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2006



Social Panorama

OF LATIN AMERICA



UNITED NATIONS



The *Social Panorama of Latin America* is prepared each year by the Social Development Division and the Statistics and Economic Projections Division of ECLAC, under the supervision of their directors, Andras Uthoff and Horacio Santamaria, respectively. The Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE)–Population Division of ECLAC, under the supervision of Dirk Jaspers–Fajfer, also took part in preparing the 2006 edition, for which support was provided by the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) in the framework of the ECLAC–UNFPA regional programme on population and development in Latin America and the Caribbean, 2005–2007. Work on the document was coordinated by Juan Carlos Feres and Arturo León, who, together with Irma Arriagada, Simone Cecchini, Ernesto Espíndola, Fabiana Del Popolo, Ana María Oyarce, Xavier Mancero and Fernando Medina, were also responsible for preparing the individual chapters. Statistical information and other inputs were prepared and processed by Mario Acuña, María de la Luz Avendaño, Yolanda Bodnar, Juan Chackiel, Carlos Daroch, Fabiana Del Popolo, Ernesto Espíndola, Marco Galván, Carlos Howes, Francisca Miranda, Ana María Oyarce, Bruno Ribotta, Susana Schkolnik, Víctor Toledo and Daniela Vono.

Notes and explanation of symbols

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

- Three dots (...) indicate that data are missing, are not available or are not separately reported.
- Two dashes and a full stop (-.) indicate that the sample size is too small to be used as a basis for arriving at reliable, sufficiently accurate estimates of the corresponding values.
- A dash (-) indicates that the amount is nil or negligible.
- A blank space in a table indicates that the category under consideration is not applicable or not comparable.
- A minus sign (-) indicates a deficit or decrease, except where otherwise specified.
- Use of a hyphen (–) between years, e.g. 1990–1998, indicates that reference is being made to the entire period involved, including the beginning and end years.
- A slash (/) between figures expressing years (e.g., 2003/2005) indicates that the information given corresponds to one of these two 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 due to rounding.

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Abstract

The *Social Panorama of Latin America, 2006* analyses the progress made in reducing poverty and unemployment, improving income distribution in several countries and accelerating job creation, which are the main factors underlying the positive trend seen in a number of countries in the region. In the last four years (2003–2006), the region has turned in its best economic and social performance of the past 25 years.

This edition of the *Social Panorama* provides the most recent poverty estimates and projections prepared by the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC). These figures are then used as a basis for a fresh examination of the countries' progress towards the first target set in relation to the Millennium Development Goals. The first chapter also analyses recent income distribution trends in the Latin American countries and compares them with measurements of absolute and relative poverty based on the criteria used by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD).

The second chapter deals with changes in the main labour market indicators and compares trends in 1990–2002 with those for the last three years. The analysis focuses on the level and composition of unemployment, trends in labour force participation and job creation in urban areas. The quality of wage employment is discussed with reference to trends in real wages, types of contracts and social security coverage.

The chapter on indigenous peoples provides a sociodemographic overview from the perspective of the new international standard on indigenous peoples' individual and collective rights, whose implementation is compulsory for all States. In this regard, two main points are discussed: first, indigenous peoples' emergence as active social and political actors and, second, the consolidation of the international standard of rights and its public policy implications. The chapter also looks at indigenous peoples' settlement patterns and age structure, as well as their higher fertility and higher infant and child mortality rates.

Chapter IV, which focuses on the social agenda, provides an updated analysis of shifts in family structure and looks at family policies and programmes in the region and how they have changed. The study's findings in this respect point to the need to develop a new approach to such initiatives.

This last chapter also refers to meetings relating to the international social agenda that were held during the year and summarizes the agreements and recommendations arising from the thirty-first session of ECLAC, whose core theme was social protection.

Summary

In the last four years (2003–2006), Latin America has turned in its best economic and social performance of the past 25 years. Progress with poverty reduction, falling unemployment, improving income distribution in several countries and a strong upswing in the number of jobs are the main factors underlying the positive trend in various countries of the region.

The first two chapters of the *Social Panorama of Latin America, 2006* look at the way the main social indicators have behaved in the last few years. These indicators track changes in poverty and extreme poverty levels, inequality in income distribution and the main labour market indicators. The analysis focuses in particular on the performance of urban wage employment during these years of economic reactivation and growth.

The following two chapters address matters that, for different reasons, have come to figure prominently on government agendas. The chapter on indigenous peoples adopts a rights-based perspective to examine the new realities of indigenous peoples' lives, their heterogeneity and, in particular, the new obligations of twenty-first-century democracies in this respect. The chapter on changes in family structure in Latin America looks at new public policy issues raised by the increasing heterogeneity of family types and outlines ways in which governments are responding to these new situations.

The *Social Panorama of Latin America, 2006* provides the most recent poverty estimates prepared by the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC). According to these estimates, in 2005, 39.8% of the region's population (209 million people) were poor and 15.4% (81 million) were extremely poor, or indigent. The first chapter also gives poverty projections for 2006 which indicate that the numbers of poor and indigent will decline again, to 205 million and 79 million, respectively. These figures are then used as a basis for a fresh examination of the countries' progress towards the first target set in relation to the Millennium Development Goals. The study also analyses recent income distribution trends in the Latin American countries and compares them with measurements of absolute and relative poverty based on the criteria used by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD).

The second chapter deals with changes in the main labour market indicators and compares trends in 1990–2002 with those for the last three years. The analysis focuses on the level and composition of unemployment, trends in labour force participation, especially by women, and job creation in urban areas. The quality of wage employment is discussed with reference to trends in real wages, types of contracts and social security coverage. It is concluded that the upturn in employment and, partly, in wages seen in the last two years has not been accompanied by any significant improvement in new job

quality. This evaluation indicates that the current coverage of employment-based contributory social security schemes is insufficient to sustain progress towards the institution of a universal pension and retirement scheme in which minimum benefits can be properly financed over the long run.

The chapter on indigenous peoples gives a sociodemographic overview from the perspective of the new international standard on indigenous peoples' individual and collective rights, whose implementation is compulsory for all States. In this regard, two main points are discussed: first, indigenous peoples' emergence as active social and political actors and, second, the consolidation of the international standard of rights and its public policy implications. The chapter also looks at demographic and territorial heterogeneity among countries and among indigenous peoples in terms of settlement patterns and age structure, as well as their higher fertility rates and infant and child mortality. Particular attention is devoted to the complexity and heterogeneity of indigenous population dynamics and to the persistent inequity and inequality that indigenous people face within the framework of the structural discrimination and specific cultural traits evident in Latin American countries. This poses an enormous challenge for twenty-first-century democracies in terms of State reform and policies aimed at narrowing enforceability gaps as regards indigenous peoples' individual and collective rights.

Chapter IV, which focuses on the social agenda, analyses changes in family structure and reviews family policies and programmes in the region based on the responses provided by official national agencies to a questionnaire circulated by ECLAC. The first part of the chapter, on shifts in family structure, discusses the increasingly wide variety of family types, and particularly the growing proportion of single-person and female-headed single-parent households. This trend has been coupled with a decline in the proportion of two-parent nuclear families with children and of extended families, along with a relative decline in the number of households whose heads are the sole source of financial support for all of their members. The report goes on to note that a new approach to family programmes and policies is called for in view of these changes. The second part of the chapter discusses certain aspects of the public institutions responsible for various family-related issues and associated programmes and policies, as well as identifying a number of flaws and limitations observed in the region in this regard.

The chapter also refers to meetings relating to the international social agenda that were held during the period in question and summarizes the agreements and recommendations arising from the thirty-first session of ECLAC, whose core theme was social protection.

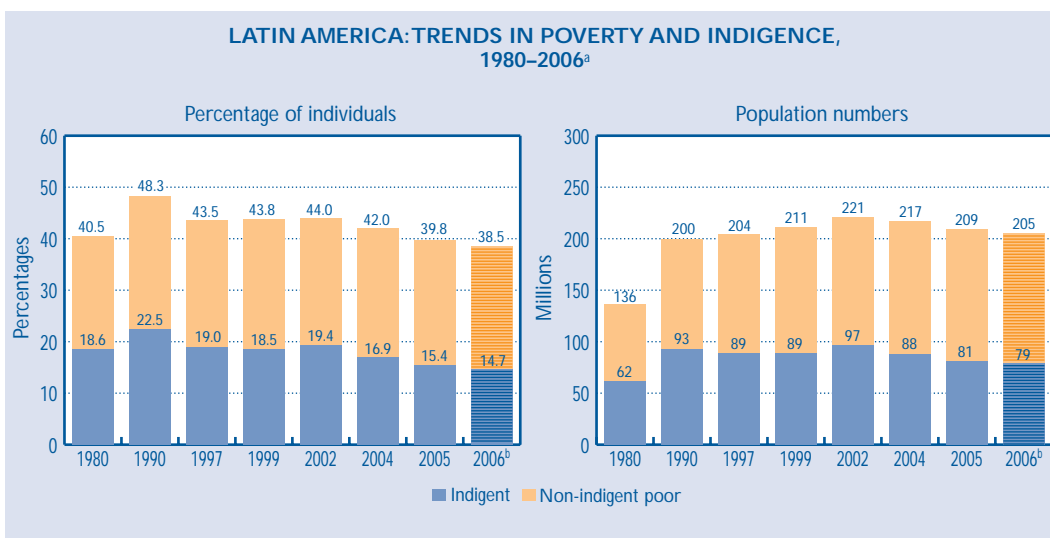
Poverty and income distribution

Recent poverty trends in Latin America

The most recent data available for the Latin American countries (for 2005) show that 39.8% of the region's population was living in poverty and 15.4% of the population was extremely poor, or indigent. The poor thus numbered 209 million in total, of which 81 million were indigent (see figure 1).¹

A comparison of these figures with those for 2002 shows great progress in poverty reduction and even larger strides in reducing indigence. The poor population shrank by 4.2 percentage points, taking the rate of 44.0% posted in 2002 as a reference. The percentage of indigents declined by a similar proportion (by 4.0 percentage points). This second variation is clearly more significant, however, given that the 2002 figure was 19.4%.

Figure 1



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

^a Estimates for 19 countries of the region. The figures shown on the orange section of the bars represent the percentage and total number of poor (indigents plus non-indigent poor).

^b Projections.

¹ The figures for 2004 and 2005 correspond to estimates based on household surveys conducted in those years, not to projections based on previous surveys, unlike the figures reported for those years in *Social Panorama of Latin America 2005*. The new poverty and indigence rates are lower than previous projections, which showed 40.6% and 16.8%, respectively, for 2005. This is mainly because of distributive improvements in a number of countries, which increased the growth elasticity of poverty, while the projections were based on the supposition of constant distribution.

Table 1

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POVERTY AND INDIGENCE, AROUND 1999, 2002 AND 2005 (Percentages of the population)									
Country	1998/1999			2000/2002			2003/2005		
	Year	Poverty	Indigence	Year	Poverty	Indigence	Year	Poverty	Indigence
Argentina ^a	1999	23.7	6.6	2002	45.4	20.9	2005	26.0	9.1
Bolivia	1999	60.6	36.4	2002	62.4	37.1	2004	63.9	34.7
Brazil	1999	37.5	12.9	2001	37.5	13.2	2005	36.3	10.6
Chile	1998	23.2	5.7	2000	20.2	5.6	2003	18.7	4.7
Colombia	1999	54.9	26.8	2002	51.1	24.6	2005	46.8	20.2
Costa Rica	1999	20.3	7.8	2002	20.3	8.2	2005	21.1	7.0
Dominican Rep.	2000	46.9	22.1	2002	44.9	20.3	2005	47.5	24.6
Ecuador ^a	1999	63.5	31.3	2002	49.0	19.4	2005	45.2	17.1
El Salvador	1999	49.8	21.9	2001	48.9	22.1	2004	47.5	19.0
Guatemala	1998	61.1	31.6	2002	60.2	30.9
Honduras	1999	79.7	56.8	2002	77.3	54.4	2003	74.8	53.9
Mexico	1998	46.9	18.5	2002	39.4	12.6	2005	35.5	11.7
Nicaragua	1998	69.9	44.6	2001	69.4	42.4
Panama	1999 ^a	25.7	8.1	2002	34.0	17.4	2005	33.0	15.7
Paraguay	1999	60.6	33.8	2001	61.0	33.2	2005	60.5	32.1
Peru	1999	48.6	22.4	2001 ^b	54.8	24.4	2004 ^b	51.1	18.9
Uruguay ^a	1999	9.4	1.8	2002	15.4	2.5	2005	18.8	4.1
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	1999	49.4	21.7	2002	48.6	22.2	2005	37.1	15.9

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

^a Urban areas.

^b Figures from the National Institute of Statistics and Informatics (INEI) of Peru. These values are not comparable with those of earlier years due to changes in the household survey's sample framework.

In view of the economic expansion expected in the Latin American countries in 2006, the figures for poverty and indigence should continue to trend downward. In 2006 the percentage of poor people is expected to decline by just over one point, to 38.5%, and the percentage of indigents by around half a percentage point, to 14.7%. If those results are achieved, the number of poor and indigent would decline again, to 205 million and 79 million, respectively.

The last four-year period (2003–2006) has thus seen Latin America's best performance, in terms of social indicators, of the last 25 years. This is the first time that the poverty rate has come in below the figure for 1980, when 40.5% of the population was classified as poor, while the indigence rate is now more than three percentage points below the 18.6% figure recorded for that year. Moreover, the new figures show a reduction for the third consecutive year in the absolute numbers of poor and indigent, which is unprecedented in the region. As a result, the projected number of poor people for 2006 should be similar to 1997, thus regaining the level observed before the Asian crisis.

However, this long-term view bears witness to the fact that the region has taken 25 years to reduce poverty to 1980 levels. The encouraging progress seen recently and the advances expected for 2006 must not be allowed, therefore, to eclipse the fact that poverty levels remain very high and that the region still has a major task ahead of it.

The reduction in poverty and indigence in recent years is partly attributable to the upswing in economic growth in the region, which contrasts sharply with the decline seen in per capita income in 1997–2002. The second factor underlying these positive trends is the distributional change seen in some Latin American countries, as discussed below.

Many countries exhibit declines in both poverty and indigence rates compared with measurements taken around 2000 and 2002. The largest improvements have been seen in Argentina and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela. In the first case, this represents a recovery from the severe crisis that struck the country in the first few years of this decade. In fact, despite the reduction, Argentina's poverty and indigence levels still exceed those of 1999, by 1.8 and 2.5 percentage points, respectively. The Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela also experienced a sharp drop in per capita GDP in 2002 and 2003 but, in the upswing that followed, was able to improve upon the pre-crisis situation. The country's poverty and indigence rates for 2005 are well below those of 1999, by 12.3 and 5.8 percentage points, respectively.

Between 2000/2002 and 2003/2005, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico and Peru also saw significant decreases in poverty levels, of 1.6 percentage points in the first case and some 4 points in the others. The percentage of indigents declined appreciably in these countries, as well as in Bolivia, Brazil, Costa Rica, El Salvador and Panama. The reduction is still evident when 1998–1999 is used as a basis for comparison, with Ecuador showing particularly strong progress over this longer period. In Ecuador's urban areas the proportion of poor decreased by 18.3 percentage points and that of indigents by 14.2 points.

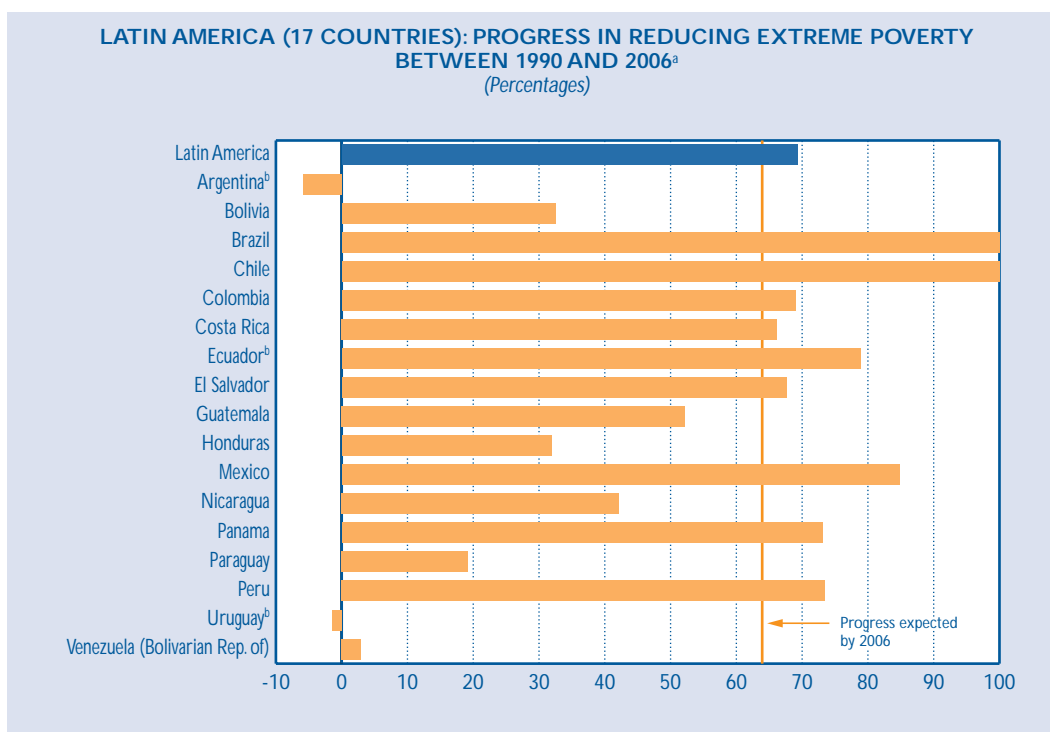
At the other extreme, the Dominican Republic and Uruguay are the only countries where both poverty and indigence rates worsened between 2002 and 2005. In both countries, this performance is the result of contrasting trends in the two subperiods. Between 2002 and 2004, the two countries witnessed a significant decline in living standards, together with an increase in the poverty rate amounting to almost 10 percentage points in the Dominican Republic and just under 6 points in Uruguay. Later, between 2004 and 2005, the two countries made partial recoveries, reducing the percentage of poor from 51.8% to 45.4% in the Dominican Republic and from 20.9% to 18.8% in Uruguay. So, although the indicators had not improved sufficiently to regain pre-crisis levels by 2005, they have nevertheless returned to a downward trend.

Progress towards achieving the first target of the Millennium Development Goals

The new poverty estimates prepared by ECLAC have been used to carry out an updated review of the countries' progress towards the first target set in relation to the Millennium Development Goals and an evaluation of the prospects for meeting that target across the region. The Commission has been engaged in these tasks since 2001, and the results have been reported in several editions of the *Social Panorama of Latin America*, as well as in *The Millennium Development Goals: A Latin American and Caribbean Perspective*.

The reduction in extreme poverty projected for 2006 corresponds to a 69% advance towards achieving the first target of the Millennium Development Goals. This progress is slightly greater than the elapsed portion of the period for achieving the target.² It may thus be said that the region as a whole is on track towards meeting its commitment to halve the 1990 extreme poverty rate by 2015 (see figure 2).

Figure 2



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

^a The percentage of progress is calculated by dividing the reduction (or increase) in indigence, expressed in percentage points, observed in the period by half of the indigence rate for 1990. The orange line represents the percentage of progress expected by 2006 (64%).

^b Urban areas.

² A total of 25 years (from 1990 to 2015) was envisaged for the target. Of this period, 16 years have elapsed, which represents 64% of the time stipulated.

Based on the progress expected in 2006 and the economic growth recorded by the countries between 1991 and 2006, it may be inferred that a large group of countries have a high probability of meeting the first target of the Millennium Development Goals (i.e., halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who are living in extreme poverty). As well as Brazil and Chile, which have already met the target, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, Mexico, Panama and Peru have made a similar or greater amount of progress than required by this timeline and should therefore also achieve the target simply by maintaining per capita income growth at a similar rate to the average for the last 16 years.

Colombia, which also recorded faster progress than expected, would have to achieve a slightly higher annual growth rate than its average for 1991–2006 in order to reach the target. This may be feasible, however, in view of the country's economic growth in the last few years.³ Uruguay, too, would require a higher growth rate than its historical average, but the small difference that separates current indigence rates from the target earns this country a place within the group classified as being very likely to meet the target.⁴

It is a rather more complex exercise to assess the possibilities of meeting the first target of the Millennium Development Goals in the case of the countries that have not made enough progress in 1991–2006 to put them on track to the target's achievement. Nevertheless, in the last few years, some of these countries have seen per capita income rise at rates well above their historical average,⁵ as is the case for the region as a whole. If these countries manage to keep their future growth rates above the average for 1990–2002, it would then be more feasible for them to halve poverty by 2015 (see figure 3).

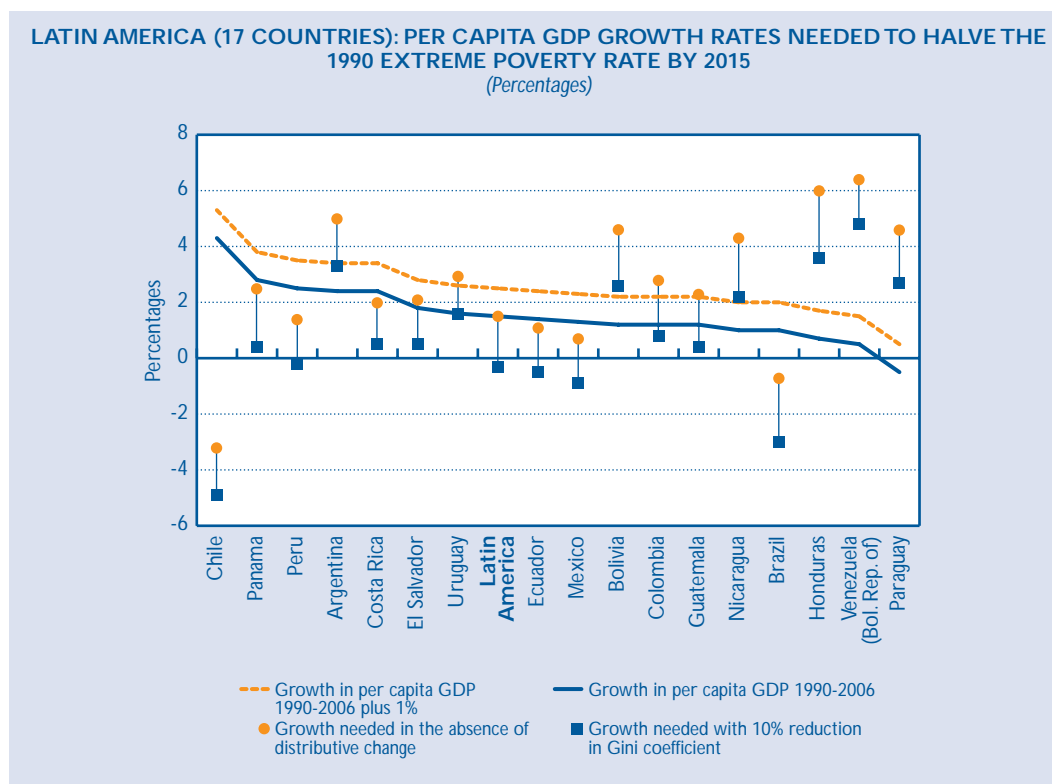
Together with economic growth, it is crucial to improve income distribution in order to raise the living standards of the poor quickly. Progress in this regard would not only enable the above-mentioned countries to reach the target more quickly, it would also increase the chances of countries with the region's highest poverty rates, such as Bolivia, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and Paraguay, of halving extreme poverty by the deadline. Although these countries would have to make a considerable effort to maintain higher growth rates and improve distribution, the region's recent positive performance in these areas provides grounds for greater optimism as regards the possibility of reaching the first target of the Millennium Development Goals (see figure 3).

³ This apparent divergence is attributable to the fact that the projections assumed that distribution would not vary significantly between 2006 and 2015, but the progress Colombia achieved in reducing its indigence rate between 1990 and 2005 was due to a distributive improvement that favoured poor households.

⁴ Uruguay's situation warrants further explanation since the projections conducted in previous years, which were based on the 2002 survey, indicated that the country was very close to achieving the target. The radical change in the situation was attributable to two factors. First, the upswing in economic growth in 2004 made it likely that extreme poverty would decrease, and not increase, as in fact happened that year. Second, Uruguay's indigence rate has recorded only small variations, but these are magnified when they are expressed as percentages. Indeed, although the level of extreme poverty is higher than it was in 1990, it is only two percentage points above the target percentage.

⁵ This is the case of Argentina, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela and Uruguay. In addition, the Venezuelan poverty figures are being reviewed, owing to the large discrepancy in the base value for 1990 between the estimates conducted by ECLAC and by the Venezuelan National Statistical Institute (INE). INE estimates a higher value for that year and thus infers a high percentage of progress towards the target. On that basis, the country would be reaching the target in late 2006, according to its own projections.

Figure 3



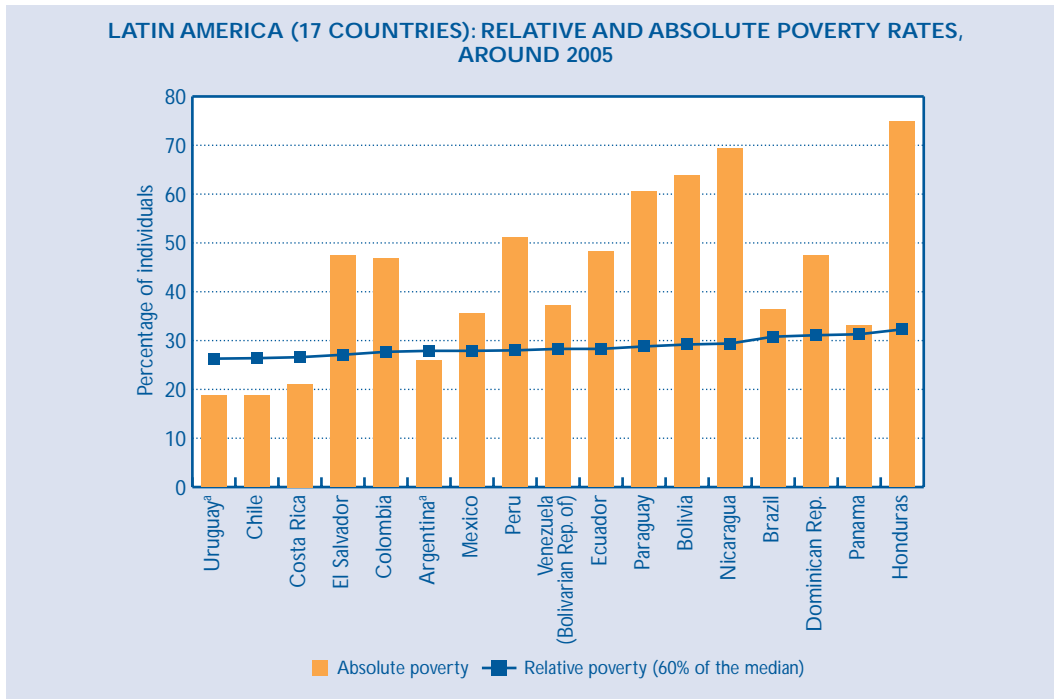
Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

The relative poverty approach

The "relative poverty" approach is based on a definition of poverty that emphasizes the inability to deploy the capacities they need to relate properly to the society in which they live. Measuring this type of relative poverty is very challenging in terms of the information required. There is a methodologically simpler alternative, however, which has been used systematically in the European Union. This method consists of setting a poverty line as a percentage of the population's mean or median income. The rationale is that, as a country grows and new needs emerge, the standard of poverty shifts on its own, without there being any need to define explicit needs. Based on this method, an assessment of relative poverty can be conducted for Latin America as a complement to the "absolute poverty" approach usually employed in the region.

Based on the indicator of 60% of median income, the incidence of relative poverty is distributed quite evenly across the region, varying between 26% and 32% in the different countries. This places the cases of greatest and least poverty less than 10 percentage points apart, contrasting sharply with measurements of absolute poverty, which show differences of over 50 percentage points between countries (see figure 4).

Figure 4



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

^a Urban areas.

Relative poverty has remained practically constant in the region for the last 15 years. Compared with 1990 levels, appreciable changes (of two percentage points of more) are evident in only four countries: an increase in Ecuador (urban areas), Mexico and Uruguay, and a decrease in Nicaragua. The variations in the other countries are too small to be considered significant.

This lack of significant changes in relative poverty is largely due to the fact that the indicator used to measure it is associated more with distributional inequality, which has remained constant in the region, than with the non-satisfaction of needs. This is reflected in the high correlation between relative poverty rates and the ratio between the average incomes of the richest and poorest quintiles, which stands at 0.75 and exceeds the correlation between relative and absolute poverty (0.56).

As a rule, the need to meet basic needs (which form the basis for absolute poverty measurements) is still the main problem to be addressed in most Latin American countries. But there is one group in particular for which the use of the relative approach could become increasingly useful. In Argentina, Chile, Costa Rica and Uruguay, absolute poverty levels are lower than relative poverty, whether the 60% or the 70% line is used as a basis for measurement. In these countries, where the most basic needs of a large segment of the population has been met, attention must be devoted to meeting needs related to individuals' ability to participate in society.

Latin American relative poverty levels, as measured using the 60% of median income threshold, exceed those observed in the 25 member countries of the European Union. This holds true not only for a comparison of simple averages in each region (29% for Latin America and 15% for the European Union), but also for maximum and minimum values. No Latin American country has a relative poverty rate of less than 26%, whereas the highest figure recorded in the European Union is 21%.

Recent trends in income distribution

Latin America's highly inequitable and intractable income distribution structure has historically been one of its most prominent traits. Inequality in the region is not only greater than it is in other world regions, but it also remained unchanged in the 1990s and took a turn for the worse at the start of the current decade.

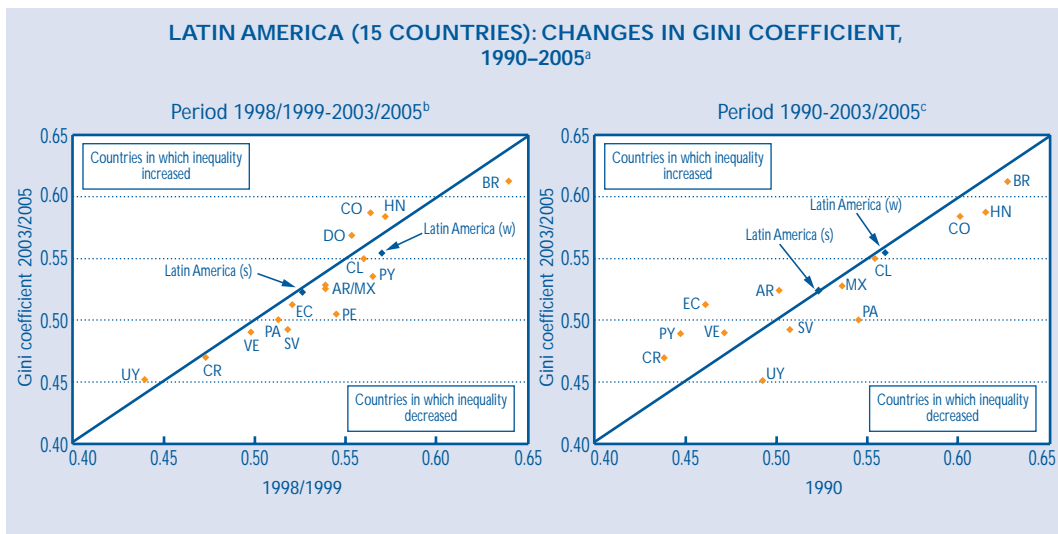
According to data from the most recent household surveys, several countries have improved their income distribution in recent years. Although small, these gains at least represent some progress with respect to the rigidity or even deterioration of distribution in earlier periods.

Comparison of the distribution of household per capita income between the periods 2003–2005 and 1998–1999 shows the gap between the poorest and richest groups narrowing in most of the countries examined. In fact, the income ratio between the richest 10% and the poorest 40% declined by between 8% and 23% in Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Brazil, Ecuador, El Salvador, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay and Peru. In all these cases, this result reflected a combination of gains made by the first four deciles and losses sustained by the richest one. Chile and Costa Rica posted no change in this indicator, while Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Honduras and Uruguay recorded increases, of which the highest was 13%.

The incipient trend towards a distributional improvement is corroborated by the use of a synthetic indicator, such the Gini index, to summarize income distribution data for the whole population. Between 1998–1999 and 2003–2005, Brazil, El Salvador, Paraguay and Peru showed appreciable decreases, of between 4% and 7%, in this indicator. Honduras was the only country to post a strong rise in the Gini coefficient (see figure 5 and table 2).

A longer-range appraisal encompassing the period 1990–2005 reveals a more varied picture. In those 15 years, two countries, Uruguay and Panama, achieved a considerable improvement in distribution (the data are for urban areas in both cases), with reductions of 8% in the Gini coefficient, followed by Honduras, with a decrease of 4%. By contrast, Ecuador (urban areas) and Paraguay (metropolitan area of Asunción) saw this indicator rise by around 10%, which represents a strong increase in income concentration. Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires), the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela and Costa Rica also recorded a significant deterioration, of between 4% and 7%.

Figure 5



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

Note: Latin America (s): simple average for Latin America.
Latin America (w): weighted average for Latin America.

- ^a Calculated on the basis of per capita income distribution. The figure for Latin America refers to a simple average of the Gini coefficients of 13 countries with comparable information for 1990–2005.
- ^b Data on urban areas for Argentina, Ecuador, Panama and Uruguay.
- ^c Data on urban areas for Ecuador, Panama and Uruguay. Data for Argentina refer to Greater Buenos Aires and those for Paraguay correspond to the metropolitan area of Asunción.

Table 2

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): STRATIFICATION OF COUNTRIES BY GINI COEFFICIENT OF INCOME DISTRIBUTION, AROUND 1999, 2002 AND 2005 ^a						
Level of inequality	Around 1999		Around 2002		Around 2005	
Very high 0.580 – 1	Brazil	0.640	Brazil	0.639	Bolivia (2002)	0.614
	Bolivia	0.586	Bolivia	0.614	Brazil	0.613
	Nicaragua	0.584	Honduras	0.588	Honduras	0.587
					Colombia	0.584
High 0.520 – 0.579	Colombia	0.572	Nicaragua	0.579	Nicaragua (2001)	0.579
	Paraguay	0.565	Argentina ^b	0.578	Dominican Rep.	0.569
	Honduras	0.564	Paraguay	0.570	Chile	0.550
	Chile	0.560	Colombia	0.569	Guatemala (2002)	0.542
	Guatemala	0.560	Chile	0.559	Paraguay	0.536
	Dominican Rep.	0.554	Dominican Rep.	0.544	Mexico	0.528
	Peru	0.545	Guatemala	0.542	Argentina ^b	0.526
	Argentina ^b	0.539	El Salvador	0.525		
	Mexico	0.539	Peru	0.525		
	Ecuador ^b	0.521	Panama ^b	0.515		
Mid-level 0.470 – 0.519	El Salvador	0.518	Mexico	0.514	Ecuador ^b	0.513
	Panama ^b	0.513	Ecuador ^b	0.513	Peru	0.505
	Venezuela, (Bol. Rep. of)	0.498	Venezuela, (Bol. Rep. of)	0.500	Panama ^b	0.500
	Costa Rica	0.473	Costa Rica	0.488	El Salvador	0.493
				Venezuela, (Bol. Rep. of)	0.490	
				Costa Rica	0.470	
Low 0 – 0.469	Uruguay ^b	0.440	Uruguay ^b	0.455	Uruguay ^b	0.451

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

^a The upper and lower Gini index values for each category are those used in chapter I of *Social Panorama of Latin America, 2004*. These were determined by using a logarithm of statistical stratification of k-means. This methodology is used to generate internally homogenous strata but with maximum variability between them.

^b Urban areas.

Wage inequality

Labour incomes are a fundamental dimension of any analysis of income distribution and of research into the causes of distributive inequality. This section of the *Social Panorama* looks at some of the determinants of labour income distribution and how they evolved between the start of the 1990s and the beginning of this decade.

The education of the labour force is one of the crucial factors in explaining wage-earning capacity. The increase in wages associated with one additional year of schooling, which is usually referred to as the "rate of return to education", averaged 0.14

in the countries that were analysed based on data for around 2002. The cross-country dispersion of this indicator is relatively small, with the lowest returns being reported in El Salvador (0.10) and in Argentina and Colombia (0.11 each), and the highest in Brazil (0.17) and Chile (0.18).

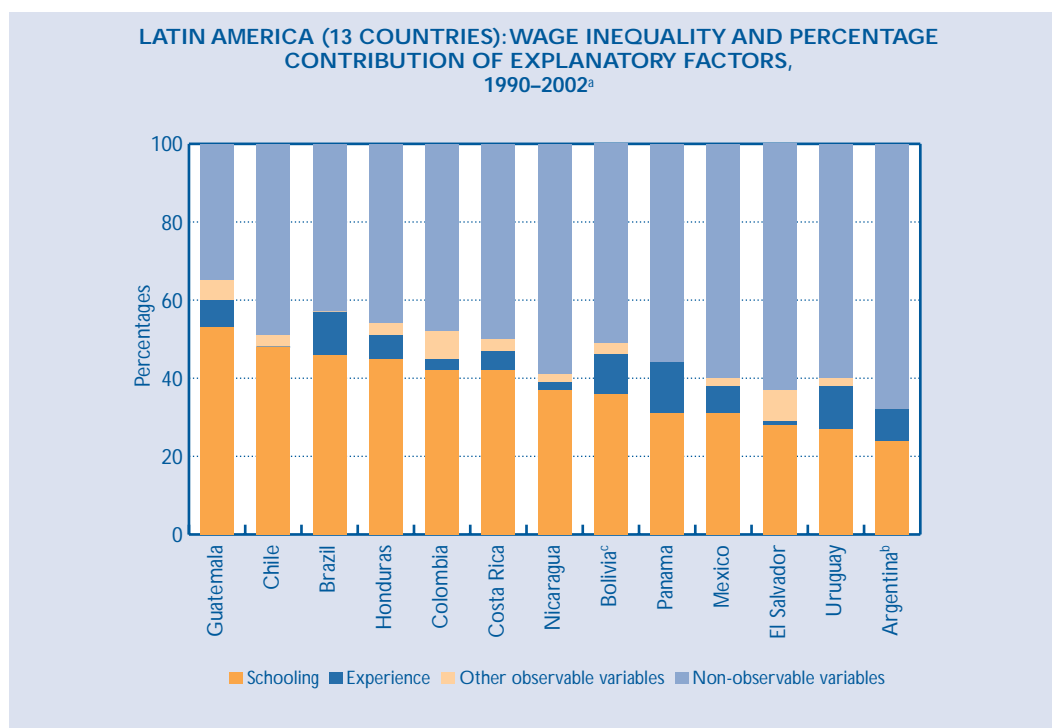
Between 1990 and 2002, there was virtually no change in the rate of return, either in the regional average or in most of the individual countries. There were considerable differences between the cycles of education, however. The average rate of return decreased from 0.09 to 0.08 for the basic education cycle, declined from 0.14 to 0.12 for secondary education and rose from 0.15 to 0.18 for the tertiary cycle. Hence, the gap between the tertiary and secondary cycles widened: in the 1990s their rates of return were relatively similar (0.14 and 0.15, respectively), yet by 2002 these rates diverged sharply (0.12 and 0.18).

Another factor frequently adduced to explain wage formation is the experience people accumulate in the course of their working lives. Although the relative impact of this factor has hardly changed since the 1990s at the aggregate level, variations observed in most of the countries suggest it is declining. In all the countries studied, women receive lower wage incomes than men with the same schooling and experience. The average wage gap has narrowed since 1990, both as a regional average and in a large group of countries. In some cases, however, gender discrimination intensified during this period.

A breakdown of wage variance shows, first, that education is the largest contributor to wage dispersion in Latin America. Data for around 2002 indicate that this factor accounts for 38% of wage variance, on average. The influence of education on wage inequality is also corroborated by data for the 1990s, when it accounted for an average of 34% of the gap. Moreover, between that period and the present decade, the contribution of education to wage inequality increased in most of the countries analysed, regardless of whether the degree of inequality itself increased or decreased (see figure 6).

After education, years of experience is the next most important single variable in explaining wage inequality. On average, it accounts for 6% of total wage dispersion, although there are significant differences between countries. Besides these two variables, which have a clearly identifiable effect, many other factors are also involved in wage inequality. Significant as many of these may be, they have only a very small impact on increasing or reducing inequality. In fact, such factors as gender, whether a person works in the public or private sector and the branch of activity concerned account, on average, for just 3% of wage inequality. Many of the other variables that also affect wage distribution (and which, taken together, account for around half of wage inequality) are too difficult to identify or to quantify to include in this analysis, however.

Figure 6



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of D. Contreras and S. Gallegos, “Descomponiendo la desigualdad salarial en América Latina. ¿Una década de cambios?”, Santiago, Chile, 2006, unpublished.

^a Findings correspond to all urban wage earners aged between 14 and 65 years who work between 20 and 80 hours per week.

^b Greater Buenos Aires.

^c Eight main cities plus El Alto.

These findings indicate that education can be a very effective public policy tool for influencing wage (and, hence, income) distribution. They also suggest that at least half of all wage inequality is determined by the interaction of multiple factors, so intervention targeting any single factor has little chance of significantly altering income concentration.

Accordingly, expanding access to post-secondary education appears to be one of the measures that could help reduce wage inequality by reducing both the rate of return to this level of education and the dispersion in the population’s years of schooling. Any such effort must be aimed at raising the quality and increasing the relevance of education, particularly at the secondary level. Education must pursue the twin objectives of equipping people with the skills they need to position themselves appropriately in the labour market by offering a wider range of technical specializations consistent with the demands of the production sector and providing the knowledge they need to gain access to higher levels of education.

Changes in wage work in Latin America and recent employment trends

The past four years (2003–2006) have seen Latin America's best economic and social performance in 25 years. Progress with poverty reduction, falling unemployment, improving income distribution in several countries and a strong upswing in the number of jobs are the main factors underlying the positive trend in many of the countries of the region.

One of the factors contributing to this improvement in living conditions within the region over the past four years was a steady economic expansion (GDP grew by an average annual rate of almost 4.5%). This boosted real wages in several countries, and, in some, average urban wages rose above the levels seen before the recessions that occurred early in this decade. In Argentina and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, however, the steep rise in wages since 2003 has not yet brought them up to the levels of the late 1990s. The turnaround in the main indicators of well-being observed since 2003 is partially a reflection of favourable conditions which may continue in the future, marking a clear turning point in the region.

After more than a decade of steadily rising unemployment (from 1990 to 2002, the average weighted urban unemployment rate rose from 6.2% to 10.7%),⁶ of growth in informal and insecure jobs and, in many countries, of stagnating or even falling wages, it is important to look at which situations have stayed the same, which have improved and what changes have taken place during these recent years of recovery and growth in relation to employment in the countries.

Attention has been focused on urban wage employment, since this accounts for more than two thirds of all the region's employed persons, whose labour earnings provide three quarters of household income. It was precisely in recognition of the need to create quality employment that the 2005 World Summit of the United Nations recommended that the first Millennium Development Goal should include the target of full and productive employment and decent work for all, particularly for women and young people. The inclusion of that target, albeit without a quantitative indicator, represents a substantial step forward, since quality job creation is both a development goal in itself and a condition for the achievement of the other Millennium Development Goals.

⁶ The unemployment figures and other labour market indicators analysed in this section are derived from household surveys and do not always match the statistics used by the countries in announcing official figures for their main labour market indicators. The unemployment figures for the region based on official statistics from the countries in 1990 and 2002 were 5% and 9.1% respectively.

Main labour market trends

The information available for 2002–2005 shows a clear reversal of the prevailing trend in the region's labour market. The striking upturn in the yearly rate of job creation in urban areas for 2003–2005 in comparison with 1991–2002 is a clear example. In 2003–2005, the total number of employed persons (wage employees and own-account workers) in urban areas rose by just over 5.3 million per year, well in excess of the 3.3 million per year increase in 1991–2002. The number of wage jobs climbed even more sharply, with a jump from 1.96 million new wage earners per year in the first period to 4.09 million per year in the second (see table 3).

Table 3

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): SUMMARY OF MAIN LABOUR MARKET TRENDS, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005 ^a									
Period	Both sexes			Sex					
				Men			Women		
	1990–2002	2002–2005	1990–2005	1990–2002	2002–2005	1990–2005	1990–2002	2002–2005	1990–2005
Annual variation in:	(Annual percentage variation)								
Working-age population	2.7	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.7
Economically active population	3.4	3.4	3.4	2.7	2.8	2.7	4.4	4.2	4.3
Employed persons	2.9	3.8	3.1	2.4	3.2	2.5	3.8	4.6	4.0
Wage earners	2.5	4.3	2.9	1.9	3.9	2.3	3.5	4.8	3.7
Average annual employment growth:	(Thousands)								
Wage earners and own-account workers	3 308	5 317	3 710	1 611	2 644	1 818	1 697	2 673	1 892
Wage earners	1 962	4 089	2 387	873	2 158	1 130	1 089	1 930	1 257
	1990	2002	2005	1990	2002	2005	1990	2002	2005
Rates of:	(Percentages)								
Participation	63.8	68.5	70.1	83.5	82.7	83.2	45.9	55.5	58.1
Employment	59.8	61.2	63.3	78.6	75.1	76.5	42.7	48.5	51.3
Unemployment (all unemployed)	6.2	10.7	9.7	5.8	9.2	8.0	6.9	12.7	11.8
Wage employment ^b	71.0	67.5	68.5	70.6	66.6	68.0	71.6	68.9	69.3
Joblessness among wage earners ^c	8.3	15.6	11.4	7.7	13.8	9.5	9.3	17.9	13.7
Joblessness among non-wage workers ^{cd}	4.0	8.1	5.6	4.1	7.9	5.4	3.7	8.2	5.8

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

^a Weighted averages and regional aggregates, not including Nicaragua, which had no data available for the most recent period.

^b Wage workers as a percentage of total employed.

^c Based on the occupational category for the most recent job; does not include first-time job-seekers. Excludes Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Mexico and Peru.

^d Own-account workers, employers, cooperative workers, members of producers' cooperatives, unpaid family (and non-family) workers.

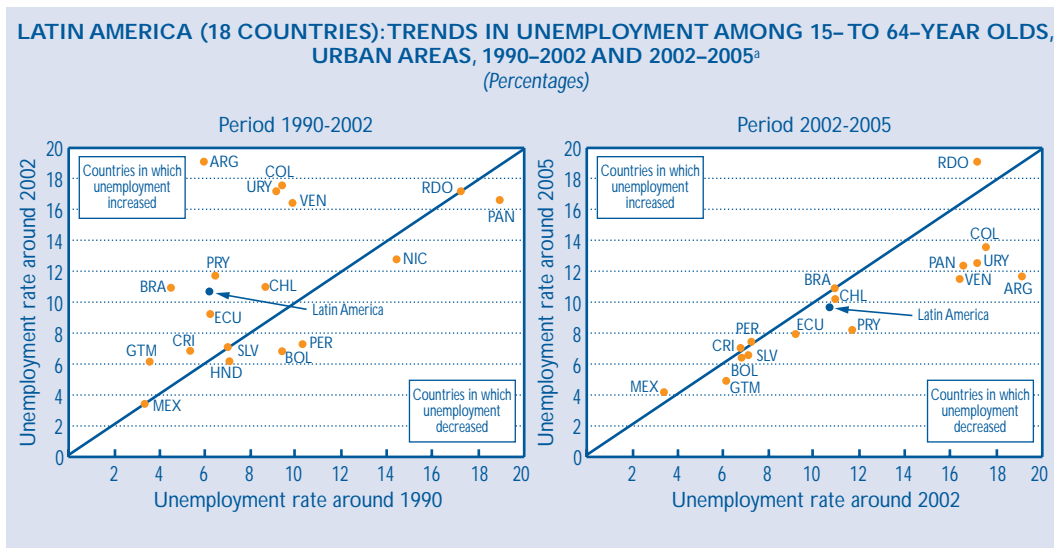
These developments account for the nearly one percentage-point decrease in the region's open unemployment rate between 2002 and 2005,⁷ which is expected to fall by a

⁷ The regional unemployment rate, based on official figures from the countries, declined by two percentage points between 2002 and 2005, from 11.0% to 9.1%.

further percentage point in 2006, to about 8.5%. Figure 7 depicts the reversal of the unemployment trend from 2002 onward. In the great majority of countries, the unemployment rate moved lower in 2002–2005 following a sustained rise in the previous decade. It is noteworthy that this decline in unemployment in recent years was achieved at the same time that many wage earners who had lost their jobs were finding employment again. Statistical time series that would provide a basis for a precise analysis of this phenomenon are unavailable, but the falling unemployment rate among those who had lost a wage job (from 15.6% to 11.4% on average) constitutes persuasive evidence. As a result, there has been a partial recovery in wage employment as a proportion of urban employment, which had fallen by a regional average of three points between 1990 and 2002. In 2005, 69% of those employed in urban areas were wage earners.

The sharpest decreases in unemployment took place in the countries whose economies expanded the most in the past three years (Argentina, Uruguay, Panama, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela and Colombia, in that order) and which had had very high unemployment rates before the recovery began. In those five countries, the unemployment rate in 2002 varied between 16.6% and 18%, and by 2005, the rates had fallen by anything from four to a little over seven percentage points.

Figure 7



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

^a Nicaragua is not included in the regional figure because no data were available for the most recent period. The most recent data available for Honduras are for 2002 and 2003, and these statistics therefore do not reflect the recovery in employment levels. For these reasons, neither Nicaragua nor Honduras are included in the figure on the right. The data for Colombia, Dominican Republic and Panama include hidden unemployment (the 2005 survey conducted in the Dominican Republic separated hidden from open unemployment (8.0%)); the figures for Argentina refer to Greater Buenos Aires, for Bolivia to the eight main cities and El Alto, for Paraguay to Asunción and the Central Department, and for the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela to the national total.

An analysis of the relationship between GDP growth and declining unemployment shows that in recent years the growth threshold required in order to cut unemployment has remained high. This had already been observed in the 1990s, in comparison with the

two previous decades. During the current recovery and growth phase, the threshold above which an increase in GDP resulted in a one-point fall in unemployment has also been around 4%. If that ratio remains unchanged, the region will need to maintain its growth rate of the past four years (close to 4.5%) for the coming three years in order to bring unemployment down to a level close to the 1990 figure.

Examining unemployment trends on the basis of household surveys makes it possible to compare the decline in unemployment in the region as a whole with the reduction achieved by the countries which enjoyed the fastest growth in 2002–2005 (Argentina, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Colombia, Panama and Uruguay), where the weighted yearly average figure for GDP growth stood at 7.1% during that period. Of particular note is the steep drop in unemployment among the lowest-income groups, particularly the poorest 10% of households (see figure 8). In those five countries, unemployment in that group fell from almost 43% to close to 29%. This improvement considerably benefited households at all levels of society, even the highest-income deciles. The same pattern can be seen in all 17 countries that were examined, although in the others the reductions were naturally smaller.

Figure 8

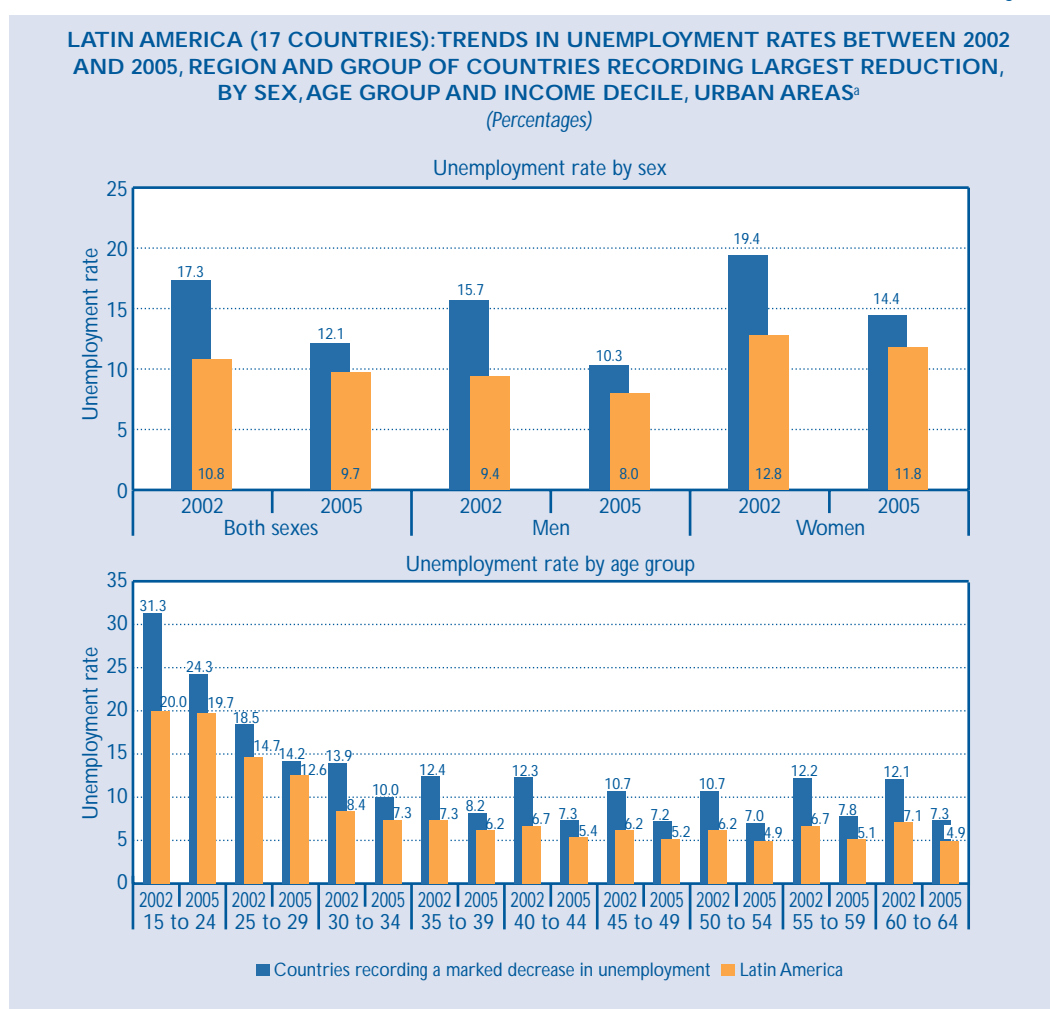
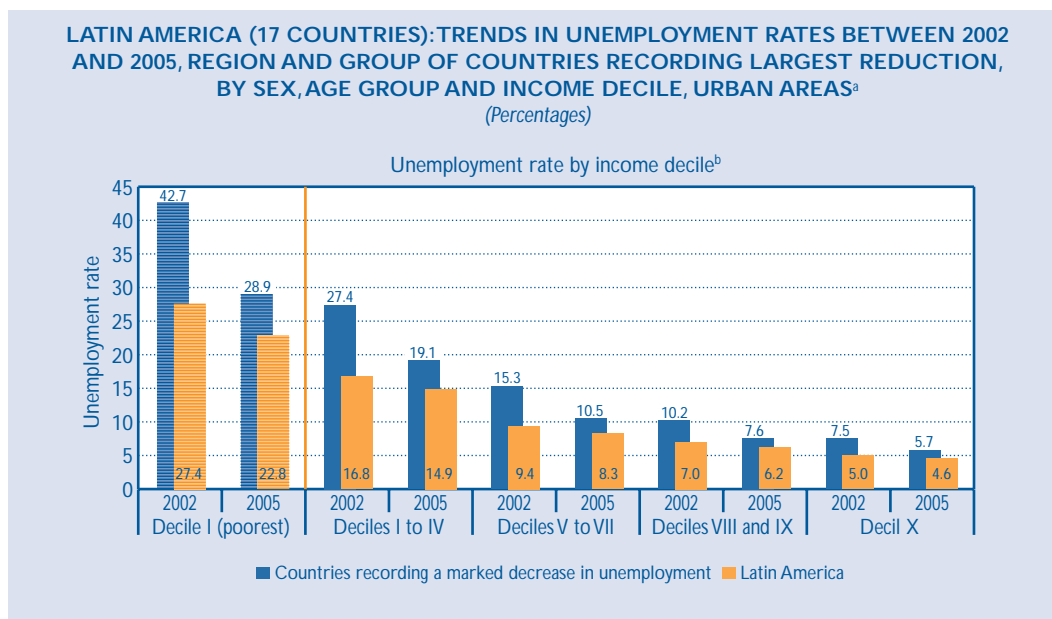


Figure 8 (concluded)



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

^a Nicaragua is not included in the group of 17 countries; the total may not coincide with data in other figures and tables because it covers urban areas in the countries, whose long-term comparisons have to be made with restricted urban areas (Argentina, Bolivia and Paraguay); the group of countries to record the largest decrease in unemployment in the region includes Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela (national total), Colombia, Panama and Uruguay.

^b Deciles of total household income.

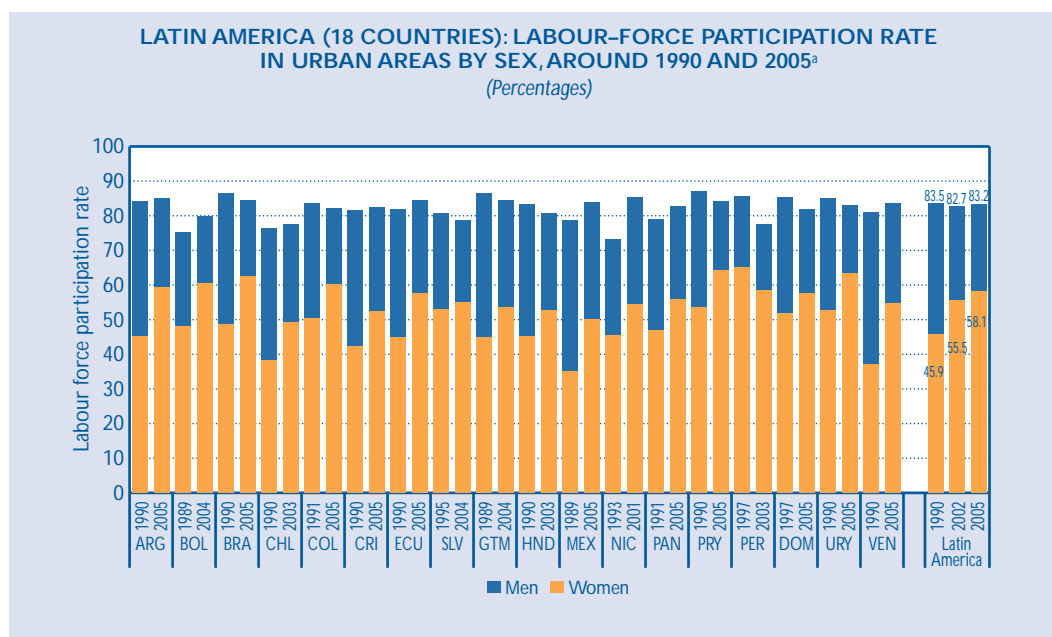
Youth unemployment, which remains well above average, showed the sharpest declines, but there were also sizeable decreases in adult unemployment. In the countries that enjoyed the greatest growth, conditions were such that some of the labour market's first-time entrants could be absorbed, as well as some of those who had previously lost their jobs. The aforementioned five countries also saw sharp reductions in unemployment in the population aged 40 and over.

Despite this progress, the decrease in urban unemployment failed to improve the situation in respect of gender inequalities. Unemployment remained higher among women, and the reductions in unemployment were of greater benefit to males, who had already had a lower unemployment rate at the start of the latest period of economic recovery and growth.

Despite the economic recovery of the past four years, unemployment in Latin America remains high at a little over three percentage points above the 1990 level. This is partly due to rising labour force participation rates, which climbed quickly in the 1990s and have continued to rise in most countries in the past three years, despite the fact that young people have been staying in the education system longer. From 2002 to 2005, the participation rate in urban areas rose in 12 out of 17 countries, with the increase in those countries being close to three percentage points. This slowed the fall in unemployment, although in 15 of the 17 countries, the proportion of urban employed persons as a percentage of the working-age population increased by an average of 2.3 points.

The growth of the workforce is mainly attributable to the continuing entry of large numbers of women into Latin America's labour market (see figure 9). The increase in the female participation rate from 2002 to 2005 (55.5% to 58.1%) far outpaced the increase in the participation rate for males (which rose from 82.7% to 83.2%). During that three-year period, 2.8 million women and 2.5 million men joined the workforce each year, as compared to 2.2 and 2.0 million, respectively, in 1990–2002. These figures attest to the increasing speed with which women have been entering the labour market.

Figure 9



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

^a The figure for the region does not include Nicaragua, for which data were not available for the last period; the male participation rate corresponds to the total height of the blue bar, on which the female rate is superimposed. The figures for Argentina refer to Greater Buenos Aires, for Bolivia to the eight main cities and El Alto, for Paraguay to Asunción and the Central Department, and for the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela to the national total.

The persistence of this upward trend in women's participation in the labour market suggests that the incentives driving it (better levels of education, desire for increased independence) are now being reinforced by other factors of attraction (increased availability of jobs, a growing supply of jobs offering flexible or part-time hours). This makes it even more urgent to overcome the obstacles that make it difficult for women to contribute to household income on a more permanent basis. Increases in those contributions, together with large inflows of remittances in a number of countries, have raised the incomes of numerous vulnerable or poor households, many of which have succeeded in leaving poverty behind.

Changes in wage employment

Household survey data show that in the 1990s wage jobs decreased as a proportion of total employment in the region. The percentage of wage earners within the overall number of employed persons in urban areas fell from 71% to 67.5% between 1990 and 2002. A number of countries –especially those which have enjoyed the strongest growth over the last four years– saw declines in unemployment among workers who had lost a wage job and increases in wage employment in relation to the total number of employers and own-account workers. As a result, the percentage of wage employment in the region rose by one percentage point (to 68.5%), which was still below the 1990 level. This upturn in formal wage employment resulted in a decrease from 40% to 36% in urban employment in low-productivity sectors (including employers and unskilled workers in microenterprises, domestic employees and unskilled own-account workers).⁸ For the region as a whole, the slight relative reduction in wage employment in microenterprises helped to shrink the urban informal sector.

The available information gives a clear picture of the quality of the jobs created in recent years. Between 2002 and 2005, the total number of employed persons in urban areas rose by 16.2 million. Of this number, 77% obtained wage employment and almost 91% found jobs in the formal sector, although about one in four entered positions that did not provide social security coverage. In sum, a little over two out of three new wage earners in urban areas obtained employment which provides social benefits. This supports the statement that there was no significant trend change in this regard in the region as a whole (see figure 10).⁹ In fact, despite the marked climb in wage employment during the expansionary phase of the business cycle, there was no improvement in the ratio between wage earners having social security coverage and the retirement-age population.

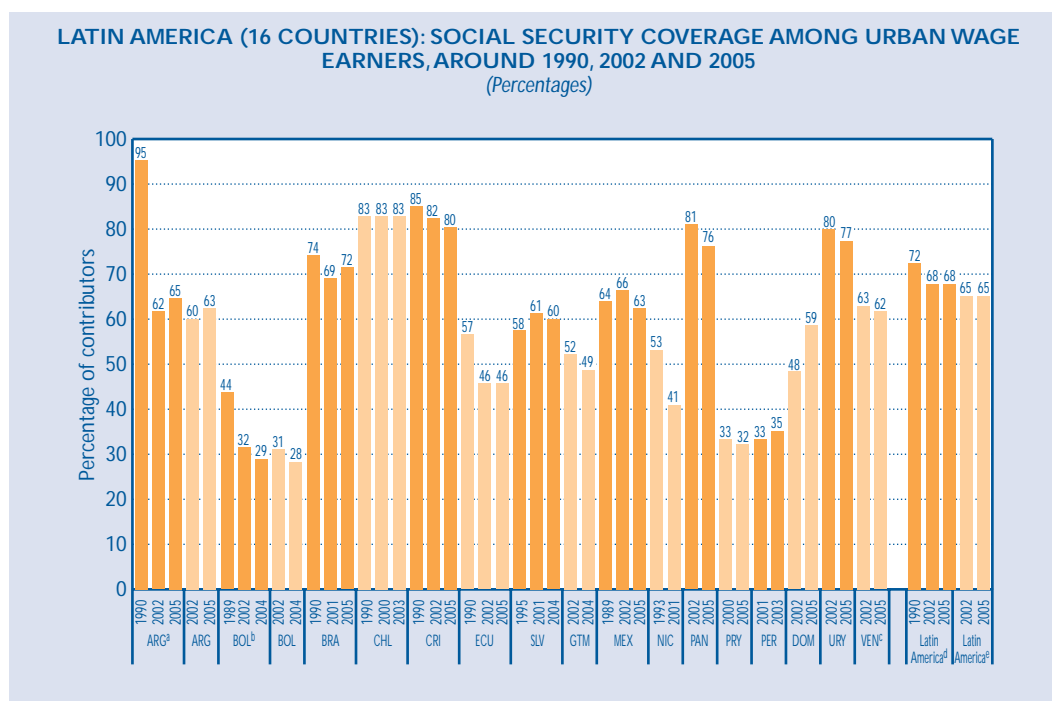
The average wages reported by household surveys showed an average increase of 0.9% per year in 2003–2005¹⁰ and thus failed to match the growth of per capita GDP in the region, which was somewhat over 2.5% per year. This average figure, however, fails to reflect the wide range of variations in different countries. For example, Argentina, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Ecuador and Peru experienced strong growth (10.8%, 4.1%, 3.5% and 7.8%, respectively), whereas in Bolivia, Brazil, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, and Uruguay, average real wages shrank.

⁸ This estimate does not include Colombia, whose survey does not distinguish the size of firms where workers are employed, but refers instead to employed persons in urban areas, aged from 15 to 64, who stated that they had received income from work.

⁹ A country-by-country analysis shows that the percentage of wage earners whose employment contracts provide social security coverage increased by three percentage points in Argentina, Brazil and Peru, but fell by a similar proportion in Bolivia, Guatemala, Mexico, Panama and Uruguay.

¹⁰ The rate of change does not differ significantly from that registered by the countries' earnings indexes, whose coverage is rather narrower, because they relate either to wages in a particular sector, such as manufacturing, or to the incomes of registered wage-earners (usually those having contracts and social security coverage) and thus often exclude wages paid by small firms and microenterprises.

Figure 10



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

^a Greater Buenos Aires.

^b Eight main cities and El Alto.

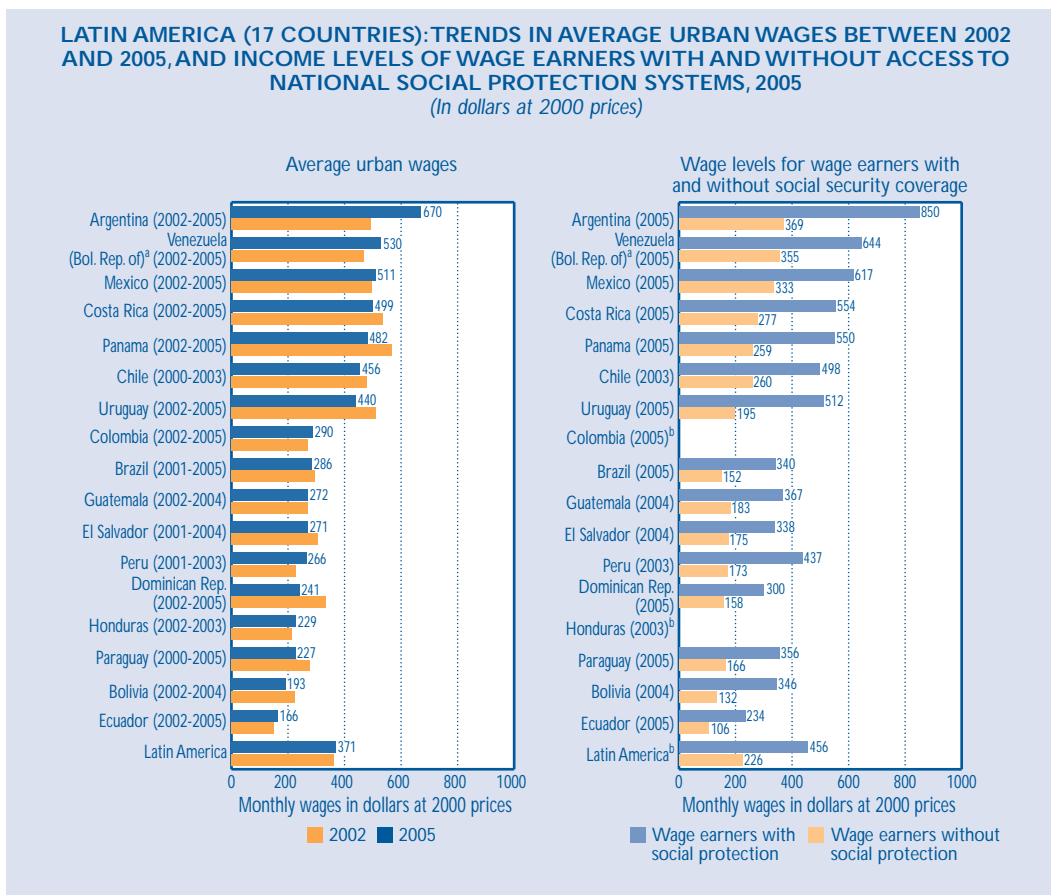
^c National total.

^d Includes Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires), Bolivia (eight main cities and El Alto), Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador and Mexico.

^e Includes Argentina (total for urban areas), Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela (national total), Bolivia (total for urban areas), Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay (total for urban areas), Peru and Uruguay.

In the countries where wages rose, there tended to be widening disparities between workers having social security coverage, who are mostly in the urban formal sector (including the public sector), and those without such coverage, with greater wage increases for the former. Disparities also widened, albeit to a lesser extent, in countries that witnessed significant reductions in wage levels; this was mainly due to the larger drops recorded in the wages of urban workers without social security coverage, despite more active policies on minimum wages. In most cases, as can be seen in figure 11, the wages of those with social security coverage were at least twice as high as the wages of workers lacking such coverage. This underscores the fact that the quality of employment is determined by a broad range of interdependent elements, including the sufficiency and stability of wages, the stability of employment contracts, safety in the workplace (risk of accidents or work-related illness), access to health care and health insurance systems, and social security coverage and contributions.

Figure 11



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

^a Figures for the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela correspond to the national total.

^b The total for Latin America relating to the wages of workers with and without social security coverage excludes Colombia and Honduras, whose surveys do not provide information on membership in the social security system.

Although this boom period saw a strong rise in wage jobs, this did not result in significant changes in the quality of employment. As demonstrated in the document presented by ECLAC at its thirty-first session, held in Montevideo, Uruguay, in March 2006,¹¹ the current levels of coverage under contributory and employment-based social security systems and the low wages paid to workers who do not yet have such coverage do not provide a basis on which to move forward towards a sufficiently funded universal pension system capable of providing a basic minimum of benefits over the long term, particularly in the current context of population ageing in Latin America. It is therefore very important for countries to adapt their social protection systems to prevailing conditions in the labour market by means of non-contributory inputs, integration of contributory and non-contributory funding, and a clear definition of the benefits to be provided by such systems in order to make progress in the provision of social protection to workers and their families.

¹¹ *Shaping the Future of Social Protection: Access, Financing and Solidarity* (LC/G.2294(SES.31/3)), Santiago, Chile, March 2006.

Indigenous peoples of Latin America: old inequities, mixed realities and new obligations for democracies in the twenty-first century

The emergence of indigenous peoples on the international agenda and the new human rights standard

The issue of indigenous peoples changed profoundly in Latin America in the last two decades of the twentieth century. The constitution of indigenous movements as political actors is one of the most significant phenomena to have occurred in the region and around the world and will surely have a lasting impact on Latin American democracies. Through their organizations and action, indigenous people have positioned their claims for recognition as peoples in their own right at the heart of public debate, demanding new laws to safeguard their existence and rights. These demands call for new social covenants and for a broader concept of citizenship.

One of the most significant outcomes of this global process is the shift in international human rights law –which is binding upon States– that has led to the development of a special regime of collective indigenous rights. The minimum standard for these rights, based on the principle of self determination, is enshrined in the Convention concerning Indigenous and Tribal Peoples in Independent Countries of the International Labour Organization (ILO Convention No. 169) and in the draft United Nations declaration on the rights of indigenous peoples (approved by the Human Rights Council at its first session in June 2006). These standards fall into the following broad categories:

- The right to non-discrimination;
- The right to cultural integrity;
- The right to own, use, control and have access to land and resources;
- The right to development and social welfare; and
- The right to political participation and free, prior and informed consent.

This has at least two direct public policy implications: it generates new State obligations of respect, protection and compliance (even in the absence of any recognition of rights in the country's domestic legal regime); and, second, it delivers parameters for the assessment of the standards and practices of State powers in relation to indigenous peoples.

Although most of the States of Latin America have made constitutional and legislative changes to recognize indigenous rights, an assessment covering the last few decades raises some critical issues, since there is evidence that standards have either proven to be ineffective or have been breached. The available data show signs of structural discrimination against indigenous people in the form of marginalization, exclusion and poverty and indicate that indigenous people are invariably concentrated in the lowest income quintiles in each country. There is an international consensus that these are not simply excluded groups, but ethnically and culturally differentiated

collectivities –peoples– who have historically been denied by the States of Latin America. The rights-based perspective calls for a fresh interpretation of poverty and socio-economic inequities, which are defined today as a flagrant violation of not only economic and social rights, but also civil and political rights. The implementation of these standards requires, in turn, the production of information, statistics and systems of indicators for monitoring and evaluation. This chapter seeks to answer the questions of who, how many and where indigenous peoples are as a means of providing basic policy and programme inputs. It also deals with population dynamics and the components –fertility, mortality and migration– inherent in indigenous peoples' biological and socio-cultural reproduction.

Indigenous peoples: Who are they? How many are there? Where are they?

Latin America is a multi-ethnic and pluricultural region. Today its States recognize 671 indigenous peoples, over half of whom are settled in tropical forest areas. The major demographic groups¹² are located in the Andean and Meso-American countries. They have traditionally been viewed as rural populations, but today exhibit a marked degree of territorial and demographic diversity ranging from peoples living in voluntary isolation to urban settlements. There are also cases of urban-rural and transnational mobility. Furthermore, no country has a consolidated policy for indigenous peoples, and they do not all enjoy equal status.

There is an international consensus that people are regarded as being indigenous "on account of their descent from the populations which inhabited the country, or a geographical region to which the country belongs, at the time of conquest or colonisation or the establishment of present State boundaries and who, irrespective of their legal status, retain some or all of their own social, economic, cultural and political institutions" (ILO Convention No. 169).¹³ A further –and essential– criterion for regarding people as indigenous is their self-identification as members of an indigenous or tribal group.

As a result of the emergence of indigenous movements and of legal changes in terms of their recognition, in the 2000 census round, for the first time, almost all the Latin American countries included questions on ethnic identity. When indigenous peoples were viewed as "objects" of policy it was assumed that they could be identified –indirectly and by non-indigenous people– by means of externally or culturally manifested features, particularly their language. Today, the principle of self-identification is used, in keeping with the status of indigenous peoples as subjects of law. Other criteria are needed, however, to capture the diversity of indigenous peoples. Such criteria refer to common origin, territoriality and the linguistic-cultural aspects inherent in the above definition.

¹² Refers to the indigenous population collectively without distinguishing between different peoples, whose numbers vary enormously. For example, in Bolivia the Andean peoples –Quechuas and Aymaras– each number over 1.5 million, whereas the country's eastern region has several indigenous peoples that each number less than 200 (IDB/ECLAC, 2005a).

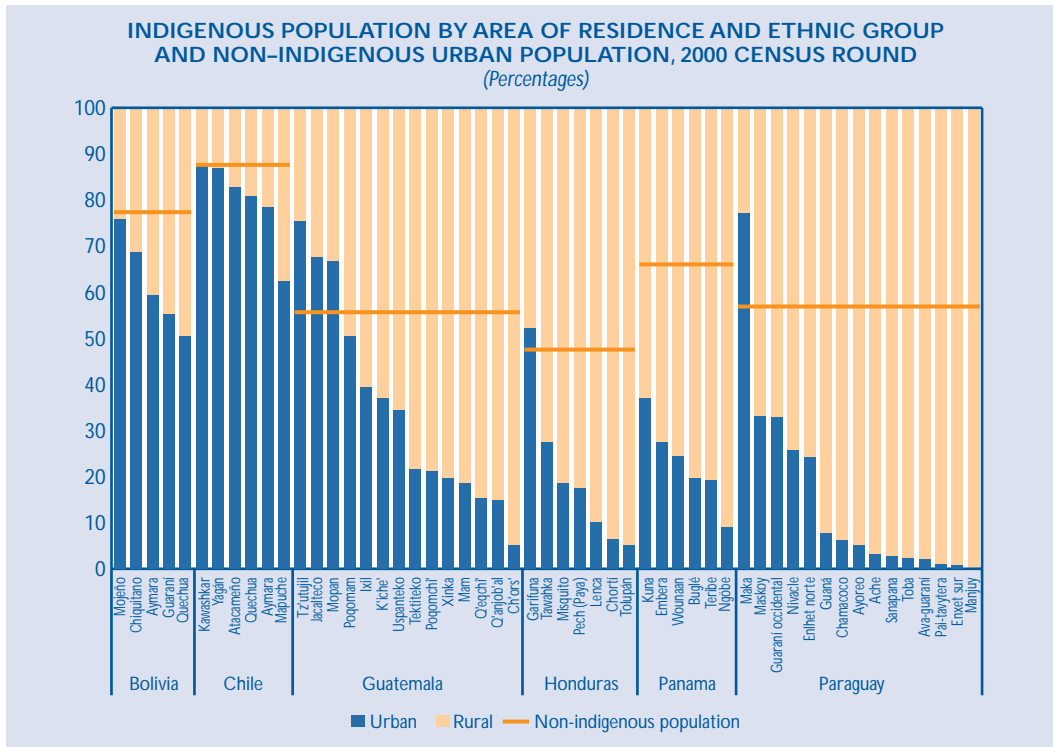
¹³ To date, 13 Latin American countries have ratified ILO Convention No. 169.

Based on data compiled in the 2000 round of censuses, Latin America's indigenous population is estimated at over 30 million, with large variations among peoples in terms of the overall size of such groups and what proportion of the total population they represent in each country. Bolivia, Guatemala, Mexico and Peru have the largest indigenous populations, with between 4.6 and 8.5 million each. The Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Brazil, Chile, Colombia and Ecuador follow with between 500,000 and 1 million indigenous people each and, finally, Argentina, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay and Uruguay have fewer than 500,000. In terms of relative population size, indigenous people represent 62%, 41% and 32% of the population, respectively, in Bolivia, Guatemala and Peru. In the rest of the countries, the indigenous population represents no more than 10%. Mexico is a special case because it has an indigenous population which, though small in relative terms, is comparable in volume to the indigenous population of Bolivia and Guatemala combined.

A common feature arising from the analysis of territorial distribution is that it reflects the indissoluble link between indigenous people and their territory and, as a rule, does not follow the same pattern as non-indigenous distribution. The main indigenous settlements are thus located in areas associated with ancestral lands, which are predominantly rural. However, a series of factors –including poverty, demographic pressure and land degradation, the invasion of settlers, the interests of domestic and international corporations and a lack of basic services– have been driving migration from these territories to urban hubs or to other rural areas, as the case may be. Generally speaking, at least 80% of the indigenous population lived in rural areas in half of the 10 countries examined (in Costa Rica, Ecuador, Honduras, Panama and Paraguay). In two countries (Guatemala and Mexico), about one in three indigenous people lives in urban areas and, in Bolivia, Brazil and Chile, over half of the indigenous population resides in cities.

Figure 12 clearly illustrates the variety in settlement patterns existing in these countries. Paraguay and Honduras display the largest differences: the Minka and Garífuna peoples, respectively, reside mainly in cities, whereas the Mijituy and Tolupán are predominantly rural. Urban indigenous people also exhibit trends that differ from those of the rest of the population, with a smaller concentration in major cities and a preference for urban centres close to their territories of origin.

Figure 12



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

Varying demographic profiles: a review of the differences

Is age structure simply a reflection of the demographic transition?

The age and gender structure of the population reflects past trends in fertility, mortality and migration in each country. An examination of this structure will show the approximate level of each of these demographic components and how they have interacted and evolved. In the case of indigenous populations, the results of the analysis are also affected by the identification criterion, whichever it may be. In the case of self-identification, people's levels of ethnic awareness may differ from one generation to another or by socio-political context.

Latin America's indigenous population generally has a younger age structure than the rest of the population, regardless of what stage of the demographic transition the country has reached. Within the relative "youth" of indigenous age patterns, four different types of structures can be distinguished: a very young structure with a very broad base (Guatemala, Honduras, Panama and Paraguay); a young structure with a broad base (Bolivia, Costa Rica, Ecuador and Mexico); a mature structure with a stable base (Brazil); and an older structure with a diminishing base (Chile). In all the countries, the situation varies from one ethnic group to another. For example, in Paraguay the Mbya have a very young age structure compared with that of the Nivacle, with the latter reflecting a lower fertility rate.

Higher fertility levels: cultural diversity and unequal access to services

Although there have been significant decreases in the average number of children per woman in all the countries of the region, it is also true that differentials remain between the indigenous and non-indigenous populations. These differences vary in degree depending on the socio-economic group and geographical area concerned. Table 4 shows that total fertility rates (TFRs) are invariably higher among indigenous women in both urban and rural areas, even after controlling for levels of formal education. In addition, higher national fertility rates do not necessarily imply greater convergence between indigenous people and the rest of the population.

Table 4

TOTAL FERTILITY RATES (TFR) FOR INDIGENOUS AND NON-INDIGENOUS WOMEN, BY AREA OF RESIDENCE, 2000 CENSUS ROUND									
Countries ^a	TFR ^b						Relative difference ^c		
	Total		Urban		Rural		Total	Urban	Rural
	Indigenous	Non-indigenous	Indigenous	Non-indigenous	Indigenous	Non-indigenous			
Guatemala	6.5	4.1	5.1	3.2	7.2	5.8	1.6	1.6	1.3
Bolivia	4.7	3.7	3.7	3.3	6.3	5.5	1.3	1.1	1.1
Honduras	5.9	4.2	3.8	3.2	6.4	5.5	1.4	1.2	1.2
Ecuador	5.3	3.0	3.6	2.7	5.8	3.7	1.8	1.4	1.6
Panama	5.9	2.5	4.0	2.2	6.4	3.3	2.3	1.8	1.9
Mexico	4.2	2.6	3.3	2.4	4.9	3.5	1.6	1.4	1.4
Brazil	4.0	2.4	2.8	2.2	6.2	3.6	1.6	1.2	1.7
Chile	2.5	2.2	2.3	2.2	2.9	2.4	1.1	1.1	1.2

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

^a Countries appear in decreasing order of national total fertility rate. Costa Rica and Paraguay are excluded because their censuses did not include a question on the number of children born in the previous 12 months (for Paraguay, the data refer to the indigenous census).

^b Estimates were corrected by means of an adjustment factor to reproduce the census total using each country's official figure for the period 1995–2000.

^c Ratio of indigenous total fertility rate to non-indigenous total fertility rate.

The picture is even more diverse when the data for individual indigenous groups are analysed. The average parity, or average number of children at age 30, ranges from 1.5 to 4.4 children per woman. The national context is undeniably very influential, as can be seen from the differences between the Quechua and Aymara peoples in Chile (average parity of 1.5 and 1.6 children, respectively) and in Bolivia (average parity of 2.9 and 2.5 children, respectively).

In sum, these differentials stem from structural inequities in access to basic services and information, but they also reflect each group's inherent cultural patterns relating to the stages of the life cycle and to reproduction. This includes not only reproductive ideals (in some countries where data are available, indigenous women systematically display

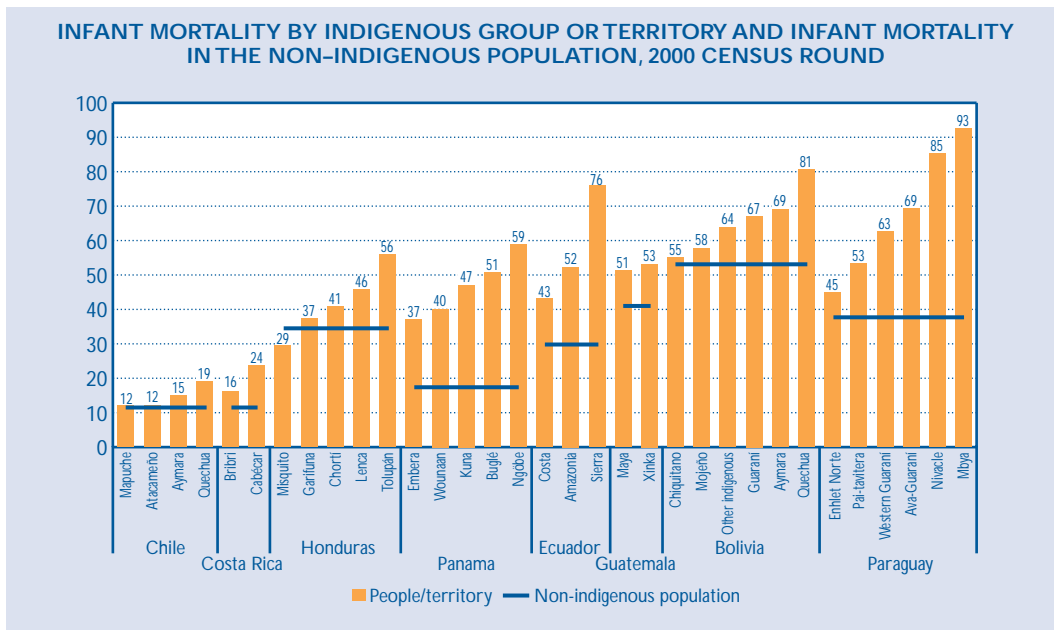
higher parity) but also the behaviour of proximate fertility variables, including lactation periods, marriage rate patterns and contraceptive use.

Infant and child mortality: persistent gaps

Early-age mortality has declined steadily and substantially in the region over the past 40 years. The infant mortality rate has fallen from 102 per 1,000 live births in the early 1960s to 26 per 1,000 at the present time. Disparities between countries, geographic areas and social groups persist, however, and have actually been increasing in the past 15 years. Indigenous people are one of the social groups that still suffer the sharpest inequalities, and inequities persist even within urban areas.

In terms of the average across Latin America, infant mortality among indigenous children is 60% higher than among non-indigenous groups: 48 per 1,000 live births compared with 30 per 1,000 live births. The gap is even larger with respect to the probability of dying before the age of five, with an excess mortality of 70% for indigenous groups during this period. The differences in indigenous child mortality from one country to another are also substantial: the probability of dying in infancy or childhood is highest in Paraguay (where the indigenous infant mortality rate is 72.1 per 1,000 live births) and Bolivia (63.3 per 1,000) and lowest in Chile and Costa Rica (11.5 per 1,000 for both countries). As shown in figure 13, early-age mortality varies by indigenous group and national context. Thus, for example, the probability of a Quechua child in Bolivia dying before age 1 is more than five times as high as that of a Quechua child in Chile.

Figure 13



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

International migration and territorial mobility among indigenous peoples

International migration of members of indigenous groups is taking on greater significance owing to its specific traits and its policy implications in terms of human rights, particularly in relation to territorial mobility across ancestral lands. This applies to peoples living in territories fragmented by nation–State borders within ethnic boundaries governed by common law.

According to the available data, indigenous peoples have a lower propensity to migrate internationally.¹⁴ This is probably due, on the one hand, to their indissoluble link with the land, which tends to anchor them (although the need to survive may lead people to move away) and, on the other, to the structural disadvantage that indigenous peoples suffer in adopting such an uncertain and costly strategy as international migration. Nevertheless, international migration by indigenous peoples (mainly males) intensified in the 1990s.

As regards the relevant places of origin, the data indicate that migration by indigenous peoples mainly follows a cross–border pattern. In addition, the vast majority of such emigrants belong to groups located in the jurisdictions of two or three States. In terms of destinations, indigenous immigrants tend to settle in rural areas more than non–indigenous immigrants do, and, in some cases, these areas correspond to their ancestral territories. There is evidence that both patterns –migration and mobility–coexist even within the same groups. In fact, 89% of Bolivian–born Quechuas residing in Chile settle in the first and second regions (Tarapacá and Antofagasta), which were part of their ancestral lands; by contrast, 73% of Peruvian–born Quechuas moving to Chile make for the Metropolitan Region, and this flow therefore more fully corresponds to international migration in a truer sense of the term.

Policy-making considerations relating to individual and collective rights

Indigenous peoples have consolidated their position as active social and political stakeholders at the national and international levels. Their demands now include calls for new social covenants, an expansion of citizenship rights and, hence, a transformation of two–hundred–year–old republics. Their status as bearers of rights requires a change in approach that will promote and guarantee their individual and collective human rights. The responses to questions regarding their identity, numbers and location therefore take on a new meaning in terms of policies and legal obligations that goes beyond conventional sociodemographic analysis.

At the national and international levels, the criterion of self–identification is recognized as being part of indigenous peoples’ exercise of their rights. A review of the

¹⁴ Costa Rica is an exception, as 19.4% of its total indigenous population was born in another country, while the figure for the non–indigenous population is 7.6%. In the other countries, the percentage of indigenous international immigrants varies from 0.6% to 1.2%.

situation in the countries of the region shows that while progress has been made in this regard, further steps must be taken to consolidate the identification of indigenous peoples in the 2010 round of censuses and other statistical instruments. It will be crucial for States to promote and guarantee the full participation of indigenous peoples throughout the process of information generation.

As regards territorial distribution, the main settlements of indigenous peoples are located in places associated with ancestral lands, especially rural areas. Settlement patterns vary widely across different groups, however, as many members of some groups have resettled in urban areas. Be this as it may, the emphasis that indigenous peoples place on the legal protection and expansion of their lands reflects their need for territorial control as a means of conserving and developing their identity and achieving autonomy. This poses major challenges for governments in terms of public policies and specific activities, since it is no easy task to satisfy the demands of indigenous peoples in the face of the pressures exerted by the global market, which threaten the viability of territorially-based efforts to attain autonomy.

In terms of demographic profiles, these are generally young or very young indigenous populations living in countries where the population ageing process is more advanced, although this varies from one country to another. The State therefore needs to consider differentiated resource-allocation priorities, especially in the sectors of education and health. Moreover, the high fertility rates found among indigenous groups are partly due to the fact that their ideal number of children is higher because of the role and significance of fertility in the processes of biological and cultural reproduction. The challenge is therefore to implement programmes designed to close the gap between this ideal and current fertility rates by articulating the sexual and reproductive rights of individuals and couples in line with the rights to which they are entitled as indigenous peoples.

Infant and child mortality statistics clearly reveal inequity in the form of gaps in the enjoyment of the right to health care. In order to close these gaps and achieve the Millennium Development Goals with equity, increasing the coverage of official health-care systems is not enough. It is also necessary to implement specific programmes with an intercultural perspective, which, based on the acknowledgement of a different world view and a distinct perception of the health-illness-healing process (the right to cultural integrity), can promote an interchange between the biomedical model and traditional indigenous therapies.

International migration by members of indigenous groups primarily consists of cross-border movements. At least two patterns can be identified: a clearly international form of migration, involving indigenous immigrants who settle in urban environments, and a territorial form of mobility which is for the most part rural and occurs in regions that correspond to ancestral lands. In view of these patterns, special policies and measures are required to protect the peoples that find themselves under the jurisdictions of two or three countries, as indicated in ILO Convention No. 169.

At the beginning of the twenty-first century, new obligations are arising for States in terms of recognizing, promoting and guaranteeing the individual and collective human rights of indigenous peoples in line with international standards. These States must now seek to close the gaps that exist in the enforcement of such rights, which require State and policy reforms to ensure such groups' full participation while respecting the principle of self-determination. The analysis set out here points up the immense challenge that this represents in view of the complexity and diversity of indigenous population dynamics and the structural constant of discrimination. The construction of pluricultural democracies demands not only the elimination of inequities but also real recognition of the identity, world view, origins and humanity of the indigenous peoples of Latin America.

Social agenda

Public policies and changes in family structure

Changes in family structure and in the labour market, together with the demographic and epidemiological transition, are the principal elements underlying the ECLAC proposal for a new social covenant for the full exercise of social rights within a framework of comprehensive solidarity that combines contributory and non-contributory mechanisms.

This new social pact should be based on a recognition of the fact that no single solution will suffice and should be underpinned by three pillars: (i) the definition of explicit, guaranteed and enforceable rights; (ii) the definition of the levels and sources of financing that are to be incorporated in the appropriate solidarity mechanisms; and (iii) the development of a social institutional structure. These proposals seek to build bridges between social rights and policy criteria to make them more enforceable by providing fuller access, better financing and greater solidarity.

Public policies designed within the framework of a welfare State centred on the working society were based on the assumption of stable two-parent families with established roles in which the head of household was the provider and the spouse was dependent and protected. The low coverage characteristic of policies based on this premise and the lack of protection for families and their members make it imperative today to undertake a more thorough-going examination of changes in the family and in policies and programmes designed to enhance family well-being. The analysis of these issues has been based on responses from official national bodies to a questionnaire sent by ECLAC. Information was received from Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Honduras, Mexico and Peru.

The changes taking place in the family structure are recognized by government authorities, who have underscored the growing diversity associated with the growing

number of single-parent –especially female-headed– families and consensual unions. Fewer families conform to the traditional nuclear model, and the functions carried out in families and households have been modified by the fact that most women now participate in the labour market and by the cultural transformations ushered in by the shift towards modernity.

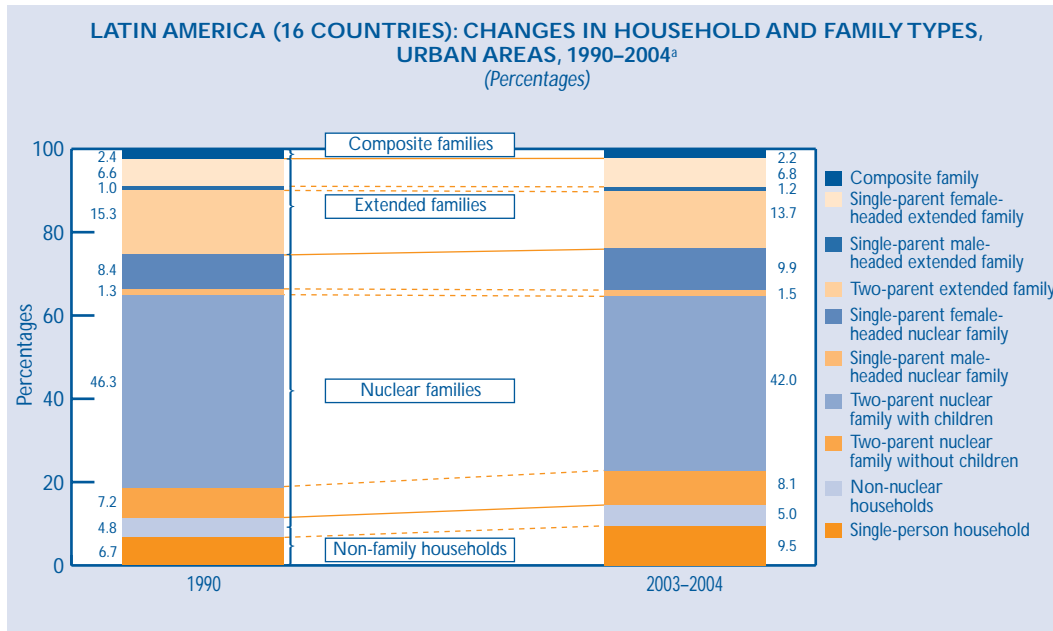
The main structural transformations of concern to governments are related to changes in family structure and functions and differ from one country to the next (see table 5). Attention is drawn to the existence of different types of families and their diversity (Chile, Colombia and Peru); the proportional reduction in the number and size of nuclear families (Cuba), and the changes that have taken place in the nuclear family, i.e., the increasing number of single-parent families (Colombia and Honduras) and extended families (Dominican Republic and Honduras). The number of female-headed households is also on the rise (Bolivia, Cuba and Dominican Republic), especially in urban areas, where 19% of households and families are headed by women. Some 11.4% of nuclear families are single-parent households, of which 84% are headed by women and 16% by men. Authorities are also concerned about changes in family roles linked to women's increasing participation in the labour market, which is associated with lower birth rates and decreasing family size, and about the increase in intrafamily and domestic violence.

Table 5

LATIN AMERICA (7 COUNTRIES): MAIN CHANGES IN THE FAMILY ACCORDING TO AUTHORITIES ON THE SUBJECT			
Country	Changes in the family		
	First in importance	Second in importance	Third in importance
Bolivia	Prevention of violence and responses when specific cases occur	Access to comprehensive legal services	Access to services designed to protect the rights of boys, girls and adolescents
Chile	Entry of women into the labour market	Recognition of diversity in family types	Low birth rate
Colombia	Family made a national priority in the development plans of the two last presidential terms	Transformation of the marriage link: single-parent families in urban areas, consensual unions, among others	Changes in the traditional concept of the full nuclear family and a shift towards a recognition of different typologies
Cuba	Changes in gender relations within the family	Changes in the number and average size of nuclear families and in household structure and composition	Extension of the networks of family relationships as a strategy for dealing with economic difficulties
Honduras	Shift from nuclear to single-parent families	Shift from single-parent to extended families	Split or dysfunctional families
Peru	Greater participation of families in the management of social programmes and valuation of women's roles	Existence of new types of non-nuclear families Building families' own capacity, especially to foster their own development	Some households have overcome poverty and extreme poverty in the country
Dominican Republic	Reduction in family size	Diversification of family composition (increase in the extended family)	Increase in the number of female-headed households

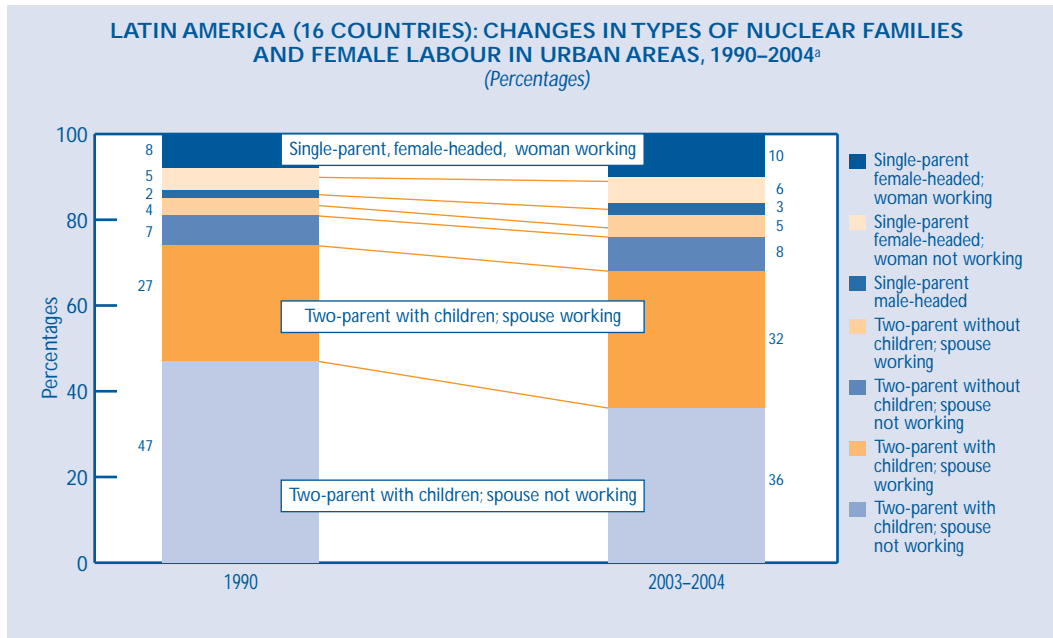
Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of the countries' responses to the ECLAC survey on family policies and programmes, 2006.

Figure 14



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

Figure 15



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

These changes, which are linked to demographic, cultural and economic changes, also point up the failure to devote sufficient attention to the family in the design of public policies. A change in approach is therefore necessary to guarantee the well-being of individuals. Special attention should be paid to the care economy by assisting households to care for children, older persons who are not self-sufficient and the disabled. The unmet needs and financial implications of care in family arrangements must be recognized, and a network of public, private and semi-public bodies must be organized and regulated in order to shape a services infrastructure that can provide a solution to society's care requirements. From this perspective, it is essential to design policies geared towards harmonizing family life with the demands placed on men and women at work.

Family policies and programmes

The new normative framework of family law is slowly progressing with the incorporation of modern international guidelines on human rights. The recent legislative changes introduced in Latin American countries reflect two simultaneous processes: (i) the emergence of intrafamily violence and family caregiving as public issues; and (ii) the initial stages of a move to expand the scope of State action to include family-related matters that have traditionally been viewed as private concerns.

Some countries lack public institutions that have the necessary funding, human resources and authority to deal with different family issues and problems that arise. In countries that do not have an organization to supervise the way in which these types of cross-cutting issues are addressed by the different government bodies, family-oriented programmes sometimes suffer from duplications and a lack of coordination. Some countries are beginning to form policy and programme coordination networks, which may yield very significant benefits in terms of increased coverage, timeliness, and the enrichment and sustainability of such activities. These initiatives are, however, proving extremely difficult to implement.

According to the authorities themselves, in the absence of public policies that ensure their protection and security, poverty continues to be one of the main problems confronting households in Latin America, together with intrafamily violence and fragmentation caused by migration and forced displacements. Other sources of concern include demographic change, in particular population ageing, and problems relating to the care of the elderly, which are exacerbated by limited access to basic services.

A look at family policies and programmes points up the absence of any comprehensive concept of the family, in addition to the lack of an updated assessment of the needs of family members and of a network of services to ensure proper social protection. Government action is usually split up into sectoral activities or targets specific groups. This fragmentation, which is necessary for the implementation of projects and programmes, often translates into contradictory, disconnected activities and initiatives that have little social impact.

It is very difficult to estimate the amount of financing that is devoted to promoting family welfare owing to the fact that family-oriented programmes fall under different ministries and are included in different areas of activity. Nonetheless, some large-scale programmes aimed at families do exist in the region, particularly in the case of conditional income transfer initiatives. These efforts are, however, coordinated by institutions that are neither responsible for family affairs nor in the habit of taking families into account in their implementation.

Authorities indicate that the main problems affecting policies geared to the family are underfinancing and a lack of institutional commitment to family programmes. This lack of commitment is often reflected in the absence of coordination in this area.

International agenda

The thirty-first session of ECLAC was attended by approximately 300 delegates from 33 member States and associate members of the Commission as well as by representatives of United Nations specialized agencies and non-governmental organizations, and special guests.

The ECLAC session is held every two years to allow the Commission to consider the progress of activities carried out during the previous biennium and to adopt its programme of work for the following biennium. It also serves as a forum for discussion of the principal issues relating to the development of the countries in the region. At the thirty-first session, participants examined the issue of social protection and the ECLAC proposal for a new social covenant. On this occasion, attention was drawn to the need to apply a rights-based approach to guide social protection policies. Accordingly, the family and its well-being are key considerations in determining the basic minimum level of services to be delivered by public policies, along with the associated financing requirements and solidarity mechanisms. Only through an understanding of these relationships can a framework of social institutions be constructed that will facilitate the management of social policy and promote coordination of social services delivery.



Poverty and income distribution

A. Recent poverty trends

The latest poverty and indigence figures available for Latin America show significant progress on both measures. Having remained broadly unchanged between 1997 and 2002, the proportion of people living in poverty fell from 44.0% in 2002 to 39.8% in 2005, while the proportion living in conditions of indigence dropped from 19.4% to 15.4%. As a result, the percentage of poor people has fallen below 1980 levels for the first time and the indigence rate is three percentage points below what it was that year. Between 2002 and 2005, the number of poor and indigent decreased by 12 million and 16 million, respectively, thereby breaking the rising trend that has prevailed across the region in recent decades. In 2006, the poverty rate is expected to decline by a further one percentage point approximately, and the number of people living in poverty is forecast to be around 205 million.

1. Economic situation

The gross domestic product (GDP) of Latin America and the Caribbean grew by 4.5%, and per capita GDP rose by 3.0% in 2005. Although these figures reflect positive trends in the region, growth rates are nonetheless lower than those of the developing world generally. Most Latin American economies performed well in 2005, with per capita GDP increasing in all cases, except for Haiti, where it was unchanged. The highest per capita growth rates were recorded in Argentina (8.2%), Dominican Republic (7.6%) and the Bolivarian

Republic of Venezuela (7.5%), all of which have more than regained the per capita GDP levels they had attained before the economic crises of recent years (see table 1 of the statistical appendix).

For 2006, with the pace of growth in the world economy slowing somewhat, Latin America and the Caribbean is set to register its fourth consecutive year of growth, with regional GDP expanding by about 5.0% and per capita output rising by roughly 3.5%. Nonetheless, the latter has grown on average by just 1.1% per year over the last 15 years (see table I.1).

Table I.1

LATIN AMERICA (20 COUNTRIES): SELECTED SOCIOECONOMIC INDICATORS, 1990–2005											
Country	Year	Per capita GDP (average annual rate of change) ^a	Urban unemployment	Average real earnings ^c	Real minimum wage ^d (urban)	Country	Year	Per capita GDP (average annual rate of change) ^a	Urban unemployment	Average real earnings ^c	Real minimum wage ^d (urban)
			Simple average for the period ^b (percentages)	(Average annual rate of change)					Simple average for the period ^b (percentages)	(Average annual rate of change)	
Argentina	1990–1999	2.5	11.9	0.9	0.8	Honduras	1990–1999	-0.2	6.1	...	0.6
	2000–2005	0.5	15.8	0.0	9.5		2000–2005	1.3	6.8	...	3.8
Bolivia	1990–1999	1.6	5.3	3.0	7.4	Mexico	1990–1999	1.5	3.6	1.0	-4.7
	2000–2005 ^d	0.6	8.0	2.0	1.5		2000–2005	1.1	4.3 ^f	2.6	-0.1
Brazil	1990–1999	0.2	5.6	-1.0	-0.4	Nicaragua	1990–1999	0.6	14.0	8.0	-0.2 ^g
	2000–2005	1.1	9.8	-2.8	4.7		2000–2005	1.2	9.9	0.7	2.7
Chile	1990–1999	4.6	7.6	3.5	5.9	Panama	1990–1999	3.5	16.7	...	1.5
	2000–2005	3.2	8.8	1.6	3.3		2000–2005	2.0	15.1	...	1.3
Colombia	1990–1999	0.9	11.6	2.2	-0.4	Paraguay	1990–1999	-0.3	6.3	0.3	-1.6
	2000–2005	1.6	16.5	1.4	0.9		2000–2005	-0.9	10.7	-1.3	1.4
Costa Rica	1990–1999	2.8	5.4	2.2	1.1	Peru	1990–1999	1.3	8.5	-0.8	1.4
	2000–2005	1.7	6.4	0.3	-0.5		2000–2005	2.4	9.3	0.9	2.6
Cuba	1990–1999	-2.8	6.9	Dominican Rep.	1990–1999	2.8	16.9	...	2.6
	2000–2004	3.3	3.4		2000–2005	2.7	16.5	...	-0.7
Ecuador	1990–1999	0.3	9.4	5.3	0.9	Uruguay	1990–1999	2.5	9.9	0.5	-5.9
	2000–2005	3.1	10.8	...	3.3		2000–2005	-0.2	14.7	-3.6	4.4
El Salvador	1990–1999	2.8	7.8	...	-0.5	Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	1990–1999	0.2	10.3	-4.0	-3.0
	2000–2005	0.3	6.6	...	-1.9		2000–2005	0.7	14.8	-4.7	1.2
Guatemala	1990–1999	1.7	4.0	5.4	-9.8						
	2000–2005	0.2	5.0	1.2 ^e	3.2						
Haiti	1990–1999	-2.0	-8.3	Latin America	1990–1999	1.1	7.7	1.0	2.3
	2000–2005	-2.1	-5.7		2000–2005	1.1	10.3	-0.4	3.1

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

^a Based on the per capita GDP value in dollars, at constant 2000 prices. The 2005 figure is a preliminary estimate.

^b In the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Chile, Dominican Republic, Guatemala and Nicaragua, the figure refers to total national unemployment. In addition, the period used for Cuba was 1991–1999 instead of 1990–1999.

^c In general, the coverage of this index is very incomplete. In most of the countries it refers only to formal-sector workers in the manufacturing sector. The figure shown for 2005 is a preliminary estimate.

^d The figures for urban unemployment and real average earnings correspond to the period 2000–2004.

^e Corresponds to the period 1998–2004.

^f From 2000 onwards, a new methodology for measuring the unemployment rate was used which is not comparable with that used in earlier years.

^g The starting year for the period is 1992.

The relatively high level of economic growth had positive consequences for labour markets, and the urban unemployment rate fell by more than one percentage point, from 10.2% in 2004 to 9.1% in 2005. Although 18 million people remain

unemployed, this is the lowest level recorded since the mid-1990s.

It is notable that the recovery of employment is increasingly based on the creation of wage

employment, which expanded by 4.2% on average in 2005, while own-account employment remained flat. Many of the region's countries also reported job growth in the formal sector (i.e., jobs covered by a comprehensive social security system or, in the case of Peru, workers hired by formal enterprise), contrary to the prevailing trend of the last 25 years in which the vast majority of new jobs have been created in the informal sector. Nonetheless, a large proportion of the new jobs are low paying, and short-term employment contracts are increasingly common in the formal sector (ECLAC, 2006b). In 14 out of 19 Latin American and Caribbean countries, unemployment actually worsened compared to the 1990s; and in six cases (Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Colombia, Dominican Republic, Panama and Uruguay) urban unemployment rates for 2000–2005 were above 14% (see table I.1).

The healthy regional economic panorama was bolstered by a drop in the inflation rate from 7.4% in 2004 to 6.1% in 2005; and, as a rate of 5.4% is

forecast for 2006, the downward trend seen since 2002 is set to continue. Annual variations in the consumer price index were below 10% in all the countries, except Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela and Costa Rica, as well as Haiti, which posted the region's highest inflation rate of 14.8%.

A recent study comparing price levels in 10 South American countries based on a common basket of goods and services, under the International Comparison Program, shows that the cost of living in the subregion in 2005 was highest in Chile and Brazil, and lowest in Bolivia and Paraguay. Although price levels in countries tend to correlate positively with household consumption, there are exceptions. Brazilian households consume slightly less than their Peruvian counterparts, although the price level in Brazil is one third higher than in Peru; and in Argentina the price index is lower than in Colombia, although per capita household expenses in Argentina are nearly double those reported in Colombia (see table I.2).

Table I.2

SOUTH AMERICA (10 COUNTRIES): COMPARISON OF PRICE LEVELS AND PER CAPITA HOUSEHOLD CONSUMPTION, 2005		
Country	Price index (Regional average = 100)	Household consumption per capita (Regional average = 100)
Chile	117.7	148.0
Brazil	114.2	90.5
Uruguay	108.0	143.5
Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	101.3	108.7
Peru	85.8	91.6
Ecuador	85.7	88.5
Colombia	85.3	84.1
Argentina	77.5	161.3
Paraguay	57.4	69.8
Bolivia	53.8	52.7

Source: International Comparison Program, *Consumo de los hogares. Primeros resultados para América del Sur*, June 2006.

In 2005, economic growth had minimal effects on average real wages in the formal sector (they rose by just 0.5% on average), except in Argentina, Dominican Republic and Uruguay, which posted increases of more than 4%. Seeking to boost a recovery in the purchasing power of labour incomes weakened by severe economic crises and high inflation rates of previous years, the authorities of these countries deployed active wage policies involving sharp increases in the minimum wage, amounting to 32%, 19% and 70% in real terms, respectively (ECLAC, 2006b). In four countries (Brazil, Costa Rica, Mexico and Peru) the purchasing power of wages actually fell (see table 1 of the statistical appendix).

Lastly, the purchasing power of urban minimum wages regionwide increased by 5.5% in 2005, following growth averaging 3.1% per year in 2000–2005. This differs from the situation in the 1990s, when the minimum wage was handled cautiously (it grew by an average of 2.3% in 1990–1999) to curb rising labour costs and avoid creating inflationary pressures. Be that as it may, proactive policies were by no means the general rule since the minimum real wage actually decreased in 2000–2005 in five countries (Costa Rica, El Salvador, Haiti, Mexico and the Dominican Republic) (see table I.1).

2. Poverty in the region

The most recent estimates available for the Latin American countries (corresponding to 2005) show 39.8% of the region's population as living in poverty, and 15.4% of the population as extremely

poor or indigent. The poor thus numbered 209 million in total, of whom 81 million were indigent.¹ As noted below, in 2006, the poverty and indigence percentages should be somewhat lower, at 38.5% and 14.7%, respectively, which would imply a total of 205 million poor, including 79 million indigent (see figure I.1 and tables I.3 and I.4).

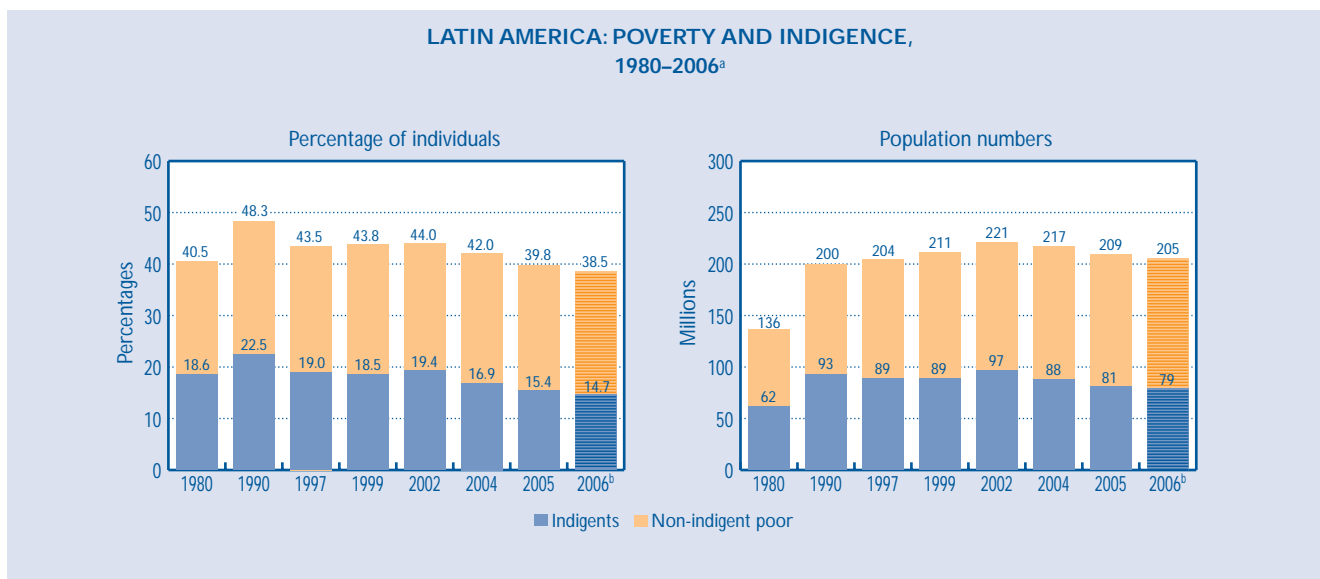
A comparison of these figures with those of 2002 shows significant progress in reducing poverty, especially in the case of indigence. The percentage of people living in poverty was down by 4.2 percentage points from the 44.0% level reported that year. The number of people living in extreme poverty or indigence fell by a similar proportion, 4.0 percentage points, but this latter reduction is clearly more significant, since the 2002 figure was 19.4%.

Poverty reduction did not occur only in 2005: poverty and indigence trends display a clear turning point in 2004, following a standstill in both indices between 1997 and 2002.

The break in trend that began in 2004 is evidenced by the drop in the number of people living in situations of critical deprivation. The latest figures show that the number of poor in 2004 was down by 4 million in relation to the 2002 figure, and the number of indigent was down by 9 million –thus reversing the sustained rising trend that had prevailed in Latin America for more than two decades (apart from a slight dip in 2000, according to projections given in previous editions of the *Social Panorama*). At 209 million, the number of poor in 2005 was 8 million fewer than in 2004, while the 81 million indigents recorded in 2005 represent a reduction of 7 million.

¹ The figures for 2004 and 2005 are estimates based on household surveys actually conducted in those years, and not projections based on previous surveys –unlike the figures reported for those years in the *Social Panorama of Latin America 2005*. The new poverty and indigence rates are lower than the previous projections for 2005 of 40.6% and 16.8%, respectively. This mainly reflects distributive improvements in a number of countries, which increased the growth elasticity of poverty, whereas the projections assumed a constant distribution.

Figure I.1



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

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

^b Projections.

Table I.3

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

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

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

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

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

Table I.4

LATIN AMERICA: POOR AND INDIGENT POPULATION, 1980–2005 ^a						
	Million people					
	Poor ^b			Indigent ^c		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
1980	135.9	62.9	73.0	62.4	22.5	39.9
1990	200.2	121.7	78.5	93.4	45.0	48.4
1997	203.8	125.7	78.2	88.8	42.2	46.6
1999	211.4	134.2	77.2	89.4	43.0	46.4
2002	221.4	146.7	74.8	97.4	51.6	45.8
2004	217.4	146.5	71.0	87.6	47.6	40.0
2005	209.0	137.9	71.1	81.1	41.8	39.3

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

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

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

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

From a broader perspective, the figures reported for 2005 reflect significant progress in the fight against poverty, and particularly against indigence, when compared with the situation in 1990. Since then, the poverty rate has declined by 8.5 percentage points, and the indigence rate by 7.1 points. These variations also translate into a drop in the absolute number of indigents, of roughly 12 million. But the absolute number of people living in poverty was 9 million more than in 1990.

These results become even more significant when one considers that in 2005 the poverty rate fell below the 1980 figure (when 40.5% of the population was classified as poor) for the first time, and that the indigence rate is three percentage points below the 18.6% reported in that year. Nonetheless, this longer-term view also shows that the region has taken 25 years to reduce poverty to 1980 levels. The encouraging progress seen recently, and that expected for this year, must therefore not be allowed to cloud the fact that poverty levels remain very high and the region still has a major task ahead.

In the course of more than two decades, the structure of the poor population has varied in terms of composition between indigent and non-indigent poor, as has the distribution between urban and rural areas. With regard to the first point, while in 1980 and 1990 virtually 5 out of every 10 poor people were indigent, by 2005 the proportion had dropped to 4 out of 10. This shows that while the number of poor has not decreased, the average gap between the poor people's incomes and the poverty line has narrowed. In other words, the poor of 2005 are slightly less poor, on average, than those of earlier decades.

With regard to the geographical distribution of the poor, the figures bear out the trend of increasing concentration in urban areas. In 2005, 66% of all the region's poor and 52% of its indigents were living in urban areas. These figures represent an appreciable increase in relation to those of 1990 (61% and 48% respectively), and an even bigger gap in comparison to the 1980 figures of 46% and 36% (see table I.3).²

² Nonetheless, the proportion of the urban population living in poverty is clearly less than that the percentage of poor in the population as a whole. In 2005, 77% of all people living in private homes were in urban areas.

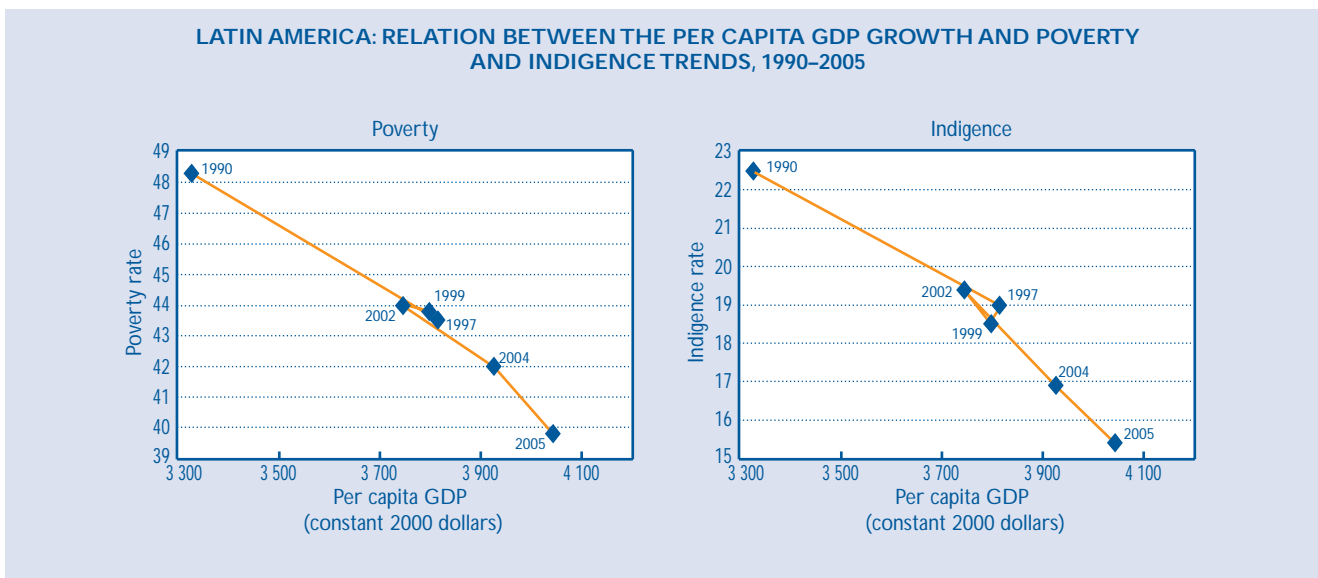
This does not necessarily mean that the differences in the poverty and indigence rates between urban and rural areas have decreased proportionately; in fact rural poverty rates significantly exceed urban ones, particularly in the case of indigence. In 2005, the incidence of poverty in rural areas was 1.7 times greater than in urban zones, compared to 1.6 times higher in 1990, and 2.0 times in 1980. In the case of indigence, the rural rate was 3.2 times higher than the urban rate, compared to 3.1 times higher in 1990 and 2.6 times higher in 1980.

Generally speaking, changes in poverty and indigence can be explained by the interaction of two key factors: variations in average per capita income and changes in the way income is distributed. It may therefore be argued that the reduction in poverty and indigence in recent years stems partly from the recovery of economic growth in the region, in clear contrast to the decline in per capita income recorded in 1997–2002 (see figure I.2).

The second factor explaining the positive results in terms of poverty and indigence is the decrease in income concentration that occurred in some of the region's countries between 2002 and 2005, as described in section D of this chapter. This effect shows up as a sharp increase in the growth elasticity of poverty (i.e., the amount of poverty reduction resulting from each additional percentage point of growth).

On average, in 1990–2005, each percentage point of per capita output growth has translated into reductions of 0.8% in the poverty rate and 1.5% in indigence.³ Moreover, the growth elasticity of poverty and indigence has been appreciably higher in recent years than it was in the 1990s. Between 1990 and 1999, per capita output expressed in constant dollars grew by roughly 14.2%, while the poverty and indigence rates declined by approximately 9.3% and 17.8% respectively. This means that for each additional percentage point of growth, poverty fell by 0.7% and indigence by 1.3%.

Figure I.2



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

³ These figures express the proportional change in the poverty rate, and not absolute percentage point changes.

Between 1999 and 2005, the 6.5% increase in output per capita was accompanied by a 9.1% fall in the poverty rate and a 16.8% reduction in the indigence rate, which means growth elasticity values of -1.4 for poverty and -2.6 for indigence.

Poverty and indigence trends over the last few years, in conjunction with the economic growth forecast for each of the region's countries to 2006, suggest that poverty and indigence rates should maintain their downward trend. The percentage of poor is expected to fall by about one percentage point to 38.5% in 2006, and the percentage of

indigents should decrease by half a percentage point to 14.7%. If these results are achieved, the number of poor and indigent people should fall further to 205 million and 79 million respectively. As noted above, these would be the lowest rates recorded for Latin America since the 1980s. They would also represent a reduction for the third year running in the absolute number of people living in poverty and indigence, which is unprecedented in the region. As a result, the number of poor projected for 2006 would be similar to the 1997 figure, thus recovering the pre-Asian-crisis level (see figure I.1).

Box I.1

METHOD USED FOR POVERTY MEASUREMENT

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

Where the relevant information was available, the cost of a basic food basket covering the population's nutritional needs was estimated for each country and geographical area, taking into account consumption habits, the effective availability of foodstuffs and their relative prices, as well as the differences between metropolitan areas, other urban areas and rural areas. To this value, which constituted the "indigence line", was then added an estimate of the resources households need to satisfy their basic non-nutritional needs, to make up the total value of the poverty line. For this purpose, the indigence line was multiplied by a constant factor of 2 for urban areas and 1.75 for rural areas.^a The monthly equivalent in dollars of the most recent poverty lines varies between US\$ 45 and US\$ 157 in urban areas, and between US\$ 32 and US\$ 98 in rural areas. The figure for indigence lines ranges from US\$ 23 to US\$ 79 in urban areas, and from US\$ 8 to US\$ 56 in rural areas (in all cases, the lower values relate to Bolivia and the higher ones to Mexico (see table 5 of the statistical appendix).^b

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

Data on family income were taken from household surveys conducted in the respective countries, in the years that correspond to the poverty estimates contained in this publication. In line with the usual practice at ECLAC, both 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), independent labour (including self-supply and the consumption value of home-made products), property, retirement and other pensions and other transfers received by households. In most of the countries, household income included the imputed rental value of owner-occupied dwellings.

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

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

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

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

UPDATING THE METHODOLOGY FOR MEASURING POVERTY

In late 2005, ECLAC embarked upon a review of the method it has used to measure poverty and indigence for almost three decades. The review has two main objectives. The first is to use the most recent income and expenditure surveys in the various countries of the region to construct new basic baskets. Most of the indigence and poverty lines currently in use are based on consumption patterns inferred from surveys conducted in the 1980s. Only recently has ECLAC had access to income and expenditure surveys in 18 Latin American countries, most of which were conducted in the 1990s and in some cases more recently. These provide the information needed to construct consumption baskets that better reflect prevailing habits and conditions.

The second aim is to look at introducing methodological changes in line with progress made in poverty measurement worldwide, both in the academic domain and in terms of the practical experience of countries themselves. The method developed by ECLAC in the late 1970s became a model which the countries of the region replicated, albeit adapting some of its characteristics to their specific national needs. Since that time, other considerations worth taking into account have emerged on how to quantify household living standards; and rapid technological process has made it possible to process survey data from new perspectives that were previously unviable.

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

The methodological aspects that are under review cover the whole process of constructing poverty lines. Broadly speaking, these include selection of the reference group for basic baskets; review of the content of the non-food goods basket; calculation of updated Orshansky coefficients; and the possibility of constructing poverty lines differentiated by household type. When measuring household resources, the main points of interest concern the breadth of the income concept used and the review of mechanisms for evaluating the quality and correction of income data from household surveys.

The ongoing methodological review aims to obtain better quality and more accurate statistics, as an essential requirement for designing and implementing more appropriate social policies that are better able to alleviate the population's basic needs. In some cases, application of the new standards, together with an updating of information sources, can be expected to produce changes in the indigence and poverty results that have been reported thus far.

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

3. Poverty and indigence in the different countries

Poverty and indigence levels in Latin American countries have traditionally shown significant dispersion and they continue to do so according to the most recent measurements. A glance at the country ranking is sufficient to corroborate this. Argentina (urban areas) Chile, Costa Rica and Uruguay (urban areas) have the lowest levels of poverty and indigence at below 30% and 10%,

respectively. The Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Brazil, Mexico and Panama form another relatively homogeneous group, with poverty rates around 35% and indigence between 10% and 16%. These are followed by a group consisting of Colombia, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador and Peru, which display poverty rates between 47% and 51%, and indigence rates between 19% and 25%. Lastly, Bolivia, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and Paraguay have poverty rates above 60% and extreme poverty above 30% (see table I.5).⁴

Table I.5

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POVERTY AND INDIGENCE INDICATORS, 1990–2005 ^a									
(Percentages)									
Country	Year	Households and population below the:							
		Poverty line ^b				Indigence line			
		H		PG	FGT ₂	H		PG	FGT ₂
		Households	Population			Households	Population		
Argentina ^c	1990 ^d	16.2	21.2	7.2	3.4	3.5	5.2	1.6	0.8
	1999	16.3	23.7	8.6	4.3	4.3	6.6	2.1	1.1
	2002	34.9	45.4	21.1	12.8	13.9	20.9	8.4	4.6
	2004	21.7	29.4	12.2	7.0	7.5	11.1	4.2	2.2
	2005	18.7	26.0	10.4	5.8	6.0	9.1	3.4	1.8
Bolivia	1989 ^e	48.9	52.6	24.5	15.0	21.9	23.0	9.7	6.1
	1999	54.7	60.6	33.9	24.1	32.1	36.4	20.3	14.7
	2002	55.5	62.4	34.4	23.8	31.7	37.1	19.5	13.5
	2004	56.4	63.9	32.1	20.1	29.9	34.7	15.0	8.9
Brazil	1990	41.4	48.0	23.5	14.7	18.3	23.4	9.7	5.5
	1999	29.9	37.5	17.0	10.2	9.6	12.9	5.3	3.3
	2001	29.9	37.5	17.3	10.7	10.0	13.2	5.8	3.8
	2003	30.7	38.7	17.8	10.9	10.4	13.9	5.9	3.7
	2004	29.8	37.7	16.8	10.0	9.0	12.1	5.0	3.1
	2005	28.5	36.3	15.9	9.4	7.8	10.6	4.3	2.6
Chile	1990	33.3	38.6	14.9	8.0	10.6	13.0	4.4	2.3
	1998	17.8	21.7	7.5	3.8	4.6	5.6	2.0	1.1
	2000	16.3	20.2	7.0	3.7	4.5	5.6	2.1	1.2
	2003	15.3	18.7	6.3	3.2	3.9	4.7	1.7	1.0
Colombia	1994	47.3	52.5	26.6	17.5	25.0	28.5	13.8	9.1
	1999	48.7	54.9	25.6	15.7	23.2	26.8	11.2	6.9
	2002	45.0	51.1	23.9	14.8	21.6	24.6	10.4	6.5
	2004	45.2	51.1	23.8	14.6	21.4	24.2	10.2	6.3
	2005	40.6	46.8	20.7	12.3	17.4	20.2	8.3	5.0
Costa Rica	1990	23.6	26.3	10.7	6.5	9.8	9.9	4.8	3.4
	1999	18.2	20.3	8.1	4.8	7.5	7.8	3.5	2.3
	2002	18.6	20.3	8.4	5.2	7.7	8.2	3.9	2.7
	2004	19.7	20.5	8.4	5.0	8.1	8.0	3.7	2.5
	2005	19.5	21.1	7.9	4.4	7.1	7.0	2.9	1.9
Ecuador	1990 ^c	55.8	62.1	27.6	15.8	22.6	26.2	9.2	4.9
	1999 ^c	58.0	63.5	30.1	18.2	27.2	31.3	11.5	6.3
	2002 ^c	42.6	49.0	20.8	11.8	16.3	19.4	6.9	3.7
	2004	44.2	51.2	21.9	12.3	18.4	22.3	7.9	4.0
	2005	41.7	48.3	20.9	12.0	17.7	21.2	7.9	4.2
El Salvador	1995	47.6	54.2	24.0	14.3	18.2	21.7	9.1	5.6
	1999	43.5	49.8	22.9	14.0	18.3	21.9	9.4	5.8
	2001	42.9	48.9	22.7	14.0	18.3	22.1	9.5	5.7
	2004	40.4	47.5	21.1	12.6	15.6	19.0	8.1	5.0
Guatemala	1989	63.0	69.1	35.9	23.1	36.7	41.8	18.5	11.2
	1998	53.5	61.1	27.3	15.4	26.1	31.6	10.7	5.1
	2002	52.8	60.2	27.0	15.4	26.9	30.9	10.7	5.5

⁴ Box I.3 contains a brief analysis of poverty and indigence in Caribbean countries.

Table I.5 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POVERTY AND INDIGENCE INDICATORS, 1990–2005 ^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		
Honduras	1990	75.2	80.8	50.2	35.9	53.9	60.9	31.5	20.2
	1999	74.3	79.7	47.4	32.9	50.6	56.8	27.9	17.5
	2002	70.9	77.3	45.3	31.2	47.1	54.4	26.6	16.2
	2003	68.5	74.8	44.5	30.9	47.4	53.9	26.3	16.3
Mexico	1989	39.0	47.7	18.7	9.9	14.0	18.7	5.9	2.7
	1998	38.0	46.9	18.4	9.4	13.2	18.5	5.3	2.2
	2000	33.3	41.1	15.8	8.1	10.7	15.2	4.7	2.1
	2002	31.8	39.4	13.9	6.7	9.1	12.6	3.5	1.4
	2004	29.8	37.0	13.2	6.5	8.7	11.7	3.5	1.6
	2005	28.3	35.5	12.9	6.4	8.3	11.7	3.6	1.7
Nicaragua	1993	68.1	73.6	41.9	29.3	43.2	48.4	24.3	16.2
	1998	65.1	69.9	39.4	27.3	40.1	44.6	22.6	15.1
	2001	62.9	69.4	36.9	24.3	36.3	42.4	19.0	11.7
Panama	1991 ^c	33.6	39.9	17.9	10.9	13.9	16.2	7.3	4.7
	1999 ^c	20.8	25.7	9.9	5.4	6.6	8.1	3.1	1.8
	2002	28.4	34.0	15.8	9.7	13.9	17.4	7.4	4.2
	2004	26.0	31.8	13.9	8.2	11.5	14.8	6.0	3.3
	2005	26.4	33.0	14.8	9.1	12.0	15.7	6.9	4.1
Paraguay	1990 ^f	36.8	43.2	16.1	8.0	10.4	13.1	3.6	1.5
	1999	51.7	60.6	30.2	19.0	26.0	33.8	14.5	8.5
	2001	52.0	61.0	30.3	19.5	26.5	33.2	15.4	9.6
	2004	57.1	65.9	33.0	20.6	29.2	36.9	15.3	8.6
	2005	51.9	60.5	29.5	18.0	25.4	32.1	13.1	7.4
Peru	1997	40.5	47.6	20.8	12.0	20.4	25.1	10.1	5.7
	1999	42.3	48.6	20.6	11.7	18.7	22.4	9.2	5.1
	2001 ^g	46.8	54.8	20.1	24.4
	2003 ^g	46.7	54.7	17.1	21.6
	2004 ^g	44.1	51.1	15.6	18.9
Dominican Republic	2000	43.0	46.9	22.1	13.9	20.6	22.1	10.1	6.7
	2002	40.9	44.9	20.5	12.9	18.6	20.3	9.3	6.3
	2004	50.4	54.4	27.0	16.9	26.1	29.0	12.2	6.9
	2005	43.7	47.5	23.0	14.4	22.4	24.6	10.4	6.2
Uruguay ^c	1990	11.8	17.9	5.3	2.4	2.0	3.4	0.9	0.4
	1999	5.6	9.4	2.7	1.2	0.9	1.8	0.4	0.2
	2002	9.3	15.4	4.5	1.9	1.3	2.5	0.6	0.2
	2004	13.2	20.9	6.6	3.0	2.5	4.7	1.1	0.4
	2005	11.8	18.8	6.0	2.7	2.2	4.1	1.0	0.4
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	1990	34.2	39.8	15.7	8.5	11.8	14.4	5.0	2.4
	1999	44.0	49.4	22.6	13.7	19.4	21.7	9.0	5.5
	2002	43.3	48.6	22.1	13.4	19.7	22.2	9.3	5.7
	2004	39.9	45.4	19.7	11.6	16.6	19.0	7.7	4.7
	2005	32.9	37.1	16.6	10.3	14.4	15.9	7.4	5.0
Latin America ^h	1990	41.0	48.3	17.7	22.5
	1999	35.4	43.9	14.1	18.7
	2002	36.1	44.0	14.6	19.4
	2004	34.1	42.0	13.1	16.9
	2005	32.0	39.8	11.8	15.4

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

Note: H = Headcount index; PG = Poverty gap, and FGT₂ = Foster, Greer and Thorbecke index.

^a See box I.4 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 Urban areas.

^d Greater Buenos Aires.

^e Eight departmental capitals plus El Alto.

^f Asunción metropolitan area.

^g Data from the National Institute of Statistics and Informatics (INEI) of Peru. These figures are not comparable with those of previous years owing to the change in the sample framework used for the household survey.

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

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

A few general conclusions may nevertheless be drawn concerning poverty and inequality in the Caribbean. Haiti has the highest incidence of poverty and indigence not only in the Caribbean, but probably in the entire region. This situation has been worsened by two major phenomena. On the one hand, political instability and poor macroeconomic management caused a deep and prolonged economic recession: in 2005, per capita GDP had shrunk to approximately 75% of the 1990 figure. On the other, rapid urbanization resulted in huge numbers of people swarming to the outskirts of cities, where they live in subhuman and extremely vulnerable conditions.

Other countries with high poverty rates in the Caribbean are Dominica, Dominican Republic, Grenada, Guyana, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines and Suriname. At the other end of the spectrum, Antigua and Barbuda, Barbados, and the Bahamas have particularly low levels of absolute poverty which are similar to those of economically highly developed countries. Special mention should be made of Cuba and Puerto Rico. In Cuba, poverty is measured by using the concept of "population at risk", which refers to sectors with insufficient income to purchase a basic basket of food and non-food goods, but who at the same time enjoy guaranteed access to free and subsidized education, health care, social security and welfare. According to this method, in 1999, 20% of Cuba's urban population was "at risk". In Puerto Rico, the poverty rate is based on the official poverty line of the United States Federal Government, which, in 1999, was US\$ 13,290 per year for a three-person family. The use of a parameter from a high-income country accounts for the high incidence of poverty on the island in 2005 (45%).

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

The available data show that poverty declined substantially in the 1990s, at least in Guyana, where it diminished from 43% in 1993 to 35% in 1999; in Jamaica, where it fell from 28% in 1990 to 15% in 2005; and in Puerto Rico, where the decline was from 59% in 1989 to 45% in 2005. In the Dominican Republic –where the changes introduced in the household survey in 2000 prevent comparisons being made with previous years (see box 1.3 of the *Social Panorama of Latin America, 2002–2003*)– poverty increased between 2002 and 2004 and then declined in 2005, such that the level of 47.5% reported for that year is very similar to the 46.9% recorded in 2000 (see table I.5).

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

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DEMOGRAPHIC, POVERTY AND INEQUALITY INDICATORS IN THE CARIBBEAN								
Economies	Population 2006	Year of estimation of poverty and inequality indicators	Poverty rate	Indigence rate	Poverty gap	Gini index	Share of consumption/national income received by the	
	(Thousand people)		(% of people)		(% of poverty line)		poorest 20% of the population (%)	richest 20% of the population (%)
Anguilla	12	2002	23.0	2.0	6.9	0.31	6.5	39.7
Antigua and Barbuda	82	Early 1990s	12.0	0.53
Netherlands Antilles	183
Aruba	101
Bahamas	327	2001	9.3	0.46	4.4	42.0
Barbados	270	1997	13.9	1.0	2.3	0.39
Belize	276	2002	33.5	10.8	11.1	0.40
Cuba	11 400	1999	20.0 ^a	...	4.3 ^b	0.38 ^c
Dominica	80	2002	39.0	15.0	10.2	0.35	7.6	44.6
Grenada	104	1998	32.1	12.9	15.3	0.45
Guyana	752	1993	43.2	20.7	16.2	0.40	6.3	46.9
		1999	35.0	21.3	12.4	0.43	4.5	49.7
Haiti	9 317	2001	75.0	56.0	10.0	0.65	2.4	63.4
Turks and Caicos Islands	27	1999	25.9	3.2	5.7	0.37
British Virgin Islands	22	2002	22.0	1.0	4.1	0.23	10.0	36.0
United States Virgin Islands	113	2000	32.5
Jamaica	2 662	1990	28.4	...	7.9	0.38	6.0	46.0
		2005	14.8	...	4.6 ^d	0.38 ^d	6.1 ^d	45.9 ^d
Montserrat	5
Puerto Rico	3 974	1989	58.9 ^e	0.51	2.9	53.2
		2005	44.9 ^e
Dominican Republic	9 240	2000	46.9	22.1	22.1	0.55	2.7	59.5
		2005	47.5	24.6	23.0	0.57	3.0	56.1
Saint Kitts and Nevis	43	2000 (Saint Kitts)	30.5	11.0	2.5	0.40
		2000 (Nevis)	32.0	17.0	2.8	0.37
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	121	1996	37.5	25.7	12.6	0.56
Saint Lucia	163	1995	25.1	7.1	8.6	0.43	5.2	48.3
Suriname	453	2000	69.2	...	31.4	0.46	12.6 ^f	51.8
Trinidad and Tobago	1 311	1992	21.2	11.2	7.3	0.40	5.5	45.9

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of household surveys conducted in Dominican Republic and information from Elena Alvarez and Jorge Mattar (coords.), *Política social y reformas estructurales: Cuba a principios del siglo XXI* (LC/L.2091), Mexico City, ECLAC subregional headquarters in Mexico/Instituto Nacional de Investigaciones Económicas/United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), April 2004; Caribbean Development Bank (CDB), *Anguilla Poverty Assessment Report*, Saint Michael, 2004, *Dominica Poverty Assessment Report*, Saint Michael, 2003, *British Virgin Islands Poverty Assessment Report*, Saint Michael, 2003, *Saint Kitts and Nevis Poverty Assessment Report*, Saint Michael, 2001, *Grenada Poverty Assessment Report*, Saint Michael, 1999, *Saint Vincent and the Grenadines Poverty Assessment Report*, Saint Michael, 1996, *Saint Lucia Poverty Assessment Report*, Saint Michael, 1995, *Turks and Caicos Islands Poverty Assessment Report*, Saint Michael, 2000; World Bank, *World Development Indicators 2006*, Washington, D.C., *Poverty Reduction and Human Resource Development in the Caribbean*, Washington, D.C., May 1996; Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), "CEPALSTAT" [online database] <<http://websie.eclac.cl/sisgen/ConsultaIntegrada.asp>>; Ministry of Finance, Department of Statistics, *The Bahamas Living Conditions Survey 2001: Preliminary Findings*, Nassau, 2001; *Labour Force and Household Income Report 2001*, Nassau, 2001;

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Government of Belize, 2002 *Belize Poverty Assessment Report*, Belmopan, 2004; Government of Guyana, *Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper*, Georgetown, May 2002; Government of Jamaica, *Millennium Development Goals*, Kingston, April 2004, *National Poverty Eradication Programme*, Kingston, 2006; Haiti/United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), *Rapport national sur les objectifs du millénaire pour le développement*, Port-au-Prince, 2004; United Nations, *The Millennium Development Goals: A Latin American and Caribbean Perspective (LC/G.2331-P)*, José Luis Machinea, Alicia Bárcena and Arturo León (coords.), Santiago, Chile, August 2005; Census Bureau, *2000 Census of Population and Housing*, Washington, D.C., August 2003; P. Sletten and W. Egset, "Poverty in Haiti", *FAFO-paper*, No. 2004:31; M.D. Thomas and E. Wint, *Inequality and Poverty in the Eastern Caribbean*, document presented at the Seventh Annual Development Conference of the Eastern Caribbean Central Bank (ECCB), Basseterre, 21–22 November 2002; United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), *Suriname MDG Baseline Report*, Paramaribo, 2005; United Nations University/World Institute for Development Economics Research (UNU/WIDER), *World Income Inequality Database (WIID2.0a)*, Helsinki, June 2005; American FactFinder, official site [online] <<http://factfinder.census.gov>>.

^a Urban areas only; refers to population at risk of falling into poverty.

^b 1996.

^c 1996–1998; urban areas.

^d 2001.

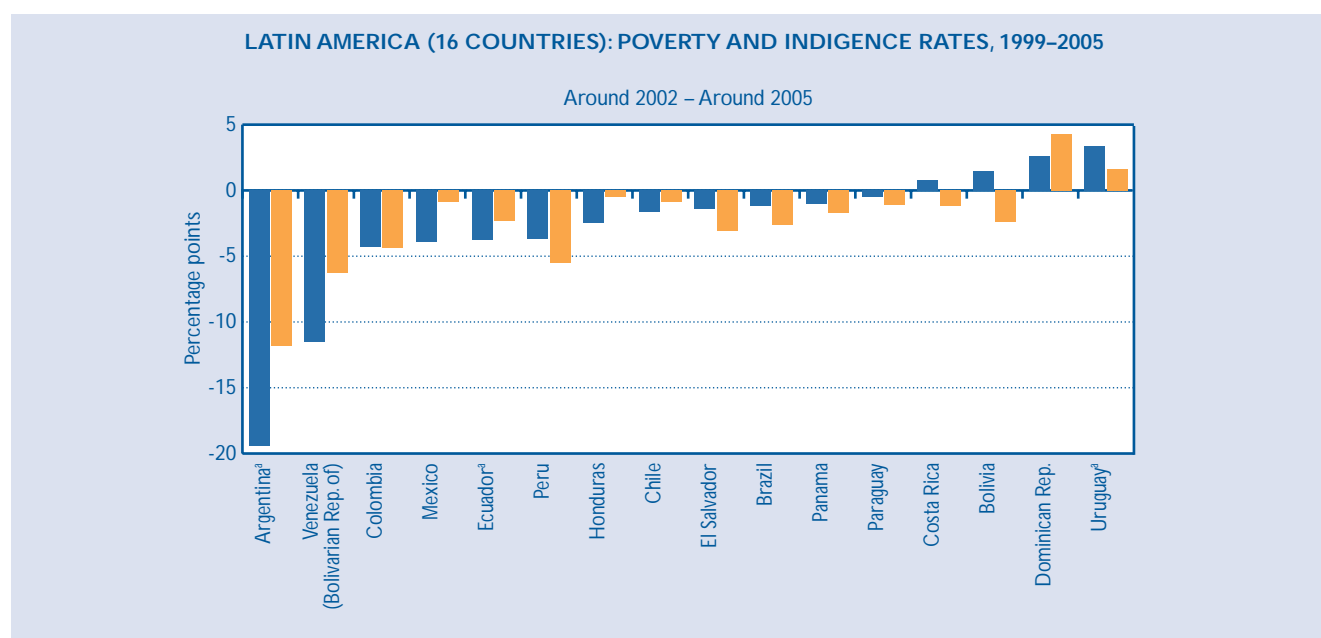
^e Official poverty line established by the Federal Government of the United States of America.

^f Refers to the poorest 40% of the population.

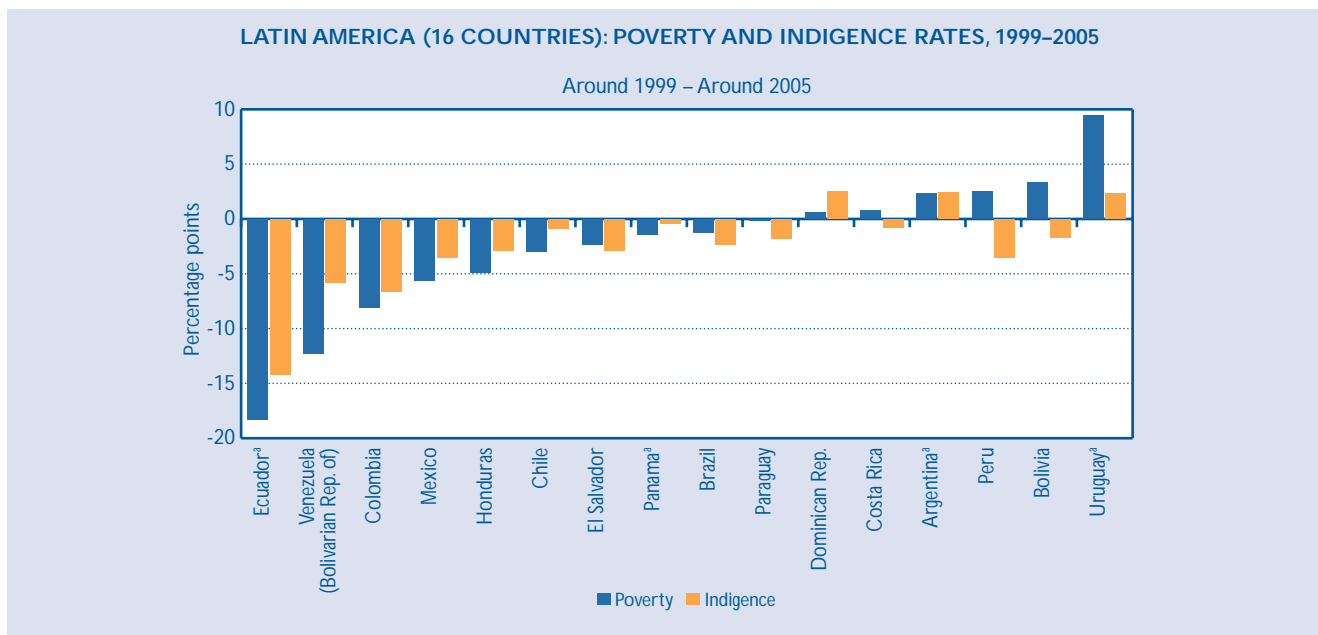
A large group of countries report reductions in both poverty and indigence compared with measurements taken around 2001 and 2002. The largest improvement was seen in Argentina (data from urban areas), where the poverty rate fell by 19.4 percentage points, and indigence dropped by 11.8 points. Although this represents a recovery from the severe crisis that struck the country in the first few

years of this decade, it was not sufficient to fully compensate for the deterioration that occurred between 1999 and 2002, when the proportion of the population living in poverty surged from 23.7% to 45.4%. Consequently, poverty and indigence levels in Argentina in 2005 were still above those of 1999, by 1.8 and 2.5 percentage points respectively (see figure I.3).⁵

Figure I.3



⁵ Estimates published by the National Institute of Statistics and Censuses (INDEC) of Argentina for the first half of 2006 showed that both poverty and indigence decreased by a further 7% approximately in that period (see www.indec.gov.ar).



