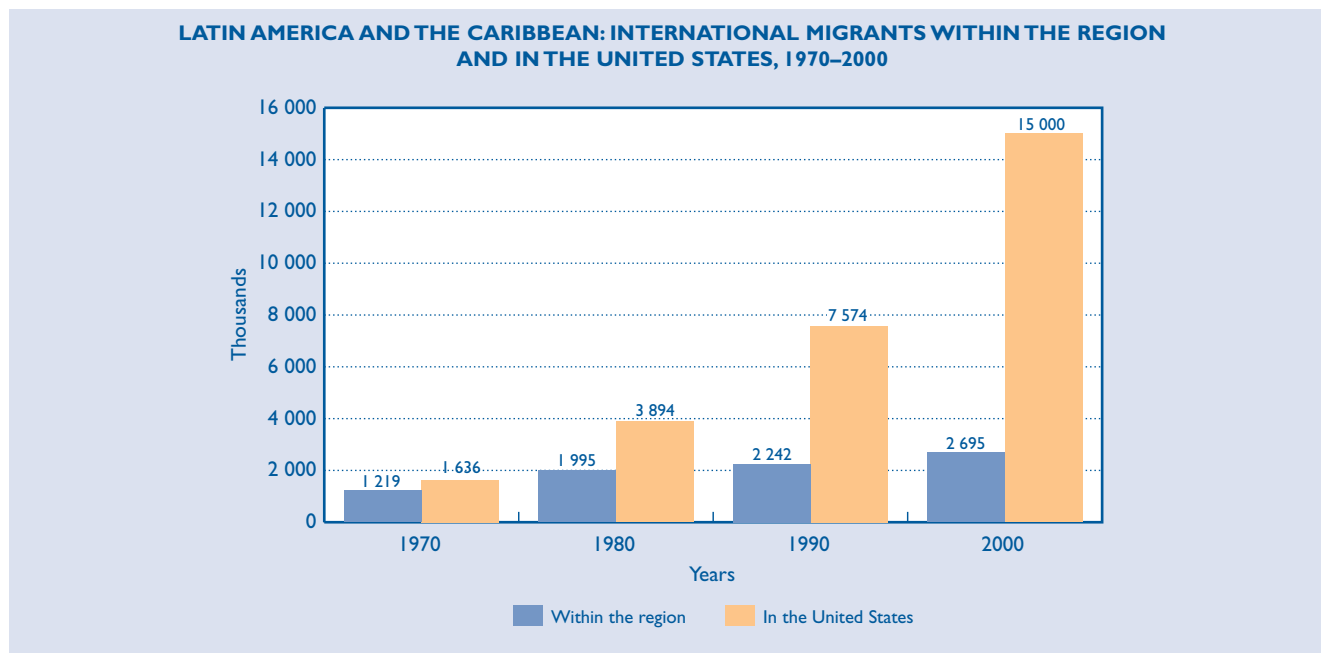
8 There are many initiatives in favour of cooperation on migratory governance. The most significant include the Global Commission on International Migration, established in 2003 by the Secretary General of the United Nations. The Commission began its work on 1 January 2004 and its mandate is threefold: (i) placing international migration on the global agenda; (ii) analysing gaps in current approaches to migration and examining inter-linkages with other issue-areas; and (iii) presenting recommendations to the United Nations Secretary General and other stakeholders on how to strengthen governance of international migration (ECLAC, 2004).

Figure II.19



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), "International migration in Latin America (IMILA)" [databank] [online] <http://www.eclac.cl/celade/migracion/>.

Figure II.20



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), "International migration in Latin America (IMILA)" [databank] [online] <http://www.eclac.cl/celade/migracion/>.

3. HALLMARKS OF MIGRATION: INCREASING COMPLEXITY

The hallmarks of the patterns and trends in international Latin American and Caribbean migration include the following:

- a) On the intraregional scale, despite changes in the socio-economic and political context, and in relation to specific subregional characteristics, the origins and destinations of the migration flows have not altered in any major way between 1970 and 2000, which reflects a consolidation of the regional migration map. According to the most recent evidence, in the 1990s there was a moderate increase in the stock of intraregional

immigrants, which reached 2,700,000 persons in the year 2000 (see table II.5). Women predominate in the main flows (see figure II.21). Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela and Costa Rica and continue to be the countries that receive the highest number of immigrants from countries of the region, the latter constituting a higher proportion in most countries (see figure II.21). In the Caribbean, migration shows an intense pattern of circulation, while there are exceptional cases, such as the migration flow of Haitians to the Dominican Republic, which constitutes a kind of displacement which goes beyond temporary changes and has a specific historical cause.⁹

Table II.5

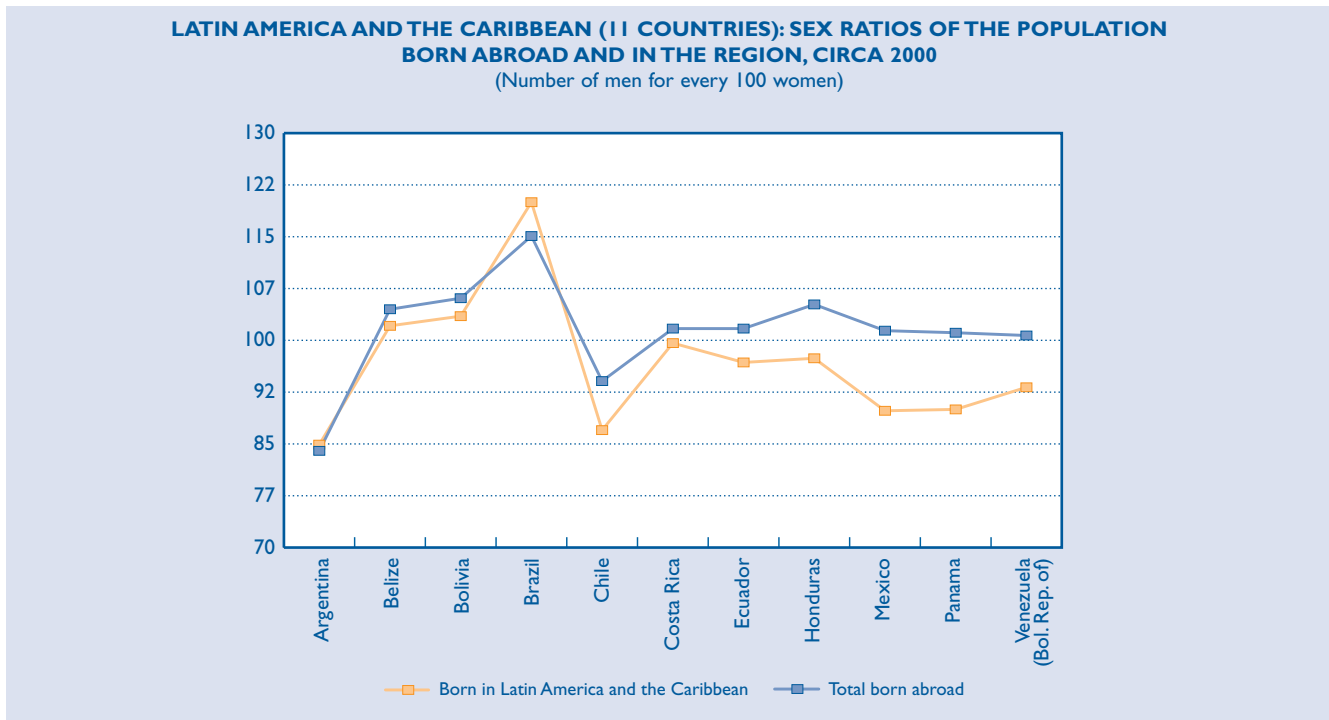
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: IMMIGRANT POPULATION BY ORIGIN, CENSUS ROUNDS OF 1970–2000 ^{a/}							
Origin	Census rounds				Annual growth rates		
	1970	1980	1990	2000	1970–1980	1980–1990	1990–2000
Overseas	3 873 420.0	3 411 426.0	2 350 441.0	1 895 075.0	-1.3	-3.7	-2.1
Percentage	76.1	63.1	51.2	41.3			
Intraregional migration	1 218 990.0	1 995 149.0	2 242 268.0	2 694 603.0	4.8	1.2	1.8
Percentage	23.9	36.9	48.8	58.7			
Total	5 092 410.0	5 406 575.0	4 592 709.0	4 589 678.0	0.6	-1.6	0.0
Percentage	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0			

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), "International migration in Latin America (IMILA)" [databank] [online] <<http://www.eclac.cl/celade/migracion/>>.

a/ The data for 1970 include 16 countries; for 1980, 1990 and 2000, the numbers are 14, 13 and 11, respectively.

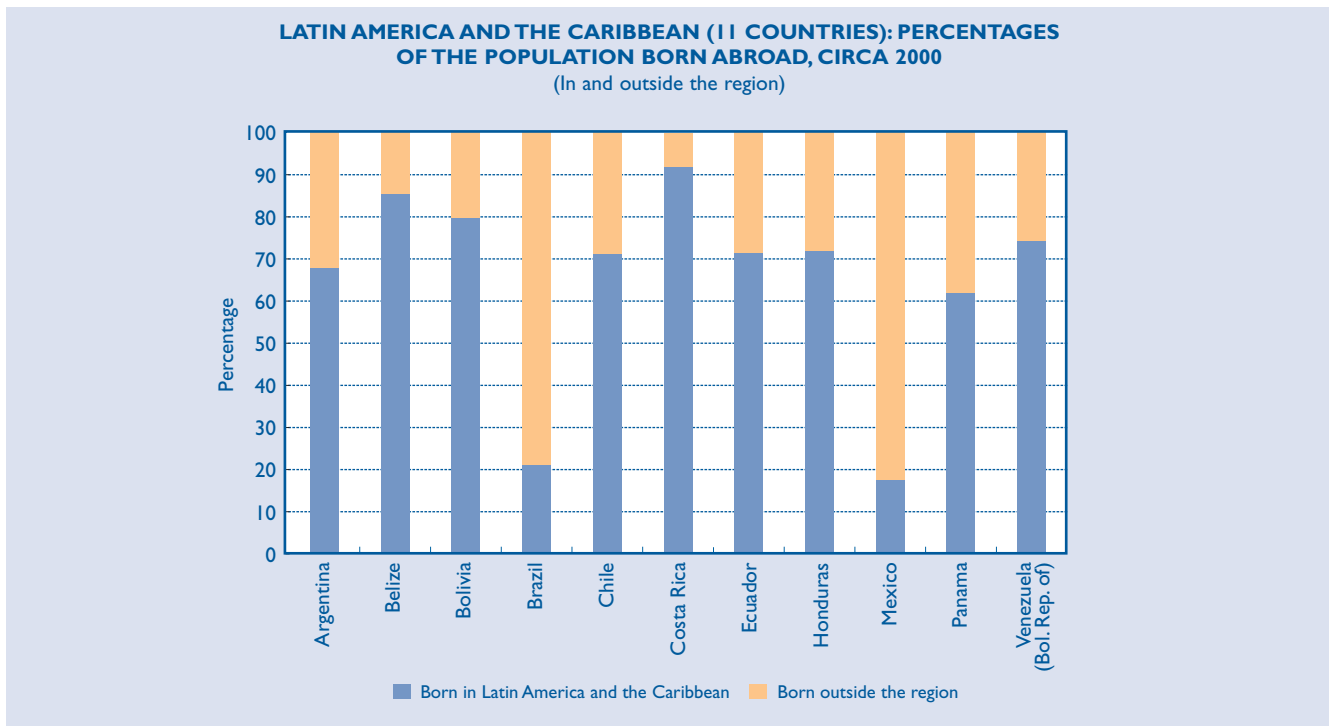
⁹ Recent flows show a high incidence of undocumented migrants, informal means of labour integration, a strong element of educational selection with regard to the populations of origin and a growing percentage of women (Silié, Segura and Dore, 2002).

Figure II.21



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), "International migration in Latin America (IMILA)" [databank] [online] <http://www.eclac.cl/celade/migracion/>.

Figure II.22



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), "International migration in Latin America (IMILA)" [databank] [online] <http://www.eclac.cl/celade/migracion/>.

b) In the United States, the estimate for immigrants from the region in the year 2000 is a total of at least 15 million, a figure that is a little over half of the total stock of immigrants in that country and is the result of growth of the order of 73% between 1990 and 2000 (Villa and Martínez, 2002). Mexicans account for 54% of regional immigrants, followed by Cubans, Dominicans and Salvadorans. Between 1970 and 2000, the number of immigrants from the region increased almost tenfold (see table II.6) against a background of constant reviews and amendments of migration standards and policies. Traditionally fuelled by Mexicans and Caribbeans, migration today includes growing numbers of Central and South Americans (see figure II.23). The migration phenomenon has a significant component of undocumented entry and stay. An official estimate of the number of undocumented migrants in the United States is 7 million persons in the year 2000, around 70% of them being of Mexican origin and 32% concentrated in California (see www.census.gov). Mobility seems to satisfy the individual expectations of immigrants, causes

the formation of transnational migrant communities and produces the bulk of the remittances received by the countries of the region (around 80%) (Martínez and Villa, 2004; Pellegrino, 2004).

The participation of women and men varies: there is a very high proportion of women among migrants from the Caribbean and South America (see figure II.24). Central Americans have a higher concentration of population of working age and their educational profiles are significantly lower than those from the Caribbean and South America; in turn, the labour participation of women is significantly higher among persons from the Caribbean and South America –although in all groups it is higher than in the countries of origin; lastly, professional occupations show significantly higher proportions among those from the Caribbean and South America. Undocumented migrants, with relatively less education, are more likely to be in a vulnerable and excluded position. Immigrants, however, have a higher average educational level than that of their populations of origin, which makes it clear that migration is a selective process.

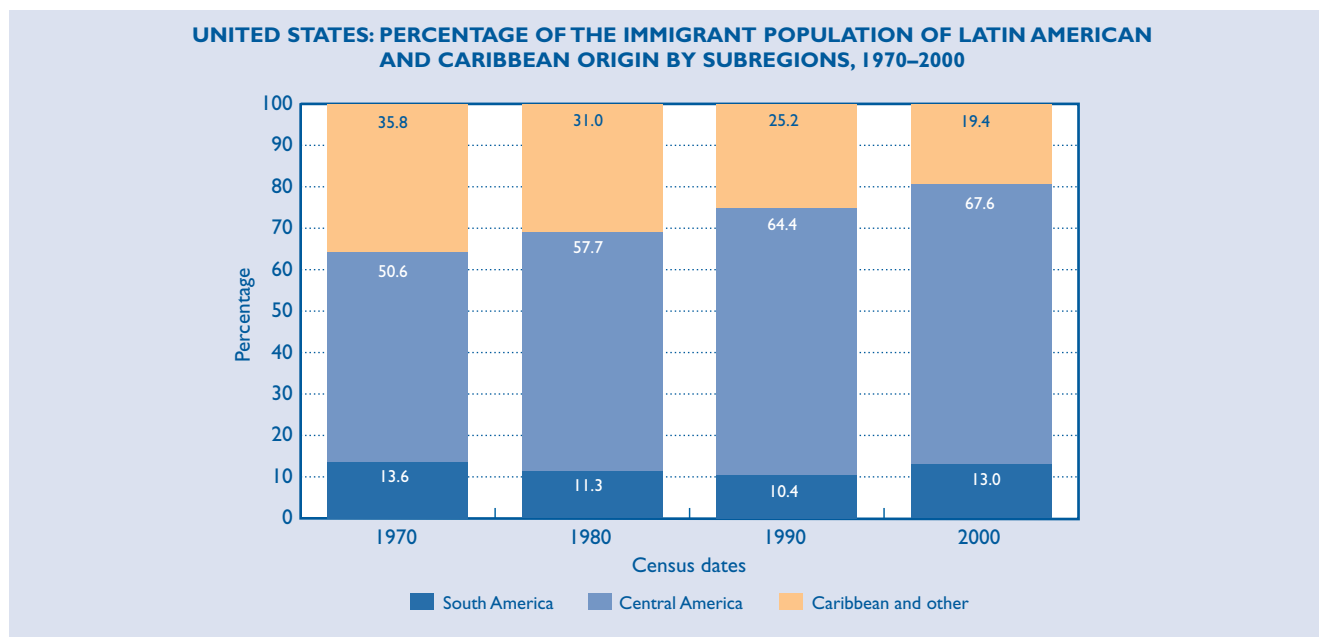
Table II.6

UNITED STATES: STOCKS OF IMMIGRANT POPULATION OF LATIN AMERICAN AND CARIBBEAN ORIGIN, 1970, 1980, 1990 AND 2000							
Origin	Census dates a/				Annual growth rates		
	1970	1980	1990	2000	1970-1980	1980-1990	1990-2000
South America	234 233.0	493 950.0	871 678.0	1 876 000.0			
Percentage	13.6	11.3	10.4	13.0	7.5	5.7	7.7
Central America	873 624.0	2 530 440.0	5 391 943.0	9 789 000.0			
Percentage	50.6	57.7	64.4	67.6	10.6	7.6	6.0
The Caribbean and other	617 551.0	1 358 610.0	2 107 181.0	2 813 000.0			
Percentage	35.8	31.0	25.2	19.4	7.9	4.4	2.9
Total	1 725 408.0	4 383 000.0	8 370 802.0	14 478 000.0			
Percentage	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	9.3	6.5	5.5

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), "International migration in Latin America (IMILA)" [databank] [online] <<http://www.eclac.cl/celade/migracion/>>.

a/ The data for 2000 are from the Current Population Survey.

Figure II.23



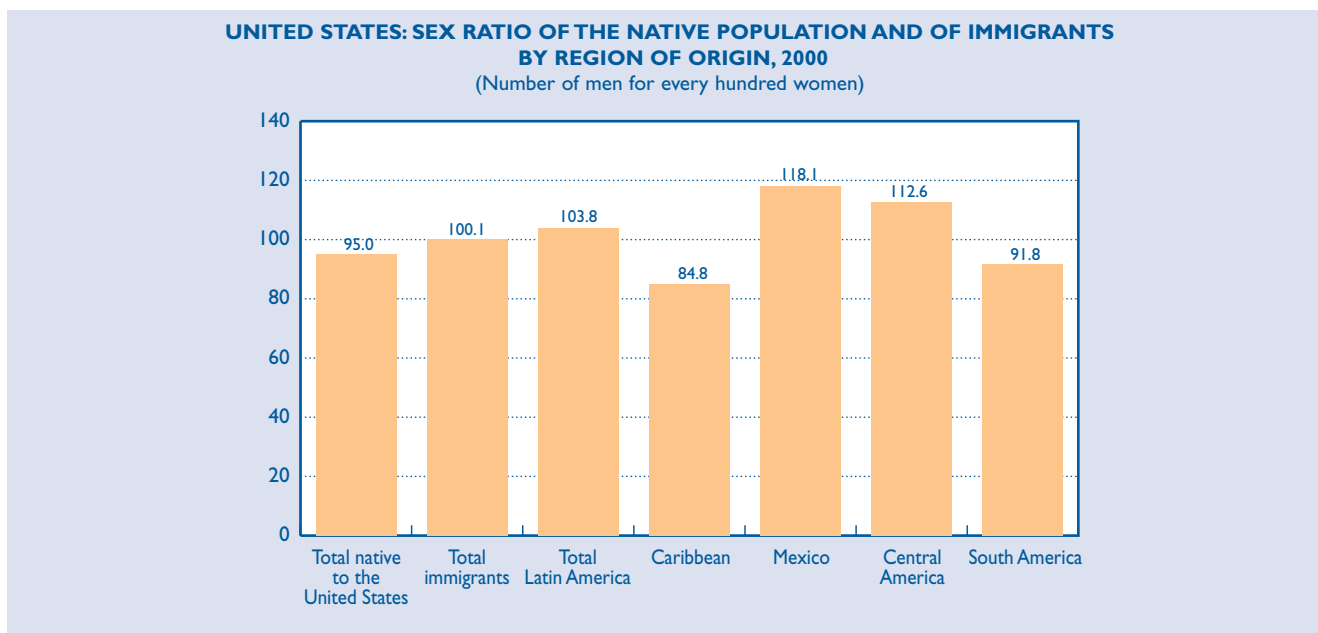
Source: Miguel Villa and Jorge Martínez, "Rasgos sociodemográficos y económicos de la migración internacional en América Latina y el Caribe", *Capítulos del SELA*, No. 65, May–August, 2002 and Bureau of the Census, *Current Population Survey*, Washington, D.C.

There are various indications that immigrants contribute to United States labour flexibility (Canales, 2000).¹⁰ This has led to an evident and unresolved tension caused by constraints on migration, in which security concerns have increased controls on the demand for cheap or specialized labour, which could perform work that United States nationals disregard, or for persons who are in the process of learning skills that are needed in strategic sectors of the economy and could contribute to the prosperity and competitiveness of the United States (Martínez and Villa, 2004).

c) Emigration to other destinations involves a total of close to 3 million persons in the year 2000. Canada, some European countries (especially Spain and the United Kingdom), Japan, Israel and Australia are the most significant destinations (see table II.7). In some of these countries, the presence of Latin Americans and Caribbean nationals has increased with the return of former immigrants from overseas and of those who obtained citizenship in the country of origin of their relatives or ancestors. Women predominate in many of these new groups, while the destinations are becoming more diverse.

¹⁰ Canales indicates that the combination of labour flexibility strategies has generated an increasing polarization and segmentation of labour markets in the United States.

Figure II.24



Source: A. Schmidley, "Profile of the foreign-born population in the United States: 2000", *Current Population Report series*, Washington, D.C., Bureau of the Census, 2001.

Table II.7

In Canada, immigrants are admitted on a continuous basis and according to a point system that favours persons with the skills required for integration into the Canadian economy and society. In the United Kingdom, preferential treatment has been given to immigrants from the Caribbean Community (CARICOM), although the policy of free admission was discontinued decades ago. Spain has recently become the second most favoured destination of migratory flows from the region: in 2001 there were 840,000 immigrants originating in the region, mainly South Americans (see table II.8). The significant predominance of women indicates that they have been pioneers in this flow. In general, the relative cultural closeness has meant that these immigrants are more easily accepted by the Spanish, as indicated by the opinions expressed by Spanish citizens, and they also play a fundamental role in providing care for older persons and domestic services. Migration networks have facilitated access for new contingents in a changing legislative framework (that includes reuniting families). A number of studies show that the South Americans in Spain are highly skilled; their labour integration is

LATIN AMERICAN AND CARIBBEAN NATIONALS IN EUROPE AND OTHER COUNTRIES WITH INFORMATION AVAILABLE, CIRCA 2000	
Country of presence	Total
Germany	87 614
Austria a/	2 308
Belgium	4 962
Denmark	865
Spain	840 104
France a/	41 714
Netherlands	157 745
Italy	116 084
Norway	14 937
Portugal	25 531
United Kingdom b/	500 000
Sweden	19 930
Total Europe	1 811 794
Australia	74 649
Canada	575 955
Israel	78 259
Japan	284 691
Total countries with information	2 825 348

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), "International migration in Latin America (IMILA)" [databank] [online] <<http://www.eclac.cl/celade/migracion/>>.

a/ Data for 1990.

b/ E. Thomas Hope, "Trends and patterns of migration to and from the Caribbean countries", San José, September 2000, unpublished.

segmented and involves risks of social exclusion (Domingo, 2004; Pellegrino, 2004), but their work experience and links with social and family networks help them to gain rapid socio-occupational mobility (Martínez, 2003; Martínez and Villa, 2004).

In Japan, immigration has been facilitated, mainly for Brazilians and Peruvians, by provisions adopted in the 1990s to assist the direct descendants of Japanese people who settled in Brazil and Peru in the first decades of the twentieth century to gain entry and temporary residence visas. In the year 2000, more than 300,000 non-natives resident in Japan were Latin American (Brazilians accounted

for over 80% of the total; see table II.9). These immigrants are mainly men, and employed in the manufacturing sectors, although there is a gradual increase in the proportion of women. Trafficking in persons seems to be one of the factors in women's immigration, as the international market is known to view Japan as one of the organizational centres for European and Asian networks, which have their main operation and recruitment centres in Brazil and other countries of the region. According to official data, between 3,000 and 5,000 Brazilian women are involved in the sex trade, which accounts for a high proportion of those involved in services and is a higher figure than for various sectors of activity.

Table II.8

SPAIN: STOCKS OF LATIN AMERICAN AND CARIBBEAN RESIDENTS BY COUNTRY OF BIRTH AND SEX, 1991 AND 2001								
Country of birth	Both sexes		Men		Women		Sex ratio	
	1991	2001	1991	2001	1991	2001	1991	2001
Central America	49 960	131 383	20875	50 467	29 085	80 916	71.8	62.4
Cuba	24 059	50 753	10 659	22 185	13 400	28 568	79.5	77.7
El Salvador	...	2 754	...	1 014	...	1 740		58.3
Honduras	...	3 498	...	1 212	...	2 286		53.0
Mexico	11 776	20 943	4 980	8 899	6 796	12 044	73.3	73.9
Dominican Republic	7 080	44 088	2 331	13 264	4 749	30 824	49.1	43.0
Other	7 045	9 347	2 905	3 893	4 140	5 454	70.2	71.4
South America	160 499	708 721	75 185	324 943	85 314	383 778	88.1	84.7
Argentina	53 837	103 831	25 486	51 690	28 351	52 141	89.9	99.1
Bolivia	...	13 184	...	5 987	...	7 197		83.2
Brazil	13 673	33 196	6 048	12 224	7 625	20 972	79.3	58.3
Colombia	...	174 405	...	73 099	...	101 306		72.2
Chile	...	18 083	...	8 468	...	9 615		88.1
Ecuador	...	218 351	...	106 601	...	111 750		95.4
Paraguay	...	2 113	...	822	...	1 291		63.7
Peru	...	53 621	...	22 164	...	31 457		70.5
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	42 344	67 150	20 116	31 526	22 228	35 624	90.5	88.5
Uruguay	...	24 626	...	12 291	...	12 335		99.6
Other	50 645	161	23 535	71	27 110	90	86.8	78.9
Total region	210 459	840 104	96 060	375 410	114 399	464 694	84.0	80.8

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information from the National Statistical Office of Spain.

Table II.9

JAPAN: RESIDENT POPULATION BORN IN BRAZIL BY SEX, 1994–1997				
Year	Both sexes	Men	Women	Sex ratio
1994	159 619	92 173	67 446	136.7
1995	176 440	101 684	74 756	136.0
1996	201 795	115 035	86 760	132.6
1997	233 254	131 108	102 146	128.4

Source: E. Sasaki, "Estrangeiros residentes no Japão: dados do Ministério da Justiça do Japão (1994 a 1997)", document presented at the second national meeting on migration (Ouro Preto, November 1999), 2000.

d) The trends in women's participation suggests that the proportion of women is increasing, which is a distinguishing feature of Latin American and Caribbean migration compared to that of other regions of the world. The gender composition of the flows is closely related to the degree of complementarity between the labour markets of the countries, the labour demand in service activities and the effects of family reunion. There are specific factors in women's migration that must be considered, concerning motivations relating to work or family, or others of a more individual nature. This indicates the need to deal with the significance of migration by and for women, going beyond the simplistic perceptions relating to excessive victimization or inevitable empowerment. It is clear that the image of the migrant women as a companion, as a passive actor, is no longer sustainable (Martínez, 2003).

Policies must be introduced that protect migrant women, on the understanding that this is not an associative migration, and that not all migrant women are passive victims; consideration should also be given to whether greater empowerment of women migrants actually occurs, especially if the migration process leads to the reproduction of gender inequities in the destination countries and without freeing them from the problems that many migrant men have to go through.

e) The vulnerability of migrants is a major concern. The undocumented status of a sector of the immigrant population (estimated at more than seven million in the United States), the restrictions placed on immigration by the developed countries, which result in a vulnerable situation for many immigrants, aggravated by their undocumented status, and the operation of organizations involved in trafficking in persons, are factors that prevent immigrants from fully exercising their rights. These are causes of concern to the countries of the region and challenges to the governance of migration.

All of the above has placed international migration on the national development agendas in the region. The challenge to the countries is how to take advantage of the enormous development potential of migration, which would help them to make tough demands on the developed countries and gain their commitment to governance of migration, in order to favour higher levels of freedom of movement, improve the integration and protection of immigrants, implement policies to actively increase the flow and effects of remittances, facilitate the circulation of skilled personnel and move towards less asymmetry in the international order.

THE IMPACTS OF REMITTANCES AT THE LEVEL OF THE RECIPIENT HOUSEHOLDS

Remittances are one of the most significant aspects of international migration for Latin American and Caribbean nations. During the 1990s there was spectacular growth of remittances into the region, when the amount increased fourfold to reach almost US\$ 20 billion dollars annually. By 2003, IDB (2004) estimated the figure at over US\$ 35 billion, showing the region as receiving the highest share of total remittances worldwide. In some countries of the region they are equivalent to more than 10% of GDP and more than 30% of exports. Remittances have clear implications for the balance of payments and account for higher flows than development assistance and other sources of foreign exchange. The high cost of transferring the money (which comes from the wages of individuals) has therefore been one of the central concerns in the efforts to make the remittance market more transparent.

In short, the implications are not only macroeconomic: according to IDB, almost two thirds of emigrants send remittances to their families, which represent less than 10% of their income, but a much higher proportion for the receiving households. At the microsocial level there are various initiatives, in view of the potential of family remittances to alleviate poverty in households, to generate savings to cover the cost of health and education for children, purchase goods and establish small businesses. In view of these facts, remittances appear to function as a self-created social policy, a symbol and a result of transnational links with huge potential, especially in relation to poverty. From the perspective of the households receiving the remittances, what lies behind this statement?

According to data from household surveys carried out at the beginning of the 2000s in selected countries, a variety of trends are observed. First, the percentages of households that receive remittances vary from 3% (Bolivia, Peru) to about 20% (Nicaragua and Dominican Republic). Second, such percentages also vary by area of residence in each country. For example, in Mexico, the percentage of recipient households in rural areas is three times the percentage in urban areas, while in Nicaragua the percentage of recipient households in urban areas is more than double the figure for rural areas. Third, non-poor households tend to receive higher proportions of remittances, although there are countries which escape this trend (Dominican Republic, Uruguay and, to a lesser extent, Mexico). In any case, it is very probable that the amounts received are a significant proportion of the income of poor households. The remittances, however, do not essentially reach the poor, as the members of the poorest households do not usually migrate and therefore are excluded from the direct benefit of remittances. This does not prevent them from benefiting indirectly in the medium and long terms, if there are conditions which favour saving, consumption and investment in the communities that receive the remittances.

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (SELECTED COUNTRIES): PERCENTAGE OF HOUSEHOLDS RECEIVING REMITTANCES, BY POVERTY STATUS AND AREA OF RESIDENCE, CIRCA 2002

Country and area	Poverty status		Total	Country and area	Poverty status		Total
	Poor	Non-poor			Poor	Non-poor	
Bolivia				Mexico			
Urban	2.5	5.0	3.9	Urban	3.8	2.9	3.1
Rural	2.6	2.9	2.6	Rural	9.1	10.9	10.1
Country total	2.5	4.5	3.4	Country total	6.3	5.4	5.7
Ecuador				Nicaragua			
Urban	4.0	7.2	5.9	Urban	21.7	29.3	24.9
Rural	Rural	8.8	12.0	9.7
Country total	4.0	7.2	5.9	Country total	16.1	24.1	19.0
El Salvador				Paraguay			
Urban	14.1	17.4	16.2	Urban	1.0	5.5	3.9
Rural	13.2	26.5	18.9	Rural	4.8	7.7	5.9
Country total	13.6	19.9	17.2	Country total	3.8	6.4	5.1
Guatemala				Peru			
Urban	8.9	12.2	10.9	Urban	2.1	5.9	4.6
Rural	10.4	14.1	11.8	Rural	0.1	1.4	0.5
Country total	9.9	13.1	11.4	Country total	1.1	5.0	3.2
Honduras				Dominican Rep.			
Urban	10.6	18.1	13.6	Urban	26.2	17.0	20.6
Rural	5.6	22.4	8.8	Rural	25.2	16.9	20.7
Country total	7.7	19.5	11.1	Country total	25.8	17.0	20.6
				Uruguay			
				Urban	21.6	12.1	13.0
				Rural
				Country total	21.6	12.1	13.0

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

E. INTERNAL MIGRATION AND SPATIAL DISTRIBUTION

Three out of every four persons in Latin America and the Caribbean live in urban locations, the highest rate in the developing world. In most countries in the region, the urban structure is based on large metropolises; in fact, one out of every three people in the region lives in a city with a population of one million or more. Furthermore, the urban structure tends to be dominated by primate cities, since in most countries, the main city accounts for more than a quarter of the national population and more than one third of the urban population.

Internal migration has tended to diversify and is an important component of demographic change at subnational levels. It occurs mainly between cities and is selective, since the migrants tend to be women and young people. Generally speaking, the probability of migrating increases with the level of education. In recent decades, a trend towards deconcentration in the urban system has been observed, thanks to net emigration from various metropolises, the renewed growth and appeal of many medium-sized cities and the revival of specialized primary production sectors geared to the export market or which offer commercial advantages (for example, border areas). Data from the 2000 round of censuses reveal, however, that net emigration away from larger cities has not intensified and that, in some cases, the flows have been towards relatively close localities, reinforcing the links with large cities and their sphere of influence. Policies designed to influence population distribution and mobility are needed in order to promote regional

development, protect the environment and improve living conditions throughout the territory. In designing and implementing such policies, policy-makers should take account of the signals and dynamics of various important markets (labour, education, land, real estate), which play a critical role in people's decisions regarding migration.

1. AN URBANIZED REGION WITH A HISTORICAL DEBT TO THE COUNTRYSIDE

Latin America and the Caribbean is the most urbanized region in the developing world, since 75% of its population live in urban areas (see table II.10). Although the urban population increased from 69 million in 1950 to 391 million in the year 2000, its rate of growth fell from an annual average of 4%, at the beginning of the 1970s, to 2% at present; this was due to the advance in demographic transition

and the reduction in the effect of migration from the rural areas. While the high degree of urbanization in the region is based on urban infrastructure and institutions that are less consolidated than those to be found in developed countries, it is not a statistical invention, since 60% of its population live in cities with 20,000 or more inhabitants (Rodríguez, 2002), a higher figure than that of Western Europe. The rural population, on the other hand, has remained

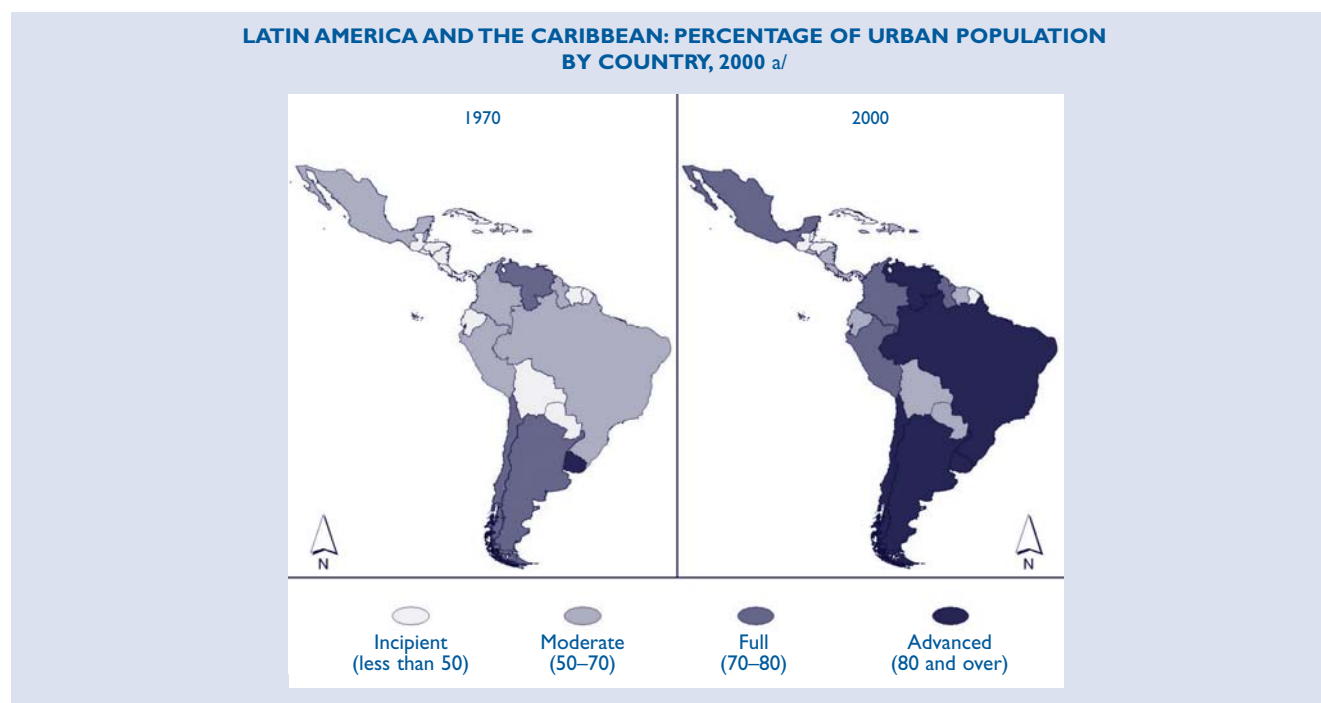
static at approximately 125 million persons for the past two decades. Map II.1 shows the high degree of urbanization in the region, but also reveals differences between countries, since the proportion of the urban population around the year 2000 varied from 90% to less than 50%; thus, countries have been classified according to the progress of urban transition, using the urbanization rate (Rodríguez, 2002).

Table II.10

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: PERCENTAGES AND GROWTH RATES OF THE URBAN AND RURAL POPULATION, 1950–2000						
Latin America and the Caribbean	1950	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000
Urban percentage	41.9	49.3	57.4	64.9	71.1	75.5
Rural percentage	58.1	50.7	42.6	35.1	28.9	24.5
	1950–1955	1960–1965	1970–1975	1980–1985	1990–1995	2000–2005
Growth rate urban population	4.34	4.32	3.75	3.07	2.33	1.95
Growth rate rural population	1.34	1.09	0.55	0.19	0.11	-0.34

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of current population estimates and projections.

Map II.1



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information taken from the database of the project on Spatial distribution and urbanization in Latin America and the Caribbean (DEPUALC).

a/ The designations employed and the presentation of material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of the Secretariat of the United Nations concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries.

The urban system in the region has two salient features: it is structured around large metropolises, and has a tendency towards primate cities. The region has 7 cities with over 5 million inhabitants, where 15% of the population live (see table II.11) and 50 cities with 1 million or more inhabitants, in which 1 out of every three Latin American and Caribbean inhabitants lives (United Nations, 2002a). In addition, in most countries in the region, the main city is home to more than a quarter of the national population and to more than one third of the urban population and its relative economic and

political power is inordinate (Cuervo and González, 1997). Thus, it is not surprising that in most cases, the primacy index¹¹ is higher than 2, a value that is rather unusual in the rest of the world (see table II.12 and United Nations, 2002a). Conversely, except for specific areas where the rural density is high (in Central America, the central Mexican plateau, the larger islands in the Caribbean and the Andean altiplano), the rural population is scattered in a myriad of small settlements that have scant infrastructure and historical connectivity problems.

Table II.11

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: METROPOLISES (5 MILLION OR MORE INHABITANTS) IN THE YEAR 2000						
Indicator	1950	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000
Number of cities	1.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	6.0	7.0
Population (in millions)	5.0	12.2	32.6	45.1	61.9	78.3
Percentage of the total population	3.0	5.6	11.4	12.5	14.0	15.1
Percentage of the urban population	7.3	11.3	19.9	19.2	19.8	20.0

Source: United Nations, World Urbanization Prospects [on line] <<http://www.un.org/esa/population/unpop.htm>>.

Table II.12

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: CHANGES IN THE PRIMACY INDEX, 1950–2000							
Stage of urban transition	Country	1950	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000
Advanced	Argentina	4.0	4.0	4.0	3.9	3.7	3.0
	Chile	2.4	2.6	2.7	2.9	3.0	
	Uruguay	–	8.3	7.3	7.0	6.4	
	Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	1.3	1.5	1.4	1.1	0.9	
	Brazil	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	
Full	Colombia	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	2.1
	Mexico	3.0	2.8	2.7	2.7	2.3	
	Peru	3.5	5.1	4.5	4.3	4.3	
Moderate	Ecuador	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2
	Panama	2.3	3.1	3.7	4.0	3.9	3.5
	Paraguay	6.1	7.9	9.2	7.1	4.8	4.5
	Dominican Republic	2.0	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.6	2.4
Incipient	Guatemala	7.0	8.0	9.3	9.7	9.4	8.5
	Bolivia	1.7	–	1.3	–	0.9	0.8

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information from the database Spatial distribution and urbanization in Latin America and the Caribbean (DEPUALC).

11 Ratio of the population of the primate city and the sum of the populations of the three next largest cities.

2. MIGRATION AND MOBILITY OF THE POPULATION WITHIN COUNTRIES

Recent studies (Rodríguez, 2004), based on the 1990 and 2000 rounds of censuses, present a panorama of current internal migration characterized by the following features:

- i) moderate intensity, with lower rates than those observed in high-mobility developed countries such as the United States;
- ii) the predominance of displacements between urban areas;
- iii) persistent net emigration from the country, which continues to be highly significant for rural areas, since it accounts for the demographic stabilization and faster ageing than would be expected in the light of the advance of its demographic transition;
- iv) declining net immigration in urban areas, which, nevertheless, continues to be the factor that accounts for urbanization and in some countries continues to be a very important source of growth in the urban population (see table II.13);
- v) the persistence of forced displacement, due to internal conflicts in various countries in the region;
- vi) the continuation of the outflow from large metropolitan agglomerations –although with temporary variations and national specificities (see table II.14)– whose migrants move to more dynamic cities or cities with a better quality of life, some of them close by;
- vii) the persistently strong appeal for migrants of some capitals of small countries where the urban systems are dominated by primate cities;
- viii) the combination of "hard-core" areas of attraction and origin with "soft-core" areas where net migration trends change according to the economic and social climate;
- ix) an increase in the quantitative and qualitative significance of intra-metropolitan migration, caused by factors other than those that contributed to classic migration (which is between regions and for employment purposes);
- x) the polarization of intra-metropolitan transfers, since to the historical movement of poor migrants to the periphery is added the movement of well-to-do families to rural areas close to the metropolis, which have urban services and infrastructure and from where they commute every day to the metropolis to work and study ("rururbanization"); and
- xi) the rehabilitation of central zones of some cities, thanks to explicit resettlement programmes.

Table II.13

LATIN AMERICA (SELECTED COUNTRIES): INDIRECT ESTIMATES OF THE CONTRIBUTION OF NET RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION TO URBAN GROWTH, 1980-2000				
(Percentages)				
Country	Relative importance of rural-urban migration in urban growth			
	1980-1990		1990-2000	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Bolivia	62.8	65.3	27.7	30.4
Brazil	37.0	42.8	34.7	35.9
Chile	8.3	11.9	19.7	19.8
Costa Rica	44.2	46.8	46.9	47.4
Ecuador	47.5	49.1	37.7	38.8
Guatemala	41.8	44.0	60.0	59.1
Mexico	33.7	32.4	31.7	32.1
Panama	36.4	41.3	53.8	54.4

Source: Jorge Rodríguez, "Migración interna en América Latina y el Caribe: estudio regional del período 1980-2000", *Población y desarrollo series*, No. 50 (LC/L.2059-P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), 2004. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.04.II.G.3.

Table II.14

ESTIMATES OF THE EXTENT OF MIGRATION TOWARDS, FROM AND WITHIN METROPOLITAN AGGLOMERATIONS AND SECONDARY SCHOOLING OF IMMIGRANTS, EMIGRANTS AND NON-MIGRANTS (Metropolitan agglomerations and selected dates)							
Metropolitan agglomeration	Immigrants from municipalities outside the metropolitan area	Emigrants to municipalities outside the metropolitan area	Intra-metropolitan migrants	Net migration	Schooling (average number of years of studies)		
					Immigrants	Emigrants	Non-migrants
Mexico City (1995–2000)	426 062	490 274	1 408 570	-64 212	7.3	7.8	7.6
Rio de Janeiro (1995–2000)	304 999	322 620	313 257	-17 621	6.5	7.5	6.8
São Paulo (1995–2000)	830 141	1 013 200	584 638	-183 059	6.0	6.3	6.8
Santiago, Chile (1997–2002)	227 648	277 022	779 642	-49 374	10.2	9.3	9.0
Quito (1996–2001)	129 895	66 452	38 456	63 443	–	–	–
Managua (1990–1995)	43 082	13 197	2 578	29 885	5.2	5.6	5.8
Panama City (1995–2000)	107 154	21 105	88 087	86 049			
San José, Costa Rica (1995–2000)	42 866	58 147	78 302	-15 281	7.5	7.5	7.6

Source: Jorge Rodríguez, "Migración interna en América Latina y el Caribe: estudio regional del período 1980–2000", *Población y desarrollo series*, No. 50 (LC/L.2059–P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), 2004. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.04.II.G.3.

As far as the migrant profile is concerned, these studies show the existence of selectivity by age (see figure II.25) and education (higher than average), the persistence –albeit on the decline– of the historical female bias of internal migration, and higher levels of unemployment among recent migrants; nevertheless, migrant income levels are shown to be equivalent to, or higher than, those of non-migrants (monitoring key variables, such as age, education and family responsibility).

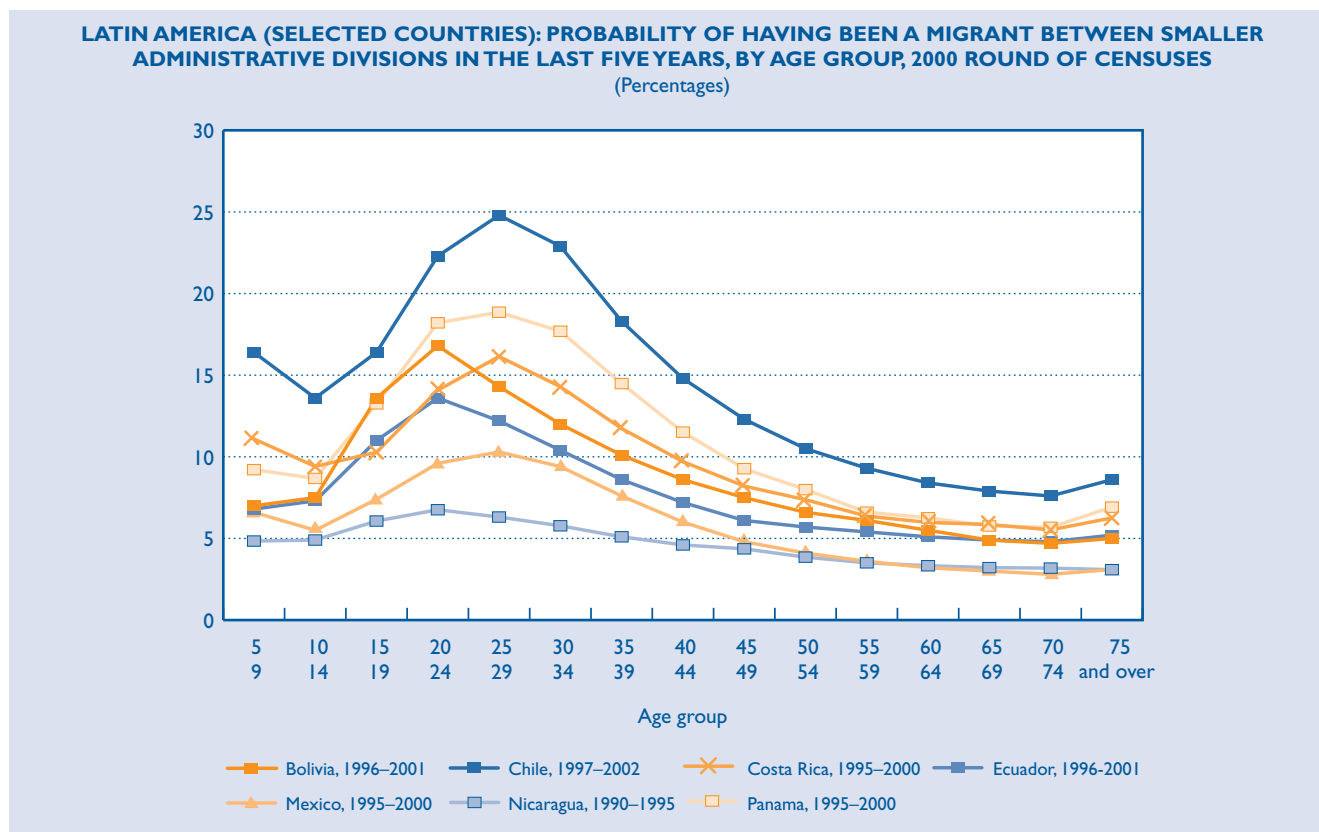
3. SPATIAL REDISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION AND INTERNAL MIGRATION: DETERMINANTS, EFFECTS AND POLICIES

Industrialization based on import substitution and the broadening and consolidation of State involvement in the economy in the period 1930–1980 were the driving forces of the process of

regional urbanization. These trends promoted the concentration of activities, resources, services and jobs in cities. The lag in the countryside combined with the expansion of export-oriented commercial operations to fuel the rural exodus. The action of these forces widened the gap between urban and rural areas in terms of living conditions and opportunities in a way that was unequivocally favourable to the urban areas (Montgomery and others, 2004).

Up to the 1960s, migrant flows in most countries were directed towards a limited number of cities. This relative lack of diversification of flows stemmed from a concentration of the attractions of those cities, which, for different reasons –complex factors and variable causes depending on the country– managed to capture a significant proportion of private and public investments. This meant that they had a great deal to offer in terms of employment, infrastructure and opportunities in

Figure II.25



Source: Jorge Rodríguez, "Migración interna en América Latina y el Caribe: estudio regional del período 1980–2000", *Población y desarrollo series*, No. 50 (LC/L.2059–P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), 2004. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.04.II.G.3.

general and therefore provided attractive alternatives for migrants. Already in the decade of the 1960s, but even more so in the 1970s, the flows started to become more diversified. Medium-sized cities that acted as regional centres and others with comparative advantages as an export or tourist centre began to attract an increasing share of migrants, a case in point being the Mexican cities on the northern border. Other intermediate cities whose appeal increased were those that substituted or complemented the major cities in certain lines of industrial production and services; frequently, these cities were close to the large metropolises which, in the long run, tended to extend their sphere of influence. Be that as it may, up to the 1970s, major cities continued to be net receivers of immigrants, although at increasingly lower rates, owing in part to the greater visibility of their problems and the signs of growing

diseconomies. In those decades, several countries implemented large-scale settlement programmes involving the diversification of the migration flows to include underpopulated areas. Such programmes helped to reshape the territorial distribution of the population –although not necessarily with the predicted intensity and sustainability– in countries such as Bolivia, Brazil, Paraguay and Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela (CELADE, 1984).

In the 1980s, large cities experienced net emigration for the first time in the twentieth century, with Mexico City and São Paulo being the most salient examples (Rodríguez and Villa, 1996). Some experts attributed this turning point to the economic openness and liberalization –which boosted export activities, mainly primary activities, to the detriment of the import substitution activities,

which were concentrated in the larger cities— and to the reduction in employment in the public sector, which had been highly concentrated in large cities (Montgomery and others, 2004; Pinto da Cunha, 2002; Rodríguez, 2002; Rodríguez and Villa, 1996; Daher, 1994). Data from the 2000 round of censuses, however, suggest that this reading was somewhat hasty. The deepening and expansion of openness and economic liberalization in the 1990s did not in fact hasten any loss of appeal of the largest cities. Admittedly, almost all experienced net emigration but on a more moderate scale than in the 1980s. In addition, some cities underwent processes of urban renewal and economic recovery, demonstrating their versatility for global competition and casting doubts as to the future. Lastly, there has been a persistent trend whereby a no less significant proportion of their emigrants move to neighbouring areas, linked to the major city by communication and transport networks which enable them to commute daily, contributing to the configuration of enormous sprawling metropolises (Rodríguez, 2002; Ingram, 1997; Rodríguez and Villa, 1996).

Except in the case of forced migrations, migration flows and decisions are prompted by expectations of better living conditions. The evidence suggests that moving has effectively been beneficial for many migrants (as indicated by the higher average income levels that they earn after controlling for other factors) but that for a significant percentage of them, adapting to their destination is a complex process—as revealed by the higher rates of unemployment of recent migrants—and some do not achieve any improvement in relation to their previous situation (Rodríguez, 2004b). The socio-economic disparities among different territories within the countries are the main force behind aggregate migration; since these disparities show no signs of diminishing in the region (Cuervo, 2003; Silva, 2003; Aroca and others, 2001), migration is likely to continue to be an important component of the demographic dynamic at the subnational level.

There are conflicting views regarding the consequences of migration for the areas of origin and destination (Rodríguez, 2004b; Greenwood, 1997). Some authors suggest that moves from backward areas to dynamic areas (in theory, the most probable moves) tend to favour all spheres. On the other hand, other perspectives underscore the fact that migration can saturate destination centres and erode the human capital of the areas of origin, especially if the migrants are relatively skilled young people. The available evidence does not point to any precise conclusion in this respect. While some recent studies indicate that migration accentuates income disparities between regions, it has also been shown that it reduces slightly the differences in human capital among them (Paz and others, 2004). In addition, recent studies of intra-metropolitan migration caution that while such migration may have stimulated the recovery of historically poor zones—some of which remain rural, but with good links to the metropolis—its net effect has been to enhance the level of education of the well-off areas (Rodríguez, 2004b).

In terms of migration-related measures, there is broad consensus that market forces can have a strong impact in allocating resources at the territorial level and, in this way, in encouraging particular locations and shifts of the population. Thus, the relevant market trends (Where are private investments directed? Where is there demand for labour? Where is there higher profitability?) and the use of market mechanisms (the full range of prices, monetary and tax incentives, credit and technological transfer to producers) must be taken into consideration. Public policies and programmes designed to influence the pattern of territorial settlement of the population are necessary, however, especially for promoting environmentally-friendly settlement patterns and for taking advantage of productive opportunities offered by national geography. As a matter of principle, such interventions must not be coercive or undermine the right to freedom of movement within the national territory. Certainly, regulations relating to the use of

space may be applied, especially for environmental reasons, but such interventions should focus mainly on incentives that promote functional moves in keeping with the current strategic vision. One crucial and complex task is that of coordinating the different public initiatives that have territorial

consequences –many of which do not explicitly pursue objectives of spatial redistribution of the population– in order to ensure, at least, that their outcomes do not run contrary to the aims of policies and programmes that have explicit objectives in terms of population location and migration.



The social situation of Latin America's youth: tensions and paradoxes

The distinctive feature of youth is that it is a phase in which society grants individuals a "moratorium on roles"; that is, a temporary suspension of obligations that gives young people time to prepare themselves to deal with new situations. In other words, young people are neither children nor adults, and their main function is to prepare themselves to form their own households and enter labour markets that make ever-increasing demands in terms of knowledge and skills. The transition from childhood to maturity therefore includes a period of major biological, psychological, social and cultural changes. The process begins when individuals acquire the capacity to reproduce the human species, and ends when they acquire the capacity to reproduce society (Brito, 1997, p. 29).

According to Bourdieu, youth is just a word: a social construct used to define a particular stage of life when, in today's world, people are expected to meet certain demands but have not always been treated as social actors in their own right (Bourdieu, 1990). What is certain is that youth as a concept is somewhat unclear, as it encompasses an extremely heterogeneous social group. Young people's situations vary widely according to their place of residence (urban or rural), household socio-economic status (low-income or high-income), age subgroup, level of education and gender.

Although modern capitalism sees young people as actors who are in the process of preparing themselves to join the production system, the unemployment crisis and swiftly changing ways of life have placed today's young people in a more problematic position. The current outlook for young people's social integration has become less clear. The transition from education to employment is less straightforward, as labour markets do not guarantee stable occupations with good prospects for large segments of the youth population, except the most highly trained. What remains for the others, especially in Latin America, is a wide but precarious range of informal jobs that offer them little income and no stability. The transition from material dependence to independence is also less clear-cut, owing both to young people's greater difficulties in obtaining income (given their limited employment opportunities) and to their need to spend more time in the education and training phase (during which they live with one or both parents) in order to aspire to a better job. Lastly, the transmission of values, by which young people internalize the standards and views of adults, has become indistinct and conflict-ridden, as rapidly changing values and ways of life cause young people to question or reject their parents' traditional role of setting an example or imposing discipline.

This raises many questions about the process whereby young people make the transition from the formative stage to the productive stage. Not coincidentally, society's image of young people has come to include phenomena such as political apathy, dropping out of school, the breakdown of standards and high-risk or antagonistic behaviour. As a result of these factors, Latin America's youth are now experiencing, more acutely than the rest of the population, a series of tensions that reflect their difficulties in integrating themselves into society. This chapter contains an analysis of these tensions.

A. YOUNG PEOPLE HAVE MORE EDUCATION BUT FEWER EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES

One source of tension is the fact that young people have more education but fewer employment opportunities. The youth of today have more years of formal schooling than previous generations, but they also have unemployment rates that are two or three times higher and earn less income even when they have the same or higher educational qualifications and perform the same jobs. In other words, compared to their predecessors, they are more integrated into the processes of knowledge acquisition and human capital formation, yet more excluded from the areas where human capital is used: the labour market as a source of income.

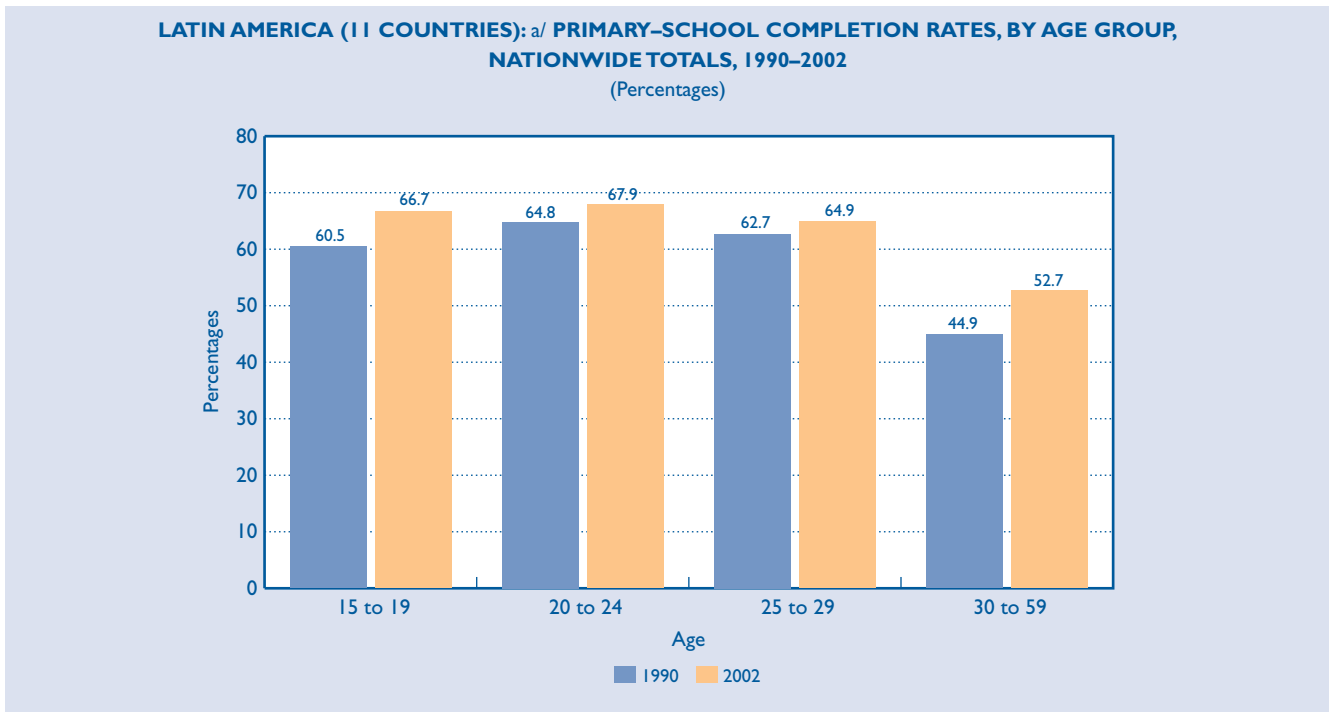
Over the last decade, Latin America has made progress in extending education coverage at all levels, although the situation varies considerably from one country to another. Among 15- to 29-year-olds, the primary-school completion rate increased from 62.6% to 66.7% (see figure III.1). The secondary-school completion rate, meanwhile, rose from 25.8% in the 1990s to 34.8% at the beginning of the current decade among 20- to 24-year-olds, and from 27.7% to 32.6% among 25- to 29-year-olds (see figure III.2). Between 1990 and 2002, the percentage of 25- to 29-year-olds who

completed tertiary education expanded from 4.4% to 6.5% (see figure III.3).¹

In half of the countries studied, over 80% of the under-30 population had attended primary school (the median was over 80%). In contrast, the median stood at 70% for adults in the 30-to-44 age bracket, and less than 50% for those over 45. This raises the question of what implications these differences might have for adult-youth relations, especially if one of the principles of authority is the transmission of knowledge from parent to child.

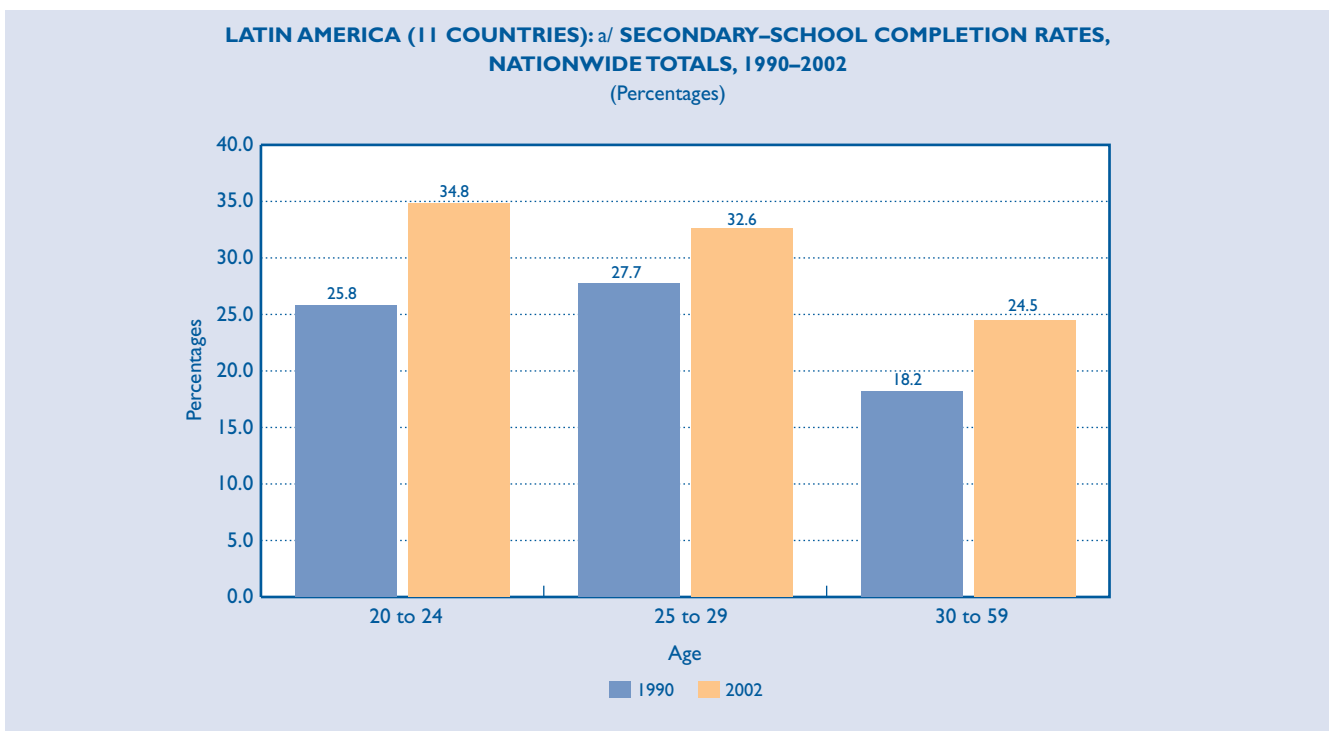
¹ Substantial progress is still required in terms of access to higher education, given its growing importance for increasing domestic productivity and external competitiveness and developing the knowledge society.

Figure III.1



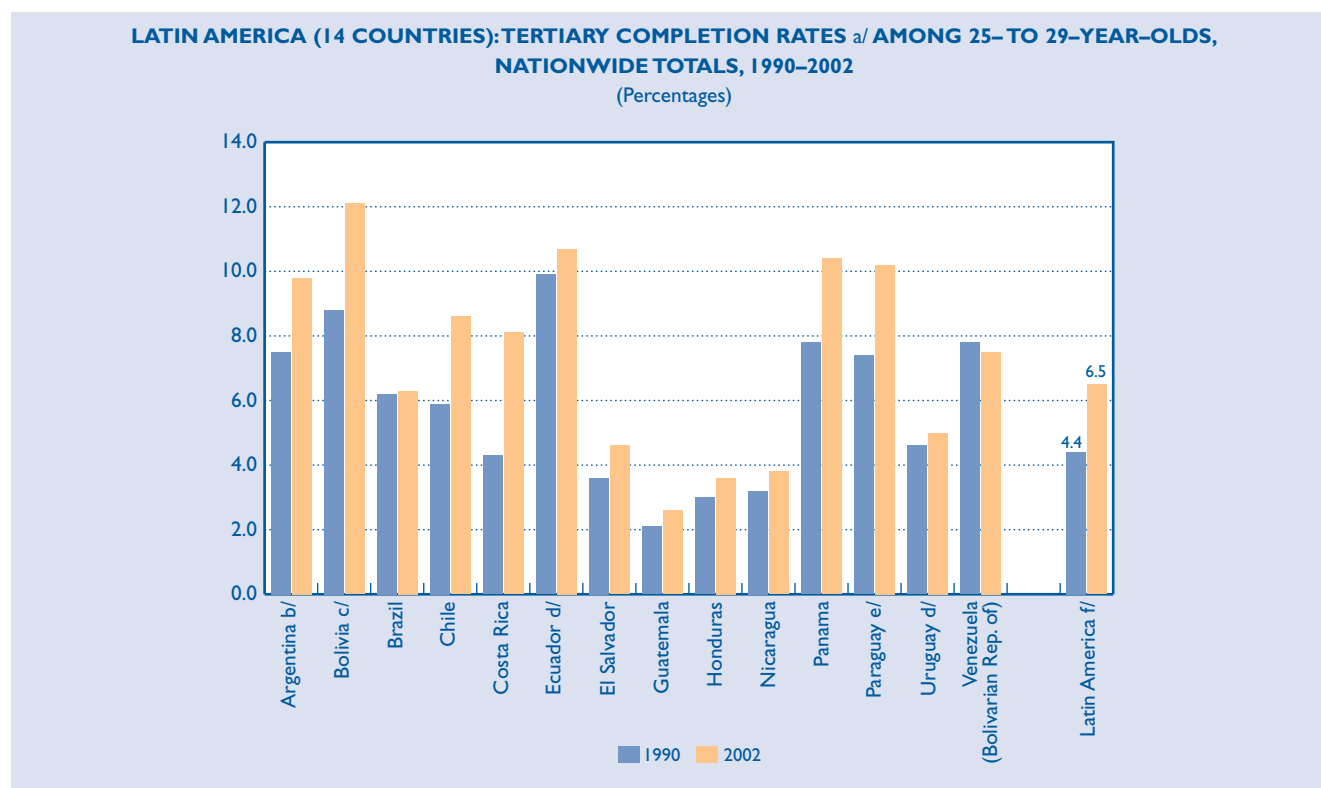
Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.
a/ Simple average.

Figure III.2



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

Figure III.3



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

^{a/} Population having completed a five-year higher education cycle; for Brazil, population having completed a four-year cycle.

^{b/} Greater Buenos Aires.

^{c/} Eight major cities plus El Alto.

^{d/} Urban total.

^{e/} Asunción and the Central Department.

^{f/} Simple average of 11 countries.

Although the progress made in educational achievement has led to equal rates of schooling between men and women, there has been no such reduction in disparities between young people in different income groups or geographical locations. Indeed, despite the significant expansion of education coverage in the region, secondary-school completion rates among young people in different social strata have remained highly unequal for the past 15 years. Currently, only about 20% of young people whose parents did not complete primary school manage to do so themselves. In contrast, this percentage is over 60% among children of parents with at least 10 years of schooling. This translates into a high degree of rigidity in the social structure, since the low educational level of many young people deprives them of their principal means of upward mobility and social inclusion.

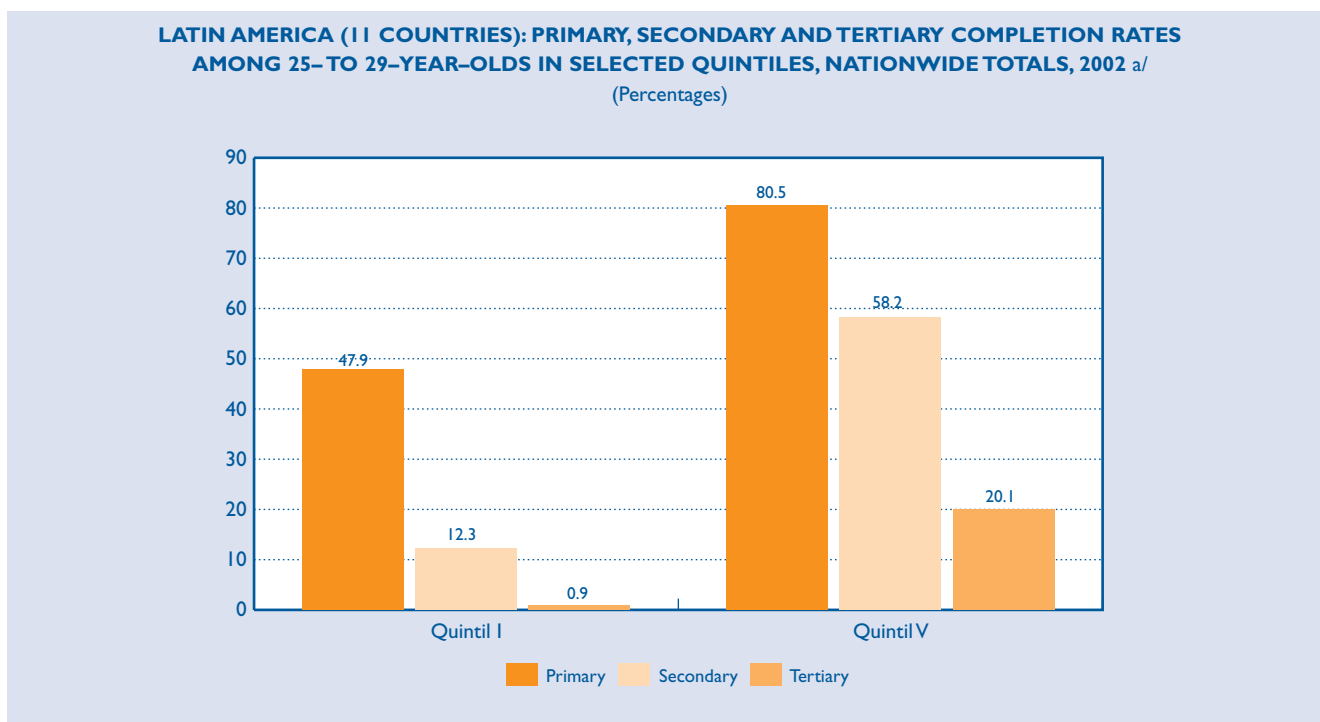
This observation is confirmed by the close correlation between the level of household income and educational achievement. Figure III.4 shows the contrasts in primary, secondary and tertiary educational achievement between the first and fifth per capita household income quintiles. In half the countries of the region, more than a fourth of all 25- to 29-year-olds in the poorest income quintile have not completed primary school. The situation is much worse with regard to secondary education, given that this cycle is completed by only 12.3% of the young people in this age group who belong to the poorest stratum.

School completion rates vary widely from one country to another. In 2002, 47.9% of all 25- to 29-year-olds in Latin America had completed basic education. In the countries with the highest levels of

achievement in all income strata, the poorest young people exceeded the region-wide average; in all the countries, young people from high-income households exceeded the average (since high-income groups in the different countries are more similar to each other than low-income groups). The exceptions are El Salvador and Guatemala, where even young people in the fifth quintile have a low level of educational achievement (less than 80%) (see figure III.5). In some countries, such as Brazil, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, primary-school educational achievement among young people in poor groups is lower than the average for Latin American youth as a whole.

Although the average secondary-school completion rate in Latin America is only 32.6% among 25- to 29-year-olds, the contrasts between different socio-economic groups are even more striking. In almost all the countries (the exceptions are Chile and Mexico), less than 30% of young people in the poorest quintile complete secondary education. The figure does not even reach 10% in some countries. Furthermore, over the past decade, the disparities between socio-economic groups have been highly resistant to change in the case of primary education, and have improved only slightly in the case of secondary education.

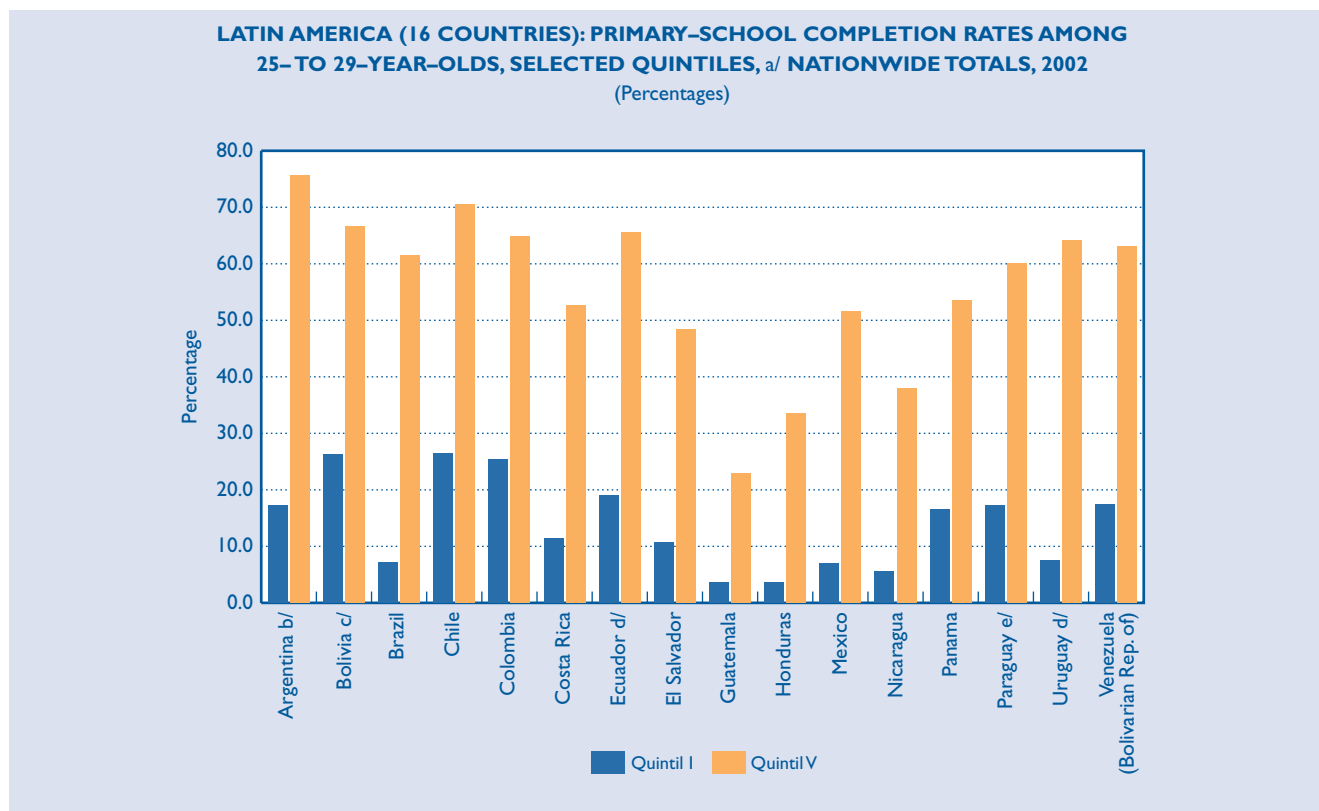
Figure III.4



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

a/ Simple averages for young people in the first and fifth per capita household income quintiles.

Figure III.5



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

a/ Young people in the first and fifth per capita household income quintiles.

b/ Greater Buenos Aires.

c/ Eight major cities plus El Alto.

d/ Urban total.

e/ Asunción and the Central Department.

Sharp disparities are also observed between rural and urban areas. Primary-school completion rates are considerably higher in urban areas than in rural ones. Among 15- to 29-year-olds, this rate is 86.2% in urban areas and only 56.6% in rural areas. This latter rate nonetheless indicates that the situation has clearly improved in recent decades, given that the primary-school completion rate for the over-30 population of rural areas is only 34.9%.

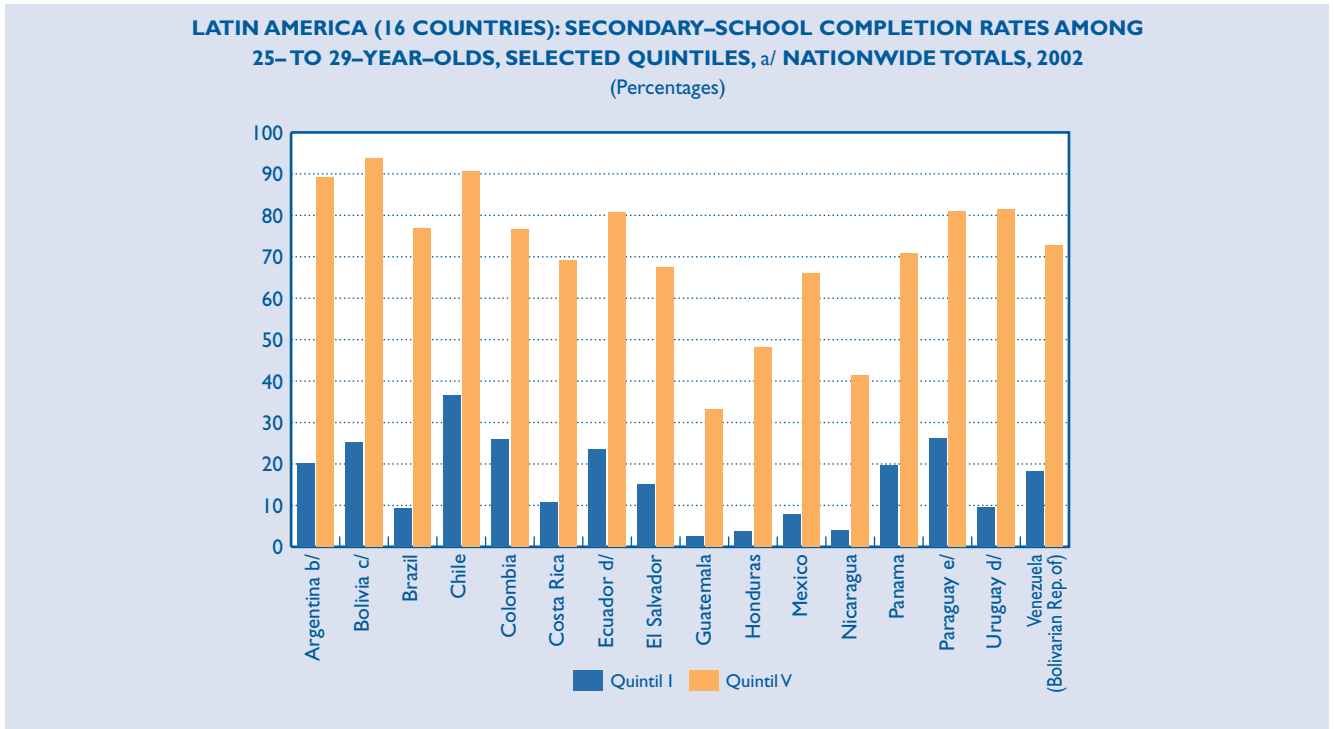
Achievement gaps are also seen at the secondary level, and are worsened by the fact that completion rates are very low in rural areas, at only 11.8% among 15- to 29-year-olds and 8.5% among 30- to 59-year-olds. As long as this gap persists, young people in rural areas are likely to continue to pin

their hopes of better social integration on migration to the city.

In summary, between 1990 and 2002 there was an overall increase in the level of education among young people, but educational achievement continued to be segmented according to income and geographical location.

In terms of employment, analyses have shown that young people's job situation tends to be characterized by high rates of unemployment and underemployment and that those who do manage to find work are often in precarious jobs marked by instability, low wages and low rates of social security coverage (Rodríguez and Dabezies (eds.), 1991).

Figure III.6



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

^{a/} Young people in the first and fifth per capita household income quintiles.

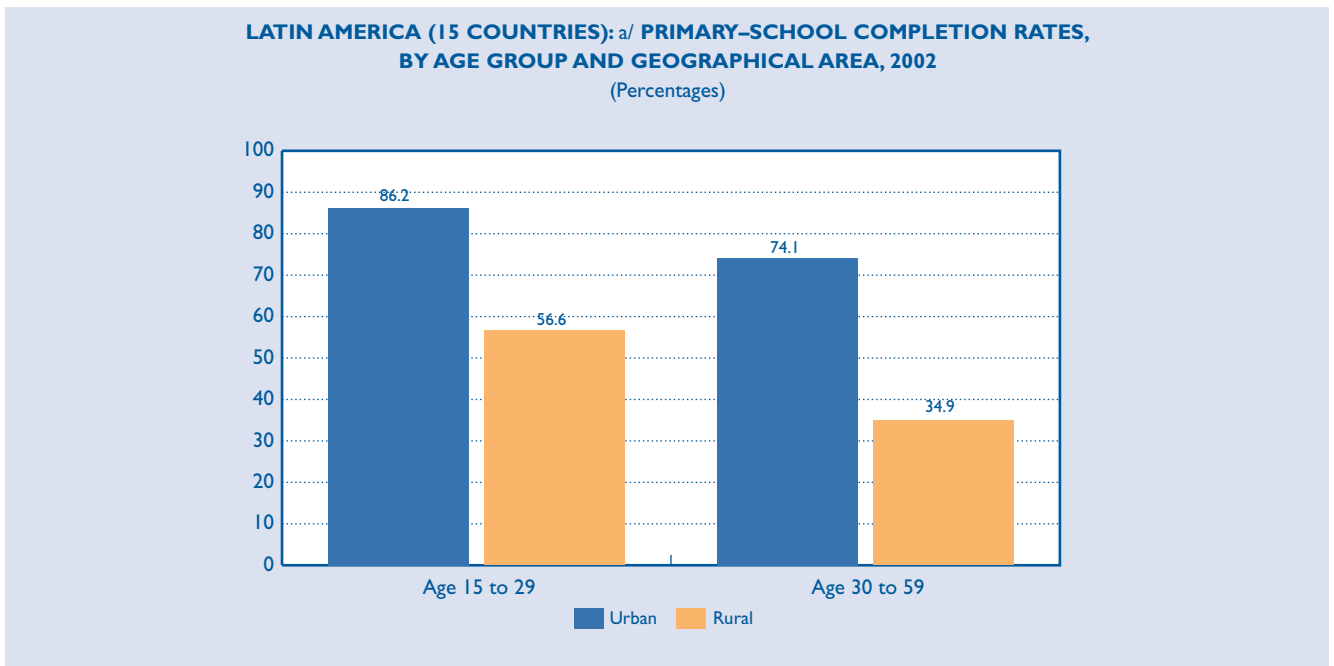
^{b/} Greater Buenos Aires.

^{c/} Eight major cities plus El Alto.

^{d/} Urban total.

^{e/} Asunción and the Central Department.

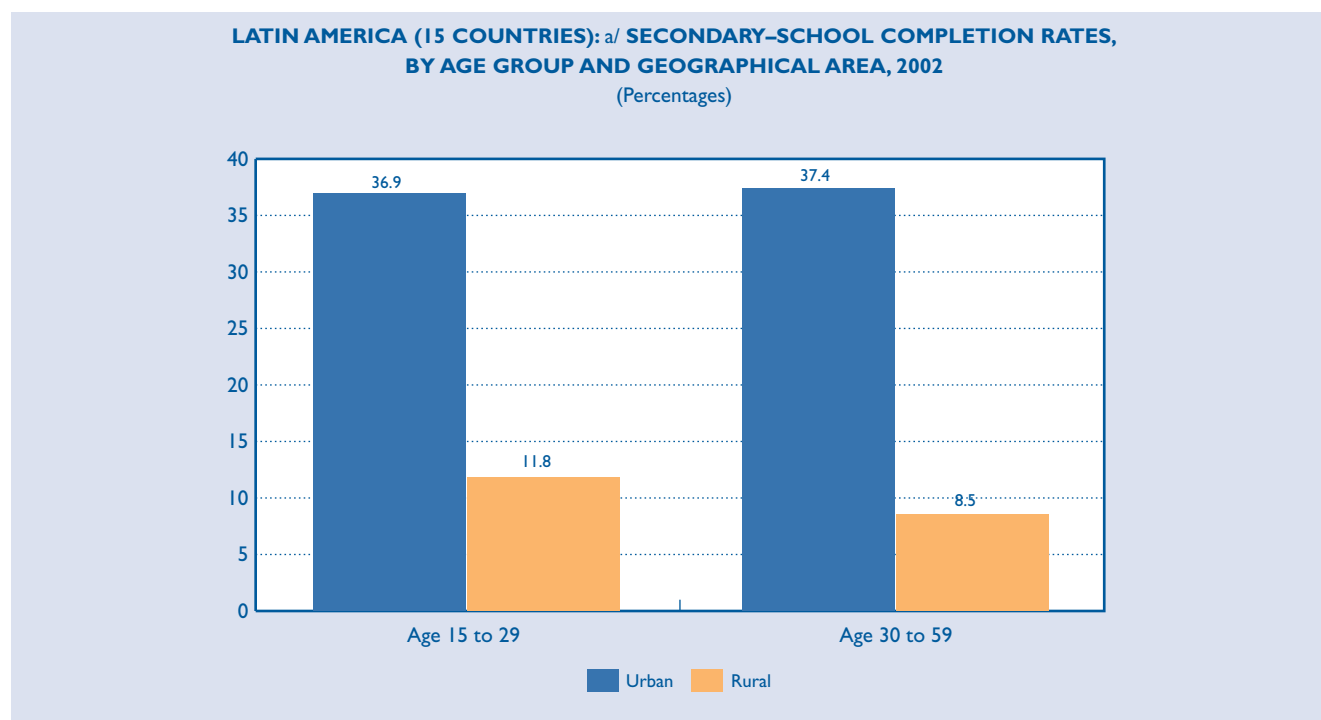
Figure III.7



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

^{a/} Simple average of urban areas in 15 countries and rural areas in 10 countries.

Figure III.8



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

a/ Simple average of urban areas in 15 countries and rural areas in 10 countries.

At the same time, recent studies on changes in labour demand have highlighted a bias towards more highly qualified workers as a result of technological changes and growing market competition, generated mainly by trade liberalization. In this context, an important role is being played by information and communication technologies (ICTs), to which new generations adapt more easily, having grown up with them. Another advantage for young people is their flexibility, which is more in tune with the new patterns of labour demand. Many adults, in contrast, attach more importance to employment stability as a result of their past expectations and the high costs of supporting a family.

Sectoral restructuring also seems to be at least partly beneficial for youth employment, given that some of the activities that generate the most jobs employ a high proportion of young people. Lastly, women account for a large share of the workforce in activities that require high or intermediate levels of qualification, meaning that these activities offer

women (particularly young women) easier access to the labour market. All these circumstances suggest that technological, organizational and sectoral changes will tend to benefit young people.

Between the early 1990s and the first few years of the current decade, however, the increase in employment was concentrated in the adult population, while the youth employment rate remained constant. This was the net result of a downturn in employment among young men and an upturn among women.

More recently, there has been an across-the-board increase in the share of low-productivity sectors within the occupational structure. This is a consequence of weak labour demand in higher-productivity sectors as a result of slow economic growth. The relative positions of the various age groups remained practically constant, as they all deteriorated to a similar degree (see table III.1).

Table III.1

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): PERCENTAGE OF PEOPLE EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS, BY AGE GROUP AND SEX, NATIONWIDE TOTALS, 1990–2002 (Simple averages)				
Age group	Sex	Year		Percentage variation
		1990	2002	1990–2002
15 to 19	Both sexes	63.3	69.1	9.2
	Men	59.7	67.3	12.8
	Women	68.6	72.0	5.1
20 to 24	Both sexes	46.8	49.4	5.5
	Men	45.3	48.5	6.9
	Women	48.6	50.5	4.0
25 to 29	Both sexes	42.7	45.1	5.7
	Men	41.2	43.7	5.9
	Women	44.1	46.9	6.2
30 to 64	Both sexes	48.9	51.7	5.7
	Men	45.2	48.2	6.7
	Women	54.9	56.6	3.2

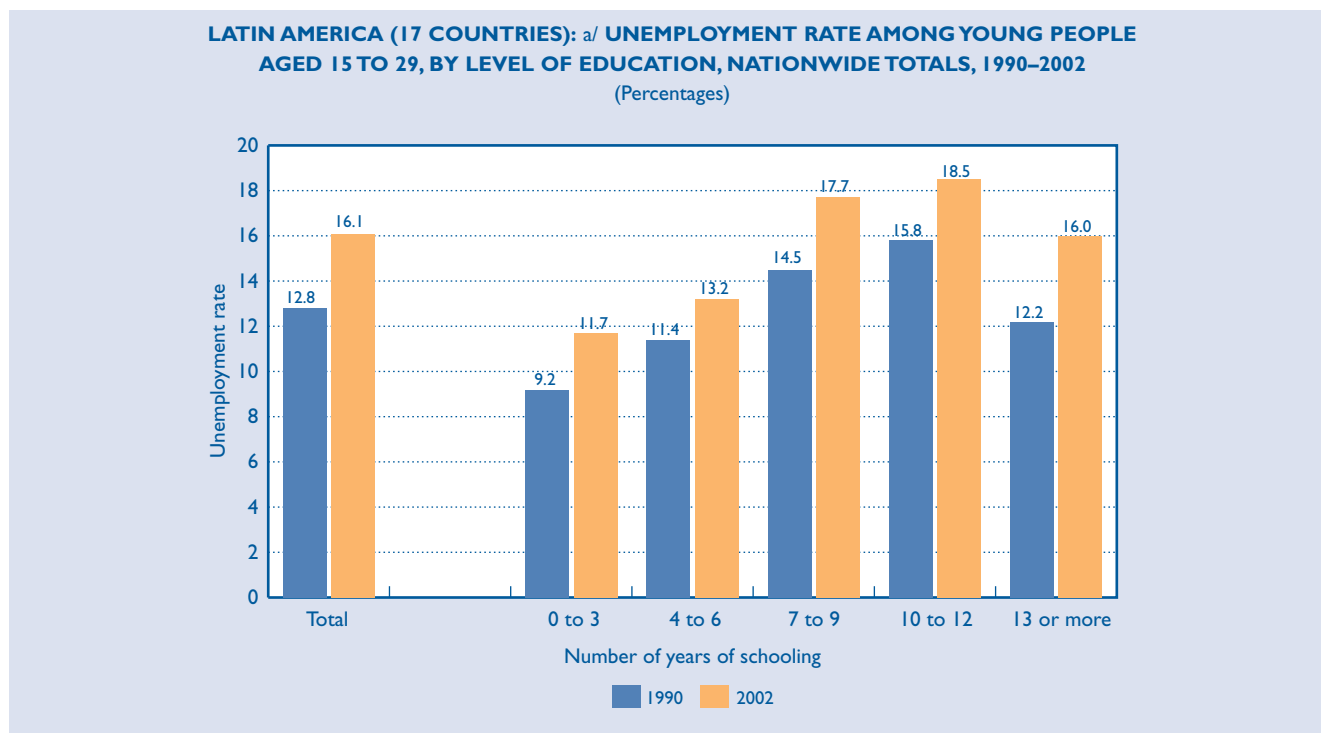
Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

The disadvantaged position of young people is most apparent in levels of unemployment. It is a well-known fact that the unemployment rate is higher among young people than among adults. This is mainly due to the high proportion of first-time job seekers among young people, the problems such job seekers have in entering the labour market and the fact that young people alternate more frequently between employment and unemployment or labour-market inactivity compared with adults (Weller, 2003). In Latin America, the unemployment rate among young people is more than double the adult rate (15.7% compared with 6.7% at the beginning of the decade), and the gap between young people and adults is the same for men and women. In the more recent period, unemployment rose in all groups, especially among adults, thereby narrowing the gap with young people.² Among young people, the unemployment rate was almost one and a half times higher among women than among men, with no major changes in the more recent period (see below).

The typical unemployment curve for different levels of education is the "inverted U", in which groups with the lowest and highest levels of education have lower rates of unemployment than those with intermediate levels of education (see figure III.9). The explanation seems to lie in the fact that undereducated young people do not tend to have many employment options and therefore have few expectations beyond certain low-productivity, low-income occupations, while they also have an urgent need to generate income for their family situation. At the other extreme, a better education facilitates access to employment. Then there are the young people with intermediate levels of education (7 to 9 years or 10 to 12 years of formal education), who usually expect their academic efforts to gain them access to better jobs, yet in a context where the overall level of education has increased and competition has intensified for those jobs available.

² For the 17 countries with comparable data for the more recent period, unemployment increased from 12.8% to 16.1% among young people, and from 4.8% to 7.0% among adults. This means that youth unemployment was 170% higher than the adult figure at the beginning of the 1990s, and 130% higher ten years later.

Figure III.9



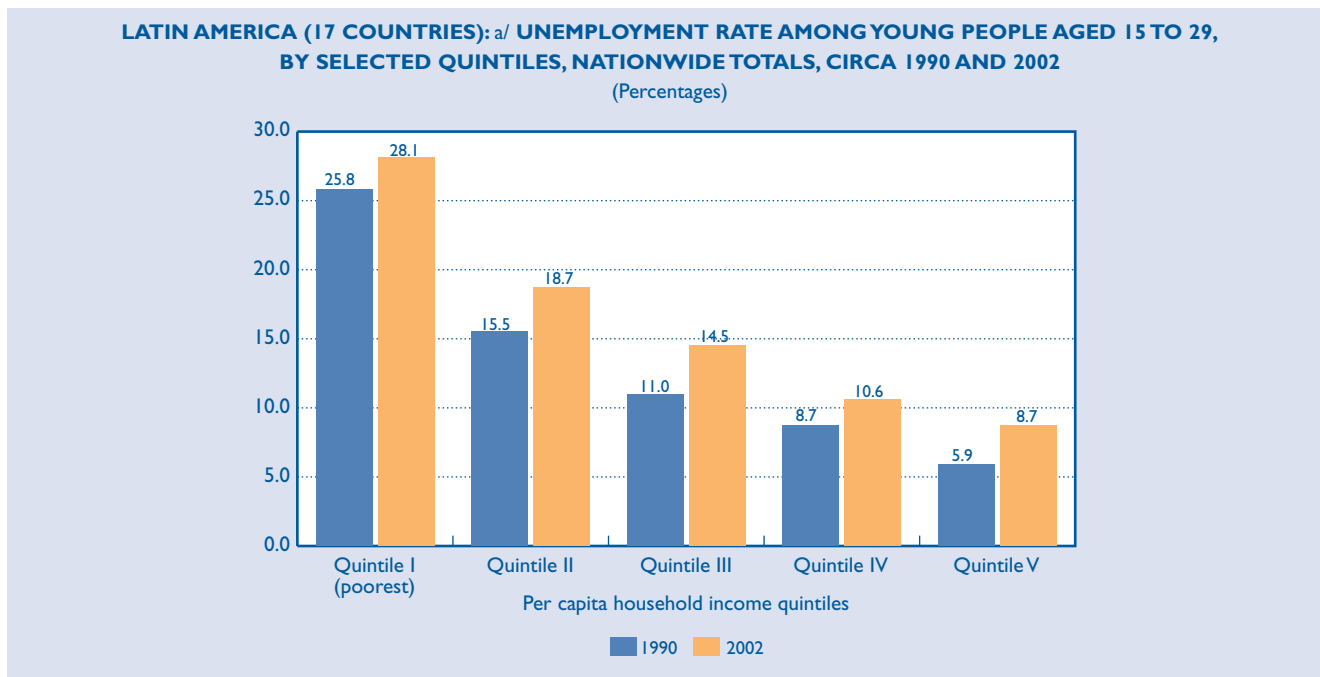
Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

a/ Simple average of 15 and 10 countries in urban and rural areas, respectively.

There are clearly significant inequalities between young people of different groups. Around 2002, average regional unemployment among young people in the richest quintile was 8.7%, compared with 28.1% in the poorest quintile (see figure III.10). Although it is apparent that young people are more educated but have fewer employment opportunities than adults, it is also obvious that there is considerable segmentation in the relationship between family income and youth employment options, to the evident detriment of young people from low-income households. This reinforces the idea that young people with low incomes are condemned to reproduce poverty from one generation to another.

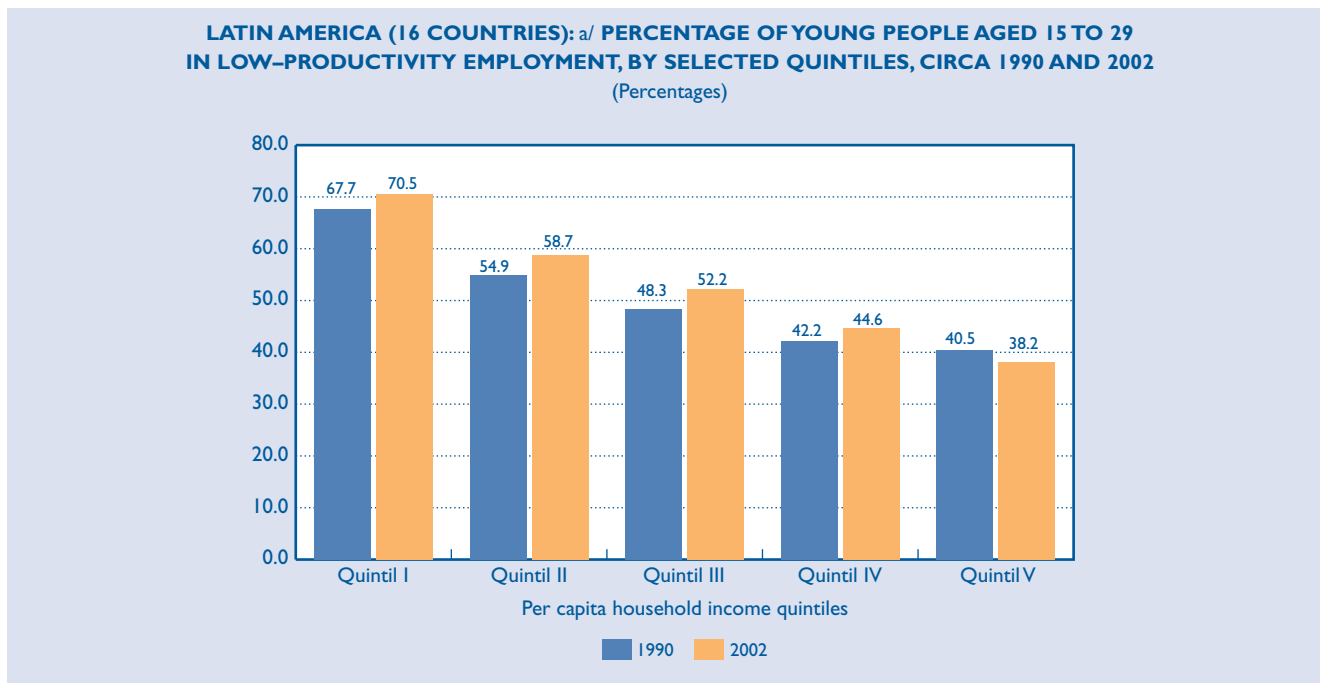
As is to be expected, there is a clear positive correlation between the proportion of low-productivity sectors in the employment status of young people and the level of household income. This correlation increased in the more recent period, during which the richest quintile was the only one to register a fall in the proportion of low-productivity sectors among young people. The gap between the poorest and richest quintile therefore widened to 32 percentage points. It appears that young people from the most well-off households were the ones to benefit from the modernization of the employment and production structures carried out in Latin America during the 1990s (see figure III.11).

Figure III.10



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

Figure III.11



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

Lastly, and in contrast with the above, the wage gap between young people and adults has tended to increase in proportion with the level of education. This is partly because experience (considered the second most important element in relative wages) is more relevant for skilled labour, which offers more opportunities to develop additional skills than the simplest occupations. This being the case, it is surprising that the more recent period has seen a narrowing of the wage gap between young people and adults with low and intermediate levels of education, and a widening of the gap between young people and adults with the highest levels of education, both among young men and women. This is striking because it contradicts the widely accepted

theory that the recent dramatic technological changes have given competitive advantages to many young people with the skills that cannot be as easily acquired by adults who were trained with other, now partially obsolete, technologies.

In summary, although the young population is extremely heterogeneous in terms of the relationship between education and employment by sex, household income and geographical location, there is also a paradox (in aggregate terms) insofar as young people have higher levels of education but fewer employment opportunities than adults. This applies to levels of unemployment as well as to wages.

B. YOUNG WOMEN ARE MORE EDUCATED THAN YOUNG MEN, BUT HAVE LESS ACCESS TO EMPLOYMENT AND INFERIOR EMPLOYMENT CONDITIONS

A second paradox is that, although young women have superior educational achievements in almost all levels (primary, secondary, higher) and have increased their participation in the labour market, they nonetheless find it more difficult to find employment. Furthermore, their wages are lower than those of young men, especially in the light of professional experience. Together with women's continued responsibility for female family roles and domestic reproduction activities, this is out of step with their current productive capacities, hampers the use of those capacities and pushes them into more precarious employment.

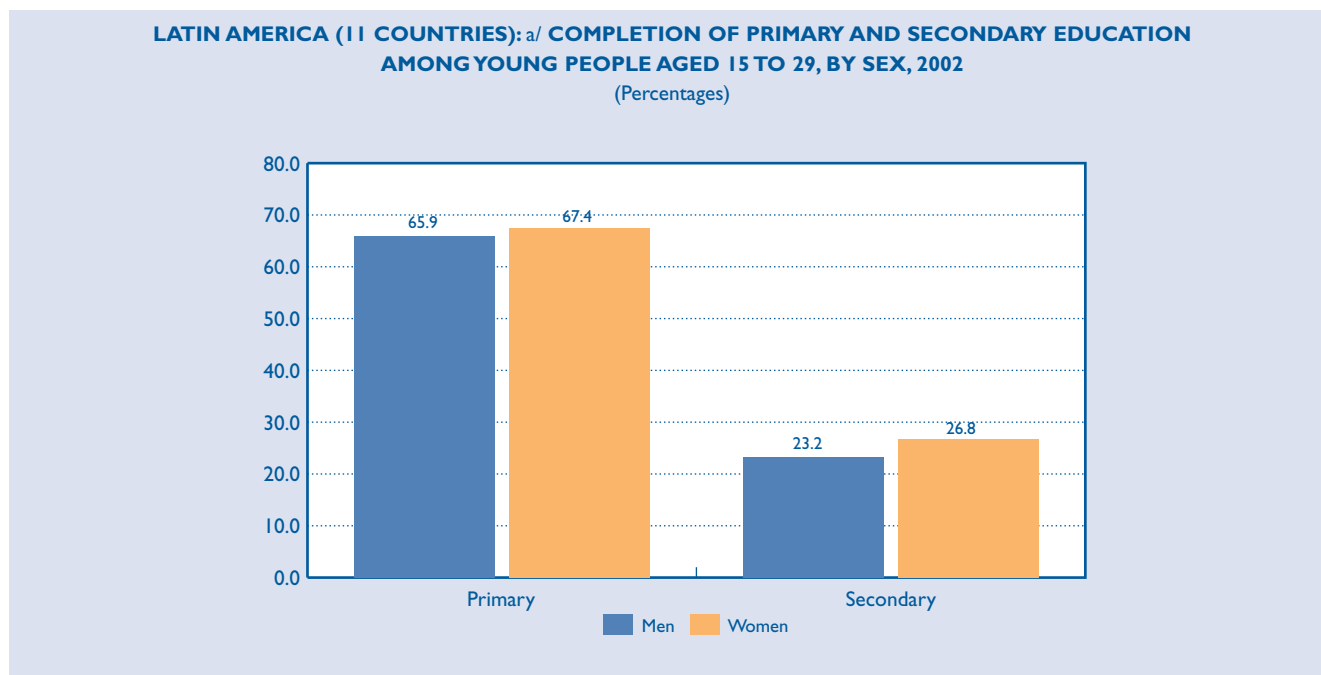
Except for specific population groups in rural areas, women tend to outperform men in educational achievement at primary and secondary level (see figure III.12). Despite differences in the gender ratio in higher education, there is an upward trend among women, which means that they outstrip men's achievements in many of the region's countries (see figure III.13).

The same correlation is not, however, repeated in employment. During the previous decade, the constant increase in the labour participation rate among young women resulted in a clear rise in the

female employment rate (compared with male employment) at almost all levels of education within the young economically active population.³ Among those with 13 or more years of formal education, the male and female employment rates remained the same (around 60.2% for men and 51.5% for women between 1990 and 2002). Among those with less than 13 years of formal education, the female employment rate trended upwards and male employment dropped sharply (see table III.2). This shows that the options of productive employment for the most educated women remain inflexible.

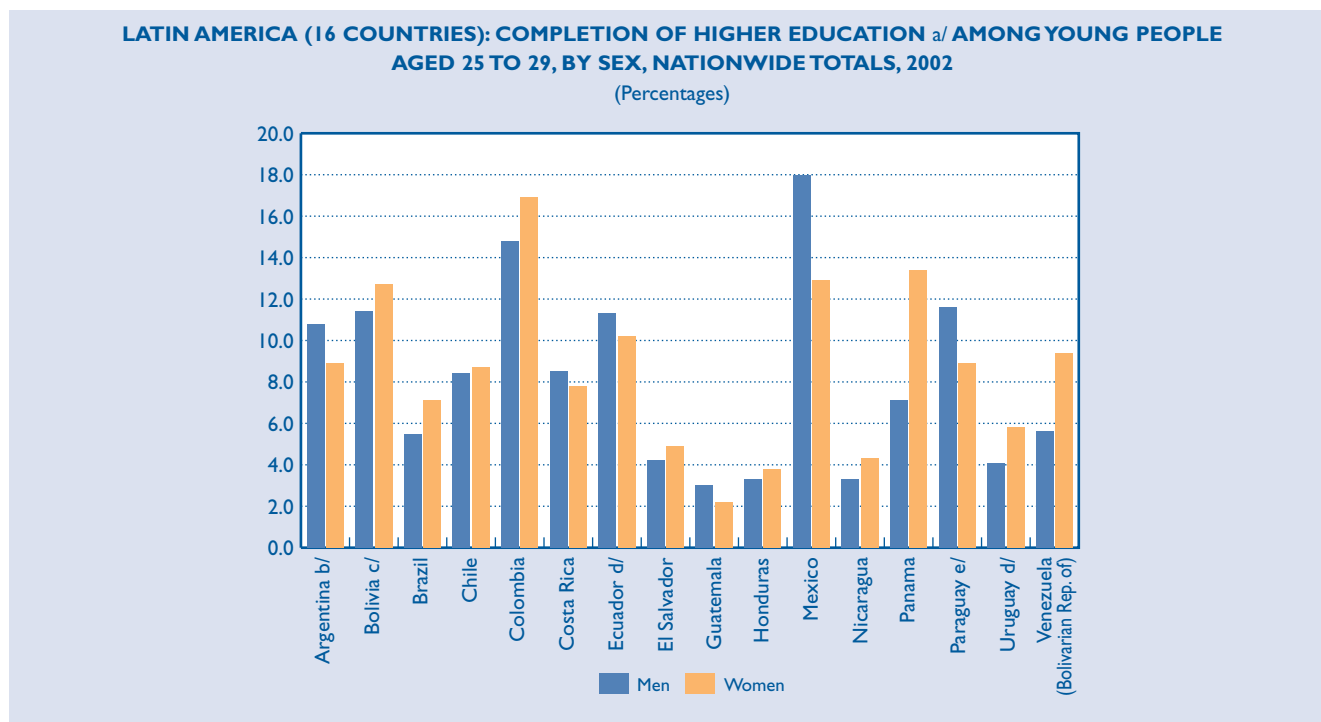
³ See ECLAC/OIJ (2004) for a more exhaustive analysis.

Figure III.12



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

Figure III.13



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.
a/ People who completed a cycle of more than five years, with the exception of Brazil, where the reference was four years.
b/ Greater Buenos Aires.
c/ Eight major cities plus El Alto.
d/ Urban total.
e/ Asunción and the Central Department.

Table III.2

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): a/ EMPLOYMENT RATE OF YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 29, BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION AND SEX, NATIONWIDE TOTALS, 1990–2002 (Percentages and rates of variation)									
Numbers of years of schooling	Year						Percentage variation 1990–2002		
	1990			2002			Both sexes	Men	Women
	Both sexes	Men	Women	Both sexes	Men	Women			
0 to 3 years	52.6	76.5	29.4	54.4	76.2	30.5	3.5	-0.3	3.5
4 to 6 years	55.9	77.2	34.4	56.8	76.8	35.1	1.6	-0.6	1.9
7 to 9 years	41.5	56.4	27.1	42.5	55.8	28.5	2.5	-0.9	5.2
10 to 12 years	48.2	59.9	38.2	47.5	57.8	38.4	-1.5	-3.4	0.5
13 years and over	55.6	60.2	51.6	55.4	60.2	51.5	-0.3	0.1	-0.3
Total	49.5	66.6	33.5	50.4	64.7	36.4	1.8	-2.9	8.7

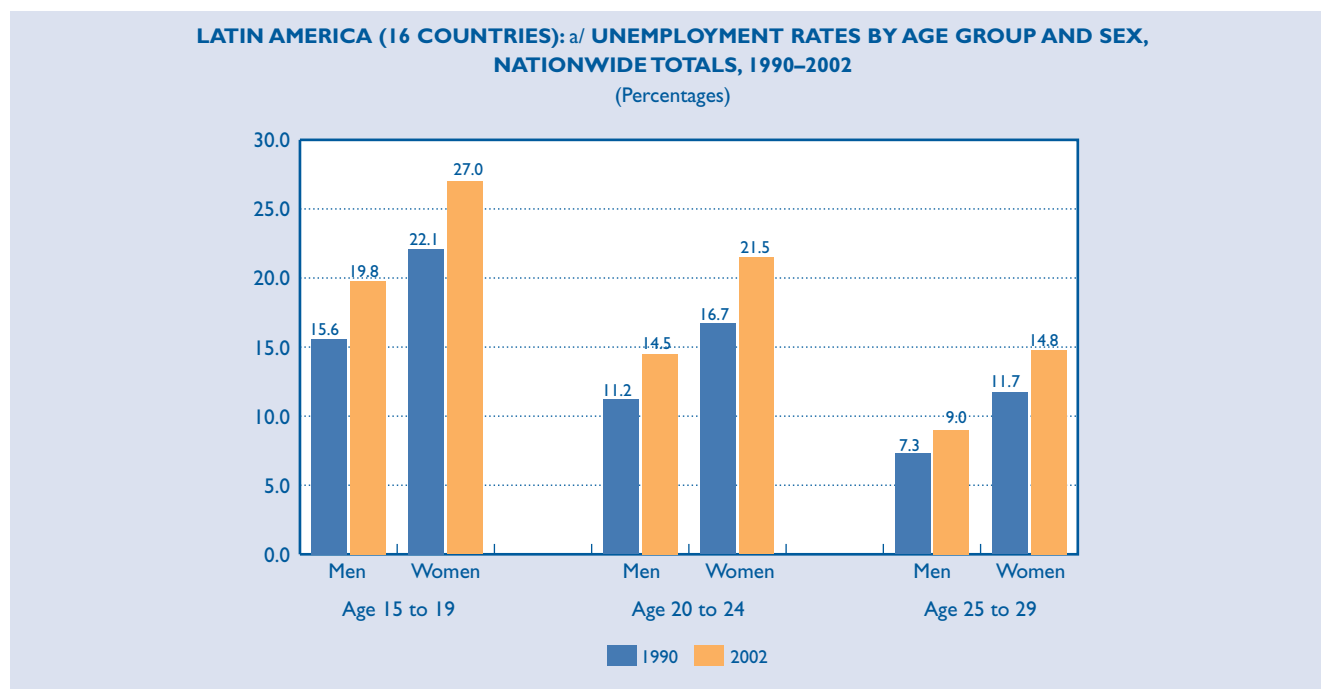
Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

a/ Simple average.

The increase in the overall female employment rate has, however, been accompanied by a hike in unemployment among young women. Also, female unemployment exceeds male unemployment among young people and adults. This is in contrast to the overall increase in unemployment that mainly

affected the adult population, thereby narrowing the gap between adults and young people. Despite this, the unemployment rate among young women rose more quickly than among young men, which widened the unemployment gap even further (see figure III.14).

Figure III.14



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special processing of census microdata databases.

a/ Simple average.

In addition to the considerable income gap between young people and adults, the recent period has also seen a significant fall in the income of young women in relation to female adults (in contrast to the figures in relation to men and the aggregate). This could be due to the sharp rise in young women entering the labour market, i.e., a relative depreciation in the cost of young female labour owing to a sudden increase in supply. Given that the labour participation of adult women grew even more, other explanations include a higher premium for their work experience, longer working lives or a decline in gender-based wage discrimination.

There is a large income gap between young women and men, both overall and between different levels of education. The gap widens in proportion with age, given that women's income in 2002 was 87% of the average income among 15 to 19 year olds, 81% among those aged 20 to 24 and 76% among those between 25 and 29 years of age. This is another demonstration that longer experience is not as highly rewarded among women as it is among men.

An interesting observation is that, while the literature (such as ECLAC, 2001) shows that the gender-based income gap tends to be wider among those with high levels of education than those with low or intermediate levels, this does not apply to young people. Indeed, the income gap between young men and women with the highest level of education and those with other levels is the narrowest in all three youth age subgroups. This could mean that the relative income of highly educated young women suffers the greatest subsequent decline, with highly educated men receiving high premiums for their experience, while the rewards for women's work experience grow less as a result of career breaks (to have children) and wage discrimination.

An alternative or complementary theory is that there is less discrimination against the most educated young women, who are increasingly able to defend their rights to be paid as much as similarly qualified men. This hypothesis seems to be confirmed by the fact that the most educated young women aged 20 to 29 were able to reduce the income gap with their male counterparts, whereas the prevailing pattern among those with other levels of education was the opposite: a wider gap with no signs of decreasing discrimination.

Information available on young people's economic activity and its effect on households in Latin America for 2002 shows that the main difference by sex among young people is related to domestic chores. Around a quarter of young women aged 15 to 29 carry out household chores (25.6%), compared with only 2% of men. This means that a significant number of young women carry out domestic work that is essential to the functioning of their own homes or households of origin. This family work limits the employment possibilities of young women, given that fewer young women work, or work and study, than their male counterparts.

It should also be noted that, in a short space of time (1999–2002), the percentage of young women devoted exclusively to domestic work dropped considerably (see table III.3). In summary, although women now participate more in employment and education, the distribution of domestic work remains somewhat rigid. This suggests that changes in women's family and productive roles are not keeping pace with changes in terms of their access to knowledge and human capital.

Table III.3

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): a/ ACTIVITY OF ALL YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 29 AND OF ALL YOUNG HEADS OF HOUSEHOLD, BY SEX, NATIONWIDE TOTALS, 1999–2002 (Percentages)							
		Activity					Total
		Work and study	Work only	Study only	Neither working nor studying	Domestic chores	
Total	1999	40.2	7.7	22.8	11.7	17.6	100
	2002	40.5	9.3	23.2	13.2	13.8	100
Men	1999	53.8	9.2	21.6	12.1	3.3	100
	2002	52.7	10.9	22.2	12.3	1.9	100
Women	1999	27.0	6.3	24.1	11.3	31.4	100
	2002	28.3	7.8	24.3	14.1	25.6	100
Total heads	1999	78.4	5.7	3.7	5.3	6.9	100
	2002	79.7	6.6	3.6	6.6	3.5	100
Male heads	1999	84.4	5.1	2.5	4.5	3.6	100
	2002	85.9	5.9	2.2	5.6	0.3	100
Female heads	1999	51.2	8.3	9.0	9.1	22.5	100
	2002	53.5	9.4	9.3	10.9	16.9	100

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

a/ Simple average.

C. YOUNG PEOPLE ENJOY BETTER HEALTH THAN OTHER AGE GROUPS, BUT HEALTH CARE IS LESS ADAPTED TO THEIR SPECIFIC MORBIMORTALITY

Over the last 50 years, youth mortality has dropped dramatically thanks to the progress of medical science and the broader coverage of health care and other basic services. The regional youth mortality rate now stands at 134 per 100,000 inhabitants. External factors are the main cause of death among young people today, particularly murder, which mostly affects men. However, given that these causes are not recognized as "health problems" as such, they are not considered in the context of prevention-based health policies for young people, who therefore lack an institutional response to their specific risks.

The probabilities of serious illness or death from endogenous causes are clearly very low among young people. The current average mortality rate for Latin American young people aged 15 to 24 (134 in 100,000) is slightly over half the rate for the 25 to 44 age group (see table III.4). Furthermore, youth mortality in the region has fallen considerably in the last 50 years as part of an overall decrease in mortality. This is due to medical progress, the broadening of health care and other basic services and the individual's increased capacity to prevent and deal with illness (ECLAC, 2000c).

Regional figures for the probability of death among those aged 10 to 29 suggest that Latin America is a relatively safe place for young people. There is a strong physiological element underlying the low youth mortality rates, since young people are unlikely to develop serious endogenous pathologies

and their bodies cope well with exogenous microbial agents. This means that almost all youth mortality is preventable.

As a result, the proportion of young people who die from external causes is much higher and, in some countries, violence substantially increases youth mortality. In Colombia, the proportion of deaths among young people of both sexes is almost the same as among 25 to 44 year olds, whereas the gap between these age groups in other countries is wider. This is due to high mortality among young Colombian males resulting from the violence and armed conflict affecting large areas of the country. In the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Brazil and El Salvador youth mortality also exceeds 150 per 100,000 inhabitants, mainly due to external causes of death.

Table III.4

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): GLOBAL MORTALITY RATES, BY AGE GROUP AND SEX, CIRCA 2000 (Estimated rates per 100,000 inhabitants)									
Country	Young people aged 15 to 24			Adults aged 25 to 44			Adults aged 45 and above		
	Both sexes	Women	Men	Both sexes	Women	Men	Both sexes	Women	Men
Argentina (1997)	73	48	97	169	124	216	1 320	1 163	1 494
Brazil (1998)	153	76	230	321	188	458	1 080	889	1 284
Chile (1999)	74	36	111	156	93	218	935	858	1 018
Colombia (1998)	212	83	338	285	146	433	908	776	1 051
Costa Rica (2001)	66	34	97	128	78	176	691	612	771
Ecuador (2000)	119	97	141	239	181	298	851	757	948
El Salvador (1999)	164	122	206	348	250	458	1 047	914	1 198
Mexico (2000)	101	53	149	210	120	306	793	674	923
Nicaragua (2000)	148	100	197	283	203	367	788	701	883
Panama (2000)	87	53	119	155	114	196	815	704	928
Peru (2000)	112	78	145	228	178	280	903	811	1 002
Dominican Rep. (1998)	104	82	125	210	173	245	787	697	874
Uruguay (2000)	85	44	124	154	107	202	1 464	1 284	1 670
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of) (2000)	171	59	280	230	120	339	748	612	887
Latin America and the Caribbean a/	134	68	198	259	155	365	977	830	1 135

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information from the Pan American Health Organization (PAHO), "Health Statistics from the Americas. 2003 Edition" [on line].

a/ Although PAHO has information on more countries of the region, this table includes only the 14 that had populations of more than 500,000 in 2003.

External factors are undoubtedly the most common cause of death, in both absolute and relative terms, among young people of both sexes in the region. However, these causes are relatively more common among young men: out of every 100 male deaths, 77 are attributable to violence or injury. Among young women, 38 out of every 100 deaths are the result of these causes and 62 are the result of morbidity, although there is no single region-wide mortality profile by cause. In countries such as the

Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Brazil, Colombia, El Salvador and Nicaragua, death by external causes exceeds the regional average and represents between 71% and 90% of deaths among young males (see table III.5). In Colombia, 62.5% of the men who die between the ages of 15 and 24 are murder victims. The figure is 38.3% in the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, 46.1% in El Salvador and 42.0% in Brazil.

Table III.5

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MORTALITY BY CAUSE AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 24, BY SEX, CIRCA 2000 (Percentages of total deaths)										
Country	Sex	All causes a/	Transmissible diseases		Genetic degenerative diseases		Other internal causes	External causes		
			All transmissible diseases b/	HIV/AIDS	Tumours c/	Circulatory system d/	Pregnancy, birth and puerperium	All external causes e/	Murder	Suicide
Argentina (1997)	Female	100.0	12.8	4.0	13.2	8.8	4.8	41.0	2.7	6.9
	Male	100.0	6.9	3.2	7.0	5.3	–	72.0	10.2	6.5
Brazil (1998)	Female	100.0	14.6	3.7	8.9	10.6	7.9	37.7	11.2	3.7
	Male	100.0	6.4	1.9	4.0	4.4	–	78.3	42.0	3.1
Chile (1999)	Female	100.0	9.1	0.5	18.4	5.5	3.3	39.8	1.9	8.0
	Male	100.0	4.2	1.4	9.6	2.1	–	73.6	6.9	11.3
Colombia (1998)	Female	100.0	9.1	1.4	8.2	7.4	10.0	51.1	20.9	9.5
	Male	100.0	3.0	0.8	3.0	2.1	–	89.5	62.5	4.2
Costa Rica (2001)	Female	100.0	5.5	0.0	20.6	9.9	3.2	28.8	9.3	7.0
	Male	100.0	2.4	0.5	9.7	3.2	–	73.0	12.7	8.5
Ecuador (2000)	Female	100.0	16.9	0.6	9.8	11.1	8.7	30.0	4.8	7.7
	Male	100.0	11.8	1.5	4.9	7.6	–	64.6	24.8	5.8
El Salvador (1999)	Female	100.0	10.9	1.6	8.3	8.9	2.1	43.5	10.6	20.0
	Male	100.0	7.7	2.4	2.7	3.3	–	75.5	46.1	7.1
Mexico (2000)	Female	100.0	10.0	1.9	12.1	7.2	8.9	31.9	5.8	4.7
	Male	100.0	6.2	2.5	7.2	3.6	–	69.5	18.1	7.0
Nicaragua (2000)	Female	100.0	11.5	1.1	6.6	5.6	12.8	41.4	5.5	22.9
	Male	100.0	5.6	0.5	7.6	3.6	–	71.2	17.9	16.8
Panama (2000)	Female	100.0	24.0	12.0	12.0	1.7	8.8	29.8	2.8	5.6
	Male	100.0	10.0	5.8	5.7	2.1	–	69.8	26.8	6.6
Peru (2000)	Female	100.0	21.5	2.1	9.4	8.1	6.4	28.8	1.2	3.3
	Male	100.0	18.8	3.8	9.6	5.8	–	45.6	3.2	1.9
Dominican Republic	Female	100.0	25.7	14.9	7.3	12.8	6.6	27.4	3.8	2.6
	Male	100.0	10.7	3.1	3.1	7.0	–	69.7	17.0	2.1
Uruguay (2000)	Female	100.0	7.2	3.2	15.6	10.4	12.2	42.5	7.2	11.5
	Male	100.0	5.4	2.0	6.8	3.4	–	73.9	9.8	19.0
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of) (2000)	Female	100.0	8.5	1.5	11.3	8.2	7.8	43.5	10.1	4.4
	Male	100.0	3.3	1.4	3.3	2.0	–	85.8	38.3	3.9
Latin America and the Caribbean (14 countries) f/	Female	100.0	13.3	2.9	9.9	9.1	7.9	37.6	9.4	5.7
	Male	100.0	6.3	1.9	4.9	3.8	–	76.8	36.3	4.6

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information from the Pan American Health Organization (PAHO), "Health Statistics from the Americas. 2003 Edition" [on line].

a/ Not all diseases and groups of diseases correspond 100% to the cause of death, as some that were less significant for this age group were not included, such as diseases of the nervous system and digestive system.

b/ Includes infectious intestinal diseases, tuberculosis, septicaemia (except neonatal), meningitis, HIV/AIDS and acute respiratory infections.

c/ Includes malignant neoplasms of the stomach, colon, rectum and anus; trachea, bronchi and lungs; breast, uterus and placenta in women and prostate in men; and lymphatic and haematopoietic system.

d/ Includes hypertensive and ischemic heart disease, diseases of pulmonary circulation and other forms of heart disease.

e/ Also includes events of undetermined intent, drowning and accidental threats to breathing and other causes of violent death.

f/ Although PAHO has information on more countries of the region, this table only includes the 14 that had populations of more than 500,000 in 2003.

An analysis of youth mortality by sex shows an overwhelming predominance of men in the case of violent deaths, in which they represent almost 86% of a total of nearly 78,700 deaths (circa 2000). As far as internal causes of youth mortality in Latin America are concerned, communicable diseases and genetic degenerative diseases account for just over 40% of female mortality and slightly less than 60% of deaths among men. In 14 Latin American countries, nearly twice as many young men as women died from HIV/AIDS at the end of the 1990s (873 female deaths compared with 1,675 deaths among men). All of the above reinforces the evidence that female youth mortality is much lower than the rate among young men.

Although the incidence of HIV/AIDS on youth mortality in Latin America (2.9 in 100,000) is lower than the figure for adults aged 25 to 44 (16.9 in 100,000), it is nonetheless alarming because young people are just beginning their sexual and reproductive lives. What is even more worrying is that, for every case of full-blown AIDS, there are estimated to be between five and seven HIV-positive individuals. In the Dominican Republic and Panama, the mortality rates for HIV/AIDS are more than double the average (7.9 and 6.6 in 100,000, respectively). This reflects the urgent need to boost prevention and awareness-raising campaigns to encourage the use of condoms and other safe sex measures. This would have the two-fold effect of reducing the spread of HIV/AIDS and preventing teenage pregnancies, two key issues among young people of both sexes. The following information from the Demographic Health Survey (DHS), which monitors changes in behaviour towards HIV/AIDS, shows it is vital to step up campaigns through various media: although 70% to 73% of the population has information on the virus and how it is transmitted, a much lower percentage is actually adopting effective measures of prevention.

A recurrent paradox in the context of youth health is that, given that young people are unlikely to fall ill or die from endogenous causes (disease), little attention is paid to their specific morbimortality, which is mainly due to external causes. Although certain causes of youth morbidity or mortality associated with risk behaviour (negligent injury, accidental/intentional violence or sexually transmitted diseases) could be dealt with as part of efforts to increase prevention, the fact that they are not recognized as "health problems" per se means they are not considered a mainstay of health policies targeted at young people.