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

^a Urban areas.

The Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela is another notable case of poverty reduction, with poverty falling from 48.6% to 37.1% between 2002 and 2005, and indigence declining from 22.2% to 15.9%. Although this country also experienced a sharp drop in per capita GDP in both 2002 and 2003, it was able to improve on the pre-crisis situation in the subsequent upswing. The country's poverty and indigence rates for 2005 are well below those of 1999 (by 12.3 and 5.8 percentage points, respectively) and also show that the situation has improved since the start of the 1990s, at least in terms of the proportion of people living in poverty.⁶

Between 2000/2002 and 2003/2005, poverty levels also fell significantly (by at least 5% of the value of the indicator) in Chile, Colombia, Ecuador (urban areas), Mexico and Peru.⁷ The proportion of poor people fell by 1.6 percentage points in Chile

and between 3.7 and 4.3 percentage points in the other four countries, while indigence rates also declined appreciably in those countries as well as in Bolivia, Brazil, Costa Rica, El Salvador and Panama. In some of these cases, the percentage-point reduction in indigence was even greater than that of poverty. The countries mentioned also show significant reductions in poverty and indigence when the comparison is based on years around 1999.

At the other extreme, the Dominican Republic and Uruguay are the only countries whose poverty and incidence rates both rose between 2002 and 2005. This performance is the result of contrasting trends in the two subperiods in both countries. Between 2002 and 2004, the two countries witnessed a significant decline in living standards, together with a rise in the poverty rate of almost 10 percentage points in the Dominican Republic and

⁶ Figures for the first half of 2006 published by the National Institute of Statistics (INE) of the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela forecast significant reductions in poverty (particularly indigence) in this period, which could amount to as much as 9% and 27%, respectively (see www.ine.gov.ve).

⁷ As a simple procedure for assessing the statistical significance of the results, variations are rated significant if they amount to 5% or more. This criterion produces similar results to those obtained by using more complex statistical methods to quantify the standard error of poverty measurements.

just under six points in Uruguay. Later, between 2004 and 2005, the two countries staged partial recoveries and the percentage of poor dropped from 51.8% to 45.4% in the Dominican Republic, and from 20.9% to 18.8% in Uruguay. So, while the indicators had not improved enough to restore pre-crisis levels by 2005, they had nevertheless regained a downward trend.

In brief, the latest figures show an improvement in poverty and indigence levels, not only in comparison to the period around 2002, but also with respect to 1999. Over this longer period, eight countries reduced their poverty rates by at least 5%, including the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela and Ecuador (urban areas), while indigence rates also fell significantly in 12 countries. Poverty and indigence worsened appreciably only in Argentina and Uruguay, as noted above (see figure I.3).

In many cases, poverty and indigence trends in rural areas outperformed counterpart urban trends in the period 2002–2005 –particularly in countries such as Costa Rica, El Salvador, Mexico and Paraguay, where rural areas display significant reductions in poverty and indigence, while urban areas have moved in the opposite direction. A striking example is Paraguay, where reductions of 5.5 and 6.1 percentage points, respectively, in rural poverty and indigence were practically cancelled out by increases of 4.9 and 4.8 percentage points in urban areas, leaving the national indicator virtually unchanged. Rural areas also performed better in the Dominican Republic, but here this took the form of a smaller deterioration of the indicators in rural than in urban areas (see table 4 of the statistical appendix).

In keeping with the trends described at the country level, most of the reduction in the number of poor in Latin America between 2002 and 2005 reflected progress made in Argentina and the

Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela.⁸ In these countries, the number of poor decreased by roughly 7 million and 2 million, respectively, out of a total reduction of 12 million for the region as a whole. Of the total reduction of 16 million people living in indigence, much was contributed by Argentina and Brazil, with over 4 million people each, followed by Colombia and Mexico, where between 2.0 and 2.8 million moved out of situations of extreme poverty.

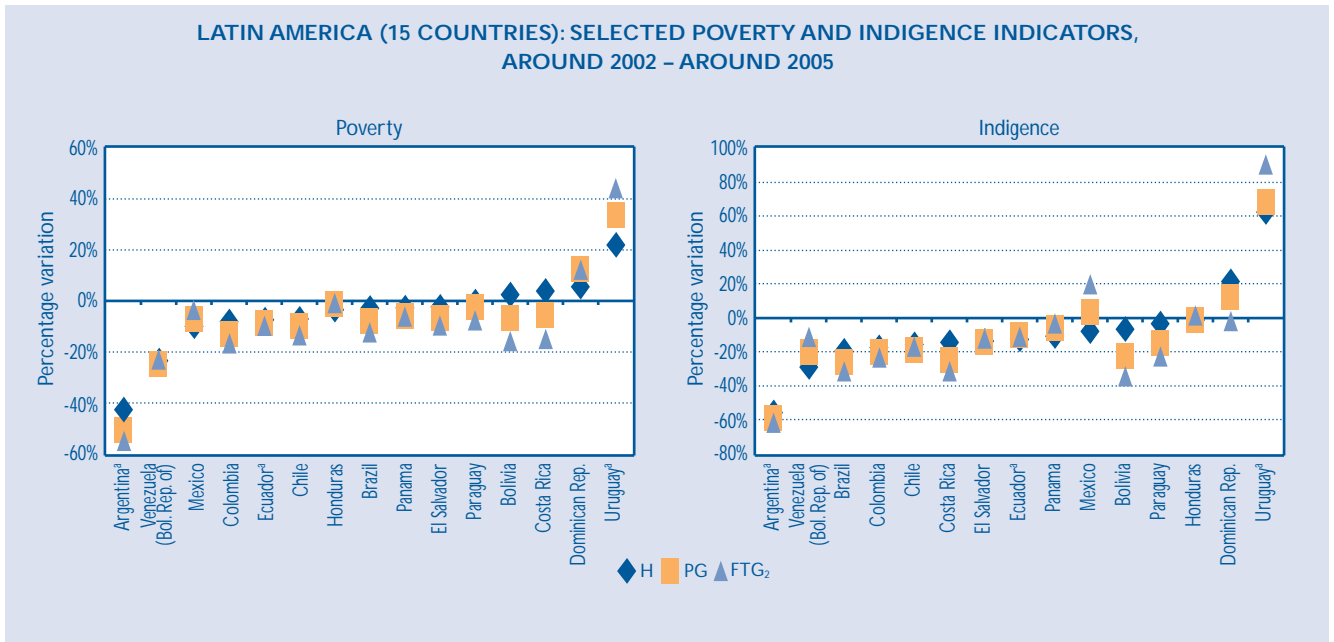
To complement the trend in the percentage of poor and indigent people described by the headcount index (H in the nomenclature of table I.5), it is interesting to review trends in the "depth" and "severity" of poverty in recent years.⁹ The poverty gap indicator, denoted by PG, weights the percentage of people below the line (poverty or indigence) according to the average amount by which their income falls short of the respective threshold. In addition to these two factors, the severity index, or FGT₂, also considers the distribution of income among poor people, and shows the extent of income dispersion within each group.

In one group of countries, including Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salvador and Paraguay, both the poverty gap and the severity of poverty improved more significantly than the overall percentage of poor and indigent people. Bolivia is a particularly notable case, because the reduction in the PG and FGT₂ indices shows a different poverty trend than that shown by the H index. While the latter remained broadly flat, with a slight increase of 2%, the poverty gap narrowed by 7%, and the severity index improved by 16%. These cases clearly show that the improvement in living standards benefited not only those who crossed the poverty and indigence thresholds, but also those who remain below them (see figure I.4).

⁸ These countries displayed unusually high levels of poverty in 2002 as a result of the crises they experienced.

⁹ See box I.4 for an explanation of how these indices are constructed.

Figure I.4



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

There are also cases in which the PG and FGT₂ indices deteriorated more sharply than the headcount index, e.g., in Mexico (indigence), Dominican Republic (poverty) and Uruguay. This is particularly striking in the case of Mexico, where both indices contradict the downward trend in the percentage of indigent people.

These two types of results illustrate the importance of complementing the analysis based on

the headcount index, since this can give an incomplete view of the living standards of people with insufficient income. The effects of social policies and other relevant variables can often go unnoticed or be incorrectly interpreted if information on the level and dispersion of the incomes of those below the poverty and indigence thresholds are not taken into consideration.

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

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

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

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 or indigent individual and the poverty or indigence line.

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

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

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 or indigence gap (PG):

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

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

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

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

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

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

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of James Foster, Joel Greer and Erik Thorbecke, "A class of decomposable poverty measures", *Econometrica*, vol. 52, 1984.

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

The reduction in extreme poverty projected for 2006 shows that the region is back on track to achieve the first target of the Millennium Development Goals and, in percentage terms, has made slightly more progress than expected. Apart from Brazil and Chile, which have already met the target, seven other countries have very good chances of attaining it, since they need only maintain an economic performance similar to the average yielded since 1990. In contrast, eight other countries need to make greater efforts, which means not only faster growth but also a significant improvement in how the fruits of that growth are distributed.

The Millennium Development Goals, formulated on the basis of the United Nations Millennium Declaration of 2000, are an essential benchmark for social development today, both for individual countries and for international organizations such as ECLAC. One of the targets that has aroused greatest attention in this context is that of halving the percentage of people living in extreme poverty or indigence between 1990 and 2015.

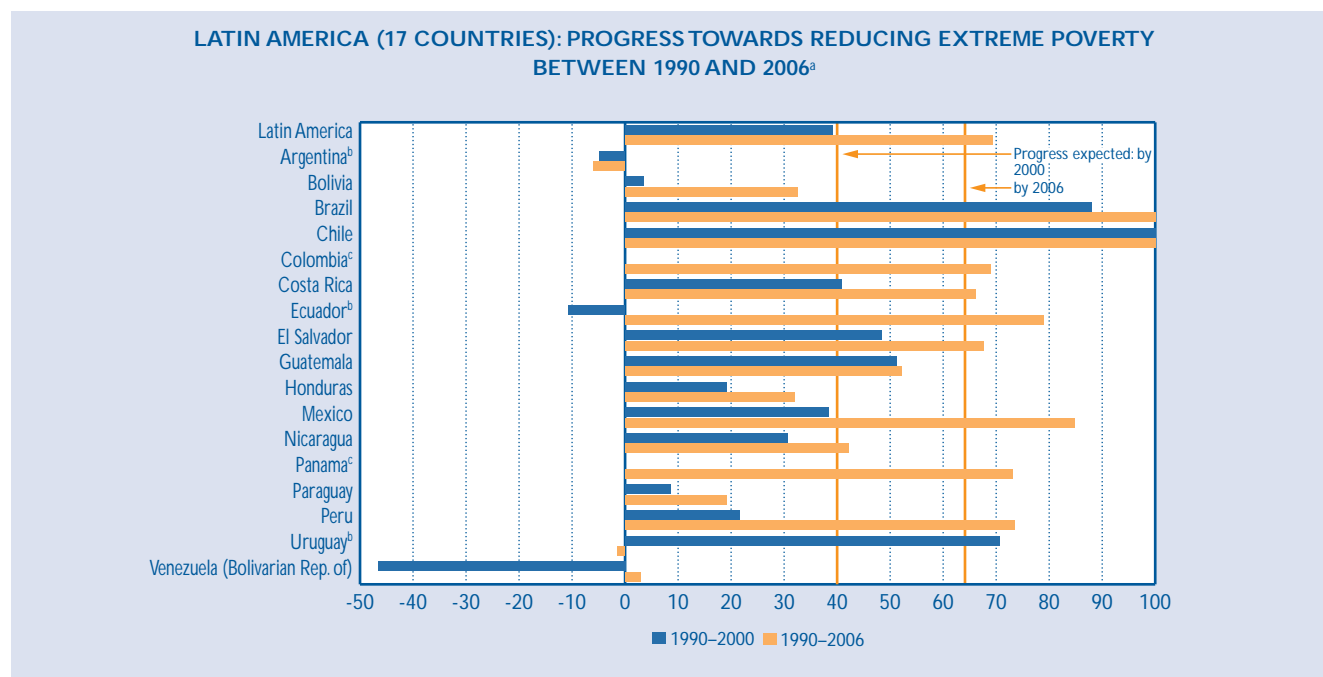
The new poverty estimates devised by ECLAC form a basis on which to update the review of the countries' progress towards achieving the first target of the Millennium Development Goals and assess prospects across the region for meeting that target. The Commission has been working on these tasks

since 2001 and the results have been reported in several editions of *Social Panorama of Latin America*, and in the document *The Millennium Development Goals: A Latin American and Caribbean Perspective* (United Nations, 2005a).

The 14.7% rate of extreme poverty projected for Latin America in 2006 is 7.8 percentage points below the 1990 level. This goes 69% of the way towards achieving the first target of the Millennium Development Goals and slightly exceeds the elapsed portion of the period for achieving the target.¹⁰ As was the case in 2000, it may thus be said that the region as a whole is on track to meet its commitment to halve the 1990 extreme poverty rate by 2015 (see figure I.5).

¹⁰ A total of 25 years (from 1990 to 2015) was envisaged for the target. Of this period, 16 years or 64% of the time has elapsed.

Figure I.5



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

^a The 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 of 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 2006 (64%, the line on the right).

^b Urban areas.

^c In Colombia, the level of extreme poverty in 2000 was the same as in 1990, so the percentage progress achieved is 0%, and the blue bar is not visible in the figure. In Panama, there are no national data for 2000.

Projections of indigence rates for 2006, which extrapolate the most recent available measures using each country's economic growth forecasts, show several instances of significant progress. Firstly, Brazil has joined Chile in the group of nations that have succeeded in halving their indigence from the 1990 level before the deadline expires. Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, Mexico, Panama and Peru all display rates of progress similar to or above the expected rate (64%), which puts them on track to meet the target.

Another group of countries from the region display rates of progress which, although behind schedule, nonetheless show progress additional to

what had been achieved up to 2000. Countries in this situation include Bolivia, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Paraguay and, particularly, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela. Although progress in this last country is only around 2%, this situation is much better than in previous years when the figures showed a significant worsening in relation to 1990.¹¹

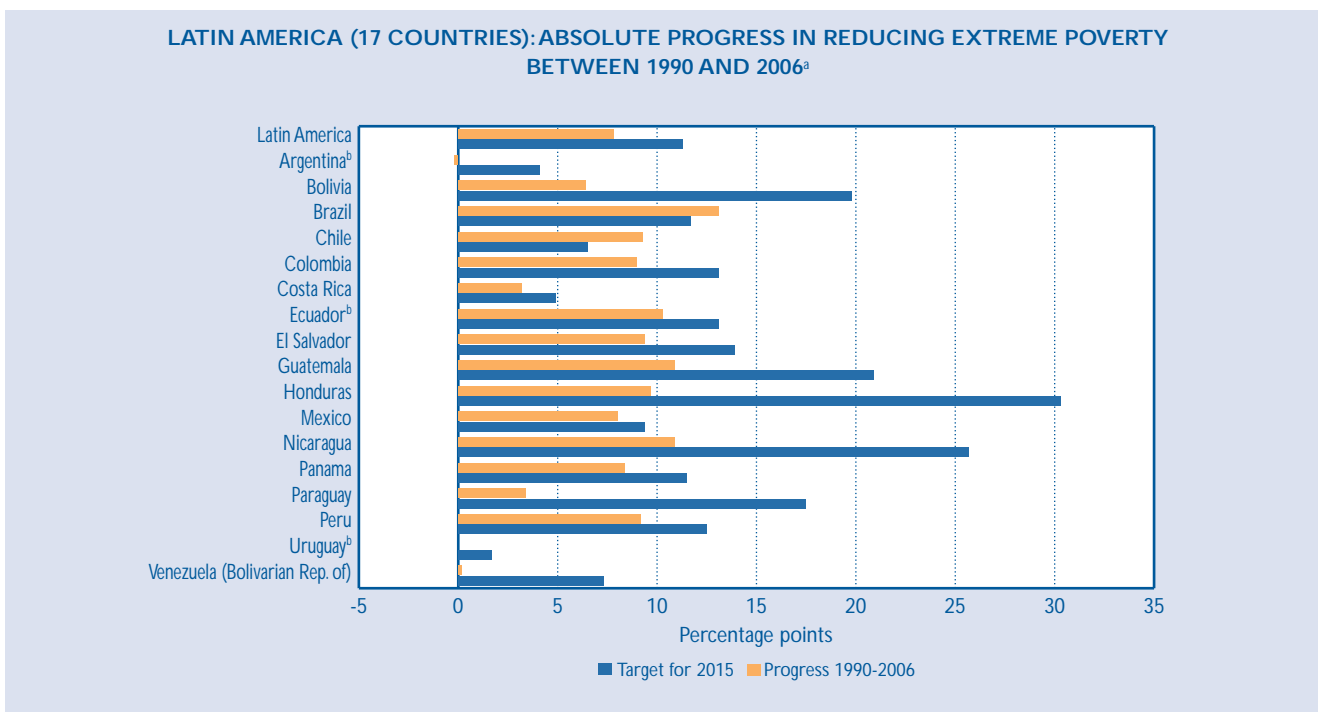
The only countries to have moved further away from the target are Argentina and Uruguay. In the case of Argentina, extreme poverty has gradually decreased in recent years such that indigence in 2006 should be less than half a percentage point above its 1990 level.

¹¹ The results for the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela are being evaluated, given the wide discrepancy that exists in the 1990 base value between the ECLAC estimate and that conducted by the country's National Institute of Statistics (INE). The latter records a considerably higher value for that year, thus indicating a high percentage of progress towards the target and, indeed, predicting that the country should meet the target by late 2006 according to its own projections.

Uruguay's situation is specially noteworthy, since the projections conducted in previous years, which were based on the 2002 survey, indicated that the country was very close to achieving the target. The radical change in the situation can be attributed to two factors. First, the upswing in economic growth in 2004 made it likely that extreme poverty would decrease, and not increase, as in fact happened that year. Second, Uruguay's indigence rate has recorded only small variations, but these are magnified when they are expressed as percentages. Indeed, although the level of extreme poverty is higher than it was in 1990, it is only two percentage points above the target. A similar phenomenon is at work in Argentina, since this country needs to reduce indigence by only around 4 percentage points to meet the first target of the Millennium Development Goals (see figure I.6).

The progress seen by 2006, together with the economic growth recorded by the countries between 1991 and 2006, suggests that a large group of countries have a good chance of meeting the first target of the Millennium Development Goals, which is to halve the proportion of people who are living in extreme poverty, between 1990 and 2015. In addition to Brazil and Chile, which have already met the target, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, Mexico, Panama and Peru (where progress is on schedule or ahead of it), should also achieve the target simply by maintaining per capita income growth at a similar rate to the average for the last 16 years. Economic growth at the indicated rate would also be sufficient for the region as a whole to meet the first target of the Goals, since the necessary per capita growth rate (1.5%) is similar to the historical average.

Figure I.6



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

^a The blue line indicates the reduction target in terms of percentage points. The orange line indicates the projected variation between 1990 and 2006.

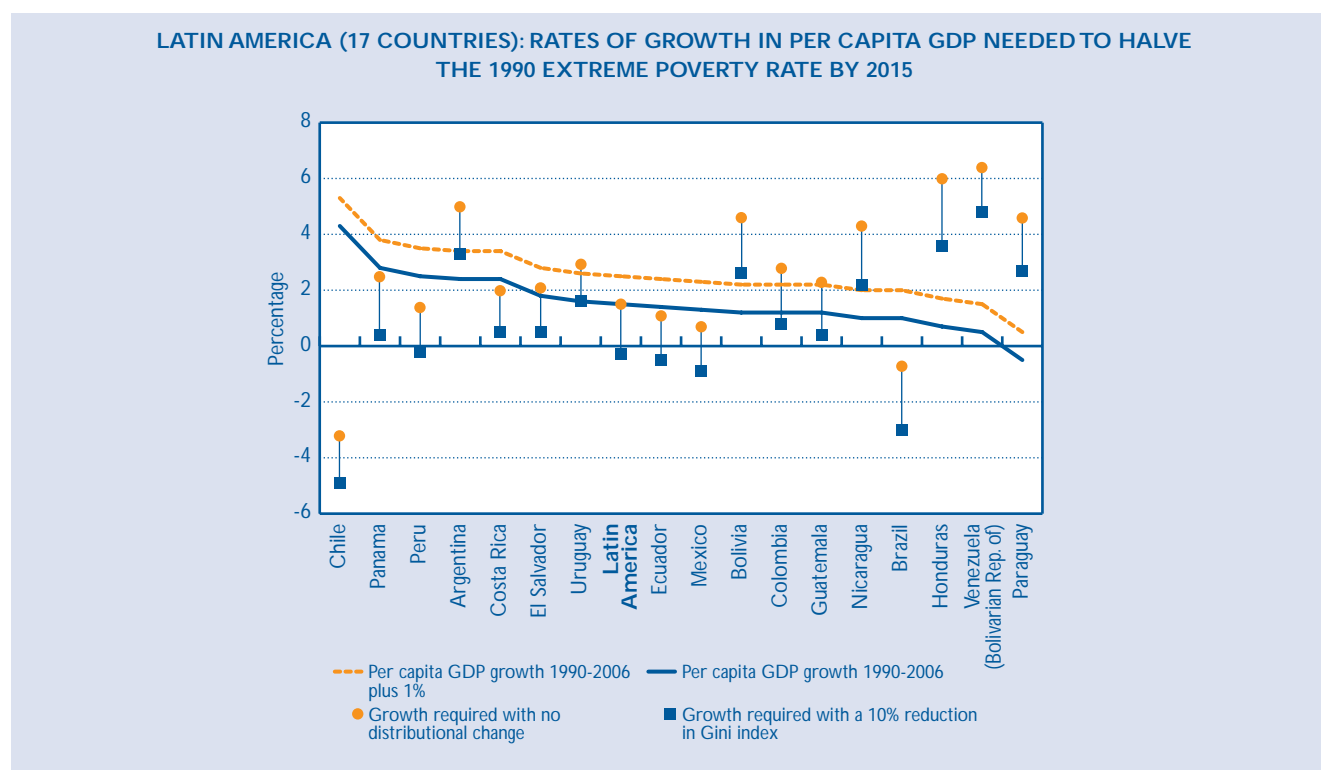
^b Urban areas.

Colombia, which has also recorded faster-than-expected progress, would have to achieve a slightly higher annual growth rate than its average for 1991–2006 in order to reach the target. This may be feasible, however, in view of the country's economic growth over the last few years. Uruguay, too, would require a higher growth rate than its historical average, but the small difference that separates its current indigence rates from the target places the country in the group very likely to meet the target (see figure I.7).

It is rather more complex to assess the chances of meeting the first target of the Millennium

Development Goals in the case of countries that have made less progress than expected. None of them achieved strong enough growth between 1991 and 2006 to attain the target. An optimistic scenario is to assume a per capita growth rate of one percentage point above the average achieved over the last 16 years. The rationale for such an assumption is that the historical average includes several periods of economic crisis which should not recur in the future, or at least on the same scale.¹² This higher-growth scenario would help all the countries to achieve the target in a shorter time and would enable Guatemala to join the group of countries that are expected to achieve it by 2015.

Figure I.7



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

¹² Medium and long-term forecasts are hard to make, particularly in view of the risks facing the world economy. Nonetheless, everything suggests that the latter will continue to grow in the next few years, although not necessarily at the most recent rates. In addition, the indications are that the economies of the region are less vulnerable to external shocks (ECLAC, 2006b).

In the last few years, however, some of these countries have seen per capita income rise at rates well above their historical average, reflecting the pattern in the region as a whole. This is the case of Argentina, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela and Uruguay. If these countries succeed in keeping their future growth rates above the 1990–2002 average, it would be more feasible for them to halve poverty by 2015.

Alongside economic growth as such, it is crucial to improve the distribution of income in order to raise the living standards of the poor more quickly. It is therefore worth considering what would happen if countries implemented growth policies that prioritized a more equitable distribution of the fruits of growth, since the results reported above have assumed a constant income distribution during the period under analysis. Simulation of a 10% reduction in the Gini coefficient shows the great impact of

income redistribution on the possibilities of reducing poverty.¹³ In general, a distributional change such as that suggested reduces the required growth rate by about two percentage points in several of the region's countries, thereby considerably improving their chances of meeting the target.

Progress in this regard would not only enable all the abovementioned countries to reduce extreme poverty more quickly –it would also improve the chances of countries with the region's highest poverty rates, such as Bolivia, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and Paraguay, of halving extreme poverty within the established timeframe. Although these countries would have to make great efforts in terms of growth and the distribution of its benefits, the region's recent positive performance in these aspects provides grounds for greater optimism as regards the possibility of reaching the first target of the Millennium Development Goals (see figure I.7).

¹³ A 10% reduction in the Gini coefficient represents between 0.045 and 0.061 points in the absolute value of poverty with respect to the upper and lower values recorded in the region in 2005.

C. The relative poverty approach

Indicators of relative poverty, such as those commonly used in European countries, generate a different panorama for Latin America than that produced by the analysis of absolute poverty. Relative poverty rates range from 26% to 32%, i.e., below absolute poverty levels in nearly all the countries and quite similar everywhere. Moreover, with few exceptions, relative poverty has not changed much between 1990 and 2005. The lack of change is largely attributable to the rigidity of income distribution, on which the indicators used directly depend. Lastly, while these indicators are useful for outlining certain characteristics of living standards, they are insufficient to give a comprehensive view of poverty in Latin America.

The measurement of poverty has always been linked to the notion of subsistence, i.e., the ability to satisfy the most basic human needs. In 1901, Seebohm Rowntree, one of the pioneers of this methodology of poverty quantification, defined poor families as those whose income was not "sufficient to obtain the minimum necessities to maintain merely physical efficiency" (Expert Group on Poverty Statistics, 2006). This approach is normally referred to as "absolute poverty" and, basically, it establishes a poverty line that represents the cost of satisfying a set of needs that might be considered essential in any society. Albeit with differences in modes of application, the poverty lines used in Latin American countries and almost throughout the developing world take what is essentially an "absolute poverty" approach.

In the 1970s, a group of British researchers, led by Peter Townsend, decided that this approach to measuring poverty was inadequate. Their main criticism was that human needs were interpreted as predominantly physical –that is, for food, shelter and clothing– rather than social (Expert Group on Poverty Statistics, 2006). Hence, measurements based on absolute poverty ignore requirements that arise from people's interaction with society as workers, parents, neighbours and in other roles. By contrast, the approach known as "relative poverty" construes poverty on the basis of people's inability to use their capacities to relate adequately with the society in which they live.

Measuring relative poverty as it was first proposed is very challenging in terms of the information

required. In particular, it requires specially designed household surveys that investigate the needs that the population considers essential. Nonetheless, a methodologically simpler alternative that has been used systematically in European Union countries consists of defining a poverty line as a percentage of

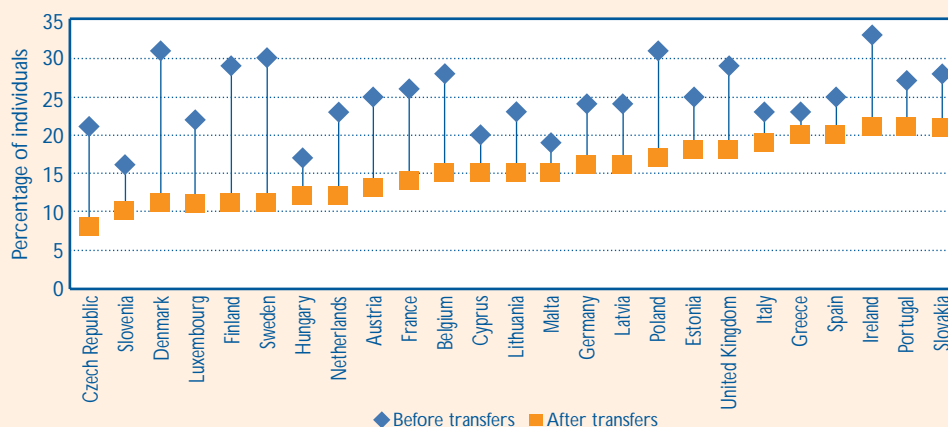
the population's mean or median income. The rationale is that, as a country grows and new needs emerge, the poverty standard immediately shifts to accommodate these new needs without the necessity to specify them explicitly (see box I.5).

Box I.5

MEASURING RELATIVE POVERTY IN THE EUROPEAN UNION

The Statistical Office of the European Communities (EUROSTAT) measures relative poverty, or the "population at risk of poverty", based on a threshold equivalent to "60% of the national median equivalent disposable income." Before calculating the median income, household income is expressed in terms of the number of "adult equivalents" it comprises, which is assumed to be equal to the square root of household size. According to the results for 2004, relative poverty in the European Union (25 countries) varies between 8% and 21%, with social transfers included as part of household income (see figure below).

European Union (25 countries): relative poverty, before and after transfers, around 2004



Source: EUROSTAT (<http://europa.eu.int/comm/eurostat>).

This indicator has a number of shortcomings as a measure of welfare. The most obvious one is that it can show similar incidences of poverty even when countries have very different income levels. Moreover, both in the case of sharp recession and rapid growth, immediate adjustment of the poverty threshold could leave the incidence of relative poverty unchanged, particularly when the income distribution remains relatively constant. For that reason, its results are not generally used on a standalone basis but as part of a set of statistics on social cohesion, based on Laeken indicators.

To measure relative poverty more consistently with the original construct requires the definition of a set of basic needs arising from individuals' interaction with the society around them. Such authors as Townsend (1979), Mack and Lansley (1985), and Gordon and Pantazis (1997) have developed a methodological proposal for this purpose. The official measurement of poverty in the United Kingdom and Ireland uses this methodology as its starting point.

The first step is to make a generic list of household goods and common activities. The population's perception of the need for each of these items and activities is then examined using questions such as: "Which of the items on this list are

MEASURING RELATIVE POVERTY IN THE EUROPEAN UNION

necessities, i.e., things that every household (or person) should be able to have and nobody should be without?" The second step is to ask people if they have those goods, or whether they would like them but cannot obtain them. This information, collected through a specially designed questionnaire, is used to construct a "deprivation index" for poverty measurement. The index initially includes items which at least 50% of the population considers necessary; and it is subsequently refined on the basis of consistency and relevance. By way of reference, the resulting deprivation index in United Kingdom has 22 indicators, and the index used in Ireland has eight.

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of Expert Group on Poverty Statistics (Rio Group), *Compendium of Best Practices in Poverty Measurement*, Rio de Janeiro, September 2006.

The method described above provides an overview of relative poverty in Latin America to complement the absolute poverty approach habitually used in the region. Various indicators are adopted for this purpose, corresponding to 50%, 60% and 70% of median income, following a similar procedure to that used by the Statistical Office of the European Communities (EUROSTAT).¹⁴

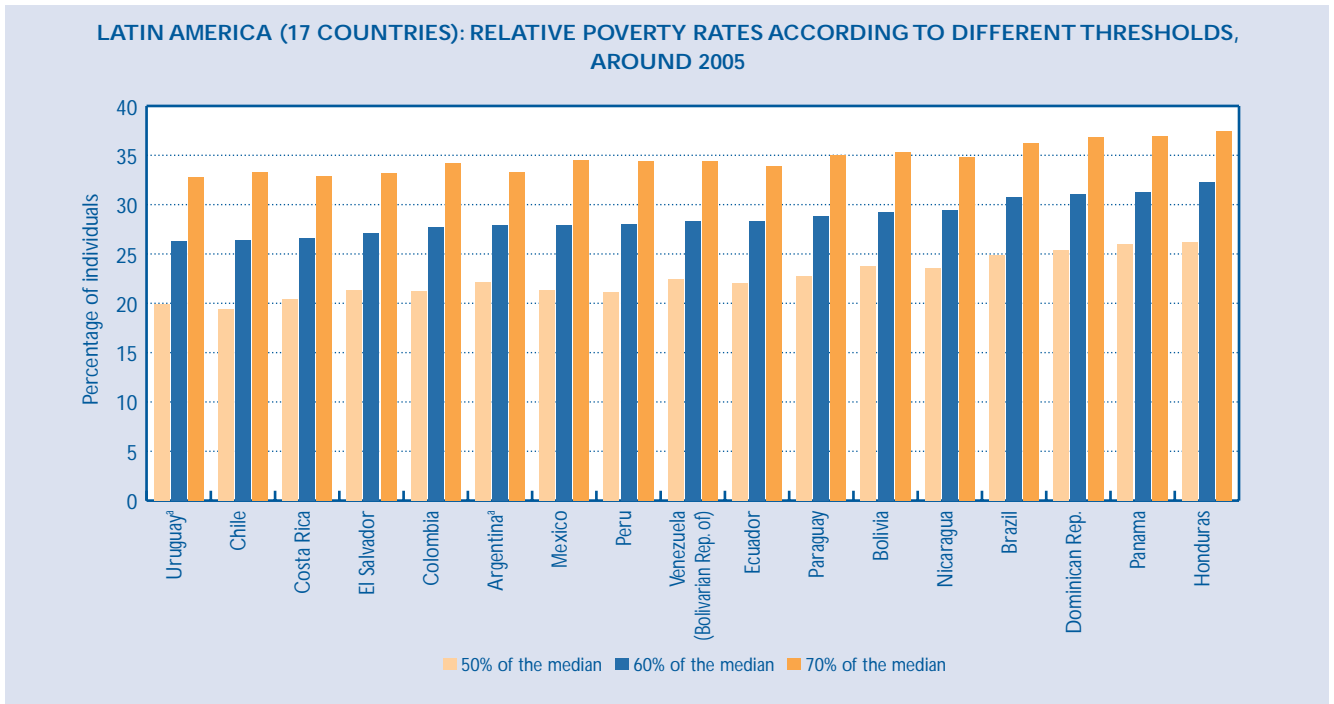
These indicators show that relative poverty was quite homogeneous throughout the region in 2005. Although the use of different thresholds directly affects the magnitude of the phenomenon, the three measures hardly vary between countries. The lowest poverty line used (corresponding to 50% of median income) generates relative poverty rates of between 19% and 26%, depending on the country. The intermediate poverty line (60% of median income) generates results varying between 26% and 32%; and the highest threshold (70% of the median) produces

rates of between 33% and 38%. The countries with the lowest and highest rates of relative poverty are never more than 10 percentage points apart, in stark contrast to the position using absolute poverty measurements, in which countries differ by more than 50 percentage points (see figure I.8).

In terms of country ranking, there is little correlation between the relative and absolute poverty figures. Although both measurements find that Chile, Costa Rica and Uruguay have the lowest incidence of poverty and that Honduras has the highest, there are wide variations in the ranking they produce. For example, El Salvador and Colombia have absolute poverty rates similar to the Dominican Republic and higher than those of Brazil and Panama, but are among the countries with least relative poverty, while the other three show the greatest relative poverty after Honduras (see figure I.9).

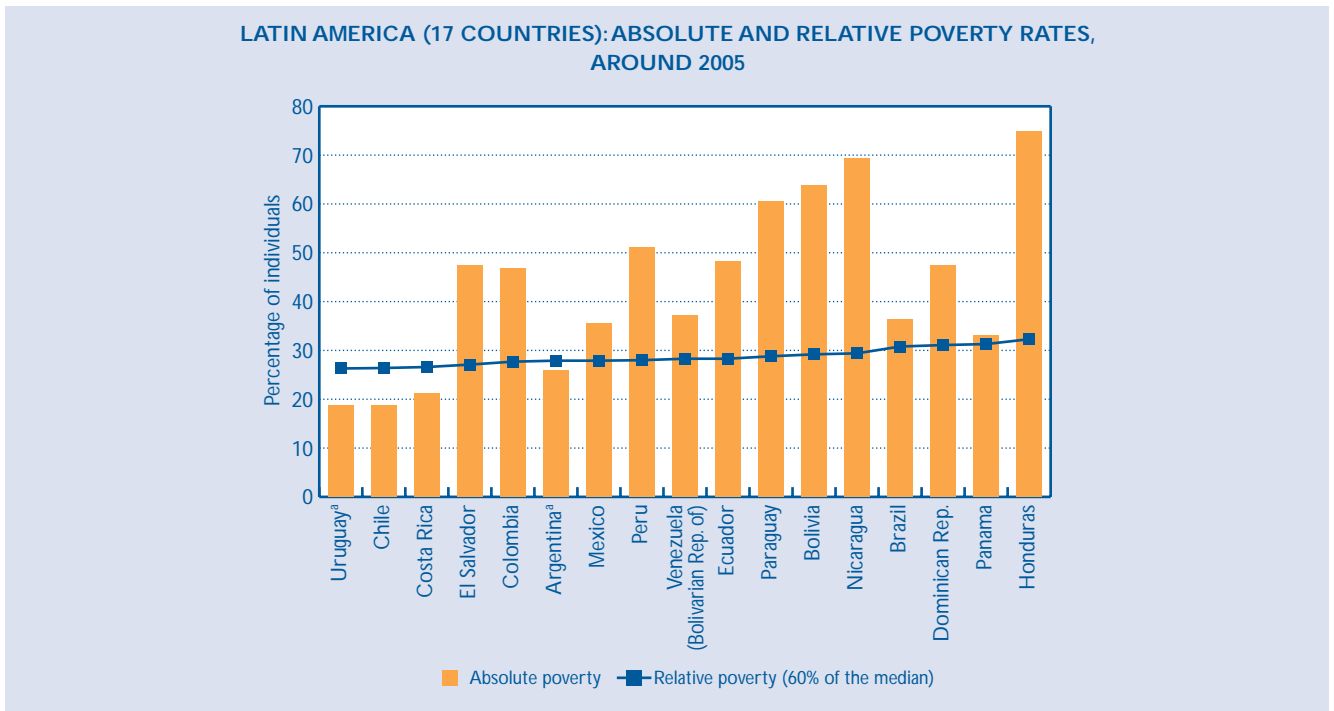
¹⁴ EUROSTAT defines "60% of the national median equivalent disposable income" as the threshold for identifying the "population at risk of poverty". Additional thresholds are calculated for 40%, 50% and 70% of the median adult equivalent income. For further details see box I.5.

Figure I.8



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

Figure I.9



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

This empirical approach to quantifying relative poverty gives results that are closer to those obtained using certain indicators of inequality, such as the ratio between average incomes in the lowest and highest distribution quintiles in the distribution structure. The correlation between these two indicators is 0.75, compared to a correlation of only 0.56 between the results for relative and absolute poverty.

The fact that the indicator used to measure relative poverty correlates more closely with distributional inequality than with the non-satisfaction of needs has a direct impact on its trend.

As a result of the distributional rigidity that has characterized the region over the last 15 years, relative poverty has remained virtually unchanged throughout the period. Compared with 1990 levels, appreciable changes (of 2 percentage points or more) are evident in just four countries: increases in Ecuador (urban areas), Mexico and Uruguay, and a decrease in Nicaragua. The other countries show smaller variations that are not statistically significant. The simple average of relative poverty rates for Latin America also remained practically unchanged, moving from 27.6% to 28.6% between 1990 and 1999, and then to 27.7% in 2005 (see table I.6).

Table I.6

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): RELATIVE POVERTY ACCORDING TO DIFFERENT THRESHOLDS, AROUND 1990, 1999 AND 2005 (Percentages of the population)									
Country	Year	Percentage of the population with incomes below			Country	Year	Percentage of the population with incomes below		
		50% of median	60% of median	70% of median			50% of median	60% of median	70% of median
Argentina ^a	1990	20.5	26.6	33.2	Mexico	1989	19.7	25.9	33.1
	1999	21.3	27.5	33.6		2000	22.5	28.9	35.2
	2005	20.6	26.5	31.7		2005	21.3	27.9	34.5
Bolivia	1989	20.6	27.5	34.3	Nicaragua	1993	27.4	32.2	37.9
	1999	29.5	33.9	38.6		1998	26.8	32.6	37.1
	2004	23.8	29.2	35.3		2001	23.6	29.4	34.8
Brazil	1990	26.6	32.2	37.6	Panama ^b	1991	22.6	28.5	34.7
	1999	25.9	31.5	36.6		1999	22.0	29.3	34.9
	2004	24.9	30.8	36.2		2005	21.7	27.8	34.3
Chile	1990	20.3	27.5	33.7	Paraguay ^c	1990	16.4	23.5	31.7
	2000	20.3	27.4	33.9		1999	16.5	23.5	31.2
	2003	19.4	26.4	33.3		2005	17.0	23.9	33.4
Colombia	1991	20.4	27.0	33.1	Peru	1997	25.6	31.5	36.4
	1999	21.8	28.2	34.4		1999	23.6	29.3	35.2
	2005	21.2	27.7	34.2		2004	21.1	28.0	34.4
Costa Rica	1990	19.4	26.3	33.4	Dominican Rep.	2000	22.9	29.6	34.9
	1999	20.7	27.1	33.7		2005	25.4	31.1	36.8
	2005	20.4	26.6	32.9					
Ecuador ^b	1990	17.4	24.1	30.7	Uruguay ^b	1990	17.4	24.2	31.0
	1999	18.8	25.9	33.1		1999	19.0	25.7	32.2
	2005	20.1	27.6	34.3		2005	19.9	26.3	32.8
El Salvador	1995	22.0	28.5	34.4	Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of	1990	20.1	26.8	33.1
	1999	24.3	30.1	35.2		1999	21.6	28.5	34.4
	2004	21.3	27.1	33.2		2005	22.4	28.3	34.4
Honduras	1990	22.7	28.6	34.4	Latin America (simple average)	1990	21.2	27.6	33.9
	1999	20.0	28.1	33.9		1999	22.2	28.6	34.6
	2003	17.9	25.6	32.4		2005	21.3	27.7	34.0

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

^a Greater Buenos Aires.

^b Urban areas.

^c Asunción metropolitan area.

Latin America has higher levels of relative poverty, measured using the 60% of median income threshold, than all 25 countries of the European Union –not only in a comparison of simple averages in each region (28% for Latin America and 15% for the European Union), but also for maximum and minimum values. No Latin American country has a relative poverty rate of under 26%, whereas the highest figure in the European Union is 21% (see box I.5).

In this comparison, it should be noted that the figures for European Union countries are based on household incomes that include social transfers.¹⁵ When this resource flow is not counted, relative poverty rates are significantly higher, with values varying between 17% and 33% and a simple average of 25%. This highlights the significant effect that public transfers have on living standards in the region, and the importance of adequately accounting for them.

These figures reveal some of the shortcomings of the relative poverty line used for the analysis. As noted above, this threshold is more akin to an indicator of distributional inequality than one of deprivation. In fact, under this method, poverty cannot be reduced without an improvement in income distribution. Moreover, conceptually speaking, for relative poverty rates to be lower than absolute rates may be considered counter-intuitive,

particularly if one assumes that relative needs become more important once absolute needs are satisfied.

For these reasons, it is advisable to use the relative approach preferably in countries with low levels of absolute poverty, such as European countries and possibly a few Latin American ones. The relative poverty approach may become increasingly useful in Argentina, Chile, Costa Rica and Uruguay, where the incidence of absolute poverty is below the figure produced by the 60% and 70% of median income thresholds. In these countries, a large segment of the population has moved well beyond the most basic lacks and it is now important to target efforts on meeting needs related to people's ability to participate adequately in their societies. Nonetheless, it must not be forgotten that in most Latin American countries the main problem is still the need to remedy the most basic lacks, which are accounted for by absolute poverty measurements.

To conclude, despite the shortcomings identified above, the relative poverty figures reveal a number of differences between Latin America and the European Union and provide useful information on countries in the region where relative needs may offer increasingly important insights. A more comprehensive description of relative poverty requires specially designed data sources, such as have been used in the United Kingdom (see box I.5).

¹⁵ These include social transfers in cash, consisting mainly of unemployment and disability benefits, old age, family and child benefits, and housing subsidies, among others. Pensions are considered a category of income and are not included as social transfers. Household surveys in Latin American countries vary greatly in their capacity to measure this type of transfer, so any comparison that includes this income flow should be made with due caution (for a more detailed analysis, see Uthoff and Ruedi, 2005).

D. Recent trends in income distribution

Although the region displays considerable resistance to distributive change, in recent years it has made significant, albeit fragile, progress towards lower income concentration. Over the last six years, the income share of the poorest groups has increased slightly in several countries, while that received by the richest decile has decreased. Inequality indices decreased substantially in four of the region's countries, with only one showing a clear deterioration. Thus, although Latin America is still a highly inequitable region, the deteriorating trend in income distribution evident at the start of this decade, at least, seems to have been halted.

Latin America's highly inequitable and inflexible income distribution has historically been one of its most prominent traits. Latin American inequality is not only greater than that seen in other world regions, but it also remained unchanged in the 1990s, then took a turn for the worse at the start of the current decade.

The high levels of inequality prevailing in the region mean that a sizeable group of people possess far fewer resources than the average of their fellow citizens. This not only affects people's well-being (because they lack the resources to satisfy basic needs) –it also polarizes and segments society. What is more, very high levels of inequality may constrain

a country's economic growth possibilities (World Bank, 2003).

Drawing on the most recently available household surveys, this section reviews the basic characteristics of inequality in Latin America, analysing the structure of the distribution by income brackets and referring to several of the most widely used inequality indicators. The evidence shows that in recent years several countries have achieved improvements in their income distribution. Although small, these at least represent progress compared to the resistance to change or even deterioration seen in earlier periods.

1. Changes in the structure of income distribution

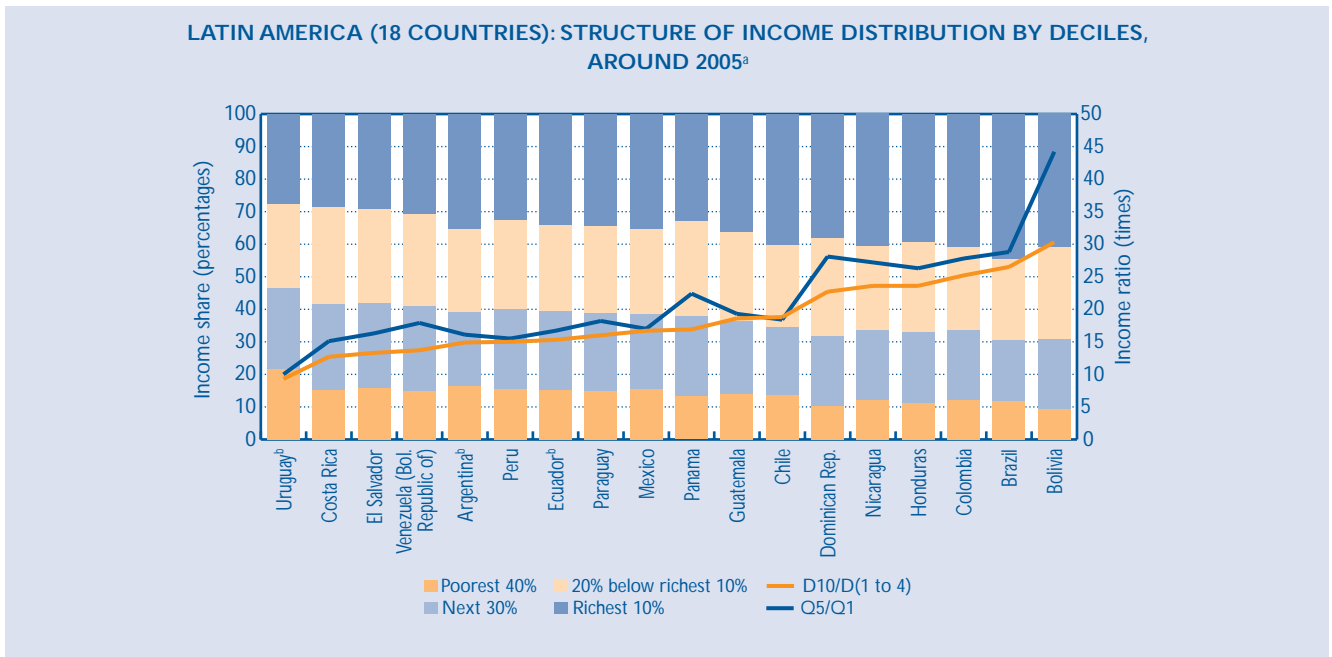
An initial understanding of the magnitude of distributional inequality in the region can be gained by evaluating the share of total resources received by the different income groups. Based on the most recent estimates available for each of the region's countries, households in the lowest 40% of the income distribution obtain, on average, 14% of total income. This figure is lowest in Bolivia (9.5%) and the Dominican Republic (10.4%), followed by Brazil (11.9%), Guatemala (11.3%) and Honduras (11.3%). In contrast, the poorest 40% achieves the largest share in Uruguay (21.6%), which is considerably more than the next-ranked country, Argentina with 16.5% (see figure I.10 and table I.7).

The 50% of households located in the middle and upper-middle part of the distribution, corresponding to deciles five to nine, account for roughly half of all income received by households in

most of the countries analysed. This result may support different interpretations as regards degree of income concentration, depending on the share obtained by the income groups above and below that section. Accordingly, this part of the income distribution structure can have a virtually identical share of resources in countries with very different levels of inequality, such as Ecuador (urban areas), Paraguay and Uruguay.

According to previous studies on income distribution in Latin America (ECLAC, 2005a), one of the most striking features of inequality in the region is the high proportion of income obtained by households in the richest decile. The most recent data show that this group absorbs 36% of total resources, on average, although there is significant dispersion around this mean. Whereas in Costa Rica, El Salvador and Uruguay the share of the highest decile is below 30% of total income, in Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia and Nicaragua it is above 40%.

Figure I.10



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

^a Households arranged in order of per capita income.

^b Urban areas.

Table I.7

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): HOUSEHOLD INCOME DISTRIBUTION, 1990–2005 ^a								
(Percentages)								
Country	Year	Average income ^b	Share in total income:				Income ratio average per capita ^c	
			Poorest 40%	Next 30%	20% below richest 10%	richest 10%	D ¹⁰ /D ^(1 to 4)	Q ⁵ /Q ¹
Argentina ^d	1990 ^e	10.6	14.9	23.6	26.7	34.8	13.5	13.5
	1999	11.6	15.9	22.1	25.4	36.7	16.2	16.6
	2002	7.3	14.3	20.4	24.6	40.7	19.0	20.7
	2004	8.8	16.3	22.5	25.2	36.0	15.2	16.5
	2005	9.6	16.5	22.7	25.4	35.4	14.9	16.1
Bolivia	1989 ^f	7.7	12.1	22.0	27.9	38.2	17.1	21.4
	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
	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
	2004	9.9	11.7	18.7	25.6	44.1	26.6	29.4
	2005	10.1	11.9	18.5	25.0	44.6	26.5	28.8
Chile	1990	9.4	13.2	20.8	25.4	40.7	18.2	18.4
	1998	13.6	13.1	20.5	26.6	39.9	19.1	19.7
	2000	13.6	13.8	20.8	25.1	40.3	18.7	19.0
	2003	13.6	13.7	20.7	25.5	40.0	18.8	18.4
Colombia	1994	8.4	10.0	21.3	26.9	41.8	26.8	35.2
	1999	6.7	12.3	21.6	26.0	40.1	22.3	25.6
	2002	6.9	12.3	22.4	26.5	38.8	24.1	28.5
	2004	6.9	12.1	22.0	26.0	39.9	25.1	29.1
	2005	7.8	12.2	21.4	25.4	41.0	25.2	27.8
Costa Rica	1990	9.5	16.7	27.4	30.2	25.6	10.1	13.1
	1999	11.4	15.3	25.7	29.7	29.4	12.6	15.3
	2002	11.7	14.5	25.6	29.7	30.2	13.7	16.9
	2004	10.9	14.3	26.2	30.1	29.5	13.3	16.6
	2005	10.3	15.2	26.2	29.9	28.7	12.7	15.1
Ecuador ^d	1990	5.5	17.1	25.4	27.0	30.5	11.4	12.3
	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
	2004	6.9	15.8	24.7	27.5	32.0	13.9	15.4
	2005	7.4	15.1	24.3	26.3	34.3	15.3	16.7
El Salvador	1995	6.2	15.4	24.8	26.9	32.9	14.1	16.9
	1999	6.6	13.8	25.0	29.1	32.1	15.2	19.6
	2001	6.7	13.4	24.6	28.7	33.3	16.2	20.3
	2004	6.2	15.9	26.0	28.8	29.3	13.3	16.3
Guatemala	1989	6.0	11.8	20.9	26.8	40.6	23.5	27.3
	1998	7.1	14.3	21.6	25.0	39.1	20.4	19.8
	2002	6.8	14.1	22.3	27.2	36.4	18.6	19.3
Honduras	1990	4.3	10.1	19.7	27.0	43.1	27.4	30.7
	1999	3.9	11.8	22.9	28.9	36.5	22.3	26.5
	2002	4.3	11.3	21.7	27.6	39.4	23.6	26.3
	2003	4.3	10.6	22.1	28.6	38.8	24.4	28.2
Mexico	1989	8.6	15.8	22.5	25.1	36.6	17.2	16.9
	1998	7.7	15.1	22.7	25.6	36.7	18.4	18.5
	2002	8.2	15.7	23.8	27.3	33.2	15.1	15.5
	2004	8.3	15.8	23.3	26.3	34.6	15.9	16.0
	2005	8.7	15.4	23.2	26.0	35.4	16.7	17.0
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

Table I.7 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): HOUSEHOLD INCOME DISTRIBUTION, 1990–2005 ^a								
(Percentages)								
Country	Year	Average income ^b	Share in total income:				Income ratio average per capita ^c	
			Poorest 40%	Next 30%	20% below richest 10%	richest 10%	D ¹⁰ /D ^(1 to 4)	Q ⁵ /Q ¹
Panama	1991 ^d	9.5	13.3	23.9	28.6	34.2	18.3	22.7
	1999 ^d	11.6	15.0	25.1	27.8	32.2	15.0	17.3
	2002	10.7	11.8	24.4	29.0	34.9	19.8	26.5
	2004	10.2	13.0	24.6	28.0	34.4	17.3	22.6
	2005	9.6	13.2	24.8	28.9	33.1	16.9	22.4
Paraguay	1990 ^g	7.7	18.6	25.7	26.9	28.9	10.2	10.6
	1999	6.2	13.1	23.0	27.8	36.2	19.3	22.6
	2001	6.2	12.9	23.5	26.4	37.3	20.9	25.6
	2004	5.2	14.6	22.9	26.5	36.1	18.6	20.1
	2005	5.5	15.0	23.9	26.5	34.7	16.0	18.2
Peru	1999	8.2	13.4	23.1	27.1	36.5	19.5	21.6
	2001	6.2	13.4	24.6	28.5	33.5	17.4	19.3
	2003	6.2	14.9	23.7	27.9	33.6	15.6	16.3
	2004	...	15.4	24.6	27.4	32.6	15.0	15.5
Dominican Republic	2000	7.2	11.4	22.2	27.6	38.8	21.1	26.9
	2002	7.2	12.0	22.6	27.0	38.3	19.3	24.9
	2004	6.5	10.2	20.1	28.2	41.5	26.1	28.0
	2005	7.3	10.4	21.4	29.9	38.3	22.7	28.1
Uruguay ^d	1990	9.3	20.1	24.6	24.1	31.2	9.4	9.4
	1999	11.9	21.6	25.5	25.9	27.0	8.8	9.5
	2002	9.4	21.6	25.4	25.6	27.3	9.5	10.2
	2004	8.2	21.3	24.8	25.4	28.6	10.1	10.6
	2005	8.1	21.6	25.0	25.6	27.8	9.3	10.0
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	1990	8.9	16.7	25.7	28.9	28.7	12.1	13.4
	1999	7.2	14.6	25.1	29.0	31.4	15.0	18.0
	2002	7.1	14.3	24.9	29.5	31.3	14.5	18.1
	2004	7.0	16.1	26.5	28.9	28.5	12.0	14.9
	2005	8.5	14.8	26.1	28.3	30.8	13.7	17.9

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

^a Households arranged in order of per capita income.

^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. A similar notation is used for quintiles (Q), where each group represents 20% of all households.

^d Total for urban areas.

^e Greater Buenos Aires.

^f Eight major cities and El Alto.

^g Asunción metropolitan area.

A simple way to gauge the degree of income concentration in a country is by comparing the income share of groups located at the top and bottom of the distribution. Two useful indicators for this purpose are the ratio of incomes between the richest and the four poorest deciles, and the ratio between the incomes of the fifth quintile (i.e., households located in the top 20% of the distribution) and the first quintile. The first of these indices shows that the average income per

person in households located in the tenth decile is roughly 19 times higher than that of the poorest 40% of households. This ratio varies widely between countries, ranging from less than 10 in Uruguay (9.3) to over 25 in Bolivia (30.3), Colombia (25.2) and Brazil (26.5). On average, per capita income in the richest quintile is 21 times higher than that of the poorest quintile, ranging between 10 times (Uruguay) and 44 times (Bolivia) (see again figure I.10 and table I.7).

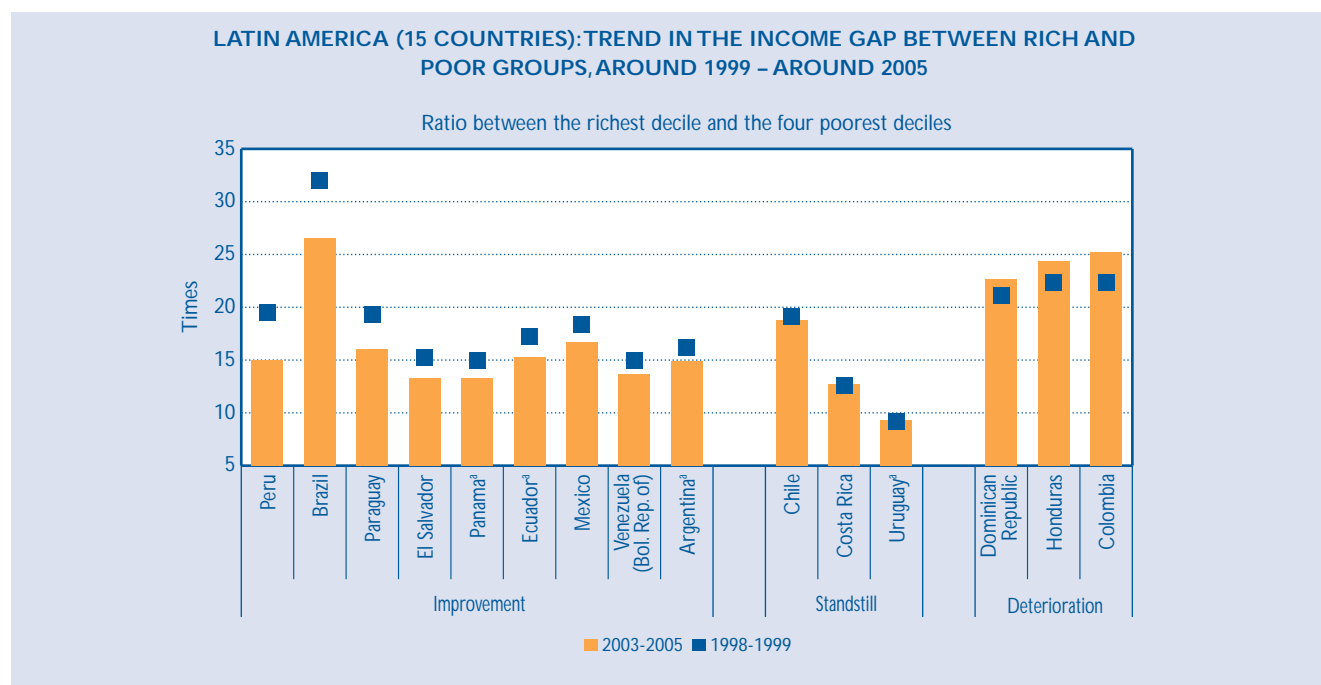
A comparison between the distributional structure around 2005 and that prevailing around 1999 reveals two characteristics that suggest an improvement. The first is an upward tendency in the income share of households in the four lowest deciles. Of the 15 countries with information available, Brazil, El Salvador, Paraguay and Peru each recorded an increase of at least 1.5 percentage points in this indicator. There were no reductions of such a magnitude, although Honduras and the Dominican Republic reported small losses in income share on the order of one percentage point (see table I.7).

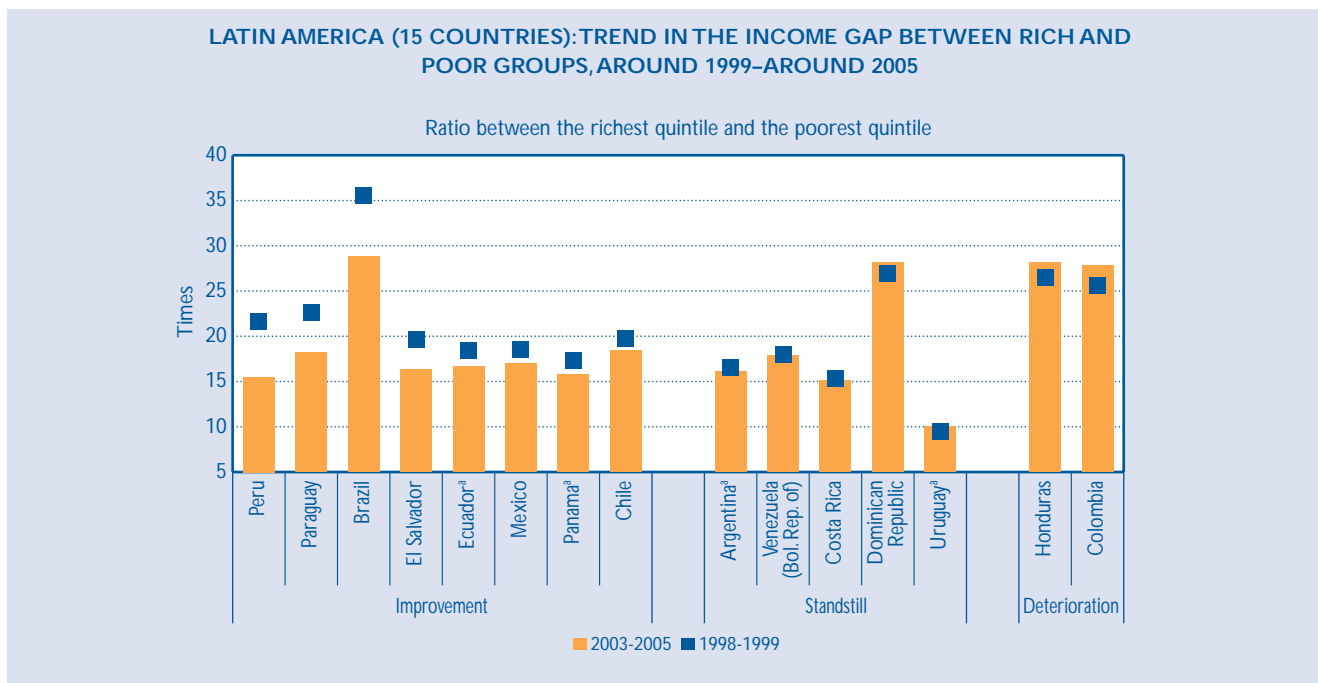
The second feature of recent trends is the loss of income share for households located in the highest part of the income distribution. The clearest example of this is Peru, where the proportion of income received by the top decile fell from 36.5% to 32.6%. In Brazil, Ecuador (urban areas) and El Salvador, the indicator declined by at least two percentage points. Of the countries analysed, only

Honduras showed the opposite trends, with the income share of the richest decile rising from 36.5% to 38.8% between 1999 and 2003.

The combination of these two features caused the gaps between the poorest and richest groups to narrow in most of the countries analysed. Ranked according to the size of the reductions in percentage terms, countries that reported a fall in the ratio of incomes between the richest and the four poorest deciles are Peru (-23%), Brazil and Paraguay (-17%), El Salvador (-13%), Ecuador and Panama (-11% in the urban areas of both countries), Mexico (-9%), and Argentina (urban areas) and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela (-8%). Chile, Costa Rica and Uruguay did not display significant changes in this indicator, while Colombia, Honduras and the Dominican Republic posted increases of between 7% and 13%. Quite similar trends are found in income ratios when the upper and lower quintiles are examined (see figure I.11).

Figure I.11





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

^a Urban areas.

Analysis of the most recent period, specifically between 2002 and 2005, corroborates the improving trend of distribution in several countries. The ratio of incomes received by the richest decile and the four poorest deciles fell by at least 5% in eight countries, including Costa Rica, in addition to Argentina (urban areas), Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Brazil, El Salvador, Panama, Paraguay and Peru as noted above. Mexico and the Dominican Republic are the only countries to show a significant deterioration in the income gap between the groups at the top and bottom of the distribution structure during this period (see table I.7).

Moreover, a comparison of the distributional structure around 2005 with that prevailing in the early 1990s shows that the ratio of incomes between the richest and the four poorest deciles has decreased in Panama (-27% in urban areas), Brazil (-15%), Honduras (-11%), and Colombia and El Salvador (-6%); in contrast, the ratio worsened in Ecuador (34% in urban areas), Costa Rica (26%), the

Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela (13%) and Argentina (8% in Greater Buenos Aires). No significant changes were detected in this indicator in Chile, Mexico or Uruguay.

2. Trends in inequality indicators

Thus far, the analysis has measured the income share of the constituent groups of the income distribution structure and compared the resources captured by households located at the two ends of the distribution. A different approach consists of summarizing the information contained in the income distribution for the whole population through a variety of synthetic indicators such as the Gini, Theil or Atkinson indices. As each of these indicators differs in the relative weight it affords to each segment of the income distribution, they are best used in a complementary fashion (see box I.7 for an explanation of the different measures).

Based on the results of the Gini index, the most widely used inequality indicator, Latin American countries can be classified in four categories of income concentration: "low", "medium", "high" or "very high". The only country in the first of these groups is Uruguay (urban areas) –the sole country to yield an indicator below 0.470. The medium income concentration segment encompasses Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Costa Rica, Ecuador (urban areas), El Salvador, Panama (urban areas) and Peru, with Gini coefficients varying between 0.470 and 0.513. The high concentration group consists of Argentina (urban areas), Chile, Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Mexico, Nicaragua, and Paraguay. Lastly, Bolivia, Brazil, Honduras and

Colombia, in that order, display very high levels of income concentration, with indices above 0.580 (see table I.8).

Compared to Gini coefficient measurements made around 1999, the new figures available show progress towards better income distribution in four countries. El Salvador, Paraguay and Peru showed significant reductions in the Gini coefficient, of between 5% and 7%, followed by Brazil, with a reduction of roughly 4%.¹⁶ In contrast, Honduras is the only country whose Gini coefficient increased by 4% or more. In the other 10 countries analysed, the indicator varied by 3% or less, which is not considered significant (see figure I.12 and table I.8).

Table I.8

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): STRATIFICATION OF COUNTRIES BY GINI COEFFICIENT OF INCOME DISTRIBUTION, AROUND 1999, 2002 AND 2005 ^a						
Level of inequality	1998–1999		2000–2002		2003–2005	
Very high 0.580–1	Brazil	0.640	Brazil	0.639	Bolivia (2002)	0.614
	Bolivia	0.586	Bolivia	0.614	Brazil	0.613
	Nicaragua	0.584	Honduras	0.588	Honduras	0.587
High 0.520–0.579	Colombia	0.572	Nicaragua	0.579	Colombia	0.584
	Paraguay	0.565	Argentina ^b	0.578	Nicaragua (2001)	0.579
	Honduras	0.564	Paraguay	0.570	Dominican Republic	0.569
	Chile	0.560	Colombia	0.569	Chile	0.550
	Guatemala	0.560	Chile	0.559	Guatemala (2002)	0.542
	Dominican Republic	0.554	Dominican Republic	0.544	Paraguay	0.536
	Peru	0.545	Guatemala	0.542	Mexico	0.528
	Argentina ^b	0.539	El Salvador	0.525	Argentina ^b	0.526
	Mexico	0.539	Peru	0.525		
	Ecuador ^b	0.521	Panama ^b	0.515		
Average 0.470–0.519	El Salvador	0.518	Mexico	0.514	Ecuador ^b	0.513
	Panama ^b	0.513	Ecuador ^b	0.513	Peru	0.505
	Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	0.498	Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	0.500	Panama ^b	0.500
	Costa Rica	0.473	Costa Rica	0.488	El Salvador	0.493
Low 0–0.469					Venezuela (Bolivarian Rep. of)	0.490
	Uruguay ^b	0.440	Uruguay ^b	0.455	Costa Rica	0.470
				Uruguay ^b	0.451	

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

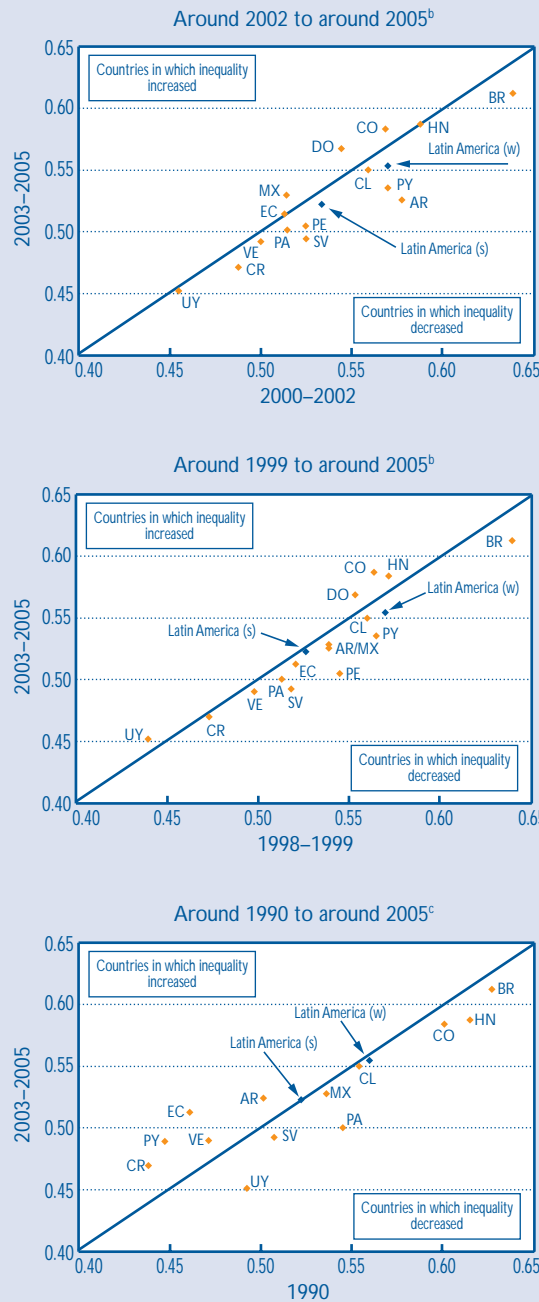
^a The upper and lower Gini index values for each category are those used in chapter I of *Social Panorama of Latin America 2004*. These were calculated by means of the k-means statistical clustering algorithm, which is used to generate internally homogenous strata but with maximum variability between them.

^b Urban areas.

¹⁶ In view of Brazil's traditionally high income concentration, it is particularly interesting to analyse the factors underlying the distributional improvement in that country, even though the change has not been one of the region's largest. See box I.6 on this point.

Figure I.12

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): CHANGES IN GINI COEFFICIENT, AROUND 1990 TO AROUND 2005^a



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

Note: Latin America (s): simple average for Latin America.

Latin America (w): weighted average for Latin America.

^a Calculated on the basis of per capita income distribution. The figure for Latin America refers to a simple average of the Gini coefficients of 13 countries with comparable information for the period 1990-2005.

^b Data on urban areas for Argentina, Ecuador, Panama and Uruguay.

^c Data on urban areas for Ecuador, Panama and Uruguay. Data for Argentina refer to Greater Buenos Aires, and those for Paraguay, to the metropolitan area of Asunción.

RECENT INEQUALITY TRENDS IN BRAZIL

The sharp reduction in inequality in Brazil in 2001–2004 represents significant progress. This is all the more notable because Brazil has displayed the entire region's most concentrated income distribution since the 1990s. To identify the factors underlying this result, the Institute of Applied Economic Research (IPEA) of Brazil conducted research addressing the following dimensions: (a) demographic traits of families; (b) income transfers; (c) returns on assets; (d) access to jobs, unemployment and labour market participation; and (e) distribution of labour earnings.

Of these factors, the first, third and fourth made the smallest contributions to the reduction of inequality. Although demographic inequality has been decreasing over the last 20 years, since households have become increasingly homogeneous in terms of the proportion of adults, this has had a very small effect in the recent distributional change, which occurred over a very short space of time. Moreover, the evidence does not show any significant relation between returns on assets and the reduction of income concentration. In turn, although the indicators analysed for the labour market displayed favourable trends, they account for only 3% of the distributional change. This seems to be basically the result of the fact that many of the jobs created were taken by individuals from households that already had other employed members.

Thus, the recent distributional change appears to be attributable mainly to government transfers and a reduction of inequality in labour earnings. The transfers examined include pensions, continuous benefits, and benefits provided by *Bolsa Família* and other similar programmes, which explain about one third of the reduction in income concentration. The reduction in the inequality of labour incomes accounts for half of the reduction of the disparity in per capita income distribution. The favourable trend in this factor, which had been visible since 1995 and gathered momentum in recent years, stems from reductions both in educational inequality among workers and in wage differences by education level.

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of Institute of Applied Economic Research (IPEA), "Sobre a recente queda da desigualdade de renda no Brasil", *Nota técnica*, Brasília, 30 August 2006.

The improving trend in income distribution has also been visible in the most recent period. Between 2000/2002 and 2003/2005, the Gini index declined considerably in Argentina (urban areas), El Salvador and Paraguay, by 9% in the first case and by 6% in the other two; these are followed by Brazil and Costa Rica with reductions of about 4% each. Only the Dominican Republic showed a significant worsening in distribution according to the Gini coefficient, with a sharp 8% rise between 2002 and 2004, which a 5% retreat in 2005 was not enough to offset.

The variations described above caused a number of changes in the country ranking between 1998/1999 and 2003/2005. Firstly, there was a deterioration in the relative status of Honduras and Colombia, which moved into the "very high" inequality group, in place of Nicaragua. Secondly,

inequality in Ecuador (urban areas) and Peru decreased sufficiently for those countries to move from the "high" inequality category into the "medium" group. Costa Rica could also be classified as having moved into a lower inequality category, since its Gini coefficient is located at the lower boundary of the "medium" group.

Thus, although average inequality levels remain excessively high, recent developments suggest a break in the deteriorating trend recorded up to 2002, when the countries seemed to be converging towards greater inequality (ECLAC, 2005a).

Despite the encouraging results of the last few years, the balance over a longer period (1990–2005) shows inequality in Latin America as fairly unchanging. The simple average of Gini coefficients

for 13 countries with comparable information between 1990 and 2005 stood at 0.523 in 2003/2005. Although this figure is slightly below those recorded in 2000/2002 (0.533) and 1998/1999 (0.526), it is the same as the 1990 value (see figure I.12).

At the country level, the long-term comparison is more varied. The 15-year period has seen significant improvements in income distribution in the urban areas of Uruguay and Panama, where the Gini coefficient fell by 8%, and a more modest 4% improvement in Honduras. Contrasting with this, in Ecuador (urban areas) and Paraguay (Asuncion metropolitan area) this indicator increased by roughly 10% indicating a significant worsening of income concentration. Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires), Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela and Costa

Rica also saw substantial deteriorations of between 4% and 7% (see again figure I.12 and table 15 in the statistical appendix).

To evaluate the robustness of these results, the analysis based on the Gini coefficient can be complemented with other inequality indicators. These confirm, first, that in Brazil, El Salvador, Paraguay and Peru, the reduction in the concentration of distribution between 1998/1999 and 2003/2005 affected all income distribution segments and benefited low income groups in particular. In all of these cases, the decrease in the Gini coefficient coincides with significant reductions in the variance of logarithms and the Theil and Atkinson indices (see table I.9).

Table I.9

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION, 1990–2005 ^a							
Country	Year	Percentage of population with per capita income less than:		Indices of concentration			
		average	50% of average	Gini ^b	Log variance	Theil	Atkinson (ε=1.5)
Argentina ^c	1990 ^d	70.6	39.1	0.501	0.982	0.555	0.473
	1999	72.1	43.3	0.539	1.194	0.667	0.530
	2002	73.1	47.2	0.578	1.510	0.724	0.593
	2004	72.0	40.9	0.531	1.225	0.633	0.534
	2005	72.4	40.5	0.526	1.190	0.602	0.525
Bolivia	1989 ^e	71.9	44.1	0.537	1.528	0.574	0.600
	1999	70.3	45.5	0.586	2.548	0.658	0.738
	2002	73.6	49.6	0.614	2.510	0.776	0.738
Brazil	1990	75.2	53.9	0.627	1.938	0.816	0.664
	1999	77.1	54.8	0.640	1.913	0.914	0.663
	2001	76.9	54.4	0.639	1.925	0.914	0.665
	2004	76.0	51.6	0.612	1.707	0.825	0.632
	2005	76.5	51.4	0.613	1.690	0.840	0.629
Chile	1990	74.6	46.5	0.554	1.258	0.644	0.545
	1998	74.2	47.2	0.560	1.304	0.653	0.553
	2000	74.9	46.4	0.559	1.278	0.666	0.550
	2003	74.7	45.6	0.550	1.198	0.668	0.533
Colombia	1994	73.6	48.9	0.601	2.042	0.794	0.684
	1999	74.5	46.6	0.572	1.456	0.734	0.603
	2002	74.2	46.2	0.569	1.396	0.705	0.580
	2004	75.2	47.3	0.577	1.410	0.727	0.580
	2005	75.9	48.7	0.584	1.460	0.752	0.591
Costa Rica	1990	65.0	31.6	0.438	0.833	0.328	0.412
	1999	67.6	36.1	0.473	0.974	0.395	0.457
	2002	68.5	37.1	0.488	1.080	0.440	0.491
	2004	68.2	36.3	0.478	1.030	0.411	0.473
	2005	68.0	35.1	0.470	0.959	0.399	0.453
Ecuador ^c	1990	69.6	33.8	0.461	0.823	0.403	0.422
	1999	72.1	42.0	0.526	1.075	0.567	0.498
	2002	72.3	39.8	0.513	1.031	0.563	0.487
	2004	70.3	38.8	0.498	0.991	0.485	0.469
	2005	71.1	41.1	0.513	1.070	0.517	0.491

Table I.9 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION, 1990–2005 ^a							
Country	Year	Percentage of population with per capita income less than:		Indices of concentration			
		average	50% of average	Gini ^b	Log variance	Theil	Atkinson (ε=1.5)
El Salvador	1995	69.7	38.4	0.507	1.192	0.502	0.525
	1999	68.5	40.6	0.518	1.548	0.496	0.601
	2001	69.1	40.8	0.525	1.559	0.528	0.602
	2004	68.1	37.5	0.493	1.325	0.449	0.552
Guatemala	1989	74.9	47.8	0.582	1.476	0.736	0.590
	1998	75.3	46.6	0.560	1.182	0.760	0.534
	2002	72.0	47.5	0.542	1.157	0.583	0.515
Honduras	1990	75.1	52.3	0.615	1.842	0.817	0.649
	1999	71.8	46.4	0.564	1.560	0.636	0.603
	2002	72.8	49.6	0.588	1.607	0.719	0.608
	2003	72.3	49.8	0.587	1.662	0.695	0.615
Mexico	1989	74.2	43.5	0.536	1.096	0.680	0.509
	1998	72.8	43.1	0.539	1.142	0.634	0.515
	2002	71.7	41.2	0.514	1.045	0.521	0.485
	2004	72.6	41.0	0.516	1.045	0.588	0.490
	2005	72.5	41.6	0.528	1.125	0.635	0.513
Nicaragua	1993	71.5	45.9	0.582	1.598	0.671	0.619
	1998	73.1	45.9	0.583	1.800	0.731	0.654
	2001	74.6	46.9	0.579	1.594	0.783	0.619
Panama	1991 ^c	70.3	44.2	0.544	1.312	0.577	0.547
	1999 ^c	70.0	41.0	0.513	1.150	0.486	0.506
	2002	70.2	45.5	0.561	1.715	0.592	0.620
	2004	70.7	44.0	0.548	1.562	0.554	0.592
	2005	69.9	43.4	0.545	1.587	0.547	0.598
Paraguay	1990 ^f	69.2	33.4	0.447	0.737	0.365	0.386
	1996 ^c	72.9	37.9	0.493	0.916	0.515	0.453
	1999	72.3	46.3	0.565	1.555	0.668	0.599
	2001	72.9	44.4	0.570	1.705	0.702	0.631
	2004	72.1	44.3	0.548	1.316	0.668	0.555
	2005	71.0	42.1	0.536	1.318	0.614	0.553
Peru	1997	70.0	41.5	0.533	1.351	0.567	0.554
	1999	71.7	42.7	0.545	1.357	0.599	0.560
	2001	70.3	41.5	0.525	1.219	0.556	0.527
	2003	69.5	39.5	0.506	1.051	0.503	0.484
	2004	70.6	40.3	0.505	1.018	0.510	0.478
Dominican Republic	2000	71.5	44.3	0.554	1.250	0.583	0.535
	2002	71.6	43.0	0.544	1.216	0.570	0.529
	2004	73.5	49.2	0.586	1.552	0.762	0.606
	2005	72.0	46.9	0.569	1.536	0.629	0.595
Uruguay ^c	1990	73.2	36.8	0.492	0.812	0.699	0.441
	1999	67.1	32.2	0.440	0.764	0.354	0.393
	2002	67.9	34.6	0.455	0.802	0.385	0.412
	2004	68.5	35.8	0.464	0.824	0.412	0.417
	2005	68.2	33.6	0.451	0.798	0.383	0.414
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	1990	68.0	35.5	0.471	0.930	0.416	0.446
	1999	69.4	38.6	0.498	1.134	0.464	0.507
	2002	68.7	38.8	0.500	1.122	0.456	0.507
	2004	67.5	35.4	0.470	0.935	0.389	0.453
	2005	68.1	36.4	0.490	1.148	0.472	0.510

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

^a Calculated on the basis of per capita income distribution nationwide. See box I.7 for the definition of each indicator.

^b Includes individuals with zero income.

^c Urban total.

^d Greater Buenos Aires.

^e Eight major cities and El Alto.

^f Asunción metropolitan area.

MEASURING INEQUALITY

A wide range of indicators can be used to measure the degree of concentration in a given income distribution. To produce consistent results, indicators should have a number of basic properties, such as:

- (i) Independence of scale: the indicator should not vary in response to proportional changes in incomes or changes of scale (e.g., changes in the income measurement unit).
- (ii) Population principle: two populations with identical Lorenz curves should exhibit the same income concentration, regardless of their size.
- (iii) Weak principle of transfers: any income transfer from a "rich" household to a "poor" one should be reflected in a decline in the degree of inequality shown by the indicator.
- (iv) Strong principle of transfers: with any income transfer from a "rich" household to a "poor" one, the greater the difference between the two households' incomes, the greater should be the reduction in inequality.
- (v) Additive decomposability: a population's income concentration should be equal to the weighted sum of the inequality found in all its subgroups.

The data presented in this chapter are based on four of the most widely used inequality indicators:

Logarithmic variance

$$VL = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\log \left(\frac{y_i}{\mu} \right) \right]^2$$

where n = population size, y_i = per capita income of the i -th individual, μ = mean income, and \log denotes natural logarithm. The log variance is one of the few statistical measures of dispersion to have the desirable properties of inequality indices (although in certain conditions it may not satisfy the transfer principles).

Gini index

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

The Gini index which, geometrically speaking, corresponds to the area between the Lorenz curve and the line of equidistribution, is the most popular index for analysing income distribution, even though it does not satisfy the strong transfers principle or additive decomposition. It takes values in the range [0,1], where 0 corresponds to absolute equality and I represents absolute inequality.

Theil index

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

This index, which accords greater importance to transfers made in the lower part of the distribution and therefore fulfils the strong principle of transfers, has the advantage of being additively decomposable. Its minimum value is zero (absolute equality) and its maximum value is $\log(n)$, where n represents the population size.

Atkinson index

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

The Atkinson index, which takes values between 0 and I , has the special characteristic of using an "inequality aversion" parameter (ϵ). The larger this value, the greater will be the weighting attached to observations in the lower part of the distribution.

As all inequality indicators are ordinal, their values are not comparable. Furthermore, since each measures partial aspects of inequality, they may generate different rankings for the same distribution. The ranking of a group of distributions can be considered definitive only if it does not vary depending on the index used. The most appropriate procedure, therefore, is to use inequality indices in a complementary fashion and analyse the results in conjunction.

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of Frank Cowell, "Measuring Inequality", *LSE Handbooks in Economics*, Prentice Hall, 2000.

The worsening of income distribution in Honduras is also corroborated by the three inequality indicators. These also suggest that in the Dominican Republic and Uruguay, income concentration worsened more than was indicated by the Gini coefficient, since the indicators that give a greater weight to the lower portion of distribution increased substantially. This would suggest that the worsening of the distribution affected mainly lower-income groups.

In the other countries analysed, distributional changes in this period have been small enough to be considered as standstill situations. Moreover, the trends of the various inequality indicators tended to contradict each other, suggesting that distribution may have improved for certain groups but worsened for others.

E. Wage inequality¹⁷

Labour earnings, particularly wages, are the main source of household income, and thus a key determinant of distributional inequality in the region. Education remains the most important determinant of wage levels. Accordingly, most of the concentration of wage incomes stems from educational differences among the population, in terms of both years of schooling and the economic returns on each additional year of studies. To move towards a more equitable distribution of opportunities and incomes, it is essential to put greater effort into raising the quality and relevance of education, particularly at the secondary school level, to effectively develop the skills that are needed for employment and provide an adequate preparation for access to higher education.

Labour incomes are a fundamental dimension of any analysis of income distribution and of research into the causes of distributive inequality. Payments received in exchange for labour are households' most important source of resources, so the nature of distributional inequality originating in this income category is an obvious subject for in-depth study.

This section reviews a number of the determinants of labour income distribution and their

behaviour between the start of the last decade and the first few years of this one.¹⁸ The analysis focuses on wages (i.e., incomes received by employed workers) and is divided into three parts. The first consists of a general description of various background factors in employment and wage trends; the second looks at the personal factors involved in explaining wage formation; and, lastly, the third section describes how these different factors contribute to the level and trend of wage inequality.

¹⁷ This section is based substantially on the work of Contreras and Gallegos (2006).

¹⁸ The period mentioned is not fully covered for all the countries examined. The available data closest to 1990 refer to 1997 in the case of Argentina, 1995 in El Salvador and 1993 in Nicaragua.

For analytical purposes, the population examined consists of wage earners in urban areas of 13 of the region's countries. It does not, therefore, include wage earners living in rural areas, nor individuals who work on an independent basis, either on their own account or as employers. Moreover, to avoid introducing biases relating to the cycle of people's working life or to the duration of the working day, the subsample studied includes only wage earners between 14 and 65 years of age who work for between 20 and 80 hours a week.

1. Background on employment and wage incomes

A number of significant changes occurred in urban labour markets in Latin American and Caribbean countries between the start of the 1990s and the current decade. First, labour demand grew more slowly than supply, thus pushing an increasing proportion of economically active individuals into unemployment. As a result, the urban unemployment rate rose sharply from 6.2% in 1990 to 10.7% in 2002. Jobs also became less secure, and the proportion of wage employment fell from 71% to 67.5%. Although the female participation rate rose substantially, from 46% to 56% on average, the gap between female and male unemployment also widened, from 1.1 to 3.5 percentage points (see chapter II).¹⁹

Wages and salaries are the most important source of household income. According to surveys conducted around 2002, labour incomes account for an average of about 81% of total income in Latin American urban households (excluding imputed rental income). Of this percentage, wages account for around two thirds, i.e., about 54% of total income. Even in countries where wages form a

smaller share of total income, such as Argentina, Brazil, Colombia or Guatemala, the proportion is never less than 45%; and in Panama and Costa Rica, wages provide over 65% of total household resources (see figure I.13).

The importance of wages in the composition of household resources is relatively homogeneous across the different economic strata, accounting for a similar share in all household per capita income quintiles. On average, wages account for 54% of household incomes in the poorest quintile, roughly 60% in the second, third and fourth, and 48% in the richest quintile.

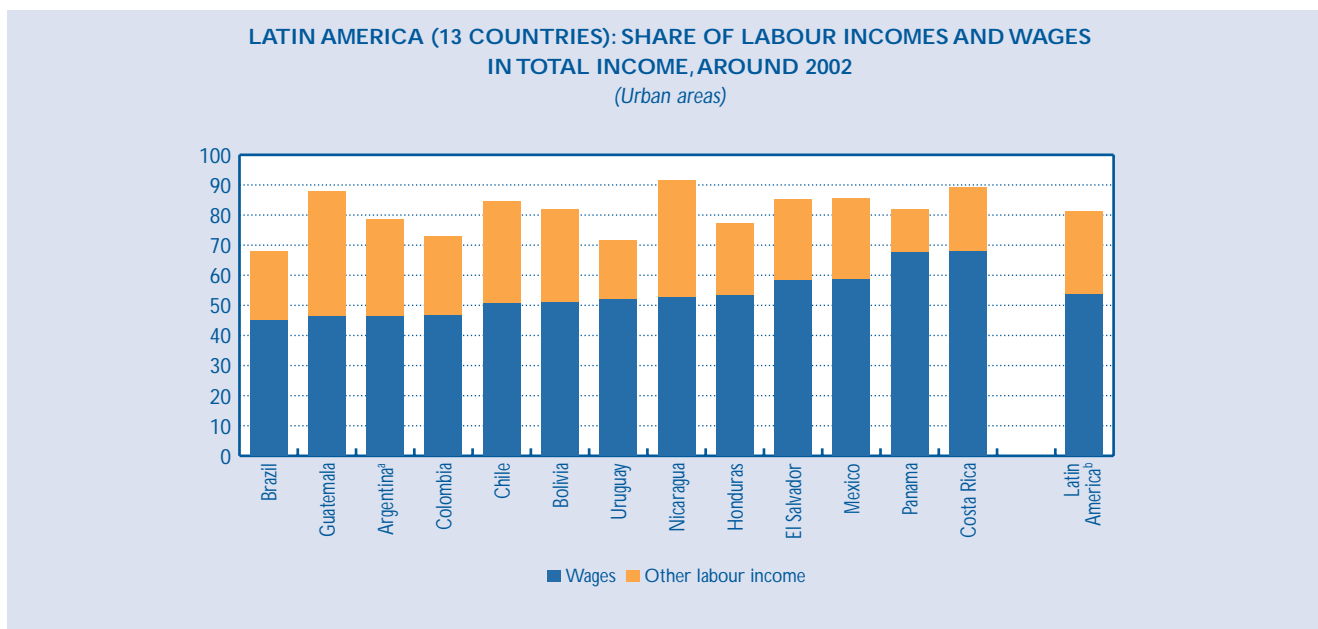
The slightly smaller share of wages in the budget of the first quintile may stem from the fact that incomes in this group are dominated by own-account work, usually involving low-productivity activities carried out in the informal sector, and complemented with a variety of transfers received by households from public and private institutions, and from other households. Incomes obtained from the labour market account for a smaller share of the budgets of the wealthiest 20% of households, for whom earnings from capital gains are more significant.

In the subset of 13 countries covered by this study, real wages grew moderately in most cases between the early 1990s and the first few years of this decade, with increases averaging below 2% per year in Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Mexico and Uruguay, and about 3% in El Salvador and Panama. In Argentina, Honduras and Nicaragua, wages slipped back in real terms, particularly in Argentina, which experienced a cumulative reduction of 26% between 1997 and 2004 (see table I.10).²⁰

¹⁹ In more recent years not covered by this analysis, unemployment fell and job creation grew along with the proportion of wage employment. These and other aspects are analysed in greater detail in chapter II.

²⁰ These results are not fully consistent with those reported in table I.1, which in several cases cover different periods than those analysed here and are obtained from surveys of commercial and business establishments rather than household surveys.

Figure I.13



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

^a Greater Buenos Aires.

^b Simple average.

Table I.10

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): LEVEL AND DISTRIBUTION OF WAGES, AROUND 1990 AND 2002 ^a									
Country	Starting year				Final year				
	Year	Monthly per capita income ^b	Average monthly wage per employed person ^b	Variance of the logarithm of hourly wages	Year	Monthly per capita income	Average monthly wage per employed person	Variance of the logarithm of hourly wages	Variance of the logarithm of hourly wages ^c
Argentina ^d	1997	992	1 308	0.44	2004	752	967	0.43	-2%
Bolivia ^e	1989	743	1 465	0.76	2002	875	1 589	0.83	9%
Brazil	1990	20 083 ^f	27 685 ^f	1.08	2003	628	740	0.73	-32% (*)
Chile	1990	142 638	226 127	0.60	2003	184 806	279 028	0.58	-3%
Colombia	1990	466 154	639 924	0.84	2002	457 903	683 570	0.60	-29% (*)
Costa Rica	1990	83 763	162 689	0.42	2002	119 473	204 814	0.49	17% (*)
El Salvador	1995	1 241	2 153	0.48	2001	1 475	2 647	0.78	63% (*)
Guatemala	1989	1 388	2 025	0.72	2002	1 657	2 638	0.71	-1%
Honduras	1990	2 489	5 304	0.72	2002	2 195	3 946	0.73	1%
Mexico	1989	3 017	4 630	0.69	2004	3 844	5 831	0.73	6%
Nicaragua	1993	1 139	2 493	0.56	2001	1 125	2 240	0.60	7%
Panama	1991	251	447	0.52	2002	349	609	0.56	8%
Uruguay	1990	5 086	6 203	0.48	2002	5 729	7 330	0.65	35% (*)
Simple average				0.64				0.65	1%
Standard deviation				0.19				0.12	

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of Dante Contreras and Sebastián Gallegos, "Descomponiendo la desigualdad salarial en América Latina: ¿Una década de cambios?", 2006, unpublished.

^a The results refer to urban wage earners between 14 and 65 years of age, who worked between 20 and 80 hours a week.

^b Expressed in constant final year prices.

^c The asterisk (*) shows that the difference between the first and last year is significant at a 95% confidence level.

^d Greater Buenos Aires.

^e Eight main cities plus El Alto.

^f In cruzeiros at current prices. The conversion at constant prices is omitted because the results are highly sensitive to the reference month for 1990. Between 1990 and 2003, the CPI increased by a factor of roughly 48,000.

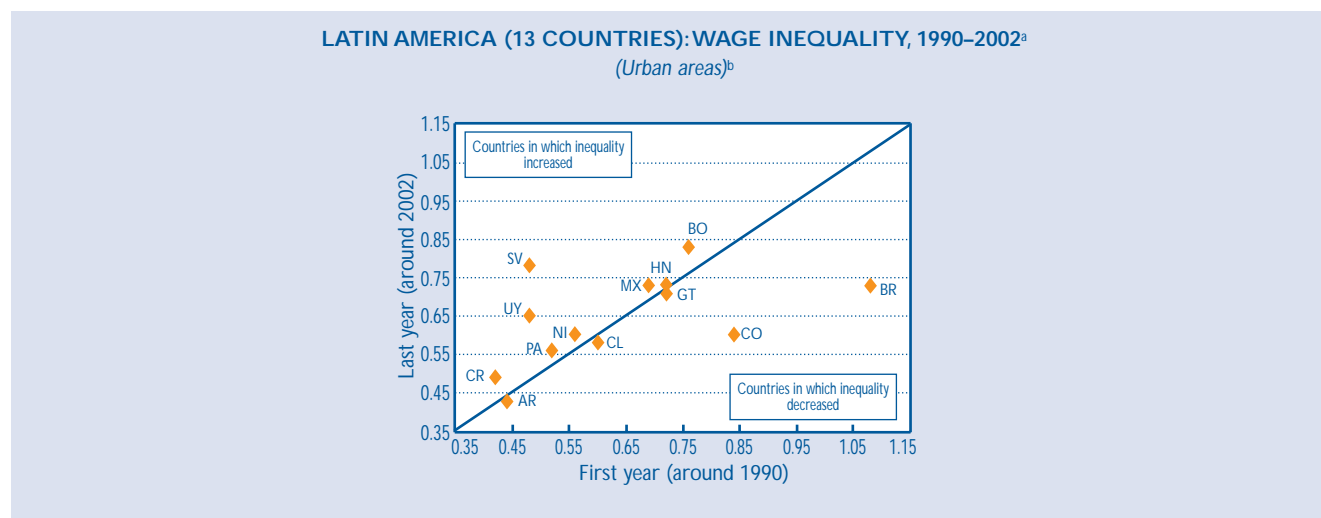
For the purpose of this analysis, wage inequality is measured by the variance of the logarithm of hourly wages.²¹ This indicator displays an average value of 0.65 for the 13 countries analysed, indicating a high level of distributive inequality, particularly compared with a number of developed countries where values are around 0.20.²²

Around 2002, the distribution of hourly wages displayed least dispersion in Argentina (0.43) and Costa Rica (0.49). Chile, Colombia, Nicaragua and Panama reported similar inequality levels (between 0.56 and 0.60), below the regional average; while Uruguay was around the average with an inequality coefficient of 0.65. The highest figures were reported by Brazil, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras and Mexico (between 0.71 and 0.78); and Brazil displayed the highest degree of wage inequality (0.83).

In aggregate terms, wage dispersion between 1990 and 2002 displays two key characteristics. The first is unchanging inequality at the regional level, as shown by the lack of variation in the simple average of the log variance of wages for the countries analysed. Secondly, wage inequality has tended towards greater regional convergence, as is apparent from the decrease in the standard deviation of the indicator used, from 0.19 to 0.12.²³

This convergence has come about through a worsening of distribution in countries where wage inequality was low in 1990, such as Costa Rica, El Salvador and Uruguay, together with an improvement in Brazil and Colombia, which were the most inequitable countries at the start of the last decade. Elsewhere, there were no statistically significant changes in the period studied (see figure I.14).

Figure I.14



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of Dante Contreras and Sebastián Gallegos, "Descomponiendo la desigualdad salarial en América Latina: ¿Una década de cambios?", 2006, unpublished.

^a Wage inequality measured by the variance of the logarithms of hourly wages.

^b The data for Argentina correspond to greater Buenos Aires, and those of Bolivia to eight main cities plus El Alto.

²¹ Although not strictly compatible with the ranking produced by the Lorenz curve, the log variance is a useful indicator for decomposing inequality by factors, as seen below. It assigns greater weight to changes that occur in the lower part of the distribution and is susceptible to additive decomposition.

²² Based on a sample of 12 countries: Austria, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom and United States. See Bertola, Blau and Kahn (2001).

²³ A decrease in the dispersion of inequality is consistent with the trend shown by the distribution of per capita income at the national level between 1990 and 2001/2002, as discussed in chapter I of ECLAC (2005a).

Although the panorama of wage distribution described broadly matches the way per capita income is shared among households, there are also some important differences. For example, while Argentina displays the greatest wage dispersion, it is a medium-inequality country according to the Gini coefficient of per capita income. The opposite applies to Uruguay, which despite having the most equal income distribution, displays average wage inequality. In El Salvador and Mexico, wage dispersion is above average even though per capita income distributions show above-average equality (see figure I.15).²⁴

2. Personal factors determining wage-earning capacity

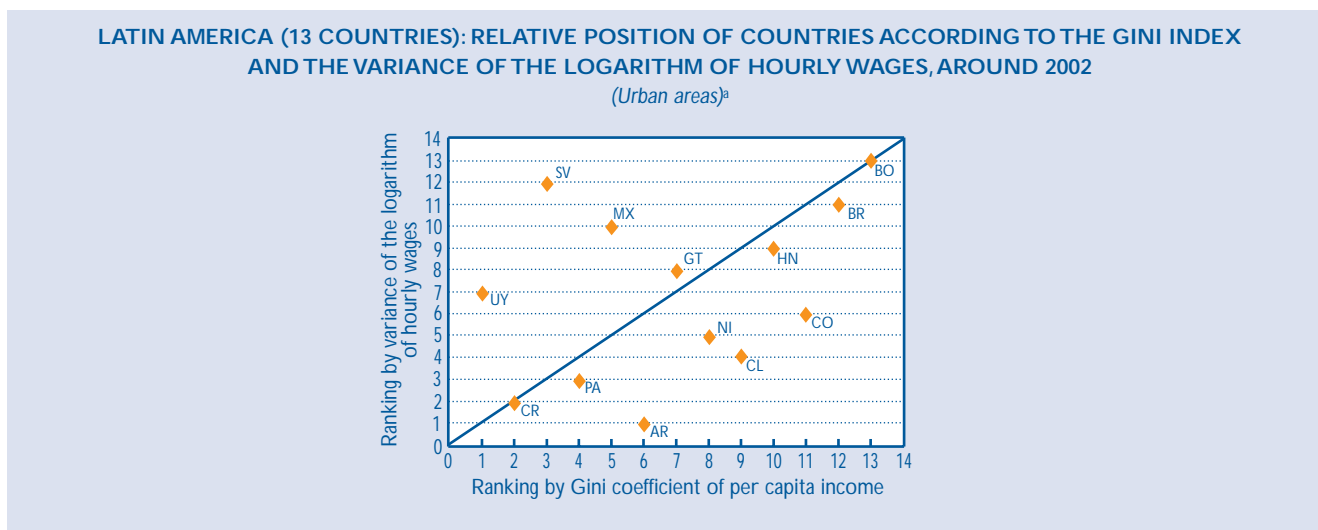
The education of the labour force, usually measured by the number of years of schooling, is a key element in the theory of human capital and plays

a major role in determining the level and trend of workers' pay.

Latin America has made a number of major advances in education since the 1990s, particularly in terms of access to the post-secondary level. Evidence analysed in previous editions of the *Social Panorama* shows that the population between 25 and 29 years of age with post-secondary technical or professional qualifications has expanded rapidly over the last decade (ECLAC, 2002a).

For the 13 countries analysed in this section, around 2002 wage earners had a simple average of 10.2 years of schooling –up by 1.1 years from the average value recorded around 1990. The greatest progress was recorded in Brazil and Colombia, with increases of 1.9 years in both countries, and in Guatemala, which reported an additional 2.5 years (see table I.11).

Figure I.15



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of Dante Contreras and Sebastián Gallegos, "Descomponiendo la desigualdad salarial en América Latina: ¿Una década de cambios?", 2006, unpublished.

^a The data for Argentina correspond to greater Buenos Aires, and those of Bolivia to eight main cities plus El Alto.

²⁴ There are various reasons why some discrepancy may be expected between the distribution of income and the distribution of wages. These include differences in average household size and number of income earners per household in different income strata. In a large household with few earners, a given wage per employed person will generate a smaller per capita income than it would in a smaller household with more employed members. Moreover, the inequality indices used have different properties. The Gini coefficient gives greater weight to observations in the middle part of the distribution, whereas the log variance attaches greater relative importance to the lower part.

Table I.11

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE YEARS OF SCHOOLING AND RATES OF RETURN ON EDUCATION, AROUND 1990 AND 2002 (Urban areas)										
	Average years of schooling		Rates of return on education							
	First year	Last year	All levels		Primary		Secondary		Tertiary	
			First year	Last year	First year	Last year	First year	Last year	First year	Last year
Argentina ^a	10.6	11.0	0.12	0.11	0.06	0.05	0.12	0.10	0.15	0.13
Bolivia ^b	10.8	10.9	0.12	0.14	0.08	0.05	0.08	0.05	0.13	0.21
Brazil	6.9	8.8	0.19	0.17	0.16	0.11	0.21	0.17	0.25	0.25
Chile	11.2	12.0	0.16	0.18	0.08	0.09	0.15	0.13	0.22	0.24
Colombia	9.3	11.2	0.15	0.11	0.12	0.05	0.12	0.10	0.16	0.13
Costa Rica	9.6	10.3	0.11	0.13	0.07	0.05	0.11	0.11	0.11	0.16
El Salvador	9.2	9.9	0.10	0.10	0.07	0.07	0.15	0.11	0.15	0.18
Guatemala	7.0	9.5	0.13	0.15	0.10	0.09	0.15	0.16	0.11	0.16
Honduras	7.6	8.6	0.15	0.14	0.12	0.10	0.16	0.14	0.17	0.16
Mexico ^c	8.5	10.1	0.13	0.13	0.07	0.05	0.15	0.11	0.15	0.17
Nicaragua	7.8	7.8	0.14	0.14	0.09	0.10	0.15	0.10	0.15	0.18
Panama	11.0	11.9	0.14	0.14	0.06	0.11	0.13	0.11	0.17	0.18
Uruguay	8.9	10.2	0.12	0.12	0.08	0.05	0.12	0.10	0.12	0.15
Simple average	9.1	10.2	0.14	0.14	0.09	0.08	0.14	0.12	0.15	0.18
Standard deviation	1.5	1.3	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.04

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of D. Contreras and S. Gallegos, "Descomponiendo la desigualdad salarial en América Latina: ¿Una década de cambios?" 2006, unpublished.

^a Greater Buenos Aires.

^b Eight major cities and El Alto.

^c Data on years of schooling for 1989 were obtained by indirect methods. Where school cycles were declared as completed, they were allocated the corresponding number of years, otherwise the following criterion was applied: incomplete primary, four years; incomplete secondary, eight years; incomplete upper secondary, 11 years; incomplete university, 14 years; complete university, 17 years; and postgraduate studies, 19 years.

The increase in wages associated with an additional year of schooling, which is usually referred to as the "rate of return on education", averaged 0.14 in the countries analysed, based on data for around 2002.²⁵ The dispersion of this indicator between countries is relatively small, with the lowest premiums on education reported in El Salvador (0.10) and Argentina and Colombia (0.11 each), and the highest in Brazil (0.17) and Chile (0.18).

Between 1990 and 2002, there was virtually no change in the rate of return, either in terms of the regional average or in most of the individual countries analysed. Eight countries showed no significant change in this indicator (one hundredth of a point, at most). Brazil and Colombia each saw the premium on education decline, while it rose in Bolivia, Chile, Costa Rica and Guatemala.

²⁵ This result actually reflects the "wage effect" of education, since the concept of "rate of return" also requires account to be taken of the cost of attaining a given level of education (Psacharopoulos, 1993). In addition, the coefficients reported give an approximate idea of the percentage increase in wages for each additional year of studies; the exact value corresponds to the antilogarithm of each coefficient (see box I.8 for an explanation of the methodology used).

METHODOLOGY FOR ANALYSING WAGE INEQUALITY

Estimation of equations for determining wages

The methodology used to measure the variables that determine wage level is based on the estimation of Mincer human–capital equations. The equation to be estimated can be written as follows:

$$\ln(w) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times z_1 + \beta_2 \times z_2 + \dots + \beta_n \times z_n = \sum_{j=1}^{J+2} \beta_j \times z_j \quad (1)$$

where $\ln(w)$ represents the logarithm of the hourly wage; β_j are the parameters to be estimated; and z_j are the explanatory variables. The latter include years of schooling, work experience and work experience squared, together with dichotomous variables identifying the economic sector and public/private sector. As no information is available on actual work experience, this is approximated through potential experience, defined as: age – years of schooling – age on entry to education (6 years).

In equation (1), the coefficient associated with years of schooling, β , measures the premium or average return on education, i.e., the increase in income produced by an additional year of schooling. The return on experience is presumed positive but decreasing as the level of experience increases, which is shown by a positive β coefficient for work experience, and a negative β coefficient for work experience squared.

In view of the importance attached to the completion of the various education cycles, an additional model has been estimated to calculate the returns on each education level completed, rather than merely the number of years of schooling. For that purpose, a similar specification to (1) is used, which, in addition to the β_1 coefficient associated with years of schooling, also includes $\beta_2 \times D_2 \times (\text{schooling} - \text{Prim}) + \beta_3 \times D_3 \times (\text{schooling} - \text{Sec})$. In this case, D_2 and D_3 are dichotomous variables that take a value 1 if years of schooling are greater than the duration of primary or secondary school, respectively; and the variables Prim and Sec indicate the duration of those cycles. The return on primary school education is thus given by β_1 ; that of secondary school is obtained by adding $\beta_1 + \beta_2$; and the return on higher education is equal to $\beta_1 + \beta_2 + \beta_3$.

Method for decomposing wage inequality

This method is based on that proposed by Fields and Yoo (2000) and uses the variance of the logarithms of the hourly wage as the indicator of inequality.

Equation (1) gives:

$$\text{Cov} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{J+2} \beta_j \times z_j, \ln(w) \right) = \sum_{j=1}^{J+2} \text{Cov} (\beta_j \times z_j, \ln(w)) \quad (2)$$

As the left-hand side of this equation corresponds to the covariance of $\ln(w)$ with itself, this is the variance of $\ln(w)$. Thus,

$$\sigma^2 (\ln(w)) = \sum_{j=1}^{J+2} \text{Cov} (\beta_j \times z_j, \ln(w)) \quad (3)$$

The division of equation (3) by the variance of the logarithm of wages ($\ln(w)$) gives:

$$100\% = \sum_{j=1}^{J+2} \frac{\text{Cov} (\beta_j \times z_j, \ln(w))}{\sigma^2 (\ln(w))} = \sum_{j=1}^{J+2} S_j \quad (4)$$

in which each S_j is given by:

$$S_j = \frac{\text{Cov} (\beta_j \times z_j, \ln(w))}{\sigma^2 (\ln(w))} = \frac{\beta_j \times \sigma_j \times \text{Corr} (z_j, \ln(w))}{\sigma (\ln(w))} \quad (5)$$

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Accordingly, S_j represents the proportion by which each factor (or independent variable in the Mincer equation) explains the inequality (variance) of the logarithm of wages at a given point in time.

Expression (5) is useful for understanding the intuition behind the decomposition method. For example, if years of education explain a large proportion of wage inequality (i.e., if the variable S_j for education has a high value), this could be the result of: (i) a high value of the coefficient of education (β); (ii) a high standard deviation of years of schooling (σ); or (iii) a high correlation between education and wages ($\text{Corr}(z, \ln(w))$).

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of Dante Contreras and Sebastián Gallegos, "Descomponiendo la desigualdad salarial en América Latina: ¿Una década de cambios?", 2006, unpublished.

Rates of return evaluated according to years of schooling only mask large differences in remuneration reflecting the academic cycle in which studies were concluded. Around 2002, the average rate of return for the basic education cycle was around 0.08, while the average premium for wage earners who attended secondary school was 0.12, and

the most skilled segment of the labour force, those with tertiary education, obtained returns of around 0.18. These figures show very simply how greater education secures a better position in the labour market and helps to increase productivity and income-generating capacity (see table I.12).

Table I.12

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): WORK EXPERIENCE AND WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION, AROUND 1990 AND 2002 ^a (Urban areas)								
Country	Work experience				Gender			
	Years' experience		Coefficient		Women's participation		Coefficient	
	First year	Last year	First year	Last year	First year	Last year	First year	Last year
Argentina ^b	19.4	19.6	0.04	0.04	36%	40%	-0.17	-0.21
Bolivia ^c	16.4	16.5	0.08	0.08	28%	32%	-0.18	-0.23
Brazil	17.7	17.7	0.09	0.08	39%	38%	-0.40	-0.26
Chile	17.4	19.1	0.07	0.06	32%	35%	-0.22	-0.16
Colombia	17.1	17.1	0.06	0.04	37%	43%	-0.10	-0.07
Costa Rica	16.9	18.1	0.05	0.05	34%	37%	-0.17	-0.18
El Salvador	16.2	16.7	0.05	0.04	36%	36%	-0.19	-0.08
Guatemala	17.5	13.7	0.06	0.08	36%	38%	-0.15	-0.15
Honduras	17.0	15.7	0.07	0.07	30%	39%	-0.21	-0.13
Mexico	17.7	18.2	0.08	0.06	31%	38%	-0.18	-0.19
Nicaragua	17.3	17.3	0.08	0.07	35%	35%	-0.06	-0.16
Panama	18.2	18.3	0.08	0.08	40%	39%	-0.15	-0.15
Uruguay	22.1	22.3	0.07	0.05	41%	44%	-0.29	-0.21
Simple average	17.8	17.7	0.07	0.06	35%	38%	-0.19	-0.17

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of D. Contreras and S. Gallegos, "Descomponiendo la desigualdad salarial en América Latina: ¿Una década de cambios?" 2006, unpublished.

^a The figures refer to urban wage earners of between 14 and 65 years of age, who worked between 20 and 80 hours per week.

^b Greater Buenos Aires.

^c Eight main cities plus El Alto.

In terms of behaviour, the returns on primary and secondary education moved in the opposite direction to the tertiary education cycle. The average rate of return for primary education slipped from 0.09 to 0.08, and for the secondary cycle, from 0.14 to 0.12. Conversely, the return on tertiary education rose as a simple average from 0.15 to 0.18. Hence, the gap between the tertiary and secondary cycles widened: in the 1990s their rates of return were relatively similar (0.14 and 0.15, respectively), yet by 2002 they were diverging sharply (0.12 and 0.18).²⁶

Broadly speaking, these trends are summarized in two main characteristics. First, human capital has become more abundant and economic growth has been too sluggish to drive demand for it at the same pace, so the labour market price of that capital has tended to fall. This is particularly evident in the "devaluation" of returns on secondary education.²⁷ In turn, the demand for new abilities and skills in a context of high innovation and rapid technological development causes the labour market to reward the most skilled labour more highly. Insofar as access to the tertiary education cycle remains limited, this trend has a negative impact on equity, since only a small subset of the population benefit from these high wage premiums.

A second component that is frequently adduced to analyse the factors explaining wage formation is the experience people accumulate in the course of their working lives. The findings shows that an additional year's work experience has less impact on wages than education does, with an average rate of return of 0.06. The highest rates of return on experience are recorded in Bolivia, Brazil, Guatemala and Panama (0.08), whereas in Argentina, Colombia and El Salvador this factor is less significant, with rates of return around 0.04 (see table I.12).

Although the relative impact of education on remuneration has hardly changed since the 1990s, variations at the country level suggest it is declining. Wherever the rate of return on education has changed, the direction of the change has been negative, except in Guatemala.²⁸

As far as the gender dimension is concerned, the negative sign of the coefficient for women indicates that they receive lower wage incomes than men with the same schooling and experience in all countries studied. The widest wage gaps are seen in Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil and Uruguay, and the smallest in Colombia and El Salvador.

Compared to the situation in 1990, the average wage gap has narrowed from -0.19 to -0.17. The largest improvements occurred in Brazil, Colombia, El Salvador and Honduras, where the coefficient declined by 30% or more in absolute terms. Nonetheless, gender discrimination intensified in some countries, such as Argentina, Bolivia and, particularly, Nicaragua. Despite these differences, the coefficient that measures the gender wage gap tended to converge in the different countries towards the end of the decade, as shown by the smaller dispersion around the mean.

Analysis of the personal factors affecting wages encompasses other variables, which are generally less statistically significant than education, experience and gender. One of these is employment in the public sector, for which information is available in seven countries. In all cases, this is associated with pay that is higher by between 15% and 31%, depending on the country, when other variables are constant. Although more in-depth research is required, one possible inference is that the wage premium for public sector workers reflects stronger trade union power than exists in the private sector.

²⁶ This evidence is represented graphically by a rate of return that changes from a concave function to a convex one. Ferreira and Paes de Barros (2000) describe similar behaviour by rates of return for Brazil.

²⁷ This is compatible with the fact that the most developed regions are those showing the lowest rates of return on education (Psacharopoulos and Patrinos, 2002). Nonetheless, the inverse relation between development level and rates of return is not very clear in the countries analysed. The correlation between rates of return on tertiary education and per capita GDP is -0.11, although it would rise to -0.40 if Chile and Colombia were excluded from the sample.

²⁸ The decrease in the rate of return on experience is corroborated by other studies for the countries of the region, such as Gindling and Trejos (2003) and Ferreira and Paes de Barros (2000).

Lastly, the economic sector in which wage earners work can be important in determining their wage, apart from the other characteristics analysed, but its effect varies considerably among countries. Taking the manufacturing sector as the basis for comparison, one of the few consistent features across countries is that the commerce sector is associated with lower pay, with differentials varying between 12% and 23% in eight countries. The coefficients for agriculture, mining, construction, and transport and communications are also statistically significant in most of the countries analysed, although there are major differences of sign and magnitude.

3. Factors that contribute to wage inequality

An analysis of the breakdown of wage variance shows, first, that education is the largest contributor to wage dispersion in Latin America. Data for around 2002 show that this factor accounts for 38% of the variance of wages, on average, exerting the greatest impact in Guatemala (53%) and in Brazil, Chile and Honduras, where it accounts for 45% or more (see table I.13).

Table I.13

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): WAGE INEQUALITY AND PERCENTAGE CONTRIBUTION OF EXPLANATORY FACTORS, AROUND 1990 AND 2002 (Urban areas)										
Country	Variance of the logarithm of wages		Factors that contribute to wage inequality						Total	
	First	Last	Schooling		Experience		Other ^a		First	Last
			First	Last	First	Last	First	Last		
Argentina ^b	0.44	0.43	36%	24%	9%	8%	-1%	-1%	44%	31%
Bolivia ^c	0.76	0.83	27%	36%	10%	10%	-1%	3%	36%	49%
Brazil	1.08	0.73	48%	46%	6%	12%	7%	0%	61%	58%
Chile	0.60	0.58	37%	48%	5%	-1%	2%	4%	44%	51%
Colombia	0.84	0.60	33%	42%	-1%	3%	5%	7%	37%	52%
Costa Rica	0.42	0.49	38%	42%	6%	5%	6%	3%	50%	50%
El Salvador	0.48	0.78	36%	28%	0%	1%	10%	8%	46%	37%
Guatemala	0.72	0.71	45%	53%	-4%	7%	18%	5%	59%	65%
Honduras	0.72	0.73	46%	45%	10%	6%	2%	3%	58%	54%
Mexico	0.69	0.73	25%	31%	12%	7%	1%	2%	38%	40%
Nicaragua	0.56	0.60	30%	38%	4%	2%	2%	2%	36%	42%
Panama	0.52	0.56	39%	31%	17%	13%	-1%	0%	55%	44%
Uruguay	0.48	0.65	23%	27%	24%	11%	-4%	2%	43%	40%
Simple average	0.64	0.65	34%	38%	7%	6%	4%	3%	45%	48%

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of D. Contreras and S. Gallegos, "Descomponiendo la desigualdad salarial en América Latina: ¿Una década de cambios?" 2006, unpublished.

^a Includes years of experience squared, sex, and sector and branch of economic activity.

^b Greater Buenos Aires.

^c Eight main cities plus El Alto.

These figures are corroborated by data for the 1990s, when education accounted for an average of 34% of total wage inequality. Moreover, between that period and the present decade, the contribution of education to wage inequality increased in most of the countries analysed, regardless of whether wage inequality itself increased or decreased.

After education, years of experience is the next most important variable in explaining wage inequality. On average, it accounts for 6% of total wage dispersion, although there are significant differences between countries. The premium paid for experience accounts for 10% of total wage inequality in Bolivia, Brazil, Panama and Uruguay, but does not contribute at all in El Salvador and Nicaragua, and in Chile it actually tends to reduce the gap, albeit minimally.

Although experience had a virtually unchanging impact on inequality at the aggregate level between 1990 and 2002, individual countries display diverging trends. In six cases, the contribution of experience to wage dispersion decreased, in three it remained broadly constant, and in four other countries it tended to increase, including two cases of sign change (i.e., from reducing wage inequality to increasing it).

Apart from these two variables, which have a clearly identifiable effect, many other factors contribute to wage inequality. Although most of them are potentially significant, their contribution to increasing or reducing inequality is actually very small. Gender, working in the public or private sector and branch of economic activity account for just 3% of wage inequality, on average.

This analysis does not encompass other variables that affect wage distribution because they are complicated to identify and quantify. Although this

study covers factors that human capital holds crucial to determining an individual's income-generating capacity, these account on average for roughly half of the observed variance in wages.²⁹

The findings described indicate that education can be a very effective public policy tool for impacting on wage distribution and, hence, on income distribution. They also show that at least half of all wage inequality is determined by the interaction of multiple factors, so intervention targeting any single factor has little chance of significantly altering income concentration.

Given education's key role in reducing wage inequality, a more detailed evaluation of the factors underlying the relation between the two variables is called for. As described in box I.8, the contribution of education to wage inequality can be broken down into the multiplication of the rate of return on education, dispersion in years of schooling, and the correlation between years of schooling and wages.

Although all three components are strongly implicated in education's contribution to wage dispersion, the link with the average rate of return is particularly strong. Countries where education makes the largest contribution to wage dispersion are also those that display high rates of return on education; conversely, the opposite is true for countries in which education makes a small contribution to wage inequality. Since tertiary education has the highest rates of return in the countries analysed, it seems reasonable to infer that it plays a major role in shaping wage distribution. Accordingly, expanding access to post-secondary training appears to be one of the measures that could help reduce wage inequality, by reducing both rates of return on this level of education and the dispersion in the population's years of schooling. An effort of this type necessarily requires raising the

²⁹ The explanatory power of the model is similar to that obtained by other studies of Latin American countries, including De Hoyos (2006) for Mexico, Gindling and Trejos (2003) for Costa Rica and Contreras (2002) for Chile.

quality and relevance of education, particularly at the secondary school level. Education must pursue the twin objectives of providing people with skills to adequately engage in the labour market, by offering a wider range of technical specialization that is consistent with the demands of the productive sector, and providing the knowledge needed to gain access to higher levels of education. As lower-income groups gain access to the type of education described, their opportunities will expand

significantly and they will become more productive, which will promote social mobility (see table I.14).

It is also clear that, in a number of cases, the overall behaviour of education as a factor in wage inequality reflects opposing trends in its component parts. In countries such as Colombia, Mexico, Nicaragua and Uruguay, the contribution made by education to inequality has increased, although average rates of return have not.

Table I.14

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): CONTRIBUTION OF EDUCATION AND ITS COMPONENTS TO WAGE INEQUALITY, AROUND 1990 AND 2002 (Urban areas)												
Country	Components											
	Contribution of education to dispersion			Returns on education			Dispersion in years of schooling			Correlation between education and income		
	First	Last	Var.	First	Last	Var.	First	Last	Var.	First	Last	Var.
Argentina ^a	36%	24%	-	0.12	0.11	-	3.71	3.67	-	0.51	0.40	-
Bolivia ^b	27%	36%	+	0.12	0.14	+	4.71	4.33	-	0.42	0.54	+
Brazil	48%	46%	-	0.19	0.17	-	4.19	4.14	-	0.61	0.55	-
Chile	37%	48%	+	0.16	0.18	+	3.88	3.77	-	0.47	0.55	+
Colombia	33%	42%	+	0.15	0.11	-	3.87	4.69	+	0.51	0.62	+
Costa Rica	38%	42%	+	0.11	0.13	+	4.01	3.95	-	0.57	0.59	+
El Salvador	36%	28%	-	0.10	0.10	=	4.78	4.72	-	0.54	0.51	-
Guatemala	45%	53%	+	0.13	0.15	+	4.71	4.76	+	0.63	0.62	-
Honduras	46%	45%	-	0.15	0.14	-	4.31	4.31	=	0.61	0.62	+
Mexico	25%	31%	+	0.13	0.13	=	3.96	4.22	+	0.41	0.50	+
Nicaragua	30%	37%	+	0.14	0.14	=	4.04	4.23	+	0.41	0.50	+
Panama	39%	31%	-	0.14	0.14	=	4.23	4.15	-	0.49	0.41	-
Uruguay	23%	27%	+	0.12	0.12	=	3.59	3.76	+	0.39	0.48	+
Average	36%	38%		0.14	0.14		4.15	4.21		0.51	0.53	

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of D. Contreras and S. Gallegos, "Descomponiendo la desigualdad salarial en América Latina: ¿Una década de cambios?" 2006, unpublished.

^a Greater Buenos Aires.

^b Eight major cities and El Alto.



Changes in wage work in Latin America and recent employment trends

Introduction

The past four years (2003–2006) have seen Latin America's best economic and social performance in 25 years. Progress with poverty reduction, falling unemployment, improving income distribution in several countries and a strong upswing in numbers of jobs are the main factors underlying the positive trend in many of the countries of the region.

One of the factors contributing to this improvement of living conditions within the region over the past four years was a steady economic expansion (GDP grew by an average annual rate of almost 4.5%). This boosted real wages in several countries, and in some, average urban wages rose above the levels seen before the recessions that occurred early in this decade. In Argentina and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, however, the steep rise in wages since 2003 has not yet brought them up to the levels of the late 1990s. The turnaround in the main indicators of well-being observed since 2003 is partially a reflection of favourable conditions which may continue in future, marking a clear turning point in the region.

After more than a decade of steadily rising unemployment (from 1990 to 2002, the average weighted urban unemployment rate rose from 6.2% to 10.7%),¹ of growth in informal and insecure jobs and, in many countries, of stagnating or even falling wages, it is important to look at which situations have stayed the same, which have improved and what changes have taken place during these recent years of recovery and growth in relation to employment in the countries.

This chapter studies variations in the main labour market indicators and compares trends from the period 1990–2002 with those from the last three years. It analyses changes in the level and composition of unemployment, trends in labour force participation (especially of women) and job creation. Attention has been focused on urban wage employment, since this accounts for more than two thirds of all the region's employed persons, whose labour earnings provide three quarters of household income. It was precisely in recognition of the need to create quality employment that the 2005 World Summit of the United Nations recommended that the first Millennium Development Goal should include the target of full and productive employment and decent work for all, particularly for women and young people. The inclusion of that target, albeit without a quantitative indicator, represents a substantial step forward, since quality job creation is both a development goal in itself and a condition for the achievement of the other Millennium Development Goals.

The quality of wage employment is therefore discussed with reference to real wage levels and trends, type of contract and the attached social security coverage. It is concluded that the upturn in employment and, partly, in wages seen in the last two years has not significantly improved the quality of new jobs. This would indicate that the current levels of coverage of employment-based contributory social security schemes are insufficient to sustain progress towards the institution of a universal pension and retirement scheme in which minimum benefits can be properly financed in the long term.

¹ The unemployment figures and other labour market indicators analysed in this section are derived from household surveys and do not always match the statistics used by the countries in announcing official figures for their main labour market indicators. The unemployment figures for the region based on official statistics from the countries in 1990 and 2002 were 5% and 9.1% respectively.

A. Main labour market trends since the end of the 1980s

The economic crisis experienced by many of the region's countries in the first decade of this century consolidated the negative trends that had been observed during the 1990s: persistent rises in unemployment and casual employment in low-productivity sectors with no social security or health benefits and falling or frozen real wages. However, the subsequent economic recovery in those countries and the high levels of regional growth recorded in the last four years have noticeably reversed some of those trends: regional urban unemployment dropped by around one percentage point and just over 5.3 million new jobs were created each year (more than 75% of which were wage jobs) –a much higher rate than that recorded during the previous decade (3.8% per year from 2003 to 2005, compared with 2.9% between 1991 and 2002). This mainly benefited low-income groups, which has made a significant contribution to the reduction of poverty in Latin America.

Regional changes in urban employment over the past three years are mainly associated with the recovery of activity levels in Latin American economies following the cycles of harsh recession suffered by many countries. However, the current characteristics of employment are also marked by changes in the labour market resulting from amendments to labour legislation introduced in most countries. Nevertheless, current employment structure and dynamics function more in response to longer term trends that have had effects on both

labour supply (such as the growing participation of women and young people remaining in the education system for longer) and labour demand (that is, job creation). Indeed, changes in the sectoral structure of output and productivity in various activities, as well as production centralization and concentration processes, have all impacted economies' capacity to absorb labour with different skill levels in accordance with their level of trade openness and position within the world economy.

1. Employment trends in Latin America during the 1990s

The region's economic situation during the 1980s, characterized by low growth rates and high inflation, had far-reaching implications for trends in employment and wages. The decade's low level of economic growth (averaging only 1%) and the surge in labour supply (mainly following the incorporation of women and young people into the labour force) brought about an increase in levels of informal, low-productivity employment and a subsequent reduction in real wages.

Economic and institutional reform and policies aimed at stabilizing and raising levels of activity in the region enabled economies to recover during the 1990s. This created more favourable labour market conditions, although negative trends appeared (or continued) in terms of income and job quality and stability. The following is a description of Latin America's labour market during the 1990s.

a) Unemployment trends and how they tie in with economic growth

Various analyses carried out in the late 1990s concluded that one of the major characteristics of labour trends for that decade was the changed relationship between expansionary phases of the business cycle and job creation. The region's economic recovery (with growth rates of between 3% and 4%) did not result in a major fall in unemployment, which remained fairly high (almost 9% in 1999) (ECLAC, 2001 and ILO, 2000).

Three factors are thought to have made it difficult to bring down unemployment during the 1990s. First, the employment asymmetry in the business cycle, whereby employment falls more quickly than GDP during recessions, while the ratio is reversed during expansion so that economic activity returns to pre-crisis levels more quickly than

the unemployment rate. The significance of this factor was accentuated by the volatility of the region's economic growth during the 1990s, as highlighted by the recessions of 1995 and the crisis that began in 1998. While in the 1980s, growth of just over 1% brought down the open unemployment rate by a similar proportion, in the 1990s annual growth of almost 4% was required to bring down unemployment by that same 1%. This constituted a major change in the threshold at which increased economic activity translated into a fall in unemployment (Altenburg, Qualmann and Weller, 2001). Second, companies react differently during recession and adjustment depending on their size. The largest enterprises (with more than 50 employees) are highly flexible, both in terms of dismissing staff when times are bad and rehiring during boom times. The final factor concerns labour-supply patterns themselves, as the rapid incorporation of women and young people (particularly those from low-income households) has kept labour supply buoyant despite lower demographic pressure and young people remaining in the education system for longer.

b) Changes in the sectoral structure of employment: privatization and the shift to the service sector

A second defining feature of labour dynamics during the 1990s was the change in employment distribution both among sectors of activity and between the public and private sectors. Although the main characteristics of this process were a continuation of previous trends, it was during the 1990s that public-sector employment declined further and the relative proportion of employment in tradable goods production was overtaken by a faster rise in jobs in the private sector and the tertiary sector. While manufacturing employment expanded at an annual rate of 1.3% and agricultural employment fell in absolute terms, the tertiary sector gained considerable ground in the occupational structure. By 1997, manufacturing employment represented 14% of the regional total, whereas

tertiary activities represented 55% (Weller, 2000). The International Labour Organization (ILO) estimates that, during the 1990s, 95 out of every 100 new jobs created in the region were in the private sector and 83 were in the tertiary sector.

c) Characteristics of job creation during the 1990s: informal employment and job insecurity

Besides the changes related to job creation capacity (the above-mentioned new relationship between growth and falling unemployment) and its sectoral distribution during the 1990s, there were also changes in terms of the quality and stability of the jobs created. One striking characteristic was the increased proportion of informal employment, which accounted for two out of every three jobs created during that decade. Furthermore, job insecurity increased, as around 55% of new wage positions were for jobs with no social security coverage (ILO, 2000).

The low absorption capacity of the formal labour market was partly due to the aforementioned fall in public employment, and partly to the characteristics of company modernization processes. These processes, in a context of liberalization and the need to increase competitiveness, were associated with increasing productivity using a smaller workforce, especially for the export of raw materials and manufactures based on those materials, which are more capital intensive than labour intensive. Only Mexico and a few Central American countries saw expansions of their labour-intensive export industries, although these were restricted to technologically unsophisticated activities with limited value added, low productivity and unimpressive wages.

Job insecurity grew considerably, in terms of both temporary wage work (particularly significant in microenterprises and the services sector) and employment with no social security coverage (ECLAC, 2000).

Thus, although wage employment picked up slightly in relation to the 1980s, it grew by only 2.2% during the 1990s (with 2.2% in the private sector and 0.7% in the public sector). In contrast, self-employment grew by an average of 2.8% per year and domestic work by 3.9% per year (Weller, 2000).

d) Female and youth employment dynamics in the 1990s

Another significant trend was the increased participation of women and young people, especially those from the lowest-income households in the region.

Women's employment during this period is concentrated among women aged 25 to 49 (who must reconcile domestic and work responsibilities), and shows a greater representation of women with between 10 and 12 years of schooling. In commerce and services, women now form the majority of the workforce. Although domestic service continues to grow, it has lost some of its relative importance.

During the 1990s, it was young people who had the highest and most rapidly rising unemployment rates. They tend to begin their working lives in low-quality poorly paid jobs, with average wages at only 44% of adult wages at the end of the 1990s (ILO, 2000).

2. Employment trends in Latin America during the period of recovery and growth from 2003 to 2005

The crisis that affected several of the region's countries at the beginning of this decade aggravated the negative trends observed during the 1990s. The information available for 2002–2005 shows a clear reversal of the prevailing trend in the region's labour market. The striking upturn in the yearly rate of job

creation in urban areas for the three-year period 2003–2005 in comparison with 1991–2002 is a clear example. In 2003–2005, the total number of employed persons (wage employees and own-account workers) in urban areas rose by just over 5.3 million per year, well in excess of the 3.3 million per year increase in 1991–2002. The number of wage jobs climbed even more sharply, with a jump from 1.96 million new wage earners per year in the first period to 4.09 million per year in the second (see table II.1).

Table II.1

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): SUMMARY OF MAIN LABOUR MARKET TRENDS, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005 ^a									
	Both sexes			Sex					
				Men			Women		
Period	1990–2002	2002–2005	1990–2005	1990–2002	2002–2005	1990–2005	1990–2002	2002–2005	1990–2005
Annual variation in:	(Percentages)								
Total population	2.4	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.1	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.3
Working-age population	2.7	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.7
Economically active population	3.4	3.4	3.4	2.7	2.8	2.7	4.4	4.2	4.3
Employed people	2.9	3.8	3.1	2.4	3.2	2.5	3.8	4.6	4.0
Wage earners	2.5	4.3	2.9	1.9	3.9	2.3	3.5	4.8	3.7
Average annual employment growth:	(Thousands)								
Wage earners and own-account workers	3 308	5 317	3 710	1 611	2 644	1 818	1 697	2 673	1 892
Wage earners	1 962	4 089	2 387	873	2 158	1 130	1 089	1 930	1 257
Rates of:	(Percentages)								
Participation	63.8	68.5	70.1	83.5	82.7	83.2	45.9	55.5	58.1
Employment	59.8	61.2	63.3	78.6	75.1	76.5	42.7	48.5	51.3
Unemployment	6.2	10.7	9.7	5.8	9.2	8.0	6.9	12.7	11.8
Wage employment ^b	71.0	67.5	68.5	70.6	66.6	68.0	71.6	68.9	69.3
Joblessness among wage earners ^c	8.3	15.6	11.4	7.7	13.8	9.5	9.3	17.9	13.7
Joblessness among non-wage workers ^{cd}	4.0	8.1	5.6	4.1	7.9	5.4	3.7	8.2	5.8

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

^a Weighted averages and regional aggregates, not including Nicaragua, which had no data available for the most recent period.

^b Wage workers as a percentage of total employed.

^c Based on the occupational category for the most recent job; does not include first-time job seekers. Excludes Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Mexico and Peru.

^d Own-account workers, employers, cooperative workers and unpaid family (and non-family) workers.

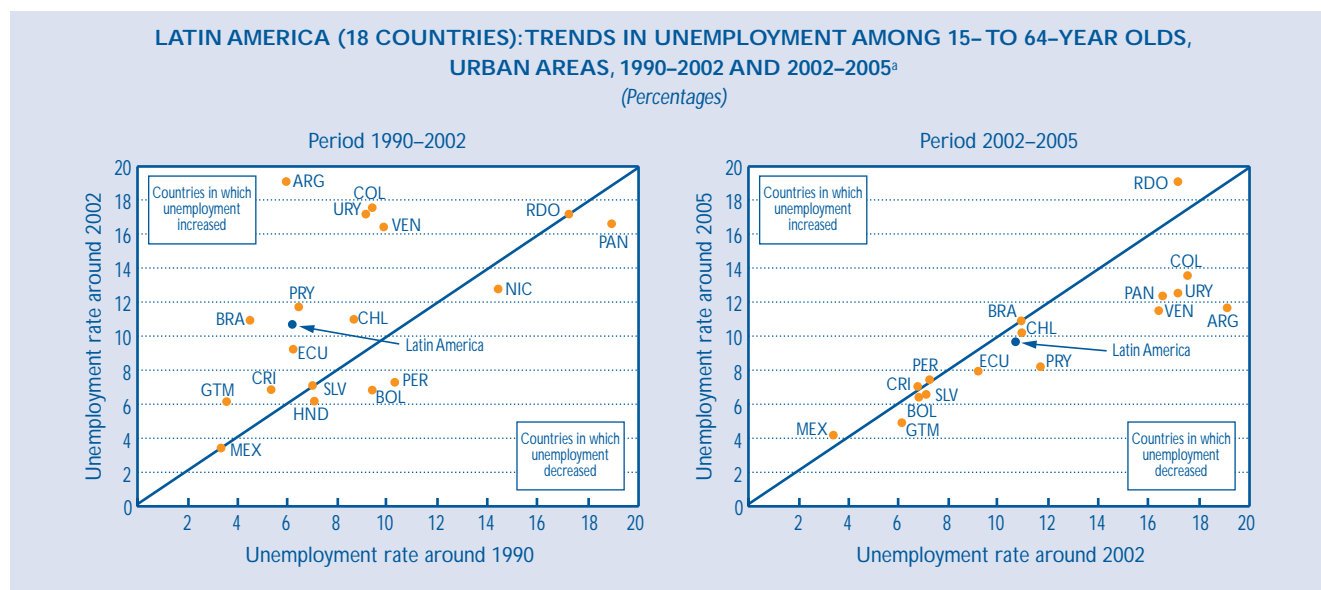
These developments account for the nearly one percentage-point decrease in the region's open unemployment between 2002 and 2005,² which is expected to fall by a further percentage point in 2006, to about 8.5%. Figure II.1 depicts the reversal of the unemployment trend from 2002 onward. In the great majority of countries, the unemployment rate moved lower in 2002–2005 following a sustained rise in the previous decade. It is noteworthy that this decline in unemployment in recent years was achieved at the same time that many wage earners who had lost their jobs were finding employment again. Statistical time series that would provide a basis for a precise analysis of this phenomenon are unavailable, but the falling unemployment rate among those who had lost a wage job (from 15.6% to 11.4% on average) constitutes persuasive evidence. As a result, there has been a partial recovery in wage employment as a proportion of urban employment, which had fallen

by a regional average of three points between 1990 and 2002. In 2005, 69% of those employed in urban areas were wage earners.

The sharpest decreases in unemployment took place in the countries whose economies expanded the most in the past three years (Argentina, Uruguay, Panama, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela and Colombia, in that order) and which had had very high unemployment rates before the recovery began. In those five countries, the unemployment rate in 2002 varied between 16.6% and 18%, and by 2005, the rates had fallen by anything from four to a little over seven percentage points.

An analysis of the relationship between GDP growth and declining unemployment shows that in recent years the growth threshold required in order to cut unemployment has remained high. This had

Figure II.1



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

^a Nicaragua is not included in the regional figure because no data were available for the most recent period. The most recent data available for Honduras are for 2002 and 2003, and these statistics therefore do not reflect the recovery in employment levels. For these reasons, neither Nicaragua nor Honduras are included in the figure on the right. The data for Colombia, Dominican Republic and Panama include hidden unemployment (the 2005 survey conducted in the Dominican Republic separated hidden from open unemployment (8.0%)); the figures for Argentina refer to Greater Buenos Aires, for Bolivia to the eight main cities and El Alto, for Paraguay to Asunción and the Central Department, and for the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela to the national total.

² The regional unemployment rate, based on official figures from the countries, declined by two percentage points between 2002 and 2005, from 11.0% to 9.1%.

already been observed in the 1990s, in comparison with the two previous decades. During the current recovery and growth phase, the threshold above which an increase in GDP resulted in a one-point fall in unemployment has also been around 4%. If that ratio remains unchanged, the region will need to maintain its growth rate of the past four years (close to 4.5%) for the coming three years in order to bring unemployment down to a level close to the 1990 figure.

Examining unemployment trends on the basis of household surveys makes it possible to compare the decline in unemployment in the region as a whole with the reduction achieved by the countries which enjoyed the fastest growth in 2002–2005 (Argentina, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Colombia, Panama and Uruguay), where the weighted yearly average figure for GDP growth stood at 7.1% during that period. Of particular note is the steep drop in unemployment among the lowest-income groups, particularly the poorest 10% of households (see figure II.2). In those five countries, unemployment in that group fell from almost 43% to close to 29%. This improvement considerably benefited households at all levels of society, even the highest income deciles. The same pattern can be seen in all 17 countries that were examined, although in the others the reductions were naturally smaller.

Youth unemployment, which remains well above average, showed the sharpest declines, but there were also sizeable decreases in adult unemployment. In the countries that enjoyed the greatest growth, conditions were such that some of the labour market's first-time entrants could be absorbed, as well as some of those who had previously lost their jobs. The aforementioned five countries also saw sharp reductions in unemployment in the population aged 40 and over.

Despite this progress, the decrease in urban unemployment failed to improve the situation in respect of gender inequalities. Unemployment remained higher among women, and the reductions in unemployment were of greater benefit to males, who had already had a lower unemployment rate at the start of the latest period of economic recovery and growth.

Despite the economic recovery of the past four years, unemployment in Latin America remains high at a little over three percentage points above the 1990 level. This is partly due to rising labour force participation rates, which climbed quickly in the 1990s and have continued to rise in most countries in the past three years, despite the fact that young people have been staying in the education system longer. From 2002 to 2005, the participation rate in urban areas rose in 12 out of 17 countries, with the increase in those countries being close to three percentage points. This slowed the fall in unemployment, although in 15 of the 17 countries, the proportion of urban employed persons as a percentage of the working-age population increased by an average of 2.3 percentage points.

The growth of the workforce is mainly attributable to the continuing entry of large numbers of women into Latin America's labour market (see figure II.3). The increase in the female participation rate from 2002 to 2005 (55.5% to 58.1%) far outpaced the increase in the participation rate for males (which rose from 82.7% to 83.2%). During that three-year period, 2.8 million women and 2.5 million men joined the workforce each year, as compared to 2.2 and 2.0 million, respectively, in 1990–2002. These figures attest to the increasing speed with which women have been entering the labour market.

Figure II.2

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): TRENDS IN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BETWEEN 2002 AND 2005, REGION AND GROUP OF COUNTRIES RECORDING LARGEST REDUCTION, BY SEX, AGE GROUPS AND INCOME DECILES, URBAN AREAS^a
(Percentages)



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

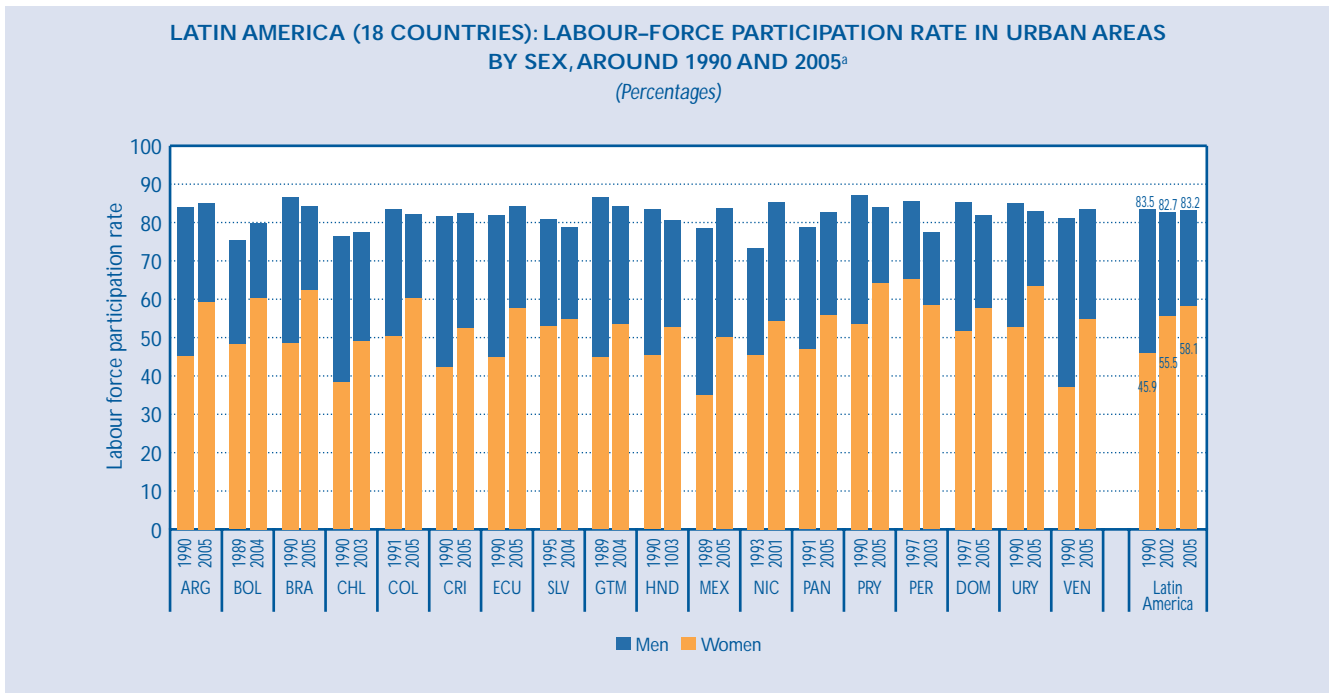
^a Nicaragua is not included in the group of 17 countries; the total may not coincide with data in other figures and tables because it covers urban areas in the countries, whose long-term comparisons have to be made with restricted urban areas (Argentina, Bolivia and Paraguay); the group of countries to record the largest decrease in unemployment in the region includes Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela (national total), Colombia, Panama and Uruguay.

^b Deciles of total household income.

The persistence of this upward trend in women's participation in the labour market suggests that the incentives driving it (better levels of education, desire for increased independence) are now being reinforced by other factors of attraction (increased availability of jobs, a growing supply of jobs offering flexible or part-time hours). This makes it even more urgent to overcome the obstacles that make it

difficult for women to contribute to household incomes on a more permanent basis. Increases in those contributions, together with large inflows of remittances in a number of countries, have raised the incomes of numerous vulnerable or poor households, many of which have succeeded in leaving poverty behind.

Figure II.3



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

^a The figure for the region does not include Nicaragua, for which data were not available for the last period; the male participation rate corresponds to the total height of the blue bar, on which the female rate is superimposed. The figures for Argentina refer to Greater Buenos Aires, for Bolivia to the eight main cities and El Alto, for Paraguay to Asunción and the Central Department, and for the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela to the national total.

THE RECOVERY OF FORMAL EMPLOYMENT IN ARGENTINA

As part of the region's expansionary phase over the last four years, special mention should be made of Argentina, which has recently displayed a rapid and sustained recovery in its levels of output and employment. Indeed, since the final quarter of 2002, Argentina has been in an expansionary period of economic activity, characterized by a revival of investment, increased exports (stimulated by the positive performance of the terms of trade in a favourable international environment) and a recovery in real wages and levels of consumption in an economy that has grown by an annual average of 9% in the last three years. In 2005, Argentina posted GDP growth of over 8%, which enabled the country not only to reach the output recorded prior to the crisis, but also to exceed that level. Projected growth for 2006 indicates that per capita GDP will be 6% higher than the level recorded in 1998 and 35% higher than the figures for 2002.

In this context of rapid expansion, the developments under way in employment prove interesting, not only in terms of job creation or job losses, but also labour–mobility dynamics and the sector composition of wage work and its distribution among companies of different sizes. It is particularly useful to compare employment dynamics (in the recovery and growth cycle) with those during the 1990s, as this shows the specific characteristics of employment growth dynamics in the country's current expansionary phase.