Youth health policies tend to be more effective in terms of prevention, given that young people's health problems are associated with risk behaviour in the context of sexuality (pregnancy and sexually transmitted diseases), drug consumption and traumatic events (accidents or violence). Prevention requires a mobilization of public opinion and a raising of awareness. Latin America has its own success stories in this area, particularly in the form of awareness-raising campaigns in which young people themselves are involved as a way of increasing youth participation (Rodríguez, E., 2002). Special mention should be made of AIDS-prevention campaigns in which young people participate in information dissemination, education and awareness raising, with outcomes that are both positive and significant.

Young people, who have good internal health but are highly exposed in the outside world, find their specific risks uncatered for by preventive and other health services, and are caught between their intrinsic good health and limited coverage for their specific health risks. The fact that young people's health problems involve accidents, violence, drug offences, unwanted pregnancy and sexually transmitted diseases means that they are stigmatized in society and tend to be overlooked by the health system.

D. DESPITE A SHARP DECLINE IN FERTILITY RATES AMONG YOUNG WOMEN, EARLY MOTHERHOOD REMAINS COMMON

The considerable fall in youth fertility is part of a continued decrease in reproductive indices in the region. Current population projections and estimates for Latin America and the Caribbean suggest that, over the last 15 years, total and youth fertility have continued to drop, with the sole exception of teenage fertility, which has increased.⁴

In 1987, women averaged 2.2 live births by the age of 30, but today the average is 1.7 live births by that age. In almost all countries, the average number of children born by age 30 has decreased, considerably in some cases. Of course, there are still significant disparities between countries: in the poorest countries with the highest fertility rates –Bolivia, Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua– women end their twenties with an average of 2.5 children or more, while in more socially and economically advanced countries (Chile, Uruguay), the figure is 1.5 children or fewer.

It is paradoxical, however, because young people have fewer children (on average) than before, yet a higher percentage of total children are born to young parents. This is because fertility among adults declined more sharply than among young people. Hence lower youth fertility is accompanied by a higher concentration of reproduction in youth (see table III.6).

A breakdown by socio-economic strata reveals marked differences. It is no coincidence that what is known as the "demographic dynamics of poverty" includes higher mortality and fertility, earlier reproduction and reduced access to contraceptives. The 2000 round of censuses provides estimates of the reproductive manifestations of the demographic dynamics of poverty among young people.⁵ The reproductive disparities between socio-economic groups are confirmed, since girls from lower socio-economic groups have children earlier and have higher rates of reproduction. Although the disparities seem less noticeable if the total population of young women is taken into account (see figure III.15), a closer examination reveals that the disparities are present at both extremes: young women from higher socio-economic groups have much higher rates of nulliparity and those who become mothers tend to have one child, whereas among young women from lower socio-economic groups, nulliparity is less common and most mothers have three children or more.

⁴ See chapter II for more information.

⁵ A socio-economic index was created on the basis of equipment within the household, in the form of a weighted sum of selected goods, which was then used to classify terciles. Separate calculations were carried out for urban and rural areas and nationwide totals, which generated three socio-economic groups in each type of area and the nationwide total. With small variations, each group roughly corresponds to a third of the youth population of a given area.

Table III.6

LATIN AMERICA (19 COUNTRIES): CONCENTRATION OF FERTILITY IN YOUTH, BY COUNTRY, NATIONWIDE TOTALS, 1987 AND 2003			
Country	Concentration of fertility in youth (15–29)		Percentage change of reproductive concentration in youth
	1987	2003	1987–2003
Argentina	65.4	66.9	1.5
Bolivia	55.9	58.9	3.0
Brazil	68.6	73.2	4.6
Chile	68.1	71.7	3.6
Colombia	64.4	68.9	4.5
Costa Rica	65.9	69.7	3.8
Cuba	80.7	79.5	-1.2
Ecuador	59.5	61.5	2.0
El Salvador	65.3	66.5	1.2
Guatemala	59.2	62.1	2.9
Honduras	59.6	63.1	3.5
Mexico	64.2	67.2	3.0
Nicaragua	65.8	67.2	1.4
Panama	69.3	71.0	1.7
Paraguay	55.8	60.0	4.2
Peru	56.1	59.2	3.1
Dominican Republic	69.4	77.2	7.8
Uruguay	65.2	69.3	4.1
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	65.6	70.1	4.5
Latin America	65.1	69.2	4.1

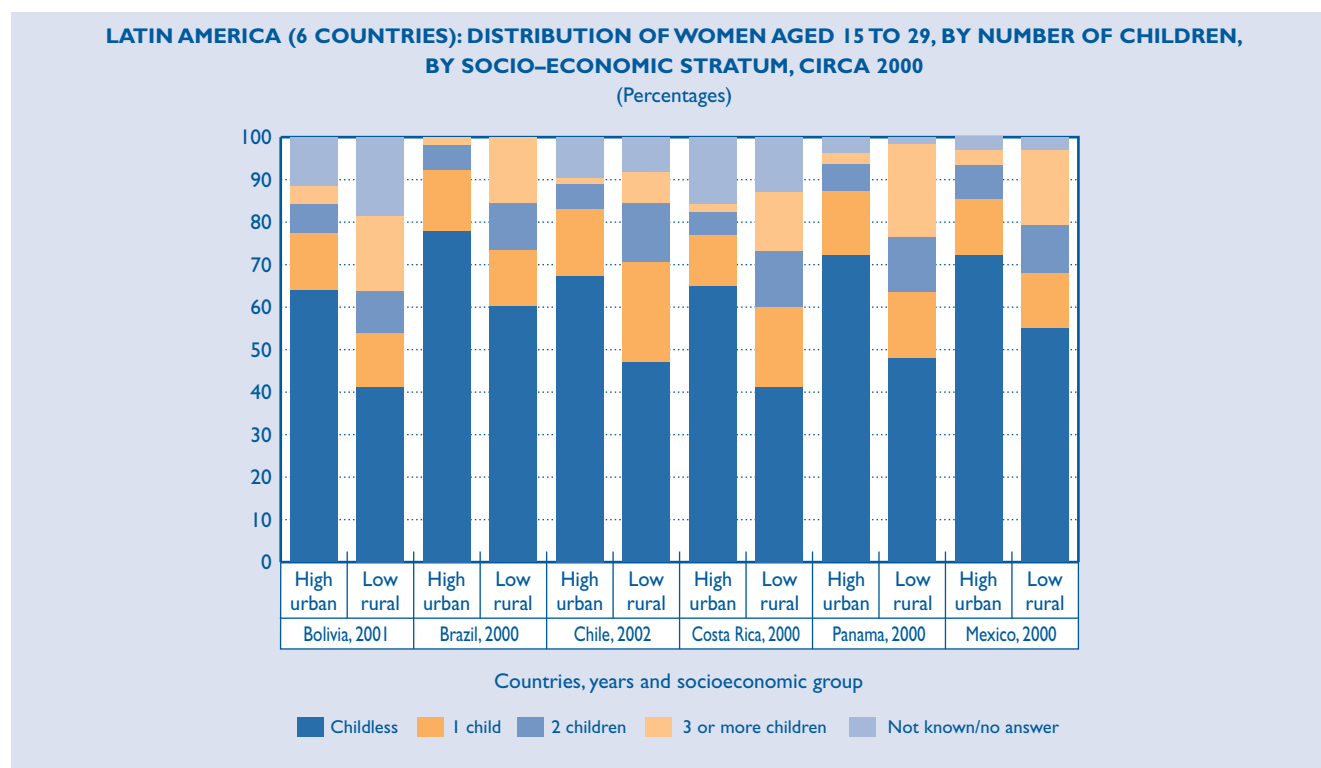
Source: Calculations based on current projections and estimates of the Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre – Population Division of ECLAC (CELADE) (www.eclac.cl/celade) and the United Nations Population Division (<http://esa.un.org/unpp/>).

The picture becomes more complex if age is taken into consideration, to the extent that socio-economic factors are closely related to the probability of having a child by the age of 17. This is 4 to 10 times more likely among girls from low socio-economic groups in rural areas than among girls from higher socio-economic groups in urban areas.⁶ This means that, in higher socio-economic

groups, less than 5% of girls were mothers by the age of 17, whereas the figure is as high as 20% or 35% among disadvantaged socio-economic groups, depending on the country (see figure III.15). This leads to a reproduction of poverty, as a significant proportion of poor girls give birth to their first child when they should be finishing secondary school, thereby cutting short their education.

6 Although the terciles are for urban and rural areas, data cannot be compared between countries as different goods were used to construct the index in each one. In calculating the percentage of mothers, no response was considered as nulliparity.

Figure III.15



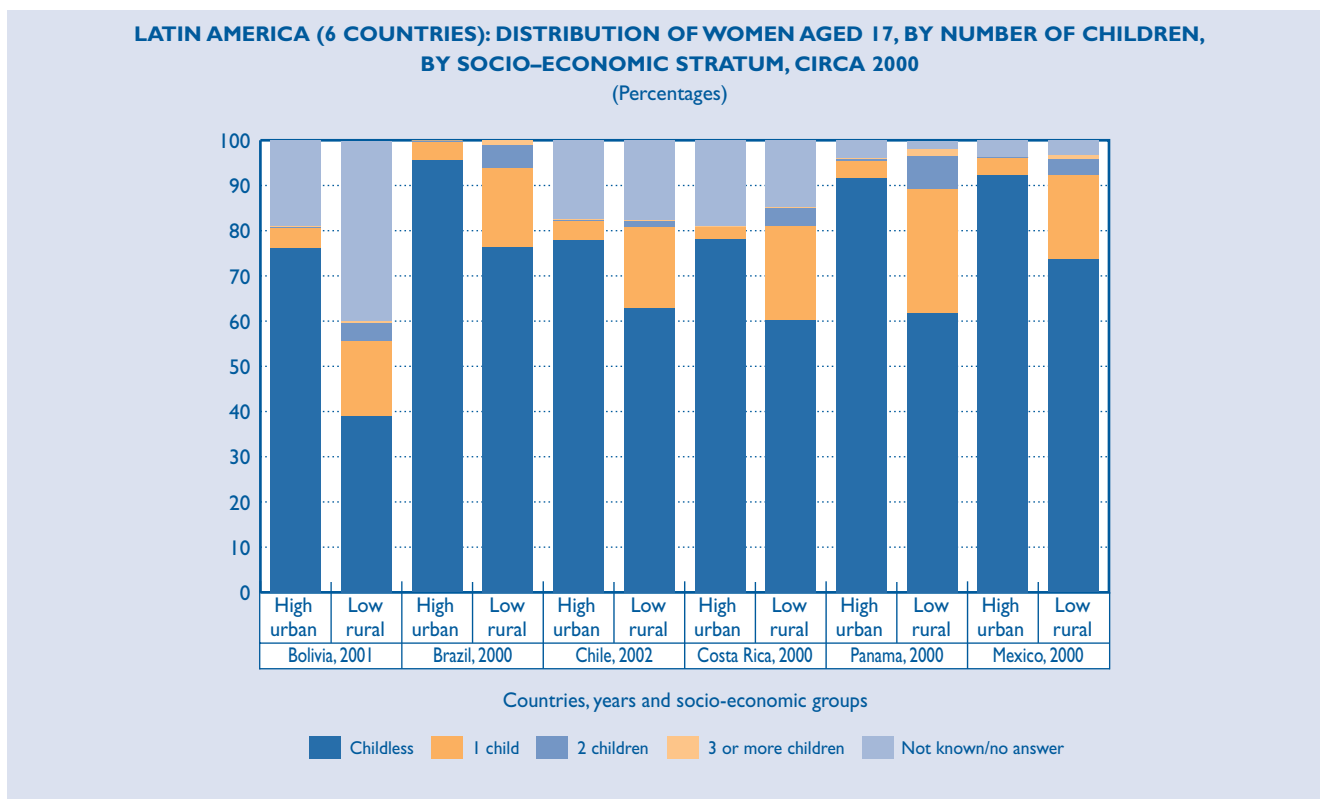
Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), special processing of census microdata databases.

Socio-economic factors are also closely related to reproductive patterns in other phases of youth, with the focus changing from motherhood to accrued parity, particularly as motherhood becomes more common. At the age of 22, there is still a significant difference in the nulliparity indicator: the proportion of mothers varies between 20% and 35% in the upper urban stratum, whereas, in the lower urban stratum, the figure is over 60%, and is as high as 80% in some cases (see figure III.16).

Empirical estimates also show that teenage fertility is resistant to downward change. The figures show an increase in the fertility rate among women aged 15 to 19, from 82 to 84 in 1,000 at the beginning of the 1990s. However, it is assumed that adolescent fertility in the region would have fallen from 1995 onwards to stand at 60 in 1,000 by the year 2025. Table III.7 uses an indicator that is different from the fertility rate but that has been widely used in recent times: the percentage of teenage mothers by single age.⁷

⁷ The total indicator for 15 to 19 year olds should not be interpreted as the probability of being an adolescent mother as the data are truncated: no girl in the group has reached age 20, which means they have not yet finished the "risk exposure" period for adolescent fertility. The probability of being an adolescent mother must be estimated with girls who have turned 20 (usually with retrospective questions on their reproductive history) or with other imputation methods (Li and Wu (2003), Rosero-Bixby in ECLAC/CELADE 2004), although there is little experience in the use of such methods for estimating fertility by the age of 20.

Figure III.16



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), special processing of census microdata databases.

According to table III.7, the demographic perspective highlights at least two causes for concern regarding adolescent reproduction in Latin America. The first is the relatively high regional average, and the second is that the rate is either decreasing much more slowly than in other age groups (thereby representing a greater proportion of total fertility), or is increasing in absolute terms.

There are also compelling social concerns over teenage fertility. First, poor people are more affected by the problem. This is shown in table III.8, which uses women’s level of schooling as a poverty proxy. Second, teenage fertility is associated with adversities that can be reduced only to a certain extent, owing to the socio-economic situation of the adolescents concerned.

This persistence of demographic risks is explained by a complex combination of traditional behaviour (early pregnancy and union in the case of teenage fertility among poor people) with typical features of exclusion and cultural patterns, namely: lack of access to sexual information and contraceptives in the case of unplanned pregnancies (ECLAC, 2001), cultural bias in sexual relations and other factors linked to youth culture. Throughout the region, there has been a general improvement in people’s access to modern contraceptive methods, although the percentage of women using modern contraceptives when they first become sexually active remains extremely low (see figure III.17).

Table III.7

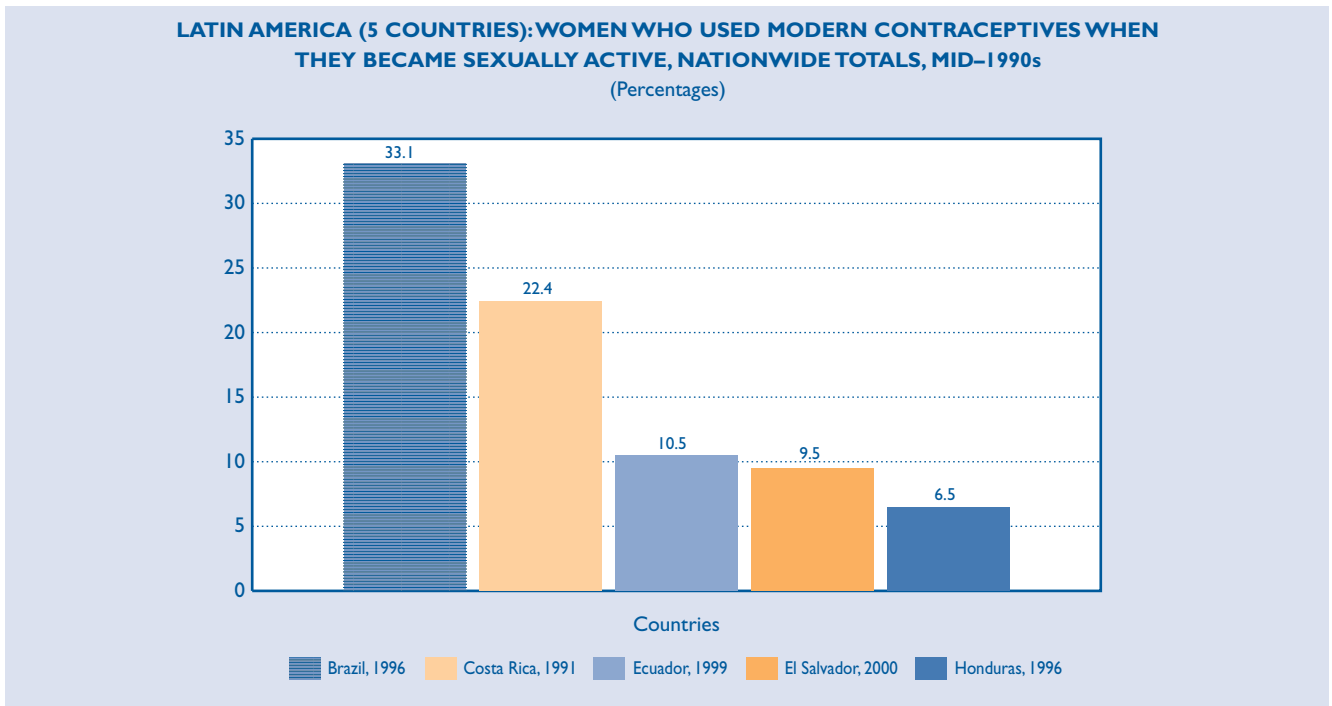
LATIN AMERICA (11 COUNTRIES): PROPORTION OF MOTHERS AMONG WOMEN AGED 15 TO 19, BY SINGLE AGE, NATIONWIDE TOTALS, CIRCA 1990 AND 2001 (Percentages)							
Country	Year	Age					Total
		15	16	17	18	19	
Bolivia	1992	1.6	4.4	9.9	17.9	28.0	11.7
	2001	2.0	5.7	11.7	20.8	29.2	13.5
Brazil	1991	2.2	5.2	10.4	17.2	24.3	11.5
	2000	3.3	7.6	13.8	20.8	28.1	14.8
Chile	1992	2.1	4.8	9.8	16.1	24.8	11.8
	2002	6.3	5.1	10.2	16.7	24.1	12.3
Costa Rica	1984	2.0	5.6	10.9	18.6	27.5	12.8
	2000	2.5	6.2	11.8	19.8	27.5	13.2
Ecuador	1990	6.2	5.4	11.0	19.4	27.9	13.5
	2001	3.2	8.1	14.9	23.9	32.5	16.3
Guatemala	1994	2.9	7.3	14.5	25.1	35.5	16.1
	2002	2.6	6.9	14.2	23.1	33.0	15.5
Honduras	1988	3.6	8.1	15.6	25.2	34.6	16.6
	2001	3.0	8.4	17.1	27.6	38.0	18.3
Mexico	1990	1.4	3.8	8.6	16.1	24.2	5.8
	2000	1.8	4.8	10.7	18.2	26.2	7.6
Panama	1990	3.6	8.2	15.2	22.4	30.8	16.1
	2001	4.1	9.3	16.2	25.4	33.3	17.4
Uruguay	1985	1.2	3.4	7.2	12.4	19.3	8.4
	1996	5.0	7.7	12.8	18.4	24.6	13.9
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	1990	3.3	6.9	13.0	19.9	27.5	13.8
	2001	3.2	7.5	13.7	21.7	29.8	15.0

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), special processing of census microdata databases.

Table III.8

LATIN AMERICA (7 COUNTRIES): PROPORTION OF 15- TO 19-YEAR-OLD WOMEN WITH CHILDREN OR PREGNANT FOR THE FIRST TIME, BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION, NATIONWIDE TOTALS, MID-1980s AND MID-1990s (Percentages)										
Country	Year	No education			Primary			Secondary and above		
		Mothers	First pregnancy	Mothers or currently pregnant	Mothers	First pregnancy	Mothers or currently pregnant	Mothers	First pregnancy	Mothers or currently pregnant
Bolivia	1989	25.7	0.6	26.3	24.6	4.1	28.7	7.7	1.7	9.4
	1998	40.1	11.4	51.5	23.9	5.0	28.9	7.4	1.4	8.8
Brazil	1986	14.4	6.6	20.0	13.1	3.4	16.6	3.2	1.1	4.3
	1996	50.7	3.7	54.4	23.6	4.7	28.3	10.7	3.4	14.1
Colombia	1986	19.3	6.8	26.2	16.9	5.4	22.3	5.7	1.3	6.9
	2000	45.5	0.0	45.5	28.3	5.4	33.7	11.3	3.7	15.0
Guatemala	1987	33.8	5.3	39.1	19.8	3.2	23.0	4.4	0.4	4.8
	1998/1999	31.9	8.6	40.5	20.6	5.0	25.6	7.3	1.8	9.2
Haiti	1994/1995	19.9	5.7	25.6	11.5	3.6	15.1	5.1	2.7	7.8
	2000	41.4	3.2	44.6	13.9	4.9	18.8	7.1	3.6	10.7
Peru	1986	18.5	7.4	25.9	18.9	3.4	22.3	6.4	1.0	7.4
	2000	36.9	0.0	36.9	22.9	3.6	26.4	7.2	2.0	9.2
Dominican Republic	1986	45.4	1.7	47.1	17.2	3.9	21.2	5.2	2.9	8.1
	2002	58.4	5.8	64.3	28.2	5.8	34.0	14.2	4.2	18.3

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of Demographic and Health Surveys [on line] <http://www.measuredhs.com/>. Results from specialized surveys (DHS (www.measuredhs.com)) and those carried out with the support of Centres for Disease Control (CDC) that included women who had already had children when surveyed and women who were pregnant for the first time.



Source: Paraguayan Centre for Population Studies (CEPEP), *Encuesta nacional de salud materno infantil*, 1998, Asunción; United States Agency for International Development (USAID)/Center for Disease Control (CDC), 1999.

In the light of the above, reducing adolescent fertility and, in general, promoting later marriage and childbearing are important objectives of youth policies. In order to be successful, any such initiatives must take account of the range of factors that give rise to early reproduction. These factors include the lack of opportunities for a significant proportion of young people in Latin America, whereby early reproduction is not only a cause but also a consequence of exclusion. Conversely, being able to delay maternity/paternity is a consequence of good education and employment options. Increasing opportunities for the development of personal plans (spending a longer time accumulating educational assets and skills and increasing access to decent employment) is a vital strategy if the pattern of early reproduction is to be changed. This, however, is a long-term strategy and the problem also needs to be tackled urgently.

One of the problems associated with teenage pregnancy is the health of mothers and children, given that early pregnancy involves more complications. Other problems with a much wider social impact are those linked to the social and economic performance of three generations: the teenage parents, their children and the adolescents' parents. The adolescent parents have fewer opportunities to continue accumulating assets (particularly educational assets) owing to the time, commitment and resources needed to raise a child. This is compounded by the discrimination and exclusion faced by pregnant students.

Reducing youth fertility offers young people the opportunity to dedicate more time to training, maturing and acquiring life experience in different spheres. Maternity/paternity involves many obligations and a change of social status, given that

adulthood tends to be culturally defined by having a child. Parental obligations usually compete with other options such as staying on at school, entering the labour market (especially for women), accumulating assets or simply becoming more psychosocially mature. Delaying reproduction therefore seems to have clear advantages (albeit without the guarantee of a satisfying or successful adult life), given the growing importance of knowledge and practical experience for entry and success in the labour market and the desire of parents to offer their children the best options for future development.

The above data confirm that the reduction in fertility among young women in general is not being accompanied by a fall in the fertility rate among teenagers in particular. The data also show that, despite the overall reduction, there is still a high concentration of fertility at relatively young ages, particularly in the lowest income quintiles. Although lower fertility may result in higher income per family member (same income for fewer people), the fact that early fertility remains common continues to restrict the autonomy and formative processes of young women.

E. RAPID RISE IN SYMBOLIC CONSUMPTION AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE, YET EXTREMELY LIMITED POSSIBILITIES FOR INCREASING MATERIAL CONSUMPTION

One tension that affects all age groups, and young people in particular, is the increasing discrepancy between symbolic and material consumption. Young people's access to the former (symbols, messages, images, information and knowledge) has boomed in recent decades thanks to extended school coverage and, above all, increased audiovisual consumption and connection to virtual networks. On the other hand, family poverty, difficulties in entering the labour market and the prevalence of low-productivity, low-income employment seriously restrict young people's access to material goods and autonomy.

In terms of virtual networks, more young people than adults are connected and they use their connections more often. Young people's access to Internet is expanding exponentially, given that they assimilate new language and "learn as they go" more easily than adults, especially in the virtual world of the computer. It should also be borne in mind that a high percentage of young users of Internet and other computerized knowledge sources access the web through public or school facilities.

By the year 2000 in Brazil, 15.8% of young people aged 14 to 19 had used Internet, compared with 11.3% of people aged 20 to 35, 5.6 % of 36 to

45 year olds and 3% of those aged over 45. In the case of personal computers, the figures were 27%, 19%, 13.7% and 6.3%, respectively (Hilbert, 2001). In Mexico, 30% of people aged under 20, and 36% of those aged 20 to 29 were Internet users in 2002. This figure dropped to 18% among those aged 30 to 39, 9% among 40 to 59 year olds and 4% in those aged 60 and over (Hilbert, 2003). According to available surveys in Colombia, in 2002, 47.6% of young people aged 18 to 24 used Internet, compared with 13.5% of the population aged 45 to 54 and 2.2% of those aged 55 and over. Data for Argentina and Chile show similar differences between age groups (see table III.9).

Table III.9

ARGENTINA, CHILE AND COLOMBIA: AGE OF INTERNET USERS, NATIONWIDE TOTALS, CIRCA 2002 (Percentages)					
Argentina		Chile		Colombia	
Age group	Percentage	Age group	Percentage	Age group	Percentage
Up to 24	30	6–11	27	12–17	48.1
25–34	32	12–18	35	18–24	47.6
35–44	17	19–29	21	25–34	24.9
45–54	14	30–44	14	35–44	17.4
55 and over	7	45–59	13	45–54	13.5
		60 and over	5	55 and over	2.2

Source: Argentina: Irol D'Alessio, *La audiencia de Internet*, Buenos Aires, International Research Online–Argentina/Brazil, 2003; Colombia: *Encuesta Nacional de la Cultura*, 2002; Chile: "Encuesta de caracterización socioeconómica", quoted in Fernando Soto, Carlos Espejo and Isabel Matute, *Los jóvenes y el uso de computadores e internet*, Santiago, Chile, National Institute for Youth (INJUV), 2002.

Unlike television, which is watched by all generations, access to virtual culture is affected by the generation gap. There are also obvious differences in access to and consumption of new technologies among young people from different social groups. This, however, in no way controverts the fact that the gap between young people and adults is widening, given the former's greater adaptability to new technology. Young people's affinity for new communication technologies marks a cognitive and perceptual difference with respect to the world of adults. The generation gap could be much wider than it was between previous generations, given that the use of new communication technologies develops new cognitive "maps".

As is the case with the rest of the population, young people's access to audiovisual content has also increased immensely. According to data from the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the number of television sets per 1,000 people in Latin America and the Caribbean increased from 98 to 205 between 1980 and 1997, and the number of radios rose from 259 in 1980 to 413 in 1996, thereby making this the developing region with the highest concentration of televisions and radios. This considerable increase in concentration is probably a result of the availability

of cheaper television sets and the expansion of consumer credit.⁸ For the same reasons, the music, video and video game industry has also expanded over the last 20 years, with young people being the main consumers. Added to this is the constant growth of cable television, the multiplication of open channels and the extension of broadcasting times.

The media are clearly an important part of young people's cultural consumption. Young people in all three countries included in table III.10 mention "Watching television and listening to music" among their activities.

The centrality of media consumption among young people's activities indicates that the household has become the setting for intensive symbolic consumption and the growing convergence of communication and information technologies. Above and beyond television and radio in their traditional sense, this new consumption is typified by *à la carte* selection of cable television, videos, DVDs, Internet and other devices. The level of media consumption as part of identity building within the home rises in proportion with the number of means of accessing such increasingly diverse content.

⁸ In Chile, young people watch television for about three hours a day.

The above points to a rapid expansion of symbolic consumption, although there is no similar increase of material consumption among young people. Poverty and employment trends among young people suggest that access to material goods is progressing much more slowly than access to symbolic goods.

Although poverty rates among young people are lower than for the rest of the population, they have been falling more slowly over the last 10 years and the total number of young people living in poverty is actually rising (see table III.11).

Table III.10

CHILE, COLOMBIA AND MEXICO: ACTIVITIES OF YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 29 DURING THEIR SPARE TIME, NATIONWIDE TOTALS, CIRCA 2002 (Percentages)					
Chile		Colombia		Mexico	
Listening to radio or music	58.4%	Sport	38%	Spending time with family	21%
Spending time with family	41.7%	Listening to music	37%	Spending time with partner	13%
Spending time with partner	31.8%	Watching television or videos	33%	Watching television	11%
Going out/chatting with friends	36.1%	Reading	24%	Listening to music	10%
Watching television or videos	17.1%	Going out with friends	17%	Spending time with friends	10%
Walks/trips/visits	15.3%	Going to bars/discos	6%	Studying at home	9%
Sport	25.4%	Art	5%	Sport	8%
Parties or dancing	23.7%	Cinema/concerts	4%	Videogames	8%
Reading newspapers, books or magazines	8.5%				

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of youth surveys in each country. Does not include use of computers.

Table III.11

LATIN AMERICA (19 COUNTRIES): POVERTY AND INDIGENCE, 1990 AND 2002				
		1990	2002	Percentage variation
Poverty				
Youth	Percentage	43.0	41.0	-4.7
	Millions	(50.4)	(58.0)	(15.1)
Total population	Percentage	48.0	44.0	-8.3
	Millions	(200.0)	(221.0)	(10.5)
Extreme poverty				
Youth	Percentage	17.0	15.0	-11.8
	Millions	(20.4)	(21.2)	(3.9)
Total population	Percentage	23.0	19.0	-21.7
	Millions	(93.0)	(97.0)	(4.3)

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special processing of household surveys.

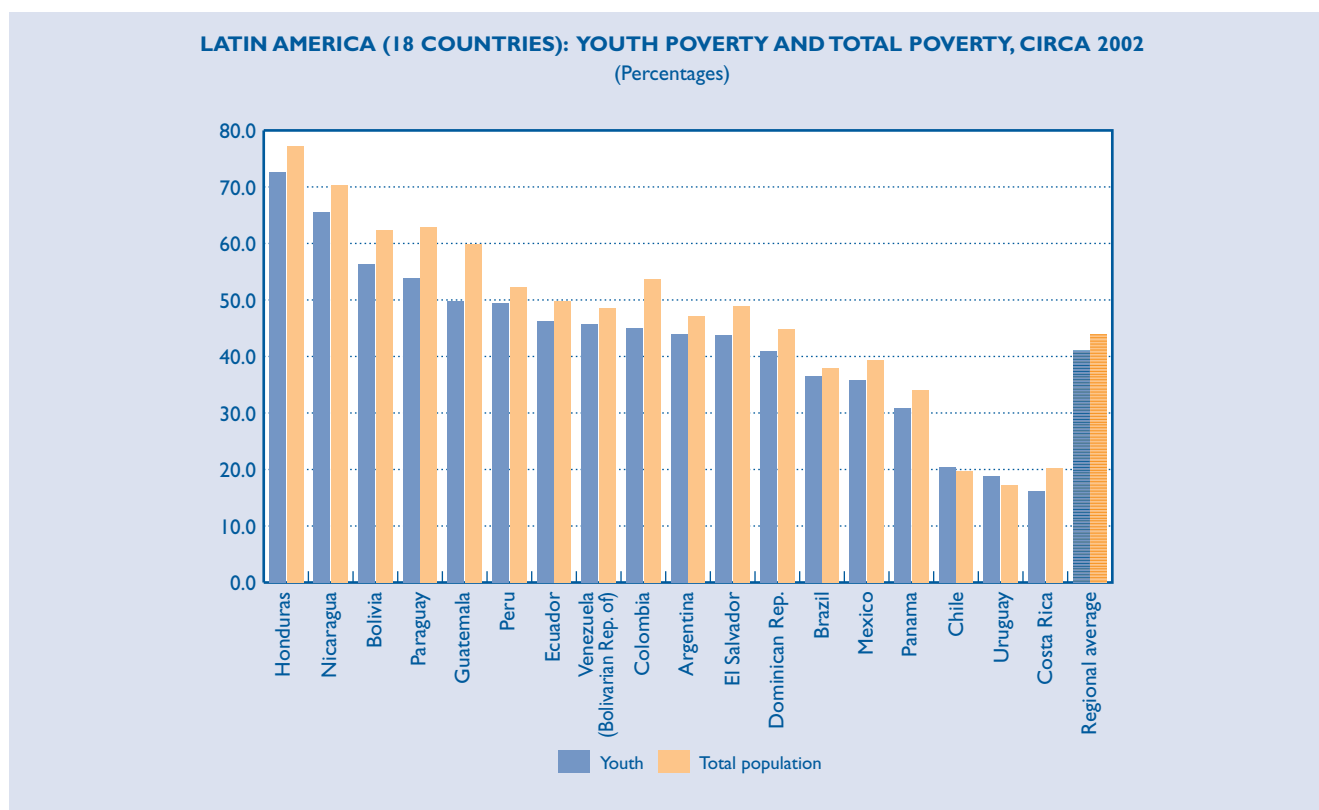
As shown in the table above, although rates of poverty and extreme poverty are higher among the total population than among young people, the last decade has seen a more rapid downward trend in the percentage of poor and extremely poor people in the overall population than among youth. Conversely, between 1990 and 2002, the total number (not percentage) of poor people climbed more among young people than among the population as a whole. In absolute terms, in 2002 there were about 58 million young people living in poverty (7.6 million more than in 1990), of which 21.2 million were living in extreme poverty or indigence (800,000 more than in 1990).

Although such general indicators probably fail to capture qualitative differences between poor people

according to the country, they nonetheless facilitate systematic analysis with a view to highlighting certain similarities. As shown in figure III.18, the countries with the highest levels of poverty among young people (50% or more) are Honduras, Nicaragua, Bolivia, Paraguay, Guatemala and Peru. Countries with rates between 30% and 50% include Ecuador, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Colombia, Argentina, El Salvador, Dominican Republic, Brazil, Mexico and Panama. Lastly, Chile, Uruguay and Costa Rica have the lowest levels (20% or less).

In Latin America, young people living in poverty are less likely to receive income than the non-poor, while indigents are even less likely to receive income than the former. Among young people in

Figure III.18



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

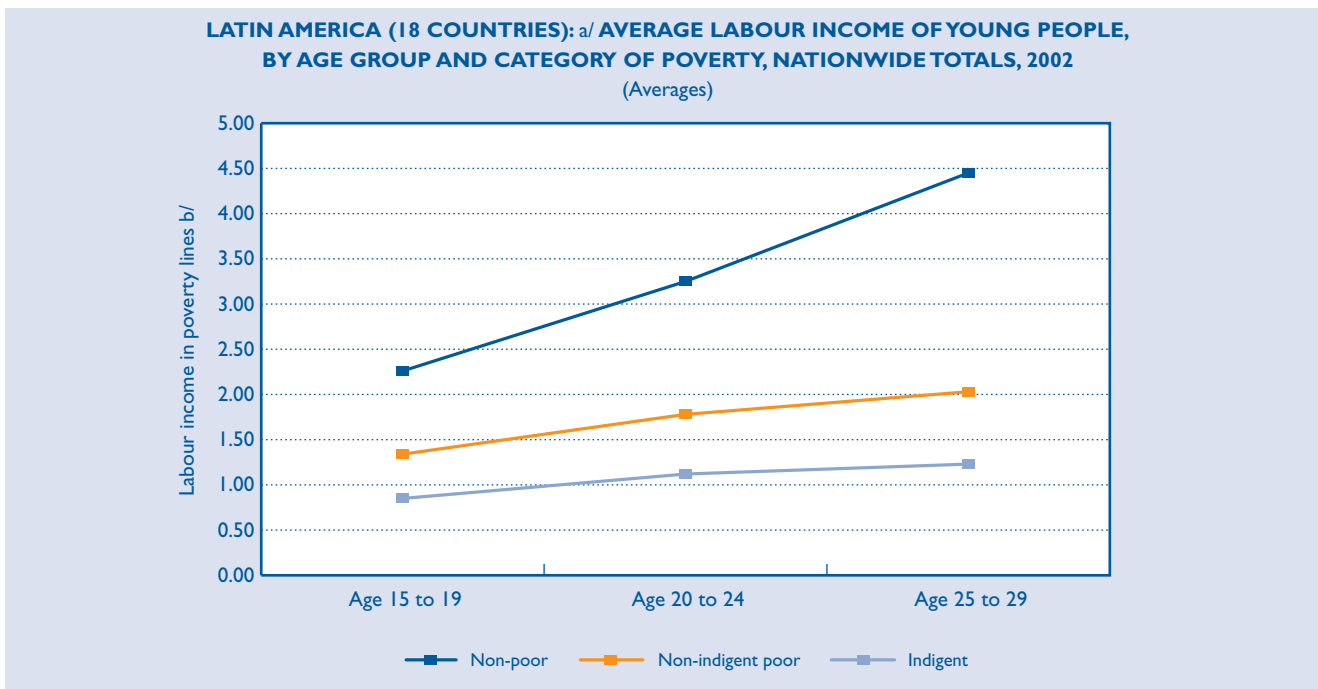
employment, labour income and wage increases by age group are substantially higher among the non-poor: the maximum average income of those living in indigence is lower than the minimum income of the non-indigent poor, and the same applies to the income of the poor and the non-poor (see figure III.19). This is clearly linked to the reduced capacity of young people living in poverty to enter the labour market as compared with their non-poor counterparts, and is related to the different levels of education and social capital of the three groups of young people.

On the other hand, the entire population has access to audiovisual consumption, particularly radio and television. This suggests that the asymmetry between symbolic consumption and material consumption options is even greater among young people living in poverty than among non-poor youth. Poor young people have access to modern images, icons, music and messages but are unable to

translate this into social mobility or a supplemental increase in income and capacity for material consumption (goods and services). Geographical location is also an important criterion, given that poverty rates are much higher among young people in rural than in urban areas.

In urban areas, one quarter of poor people are indigent, whereas, in rural areas, half of the total poor are living in indigence. This means that not only are there proportionally more young people living in poverty in rural areas, but their level of poverty is also significantly higher (see table III.12). Nonetheless, the gap between symbolic and material consumption is probably wider among low-income young people in urban areas, as they have much wider and more diversified access to education and other symbolic goods than their rural counterparts. It is no coincidence that the highest levels of juvenile violence are recorded in urban areas with a high concentration of low-income young people.

Figure III.19



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

a/ Weighted country average.

b/ Labour income expressed as multiples of the urban poverty line in each country.

Table III.12

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): LEVELS OF POVERTY AND INDIGENCE IN URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 2002 (Percentages)				
Poverty	Young people		Total population	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
Weighted average	33.4	54.8	34.9	57.9
Simple average	37.3	55.0	40.7	59.9
Indigence				
Weighted average	8.9	27.9	10.7	33.4

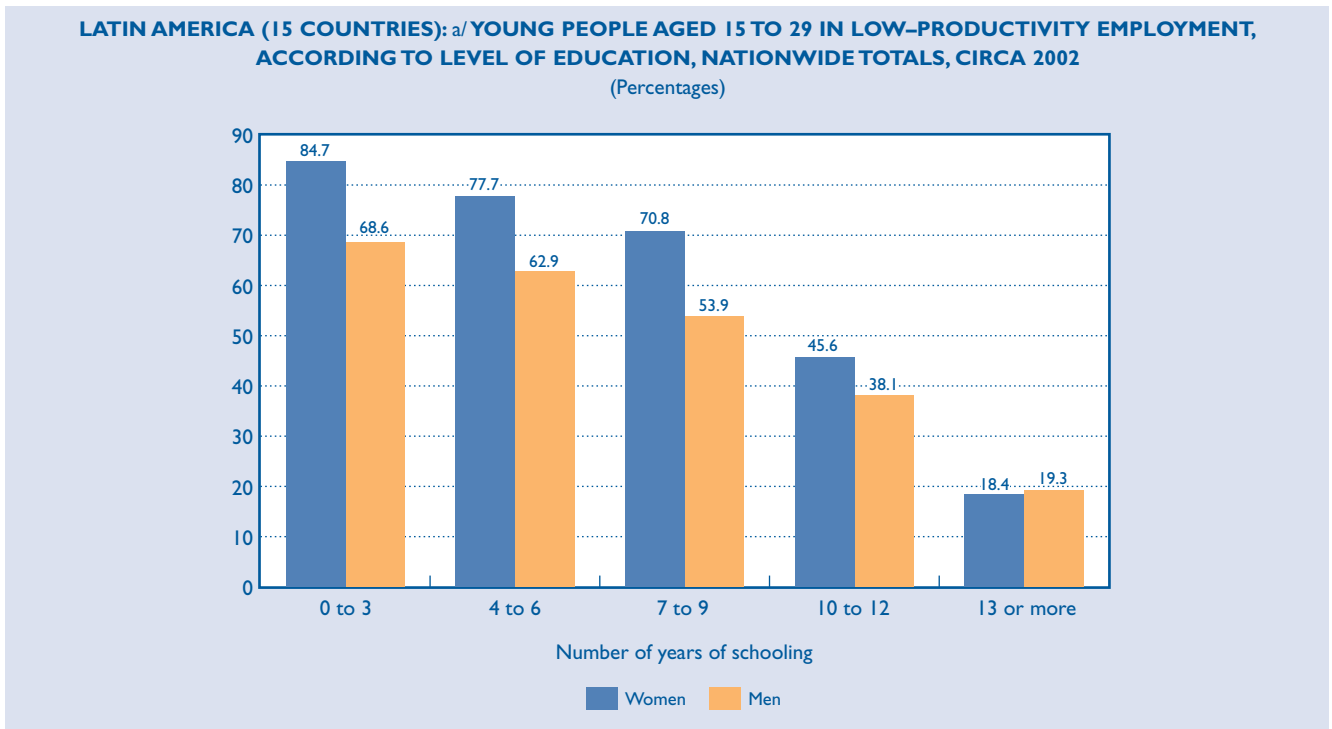
Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special processing of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

Employment is people's main source of income, and therefore of access to material goods. One striking trend is therefore the continued rise in unemployment among young people, not only in terms of the gap with adult unemployment but also because of the increase in youth unemployment per se. Figure III.10 from the first section of this chapter shows that, between 1990 and 2002, the unemployment rate increased among young people from all five income quintiles. It is symptomatic that this occurred while symbolic consumption among young people climbed in terms of audiovisual content, connections to networks and level of education.

Mention should also be made of the high proportion of young people employed in low-productivity, low-income jobs (see figure III.11). Another strong negative correlation exists between the proportion of low-productivity employment and the level of education of young people (see figure III.20). The proportion of low-productivity employment among young people with the lowest levels of education is more than three times higher than among young people with the highest level of

education. In the more recent period, however, the percentage of low-productivity sectors increased to a greater extent among groups with high levels of education. This would indicate that, in a context of sluggish economies and young people entering the labour market with a higher level of education, a growing number of well-educated young people are unable to find jobs that are in keeping with their level of training.

The final aspect worthy of note is the lack of correspondence between young people's expectations regarding their level of studies and their current employment, as observed in national youth surveys. This could be seen as a direct criticism of the labour market and educational institutions, especially on the part of young people who have made long-term training investments and who are more over-qualified (Cachón, 2000). It is therefore vital to examine the employment profile for young Latin Americans as identified by youth surveys. Surveys carried out in Chile and Mexico show that, although young people appreciate their jobs, they are also critical of low wages, instability and their contract situation.



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

a/ Simple average.

All of the above widens the divide between symbolic and material consumption, or between access to images, information, icons, music and messages, on the one hand, and appropriate and continuous income, on the other. The problem seems even more acute for women, considering that, with the same level of schooling, they are more likely to be employed in low-productivity sectors. Figure III.20 shows that over half of employed young people have low-productivity, low-income jobs. This is because their educational achievement is below the regional average, in contrast with their access to symbolic goods. Although less educated young people are clearly at a greater disadvantage, it should also be pointed out that, between 1990 and 2002, there was an increase in the number of young people, including those with 13 years of study or more, working in low-productivity employment. This means that the gap between symbolic and material consumption may spread to young people from higher-income groups.

Another factor that accentuates the contrast between symbolic and material consumption among young people is the income gap with adults, who are paid a premium for their experience. It therefore makes sense that the gap narrows as young people get older and gain experience. While the youngest age group (15 to 19 year olds with income that is about 1.5 times above the poverty line) earns about one third of average adult wages, those aged 20 to 24 earn more than half (2.6 times the poverty line), and those aged 25 to 29 earn more than three quarters (3.5 times the poverty line) of the average income of adults (whose average income is 4.6 times the poverty line). In the more recent period, these gaps have remained surprisingly stable, with a slight widening of the gap between adults and the youngest age group and similarly small gains for the other two youth subgroups.

One possible counterargument to the above is that, in any event, young people consume more goods and services than they did 10 years ago. However, this rate of consumer expansion is much slower than the rise in symbolic consumption. Increased symbolic consumption generates greater expectations of material consumption that are then frustrated, causing potential discontent and disruptive tendencies among young people. Traditional sociology had already identified the problematic asymmetry between the expectations generated by the modern imaginary and the actual possibilities of fulfilling them. This is even more relevant given that income concentration remained steady during the 1990s, which also tends to exacerbate the material consumption differences between young people from rich households and their poorer counterparts.

The asymmetries between the expansion of symbolic and material consumption contradicts the

accepted image of progress and development, which predicted a synchronized and harmonious increase in both. Material well-being and access to codes of modernity, educational expansion and access to higher-productivity employment, and access to information and social mobility, respectively constituted different sides of the same coin in the minds of many young people in Latin America. The "equation" has broken down and the secular idea that the two sets of aims formed a virtuous circle looks questionable in the light of the data herein presented. In countries such as the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Brazil, Colombia and Mexico, spectacular expansion of the media industry and educational coverage and achievements were not matched by similar progress in reducing urban poverty or improving the quality of life of the poor. It is symptomatic that the 1980s and early 1990s witnessed a dramatic upswing in the levels of violence in Latin American cities, where the victims and perpetrators were young people living in poverty.

F. CAUGHT BETWEEN EARLY AUTONOMY AND POSTPONEMENT

Young people are better able than adults to rise to the new challenges of a communication society, thanks to their increased years of schooling, familiarity with interactive remote communication and other skills that are now more highly valued, like flexibility and adaptability. At the same time, young people have also embraced the expectations of independence that define modern and post-modern society, particularly through their access to remote communication and the secularization of values. These expectations are even greater than in previous generations, who grew up with more traditional patterns. Today's young people question parental authority at an earlier age, partly due to anti-role-models on television, and partly because they feel they have more information and education than many adults.

All of the above contributes to a syndrome of early moral autonomy, in which young people consider themselves able to decide on the destiny and direction of their behaviour earlier than previous generations did. This phenomenon is largely responsible for the crisis of parental and teacher authority over adolescents.

This is in contrast with the syndrome of delayed material autonomy, in which young people form their own households at a later age. Available data suggest that young people are staying longer in their

family of origin as a result of difficulties in making the transition from education to working life and the demand for increased training imposed by intense competition for employment. This tends to push back the age at which young people move out of their parents' home and become financially independent. Such a situation generates tension between the greater expectations of independence typical of modern society, on the one hand, and the lack of resources and opportunities to fulfil them or the long haul to obtain a job to provide that independence, on the other.

This produces a novel clash between early expectations of moral autonomy and a long delay in achieving material independence. Young people question the legitimacy of parental authority at a very early age and expect to run their lives based on their own decisions. This results in a long period in which young people live by the moral freedom of adults but with the material heteronomy associated with children. This destroys the image of moral and material autonomy as two sides of the same coin or

two simultaneous and complementary quests. That, in turn, has an unclear but far-reaching effect on family life: early individuation coupled with late social integration among young people results in a lengthy disassociation between the moral and material, the emotional and the productive. Relationships between confused parents and enigmatic children now seem to be the daily lot of families.



Family structures, household work and well-being in Latin America

INTRODUCTION

The family is not an institution that exists in isolation. Households and family units are linked to the labour market and the structure of safety nets. It follows that phenomena such as fertility and divorce rates and ageing processes are part of broader social, economic and cultural processes and are therefore also subject to public policy. As the fundamental group unit of society, the family cannot be dissociated from the cultural values and political processes that characterize each time or period in history (Jelin, 2004).

In Latin America, the family provides social support and protection at times of economic crisis or in case of the unemployment, illness or death of any of its members. The family, as a source of social capital, is a highly valuable strategic resource, since the limited coverage of labour, health and social security programmes in some countries of the region leaves the family as the only available provider of social protection in the face of unemployment, illness, migration and other traumatic events.

In addition, the new approaches reflected in cross-cutting, integrated social policies and poverty reduction programmes revolve around the family. This new perspective makes it imperative to update and expand information on the new structures and various situations observed among families, which call for differentiated approaches to public policy-making.

In commemoration of the tenth anniversary of the International Year of the Family, proclaimed by the United Nations, this chapter reviews the situation of families in Latin America in the light of the changes that have occurred since the 1990s. The analysis of the situation of families in Latin America in terms of their structure and how it affects their well-being is updated on the basis of comparative information from household surveys conducted between 1990 and 2002 in urban areas of 16 countries.

The first section considers how given types of households and families are related to demographic and economic factors, and looks at family structures by type and by stage of the family life cycle. It reviews the trends observed among families between 1990 and 2002, with emphasis on trends among nuclear families, since this is the predominant family structure in Latin America. The second section focuses on family well-being and takes into account poverty and indigence rates, the distribution of households in selected income quintiles, the number of breadwinners per household and the number of older persons and dependants per household. The third section analyses the links between household work and labour-market participation and the gender distribution of these two types of activity, on the basis of information from time-use surveys conducted in some countries of the region. The last section puts forward a number of suggestions on policies for reconciling work and family life, with a view to striking a balance between household work and the paid work performed by women and men outside the home, in view of the changes that have taken place in families as a result of women's growing labour-market participation.

A. TRENDS IN DIFFERENT FAMILY STRUCTURES, BY TYPE OF HOUSEHOLD AND STAGE OF THE FAMILY LIFE CYCLE

Latin American families living in urban areas are becoming increasingly diverse as a result of differences between countries in terms of their current phase of demographic transition and level of development. In just over a decade, one-person households and households headed by women have increased substantially, while the proportion of nuclear families and two-parent families has declined. Even though the nuclear family is still the predominant structure, the traditional family model—consisting of a father-breadwinner, a mother-housewife and their children—no longer represents the majority of households and families in Latin America, since it accounts for only 36% of the total. In addition, there has been an increase in the number of families at the stages of the family life cycle where children leave home or where the family consists of older persons without children. In 2002 most families were at the expansion and consolidation stages, at which childbearing has been completed and all the children are still living in their household of origin.

1. WAYS IN WHICH GIVEN TYPES OF HOUSEHOLDS ARE RELATED TO ECONOMIC AND DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS

This analysis postulates that the way in which families are organized is determined essentially by the countries' economic and demographic circumstances. This section gives a brief overview of some of the possible linkages between household types, stages of the family life cycle, phases of demographic transition

and levels of economic output in the different countries.

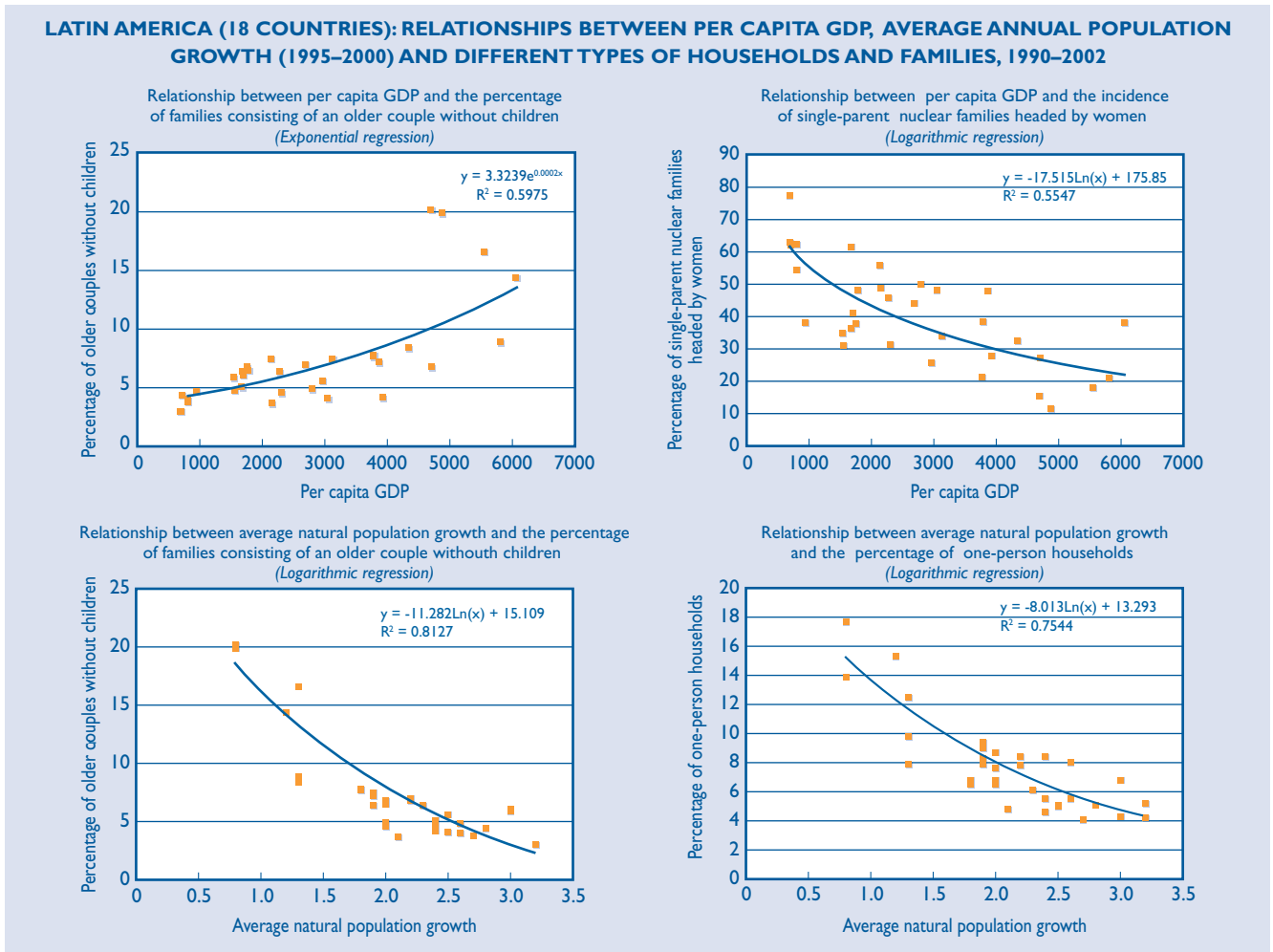
It has been assumed that countries in an advanced phase of demographic transition have a higher proportion of nuclear families made up of older couples without children and a larger number of one-person households consisting of older people or economically independent young people, while countries in an early phase of demographic transition have mostly families with young children.

In addition, it is assumed that less developed countries have higher proportions of single-parent nuclear families, extended families and composite families because abandonment and impoverishment are more common in these circumstances, although the processes that determine family structure are not linear and reflect a multiplicity of factors ranging from economic and demographic phenomena to cultural and institutional characteristics. Existing policies also have an impact on the structure of families.

The following figures show some close regressions between demographic processes, measured as the average population growth rate, and family types

that reflect more modern trends (older couples without children and one-person households). Countries in more advanced phases of demographic transition (that is, with lower average population growth rates) have a higher proportion of one-person households and families made up of older couples without children (see figure IV.1). Family types are less closely correlated with national per capita GDP levels; however, there is an inverse relationship between the incidence of single-parent households headed by women and per capita GDP, and a direct relationship between per capita GDP and the percentage of families consisting of older persons without children (see figure IV.1).

Figure IV.1



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

Note: The average natural population growth rate between 1995 and 2000 is used to approximate the countries' phase of demographic transition. Lower rates represent more advanced phases of transition.

2. TRENDS IN FAMILY STRUCTURE, BY TYPE OF HOUSEHOLD

There are many different types of households and families in Latin America (see box IV.1). Moreover, the distribution of households by kinship structure changed between 1990 and 2002. Over that period, nuclear families continued to be the predominant model, but their share of the total declined from 63.1% to 61.9%, owing mainly to an increase in non-family households and, within that category, one-person households (whose average incidence in the region rose from 6.4% to 8.4%).¹ In 2002, the proportion represented by nuclear families ranged from 53% of households and families in Nicaragua to 71% in Mexico and Bolivia (see figure IV.2 and table IV.1). In addition, part of the reason for the decline in the share of two-parent nuclear families with children is that some of them became single-parent families with children, usually headed by women. The proportion of extended families remained constant over the period, but varied significantly from one country to another: around 2002 this figure was 13.5% in Argentina and 36% in Nicaragua. That same year, composite families accounted for a small proportion of the total, ranging from 3.9% in the Dominican Republic to 0.4% in Argentina.

The most significant trend has been the increase in single-parent households headed by women, which has been the subject of numerous studies in Latin America (ECLAC, 1995, 2004). From a demographic perspective, this trend is related to increases in the number of people who remain single

and in separation and divorce rates, migratory flows and life expectancy. From a socio-economic and cultural perspective, it reflects women's growing participation in economic activity, which has given them the economic independence and social autonomy they need to set up, or continue to live in, households without a partner. The increase in single parenthood is evident among both nuclear and extended families: in 2002, approximately one fifth of the region's nuclear families and more than one third of its extended families were headed by women. The largest proportions of nuclear families headed by women are found in Bolivia, Costa Rica, Colombia, Honduras, Panama and the Dominican Republic (see figure IV.2 and table IV.1).

The upturn in the proportion of non-family households over this period was due to an increase of almost two percentage points in the share of one-person households, the absolute number of which nearly doubled. This points to the emergence of a new phenomenon in the region: an increase in the number of people who live alone and who are either older persons or economically independent young people who decide to put off the formation of a stable union. In Latin America, some 7.5 million urban residents live in one-person households. Argentina and Uruguay have the highest percentages of such households: 13% and 14%, respectively, in keeping with the more advanced ageing of their populations. The rise in the number of young people living alone may reflect the spread of a modern, individualistic and affluent way of life characteristic of late modernity.

¹ In all cases, the averages for Latin America are simple averages for 16 countries in 1990 and 18 countries in 2002.

HOUSEHOLD AND FAMILY TYPES CONSTRUCTED ON THE BASIS OF HOUSEHOLD SURVEY DATA

The types of household discussed in this chapter, which are based on household survey data concerning household members' kinship structure in relation to the person identified as the head of household, are as follows:

- *One-person households* consist of one individual living alone
- *Non-nuclear households* have no conjugal unit; they usually consist of a parent and child, although they may involve other types of kinship

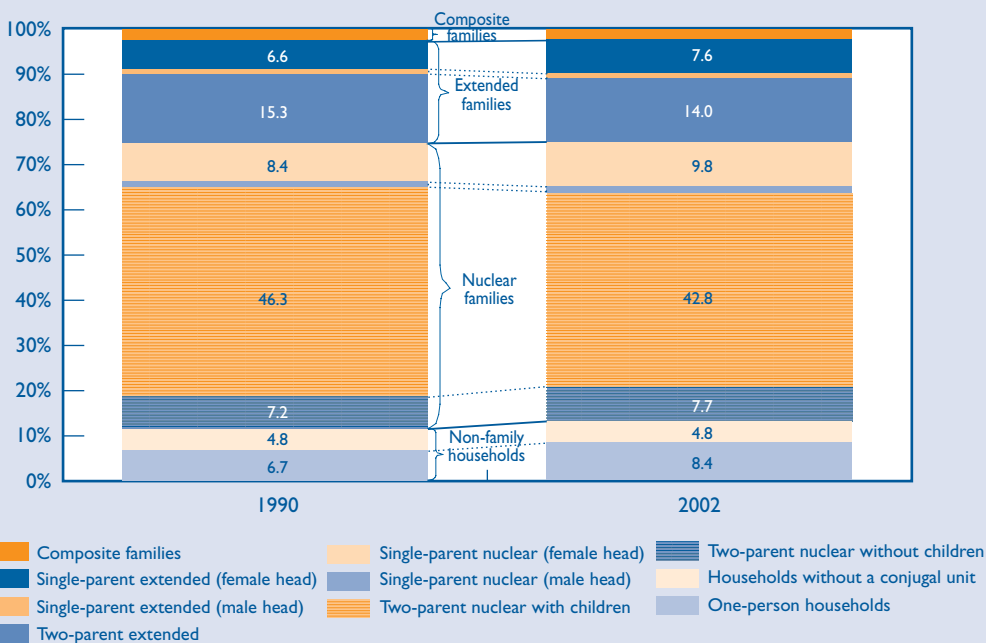
The types of family discussed herein are as follows:

- *Nuclear families* consist of one or both parents, with or without children
- *Extended families* consist of one or both parents, with or without children, in addition to other relatives
- *Composite families* consist of one or both parents, with or without children, with or without other relatives or unrelated persons, not including live-in domestic workers or their family members
- *Two-parent families* consist of a couple with or without children, and *single-parent families*, consist of one parent, usually the mother, and children

The household and family types constructed on the basis of this information source do not adequately reflect family structures in which one or more family members have migrated in order to earn money far from their place of residence and send remittances to the family. As a result, two-parent families in this situation may appear to be single-parent families, and families may appear to be non-family households, to cite two examples. In studying families, it is therefore important to consider three dimensions and units: the theoretical dimension, with units of analysis; the methodological dimension, with units of observation; and the empirical dimension, with units of account (Torrado, 1981).

Figure IV.2

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): CHANGES IN HOUSEHOLD AND FAMILY TYPES, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002 ^{a/}
(Percentages)



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

3. THE DIVERSITY OF NUCLEAR FAMILIES IN LATIN AMERICA

The nuclear family, consisting of two parents and their children, has long been regarded as the paradigm of the ideal family and has been the family model on which public policies are based. However, the nuclear family encompasses a wide range of situations, which can be studied on the basis of household survey information.²

A more in-depth analysis of the information reveals significant proportions of single-parent nuclear families, families without children and families in which both parents are gainfully employed. The biggest changes observed between 1990 and 2002 are related to the rise in the proportion of women entering the paid labour force. Over this period, women's labour-force participation rate in urban areas of Latin America increased from 37.9% to 49.7% (ECLAC, 2004).

In urban areas of the 18 Latin American countries for which information was available for 2002, only 36% of families match the traditional model of the nuclear family, in which both parents live in the household with their children and the mother engages exclusively in unpaid household work; in Uruguay, only 28% of families fit this description (see table IV.2). In the region's urban areas, 19% of nuclear families include only one parent; of these, 84% are headed by women and 16% by men. Couples without children account for 12% of nuclear families, while the subgroup consisting of dual-income couples without children accounts for 5% (see figure IV.3). An analysis of information for the past decade shows that since the early 1990s, the traditional nuclear family has ceased to represent the majority of families in all the Latin American countries except Chile and Mexico.

The most notable changes that occurred between 1990 and 2002 included a decline in the proportion

of traditional nuclear families and an increase (from 27% to 33%) in the proportion of two-parent families with children in which both parents are gainfully employed. The highest percentages of dual-income nuclear families with children are found in Bolivia (45%) and Peru (42%) (see table IV.2).

In addition, the proportion of single-parent nuclear families has risen from about 15% to about 19%; within this group, increases were observed among both nuclear families headed by gainfully employed women and nuclear families headed by men (see figure IV.3 and table IV.2). The highest percentage of families headed by gainfully employed women is found in Nicaragua, where such families account for some 14% of all nuclear families. In 2002, Ecuador and Peru had the highest percentage of single-parent nuclear families headed by men (almost 4% of all nuclear families). This coincided with an increase in women's migration from both countries (see table IV.2).

Generally speaking, it may be inferred that even though the decline in the average number of children per household has reduced the total burden of socialization, the increase in single-parent families has also reduced the number of adults available to carry out this task. This is particularly evident in the case of women, who, in many families, have exclusive responsibility for both productive and reproductive work. Added to this is the growing complexity of socialization in the region's societies, which are increasingly heterogeneous and fraught with risk.

With respect to the traditional family model, a study of households in the Buenos Aires metropolitan area (Jelin, 2004) found that, among households that included female spouses or partners between the ages of 20 and 60, the male-breadwinner model declined from 74.5% to 54.7% between 1980 and 2000, while the dual-income model increased from 25.5% to 45.3%. This change was seen both in families with

2 Household survey information cannot be used to identify complex or reconstituted nuclear families created by divorced or separated couples who form new unions. All families created in this way are regarded as two-parent nuclear families, even though they are not the result of the initial union (see box IV.1). The information also does not identify families in which one or more members have emigrated temporarily or permanently; often, these appear to be single-parent families.

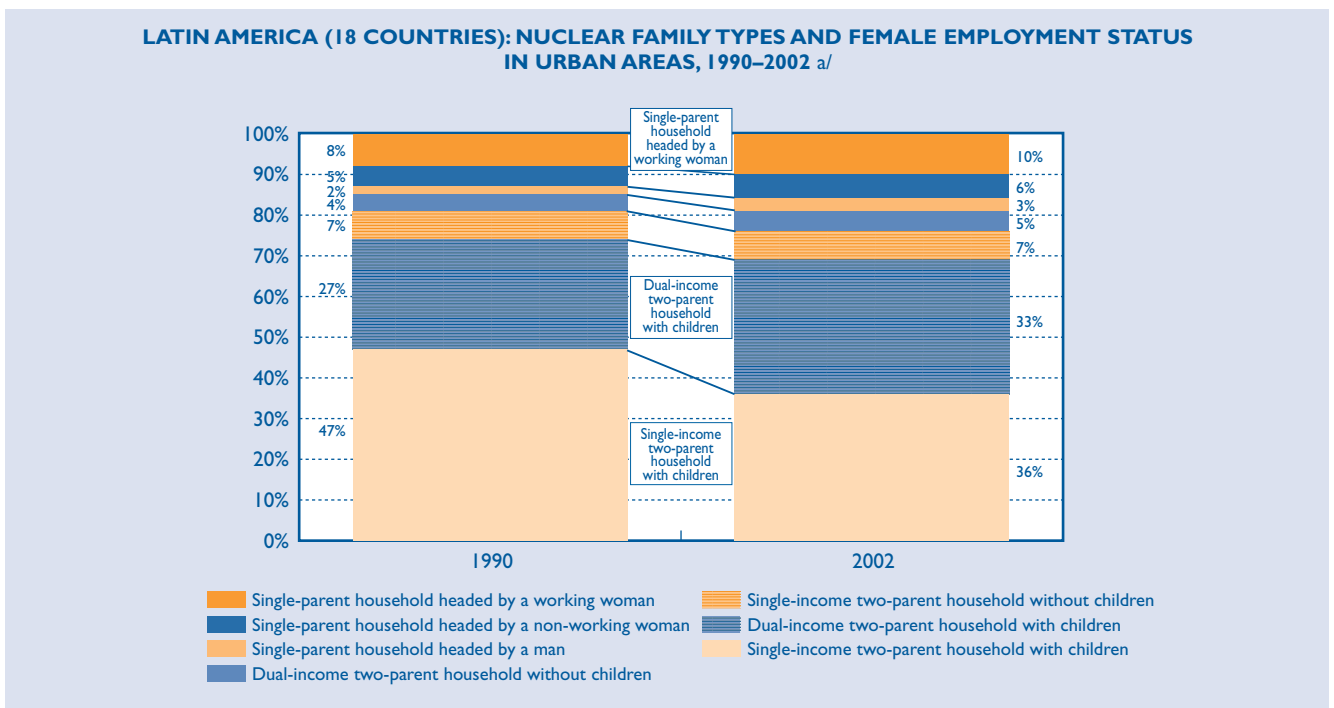
young children and in families without them, although it was more common among households that included only one child than among households with more children and, as might be expected, among women with high levels of education. In addition, it was more prevalent in the highest and lowest socio-economic strata than in the middle strata (Wainerman, 2003a).

Traditionally, most government policies have been based on the concept of a "functional" family, defined as a father and mother –joined in marriage with the expectation of staying together for life– and their children. This concept also encompasses clearly differentiated gender roles: the female members of the household have exclusive responsibility for household chores, while the males have exclusive responsibility for work outside the home. This family model presupposes the existence of tacitly acknowledged rights and obligations and constant interaction among the members of the family group.

Underlying this structure is a model of asymmetrical responsibilities and undemocratic relationships (Jusidman, 2003).

The new configuration of Latin American households and families calls for new policies aimed at both men and women, in their capacity as parents, and the social institutions whose support is required to help families meet their needs. These policies should pursue two basic aims: to help reconcile the demands of family life and work, on the one hand, and to help provide the necessary support for the care of children and older persons, on the other. Many of the changes observed in the family are the outcome of individual desires and choices rather than social pathologies. Policies must therefore be geared to facilitating, not limiting, individual choices by providing the resources needed to ensure the well-being of all family members (Esping-Andersen, 2003).

Figure IV.3



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

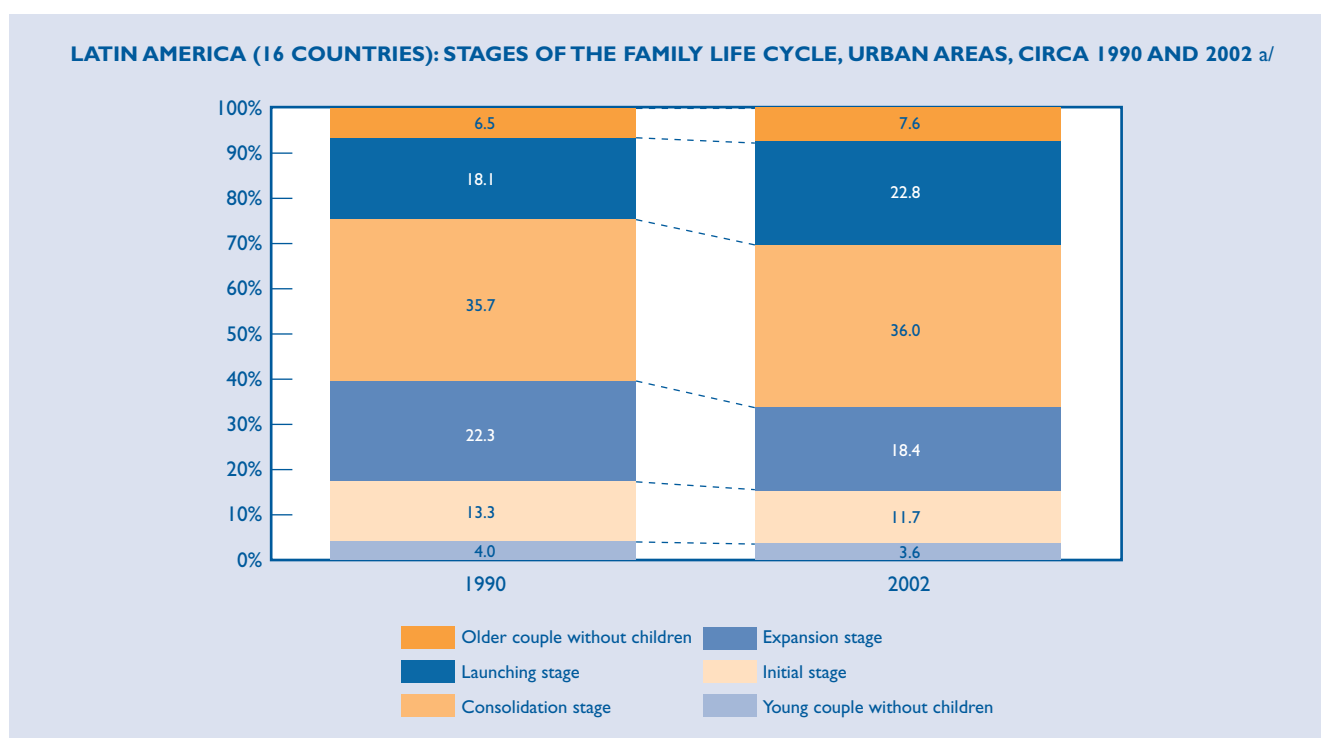
4. TRENDS IN FAMILY STRUCTURES, BY STAGE OF THE FAMILY LIFE CYCLE

The observation that family households go through a number of transitions over time has given rise to the concept of stages of the family life cycle. These stages consist of the initial stage, at which childbearing begins; the expansion stage, at which the number of children increases; the consolidation stage, at which childbearing has been completed; and the launching stage, at which children leave their household of origin to form households of their own (see box IV.2 and figure IV.4).

The distribution of Latin American families among the six stages of the family life cycle identified

on the basis of household survey information reveals that most of them are at the expansion and consolidation stages; i.e., the point at which childbearing has been completed. This is a stage at which family resources come under strong pressure, as the family has reached its maximum size and all the children are still at an age where they are economically dependent. Differences between countries in terms of the family life cycle reflect the different phases of demographic transition that they have reached. Thus, countries such as Bolivia, which are in an intermediate phase of demographic transition, have a larger proportion of families (about 16%) at the initial stage where they include young children; in Honduras, which is in full transition, this figure amounts to 18%.

Figure IV.4



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

a/ Simple average.

TYPOLOGY OF THE FAMILY LIFE CYCLE, CONSTRUCTED ON THE BASIS OF HOUSEHOLD SURVEY INFORMATION

In this typology, which applies exclusively to households that include a two-parent or single-parent conjugal unit, the benchmark variables are the oldest child's age, the youngest child's age and the mother's age. The youngest child's age is especially relevant, since it serves as an approximate measure of the burden of housework, which determines the family's household activities and priority needs.

- Young couple without children: a couple that has not had children and in which the woman is under the age of 40.
- Initial stage: families in which all children are 5 years old or younger.
- Expansion stage: families in which the oldest child is between the ages of 6 and 12 (irrespective of the age of the youngest child).
- Consolidation stage: families in which all children are between the ages of 13 and 18 or in which the oldest child is typically 12 to 15 years older than the youngest. This stage of the family life cycle is also the one in which the largest proportion of reconstituted families are concentrated, since a wide age gap between the oldest child and the youngest is sometimes indicative of a new union that has produced young children.
- Launching stage: families in which the youngest child is at least 19 years old.
- Older couple without children: a couple in which the woman is over the age of 40, living in a childless household.

It should be noted that the concept of the family life cycle is time-bound and longitudinal for each family and that this typology consists of "snapshots" of the family's situation at different moments in time. Nevertheless, it affords an approximation of the stages that different families have reached at a given time.

A number of studies conducted recently in Latin America show that couples tend to form a union upon the birth of their first child. This could account for the decline in the proportion of young couples without children (Guzmán and others, 2001). Another possible explanation is that young people of both sexes take longer to find jobs and, in some countries, housing.

There have been increases in the shares represented by families at the launching stage (that is, families in which all the children are over the age of 18) and older couples (who have no children or whose children have formed families of their own). This increase in the number of families at the later stages of the family life cycle is due to the increase in

the number of countries that have reached an advanced phase of demographic transition and whose populations are therefore ageing. Argentina and Uruguay have the highest proportions of families at the launching stage (25% and 27%, respectively) and of older couples without children (14% and 20%, respectively) (see table IV.3).

Families' needs differ according to the stage they have reached in the family life cycle, especially in the case of poor families. Box IV.3 below describes a study on the extremely poor families participating in Chile's Puente ("Bridge") programme, which seeks to reduce extreme poverty. The study is interesting in that it demonstrates how demands change according to family type and stage of the family life cycle.

CHILE: DEMANDS OF FAMILIES PARTICIPATING IN THE PUENTE PROGRAMME, BY FAMILY TYPE AND STAGE OF THE FAMILY LIFE CYCLE

The *Puente* programme was designed in 2001 by the Solidarity and Social Investment Fund (FOSIS) of the Ministry of Planning and Cooperation (MIDEPLAN) in order to implement the country's strategy for comprehensive intervention to assist families living in extreme poverty. This strategy was based on a profile of poor and indigent households constructed using information from the National Socio-economic Characterization Survey (CASEN).

On the basis of this profile of households and families, intervention models were proposed for providing comprehensive support to families living in extreme poverty. The aim was to enable them to satisfy their basic needs by generating income that places them above the indigence line and to activate the skills they need in order to join available local service networks.

From the programme's launching in 2002 up until 2004, family social workers enrolled 123,955 families in the programme. These workers' interactions with each family have yielded a wealth of information on families that live in these conditions. The profile of the families participating in the *Puente* programme is based on the typology of the family life cycle developed by ECLAC in carrying out sociodemographic analyses (ECLAC, 2001), and uses information from 31,114 families representing 42.2% of the total beneficiary pool.

In terms of distribution, 47.1% of the families are at the expansion stage, while 33.6% are at the consolidation and launching stages. Most two-parent nuclear families are at the expansion stage, while most two-parent extended families are at the consolidation stage and, later, at the expansion stage.

The minimum requirements for ensuring quality of life, as conceived under the programme, are related to identification, health, education, family dynamics, decent housing, work and income. When the analysis is focused on the beneficiaries' profile in terms of these stages, it can be observed that families' demands vary according to the stage they have reached in the family life cycle. At all stages of the cycle, families headed by women have more demands that need to be addressed under the programme, and the principal demand in the case of all families, irrespective of the cycle, is decent housing. For families at the initial stage or the expansion stage, the second most important demand concerns income, while for older couples without children it is related to health.

Source: Solidarity and Social Investment Fund (FOSIS), Programa *Puente*, "¿Cómo son las familias que construyen el Puente?", *Reflexiones desde el Puente: cuadernillo de trabajo*, No. 2, Santiago, Chile, August 2004.

B. TRENDS IN DIFFERENT FAMILY STRUCTURES WITH RESPECT TO WELL-BEING

Families' quality of life and well-being are related to household and family structure and to the stage they have reached in the family life cycle. In Latin America, smaller households (one-person households or nuclear families without children) and single-parent families headed by men are concentrated in the highest income quintile. Conversely, larger families (two-parent nuclear families with children, extended families and composite families) and single-parent families headed by women are concentrated in the poorest quintile.

In terms of the incidence of poverty according to the stage of the family life cycle, poverty rates are lowest among young couples without children and highest among families at the expansion stage, when the number of children increases and all of them are still dependent. Approximately 63% of Latin America's households and families have two or more economic dependants, and 46% have two or more breadwinners. Two-parent nuclear families with children, extended families and composite families have more breadwinners, but also two or more dependants, and this latter factor is reflected in their generally lower quality of life.

1. FAMILY STRUCTURE AND WELL-BEING

The relationship between the family and the processes that perpetuate social inequality has long been recognized. The reproduction of social inequalities is believed to take place through two main channels. The first is related to families'

kinship system and original circumstances, which provide their members with access to social, economic and symbolic assets; the second concerns the accessibility and hierarchical structure of occupations.

Individuals' chances of achieving well-being are influenced by the type of family to which they belong. The distribution of household types by income quintile shows that given household types tend to be concentrated in the poorest (quintile 1) or richest (quintile 5) categories. In 2002, individuals of means –i.e., those in the top 20% in terms of income– accounted for the largest share of one-person households; in fact, 41.6% of these households were in quintile 5 (see figure IV.5). Nuclear households without children and nuclear households headed by men are also better off, since the largest proportion of them are in the highest-income quintile. Conversely, the largest share of single-parent nuclear families headed by women is found in the bottom 20% in terms of income.

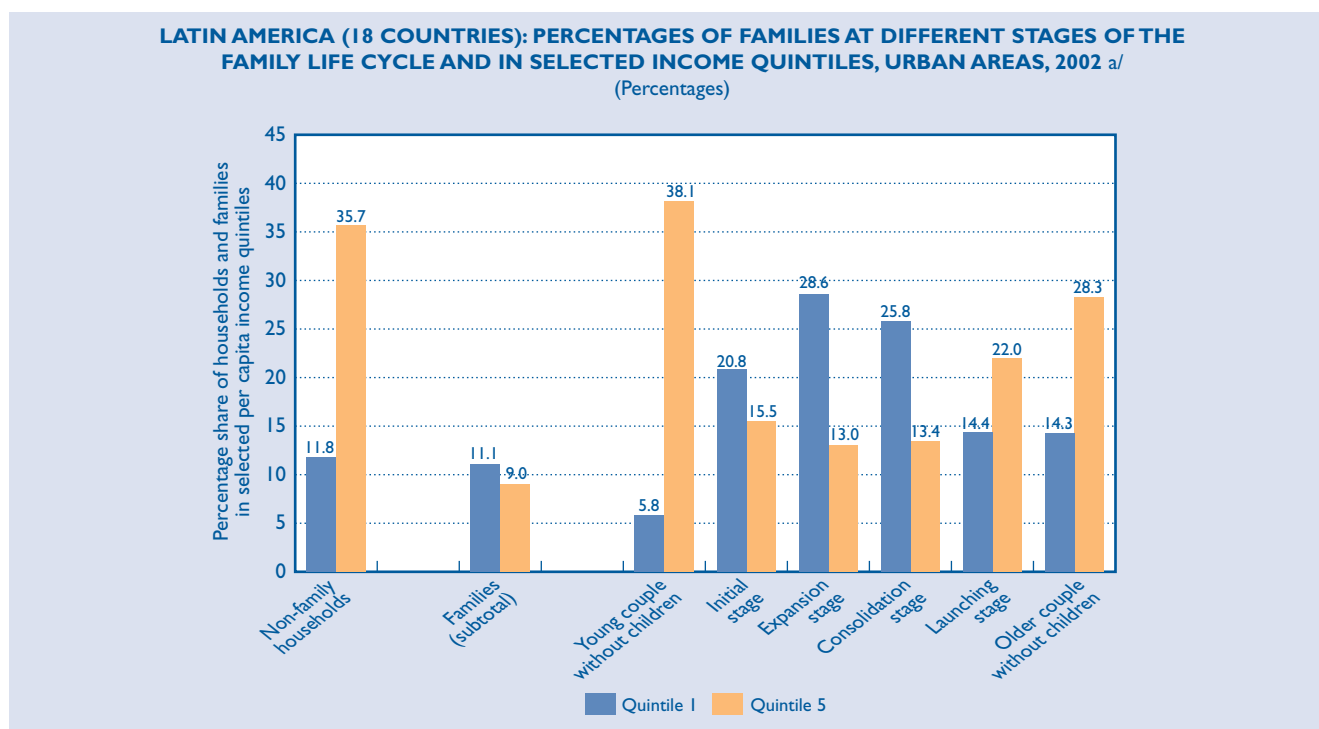
An analysis of poverty and indigence rates by type of household confirms that these rates are highest among extended and composite families and, within this group, among single-parent households headed by women. Poverty rates are also higher among nuclear families, especially two-parent nuclear families with children and single-parent nuclear families headed by women (see figure IV.6 and table IV.4). Poverty and indigence rates are lowest among one-person households and nuclear families without children, both those consisting of a young couple just beginning the family life cycle and those consisting of an older couple whose children have formed households of their own.

Of course, poverty rates in each type of household or family reflect the overall extent of poverty in each country. There are, however, variations in poverty rates by type of household, even in some of the poorest countries, such as Honduras and Nicaragua,

where households and families are affected by poverty to varying degrees. In these countries, poverty is lowest among one-person households, affecting less than half of such households, and is most prevalent among extended families, single-parent nuclear families headed by women and two-parent nuclear families with children (see table IV.4).

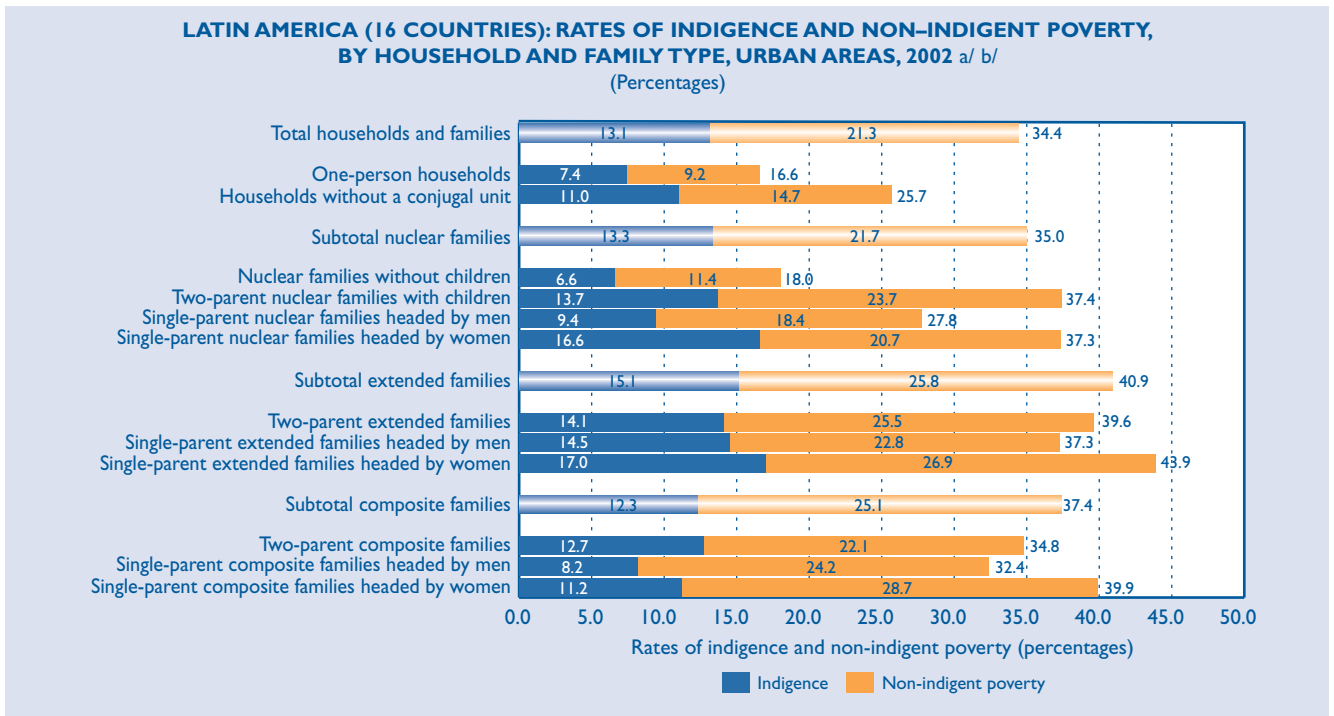
An analysis of poverty and indigence by stage of the family life cycle confirms that poverty is lowest among couples without children, although it is slightly higher among older couples without children than among younger couples without children (see figure IV.7). Families that include children and that have reached the initial, expansion and consolidation stages have the highest poverty and indigence rates; these rates tend to climb as families expand and their dependency burden increases.

Figure IV.5



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

Figure IV.6

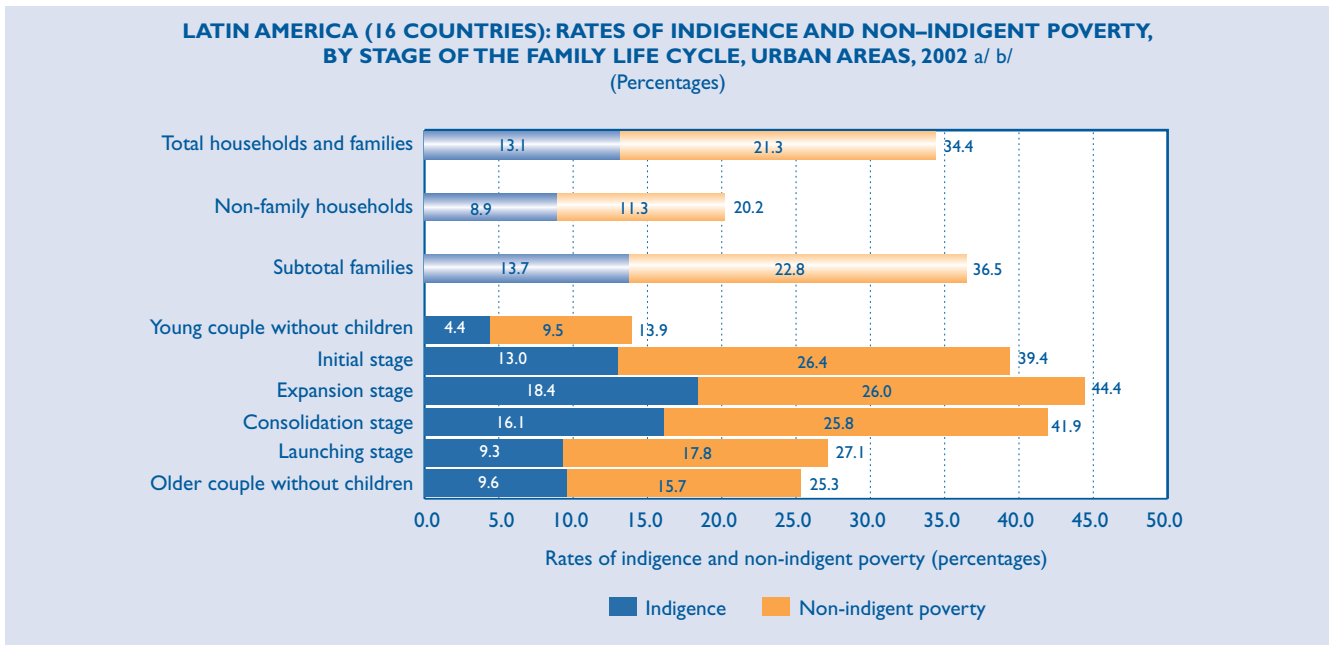


Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the countries.

a/ Simple average.

b/ The figures to the right of the bars are the rates of total poverty, including indigence.

Figure IV.7



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

a/ Simple average.

b/ The figures to the right of the bars are the rates of total poverty, including indigence.

2. FAMILIES AND HOUSEHOLD INCOME

One of the family's main functions is to provide its members with the economic resources they need in order to achieve well-being. In Latin America, different family types are in different situations with respect to dependants and breadwinners.

Not all households and families in the region receive labour income. One-person households account for the highest percentage of households that do not receive labour income, even though economic resources are a prerequisite for setting up these households. This apparent contradiction is due to the fact that most of these households consist of either older adults, who usually receive pension and retirement benefits, or young people, who may receive financial support from their parents.

Another interesting case is that of households and families that have two or more breadwinners. By definition, single-parent nuclear households are less likely to have more than one breadwinner, since the second breadwinner –in the absence of a partner– can only be a son or daughter. Not surprisingly, more than half of the region's two-parent nuclear families have two or more breadwinners, and two-parent nuclear families tend to have more breadwinners if the household includes children. While this may seem paradoxical, considering that childcare responsibilities are an impediment to women's entry into the workforce, it is also true that families with children are at earlier stages of the family and personal life cycle and that the mothers of such

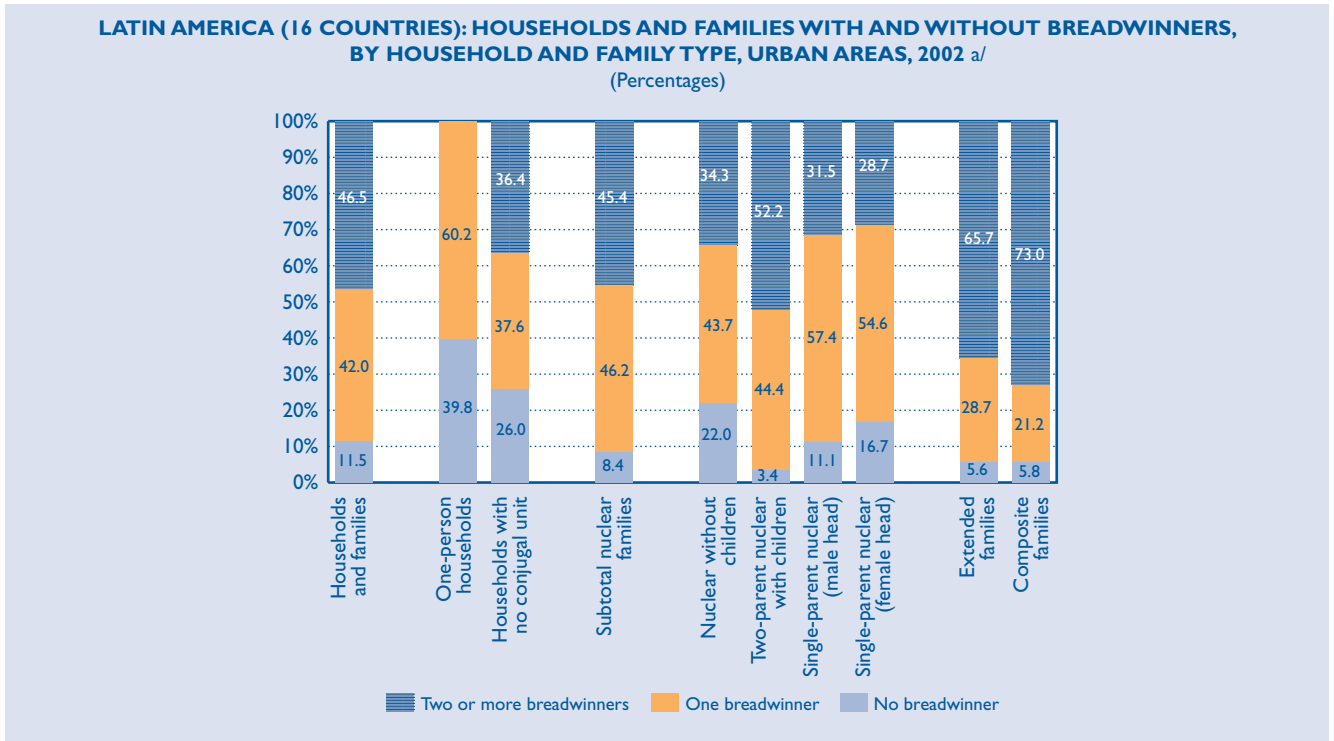
families are therefore younger and better educated, meaning that they are more likely to be economically active.

Information for the region as a whole shows that the formation of extended and composite families is an effective means of combining economic resources as a family survival strategy. This is demonstrated by the fact that over 65% of these families have two or more breadwinners (see figure IV.8).

Families with two or more dependants account for 68% of all households and families in Latin America. The largest proportions of such households and families are found among two-parent nuclear families with children, extended families and composite families. The largest proportions of households without dependants are found among one-person households and nuclear families without children. Only 11% of all households have no dependants, and 20.7% have only one dependant.

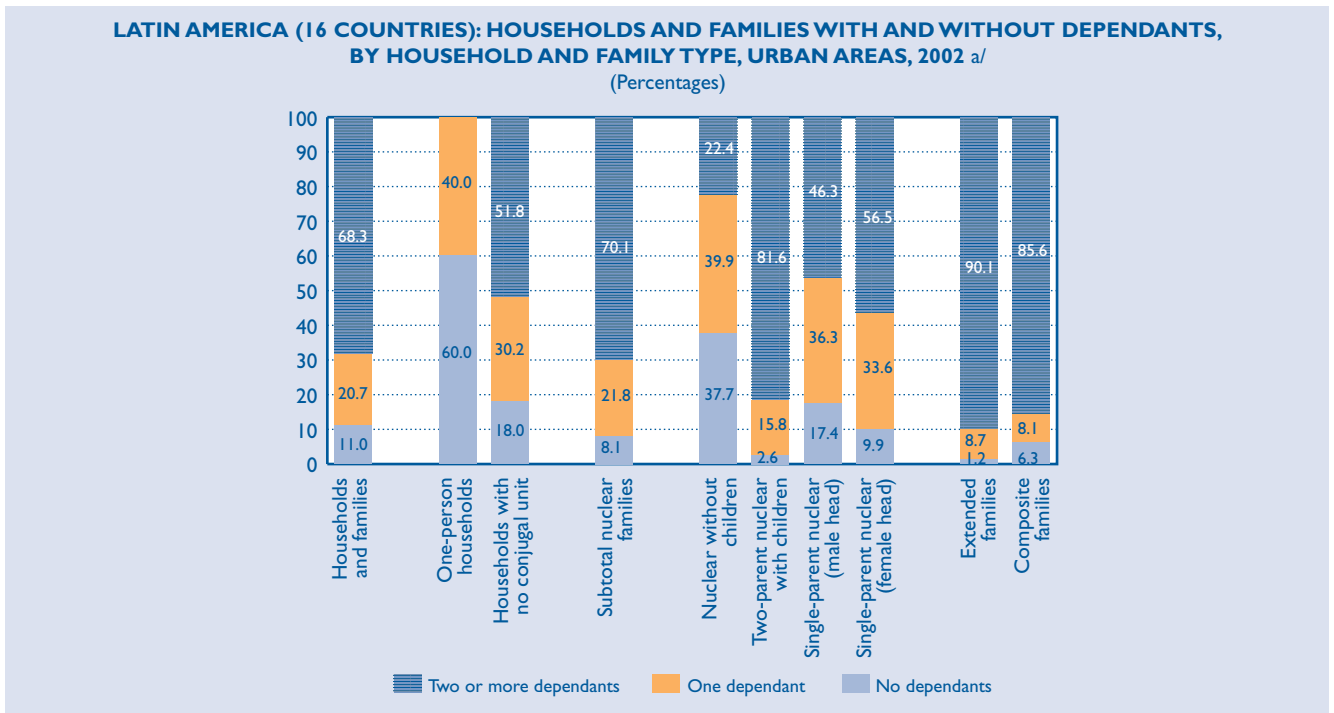
The life expectancy of Latin America's population is estimated to have increased from 67.3 years in 1985–1990 to 71.9 years in 2000–2005 (ECLAC, 2004d). It follows that the number of households and families that include older persons is also increasing. In 2002, households and families that included one or more members over the age of 65 accounted for one fifth of all Latin American households. Older persons are concentrated in households without a conjugal unit, one-person households and two-parent nuclear households without children (see figure IV.10).

Figure IV.8



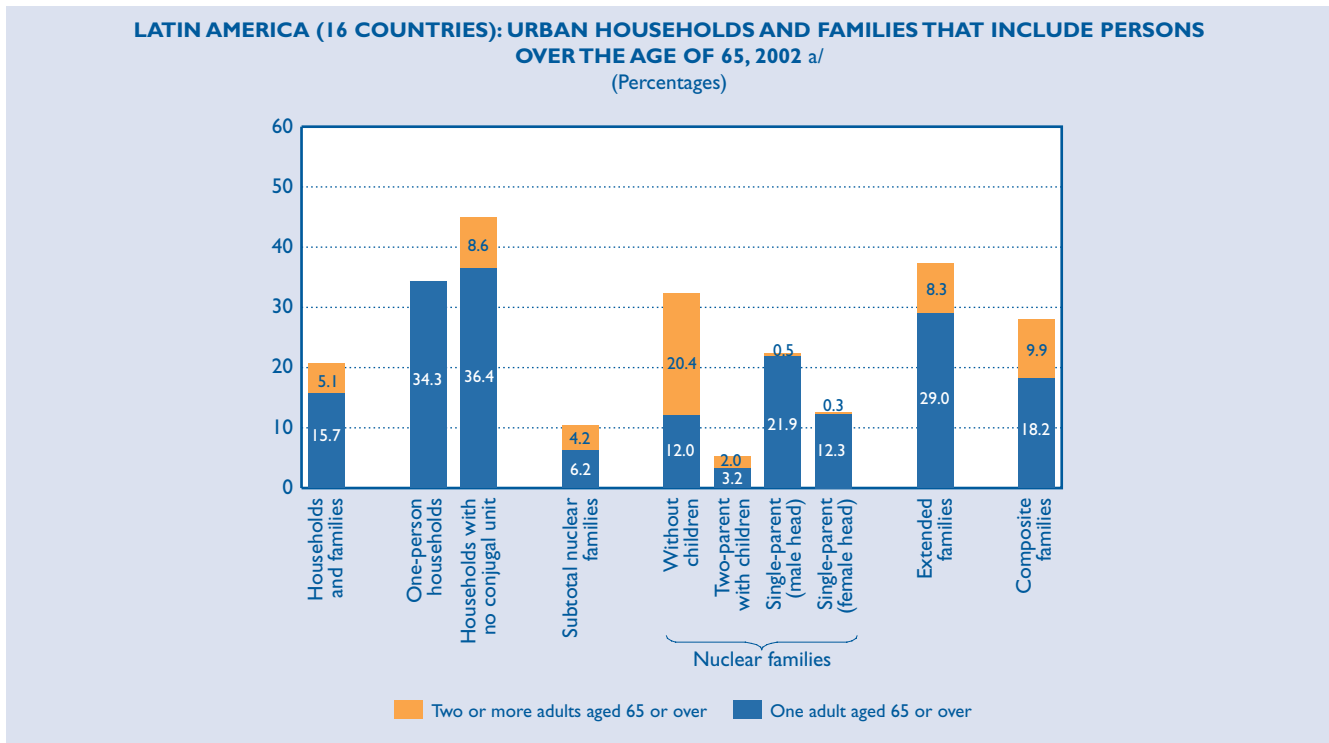
Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the countries.
a/ Simple average.

Figure IV.9



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

Figure IV.10



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

C. FAMILIES AND THE DISTRIBUTION OF LABOUR

The distribution of household work and paid work continues to be highly unequal between men and women. Although little information is available on the distribution of labour within households, in all the countries women's participation in the domestic sphere is considerably higher than men's, notwithstanding the increase in women's economic activity rates and the larger number of households with two or more breadwinners.

1. THE GENDER-BASED DIVISION OF LABOUR WITHIN AND OUTSIDE THE HOME

One of the key concepts employed in the study of the interrelationships between work and family life has been the notion of the sexual division of labour. This concept links the analysis of the two spheres and sheds light on their interrelationship and interdependence with social reproduction, which refers to the day-to-day care and socialization of different generations. Many studies have revealed the unequal participation of men and women in work and family life. Owing to men's and women's differential participation in the labour market, their participation in household work has different effects on the occupational homogeneity or heterogeneity of households and on their quality of life. Insofar as women's growing tendency to engage in paid work has not been accompanied by an equivalent increase in men's involvement in reproductive tasks in the home, women's workload has grown heavier (Ariza and de Oliveira, 2004).

Although the activities carried out in the family sphere involve the production of goods and services, this kind of production has relied on the availability of unpaid labour, does not have public visibility and is not taken into account in labour statistics. It has therefore been regarded as non-work, since work has traditionally been identified with paid employment (Carrasco, 2003). Moreover, the sexual division of labour, consolidated since industrialization, associates (albeit more in the collective imagination than in reality) male activity with mercantile production and female activity with household and family responsibilities. This rigid division of labour has obscured the fact that much of the work performed by women contributes significantly to family and social well-being.

It is important to analyse indicators of the activities carried out in the domestic-family sphere in conjunction with indicators relating to other economic and social spheres. The analysis of changes in these functions is hampered by a lack of relevant research and of policies geared to the new family types that have emerged. However, some case studies

provide information on changes in paternal and maternal roles in different age groups and on new family structures such as complex families (which include children from different unions). In this respect, a distinction should be made between concepts such as social parenthood (or parental roles) and biological parenthood. Studies on men's participation as fathers have pointed to the need to design policies and programmes aimed at encouraging men to participate actively in childcare. In addition, they have found that the presence of a non-violent father –whether biological or not– who fulfils his role as such has positive effects on children, family income, women and men themselves (Barker, 2003).

The failure to assign monetary value to unpaid domestic work obscures the real extent of women's economic contribution to development and to poverty reduction (ECLAC, 2004c). Time-use surveys have become an essential tool for understanding the changes and restructuring that have been wrought by women's growing participation in the workforce, and provide a basic quantitative input for characterizing the structure of household work, which is determined fundamentally by the family's socio-economic status, stage of the family life cycle and place of residence.

Time use in general, and the performance of unpaid household activities in particular, differ significantly between men and women, since the model on which the region's societies are structured relegates women to the private sphere, the household and the performance of reproductive tasks. Men, on the other hand, are associated with the public sphere and the performance of productive functions. Another factor that influences these differences in the amount of time spent on reproductive tasks

within the home is the current stage of the family life cycle. Women spend different amounts of time on household work depending on their age and marital status and the number and ages of children living in the household. The composition and functions of the household work performed by a young, unmarried woman with one child differ considerably from those performed by a married woman with more than two children. Studies of the household work carried out by different family members cannot fail to take the stage of the family life cycle into account, as this dimension yields a fuller understanding of the kind of household work performed and how it functions in different family structures.

2. RESULTS OF TIME-USE SURVEYS IN MEXICO AND URUGUAY

Changes in gender-related work patterns have not been accompanied by significant changes in the domestic sphere. There has been no major shift towards the sharing of domestic responsibilities in the distribution of household work. While the information gathered at the regional level on the basis of time-use surveys is scant and the data from different countries are not comparable to each other (see box IV.4 and ECLAC, 2004a), all the studies carried out show that, in both developed and developing countries, most unpaid domestic work is done by women (Araya, 2003; Carrasco, 2003; García, 2003; Aguirre, 2003). This is true even among women with full-time paid employment. Recent research studies aimed at quantifying the extra workload of Mexican women aged 12 years and over who do both household work and work in the labour market showed that such women's workweek is 9.3 hours longer than men's (Ariza and de Oliveira, 2004).

MEASURING WORK THROUGH TIME-USE SURVEYS

In recent years, new tools have been developed for gathering information on unpaid work, particularly household work. Such tools, especially time-use surveys, have made it possible to build up large data banks that illustrate the multiplicity of tasks included in household work, the time spent on each activity and the uneven distribution of household work between women and men. Nevertheless, even though available data on employment and household work could be used to approach the issue of work from a systemic perspective, the interrelationship between the two kinds of work is rarely taken into account.

Part of the reason for this is that figures on employment and household work are usually taken from different sources and are not always mutually compatible. They generally refer to different populations and time periods, use different methodologies or do both at the same time. Moreover, data on paid work and on family activities are taken from separate statistical series and are interpreted in two different analytical contexts: the world of work and the world of the family.

However, separating the study of data on employment from the study of data on household work obscures the strong interrelationship between the two kinds of work, thereby creating the fiction that female and male workers participate in the labour market in similar economic conditions and relegating "family constraints" and the sexual division of labour to the sphere of non-economic concerns (Carrasco, 2003).

Thus, traditional statistics have proved to be of limited use in analysing work and female employment, since they do not make it possible to analyse gender differences with respect to work and employment or the mechanisms governing economic and social reproduction.

Source: Cristina Carrasco, "Los tiempos de trabajo: entre la casa y el mercado. Nuevas aproximaciones de análisis de resultados", paper presented at the Meeting of Experts on Time-Use Surveys, Santiago, Chile, 11 and 12 December 2003; María José Araya, "Un acercamiento a las encuestas sobre el uso del tiempo con orientación de género", *Mujer y desarrollo series*, No. 50 (LC/L.2022-P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), November 2003. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.03.II.G.184.

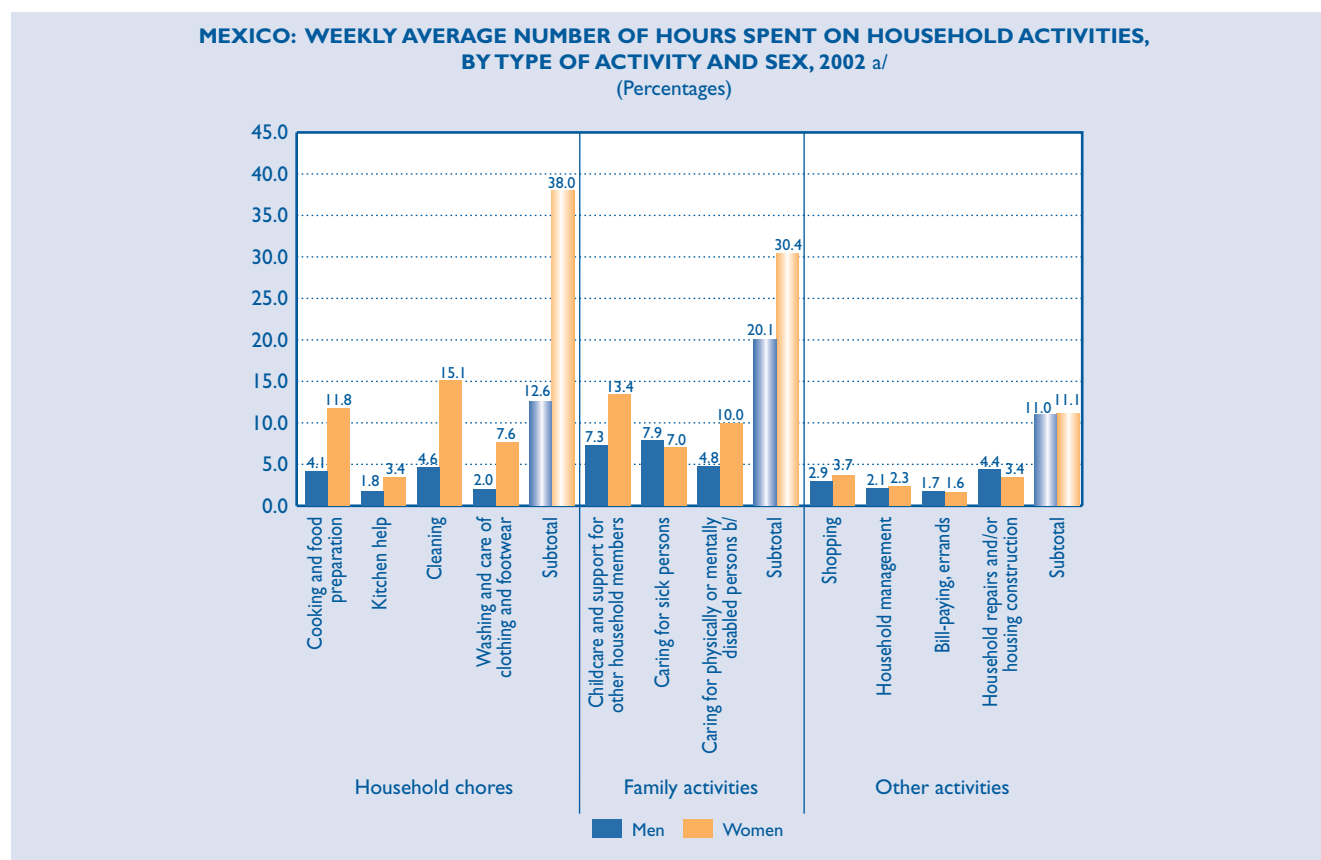
The preliminary results of a national time-use survey carried out in Mexico in 2002 show that women account for 85% of the total time spent on household work, while men account for 15%. The hours spent on household work are distributed as follows: women devote an average of 13 hours a week exclusively to caring for children and other members of the household, while men spend about half that amount of time on those tasks; and women spend approximately 38 hours a week on cooking and cleaning, while men spend 12.5 hours on those chores, or less than one third of the time spent by women (see figure IV.11).

In Mexico, families in which both partners work in the labour market number about 4.8 million, and women spend an average of 15 hours more per week than men on paid work and household work combined. Men and women divide their workweek

among a number of activities, including economic activity (an average of 52 hours and 37 hours for men and women, respectively), house cleaning (4 hours and 15 hours), cooking (7 hours and 15.5 hours), childcare (nearly 8 hours and 12 hours) and laundry and other clothing care (1.5 hours and just over 8 hours).

Taking into account all the survey respondents over the age of 12, the total time spent on household activities is divided between girls and women, on the one hand, and boys and men, on the other, as follows: 82% and 18%, respectively, in the case of cooking; 64% and 36% in the case of childcare; and 65% and 35% in the case of cleaning and shopping. The only area in which boys and men account for most of the hours worked (70%) is household repairs and housing construction (INEGI, 2003) (see figure IV.12).

Figure IV.11



Source: National Institute of Statistics, Geography and Information (INEGI), *Encuesta de uso de tiempo 2002*, Mexico City, 2004.

a/ This figure reflects the average number of hours spent by men and women on household activities. In all, 15% of these hours are worked by men and 85% are worked by women.

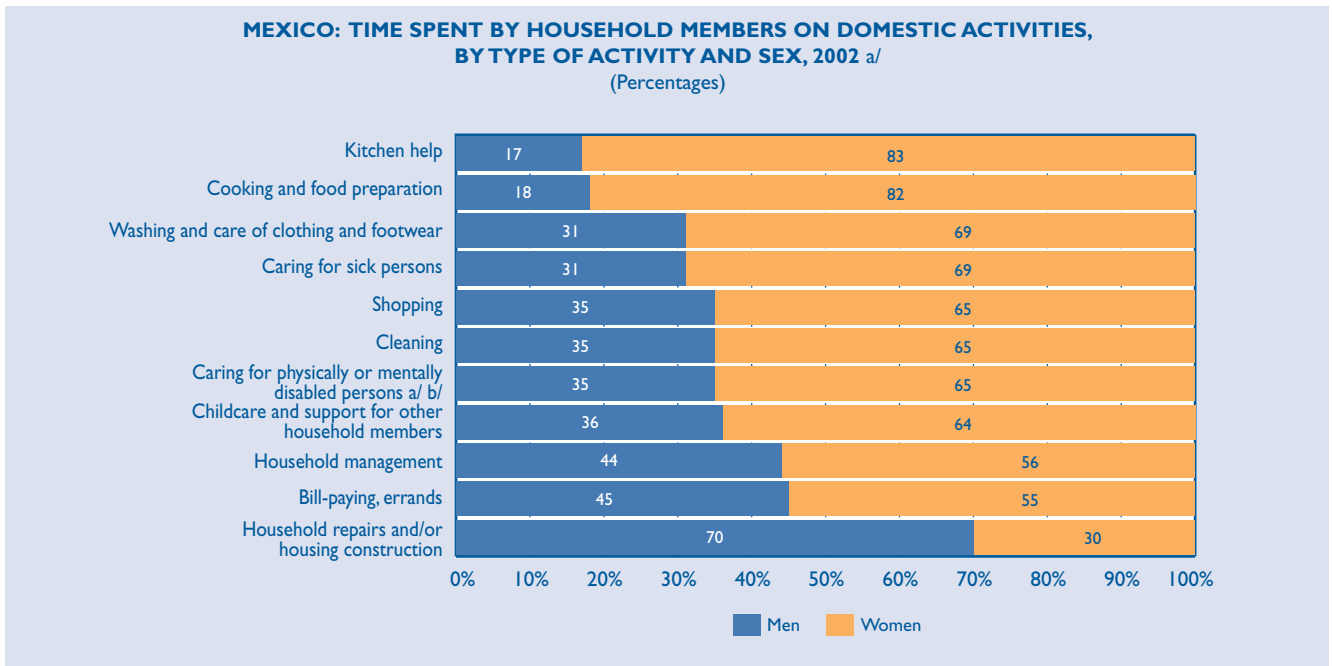
b/ May be carried out simultaneously with other activities.

According to a survey conducted in Montevideo in 2003, the number of hours spent on unpaid work varies dramatically by sex. Men spend 10 fewer hours per week on domestic chores than women; on average, men and women spend 13 and 32 hours per week, respectively, on all household chores combined (see figure IV.13). Men and women devote similar amounts of time to childcare, shopping and errands, and men spend slightly more time caring for older persons.³ In households

consisting of a couple with at least one child under the age of 18, women perform most of the unpaid household work, with an average of 62.5 hours per week; the average is 56.6 hours in single-parent households and 56.2 hours in three-generation households. Data on two-parent households indicate that male spouses or partners spend an average of 13.6 hours per week on household work, while female spouses or partners spend 54.2 hours.

³ The author of the study from which these data were taken raises questions about the finding that men spend more time caring for the elderly. She notes that the responses on which the finding was based are few in number, meaning that they may not be very representative, since this activity is carried out in a small percentage of households. Another factor may be that many women fail to report the caregiving work they perform, since traditional gender roles dictate that they are expected to provide such care. When men carry out this task, they are more likely to identify it as an activity akin to work that could also be performed by other members of the family or third parties.

Figure IV.12



Source: National Institute of Statistics, Geography and Information (INEGI), *Encuesta de uso de tiempo 2002*, Mexico City, 2004.

a/ Refers to the population aged 12 or over.

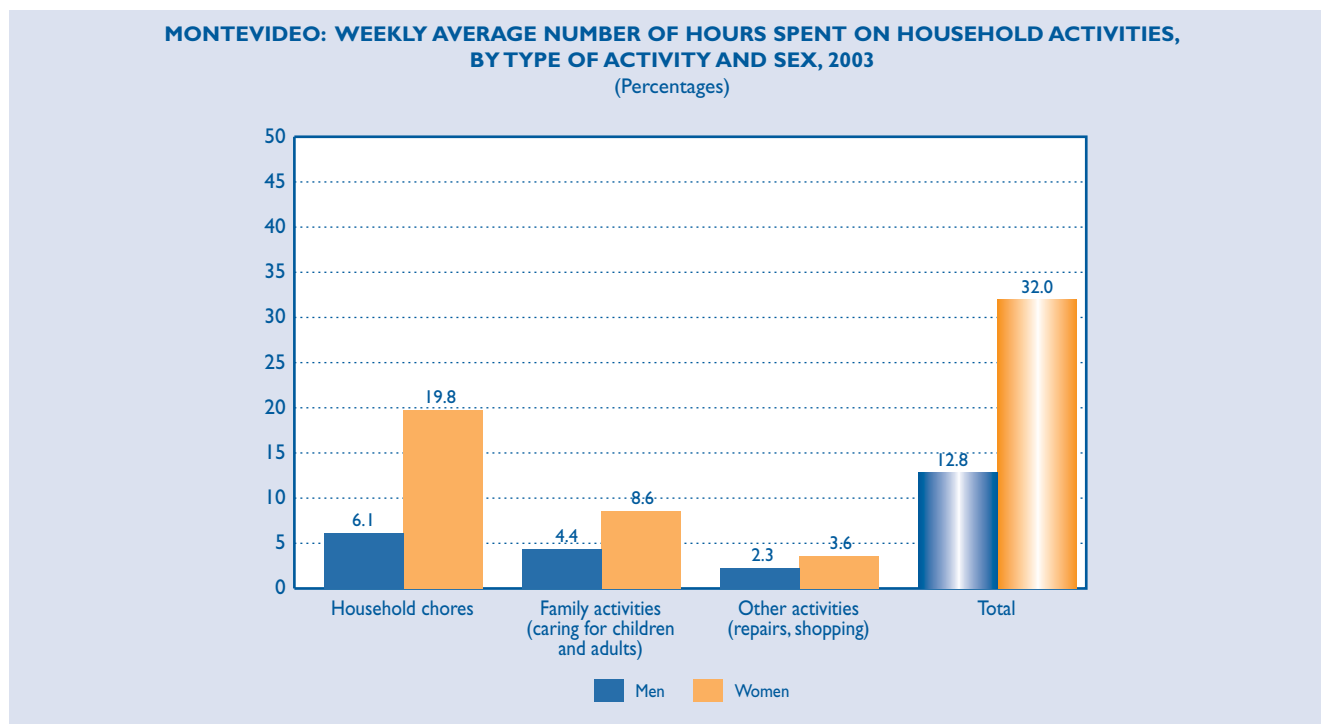
b/ May be carried out simultaneously with other activities.

When men live alone, they spend about the same amount of time on housework as women living alone. When they live with a spouse or partner, they do less than half the unpaid work carried out by single men, and the 26.4 hours per week of work that they no longer perform are shifted to the female spouse or partner. Women who live with a spouse or partner do 26.2 more hours of unpaid work per week than women who live alone. The presence of a child adds another 16 hours of unpaid work per week when the woman has paid employment, or 22.7 hours when she does not. These data suggest that women’s

unequal share of unpaid work can be traced not only to the presence of a child or children, but also to the powerful effect of the sexual division of labour within the household, regardless of whether or not children are present (Aguirre, 2004).

In sum, the most recent time–use surveys in Latin America confirm that household chores are distributed unevenly between men and women and that policies should be developed to support women who work outside the home and to provide care for children and older persons.

Figure IV.13



Source: Rosario Aguirre, "Trabajo no remunerado y uso del tiempo. Fundamentos conceptuales y avances empíricos. La encuesta Montevideo 2003", Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), unpublished.

D. POLICIES FOR RECONCILING WORK AND FAMILY LIFE

The sweeping changes that have taken place in both the family and labour conditions call for new policy approaches that encourage the redistribution of household work and of responsibility for the care of children and the elderly. Employed persons, especially women, face three major conflicts between work and family life: time constraints, as the demands of one type of work impede the performance of the other; the tension generated by the obligation to perform well in both roles; and the different qualities required by the two types of work. To help the population cope with these problems, it is important to adopt measures related to the organization of working hours, services to assist with household and family chores and work-related advisory and support services.

In recent decades, significant changes in the production paradigm that characterized industrial capitalism have transformed employment patterns. At the same time, women have stepped onto the public stage by entering the labour market on a massive scale, thereby shouldering a double workload, one at home and the other in the labour market. Feminist movements arose as part of the same trend, and today they continue to press for structural change with a view to achieving a new social contract that envisages a more balanced interplay of roles in the public and private spheres, thereby placing women on an equal footing with men in the economic, social and political arenas.

In a society that has traditionally assigned women exclusive responsibility for household

chores, family care and reproductive work in the private sphere, while giving men the role of breadwinner, these processes have put tremendous strain on the twentieth-century model for reconciling work and family responsibilities.

The traditional model is changing, however. Whereas the family once served to shore up the production system through the division of roles and functions, today this division has become an obstacle and a burden that prevents people from meeting the new demands of market-oriented production. This creates strong tension between family life and work. Moreover, firms' growing competitiveness in increasingly demanding markets puts great pressure on employees who have both work and family responsibilities. This, in turn, increases individuals'

needs in terms of affective development, which largely takes place within the family, while at the same time making these needs harder to meet.

By guiding the processes of maturation and development, the basic family unit continues to play a crucial role in supporting affective relationships, the construction of subjective identity and socialization. The family is generally seen as a refuge and the depository of individual and social identity. It is required to adapt in multiple ways to changing circumstances, and it is profoundly affected by limitations on its members' ability to generate income and to remain in the formal or informal labour market.

The dramatic changes that have taken place in social, family and labour relations have given business owners, workers of both sexes and governments a new challenge: to build fairer and more humane working environments that are also more productive and competitive. Today's world calls for public policies that foster compatibility between work and family life, between the public and private spheres and between the household and society, while halting the reproduction of labour discrimination and gender inequalities and enabling families to thrive. Such policies must reflect an understanding of the complex processes whereby family ties develop in a diversified and unequal society.

The principal institutional resources from which well-being is derived are the State, the market, families themselves and the third estate (the community). While it is clear that public intervention affects the decisions taken by families, it is also true that families' decisions and ways of life have a significant impact on public policies. For example, the particular way in which education or housing policies are structured affects families' consumption and investment decisions.

Moreover, decisions taken within families are closely interlinked with society itself. The State is not unaffected by families' decision to have fewer

children or by women's decision to enter the labour force and to divide their time between child and elder care and economic activity. These and other decisions, as well as families' patterns of behaviour, have the potential to bring about changes in the demand for public goods and services and to modify public policies in one way or another. Some aspects of this interrelationship between the family and public policy are especially significant.

First, there is consensus on the need for family policies aimed at helping to reconcile family life and work, since women's right to enter the labour market and receive equal treatment should not impair the equally legitimate right of children to be brought up by their parents and to spend as much of their childhood as possible with them. There are no set rules on the ideal balance between the time spent on work and the time devoted to raising children and caring for the family. Most people's working lives are clearly concentrated in what could be called their peak working years (between the ages of 25 and 45), but these ages are also the most important period for starting a family and raising children.

Second, the design of family policies for this purpose should take into account not only the interests of children, but also those of other dependants within the family, especially older persons. Given the current configuration of the population pyramid and the increase in life expectancy, the dependent population is clearly on the rise. In view of the shift in the balance between younger dependants and older dependants, the supports provided under public policies to help families with dependants should be reviewed with an eye to enabling such families to combine family life and paid employment.

Third, the difficulty of reconciling working life with family responsibilities has led many families to take important life decisions such as delaying marriage, having fewer children or undertaking more years of education, thereby delaying entry into the workforce. In connection with this last

phenomenon, in some cases motherhood is one of the determining factors that force women to stop engaging in paid activity, especially when their income from such activity is subsidiary to their partner's income (that is, when the woman is not the primary breadwinner) and when their employment is precarious and informal. However, as noted earlier, two-parent families with children are now more likely to have at least two breadwinners, and the number of single-parent households headed by women has increased. These trends indicate that many women with young children are entering and remaining in the labour market, with the result that many families are struggling to meet both family and work responsibilities. Day-care centres, pre-schools and schools should be one of the main resources to which families can turn for help in this regard. Often, women are obliged to devise individual strategies involving relatives, who are thereby overloaded with caregiving responsibilities.

The work-family conflict arises when pressures in the environment make the two spheres incompatible in some respect (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). At least three types of conflicts may arise in this regard. The first occurs when the time spent on one of the two functions leaves less time for the other. The second emerges when women are subject to strong pressure in performing one of the roles and are therefore less effective in the other role. The third is related to situations in which there are incompatibilities between desirable behaviours in the two spheres (Yang and others, 2000).

The negative consequences of such work-family conflicts have been studied as well. They include increased health risks among working parents, poor performance in the parental function, psychological tension, anxiety, frequent irritation, depression, work-related stress and a variety of psychosomatic problems (Frone, Russell and Cooper, 1997). The problems stemming from the performance of multiple roles affects not just the individuals

concerned, but also the firms that employ them. Lack of job satisfaction, underperformance, lack of commitment to the organization and higher levels of absenteeism and turnover are some of the potential effects of the tensions generated by the simultaneous performance of labour and family roles (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985).

Labour flexibility, which is promoted in many countries and is manifested in the supply of part-time and temporary jobs, has in practice encouraged women to enter or return to the labour market since it enables them to combine domestic tasks, particularly childcare, with paid work. It is undoubtedly an important instrument because it enables women to stay in contact with the market and the world of paid work. However, this flexibility should not be allowed to exacerbate workplace and household inequalities between men and women by increasing the wage gap between this type of employment and full-time employment or to serve as a means of increasing the precariousness of employment in general. The fact that more women than men engage in this type of employment attests to the persistence of sexist patterns of distributing household responsibilities (Mires, 2004).

There is an urgent need to evaluate models for the protection and care of children and their compatibility with the labour market. Labour flexibility should be reviewed in terms of working hours and maternity and paternity leave and should be geared to facilitating flexibility for workers with young children. This problem has taken on special significance in today's world. On the one hand, it poses challenges for the projection and planning of public expenditure on the creation and expansion of care services for children and other dependants. On the other, it requires policy makers to view the care and socialization of children as not just a private family matter, but a task incumbent on society as a whole.

The foregoing analysis suggests a number of areas in which policies to harmonize work and family life should be designed and implemented: measures relating to the organization of working hours, including regulations on more flexible working hours, the length of the workday, working from home and teleworking; services to assist with household responsibilities, such as support for family and household needs, expansion of care services for

school-age and pre-school children (through drop-in centres, creches and day-care centres), social security and home help for the care of dependent persons; work-related advisory and support services, such as parental leave for the birth or illness of a child; and other measures designed to create conditions that optimize men's and women's ability to successfully meet their work and family responsibilities.