A general overview shows that the current phase of growth has involved a significant and rapid fall in unemployment, unlike what has tended to happen in previous periods of expansion. According to data in previous issues of the *Social Panorama of Latin America*, in the early days of macroeconomic and institutional reforms and the implementation of the convertibility plan, a surge in activity was accompanied by an equally large increase in unemployment, which practically doubled between 1992 and 1994 (from 6% or 7% to 12% of the economically active population). The 1995 recession pushed unemployment up to 18%, and this only fell by two percentage points during the subsequent economic expansion (1996–1997). The recovery and expansion phase following the 1998–2002 crisis, on the other hand, has been much more buoyant and effective in bringing down unemployment, which is even beating pre–recession levels, as demonstrated by the downward trend: from 24% in 2002 to 13.6% in 2004 and 11.6% by 2005.

Besides the fall in unemployment, there are other interesting aspects to the employment trends observed during the current period of economic recovery and expansion. Data on employment and company turnover from the Observatory of Employment and Business Dynamics in Argentina (Ministry of Labour, Employment and Social Security) are highly informative in terms of rates of openness, closure and expansion of jobs and the occupational distribution by sector and size of company. These data come from the social security administrative records of Argentina's Comprehensive Retirement and Pension System, and cover the current and past work situation of private registered employees in manufacturing, commerce and services.

First, there has been an upward trend in registered employment (with social security coverage) following the crisis. There were 3.2 million registered jobs at the beginning of 2002, 3.5 million in 2004 and –according to a recent report– 4.2 million in the first quarter of 2006. In terms of year–on–year variation (2005–2006), registered employment is said to have grown by nine percentage points (360,000 jobs), while the number of companies also increased considerably (3.1%).

This upward trend is confirmed when recent data (from the first quarter of 2006) are compared with data from the first quarter of 1998 (identified as the moment that preceded the recession and crisis). This comparison reveals a significant increase of 22%. Comparing recent data with levels observed towards the end of the crisis (first quarter of 2003) shows that registered wage work in private companies has risen by 35% in the last three years.

Data from the Observatory of Employment and Business Dynamics also provides information on the sectoral structure of employment, showing a general growth trend in all sectors, but with heterogeneous and variable growth rates in recent years. For instance, at the beginning of the most recent expansionary phase, manufacturing employment was the most buoyant in terms of job creation (following a sharp decline during the crisis). This was, however, reversed in the 2005–2006 period as year–on–year growth in manufacturing was 7.9%, compared with 9.4% in the services sector and 9.6% in commerce.

In terms of employment trends according to company size (small, medium–sized and large), the figures show growth at all levels. One particularly striking development in job creation over the last year has been the smaller role played by microenterprises, which are responsible for only 13% of registered wage earners, compared with 22% for small enterprises and 65% for medium–sized and large companies.

THE RECOVERY OF FORMAL EMPLOYMENT IN ARGENTINA

Lastly, the series of data presented by the Observatory of Employment and Business Dynamics can also be used to analyse the work situation of those who lost their registered jobs during the recession and their possibilities of rejoining the work force during expansion. During the crisis, 18% of people are estimated to have left registered employment, mainly in favour of jobs with no protection, or unemployment and, to a lesser extent, inactivity. In the period 2003–2004, it is estimated that 34% of those entering socially protected employment were actually re-entrants, while in 2004, 40% of re-entrants had separated from their previous employment a short time before. This seems to show that, in the new expansionary phase of economic activity, a certain proportion of workers who lost their jobs during the recession are managing to re-enter wage employment with social-security coverage.

In summary, Argentina's rapid and steady expansion during 2002–2006 seems to have been accompanied by a fall in unemployment and a sustained recovery in formal employment. It should, however, be borne in mind that the occupational structure of Argentina –as in the rest of the region– is characterized by employment in low-productivity sectors and by informal employment.

Source: Barbara Stallings and Wilson Peres, *Growth, Employment, and Equity: The Impact of the Economic Reforms in Latin America and the Caribbean*, New York, Brookings/Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), 2000; Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), *Social Panorama of Latin America 2005* (LC/G.2288–P), Santiago, Chile 2006. United Nations publication, Sales No. E.05.II.G.161; International Labour Organization (ILO), *Labour Overview 2000. Latin America and the Caribbean*, Lima, 2000; Barbara Stallings and Jürgen Weller, "Employment in Latin America: cornerstone of social policy", *ECLAC Review*, No. 75 (LC/G.2150–P), Santiago, Chile, December 2001.

B. Changes in wage employment

The recent recovery of employment levels has meant a significant increase in wage employment (to represent 68.5% of urban jobs in 2005), although with the same characteristics of flexibility and insecurity that prevailed at the end of the 1990s. Although the proportion of wage workers in low-productivity sectors declined, there remained a tendency to use contracting procedures that are both informal (one in two wage workers had signed some kind of contract) and temporary (only one in eight workers had a permanent contract). Although two in every three wage workers were covered by social security (four percentage points less than in 1990), the small proportion of jobs with contractual obligations to contribute suggests that the number of workers actually making contributions is much lower. This is reinforced by the limited increase in real wages, which grew by 10% between 1990 and 2005 to stand at a monthly average of 371 dollars (a low level for encouraging voluntary contributions). It is therefore predictable that, in the future, it will not be possible to support the financial burden of social protection and welfare systems with employment-based contribution schemes alone.

Wage workers currently represent just over two thirds of the region's urban labour market. This urban labour market accounts for 150 million people, with around 103 million of those jobs generated by public or private, formal or informal enterprises, or households that contract personal services. The rest of the employed are employers (around 4% of the total) and own-account workers in various activities.

The capacity to generate wage employment is a reflection of the buoyancy of both individual national economies and the international economy, their structure and the level of technical progress. Shortcomings in the wage labour market stimulate independent activity and entrepreneurship, but they also increase the level of informality in less competitive sectors, especially in terms of contractual conditions. The percentage of wage

earners within the overall number of employed persons is therefore a good indicator of how the labour market is functioning. During the 1990s in Latin America, wage jobs decreased as a proportion of total employment. The percentage of wage earners within the overall number of employed persons in urban areas fell from 71% to 67.5% between 1990 and 2002, while levels of unemployment crept up. During that period, while the working-age urban population grew by 2.7% per year, the economically active population rose by 3.4%. This placed pressure on the labour market, which generated wage jobs at an annual rate of 2.5% (which meant just under two million additional jobs per year in the region). In the period 2002–2005, which opened with growth problems for several countries but closed with a positive balance, the annual pace of wage job creation was 4.3%, which was higher than the rates of increase for all employment (3.8%) and the active population (3.4%). During that time, an annual average of just over 4 million wage jobs was created in urban areas. As a result, in 2005, wage jobs accounted for 68.5% of all employment, which went some way towards recovering levels recorded at the beginning of the 1990s.

Not all countries report the same level of wage employment, and such differences attest to the diversity of labour market conditions in the region. As shown in figure II.4, three in every four urban employed people are wage earners in Argentina, Chile, Costa Rica and Mexico, closely followed by Brazil, Panama and Uruguay. In the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia, Colombia, Guatemala, Honduras and Peru, however, only three or fewer out of every five employed people work for someone else. Table II.3 shows that these countries also have a higher proportion of people employed in low-productivity sectors. At the regional level, the upturn in wage employment resulted in a decrease from 40% to 36% in urban employment in low productivity-sectors (including employers and unskilled workers in microenterprises, domestic employees and unskilled own-account workers).³

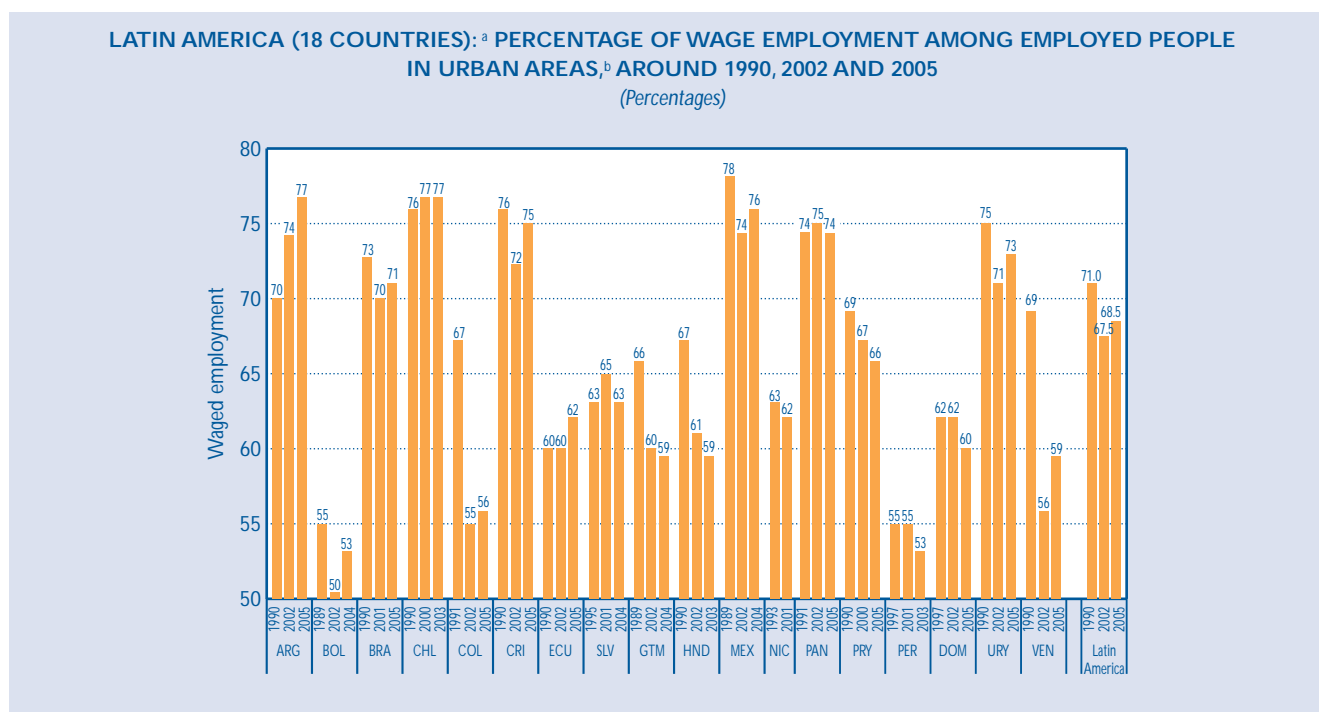
Despite this regional progress, several countries nonetheless register high levels of employment in low-productivity sectors: Bolivia (65%), Paraguay (57%), Honduras (55%), Guatemala and Nicaragua (53%). In these countries, low-productivity wage employment (workers with no professional or technical qualification in microenterprises and domestic service) represents between 30% and 42% of total wage employment, while in the region as a whole this percentage has been consistently dropping from 22% in 1990 to 17% in 2005. The relative reduction in wage employment in microenterprises therefore helped to shrink the urban informal sector, which is mainly made up of unskilled own-account workers.

Another noteworthy phenomenon is the falling representation of the State as main employer within the labour market. In 1990s, the State generated at least one in four wage jobs, while this figure dropped to less than 20% in 2005. The persistence of this trend during the recent recovery shows the small role played by the State in the improved performance of the region's labour market (generating around 11% of new urban employment).

The available information gives a clear picture of the quality of the jobs created in recent years. Job quality refers to various characteristics, including existence of a contract, its duration, whether it includes health coverage, social insurance contributions and other social benefits, the physical conditions and the workload, length of working day and wages. No one characteristic defines job quality, but they are all interdependent: a formal contract tends to involve a series of legal duties for the employer and worker that have a positive effect on other aspects of quality; and the lack of such a contract makes the wage worker vulnerable in terms of non-compliance with national labour legislation. Also, low wages may discourage workers from contributing to social welfare systems, especially for those working with informal contracts and where contribution is voluntary.

³ This estimate refers to employed people in urban areas, aged 15 to 64, who stated that they had received income from work. It does not include Colombia, whose survey does not distinguish the size of firms where workers are employed.

Figure II.4



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

^a The regional figure does not include Nicaragua, as there was no country information for the most recent period.

^b The figures for Argentina correspond to Greater Buenos Aires, those for Bolivia to the eight main cities and El Alto, those for Paraguay to Asunción and the Central Department and those for the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela to the nationwide total.

Despite the lack of information on the whole range of conditions that define job quality, it is possible to describe a few of the main characteristics of jobs. First, a small number of countries show a downward trend in hiring with formal or written contracts. In those countries that have information available from the beginning of the 1990s, formal hiring fell by four percentage points between 1990 and 2005. The slight increase in formal or written contracts in Brazil and Mexico between 2002 and 2005 explains the region-wide improvement in this indicator. In 2005, 12 countries in the region reported that 49% of their wage workers had a formal contract with their employers, with one in four having a permanent contract (i.e., one in every eight wage workers overall). It should be pointed out that the slight upturn in jobs with formal contracts was recorded mainly on the strength of temporary work

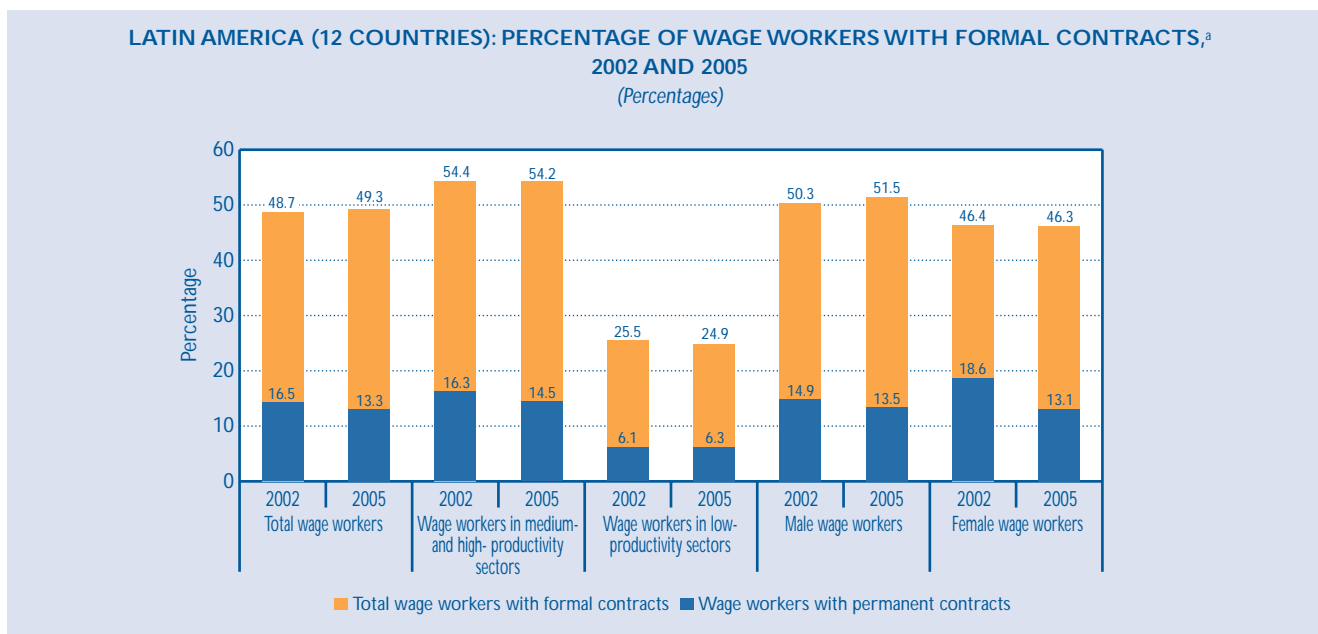
contracts: only 4% of the jobs created between 2002 and 2005 came with a permanent contract. As shown in figure II.5, informal hiring is not the exclusive domain of low-productivity sectors. Only about 25% of wage workers have a formal contract in those low-productivity sectors, while the figure is about 54% in medium- and high-productivity sectors. Furthermore, employers are more likely to have a formal contract with their male workers (52%) than their female workers (46%). In 2002, approximately 40% of female workers with a formal contract also had a permanent contract. In 2005, this only applied to 30% of those female workers. This demonstrates that during the regional upturn in employment, there has been a strong decrease in permanent contracts for women. For the region as a whole, in 2005 there were 20% fewer women with permanent contracts than in 2002.

Although formal contracts do not guarantee access to health systems and insurance, the lack of such a contract seriously undermines workers' rights to such services, mainly in terms of receiving health benefits following work-related illness or accidents but also in terms of affiliation and cover for dependent family members. Similarly with affiliation and contributions to social insurance systems, if a contract does not involve any contributory obligations, there is far less incentive for voluntary contributions, especially when workers on low wages are expected to channel some of their current income into a system from which they may receive benefits in the future.

At present, around 53% of the urban employed describe themselves as contributing members of social insurance systems, which is about seven percentage points lower than in 1990, despite a slight upturn between 2002 and 2005. Obviously,

most contributing workers are precisely the wage workers, as they are usually obliged to contribute to social insurance systems under the terms of national labour legislation. In 2005, two in three urban wage workers were contributing to social insurance systems. Between 1990 and 2005, the number of wage workers making social security contributions increased by around 44%. Notwithstanding the above, there has been a relative decrease of around four percentage points in the number of wage workers who are affiliated to social security systems since 1990. Furthermore, given that only about 50% of wage workers have formal contracts, as many as 65% of all wage workers who are members of social security systems may have no legal capacity or incentive to actually make contributions. This generates major shortfalls that affect the density of contributions and eventually reduce the cumulative returns of the system's funds and of the social insurance system in general.

Figure II.5



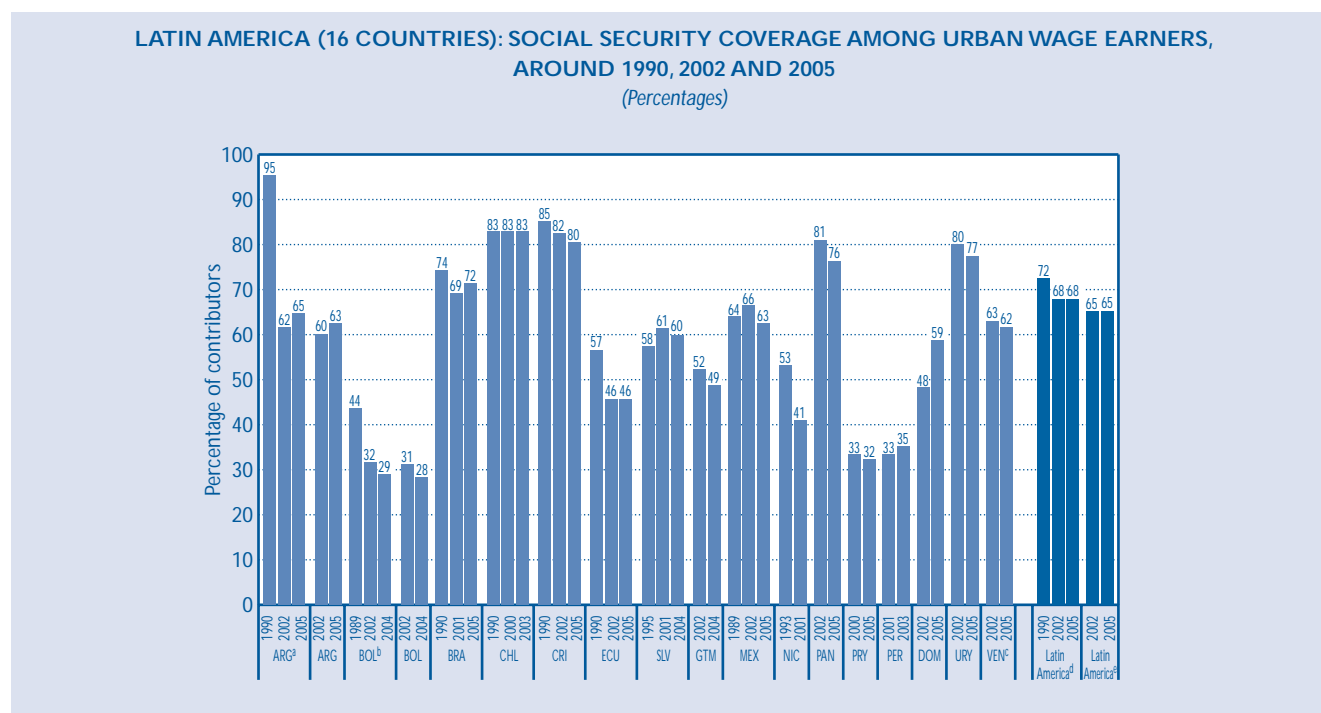
Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

^a Some total values may not be consistent with the average of partial values, owing to the lack of information on employment status in some countries.

The levels and trends associated with social security coverage are not uniform throughout all the region's countries. In Bolivia, Paraguay and Peru, 35% or less of wage workers report contributing to social security systems, while that percentage is in excess of 75% in countries such as Chile, Costa Rica, Panama and Uruguay. The percentage of wage workers with contracts that include social security cover rose by three percentage points in Argentina, Brazil and Peru, while the figure dropped by a similar proportion in Bolivia, Guatemala, Mexico, Panama and Uruguay (see figure II.6). There are also differences within labour markets: while three in four wage workers in medium- and high- productivity sectors are affiliated to social security systems, only one in four wage workers in microenterprises and domestic service

make contributions. Men are even more affected by this, as only one in five men in the latter category make contributions. In the public sector, over 87% of wage workers make contributions, while this is true of less than 65% of wage workers in the private sector. Given the process of population ageing in the region and the fact that it will only increase its pace in the coming decades, there will be an increased amount of pressure on social security systems, whose resources will really prove insufficient to ensure the welfare of retirees and pensioners, not only of those covered by solidarity-based systems but also those covered by individual-capitalization schemes. This shortfall in resources will obviously be more keenly felt in those countries with high levels of labour market informality and traditionally low wages.

Figure II.6



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

^a Greater Buenos Aires.

^b Eight main cities and El Alto.

^c National total.

^d Includes Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires), Bolivia (eight main cities and El Alto), Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador and Mexico.

^e Includes Argentina (total for urban areas), Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela (national total), Bolivia (total for urban areas), Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay (total for urban areas), Peru and Uruguay.

Level of wages is another indication of job quality. Wages can be affected by a job's level of productivity and the competitiveness of a particular sector within the economy, but also by other factors such as the non-wage burden of the job for the employer and the general reference wages such as the minimum and sectoral wage. Unfortunately, the information available does not distinguish the relative weight of those factors in current wage levels, trends and disparities.

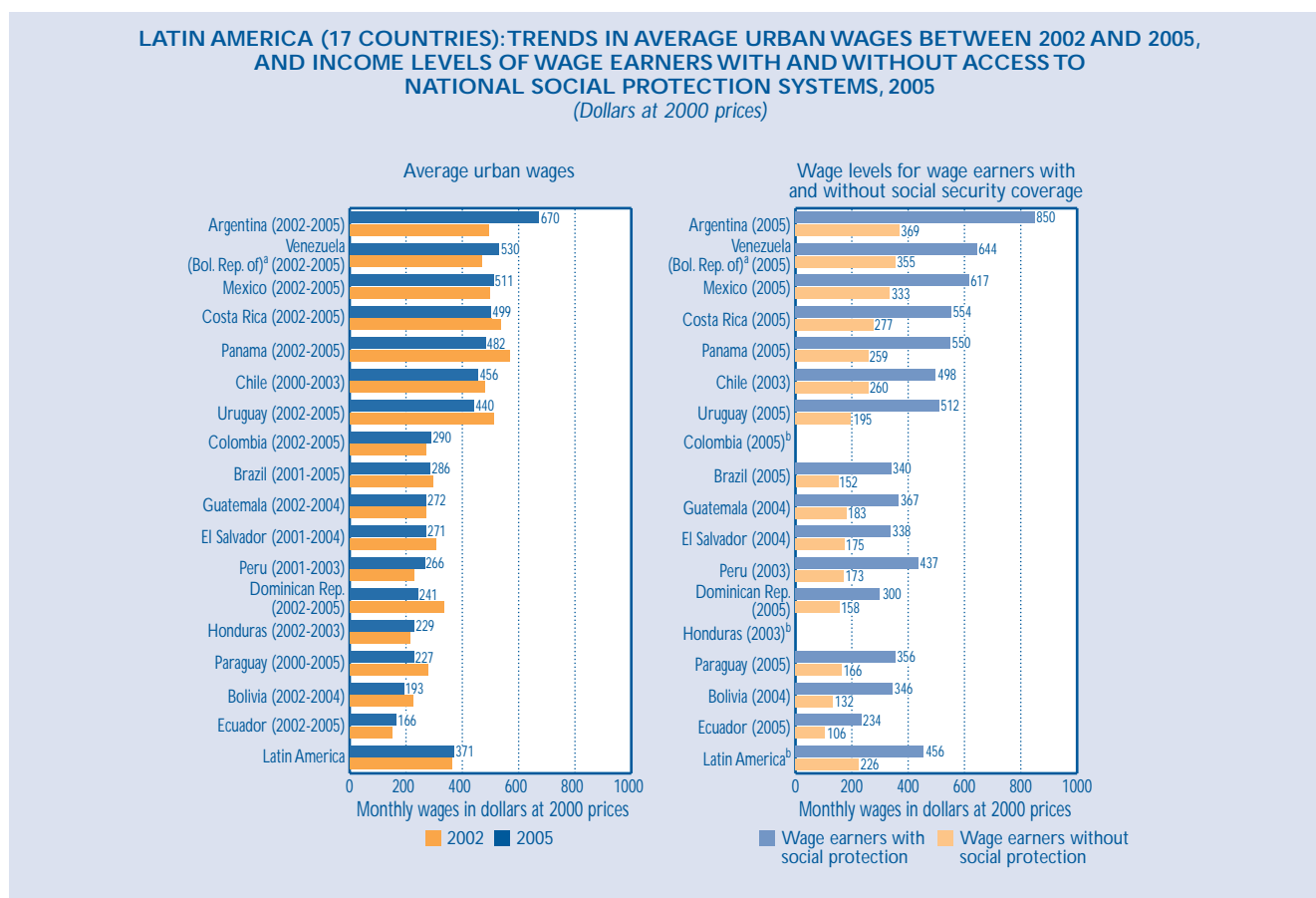
According to household surveys, average urban income showed a slight average annual increase of 0.35% in 1990–2005, although the average rate was 1.14% in 2003–2005. This brings the average urban income to 413 dollars per month in 2000 prices. Wages also increased by an average annual rate of 0.9% during the same period and thus failed to match the growth of per capita GDP in the region, which was somewhat over 2.5% per year.⁴ In 15 years, real wages have risen by only 10%, which is the equivalent of the increase in regional GDP during the last four years alone. In 2005, the average monthly wage in the region was 371 dollars, only 2.8% higher than in 2002. This average figure, however, fails to reflect the wide range of variations in different countries. For example, Argentina, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Ecuador and Peru experienced strong growth (10.8%, 4.1%, 3.5% and 7.8%, respectively), whereas in Bolivia, Brazil, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, and Uruguay, average real wages shrank. Figure II.7 shows recent trends in real urban wages and shows that Argentina, Mexico and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela have the highest average monthly salaries (above 500 dollars). In Bolivia, Ecuador,

Honduras, Paraguay and the Dominican Republic, on the other hand, average real urban wages are 250 dollars or less per month.

In the countries where wages rose, there tended to be widening disparities between workers having social security coverage, who are mostly in the urban formal sector (including the public sector), and those without such coverage, with greater wage increases for the former. Disparities also widened, albeit to a lesser extent, in countries that witnessed significant reductions in wage levels; this was mainly due to the larger drops recorded in the wages of urban workers without social security coverage, despite more active policies on minimum wages. In most cases, as can be seen in figure II.7, the wages of those with social security coverage were at least twice as high as the wages of workers lacking such coverage (on average 456 dollars per month compared with 226 dollars per month). Table II.8 shows other labour market segments with significant differences in wages: private-sector wages represent just under 60% of public-sector wages (296 dollars as opposed to 514 dollars); women's wages represent only 75% of men's wages (the disparity being relatively similar in the public and private sectors); and average wages in low-productivity sectors are around 216 dollars per month. As stated previously, less than 25% of wage workers in low-productivity sectors are affiliated to social insurance systems. Their average wage is 281 dollars per month, which means that their social security contributions would not finance a sufficient pension for their retirement. Added to this is the high level of informal hiring, which makes for considerable shortfalls that affect the cumulative returns of contributions within social insurance systems.

⁴ The rate of change does not differ significantly from that registered by the countries' earnings indexes, whose coverage is rather narrower, because they relate either to wages in a particular sector, such as manufacturing, or to the incomes of registered wage earners (usually those having contracts and social security coverage) and thus often exclude wages paid by small firms and microenterprises.

Figure II.7



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

^a Figures for the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela correspond to the national total.

^b The total for Latin America relating to the wages of workers with and without social security coverage excludes Colombia and Honduras, whose surveys do not provide information on membership in the social security system.

The quality of employment is determined by a broad range of interdependent elements, including the sufficiency and stability of wages, the stability of employment contracts, safety in the workplace (risk of accidents or work-related illness), access to health care and health insurance systems, and social security coverage and contributions. Although this boom period saw a strong rise in wage jobs, this did not result in significant changes in the quality of employment, as opposing trends were observed in the four dimensions that constitute employment quality: the percentage of wage workers with a formal contract was up slightly, while the proportion with permanent contracts went down; several countries recorded slight increases in the percentage of workers affiliated to social security systems, while

the figures were down in other countries; and wage increases were modest, with several countries recording decreases in the more recent period (Bolivia, Brazil, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Panama, Paraguay, the Dominican Republic and Uruguay). According to data from the more recent period, the trend towards more flexibility in contracting arrangements and in the compulsory nature of social and labour rights observed in the 1980s and especially the 1990s seems to have stabilized, which means that quality of many jobs has fallen and that this situation has not been reversed.

As demonstrated in the document presented by ECLAC at its thirty-first session held in Montevideo, Uruguay, in March 2006 (ECLAC, 2006c), the

current levels of coverage under contributory and employment-based social security systems and the low wages paid to workers who do not yet have such coverage do not provide a basis on which to move forward towards a sufficiently funded universal pension system capable of providing a basic minimum of benefits over the long term, particularly in the current context of population ageing in Latin

America. It is therefore very important for countries to adapt their social protection systems to prevailing conditions in the labour market by means of non-contributory inputs, integration of contributory and non-contributory funding, and a clear definition of the benefits to be provided by such systems, in order to make progress in the provision of social protection to workers and their families.

Box II.2

INSTRUMENTS FOR MONITORING EMPLOYMENT DYNAMICS AND COMPANY DEVELOPMENT

The processes of globalization and productive transformation that have been under way for a few decades have not only involved a far-reaching reorganization of production systems, employment structure and world labour markets, but have also set new and major challenges for employment research and policy-making. Recent changes in the direction taken by national economies, the sectoral distribution of employment and new segmentation patterns in the labour market, among other factors, have all raised questions that cannot easily be tackled from the traditional approach to employment based on the analysis of macroeconomic indicators and household surveys. While these methods do make it possible to obtain and compare employment data in certain places and times, they do not record the dynamic aspects of the labour market in terms of temporary changes in job creation and labour flows between companies.

Recognizing these difficulties, in a context of increasingly dynamic and unstable labour markets, one of the methodologies proposed in response to the new realities of productive systems and employment is the construction of longitudinal data series (panel studies), mainly aimed at analysing labour flows on the basis of company trends in job creation. More specifically, this methodology involves a series of analytical and empirical approaches that attempt to capture employment dynamics using establishments or firms as the basic unit of analysis. Within every branch of activity, sector, size and age of company, this method identifies those firms that create and destroy jobs and those that enter and exit the productive structure during a given period.

These studies based on the construction of longitudinal data series hark back to the work of David Birch (1979) on manufacturing employment dynamics in the United States over the period 1969–1976. Birch was one of a long line of important figures including Steven Davis, John Haltinwanger and Scott Schuch (1997), with their influential studies on employment flows and the survival of newly created jobs. There have been attempts to establish dynamic employment and company databases in countries such as the United States (the Longitudinal Business Database (LBD) of the Center for Economic Studies within the United States Census Bureau), Canada, Denmark, Germany, Portugal, Spain (under the Central Register of Enterprises) and Sweden.

The main issues that have been studied on the basis of longitudinal labour statistics are related to the gross flows underlying net employment flows, the relationship between job creation and company size, the role of small enterprises in job creation, the appearance of new firms and their performance in terms of employment, differing labour patterns of companies based on their area of activity and age, impact of the business cycle on different types of company and employment adjustment processes.

In Latin America, there has not been much take-up of these approaches in the main centres for employment policy-making and analysis. However, there is the Observatory of Employment and Business Dynamics, set up in Argentina by the Ministry of Labour, Employment and Social Security in 2003 to construct series of longitudinal data on registered private employment (based on contributions to the country's Comprehensive Retirement and Pension System) and company development throughout the country (Castillo and others, 2004). These data have been used to produce quarterly reports on employment dynamics including company turnover (rates of openness, closure, expansion and contraction of jobs), sectoral distribution (manufacturing, commerce and services) of private registered workers, the occupational distribution by size of company and the impact of business cycles on labour mobility.

INSTRUMENTS FOR MONITORING EMPLOYMENT DYNAMICS AND COMPANY DEVELOPMENT

In summary, the preparation of labour statistics based on series of longitudinal data is a highly interesting source of information for the analysis of labour market dynamics. Such longitudinal data series could be a valuable complement to household survey information that is currently used to capture the labour market situation of countries in the region.

Source: D. Birch, *The Job Generation Process*, Cambridge, MIT Press, 1979; S. Davis, J. Haltinwanger and S. Schuch, *Job Creation and Destruction*, Cambridge, MIT Press, 1997; Sofía Castillo and others, "Observatorio de empleo y dinámica empresarial en Argentina", *Desarrollo productivo series*, No. 148 (LC/L.2072-P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), 2004. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.04.II.G.15.

Table II.2

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): WORKING-AGE POPULATION, ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION AND EMPLOYED POPULATION, 1990–2005										
(Urban areas)										
Country	Year	Total population aged 15 and over	Participation rate	Total economically active population	Unemployment rate	Joblessness ^a		Total employed	Employment rate	Wage work
						Wage	Non-wage			
						(Thousands of people)	(Percentages)			
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	6 858.8	63.9	4 381.2	6.0	5.2	5.1	4 118.2	60.0	69.8
	2002	8 190.9	68.5	5 613.6	19.1	17.5	18.4	4 540.3	55.4	74.2
	2005	8 093.4	71.5	5 788.9	11.7	9.8	12.7	5 113.4	63.2	76.7
Argentina	2002	15 666.2	65.0	10 185.9	18.0	15.7	16.7	8 350.8	53.3	73.9
	2005	14 976.2	68.8	10 298.6	10.7	8.9	11.3	9 197.6	61.4	76.0
Bolivia (8 main cities and El Alto)	1989	1 467.5	60.9	893.9	9.4	9.0	2.8	809.9	55.2	55.0
	2002	2 460.7	67.8	1 667.2	6.8	8.5	2.2	1 553.6	63.1	50.4
	2004	2 820.4	69.6	1 963.1	6.4	1 836.6	65.1	53.2
Bolivia	2002	3 137.7	68.3	2 144.4	6.6	8.3	2.1	2 003.0	63.8	49.7
	2004	3 365.4	69.7	2 345.9	6.1	5.1	4.4	2 202.0	65.4	51.2
Brazil	1990	66 446.3	66.7	44 319.8	4.5	42 308.2	63.7	72.7
	2001	94 105.3	69.9	65 753.0	10.9	58 574.0	62.2	70.3
	2005	103 307.4	72.9	75 313.1	10.9	67 123.4	65.0	71.2
Chile	1990	7 035.5	56.2	3 957.2	8.7	3 613.5	51.4	75.7
	2000	8 527.2	61.5	5 245.2	11.0	4 670.6	54.8	76.9
	2003	9 097.4	62.8	5 715.3	10.2	5.5	20.5	5 131.8	56.4	76.8
Colombia	1991	11 935.5	65.4	7 808.7	9.4	8.8	1.3	7 075.4	59.3	67.2
	2002	18 601.5	71.5	13 301.7	17.6	20.5	6.1	10 966.5	59.0	55.1
	2005	20 936.5	70.3	14 721.9	13.6	16.1	4.5	12 723.3	60.8	55.9
Costa Rica	1990	763.8	61.1	466.9	5.4	5.5	1.9	441.9	57.9	75.9
	2002	1 559.2	65.2	1 016.3	6.8	7.0	2.1	946.7	60.7	72.3
	2005	1 702.7	67.1	1 142.4	6.9	6.6	2.4	1 063.5	62.5	74.8
Ecuador	1990	3 728.6	62.6	2 335.4	6.2	4.3	1.1	2 189.8	58.7	60.2
	2002	5 158.9	69.4	3 581.1	9.2	7.3	3.7	3 251.2	63.0	60.0
	2005	5 610.4	70.6	3 961.7	8.0	6.6	2.0	3 646.3	65.0	62.1
El Salvador	1995	1 812.3	65.4	1 185.5	7.0	7.7	2.2	1 102.5	60.8	63.1
	2001	2 323.8	65.5	1 522.4	7.1	7.3	3.5	1 414.5	60.9	65.0
	2004	2 484.7	65.6	1 630.7	6.6	7.2	1.9	1 523.6	61.3	63.4
Guatemala	1989	1 663.7	63.8	1 061.7	3.6	3.9	0.6	1 023.7	61.5	66.2
	2002	2 538.1	73.1	1 855.1	6.2	5.6	3.7	1 741.0	68.6	60.2
	2004	3 348.2	68.0	2 277.0	4.9	5.1	1.3	2 166.1	64.7	59.5

Table II.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): WORKING-AGE POPULATION, ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION AND EMPLOYED POPULATION, 1990–2005 (Urban areas)										
Country	Year	Total population aged 15 and over	Participation rate	Total economically active population	Unemployment rate	Joblessness ^a		Total employed	Employment rate	Wage work
		(Thousands of people)	(Percentages)	(Thousands of people)	(Percentages)	Wage	Non-wage	(Thousands of people)	(Percentage of working-age population)	(Percentage of total employed)
Honduras	1990	1 047.7	62.3	653.0	7.1	7.0	0.9	606.9	57.9	67.1
	2002	1 782.5	63.8	1 136.4	6.2	7.4	1.6	1 066.5	59.8	61.0
	2003	1 826.9	65.4	1 194.3	7.7	9.4	2.4	1 102.2	60.3	59.1
Mexico	1989	29 542.3	55.9	16 501.9	3.4	15 945.5	54.0	78.2
	2002	41 308.3	64.1	26 467.5	3.4	25 562.0	61.9	74.3
	2005	43 050.8	66.0	28 420.7	4.1	27 242.1	63.3	76.1
Nicaragua	1993	1 016.5	58.6	595.3	14.4	509.5	50.1	63.0
	2001	1 791.3	68.7	1 230.8	12.8	1 073.5	59.9	61.6
Panama	1991	972.8	62.2	604.9	19.0	13.9	8.5	490.2	50.4	74.4
	2002	1 230.5	68.3	840.6	16.6	15.8	8.1	701.1	57.0	75.4
	2005	1 334.7	68.6	915.4	12.2	12.2	4.4	803.2	60.2	74.4
Paraguay (Asunción and Central Department)	1990	710.7	69.3	492.3	6.4	6.0	2.0	460.5	64.8	69.2
	2000	1 094.2	71.6	783.0	11.7	11.5	5.5	691.4	63.2	67.0
	2005	1 262.3	73.6	929.3	8.2	8.4	2.8	852.9	67.6	65.9
Paraguay	2000	1 909.4	71.6	1 366.4	10.4	10.9	4.5	1 224.4	64.1	61.6
	2005	2 077.7	72.8	1 513.0	7.7	7.7	3.0	1 396.2	67.2	63.9
Peru	1997	10 142.4	74.8	7 586.6	10.3	6 805.5	67.1	55.0
	2001	11 223.1	67.3	7 551.8	7.3	9.2	3.2	7 002.4	62.4	54.6
	2003	11 829.2	67.6	7 997.6	7.4	8.6	3.2	7 407.7	62.6	53.0
Dominican Republic	1997	2 612.5	67.3	1 758.9	17.2	13.4	17.1	1 455.6	55.7	62.2
	2002	3 709.4	69.5	2 579.2	17.2	15.2	3.2	2 135.2	57.6	62.4
	2005	3 664.3	69.4	2 541.5	19.1	17.0	4.1	2 056.6	56.1	60.4
Uruguay	1990	1 732.8	67.7	1 173.1	9.2	7.8	3.9	1 065.8	61.5	75.4
	2002	1 657.3	72.9	1 207.4	17.2	11.3	22.4	999.6	60.3	71.5
	2005	1 680.3	72.7	1 220.9	12.4	8.1	16.3	1 069.3	63.6	73.0
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	9 802.8	59.5	5 828.5	10.4	10.9	5.3	5 220.3	53.3	72.5
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) (nationwide total)	1990	11 380.2	59.3	6 747.8	9.9	10.7	4.6	6 082.9	53.5	69.5
	2002	15 712.1	72.1	11 335.2	16.4	18.1	11.3	9 473.4	60.3	56.2
	2005	16 951.3	69.2	11 724.0	11.5	12.0	8.3	10 379.5	61.2	58.9
Latin America ^b	c. 1990	159 853.4	63.8	101 929.0	6.2	8.3	4.0	95 596.0	59.8	71.0
	c. 2002	221 182.8	68.5	151 456.8	10.7	15.6	8.1	135 290.1	61.2	67.5
	c. 2005	239 001.0	70.1	167 457.9	9.7	11.4	5.6	151 241.6	63.3	68.5

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

^a Based on the occupational category of the most recent job, excluding first-time job seekers.

^b Weighted average of countries. Does not include Nicaragua. Unemployment distribution does not include Brazil or Mexico, and joblessness does not include Brazil, Mexico, Bolivia, Chile or Peru.

Table II.3

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): DISTRIBUTION OF URBAN EMPLOYED PEOPLE AND WAGE EARNERS ^a IN LOW-, MEDIUM- AND HIGH-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS, ^b 1990–2005 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Total employed in:		Total wage workers in:		Wage workers		Women as a percentage of:			
		Medium- and high-productivity sectors	Low-productivity sectors	Medium- and high-productivity sectors	Low-productivity sectors	Public	Private	Total wage workers	Low-productivity workers	Public-sector workers	Private-sector workers
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	61.2	38.8	76.4	23.6	35.6	44.6
	2002	60.1	39.9	76.8	23.2	24.4	75.6	44.6	42.9	62.3	38.9
	2005	63.9	36.1	77.6	22.4	16.9	83.1	40.7	45.2	54.4	37.9
Argentina	2002	60.0	40.0	76.9	23.1	31.1	68.9	45.3	45.2	58.8	39.2
	2005	62.4	37.6	76.9	23.1	22.7	77.3	41.7	46.2	54.3	38.0
Bolivia (8 main cities and El Alto)	1989	42.9	57.1	68.4	31.6	34.2	65.8	34.9	44.5	35.3	34.7
	2002	39.8	60.2	65.5	34.5	21.5	78.5	37.6	46.3	44.6	35.6
	2004	36.3	63.7	58.1	41.9	17.7	82.3	36.6	39.3	50.5	33.6
Bolivia	2002	39.1	60.9	65.5	34.5	22.6	77.4	36.9	44.5	46.1	34.3
	2004	34.8	65.2	57.8	42.2	18.3	81.7	36.4	38.8	49.8	33.4
Brazil	1990	52.9	47.1	70.1	29.9	38.6	43.2
	2001	66.6	33.4	85.8	14.2	18.8	81.2	43.4	88.6	54.4	40.9
	2005	68.6	31.4	88.4	11.6	18.1	81.9	44.4	91.4	55.9	41.8
Chile	1990	63.3	36.7	79.3	20.7	37.2	59.7
	2000	70.4	29.6	82.9	17.1	17.6	82.4	39.7	65.7	45.3	38.6
	2003	70.6	29.4	83.3	16.7	15.6	84.4	39.9	64.7	48.8	38.2
Colombia ^c	1991	65.2	34.8	92.1	7.9	18.3	81.7	42.7	97.3	44.1	42.4
	2002	54.0	46.0	89.6	10.4	15.1	84.9	48.3	96.4	54.2	47.3
	2005	55.2	44.8	91.0	9.0	14.4	85.6	47.9	96.8	52.5	47.2
Costa Rica	1990	66.5	33.5	83.4	16.6	34.9	65.1	37.8	52.1	41.3	36.0
	2002	62.7	37.3	81.4	18.6	25.7	74.3	40.0	50.8	52.8	35.6
	2005	63.3	36.7	80.0	20.0	24.6	75.4	39.9	49.7	51.6	36.0
Ecuador	1990	50.5	49.5	74.4	25.6	30.7	69.3	34.5	41.4	36.5	33.7
	2002	48.0	52.0	70.5	29.5	20.4	79.6	36.8	43.0	44.2	34.9
	2005	47.2	52.8	68.7	31.3	17.5	82.5	38.0	41.4	44.2	36.6
El Salvador	1995	53.8	46.2	78.1	21.9	21.1	78.9	40.3	47.9	43.1	39.5
	2001	51.4	48.6	73.3	26.7	19.4	80.6	41.5	43.5	48.4	39.9
	2004	50.3	49.7	73.0	27.0	18.0	82.0	41.6	45.3	46.2	40.6
Guatemala	1989	50.9	49.1	69.1	30.9	23.1	76.9	35.6	46.6	35.5	35.6
	2002	51.0	49.0	73.3	26.7	12.6	87.4	39.0	43.3	43.7	38.3
	2004	46.8	53.2	70.4	29.6	11.2	88.8	35.8	38.0	50.1	33.9
Honduras	1990	51.0	49.0	71.6	28.4	23.0	77.0	36.5	44.8	44.8	34.0
	2002	48.9	51.1	72.6	27.4	17.0	83.0	42.9	41.2	56.4	40.1
	2003	45.5	54.5	71.0	29.0	17.2	82.8	42.6	40.4	57.0	39.7
Mexico	1989	79.9	20.1	31.7	84.7
	2002	58.0	42.0	72.3	27.7	18.4	81.6	37.4	39.3	44.8	35.8
	2005	62.2	37.8	75.6	24.4	38.1	41.4
Nicaragua	1993	55.8	44.2	72.7	27.3	35.8	64.2	40.0	44.6	49.6	34.7
	2001	47.0	53.0	66.5	33.5	21.4	78.6	39.3	38.7	55.8	34.8
Panama	1991	65.8	34.2	84.9	15.1	37.4	62.6	43.4	67.8	45.4	42.3
	2002	63.6	36.4	82.0	18.0	28.6	71.4	43.6	57.1	48.8	41.6
	2005	64.4	35.6	83.5	16.5	26.0	74.0	43.7	60.2	51.7	40.9
Paraguay (Asunción and Central Department)	1990	47.2	52.8	62.5	37.5	17.7	82.3	40.5	54.1	39.5	40.8
	2000	49.8	50.2	67.3	32.7	18.5	81.5	44.7	58.9	51.6	43.1
	2005	47.9	52.1	63.2	36.8	21.9	78.1	44.8	53.4	46.0	44.4
Paraguay	2000	42.9	57.1	62.0	38.0	19.4	80.6	42.8	52.2	51.0	40.8
	2005	42.7	57.3	58.8	41.2	21.1	78.9	43.6	50.6	48.6	42.3

Table II.3 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): DISTRIBUTION OF URBAN EMPLOYED PEOPLE AND WAGE EARNERS ^a IN LOW-, MEDIUM- AND HIGH-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS, ^b 1990–2005 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Total employed in:		Total wage workers in:		Wage workers		Women as a percentage of:			
		Medium- and high-productivity sectors	Low-productivity sectors	Medium- and high-productivity sectors	Low-productivity sectors	Public	Private	Total wage workers	Low-productivity workers	Public-sector workers	Private-sector workers
Peru	1997	44.6	55.4	72.4	27.6	22.2	77.8	39.1	43.6	43.8	37.8
	2001	41.7	58.3	67.4	32.6	21.4	78.6	39.4	47.2	45.1	37.9
	2003	20.2	79.8	40.0	...	45.1	38.7
Dominican Republic	1997	52.7	47.3	80.7	19.3	19.2	80.8	40.8	52.8	38.8	41.3
	2002	55.6	44.4	83.6	16.4	22.3	77.7	44.8	58.8	45.9	44.5
	2005	53.9	46.1	82.0	18.0	22.3	77.7	43.6	56.8	49.2	42.0
Uruguay	1990	63.5	36.5	79.9	20.1	30.7	69.3	41.8	64.0	38.1	43.4
	2002	56.4	43.6	73.7	26.3	25.8	74.2	44.6	58.5	44.7	44.6
	2005	57.4	42.6	73.7	26.3	24.0	76.0	45.8	57.5	49.1	44.7
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	62.9	37.1	80.9	19.1	30.2	69.8	37.9	50.8	47.9	33.5
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) (nationwide total)	1990	59.8	40.2	79.4	20.6	28.8	71.2	35.9	46.1	47.7	31.2
	2002	46.4	53.6	76.3	23.7	25.9	74.1	38.7	36.9	56.1	32.6
	2005	50.8	49.2	79.5	20.5	27.4	72.6	38.9	34.4	56.8	32.2
Latin America ^c	1990	58.9	41.1	78.2	21.8	24.3	75.7	37.3	47.3	43.1	37.6
	2002	59.6	40.4	80.5	19.5	20.6	79.4	41.7	60.3	50.7	39.8
	2005	62.6	37.4	83.4	16.6	20.0	80.0	42.2	62.2	51.5	39.6
Latin America ^c	2002	59.4	40.6	80.3	19.7	20.3	79.7	41.8	59.7	53.3	40.3
	2005	62.4	37.6	83.1	16.9	18.9	81.1	42.2	61.4	54.1	40.7

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

^a Urban employed people aged 15 to 64 who declared work income (does not include unpaid workers).

^b Medium- and high-productivity sector refers to public wage workers, employees and private-sector wage workers in companies with more than five workers and wage or own-account professional and technical workers. The low-productivity sector includes employers and wage workers in microenterprises, domestic service and self-employed workers with no professional or technical qualifications.

^c Weighted average of countries that have information for all periods in question, except Colombia, as its survey makes no distinction concerning size of company.

Table II.4

LATIN AMERICA (11 COUNTRIES): PERCENTAGE OF WAGE EARNERS ^a WITH A FORMAL CONTRACT ^b 1990–2005 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Total wage workers		Wage workers in medium- and high- productivity sectors		Wage workers in low- productivity sectors		Male wage workers		Female wage workers	
		Wage workers with a formal contract		Wage workers with a formal contract		Wage workers with a formal contract		Wage workers with a formal contract		Wage workers with a formal contract	
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	2002	87.3	(97.0)	88.5	(97.0)	83.3	(97.0)	89.0	(98.2)	85.2	(95.4)
	2005	86.8	...	92.8	...	65.9	...	92.5	...	78.4	...
Argentina	2002	85.4	(94.1)	86.8	(93.7)	80.5	(95.7)	87.1	(95.7)	83.3	(92.0)
	2005	84.6	...	91.0	...	63.6	...	90.9	...	75.9	...
Bolivia (8 main cities and El Alto)	2002	40.5	(48.3)	57.4	(50.6)	8.6	(20.3)	40.1	(46.7)	41.1	(51.0)
	2004	35.1	(46.5)	56.6	(48.6)	5.1	(13.5)	33.3	(43.4)	38.1	(51.2)
Bolivia	2002	39.6	(49.2)	56.3	(51.5)	8.0	(18.9)	38.5	(46.5)	41.5	(53.4)
	2004	34.1	(48.2)	55.5	(50.5)	5.0	(13.9)	32.2	(44.7)	37.6	(53.5)
Brazil	1990	66.3	...	91.7	...	6.5	...	69.6	...	61.0	...
	2001	55.0	...	58.2	...	35.3	...	58.9	...	49.8	...
	2005	57.2	...	60.5	...	32.2	...	61.5	...	51.7	...
Chile	1990	84.5	...	88.0	...	71.1	...	85.3	...	83.3	...
	2000	79.8	(84.8)	85.0	(84.2)	54.5	(89.5)	80.8	(83.5)	78.3	(86.9)
	2003	78.7	(81.8)	84.3	(80.6)	50.6	(91.5)	79.6	(80.2)	77.4	(84.3)
Ecuador	2002	52.9	(47.3)	67.6	(46.3)	17.8	(57.2)	51.2	(49.2)	55.9	(44.5)
	2005	50.0	(53.5)	65.5	(52.1)	15.9	(66.0)	47.8	(53.9)	53.6	(52.9)
El Salvador	2001	31.3	...	41.9	...	2.3	...	30.3	...	32.6	...
	2004	26.1	...	35.3	...	1.3	...	26.5	...	25.5	...
Guatemala	1989
	2002	42.5	(85.8)	54.9	(85.8)	8.5	(86.5)	40.2	(87.1)	46.2	(84.2)
	2004	41.1	(86.3)	54.5	(86.4)	9.3	(84.2)	38.3	(87.5)	46.2	(84.5)
Mexico	1989	68.5	(81.1)	70.2	(81.0)	23.0	(94.0)	67.1	(79.8)	71.5	(83.8)
	2002	63.9	(80.3)	80.7	(81.2)	20.1	(70.0)	62.4	(80.6)	66.5	(79.8)
	2005	64.2	(74.6)	77.2	(76.2)	24.0	(58.1)	63.1	(73.3)	65.9	(76.6)
Panama	2002	85.1	(81.6)	94.6	(82.2)	41.5	(74.7)	87.2	(80.3)	82.3	(83.4)
	2005	84.4	(77.5)	94.0	(77.5)	36.0	(77.5)	86.2	(75.1)	82.0	(80.6)
Paraguay (Asunción)	2005	50.5	(61.5)	74.6	(63.0)	9.1	(41.1)	51.4	(61.4)	49.4	(61.7)
Paraguay	2005	45.4	(60.8)	71.2	(63.3)	8.5	(31.6)	45.9	(58.7)	44.6	(63.6)
Dominican Republic	2002	41.8	...	48.5	...	7.9	...	43.3	...	40.0	...
	2005	37.2	(84.2)	44.3	(84.3)	4.8	(81.3)	37.7	(84.3)	36.6	(84.1)
Latin America ^c	1990	46.7	...	57.6	...	7.6	...	48.5	...	43.8	...
	2002	41.7	...	47.0	...	19.6	...	43.5	...	39.2	...
	2005	42.6	...	47.2	...	19.6	...	44.4	...	40.2	...
Latin America ^c	2002	48.7	(33.8)	54.4	(29.9)	25.5	(24.1)	50.3	(29.7)	46.4	(40.1)
	2005	49.3	(27.0)	54.2	(26.6)	24.9	(25.2)	51.5	(26.2)	46.3	(28.3)

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

^a Urban employed people aged 15 to 64 who declared work income (does not include unpaid workers).

^b The figure between brackets is the percentage of wage workers whose formal contract is permanent.

^c Weighted average of countries that have information for all periods in question, except Colombia, as its survey makes no distinction concerning size of company.

Table II.5

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): EMPLOYED PEOPLE ^a WHO CONTRIBUTE TO SOCIAL SECURITY SYSTEMS (Percentages)										
Country	Year	Total employed			Sector of activity					
		Both sexes	Sex		Medium- and high-productivity			Low-productivity		
			Men	Women	Both sexes	Sex		Both sexes	Sex	
					Both sexes	Men	Women	Both sexes	Men	Women
Bolivia (8 main cities and El Alto)	1989	29.6	29.8	29.3	55.4	51.6	64.3	10.1	6.8	13.4
	2002	22.6	22.1	23.2	43.0	40.0	49.3	9.1	5.2	12.6
	2004	20.3	18.6	22.5	43.6	38.5	53.6	7.0	3.9	10.3
Bolivia	2002	22.0	21.0	23.4	42.4	38.1	51.5	8.9	5.9	11.9
	2004	20.4	19.0	22.3	43.2	38.1	53.2	8.2	5.8	10.8
Brazil	1990	65.0	67.8	60.3	95.7	96.5	94.1	30.6	34.4	24.5
	2001	56.6	56.6	56.5	72.4	69.1	78.3	24.9	24.0	25.8
	2005	58.2	58.7	57.6	74.4	71.8	78.8	22.9	22.2	23.5
Chile	1990	70.4	72.3	66.9	86.2	86.7	85.0	43.0	42.1	44.2
	2000	68.7	70.3	66.2	82.1	82.7	81.0	37.0	33.5	40.8
	2003	68.1	70.1	64.9	81.9	83.6	78.8	35.0	31.2	39.4
Costa Rica	1990	74.8	76.7	71.2	89.0	88.8	89.5	46.5	51.2	38.8
	2002	69.1	72.0	64.5	87.4	86.5	89.1	38.2	44.2	30.6
	2005	68.3	71.7	63.0	86.7	86.1	87.8	36.5	43.2	28.1
Ecuador	1990	39.6	39.4	40.0	67.2	65.0	72.1	11.4	11.0	12.2
	2002	33.4	33.0	34.2	57.0	53.4	64.5	11.7	11.5	12.0
	2005	33.5	32.7	34.7	57.9	54.3	64.7	11.6	10.9	12.5
El Salvador	1995	38.3	41.3	34.6	68.4	65.0	74.4	3.3	3.7	2.8
	2001	42.5	44.8	40.0	77.8	72.2	86.5	5.3	6.3	4.4
	2004	40.1	43.9	35.8	75.7	71.7	81.7	4.1	5.7	2.8
Guatemala	2002	33.9	35.0	32.5	63.0	58.4	71.6	3.6	3.9	3.4
	2004	30.0	32.0	26.9	60.7	57.6	67.0	2.9	4.3	1.4
Mexico	1989	58.2	54.6	65.9	64.1	60.6	72.3	34.8	26.3	47.1
Nicaragua	1993	38.2	38.7	37.6	59.1	57.5	61.6	11.8	11.3	12.4
	2001	27.0	26.0	28.4	53.6	47.3	64.6	3.4	3.6	3.1
Panama	2002	67.0	63.9	71.7	88.0	85.3	92.3	30.3	25.8	36.9
	2005	58.5	57.4	60.1	82.8	80.2	86.8	14.5	13.4	16.0
Paraguay	2000	21.1	21.6	20.5	46.6	41.4	55.7	1.9	2.7	1.1
	2005	21.3	21.1	21.6	46.8	42.2	54.3	2.4	2.5	2.2
Peru	2001	20.1	22.6	16.7	43.4	42.1	46.0	3.4	4.6	2.1
	2003	21.8	25.3	17.2
Uruguay	2002	64.6	64.1	65.2	87.9	86.4	90.2	34.4	32.1	37.1
	2005	62.7	62.7	62.7	85.4	83.8	87.7	32.0	30.4	33.7
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) (nationwide total)	2002	61.5	58.0	67.1	75.2	72.3	79.7	19.2	15.0	26.3
	2005	60.5	57.7	64.6	72.3	70.6	74.7	15.3	12.8	19.9
Latin America ^b	1990	63.3	65.9	58.9	92.6	92.9	91.9	29.6	32.9	24.4
	2002	55.5	55.7	55.1	72.5	69.4	78.0	23.8	22.8	24.8
	2005	56.7	57.3	55.9	74.2	71.8	78.3	21.8	21.0	22.6
Latin America ^b	2002	51.5	51.5	51.3	69.5	66.6	74.6	19.5	18.1	21.1
	2005	52.6	53.0	52.1	69.9	67.6	74.0	18.2	17.2	19.2

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

^a Urban employed people aged 15 to 64 who declared work income (does not include unpaid workers).

^b Weighted average of countries that have information for all periods in question.

Table II.6

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): WAGE EARNERS ^a WHO CONTRIBUTE TO SOCIAL SECURITY SYSTEMS (Percentages)																
Country	Year	Total wage workers			Sector of activity						Public-sector wage workers			Private-sector wage workers		
					Medium- and high-productivity			Low-productivity								
		Both sexes	Sex		Both sexes	Sex		Both sexes	Sex		Both sexes	Sex		Both sexes	Sex	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Women	
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	95.3	97.1	92.0
	2002	61.7	62.1	61.1	71.5	72.3	70.5	27.6	29.1	25.6	64.9	68.7	62.5	60.5	60.7	60.5
	2005	64.7	65.4	63.6	76.0	75.2	77.2	25.4	27.8	22.5	82.6	86.7	79.2	61.0	62.2	61.0
Argentina	2002	60.1	61.8	58.1	70.3	72.2	68.0	25.0	26.9	22.7	67.2	73.4	62.8	56.8	58.2	56.8
	2005	62.5	63.6	61.1	74.4	74.2	74.7	23.0	24.4	21.4	81.1	86.1	76.9	57.0	58.7	57.0
Bolivia (8 main cities and El Alto)	1989	43.7	43.4	44.4	59.4	56.1	67.0	9.7	8.8	10.8	79.8	79.1	81.1	25.0	25.0	25.0
	2002	31.6	31.4	31.9	45.2	42.8	49.8	5.9	4.3	7.8	70.6	69.6	72.0	20.9	22.3	20.9
	2004	29.0	26.0	34.2	46.5	41.7	55.6	4.6	2.5	7.8	76.1	74.1	78.1	18.9	18.2	18.9
Bolivia	2002	31.2	30.0	33.2	44.6	41.2	51.7	5.7	4.4	7.2	70.7	69.2	72.6	19.6	20.6	19.6
	2004	28.3	25.2	33.8	45.8	40.9	55.0	4.5	2.4	7.8	75.8	73.6	78.0	17.7	17.1	17.7
Brazil	1990	74.3	75.5	72.5	96.9	97.5	95.9	21.3	17.8	25.8
	2001	69.2	70.0	68.1	74.3	70.4	81.3	38.0	54.7	35.8	88.2	84.7	91.1	64.7	67.3	64.7
	2005	71.5	72.5	70.1	76.2	73.0	81.5	35.3	47.8	34.1	89.3	85.9	92.0	67.5	70.3	67.5
Chile	1990	82.9	85.8	78.0	88.8	89.1	88.0	60.4	64.0	57.9
	2000	82.5	84.5	79.5	87.6	87.3	88.3	57.7	59.1	57.0	93.6	93.0	94.4	80.1	82.9	80.1
	2003	82.9	85.3	79.2	88.5	88.7	88.2	54.5	53.5	55.1	93.6	94.5	92.7	80.6	83.6	80.6
Costa Rica	1990	85.1	86.1	83.4	91.4	91.2	91.9	53.0	51.0	54.8	96.9	98.3	94.9	78.7	80.1	78.7
	2002	82.4	82.4	82.2	91.0	89.9	92.9	44.6	41.4	47.8	98.4	98.9	97.9	76.8	78.3	76.8
	2005	80.4	80.9	79.6	90.4	89.4	92.0	40.4	38.8	42.0	98.4	99.2	97.6	74.5	76.4	74.5
Ecuador	1990	56.6	55.9	58.1	70.3	68.1	74.9	16.9	14.6	20.2	92.0	92.5	91.0	41.0	40.3	41.0
	2002	45.7	43.7	49.2	59.9	55.9	67.5	11.9	10.1	14.3	88.5	88.3	88.6	34.8	33.9	34.8
	2005	46.4	43.5	51.1	60.8	56.7	68.0	14.8	12.0	18.6	93.7	94.8	92.3	36.4	33.9	36.4
El Salvador	1995	57.5	56.9	58.4	71.8	69.1	76.2	6.3	5.1	7.6	77.9	81.2	73.6	52.0	50.7	52.0
	2001	60.9	57.5	65.6	80.3	75.0	87.9	7.8	7.4	8.3	93.4	91.1	95.8	53.1	50.6	53.1
	2004	58.9	57.3	61.2	78.2	74.3	83.9	6.8	6.8	6.7	93.9	91.8	96.2	51.3	50.5	51.3
Guatemala	2002	52.2	49.7	56.2	67.8	63.0	75.8	9.3	9.2	9.5	75.4	69.5	82.9	48.9	47.1	48.9
	2004	48.7	47.4	51.1	66.0	62.6	72.4	7.6	9.4	4.7	81.5	82.1	81.0	44.6	44.1	44.6
Mexico	1989	64.0	61.8	68.8	65.0	61.8	72.5	37.8	57.8	34.2
	2002	66.4	65.2	68.3	81.9	80.3	84.6	24.9	24.0	26.4	94.3	95.6	92.7	59.7	59.3	59.7
	2005	62.5	61.3	64.5	76.2	74.0	80.1	20.1	19.1	21.5
Nicaragua	1993	53.2	50.5	57.3	68.2	63.1	76.3	13.4	13.0	13.9	82.6	79.4	85.9	36.8	38.0	36.8
	2001	41.0	36.1	48.5	58.4	51.2	69.4	6.4	6.6	6.1	77.3	73.2	80.5	31.1	29.2	31.1
Panama	2002	81.0	81.4	80.4	90.5	88.1	94.0	37.4	38.9	36.2	97.5	97.2	97.9	74.4	75.9	74.4
	2005	76.3	77.0	75.5	86.3	84.1	89.7	25.9	23.7	27.4	98.1	98.4	97.7	68.7	70.8	68.7
Paraguay	2000	33.4	33.6	33.3	51.5	46.5	60.0	4.0	5.8	2.3	79.9	79.3	80.4	22.3	24.5	22.3
	2005	32.3	32.2	32.6	52.1	47.8	58.9	4.1	4.5	3.7	82.6	83.0	82.3	18.9	20.0	18.9
Peru	2001	33.1	34.0	31.7	47.5	46.2	49.8	3.4	3.4	3.3	66.6	64.9	68.7	24.0	26.6	24.0
	2003	35.2	37.6	31.7	70.5	69.9	71.3	26.3	30.3	26.3
Dominican Republic	2002	48.4	48.1	48.9	52.8	52.5	53.1	13.5	12.6	14.8	54.4	58.6	49.5	38.2	39.0	38.2
	2005	58.7	59.2	58.1	70.0	67.0	74.3	7.2	10.0	5.2	84.2	83.5	85.0	51.3	53.0	51.3
Uruguay	2002	80.0	81.2	78.6	91.0	89.1	93.8	49.3	48.7	49.7	99.1	99.0	99.2	73.4	75.0	73.4
	2005	77.3	78.0	76.5	88.9	87.0	91.6	44.9	43.3	46.1	98.4	98.3	98.6	70.7	72.1	70.7
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) (nationwide total)	2002	63.0	59.2	69.1	76.2	73.1	80.9	20.4	15.8	28.4	88.8	90.1	87.7	54.0	52.1	54.0
	2005	61.7	58.5	66.7	73.4	71.3	76.6	15.8	13.1	20.9	85.0	87.6	83.1	52.7	51.3	52.7
Latin America ^b	1990	72.4	72.6	72.2	85.9	84.5	88.5	26.7	23.4	30.6	88.0	88.9	86.4	45.9	45.2	46.3
	2002	67.8	67.9	67.7	76.3	73.3	81.5	31.2	28.3	32.9	88.3	87.4	89.4	42.9	42.2	43.2
	2005	68.2	68.3	68.1	76.3	73.6	80.9	27.6	22.8	30.3	91.7	91.8	91.7	41.9	40.5	42.4
Latin America ^b	2002	65.2	65.1	65.4	74.6	71.9	79.3	27.5	23.9	30.1	84.1	82.8	85.2	59.7	61.3	60.0
	2005	65.7	65.6	65.9	74.3	71.7	78.7	24.9	20.6	27.7	87.4	86.0	88.5	61.5	63.3	62.0

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

^a Urban wage workers aged 15 to 64 who declared work income (does not include unpaid workers).

^b Weighted average of countries that have information for all periods in question.

Table II.7

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): INCOME AND WAGES OF DIFFERENT CATEGORIES OF THE URBAN EMPLOYED ^a (2000 dollars)												
Country	Year	Total wage workers			Sector of activity						Employed people who	
		Both sexes	Sex		Medium- and high-productivity			Low-productivity				
			Men	Women	Both sexes	Men	Women	Both sexes	Men	Women	Contribute	Do not
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	591	661	472	655	701	568	490	591	342
	2002	702	847	502	774	950	552	594	706	416
	2005	881	1012	702	932	1024	803	792	989	530
Argentina	2002	619	744	449	669	811	493	545	653	372
	2005	816	946	638	858	957	721	747	928	503
Bolivia (8 main cities and El Alto)	1989	260	313	185	300	338	212	230	287	173	284	250
	2002	203	249	144	297	330	228	140	173	110	336	164
	2004	179	212	136	276	297	235	123	148	97	323	142
Bolivia	2002	191	230	140	274	301	218	137	167	108	311	157
	2004	173	205	131	265	285	227	124	151	95	309	138
Brazil	1990	317	381	212	338	377	270	294	386	150	393	176
	2001	326	378	252	367	394	319	246	339	156	417	208
	2005	310	359	243	351	378	307	220	304	141	396	189
Chile	1990	364	421	258	398	441	303	304	381	203	385	312
	2000	574	679	406	642	723	491	411	550	260	634	441
	2003	557	647	416	610	676	490	431	562	280	612	442
Colombia	1991	235	268	184	241	256	214	225	294	137
	2002	230	255	198	285	290	277	166	211	115
	2005	251	280	214	300	306	292	191	246	128
Costa Rica	1990	406	452	322	467	498	404	287	354	177	449	280
	2002	504	559	418	609	644	548	326	396	237	583	326
	2005	454	507	373	559	586	512	274	351	177	540	271
Ecuador	1990	136	154	102	169	184	135	102	120	73	178	108
	2002	162	184	123	198	217	161	127	150	96	233	126
	2005	166	184	138	212	223	192	125	146	97	249	125
El Salvador	1995	258	308	196	314	340	270	192	257	136	337	209
	2001	298	339	251	373	390	347	218	266	178	405	218
	2004	266	299	230	313	320	301	219	270	178	346	213
Guatemala	1989	274	311	214	322	337	289	226	278	158
	2002	301	370	207	372	424	276	228	298	156	347	278
	2004	312	365	235	354	382	298	276	346	194	382	283
Honduras	1990	244	292	172	341	360	300	144	199	85
	2002	194	217	164	263	281	237	129	154	96
	2003	192	208	172	283	290	273	117	136	93
Mexico	1989	533	622	344	476	532	345	759	1044	342	500	580
	2002	587	683	426	639	706	520	514	650	307
	2005	621	748	427	703	812	510	488	626	315
Nicaragua	1993	205	228	175	229	252	193	175	192	156	231	189
	2001	196	226	154	260	292	204	140	157	119	281	165
Panama	1991	404	430	361	502	526	465	215	253	146
	2002	517	569	438	633	675	569	314	381	216	589	369
	2005	433	473	376	546	570	509	229	285	155	556	260
Paraguay (Asunción and Central Department)	1990	301	368	204	325	362	247	279	376	179
	2000	310	358	255	400	406	389	221	291	166	450	261
	2005	262	319	191	368	421	284	165	203	126	365	229
Paraguay	2000	287	333	228	400	420	367	202	251	152	446	245
	2005	235	282	175	340	382	271	158	194	118	361	201

Table II.7 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): INCOME AND WAGES OF DIFFERENT CATEGORIES OF THE URBAN EMPLOYED ^a (2000 dollars)												
Country	Year	Total wage workers			Sector of activity						Employed people who	
					Medium- and high-productivity			Low-productivity				
		Both sexes	Sex		Both sexes	Sex		Both sexes	Sex		Contribute	Do not
Men	Women		Men	Women		Men	Women					
Peru	1997	227	273	164	302	334	242	166	211	120
	2001	205	239	160	279	306	226	153	178	127	366	165
	2003	226	275	161	438	167
Dominican Republic	1997	406	448	333	430	451	396	378	444	258
	2002	404	462	314	439	494	360	360	424	250
	2005	394	455	291	345	374	303	450	542	276
Uruguay	1990	552	700	330	536	611	404	580	884	230
	2002	490	552	406	638	694	554	300	350	240	633	230
	2005	424	481	351	550	596	484	254	306	197	560	195
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	884	998	661	896	981	730	864	1027	543
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) (nationwide total)	1990	844	934	646	867	936	721	809	932	526
	2002	556	608	470	596	615	565	520	602	385	572	291
	2005	632	690	537	648	675	607	614	704	459	646	346
Latin America ^b	1990	384	456	261	424	472	331	358	470	192	386	183
	2002	397	463	300	461	501	391	338	443	213	432	213
	2005	405	475	307	467	514	390	337	447	216	410	196
Latin America ^b	2002	399	465	301	462	504	391	340	445	214	438	210
	2005	413	484	313	475	523	397	346	458	222	424	197

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

^a Urban employed people aged 15 to 64 who declared work income (does not include unpaid workers).

^b Weighted average of countries that have information for all periods in question. The figures according to low- and high-productivity sectors do not include Colombia, as its survey makes no distinction concerning size of company.

**LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): WAGES OF DIFFERENT CATEGORIES OF
URBAN WAGE EARNERS^a**
(2000 dollars)

Country	Year	Total wage workers			Sector of activity						Wage workers who		Sector of activity				Public-sector wage workers			Private-sector wage workers		
					Medium- and high-productivity			Low-productivity					Formal wage workers who		Informal wage workers who							
		Both sexes	Sex		Both sexes	Sex		Both sexes	Sex		Contribute	Do not	Contribute	Do not	Contribute	Do not	Both sexes	Sex		Both sexes	Sex	
			Men	Women		Men	Women		Men	Women								Men	Women		Men	Women
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	571	614	494	625	658	558	396	439	343	577	446	629	526	400	359
	2002	557	627	469	627	718	515	326	339	310	693	341	720	394	450	269	525	619	469	567	629	470
	2005	726	802	616	801	868	697	467	546	371	894	419	917	432	652	404	862	993	752	698	773	576
Argentina	2002	493	557	415	552	629	458	298	318	273	629	289	650	319	424	248	488	575	426	495	552	408
	2005	670	744	566	746	815	644	416	483	338	850	369	871	382	621	355	768	882	672	641	714	521
Bolivia (8 main cities and El Alto)	1989	221	255	158	259	287	193	140	167	105	267	185	272	239	210	132	245	284	173	209	240	150
	2002	241	273	188	298	327	239	133	146	119	383	175	399	214	150	132	316	361	260	220	252	163
	2004	200	218	170	272	288	241	102	113	83	357	136	373	183	131	100	285	330	242	182	200	147
Bolivia	2002	224	250	180	276	299	228	127	139	112	356	164	371	199	143	126	294	334	246	204	230	154
	2004	193	210	163	260	276	230	100	112	81	346	132	361	175	135	99	278	322	235	173	191	139
Brazil	1990	275	317	208	327	364	264	153	195	98	325	129	330	240	279	119
	2001	295	333	244	321	335	294	136	252	122	354	162	368	184	185	107	471	565	393	254	292	199
	2005	286	322	242	307	323	282	126	256	114	340	152	350	171	172	101	468	565	391	246	281	198
Chile	1990	304	346	233	342	369	284	157	196	131	331	174	359	219	178	125
	2000	480	540	387	534	573	459	217	242	204	525	266	562	333	251	171	598	678	501	454	514	359
	2003	456	505	382	505	534	450	213	235	201	498	260	529	327	246	175	616	699	529	426	475	348
Colombia	1991	223	247	191	234	247	212	99	120	98	310	335	277	204	228	171
	2002	269	285	252	285	286	284	132	168	131	464	494	438	235	253	214
	2005	290	308	271	305	309	299	147	201	145	480	519	445	258	276	238
Costa Rica	1990	424	467	354	466	496	410	217	272	166	455	250	480	314	238	192	562	605	501	351	399	264
	2002	536	582	467	599	632	543	262	304	221	586	304	618	412	305	227	721	788	660	472	530	368
	2005	499	539	440	563	588	521	243	292	194	554	277	584	366	280	219	717	795	643	428	475	344
Ecuador	1990	145	164	111	166	181	136	85	107	53	178	103	186	120	83	85	182	201	149	129	148	92
	2002	149	161	128	174	185	154	89	96	80	203	104	209	122	131	83	197	220	168	137	148	116
	2005	166	174	151	197	204	184	97	103	87	234	106	244	123	142	89	254	271	231	147	156	131
El Salvador	1995	255	279	219	291	307	266	124	160	86	316	172	319	219	182	121	364	375	349	225	254	181
	2001	305	317	288	359	369	345	157	169	141	392	170	397	205	248	149	453	453	452	270	289	240
	2004	271	283	254	311	317	302	161	180	139	338	175	342	202	217	157	437	421	455	234	255	204
Guatemala	1989	228	242	202	276	281	267	119	129	107	350	345	359	191	211	155
	2002	272	301	228	324	355	272	130	136	122	334	204	339	292	241	119	423	465	368	251	279	204
	2004	272	290	239	322	341	288	153	164	134	367	183	369	232	315	139	400	429	371	256	277	215
Honduras	1990	256	276	222	314	320	300	110	139	75	400	417	380	213	241	160
	2002	214	228	194	257	274	236	97	112	77	338	382	303	188	205	163
	2003	229	231	225	277	281	272	111	116	103	372	399	351	199	206	188
Mexico	1989	409	448	325	417	449	342	184	307	162	449	337	455	348	198	176
	2002	497	546	415	582	632	496	275	313	217	600	299	624	391	389	239	731	792	655	444	499	347
	2005	511	562	428	582	632	498	290	328	236	617	333	636	411	400	262
Nicaragua	1993	179	196	153	200	219	170	122	129	114	221	131	227	143	141	119	183	209	156	177	191	150
	2001	167	179	147	203	221	174	95	96	93	229	123	233	160	151	91	246	329	180	145	151	133
Panama	1991	435	478	379	486	503	458	150	205	123	580	618	535	348	398	280
	2002	567	631	484	619	654	568	329	485	211	597	440	623	589	315	337	723	821	621	505	565	420
	2005	482	518	435	538	554	513	198	239	171	550	259	568	348	259	177	691	794	595	408	438	364
Paraguay (Asunción and Central Department)	1990	215	253	159	268	286	231	125	170	87	291	340	217	198	234	147
	2000	302	330	267	364	373	350	173	196	157	420	229	426	291	288	167	458	474	443	266	302	219
	2005	245	270	215	305	323	278	144	153	136	361	180	368	231	247	138	365	408	313	212	232	187

Table II.8 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): WAGES OF DIFFERENT CATEGORIES OF URBAN WAGE EARNERS ^a (2000 dollars)																							
Country	Year	Total wage workers				Sector of activity						Wage workers who		Sector of activity				Public-sector wage workers			Private-sector wage workers		
		Both sexes		Sex		Medium- and high-productivity			Low-productivity			Contribute	Do not	Formal wage workers who		Informal wage workers who		Both sexes	Sex		Both sexes	Sex	
		Men	Women	Both sexes	Sex		Both sexes	Sex		Men	Women			Contribute	Do not	Contribute	Do not		Contribute	Do not		Men	Women
					Men	Women		Men	Women			Men	Women										
Paraguay	2000	277	298	248	350	357	339	156	170	143	421	204	428	268	284	151	446	485	409	236	260	200	
	2005	227	251	197	292	310	265	134	147	122	356	166	361	218	273	128	337	386	286	198	219	169	
Peru	1997	250	272	215	288	312	247	152	158	144	258	288	219	248	268	214	
	2001	229	252	193	276	299	233	133	135	130	358	165	364	196	187	131	254	285	217	222	245	185	
	2003	266	308	204	285	327	235	261	303	195	
Dominican Rep.	1997	353	368	332	392	393	392	191	234	153	423	423	424	337	355	311	
	2002	334	364	298	367	387	341	164	201	139	415	290	422	312	213	192	395	421	364	317	348	278	
	2005	241	255	224	270	273	265	112	141	89	300	158	304	190	144	109	285	294	275	229	245	207	
Uruguay	1990	434	504	338	484	531	401	237	310	196	467	504	407	420	504	311	
	2002	513	571	440	596	633	540	278	319	250	581	239	624	314	358	201	636	686	574	470	532	393	
	2005	440	481	392	516	540	483	227	255	206	512	195	550	250	305	163	597	632	562	391	438	333	
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	725	787	623	786	830	704	464	543	387	770	844	689	705	767	582	
Venezuela (nationwide total)	1990	696	743	612	761	794	695	446	502	380	759	829	682	671	717	569	
	2002	470	468	472	536	532	543	256	270	232	571	299	593	357	306	242	702	747	666	388	404	356	
	2005	530	530	530	589	588	591	299	322	254	644	355	660	408	344	289	742	795	701	450	466	416	
Latin America ^b	1990	333	374	263	389	423	324	180	219	134	364	198	372	313	278	122	442	468	408	329	369	263	
	2002	360	401	304	408	431	369	200	263	157	441	209	457	234	264	173	490	513	467	282	307	244	
	2005	366	406	311	404	428	365	211	291	160	436	221	449	240	267	189	515	540	491	294	320	254	
Latin America ^b	2002	361	401	305	409	433	369	202	262	159	451	215	467	243	271	176	483	552	423	287	324	233	
	2005	371	412	315	410	435	371	216	294	164	456	226	468	246	281	195	514	588	450	296	333	242	

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

^a Urban wage workers aged 15 to 64 years who declared work income (does not include unpaid workers).

^b Weighted average of countries that have information for all periods in question. The figures for low- and high-productivity sectors do not include Colombia, as its survey makes no distinction concerning size of company.



**Indigenous peoples
of Latin America: old
inequities, mixed realities
and new obligations for
democracies in the
twenty-first century**

A. The emergence of indigenous peoples on the agendas for democracy and development

Latin America is a multi-ethnic and multicultural region with over 650 indigenous peoples currently recognized by its States. Territorially and demographically speaking, these peoples are highly diverse and their socio-political status within the countries they inhabit varies widely. Their common denominator, however, is the structural discrimination they suffer in the form of marginalization, exclusion and poverty.

At the beginning of the twenty-first century, the challenge for building multicultural democracies lies not only in eliminating inequities but also in acknowledging the contributions of the region's indigenous peoples in terms of identity, world views, roots and humanity.

Latin America's indigenous peoples have gone through four major cycles of crisis, each of which has been driven by global forces that have put pressure on their territories and challenged their capacity for survival: conquest in the sixteenth century, the Bourbon reforms in the late eighteenth century; the expansion of the liberal republics in the second half of the nineteenth century; and the global neo-liberal structural adjustments of the late twentieth century (Toledo, 2005). Each of these cycles and crises generated indigenous resistance until the new political and territorial status quo became established, after which a period of population recovery followed.¹

There are 671 indigenous peoples in Latin America today, over half of whom are settled in tropical forest areas. The major demographic groups² are located in the Andean and Meso-American countries. The common term "indigenous", however, requires further specification as to the particular situation and status of each people. Although they are traditionally viewed as rural populations, their current status shows a diversity of territorial and demographic situations, ranging from peoples living in voluntary isolation to urban and even transnational settlements. Moreover, countries tend to lack a single policy for indigenous people and do not afford the same status to all of them. This status depends on the proportion of the population represented by each group and its political power. Indigenous movements employ a range of strategies to defend their rights within the framework of the possibilities allowed by the respective State regime and national political culture, as well as the

¹ Refers to the indigenous population as a whole and does not dispute the fact that entire peoples have been wiped out.

² Refers to the indigenous populations collectively without distinguishing between different peoples, whose numbers vary enormously. For example, Bolivia's Andean peoples –Quechuas and Aymaras– each number over 1.5 million, whereas the country's eastern region has several indigenous peoples each numbering less than 200 (IDB/ECLAC, 2005a).

demographic weight and geopolitical and economic value of their territories to the economic authorities.

Within the strategies indigenous groups have used to safeguard their future, three main types may be distinguished. These are associated to some extent with the group's size: demographic minority peoples who claim autonomous regimes and construct *de jure* or *de facto* institutional arrangements to exercise their rights, in order to defend their territories and resources from the encroachment of economic interests (Stavenhagen, 2006; López Bárcenas, 2006); demographic majorities whose political movements seek changes in the State and new plural democratic systems (Albó, 2006; Clavero, 2000); and small peoples living in voluntary isolation in the Amazon basin, whose grievous situation represents an extreme challenge for the international community and the human rights system (Huertas, 2002; Brackelaire, 2006; Cabodevilla and Berraondo, 2005).

Latin America has seen renewed interest in indigenous issues as a matter of public policy since the beginning of the twenty-first century, and this has also been reflected in census studies and measurements. This interest has been born of a number of factors and approaches.

One policy approach focuses on indigenous populations as groups that are critically deprived, excluded and poor. In this instrument-based approach, indigenous peoples are seen as the subjects of social and development policies for deprived population groups. The adoption of this approach involves demographic and socio-economic measurements and the organization of censuses and surveys.

A second approach sees indigenous peoples as holders of rights and political actors at both the international and local levels, which generates new obligations and scenarios for States. On this basis, citizenship regimes undergo more or less extensive

reforms, agendas are modified to include indigenous peoples as subjects of law and policy and, as such, as development actors in broader democracies. In the 2000 census round a number of countries included questions on ethnic self-definition in compliance with new State obligations.

A third approach emphasizes the long-term effects of indigenous emergence on the institutional and cultural architecture of twenty-first century Latin American republics. The 2000 census round began to reflect the situation of indigenous peoples and the diversity within Latin America. The panorama that has emerged in the age of globalization has marked a change in the balance of culture, history and identity in republics that are now approaching their bicentenaries. As a cultural landmark in the countries' stock-taking, the indigenous peoples figure not only with lists of reparations for past aggressions, but also with their identity, world views, roots and humanity that represent their contribution to dealing with the challenges that Latin America's future holds in what may be described as the advent of indigenous peoples as historical subjects.

Accordingly, demand for information is a recurring issue for governments, indigenous organizations and international agencies, not only as a basic technical tool for the design, implementation and assessment of public policies, but also for its undeniable political utility. In this connection, the production of demographic knowledge from a rights-based perspective constitutes a first step in achieving the statistical visibility required for the construction of multi-ethnic citizenship in Latin America. Information on who, how many and where indigenous people are is a basic input for policies and programmes, which need to be contextualized in territorial terms and be relevant in terms of content. In addition, population dynamics and their inherent components –fertility, mortality and migration– form the basis for the sociocultural reproduction of indigenous peoples.

As a result of the emergence of indigenous movements as political actors and of the new human rights standards, in the 2000 census round almost all the Latin American countries included questions on ethnic identity for the first time. This offered the opportunity to make progress in building knowledge of indigenous population dynamics and their implications for public policies and strategies.

In the light of the above developments, this chapter provides a social and demographic overview of the region's indigenous populations and peoples on the basis of the 2000 censuses. It aims to reflect

the diversity and heterogeneity across countries and peoples, and it reveals the inequalities between indigenous and non-indigenous groups in the context of structural discrimination and specific cultural features, from the perspective of the new international standards on indigenous people's human rights. The next issue of the *Social Panorama* will include a chapter on experiences with differentiated policies for indigenous peoples, particularly in the area of health, assessing progress in the construction of multicultural democracies in the twenty-first century.

B. The challenge of new international standards on human rights for indigenous peoples

Over the last two decades of the twentieth century the issue of indigenous peoples changed profoundly in Latin America. The emergence of indigenous movements as political actors is one of the most significant phenomena to have occurred in the region and in the world, and will have a long-term impact on Latin American democracies.

The organizations and actions of indigenous peoples have, to varying degrees, succeeded in focusing public debate on their claims for recognition as peoples in their own right, demanding a new status which will safeguard their existence and rights, as they demand new social covenants and for a broader concept of citizenship.

One of the most significant outcomes of this global process are the shifts in international human rights law –which is binding upon States– in which a special regime of collective indigenous rights has developed, recognizing equal entitlement to human rights at the same time as the right to form distinct collectivities. A standard of indigenous peoples' human rights now exists, recognizing a set of specific collective rights based on the principle of self-determination.

The greatest challenge for the international community, States and peoples today is the application of and compliance with these standards in the laws, jurisprudence and domestic policies of the countries. In this connection, the generation of sociodemographic knowledge from a rights-based perspective constitutes a first step towards the

statistical visibility of the indigenous peoples that is needed for the construction of multi-ethnic and multicultural citizenship in Latin America.

1. Socio-political context and the new standard of rights

The emergence of indigenous peoples and their rights agenda is not a phenomenon peculiar to the Americas, but part of a global process of struggles for recognition and human dignity that have been waged, since the end of the Cold War, in a globalized and multicultural world (UNDP, 2004; Gurr, 1993; Stavenhagen, 1997; Brisk 2000). In the case of Latin America, the demands of indigenous organizations have included the need for new social covenants, a broader concept of citizenship and, hence, the transformation of the region's 200-year-old republics (Yashar, 2005).

At least four main types of ethno-political conflicts can be distinguished in today's world (UNDP, 2004; Gurr, 1993): (a) interethnic conflicts in which there is a dispute over State control or power; (b) separatist conflicts in which "national

minorities" aim to achieve independent statehood; (c) conflicts and movements of migrant ethnic minorities; and (d) conflicts, movements and struggles for the rights of indigenous peoples. As Will Kymlicka noted (2003), these distinctions correspond to a recent trend in international law to distinguish clearly between issues relating to indigenous rights and those relating to the rights of other national minorities.

Within human rights doctrine, a consensus has emerged on two aspects relating to indigenous peoples: (a) the need for the human rights and fundamental freedoms that apply generally to be specially guaranteed; (b) the recognition and positivization of specific collective rights, with standards of rights for indigenous peoples. That is to say, the equal enjoyment of human rights and, at the same time, the right to exist as separate collectivities (Anaya, 2005; Wiessner, 1999; Williams Jr., 1990).

Both aspects have been developed over the last few decades in the international system of human rights. The special guarantee of human rights and fundamental freedoms has been systematically developed in the United Nations since 1971, following the Economic and Social Council resolution authorizing a study of the issue of discrimination against indigenous populations;³ subsequently, in 1982, the Working Group on Indigenous Populations was set up; the Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues was established in 2000;⁴ and a United Nations Special Rapporteur on the situation of human rights and fundamental freedoms of indigenous peoples was appointed in 2002.

Meanwhile, a vigorous doctrine and jurisprudence on the human rights of indigenous peoples has developed within the Inter-American Human Rights System, on the basis of an evolutionary interpretation of the American Convention on Human Rights (Anaya and Williams, 2001). Several American indigenous communities have had recourse to the United Nations Commission on Human Rights and to the Inter-American Court of Human Rights to claim their rights. In relation to such cases, both bodies have interpreted the Convention and developed a body of doctrine and jurisprudence supporting indigenous people's human rights in relation to land and natural-resource ownership rights, the right to political participation, and cultural, social and economic rights. Exemplary judgments have been handed down in the cases of: *Awas Tingni Community vs Nicaragua* (2001); *Yakye Axa Community vs Paraguay* (2005); *Moiwana Community vs Suriname* (2005); *YATAMA vs Nicaragua* (2005); and *Sawhoyamaya Community vs Paraguay* (2006).

As for the recognition of the specific rights of indigenous peoples, a minimum standard is summarized in the Convention Concerning Indigenous and Tribal Peoples in Independent Countries of the International Labour Organization (ILO Convention No. 169) approved in 1989 and in the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples, which was approved by the Human Rights Council at its first session in June 2006. This resolution represents the culmination of over twenty years of complex and sometimes difficult negotiations.⁵ Article No. 3 of the Declaration states

³ See Commission on Human Rights resolution 1982/19 (10 March 1982); Economic and Social Council resolution 1982/3 (7 May 1982).

⁴ The mandate of the Forum is to provide expert advice and make recommendations on indigenous issues to the Economic and Social Council and to raise awareness and promote the integration of activities relating to those issues within the United Nations system. Economic and Social Council resolution 2000/22 (28 July 2000).

⁵ The adoption of the Declaration was preceded by United Nations General Assembly resolution 60/1 which includes the following provision: "127. We reaffirm our commitment to continue making progress in the advancement of the human rights of the world's indigenous peoples at the local, national, regional and international levels, including through consultation and collaboration with them, and to present for adoption a final draft United Nations declaration on the rights of indigenous peoples as soon as possible."

that: *"Indigenous peoples have the right of self-determination. By virtue of that right they freely determine their political status and freely pursue their economic, social and cultural development"*, and a set of specific collective rights are recognized for indigenous peoples on the basis of this *jus cogens*⁶ principle of human rights.

The declaration approved in June 2006 is the direct result of a new right that is already well established. Since the 1980s a whole range of sources for this new right have opened up, including (a) the recognition and codification of indigenous rights in international human rights instruments, both conventions and declarations; (b) the thinking and writing of international authors; (c) decisions of international human rights organizations, including human rights bodies responsible for interpreting international treaties, such as the Human Rights Committee, the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, the Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination, and the Inter-American Commission and Court of Human Rights; (d) the inclusion of indigenous rights in instruments and policies on environmental and development issues; (e) the inclusion of indigenous rights in national legal instruments – constitutions and law- and policies; and (f) the application of domestic legal judgments and decisions by the courts in different countries (Anaya, 2005; Fergus MacKay, 2001).

As a result of these developments in various areas of international law, a series of standards has developed in both treaty and customary law, forming a special regime clearly defined within the current international corpus of human-rights law (Anaya, 2005). Firstly, this regime constitutes a standard that generates obligations for States in relation to respect for, protection of and compliance with rights, even

those not recognized under a country's own legal system, because it is a human rights issue. Secondly, it provides parameters for assessing legal rules and the standards and actions of State agencies in relation to indigenous peoples.

The basic international standards relating to the collective rights of indigenous peoples may be grouped into the following categories:

- (a) The right to non-discrimination;
- (b) The right to cultural integrity;
- (c) The right to own, use, control and have access to land, territories and resources;
- (d) The right to development and social well-being;
- (e) The right to political participation and to free, prior and informed consent.

The guarantee and exercise of such collective rights goes beyond the rural/urban division; the Declaration itself states in its article 44: *"All the rights and freedoms recognized herein are equally guaranteed to male and female indigenous individuals"* and in particular it emphasizes that *"States shall take measures, in conjunction with indigenous peoples, to ensure that indigenous women and children enjoy the full protection and guarantees against all forms of violence and discrimination"* (article 22 (2)).

2. Closing the implementation gap

In view of the new standard of human rights in relation to indigenous peoples, the greatest challenge for the international community, States and peoples today is the implementation of and compliance with these standards in the countries' laws, jurisprudence and domestic policies.

⁶ International legal standards viewed as universally accepted and mandatory, expressing a minimum consensus on fundamental values upheld by the international community.

The United Nations Special Rapporteur noted in May 2006 that the implementation gap is one of the main obstacles to the full exercise of human rights by indigenous peoples and collectivities. This is compounded by the impunity often enjoyed by those responsible for non-compliance with human rights, the corruption in certain justice administration systems and the lack of political will. Closing this implementation gap is one of the greatest challenges for the future (Stavenhagen, 2006).

The application of rights standards and the bridging of implementation gaps in each country constitute obligations for States, as demanded by indigenous peoples as dynamic political actors. They also form imperatives in the face of harsh social situations and territorial changes in times of globalization and consistently with global aspirations to reach human development goals such as those expressed in the Millennium Declaration. As stated by the Secretary-General of the United Nations, *"the perspectives, concerns, experiences and world views of indigenous peoples have a crucial role to play in addressing global challenges and our efforts to achieve the Millennium Development Goals. Indeed, only by respecting cultural diversity and indigenous peoples' right to self-determination can our work together truly be called a partnership."*⁷

Bridging implementation gaps will require a shift in the focus of policies towards indigenous peoples. The human rights approach proposed by the United Nations offers a coherent system of concepts,

principles, parameters and rules for the formulation, application and assessment of policies and constructive agreements between States and indigenous peoples.

The basic elements of the rights-based approach, according to the United Nations (OHCHR, 2002; UNDP, 2005), are the following: (a) an explicit link with human rights; (b) the principle of ownership of rights that citizens may require from the State, that is, empowering subjects by moving the focus to them; (c) the principle of non-discrimination, with special concern for the most vulnerable groups, such as indigenous peoples; (d) participation in decision-making and support for the construction of social covenants to be expressed in legislation and policies, thereby making citizenship effective (ECLAC, 2006a); and (e) responsibility and accountability.

Victor Abramovich (2006) argued that "within the rights-based approach, the first step towards empowering excluded sections of society is to recognize that they are bearers of rights that are binding on the State. Once this concept has been introduced, the idea is to change the rationale of policymaking so that the starting point is no longer the existence of sections of society that have unmet needs, but of people who are subjects of law and are thus entitled to demand particular forms of provision and conduct". In the case of indigenous issues, this requires a re-reading of equity gaps, as discussed in box III.1.

⁷ Message from the Secretary-General of the United Nations, Kofi Annan, on the International Day of the World's Indigenous People, New York, 9 August 2006.

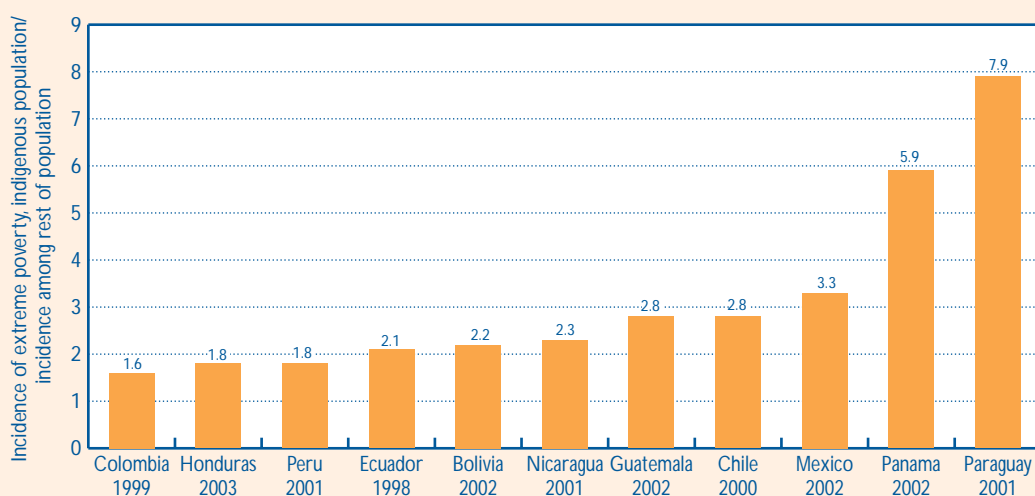
A FRESH READING OF EQUITY GAPS

Indigenous resistance and contention in relation to the harsh reality of poverty have lifted a twin veil. On the one hand, they have revealed ethnic inequalities and, on the other, they have displaced approaches in which people are construed as objects of charity rather than subjects of law, by focusing on human rights as the framework for measuring gaps and showing that the indigenous question is essentially a matter of justice. Human dignity is the common denominator between the indigenous peoples' struggle for their human rights and the effort to combat poverty.

Late twentieth century economic and social transformations and economic globalization have impacted on old and new social development gaps between indigenous peoples, typically located in the poorest quintiles of each country, and non-indigenous populations, as has been demonstrated empirically in government statistics and in different studies conducted by multilateral agencies (Machinea and Hopenhayn, 2005; Hall and Patrinos, 2006; Busso, Cicowiez and Gasparini, 2005; Plant, 1998; Montenegro and Stephen, 2006). As shown in the figure below, in most of the countries examined the extreme poverty rate is more than twice as high among indigenous groups and almost eight times as high in Paraguay.

What is new is the fresh reading of this poverty, which is now being defined as a flagrant violation of human rights –not only economic and social, but also civil and political rights. The lack of recognition, protection and guarantees of respect for the individual and collective human rights of indigenous peoples does much to explain the dramatic reality of their poverty and of the associated phenomena of marginalization, exclusion, vulnerability and inequality (Hopenhayn, 2003).

Latin America (11 countries): incidence of extreme poverty among the indigenous population as a multiple of its incidence among the rest of the population (dollar-a-day poverty line)



Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of José Luis Machinea and Martin Hopenhayn, "La esquiiva equidad en el desarrollo latinoamericano. Una visión estructural, una aproximación multifacética", *Informes y estudios especiales* series, No. 14 (LC/L.2414-P/E), Santiago, Chile, November 2005. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.05.II.G.158.

3. Latin America and implementation gaps

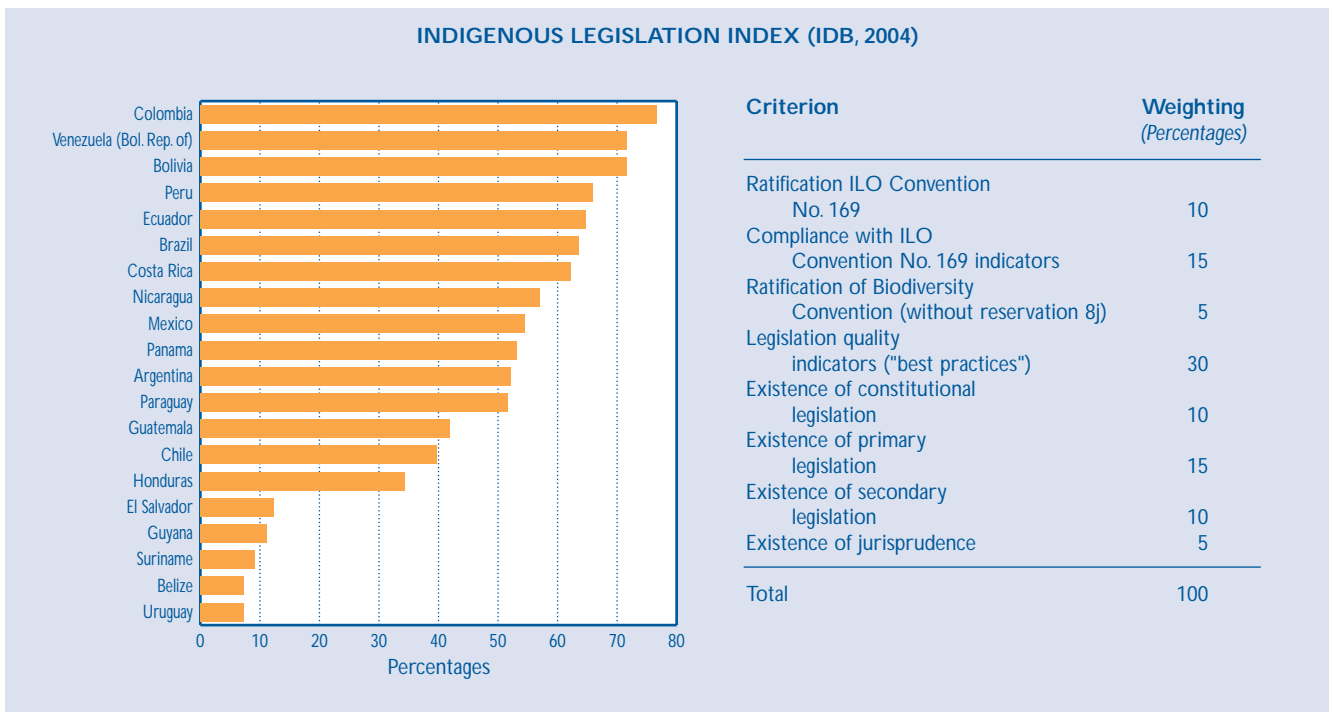
Between 1987 and 2001 most Latin American States witnessed constitutional and legislative changes leading to recognition of some degree of indigenous rights, with some States ratifying ILO Convention No. 169.⁸ The continent was swept by a wave of "multicultural constitutionalism" whose hallmark was its divergence from the nineteenth-century liberal doctrines prevailing during the formation of the Latin American republics and typified by formal egalitarianism, dispossession and discrimination (Thurner, 2003; Reina, 1997). This new trend also diverged from the indigenist doctrines of assimilation typical of the import substitution period and the national populism of the twentieth century. Those legal changes occurred in the period of democratic transition following dictatorships or armed conflict and coincided with structural adjustment and market liberalization

policies. In countries where indigenous rights were constitutionally recognized, this occurred in the context of a particular set of "constitutional conditions" (Van Cott, 2000).

Legislative changes on indigenous matters have had varied results, as shown in the Indigenous Legislation Index constructed by IDB, which shows wide variations in quality among countries and heavy lags in most of them, some of which have a large proportion of indigenous population (see figure III.1).

After this decade of changes, at the start of the twenty-first century the general picture in terms of legislation on indigenous peoples is bleak, with a notable lack of effectiveness, non-compliance with rules and persistent violations of indigenous rights (Stavenhagen, 2002). By way of illustration, box III.2 sets out the case of the right to education.

Figure III.1



Source: Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), Databank on Indigenous Legislation [online] http://www.iadb.org/sds/ind/site_3152_e.htm.

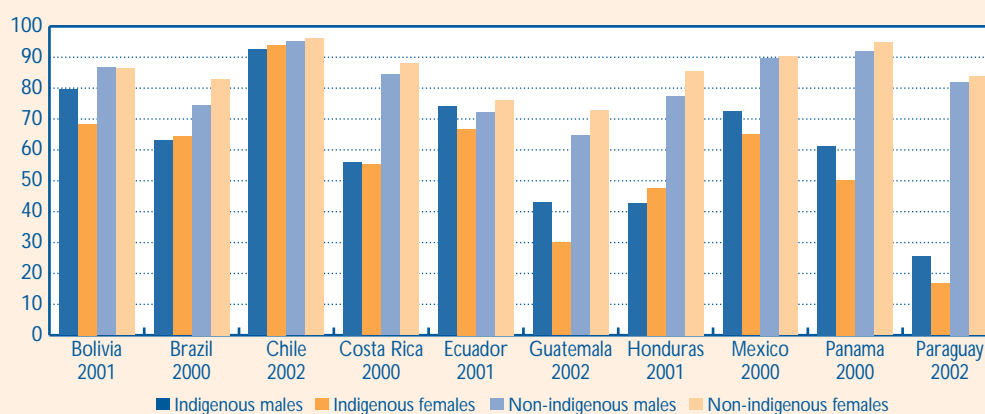
⁸ At the regional level, the Fund for the Development of the Indigenous Peoples of Latin America and the Caribbean (Indigenous Fund) was created in 1992, a multilateral international cooperation agency and Ibero-American Cooperation Programme specialized in the promotion of self-development and recognition of the rights of indigenous peoples.

GAPS IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF INDIGENOUS PEOPLES' RIGHT TO EDUCATION

In order to discuss gaps in the implementation of indigenous peoples' right to education, the equity-based approach in terms of individual rights must be coordinated with a collective-rights approach to cultural integrity and to the right to freely maintain and develop their education systems. In this respect, article 30 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child states that [...] a child [...] who is indigenous shall not be denied the right, in community with other members of his or her group, to enjoy his or her own culture, to profess and practise his or her own religion, or to use his or her own language. Similarly, the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples establishes that "Indigenous peoples have the right to establish and control their educational systems and schools, in their own languages and cultures, using indigenous teaching methods" (Article 15). States must therefore adapt national education systems and promote cultural changes in society at large, in order to foster respect for and appreciation of cultural diversity (Peredo Beltrán, 2004).

In terms of individual rights, in Latin America educational inequities persist between indigenous and non-indigenous population as regards access, quality and achievement. The target of Goal 2 of the Millennium Development Goals is to ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling. The data in the figure below show that this target will be more difficult to achieve in the case of indigenous peoples. What is more, ethnic inequalities are compounded by gender inequities, disadvantaging indigenous women. Primary school completion rates among indigenous children vary from 21% in Paraguay to 93% in Chile. Among non-indigenous children these rates are much higher, ranging from 69% in Guatemala to 96% in Chile. In most of the countries, a larger proportion of indigenous boys than girls complete primary education. In Guatemala, for example, the achievement rate among indigenous boys is 43% higher than the rate for indigenous girls. These ethnic and gender differences are evident in both urban and rural areas (Del Popolo and Oyarce, 2005).

Latin America (10 countries): percentage of young people aged 15 to 19 years who have completed primary schooling, indigenous and non-indigenous population, by sex, 2000 census round



The implementation gaps are even larger when it comes to collective rights as regards education. Although Latin America has many programmes of intercultural bilingual education for indigenous children, in Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Guatemala, Mexico and Peru, among others, the implementation of these programmes has been slow and complex, with high and low points and inequalities across countries. The process has not been free of such problems as lack of trained human resources and regular budgets, lack of teaching materials and, above all, lack of involvement of the indigenous peoples in decision-making. However, there have been valuable experiences, such as those in Ecuador and Peru, in which a crucial factor has been the active engagement of an indigenous counterpart. In the case of Peru, worth noting is the Peruvian Amazon Bilingual Teacher Training Programme (FORMABIAP), set up by the Peruvian Forest Inter-Ethnic Development Association (AIDSEP).

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC). Prepared by the author on the basis of Fabiana Del Popolo and Ana María Oyarce, "América Latina, población indígena: perfil sociodemográfico en el marco de la Conferencia Internacional sobre Población y Desarrollo y de las metas del Milenio", *Notas de población*, No. 79 (LC/G.2284-P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), June 2005. United Nations publications, Sales No. S.05.II.G.141.

As the United Nations Special Rapporteur has reported on his missions to countries, and from the complaints and ethnic conflicts in the region, it is clear that the lags are not only in recognition but also in compliance even where rights have been partly recognized.⁹ In the words of Stavenhagen (2006), *these developments are still battling with innumerable breaches of the individual and collective rights of indigenous peoples and communities owing, in part, to the rules not being implemented properly, or because they are sometimes neutralized by other contradictory legislation, or because the legal and administrative institutions responsible for implementing and enforcing the law do not work satisfactorily.*

In the early twenty-first century the countries of the region face the challenge of a second wave of State and policy reform on indigenous matters. The intensity of complaints from indigenous peoples in the last few decades has been related to new forms of exclusion, marginalization and vulnerability of their societies and territories associated with processes of structural adjustment, economic globalization and free trade agreements (Stavenhagen, 2006); particularly harsh new forms of violence and discrimination are suffered by women and children. At the same time, the claims of indigenous movements are based on the new global standard of human rights. In today's world, the rights of indigenous peoples are no longer the domestic concern of individual countries, but rules of international public order to be gradually implemented in a local fashion.

A rights-based approach and the implementation of standards for indigenous people's rights require the generation of public information, statistics and

systems of indicators for monitoring and assessment¹⁰ (see box III.3). As the United Nations Statistics Division has pointed out, "indigenous issues are the main emerging theme in social statistics." This issue presents national statistical systems –particularly censuses and household surveys– with the challenge of taking ethnic variables into account along with age and gender dimensions of populations (Cervera Ferri, 2005). The report of the World Conference against Racism, Racial Discrimination, Xenophobia and Related Intolerance (Durban, 31 August to 8 September 2001), in paragraph 92: *"Urges States to collect, compile, analyse, disseminate and publish reliable statistical data at the national and local levels and undertake all other related measures which are necessary to assess regularly the situation [...] groups [...] who are victims of racism" [...] The information should take into account economic and social indicators, including, where appropriate, health and health status, infant and maternal mortality, life expectancy, literacy, education, employment, housing, land ownership, mental and physical health care, water, sanitation, energy and communications services, poverty and average disposable income, in order to elaborate social and economic development policies with a view to closing the existing gaps in social and economic conditions"*.

At this point, what is needed is a review of the demographic profiles on indigenous peoples, and this requires information on and reinterpretation of indigenous population dynamics and their public policy implications. Quantitative questions on who, how many and where take on a new connotation in terms of policy and legal obligations. In this context, the generation of statistical information on and by indigenous peoples is part of the process of building social citizenship (Hopenhayn, 2005).

⁹ Between 2001 and 2006 the United Nations Special Rapporteur on the Situation of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms of Indigenous Peoples paid official visits to the following countries of the region: Canada, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Guatemala and Mexico. The official reports are contained in the following documents: Guatemala: E/CN.4/2003/90/Add.2; Mexico: E/CN.4/2004/80/Add.2; Chile: E/CN.4/2004/80/Add.3; Canada: E/CN.4/2005/88/Add.3; Colombia: E/CN.4/2005/88/Add.2 and Ecuador: A/HCR/4/32/Add.2, unpublished.

¹⁰ The need to compile and use disaggregated data on indigenous peoples is implicit in various international instruments such as ILO Convention No. 169 concerning Indigenous and Tribal Peoples in Independent Countries, the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, the Convention on the Rights of the Child and Resolution CD37.R5 of the Pan-American Health Organization (PAHO).

**RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE WORKSHOP ON DATA COLLECTION AND DISAGGREGATION
FOR INDIGENOUS PEOPLES, NEW YORK, 10–21 MAY 2004
(Extract)**

- (1) That in all relevant data collection exercises, Member States include questions on indigenous identity with full respect for the principle of self-identification [...]
- (2) Data collection concerning indigenous peoples should follow the principle of free prior and informed consent at all levels and take into account both the Fundamental Principles of Official Statistics as established by the United Nations Statistical Commission on the basis of the Economic Commission for Europe's Decision C (47) of 1994 and the collective rights of indigenous peoples. For indigenous peoples living in voluntary isolation, data collection exercises should not be used as a pretext for establishing forced contact.
- (3) Data collection should be in accordance with provisions on human rights and fundamental freedoms, and with data protection regulations and privacy guarantees including respect for confidentiality.
- (4) Indigenous peoples should fully participate as equal partners, in all stages of data collection, including planning, implementation, analysis and dissemination, access and return, with appropriate resourcing and capacity-building to do so.

Source: United Nations, *Report of the Workshop on Data Collection and Disaggregation for Indigenous Peoples (E/C.19/2004/2)*, New York, May 2004.

C. Indigenous peoples: who are they? How many are there? Where are they?

In view of the international consensus definition of "indigenous peoples" (included in ILO Convention No. 169) and examining different instruments of statistical measurement, especially population censuses, significant changes have occurred in the last few decades. Whereas in the 1980 census round very few Latin American countries of the region included ethnic identity questions, in the 2000 census round they practically all did so, in response to the State obligations. When they were "objects" of policy it was assumed that indigenous peoples could be identified –indirectly and by non-indigenous people– by externally or culturally manifested features, particularly their language. Today, the principle of self-identification is applied, in accordance with their status as subjects of law.

At this time, based on the 2000 census round, Latin America's indigenous population numbers at least 30 million people and retains its rural characteristics. Nevertheless, the data show a variety of situations –from country to country and among indigenous peoples– as regards the proportion of the overall population they represent, the degree of urbanization and location within and outside ancestral territories, reflecting the effects of migration.

Two aspects should be highlighted as regards methodological challenges. First, in order to account for the multiple dimensions of ethnic identity and

the heterogeneous nature of peoples, other criteria as well as self-identification should be incorporated into information sources, referring to common origin, territoriality and linguistic-cultural aspects inherent to the definition of indigenous peoples. Second, States must guarantee the active participation of indigenous peoples in the entire process of generating information and knowledge.

Over the years, a consensus has built up among international agencies on the definition of "indigenous peoples" as stated by Martínez Cobo (Deruyttere, 2001), which has been incorporated into conventions and other legal instruments

prepared by the International Labour Organization (ILO), the Organization of American States (OAS) and the United Nations, as well as in the documents of indigenous organizations, such as the Agreement establishing the Fund for the Development of the Indigenous Peoples of Latin America and the Caribbean (Indigenous Fund), which most of the Latin American countries have ratified (at the Second Ibero-American Summit of Heads of State and Government, held in Madrid, Spain, in 1992).

Article 1 of ILO Convention (No. 169) concerning Indigenous and Tribal Peoples in Independent Countries states that peoples are regarded as being indigenous *on account of their descent from the populations which inhabited the country, or a geographical region to which the country belongs, at the time of conquest or colonisation or the establishment of present State boundaries and who, irrespective of their legal status, retain some or all of their own social, economic, cultural and political institutions.* In addition, *self-identification as indigenous or tribal shall be regarded as a fundamental criterion for determining the groups to which the provisions of this Convention apply.*¹¹

The position invariably taken by representatives of indigenous peoples to different United Nations agencies is that indigenous individuals themselves and indigenous peoples are the proper parties to decide who are the members of those communities. In this context, they advocate self-definition and emphasize other elements such as descent, collective identity, acceptance by the group, and the historic link with the land and the language (Aguilar Cavallo, 2006; Gamboa, 2006). This stance is consistent with the results of local studies conducted during the preparation of census criteria from the perspectives of indigenous peoples and non-indigenous specialists (Oyarce, Pedrero and Pérez, 2005).

For the United Nations, it is also clear that it is for indigenous peoples and individuals to define themselves as such, with recognition of the right to self-identify seen as part of the right of self-determination (United Nations, 2004). Representatives of indigenous peoples must therefore be involved in decisions taken in national statistical offices and similar institutions on how to compile information on their peoples, among other subjects. This has been a recurrent recommendation in international forums, as noted in the conclusions of the international seminar entitled "Indigenous peoples and Afro-descendants in Latin America and the Caribbean: relevance of sociodemographic information to policies and programmes" (ECLAC, 2006b).

1. Indigenous peoples in censuses: from objects to subjects

National population and housing censuses are the only source of data with universal coverage, as indigenous censuses only cover areas previously identified as indigenous territories and tend to survey population samples that are not designed to include all indigenous peoples.

As a result, the availability of information on indigenous peoples in national censuses makes them the only source that can be used to estimate the size of such groups and to conduct sociodemographic analyses for the purposes of public policymaking. Although other sources cannot be used to estimate numbers, they do provide more detailed and additional information for the public sector and the communities themselves.¹²

An examination of countries' census bulletins reveals that increasing numbers of questions are being included to identify indigenous peoples and

¹¹ The following Latin American countries have ratified ILO Convention No. 169: Mexico (1990), Colombia (1991), Bolivia (1991), Costa Rica (1993), Peru (1994), Paraguay (1993), Honduras (1995), Guatemala (1996), Ecuador (1998), Argentina (2000), Brazil (2002) and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela (2002).

¹² However, surveys on standards of living and/or demographics and health do not always incorporate the intercultural perspective, which means that some of the information loses potential relevance. The United Nations therefore recommends reviewing such surveys.

that the questions have changed over time (see table III.1). The most dramatic change is that, when indigenous peoples were seen as objects, it was assumed that they could be indirectly identified (by non-indigenous people) on the basis of obvious external or cultural traits, particularly their languages. Nowadays, the political and cultural revival in indigenous movements and organizations appears to have produced a consensus belief that the most effective way of obtaining this information is to directly ask people to define themselves, which fits in with the fact that indigenous peoples are now subjects of law.

Thus, from the mostly language-based questions of the 1980s and 1990s, there was a move to the self-definition criterion in the 2000 round of censuses. This criterion was used by all countries with at least one question related to ethnic group. Despite the potential limitations of information collected using self-definition,¹³ it is now considered indispensable for measuring the indigenous population in sources of sociodemographic data. Other criteria are nonetheless required to represent the multidimensional nature of ethnic identity and the heterogeneous nature of indigenous peoples (see box III.4).

The generalized use of the self-definition criterion does not, however, strictly guarantee comparability of the information obtained. Such comparability also depends on the wording of the question (direct or with an introductory clause), the terms used (do you belong to...?, do you consider yourself...? are you...?), how the indigenous peoples are referred to (people, group, culture, ethnic group, and race) and the coverage of the question or age range of respondents (Schkolnik and Del Popolo, 2005).

Although table III.1 shows significant progress in the visibility of the indigenous population and their right to be recognized as such, not all countries identify various peoples on the census bulletin. This was the case for Brazil and Mexico, and for Costa Rica where the census identified only those groups living in indigenous territories. Although Ecuador includes an open question for specifying an indigenous nationality or peoples, only 50% of the indigenous population responded. The fact that these groups are "peoples" is now no longer under debate at the international level, and this recognition should be reflected in national statistical systems, particularly the 2010 round of censuses.

¹³ The self-definition criterion is strongly influenced by a particular country's sociopolitical context. In an environment of structural discrimination, indigenous people may not declare themselves as such, especially in urban areas. In situations of ethnic revival, non-indigenous persons may claim to be indigenous by affinity or to gain access to specific policy benefits (although the latter seems to be less common than the former). Besides structural factors, estimates may also be affected by methodological and operational aspects: design, content and wording of questions; coverage; lack of training of interviewers; communication problems in multilingual areas; and the lack of participation by indigenous people.

Table III.1

LATIN AMERICA: IDENTIFICATION CRITERIA FOR THE INDIGENOUS POPULATION IN CENSUSES, 1970–2000					
Country		Census dates			
		Around 1970	Around 1980	Around 1990	Around 2000
Argentina	Population census				Self-definition for households
	Supplementary survey				Self-definition of indigenous descent
Bolivia	Population census		Language spoken Language of household	Language spoken	Self-identification Language spoken Mother tongue
Brazil	Population census			Self-identification	Self-identification
Chile	Population census			Self-identification	Self-identification
Costa Rica	Population census				Self-identification
	Territorial census				Self-identification Language spoken Mother tongue
Colombia	Population census	Self-identification Language spoken	Self-identification Language spoken	Self-identification Language spoken	Self-identification Language spoken
Ecuador	Population census			Language of household	Self-identification Language spoken
Guatemala	Population census	Self-identification Other characteristics	Self-identification Indigenous dress Indigenous footwear Language of household	Self-identification Language spoken Mother tongue Indigenous dress	Self-identification Language spoken Mother tongue
Honduras	Population census			Language spoken	Self-identification
Mexico	Population census	Language spoken	Language spoken	Language spoken	Self-identification Language spoken
Nicaragua	Population census		Language spoken	Mother tongue	Self-identification Language spoken
Panama	Population census	Self-identification by area	Language spoken	Self-identification	Self-identification
Paraguay	Population census		Language spoken Language of household	Language of household	Self-identification Language spoken Language of household
	Indigenous census				Self-identification Language spoken Language of household
Peru	Population census	Language spoken	Language spoken	Mother tongue	
	Continuous survey				Self-identification Mother tongue
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	Population census		Language spoken or heard from mother or grand- mother, certain areas	Self-identification, certain areas	Self-identification Language spoken
	Indigenous census				Self-definition Language spoken

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of Susana Schkolnik and Fabiana Del Popolo, "Los censos y los pueblos indígenas en América Latina: una metodología regional", *Notas de población*, No. 79 (LC/G.2284–P/E), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), July 2005. United Nations publications, Sales No. S.05.II.G.141.

THE MULTIDIMENSIONAL NATURE OF ETHNIC IDENTITY: A PROPOSAL FOR BUILDING OPERATIONAL CRITERIA

Based on Convention 169 of the International Labour Organization (ILO) and census experiences, at least four dimensions have been determined for the definition of "an indigenous peoples," on the basis of which operational criteria can then be established: (a) recognition of identity; (b) common origin; (c) territoriality; and (d) the linguistic and cultural dimension (Schkolnik, 2000; Schkolnik and Del Popolo, 2005).

The "recognition of identity" dimension refers to the development of ethnic consciousness and the sense of belonging to an indigenous people. The level of self-identification with the indigenous people (as an indicator of this dimension) may range from an assimilationist attitude with little or no feeling of belonging to the group of origin, to a state of awareness and self-affirmation of differentiated ethnic personality (Hernández, 1994).

The dimension of common origin refers to descent from common ancestors and relates, inter alia, to the social and collective memory of indigenous peoples, the relation with their history and the importance of the past in terms of recreating and constantly updating that history. Territoriality is linked to the peoples' ancestral heritage and collective memory, to the occupation of ancestral land and to material and symbolic links: the global space in which social and cultural experience, animals, forests, air, water and human beings interrelate, interact and make the land what it is (CIDOB, 2006). The linguistic and cultural dimension relates to attachment to the culture of origin, social and political organization, world view, knowledge and way of life.

The first dimension, that of common origin, represents the effective exercise of the right to be recognized as part of a people and takes precedence over the other criteria. In the words of Martínez (1986), this is the sovereign right and power to decide who belongs to indigenous groups, without external interference. This dimension should therefore be the basis for the criteria to be used in estimating the size of indigenous populations and peoples in all data sources and in population censuses, in particular. At some point, it should be possible to use the other dimensions to describe the heterogeneity of these groups in terms of the recognition of ancestral and territorial ties and the maintenance or loss of language and sociocultural practices, inter alia. Although censuses should indeed include some indicators for those dimensions, they are clearly of more use in the design of indigenous censuses and surveys.

The challenge lies in identifying the most appropriate indicators for each dimension in the context of each country, and how to formulate questions that capture the multidimensional nature of indigenous identity. National experiences show that there is still a lack of local qualitative studies involving indigenous peoples that would enable us to identify and respond to these questions.

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of Susana Schkolnik, "Algunos interrogantes sobre las preguntas censales para identificar población indígena en América Latina", document presented at the first international meeting entitled *Todos contamos. Los grupos étnicos en los Censos*, Cartagena, 8–10 November 2000 and Susana Schkolnik and Fabiana Del Popolo, "Los censos y los pueblos indígenas en América Latina: una metodología regional", *Notas de población*, No. 79 (LC/G.2284-P/E), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), July 2005. United Nations publications, Sales No. S.05.II.G.141.

Despite the difficulty of such measurement using conventional sources, the 2000 round of censuses is recognized as a source of relevant information on a significant number of countries. This chapter is therefore based on the processing of census microdata available at the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the Latin

American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC using Redatam+SP software (System for the Retrieval of Census Data for Small Areas by Microcomputer) for the following countries: Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Panama and Paraguay.¹⁴ Using the above approach,

¹⁴ As other countries have carried out their censuses more recently: Colombia (2005), Nicaragua (2005) and Peru (2005, "megasurvey"), their information is not yet available. El Salvador is in the process of carrying out its census. In the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, there was no integral database of the country's total indigenous population at the time of writing.

people's indigenous identity was ascertained from a question on self-definition. Other characteristics, such as language and territoriality, are used in the analysis of various issues to describe the indigenous population and demonstrate the high level of heterogeneity.

In Bolivia and Mexico, young people who were not asked the question because of their age (children aged under 15 and 5, respectively) were classified as indigenous on the basis of the ethnicity of the heads of household and their spouses, as follows: when both described themselves as indigenous, the children were also considered indigenous, and the same was applied to single-parent households in which heads of household described themselves as indigenous. In all other cases children were classified as non-indigenous. This decision was based on an empirical review of the ethnic composition of households, with an analysis of aspects such as the ascription of children of heads of household and spouses (IDB/ECLAC, 2005a).

The following analysis attempts to provide a sociodemographic overview of the indigenous population and describe ethnic and gender-based equity gaps. A differentiated analysis by indigenous peoples for each country would be an excessively complex task which, in addition to the limitations of the basic information, would exceed the scope of this chapter. Some results by indigenous peoples are however included, to illustrate the diversity of situations throughout the region and within individual countries.

2. Size of indigenous population and peoples in Latin America

According to various estimates, in the early twenty-first century there are between 350 and 400 million indigenous people in the world, representing

over 6,000 languages and cultures in around 70 countries. Out of those numbers, between 30 and 50 million indigenous people (depending on the source consulted) are estimated to be living in Latin America and the Caribbean (Jordán Pando, 1990; Stavenhagen, 1996; Deruteyre, 2001; UNDP, 2004a), speaking around 860 languages and dialects (Toledo, 2006). The indigenous peoples either directly or implicitly recognized by States number 671, of which 642 are in Latin America (table III.2).

The multidimensional and dynamic nature of ethnic identity makes it difficult to obtain accurate data, and experience shows that estimates have tended to underestimate the indigenous population. Within the limitations of the study, table III.3 provides a broad overview of the indigenous population in 20 Latin American countries and territories since the 1970s, taken from the most reliable estimates from the data sources with the widest coverage. Inconsistencies in the population count from year to year for a given country may be due not only to differential census omissions, but also to changes in question criteria, the variation of the base population and the way in which indigenous territories and other factors were defined in certain cases.

The number of countries where censuses collect data on the indigenous population has increased significantly: from isolated census counts in 1970 and 1980, the latest two rounds (1990 and 2000) show that countries are now aware of the need for these groups to have statistical visibility, in response to the demands of the indigenous peoples themselves.

These estimates, including 1990 figures as a tentative figure for countries with no data for 2000, show at least 30 million indigenous people in Latin America in the early twenty-first century (see table III.3).

Table III.2

LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: NUMBERS OF INDIGENOUS PEOPLES BY COUNTRY OR TERRITORY ^a			
Countries and territories	Peoples	Countries and territories	Peoples
Total for Latin America and the Caribbean	671	Mexico	62
Total for Latin America	642	Nicaragua	8
Argentina	21	Panama	8
Bolivia	36	Paraguay	20
Brazil	222	Peru	72
Chile	9	Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	36
Colombia	81	Total for the Caribbean	29
Costa Rica	8	Belize	3
Ecuador	26	Guyana	9
El Salvador	3	French Guiana	6
Guatemala	22	Suriname	11
Honduras	8		

Source: Victor Toledo Llancaqueo, "Pueblos indígenas, territorios, derechos y políticas públicas en América Latina", fifth Congress of the Latin American Network of Legal Anthropology, Oaxtepec, Mexico, 16–20 October 2006.

^a Number of ethnic groups or peoples recognized in censuses and public policies in each State or territory. This implies that some peoples which come under the jurisdiction of more than one State are counted by both.

Table III.3

LATIN AMERICA: INDIGENOUS POPULATION BY COUNTRY, 1970–2000												
Country	About 1970			About 1980			About 1990			About 2000		
	Year	Persons	%	Year	Persons	%	Year	Persons	%	Year	Persons	%
Peru	1972	3 467 140	30.5	1981 ^a	3 626 944	24.8				2001 ^b	8 500 000	32.0
Mexico	1970	3 111 415	7.7	1980 ^a	5 181 038	9.0	1990 ^a	5 282 347	7.4	2000	6 101 630	6.4
Bolivia				1976	2 446 097	63.5	1992 ^c	3 058 208	59.0	2001	5 008 997	62.2
Guatemala	1973	2 260 079	43.7	1981	2 536 443	41.8	1994	3 476 684	42.8	2002	4 610 440	41.0
Colombia	1973	318 425	1.5	1985	237 759	0.8	1993	532 233	1.6	2005 ^d	892 631	2.0
Ecuador							1990	349 074	3.7	2001	830 418	6.8
Brazil										2000	734 127	0.4
Chile							1992 ^e	998 385	10.3	2002	692 192	4.6
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)				1982	140 562	0.9	1992 ^f	314 772	0.9	2001 ^g	506 341	2.3
Nicaragua										2005 ^h	443 847	8.6
Honduras							1988 ^a	48 789	1.3	2001	427 943	7.0
Argentina							1990 ⁱ	350 000	1.0	2001 ⁱ	402 921	1.1
Panama	1970	75 738	5.3	1980	93 091	5.2	1990	194 269	8.3	2000	285 231	10.0
Paraguay				1981	38 703	1.2	1992	29 482	0.7	2002 ^g	88 529	1.7
Costa Rica										2000 ^g	63 876	1.7
El Salvador							1990 ⁱ	400 000	7.0			
Uruguay							1990 ⁱ	4 000	1.6			

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, special processing of census microdatabases corresponding to the 2000 census round, on the basis of a question on self-identification; Peyser and Chakiel, 1994; Jordán Pando, 1990; IDB/ECLAC, 2005a, 2005b and 2005c; Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), on the basis of National Household Survey (ENAHO) 2001 from Peru; Bodnar, 2006 and INDEC, 2006.

^a Population aged five and over.

^b Considers as indigenous those members of households where the heads of household (or spouses) have Quechua, Aymara or an Amazonian indigenous language as their mother tongue.

^c Population aged six and over.

^d Projection for indigenous population in Colombia.

^e Population aged 14 and over.

^f Indigenous census only.

^g Sum of indigenous population from population census and indigenous census.

^h Includes indigenous peoples and ethnic communities (Creole and Garifuna).

ⁱ Around 1990.

^j Preliminary figures based on the supplementary survey.

Demographic situations are hugely varied, both in terms of absolute and relative magnitude.¹⁵ In volume terms, Peru has the largest indigenous population (about 8.5 million), followed by Mexico (6.1 million),¹⁶ Bolivia (5 million) and Guatemala (4.6 million). Then come the countries with between 500,000 and 1 million indigenous people (the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Brazil, Chile, Colombia and Ecuador) and lastly, those with under 500,000 (Argentina, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay and Uruguay). In Cuba, the Dominican Republic and Haiti, the indigenous population was entirely or almost entirely wiped out by colonizers (University of Calgary, 2006 and ALEIQ, 2006).¹⁷

By 2000, in Bolivia, Guatemala and Peru, indigenous people represented 62%, 41% and 32%, respectively, of their total populations. These countries are special cases in the region given the absolute and relative size of the indigenous populations. They are followed by countries where the indigenous population represents between 5% and 10% of the total: Chile, Ecuador, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua and Panama. Mexico is a special case because, although its proportion of indigenous population is relatively low, the volume is equivalent to the indigenous population of Bolivia or Guatemala. In the remaining countries, less than 2.5% of the population are indigenous and their numbers do not exceed one million: Argentina, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Brazil, Colombia and Costa Rica.

Chile, Ecuador and Paraguay are particularly striking examples of how census measurement of indigenous population can be affected by the socio-political context and by technical aspects. In Chile, there has been an apparent reduction in the

indigenous population in the last two censuses, which may be partly attributable to differences in how the self-definition question is formulated and also to the context in which the first of them was conducted, in 1992, which was characterized by a major political debate surrounding the 500th anniversary of the arrival of the conquistadors. In Ecuador, the census figure of 6.8% is in sharp contrast with other estimates that suggest that the indigenous population represents 25% (Abya-Yala Cultural Centre, 2006), or even 35% (Andean Coordinating Group for Indigenous Organizations, 2006; Jordán Pando, 1990). In Paraguay, census criteria are not comparable as, prior to 2000, people were asked about the language spoken in the home, and only in 2002 was a self-identification question introduced.

3. Territorial distribution

(a) Anchoring the difference: the relationship of indigenous peoples to territory

According to various authors, a continuous and prolonged occupation has resulted in indigenous people "belonging" deeply to a territory (Clifford, 1999). The territory has seen their history, way of life and a complex network of symbols associated with sacred sites that become a "spiritual subject", a place that has been "walked, sown and consecrated", in the words of indigenous people themselves (ONIC, 2002). The indigenous peoples have emphasized this indissoluble tie to the earth and the practice of territoriality in the physical, social and symbolic senses, which has been defined as the "anchor of their distinctiveness" (Toledo, 2005), while other authors talk of "cultural anchoring" or use the concept of communality (González Chévez,

¹⁵ In all the countries and territories, the figures are based on the criterion of self-identification which is included in the censuses, except in the cases of Colombia, whose figures are based on a projection, and Peru, whose figures are derived from an estimate using the 2001 household survey, in which the ethnic status of the population was determined by the response of the head of household and his or her spouse: if the head of household or spouse was indigenous the rest of the family was assumed to be also.

¹⁶ The figures for Mexico show an indigenous population of 10 to 12 million, depending on the criteria used, which combine self-identification and the language spoken. The higher figure includes all the members of indigenous households, defined as those where the head of household or his or her spouse, or one of their parents or in-laws, speaks an indigenous language, as well as those who state that they belong to an indigenous group.

¹⁷ In the case of Haiti, see "La región antes de la fundación de Puerto Príncipe" [online] <http://es.wikipedia.org/wiki/Puerto_Pr%C3%ADncipe>.

2002). Territory is not only a geographical and physical place, but a social and cultural space focused around the kinship ties that form the basis of the community.

Broadly speaking, indigenous peoples nowadays define themselves with reference to a territory and a particular way of living there, rather than to the use of a language or way of life and specific social and cultural practices. In this sense, the distinction between land and territory is a key one, with the former understood as a means of production¹⁸ and the latter as a culturally-constructed life environment (Bartolomé, 1997). The concept of territoriality has therefore served as the basis for the demands of indigenous movements, thereby making territory an aspect of identity (Toledo, 2005), and is one of the rights inherent to the principle of self-determination. This is reflected in the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples, which enshrines rights including the right to possess, use, develop and control their lands, territories and resources, and urges States to ensure legal protection and recognition for the full exercise of that right.

The periods of conquest, colonization and expansion of the new republics had a profound effect on indigenous settlements and their ancestral territories, and a considerable impact on their subsequent reconfiguration. The colonization of the so-called "empty spaces" by States in the nineteenth century for mainly geopolitical reasons (Rodríguez, 2002) resulted in the invasion and pillaging of indigenous territories. Subsequent settlement movements towards the interior of each country saw geopolitical and economic factors combine with demographic and regionalistic ones, along with economic diversification which promoted the

formation of urban settlements. This led to a rearrangement in the spatial distribution of the hegemonic society and consolidated the appropriation of indigenous spaces, lands, territories and natural resources. In a sense, current territorial conflicts between indigenous people and rural settlers are one of the negative after-effects of that process.

With the consolidation of market economies and profound structural transformations within States during the last two decades of the twentieth century, indigenous lands again fell victim to the increasing advance of development projects such as dams, highways, bridges, mining, large-scale timbering and oil exploration and extraction (Deruyttere, 1997; United Nations, 2006a and b; IWGIA, 2006). This led to invasions, pillaging and consequent indigenous migrations (Daes, 2001). In addition, indigenous peoples have also migrated away from their communities of origin as a result of their current struggle for subsistence. Although the economic dimension is not the only factor influencing territorial mobility, it can be described as the main shaping force behind spatial distribution (Rodríguez, 2002).

The demographic dimension is another important factor in territorial redistribution. On the one hand, high levels of mortality can bring about a sharp drop in a group's population, as in the case of the Xavante people of Pimental Barbosa or Etéñitépa (Brazil), who suffered a population crisis from the 1940s due to epidemics and violence (Ventura Santos, Flowers and Coimbra Jr, 2005). Another factor is the high demographic vulnerability of Amazonian peoples in Bolivia: a total of 10 indigenous peoples were wiped out during the twentieth century as a result of contact with the outside world (Valenzuela, 2004). On the other

¹⁸ Land requirements depend on the economic basis of each indigenous people and the activities engaged in, such as hunting, fishing or agriculture and how these take place (continuous cropping or crop rotation, for example). The proportion of productive and fertile land must also be taken into account (Renshaw, 2004). It is not therefore surprising that some peoples require large areas of land in relation to their population size.

hand, some indigenous peoples are sustaining elevated growth rates thanks to high fertility and the decrease in mortality. This population pressure on land that is degraded, insufficient and/or invaded by settlers causes territorial mobility, some of it towards cities, as will be discussed below.

(b) Methodological reflections and the need for a new approach

Given the information available and with a view to producing a comparable analysis for the 10 countries, the study of territorial distribution is based on the conventional urban/rural division, before moving on to first-level political and administrative units. In assessing the scope of our analysis, a number of important aspects need to be considered.

In terms of territorial rights, statistical systems should be able to provide information on the various aspects (social, demographic, biotic, physiographical, etc.) of indigenous territories, including the location of human settlements and their spatial distribution. One key element is being able to determine the geographical boundaries of the territory, considering the real limits of sociocultural interaction for each village. However, this can be a difficult task when several ethnic groups live in the same territory or when members of a certain group extend over a large part of the country (as in Guatemala and Mexico). Political will is another important factor.¹⁹

Although most Latin American countries have made significant progress in the constitutional and even legal recognition of indigenous territories, the implementation of that recognition in the region has been sadly lacking (Toledo, 2005). This is reflected in the lack of information in the region in terms of indigenous territorial units. There is insufficient mapping of those territories for the purposes of

meaningful georeferencing. Panama has made some advances, with the creation of five indigenous communal landholdings (*comarcas*),²⁰ as has Costa Rica, with 22 legally and administratively defined territories (Solano, 2004), which can be linked with census information. In Paraguay and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela (the only countries to carry out an indigenous census in the early 2000s), communities are geographically identified in census databases. The Brazilian Geographical and Statistical Institute (IBGE) incorporates the cartography of the Indian National Foundation (FUNAI) on indigenous reserves or protected areas, although the territorial boundaries do not always coincide, as only legally recognized areas are circumscribed by the Geographical and Statistical Institute.²¹

Beyond these specific cases, political and administrative units do not tend to coincide with indigenous territories, even when smaller scale divisions are used. The impact on analysis is even greater as far as indigenous peoples themselves are concerned: the Mixtecos in Mexico, for instance, are spread over three federal states. In Panama, according to the 2000 census, 52.5% of the entire indigenous population resided in indigenous landholdings, while 47.5% lived elsewhere. However, although indigenous landholdings function as administrative units, only the Kuna, Ngöbe and Emberá peoples have been able to obtain legislation for their *comarca*. Nonetheless, the Buglé and Wounaan peoples (in the Ngöbe and Emberá districts, respectively) are demanding their own *comarcas*, as are the Naso Teribe and Bri Bri peoples (IDB/ECLAC, 2005c). Also, where demarcations exist, they do not necessarily correspond to their territories. This is the case for the Ngöbe people, 60% of whom live in the landholding of the same name; the great majority of the remainder live in the

¹⁹ Ecuador and Mexico have adopted methodological approaches that aim to identify indigenous settlements and communities within a geographical space for the purposes of public policymaking. They basically identify indigenous communities or villages based on the relative numbers involved (Serrano, Embriz and Fernández Ham, 2002 and CODENPE, 2001). In both countries, there are constraints owing to their political and administrative divisions.

²⁰ The landholdings of Kuna Yala (1953), Ngöbe Buglé (1997) and Emberá (1983, changed to Emberá Wounaan by decree in 1999) are first-level political and administrative areas and Kuna de Madungandí (1998) and Wargandí (2000) are resettlements (third level).

²¹ The Indian National Foundation (FUNAI) recognizes 604 indigenous lands, 480 of which are demarcated and approved or in the demarcation process, and 124 of which are in the process of being identified or recognized (IWGIA, 2006).

neighbouring provinces of Bocas del Toro and Chiriquí, with a significant presence in the rural areas surrounding the *comarca*.

Notwithstanding the above, indigenous peoples are part of national States and it therefore makes sense, in terms of policies and programmes, to look into their territorial location on the basis of the country's political and administrative divisions. The indigenous peoples themselves also need a similar overview, not only because they have settlements beyond their territories, but also because having their own interpretations of regional and national dynamics will make it easier for them to position themselves and stand them in better stead for becoming genuine stakeholders (Gamboa, 2006).

Studies on the territorial distribution of indigenous peoples should definitely facilitate the visualization of their ancestral territories and the settlements outside them. One potential solution to be considered during the 2010 round of censuses could be to redefine census segments with a view to statistically reconstructing indigenous territories as valid jurisdictions, which can already be done in Brazil and Costa Rica. This would clearly have to be carried out with the full participation of the indigenous peoples. Some agencies in particular have made significant progress in territorial demarcation, such as the National Institute for the Development of Andean, Amazonian and Afro-Peruvian Peoples, in Peru. Progress is needed in the cartographic harmonization of indigenous organizations and agencies and national statistical institutes, with a view to making the most of census data and other information. It is also clear that the census question about self-definition remains indispensable for a comprehensive overview of the various areas (inside and outside their territories).

In the case of urban settlements (outside the ancestral territories), the individual question on

self-identification and the georeferenced disaggregation of census data would provide an initial approximation (at the neighbourhood level, for example) and would also enable sociodemographic characterizations to be made. Nevertheless, it is vital to increase knowledge about these new living areas in terms of the formation of sociocultural identities, their ties with the communities of origin and their coexistence with other population groups (Quesnel, 2006); hence the need for in-depth qualitative studies.

(c) Rural and urban indigenous population groups: two faces of the same peoples

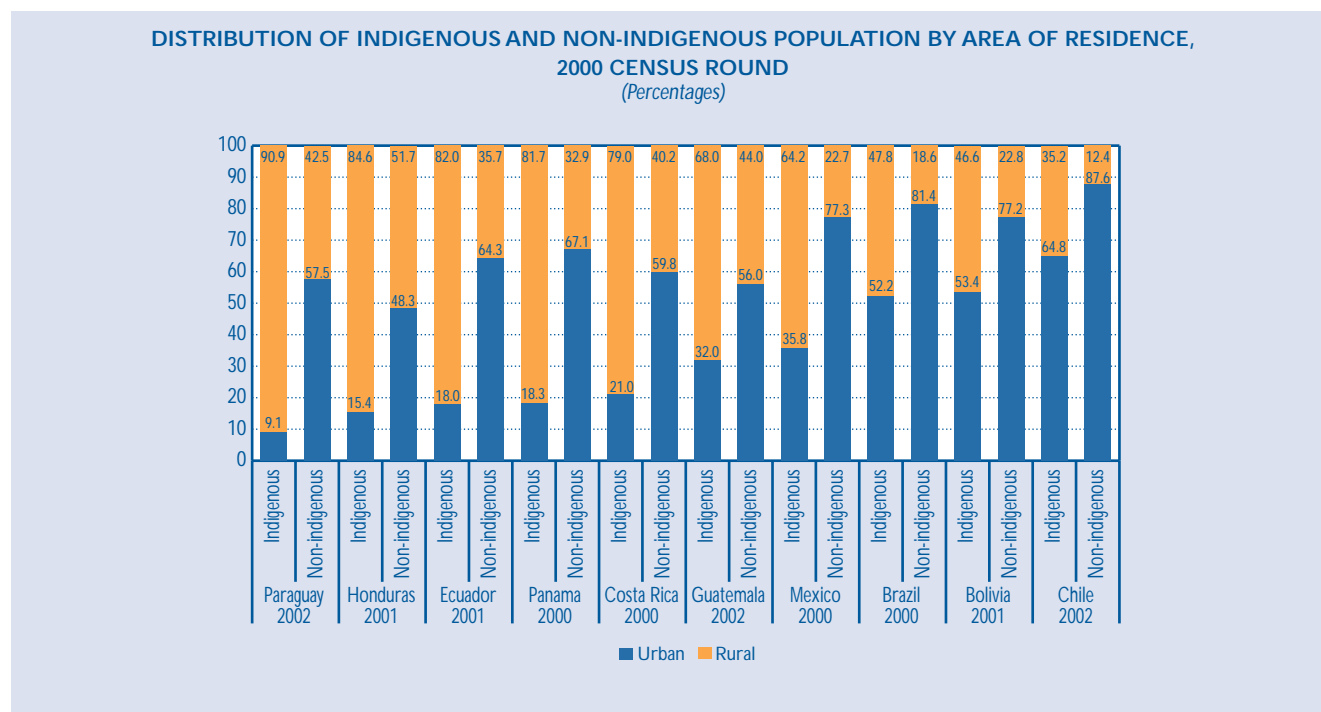
Broadly speaking, high percentages of indigenous people in rural areas correspond to ancestral territories²² and displacement areas to which they have been reduced. One current trend is the high level of ethnic diversity in cities, although this varies by country across the region. As shown in figure III.2, in half of the 10 countries studied, at least 80% of the indigenous population lives in rural areas (Costa Rica, Ecuador, Honduras, Panama and Paraguay). In Guatemala and Mexico about one in three indigenous individuals live in urban areas, while in the remaining three countries (Bolivia, Brazil and Chile) over half the indigenous population live in cities (particularly in Chile, where the proportion rises to 64.8%).

Several factors have influenced internal migration from rural to urban areas, including lack of territory, demographic pressure on land, the interests of national and multinational corporations, environmental degradation, poverty, water shortages and the quest for better economic and educational opportunities.²³ These factors interact in different ways depending on the historical and territorial context, thereby generating considerable heterogeneity among peoples.

²² This refers to territories which were occupied by indigenous peoples and where customary law was in force until the arrival of the European conquistadors.

²³ A qualitative study carried out in Panama showed that one of the main reasons why Kunas migrate from their landholding to Panama City was the lack of secondary and higher education options (UNDP, 2002). This mobility is also family-based and collective.

Figure III.2



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

In the two countries with the highest proportion of urban indigenous population, the situation is practically unrelated to the people of origin. There are high levels of urbanization among all the five main peoples in Bolivia and the eight peoples recognized in the census in Chile. In Bolivia, however, Chiquitanos and Mojeños do settle in cities more than the average (figure III.3). In Chile, 62.4% of Mapuches live in urban areas, while this proportion is significantly higher (over 80%) among the seven other indigenous peoples. The national context (in this case the country's level of urbanization) does influence how many members of the same people live in urban areas. Examples include the different results for the Aymara and the Quechua in Bolivia and Chile (see figure III.3).