Table IV.1

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): DISTRIBUTION OF HOUSEHOLDS BY TYPE, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002												
(Percentages)												
Country	Year	Total households	Household types									
			Non-family households		Families						Other family types	
			One-person household	Households without a conjugal unit	Nuclear families				Other family types			
					Subtotal nuclear families	No children	Two-parent with children	Single-parent (male head)	Single-parent (female head)	Extended	Composite	
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	100.0	12.5	4.2	69.9	15.5	46.8	1.2	6.4	12.8	0.7	
	2002	100.0	15.3	3.9	66.7	14.1	41.7	2.4	8.5	13.5	0.5	
	Urban total	2002	100.0	14.8	5.1	65.3	12.5	41.0	2.2	9.5	14.4	0.4
Bolivia (8 major cities plus El Alto)	1989	100.0	5.5	3.0	72.4	4.2	58.8	1.7	7.7	17.4	1.7	
	2002	100.0	8.4	3.9	71.1	5.2	53.2	1.7	11.0	15.8	0.7	
	Urban total	2002	100.0	8.7	4.2	69.4	5.1	52.0	1.8	10.5	16.9	0.8
Brazil	1990	100.0	7.9	3.9	71.1	10.0	51.6	1.2	8.4	16.0	1.1	
	2002	100.0	9.8	4.0	68.7	10.7	46.5	1.3	10.2	16.7	0.8	
Chile	1990	100.0	6.5	4.3	64.4	7.8	47.8	1.2	7.7	23.1	1.7	
	2000	100.0	7.9	4.2	64.1	8.4	47.2	1.3	7.3	22.7	1.0	
Colombia	1991	100.0	4.8	5.5	64.6	5.3	48.8	1.0	9.6	22.9	2.2	
	2002	100.0	8.3	5.3	59.1	6.7	40.1	1.5	10.7	24.8	2.4	
Costa Rica	1990	100.0	5.0	5.1	68.5	6.6	51.3	1.0	9.5	19.3	2.2	
	2002	100.0	6.8	4.3	68.7	8.5	47.5	1.1	11.7	18.1	2.0	
Ecuador	1990	100.0	5.5	4.5	64.1	5.5	50.2	1.5	6.9	23.0	2.8	
	2002	100.0	8.7	4.9	61.5	6.2	44.2	2.5	8.5	21.3	3.6	
El Salvador	1995	100.0	6.1	6.2	55.0	5.5	38.1	1.2	10.2	30.3	2.4	
	2001	100.0	7.8	6.4	54.9	5.7	36.2	1.4	11.6	29.8	1.0	
Guatemala	1998	100.0	4.3	4.1	63.3	5.6	46.0	1.3	10.4	26.6	1.8	
Honduras	1990	100.0	4.2	5.9	57.0	4.5	41.8	1.2	9.6	27.8	5.0	
	2002	100.0	5.1	5.8	55.4	4.3	38.9	1.5	10.7	24.7	8.9	
Mexico	1989	100.0	4.6	4.1	71.6	6.3	57.6	1.2	6.4	19.2	0.5	
	2002	100.0	6.5	3.2	70.8	8.3	51.7	1.5	9.4	19.0	0.4	
Nicaragua	1993	100.0	5.2	4.2	54.5	3.5	40.0	1.4	9.5	34.2	2.0	
	2001	100.0	4.1	4.3	53.3	3.7	37.7	1.1	10.8	36.1	2.2	
Panama	1991	100.0	8.4	5.6	60.3	7.0	41.8	1.8	9.7	23.5	2.2	
	2002	100.0	9.0	5.6	58.6	8.0	38.6	1.5	10.5	25.6	1.3	
Paraguay (Asunción and Central Department)	1990	100.0	6.8	3.8	54.6	5.4	42.4	1.3	5.5	26.2	8.6	
	2000	100.0	8.0	6.4	55.1	5.8	40.1	1.7	7.6	27.4	3.1	
	Urban total	2000	100.0	8.4	5.6	57.0	6.0	41.0	1.4	8.6	25.8	3.2
Peru	2001	100.0	7.6	4.8	58.0	3.8	44.1	2.1	8.0	26.2	3.4	
Dominican Republic	2002	100.0	9.4	6.8	56.6	7.4	36.4	1.5	11.3	23.3	3.9	
Uruguay	1990	100.0	13.9	5.6	64.3	17.0	38.9	1.3	7.2	14.9	1.3	
	2002	100.0	17.7	5.4	61.3	16.3	34.8	1.6	8.6	14.7	0.9	
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) a/	1990	100.0	5.1	5.2	57.0	4.3	43.9	1.3	7.6	30.3	2.4	
	2002	100.0	6.8	5.1	56.9	5.2	41.0	1.3	9.4	28.5	2.7	
Latin America b/	1990	100.0	6.7	4.8	63.1	7.2	46.3	1.3	8.4	23.0	2.4	
	2002	100.0	8.4	4.8	61.9	7.7	42.8	1.5	9.8	22.8	2.1	

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

a/ Nationwide total.

b/ Simple average for 16 countries.

Table IV.2

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): TYPES OF NUCLEAR FAMILIES AND FEMALE EMPLOYMENT STATUS IN URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Two-parent nuclear families				Single-parent nuclear families			Total
		Without children		With children		Headed by women		Headed by men	
		Dual-income	Single-income	Dual-income	Single-income	Headed by a working woman	Headed by a non-working woman		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	6.4	15.8	23.5	43.4	5.4	3.8	1.7	100.0
	2002	7.5	13.6	26.9	35.5	7.0	5.8	3.6	100.0
Bolivia (8 major cities)	1989	1.9	3.9	36.2	45.0	7.7	2.9	2.4	100.0
	2002	4.5	2.8	44.7	30.1	12.0	3.4	2.5	100.0
Brazil	1990	5.3	8.7	27.2	45.3	6.4	5.3	1.7	100.0
	2001	7.0	8.5	32.3	35.4	8.5	6.4	1.9	100.0
Chile	1990	3.3	8.8	20.5	53.6	5.5	6.4	1.8	100.0
	2000	4.5	8.5	28.0	45.5	6.7	4.7	2.0	100.0
Colombia	1991	3.4	4.8	28.4	47.0	8.9	6.0	1.6	100.0
	2002	5.2	6.2	32.8	35.1	11.4	6.7	2.5	100.0
Costa Rica	1990	2.8	6.8	22.8	52.2	7.6	6.3	1.5	100.0
	2002	4.7	7.8	29.4	39.6	11.0	6.0	1.5	100.0
Ecuador	1990	3.2	5.4	29.8	48.5	7.1	3.7	2.4	100.0
	2002	4.6	6.0	33.3	38.3	10.0	3.7	4.1	100.0
El Salvador	1995	4.7	5.3	34.7	34.5	12.6	5.9	2.2	100.0
	2001	4.5	5.9	35.2	30.7	13.9	7.3	2.5	100.0
Guatemala	1998	3.8	5.1	39.4	33.3	10.6	5.8	2.1	100.0
Honduras	1990	2.6	5.3	25.7	47.6	11.0	5.7	2.0	100.0
	2002	3.5	4.4	30.3	39.8	12.8	6.4	2.7	100.0
Mexico	1989	2.4	6.4	20.7	59.8	5.3	3.6	1.7	100.0
	2002	4.8	6.9	28.9	44.0	9.0	4.3	2.1	100.0
Nicaragua	1993	3.2	3.3	31.0	42.4	12.3	5.1	2.6	100.0
	2001	4.4	2.6	35.2	35.6	14.5	5.6	2.1	100.0
Panama	1991	3.1	8.6	23.3	45.9	8.5	7.5	3.0	100.0
	2002	5.5	8.1	30.0	35.8	10.3	7.6	2.6	100.0
Paraguay (Asunción and Central Department)	1990	3.4	6.3	32.6	45.1	5.6	4.6	2.4	100.0
	2000	6.8	3.7	37.6	35.0	8.5	5.4	3.0	100.0
Peru	2001	3.0	3.5	42.1	33.9	9.5	4.3	3.6	100.0
Dominican Republic	2002	5.6	7.4	27.9	36.3	11.1	8.9	2.6	100.0
Uruguay	1990	7.7	18.8	27.4	32.9	5.6	5.6	2.0	100.0
	2002	8.3	18.4	28.6	28.2	7.5	6.5	2.6	100.0
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) a/	1990	2.5	5.1	24.5	52.4	7.2	6.0	2.2	100.0
	2002	4.3	4.9	34.5	37.5	10.7	5.8	2.3	100.0
Latin America b/	1990	3.8	7.5	27.0	46.2	8.0	5.4	2.1	100.0
	2002	5.3	7.1	32.9	36.2	10.3	5.7	2.5	100.0

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

a/ Nationwide total.

b/ Simple average for 16 countries.

Table IV.3

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILIES BY STAGE OF THE FAMILY LIFE CYCLE, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002											
(Percentages)											
Country	Year	Total households	Non-family households	Families (subtotal)		Stage of the family life cycle					
						Young couple without children	Initial stage	Expansion stage	Consolidation stage	Launching stage	Older couple without children
(Percentages of total households)						(Percentages of total families)					
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	100.0	16.6	83.4	100.0	4.3	11.7	17.4	29.0	21.0	16.6
	2002	100.0	19.3	80.7	100.0	5.2	10.8	14.6	29.9	25.1	14.4
Urban total	2002	100.0	19.9	80.1	100.0	4.4	10.6	15.1	31.5	25.3	13.0
Bolivia (8 major cities plus El Alto)	1989	100.0	8.5	91.5	100.0	2.2	15.3	25.5	40.2	12.7	4.0
	2002	100.0	12.3	87.7	100.0	2.4	15.5	22.3	41.2	14.0	4.7
Urban total	2002	100.0	12.9	87.1	100.0	2.3	15.1	22.7	41.2	13.9	4.7
Brazil	1990	100.0	11.8	88.3	100.0	5.9	15.9	21.8	33.5	15.8	7.2
	2002	100.0	13.8	86.2	100.0	6.0	13.5	19.0	32.5	20.5	8.4
Chile	1990	100.0	10.9	89.1	100.0	2.8	13.0	18.0	33.5	24.9	7.8
	2000	100.0	12.1	87.9	100.0	2.9	9.1	18.7	34.8	25.7	8.9
Colombia	1991	100.0	10.2	89.8	100.0	4.0	15.4	21.3	35.5	20.1	3.7
	2002	100.0	13.6	86.4	100.0	4.0	11.3	18.7	34.0	25.7	6.4
Costa Rica	1990	100.0	10.1	89.9	100.0	3.8	14.2	20.6	35.9	19.9	5.6
	2002	100.0	11.1	88.8	100.0	3.9	10.0	17.4	38.7	22.3	7.7
Ecuador	1990	100.0	10.1	89.9	100.0	3.9	14.9	22.7	37.9	15.5	5.1
	2002	100.0	13.6	86.4	100.0	3.8	13.2	20.3	37.0	19.2	6.5
El Salvador	1995	100.0	12.2	87.8	100.0	3.9	13.1	17.8	37.0	21.9	6.4
	2001	100.0	14.3	85.7	100.0	3.1	11.4	17.0	32.5	29.2	6.8
Guatemala	1998	100.0	8.3	91.7	100.0	2.1	10.1	20.7	40.9	20.4	5.9
Honduras	1990	100.0	10.2	89.8	100.0	3.9	16.1	22.9	41.4	12.7	3.0
	2002	100.0	10.9	89.1	100.0	3.4	18.0	20.3	37.4	16.5	4.4
Mexico	1989	100.0	8.7	91.3	100.0	4.2	14.8	21.4	41.7	13.8	4.2
	2002	100.0	9.8	90.2	100.0	3.4	11.7	19.1	35.9	23.1	6.8
Nicaragua	1993	100.0	9.4	90.6	100.0	3.2	13.0	22.6	39.8	18.4	3.0
	2001	100.0	8.4	91.6	100.0	2.5	9.3	18.7	43.8	22.0	3.8
Panama	1991	100.0	14.0	86.0	100.0	3.5	10.4	18.5	38.1	22.5	7.0
	2002	100.0	14.5	85.5	100.0	4.3	11.7	17.5	32.3	26.5	7.5
Paraguay (Asunción and Central Department)	1990	100.0	10.6	89.4	100.0	4.7	12.4	18.5	36.0	22.2	6.1
	2000	100.0	14.4	85.6	100.0	3.0	12.5	16.4	39.5	23.6	4.8
Urban total	2000	100.0	14.0	85.9	100.0	3.6	13.1	19.4	39.5	18.8	5.6
Peru	2001	100.0	12.4	87.6	100.0	1.6	10.9	18.6	40.0	24.4	4.6
Dominican Republic	2002	100.0	16.2	83.8	100.0	4.9	14.5	19.5	29.2	24.3	7.5
Uruguay	1990	100.0	19.5	80.5	100.0	4.0	8.1	15.3	28.8	23.6	20.2
	2002	100.0	23.1	76.9	100.0	4.0	7.5	13.7	27.7	27.2	19.9
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) a/	1990	100.0	10.3	89.7	100.0	2.8	12.2	21.3	41.2	18.4	4.1
	2002	100.0	11.8	88.2	100.0	3.3	11.1	20.0	37.8	23.0	4.9
Latin America b/	1990	100.0	11.5	88.5	100.0	4.1	13.3	22.3	35.7	18.1	6.5
	2002	100.0	13.2	86.8	100.0	3.6	11.7	18.4	36.0	22.8	7.6

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

a/ Nationwide total.

b/ Simple average for 16 countries.

Table IV.4

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POVERTY RATES AMONG HOUSEHOLDS, BY TYPE, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2002											
(Percentages)											
Country	Year	Total households	Household types								
			Non-family households		Families						Other family types
			One-person household	Households without a conjugal unit	Nuclear families				Other family types		
					Subtotal nuclear families	No children	Two-parent with children	Single-parent (male head)	Single-parent (female head)	Extended	Composite
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	16.2	1.6	11.7	18.2	17.0	18.9	8.1	18.0	20.3	23.8
	2002	31.6	10.8	16.6	33.5	16.0	38.9	26.5	38.2	49.3	48.9
Urban total	2002	34.9	11.0	25.0	37.1	17.6	41.9	27.6	44.5	52.8	51.3
Bolivia (8 major cities plus El Alto)	1989	49.4	39.0	46.6	50.3	46.5	50.0	52.1	54.5	51.6	24.3
	2002	42.5	18.0	30.4	46.4	14.6	51.2	45.6	38.2	41.9	27.0
Urban total	2002	44.9	20.1	31.4	48.7	17.3	53.3	42.6	42.2	45.8	30.2
Brazil	1990	37.5	31.6	32.3	37.1	23.3	38.1	33.6	48.0	43.6	33.3
	2002	27.4	8.6	17.1	29.1	10.2	32.9	22.5	32.5	33.7	30.9
Chile	1990	33.3	12.1	22.6	34.8	11.4	38.4	19.6	38.3	37.4	28.0
	2000	16.2	4.0	7.8	16.9	3.8	18.9	8.0	21.0	19.6	19.6
Colombia	1991	47.1	23.3	32.8	48.4	23.4	51.5	26.4	48.9	51.5	50.4
	2002	44.6	28.1	31.0	45.6	26.0	49.5	28.6	45.8	50.1	50.3
Costa Rica	1990	22.2	25.4	15.3	21.1	17.2	20.7	22.1	25.6	27.9	15.1
	2002	15.9	18.4	20.1	14.3	11.2	13.3	7.1	21.3	20.1	13.8
Ecuador	1990	55.8	24.8	45.0	56.6	33.3	58.9	43.2	61.6	63.3	55.5
	2002	42.7	20.6	35.5	41.7	23.8	43.8	28.4	48.2	54.9	49.7
El Salvador	1995	40.0	24.6	39.3	38.0	22.8	40.6	37.6	36.4	46.5	47.3
	2001	34.7	21.7	33.5	34.2	23.9	34.7	34.8	37.8	39.2	39.4
Guatemala	1998	41.2	15.7	21.2	40.3	19.2	44.4	30.7	34.8	51.0	36.8
Honduras	1990	64.5	23.0	64.4	65.9	40.1	66.1	61.4	77.5	69.7	55.8
	2002	60.4	29.2	47.8	61.8	41.3	64.2	54.0	62.2	67.6	58.5
Mexico	1989	34.0	6.1	21.2	33.5	12.7	36.6	23.0	27.9	45.6	38.0
	2002	26.0	5.3	21.5	25.5	11.1	28.0	5.4	27.3	35.8	33.2
Nicaragua	1993	60.3	35.4	56.3	59.7	40.7	60.3	66.5	63.0	66.1	48.5
	2001	57.8	35.0	47.3	55.8	25.0	57.2	48.5	62.4	63.9	71.2
Panama	1991	33.6	21.8	23.8	34.6	14.9	35.8	31.3	44.2	37.8	34.2
	2002	21.4	13.5	15.2	23.1	10.4	22.9	17.9	34.0	22.2	16.1
Paraguay (Asunción and Central Department)	1990	36.8	23.6	32.5	37.9	25.9	40.0	7.8	41.0	37.5	39.7
	2000	35.0	8.6	22.0	36.3	25.8	38.5	43.5	31.0	42.8	39.1
Urban total	2000	42.4	16.5	26.2	44.1	27.9	46.4	42.8	44.9	50.4	44.9
Peru	2001	34.0	7.2	23.4	34.6	16.9	37.5	18.9	31.4	42.2	36.1
Dominican Republic	2002	38.4	27.0	45.3	37.3	19.8	35.1	37.6	55.9	43.5	39.8
Uruguay	1990	11.8	1.9	8.9	12.4	2.0	16.5	9.1	15.5	18.9	20.1
	2002	9.3	0.4	4.9	10.4	1.7	14.4	7.2	11.5	16.0	24.3
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) a/	1990	34.2	5.8	36.8	34.6	21.2	33.9	22.3	48.2	38.0	30.4
	2002	43.3	27.5	39.6	44.3	23.8	45.8	35.3	50.1	46.2	39.6
Latin America b/	1990	38.9	20.1	32.7	39.5	23.7	41.1	31.4	43.8	44.0	35.6
	2002	34.4	16.6	25.7	35.0	18.0	37.4	27.8	37.3	40.9	37.4

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

a/ Nationwide total.

b/ Simple average for 16 countries.



Social agenda

National youth programmes in Latin America

INTRODUCTION

Since International Youth Year in 1985, public efforts targeted at the youth sector have intensified. These efforts have led to the existence of official youth organizations in all the Latin American countries and to an interest in incorporating international youth mandates into national constitutional frameworks. Some countries have successfully approved youth legislation and progressed towards consolidating national policies to distinguish the young person, legally and socially, as an individual with rights. However, the progress made thus far is still very uneven, especially from the perspective of a panorama of youth in Latin America. The uncertain and disparate institutional framework for young people in Latin American countries and the lack of youth participation are hindering the design of longer-term strategies to include the issue on government agendas.

This chapter analyses the chief results of ECLAC surveys on national youth programmes in Latin American countries. It summarizes the replies received from Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru and Uruguay. The annex contains the survey form and the list of countries, institutions and people that answered the questionnaire (see annex V.1 and V.2).

The aim of the survey was to analyse the regulatory, institutional and programme guidelines for youth policies in the above countries, from the institutional perspective of official youth organizations, and to examine the perception of national authorities on the reality and specific problems of young people.

The survey results reveal that similar problems affect young people across Latin America, despite cultural differences and the multilingual and multi-ethnic nature of Latin American societies. Although poverty, worsening living conditions and lack of access to education and employment opportunities appear to affect the great majority of young people, in the poorest sectors these unmet needs lead to greater social exclusion and lack of participation.

The information collected in the surveys shows a rather heterogeneous picture as regards governments' ability to respond to youth problems. Programme measures in the various countries reveal differing, sometimes overlapping, models of youth and uncoordinated efforts to create institutional mechanisms to guide the formulation of specific youth policies.

Lastly, as is customary, the international social agenda reviews international meetings on social issues. They include the thirtieth session of ECLAC, held in Puerto Rico from 28 June to 2 July 2004 and the ninth session of the Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean, which was held in Mexico City from 10 to 12 June 2004.

A. SITUATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE IN LATIN AMERICA AS SEEN BY GOVERNMENT YOUTH ORGANIZATIONS AND BY YOUNG PEOPLE THEMSELVES

A wide range of studies and public policy proposals for young people were drawn up in the wake of International Youth Year in 1985. This impetus led a number of Latin American governments to create youth organizations, and youth surveys were carried out during the 1990s. Uruguay was the pioneer with its 1989 survey and many countries in the region followed suit.¹

Despite the development of such sources of information and their gradual incorporation into youth policies, it is still not easy to define the beginning and end of youth as a stage of life and to identify its social and historical characteristics, that is to say, the characteristics inherent in intergenerational relations that exist in every society. Authors who have addressed the issue of young people's identity tend to conclude that it is impossible to define its meaning in any concrete or stable manner. Every period and society draws cultural and social boundaries for this stage of life, assigning certain tasks and limitations to the youth segment of the population (Levi and Schmitt, 1996).

As there is a need for an operational definition, age is the accepted demographic criterion for distinguishing young people and has traditionally been used as a benchmark for youth policies. In 1985 the United Nations adopted the age bracket of 15 to 24 years as its regulatory criterion, even though this age range can shift upwards or downwards according to the requirements imposed by young people's

specific contexts. Although any statistical definition is arbitrary, this approach has the merit of highlighting important processes: the lower age limit is considered to be the age at which a young person's sexual and reproductive functions are already developed and the upper age limit generally coincides with the end of formal education, entry into the labour market and setting up home (Rodríguez, 2001).

At present, according to 2004 estimates by CELADE–Population Division of ECLAC, Latin America is home to around 149.5 million young people aged between 15 and 29 and to 103.1 million aged between 15 and 24, representing 27% and 19% of the total population, respectively (ECLAC, 2004d). This shapes a distinctive demographic and sociological scenario that imposes academic, governmental and cultural challenges converging towards a better understanding of the situation of young people and of the most efficient mechanisms for satisfying their needs.

¹ Surveys were carried out in Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela (1991), Colombia (1991 and 2000), Ecuador (1991), Peru (1991), Chile (1994, 1997, 2000 and 2004), the Dominican Republic (1992 and 1999), Argentina (1993 and 1997), Uruguay (1989 and 1995), Bolivia (1996 and 2003), Guatemala (1999), Paraguay (1998) and Mexico (2000) (OJ, 2004a).

1. AGE AS A BENCHMARK IN YOUTH POLICIES AND AMBIGUITY OF THE CONCEPT OF THE YOUNG PERSON

The age ranges that define young people vary widely among the Latin American countries and two trends can be observed: a shift towards earlier or higher ages. Where there is a shift towards earlier ages, adolescence and youth are overlapping in the conceptual definition of youth. Where there is a shift towards higher ages, young people who have already turned 18 are no longer distinguished as specific subjects of policies and tend to be subsumed into adult programmes. This duality in the concept of the young person stems from a mismatch between young people's social and legal situations. The ambiguity in the concept of the young person is also due to the lack of a proper debate on the relationship between young people and adults in social representations and the way in which these representations should be embodied in the design of public policies for young people.

There is a great difference in the age ranges used by the countries polled to define the young person: from 7 to 18 years (El Salvador); from 12 to 26 years (Colombia); from 12 to 35 years (Costa Rica, Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sport, 2002); from 12 to 29 years (Mexico); from 14 to 30 years (Argentina); from 15 to 24 years (Bolivia, Ecuador, Peru, Dominican Republic); from 15 to 25 years (Guatemala); from 15 to 29 years (Chile, Cuba, Panama, Paraguay); from 18 to 30 years (Nicaragua) (Dávila, 2003, OIJ, 2001). In Honduras, young people are all those under the age of 25.

The differences in youth age ranges in the various countries reveal at least two trends. The first is that the shift in the youth category towards earlier ages (in El Salvador, Colombia, Costa Rica and Mexico, amongst others) or towards higher ages (in

Argentina, Chile, Cuba, Panama, Paraguay and Nicaragua) could indicate that the condition of youth is expanding, not only in terms of age but also in society's representation of it (OIJ, 2001). This could be due to rising life expectancy, which in Latin America stands at around 70 years of age, involving a shift in youth identities and increasing the proportion of young people in the population. Nevertheless, these identities seem to be determined by social aspects relating to growing demand for education and job training and the prolongation of education (Rodríguez, 2001, p. 30).

The second trend observed is the age overlap between adolescence and youth in the definitions of the young person. This impacts not only on the formulation of youth policies but also on the definition and types of programme that countries may provide for these sectors. On the one hand, the debate on the young person appears to consider youth to include adolescence, even though in practice this leaves out crucial periods of young people's experience. On the other hand, the youth segment between the years of 18 and 30 years of age has acquired citizenship status, since people are deemed to be adults and are entitled to vote from the age of 18 (Krauskopf, 2003).

This gives rise to a number of contradictions. From a general standpoint, a duality emerges in the concept of the young person, associated with the gap between social and legal realities. Furthermore, while programmes for adolescents contribute to the development of young people, they do not fully cover the youth period (Krauskopf and Mora, 2000). Some countries attempt to resolve this by creating legal instruments based on the Convention on the Rights of the Child, such as juvenile criminal law (Costa Rica) and codes of rights for children and adolescents (Costa Rica, Ecuador, Guatemala, Mexico, Dominican Republic, Uruguay).

There is also a need to create specific programmes for adolescents and to bridge the gaps that hamper the integration of public policies for young people with those for adolescents. The age ranges of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (which do not distinguish between children and adolescents, even though it includes all young people up to the age of 18) contribute to the lack of definition in joint policies (Krauskopf, 2003).

This ambiguity in the concept of the young person is an unresolved issue in a number of countries: there has been no conclusive discussion on the relationship between young people and adults in social representations or on the way in which these representations should be embodied in the design of public policies for young people. Consequently, young people who have already turned 18 years of age are no longer distinguished as specific subjects of policies and tend to be subsumed into adult programmes (Krauskopf, 2003).

2. PERCEPTION OF YOUNG PEOPLE'S PROBLEMS BY THE AUTHORITIES

The authorities express three main concerns with regard to youth: unemployment and job quality; education, and access to healthcare and associated risks. Existing shortcomings in these problem areas exacerbate youth poverty and lead to processes of social exclusion.

In Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru and Uruguay, unemployment resulting from economic crises, from increased supply and decreased demand for labour, and from the growing gap between the education system and the labour market is one of the main obstacles to the social integration of young people (see table V.1). This trend appears so acute that, in a further group of countries, unemployment is cited as the second most important challenge to overcome (Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Costa Rica).

Table V.1

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (15 COUNTRIES): MAIN PROBLEMS IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE			
Countries	Youth problems		
	Primary importance	Secondary importance	Tertiary importance
Argentina	Poverty	Unemployment	Social exclusion
Bolivia	Exclusion	Unemployment	Lack of participation
Chile	Teenage pregnancy and risk of STDs	Gap between education and labour market	Gaps in access to secondary and higher education
Colombia	Low participation in development and in the control of public resources	Low levels of youth participation in social programmes and projects	Exclusion and armed conflict
Costa Rica	High dropout rates in secondary education	Unemployment, especially among young women	Lack of forums for youth participation
Cuba	Purchasing power of incomes	Satisfaction of young people's housing needs	Recreation
Ecuador	Unemployment	Dropping out of school	Drug addiction, alcoholism and hooliganism
El Salvador	Unemployment	Insecurity	Poverty
Guatemala	Unemployment	Education	Safety
Mexico	Unemployment and underemployment	Dropping out of school and poor education quality	Lack of access to health and education
Nicaragua	Unemployment and poor job quality	Lack of relevant education for the abilities of young people	Poor quality and coverage of health services
Panama	Poverty and unemployment	Early pregnancy	Spread of HIV
Peru	Unemployment and underemployment	Low participation in formulating public policies and in local, regional and national decision-making	Poverty
Dominican Republic	Health	Education	Work
Uruguay	Integration into the job market	Dropping out of school	Social exclusion

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of replies to the survey on national youth programmes, 2004.

The authorities of some countries mention general education issues as being second in importance (Guatemala, Dominican Republic), including dropping out of school (Ecuador, Uruguay), poor education quality (Mexico) and lack of relevant education for the abilities of young people (Nicaragua).

Third in importance are institutional problems in the area of health, related to poor coverage and quality of services (Nicaragua), and the associated risks, particularly problems of alcoholism and drug addiction (Ecuador), and with the spread of the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) (Panama). In the health sector, some countries give priority to teenage pregnancy and the risk of sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) (Chile).

Other relevant concerns, although most countries do not consider them to be of primary importance, are low youth participation in programmes and projects and in the control of public resources (Bolivia, Colombia, Peru, Costa Rica), together with public safety (El Salvador) and armed conflict (Colombia).

All these problems form a picture of poverty and social exclusion that is accepted as being both the cause and result of the youth situation. A more detailed breakdown of the reasons attributed to young people's problems shows this ambiguity, which could reflect not only the complexity and multicausal nature of the situation of young people in the region but also the partial or incomplete

incorporation of youth studies into the diagnoses of youth organizations.

3. MAIN CAUSES OF YOUTH PROBLEMS

Government authorities attribute youth problems to various sets of causes, most of which relate to economic and employment conditions, whilst others relate to poverty, inequality, poor quality of life and social exclusion. In the specific sphere of education and health, causes mentioned are a lack of technical and vocational training and skill formation, as well as limited access to health and prevention services. Lastly, some countries point to young people's lack of participation and education in the area of civic rights.

The authorities cite a number of sets of causes for the principal youth problems. The first relates to economic and employment conditions, where a group of countries indicates global trends such as economic crises and adjustment policies (Argentina, Bolivia, Cuba, Guatemala, Mexico and Uruguay). In the area of employment, they cite job insecurity, lack of opportunities and labour flexibility (Argentina, Chile, Costa Rica, Mexico, Nicaragua, Peru) and high unemployment (Ecuador, El Salvador, Mexico, Peru and Dominican Republic), as well as the gap between the education system and the labour market (Costa Rica, Ecuador, Mexico Nicaragua and Peru) (see table V.2).

Table V.2

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (15 COUNTRIES): CAUSES OF THE MAIN YOUTH PROBLEMS																
Problems	Argentina	Bolivia	Chile	Colombia	Costa Rica	Cuba	Ecuador	El Salvador	Guatemala	Mexico	Nicaragua	Panama	Peru	Dominican Republic	Uruguay	
Economic and employment conditions																
Economic crisis and/or adjustment policies	X	X				X			X	X					X	
Job insecurity, lack of job opportunities and labour flexibility	X		X		X					X	X		X			
High unemployment							X	X		X			X	X		
Gap between education system and labour market					X		X			X	X		X			
Weak youth employment policies							X		X			X				
Poor access and support for production projects							X				X					
Poverty, inequality, poor quality of life and social exclusion																
Socio-economic inequality, discrimination and exclusion			X				X					X			X	
Poverty						X		X			X				X	
Terrorism and social violence				X				X								
Poor quality of life (domestic violence, abandonment, etc.)							X									
Education, training and skills formation																
Lack of technical and vocational training			X	X			X			X			X	X		
Lack of preventive education programmes							X		X		X	X				
Limited opportunities for developing education			X						X		X					
Insufficient funding and/or support for education														X	X	
Insufficient information and vocational guidance services							X				X					
Dropping out of school to boost the family income									X				X			
Lack of innovation in teaching staff and material										X				X		
Health																
Lack of preventive health care			X						X	X	X					
Limited access to health services										X	X	X		X		
Poor sanitary conditions													X			
Citizenship and participation																
Lack of education about rights for young people					X								X			
Lack of youth participation				X									X			
Unawareness of youth problems													X			
Inadequate community life	X															
Weak youth organizations													X			
Other		X				X	X									

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of replies to the survey on national youth programmes, 2004.

A second set of factors relates to poverty, inequality, poor quality of life and social exclusion (in Chile, Ecuador, Panama and Uruguay), with Cuba, El Salvador and Nicaragua citing poverty. Terrorism and social violence are highlighted in Colombia and El Salvador and domestic violence in Ecuador.

Other specific trends can be observed in the sphere of education, training and skills formation. In this respect, countries blame the lack of technical and vocational training (Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Peru and Dominican Republic) and of preventive education programmes (Ecuador, Guatemala, Nicaragua and Panama). Also, gaps in the education system are cited in relation to limited opportunities for developing education and with insufficient funding and support for education, lack of information and vocational guidance services, as well as a lack of teaching staff and material (Ecuador, Mexico and Dominican Republic).

In the area of health, two issues come to the fore: a lack of prevention (Chile, Guatemala, Mexico and Nicaragua) and limited access to health services (Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama and Dominican Republic).

Lastly, with respect to young people's role and empowerment as citizens, the countries point to a lack of education about rights (Costa Rica and Peru), together with a lack of participation by young people themselves and weak youth organizations.

4. YOUNG PEOPLE'S PERSPECTIVE

From the perspective of young people, the main issues are to do with identity and with family and emotional life. They agree with the authorities in citing problems with finding jobs, in the devaluation of education and in the lack of civic rights.

This section summarizes the results of the national youth surveys carried out between 1997 and 2000 in four countries: Chile, Colombia, Guatemala and Mexico. The surveys tackled six issues: identity; emotional bonds; leisure time; civic participation and civic life; education and work. Even though the surveys are not comparable, they yield interesting results on matters not normally picked up by continuous household surveys, and which relate to young people's subjective views. Despite the fact that the surveys were carried out at different times and the questions were largely not comparable, it is possible to outline some of the opinions held by young people at the end of the twentieth century (OIJ, 2004a).

With regard to the identity of young people, the surveys reveal a link between belief and reality: society defines the young as people in transition to life and so they enjoy a waiting time, a cycle of initiation. The surveys confirm that young people themselves reinforce this belief. At the same time, society requires and obliges young people to work at an early age in order to earn income for themselves or their families. Thus, youth identities combine the preparation for, with the enjoyment, benefit and compatibility of, adult roles and responsibilities, especially in the sphere of work. In all this there are signs of affirmative values and a more equal participation by women. Furthermore, there are indications that identities are becoming standardized on the basis of language, needs, criticism, tastes and rituals: music, fashion, sport and television images are creating a global interwoven youth culture (albeit with social and national differences).

With regard to young people's emotional life, the family, partners, sexual relations and friendship are important to young people as factors laden with subjectivity. The family is the sphere for which young people express the greatest appreciation and trust, as a place not devoid of rules where they

bargain for affection, understanding and support. As regards practices, most young people said they have sexual relations, were sexually active at an early age and make relatively limited use of contraceptives. Therefore, in their sexual practices, young people demonstrate situations of risk (for example, the failure to use contraceptives and the risk of early parenthood and teenage pregnancy), which then become factors in interrupting their school and professional careers.

Young people find their families' social background to be very important, since to a large extent the socio-economic situation of their family determines young people's achievements and failures, as a reflection of the very way in which societies are organized. Young people from less privileged backgrounds are the ones who face the greatest lacks and obstacles in their path in life and the ones who encounter the most serious problems at school, work and in achieving personal independence, with women suffering the severest disadvantages, particularly in the world of work.

With regard to their practices and conceptions of civic life, young people say that they are aware of the limits of democracy and actively participate in democratic processes, whilst at the same time taking a critical view of political actors, since in these societies the democratic system gives precedence to parties and the electoral process. Young people do not appear to be overly keen to participate in the traditional corporate organizations embraced by their parents. Instead they prefer to establish group links with friends and to belong to less rigid organizations that are not contaminated by the bureaucratic and political process, such as sporting, ecclesiastical and cultural organizations. This signals a call for freedom as opposed to tradition, as well as greater demands on political

actors. This call for individualism and the social spaces of safety and affection appear to provide or reinforce factors for social stability and for civic and community life. Moreover, the surveys were limited in their ability to ascertain how young people measure political participation, since the questionnaires do not seem to have evolved in synchrony with current practices and conditions: analysing political participation in terms of the traditional political leanings of left, centre and right does not appear very useful in ascertaining how young people view the matter.

Education is of great social value to young people: they value it positively above other public institutions and acknowledge that it creates opportunities in adulthood and is a time for socializing and community life. However, at the same time, education arouses great expectations in young people which are not being met in employment. The prolongation of education and the growing importance of university education (for the minority who reach that level) are a result of greater demands for education and diversification of qualifications. At the same time, problems with entering the labour market are increasing and opportunities for less-qualified young people are shrinking.

The world of working life is marked by contrast, since although the overview is one of insecure jobs and poor quality working conditions, the surveys show that young people rate their jobs fairly positively, particularly with regard to comradeship. Young people identify lack of job opportunities as their priority issue. For unemployed young people, government responses in the form of training programmes have been fragmented and more often than not have served only to compound inequalities.

B. NATIONAL YOUTH POLICIES IN LATIN AMERICA

During the period from 1995 to 1999, efforts to coordinate national processes youth policies gained momentum, albeit at an unequal rate among the various Latin American countries. Nowadays, there is a wide variety of youth policies in the countries polled, which can be seen in the light of various factors: models and approaches to the youth phase, legislative foundations (legal and regulatory framework), levels of public administration responsible for taking youth measures and the specific type of management by official youth organizations in each country.

1. MODELS AND APPROACHES TO YOUTH POLICIES IN LATIN AMERICA

There are four typical approaches to youth: as a preparatory period; as a problematic phase; from the youth citizenship standpoint; and the young person as a strategic development actor. Each of these approaches calls for specific policies and programmes, which can be found in diverse combinations in the countries in the region. The perspective from which they are designed allows a distinction to be made between traditional and more modern youth policies.

There are four perceptions of the characteristics of youth: as a preparatory period, according to which

it is defined in terms of crises; as a problematic phase, with a negative perception confined to such issues as delinquency, drugs, violence, school dropout and so on; youth citizenship, with an integrated perspective that prioritizes giving young people full rights to participate in youth policies and programmes; and the perception of the young person as a strategic development actor, aimed at building human and social capital, such as skills and expertise in conducting their own development and production efforts (see table V.3). The latter two approaches treat young people as social actors. Each of these approaches determines the options for policy design and the type of youth programmes to be implemented (Krauskopf, 2003).

Table V.3

MODELS OF THE YOUTH PHASE IN APPROACHES TO POLICIES AND PROGRAMMES		
Phases of the model	Policies	Programmes
Preparatory <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Transition to adulthood • Preparation phase 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Aimed at preparing young people for adulthood • Aimed at extending educational coverage • Healthy and enjoyable leisure time • Military service 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Universal • Undifferentiated • Isolated
Problematic <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Risk and transgression • Problem phase for society 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Compensatory • Sectoral (predominantly justice and health) • Targeted 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Welfare–assistance approach and control of specific problems • Priority given to poor urban youth • Fragmented programme provision
Citizenship <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Young people as citizens • Social development phase 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formulated in public policies • Cross–sectoral • Inclusion of young people as specific persons with political, social, cultural and economic rights 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Comprehensive • Participatory • Broader alliances
Development actor <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Young person as a strategic development actor • Phase of training and contribution to production 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formulated in public policies • Cross–sectoral • Aimed at incorporating young people as human capital and developing social capital 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Equity and institutional cross–disciplinarity • Tackling exclusion • Young people contribute to development strategies

Source: Dina Krauskopf, "La construcción de políticas de juventud en Centroamérica", *Políticas públicas de juventud en América Latina: políticas nacionales*, O. Dávila (ed.), Viña del Mar, Chile, CIDPA editions, 2003.

The surveys have revealed a number of coexisting and competing approaches to the role and needs of young people, which are evident in both general policy guidelines and the youth programmes implemented.

The first noticeable aspect is that most governments suffer from a relative lack of explicit youth policies targeted solely at the young. Most of the countries polled reported measures embedded in a targeted and universal type of programme provision, only rarely aimed specifically at young people. As already mentioned, in some cases both legislation and programme provision include young people in an older or younger population bracket.

Furthermore, existing youth policies usually provide for specific programmes that confine the young person to the category of "student", as the perpetrator of specific practices (drug consumption) or as a subject of morbidity prevalence (such as STDs or HIV) (OIJ, 2001).

Consequently, a cross–disciplinary youth policy emerges, developed mainly by sectoral public organizations which address issues of relevance to young people, each within its own areas of competence. This is a policy for young people in the broad sense, the actions of which are far–reaching, such as education, health and employment policies. However, although they include actions targeted at young people, they have a sectoral bias, which is to say they have been devised with the sector in mind rather than the subject of the policies (Balardini, 2003).

However, some countries are making noteworthy efforts to consider a policy approach that is with and from young people. This comes closer to a proposal jointly agreed between different actors, including young people, in participatory processes that create civic awareness. An example is Costa Rica, which in 2002 began to develop a public youth policy that includes processes of consultation and endorsement by the country's young people in the public sector

and civil society as well as a series of institutional studies to analyse the capabilities of the network of institutions directly or indirectly responsible for youth matters. In Argentina, too, there is an ongoing discussion about the regulatory model to be used as a basis for approaching youth actions. The aim is to progress from a welfare–assistance and supervisory type of approach to childhood and adolescence to another type of approach based on citizenship and rights. Similar efforts can be seen in Panama, which in 1999 decreed the National Youth Covenant, stipulating that whoever holds the presidency from 1999–2004 shall draw up a Plan of Action for Youth jointly with young people. Also, in Dominican

Republic, the respective programme provision has been included in the Integrated Policy for Adolescents and Young People, which has triggered a participatory process for developing youth policy, the results of which are as yet unknown.

This transition towards the citizenship approach in part stems from the recognition that there is a lack of participation by young people in Latin American youth policies. The results of the survey point to how little information young people or youth organizations have on young people’s responsibilities and obligations as citizens.

Box V.1

DIFFERENT APPROACHES IN YOUTH POLICIES

A first approach considers public youth policies as any coordinated action aimed at producing or achieving social values and aims that are important to the crucial youth period. Such actions are designed to influence the processes of socialization that develop during the youth phase, whether in connection with reparation or compensation policies or with policies for promoting and building citizenship. This definition includes the values and interests of both young people and the wider public. Viewed from a participatory standpoint, this approach aims to create the right conditions for young people to fulfil themselves, while at the same time helping to shape the society in which they live.

Policies for young people, which are usually welfare–based, position young people on the edges of the main body of the working population, suffer from a degree of protectionism (they see young people as vulnerable and inexperienced), and operate by dint of strong social control. Such policies share extreme confidence in the results of education processes, which are unequivocally guided by adults. They are also characterized by generalized social dirigisme under the omnipresent and omniprovident guardianship of adults, who encourage passive and conformist behaviour in young people.

Policies through young people are developed by making use of young people. Their main characteristics are: appeals for mobilization, indoctrination, heroic rhetoric, galvanizing the youth sector and exploiting youthful idealism. Such policies require young people to be passive and are imposed from top down. They are not meant for the use of young people, but make use of them. As is typical of totalitarian and authoritarian regimes, the sustainability of such policies relies on young people.

Policies with young people are the most modern and innovative. Their basic principle is solidarity, and in essence they are participatory, not only with regard to implementation but also to analytical and decision–making aspects. Such policies require young people to be active and they are interactive in terms of the youth/society dialectic. They are not imposed from the top down but are creative, open and subject to critical debate.

Policies from young people refer to self–managed activities and initiatives devised, designed and implemented by young people themselves. They incorporate post–statist tendencies, which give civil society an important role in managing social and cultural projects. They are independent initiatives by youth groups that are to varying degrees formal in nature, which are able to meet at youth clubs and receive government and other subsidies.

Most conservative governments tend to carry out policies for young people, while authoritarian or disciplinarian governments develop policies through young people. Regimes that are really seeking to affirm democratic values develop initiatives with and from young people.

Source: Oscar Dávila (ed.), *Políticas públicas de juventud en América Latina: políticas nacionales*, Viña del Mar, Chile, CIDPA editions, 2003.

The citizenship approach allows a discussion to be opened on the age ranges within which a person is considered to be young, since it is flexible enough to allow such a definition to be based on each particular situation. For this reason, many countries have made major legislative changes in this direction, which will be examined later. Even though international regulations take the approach that a young person is an individual with rights, the national surveys show that no such category has been included as an issue of debate for government youth organizations and officials.

In general, the information from the surveys on national youth programmes does not permit an exhaustive classification of the policies of Latin American countries in such terms, since the level of legal and institutional consolidation relating to the said initiatives varies widely from country to country. Moreover, there are no mechanisms for monitoring and evaluating the implemented actions to make it possible to reorient policies, and the surveys do not clearly state the ethical and political foundations underpinning them.

2. LEGAL AND REGULATORY FRAMEWORK FOR NATIONAL YOUTH POLICIES

The main legal instruments that consider the situation of young people are the Code on Children and Adolescents, the Convention on the Rights of the Child, the Convention concerning the Minimum Age for Admission to Employment (No. 138) and Convention 182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labour. The Convention on the Rights of the Child is the international instrument with the most direct impact on the recognition of young people's rights. Progress is being made with the recognition and ratification of the Ibero-American Charter on the Rights of Youth.

Growing international awareness of the human rights approach has led to the gradual development of instruments to combat discrimination against

women and of mechanisms to protect children and adolescents. However, unlike workers, women, and children, who have secured recognition as individuals with rights, there is still no convention or treaty referring specifically to young people, and they are still an undefined category in the constitutional frameworks of Latin American countries. The legislative treatment of young people stems from a sector-based regulation of rights: the predominant concept is of service provision based on a sectoral perspective, where the young person is seen neither as a rights-holder nor as a development actor (Bernales, 2001).

In Latin America during the past decade there has been a clear shift towards representing youth as a legal category, as demonstrated by an interest in approving laws on youth and reorganizing disjointed pieces of legislation (OIJ, 2001). Noteworthy in this process has been the action of the Ibero-American Youth Organization (OIJ), a multilateral international organization created to promote dialogue, consultation and cooperation among Ibero-American countries on the subject of youth.

a) International context

The international human rights context has encouraged changes in domestic youth legislation in Latin American countries. The outstanding challenge is to fully apply the rights and principles enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, given that all of its articles relate directly to young people's aspirations. A fundamental advance in this respect has been the inclusion of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, which have been in force since 1976 and been ratified by most of the United Nations Member States (Bernales, 2001).

With regard to youth, a major milestone was the introduction of the Ibero-American Charter on

the Rights of Youth and the organization of Ibero–American Conferences of Youth Ministers, where youth ministers jointly devise cooperation measures for public policies targeting the youth sector. Since the conferences began in 1987, they have striven to establish or revive official youth institutions in Latin America.

The initiative of drawing up an Ibero–American Charter on the Rights of Youth is a mandate of the Ninth Ibero–American Conference of Youth Ministers, held in Lisbon, Portugal, in 1998. The aim of the Conference was to legally enshrine within the Ibero–American sphere full recognition of the special status of young people and to ensure that young people are given the required protection and guarantees to enable them to exercise their rights. The Ibero–American Charter recognizes young people as individuals with rights, as strategic development actors and as people capable of

exercising their rights and freedoms in a responsible manner.

Furthermore, the Ibero–American Youth Organization (OIJ), as the entity responsible for implementing the Regional Program of Actions for the Development of Youth in Latin America (PRADJAL), has promoted a number of activities from high–level government summits. In the period from 1996 to 1999 OIJ promoted the Program, which has three aims: to increase information about young people; to strengthen youth institutions in the region; and to raise the awareness of social and political actors. One of the most important outcomes is the International Convention of the Ibero–American Charter on the Rights of Youth. This text is due to be approved by the Ibero–American Conference of Youth Ministers in Mexico in November 2004 (see box V.2).

Box V.2

INTERNATIONAL CONVENTION OF THE IBERO–AMERICAN CHARTER ON THE RIGHTS OF YOUTH

The official delegations of the Ibero–American countries, international organizations and cooperation agencies met in Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic, on 1 and 2 April 2004 in order to incorporate a number of clarifications and technical adjustments into the draft text of the Ibero–American Charter on the Rights of Youth, in compliance with other international treaties to protect existing rights in the international sphere and in compliance with national legislation.

In addition, the delegates agreed to propose changing the title of the text, from Ibero–American Charter on the Rights of Youth to International Convention of the Ibero–American Charter on the Rights of Youth.

The proposed text for the Convention is due to be approved at the Twelfth Ibero–American Conference of Youth Ministers, to be held in Mexico, Guadalajara, Jalisco, in November 2004. Once the new proposal is approved, the process of discussion, negotiation and adoption of the final text will begin.

In the proposed text for the Convention the most significant rights are the right to:

- Gender equality
- Peace
- Identity
- Honour and reputation and personal and family privacy
- Form an active part of a family
- Freely choose one's partner
- Social and political participation
- Freedom of thought, conscience and religion
- Freedom of opinion, expression, assembly and information
- Education
- Freedom of artistic creation and expression
- Full and sound health
- Work

INTERNATIONAL CONVENTION OF THE IBERO-AMERICAN CHARTER ON THE RIGHTS OF YOUTH

- Equal opportunities
- Social protection
- Access to non-discriminatory initial vocational and technical training
- Decent housing
- Economic, social and political development
- Life in a healthy and balanced environment
- Recreation and free time
- Physical education and the practice of sports
- Conscientiously object to compulsory military service
- Justice

Some of the aspirations of the Ibero-American Convention on the Rights of Youth are that:

- No Ibero-American youth under the age of 18 shall be involved in military hostilities
- No Ibero-American youth shall be subjected to the death penalty
- No Ibero-American youth shall be discriminated against on the grounds of race, colour, nationality, or membership of a national, ethnic or cultural minority
- No Ibero-American youth shall be discriminated against on the grounds of gender, sexual orientation, language or religion
- No Ibero-American youth shall be discriminated against on the grounds of his or her opinions, social status, physical aptitudes, place of residence or economic resources

Source: Ibero-American Youth Organization (OIJ), *El estado de la juventud en Iberoamérica, 2004* <http://www.oij.org/pdf/JuventudIberoamericana.pdf> [consulted in March, 2004].

Given that in legislation young people tend to share the same social and legal status as people under the age of 18, when considering legal instruments signed by governments on the basis of international conventions, it is also necessary to include instruments relating to children and adolescents.

Notable in this respect are the Code on Children and Adolescents, the Convention on the Rights of the Child, Convention 138 concerning the Minimum Age for Admission to Employment and Convention 182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labour (see table V.4). The Convention on the Rights of the Child is the international instrument with the most direct impact on the recognition of young people's rights. However, it refers explicitly to adolescents and to minors of between 15 and 18 years of age, meaning that young people between the ages of 19 to 24 are still not covered by international legislation (Bernales, 2001).

There are three main situations with regard to the Convention on the Rights of the Child:

States that have ratified the Convention, but still maintain in force their pre-existing legislation relating to minors; States that have begun the process of introducing reforms to provide full protection of children's rights, but have not completed them and partially maintain legislative approaches dating from before the Convention; and, lastly, States that have adapted their legislation substantially to accord with the Convention and apply complex processes for the institutional processing of new policies and programmes (ECLAC, 1998b).

Most Latin American countries have ratified the conventions on child labour. However, the current legislation in the region regarding the minimum working age contradicts international regulations in certain respects and there is a great diversity of legislation both between countries and even within the same country. In some countries, the minimum working age is 18 (Bolivia, Colombia), while in Cuba it is 17 and in other countries it is 16 (Brazil, Chile, Dominican Republic), 15 (Uruguay) or 14 (Ecuador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Panama) (ECLAC, 2003a).

Table V.4

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): INTERNATIONAL REGULATIONS ON CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS				
	Code on Children and Adolescents	Convention on the Rights of the Child	Convention 138	Convention 182
Argentina		X		
Bolivia			X	
Brazil			X	X
Chile			X	X
Colombia			X	
Costa Rica	X	X	X	X
Cuba			X	
Ecuador	X		X	X
El Salvador			X	X
Guatemala	X		X	X
Mexico	X			X
Panama			X	X
Peru				X
Dominican Republic	X		X	X
Uruguay	X	X	X	X

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), based on replies to the survey on national youth programmes, 2004, and *Social Panorama of Latin America, 2002–2003* (LC/G.2209–P/E), Santiago, Chile, 2003. United Nations publication, Sales No. E.03.II.G.185.

In Latin America there is still a high proportion of child workers. In countries where such statistics are kept, in 1997 the proportion of young workers between the ages of 13 and 17 ranged from 39% in Bolivia to 6% in Chile (ECLAC, 1999 and 2000b). These figures are lower than the total of children and young people in the labour market, because, as child labour is considered illegal, it is not declared, added to which are shortcomings in the information systems themselves. There is accumulated evidence on the importance of investing in education, as well as on the problems facing working pupils, which lead to high school dropout rates (ECLAC, 2000b and 2002). In view of the number of children and young people who work, it is even more urgent to step up efforts to enforce regulations in practice and to conduct policies and programmes targeted at children and young people who work (ECLAC, 2003a).

b) Constitutional framework of Latin American countries as regards youth

As democracy has progressed, Latin American countries have been incorporating the human rights approach into their constitutional frameworks, but without going so far as to separate specific rights. However, they have been able to lay the foundations for drawing up youth legislation that is more organic and substantive than the current legislation, which is characterized by fragmentation and disorganization (Bernales, 2001).

i) Youth legislation in Latin American countries

An analysis of national youth legislation in the countries polled reveals three situations: a number of countries have successfully approved a youth law that serves as a general legal framework for national

youth policies (Colombia, Costa Rica, Nicaragua, Dominican Republic); in other countries, the formulation and key elements of such a law are currently under discussion (Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia, Ecuador, El Salvador); while the remaining countries have not considered promulgating youth legislation (see annex V.3).

Colombia is one of the countries with youth legislation. In 1995, Colombia's National Council on Economic and Social Planning (CONPES) set up the National Youth Policy, creating laws, decrees and regulations on young people, and recently Colombia has launched the National *Colombia Joven* Programme (Young Colombia). In 2002, Costa Rica approved the general young person's act, which provides the basis for the National Youth System. This act has been amended many times, but it has raised the hierarchical level of the organization responsible for youth to that of an Under-Ministry for Youth.

In 2001, Nicaragua approved an Integrated Youth Development Promotion Act, which led to the implementation of a national policy for the integrated development of youth and to the creation of a Youth Secretariat to implement the Action Plan. This act changed the institutions that formerly governed youth policies, and is now a pioneer in the region (Dávila, 2003). The Dominican Republic promulgated the General Youth Act in 2000, designed to establish the legal, political and institutional framework for guiding government and social policies to meet young people's needs and expectations. The General Youth Act is also designed to secure the effective participation of young people in decision-making processes. The aim of the act is to foster the integrated development of young men and women, without distinction as to sex, religion, politics, race, ethnic group, sexual orientation or nationality.

A notable case among countries where general youth legislation is currently under discussion is

Bolivia, where the First National Youth Survey was used as the basis for drawing up the "Diagnosis of Bolivian Youth" and the proposed "Guidelines for National Youth Policies". This led to a proposal for amending the State Political Constitution and to a "Youth Bill" (OIJ, 2004d). In Ecuador, a youth bill is currently being examined by the Subcommittee on the Youth Law of the National Congress, which is working on the law's philosophy and concepts and the issues it will address. In El Salvador, the Welfare Secretariat is considering the development of a national youth policy. In Honduras, although the youth policy hinges on the National Youth Plan, its internal regulations do not specify the legal framework for youth policies. Lastly, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela is studying a youth law.

It should be stressed that the lack of general youth legislation may be a factor in the fragmentation of youth legislation in Latin American countries. A further two factors that compound this is the unfamiliarity of many legislators with the youth issue and the manipulation of some youth demands due to a variety of circumstances. One of the advantages of a framework law is that it organizes, directs and distributes responsibilities and assigns resources to the issue being legislated, thereby eliminating disarticulation. A framework law on youth would be an organic means of regulating policies on youth, which could lead to more efficient results in legally protected youth matters (Bernales, 2001).

In Latin American countries, existing constitutional specifications regarding youth refer mainly to adolescents and young people under the age of 18. These specifications centre on protecting the family environment and on securing resources to guarantee adolescents and minors rights such as the right to life, food, health, education, physical integrity, leisure time and so on. The influence of the Convention on the Rights of the Child and the effort to transpose its provisions into domestic legislation should be seen as positive (Bernales, 2001).

An analysis of current legislation on the subject of citizenship shows that, in the majority of Latin American countries, the right to vote is set at the age of 18. In Cuba and Nicaragua it is set at 16. Countries have no uniform constitutional criterion concerning political participation. With regard to criminal liability, constitutional texts set out guarantees of personal liberty and safety to prevent the abuse and loss of liberty of anyone who has not committed a crime. In application of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, some countries include provisions to protect people under the age of 18. This prevents minors from being sentenced as harshly as people over the age of majority (see table V.5).

ii) Recent changes in youth legislation

As mentioned above, youth legislation is fragmented and typically inorganic, scattered, fragile and markedly unstable. However, an analysis of recent legislative changes on youth shows that governments are giving priority to consolidating youth institutions (Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Mexico, Nicaragua, Peru), developing youth legislation (Costa Rica, Ecuador (preliminary draft), Nicaragua and Dominican Republic) and defining a national youth policy (Ecuador, El Salvador, Nicaragua and Dominican Republic) (see table V.6 and annex V.3).

Table V.5

LATIN AMERICA (11 COUNTRIES): DEFINITION OF JUVENILE CRIMINAL LIABILITY	
Country	
Argentina	No person under 16 years of age is punishable. People under the age of 18 are punishable for crimes for which the custodial sentence does not exceed 2 years with a fine or disqualification.
Bolivia	The law establishes criminal liability for people older than 16 years of age. The bill for the Minors' Code raises the age to 18 years.
Brazil	Children and adolescents aged between 12 and 18 years are liable under the judicial system for minors, in accordance with their specific legislation.
Chile <i>a/</i>	People under the age of 16 years are immune from prosecution. For those aged 16 to 18 years, liability for prosecution is at the court's discretion.
Colombia	Children and adolescents aged between 12 and 18 years are liable under the judicial system for minors.
Costa Rica	Children and adolescents aged between 12 and 18 years are liable under the judicial system for minors.
Ecuador	Children and adolescents aged between 12 and 18 years are liable under the judicial system for minors.
Guatemala	Children and adolescents aged between 12 and 18 years are liable under the judicial system for minors.
Honduras	Children under the age of 12 years are immune from prosecution. Minors aged between 12 and 18 years come under the special jurisdiction of the law on the jurisdiction of minors.
Peru	Children and adolescents aged between 12 and 18 years are liable under the judicial system for minors.
Uruguay	Minors under the age of 18 years are immune from prosecution and the protection measures of the Child Code are applied to them.

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC)/United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)/Secretariat for Ibero-American Cooperation (SECIB), Building Equity from the Beginning: the Children and Adolescents of Ibero-America (LC/G.2144) Santiago, Chile, September 2001.

a/ A discussion is taking place within the legislative sphere about lowering the criminal liability age to 14 years.

Latin American countries have also made noteworthy efforts in recent years to make legislative changes to encourage the creation of youth organizations. The gradual acceptance of the young person as an individual with rights and as a development actor helps to provide structure to the relationships that young people establish with other sectors of society. Even though provisions creating specialist public organizations for youth issues facilitate the institutionalization of the treatment of young people within the State, they do not always help to define the rights of young people or to emphasize their entitlement to rights.

The legislative changes described above are designed to afford more consistency to measures targeting youth. Indeed, to a large extent, problems of hyperconcentration and overlap between institutions and lack of policy coordination stem from failings in youth legislation. Yet the problem is not that there is too little youth legislation; indeed, in some cases it is copious. The aim is not to have many different youth laws but to have a legislative system which identifies the young person as an individual with rights, and thus to have a specific and general framework of reference within which institutions can apply their policies and programmes (Bernales, 2001).

3. PUBLIC YOUTH INSTITUTIONS

Progress in terms of public youth institutions has been mixed. In the Latin American region there are ministries, offices of deputy-ministers, under-secretariats, institutes and departments of youth with varying levels of influence and importance in the political hierarchy. They carry out a wide variety of tasks, including: management, counselling and supervision, as well as the promotion of activities and services targeted at young people. Much of the programme provision for young people is sectoral in nature. Some countries have no official organizations responsible for the youth sector.

a) Administrative dependence and lines of action of government youth organizations

Public youth policy depends to a large extent on the consolidation of a body of public institutions that help to secure its continuity and sustainability. In the countries polled, the progress of youth institutions is mixed. In some countries, official youth organizations have been created by presidential decree, that is approved by the Head of State rather than established by law, which makes them vulnerable when a new government is elected. In Brazil, for example, there is no official organization responsible for youth matters, meaning that youth measures tend to focus on adolescents and children.

As regards hierarchical level, government youth organizations are part of a wide range of administrative structures: there are ministries (Panama), offices of deputy-ministers (Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia, Costa Rica, Paraguay), youth secretariats (Nicaragua), under-secretariats, institutes (Chile, Mexico, Uruguay), departments (Argentina, Ecuador, El Salvador) and others. Some State youth organizations are smaller units in a non-specialized ministerial institution and have no legal status, which means that they are constrained administratively and politically (El Salvador and Nicaragua until 2001). Other official youth organizations are either attached to a State department of a high hierarchical level or enjoy administrative autonomy, but report directly to the Office of the President of the Republic (Guatemala, Nicaragua, Dominican Republic). Youth organizations can also come under the ministry responsible for formulating national youth policy, which may be a Ministry of Education (Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Colombia, El Salvador); Sport and Youth (Uruguay); Social Development (Argentina), Sustainable Development, Planning and Cooperation (Bolivia, Chile); or Labour (Ecuador). Furthermore, such organizations may operate at the national, provincial or local (municipal or departmental) level, depending on their scope of competence (see table V.7).

Table V.6

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (15 COUNTRIES): MAIN ISSUES CONSIDERED IN LEGISLATIVE CHANGES UP TO 2003															
Issues	Argentina	Bolivia	Chile	Colombia	Costa Rica	Cuba	Ecuador	El Salvador	Guatemala	Mexico	Nicaragua	Panama	Peru	Dominican Republic	Uruguay
Youth institutions and young people's rights															
Youth institutions				X	X		X			X	X		X		
General youth legislation					X		X			X	X			X	
Regulation of corporations, cooperatives and youth organizations			X		X		X								
National youth policy							X	X			X			X	
Juvenile criminal justice					X										
Policies on children and adolescents							X	X							
Discrimination										X					
Budget for youth initiatives															X
Young people's rights and obligations		X													
Age of majority			X												
National Youth Week					X										
Civic service									X						
Young people's education, employment, health and family															
Education and universities			X												X
Teenage pregnancy					X							X			
Youth employment															X
Family								X				X			
Young migrants															
Prevention (drugs, alcoholism, citizen safety)					X	X									X
Child labour					X										
Domestic violence					X										
Other					X										

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of replies to the survey on national youth programmes, 2004.

Table V.7

LATIN AMERICA (19 COUNTRIES): ADMINISTRATIVE HIERARCHY OF OFFICIAL GOVERNMENT YOUTH ORGANIZATIONS										
Country	Date of creation	Ministry	Office of the Deputy Minister	National Youth Department	Secretariat	National Institute for Youth	National Youth Council	Presidential Programme	Foundation	Other
Argentina				X						
Bolivia	1997		X							
Brazil	–									X
Chile	1991					X				
Colombia	1998							X		
Costa Rica	2002		X				X			
Cuba	1962									X
Ecuador	1987			X						
El Salvador				X						
Guatemala	1966						X			
Honduras	1983						X			
Mexico	1999					X				
Nicaragua	2001				X					
Panama	1997	X								
Paraguay			X							
Peru	2001						X			
Dominican Republic										X
Uruguay	1990					X				
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	1994						X		X	

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of replies to the survey on national youth programmes, 2004.

The progress made in institutionalizing the youth issue in Latin American countries can be largely attributed to the work of the Ibero–American Youth Organization (OIJ). Notable among the Organization’s activities is the Project for the Institutional Development of Official Youth Organizations in Central America (DINO Programme), sponsored by the Ford Foundation, which is being implemented out in Costa Rica, Guatemala and Nicaragua. The aim of the DINO Programme is to boost the technical and operational capability of official youth organizations in designing and implementing comprehensive policies to assist the young people of those countries. The principal challenge has been to strengthen official youth organizations institutionally, while creating channels for expanding the forums where young people can develop fully as citizens.

The aim of the DINO programme is to resolve the following problems:

- Inadequate and ineffective coordination between the State and civil society.
- Weak channels of communication and cooperation between official youth organizations and civil society organizations working with young people.
- Limited institutional capabilities of youth associations and non–governmental organizations working on youth issues.

In short, the programme aims to create conditions more conducive to the development of a public policy that will increase the civic participation of young people.