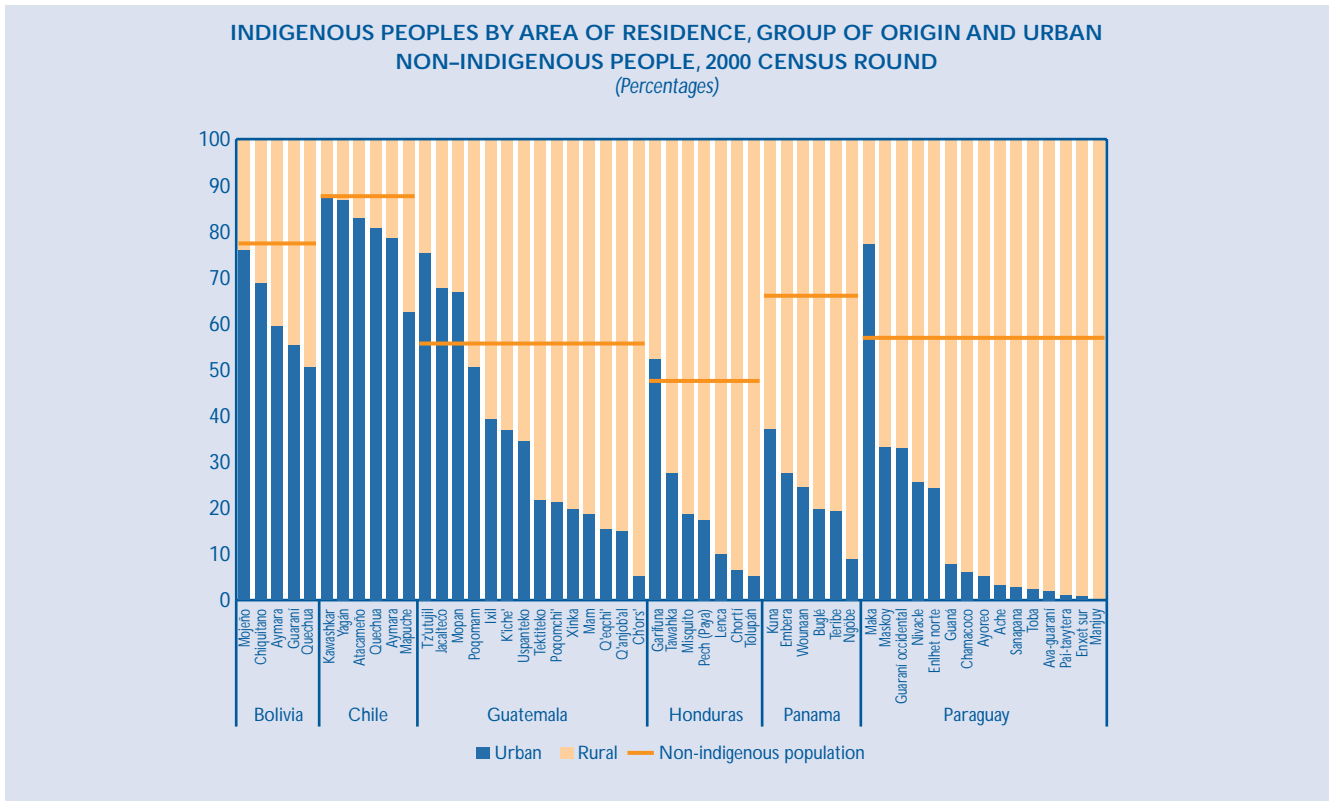
In countries where the indigenous population is predominantly rural, the size of urban settlements varies according to the indigenous group concerned (as shown in figure III.3). In Guatemala, for instance, whereas the Q'eqchi', Mam and Q'anjob'al peoples live mostly in rural areas, the Tz'utujil, Jacalteco and Mopán peoples live mainly in cities

(over 65% of their population). Similar differences can be observed in all the other countries under consideration.

Despite the numbers of indigenous people living in urban areas, it should be borne in mind that indigenous demands are based on territorial rights as a necessary requirement for developing their identity as autonomous peoples. Guaranteeing the exercise of these rights represents a huge challenge for States in a context of, inter alia, globalization and pressure to control territories and the exploitation of natural resources.

In addition, self-recognition among indigenous peoples in urban areas responds to an indigenous consciousness linked to their ancestral territory. Several studies show that urban indigenous peoples maintain their sociocultural systems while in the cities and retain their ties with their communities of origin (Camus, 2002; UNDP, 2002). However, the figures highlight the challenge that growing urbanization poses for indigenous peoples, including the possible loss of culture and identity. For

Figure III.3



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

governments, this emphasizes the need to tackle and overcome the problems that indigenous people in urban areas are faced with, including the lack of equal opportunities in terms of access to decent employment and basic services like health and education, and other psychosocial problems resulting from the loss of traditional support networks (Del Popolo and Oyarce, 2005). The intercultural approach cannot be ignored in the search for solutions; it provides the only way to guarantee the right of indigenous peoples to cultural integrity.

d) Focusing on regions of indigenous settlement: distribution by major administrative division

The results of the 2000 round of censuses demonstrate that, in the 10 countries considered, the indigenous population is spread out over most of

each country's territory. It is generally possible to determine which major administrative divisions have been home to indigenous settlements since before the European conquest, and those where indigenous populations have resettled. Furthermore, an analysis by original peoples of origin (or failing that, by language spoken) shows the diversity of peoples that live in any given area.

The main point illustrated by table III.4 is the different territorial distribution of indigenous and non-indigenous populations.²⁴ The distribution of the indigenous population is mostly in areas that include their ancestral territories, while the distribution of the non-indigenous population is more associated with the country's main city or metropolitan area. This typical pattern of the hegemonic society was consolidated in the previous century (Rodríguez, 2002).

²⁴ Includes those administrative divisions having the highest proportion of indigenous population, which total at least 50% of the country's indigenous population.

Table III.4

PERCENTAGE OF INDIGENOUS AND NON-INDIGENOUS POPULATION IN THE LARGEST MAJOR ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS, 2000 CENSUS ROUND ^a				
Country	Indigenous		Non-indigenous	
Bolivia	La Paz	35.9	Santa Cruz	40.7
	Cochabamba	21.4	La Paz	16.3
	Santa Cruz	14.7	Cochabamba	11.3
	Potosí	11.7	Tarija	10.0
Brazil	Amazonas	15.4	São Paulo	21.9
	Bahia	8.8	Minas Gerais	10.6
	São Paulo	8.7	Rio de Janeiro	8.5
	Mato Grosso do Sul	7.3	Bahia	7.7
	Minas Gerais	6.6	Rio Grande do Sul	6.0
	Rio Grande do Sul	5.3	Paraná	5.7
Chile	Araucanía	29.5	Santiago Metropolitan Area	40.7
	Santiago Metropolitan Area	27.7	Bío Bío	12.5
	Región de Los Lagos	14.7	Valparaíso	10.5
	Bío Bío	7.8	Región de Los Lagos	6.7
Costa Rica	Limón	39.2	San José	35.6
	Puntarenas	23.5	Alajuela	19.0
	San José	14.4	Cartago	11.5
Ecuador	Chimborazo	18.5	Guayas	28.8
	Pichincha	11.5	Pichincha	20.2
	Imbabura	10.5	Manabí	10.4
	Cotopaxi	10.1	Los Ríos	5.7
Guatemala	Alta Verapaz	15.6	Guatemala City	33.2
	Quiché	12.6	San Marcos	8.2
	Huehuetenango	12.0	Escuintla	7.5
	Chimaltenango	7.7	Jutiapa	5.7
Honduras	Lempira	25.0	Francisco Morazan	19.3
	Intibuca	17.4	Cortes	18.8
	Gracias a Dios	11.7	Yoro	7.6
Mexico	Oaxaca	23.9	Mexico	14.1
	Chiapas	13.8	Federal District	9.4
	Yucatan	9.2	Veracruz	7.0
	Veracruz	9.0	Jalisco	7.0
Panama	Comarca Ngöbe Bugle	37.4	Panama	52.8
	Bocas del Toro	17.3	Chiriquí	13.3
	Panama	14.1	Veraguas	8.0
Paraguay	Boquerón	22.7	Central	26.8
	Presidente Hayes	22.5	Alto Paraná	10.9
	Amambay	12.1	Asunción	8.9

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

^a The principal major administrative divisions are those which have the largest indigenous or non-indigenous population, as appropriate.

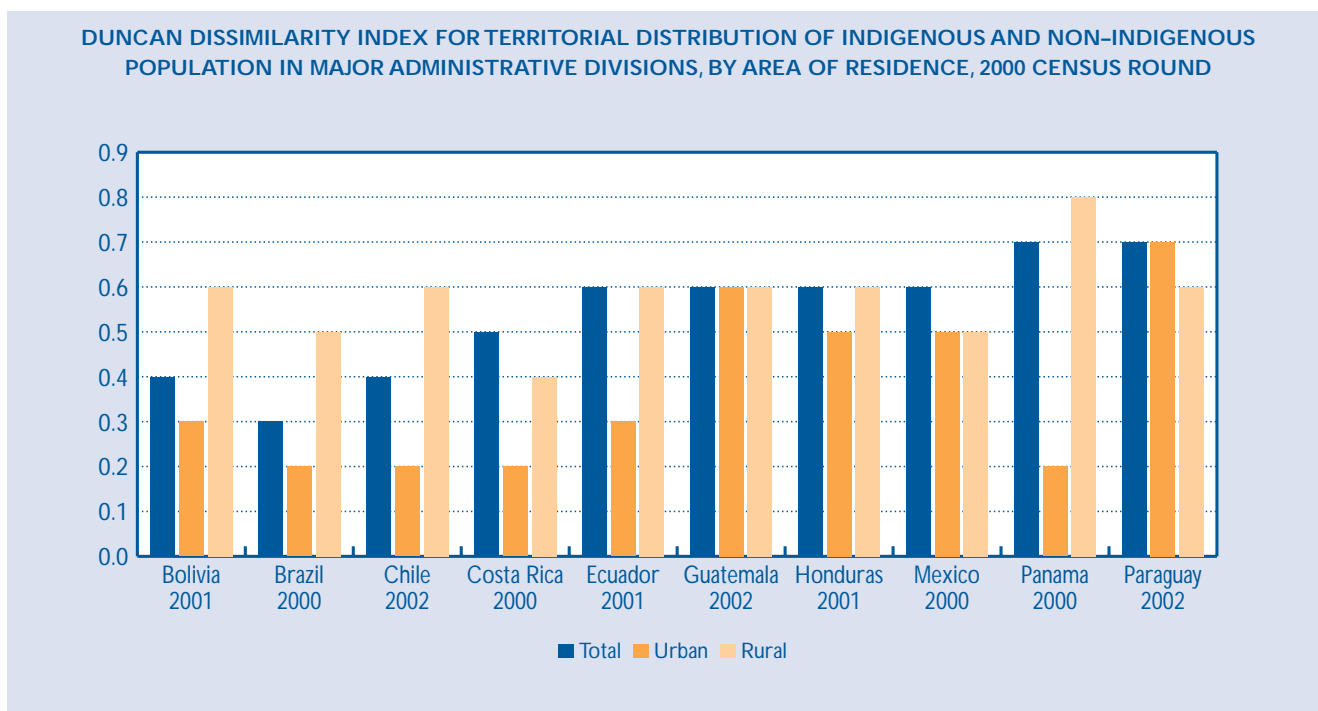
Also noteworthy is that, in six of the 10 countries (Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Ecuador and Panama), the area including the largest city or the national capital is home to some of the highest proportions of indigenous population, although it is never in first place (except in Bolivia). In the other four countries (Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico and Paraguay), the metropolitan areas definitely have a lower proportion of indigenous population groups. The non-indigenous population is more predominant in metropolitan areas compared with the indigenous population (except in Honduras and Mexico).

In order to summarize the differences in territorial distribution by major administrative division, the Duncan dissimilarity index was calculated as presented in figure III.4.²⁵ High values (those close to 1) show the differences between the distribution of indigenous and non-indigenous populations for all countries except the most

urbanized ones (Bolivia, Brazil and Chile). In other words, the geographical location of the indigenous population is very different to that of the non-indigenous population, as the former tend to live mainly in settlements linked to ancestral territories.

In terms of the areas of residence, it is interesting to note that the territorial distribution of the urban indigenous population is not significantly different from that of the non-indigenous urban population in Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Ecuador, Costa Rica and Panama. However, the patterns of rural settlement are significantly different (although less so in Costa Rica). In Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico and Paraguay, there are considerable differences in territorial distribution based on ethnicity in both urban and rural areas. Considering that it is no coincidence that indigenous populations live in areas with less access to basic services and higher levels of poverty, these results show how urgent it is

Figure III.4



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

²⁵ The Duncan dissimilarity index varies between 0 and 1: the nearer to one, the more unequal the distribution between indigenous and non-indigenous population. It can also be interpreted as the percentage of indigenous population who would have to change their area of residence to achieve an equal distribution.

to formulate policies based on territorial location. As Delaunay (2003) concludes in the case of Mexico, offering integration to people rather than to regions encourages social discrimination against the indigenous population as a whole, encouraging indigenous people (in the event of migration or upward social mobility) to abandon their ethnic references, which in turn contributes to the dissolution of cultural diversity.

The data in table III.4 should be complemented by taking into account the different peoples in each country. By way of example, there follows a description of four situations in certain countries of the Southern Cone.

In Chile, the territorial distribution of the indigenous population is dominated by the Mapuche, who make up 87.3% of the country's indigenous population. Yet these aggregate figures do not show, for instance, that 84.4% of the second-largest indigenous group (the Aymara) live in the First Region in the north (Tarapacá), and that, of the Atacameño people, 66% live in Antofagasta (Second Region) and 14.4% live in Atacama (Third Region). Although knowing which areas have the highest concentration of indigenous population is important for policymaking, in the context of recognition for indigenous peoples, demographic weight is not the only factor to consider, as distinctions also need to be made for each indigenous group.

In Ecuador, over half the indigenous population lives in the mountain provinces of Chimborazo, Pichincha, Imbabura and Cotopaxi, as a result of the inter-Andean Quechua domination of the pre-Inca

period. There are currently 13 indigenous peoples or nationalities in the mountains, whose members all speak languages belonging to the Quechua or Kichwa family. In addition, almost 20% of the total indigenous population lives in the six Amazonian provinces.

Brazil has over 200 indigenous peoples, speaking about 180 languages (Pagliaro, Azevedo and Ventura Santos, 2005). Of this indigenous population, 29% lives in the north of the country (particularly in the state of Amazonas), including the Yanomami, Macuxi, Awá, Kaixana, Ticuna, Wai Wai, Hixcariana, Kokama, Ti Mirim and Ti Araca peoples, plus some groups living in voluntary isolation. Another 45% are divided almost equally between the north-east and south-east regions, mainly in Bahía and São Paulo (such as the Karajá, Xavante and Tupinkin peoples); and the remainder of the indigenous population live in the southern states and mostly speak languages of the Guaraní family. The fact that the state of São Paulo has the third largest indigenous population (the state is home to 9% of the country's indigenous people) reflects mobility towards urban centres.

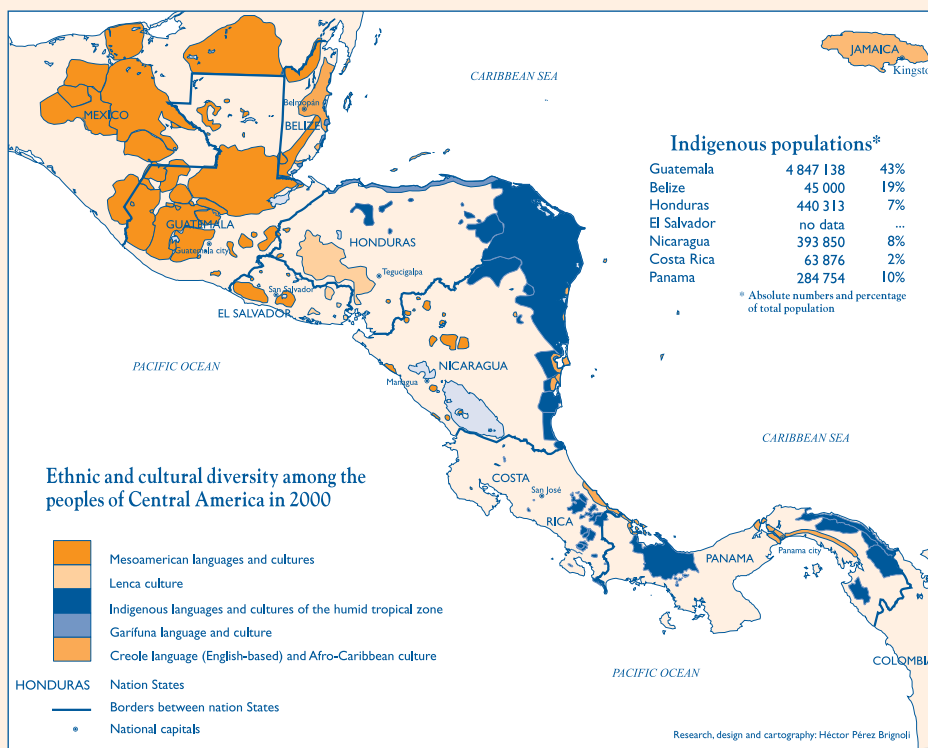
Lastly, Bolivia is an exceptional case. The two main areas are home to the two largest peoples (Quechua and Aymara) and the third major administrative division with indigenous presence is characterized by a variety of indigenous peoples: Guaranís, Chiquitanos and other Amazonian peoples, plus a significant proportion of Quechuas and –to a lesser extent– Aymaras, as a result of a series of waves of migration since the mid-nineteenth century (IDB/ECLAC, 2005a). Box III.5 describes the situation in Central America.

ETHNIC DIVERSITY IN CENTRAL AMERICA

The map below shows the territorial location of indigenous peoples in Central America. A review of the distribution by major administrative divisions in table III.4 shows that there are settlements in and outside ancestral territories. The map also shows that jurisdictional demarcation does not correspond to the indigenous territories of each people.

In Costa Rica, most legalized indigenous territories are in the provinces of Limón (8 out of 22) and Puntarenas (10 out of 22). Out of the eight indigenous peoples, the largest group is the Bri Bri, who have four territories in the two provinces (two in Limón and two in Puntarenas) and the Cabécar, whose seven territories are in Puntarenas, including the Nairi Awari, Alto Chirripó and Chirripó territories, which also extend into the neighbouring province of Cartago (Pérez Brignoli, 2005).

In Panama, the province having the largest indigenous population is that of the largest indigenous group, the Ngöbe people. The second largest is Bocas del Toro, where the Ngöbe are also the main indigenous population group, although the province is also home to most of the Teribe and Bri Bri peoples (IDB/ECLAC, 2005c). However, the figures in table III.4 fail to reflect the territorial location of entire peoples such as the Kuna, Emberá and Wounaan.



Source: Héctor Pérez Brignoli, "La dinámica demográfica de las poblaciones indígenas del trópico húmedo en América Central (censos 2000)", document presented at the twenty-fifth International Conference of the International Union for the Scientific Study of Population (IUSSP), Tours, 18 – 23 July 2005.

Note: The boundaries and names shown on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the United Nations.

In Guatemala, territorial distribution is dominated by the Mayan people, who make up 99.5% of the country's indigenous population. However, it is possible to identify 21 Mayan groups and their distribution varies widely, especially in the departments of Huehuetenango and Quiché in the north–western region. In Alto Verapaz (which borders with Quiché on the east), there is a majority of Q'eqchi' and Poqomchi'; in Quiché the largest groups are the K'iche', Ixil and Q'eqchi'; and in Huehuetenango, the Mam, Q'anjob'al, Cluj, Jacalteco and Akateco are the most strongly represented. The Garifunas are mostly (59%) in the department of Izabal, which borders on Belize and Honduras; while the Xinca live mainly in the department of Jutiapa, which shares a border with El Salvador.

The Lenca people is the largest group in Honduras (representing 65.3% of the total indigenous population); its presence helps to give the western departments of Lempira and Intibuca the highest proportion of indigenous people. The third major administrative division appears in table III.4 owing to the high concentration of Miskitos (the country's second largest

ETHNIC DIVERSITY IN CENTRAL AMERICA

indigenous group) in the department of Gracias a Dios, which is on the Caribbean coast and borders on Nicaragua to the south (in fact, the map shows that these indigenous people also live on the Nicaraguan Mosquitia). Most Garifunas (the third largest indigenous group) live in the north of the country, on the Caribbean coast (departments of Atlántida and Colón) and in Puerto Cortés (which borders on Guatemala).

As for Mexico, its cultural diversity is reflected in its 62 indigenous languages plus their dialects, and the states of Chiapas, Oaxaca and Yucatán are home to the largest numbers of indigenous people and boast considerable ethnic diversity (especially the first two). In Oaxaca, the main indigenous peoples are Zapotecos, Mixtecos, Mazatecos, Chinantecos and Mixes. In Chiapas, the Tzotzil, Tzeltal, Chol, Zoque and Tjolabal peoples predominate, while the indigenous group in Yucatán is Mayan (Serrano, Embriz and Fernández, 2002).

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC.

In summary, the areas with the largest indigenous population are determined by the presence of the largest indigenous group (Chile, Honduras and Panama); of peoples belonging to the same linguistic family (Ecuador and Guatemala); of various indigenous peoples (Brazil, Costa Rica, Mexico and Paraguay); and, in the case of Bolivia, of the two largest indigenous groups living in the two main administrative divisions, with a third major area characterized by a diversity of indigenous peoples.

Another interesting line of enquiry is to examine the number of indigenous people as a proportion of the total population in each area. In some countries, considering those areas with the largest indigenous presence (in relation to total population in each major administrative area), these administrative divisions are almost entirely populated by indigenous people. This is true of Potosí, La Paz, Cochabamba and Oruro in Bolivia; Totoncapán, Solola, Alta Verapaz, Quiche and Chimaltenango in Guatemala; Gracias a Dios in Honduras; and the three *comarcas* in Panama. In other countries, the indigenous population represents between 40% and 55% of the total population of such areas, as in Napo and Morona Santiago (Ecuador), Lempira and Intibucá (Honduras), Oaxaca (Mexico) and Boquerón (Paraguay). In other cases, indigenous people are

minorities which make up less than 10% of the total population, for example, in Roraima and Amazonas (Brazil) and in Limón and Puntarenas (Costa Rica).

The gender breakdown of the population in each area varies from country to country, some areas show a female majority, some balanced proportions and some a predominance of men. This is mainly a result of both internal and international migration, and may also reflect differential declarations of ethnic status. Each indigenous people has its own mobility patterns, sometimes associated with differences in life cycles that determine who is to migrate. In terms of general trends, Brazil, Chile and Costa Rica show greater numbers of indigenous women in the area containing the largest city or the metropolitan region, while areas associated with ancestral territories have more men. In Ecuador and Panama the opposite applies, except in the *comarca* of the Emberá people.

For Bolivia and Guatemala, it is more difficult to schematize the results as there is such a large indigenous population and so much diversity in terms of peoples. Broadly speaking, in Guatemala, the predominance of indigenous women both in the main areas of indigenous population and in the department of Guatemala seems to be the result of

selective international migration. In Paraguay, most areas have a male majority. In Mexico, areas with a higher proportion of indigenous people show a balanced composition in terms of gender, except for Oaxaca and the major administrative division of Mexico state, where women are in the majority. In half of all the federal states (16) men dominate, there is a balance in four, and in the remaining states (12) there are more women in indigenous areas.

Data from the project on Spatial Distribution and Urbanization in Latin America and the Caribbean (DEPUALC) show that in several countries, rural areas with large numbers of indigenous people are showing positive inter-census growth in urban areas. In some cases, these growth rates even outstrip the figures from previous inter-census periods. This reflects a recovery in rural demographic growth, in contrast to overall national averages. This is the case in the rural areas of Potosí, La Paz, Cochabamba and Oruro (Bolivia); the state of Amazonas (Brazil), the Tarapacá region (Chile); Alta Verapaz, Quiché and Chimaltenango (Guatemala); and the department of Gracias a Dios (Honduras). In Ecuador, Mexico, Panama and Paraguay, rural areas with relatively high indigenous populations reflect the region-wide trend towards rural depopulation (Rodríguez, 2002). Except in Panama, where *comarcas* are markedly indigenous, in the other countries these results must be interpreted with caution as there is no clear evidence as to whether migration levels are the same for indigenous and non-indigenous populations and, consequently, as to which ethnicity loses or gains in numbers.

Lastly, the allocation of resources and the implementation of targeted policies require the most precise territorial identification possible for each people. Although municipal demarcations have their disadvantages in terms of not corresponding to indigenous territories, decentralization processes in Latin American countries mean that local authorities have a greater role in solving the

socio-economic problems affecting indigenous peoples. In addition, it is through these very channels that indigenous peoples are becoming empowered. It is therefore important to identify municipalities with a high proportion of indigenous population. By way of example, in Bolivia and Guatemala, 77% and 51% respectively of all municipalities have a high proportion of indigenous population (least 40% of the total). In Honduras, Mexico and Panama, about one in every five municipalities (21%, 23% and 17%, respectively) fall into that category. The figure for Ecuador is 10%, and in the other countries (Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica and Paraguay), fewer than 6% of municipalities have that level of indigenous population. Although it is beyond the scope of this chapter to go into further detail, censuses definitely offer the potential for more detailed analysis on smaller units of territory.

(e) Urban indigenous people: new living spaces and reproduction of inequality

Indigenous settlements in urban areas are a cause for concern, both in terms of the implications for the communities of origin, and with regard to living conditions and the cultural and social changes which indigenous persons in cities may experience. On the surface, living in urban areas provides better access to State services, and indeed this is borne out by the information provided below (in relation to infant mortality, for instance). However, socio-economic indicators are still more unfavourable among indigenous peoples, partly because they tend to settle in marginal areas, where inequity is reproduced and heightened as a result of the lack of opportunities and problems with cultural accessibility of State programmes and services.

One of the most striking features of urbanization in Latin America is the existence of large metropolitan areas. As pointed out by Rodríguez (2002, p. 33), there are historical reasons why the region has many large cities. "Although the basic settlement pattern in pre-Colombian times was

rural, the most powerful civilizations (Incas and Aztecs) built huge cities to concentrate their resources. The urban inclination of the colonizers encouraged them to found many cities as power and defence mechanisms, and they used the native urban networks fairly systematically as a basis for their settlements." Notwithstanding those origins, the big cities really came into being during the twentieth century. Another noteworthy characteristic of the region is the high concentration of population in the largest cities (although some countries have two main cities, as in Bolivia, Brazil, Ecuador

and Honduras, while Mexico has an urban system with numerous nodes that offset the main city (Rodríguez, 2002).

In this context, the main question is whether indigenous populations who have migrated to cities have followed the same patterns as the dominant society, and whether they therefore form urban systems similar to non-indigenous ones. The figures in table III.5 suggest a negative answer to that question, at least in aggregate terms, although the two groups do have common features.

Table III.5

DISTRIBUTION OF THE URBAN POPULATION BY MAIN URBAN CENTRES, ETHNICITY AND PRIMACY INDEX OF MAIN CITY								
Country	Ethnicity	Main urban centres			Other urban areas	Urban total		Primacy index ^a
Bolivia		La Paz	Santa Cruz	Cochabamba				
	Indigenous	37.0	12.8	11.5	38.7	100	2 676 057	1.5
	Non-indigenous	17.6	31.9	8.3	42.2	100	2 352 273	1.2
Brazil		São Paulo	Río de Janeiro	Salvador				
	Indigenous	8.1	7.8	6.0	78.1	100	383 298	0.6
	Non-indigenous	São Paulo	Río de Janeiro	Belo Horizonte				
	12.4	8.0	2.9	76.7	100	136 620 255	1.1	
Chile		Santiago	Temuco	Arica				
	Indigenous	39.8	6.4	5.1	48.8	100	448 382	3.5
	Non-indigenous	Santiago	Valparaíso	Concepción				
	41.2	6.4	5.2	47.2	100	12 641 731	3.6	
Costa Rica		San José	Limón	Heredia				
	Indigenous	43.3	12.5	4.4	39.9	100	13 383	2.6
	Non-indigenous	San José	Heredia	Cartago				
	45.8	6.4	5.6	42.2	100	2 180 867	3.8	
Ecuador		Quito	Guayaquil	Otavalo				
	Indigenous	27.7	20.3	4.8	47.3	100	149 832	1.1
	Non-indigenous	Guayaquil	Quito	Cuenca				
	29.2	18.6	3.8	48.3	100	7 281 523	1.3	
Guatemala		Guatemala	Quetzaltenango	Chichicastenango				
	Indigenous	10.7	3.9	3.0	82.4	100	1 474 868	1.6
	Non-indigenous	Guatemala	Quetzaltenango	Escuintla				
	49.1	1.7	2.3	46.9	100	3 709 967	12.4	

Table III.5 (concluded)

DISTRIBUTION OF THE URBAN POPULATION BY MAIN URBAN CENTRES, ETHNICITY AND PRIMACY INDEX OF MAIN CITY								
Country	Ethnicity	Main urban centres			Other urban areas	Urban total		Primacy index ^e
Honduras	Indigenous	San Pedro Sula 17.1	La Ceiba 13.2	Brus Laguna 8.6	61.1	100	65 760	0.8
	Non-indigenous	Tegucigalpa ^b 28.4	San Pedro Sula 17.1	La Ceiba 4.0	50.4	100	2 729 192	1.4
Mexico	Indigenous	Mexico City 6.9	Mérida 3.3	Juchitán de Zaragoza 3.1	86.7	100	2 186 694	1.0
	Non-indigenous	Mexico City 24.7	Guadalajara 5.0	Monterrey 4.5	65.9	100	68 408 292	2.6
Panama	Indigenous	Panama City 59.0	Changuinola 20.3	Colón 6.5	14.2	100	52 187	2.2
	Non-indigenous	Panama City 69.0	Colón 7.8	David 6.0	17.2	100	1 712 584	5.0
Paraguay	Indigenous	Fernheim 39.2	Asunción 18.4	Menno 14.7	27.8	100	8 093	1.2
	Non-indigenous	Asunción 54.8	Ciudad del Este 7.6	Encarnación 2.3	35.3	100	2 920 344	5.5

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

^a The primacy index is the ratio of the population of the main city to the sum of the populations of the two next largest cities.

^b Central District municipality of the department of Francisco Morazán.

First, in six of the 10 countries considered, urban indigenous people are mainly located in the largest urban centre. This is not the case in the other four countries. The cities with the largest indigenous populations are Quito, in Ecuador; San Pedro Sula, in Honduras; Colonia Fernheim (Boquerón) in Paraguay. In Bolivia, where the population is mainly indigenous, non-indigenous people live mainly in Santa Cruz, which is not the largest city. Bolivia is the only country where the three main cities of settlement are the same for the indigenous and non-indigenous population (albeit in a different order and with dissimilar concentration patterns).

One distinctive aspect of indigenous urban systems is the lesser degree of concentration in the main city, compared with non-indigenous systems, as reflected by the primacy index. The exceptions

are Bolivia, where the index is higher for the indigenous population, and Chile and Ecuador, where the figures are lower for indigenous peoples but nonetheless fairly similar to non-indigenous figures (with a high concentration in the case of Chile). The distribution of the indigenous population shown in table III.5 suggests that the urban segment is fairly complex, in the sense that there seem to be a number of nodes, as is the case throughout Mexico. This is related to the specific cultural characteristics of each people, which are associated with different levels of mobility in terms of the urban centres of destination. They seem to favour those centres that are closest to their communities of origin, as is the case with the Ngöbe people of Panama, who migrate mainly to the neighbouring provinces of Bocas del Toro and Chiriquí, and the Kunas, who move mostly to Panama City.

The previous point is reinforced by another shared characteristic revealed by the figures: indigenous persons living in urban areas tend to be concentrated in cities located in major administrative divisions that have a large indigenous presence and are located in or near their ancestral areas. Examples include Salvador (Bahía, Brazil); Temuco and Arica (in La Araucanía and Tarapacá, Chile); Limón (Costa Rica); Otavalo (Imbabura, Ecuador); Chichicastenango (Quiché, Guatemala); Brus Laguna (Gracias a Dios, Honduras); Mérida and Juchitán de Zaragoza (Yucatán and Oaxaca, Mexico); Changuinola (Bocas del Toro, Panama); and Fernheim and Menno (Boquerón, Paraguay).

Broadly speaking, these results point to at least two migratory patterns: one towards the largest metropolis and another towards an urban centre near ancestral indigenous territories. These patterns can be observed in internal migration in Bolivia, Ecuador and Panama (IDB/ECLAC, 2005a–f). The characteristics of these flows should be investigated further, using the criteria described above, and analysing the factors that contribute to the choice of a particular urban destination and the extent to which these patterns affect ties (or loss thereof) between migrants and their communities of origin. This should then be extended to an analysis by peoples of origin.

D. Diverse demographic profiles: a fresh reading of the differences

In various studies, ECLAC has pointed to the sharp inequalities persisting in Latin America in terms of income distribution and access to productive resources, goods and services of the State, markets and information. These structural factors and the way they interrelate in specific national and territorial contexts are related to major differences in demographic behaviour, especially reproductive patterns and early mortality.

While both the average number of children per woman and the infant mortality rate have declined substantially, greater or lesser disparities may be observed between different socio-economic groups and geographical areas. Comparisons between indigenous and non-indigenous populations reveal differences in mortality and fertility rates, which are systematically higher among the former. This excess mortality reflects the prevailing structural inequity and may be interpreted as a reflection of the gap in the enforcement of the right to health care. As regards fertility, inequalities are a result of inequity, which is reflected in lack of access to basic services and information, but are also due to cultural models peculiar to each people regarding the stages of the life cycle and reproduction. This applies not only to ideals concerning reproduction, but also to the behaviour of proxy variables for fertility, including duration of breastfeeding, marriage rates and the use of contraceptive methods.

Owing especially to high fertility, indigenous peoples usually present a younger age structure than

the national average. This calls for differential priorities in terms of the allocation of resources.

Demographic transition has served as a framework for explaining population trends empirically observed in most countries. The stages of demographic transition correspond to different combinations of demographic variables and, in general, to the phases of a historical process that has been observed, albeit at different rates, in numerous societies. The pre-transitional stage is marked by high levels of fertility and mortality, low population growth and a young age structure characterized by the predominance of the child and young population. Countries have then experienced more or less rapid change in mortality and fertility which has caused high population growth during a certain period but have tended to move towards a stage of advanced demographic transition, in which low mortality and fertility rates, low population growth and an old or ageing population structure are recorded (Chesnais, 1986; Zavala de Cosío, 1992; ECLAC, 1995).

This concept has been useful for understanding the demographic dynamic, but it should be noted that the use of the term "stages" does not imply a demographic determinism or a disregard for the specific characteristics of peoples and cultures, which may tend towards a different demographic pattern. Indeed, some peoples may favour maintaining higher fertility levels than national averages as a way of ensuring their biological and cultural reproduction. Thus, a demographic pattern characterized by low mortality rates and relatively high fertility rates should not be interpreted as backward, provided that it is in keeping with the reproductive ideals of individuals and couples.

Currently, there are many examples of countries in more or less intermediate stages of transition where social –including indigenous– groups with varying fertility and mortality rates coexist (Schkolnik and Chackiel, 1998).

1. Is the age structure solely an expression of demographic transition?

The age and sex structure of the population is a reflection of a country's past fertility, mortality and migration patterns. Its study shows the approximate level of each of these demographic components and how they interact and change over time.

As far as indigenous populations are concerned, the result of the analysis is affected by the identification criterion, whatever it may be. In the case of self-identification, the degree of ethnic awareness may vary from one generation to another. The outcome of the processes of cultural loss and revitalization may lead some age groups to identify themselves as non-indigenous while others may be relatively more ready to claim their indigenous heritage, although it is difficult to determine what

the impact of these processes has been in Latin American contexts.

The age distribution of the total population of the countries of Latin America is not homogeneous, but corresponds to the stage of demographic transition reached by each country (Chackiel, 2004). For example, it should be noted that according to the percentage of persons over the age of 60, the oldest populations in the region are those of Uruguay (17%), Cuba (14%), Argentina (13%) and Chile (11.4%), although the figures are well below those of the oldest populations of Western Europe: for example, Italy (25.6%), Germany (25.1%), Sweden (23.4%), Spain (21.4%) and France (21.1%), (United Nations, 2005b).

The indigenous population in Latin America has an even more youthful age structure than the non-indigenous population, which is reflected in population pyramids with wider bases and smaller apices: the more advanced the age, the sharper the decrease in the size of the group. This shape reflects the fertility differentials between the two populations. Within the relative youth of the indigenous age structures, four types of structure may be identified, ranging from the "youngest" to the most "mature" or "aged" (see annex III.1):

Group 1. Very young structure with a very wide base: Guatemala, Honduras, Panama and Paraguay. These exist alongside less young non-indigenous populations with a less wide base, except in the case of Panama, whose non-indigenous population may plainly be considered to be mature.

Group 2. Young structure with a wide base: Bolivia, Costa Rica, Ecuador and Mexico. The respective non-indigenous populations are mature and are at a very advanced stage of demographic transition, except for Bolivia which continues to have a young structure.

Group 3. Mature structure with a stable base: Brazil. This is combined with a non-indigenous population that is also mature but with a base that is clearly diminishing.

Group 4. Aged structure with a diminishing base: Chile. The indigenous population structure is similar to that of the non-indigenous population and the pyramid is tending to change into a rectangle.

In short, in 8 of the 10 countries examined (see table III, 6), the indigenous population has a young or very young structure (between 38.5% and 47% of its population is under 15 years of age) and its

age structure is more youthful than that of the non-indigenous population. The only cases that diverge from this pattern are Brazil and Chile. In Chile, in particular, the indigenous population shows very similar patterns to those of the non-indigenous population and a marked reduction in the base of the age pyramid, which reflects the decline in fertility during the past two decades. This trend has been described in connection with the Mapuche population, the largest indigenous group in Chile (UFRO/INE/FII/PAESMI/CELADE, 1990; IEI/UFRO/INE, 1999; INE, 2005; Del Popolo and Oyarce, 2005).

Table III.6

LATIN AMERICA: DISTRIBUTION OF THE INDIGENOUS AND NON-INDIGENOUS POPULATION BY EXTREME AGE GROUPS, DEPENDENCY RELATIONSHIP, AGEING INDEX AND SEX RATIO										
Country	Population by age				Ageing index ^a		Dependency relationship ^b		Sex ratio ^c	
	0-14		60 and over		indigenous	Non-indigenous	Indigenous	Non-indigenous	Indigenous	Non-indigenous
	Indigenous	Non-indigenous	Indigenous	Non-indigenous						
Group 1										
Guatemala	46.0	39.7	5.6	6.9	12.2	17.3	106	87	96.6	95.2
Honduras	46.3	41.7	5.7	5.8	12.3	13.9	108	90	99.5	98.0
Panama	45.8	30.5	4.6	9.1	10.0	29.7	102	65	105.1	101.5
Paraguay	47.0	36.9	4.2	7.2	9.0	19.5	105	79	106.7	101.6
Group 2										
Bolivia	39.0	38.6	7.9	5.8	20.2	15.1	88	80	98.3	95.9
Costa Rica	40.8	31.7	5.6	8.0	13.8	25.1	87	66	106.1	99.7
Ecuador	40.6	32.7	8.6	9.1	21.2	28.0	97	72	95.1	98.3
Mexico	38.5	33.6	8.1	7.3	21.0	21.8	87	69	98.1	94.8
Group 3										
Brazil	32.6	29.5	8.4	8.6	25.8	29.0	70	62	99.0	96.9
Group 4										
Chile	26.7	25.7	9.8	11.4	36.9	44.5	57	59	101.6	96.9

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

^a Population (60 years and over/0–15 years)*100.

^b Population (0–14+60 years and over)/(15–59)*100.

^c Population (men/women)*100.

The age structure of the indigenous peoples is reflected also in two other indicators of the age structure of the population: the ageing index and the potential dependency relationship (see table III.6). While in Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, Panama and Paraguay, there are approximately 10 indigenous persons of 60 years of age or older per 100 young indigenous persons under the age of 15, in the case of non-indigenous peoples, this index ranges from 14 to 30 older adults per 100 children and young people. In Bolivia, Ecuador and Mexico, the index for the indigenous population is approximately 20%. Chile presents the maximum, 37% and is the country with the highest percentage of older indigenous persons (9.8%).

Beyond the demographic interpretations, it is interesting to note that for the indigenous peoples, old age does not have a negative connotation but is associated rather with cultural continuity. A person's status and role in society may be enhanced with age, since it is considered that older persons are founts of wisdom and collective memory, which must be transmitted to the young people to ensure the cultural reproduction of the group or people (Ibacache and Painemal, 2001; Huenchuán, 2006). Whether and to what extent these conceptions are maintained must be determined however by the territorial, cultural and demographic realities of each people. For example, a case study of the Zoque people in Chiapas (Mexico) shows how the force of modernity, combined with poverty and marginalization, has eroded the social status and respect shown towards the elderly resulting in a loss of traditional roles and the appreciation they once commanded and affecting their living conditions (Reyes Gómez, 2002).

From a conventional standpoint, the dependency relationship would imply that in countries where the indigenous population is younger, the economic burden is greater for the potentially active population and that this burden is made up mainly of children and young people. As the population ages,

the demographic burden of the inactive population declines and tends to be transferred from children to adults and the elderly, as may be observed in Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica and Mexico (see table III.6). However, to a greater or lesser extent indigenous peoples live in subsistence economies, in which each family member has a specific task to perform (Descola, 1986). Any interpretations must therefore be placed in context, especially if the settlement is a rural one; this relationship may have a different meaning in an urban environment.

In short, while the fast pace of ageing in the region is the most significant demographic phenomenon of the current century, for the indigenous population, the challenges are still centred on the population of children and young people. This means that States must consider setting differential priorities in public policies, not only in terms of the allocation of resources to expand education and health-care coverage, but also, in terms of measures whose content, management and administration are relevant for the indigenous peoples themselves.

As regards the sex ratio, in 3 of the 10 countries considered (Costa Rica, Panama and Paraguay), there is a clear preponderance of males (see table III.6). This may be linked to a sex differential in self-identification as indigenous; in the case of Panama, problems have been described in differential declaration by sex and age (IDB/ECLAC, 2005c). These results may also be influenced by selective international migration by sex. In the case of Costa Rica, some 20% of the indigenous population are international immigrants, with a high masculinity ratio (see the chapter on international migration). These interpretations follow the same logic when the indices are much lower than 100, that is, when there is a preponderance of females. The case of Ecuador could be due to higher international emigration by indigenous men, a trend reported in some studies (Kyle, 2000).

It should be pointed out that the age structure of indigenous populations varies from one ethnic group to another in each country. Figure III.5 illustrates the diversity of patterns. Some peoples, such as the Mbya in Paraguay, the Ngöbe in Panama and the Q'eqchi in Guatemala, follow the general pattern of a younger structure. In these countries, there are also peoples with younger structures, such as the Nivacle, the Kuna and the K'iche, whose fertility is reportedly lower. In Chile, both the Mapuche people and the

Quechua people show clear signs of population ageing and in the latter case, the immigration of Quechua from Bolivia and Peru is also having an impact, a factor that will be examined in greater depth in this document. Lastly, the discontinuities that are presented in the pyramids of some peoples, including the K'iche, may be the result of selective migration as well as of differential self-identification depending on sex and age.

Figure III.5

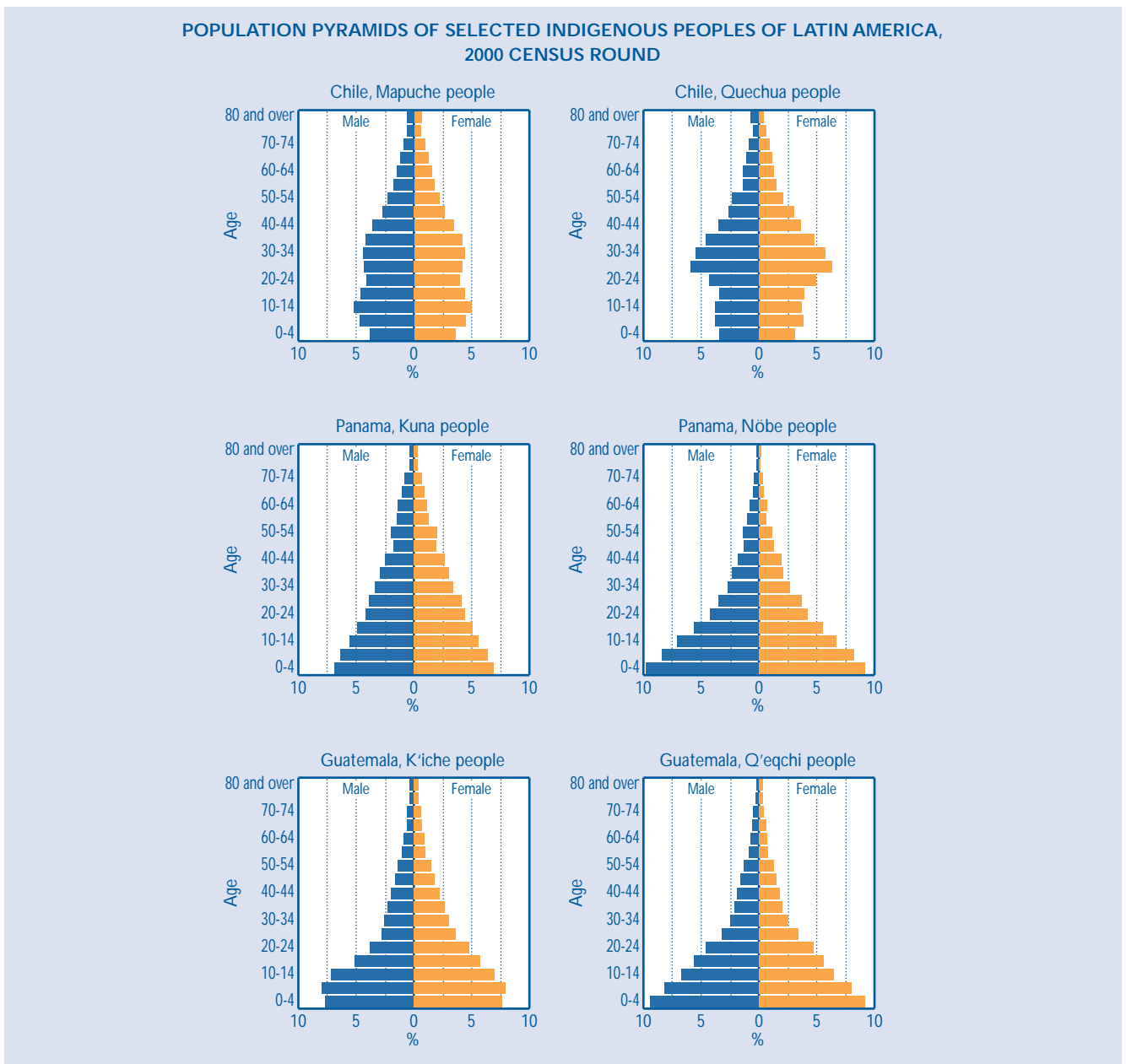
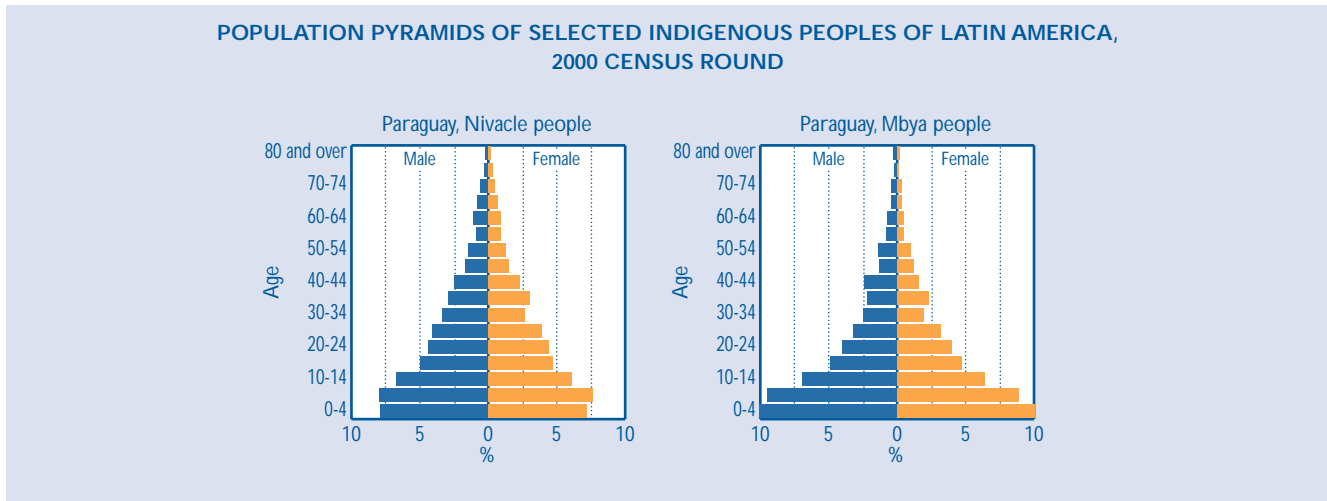


Figure III.5 (concluded)



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

2. Higher fertility rates: between cultural diversity and gaps in access

The human rights and sexual and reproductive rights that must be recognized for all persons include "the basic right of all couples and individuals to decide freely and responsibly the number, spacing and timing of their children and the right to make decisions concerning reproduction free of discrimination, coercion and violence". (United Nations, 1995). In the context of the indigenous peoples, two elements must be added: on the one hand, the role and significance of fertility in the broader context of indigenous peoples' conception of the "right way to live" –which is constantly under threat– according to which children are a means of ensuring biological and cultural reproduction (Quidel and Jineo, 1999).

On the other hand, within the framework of the collective rights to determine their own social and cultural development, the right for indigenous peoples to formulate their own population policies, without this affecting their reproductive rights, which are still being exercised by individuals and

couples. Thus, peoples, couples and individuals must have the necessary information to guarantee their freedom to choose in accordance with their respective cultures and to avail themselves of culturally relevant health and education services.

Since the mid–sixties, as part of the demographic transition process, the Latin American countries have recorded a decline in fertility rates: from a total fertility rate (TFR) of 6 children per women, the rate fell to close to 3 within a period of 30 years.²⁶ Currently, the regional average is 2.5 children and the figures range from 1.6 children per woman in Cuba to 4.4 children in Guatemala (Chackiel, 2004). While the decline has been widespread and sustained, disparities persist between different geographical areas and social groups although rates by education level or socio–economic stratum show no clear convergence (ECLAC, 2005a).

The total fertility rate (TFR) of indigenous peoples is systematically different from national averages. Table III.7 shows that the rates of indigenous women are invariably higher than those of non–indigenous women both in urban and rural areas. Moreover, the TFRs of indigenous populations

²⁶ The total fertility rate refers to the average number of children that would be born to a woman if she were to live to the end of her childbearing years [15 to 49] and bear children at each age in accordance with prevailing age–specific fertility rates. The estimates used in this study are taken from the application of indirect methods (United Nations, 1986), based on census data relating to live–born children and births in the last year declared by women of child–bearing age.

Table III.7

TOTAL FERTILITY RATES (TFR) OF INDIGENOUS AND NON-INDIGENOUS WOMEN, BY AREA OF RESIDENCE, 2000 CENSUS ROUND									
Country ^a	TFR ^b						Relative difference ^c		
	Total		Urban		Rural		Total	Urban	Rural
	Indigenous	Non-indigenous	Indigenous	Non-indigenous	Indigenous	Non-indigenous			
Guatemala	6.5	4.1	5.1	3.2	7.2	5.8	1.6	1.6	1.3
Bolivia	4.7	3.7	3.7	3.3	6.3	5.5	1.3	1.1	1.1
Honduras	5.9	4.2	3.8	3.2	6.4	5.5	1.4	1.2	1.2
Ecuador	5.3	3.0	3.6	2.7	5.8	3.7	1.8	1.4	1.6
Panama	5.9	2.5	4.0	2.2	6.4	3.3	2.3	1.8	1.9
Mexico	4.2	2.6	3.3	2.4	4.9	3.5	1.6	1.4	1.4
Brazil	4.0	2.4	2.8	2.2	6.2	3.6	1.6	1.2	1.7
Chile	2.5	2.2	2.3	2.2	2.9	2.4	1.1	1.1	1.2

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

^a The countries are listed in decreasing order of their national TFR. Costa Rica and Paraguay are excluded, the former because the question on children born in the last year was not included in the census questionnaire, the latter because the information was not available at the material time.

^b The estimates were adjusted using the adjustment factor that reproduced the census total with the official figure of each country for the period 1995–2000.

^c Ratio of the indigenous TFR to the non-indigenous TFR.

shows a wider variability between countries, ranging from an average of 2.5 children per woman to 6.5 children per woman. If Chile is excluded from the analysis, indigenous rates start at 4 children per woman, which happens to be the maximum value recorded for non-indigenous women in the countries considered. Table III.7 reveals furthermore that lower levels of fertility at the national level do not necessarily imply greater convergence between indigenous and non-indigenous rates.

Guatemala, Honduras, Panama and Ecuador have the highest fertility rates for indigenous peoples, and in the case of the last two, the relative differentials for the non-indigenous population are the most significant. Chile is situated at the other extreme: its fertility rates are the lowest for both sectors of the population and reveal the smallest differences between the indigenous and the non-indigenous population. Basically, these results are attributable to the application of specific policies in the health sector throughout the country since the 1960s; in particular, ever since the trend linking modernization to economic growth and the fight against poverty, the expansion of family planning programmes has been heavily promoted

in rural areas, since having too many children was considered to be one of the causes of poverty.

The differences observed should not all be interpreted as equity gaps, since among indigenous peoples, high fertility is usually a value linked to reproduction and the need for physical and cultural survival, although it is also partly related to high levels of child mortality (Pagliaro, 2005; Quidel and Jineo, 1999). Thus gaps in the implementation of reproductive rights should be assessed in the light of gaps between the ideal number of children of indigenous women and couples and the number of children borne in accordance with the cultural models of fertility of each people. For example, demographic and health surveys conducted in Guatemala reveal, first, an increase in the unmet demand for family planning services and, second, that the ideal number of children among indigenous women (which was put at approximately 5 children in 2002) is consistently higher than among non-indigenous women (for whom it is 3 on average) (Del Popolo and Oyarce, 2005). Furthermore, the differences compared with the non-indigenous population are also expressed in the proxy determinants of fertility: early marriage

among indigenous women, more limited use of contraceptives and longer duration of breastfeeding (MSPAS, 2003).²⁷

Moreover, it should be borne in mind that as a result of assimilationist and integrationist policies, many indigenous persons have gradually lost their knowledge and know-how and adopted those of the hegemonic society, but without the chance of access on an equal basis to the goods and services that that society has to offer. Those most affected in this process have been women, which is reflected, for example, in the high maternal mortality rates (Rojas, 2006; Montenegro and Stephens, 2006).

There are studies in Bolivia, Ecuador and Guatemala, which report that contrary to existing stereotypes, indigenous women do not reject family planning –indeed there is a traditional field of knowledge on contraception, based mainly on herbal medicines– but rather the ideology and way in which it is administered in State and biomedical programmes (Schuler, Choque and Rance, 1994; Enge, 1998). The poor quality of services and the lack of cultural appropriateness have been pointed out by various women's organizations and are included among the demands made by indigenous peoples for their rights in the area of health.

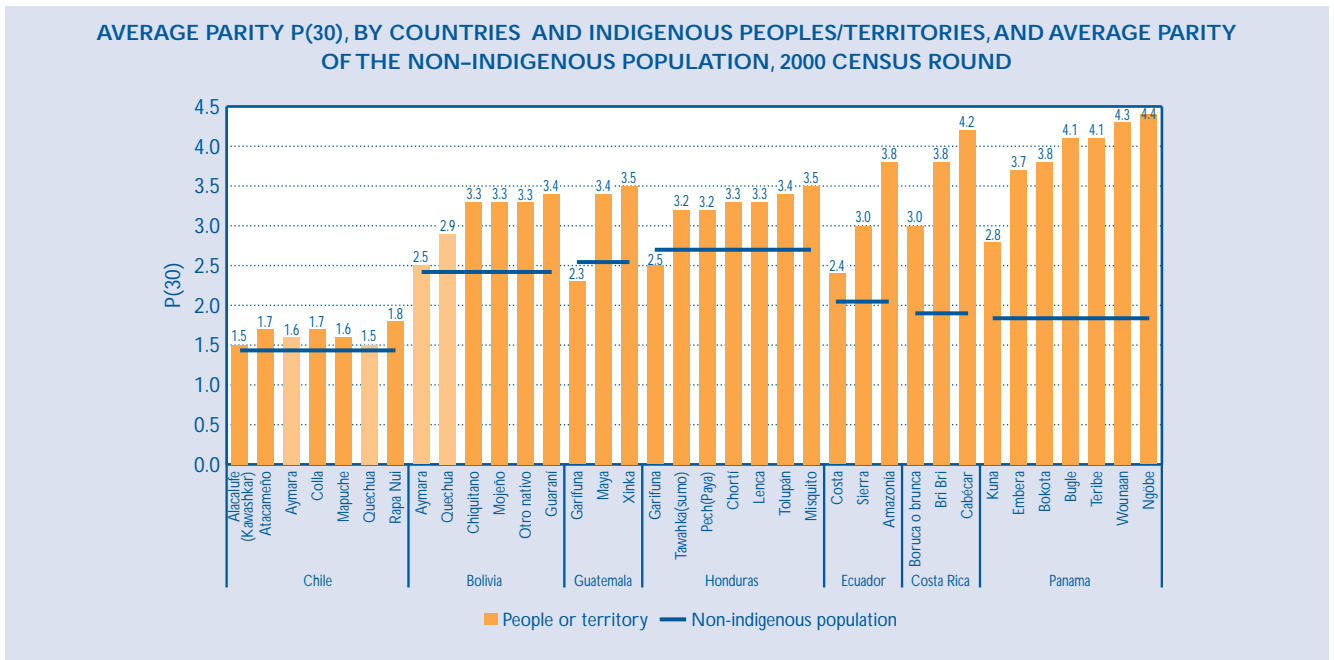
It should also be borne in mind that some communities are still reluctant to address the issue, a position which sometimes goes hand-in-hand with gender inequity manifested in the subordinate role and discrimination suffered by indigenous women (Del Popolo and Oyarce, 2005). Nevertheless,

programmes such as the CELADE Regional Bi-literacy Project in Productive, Environmental, Gender and Communitary Health Issues are encouraging examples of the fact that the issues of reproductive health and the gender equity approach can be incorporated in indigenous policies, provided that participatory programmes are drawn up to strengthen ethno-cultural specificities, that is, programmes that favour access to modernity without the loss of identity and sense of belonging (Hernández and Calcagno, 2003).

The fertility picture is even more mixed when the information is analysed by indigenous peoples. For methodological reasons, the indicator used was the average parity or average number of children borne by age 30 –P(30). Figure III.7 shows the diversity of situations which range from 1.5 to 4.4 children per woman. The variability of parity among peoples in each country is less than the total variability of all the peoples under consideration. Moreover, there are some indigenous peoples whose territory extends over two or more countries and who present significant differences in fertility, such as the Quechua and Aymara of Bolivia and Chile (highlighted in figure III.6). Country studies on Bolivia, Ecuador and Panama reveal mixed results in the same territory, at least from two points of view: fertility is usually higher in the ancestral lands of the territories and the levels for the same peoples show very wide variations depending on the settlements where they live; for example, the fertility rate for Quechua women is 3.8 children in La Paz and 6.1 children in Potosí (IDB/ECLAC, 2005a–f).

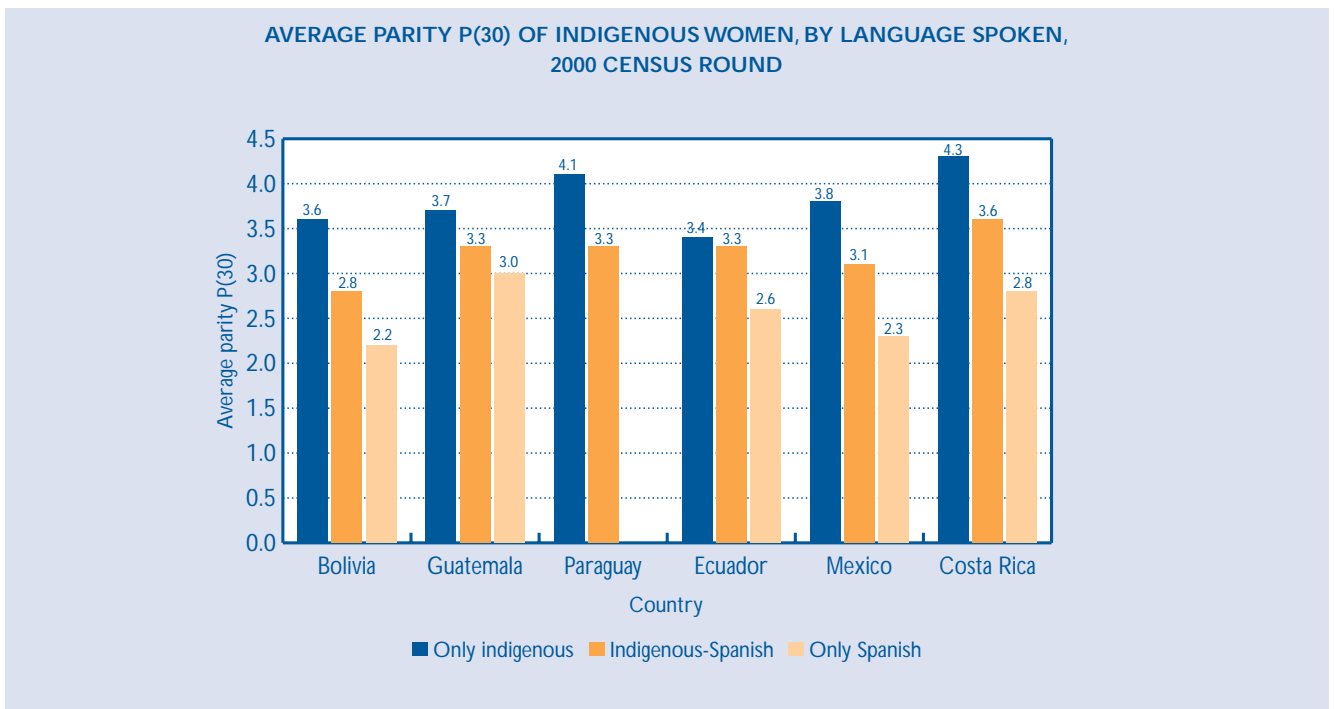
²⁷ Early marriage linked to biological maturity (menarche) is characteristic of traditional societies, although there are also variations among indigenous peoples. For many peoples, the birth of the first child consolidates the union in the eyes of society (Oyarce, 2004).

Figure III.6



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

Figure III.7



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

There is no doubt that the social and health context of the countries in which the indigenous peoples live has a significant impact on these results. There are also correlations with the specific cultural models of each group and its status in the country, which determines their access to goods, services and information. The link between these factors is a complex one and further research is required to demonstrate how these multiple factors interact in specific contexts.

Table III.8 uses years of schooling of women as a proxy variable for socio-economic position, hence

access to goods, services and information, in order to show that the higher the level of formal education, the lower the fertility of indigenous women. This is exactly the same as for non-indigenous women. However, irrespective of education, the levels of fertility are consistently higher among indigenous women, especially in Brazil, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Panama and Paraguay. In addition, for each level of education, the disparities between countries are systematically greater for indigenous women. Nevertheless, this variable reflects the combined effect of structural inequities and cultural specificities.

Table III.8

AVERAGE PARITY P(30) OF INDIGENOUS WOMEN, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, 2000 CENSUS ROUND										
Country	Total	Years of schooling						Relative differences ^a		
		Indigenous			Non-indigenous					
		0-3	4-6	7+	0-3	4-6	7+	0-3	4-6	7+
Guatemala	2.8	3.7	2.9	1.7	3.4	2.6	1.6	1.1	1.1	1.0
Honduras	2.7	3.7	3.1	1.9	3.5	2.8	1.7	1.0	1.1	1.1
Bolivia	2.6	3.6	3.2	1.9	3.4	3.4	1.9	1.1	0.9	1.0
Paraguay	2.4	4.0	3.5	2.9	3.3	2.9	1.7	1.2	1.2	1.7
Ecuador	2.1	3.5	3.1	2.2	2.7	2.6	1.6	1.3	1.2	1.3
Mexico	2.1	3.7	3.1	2.0	3.1	2.6	1.6	1.2	1.2	1.2
Panama	2.0	4.4	3.9	2.5	2.9	2.8	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.6
Costa Rica	1.9	3.9	3.1	2.0	2.8	2.3	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.3
Brazil	1.7	3.5	2.7	1.7	2.7	2.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.4
Chile	1.4	1.9	2.0	1.4	1.8	2.0	1.4	1.1	1.0	1.0

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

^a Ratio of average parity of indigenous and non-indigenous women in every level of education.

Disaggregated information on the languages of indigenous peoples provides further arguments for the above. Figure III.7 reveals that women who speak only their indigenous language have a higher fertility than bilingual women, who in turn have higher rates than those who speak only Spanish. The range of fertility rates varies according to the country, with Bolivia and Costa Rica recording the most pronounced differences. These results must be interpreted in light of the fact that the language spoken reflects the conception of the world, which implies special ways of viewing life cycles and reproduction. Language is also fundamental for understanding indigenous health, whether as a predictor or a proxy of an indigenous way of life or as a means of transmitting knowledge within cultures (Montenegro and Stephens, 2006). It has been postulated that the situation of indigenous peoples is one of asymmetric bilingualism; they speak a practical form of Spanish for purposes of contact while maintaining their own language as the dominant medium (Ramos and Hernández, 1979). In the interest of public policy it is important to note that, in the six countries in which relevant questions were included, the majority of indigenous women of child-bearing age speak their own language either exclusively or together with Spanish: Paraguay, 99.6% of women between 15 and 49 years of age; Guatemala, 81.7%; Mexico, 79.7%; Bolivia, 74.5%; Costa Rica, 65.1%; Ecuador, 66.9%.²⁸ In the case of Paraguay, these results are hardly surprising, since Guaraní is one of the official languages of the country.

3. Infant and child mortality: persistent inequities

In the regional context, early mortality has declined consistently and sharply in the past 40 years, from an infant mortality rate of 102 per 1,000 live births at the beginning of the 1960s to 26 per

1,000 live births at present (ECLAC, 2006b). However, disparities persist between countries and have even been on the rise in the past 15 years (ECLAC, 2006a); for the period 2000–2005 the infant mortality rate ranged from 6 per 1,000 live births in Cuba to 59 per 1,000 in Haiti. In general, the poorest countries in the region have the highest risks of early death and, notwithstanding the lower rates, the diversity between geographical areas and social groups are maintained and have even been on the rise in some countries (ECLAC, 2006a).

Indigenous peoples are among the social groups that suffer the greatest inequalities; this stems from the structural inequity that has been maintained up to the present in Latin American societies. While the probabilities of indigenous people dying in infancy and childhood have been declining in the past 15 years, statistics suggest that the relative gaps remain, or have even widened in some countries (Del Popolo and Oyarce, 2005).²⁹ In most cases the deaths are preventable, with one of the main causes being undernutrition. Moreover, indigenous children who do survive become part of the population suffering from undernutrition in a greater proportion than among the non-indigenous population. According to data from demographic and health surveys, the incidence of total and chronic undernutrition among indigenous peoples in Bolivia, Ecuador, Guatemala and Peru, is slightly more than double that of non-indigenous peoples: chronic undernutrition ranges between 48% and 68% among the former and between 23% and 37% among the latter (United Nations, 2005a). These results are linked to poverty and to the greater severity of the problem in rural areas, but the inequities between the two groups are maintained even when allowances are made for these factors (United Nations, 2005a).

The consensus in international circles is that the fulfilment of target 5 of the Millennium Development Goals: "reduce by two thirds, between

²⁸ In the case of Costa Rica, the question of language was included only in the questionnaire used in indigenous territories.

²⁹ According to indirect estimates derived from census data for the 10 countries included in this study and IDB/ECLAC (2005a, b and c).

1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate" (United Nations, 2000) will be possible only if efforts are focused on reducing those rates among the most vulnerable groups. The International Conference on Population and Development, held in 1994, established that "Countries with indigenous people should achieve infant and under-5 mortality levels among their indigenous people that are the

same as those of the general population" (United Nations, 1995).

The persistence of excess mortality among indigenous infants and children is shown in table III.9, which is self-explanatory.³⁰ The average infant mortality rate for indigenous children in Latin America is 60% higher than for non-indigenous

Table III.9

INFANT AND CHILD MORTALITY RATES OF INDIGENOUS AND NON-INDIGENOUS POPULATIONS, BY AREA OF RESIDENCE, 2000 CENSUS ROUND ^a									
Country ^b	Infant mortality (per 1,000 live births)						Relative difference ^c		
	Total		Urban		Rural		Total	Urban	Rural
	Indigenous	Non-indigenous	Indigenous	Non-indigenous	Indigenous	Non-indigenous			
Bolivia	73.9	53.1	63.3	50.5	85.4	60.2	1.39	1.25	1.42
Guatemala	51.1	41.0	47.2	35.3	52.6	46.7	1.25	1.34	1.13
Paraguay	78.5	37.7	72.1	38.8	79.1	36.3	2.08	1.86	2.18
Honduras	42.6	34.5	28.5	25.1	44.6	41.8	1.23	1.14	1.07
Brazil	39.7	33.9	37.2	31.4	41.8	43.0	1.17	1.18	0.97
Ecuador	67.6	29.8	39.1	24.6	73.8	37.9	2.27	1.59	1.95
Mexico	43.0	26.5	34.2	23.9	47.3	33.7	1.63	1.43	1.40
Panama	53.4	17.3	31.6	15.7	57.4	19.5	3.09	2.01	2.94
Costa Rica	20.9	11.5	20.4	10.6	21.5	12.3	1.83	1.92	1.75
Chile	12.8	11.5	12.0	11.4	12.7	12.0	1.11	1.05	1.06
Country ^b	Infant mortality (per 1,000 live births)						Relative difference ^c		
	Total		Urban		Rural		Total	Urban	Rural
	Indigenous	Non-indigenous	Indigenous	Non-indigenous	Indigenous	Non-indigenous			
Bolivia	96.2	66.6	81.0	62.9	113.1	76.6	1.45	1.29	1.48
Guatemala	67.2	51.9	61.2	43.8	69.6	60.4	1.29	1.40	1.15
Paraguay	109.2	46.5	99.2	48.1	110.0	44.5	2.35	2.06	2.47
Honduras	61.4	48.7	40.1	35.2	64.8	60.3	1.26	1.14	1.07
Brazil	50.0	42.1	46.6	38.6	53.1	54.9	1.19	1.21	0.97
Ecuador	93.4	36.9	49.5	30.3	103.3	47.8	2.53	1.63	2.16
Mexico	63.8	36.2	48.6	32.3	71.3	47.7	1.76	1.50	1.49
Panama	73.2	18.9	38.2	17.0	79.7	21.7	3.86	2.24	3.68
Costa Rica	24.9	13.7	24.3	12.7	25.7	14.7	1.82	1.90	1.75
Chile	15.3	13.6	14.3	13.5	15.2	14.2	1.12	1.06	1.07

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

^a The estimates for each country are adjusted using an adjustment factor based on the ratio between the national census total and official figures.

^b The countries are listed in order of descending magnitude of infant and child mortality rates corresponding to the national total.

^c The ratio of the indigenous mortality rate to the non-indigenous mortality rate.

³⁰ The term infant mortality, as used below, refers to the probability of dying between birth and one year of age –q(1)– and the under-five mortality rate refers to the probability of dying between birth and five years of age –q(5). The estimates were obtained from census information on surviving live-born children borne by women between the ages of 15 and 49, using indirect methods (United Nations, 1986).

children: 48 per 1,000 live births compared with 30 per 1,000, respectively. In terms of the probability of dying before reaching the age of 5, the gap is even wider with an excess mortality of 70%. In this regard, it may be stated that no Latin American country has achieved the goal established at the Conference on Population and Development of eliminating the inequalities between indigenous and non-indigenous populations.

The results also show that the range of values for indigenous populations of the different countries is far wider than the range observed for non-indigenous populations. The extreme cases are Bolivia and Paraguay, whose indigenous populations (both urban and rural areas) have the highest probability of dying in infancy or childhood and Chile and Costa Rica, which have the lowest rates. Chile has the lowest levels of infant and child mortality thanks to the systematic expansion of health services in rural areas since the 1960s (Taucher, 1997); one peculiarity of the programmes was that in indigenous areas, health workers from the community itself were included. Despite these achievements, a breakdown by territory and indigenous group reveals greater inequities compared with the non-indigenous population (Rojas, 2006; Oyarce and Pedrero, 2006).

Another finding in terms of inequalities is that low mortality nationwide does not necessarily mean a better situation for the indigenous peoples. In other words, there is no obvious correlation between the national levels of early mortality and the relative gaps between indigenous and non-indigenous peoples. Paraguay, Ecuador and Panama are countries with high, average and low mortality, respectively, and in turn present the widest gaps between the risks of death, since the rates for indigenous children are double or triple those for non-indigenous children. In the other countries, the situation varies: in Costa Rica, infant mortality is almost double for indigenous children, in Bolivia and Mexico, it is on average 50% higher, while

the smallest differences between indigenous and non-indigenous populations are to be found in the four remaining countries (Brazil, Chile, Guatemala and Honduras). A crucial factor for interpreting these results is the geographical location of the indigenous group. As indicated in the foregoing paragraph, in Ecuador, Paraguay and Panama, the majority of the indigenous population is rural, unlike the rest of the population.

It is well documented that early mortality is lower in urban than in rural areas, a trend that has been confirmed also for indigenous peoples, as shown in table III.9. Nevertheless, the gaps between indigenous and non-indigenous populations are systematic and variable in magnitude. Even in some countries (Brazil, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras), excess mortality of indigenous children is relatively higher in urban areas, which proves that it is a complex phenomenon in which the determining factors include access ("supply" of services) as well as cultural accessibility and demand.

In Bolivia, mortality rates are clearly lower for infants delivered in a health centre. Nevertheless, even in these circumstances, indigenous infants face a higher probability of dying in their first year than non-indigenous children (54 and 41.8 per 1,000 live births, respectively). Approximately half of indigenous women of child-bearing age have had their children in health centres, while for the non-indigenous population, the figure is close to 80%. In Mexico, the situation is similar: while the non-indigenous population receiving medical attention has an infant mortality rate of 26.2% per 1,000 live births, for the indigenous population the probability is almost double (42.2 per 1,000 live births).

During the period 1999–2004, 74% of non-indigenous women in Ecuador, were attended by a health professional and in a health-care institution at the time of delivery, while only 25% of indigenous women interviewed had received similar

care (Centre for Population and Social Development Studies, 2006). In Guatemala, specialized and institutional health coverage is practically non-existent. According to the results of the 2002 Demographic and Maternal and Child Health Survey, in the five years prior to the survey, 84% of indigenous women and 42% of non-indigenous women gave birth at home and only 19% of indigenous women and 58% of non-indigenous women were attended by qualified health personnel (MSPAS, 2003). Moreover, according to a study conducted in Guatemala, even when indigenous women are attended in hospitals and recognize that it may be safer, they feel abandoned and without support, the treatment is poor and the hours are restrictive and inconvenient (Enge, 1998). Echoing these findings, which apply equally well to other countries, the Pan American Health Organization (PAHO) has proposed that all indigenous communities have access to proper health services in terms of quality, culture and gender, promoting a holistic life cycle-based approach which includes men (PAHO, 2004).

The fact that indigenous groups in the countries concerned are concentrated in remote rural, scattered and border areas or on the periphery of large cities pushed up their levels of infant and child mortality. Health-care coverage, already poor in rural areas, drops to its most critical levels in areas inhabited by indigenous peoples. In the Ecuadorian Amazon, for example, health brigades visit every three months; Brazil's upper R o Negro area has two hospitals but, given the distances between indigenous settlements, people have to travel for days to reach them (Rojas, 2006). The problem is not only a matter of coverage, however: the health care provided falls short in terms of cultural and linguistic accessibility, since it is not appropriate for

the specific circumstances of indigenous peoples (PAHO, 2003a; Montenegro and Stephens, 2006).

In contexts of marginalization, exclusion and poverty, all this leads to rates of infant mortality that are systemically higher among indigenous monolingual populations than among bilingual indigenous populations. The difference is greater still in relation to indigenous persons who are monolingual in the country's official language (this assertion is borne out by census data from Bolivia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Guatemala, Mexico and Paraguay). A range of measures, with differing degrees of autonomy, have been implemented in response to different organizations' rights-based demands for culturally appropriate health care, such that traditional medicine may be complemented by biomedicine. Such measures have been attempted in Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Nicaragua and Peru (see box III.6).

The pattern of infant mortality, too, varies among indigenous peoples within countries: for example, the Mbya and Nivacle peoples in Paraguay and the Quechua in Bolivia show the highest probabilities of dying in childhood (see figure III.8). Conversely, the Mapuche and Atacame o peoples in Chile display the lowest rates (around 12 per 1,000 live births). One of the goals set forth in the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development and restated in 2004 by all the countries of the region was to bring the infant mortality rate below 50 per 1,000 live births by 2005. Although the target refers to the national level and only one of the countries covered in this document has failed to achieve it, more than half of the indigenous peoples studied still record rates of more than 50 deaths per 1,000 live births.

RIGHTS, HEALTH-CARE SYSTEMS AND INDIGENOUS MEDICINE: EXPERIENCES IN THE REGION

Changes in the socio-political context brought about by constitutional and legal reforms range from recognition of traditional indigenous medicine to autonomous health management. In the framework of international law, the ILO Convention concerning Indigenous and Tribal Peoples in Independent Countries (ILO Convention No. 169) and Pan American Health Organization (PAHO) resolutions CD37.R5 and CD40.R6, which have been ratified by all the countries of the region, establish guidelines to help incorporate indigenous perspectives, medicines and therapies into primary health care. The PAHO Initiative on the Health of the Indigenous Peoples of the Americas (SAPIA) sets out the following principles: the need for a holistic approach to health; the right to self-determination; respect for and revitalization of indigenous cultures; reciprocity in relations; and the right to systematic participation by indigenous peoples.

ILO Convention No. 169 states, as a general framework, that indigenous peoples themselves have the right to maintain and develop their cultural, linguistic and territorial integrity. Health protection should be construed within the general context of recognition of the cultural, economic and social rights of indigenous peoples. On the basis of ILO Convention No. 169, the Inter-American Development Bank proposes that provision of health coverage in this sense be assessed from three different perspectives (IDB, 2004):

- The existence of special legislation and guaranteed preferential access;
- The acceptance of traditional practices and their integration into the national health-care system;
- Guarantees of participation and autonomy for indigenous peoples in the management of health resources.

The countries of the region have made progress, to differing degrees, as regards the recognition, promotion and protection of those rights. In some countries, however, broad recognition has yet to translate into policies and programmes to guarantee entitlements, while in other countries the reverse is true (IDB, 2004). Be this as it may, the continued existence of a profound implementation gap as regards these rights has prompted indigenous organizations to embark on culturally more appropriate programmes, in some cases with support from international agencies. The Rural Indigenous Federation of Imbabura (Ecuador) has developed a programme which successfully combines Quechua and allopathic medicine. At the Jambi Huasi ("house of health" in Quechua) health centre, care is provided by indigenous doctors and by the Yachag (shaman). The role of the Jambi Huasi is basically to provide care and support for indigenous women using an approach which respects life cycles and Quechuan constructs of life. According to PAHO data, by 1998 some 10,000 patients had received care, contraceptive use had risen from 10% to 40%, and infant and maternal mortality had fallen sharply in Otavalo (PAHO, 2003b and 2004).

The Inter-Ethnic Association for the Development of the Peruvian Rain Forest (AIDSESEP) has developed its own policies and programmes to strengthen traditional and specialized medicine and revitalize the use of herbal medicine and medicinal practices in 120 communities of Ashaninkas, Inés, Shipibos and Konibos (1991); in Panama (2000) the Kuna community established an Autonomous Institute for Traditional Indigenous Medicine to promote recognition of traditional medicine and enhance its image. The autonomous coastal regions in Nicaragua have set up their own intercultural programmes through the Institute for Traditional Medicine and Community Development. In Chile, there are a number of experiences with differing degrees of autonomy. Among the best known in the south of the country is the Makewe Hospital, the Boroa-Filulawen Health Centre in the Araucanía Region, the Mapu Ñuke centre on Chiloé island, where the Williche health programme (Küme Mogen Rüpü) operates. These are initiatives piloted by indigenous organizations, operating on their own territories. They are institutions that implement State health programmes while also running schemes with indigenous practices, strengthening and revitalizing traditional medicines. One new initiative is the intercultural health complex in Nueva Imperial in the Araucanía Region, which has a Western health centre (hospital) and a Mapuche health centre. These two wings are managed in an autonomous and complementary manner and, like the schemes mentioned above, are financed mainly by the State. Initiatives combining indigenous and complementary medicine also exist in the north of Chile, including those in Aymara territory: a Community Network of Cultural Advisors and local health team in the district of Putre; the inclusion of traditional indigenous doctors on the staff at the V. Bertín public health centre in Arica; and childbirth care in Iquique hospital, in which cultural elements have been included. Lastly, there are also a number of schemes aimed at urban indigenous people in the Metropolitan Region.

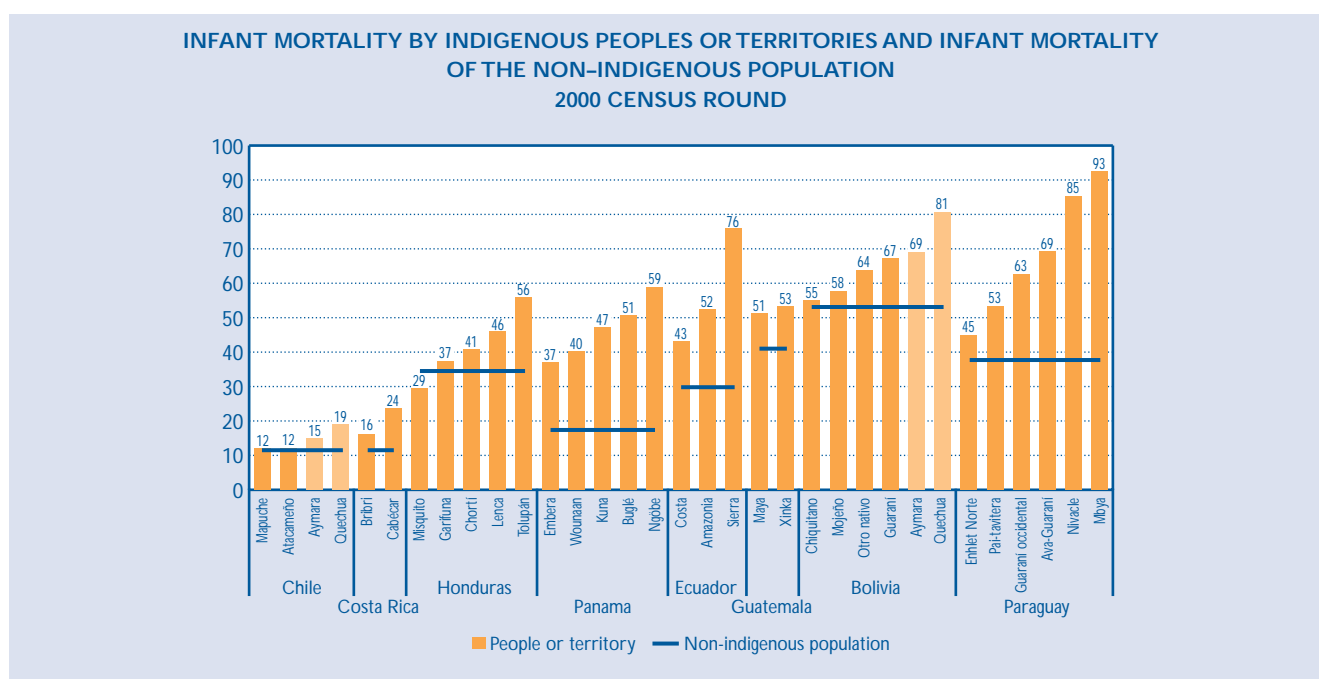
Empirical evidence in Latin America shows that, despite the importance of constitutional recognition –and, above all, of participation and control by indigenous peoples themselves– there are other ways of bridging implementation gaps. In that regard, it has been proposed that indigenous peoples should enjoy universal access to health care and to the most

RIGHTS, HEALTH-CARE SYSTEMS AND INDIGENOUS MEDICINE: EXPERIENCES IN THE REGION

effective and timely Western-style care, while they are at the same time bearers of collective rights that entitle them to respect for their own concepts of health, illness and cures. Given the slow pace of progress towards real exercise of autonomy and access to power for indigenous peoples, it will take time for their new socio-political status to be reflected in improved health care, in which well-being and health combines indigenous knowledge with the benefits of modern medicine (Montenegro, Stephens, 2006).

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE)–Population Division of ECLAC.

Figure III.8



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

Mirroring the comparison of fertility levels at the country level, significant differences in infant mortality are seen to exist between the Quechua and Aymara peoples living in Bolivia and Chile. A Quechua child in Bolivia is over four times more likely to die in its first year of life than a Quechua child born in Chile. In the case of an Aymara child, the figure is a little higher, at 4.6 (see figure III.8).

These differences are due not only to structural conditions in the country of residence and access to services, but also to the history of contact between indigenous peoples and the Western world and the protection of ecosystems. Beginning with the arrival of the conquistadors, the introduction of diseases to which the indigenous population had never been exposed caused a massive demographic collapse,

especially among communities living in tropical coastal areas, where mortality exceeded 90% (Kunitz, 1994; Rojas, 2006; Montenegro and Stephens, 2006). Such situations are not confined to the distant past; their effects continued to be seen in the twentieth century, when about 60 Amazonian peoples disappeared altogether and others, such as the Xavanté and the Nambiquara, suffered drastic losses (Kunitz, 1994; Montenegro and Stephens, 2006). The demographic vulnerability of small, isolated groups is even greater; the arrival of severe diseases that rapidly become endemic can lead to total annihilation. This partly accounts for the decision of some peoples to remain as isolated as possible (Kunitz, 1994; Montenegro and Stephens, 2006).

The structural circumstances of indigenous peoples in Latin American societies, which in turn affect the proximate variables (biological, nutritional and health-care factors) that apply to

them, certainly contribute to maintaining the gaps. As can be seen in table III.10, the fewer years of schooling among indigenous populations (as a proxy variable for economic situation), the higher the risk of death in childhood. While this is true of non-indigenous populations too, inequalities to the disadvantage of indigenous peoples are present at all levels of education; indeed, the gaps actually tend to widen at higher levels of formal education. This suggests that infant mortality has been slow to fall among indigenous populations, since it is not sufficient for mothers to have a higher level of education: this also needs to lead to enhanced decision-making powers, information and health-care skills (Muhuri, 1995). In the case of indigenous groups, all this involves a holistic and collective concept of well-being and health, which is closely linked to the maintenance of ecosystems (Descola, 1986; Quidel and Jineo, 1999).

Table III.10

INFANT MORTALITY AMONG INDIGENOUS AND NON-INDIGENOUS POPULATIONS AND RELATIVE GAPS, BY LEVEL OF MOTHER'S EDUCATION ^a									
Probability	Ethnic status						Difference in probability of death in infancy		
	Indigenous			Non-indigenous					
Country	0-3	4-6	7+	0-3	4-6	7+	0-3	4-6	7+
Bolivia	92.1	73.2	52.1	72.6	60.1	41.3	1.27	1.22	1.26
Guatemala	52.3	44.5	36.3	48.6	36.6	27.4	1.07	1.21	1.32
Paraguay	78.7	71.8	...	47.4	37.9	29.7	1.66	1.89	...
Honduras	49.7	35.4	18.7	48.5	28.8	15.2	1.02	1.23	1.24
Brazil	44.9	37.2	...	50.9	29.9	21.6	0.88	1.24	...
Ecuador	79.1	63.5	43.1	42.1	34.6	21.4	1.88	1.83	2.02
Mexico	50.9	36.4	25.2	39.4	28.7	19.7	1.29	1.27	1.28
Panama	64.0	43.3	25.1	27.4	18.0	15.6	2.33	2.40	1.61
Costa Rica	23.7	19.3	...	18.7	11.1	8.9	1.27	1.73	...
Chile	16.1	14.0	11.8	16.0	13.2	11.4	1.01	1.06	1.05

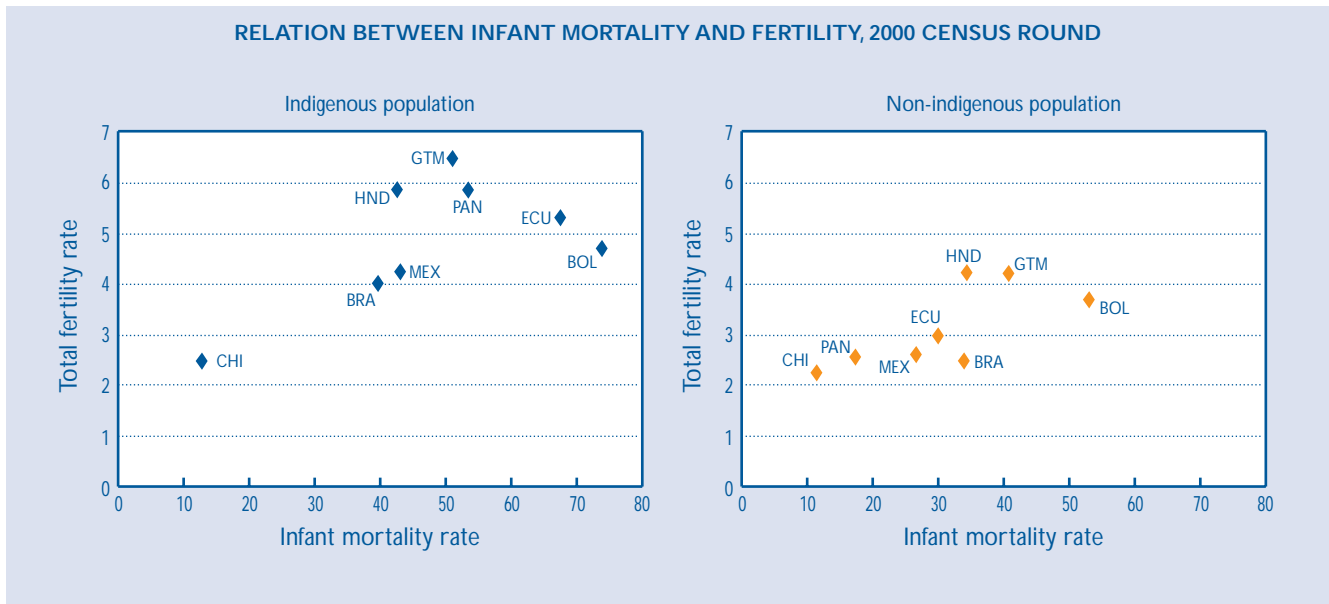
Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE)–Population Division of ECLAC, 2000 census round, special processing of census microdatabases.

^a The symbol ... is used where insufficient data were available to conduct estimates.

Lastly, fertility and infant mortality rates have historically been related. Figure III.9 shows a positive correlation denoting the interaction between the two variables, such that a decrease in one of them steepens the fall in the other. A drop in childhood

death rates makes it easier for women and couples to achieve their ideal number of children with fewer births, and lower fertility rates lead to lower risks of maternal and infant death, which are linked to high parity and short birth intervals.

Figure III.9



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

E. International migration among indigenous peoples: shifting borders and complex identities

Indigenous international migration is becoming more significant, not so much because of its quantitative impacts, but because of the particular traits of indigenous migrants and the policy implications as regards human rights. This phenomenon is directly linked to land, natural resources, territories and territoriality, which have a dual dimension: as a cultural and ethnic "anchoring" factor; and as a factor in expulsion, owing to impoverishment and growing pressure on indigenous lands and resources.

Since this is a multicultural and pluri-ethnic process, new concepts need to be developed in order to distinguish indigenous international migration in the true sense from the indigenous people's ancestral territorial mobility.

The information available shows that international migration among indigenous peoples is mainly cross-border migration and clearly shows both the patterns mentioned above: in some cases, indigenous international migrants settle on rural land belonging to their ethnic group's ancestral territory which has been fragmented by national borders; in other cases, they head mostly for urban areas. This is indicative of the non-voluntary and collective nature of indigenous migration, which leads migrants to maintain their social and economic links with their community of origin and to reproduce sociocultural patterns at their destination, aided by family networks and involvement in organizations that uphold ethnic identity.

1. An emerging and little-known issue

While all societies and cultures have always experienced migrations, whether as origin or host societies, the new conditions driven by the global economy have intensified migration as never before and given it new meaning and content (Martínez, 2003). In recent decades there has been a major increase in international migration in the region, mostly towards North America and Europe (Martínez, 2003).

Many studies and publications exist on international migration (Portes, 2005), yet the subject of international migration by indigenous peoples has attracted little attention. Only recently has it come strongly to the fore, propelled mainly by indigenous organizations themselves, which have emphasized the need to be aware of, understand and take account of indigenous migration, not only as

regards scale, characteristics and quantitative dimensions, but above all in relation to situations of vulnerability and exclusion and the human rights implications (Medina, 2006; Martínez, 2006; Espiniella, 2006). The international community has responded to the political challenges posed by migration among indigenous populations for origin and destination countries, and has recommended that systematic research, both quantitative and qualitative, should be conducted into the dynamics, routes and reasons for international migration and its impacts on the life of indigenous peoples. It is thus a prominent topic today for researchers, academics, international bodies and indigenous peoples (Stavenhagen; 2006; Kyle, 2000; Kearney and Besserer 1999, Fox and Rivera-Salgado, 2004; United Nations, 2006c; Espiniella, 2006).

2. Old practices, shared triggers and far-off destinations

From an ethno-historical perspective, the territorial mobility of indigenous peoples seems to have been a constant since before the Spanish arrived. At that time, most of the indigenous peoples were located somewhere on a continuum ranging from hunter-gatherer groups to agricultural societies (Aylwin, 2002). To a greater or lesser extent, most groups combined both methods of obtaining food. In the case of agricultural economies, population groups were at the mercy of periods of abundance and shortage, forcing them to migrate in search of either different foods or new lands and crops. In fact, some authors have suggested that seasonal migrations, particularly of the transhumant type, were (and still are) a way of life, a practice and a "habitus" (Bourdieu, 1996), closely linked to social and biological reproduction.

As noted earlier, insufficient means to survive on their own territories, land tenure problems and crises in a rural economy increasingly linked to world markets, together with exclusion and various sorts of conflicts and human rights violations, have all been consistently cited as being the main factors forcing indigenous groups to leave their communities of origin, temporarily or permanently, in search of new openings (United Nations, 2006c). Rather than being merely a way of seeking new opportunities in life, mobility therefore emerges as a last resort for both biological and cultural survival.

The close links between emigration, ethnic origin and poverty can, however, be reproduced in the place of arrival. Discrimination may be reflected in economic terms, since indigenous populations tend to work in the informal labour market and are relegated to the lowest levels; in social terms because, especially if they are undocumented, they are subjected to racist and discriminatory attitudes from the rest of the population; and in political terms, since most migrants are deprived of their rights as full citizens, in countries of both origin and destination (Fox and Rivera-Salgado 2004).

Although no single pattern can be identified, migratory movements begin with seasonal and cyclical migrations, in which migrants stay for fairly long periods at their destinations and some settle there permanently although they maintain contact with the community of origin. These cycles –especially in the case of Mexico and some part of Ecuador and Guatemala– are characterized by migrations occurring in waves (or stages), mainly towards major cities, then shifting gradually, using family networks, towards other countries (Velasco, 1998, 2002; Torres, 2005, Castillo, 1993, 1997), as described in box III.7.

MIGRATORY ITINERARIES: MIGRATION OF THE NÁHUATL PEOPLE OF TEMALAC TO PUERTO VALLARTA, MEXICO, AND WAUKEGAN, ILLINOIS, UNITED STATES

González Chévez (n/d) describes in detail the itinerary used by the Náhuatl people of Temalac, Mexico, in their migration and reproduction in two locations: Puerto Vallarta in Mexico and Waukegan, Illinois, United States. There was a massive exodus to Veracruz in the 1970s for the sugar-cane harvest and the migrants subsequently moved north to work as agricultural labourers in Nayarit. By the 1980s, cyclical migration had become insufficient and there was a community-wide migration to Puerto Vallarta. Those who emigrated, the less educated and those accustomed to unskilled agricultural work, became versatile casual workers, selling handicrafts to tourists. That first migratory movement was successful in economic and sociocultural terms, since ethnic identity and the language were retained, mainly thanks to close links with the migrants' homeland, with their participation in and economic contributions to celebrations of traditional patron saints' festivals.

In the late 1980s, a first wave of migration to the United States began, making use of family and ethnic links with the rural community in Puebla, with families or couples travelling together. All these immigrants entered the United States illegally and joined the workforce in Waukegan, Illinois. This has been a successful migration in labour terms, because of the cheap and flexible labour the migrants provide, combined with their large capacity for work. However, structural changes in all areas of community life (economic, religious, social, political and health-related) have narrowed the possibilities for preservation of cultural identity.

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE)–Population Division of ECLAC, on the basis of Lilian González Chévez, *Anclajes y transformaciones culturales de un pueblo Náhuatl en transición, el caso de Temalac*, Guerrero, Mexico City, Anthropology Department, National Autonomous University of Mexico.

Now, in an increasingly globalized world, very few indigenous groups do not look to migration for economic and social reproduction. Nonetheless, indigenous peoples vary in terms of destination and volume of migratory flows, distance covered, duration, patterns and the activities migrants perform in the places towards which they gravitate. This heterogeneity is reproduced in destination communities; the picture then becomes even more complex because, in addition to the status of the indigenous group in its place of origin, the socio-political context in the destination country also comes into play.

3. International migration: type, significance and context

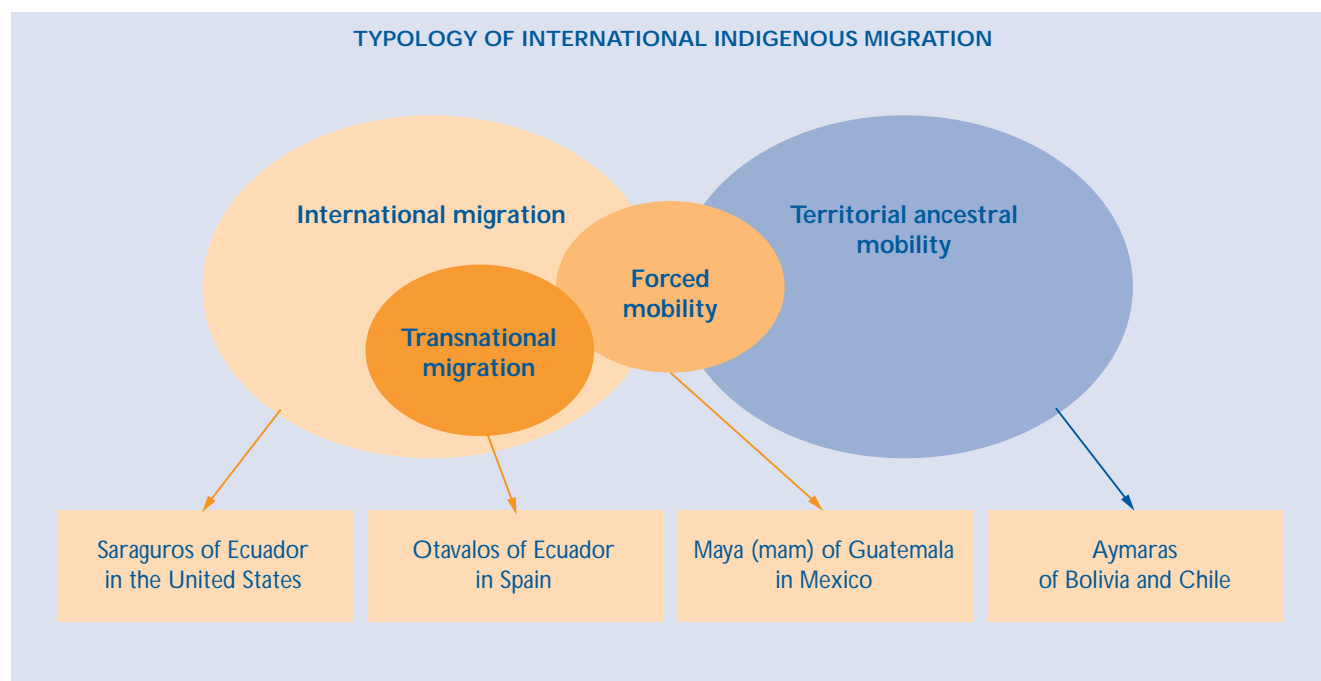
Indigenous migrants are not a homogenous group in terms of peoples or cultures or in respect of their places of origin or destination. This diversity should be considered in close association with two phenomena: the growth of international migration

and the various efforts towards ethnocultural reconstruction. The pattern and density of those processes –whose contents and particularities of these processes are not yet fully known– in communities of both origin and destination lead to a complex, multifaceted and dynamic indigenous diaspora (Fox and Rivera-Salgado, 2004).³¹

A number of authors, including indigenous organizations themselves, have pointed out the need to devise new concepts in order to understand international migration, starting from the basis that it is a multicultural and multi-ethnic phenomenon (Fox and Rivera-Salgado, 2004; United Nations, 2006c) and making the distinction between migratory processes and mobility within ancestral territories. In this regard, the classification proposed here is illustrated in figure III.10. The first aspect to be emphasized is the distinction between international migration and mobility within ancestral territories, because of their significance and consequences as regards policy and human rights. Furthermore, within each of those types, two subcategories exist:

³¹ The concept of diaspora and other analogous concepts such as transnationalism seek to emphasize the sense of constant change in the formation of communities and in migratory flows, as well as the sense of creation and recreation of migrants' identity (López Castro, 2003).

Figure III.10



Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE)–Population Division of ECLAC.

Territorial mobility within ethnic boundaries. This concerns indigenous peoples living on a territory which has been fragmented by the borders of nation–states. Although crossing international borders, such mobility takes place inside ancestral territories within the ethnic boundaries where indigenous peoples have exercised and continue to exercise common–law rights.

Forced mobility, either across jurisdictional borders or within ethnic boundaries. From a structural viewpoint it has been argued that indigenous migration –in the form of collective migration and survival–related– is not voluntary, but the specific term "forced mobility" has been retained to denote indigenous peoples crossing jurisdictional borders or moving within ethnic boundaries because of armed conflict, widespread violence, human rights violations or natural or man–made disasters.³² In cases of forced mobility across jurisdictional borders, there are better chances of creating transnational links (Portes, 2005).

Transnational indigenous migration. This refers to international migrants who, through social groups, collectivities or organizations, have recreated community links beyond national frontiers, thus extending ethnic boundaries. This type of migration has two fundamental traits: (a) constant exchanges between the communities of origin and destination that transcend trade and family relations; and (b) institutionalization of these links through organizations which preserve and rebuild them (Portes, 2005).

International migration. This refers to indigenous migrants crossing national borders outside their areas of ancestral mobility, and who are unlikely to maintain institutionalized links with their communities of origin, even when ethnic identity and family connections exist.

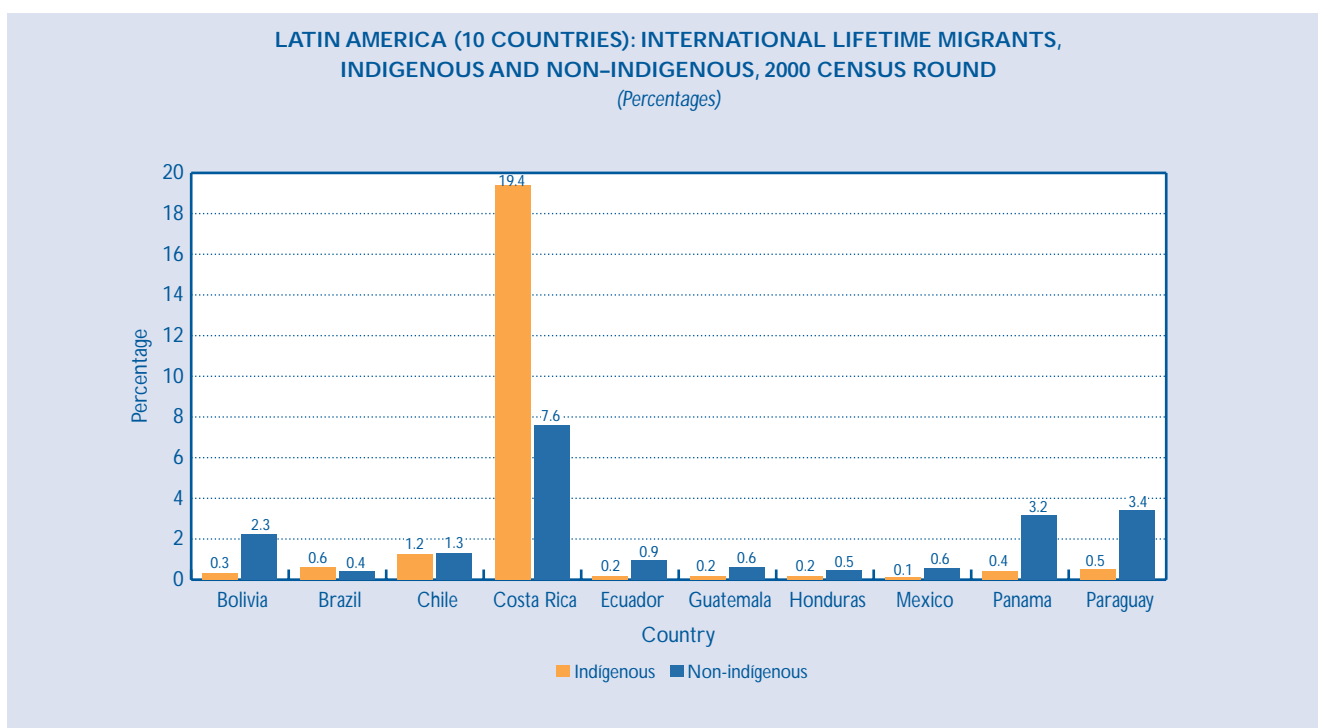
³² The term "displaced" has not been used, since it refers only to population movements within national borders (although it would be the correct term if the population group moves within ethnocultural boundaries). Also, the term "refugee" has not been used generically, since not all indigenous people forced to leave their original communities are or request the status of refugees.

This classification serves as a guide to help interpret the information available, to the extent possible. Censuses have served to quantify indigenous international migration in each of the 10 countries selected. It should be noted that the numbers may have been underestimated, since it is likely that many migrants are illegal (undocumented).³³ Furthermore, in some countries the numbers of indigenous people born elsewhere can be captured only when they belong to groups already present in the destination country.

4. Magnitudes and trends: a regional comparison

The data in figure III.11 show that indigenous populations have a lower propensity to emigrate than non-indigenous populations. The main exceptions are Costa Rica, where indigenous international migrants more than double non-indigenous migrants (with a difference of 11.8 percentage points) and, to a lesser extent, Brazil (0.21 points).

Figure III.11



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

³³ Although there are no exhaustive studies to quantify this phenomenon, the National Population Council of Mexico (CONAPO, 2001) has estimated that 70% of indigenous immigrants to the United States are undocumented. Qualitative studies in the United States on Ecuadorian, Guatemalan and Mexican indigenous migrants have shown that the great majority of them are undocumented.

As for relative magnitude, international indigenous migrants represent a very small proportion of each country's indigenous population (less than 1.3%). The opposite is true only in Costa Rica, where one fifth of the indigenous population was born in other countries (19.4%). The lesser magnitude of international indigenous migration, which has been described in other research, is related to two main phenomena: first, indigenous peoples' unbreakable ties to their territories, which function as an anchor (although survival needs may force them to migrate elsewhere) and, second, the structural disadvantage facing indigenous peoples who adopt the uncertain and costly strategy of international migration. This is in addition to the risk of finding themselves in an illegal situation and the difficulty of going unnoticed, because of their clothing, behaviour or language (Castillo, 1993, 1997; Castañeda, Mans and Davenport, 2002). Although international indigenous migration is small in magnitude, it must be recalled that this is one of the most vulnerable social groups, in which poverty and ethnic origin, two of the "structural aetiologies of discrimination" (Martínez, 2006) are combined.

The magnitude of immigration varies greatly from country to country. At least five groups of countries can be distinguished (see annex III.2). Bolivia and Costa Rica are the host countries of the greatest numbers of international indigenous migrants, approximately 17,000 and 12,000 respectively. Chile, Guatemala and Mexico each have just over 8,000; Brazil, around 4,500; Ecuador and Panama, a little over 1,000, and Honduras and Paraguay, less than 800 each.

International migration, both indigenous and non-indigenous, is seen to be basically intraregional, reflecting the pattern already described for the Latin American migrant population as a whole (Martínez, 2003). Among indigenous populations, however, the pattern is more striking. Nine of every 10 indigenous immigrants come from within the region and in

Costa Rica the proportion is as high as 99.5% (see annex III.2).

Honduras and Mexico are unusual in this respect, with a large proportion of immigrants born in the United States (17% and 30%, respectively). This may reflect second-generation migration, involving the children of migrants who have moved to the United States since the 1950s in the framework of State programmes to attract labour. In the case of Mexico, migration from the United States is proportionally higher among non-indigenous populations. Honduras shows a different pattern, since indigenous and non-indigenous immigrants come from the United States in equal proportion.

Annex III.2 offers a complementary reading, showing the relative numbers of indigenous people as a proportion of all international migrants. Two main situations are observed: in Bolivia and Guatemala, about one in five international migrants is indigenous; in the other countries, international indigenous migrants make up less than 5% of all migrants. If international migrants are confined to Latin Americans, the proportion of indigenous people increases for most countries, which supports the assertion regarding the intraregional bias of migration. The information available, however, does not capture the phenomenon of migration towards the United States, one of the main destinations for Guatemalan, Honduran and Mexican indigenous people, among others. Notably, there also appears to be a return migration, apparent in Honduras and Mexico, which record significant indigenous immigration from the United States.

Typically, indigenous and non-indigenous international immigrants are mostly men, though Chile and Guatemala are exceptions for both groups, as is Honduras for the non-indigenous group. Since most indigenous migration is from within Latin America, this pattern of male predominance holds good in the region. This is not the case for

non-indigenous immigrants of Latin American origin, however, who comprise mainly women in seven countries, reflecting what has been called the "quantitative feminization" of migration in the region (Martínez, 2003).

The relative predominance of males among indigenous immigrants is also seen in two pieces of research into gender differentials in indigenous migration, which is associated mainly with agricultural labour (CONAPO, 2001, Kyle, 2000). The predominance of men tends to support the idea of labour migration. Chile and Honduras, however, receive more female immigrants, as noted above, which may also have to do with better employment opportunities for women, especially in the informal labour market and in domestic service. Aside from quantitative considerations, the gender perspective should be considered in all cases, not focusing only on women as facilitators of migration through family networks, but realizing that gender relations "organize" migration, determining how it takes place, who migrates and what roles each family member will play in both host and origin countries (Martínez, 2003).

Clearly, more research is still needed on how gender relations affect migratory processes and the ways in which women's role in indigenous societies favours them or holds them back, as well as the impact of migration on empowerment. In structural

terms, as a subordinate group, indigenous women are more seriously vulnerable. But more thoroughgoing research is needed into the characteristics of each indigenous peoples and its context. For example, some local studies in Mexico have suggested that contact with new social agents in their places of destination helps indigenous women to become more autonomous. This can also happen in some communities of origin, where male emigration has had the unexpected effect of prompting women to move into roles traditionally confined to men (Fox and Rivera-Salgado, 2004).

A number of authors agree that, since 1990, indigenous international migration has grown in magnitude and has diversified in terms of the peoples who migrate and their places of origin and of destination (García Ortega, 2004; Lewin and Guzmán, 2005; Kyle, 2000; Fox and Rivera-Salgado, 2004). Although what is known thus far is fragmented and incomplete, census data support the empirical deduction that the phenomenon is indeed increasing (see table III.11). This trend is observed in both indigenous and non-indigenous populations, but in the 1990s it was more marked among indigenous peoples in Bolivia, Brazil, Guatemala and Honduras. In Guatemala, 73.7% of indigenous immigrants arrived in 1990–1995; this was probably return migration from Mexico, which was promoted by the Guatemalan State in 1993 (Castillo, 1997).

Table III.11

PERCENTAGES OF INDIGENOUS AND NON-INDIGENOUS INTERNATIONAL IMMIGRANTS, BY FIVE-YEAR ARRIVAL PERIODS							
Country of residence	Ethnic status	Arrival period ^a					
		Pre 1980	1980–1985	1985–1990	1990–1995	1995–2000	Total
Bolivia	Indigenous	13.9	5.4	9.4	23.0	48.3	100.0
	Non-indigenous	21.1	7.8	8.9	21.1	40.9	100.0
Brazil	Indigenous	28.6	12.5	17.1	19.0	22.7	100.0
	Non-indigenous	73.1	5.9	5.0	5.2	10.8	100.0
Chile	Indigenous	24.4	6.3	8.3	20.8	40.2	100.0
	Non-indigenous	17.6	6.4	8.9	18.9	48.1	100.0
Costa Rica	Indigenous	9.6	6.3	7.1	21.1	55.9	100.0
	Non-indigenous	10.6	7.6	9.1	20.8	52.0	100.0
Ecuador	Indigenous	20.7	10.6	9.4	13.6	45.8	100.0
	Non-indigenous	21.7	9.9	9.9	15.1	43.4	100.0
Guatemala	Indigenous	0.8	0.4	2.4	73.7	22.7	100.0
	Non-indigenous	12.6	5.0	9.6	38.4	34.5	100.0
Honduras	Indigenous	25.1	12.9	8.5	15.6	37.9	100.0
	Non-indigenous	22.9	13.2	10.7	16.8	36.4	100.0
Paraguay	Indigenous	35.5	16.8	15.0	15.0	17.8	100.0
	Non-indigenous	27.3	17.7	19.7	16.2	19.1	100.0

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

^a In order to standardize the data, five-year periods were constructed before the date of each country's census. For example, in the case of Bolivia the period 1995–2000 strictly speaking corresponds to 1996–2001.

5. Mixed patterns: ancient territories, new frontiers and complex identities

a) International migration or mobility within ancestral territories?

The subject of migratory movements in frontier zones or "grey areas" is recognized as highly complex. Nonetheless, the specific case of indigenous peoples as ethnocultural units which have been fragmented by national borders is practically absent from the literature on international migration. Such situations, which to a greater or lesser extent date back to the arrival of the conquistadors, were

consolidated towards the end of the nineteenth century with the creation of the Latin American nation–States. Interesting enough, even today a number of binational and even trinational ethnic groups and indigenous peoples who have maintained cultural and family links can be identified (see box III.8). Nonetheless, it is undeniable that the socio–political characteristics of the countries in which they live have impressed certain traits upon these groups (Castillo, 1993). ILO Convention No. 169 (article 32) provides for special protection for indigenous peoples in border areas and urges governments to "take appropriate measures, including by means of international agreements, to facilitate contacts and co–operation between

A COMMON SOCIOCULTURAL AREA FRAGMENTED BY JURISDICTIONAL BOUNDARIES: THE CASE OF THE YUCATÁN MAYAS

Historically speaking, Guatemalan Mayas have inhabited the area of Mexico's border from precolonial times, when this territory was shared by a number of indigenous peoples who interacted within a vast Meso-American region. The conquistadors set up a model of political and social domination and made changes to the existing networks of relations and trade. Later, the national borders drawn between Guatemala and Mexico at the end of the nineteenth century disrupted many links but, to this day, ties of family kinship and close friendship form a dynamic that blurs the distinction of borders. These ethnic roots, common history, cultural proximity and bonds of affection facilitated a continuous movement of indigenous migrants into Mexico and facilitated the establishment of refugee camps in this country in the 1980s and 1990s, in a reflection of true social protection and solidarity networks (Castillo 1997).

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC.

indigenous and tribal peoples across borders, including activities in the economic, social, cultural, spiritual and environmental fields" (article 32). IDB adds that acceptance of dual nationality or special mechanisms to facilitate contact across borders are also important measures. Only two countries in the region –the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela and Ecuador– guarantee this right, however (IDB, 2004).

From the viewpoint of sovereign States (and of censuses) international migration occurs only when a physical frontier (or jurisdictional territory) is crossed, but not when people move outside an ethnic and territorial unit, which would be mobility within ancestral territory. The distinction between ethnic and national boundaries thus becomes blurred if territory is viewed not only as an administrative and jurisdictional entity or as a geographical area, but also from the viewpoint of habitat, heritage, biodiversity and basis for identity (Toledo, 2005). Complicating the picture further, some traditionally nomadic indigenous peoples travel through territories in which national borders are meaningless or unknown to them, as is the case of some peoples in the Amazon region (United Nations, 2006c).

Closer analysis and the use of bordering countries as a category reveal one of the most prominent traits of indigenous immigration: its typically cross-border

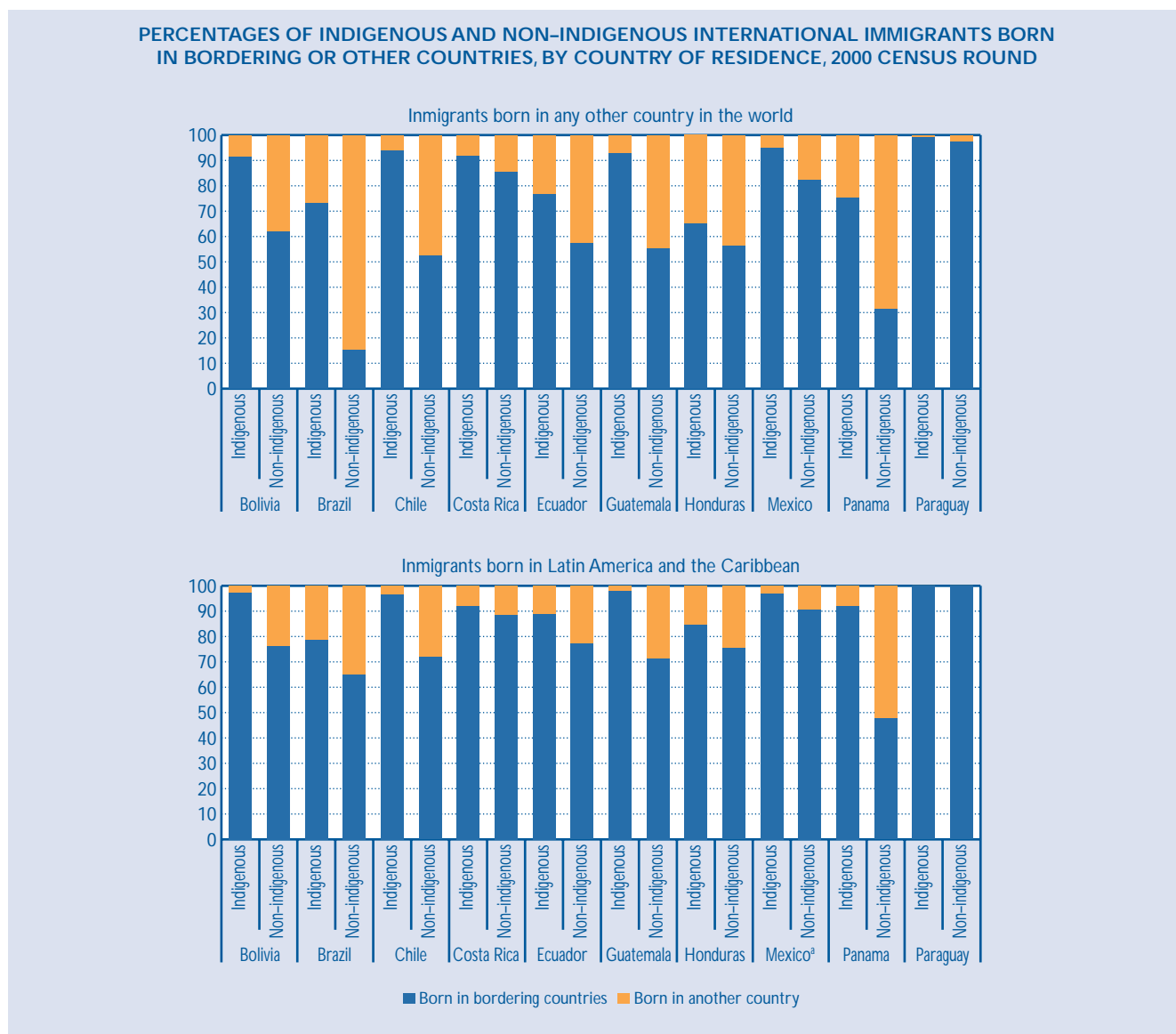
nature. In Bolivia, Chile, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Mexico, Panama and Paraguay, nine of every 10 indigenous immigrants come from a neighbouring country. This is not the case for non-indigenous immigrants, except for Costa Rica, Mexico and Paraguay (see figure III.12). If the sample is restricted to Latin America, practically all indigenous immigrants in any given country were born in a neighbouring country. These conclusions raise the challenge of distinguishing whether a given situation is genuinely international migration between neighbouring countries or simply territorial mobility within ethnic boundaries, as mentioned earlier. To what extent can these two types of behaviour be represented using the information available?

A first approximation can be achieved by studying migrants' destinations. Indigenous immigrants have been observed to settle in rural areas more than non-indigenous immigrants, who tend to settle mostly in urban areas (see figure III.13). The exception is Bolivia, where the structure of population groups dates back to precolonial times; the Bolivian *altiplano* (high plateau) is one of the crossroads of the Andean culture. Comparatively speaking, indigenous peoples' settlement patterns show greater variation: in four countries (Guatemala, Mexico, Panama and Paraguay) indigenous immigrants settle mainly in rural areas,

with the figures ranging from 74% to 93%; in three others (Costa Rica, Ecuador and Honduras) they still tend to choose rural areas, although in lower proportions of between 51% and 62%. In the three countries where the indigenous population lives mostly in urban areas (Bolivia, Brazil and Chile),

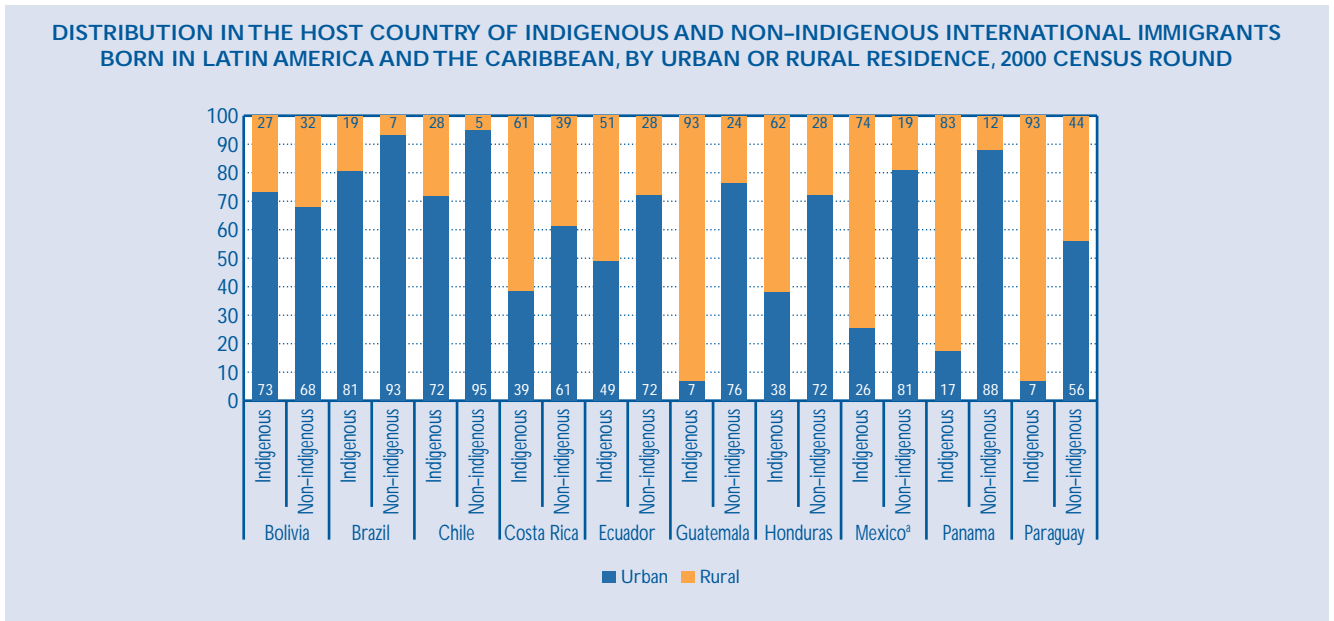
most indigenous migrants also settle in such areas. Mobility towards rural areas provides initial evidence of a type of migration linked to ancestral territories, and it will now be attempted to illustrate this by examining the situation of indigenous peoples fragmented by national borders.

Figure III.12



Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE)–Population Division of ECLAC, special processing of census microdatabases.
^a Includes immigrants from the United States.

Figure III.13



Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE)–Population Division of ECLAC, special processing of census microdatabases.
^a Includes the United States, which is a neighbouring country.

Among the countries for which data were disaggregated by identification as indigenous peoples (because the question was included in the census questionnaire), the countries selected were those having the greatest numbers of indigenous immigrants from peoples inhabiting territories that are now, in terms of State boundaries, split between neighbouring countries. The total number of indigenous immigrants included in table III.12 represents more than 85% of each country’s international indigenous migration, except for

Guatemala, where the Mam and Q’anjob’al make up 59%. With the exception of the Garifuna, almost all the migrants in each group had been born in a neighbouring country. These results are conclusive as regards the need to guarantee special protection for indigenous peoples living in border areas and –where appropriate– to recognize their ancestral territorial mobility as being qualitatively different from international migration. Chile offers a striking example its Quechua residents, of whom one in three were born in a neighbouring country.

Table III.12

INTERNATIONAL INDIGENOUS IMMIGRANTS, BY INDIGENOUS PEOPLES				
Country of residence	International indigenous immigrants, by indigenous group			
	Indigenous group	Total immigrants	Percentage of the whole group ^a	Percentage born in bi- or trinational territories ^b
Bolivia ^c	Quechua	3 148	0.2	92.6
	Aymara	1 817	0.1	92.7
	Guaraní	574	0.8	90.8
	Chiquitano	442	0.4	83.4
Chile	Quechua	2 075	33.6	94.9
	Aymara	4 190	8.6	98.9
	Mapuche	1 910	0.3	81.4
Guatemala	Mam	2 333	0.4	98.5
	Q'anjob'al	2 455	1.5	99.3
Honduras	Garifuna	326	0.7	9.5
	Misquito	147	0.3	97.9
	Chortí	244	0.7	92.4
Panama	Emberá	583	2.6	99.1
	Wounaan	226	3.3	98.1
	Ngöbe	129	0.1	52.7
	Kuna	107	0.2	43.9
Paraguay	Avaguaraní	186	1.3	98.4
	Guaraní occidental	50	2.1	86.0
	Mbya	78	0.5	91.0
	Paitavytera	55	0.4	96.4

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

^a Total international indigenous immigrants belonging to a particular group in relation to that group's total population in the country of residence.

^b For each group, the countries where ancestral lands are located were identified. For example, for the Quechua people in Bolivia the figure corresponds to the total number of Quechua people born in Argentina, Chile and Peru in relation to all Quechuas born outside Bolivia but residing in that country.

^c Refers to those aged 15 years and over, since identification of ethnic group was confined to that universe in the census.

These results raise the question of whether, though jurisdictional borders are being crossed, the mobility is taking place within ethnocultural areas and is therefore indigenous territorial mobility. This is not necessarily the case, since it depends on whether migrants settle in areas that correspond to ancestral territories with shared sociocultural links. As for destinations, although the rural preference of indigenous immigrants is significant, it is not sufficient evidence by itself. In certain peoples, the places of residence of indigenous immigrants seem to reflect both patterns, migration and mobility, even within a single people. In the case of the Quechua

people living in Chile, 89% of those born in Bolivia settle in the country's First and Second Regions (Tarapacá and Antofagasta), which are part of the Quechua ancestral territories. The Quechua people born in Peru, on the other hand, tend to gravitate (73%) to the Metropolitan Region. As for Aymara immigrants born in Bolivia and Peru and residing in Chile, 90% live in the First and Second Regions, mostly the former. Lastly, of Argentine-born Mapuches, 52% settle in Araucanía, los Lagos and the Bio Bio region, which are within Mapuche territory, whereas 15% reside in the Metropolitan Region.

Despite this variety, there is also a discernable current of international migration in the proper sense, towards capitals or major cities, with Bolivia, Brazil, Chile and Costa Rica the most representative examples. The magnitude of this migration is less significant, however, in comparison with settlement patterns among non-indigenous migrants. In the aforementioned countries, no more than 30% of indigenous international immigrants reside in the urban areas of the major administrative divisions corresponding to the country's largest city: 13% in Panama province; 16% in Santa Cruz; 20% in the Metropolitan Region of Santiago; 24% in San José and 30% in São Paulo. In the other countries the numbers are below 5%. Urban indigenous migrants generally follow the territorial distribution pattern described above, since they tend to live in towns located close to their ancestral territories. This reinforces the idea of family migration, mostly through networks of relatives (Aravena, 2000).

The case of Costa Rica, which has the highest proportion of international indigenous migrants, is a good example of diversity in this regard and of the need to draw a distinction between types of migrants, according to their indigenous groups and their circumstances.³⁴ Of all international indigenous migrants, 39% live in urban areas and 61% in rural areas (see figure III.13). A high proportion of those in urban areas live in San José (62%); although it is not known which people they belong to, the majority were born in the neighbouring country of Nicaragua (77%). As for rural settlement, there is some evidence of ancestral territorial mobility. Of the international indigenous migrants living in rural areas, 55% are in Puntarenas and Limón (which cover most of the indigenous territories) and most of these were born in the neighbouring country of Panama. Furthermore, of the international indigenous migrants arriving in Puntarenas, 30% reside in indigenous territories as such.

The idea of international migration which is qualitatively different from ancestral mobility is reflected indirectly in the use of indigenous languages. A number of studies have shown that this declines inexorably from one generation to the next, at least in terms of magnitude, mostly because of discrimination, social stigma and the those languages' lack of functionality in new urban environments (Albarracín, Alderetes and Pappalardo, 2001). Census data show that in Guatemala and Mexico, international indigenous immigrants settling in rural areas retain their languages practically to the same extent as non-migrants (about 80%); in urban areas, however, only 25% of migrants speak their indigenous languages, as against 70% of non-migrant indigenous people. In Bolivia and Ecuador, international indigenous migrants retain their original languages to an even lesser extent, whether in urban or rural areas, although the downtrend is stronger in urban areas. These findings do not, however, necessarily mean that language loss is due to migration. The process may have begun before migration; indeed, migration may be "selective", inasmuch as those who speak only the official language are more likely to migrate.

This assertion seems to apply more to the case of true international migration; in the case of cross-border mobility, the continuing use of indigenous languages may be an important factor rather than a mere consequence. The figures for Guatemala and Mexico support this idea. Castillo (1997) notes that in the case of the Maya people of Yucatán (mainly the Mam group), it was precisely the existence of a shared language and sociocultural background that encouraged migration from Guatemala to Mexico. Furthermore, the importance of indigenous language as a means of recreating cultural identity in a new living environment has been recognized and is one of the pillars on which transnational indigenous communities are built (see box III.9).

³⁴ Unfortunately, in Costa Rica indigenous status was identified only in the 22 indigenous territories.

THE OTAVALO KIWCHA: TRANSNATIONAL INDIGENOUS MIGRANTS

The Otavalo Kiwcha of Ecuador stand out as an example of an indigenous people who have established transnational communities virtually throughout the world. In new communities thousands of miles from their home territories, they have used numerous means and strategies to reproduce, recreate and reinvent their ethnocultural identity, giving new meaning to their identity in the way they travel, emigrate and sell their crafts throughout the world. Indeed, these activities have formed the key to their integration in a globalized market economy and to the shaping of transnational cultures (Maldonado, 2005).

In this regard, the Otavalo Kiwcha have been able to find the most flexible mechanisms to append global features to their own modern practices (Appardurai, 2000). In their case, globalization has not necessarily meant stripping individuals, much less communities, of their "significant past". On the contrary, globalization has heightened their Otavalo Kiwcha identity, as they have drawn on their extensive experience as craftspeople and traders to be able to live in any space-time context without losing the essential, constitutive aspects of their ethnoculturality (Maldonado, 2005).

One of the ways of perpetuating links between destination and origin communities has been the establishment of ethnic-based organizations which promote use of the Kiwcha language and other cultural practices such as the celebration of Inti Raymi (birth of the new year), which is now celebrated in more than 20 countries. Furthermore, there is constant coming and going between families producing crafts in Ecuador and those marketing them in destination countries (Kyle, 2000).

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC.

b) Indigenous international migration: voluntary or forced?

One last aspect which has been high on the agenda for international organizations and experts is the extent to which indigenous migration is voluntary (United Nations, 2006c; Espiniella, 2006). It has been suggested that, being collective and determined by structural social factors, it is at the least not comparable with freely chosen individual migration. In the case of indigenous peoples, migration is evidently a last resort for survival, which some authors have gone so far as to term an "exodus" (González Chévez, n/d). This is a subject that calls for more comprehensive analysis and whose implications link it directly to the human and collective rights of indigenous peoples.

Unfortunately, population censuses are not the best tool for analysing such phenomena, which have to date been described in local research conducted by indigenous organizations and international human rights bodies. Box III.10 sets forth some of the situations of forced mobility which have affected the indigenous peoples of Guatemala and Colombia. Research in this area is still scant. This is one of the major challenges in achieving a better understanding of international indigenous migration and improving the design of appropriate policies. Forced mobility, as a violation of human rights and a violent displacement, has direct consequences on the survival of indigenous communities and peoples and thus needs to be brought to the public attention without delay.

**FORCED MOBILITY OF INDIGENOUS PEOPLES OF GUATEMALA AND COLOMBIA
AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP WITH THEIR TERRITORY**

In the first half of the 1980s, some 45,000 Guatemalan peasant farmers, many of them indigenous, arrived in Mexico seeking refuge from the life-threatening persecution they suffered in their homeland. They took refuge in camps along the border and, though their exact numbers are not known, with the help of local populations they spread out and settled in localities of different sizes. A further 50,000 refugees are reckoned to have dispersed throughout the region (American Watch Commitment).

Since the 1990s, 12 of the 84 indigenous peoples in Colombia have been directly affected by the military conflict between the army, guerrillas, drug-traffickers and mining companies. As a last resort, some peoples have moved across national borders; in the year 2000, a group of 200 indigenous Wounaan moved into Panama. Despite the danger, they returned to Colombia a few months later. Between 2001 and 2002, 10% of the indigenous population of the Department of Putumayo (estimated at more than 24,000) were displaced, some of them forced across the border into Ecuador.

In both cases of forced displacement –the Guatemalan Maya peoples and the Colombian indigenous peoples– land, territory and natural resources are at the heart of the conflict. In Guatemala, the army launched a persecution against groups of Maya in order to seize their lands, displacing entire communities who settled as refugees in Mexico and, in some cases, the United States (Castillo, 1993). In the Colombian case, indigenous peoples were "cornered" in their own territory and moved into Panama and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela only when their lives were at risk. So compelling is the struggle for the territory and control over resources (many of which are now undergoing exploration and contract awards), that as soon as armed conflict abates, indigenous communities return to their original communities, thus forfeiting refugee status in other countries (National Indigenous Organization of Colombia (ONIC), 2006).

Source: Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC.

F. Diversity and sociodemographic inequality of indigenous peoples: reflections for the formulation of policies within the framework of individual and collective rights

One of the most remarkable phenomena to have occurred in the region in the last two decades of the twentieth century and one which is likely to have long-term effects on Latin American democracies was the establishment of movements of indigenous peoples as national and transnational political stakeholders. Accordingly, a first generation of legal modifications, mainly consisting of recognition measures, was introduced. Concomitantly with these transformations, minimum standards relating to the rights of indigenous peoples were adopted in international human rights law, which is binding on States. Indigenous peoples' status as subjects of law calls for a change of approach to ensure that their individual human rights are guaranteed and respected at the same time as their right to form different collectivities. In addition, a fresh reading of existing inequities is needed insofar as these reflect gaps in the observance of such rights. Hence, it is necessary to formulate and implement policies and programmes aimed at eliminating those inequities.

In the light of the foregoing, a second crucial element arises: in order to assess the inequalities affecting indigenous peoples and monitor observance of their rights, it is essential to obtain timely, quality information that reflects the special features of each indigenous people and culture. The responses to the questions of who, how many and where indigenous peoples are take on a new political and legal connotation that goes beyond the conventional sociodemographic analysis.

This new socio-political context is reflected in the fact that practically all countries that conducted censuses under the 2000 round included at least one question on ethnic identification. At the national and international levels, a consensus has been reached that the self-identification criterion corresponds to the exercise of the right to identify oneself as indigenous. As well, in addition to the generic characterization as indigenous, the specific people to which the individual belongs should be

identified. A review of the situation in the countries shows that some progress has been made in this respect, but the approach will need to be consolidated in the 2010 round of censuses. One crucial factor is that States must promote and guarantee the full participation of indigenous peoples throughout the census process.

Notwithstanding the limitations of the census exercise, it puts the indigenous population at over 30 million persons and displays a wide diversity in terms of their numbers and demographic weight in each country, a diversity that extends to each people. There are 671 recognized indigenous peoples living in national States, with different legal and socio-political status and diverse territorial situations. Thus, the challenge for policy-makers is to target interventions on the basis of specific sociocultural and geopolitical factors and, at the same time, to apply local mechanisms that guarantee the principle of self-determination for indigenous peoples.

One common feature that emerges from the analysis of territorial distribution is the indissoluble link between indigenous peoples and the territory. The main settlements are situated in areas associated to ancestral –mainly rural– lands. It is no less true, however, that a series of factors –notably poverty, demographic pressure, soil degradation, the invasion of settlers, the interests of national and multinational corporations and the lack of basic services– are pushing indigenous peoples to migrate from their territories of origin towards urban centres or other rural areas, as the case may be. In other words, mobility exhibits peculiarities that vary from one indigenous people to another. As a rule, however, it does not follow the same pattern as non-indigenous mobility. The territorial distribution of urban indigenous persons is also different from the trend observed for the rest of the population, with a smaller concentration in metropolitan areas and a preference for urban centres close to their territories of origin.

Nevertheless, in such a highly urbanized region as Latin America, indigenous peoples centre their demands on legal protection and the expansion of their lands in rural areas, irrespective of the proportion of indigenous persons living in urban areas. This basically reflects the need for territorial control in order to conserve and develop their identity and achieve autonomy and poses significant challenges to governments in terms of public policies and specific measures to promote and guarantee observance of indigenous rights. It is no easy task to strike a balance between indigenous demands and the pressures of the global market, with its legacy of discrimination and exclusion as regards these peoples. The current situation with respect to indigenous lands and territories is attributable to a series of State-engendered factors (United Nations, 2001), which, together with increasing globalization and free trade arrangements, form an obstacle to the viability of territory-based autonomous projects.

Except in the case of Chile, indigenous peoples have a young or very young demographic profile with high fertility and mortality levels. The ageing process tends to be more advanced in the respective national contexts, although the differences vary from one country to another. Therefore, the State needs to consider different priorities for the allocation of resources, especially in the sectors of education and health. While the average fertility of indigenous women is systematically higher than that of the rest of the female population, the situation varies significantly depending on the country, people and geographic location. Undeniably, there is an interaction between structural determinants (particularly socio-economic status) that have an impact on access to health services and the lifestyle of each indigenous people. This, in turn, impacts on the performance of what are known as proxy variables for fertility (such as contraceptive use, breastfeeding and the marriage rate) which, unless duly taken into account, further narrow access to sexual and reproductive health services through lack

of cultural and linguistic accessibility. The higher levels of fertility are, however, due in part to the fact that the ideal number of children is higher among indigenous peoples, because of the role and significance of fertility in the processes of biological and cultural reproduction. The challenge is therefore to implement programmes designed to close the gap between this ideal and current fertility rates, by articulating the sexual and reproductive rights of individuals and couples in line with the rights to which they are entitled as indigenous peoples.

Infant and child mortality figures clearly show inequity in the form of gaps in the exercise of the right to health care. Early mortality rates are systematically higher among indigenous boys and girls than among their non-indigenous counterparts, in both urban and rural areas. In turn, low mortality rates at the national level are no guarantee of a better situation for indigenous peoples; in other words, there is no correlation between the overall situation in a country and that of its indigenous peoples. Once again, the situation varies depending on the people and the territorial location, according to the interaction between the structural determinants of cumulative discrimination and the lack of adaptation and cultural appropriateness of the health services. In order to close these gaps and achieve the Millennium Development Goals with equity, it is not sufficient to increase the coverage of the official health care system. It is also necessary to implement specific programmes with an intercultural perspective, which, based on the acknowledgement of a different world view and a distinct perception of the health–illness–healing process (right to cultural integrity), can promote an interchange between the biomedical model and traditional indigenous therapies. Generally speaking, insufficient progress has been made in this field since, to date, efforts have largely been confined to value–based acknowledgement of the problem in political discourse and have yet to make inroads into decision–making and the formulation and implementation of specific policies for reducing child mortality and eliminating gaps.

It is essential to develop an appropriate conceptual approach to the issue of international migration; in this regard, at least two main categories may be identified: ancestral territorial mobility and international migration in the strict sense of the term; in turn, within these categories, a distinction must be made between forced mobility and cross–border migration. Since there are numerous cross–border indigenous peoples, i.e., peoples who have been split up by national State boundaries (there are at least 35 in the Andean region), special policies and measures are required to protect bi– or trinational peoples, as indicated in ILO Convention No. 169.

According to available data, indigenous peoples have a lower propensity to migrate than non-indigenous peoples. This may be attributed to two factors: their attachment to the territory and the costliness of international migration. Over and above the quantitative aspects, indigenous migrants are acknowledged to be more vulnerable owing to poverty, exclusion and discrimination, which is often reproduced and exacerbated at their destination, especially in the case of women and children. Moreover, the effect is not only individual but also collective, affecting both the origin and destination communities.

As a rule, practically all indigenous immigrants come from adjacent countries. This trend increased in the 1990s, particularly in the latter half of the decade. If the triggers are not altered, the trends will tend to intensify. Indigenous migrants are not a homogeneous group, either in terms of ethnicity or in terms of culture, place of origin or destination; by the same token, the reasons and specific circumstances that lead them to migrate differ too. A more comprehensive analysis of peoples by ethnicity gives a clearer picture of the diversity, with two main patterns emerging: a clearly international pattern of migration, involving indigenous immigrants who settle in urban areas and a territorial form of mobility which is for the most part rural and occurs in regions that correspond to ancestral lands (this variability is

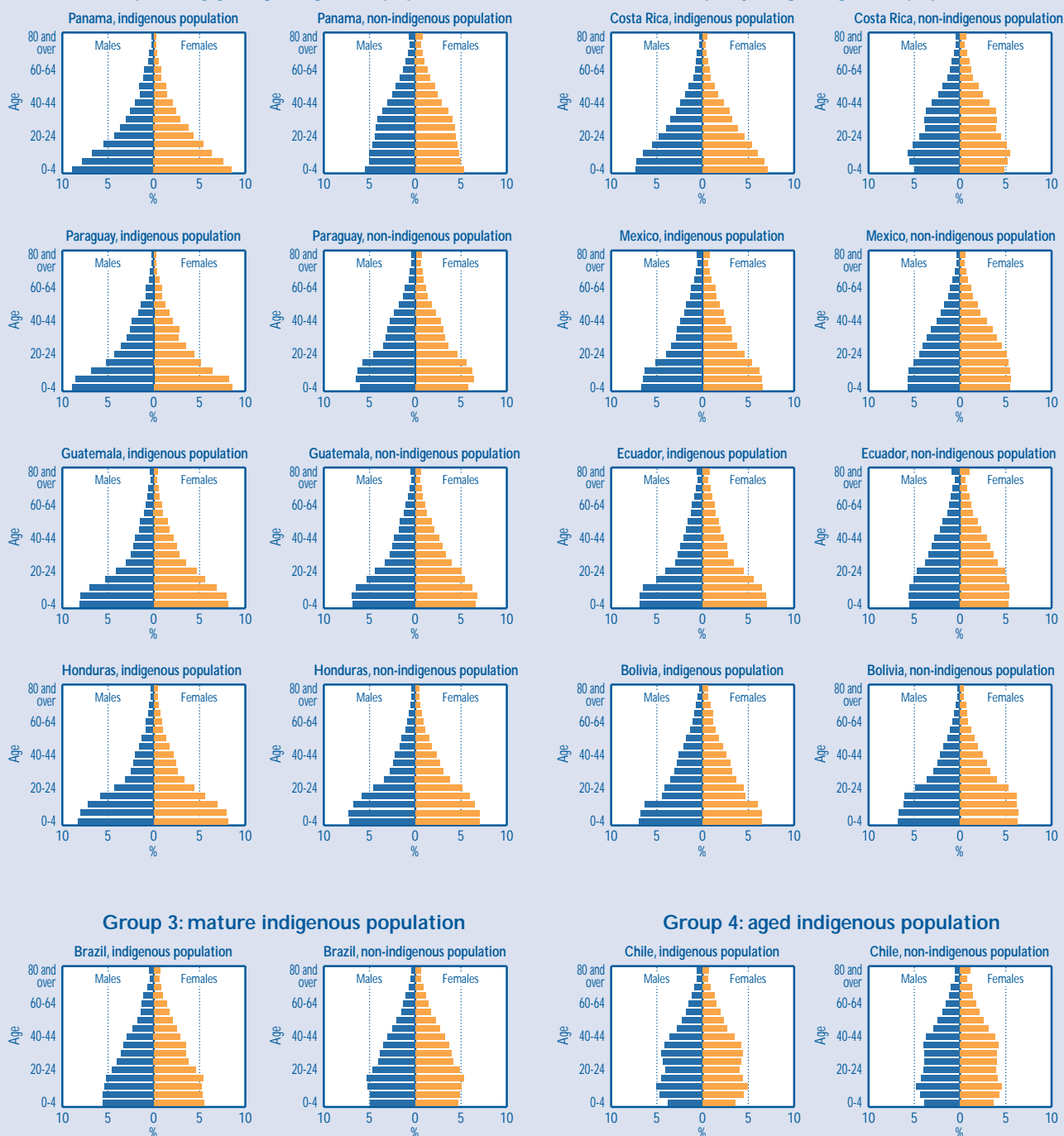
not observed in non-indigenous migration, which is essentially urban). Governments thus need to deal with the challenge of formulating policies and programmes to take into account the multiple dimensions of indigenous migration in order to maximize its development benefits and curb its negative effects. In view of the specific nature of cross-border migration, especially territorial mobility, steps should be taken to make dual nationality admissible under the legislations of adjacent countries. Such legislations should also contain special provisions to facilitate cross-border contact in recognition of the common-law right to mobility within an ethnocultural territory that predates the establishment of the legal borders of Latin American States.

At the beginning of the twenty-first century, new obligations are arising for States in terms of recognizing, promoting and guaranteeing the individual and collective human rights of indigenous peoples in line with international standards. Based on this approach, States must now seek to close the gaps in the extension of such rights, which requires State and policy reforms that ensure the full participation of peoples themselves while respecting the principle of self-determination. The analysis set out here points to the immense challenge that this represents in view of the complexity and diversity of indigenous population dynamics and the structural constant of inequity and inequality observed to a greater or lesser extent throughout Latin America.

AGE AND GENDER STRUCTURE OF THE INDIGENOUS AND NON-INDIGENOUS POPULATION, 2000 CENSUS ROUND

Group 1: very young indigenous population

Group 2: young indigenous population



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

INTERNATIONAL IMMIGRANTS BY PLACE OF ORIGIN, ETHNIC ORIGIN AND GENDER, 2000 CENSUS ROUND

Country of residence	Ethnic status	Region of birth									Total international immigrants		
		Latin America and the Caribbean			United States			Other countries					
		Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Bolivia^a	Indigenous	8 009	7 551	15 560	182	182	364	323	265	588	8 514	7 998	16 512
		94.1	94.4	94.2	2.1	2.3	2.2	3.8	3.3	3.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Non-indigenous	27 920	27 547	55 467	1 531	1 438	2 969	5 977	5 564	11 541	35 428	34 549	69 977
		78.8	79.7	79.3	4.3	4.2	4.2	16.9	16.1	16.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
Percentage of indigenous	21.8	21.2	21.5	9.6	10.4	10.0	3.2	2.3	2.8	19.4	19.0	19.2	
Brazil	Indigenous	2 462	1 693	4 155	9	0	9	173	142	315	2 644	1 835	4 479
		93.1	92.3	92.8	0.3	0.0	0.2	6.5	7.7	7.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Non-indigenous	75 899	63 904	139 802	8 116	5 729	13 845	277 661	245 094	522 755	361 676	314 727	676 402
		21.0	20.3	20.7	2.2	1.8	2.0	76.8	77.9	77.3	100.0	100.0	100.0
Percentage of indigenous	3.1	2.6	2.9	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.7	0.6	0.7	
Chile	Indigenous	3 898	4 382	8 280	18	13	31	104	108	212	4 020	4 503	8 523
		97.0	97.3	97.1	0.4	0.3	0.4	2.6	2.4	2.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Non-indigenous	60 790	70 008	130 798	4 848	3 811	8 659	25 019	22 321	47 340	90 657	9 6140	186 797
		67.1	72.8	70.0	5.3	4.0	4.6	27.6	23.2	25.3	100.0	100.0	100.0
Percentage of indigenous	6.0	5.9	6.0	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	4.2	4.5	4.4	
Costa Rica	Indigenous	6 505	5 815	12 320	26	31	57	0	0	0	6 531	5 846	12 377
		99.6	99.5	99.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Non-indigenous	126 929	127 910	254 839	5 326	3 893	9 219	7 302	5 900	13 202	139 557	137 703	277 260
		91.0	92.9	91.9	3.8	2.8	3.3	5.2	4.3	4.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
Percentage of indigenous	4.9	4.3	4.6	0.5	0.8	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.5	4.1	4.3	
Ecuador	Indigenous	574	557	1 131	31	23	54	67	58	125	672	638	1 310
		85.4	87.3	86.3	4.6	3.6	4.1	10.0	9.1	9.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Non-indigenous	35 995	37 237	73 232	5 822	5 236	11 058	10 006	8 524	18 530	51 823	50 997	102 820
		69.5	73.0	71.2	11.2	10.3	10.8	19.3	16.7	18.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Percentage of indigenous	1.6	1.5	1.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.7	1.3	1.2	1.3	
Guatemala	Indigenous	3 836	3 839	7 675	79	119	198	121	120	241	4 036	4 078	8 114
		95.0	94.1	94.6	2.0	2.9	2.4	3.0	2.9	3.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Non-indigenous	13 055	18 785	31 840	2 644	2 575	5 219	2 664	2 129	4 793	18 363	23 489	41 852
		71.1	80.0	76.1	14.4	11.0	12.5	14.5	9.1	11.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
Percentage of indigenous	22.7	17.0	19.4	2.9	4.4	3.7	4.3	5.3	4.8	18.0	14.8	16.2	

INTERNATIONAL IMMIGRANTS BY PLACE OF ORIGIN, ETHNIC ORIGIN AND GENDER, 2000 CENSUS ROUND													
Country of residence	Ethnic status	Region of birth									Total international immigrants		
		Latin America and the Caribbean			United States			Other countries					
		Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Honduras	Indigenous	297	316	613	70	66	136	25	24	49	392	406	798
		75.8	77.8	76.8	17.9	16.3	17.0	6.4	5.9	6.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Non-indigenous	9 623	9 867	19 490	2 554	2 153	4 707	1 774	1 207	2 981	13 951	13 227	27 178
		69.0	74.6	71.7	18.3	16.3	17.3	12.7	9.1	11.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Percentage of indigenous	3.0	3.1	3.0	2.7	3.0	2.8	1.4	1.9	1.6	2.7	3.0	2.9	
Mexico	Indigenous	3 158	2 585	5 743	1 351	1 228	2 579	79	103	182	4 588	3 916	8 504
		68.8	66.0	67.5	29.4	31.4	30.3	1.7	2.6	2.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Non-indigenous	38 791	44 158	82 949	170 964	169 603	340 567	37 179	31 076	68 255	246 934	244 837	491 771
		15.7	18.0	16.9	69.2	69.3	69.3	15.1	12.7	13.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
Percentage of indigenous	7.5	5.5	6.5	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.2	0.3	0.3	1.8	1.6	1.7	
Panama	Indigenous	573	504	1 077	16	14	30	46	33	79	635	551	1 186
		90.2	91.5	90.8	2.5	2.5	2.5	7.2	6.0	6.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Non-indigenous	24 673	28 085	52 758	2 990	2 093	5 083	13 440	9 630	23 070	41 103	39 808	80 911
		60.0	70.6	65.2	7.3	5.3	6.3	32.7	24.2	28.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
Percentage of indigenous	2.3	1.8	2.0	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.3	1.5	1.4	1.4	
Paraguay	Indigenous	218	216	434	0	1	1	3	0	3	221	217	438
		98.6	99.5	99.1	0.0	0.5	0.2	1.4	0.0	0.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Non-indigenous	80 993	75 571	156 564	934	812	1 746	7 568	6 108	13 676	89 495	82 491	171 986
		90.5	91.6	91.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	8.5	7.4	8.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Percentage of indigenous	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.3	

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

^a Corresponds to occupied private dwellings.



Social agenda

Public policies and programmes for families in Latin America

Introduction

At its thirty-first session, the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) recommended to the region's countries that a new social protection covenant should be established to enforce social rights in a context of integral solidarity combining contributive and non-contributive mechanisms.

According to the Commission, the main reason for rethinking institutionalized solidarity mechanisms for the purposes of social protection is that the labour market has not shown an inclusive tendency in terms of generating decent employment or with regard to levels of contribution. Employment cannot be expected to be the only way that most people have of accessing social protection in the short and medium term, at a time when the pressure on social protection systems is also being heightened by demographic and epidemiological transition and changes in family structures and relationships.

This new social covenant is based on three key elements: (i) explicit, guaranteed and enforceable rights; (ii) well-defined levels and sources of financing (solidarity mechanisms); and (iii) social institution building. These proposals seek to build bridges between social rights and policy decisions aimed at strengthening the enforceability of those rights by improving levels of access, financing and solidarity.

Given that changes in family structures are a major consideration in this new social covenant, this chapter provides an update on those shifts and a review of policies and programmes for families in the region¹ based on replies to a survey that ECLAC sent out to official national agencies. Answers were received from Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Honduras, Mexico and Peru.²

The countries' replies pointed to the fact that family heterogeneity was not only continuing but also rising at a faster pace, with a higher number of one-person households, single-parent families with a female head of household and also (to a much lesser extent) male heads of household. There has also been a reduction in two-parent nuclear families with children and in extended families, in addition to a decrease in the proportion of traditional family units with the male as main breadwinner.

In Latin America, there are two sociodemographic phenomena that have prompted a rethink in family policies: the increasing ageing of the population as a result of increased life expectancy and the drop in fertility, which will combine to transform population structures by increasing the proportion of households including older and female residents. The demographic transition of Latin American countries is also reflected in shifts in family life cycles, as the later stages of children leaving the nest and older couples living alone take precedence over the initial and middle stages of family life with younger children.

Problems remain in terms of redistributing functions within the home. Although the large-scale influx of women into the labour market is now a well established phenomenon, the need for a redistribution of

¹ The same exercise was carried out in 2000 (see ECLAC, 2000).

² See table 1 of the annex for a list of countries, institutions and representatives that replied to the questionnaire.

domestic chores needs greater recognition both in public policy and in the family domain. Time–use surveys carried out in Latin America show major inequalities in the way time spent on caring for children, the sick and older adults and on domestic work is distributed between the sexes. There has also been an increase in the number of female heads of household, many being one–parent families with no partner to share the domestic and caring responsibilities.

This situation calls for a new approach for policies and programmes for families. However, the State institutions responsible for family issues seem to be losing prominence in favour of programmes that view the family as the locus of intervention. This is a cause for concern, inasmuch as it creates coordination problems among government bodies (ministries, councils, etc.) and among regional and local institutions, while also duplicating efforts and reducing efficiency in terms of spending targeted at families.

This chapter is divided into five sections. The first assesses family transformations both quantitatively and from the point of view of government authorities. The second section outlines the main changes to the legal framework regarding families in Latin America, while the third evaluates the institutions responsible for family policy and programmes. The fourth section analyses the financing problems of family policies and programmes, while the final one summarizes the agreements and recommendations arising from the thirty–first session of the Commission, the main theme of which was social protection.

A. Changes in families in Latin America

Government authorities recognize changes in family structures, including increased heterogeneity amidst the growing number of single-parent families (especially with female heads of household) and consensual unions. There are fewer traditional nuclear families, and the functions of families and households have been changed by the fact that most women now work and other cultural changes in the modern world. These shifts associated with demographic, cultural and economic changes in the region demand that public policies adopt a new approach that ensures the well-being of people unable to care for themselves such as children, dependent older adults and the disabled. It is therefore vital for the State to design a public care policy that serves to link and regulate a network of public, private and mixed bodies to provide a service infrastructure that meets society's demand for care. Policies aimed at linking family life and the working life of men and women are therefore a fundamental part of this vision.

1. Transformations in family structures

The family is still a major institution and people continue to consider it a vital part of their lives, as shown in various opinion polls carried

out in Latin America.³ However, this is not the traditional stable nuclear family of the past: its structure and functions have altered. There have also been changes in the range of families at various stages of the family life cycle, and their needs and aspirations have changed accordingly.

³ The World Value Survey 2000 carried out in 11 Latin American countries found that 91% of those surveyed considered family to be the most important aspect of their lives (Inglehart and others, 2004; Sunkel, 2004).

The main concern of governments in terms of the family relates to its structural transformations: different types of family and recognition of such diversity (Chile, Colombia and Peru); the decrease in nuclear families and their size (Cuba); changes affecting the nuclear family such as the increase in single-parent households (Colombia, Honduras) or extended families (Honduras, Dominican Republic) (see table IV.1).

This information backs up the trends identified in ECLAC studies in terms of the many types of household and family in Latin America (see box IV.1 and annexes IV.3 and IV.4), a diversity that increased considerably between 1990 and 2004. During that time, nuclear families remained the norm but their percentage dropped from 63.1% to

61.6%, mainly owing to the increase in non-family households,⁴ especially in the form of one-person households that increased from an average of 6.7% to 9.5% throughout the region (see figure IV.1). Most one-person households are located in the urban areas of Uruguay and Greater Buenos Aires. The increase in the number of people who choose not to live as part of a family is a reflection of modern individualization processes and is more common among younger people or older adults with sufficient economic resources (Arriagada, 2004). The reduction in two-parent nuclear families with children (from 46.3% to 42%) is partly attributable to the fact that the same families have become single-parent families with children (mostly with a female head of household). There was a slight reduction in the number of extended families and

Table IV.1

LATIN AMERICA (7 COUNTRIES): MAIN CHANGES CONCERNING FAMILIES, ACCORDING TO THE RELEVANT AUTHORITIES			
Country	Changes concerning families		
	Most important change	Second major change	Third major change
Bolivia	Violence prevention and care	Access to integrated legal services	Access to services that protect the rights of children and adolescents
Chile	Incorporation of women into the labour market	Recognition of family diversity	Low birth rate
Colombia	Family as national priority in Development Plans during the two most recent presidential periods	Changes in marriage: one-parent families in urban areas, consensual unions, etc.	Change from the traditional concept of complete nuclear family to a recognition of different types of family
Cuba	Changes in gender relations within families	Changes in the number and average size of family nucleuses and in the structure and composition of households	Extension of family networks as a strategy for tackling financial problems
Dominican Republic	Smaller family size	Diversification in family composition (increase in extended family)	Increase in the number of female heads of household
Honduras	Change from nuclear families to single-parent families	Change from one-parent families to extended families	Family break-ups and dysfunctional families
Peru	Increased family participation in the management of social programmes and recognition of the role of women	Existence of new types of families other than the nuclear family Capacity building within families, especially to promote their own development	Some families have escaped poverty and extreme poverty

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) on the basis of the countries' responses to the ECLAC survey on policies and programmes for families, 2006.

⁴ For the purposes of statistical measurement, non-family households were divided into two types: (i) one-person households and (ii) households of people living together but with no spousal nucleus, i.e. not people living as a couple or parents/children, although there may be other family ties (see box IV.1).

composite families during the period in question. In Cuba, there are now more nuclei per dwelling (dwellings with more than one family nucleus), which is a reflection of arrangements whereby

nuclear or extended families live with non-relatives or two or more unrelated people live with each other. This is due to accommodation problems and points to possible overcrowding.

Box IV.1

TYPES OF HOUSEHOLDS AND FAMILIES BASED ON HOUSEHOLD SURVEYS

Information from household surveys is used to distinguish the following types of household according to the family ties surrounding the declared head of household:

- One-person households: consisting of one individual;
- non-nuclear households: those in which there is no conjugal nucleus or a father/mother-son/daughter relationship, although there may be other kinship relationships.

Other types of family:

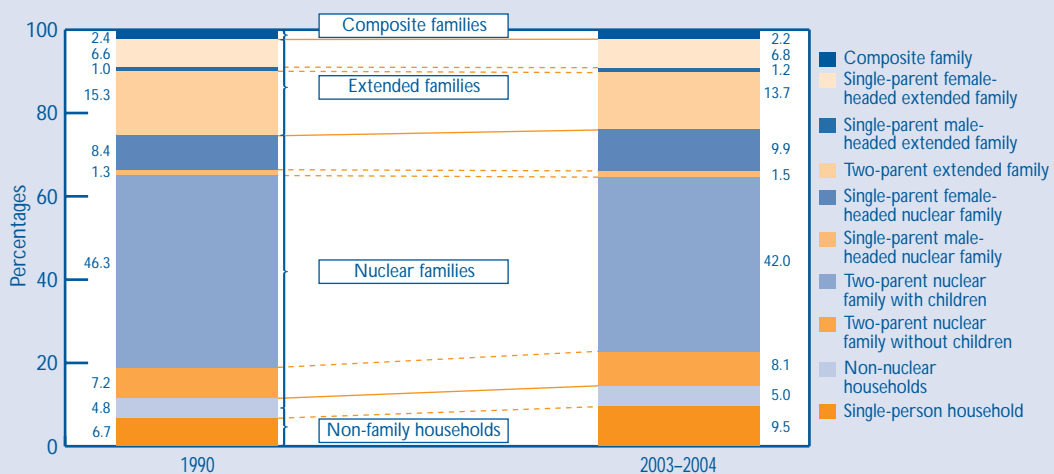
- Nuclear families: one or both parents, with or without children,
- Extended families: one or both parents, with or without children, with other relatives,
- Composite families: one or both parents, with or without children, with or without other relatives, and with other non-relatives –not including live-in domestic help and their relatives.

Other types include *two-parent* families (a couple, with or without children) and *one-parent* families (one parent –usually the mother– and children).

There are other types of families not detectable from the household survey information, such as joint families (individuals in a second union, with or without children of their own), migrants with families in different geographical areas, large families not living in the same home, and so on.

Figure IV.1

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): CHANGES IN TYPES OF HOUSEHOLD AND FAMILIES, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2004^a
(Percentages)



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

^a The values are simple averages of the countries.

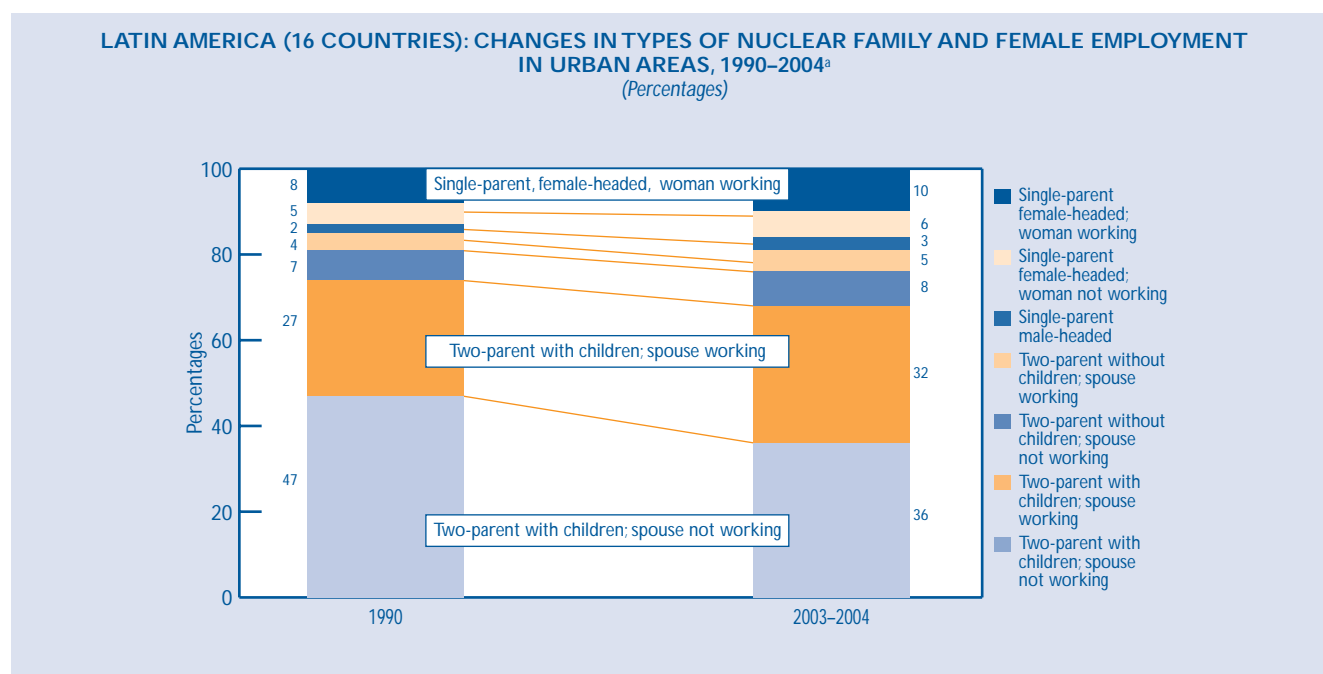
Several countries surveyed (Bolivia, Cuba, Dominican Republic and Peru) mentioned the increase in female heads of household, especially in urban areas, where 19% of households and families are headed by women. Some 11.4% of households and 13.1% of nuclear families are headed by single parents; of the latter, 86.8% are female-headed and 13.2% are male-headed. Couples without children account for 13.1% of nuclear families and couples without children where both members work account for 5.5% (see figure IV.2). Information from the 1990s shows that the traditional nuclear family has not been the most common situation in Latin America since the beginning of that decade (except in Chile and Mexico).

The increase in female heads of household has gone hand in hand with women's greater incorporation into the labour market, a process that

intensified between 1990 and 2005 as a growing number of women entered paid employment. Access to economic resources that enable self-sufficiency is a key factor in the establishment of one-parent families and households. Between 1990 and 2005 in Latin America, the female labour force participation rate in urban areas in 18 countries rose from 45.9% to 58.1% (ECLAC, 2006a).

Another key element of family transformation has been changes in the institution of marriage, which has lost ground to consensual unions (Colombia). In Chile, the number of marriages fell from 67,397 to 54,724 between 2000 and 2005; in addition, the number of marriage annulments increased. Other countries make mention of family changes due to increased access to comprehensive legal services and the protection of the rights of children and adolescents; family participation in

Figure IV.2



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

^a The values are simple averages of the countries.

the management of social programmes; and the priority given to families in development plans (Bolivia, Colombia and Peru). Only two countries (Honduras and Bolivia) mentioned domestic violence as a growing phenomenon affecting families in Latin America.

2. The need to rethink family policies

In terms of family structure, there is an increasing diversification in the paths families follow, as a wide range of options (one-person households, single-parent households headed by men or women, and young and older couples that form two-parent nuclear households without children) have arisen in the stead of the conventional family unit. This stems from the fact that the reproductive stage of their family life (initial, expansion and consolidation phases) represents a relatively shorter proportion of their lifetime.

Family transformations in terms of economic and social situations and stages in the life cycle must be taken into account in the formulation of public policies. Failure to take these factors into account has marred some social programmes. A painstaking analysis of demographic and epidemiological projections is essential if we are to map out the population's care requirements. Political agendas have not yet fully taken on board the importance of formulating policies aimed at ensuring that domestic and caring tasks are shared out and redistributed, while the unequal responsibilities of men and women in the private sphere is an issue that remains outside public debate.

In addition, formulating policies for the family is a complex matter when the interests of the family

members are different or even conflicting. Policies targeting all family members may benefit some more than others, given the unequal power distribution within families based on factors such as financial contribution, gender and age.

There are several entrenched myths that impede the proper design of policies for families: the myth of the nuclear family as an exclusive model, with both parents married, intending to live together in the long term, all their own joint children and with a rigid role distribution. Another myth is the harmonious family organized around the division of roles in which the man provides economically for the household while the mother only carries out domestic tasks. Despite the fact that most Latin American women are engaged in gainful employment –as are many children and young people– policymakers hold on to the image of the traditional family, where the mother is the sole agent of socialization for the children.

Changes in public social welfare systems and social and family policies have been varied according to countries and circumstances, but all have been in response to the major family and demographic changes witnessed in the recent past. However the public provision of social welfare remains based on some very specific assumptions regarding the characteristics and dynamics of family life. In other words, the family is still the main focus for social protection: from income guarantee mechanisms to the provision of social services (Meil, 2005). However, welfare systems should take into account the current situation with the increasing complexity and heterogeneity of households and families and shifting relationships within each family as a result of modernization, individualization and democratization.

It is therefore vital for the State to design a public care policy that serves to link and regulate a network of public, private and mixed bodies to provide a service infrastructure that affords a solution and guarantees the financing required to meet society's demand for care (Arriagada, 2006). The regulation of social protection for dependents also remains pending in Latin America. Very few countries in the region provide for formulating care policies for dependents including children, older adults and the disabled. In most cases, caring falls on what is known as family solidarity, which overburdens women and leaves insufficient coverage for pre-school children, older adults and the disabled. Since the countries in the region are at different stages of sociodemographic transition, countries should vary their emphasis in terms of care of dependents to focus on: children in countries in full demographic transition, older adults in advanced demographic transition and the disabled in countries that have experienced armed conflict.

The growing diversity of family structures including the rising number of female heads of household and the increasing participation of women in the labour market reinforces the importance of policies and programmes designed to reconcile work and family life under a gender-equity approach, with a view to establishing a more balanced consensus in terms of the bases for well-being: State-market-family-community. A central part of this consensus is to acknowledge that motherhood and raising children is a social responsibility and that the costs should not be borne exclusively by women. The aim is to formulate

conciliatory citizenship policies in the framework of different types of State and welfare systems and to assess existing incentives for women to work in equal conditions and the incentives for them to remain in domestic (especially maternal) care activities (Draibe and Riesco, 2006). This will call for the design of public policies and corporate social responsibility policies as well as efforts to bring about legislative changes in production and labour organization.

These new policies and programmes should be rolled out in three directions (Arriagada, 2005). The first corresponds to the organization of work time (flexitime, part-time work, job-sharing, compressed work schedule, shorter working day, annual hours contracts, flexibility, teleworking over the Internet, etc.); the second relates to the organization of family time (supporting family and domestic needs by providing more day-care centres and nursery schools for pre-school children, social security and home assistance to care for the infirm; parental leave when children are born or fall ill; and other measures to help men and women fulfil their responsibilities or leave the workplace in a family emergency; and the third direction concerns timesaving in caring and support for domestic chores (services implemented or partly or fully subsidized by the State, companies and workers themselves, such as: day-care centres and nurseries within or outside the workplace; care services for dependent older people; reserved places in nearby colleges or other domestic services (shopping, transport, restaurants, sports centres, etc.).

B. Regulatory framework, reforms and legislative changes regarding families in Latin America

A new regulatory framework has gradually been established for domestic family law to incorporate international guidelines on human rights. Latin American countries are making progress towards eliminating the use of discretionary criteria in family matters. Within national legislation, the status of the family has been transformed through reforms of family codes and specific social legislation. Also, family members (women, children, adolescents and older adults) are beginning to be protected by specific legislation aimed at reducing domestic and family violence. Very few countries have laws on reconciling family life and non-domestic work. Recent changes to legislation in Latin American countries are therefore a reflection of two simultaneous processes: (i) they are raising the profile of family violence and family care as public issues; and (ii) they are pushing back the boundaries of State intervention in what has traditionally been considered the private sphere of the family.

1. Eliminating the use of discretionary criteria in family matters

Latin American countries are gradually working towards eliminating the use of discretionary criteria in family matters (Acosta, 2005). For a long time, families were a private area in which the State could not intervene, and there was no appropriate regulatory framework for the changes under way within families. Within national

legislation, the status of the family has been transformed through reforms of family codes and specific social legislation. Also, family members (women, children, older adults) are beginning to be protected by specific legislation (see table IV.2 and the table IV.5 in the annex).

In several countries, the constitution recognizes the family and its members as being rights-holders. In Brazil, the importance of the family is recognized by the Constitution of The Federative Republic of

Brazil (1988), known as the Citizens' Constitution, which refers to the family as the basis of society and provides special State protection for the family. Also, the Statutory Law of Social Welfare transformed social welfare into a public policy in the area of social security and provides a social safety net. The maternal role is a major part of the national social welfare policy, which establishes that families' independence and access to social rights need to be guaranteed in order to prevent problems and protect and include its members in a relation of social equity (Carvalho Lopes, 2005). In Peru, the family is protected, supported and promoted by general policy within a framework of respect for its rights, recognition of its duties and equal opportunities.

In Chile, the new government intends to implement a social safety net funded up to 2010, to provide for a follow-up to the needs of family members throughout their various life cycles. In Cuba, discussions are currently under way on the proposed amendments to the Family Code, which was initially adopted in 1975 following a broad public debate in all communities and families. The Dominican Republic is currently drafting a family

code and in Peru, legislative reforms implemented in recent years have been geared towards the implementation of the national family support plan 2004–2011, supported by the family reinforcement act. It is interesting to note that Honduras reported no legislative reforms on family matters in the last five years.

In Colombia, the 1991 Constitution enshrines the primacy of inalienable human rights; the protection of the family as a basic social institution; and the promotion of equal rights and opportunities for men and women and special support for pregnant women and female heads of household. Colombia's political constitution therefore establishes the State's obligation to provide integral protection to the family. It also stipulates that all children, regardless of whether they are born inside or outside marriage, adopted, biological or artificially conceived, shall have equal rights and duties. The law also regulates responsible parenting. A partner has the right to make a free and responsible decision on the number of children and must support and educate them while they are young or disabled. The law also establishes the primacy of the fundamental rights of boys, girls and adolescents.

Table IV.2

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): MAIN ISSUES CONSIDERED IN REFORMS, 2000–2006												
Issues	Argentina	Bolivia	Brazil	Chile	Colombia	Costa Rica	Cuba	Dominican Republic	Ecuador	El Salvador	Peru	Uruguay
National reforms												
Constitutional reforms		X										
Reform of family codes		X					X ^a	X ^a				
Social welfare			X		X							
Social security systems								X				
General health act (national health insurance)			X					X				
National education			X				X					
Priority for female heads of household					X							
Law to strengthen families											X	
Information systems (birth records)		X						X				

Table IV.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): MAIN ISSUES CONSIDERED IN REFORMS, 2000–2006												
Issues	Argentina	Bolivia	Brazil	Chile	Colombia	Costa Rica	Cuba	Dominican Republic	Ecuador	El Salvador	Peru	Uruguay
Family care and rights of family members												
Maternity leave	X			X		X	X		X	X		X
Child-care facilities	X			X	X	X			X	X		X
Disabled					X		X					
Ageing and older adults			X		X			X				
Children's and adolescents' rights			X		X		X	X				
Regulation of cohabitation and common-law marriage					X							
Divorce law				X								
Family courts				X								
Smuggling of migrants and trafficking in persons								X				
Legislation on domestic and family violence												
Sexual and other abuse of children		X		X	X			X			X	
Sexual harassment	X			X		X			X	X		X
Family violence		X		X	X			X			X	
Legislation on reconciling work and family												
Maternity rights	X			X		X			X	X		
Paid maternity leave	X			X		X			X			X
Paternity leave	X ^a				X	X ^a	X					
Prohibition of dangerous work during pregnancy				X		X			X	X		X
Quota law									X			
Property of female head of household					X							
Business development for women and employment				X	X							

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean on the basis of the countries' responses to the ECLAC survey on policies and programmes for families, and L. Pautassi, E. Faur and N. Gherardi, "Legislación laboral y género en América Latina: avances y omisiones", Políticas hacia las familias, protección e inclusión social, *Seminarios y conferencias series*, No. 46 (LC/L.2373-P), Irma Arriagada (ed.), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean, 2005. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.05.II.G.118.

^a Draft legislation.

In short, the idea of social welfare is giving way to a wider concept of rights-based social protection. Despite this gradual progress, however, countries are far from making entitlement to these rights effective.

To make these rights enforceable and applicable, resources need to be increased and public capacity and institutions made more efficient.

2. Recent legislative changes

The information from the survey on policies and programmes for families in Latin America shows up at least four trends in the legislation that has come into force in the past five years: constitutional changes; legislative changes relating to the care of various family members, legislation on domestic and family violence and reconciling family life and non-domestic work (see tables IV.2 and annex IV.6). Public policies that seek to resolve the tension between working and caring attempt to balance three elements: time for caring, money for caring and childcare services (Ellingstaeter, 1999, p. 41).

(a) Constitutional changes

General constitutional reforms were implemented in the area of social welfare (Brazil and Colombia), social security (Colombia and the Dominican Republic) and health (health insurance in Brazil and the national health act in the Dominican Republic). Only three countries (Argentina, Colombia and Dominican Republic,) mentioned initiatives aimed at mainstreaming gender issues in State institutions, although some initiatives may lack an overall legislative framework and operate only on an institutional level or limit the gender issue to a specific sector. Legislative changes were also introduced in education (Brazil and Cuba) and in information and birth registration systems (Bolivia and the Dominican Republic). Lastly, the Dominican Republic also implemented reforms on trafficking of migrants and people in general.

(b) Legislative changes relating to the care of family members

Current legislative changes concerning family care are just beginning to distinguish caring from domestic work in terms of family policies. There is

growing concern about who should care for dependents (children, older adults and the disabled) within families.

Examples include traditional maternity benefits such as child allowances, maternity leave, measures to facilitate breastfeeding. Many of these issues affect linkages between the productive and reproductive spheres, but not all have a direct effect on women's entry into the labour market being compatible with their reproductive role. Analysis of legislation brings to light two interesting phenomena. First, measures are concentrated on pregnancy, birth and breastfeeding, while measures relating to childcare in other stages of the life cycle are few and far between. Second, provisions on parental leave and day-care and other childcare facilities are almost exclusively designed for the rights of women (in their double role as mothers and workers) and hardly ever refer to men. Maternity leave begins weeks before the birth date, with a minimum total maternity leave of 12 weeks in Argentina, Ecuador, El Salvador and Uruguay. Maternity leave is longer in Costa Rica (four months) and in Chile (18 weeks) (Pautassi, Faur and Gherardi, 2005).

The provision of services for the care of children, dependent older adults and the sick –both at the individual and institutional levels– is a little-developed field in Latin America. In terms of childcare, there are national differences in arrangements for day-care and nursery facilities. In Argentina, Chile and Ecuador, the law obliges employers to provide childcare facilities based on the number of workers. There is no such rule in El Salvador and Uruguay, although the former does have relevant targeted programmes (Pautassi, Faur and Gherardi, 2005). In Costa Rica, there is a law that regulates the use of day-care centres and, in Colombia, detained mothers have the right to day-care centres and receive special support in terms of house arrest.

Another key issue in family care relates to measures promoting assistance for the disabled (Brazil, Colombia and Cuba). In 2004, Cuba implemented a special care programme for families of physically, mentally or sensorially disabled children or adults and legislation was passed providing for the State to pay the salary of people who care for older people and mothers of disabled children who have to leave their jobs, all of which is a demonstration of how domestic work is valued in that country. In Colombia, vulnerable groups are protected by a law stipulating that any penalty will be increased by up to three quarters if physical or psychological abuse is inflicted upon children, women, older adults, physically or sensorially disabled people or individuals unable to defend themselves. In Brazil, this concern is dealt with in the programme for people with impairments (Carvalho Lopes, 2005).

As for legislation to protect older adults, amendments have been introduced in the area of social security (Brazil) and violence (Colombia) and in the form of an Ageing Act in the Dominican Republic. With regard to the protection of the rights of boys, girls and adolescents, legislative changes were recently introduced in Brazil, Colombia and the Dominican Republic.

(c) Legislative changes relating to domestic and family violence

Some changes have been introduced in the area of interpersonal relationships within families through the protection of the human rights of family members. In terms of citizenship and rights, these measures relate to domestic and family violence (Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Dominican Republic and Peru). In 2005, Chile amended the family violence act that classified violence against women, domestic and family violence as a misdemeanour and replaced it with another act that criminalizes such violence, and that also establishes 60 family courts set up to seek conciliatory solutions and compromises, with a view to reducing the time and costs for those involved and increasing the participation of parties

in the resolution of conflicts. Changes were also made in the area of sexual abuse and child abuse (Bolivia, Chile, Colombia and the Dominican Republic) and the recognition of the rights of children and adolescents.

In criminal law, offences against honour have been replaced by offences against integrity and sexual freedom. At present, rape is an offence inside or outside the family, and rape remains an offence even if the perpetrator marries the victim in an attempt to repair the damage to the family honour. Infanticide is not mitigated if committed by the mother or a member of the immediate family when the birth of the child is perceived to offend honour. Also, adultery has been decriminalized, mainly because the law provided for stronger sanctions against women than against men (Acosta, 2005).

However, although the State is beginning to take a hand in extreme situations, there are still legal gaps that hamper progress in terms of family violence. In cases where the family ceases to be a safe place for its members, the State tends to intervene through regulations that are different for women and children. Every effort is made to keep children in the home as they may only be taken out of the family with a court order. There is also a resistance to criminalizing family abandonment (mainly applicable to men who abandon their children).

Special mention should be made of sexual harassment, which is only explicitly referred to in the legislation of Chile, Costa Rica, El Salvador (in the penal code) and Uruguay. In Argentina, current regulations refer only to public-sector employment and are couched in terms of "psychological or other coercion". In other countries, this area is covered by expressions such as injurious behaviour on the part of the employer (Ecuador) or guarantees for the respect of workers where this might affect their privacy, private life or honour (Chile). This shows that not all countries in the region have managed to include appropriate legislation on sexual harassment (Pautassi, Faur and Gherardi, 2005).

(d) Changes aimed at reconciling family life and non-domestic work

A fourth recent trend observed in the region's legislation is a tendency towards reconciling family life and work outside the home. These measures attempt to indirectly or directly regulate the distribution of family roles, such as parental leave following birth and during nursing. This also includes legislation that attempts to reduce inequality in women's citizenship, reflected in the lack of recognition given to the economic value of domestic work and the problems women face in accessing employment, property and credit.

During pregnancy, there are two types of instruments that may be adopted to ensure that pregnant women remain in the labour market. One is to ensure that they are protected from being unfairly dismissed (maternity rights) and the other is the prohibition from carrying out tasks that may affect the pregnancy (which has often been the cause of discrimination against women in terms of employment).

These maternity rights exist in Argentina, Chile, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador and Uruguay. In Argentina, protection against dismissal lasts for seven and a half months following the birth, and there is a rule that protects female workers who get married. In Chile, women have this right during pregnancy and up to one year after the end of their maternity leave (15 months after giving birth), and this is supplemented by a law that makes it illegal to request a pregnancy test from a woman beginning a job. In Costa Rica, maternity rights apply until the end of the breastfeeding period (no duration specified). In Ecuador this period runs until the end of maternity leave (one year). In El Salvador and Uruguay, protection continues until the end of the

post-natal period, although in Uruguay there is no indication as to how long this should be (Pautassi, Faur and Gherardi, 2005). In Cuba, the maternity law was amended in 2001 to grant mothers maternity leave on 60% of pay from 12 weeks after the birth until the baby turns one. In Ecuador, maternity rights do not apply to domestic workers.

In several countries (Argentina, Chile, Costa Rica, Ecuador and Uruguay), maternity leave is in addition to wages received by the worker. In El Salvador, pregnant workers receive only 75% of their wages, with this being paid by the employer and not by social security. In terms of the States' financial commitment to protect these regulations, the Government of Costa Rica pays 50% of the maternity allowance through the Social Security Fund (Pautassi, Faur and Gherardi, 2005).

As far as paternity leave is concerned, there are few incentives for fathers to look after their children. Argentina and Costa Rica are discussing bills that aim to establish paternity leave of 15 days for fathers of adopted or newborn children. In Chile, paternity leave is only four days, but if the mother dies then the parental leave and protection against dismissal are passed on to the father. The law also grants the father or mother special leave during the child's first year of life in the event of serious illness. Paternity leave is three days in Brazil and only two in Paraguay. In 2003, Cuba adopted the decree-law on worker maternity, which authorizes paternal leave at the end of the breastfeeding period. The basis for calculating the financial allowance also changed: the father or mother of a physically or mentally disabled child may take two years' unpaid leave. In Uruguay, the leave is for only three days for public-sector workers or six consecutive weeks for salaried workers who adopt children.

The second type of instrument for regulating labour relations during pregnancy is the banning of any tasks that may affect how the pregnancy develops. This provision only exists in Chile, El Salvador and Uruguay. In Costa Rica, this rule is applied to all female workers (regardless of whether they are pregnant) and has often been considered a barrier to the economic participation of women.

In many countries in the region, there are strong tensions between welfare measures and protective

measures, between egalitarian provisions and those that entrench barriers to gender equality and between measures for the care of dependents and those regarding domestic work. However, legal progress is being made in terms of the protection of the rights of children, adolescents and women who suffer abuse in their homes. There is some concern (albeit to a lesser extent) over the care of sick and dependent older adults. In addition, there are the first signs of interest in adopting legislation on reconciling family life and work.

C. Public institutions responsible for family matters

Many countries lack government institutions for family matters with the sufficient funding, human resources and authority to tackle the problems faced by families. The absence of bodies to oversee family issues in a cross-cutting way throughout the various government bodies leads to a lack of coordination and duplication in family programmes. In some countries, however, there is a move towards networking to coordinate family policies and programmes. Although this development promises to be beneficial in terms of the coverage, relevance, quality and sustainability of measures, there are major difficulties when it comes to implementation. According to the authorities, poverty remains one of the main problems faced by families in Latin America, along with family violence and the breakdown of the family unit in the wake of migration and forced displacement. Another concern is the demographic changes affecting families, particularly the ageing of the population and the problems of caring for older people that are aggravated by limited access to basic services.

A review of family-based policies and programmes indicates that there is no integral notion of the family, no up-to-date analysis of the needs of its members and no network of services to provide the family with adequate social protection. Governmental measures are usually

fragmentary, in the sense that they are targeted at certain groups or sectors with no comprehensive notion of the family. Although such partitioning of measures is part and parcel of implementation, it often leads to actions that are contradictory, thinly spread or of low social impact.

1. Public institutions in charge of family matters: perception of problems and networking to tackle them

(a) Public institutions in charge of family matters

In Latin America, there is a huge variety of social institutions responsible for designing and

implementing policies for families: ministries for the family, secretariats, departments and councils attached to various bodies, foundations and institutes linked to the office of the first lady, independent organizations or even a complete lack of any specific institution (see table IV.3). There are also differences in the concept of family from the viewpoint of the relevant government entities and all other State institutions.

Table IV.3

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): FEATURES OF FAMILY INSTITUTIONS				
Country	Institution	Created	Institutional status	Answers to
Argentina	National Council for Childhood, Adolescence and the Family	1989	National Council	Ministry of Social Development, Office of the President of the Republic
Bolivia	Ministry for Development Planning	1997	Attached to Ministry for Development Planning	Office of the President of the Republic
Brazil	Secretary of State for Human Rights	1997	Secretary of State	Office of the President of the Republic
Chile	Foundation for the Family	1990	Foundation	Office of the President of the Republic, Social and Cultural Affairs
Colombia	Colombian Family Welfare Institute (ICBF)	1968	Institute	Ministry of Health
Costa Rica	National Institute of Women (INAMU)	1994	Institute	Independent
Cuba	Federation of Cuban Women (FMC)	1960	Federation	National Committee
Dominican Republic	National Population and Family Council	1968	Council	Secretariat of State for Public Health and Social Welfare (SESPAS)
Ecuador	National Institute for Children and the Family (INNFA)	...	Institute headed by First Lady	Office of the President of the Republic
El Salvador	National Secretariat of Family Affairs (SNF)	1989	State Secretariat	Office of the President of the Republic
Guatemala	Secretariat for Family Affairs (merging of the Secretariat of Social Works of the First Lady of Guatemala (SOSEP) and the Presidential Secretariat for Social Welfare)	2005	State Secretariat	Office of the President of the Republic
Honduras	Honduran Institute for Children and the Family (IHNFA)	...	Institute	Independent
Mexico ^a	National System for Integral Family Development (DIF)	1997	Public body	Secretariat for Social Development (SEDESOL)
Nicaragua	Ministry for Family Affairs (MIFAMILIA)	1998	Ministry	Office of the President of the Republic
Panama	Ministry for Social Development	1998/2005	Ministry	Office of the President of the Republic
Peru	Office of the Family and the Community	1974/1996	Ministry for Women and Social Development (MIMDES)	Office of the President of the Republic
Uruguay ^b	National Institute for Family and Women's Affairs	1992	National institute	Ministry of Education and Culture
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	National Autonomous Service for Comprehensive Child and Family Care (SENIFA)	...	Independent	Ministry of Health and Social Development

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of information from each office.

^a In 2001, the system was moved from the Secretariat for Health to the Secretariat for Social Development.

^b Until 2005, family affairs came under the National Institute for Family and Women's Affairs, which was attached to the Ministry of Education. With the change of government however, the Institute was renamed Institute for Women and now answers to the Ministry for Social Development (with no

In some countries of the region, agencies responsible for developing and coordinating family policies have disappeared. Despite the profound changes in family structure and functions and the wide range of types of family that would require differential treatment from the institutions created to support them, not many of the region's countries have specific bodies designed to formulate, link and consolidate integral public policies for families.

Family matters are still implicitly or explicitly associated with women's or gender issues. In several countries, the agency responsible for family matters is also in charge of women's and children's issues, thereby reinforcing the model of the family based around the mother–children combination and ignoring the father's existence. Although almost a third of households in the region are headed by women (mostly in the absence of a father), the aforementioned model does not fit in with other sectoral policies targeting mainly men (fathers and heads of household).

A general overview reveals that the ministries and offices responsible for family matters have different notions of social development, families and gender equity compared with other government officials. This results in discrepancies between discourse and bureaucratic practices and hampers the implementation of policies and programmes. There are also differences between conventional approaches to family matters by sectoral agencies (such as ministries of health and housing) and the less traditional approaches of new State entities working in the area of gender and family. Even these new bodies are sometimes ambivalent and contradictory in terms of the importance attached to family issues or unequal gender relations, a phenomenon that is even more common when separate bodies are responsible for the two areas. The tension between entities responsible for gender issues and those in charge of family matters has resulted in a strengthening of the former to the detriment of the latter (Arriagada, 2006).

The work of various agencies and bodies therefore overlaps, with no coordinated service provision for family members with acute needs. This increases inefficiency in the use of scarce resources as family members are considered as isolated individuals who must be helped (children, female heads of household, the poor, etc.). This shows that it is not family type but family functions that need to be strengthened by appropriate policies. Different ways of supporting family functions have been devised, and each country needs to adopt them in accordance with their own appraisal of the situation of their families, the coverage and quality of their services, the relative emphasis on prevention or dealing with problems detected, among other aspects (Arriagada, 1998). It therefore seems of vital importance for countries to have a centralized coordinating body for policies targeting families and their members.

(b) Networking

In many Latin American countries, bodies responsible for family policies work with other ministries and social services, mainly those in the areas of health, education, housing, employment and justice. In Chile, for instance, the bulk of actions targeting families are coordinated through the National Children's Service (SENAME), the National Women's Service (SERNAM) and the Ministry of Justice. Other measures are coordinated by the Foundation for the Family. In Bolivia, ombudsmen for children and adolescents and integral family services work with ministries, prefectures and municipalities. The Programme to Strengthen the Family is conducted in coordination with the foundation of the Social Services Department (SEDEGES), parent associations and school boards. In Mexico, all programmes are coordinated by the National System for Integral Family Development. In the Dominican Republic, networking for implementing programmes involves, inter alia, the following sectoral institutions: the Secretariat of State for Public Health and Social

Assistance (SESPAS), the Secretariat of State for Education (SEE), the Presidential Council on HIV/AIDS (COPRESIDA), the Social Cabinet, the National Technical and Professional Training Institute (INFOTEP), the Civil Society Consultative Council (CCSC) and the Central Electoral Board (JCE).

In Cuba, national programmes and measures involving the family are planned and implemented through many institutions: the Ministry of Public Health, the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Labour and Social Security, the Ministry of Finance and Prices and the Ministry of Culture; the National Institute of Physical Education and Recreation; the Cuban Institute of Radio and Television; National, Provincial and Municipal People's Assemblies; and the Federation of Cuban Women. The body that monitors and oversees the activities carried out by the various government agencies responsible for the Government's family programmes is the People's National Assembly (Parliament) and the

Commission on Children, Youth and Equality of Rights for Women.

In all countries, family institutions coordinate their efforts with non-governmental organizations (NGOs) (especially those that work to combat family violence or in the areas of education and training) and with United Nations specialized agencies and general cooperation bodies (see table IV.4). In Colombia, although all programmes are coordinated by government agencies (the main example being the Families in Action Programme coordinated by the Presidential Agency for Social Action and International Cooperation), other programmes are implemented in coordination with national and local NGOs (National Political Plan ("Make Peace"), Food Security Network (RESA) and assistance for families from ethnic minorities) or involve other international NGOs or local bodies such as the National Plan for Aid to Persons Displaced by Violence and the Aid Programme for Families in Emergency Situations.

Table IV.4

LATIN AMERICA (7 COUNTRIES): INSTITUTIONS THAT COORDINATE POLICIES TARGETING FAMILIES						
Country	Ministries or under secretariats for family matters	Non-governmental organizations	Foundations	Combination	Province-level coordination	Other
Bolivia		X	X			
Chile	X		X			
Colombia						
Cuba	X ^a				X	X
Dominican Republic	X	X	X	X		
Honduras	X					
Peru	X	X				

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean, on the basis of replies to the ECLAC survey on policies and programmes for families in Latin America (2006).

^a In Cuba, the coordinating institution is the Federation of Cuban Women.

In Peru, programmes such as the Supplementary Meal Programme, Programme for Mother and Child Health, Education and Preventive Nutrition, "Together" programme are coordinated by the following institutions: Ministries for Women, Health and Education, local governments and some NGOs such as the National Conference on Social Development (CONADES), Care International, Caritas Internationalis (International Confederation of Catholic Charities), Projects in Information Technology, Health, Medicine and Agriculture (PRISMA), Adventist Development and Relief Agency International (ADRA) and the Adventist Philanthropic and Social Action Works (OFASA).

Entities that work with families cite the following advantages of such cooperation: optimization of the use of resources, increased legitimacy for their work and greater coverage, timeliness, quality and sustainability of their activities. According to the Governments that replied to the survey, networking provides an integral approach to measures targeting families, increases the commitment of institutions and teamwork and raises the level of political will within various institutions. Another advantage is increased coverage for vulnerable groups so that their basic needs can be met by providing food, health, nutrition and education in a complementary way. Institutional networks also enable access to various sources of financing.

The main disadvantages of networking mentioned were coordination problems due to the internal rules and structures of organizations, different approaches and care models and information systems that do not

show the amount of resources and services per family. Difficulties such as the increase in bureaucracy, problems in reaching consensus and rivalry among different entities far from facilitate the task of making the right decisions. In some cases, as many as four institutions are responsible for family matters, often working in competition with each other and not always in a coordinated way: family institutions, women/gender entities, offices of the first lady and, more recently, local bodies carrying out programmes in this area (Arriagada, 2006).

(c) How authorities perceive the problems facing families

According to the relevant authorities, one of the main problems of families in Latin America is poverty (Bolivia,⁵ Colombia, and Honduras) (see table IV.5). Certain phenomena are particular to rural areas of Peru and Colombia.⁶ This situation is closely linked to the characteristics of employment in the region. According to ECLAC, although the Latin American growth rate picked up pace from 2004, job creation did not absorb unemployment prior to that. Unemployment therefore remained in double figures as more people entered the workforce for the first time. In addition, employment growth up to 2004 occurred in the informal labour market in terms of low-quality, low-productivity and low-income jobs (Uthoff and Ruedi, 2005). Regional analysis shows two asymmetries. One relates to how the poverty rate rises more in crisis periods than it drops in boom times. This is related to patterns of formal employment, whereby dips during crises are not followed by increases when the economy recovers.

⁵ In Bolivia, 21.7% of families nationwide live in indigence, 2.7% face marginality and 24.8% are around the poverty line, which is a trigger factor for family violence (survey of Bolivia, 2006).

⁶ In Colombia, 62.2% of the population is poor and 27.5% live in extreme poverty. This means that the country has approximately 22 million people living in poverty, of whom 7.4 million are indigents (survey of Colombia, 2006).

Table IV.5

LATIN AMERICA (7 COUNTRIES): MAIN PROBLEMS FACED BY FAMILIES, ACCORDING TO THE RELEVANT AUTHORITIES			
Country	Three main family problems		
	Main problem	Second problem	Third problem
Bolivia	Economic difficulties	Family break-up	Family violence
Chile	Childcare for working mothers	Family violence	Care of older adults
Colombia	Poverty	Forced displacement	Family violence
Cuba	Limited materials to build and repair housing	Limited household support services	Ageing of the population
Dominican Republic	Family violence	Family break-ups due to separation or divorce	Family break-ups due to migration
Honduras	Extreme poverty	Family break-up	Social problems within the home
Peru	High percentage of rural families whose income is insufficient	Lack of knowledge or information on health and nutrition	Prevalence of family violence

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) on the basis of replies to the ECLAC survey on policies and programmes for families in Latin America (2006).

The survey also showed an increase in family violence (Bolivia, Chile, Colombia,⁷ Dominican Republic, Honduras and Peru), which has become a public health issue variously classified by the law as: physical abuse; psychological abuse; sexual abuse; neglect and abandonment; and economic violence (see table IV.2 and annex IV.5). Recent research based on the demographic and health surveys (2000) conducted in around nine countries (including Colombia, Dominican Republic, Haiti, Nicaragua and Peru) confirms that most violence is perpetrated against women, that violence is not usually reciprocal, that domestic violence occurs in all its forms (physical, sexual, psychological) and that it is a serious danger to the health and well-being of women and their children (Kishor and Johnson, 2004). Furthermore, women subjected to domestic violence were more likely to have been married more than once (among separated and divorced women). This is not surprising, given that such violence is a major cause of divorce and separation. Similarly, there was a higher incidence of violence among

women who had married young and had several children and among women who were older than their husbands. In all countries studied, there is a positive relationship between violence against women and alcoholic husbands and a family history of domestic violence among parents. With reference to the multiple causality of family violence, ECLAC has stressed how poverty interlinks with domestic violence and the need to improve indicators for measuring and assessing policies aimed at reducing domestic violence (ECLAC, 2004c).

A third trend observed is the break-up of families (Bolivia, Colombia, Honduras, Dominican Republic) sometimes due to migration, especially among women (Peru). In Colombia, the phenomenon is linked to forced internal displacement. According to Colombia's unified record system, 402,944 households are displaced. This means a total of 1,784,626 displaced people,⁸ 35.9% of whom are under the age of 18.

⁷ In Colombia, cases of child abuse reported to the Colombian Family Welfare Institute can be broken down as follows. For physical abuse, there were 13,261 cases in 2003, 13,685 in 2004 and 20,211 in 2005 (i.e. an increase of 52% between 2003 and 2005). As for psychological abuse, there were 2,496 cases reported in 2003, 2,994 in 2004 and 4,090 in 2005 (i.e. an increase of 64%). As far as sexual abuse is concerned, 1,451 cases were reported in 2003, 2,182 in 2004 and 3,301 in 2005 (i.e. an increase of 127%).

⁸ Unified record system for displaced population (Social Action, the Office of the President).

Concern was also registered about demographic changes affecting the family, especially population ageing and the problems of caring for the elderly (Chile and Cuba). Studies show that as many as 20% or even 30% of households include at least one older adult. At the end of the past century, one in four households included an older person (ECLAC, 2002b) and there was a significant link between the number of households with older people and the number of older people overall, which is a key indicator of population ageing. According to ECLAC, in 1997 in urban households, 8 in 10 older persons lived in multigenerational homes according to 1990 censuses (and at least 2 in 3 according to household surveys). According to the Surveys on Health, Well-Being, and Aging in Latin America and the Caribbean (SABE), a high percentage of older people (between 40% and 65%) live with their children, with even higher percentages recorded in capital cities such as Havana, Mexico City, Santiago, Buenos Aires and Montevideo.

The increase in the number of older adults in the family poses new problems for social policies, such as covering higher social security costs, providing more retirement pensions and developing suitable care facilities for older adults and geriatric and gerontology specializations. In other words, guaranteeing access to material resources and services.⁹ There is also a social duty to integrate older people into the community and value their active role in the family.

Other countries describe as insufficient the social services provided nationally: home help and health

services, communication and information services (Peru), childcare services and services for older adults living with family (Chile and Cuba).

Country replies show that the aforementioned sociodemographic changes mainly affect poor and extremely poor families (Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Dominican Republic, Honduras and Peru). In the Dominican Republic, the greater impact on the poor is attributable to the predominance of consensual unions, which makes for more fragile relationships in this social stratum. In Colombia, although problems of forced displacement affect the general population, they are more common in rural areas and among ethnic minorities.

In most countries, all these problems tend to impact higher income families less as they are in a better position to tackle economic and social adversity (Peru) and have better control mechanisms (medical, psychological and psychiatric) (Honduras). Chile was the only country to state that family violence affects non-poor groups to a greater extent.

In Cuba, these problems started with the economic crisis in 1990, which in turn was prompted by the economic embargo and measures such as restricting recipients of remittances and parcels to the immediate family of Cubans resident in the United States and reducing the visits the latter could make to Cuba from once a year to once every three years (and then only for immediate family).¹⁰

⁹ In Chile, discussions are under way on reforming the pension and health systems.

¹⁰ A study carried out in Havana on the socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of families showed that the main feature of vulnerable families was the heavy demographic burden posed by the presence of children and older adults or the fact that all family members were elderly or chronically ill. These families tend to have a higher proportion of people carrying out domestic work. Such families also have the highest concentration of unemployed people, and those that do work receive low wages. They also have inferior living conditions, especially in terms of housing, which also has implications for family instability (survey of Cuba, 2006).

2. Policies and programmes for families in Latin America

(a) Various family policy and programme approaches

As a result of the profound changes in social, family and labour relations, the family is a locus for social policy intervention that makes it very complex for countries to formulate a social agenda. As with gender policies, family policies come up against the stumbling block of the high sensitivity–value of issues relating to families. This is an obstacle to the first step in designing public policy –identifying the issue to be resolved– and manifests itself in a lack of analysis of how families actually function.

Several typologies have been designed to make sense of the maze of programmes and measures targeting family members. The typology put forward by Goldani (2005) stresses the level of inclusiveness of family policies by making a distinction between family policies, policies relating to the family and public policies targeting the family.

One way of classifying family policies in the region is to distinguish between those that are for families –all the measures that impact indirectly on this social unit by operating from sectoral spheres– and focused measures that operate on the family nucleus as a whole or that tailor care to individual family members (see annex IV.7).

The survey results point to the coexistence of various approaches to family policies. First, although some countries have attempted to mainstream gender equality, few have tried to mainstream the issue of the family. This shows that there is still no integral notion of the family or of the welfare requirements of the family unit or its members.

(i) Policies and programmes targeting specific family groups

Conditional transfers for poor families

The first type of family policy is based around programmes targeting poor families. In countries such as Brazil and Mexico, this involves a high proportion of families. The social programmes are intended for vulnerable groups, with the family as the focus of intervention. Here are a few examples: Families for Social inclusion (2006) in Argentina; the Bolsa Familia household grants programme (1995–2003) in Brazil; Chile Solidarity (2002) in Chile; Families in Action (2001) in Colombia; Solidarity Network (2005) in El Salvador; Family Allowance Programme (PRAF) (1990) in Honduras; "Opportunities" Human Development Programme (formerly Progresá) (1997) in Mexico; and the "My Family" Social Protection Network (2000) in Nicaragua (see annex IV.6).

In Argentina, the Families for Social Inclusion programme began life in March 2006 as a key part of the social protection strategy adopted by the Government. The overall objective is to reduce the intergenerational transmission of poverty by expanding and strengthening a programme of targeted subsidies for the poorest families. The specific aims are: implementing and strengthening the programme so that conditional monetary transfers can be efficiently and effectively granted to all eligible families; capacity–building to enable the recipient families to access social services with a view to strengthening their human, social and family capital; and reinforcing and consolidating the programme's management capacity. At an estimated cost of US\$ 2 billion, the programme will be implemented in two phases over some seven years, and will be coordinated by the social income department of the Ministry of Social Development.

In Brazil, the Family Grants programme is a government priority and is coordinated by the Ministry for Social Development. The programme aims to guarantee permanent access to quality food and preserve the family nucleus and family values. This conditional income transfer programme is the lynchpin of social policies in Brazil. Financial allowances are granted to families with a monthly per capita income of up to US\$ 100 in exchange for commitments from the family in terms of their basic social rights in health and education: keeping their children in school and adhering to the family health calendar including vaccinations and periodic visits to basic health centres and check-ups for pregnant and breastfeeding women. The programme coordinates intersectoral policies geared towards social inclusion in areas such as literacy and food and nutrition security (Carvalho Lopes, 2005).

Chile also has psychosocial intervention strategies offering support to extremely poor families, in particular the Bridge Programme organized as part of Chile Solidarity. This programme is aimed at generating income above the indigence line so that families can activate the skills they need to participate in local networks. The basic concept of the Bridge Programme is that a family receives help from a professional helps (family support) to establish a personal relationship with the network of basic municipal and State services. Visits are carried out to the family home, with the frequency gradually decreasing over the two years that the programme works with each family. Family support is provided in six areas relating to quality of life: identification and vital records, health, education, family dynamics, liveability, work and income. Also, 53 indicators or requirements have been established as minimum standards of programme satisfaction including: an identity card for all family members, family registration with the Primary Healthcare Service, school attendance for children up to the age of 15, equitable distribution of domestic chores, a bed and basic facilities for each family member and registration with the Municipal Labour Information Office for any unemployed members of the family.

In Mexico's social policy, the family is the pillar of operation for social programmes. The main example is the Opportunities Programme, which selects those eligible according to technical criteria based on poverty indicators. The Programme's action lines are geared towards education, health and food. Support is conditional upon the family complying with their responsibilities, which include registering in health centres and showing up for medical appointments, turning up at monthly health talks and certification that children and young people are enrolled in and regularly attend school. Mexico also has programmes for ethnic families, such as the programme for out-of-school under-fives at risk, which offers support for children with some degree of undernutrition living in indigenous communities rural areas or marginalized urban areas. These measures are supplemented with resources for emergency situations (priority feeding and cookers in the event of disasters), and this is also the case with emergency assistance programmes in Brazil, Dominican Republic and Peru. In Brazil, there is a water-tank programme that supports the construction of water tanks for periods of drought and also provides health information. (Carvalho Lopes, 2005).

In Colombia, the Families in Action programme targets poor families classified as level 1 in the National Information System on Social Programme Beneficiaries (SISBEN) and grants a food subsidy for children under seven and a school subsidy for children between 7 and 18. All benefits are conditional upon the families' keeping to the commitments undertaken. Colombia has one of the widest ranges of programmes for various groups of families. The Forest-Ranger Families programme (Familias Guardabosques) supports peasant, indigenous or Afro-Colombian families living in environmentally important ecosystems that are either under threat or used for illicit crops. The programme offers families a monetary income and technical support (in social, productive and environmental activities) over a period of time so that they can undertake productive projects,

improve their organization and increase their participation in democracy. Also in Colombia, the programme for strengthening dispersed rural families promotes improvements in: the quality of family relations, school performance, a sense of belonging and territorial settlement and the use of rural practices and customs. Another focus of family policies in Colombia is humanitarian emergency aid and recovery assistance for families affected by natural disasters. This takes the form of food aid, psychosocial care and inclusion in existing municipal programmes suited to the situation in question.

Policies geared towards protection from family violence

Almost all countries (Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Honduras and Peru) are implementing programmes involving prevention and medical and legal assistance to protect victims' rights. In Bolivia, there is the National Public Policy Plan for Women's Rights (which establishes care standards for sexual violence) and the National Plan to combat Commercial Sexual Violence, which involves projects aimed at strengthening families, prevention measures and reestablishment of rights and the setting up of ombudsmen for children and adolescents.

In Chile, protection from family violence for children and mothers is channelled through the family courts, although these have collapsed under the deluge of proceedings as the number of reports for domestic and family violence almost doubled between 2000 and 2005 (from 53,545 to 96,404 according to police sources).

In Colombia, the national peace building and family coexistence plan "Make Peace" promotes the peaceful resolution of family conflicts and qualifies the provision of services to families and victims of family violence. Between 2003 and 2005, the Colombian Family Welfare Institute (ICBF) reported a 52% increase in the number of reports of

physical child abuse, a 64% increase in cases of psychological abuse and a 127% increase in complaints over sexual abuse. In 2005, the National Institute of Legal Medicine and Forensic Sciences in Colombia prepared 10,170 reports on cases of child abuse and 15,180 reports on sexual offences perpetrated against minors.

Cuba has a National Commission for the prevention of family violence chaired by the Federation of Cuban Women and comprising various bodies, social organizations and research centres. The Commission coordinates a series of activities including training, research, individual victim care and working with the media. At another level, the Federation of Cuban Women runs community programmes through guidance centres for women and family (COMF) that operate in every municipality to offer families free legal, psychological and educational advice. These centres have stepped up the fight for equal rights by organizing education activities and training courses within the community. This women's organization has also always included sexual education, family planning and reproductive health in its community programmes and activities.

In the Dominican Republic, the "No Violence" Programme has been involved in setting up information and crisis intervention areas, prevention campaigns, hostels and "women's friends" teams within the police. In terms of programmes aimed at strengthening self-management within communities, the Dominican Republic carried out actions through the Fund for the Promotion of Community Initiatives (Procomunidad) including the construction of basic services, decentralization of investment, support to local government and technical assistance for the community.

(ii) Policies relating to families

A second group of programmes are implemented by sectoral public agencies that, within their sphere of action, work with issues relevant to families. They

may involve long-term measures such as education, health and employment policies. However, actions aimed at families are often biased by these sectoral viewpoints and involve many fairly unrelated measures, some of which are initially set up by one administration and implemented by another.

Health

Many countries have food assistance programmes (Cuba, Colombia, Dominican Republic, Mexico and Peru) as part of their health services. These programmes have different features depending on the country: food subsidies (Cuba); productive projects so that mainly families vulnerable to displacement can provide their own food and improve their living conditions (Colombia); children's breakfasts and recovery of nutritional status (Colombia and Peru); workshops and promotional material for dissemination of information on hygienic food handling and proper eating habits (Mexico).

In the area of maternal and child health, the region has a series of programmes covering pre- and post-natal care (Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Honduras and Peru). As for reproductive health, programmes have been implemented on reproductive rights and family-planning for couples (the latter in Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Dominican Republic and Peru).

Lastly, several governments have attempted to step up actions in primary health care (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Nicaragua, Peru and Uruguay). Special efforts have been made in connection with sexually transmitted diseases (in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay). These programmes include free laboratory testing, diagnosis and treatment, distribution of medicine for HIV/AIDS and syphilis, distribution of condoms and preventive material (ECLAC, 2005a).

Other public health initiatives include national health information systems, which include violence indicators in the Dominican Republic and registration of births in Bolivia.

Education

The action lines for programmes geared towards schools are: violence prevention (Bolivia), schools for parents (Colombia, Cuba, Honduras and Peru), school attendance incentives (Dominican Republic), school breakfasts for pupils in public primary schools (Colombia, Mexico and Dominican Republic) and free primary and university education (Cuba). Cuba also provides a range of education programmes via educational television. In Colombia, family strengthening programmes include a family educator and a school for families where community leaders act as mediators in family conflicts and offer support.

Social security

Certain countries have reorganized their social security systems in order to extend coverage to immediate family members and children (Chile, Peru and Dominican Republic) or have implemented programmes to extend the coverage of family allowances and subsidies (Honduras and Dominican Republic). Some of the main examples are income transfer programmes in Brazil, such as the Continuous Cash Benefit Programme (BPC), which guarantees a minimum monthly wage. This is a non-contributory welfare benefit for poor people aged 65 or over. In the sphere of employment, the Dominican Republic has a programme to promote corporate development.

Housing

In Chile, the main housing access programme is "A neighbourhood for my family", which is aimed at the poorest groups and seeks to offer an alternative to conventional housing programmes. The aim is

that, in addition to a home, homeowner families also receive the tools necessary to become an integrated part of their recently established community and also of the neighbourhood that was already there. The programme includes the chance to access public and private social welfare networks, compete for grant funds, benefit from advice and training on how to improve and maintain housing and common areas and learn from the promotion of the basic rules of community living through new methodology including community mediation and networking. The programme also supports the various stages of integrating the family into their new home: the period prior to moving; moving out; settling into the new home; and beginning life in the community. The programme organizes workshops for individuals, families and the community. The duration of the programme depends on the action plans for each settlement, although the average is estimated to be around five months (Maurás, 2005).

Lastly, Cuba runs a housing programme that offers an attractive payment system to buy homes, which includes a set of home appliances at subsidized prices. There is also an audiovisual programme that includes the installation of solar panels for families living in settlements with no electricity. The Government of Cuba is also trying to increase the number of building programmes to include the construction of 100,000 new homes per year from 2005.

(iii) Policies and programmes geared towards specific family members

Children

Many countries have programmes for children that work towards the recognition and enforcement of children's rights (Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Honduras and Peru). In the Dominican Republic, the National Council for Childcare Centres (CONDEI) provides hostels and support programmes for abused and exploited minors, and created the network against child abuse.

The Supreme Court created a Department for Childhood, Adolescence and the Family. Other countries such as Honduras and Colombia (hogares Gestores) provide intervention and social protection programmes and foster homes or welfare centres for children at serious risk or in danger.

Other children's programmes include educational ones like the "Educate your child" programme in Cuba, which targets pre-school children who do not attend any educational establishment. In the Dominican Republic, day-care centres have been set up. Other issues that now form part of national agendas are child sex abuse programmes or programmes that protect the rights of children at social risk (Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Dominican Republic, Honduras and Peru).

Young people and adolescents

In most countries, there is a dearth of specific policies geared exclusively towards young people. Most countries describe actions within targeted and universal programmes, which are seldom aimed specifically at the youth population. Some legislation and programmes sometimes treat young people as part of the adult population, while other consider them as children.

Many countries are implementing employment programmes that are often based on qualifications and labour intermediation in an attempt to tackle high levels of unemployment (Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Mexico, Panama, Peru, and Uruguay).

Education programmes are a second government priority, especially in terms of scholarships and financing for study purposes (Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Honduras, and Peru), dissemination of new technologies (Chile, Cuba and Colombia), sex education (Mexico, Nicaragua and Panama), etc. (ECLAC, 2005a)

Countries are also making efforts to increase the range of health services targeted specifically at younger people. In addition to strategies aimed at extending access to health services in almost all countries, other measures implemented aim to resolve problems related to: teenage pregnancy and sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) (Panama); HIV/AIDS (Dominican Republic and Panama); and prevention, support and control of drug addiction (Chile, Colombia, Dominican Republic, Mexico and Nicaragua,). There are also integral health programmes for children and adolescents in Chile, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominican Republic and Peru, while only Colombia offers mental-health programmes geared towards young people.

Much has also been achieved in the area of information campaigns on the rights and duties of young people and youth legislation (Argentina, Costa Rica, Ecuador and Nicaragua,). These initiatives serve to strengthen youth organizations, provide training for public officials on current legislation and to place youth issues on the political agenda at the sectoral level. Other less well-developed issues include environmental conservation and education (Mexico, Cuba), social peace and projects to combat youth violence (Colombia, El Salvador, Nicaragua and Peru,), legal support for young people (Guatemala and Mexico), ombudsmen for children and young people (Bolivia and Dominican Republic) and prevention and control of the sexual exploitation of children, adolescents and young people.

In terms of youth initiatives, there is a surprising lack of measures targeting young women and especially those who have children at an early age. Only Cuba, among its new revolution programmes, mentions education centres for pregnant adolescents in conflict with the criminal law and comprehensive self-improvement courses for young people who have dropped out from school and who are unemployed (63.4 % of whom are women). Between 2000 and mid-2005, Cuba incorporated more than 6,000

single mothers into the workforce. The Ministry of Labour and Social Security and the Federation of Cuban Women provide orientation to these mothers through social workers they can see at guidance centres for women and family.

Women

Several countries have implemented employment policies that directly benefit women, not only in terms of their entry into the labour market but also in relation to accessing the professional training that will help them find better jobs (Chile, Cuba, Colombia, Dominican Republic and Peru). Since 2000, Cuba has been running its National Employment Programme, which involves specific measures aimed at incorporating women into the labour market and is implemented by the Coordinating Commission for Female Employment. The Commission comprises representatives from the Ministry of Labour and Social Security, the Central Workers' Union and the Federation of Cuban Women. In the Dominican Republic, the programme on access to vocational training targets female heads of household. Similar programmes exist in Chile, Colombia and Peru. The Cuban authorities have also endeavoured to incorporate the gender perspective into teaching and research by creating 25 professorships on women in institutes of higher education and universities.

Other programmes targeting women relate to protection from violence and sexual exploitation (Bolivia and the Dominican Republic) and integral guidance on family and reproductive matters (Cuba and Honduras).

Older adults and the disabled

Only three countries (Chile, Colombia and Cuba) mentioned programmes for older adults. Colombia has two support programmes for older adults living in poverty and indigence that provide an economic subsidy or supplementary food. These

are implemented with the participation of regional agencies, religious organizations, local NGOs and the community. In Cuba, the National Care Programme for Older Adults is geared towards providing health services and offering support to families through day-care facilities for seniors and arranging for older adults who live alone to receive meals from works canteens.

Brazil, Colombia, Cuba and Mexico all have special State care programmes for families with disabled children. In the case of Cuba, the relevant programme pays the wages of the head of household for two years.

An overview of policies and programmes for families shows that most countries do not yet have an integral notion of the family or the welfare requirements of the family unit or of individual family members. Measures implemented by national and local agencies therefore become fragmentary actions targeting population groups with a focus on categories of individuals (women, children, young people, older adults, the disabled) or sectors (housing, employment, health). All this lacks an integrative concept of the family as a collective unit. Although such partitioning of measures is part and parcel of implementation, it implies that the realities and requirements of family groups are not clearly understood and leads to actions that are contradictory and thinly spread. The measures end up being diffuse both in terms of their content and their target population, while experience indicates that the existence of specialized family institutions does not usually guarantee coordination among the agencies implementing social policies or programmes.

Programmes focusing on the family tend to be welfare programmes for groups with various

exclusions. Despite the fact that family policies have been recognized as being an integral and cross-cutting part of social policy, in practice, family policy actually consists of a set of unrelated welfare and emergency measures of fairly low social impact.

In many countries, social policies have moved towards targeting resources at the poorest groups. This creates low-quality programmes that not only stigmatize and discriminate against beneficiaries but also perpetuate poverty. Furthermore, some such programmes place little emphasis on the family group and continue to target women as being solely responsible for family well-being.

In addition, the objectives of targeting and protecting the family, children, young people, older adults, the indigent and the disabled involve so many agents, components and aims that resources are spread too thinly and actions are duplicated.

Although most countries are implementing policies to increase the employment of women, there is a lack of initiatives that take into account time-use factors and reconciling work and family for both sexes. Difficulties remain in terms of redistributing functions within the home, and in terms of distribution of time, domestic work and caregiving tasks within the family are very unequally divided between men and women. It is mainly women who shoulder these responsibilities in addition to their work outside the home (Aguirre, 2003). It is therefore vital to develop family policies from a gender perspective, so that domestic and caregiving tasks can be shared and redistributed. Family policies need to be redefined in accordance with measures aimed at reconciling remunerated and non-remunerated work for men and women.

D. Programme financing and coverage

It is difficult to estimate the amount of funding destined for family welfare, as programmes geared to families are spread out among various ministries and programmes. Yet the region does have some family programmes with extensive coverage, mainly in the form of the conditional transfer programmes that are coordinated by institutions other than those responsible for family matters. Among the main financing problems that authorities cited for family policies were limited resources, lack of institutional commitment to programmes and little coordination and linkage among them.

The range of resources and beneficiaries varies considerably in the programmes described. Peru and Colombia are the countries that channelled the largest proportion of social spending into family programmes, while Peru also destined a higher percentage of GDP to family programmes (see table IV.6).

In Brazil, the coverage of the Family Allowance programme has been considerably wider than that of previous similar programmes. According to official data, the programme covered 11.2 million families by 2005. A year and a half after being introduced in 2003, the number of families benefiting rose from 3.6 million to 7 million, which is the equivalent of 28 million people and US\$ 30 per family (which represented 0.28% of GDP in 2003). Funding for the programme stood at US\$ 2.55 billion in 2005, almost double the 2004 figure (US\$ 1.31 billion). The

goal for 2005 was to reach all poor families, as the programme is decentralized throughout almost all the country's 5,562 municipalities. Also in Brazil, the Continuous Cash Benefit Programme (BPC) covers older adults whose per capita household income is less than US\$ 30 (one quarter of the minimum wage) and who are not covered by social security. The BPC also helps to protect disabled people and the children and grandchildren of the older person. Beneficiaries of the minimum wage now number 2,150,000, which represents a transfer of 7.6 billion reais from the Ministry for Social Development. The water-tank programme has successfully built 70,000 water tanks for families of five to seven people and planned to build 40,000 additional tanks by the end of 2005. Lastly, the Food Procurement Programme (PAA) successfully reached 735 municipalities, which means constant follow-up for a total of 1007 households or 270,000

families. The programme is projected to reach 1,000 new families every year.

In Colombia, average investment in family programmes in the period 2003–2005 was US\$ 307,037,547,¹¹ with 64.8% of this channelled into the Families in Action programme that provides assistance to families classified as level 1 in the National Information System on Social Programmes Beneficiaries (SISBEN).¹² The Forest–Ranger Families programme (Familias guardabosques) supports

peasant, indigenous or Afro–Colombian families who live in environmentally important ecosystems and are either trapped by or under threat from illicit crops that they wish to eradicate in order to start growing legal crops. The Food Security Network (RESA) is for families involved in food security projects. The family strengthening programme, family educator and school for parents programmes target families who are vulnerable, suffering a crisis or in conflict and are linked to the services of the Colombian Family Welfare Institute (ICBF). The

Table IV.6

LATIN AMERICA (4 COUNTRIES): RESOURCES AND COVERAGE FOR PROGRAMMES TARGETING FAMILIES ^a							
Country	Year	Programme	Coverage	Financing			
				Per programme		Total	
				US\$ from year 2000	Percentage of social spending	Percentage of social spending	Percentage of GDP
Colombia	2003–2005	Families in action	494 480	192 198 531	1.35		
		Forest–ranger families	33 598	72 210 198	0.51		
		Food Security Network	319 039	15 485 141	0.11		
		Support for the social and cultural strengthening of the family (ICBF)	642 283	5 291 125	0.04		
		<i>Hogar Gestor</i> (family assistance system)	1 166	724 637	0.01		
		Strengthening dispersed rural families	122 702	6 007 101	0.04		
		Support for ethnic groups	169 516	2 155 298	0.02		
		Support for families in emergency situations	284 550	2 194 392	0.02	2.08	0.30
		Honduras	2005	Social protection and intervention	...	1 793 985	0.19
Family welfare	...			1 700 037	0.18		
Retraining and reintegration into the society	...			1 251 781	0.13	0.50	0.07
Mexico	2006	Social Assistance and Food to Families Programme (4 programmes)	1 615 125 (average families per month) 5 995 102 (children per day)	292 770 524	0.48		
		Different community		1 066 942	0.002		
		Food, meeting and development facilities		1 283 892	0.002		
		Productive units for development		5 088 834	0.01	0.49	0.05
Peru	2005	Supplementary Food and Nutrition Programme	...	109 344 062	2.10		
		Mother and Child Preventive Health, Education and Nutrition	...	1 655 782	0.03	2.13	0.17

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) on the basis of the countries' responses to the ECLAC survey on policies and programmes for families in Latin America (2006).

^a The 2005 implicit GDP deflator was used to obtain figures in local 2000 values except in the case of Colombia for which the 2003–2005 average deflator was used. The average annual exchange rate for 2005 was then applied and the values expressed as a percentage of 2005 GDP and of the most recent figures available for social spending (2003 for Colombia and Peru, and 2004 for Honduras and Mexico).

¹¹ In Colombian pesos, this is 800,080,171,576 (2003–2005).

¹² The figures for beneficiaries correspond to the maximum number of families to have received the subsidy during the period in question and the amount of investment corresponds to closed–out investment.

Hogar Gestor programme is for children and adolescents in extremely poor families unable to satisfy their basic needs. Priority is given to families with disabled children who have no access to enablement and rehabilitation services. The programme for strengthening dispersed rural families is geared towards economically and socially vulnerable families with infants, children, adolescents and pregnant or breastfeeding women. The welfare programme for families from ethnic minorities covers indigenous, Afro-Colombian and Raizal families. Lastly, the programme for families in emergency situations is for those affected by natural disasters.¹³

In Cuba most of the resources allocated to national family programmes come from the State budget, which is approved by the National Parliament on a yearly basis. International cooperation funds received through United Nations agencies are used for specific projects with budgets defined in accordance with the strategic objectives of national programmes. Coverage of employment, care and social security policies in Cuba has risen, while the State's budget for wages, and social security and welfare benefits was increased by 25.8%. In terms of income, the minimum wage was more than doubled, the retirement pension almost tripled and social welfare benefits increased substantially. The rise in the minimum wage combined with other increases throughout the year to increase average worker income from 354 pesos to 398 pesos (an increase of 12.4%), while the minimum social security pension tripled from 55 pesos to 164 pesos and welfare benefits rose by 96.7% from 62 pesos to 122 pesos. These measures directly benefited 5,111,267 citizens.

In Honduras, the Honduran Institute for Children and the Family (IHNFA) operates with national funding from the Ministry of Finance. Honduras also receives financial support from international cooperation agencies such as the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and the

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and from embassies that finance infrastructure projects. There are three family care programmes that run alongside childcare initiatives: the Social Protection and Intervention Programme for children aged 0 to 18 at social risk; the Family Well-being Programme that does preventive work with children aged 0 to 6 and holds vocational workshops for adolescents; and the Retraining and Social Reinsertion Programme for law-breaking adolescents aged 12 to 18. All these programmes began in 1997, when the National Council for Social Welfare (JNBS) became the Honduran Institute for Children and the Family (IHNFA).

In Mexico, the Family Food Assistance Programme (PASAF) was launched nationwide in 1983 and involved the National System for Integral Family Development (DIF) sending provisions for rural and urban populations through the relevant State systems. A restructuring process initiated in 2001 resulted in the creation of the following two programmes in 2003: the Food Assistance Programme for Vulnerable Families and the Food Assistance Programme for Vulnerable Individuals. There is also a breakfast programme and the programme for out-of-school under-fives at risk. The four food programmes operate with resources from the fifth Fund, line item 33, which are then transferred to State systems within the National System for Integral Family Development (DIF). Resources are allocated in accordance with State system priorities, as the only compulsory scheme is the School Breakfast Programme. The Different Community Programme was launched in 2002 with urban and rural coverage and the Programme for Food, Meeting and Development Facilities was also launched in 2002 for children, pregnant or breastfeeding women, older adults and disabled people in rural areas. Lastly, there is also a programme on Productive Units for Development, targeting older adults and the disabled.

¹³ The data for Colombia represent accumulated average figures for assistance between 2003 and 2005.

In Peru, programmes are implemented with resources from the Ministry of the Economy and Finance and the World Food Programme (WFP). There are two programmes: the Supplementary Food and Nutrition Programme and the Programme for Mother and Child Health, Education and Preventive Nutrition.

The difficulty of evaluating spending on families in Latin America is due precisely to the fact that programmes are dispersed among various ministries and schemes. Although family programmes are funded by the national budget in most of the region's countries (Brazil, Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Honduras, Mexico and Peru), they also receive input from other ministries such as the ones responsible for health (Peru), education (Peru), social development (Brazil), the economy (Peru) and justice (Chile). Other sources include international funding that is either reimbursable (Colombia) or non-reimbursable (Bolivia, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Honduras and Peru), combined resources (Bolivia), local resources (Colombia), NGOs (Colombia) or foundations (Chile, Colombia) (see table IV.7).

In the Dominican Republic, mother and child health programmes are financed from the national

budget and non-reimbursable funding from the Pan-American Health Organization/World Health Organization (PAHO/WHO), other organizations such as the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) and the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). Resources for training and labour modernization come from the International Labour Organization (ILO) and funds for child and youth programmes are provided by the United Nations specialized agencies. Financing for the Promotion of Community Initiatives comes from other institutions such as the Credit Institute for Reconstruction (KfW), the German Agency for Technical Cooperation (GTZ) and the German Development Service (DED).

According to the replies given by governments, the main problem in terms of financing policies and programmes for families is the lack of budget allocation (Colombia, Cuba, Dominican Republic and Honduras). This can lead to what is quoted as the second problem, which affects financing modalities for the programmes: a lack of coordination in the management of a single budget (Chile). The third concern relates to the lack of institutional coordination (Bolivia, Dominican Republic and Honduras) and the absence of

Table IV.7

LATIN AMERICA (7 COUNTRIES): SOURCE OF RESOURCES USED FOR PROGRAMMES TARGETING FAMILIES							
	Bolivia	Chile	Colombia	Cuba	Dominican Republic	Honduras	Peru
National budget, Ministries or Offices of the Under-Secretary for family affairs	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Other ministries		X					X
Reimbursable international funding			X				
Non-reimbursable international funding	X			X	X	X	
Non-governmental organizations	X		X				
Foundations		X	X				
Combination	X						
Local resources			X				

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) on the basis of the countries' responses to the ECLAC survey on policies and programmes for families in Latin America (2006).

continuity in policy financing (Chile and Peru). Other problems include the lack of education or awareness-raising for families with regard to family support, resulting in limited institutional commitment and low participation on the part of social organizations (see table IV.8).

Programmes for families are therefore plagued by financial insecurity and their survival is always under threat from changes of government, especially when the new administration is of a different persuasion.

In brief, ECLAC proposes that policies for families should tackle family welfare problems from their root causes (poverty, unequal income and sociocultural aspects) as well as in terms of the consequences. As part of a rights-based approach, family policies should be democratic, universal, equitable and based on solidarity. The functions of service delivery, financing and regulation need to be effectively coordinated in a cross-cutting and intersectoral way; resources need to be used more

efficiently; service coverage needs to match the target population; and the services provided should be of a high quality and regulated.

There appear to be four key areas for improving the welfare of families and their members: changing the legal frameworks to bring legislation up to date with new realities and existing diversity; directing policies towards the care of family members (especially those unable to fend for themselves); tackling family violence; and reconciling family and work responsibilities (which are at present being disproportionately shouldered by women). All of these issues should be taken into account in the design of policies for extremely poor families, in order to increase the sustainability and impact of such policies and especially to avoid the stigmatization of the poor population and provide a network of quality services that will effectively meet their requirements in an integral way. In this sphere, the State and its institutions are essential in welfare provision.

Table IV.8

LATIN AMERICA (7 COUNTRIES): MAIN PROBLEMS IN FUNDING POLICIES AND PROGRAMMES TARGETING FAMILIES, ACCORDING TO THE RELEVANT AUTHORITIES			
Country	Main problem	Second problem	Third problem
Bolivia	Lack of institutional commitment	Lack of institutional coordination and contacts	Limited participation of social organizations
Chile	Lack of coordination of a single budget	Lack of follow-up and continuity	Limited participation of social organizations
Cuba	Budgetary constraints	Intensification of economic embargo	International economic environment characterized by inequality between rich and poor countries, which causes a shortfall in available resources
Colombia	Budgetary constraints	Partial funding with external credit	Inflexible budget
Honduras	Budgetary constraints	Lack of institutional commitment	Lack of coverage
Peru	Unfamiliarity with the results of previous interventions	Lack of policy continuity due to change of government and institutional instability	Resources are used for infrastructure and not for family capacity-building
Dominican Republic	Limited economic resources	Lack of clarity of the objectives of other stakeholders and institutions that complement programmes for the family	Lack of coordination among institutions

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) on the basis of the countries' responses to the ECLAC survey on policies and programmes for families in Latin America (2006).

E. International agenda

The thirty-first session of ECLAC was attended by around 300 delegates from 33 member and associate member States, as well as by representatives of United Nations specialized agencies, non-governmental organizations and special guests. The session of the Commission is held every two years and is the opportunity for member States to examine the progress of activities during the previous biennium and adopt the programme of work for the next two-year period. The session is also the a forum for analysing the major development issues for the region's countries. At the thirty-first session, the main theme was social protection and the ECLAC proposal for a new social covenant designed to safeguard social rights.

The thirty-first session of the Commission held in Montevideo (Uruguay) was attended by Mr. Tabaré Vázquez, President of Uruguay, and Ms. Michelle Bachelet, President of Chile, who expressed her government's interest in interregional cooperation and acknowledged the historic role played by ECLAC in the region.

The government delegates adopted the programme of work for the ECLAC system for the 2008–2009, biennium with the following priorities: gradual consolidation of macroeconomic stability, improvement of the region's positioning in the world economy, increase in social cohesion, greater production potential, refinement of sustainable development policies, mainstreaming of

the gender perspective in public policies and the strengthening of global institutions.

The main governmental agreements resulting from the session include the Montevideo resolution endorsing the document *Shaping the Future of Social Protection: Access, Financing and Solidarity*, which had been prepared by ECLAC (see box IV.2). The document stresses that the reforms initiated in the 1990s did not solve the financing and coverage problems of social protection systems. This was because the design of the reforms did not match the realities of the region's labour markets, a problem compounded by limited and volatile growth, slow job creation and the increase in informal employment.

The session document promotes policies to generate more and better jobs. However, for the majority of the population, employment cannot be expected to be the only way of accessing protection in the short and medium term. It is therefore vital to strengthen solidarity mechanisms and non-contributory protection. The latter is limited by scarce fiscal resources, which leaves wide sectors of the population outside formal protection systems. Also, demographic and epidemiological transition and changes in family structures and relationships increase the pressure on social protection systems. It

is therefore vital for such systems to strike a better balance between incentives and solidarity. Social protection should include contributory mechanisms (based on wage contributions from workers or employers) and non-contributory mechanisms (financed from national revenues).

The document also stresses the importance of raising efficiency in the use of resources in order to increase the coverage and quality of services, especially for low-income groups. It also reviews support programmes for the poorest sectors of society.

Box IV.2

THIRTY-FIRST SESSION OF THE COMMISSION

Date and venue:	20–24 March 2006, Montevideo, Uruguay
Participants:	33 representatives from ECLAC member and associate member States, 18 representatives of the ECLAC secretariat and United Nations specialized agencies, funds and programmes, 11 intergovernmental organizations, 14 non-governmental organizations and special guests.
Organized by:	ECLAC
Background:	The thirtieth session of the Commission had adopted resolution 612 (XXX) on productive development in open economies.
Aims:	A more in-depth analysis of social protection with a view to increasing coverage and adopting solidarity-based criteria as part of the efforts to improve social cohesion.
Agreements:	Resolution 626 (XXXI) Montevideo resolution on Shaping the Future of Social Protection: Access, Financing and Solidarity

The session requested that the Executive Secretary disseminate widely the document *Shaping the Future of Social Protection: Access, Financing and Solidarity* and promote its review in the region's political, social, academic, business and civil-society circles, as well as among international organizations active in different areas of economic and social development.

The session called for a more in-depth analysis of:

- (i) Countercyclical public finances, bearing in mind the Millennium Development Goals;
- (ii) Reforms of the financing of social policies, with special emphasis on the integration of sources and the incorporation of solidarity mechanisms;
- (iii) In the health sector, the creation of solidarity mechanisms to permit equitable access to services for the entire population;
- (iv) In the area of pensions, the necessary mechanisms for progressing in terms of coverage, solidarity and financial viability; the on-going review of best practices to provide universal coverage that guarantees a minimum income for all low-income older adults;
- (v) With respect to the foregoing, assessing the impact of reforms on gender equity;
- (vi) Ways of complementing short-term programmes for alleviating poverty with the elimination of its more structural causes;
- (vii) Best practices applied in social programmes;
- (viii) A social institutional structure and authority that will lend forcefulness and technical and political viability to social programmes and the adoption of fiscal norms to ensure that these programmes have the necessary resources and;
- (ix) Methods that could be used to ensure that public policies contribute to social cohesion;

The session also requested the Executive Secretary to carry out a thorough analysis of these issues, study successful initiatives in these areas and, above all, formulate realistic proposals in keeping with the diversity of Latin America and the Caribbean as a priority contribution on the part of the Commission to the fulfilment of the countries' aspirations in terms of increasing equity, reducing poverty and reinforcing social cohesion.

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), resolution 626 (XXXI), Montevideo resolution on Shaping the Future of Social Protection: Access, Financing and Solidarity, thirty-first session, Montevideo, 20–24 March 2006.

ECLAC is advocating the formulation of a new social protection covenant that aims to enforce social rights and that considers inequalities and budgetary restrictions as obstacles that need to be acknowledged and tackled head-on.

The ECLAC sessional Ad Hoc Committee on Population and Development also met at this time, and presented the document *International Migration, Human Rights and Development in Latin America and the Caribbean. Summary and Conclusions* before approving a resolution on migration and development. The document provides the region's governments with guidance for facing the main challenges and opportunities that migration poses for development. Proposals are presented for a migration agenda that takes into account the specific characteristics of the region and that is based around the protection of migrants' human rights. The document stresses the need to promote and strengthen multilateral cooperation as a legitimate means of facilitating the contribution of international migration to the development of countries in Latin America and the Caribbean.

The resolutions adopted included an endorsement of the agreements of the Presiding Officers of the Regional Conference on Women in Latin America

and the Caribbean. There was a call for the mainstreaming of the gender perspective throughout the ECLAC Programme of Work and for an analysis of women's non-remunerated work and contribution to social protection and caregiving. Member States also approved the agreements of the Presiding Officers of the Regional Council for Planning of the Latin American and Caribbean Institute for Economic and Social Planning (ILPES), as well as the report on the Institute's activities, programme of work for the 2006–2007 biennium and financial report.

In connection with the Millennium Development Goals, ECLAC was instructed to continue carrying out research and providing technical assistance to governments in conjunction with other bodies in the United Nations system and to produce joint annual regional reports and a regional interagency report summarizing progress made in the five-year period 2006–2010.

Japan was admitted as a member State of ECLAC and the Turks and Caicos Islands were admitted as an associate member. ECLAC now has 43 member States and 8 associate members. The next session will be held in Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic, in 2008.

LATIN AMERICA (8 COUNTRIES): INDIVIDUALS AND INSTITUTIONS THAT REPLIED TO THE SURVEY ON PROGRAMMES FOR FAMILIES			
Country	Institution	Position	Name
Bolivia	Office of the Deputy Minister for Gender Issues and Generational Affairs	Director General	Nancy Rodríguez M.
Colombia	Colombian Family Welfare Institute (ICBF)	Director	Beatriz Londoño Soto
Cuba	Federation of Cuban Women (FMC)
Chile	Foundation for the Family	Head of family violence prevention programme and child abuse and sexual abuse prevention programme	María Angélica Benavides
Dominican Republic	National Population and Family Council (CONAPOFA)	Executive Director of CONAPOFA	Cándido Rivera Francisco
Honduras	Honduran Institute for Children and the Family (IHNFA)	Technical assistance manager	Gladis Rodríguez
Mexico	National System for Integral Family Development (DIF)	Director of family and community development	Martha Aguilar
Peru	Office of the Deputy Minister for Social Development	Deputy Minister for Social Development Chief of Advisory Staff	Mario Ríos Espinoza Juan Sánchez Barba
	National Food Assistance Programme (PRONAA)	Social specialist	Victor Oré Farro



ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (ECLAC)

SURVEY ON POLICIES AND PROGRAMMES FOR THE FAMILY IN LATIN AMERICA

Institution Identification: _____ Country: _____

Respondent: _____ Position: _____

Please describe briefly

1. The three most significant changes with respect to families in your country. List in order of importance:

1	
2	
3	

2. The three greatest problems faced by families. List in order of importance:

1	
2	
3	

3. Do these problems have a similar impact on all families regardless of social sector?

	Families in extreme poverty	Families in poverty	Families not in poverty
Yes / No			
Why?			

4. What have been the main legislative reforms concerning families in the last five years?
(mention law number and year of adoption and entry into force)

5. What are the most important national policies, programmes and measures implemented to strengthen families?

	Policies	Programmes	Measures
In general			
For poor families			
For families in extreme poverty			

6. What are the most important national policies, programmes and measures implemented to strengthen the different members of the family?

Members ^a	Policies	Programmes	Measures
Father			
Mother			
Children			

^a Examples: Paternity leave for fathers, protection from family violence for mothers and children, programmes for female heads of household, family reunification, etc.

7. What are the types, coverage, amount of resources and year of creation of your national programmes for families?

Type of programme ^a	Coverage (urban, rural, regional)	Resources		Year of creation
		Annual	Total	

^a Examples: Employment programme for female heads of household, preschool childcare, maternal and child health, prevention and treatment of family violence, conditional transfers (reproductive health) social security cover for widows, orphans, etc.

8. Which institutions coordinate programmes for families and what is their target population?

Name of programme	Coordinating institutions				Target population (sex and age)	Other ^a
	Ministry for Family Affairs	NGO	Foundations	Combination		

^a Such as older adults, poor/non-poor, urban/rural or ethnic groups.

9. What is the source of resources allocated to national programmes for families?

Name of programme	Source of resources						
	National budget, ministry or under secretariat for family affairs	Other ministries	International funding		NGOs	Foundations	Combination
			Reimbursable	Non-reimbursable			

10. What are the mechanisms for analysing, monitoring and assessing family programmes?

Name of programme	Mechanisms		
	Analysis	Monitoring	Assessment

11. What are the successful aspects of the programmes for families and which aspects need to be reviewed?

Name of programme	Successful aspects	Aspects requiring review ^a

^a For instance: Unsatisfied demand, limited human resources, insufficient funding, discontinuity, geographical inequalities, etc.

12. With which other organizations do you work on the implementation of programmes and policies that target families?

Programme	Government organizations	Non-governmental organizations			Other
		international	national	local	

13. In the implementation of policies to strengthen the family, do you coordinate your work with specific ministries or sectoral offices? Which ones? What are the advantages and disadvantages of this type of networking?

Programme	Ministries or offices involved	Advantages	Disadvantages

14. The three greatest problems in financing policies and programmes targeting families. List in order of importance.

1	
2	
3	

ADDITIONAL PAGES MAY BE ATTACHED IF NECESSARY

Any additional information on national programmes for the family or indications as to how to access such information on the Internet would be welcome.

The completed questionnaire should be returned to:
 Irma Arriagada, Social Development Division, ECLAC,
 Casilla 179-D, Santiago, CHILE; fax: 56 2 210-2523 or 56 2 208-1946;
 e-mail: irma.arriagada@cepal.org

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): DISTRIBUTION OF HOUSEHOLDS BY TYPE, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2004 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Total households	Types of household								
			Non-family households		Families						
			One-person households	No conjugal nucleus	Subtotal Nuclear families	Nuclear families				Other types of family	
						Nuclear no children	Two-parent nuclear with children	Single-parent nuclear (male head)	Single-parent nuclear (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
	2004	100.0	17.1	4.2	65.3	14.9	39.4	1.8	9.2	13.0	0.3
Bolivia (8 main cities and 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
Brazil	1990	100.0	7.9	3.9	71.1	10.0	51.6	1.2	8.4	16.0	1.1
	2003	100.0	10.6	4.1	68.6	11.3	45.2	1.3	10.7	15.8	0.8
Chile	1990	100.0	6.5	4.3	64.4	7.8	47.8	1.2	7.7	23.1	1.7
	2003	100.0	8.7	4.4	63.1	8.4	44.8	1.2	8.7	22.7	1.2
Colombia	1991	100.0	4.8	5.5	64.6	5.3	48.8	1.0	9.6	22.9	2.2
	2004	100.0	8.5	5.8	58.8	7.1	39.0	1.4	11.3	24.6	2.3
Costa Rica	1990	100.0	5.0	5.1	68.5	6.6	51.3	1.0	9.5	19.3	2.2
	2004	100.0	8.5	4.5	67.8	9.3	44.5	1.0	13.0	17.8	1.4
Dominican Republic	2002	100.0	9.4	6.8	56.6	7.4	36.4	1.5	11.3	23.3	3.9
	2004	100.0	11.6	5.2	60.1	8.2	42.5	2.3	7.1	21.3	1.9
Ecuador	1990	100.0	5.5	4.5	64.1	5.5	50.2	1.5	6.9	23.0	2.8
	2004	100.0	8.1	4.7	60.4	6.5	42.6	2.1	9.1	23.9	2.9
El Salvador	1995	100.0	6.1	6.2	55.0	5.5	38.1	1.2	10.2	30.3	2.4
	2004	100.0	9.3	6.3	56.4	7.1	36.3	1.3	11.7	27.3	0.7
Guatemala	1998	100.0	4.3	4.1	63.3	5.6	46.0	1.3	10.4	26.6	1.8
	2004	100.0	5.3	4.2	69.2	6.0	50.7	2.2	10.2	20.3	1.1
Honduras	1990	100.0	4.2	5.9	57.0	4.5	41.8	1.2	9.6	27.8	5.0
	2003	100.0	5.0	6.3	53.5	4.2	38.1	1.3	9.9	26.6	8.6
Mexico	1989	100.0	4.6	4.1	71.6	6.3	57.6	1.2	6.4	19.2	0.5
	2004	100.0	8.7	4.0	65.9	7.9	47.6	1.3	9.1	20.8	0.6
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
	2004	100.0	10.6	4.9	59.0	7.9	38.4	1.7	11.0	24.0	1.6
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	100.0	6.8	3.8	54.6	5.4	42.4	1.3	5.5	26.2	8.6
	2003	100.0	7.4	5.5	61.1	5.5	44.4	1.3	9.9	23.1	2.8
Paraguay	2000	100.0	8.4	5.6	57.0	6.0	41.0	1.4	8.6	25.8	3.2
	2003	100.0	8.2	5.4	59.7	6.3	42.0	1.3	10.0	23.7	3.0
Peru	2001	100.0	7.6	4.8	58.0	3.8	44.1	2.1	8.0	26.2	3.4
	2003	100.0	7.0	5.0	59.1	4.6	44.3	1.5	8.6	23.5	5.5
Uruguay	1990	100.0	13.9	5.6	64.3	17.0	38.9	1.3	7.2	14.9	1.3
	2004	100.0	18.3	5.3	61.0	16.1	34.0	1.7	9.1	14.5	1.0
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^a	1990	100.0	5.1	5.2	57.0	4.3	43.9	1.3	7.6	30.3	2.4
	2003	100.0	7.3	5.1	56.5	5.2	40.7	1.3	9.4	28.4	2.6
Latin America ^b	1990	100.0	6.7	4.8	63.1	7.2	46.3	1.3	8.4	23.0	2.4
	2004	100.0	9.5	5.0	61.6	8.1	42.0	1.5	9.9	21.7	2.2

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

^a Nationwide total.

^b Simple average of 16 countries.

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): TYPES OF NUCLEAR FAMILIES AND FEMALE EMPLOYMENT IN URBAN AREAS, 1990–2004 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Two-parent nuclear				Single-parent nuclear			Total
		No children		With children		Female head		Male head	
		Spouse works	Spouse does not work	Spouse works	Spouse does not work	Female head works	Female head does not work		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	6.4	15.8	23.5	43.4	5.4	3.8	1.7	100
	2004	8.4	14.4	28.1	32.2	9.5	4.6	2.8	100
Argentina	2004	7.4	13.2	29.5	31.8	9.8	5.3	2.9	100
Bolivia (8 main cities)	1989	1.9	3.9	36.2	45.0	7.7	2.9	2.4	100
	2002	4.5	2.8	44.7	30.1	12.0	3.4	2.5	100
Brazil	1990	5.3	8.7	27.2	45.3	6.4	5.3	1.7	100
	2003	7.9	8.7	33.0	32.9	8.9	6.7	1.9	100
Chile	1990	3.3	8.8	20.5	53.6	5.5	6.4	1.8	100
	2003	5.0	8.3	29.4	41.7	8.2	5.6	1.9	100
Colombia	1991	3.4	4.8	28.4	47.0	8.9	6.0	1.6	100
	2004	5.5	6.5	32.4	34.0	12.3	7.0	2.3	100
Costa Rica	1990	2.8	6.8	22.8	52.2	7.6	6.3	1.5	100
	2004	5.6	8.1	25.8	39.8	12.2	7.0	1.4	100
Dominican Republic	2002	5.6	7.4	27.9	36.3	11.1	8.9	2.6	100
	2004	3.1	10.5	20.7	50.1	5.4	6.4	3.8	100
Ecuador	1990	3.2	5.4	29.8	48.5	7.1	3.7	2.4	100
	2004	5.0	5.8	35.0	35.5	10.8	4.4	3.5	100
El Salvador	1995	4.7	5.3	34.7	34.5	12.6	5.9	2.2	100
	2004	6.2	6.3	35.3	29.0	13.8	7.0	2.3	100
Guatemala	1998	3.8	5.1	39.4	33.3	10.6	5.8	2.1	100
	2004	4.4	4.4	34.4	38.8	9.8	4.9	3.2	100
Honduras	1990	2.6	5.3	25.7	47.6	11.0	5.7	2.0	100
	2003	3.5	4.4	34.5	36.6	12.4	6.2	2.4	100
Mexico	1989	2.4	6.4	20.7	59.8	5.3	3.6	1.7	100
	2004	5.3	6.8	32.2	40.1	9.2	4.5	1.9	100
Nicaragua	1993	3.2	3.3	31.0	42.4	12.3	5.1	2.6	100
	2001	4.4	2.6	35.2	35.6	14.5	5.6	2.1	100
Panama	1991	3.1	8.6	23.3	45.9	8.5	7.5	3.0	100
	2004	5.9	7.5	29.5	35.5	11.0	7.7	2.9	100
Paraguay (Asunción y Depto. Central)	1990	3.4	6.3	32.6	45.1	5.6	4.6	2.4	100
	2003	5.1	3.9	37.6	35.0	10.3	5.9	2.2	100
Paraguay	2003	5.5	5.2	36.3	34.0	10.7	6.1	2.3	100
Peru	2001	3.0	3.5	42.1	33.9	9.5	4.3	3.6	100
	2003	3.4	4.4	41.2	33.8	9.8	4.8	2.6	100
Uruguay	1990	7.7	18.8	27.4	32.9	5.6	5.6	2.0	100
	2004	9.0	17.5	29.7	26.1	8.5	6.5	2.8	100
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^a	1990	2.5	5.1	24.5	52.4	7.2	6.0	2.2	100
	2003	4.3	4.9	34.8	37.1	10.5	6.0	2.3	100
Latin America ^b	1990	3.8	7.5	27.0	46.2	8.0	5.4	2.1	100
	2004	5.5	7.6	32.1	36.1	10.2	5.9	2.5	100

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

^a Nationwide total.

^b Simple average of 16 countries.

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): LEGISLATIVE CHANGES CONCERNING THE FAMILY, 2000– 2006			
Country	Acts, bills and decrees	Date	Legislative changes
Argentina	Law 25.632	2002	Criminalizes violence against women
Bolivia	Law 2.410	2001	Law on the need for constitutional reform
		2003	Law regulating paid domestic work Free registration of birth certificates
	Law 2.616	2004	Law on constitutional legal reforms
Chile	Law 20.066	2005	Law on family violence
	Law 19.968	2005	Law creating family courts
	Law 20.005	2005	Law on sexual harassment
Colombia	Law 575	2000	Partially amends Law 294 of 1996, seeks a more effective and immediate solution to violent situations by benefiting women and children, who are the main victims of such offences
	Law 599	2000	Updates the penal code, criminalizing violence against women and family/domestic violence
	Law 600	2000	Criminalizes violence against women, sexual violence and family/domestic violence
	Decree 1133	2000	Regulates Law 546 of 1999 and prioritizes female heads of household
	Decree 1214	2000	Regulates Law 446 of 1998 and refers to conciliation and arbitration centres
	Law 640	2001	Amends the rules on conciliation
	Law 742	2002	Approves the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court (1998), criminalizes sexual violence, family/domestic violence and violence against women in armed conflict
	Law 750	2002	Grants special support in terms of house arrest and community work for female heads of household and sets up day-care centres for the children of detained mothers
	Law 755	2002	Grants the husband or long-term partner four days of paid paternity leave
	Law 765	2002	Approves the Optional protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child. Criminalizes violence against women and the sexual exploitation of children
	Law 790	2002	Creates a renewal programme for public administration, confers extraordinary powers on the President and creates the social protection programme that aims to guarantee job security for mothers who head households and the disabled
	Decree 652	2002	Regulates laws 294 (1996) and 575 (2000)
	Law 797	2003	Distributes pension between the long-term partner and the former spouse in proportion with duration of cohabitation
	Decree 190	2003	Regulates Law 790 of 2002
	Law 882	2004	Increased sentence for the offence of violence. The punishment will be up to three quarters harsher if the physical or psychological abuse is perpetrated against children, women, older adults, the physically or sensorially disabled people or any individuals unable to defend themselves
	Law 975	2005	Measures to guarantee truth, justice and reparation in the process of reincorporating organized armed groups. Criminalizes violence against women in armed conflicts
Law 985	2005	Measures against trafficking in human beings and victim-care standards	
Costa Rica	Law 8017	2000	Law on the use of day-care centres

**LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): LEGISLATIVE CHANGES CONCERNING THE FAMILY,
2000– 2006**

Country	Acts, bills and decrees	Date	Legislative changes
Cuba	Decree–Law N° 234	2004	Amendment of the maternity law
		2003	Decree–law on worker maternity
			Special care programme for the families of children with physical, mental or sensorial disabilities
			State payment of wages to carers or older people and the mothers of disabled children
		Amendment to the Family Code	
Dominican Republic	Law 87–01	2001	Creates the Dominican Social Security System. Entry into force: 18 June 2003
	Law 42–01	2003	General Health Act. Entry into force: 17 October 2004
	Law 136–03	2003	Code for the protection system and the fundamental rights of children and adolescents. Entry into force: 1 January 2004
	Law 137–03	2003	Trafficking in migrants and people
	Law 88–03		Shelters for victims of violence
Ecuador	Regulation of law 103	2004	Violence against women and the family
Guatemala	Decree 831 Decree 668	2000	Regulation of the operation of 97–96 on family violence
Honduras	Decree 34–2000	2000	Law on equal opportunities for women, including the elimination of inequality within the family, health, education, credit, property and access to decision–making processes.
Mexico		2004	National family support plan
Paraguay	Law 1.600	2000	Domestic violence against women
Peru	Law 27.942	2003	Prevention of sexual harassment
	Supreme decree 005–2004–MINDES	2004	National Family Support Plan 2004–2011
	Supreme decree 011–2004–MINDES	2004	Establishment of the Directorate–General for the family and the Community
	Law 28.542	2005	Law on strengthening the family
	Supreme decree 032–2005–PCM	2005	Creates the "Together Programme", amended by Supreme Decree 062–2005–PCM
Uruguay	Law 17.292	2001	Six weeks of special leave for salaried workers who adopt children
	Law 17.514	2002	Criminalizes domestic, physical, psychological/emotional, sexual and economic violence

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean on the basis of the countries' responses to the ECLAC survey on policies and programmes for families in Latin America, 2006, and L. Pautassi, E. Faur and N. Gherardi, "Legislación laboral y género en América Latina: avances y omisiones", Políticas hacia las familias, protección e inclusión social, *Seminarios y conferencias series*, No. 46 (LC.L.2373–P), Irma Arriagada (ed.), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean, 2005. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.05.II.G.118.

LATIN AMERICA (8 COUNTRIES): CHARACTERISTICS OF SOCIAL PROGRAMMES FOR POOR FAMILIES

Country	Programme and date of creation	Implementing agency	Aim	Target population	Programme benefits	Amount in benefits	Annual budget	Spending as % of GDP
Argentina	Families for social inclusion, 2006	Ministry for Social Development, Social Income Department	To promote development, health and school attendance, while avoiding family exclusion	Poor families with children under 19 or pregnant women who do not receive subsidies through other social programmes	Non-remunerative monthly income for the mothers of beneficiary families. Provides school support and training workshops, plus a partial economic benefit to reduce the barriers to access to skills and vocational training and to ensure completion of the educational cycle	The amount of the subsidy is directly related to the number of children or dependent minors, with a minimum of 100 Argentine pesos a month for families with one child or a pregnant woman, and 25 pesos for each additional child up to a maximum of 5 children, plus 200 pesos per family	US\$1 billion for 2006, including US\$ 300 million from the Government of Argentina	
Brazil	Family Grants, 1995–2003	Ministry for Social Development and Hunger Alleviation	To increase the time children spend in primary and secondary education and prevent child labour among poor families	Poor and extremely poor families with children	Monthly income for mothers, access to literacy, food and nutritional security and digital inclusion	Provides monthly capita income of up to US\$ 100 for families that receive less than US\$ 17 per capita per month. Moderately poor families with children receive income of between US\$ 17 and US\$ 34 per capita per month	3.36 billion reais in 2003 6.54 billion reais in 2005	0.28 % of GDP (2003)
Chile	Chile Solidarity	Ministry of Planning and Cooperation, 2002	To offer integral support to families living in indigence and severe poverty	Indigent families			US\$ 200 million (2003–2007), in the form of and external contribution from the World Bank (P078088)	0.10% of GDP in 2004
Colombia	Families in Action, 2001	Administrative Department, Presidency of the Republic (DAPR)		Poor rural and urban families with children aged 0 to 17 that do not benefit from schemes such as Community Homes and Jobs in Action	Food subsidy for families with children under 7. School subsidy for families with children aged 7 to 18	School subsidy of US\$ 6 for each child in primary school and US\$ 12 for each child in secondary school. Food subsidy of US\$ 20 irrespective of the number of children under the age of 7	About US\$ 100 million in 2004	0.12% of GDP

LATIN AMERICA (8 COUNTRIES): CHARACTERISTICS OF SOCIAL PROGRAMMES FOR POOR FAMILIES

Country	Programme and date of creation	Implementing agency	Aim	Target population	Programme benefits	Amount in benefits	Annual budget	Spending as % of GDP
El Salvador	Solidarity Network, 2005	Office of the President (CASAPRES)	To improve the health and nutrition conditions of children 0–5 and pregnant and breast-feeding women; improve the conditions of extremely poor mothers; improve the education of children aged 6–14; reinforce the supply of basic services and promote citizen security for extremely poor families in municipalities and communities covered by the programme; provide the tools to enable households to sustain themselves economically through productive projects, training and microcredit	Extremely poor families	Food, vaccines and growth monitoring measures; training and direct support to increase children's consumption of nutritious food; and direct support for such families so that children can attend school regularly instead of serving as child labour and to cover the direct costs of attending school in rural areas;		37 million euros, Poverty relief programme for El Salvador (PAPES) of the European Union	
Honduras	Family Allowance Programme, PRAF, 1990	Office of the President of the Republic	To increase the human capital of children from poor families by helping them to break the cycle of poverty	Poor families with children aged 6–12 who have not completed the fourth year of primary schooling, with children under 4, with disabled children up to the age of 12; pregnant women and older adults over the age of 60	School vouchers, Mother and child vouchers and vouchers for older adults	School vouchers: US\$ 3 per child up to a maximum of 3 children per family for the 10 months of the school year; Mother and child vouchers: US\$ 3 per month for children under 3, disabled children up to 12 and pregnant women; vouchers for older adults: US\$ 3 a month for extremely poor adults over the age of 60	US\$ 10 million	0.2 % of GDP

LATIN AMERICA (8 COUNTRIES): CHARACTERISTICS OF SOCIAL PROGRAMMES FOR POOR FAMILIES								
Country	Programme and date of creation	Implementing agency	Aim	Target population	Programme benefits	Amount in benefits	Annual budget	Spending as % of GDP
México	"Opportunities" Human Development Programme (formerly Progresá), 1997	Secretariat for Social Development, SEDESOL	Capacity building for extremely poor families in the form of investment in human capital (food and health)	Families below the poverty line (18.9 pesos per person per day in rural areas and 24.7 pesos per person per day in cities) with: (i) children aged 8–18, enrolled in primary or secondary school, and (ii) babies aged 4–24 months, undernourished children aged 2–5 and pregnant or breastfeeding women	Educational grant for children between the third year of primary school and the third year of secondary school; basic health package for all members of the family; financial support for family food; food supplements for children aged between 4 months and 2 years, undernourished under-fives and pregnant or breastfeeding women	Food support of US\$ 15 per family each month	Around US\$ 1.86 million in 2002	0.32% of GDP (2001)
Nicaragua	"My Family" Social Protection Network, 2000	Emergency Social Investment Fund (FISE)	To promote the accumulation of educational, nutritional and health-related human capital in children from poor families	Children aged 0 to 13 from poor families. Children over 6 must be enrolled in primary education	Food vouchers for basic foodstuffs. Educational vouchers for households with children aged 6 to 13 attending first to fourth grade	Bimonthly food vouchers of US\$ 34; Bimonthly educational vouchers of US\$ 17 for households with children aged 6 to 13. Mothers receive US\$ 20 per year for each child enrolled	Around US\$ 5 million in 2002	0.021% of GDP

Source: Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), *Apoyo al programa Familias (AR-L1006). Propuesta de préstamo*, 2005; Ayala Consulting Co., "Taller sobre programas de transferencias condicionadas (PTCs): experiencias operativas", Informe final, Quito, World Bank, March 2003; World Bank, "Conditional cash transfers on trial. A debate on conditional cash transfers programs (SNS 2005) Course", *Summary Evidence*, 2 December 2005; Pablo Villatoro, "Los nuevos programas de protección social asistencial en América Latina y el Caribe", working document, Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), 2005, unpublished; Latin American Economic System (SELA), "Estrategias y programas de reducción de la pobreza en América Latina y el Caribe", Caracas, October 2005; Ministry of Planning and Cooperation (MIDEPLAN), *Sistema Chile Solidario*, Santiago, Chile, July 2002.

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): TYPES AND CHARACTERISTICS OF PROGRAMMES FOR FAMILIES

Type of programme	Area of intervention	Aim	Target population	Coordinating institution	Achievements	Difficulties	Financing	Country
Sectoral policies that affect the family								
Health	Public health	Food assistance	Newborns and children in general, National coverage in urban and rural areas Regional coverage Total population Risk groups	Ministry of health National, intermediary and local bodies	Increased investment in medicines Prevention habits Progress in standardization Definition of a food security policy	Limited development and implementation of environmental health policy Under-developed territorial management capacity	National budget Reimbursable international funding NGOs	Cuba Colombia Dominican Republic Mexico Peru
	Maternal and child health	Prenatal, childbirth, post-partum and newborn care Postnatal care Control of maternal and child morality Prevention of vertical transmission of HIV/AIDS	Care for pregnant and breastfeeding women	NGOs Foundations National councils and institutions for the prevention of HIV/AIDS	Reduction in the maternal mortality rate Discrete increase in institutional childbirth Reduction in infant mortality rates Reduction in infant undernutrition	Need for extended coverage of integral care and recovery in nutrition Limited human resources Lack of access and equity in the allocation of resources	National budget Reimbursable international funding Foundations NGOs	Chile Colombia Cuba Dominican Republic Honduras Peru
	Reproductive health	Family planning Dissemination of contraceptive methods Prevention of genital and breast cancer	Reproductive-age population Young people Pregnant women	National health ministries NGOs Foundations	Defining priority action lines Prevention of genital and breast cancer Community training and the promotion of rights with a gender perspective	Need for improvement in sector coordination Need to link benefit plans	National budget Reimbursable international funding NGOs	Chile Colombia Cuba Dominican Republic Peru
	Primary care	Health prevention Improving primary infrastructure Family doctors (only Cuba)	National coverage in urban and rural areas Community	Ministry of health National, intermediary and local bodies	Extended coverage Prevention habits Primary services Extended coverage for early diagnosis and disease management	Budget deficit Unmet demand Lack of infrastructure	National budget Reimbursable and non-reimbursable international funding NGOs Combination	Argentina Brazil Chile Colombia Costa Rica Dominican Republic El Salvador Nicaragua Peru Uruguay

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): TYPES AND CHARACTERISTICS OF PROGRAMMES FOR FAMILIES

Type of programme	Area of intervention	Aim	Target population	Coordinating institution	Achievements	Difficulties	Financing	Country
Sectoral policies that affect the family								
	Extended immunization programme	National vaccination campaigns Monitoring of various immunizable diseases	National coverage in urban and rural areas Total population	National health ministries	New vaccines Greater epidemiological monitoring	High operating costs Weak information systems	National budget Non-reimbursable international funding Combination	Argentina Brazil Chile Colombia Dominican Republic Ecuador El Salvador Honduras Paraguay Peru
Education and culture	Sex education	Combating retrovirus, AIDS and other sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) Prevention of the vertical transmission of HIV/AIDS Community training and the promotion of rights with a gender perspective	National coverage in urban and rural areas Regional coverage Total population Risk groups	Ministry of health National, intermediary and local bodies NGOs Foundations National councils and institutions for the prevention of HIV/AIDS and STDs	Increased investment in critical inputs for treatment of STDs Prevention habits	High operating costs Weak information systems Low resources	National budget Non-reimbursable international funding Reimbursable international funding NGOs Combination	Dominican Republic
	School	Violence prevention School education for parents Incentives for school attendance School breakfasts Reduction in the number of pupils per teacher	Children and young people in school Parents	Ministries for social development, health, etc. National Council for Childhood, Adolescence and the Family NGOs Specialized family institutions	Reduction in school dropout rate Improved nutrition for school pupils	Programme needs to be more decentralized More programme monitoring and assessment processes required	National budget Reimbursable and non-reimbursable international funding Private enterprise Combination	Bolivia Colombia Cuba Dominican Republic Honduras Mexico

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): TYPES AND CHARACTERISTICS OF PROGRAMMES FOR FAMILIES

Type of programme	Area of intervention	Aim	Target population	Coordinating institution	Achievements	Difficulties	Financing	Country
Sectoral policies that affect the family								
Education and culture	Cultural dissemination	Creation of educational television channels Family library Cultural centre Training of social workers	National coverage	Ministries for social development, health, etc. National Council for Childhood, Adolescence and the Family NGOs Specialized family institutions	Empowerment of social organizations Institution building Increase in civic participation Incorporation of private enterprise Forums for young people, children and older adults	Lack of integration and limited creation of community strategies		Cuba
Social security systems	Extending coverage to immediate family and children							Chile Dominican Republic Peru
Employment	Business development	Generation of production units and employment promotion	National coverage	Ministries of work and employment; social development; planning and cooperation; agriculture, etc. NGOs National trade promotion institutions National Production Council	Job creation Business expansion Improved access to credit Savings incentives Incorporating and building bridges with the private sector	There needs to be a long-term prevention strategy Coverage must be extended Monitoring and assessment procedures required Low impact	National budget State and private banks Reimbursable international funding Non-reimbursable international funding Private sector	Honduras
Policies and programmes targeting the nuclear family								
Programmes targeting types of family	Poverty alleviation	Social safety nets	Disperse rural families Ethnic families Families with disabled children Poor families	Ministries of work and employment; social development; planning and cooperation; agriculture, etc. NGOs National and international agencies	Higher incomes Stronger local networks Protection of local culture Community integration	Monitoring and assessment procedures required Lack of continuity Strategies are short term	National budget Reimbursable international funding Non-reimbursable international funding Private sector Combination	Colombia Cuba Dominican Republic

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): TYPES AND CHARACTERISTICS OF PROGRAMMES FOR FAMILIES								
Type of programme	Area of intervention	Aim	Target population	Coordinating institution	Achievements	Difficulties	Financing	Country
Policies and programmes targeting the nuclear family								
Programmes targeting types of family	Emergency humanitarian assistance	Grass-roots social organizations (community kitchen and mothers' clubs)	Children not in school Families in emergencies Priority municipalities Vulnerable individuals	Ministries of health and of social development	Limited resources Programme management Lack of continuity in programmes	Welfarism Low coverage	National budget Non-reimbursable international funding	Brazil Dominican Republic Mexico Peru
	Family violence	Prevention campaigns Setting up shelters Ombudsmen for children and adolescents Family courts	Nationwide coverage, in urban and rural areas	Foundations Local or national agency specialized in children, adolescents, youth or the family	Preventive design Unmet demand Department for children, adolescents and the family set up by the Supreme Court	Inefficient information systems Lack of awareness among officials	National budget Reimbursable international funding Non-reimbursable international funding Combination	Bolivia Chile Colombia Cuba Dominican Republic Honduras Peru
Housing	Access to mortgages Subsidy	Housing repairs	Civil society Families	Ministry for housing and social development	Improved social infrastructure and quality of life	Insufficient budget	National budget	Chile Cuba
Policies and programmes targeting specific family members								
Children and adolescents	Recognition and enforcement of the rights of children and adolescents	Compliance in agreements for children Ombudsmen for children and adolescents Programmes to combat child labour	Children and adolescents nationwide	Local or national agency specialized in children, adolescents, youth or the family	Increased awareness Setting up of institutional departments Design of an action plan for children's and adolescent policies	Insufficient funding	National budget Reimbursable international funding Non-reimbursable international funding Combination	Bolivia Chile Colombia Cuba Dominican Republic Honduras Peru
	Day-care centres	Childcare while breastfeeding	Breastfeeding women	Ministries (of work) Local or national agency specialized in children, adolescents, youth or the family	Legislative changes	Similar labour regulations	National budget Combination Private sector	Dominican Republic Peru
	Sexual abuse against children	Networks to combat child abuse Hostels and support programmes	Vulnerable children and adolescents	Local or national agency specialized in children, adolescents, youth or the family Ministries of health, education or employment	Greater awareness	Unmet demand Lack of continuity in programmes	National budget Combination	Bolivia Chile Colombia Cuba Dominican Republic Honduras

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): TYPES AND CHARACTERISTICS OF PROGRAMMES FOR FAMILIES

Type of programme	Area of intervention	Aim	Target population	Coordinating institution	Achievements	Difficulties	Financing	Country
Policies and programmes targeting specific family members								
Children and adolescents	Rehabilitation and social reintegration	Reintegration strategies for young people, adolescents and children at social risk	Extremely poor young people children and adolescents, drug addicts and those in trouble with the law	Ministries of education and/or culture National Council for Childhood, Adolescence and the Family National Youth Council Official youth body	Reaching young people with less access to government programmes Promotion of personal life plans Human, individual and social development Ensuring that young former inmates and drug addicts are reinserted back into society and the job market	Lack of inter-institutional agreements for permanent actions A need to recommend the sustainability of measures implemented	National budget Combination Reimbursable international funding Non-reimbursable international funding	Cuba Honduras
Young people	Employment	Generation of production units and promotion of youth employment Productive retraining Employment training Support for small and medium-sized enterprises	Unemployed young people Productive organizations	Ministries of work and employment; social development; planning and cooperation; agriculture, etc. NGOs National youth institutions National Production Council	Job creation Business expansion Extended access to credit Savings incentives Incorporating and building bridges with the private sector	There needs to be a long-term prevention strategy Coverage must be extended Lack of development of microenterprises and self employment	National budget State and private banks Reimbursable international funding Non-reimbursable international funding Private sector	Bolivia Chile Colombia Costa Rica Cuba Dominican Republic Honduras Peru
	School or vocational grants	Grants and study credits	Youth organizations Civil society Young people	Ministries of education and/or culture, social development, justice, of the interior, etc. National Council for Childhood, Adolescence and the Family Official youth body NGOs Specialized family institutions Government science and technology institutions International Youth Organization	Putting youth on the political agenda Promoting science	Programme needs to be more decentralized Programme monitoring and assessment processes required	National budget Reimbursable cooperation fund State and private banks Combination	Argentina Chile Colombia Costa Rica Cuba Dominican Republic Honduras

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): TYPES AND CHARACTERISTICS OF PROGRAMMES FOR FAMILIES								
Type of programme	Area of intervention	Aim	Target population	Coordinating institution	Achievements	Difficulties	Financing	Country
Policies and programmes targeting specific family members								
Young people	Comprehensive adolescent health programmes	Extending access to basic health care Integral prevention and care on sexuality and addictions	Adolescents Children Young people Nationwide	Ministry of health NGOs Decentralized official youth body National Council for Childhood, Adolescence and the Family	Providing specialized health care to adolescents throughout the country	Monitoring and assessment processes required Coordination needs to be improved in the system and for all interventions	National budget Combination Private sector	Chile Costa Rica Cuba Dominican Republic Peru
	Sex education and sexually transmitted diseases							Dominican Republic Panama
Women	Training and employment modernization	Educational retraining, access and vocational technical training	Young people out of touch with studying Female heads of household	National or local women's agency Ministries of health, education, work	Promotion of strategic partnerships Strengthening of women's organization and links with local government	Need to extend promotion of and technical assistance to organizations Coverage needs to be extended	National budget Reimbursable international funding Non-reimbursable international funding Private sector	Cuba Dominican Republic
	Violence and sexual exploitation	Strengthening of rights	Women who are victims of sexual offences	National agency for family matters NGOs				Bolivia Dominican Republic
	Family guidance	Strengthening of intrafamily relations Legal, psychological and educational guidance Sexual and reproductive	Mothers and family					Cuba Honduras
Older adults	Rest homes Morbidity care	Social assistance	Older adults aged 65 or over (institutionalized or not)	National health ministries National Council for Older Adults	Care policies and programmes	Lack of continuity in programmes Funding deficit Low impact	National budget Combination	Cuba
	Disabled	Special treatment	Disabled people and their families	National ministries of health or other relevant institution		Lack of awareness		Brazil Colombia Cuba Mexico

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean on the basis of the countries' responses to the ECLAC survey on policies and programmes for families in Latin America, 2006 and *Social Panorama of Latin America 2004* (LC/G.2259-P), Santiago, Chile. United Nations publication, Sales No. E.04.II.G.148

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Socio-economic context

Table 1

TRENDS IN SELECTED ECONOMIC INDICATORS, 1990–2005										
Country	Year	Per capita GDP (in 2000 dollars)	Per capita GDP (in 2000 dollars) ^a	Urban unemployment (percentage)	Annual variation in consumer price index (percentage)	Average annual percentage variations				
						Period	Per capita GDP	Per capita income ^a	Mean real remuneration	Urban minimum wage
Argentina	1990	5 833	5 672	7.4	1 343.9					
	1999	7 874	7 616	14.3	-1.8	1990–1999	3.4	3.3	0.5	15.0
	2000	7 730	7 536	15.1	-0.7	2000	-1.8	-1.1	2.2	0.9
	2001	7 315	7 124	17.4	-1.5	2001	-5.4	-5.5	-0.8	1.1
	2002	6 456	6 254	19.7	41.0	2002	-11.7	-12.2	-13.9	-19.5
	2003	6 961	6 815	17.3	3.7	2003	7.8	9.0	-1.9	3.3
	2004	7 518	7 385	13.6	6.1	2004	8.0	8.4	10.0	54.5
	2005	8 132	8 060	11.6	12.3	2005	8.2	9.1	6.1	31.8
Bolivia	1990	870	894	7.3	18.0					
	1999	995	1 015	7.2	3.1	1990–1999	1.5	1.4	3.1	10.2
	2000	996	1 016	7.5	3.4	2000	0.1	0.1	0.8	2.9
	2001	990	1 005	8.5	0.9	2001	-0.6	-1.0	3.8	10.8
	2002	992	1 007	8.7	2.4	2002	0.2	0.1	3.2	4.7
	2003	998	1 013	9.2	3.9	2003	0.7	0.7	1.7	0.8
	2004	1 015	1 031	6.2	4.6	2004	1.6	1.7	2.4	-4.2
	2005	1 033	1 082	...	4.9	2005	1.8	5.0	...	-5.1
Brazil	1990	3 096	2 990	4.3	1 583.9					
	1999	3 349	3 240	7.6	8.9	1990–1999	0.9	0.9	0.2	3.1
	2000	3 444	3 350	7.1	6.0	2000	2.8	3.4	-1.1	2.6
	2001	3 439	3 332	6.2	7.7	2001	-0.2	-0.5	-4.9	9.8
	2002	3 454	3 355	11.7	12.5	2002	0.5	0.7	-2.1	4.2
	2003	3 424	3 325	12.3	9.3	2003	-0.9	-0.9	-8.8	2.7
	2004	3 542	3 445	11.5	7.6	2004	3.4	3.6	0.7	3.4
	2005	3 574	3 468	9.8	5.7	2005	0.9	0.7	-0.4	5.8
Chile	1990	3 069	2 937	9.2 ^e	27.3					
	1999	4 732	4 555	9.8 ^e	2.3	1990–1999	4.9	5.0	4.0	5.5
	2000	4 884	4 734	9.2 ^e	4.5	2000	3.2	3.9	1.4	7.1
	2001	4 989	4 761	9.1 ^e	2.6	2001	2.2	0.6	1.7	3.8
	2002	5 041	4 850	9.0 ^e	2.8	2002	1.0	1.9	2.0	2.9
	2003	5 182	4 962	8.5 ^e	1.1	2003	2.8	2.3	0.9	1.4
	2004	5 444	5 430	8.8 ^e	2.4	2004	5.0	9.4	1.8	2.8
	2005	5 729	5 891	8.0 ^e	3.7	2005	5.2	8.5	1.9	1.9
Colombia	1990	1 832	1 746	10.5	32.4					
	1999	1 958	1 917	19.4	9.2	1990–1999	0.7	1.0	2.6	-0.1
	2000	1 979	1 965	17.2	8.8	2000	1.1	2.5	3.8	0.5
	2001	1 974	1 949	18.2	7.6	2001	-0.3	-0.8	-0.3	1.2
	2002	1 977	1 950	17.6	7.0	2002	0.2	0.1	2.8	0.7
	2003	2 019	2 001	16.7	6.5	2003	2.1	2.7	-0.1	0.1
	2004	2 081	2 097	15.4	5.5	2004	3.1	4.8	1.0	1.8
	2005	2 153	2 189	14.0	4.9	2005	3.4	4.4	1.2	1.2
Costa Rica	1990	3 123	3 051	5.4	27.3					
	1999	4 081	3 733	6.2	10.1	1990–1999	3.0	2.3	2.2	1.1
	2000	4 063	3 767	5.3	10.2	2000	-0.5	0.9	0.8	-0.6
	2001	4 022	3 864	5.8	11.0	2001	-1.0	2.6	1.0	0.2
	2002	4 056	3 945	6.8	9.7	2002	0.9	2.1	4.1	-0.6
	2003	4 235	4 024	6.7	9.9	2003	4.4	2.0	0.4	-0.4
	2004	4 329	4 148	6.7	13.1	2004	2.2	3.1	-2.6	-1.6
	2005	4 505	4 234	6.9	14.1	2005	4.1	2.1	-1.9	0.3
Cuba ^b	1990	3 057	3 341					
	1999	2 382	2 462	6.3 ^e	-2.9	1990–1999	-2.7	-3.3
	2000	2 519	2 529	5.5 ^e	-3.0	2000	5.7	2.7
	2001	2 584	2 619	4.1 ^e	-0.5	2001	2.6	3.5
	2002	2 616	2 646	3.3 ^e	7.0	2002	1.2	1.0
	2003	2 685	2 746	2.3 ^e	-1.0	2003	2.6	3.8
	2004	2 798	2 818	1.9 ^e	2.9	2004	4.2	2.6
	2005	1.9 ^e	4.2	2005
Dominican Republic	1990	1 773	1 806	...	79.9					
	1999	2 629	2 779	13.8 ^e	7.8	1990–1999	4.5	4.9	...	2.6
	2000	2 789	2 892	13.9 ^e	9.0	2000	6.1	4.1	...	-0.4
	2001	2 806	2 924	15.6 ^e	4.4	2001	0.6	1.1	...	5.7
	2002	2 900	3 041	16.1 ^e	10.5	2002	3.3	4.0	...	-0.5
	2003	2 841	2 932	16.7 ^e	42.7	2003	-2.0	-3.6	...	-9.2
	2004	2 871	2 933	18.4 ^e	28.7	2004	1.1	0.0	-24.2	-15.0
	2005	3 089	3 144	18.0 ^e	7.4	2005	7.6	7.2	16.7	18.7

Table 1

TRENDS IN SELECTED ECONOMIC INDICATORS, 1990-2005										
Country	Year	Per capita GDP (in 2000 dollars)	Per capita GDP (in 2000 dollars) ^a	Urban unemployment (percentage)	Annual variation in consumer price index (percentage)	Average annual percentage variations				
						Period	Per capita GDP	Per capita income ^b	Mean real remuneration	Urban minimum wage
Ecuador	1990	1 252	1 074	6.1	49.5					
	1999	1 279	1 211	15.1	60.7	1990-1999	0.2	1.3	...	2.1
	2000	1 296	1 291	14.1	91.0	2000	1.3	6.6	...	-3.6
	2001	1 345	1 297	10.4	22.4	2001	3.8	0.4	...	11.5
	2002	1 382	1 346	8.6	9.3	2002	2.8	3.8	...	0.9
	2003	1 412	1 379	9.8	6.1	2003	2.2	2.4	...	6.1
	2004	1 498	1 473	11.0	1.9	2004	6.1	6.8	...	2.4
	2005	1 535	1 580	10.7	3.1	2005	2.5	7.3	...	3.0
El Salvador	1990	1 639	1 471	10.0	19.3					
	1999	2 089	1 794	6.9	-1.0	1990-1999	2.7	2.2	...	0.1
	2000	2 093	1 738	6.5	4.3	2000	0.2	-3.1	...	-2.2
	2001	2 088	1 701	7.0	1.4	2001	-0.2	-2.1	...	-3.6
	2002	2 097	1 717	6.2	2.8	2002	0.4	1.0	...	-1.8
	2003	2 107	1 667	6.2	2.5	2003	0.5	-2.9	...	2.1
	2004	2 108	1 639	6.5	5.4	2004	0.0	-1.7	...	-1.4
	2005	2 129	1 626	7.3	4.3	2005	1.0	-0.8	...	-4.5
Guatemala	1990	1 447	1 440	6.3 ^c	59.6					
	1999	1 698	1 754	...	4.9	1990-1999	1.8	2.2	5.4	-7.4
	2000	1 718	1 777	...	5.1	2000	1.2	1.3	3.8	4.4
	2001	1 716	1 790	...	8.9	2001	-0.1	0.7	0.5	8.3
	2002	1 712	1 846	5.4	6.3	2002	-0.2	3.2	-0.9	0.3
	2003	1 706	1 865	5.2	5.9	2003	-0.4	1.0	0.4	8.0
	2004	1 708	1 885	4.4	9.2	2004	0.1	1.1	-2.4	0.3
	2005	1 720	1 908	...	8.6	2005	0.7	1.2	...	-1.4
Haiti	1990	528	572					
	1999	443	529	...	9.7	1990-1999	-1.9	-0.9	...	-7.3
	2000	438	528	...	19.0	2000	-1.0	-0.1	...	-11.9
	2001	426	515	...	8.1	2001	-2.8	-2.6	...	-11.6
	2002	417	503	...	14.8	2002	-2.1	-2.2	...	-8.9
	2003	411	511	...	40.4	2003	-1.4	1.4	...	33.5
	2004	390	488	...	20.2	2004	-5.2	-4.5	...	-14.7
	2005	390	489	...	14.8	2005	0.0	0.3	...	-13.2
Honduras	1990	894	868	7.8	36.4					
	1999	902	1 012	5.3	10.9	1990-1999	0.1	1.7	...	-1.1
	2000	929	1 024	...	10.1	2000	3.0	1.1	...	3.1
	2001	929	1 039	5.9	8.8	2001	0.0	1.5	...	2.5
	2002	930	1 029	6.1	8.1	2002	0.1	-1.0	...	2.1
	2003	939	1 024	7.6	6.8	2003	0.9	-0.4	...	8.6
	2004	962	1 055	8.0	9.2	2004	2.5	3.0	...	0.8
	2005	977	1 140	6.5	7.7	2005	1.6	8.1	...	5.8
Mexico	1990	4 960	4 813	2.7	29.9					
	1999	5 596	5 518	3.7	12.3	1990-1999	1.3	1.5	0.7	-4.1
	2000	5 874	5 793	3.4	9.0	2000	5.0	5.0	6.0	0.7
	2001	5 784	5 695	3.6	4.4	2001	-1.5	-1.7	6.7	0.4
	2002	5 745	5 692	3.9	5.7	2002	-0.7	-0.1	1.9	0.7
	2003	5 743	5 741	4.6	4.0	2003	0.0	0.9	1.3	-0.7
	2004	5 900	5 988	5.3	5.2	2004	2.7	4.3	0.3	-1.3
	2005	5 993	6 120	4.7	3.3	2005	1.6	2.2	-0.1	-0.1
Nicaragua	1990	713	601	7.6 ^c	13490.2					
	1999	779	826	10.7 ^c	7.2	1990-1999	1.0	3.6	3.1	0.8
	2000	794	845	7.8	9.9	2000	2.0	2.3	0.0	-0.5
	2001	801	826	11.3	4.7	2001	0.9	-2.2	1.0	2.1
	2002	791	816	11.6	4.0	2002	-1.3	-1.3	3.5	3.7
	2003	795	819	10.2	6.6	2003	0.5	0.4	1.9	3.1
	2004	819	851	9.3	8.9	2004	3.1	3.9	-2.2	4.0
	2005	835	877	7.0	9.6	2005	1.9	3.1	0.3	4.0
Panama	1990	2 942	3 000	20.0	0.8					
	1999	3 912	3 808	13.6	1.5	1990-1999	3.2	2.7	...	1.7
	2000	3 942	3 812	15.2	0.7	2000	0.8	0.1	...	3.8
	2001	3 891	3 820	17.0	0.0	2001	-1.3	0.2	...	7.0
	2002	3 905	3 924	16.5	1.9	2002	0.4	2.7	...	-1.2
	2003	3 996	3 793	15.9	1.5	2003	2.3	-3.3	...	0.7
	2004	4 222	3 895	14.1	1.5	2004	5.7	2.7	0.3	0.9
	2005	4 413	4 028	12.0	3.4	2005	4.5	3.4	1.9	-3.0

Table 1 (concluded)

TRENDS IN SELECTED ECONOMIC INDICATORS, 1990–2005										
Country	Year	Per capita GDP (in 2000 dollars)	Per capita GDP (in 2000 dollars) ^a	Urban unemployment (percentage)	Annual variation in consumer price index (percentage)	Average annual percentage variations				
						Period	Per capita GDP	Per capita income ^b	Mean real remuneration	Urban minimum wage
Paraguay	1990	1 410	1 405	6.6	44.0					
	1999	1 370	1 414	9.4	5.4	1990–1999	-0.3	0.1	1.3	-1.3
	2000	1 291	1 327	10.0	8.6	2000	-5.8	-6.2	1.3	4.3
	2001	1 285	1 320	10.8	8.4	2001	-0.5	-0.6	1.4	3.7
	2002	1 253	1 270	14.7	14.6	2002	-2.5	-3.8	-6.4	-0.7
	2003	1 269	1 301	11.2	9.3	2003	1.3	2.5	-2.0	2.8
	2004	1 290	1 328	10.0	2.8	2004	1.6	2.0	-2.7	-3.3
	2005	1 296	1 322	7.6	9.9	2005	0.5	-0.5	1.1	2.0
Peru	1990	1 650	1 589	8.3	7646.8					
	1999	2 030	2 026	9.2	3.7	1990–1999	2.3	2.7	0.6	2.3
	2000	2 056	2 040	8.5	3.7	2000	1.3	0.7	0.7	11.1
	2001	2 029	2 014	9.3	-0.1	2001	-1.3	-1.3	-0.9	1.2
	2002	2 101	2 081	9.4	1.5	2002	3.6	3.3	4.6	-0.2
	2003	2 151	2 125	9.4	2.5	2003	2.4	2.1	1.5	1.2
	2004	2 231	2 209	9.4	3.5	2004	3.7	3.9	1.1	4.6
	2005	2 340	2 328	9.6	1.5	2005	4.9	5.4	-1.9	-1.6
Uruguay	1990	4 802	4 859	8.5	128.9					
	1999	6 151	6 199	11.3	4.2	1990–1999	2.8	2.7	1.4	-5.3
	2000	6 019	6 009	13.6	5.1	2000	-2.2	-3.1	-1.3	-1.6
	2001	5 774	5 787	15.3	3.6	2001	-4.1	-3.7	-0.3	-1.3
	2002	5 100	5 189	17.0	25.9	2002	-11.7	-10.3	-10.7	-10.1
	2003	5 176	5 100	16.9	10.2	2003	1.5	-1.7	-12.5	-12.4
	2004	5 747	5 683	13.1	7.6	2004	11.0	11.4	0.0	-0.2
	2005	6 084	5 978	12.2	4.9	2005	5.9	5.2	4.6	70.2
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	4 827	4 476	10.4 ^c	36.5					
	1999	4 736	4 212	15.0 ^c	20.0	1990–1999	-0.2	-0.7	-3.9	-0.8
	2000	4 819	4 755	13.9 ^c	13.4	2000	1.8	12.9	1.5	3.8
	2001	4 891	4 570	13.3 ^c	12.3	2001	1.5	-3.9	2.4	0.0
	2002	4 378	4 110	15.8 ^c	31.2	2002	-10.5	-10.1	-10.1	-5.4
	2003	3 968	3 864	18.0 ^c	27.1	2003	-9.3	-6.0	-16.7	-11.9
	2004	4 596	4 668	15.3 ^c	19.2	2004	15.8	20.8	-3.9	11.3
	2005	4 939	5 524	12.4 ^c	14.4	2005	7.5	18.3	0.1	11.8
Latin America ^d	1990	3 330	3 210	7.3	...					
	1999	3 802	3 690	11.0	9.7	1990–1999	1.5	1.6	1.0	2.2
	2000	3 890	3 813	10.4	9.0	2000	2.3	3.3	1.5	2.2
	2001	3 841	3 741	10.2	6.1	2001	-1.3	-1.9	0.1	4.5
	2002	3 754	3 667	11.0	12.2	2002	-2.3	-2.0	-1.6	0.0
	2003	3 771	3 700	11.0	8.5	2003	0.5	0.9	-4.1	1.4
	2004	3 937	3 902	10.2	7.4	2004	4.4	5.5	1.1	5.4
	2005	4 055	4 063	9.1	6.1	2005	3.0	4.1	0.5	5.5

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) on the basis of official information from the relevant countries.

^a Real per capita gross national income.

^b The figures for per capita GDP and per capita disposable income are unofficial estimates prepared by ECLAC. According to information from the Government of Cuba, that country's economy (expressed in terms of GDP) grew by 11.8% in 2005. This growth rate was calculated using a new methodology being studied by ECLAC and the Government of Cuba.

^c Nationwide total.

^d The aggregate figures for Latin America are obtained from weighted averages for all countries for which data are available in each indicator.

Table 2

POPULATION, 1980–2010 (Thousands at mid-year)							
Country or territory	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010
Argentina	28 094	30 305	32 581	34 779	36 784	38 592	40 519
Bahamas	210	233	255	279	301	323	344
Barbados	249	253	257	262	266	270	273
Belize	144	163	186	214	242	270	296
Bolivia	5 355	5 964	6 669	7 482	8 428	9 427	10 426
Brazil	121 672	136 178	149 690	162 019	174 719	187 601	199 992
Chile	11 174	12 102	13 179	14 395	15 398	16 267	17 094
Colombia	28 356	31 564	34 875	38 259	41 661	44 907	47 859
Costa Rica	2 347	2 697	3 076	3 475	3 925	4 322	4 695
Cuba	9 823	10 086	10 605	10 930	11 129	11 242	11 233
Dominica	74	73	72	75	78	79	83
Dominican Republic	5 935	6 609	7 296	8 014	8 740	9 465	10 169
Ecuador	7 961	9 099	10 272	11 396	12 297	13 211	14 200
El Salvador	4 586	4 769	5 110	5 669	6 276	6 874	7 453
French Guiana	68	88	116	139	164	187	208
Grenada	90	93	96	99	102	103	110
Guadeloupe	327	355	391	409	428	446	460
Guatemala	7 013	7 935	8 908	10 004	11 225	12 700	14 362
Guyana	761	754	729	732	744	751	751
Haiti	5 691	6 388	7 108	7 836	8 576	9 292	10 085
Honduras	3 634	4 236	4 901	5 588	6 231	6 893	7 614
Jamaica	2 133	2 297	2 369	2 484	2 585	2 651	2 703
Martinique	326	341	360	373	386	397	404
Mexico	69 325	76 826	84 002	91 823	99 684	104 159	110 056
Netherlands Antilles	174	182	191	187	176	183	188
Nicaragua	3 257	3 715	4 141	4 664	5 106	5 457	5 825
Panama	1 949	2 176	2 411	2 670	2 948	3 228	3 497
Paraguay	3 198	3 702	4 248	4 799	5 346	5 899	6 451
Peru	17 325	19 523	21 762	23 857	25 650	27 254	28 861
Puerto Rico	3 197	3 378	3 528	3 696	3 835	3 955	4 060
Saint Lucia	118	127	138	148	154	161	168
Suriname	356	383	402	415	434	449	462
Trinidad and Tobago	1 082	1 178	1 215	1 259	1 285	1 305	1 324
Uruguay	2 914	3 009	3 106	3 218	3 314	3 317	3 363
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	15 091	17 317	19 731	22 034	24 296	26 556	28 807
Regional total ^a	364 009	404 095	443 975	483 684	522 915	558 193	594 396

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, “Latin America and the Caribbean: population estimates and projections, 1950–2050”, *Demographic Bulletin*, No. 73 (LC/G.2225–P), Santiago, Chile, 2004; United Nations Population Division, World Population Prospects: The 2004 Revision Population Database, <http://esa.un.org/unpp/>.

^a Includes 20 economies: Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay.

Table 2.1

ESTIMATED TOTAL POPULATION GROWTH RATES BY FIVE-YEAR PERIOD, 1980–2010 (Rates per thousand)						
Country or territory	1980–1985	1985–1990	1990–1995	1995–2000	2000–2005	2005–2010
Argentina	15.2	14.5	13.1	11.2	9.6	9.7
Bahamas	20.8	18.0	18.0	15.2	14.1	12.6
Barbados	3.2	3.1	3.9	3.0	3.0	2.2
Belize	24.8	26.4	28.0	24.6	21.9	18.4
Bolivia	21.5	22.3	23.0	23.8	22.4	20.1
Brazil	22.5	18.9	15.8	15.1	14.2	12.8
Chile	16.0	17.1	17.7	13.5	11.0	9.9
Colombia	21.4	19.9	18.5	17.0	15.0	12.7
Costa Rica	27.8	26.3	24.4	24.4	19.3	16.6
Cuba	5.3	10.0	6.0	3.6	2.0	-0.2
Dominica	-2.7	-2.8	8.2	7.8	2.5	9.9
Dominican Republic	21.5	19.8	18.8	17.3	15.9	14.3
Ecuador	26.7	24.3	20.8	15.2	14.4	14.4
El Salvador	7.8	13.8	20.7	20.4	18.2	16.2
French Guiana	50.8	55.8	34.9	34.1	25.3	21.8
Grenada	6.6	6.3	6.2	6.0	2.0	13.2
Guadeloupe	16.5	19.2	9.2	9.1	8.4	6.1
Guatemala	24.7	23.1	23.2	23.0	24.7	24.6
Guyana	-1.8	-6.7	0.8	3.3	1.9	0.0
Haiti	23.1	21.4	19.5	18.0	16.0	16.4
Honduras	30.6	29.2	26.2	21.8	20.2	19.9
Jamaica	14.8	6.2	9.5	8.0	5.0	3.9
Martinique	8.6	11.3	7.1	6.5	5.6	3.9
Mexico	20.5	17.9	17.8	16.4	8.8	11.0
Netherlands Antilles	9.0	9.7	-4.2	-12.1	7.8	5.4
Nicaragua	26.3	21.7	23.8	18.1	13.3	13.0
Panama	22.0	20.5	20.4	19.8	18.2	16.0
Paraguay	29.3	27.5	24.4	21.6	19.7	17.9
Peru	23.9	21.7	18.4	14.5	12.1	11.5
Puerto Rico	11.0	8.7	9.3	7.4	6.2	5.2
Saint Lucia	14.7	16.6	14.0	7.9	8.9	8.5
Suriname	14.6	9.7	6.4	9.0	6.8	5.7
Trinidad and Tobago	17.0	6.2	7.1	4.1	3.1	2.9
Uruguay	6.4	6.3	7.1	5.9	0.2	2.7
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	27.5	26.1	22.1	19.5	17.8	16.3
Regional total ^a	20.9	18.8	17.1	15.6	13.1	12.6

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, "Latin America: Life tables, 1950–2050" *Demographic Bulletin*, No. 74 (LC/G.2257-P), Santiago, Chile, July 2004; United Nations Population Division, World Population Prospects: The 2004 Revision Population Database [online] <http://esa.un.org/unpp/>.

^a Includes 20 economies: Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay.