In some countries, programme actions targeted at young people are designed to encourage youth participation in social and cultural policies and to strengthen institutional links at the national and international levels. For example, Argentina’s youth policy has four priority objectives: to strengthen civil society; to develop local youth policies; to include

young people in public policies; and to generate information about young people. In Bolivia, programme actions focus on four areas: the Concerted National Plan for the Sustainable Development of Adolescents and Young People; the National Plan for Alternating Youth Education; the National Plan for the Integrated Health Care of Adolescents; and the programme for women's voluntary preliminary military service and for compulsory military service.

In addition, there have been major decentralization efforts, as in Chile, where the National Institute for Youth (INJUV) has municipal offices at the local level and is legally defined as an eminently technical organization responsible for coordinating institutional efforts.² Youth policy provision is aimed at adolescent students in secondary and higher education. The institutions in the sector implement special programmes for young people. There are currently 168 local or municipal youth organizations. Colombia is implementing the Presidential *Colombia Joven* Programme, which is designed to coordinate the definition and development of the national youth policy and to implement youth plans, programmes and projects. It aims to implement the National Youth System, promote Youth Councils, and to develop integrated youth services, youth solidarity bodies, youth centres, etc. *Colombia Joven* has promoted the creation of Municipal Youth Councils. However, the law needs to be amended in order to boost the autonomy of local governments. In Costa Rica, youth policy is based around by the National Youth Movement (which focuses on young people's participation and exercise of rights), and inter-institutional coordination actions in five areas: participation, training, research, communication and legislation. In Guatemala, youth programmes are implemented in a sectoral and autonomous manner and are designed to consolidate and update youth policies, youth studies and analyses, to promote young people's associational activities and participation, and to administer, monitor and manage the National Youth Plan.

As already mentioned, Brazil has no official organization responsible for youth issues. Actions are targeted at children and adolescents and the legal framework of reference for adolescent policies is the Statute for Children and Adolescents (1990). The National Council on the Rights of Children and Adolescents (CONANDA), which comes under the Ministry of Justice, is responsible for formulating the guidelines for relevant policies on education, health and employment. Each ministry coordinates the actions in these areas and there is a special advisor for youth issues at the Ministry of Education, who acts as the country's official representative in international youth forums.

Cuba is a different case, in that its programme provision started with the Cuban Revolution. Cuba's Union of Young Communists and the State are responsible for lines of action on youth, implemented by the competent ministries and organizations. Both the Union and the State oversee the implementation of measures in the areas of education, health, culture, physical education and recreation, through Parliament and the Committee for Children, Young People and Young Women.

Other countries concentrate their lines of action on programmes designed to resolve specific situations. For instance, Ecuador focuses on the Ecuador/Peru cross-border project to integrate youth for peace, as well as on developing local youth offices, youth centres and youth employment; strengthening youth organizations; and setting up an information and documentation centre. In El Salvador, initiatives are targeted at adolescents in programmes with variable coverage implemented by a range of preventive, sporting and recreational, cultural, vocational, participatory and other organizations. In Nicaragua, programme measures are also based on sport-related activities.

In a further group of countries, actions are aimed at analysing and planning youth policies, the

2 Between 1997 and 1999, INJUV had an institutional model that reduced its executive functions. It only implements the Youth Information System (SIJ) and Interjoven, designed to provide support in those strategic areas, thereby reinforcing its technical, advisory, organizational and coordinating role.

cultural participation of young people, youth studies and the implementation of youth development projects and programmes (Guatemala, Honduras). In other countries (Chile, Dominican Republic, Mexico, Panama, Peru and Uruguay), provision is organized on a sectoral basis, with a certain amount of equivalence between the provision organized by the national institutes for youth (focusing on young people) and by the ministries (broader bodies). The actions are targeted at the areas of education, employment, public safety, young people's rights, sexual and reproductive health, association activities, the environment, consumption (youth card) and youth information.

b) Management of youth policies

Government youth organizations carry out a variety of policy design and management functions. The management function includes drawing up government plans for youth policy, which requires youth organizations to be informed about young people's situation and to act as an advisory body on related matters. The management function also includes advising on and supervising public programmes, support for youth organizations, incentives for councils and forums of public youth organizations, coordination of youth services, public awareness and communication campaigns, information systems for defining and evaluating performance, and other activities (Balardini, 2003).

The most traditional function of youth organizations is implementation, which requires the

capability and resources for direct involvement in programme implementation. This provides youth organizations with greater public exposure and helps them to secure recognition. The implementation function includes a responsibility to seek innovative management mechanisms with the participation of youth organizations, plus associated management tasks.

The most recent function in the area of management and implementation is policy coordination. This implies stronger political backing and allows youth organizations to coordinate youth policies implemented by other administrative bodies (*ibid.*). It means optimizing State resources, whilst avoiding programme overlaps, and includes an inter- and intrasectoral dimension. Moreover, it involves guiding autonomous institutions and managing hierarchically related organizations. This management aspect also involves promoting the joint incorporation and discussion of youth issues within sectoral organizations, in order to include these issues in programmes and projects. This has to be done by means of multisectoral mechanisms, based on a multidisciplinary approach.

Democratic management of local youth policies has yet to be achieved, since this calls for the development of differentiated and complementary strategies involving the active participation of young people at all stages, from programme design through to implementation and evaluation.

C. PROVISION OF YOUTH PROGRAMMES

There is wide-ranging programme provision for young people, including general programmes for disseminating and promoting rights and sectoral programmes on employment, education and health. However, apart from a few notable exceptions, Latin American countries lack specific programmes targeted at young people in rural areas or young people with disabilities, or programmes with a gender approach. Programmes also come up against problems of targeting and coverage and, in particular, there is a lack of proper evaluation.

1. CHARACTERISTICS, FINANCING AND TYPES OF PROGRAMMES IMPLEMENTED

All the countries have both general and sectoral youth programmes, and some have specific youth programmes, but usually these are subsumed into programmes for adolescents and children or have problems in meeting young people's heterogeneous needs (see annex V.4). Few countries offer programmes exclusively for young people in rural areas (Bolivia, Colombia and Mexico), young indigenous people (Mexico, Colombia), young disabled people (Colombia) or young women (programmes with a gender approach) (Colombia, Mexico). Although the majority of the programmes do include these youth categories, they do not cater entirely for the specific requirements of young people. Costa Rica, Colombia, Mexico and Nicaragua have a more varied provision of programmes and projects targeted specifically at young people.

According to the survey, Colombia is the country with the greatest integrated provision for special groups and minorities, including the following areas:

- Integrated assistance to the indigenous population, by means of programmes and projects for recovering, boosting and preserving the culture, traditions, customs, language and indigenous life plans of Colombia's ethnic minorities.
- Dissemination, promotion, training and publication of human rights in order to construct areas of peace and to create production alternatives with vulnerable groups in 36 Colombian municipalities. Here the actions are targeted at young people in areas of armed conflict, including social, political and civic leaders under threat.
- Technical assistance, counselling and monitoring for the application and development of the policy of equity and women's participation.
- Establishment of a public communication and social integration system for people with disabilities.

- Programme for displaced persons and for preventing violence in Colombia's farming sector.
- Assistance and support for children and young people with exceptional talent and abilities.

There are also noteworthy efforts to launch programmes to disseminate the rights and obligations of young people, as well as youth legislation (Argentina, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Nicaragua). This type of initiative helps to strengthen youth organizations, improve training for civil servants in matters of current legislation and raises the political profile of youth issues in different sectors. Other less developed areas include education and environmental conservation (Mexico, Cuba), social peace and projects to counter juvenile violence (Colombia, El Salvador, Peru, Nicaragua), legal support for young people (Guatemala, Mexico) and prevention and control of the sexual exploitation of children, adolescents and young people.

With regard to sectoral programmes, all the countries polled are implementing employment programmes, some of which are centred specifically on further training and job placement (Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Mexico, Panama, Peru and Uruguay) as a means to address the problem of high unemployment in Latin America.

Education programmes are the second government priority, especially with respect to study grants and loans (Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Peru), the dissemination of new technology (Chile, Colombia, Cuba) and sexual education (Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama).

Almost all countries that are striving to diversify the provision of specialized youth programmes in the area of health include strategies to broaden access to health services. In addition, there are actions to resolve problems associated with teenage pregnancy

and sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) (Panama), HIV (Dominican Republic, Panama) and the prevention and control of drug addiction and support for eradication programmes (Chile, Colombia, Dominican Republic, Mexico, Nicaragua). There are integrated programmes for adolescent and child health in Chile, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominican Republic and Peru. Only Colombia has programmes targeted specifically at the mental health of young people.

With regard to problems faced by young Latin Americans in gaining access to housing, only Mexico and Cuba have universal programmes containing special provisions on young people.

As in other areas of intervention, gaps in legislation concerning the powers of official public youth institutions (lack of an independent budget, lack of legal status and other shortcomings) can make for a rather arbitrary programme regime. Efforts are therefore needed to introduce systems of information and evaluation of youth programmes.

Costa Rica has conducted a study to systematize information on the services and opportunities offered to young people by the Costa Rican Government, as a means of evaluating the progress of youth policies. This has laid the foundations for developing a long-term public policy designed to:

- Provide socio-economic indicators that make it possible to address the major problems facing young people.
- Analyse the current regulatory framework for young people and describe public youth provision based on its classification.
- Categorize the situations and needs that must be addressed and the people involved.

Lastly, the study analyses the effectiveness of public youth provision and its chief limitations and challenges in defining Costa Rica's youth policy.

Colombia is conducting a similar effort with existing government documentation on public youth provision. One of the purposes of the Presidential *Colombia Joven* Programme is to supply young people with ordered information on the full range of national policies and programmes. As part of the bid to produce public information tools to meet young people's needs, the document *Oferta Pública de Juventud* (public youth provision) was developed to optimize the identification, analysis and dissemination of opportunities for young people. The document systematizes a wide-ranging set of national government youth projects, services and programmes, which are updated annually with the support of a network of State and civic bodies, operating as a coordinated information system.

Tools like this help to overcome the problems caused by high turnover among youth services and to collect information so as to follow up experiences. Moreover, as a consultation tool for young people, it is an effective mechanism for forging links between the State and the strongest public demands, taking advantage of information and communication technologies.

In Mexico this type of instrument has been used to strengthen a number of government youth institutions. Both Mexico's Youth Affairs Committee and the Mexican Youth Institute (IMJ) have made efforts to systematize information on the legal framework of support for young people and to develop a global perspective on the Government's policy for addressing young people's problems and expectations. Some of its prominent activities are the study of Mexican legislation, analysis of international experiences and the surveying of points of view of institutions and experts on the various problems affecting young people.

The Mexican Youth Institute is currently developing the Internal Information Control System (SICI), which has made it possible –since April 2002– to monitor the goals of each of the Institute's

operational and administrative activities on a monthly basis. It also designed the Information System on State Youth Bodies (SIIE), which includes all federal programmes run by regional public youth institutions. This system will monitor compliance with targets and verify the resources of IMJ, in accordance with the cooperation agreements drawn up by IMJ with each federative entity. Other important initiatives in Mexico are the system of presidential targets and management indicators, and the National Youth Survey to monitor the general situation of young people. The Survey provides a reliable diagnosis on the reality of young people in Mexico and has been widely used to fine-tune measures aimed at the youth sector.

The greatest problems encountered in the programmes analysed are with targeting and coverage, as well as with other more specific aspects, including the fact that programmes are:

- Temporary and their continuance depends on budget resources that are not always forthcoming.
- Run by organizations whose activities and continuity are not guaranteed, except in the case of youth ministries or national youth institutes.
- Sectorally biased and lack coordination with other institutions responsible for the same issues.
- Under-publicized and have coverage problems.
- Failing to meet young people's real needs, given the lack of diagnoses or up-to-date information on the situation of young people.
- Lacking in monitoring and evaluation. Even official youth organizations may be unaware of all the relevant information on programme development and results.

With respect to financing, there is a notable lack of systematized information in some countries. Since many such programmes have not been created by law, they are temporary and depend on international aid and contributions from private business, which do not guarantee their survival.

In a number of countries there is a lack of international support for specific programme actions for young people, so they depend solely on national funding (Cuba, Ecuador, El Salvador and Panama).

Moreover, for some types of programme within a country, this information may not be known (Costa Rica) (see table V.8).

Table V.8

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): SOURCE OF FUNDING FOR YOUTH PROGRAMMES								
Country	National budget	Banks	Reimbursable international funding	Non-reimbursable international funding	Non-governmental organizations	Foundations	Combination	Private business
Argentina	X		X				X	
Chile	X					X		
Colombia	X	X	X					
Costa Rica	X		X				X	
Cuba	X							
Ecuador	X							
El Salvador	X							
Guatemala	X							
Mexico	X	X						
Nicaragua	X		X	X				X
Panama	X							X
Peru	X	X		X			X	
Dominican Republic	X		X					X
Uruguay	X	X	X				X	X

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of replies to the survey on national youth programmes.

D. INTERNATIONAL AGENDA

The thirtieth session of ECLAC was held during the first half of 2004 and a meeting of the ECLAC Sessional Ad Hoc Committee on Population and Development was held in parallel. The ninth session of the Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean also took place during the first half of 2004.

The thirtieth session of ECLAC was held in San Juan, Puerto Rico, from 28 June to 2 July 2004. It was attended by around 900 representatives from the 41 member States and seven associate members of ECLAC, as well as representatives of specialized agencies of the United Nations system non-governmental organizations and special guests. They formed part of the official delegations of ministers of education, economic affairs, labour, planning and foreign affairs of the various countries, together with other authorities. The meeting, of utmost importance for ECLAC, is held every two years, and the member States use it to review progress on activities conducted over the previous two years and to approve the plan of work for the following two years. In addition, it is a body that analyses issues of importance for the development of the countries of the region. At the thirtieth session, ECLAC presented to the Governments of the region a document entitled "Productive Development in Open Economies", which analyses appropriate strategies for achieving sustainable growth in the region. At the meeting, 17 resolutions were approved on the various issues discussed.

The meeting of the ECLAC sessional Ad Hoc Committee on Population and Development was

held during the ECLAC session and marked the tenth anniversary of the International Conference on Population and Development (Cairo, 1994). In addition, two round tables discussions were held on priority issues in the Millennium Declaration: HIV/AIDS, and population and poverty. The seminar "Financing and management of education in Latin America and the Caribbean" (ECLAC-UNESCO) was also held, and there was a meeting of the Presiding Officers of the Regional Council for Planning of the Latin American and Caribbean Institute for Economic and Social Planning (ILPES).

The aim of the ninth session of the Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean, held in Mexico from 10 to 12 June 2004, was to examine the implementation of the international commitments agreed in the Regional Programme of Action for the Women of Latin America and the Caribbean 1995–2001, adopted in 1994, and in the Beijing Platform for Action. Thirty-five delegations from ECLAC member States and associate members attended the Conference, together with a wide representation of organizations from the United Nations system and civil society observers.

The Regional Conference on Women is a subsidiary body of ECLAC that meets regularly to identify women's needs at the regional and subregional levels, to make recommendations, to periodically evaluate the activities carried out in compliance with regional and international agreements and plans, and to provide a forum for debate on such matters. At the Conference, ECLAC presented a document entitled "Roads towards Gender Equity in Latin America and the Caribbean", which served as the basis for the Conference discussions.

The civil society organizations that attended the Conference as observers made a statement declaring

their unswerving faith in democracy and in its institutions, reaffirmed their support for the Beijing Platform for Action and expressed their desire for Conference delegates of both sexes to meet the hopes and expectations of millions of women and peoples in the region, in a determined bid to bring democracy, justice and human rights to everyone, male and female.

One of the main government agreements is the Mexico City Consensus, which is summarized in the box below:

Box V.3

NINTH SESSION OF THE REGIONAL CONFERENCE ON WOMEN IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN

Place and date:	Mexico, 10 to 12 June 2004
Participants:	Thirty-four government representatives from ECLAC member States, specialized agencies of the United Nations system, non-governmental organizations, academic, political and institutional representatives and special guests.
Organizers:	ECLAC
Background:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Subregional Meeting for Mexico and Central America Preparatory to the Ninth Session of the Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean, Tegucigalpa, 5 and 6 February 2004. • Subregional Meeting for the Caribbean Preparatory to the Ninth Session of the Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, 11 to 13 February 2004. • Subregional Preparatory Meeting for South America: Towards the Ninth Session of the Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean, Brasilia, 23 and 24 March 2004. • Thirty-sixth Meeting of the Presiding Officers of the Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean, Mexico City, 9 June 2004.
Objectives:	To examine the application of international commitments acquired in the Regional Programme of Action adopted in 1994 and in the Beijing Platform for Action.
Agreements:	Summary of the Mexico City Consensus

The Governments reaffirmed the following decisions:

To implement public policies that help to redress the conditions of poverty affecting women in the region, adopt proactive policies to promote job creation, and to recognize the economic value of unpaid domestic and productive work.

To intensify efforts for the prevention, diagnosis and treatment of sexually transmitted diseases (STDs), particularly HIV/AIDS, whilst guaranteeing access, without discrimination, to information, care, education and services for prevention of STDs.

To adopt the comprehensive measures needed to eliminate all forms of violence against women, including domestic violence, sexual abuse and harassment, incest, sexual exploitation and the trafficking and smuggling of women and girls, forced prostitution, murder, systematic rape and violence in situations of armed conflict, as well as to eliminate unilateral measures contrary to international law and the Charter of the United Nations.

NINTH SESSION OF THE REGIONAL CONFERENCE ON WOMEN IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN

To promote the full and equal participation of men and women at all levels of decision-making in the State, society and the marketplace, and to promote the participation of civil society in decision-making processes at the local, national, regional and global levels. Also to invite legislative bodies in the region to review their countries' laws with a view to harmonizing them with international instruments concerning human rights and the elimination of discrimination against women, children of both sexes and adolescents.

To implement education policies that meet the countries' development needs, encouraging education for all women, and to foster a culture of respect for the human rights of women, carrying out programmes to raise awareness at all levels of education. To review policies and legislation with a view to strengthening the obligation to pay economic support for boys, girls, adolescents and other dependants.

To revise laws in order to ensure that women are accorded full and equal rights to own land and other property, and to undertake administrative reforms to give women the same right as men to credit and capital.

To guarantee that national machineries for the advancement of women are provided with financial and human resources, build up their political capacity and consolidate their institutional status at the highest possible level.

To urge Governments that have not yet done so to consider ratifying and effectively implementing the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women and its Optional Protocol.

The Governments reiterate that the full and effective implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action, the Regional Programme of Action for the Women of Latin America and the Caribbean, and the Caribbean Community Plan of Action are an essential contribution to the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals derived from the Millennium Declaration adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations in New York in 2000.

Lastly, they welcome the document presented by ECLAC, entitled "Roads Towards Gender Equity in Latin America and the Caribbean", and the research agenda contained therein.



ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR LATIN AMERICA (ECLAC)

SURVEY ON NATIONAL YOUTH PROGRAMMES

Identification Institution: _____ Country: _____
 Questionnaire respondent: _____ Position: _____

Reply briefly

1. What are the three main problems facing young people in your country? What are the causes of these problems?

Order	Main problems of young people	Causes
1		
2		
3		

2. Do these problems affect young people from different social sectors in the same way?

	Young people in extreme poverty	Young addicts/delinquents	Young people who are not poor
Yes/No			
Why?			

3. In the past five years, what have been the main legislative measures aimed at young people?

4. Do specific policies and programmes exist to counter these problems?

Yes _____ No _____

5. What are they?

6. What is the type of programme, its coverage, amount of funding and start year?

Type of programme (example)	Coverage (urban, rural, regional)	Amount of funding		Start year
		Annual	Total	
Institutional				
Cultural				
Educational				
Employment				
Social reintegration				
Other				

7. What is the target population for youth programmes: men/women, urban/rural?

Name of programme	Target population			
	Young men	Young women	Urban youth	Rural youth

8. Which institutions coordinate the programmes that have been implemented?

9. What is the source of funding for youth programmes?

Name of programme	Source of funding						
	National budget	Banks	Reimbursable international funding	Non-reimbursable international funding	Non-governmental organizations	Foundations	Combination

10. What are the mechanisms for diagnosing, evaluating and monitoring the programmes?

Name of programme	Mechanisms for		
	Diagnosis	Monitoring	Evaluation

11. Which aspects of the programme have been successful and which aspects need to be reviewed?

Name of programme	Successful aspects	Aspects needing to be reviewed

12. What size of target groups have benefited from such programmes?

Name of programme	Total target population			
	Young men	Young women	Urban youth	Rural youth

Replies to: Irma Arriagada, ECLAC, Box 179-D, Santiago, Chile
Fax: +56 2 2102523, +56 2 2081946.
Preferably by electronic mail: irma.arriagada@cepal.org

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (15 COUNTRIES): PEOPLE AND INSTITUTIONS ANSWERING THE QUESTIONNAIRE ON NATIONAL YOUTH PROGRAMMES			
Country	Institution	Position	Name
Argentina	Social Policy Secretariat, National Youth Department	General Coordinator of the Social Policy Secretariat	Vanesa L. Wainstein
Bolivia	Youth Directorate	Director General for Youth	Álvaro Argandaña
Colombia	Presidential Programme <i>Colombia Joven</i>	Director	Nicolás Uribe Cristián Urrego
Costa Rica	Youth Council	–	Gabriela Valverde Murillo
Cuba	Ministry for Foreign Investment and Cooperation, National Bureau of the Union of Young Communists (UJC)	Deputy Minister Member	Raúl Taladríd Suárez Kenia Serrano Puig
Chile	National Institute for Youth	International Relations Unit	Gerardo Canales
Ecuador	National Youth Department	National Youth Director Head of the Research and Planning Department	Darwin Seraquive Abad Gabriel Valencia Chamorro
El Salvador	Ministry of Education	Youth Director	Marta Alicia Arias de Canales
Guatemala	National Youth Council	Deputy Director for International Relations	Bequer Nefalí Chocooj de la Cruz
Mexico	Mexican Youth Institute	Director of Youth Research and Studies	José Antonio Pérez Islas
Nicaragua	Youth Secretariat, Office of the President of the Republic	Youth Secretary	Lindolfo Monjarret Martínez
Panama	Ministry of Youth, Children and the Family	Head of the Research and Project Formulation Department	Víctor Ismael Rodríguez Ríos
Peru	National Youth Committee	Research and Development Director	Ruth Jerónimo Zacarías
Dominican Republic	Secretariat of State for Youth	–	Ana Zunilda Millord
Uruguay	National Institute for Youth	Advisors, Youth Projects and Studies Unit	Daniel Picart Javier Díaz

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (15 COUNTRIES): LEGISLATIVE CHANGES 1998–2003

Country	Law No.	Date	Legislative changes 1998–2003
Argentina	–		There is no knowledge of legislative measures specifically for young people in recent years. There are a few bills currently before the Houses of Parliament, but they have not yet been approved
Bolivia	Supreme decree 25 290	30 January 1999	On young people's rights and obligations
Chile	Law No. 19221	Published in the Official Gazette on 1 June 1993	Sets the age of majority at 18 years
	Law No. 19532	Published in the Official Gazette on 17 November 1997	Creates the regime of a complete school day and lays down rules for its implementation, as from the beginning of the 2002 school year
	Law No. 19688	Published in the Official Gazette on 5 August 2000	Amends constitutional framework law No. 18962 on education with regard to the right of pregnant or breastfeeding female students to attend educational establishments
	Supreme decree No. 833 of the Ministry of Justice	Published in the Official Gazette on 30 October 2002	Standard articles of association for youth corporations
	Law No. 19876	Published in the Official Gazette on 22 May 2003	Constitutional reform making secondary education compulsory and free of charge
	Decree No. 247 of the Ministry of Foreign affairs	Published in the Official Gazette on 25 October 2003	Approval of the memorandum of association of the Ibero–American Youth Organization (OIJ), adopted at the Seventh Ibero–American Conference of Youth Ministers and signed in Buenos Aires on 1 August 1996
Colombia			Regulations on the hours at which minors may go to establishments that sell alcoholic beverages
Costa Rica		1990	Ratification of the International Convention on the Rights of the Child
		30 April 1996	Law on juvenile criminal justice
		1996	New framework law of the national child welfare agency (Patronato Nacional de la Infancia)
		6 February 1998	Promulgation of the Code on Children and Adolescents
		1999	Executive decree on sexual and reproductive health
		2000	Responsible Parenthood Act
		2002	General law on the young person
		Decree 24667–C	General regulations on youth centres
		Decree 256	Decrees that the fourth week of April of each year shall be National Youth Week
		Decree 25890–MTSS	Eradication of child labour
	Regulation 18832–MEP. Decree 26084–MP	Regulations on school and youth cooperatives for training and production	
	Law No. 7735	General law on the protection of teenage mothers	
	Law No. 7688	Identity card for Costa Ricans between the ages of 12 and 18	
	Law No. 7586	Domestic Violence Act	
Cuba	Law No. 87	16 February 1999	Introduces new categories of crime against children that prevent their normal development, such as the sale and trafficking of minors
Ecuador			Creation and implementation of the Youth Act
			Design of the National Youth Plan
			Creation of the Code on Children and Adolescents
			Ibero–American Charter on the Rights of Youth
		Promotion, legalization and strengthening of youth organizations nationwide	
El Salvador			Modification of the Family Code
			Initiative on youth policy
			Policies on children and adolescents
Guatemala			Civic Service Act
			Full Protection for Children and Adolescents Act

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (15 COUNTRIES): LEGISLATIVE CHANGES 1998–2003			
Country	Law No.	Date	Legislative changes 1998–2003
Mexico		1999	Mexican Youth Institute Act Act of the protection of the rights of girls, boys and adolescents Draft decree reforming and supplementing the Mexican Youth Institute Act Draft decree issuing the General Youth Act, which seeks to create a National Youth Council Federal Act for the prevention and elimination of discrimination
		12 February 2002	Draft decree issuing the National Youth Parliament Act Bill to regulate the creation of permanent tattoos and piercing
		2002	Creation of State youth institutions
Nicaragua	Law 392	July 2001	Integrated Development of Nicaraguan Youth Act
		December 2001	Design and approval of the national policy for the integrated development of Nicaraguan youth
		January 2002	Youth Secretariat
		March 2002	Regulation of the Integrated Development of Nicaraguan Youth Act
		September 2003	National Youth Committee
Panama	Executive decree No. 140	11 November 2003	Creates the National Council for Children and Adolescents
	Law No. 39	30 April 2003	Amends and supplements articles in the Family Code, on acknowledgement of paternity, and lays down other provisions
	Law No. 46	6 June 2003	Amends articles in Law 40 of 1999, on the special regime of criminal liability for adolescents, and lays down other provisions
	Law No. 29	13 June 2002	Guarantees health care and education for pregnant teenagers
	Law No. 18	15 June 2000	Approves ILO Convention 182
	Law No. 3	5 January 2000	On sexually transmitted diseases, the human immunodeficiency virus and AIDS
	Law No. 40	1999	Special regime on criminal liability for adolescents
	Law No. 17	15 June 2000	Approves ILO Convention 138
Executive decree No. 18	19 July 1999	Amends Executive Decree No. 25 of 15 April 1997, creating the Committee for the Eradication of Child labour and the Protection of Working Minors	
Peru	Law No. 27802	28 July 2002	National Youth Council Act
		22 July 2002	National agreement on governance
		22 July 2002	Approved the sixteenth State policy
	Law No. 27972	26 May 2003	Framework Law on municipalities
	Law No. 27802		Creation of the National Youth Council (CONAJU)
Dominican Republic		April 1994	Code for the protection of children and adolescents
		July 2000	General Youth Act
		1998	National youth policy
Uruguay		1990	Ratification of the Convention on the Rights of the Child Budget law on the youth initiatives fund
		1997	Youth Employment Act Draft Code on Children and Adolescents (under discussion since 1995) replacing the current Child Code (1934)
			Citizens' Security, article 37, creating an Honorary Committee to protect children at risk
			Budget law, chapter relating to the National Public Education Administration (ANEP) and extending the coverage of the education system

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) on the basis of replies to the survey on national youth programmes, 2004.

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): TYPES OF YOUTH PROGRAMME AND THEIR CHARACTERISTICS

Type	Programme provision	Objectives	Target population ^{a/}	Coordinating institution	Achievements	Problems	Financing	Countries
Institutional and youth promotion programmes	Institutional	Institutional strengthening of youth policies Systems of information and evaluation on youth programmes	Government departments dealing with children, adolescents and young people Public education institutions	DINAJU National body for coordinating social policies National Institute for Youth Municipal governments Intergovernmental organizations Embassies	Implementation of national youth plans and programmes Establishment of national or local youth councils Support to local governments on youth matters Design of the Action Plan for youth policies Wider access to information on and for young people Alliances with firms and networks of young people	It is necessary to incorporate processes of monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes It is necessary to integrate the gender approach Need to reform the youth law Need to improve the quality of both the services and service provision	National budget Reimbursable international fund Non-reimbursable international fund Foundations	Argentina Bolivia Chile Ecuador Guatemala Mexico Nicaragua Uruguay
	Participation and associational activities	Strengthening associations and organizations Training and technical assistance for youth organizations Promotion of youth voluntary service	Local youth organizations Civil society organizations Young people	Ministries General Secretariat of Government Official youth body Decentralized youth body Intergovernmental organizations Voluntary organizations	Strengthening youth organizations and widening links with local governments Establishment of forums where young people can participate Promotion of strategic alliances Development of youth leaders Legalization of organizations Exchange of experiences between governmental and non-governmental organizations Promotion of youth social work Mobilization of young people around social values, solidarity and cooperation	Need to step up the promotion of, and technical assistance to, organizations It is necessary to expand coverage It is necessary to incorporate processes of monitoring and evaluation	National budget Non-reimbursable international fund Combination Reimbursable international fund	Argentina Bolivia Chile Colombia Costa Rica Ecuador El Salvador Mexico Nicaragua Peru Uruguay
	Cultural	Community youth initiatives Youth training centres Sport recreation Cultural centres Consumption ('Tarjeta Joven' youth card)	Youth organizations Young people	Ministry of Education and Culture National or decentralized sports units (including municipal youth institutes, sports secretariats, etc.) Official decentralized youth body NGOs	More youth participation Integration and creation of community strategies Government support Incorporation of private enterprise Forums specifically for young people	It is necessary to increase support to talented young people, in order to prevent high-risk behaviour Need for follow up to actions It is necessary to increase benefits and discounts on youth consumption	National budget Non-reimbursable international fund Private enterprise Combination	Colombia Costa Rica Cuba Ecuador El Salvador Guatemala Mexico Nicaragua Peru Uruguay
Sectoral	Educational	Study grants and loans Dissemination of the youth law and young people's rights and obligations Integrated prevention in matters of sexuality, reproductive health, drug addiction, alcoholism, etc.	Youth organizations Civil society Young people	Ministries (including Education and Culture; Social Development; Justice, the Interior etc.) National Council for Children, Adolescents and the Family National Youth Council Official youth body NGOs Organizations specializing in drug issues Institutions specializing in family issues Governmental science and technology institutions OJ	Contribution to the political positioning of the youth issue Promotion of the sector and scientific contents Establishment of links between parents and other sectors of the community Support for cultural and recreational initiatives Co-financing of initiatives with the private sector	Need for further decentralization It is necessary to incorporate processes for monitoring and evaluating the programmes	National budget Reimbursable cooperation fund State and private banks Combination	Argentina Bolivia Chile Colombia Costa Rica Cuba Ecuador El Salvador Guatemala Mexico Nicaragua Panama Peru Dominican Republic Uruguay

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): TYPES OF YOUTH PROGRAMME AND THEIR CHARACTERISTICS								
Type	Programme provision	Objectives	Target population a/	Coordinating institution	Achievements	Problems	Financing	Countries
Sectoral	Employment	Setting up units for creating and promoting youth employment Productive restructuring Job training Support for SMEs	Unemployed young people Production organizations	Ministries: (including Labour and Employment, Social Development, Planning and Cooperation, Agriculture, etc.) NGOs National trade promotion institutions National Production Council	Job creation Expanding business Wider access to loans Savings incentive Incorporation of, and links with, the private sector	Need for a long-term prevention strategy It is necessary to expand coverage It is necessary to incorporate monitoring and evaluation processes Need to develop microentrepreneurship and self-employment	National budget State and private banks Reimbursable international fund Non-reimbursable international fund Private sector	Argentina Chile Colombia Costa Rica Cuba Ecuador El Salvador Mexico Nicaragua Peru Uruguay
	Health	Broader access to basic health care Integrated prevention and care in matters of sexuality and addictions Food aid	Children, the family	Ministry of Health NGOs Official decentralized youth body	Provision of specialized health care to adolescents nationwide	Processes of monitoring and evaluation needed	National budget Combination Private sector	Chile Colombia Costa Rica Cuba Mexico Peru Dominican Republic
	Housing	Access to mortgage loans Grant	Civil society	Ministry of Housing and Social Development	–	–	National budget	Mexico
Other	Minority and/or excluded groups, or both	Strategies of social reintegration for young people, adolescents and children at social risk Homes and hostels	Young people, children and adolescents in extreme poverty, addicts, delinquents Children and the family	Ministries of Education and Culture National Council for Children, Adolescents and the Family National Youth Council Official youth body	Attention to young people with less access to Government programmes Promotion of personal life plans Human, individual and social development Guarantee of occupational and social reintegration for young former prisoners, drug addicts, etc.	Inter-institutional agreements are needed to provide continuing services It is necessary to improve the sustainability of implemented actions	National budget Combination Reimbursable international fund Non-reimbursable international fund	Argentina Bolivia Colombia Costa Rica Ecuador Guatemala Panama Peru
		Attention to, and inclusion of, minority groups of disabled people	Disabled people	National institutions specializing in disability Ministry of Education	Dissemination of the human rights framework Social support programmes	It is necessary to incorporate the gender approach	National budget	Mexico Colombia
		Indigenous youth sector	Indigenous organizations	Ministry of Education	–	–	–	Colombia Mexico
	Environment		Youth organizations Young people	Ministries of the environment and regional development, NGOs	Teaches the new generation to care for, conserve and develop the environment	–	National budget	Mexico Cuba
	Justice		Civil society	Ministry of Justice	–	–	National budget Combination	Chile Guatemala

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) on the basis of replies to the survey on national youth programmes, 2004.
a/ In most cases programme provision is both targeted and/or universal.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Aguirre, Rosario (2004), "Trabajo no remunerado y uso del tiempo. Fundamentos conceptuales y avances empíricos. La encuesta Montevideo 2003", Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), unpublished.
- _____ (2003), *Género, ciudadanía social y trabajo*, Montevideo, Facultad de Ciencias Sociales, Universidad de la República.
- Araya, María José (2003), "Un acercamiento a las encuestas sobre el uso del tiempo con orientación de género", *Mujer y desarrollo series*, No. 50 (LC/L.2022–P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), November. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.03.II.G.184.
- Ariza, Marina and Orlandina de Oliveira (2004), *Imágenes de la familia en el cambio de siglo. Universos familiar y procesos demográficos contemporáneos*, Mexico City, National Autonomous University of México (UNAM), forthcoming.
- Aroca, Patricio, Geoffrey Hewings and Jimmy Paredes (2001), "Migración interregional y el mercado laboral en Chile", *Cuadernos de economía series*, vol. 38, No. 115.
- Atkinson, A.B., (1970), "On the measurement of income inequality", *Journal of Economic Theory*, vol. 2.
- Balardini, Sergio (2003), "Políticas de juventud: conceptos y la experiencia argentina", *Políticas públicas de juventud en América Latina: políticas nacionales*, O. Dávila (ed.), Viña del Mar, Chile, CIDPA Ediciones.
- Barker, Gary (2003), "Men's participation as fathers in the Latin American and the Caribbean Region. A critical literature review with policy considerations", Washington, D.C., World Bank, unpublished.
- Bay, Guiomar, Fabiana del Popolo and D. Ferrando (2003), "Determinantes próximos de la fecundidad. Una aplicación a países latinoamericanos", *Población y desarrollo series*, No. 43 (LC/L.1953–P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC). United Nations publication, Sales No. S.03.II.G.121.
- Bernales, Enrique (2001), *Situación actual de la legislación iberoamericana en materia de juventud y adolescencia*, Madrid, Ibero–American Youth Organization (OIJ).
- Bourdieu, Pierre (1990), "La 'juventud' no es más que una palabra", *Sociología y cultura*, Mexico City, Editorial Grijalbo.
- Brito, Roberto (1997), "Hacia una sociología de la juventud", *Jóvenes, causa joven*, vol. 1, No. 1, Mexico City.
- Bulatao, R. and J. Casterline (eds.) (2001), "Global fertility transition", *Population and Development Review*, vol. 27.
- Cachón, Lorenzo (coord.) (2000), *Juventudes y empleos: perspectivas comparadas*, Madrid, Institute for Youth (INJUVE).
- Canales, A. (2000), "Migración laboral y flexibilidad laboral en el contexto del TLCAN", *Revista mexicana de sociología*.
- Carrasco, Cristina (2003), "Los tiempos de trabajo: entre la casa y el mercado. Nuevas aproximaciones de análisis de resultados", document presented at the Meeting of Experts on Time–use Surveys, Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), 11–12 December.
- CELADE (Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre) (1984), "Políticas de redistribución de la población en América Latina", *Notas de población series*, vol. 12, No. 34.
- Cevallos Chávez, Chrystiam and others (2000), "Propuesta de Plan Operativo de Derechos Humanos del Ecuador" [on line], American Association of Jurists/ Latin American Institute for Social Research (ILDIS)/United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) <<http://www.ildis.org.ec/planddhh/plan08te.htm>>

- Chackiel, Juan (2004), "La dinámica demográfica en América Latina", *Población y desarrollo series*, No. 52 (LC/L.2127-P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), May. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.04.II.G.55.
- Chackiel, Juan and Susana Schkolnik (2003), "América Latina: los sectores rezagados en la transición de la fecundidad", *Población y desarrollo series*, No. 42 (LC/L.1952-P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC). United Nations publication, Sales No. S.03.II.G.120.
- Costa Rica, Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sports (2002), "Política pública de la persona joven. Documento preliminar", San José, Consejo Nacional de Política Pública de la Persona Joven.
- Cuervo, Luis (2003), "Pensar el territorio: los conceptos de ciudad–global y región en sus orígenes y evolución", *Gestión pública series*, No. 40 (LC/L.2008-P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC). United Nations publication, Sales No. S.03.II.G.169.
- Cuervo, Luis and Josefina González (1997), *Industria y ciudades en la era de la mundialización. Un enfoque socioespacial*, Bogotá, D.C., Tercer Mundo Editores.
- Daher, Antonio (1994), "Competencia: regiones ganadoras y perdedoras en Chile", *EURE*, vol. 20, No. 60, August.
- Dávila, Oscar (ed.) (2003), *Políticas públicas de juventud en América Latina: políticas nacionales*, Viña del Mar, CIDPA Ediciones.
- Domingo, A. (2004), "Tras la retórica de la hispanidad: la migración latinoamericana en España entre la complementariedad y la exclusión", document presented at the first congress of the Latin American Population Association, Caxambú, 18–20 September, unpublished.
- ECLAC (Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean) (2004a), *Economic Survey of Latin America and the Caribbean, 2003–2004* (LC/G.2255-P/E), Santiago, Chile. United Nations publication, Sales No. E.04.II.G.2.
- _____ (2004b), "Latin America: Life tables, 1950–2025", *Demographic Bulletin*, No. 74 (LC/G.2257-P), Santiago, Chile, Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE)– Population Division of ECLAC, July.
- _____ (2004c), *Productive Development in Open Economies* (LC/G.2234(SES.30/3)), Santiago, Chile, June.
- _____ (2004d), "Latin America and the Caribbean: population estimates and projections 1950–2050", *Demographic Bulletin*, No. 73 (LC/G.2225-P), Santiago, Chile, Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC. United Nations publication, Sales No. E/S.03.II.G.209.
- _____ (2004e), *Roads Towards Gender Equity in Latin America and the Caribbean* (LC/L.2114(CRM.9/3)), Santiago, Chile, May.
- _____ (2004f), *Social Panorama of Latin America, 2002–2003* (LC/G.2209-P/E), Santiago, Chile, May. United Nations publication, Sales No. E.03.II.G.185.
- _____ (2003), *Meeting the Millennium Poverty Reduction Targets in Latin America and the Caribbean* (LC/G.2188-P/E), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC)/Instituto de Pesquisa Econômica Aplicada (IPEA), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). United Nations publication, Sales No. E.02.II.G.125.
- _____ (2002a), *Social Panorama of Latin America, 2001–2002* (LC/G.2183-P), Santiago, Chile. United Nations publication, Sales No. E.02.II.G.65.
- _____ (2002b), *Vulnerabilidad sociodemográfica: viejos y nuevos riesgos para comunidades, hogares y personas* (LC/R.2086/E), Santiago, Chile, April.
- _____ (2002c), *Globalization and Development* (LC/G.2157(SES.29/3)), Santiago, Chile, April.
- _____ (2001), *Social Panorama of Latin America, 2000–2001* (LC/G.2138-P), Santiago, Chile. United Nations publication, Sales No. E.01.II.G.141.

- _____ (2000a), *Social Panorama of Latin America, 1999–2000* (LC/G. 2068–P), Santiago, Chile. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.00.II.G.18.
- _____ (2000b), *The Equity Gap: A Second Assessment* (LC/G.2096), Santiago, Chile, May.
- _____ (2000c), "Juventud, población y desarrollo en América Latina y el Caribe", *Libros de la CEPAL series*, No. 59 (LC/G.2113–P), Santiago, Chile. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.00.II.G.131.
- _____ (1999), *Social Panorama of Latin America, 1998* (LC/G.2050–P), Santiago, Chile, April. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.99.II.G.4.
- _____ (1998), *Social Panorama of Latin America* (LC/G.1982–P), Santiago, Chile. United Nations publication, Sales No. E.98.II.G.3.
- _____ (1998), Population, Reproductive Health and Poverty (LC/G.2015 (SES.27/20)), Santiago, Chile, April.
- _____ (1995), *Social Panorama of Latin America, 1995* (LC/G.1886–P), Santiago, Chile, December.
- _____ (1994), *Social Panorama of Latin America, 1994* (LC/G.1844–P), Santiago, Chile.
- _____ (1972), *Fertility and Family Planning in Metropolitan Latin America*, Chicago, Illinois, University of Chicago.
- ECLAC/CELADE (Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean/Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre – Population Division of ECLAC) (2004), "La fecundidad en América Latina: ¿transición o revolución?", *Seminarios y conferencias series*, No. 36 (LC/L.2097–P), Santiago, Chile. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.04.II.G.34.
- ECLAC/OIJ (Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean/Ibero–American Youth Organization) (2004), *La juventud en Iberoamérica. Tendencias y urgencias* (LC/L.2180), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), October.
- _____ (2003), *Juventud e inclusión social en Iberoamérica* (LC/R.2108), Santiago, Chile, November.
- ECLAC/UNICEF/SECIB (Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean/United Nations Children's Fund/Secretariat for Iberoamerican Cooperation) (2001), *Building Equity from the Beginning: The Children and Adolescents of Ibero–America* (LC/G.2144), Santiago, Chile.
- Esping–Andersen, Gøsta (2003), "Against social inheritance", *Policy Network, Progressive Futures. New Ideas for the Center Left*, London.
- _____ (2000), "Social indicators and welfare monitoring", *Paper on Social Policy and Development*, No. 2, Geneva, United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (UNRISD).
- Filgueira, Carlos and Andrés Peri (2004), "América Latina: los rostros de la pobreza y sus causas determinantes", *Población y desarrollo series*, No. 54 (LC/L.2149–P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC). United Nations publication, Sales No. S.04.II.G.77.
- Flórez, C. and J. Núñez (2003), "Teenage childbearing in Latin American countries", *Critical Decision at a Critical Age, Adolescents and Young Adults in Latin America*, S. Duryea, A. Cox and M. Ureta, Washington, D.C., Inter–American Development Bank (IDB).
- Foster, James, Joel Greer and Erik Thorbecke (1984), "A class of decomposable poverty measures", *Econometrica*, vol. 52.
- Frone, M.R., M. Russell and M.L. Cooper (1997), "Relation of work–family conflict to health outcomes: a four–year longitudinal study of employed parents", *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, No. 70.
- García, Cristina (2003), "Encuesta de uso de tiempo en España. Aspectos conceptuales y metodológicos", document presented at the Meeting of Experts on Time–use Surveys, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), Santiago, Chile, 11–12 December.
- Greenhaus, J.H. and N. J. Beutell (1985), "Sources of conflict between work and family roles", *Academy of Management Review*, No. 10.

- Greenwood, Michael (1997), "Internal migration in developed countries, *Handbook of Families and Population Economics*, M. Rosenzweig and O. Stark (eds.), Amsterdam, Elsevier.
- Guzmán, José M. (2004), "Proyecciones y desafíos del envejecimiento en Chile", document presented at the first seminar "Adulto mayor, pobreza y salud", Santiago, Chile, 26 July, Universidad del Desarrollo/Hogar de Cristo/Clínica Alemana.
- Guzmán José M. and others (2001), *Diagnóstico sobre salud sexual y reproductiva de adolescentes en América Latina y el Caribe*, Mexico City, United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA).
- _____(eds.) (1996), *The Fertility Transition in Latin America*, Oxford, Oxford University Press.
- Hilbert, Martin (2003), "Infratructure", *Building an Information Society: A Latin American and Caribbean Perspective* (LC/L.1845/I), Martin Hilbert and Jorge Katz, Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC).
- _____(2001), "Latin America on its path into the digital age: where are we?", *Desarrollo productivo series*, No. 105 (LC/L.1555-P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), June. United Nations publication, Sales No. E.01.II.G.100.
- IDB (Inter-American Development Bank) (2004), *Sending Money Home: Remittance to Latin America and the Caribbean*, Washington, D.C.
- _____(2000), *Development Beyond Economics. Economic and Social Progress in Latin America, 2000*, Washington, D.C.
- _____(1998), *Facing up to Inequality in Latin America. Economic and Social Progress in Latin America, 1998–1999 Report*, Washington, D.C.
- ILO (International Labor Organization) (2003), *2003 Labour Overview: Latin America and the Caribbean*, Lima, International Labour Office.
- INEGI (National Institute of Statistics, Geography and Information) (2004), *Encuesta nacional sobre el uso del tiempo 2002. Tabulados básicos preliminares*, Mexico City, Instituto Nacional de las Mujeres (INMUJERES).
- Ingram, G. (1997), "Patterns of metropolitan development: what have we learned?", *Policy Research Working Paper*, No. 1841, Washington, D.C., World Bank.
- Jelin, Elizabeth (2004), "The family in Argentina: Modernity, economic crisis, and politics", *Handbook of World Families*, Bert Adams and Jan Trost (eds.), London, Sage.
- Jusidman, Clara (2003), "Presentación", *Valores y familias. Mitos y realidades*, Mexico City, Causa Ciudadana.
- Krauskopf, Dina (2004), "La construcción de políticas de juventud en América Latina" [online], Comunidad Virtual de Gobernabilidad y Desarrollo Humano e Institucional (CVG) <<http://www.gobernabilidad.cl/modules.php?name=News&file=article&sid=494>> [date: February 2004].
- _____(2003), "La construcción de políticas de juventud en Centroamérica", *Políticas públicas de juventud en América Latina: políticas nacionales*, O. Dávila (ed.), Viña del Mar, Chile, CIDPA Ediciones.
- _____(2000), *Participación social y desarrollo en la adolescencia*, San José, United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA).
- Krauskopf, Dina and M. Mora (2000), "Condiciones de vida de la juventud Centroamericana y el desarrollo de políticas sociales: el reto del 2000", San José, Ibero-American Youth Organization (OIJ), draft.
- Levi, Giovanni and Jean-Claude Schmitt (1996), *Historia de los jóvenes. La edad contemporánea*, vol. 2, Madrid, Taurus.
- Li, Nan and Zheng Wu (2003), "Forecasting cohort incomplete fertility: a method and an application", *Population Studies*, vol. 57, No. 3.
- Lindstrom, D. and C. Brambila (2002), "Alternative theories of the relationship of schooling and work to family formation: evidence from Mexico", *Social Biology*, vol. 48, No. 3–4.

- Martínez, Jorge (2003), "El mapa migratorio de América Latina y el Caribe, las mujeres y el género", *Población y desarrollo series*, No. 44 (LC/L.1974-P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC). United Nations publication, Sales No. S.03.II.G.133.
- Martínez, Jorge and Miguel Villa (2004), "Panorama sobre la migración internacional en América Latina y el Caribe", document presented at the seminar "Migrações internacionais e a previdência social", Brasília, May, unpublished.
- Mires, Lylian (2004), "Las políticas de empleo en la Unión Europea", International Labor Organization (ILO), in press.
- Montgomery, M. and others (2004), *Cities Transformed: Demographic Change and its Implications in the Developing World*, London, Earthscan.
- OIJ (Ibero-American Youth Organization) (2004a), *Las encuestas de jóvenes en Iberoamérica. Un recuento de experiencias recientes. Análisis de las encuestas nacionales de jóvenes de Guatemala, Colombia, Chile, España, México y Portugal (1997-2000)*, Madrid.
- _____ (2004b), *El estado de la juventud en Iberoamérica* [online] <<http://www.oij.org/pdf/JuventudIberoamericana.pdf>> [date: March 2004].
- _____ (2004c), *Convención Internacional de la Carta Iberoamericana de Derechos de la Juventud* [online] <<http://www.oij.org/carta.htm>> [date: March 2004].
- _____ (2004d), "Los organismos gubernamentales de juventud: políticas y programas" [online] <http://www.oij.org/notas/notas_1.htm> [date: February 2004].
- _____ (2004e), "Programa DINO Fase I" [online] <<http://www.oij.org/dino.htm>> [date: March 2004].
- _____ (2002), "Texto de la Declaración Final de la Conferencia Iberoamericana de Ministros de Juventud" [online] <<http://www.oij.org/pdf/XICONFERENCIA.pdf>> [date: March 2004].
- _____ (2001), *Informe final del Plan Regional de Acciones para el Desarrollo de la Juventud en América Latina (PRADJAL), 1995-2000*, Madrid, OIJ Secretariat.
- PAHO/WHO (Pan American Health Organization/World Health Organization) (2003), Monitoring the Reduction of Maternal Morbidity and Mortality (CE132/19), 132nd session of the Executive Committee, Washington, D.C, June.
- PAHO/WHO/UNAIDS (Pan American Health Organization/World Health Organization/ Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS) (2001), *HIV and AIDS in the Americas: An Epidemic with many Faces*, Washington, D.C.
- Paz, Jorge and others (2004), "América Latina y el Caribe: dinámica demográfica y políticas para aliviar la pobreza", *Población y desarrollo series*, No. 53 (LC/L.2148-P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), June.
- Pellegrino, A. (2004), "Migration from Latin America to Europe: trends and policy challenges", *Migration Research series*, No. 16, International Organization for Migration (IOM).
- Pinto da Cunha, Marco (2002), "Urbanización, territorio y cambios socioeconómicos estructurales en América Latina y el Caribe", *Población y desarrollo series*, No. 30, (LC/L.1782-P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC). United Nations publication, Sales No. S.02.II.G 97.
- Rodríguez, Jorge (2004), "Migración interna en América Latina y el Caribe: estudio regional del período 1980-2000", *Población y desarrollo series*, No. 50 (LC/L.2059-P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), January. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.04.II.G.3.
- _____ (2003), "La fecundidad alta en América Latina y el Caribe: un riesgo en transición", document presented at the seminar "La fecundidad en América Latina: ¿transición o revolución?", Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), June, unpublished.

- _____ (2002), "Distribución territorial de la población de América Latina y el Caribe: tendencias, interpretaciones y desafíos para las políticas públicas", *Población y desarrollo series*, No. 32 (LC/L.1831-P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), December. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.02.II.G.137.
- _____ (2001), "Vulnerabilidad y grupos vulnerables : un marco de referencia conceptual mirando a los jóvenes", *Población y desarrollo series*, No. 17 (LC/G.1588-P/E), Santiago, Chile, Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.01.II.G.131.
- Rodríguez, Jorge and Miguel Villa (1996), "Demographic trends in Latin America's metropolises, 1950–1990", *The Mega-City in Latin America*, Gilbert Alan (ed.), Tokio, United Nations University Press.
- Rodríguez, Ernesto (2002), *Actores estratégicos para el desarrollo: políticas de juventud para el siglo XXI*, Mexico City, Instituto Mexicano de la Juventud, Secretariat of Public Education.
- Rodríguez, Ernesto and Bernardo Dabezies (comps.) (1991), *Primer informe sobre la juventud de América Latina, 1990*, Conferencia Iberoamericana de Juventud, Madrid, Instituto de la Juventud de España (INJUVE).
- Rodríguez, Mauricio (2001), "Material de apoyo para la caracterización y análisis de la oferta pública de programas sociales dirigidos a grupos prioritarios", document prepared for the project "Fortalecimiento institucional de los organismos oficiales de juventud en Centroamérica", Ibero-American Youth Organization (OIJ)/Ford Foundation.
- Silié, R., C. Segura and C. Dore (2002), *La nueva inmigración haitiana*, Santo Domingo, Latin American Faculty of Social Sciences (FLACSO).
- Silva, Iván (2003), "Disparidades, competitividad territorial y desarrollo local y regional en América Latina", *Gestión pública series*, No. 33 (LC/L.1882-P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), April. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.03.II.G.47.
- Torrado, Susana (1981), "Estrategias familiares de vida en América Latina. La familia como unidad de investigación censal", *Notas de población series*, No. 26 and No. 27, Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC).
- UNAIDS/WHO (Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS/World Health Organization) (2002), *AIDS Epidemic Update 2002*, Geneva, December.
- UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization) (2003), *Achieving the Educational Goals: Regional Report*, Santiago, Chile, Regional Educational Indicators Project.
- United Nations (2003a), *World Population Prospects. The 2002 Revision*, vol. 1 (ST/ESA/SER.A/222), New York, Department of Economic and Social Affairs.
- _____ (2003b), *World Population Monitoring. Reproductive Rights and Reproductive Health* (ST/ESA/SER.A/215), New York.
- _____ (2002a), *World Urbanization Prospects: The 2001 Revision; Data, Tables and Highlights* (ESA/P/WP.173), New York, Population Division.
- _____ (2002b), "Completing the fertility transition" [online] <<http://www.un.org/esa/population/publications/completingfertility/completingfertility.htm>>.
- _____ (1987), "Fertility behaviour in the context of development: evidence from the World Fertility Survey", *Population Studies*, No. 100 (ST/ESA/SER.A/100), New York.
- Villa, Miguel and Jorge Martínez (2002), "Rasgos sociodemográficos y económicos de la migración internacional en América Latina y el Caribe", *Capítulos del SELA*, No. 65, May–August.
- Wainerman, Catalina (2003), "Conyugalidad y paternidad ¿Una revolución estancada?", document presented at the International seminar "Género, familias y trabajo: rupturas y continuidades", Montevideo, Universidad de la República de Uruguay/Latin American Social Sciences Council (CLACSO), April.

- Weller, Jürgen (2003), "La problemática inserción laboral de los y las jóvenes", *Macroeconomía del desarrollo series*, No. 28 (LC/L.2029-P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC). United Nations publication, Sales No. S.03.II.G.192.
- World Bank (2003), *Inequality in Latin America & the Caribbean: Breaking with History?*, Washington, D.C.
- _____(1984), *World Development Report*, Washington, D.C.
- Yang, N. and others (2000), "Sources of work–family conflict: a sino–US comparison of the effects of work and family demands", *Academy of Management Journal*, vol. 43, No. 113–123.