Table 2.2

ESTIMATED GLOBAL FERTILITY RATES BY FIVE-YEAR PERIOD, 1980–2010 (Children per woman)						
Country or territory	1980–1985	1985–1990	1990–1995	1995–2000	2000–2005	2005–2010
Argentina	3.15	3.05	2.90	2.63	2.35	2.25
Bahamas	3.16	2.62	2.60	2.40	2.30	2.20
Barbados	1.92	1.75	1.60	1.50	1.50	1.50
Belize	5.40	4.70	4.35	3.70	3.20	2.82
Bolivia	5.30	5.00	4.80	4.32	3.96	3.50
Brazil	3.80	3.10	2.60	2.45	2.34	2.25
Chile	2.67	2.65	2.55	2.21	2.00	1.94
Colombia	3.69	3.17	2.93	2.70	2.47	2.22
Costa Rica	3.53	3.37	2.95	2.58	2.28	2.10
Cuba	1.85	1.85	1.65	1.61	1.63	1.49
Dominican Republic	4.00	3.47	3.20	3.05	2.95	2.81
Ecuador	4.70	4.00	3.40	3.10	2.82	2.58
El Salvador	4.50	3.90	3.52	3.17	2.88	2.68
French Guiana	3.58	3.73	4.05	3.83	3.33	2.93
Guadeloupe	2.55	2.45	2.10	2.10	2.10	2.01
Guatemala	6.10	5.70	5.45	5.00	4.60	4.15
Guyana	3.26	2.70	2.55	2.45	2.29	2.11
Haiti	6.21	5.70	5.15	4.62	4.00	3.54
Honduras	6.00	5.37	4.92	4.30	3.72	3.31
Jamaica	3.55	3.10	2.84	2.67	2.44	2.31
Martinique	2.14	2.14	1.94	1.90	1.90	1.85
Mexico	4.25	3.63	3.19	2.67	2.40	2.21
Netherlands Antilles	2.36	2.30	2.28	2.21	2.12	2.04
Nicaragua	5.85	5.00	4.50	3.60	3.00	2.76
Panama	3.52	3.20	2.87	2.79	2.70	2.56
Paraguay	5.20	4.77	4.31	3.88	3.48	3.08
Peru	4.65	4.10	3.70	3.10	2.70	2.51
Puerto Rico	2.46	2.26	2.18	1.99	1.92	1.86
Saint Lucia	4.20	3.65	3.30	2.36	2.24	2.18
Suriname	3.70	2.92	2.45	2.62	2.45	2.32
Trinidad and Tobago	3.22	2.80	2.10	1.65	1.61	1.61
Uruguay	2.57	2.53	2.49	2.30	2.20	2.12
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	3.96	3.65	3.25	2.94	2.72	2.55
Regional total ^a	3.94	3.42	3.02	2.76	2.57	2.43

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean, Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, “Latin America: Life Tables, 1950–2025”, *Demographic Bulletin*, No. 74 (LC/G.2257–P), Santiago, Chile, July 2004; United Nations Population Division, World Population Prospects: The 2004 Revision Population Database [online] <http://esa.un.org/unpp/>.

^a Includes 20 economies: Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay.

Table 2.3

LIFE EXPECTANCY AT BIRTH BY FIVE-YEAR PERIOD, 1980–2010 (Number of years)						
Country or territory	1980–1985	1985–1990	1990–1995	1995–2000	2000–2005	2005–2010
Argentina	70.2	71.0	72.1	73.2	74.3	75.2
Bahamas	68.0	68.8	67.7	67.8	69.5	72.1
Barbados	73.2	74.6	74.5	74.6	74.9	76.4
Belize	71.2	72.2	72.4	72.6	71.9	71.7
Bolivia	53.9	57.3	60.0	62.0	63.8	65.5
Brazil	63.6	65.5	67.5	69.4	71.0	72.4
Chile	70.7	72.7	74.3	75.7	77.7	78.5
Colombia	66.8	68.0	68.7	70.3	71.6	72.8
Costa Rica	73.8	75.2	76.2	77.3	78.1	78.8
Cuba	74.3	74.6	74.8	76.2	77.1	78.3
Dominican Republic	64.1	66.6	69.1	70.1	71.2	72.2
Ecuador	64.5	67.5	70.0	72.3	74.2	75.0
El Salvador	57.1	63.4	67.1	69.4	70.6	71.8
Guadeloupe	72.5	73.6	75.9	77.3	78.3	79.3
Guatemala	58.3	60.9	63.6	66.3	68.9	70.2
Guyana	60.9	60.9	59.8	60.4	62.9	65.4
Haiti	51.5	53.6	55.2	56.9	58.1	60.6
Honduras	61.6	65.4	67.7	69.8	71.0	72.1
Jamaica	71.2	71.8	71.6	71.6	70.7	71.1
Martinique	74.2	76.3	77.6	78.8	79.1	79.5
Mexico	67.7	69.8	71.8	73.6	74.8	76.1
Netherlands Antilles	73.8	74.5	74.6	75.5	76.1	76.9
Nicaragua	59.5	62.2	66.1	68.4	70.8	72.9
Panama	70.8	71.9	72.9	73.8	74.7	75.6
Paraguay	67.1	67.6	68.5	69.4	70.8	71.8
Peru	61.6	64.4	66.7	68.4	69.9	71.4
Puerto Rico	73.8	74.6	73.9	74.9	76.0	76.9
Saint Lucia	70.5	71.0	71.3	71.5	72.3	73.1
Suriname	66.9	67.7	68.1	68.5	69.0	70.2
Trinidad and Tobago	70.2	72.1	71.4	71.0	69.9	70.1
Uruguay	71.0	72.1	73.0	74.1	75.2	76.2
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	68.8	70.5	71.5	72.2	72.8	73.8
Regional total ^a	65.4	67.3	69.0	70.6	71.9	73.1

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, “Latin America: Life Tables, 1950–2025”, *Demographic Bulletin*, No. 74 (LC/G.2257-P), Santiago, Chile, July 2004; United Nations Population Division, *World Population Prospects: The 2004 Revision Population Database* [online] <http://esa.un.org/unpp/>.

^a Includes 20 economies: Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay.

Table 2.4

ESTIMATED INFANT MORTALITY RATES, BY FIVE-YEAR PERIOD, 1980–2010 (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	2005–2010
Argentina	32.2	27.1	24.4	21.8	15.0	13.4
Bahamas	30.4	23.7	19.3	16.4	13.8	11.4
Barbados	16.9	15.2	14.0	12.4	10.8	9.7
Belize	39.3	35.9	34.4	32.8	30.5	28.6
Bolivia	109.2	90.1	75.1	66.7	55.6	45.6
Brazil	63.3	52.4	42.5	34.1	27.3	23.6
Chile	23.7	18.4	14.1	11.5	8.0	7.2
Colombia	43.0	35.3	27.6	24.0	20.5	19.1
Costa Rica	19.2	17.4	14.5	11.8	10.5	9.9
Cuba	17.4	15.9	15.3	9.6	6.1	5.1
Dominican Republic	75.2	62.9	47.6	41.3	34.9	29.6
Ecuador	68.5	55.5	44.2	33.3	24.9	21.1
El Salvador	77.0	54.0	40.2	32.0	26.4	21.5
Guadeloupe	24.7	22.0	9.2	8.3	7.4	6.7
Guatemala	79.3	67.1	54.8	45.5	38.6	30.1
Guyana	69.6	67.3	61.9	56.1	49.1	43.2
Haiti	122.1	100.1	85.3	70.1	56.1	48.6
Honduras	65.0	53.0	43.0	35.0	31.2	27.8
Jamaica	30.5	27.0	16.8	15.7	14.9	14.1
Martinique	14.0	10.1	7.6	7.0	6.8	6.7
Mexico	47.0	39.5	33.1	27.7	20.5	16.7
Netherlands Antilles	18.0	17.0	16.3	14.2	13.2	11.7
Nicaragua	79.8	65.0	48.0	33.6	26.4	21.5
Panama	31.6	29.6	27.0	23.7	20.6	18.2
Paraguay	48.9	46.7	42.9	39.2	35.5	32.0
Peru	81.6	68.0	47.6	38.8	30.3	21.2
Puerto Rico	17.2	13.8	11.6	11.0	9.9	9.1
Saint Lucia	22.7	20.1	16.8	16.7	14.9	13.5
Suriname	40.4	36.3	33.5	29.5	25.6	22.4
Trinidad and Tobago	25.3	19.7	16.6	15.0	13.7	12.5
Uruguay	33.5	22.6	20.1	15.6	14.4	13.1
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	33.6	26.9	23.1	20.7	18.9	17.0
Regional total ^a	57.5	47.5	39.2	33.0	27.7	24.2

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean, Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, “Latin America: Life Tables, 1950–2025”, *Demographic Bulletin*, No. 74 (LC/G.2257–P), Santiago, Chile, July 2004; United Nations Population Division, World Population Prospects: The 2004 Revision Population Database [online] <http://esa.un.org/unpp/>.

^a Includes 20 economies: Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay.

Table 3

TRENDS IN SELECTED SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS, 1980–2010													
Country	Five-year period	Life expectancy at birth (years of life)			Infant mortality rate (per 1 000 live births)			Under-five mortality rate (per 1 000 live births)			Illiteracy rate in population aged 15 or over (percentages)		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina	1980–1985	70.2	66.8	73.7	32	36	29	37	41	34	5.6	5.3	6.0
	1985–1990	71.0	67.6	74.6	27	30	24	32	35	29	4.3	4.1	4.4
	1990–1995	72.1	68.6	75.8	24	27	22	28	31	25	3.7	3.6	3.7
	1995–2000	73.2	69.7	77.0	22	24	19	24	27	22	3.2	3.2	3.2
	2000–2005	74.3	70.6	78.1	15	17	13	18	20	15	2.8	2.8	2.7
	2005–2010	75.2	71.6	79.1	13	15	12	16	17	14	2.4	2.5	2.4
Bolivia	1980–1985	53.9	52.0	55.9	109	116	102	163	174	153	31.3	20.4	41.7
	1985–1990	57.3	55.6	59.1	90	96	84	127	134	120	21.9	13.2	30.2
	1990–1995	60.0	58.3	61.8	75	79	71	99	103	95	17.9	10.4	25.2
	1995–2000	62.0	60.1	64.0	67	70	63	85	89	81	14.6	8.1	20.8
	2000–2005	63.8	61.8	66.0	56	60	51	71	76	67	11.7	6.2	17.0
	2005–2010	65.5	63.4	67.7	46	50	41	60	65	56	9.4	4.8	13.8
Brazil	1980–1985	63.6	60.4	66.9	63	70	56	77	85	70	24.0	22.0	25.9
	1985–1990	65.5	62.0	69.2	52	59	46	65	73	58	18.0	17.1	18.8
	1990–1995	67.5	63.7	71.5	43	48	36	54	61	47	15.3	14.9	15.7
	1995–2000	69.4	65.7	73.3	34	39	29	42	48	37	13.1	13.0	13.2
	2000–2005	71.0	67.3	74.9	27	31	24	34	38	29	11.1	11.3	11.0
	2005–2010	72.4	68.9	76.1	24	27	20	29	33	25	9.6	10.0	9.3
Chile	1980–1985	70.7	67.4	74.2	24	26	22	28	30	26	8.6	7.7	9.5
	1985–1990	72.7	69.6	75.9	18	20	17	22	24	20	6.0	5.6	6.4
	1990–1995	74.3	71.5	77.4	14	15	13	17	19	15	5.1	4.8	5.3
	1995–2000	75.7	72.8	78.8	12	13	10	14	15	12	4.2	4.1	4.4
	2000–2005	77.7	74.8	80.8	8	9	7	10	11	9	3.5	3.4	3.6
	2005–2010	78.5	75.5	81.5	7	8	6	9	10	8	2.9	2.8	2.9
Colombia	1980–1985	66.8	63.6	70.2	48	53	43	67	73	61	16.0	15.1	16.8
	1985–1990	67.9	64.2	71.7	41	46	36	57	63	52	11.6	11.2	11.9
	1990–1995	68.6	64.3	73.0	35	39	31	47	52	42	9.9	9.7	10.0
	1995–2000	70.7	67.3	74.3	30	34	26	39	43	36	8.4	8.4	8.4
	2000–2005	72.2	69.2	75.3	26	29	22	33	36	31	7.1	7.2	6.9
	2005–2010	73.2	70.3	76.3	22	25	19	29	31	26	5.9	6.1	5.7
Costa Rica	1980–1985	73.8	71.6	76.1	19	21	17	24	26	21	8.3	8.1	8.5
	1985–1990	75.2	72.9	77.5	17	20	15	20	23	18	6.1	6.1	6.2
	1990–1995	76.2	74.0	78.6	15	16	13	17	19	15	5.2	5.3	5.2
	1995–2000	77.3	75.0	79.7	12	13	10	14	16	12	4.4	4.5	4.4
	2000–2005	78.1	75.8	80.6	11	12	9	12	14	11	3.8	3.9	3.7
	2005–2010	78.8	76.5	81.2	10	11	9	12	13	10	3.2	3.3	3.0
Cuba	1980–1985	73.9	72.3	75.7	17	19	15	21	23	19	7.5	7.5	7.5
	1985–1990	74.6	72.8	76.5	13	15	11	16	18	14	4.9	4.8	4.9
	1990–1995	75.3	73.5	77.3	10	12	8	13	15	11	4.1	4.0	4.2
	1995–2000	76.0	74.2	78.0	8	9	6	10	12	8	3.3	3.2	3.4
	2000–2005	76.7	74.8	78.7	7	9	5	10	12	8	2.7	2.6	2.8
	2005–2010	77.3	75.4	79.4	7	9	5	9	11	7	2.1	1.9	2.2
Dominican Republic	1980–1985	63.2	61.4	65.1	63	71	54	87	94	81	26.0	24.9	27.2
	1985–1990	65.1	63.2	67.0	54	61	46	76	82	70	20.6	20.2	21.0
	1990–1995	67.0	65.0	69.0	47	53	39	66	72	59	18.3	18.2	18.5
	1995–2000	68.6	66.5	70.8	40	46	34	56	62	51	16.3	16.3	16.3
	2000–2005	70.1	67.8	72.4	34	40	29	48	53	43	14.5	14.7	14.4
	2005–2010	71.4	69.0	73.9	29	34	25	41	46	37	12.9	13.2	12.6
Ecuador	1980–1985	64.5	62.5	66.7	69	76	61	94	102	86	18.1	14.2	22.0
	1985–1990	67.5	65.3	69.9	56	62	49	74	81	67	12.4	9.8	14.9
	1990–1995	70.0	67.6	72.6	44	50	39	57	63	51	10.2	8.2	12.3
	1995–2000	72.3	69.7	75.1	33	37	29	41	46	36	8.4	6.8	10.1
	2000–2005	74.2	71.3	77.2	25	29	21	30	35	25	7.0	5.6	8.3
	2005–2010	75.0	72.1	78.0	21	24	18	26	29	22	5.8	4.7	6.9
El Salvador	1980–1985	57.1	50.8	63.8	77	83	71	118	123	113	34.2	29.4	38.7
	1985–1990	63.4	59.0	68.0	54	60	48	77	82	72	27.6	23.9	30.9
	1990–1995	67.1	63.3	71.1	40	44	36	51	57	45	24.1	20.9	27.1
	1995–2000	69.4	66.5	72.5	32	35	29	41	45	37	21.3	18.5	23.9
	2000–2005	70.6	67.7	73.7	26	29	24	35	38	32	18.9	16.4	21.2
	2005–2010	71.8	68.8	74.9	22	23	20	29	32	27	16.6	14.4	18.6

Table 3 (concluded)

TRENDS IN SELECTED SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS, 1980–2010													
Country	Five-year period	Life expectancy at birth (years of life)			Infant mortality rate (per 1 000 live births)			Under-five mortality rate (per 1 000 live births)			Illiteracy rate in population aged 15 or over (percentages)		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Guatemala	1980–1985	58.3	56.1	60.6	79	84	75	118	121	115	47.0	39.0	55.1
	1985–1990	60.9	58.3	63.7	67	72	62	96	99	92	39.0	31.2	46.8
	1990–1995	63.6	60.5	66.8	55	60	50	74	78	70	35.1	27.4	42.7
	1995–2000	66.3	62.9	70.0	46	51	40	59	64	53	31.5	24.0	38.9
	2000–2005	68.9	65.5	72.5	39	44	33	48	55	42	28.2	20.9	35.4
	2005–2010	70.2	66.7	73.8	30	35	25	39	45	34	25.2	18.3	32.1
Haiti	1980–1985	51.9	50.6	53.3	122	128	116	168	178	158	69.5	65.9	72.8
	1985–1990	53.6	52.2	55.0	100	105	95	146	156	137	60.3	57.4	63.1
	1990–1995	55.4	54.0	56.8	74	78	70	121	130	112	55.3	52.7	57.7
	1995–2000	57.2	55.8	58.7	66	70	62	109	117	101	50.2	48.0	52.2
	2000–2005	59.2	57.8	60.7	59	63	55	98	106	90	45.2	43.5	46.8
	2005–2010	61.2	59.8	62.8	54	58	50	89	96	81	41.1	39.8	42.3
Honduras	1980–1985	61.6	59.4	63.8	65	72	58	101	109	92	40.1	38.1	42.0
	1985–1990	65.4	63.2	67.7	53	59	47	74	81	67	31.9	31.1	32.7
	1990–1995	67.7	65.4	70.1	43	48	38	60	66	54	28.3	28.0	28.6
	1995–2000	69.8	67.5	72.3	35	40	30	50	55	44	25.0	25.1	25.0
	2000–2005	71.0	68.6	73.4	31	36	27	45	50	39	22.0	22.4	21.7
	2005–2010	72.1	69.7	74.5	28	32	24	40	45	35	19.4	20.0	18.8
Mexico	1980–1985	67.7	64.4	71.2	47	53	41	57	64	51	18.7	13.7	23.5
	1985–1990	69.8	66.8	73.0	40	43	36	48	53	44	12.7	9.4	15.7
	1990–1995	71.5	68.5	74.5	34	36	32	42	45	38	10.5	7.9	13.0
	1995–2000	72.4	69.5	75.5	31	33	29	38	41	35	8.8	6.7	10.9
	2000–2005	73.4	70.4	76.4	28	30	26	35	38	32	7.4	5.7	9.1
	2005–2010	74.3	71.3	77.3	26	27	24	32	34	29	6.2	4.8	7.6
Nicaragua	1980–1985	59.5	56.5	62.6	80	88	72	117	128	106	41.2	41.0	41.4
	1985–1990	62.2	59.0	65.5	65	72	58	90	98	82	37.3	37.3	37.2
	1990–1995	66.1	63.5	68.7	48	54	42	62	69	54	35.4	35.5	35.2
	1995–2000	68.0	65.7	70.4	35	40	30	46	52	41	33.5	33.8	33.3
	2000–2005	69.5	67.2	71.9	30	34	26	40	45	36	31.9	32.2	31.6
	2005–2010	71.0	68.7	73.5	26	29	23	35	39	31	30.3	30.7	29.9
Panama	1980–1985	70.8	68.4	73.3	32	36	27	43	48	38	15.1	14.4	15.9
	1985–1990	71.9	69.3	74.6	30	34	25	38	43	33	11.0	10.3	11.6
	1990–1995	72.9	70.2	75.7	27	31	23	34	38	29	9.4	8.8	10.1
	1995–2000	73.8	71.3	76.4	24	28	20	30	34	26	8.1	7.5	8.8
	2000–2005	74.7	72.3	77.4	21	24	17	27	31	23	7.0	6.4	7.6
	2005–2010	75.6	73.0	78.2	18	21	15	24	27	20	6.0	5.4	6.6
Paraguay	1980–1985	67.1	64.9	69.3	49	55	43	62	70	55	14.1	10.5	17.6
	1985–1990	67.6	65.4	69.9	47	52	41	58	65	51	9.7	7.6	11.7
	1990–1995	68.5	66.3	70.8	43	49	38	53	60	47	8.1	6.6	9.6
	1995–2000	69.7	67.5	72.0	39	44	34	48	54	43	6.7	5.6	7.8
	2000–2005	70.8	68.6	73.1	37	42	32	45	51	40	5.6	4.8	6.4
	2005–2010	71.9	69.7	74.2	34	39	29	41	47	36	4.7	4.1	5.3
Peru	1980–1985	61.6	59.5	63.8	82	88	75	117	124	109	20.6	11.7	29.4
	1985–1990	64.4	62.1	66.8	68	75	61	94	102	86	14.5	8.0	20.9
	1990–1995	66.7	64.4	69.2	56	62	49	77	85	69	12.2	6.6	17.6
	1995–2000	68.3	65.9	70.9	42	50	40	65	72	59	10.1	5.3	14.8
	2000–2005	69.8	67.3	72.4	33	42	33	56	62	50	8.4	4.4	12.3
	2005–2010	71.2	68.7	73.9	29	35	28	48	53	43	7.0	3.5	10.3
Uruguay	1980–1985	71.0	67.6	74.5	34	37	30	37	41	34	5.0	5.4	4.6
	1985–1990	72.1	68.6	75.8	23	25	20	26	29	23	3.5	4.0	3.0
	1990–1995	73.0	69.2	76.9	20	23	18	23	26	20	2.9	3.4	2.5
	1995–2000	74.1	70.5	78.0	18	21	14	20	23	17	2.4	2.9	2.0
	2000–2005	75.2	71.6	78.9	13	15	11	15	18	13	2.0	2.5	1.6
	2005–2010	76.1	72.7	79.8	12	14	10	14	16	12	1.7	2.1	1.3
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1980–1985	68.8	65.9	71.8	34	38	29	42	47	38	16.1	13.9	18.3
	1985–1990	70.5	67.7	73.5	27	30	23	33	36	29	11.1	9.9	12.3
	1990–1995	71.5	68.7	74.5	23	26	20	30	33	27	9.1	8.3	9.9
	1995–2000	72.2	69.3	75.2	21	23	18	31	34	28	7.5	7.0	8.0
	2000–2005	72.8	69.9	75.8	18	19	16	30	32	27	6.0	5.8	6.2
	2005–2010	73.8	70.9	76.8	16	17	15	27	29	25	4.8	4.8	4.9

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean, Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) – Population Division of ECLAC, “Latin America: Life Tables, 1950–2025”, *Demographic Bulletin*, No. 74 (LC/G.2257–P), Santiago, Chile, July 2004; UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) database (literacy) [online].

Poverty and income distribution

Table 4

POVERTY AND INDIGENCE LEVELS, 1990–2005 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Population below the poverty line ^a					Population below the indigence line				
		Country total	Urban areas				Country total	Urban areas			
			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas	Rural areas		Total	Metropolitan areas	Other urban urbano	Rural areas
Argentina	1990	21.2	5.2
	1994	...	16.1	13.2	21.2	3.4	2.6	4.9	...
	1997	17.8	4.8
	1999	...	23.7	19.7	28.5	6.7	4.8	8.8	...
	2002	...	45.4	41.5	49.6	20.9	18.6	23.3	...
	2004	...	29.4	25.9	33.6	11.1	9.6	12.9	...
	2005	...	26.0	22.6	30.0	9.1	7.6	10.8	...
Bolivia	1989	...	52.6	23.0
	1994	...	51.6	19.8
	1997	62.1	52.3	78.5	37.2	22.6	61.5
	1999	60.6	48.7	45.0	63.9	80.7	36.4	19.8	17.5	29.0	64.7
	2002	62.4	52.0	48.0	58.2	79.2	37.1	21.3	18.8	25.0	62.9
	2004	63.9	53.8	50.5	60.4	80.6	34.7	20.2	17.3	26.0	58.8
	2005
Brazil	1990	48.0	41.2	70.6	23.4	16.7	46.1
	1993	45.3	40.3	63.0	20.2	15.0	38.8
	1996	35.8	30.6	55.6	13.9	9.6	30.2
	1999	37.5	32.9	55.3	12.9	9.3	27.1
	2001	37.5	34.1	55.2	13.2	10.4	28.0
	2003	38.7	35.7	54.5	13.9	11.4	27.5
	2004	37.7	34.3	54.1	12.1	9.7	24.0
	2005	36.3	32.8	53.2	10.6	8.2	22.1
Chile	1990	38.6	38.5	32.1	43.5	38.8	13.0	12.5	9.3	14.9	15.6
	1994	27.6	27.0	18.4	33.4	31.1	7.6	7.1	4.2	9.3	9.9
	1996	23.2	22.0	13.4	27.8	30.4	5.7	5.1	2.4	6.9	9.4
	1998	21.7	20.7	14.6	25.0	27.5	5.6	5.1	3.3	6.4	8.6
	2000	20.2	19.7	14.4	23.4	23.7	5.6	5.1	3.9	6.0	8.4
	2003	18.7	18.5	12.4	22.7	20.0	4.7	4.4	2.8	5.6	6.2
	2005
Colombia ^b	1991	56.1	52.7	60.7	26.1	20.0	34.3
	1994	52.5	45.4	37.6	48.2	62.4	28.5	18.6	13.6	20.4	42.5
	1997	50.9	45.0	33.5	48.9	60.1	23.5	17.2	11.3	19.1	33.4
	1999	54.9	50.6	43.1	53.1	61.8	26.8	21.9	19.6	22.7	34.6
	2002	51.1	50.6	39.8	53.8	52.0	24.6	23.7	17.1	25.7	26.7
	2004	51.1	49.8	37.5	53.2	54.8	24.2	22.5	15.7	24.3	28.9
	2005	46.8	45.4	33.8	48.6	50.5	20.2	18.2	12.0	19.9	25.6
Costa Rica	1990	26.3	24.9	22.8	27.7	27.3	9.9	6.4	4.9	8.4	12.5
	1994	23.1	20.7	19.1	22.7	25.0	8.0	5.7	4.6	7.1	9.7
	1997	22.5	19.3	18.8	20.1	24.8	7.8	5.5	5.7	5.3	9.6
	1999	20.3	18.1	17.5	18.7	22.3	7.8	5.4	4.3	6.5	9.8
	2002	20.3	17.5	16.8	18.0	24.3	8.2	5.5	5.5	5.6	12.0
	2004	20.5	18.7	17.0	25.3	23.1	8.0	5.8	5.1	8.6	11.0
	2005	21.1	20.0	18.7	24.9	22.7	7.0	5.6	5.1	7.3	9.0
Dominican Republic	2000	46.9	42.3	55.2	22.1	18.5	28.7
	2002	44.9	41.9	50.7	20.3	17.1	26.3
	2004	54.4	51.8	59.0	29.0	25.9	34.7
	2005	47.5	45.4	51.4	24.6	22.3	28.8
	2005
Ecuador	1990	...	62.1	26.2
	1994	...	57.9	25.5
	1997	...	56.2	22.2
	1999	...	63.5	31.3
	2002	...	49.0	19.4
	2004	51.2	47.5	58.5	22.3	18.2	30.5
	2005	48.3	45.2	54.5	21.2	17.1	29.2
El Salvador	1995	54.2	45.8	34.7	55.1	64.4	21.7	14.9	8.8	20.1	29.9
	1997	55.5	44.4	29.8	56.6	69.2	23.3	14.8	6.3	21.9	33.7
	1999	49.8	38.7	29.8	48.7	65.1	21.9	13.0	7.7	19.0	34.3
	2001	48.9	39.4	32.1	47.7	62.4	22.1	14.3	9.9	19.2	33.3
	2004	47.5	41.2	33.2	48.6	56.8	19.0	13.8	8.4	18.8	26.6
Guatemala	1989	69.4	53.6	77.7	42.0	26.4	50.2
	1998	61.1	49.1	69.0	31.6	16.0	41.8
	2002	60.2	45.3	68.0	30.9	18.1	37.6
Honduras	1990	80.8	70.4	59.9	79.5	88.1	60.9	43.6	31.0	54.5	72.9
	1994	77.9	74.5	68.7	80.4	80.5	53.9	46.0	38.3	53.7	59.8
	1997	79.1	72.6	68.0	77.2	84.2	54.4	41.5	35.5	48.6	64.0
	1999	79.7	71.7	64.4	78.8	86.3	56.8	42.9	33.7	51.9	68.0
	2002	77.3	66.7	56.9	74.4	86.1	54.4	36.5	25.1	45.3	69.5
	2003	74.8	62.7	50.3	72.5	84.8	53.9	35.1	23.3	44.5	69.4

Poverty and income distribution

Table 4 (concluded)

POVERTY AND INDIGENCE LEVELS, 1990–2005 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Population below the poverty line ^a					Population below the indigence line				
		Country total	Urban areas				Country total	Urban areas			
			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas	Rural areas		Total	Metropolitan areas	Other urban urbano	Rural areas
Mexico	1989	47.7	42.1	56.7	18.7	13.1	27.9
	1994	45.1	36.8	56.5	16.8	9.0	27.5
	1996	52.9	46.1	62.8	22.0	14.3	33.0
	1998	46.9	38.9	58.5	18.5	9.7	31.1
	2000	41.1	32.3	54.7	15.2	6.6	28.5
	2002	39.4	32.2	51.2	12.6	6.9	21.9
	2004	37.0	32.6	44.1	11.7	7.0	19.3
	2005	35.5	28.5	47.5	11.7	5.8	21.7
Nicaragua	1993	73.6	66.3	58.3	73.0	82.7	48.4	36.8	29.5	43.0	62.8
	1998	69.9	64.0	57.0	68.9	77.0	44.6	33.9	25.8	39.5	57.5
	2001	69.3	63.8	50.8	72.1	77.0	42.4	33.4	24.5	39.1	55.1
Panama	1991	...	39.9	38.2	46.3	16.2	15.6	18.3	...
	1994	...	30.8	28.3	41.2	11.4	9.7	18.1	...
	1997	...	29.7	27.9	37.3	10.7	9.9	13.8	...
	1999	...	25.8	24.2	32.5	8.1	7.5	10.6	...
	2002	34.0	25.3	48.5	17.4	8.9	31.5
	2004	31.8	22.4	47.9	14.8	6.8	28.6
	2005	33.0	24.4	47.8	15.7	7.7	29.4
Paraguay	1990	43.2	13.1
	1994	...	49.9	42.2	59.3	18.8	12.8	26.1	...
	1996	...	46.3	39.2	55.9	16.3	9.8	25.2	...
	1999	60.6	49.0	39.5	61.3	73.9	33.9	17.4	9.2	28.0	52.8
	2001	61.0	50.1	42.7	59.1	73.6	33.2	18.4	10.4	28.1	50.3
	2004	65.9	59.1	55.6	63.8	74.6	36.9	26.8	22.9	31.8	50.2
	2005	60.5	55.0	48.5	64.3	68.1	32.1	23.2	15.5	34.5	44.2
Peru	1997	47.6	33.7	72.7	25.1	9.9	52.7
	1999	48.6	36.1	72.5	22.4	9.3	47.3
	2001 ^d	54.8	42.0	78.4	24.4	9.9	51.3
	2003 ^d	54.7	43.1	76.0	21.6	8.6	45.7
	2004 ^d	51.1	18.6
Uruguay	1990	...	17.9	11.3	24.3	3.4	1.8	5.0	...
	1994	...	9.7	7.5	11.8	1.9	1.5	2.2	...
	1997	...	9.5	8.6	10.3	1.7	1.5	1.8	...
	1999	...	9.4	9.8	9.0	1.8	1.9	1.6	...
	2002	...	15.4	15.1	15.8	2.5	2.7	2.2	...
	2004	...	20.9	20.8	21.0	4.7	6.1	4.3	...
	2005	...	18.8	19.7	17.9	4.1	5.8	2.4	...
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^e	1990	39.8	38.6	29.2	41.2	46.0	14.4	13.1	8.0	14.5	21.3
	1994	48.7	47.1	25.8	52.0	55.6	19.2	17.1	6.1	19.6	28.3
	1997	48.0	20.5
	1999	49.4	21.7
	2002	48.6	22.2
	2004	45.4	19.0
	2005	37.1	15.9
Latin America ^e	1990	48.3	41.4	65.4	22.5	15.3	40.4
	1994	45.7	38.7	65.1	20.8	13.6	40.8
	1997	43.5	36.5	63.0	19.0	12.3	37.6
	1999	43.9	37.2	63.7	18.7	12.1	38.2
	2000	42.5	35.9	62.5	18.1	11.7	37.8
	2001	43.2	37.0	62.3	18.5	12.2	38.0
	2002	44.0	38.4	61.8	19.4	13.5	37.8
	2003	44.2	39.0	61.1	19.1	13.7	36.4
	2004	42.0	36.9	58.7	16.9	12.0	33.1
	2005	39.8	34.1	58.8	15.4	10.3	32.5

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

^a Includes the population below the indigence line or living in extreme poverty.

^b The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for urban and rural areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

^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.

^d 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.

^e Estimate for 19 countries of the region.

Table 5

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					Dollars			
Argentina	1990 ^c	Sept.	A	255 928	511 856	5 791.0	44.2	88.4
	1994	Sept.	\$	72	144	1.0	72.0	143.9
	1997 ^c	Sept.	\$	76	151	1.0	75.5	151.0
	1999	Sept.	\$	72	143	1.0	71.6	143.3
	2002	Oct.	\$	99	198	3.6	27.5	55.0
	2004	2nd Q	\$	111	221	3.0	37.4	74.8
2005	2nd Q	\$	125	250	2.9	42.9	85.8	
Bolivia	1989	Oct.	Bs	68	137	2.9	23.8	47.5
	1994	Jun.–Nov.	Bs	120	240	4.7	25.7	51.4
	1997	May.	Bs	155	309	125	219	5.3	29.4	58.8	23.9	41.8
	1999	Oct.–Nov.	Bs	167	333	130	228	5.9	28.0	56.1	21.9	38.3
	2002	Oct.–Nov.	Bs	167	334	133	234	7.4	22.6	45.2	18.1	31.6
	2004	Nov. 2003–Nov. 2004	Bs	180	359	144	252	7.9	22.7	45.4	18.2	31.8
Brazil	1990	Sept.	Cr\$	3 109	6 572	2 634	4 967	75.5	41.2	87.0	34.9	65.7
	1993	Sept.	Cr\$	3 400	7 391	2 864	5 466	111.2	30.6	66.5	25.8	49.2
	1996	Sept.	R\$	44	104	38	76	1.0	43.6	102.3	37.2	74.9
	1999	Sept.	R\$	51	126	43	91	1.9	26.7	66.2	22.7	48.1
	2001	Oct.	R\$	58	142	50	105	2.7	21.2	51.9	18.2	38.2
	2003	Oct.	R\$	75	178	65	133	2.9	26.1	62.3	22.6	46.7
	2004	Oct.	R\$	79	191	68	149	2.9	27.7	67.1	23.9	52.2
	2005	Oct.	R\$	83	209	72	161	2.3	36.4	91.7	31.6	71.0
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
	2004	Year	Col\$	98 179	196 357	81 264	142 214	2 628.6	37.4	74.7	30.9	54.1
2005	Year	Col\$	103 138	206 276	85 365	149 389	2 320.8	44.4	88.9	36.8	64.4	
Costa Rica	1990	June	¢	2 639	5 278	2 081	3 642	89.7	29.4	58.9	23.2	40.6
	1994	June	¢	5 264	10 528	4 153	7 268	155.6	33.8	67.7	26.7	46.7
	1997	June	¢	8 604	17 208	6 778	11 862	232.6	37.0	74.0	29.1	51.0
	1999	June	¢	10 708	21 415	8 463	14 811	285.3	37.5	75.1	29.7	51.9
	2002	June	¢	14 045	28 089	11 132	19 481	358.1	39.2	78.4	31.1	54.4
	2004	June	¢	18 010	36 019	14 042	24 576	435.9	41.3	82.6	32.2	56.4
	2005	June	¢	20 905	41 810	16 298	28 522	476.3	43.9	87.8	34.2	59.9
Dominican Republic	2000	Sept.	RD\$	713	1 425	641	1 154	16.5	43.1	86.2	38.8	69.8
	2002	Sept.	RD\$	793	1 569	714	1 285	18.8	42.2	83.5	38.0	68.4
	2004	Sept.	RD\$	1 715	3 430	1 543	2 778	37.5	45.8	91.5	41.2	74.1
	2005	Sept.	RD\$	1 649	3 298	1 484	2 672	31.1	53.1	106.2	47.8	86.0
	Ecuador	1990	Nov.	\$/.	18 465	36 930	854.8	21.6	43.2	...
1994		Nov.	\$/.	69 364	138 729	2 301.2	30.1	60.3
1997		Oct.	\$/.	142 233	284 465	4 194.6	33.9	67.8
1999		Oct.	\$/.	301 716	603 432	15 656.8	19.3	38.5
2002		Nov.	\$/.	863 750	1 727 500	25 000.0	34.6	69.1
2004		Jul.	\$/.	932 750	1 865 500	657 500	1 150 750	25 000.0	37.3	74.6	26.3	46.0
2005	Nov.	\$/.	963 750	1 927 500	679 500	1 189 000	25 000.0	34.6	69.1	27.2	47.6	
El Salvador	1995	Jan.–Dec.	¢	254	508	158	315	8.8	29.0	58.1	18.0	35.9
	1997	Jan.–Dec.	¢	290	580	187	374	8.8	33.1	66.2	21.4	42.8
	1999	Jan.–Dec.	¢	293	586	189	378	8.8	33.5	66.9	21.6	43.2
	2001	Jan.–Dec.	¢	305	610	197	394	8.8	34.9	69.7	22.5	45.0
	2004	Year	¢	333	666	215	430	8.8	38.1	76.1	24.6	49.2
Guatemala	1989	Apr.	Q	64	127	50	88	2.7	23.6	47.1	18.7	32.7
	1998	Dec. 1997–Dec. 1998	Q	260	520	197	344	6.4	40.7	81.5	30.8	54.0
	2002	Oct.–Nov.	Q	334	669	255	446	7.7	43.6	87.2	33.3	58.2
Honduras	1990	Aug.	L	115	229	81	141	4.3	26.5	52.9	18.6	32.6
	1994	Sept.	L	257	513	181	316	9.0	28.6	57.1	20.1	35.2
	1997	Aug.	L	481	963	339	593	13.1	36.8	73.6	25.9	45.3
	1999	Aug.	L	561	1 122	395	691	14.3	39.3	78.6	27.7	48.4
	2002	Aug.	L	689	1 378	485	849	16.6	41.6	83.3	29.3	51.3
	2003	Aug.	L	707	1 414	498	871	17.5	40.5	81.0	28.5	49.9

Table 5 (concluded)

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					Dollars			
Mexico	1989	3rd Q	\$	86 400	172 800	68 810	120 418	2 510.0	34.4	68.8	27.4	48.0
	1994	3rd Q	MN\$	213	425	151	265	3.3	63.6	127.2	45.3	79.3
	1996	3rd Q	MN\$	405	810	300	525	7.6	53.6	107.2	39.7	69.5
	1998	3rd Q	MN\$	537	1 074	385	674	9.5	56.8	113.6	40.7	71.3
	2000	3rd Q	MN\$	665	1 330	475	831	9.4	71.0	142.1	50.7	88.8
	2002	3rd Q	MN\$	742	1 484	530	928	9.9	75.0	150.1	53.6	93.8
	2004	3rd Q	MN\$	809	1 618	578	1 012	11.5	70.6	141.3	50.5	88.4
	2005	Aug.–Nov. 2005	MN\$	845	1 690	604	1 057	10.7	78.7	157.3	56.2	98.4
Nicaragua	1993	21 Feb.–12 Jun.	C\$	167	334	129	225	4.6	36.6	73.3	28.2	49.4
	1997	Oct.	C\$	247	493	9.8	25.3	50.5
	1998	15 Apr.–31 Aug.	C\$	275	550	212	370	10.4	26.3	52.7	20.3	35.5
	2001	30 Apr.–31 Jul.	C\$	369	739	284	498	13.4	27.6	55.2	21.3	37.2
Panama	1991	Aug.	B	35	70	1.0	35.0	70.1
	1994	Aug.	B	40	80	1.0	40.1	80.2
	1997	Aug.	B	41	81	1.0	40.6	81.3
	1999	Jul.	B	41	81	1.0	40.7	81.4
	2002	Jul.	B	41	81	31	55	1.0	40.7	81.4	31.5	55.0
	2004	Jul.	B	42	84	33	57	1.0	42.1	84.2	32.6	57.1
	2005	Jul.	B	44	87	34	59	1.0	43.6	87.3	33.8	59.1
Paraguay	1990 ^d	Jun.–Jul.–Aug.	G	43 242	86 484	1 207.8	35.8	71.6
	1994	Aug.–Sep.	G	87 894	175 789	1 916.3	45.9	91.7
	1996	Jul.–Nov.	G	108 572	217 143	2 081.2	52.2	104.3
	1999	Jul.–Dec.	G	138 915	277 831	106 608	186 565	3 311.4	42.0	83.9	32.2	56.3
	2001	Sep. 2000–Aug. 2001	G	155 461	310 922	119 404	208 956	3 718.3	41.8	83.6	32.1	56.2
	2004	Jul.–Oct. 2004	G	212 145	424 290	162 786	284 876	5 915.6	35.9	71.7	27.5	48.2
	2005	Jun. 2005	G	224 499	448 997	172 013	301 023	6 137.9	36.6	73.2	28.0	49.0
Peru	1997	4th Q	N\$	103	192	83	128	2.7	42.1	84.3	31.6	55.3
	1999	4th Q	N\$	109	213	89	141	3.5	31.2	61.2	25.5	40.5
	2001	4th Q	N\$	117	230	102	159	3.5	34.0	66.8	29.5	46.0
	2003	4th Q	N\$	120	239	107	167	3.5	34.5	68.9	30.8	48.2
Uruguay	1990	2nd Q	NUR\$	41 972	83 944	1 358.0	30.9	61.8
	1994	2nd Q	\$	281	563	5.4	52.1	104.1
	1997	Year	\$	528	1 056	9.4	55.9	111.9
	1999	Year	\$	640	1 280	11.3	56.4	112.9
	2002	Year	\$	793	1 586	21.3	37.3	74.6
	2004	Year	\$	1 027	2 054	28.7	35.8	71.6
	2005	Year	\$	1 073	2 147	24.5	43.8	87.7
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	2nd Q	Bs	1 924	3 848	1 503	2 630	49.4	38.9	77.9	30.4	53.2
	1994	2nd Q	Bs	8 025	16 050	6 356	11 124	171.3	46.9	93.7	37.1	65.0
	1997 ^e	2nd Q	Bs	31 711	62 316	488.6	64.9	127.5
	1999 ^e	2nd Q	Bs	48 737	95 876	626.3	77.8	153.1
	2002 ^e	2nd Q	Bs	80 276	154 813	1 161.0	69.1	133.4
	2004 ^e	2nd Q	Bs	122 936	236 597	1 918.0	64.1	123.4
	2005 ^e	2nd Q	Bs	141 699	272 689	2 147.0	66.0	127.0

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

^a National currencies:

Argentina: (A) austral; (\$) peso

Bolivia: (Bs) boliviano

Brazil: (Cr\$) cruzeiro; (R\$) real

Chile: (Ch\$) peso

Colombia: (Col\$) peso

Costa Rica: (¢) colón

Ecuador: (S/) sucre

El Salvador: (¢) colón

Guatemala: (Q) quetzal

Honduras: (L) lempira

Mexico: (\$) peso; (MN\$) new peso

Nicaragua: (C\$) córdoba

Panama: (B) balboa

Paraguay: (G) guaraní

Peru: (N\$) peso

Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela: (Bs) bolívar

Dominican Republic: (RD\$) peso

Uruguay: (Nur\$) new peso; (\$) peso

^b According to the International Monetary Fund "rf" series.

^c Greater Buenos Aires.

^d Asunción.

^e Nationwide total.

Table 6

BREAKDOWN OF HOUSEHOLDS BY PER CAPITA INCOME BRACKET, EXPRESSED AS MULTIPLES OF THE POVERTY LINE, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005									
Country	Year	Per capita income bracket in multiples of the poverty line							
		0 to 0.5 (indigents)	0.5 to 0.9	0.9 to 1.0	0.0 to 1.0 (poor)	1.0 to 1.25	1.25 to 2.0	2.0 to 3.0	More than 3.0
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	3.5	10.6	2.1	16.2	7.3	22.5	18.7	35.3
	1994	1.5	6.6	2.1	10.2	7.4	16.7	19.0	46.7
	1997	3.3	7.0	2.8	13.1	7.2	19.0	17.5	43.2
	1999	3.1	8.4	1.6	13.1	6.2	19.1	17.8	43.9
	2002	12.0	15.4	4.2	31.6	8.7	19.3	15.8	24.7
	2004	6.5	9.3	3.1	18.9	7.1	21.4	18.7	33.9
	2005	4.9	8.6	2.6	16.1	5.6	22.6	19.2	36.6
Bolivia	1989	22.1	23.2	4.1	49.4	9.0	16.4	10.6	14.5
	1994	16.8	24.2	4.6	45.6	9.8	19.3	10.2	14.9
	1997	19.2	22.6	5.1	46.8	9.7	17.2	11.2	15.2
	1999	16.4	20.8	5.1	42.3	10.8	18.5	11.4	17.0
	2002	17.3	23.1	4.4	44.9	9.1	18.8	10.2	17.1
Brazil ^a	1990	14.8	17.3	3.7	35.8	8.3	16.6	12.3	27.1
	1993	13.5	16.0	3.8	33.3	8.5	19.0	13.3	26.0
	1996	9.7	11.9	3.1	24.6	7.3	17.5	15.5	35.1
	1999	9.9	13.1	3.4	26.4	8.0	18.1	15.3	32.3
	2001	11.0	13.1	3.3	27.4	7.4	18.0	15.4	31.9
	2003	11.5	13.5	3.4	28.4	7.7	18.4	15.5	30.1
	2004	10.3	13.7	3.3	27.3	7.8	18.5	16.0	30.6
	2005	9.5	13.1	3.2	25.8	7.6	18.4	16.7	31.4
Chile	1990	10.2	18.6	4.5	33.3	9.5	20.3	14.3	22.7
	1994	5.9	13.3	3.6	22.8	8.5	20.7	16.6	31.4
	1996	4.3	11.0	3.2	18.5	8.5	20.5	17.2	34.1
	1998	4.3	9.9	2.8	17.0	7.3	19.4	17.6	38.8
	2000	4.3	9.1	2.9	16.3	7.5	19.2	18.0	39.1
	2003	3.7	8.7	2.7	15.1	7.6	19.9	18.5	39.0
Colombia ^b	1994	16.2	20.3	4.1	40.6	9.1	18.2	12.6	19.5
	1997	14.6	20.3	4.5	39.5	9.6	18.9	12.6	19.4
	1999	18.7	21.5	4.4	44.6	9.5	17.7	10.8	17.4
	2002	20.7	19.9	4.0	44.6	9.3	17.1	11.2	17.9
	2004	19.8	20.1	4.0	43.9	8.7	17.1	11.5	18.8
	2005	15.6	19.4	4.2	39.1	9.2	17.6	12.2	21.9
Costa Rica	1990	7.8	11.2	3.7	22.2	7.9	21.9	20.2	27.9
	1994	5.6	9.1	3.4	18.1	7.9	20.4	20.7	32.9
	1997	5.2	9.1	2.8	17.1	8.1	20.5	20.3	34.0
	1999	5.4	7.9	2.4	15.7	8.5	19.3	17.7	38.8
	2002	5.5	7.7	2.7	15.9	6.1	19.2	18.3	40.6
	2004	6.3	8.4	2.9	17.6	6.9	18.8	18.2	38.6
	2005	5.9	9.5	2.8	18.2	7.5	20.3	17.6	36.4
Dominican Republic	2000	17.7	17.2	4.1	39.0	8.9	18.3	13.9	19.9
	2002	16.0	18.1	4.3	38.4	9.1	18.3	13.9	20.4
	2004	23.4	20.8	3.7	47.9	7.7	15.7	9.7	18.9
	2005	20.1	17.4	4.0	41.5	8.6	15.7	11.8	22.5
	Ecuador	1990	22.6	28.1	5.2	55.8	10.5	16.7	8.8
1994		22.4	24.7	5.2	52.3	10.1	19.1	9.1	9.4
1997		18.6	25.6	5.6	49.8	10.0	19.4	10.7	10.0
1999		27.2	25.5	5.3	58.0	7.9	16.1	7.9	10.1
2002		16.3	21.7	4.6	42.6	10.5	19.5	12.0	15.5
2004		15.3	21.4	4.3	40.9	9.7	19.4	13.2	16.8
2005		14.3	19.7	4.8	38.8	9.0	20.1	13.8	18.3
El Salvador	1995	12.4	22.4	5.1	40.0	12.0	22.0	12.8	13.3
	1997	12.0	21.8	4.8	38.6	11.0	21.8	13.6	15.0
	1999	11.1	19.0	3.9	34.0	9.8	21.7	15.4	19.1
	2001	12.0	18.7	4.0	34.7	10.3	20.8	14.8	19.5
	2004	11.5	19.4	3.9	34.8	10.0	23.0	14.7	17.5
Guatemala	1989	22.9	21.0	4.3	48.2	8.5	17.3	11.0	15.0
	1998	12.2	23.0	6.0	41.3	11.4	20.9	11.6	14.9
	2002	14.8	20.3	4.0	39.0	9.8	20.4	12.9	17.9
Honduras	1990	38.0	22.7	3.8	64.5	8.2	12.0	6.5	8.8
	1994	40.8	24.5	4.3	69.6	7.6	12.0	5.1	5.8
	1997	36.8	26.0	4.2	67.0	8.2	12.5	5.9	6.4
	1999	37.1	24.4	4.2	65.6	8.2	12.9	6.4	7.0
	2002	31.3	24.8	4.4	60.5	8.9	14.5	7.6	8.6
	2003	30.5	22.2	3.7	56.3	10.7	15.5	7.9	9.6

Table 6 (concluded)

BREAKDOWN OF HOUSEHOLDS BY PER CAPITA INCOME BRACKET, EXPRESSED AS MULTIPLES OF THE POVERTY LINE, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005									
Country	Year	Per capita income bracket in multiples of the poverty line							
		0 to 0.5 (indigents)	0.5 to 0.9	0.9 to 1.0	0.0 to 1.0 (poor)	1.0 to 1.25	1.25 to 2.0	2.0 to 3.0	More than 3.0
Mexico	1989	9.3	19.8	4.8	33.9	11.0	22.3	13.1	19.8
	1994	6.2	18.2	4.6	29.0	10.8	21.8	14.4	24.0
	1996	10.0	22.2	5.3	37.5	10.7	21.3	12.4	18.1
	1998	6.9	19.1	5.1	31.1	11.0	22.0	15.3	20.6
	2000	4.7	17.3	4.5	26.5	10.9	22.7	16.3	23.6
	2002	4.8	16.2	5.0	26.0	11.2	23.2	15.6	24.0
	2004	5.2	16.3	4.7	26.2	10.9	23.6	15.0	24.4
	2005	4.1	14.4	4.3	22.9	10.3	24.2	16.7	26.0
Nicaragua	1993	32.2	23.5	4.6	60.3	8.2	15.7	6.9	9.0
	1998	30.7	24.1	4.5	59.3	8.6	15.8	7.6	8.7
	2001	28.3	25.2	4.2	57.7	8.3	16.4	8.4	9.2
Panama	1991	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
	2004	6.0	9.6	3.3	18.9	7.0	18.6	16.3	39.2
	2005	6.5	10.4	2.7	19.7	6.9	18.4	16.8	38.2
	Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	10.4	21.7	4.7	36.8	13.6	19.6	14.2
1994		9.5	20.9	5.0	35.4	11.6	20.4	13.4	19.3
1996		8.0	19.2	6.4	33.5	11.3	22.2	13.5	19.5
1999		6.9	20.8	5.2	32.9	11.9	19.9	16.2	19.2
2001		9.1	20.1	5.9	35.0	8.9	21.4	13.2	21.5
2004		18.1	24.9	5.3	48.3	10.8	18.7	10.9	11.4
2005		12.6	25.0	4.0	41.5	10.8	22.0	11.8	13.9
Peru	1997	6.5	17.1	4.4	28.0	10.3	23.8	16.2	21.8
	1999	7.4	18.7	4.8	30.9	11.3	24.5	13.0	20.4
	2001	10.9	20.6	4.9	36.4	12.1	22.4	13.1	16.1
	2003	7.3	20.6	5.1	33.1	12.0	24.6	14.6	15.7
Uruguay	1990	2.0	7.0	2.8	11.8	7.1	22.7	23.1	35.3
	1994	1.1	3.4	1.3	5.8	3.6	15.4	23.2	52.0
	1997	0.9	3.5	1.4	5.7	4.0	15.2	21.4	53.8
	1999	0.9	3.4	1.3	5.6	3.6	13.5	20.5	56.9
	2002	1.3	6.1	1.9	9.3	5.6	18.0	21.6	45.5
	2004	2.5	7.8	2.9	13.2	6.8	20.9	22.0	37.2
	2005	2.2	7.3	2.3	11.8	6.2	20.0	23.1	38.9
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^c	1990	10.9	17.5	5.0	33.4	10.9	21.5	14.8	19.4
	1994	13.5	22.0	5.4	40.9	10.4	21.4	12.9	14.4
	1997	17.1	20.7	4.5	42.3	10.6	19.3	11.5	16.3
	1999	19.4	20.5	4.1	44.0	10.3	19.5	11.5	14.8
	2002	18.6	20.0	4.7	43.3	9.8	18.9	12.0	15.9
	2004	15.8	19.3	4.8	39.9	9.9	20.7	13.6	15.8
	2005	13.7	15.4	3.8	32.9	9.1	21.2	16.2	20.7

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

- ^a For Brazil, the values for indigence (0 to 0.5 times the poverty line) and poverty (0 to 1.0 times the poverty line) may not match those shown in table 14. This is because in Brazil the poverty line was obtained by multiplying the indigence line by a variable coefficient and not a fixed coefficient (2.0) as in all other cases.
- ^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 of the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.
- ^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 7

POVERTY RATES IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005 ^a (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
	2004	26	15	22	14	22	26	15	12
	2005	23	13	15	13	21	23	12	21
Bolivia	1989	53	39	...	42	53	31	46	40
	1994	52	41	35	48	58	31	52	44
	1997	52	43	30	42	50	35	59	46
	1999	49	41	23	41	53	27	66	43
	2002	52	43	25	41	47	30	63	48
	2004	54	45	20	39	57	38	62	51
Brazil ^d	1990	41	32	...	30	48	49	40	36
	1993	40	32	20	31	39	47	43	33
	1996	31	22	14	22	27	35	28	22
	1999	33	24	14	26	32	39	33	27
	2001	34	24	13	26	33	40	35	27
	2003	36	25	13	25	33	41	33	32
	2004	34	25	12	23	32	41	33	31
	2005	33	23	12	21	30	39	32	30
Chile	1990	38	29	...	30 ^c	38	37	28	23
	1994	28	20	...	20 ^c	27	21	20	17
	1996	22	15	7	18	24	20	10	10
	1998	21	14	...	14 ^c	21	19	11	9
	2000	20	14	6	16	22	17	14	12
	2003	18	10	5	14	19	15	10	10
Colombia ^e	1991	52	41	27	45 ^f	...	38	54	53
	1994	45	34	15	41 ^f	...	31	42	42
	1997	40	33	15	37 ^f	...	34	48	42
	1999	51	38	12	38 ^f	...	35	60	54
	2002	51	40	11	36 ^f	...	44	59	56
	2004	50	39	9	34 ^f	...	43	62	57
	2005	45	35	8	31 ^f	...	39	56	52
Costa Rica	1990	25	15	...	15	22	28	28	24
	1994	21	12	5	11	19	25	24	18
	1997	23	10	4	10	17	23	21	18
	1999	18	10	3	9	14	27	17	16
	2002	18	9	1	8	12	18	19	18
	2004	19	10	2	8	13	16	19	24
	2005	20	11	2	11	15	27	20	21
Dominican Republic	2000	42	27	26	29	35	55	26	26
	2002	42	27	27	28	37	49	29	28
	2004	52	38	43	49	50	65	23	26
	2005	45	30	32	40	44	59	18	19
	Ecuador	1990	62	51	33	50	60	56	70
1994		58	46	31	49	58	56	60	56
1997		56	45	28	46	62	53	56	54
1999		64	53	30	55	70	61	68	62
2002		49	39	18	39	53	51	48	45
2004		48	37	14	37	50	45	52	46
2005		45	35	11	35	48	47	46	42
El Salvador	1995	54	34	14	35	50	32	50	41
	1997	56	35	13	35	48	40	50	43
	1999	39	29	9	26	44	41	43	35
	2001	39	30	8	28	42	40	45	35
	2004	41	31	9	30	44	42	46	35
Guatemala	1989	53	42	20	47	61	42	48	35
	1998	49	42	20	45	58	33	50	41
	2002	44	34	8	33	54	42	48	33

Table 7 (concluded)

POVERTY RATES IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005 ^a (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
Honduras	1990	70	60	29	60	76	51	81	73
	1994	75	66	42	71	83	56	84	77
	1997	73	64	44	69	83	52	84	72
	1999	72	64	41	64	81	58	80	72
	2002	67	58	28	57	75	48	80	68
	2003	63	54	25	44	69	52	76	69
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
	2004	33	25	...	25 ^c	41	45	26	23
	2005	29	21	...	22 ^c	37	40	25	18
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
	2004	22	13	3	10	21	23	22	27
	2005	24	15	4	11	24	25	25	27
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	42	32	23	40	49	29	41	31
	1994	42	31	14	38	44	36	42	37
	1996	39	29	13	27	40	33	44	37
	1999	40	26	11	27	40	27	42	31
	2001	43	32	14	37	38	36	42	47
	2004	56	43	26	43	54	46	55	56
	2005	49	37	20	37	50	39	48	51
Peru	1997	34	25	14	20	28	16	36	33
	1999	36	28	14	21	32	23	52	36
	2001	42	36	20	37	47	27	43	41
	2003	43	38	21	37	49	30	44	44
Uruguay	1990	18	11	8	10	17	25	21	14
	1994	10	6	2	6	7	13	12	7
	1997	10	6	2	5	9	12	10	9
	1999	9	5	2	5	9	12	12	9
	2002	15	10	2	8	15	17	21	18
	2004	21	14	3	12	21	26	26	25
	2005	19	13	3	10	19	25	24	24
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ⁱ	1990	39	22	20	24	34	33	25	22
	1994	47	32	38	29	48	41	32	32
	1997	48	35	34	44	50	52	27	27
	1999	49	35	28	37	52	50	33	34
	2002	49	35	21	42	51	53	30	33
	2004	45	32	19	37	48	53	28	29
	2005	37	24	15	29	38	46	20	22

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

^a Refers to the percentage of employed persons in each category residing in households with income below the poverty line.

^b For the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 y 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama (up to 2002) and Uruguay (1990), this category includes establishments employing up to four 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. The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

^f Includes wage earners in establishments employing up to five persons.

^g Includes wage earners in the public sector and in establishments employing up to 5 persons.

^h Refers to all non-professional, non-technical own-account workers.

ⁱ The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 8

POVERTY RATES IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES, ^a RURAL AREAS, 1990–2005 (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 of 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
	2004	81	78	31	57	75	17	83	87
Brazil ^c	1990	71	64	...	45	72	61	70	74
	1993	63	57	56	58	53	53	59	60
	1996	56	49	33	46	35	40	54	56
	1999	55	49	39	47	40	41	54	55
	2001	55	48	30	47	42	42	52	53
	2003	55	47	29	47	35	43	51	52
	2004	54	47	26	43	40	41	52	53
2005	53	46	25	42	38	40	52	52	
Chile	1990	40	27	...	28	36	23	22	24
	1994	32	22	...	20	28	13	21	24
	1996	31	21	13	21	27	16	18	21
	1998	28	18	...	16 ^d	21	13	17	21
	2000	24	16	9	16	20	10	16	21
	2003	20	11	4	10	17	9	13	14
Colombia	1991	60	53	...	42 ^{de}	...	54	67	73
	1994	62	55	...	55 ^{de}	...	57	61	59
	1997	60	48	16	40 ^e	...	48	62	67
	1999	62	50	12	41 ^e	...	45	64	66
	2002	52	41	8	32 ^e	...	41	52	55
	2004	55	45	13	32 ^e	...	42	56	51
	2005	51	41	7	32 ^e	...	39	50	44
Costa Rica	1990	27	17	...	13	23	22	24	27
	1994	25	14	7	3	20	23	21	24
	1997	25	14	5	9	20	25	21	24
	1999	22	12	3	7	21	22	17	21
	2002	24	15	1	5	13	16	33	46
	2004	23	13	2	5	11	13	30	45
	2005	23	13	2	5	13	17	28	39
Dominican Republic	2000	55	38	33	35	44	54	39	47
	2002	51	34	29	31	44	58	34	42
	2004	59	45	44	53	55	59	43	60
	2005	51	36	38	42	47	47	33	51
Ecuador	2004	59	53	18	33	51	45	61	65
	2005	55	47	10	31	44	31	55	59
El Salvador	1995	64	53	24	43	56	50	63	72
	1997	69	58	26	47	57	49	67	79
	1999	65	55	16	42	56	47	71	80
	2001	62	53	14	38	54	49	64	79
	2004	57	47	16	35	50	38	59	76
Guatemala	1989	78	70	42	72	76	61	71	76
	1998	69	63	42	62	74	53	63	67
	2002	68	60	27	63	62	41	65	73
Honduras	1990	88	83	...	71	90	72	88	90
	1994	81	73	40	65	79	74	78	81
	1997	84	79	37	75	86	74	83	85
	1999	86	81	38	79	89	75	85	89
	2002	86	82	34	65	89	69	86	91
	2003	85	81	29	57	88	72	86	90

Table 8 (concluded)

POVERTY RATES IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES, ^a RURAL AREAS, 1990–2005 (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 of up to 5 persons ^b	Domestic employees	Total	Agriculture, forestry and fishing
Mexico	1989	57	49	...	53 ^f	...	50	47	54
	1994	57	47	...	53 ^f	...	53	46	54
	1996	62	56	23	57	67	64	59	68
	1998	58	51	23	48	60	64	55	64
	2000	55	46	16	44	59	64	49	61
	2002	51	44	21	36	54	48	48	62
	2004	44	36	...	26 ^d	49	39	41	55
	2005	48	39	...	32 ^d	52	47	41	57
Nicaragua	1993	83	75	71	64	77	59	82	89
	1998	77	70	...	61	69	49	80	87
	2001	77	70	46	57	67	63	80	87
Panama	2002	49	40	6	13	16	27	60	70
	2004	48	41	4	11	26	33	61	71
	2005	48	41	4	9	26	31	59	69
Paraguay	1999	74	65	10	47	57	43	75	79
	2001	74	67	13	35	68	44	75	81
	2004	75	69	32	42	57	54	77	81
	2005	68	62	21	38	53	55	70	72
Peru	1997	73	66	23	47	57	54	76	77
	1999	73	66	33	42	54	38	73	78
	2001	78	74	39	65	75	53	78	82
	2003	76	72	27	58	65	63	76	79
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	47	31	22	35	36	44	31	36
	1994	56	42	27	50	50	53	42	44

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

^a Refers to the percentage of employed persons in each category residing in households with income below the poverty line.

^b For Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador and Panama (up to 2002), this category includes establishments employing up to four persons only.

^c For 1990, the figures given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing more than five persons includes wage earners who have an employment contract (carteira), while the column for establishments employing up to five persons includes workers who do not have such contracts.

^d Includes public-sector wage earners.

^e Includes wage earners in establishments employing up to five persons. The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for rural areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

^f Includes wage earners in the public sector and in establishments employing up to five persons.

Table 9

BREAKDOWN OF THE TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005								
<i>(Percentages of the employed urban population living in poverty)</i>								
Country	Year	Public-sector wage earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations			Own-account workers in non-professional, non-technical occupations		Total ^b
			In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons ^a	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	...	53	17	12	6	10	98
	1994	...	52	22	10	6	10	100
	1997	...	49	23	11	5	12	100
	1999	7	36	25	12	7	13	100
	2002	25	26	22	9	8	8	98
	2004	23	28	20	11	6	9	97
	2005	16	31	22	13	5	10	97
Bolivia	1989	18	15	17	5	12	31	98
	1994	11	18	19	4	11	29	92
	1997	7	14	13	3	16	29	82
	1999	6	15	15	2	19	33	90
	2002	6	15	14	3	18	33	88
	2004	4	12	21	4	15	32	88
Brazil ^c	1990	...	32	26	10	5	18	91
	1993	9	32	11	12	6	17	87
	1996	8	31	12	13	7	16	87
	1999	7	28	11	14	7	18	85
	2001	7	29	12	15	7	17	87
	2003	6	30	13	14	8	16	87
	2004	6	31	12	14	8	16	87
	2005	6	30	12	14	9	16	87
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
	2004	2	31 ^e	...	6	12	41	92
	2005	2	33 ^e	...	6	12	40	93
Costa Rica	1990	...	28	13	8	12	17	78
	1994	11	28	18	9	10	18	94
	1997	7	30	18	8	10	22	95
	1999	6	28	17	15	8	20	94
	2002	3	24	15	8	10	25	85
	2004	3	24	14	5	8	32	87
	2005	3	28	16	12	7	22	88
Dominican Republic	2000	13	33	10	8	7	20	92
	2002	14	30	9	8	8	23	91
	2004	14	38	10	9	4	14	88
	2005	14	36	9	9	5	14	87
Ecuador	1990	11	21	13	5	11	29	90
	1994	9	23	15	6	8	29	90
	1997	9	24	15	6	8	27	89
	1999	6	23	18	6	7	27	87
	2002	5	23	18	6	9	27	89
	2004	4	21	19	5	9	31	89
2005	3	22	21	7	8	28	89	
El Salvador	1995	5	28	15	4	12	25	89
	1997	5	25	16	5	10	27	88
	1999	4	23	21	6	10	24	88
	2001	3	24	19	6	10	27	88
	2004	3	25	19	5	10	27	88
Guatemala	1989	7	26	20	7	8	12	80
	1998	4	21	28	3	10	20	86
	2002	2	24	21	5	13	19	83
Honduras	1990	7	27	17	6	12	23	92
	1994	7	33	14	5	10	19	88
	1997	7	30	14	4	10	23	88
	1999	6	27	14	4	9	25	85
	2002	5	24	17	3	14	24	86
	2003	4	19	17	4	14	28	87

Table 9 (concluded)

BREAKDOWN OF THE TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005 (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 ^c	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
Mexico	1989	...	72 ^e	...	5	3	11	91
	1994	...	71 ^e	...	7	17 ^f	...	95
	1996	7	36	23	6	5	17	94
	1998	14	33	15	4	3	16	85
	2000	6	36	27	5	5	15	94
	2002	6	35	28	9	5	13	95
	2004	...	40 ^g	28	9	4	14	95
	2005	...	43 ^g	27	8	4	13	95
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
	2004	5	24	13	12	7	33	94
	2005	4	24	14	12	7	31	93
	Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	8	30	24	10	7	15
1994		5	30	19	14	7	19	94
1996		5	22	19	11	10	26	93
1999		6	26	21	10	8	20	91
2001		5	28	13	12	7	28	93
2004		7	19	17	12	8	29	92
2005		7	21	18	11	7	25	89
Peru		1997	7	15	14	3	8	38
	1999	5	12	15	5	9	38	84
	2001	7	17	18	4	6	33	84
	2003	6	16	16	4	6	34	82
Uruguay	1990	16	30	11	15	10	15	97
	1994	8	32	13	16	13	15	97
	1997	7	27	17	15	12	19	97
	1999	5	26	15	17	15	20	98
	2002	4	20	16	17	17	23	97
	2004	4	22	17	17	14	22	95
	2005	3	23	20	14	13	23	97
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^h	1990	19	33	10	10	5	15	92
	1994	21	26	14	5	6	19	91
	1997	17	32	15	7	5	15	91
	1999	12	26	18	3	7	24	90
	2002	8	28	16	4	6	25	87
	2004	9	27	16	4	6	24	85
	2005	10	28	16	4	5	22	85

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

^a For Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama (up to 2002) and Uruguay (1990), this category includes establishments employing up to four persons only.

^b In most cases the total amounts to less than 100%, since employers, professional and technical workers and public-sector employees have not been included.

^c For 1990, the figures given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing more than five persons includes wage earners who have an employment contract (carteira), while the column for establishments employing up to five persons includes workers who do not have such contracts.

^d In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for rural areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

^e Includes wage earners in establishments employing up to five persons.

^f Refers to all non-professional, non-technical own-account workers.

^g Includes public-sector wage 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 10

BREAKDOWN OF THE TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS, 1990–2005								
<i>(Percentages of the employed rural population living in poverty)</i>								
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
	2004	2	3	7	0	84	72	96
Brazil ^c	1990	...	9	26	4	57	51	96
	1993	5	23	2	3	66	61	99
	1996	3	21	2	3	70	65	99
	1999	4	20	2	3	69	64	98
	2001	3	22	2	3	69	64	99
	2003	2	22	2	4	69	63	99
	2004	2	21	2	4	70	64	99
	2005	2	21	2	4	70	61	99
	Chile	1990	...	40	29	3	27	23
1994		...	39	26	2	31	25	98
1996		2	29	35	3	30	27	99
1998		...	36	25	3	35	31	99
2000		3	40	22	2	33	28	100
2003		2	38	23	3	33	29	99
Colombia	1991	...	34 ^d	...	2	58	35	94
	1994	...	47 ^d	...	4	45	24	96
	1997	1	35 ^d	...	3	57	35	96
	1999	1	31 ^d	...	3	62	36	97
	2002	1	25 ^d	...	4	68	40	98
	2004	1	24 ^d	...	3	70	39	98
	2005	0	26 ^d	...	3	68	38	97
Costa Rica	1990	-	25	23	6	41	27	95
	1994	5	20	28	7	35	19	95
	1997	3	20	28	9	36	19	96
	1999	2	19	34	10	30	16	95
	2002	1	9	16	5	62	41	91
	2004	1	13	14	5	58	40	91
	2005	2	12	19	7	50	30	90
Dominican Republic	2000	7	17	8	7	59	40	98
	2002	7	15	7	8	60	43	97
	2004	9	24	7	6	52	38	97
	2005	8	22	9	6	53	40	97
Ecuador	2004	1	8	17	2	70	59	97
	2005	1	8	19	1	67	60	96
El Salvador	1995	1	23	15	3	52	36	94
	1997	1	23	15	4	54	39	97
	1999	1	18	17	5	55	38	96
	2001	1	13	19	5	58	43	96
	2004	1	18	24	5	51	34	98
Guatemala	1989	2	23	12	2	61	52	100
	1998	1	22	19	1	54	37	98
	2002	1	18	15	1	63	47	97
Honduras	1990	2	11	17	2	68	51	100
	1994	3	14	15	2	65	49	99
	1997	2	13	16	2	65	45	98
	1999	2	12	16	2	66	45	98
	2002	1	9	21	1	67	52	99
	2003	1	8	22	2	66	49	99

Table 10 (concluded)

BREAKDOWN OF THE TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS, 1990–2005								
<i>(Percentages of the employed rural population living in poverty)</i>								
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 ^c	Domestic employees	Total	Agriculture	
Mexico	1989	...	50 ^d	...	3	45	38	98
	1994	...	50 ^d	...	3	45	35	98
	1996	3	20	22	4	49	35	98
	1998	6	19	18	2	49	29	94
	2000	2	20	27	3	46	33	98
	2002	4	14	28	5	48	36	98
	2004	...	21 ^e	32	4	39	26	97
2005	...	21	30	6	40	28	96	
Nicaragua	1993	6	13	11	4	62	54	96
	1998	-	17	16	3	60	49	96
	2001	3	11	13	3	65	55	96
Panama	2002	1	5	5	2	86	68	99
	2004	1	4	8	3	83	62	99
	2005	1	3	8	3	84	63	99
Paraguay	1999	1	5	10	3	80	66	99
	2001	1	3	13	3	78	66	98
	2004	1	4	9	3	81	68	98
	2005	2	3	10	4	79	68	98
Peru	1997	1	5	7	1	82	71	96
	1999	1	4	7	1	82	73	95
	2001	2	7	9	1	78	68	96
	2003	2	5	5	1	85	76	97
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	5	27	15	4	47	39	98
	1994	5	23	19	6	45	31	98

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

- ^a For Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador and Panama (up to 2002), this category includes establishments employing up to four persons only.
- ^b In most cases the total amounts to less than 100%, since employers, professional and technical workers and public-sector employees have not been included.
- ^c For 1990, the figures given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing more than five persons includes wage earners who have an employment contract (*carteira*), while the column for establishments employing up to five persons includes workers who do not have such contracts.
- ^d Includes wage earners in establishments employing up to five persons. The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for rural areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.
- ^e Includes public-sector wage earners.

Table 11

EXTENT AND DISTRIBUTION OF POVERTY AND INDIGENCE IN HOUSEHOLDS HEADED BY WOMEN, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005									
Country	Year	Percentage of households headed by women at each poverty level			Distribution of households headed by women by poverty level				
		Total households	Indigents	Non-indigent poor	Non-poor	Total households	Indigents	Non-indigent poor	Non-poor
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	21	26	12	22	100	4.3	7.0	88.7
	1994	24	22	20	24	100	1.0	7.5	91.1
	1997	26	32	24	26	100	4.1	9.0	86.9
	1999	27	37	28	27	100	4.2	10.4	85.4
	2002	27	20	25	28	100	8.9	18.5	72.6
	2004	30	39	27	29	100	8.6	11.5	79.9
	2005	31	40	29	31	100	6.2	10.3	83.5
Bolivia	1989	17	23	16	15	100	30.2	25.5	44.3
	1994	18	20	17	18	100	18.1	27.0	54.9
	1997	21	24	22	19	100	22.2	30.0	47.8
	1999	21	24	19	21	100	19.2	23.4	57.4
	2002	24	24	19	26	100	17.6	22.1	60.3
	2004	26	27	24	26	100	16.5	28.2	55.3
Brazil	1990	20	24	23	18	100	16.0	25.1	58.9
	1993	22	23	21	22	100	12.3	20.9	66.8
	1996	24	24	22	24	100	7.7	15.9	76.4
	1999	25	24	24	26	100	6.7	18.3	74.9
	2001	26	27	25	27	100	8.2	18.3	73.5
	2003	28	28	27	28	100	8.7	18.7	72.6
	2004	29	31	28	29	100	8.1	19.1	72.8
	2005	30	33	28	31	100	6.7	18.3	75.1
	Chile	1990	21	25	20	22	100	11.7	21.3
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
	1994	24	24	24	24	100	16.1	24.0	59.9
	1997	27	32	28	25	100	17.5	25.9	56.6
	1999	29	31	27	29	100	20.4	24.0	55.6
	2002	30	34	29	30	100	23.1	22.8	54.1
	2004	32	38	31	31	100	23.6	22.8	53.6
	2005	33	38	31	32	100	18.1	22.0	59.9
Costa Rica	1990	23	36	25	21	100	10.9	16.5	72.6
	1994	24	42	27	22	100	9.8	14.0	76.2
	1997	27	51	36	24	100	9.9	15.7	74.4
	1999	28	56	39	25	100	10.9	14.1	75.0
	2002	28	48	34	27	100	9.2	12.5	78.3
	2004	30	51	34	28	100	10.5	12.5	77.0
	2005	31	54	35	29	100	10.3	13.9	75.7
Dominican Republic	2000	31	48	33	26	100	27.2	22.3	50.5
	2002	34	54	39	27	100	25.2	25.6	49.2
	2004	33	41	35	28	100	29.5	26.4	44.1
	2005	35	48	37	30	100	27.5	22.3	50.2
Ecuador	1990	17	22	16	15	100	28.9	31.2	39.9
	1994	19	23	18	18	100	27.3	28.1	44.6
	1997	19	24	19	17	100	23.9	31.1	45.0
	1999	20	23	21	18	100	30.9	31.4	37.6
	2002	21	26	21	20	100	20.0	26.0	53.9
	2004	24	29	23	22	100	19.2	25.5	55.4
	2005	23	28	21	23	100	17.4	21.9	60.7
El Salvador	1995	31	38	31	29	100	15.4	28.1	56.5
	1997	30	36	33	28	100	14.2	29.3	56.5
	1999	31	36	36	29	100	12.6	25.9	61.5
	2001	35	37	40	33	100	12.6	25.9	61.5
	2004	35	35	39	34	100	11.4	25.5	63.1
Guatemala	1989	22	23	21	22	100	24.2	24.3	51.5
	1998	24	26	21	26	100	12.9	24.8	62.3
	2002	22	30	21	21	100	19.8	22.7	57.5
Honduras	1990	27	35	21	21	100	50.4	21.1	28.5
	1994	25	28	25	21	100	45.8	29.2	25.0
	1997	29	32	28	28	100	40.3	28.6	31.1
	1999	30	32	30	28	100	39.4	28.7	31.9
	2002	31	32	31	31	100	31.7	29.0	39.3
	2003	31	31	29	32	100	30.7	24.5	44.8

Table 11 (concluded)

EXTENT AND DISTRIBUTION OF POVERTY AND INDIGENCE IN HOUSEHOLDS HEADED BY WOMEN, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005									
Country	Year	Percentage of households headed by women at each poverty level				Distribution of households headed by women by poverty level			
		Total households	Indigents	Non-indigent poor	Non-poor	Total households	Indigents	Non-indigent poor	Non-poor
Mexico	1989	16	14	14	17	100	8.2	21.9	69.9
	1994	17	11	16	18	100	4.0	21.3	74.7
	1996	18	17	15	19	100	9.8	23.0	67.3
	1998	19	18	16	20	100	6.3	20.0	73.7
	2000	20	14	16	21	100	3.4	17.5	79.1
	2002	21	24	22	21	100	5.4	21.4	73.1
	2004	25	24	26	25	100	5.0	21.4	73.6
	2005	24	24	22	25	100	4.1	16.8	79.1
Nicaragua	1993	35	40	34	32	100	36.8	27.2	36.1
	1998	35	39	36	30	100	34.9	30.2	34.9
	2001	34	37	36	32	100	30.2	30.7	39.0
Panama	1991	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
	2004	30	50	34	28	100	9.7	14.7	75.6
	2005	30	55	32	28	100	11.9	14.0	74.2
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	20	21	23	18	100	11.2	30.5	58.3
	1994	23	20	26	22	100	8.4	29.3	62.3
	1996	27	25	26	27	100	7.4	24.7	67.9
	1999	27	30	23	29	100	7.7	21.9	70.4
	2001	31	37	29	32	100	10.6	23.7	65.7
	2004	30	38	26	30	100	22.9	25.8	51.3
	2005	34	39	37	32	100	14.2	31.1	54.6
Peru	1997	20	21	19	21	100	8.0	18.6	73.3
	1999	21	17	21	21	100	6.3	23.9	69.7
	2001	22	22	21	23	100	7.2	25.2	67.6
	2003	25	30	20	26	100	7.2	24.3	68.5
Uruguay	1990	25	28	22	26	100	2.2	8.4	89.4
	1994	27	21	23	27	100	0.8	4.0	95.1
	1997	29	27	23	29	100	0.8	3.9	95.3
	1999	31	29	26	31	100	0.8	4.0	95.2
	2002	32	31	27	33	100	1.3	6.7	92.0
	2004	32	27	27	33	100	2.1	8.9	89.0
	2005	34	34	31	35	100	2.2	8.8	89.0
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^b	1990	22	40	25	18	100	19.6	25.4	55.1
	1994	25	34	28	21	100	18.7	30.8	50.5
	1997	26	28	29	24	100	18.6	28.4	53.0
	1999	27	34	27	25	100	23.8	24.8	51.3
	2002	29	35	29	26	100	24.0	24.1	51.9
	2004	31	39	32	28	100	20.9	24.1	55.0
	2005	32	40	33	30	100	18.2	19.3	62.5

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

^a In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

^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 12

HOUSEHOLD INCOME DISTRIBUTION, NATIONAL TOTALS, 1990–2005 ^a								
(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 ⁵ /Q ¹
Argentina ^d	1990	10.6	14.9	23.6	26.7	34.8	13.5	13.5
	1997	12.4	14.9	22.3	27.1	35.8	16.0	16.4
	1999	12.5	15.4	21.6	26.1	37.0	16.4	16.5
	2002	8.1	13.4	19.3	25.3	42.1	20.0	21.8
	2004	9.4	16.0	22.3	24.5	37.3	15.5	16.6
	2005	10.0	16.7	22.2	25.4	35.7	14.6	15.5
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
	2003	9.9	11.2	18.3	25.7	44.9	27.9	31.8
	2004	9.9	11.7	18.7	25.6	44.1	26.6	29.4
	2005	10.1	11.9	18.5	25.0	44.6	26.5	28.8
Chile	1990	9.4	13.2	20.8	25.4	40.7	18.2	18.4
	1996	12.9	13.1	20.5	26.2	40.2	18.3	18.6
	2000	13.6	13.8	20.8	25.1	40.3	18.7	19.0
	2003	13.6	13.7	20.7	25.5	40.0	18.8	18.4
Colombia ^f	1994	8.4	10.0	21.3	26.9	41.8	26.8	35.2
	1997	7.3	12.5	21.7	25.7	40.1	21.4	24.1
	1999	6.7	12.3	21.6	26.0	40.1	22.3	25.6
	2002	6.9	12.3	22.4	26.5	38.8	24.1	28.5
	2004	6.9	12.1	22.0	26.0	39.9	25.1	29.1
	2005	7.8	12.2	21.4	25.4	41.0	25.2	27.8
Costa Rica	1990	9.5	16.7	27.4	30.2	25.6	10.1	13.1
	1997	10.0	16.5	26.8	29.4	27.3	10.8	13.0
	1999	11.4	15.3	25.7	29.7	29.4	12.6	15.3
	2002	11.7	14.5	25.6	29.7	30.2	13.7	16.9
	2004	10.9	14.3	26.2	30.1	29.5	13.3	16.6
	2005	10.3	15.2	26.2	29.9	28.7	12.7	15.1
Dominican Republic	2000	7.2	11.4	22.2	27.6	38.8	21.1	26.9
	2002	7.2	12.0	22.6	27.0	38.3	19.3	24.9
	2004	6.5	10.2	20.1	28.2	41.5	26.1	28.0
	2005	7.3	10.4	21.4	29.9	38.3	22.7	28.1
Ecuador	1990 ^g	5.5	17.1	25.4	27.0	30.5	11.4	12.3
	1997 ^g	6.0	17.0	24.7	26.4	31.9	11.5	12.2
	1999 ^g	5.6	14.1	22.8	26.5	36.6	17.2	18.4
	2002 ^g	6.7	15.4	24.3	26.0	34.3	15.7	16.8
	2004	6.4	15.0	24.5	27.5	33.0	15.2	16.7
	2005	6.9	14.0	23.8	26.9	35.3	17.0	19.2
El Salvador	1995	6.2	15.4	24.8	26.9	32.9	14.1	16.9
	1997	6.1	15.3	24.5	27.3	33.0	14.8	15.9
	1999	6.6	13.8	25.0	29.1	32.1	15.2	19.6
	2001	6.7	13.4	24.6	28.7	33.3	16.2	20.3
	2004	6.2	15.9	26.0	28.8	29.3	13.3	16.3
Guatemala	1989	6.0	11.8	20.9	26.8	40.6	23.5	27.3
	1998	7.1	14.3	21.6	25.0	39.1	20.4	19.8
	2002	6.8	14.2	22.2	26.8	36.8	18.4	18.7
Honduras	1990	4.3	10.1	19.7	27.0	43.1	27.4	30.7
	1997	4.1	12.6	22.5	27.3	37.7	21.1	23.7
	1999	3.9	11.8	22.9	28.9	36.5	22.3	26.5
	2002	4.3	11.3	21.7	27.6	39.4	23.6	26.3
	2003	4.3	10.6	22.1	28.6	38.8	24.4	28.2

Table 12 (concluded)

HOUSEHOLD INCOME DISTRIBUTION, NATIONAL TOTALS, 1990-2005 ^a								
(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 ⁵ /Q ¹
Mexico	1989	8.6	15.8	22.5	25.1	36.6	17.2	16.9
	1994	8.5	15.3	22.9	26.1	35.6	17.3	17.4
	2000	8.5	14.6	22.5	26.5	36.4	17.9	18.5
	2002	8.2	15.7	23.8	27.3	33.2	15.1	15.5
	2004	8.3	15.8	23.3	26.3	34.6	15.9	16.0
	2005	8.7	15.4	23.2	26.0	35.4	16.7	17.0
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	1991 ^g	9.5	13.3	23.9	28.6	34.2	18.3	22.7
	1997 ^g	12.0	13.3	22.4	27.0	37.3	19.6	21.6
	1999 ^g	11.6	13.6	23.6	28.6	34.2	17.0	19.5
	2002	10.7	11.8	24.4	29.0	34.9	19.8	26.5
	2004	10.2	13.0	24.6	28.0	34.4	17.3	22.6
	2005	9.6	13.2	24.8	28.9	33.1	16.9	22.4
Paraguay	1990 ^h	7.7	18.6	25.7	26.9	28.9	10.2	10.6
	1996 ^g	7.4	16.7	24.6	25.3	33.4	13.0	13.4
	1999	6.2	13.1	23.0	27.8	36.2	19.3	22.6
	2001	6.2	12.9	23.5	26.4	37.3	20.9	25.6
	2004	5.2	14.6	22.9	26.5	36.1	18.6	20.1
	2005	5.5	15.0	23.9	26.5	34.7	16.0	18.2
Peru	1997	8.1	13.4	24.6	28.7	33.3	17.9	20.8
	1999	8.2	13.4	23.1	27.1	36.5	19.5	21.6
	2001	6.2	13.4	24.6	28.5	33.5	17.4	19.3
	2003	6.2	14.9	23.7	27.9	33.6	15.6	16.3
Uruguay ^g	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
	2004	8.2	21.3	24.8	25.4	28.6	10.1	10.6
	2005	8.1	21.6	25.0	25.6	27.8	9.3	10.0
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	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
	2005	7.0	16.1	26.5	28.9	28.5	12.0	14.9
	2005	8.5	14.8	26.1	28.3	30.8	13.7	17.9

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

^a Households arranged in order of per capita income. Table 13 presents disaggregated figures for urban and rural areas.

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

^c D^(1 to 4) means the 40% of households with the lowest income, and D¹⁰ means the 10% of households with the highest income. Similar notation is used for quintiles (Q), where each group represents 20% of households.

^d Greater Buenos Aires.

^e Eight major cities and El Alto.

^f The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for urban and rural areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

^g Total urban areas.

^h Asunción metropolitan area.

Table 13

HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVELS AND DISTRIBUTION, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1990–2005 ^a											
(Percentages)											
Country	Year	Average income ^b	Share of total income of:				Average income ^b	Share of total income of:			
			Poorest 40%	Next poorest 30%	20% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%		Poorest 40%	Next poorest 30%	20% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%
Urban areas						Rural areas					
Argentina	1990 ^c	10.6	14.9	23.6	26.7	34.8
	1997 ^c	12.4	14.9	22.3	27.1	35.8
	1999	11.6	15.9	22.1	25.4	36.7
	2002	7.3	14.3	20.4	24.6	40.7
	2004	8.9	16.3	22.5	25.2	36.0
2005	9.6	16.5	22.7	25.4	35.4	
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
	2003	10.5	11.4	18.4	26.2	44.1	6.3	14.4	24.8	23.7	37.1
	2004	10.5	11.9	18.8	26.0	43.3	6.3	15.2	24.7	23.7	36.4
	2005	10.8	12.0	18.6	25.5	43.9	6.3	15.6	25.6	24.1	34.7
Chile	1990	9.4	13.4	21.2	26.2	39.2	9.7	13.8	20.4	20.6	45.1
	1996	13.5	13.4	20.9	26.4	39.4	9.4	16.8	24.3	23.4	35.6
	2000	14.1	14.0	20.9	25.4	39.7	10.6	16.9	24.5	22.4	36.1
	2003	13.9	13.9	21.0	25.6	39.4	11.1	16.5	22.6	22.2	38.8
Colombia ^e	1994	9.0	11.6	20.4	26.1	41.9	5.7	10.0	23.3	32.2	34.6
	1997	8.4	12.9	21.4	26.1	39.5	5.3	15.4	26.3	28.2	30.1
	1999	7.3	12.6	21.9	26.6	38.8	5.6	13.9	24.7	25.9	35.5
	2002	7.2	11.9	22.2	26.8	39.1	6.4	14.7	25.2	28.0	32.1
	2004	7.4	11.7	21.8	26.4	40.1	5.4	16.3	28.4	27.6	27.7
2005	8.3	12.0	21.1	26.0	40.9	6.2	15.2	26.0	27.2	31.6	
Costa Rica	1990	9.6	17.8	28.7	28.9	24.6	9.3	17.6	28.0	29.9	24.5
	1997	10.5	17.3	27.6	28.4	26.8	9.6	17.3	27.9	28.9	25.9
	1999	11.9	16.2	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
	2004	11.4	15.0	27.0	29.4	28.6	10.1	15.0	27.4	30.0	27.6
	2005	10.7	16.1	26.5	30.1	27.3	9.8	15.9	27.6	29.2	27.3
Dominican Republic	2000	8.2	11.4	22.2	28.0	38.4	5.5	14.0	25.6	27.0	33.5
	2002	8.2	11.6	21.7	28.4	38.4	5.5	15.0	27.5	29.1	28.5
	2004	7.3	9.8	19.5	28.1	42.5	5.0	13.6	23.5	30.3	32.7
	2005	7.9	10.4	21.5	30.0	38.1	6.2	11.6	23.0	28.9	36.5
Ecuador	1990	5.5	17.1	25.4	27.0	30.5
	1997	6.0	17.0	24.7	26.4	31.9
	1999	5.6	14.1	22.8	26.5	36.6
	2002	6.7	15.4	24.3	26.0	34.3
	2004	6.9	15.8	24.7	27.5	32.0	5.3	18.9	27.3	28.1	25.8
2005	7.4	15.1	24.3	26.3	34.3	5.8	16.4	27.4	27.4	28.8	
El Salvador	1995	6.9	17.3	25.1	25.8	31.7	5.1	17.0	29.6	27.3	26.1
	1997	7.1	17.2	24.8	26.9	31.1	4.7	19.4	28.6	27.3	24.7
	1999	7.7	16.3	25.9	28.6	29.2	4.9	15.6	28.8	29.8	25.9
	2001	7.6	15.6	25.1	28.5	30.8	5.2	14.7	27.4	30.3	27.7
2004	6.7	18.0	26.3	28.5	27.3	5.2	16.6	29.7	28.0	25.8	
Guatemala	1989	7.7	12.1	22.6	27.4	37.9	5.0	14.4	24.7	25.7	35.1
	1998	8.2	16.0	22.4	24.7	36.9	6.3	15.7	23.5	23.5	37.3
	2002	7.9	13.9	22.8	26.6	36.7	6.1	17.1	24.7	27.7	30.6
Honduras	1990	5.5	12.2	20.8	28.1	38.9	3.3	13.1	22.1	27.3	37.4
	1997	4.7	14.3	22.8	26.1	36.8	3.6	14.4	24.6	27.5	33.5
	1999	4.6	14.3	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
	2003	5.6	13.8	23.6	26.8	35.8	3.1	14.7	24.3	30.4	30.7

Table 13 (concluded)

HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVELS AND DISTRIBUTION, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1990–2005 ^a											
(Percentages)											
Country	Year	Average income ^b	Share of total income of:				Average income ^b	Share of total income of:			
			Poorest 40%	Next poorest 30%	20% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%		Poorest 40%	Next poorest 30%	20% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%
Urban areas						Rural areas					
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
	2004	8.9	17.5	23.4	26.2	33.0	7.1	18.1	24.5	26.2	31.2
	2005	9.5	17.5	23.1	24.9	34.5	7.1	18.1	24.9	26.6	30.4
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
	2004	11.8	15.5	24.9	27.8	31.9	7.4	14.0	26.6	29.2	30.2
	2005	11.0	15.7	25.0	28.2	31.1	7.0	14.2	26.8	29.9	29.2
Paraguay	1990 ^f	7.7	18.6	25.7	26.9	28.9
	1996	7.4	16.7	24.6	25.3	33.4
	1999	7.1	16.5	24.9	25.8	32.8	5.0	15.1	21.2	24.3	39.4
	2001	7.4	15.9	23.4	27.5	33.1	4.6	14.6	24.9	27.7	32.9
	2004	5.5	16.4	24.2	26.4	33.0	4.8	15.0	22.6	23.5	39.0
	2005	5.9	16.4	23.6	26.4	33.6	4.9	15.6	26.2	26.2	32.1
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
	2003	7.7	17.9	25.2	26.8	30.1	3.4	25.0	29.7	27.5	17.7
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
	2004	8.2	21.3	24.8	25.4	28.6
	2005	8.1	21.6	25.0	25.6	27.8
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	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 conducted in the relevant 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 The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for urban and rural areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

^f Asunción metropolitan area.

Table 14

INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION, ^a NATIONAL TOTALS, 1990–2005							
Country	Year	Percentage of persons with per capita income of less than:		Concentration indices			
		average	50% of average	Gini ^b	Variance of logarithm of income	Theil	Atkinson (ε=1.5)
Argentina ^c	1990	70.6	39.1	0.501	0.982	0.555	0.473
	1997	72.1	43.4	0.530	1.143	0.601	0.514
	1999	72.5	44.2	0.542	1.183	0.681	0.528
	2002	74.0	47.9	0.590	1.603	0.742	0.609
	2004	72.8	42.2	0.537	1.246	0.675	0.542
	2005	72.6	39.9	0.524	1.165	0.605	0.520
Bolivia	1989 ^d	71.9	44.1	0.538	1.528	0.574	0.600
	1997	73.1	47.7	0.595	2.024	0.728	0.674
	1999	70.4	45.5	0.586	2.548	0.658	0.738
	2002	73.6	49.6	0.614	2.510	0.776	0.738
Brazil	1990	75.2	53.9	0.627	1.938	0.816	0.664
	1996	76.3	54.4	0.638	1.962	0.871	0.668
	1999	77.1	54.8	0.640	1.913	0.914	0.663
	2001	76.9	54.4	0.639	1.925	0.914	0.665
	2003	76.2	52.5	0.621	1.802	0.838	0.647
	2004	76.0	51.6	0.612	1.707	0.826	0.632
	2005	76.5	51.4	0.613	1.690	0.840	0.629
Chile	1990	74.6	46.5	0.554	1.258	0.644	0.545
	1996	73.9	46.9	0.553	1.261	0.630	0.544
	2000	75.0	46.4	0.559	1.278	0.666	0.550
	2003	74.8	45.9	0.550	1.198	0.668	0.533
Colombia ^e	1994	73.6	48.9	0.601	2.042	0.794	0.684
	1997	74.2	46.4	0.569	1.399	0.857	0.584
	1999	74.5	46.6	0.572	1.456	0.734	0.603
	2002	74.2	46.2	0.569	1.396	0.524	0.580
	2004	75.2	47.3	0.577	1.410	0.727	0.580
	2005	75.9	48.7	0.584	1.460	0.752	0.591
Costa Rica	1990	65.0	31.6	0.438	0.833	0.328	0.412
	1997	66.6	33.0	0.450	0.860	0.356	0.422
	1999	67.6	36.1	0.473	0.974	0.395	0.457
	2002	68.5	37.1	0.488	1.080	0.440	0.491
	2004	68.2	36.3	0.478	1.030	0.411	0.473
	2005	68.0	35.1	0.470	0.959	0.399	0.453
Dominican Republic	2000	71.6	44.3	0.554	1.250	0.583	0.535
	2002	71.6	43.0	0.544	1.216	0.570	0.529
	2004	73.5	49.2	0.586	1.552	0.762	0.606
	2005	72.0	46.9	0.569	1.536	0.629	0.595
Ecuador	1990 ^f	69.6	33.8	0.461	0.823	0.403	0.422
	1997 ^f	68.9	34.8	0.469	0.832	0.409	0.419
	1999 ^f	72.1	42.0	0.521	1.075	0.567	0.498
	2002 ^f	72.3	39.8	0.513	1.031	0.563	0.487
	2004	71.3	41.5	0.513	1.089	0.519	0.495
	2005	71.8	42.1	0.531	1.190	0.565	0.522
El Salvador	1995	69.7	38.4	0.507	1.192	0.502	0.525
	1997	69.9	40.2	0.510	1.083	0.512	0.492
	1999	68.5	40.6	0.518	1.548	0.496	0.601
	2001	69.1	40.8	0.525	1.559	0.528	0.602
	2004	68.1	37.5	0.493	1.325	0.449	0.552
Guatemala	1989	74.9	47.9	0.582	1.477	0.736	0.590
	1998	75.3	46.6	0.560	1.182	0.760	0.534
	2002	72.8	47.9	0.543	1.142	0.589	0.515
Honduras	1990	75.1	52.3	0.615	1.842	0.817	0.649
	1997	72.5	45.4	0.558	1.388	0.652	0.571
	1999	71.8	46.4	0.564	1.560	0.636	0.603
	2002	72.8	49.6	0.588	1.607	0.719	0.608
	2003	72.3	49.8	0.587	1.662	0.695	0.615

Table 14 (concluded)

INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION, ^a NATIONAL TOTALS, 1990–2005							
Country	Year	Percentage of persons with per capita income of less than:		Concentration indices			
		average	50% of average	Gini ^b	Variance of logarithm of income	Theil	Atkinson (ε=1.5)
Mexico	1989	74.2	43.5	0.536	1.096	0.680	0.509
	1994	73.1	44.7	0.539	1.130	0.606	0.511
	1998	72.8	43.1	0.539	1.142	0.634	0.515
	2000	73.2	44.0	0.542	1.221	0.603	0.530
	2002	71.7	41.2	0.514	1.045	0.521	0.485
	2004	72.6	41.0	0.516	1.045	0.588	0.490
	2005	72.5	41.6	0.528	1.125	0.635	0.513
Nicaragua	1993	71.5	45.9	0.582	1.598	0.671	0.619
	1998	73.1	45.9	0.584	1.800	0.731	0.654
	2001	74.6	46.9	0.579	1.594	0.783	0.619
Panama	1991 ^f	70.3	44.2	0.545	1.312	0.577	0.547
	1997 ^f	71.8	45.6	0.552	1.362	0.632	0.562
	1999 ^f	70.0	41.1	0.513	1.150	0.486	0.506
	2002	70.2	45.5	0.561	1.715	0.592	0.620
	2004	70.7	44.0	0.548	1.562	0.554	0.592
	2005	69.9	43.4	0.545	1.587	0.547	0.598
Paraguay	1990 ^g	69.2	33.4	0.447	0.737	0.365	0.386
	1996 ^f	72.9	37.9	0.493	0.916	0.515	0.453
	1999	72.3	46.3	0.565	1.555	0.668	0.599
	2001	72.9	44.4	0.570	1.705	0.702	0.631
	2004	72.1	44.3	0.548	1.316	0.668	0.551
	2005	71.0	42.1	0.536	1.319	0.614	0.553
	2005	71.0	42.1	0.536	1.319	0.614	0.553
Peru	1997	70.1	41.4	0.532	1.348	0.567	0.554
	1999	71.7	42.7	0.545	1.358	0.599	0.560
	2001	70.3	41.5	0.525	1.219	0.556	0.527
	2003	0.506	1.051	0.503	0.484
	2004	0.505	1.018	0.510	0.478
Uruguay ^f	1990	73.2	36.8	0.492	0.812	0.699	0.441
	1997	66.8	31.3	0.430	0.730	0.336	0.381
	1999	67.1	32.2	0.440	0.764	0.354	0.393
	2002	67.9	34.6	0.455	0.802	0.385	0.412
	2004	68.5	35.8	0.464	0.824	0.412	0.414
	2005	68.2	33.6	0.452	0.798	0.383	0.414
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	68.0	35.5	0.471	0.930	0.416	0.446
	1997	70.8	40.7	0.507	1.223	0.508	0.637
	1999	69.4	38.6	0.498	1.134	0.464	0.507
	2002	68.7	38.8	0.500	1.122	0.456	0.507
	2004	67.5	35.4	0.470	0.935	0.389	0.453
	2005	68.1	36.4	0.490	1.148	0.472	0.510

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

^a Calculated on the basis of income distribution per capita throughout the country. Tables 15 and 16 present disaggregated figures for urban and rural areas.

^b Includes individuals with zero income.

^c Greater Buenos Aires.

^d Eight major cities and El Alto.

^e The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for urban and rural areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

^f Urban total.

^g Asunción metropolitan area.

Table 15

INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION, ^a URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005							
Country	Year	Percentage of persons with per capita income of less than:		Concentration indices			
		average	50% of average	Gini ^b	Variance of logarithm of income	Theil	Atkinson (ε=1.5)
Argentina	1990 ^c	70.6	39.1	0.501	0.982	0.555	0.473
	1997 ^c	72.1	43.4	0.530	1.143	0.601	0.514
	1999	72.1	43.3	0.539	1.194	0.667	0.530
	2002	73.1	47.2	0.578	1.510	0.724	0.593
	2004	72.0	40.9	0.531	1.225	0.633	0.534
	2005	72.4	40.5	0.526	1.190	0.602	0.525
Bolivia	1989 ^d	71.9	44.1	0.538	1.528	0.574	0.600
	1997	72.5	43.0	0.531	1.772	0.573	0.521
	1999	70.4	40.2	0.504	1.131	0.487	0.511
	2002	74.7	46.6	0.554	1.286	0.633	0.549
Brazil	1990	74.7	52.2	0.606	1.690	0.748	0.625
	1996	75.7	53.1	0.620	1.735	0.815	0.634
	1999	76.5	53.8	0.625	1.742	0.865	0.637
	2001	76.4	53.3	0.628	1.777	0.875	0.643
	2003	75.9	51.9	0.612	1.691	0.806	0.629
	2004	75.9	51.0	0.603	1.608	0.797	0.615
	2005	76.1	51.0	0.604	1.586	0.810	0.612
Chile	1990	73.8	45.1	0.542	1.204	0.600	0.531
	1996	73.5	45.7	0.544	1.206	0.604	0.532
	2000	74.7	45.9	0.553	1.246	0.643	0.542
	2003	75.0	45.1	0.547	1.184	0.661	0.529
Colombia ^e	1994	74.6	48.1	0.579	1.491	0.749	0.597
	1997	73.8	46.5	0.577	1.571	0.714	0.545
	1999	74.2	46.1	0.564	1.312	0.707	0.559
	2002	74.0	46.7	0.576	1.418	0.716	0.580
	2004	74.8	48.2	0.582	1.425	0.728	0.581
	2005	75.7	49.3	0.587	1.435	0.749	0.583
Costa Rica	1990	63.6	29.6	0.419	0.727	0.295	0.376
	1997	65.3	32.2	0.429	0.779	0.323	0.394
	1999	66.3	34.5	0.454	0.881	0.356	0.427
	2002	67.3	35.2	0.465	0.916	0.398	0.443
	2004	66.8	34.3	0.462	0.924	0.384	0.443
	2005	67.2	34.8	0.459	0.895	0.379	0.434
Dominican Republic	2000	71.5	43.6	0.550	1.236	0.569	0.532
	2002	71.8	44.4	0.548	1.232	0.569	0.532
	2004	74.1	50.6	0.598	1.652	0.799	0.625
	2005	71.6	47.1	0.568	1.533	0.622	0.593
Ecuador	1990	69.6	33.8	0.461	0.823	0.403	0.422
	1997	68.9	34.8	0.469	0.832	0.409	0.419
	1999	72.1	42.0	0.521	1.075	0.567	0.498
	2002	72.3	39.8	0.513	1.031	0.563	0.487
	2004	70.3	38.8	0.498	0.991	0.485	0.469
	2005	71.1	41.1	0.513	1.070	0.517	0.491
El Salvador	1995	69.5	34.3	0.466	0.836	0.428	0.424
	1997	70.0	34.6	0.467	0.864	0.428	0.430
	1999	68.0	35.7	0.462	1.002	0.388	0.483
	2001	68.6	36.8	0.477	1.090	0.435	0.501
	2004	67.3	34.8	0.455	0.970	0.379	0.462
Guatemala	1989	72.2	45.6	0.558	1.377	0.640	0.566
	1998	74.5	40.3	0.525	0.997	0.653	0.486
	2002	71.8	42.2	0.524	1.106	0.532	0.508
Honduras	1990	73.1	46.6	0.561	1.397	0.661	0.570
	1997	71.8	40.9	0.527	1.142	0.578	0.516
	1999	70.8	41.6	0.518	1.138	0.528	0.509
	2002	72.3	42.3	0.533	1.227	0.580	0.533
	2003	71.0	41.9	0.527	1.256	0.548	0.535

Table 15 (concluded)

INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION, ^a URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005							
Country	Year	Percentage of persons with per capita income of less than:		Concentration indices			
		average	50% of average	Gini ^b	Variance of logarithm of income	Theil	Atkinson (ε=1.5)
Mexico	1989	75.2	42.5	0.530	1.031	0.678	0.495
	1994	73.6	41.6	0.512	0.934	0.544	0.460
	1998	73.2	41.5	0.507	0.901	0.578	0.455
	2000	72.1	38.7	0.493	0.856	0.500	0.436
	2002	71.6	31.2	0.477	0.800	0.444	0.415
	2004	72.8	39.3	0.493	0.848	0.537	0.436
	2005	73.2	39.2	0.497	0.843	0.582	0.440
Nicaragua	1993	71.4	42.6	0.549	1.256	0.595	0.541
	1998	72.3	43.4	0.551	1.271	0.673	0.552
	2001	73.9	44.0	0.560	1.225	0.746	0.546
Panama	1991	70.3	44.2	0.545	1.312	0.577	0.386
	1997	71.8	45.6	0.552	1.362	0.632	0.453
	1999	70.0	41.1	0.513	1.150	0.486	0.506
	2002	70.3	41.1	0.515	1.217	0.488	0.522
	2004	69.6	40.1	0.500	1.105	0.449	0.494
	2005	68.7	40.4	0.500	1.154	0.454	0.508
	Paraguay	1990 ^f	69.2	33.4	0.447	0.737	0.365
1996		72.9	37.9	0.493	0.916	0.515	0.453
1999		70.0	39.1	0.497	0.997	0.490	0.472
2001		72.0	40.2	0.511	1.081	0.549	0.501
2004		70.5	38.9	0.496	0.971	0.518	0.468
2005		71.1	40.8	0.504	1.000	0.545	0.477
Peru		1997	70.4	36.0	0.473	0.863	0.453
	1999	74.0	39.4	0.498	0.954	0.499	0.465
	2001	70.6	35.7	0.477	0.903	0.465	0.448
	2003	0.456	0.790	0.412	0.409
	2004	0.471	0.856	0.444	0.432
Uruguay	1990	73.2	36.8	0.492	0.812	0.699	0.441
	1997	66.8	31.3	0.430	0.730	0.336	0.381
	1999	67.1	32.2	0.440	0.764	0.354	0.393
	2002	67.9	34.6	0.455	0.802	0.385	0.412
	2004	68.5	35.8	0.464	0.824	0.412	0.414
	2005	68.2	33.6	0.452	0.798	0.383	0.414
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	67.7	34.4	0.464	0.903	0.403	0.437

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

^a Based on per capita income distribution in urban areas.

^b Includes individuals with zero income.

^c Greater Buenos Aires.

^d Eight major cities and El Alto.

^e The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

^f Asunción metropolitan area.

Table 16

INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION, ^a RURAL AREAS, 1990–2005							
Country	Year	Percentage of persons with per capita income of less than:		Concentration indices			
		average	50% of average	Gini ^b	Variance of logarithm of income	Theil	Atkinson (ε=1.5)
Bolivia	1997	75.4	53.6	0.637	2.133	0.951	0.692
	1999	71.3	52.9	0.640	2.772	0.809	0.752
	2002	73.4	51.2	0.632	2.662	0.799	0.746
Brazil	1990	72.5	45.5	0.548	1.266	0.627	0.545
	1996	73.1	47.6	0.578	1.424	0.727	0.578
	1999	73.8	47.4	0.577	1.357	0.773	0.569
	2001	73.0	47.2	0.581	1.451	0.790	0.587
	2003	72.1	46.2	0.564	1.401	0.734	0.576
	2004	72.4	45.0	0.552	1.286	0.675	0.550
	2005	71.6	43.8	0.542	1.239	0.658	0.539
Chile	1990	79.0	47.9	0.578	1.269	0.854	0.563
	1996	73.9	36.2	0.492	0.887	0.542	0.452
	2000	74.5	38.7	0.511	0.956	0.669	0.478
	2003	75.5	38.1	0.507	0.909	0.622	0.464
Colombia ^c	1994	69.8	45.5	0.570	2.047	0.621	0.674
	1997	73.8	46.5	0.554	1.571	0.714	0.509
	1999	72.1	39.5	0.525	1.291	0.626	0.582
	2002	70.4	37.0	0.499	1.133	0.524	0.525
	2004	67.3	33.0	0.465	0.982	0.443	0.469
	2005	70.5	35.6	0.495	1.124	0.511	0.512
Costa Rica	1990	63.3	27.9	0.419	0.771	0.301	0.390
	1997	65.7	30.4	0.426	0.757	0.316	0.387
	1999	66.8	33.0	0.457	0.895	0.377	0.434
	2002	67.5	34.6	0.481	1.056	0.436	0.487
	2004	65.7	32.4	0.453	0.936	0.360	0.444
	2005	66.0	32.3	0.444	0.860	0.352	0.422
Dominican Republic	2000	70.2	37.0	0.501	0.969	0.456	0.460
	2002	67.0	34.4	0.473	0.919	0.403	0.443
	2004	67.9	40.1	0.503	1.133	0.460	0.503
	2005	71.1	42.9	0.542	1.369	0.568	0.564
Ecuador	2004	66.0	31.7	0.431	0.755	0.333	0.388
	2005	67.6	34.8	0.469	0.885	0.466	0.439
El Salvador	1995	64.4	29.9	0.442	0.961	0.352	0.457
	1997	66.3	31.0	0.423	0.670	0.343	0.361
	1999	64.8	34.0	0.462	1.302	0.382	0.540
	2001	65.2	35.5	0.477	1.329	0.414	0.549
	2004	64.9	32.4	0.456	1.231	0.385	0.525
Guatemala	1989	72.6	37.6	0.513	1.076	0.593	0.500
	1998	75.0	40.6	0.510	0.882	0.697	0.461
	2002	72.5	36.1	0.470	0.794	0.420	0.416
Honduras	1990	73.9	45.6	0.558	1.326	0.692	0.559
	1997	70.9	38.7	0.504	1.083	0.520	0.498
	1999	69.8	39.8	0.512	1.244	0.516	0.537
	2002	71.8	42.6	0.519	1.072	0.567	0.495
	2003	70.9	40.2	0.508	1.060	0.501	0.486
Mexico	1989	68.8	33.5	0.453	0.769	0.401	0.401
	1994	69.5	34.9	0.451	0.720	0.385	0.384
	1998	70.2	41.5	0.486	0.846	0.467	0.430
	2000	75.3	46.1	0.553	1.125	0.682	0.517
	2002	72.7	39.7	0.498	0.879	0.528	0.444
	2004	69.9	36.7	0.480	0.886	0.518	0.443
	2005	70.9	37.6	0.486	0.932	0.493	0.455
Nicaragua	1993	69.2	41.6	0.536	1.348	0.553	0.573
	1998	68.2	42.4	0.558	1.765	0.598	0.644
	2001	67.6	37.9	0.506	1.367	0.503	0.562
Panama	2002	70.3	41.1	0.515	1.217	0.488	0.623
	2004	69.6	43.7	0.542	1.390	0.580	0.561
	2005	68.5	42.5	0.536	1.432	0.540	0.548
Paraguay	1999	74.1	47.1	0.570	1.389	0.839	0.578
	2001	70.6	42.4	0.548	1.483	0.752	0.595
	2004	75.1	45.0	0.570	1.282	0.878	0.562
	2005	70.3	40.5	0.523	1.258	0.597	0.538
Peru	1997	66.5	33.9	0.451	0.868	0.383	0.424
	1999	65.8	31.1	0.427	0.803	0.320	0.400
	2001	66.9	31.8	0.439	0.745	0.380	0.390
	2003	0.358	0.473	0.222	0.276
	2004	0.398	0.562	0.309	0.323
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	67.0	31.3	0.431	0.724	0.348	0.379

Poverty and income distribution

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 Based on per capita income distribution in rural areas.

^b Includes individuals with zero income.

^c The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for rural areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

Labour market

Table 17

MALE AND FEMALE ECONOMIC ACTIVITY RATES, BY AGE GROUP, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005

Country	Year	Age									
		Male					Female				
		Total	15–24	25–34	35–49	50 and over	Total	15–24	25–34	35–49	50 and over
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	76	62	97	97	55	38	41	53	52	19
	1994	76	65	98	97	54	41	43	59	56	21
	1997	76	61	97	97	59	45	44	61	60	27
	1999	76	58	96	97	62	47	42	66	63	29
	2000	76	57	96	97	62	46	43	63	62	29
	2002	75	52	96	98	63	48	40	66	70	28
	2004	78	61	96	97	65	52	45	71	70	34
2005	78	61	96	97	65	51	41	69	71	35	
(Urban)	1999	74	53	94	97	59	44	36	62	61	27
	2000	74	52	94	96	60	45	36	62	62	28
	2002	72	48	93	96	60	46	35	64	67	27
	2004	75	55	94	96	63	50	39	69	70	33
	2005	75	55	94	96	64	50	37	68	70	34
Bolivia	1989	73	47	90	97	64	47	35	57	61	34
	1994	75	50	92	98	65	51	37	62	68	37
	1997	75	48	92	98	73	51	35	61	68	42
	1999	75	49	93	98	72	54	40	64	71	46
	2000	77	51	92	98	74	54	36	68	74	42
	2002	77	51	93	98	75	57	39	71	75	49
2004	79	58	93	97	76	58	41	68	76	55	
Brazil	1990	82	78	96	95	59	45	48	56	53	21
	1993	83	77	96	95	60	50	51	60	60	27
	1996	80	72	94	94	59	50	50	63	61	26
	1999	80	72	95	93	59	53	51	67	64	28
	2001	79	70	94	93	59	53	52	67	65	29
	2003	79	70	94	93	59	55	53	70	68	30
	2004	79	71	95	93	59	56	55	72	69	30
	2005	80	72	95	93	59	57	57	73	70	32
Chile	1990	72	47	94	95	56	35	29	47	46	20
	1994	75	49	94	96	62	38	32	50	50	23
	1996	74	44	94	96	62	39	29	53	51	23
	1998	74	44	93	97	64	41	30	57	54	26
	2000	73	39	92	96	64	42	28	57	56	26
	2003	73	40	92	96	64	45	31	60	59	29
Colombia ^a	1991	81	62	97	97	69	48	44	63	56	22
	1994	79	58	96	97	65	48	43	65	59	21
	1997	78	55	96	97	65	50	42	68	63	24
	1999	79	59	96	96	64	55	48	73	69	27
	2002	79	61	96	96	65	57	51	76	72	32
	2004	78	59	96	96	66	56	48	74	71	33
2005	78	57	95	96	64	55	46	75	71	32	
Costa Rica	1990	78	62	96	95	61	39	39	53	49	14
	1994	76	59	94	96	57	40	35	54	52	17
	1997	77	60	96	96	58	42	33	61	54	21
	1999	79	61	95	96	65	45	40	58	58	23
	2000	77	59	96	96	60	43	38	59	54	49
	2002	77	57	97	97	61	46	37	63	60	25
	2004	78	59	96	97	62	45	35	61	61	23
2005	78	56	97	98	67	48	39	65	63	27	
Dominican Republic	1992	86	77	96	98	76	53	57	66	57	25
	1995	78	62	95	98	68	44	40	64	57	20
	1997	83	70	96	97	71	49	44	65	61	22
	2000	78	61	93	95	68	51	41	66	70	26
	2002	78	62	95	97	65	53	45	73	71	25
	2003	80	62	96	96	68	51	43	69	66	27
	2004	79	64	95	97	64	56	49	73	72	29
2005	78	62	95	96	61	53	46	71	72	24	
Ecuador	1990	80	56	95	98	78	43	33	54	56	31
	1994	81	59	96	98	76	47	39	58	58	34
	1997	81	58	97	98	75	49	38	61	62	35
	1999	82	64	97	98	76	54	45	65	67	36
	2000	80	59	95	97	74	51	41	63	63	36
	2002	81	60	96	98	74	53	40	65	67	41
	2004	81	59	96	99	76	54	44	68	67	40
	2005	81	60	97	98	76	54	40	68	68	42

Table 17 (concluded)

MALE AND FEMALE ECONOMIC ACTIVITY RATES, BY AGE GROUP, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2005											
Country	Year	Age									
		Male					Female				
		Total	15-24	25-34	35-49	50 and over	Total	15-24	25-34	35-49	50 and over
El Salvador	1990	80	64	95	96	72	51	41	66	66	36
	1995	78	61	95	96	68	49	36	65	69	34
	1997	75	54	95	97	66	48	33	65	68	34
	1999	75	58	93	94	63	52	38	68	69	37
	2000	75	56	93	96	66	51	35	68	70	37
	2001	75	57	93	95	64	51	35	68	70	36
	2002	73	52	92	94	61	51	35	67	70	35
	2004	74	55	92	95	61	51	36	67	69	35
Guatemala	1989	84	69	97	97	78	43	42	50	49	29
	1998	82	66	95	97	77	54	47	60	68	44
	2002	85	75	95	97	78	58	54	65	72	41
Honduras	1990	81	66	95	97	73	43	35	54	57	30
	1994	80	64	93	96	74	43	35	54	51	31
	1997	83	70	96	98	74	51	43	63	63	35
	1999	82	67	97	96	78	54	45	64	69	37
	2002	79	63	94	96	74	47	38	58	62	36
	2003	78	63	93	94	73	50	40	63	66	37
Mexico	1989	77	58	96	97	68	33	31	45	39	18
	1994	81	63	97	97	69	38	34	49	46	21
	1996	80	60	97	97	68	41	36	50	50	24
	1998	81	61	96	98	71	43	39	51	51	28
	2000	82	62	97	97	71	42	36	52	53	26
	2002	79	59	95	96	70	45	36	55	57	29
	2004	80	61	97	97	69	47	37	58	60	30
	2005	80	60	96	97	69	47	36	59	60	33
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
	2004	78	60	96	97	62	51	39	68	70	29
	2005	78	58	97	97	61	51	39	67	70	30
	Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	84	69	97	99	75	50	51	63	58
1994		82	69	99	98	66	58	58	74	76	31
1996		86	76	97	97	75	59	54	69	71	40
1999		83	68	97	95	73	54	46	65	66	39
2001		81	67	95	96	69	57	52	76	68	38
2004		83	69	96	97	74	59	51	74	72	43
2005		81	62	96	97	69	60	51	73	72	48
(Urbano)		1994	86	75	98	98	71	53	53	62	62
	1996	86	78	98	97	73	58	54	65	69	40
	1999	83	64	97	95	76	55	47	66	67	42
	2001	81	68	95	96	70	57	51	72	67	40
	2004	83	66	96	98	72	59	50	75	73	42
	2005	81	65	96	97	70	59	50	72	71	46
Peru	1997	83	66	96	98	77	62	54	74	76	45
	1999	73	53	87	91	68	55	49	66	66	39
	2001	74	56	88	92	66	54	46	67	69	38
	2003	74	56	88	93	66	54	45	62	72	34
Uruguay	1990	75	68	98	97	54	44	47	69	64	21
	1994	75	72	97	97	52	47	52	74	70	23
	1997	73	71	96	97	49	47	51	74	71	23
	1999	73	67	96	97	50	50	50	75	74	26
	2000	74	68	96	98	50	50	52	75	75	26
	2002	72	63	96	96	51	50	47	76	76	28
	2004	71	61	96	97	51	49	44	75	75	29
	2005	71	60	95	96	50	50	46	76	77	29
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^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
	2004	82	63	96	97	76	54	39	69	71	37
	2005	81	60	96	97	74	52	35	66	69	37

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

^a In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for rural areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

^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 18

MALE AND FEMALE ECONOMIC ACTIVITY RATES BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005													
Country	Year	Years of schooling											
		Male						Female					
		Total	0–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	13 or more	Total	0–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	13 or more
Argentina ^a (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	76	74	86	84	38	31	50	66
	1994	76	74	85	83	41	33	53	70
	1997	76	63	68	73	77	88	45	27	29	35	48	74
	1999	76	60	73	73	79	86	47	28	32	35	50	76
	2000	76	56	63	74	79	87	46	27	32	36	51	72
	2002	75	61	70	73	74	86	48	32	32	36	50	74
	2004	78	65	72	75	81	85	52	30	37	41	53	77
2005	78	61	74	74	80	88	51	30	38	38	51	77	
(Urban)	1999	74	58	71	72	76	80	44	25	30	34	47	70
2000	70	57	71	70	72	74	42	24	31	34	44	63	
2002	72	60	69	71	73	79	46	27	33	36	48	68	
2004	75	62	69	74	77	81	50	29	35	41	51	71	
2005	75	59	71	72	77	82	50	28	37	38	50	71	
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
	2003	79	82	89	73	78	76	58	62	62	50	53	66
Brazil	1990	82	76	84	83	88	91	45	33	41	45	61	77
	1993	83	77	84	83	88	90	50	38	47	50	65	79
	1996	80	73	80	80	86	89	50	36	46	50	64	80
	1999	80	72	80	79	86	88	53	37	47	52	67	79
	2001	79	71	79	78	86	88	53	36	47	51	67	80
	2003	79	70	78	77	86	88	55	36	48	52	68	80
	2004	79	69	78	77	87	88	56	36	48	53	69	80
2005	80	68	78	78	87	88	57	36	49	54	71	81	
Chile	1990	72	59	74	66	74	80	35	20	28	26	35	62
	1994	75	59	74	67	79	80	38	21	28	29	40	58
	1996	74	61	74	67	78	79	39	20	26	31	41	62
	1998	74	60	72	66	78	81	41	23	29	31	43	64
	2000	73	57	70	65	76	80	42	20	28	32	44	64
	2003	73	55	66	64	78	80	45	21	29	33	47	66
	Colombia ^b	1991	81	80	85	76	81	83	48	37	42	42	56
1994		79	75	84	71	80	86	48	35	43	39	56	76
1997		78	73	82	69	79	84	50	34	43	42	57	76
1999		79	74	83	70	79	85	55	38	49	48	61	78
2002		79	73	82	72	84	80	57	40	51	50	65	74
2004		78	73	81	69	84	79	56	38	49	48	62	73
2005		78	70	80	69	83	79	56	36	48	47	62	73
Costa Rica	1990	78	66	84	73	77	82	39	21	33	35	47	62
	1994	76	62	83	70	77	81	40	22	33	34	46	64
	1997	77	59	82	72	77	83	42	19	37	35	44	68
	1999	79	61	84	75	80	84	45	28	39	38	49	67
	2000	77	58	83	73	76	85	43	20	37	36	49	68
	2002	77	58	82	70	75	86	46	23	40	40	49	70
	2004	78	58	82	70	81	85	45	20	35	39	50	69
2005	78	60	84	71	78	86	48	24	42	41	49	70	
Dominican Republic	1992	86	87	91	85	85	88	53	38	43	48	61	80
	1995	78	74	81	76	74	86	44	28	37	39	47	72
	1997	83	77	84	84	82	90	49	34	41	42	56	80
	2000	78	70	81	77	77	90	51	30	44	46	55	78
	2002	78	74	80	77	77	87	53	32	45	48	57	79
	2003	80	74	80	77	80	89	51	33	41	45	55	79
	2004	79	70	80	77	82	87	46	37	47	53	58	79
2005	78	69	78	78	78	86	53	32	45	49	57	75	
Ecuador	1990	80	82	90	69	73	81	43	39	39	34	44	65
	1994	81	79	90	70	76	84	47	41	45	37	47	66
	1997	81	81	88	71	76	86	49	43	45	37	46	70
	1999	82	81	89	74	78	86	54	45	50	44	53	72
	2000	80	74	87	75	73	84	51	43	46	43	49	70
	2002	81	76	87	75	76	85	53	45	52	46	51	67
	2004	81	73	89	74	77	85	54	41	51	47	51	73
2005	81	74	87	77	77	86	54	41	50	48	50	74	
El Salvador	1990	80	80	86	75	78	80	51	45	56	45	56	68
	1995	78	77	84	71	77	79	49	43	52	43	53	67
	1997	75	76	80	71	74	76	48	44	49	40	53	65
	1999	75	72	80	73	75	78	52	43	53	46	57	69
	2000	75	72	78	71	77	78	51	46	52	44	55	65
	2001	75	72	80	70	77	78	51	43	51	46	56	65
	2002	73	68	76	68	75	77	51	43	50	44	56	66
2004	74	69	78	71	77	76	51	41	50	44	59	68	
Guatemala	1989	84	90	89	65	81	87	43	38	41	37	57	77
	1998	82	85	88	68	81	82	54	53	54	45	58	74
	2002	85	86	93	78	80	87	58	54	57	56	62	75

Table 18 (concluded)

MALE AND FEMALE ECONOMIC ACTIVITY RATES BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2005													
Country	Year	Years of schooling											
		Male						Female					
		Total	0-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	13 or more	Total	0-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	13 or more
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
	2004	80	72	84	83	76	83	47	34	40	45	49	65
	2005	80	69	85	82	76	83	47	34	42	45	48	65
	Nicaragua	1993	71	70	74	66	70	83	44	39	43	40	51
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
	2004	78	60	77	76	78	86	51	21	37	42	50	74
	2005	78	65	76	71	80	85	51	24	38	42	51	73
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	84	75	88	82	83	87	50	29	53	45	50	71
	1994	82	64	83	78	82	89	58	39	57	51	57	74
	1996	86	76	91	82	86	91	59	43	57	53	63	81
	1999	83	73	88	79	81	91	54	40	51	49	57	79
	2001	81	69	83	80	79	88	57	39	56	51	58	79
	2004	83	74	86	81	80	88	59	44	57	57	58	75
2005	81	69	86	75	82	87	60	45	61	48	61	78	
(Urban)	1994	86	76	92	83	84	91	53	38	53	47	58	78
	1996	86	77	92	82	87	92	58	44	57	53	63	81
	1999	83	70	87	80	81	91	55	43	49	50	57	78
	2001	81	72	86	80	79	87	57	41	58	50	57	79
	2004	83	76	88	80	81	89	59	44	59	56	58	77
	2005	81	71	86	75	81	89	59	45	57	49	60	80
Peru	1997	83	77	82	71	85	92	62	58	61	51	62	77
	1999	73	70	71	65	78	83	55	54	58	51	53	70
	2001	74	72	78	69	79	82	54	50	57	50	55	65
	2003	74	68	77	71	80	81	54	55	53	51	56	67
Uruguay	1990	75	50	74	79	84	83	44	18	36	48	57	72
	1994	75	41	74	84	82	83	47	17	36	56	61	74
	1997	73	40	70	82	80	84	47	16	35	57	59	71
	1999	73	39	69	83	78	83	50	17	38	57	59	74
	2000	74	39	71	82	77	80	50	18	37	58	59	73
	2002	72	38	67	77	78	83	50	15	36	51	61	74
	2004	71	34	66	75	78	83	49	14	36	51	58	72
	2005	71	33	64	77	76	83	50	13	35	54	59	74
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^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
	2004	82	80	88	80	80	82	54	34	50	50	58	74
2005	81	78	87	79	79	80	52	33	47	47	54	70	

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

- ^a For 1990 and 1994 the following categories of schooling were considered: complete primary but incomplete secondary education; complete secondary education and higher education.
- ^b In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for rural areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.
- ^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 19

BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own-account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector					Total ^f	Non-professional non-technical
					Total ^a	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons ^b	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	5.4	69.0	...	69.0	6.9	44.8	11.6	5.7	25.5	22.9
	1994	4.8	70.2	...	70.2	17.1	34.9	13.4	4.8	25.0	19.7
	1997	5.3	73.2	...	73.2	17.8	35.8	14.5	5.1	21.5	16.7
	1999	4.6	73.2	11.6	61.6	10.7	32.1	13.6	5.2	21.8	17.3
	2000	4.7	73.4	11.8	61.6	10.5	31.3	14.6	5.2	22.0	17.0
	2002	4.2	73.5	17.6	55.9	12.4	22.9	15.0	5.6	22.3	17.5
	2004	3.8	74.7	15.6	59.1	9.5	29.5	14.0	6.1	21.5	16.4
	2005	3.8	75.5	13.2	62.3	11.6	30.5	13.1	7.1	20.8	15.8
(Urban)	1999	4.4	72.7	15.6	57.1	9.1	28.5	13.7	5.8	23.0	18.6
	2000	4.6	72.0	15.9	56.1	8.9	27.3	14.1	5.8	23.4	19.0
	2002	4.0	73.1	21.7	51.4	10.3	21.1	14.0	6.0	23.0	18.4
	2004	4.1	74.2	19.3	54.9	8.6	25.8	14.0	6.5	21.8	17.2
	2005	4.1	74.7	16.8	57.9	10.0	27.5	13.2	7.2	21.1	16.7
Bolivia	1989	2.2	53.9	17.9	36.0	4.3	16.3	9.6	5.8	43.8	41.0
	1994	7.6	54.1	12.8	41.3	6.8	15.5	13.8	5.2	38.4	36.8
	1997	7.0	46.1	10.5	35.6	6.7	14.3	11.0	3.6	46.8	44.9
	1999	4.2	47.6	10.3	37.3	7.3	15.1	11.8	3.1	48.2	45.9
	2000	3.0	48.2	10.7	37.5	5.9	17.2	10.2	4.2	48.8	46.4
	2002	4.3	47.6	10.4	37.2	4.6	15.5	13.2	3.9	48.1	45.7
	2004	4.9	49.2	8.7	40.5	4.7	14.5	16.7	4.6	45.8	44.1
Brazil ^d	1990	5.2	72.0	...	72.0	14.3	34.2	17.3	6.2	22.8	21.5
	1993	4.1	67.2	14.4	52.8	4.6	31.5 ^e	8.5	8.2	27.8	26.4
	1996	4.2	68.5	13.7	54.8	4.8	31.7 ^e	9.9	8.4	27.3	25.7
	1999	4.7	66.6	13.0	53.6	11.0	25.7	8.4	8.5	28.6	26.5
	2001	4.6	68.8	12.7	56.1	11.6	26.8	8.9	8.8	26.6	24.4
	2003	4.7	68.6	12.6	56.0	6.7	31.0	9.8	8.5	26.7	23.6
	2004	4.6	69.9	12.5	57.4	6.7	32.6	9.6	8.5	25.5	22.5
	2005	4.7	69.6	12.4	57.2	6.9	32.4	9.4	8.5	25.7	22.6
Chile ^f	1990	2.5	75.0	...	75.0	12.9	45.7	9.4	7.0	22.5	20.6
	1994	3.3	75.0	...	75.0	15.4	44.9	8.6	6.1	21.8	17.4
	1996	3.9	76.4	10.9	65.5	11.6	38.7	9.1	6.1	19.7	16.1
	1998	4.2	76.0	...	76.0	17.0	43.4	9.7	5.9	19.8	15.2
	2000	4.4	75.7	13.1	62.6	11.2	37.5	7.7	6.2	19.9	14.8
	2003	4.1	75.5	11.4	64.1	12.2	38.3	7.1	6.5	20.4	14.9
Colombia ^g	1991	4.2	66.2	11.6	54.6	4.9	44.1	...	5.6	29.6	27.3
	1994	4.8	68.2	8.6	59.6	6.0	48.3	...	5.3	27.1	25.0
	1997	4.4	62.2	9.9	52.3	6.4	41.4	...	4.5	33.4	30.7
	1999	4.3	57.4	8.7	48.7	5.7	37.8	...	5.2	38.3	35.7
	2002	5.1	53.6	7.6	46.0	4.3	35.8	...	5.9	41.4	38.5
	2004	5.5	52.4	7.6	44.8	4.4	35.2	...	5.2	42.2	39.4
	2005	5.3	54.2	7.5	46.7	4.4	37.2	...	5.1	40.4	37.5
Costa Rica	1990	5.5	74.8	25.0	49.7	6.1	29.5	9.7	4.4	19.7	17.6
	1994	6.6	75.3	21.8	53.5	7.5	31.0	11.2	3.8	18.2	16.5
	1997	7.7	72.4	20.5	51.9	7.3	29.9	11.2	3.5	19.8	17.7
	1999	8.0	72.7	17.2	55.5	8.9	29.7	11.8	5.1	19.2	17.2
	2000	5.7	74.6	18.7	55.9	8.4	31.2	11.8	4.5	19.8	17.5
	2002	8.1	71.3	17.3	54.0	11.9	27.2	10.9	4.0	20.6	17.8
	2004	8.3	70.5	17.0	53.5	11.6	28.6	9.9	3.4	21.2	18.1
	2005	7.3	73.6	17.2	56.4	11.9	28.2	11.4	4.9	19.1	16.1

Table 19 (continued)

BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2005 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own-account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector					Total ^c	Non-professional non-technical
					Total ^a	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons ^b	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Dominican Republic	1992	2.8	61.9	14.3	47.6	8.7	35.7	...	3.2	35.3	32.8
	1995	4.2	62.8	13.1	49.7	9.0	36.9	...	3.8	33.2	30.6
	1997	3.7	62.5	11.9	50.6	6.7	31.1	8.4	4.4	33.9	31.4
	2000	2.9	64.2	13.8	50.4	7.5	31.0	7.8	4.1	32.9	30.7
	2002	3.9	61.3	13.8	47.5	8.0	28.8	6.4	4.3	34.8	32.7
	2003	3.9	60.8	13.7	47.1	8.3	28.1	6.6	4.1	35.2	32.7
	2004	5.5	61.5	11.9	49.6	8.0	29.2	7.1	5.3	32.9	30.6
2005	4.9	58.9	13.1	45.8	7.7	26.9	6.4	4.8	36.3	34.1	
Ecuador	1990	5.0	58.9	17.5	41.4	4.5	21.1	11.3	4.5	36.1	34.5
	1994	7.9	58.0	13.7	44.3	5.6	21.8	12.2	4.7	34.1	32.1
	1997	7.8	59.1	13.8	45.3	6.3	23.0	11.0	5.0	33.1	31.1
	1999	8.8	59.0	10.7	48.3	7.0	22.5	13.4	5.4	32.1	31.5
	2000	4.6	59.4	11.0	48.4	6.0	23.9	13.8	5.4	35.9	33.8
	2002	6.9	58.3	11.5	46.8	6.4	22.6	13.3	4.5	34.8	32.9
	2004	6.5	57.7	10.6	47.1	7.4	21.5	14.0	4.2	35.8	34.2
2005	6.4	60.1	10.0	50.1	7.6	22.2	15.1	5.2	33.6	31.6	
El Salvador ^h	1990	3.4	62.9	13.8	49.1	3.4	26.3	13.3	6.1	33.7	33.3
	1995	6.2	61.8	12.5	49.3	7.2	27.2	10.5	4.4	32.1	31.1
	1997	5.7	61.7	13.3	48.4	7.8	25.0	11.2	4.4	32.6	31.5
	1999	4.6	65.2	12.3	52.9	9.1	25.7	13.8	4.3	30.3	29.2
	2001	5.0	62.1	11.3	50.8	7.5	25.7	13.4	4.2	32.8	31.6
	2002	5.0	60.8	11.2	49.6	8.9	24.5	12.5	3.7	34.1	33.0
	2004	4.9	61.2	10.6	50.6	7.7	25.8	13.2	3.9	33.8	32.5
Guatemala	1989	2.8	64.2	14.4	49.8	6.2	22.8	13.8	7.0	33.0	30.9
	1998	4.7	59.0	8.2	50.8	7.3	19.5	20.1	3.9	36.3	34.5
	2002	6.8	57.1	6.9	50.2	8.4	24.7	13.1	4.0	36.1	34.5
Honduras	1990	1.5	65.5	14.4	51.1	4.9	26.3	13.2	6.7	33.0	31.7
	1994	4.2	65.0	11.3	53.7	6.8	30.5	11.0	5.4	30.8	29.5
	1997	6.3	60.4	10.1	50.3	6.5	27.7	11.0	5.1	33.4	32.3
	1999	6.2	60.2	9.7	50.5	7.5	27.0	11.2	4.8	33.6	33.1
	2002	4.3	58.7	9.7	49.0	7.2	24.9	12.9	4.0	36.8	34.9
	2003	5.1	56.9	9.6	47.3	5.9	23.9	13.4	4.1	38.0	36.8
Mexico ⁱ	1989	3.3	76.4	...	76.4	9.0	64.7	...	2.7	20.3	18.9
	1994	3.7	74.5	16.1	58.4	6.6	48.1	...	3.7	21.7	20.4
	1996	4.5	73.5	15.1	58.4	7.1	33.1	14.6	3.6	22.1	20.5
	1998	4.8	72.9	14.2	58.7	6.6	33.1	14.9	4.1	22.4	20.5
	2000	4.5	74.2	13.6	60.6	8.1	34.6	14.9	3.0	21.3	19.6
	2002	4.3	73.1	13.2	59.9	6.3	32.0	17.0	4.6	22.7	20.9
	2004	3.2	75.7	...	75.7	13.6	39.7	17.5	4.9	21.1	19.0
	2005	3.6	75.4	...	75.4	13.7	41.7	15.5	4.5	21.0	18.8
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
	2004	3.4	73.7	19.6	54.1	6.1	32.9	8.2	6.9	22.9	20.9
	2005	3.6	73.2	18.3	54.9	6.8	32.6	8.7	6.8	23.2	21.5

Table 19 (concluded)

BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own-account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector					Total ^f	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		
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	8.9	68.4	11.9	56.5	5.5	24.9	15.6	10.5	22.7	21.2
	1994	9.4	67.0	11.6	55.4	6.3	24.3	13.3	11.5	23.6	23.1
	1996	7.0	62.3	11.3	51.0	5.0	22.9	13.8	9.3	30.7	28.6
	1999	6.4	67.7	12.7	55.0	6.9	25.4	13.6	9.1	25.8	23.2
	2001	7.3	65.8	11.5	54.3	7.8	23.9	11.3	11.3	35.4	24.4
	2004	5.3	61.3	11.4	49.9	6.1	18.9	13.7	11.2	33.4	31.2
	2005	6.9	63.9	13.4	50.5	5.9	20.6	13.3	10.7	29.3	25.9
(Urban)	1994	9.2	62.0	10.5	51.5	4.5	21.5	15.0	10.5	28.9	28.6
	1996	6.8	57.9	10.0	47.9	3.8	20.4	14.4	9.3	35.3	33.7
	1999	6.6	62.1	11.8	50.3	5.1	21.1	14.9	9.2	31.2	29.1
	2001	7.6	59.9	11.1	48.8	5.5	19.6	13.3	10.4	32.5	30.1
	2004	5.3	57.9	11.0	46.9	4.8	16.6	15.0	10.5	36.7	34.6
	2005	6.0	61.9	12.7	49.2	4.9	18.0	15.2	11.1	32.0	29.4
Peru	1997	5.8	53.7	11.3	42.4	7.4	18.7	11.9	4.4	40.5	38.2
	1999	5.6	52.9	11.0	41.9	7.0	16.1	13.0	5.8	41.5	38.1
	2001	4.8	53.0	12.0	41.0	6.5	15.9	13.4	5.2	42.1	39.6
	2003	4.6	51.1	10.7	40.4	6.6	15.8	12.4	5.6	44.4	42.0
Uruguay	1990	4.6	74.2	21.8	52.4	5.1	30.1	10.3	6.9	21.3	19.0
	1994	4.8	72.3	18.7	53.6	5.4	31.8	9.4	7.0	22.9	20.1
	1997	4.3	72.2	17.7	54.5	5.9	30.5	11.0	7.1	23.6	20.8
	1999	4.0	72.4	16.2	56.2	6.5	31.8	10.4	7.5	23.6	20.6
	2000	3.7	73.3	17.2	56.1	6.3	29.6	11.1	9.1	23.2	19.4
	2002	3.7	70.5	17.3	53.2	5.9	26.4	11.0	9.9	25.8	21.8
	2004	3.5	70.6	17.0	53.6	6.2	26.6	11.4	9.4	25.9	21.8
	2005	3.9	71.7	16.3	55.4	6.2	28.3	13.7	7.2	24.4	20.3
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^j	1990	7.5	70.0	21.4	48.6	5.8	30.0	6.5	6.3	22.5	21.4
	1994	6.1	64.5	18.1	46.4	6.1	27.1	9.2	4.0	29.3	27.4
	1997	5.0	62.8	16.8	46.0	5.5	25.4	10.8	4.3	32.3	30.3
	1999	5.1	57.9	14.9	43.0	4.9	24.0	12.1	2.0	36.9	35.3
	2000	5.0	56.3	14.6	41.7	4.6	23.8	11.2	2.1	38.6	37.1
	2002	5.4	54.6	13.8	40.8	3.9	23.2	11.1	2.6	39.9	38.2
	2004	4.7	55.4	15.4	40.0	4.7	22.5	10.3	2.5	39.8	38.0
	2005	4.8	57.4	15.8	41.6	6.1	23.4	10.2	1.9	37.7	35.3

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

^a For Argentina (except 1999 and 2000), Brazil (except 1993, 1996 y 1999), Chile (except 1996 and 2000), Mexico (except 1989 and 2004) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public-sector wage or salary earners.

^b For Colombia, Dominican Republic (1992, 1995 and 1998) and Mexico (1989 y 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 five persons are included in the figures for establishments employing more than five persons. For Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama (up to 2002) and Uruguay (1990), establishments employing up to four persons are taken into account.

^c Includes professional and technical workers.

^d Brazil's national household survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments, except in 1993, 1996 and 1999. Therefore the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing more than five persons includes wage earners who have an employment contract ("carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to five 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. The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

^h The figures for 1990 are not strictly comparable with those for 1997, owing to changes made in the classification of professional and technical workers.

ⁱ Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

^j The sample design 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 19.1

BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own-account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector					Total ^f	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
	2004	5.0	71.9	11.5	60.4	8.7	34.9	16.7	0.1	23.2	18.4
	2005	4.9	72.9	9.8	63.1	10.9	35.0	16.3	0.9	22.3	17.8
(Urban)	1999	5.8	70.1	12.3	57.8	8.2	33.6	15.8	0.2	24.1	19.7
	2000	5.8	69.1	12.5	56.6	8.6	31.7	16.1	0.2	25.1	20.6
	2002	5.2	67.0	15.5	51.5	9.8	25.0	16.6	0.1	28.0	23.2
	2004	5.4	70.8	14.3	56.5	8.1	31.0	17.2	0.2	23.7	19.3
	2005	5.4	71.5	12.8	58.7	9.5	32.1	16.4	0.7	23.2	19.0
Bolivia	1989	3.2	60.4	20.0	40.4	4.8	22.1	12.9	0.6	36.4	32.8
	1994	10.7	62.0	13.9	48.1	7.8	21.5	18.3	0.5	27.4	25.4
	1997	10.1	52.0	10.0	42.0	7.8	19.6	14.1	0.5	37.9	35.5
	1999	5.8	55.5	10.3	45.2	9.1	20.2	15.6	0.3	38.7	35.5
	2000	4.1	54.2	11.2	43.0	6.7	21.8	14.3	0.2	41.7	38.7
	2002	6.1	54.8	10.2	44.6	5.5	21.8	17.1	0.2	39.1	36.3
	2004	7.0	57.3	8.1	49.2	5.6	20.0	23.4	0.2	35.6	33.5
Brazil ^d	1990	6.9	71.0	...	71.0	10.4	39.1	21.1	0.4	22.1	20.9
	1993	5.6	66.5	11.8	54.7	4.5	39.3 ^e	10.1	0.8	27.9	26.7
	1996	5.4	65.8	10.9	54.9	4.4	38.3 ^e	11.4	0.8	28.7	27.2
	1999	6.2	63.4	10.2	53.2	9.1	32.8	10.5	0.8	30.4	28.5
	2001	5.9	65.8	9.9	55.9	9.6	34.4	11.1	0.8	28.3	26.4
	2003	6.0	65.8	9.9	55.9	6.4	37.5	11.2	0.8	28.3	25.0
	2004	5.8	67.0	9.9	57.1	6.6	38.8	10.9	0.8	27.2	24.0
	2005	5.9	67.1	9.6	57.5	6.9	39.1	10.7	0.8	27.0	23.8
Chile ^f	1990	3.1	73.0	...	73.0	9.9	52.9	10.0	0.2	23.9	22.0
	1994	3.9	73.7	...	73.7	13.4	51.1	9.1	0.1	22.5	18.3
	1996	4.5	75.0	9.6	65.4	11.4	44.1	9.7	0.2	20.5	17.0
	1998	5.0	74.2	...	74.2	14.9	49.5	9.7	0.1	20.7	16.4
	2000	5.5	74.1	11.8	62.3	11.0	43.3	7.9	0.1	20.5	15.8
	2003	4.8	72.6	8.3	64.3	11.8	44.7	7.6	0.2	22.6	17.8
Colombia ^g	1991	5.6	63.1	10.8	52.3	4.4	47.6	...	0.3	31.3	28.5
	1994	6.3	65.3	8.0	57.3	5.2	51.9	...	0.2	28.4	26.1
	1997	5.6	58.8	8.7	50.1	5.9	44.0	...	0.2	35.6	32.5
	1999	5.4	54.4	7.9	46.5	5.1	40.9	...	0.5	40.2	37.4
	2002	6.9	50.6	6.5	44.1	3.8	39.9	...	0.4	42.4	39.3
	2004	7.2	49.6	6.6	43.0	4.0	38.6	...	0.4	43.2	40.2
	2005	7.0	51.6	6.7	44.9	4.0	40.6	...	0.3	41.3	38.1
Costa Rica	1990	7.2	72.1	23.0	49.1	7.0	31.6	10.3	0.2	20.6	18.1
	1994	8.1	73.2	20.1	53.1	7.7	33.5	11.6	0.3	18.7	16.7
	1997	9.9	70.7	16.5	54.2	7.7	33.9	12.4	0.2	19.4	17.1
	1999	10.2	71.2	14.6	56.6	9.6	33.3	13.3	0.4	18.5	16.7
	2000	7.1	71.8	15.7	56.1	8.7	34.7	12.4	0.3	21.0	18.5
	2002	10.3	70.4	13.6	56.8	13.6	31.5	11.4	0.3	19.4	16.1
	2004	10.7	69.5	13.2	56.3	12.4	33.1	10.5	0.3	19.8	16.6
	2005	9.2	72.4	13.8	58.6	12.7	32.9	12.6	0.4	18.3	15.0

Table 19.1 (continued)

BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own-account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector					Total ^c	Non-professional non-technical
					Total ^a	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons ^b	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Dominican Republic	1992	3.9	57.1	13.8	43.3	6.9	36.2	...	0.2	39.0	36.1
	1995	5.3	56.7	11.0	45.7	8.0	37.5	...	0.2	37.9	35.2
	1997	4.9	58.1	11.4	46.7	5.6	31.3	9.4	0.4	37.0	34.5
	2000	3.5	58.6	11.4	47.2	6.3	32.6	7.7	0.6	38.0	35.6
	2002	4.8	55.2	12.5	42.7	6.7	29.1	6.1	0.8	39.9	37.8
	2003	5.1	53.8	11.1	42.7	6.7	29.5	6.1	0.4	41.1	38.3
	2004	6.6	54.9	9.9	45.0	6.2	30.6	7.1	1.1	38.5	36.0
	2005	5.9	53.0	10.7	42.3	6.4	28.2	6.8	0.9	41.1	38.9
Ecuador	1990	6.3	60.3	17.4	42.9	4.0	24.5	13.8	0.6	33.5	31.7
	1994	9.7	59.6	13.0	46.6	5.3	26.0	15.0	0.3	30.7	28.5
	1997	9.8	59.6	12.8	46.8	5.7	27.3	13.1	0.7	30.6	28.3
	1999	10.2	60.7	10.4	50.3	5.8	27.3	16.6	0.6	28.2	27.7
	2000	5.9	60.5	9.8	50.7	5.4	27.8	16.8	0.7	33.5	31.1
	2002	8.4	60.5	10.6	49.9	5.6	27.6	16.0	0.7	31.2	28.9
	2004	8.3	61.1	9.9	51.2	6.3	26.7	17.7	0.5	30.7	28.9
	2005	7.7	62.2	9.3	52.9	6.5	26.9	18.6	0.9	30.1	27.8
El Salvador ^h	1990	4.8	71.4	15.5	55.9	4.2	33.1	18.2	0.4	23.8	23.2
	1995	8.6	68.7	13.0	55.7	8.3	32.6	14.3	0.5	22.7	21.3
	1997	7.6	68.1	14.1	54.0	8.8	30.3	14.6	0.3	24.4	22.9
	1999	6.2	72.4	12.9	59.5	10.3	30.0	18.6	0.6	21.5	20.0
	2000	8.0	68.4	12.9	55.5	10.0	28.3	16.8	0.4	23.6	22.0
	2001	6.4	69.5	11.2	58.3	8.7	30.7	18.4	0.5	24.0	22.1
	2002	7.0	67.5	11.3	56.2	10.2	28.6	16.9	0.5	25.5	23.9
	2004	6.5	68.6	10.9	57.7	8.6	31.0	17.6	0.5	24.9	23.1
Guatemala	1989	3.6	66.1	15.0	51.1	6.2	27.3	17.4	0.2	30.3	28.6
	1998	6.2	64.4	8.4	56.0	7.5	23.8	24.4	0.3	29.5	27.2
	2002	9.4	61.1	7.0	54.1	8.1	29.6	16.3	0.1	29.5	27.6
Honduras	1990	1.9	69.8	13.6	56.2	5.4	33.0	17.4	0.4	28.3	26.8
	1994	5.7	65.9	10.3	55.6	6.9	34.5	14.2	0.0	28.4	26.9
	1997	8.8	62.5	8.3	54.2	6.1	31.5	15.8	0.8	28.9	27.8
	1999	8.4	63.3	8.0	55.3	6.6	31.9	16.2	0.6	28.4	28.0
	2002	5.4	60.1	7.7	52.4	7.2	27.6	17.2	0.4	34.6	32.6
	2003	6.7	59.0	7.6	51.4	6.0	26.9	18.0	0.5	34.4	33.1
Mexico ⁱ	1989	4.3	76.4	...	76.4	9.3	66.5	...	0.6	19.2	17.4
	1994	4.9	75.5	13.9	61.6	6.9	54.1	...	0.6	19.6	18.0
	1996	5.8	75.2	13.7	61.5	7.2	36.1	17.3	0.9	19.0	17.4
	1998	6.3	75.0	12.9	62.1	6.8	36.7	17.4	1.2	18.9	16.6
	2000	6.0	76.9	11.3	65.6	8.9	37.4	18.4	0.9	17.3	15.3
	2002	5.8	74.2	11.9	62.3	6.2	35.3	19.4	1.4	20.0	18.2
	2004	4.3	77.6	...	77.6	11.5	44.3	20.8	1.0	18.1	15.8
	2005	4.5	77.1	...	77.1	12.1	46.4	17.9	0.7	18.5	15.9
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
	2004	4.7	69.2	16.7	52.5	5.1	37.1	9.2	1.1	26.1	23.7
	2005	4.9	69.3	15.1	54.2	6.0	37.1	9.9	1.2	25.7	23.4

Table 19.1 (concluded)

BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own-account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector					Total ^f	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		
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	13.5	69.2	12.3	56.9	4.9	31.4	20.6	0.0	17.4	16.4
	1994	12.3	68.1	11.7	56.4	6.5	30.2	18.1	1.6	19.5	19.1
	1996	9.3	64.3	10.3	54.0	5.1	29.5	18.4	1.0	26.3	24.6
	1999	8.5	69.4	13.4	56.0	7.4	33.3	14.5	0.8	22.1	19.5
	2001	9.5	66.4	10.5	55.9	7.7	32.2	13.7	2.3	24.0	20.3
	2004	7.3	61.9	10.9	51.0	5.8	25.0	17.7	2.5	30.6	28.3
	2005	9.7	64.9	13.3	51.6	5.4	26.0	18.7	1.5	25.4	21.4
(Urban)	1994	11.9	63.4	10.2	53.2	4.6	27.0	20.2	1.4	24.7	24.5
	1996	9.1	60.3	9.0	51.3	4.0	27.1	19.3	0.9	30.6	29.2
	1999	9.0	64.0	11.9	52.1	5.3	28.0	17.9	0.9	27.0	25.1
	2001	10.3	60.7	9.9	50.8	5.4	25.8	18.0	1.6	29.1	26.1
	2004	7.2	59.0	10.0	49.0	4.5	22.6	20.0	1.9	33.7	31.5
	2005	8.3	62.5	11.6	50.9	4.8	23.0	21.6	1.5	29.3	26.3
Peru	1997	8.5	58.8	11.6	47.2	7.3	23.8	15.9	0.2	32.6	29.5
	1999	8.0	55.8	11.4	44.4	7.6	20.3	16.1	0.4	36.1	32.0
	2001	6.7	58.0	12.6	45.4	7.0	20.4	17.5	0.5	35.4	32.2
	2003	6.3	55.1	11.6	43.5	6.2	20.6	15.9	0.8	38.7	35.8
Uruguay	1990	6.4	73.0	22.8	50.2	4.4	33.9	11.8	0.1	20.5	18.9
	1994	6.3	70.8	18.6	52.2	4.8	36.7	10.6	0.1	23.0	20.7
	1997	5.8	69.2	17.3	51.9	4.9	34.8	12.0	0.2	24.9	22.6
	1999	5.2	69.1	15.6	53.5	5.4	36.2	11.7	0.2	25.6	23.2
	2000	4.9	69.7	16.5	53.2	5.3	35.2	11.4	1.3	25.2	21.9
	2002	4.9	65.6	16.8	48.8	4.9	30.3	12.2	1.4	29.5	25.7
	2004	4.6	66.7	16.3	50.4	5.5	31.2	12.3	1.4	28.6	24.6
2005	5.3	67.4	15.0	52.4	5.6	32.4	13.3	1.1	27.3	23.0	
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^j	1990	10.2	66.1	16.8	49.3	5.5	33.9	8.0	1.9	23.6	22.5
	1994	8.4	60.6	13.0	47.6	5.2	30.0	10.9	1.5	31.1	29.2
	1997	6.7	61.2	12.1	49.1	5.0	29.2	13.4	1.5	32.0	30.3
	1999	6.9	57.5	10.6	46.9	4.0	27.9	14.9	0.1	35.6	34.1
	2000	6.8	55.6	10.4	45.2	3.7	27.7	13.7	0.1	37.6	36.3
	2002	7.3	54.4	9.9	44.5	3.2	27.4	13.8	0.1	38.3	36.8
	2004	6.3	54.2	10.9	43.3	4.0	26.4	12.8	0.1	39.5	37.8
2005	6.4	56.9	11.1	45.8	5.4	27.5	12.8	0.1	36.8	34.5	

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

^a For Argentina (except 1999 and 2000), Brazil (except 1993, 1996 and 1999), Chile (except 1996 and 2000), Mexico (except 1989 and 2004) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public-sector wage or salary earners.