Statistical appendix

CONTENTS

Table 1	Latin America (19 countries): trends in selected economic indicators, 1990–2003	277
Table 2	Latin America and the Caribbean (35 countries or territories): total population, 1980–2005	279
Table 2.1	Latin America and the Caribbean (32 countries or territories): estimated total growth rates by five–year period, 1980–2005	280
Table 2.2	Latin America and the Caribbean (33 countries or territories): estimated global fertility rates by five–year period, 1980–2005	281
Table 2.3	Latin America and the Caribbean (32 countries or territories): life expectancy at birth, by five–year period, 1980–2005	282
Table 2.4	Latin America and the Caribbean (32 countries or territories): estimated child mortality rates, by five–year period, 1980–2005	283
Table 3	Latin America (18 countries): male and female economic activity rates, by age group, urban areas, 1990–2003	284
Table 4	Latin America (18 countries): male and female economic activity rates, by years of schooling, urban areas, 1990–2003	286
Table 5	Latin America (18 countries): breakdown of the employed economically active population by occupational category, urban areas, 1990–2003	288
Table 5.1	Latin America (18 countries): breakdown of the employed economically active male population by occupational category, urban areas, 1990–2003	290
Table 5.2	Latin America (18 countries): breakdown of the employed economically active female population by occupational category, urban areas, 1990–2003	292
Table 6	Latin America (16 countries): breakdown of the employed economically active population by occupational category, rural areas, 1990–2003	294
Table 7	Latin America (18 countries): average incomes of the employed economically active population, by occupational category, urban areas, 1990–2003	296
Table 7.1	Latin America (18 countries): average incomes of the employed economically active male population, by occupational category, urban areas, 1990–2003	298
Table 7.2	Latin America (18 countries): average incomes of the employed economically active female population, by occupational category, urban areas, 1990–2003	300
Table 8	Latin America (15 countries): average incomes of the employed economically active population, by occupational category, rural areas, 1990–2003	302
Table 9	Latin America (18 countries): ratio of average female income to average male income, by age group, urban areas, 1990–2003	303
Table 10	Latin America (18 countries): ratio of average female income to average male income, by years of schooling, urban areas, 1990–2003	305
Table 11	Latin America (18 countries): urban population employed in low–productivity sectors of the labour market, 1990–2003	307
Table 11.1	Latin America (18 countries): urban male population employed in low–productivity sectors of the labour market, 1990–2003	309
Table 11.2	Latin America (18 countries): urban female population employed in low–productivity sectors of the labour market, 1990–2003	311
Table 12	Latin America (18 countries): average incomes of the urban population employed in low–productivity sectors of the labour market, 1990–2003	313
Table 12.1	Latin America (18 countries): average incomes of the urban male population employed in low–productivity sectors of the labour market, 1990–2003	315
Table 12.2	Latin America (18 countries): average incomes of the urban female population employed in low–productivity sectors of the labour market, 1990–2003	317
Table 13	Latin America (18 countries): open unemployment rates by sex and age in urban areas, circa 1990, 1994, 1997, 1999 and 2003	319

Table 14	Latin America (18 countries): open unemployment rates by sex and years of schooling in urban areas, circa 1990, 1994, 1997, 1999 and 2003	321
Table 15	Latin America (18 countries): poverty and indigence levels, 1990–2003	323
Table 16	Latin America (18 countries): indigence lines (il) and poverty lines (pl).	325
Table 17	Latin America (18 countries): breakdown of households by per capita income brackets, expressed as multiples of the poverty line, urban areas, 1990–2003	327
Table 18	Latin America (18 countries): poverty rates in selected occupational categories, urban areas, 1990–2003.	329
Table 19	Latin America (15 countries): poverty rates in selected occupational categories, rural areas, 1990–2003	331
Table 20	Latin America (18 countries): breakdown of the total employed population living in poverty by occupational category, urban areas, 1990–2003	333
Table 21	Latin America (15 countries): breakdown of the total employed population living in poverty by occupational category, rural areas, 1990–2003	335
Table 22	Latin America (18 countries): extent and distribution of poverty and indigence in households headed by women, urban areas, 1990–2003	336
Table 23	Latin America (18 countries): household income distribution, national totals, 1990–2003	338
Table 24	Latin America (18 countries): household income levels and distribution, urban and rural areas, 1990–2003	340
Table 25	Latin America (18 countries): indicators of income concentration, national totals, 1990–2003	342
Table 26	Latin America (18 countries): indicators of income concentration, urban areas, 1990–2003.	344
Table 27	Latin America (15 countries): indicators of income concentration, rural areas, 1990–2003	346
Table 28	Latin America (18 countries): school attendance in urban areas, both sexes, by per capita household income quintile and age group, 1989–2003	347
Table 29	Latin America (18 countries): population between 15 and 24 years of age, by years of schooling, urban and rural areas, 1980–2003	348
Table 29.1	Latin America (18 countries): male population between 15 and 24 years of age, by years of schooling, urban and rural areas, 1980–2003	350
Table 29.2	Latin America (18 countries): female population between 15 and 24 years of age, by years of schooling, urban and rural areas, 1980–2003	352
Table 30	Latin America (18 countries): population between 25 and 59 years of age, by years of schooling, urban and rural areas, 1980–2003	354
Table 30.1	Latin America (18 countries): male population between 25 and 59 years of age, by years of schooling, urban and rural areas, 1980–2003	356
Table 30.2	Latin America (18 countries): female population between 25 and 59 years of age, by years of schooling, urban and rural areas, 1980–2003	358
Table 31	Latin America (18 countries): economically active population aged 15 or over, by years of schooling, urban and rural areas, 1980–2003	360
Table 31.1	Latin America (18 countries): economically active male population aged 15 or over, by years of schooling, urban and rural areas, 1980–2003	362
Table 31.2	Latin America (18 countries): economically active female population aged 15 or over, by years of schooling, urban and rural areas, 1980–2003	364
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, 1980–2003	366
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, 1980–2003	368
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, 1980–2003	370
Table 35	Latin America (15 countries): classification of young people aged 15 to 19 by educational status, national total, circa 2003	372

Table 36	Latin America (18 countries): classification of young people aged 15 to 19 by educational status, urban areas, circa 2003	374
Table 37	Latin America (14 countries): classification of young people aged 15 to 19 by educational status, rural areas, circa 2003	376
Table 38	Latin America (18 countries): overall dropout rate among young people aged 15 to 19, 1990–2003	378
Table 39	Latin America (18 countries): early dropout rate among young people aged 15 to 19, 1990–2003	379
Table 40	Latin America (18 countries): dropout rate at the end of the primary cycle among young people aged 15 to 19, 1990–2003	380
Table 41	Latin America (18 countries): dropout rate during the secondary cycle among young people aged 15 to 19, 1990–2003	381
Table 42	Latin America (18 countries): monthly labour income capacity equivalent (cemit) of 15 –to 24– year–olds who work 20 hours or more per week, by sex, urban and rural areas, 1980–2003	382
Table 43	Latin America (18 countries): monthly labour income capacity equivalent (cemit) of 25 –to 59– year–olds who work 20 hours or more per week, by years of schooling, urban and rural areas, 1980–2003	384
Table 44	Latin America (18 countries): public social spending indicators, 1990/1991–2000/2001	386
Table 45	Latin America (18 countries): indicators of public social spending on education and health, 1990/1991–2000/2001	388

Table 1

LATIN AMERICA (19 COUNTRIES): TRENDS IN SELECTED ECONOMIC INDICATORS, 1990–2003										
Country	Year	Per capita GDP (in 1995 dollars)	Per capita income (in 1995 dollars) a/	Urban unemployment (percentage)	Mean monthly variation in consumer price index (percentage)	Percentage variations over the period				
						Period	Per capita GDP	Per capita income a/	Mean real remuneration	Urban minimum wage
Argentina	1990	5 535	5 293	7.4	24.92					
	1999	7 471	7 220	14.3	-0.15	1990–1999	35.0	36.4	4.8	250.7
	2000	7 332	7 186	15.1	-0.06	2000	-1.9	-0.5	2.2	0.9
	2001	6 936	6 781	17.4	-0.13	2001	-5.4	-5.6	-0.7	1.1
	2002	6 127	6 000	19.7	2.90	2002	-11.7	-11.5	-13.9	-19.5
	2003	6 601	6 528	15.0	0.30	2003	7.7	8.8	-1.5	3.2
Bolivia	1989	805	843	9.9	1.28					
	1999	942	961	7.2	0.26	1989–1999	17.0	14.0	34.5	106.4
	2000	941	956	7.5	0.28	2001	-0.1	-0.5	0.8	2.9
	2001	934	955	8.5	0.08	2001	-0.7	-0.1	3.8	10.8
	2002	938	959	8.7	0.20	2002	0.4	0.4	3.2	4.7
	2003	939	963	9.5	0.32	2003	0.1	0.5	...	0.7
Brazil	1990	3 817	3 691	4.3	26.53					
	1999	4 125	3 969	7.6	0.72	1990–1999	8.1	7.5	1.4	27.8
	2000	4 225	4 080	7.1	0.48	2000	2.4	2.8	-1.0	3.5
	2001	4 216	4 041	6.2	0.62	2001	-0.2	-1.0	-5.0	9.0
	2002	4 219	4 057	11.7	0.99	2002	0.1	0.4	-2.1	2.6
	2003	4 142	4 004	12.3	0.74	2003	-1.8	-1.3	-8.7	0.6
Chile	1990	3 759	3 493	9.2 b/	2.03					
	1999	5 559	5 230	9.8 b/	0.19	1990–1999	47.9	49.7	38.6	61.8
	2000	5 736	5 404	9.2 b/	0.37	2000	3.2	3.3	1.4	7.1
	2001	5 868	5 442	9.1 b/	0.22	2001	2.3	0.7	1.6	3.8
	2002	5 919	5 513	9.0 b/	0.23	2002	0.9	1.3	2.1	2.9
	2003	6 051	5 671	8.5 b/	0.09	2003	2.2	2.9	0.8	1.3
Colombia	1991	2 147	2 108	10.2	2.00					
	1999	2 272	2 236	19.4	0.74	1991–1999	5.8	6.1	28.6	-0.9
	2000	2 285	2 260	17.2	0.70	2000	0.6	1.1	3.9	0.5
	2001	2 277	2 239	18.2	0.62	2001	-0.4	-1.0	-0.3	1.2
	2002	2 297	2 254	17.6	0.56	2002	0.9	0.7	2.8	0.8
	2003	2 352	2 343	16.7	0.53	2003	2.4	3.9	-0.1	0.1
Costa Rica	1990	2 959	2 901	5.4	2.03					
	1999	3 792	3 379	6.2	0.81	1990–1999	28.2	16.5	21.7	10.4
	2000	3 775	3 360	5.3	0.82	2000	-0.5	-0.6	0.8	-0.5
	2001	3 741	3 438	5.8	0.87	2001	-0.9	2.3	1.0	0.2
	2002	3 767	3 498	6.8	0.77	2002	0.7	1.7	4.0	-0.6
	2003	3 935	3 548	6.7	0.79	2003	4.4	1.4	0.4	-0.4
Cuba	1990	5 086	5 285					
	1999	3 822	3 817	6.0	...	1990–1999	-24.8	-27.8
	2000	4 038	3 964	5.5	...	2000	5.6	3.9
	2001	4 144	4 096	4.1	...	2001	2.6	3.3
	2002	4 181	4 137	3.3	...	2002	0.9	1.0
	2003	4 274	4 239	2.3	...	2003	2.2	2.5
Ecuador	1990	1 669	1 443	6.1	3.41					
	1999	1 740	1 701	14.4	4.03	1990–1999	4.3	17.9	...	20.5
	2000	1 729	1 754	14.1	5.54	2000	-0.6	3.1	...	-3.5
	2001	1 797	1 772	10.4	1.70	2001	3.9	1.0	...	11.5
	2002	1 839	1 835	8.6	0.75	2002	2.3	3.5	...	1.1
	2003	1 855	1 873	9.8	0.49	2003	0.9	2.1	...	6.0
El Salvador	1990	1 406	1 487	10.0	1.48					
	1999	1 755	1 897	6.9	-0.09	1990–1999	24.8	27.6	...	0.5
	2000	1 756	1 883	6.5	0.35	2000	0.1	-0.7	...	-2.2
	2001	1 753	1 951	7.0	0.12	2001	-0.2	3.6	...	-3.7
	2002	1 757	1 892	6.2	0.23	2002	0.3	-3.0	...	-1.7
	2003	1 760	1 865	6.2	0.21	2003	0.2	-1.4	...	2.1
Guatemala	1989	1 347	1 304	6.1 b/	1.54					
	1998	1 546	1 588	3.8 b/	0.60	1989–1998	14.8	21.8	31.7	-51.7
	2000	1 585	1 593	...	0.41	1998–2000	2.5	0.3	9.8	8.3
	2001	1 587	1 612	...	0.71	2001	0.1	1.2	0.5	8.3
	2002	1 582	1 671	3.8 b/	0.51	2002	-0.3	3.7	-0.9	0.3
	2003	1 574	1 685	3.8 b/	0.48	2003	-0.5	0.9	...	7.9

Table 1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (19 COUNTRIES): TRENDS IN SELECTED ECONOMIC INDICATORS, 1990–2003										
Country	Year	Per capita GDP (in 1995 dollars)	Per capita income (in 1995 dollars) ^{a/}	Urban unemployment (percentage)	Mean monthly variation in consumer price index (percentage)	Percentage variations over the period				
						Period	Per capita GDP	Per capita income ^{a/}	Mean real remuneration	Urban minimum wage
Honduras	1990	686	648	7.8	2.62					
	1999	694	734	5.3	0.87	1990–1999	1.2	13.3	...	-9.7
	2000	714	741	...	0.81	2000	2.8	0.9	...	3.1
	2001	714	749	5.9	0.71	2001	0.1	1.1	...	17.8
	2002	714	751	6.1	0.65	2002	0.0	0.3	...	-11.2
	2003	721	769	7.6	0.55	2003	0.9	2.4	...	8.6
Mexico	1989	3 925	3 853	2.7	1.51					
	1998	4 489	4 440	3.2	1.43	1989–1998	14.4	15.2	8.4	-28.8
	2000	4 811	4 850	2.2	0.72	1998–2000	7.2	9.2	7.6	-2.9
	2001	4 726	4 751	2.5	0.36	2001	-1.8	-2.0	6.7	0.5
	2002	4 691	4 754	2.7	0.46	2002	-0.7	0.1	1.7	0.6
	2003	4 682	4 790	3.2	0.33	2003	-0.2	0.8	1.4	-0.7
Nicaragua	1990	735	687	7.6 b/	50.58					
	1998	765	783	13.2 b/	1.42	1990–1998	4.0	13.9	28.2	...
	2000	820	826	9.8 b/	0.79	1998–2000	7.3	5.4	6.1	-14.9
	2001	828	787	11.3 b/	0.38	2001	0.9	-4.7	4.3	-4.4
	2002	818	799	11.6 b/	0.33	2002	-1.1	1.6	4.3	0.0
	2003	820	805	10.2 b/	0.53	2003	0.2	0.7	2.6	-0.6
Panama	1991	2 682	2 477	19.3	0.13					
	1999	3 345	3 330	14.0	0.13	1991–1999	24.7	34.5	...	18.1
	2000	3 406	3 411	15.2	0.06	2000	1.8	2.4	...	3.7
	2001	3 367	3 410	17.0	0.00	2001	-1.1	0.0	...	7.0
	2002	3 378	3 559	16.5	0.16	2002	0.3	4.4	...	-1.2
	2003	3 470	3 502	15.6	0.13	2003	2.7	-1.6	...	0.7
Paraguay	1990	1 472	1 479	6.6	3.09					
	1999	1 355	1 367	9.4	0.44	1990–1999	-7.9	-7.6	12.8	-11.4
	2000	1 278	1 245	10.0	0.69	2000	-5.7	-8.9	1.0	4.2
	2001	1 270	1 231	10.8	0.67	2001	-0.6	-1.1	1.4	3.7
	2002	1 219	1 135	14.7	1.15	2002	-4.0	-7.8	-6.4	-0.7
	2003	1 287	1 161	11.2	0.75	2003	5.6	2.3	-2.0	2.8
Peru	1990	1 879	1 795	8.3	43.69					
	1999	2 307	2 234	9.2	0.31	1990–1999	22.8	24.4	5.8	22.9
	2000	2 334	2 250	8.5	0.31	2000	1.2	0.7	0.8	11.0
	2001	2 301	2 211	9.3	-0.01	2001	-1.4	-1.8	-0.9	1.2
	2002	2 377	2 278	9.4	0.13	2002	3.3	3.0	4.6	-0.2
	2003	2 431	2 325	9.4	0.20	2003	2.2	2.1	0.2	1.2
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	2 062	2 185	13.9 b/	0.72	1998–2000	12.6	8.7	...	4.8
	2001	2 109	2 248	15.4 b/	0.36	2001	2.3	2.9	...	5.5
	2002	2 164	2 318	16.1 b/	0.84	2002	2.6	3.1	...	-0.5
	2003	2 120	2 257	16.6 b/	3.01	2003	-2.0	-2.6	...	-9.6
Uruguay	1990	4 696	4 566	8.5	7.15					
	1999	5 992	5 925	11.3	0.34	1990–1999	27.6	29.8	13.7	-38.9
	2000	5 833	5 703	13.6	0.41	2000	-2.6	-3.7	-1.3	-1.6
	2001	5 584	5 534	15.3	0.29	2001	-4.3	-3.0	-0.2	-1.3
	2002	4 841	4 829	17.0	1.94	2002	-13.3	-12.7	-10.7	-10.0
	2003	4 953	4 689	16.9	0.81	2003	2.3	-2.9	-12.5	-12.4
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	1990	2 994	3 256	10.4 b/	2.63					
	1999	3 011	2 989	15.0 b/	1.53	1990–1999	0.6	-8.2	-29.9	-6.8
	2000	3 068	3 561	13.9 b/	1.06	2000	1.9	19.1	1.5	3.8
	2001	3 113	3 294	13.3 b/	0.97	2001	1.5	-7.5	2.4	0.8
	2002	2 786	2 992	15.8 b/	2.29	2002	-10.5	-9.2	-10.1	-4.4
	2003	2 470	2 786	18.0 b/	2.02	2003	-11.3	-6.9	-16.7	-11.8

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America (ECLAC), on the basis of official figures supplied by the countries.

a/ Real per capita gross national income.

b/ Nationwide total.

Table 2

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (35 COUNTRIES OR TERRITORIES): TOTAL POPULATION, 1980–2005 (Thousands at mid-year)						
Country or territory	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005
Netherlands Antilles	174	182	188	205	215	224
Argentina	28 094	30 305	32 581	34 779	36 784	38 592
Bahamas	210	234	255	283	303	321
Barbados	249	253	257	263	267	272
Belize	144	163	186	213	240	266
Bolivia	5 355	5 964	6 669	7 482	8 428	9 427
Brazil	121 672	136 178	149 690	162 019	174 719	187 597
Chile	11 174	12 102	13 179	14 395	15 398	16 267
Colombia	28 447	31 659	34 970	38 542	42 321	46 039
Costa Rica	2 347	2 697	3 076	3 475	3 925	4 322
Cuba	9 710	10 115	10 628	10 964	11 199	11 369
Dominica	74	73	72	75	78	79
Ecuador	7 961	9 099	10 272	11 397	12 299	13 215
El Salvador	4 586	4 769	5 110	5 669	6 276	6 875
Grenada	89	87	85	83	81	80
Guadeloupe	327	355	391	409	428	446
Guatemala	7 013	7 935	8 908	10 004	11 225	12 700
Guyana	761	754	731	741	759	768
French Guiana	68	88	116	139	164	187
Haiti	5 454	6 134	6 942	7 622	8 357	9 151
Honduras	3 569	4 186	4 879	5 654	6 485	7 347
Jamaica	2 133	2 297	2 369	2 472	2 580	2 701
Martinique	326	341	360	373	386	397
Mexico	67 570	75 465	83 226	91 145	98 881	106 147
Nicaragua	3 067	3 526	3 960	4 477	4 957	5 483
Panama	1 949	2 176	2 411	2 670	2 948	3 228
Paraguay	3 114	3 609	4 219	4 828	5 496	6 216
Peru	17 324	19 516	21 753	23 837	25 939	27 947
Puerto Rico	3 197	3 378	3 528	3 683	3 816	3 915
Dominican Republic	5 697	6 444	7 066	7 705	8 396	9 100
Saint Lucia	113	121	131	140	146	152
Suriname	355	384	402	409	425	442
Trinidad and Tobago	1 082	1 178	1 215	1 261	1 289	1 311
Uruguay	2 914	3 009	3 106	3 218	3 337	3 455
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	15 091	17 318	19 735	22 043	24 311	26 577
Regional total	361 831	402 533	443 122	483 171	523 387	563 177

Source: United Nations, *World Population Prospects. The 2002 Revision (ST/ESA/SER.A.198)*, vol. I, New York, 2003; and Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, *Demographic Bulletin*, No. 74 (LC/G.2257-P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), July, 2004.

Table 2.1

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (32 COUNTRIES OR TERRITORIES): ESTIMATED TOTAL GROWTH RATES BY FIVE-YEAR PERIOD, 1980–2005 (Rates per thousand)					
Country or territory	1980–1985	1985–1990	1990–1995	1995–2000	2000–2005
Netherlands Antilles	9.2	6.4	17.5	9.9	8.3
Argentina	15.2	14.5	13.1	11.2	9.6
Bahamas	21.1	17.9	20.8	13.6	11.3
Barbados	3.0	3.5	4.2	3.7	3.5
Belize	25.2	26.0	27.8	23.6	20.6
Bolivia	21.5	22.3	23.0	23.8	22.4
Brazil	22.5	18.9	15.8	15.1	14.2
Chile	16.0	17.0	17.7	13.5	11.0
Colombia	21.4	19.9	19.5	18.7	16.8
Costa Rica	27.8	26.3	24.4	24.4	19.2
Cuba	8.2	9.9	6.2	4.2	3.0
Ecuador	26.7	24.3	20.8	15.2	14.4
El Salvador	7.8	13.8	20.7	20.4	18.2
Guadeloupe	16.5	19.2	9.2	9.1	8.4
Guatemala	24.7	23.1	23.2	23.0	24.7
Guyana	-1.9	-6.1	2.8	4.7	2.4
Haiti	23.5	24.7	18.7	18.4	18.2
Honduras	31.9	30.6	29.5	27.5	24.9
Jamaica	14.8	6.2	8.5	8.6	9.2
Martinique	8.6	11.3	7.1	6.5	5.6
Mexico	22.1	19.6	18.2	16.3	14.2
Nicaragua	27.9	23.2	24.6	20.4	20.2
Panama	22.0	20.6	20.5	19.8	18.2
Paraguay	29.5	31.2	27.0	25.9	24.6
Peru	23.8	21.7	18.3	16.9	14.9
Puerto Rico	11.1	8.7	8.6	7.1	5.2
Dominican Republic	24.7	18.4	17.3	17.2	16.1
Saint Lucia	13.9	16.8	12.8	7.9	7.8
Suriname	15.4	9.1	3.7	7.6	8.0
Trinidad and Tobago	17.1	6.2	7.4	4.4	3.4
Uruguay	6.4	6.3	7.1	7.3	7.0
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	27.5	26.1	22.1	19.6	17.8
Regional total	21.3	19.2	17.3	16.0	14.7

Source: United Nations, *World Population Prospects. The 2002 Revision* (ST/ESA/SER.A.198), vol. I, New York, 2003; and Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, *Demographic Bulletin*, No. 74 (LC/G.2257-P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), July, 2004.

Table 2.2

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (33 COUNTRIES OR TERRITORIES): ESTIMATED GLOBAL FERTILITY RATES BY FIVE-YEAR PERIOD, 1980–2005 (Children per woman)					
Country or territory	1980–1985	1985–1990	1990–1995	1995–2000	2000–2005
Netherlands Antilles	2.36	2.30	2.28	2.10	2.05
Argentina	3.15	3.05	2.90	2.63	2.35
Bahamas	3.16	2.62	2.60	2.40	2.29
Barbados	1.92	1.75	1.60	1.50	1.50
Belize	5.40	4.70	4.35	3.60	3.15
Bolivia	5.30	5.00	4.80	4.32	3.96
Brazil	3.80	3.10	2.60	2.45	2.34
Chile	2.67	2.65	2.55	2.21	2.00
Colombia	3.69	3.17	3.01	2.80	2.62
Costa Rica	3.53	3.37	2.95	2.58	2.28
Cuba	1.83	1.83	1.60	1.55	1.55
Ecuador	4.70	4.00	3.40	3.10	2.82
El Salvador	4.50	3.90	3.52	3.17	2.88
Guadeloupe	2.55	2.45	2.10	2.10	2.10
Guatemala	6.10	5.70	5.45	5.00	4.60
Guyana	3.26	2.70	2.55	2.45	2.31
French Guiana	3.58	3.73	4.05	3.83	3.33
Haiti	6.21	5.94	4.79	4.38	3.98
Honduras	6.00	5.37	4.92	4.30	3.72
Jamaica	3.55	2.87	2.76	2.50	2.36
Martinique	2.14	2.14	1.94	1.90	1.90
Mexico	4.24	3.61	3.12	2.75	2.49
Nicaragua	6.00	5.20	4.60	3.90	3.30
Panama	3.52	3.20	2.87	2.79	2.70
Paraguay	5.25	4.90	4.55	4.17	3.84
Peru	4.65	4.10	3.70	3.20	2.86
Puerto Rico	2.46	2.26	2.18	1.99	1.89
Dominican Republic	4.24	3.61	3.16	2.88	2.71
Saint Lucia	4.20	3.65	3.15	2.40	2.27
Suriname	3.70	2.92	2.45	2.62	2.45
Trinidad and Tobago	3.22	2.80	2.10	1.65	1.55
Uruguay	2.57	2.53	2.49	2.40	2.30
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	3.96	3.65	3.25	2.94	2.72
Regional total	3.92	3.40	3.00	2.75	2.57

Source: United Nations, *World Population Prospects. The 2002 Revision (ST/ESA/SER.A.198)*, vol. I, New York, 2003; and Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, *Demographic Bulletin*, No. 74 (LC/G.2257-P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), July, 2004.

Table 2.3

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (32 COUNTRIES OR TERRITORIES): LIFE EXPECTANCY AT BIRTH, BY FIVE-YEAR PERIOD, 1980–2005 (Number of years)					
Country or territory	1980–1985	1985–1990	1990–1995	1995–2000	2000–2005
Netherlands Antilles	73.8	74.5	74.6	75.5	76.3
Argentina	70.2	71.0	72.1	73.2	74.3
Bahamas	68.1	69.6	68.7	67.3	67.1
Barbados	73.2	74.6	75.4	76.4	77.2
Belize	71.2	72.3	72.5	72.5	71.4
Bolivia	53.9	57.3	60.0	62.0	63.8
Brazil	63.6	65.5	67.5	69.4	71.0
Chile	70.7	72.7	74.3	75.7	77.7
Colombia	66.8	67.9	68.6	70.7	72.2
Costa Rica	73.8	75.2	76.2	77.3	78.1
Cuba	73.9	74.6	75.3	76.0	76.7
Ecuador	64.5	67.5	70.0	72.3	74.2
El Salvador	57.1	63.4	67.1	69.4	70.6
Guadeloupe	72.5	73.6	75.9	77.3	78.3
Guatemala	58.3	60.9	63.6	66.3	68.9
Guyana	61.0	62.1	63.8	63.6	63.2
Haiti	51.9	53.6	55.4	57.2	59.2
Honduras	61.6	65.4	67.7	69.8	71.0
Jamaica	71.2	72.5	73.7	74.8	75.7
Martinique	74.2	76.3	77.6	78.8	79.1
Mexico	67.7	69.8	71.5	72.4	73.4
Nicaragua	59.5	62.2	66.1	68.0	69.5
Panama	70.8	71.9	72.9	73.8	74.7
Paraguay	67.1	67.6	68.5	69.7	70.8
Peru	61.6	64.4	66.7	68.3	69.8
Puerto Rico	73.8	74.6	73.9	74.9	75.6
Dominican Republic	63.2	65.1	67.0	68.6	70.1
Saint Lucia	70.5	71.0	71.4	71.5	72.5
Suriname	67.1	68.2	69.0	70.1	71.1
Trinidad and Tobago	70.2	72.1	71.9	72.1	71.3
Uruguay	71.0	72.1	73.0	74.1	75.2
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	68.8	70.5	71.5	72.2	72.8
Regional total	65.6	67.4	69.1	70.6	72.0

Source: United Nations, *World Population Prospects. The 2002 Revision* (ST/ESA/SER.A.198), vol. I, New York, 2003; and Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, *Demographic Bulletin*, No. 74 (LC/G.2257–P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), July, 2004.

Table 2.4

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (32 COUNTRIES OR TERRITORIES): ESTIMATED CHILD MORTALITY RATES, BY FIVE-YEAR PERIOD, 1980–2005					
(Deaths of children aged less than one year per thousand live births)					
Country or territory	1980–1985	1985–1990	1990–1995	1995–2000	2000–2005
Netherlands Antilles	18.0	17.0	16.3	14.2	12.6
Argentina	32.2	27.1	24.4	21.8	15.0
Bahamas	29.6	23.1	20.4	19.1	17.7
Barbados	16.9	15.2	14.0	12.4	10.9
Belize	39.3	35.9	34.6	33.3	31.1
Bolivia	109.2	90.1	75.1	66.7	55.6
Brazil	63.3	52.4	42.5	34.1	27.3
Chile	23.7	18.4	14.1	11.5	8.0
Colombia	48.4	41.4	35.2	30.0	25.6
Costa Rica	19.2	17.4	14.5	11.8	10.5
Cuba	17.0	12.9	10.0	7.5	7.3
Ecuador	68.5	55.5	44.2	33.3	24.9
El Salvador	77.0	54.0	40.2	32.0	26.4
Guadeloupe	24.7	22.0	9.2	8.3	7.4
Guatemala	79.3	67.1	54.8	45.5	38.6
Guyana	69.3	65.6	56.7	55.6	51.2
Haiti	122.1	100.1	74.1	66.1	59.1
Honduras	65.0	53.0	43.0	35.0	31.2
Jamaica	30.5	27.0	24.3	21.9	19.9
Martinique	14.0	10.1	7.6	7.0	6.8
Mexico	47.0	39.5	34.0	31.0	28.2
Nicaragua	79.8	65.0	48.0	35.0	30.1
Panama	31.6	29.6	27.0	23.7	20.6
Paraguay	48.9	46.7	43.3	39.2	37.0
Peru	81.6	68.0	55.5	42.1	33.4
Puerto Rico	17.2	13.8	11.6	11.0	10.3
Dominican Republic	62.5	54.1	46.6	40.0	34.4
Saint Lucia	22.7	20.1	16.9	16.9	14.8
Suriname	40.3	36.1	33.4	29.1	25.7
Trinidad and Tobago	25.3	19.7	16.3	15.1	14.1
Uruguay	33.5	22.6	20.1	17.5	13.1
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	33.6	26.9	23.1	20.7	17.5
Regional total	56.9	47.2	38.9	32.7	27.4

Source: United Nations, *World Population Prospects. The 2002 Revision (ST/ESA/SER.A.198)*, vol. I, New York, 2003; and Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, *Demographic Bulletin*, No. 74 (LC/G.2257-P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), July, 2004.

Table 3

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MALE AND FEMALE ECONOMIC ACTIVITY RATES, BY AGE GROUP, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2003											
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) (Urban areas)	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
	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
1994		75	49	94	96	62	38	32	50	50	23
1996		74	44	94	96	62	39	29	53	51	23
1998		74	44	93	97	64	41	30	57	54	26
2000		73	39	92	96	64	42	28	57	56	26
2003		73	41	92	96	64	45	31	61	59	29
Colombia ^{a/}		1991	81	62	97	97	69	48	44	63	56
	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
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
	2002	73	52	92	94	61	51	35	67	70	35
Guatemala	1989	84	69	97	97	78	43	42	50	49	29
	1998	82	66	95	97	77	54	47	60	68	44
	2002	85	75	95	97	78	58	54	65	72	41

Table 3 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MALE AND FEMALE ECONOMIC ACTIVITY RATES, BY AGE GROUP, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2003												
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	
Honduras	1990	81	66	95	97	73	43	35	54	57	30	
	1994	80	64	93	96	74	43	35	54	51	31	
	1997	83	70	96	98	74	51	43	63	63	35	
	1999	82	67	97	96	78	54	45	64	69	37	
	2002	79	63	94	96	74	47	38	58	62	36	
	2003	78	63	93	94	73	50	40	63	66	37	
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 (Metropolitan area of 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	
	2000	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
		2000	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	
	1997	83	70	96	97	71	49	44	65	61	22	
	2000	78	61	93	95	68	51	41	66	70	26	
	2002	78	62	95	97	65	53	45	73	71	25	
	2003	80	62	96	96	68	51	43	69	66	27	
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 (Bolivarian Republic of) 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	
	2003	83	65	96	98	75	56	42	71	72	37	

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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, 1990–2003													
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
	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
	2003	73	55	66	64	78	80	45	22	29	33	47	66
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
	2002	73	68	76	68	75	77	51	43	50	44	56	66
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

Table 4 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MALE AND FEMALE ECONOMIC ACTIVITY RATES, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2003														
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	
Honduras	1990	81	84	88	61	80	76	43	39	43	31	59	53	
	1994	80	81	88	59	82	79	43	37	45	29	50	63	
	1997	83	83	90	72	80	82	51	43	53	38	59	67	
	1999	82	85	87	64	81	84	54	48	56	41	61	65	
	2002	79	81	87	63	75	80	47	41	48	38	53	65	
	2003	78	78	86	65	76	79	50	42	51	42	56	66	
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 (Metropolitan area of 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	
	2000	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
		2000	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
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	
	1997	83	77	84	84	82	90	49	34	41	42	56	80	
	2000	78	70	81	77	77	90	51	30	44	46	55	78	
	2002	78	74	80	77	77	87	53	32	45	48	57	79	
	2003	80	74	80	77	80	89	51	33	41	45	55	79	
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 (Bolivarian Republic of) 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	
	2003	83	80	88	80	82	82	56	35	52	54	60	74	

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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, 1990–2003 (Percentages)												
Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own-account and unpaid family workers		
			Total	Public sector	Private sector					Total c/	Non-professional, non-technical	
					Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical					
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons b/	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment			
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	5.4	69.0	...	69.0	6.9	44.8	11.6	5.7	25.5	22.9	
	1994	4.8	70.2	...	70.2	17.1	34.9	13.4	4.8	25.0	19.7	
	1997	5.3	73.2	...	73.2	17.8	35.8	14.5	5.1	21.5	16.7	
	1999	4.6	73.2	11.6	61.6	10.7	32.1	13.6	5.2	21.8	17.3	
	2000	4.7	73.4	11.8	61.6	10.5	31.3	14.6	5.2	22.0	17.0	
	2002	4.2	73.5	17.6	55.9	12.4	22.9	15.0	5.6	22.3	17.5	
	(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	
2003		4.1	75.5	11.4	64.1	12.1	38.3	7.2	6.5	20.5	15.0	
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	
	2002	5.0	60.8	11.2	49.6	8.9	24.5	12.5	3.7	34.1	33.0	
Guatemala	1989	2.8	64.2	14.4	49.8	6.2	22.8	13.8	7.0	33.0	30.9	
	1998	4.7	59.0	8.2	50.8	7.3	19.5	20.1	3.9	36.3	34.5	
	2002	6.8	57.1	6.9	50.2	8.4	24.7	13.1	4.0	36.1	34.5	
Honduras	1990	1.5	65.5	14.4	51.1	4.9	26.3	13.2	6.7	33.0	31.7	
	1994	4.2	65.0	11.3	53.7	6.8	30.5	11.0	5.4	30.8	29.5	
	1997	6.3	60.4	10.1	50.3	6.5	27.7	11.0	5.1	33.4	32.3	
	1999	6.2	60.2	9.7	50.5	7.5	27.0	11.2	4.8	33.6	33.1	
	2002	4.3	58.7	9.7	49.0	7.2	24.9	12.9	4.0	36.8	34.9	
	2003	5.1	56.9	9.6	47.3	5.9	23.9	13.4	4.1	38.0	36.8	
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	

Table 5 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2003 (Percentages)												
Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own-account and unpaid family workers		
			Total	Public sector	Private sector					Total c/	Non-professional, non-technical	
					Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical					
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons b/	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment			
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 (Metropolitan area of 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	
	2000	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	
2000	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	
	1997	3.7	62.5	11.9	50.6	6.7	31.1	8.4	4.4	33.9	31.4	
	2000	2.9	64.2	13.8	50.4	7.5	31.0	7.8	4.1	32.9	30.7	
	2002	3.9	61.3	13.8	47.5	8.0	28.8	6.4	4.3	34.8	32.7	
	2003	3.8	59.2	13.7	45.5	7.6	27.2	6.8	3.9	37.1	34.8	
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 (Bolivarian Republic of) j/	1990	7.5	70.0	21.4	48.6	5.8	30.0	6.5	6.3	22.5	21.4	
	1994	6.1	64.5	18.1	46.4	6.1	27.1	9.2	4.0	29.3	27.4	
	1997	5.0	62.8	16.8	46.0	5.5	25.4	10.8	4.3	32.3	30.3	
	1999	5.1	57.9	14.9	43.0	4.9	24.0	12.1	2.0	36.9	35.3	
	2000	5.0	56.3	14.6	41.7	4.6	23.8	11.2	2.1	38.6	37.1	
	2002	5.4	54.6	13.8	40.8	3.9	23.2	11.1	2.6	39.9	38.2	
	2003	5.0	53.4	13.8	39.6	4.0	21.3	11.5	2.8	41.6	39.6	

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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, Dominican Republic (1992, 1995 and 1998) and Mexico (1989 and 1994), no information was available on the size of business establishments. In those cases, wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations in establishments employing up to 5 persons are included in the figures for establishments employing more than 5 persons. For Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama and Uruguay (1990), establishments employing up to 4 persons are taken into account.

c/ Includes professional and technical workers.

d/ Brazil's national household survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments, except in 1993, 1996 and 1999. Therefore, the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing more than 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, 1990–2003 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own-account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector					Total c/	Non-professional, non-technical
					Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons b/	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	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
2003	4.7	72.5	8.4	64.1	11.7	44.6	7.6	0.2	22.7	17.9	
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
	2002	7.0	67.5	11.3	56.2	10.2	28.6	16.9	0.5	25.5	23.9
Guatemala	1989	3.6	66.1	15.0	51.1	6.2	27.3	17.4	0.2	30.3	28.6
	1998	6.2	64.4	8.4	56.0	7.5	23.8	24.4	0.3	29.5	27.2
	2002	9.4	61.1	7.0	54.1	8.1	29.6	16.3	0.1	29.5	27.6
Honduras	1990	1.9	69.8	13.6	56.2	5.4	33.0	17.4	0.4	28.3	26.8
	1994	5.7	65.9	10.3	55.6	6.9	34.5	14.2	0.0	28.4	26.9
	1997	8.8	62.5	8.3	54.2	6.1	31.5	15.8	0.8	28.9	27.8
	1999	8.4	63.3	8.0	55.3	6.6	31.9	16.2	0.6	28.4	28.0
	2002	5.4	60.1	7.7	52.4	7.2	27.6	17.2	0.4	34.6	32.6
	2003	6.7	59.0	7.6	51.4	6.0	26.9	18.0	0.5	34.4	33.1
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

Table 5.1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2003 (Percentages)												
Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own-account and unpaid family workers		
			Total	Public sector	Private sector					Total c/	Non-professional, non-technical	
					Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical					
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons b/	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment			
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 (Metropolitan area of 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	
	2000	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	
2000		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	
	1997	4.9	58.1	11.4	46.7	5.6	31.3	9.4	0.4	37.0	34.5	
	2000	3.5	58.6	11.4	47.2	6.3	32.6	7.7	0.6	38.0	35.6	
	2002	4.8	55.2	12.5	42.7	6.7	29.1	6.1	0.8	39.9	37.8	
	2003	4.9	51.8	11.3	40.5	5.9	27.9	6.3	0.4	43.4	40.9	
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 (Bolivarian Republic of) j/	1990	10.2	66.1	16.8	49.3	5.5	33.9	8.0	1.9	23.6	22.5	
	1994	8.4	60.6	13.0	47.6	5.2	30.0	10.9	1.5	31.1	29.2	
	1997	6.7	61.2	12.1	49.1	5.0	29.2	13.4	1.5	32.0	30.3	
	1999	6.9	57.5	10.6	46.9	4.0	27.9	14.9	0.1	35.6	34.1	
	2000	6.8	55.6	10.4	45.2	3.7	27.7	13.7	0.1	37.6	36.3	
	2002	7.3	54.4	9.9	44.5	3.2	27.4	13.8	0.1	38.3	36.8	
	2003	6.7	53.0	9.6	43.4	3.4	25.5	14.3	0.2	40.3	38.5	

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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, Dominican Republic (1992, 1995 and 1998) and Mexico (1989 and 1994), no information was available on the size of business establishments. In those cases, wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations in establishments employing up to 5 persons are included in the figures for establishments employing more than 5 persons. For Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama and Uruguay (1990), establishments employing up to 4 persons are taken into account.
- c/ Includes professional and technical workers.
- d/ Brazil's national household survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments, except in 1993, 1996 and 1999. Therefore, the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing more than 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, 1990–2003 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own-account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector					Total c/	Non-professional, non-technical
					Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons b/	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	2.8	70.3	...	70.3	8.0	39.6	10.2	12.5	27.1	22.7
	1994	2.4	72.2	...	72.2	21.4	27.0	11.5	12.3	25.4	18.7
	1997	3.5	74.2	...	74.2	23.6	28.3	9.6	12.7	22.2	17.5
	1999	2.6	76.3	15.9	60.4	12.6	24.8	10.3	12.7	20.7	15.3
	2000	3.0	76.8	16.4	60.4	10.7	24.8	12.0	12.9	20.1	15.7
	2002	2.5	81.3	25.9	55.4	13.0	17.6	11.6	13.2	16.2	11.5
(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	6.0	19.8	27.4	25.8
	1996	2.5	72.3	17.9	54.4	5.4	21.7	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
2003	3.0	80.0	16.1	63.9	12.8	28.3	6.5	16.3	17.1	10.6	
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
	2002	3.0	53.6	11.1	42.5	7.5	20.2	7.8	7.0	43.4	42.8
Guatemala	1989	1.5	61.2	13.4	47.8	6.1	15.7	7.9	18.1	37.3	34.6
	1998	2.7	52.0	7.8	44.2	7.1	14.1	14.6	8.4	45.2	43.9
	2002	3.3	51.5	6.8	44.7	8.6	18.1	8.8	9.2	45.1	43.9
Honduras	1990	0.9	59.0	15.5	43.5	4.1	16.5	6.9	16.0	40.0	39.0
	1994	1.8	63.6	12.9	50.7	6.7	24.3	6.0	13.7	34.6	33.6
	1997	3.1	57.4	12.4	45.0	7.0	22.6	4.7	10.7	39.4	38.3
	1999	3.6	56.6	11.8	44.8	8.6	21.2	5.1	9.9	39.8	39.2
	2002	2.9	57.2	12.4	44.8	7.2	21.4	7.3	8.9	39.9	38.0
	2003	3.0	54.2	12.1	42.1	5.8	20.1	7.5	8.7	42.8	41.6
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

Table 5.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2003 (Percentages)												
Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own-account and unpaid family workers		
			Total	Public sector	Private sector					Total c/	Non-professional, non-technical	
					Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical					
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons b/	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment			
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	
	2000	1.8	81.2	24.6	56.6	7.6	27.8	5.9	15.3	17.1	16.1	
Paraguay (Metropolitan area of 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	
	2000	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
		2000	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	
	1997	1.5	70.1	12.6	57.5	8.6	30.6	6.7	11.6	28.4	25.8	
	2000	2.0	73.3	17.7	55.6	9.4	28.4	8.1	9.7	24.8	22.8	
	2002	2.4	71.0	15.9	55.1	10.0	28.4	6.7	10.0	26.6	24.6	
	2003	1.7	72.2	17.8	54.4	10.5	26.1	7.7	10.1	26.2	24.2	
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 (Bolivarian Republic of) j/	1990	2.3	77.5	30.4	47.1	6.4	22.3	3.4	15.0	20.2	19.1	
	1994	1.7	72.3	28.1	44.2	8.0	21.3	5.9	9.0	26.0	23.9	
	1997	1.9	65.7	25.7	40.0	6.4	18.1	5.8	9.7	32.5	30.1	
	1999	1.9	58.9	22.7	36.2	6.5	17.1	7.0	5.6	39.2	37.4	
	2000	1.9	57.6	22.1	35.5	6.3	16.7	6.9	5.6	40.4	38.4	
	2002	2.4	55.0	20.0	35.0	5.1	16.6	6.7	6.6	42.6	40.6	
	2003	2.3	53.9	20.5	33.4	5.0	14.5	6.9	7.0	43.8	41.4	

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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, Dominican Republic (1992, 1995 and 1998) and Mexico (1989 and 1994), no information was available on the size of business establishments. In those cases, wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations in establishments employing up to 5 persons are included in the figures for establishments employing more than 5 persons. For Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama and Uruguay (1990), establishments employing up to 4 persons are taken into account.
- c/ Includes professional and technical workers.
- d/ Brazil's national household survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments, except in 1993, 1996 and 1999. Therefore, the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing more than 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, 1990–2003 (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	100.0	3.3	8.9	2.4	6.5	87.8	79.9
	1999	100.0	1.2	9.2	2.3	6.9	89.6	82.1
	2000	100.0	0.5	8.6	2.8	5.8	90.9	83.0
	2002	100.0	4.2	9.8	2.3	7.5	86.0	79.0
Brazil	1990	100.0	3.0	44.3	...	44.3	52.7	44.3
	1993	100.0	1.9	33.6	5.1	28.5	64.5	58.4
	1996	100.0	1.8	34.3	4.4	29.9	63.8	57.2
	1999	100.0	2.0	34.3	5.2	29.1	63.7	56.4
	2001	100.0	2.5	33.7	4.3	29.4	63.8	57.3
	2002	100.0	2.5	33.7	4.3	29.4	63.8	57.3
Chile ^{b/}	1990	100.0	2.8	64.9	...	64.9	32.3	25.0
	1994	100.0	2.6	66.6	...	66.6	30.8	21.5
	1996	100.0	2.4	64.2	3.6	60.6	33.3	26.6
	1998	100.0	2.8	64.5	...	64.5	32.7	24.4
	2000	100.0	2.5	65.1	4.9	60.2	32.5	24.3
	2003	100.0	2.5	64.1	3.9	60.2	33.3	24.7
Colombia	1991	100.0	6.3	48.6	...	48.6	45.0	25.5
	1994	100.0	4.5	54.2	...	54.2	41.3	22.4
	1997	100.0	4.2	50.6	...	50.6	45.1	25.0
	1999	100.0	3.7	47.2	3.7	43.5	49.2	27.9
	2002	100.0	4.6	40.6	3.5	37.1	54.8	30.2
Costa Rica	1990	100.0	5.1	66.2	10.5	55.7	28.7	16.8
	1994	100.0	6.8	69.0	9.6	59.4	24.2	11.1
	1997	100.0	7.1	67.8	9.0	58.8	25.2	11.3
	1999	100.0	8.2	69.2	8.9	60.3	22.7	9.5
	2000	100.0	5.8	66.9	9.6	57.3	27.3	12.3
	2002	100.0	7.5	63.5	8.8	54.8	29.0	13.2
Ecuador	2000	100.0	3.2	42.4	3.9	38.5	54.3	40.7
El Salvador	1995	100.0	6.0	49.6	3.2	46.4	44.3	26.8
	1997	100.0	4.0	50.9	3.1	47.8	45.1	28.1
	1999	100.0	4.1	50.8	3.9	46.9	45.2	26.3
	2000	100.0	4.6	47.2	3.9	43.3	48.1	26.7
	2001	100.0	3.8	47.0	3.8	43.2	49.2	28.9
	2002	100.0	3.9	45.9	3.8	42.1	50.3	27.6
Guatemala	1989	100.0	0.6	38.7	2.9	35.8	60.7	47.5
	1998	100.0	2.0	42.9	1.7	41.2	55.1	34.8
	2002	100.0	6.3	35.3	1.6	33.7	58.4	38.8
Honduras	1990	100.0	0.6	34.9	4.0	30.9	64.6	47.6
	1994	100.0	1.7	37.0	4.8	32.2	61.4	43.5
	1997	100.0	2.6	34.8	3.4	31.4	62.6	41.6
	1999	100.0	3.1	33.4	3.7	29.7	63.5	41.3
	2002	100.0	1.3	35.0	1.8	33.2	63.7	46.9
	2003	100.0	1.4	35.6	1.9	33.7	63.0	43.6
Mexico ^{c/}	1989	100.0	2.5	50.2	...	50.2	47.3	34.6
	1994	100.0	4.0	48.6	5.5	43.1	47.4	30.8
	1996	100.0	5.1	48.1	6.4	41.7	46.7	28.6
	1998	100.0	4.5	45.6	6.0	39.6	49.9	29.2
	2000	100.0	5.0	51.0	6.6	44.4	44.0	25.1
	2002	100.0	3.3	52.4	7.8	44.6	44.3	25.4

Table 6 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS, 1990–2003 (Percentages)								
Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary earners			Own-account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector ^{a/}	Total	Agriculture
Nicaragua	1993	100.0	0.2	38.4	6.6	31.8	61.3	45.8
	1998	100.0	3.3	43.7	...	43.7	53.0	39.7
	2001	100.0	5.4	37.4	4.9	32.5	57.2	44.5
Panama	1991	100.0	2.9	39.1	12.5	26.6	58.0	45.5
	1994	100.0	3.3	47.0	11.8	35.2	49.7	34.4
	1997	100.0	2.2	46.1	10.1	36.0	51.6	33.4
	1999	100.0	3.2	44.9	10.1	34.8	51.9	31.6
	2002	100.0	2.0	40.1	8.3	31.8	57.9	39.1
Paraguay	1997	100.0	2.3	24.8	3.2	21.6	72.8	57.3
	1999	100.0	3.4	27.0	3.4	23.6	69.7	54.0
	2000	100.0	3.6	27.1	2.5	24.6	69.4	53.7
Peru	1997	100.0	5.3	19.8	3.6	16.2	74.8	61.0
	1999	100.0	6.3	19.9	2.3	17.6	73.9	61.9
	2001	100.0	5.4	20.6	4.1	16.5	74.0	61.2
Dominican Republic	1992	100.0	4.0	52.4	13.2	39.2	43.7	21.6
	1995	100.0	2.1	56.1	11.5	44.6	41.9	15.7
	1997	100.0	3.4	45.6	10.3	35.3	51.0	28.5
	2000	100.0	1.8	40.3	8.1	32.2	57.8	32.6
	2002	100.0	1.7	36.6	8.3	28.3	61.7	34.9
	2003	100.0	2.7	43.7	8.3	35.4	53.6	23.7
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	1990	100.0	6.9	46.6	8.3	38.3	46.5	33.3
	1994	100.0	7.6	47.6	7.4	40.2	44.8	29.7
	1997	100.0	5.4	49.6	5.4	44.2	44.9	33.1

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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, 1990–2003 (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 b/	Non-professional, non-technical
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
								Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	6.4	20.6	4.7	...	4.7	9.4	4.5	3.6	2.5	7.9	7.2
	1994	8.6	28.3	6.4	...	6.4	10.2	5.7	4.7	3.3	10.8	9.1
	1997	7.2	24.2	5.6	...	5.6	9.4	4.8	3.7	2.6	8.6	6.5
	1999	6.4	22.0	5.1	6.2	4.8	8.5	4.9	3.5	2.4	7.3	8.1
	2002	4.7	20.9	3.5	3.3	3.5	6.7	3.1	2.1	1.7	5.6	4.1
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
	2003	7.3	36.2	5.7	7.7	5.3	12.3	4.0	2.9	2.4	7.8	5.8

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
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

Table 7 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2003 (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 b/	Non-professional, non-technical
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
								Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Nicaragua	1993	3.5	8.5	3.3	3.4	3.2	6.1	3.1	2.3	2.1	3.6	2.9
	1998	3.1	11.1	3.2	...	3.2	6.3	2.6	1.9	1.7	2.1	2.0
	2001	3.2	14.3	3.1	4.5	2.7	5.4	3.0	1.8	1.4	1.9	1.8
Panama	1991	5.0	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 (Metropolitan area of Asunción) (Urban areas)	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
	2000	3.4	8.1	3.4	5.2	3.0	4.5	3.6	2.2	1.6	2.2	1.7
	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
2000	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	1997	4.4	13.5	3.9	4.7	3.7	7.5	3.5	2.4	1.4	4.3	4.0
	2000	4.6	18.5	3.9	4.8	3.6	7.7	3.3	2.3	1.2	4.7	4.3
	2002	4.7	19.8	3.9	4.7	3.7	7.0	3.5	2.3	1.3	4.4	4.1
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 (Bolivarian Republic of) h/	1990	4.5	11.9	3.7	4.0	3.6	6.6	3.6	2.5	2.1	4.5	4.3
	1994	3.8	8.9	3.2	2.7	3.4	6.7	3.4	2.0	1.9	4.1	3.8
	1997	3.6	11.2	2.6	2.9	2.5	5.8	2.4	1.7	1.4	4.2	3.9
	1999	3.5	9.2	3.2	3.7	2.9	6.4	2.9	2.0	1.4	3.2	3.0
	2002	3.3	9.9	2.9	4.5	2.4	4.8	2.5	1.7	1.2	2.9	2.8

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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 Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama and Uruguay (1990), 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, 1990–2003 (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 b/	Non-professional, non-technical
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
								Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	7.3	22.2	5.1	...	5.1	11.4	4.7	3.7	4.4	9.4	8.8
	1994	9.7	28.0	7.1	...	7.1	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
	2003	8.5	40.4	6.3	8.6	6.0	14.6	4.2	3.0	3.4	8.9	6.5
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
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

Table 7.1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2003													
(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 b/	Non-professional, non-technical	
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical					
								Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment			
Nicaragua	1993	3.8	9.4	3.6	3.9	3.5	7.4	3.1	2.4	1.3	4.1	3.2	
	1998	3.7	12.0	3.5	...	3.5	7.9	2.8	2.0	3.3	2.5	2.4	
	2001	3.7	14.1	3.3	5.8	2.8	6.9	3.0	1.8	1.0	2.4	2.2	
Panama	1991	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 (Metropolitan area of 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	
	2000	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
2000		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	1997	4.8	14.5	4.0	4.6	3.9	8.0	3.6	2.6	2.2	4.8	4.5	
	2000	5.2	20.1	4.4	5.0	4.2	9.2	3.7	2.4	2.0	5.2	4.9	
	2002	5.4	21.7	4.3	4.9	4.1	7.9	3.6	2.3	2.5	4.9	4.6	
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 (Bolivarian Republic of) h/	1990	5.1	12.0	4.0	4.4	3.9	7.6	3.7	2.5	3.4	5.1	4.9	
	1994	4.3	9.1	3.4	3.1	3.5	7.6	3.4	2.0	2.9	4.6	4.3	
	1997	4.0	11.4	2.8	3.2	2.7	6.7	2.5	1.7	2.2	4.6	4.3	
	1999	3.8	9.4	3.3	4.1	3.2	7.4	3.0	2.0	2.0	3.7	3.5	
	2002	3.6	10.2	2.9	4.8	2.5	5.6	2.6	1.7	1.6	3.3	3.2	

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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 Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama and Uruguay (1990), 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, 1990–2003 (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 b/	Non-professional, non-technical
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
								Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	4.7	13.6	3.9	...	3.9	6.6	4.0	3.4	2.0	5.8	4.5
	1994	6.7	29.4	5.4	...	5.4	7.8	6.2	4.2	3.2	8.3	6.4
	1997	5.6	19.6	4.8	...	4.8	7.3	5.8	3.4	2.5	6.2	4.7
	1999	4.8	15.0	4.4	5.5	4.0	6.8	4.3	3.0	2.1	5.3	4.3
	2002	3.3	12.4	2.8	3.0	2.7	4.8	2.6	1.8	1.7	4.2	2.7
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
	2003	5.5	25.3	4.7	6.7	4.3	8.9	3.6	2.8	2.4	5.6	4.0
Colombia f/	1991	2.2	5.9	2.3	3.5	2.1	3.9	2.1	...	1.2	1.6	1.4
	1994	3.0	8.4	3.0	4.8	2.7	5.9	2.5	...	1.7	2.3	2.0
	1997	2.9	8.4	3.0	5.0	2.6	5.2	2.4	...	1.6	2.3	2.0
	1999	2.8	7.7	3.4	5.5	2.9	5.7	2.7	...	2.1	1.5	1.3
	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
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

Table 7.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2003 (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 b/	Non-professional, non-technical	
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical					
								Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment			
Nicaragua	1993	2.9	6.6	2.8	2.9	2.7	4.4	2.8	2.3	2.1	3.0	2.6	
	1998	2.3	6.0	2.7	...	2.7	4.7	2.4	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.6	
	2001	2.5	14.8	2.7	3.3	2.4	3.4	3.1	1.9	1.4	1.7	1.6	
Panama	1991	4.6	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 (Metropolitan area of 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	
	2000	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
2000		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	1997	3.6	7.7	3.7	4.7	3.4	7.0	3.5	2.0	1.4	3.3	2.9	
	2000	3.6	14.4	3.3	4.6	2.9	6.1	2.7	2.1	1.1	3.5	2.9	
	2002	3.7	13.9	3.5	4.4	3.2	6.0	3.2	2.2	1.1	3.2	2.9	
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 (Bolivarian Republic of) h/	1990	3.3	10.8	3.2	3.6	2.9	4.9	3.3	2.4	1.7	2.9	2.7	
	1994	3.0	7.5	2.8	2.3	3.2	5.6	3.3	2.0	1.5	3.1	2.6	
	1997	2.8	9.4	2.4	2.6	2.2	4.5	2.2	1.6	1.2	3.4	3.0	
	1999	2.9	7.9	3.0	3.3	2.8	5.4	2.6	1.9	1.3	2.5	2.3	
	2002	2.8	8.6	3.0	4.3	2.2	4.0	2.3	1.6	1.2	2.3	2.2	

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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 Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama and Uruguay (1990), 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, 1990–2003 (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 a/	Total b/	Agriculture
Bolivia	1997	1.3	10.5	3.5	3.7	3.4	0.8	0.6
	1999	0.8	3.9	3.4	4.2	3.1	0.6	0.4
	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
	2003	5.7	32.7	4.4	7.8	4.2	6.3	5.3
Colombia	1991	3.1	10.7	2.9	...	2.9	2.3	1.7
	1994	2.5	5.8	2.8	...	2.8	1.9	2.3
	1997	2.7	7.0	3.1	5.0	3.0	1.8	1.8
	1999	2.9	5.6	3.9	6.4	3.7	1.8	1.9
	2002	2.9	7.9	3.8	7.6	3.4	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	1991	3.4	10.8	5.2	7.7	4.0	1.9	1.9
	1994	3.5	13.8	4.1	6.7	3.2	2.2	1.6
	1997	4.0	16.4	4.5	8.1	3.3	3.1	2.3
	1999	4.2	15.4	5.1	9.7	3.8	3.8	2.3
	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
	2000	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	1997	4.3	6.6	4.3	6.2	3.8	4.2	3.4
	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 (Bolivarian Republic of)	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: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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, 1990–2003 (Percentages)													
Country	Year	Earned income ratio, by age group a/						Wage ratio, 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
	2003	64	90	80	65	55	56	84	100	92	82	75	93
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, 1990–2003 (Percentages)													
Country	Year	Earned income ratio, by age group a/						Wage ratio, 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 (Metropolitan area of 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
	2000	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	1997	75	95	77	76	51	69	90	97	87	90	84	67
	2000	69	84	76	67	58	53	84	106	90	71	85	52
	2002	68	87	70	66	60	59	89	101	84	93	71	111
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 (Bolivarian Republic of) d/	1990	66	80	72	64	57	48	79	86	82	74	68	66
	1994	70	96	77	64	56	57	83	106	84	75	67	69
	1997	69	84	77	62	60	55	83	92	87	77	73	65
	1999	74	92	76	71	65	57	91	99	91	85	79	91
	2002	76	86	80	74	70	58	99	96	97	97	94	90

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

- a/ Income differential among the entire employed population. This differential is calculated as the quotient of average female income and average male income, multiplied by 100.
- b/ Income differential among wage or salary earners. This differential is calculated as the quotient of average female income and average male income, multiplied by 100.
- c/ In 1993 the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992 the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.
- 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, 1990–2003 (Percentages)													
Country	Year	Earned income ratio, by years of schooling a/						Wage ratio, 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
	2003	64	69	69	65	69	53	84	78	80	73	81	65
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, 1990–2003 (Percentages)													
Country	Year	Earned income ratio, by years of schooling ^{a/}						Wage ratio, 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 (Metropolitan area of 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
	2000	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	1997	75	57	60	60	75	66	90	67	71	67	95	75
	2000	69	56	53	65	61	60	84	77	74	76	70	65
	2002	68	53	54	60	66	62	89	79	64	73	82	78
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 (Bolivarian Republic of) ^{f/}	1990	66	62	58	68	61	62	79	73	68	77	78	71
	1994	70	68	62	70	63	67	84	83	75	90	71	76
	1997	69	71	61	64	60	63	83	74	73	71	75	70
	1999	74	71	65	66	63	66	91	83	73	75	77	74
	2002	76	67	67	65	70	69	99	84	80	80	79	85

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

^{a/} Income differential among the entire employed population. This differential is calculated as the quotient of average female income and average male income, multiplied by 100.

^{b/} Income differential among wage or salary earners. This differential is calculated as the quotient of average female income and average male income, multiplied by 100.

^{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, 1990–2003 (Percentages of the employed urban population)											
Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises a/				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers b/			
			Employers	Wage or salary earners				Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
				Total	Professional and technical	Non- professional, non-technical					
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	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	
	2003	31.9	2.4	8.0	0.8	7.2	6.5	15.0	4.9	9.2	
Colombia f/	1991	5.6	27.3	6.4	20.0	
	1994	5.3	25.0	6.2	18.4	
	1997	4.5	30.8	7.1	22.9	
	1999	5.2	35.7	7.5	26.7	
	2002	5.9	38.5	8.0	27.8	
	2002	
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	
	2002	54.8	4.6	13.5	1.0	12.5	3.7	33.0	6.8	23.9	
Guatemala	1989	54.6	2.1	14.6	0.8	13.8	7.0	30.9	7.4	14.9	
	1998	64.4	3.6	22.4	2.3	20.1	3.9	34.5	8.2	20.7	
	2002	57.6	5.2	13.9	0.8	13.1	4.0	34.5	8.9	19.8	
Honduras	1990	53.3	1.0	13.9	0.7	13.2	6.7	31.7	8.9	18.7	
	1994	49.9	3.0	11.9	0.9	11.0	5.4	29.5	8.1	16.1	
	1997	54.3	5.3	11.6	0.6	11.0	5.1	32.3	7.6	20.4	
	1999	55.2	5.1	12.2	1.0	11.2	4.8	33.1	7.4	22.0	
	2002	56.5	3.6	14.0	1.1	12.9	4.0	34.9	9.8	20.1	
	2003	59.4	4.3	14.3	0.9	13.4	4.1	36.7	10.0	22.0	

Table 11 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2003 (Percentages of the employed urban population)											
Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises a/				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers b/			
			Employers	Wage or salary earners				Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical					
Mexico g/	1989	...	2.8	2.7	18.9	3.0	12.5	
	1994	...	3.3	3.7	20.4	4.2	14.9	
	1996	43.6	3.8	15.8	1.2	14.6	3.6	20.4	3.8	15.7	
	1998	44.3	3.9	15.9	1.0	14.9	4.1	20.4	3.2	16.4	
	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 (Metropolitan area of Asunción) (Urban areas)	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	
	2000	54.5	6.1	13.0	1.7	11.3	11.0	24.4	5.1	19.0	
	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	
	2000	61.6	6.4	14.7	1.4	13.3	10.4	30.1	5.3	21.9	
	1997	60.6	4.9	13.1	1.2	11.9	4.4	38.2	5.4	28.6	
Peru	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
		1997	47.0	2.1	9.1	0.7	8.4	4.4	31.4	6.8	21.3
		2000	45.1	1.8	8.5	0.7	7.8	4.1	30.7	7.3	20.6
2002		46.3	2.3	7.0	0.6	6.4	4.3	32.7	7.4	22.0	
2003		48.8	2.6	7.5	0.7	6.8	3.9	34.8	7.7	21.5	
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 (Bolivarian Republic of) h/	1990	39.2	4.9	6.7	0.2	6.5	6.3	21.3	4.1	15.3	
	1994	45.3	4.2	9.7	0.5	9.2	4.0	27.4	5.9	19.0	
	1997	49.4	3.6	11.3	0.5	10.8	4.3	30.2	6.1	19.9	
	1999	53.7	3.9	12.6	0.5	12.1	2.0	35.2	6.7	23.7	
	2000	54.6	3.8	11.6	0.4	11.2	2.1	37.1	7.4	24.7	
	2002	56.5	4.2	11.5	0.4	11.1	2.6	38.2	6.5	26.4	
2003	58.3	4.0	11.9	0.4	11.5	2.8	39.6	6.5	27.0		

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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 Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama and Uruguay (1990), 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, 1990–2003 (Percentages of the employed urban population)											
Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises a/				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers b/			
			Employers	Wage or salary earners				Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical					
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	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	
	2003	27.8	2.7	8.3	0.7	7.6	0.2	16.6	6.1	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	
	2002	48.4	6.1	18.0	1.1	16.9	0.5	23.8	4.8	14.9	
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	
	2003	57.9	5.6	18.8	0.8	18.0	0.5	33.0	8.0	17.1	

Table 11.1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): URBAN MALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2003 (Percentages of the employed urban population)										
Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises a/				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers b/		
			Employers	Wage or salary earners				Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
Mexico g/	1989	...	3.5	0.6	17.5	2.5	10.5
	1994	...	4.4	0.6	17.9	4.0	12.6
	1996	41.7	5.1	18.3	1.0	17.3	0.9	17.4	3.6	12.9
	1998	41.3	5.1	18.4	1.0	17.4	1.2	16.6	2.6	13.2
	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 (Metropolitan area of Asunción) (Urban areas)	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
	2000	45.7	7.8	15.3	1.6	13.7	2.3	20.3	4.2	15.8
	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
	2000	55.6	8.6	19.3	1.3	18.0	1.6	26.1	4.8	18.0
	1997	53.7	7.0	17.0	1.1	15.9	0.2	29.5	5.3	19.2
Peru	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
	1992	0.2	36.2	5.8	24.0
Dominican Republic	1995	0.2	35.1	5.3	24.4
	1997	47.5	2.7	9.9	0.5	9.4	0.4	34.5	8.7	20.8
	2000	46.6	1.9	8.5	0.8	7.7	0.6	35.6	10.1	21.3
	2002	48.1	2.7	6.7	0.6	6.1	0.8	37.9	10.3	22.5
	2003	51.3	3.2	6.8	0.5	6.3	0.4	40.9	10.6	21.9
	1990	34.8	3.7	12.1	0.3	11.8	0.1	18.9	5.4	11.7
Uruguay	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
	1990	39.1	6.5	8.2	0.2	8.0	1.9	22.5	4.0	15.7
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) h/	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
	2003	58.6	5.3	14.6	0.3	14.3	0.2	38.5	6.9	22.7

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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 Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama and Uruguay (1990), 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, 1990–2003 (Percentages of the employed urban population)											
Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises a/				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers b/			
			Employers	Wage or salary earners				Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical					
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	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	
	2003	38.2	1.9	7.4	0.9	6.5	16.3	12.6	3.1	9.3	
Colombia f/	1991	13.6	25.5	6.8	18.6	
	1994	12.7	23.4	5.4	17.9	
	1997	10.4	28.2	5.2	22.9	
	1999	11.5	33.4	6.3	26.8	
	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	
2000		41.7	2.3	12.3	1.4	10.9	11.4	15.7	3.2	12.4	
2002		45.1	3.7	11.2	1.1	10.1	9.8	20.4	4.2	16.0	
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	
2002		61.0	2.9	8.6	0.8	7.8	7.0	42.5	8.9	33.6	
Guatemala		1989	62.7	1.3	8.7	0.8	7.9	18.1	34.6	10.1	22.7
	1998	71.2	2.2	16.7	2.1	14.6	8.4	43.9	11.6	30.2	
	2002	65.7	2.9	9.8	1.0	8.8	9.2	43.8	10.6	31.2	
Honduras	1990	63.3	0.8	7.5	0.6	6.9	16.0	39.0	12.3	26.5	
	1994	55.6	1.5	6.8	0.8	6.0	13.7	33.6	12.0	21.4	
	1997	57.3	2.7	5.5	0.8	4.7	10.7	38.4	11.4	26.7	
	1999	58.5	3.2	6.3	1.2	5.1	9.9	39.1	11.3	27.2	
	2002	57.9	2.4	8.6	1.3	7.3	8.9	38.0	11.7	25.6	
	2003	61.5	2.6	8.6	1.1	7.5	8.7	41.6	12.6	28.3	

Table 11.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): URBAN FEMALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2003 (Percentages of the employed urban population)										
Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises a/				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers b/		
			Employers	Wage or salary earners				Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
Mexico g/	1989	...	1.2	7.1	21.9	4.0	16.7
	1994	...	1.1	9.6	25.0	4.6	19.1
	1996	47.6	2.0	11.4	1.5	9.9	8.3	25.9	4.2	20.7
	1998	49.6	1.9	11.6	0.9	10.7	9.0	27.1	4.4	22.0
	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 (Metropolitan area of Asunción) (Urban areas)	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
	2000	64.6	4.2	10.3	1.9	8.4	21.1	29.0	6.1	22.7
	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
	2000	71.9	3.7	9.0	1.5	7.5	21.5	37.7	6.0	26.7
	2001	71.7	2.2	9.3	1.0	8.3	11.3	48.9	4.5	39.6
Peru	1997	69.3	2.2	8.2	1.3	6.9	9.8	49.1	5.4	40.4
	1999	71.5	2.5	10.9	1.8	9.1	12.4	45.7	4.8	38.8
	2001	71.7	2.2	9.3	1.0	8.3	11.3	48.9	4.5	39.6
	1992	8.7	26.7	5.2	21.4
	1995	10.5	21.9	4.0	17.8
	1997	46.0	1.1	7.6	0.9	6.7	11.6	25.7	3.6	22.0
Uruguay	2000	42.8	1.6	8.7	0.6	8.1	9.7	22.8	2.9	19.4
	2002	43.7	1.8	7.3	0.6	6.7	10.0	24.6	2.8	21.3
	2003	44.3	1.5	8.5	0.8	7.7	10.1	24.2	2.8	20.8
	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
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) h/	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
	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
Dominican Republic	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
	2003	57.8	1.9	7.5	0.6	6.9	7.0	41.4	5.8	33.9

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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 Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama and Uruguay (1990), 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, 1990–2003 (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 c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	6.6	18.4	3.7	7.6	3.6	7.2	7.0	7.4	2.5
	1994	8.3	24.8	5.0	7.7	4.7	9.1	8.8	9.2	3.3
	1997	6.5	23.1	3.9	6.0	3.7	6.5	6.6	6.4	2.6
	1999	5.7	19.7	3.8	6.1	3.5	8.1	5.7	6.2	2.4
	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
	2003	5.7	24.0	3.3	7.3	2.9	5.7	5.5	5.9	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
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

Table 12 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2003 (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 c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
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 (Metropolitan area of Asunción) (Urban areas)	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
	2000	2.3	6.4	2.3	3.1	2.2	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.6
	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
	2000	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
1999		2.1	4.5	2.2	3.9	2.0	1.6	1.4	1.7	2.9
Dominican Republic	1997	3.8	9.9	2.6	5.1	2.4	4.0	4.2	4.1	1.4
	2000	4.1	14.3	2.8	8.5	2.3	4.3	4.6	4.3	1.2
	2002	4.0	14.5	2.4	4.0	2.3	4.1	4.4	4.2	1.3
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 (Bolivarian Republic of) 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: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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 Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama and Uruguay (1990), 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, 1990–2003 (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 c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	8.3	19.9	3.8	8.9	3.7	8.8	7.3	9.6	4.4
	1994	10.1	25.2	5.2	9.4	4.9	10.6	9.3	11.4	4.5
	1997	7.7	23.8	4.0	6.5	3.8	7.6	7.3	7.8	2.7
	1999	7.3	21.7	4.0	7.9	3.8	7.1	6.1	7.8	3.1
	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
	2003	7.7	26.6	3.5	9.5	3.0	6.5	6.2	6.8	3.4
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
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

Table 12.1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN MALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2003 (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 c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
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 (Metropolitan area of Asunción) (Urban areas)	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
	2000	2.9	7.0	2.4	3.7	2.2	2.1	2.1	2.1	1.9
	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
	2000	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
1999		2.4	4.9	2.3	4.3	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.3	1.8
Dominican Republic	1997	4.4	10.8	2.7	4.8	2.6	4.7	4.6	4.8	2.2
	2000	4.9	15.0	3.0	8.6	2.4	4.9	5.0	5.0	2.0
	2002	4.9	14.8	2.4	3.2	2.3	4.6	4.6	5.0	2.5
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 (Bolivarian Republic of) h/	1990	5.1	9.5	2.5	3.9	2.5	4.9	4.8	5.4	3.4
	1994	4.2	7.6	2.2	6.4	2.0	4.2	3.9	4.7	2.9
	1997	4.1	9.5	1.7	2.8	1.7	4.3	4.6	5.0	2.2
	1999	3.4	7.7	2.1	4.3	2.0	3.3	3.8	3.8	2.0
	2002	3.4	8.9	3.3	3.3	1.7	1.7	3.9	3.6	1.9

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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 Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama and Uruguay (1990), 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, 1990–2003 (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 c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	4.2	13.2	3.5	5.8	3.4	4.5	5.7	4.2	2.0
	1994	5.5	23.0	4.4	5.5	4.2	6.4	4.2	6.5	3.2
	1997	4.9	21.1	3.7	5.3	3.4	4.7	3.4	4.9	2.5
	1999	3.7	12.6	3.2	4.6	3.0	4.3	3.4	4.4	2.4
	2002	2.7	11.9	2.0	3.3	1.8	2.7	2.1	2.9	1.7
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
	2003	4.0	18.2	3.0	4.6	2.8	4.0	3.4	4.2	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
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

Table 12.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN FEMALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2003 (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 c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
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 (Metropolitan area of Asunción) (Urban areas)	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
	2000	1.8	5.2	2.2	2.4	2.1	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.5
	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
	2000	1.5	5.6	2.0	2.5	1.9	1.2	1.0	1.3	1.4
	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	1997	2.5	5.8	2.4	5.6	2.0	2.9	2.5	3.0	1.4
	2000	2.9	12.9	2.5	8.3	2.1	2.9	2.3	3.0	1.1
	2002	2.9	13.6	2.5	5.4	2.2	2.9	3.3	2.9	1.1
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 (Bolivarian Republic of) h/	1990	2.5	9.8	2.5	3.1	2.4	2.7	2.6	2.8	1.7
	1994	2.6	6.7	2.4	5.6	2.0	2.6	2.4	2.6	1.5
	1997	2.6	8.3	1.2	3.0	1.6	3.1	2.5	3.2	1.2
	1999	2.4	6.7	2.1	3.7	1.9	2.3	2.1	2.4	1.3
	2002	2.2	7.7	1.7	2.2	1.6	2.2	2.0	2.3	1.2

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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 Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama and Uruguay (1990), 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 2003 ^{a/}**

Country	Sex	Age groups																								
		Total					15 – 24					25 – 34					35 – 44					45 and over				
		1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003
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
Bolivia	Total	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
	Males	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
Brazil	Total	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
	Males	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
Chile	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	12.4	12.8	18.4	17.4	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
Colombia	Total	3.9	8.9	10.0	14.1	13.4	7.7	17.0	18.2	26.6	24.6	3.8	8.8	9.8	13.4	13.4	1.7	5.0	6.2	9.0	8.7	0.6	2.5	4.0	5.8	5.5
	Males	8.7	6.8	6.0	10.1	10.2	17.9	16.1	13.2	21.8	22.2	8.3	6.5	5.9	9.9	10.4	5.1	3.7	4.1	7.4	7.4	5.3	3.7	3.4	6.3	6.7
Costa Rica	Total	8.1	5.9	5.1	9.4	8.6	17.0	14.0	10.7	20.4	18.9	7.5	5.5	5.0	9.3	9.2	4.8	3.0	3.6	6.4	5.6	5.6	3.9	3.7	6.7	6.1
	Males	9.7	8.4	7.3	11.2	12.5	19.1	19.3	17.1	23.7	26.5	9.8	8.4	7.4	10.9	12.1	5.8	4.9	5.0	8.9	10.0	4.7	3.4	2.9	5.6	7.6
Ecuador	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
El Salvador	Total	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
	Males	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
Guatemala	Total	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
	Males	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	4.6	4.6	2.3	1.5	2.8	3.2	3.3
Honduras	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
Mexico	Total	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
	Males	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
Nicaragua	Total	10.0	8.3	8.8	8.9	8.6	17.7	15.4	16.1	16.2	14.2	8.4	7.5	8.1	6.0	7.3	7.0	3.7	6.1	6.0	6.9	6.5	5.4	5.4	6.1	6.7
	Males	9.7	4.9	5.5	4.6	3.5	21.3	11.9	12.4	10.6	8.4	10.0	6.0	7.2	5.1	4.3	4.3	1.5	2.5	2.0	1.3	0.6	0.8	1.0	0.8	0.8
Panama	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	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
Paraguay	Total	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
	Males	6.9	4.1	5.2	5.3	7.5	11.2	7.1	8.9	9.0	12.0	7.0	3.6	5.4	4.7	8.9	4.3	3.1	2.9	2.9	4.4	3.7	1.3	2.3	3.0	3.6
Peru	Total	7.6	4.5	5.9	6.2	7.2	11.5	7.5	9.2	10.3	10.9	6.6	3.7	5.6	5.3	7.8	6.0	4.1	4.5	3.6	5.0	5.3	2.0	3.4	4.3	4.2
	Males	5.9	3.4	4.3	4.0	7.8	10.7	6.6	8.5	7.4	13.4	7.6	3.6	5.2	4.1	10.2	2.0	1.3	0.8	2.2	3.8	0.7	0.1	0.7	1.1	2.7
Uruguay	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
Venezuela	Total	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
	Males	...	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
Zambia	Total	...	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
	Males	...	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
Zimbabwe	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
Zimbabwe	Total	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
	Males	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
Zimbabwe	Total	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
	Males	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 2003 a/																										
Country	Sex	Age groups																								
		Total					15 – 24					25 – 34					35 – 44					45 and over				
		1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003
Paraguay (Metropolitan area of 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	17.0	13.8	18.0	34.1	30.6	27.8	18.8	32.3	17.3	16.1	15.7	13.7	18.2	9.2	10.0	10.2	13.3	13.5	7.4	7.4	8.7	9.4	7.7
	Males	11.3	12.1	10.9	8.8	12.0	22.3	24.0	20.0	12.9	25.0	9.2	10.4	8.0	8.0	10.3	5.0	6.3	6.9	7.5	7.1	4.0	5.8	6.1	7.1	6.8
	Females	31.5	24.8	26.0	20.7	26.6	47.3	39.9	38.2	27.1	42.6	27.7	23.4	25.5	20.4	27.8	15.8	15.5	15.0	20.0	22.2	15.4	11.5	14.8	14.0	9.6
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 (Bolivarian Republic of) b/	Total	10.2	8.9	10.6	14.5	16.8	19.3	17.1	19.8	25.7	28.0	11.3	9.1	10.6	14.7	17.6	5.9	5.3	6.8	10.2	11.9	4.5	4.2	5.5	7.8	10.7
	Males	11.2	9.1	9.0	13.6	14.4	19.9	17.2	16.4	22.2	23.7	12.3	8.8	8.3	12.8	13.4	6.9	5.9	5.7	10.1	10.1	5.5	4.9	5.6	9.4	11.2
	Females	8.4	8.3	13.6	16.1	20.3	18.0	17.0	26.6	32.6	34.8	9.6	9.6	14.3	17.7	23.3	4.0	4.2	8.5	10.4	14.4	1.7	2.5	5.3	4.7	9.8

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

a/ For the exact years of the surveys in each country, see 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 2003 a/**

Country	Sex	Years of schooling																								
		Total					0 to 5					6 to 9					10 to 12					13 or more				
		1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003
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
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
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
Chile	Total	8.7	6.8	6.0	10.1	10.2	9.3	5.9	6.7	12.8	10.9	10.1	8.1	6.7	12.2	10.7	9.2	7.8	6.6	10.2	11.3	6.3	4.4	4.0	7.1	7.8
	Males	8.1	5.9	5.1	9.4	8.6	9.3	5.8	6.8	14.0	10.6	10.3	7.4	5.9	12.1	9.7	7.9	6.5	5.2	8.7	9.0	4.9	3.3	3.4	5.7	6.3
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
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
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
El Salvador	Total	9.9	6.8	7.3	6.9	6.2	8.1	6.0	5.3	4.9	5.4	9.9	6.8	8.0	7.4	5.9	14.6	9.2	9.6	9.3	8.2	7.6	4.9	6.4	6.1	4.9
	Males	10.0	8.3	8.8	8.9	8.6	11.0	9.2	8.8	7.8	9.8	9.1	8.1	9.4	9.4	8.6	11.8	9.6	9.8	11.0	9.6	6.9	4.7	5.5	6.5	5.2
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
Honduras	Total	6.9	4.1	5.2	5.3	7.5	5.1	3.0	4.8	4.8	5.5	7.7	5.0	5.4	6.3	7.3	9.3	4.4	6.3	4.3	9.6	6.3	2.8	3.6	4.0	9.0
	Males	7.6	4.5	5.9	6.2	7.2	7.3	3.8	6.6	7.0	5.8	8.1	5.9	6.0	6.9	8.0	8.0	3.8	5.9	4.9	7.6	5.3	2.3	3.3	3.3	7.1
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
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
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
Panama	Total	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
	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

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 2003 ^{a/}																										
Country	Sex	Years of schooling																								
		Total					0 to 5					6 to 9					10 to 12					13 or more				
		1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003
Paraguay (Metropolitan area of 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	17.0	13.8	18.0	15.6	13.6	15.3	12.0	14.7	19.6	18.7	18.9	13.5	19.4	25.2	21.4	18.1	16.4	21.7	16.6	13.4	15.1	12.9	15.0
	Males	11.3	12.1	10.9	8.8	12.0	7.0	10.2	10.4	8.5	9.2	11.1	12.8	11.2	8.3	13.2	15.5	14.3	11.5	9.1	14.4	11.2	10.9	10.0	9.8	10.5
	Females	31.5	24.8	26.0	20.7	26.6	30.5	21.3	24.8	18.7	25.8	34.7	29.8	32.7	22.4	31.4	37.2	30.5	26.2	25.1	30.5	21.8	16.1	19.5	15.8	18.9
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 (Bolivarian Republic of) ^{c/}	Total	10.2	8.9	10.6	14.5	16.8	9.7	7.9	9.4	11.7	13.4	12.1	9.8	11.0	15.5	17.3	9.3	9.1	12.7	16.2	18.8	6.1	6.7	8.4	12.7	16.6
	Males	11.2	9.1	9.0	13.6	14.4	11.4	8.2	7.9	12.2	12.1	12.9	10.4	9.5	14.8	14.8	9.7	9.0	10.6	13.7	16.0	5.6	5.9	6.6	11.2	14.3
	Females	8.4	8.3	13.6	16.1	20.3	5.4	7.1	13.4	10.6	16.2	10.1	8.5	14.3	17.0	21.6	8.7	9.2	15.5	19.7	22.3	6.7	7.8	10.4	14.0	18.6

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

a/ For the exact years of the surveys in each country, see 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, 1990–2003											
(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	...	52.6	23.0
	1994	...	51.6	19.8
	1997	62.1	52.3	78.5	37.2	22.6	61.5
	1999	60.6	48.7	45.0	63.9	80.7	36.4	19.8	17.5	29.0	64.7
	2002	62.4	52.0	47.0	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
	2003	18.8	18.6	12.9	22.7	20.1	4.7	4.5	2.9	5.6	6.2
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	51.1	50.6	39.8	53.8	52.0	24.6	23.7	17.1	25.7	26.7
Costa Rica	1990	26.3	24.9	22.8	27.7	27.3	9.9	6.4	4.9	8.4	12.5
	1994	23.1	20.7	19.1	22.7	25.0	8.0	5.7	4.6	7.1	9.7
	1997	22.5	19.3	18.8	20.1	24.8	7.8	5.5	5.7	5.3	9.6
	1999	20.3	18.1	17.5	18.7	22.3	7.8	5.4	4.3	6.5	9.8
	2002	20.3	17.5	16.8	18.0	24.3	8.2	5.5	5.5	5.6	12.0
Ecuador	1990	...	62.1	26.2
	1994	...	57.9	25.5
	1997	...	56.2	22.2
	1999	...	63.5	31.3
	2002	...	49.0	19.4
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	1989	69.4	53.6	77.7	42.0	26.4	50.2
	1998	61.1	49.1	69.0	31.6	16.0	41.8
	2002	60.2	45.3	68.0	30.9	18.1	37.6
Honduras	1990	80.8	70.4	59.9	79.5	88.1	60.9	43.6	31.0	54.5	72.9
	1994	77.9	74.5	68.7	80.4	80.5	53.9	46.0	38.3	53.7	59.8
	1997	79.1	72.6	68.0	77.2	84.2	54.4	41.5	35.5	48.6	64.0
	1999	79.7	71.7	64.4	78.8	86.3	56.8	42.9	33.7	51.9	68.0
	2002	77.3	66.7	56.9	74.4	86.1	54.4	36.5	25.1	45.3	69.5
Mexico	1989	47.7	42.1	56.7	18.7	13.1	27.9
	1994	45.1	36.8	56.5	16.8	9.0	27.5
	1996	52.9	46.1	62.8	22.0	14.3	33.0
	1998	46.9	38.9	58.5	18.5	9.7	31.1
	2000	41.1	32.3	54.7	15.2	6.6	28.5
	2002	39.4	32.2	51.2	12.6	6.9	21.9
Nicaragua	1993	73.6	66.3	58.3	73.0	82.7	48.4	36.8	29.5	43.0	62.8
	1998	69.9	64.0	57.0	68.9	77.0	44.6	33.9	25.8	39.5	57.5
	2001	69.3	63.8	50.8	72.0	76.9	42.3	33.2	24.3	38.9	54.9

Table 15 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POVERTY AND INDIGENCE LEVELS, 1990–2003 (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	43.1	39.9	38.2	46.3	50.7	19.4	16.2	15.6	18.3	26.8
	1994	36.1	30.8	28.3	41.2	49.2	15.7	11.4	9.7	18.1	26.2
	1997	33.2	29.7	27.9	37.3	41.9	13.0	10.7	9.9	13.8	18.8
	1999	30.2	25.8	24.2	32.5	41.5	10.7	8.1	7.5	10.6	17.2
	2002	34.0	25.3	48.5	17.4	8.9	31.5
Paraguay	1990	43.2	13.1
	1994	...	49.9	42.2	59.3	18.8	12.8	26.1	...
	1996	...	46.3	39.2	55.9	16.3	9.8	25.2	...
	1999	60.6	49.0	39.5	61.3	73.9	33.9	17.4	9.2	28.0	52.8
	2001	61.0	50.1	42.7	59.1	73.6	33.2	18.4	10.4	28.1	50.3
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	1997	37.2	35.6	39.4	14.4	11.8	17.9
	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	...	17.9	11.3	24.3	3.4	1.8	5.0	...
	1994	...	9.7	7.5	11.8	1.9	1.5	2.2	...
	1997	...	9.5	8.6	10.3	1.7	1.5	1.8	...
	1999	...	9.4	9.8	9.0	1.8	1.9	1.6	...
	2002	...	15.4	15.1	15.8	2.5	2.7	2.2	...
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) ^{b/}	1990	39.8	38.6	29.2	41.2	46.0	14.4	13.1	8.0	14.5	21.3
	1994	48.7	47.1	25.8	52.0	55.6	19.2	17.1	6.1	19.6	28.3
	1997	48.0	20.5
	1999	49.4	21.7
	2002	48.6	22.2
Latin America ^{d/}	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: Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household 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
	2003	Nov.	Ch\$	21 856	43 712	16 842	29 473	625.5	34.9	69.9	26.9	47.1
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	173 232	71 622	125 339	2 504.2	34.6	69.2	28.6	50.1
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	1 727 500	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	\$	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		Rural		Exchange rate b/	Urban		Rural	
				IL	PL	IL	PL		IL	PL		
				Local currency					US dollars			
Panama	1991	Aug.	B	35	70	27	47	1.0	35.0	70.1	27.1	47.5
	1994	Aug.	B	40	80	31	54	1.0	40.1	80.2	31.0	54.3
	1997	Aug.	B	41	81	31	55	1.0	40.6	81.3	31.4	55.0
	1999	July	B	41	81	31	55	1.0	40.7	81.4	31.5	55.1
	2002	July	B	41	81	31	55	1.0	40.7	81.4	31.5	55.0
Paraguay	1990 d/	June, July, Aug.	G	43 242	86 484	1 207.8	35.8	71.6
	1994	Aug.–Sept.	G	87 894	175 789	1 916.3	45.9	91.7
	1996	July–Nov.	G	108 572	217 143	2 081.2	52.2	104.3
	1999	July–Dec.	G	138 915	277 831	106 608	186 565	3 311.4	42.0	83.9	32.2	56.3
	2000	Sept. 00–Aug. 01	G	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 Rep.	1997	April	RD\$	601	1 203	451	789	14.3	42.1	84.3	31.6	55.3
	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 (Bolivarian Republic of)	1990	2nd half	Bs	1 924	3 848	1 503	2 630	49.4	38.9	77.9	30.4	53.2
	1994	2nd half	Bs	8 025	16 050	6 356	11 124	171.3	46.9	93.7	37.1	65.0
	1997 e/	2nd half	Bs	31 711	62 316	488.6	64.9	127.5
	1999 e/	2nd half	Bs	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: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC).

a/ Local currencies:

Argentina: (A) austral; (Arg\$) peso

Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela: (Bs) bolívar

Bolivia: (Bs) boliviano

Brazil: (Cr\$) cruzeiro; (R\$) real

Chile: (Ch\$) peso

Colombia: (Col\$) peso

Costa Rica: (¢) colón

Dominican Republic: (RD\$) peso

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: (G) guaraní

Peru: (S/.) new sol

Uruguay: (NUr\$) new peso; (Ur\$) peso

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, 1990–2003									
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
	2003	3.7	8.7	2.8	15.2	7.6	19.9	18.5	38.8
Colombia b/	1994	16.2	20.3	4.1	40.6	9.1	18.2	12.6	19.5
	1997	14.6	20.3	4.5	39.5	9.6	18.9	12.6	19.4
	1999	18.7	21.5	4.4	44.6	9.5	17.7	10.8	17.4
	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, 1990–2003									
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 (Metropolitan area of 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
	2000	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	1997	11.0	16.6	4.0	31.6	10.4	21.5	15.6	21.0
	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 (Bolivarian Republic of) ^{c/}	1990	10.9	17.5	5.0	33.4	10.9	21.5	14.8	19.4
	1994	13.5	22.0	5.4	40.9	10.4	21.4	12.9	14.4
	1997	17.1	20.7	4.5	42.3	10.6	19.3	11.5	16.3
	1999	19.4	20.5	4.1	44.0	10.3	19.5	11.5	14.8
	2002	18.6	20.0	4.7	43.3	9.8	18.9	12.0	15.9

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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, 1990–2003 (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
	2003	19	10	5	14	19	15	10	10
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, 1990–2003 (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 (Metropolitan area of 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
	2000	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	1997	37	21	21	18	25	26	20	25
	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 (Bolivarian Republic of) i/	1990	39	22	20	24	34	33	25	22
	1994	47	32	38	29	48	41	32	32
	1997	48	35	34	44	50	52	27	27
	1999	49	35	28	37	52	50	33	34
	2002	49	35	21	42	51	53	30	33

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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 Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama and Uruguay (1990), 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/ 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.

f/ Includes wage earners in the public sector and in establishments employing up to 5 persons.

g/ Includes wage earners 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, 1990–2003 (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
Brasil 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
	2003	20	11	4	11	17	10	13	14
Colombia	1991	60	53	...	42 d/ e/	...	54	67	73
	1994	62	55	...	55 d/ e/	...	57	61	59
	1997	60	48	16	40 e/	...	48	62	67
	1999	62	50	12	41 e/	...	45	64	66
	2002	52	41	8	32 e/	...	41	52	55
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

Table 19 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): POVERTY RATES IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES, a/ RURAL AREAS, 1990–2003 (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
Panama	1991	51	40	10	25	43	43	52	57
	1994	49	38	6	23	39	40	52	61
	1997	42	29	6	22	39	33	36	42
	1999	42	29	5	19	39	30	37	42
	2002	49	40	6	13	16	27	60	70
Paraguay	1999	74	65	10	47	57	43	75	79
	2000	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	1997	39	25	17	14	26	40	30	42
	2000	55	38	33	35	44	54	39	47
	2002	51	34	29	31	44	58	34	42
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	1990	47	31	22	35	36	44	31	36
	1994	56	42	27	50	50	53	42	44

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys 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 Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador and Panama, 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, 1990–2003 (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	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
	2003	6	52	13	10	5	9	95
Colombia d/	1991	...	48 e/	...	5	8	26	87
	1994	4	58 e/	...	5	8	22	97
	1997	4	46 e/	...	5	10	30	95
	1999	3	38 e/	...	5	12	37	95
	2002	2	32 e/	...	6	12	39	91
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, 1990–2003 (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 (Metropolitan area of 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
	2000	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	1997	12	27	10	6	7	26	88
	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 (Bolivarian Republic of) 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: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the respective countries.

- a/ For Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama and Uruguay (1990), 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, 1990–2003								
(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
	2003	2	37	23	3	34	30	99
Colombia	1991	...	34 d/	...	2	58	35	94
	1994	...	47 d/	...	4	45	24	96
	1997	1	35 d/	...	3	57	35	96
	1999	1	31 d/	...	3	62	36	97
	2002	1	25 d/	...	4	68	40	98
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	1991	3	9	9	3	75	65	99
	1994	3	10	15	4	68	56	100
	1997	2	11	17	4	65	50	99
	1999	2	9	20	4	65	45	100
	2002	1	5	5	2	86	68	99
Paraguay	1999	1	5	10	3	80	66	99
	2000	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	1997	7	12	9	5	63	48	96
	2000	7	17	8	7	59	40	98
	2002	7	15	7	8	60	43	97
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	1990	5	27	15	4	47	39	98
	1994	5	23	19	6	45	31	98

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

a/ For Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador and Panama, 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, 1990–2003									
Country	Year	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	21	26	12	22	100	4.3	7.0	88.7
	1994	24	22	20	24	100	1.0	7.5	91.1
	1997	26	32	24	26	100	4.1	9.0	86.9
	1999	27	37	28	27	100	4.2	10.4	85.4
	2002	27	20	25	28	100	8.9	18.5	72.6
Bolivia	1989	17	23	16	15	100	30.2	25.5	44.3
	1994	18	20	17	18	100	18.1	27.0	54.9
	1997	21	24	22	19	100	22.2	30.0	47.8
	1999	21	24	19	21	100	19.2	23.4	57.4
	2002	24	24	19	26	100	17.6	22.1	60.3
Brazil	1990	20	24	23	18	100	16.0	25.1	58.9
	1993	22	23	21	22	100.0	12.3	20.9	66.8
	1996	24	24	22	24	100.0	7.7	15.9	76.4
	1999	25	24	24	26	100.0	6.7	18.3	74.9
	2002	26	27	25	27	100.0	8.2	18.3	73.5
Chile	1990	21	25	20	22	100	11.7	21.3	67.0
	1994	22	27	21	22	100	7.1	16.0	76.8
	1996	23	29	22	23	100	5.3	13.6	81.1
	1998	24	28	23	24	100	4.9	12.3	82.7
	2000	24	28	23	24	100	5.0	11.5	83.6
	2003	18	26	16	18	100	2.3	9.0	88.7
Colombia a/	1991	24	28	22	24	100	19.8	27.6	52.6
	1994	24	24	24	24	100	16.1	24.0	59.9
	1997	27	32	28	25	100	17.5	25.9	56.6
	1999	29	31	27	29	100	20.4	24.0	55.6
	2002	30	34	29	30	100	23.1	22.8	54.1
Costa Rica	1990	23	36	25	21	100	10.9	16.5	72.6
	1994	24	42	27	22	100	9.8	14.0	76.2
	1997	27	51	36	24	100	9.9	15.7	74.4
	1999	28	56	39	25	100	10.9	14.1	75.0
	2002	28	48	34	27	100	9.2	12.5	78.3
Ecuador	1990	17	22	16	15	100	28.9	31.2	39.9
	1994	19	23	18	18	100	27.3	28.1	44.6
	1997	19	24	19	17	100	23.9	31.1	45.0
	1999	20	23	21	18	100	30.9	31.4	37.6
	2002	21	26	21	20	100	20.0	26.0	53.9
El Salvador	1995	31	38	31	29	100	15.4	28.1	56.5
	1997	30	36	33	28	100	14.2	29.3	56.5
	1999	31	36	36	29	100	12.6	25.9	61.5
	2001	35	37	40	33	100	12.6	25.9	61.5
Guatemala	1989	22	23	21	22	100	24.2	24.3	51.5
	1998	24	26	21	26	100	12.9	24.8	62.3
	2002	22	30	21	21	100	19.8	22.7	57.5
Honduras	1990	27	35	21	21	100	50.4	21.1	28.5
	1994	25	28	25	21	100	45.8	29.2	25.0
	1997	29	32	28	28	100	40.3	28.6	31.1
	1999	30	32	30	28	100	39.4	28.7	31.9
	2002	31	32	31	31	100	31.7	29.0	39.3
Mexico	1989	16	14	14	17	100	8.2	21.9	69.9
	1994	17	11	16	18	100	4.0	21.3	74.7
	1996	18	17	15	19	100	9.8	23.0	67.3
	1998	19	18	16	20	100	6.3	20.0	73.7
	2000	20	14	16	21	100	3.4	17.5	79.1
	2002	21	24	22	21	100	5.4	21.4	73.1
Nicaragua	1993	35	40	34	32	100	36.8	27.2	36.1
	1998	35	39	36	30	100	34.9	30.2	34.9
	2001	34	37	36	32	100	30.2	30.7	39.0

Table 22 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): EXTENT AND DISTRIBUTION OF POVERTY AND INDIGENCE IN HOUSEHOLDS HEADED BY WOMEN, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2003									
Country	Year	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	26	34	29	24	100	18.0	22.0	60.0
	1994	25	35	25	24	100	12.1	16.2	71.7
	1997	28	37	29	26	100	11.4	16.7	71.9
	1999	27	45	28	26	100	10.8	14.4	74.8
	2002	29	44	31	27	100	12.3	14.6	73.1
Paraguay (Metropolitan area of Asunción)	1990	20	21	23	18	100	11.2	30.5	58.3
	1994	23	20	26	22	100	8.4	29.3	62.3
	1996	27	25	26	27	100	7.4	24.7	67.9
	1999	27	30	23	29	100	7.7	21.9	70.4
	2000	31	37	29	32	100	10.6	23.7	65.7
Peru	1997	20	21	19	21	100	8.0	18.6	73.3
	1999	21	17	21	21	100	6.3	23.9	69.7
	2001	22	22	21	23	100	7.2	25.2	67.6
Dominican Republic	1997	31	50	31	29	100	17.5	20.5	62.0
	2000	31	48	33	26	100	27.2	22.3	50.5
	2002	34	54	39	27	100	25.2	25.6	49.2
Uruguay	1990	25	28	22	26	100	2.2	8.4	89.4
	1994	27	21	23	27	100	0.8	4.0	95.1
	1997	29	27	23	29	100	0.8	3.9	95.3
	1999	31	29	26	31	100	0.8	4.0	95.2
	2002	32	31	27	33	100	1.3	6.7	92.0
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) b/	1990	22	40	25	18	100	19.6	25.4	55.1
	1994	25	34	28	21	100	18.7	30.8	50.5
	1997	26	28	29	24	100	18.6	28.4	53.0
	1999	27	34	27	25	100	23.8	24.8	51.3
	2002	29	35	29	26	100	24.0	24.1	51.9

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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, 1990–2003								
(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 ⁽¹⁻¹⁰⁾	Q ⁹ /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
	2003	13.5	13.8	20.8	25.7	39.7	18.6	18.3
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, 1990–2003 (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 to 4}	Q ² /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
	2000	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	1997	8.5	14.5	23.6	26.0	36.0	16.0	17.6
	2000	7.2	11.4	22.2	27.6	38.8	21.1	26.9
	2001	7.2	12.2	22.5	27.0	38.3	19.1	23.0
	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 (Bolivarian Republic of)	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: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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/ D^(1 to 4) means the 40% of households with the lowest income, and D¹⁰ means the 10% of households with the highest income. Similar notation is used for quintiles (Q), where each group represents 20% of total households.

d/ Greater Buenos Aires.

e/ Eight major cities and El Alto.

f/ Total urban areas.

g/ Asunción metropolitan area.

Table 24

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVELS AND DISTRIBUTION, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, a/ 1990–2003 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Average income b/	Share of total income of:				Average income b/	Share of total income of:			
			Poorest 40%	Next poorest 30%	20% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%		Poorest 40%	Next poorest 30%	20% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%
Urban areas						Rural areas					
Argentina c/	1990	10.6	14.9	23.6	26.7	34.8
	1997	12.4	14.9	22.3	27.1	35.8
	1999	12.5	15.4	21.6	26.1	37.0
	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
	2003	13.8	14.1	21.1	25.7	39.1	11.0	16.5	22.7	22.3	38.5
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/ 1990–2003 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Average income b/	Share of total income of:				Average income b/	Share of total income of:			
			Poorest 40%	Next poorest 30%	20% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%		Poorest 40%	Next poorest 30%	20% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%
Urban areas						Rural areas					
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	7.3	15.0	23.7	25.7	35.6
	1997	12.0	13.3	22.4	27.0	37.3	8.6	14.9	22.4	25.0	37.7
	1999	11.6	15.0	25.1	27.8	32.2	7.8	17.3	23.6	25.4	33.7
	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
	2000	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	1997	9.0	14.8	23.8	25.8	35.5	7.7	16.5	25.7	25.2	32.6
	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 (Bolivarian Republic of)	1990	9.1	16.8	26.1	28.8	28.4	7.7	19.8	28.6	27.8	23.8

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys 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, 1990–2003							
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
	2003	74.7	45.6	0.550	1.198	0.668	0.641
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	0.561	1.217	0.488	0.640

Table 25 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION, ^{a/} NATIONAL TOTALS, 1990–2003							
Country	Year	Percentage of persons with per capita income of less than:		Concentration indices			
				Gini ^{b/}	Variance of logarithm of income	Theil	Atkinson
		Average	50% of average				
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
	2000	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	1997	71.4	39.8	0.517	1.075	0.557	0.603
	2000	71.6	44.3	0.554	1.250	0.583	0.635
	2001	71.3	43.1	0.541	1.175	0.564	0.616
	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 (Bolivarian Republic of)	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: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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, 1990–2003							
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
	2003	74.8	44.9	0.546	1.179	0.654	0.641
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
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

Table 26 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION, a/ URBAN AREAS, 1990–2003							
Country	Year	Percentage of persons with per capita income of less than:		Concentration indices			
				Gini b/	Variance of logarithm of income	Theil	Atkinson
		Average	50% of average				
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	1997	71.9	39.5	0.509	1.003	0.538	0.574
	2000	71.5	43.6	0.550	1.236	0.569	0.636
	2001	70.9	43.6	0.542	1.208	0.560	0.627
	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 (Bolivarian Republic of)	1990	67.7	34.4	0.464	0.903	0.403	0.538

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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, 1990–2003							
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
	2003	75.5	38.3	0.507	0.913	0.622	0.553
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	70.8	38.1	0.507	1.153	0.549	0.759
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
	2000	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	1997	69.8	36.2	0.483	0.940	0.484	0.570
	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 (Bolivarian Republic of)	1990	67.0	31.3	0.431	0.724	0.348	0.468

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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, 1989–2003 (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 b/	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
	2003	99.4	99.1	99.6	85.2	81.4	93.9	35.1	19.1	67.5
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 (Bolivarian Republic of)	1990	95.4	94.3	97.9	68.7	68.8	78.3	27.3	27.0	39.3
	2002 e/	96.7	94.6	98.6	67.2	62.7	77.8	33.6	20.8	54.7

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

a/ Metropolitan area.

b/ Twenty-eight urban areas.

c/ Cochabamba, El Alto, La Paz, Oruro, Potosí, Santa Cruz, Sucre, Tarija and Trinidad.

d/ Barranquilla, Bogotá, Bucaramanga, Cali, Cartagena, Manizales, Medellín and Pasto.

e/ Nationwide.

Table 29

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2003 (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
	2002	20.8	41.1	33.7	4.4	54.3	33.7	11.5	0.5
Chile	1990	5.6	33.1	45.5	15.8	16.9	56.5	22.6	4.1
	1994	4.2	31.2	46.4	18.2	14.4	54.8	26.1	4.7
	2000	2.7	30.1	51.1	16.2	8.5	49.9	37.0	4.6
	2003	1.6	28.2	51.8	18.4	5.6	45.6	44.0	4.9
Colombia b/	1980	31.2	40.9	21.1	6.8
	1990	19.6	40.4	31.0	9.0
	1991	21.8	37.9	29.7	10.6	60.1	25.7	13.6	0.5
	1994	17.7	37.9	35.9	8.4	55.8	29.5	14.0	0.7
	1999	14.6	32.4	43.2	9.8	46.2	30.7	21.8	1.3
	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
	2003	14.2	40.5	32.8	12.6	42.9	42.7	12.7	1.7
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
	2003	16.1	52.4	23.8	7.7	45.4	49.9	4.1	0.6
Mexico a/	1989	8.3	60.5	22.1	9.1	31.4	59.2	7.7	1.7
	1994	7.5	57.5	24.4	10.6	25.8	65.1	8.0	1.1
	1998	6.0	55.2	24.3	12.3	21.6	62.3	12.7	3.0
	2002	6.3	42.2	37.2	14.3	15.2	59.7	20.2	4.9
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, 1980–2003 (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 (Metropolitan area of 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
	2002	4.7	30.3	44.4	20.6	20.3	48.8	24.9	6.0
Dominican Republic	2000	13.1	35.5	37.1	14.3	37.4	38.7	20.4	3.5
	2003	10.7	35.9	38.1	15.3	26.4	38.0	28.9	6.7
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 (Bolivarian Republic of) 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
	2003	9.5	45.1	29.9	15.5

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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, 1980–2003 (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
	2002	23.8	42.0	30.6	3.6	60.1	30.3	9.3	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
	2003	2.0	29.1	51.0	17.9	6.4	46.4	43.2	4.0
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
	2003	13.5	43.3	30.8	12.4	41.9	44.4	12.4	1.4
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
	2003	18.1	53.4	21.5	7.0	48.6	47.4	3.6	0.5
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, 1980–2003 (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 (Metropolitan area of 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
	2002	4.6	31.3	45.6	18.5	14.3	51.2	28.5	6.0
Dominican Republic	2000	15.6	39.4	33.9	11.0	41.9	38.1	17.3	2.8
	2003	13.0	39.0	36.3	11.7	30.9	40.0	25.1	4.0
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 (Bolivarian Republic of) 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
	2003	12.1	49.2	26.7	12.0

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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, 1980–2003 (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
	2002	17.8	40.2	36.7	5.3	47.5	37.7	14.1	0.7
Chile	1990	5.3	32.6	45.4	16.7	14.7	55.9	24.7	4.6
	1994	3.8	30.3	47.2	18.6	12.5	54.0	28.2	5.3
	2000	2.5	29.2	52.5	15.8	7.4	47.2	39.8	5.6
	2003	1.1	27.3	52.6	18.9	4.6	44.7	44.9	5.8
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
	2003	14.8	37.9	34.5	12.8	43.9	41.1	13.0	2.0
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
	2003	14.3	51.6	25.7	8.3	42.0	52.6	4.8	0.6
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, 1980–2003 (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 (Metropolitan area of 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
	2002	4.8	29.2	43.3	22.7	26.8	46.3	20.9	6.0
Dominican Republic	2000	10.6	31.8	40.2	17.4	32.5	39.4	23.9	4.2
	2003	8.4	32.8	39.9	18.8	21.1	35.8	33.2	9.9
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 (Bolivarian Republic of) 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
	2003	6.8	40.9	33.1	19.2

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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, 1980–2003 (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
	2002	41.4	21.7	24.8	12.1	81.8	10.9	6.2	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
	2003	8.8	21.5	42.0	27.8	30.2	45.1	19.4	5.3
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
	2003	26.9	30.4	24.3	18.3	69.4	22.8	5.9	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
	2003	29.7	37.8	20.0	12.5	68.5	27.4	3.2	0.9
Mexico a/	1989	29.5	47.2	9.6	13.7	70.0	25.1	2.3	2.6
	1994	23.0	48.4	11.8	16.8	63.3	31.4	3.4	1.9
	1998	19.7	49.0	13.1	16.8	51.9	38.0	4.6	2.9
	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, 1980–2003 (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 (Metropolitan area of 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
	2002	21.1	15.0	31.3	32.5	60.2	19.8	13.9	6.0
Dominican Republic	2000	26.4	29.0	23.5	21.1	58.6	26.6	10.4	4.3
	2003	25.1	27.7	24.5	22.7	48.3	29.8	14.2	7.7
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 (Bolivarian Republic of) 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
	2003	18.0	42.7	20.6	18.7

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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, 1980–2003 (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		20.7
	2002	8.5	39.0	31.4	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
	2002	42.1	22.5	23.9	11.5	83.2	10.7	5.2	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
	2003	7.9	21.0	42.1	29.0	29.3	46.6	19.0	5.1
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
	2003	21.6	33.2	24.5	20.8	64.6	26.6	7.0	1.8
Guatemala	1989	45.3	29.9	13.9	10.9	87.9	9.9	1.6	0.6
	1998	34.2	34.6	17.9	13.3	82.2	14.1	3.1	0.6
	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
	2003	29.7	38.5	18.0	13.8	69.5	26.8	2.7	1.0
Mexico a/	1989	25.3	43.9	10.7	20.1	66.8	25.7	3.6	3.9
	1994	19.8	45.5	12.3	22.4	59.7	33.0	4.4	2.9
	1998	17.2	44.3	15.7	20.9	47.5	38.2	5.4	3.6
	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, 1980–2003 (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 (Metropolitan area of 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
	2002	15.6	14.6	34.8	34.9	50.3	23.6	18.4	7.6
Dominican Republic	2000	25.9	30.1	23.2	20.8	56.9	28.2	9.9	5.0
	2003	24.1	30.2	24.0	21.8	48.2	31.3	13.6	6.9
Uruguay	1981	26.6	47.4	18.3	7.7
	1990	17.5	47.4	23.4	11.7
	1994	14.7	47.7	25.7	11.9
	1999	9.8	50.2	26.6	13.4
	2002	8.5	46.1	26.7	18.7
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) 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
	2003	18.7	44.3	20.4	16.5

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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, 1980–2003 (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
	2002	6.8	35.1		30.4
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
	2002	40.8	21.0	25.6	12.6	80.2	11.2	7.2	1.4
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
	2003	9.5	22.0	41.9	26.6	31.0	43.6	19.8	5.6
Colombia b/	1980	55.5	23.5	13.7	7.4
	1990	39.9	23.9	22.9	13.3
	1991	42.3	23.0	21.1	13.6	78.4	12.4	7.3	2.0
	1994	37.6	23.0	25.3	14.2	75.5	12.6	9.7	2.2
	1999	34.6	21.8	27.7	16.0	71.5	12.9	11.5	4.1
	2002	33.8	19.1	26.9	20.1	69.7	13.5	11.7	5.1
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
	2003	31.2	28.3	24.1	16.4	73.5	19.6	5.1	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
	2003	29.7	37.2	21.6	11.5	67.6	28.0	3.7	0.7
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, 1980–2003 (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 (Metropolitan area of 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
	2002	26.0	15.4	28.2	30.3	70.1	16.0	9.5	4.5
Dominican Republic	2000	26.8	28.2	23.7	21.4	60.4	25.0	10.9	3.6
	2003	26.0	25.5	24.9	23.6	48.4	28.2	14.9	8.6
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 (Bolivarian Republic of) 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
	2003	17.2	41.1	20.8	20.9

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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, 1980–2003 (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
	2002	35.0	24.5	28.8	11.6	76.6	15.1	7.4	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
	2003	7.6	19.9	44.1	28.4	27.3	42.3	24.5	5.8
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	66.1	14.2	14.6	5.2
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
	2003	25.4	31.7	25.8	17.1	61.8	28.3	8.1	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
	2003	28.6	39.7	20.3	11.3	63.6	32.1	3.3	1.0
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, 1980–2003 (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 (Metropolitan area of 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
	2002	19.7	17.2	33.4	29.7	56.0	24.0	15.0	5.0
Dominican Republic	2000	22.7	29.0	26.2	22.1	54.6	27.7	12.6	5.0
	2003	21.5	27.6	27.3	23.6	45.5	29.2	16.9	8.4
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 (Bolivarian Republic of) 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
	2003	17.1	42.2	22.3	18.4

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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, 1980–2003 (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
	2001	40.1	26.0	24.5	9.3	80.8	13.4	5.1	0.6
	2002	38.4	25.7	26.1	9.8	78.5	14.8	6.0	0.7
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
	2003	7.9	21.6	44.4	26.1	29.8	43.8	22.0	4.4
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	70.8	13.3	12.2	3.7
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
	2003	23.1	34.4	25.6	17.0	61.9	29.0	7.7	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
	2003	30.5	41.4	17.4	10.7	66.0	30.8	2.4	0.7
Mexico a/	1989	23.3	48.5	12.3	15.9	59.8	34.1	3.5	2.5
	1994	19.1	49.6	13.4	17.8	54.5	39.9	3.7	1.9
	1998	17.0	49.0	16.2	17.8	46.5	44.1	6.4	3.0
	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, 1980–2003 (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 (Metropolitan area of 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
	2002	16.3	17.8	36.7	29.1	48.3	27.2	18.7	5.8
Dominican Republic	2000	25.6	31.6	24.4	18.4	58.1	27.5	10.1	4.4
	2003	23.9	30.8	26.2	19.1	50.3	29.2	14.6	5.9
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 (Bolivarian Republic of) 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
	2003	19.8	45.1	20.8	14.3

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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, 1980–2003 (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
	2002	6.5	27.5		33.7
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
	2002	30.7	22.9	32.5	14.0	73.6	15.5	9.6	1.3
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
	2003	7.1	17.5	43.7	31.8	19.5	37.4	32.7	10.3
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	56.6	16.0	19.3	8.0
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
	2003	28.1	28.5	26.2	17.2	61.5	26.7	8.9	2.9
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
	2003	26.2	37.4	24.1	12.2	56.1	36.1	6.1	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, 1980–2003 (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 (Metropolitan area of 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
	2002	24.1	16.3	29.1	30.5	66.2	19.6	10.2	4.0
Dominican Republic	2000	18.7	25.3	28.7	27.3	45.3	28.4	19.5	6.8
	2003	18.1	23.1	28.9	29.9	34.4	29.3	22.1	14.2
Uruguay	1981	18.6	43.7	24.2	13.4
	1990	11.6	42.0	29.0	17.4
	1994	10.0	42.2	30.0	17.8
	1999	6.6	42.1	31.5	19.8
	2002	5.4	37.6	30.6	26.5
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) 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
	2003	13.2	37.9	24.5	24.4

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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, 1980–2003 (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
	2002	8.1	7.8	8.4	5.4	4.9	5.9
Chile	1987	9.9	9.9	10.0	7.4	7.1	7.6
	1990	10.1	10.0	10.2	7.9	7.6	8.1
	1994	10.4	10.4	10.5	8.2	8.0	8.4
	2000	10.6	10.6	10.7	8.9	8.7	9.2
	2003	10.9	10.8	11.0	9.4	9.3	9.6
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
	2003	9.2	9.1	9.2	6.0	6.0	6.0
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
	2003	7.9	7.6	8.1	4.9	4.7	5.1
Mexico a/	1984	9.7	9.9	9.5	8.3	8.5	8.1
	1989	8.7	8.9	8.6	6.8	6.8	6.7
	1994	8.9	9.0	8.8	7.0	6.9	7.1
	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, 1980–2003 (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 (Metropolitan area of 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
	2002	10.3	10.2	10.4	7.7	8.1	7.2
Dominican Republic	2000	9.4	8.8	9.9	6.7	6.3	7.2
	2003	9.6	9.1	10.0	7.8	7.3	8.4
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 (Bolivarian Republic of) 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
	2003	9.0	8.5	9.6

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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, 1980–2003 (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
	2002	7.3	7.2	7.4	3.4	3.2	3.6
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
	2003	11.1	11.3	10.9	7.3	7.3	7.2
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	5.1	5.0	5.2
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
	2003	8.6	9.2	8.2	3.8	4.1	3.5
Guatemala	1989	5.6	6.4	4.9	1.5	1.9	1.1
	1998	6.5	7.2	5.8	1.9	2.4	1.4
	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
	2003	7.5	7.5	7.4	3.5	3.4	3.6
Mexico a/	1984	8.4	8.8	8.1	6.9	7.1	6.7
	1989	7.5	8.1	7.0	4.7	5.0	4.5
	1994	8.0	8.5	7.6	5.0	5.3	4.8
	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, 1980–2003 (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 (Metropolitan area of 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
	2002	10.4	11.1	9.8	5.4	6.5	4.3
Dominican Republic	2000	8.9	8.9	8.9	5.1	5.2	5.0
	2003	9.1	9.1	9.1	6.1	6.0	6.2
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 (Bolivarian Republic of) 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
	2003	8.6	8.4	8.9

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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, 1980–2003 (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
	2002	7.8	7.4	8.3	3.7	3.5	4.0
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
	2003	11.3	11.1	11.6	7.7	7.3	8.7
Colombia b/	1980	7.1	7.2	6.9
	1990	8.7	8.6	8.8
	1991	8.4	8.2	8.6	4.3	4.1	4.9
	1994	8.6	8.4	8.9	4.7	4.3	5.6
	1999	8.9	8.7	9.1	5.1	4.7	6.1
	2002	9.5	9.2	9.8	5.5	5.1	6.4
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
	2003	8.7	8.8	8.5	4.4	4.3	4.6
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
	2003	7.4	7.2	7.8	3.8	3.5	4.4
Mexico a/	1984	8.9	8.8	9.0	7.2	7.2	7.3
	1989	8.0	8.0	8.1	5.2	5.2	5.2
	1994	8.3	8.3	8.3	5.5	5.5	5.5
	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, 1980–2003 (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 (Metropolitan area of 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
	2002	10.3	10.6	9.9	5.4	6.3	4.3
Dominican Republic	2000	9.3	8.8	10.0	5.5	5.1	6.5
	2003	9.5	9.0	10.2	6.4	5.8	7.7
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 (Bolivarian Republic of) 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
	2003	8.7	8.1	9.5

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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, CIRCA 2003 (Percentages)														
Country	Year	Sex	Educational status										Total	
			Dropouts					Students and graduates						
			Did not enter educational system	Early dropouts (during primary cycle)	Dropouts at end of primary cycle	Dropouts at beginning of secondary cycle	Dropouts at end of secondary cycle	Dropout subtotal	Students who are badly 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/	2002	Both sexes	2.2	15.5	3.8		2.2	21.5	24.2	11.2	29.2	11.7	76.3	100.0
		Males	2.9	16.4	3.5		2.2	22.1	27.8	11.7	25.8	9.7	75.0	100.0
		Females	1.5	14.6	4.0		2.1	20.7	20.5	10.8	32.6	13.8	77.7	100.0
Chile	2003	Both sexes	0.3	2.9	3.4	2.3	3.1	11.7	6.0	13.8	50.7	17.5	88.0	100.0
		Males	0.4	3.4	3.5	2.2	2.8	11.9	6.9	15.5	48.6	16.8	87.8	100.0
		Females	0.2	2.5	3.4	2.4	3.5	11.8	5.1	11.9	52.8	18.3	88.1	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/	2003	Both sexes	4.7	28.2	6.3		2.1	36.6	10.3	7.5	32.2	8.8	58.8	100.0
		Males	4.9	26.8	5.9		1.9	34.6	12.5	8.7	31.6	7.7	60.5	100.0
		Females	4.4	29.7	6.7		2.2	38.6	8.1	6.4	32.8	9.9	57.2	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	2003	Both sexes	6.1	17.1	26.7	3.4	2.5	49.7	13.3	6.9	17.0	7.1	44.3	100.0
		Males	7.0	19.8	27.7	3.2	1.8	52.5	13.1	6.6	15.1	5.7	40.5	100.0
		Females	5.3	14.4	25.7	3.5	3.2	46.8	13.5	7.2	18.8	8.6	48.1	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, CIRCA 2003 (Percentages)														
Country	Year	Sex	Educational status										Total	
			Drop-outs					Students and graduates						
			Did not enter educational system	Early dropouts (during primary cycle)	Dropouts at end of primary cycle	Dropouts at beginning of secondary cycle	Dropouts at end of secondary cycle	Dropout subtotal	Students who are badly 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	2002	Both sexes	0.9	5.9	6.8	5.1	3.8	21.6	13.4	10.2	27.4	26.5	77.5	100.0
		Males	0.7	4.4	6.6	5.2	3.7	19.9	15.3	11.1	27.0	26.0	79.4	100.0
		Females	1.0	7.4	7.1	4.9	4.0	23.4	11.3	9.3	27.9	27.2	75.7	100.0
Dominican Republic	2003	Both sexes	2.7	10.6	2.8	1.2	1.4	16.0	16.8	12.2	38.7	13.7	81.4	100.0
		Males	3.3	12.2	2.5	0.6	1.2	16.5	21.4	13.8	34.8	10.3	80.3	100.0
		Females	2.1	8.8	3.1	1.9	1.6	15.4	11.9	10.5	42.8	17.3	82.5	100.0
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) c/	2003	Both sexes	1.7	23.9	3.0	1.0		27.9	13.8	8.9	22.7	25.0	70.4	100.0
		Males	2.1	28.6	2.5	0.8		31.9	15.8	9.6	20.6	19.9	65.9	100.0
		Females	1.3	19.0	3.4	1.2		23.6	11.8	8.1	25.0	30.3	75.2	100.0

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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 "Dropouts at beginning of secondary cycle" is included in the category "Drop outs at end of secondary cycle".

c/ Since this country's secondary cycle is only two years long, the category "Dropouts 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, CIRCA 2003 (Percentages)														
Country	Year	Sex	Educational status										Total	
			Dropouts					Students and graduates						
			Did not enter educational system	Early dropouts (during primary cycle)	Dropouts at end of primary cycle	Dropouts at beginning of secondary cycle	Dropouts at end of secondary cycle	Dropout subtotal	Students who are badly behind	Students who are slightly behind	Up-to-date students	Graduates		Subtotal students and graduates
Argentina b/	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
Argentina	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 c/	2001	Both sexes	1.6	13.5	3.9	2.3	19.7	21.5	11.6	32.1	13.3	78.5	100.0	
		Males	2.1	14.4	3.7	2.4	20.5	25.0	12.3	28.8	11.3	77.4	100.0	
		Females	1.2	12.6	4.0	2.3	18.9	18.2	11.0	35.4	15.4	80.0	100.0	
Chile	2003	Both sexes	0.3	2.0	2.8	2.2	3.0	10.0	5.7	13.8	51.9	18.5	89.9	100.0
		Males	0.4	2.4	2.8	2.1	2.6	9.9	6.4	15.5	50.0	17.8	89.7	100.0
		Females	0.1	1.7	2.7	2.2	3.4	10.0	4.9	11.9	53.8	19.3	89.9	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 c/	2003	Both sexes	2.1	17.9	6.0	2.7	26.6	9.0	7.9	41.3	13.1	71.3	100.0	
		Males	1.6	17.6	5.3	2.6	25.5	10.5	9.7	41.0	11.7	72.9	100.0	
		Females	2.6	18.2	6.6	2.9	27.7	7.4	6.1	41.6	14.5	69.6	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
Honduras	2003	Both sexes	2.8	8.5	19.3	4.6	3.2	35.6	13.2	8.6	26.9	12.8	61.5	100.0
		Males	3.1	10.1	20.3	4.5	2.9	37.8	12.8	8.6	26.9	10.7	59.0	100.0
		Females	2.5	7.2	18.5	4.6	3.6	33.9	13.6	8.6	26.9	14.6	63.7	100.0

Table 36 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): CLASSIFICATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 BY EDUCATIONAL STATUS, a/ URBAN AREAS, CIRCA 2003 (Percentages)														
Country	Year	Sex	Educational status										Total	
			Dropouts					Students and graduates						
			Did not enter educational system	Early dropouts (during primary cycle)	Dropouts at end of primary cycle	Dropouts at beginning of secondary cycle	Dropouts at end of secondary cycle	Dropout subtotal	Students who are badly behind	Students who are slightly behind	Up-to-date students	Graduates		Subtotal students and graduates
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 d/	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
Paraguay	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	2002	Both sexes	0.5	2.8	3.0	5.0	4.2	15.0	9.7	9.0	32.2	33.6	84.5	100.0
		Males	0.5	2.6	3.0	5.4	4.1	15.1	10.9	9.4	31.4	32.5	84.2	100.0
		Females	0.5	3.0	3.0	4.5	4.3	14.8	8.4	8.5	33.1	34.8	84.8	100.0
Dominican Republic	2003	Both sexes	1.7	7.5	2.7	1.4	1.3	12.9	14.2	13.5	40.8	16.9	85.4	100.0
		Males	2.2	9.1	2.6	0.7	1.2	13.6	16.8	16.1	37.5	13.8	84.2	100.0
		Females	1.2	5.9	2.8	2.2	1.5	12.4	11.6	10.8	44.0	19.9	86.3	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 (Bolivarian Republic of) e/	2003	Both sexes	1.7	23.9	3.0	1.0		27.9	13.8	8.9	22.7	25.0	70.4	100.0
		Males	2.1	28.6	2.5	0.8		31.9	15.8	9.6	20.6	19.9	65.9	100.0
		Females	1.3	19.0	3.4	1.2		23.6	11.8	8.1	25.0	30.3	75.2	100.0

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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/ Greater Buenos Aires.

c/ Since these countries' secondary cycle is only three years long, the category "Dropouts at beginning of secondary cycle" is included in the category "Dropouts at end of secondary cycle".

d/ Metropolitan area of Asunción and the Central Department.

e/ Nationwide total. Since Venezuela's secondary cycle is only two years long, the category "Dropouts 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, CIRCA 2003 (Percentages)														
Country	Year	Sex	Educational status										Total	
			Dropouts					Students and graduates						
			Did not enter educational system	Early dropouts (during primary cycle)	Dropouts at end of primary cycle	Dropouts at beginning of secondary cycle	Dropouts at end of secondary cycle	Dropout subtotal	Students who are badly 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	5.0	25.5	3.4		1.2	30.1	37.3	9.2	14.6	3.7	64.8	100.0
		Males	6.4	25.6	2.7		1.3	29.6	40.9	8.7	12.0	2.4	64.0	100.0
		Females	3.3	25.4	4.2		1.2	30.8	33.2	9.8	17.7	5.1	65.8	100.0
Chile	2003	Both sexes	0.5	8.7	7.7	3.0	4.0	23.4	8.3	13.7	42.9	11.2	76.1	100.0
		Males	0.4	9.6	7.8	2.8	4.0	24.2	9.9	15.1	39.8	10.6	75.4	100.0
		Females	0.6	7.7	7.5	3.3	4.1	22.6	6.5	12.2	46.4	11.8	76.9	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/	2003	Both sexes	7.9	41.6	6.7		1.2	49.5	11.9	7.1	20.4	3.1	42.5	100.0
		Males	9.1	38.7	6.6		1.2	46.5	15.0	7.5	19.4	2.4	44.3	100.0
		Females	6.7	44.5	6.8		1.3	52.6	8.9	6.7	21.3	3.9	40.8	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	2003	Both sexes	9.1	24.8	33.4	2.2	1.8	62.2	13.4	5.4	7.9	1.9	28.6	100.0
		Males	10.0	27.5	33.6	2.2	0.9	64.2	13.4	5.1	5.7	1.6	25.8	100.0
		Females	8.1	21.9	33.3	2.2	2.8	60.2	13.4	5.7	10.3	2.2	31.6	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, CIRCA 2003 (Percentages)														
Country	Year	Sex	Educational status										Total	
			Dropouts					Students and graduates						
			Did not enter educational system	Early dropouts (during primary cycle)	Dropouts at end of primary cycle	Dropouts at beginning of secondary cycle	Dropouts at end of secondary cycle	Dropout subtotal	Students who are badly 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	2002	Both sexes	1.6	11.7	14.1	5.3	3.1	34.2	20.4	12.5	18.2	13.0	64.1	100.0
		Males	1.1	7.7	12.9	5.0	2.9	28.5	23.1	14.0	19.1	14.2	70.4	100.0
		Females	2.2	16.5	15.5	5.6	3.4	41.0	17.2	10.9	17.1	11.6	56.8	100.0
Dominican Republic	2003	Both sexes	4.7	16.5	2.9	0.8	1.5	21.7	21.9	9.7	34.6	7.4	73.6	100.0
		Males	5.2	17.5	2.3	0.4	1.2	21.4	29.3	9.7	30.1	4.0	73.1	100.0
		Females	4.1	15.3	3.6	1.2	1.9	22.0	12.7	9.6	40.0	11.6	73.9	100.0

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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 "Dropouts at beginning of secondary cycle" is included in the category "Dropouts at end of secondary cycle".

Table 38

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): OVERALL DROPOUT RATE ^{a/} AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19, 1990–2003 (Percentages)										
Country	Year	Nationwide			Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina b/	1990	36	38	33
	2002	16	17	15
Argentina d/	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
	2002	22	23	21	20	21	19	32	32	32
Chile	1990	27	27	28	21	20	21	56	57	56
	2003	12	12	12	10	10	10	24	24	23
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
	2003	38	36	40	27	26	28	54	51	56
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
	2003	53	57	49	37	39	35	69	71	66
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 c/	1994	34	26	41
	2001	25	25	26
Paraguay d/	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
	2002	22	20	24	15	15	15	35	29	42
Dominican Republic	1997	23	25	21	19	23	17	28	28	28
	2003	16	17	16	13	14	13	23	23	23
Uruguay	1990	37	41	32
	2002	30	34	25
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	1990	44	46	41	40	42	38	65	69	61
	2003	28	33	24

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

a/ The methodology for calculating dropout rates is described in ECLAC, *Social Panorama of Latin America 2001–2002* (LC/G.2183–P), boxes III.1 and III.5.

b/ Greater Buenos Aires.

c/ Metropolitan area of Asunción and the Central Department.

d/ Urban areas.

Table 39

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): EARLY DROPOUT RATE ^{a/} AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19, 1990–2003 (Percentages)										
Country	Year	Nationwide			Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina ^{b/}	1990	2	2	2
	2002	3	4	2
Argentina ^{d/}	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
	2002	16	17	15	14	15	13	27	27	26
Chile	1990	11	12	10	7	7	6	30	32	28
	2003	3	3	2	2	2	2	9	10	8
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
	2003	30	28	31	18	18	19	45	43	48
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
	2003	18	21	15	9	10	7	27	31	24
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 ^{c/}	1994	7	6	7
	2001	5	5	6
Paraguay ^{d/}	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
	2002	6	4	8	3	3	3	12	8	17
Dominican Republic	1997	17	19	16	12	14	11	25	25	24
	2003	11	13	9	8	9	6	17	19	16
Uruguay	1990	2	3	2
	2002	3	3	2
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	1990	36	40	31	32	35	28	61	66	55
	2003	24	29	19

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

a/ The methodology for calculating dropout rates is described in ECLAC, *Social Panorama of Latin America 2001–2002* (LC/G.2.183–P), boxes III.1 and III.5.

b/ Greater Buenos Aires.

c/ Metropolitan area of Asunción and the Central Department.

d/ Urban areas.

Table 40

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): DROPOUT RATE AT THE END OF THE PRIMARY CYCLE ^{a/} AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19, 1990–2003 (Percentages)										
Country	Year	Nationwide			Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina ^{b/}	1990	20	20	20
	2002	5	6	4
Argentina ^{d/}	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
	2002	5	4	5	5	4	5	5	4	6
Chile	1990	8	7	8	5	4	5	24	23	25
	2003	4	4	3	3	3	3	8	9	8
Colombia	1991	18	19	17	10	9	10	32	34	29
	2002	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
	2003	9	9	10	7	7	8	13	13	14
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
	2003	35	38	32	22	23	20	51	54	48
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 ^{c/}	1994	15	7	20
	2001	9	7	11
Paraguay ^{d/}	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
	2002	7	7	8	3	3	3	16	14	19
Dominican Republic	1997	3	4	3	4	5	4	2	2	3
	2003	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	4
Uruguay	1990	13	14	12
	2002	10	13	7
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	1990	5	4	5	5	4	5	5	4	5
	2003	4	4	4

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

^{a/} The methodology for calculating dropout rates is described in ECLAC, *Social Panorama of Latin America 2001–2002* (LC/G.2183–P), boxes III.1 and III.5.

^{b/} Greater Buenos Aires.

^{c/} Metropolitan area of Asunción and the Central Department.

^{d/} Urban areas.

Table 41

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): DROPOUT RATE DURING THE SECONDARY CYCLE a/ AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19, 1990–2003 (Percentages)										
Country	Year	Nationwide			Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina b/	1990	17	20	15
	2002	9	8	10
Argentina d/	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
	2002	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	2
Chile	1990	11	11	12	11	10	11	19	18	19
	2003	6	5	6	5	5	6	8	8	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
	2003	3	3	4	4	3	4	3	3	3
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
	2003	12	11	12	11	11	11	12	11	14
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 c/	1994	18	15	20
	2001	13	15	12
Paraguay d/	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
	2002	10	10	11	10	10	9	12	10	14
Dominican Republic	1997	3	4	3	4	6	3	2	2	3
	2003	3	2	4	3	2	4	3	2	4
Uruguay	1990	25	30	21
	2002	20	21	18
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	1990	8	6	9	8	6	9	7	5	9
	2003	1	1	2

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

a/ The methodology for calculating dropout rates is described in ECLAC, *Social Panorama of Latin America 2001–2002* (LC/G.2.183–P), boxes III.1 and III.5.

b/ Greater Buenos Aires.

c/ Metropolitan area of Asunción and the Central Department.

d/ Urban areas.

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, 1980–2003 (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
	2003	3.5	3.6	3.4	3.8	3.9	3.8
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, 1980–2003 (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 (Metropolitan area of 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 (Bolivarian Republic of) ^{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: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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, 1980–2003 (Averages)											
Country	Year	Urban areas					Rural areas				
		Average CEMIT					Average 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
	2003	8.0	3.4	3.9	5.6	14.3	6.0	3.8	4.5	6.6	20.2
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

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, 1980–2003 (Averages)											
Country	Year	Urban areas					Rural areas				
		Average CEMIT					Average CEMIT				
		Total	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	Total	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
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
Paraguay (Metropolitan area of 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 (Bolivarian Republic of) ^{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: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (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 (Bolivarian Republic of) (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: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), based on information from the 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, 1990/1991–2000/2001							
Country & coverage b/	Period	Public social spending on education a/			Public social spending on health a/		
		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, 1990/1991–2000/2001							
Country & coverage b/	Period	Public social spending on education a/			Public social spending on health a/		
		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 (Bolivarian Republic of) (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: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), based on information from the 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.