^b For Colombia, Dominican Republic (1992, 1995 and 1998) and Mexico (1989 and 1994), no information was available on the size of business establishments. In those cases, wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations in establishments employing up to five persons are included in the figures for establishments employing more than five persons. For Bolivian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama (up to 2002) and Uruguay (1990), establishments employing up to four persons are taken into account.

^c Includes professional and technical workers.

^d Brazil's national household survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments, except in 1993, 1996 and 1999. Therefore the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing more than five persons includes wage earners who have an employment contract ("carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to five 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. The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

^h The figures for 1990 are not strictly comparable with those for 1997, owing to changes made in the classification of professional and technical workers.

ⁱ Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

^j The sample design 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 19.2

**BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION
BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005**
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own-account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector					Total ^f	Non-professional non-technical
					Total ^a	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons ^b	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	2.8	70.3	...	70.3	8.0	39.6	10.2	12.5	27.1	22.7
	1994	2.4	72.2	...	72.2	21.4	27.0	11.5	12.3	25.4	18.7
	1997	3.5	74.2	...	74.2	23.6	28.3	9.6	12.7	22.2	17.5
	1999	2.6	76.3	15.9	60.4	12.6	24.8	10.3	12.7	20.7	15.3
	2000	3.0	76.8	16.4	60.4	10.7	24.8	12.0	12.9	20.1	15.7
	2002	2.5	81.3	25.9	55.4	13.0	17.6	11.6	13.2	16.2	11.5
	2004	2.2	78.6	21.2	57.4	10.6	22.0	10.3	14.5	19.1	13.6
	2005	2.3	79.1	17.8	61.3	12.5	24.4	8.7	15.7	18.7	13.0
(Urban)	1999	2.5	76.2	20.4	55.8	10.4	20.7	10.5	14.2	21.3	16.9
	2000	2.8	76.5	21.1	55.4	9.4	20.7	11.1	14.2	20.7	16.5
	2002	2.3	81.6	30.3	51.3	11.0	15.9	10.4	14.0	16.1	11.8
	2004	2.4	78.6	26.0	52.6	9.3	18.6	9.5	15.2	19.0	14.2
	2005	2.4	79.0	22.0	57.0	10.7	21.3	8.9	16.1	18.4	13.6
Bolivia	1989	0.8	45.3	15.0	30.3	3.6	8.6	5.2	12.9	54.0	52.2
	1994	3.5	43.7	11.4	32.3	5.4	7.8	7.9	11.2	52.9	51.7
	1997	2.8	38.5	11.1	27.4	5.4	7.3	7.0	7.7	58.7	57.4
	1999	2.2	37.4	10.2	27.2	5.0	8.6	6.9	6.7	60.6	59.3
	2000	1.6	40.7	10.0	30.7	4.9	11.5	4.9	9.4	57.8	56.3
	2002	2.2	39.0	10.7	28.3	3.6	7.8	8.6	8.3	58.7	56.9
	2004	2.3	39.5	9.4	30.1	3.7	7.8	8.6	10.0	58.2	57.0
Brazil^d	1990	2.5	73.6	...	73.6	20.7	26.1	11.2	15.6	24.0	22.4
	1993	1.8	70.7	18.3	52.4	4.7	21.9 ^e	6.0	19.8	27.4	25.8
	1996	2.5	72.3	17.9	54.4	5.4	21.7 ^e	7.6	19.7	25.2	23.4
	1999	2.7	71.2	16.9	54.3	13.8	15.5	5.3	19.7	26.1	23.6
	2001	2.8	73.0	16.5	56.5	14.5	16.1	5.9	20.0	24.3	21.6
	2003	2.9	72.6	16.4	56.2	7.1	22.2	7.8	19.1	24.5	21.7
	2004	2.9	73.8	16.1	57.7	6.8	24.2	7.8	18.9	23.3	20.5
	2005	3.1	73.1	16.1	57.0	7.0	23.6	7.7	18.7	23.9	20.9
Chile^f	1990	1.4	78.6	...	78.6	18.4	32.6	8.2	19.4	20.1	18.2
	1994	2.2	77.4	...	77.4	19.1	33.8	7.7	16.8	20.6	15.8
	1996	2.8	78.9	13.2	65.7	12.0	29.2	8.2	16.3	18.4	14.5
	1998	3.0	78.8	...	78.8	20.6	33.3	9.7	15.2	18.1	13.2
	2000	2.5	78.4	15.3	63.1	11.5	28.2	7.4	16.0	19.1	13.3
	2003	3.0	80.0	16.2	63.8	12.8	28.3	6.4	16.3	17.0	10.5
Colombia^g	1991	2.2	70.7	12.8	57.9	5.5	38.8	...	13.6	27.1	25.5
	1994	2.7	72.3	9.4	62.9	7.2	43.0	...	12.7	25.2	23.4
	1997	2.8	66.9	11.6	55.3	6.9	38.0	...	10.4	30.3	28.2
	1999	2.7	61.7	9.9	51.8	6.6	33.7	...	11.5	35.6	33.4
	2002	2.9	57.1	8.9	48.2	4.9	30.6	...	12.7	40.0	37.5
	2004	3.4	55.8	8.8	47.0	4.9	30.9	...	11.2	40.8	38.3
	2005	3.3	57.4	8.4	49.0	5.0	32.9	...	11.1	39.3	36.8
Costa Rica	1990	2.3	79.6	28.7	50.9	4.5	25.8	8.6	12.0	18.1	16.6
	1994	4.0	78.6	24.7	53.9	7.1	26.4	10.3	10.1	17.3	16.1
	1997	4.0	75.7	27.5	48.2	6.6	23.2	9.2	9.2	20.4	18.7
	1999	4.4	75.0	21.5	53.5	7.5	24.0	9.4	12.6	20.4	18.1
	2000	3.2	79.1	23.6	55.5	7.8	25.4	10.9	11.4	17.5	15.7
	2002	4.7	72.8	23.0	49.8	9.3	20.6	10.1	9.8	22.6	20.4
	2004	4.4	72.3	23.2	49.1	10.3	21.4	9.0	8.4	23.4	20.5
	2005	4.3	75.3	22.4	52.9	10.7	20.8	9.4	12.0	20.5	17.9

Table 19.2 (continued)

BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own-account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector					Total ^c	Non-professional non-technical
					Total ^a	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons ^b	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Dominican Republic	1992	0.9	70.9	15.1	55.8	12.1	35.0	...	8.7	28.3	26.7
	1995	2.0	73.7	16.9	56.8	10.7	35.6	...	10.5	24.3	21.9
	1997	1.5	70.1	12.6	57.5	8.6	30.6	6.7	11.6	28.4	25.8
	2000	2.0	73.3	17.7	55.6	9.4	28.4	8.1	9.7	24.8	22.8
	2002	2.4	71.0	15.9	55.1	10.0	28.4	6.7	10.0	26.6	24.6
	2003	1.8	72.4	17.9	54.5	11.1	25.8	7.4	10.2	25.7	23.5
	2004	3.7	72.6	15.2	57.4	11.1	26.9	7.2	12.2	23.6	21.7
	2005	3.1	68.6	17.0	51.6	9.8	24.8	5.6	11.4	28.2	26.1
Ecuador	1990	2.7	56.4	17.7	38.7	5.5	14.9	6.7	11.6	40.8	39.5
	1994	5.0	55.5	14.8	40.7	6.2	15.0	7.7	11.8	39.5	37.8
	1997	4.5	57.5	15.5	42.0	7.3	15.8	8.0	10.9	37.1	35.7
	1999	5.0	56.7	11.3	45.4	8.9	15.0	8.4	13.1	38.3	37.4
	2000	2.5	57.7	12.8	44.9	7.0	17.8	9.0	11.1	39.8	38.1
	2002	4.5	55.0	12.8	42.2	7.6	14.7	9.1	10.8	40.5	39.3
	2004	3.7	52.9	11.7	41.2	9.1	13.9	8.5	9.7	43.4	42.1
	2005	4.4	56.8	10.9	45.9	9.3	15.1	10.0	11.5	38.8	37.3
El Salvador ^h	1990	1.6	52.5	11.7	40.8	2.5	18.0	7.2	13.1	45.9	45.8
	1995	3.3	53.4	11.8	41.6	5.9	20.8	5.8	9.1	43.3	42.8
	1997	3.3	53.9	12.2	41.7	6.5	18.7	7.1	9.4	42.8	42.0
	1999	2.7	57.0	11.5	45.5	7.6	20.9	8.4	8.6	40.2	39.6
	2000	3.4	54.5	12.0	42.5	6.6	20.0	7.7	8.2	42.1	41.5
	2001	3.4	53.9	11.5	42.4	6.2	20.0	7.8	8.4	42.7	42.3
	2002	3.0	53.6	11.1	42.5	7.5	20.2	7.8	7.0	43.4	42.8
	2004	3.1	53.3	10.3	43.0	6.8	20.1	8.4	7.7	43.6	43.0
Guatemala	1989	1.5	61.2	13.4	47.8	6.1	15.7	7.9	18.1	37.3	34.6
	1998	2.7	52.0	7.8	44.2	7.1	14.1	14.6	8.4	45.2	43.9
	2002	3.3	51.5	6.8	44.7	8.6	18.1	8.8	9.2	45.1	43.9
Honduras	1990	0.9	59.0	15.5	43.5	4.1	16.5	6.9	16.0	40.0	39.0
	1994	1.8	63.6	12.9	50.7	6.7	24.3	6.0	13.7	34.6	33.6
	1997	3.1	57.4	12.4	45.0	7.0	22.6	4.7	10.7	39.4	38.3
	1999	3.6	56.6	11.8	44.8	8.6	21.2	5.1	9.9	39.8	39.2
	2002	2.9	57.2	12.4	44.8	7.2	21.4	7.3	8.9	39.9	38.0
	2003	3.0	54.2	12.1	42.1	5.8	20.1	7.5	8.7	42.8	41.6
Mexico ⁱ	1989	1.3	76.3	...	76.3	8.4	60.8	...	7.1	22.4	21.9
	1994	1.5	72.8	20.3	52.5	6.1	36.8	...	9.6	25.8	25.0
	1996	2.1	70.4	17.5	52.9	7.0	27.7	9.9	8.3	27.5	25.9
	1998	2.2	69.5	16.5	53.0	6.5	26.8	10.7	9.0	28.4	27.1
	2000	1.9	70.2	17.5	52.7	6.6	30.0	9.6	6.5	27.9	26.8
	2002	1.9	71.1	15.2	55.9	6.4	26.7	13.1	9.7	27.0	25.3
	2004	1.6	73.0	...	73.0	16.7	32.9	12.8	10.6	25.5	23.7
	2005	2.1	72.8	...	72.8	16.0	34.7	12.0	10.1	25.1	23.3
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
	2004	1.4	80.5	23.8	56.7	7.7	26.7	6.6	15.7	18.1	16.7
	2005	1.8	78.8	22.9	55.9	7.9	26.2	6.9	14.9	19.6	18.8

Table 19.2 (concluded)

BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Employers	Wage or salary earners							Own-account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector					Total ^f	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		
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	2.4	67.5	11.3	56.2	6.5	15.5	8.6	25.6	30.2	28.1
	1994	5.7	65.5	11.5	54.0	6.1	16.6	7.0	24.3	28.8	28.2
	1996	4.0	59.5	12.5	47.0	4.9	14.3	7.8	20.0	36.5	33.9
	1999	3.7	65.4	11.7	53.7	6.3	14.9	12.4	20.1	30.8	28.2
	2001	4.8	64.3	12.7	51.6	7.8	14.3	8.4	21.1	30.9	29.0
	2004	2.7	60.2	12.0	48.2	6.5	11.0	8.6	22.1	37.1	34.9
	2005	3.7	62.5	13.5	49.0	6.4	14.3	6.9	21.4	33.8	31.2
(Urban)	1994	5.3	59.7	10.9	48.8	4.3	13.7	7.5	23.3	34.9	34.5
	1996	3.5	54.7	11.4	43.3	3.5	11.3	7.7	20.8	41.8	39.9
	1999	3.4	59.7	11.6	48.1	5.0	11.6	10.8	20.7	36.9	34.6
	2001	4.2	59.0	12.6	46.4	5.6	11.8	7.5	21.5	36.8	35.2
	2004	2.9	56.5	12.2	44.3	5.2	8.8	8.5	21.8	40.6	38.6
	2005	3.3	61.3	14.1	47.2	5.1	11.9	7.2	23.0	35.4	33.3
Peru	1997	2.3	47.3	10.9	36.4	7.6	12.1	6.9	9.8	50.5	49.1
	1999	2.5	49.3	10.5	38.8	6.3	11.0	9.1	12.4	48.2	45.7
	2001	2.4	46.9	11.3	35.6	5.8	10.2	8.3	11.3	50.7	49.0
	2003	2.4	46.1	9.4	36.7	7.1	10.0	8.1	11.5	51.5	49.7
Uruguay	1990	1.9	75.9	20.2	55.7	6.1	24.4	8.1	17.1	22.3	19.1
	1994	2.8	74.4	18.9	55.5	6.2	24.9	7.6	16.8	22.8	19.2
	1997	2.3	75.9	18.1	57.8	7.2	24.4	9.5	16.7	21.8	18.3
	1999	2.3	76.7	17.0	59.7	7.9	25.8	8.6	17.4	21.1	17.1
	2000	2.2	77.7	18.0	59.7	7.6	22.0	10.6	19.5	20.3	15.9
	2002	2.1	77.1	18.0	59.1	7.2	20.9	9.5	21.5	20.9	16.6
	2004	2.0	75.9	17.9	58.0	7.2	20.4	10.1	20.3	22.1	18.0
	2005	2.3	76.9	17.9	59.0	6.9	23.2	14.1	14.8	20.8	16.8
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^j	1990	2.3	77.5	30.4	47.1	6.4	22.3	3.4	15.0	20.2	19.1
	1994	1.7	72.3	28.1	44.2	8.0	21.3	5.9	9.0	26.0	23.9
	1997	1.9	65.7	25.7	40.0	6.4	18.1	5.8	9.7	32.5	30.1
	1999	1.9	58.9	22.7	36.2	6.5	17.1	7.0	5.6	39.2	37.4
	2000	1.9	57.6	22.1	35.5	6.3	16.7	6.9	5.6	40.4	38.4
	2002	2.4	55.0	20.0	35.0	5.1	16.6	6.7	6.6	42.6	40.6
	2004	2.2	57.4	22.7	34.7	5.8	16.2	6.4	6.3	40.5	38.4
2005	2.3	58.7	23.5	35.2	7.3	16.8	6.1	5.0	39.1	36.6	

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

^a For Argentina (except 1999 and 2000), Brazil (except 1993, 1996 and 1999), Chile (except 1996 and 2000), Mexico (except 1989 and 2004) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public-sector wage or salary earners.

^b For Colombia, Dominican Republic (1992, 1995 and 1998) and Mexico (1989 and 1994), no information was available on the size of business establishments. In those cases, wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations in establishments employing up to five persons are included in the figures for establishments employing more than five persons. For Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama and Uruguay (1990), establishments employing up to four persons are taken into account.

^c Includes professional and technical workers.

^d Brazil's national household survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments, except in 1993, 1996 and 1999. Therefore the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing more than five persons includes wage earners who have an employment contract ("carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to five 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. The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

^h The figures for 1990 are not strictly comparable with those for 1997, owing to changes made in the classification of professional and technical workers.

ⁱ Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

^j The sample design 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 20

BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS, 1990–2005 (Percentages)										
Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary workers					Own-account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector ^a			Total	Agriculture
						Total	Agriculture	Other		
Bolivia	1997	100	3.3	8.9	2.4	6.5	2.7	3.8	87.8	79.9
	1999	100	1.2	9.2	2.3	6.9	2.7	4.2	89.6	82.1
	2000	100	0.5	8.6	2.8	5.8	2.1	3.7	90.9	83.0
	2002	100	4.2	9.8	2.3	7.5	4.2	3.3	86.0	79.0
	2004	100	4.4	16.4	4.4	12.0	5.4	6.6	79.2	64.2
Brazil	1990	100	3.0	44.3	...	44.3	22.7	21.6	52.7	44.3
	1993	100	1.9	33.6	5.1	28.5	20.8	7.7	64.5	58.4
	1996	100	1.8	34.3	4.4	29.9	20.6	9.3	63.8	57.2
	1999	100	2.0	34.3	5.2	29.1	15.6	13.5	63.7	56.4
	2001	100	2.5	33.7	4.3	29.4	17.4	12.0	63.8	57.3
	2003	100	2.2	33.1	3.8	29.3	17.2	12.1	64.7	57.8
	2004	100	2.2	34.2	4.3	29.9	16.7	13.2	63.7	56.6
	2005	100	2.4	35.0	4.2	30.8	16.8	14.0	62.5	54.0
	Chile ^b	1990	100	2.8	64.9	...	64.9	45.4	19.5	32.3
1994		100	2.6	66.6	...	66.6	42.2	24.4	30.8	21.5
1996		100	2.4	64.2	3.6	60.6	39.9	20.7	33.3	26.6
1998		100	2.8	64.5	...	64.5	39.8	24.7	32.7	24.4
2000		100	2.5	65.1	4.9	60.2	38.7	21.5	32.5	24.3
2003		100	2.5	65.6	4.0	61.6	38.9	22.7	32.0	23.4
Colombia ^c		1991	100	6.3	48.6	...	48.6	28.8	19.8	45.0
	1994	100	4.5	54.2	...	54.2	28.6	25.6	41.3	22.4
	1997	100	4.2	50.6	...	50.6	27.7	22.9	45.1	25.0
	1999	100	3.7	47.2	3.7	43.5	25.9	17.6	49.2	27.9
	2002	100	4.6	40.6	3.5	37.1	21.3	15.8	54.8	30.2
	2004	100	4.0	39.2	2.0	37.2	22.7	14.5	56.7	34.7
	2005	100	5.0	39.1	2.2	36.9	24.5	12.4	56.0	35.7
	Costa Rica	1990	100	5.1	66.2	10.5	55.7	24.1	31.6	28.7
1994		100	6.8	69.0	9.6	59.4	22.5	36.9	24.2	11.1
1997		100	7.1	67.8	9.0	58.8	20.7	38.1	25.2	11.3
1999		100	8.2	69.2	8.9	60.3	21.3	39.0	22.7	9.5
2000		100	5.8	66.9	9.6	57.3	22.7	34.6	27.3	12.3
2002		100	7.5	63.5	8.8	54.8	19.4	35.4	29.0	13.2
2004		100	7.8	65.8	9.2	56.6	19.2	37.4	26.4	11.5
2005		100	7.8	67.9	9.3	58.6	20.4	38.2	24.3	9.7
Dominican Republic		1992	100	4.0	52.4	13.2	39.2	14.8	24.4	43.7
	1995	100	2.1	56.1	11.5	44.6	10.3	33.3	41.9	15.7
	1997	100	3.4	45.6	10.3	35.3	7.3	28.0	51.0	28.5
	2000	100	1.8	40.3	8.1	32.2	7.2	25.0	57.8	32.6
	2002	100	1.7	36.6	8.3	28.3	5.5	22.8	61.7	34.9
	2003	100	2.7	42.4	8.9	33.5	4.5	29.0	54.9	25.3
	2004	100	2.9	42.0	8.7	33.3	4.7	28.6	55.1	28.0
	2005	100	3.3	39.4	7.8	31.6	4.1	27.5	57.2	27.9
	Ecuador	2000	100	3.2	42.4	3.9	38.5	23.1	15.3	54.3
2004		100	4.2	35.4	3.1	32.3	19.4	12.9	60.4	48.2
2005		100	5.5	37.7	2.4	35.3	21.6	13.7	56.8	47.6
El Salvador	1995	100	6.0	49.6	3.2	46.4	24.9	21.2	44.3	26.8
	1997	100	4.0	50.9	3.1	47.8	24.8	23.0	45.1	28.1
	1999	100	4.1	50.8	3.9	46.9	20.2	26.7	45.2	26.3
	2000	100	4.6	47.2	3.9	43.3	18.0	25.3	48.1	26.7
	2001	100	3.8	47.0	3.8	43.2	17.8	25.4	49.2	28.9
	2002	100	3.9	45.9	3.8	42.1	14.7	27.4	50.3	27.6
	2004	100	3.2	56.3	3.4	52.9	21.2	31.7	40.5	20.9
Guatemala	1989	100	0.6	38.7	2.9	35.8	23.6	12.2	60.7	47.5
	1998	100	2.0	42.9	1.7	41.2	26.6	14.6	55.1	34.8
	2002	100	6.3	35.3	1.6	33.7	17.4	16.3	58.4	38.8
Honduras	1990	100	0.6	34.9	4.0	30.9	21.0	9.9	64.6	47.6
	1994	100	1.7	37.0	4.8	32.2	17.5	14.7	61.4	43.5
	1997	100	2.6	34.8	3.4	31.4	19.2	21.2	62.6	41.6
	1999	100	3.1	33.4	3.7	29.7	16.4	13.3	63.5	41.3
	2002	100	1.3	35.0	1.8	33.2	19.8	13.4	63.7	46.9
	2003	100	1.4	35.6	1.9	33.7	20.1	13.6	63.0	43.6

Table 20 (concluded)

BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS, 1990–2005 (Percentages)										
Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary workers					Own-account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector ^a			Total	Agriculture
						Total	Agriculture	Other		
Mexico ^d	1989	100	2.5	50.2	...	50.2	21.9	28.3	47.3	34.6
	1994	100	4.0	48.6	5.5	43.1	18.8	24.3	47.4	30.8
	1996	100	5.1	48.1	6.4	41.7	16.9	24.8	46.7	28.6
	1998	100	4.5	45.6	6.0	39.6	16.0	23.6	49.9	29.2
	2000	100	5.0	51.0	6.6	44.4	18.1	26.3	44.0	25.1
	2002	100	3.3	52.4	7.8	44.6	15.7	28.9	44.3	25.4
	2004	100	3.4	61.1	...	61.1	16.4	44.7	35.4	16.8
	2005	100	4.1	56.8	...	56.8	16.0	40.8	39.1	19.0
	Nicaragua	1993	100	0.2	38.4	6.6	31.8	17.4	14.4	61.3
1998		100	3.3	43.7	...	43.7	23.8	19.9	53.0	39.7
2001		100	5.4	37.4	4.9	32.5	17.8	14.7	57.2	44.5
Panama	1991	100	2.9	39.1	12.5	26.6	13.0	13.6	58.0	45.5
	1994	100	3.3	47.0	11.8	35.2	17.6	17.6	49.7	34.4
	1997	100	2.2	46.1	10.1	36.0	13.1	22.9	51.6	33.4
	1999	100	3.2	44.9	10.1	34.8	15.6	19.2	51.9	31.6
	2002	100	2.0	40.1	8.3	31.8	14.3	17.5	57.9	39.1
	2004	100	2.8	40.9	8.5	32.3	13.3	19.0	56.3	35.5
	2005	100	2.0	39.4	8.1	31.3	12.5	18.8	58.7	37.3
	Paraguay	1997	100	2.3	24.8	3.2	21.6	10.1	11.5	72.8
1999		100	3.4	27.0	3.4	23.6	7.2	16.4	69.7	54.0
2001		100	3.6	27.1	2.5	24.6	8.8	15.8	69.4	53.7
2004		100	2.7	24.5	2.4	22.1	7.4	14.7	72.9	58.2
2005		100	2.4	26.8	4.5	22.3	7.5	14.8	70.9	58.5
Peru	1997	100	5.3	19.8	4.4	15.4	9.9	5.5	74.8	61.0
	1999	100	6.3	19.9	3.7	16.2	10.9	5.3	73.9	61.9
	2001	100	5.4	20.6	4.1	16.5	12.0	4.5	74.0	61.2
	2003	100	5.0	14.6	3.5	11.1	8.2	2.9	80.5	69.5
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	100	6.9	46.6	8.3	38.3	22.9	15.4	46.5	33.3
	1994	100	7.6	47.6	7.4	40.2	19.4	20.8	44.8	29.7
	1997	100	5.4	49.6	5.4	44.2	34.6	9.6	44.9	33.1

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

- ^a Includes domestic employees. For Brazil (1990), Chile (1990, 1994 and 1998), Mexico (1989 and 2004) and Nicaragua (1998), public-sector wage or salary earners are included.
- ^b Information from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).
- ^c The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.
- ^d Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

Table 21

URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2005 (Percentages of the total employed urban population)										
Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises ^a				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers ^b		
			Employers	Wage or salary earners				Total ^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
	2004	44.6	2.5	15.0	1.0	14.0	6.1	21.0	10.3	10.7
	2005	39.8	2.5	14.5	1.4	13.1	7.1	15.7	5.5	10.1
(Urban)	1999	42.2	3.2	14.9	1.4	13.5	5.8	18.3	5.4	12.7
	2000	43.5	3.3	15.4	1.3	14.1	5.9	18.9	5.6	13.2
	2002	42.5	2.9	15.2	1.2	14.0	6.0	18.4	6.4	11.8
	2004	40.9	2.8	15.2	1.2	14.0	5.9	17.0	5.9	11.1
	2005	41.2	2.8	14.5	1.3	13.2	7.2	16.7	5.6	10.9
Bolivia	1989	58.5	1.1	10.5	0.9	9.6	5.8	41.1	9.8	30.0
	1994	63.0	6.2	14.8	1.0	13.8	5.2	36.8	9.1	27.1
	1997	65.5	5.0	12.0	1.0	11.0	3.6	44.9	11.9	27.7
	1999	64.3	2.5	12.8	1.0	11.8	3.1	45.9	12.1	31.1
	2000	63.1	1.7	10.8	0.6	10.2	4.2	46.4	12.1	30.9
	2002	66.7	3.2	13.9	0.7	13.2	3.9	45.7	12.3	29.4
	2004	70.9	4.1	18.1	1.4	16.7	4.6	44.1	10.8	28.9
	2005	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
	2003	45.0	2.2	10.7	0.9	9.8	8.5	23.6	6.5	12.6
	2004	43.7	2.2	10.5	0.9	9.6	8.5	22.5	6.0	12.3
	2005	43.6	2.2	10.3	0.9	9.4	8.5	22.6	6.3	12.0
Chile ^e	1990	38.8	0.8	10.3	0.9	9.4	7.0	20.7	5.7	14.0
	1994	34.6	1.8	9.4	0.8	8.6	6.1	17.3	5.4	11.2
	1996	34.3	2.0	10.1	1.0	9.1	6.1	16.1	4.2	10.7
	1998	34.4	2.6	10.7	1.0	9.7	5.9	15.2	4.1	10.2
	2000	32.5	2.4	9.0	1.0	8.0	6.2	14.9	4.3	9.6
	2003	31.8	2.4	7.9	0.8	7.1	6.5	15.0	4.9	9.2
Colombia ^f	1991	5.6	27.3	6.4	20.0
	1994	5.3	25.0	6.2	18.4
	1997	4.5	30.8	7.1	22.9
	1999	5.2	35.7	7.5	26.7
	2002	5.9	38.5	8.0	27.8
	2004	5.2	39.5	7.9	28.1
	2005	5.3	37.6	7.6	27.2
Costa Rica	1990	36.9	4.4	10.5	0.8	9.7	4.4	17.6	6.4	10.1
	1994	38.0	5.0	12.6	1.4	11.2	3.8	16.6	4.6	11.1
	1997	39.6	6.1	12.2	1.0	11.2	3.5	17.8	4.8	12.4
	1999	41.6	6.0	13.2	1.4	11.8	5.1	17.3	4.5	11.9
	2000	39.1	4.1	13.0	1.2	11.8	4.5	17.5	4.5	11.9
	2002	40.2	6.2	12.3	1.4	10.9	4.0	17.7	4.7	12.2
	2004	38.9	6.2	11.2	1.3	9.9	3.4	18.1	4.3	12.9
	2005	39.9	5.9	13.0	1.6	11.4	4.9	16.1	3.8	11.5
Dominican Republic	1992	3.2	32.8	5.6	23.0
	1995	3.8	30.6	4.9	22.1
	1997	47.0	2.1	9.1	0.7	8.4	4.4	31.4	6.8	21.3
	2000	45.1	1.8	8.5	0.7	7.8	4.1	30.7	7.3	20.6
	2002	46.3	2.3	7.0	0.6	6.4	4.3	32.7	7.4	22.0
	2003	46.9	2.7	7.4	0.8	6.6	4.1	32.7	7.8	21.4
	2004	48.1	4.3	7.9	0.8	7.1	5.3	30.6	6.8	20.2
	2005	49.3	3.5	6.9	0.5	6.4	4.8	34.1	7.9	22.3
Ecuador	1990	54.5	3.6	11.9	0.6	11.3	4.5	34.5	7.8	24.4
	1994	56.5	6.5	13.2	1.0	12.2	4.7	32.1	6.0	24.1
	1997	56.6	6.2	12.6	0.8	11.8	5.0	32.8	6.9	23.6
	1999	58.9	7.0	15.0	1.6	13.4	5.4	31.5	5.6	23.8
	2000	56.5	3.0	15.0	1.2	13.8	4.7	33.8	7.1	24.1
	2002	56.3	4.8	14.2	0.9	13.3	4.5	32.8	6.9	23.6
	2004	58.6	5.1	15.1	1.1	14.0	4.2	34.2	6.5	25.2
	2005	57.9	4.8	16.3	1.2	15.1	5.2	31.6	5.8	23.3
El Salvador	1990	55.6	2.7	13.6	0.3	13.3	6.1	33.2	8.7	21.8
	1995	51.0	4.9	10.7	0.2	10.5	4.4	31.0	8.1	20.2
	1997	52.5	4.8	11.8	0.6	11.2	4.4	31.5	7.1	21.5
	1999	52.2	4.1	14.6	0.8	13.8	4.3	29.2	6.7	20.0
	2000	53.8	5.0	13.5	1.0	12.5	4.1	31.2	7.0	21.7
	2001	54.4	4.4	14.1	0.7	13.4	4.2	31.7	6.7	22.8
	2002	54.8	4.6	13.5	1.0	12.5	3.7	33.0	6.8	23.9
	2004	54.6	4.4	13.9	0.7	13.2	3.9	32.4	6.5	23.9
Guatemala	1989	54.6	2.1	14.6	0.8	13.8	7.0	30.9	7.4	14.9
	1998	64.4	3.6	22.4	2.3	20.1	3.9	34.5	8.2	20.7
	2002	57.6	5.2	13.9	0.8	13.1	4.0	34.5	8.9	19.8

Table 21 (concluded)

URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2005 (Percentages of the total employed urban population)										
Country	Year	Total	Microenterprises ^a				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers ^b		
			Employers	Wage or salary earners				Total ^c	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional non-technical				
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
Mexico ^d	1989	...	2.8	2.7	18.9	3.0	12.5
	1994	...	3.3	3.7	20.4	4.2	14.9
	1996	43.6	3.8	15.8	1.2	14.6	3.6	20.4	3.8	15.7
	1998	44.3	3.9	15.9	1.0	14.9	4.1	20.4	3.2	16.4
	2000	42.5	3.9	16.0	1.1	14.9	3.0	19.6	3.6	15.1
	2002	47.2	3.4	18.3	1.3	17.0	4.6	20.9	4.2	16.1
	2004	45.7	2.3	19.5	2.0	17.5	4.9	19.0	3.5	14.7
	2005	42.9	2.4	17.1	1.6	15.5	4.5	18.9	3.2	15.1
	Nicaragua	1993	49.2	0.5	13.3	1.6	11.7	6.2	29.2	7.7
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
	2004	39.3	2.5	8.9	0.7	8.2	6.9	21.0	4.2	15.9
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	55.5	6.8	17.0	1.1	15.9	10.5	21.2	5.2	15.5
	1994	54.6	7.1	14.6	1.3	13.3	11.5	21.4	5.3	15.9
	1996	57.1	4.7	14.6	0.8	13.8	9.3	28.5	6.4	19.9
	1999	51.9	4.7	14.9	1.3	13.6	9.1	23.2	5.2	17.1
	2001	54.5	6.1	13.0	1.7	11.3	11.0	24.4	5.1	19.0
	2004	61.1	3.9	14.8	1.1	13.7	11.2	31.2	6.4	22.9
(Urban)	2005	56.0	5.2	14.2	0.9	13.3	10.7	25.9	5.4	18.1
	1994	61.2	7.2	16.0	1.0	15.0	10.5	27.5	5.4	20.2
	1996	62.9	4.9	15.0	0.6	14.4	9.3	33.7	5.6	24.3
	1999	59.1	5.0	15.8	0.9	14.9	9.2	29.1	5.2	21.3
	2001	61.6	6.4	14.7	1.4	13.3	10.4	30.1	5.3	21.9
	2004	65.4	4.2	16.1	1.1	15.0	10.5	34.6	6.2	23.8
Peru	2005	61.3	4.6	16.1	0.9	15.2	11.1	29.5	5.7	19.3
	1997	60.6	4.9	13.1	1.2	11.9	4.4	38.2	5.4	28.6
	1999	63.3	4.5	14.9	1.9	13.0	5.8	38.1	4.9	29.4
	2001	63.1	4.0	14.4	1.0	13.4	5.2	39.5	5.0	28.8
Uruguay	2003	64.6	3.7	13.3	0.9	12.4	5.6	42.0	5.3	29.7
	1990	39.2	2.7	10.6	0.3	10.3	6.9	19.0	5.6	12.0
	1994	40.3	3.3	9.9	0.5	9.4	7.0	20.1	6.4	12.7
	1997	42.2	2.8	11.5	0.5	11.0	7.1	20.8	6.8	12.7
	1999	41.5	2.4	11.0	0.6	10.4	7.5	20.6	7.0	12.7
	2000	42.6	2.4	11.8	0.7	11.1	9.1	19.3	7.3	10.9
	2002	45.7	2.4	11.6	0.6	11.0	9.9	21.8	8.1	12.5
	2004	45.3	2.1	12.0	0.6	11.4	9.4	21.8	7.4	13.0
	2005	44.3	2.5	14.3	0.6	13.7	7.2	20.3	6.9	12.3
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^h	1990	39.2	4.9	6.7	0.2	6.5	6.3	21.3	4.1	15.3
	1994	45.3	4.2	9.7	0.5	9.2	4.0	27.4	5.9	19.0
	1997	49.4	3.6	11.3	0.5	10.8	4.3	30.2	6.1	19.9
	1999	53.7	3.9	12.6	0.5	12.1	2.0	35.2	6.7	23.7
	2000	54.6	3.8	11.6	0.4	11.2	2.1	37.1	7.4	24.7
	2002	56.5	4.2	11.5	0.4	11.1	2.6	38.2	6.5	26.4
	2004	54.9	3.6	10.8	0.5	10.3	2.5	38.0	6.5	25.8
	2005	52.0	3.7	11.2	1.0	10.2	1.9	35.2	6.0	24.4

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

^a Refers to establishments employing up to five persons. In the cases of Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama (up to 2002) and Uruguay (1990), includes establishments employing up to four persons.

^b Refers to own-account 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 five persons, so that the figures for these years are not comparable with 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. The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

^g Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH). In the 1994 survey no information was given on the size of 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 21.1

URBAN MALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2005 (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
	2004	39.4	3.2	17.7	1.0	16.7	0.1	18.4	7.5	10.9
	2005	39.2	2.9	17.6	1.3	16.3	0.9	17.8	7.5	10.1
(Urban)	1999	40.9	4.1	16.8	1.2	15.6	0.2	19.8	7.6	11.9
	2000	42.5	4.1	17.6	1.5	16.1	0.2	20.6	8.0	12.4
	2002	44.6	3.5	17.7	1.1	16.6	0.1	23.3	9.2	13.8
	2004	41.5	3.7	18.3	1.1	17.2	0.2	19.3	7.5	11.6
	2005	40.9	3.5	17.7	1.3	16.4	0.7	19.0	7.6	11.1
Bolivia	1989	48.8	1.5	13.8	0.9	12.9	0.6	32.9	11.5	19.9
	1994	53.7	8.6	19.2	0.9	18.3	0.5	25.4	9.1	15.6
	1997	58.4	7.1	15.2	1.1	14.1	0.5	35.6	12.6	17.1
	1999	57.2	3.0	16.7	1.1	15.6	0.3	37.2	12.7	19.5
	2000	56.2	2.2	15.1	0.8	14.3	0.2	38.7	15.3	19.2
	2002	58.5	4.2	17.8	0.7	17.1	0.2	36.3	13.1	18.4
	2004	64.4	5.7	25.0	1.6	23.4	0.2	33.5	12.5	17.2
	2005	64.4	5.7	25.0	1.6	23.4	0.2	33.5	12.5	17.2
Brazil ^d	1990	44.7	...	23.4	2.3	21.1	0.4	20.9	5.1	12.9
	1993	40.6	2.5	10.6	0.5	10.1	0.8	26.7	6.7	14.8
	1996	42.6	2.5	12.0	0.6	11.4	0.8	27.3	7.4	15.1
	1999	43.7	2.9	11.6	1.1	10.5	0.8	28.4	7.5	15.9
	2001	42.3	2.8	12.3	1.2	11.1	0.8	26.4	7.1	14.9
	2003	40.7	2.8	12.1	0.9	11.2	0.8	25.0	7.8	12.5
	2004	39.3	2.7	11.8	0.9	10.9	0.8	24.0	7.2	12.2
	2005	39.0	2.8	11.6	0.9	10.7	0.8	23.8	7.6	11.7
Chile ^e	1990	33.8	0.9	10.7	0.7	10.0	0.2	22.0	6.3	14.3
	1994	30.1	2.0	9.8	0.7	9.1	0.1	18.2	6.2	10.9
	1996	30.2	2.3	10.7	1.0	9.7	0.2	17.0	4.8	10.6
	1998	30.0	2.9	10.5	0.8	9.7	0.1	16.5	5.0	10.2
	2000	27.9	2.9	9.1	0.9	8.2	0.1	15.8	5.2	9.2
	2003	27.8	2.7	8.3	0.7	7.6	0.2	16.6	6.1	9.1
Colombia ^f	1991	0.3	28.4	6.2	20.9
	1994	0.2	26.0	6.7	18.7
	1997	0.2	32.6	8.4	22.9
	1999	0.5	37.3	8.4	26.5
	2002	0.4	39.3	8.2	26.7
	2004	0.4	40.2	8.0	26.7
Costa Rica	1990	35.1	5.7	11.1	0.8	10.3	0.2	18.1	5.7	10.8
	1994	36.2	6.1	13.1	1.5	11.6	0.3	16.7	4.4	10.9
	1997	38.5	7.8	13.4	1.0	12.4	0.2	17.1	5.2	11.0
	1999	39.5	7.7	14.7	1.4	13.3	0.4	16.7	4.4	10.9
	2000	37.4	5.1	13.5	1.1	12.4	0.3	18.5	5.3	11.6
	2002	37.3	7.9	13.0	1.6	11.4	0.3	16.1	5.1	9.8
	2004	36.7	7.9	11.9	1.4	10.5	0.3	16.6	4.5	10.6
	2005	36.6	7.3	13.9	1.3	12.6	0.4	15.0	4.0	9.8
Dominican Republic	1992	0.2	36.2	5.8	24.0
	1995	0.2	35.1	5.3	24.4
	1997	47.5	2.7	9.9	0.5	9.4	0.4	34.5	8.7	20.8
	2000	46.6	1.9	8.5	0.8	7.7	0.6	35.6	10.1	21.3
	2002	48.1	2.7	6.7	0.6	6.1	0.8	37.9	10.3	22.5
	2003	48.9	3.4	6.8	0.7	6.1	0.4	38.3	10.8	22.0
	2004	49.6	5.0	7.5	0.4	7.1	1.1	36.0	9.7	20.6
	2005	51.1	4.0	7.3	0.5	6.8	0.9	38.9	11.1	21.8
Ecuador	1990	50.7	4.3	14.2	0.4	13.8	0.6	31.6	8.0	20.7
	1994	52.5	7.8	15.9	0.9	15.0	0.3	28.5	5.8	20.2
	1997	52.2	7.6	14.8	0.6	14.2	0.7	29.1	6.5	19.5
	1999	54.9	8.6	18.0	1.4	16.6	0.6	27.7	5.4	19.6
	2000	53.6	3.8	18.0	1.2	16.8	0.7	31.1	7.5	20.6
	2002	52.1	5.7	16.8	0.8	16.0	0.7	28.9	6.9	19.4
	2004	54.5	6.4	18.7	1.0	17.7	0.5	28.9	7.0	19.4
	2005	54.0	5.7	19.7	1.1	18.6	0.9	27.7	6.3	18.6
El Salvador	1990	45.9	3.8	18.6	0.4	18.2	0.4	23.1	6.0	12.8
	1995	43.0	6.7	14.5	0.2	14.3	0.5	21.3	5.2	11.5
	1997	44.7	6.3	15.2	0.6	14.6	0.3	22.9	5.6	12.2
	1999	45.7	5.5	19.6	1.0	18.6	0.6	20.0	4.2	11.3
	2000	47.1	6.6	18.1	1.3	16.8	0.4	22.0	5.0	12.5
	2001	47.5	5.5	19.3	0.9	18.4	0.5	22.2	4.4	13.9
	2002	48.4	6.1	18.0	1.1	16.9	0.5	23.8	4.8	14.9
	2004	47.8	5.8	18.3	0.7	17.6	0.5	23.2	5.0	14.5
Guatemala	1989	49.5	2.5	18.2	0.8	17.4	0.2	28.6	5.7	10.1
	1998	59.1	4.7	26.9	2.5	24.4	0.3	27.2	5.6	13.3
	2002	51.5	6.9	16.9	0.6	16.3	0.1	27.6	7.6	11.3

Table 21.1 (concluded)

URBAN MALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2005 (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				
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
Mexico ^d	1989	...	3.5	0.6	17.5	2.5	10.5
	1994	...	4.4	0.6	17.9	4.0	12.6
	1996	41.7	5.1	18.3	1.0	17.3	0.9	17.4	3.6	12.9
	1998	41.3	5.1	18.4	1.0	17.4	1.2	16.6	2.6	13.2
	2000	40.7	5.1	19.3	1.2	18.1	0.9	15.4	3.6	10.7
	2002	44.9	4.6	20.7	1.3	19.4	1.4	18.2	3.9	13.5
	2004	42.2	3.0	22.5	1.7	20.8	1.0	15.7	3.7	11.0
	2005	38.9	3.0	19.4	1.5	17.9	0.7	15.8	3.5	11.6
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
	2004	38.1	3.4	9.8	0.6	9.2	1.1	23.8	5.4	17.0
2005	38.9	3.7	10.6	0.7	9.9	1.2	23.4	4.9	16.7	
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	48.0	10.2	21.4	0.8	20.6	0.0	16.4	4.3	11.5
	1994	47.9	8.8	19.3	1.2	18.1	1.6	18.2	5.4	11.9
	1996	51.1	6.2	19.3	0.9	18.4	1.0	24.6	6.6	15.0
	1999	43.8	6.1	16.4	1.9	14.5	0.8	20.5	4.9	14.5
	2001	45.7	7.8	15.3	1.6	13.7	2.3	20.3	4.2	15.8
	2004	55.3	5.6	18.9	1.2	17.7	2.5	28.3	6.6	20.1
2005	50.4	7.6	19.9	1.2	18.7	1.5	21.4	5.9	13.7	
(Urban)	1994	55.1	9.0	21.2	1.0	20.2	1.4	23.5	5.3	15.4
	1996	56.7	6.6	20.1	0.8	19.3	0.9	29.1	6.0	18.4
	1999	51.9	6.8	19.1	1.2	17.9	0.9	25.1	4.9	16.8
	2001	55.6	8.6	19.3	1.3	18.0	1.6	26.1	4.8	18.0
	2004	60.2	5.7	21.1	1.1	20.0	1.9	31.5	6.2	20.9
	2005	57.0	6.4	22.7	1.1	21.6	1.5	26.4	6.0	15.8
Peru	1997	53.7	7.0	17.0	1.1	15.9	0.2	29.5	5.3	19.2
	1999	56.5	6.2	18.0	1.9	16.1	0.4	31.9	5.0	21.7
	2001	56.7	5.5	18.5	1.0	17.5	0.5	32.2	5.4	20.4
	2003	58.1	4.8	16.7	0.8	15.9	0.8	35.8	5.1	23.5
Uruguay	1990	34.8	3.7	12.1	0.3	11.8	0.1	18.9	5.4	11.7
	1994	36.0	4.2	11.0	0.4	10.6	0.1	20.7	6.9	12.4
	1997	38.2	3.6	12.3	0.3	12.0	0.2	22.1	8.1	12.8
	1999	38.6	3.1	12.1	0.4	11.7	0.2	23.2	9.0	13.0
	2000	38.3	3.1	12.0	0.6	11.4	1.3	21.9	9.6	10.7
	2002	43.0	3.2	12.8	0.6	12.2	1.4	25.6	10.7	13.3
	2004	41.6	2.7	12.9	0.6	12.3	1.4	24.6	9.3	13.4
	2005	41.4	3.3	13.9	0.6	13.3	1.1	23.1	8.8	12.8
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^h	1990	39.1	6.5	8.2	0.2	8.0	1.9	22.5	4.0	15.7
	1994	47.8	5.8	11.3	0.4	10.9	1.5	29.2	6.5	19.0
	1997	50.4	4.8	13.8	0.4	13.4	1.5	30.3	6.8	17.4
	1999	54.6	5.2	15.2	0.3	14.9	0.1	34.1	7.2	19.9
	2000	55.6	5.1	14.0	0.3	13.7	0.1	36.4	8.4	20.6
	2002	56.4	5.6	14.0	0.2	13.8	0.1	36.7	7.1	21.9
	2004	55.7	4.7	13.2	0.4	12.8	0.1	37.7	7.4	21.9
	2005	52.9	4.8	13.6	0.8	12.8	0.1	34.4	6.7	20.7

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

^a Refers to establishments employing up to five persons. In the cases of Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama (up to 2002) and Uruguay (1990), includes establishments employing up to four persons.

^b Refers to own-account 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 five persons, so that the figures for these years are not comparable with 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. The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

^g Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH). In the 1994 survey no information was given on the size of 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 21.2

URBAN FEMALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2005 (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
	2004	41.1	1.6	11.4	1.1	10.3	14.5	13.6	4.1	9.5
	2005	40.7	1.8	10.2	1.5	8.7	15.7	13.0	2.8	10.2
(Urban)	1999	44.0	1.7	11.8	1.6	10.2	14.2	16.3	2.1	14.1
	2000	45.2	2.2	12.2	1.1	11.1	14.3	16.5	2.1	14.3
	2002	39.5	2.0	11.8	1.4	10.4	14.0	11.7	2.6	9.1
	2004	41.8	1.7	10.7	1.2	9.5	15.2	14.2	3.7	10.4
	2005	41.7	1.8	10.3	1.4	8.9	16.1	13.5	2.8	10.7
Bolivia	1989	71.5	0.4	6.1	0.9	5.2	12.9	52.1	7.5	43.6
	1994	75.0	3.1	9.0	1.1	7.9	11.2	51.7	9.1	42.1
	1997	75.2	2.1	7.9	0.9	7.0	7.7	57.5	11.1	41.8
	1999	75.3	1.7	7.6	0.7	6.9	6.7	59.3	11.3	45.9
	2000	71.9	1.1	5.2	0.3	4.9	9.4	56.2	8.1	45.7
	2002	76.7	2.1	9.4	0.8	8.6	8.3	56.9	11.3	42.6
	2004	78.7	2.0	9.7	1.1	8.6	10.0	57.0	8.7	43.2
	Brazil ^d	1990	56.8	...	18.8	7.6	11.2	15.6	22.4	0.9
1993		53.2	1.0	6.6	0.6	6.0	19.8	25.8	1.6	17.8
1996		52.7	1.3	8.3	0.7	7.6	19.7	23.4	1.6	17.1
1999		53.1	1.3	8.0	2.7	5.3	20.3	23.5	1.7	17.1
2001		51.6	1.3	8.8	2.9	5.9	20.0	21.5	1.6	16.1
2003		51.1	1.4	8.8	1.0	7.8	19.1	21.8	4.6	12.9
2004		49.7	1.5	8.7	0.9	7.8	18.9	20.6	4.4	12.5
2005		49.7	1.5	8.6	0.9	7.7	18.7	20.9	4.5	12.3
Chile ^e	1990	47.5	0.5	9.5	1.3	8.2	19.4	18.1	4.6	13.3
	1994	42.7	1.5	8.6	0.9	7.7	16.8	15.8	4.0	11.7
	1996	41.5	1.5	9.2	1.0	8.2	16.3	14.5	3.2	10.9
	1998	41.7	2.1	11.1	1.4	9.7	15.2	13.3	2.8	10.3
	2000	39.8	1.6	8.9	1.1	7.8	16.0	13.3	2.8	10.2
	2003	38.0	1.9	7.3	0.9	6.4	16.3	12.5	3.0	9.3
	Colombia ^f	1991	13.6	25.5	6.8
1994		12.7	23.4	5.4	17.9
1997		10.4	28.2	5.2	22.9
1999		11.5	33.4	6.3	26.8
2002		12.7	37.4	7.7	29.2
2004		11.2	38.3	7.6	29.8
2005		11.1	36.8	7.0	29.2
Costa Rica	1990	40.1	1.9	9.5	0.9	8.6	12.0	16.7	7.7	8.9
	1994	40.9	3.1	11.5	1.2	10.3	10.1	16.2	4.9	11.3
	1997	41.3	3.3	10.1	0.9	9.2	9.2	18.7	4.0	14.7
	1999	45.1	3.3	11.0	1.6	9.4	12.6	18.2	4.6	13.5
	2000	41.7	2.3	12.3	1.4	10.9	11.4	15.7	3.2	12.4
	2002	45.1	3.7	11.2	1.1	10.1	9.8	20.4	4.2	16.0
	2004	42.4	3.4	10.1	1.1	9.0	8.4	20.5	3.8	16.6
	2005	44.9	3.7	11.4	2.0	9.4	12.0	17.8	3.5	14.2
Dominican Republic	1992	8.7	26.7	5.2	21.4
	1995	10.5	21.9	4.0	17.8
	1997	46.0	1.1	7.6	0.9	6.7	11.6	25.7	3.6	22.0
	2000	42.8	1.6	8.7	0.6	8.1	9.7	22.8	2.9	19.4
	2002	43.7	1.8	7.3	0.6	6.7	10.0	24.6	2.8	21.3
	2003	43.6	1.6	8.3	0.9	7.4	10.2	23.5	2.8	20.5
	2004	45.9	3.3	8.6	1.4	7.2	12.2	21.8	2.1	19.4
	2005	46.3	2.6	6.1	0.5	5.6	11.4	26.2	2.7	23.1
Ecuador	1990	61.1	2.3	7.6	0.9	6.7	11.6	39.6	7.5	31.0
	1994	62.8	4.4	8.8	1.1	7.7	11.8	37.8	6.2	30.5
	1997	62.8	4.0	9.2	1.2	8.0	10.9	38.7	7.5	30.2
	1999	65.1	4.4	10.3	1.9	8.4	13.1	37.3	5.8	30.5
	2000	61.0	1.7	10.1	1.1	9.0	11.1	38.1	6.5	29.6
	2002	64.1	3.3	10.0	0.9	9.1	10.8	40.0	7.8	30.3
	2004	64.6	3.1	9.7	1.2	8.5	9.7	42.1	5.9	33.8
	2005	63.8	3.4	11.5	1.5	10.0	11.5	37.4	5.1	30.2
El Salvador	1990	67.9	1.4	7.5	0.3	7.2	13.1	45.9	12.1	33.0
	1995	60.8	2.8	6.1	0.3	5.8	9.1	42.8	11.6	30.7
	1997	62.0	3.0	7.6	0.5	7.1	9.4	42.0	8.9	32.8
	1999	59.6	2.6	8.9	0.5	8.4	8.6	39.5	9.5	29.7
	2000	61.1	3.1	8.3	0.6	7.7	8.2	41.5	9.3	32.0
	2001	62.3	3.1	8.4	0.6	7.8	8.4	42.4	9.3	32.8
	2002	61.0	2.9	8.6	0.8	7.8	7.0	42.5	8.9	33.6
	2004	62.5	2.8	9.0	0.6	8.4	7.7	43.0	8.3	34.5
Guatemala	1989	62.7	1.3	8.7	0.8	7.9	18.1	34.6	10.1	22.7
	1998	71.2	2.2	16.7	2.1	14.6	8.4	43.9	11.6	30.2
	2002	65.7	2.9	9.8	1.0	8.8	9.2	43.8	10.6	31.2

Table 21.2 (concluded)

URBAN FEMALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2005 (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					
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	
Mexico ^d	1989	...	1.2	7.1	21.9	4.0	16.7	
	1994	...	1.1	9.6	25.0	4.6	19.1	
	1996	47.6	2.0	11.4	1.5	9.9	8.3	25.9	4.2	20.7	
	1998	49.6	1.9	11.6	0.9	10.7	9.0	27.1	4.4	22.0	
	2000	45.7	1.8	10.6	1.0	9.6	6.5	26.8	3.7	22.4	
	2002	51.0	1.6	14.4	1.3	13.1	9.7	25.3	4.6	20.3	
	2004	50.7	1.3	15.2	2.4	12.8	10.6	23.6	3.1	20.1	
	2005	48.7	1.6	13.7	1.7	12.0	10.1	23.3	2.8	20.2	
	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	
	2004	41.1	1.2	7.4	0.8	6.6	15.7	16.8	2.4	14.3	
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	65.9	2.0	10.2	1.6	8.6	25.6	28.1	6.5	21.1	
	1994	65.0	4.9	9.0	1.5	7.5	24.3	26.8	5.3	21.1	
	1996	65.1	2.8	8.4	0.6	7.8	20.0	33.9	6.3	26.4	
	1999	64.3	2.9	13.0	0.6	12.4	20.1	28.3	5.7	22.1	
	2001	64.6	4.2	10.3	1.9	8.4	21.1	29.0	6.1	22.7	
	2004	68.6	1.9	9.6	1.0	8.6	22.1	35.0	6.2	26.4	
	2005	62.6	2.5	7.5	0.6	6.9	21.4	31.2	4.8	23.3	
	(Urban)	1994	69.9	4.7	8.5	1.0	7.5	23.3	33.4	5.6	27.0
		1996	71.4	2.5	8.1	0.4	7.7	20.8	40.0	5.1	32.4
1999		69.1	2.5	11.3	0.5	10.8	20.7	34.6	5.6	27.5	
2001		71.9	3.7	9.0	1.5	7.5	21.5	37.7	6.0	26.7	
2004		72.2	2.3	9.5	1.0	8.5	21.8	38.6	6.3	27.6	
2005		66.4	2.4	7.8	0.6	7.2	23.0	33.2	5.3	23.6	
Peru	1997	69.3	2.2	8.2	1.3	6.9	9.8	49.1	5.4	40.4	
	1999	71.5	2.5	10.9	1.8	9.1	12.4	45.7	4.8	38.8	
	2001	71.7	2.2	9.3	1.0	8.3	11.3	48.9	4.5	39.6	
	2003	72.5	2.3	9.0	0.9	8.1	11.5	49.7	5.5	37.5	
Uruguay	1990	46.1	1.4	8.5	0.4	8.1	17.1	19.1	6.0	12.3	
	1994	46.3	2.0	8.2	0.6	7.6	16.8	19.3	5.7	13.0	
	1997	46.8	1.6	10.2	0.7	9.5	16.7	18.3	5.0	12.6	
	1999	45.4	1.6	9.3	0.7	8.6	17.4	17.1	4.4	12.2	
	2000	48.2	1.4	11.4	0.8	10.6	19.5	15.9	4.2	11.3	
	2002	49.6	1.4	10.1	0.6	9.5	21.5	16.6	4.6	11.5	
	2004	50.3	1.3	10.7	0.6	10.1	20.3	18.0	4.8	12.5	
	2005	48.0	1.6	14.8	0.7	14.1	14.8	16.8	4.6	11.7	
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^h	1990	39.6	1.7	3.7	0.3	3.4	15.0	19.2	4.4	14.6	
	1994	40.7	1.2	6.6	0.7	5.9	9.0	23.9	4.7	19.0	
	1997	47.9	1.4	6.6	0.8	5.8	9.7	30.2	5.0	24.6	
	1999	52.2	1.5	7.7	0.7	7.0	5.6	37.4	5.9	30.6	
	2000	52.9	1.5	7.4	0.5	6.9	5.6	38.4	5.6	32.0	
	2002	56.6	2.0	7.4	0.7	6.7	6.6	40.6	5.4	33.8	
	2004	53.6	1.8	7.1	0.7	6.4	6.3	38.4	5.0	32.0	
	2005	50.2	1.3	7.4	1.3	6.1	5.0	36.5	4.8	30.4	

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

^a Refers to establishments employing up to five persons. In the cases of Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama (up to 2002) and Uruguay (1990), includes establishments employing up to four persons.

^b Refers to own-account 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 five persons, so that the figures for these years are not comparable with 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. The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

^g Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH). In the 1994 survey no information was given on the size of 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 22

OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND AGE IN URBAN AREAS, AROUND 1990, 1994, 1997, 1999, 2003, 2004 AND 2005 ^a																																				
Country	Sex	Age groups																																		
		Total						15 – 24						25 – 34						35 – 44						45 and over										
		1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	Total	5.9	13.0	14.3	14.7	19.0	13.5	11.5	13.0	22.8	24.2	24.3	33.8	29.4	25.8	4.9	10.0	12.7	12.0	15.4	11.4	11.0	4.1	10.5	10.6	11.6	18.1	8.5	6.2	3.8	10.3	11.6	12.9	14.1	9.9	8.1
	Females	5.7	11.5	12.4	13.4	18.5	11.9	9.9	11.5	20.3	21.1	22.8	31.7	26.9	23.2	5.0	8.8	10.1	11.3	15.3	9.3	8.4	3.9	7.3	8.6	8.0	14.8	6.3	4.8	4.2	10.5	11.1	12.7	16.7	9.2	7.2
Bolivia	Total	9.4	3.2	3.7	7.1	6.4	6.0	...	17.4	5.8	6.4	15.3	11.2	12.0	...	8.5	2.8	3.7	6.3	7.1	5.2	...	5.1	2.0	2.9	3.8	4.6	3.3	...	6.6	2.1	2.1	3.7	3.3	3.3	...
	Females	9.5	3.4	3.7	6.0	5.2	4.9	...	18.2	6.3	5.8	12.5	9.2	10.1	...	7.5	2.5	3.4	4.8	4.8	3.3	...	5.5	2.1	3.1	2.3	3.2	2.0	...	8.5	2.9	2.8	4.9	4.0	3.9	...
Brazil	Total	4.5	7.4	8.0	11.4	11.1	10.2	10.7	8.3	14.3	15.1	21.7	21.7	20.9	22.2	4.4	6.9	7.4	10.5	10.4	9.3	9.7	2.4	4.3	5.0	7.0	7.1	6.3	6.3	1.5	2.6	3.8	5.5	5.4	4.6	4.7
	Females	4.8	6.4	6.7	9.4	9.0	8.0	8.3	8.7	12.4	12.8	18.4	17.7	17.1	18.1	4.7	5.5	5.6	8.0	7.5	6.4	6.7	2.8	3.8	4.2	5.5	5.8	4.5	4.3	2.0	2.7	3.7	5.3	5.2	4.2	4.1
Chile	Total	8.7	6.8	6.0	10.1	10.1	17.9	16.1	13.2	21.8	22.1	8.3	6.5	5.9	9.9	10.2	5.1	3.7	4.1	7.4	7.4	5.3	3.7	3.4	6.3	6.6
	Females	8.1	5.9	5.1	9.4	8.5	17.0	14.0	10.7	20.4	19.0	7.5	5.5	5.0	9.3	9.0	4.8	3.0	3.6	6.4	5.6	5.6	3.9	3.7	6.7	6.0
Colombia ^b	Total	9.3	8.0	11.8	19.2	17.2	15.1	13.3	19.7	16.2	24.3	36.6	32.0	29.7	27.4	8.3	7.6	11.8	17.8	17.0	15.4	13.7	4.2	4.7	6.5	13.2	11.4	10.0	8.7	3.8	3.3	5.8	10.3	10.1	8.3	7.1
	Females	6.7	5.4	9.7	16.2	14.8	12.6	11.0	15.3	11.9	20.7	32.0	28.7	25.6	23.7	5.5	4.4	8.6	14.0	13.4	11.3	10.4	2.8	3.4	5.4	10.5	9.2	7.7	6.3	3.7	2.9	6.1	10.6	10.4	8.6	7.1
Costa Rica	Total	5.3	4.2	5.8	6.1	6.8	6.7	6.9	10.5	9.7	13.0	14.8	16.4	15.0	15.9	4.9	3.8	4.4	5.3	5.1	5.2	4.8	2.5	2.3	3.9	3.0	3.7	4.6	4.9	2.9	1.6	3.0	2.3	3.3	3.6	3.8
	Females	4.9	3.7	5.3	5.3	6.2	5.7	5.6	9.8	8.6	11.4	14.8	14.7	13.2	13.2	4.1	3.7	3.6	3.8	4.4	4.0	3.2	2.3	1.5	3.9	2.1	3.0	3.1	4.0	3.1	1.6	3.1	1.9	3.4	3.8	3.5
Dominican Republic	Total	19.7	17.0	17.0	13.8	17.8	20.4	18.6	34.1	30.6	27.8	18.8	31.8	36.3	34.2	17.3	16.1	15.7	13.7	18.0	18.0	20.0	9.2	10.0	10.2	13.3	13.6	15.0	14.1	7.4	7.4	8.7	9.4	7.9	12.7	5.6
	Females	11.3	12.1	10.9	8.8	12.0	12.6	12.1	22.3	24.0	20.0	12.9	24.8	26.6	26.6	9.2	10.4	8.0	8.0	10.2	8.7	11.5	5.0	6.3	6.9	7.5	7.0	6.8	6.5	4.0	5.8	6.1	7.1	6.9	8.5	4.2
Ecuador	Total	6.1	7.1	9.2	14.2	9.1	9.9	7.7	13.5	14.9	18.9	25.9	17.4	20.5	15.5	6.4	6.6	9.7	13.6	9.2	9.5	8.3	2.7	3.9	4.7	9.0	5.9	6.3	5.8	1.3	2.7	3.8	8.3	5.2	5.4	3.5
	Females	4.2	5.7	6.9	10.5	5.8	7.5	5.6	11.2	12.7	15.1	20.0	12.0	16.8	12.2	3.2	4.4	6.4	8.0	4.7	6.1	5.1	1.7	3.1	3.6	5.5	3.1	3.6	3.6	1.3	2.9	3.4	8.6	4.3	4.9	2.9
El Salvador	Total	9.9	6.8	7.3	6.9	6.2	6.5	...	19.3	14.0	14.6	13.9	11.7	12.7	...	9.2	6.8	7.7	6.1	5.9	6.4	...	5.7	2.6	4.4	4.4	4.5	4.5	...	4.3	3.4	3.5	3.8	3.9	3.8	...
	Females	10.0	8.3	8.8	8.9	8.6	8.8	...	17.7	15.4	16.1	16.2	14.2	14.9	...	8.4	7.5	8.1	6.0	7.3	8.4	...	7.0	3.7	6.1	6.0	6.9	6.6	...	6.5	5.4	5.4	6.1	6.7	6.2	...
Guatemala	Total	3.5	2.8	6.0	7.1	4.8	11.1	2.9	3.8	3.8	1.6	1.8	3.2	1.2	0.9	3.4
	Females	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
Honduras	Total	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
	Females	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
Mexico	Total	3.3	4.5	5.1	3.2	3.4	4.1	4.1	8.1	9.4	12.5	7.4	7.2	9.7	9.8	2.4	2.9	3.2	2.8	3.5	3.6	3.7	0.7	2.3	1.7	1.5	2.0	1.9	0.8	3.1	2.8	1.1	1.8	2.0	2.2	
	Females	3.4	5.1	5.8	3.6	3.9	4.7	4.9	8.4	10.0	13.8	8.1	8.2	10.6	11.3	2.5	3.0	3.4	3.1	3.9	4.2	3.9	0.9	2.8	2.1	1.8	1.6	2.4	2.6	1.0	4.2	3.9	1.5	2.2	2.7	3.1

Table 22 (concluded)

		OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND AGE IN URBAN AREAS, AROUND 1990, 1994, 1997, 1999, 2003, 2004 AND 2005 ^a																																		
Country	Sex	Age groups																																		
		Total							15 – 24							25 – 34							35 – 44							45 and over						
		1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005
Nicaragua	Total	...	14.1	13.1	13.8	12.5	20.1	20.9	20.9	21.5	14.5	13.7	11.0	10.2	11.1	9.2	12.3	9.7	10.6	7.4	10.5	6.3
	Males	...	16.5	13.6	14.0	13.1	20.3	18.9	17.9	21.8	17.3	13.2	10.3	10.7	13.5	11.2	14.3	9.6	13.9	10.1	12.9	6.6
	Females	...	10.8	12.6	13.6	11.7	19.7	23.8	25.8	20.9	10.6	14.3	11.7	9.6	7.9	7.2	9.9	9.8	6.3	3.9	7.0	5.8
Panama	Total	18.6	15.7	15.4	13.1	19.4	14.0	12.1	35.1	31.0	31.5	26.9	35.1	30.0	26.3	20.6	15.1	14.9	12.7	17.6	13.8	12.2	9.5	9.7	9.7	8.3	11.3	9.3	7.8	6.9	5.9	6.9	5.6	17.1	7.0	6.4
	Males	15.9	12.4	13.3	10.6	16.5	11.5	10.0	31.9	27.5	29.2	22.5	31.7	26.8	23.1	16.5	9.7	10.9	8.7	14.1	9.6	9.3	7.4	6.8	7.5	6.1	8.3	6.3	5.1	7.0	5.7	7.4	6.1	14.3	6.5	6.2
	Females	22.8	21.0	18.2	17.0	23.5	17.6	15.0	39.9	36.9	34.6	33.5	40.3	34.8	30.9	26.3	22.7	20.1	18.8	22.0	19.1	15.9	12.5	14.0	12.2	11.0	15.3	13.0	11.2	6.5	6.2	6.0	4.6	21.1	7.8	6.6
Paraguay (Asunción)	Total	6.3	4.4	8.4	10.1	11.5	10.5	8.0	15.5	8.3	17.8	19.5	21.4	20.0	17.4	4.8	3.2	5.2	6.7	11.8	7.8	6.0	2.3	2.9	3.4	5.9	4.5	5.5	4.1	1.4	2.6	5.8	8.4	6.4	8.3	5.2
	Males	6.2	5.1	8.2	10.2	11.0	8.8	7.0	14.7	9.9	17.4	21.6	21.0	16.1	16.8	5.0	3.4	4.2	5.2	9.5	7.5	2.3	3.2	3.1	1.9	6.2	3.0	3.0	3.1	2.0	3.9	7.6	8.8	8.5	8.7	6.9
	Females	6.5	3.5	8.7	10.1	12.1	12.5	9.2	16.5	6.5	18.2	17.1	21.8	24.2	18.0	4.7	3.0	6.5	8.8	14.3	8.3	9.9	1.1	2.6	5.1	5.5	6.2	8.8	5.5	0.0	0.7	3.4	7.7	3.9	7.9	3.3
Peru	Total	10.7	7.3	6.8	18.2	15.3	15.4	7.4	5.5	3.9	6.0	4.1	2.8	10.5	4.5	5.5
	Males	8.1	7.0	7.3	15.3	15.3	18.0	4.8	4.7	3.8	2.6	3.8	2.6	9.0	5.0	5.1
	Females	13.8	7.7	6.2	21.3	15.2	12.1	10.3	6.3	4.1	9.7	4.5	2.9	13.0	3.7	6.1
Uruguay	Total	8.9	9.7	11.4	11.2	16.9	13.0	12.1	24.4	24.7	26.3	25.8	37.9	33.0	29.2	8.2	8.4	10.5	10.0	16.4	12.9	12.8	4.3	5.5	7.1	7.2	12.1	8.0	8.2	3.5	3.8	5.3	6.1	9.6	6.8	6.2
	Males	7.3	7.3	8.9	8.6	13.4	10.2	9.5	22.2	19.8	21.8	21.4	32.0	27.9	25.1	6.0	4.9	7.5	7.2	12.7	9.0	8.7	2.5	3.4	4.4	3.7	7.8	4.6	5.1	3.0	3.4	4.4	4.9	7.7	5.4	4.8
	Females	11.1	13.0	14.7	14.5	21.1	16.6	15.3	27.5	31.5	32.7	31.9	46.1	40.2	34.7	11.0	12.8	14.3	13.5	20.9	17.6	17.5	6.4	7.8	10.2	11.1	16.8	12.0	11.4	4.4	4.5	6.7	7.7	12.1	8.6	7.9
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^c	Total	10.2	8.9	10.6	14.5	16.8	13.9	11.4	19.3	17.1	19.8	25.7	28.0	23.0	19.8	11.3	9.1	10.6	14.7	17.6	14.3	11.8	5.9	5.3	6.8	10.2	11.9	9.9	8.0	4.5	4.2	5.5	7.8	10.7	9.9	7.6
	Males	11.2	9.1	9.0	13.6	14.4	12.3	10.3	19.9	17.2	16.4	22.2	23.7	19.6	17.3	12.3	8.8	8.3	12.8	13.4	11.5	9.6	6.9	5.9	5.7	10.1	10.1	8.4	7.4	5.5	4.9	5.6	9.4	11.2	10.6	8.2
	Females	8.4	8.3	13.6	16.1	20.3	16.4	13.0	18.0	17.0	26.6	32.6	34.8	28.6	24.1	9.6	9.6	14.3	17.7	23.3	18.4	15.1	4.0	4.2	8.5	10.4	14.4	12.0	8.9	1.7	2.5	5.3	4.7	9.8	8.7	6.5

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

^a For the exact years when surveys were carried out in each country, see table 21.

^b The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

^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 23

**OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND YEARS OF SCHOOLING IN URBAN AREAS,
AROUND 1990, 1994, 1997, 1999, 2003, 2004 Y 2005^a**

Country	Sex	Years of schooling																																		
		Total							0-5					6-9					10-12					13 or more												
		1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005
Argentina ^b (Greater Buenos Aires)	Total	5.9	13.0	14.3	14.7	19.0	13.5	10.6	6.8	14.0	16.8	17.0	17.1	15.1	9.7	5.9	...	16.6	17.4	20.7	15.3	12.0	3.0	15.0	14.4	14.5	21.5	16.0	12.8	...	7.7	9.4	10.2	14.3	8.0	6.7
	Males	5.7	11.5	12.4	13.4	18.5	11.9	9.2	6.1	13.1	15.6	19.4	23.5	15.9	10.2	4.7	...	15.7	15.8	20.6	12.7	10.6	3.4	12.1	9.8	12.2	18.5	13.8	9.9	...	5.9	7.6	8.1	13.4	6.5	5.8
Bolivia	Total	9.4	3.2	3.7	7.1	6.4	6.0	...	7.1	2.4	2.7	3.4	4.2	12.0	...	9.3	2.8	2.1	7.9	7.3	5.2	...	13.1	3.7	5.4	10.5	7.5	3.3	...	8.1	3.8	4.1	6.0	7.0	3.3	...
	Males	9.5	3.4	3.7	6.0	5.2	4.9	...	9.0	3.1	3.2	2.8	4.0	10.1	...	8.2	3.1	1.8	7.0	5.9	3.3	...	12.5	3.9	4.6	7.5	6.0	2.0	...	7.9	3.1	4.7	5.5	4.6	3.9	...
Brazil	Total	4.5	7.4	8.0	11.4	11.1	10.2	10.7	4.2	6.5	7.5	9.9	9.2	8.3	8.3	6.2	11.0	11.3	15.6	15.0	13.5	14.6	4.5	7.3	7.5	12.2	12.4	11.8	12.0	1.8	3.3	3.4	5.2	5.2	4.8	5.4
	Males	4.8	6.4	6.7	9.4	9.0	8.0	8.3	4.8	5.9	6.5	8.5	7.8	6.5	6.6	6.2	8.8	9.0	12.7	12.3	10.5	11.4	4.6	5.9	5.8	9.5	9.3	8.9	8.7	1.6	2.4	2.6	4.0	4.5	4.0	4.7
Chile	Total	8.7	6.8	6.0	10.1	10.1	9.3	5.9	6.7	12.8	10.8	10.1	8.1	6.7	12.2	10.6	9.2	7.8	6.6	10.2	11.2	6.3	4.4	4.0	7.1	7.5
	Males	8.1	5.9	5.1	9.4	8.5	9.3	5.8	6.8	14.0	10.5	10.3	7.4	5.9	12.1	9.6	7.9	6.5	5.2	8.7	8.9	4.9	3.3	3.4	5.7	6.2
Colombia ^c	Total	9.3	8.0	11.8	19.2	17.2	15.1	13.3	6.6	6.2	9.3	15.3	13.1	11.0	9.1	11.3	9.7	14.5	23.2	19.3	16.2	13.9	12.4	10.2	14.7	23.2	21.1	18.6	17.0	7.4	5.2	7.6	14.1	16.1	15.2	13.1
	Males	6.7	5.4	9.7	16.2	14.8	12.6	11.0	5.1	4.7	8.7	13.8	11.4	9.7	8.0	8.2	6.3	11.5	19.2	16.9	12.9	11.5	8.1	6.5	11.4	18.6	17.6	15.1	13.8	0.6	3.4	5.9	12.4	14.5	13.3	11.2
Costa Rica	Total	5.3	4.2	5.8	6.1	6.8	6.7	6.9	6.4	5.0	5.5	9.2	9.7	7.8	8.0	6.0	5.0	7.3	7.8	8.4	7.7	8.5	5.7	4.1	6.1	4.7	6.2	7.6	7.3	3.0	2.7	3.4	2.8	3.4	3.8	3.5
	Males	4.9	3.7	5.3	5.3	6.2	5.7	5.6	6.9	4.3	4.8	6.8	11.1	7.4	7.4	5.4	3.7	6.4	7.1	7.3	6.6	6.8	4.6	4.3	5.4	3.6	4.6	5.8	5.4	2.3	2.7	3.2	2.1	2.7	3.4	2.5
Dominican Republic	Total	19.7	17.0	17.0	13.8	17.8	20.4	18.6	15.6	13.6	15.3	12.0	15.0	18.1	14.6	19.6	18.7	18.9	13.5	18.8	20.7	19.0	25.2	21.4	18.1	16.4	21.5	25.3	23.5	16.6	13.4	15.1	12.9	14.9	16.5	15.4
	Males	11.3	12.1	10.9	8.8	12.0	12.6	12.1	7.0	10.2	10.4	8.5	9.6	9.9	9.0	11.1	12.8	11.2	8.3	12.8	11.4	11.8	15.5	14.3	11.5	9.1	14.5	16.5	15	11.2	10.9	10.0	9.8	10.5	12.5	12.2
Ecuador	Total	6.1	7.1	9.2	14.2	9.1	9.9	7.7	2.6	5.0	5.9	9.0	7.5	8.7	5.9	4.8	5.7	7.8	13.8	9.4	10.3	7.0	10.3	10.2	12.9	19.0	11.1	12.4	10.2	6.1	6.7	8.1	11.5	7.3	7.5	6.8
	Males	4.2	5.7	6.9	10.5	5.8	7.5	5.6	3.0	4.9	6.0	8.5	6.1	8.6	3.4	3.3	4.9	6.4	10.9	5.7	7.4	4.9	6.8	7.8	9.2	12.8	6.6	8.8	7.4	4.2	4.9	5.4	7.7	5.0	5.6	5.4
El Salvador	Total	9.9	6.8	7.3	6.9	6.2	6.5	...	8.1	6.0	5.3	4.9	5.4	6.0	...	9.9	6.8	8.0	7.4	5.9	6.9	...	14.6	9.2	9.6	9.3	8.2	7.0	...	7.6	4.9	6.4	6.1	4.9	6.1	...
	Males	10.0	8.3	8.8	8.9	8.6	8.8	...	11.0	9.2	8.8	7.8	9.8	10.8	...	9.1	8.1	9.4	9.4	8.6	9.0	...	11.8	9.6	9.8	11.0	9.6	8.2	...	6.9	4.7	5.5	6.5	5.2	6.4	...
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	4.1	4.1	1.3	3.9	3.5	2.1	1.9	2.9	3.2	4.3	5.0	5.8	2.6	2.8	4.3	4.3	3.8	4.9	5.2	3.7	3.7	4.9	4.0	2.4	2.6	4.6	3.9	4.4	3.7	4.3
	Males	3.4	5.1	5.8	3.6	3.9	4.7	4.9	1.6	5.4	4.8	3.2	2.8	4.2	5.0	4.4	5.7	6.7	3.0	3.5	4.9	5.1	4.4	5.3	5.7	4.0	4.1	5.4	4.9	2.1	2.8	4.2	3.9	4.6	4.0	4.2
	Total	3.1	3.6	3.9	2.6	2.6	3.1	2.9	0.4	1.2	1.2	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.6	4.0	3.7	4.3	1.9	1.7	3.1	2.8	2.7	4.2	4.2	3.2	3.1	4.3	2.9	3.3	5.2	5.5	3.9	4.1	3.4	4.3
	Females	3.1	3.6	3.9	2.6	2.6	3.1	2.9	0.4	1.2	1.2	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.6	4.0	3.7	4.3	1.9	1.7	3.1	2.8	2.7	4.2	4.2	3.2	3.1	4.3	2.9	3.3	5.2	5.5	3.9	4.1	3.4	4.3

Table 23 (concluded)

		OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND YEARS OF SCHOOLING IN URBAN AREAS, AROUND 1990, 1994, 1997, 1999, 2003, 2004 Y 2005 ^a																																			
Country	Sex	Years of schooling																																			
		Total							0-5							6-9							10-12							13 or more							
		1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	1990	1994	1997	1999	2003	2004	2005	
Nicaragua	Total	...	14.1	13.1	13.8	12.5	14.1	10.9	11.8	8.7	15.0	14.3	14.2	14.3	12.6	14.9	18.5	16.6	13.6	11.6	12.4	11.5	
	Males	...	16.5	13.6	14.0	13.1	16.4	12.5	13.8	9.1	16.8	14.7	13.0	15.4	14.8	15.1	19.2	19.5	19.2	10.7	10.8	9.8	
	Females	...	10.8	12.6	13.6	11.7	11.1	9.0	9.0	8.0	12.0	13.8	16.2	12.5	10.2	14.7	17.8	14.1	4.8	12.7	14.0	13.6	
Panama	Total	18.6	15.7	15.4	13.1	19.4	14.0	12.1	10.7	9.6	12.1	7.2	40.3	9.1	6.2	18.4	16.0	16.6	14.2	19.1	13.6	11.3	24.9	19.7	18.2	16.2	20.2	16.9	14.7	14.8	12.5	11.3	9.6	13.2	12.5	11.3	
	Males	15.9	12.4	13.3	10.6	16.5	11.5	10.0	9.6	9.6	13.6	7.1	34.1	9.3	6.9	16.5	13.2	15.6	12.4	16.9	12.4	10.2	20.5	13.9	14.4	11.7	16.2	12.8	11.9	12.9	9.9	8.2	7.1	9.9	8.9	8.1	
	Females	22.8	21.0	18.2	17.0	23.5	17.6	15.0	13.9	9.3	9.1	7.7	49.7	8.8	4.8	22.5	21.6	18.4	18.0	23.4	16.0	13.3	30.4	27.7	23.5	22.7	25.5	22.7	18.6	16.6	15.1	14.2	12.0	16.1	15.6	14.2	
Paraguay (Asunción)	Total	6.3	4.4	8.4	10.1	11.5	10.5	8.0	7.0	9.2	7.8	16.3	10.3	8.2	7.7	6.4	5.2	9.4	9.8	12.5	10.4	9.2	8.4	4.5	10.6	11.1	13.8	13.5	8.2	3.7	1.3	3.4	5.3	7.8	7.6	6.1	
	Males	6.2	5.1	8.2	10.2	11.0	8.8	7.0	4.2	7.6	9.3	19.8	9.5	9.0	10.5	6.7	6.2	9.0	9.8	13.9	8.6	9.7	7.9	4.1	8.8	9.9	13.9	10.0	5.1	2.9	1.1	3.4	7.1	4.9	6.8	3.8	
	Females	6.5	3.5	8.7	10.1	12.1	12.5	9.2	4.7	2.5	5.9	12.0	11.0	7.2	5.2	6.0	3.8	9.8	9.7	13.7	12.7	5.6	9.1	4.9	12.9	12.8	13.7	18.4	12.5	4.8	1.5	3.5	12.0	10.8	12.5	8.3	
Peru	Total	10.7	7.3	6.8	9.4	4.9	3.3	11.5	10.0	9.8	12.8	7.1	7.8	8.1	7.7	6.3
	Males	8.1	7.0	7.3	7.5	5.8	3.4	10.4	10.1	10.7	8.9	7.0	7.4	5.6	5.8	7.5
	Females	13.8	7.7	6.2	11.0	4.1	3.3	12.9	9.8	8.7	18.2	7.3	8.5	11.4	10.2	4.8
Uruguay	Total	8.9	9.7	11.4	11.2	16.9	13.0	12.1	5.6	5.7	8.1	8.9	13.2	10.9	10.3	10.2	12.4	13.2	13.1	19.1	14.7	13.9	10.0	9.5	11.8	11.4	17.8	14.3	12.8	5.9	4.9	6.8	6.3	12.2	8.8	8.5	
	Males	7.3	7.3	8.9	8.6	13.4	10.2	9.5	5.6	5.2	6.7	7.4	10.6	8.3	7.6	8.4	9.1	10.1	9.8	15.1	10.8	10.6	7.5	6.1	8.9	8.6	13.3	11.3	9.6	4.4	4.0	4.8	4.3	10.2	7.7	7.2	
	Females	11.1	13.0	14.7	14.5	21.1	16.6	15.3	5.6	6.5	10.7	11.9	18.3	15.6	15.3	13.0	17.5	18.1	18.2	25.3	20.8	18.9	12.8	13.3	14.9	14.5	22.7	17.8	16.3	7.2	5.6	8.3	7.8	13.8	9.8	9.4	
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^d	Total	10.2	8.9	10.6	14.5	16.8	13.9	11.4	9.7	7.9	9.4	11.7	13.4	12.0	9.3	12.1	9.8	11.0	15.5	17.3	14.2	11.4	9.3	9.1	12.7	16.2	18.8	15.3	12.7	6.1	6.7	8.4	12.7	16.6	13.3	11.3	
	Males	11.2	9.1	9.0	13.6	14.4	12.3	10.3	11.4	8.2	7.9	12.2	12.1	11.2	8.7	12.9	10.4	9.5	14.8	14.8	12.7	10.7	9.7	9.0	10.6	13.7	16.0	13.0	11.2	5.6	5.9	6.6	11.2	14.3	11.8	9.7	
	Females	8.4	8.3	13.6	16.1	20.3	16.4	13.0	5.4	7.1	13.4	10.6	16.2	13.9	10.5	10.1	8.5	14.3	17.0	21.6	17.1	12.5	8.7	9.2	15.5	19.7	22.3	18.3	14.9	6.7	7.8	10.4	14.0	18.6	14.6	12.7	

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

^a For the exact years when surveys were carried out in each country, see table 21.

^b For 1990, the levels of schooling for which figures are given are 0 to 6 years, 7 to 9 years and 10 or more years, respectively. For 1994, however, the 0 to 5 category actually refers to between 0 and 9 years of schooling.

^c The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

^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.

Income

Table 24

AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2005

(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
	2004	5.0	17.1	4.0	4.0	4.0	6.8	4.0	2.9	1.7	6.6	5.1
2005	5.7	24.6	4.4	5.1	4.2	6.9	4.2	3.1	1.8	7.0	5.8	
Bolivia	1989	4.2	16.2	3.9	4.1	3.5	7.7	3.5	2.6	1.6	4.1	3.8
	1994	3.5	10.3	3.2	3.9	3.0	7.3	2.7	2.0	1.0	2.5	2.2
	1997	3.6	10.1	3.9	4.6	3.6	8.8	3.2	2.2	1.1	2.5	2.3
	1999	3.4	8.2	4.1	4.7	3.7	7.4	3.8	2.4	1.8	2.3	2.2
	2002	3.2	7.3	4.0	5.2	3.7	7.7	4.0	2.4	2.0	2.0	1.9
	2004	2.9	7.6	3.4	5.0	3.1	7.4	3.6	1.9	1.4	1.7	1.6
Brazil ^c	1990	4.7	16.1	4.1	...	4.1	8.2	3.8	2.6	1.0	3.8	3.4
	1993	4.3	15.6	4.2	6.4	3.6	10.9	3.5 ^d	2.0	1.1	3.1	2.7
	1996	5.0	19.1	4.5	7.0	3.9	10.7	3.9 ^d	2.5	1.5	4.2	3.7
	1999	4.4	14.7	4.1	6.6	3.5	6.9	3.2 ^d	2.1	1.4	3.2	2.8
	2001	4.3	14.8	4.1	6.7	3.5	6.9	3.1 ^d	2.1	1.4	3.2	2.8
	2003	4.0	13.4	3.8	6.2	3.3	6.9	3.4 ^d	2.0	1.3	2.8	2.2
	2004	4.0	13.3	3.7	6.2	3.2	6.7	3.3 ^d	2.0	1.3	2.8	2.2
2005	4.0	13.2	3.8	6.3	3.3	6.7	3.4 ^d	2.1	1.4	2.8	2.2	
Chile ^e	1990	4.7	24.8	3.8	...	3.8	7.4	3.5	2.4	1.4	5.4	5.0
	1994	6.2	34.2	4.9	...	4.9	9.6	4.0	2.9	2.0	6.3	4.9
	1996	6.8	33.7	5.1	6.5	4.8	11.2	3.8	2.9	2.0	8.3	6.4
	1998	7.4	33.8	5.6	...	5.6	11.7	4.3	3.0	2.2	8.6	6.5
	2000	7.2	32.7	5.8	7.4	5.5	13.3	4.1	3.0	2.4	7.1	5.2
	2003	7.4	36.7	5.7	7.7	5.3	12.4	4.0	2.9	2.4	7.8	5.8
Colombia ^f	1991	2.9	7.4	2.7	3.9	2.5	5.3	2.4	...	1.3	2.4	2.2
	1994	3.8	13.1	3.4	5.5	3.1	7.9	2.6	...	1.7	3.4	3.0
	1997	3.8	10.9	3.6	5.7	3.2	6.9	2.7	...	1.6	3.2	2.9
	1999	3.3	9.5	3.7	6.3	3.2	6.8	2.8	...	2.1	2.2	1.9
	2002	3.0	7.2	3.6	6.4	3.1	6.3	3.0	...	1.7	1.8	1.5
	2004	3.1	7.6	3.7	6.1	3.3	7.0	3.0	...	1.8	1.8	1.6
2005	3.3	8.6	3.8	6.6	3.4	6.8	3.2	...	1.9	1.9	1.7	
Costa Rica	1990	5.2	6.8	5.4	7.3	4.4	9.0	4.3	3.2	1.5	3.7	3.4
	1994	5.7	10.8	5.5	7.8	4.6	8.4	4.4	3.6	1.6	4.4	4.0
	1997	5.6	8.4	5.8	8.2	4.8	9.0	4.8	3.2	1.8	3.8	3.6
	1999	6.0	10.4	5.9	8.8	5.1	9.7	4.8	3.6	1.7	4.4	4.0
	2002	6.5	10.2	6.8	9.5	6.0	9.7	5.9	3.7	2.0	3.7	3.1
	2004	6.3	8.2	7.1	9.8	6.2	10.0	5.9	3.9	2.2	3.1	2.6
2005	5.5	7.3	6.0	8.8	5.1	8.1	5.1	3.3	1.6	3.2	2.6	
Dominican Republic	1997	4.4	13.5	3.9	4.7	3.7	7.5	3.5	2.4	1.4	4.3	4.0
	2000	4.6	18.5	3.9	4.8	3.6	7.7	3.3	2.3	1.2	4.7	4.3
	2002	4.7	19.8	3.9	4.7	3.7	7.0	3.5	2.3	1.3	4.4	4.1
	2004	3.9	16.8	2.3	2.7	2.2	4.3	2.1	1.4	0.9	4.7	4.4
	2005	3.1	7.8	3.0	3.5	2.9	5.6	2.7	1.6	1.3	2.6	2.4
	Ecuador	1990	2.8	4.8	3.2	4.1	2.8	6.0	2.9	2.3	0.8	1.9
1994		2.9	6.6	2.8	3.5	2.5	5.2	2.6	1.9	0.9	2.2	2.0
1997		3.0	6.0	3.0	3.9	2.7	5.7	2.9	1.8	0.9	2.2	2.1
1999		2.9	7.6	2.8	3.8	2.6	4.5	2.9	1.7	0.9	1.8	1.8
2002		3.5	8.7	3.4	4.7	3.1	5.0	3.4	2.1	1.5	2.6	2.4
2004		3.3	7.2	3.7	5.5	3.3	5.6	3.5	2.2	1.7	2.0	1.9
2005		3.6	8.6	3.6	5.8	3.2	5.5	3.5	2.2	1.7	2.4	2.2
El Salvador	1995	3.4	8.6	3.5	5.3	3.0	6.9	2.8	2.0	1.0	2.1	2.0
	1997	3.8	9.9	4.5	5.9	3.8	7.8	3.2	2.3	1.9	2.2	2.1
	1999	4.2	9.9	4.6	6.9	4.0	8.2	3.7	2.4	2.1	2.5	2.3
	2001	3.9	9.2	4.2	6.6	3.7	7.4	3.6	2.3	2.0	2.4	2.2
	2004	3.4	7.1	3.7	6.1	3.2	5.3	3.2	2.3	2.1	2.3	2.2
Guatemala	1989	3.5	17.7	3.0	4.8	2.5	5.2	2.6	1.7	1.4	3.2	2.9
	1998	3.4	15.7	3.1	4.5	2.9	5.2	3.4	2.0	0.6	2.2	2.1
	2002	2.9	7.4	3.3	5.6	3.0	5.4	3.2	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.2
Honduras	1990	2.8	16.4	3.1	4.9	2.5	6.5	2.7	1.6	0.8	1.6	1.5
	1994	2.3	7.3	2.2	3.4	2.0	4.5	1.9	1.3	0.5	1.7	1.6
	1997	2.0	6.5	2.1	2.9	1.9	4.2	1.8	1.1	0.5	1.3	1.2
	1999	2.0	5.1	2.1	2.9	1.9	3.0	2.1	1.1	0.5	1.2	1.2
	2002	2.3	5.1	2.7	4.3	2.4	5.3	2.3	1.4	0.8	1.3	1.2
	2003	2.3	4.7	3.0	4.9	2.6	6.6	2.5	1.5	1.2	1.0	1.0

Table 24 (concluded)

AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005 (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		
Mexico ^a	1989	4.4	21.7	3.5	...	3.5	6.9	3.1	...	1.4	4.8	4.4
	1994	4.4	18.3	3.9	5.0	3.6	9.5	3.0	...	1.2	3.7	3.3
	1996	3.7	15.2	3.3	4.9	2.9	6.4	2.8	1.7	1.2	2.5	2.3
	1998	4.1	18.2	3.5	5.3	3.1	6.9	3.1	1.9	1.3	3.0	2.6
	2000	4.3	16.5	3.9	5.2	3.6	7.7	3.4	2.1	1.3	3.4	3.0
	2002	4.1	16.1	3.6	5.4	3.2	7.1	3.3	2.1	1.4	3.5	3.2
	2004	4.1	16.5	3.6	...	3.6	6.7	3.5	2.2	1.4	4.0	3.3
2005	4.4	21.3	3.7	...	3.7	6.9	3.4	2.1	1.6	4.0	3.4	
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
	2004	5.5	11.5	6.0	8.9	5.0	9.5	5.4	3.1	1.6	2.9	2.5
	2005	5.2	11.0	5.8	8.6	4.8	8.7	5.2	2.9	1.7	2.6	2.3
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	3.4	10.3	2.5	3.4	2.2	4.7	2.6	1.8	0.8	3.8	3.6
	1994	3.6	10.0	3.0	4.4	2.7	6.7	2.7	2.0	1.3	2.9	2.9
	1996	3.6	10.6	3.3	5.1	2.9	6.5	3.1	2.3	1.2	2.8	2.5
	1999	3.6	8.9	3.5	4.6	3.2	6.5	3.4	2.3	1.7	2.7	2.3
	2001	3.4	8.1	3.4	5.2	3.0	4.5	3.6	2.2	1.6	2.2	1.7
	2004	2.6	8.3	2.6	3.7	2.4	4.2	2.8	1.8	1.5	1.6	1.4
	2005	2.9	9.6	2.9	4.4	2.5	3.9	3.0	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.3
(Urban)	1994	3.3	9.6	2.8	4.3	2.5	6.6	2.6	1.9	1.2	2.5	2.5
	1996	3.3	9.7	3.1	5.1	2.6	6.3	3.0	2.1	1.1	2.5	2.3
	1999	3.3	8.8	3.3	4.8	2.9	6.7	3.1	2.1	1.6	2.2	1.9
	2001	3.1	8.6	3.1	5.2	2.6	4.5	3.3	1.9	1.4	1.8	1.5
	2004	2.5	7.7	2.4	3.5	2.2	4.1	2.7	1.7	1.4	1.7	1.5
	2005	2.7	8.8	2.7	4.1	2.3	4.2	2.9	1.7	1.4	1.5	1.3
Peru	1997	3.3	7.9	3.8	4.1	3.7	6.1	3.9	2.3	2.3	1.9	1.7
	1999	3.2	7.0	3.9	4.6	3.8	6.9	4.2	2.0	2.9	1.8	1.6
	2001	2.8	6.7	3.3	3.9	3.1	5.9	3.4	1.9	2.0	1.8	1.7
	2003	2.7	7.9	3.2	4.1	3.0	5.5	3.3	1.8	2.0	1.6	1.5
Uruguay	1990	4.3	12.0	3.7	4.0	3.6	7.6	3.7	2.5	1.5	5.1	5.1
	1994	4.8	12.3	4.6	5.3	4.2	9.6	4.5	2.9	1.7	3.9	3.5
	1997	4.9	11.5	4.8	5.9	4.5	9.8	4.6	3.0	1.8	4.0	3.5
	1999	5.4	14.1	5.3	6.7	4.9	11.2	4.9	3.2	2.1	4.1	3.6
	2002	4.3	10.6	4.4	5.8	3.9	7.9	4.3	2.6	2.0	3.1	2.4
	2004	3.7	10.2	3.7	5.2	3.2	6.3	3.6	2.0	1.7	2.7	2.1
2005	3.7	9.7	3.8	5.4	3.3	6.6	3.6	2.0	1.7	2.7	2.0	
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^h	1990	4.5	11.9	3.7	4.0	3.6	6.6	3.6	2.5	2.1	4.5	4.3
	1994	3.8	8.9	3.2	2.7	3.4	6.7	3.4	2.0	1.9	4.1	3.8
	1997	3.6	11.2	2.6	2.9	2.5	5.8	2.4	1.7	1.4	4.2	3.9
	1999	3.5	9.2	3.2	3.7	2.9	6.4	2.9	2.0	1.4	3.2	3.0
	2002	3.3	9.9	2.9	4.5	2.4	4.8	2.5	1.7	1.2	2.9	2.8
	2004	3.2	9.3	2.9	4.1	2.5	4.1	2.6	1.7	1.2	2.8	2.7
	2005	3.9	11.8	3.4	4.8	2.9	4.5	3.0	2.0	1.4	3.6	3.5

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

^a For Argentina (except 1999), Brazil (1990), Chile (1990, 1994 and 1998), Mexico (1989 and 2004) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public-sector wage or salary earners. In addition, for Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama (up to 2002), and Uruguay (1990), in the case of non-professional, non-technical wage earners, this includes establishments employing up to four persons. Where no information was available on the size of the establishments, no figures were given for the population employed in low-productivity sectors.

^b Includes own-account professional and technical workers.

^c Brazil's national household survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments, except in 1993, 1996 and 1999. Therefore the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing more than five persons includes wage earners who have an employment contract ("carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to five persons includes workers who do not have such contracts.

^d Includes private-sector employees engaged in non-professional, non-technical occupations in business establishments of undeclared size.

^e Information from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).

^f In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

^g Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

^h The sample design 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 24.1

AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005 (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 ^b	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
	2004	6.0	18.6	4.6	5.0	4.5	8.3	4.2	3.1	3.7	7.7	6.1
2005	6.6	22.3	5.1	6.2	4.9	8.5	4.6	3.2	3.4	8.3	7.0	
Bolivia	1989	5.1	17.1	4.3	4.8	4.0	9.6	3.6	2.7	4.0	5.4	4.9
	1994	4.4	10.8	4.4	4.7	3.5	8.3	2.8	2.2	1.7	3.6	3.2
	1997	4.5	10.5	4.4	5.4	4.2	9.8	3.3	2.4	1.8	3.1	2.9
	1999	4.1	7.9	4.5	5.2	4.4	8.0	4.1	2.6	1.9	3.0	2.8
	2002	4.0	7.7	4.5	5.9	4.2	8.8	4.4	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.5
	2004	3.5	7.8	3.8	5.7	3.5	8.3	3.7	2.1	1.3	2.3	2.2
Brazil ^c	1990	5.7	17.2	4.8	...	4.8	11.3	4.2	2.8	1.3	4.9	4.4
	1993	5.3	16.6	4.9	7.9	4.2	14.5	3.7 ^d	2.0	1.5	4.0	3.6
	1996	6.0	20.1	5.2	8.4	4.6	13.8	4.2 ^d	2.6	2.0	5.2	4.7
	1999	5.2	15.5	4.7	7.9	4.1	8.9	3.4 ^d	2.2	2.1	4.1	3.6
	2001	5.1	15.8	4.7	8.0	4.1	8.8	3.4 ^d	2.2	2.0	4.0	3.5
	2003	4.7	14.6	4.3	7.4	3.8	8.0	3.6 ^d	2.1	1.9	3.6	2.9
	2004	4.7	14.6	4.3	7.4	3.8	7.8	3.6 ^d	2.1	1.8	3.5	2.8
2005	4.7	14.3	4.3	7.6	3.8	7.5	3.6 ^d	2.1	1.8	3.4	2.7	
Chile ^e	1990	5.4	27.4	4.4	...	4.4	10.4	3.6	2.5	1.9	5.8	5.3
	1994	7.0	37.6	5.4	...	5.4	12.0	4.1	3.1	2.2	6.7	5.4
	1996	7.7	36.3	5.7	7.2	5.5	13.3	4.0	3.0	2.4	9.2	7.2
	1998	8.4	37.0	6.3	...	6.3	14.1	4.5	3.2	3.3	9.5	7.1
	2000	8.5	36.9	6.6	8.3	6.2	15.8	4.3	3.1	3.0	7.9	5.8
	2003	8.6	41.0	6.3	8.6	6.0	14.7	4.2	3.0	3.4	8.9	6.5
Colombia ^f	1991	3.3	7.8	3.1	4.2	2.8	6.5	2.5	...	1.5	3.0	2.7
	1994	4.4	14.5	3.6	6.1	3.3	9.8	2.6	...	1.7	4.0	3.5
	1997	4.4	11.8	4.0	6.4	3.5	8.4	2.9	...	1.6	3.9	3.4
	1999	3.8	10.2	4.0	7.1	3.4	7.9	2.9	...	2.7	2.6	2.3
	2002	3.4	7.6	3.7	6.7	3.3	6.9	3.0	...	2.2	2.2	1.9
	2004	3.5	8.0	3.9	6.5	3.5	8.0	3.1	...	2.1	2.2	2.0
2005	3.8	9.5	4.1	7.1	3.7	7.8	3.3	...	2.8	2.3	2.1	
Costa Rica	1990	5.8	7.0	6.0	7.9	5.1	9.9	4.6	3.3	1.5	4.8	4.3
	1994	6.4	11.9	6.0	8.2	5.2	9.6	4.7	3.9	2.1	5.3	4.9
	1997	6.1	8.9	6.1	8.7	5.3	9.7	5.0	3.5	2.3	5.0	4.6
	1999	6.8	11.1	6.5	9.5	5.7	10.7	5.1	3.8	2.3	5.6	5.2
	2002	7.2	10.2	7.5	10.3	6.8	10.6	6.3	3.9	2.3	4.6	4.1
	2004	7.0	8.5	7.6	10.7	6.9	11.1	6.3	4.1	2.9	3.9	3.3
2005	6.2	7.9	6.5	9.7	5.7	8.9	5.4	3.5	1.9	4.0	3.4	
Dominican Republic	1997	4.8	14.5	4.0	4.6	3.9	8.0	3.6	2.6	2.2	4.8	4.5
	2000	5.2	20.1	4.4	5.0	4.2	9.2	3.7	2.4	2.0	5.2	4.9
	2002	5.4	21.7	4.3	4.9	4.1	7.9	3.6	2.3	2.5	4.9	4.6
	2004	4.6	17.4	2.6	2.9	2.5	5.2	2.3	1.5	1.2	5.2	4.9
	2005	3.4	8.6	3.2	3.6	3.1	5.9	2.8	1.8	1.8	2.9	2.7
Ecuador	1990	3.3	4.9	3.6	4.6	3.2	8.0	3.0	2.4	1.1	2.4	2.3
	1994	3.4	7.2	3.1	3.8	2.9	6.7	2.6	2.0	1.1	2.9	2.6
	1997	3.4	6.3	3.3	4.1	3.1	6.9	2.9	1.8	1.3	2.7	2.6
	1999	3.4	8.2	3.0	4.2	2.7	4.9	2.9	1.7	1.4	2.3	2.3
	2002	4.0	9.6	3.7	5.3	3.3	6.1	3.5	2.1	1.9	3.2	3.0
	2004	3.9	7.9	4.0	6.4	3.5	7.0	3.5	2.2	2.8	2.6	2.5
	2005	4.1	9.2	3.9	6.2	3.5	6.8	3.5	2.3	2.1	3.1	2.7
El Salvador	1995	4.1	9.4	3.9	5.5	3.5	7.6	3.0	2.2	1.7	2.1	2.8
	1997	4.4	10.5	4.3	5.9	3.9	8.5	3.3	2.4	2.8	2.9	2.7
	1999	4.8	10.3	4.8	6.9	4.4	9.1	3.9	2.5	2.9	3.2	2.9
	2001	4.4	10.4	4.4	6.6	4.0	7.7	3.9	2.4	2.3	3.0	2.6
	2004	3.8	7.9	3.9	5.9	3.5	5.8	3.4	2.5	2.8	2.6	2.5
Guatemala	1989	4.0	18.6	3.3	4.8	2.8	6.2	2.7	1.8	2.6	3.9	3.6
	1998	4.3	17.2	3.6	4.9	3.4	6.3	3.7	2.2	1.2	3.1	2.9
	2002	3.6	8.3	3.7	6.1	3.4	6.6	3.5	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.5
Honduras	1990	3.4	20.3	3.3	5.1	2.9	7.3	2.8	1.7	1.6	2.4	2.2
	1994	2.7	7.8	2.5	3.8	2.2	5.2	2.0	1.3	1.6	2.1	2.0
	1997	2.5	7.1	2.2	3.3	2.0	5.3	1.9	1.1	0.8	1.8	1.7
	1999	2.4	6.7	2.3	3.1	2.1	3.8	2.3	1.2	0.8	1.7	1.6
	2002	2.6	5.3	2.9	4.9	2.6	6.1	2.5	1.4	1.2	1.6	1.5
	2003	2.6	5.0	3.0	5.2	2.7	7.1	2.6	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.2

Table 24.1 (concluded)

AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005 (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		
Mexico ^g	1989	5.1	23.4	3.8	...	3.8	7.8	3.3	...	2.1	6.1	5.6
	1994	5.2	19.4	4.4	5.6	4.1	11.5	3.2	...	2.0	5.0	4.4
	1996	4.3	16.0	3.6	5.3	3.3	7.7	3.1	1.8	1.9	3.4	3.1
	1998	4.9	19.2	3.9	5.9	3.5	8.2	3.4	2.1	1.9	4.3	3.6
	2000	5.2	17.1	4.3	5.6	4.1	9.3	3.7	2.3	2.1	5.2	4.7
	2002	4.9	16.5	4.0	5.8	3.6	8.3	3.6	2.3	2.0	4.9	4.5
	2004	4.9	17.9	4.0	...	4.0	8.2	3.7	2.3	2.3	5.6	4.6
2005	5.3	24.9	4.1	...	4.1	8.4	3.7	2.3	3.3	5.7	4.9	
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
	2004	6.1	12.4	6.6	10.3	5.4	11.1	5.3	3.0	2.2	3.5	3.1
	2005	5.8	11.6	6.3	9.9	5.3	10.2	5.2	3.0	2.1	3.2	2.9
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	4.2	10.4	2.9	4.0	2.6	5.8	2.6	1.9	...	4.8	4.6
	1994	4.4	10.6	3.5	5.1	3.2	8.5	2.7	2.1	2.1	3.5	3.5
	1996	4.3	11.7	3.6	5.5	3.3	7.3	3.2	2.4	2.0	3.5	3.2
	1999	4.1	8.9	3.8	4.7	3.6	7.0	3.4	2.3	1.9	3.1	2.6
	2001	3.9	7.6	3.7	5.3	3.4	5.5	3.6	2.2	1.9	3.0	2.1
	2004	3.1	9.0	2.8	3.9	2.6	3.9	2.9	1.8	2.0	2.2	1.8
2005	3.7	11.2	3.2	4.9	2.7	4.5	3.1	1.7	2.2	2.2	1.8	
(Urban)	1994	4.0	10.0	3.2	5.0	2.9	8.2	2.7	2.0	1.9	3.0	3.0
	1996	3.9	10.3	3.4	5.5	3.0	6.9	3.1	2.2	1.7	3.1	2.9
	1999	3.8	8.7	3.6	5.2	3.2	7.5	3.2	2.0	1.7	2.6	2.3
	2001	3.7	8.8	3.4	5.5	3.0	5.4	3.3	1.9	1.8	2.4	1.9
	2004	2.9	8.2	2.6	3.8	2.4	4.1	2.8	1.7	1.9	2.3	2.0
	2005	3.3	10.1	3.0	4.7	2.6	4.8	3.0	1.7	1.8	1.9	1.7
Peru	1997	4.0	8.5	4.2	4.6	4.1	7.0	4.3	2.5	2.7	2.5	2.3
	1999	3.9	7.9	4.3	5.4	4.1	7.0	4.5	2.1	1.8	2.3	2.1
	2001	3.4	7.1	3.7	4.3	3.5	6.8	3.6	2.0	1.8	2.2	2.0
	2003	3.4	9.0	3.7	4.6	3.4	7.2	3.4	1.9	3.6	2.0	1.9
Uruguay	1990	5.5	13.0	4.3	4.4	4.2	10.1	4.0	2.7	1.5	7.3	7.3
	1994	5.8	13.1	5.5	6.0	5.3	12.5	5.0	3.1	3.0	4.9	4.4
	1997	5.8	12.3	5.6	6.6	5.3	12.9	5.0	3.2	2.0	4.8	4.2
	1999	6.3	14.9	6.2	7.5	5.8	14.6	5.3	3.4	2.7	4.8	4.2
	2002	4.9	11.0	5.0	6.3	4.6	9.9	4.6	2.8	3.3	3.4	2.7
	2004	4.3	11.1	4.3	5.7	3.9	7.7	3.9	2.2	2.6	3.1	2.4
2005	4.3	10.7	4.3	5.8	3.9	8.0	3.9	2.3	2.7	3.0	2.3	
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^h	1990	5.1	12.0	4.0	4.4	3.9	7.6	3.7	2.5	3.4	5.1	4.9
	1994	4.3	9.1	3.4	3.1	3.5	7.6	3.4	2.0	2.9	4.6	4.3
	1997	4.0	11.4	2.8	3.2	2.7	6.7	2.5	1.7	2.2	4.6	4.3
	1999	3.8	9.4	3.3	4.1	3.2	7.4	3.0	2.0	2.0	3.7	3.5
	2002	3.6	10.2	2.9	4.8	2.5	5.6	2.6	1.7	1.6	3.3	3.2
	2004	3.5	9.6	3.0	4.5	2.6	4.7	2.7	1.7	1.7	3.2	3.1
	2005	4.2	12.2	3.4	5.1	3.0	4.8	3.1	2.1	1.7	4.1	4.0

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

^a For Argentina (except 1999), Brazil (1990), Chile (1990, 1994 and 1998), Mexico (1989 and 2004) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public-sector wage or salary earners. In addition, for Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama (up to 2002), and Uruguay (1990), in the case of non-professional, non-technical wage earners, this includes establishments employing up to four persons. Where no information was available on the size of the establishments, no figures were given for the population employed in low-productivity sectors.

^b Includes own-account professional and technical workers.

^c Brazil's national household survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments, except in 1993, 1996 and 1999. Therefore the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing more than five persons includes wage earners who have an employment contract ("carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to five persons includes workers who do not have such contracts.

^d Includes private-sector employees engaged in non-professional, non-technical occupations in business establishments of undeclared size.

^e Information from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).

^f In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

^g Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

^h The sample design 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 24.2

AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005 (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 ^b	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
								Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	4.7	13.6	3.9	...	3.9	6.6	4.0	3.4	2.0	5.8	4.5
	1994	6.7	29.4	5.4	...	5.4	7.8	6.2	4.2	3.2	8.3	6.4
	1997	5.6	19.6	4.8	...	4.8	7.3	5.8	3.4	2.5	6.2	4.7
	1999	4.8	15.0	4.4	5.5	4.0	6.8	4.3	3.0	2.1	5.3	4.3
	2002	3.3	12.4	2.8	3.0	2.7	4.8	2.6	1.8	1.7	4.2	2.7
	2004	3.6	12.4	3.1	3.2	3.1	5.1	3.4	2.4	1.6	4.7	3.3
2005	4.4	31.0	3.5	4.2	3.3	5.0	3.6	2.6	1.7	5.0	3.7	
Bolivia	1989	2.9	10.7	3.6	2.9	3.4	4.1	3.1	2.2	1.6	4.1	2.9
	1994	2.2	8.4	2.3	2.7	2.1	5.3	2.2	1.5	0.9	2.5	1.6
	1997	2.5	8.1	3.0	3.5	2.8	6.8	2.6	1.8	1.0	1.8	1.7
	1999	2.4	9.0	3.2	4.1	2.9	5.8	2.9	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7
	2002	2.3	5.9	3.1	4.3	2.7	5.7	2.9	2.0	2.0	1.5	1.4
	2004	2.1	6.5	2.9	4.3	2.4	5.6	3.2	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.3
Brazil ^c	1990	3.1	11.1	3.1	...	3.1	5.6	2.9	2.0	0.9	2.2	1.9
	1993	2.8	11.1	3.0	4.9	2.3	5.7	2.8 ^d	1.8	1.1	1.7	1.4
	1996	3.6	15.4	3.6	5.7	3.1	7.0	3.2 ^d	2.3	1.5	2.5	2.0
	1999	3.2	12.4	3.3	5.4	2.6	5.0	2.4 ^d	1.8	1.4	2.0	1.6
	2001	3.2	11.7	3.4	5.6	2.7	5.0	2.4 ^d	1.8	1.4	2.0	1.6
	2003	3.0	10.2	3.1	5.2	2.5	5.4	2.8 ^d	2.0	1.3	1.8	1.3
2004	3.0	9.9	3.1	5.3	2.5	5.3	2.8 ^d	1.9	1.3	1.8	1.3	
2005	3.1	10.3	3.1	5.3	2.5	5.6	2.8 ^d	2.0	1.3	1.8	1.3	
Chile ^e	1990	3.4	14.3	3.0	...	3.0	4.5	3.2	2.2	1.4	4.4	4.2
	1994	4.7	26.4	3.8	...	3.8	6.5	3.5	2.6	2.0	5.8	3.8
	1996	5.1	26.4	4.1	5.5	3.9	7.8	3.6	2.8	2.0	6.4	4.4
	1998	5.6	24.9	4.7	...	4.7	8.8	3.8	2.7	2.2	6.8	5.0
	2000	5.2	18.1	4.7	6.3	4.3	9.4	3.6	2.8	2.4	5.6	3.9
	2003	5.5	25.5	4.7	6.7	4.3	9.0	3.6	2.8	2.4	5.6	4.0
Colombia ^f	1991	2.2	5.9	2.3	3.5	2.1	3.9	2.1	...	1.2	1.6	1.4
	1994	3.0	8.4	3.0	4.8	2.7	5.9	2.5	...	1.7	2.3	2.0
	1997	2.9	8.4	3.0	5.0	2.6	5.2	2.4	...	1.6	2.3	2.0
	1999	2.8	7.7	3.4	5.5	2.9	5.7	2.7	...	2.1	1.5	1.3
	2002	2.5	6.1	3.3	6.0	2.8	5.7	2.8	...	1.7	1.1	0.9
	2004	2.6	6.5	3.4	5.8	2.9	6.0	2.8	...	1.8	1.1	1.0
2005	2.7	6.3	3.5	6.1	3.1	5.8	3.1	...	1.9	1.2	1.0	
Costa Rica	1990	4.0	5.4	4.4	6.5	3.3	6.5	3.7	2.9	1.5	1.9	1.7
	1994	4.4	6.9	4.6	7.1	3.5	6.1	3.7	2.9	1.6	2.7	2.5
	1997	4.7	6.2	5.3	7.7	3.9	7.6	4.2	2.8	1.8	2.2	2.1
	1999	4.7	7.9	5.1	8.0	3.9	7.7	4.1	3.3	1.7	2.5	2.1
	2002	5.3	10.0	5.8	8.7	4.5	7.6	4.9	3.4	2.0	2.6	2.0
	2004	5.3	6.8	6.2	8.9	4.9	8.0	5.0	3.5	2.2	2.1	1.7
2005	4.5	5.4	5.1	8.0	3.9	6.7	4.4	2.8	1.6	1.9	1.4	
Dominican Republic	1997	3.6	7.7	3.7	4.7	3.4	7.0	3.5	2.0	1.4	3.3	2.9
	2000	3.6	14.4	3.3	4.6	2.9	6.1	2.7	2.1	1.1	3.5	2.9
	2002	3.7	13.9	3.5	4.4	3.2	6.0	3.2	2.2	1.1	3.2	2.9
	2004	2.8	13.1	2.0	2.5	1.9	3.6	1.9	1.1	0.8	3.4	3.0
	2005	2.6	5.3	2.7	3.3	2.5	5.2	2.4	1.3	1.2	1.9	1.6
Ecuador	1990	2.0	4.5	2.5	3.4	2.0	3.5	2.6	1.9	0.7	1.2	1.2
	1994	2.1	4.8	2.3	3.1	2.1	3.2	2.7	1.7	0.9	1.5	1.4
	1997	2.4	5.2	2.7	3.6	2.4	4.2	3.1	1.7	0.9	1.5	1.4
	1999	2.1	5.3	2.5	3.2	2.3	4.1	2.9	1.4	0.9	1.2	1.2
	2002	2.5	5.9	2.9	3.9	2.6	3.8	3.1	2.1	1.5	1.7	1.6
	2004	2.5	5.0	3.2	4.5	2.8	4.1	3.3	1.9	1.6	1.4	1.3
2005	2.8	6.9	3.3	5.3	2.8	4.2	3.3	2.1	1.6	1.7	1.6	
El Salvador	1995	2.5	5.8	3.0	4.9	2.5	5.7	2.5	1.5	0.9	1.6	1.6
	1997	3.1	8.1	4.0	6.0	3.6	6.6	3.1	2.0	1.8	1.8	1.7
	1999	3.5	8.8	4.2	6.9	3.5	6.8	3.5	2.1	2.0	2.0	2.0
	2001	3.2	6.8	4.0	6.6	3.3	7.0	3.2	2.1	1.9	2.0	2.0
	2004	3.0	5.1	3.5	6.3	2.8	4.6	2.9	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.1
Guatemala	1989	2.6	14.4	2.7	5.0	2.0	3.5	2.4	1.5	1.4	2.1	1.9
	1998	2.2	11.2	2.3	3.9	2.0	3.6	2.7	1.4	0.6	1.5	1.5
	2002	2.0	3.8	2.7	4.8	2.4	4.0	2.6	1.3	1.6	1.0	1.0
Honduras	1990	2.0	4.3	2.2	4.7	1.9	4.8	2.5	1.2	0.8	1.0	0.9
	1994	1.6	5.1	1.8	2.9	1.5	3.3	1.7	1.1	0.5	1.2	1.1
	1997	1.4	4.6	1.7	2.5	1.5	2.9	1.6	0.9	0.5	1.3	0.8
	1999	1.5	3.8	1.8	2.7	1.5	2.4	1.8	1.0	0.5	0.8	0.8
	2002	1.9	4.5	2.5	3.9	2.1	4.4	2.1	1.2	0.8	0.9	0.9
	2003	2.1	4.0	3.0	4.7	2.5	6.1	2.3	1.5	1.2	0.8	0.8

Table 24.2 (concluded)

AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005 (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		
Mexico ^g	1989	2.8	9.4	2.9	...	2.9	4.8	2.8	...	1.3	2.3	2.3
	1994	2.9	11.6	3.0	4.2	2.6	5.3	2.5	...	1.1	2.0	1.8
	1996	2.5	11.8	2.7	4.2	2.2	4.1	2.3	1.4	1.1	1.4	1.3
	1998	2.7	13.2	2.8	4.4	2.3	4.5	2.5	1.5	1.1	1.7	1.6
	2000	2.8	13.4	3.0	4.8	2.5	4.0	2.7	1.6	1.1	1.6	1.5
	2002	2.9	14.1	3.0	4.7	2.5	5.2	2.7	1.7	1.3	1.8	1.7
	2004	2.9	10.7	3.0	...	3.0	5.2	3.0	1.8	1.3	2.1	1.9
	2005	3.0	10.0	3.1	...	3.1	5.3	2.9	1.8	1.5	2.2	1.9
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
	2004	4.7	6.9	5.4	7.5	4.5	7.9	5.5	3.1	1.6	1.6	1.3
	2005	4.5	8.4	5.1	7.3	4.2	7.1	5.2	2.7	1.7	1.5	1.3
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	2.3	9.0	1.8	2.4	1.6	3.4	2.4	1.5	0.8	3.0	2.9
	1994	2.6	8.6	2.3	3.4	2.0	4.3	2.5	1.8	1.2	2.3	2.3
	1996	2.7	7.2	2.8	4.7	2.3	5.5	2.8	2.0	1.2	2.2	1.9
	1999	3.0	8.9	3.0	4.4	2.7	5.5	3.1	2.4	1.7	2.2	1.9
	2001	2.8	9.1	2.9	5.1	2.4	3.4	3.4	2.1	1.5	4.7	1.3
	2004	2.0	5.7	2.3	3.3	2.1	4.5	2.4	1.7	1.5	1.0	0.9
	2005	2.1	4.8	2.4	3.7	2.1	3.4	2.7	1.7	1.5	1.0	0.9
(Urban)	1994	2.4	8.5	2.2	3.4	1.9	4.2	2.4	1.7	1.2	2.0	2.0
	1996	2.4	7.5	2.6	4.6	2.0	5.3	2.7	2.0	1.1	1.9	1.7
	1999	2.7	9.3	2.8	4.3	2.5	5.6	3.0	2.2	1.6	1.8	1.6
	2001	2.4	8.2	2.8	4.8	2.2	3.4	3.3	1.9	1.4	1.3	1.2
	2004	1.9	6.1	1.9	3.2	1.7	4.1	2.4	1.6	1.3	1.1	1.0
	2005	1.9	5.0	2.3	3.5	1.9	3.3	2.7	1.7	1.3	1.0	0.9
Peru	1997	2.3	5.1	3.0	3.5	2.9	5.0	2.8	1.6	2.3	1.4	1.3
	1999	2.4	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.3	6.7	3.3	1.7	2.9	1.3	1.2
	2001	2.1	5.0	2.7	3.3	2.5	4.4	2.8	1.5	2.0	1.4	1.4
	2003	1.9	4.1	2.6	3.3	2.4	3.6	2.8	1.6	1.9	1.1	1.1
Uruguay	1990	2.7	6.9	2.7	3.4	2.5	4.8	2.8	1.9	1.5	2.1	1.8
	1994	3.4	9.9	3.4	4.4	3.1	6.4	3.4	2.5	1.7	2.7	2.2
	1997	3.7	8.3	3.8	5.0	3.4	6.7	3.8	2.6	1.8	2.9	2.3
	1999	4.1	11.5	4.2	5.6	3.8	8.0	4.0	2.8	2.1	3.1	2.4
	2002	3.5	9.2	3.6	5.1	3.1	6.2	3.7	2.2	1.9	2.5	1.8
	2004	2.9	7.4	3.0	4.6	2.5	4.9	2.9	1.7	1.6	2.1	1.6
2005	3.0	6.7	3.1	4.9	2.6	5.3	3.1	1.7	1.6	2.1	1.5	
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^h	1990	3.3	10.8	3.2	3.6	2.9	4.9	3.3	2.4	1.7	2.9	2.7
	1994	3.0	7.5	2.8	2.3	3.2	5.6	3.3	2.0	1.5	3.1	2.6
	1997	2.8	9.4	2.4	2.6	2.2	4.5	2.2	1.6	1.2	3.4	3.0
	1999	2.9	7.9	3.0	3.3	2.8	5.4	2.6	1.9	1.3	2.5	2.3
	2002	2.8	8.6	3.0	4.3	2.2	4.0	2.3	1.6	1.2	2.3	2.2
	2004	2.7	8.0	2.8	3.9	2.1	3.4	2.3	1.5	1.2	2.2	2.1
	2005	3.3	9.6	2.6	4.5	2.6	4.1	2.7	1.8	1.4	2.8	2.7

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

^a For Argentina (except 1999), Brazil (1990), Chile (1990, 1994 and 1998), Mexico (1989 and 2004) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public-sector wage or salary earners. In addition, for Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama (up to 2002), and Uruguay (1990), in the case of non-professional, non-technical wage earners, this includes establishments employing up to four persons. Where no information was available on the size of the establishments, no figures were given for the population employed in low-productivity sectors.

^b Includes own-account professional and technical workers.

^c Brazil's national household survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments, except in 1993, 1996 and 1999. Therefore the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing more than five persons includes wage earners who have an employment contract ("carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to five persons includes workers who do not have such contracts.

^d Includes private-sector employees engaged in non-professional, non-technical occupations in business establishments of undeclared size.

^e Information from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).

^f In 1993, the survey's geographical coverage was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, except in 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

^g Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

^h The sample design 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 25

**AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION,
BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS, 1990–2005**
(In multiples of the respective per capita poverty lines)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary earners					Own-account and unpaid family workers	
				Total ^a	Public sector	Private sector			Total ^b	Agriculture
						Total	Agriculture	Other		
Bolivia	1997	1.3	10.5	3.5	3.7	3.4	3.1	3.6	0.8	0.6
	1999	0.8	3.9	3.4	4.2	3.1	2.9	3.2	0.6	0.4
	2000	1.2	5.9	3.2	3.6	3.0	2.7	3.2	1.0	0.8
	2002	1.2	4.1	3.4	4.2	3.2	3.1	3.4	0.8	0.6
	2004	1.1	3.3	2.3	3.7	1.8	1.5	2.0	0.7	0.5
Brazil	1990	2.0	9.3	2.2	...	2.2	1.4	2.9	1.5	1.3
	1993	1.8	11.6	2.2	2.9	2.1	1.7	3.4	1.3	1.2
	1996	2.0	13.5	2.8	4.0	2.6	2.0	3.8	1.3	1.1
	1999	1.8	12.4	2.6	3.8	2.4	2.1	2.8	1.0	0.8
	2001	1.7	10.6	2.3	2.8	2.2	2.1	2.4	1.0	0.9
	2003	1.7	12.7	2.3	3.3	2.2	2.0	2.5	1.0	0.9
	2004	1.8	10.7	2.4	3.5	2.2	2.1	2.4	1.1	1.0
	2005	1.7	10.1	2.4	3.5	2.3	2.1	2.5	1.0	0.9
Chile ^c	1990	4.9	39.3	3.2	...	3.2	2.8	4.3	5.2	5.2
	1994	4.6	28.9	3.8	...	3.8	3.1	5.1	4.2	3.7
	1996	4.2	24.0	3.5	5.3	3.4	2.9	4.3	4.0	3.5
	1998	5.3	32.8	3.9	...	3.9	3.2	4.9	6.3	5.3
	2000	5.3	36.8	4.2	7.0	3.9	3.5	4.5	5.6	4.8
	2003	5.7	33.6	4.5	7.9	4.3	3.6	5.5	6.3	5.3
Colombia ^d	1991	3.1	10.7	2.9	...	2.9	3.1	2.6	2.3	1.7
	1994	2.5	5.8	2.8	...	2.8	2.9	2.6	1.9	2.3
	1997	2.7	7.0	3.1	5.0	3.0	3.2	3.0	1.8	1.8
	1999	2.9	5.6	3.9	6.4	3.7	3.5	3.9	1.8	1.9
	2002	2.9	7.9	3.8	7.6	3.4	3.8	2.9	1.8	1.9
	2004	2.6	6.6	3.3	6.0	3.2	3.5	2.6	3.1	2.3
	2005	2.8	6.6	3.5	6.9	3.3	3.5	2.8	2.0	2.5
Costa Rica	1990	5.1	9.9	5.2	8.4	4.6	4.1	4.9	4.0	3.9
	1994	5.8	11.7	5.4	8.4	4.9	4.8	5.0	5.4	6.3
	1997	5.6	9.3	5.5	9.4	4.9	4.3	5.2	4.7	4.9
	1999	6.3	11.3	6.0	10.2	5.4	4.5	5.8	5.3	5.5
	2000	6.1	8.5	6.8	10.5	6.2	6.1	6.2	3.9	2.9
	2002	6.2	9.0	7.2	11.9	6.5	7.1	6.2	3.2	2.2
	2004	6.3	7.7	7.5	12.6	6.7	7.4	6.3	3.1	2.1
	2005	5.7	7.4	6.5	10.0	5.9	6.5	5.6	3.1	2.4
Dominican Republic	1997	4.3	6.6	4.3	6.2	3.8	3.2	4.0	4.2	3.4
	2000	3.7	13.0	3.0	4.0	2.7	2.2	2.9	3.8	3.3
	2002	3.5	13.3	2.9	3.5	2.7	2.2	2.8	3.6	3.3
	2004	3.0	8.6	2.0	2.2	1.9	1.5	2.0	3.5	1.9
	2005	2.6	7.7	2.6	3.1	2.5	1.9	2.6	2.4	1.7
Ecuador	2000	2.5	8.4	2.7	4.6	2.5	2.2	2.9	2.0	1.8
	2004	2.1	5.6	3.0	5.6	2.7	2.3	3.4	1.2	1.0
	2005	2.4	5.5	3.1	6.2	2.9	2.4	3.6	1.6	1.4
El Salvador	1995	2.4	5.5	2.7	5.4	2.6	2.0	3.2	1.7	1.4
	1997	2.4	4.3	3.1	5.7	2.9	2.2	3.6	1.5	1.1
	1999	3.4	10.2	3.3	6.8	3.0	2.2	3.7	2.8	3.1
	2000	3.5	9.3	3.5	7.3	3.2	2.2	3.9	2.9	3.1
	2001	2.4	3.8	3.3	6.8	3.0	2.0	3.7	1.4	0.5
	2004	2.7	7.6	3.2	6.6	3.0	2.0	3.6	1.6	0.6
Guatemala	1989	2.5	21.1	2.3	4.9	2.1	1.8	2.7	2.4	2.1
	1998	2.6	25.3	2.3	3.9	2.2	2.0	2.5	2.1	2.1
	2002	1.7	5.7	2.3	4.4	2.2	1.8	2.6	1.0	0.8
Honduras	1990	1.7	14.7	2.2	4.9	1.8	1.4	2.7	1.3	1.3
	1994	2.0	8.6	2.1	4.1	1.8	1.6	2.1	1.8	1.8
	1997	1.7	9.0	1.6	3.4	1.4	1.3	1.7	1.4	1.5
	1999	1.8	6.1	2.0	4.4	1.7	1.4	2.0	1.4	1.4
	2002	1.4	6.3	1.9	4.7	1.7	0.9	2.9	1.1	1.0
	2003	1.2	3.6	1.8	5.3	1.6	0.8	2.8	0.9	0.8
	2005	1.2	3.6	1.8	5.3	1.6	0.8	2.8	0.9	0.8
Mexico ^e	1989	3.0	9.3	2.7	...	2.7	1.8	3.5	3.0	2.6
	1994	2.7	9.7	2.6	5.1	2.3	1.7	2.7	2.2	1.8
	1996	2.3	7.1	2.4	4.9	2.0	1.5	2.3	1.6	1.3
	1998	2.6	8.7	2.9	5.2	2.5	1.8	2.9	1.8	1.6
	2000	3.2	14.9	2.9	5.8	2.5	1.8	3.0	2.3	1.5
	2002	3.0	10.1	3.2	5.8	2.7	1.8	3.2	2.2	1.5
	2004	3.3	9.2	3.4	...	3.4	1.9	4.0	2.6	1.7
	2005	3.1	9.0	3.2	...	3.2	1.9	3.7	2.4	1.6

Table 25 (concluded)

AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS, 1990–2005 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty lines)										
Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage or salary earners					Own-account and unpaid family workers	
				Total ^a	Public sector	Private sector			Total ^b	Agriculture
						Total	Agriculture	Other		
Nicaragua	1993	2.2	4.8	2.7	3.0	2.6	2.1	3.2	1.9	1.4
	1998	2.1	8.8	2.8	...	2.8	2.1	3.5	1.1	0.8
	2001	1.9	4.6	2.6	3.3	2.5	2.0	3.2	1.1	0.8
Panama	1991	3.4	10.8	5.2	7.7	4.0	4.1	3.8	1.9	1.9
	1994	3.5	13.8	4.1	6.7	3.2	3.3	3.2	2.2	1.6
	1997	4.0	16.4	4.5	8.1	3.3	3.1	4.0	3.1	2.3
	1999	4.2	15.4	5.1	9.7	3.8	3.0	4.4	3.8	2.3
	2002	4.5	12.8	8.1	8.8	7.9	9.4	6.7	1.8	1.5
	2004	3.4	11.0	5.4	8.8	4.5	5.0	4.1	1.6	1.2
	2005	3.1	7.7	5.2	8.4	4.4	4.9	4.1	1.5	1.2
Paraguay	1999	2.2	17.2	2.9	5.3	2.5	1.8	2.7	1.3	1.1
	2001	1.8	9.4	2.8	5.3	2.6	1.9	3.0	1.0	0.8
	2004	1.9	12.2	2.5	3.3	2.4	2.4	2.4	1.3	1.3
	2005	1.9	5.9	2.7	3.9	2.4	2.4	2.4	1.5	1.4
Peru	1997	1.6	4.3	2.8	3.8	2.5	2.1	3.3	1.0	0.9
	1999	1.4	3.3	2.2	3.8	1.9	1.9	3.3	0.9	0.8
	2001	1.2	2.8	2.4	3.8	2.0	1.8	2.4	0.8	0.6
	2003	1.0	2.0	2.3	3.1	2.0	1.8	2.4	0.7	0.6
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	3.8	9.5	3.3	4.3	3.1	2.6	3.9	3.5	2.9
	1994	3.4	7.2	2.9	4.3	2.6	2.1	3.1	3.4	3.2

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

- ^a Includes domestic employees. For Brazil (1990), Chile (1990, 1994 and 1998), Colombia (1991 and 1994), Mexico (1989 and 2004) and Nicaragua (1998), 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 The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for rural areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.
- ^e Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

Table 26

**RATIO OF AVERAGE FEMALE INCOME TO AVERAGE MALE INCOME, BY AGE GROUP,
URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005**
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Earned income ratio, by age group ^a					Earned income 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
	2004	61	86	69	62	57	48	68	86	72	66	67	50
	2005	67	86	75	80	58	47	69	87	80	62	63	50
Bolivia	1989	59	71	65	54	54	62	60	74	68	60	54	44
	1994	54	61	61	58	44	40	61	60	71	68	56	40
	1997	60	60	67	72	47	40	69	65	74	85	64	39
	1999	63	72	70	55	67	54	72	81	85	63	72	63
	2002	61	80	68	56	53	44	77	83	90	69	66	43
	2004	63	70	70	53	62	57	90	83	97	69	102	101
Brazil	1990	56	73	64	54	47	35	65	77	71	63	57	52
	1993	56	74	66	53	43	48	61	77	68	56	46	54
	1996	62	77	67	62	51	54	68	80	72	65	56	60
	1999	64	80	71	62	57	54	70	83	75	66	58	59
	2001	66	84	74	64	59	52	86	100	91	81	79	79
	2003	66	86	76	63	58	51	87	100	92	79	78	80
	2004	66	83	73	64	58	55	86	97	89	83	76	83
	2005	67	85	74	65	61	55	87	99	88	84	80	76
Chile	1990	61	81	67	60	56	52	66	86	72	63	54	61
	1994	67	81	84	71	56	54	70	84	78	67	64	56
	1996	67	86	82	60	64	57	73	93	82	67	62	67
	1998	66	90	77	69	59	54	74	93	83	69	67	69
	2000	61	87	79	59	50	56	72	91	82	68	64	67
	2003	64	90	79	65	55	55	83	99	92	82	74	92
Colombia ^c	1991	68	88	77	64	56	55	77	87	79	73	75	74
	1994	68	97	80	69	52	48	83	104	90	82	67	57
	1997	79	90	95	83	60	58	77	92	85	73	64	60
	1999	75	101	86	69	68	55	83	101	94	76	75	66
	2002	77	99	83	73	73	58	99	108	101	90	97	104
	2004	76	96	88	72	70	53	95	106	101	88	92	85
	2005	75	93	87	73	70	53	95	104	100	91	91	90
Costa Rica	1990	72	86	75	66	60	61	74	87	78	66	62	81
	1994	69	82	76	64	60	55	75	84	79	70	65	77
	1997	78	99	79	73	74	51	87	102	87	79	87	55
	1999	70	87	75	67	64	59	78	89	79	75	72	70
	2002	75	86	78	69	68	70	85	98	85	79	86	95
	2004	76	96	75	72	76	55	88	102	85	81	95	65
	2005	73	86	83	68	71	48	89	99	98	82	84	69
Dominican Republic	1997	75	95	77	76	51	69	90	97	87	90	84	67
	2000	69	84	76	67	58	53	84	106	90	71	85	52
	2002	68	87	70	66	60	59	89	101	84	93	71	111
	2004	59	62	59	63	45	77	85	96	79	78	81	122
	2005	77	91	88	75	64	59	93	98	106	82	85	82
Ecuador	1990	66	80	70	61	60	64	67	78	73	63	63	60
	1994	67	77	73	65	57	58	76	81	82	76	65	72
	1997	75	90	84	70	64	67	83	94	90	77	75	62
	1999	67	99	82	61	51	55	83	99	93	78	69	52
	2002	67	83	77	66	55	50	87	95	96	89	69	70
	2004	68	101	74	63	59	63	89	107	91	85	80	94
2005	74	93	83	70	62	67	102	99	99	79	90	94	
El Salvador	1995	63	76	70	58	52	47	79	80	81	72	85	61
	1997	72	97	74	69	64	53	88	100	85	85	91	73
	1999	75	84	79	71	67	60	88	87	93	84	86	70
	2001	73	87	79	73	62	51	100	95	100	92	104	100
	2004	77	80	78	78	76	52	98	85	96	99	112	81
Guatemala	1998	55	87	74	51	34	39	70	85	73	67	71	48
	2002	58	78	62	54	42	45	80	88	81	79	65	73
Honduras	1990	59	77	68	51	56	43	78	81	80	70	89	103
	1994	63	80	72	69	47	43	73	82	80	82	67	32
	1997	60	81	72	58	47	37	77	86	78	74	70	72
	1999	65	78	65	68	51	52	78	80	76	82	69	86
	2002	76	86	78	70	71	63	95	102	90	86	98	103
	2003	83	98	81	77	89	64	107	110	98	101	111	117

Table 26 (concluded)

RATIO OF AVERAGE FEMALE INCOME TO AVERAGE MALE INCOME, BY AGE GROUP, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2005 (Percentages)													
Country	Year	Earned income ratio, by age group ^a					Earned income 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
Mexico	1989	55	71	63	52	46	48	73	86	78	69	59	82
	1994	57	83	65	57	45	46	68	91	74	78	49	49
	1996	59	83	61	62	45	52	73	90	73	66	72	84
	1998	57	84	71	51	54	40	72	89	79	68	63	72
	2000	58	79	76	53	42	58	72	83	92	65	83	82
	2002	63	83	67	63	59	43	76	87	78	74	72	64
	2004	63	89	72	61	59	42	78	92	84	71	84	56
2005	58	83	70	55	50	47	76	88	80	69	78	69	
Nicaragua	1993	77	107	87	62	64	67	77	90	88	54	64	95
	1998	65	92	73	60	47	43	77	103	77	73	56	47
	2001	69	87	85	72	34	85	82	94	91	74	66	67
Panama	1991	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
	2004	78	89	92	72	79	50	94	109	107	85	87	71
2005	79	96	89	72	81	60	93	108	103	84	91	72	
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	55	63	68	52	50	60	63	66	72	58	63	77
	1994	60	73	71	58	68	33	64	77	71	58	70	47
	1996	64	76	66	71	48	56	76	76	74	82	72	93
	1999	71	96	84	67	69	44	79	102	92	70	62	69
	2001	70	86	76	70	55	71	95	102	104	101	81	44
	2004	65	102	65	64	53	57	101	106	88	113	111	99
2005	58	90	81	70	33	39	93	101	100	87	86	60	
Peru	1997	60	80	67	58	49	41	73	89	79	79	67	48
	1999	63	95	83	63	47	32	78	99	94	86	61	40
	2001	67	91	75	59	59	56	80	92	90	74	63	72
	2003	61	93	76	65	41	33	78	92	91	87	46	52
Uruguay	1990	45	63	60	46	37	30	64	79	73	61	59	49
	1994	61	76	65	58	56	51	63	76	66	59	60	51
	1997	65	79	72	63	59	55	67	79	71	64	60	55
	1999	67	79	77	63	65	55	68	79	75	61	66	53
	2002	72	87	79	68	69	61	71	85	78	67	64	62
	2004	69	88	80	63	66	58	70	84	77	64	67	58
2005	71	85	79	70	68	59	74	83	80	69	68	67	
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^d	1990	66	80	72	64	57	48	79	86	82	74	68	66
	1994	70	96	77	64	56	57	83	106	84	75	67	69
	1997	69	84	77	62	60	55	83	92	87	77	73	65
	1999	74	92	76	71	65	57	91	99	91	85	79	91
	2002	76	86	80	74	70	58	99	96	97	97	94	90
	2004	77	90	78	74	71	66	96	97	92	95	89	100
2005	76	88	78	78	71	56	98	97	95	99	91	90	

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 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. The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.
- ^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 27

**RATIO OF AVERAGE FEMALE INCOME TO AVERAGE MALE INCOME,
BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2005**
(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 or more	Total	0 - 3	4 - 6	7 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more
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
	2004	61	52	52	48	60	56	68	51	53	50	69	65
	2005	67	44	39	53	55	66	69	42	43	55	65	65
Bolivia	1989	59	62	67	76	77	46	60	40	49	69	85	49
	1994	54	60	58	67	65	54	61	44	48	56	70	60
	1997	60	59	66	53	75	57	69	61	46	48	79	60
	1999	63	63	64	66	71	66	72	55	59	42	82	65
	2002	61	61	67	75	66	60	77	39	83	95	74	60
	2004	63	61	73	62	69	64	90	53	69	67	78	67
Brazil	1990	56	46	46	50	49	49	65	56	51	57	53	52
	1993	56	49	46	49	51	46	61	56	51	56	55	45
	1996	62	57	52	53	53	53	68	65	57	57	57	56
	1999	64	58	51	55	55	56	70	65	58	59	60	57
	2001	66	58	54	55	56	54	86	76	71	70	64	57
	2003	66	59	54	55	57	55	87	78	71	70	67	57
	2004	66	61	53	57	57	56	86	79	70	71	67	59
	2005	67	61	55	57	60	56	87	79	71	71	67	60
Chile	1990	61	56	58	69	62	49	66	64	49	66	69	55
	1994	67	93	70	69	69	54	70	83	68	66	72	58
	1996	67	83	65	70	70	53	73	74	68	74	73	60
	1998	66	71	63	65	71	54	74	72	64	71	75	63
	2000	61	75	71	68	68	48	72	82	73	73	74	60
	2003	64	68	68	64	69	53	83	77	80	73	81	64
Colombia ^d	1991	68	57	60	70	72	64	77	71	70	78	78	68
	1994	68	59	68	65	71	57	83	80	81	83	86	66
	1997	79	69	65	108	88	61	77	74	74	71	78	67
	1999	75	66	71	75	73	70	83	79	86	84	81	74
	2002	77	61	68	70	72	73	99	83	88	87	84	79
	2004	76	51	56	67	72	73	95	75	85	83	86	77
	2005	75	57	63	66	71	71	95	80	85	86	84	77
Costa Rica	1990	72	53	62	65	73	67	74	58	66	67	76	66
	1994	69	61	55	58	64	70	75	61	63	68	67	75
	1997	78	61	58	61	77	75	87	66	67	70	83	77
	1999	70	49	62	57	65	68	78	59	68	66	73	71
	2002	75	62	56	60	72	72	85	74	71	74	79	69
	2004	76	62	57	68	72	70	88	83	73	78	80	68
	2005	73	53	54	62	67	70	89	74	75	79	77	71
Dominican Republic	1997	75	57	60	60	75	66	90	67	71	67	95	75
	2000	69	56	53	65	61	60	84	77	74	76	70	65
	2002	68	53	54	60	66	62	89	79	64	73	82	78
	2004	59	41	54	55	54	51	85	64	67	75	64	68
	2005	77	60	54	60	66	75	93	71	64	73	71	82
Ecuador	1990	66	49	57	68	79	57	67	42	47	70	77	56
	1994	67	60	61	70	72	59	76	56	59	68	83	66
	1997	75	57	60	61	87	70	83	64	61	63	92	72
	1999	67	63	62	62	71	60	83	55	60	68	87	71
	2002	67	73	69	66	70	57	87	96	90	78	80	64
	2004	68	67	62	68	75	57	89	92	78	83	85	61
	2005	74	79	64	70	76	65	94	76	77	83	84	70
El Salvador	1995	63	61	56	63	69	65	79	59	56	67	83	72
	1997	72	77	67	76	80	66	88	80	73	85	92	71
	1999	75	73	75	78	80	71	88	79	79	81	88	73
	2001	73	80	69	69	82	69	100	82	78	81	92	78
	2004	77	83	79	77	73	77	98	93	79	76	82	83
Guatemala	1998	55	61	52	59	56	53	70	56	58	66	71	61
	2002	58	57	61	65	62	58	80	82	71	81	71	68

Table 27 (concluded)

RATIO OF AVERAGE FEMALE INCOME TO AVERAGE MALE INCOME, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2005 (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 or more	Total	0 – 3	4 – 6	7 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Honduras	1990	59	47	50	58	69	54	78	55	55	66	82	63
	1994	63	60	65	66	67	56	73	57	70	80	74	63
	1997	60	52	56	58	66	54	77	60	69	76	76	59
	1999	65	60	62	59	66	66	78	67	68	60	76	74
	2002	76	66	69	67	77	65	95	87	84	81	83	64
	2003	83	71	71	72	86	79	107	97	87	88	92	78
Mexico ^e	1989	55	61	50	70	62	46	73	71	68	83	78	63
	1994	57	...	58	65	70	48	68	...	59	78	76	56
	1996	59	56	67	71	63	49	73	67	69	81	76	63
	1998	57	72	56	65	63	47	72	61	65	75	78	56
	2000	58	67	59	55	72	49	72	67	61	63	84	60
	2002	63	57	59	61	64	62	76	63	70	68	79	70
	2004	63	59	59	69	74	52	78	66	67	80	81	64
	2005	58	59	60	64	69	47	76	70	66	70	81	64
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
	2004	78	46	50	57	71	67	94	76	68	73	88	69
	2005	79	61	57	58	74	70	93	62	73	76	88	70
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	55	69	55	60	65	42	63	51	50	58	72	58
	1994	60	64	59	66	67	52	64	64	59	66	75	51
	1996	64	69	62	55	67	58	76	56	61	60	81	70
	1999	71	62	76	62	74	63	79	72	75	61	86	67
	2001	70	59	63	78	74	69	95	59	66	97	97	68
	2004	65	50	61	71	75	53	101	120	84	91	94	75
	2005	58	60	68	68	46	59	93	103	81	104	75	66
Peru	1997	60	69	66	61	71	53	73	79	69	62	80	65
	1999	63	65	65	...	67	62	78	78	80	...	69	72
	2001	67	80	82	72	71	63	80	52	75	74	75	67
	2003	61	63	68	72	65	56	78	73	66	59	72	65
Uruguay	1990	45	50	41	40	42	37	64	52	57	63	59	57
	1994	61	59	55	55	56	50	63	57	54	59	59	51
	1997	65	54	57	60	58	56	67	51	57	62	62	57
	1999	67	61	58	61	62	56	68	54	56	63	65	58
	2002	72	76	65	62	66	60	71	61	60	62	68	61
	2004	69	63	64	59	64	57	70	53	60	59	69	60
	2005	71	66	61	61	63	62	74	55	58	61	68	67
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^f	1990	66	62	58	68	61	62	79	73	68	77	78	71
	1994	70	68	62	70	63	67	84	83	75	90	71	76
	1997	69	71	61	64	60	63	83	74	73	71	75	70
	1999	74	71	65	66	63	66	91	83	73	75	77	74
	2002	76	67	67	65	70	69	99	84	80	80	79	85
	2004	77	72	69	67	69	70	96	81	83	80	83	81
	2005	76	74	65	68	65	73	98	75	78	82	80	88

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 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. The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

^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 28

AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2005 (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
	2004	4.4	16.0	3.0	4.2	2.9	5.2	4.4	5.6	1.7
	2005	4.9	17.5	3.0	5.0	3.1	5.8	5.5	5.9	1.8
Bolivia	1989	3.6	11.8	2.8	4.5	2.6	3.9	3.3	4.0	1.6
	1994	2.7	8.1	2.4	3.6	2.0	2.2	2.0	2.3	1.0
	1997	2.6	7.1	2.5	5.7	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.6	1.1
	1999	2.5	7.1	2.6	5.0	2.4	2.2	1.9	2.4	1.8
	2002	2.2	5.4	2.4	3.3	2.4	1.8	1.6	2.1	2.0
	2004	2.0	5.8	2.1	4.5	1.9	1.6	1.9	1.7	1.4
Brazil ^d	1990	4.1	...	3.6	7.6	2.6	3.4	3.3	3.6	1.0
	1993	2.6	11.3	2.2	5.1	2.0	2.7	2.6	3.4	1.1
	1996	3.4	14.0	2.7	5.9	2.5	3.7	3.5	4.5	1.5
	1999	3.0	10.3	2.4	3.6	2.1	2.8	2.7	3.5	1.4
	2001	2.8	10.6	2.4	3.6	2.1	2.8	2.6	3.4	1.4
	2003	2.4	9.5	2.1	3.7	2.0	2.3	2.4	2.7	1.3
	2004	2.4	9.4	2.0	3.8	2.0	2.3	2.2	2.8	1.3
	2005	2.4	8.8	2.2	3.8	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.6	1.4
Chile ^e	1990	3.8	18.8	2.6	4.8	2.4	4.7	3.9	5.1	1.4
	1994	4.3	17.4	3.2	6.8	2.9	4.6	4.6	4.6	2.0
	1996	5.6	22.3	3.4	7.9	2.9	6.0	5.5	6.1	2.0
	1998	5.9	24.0	3.4	7.1	3.0	5.9	5.5	6.2	2.2
	2000	5.3	21.8	3.6	8.2	3.0	5.2	5.1	5.4	2.4
	2003	5.8	24.2	3.3	7.3	2.9	5.8	5.6	5.9	2.4
Colombia ^f	1991	2.2	2.0	2.3	1.3
	1994	2.9	2.6	2.9	1.7
	1997	2.8	2.4	2.8	1.6
	1999	1.9	1.6	1.9	2.1
	2002	1.4	1.2	1.5	1.7
	2004	1.6	1.2	1.5	1.8
	2005	1.7	1.3	1.6	1.9
Costa Rica	1990	3.7	6.5	3.5	6.7	3.2	3.4	2.9	3.6	1.5
	1994	4.3	9.2	3.8	6.3	3.5	4.0	2.9	4.2	1.6
	1997	3.9	7.4	3.3	4.9	3.2	3.6	3.3	3.7	1.8
	1999	4.5	9.3	4.0	7.0	3.6	4.0	3.6	4.1	1.7
	2002	4.3	6.5	4.1	6.9	3.7	3.1	3.2	3.1	2.0
	2004	3.6	6.9	4.3	7.3	3.9	2.6	2.8	2.6	2.2
	2005	3.2	6.4	3.6	5.9	3.3	2.5	2.5	2.6	1.6
Dominican Republic	1997	3.8	9.9	2.6	5.1	2.4	4.0	4.2	4.1	1.4
	2000	4.1	14.3	2.8	8.5	2.3	4.3	4.6	4.3	1.2
	2002	4.0	14.5	2.4	4.0	2.3	4.1	4.4	4.2	1.3
	2004	4.5	15.2	1.5	2.4	1.4	4.4	5.3	4.5	0.9
	2005	2.5	6.8	1.7	2.8	1.6	2.4	2.7	2.4	1.3
Ecuador	1990	2.0	4.0	2.3	3.4	2.3	1.8	1.7	1.9	0.8
	1994	2.4	6.1	2.0	3.9	1.9	2.0	1.8	2.1	0.9
	1997	2.3	5.5	2.0	5.0	1.8	2.1	1.8	2.2	0.9
	1999	1.9	6.0	1.8	2.6	1.7	1.8	1.6	1.9	0.9
	2002	2.6	6.2	2.2	3.4	2.1	2.4	2.2	2.5	1.5
	2004	2.3	6.0	2.3	3.4	2.2	1.9	1.8	2.0	1.7
2005	2.7	6.7	2.4	4.4	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.3	1.7	
El Salvador	1995	2.4	6.8	2.0	3.1	2.0	2.0	1.6	2.4	1.0
	1997	2.6	7.3	2.5	6.4	2.3	2.1	2.0	2.4	1.9
	1999	2.9	8.8	2.5	4.4	2.4	2.4	1.7	2.6	2.1
	2001	2.7	7.4	2.4	3.4	2.3	2.2	1.6	2.6	2.0
	2004	2.7	7.0	2.3	2.9	2.3	2.2	1.8	2.5	2.1
Guatemala	1989	2.8	13.1	1.8	3.9	1.7	2.8	2.4	3.5	1.4
	1998	2.5	9.9	2.2	3.5	2.0	2.1	1.6	2.4	0.6
	2002	1.7	5.4	1.7	3.9	1.6	1.2	1.1	1.4	1.6
Honduras	1990	1.6	7.6	1.7	3.9	1.6	1.5	1.1	1.6	0.8
	1994	1.6	4.8	1.4	2.5	1.3	1.6	1.1	1.7	0.5
	1997	1.5	4.7	1.2	2.6	1.1	1.2	1.0	1.3	0.5
	1999	1.5	4.4	1.1	1.7	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.3	0.5
	2002	1.5	4.4	1.6	3.5	1.4	1.2	1.0	1.4	0.8
	2003	1.3	4.2	1.6	3.8	1.5	1.0	0.9	1.1	1.2

Table 28 (concluded)

AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-2005 (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				
Mexico ^d	1989	...	15.5	3.8	3.5	5.2	1.4
	1994	...	13.8	3.3	2.7	3.6	1.2
	1996	3.2	13.7	1.8	2.9	1.7	2.3	1.9	2.4	1.2
	1998	3.1	11.7	2.1	4.7	1.9	2.6	2.1	2.7	1.3
	2000	3.5	12.9	2.2	3.5	2.1	3.0	2.7	3.2	1.3
	2002	3.3	12.6	2.3	5.3	2.1	3.2	2.9	3.3	1.4
	2004	3.1	12.7	2.5	4.7	2.2	3.2	3.2	3.3	1.4
2005	3.3	11.3	2.3	4.4	2.1	3.5	3.3	3.5	1.6	
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
	2004	2.9	9.3	3.3	5.9	3.1	2.5	2.9	2.5	1.6
	2005	2.8	8.7	3.1	5.7	2.9	2.3	2.5	2.3	1.7
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	3.1	8.2	1.9	3.8	1.8	3.6	2.4	4.1	0.8
	1994	3.0	8.7	2.3	4.9	2.0	2.4	2.0	2.6	1.3
	1996	2.5	7.2	2.3	3.3	2.3	2.5	2.1	2.7	1.2
	1999	2.6	6.2	2.5	4.1	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.3	1.7
	2001	2.3	6.4	2.3	3.1	2.2	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.6
	2004	1.9	7.5	1.8	2.4	1.8	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5
2005	1.7	4.8	1.8	3.2	1.7	1.3	1.5	1.3	1.6	
(Urban)	1994	2.7	8.3	2.1	4.7	1.9	2.3	1.9	2.4	1.2
	1996	2.4	6.8	2.2	3.7	2.1	2.3	2.2	2.5	1.1
	1999	2.3	5.7	2.2	3.8	2.1	2.0	1.9	2.1	1.6
	2001	2.1	6.2	2.0	3.1	1.9	1.5	1.4	1.6	1.4
	2004	2.0	7.0	1.7	2.3	1.7	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.4
	2005	1.8	5.5	1.8	3.1	1.7	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.4
Peru	1997	2.4	6.5	2.4	3.6	2.3	1.8	1.6	1.9	2.3
	1999	2.1	4.5	2.2	3.9	2.0	1.6	1.4	1.7	2.9
	2001	2.0	5.5	2.0	3.0	1.9	1.7	1.6	1.9	2.0
	2003	1.8	5.4	1.8	2.1	1.8	1.5	1.6	1.7	2.0
Uruguay	1990	3.8	8.9	2.6	4.8	2.5	5.1	2.1	3.0	1.5
	1994	3.5	10.5	3.0	4.6	2.9	3.5	2.8	3.9	1.7
	1997	3.5	9.8	3.1	4.2	3.0	3.5	2.8	3.8	1.8
	1999	3.7	11.6	3.3	5.4	3.2	3.6	3.1	3.9	2.1
	2002	2.4	8.8	2.7	4.2	2.6	2.4	2.1	2.5	2.0
	2004	2.3	8.0	2.1	3.1	2.0	2.1	1.9	2.2	1.7
	2005	2.2	7.9	2.1	4.1	2.0	2.0	1.8	2.1	1.7
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. 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
	2004	2.9	8.3	1.7	2.7	1.7	2.7	3.1	2.9	1.2
2005	3.6	10.3	2.0	2.5	2.0	3.5	3.8	3.6	1.4	

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

^a Refers to establishments employing up to five persons. In the case of Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama (up to 2002), and Uruguay (1990), includes establishments employing up to four persons. Where no information was available on the size of the establishments, no figures are given for the population employed in low-productivity sectors.

^b Refers to own-account 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. The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

^g Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

^h The sample design 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 28.1

AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN MALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-2005 (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
	2004	5.7	16.9	3.2	4.9	3.1	6.1	5.2	6.8	3.7
	2005	6.1	18.6	3.4	5.6	3.2	7.0	6.1	7.5	3.4
Bolivia	1989	4.6	12.9	2.9	5.4	2.7	4.9	3.6	5.6	4.0
	1994	3.6	8.2	2.3	4.3	2.2	3.2	2.5	3.6	1.7
	1997	3.3	7.3	2.6	5.3	2.4	2.9	2.6	3.8	1.8
	1999	2.9	6.0	2.8	5.0	2.6	2.8	2.6	3.2	1.9
	2002	2.7	5.4	2.5	3.7	2.5	2.5	2.0	3.2	2.6
	2004	2.4	5.6	2.3	5.1	2.1	2.1	2.4	2.2	1.3
	2005	2.4	5.6	2.3	5.1	2.1	2.1	2.4	2.2	1.3
Brazil ^d	1990	4.0	...	3.7	11.6	2.8	4.4	3.5	5.2	1.3
	1993	3.7	12.0	2.2	6.6	2.0	3.5	2.8	4.6	1.5
	1996	4.7	14.4	2.8	7.3	2.6	4.7	3.8	6.0	2.0
	1999	3.8	10.4	2.5	5.0	2.2	3.6	3.0	4.5	2.1
	2002	3.6	11.0	2.4	4.3	2.2	3.5	2.8	4.5	2.0
	2003	3.1	9.9	2.3	4.3	2.1	2.8	2.8	3.5	1.9
	2004	3.1	10.0	2.3	4.1	2.1	2.8	2.6	3.6	1.8
	2005	3.1	9.4	2.3	4.2	2.1	2.8	2.7	3.4	1.8
	2005	3.1	9.4	2.3	4.2	2.1	2.8	2.7	3.4	1.8
Chile ^e	1990	5.0	21.5	2.8	6.7	2.5	5.2	4.3	5.7	1.9
	1994	5.2	17.5	3.4	8.9	3.0	5.2	5.1	5.4	2.2
	1996	7.0	23.1	3.6	9.1	3.0	7.0	6.4	7.3	2.1
	1998	7.6	27.1	3.6	8.1	3.2	7.0	6.2	7.4	3.0
	2000	7.2	24.5	3.7	9.4	3.1	5.8	5.6	6.2	3.0
	2003	7.5	26.8	3.6	9.6	3.0	6.5	6.2	6.8	3.4
	2005	7.5	26.8	3.6	9.6	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
	2004	2.0	1.5	1.9	2.1
	2005	2.1	1.6	2.0	2.8
Costa Rica	1990	4.5	6.8	3.6	8.0	3.3	4.3	3.9	4.5	1.5
	1994	5.4	9.9	4.3	7.4	3.9	4.8	3.7	4.9	2.1
	1997	4.7	7.9	3.7	5.7	3.5	4.5	3.9	4.9	2.3
	1999	5.7	10.1	4.2	8.0	3.8	5.2	4.6	5.5	2.3
	2002	5.2	8.6	4.4	7.7	3.9	4.0	3.7	4.4	2.3
	2004	4.6	7.0	4.6	8.0	4.1	3.3	3.2	3.5	2.9
	2005	4.3	6.8	3.7	6.0	3.5	3.5	3.1	3.8	1.9
Dominican Republic	1997	4.4	10.8	2.7	4.8	2.6	4.7	4.6	4.8	2.2
	2000	4.9	15.0	3.0	8.6	2.4	4.9	5.0	5.0	2.0
	2002	4.9	14.8	2.4	3.2	2.3	4.6	4.6	5.0	2.5
	2004	5.5	16.4	1.5	2.4	1.5	4.9	5.6	5.3	1.2
	2005	2.9	7.4	1.9	3.1	1.8	2.6	2.8	2.8	1.8
Ecuador	1990	2.5	3.9	2.4	4.0	2.4	2.3	1.9	2.5	1.1
	1994	3.0	6.6	2.2	5.3	2.0	2.6	2.2	2.8	1.1
	1997	2.9	5.6	2.0	7.9	1.8	2.6	2.3	2.8	1.3
	1999	2.8	6.4	1.8	2.9	1.7	2.3	2.1	2.5	1.4
	2002	3.1	6.5	2.2	3.8	2.1	3.0	2.7	3.2	1.9
	2004	3.0	6.5	2.3	4.2	2.2	2.5	2.3	2.7	2.8
	2005	3.2	7.4	2.5	5.3	2.3	2.6	2.7	2.9	2.1
El Salvador	1995	3.2	7.4	2.2	3.4	2.2	2.8	2.2	3.8	1.7
	1997	3.3	7.9	2.5	5.8	2.4	3.2	2.7	3.5	2.8
	1999	3.5	9.3	2.6	4.5	2.5	2.9	2.4	3.4	2.9
	2001	3.1	7.9	2.5	3.9	2.4	2.6	2.2	3.4	2.3
	2004	3.1	7.9	2.5	2.9	2.5	2.8	2.5	2.9	2.8
Guatemala	1989	3.5	13.7	1.9	4.9	1.8	3.6	3.4	5.4	2.6
	1998	3.3	11.3	2.4	4.0	2.2	2.8	2.5	3.7	1.2
	2002	3.1	6.0	1.8	3.9	1.7	1.5	1.6	2.0	1.7
Honduras	1990	2.2	9.4	1.8	4.1	1.7	2.2	1.7	2.4	1.6
	1994	2.1	5.1	1.4	2.5	1.3	2.0	1.6	2.3	1.6
	1997	1.9	5.0	1.1	2.2	1.1	1.7	1.6	1.8	0.8
	1999	1.9	4.7	1.2	1.4	1.2	1.6	2.1	1.8	0.8
	2002	1.8	4.6	1.6	4.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.8	1.2
	2003	1.7	4.4	1.6	3.6	1.5	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.4

Table 28.1 (concluded)

AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN MALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2005 (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				
Mexico ^d	1989	...	16.5	5.5	4.8	7.2	2.1
	1994	...	14.2	4.4	3.7	4.9	2.0
	1996	3.9	14.2	1.9	3.1	1.8	3.1	2.5	3.4	1.8
	1998	3.8	11.6	2.3	5.6	2.1	3.6	2.8	3.8	1.9
	2000	4.6	13.5	2.4	3.9	2.3	4.7	3.5	5.4	2.1
	2002	4.4	13.1	2.5	5.5	2.3	4.5	3.8	4.9	2.0
	2004	4.1	13.7	2.6	5.7	2.3	4.6	4.3	4.9	2.3
2005	4.2	11.7	2.5	5.4	2.3	4.9	4.4	5.1	3.3	
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
	2004	3.8	10.1	3.2	6.4	3.0	3.1	3.4	3.2	2.2
	2005	3.8	9.5	3.2	6.1	3.0	2.9	3.0	3.0	2.1
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	4.2	8.2	2.0	4.8	1.9	4.5	2.9	5.2	...
	1994	3.9	9.0	2.3	5.8	2.1	2.9	2.5	3.2	2.1
	1996	3.3	7.6	2.5	3.5	2.4	3.1	2.6	3.6	2.0
	1999	3.0	6.4	2.5	3.9	2.3	2.6	2.4	2.8	1.9
	2001	2.9	7.0	2.4	3.7	2.2	2.1	2.1	2.1	1.9
	2004	2.5	8.2	1.8	2.3	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.0
2005	2.3	5.2	1.8	2.8	1.7	1.8	1.9	1.9	2.2	
(Urban)	1994	3.5	8.4	2.2	5.3	2.0	2.8	2.5	3.0	1.9
	1996	3.1	7.0	2.3	4.0	2.2	2.9	2.7	3.3	1.7
	1999	2.8	5.8	2.1	3.7	2.0	2.3	2.1	2.6	1.7
	2001	2.7	6.5	2.0	3.6	1.9	1.9	1.8	2.1	1.8
	2004	2.4	7.6	1.7	2.5	1.7	1.9	1.8	2.0	1.9
	2005	2.3	5.9	1.8	3.0	1.7	1.8	1.6	2.0	1.8
Peru	1997	3.0	6.9	2.6	4.3	2.5	2.3	2.2	2.5	2.7
	1999	2.4	4.9	2.3	4.3	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.3	1.8
	2001	2.5	5.9	2.1	3.5	2.0	2.0	2.2	2.3	1.8
	2003	2.3	5.9	1.9	2.5	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.3	3.6
Uruguay	1990	6.1	9.6	2.8	6.3	2.7	7.3	2.7	3.8	1.5
	1994	4.7	10.8	3.2	7.0	3.1	4.4	3.5	5.0	3.0
	1997	4.5	10.5	3.3	6.0	3.2	4.1	3.3	4.6	2.0
	1999	4.7	12.1	3.5	7.1	3.4	4.2	3.5	4.7	2.7
	2002	3.3	9.0	2.9	4.7	2.8	2.6	2.3	2.8	3.3
	2004	2.8	8.7	2.2	2.9	2.2	2.4	2.2	2.5	2.6
	2005	2.9	8.4	2.4	4.7	2.3	2.4	2.1	2.5	2.7
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^h	1990	5.1	9.5	2.5	3.9	2.5	4.9	4.8	5.4	3.4
	1994	4.2	7.6	2.2	6.4	2.0	4.2	3.9	4.7	2.9
	1997	4.1	9.5	1.7	2.8	1.7	4.3	4.6	5.0	2.2
	1999	3.4	7.7	2.1	4.3	2.0	3.3	3.8	3.8	2.0
	2002	3.4	8.9	3.3	3.3	1.7	1.7	3.9	3.6	1.9
	2004	3.3	8.5	1.7	2.9	1.7	3.1	3.6	3.5	1.7
2005	4.0	10.6	2.1	2.9	2.1	4.0	4.5	4.4	1.7	

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

^a Refers to establishments employing up to five persons. In the case of Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama (up to 2002), and Uruguay (1990), includes establishments employing up to four persons. Where no information was available on the size of the establishments, no figures are given for the population employed in low-productivity sectors.

^b Refers to own-account 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. The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

^g Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

^h The sample design 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 28.2

AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN FEMALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990-2005 (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
	2004	2.7	13.3	2.5	3.4	2.4	3.3	2.5	3.6	1.6
	2005	3.2	15.3	2.8	4.2	2.6	3.7	3.3	3.8	1.7
Bolivia	1989	2.7	6.1	2.4	3.4	2.2	2.9	2.7	3.0	1.4
	1994	1.8	7.5	1.7	2.8	1.5	1.6	1.4	1.7	0.9
	1997	1.9	6.6	2.3	6.3	1.8	1.7	1.3	2.0	1.0
	1999	1.9	9.7	2.1	5.1	1.8	1.6	0.9	1.9	1.8
	2002	1.7	5.4	2.1	2.9	2.0	1.4	1.1	1.6	2.0
	2004	1.5	6.5	1.7	3.4	1.5	1.2	1.0	1.4	1.4
Brazil ^d	1990	2.2	...	3.5	5.6	2.1	1.9	1.1	2.0	0.9
	1993	1.5	8.4	2.1	3.3	1.8	1.4	1.1	1.9	1.1
	1996	2.2	12.6	2.5	4.1	2.3	2.0	1.5	2.6	1.5
	1999	1.9	10.1	2.2	2.9	1.8	1.6	1.2	2.0	1.4
	2001	1.8	9.5	2.3	3.2	1.8	1.6	1.3	2.0	1.4
	2003	1.7	8.4	2.1	3.1	2.0	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.4
	2004	1.7	8.1	2.1	3.4	1.9	1.3	1.4	1.7	1.3
	2005	1.7	7.3	2.1	3.3	2.0	1.3	1.3	1.7	1.3
Chile ^e	1990	2.6	10.2	2.3	3.1	2.2	2.9	2.9	3.9	1.4
	1994	3.2	17.2	2.7	3.8	2.6	3.3	3.2	3.3	2.0
	1996	3.6	20.4	3.1	5.6	2.8	3.9	3.3	4.1	2.0
	1998	3.7	16.8	3.2	6.2	2.6	4.2	3.6	4.4	2.2
	2000	3.5	14.0	3.3	6.6	2.8	3.9	3.6	4.0	2.4
	2003	3.8	18.3	3.0	4.6	2.8	4.0	3.4	4.2	2.4
Colombia ^f	1991	2.2	1.9	2.3	1.2
	1994	2.0	1.9	2.0	1.7
	1997	2.0	1.9	2.0	1.6
	1999	1.3	1.1	1.3	2.1
	2002	1.0	0.8	1.0	1.7
	2004	1.0	0.8	1.0	1.8
	2005	1.0	0.8	1.1	1.9
Costa Rica	1990	2.1	5.0	3.1	4.5	2.9	1.7	1.6	1.8	1.5
	1994	2.8	6.5	2.9	4.0	2.8	2.5	1.7	2.9	1.6
	1997	2.4	5.3	2.9	3.7	2.8	2.1	2.1	2.1	1.8
	1999	2.7	6.1	3.6	5.6	3.3	2.1	2.0	2.1	1.7
	2002	3.0	9.2	3.6	5.2	3.4	2.0	2.3	1.9	2.0
	2004	2.7	6.7	3.7	5.6	3.5	1.7	1.9	1.6	2.2
	2005	2.3	5.1	3.3	5.9	2.8	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.6
Dominican Republic	1997	2.5	5.8	2.4	5.6	2.0	2.9	2.5	3.0	1.4
	2000	2.9	12.9	2.5	8.3	2.1	2.9	2.3	3.0	1.1
	2002	2.9	13.6	2.5	5.4	2.2	2.9	3.3	2.9	1.1
	2004	2.8	12.0	1.3	2.4	1.1	3.0	2.9	3.0	0.8
	2005	1.7	5.1	1.4	2.2	1.3	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.2
Ecuador	1990	1.3	4.2	2.0	2.8	1.9	1.3	1.2	1.3	0.7
	1994	1.6	4.4	1.7	1.9	1.7	1.4	1.3	1.4	0.9
	1997	1.7	4.9	1.9	2.9	1.7	1.5	1.0	1.6	0.9
	1999	1.4	4.7	1.6	2.2	1.4	1.2	0.8	1.3	0.9
	2002	1.8	5.2	2.2	2.8	2.1	1.7	1.4	1.8	1.5
	2004	1.6	4.4	2.0	2.5	1.9	1.3	0.9	1.4	1.6
	2005	1.9	5.1	2.3	3.5	2.1	1.6	1.2	1.7	1.6
El Salvador	1995	1.7	5.2	1.6	2.9	1.5	1.6	1.3	1.7	0.9
	1997	2.1	5.9	2.3	7.2	2.0	1.7	1.5	1.8	1.8
	1999	2.4	7.6	2.2	4.2	2.1	2.0	1.4	2.2	2.0
	2001	2.2	6.3	2.1	2.4	2.1	2.0	1.3	2.2	1.9
	2004	2.3	4.8	1.4	2.8	2.0	2.1	1.4	2.3	2.0
Guatemala	1989	1.6	11.1	1.8	2.5	1.5	1.9	1.6	2.1	1.4
	1998	1.6	6.2	1.6	2.8	1.4	1.5	1.0	1.7	0.6
	2002	1.3	3.5	1.6	4.0	1.3	1.0	0.7	1.1	1.6
Honduras	1990	1.0	4.0	1.4	3.5	1.2	0.9	0.7	0.9	0.8
	1994	1.0	3.5	1.3	2.6	1.1	1.1	0.7	1.2	0.5
	1997	0.9	3.5	1.2	2.9	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.9	0.5
	1999	1.0	3.5	1.2	1.9	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.5
	2002	1.1	4.0	1.4	2.7	1.2	0.9	0.6	1.0	0.8
	2003	1.2	3.7	1.8	3.9	1.5	0.8	0.5	0.9	1.2

Table 28.2 (concluded)

AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN FEMALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2005 (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				
Mexico ^d	1989	...	9.4	2.3	1.7	2.6	1.3
	1994	...	11.6	1.8	1.1	2.1	1.1
	1996	1.7	11.3	1.6	2.6	1.4	1.3	1.1	1.4	1.1
	1998	1.9	12.5	1.6	3.2	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.1
	2000	1.7	9.7	1.7	2.7	1.6	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.1
	2002	2.0	10.3	2.0	5.0	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.7	1.3
	2004	1.9	9.5	2.1	3.7	1.8	1.9	1.3	2.0	1.3
2005	2.2	10.0	2.0	3.2	1.8	1.9	1.4	2.0	1.5	
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
	2004	2.0	5.8	3.3	5.3	3.1	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.6
	2005	2.0	6.0	2.9	5.1	2.7	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.7
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	2.0	8.2	1.8	3.1	1.5	2.9	1.9	3.2	0.8
	1994	2.1	8.0	2.2	4.0	1.8	1.9	1.3	2.1	1.2
	1996	1.8	6.1	2.1	2.8	2.0	1.9	1.4	2.1	1.2
	1999	2.2	5.7	2.5	5.1	2.4	2.1	1.9	2.0	1.7
	2001	1.8	5.2	2.2	2.4	2.1	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.5
	2004	1.4	5.1	1.8	2.4	1.7	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.5
	2005	1.4	3.7	1.9	4.1	1.7	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.5
(Urban)	1994	2.0	7.9	2.0	3.9	1.7	1.8	1.1	2.0	1.2
	1996	1.7	6.1	2.0	2.8	2.0	1.7	1.3	1.9	1.1
	1999	1.9	5.4	2.3	4.0	2.0	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.6
	2001	1.5	5.6	2.0	2.5	1.9	1.2	1.0	1.3	1.4
	2004	1.4	5.3	1.7	2.2	1.6	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.3
	2005	1.2	4.1	1.8	3.3	1.7	1.0	0.8	1.1	1.3
Peru	1997	1.7	5.0	1.8	2.7	1.6	1.3	0.8	1.5	2.3
	1999	1.7	3.2	2.0	3.5	1.7	1.2	0.6	1.3	2.9
	2001	1.6	4.4	1.6	2.4	1.5	1.4	0.7	1.6	2.0
	2003	1.4	4.1	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.9
Uruguay	1990	1.9	6.3	2.0	3.1	1.9	1.8	1.2	1.9	1.5
	1994	2.2	9.4	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.2	1.5	2.5	1.7
	1997	2.4	7.4	2.6	2.9	2.6	2.3	1.6	2.6	1.8
	1999	2.5	10.4	2.9	4.1	2.8	2.5	1.9	2.7	2.1
	2002	2.2	7.9	2.3	3.4	2.2	1.8	1.4	2.0	1.9
	2004	1.8	6.2	1.8	3.2	1.7	1.6	1.2	1.7	1.6
	2005	1.7	6.6	1.8	3.5	1.7	1.5	1.1	1.7	1.6
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^h	1990	2.5	9.8	2.5	3.1	2.4	2.7	2.6	2.8	1.7
	1994	2.6	6.7	2.4	5.6	2.0	2.6	2.4	2.6	1.5
	1997	2.6	8.3	1.2	3.0	1.6	3.1	2.5	3.2	1.2
	1999	2.4	6.7	2.1	3.7	1.9	2.3	2.1	2.4	1.3
	2002	2.2	7.7	1.7	2.2	1.6	2.2	2.0	2.3	1.2
	2004	2.1	7.4	1.6	2.5	1.5	2.1	2.0	2.2	1.2
2005	2.7	8.9	1.9	2.2	1.8	2.7	2.3	2.8	1.4	

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

^a Refers to establishments employing up to five persons. In the case of Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Bolivia (1999 and 2002), Chile (1996), Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama (up to 2002), and Uruguay (1990), includes establishments employing up to four persons. Where no information was available on the size of the establishments, no figures are given for the population employed in low-productivity sectors.

^b Refers to own-account 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. The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 2001 is such that the figures for urban areas are not strictly comparable with those of previous years.

^g Information from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIGH).

^h The sample design used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Education

Table 29

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE IN URBAN AREAS, BOTH SEXES, BY PER CAPITA HOUSEHOLD INCOME QUINTILE AND AGE GROUP, 1989–2005 (Percentages of the population in each age group)										
Country	Year	7 – 12			13 – 19			20 – 24		
		Total	Poorest 20%	Richest 20%	Total	Poorest 20%	Richest 20%	Total	Poorest 20%	Richest 20%
Argentina	1990 ^a	98.4	97.9	100.0	68.8	62.6	79.3	23.6	12.4	39.8
	2002 ^b	99.4	99.1	100.0	83.2	76.3	96.4	40.5	21.7	61.6
	2004	98.9	98.7	99.4	78.7	73.9	88.8	38.2	22.9	60.7
	2005	99.0	98.7	99.8	79.8	75.1	90.0	38.1	22.4	62.7
Bolivia	1989 ^c	97.3	95.9	96.3	85.0	84.4	87.5	44.3	45.6	52.7
	2002	96.9	95.6	98.3	84.6	84.2	88.2	43.3	32.9	74.3
	2004	97.8	96.6	99.8	82.5	83.5	90.6	38.9	28.2	64.8
Brazil	1990	91.4	83.6	98.5	64.6	56.1	86.7	19.8	11.6	39.8
	2001	97.6	95.8	99.6	77.5	72.6	90.6	27.5	18.7	52.9
	2003	98.2	96.8	99.7	78.4	74.5	90.5	28.1	19.5	55.3
	2004	98.0	96.7	99.8	77.4	73.9	89.4	26.8	18.5	54.0
	2005	98.3	97.4	99.6	76.9	73.6	89.8	26.3	17.4	53.9
Chile	1990	98.8	97.9	99.4	78.6	74.3	89.6	18.7	8.2	41.5
	1998	99.2	98.7	99.9	81.5	75.1	92.2	30.0	12.8	62.0
	2003	99.5	99.2	99.6	85.3	81.4	94.1	35.3	18.9	67.8
Colombia	1990 ^d	96.0	92.6	99.1	74.9	66.3	92.8	28.1	15.3	48.9
	2002	96.3	94.0	99.4	68.2	64.3	85.1	23.5	12.7	52.2
	2004	96.9	94.9	98.1	71.0	68.4	86.3	25.0	12.6	53.0
	2005	97.4	95.8	99.6	73.0	70.1	89.2	25.0	11.6	56.6
Costa Rica	1990	96.8	95.3	98.4	68.6	57.9	86.2	28.5	20.0	52.1
	2002	98.5	97.2	99.4	76.9	72.9	90.2	43.3	29.7	60.6
	2004	99.5	99.0	100.0	77.9	74.5	89.1	44.1	22.9	65.2
	2005	99.4	99.0	100.0	80.2	78.2	93.4	41.3	26.4	67.5
Dominican Republic	2000	97.6	95.3	99.5	82.6	84.6	87.6	43.2	38.6	56.3
	2002	97.7	95.9	99.2	83.7	83.3	89.3	44.3	34.4	60.5
	2004	98.0	96.9	99.5	83.2	82.9	84.2	42.1	34.3	48.3
	2005	97.6	97.2	98.1	83.3	83.0	84.2	40.9	30.7	57.9
Ecuador	1990	97.8	97.1	98.6	77.2	78.1	84.5	35.4	32.5	42.0
	2002	95.9	92.6	98.6	73.3	68.1	87.3	30.2	17.1	50.4
	2004	96.8	95.3	99.1	75.6	66.4	91.7	33.6	17.2	55.2
	2005	96.4	93.1	99.7	75.3	70.2	88.9	32.6	21.4	52.0
El Salvador	1995	92.2	85.8	99.6	70.5	64.2	87.0	27.2	13.1	49.6
	2001	92.6	85.9	100.0	73.4	66.0	87.0	25.5	11.3	49.5
	2004	94.7	91.6	99.0	75.1	67.5	90.2	24.3	14.5	43.6
Guatemala	1990
	2002	90.4	84.2	94.3	66.9	63.3	78.3	25.5	11.1	43.9
Honduras	1990	89.5	85.1	98.3	57.7	51.2	79.2	22.2	13.4	41.1
	2002	92.3	86.2	98.1	63.8	50.0	85.8	26.9	9.8	51.1
	2003	94.7	89.9	99.2	66.7	55.8	83.6	28.7	13.3	53.0
Mexico	1992	97.4	95.8	99.5	62.7	55.6	80.7	23.9	7.1	47.3
	2002	98.1	96.3	99.6	68.9	57.6	92.8	30.7	16.4	55.1
	2004	98.6	97.1	100.0	68.0	62.2	86.2	27.7	12.3	50.2
	2005	97.9	96.3	99.1	70.0	60.5	87.1	27.4	14.4	48.7
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
	2004	99.0	97.8	100.0	82.7	77.9	94.5	34.6	21.6	58.8
	2005	99.1	98.4	100.0	81.4	76.4	94.4	34.4	20.8	52.5
Paraguay	1994	96.0	94.5	99.2	71.2	62.0	85.3	23.6	12.0	43.0
	2001	97.4	97.4	99.9	74.1	63.8	86.8	31.9	13.7	61.5
	2004	98.0	95.8	99.3	77.6	73.3	82.7	27.9	11.0	53.0
	2005	99.4	99.1	100.0	78.8	70.7	88.2	29.6	10.4	57.2
Peru	1997	97.6	96.2	99.5	72.4	73.1	84.1	29.8	20.7	44.6
	2001	98.6	97.7	98.9	72.9	72.2	74.8	27.7	18.9	40.6
	2003	98.2	97.6	100.0	73.0	74.3	77.0	33.5	24.4	61.0
Uruguay	1990	99.1	98.9	100.0	70.6	60.5	89.4	26.7	8.6	54.2
	2002	98.2	98.2	98.8	76.5	64.2	94.9	34.8	12.7	73.0
	2004	98.5	98.2	99.0	77.8	67.5	96.1	37.0	15.7	73.4
	2005	98.6	98.6	99.6	76.6	66.4	96.2	37.4	14.1	72.5
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	95.4	94.3	97.9	68.7	68.8	78.3	27.3	27.0	39.3
	2002 ^e	96.7	94.6	98.6	67.2	62.7	77.8	33.6	20.8	54.7
	2004 ^e	96.6	95.0	97.8	74.6	72.6	80.6	40.7	33.5	58.0
	2005 ^e	97.5	96.1	98.9	75.4	74.4	80.6	43.2	34.3	60.4

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

^a Metropolitan area.

^b Twenty-eight urban agglomerations.

^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 30

POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2005 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years 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
	2005	2.3	27.9	52.9	16.9
Bolivia	1997	11.9	31.1	44.4	12.6	48.3	34.9	15.3	1.5
	2002	8.8	29.5	45.8	15.9	44.3	34.1	20.5	1.2
	2004	8.6	31.3	43.8	16.3	27.2	39.3	31.0	2.6
Brazil	1979	48.2	34.6	14.1	3.1	86.8	9.7	1.9	1.6
	1990	41.0	37.5	18.2	3.3	79.0	16.9	3.7	0.3
	1993	40.7	38.9	17.6	2.8	77.9	17.4	4.3	0.3
	1999	27.0	42.7	26.7	3.7	62.8	27.2	9.5	0.5
	2001	23.1	41.1	31.6	4.1	58.6	30.7	10.3	0.4
	2005	14.9	39.7	39.6	5.8	42.4	39.7	17.2	0.8
Chile	1990	5.7	33.2	45.4	15.8	16.6	57.1	22.4	3.9
	1994	4.2	31.3	46.4	18.1	14.3	54.8	26.2	4.8
	2000	2.6	29.9	51.1	16.5	8.4	49.8	37.1	4.6
	2003	1.6	28.3	51.8	18.4	5.4	45.4	44.2	5.1
Colombia ^b	1980	31.2	40.9	21.1	6.8
	1990	19.6	40.4	31.0	9.0
	1991	21.8	37.9	29.7	10.6	60.1	25.7	13.6	0.5
	1994	17.7	37.9	35.9	8.4	55.8	29.5	14.0	0.7
	1999	14.6	32.4	43.2	9.8	46.2	30.7	21.8	1.3
	2002	13.5	29.5	37.1	19.9
2005	10.9	28.2	37.8	23.2	
Costa Rica	1981	7.3	50.5	33.9	8.2	19.8	64.7	13.8	1.7
	1990	9.1	50.1	29.8	10.9	20.0	64.5	13.6	2.0
	1994	8.6	49.6	30.9	10.9	21.2	64.3	12.3	2.2
	1999	8.5	50.8	28.3	12.4	18.5	61.9	15.9	3.7
	2002	7.3	49.4	30.4	12.8	19.1	61.4	15.5	4.0
	2005	5.0	51.4	31.5	12.2	14.1	61.1	19.5	5.3
Dominican Republic	2000	13.1	35.5	37.1	14.3	37.4	38.7	20.4	3.5
	2002	11.7	35.1	37.3	15.9	31.3	41.6	23.4	3.7
	2005	10.2	34.9	38.9	16.0	21.8	40.1	31.4	6.6
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
	2005	5.4	34.1	43.3	17.2	13.8	55.1	27.3	3.8
El Salvador	1995	20.6	41.4	28.8	9.2	60.4	31.2	7.3	1.1
	1999	15.6	38.7	33.5	12.2	49.7	38.5	10.0	1.9
	2001	13.8	39.5	33.7	13.0	43.9	41.8	12.3	2.0
	2004	14.8	40.5	32.4	12.3	38.9	44.9	14.8	1.4
Guatemala	1989	33.9	42.6	19.2	4.3	75.9	21.8	2.1	0.2
	1998	25.3	43.5	24.3	6.9	67.3	29.1	3.4	0.2
	2004	25.0	43.2	24.8	7.0	58.4	35.5	5.9	0.2
Honduras	1990	24.1	55.7	15.3	5.0	57.6	39.8	2.3	0.3
	1994	20.5	56.1	17.3	6.0	45.9	49.3	4.4	0.4
	1999	16.3	57.7	19.9	6.2	45.5	49.1	5.2	0.3
	2003	16.1	52.4	23.8	7.7	45.4	49.9	4.1	0.6
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
	2005	4.1	45.4	33.8	16.7	13.1	57.1	23.5	6.3

Table 30 (concluded)

POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2005 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more
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
	2005	2.2	35.2	43.9	18.8	12.7	54.5	26.2	6.6
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	10.6	50.9	31.1	7.5
	1990	7.3	46.7	36.8	9.3
	1994	7.9	49.0	34.8	8.3
	1997	6.2	48.1	37.1	8.6
	2001	7.3	39.0	40.7	12.9
	2005	3.6	38.8	45.2	12.4
Peru	1999	3.4	32.9	49.6	14.1	25.1	49.0	22.7	3.2
	2001	5.6	31.6	44.0	18.8	22.1	48.7	23.5	5.7
	2003	3.9	25.8	47.8	22.5	19.9	47.5	26.5	6.1
Uruguay	1981	7.4	55.5	31.8	5.3
	1990	3.7	52.6	35.4	8.3
	1994	3.5	51.1	37.6	7.8
	1999	2.8	48.6	39.4	9.2
	2002	3.3	47.4	35.5	13.8
	2005	3.2	45.5	36.7	14.6
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. 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
	2002	9.9	46.3	29.0	14.8
	2005	8.5	40.7	33.1	17.7

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the relevant 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 in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 30.1

MALE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2005 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years 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
	2002	3.7	39.2		41.6
	2005	3.0	32.6		49.8
Bolivia	1997	9.2	31.3	46.6	12.9	40.0	39.1	19.8	1.1
	2002	6.8	29.1	48.6	15.5	37.5	36.1	24.9	1.5
	2004	5.6	31.6	46.3	16.5	20.9	40.2	35.1	3.8
Brazil	1979	49.2	34.6	13.1	3.1	87.0	9.5	1.6	2.0
	1990	44.4	37.0	15.8	2.9	81.7	15.6	2.6	0.2
	1993	44.8	37.4	15.5	2.2	81.0	15.6	3.2	0.2
	1999	30.7	42.9	23.4	3.0	68.1	23.7	7.8	0.4
	2001	26.2	42.3	28.3	3.2	63.0	28.1	8.5	0.3
	2005	17.5	40.9	36.8	4.8	48.0	36.9	14.6	0.5
Chile	1990	6.1	33.7	45.4	14.8	18.7	57.6	20.5	3.1
	1994	4.6	32.3	45.5	17.7	16.2	55.5	24.2	4.2
	2000	2.7	30.8	49.6	16.8	9.5	52.7	34.3	3.5
	2003	2.0	29.3	50.9	17.9	6.2	46.5	43.3	3.9
Colombia ^b	1980	29.5	42.7	21.3	6.6
	1990	18.2	42.5	30.7	8.6
	1991	22.1	39.8	28.4	9.7	64.3	23.5	11.6	0.5
	1994	18.1	39.0	35.1	7.8	60.3	28.3	10.9	0.5
	1999	15.0	34.0	42.2	8.9	50.2	29.7	19.1	1.0
	2002	14.3	30.8	36.1	18.8
2005	12.0	30.1	36.1	21.8	
Costa Rica	1981	7.8	52.4	31.6	8.2	19.6	65.8	12.7	1.9
	1990	10.5	50.1	28.6	10.8	22.3	63.7	12.2	1.8
	1994	9.4	47.9	31.5	11.2	22.4	64.7	11.0	1.9
	1999	9.5	52.0	26.8	11.6	19.3	63.3	13.6	3.7
	2002	8.0	50.5	29.8	11.7	20.9	61.9	13.4	3.7
	2005	5.5	53.6	30.2	10.7	15.8	61.7	17.9	4.6
Dominican Republic	2000	15.6	39.4	33.9	11.0	41.9	38.1	17.3	2.8
	2002	14.1	36.9	35.6	13.3	36.0	44.1	17.7	2.2
	2005	12.4	37.1	36.4	14.1	25.1	41.5	28.4	5.0
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
	2005	5.4	35.3	43.3	15.9	14.3	56.5	26.4	2.8
El Salvador	1995	20.7	43.5	26.7	9.1	61.1	31.5	6.7	0.7
	1999	16.0	38.7	32.8	12.4	48.6	40.6	9.0	1.8
	2001	13.0	41.6	33.4	11.9	42.4	43.6	12.0	2.0
	2004	15.0	39.9	32.9	12.1	38.9	45.8	14.2	1.2
Guatemala	1989	27.6	47.5	18.6	6.2	70.8	26.5	2.5	0.2
	1998	24.3	45.8	21.8	8.1	61.1	34.8	3.9	0.1
	2004	19.9	46.9	26.2	6.9	52.0	41.4	6.3	0.4
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
	2005	4.0	47.7	33.2	15.2	12.4	56.1	25.0	6.5

Table 30.1 (concluded)

MALE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2005 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more
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
	2005	2.3	40.8	40.9	16.0	11.7	58.1	25.7	4.5
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	7.7	52.3	31.2	8.8
	1990	5.6	46.6	38.8	9.1
	1994	7.4	47.5	37.2	7.8
	1997	5.3	45.8	40.1	8.7
	2001	6.5	41.9	40.3	11.3
	2005	3.4	39.1	46.5	11.0
Peru	1999	3.1	33.3	50.0	13.7	20.3	50.6	27.5	1.6
	2001	4.4	31.5	46.5	17.6	16.9	51.9	26.2	5.0
	2003	3.5	26.7	49.1	20.8	14.4	48.7	31.4	5.5
Uruguay	1981	8.8	57.4	28.7	5.1
	1990	4.0	57.3	31.8	6.9
	1994	4.1	56.5	33.2	6.2
	1999	3.3	55.4	34.2	7.2
	2002	4.0	52.4	32.8	10.7
	2005	4.0	48.9	34.6	12.4
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^c	1981	15.3	59.0	18.6	7.1	49.0	44.5	6.0	0.5
	1990	11.9	58.4	21.1	8.6	44.4	48.8	6.0	0.8
	1994	12.2	51.0	26.0	10.8	43.5	45.2	9.7	1.6
	1999	13.5	51.4	24.7	10.4
	2002	12.3	49.8	26.2	11.7
	2005	10.7	44.5	30.8	13.9

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the relevant 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 in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 30.2

FEMALE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2005 (Percentages)										
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas				
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling				
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years 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
	2005	1.7	23.2		55.9	19.1
Bolivia	1997	14.5	30.9	42.3	12.4	56.9	30.5	10.8	1.8	
	2002	10.5	29.9	43.4	16.3	52.0	31.7	15.4	0.8	
	2004	11.4	31.1	41.5	16.0	33.6	38.3	26.7	1.4	
Brazil	1979	47.3	34.5	15.0	3.2	86.6	9.9	2.2	1.3	
	1990	37.9	38.0	20.4	3.7	76.1	18.5	5.0	0.4	
	1993	36.8	40.3	19.5	3.4	74.3	19.5	5.7	0.4	
	1999	23.4	42.4	29.9	4.3	56.7	31.1	11.5	0.7	
	2001	20.2	40.0	34.7	5.0	53.5	33.8	12.2	0.4	
	2005	12.4	38.4	42.4	6.8	36.0	42.8	20.1	1.1	
Chile	1990	5.3	32.7	45.3	16.7	14.3	56.5	24.5	4.8	
	1994	3.9	30.4	47.2	18.5	12.4	54.1	28.2	5.4	
	2000	2.4	28.9	52.6	16.1	7.3	46.8	40.2	5.7	
	2003	1.1	27.2	52.7	19.0	4.5	44.0	45.2	6.3	
Colombia ^b	1980	32.5	39.5	21.0	7.0	
	1990	20.8	38.7	31.2	9.3	
	1991	21.5	36.3	30.8	11.4	55.9	28.0	15.6	0.5	
	1994	17.4	37.1	36.6	8.9	50.9	30.8	17.4	0.8	
	1999	14.3	31.1	44.0	10.6	41.8	31.8	24.8	1.7	
	2002	12.9	28.3	38.0	20.8	
2005	9.8	26.5	39.3	24.4		
Costa Rica	1981	6.9	48.7	36.2	8.2	19.9	63.7	14.8	1.6	
	1990	7.7	50.1	31.1	11.1	17.4	65.4	15.0	2.2	
	1994	7.7	51.4	30.3	10.6	19.8	63.9	13.8	2.5	
	1999	7.5	49.7	29.7	13.1	17.8	60.5	18.1	3.6	
	2002	6.6	48.2	31.1	14.0	17.2	60.8	17.8	4.2	
	2005	4.4	49.1	32.7	13.7	12.4	60.4	21.2	6.0	
Dominican Republic	2000	10.6	31.8	40.2	17.4	32.5	39.4	23.9	4.2	
	2002	9.3	33.3	39.0	18.4	25.0	38.5	30.7	5.7	
	2005	8.0	32.6	41.4	18.0	17.8	38.4	35.2	8.6	
Ecuador	1990	5.0	43.1	39.8	12.1	
	1994	4.8	41.8	39.2	14.3	
	1999	5.9	38.3	39.8	16.0	
	2002	5.9	38.3	38.0	17.8	
	2005	5.4	32.8	43.2	18.6	13.4	53.6	28.2	4.8	
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	
	2004	14.6	41.1	31.9	12.4	38.9	44.0	15.4	1.6	
Guatemala	1989	38.9	38.7	19.6	2.8	80.8	17.4	1.7	0.2	
	1998	26.2	41.5	26.6	5.8	73.2	23.7	2.8	0.3	
	2004	29.8	39.7	23.4	7.1	64.2	30.1	5.6	0.1	
Honduras	1990	24.2	54.4	15.9	5.5	55.0	41.5	3.1	0.4	
	1994	19.8	56.0	18.5	5.6	43.4	50.8	5.3	0.4	
	1999	15.2	56.7	21.1	7.1	44.2	49.2	6.3	0.4	
	2003	14.3	51.6	25.7	8.3	42.0	52.6	4.8	0.6	
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	
	2005	4.2	43.2	34.5	18.2	13.7	58.1	22.0	6.2	

Table 30.2 (concluded)

FEMALE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2005 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more
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
	2005	2.0	29.9	46.7	21.4	13.9	50.3	26.7	9.1
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	12.4	49.9	31.0	6.7
	1990	8.7	46.7	35.1	9.4
	1994	8.3	50.2	32.8	8.7
	1997	6.9	50.1	34.5	8.5
	2001	8.0	36.6	41.1	14.3
	2005	3.7	38.6	44.1	13.6
Peru	1999	3.6	32.6	49.3	14.5	30.3	47.2	17.4	5.1
	2001	6.8	31.7	41.5	20.0	27.8	45.3	20.5	6.5
	2003	4.2	25.0	46.5	24.3	26.1	46.2	20.9	6.8
Uruguay	1981	6.1	53.9	34.6	5.5
	1990	3.3	48.0	38.9	9.7
	1994	2.8	45.8	42.0	9.4
	1999	2.3	41.6	44.8	11.3
	2002	2.7	42.3	38.2	16.9
	2005	2.4	42.0	38.8	16.7
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. 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
	2002	7.5	42.6	31.9	18.0
	2005	6.1	36.8	35.5	21.6

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the relevant 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 in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 31

POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2005 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years 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
	2005	6.5	30.4	34.5	28.6
Bolivia	1997	34.1	17.3	28.4	20.3	78.3	12.2	5.8	3.8
	2002	31.0	18.6	25.7	24.6	74.6	16.5	6.4	2.5
	2004	33.0	18.1	25.7	23.3	67.3	17.3	9.1	6.3
Brazil	1979	70.0	12.6	10.0	7.3	96.0	1.9	1.0	1.0
	1990	55.5	17.1	16.8	10.7	89.2	6.3	3.7	0.8
	1993	53.4	19.0	17.7	10.0	88.3	6.8	3.9	1.0
	1999	45.3	21.6	21.8	11.3	82.6	10.2	5.8	1.4
	2001	43.1	21.9	23.4	11.5	83.7	9.9	5.3	1.1
	2005	36.7	21.4	28.5	13.4	77.0	12.9	8.6	1.5
Chile	1990	15.8	29.4	34.5	20.3	43.8	37.3	13.2	5.7
	1994	14.1	24.2	38.9	22.8	39.5	38.7	15.8	6.0
	2000	9.6	22.8	40.6	27.1	34.9	43.4	17.0	4.7
	2003	8.6	21.5	42.0	27.9	29.6	45.4	19.5	5.5
Colombia ^b	1980	52.4	22.3	13.7	11.6
	1990	37.4	23.4	23.1	16.1
	1991	39.9	23.0	21.3	15.8	78.2	12.4	7.3	2.1
	1994	35.9	22.9	25.3	15.9	76.2	12.0	9.5	2.4
	1999	33.3	21.5	27.6	17.6	72.8	12.5	10.9	3.9
	2002	33.2	19.0	26.8	21.0
2005	30.7	18.1	27.6	23.7	
Costa Rica	1981	27.2	41.5	17.8	13.5	58.1	33.5	5.8	2.6
	1990	16.7	40.5	22.1	20.7	40.0	44.8	10.6	4.5
	1994	14.1	39.5	24.9	21.5	34.8	49.2	10.7	5.3
	1999	12.7	41.1	22.5	23.7	28.8	52.0	11.7	7.5
	2002	11.0	42.4	21.7	24.9	28.8	53.0	10.3	7.9
	2005	10.2	41.4	21.3	27.2	25.0	54.4	11.5	9.1
Dominican Republic	2000	26.4	29.0	23.5	21.1	58.6	26.6	10.4	4.3
	2002	24.7	27.7	25.7	21.9	55.8	26.8	11.7	5.7
	2005	24.4	28.3	25.3	22.0	48.1	28.7	14.9	8.3
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
	2005	10.1	34.5	27.5	27.8	38.2	48.4	9.2	4.1
El Salvador	1995	35.8	30.2	19.7	14.3	80.2	16.3	2.6	0.9
	1999	30.6	29.8	22.0	17.7	75.2	19.6	3.7	1.5
	2001	29.7	29.9	22.9	17.5	72.2	21.0	5.1	1.8
	2004	27.6	30.5	23.6	18.3	68.7	23.4	6.1	1.8
Guatemala	1989	51.5	26.6	13.8	8.1	90.7	7.3	1.5	0.5
	1998	42.4	29.9	17.5	10.2	87.1	10.2	2.3	0.5
	2004	41.5	29.9	19.4	9.2	81.9	14.4	2.9	0.8
Honduras	1990	42.7	31.0	18.2	8.1	81.4	15.9	2.5	0.2
	1994	35.1	34.4	22.0	8.5	69.9	25.1	4.5	0.5
	1999	31.4	36.6	21.0	11.0	69.3	24.8	5.0	0.9
	2003	29.7	37.8	20.0	12.5	68.5	27.4	3.2	0.9
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
	2005	14.4	42.8	20.3	22.5	41.9	42.6	9.1	6.4

Table 31 (concluded)

POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2005 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more
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
	2005	5.7	34.5	29.7	30.1	27.8	48.2	15.5	8.5
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	21.6	37.5	23.3	17.6
	1990	16.9	40.5	28.1	14.6
	1994	17.9	42.1	22.9	17.1
	1997	17.0	39.0	25.5	18.5
	2001	17.5	34.6	26.7	21.3
	2005	11.3	35.5	28.6	24.5
Peru	1999	21.3	13.8	35.3	29.6	69.3	15.7	10.9	4.2
	2001	22.3	15.5	31.5	30.6	63.4	18.8	12.3	5.5
	2003	20.4	13.9	31.8	33.9	61.2	19.4	13.7	5.8
Uruguay	1981	26.6	46.4	18.2	8.8
	1990	17.2	46.3	23.6	12.8
	1994	14.5	46.3	25.3	13.8
	1999	9.2	47.8	27.4	15.6
	2002	8.0	43.7	27.2	21.1
	2005	7.0	43.2	26.6	23.1
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^c	1981	29.9	49.4	11.9	8.7	73.5	22.8	2.8	0.9
	1990	19.4	48.3	17.8	14.5	61.0	32.4	5.2	1.4
	1994	18.5	45.8	20.2	15.5	54.0	36.3	7.0	2.8
	1999	18.6	45.2	20.0	16.3
	2002	17.8	43.5	20.5	18.1
	2005	15.9	41.2	22.9	19.9

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the relevant 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 in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 31.1

MALE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2005 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more
Argentina ^a (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	20.9	66.1		13.1
	1990	11.2	70.1		18.7
	1994	9.1	71.9		19.1
	1999	8.1	39.8	31.4	20.7
	2002	8.5	39.0	28.9	23.6
	2005	7.0	32.2	34.9	25.9
Bolivia	1997	25.1	18.4	32.3	24.2	71.3	15.6	7.9	5.2
	2002	22.9	19.5	30.2	27.3	64.5	22.3	9.8	3.3
	2004	23.7	19.4	30.7	26.2	55.9	23.3	13.2	7.6
Brazil	1979	67.9	13.7	9.7	8.6	95.9	2.0	1.0	1.1
	1990	54.6	17.8	16.6	11.0	89.0	6.6	3.4	0.9
	1993	52.8	19.7	17.4	10.1	88.4	6.9	3.7	1.0
	1999	45.7	22.6	20.6	11.1	83.5	10.3	5.0	1.3
	2001	43.7	22.6	22.7	11.0	85.4	9.5	4.3	0.9
	2005	37.5	22.3	27.9	12.3	79.3	12.4	7.3	1.1
Chile	1990	13.9	28.6	35.2	22.3	42.8	38.7	12.9	5.6
	1994	13.0	23.6	39.4	23.9	38.3	40.4	15.0	6.3
	2000	9.0	21.8	40.5	28.7	35.1	44.2	16.2	4.5
	2003	7.9	21.0	41.9	29.2	28.7	47.0	19.0	5.3
Colombia ^b	1980	48.8	21.0	13.8	16.4
	1990	34.6	22.8	23.3	19.2
	1991	36.9	23.0	21.6	18.5	78.0	12.4	7.3	2.2
	1994	33.8	22.8	25.4	18.0	76.9	11.4	9.2	2.6
	1999	31.8	21.2	27.4	19.6	73.9	12.1	10.3	3.7
	2002	32.5	18.9	26.7	22.0
	2005	30.4	17.8	27.2	24.6
Costa Rica	1981	25.4	40.3	18.4	15.8	55.5	35.9	5.9	2.7
	1990	15.0	40.1	22.1	22.9	38.1	46.6	10.7	4.7
	1994	13.4	38.3	24.5	23.7	34.3	49.9	10.3	5.5
	1999	11.7	41.8	22.0	24.5	28.2	53.2	11.3	7.3
	2002	10.3	43.2	20.9	25.7	28.0	54.4	9.4	8.2
	2005	10.1	41.8	20.6	27.5	24.9	55.2	11.1	8.7
Dominican Republic	2000	25.9	30.1	23.2	20.8	56.9	28.2	9.9	5.0
	2002	24.8	28.5	24.9	21.8	56.8	26.4	11.7	5.1
	2005	24.3	30.0	24.8	20.8	48.4	31.0	13.9	6.7
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
	2005	9.3	34.5	27.1	29.1	34.3	51.4	9.9	4.4
El Salvador	1995	29.4	32.8	20.4	17.3	75.0	20.6	3.4	1.0
	1999	25.4	31.8	22.5	20.3	70.2	24.0	4.3	1.5
	2001	24.2	32.3	23.9	19.6	67.0	24.8	6.5	1.7
	2004	21.0	33.3	25.4	20.2	63.2	27.5	7.5	1.8
Guatemala	1989	45.3	29.9	13.9	10.9	87.9	9.9	1.6	0.6
	1998	34.2	34.6	17.9	13.3	82.2	14.1	3.1	0.6
	2004	34.2	33.4	21.1	11.3	76.9	19.0	3.3	0.8
Honduras	1990	39.7	32.9	17.2	10.2	81.0	16.5	2.2	0.3
	1994	32.3	34.3	21.9	11.5	69.0	26.8	3.6	0.6
	1999	29.3	38.2	18.7	13.8	71.2	23.1	4.7	1.0
	2003	29.7	38.5	18.0	13.8	69.5	26.8	2.7	1.0
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
	2005	12.3	42.4	20.0	25.4	38.2	43.6	10.4	7.8

Table 31.1 (concluded)

MALE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2005 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more
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
	2005	5.4	36.9	29.9	27.8	26.6	51.3	15.6	6.5
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	17.4	37.6	23.7	21.3
	1990	15.1	40.6	28.3	16.0
	1994	15.7	42.2	23.3	18.8
	1997	13.3	39.4	28.5	18.9
	2001	14.3	34.9	28.2	22.6
	2005	9.9	35.3	31.5	23.4
Peru	1999	14.6	14.2	37.7	33.5	59.3	19.9	16.0	4.8
	2001	16.4	15.8	33.8	34.0	53.6	21.9	17.3	7.2
	2003	14.7	13.3	34.8	37.2	52.1	22.7	18.2	6.9
Uruguay	1981	26.6	47.4	18.3	7.7
	1990	17.5	47.4	23.4	11.7
	1994	14.7	47.7	25.7	11.9
	1999	9.8	50.2	26.6	13.4
	2002	8.5	46.1	26.7	18.7
	2005	7.7	46.1	26.3	19.9
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^c	1981	26.0	50.9	12.1	11.1	70.9	25.0	2.9	1.2
	1990	17.5	49.6	17.4	15.5	58.9	34.5	5.1	1.6
	1994	17.3	46.5	19.7	16.4	53.6	37.4	6.2	2.8
	1999	18.4	47.1	19.7	14.8
	2002	18.5	45.0	20.3	16.2
	2005	16.8	43.2	22.9	17.2

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the relevant 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 in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 31.2

FEMALE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2005 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years 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	
	2005	6.1	28.8	34.2	
Bolivia	1997	42.0	16.3	24.9	16.8	85.3	8.8	3.6	2.3
	2002	38.3	17.8	21.7	22.2	85.0	10.5	2.9	1.6
	2004	41.0	16.9	21.3	20.8	78.7	11.3	5.0	5.1
Brazil	1979	72.0	11.6	10.3	6.1	96.2	1.8	1.1	0.9
	1990	56.2	16.4	17.0	10.3	89.4	5.9	3.9	0.8
	1993	53.9	18.4	17.9	9.8	88.1	6.7	4.2	1.0
	1999	45.0	20.6	22.9	11.5	81.7	10.2	6.6	1.6
	2001	42.7	21.3	24.1	11.9	81.8	10.3	6.5	1.3
	2005	36.0	20.5	29.1	14.4	74.5	13.5	10.1	1.9
Chile	1990	17.5	30.1	33.9	18.5	45.0	35.7	13.5	5.8
	1994	15.0	24.7	38.5	21.8	40.7	37.0	16.6	5.6
	2000	10.0	23.7	40.6	25.7	34.7	42.5	17.8	5.0
	2003	9.3	21.9	42.0	26.7	30.5	43.7	20.0	5.8
Colombia ^b	1980	55.5	23.5	13.7	7.4
	1990	39.9	23.9	22.9	13.3
	1991	42.3	23.0	21.1	13.6	78.4	12.4	7.3	2.0
	1994	37.6	23.0	25.3	14.2	75.5	12.6	9.7	2.2
	1999	34.6	21.8	27.7	16.0	71.5	12.9	11.5	4.1
	2002	33.8	19.1	26.9	20.1
2005	30.9	18.3	27.9	23.0	
Costa Rica	1981	28.7	42.6	17.3	11.4	60.9	31.1	5.6	2.5
	1990	18.2	40.9	22.1	18.9	42.0	43.0	10.6	4.4
	1994	14.8	40.4	25.3	19.5	35.3	48.5	11.1	5.1
	1999	13.6	40.4	22.9	23.0	29.5	50.8	12.1	7.7
	2002	11.6	41.7	22.5	24.3	29.5	51.7	11.3	7.5
	2005	10.2	41.1	21.8	26.9	25.0	53.6	11.9	9.6
Dominican Republic	2000	26.8	28.2	23.7	21.4	60.4	25.0	10.9	3.6
	2002	24.7	27.1	26.4	21.9	54.9	27.1	11.7	6.3
	2005	24.4	26.8	25.7	23.1	47.7	26.2	16.1	10.0
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
	2005	10.9	34.6	27.8	26.7	42.2	45.5	8.5	3.8
El Salvador	1995	40.7	28.2	19.1	12.0	84.7	12.6	1.9	0.7
	1999	34.7	28.2	21.5	15.6	79.5	15.9	3.1	1.5
	2001	33.9	28.0	22.2	15.9	76.6	17.8	3.8	1.8
	2004	32.9	28.2	22.2	16.7	73.3	19.9	4.9	1.9
Guatemala	1989	56.7	23.9	13.7	5.8	93.4	4.9	1.3	0.3
	1998	49.0	26.2	17.1	7.6	91.3	6.8	1.5	0.4
	2004	47.4	26.9	18.0	7.6	86.5	10.3	2.4	0.9
Honduras	1990	45.1	29.6	18.9	6.4	81.8	15.4	2.7	...
	1994	37.4	34.5	22.1	6.0	70.8	23.5	5.3	0.5
	1999	33.1	35.4	22.8	8.7	67.6	26.3	5.3	0.9
	2003	29.7	37.2	21.6	11.5	67.6	28.0	3.7	0.7
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
	2005	16.2	43.2	20.7	19.9	44.9	41.8	8.0	5.2

Table 31.2 (concluded)

FEMALE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2005 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more
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
	2005	6.0	32.3	29.5	32.2	28.9	45.1	15.4	10.6
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	25.4	37.5	22.9	14.3
	1990	18.4	40.3	27.9	13.3
	1994	19.8	42.0	22.6	15.6
	1997	20.3	38.7	22.9	18.1
	2001	20.1	34.3	25.5	20.1
	2005	12.7	35.8	26.0	25.6
Peru	1999	27.2	13.6	33.1	26.2	78.5	11.8	6.1	3.6
	2001	27.5	15.3	29.6	27.7	72.8	15.8	7.5	3.9
	2003	25.6	14.5	29.1	30.8	70.1	16.1	9.2	4.7
Uruguay	1981	26.6	45.6	18.1	9.7
	1990	17.0	45.4	23.9	13.7
	1994	14.4	45.2	25.0	15.4
	1999	8.7	45.6	28.2	17.6
	2002	7.6	41.4	27.7	23.3
	2005	6.5	40.8	26.8	25.9
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^c	1981	33.6	48.1	11.7	6.6	76.5	20.1	2.7	0.6
	1990	21.3	46.9	18.1	13.6	63.5	30.0	5.4	1.1
	1994	19.6	45.1	20.7	14.6	54.4	35.0	7.9	2.8
	1999	18.7	43.3	20.2	17.7
	2002	17.2	42.1	20.8	20.0
	2005	15.1	39.3	23.0	22.6

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the relevant 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 in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 32

ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION AGED 15 OR OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2005 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years 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
	2005	6.7	28.0	36.5	28.9
Bolivia	1997	31.7	19.7	30.8	17.8	74.5	15.9	6.7	2.8
	2002	27.3	21.2	29.3	22.2	69.1	19.5	9.4	2.0
	2004	28.5	20.8	29.7	21.0	62.0	20.6	12.6	4.8
Brazil	1979	60.9	19.2	12.4	7.6	93.2	4.0	1.3	1.4
	1990	47.5	24.3	18.4	9.8	85.0	10.3	3.9	0.8
	1993	53.6	23.0	16.2	7.2	86.5	9.2	3.6	0.7
	1999	39.5	25.4	24.5	10.6	79.3	13.1	6.5	1.1
	2001	36.7	24.8	27.4	11.1	79.1	13.7	6.4	0.9
	2005	30.1	23.7	33.2	13.1	70.5	17.7	10.5	1.4
Chile	1990	13.0	26.9	36.4	23.7	36.8	40.9	15.2	7.0
	1994	11.7	22.8	40.1	25.3	34.2	40.9	17.7	7.2
	2000	8.4	21.4	42.3	27.9	32.1	42.3	20.1	5.5
	2003	7.5	19.9	44.0	28.5	26.6	42.7	24.7	6.0
Colombia ^b	1980	47.1	25.3	16.1	11.5
	1990	28.4	28.2	26.9	16.5
	1991	35.3	24.4	24.2	16.0	75.9	13.5	8.8	1.8
	1994	32.0	23.1	28.7	16.2	73.1	13.3	11.2	2.4
	1999	29.3	21.5	31.7	17.5	68.4	14.0	13.8	3.7
	2002	29.6	19.1	29.9	21.4
2005	27.4	17.6	30.2	24.8	
Costa Rica	1981	20.4	43.4	23.0	13.3	42.0	47.3	8.2	2.5
	1990	14.1	41.1	24.1	20.7	32.9	50.7	11.7	4.6
	1994	12.7	39.7	25.8	21.7	31.1	52.6	11.2	5.0
	1999	11.6	41.9	23.2	23.3	26.3	54.0	12.2	7.5
	2002	10.1	42.0	22.7	25.2	26.2	54.2	11.2	8.4
	2005	9.1	41.6	22.7	26.6	22.7	54.7	13.1	9.5
Dominican Republic	2000	22.7	29.0	26.2	22.1	54.6	27.7	12.6	5.0
	2002	22.0	27.9	27.3	22.9	51.5	28.1	14.2	6.2
	2005	21.0	28.8	28.0	22.3	43.4	30.1	17.7	8.9
Ecuador	1990	14.5	43.1	24.1	18.2
	1994	11.1	39.5	27.0	22.4
	1999	11.3	38.0	28.4	22.3
	2002	12.0	37.4	25.9	24.7
	2005	10.6	34.3	28.5	26.6	37.7	46.9	11.9	3.6
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
	2004	26.1	30.8	25.9	17.3	60.1	28.8	9.2	1.8
Guatemala	1989	45.5	29.9	16.2	8.4	84.1	13.5	1.9	0.5
	1998	39.5	31.8	19.0	9.7	80.2	16.8	2.6	0.4
	2004	36.2	33.1	21.5	9.3	72.9	22.2	4.2	0.7
Honduras	1990	38.2	36.7	18.2	7.0	74.8	22.2	2.8	0.2
	1994	32.0	38.9	20.5	8.7	62.3	32.2	4.9	0.6
	1999	29.3	41.0	20.3	9.4	63.1	30.9	5.2	0.9
	2003	28.6	39.7	20.3	11.3	63.6	32.1	3.3	1.0
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
	2005	13.3	42.2	21.8	22.8	38.4	44.0	10.9	6.8

Table 32 (concluded)

ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION AGED 15 OR OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2005 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more
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
	2005	5.1	32.3	32.0	30.5	28.6	47.1	16.0	8.3
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	18.7	40.8	24.8	15.7
	1990	14.7	41.6	29.3	14.4
	1994	15.7	42.1	25.8	16.4
	1997	15.0	39.8	27.9	17.3
	2001	15.3	34.4	29.1	21.2
	2005	10.8	34.3	32.0	22.9
Peru	1999	19.7	17.3	36.8	26.2	62.9	21.7	12.3	3.0
	2001	20.9	18.2	33.6	27.4	57.8	23.8	13.8	4.5
	2003	19.0	15.7	34.5	30.8	56.2	24.0	15.1	4.6
Uruguay	1981	21.3	47.4	21.8	9.5
	1990	14.2	46.3	26.2	13.3
	1994	12.2	46.9	27.6	13.4
	1999	8.4	47.5	28.7	15.3
	2002	7.1	43.2	28.5	21.2
	2005	6.4	42.7	27.9	23.0
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^c	1981	24.3	52.3	14.7	8.7	67.0	28.8	3.5	0.8
	1990	16.6	49.6	19.7	14.1	56.7	36.1	5.8	1.4
	1994	16.3	45.9	22.1	15.7	51.4	37.8	7.9	2.9
	1999	17.3	44.6	21.5	16.6
	2002	17.1	42.9	22.0	18.0
	2005	15.6	40.2	24.2	19.9

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the relevant 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 in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 32.1

ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION AGED 15 OR OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2005 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years 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
	2005	7.2	31.7	37.0	24.1
Bolivia	1997	25.7	21.0	34.3	18.9	68.2	19.1	9.0	3.6
	2002	22.0	22.0	33.0	23.0	61.6	23.5	12.6	2.4
	2004	21.9	22.5	34.2	21.4	52.7	25.1	16.5	5.7
Brazil	1979	63.5	19.2	10.4	7.0	93.7	3.9	1.0	1.4
	1990	51.4	23.8	16.2	8.6	87.3	9.2	2.9	0.6
	1993	53.7	23.4	15.5	7.4	87.5	8.8	3.1	0.7
	1999	43.0	26.5	21.4	9.1	81.0	12.8	5.3	0.9
	2001	40.1	26.0	24.5	9.3	80.8	13.4	5.1	0.6
	2005	33.1	25.2	30.8	10.9	72.6	17.7	8.8	0.9
Chile	1990	13.4	28.8	37.1	20.7	39.1	42.2	13.8	4.9
	1994	12.3	24.2	40.6	22.8	36.4	42.0	16.0	5.6
	2000	9.1	22.7	42.3	25.9	34.9	43.2	17.8	4.1
	2003	7.8	21.6	44.3	26.3	28.9	44.4	22.1	4.6
Colombia ^b	1980	46.8	25.3	15.3	12.7
	1990	29.8	28.6	25.4	16.1
	1991	36.8	25.5	22.5	15.2	78.4	13.0	7.2	1.4
	1994	33.8	24.1	27.0	15.1	77.0	12.8	8.4	1.8
	1999	31.1	22.0	30.1	16.7	73.3	13.2	10.9	2.6
	2002	31.8	19.7	28.7	19.7
Costa Rica	1981	21.7	45.6	20.5	12.2	44.9	46.3	6.9	2.0
	1990	15.7	43.1	22.4	18.8	35.7	50.9	10.0	3.4
	1994	13.9	41.7	24.7	19.7	33.9	52.7	9.5	3.9
	1999	12.2	44.9	22.1	20.7	29.1	54.7	10.6	5.7
	2002	11.0	44.9	21.6	22.4	28.9	55.2	9.4	6.4
	2005	10.1	44.5	22.0	23.4	25.6	55.7	11.4	7.2
Dominican Republic	2000	25.6	31.6	24.4	18.4	58.1	27.5	10.1	4.4
	2002	25.1	29.7	25.6	19.6	56.9	27.7	11.4	4.0
	2005	23.6	31.1	26.6	18.7	47.5	30.7	15.6	6.2
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
	2005	10.5	36.5	28.6	24.4	35.4	49.6	11.9	3.1
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
	2004	23.5	34.0	26.1	16.4	61.0	28.9	8.7	1.4
Guatemala	1989	45.0	32.1	14.1	8.8	84.2	14.0	1.4	0.4
	1998	36.6	35.2	17.7	10.6	78.0	19.1	2.6	0.4
	2004	33.9	35.7	21.0	9.3	71.8	24.4	3.3	0.5
Honduras	1990	39.1	38.7	15.1	7.1	76.0	22.1	1.7	0.2
	1994	32.7	39.3	19.0	9.1	64.9	31.7	2.9	0.5
	1999	30.0	42.8	17.5	9.8	65.8	29.7	3.9	0.7
	2003	30.5	41.4	17.4	10.7	66.0	30.8	2.4	0.7
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
	2005	12.7	44.7	20.9	21.7	38.1	44.7	11.3	5.9

Table 32.1 (concluded)

ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION AGED 15 OR OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2005 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more
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
	2005	5.8	36.8	32.2	25.2	29.7	49.9	15.3	5.1
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	17.5	40.8	24.3	17.4
	1990	14.6	41.5	30.0	13.8
	1994	14.9	43.3	26.2	15.6
	1997	13.1	39.6	30.8	16.5
	2001	13.9	36.4	29.8	20.0
	2005	9.2	35.6	34.5	20.6
Peru	1999	15.7	17.3	40.1	26.9	54.4	25.9	16.5	3.1
	2001	17.2	18.6	36.3	27.9	50.6	27.1	17.2	5.2
	2003	15.8	16.1	36.8	31.3	48.9	26.9	19.1	5.2
Uruguay	1981	22.9	49.6	20.4	7.2
	1990	16.0	49.4	24.3	10.3
	1994	13.8	50.5	25.7	10.0
	1999	9.8	51.8	26.6	11.8
	2002	8.4	47.8	26.9	16.8
	2005	7.7	47.1	27.0	18.3
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^c	1981	25.6	53.8	12.5	8.1	68.7	28.0	2.6	0.6
	1990	17.8	52.5	17.4	12.3	58.7	35.8	4.6	1.0
	1994	18.1	48.8	19.8	13.4	55.2	36.8	6.1	1.9
	1999	19.7	48.0	19.7	12.7
	2002	19.6	45.8	20.6	14.0
	2005	17.9	43.7	23.2	15.2

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the relevant 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 in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 32.2

ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION AGED 15 OR OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2005 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 years or more	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 years 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
	2005	6.0	23.2		35.8
Bolivia	1997	39.6	17.9	26.3	16.2	82.4	12.0	3.8	1.9
	2002	33.7	20.2	24.8	21.3	79.7	14.0	4.9	1.4
	2004	36.4	18.7	24.4	20.5	72.9	15.3	8.1	3.8
Brazil	1979	55.7	19.1	16.3	9.0	91.8	4.5	2.0	1.6
	1990	41.6	25.0	21.7	11.7	80.0	12.7	6.3	1.1
	1993	53.4	22.7	16.7	7.1	85.4	9.7	4.2	0.7
	1999	34.9	23.8	28.6	12.7	76.7	13.5	8.3	1.4
	2001	32.0	23.2	31.2	13.6	76.2	14.2	8.4	1.2
	2005	26.3	21.7	36.2	15.8	67.2	17.7	13.0	2.1
Chile	1990	12.3	23.4	35.0	29.2	25.1	34.8	22.4	17.8
	1994	10.7	20.4	39.3	29.7	25.1	36.0	25.0	13.9
	2000	7.2	19.4	42.3	31.0	22.0	39.2	28.4	10.5
	2003	6.9	17.5	43.7	31.9	19.3	37.4	32.9	10.4
Colombia ^b	1980	47.6	25.4	17.4	9.6
	1990	26.5	27.6	29.0	16.9
	1991	33.2	22.8	26.8	17.2	69.9	14.8	12.5	2.8
	1994	29.4	21.7	31.1	17.8	63.4	14.7	18.2	3.7
	1999	27.1	20.8	33.6	18.5	57.5	15.9	20.5	6.2
	2002	27.0	18.4	31.2	23.4
Costa Rica	1981	17.5	38.8	28.0	15.7	31.1	51.3	13.3	4.3
	1990	11.4	37.5	27.1	24.0	23.5	50.2	17.6	8.7
	1994	10.6	36.4	27.7	25.3	22.5	52.5	16.6	8.4
	1999	10.6	37.3	24.9	27.2	18.8	52.3	16.6	12.2
	2002	8.7	37.7	24.2	29.4	19.0	51.8	15.8	13.5
	2005	7.5	37.3	23.7	31.5	16.1	52.6	16.7	14.6
Dominican Republic	2000	18.7	25.3	28.7	27.3	45.3	28.4	19.5	6.8
	2002	17.7	25.4	29.5	27.4	38.5	29.1	21.0	11.4
	2005	17.4	25.6	29.8	27.2	34.2	28.8	22.3	14.7
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
	2005	10.6	31.3	28.2	29.8	41.3	42.4	11.9	4.4
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
	2004	29.2	27.0	25.6	18.2	58.0	28.5	10.4	3.0
Guatemala	1989	46.3	26.3	19.8	7.6	83.8	11.2	4.0	1.0
	1998	43.3	27.6	20.6	8.5	85.0	11.6	2.8	0.6
	2004	39.3	29.3	22.1	9.2	75.8	16.6	6.3	1.3
Honduras	1990	36.8	33.7	22.7	6.8	69.6	22.7	7.3	0.4
	1994	31.0	38.2	22.8	8.0	53.6	33.9	11.4	1.1
	1999	28.4	38.8	23.8	9.0	56.3	33.8	8.6	1.4
	2003	26.2	37.4	24.1	12.2	56.1	36.1	6.1	1.6
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
	2005	14.1	38.3	23.1	24.5	38.9	42.6	10.2	8.4

Table 32.2 (concluded)

ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION AGED 15 OR OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2005 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 years or more
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
	2005	4.3	26.3	31.6	37.7	25.9	40.3	17.8	16.0
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	20.2	40.9	25.4	13.5
	1990	14.7	41.8	28.3	15.2
	1994	16.8	40.4	25.3	17.5
	1997	17.3	40.1	24.5	18.1
	2001	17.0	32.1	28.4	22.5
	2005	12.7	32.7	29.2	25.5
Peru	1999	24.6	17.3	32.9	25.2	74.6	16.1	6.6	2.8
	2001	25.5	17.6	30.2	26.7	67.6	19.5	9.3	3.7
	2003	23.0	15.2	31.6	30.2	65.6	20.5	10.0	3.9
Uruguay	1981	18.6	43.7	24.2	13.4
	1990	11.6	42.0	29.0	17.4
	1994	10.0	42.2	30.0	17.8
	1999	6.6	42.1	31.5	19.8
	2002	5.4	37.6	30.6	26.5
	2005	4.8	37.5	29.0	28.6
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^c	1981	21.2	48.9	19.9	9.9	56.9	33.5	8.2	1.5
	1990	14.0	43.9	24.3	17.8	46.7	38.0	12.1	3.2
	1994	12.8	40.2	26.6	20.4	37.1	41.6	14.7	6.6
	1999	13.1	38.9	24.7	23.3
	2002	13.4	38.4	24.2	24.0
	2005	11.9	34.9	25.9	27.3

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the relevant 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 in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 33

YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY THE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2005 (Averages)							
Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Years of schooling			Years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina ^a (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	7.8	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
	2005	10.7	10.3	11.0
Bolivia	1989	10.2	10.6	9.9
	1994	10.0	10.3	9.7
	2002	10.1	10.2	9.9	6.6	7.2	6.0
	2004	10.0	10.2	9.8	7.8	8.4	7.3
Brazil	1979	6.4	6.4	6.4	4.2	4.4	4.1
	1990	6.6	6.3	6.8	3.6	3.3	4.0
	1993	6.5	6.2	6.8	3.7	3.4	4.2
	1999	7.5	7.2	7.9	4.9	4.4	5.4
	2001	7.9	7.6	8.2	5.1	4.7	5.5
	2005	8.7	8.4	9.0	6.2	5.8	6.7
Chile	1987	9.9	9.9	10.0	7.4	7.1	7.6
	1990	10.1	10.0	10.2	7.9	7.6	8.1
	1994	10.4	10.3	10.5	8.2	8.0	8.4
	2000	10.6	10.6	10.7	9.0	8.7	9.2
	2003	10.9	10.8	11.0	9.4	9.3	9.6
Colombia ^b	1980	7.5	7.6	7.5
	1990	8.5	8.5	8.5
	1991	8.5	8.4	8.7	5.5	5.2	5.8
	1994	8.7	8.6	8.8	5.8	5.5	6.2
	1999	9.2	9.0	9.3	6.5	6.2	6.8
	2002	9.8	9.6	10.0
	2005	10.2	9.9	10.4
Costa Rica	1981	8.8	8.7	8.9	6.7	6.6	6.8
	1990	9.1	8.9	9.3	6.9	6.7	7.2
	1994	8.8	8.8	8.8	6.6	6.5	6.7
	1999	8.8	8.6	9.0	7.0	6.8	7.1
	2002	9.0	8.8	9.1	7.1	6.9	7.3
	2005	9.1	8.9	9.3	7.6	7.3	7.8
Dominican Republic	2000	9.4	8.8	9.9	6.7	6.3	7.2
	2002	9.5	9.1	9.9	7.1	6.5	7.9
	2005	9.7	9.3	10.0	8.1	7.7	8.6
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
	2005	10.1	10.0	10.2	7.8	7.7	8.0
El Salvador	1997	8.8	8.7	8.9	5.2	5.2	5.1
	1999	9.0	8.9	9.0	5.5	5.5	5.5
	2001	9.2	9.2	9.2	6.0	6.0	5.9
	2003	9.2	9.1	9.2	6.0	6.0	6.0
	2004	9.1	9.1	9.1	6.3	6.3	6.4
Guatemala	1989	6.7	7.3	6.2	2.9	3.4	2.4
	1998	7.5	7.6	7.5	3.6	4.1	3.1
	2004	7.6	8.0	7.3	4.3	4.8	3.9
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

Table 33 (concluded)

YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY THE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2005 (Averages)							
Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Years of schooling			Years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
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
	2005	10.1	9.9	10.2	8.4	8.5	8.2
Nicaragua	1993	7.0	6.8	7.2	3.6	3.3	4.0
	1998	7.5	7.2	7.8	4.2	3.8	4.6
	2001	7.9	7.4	8.3	4.3	4.0	4.6
Panama	1979	9.2	9.0	9.3	6.9	6.8	7.0
	1991	9.6	9.2	9.9	7.6	7.3	8.0
	1994	9.6	9.3	9.9	7.6	7.3	8.1
	1999	10.0	9.8	10.3	8.0	7.6	8.4
	2002	10.2	9.9	10.5	7.4	7.3	7.5
	2005	10.5	10.2	10.8	8.2	8.0	8.3
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	8.7	9.0	8.5
	1990	9.3	9.5	9.1
	1994	9.1	9.1	9.0
	2001	9.6	9.6	9.6
	2005	10.0	10.0	10.0
Peru	1997	9.0	9.0	9.0	6.1	6.4	5.7
	2001	10.1	10.2	10.1	7.6	7.9	7.2
	2003	10.6	10.5	10.6	7.8	8.2	7.2
Uruguay	1981	8.6	8.4	8.7
	1990	9.2	8.9	9.4
	1994	9.2	8.9	9.5
	1999	9.5	9.1	9.8
	2002	9.6	9.2	10.0
	2005	9.7	9.4	10.0
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. 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
	2002	8.9	8.5	9.4
	2005	9.4	8.9	9.9

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the relevant 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 in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 34

YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY THE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2005 (Averages)							
Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Years of schooling			Years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina ^a (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	7.4	7.0	7.7
	1990	8.8	8.9	8.8
	1994	9.0	9.0	9.0
	1999	10.2	10.1	10.3
	2002	10.5	10.2	10.7
	2005	10.9	10.7	11.1
Bolivia	1989	8.8	9.9	7.8
	1994	9.3	10.3	8.3
	2002	9.2	10.1	8.3	4.0	5.1	3.0
	2004	8.9	9.9	8.0	4.9	6.1	3.7
Brazil	1979	5.1	5.3	4.9	2.4	2.5	2.3
	1990	6.2	6.3	6.1	2.6	2.6	2.6
	1993	6.3	6.4	6.2	2.7	2.7	2.8
	1999	7.0	6.9	7.1	3.3	3.2	3.4
	2001	7.2	7.1	7.2	3.2	3.0	3.4
	2005	7.8	7.7	7.9	3.8	3.5	4.1
Chile	1987	9.3	9.7	9.0	5.5	5.6	5.5
	1990	9.7	10.1	9.4	6.2	6.2	6.1
	1994	10.2	10.4	10.0	6.6	6.7	6.5
	2000	10.9	11.1	10.7	6.8	6.8	6.9
	2003	11.1	11.3	10.9	7.3	7.3	7.3
Colombia ^b	1980	6.8	7.4	6.2
	1990	8.2	8.6	7.8
	1991	8.1	8.5	7.8	4.1	4.1	4.1
	1994	8.3	8.6	8.1	4.4	4.3	4.4
	1999	8.6	8.9	8.4	4.8	4.7	4.9
	2002	9.3	9.4	9.2
	2005	9.7	9.8	9.6
Costa Rica	1981	7.5	7.9	7.3	4.6	4.7	4.5
	1990	9.6	10.0	9.3	6.3	6.6	6.0
	1994	9.1	9.3	8.9	6.0	6.0	6.0
	1999	9.3	9.4	9.1	6.5	6.5	6.5
	2002	9.4	9.5	9.3	6.5	6.5	6.5
	2005	9.6	9.7	9.6	6.8	6.8	6.9
Dominican Republic	2000	8.9	8.9	8.9	5.1	5.2	5.0
	2002	9.1	9.1	9.1	5.4	5.2	5.6
	2005	9.1	9.0	9.2	6.2	5.9	6.4
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
	2005	10.4	10.6	10.2	5.6	5.8	5.3
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
	2004	8.6	9.3	8.0	3.8	4.3	3.5
Guatemala	1989	5.6	6.4	4.9	1.5	1.9	1.1
	1998	6.5	7.2	5.8	1.9	2.4	1.4
	2004	6.5	7.3	5.8	2.4	2.9	1.9
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

Table 34 (concluded)

YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY THE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2005 (Averages)							
Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Years of schooling			Years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
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
	2005	9.6	10.0	9.2	6.0	6.4	5.6
Nicaragua	1993	6.4	6.8	6.0	2.4	2.4	2.3
	1998	7.0	7.4	6.6	3.2	3.2	3.2
	2001	6.9	7.1	6.7	3.1	3.2	3.0
Panama	1979	8.5	8.6	8.3	4.4	4.4	4.3
	1991	9.6	9.6	9.7	6.1	6.1	6.2
	1994	9.9	9.9	10.0	6.4	6.3	6.6
	1999	10.4	10.4	10.5	7.1	6.9	7.2
	2002	10.8	10.6	11.0	6.4	6.3	6.5
	2005	11.1	10.9	11.3	7.0	6.9	7.0
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	8.8	9.4	8.3
	1990	9.0	9.3	8.8
	1994	8.9	9.2	8.6
	2001	9.6	9.9	9.3
	2005	10.1	10.3	10.0
Peru	1999	10.1	10.9	9.5	4.6	5.7	3.6
	2001	10.2	10.9	9.6	5.1	6.3	3.9
	2003	10.6	11.3	10.0	5.3	6.4	4.3
Uruguay	1981	7.3	7.3	7.3
	1990	8.3	8.3	8.4
	1994	8.6	8.6	8.7
	1999	9.2	9.0	9.3
	2002	9.7	9.5	9.9
	2005	9.9	9.6	10.2
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^c	1981	6.8	7.3	6.4	3.1	3.3	2.7
	1990	8.2	8.4	8.0	4.0	4.2	3.8
	1994	8.3	8.4	8.1	4.7	4.7	4.6
	1999	8.3	8.2	8.5
	2002	8.6	8.3	8.8
	2005	8.9	8.6	9.2

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

- ^a Information from which the number of years of schooling 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 in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 35

YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY THE ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION 15 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2005 (Averages)							
Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Years of schooling			Years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina ^a (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	7.4	7.0	8.2
	1990	8.7	8.6	8.9
	1994	9.3	9.0	9.7
	1999	10.4	10.0	11.1
	2002	10.7	10.2	11.2
	2005	11.0	10.6	11.6
Bolivia	1989	9.0	9.7	8.2
	1994	9.3	10.0	8.5
	2002	9.2	9.8	8.6	4.5	5.3	3.3
	2004	9.0	9.7	8.3	5.1	6.1	3.9
Brazil	1979	5.9	5.6	6.4	3.1	3.0	3.4
	1990	6.7	6.3	7.2	3.0	2.7	3.5
	1993	6.0	6.0	6.0	2.8	2.7	2.9
	1999	7.3	6.9	7.9	3.5	3.3	3.8
	2001	7.6	7.2	8.1	3.5	3.3	3.8
	2005	8.3	7.9	8.8	4.2	4.0	4.6
Chile	1987	9.9	9.7	10.3	6.2	5.9	7.6
	1990	10.2	10.0	10.6	6.7	6.4	8.5
	1994	10.6	10.4	10.9	7.1	6.8	8.4
	2000	11.1	10.9	11.4	7.2	6.8	8.4
	2003	11.3	11.2	11.6	7.7	7.4	8.8
Colombia ^b	1980	7.1	7.2	6.9
	1990	8.7	8.6	8.8
	1991	8.4	8.2	8.6	4.3	4.1	4.9
	1994	8.6	8.4	8.9	4.7	4.3	5.6
	1999	8.9	8.7	9.1	5.1	4.7	6.1
	2002	9.5	9.2	9.8
	2005	9.9	9.6	10.3
Costa Rica	1981	8.1	7.8	8.6	5.4	5.2	6.3
	1990	10.1	9.7	10.6	6.7	6.4	7.8
	1994	9.2	9.0	9.7	6.2	5.9	7.1
	1999	9.3	9.1	9.7	6.6	6.3	7.5
	2002	9.5	9.2	10.0	6.7	6.3	7.7
	2005	9.7	9.4	10.2	7.1	6.6	8.0
Dominican Republic	2000	9.3	8.8	10.0	5.5	5.1	6.5
	2002	9.4	8.9	10.0	5.8	5.1	7.2
	2005	9.4	8.9	10.1	6.6	6.0	7.8
Ecuador	1990	9.0	8.8	9.3
	1994	9.7	9.6	10.0
	1999	9.8	9.6	10.0
	2002	9.9	9.8	10.0
	2005	10.3	10.1	10.5	5.7	5.8	5.6
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
	2004	8.7	8.8	8.5	4.6	4.5	4.9
Guatemala	1989	6.1	6.2	6.0	2.2	2.2	2.2
	1998	6.7	6.9	6.4	2.5	2.7	2.1
	2004	6.9	7.1	6.6	3.1	3.2	3.1
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

Table 35 (concluded)

YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY THE ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION 15 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2005 (Averages)							
Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Years of schooling			Years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
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
	2005	9.8	9.7	9.9	6.3	6.3	6.4
Nicaragua	1993	6.8	6.8	6.9	3.0	2.7	4.1
	1998	7.1	7.0	7.3	3.5	3.2	4.6
	2001	7.1	6.8	7.5	3.4	3.2	4.1
Panama	1979	8.9	8.6	9.5	5.0	4.7	6.8
	1991	9.9	9.2	10.8	6.4	5.8	8.6
	1994	10.2	9.6	11.0	6.6	6.0	8.6
	1999	10.6	10.1	11.5	7.1	6.5	9.0
	2002	10.7	10.3	11.3	6.3	5.9	7.3
	2005	11.2	10.7	11.9	6.9	6.6	7.8
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	8.9	9.1	8.6
	1990	9.2	9.2	9.1
	1994	9.1	9.1	9.1
	2001	9.7	9.8	9.7
	2005	10.1	10.2	10.1
Peru	1999	10.0	10.4	9.4	4.8	5.6	3.7
	2001	10.0	10.4	9.6	5.3	6.1	4.1
	2003	10.4	10.8	10.0	5.4	6.3	4.3
Uruguay	1981	7.8	7.5	8.2
	1990	8.6	8.2	9.2
	1994	8.8	8.4	9.3
	1999	9.3	8.9	9.8
	2002	9.8	9.3	10.4
	2005	10.0	9.5	10.6
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ^c	1981	7.2	7.0	7.7	3.5	3.4	4.3
	1990	8.4	8.1	9.2	4.3	4.1	5.3
	1994	8.5	8.1	9.3	4.9	4.6	6.3
	1999	8.5	7.9	9.5
	2002	8.6	8.1	9.4
	2005	9.0	8.4	9.9

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

- ^a 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 in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not distinguish between urban and rural areas, and the figures therefore refer to the nationwide total.

Table 36

CLASSIFICATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 BY EDUCATIONAL STATUS, ^a NATIONAL TOTAL, AROUND 2005 (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 during lower secondary cycle	Dropouts at end of lower or during upper secondary cycle	Dropout subtotal	Students who have fallen far behind	Students who are slightly behind	Up-to-date students	Graduates		Subtotal students and graduates
Bolivia	2004	Both sexes	0.7	8.6	3.0	3.4	21.9	36.9	9.7	9.8	29.5	13.5	62.5	100.0
		Males	0.6	7.1	2.7	3.4	22.1	35.3	11.0	9.5	30.6	12.9	64.0	100.0
		Females	0.8	10.1	3.3	3.4	21.7	38.5	8.4	10.0	28.3	14.1	60.8	100.0
Brazil	2005	Both sexes	1.6	2.4	2.8	9.1	7.4	21.7	19.4	10.7	32.6	14.1	76.8	100.0
		Males	2.1	3.2	3.1	9.5	7.3	23.1	22.5	11.0	29.3	12.0	74.8	100.0
		Females	1.1	1.6	2.4	8.7	7.5	20.2	16.2	10.3	35.9	16.2	78.6	100.0
Chile	2003	Both sexes	0.3	0.9	1.0	0.9	8.7	11.5	5.9	13.7	51.0	17.6	88.2	100.0
		Males	0.4	1.1	1.2	1.0	8.4	11.7	6.8	15.4	48.8	16.8	87.8	100.0
		Females	0.2	0.7	0.8	0.9	8.9	11.3	5.0	11.9	53.2	18.4	88.5	100.0
Colombia	2005	Both sexes	1.6	5.9	7.4	6.4	6.0	25.7	13.6	10.0	24.0	25.3	72.9	100.0
		Males	2.0	7.2	8.0	6.5	5.7	27.4	16.0	10.4	22.4	21.8	70.6	100.0
		Females	1.1	4.5	6.8	6.3	6.2	23.8	11.2	9.5	25.5	28.7	74.9	100.0
Costa Rica	2005	Both sexes	1.0	4.8	16.9	5.1	2.6	29.4	20.9	12.2	22.6	14.0	69.7	100.0
		Males	1.1	5.6	17.6	5.6	2.8	31.6	23.0	11.9	20.5	12.0	67.4	100.0
		Females	0.9	4.1	16.2	4.7	2.4	27.4	18.6	12.4	24.7	16.0	71.7	100.0
Dominican Republic	2005	Both sexes	1.8	6.2	1.7	2.1	5.3	15.3	13.9	9.8	46.0	13.2	82.9	100.0
		Males	2.0	7.2	2.1	2.3	4.6	16.2	18.3	11.2	41.6	10.8	81.9	100.0
		Females	1.6	5.1	1.3	1.8	6.1	14.3	9.1	8.2	50.9	15.9	84.1	100.0
Ecuador	2005	Both sexes	1.3	4.1	8.1	11.3	8.4	31.9	6.8	6.6	38.2	15.2	66.8	100.0
		Males	1.5	4.6	8.9	12.1	7.7	33.3	7.3	7.5	37.1	13.3	65.2	100.0
		Females	1.1	3.6	7.2	10.5	9.1	30.4	6.3	5.6	39.4	17.2	68.5	100.0
El Salvador	2004	Both sexes	4.2	14.6	5.8	6.0	8.3	34.7	10.8	8.1	33.3	9.0	61.2	100.0
		Males	4.5	14.9	5.4	4.6	8.0	32.9	13.2	8.6	32.4	8.4	62.6	100.0
		Females	3.8	14.3	6.2	7.5	8.6	36.6	8.3	7.6	34.2	9.5	59.6	100.0
Guatemala	2004	Both sexes	11.5	23.1	15.9	3.8	4.1	46.9	12.7	6.5	19.9	2.5	41.6	100.0
		Males	7.7	19.6	17.0	4.8	4.3	45.7	15.6	7.9	20.0	3.0	46.5	100.0
		Females	15.1	26.4	14.9	2.8	3.8	47.9	9.9	5.2	19.8	2.1	37.0	100.0
Honduras	2003	Both sexes	6.1	17.1	26.7	3.4	2.8	50.0	13.3	6.9	20.3	3.5	44.0	100.0
		Males	7.0	19.8	27.7	3.2	2.1	52.8	13.1	6.6	17.4	3.0	40.1	100.0
		Females	5.3	14.4	25.7	3.5	3.5	47.1	13.5	7.2	23.0	4.0	47.7	100.0
Mexico	2005	Both sexes	1.5	3.9	9.7	4.5	20.1	38.2	5.3	6.9	33.4	14.7	60.3	100.0
		Males	1.1	4.1	8.7	5.3	20.3	38.4	6.1	7.9	34.1	12.4	60.5	100.0
		Females	1.9	3.7	10.6	3.7	19.9	37.9	4.6	5.8	32.7	17.1	60.2	100.0

Table 36 (concluded)

CLASSIFICATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 BY EDUCATIONAL STATUS, ^a NATIONAL TOTAL, AROUND 2005 (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 during lower secondary cycle	Dropouts at end of lower or during upper secondary cycle	Dropout subtotal	Students who have fallen far behind	Students who are slightly behind	Up-to-date students	Graduates		Subtotal students and graduates
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
Panama	2005	Both sexes	1.1	2.8	10.0	5.2	6.6	24.6	8.5	8.5	40.2	17.1	74.3	100.0
		Males	1.0	2.7	10.7	6.2	6.2	25.8	11.4	10.8	36.6	14.3	73.1	100.0
		Females	1.2	2.8	9.3	4.3	7.1	23.5	5.6	6.1	43.8	19.9	75.4	100.0
Paraguay	2005	Both sexes	0.7	8.1	10.8	6.2	7.1	32.2	12.1	12.6	33.0	9.3	67.0	100.0
		Males	0.9	10.3	10.8	5.4	6.8	33.3	13.2	14.5	29.3	8.8	65.8	100.0
		Females	0.6	5.8	10.8	6.9	7.4	30.9	11.0	10.7	36.8	9.9	68.4	100.0
Peru	2003	Both sexes	0.9	6.1	7.5	6.1	11.4	31.1	8.9	6.2	20.6	32.2	67.9	100.0
		Males	0.6	4.9	6.4	6.4	11.3	29.0	10.0	7.2	21.1	32.0	70.3	100.0
		Females	1.1	7.5	8.6	5.8	11.5	33.4	7.7	5.1	20.2	32.5	65.5	100.0
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	2005	Both sexes	1.6	4.9	7.8	6.0	3.7	22.4	13.2	8.6	26.7	27.5	76.0	100.0
		Males	2.0	6.6	9.6	6.7	3.3	26.2	15.1	9.5	24.4	22.8	71.8	100.0
		Females	1.1	3.1	5.9	5.4	4.1	18.5	11.3	7.5	29.1	32.5	80.4	100.0

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

^a The methodology for calculating dropout rates is described in ECLAC, *Social Panorama of Latin America 2001–2002* (LC/G.2183-P), Santiago, Chile, December 2002, box III.1, except that the division into cycles is based strictly on the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 1997.

Table 37

CLASSIFICATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 BY EDUCATIONAL STATUS, ^a URBAN AREAS, AROUND 2005 (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 during lower secondary cycle	Dropouts at end of lower or during upper secondary cycle	Dropout subtotal	Students who have fallen far behind	Students who are slightly behind	Up-to-date students	Graduates		Subtotal students and graduates
Argentina	2005	Both sexes	0.4	1.2	1.0	8.8	7.5	18.5	8.0	11.4	37.0	24.6	81.0	100.0
		Males	0.5	1.7	1.0	10.8	7.9	21.4	9.3	13.2	35.1	20.6	78.2	100.0
		Females	0.4	0.8	1.1	6.8	7.2	15.9	6.8	9.8	38.8	28.4	83.8	100.0
Bolivia	2004	Both sexes	0.6	5.1	2.3	3.1	20.9	31.4	8.7	10.5	32.2	16.5	67.9	100.0
		Males	0.6	3.6	1.9	2.9	21.6	30.0	9.8	11.2	32.9	15.6	69.5	100.0
		Females	0.6	6.5	2.6	3.3	20.3	32.7	7.7	10.0	31.6	17.4	66.7	100.0
Brazil	2005	Both sexes	1.3	1.7	1.8	8.3	7.5	19.3	16.6	10.8	35.8	16.2	79.4	100.0
		Males	1.6	2.2	2.2	8.7	7.4	20.5	19.3	11.6	32.9	14.0	77.8	100.0
		Females	0.9	1.2	1.5	7.9	7.5	18.1	14.0	10.0	38.7	18.4	81.1	100.0
Chile	2003	Both sexes	0.3	0.7	0.6	0.7	7.7	9.7	5.6	13.6	52.2	18.6	90.0	100.0
		Males	0.4	0.8	0.8	0.7	7.4	9.7	6.4	15.4	50.2	17.8	89.8	100.0
		Females	0.1	0.5	0.5	0.6	8.1	9.7	4.8	11.7	54.3	19.4	90.2	100.0
Colombia	2005	Both sexes	1.0	3.0	4.0	5.4	5.9	18.3	11.7	10.4	27.7	30.8	80.6	100.0
		Males	1.2	3.5	4.3	5.7	5.7	19.2	14.2	11.6	26.6	27.2	79.6	100.0
		Females	0.8	2.4	3.8	5.2	6.0	17.4	9.5	9.3	28.8	34.2	81.8	100.0
Costa Rica	2005	Both sexes	0.7	2.9	10.5	4.6	2.5	20.5	22.2	12.7	26.7	17.2	78.8	100.0
		Males	0.7	3.4	11.0	5.0	2.7	22.1	25.5	12.9	24.8	14.1	77.3	100.0
		Females	0.7	2.4	10.1	4.2	2.3	19.0	18.9	12.5	28.6	20.3	80.3	100.0
Dominican Republic	2005	Both sexes	1.1	4.5	1.7	1.8	5.6	13.6	12.4	9.4	48.0	15.6	85.4	100.0
		Males	0.9	5.3	2.0	2.3	5.3	14.9	16.5	10.8	43.9	13.0	84.2	100.0
		Females	1.3	3.6	1.4	1.2	5.9	12.1	8.1	7.8	52.2	18.3	86.4	100.0
Ecuador	2005	Both sexes	0.8	2.6	5.2	7.9	7.9	23.6	6.1	6.6	44.0	18.9	75.6	100.0
		Males	1.0	3.0	5.9	8.8	7.8	25.5	6.2	7.6	42.7	17.0	73.5	100.0
		Females	0.7	2.1	4.5	6.9	7.9	21.4	5.9	5.7	45.3	21.0	77.9	100.0
El Salvador	2004	Both sexes	2.2	8.3	3.7	5.0	7.6	24.6	8.7	8.7	42.7	13.2	73.3	100.0
		Males	2.2	8.7	3.3	3.6	7.3	22.9	10.5	8.0	43.9	12.7	75.1	100.0
		Females	2.2	7.9	4.0	6.4	7.8	26.1	6.9	9.4	41.6	13.6	71.5	100.0
Guatemala	2004	Both sexes	5.3	15.9	13.3	5.2	6.3	40.7	9.3	7.7	31.8	5.2	54.0	100.0
		Males	3.6	13.2	13.2	6.0	6.9	39.3	11.8	8.0	31.3	6.0	57.1	100.0
		Females	6.8	18.5	13.3	4.5	5.7	42.0	7.0	7.5	32.3	4.4	51.2	100.0
Honduras	2003	Both sexes	2.8	8.5	19.3	4.6	3.7	36.1	13.2	8.6	32.4	6.9	61.1	100.0
		Males	3.1	10.1	20.3	4.5	3.3	38.2	12.8	8.6	31.2	6.0	58.6	100.0
		Females	2.5	7.2	18.5	4.6	3.9	34.2	13.6	8.6	33.5	7.6	63.3	100.0

Table 37 (concluded)

CLASSIFICATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 BY EDUCATIONAL STATUS, ^a URBAN AREAS, AROUND 2005 (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 during lower secondary cycle	Dropouts at end of lower or during upper secondary cycle	Dropout subtotal	Students who have fallen far behind	Students who are slightly behind	Up-to-date students	Graduates		Subtotal students and graduates
Mexico	2005	Both sexes	0.9	2.4	7.1	4.2	18.9	32.6	5.3	6.7	36.9	17.7	66.6	100.0
		Males	0.6	2.8	6.8	5.2	19.4	34.2	5.7	7.3	37.9	14.2	65.1	100.0
		Females	1.1	2.0	7.3	3.3	18.4	31.0	4.9	6.1	35.9	21.0	67.9	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	2005	Both sexes	0.6	0.8	4.2	4.7	6.2	15.9	7.7	8.5	45.3	21.9	83.4	100.0
		Males	0.9	0.8	4.6	5.5	6.0	16.9	10.5	10.9	41.6	19.2	82.2	100.0
		Females	0.3	0.9	3.9	4.0	6.4	15.2	5.0	6.2	48.8	24.6	84.6	100.0
Paraguay	2005	Both sexes	0.5	3.9	6.2	4.4	7.4	21.9	12.0	14.2	38.2	13.2	77.6	100.0
		Males	0.2	4.7	6.0	3.4	7.0	21.1	11.8	18.4	36.1	12.5	78.8	100.0
		Females	0.7	3.3	6.3	5.4	7.8	22.8	12.2	10.4	40.2	13.8	76.6	100.0
Peru	2003	Both sexes	0.5	2.6	3.2	4.8	11.3	21.9	6.8	5.5	23.9	41.3	77.5	100.0
		Males	0.5	2.5	3.2	4.7	11.0	21.4	6.8	6.5	24.3	40.5	78.1	100.0
		Females	0.5	2.6	3.3	4.8	11.7	22.4	6.8	4.5	23.6	42.2	77.1	100.0
Uruguay	2005	Both sexes	0.2	2.4	8.9	8.5	9.5	29.3	10.3	10.5	39.6	10.0	70.4	100.0
		Males	0.4	3.2	10.8	8.9	9.1	32.0	12.1	11.2	36.1	8.1	67.5	100.0
		Females	0.0	1.6	6.9	8.1	9.9	26.5	8.3	9.9	43.2	12.1	73.5	100.0

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

^a The methodology for calculating dropout rates is described in ECLAC, *Social Panorama of Latin America 2001–2002* (LC/G.2183-P), Santiago, Chile, December 2002, box III.1, except that the division into cycles is based strictly on the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 1997.

Table 38

CLASSIFICATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 BY EDUCATIONAL STATUS, ^a RURAL AREAS, AROUND 2005 (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 during lower secondary cycle	Dropouts at end of lower or during upper secondary cycle	Dropout subtotal	Students who have fallen far behind	Students who are slightly behind	Up-to-date students	Graduates		Subtotal students and graduates
Bolivia	2004	Both sexes	1.0	15.7	4.5	3.9	23.8	47.9	11.8	8.2	23.9	7.3	51.2	100.0
		Males	0.8	13.5	4.1	4.2	22.9	44.7	13.3	6.5	26.5	8.1	54.4	100.0
		Females	1.2	18.2	4.9	3.6	24.8	51.5	10.0	10.1	20.8	6.4	47.3	100.0
Brazil	2005	Both sexes	3.2	5.4	6.8	12.7	7.2	32.1	31.2	10.1	18.6	4.9	64.8	100.0
		Males	4.1	7.2	6.8	12.6	6.7	33.3	35.5	8.8	14.8	3.7	62.8	100.0
		Females	2.2	3.3	6.7	12.8	7.7	30.5	26.4	11.7	22.9	6.3	67.3	100.0
Chile	2003	Both sexes	0.5	2.5	3.5	2.4	15.0	23.4	7.9	14.4	42.7	11.1	76.1	100.0
		Males	0.4	3.0	4.0	2.4	15.1	24.5	9.4	15.5	39.8	10.4	75.1	100.0
		Females	0.5	2.0	2.9	2.4	15.0	22.3	6.3	13.1	45.9	11.9	77.2	100.0
Colombia	2005	Both sexes	3.1	13.4	16.2	8.9	6.1	44.6	18.3	8.8	14.2	11.0	52.3	100.0
		Males	4.0	16.0	16.7	8.4	5.5	46.6	20.2	7.7	12.5	9.0	49.4	100.0
		Females	2.2	10.5	15.6	9.4	6.8	42.3	16.2	10.1	16.2	13.2	55.7	100.0
Costa Rica	2005	Both sexes	1.3	7.5	25.6	5.8	2.8	41.7	19.0	11.4	17.0	9.6	57.0	100.0
		Males	1.6	8.5	26.7	6.4	2.9	44.5	19.6	10.5	14.7	9.1	53.9	100.0
		Females	1.1	6.4	24.6	5.2	2.6	38.8	18.4	12.3	19.3	10.0	60.0	100.0
Dominican Republic	2005	Both sexes	3.2	9.4	1.6	2.6	4.8	18.4	16.9	10.5	42.3	8.6	78.3	100.0
		Males	3.9	10.3	2.2	2.3	3.5	18.3	21.5	11.8	37.5	6.9	77.7	100.0
		Females	2.3	8.3	1.0	3.0	6.4	18.7	11.0	8.9	48.3	10.7	78.9	100.0
Ecuador	2005	Both sexes	2.2	6.9	13.6	18.0	9.3	47.8	8.3	6.5	27.1	8.0	49.9	100.0
		Males	2.4	7.3	14.4	18.1	7.4	47.2	9.4	7.4	26.8	6.8	50.4	100.0
		Females	2.0	6.5	12.6	17.9	11.6	48.6	7.1	5.5	27.4	9.4	49.4	100.0
El Salvador	2004	Both sexes	6.7	22.4	8.4	7.2	9.2	47.2	13.5	7.4	21.5	3.8	46.2	100.0
		Males	7.2	22.0	7.7	5.8	8.8	44.3	16.4	9.2	19.3	3.6	48.5	100.0
		Females	6.1	22.9	9.2	8.9	9.6	50.6	10.2	5.2	24.0	3.9	43.3	100.0
Guatemala	2004	Both sexes	16.4	28.7	18.1	2.6	2.3	51.7	15.5	5.5	10.4	0.5	31.9	100.0
		Males	10.9	24.7	20.0	3.8	2.3	50.8	18.7	7.8	11.1	0.7	38.3	100.0
		Females	21.9	32.7	16.2	1.4	2.3	52.6	12.3	3.3	9.7	0.2	25.5	100.0
Honduras	2003	Both sexes	9.1	24.8	33.4	2.2	2.0	62.4	13.4	5.4	9.1	0.5	28.4	100.0
		Males	10.0	27.5	33.6	2.2	1.0	64.3	13.4	5.1	6.6	0.7	25.8	100.0
		Females	8.1	21.9	33.3	2.2	3.1	60.5	13.4	5.7	12.0	0.3	31.4	100.0
Mexico	2005	Both sexes	2.6	6.4	13.8	4.9	22.1	47.2	5.4	7.1	27.7	10.0	50.2	100.0
		Males	1.9	6.3	11.6	5.5	21.8	45.2	6.7	8.8	28.2	9.4	53.1	100.0
		Females	3.4	6.5	16.2	4.4	22.5	49.6	4.1	5.3	27.1	10.5	47.0	100.0

Table 38 (concluded)

CLASSIFICATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 BY EDUCATIONAL STATUS, ^a RURAL AREAS, AROUND 2005 (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 during lower secondary cycle	Dropouts at end of lower or during upper secondary cycle	Dropout subtotal	Students who have fallen far behind	Students who are slightly behind	Up-to-date students	Graduates		Subtotal students and graduates
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
Panama	2005	Both sexes	2.1	6.4	21.1	6.2	7.5	41.2	10.1	8.3	30.5	7.8	56.7	100.0
		Males	1.3	6.2	21.8	7.4	6.6	42.0	13.0	10.6	27.5	5.5	56.6	100.0
		Females	3.0	6.6	20.4	4.8	8.4	40.2	6.9	5.9	33.8	10.2	56.8	100.0
Paraguay	2005	Both sexes	1.1	13.7	17.0	8.5	6.7	45.9	12.4	10.6	25.9	4.2	53.1	100.0
		Males	1.6	16.5	16.2	7.8	6.6	47.1	14.7	10.1	21.8	4.6	51.2	100.0
		Females	0.4	9.9	18.2	9.5	6.8							
Peru	2003	Both sexes	1.5	12.9	15.6	8.7	11.6	48.8	12.7	7.5	14.4	15.1	49.7	100.0
		Males	0.8	9.1	11.9	9.4	12.0	42.4	15.5	8.5	15.6	17.2	56.8	100.0
		Females	2.4	17.5	19.8	7.8	11.1	56.2	9.4	6.4	13.0	12.5	41.3	100.0

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

^a The methodology for calculating dropout rates is described in ECLAC, *Social Panorama of Latin America 2001–2002* (LC/G.2183-P), Santiago, Chile, December 2002, box III.1, except that the division into cycles is based strictly on the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 1997.

Table 39

OVERALL DROPOUT RATE ^a AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19, 1990–2005 (Percentages)										
Country	Year	Nationwide			Urban			Rural		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina ^b	1990	35.6	37.6	33.2
	2005	18.3	20.9	15.8
Argentina	2005	18.6	21.4	16.0
Bolivia	2004	37.2	35.5	38.8	31.7	30.2	33.0	48.4	45.2	52.2
Brazil	1990	45.9	49.0	43.0	39.7	42.7	36.9	64.5	67.3	61.7
	2005	22.0	23.6	20.5	19.5	20.9	18.2	33.0	34.6	31.1
Chile	1990	26.8	26.6	27.1	20.7	20.1	21.3	57.3	58.4	56.3
	2003	11.6	11.8	11.3	9.8	9.8	9.7	23.5	24.6	22.4
Colombia	1991	42.5	45.0	40.1	29.7	29.8	29.7	59.1	62.7	55.2
	2005	26.0	28.0	24.1	18.5	19.5	17.6	46.0	48.5	43.2
Costa Rica	1990	53.2	53.2	53.1	32.9	32.2	33.7	68.8	69.3	68.3
	2005	29.7	31.8	27.6	20.7	22.2	19.2	42.3	45.3	39.3
Dominican Republic	1997	23.0	25.1	21.0	19.3	22.7	16.8	28.1	28.0	28.2
	2005	15.6	16.5	14.6	13.7	15.0	12.4	19.1	19.0	19.1
Ecuador	1990	24.3	28.3	20.5
	2005	32.3	33.8	30.7	23.8	25.8	21.6	48.9	48.4	49.5
El Salvador	1995	45.1	44.1	46.1	32.4	30.8	33.7	62.9	60.8	65.0
	2004	36.2	34.4	38.0	25.1	23.3	26.8	50.6	47.7	53.8
Guatemala	2004	52.9	49.6	56.3	43.0	40.8	45.1	61.9	57.1	67.2
Honduras	1990	66.1	69.6	62.9	49.1	51.9	46.7	81.5	83.8	79.1
	2003	53.2	56.8	49.7	37.1	39.5	35.1	68.8	71.4	65.9
Mexico	2005	38.8	38.9	38.7	32.9	34.4	31.3	48.6	45.9	51.3
Nicaragua	1993	44.3	43.2	45.3	32.0	31.4	32.7	65.1	62.8	67.3
	2001	41.2	46.2	36.3	30.5	36.2	25.2	59.6	61.9	57.0
Panama	1991	35.3	38.8	31.6	28.0	30.5	25.5	53.4	58.4	47.6
	2005	24.9	26.2	23.7	16.1	17.1	15.2	42.0	42.6	41.5
Paraguay	2005	32.4	33.7	31.1	22.1	21.2	22.9	46.5	47.9	44.6
Peru	1997	40.3	40.6	39.9	36.3	36.2	36.3	48.4	48.5	48.4
	2003	31.4	29.2	33.8	22.0	21.5	22.5	49.5	42.8	57.7
Uruguay	1990	36.5	41.1	31.9
	2005	29.4	32.2	26.5
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	39.6	43.2	35.8	35.5	38.7	32.3	63.2	67.4	58.1
	2005	22.8	26.7	18.7

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

^a The methodology for calculating dropout rates is described in ECLAC, *Social Panorama of Latin America 2001–2002* (LC/G.2183–P), Santiago, Chile, December 2002, box III.1, except that the division into cycles is based strictly on the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 1997.

^b Greater Buenos Aires.

Table 40

EARLY DROPOUT RATE ^a (DURING PRIMARY CYCLE) AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19, 1990–2005 (Percentages)										
Country	Year	Nationwide			Urban			Rural		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina ^b	1990	2.4	2.4	2.4
	2005	0.8	1.3	0.4
Argentina	2005	1.3	1.7	0.8
Bolivia	2004	8.7	7.2	10.1	5.2	3.6	6.6	15.9	13.6	18.5
Brazil	1990	13.3	15.3	11.4	9.2	10.5	7.9	25.7	29.1	22.2
	2005	2.4	3.3	1.6	1.7	2.2	1.2	5.5	7.5	3.4
Chile	1990	4.3	4.7	3.9	2.9	3.1	2.7	11.3	12.5	10.1
	2003	0.9	1.1	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.6	2.6	3.1	2.0
Colombia	1991	15.5	17.8	13.4	7.3	7.6	7.1	26.1	29.5	22.4
	2005	6.0	7.4	4.6	3.0	3.6	2.5	13.8	16.6	10.7
Costa Rica	1990	12.1	13.2	10.9	4.6	5.2	4.1	17.9	19.3	16.4
	2005	4.9	5.6	4.1	2.9	3.4	2.4	7.6	8.7	6.4
Dominican Republic	1997	9.9	11.9	8.1	6.8	8.0	5.8	14.3	16.5	11.8
	2005	6.3	7.3	5.2	4.6	5.4	3.7	9.7	10.7	8.5
Ecuador	1990	3.5	4.4	2.7
	2005	4.1	4.6	3.6	2.6	3.1	2.2	7.1	7.5	6.6
El Salvador	1995	24.6	24.4	24.8	12.6	10.9	14.1	41.3	41.4	41.1
	2004	15.2	15.6	14.8	8.5	8.9	8.1	24.0	23.8	24.4
Guatemala	2004	26.1	21.3	31.1	16.8	13.7	19.9	34.4	27.7	41.8
Honduras	1990	27.3	30.0	24.8	15.2	15.5	14.9	38.2	41.8	34.7
	2003	18.2	21.3	15.2	8.8	10.5	7.4	27.3	30.5	23.8
Mexico	2005	4.0	4.2	3.8	2.4	2.8	2.0	6.5	6.4	6.7
Nicaragua	1993	23.6	25.4	21.8	11.8	13.7	10.0	43.7	45.0	42.5
	2001	19.7	23.9	15.6	10.0	12.7	7.5	36.3	41.4	30.6
Panama	1991	5.8	6.9	4.6	3.9	4.5	3.2	10.7	12.6	8.5
	2005	2.8	2.8	2.8	0.9	0.8	0.9	6.5	6.3	6.8
Paraguay	2005	8.2	10.4	5.8	4.0	4.7	3.3	13.9	16.8	10.0
Peru	1997	16.3	16.3	16.3	8.2	8.4	7.9	32.9	30.4	36.0
	2003	6.2	4.9	7.5	2.6	2.5	2.6	13.1	9.2	17.9
Uruguay	1990	2.2	2.9	1.5
	2005	2.4	3.2	1.6
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	9.9	12.1	7.6	7.0	8.6	5.4	26.8	31.1	21.6
	2005	5.0	6.8	3.2

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

^a The methodology for calculating dropout rates is described in ECLAC, *Social Panorama of Latin America 2001–2002* (LC/G.2183-P), Santiago, Chile, December 2002, box III.1, except that the division into cycles is based strictly on the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 1997.

^b Greater Buenos Aires.

Table 41

DROPOUT RATE AT THE END OF THE PRIMARY CYCLE ^a AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19, 1990–2005 (Percentages)										
Country	Year	Nationwide			Urban			Rural		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina ^b	2005	0.6	0.4	0.9
Argentina	2005	1.1	1.0	1.1
Bolivia	2004	3.3	2.9	3.7	2.4	2.0	2.8	5.4	4.8	6.1
Brazil	1990	14.1	14.9	13.4	9.4	9.9	8.9	31.3	33.0	29.7
	2005	2.9	3.3	2.5	1.9	2.3	1.5	7.4	7.7	7.1
Chile	1990	3.9	4.0	3.8	2.1	2.1	2.1	13.6	14.0	13.2
	2003	1.0	1.2	0.8	0.6	0.8	0.5	3.6	4.1	2.9
Colombia	1991	18.0	19.2	16.8	9.5	9.4	9.7	31.6	34.2	29.1
	2005	8.0	8.8	7.3	4.2	4.5	3.9	19.4	20.9	17.9
Costa Rica	1990	35.8	35.6	36.0	18.7	17.1	20.3	51.1	52.0	50.2
	2005	17.9	18.8	17.0	10.9	11.5	10.4	28.1	29.7	26.6
Dominican Republic	1997	4.3	4.5	4.1	3.0	3.0	3.0	6.2	6.4	6.0
	2005	1.8	2.3	1.4	1.8	2.1	1.5	1.9	2.5	1.1
Ecuador	1990	12.1	13.8	10.6
	2005	8.6	9.5	7.6	5.4	6.1	4.7	15.0	16.0	13.8
El Salvador	1995	9.1	8.5	9.6	6.1	6.0	6.3	15.1	13.4	16.9
	2004	7.1	6.7	7.6	4.1	3.7	4.5	11.8	10.8	12.9
Guatemala	2004	24.4	23.5	25.5	16.8	15.9	17.8	33.0	31.1	35.6
Honduras	1990	46.4	49.4	43.8	31.3	34.8	28.4	65.1	66.6	63.8
	2003	34.8	37.9	32.0	21.8	23.5	20.5	50.6	53.7	47.6
Mexico	2005	10.2	9.2	11.3	7.3	7.1	7.5	15.2	12.6	18.0
Nicaragua	1993	16.0	17.2	14.9	12.4	14.2	10.8	25.5	24.9	26.0
	2001	14.3	15.8	12.9	10.2	12.2	8.6	24.1	24.3	23.9
Panama	1991	18.7	22.0	15.3	12.3	14.7	9.9	36.0	41.0	30.6
	2005	10.4	11.2	9.7	4.3	4.7	3.9	23.1	23.6	22.6
Paraguay	2005	11.9	12.2	11.5	6.5	6.3	6.6	20.0	19.8	20.3
Peru	1997	2.8	2.2	3.3	2.5	2.0	2.9	3.5	2.7	4.6
	2003	8.1	6.8	9.5	3.3	3.3	3.4	18.2	13.3	24.8
Uruguay	1990	13.1	13.7	12.5
	2005	9.1	11.2	7.0
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	17.8	20.5	15.1	15.6	17.9	13.4	34.3	39.5	28.7
	2005	8.3	10.5	6.1

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

^a The methodology for calculating dropout rates is described in ECLAC, *Social Panorama of Latin America 2001–2002* (LC/G.2183–P), Santiago, Chile, December 2002, box III.1, except that the division into cycles is based strictly on the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 1997.

^b Greater Buenos Aires.

Table 42

DROPOUT RATE DURING THE SECONDARY CYCLE ^a AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19, 1990–2005 (Percentages)										
Country	Year	Nationwide			Urban			Rural		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina ^b	1990 ^c	34.0	36.1	31.5
	2005	17.1	19.6	14.7
Argentina	2005	16.7	19.3	14.3
Bolivia	2004	28.8	28.4	29.2	26.2	26.1	26.2	35.2	33.3	37.5
Brazil	1990	27.4	29.3	25.7	26.8	28.9	24.8	30.5	31.2	30.0
	2005	17.7	18.3	17.2	16.5	17.1	15.9	23.4	23.5	23.3
Chile	1990	20.5	19.8	21.1	16.6	15.7	17.4	44.3	44.7	44.0
	2003	9.8	9.7	10.0	8.6	8.3	8.8	18.6	18.9	18.4
Colombia	1991	17.1	17.3	16.9	16.2	16.1	16.2	19.0	19.6	18.5
	2005	14.5	14.7	14.3	12.3	12.6	12.1	22.2	22.0	22.5
Costa Rica	1990	17.0	16.5	17.6	13.5	13.7	13.3	22.3	20.7	23.9
	2005	10.0	11.0	9.0	8.3	9.0	7.6	13.2	14.8	11.6
Dominican Republic	1997	10.7	11.0	10.4	10.8	13.4	8.9	10.5	7.8	13.3
	2005	8.2	7.8	8.6	8.0	8.3	7.7	8.6	6.9	10.6
Ecuador	1990	10.8	13.1	8.7
	2005	22.8	23.3	22.2	17.2	18.5	16.0	35.4	33.6	37.3
El Salvador	1995	20.0	19.1	20.8	17.5	17.4	17.7	25.6	22.8	28.5
	2004	19.0	16.8	21.2	14.7	12.6	16.6	26.3	23.1	29.9
Guatemala	2004	15.8	16.4	15.1	17.6	18.5	16.6	13.3	13.9	12.4
Honduras	1990	13.0	14.0	12.3	12.6	12.7	12.6	14.0	16.9	11.5
	2003	12.3	11.6	12.8	11.9	11.8	11.9	13.1	11.3	14.7
Mexico	2005	29.0	29.8	28.2	25.8	27.4	24.2	35.1	33.9	36.4
Nicaragua	1993	13.2	8.0	17.8	12.0	7.4	16.1	16.8	10.0	23.2
	2001	14.6	16.1	13.3	14.0	16.8	11.6	16.5	14.2	18.6
Panama	1991	15.5	15.7	15.3	14.6	14.7	14.6	18.5	19.5	17.6
	2005	13.8	14.5	13.1	11.6	12.3	11.0	19.4	19.8	18.9
Paraguay	2005	16.5	15.8	17.3	13.3	11.7	14.7	22.3	21.9	22.8
Peru	1997	26.6	27.4	25.8	28.8	28.9	28.8	20.3	23.8	15.5
	2003	20.5	20.2	20.9	17.2	16.7	17.6	29.0	27.4	31.4
Uruguay	1990	25.3	29.7	21.0
	2005	20.4	21.1	19.7
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1990	18.4	18.7	18.1	17.9	18.4	17.4	23.5	21.8	24.9
	2005	11.3	12.2	10.6

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

^a The methodology for calculating dropout rates is described in ECLAC, *Social Panorama of Latin America 2001–2002* (LC/G.2183-P), Santiago, Chile, December 2002, box III.1, except that the division into cycles is based strictly on the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 1997.

^b Geater Buenos Aires.

^c Includes dropouts at the end of the primary cycle.

Social spending

Table 43

PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING INDICATORS, ^a 1990/1991–2002/2003								
Country and coverage ^d	Period	Public social spending ^b			Period	Percentage variations in public social spending ^c		
		Per capita (2000 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending		Per capita (2000 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending
Argentina^e (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	1180	19.3	62.2	1990/1991–1994/1995	31.5	1.8	3.5
	1994/1995	1552	21.1	65.7	1994/1995–1998/1999	8.1	-0.2	-1.5
	1998/1999	1677	20.9	64.2	1998/1999–2002/2003	-23.5	-1.5	1.9
	2002/2003	1283	19.4	66.1	1990/1991–2002/2003	8.7	0.1	3.9
Bolivia (CG)	1990/1991	47	5.2	34.4	1990/1991–1994/1995	45.2	2.0	-6.9
	1994/1995	68	7.2	27.5	1994/1995–1998/1999	59.3	3.5	6.7
	1998/1999	108	10.7	34.2	1998/1999–2002/2003	26.0	2.9	-1.2
	2002/2003	136	13.6	33.0	1990/1991–2002/2003	191.4	8.3	-1.4
Brazil^f (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	565	18.1	48.9	1990/1991–1994/1995	13.5	1.2	9.3
	1994/1995	641	19.2	58.2	1994/1995–1998/1999	3.4	0.1	0.3
	1998/1999	663	19.3	58.5	1998/1999–2002/2003	2.0	-0.2	0.9
	2002/2003	676	19.1	59.4	1990/1991–2002/2003	19.8	1.0	10.6
Chile (CG)	1990/1991	404	12.7	61.2	1990/1991–1994/1995	26.7	-0.3	3.0
	1994/1995	512	12.4	64.2	1994/1995–1998/1999	34.9	1.9	1.8
	1998/1999	691	14.3	66.0	1998/1999–2002/2003	10.4	0.5	1.6
	2002/2003	763	14.8	67.6	1990/1991–2002/2003	88.7	2.1	6.4
Colombia (NFPS)	1990/1991	122	6.6	28.8	1990/1991–1994/1995	92.6	4.8	11.1
	1994/1995	235	11.5	39.9	1994/1995–1998/1999	18.1	2.2	-7.1
	1998/1999	278	13.7	32.7	1998/1999–2002/2003	5.6	0.9	2.4
	2002/2003	293	14.6	35.1	1990/1991–2002/2003	140.2	8.0	6.3
Costa Rica (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	488	15.6	...	1990/1991–1994/1995	16.1	0.3	...
	1994/1995	566	15.8	...	1994/1995–1998/1999	14.9	0.6	...
	1998/1999	651	16.4	63.6	1998/1999–2002/2003	18.9	2.3	0.9
	2002/2003	774	18.6	64.5	1990/1991–2002/2003	58.7	3.1	...
Cuba	1990/1991	731	25.3	31.5	1990/1991–1994/1995	-34.7	-2.0	2.8
	1994/1995	477	23.2	34.4	1994/1995–1998/1999	19.0	1.1	10.4
	1998/1999	568	24.3	44.8	1998/1999–2002/2003	37.7	4.9	6.7
	2002/2003	782	29.2	51.4	1990/1991–2002/2003	6.9	4.0	19.9
Dominican Republic (CG)	1990/1991	68	4.3	38.4	1990/1991–1994/1995	55.6	1.7	2.4
	1994/1995	105	6.1	40.8	1994/1995–1998/1999	32.9	0.4	-1.4
	1998/1999	140	6.5	39.3	1998/1999–2002/2003	28.7	0.9	0.4
	2002/2003	180	7.4	39.7	1990/1991–2002/2003	165.9	3.1	1.3
Ecuador^g (CG)	1990/1991	95	7.5	42.8	1990/1991–1994/1995	-15.3	-1.4	-9.1
	1994/1995	81	6.1	33.7	1994/1995–1998/1999	-21.1	-1.2	-12.0
	1998/1999	64	4.9	21.7	1998/1999–2002/2003	19.7	0.9	3.5
	2002/2003	76	5.7	25.2	1990/1991–2002/2003	-20.0	-1.8	-17.6
El Salvador (CG)	1990/1991	1990/1991–1994/1995
	1994/1995	1994/1995–1998/1999
	1998/1999	1998/1999–2002/2003
	2002/2003	149	7.1	35.9	1990/1991–2002/2003
Guatemala (CG)	1990/1991	50	3.3	29.9	1990/1991–1994/1995	29.3	0.7	11.5
	1994/1995	64	4.1	41.3	1994/1995–1998/1999	54.7	1.9	3.7
	1998/1999	99	5.9	45.1	1998/1999–2002/2003	9.6	0.5	5.3
	2002/2003	109	6.5	50.4	1990/1991–2002/2003	119.2	3.1	20.5
Honduras^h (CG)	1990/1991	71	7.9	36.5	1990/1991–1994/1995	0.0	-0.1	-4.2
	1994/1995	71	7.8	32.3	1994/1995–1998/1999	-3.5	-0.4	-0.9
	1998/1999	69	7.4	31.4	1998/1999–2002/2003	83.9	5.7	20.6
	2002/2003	126	13.1	52.0	1990/1991–2002/2003	77.5	5.2	15.5

Table 43 (concluded)

PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING INDICATORS, ^a 1990/1991–2002/2003								
Country and coverage ^d	Period	Public social spending ^b			Period	Percentage variations in public social spending ^c		
		Per capita (2000 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending		Per capita (2000 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending
Jamaica (CG)	1990/1991	271	8.4	26.8	1990/1991–1994/1995	0.6	-0.1	-6.3
	1994/1995	273	8.2	20.6	1994/1995–1998/1999
	1998/1999	1998/1999–2002/2003
	2002/2003	300	9.6	17.3	1990/1991–2002/2003	10.5	1.2	-9.5
Mexico (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	327	6.5	41.3	1990/1991–1994/1995	38.2	2.4	11.8
	1994/1995	452	8.9	53.1	1994/1995–1998/1999	13.2	0.4	6.3
	1998/1999	512	9.2	59.4	1998/1999–2002/2003	17.3	1.2	-0.1
	2002/2003	600	10.5	59.3	1990/1991–2002/2003	83.5	3.9	18.0
Nicaragua (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	49	6.6	34.0	1990/1991–1994/1995	1.0	0.5	5.9
	1994/1995	49	7.2	39.9	1994/1995–1998/1999	17.3	0.5	-2.9
	1998/1999	58	7.6	37.1	1998/1999–2002/2003	17.4	1.2	2.9
	2002/2003 ⁱ	68	8.8	40.0	1990/1991–2002/2003	39.2	2.2	6.0
Panama (NFPS)	1990/1991	496	16.2	40.0	1990/1991–1994/1995	21.1	1.0	1.5
	1994/1995	601	17.3	41.5	1994/1995–1998/1999	6.0	-0.9	3.2
	1998/1999	637	16.4	44.7	1998/1999–2002/2003	7.3	0.9	0.4
	2002/2003	683	17.3	45.1	1990/1991–2002/2003	37.7	1.1	5.1
Paraguay (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	45	3.2	39.9	1990/1991–1994/1995	154.4	4.6	3.4
	1994/1995	115	7.8	43.3	1994/1995–1998/1999	10.5	1.3	1.2
	1998/1999	127	9.1	44.5	1998/1999–2002/2003	-10.3	-0.1	-3.0
	2002/2003 ⁱ	114	9.0	41.6	1990/1991–2002/2003	152.2	5.8	1.7
Peru (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	64	3.9	33.0	1990/1991–1994/1995	95.3	2.6	6.4
	1994/1995	125	6.5	39.4	1994/1995–1998/1999	20.4	0.9	2.5
	1998/1999	151	7.4	41.9	1998/1999–2002/2003	12.6	0.6	...
	2002/2003	170	8.0	...	1990/1991–2002/2003	164.8	4.1	...
Trinidad and Tobago	1990/1991	334	6.9	40.6	1990/1991–1994/1995	-2.8	-0.2	2.2
	1994/1995	324	6.6	42.8	1994/1995–1998/1999
	1998/1999	1998/1999–2002/2003
	2002/2003	395	5.5	40.3	1990/1991–2002/2003	18.4	-1.4	-0.3
Uruguay (CG)	1990/1991	820	16.8	62.3	1990/1991–1994/1995	40.3	3.4	8.4
	1994/1995	1150	20.2	70.8	1994/1995–1998/1999	19.8	1.8	-1.3
	1998/1999	1378	22.0	69.5	1998/1999–2002/2003	-22.3	-1.1	-8.8
	2002/2003	1071	20.9	60.6	1990/1991–2002/2003	30.7	4.0	-1.7
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ⁱ (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	446	8.8	32.8	1990/1991–1994/1995	-10.3	-1.0	2.5
	1994/1995	400	7.8	35.3	1994/1995–1998/1999	9.4	1.0	1.3
	1998/1999	438	8.8	36.6	1998/1999–2002/2003	11.5	2.8	2.0
	2002/2003	488	11.7	38.6	1990/1991–2002/2003	9.4	2.9	5.8

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

- a Includes public spending on education, health and nutrition, social security, employment and social welfare, and housing, water 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 government of Buenos Aires, and also the municipal governments.
- f Estimate of consolidated social spending, including federal, state and municipal expenditure.
- g Includes the spending of the Ecuadorian Social Security Institute, which is not part of the central government's budget.
- h The 2002/2003 figures relate to the budget for 2004.
- i Relates to the budgetary law. In the case of the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, the modifications made yearly on 31 December are included.

Table 44

INDICATORS OF PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON EDUCATION, ^a 1990/1991–2002/2003								
Country and coverage ^d	Period	Public social spending ^b			Period	Percentage variations in public social spending ^c		
		Per capita (2000 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending		Per capita (2000 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending
Argentina^e (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	220	3.6	11.6	1990/1991–1994/1995	41.6	0.6	1.6
	1994/1995	312	4.2	13.2	1994/1995–1998/1999	20.1	0.4	1.1
	1998/1999	374	4.7	14.3	1998/1999–2002/2003	-25.4	-0.4	0.1
	2002/2003	279	4.2	14.4	1990/1991–2002/2003	26.8	0.6	2.8
Bolivia (CG)	1990/1991	29	3.3	21.7	1990/1991–1994/1995	58.6	1.6	-2.9
	1994/1995	46	4.9	18.7	1994/1995–1998/1999	12.0	0.2	-2.4
	1998/1999	52	5.1	16.4	1998/1999–2002/2003	28.2	1.6	-0.2
	2002/2003	66	6.7	16.2	1990/1991–2002/2003	127.6	3.4	-5.5
Brazil^f (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	116	3.7	9.9	1990/1991–1994/1995	29.7	0.8	3.8
	1994/1995	151	4.5	13.7	1994/1995–1998/1999	-5.3	-0.4	-1.0
	1998/1999	143	4.2	12.6	1998/1999–2002/2003	-10.5	-0.6	-1.4
	2002/2003	128	3.6	11.2	1990/1991–2002/2003	9.9	-0.1	1.3
Chile (CG)	1990/1991	77	2.4	11.6	1990/1991–1994/1995	41.2	0.2	1.9
	1994/1995	108	2.6	13.5	1994/1995–1998/1999	63.9	1.1	3.4
	1998/1999	177	3.7	16.9	1998/1999–2002/2003	17.8	0.4	1.6
	2002/2003	209	4.0	18.5	1990/1991–2002/2003	172.5	1.6	6.8
Colombia (NFPS)	1990/1991	49	2.6	11.4	1990/1991–1994/1995	40.2	0.7	0.2
	1994/1995	68	3.3	11.6	1994/1995–1998/1999	38.2	1.3	-0.5
	1998/1999	94	4.6	11.1	1998/1999–2002/2003	10.1	0.5	1.3
	2002/2003	104	5.2	12.4	1990/1991–2002/2003	113.4	2.5	0.9
Costa Rica (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	124	3.9	...	1990/1991–1994/1995	21.9	0.3	...
	1994/1995	151	4.2	...	1994/1995–1998/1999	16.9	0.2	...
	1998/1999	176	4.4	19.8	1998/1999–2002/2003	33.2	1.2	0.1
	2002/2003	235	5.7	19.9	1990/1991–2002/2003	89.9	1.7	...
Cuba	1990/1991	322	11.1	13.9	1990/1991–1994/1995	-47.8	-2.9	-1.8
	1994/1995	168	8.2	12.1	1994/1995–1998/1999	16.7	0.2	3.4
	1998/1999	196	8.4	15.5	1998/1999–2002/2003	67.3	3.9	6.1
	2002/2003	328	12.3	21.6	1990/1991–2002/2003	1.9	1.1	7.7
Dominican Republic (CG)	1990/1991	18	1.2	10.5	1990/1991–1994/1995	100.0	0.9	3.5
	1994/1995	36	2.1	14.0	1994/1995–1998/1999	63.9	0.7	2.6
	1998/1999	59	2.7	16.6	1998/1999–2002/2003	22.0	0.2	-0.7
	2002/2003	72	3.0	15.9	1990/1991–2002/2003	300.0	1.8	5.4
Ecuador^g (CG)	1990/1991	36	2.8	16.0	1990/1991–1994/1995	-1.4	-0.2	-1.4
	1994/1995	35	2.6	14.6	1994/1995–1998/1999	-8.6	-0.2	-3.6
	1998/1999	32	2.5	11.0	1998/1999–2002/2003	10.9	0.2	0.8
	2002/2003	36	2.7	11.8	1990/1991–2002/2003	0.0	-0.1	-4.3
El Salvador (CG)	1990/1991	1990/1991–1994/1995
	1994/1995	1994/1995–1998/1999
	1998/1999	1998/1999–2002/2003
	2002/2003	67	3.2	16.2	1990/1991–2002/2003
Guatemala (CG)	1990/1991	24	1.6	14.3	1990/1991–1994/1995	14.9	0.1	3.3
	1994/1995	27	1.7	17.6	1994/1995–1998/1999	40.7	0.5	-0.4
	1998/1999	38	2.3	17.2	1998/1999–2002/2003	14.5	0.3	2.8
	2002/2003	44	2.6	20.0	1990/1991–2002/2003	85.1	1.0	5.8
Honduras^h (CG)	1990/1991	39	4.3	19.8	1990/1991–1994/1995	-10.4	-0.5	-4.2
	1994/1995	35	3.8	15.6	1994/1995–1998/1999	10.1	0.4	2.0
	1998/1999	38	4.2	17.6	1998/1999–2002/2003	84.2	3.1	11.1
	2002/2003	70	7.2	28.7	1990/1991–2002/2003	81.8	2.9	8.9

Table 44 (concluded)

INDICATORS OF PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON EDUCATION, ^a 1990/1991–2002/2003								
Country and coverage ^d	Period	Public social spending ^b			Period	Percentage variations in public social spending ^c		
		Per capita (2000 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending		Per capita (2000 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending
Jamaica (CG)	1990/1991	133	4.1	13.1	1990/1991–1994/1995	1.1	0.0	-2.9
	1994/1995	134	4.1	10.1	1994/1995–1998/1999
	1998/1999	1998/1999–2002/2003
	2002/2003	162	5.2	9.4	1990/1991–2002/2003	22.3	1.1	-3.7
Mexico (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	130	2.6	16.5	1990/1991–1994/1995	54.6	1.3	7.2
	1994/1995	201	3.9	23.6	1994/1995–1998/1999	6.0	-0.1	1.1
	1998/1999	213	3.8	24.7	1998/1999–2002/2003	9.2	0.2	-1.7
	2002/2003	233	4.1	23.0	1990/1991–2002/2003	78.8	1.5	6.6
Nicaragua (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	19	2.6	13.0	1990/1991–1994/1995	5.4	0.3	2.9
	1994/1995	20	2.8	15.8	1994/1995–1998/1999	30.8	0.6	0.9
	1998/1999	26	3.4	16.7	1998/1999–2002/2003	23.5	0.7	1.8
	2002/2003 ^g	32	4.1	18.5	1990/1991–2002/2003	70.3	1.5	5.6
Panama (NFPS)	1990/1991	125	4.1	10.1	1990/1991–1994/1995	20.5	0.2	0.6
	1994/1995	150	4.3	10.8	1994/1995–1998/1999	27.7	0.6	2.7
	1998/1999	192	4.9	13.5	1998/1999–2002/2003	-3.7	-0.3	-1.3
	2002/2003	185	4.7	12.2	1990/1991–2002/2003	48.2	0.6	2.1
Paraguay (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	18	1.3	15.7	1990/1991–1994/1995	194.4	2.3	4.2
	1994/1995	53	3.6	20.0	1994/1995–1998/1999	16.0	0.8	1.7
	1998/1999	62	4.4	21.6	1998/1999–2002/2003	-11.4	0.0	-1.6
	2002/2003 ^g	55	4.4	20.1	1990/1991–2002/2003	202.8	3.1	4.3
Peru (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	27	1.6	13.8	1990/1991–1994/1995	92.5	1.0	2.3
	1994/1995	51	2.7	16.1	1994/1995–1998/1999	-2.0	-0.2	-2.2
	1998/1999	50	2.5	13.9	1998/1999–2002/2003
	2002/2003	1990/1991–2002/2003
Trinidad and Tobago	1990/1991	153	3.2	18.6	1990/1991–1994/1995	-3.6	-0.1	0.9
	1994/1995	148	3.0	19.5	1994/1995–1998/1999
	1998/1999	1998/1999–2002/2003
	2002/2003	223	3.1	22.7	1990/1991–2002/2003	45.8	-0.1	4.2
Uruguay (CG)	1990/1991	120	2.5	9.1	1990/1991–1994/1995	16.7	0.0	-0.5
	1994/1995	140	2.5	8.6	1994/1995–1998/1999	44.8	0.8	1.6
	1998/1999	202	3.2	10.2	1998/1999–2002/2003	-14.6	0.1	-0.4
	2002/2003	173	3.4	9.8	1990/1991–2002/2003	44.4	0.9	0.7
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ⁱ (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	179	3.5	13.2	1990/1991–1994/1995	8.4	0.3	3.9
	1994/1995	194	3.8	17.1	1994/1995–1998/1999	2.8	0.2	-0.4
	1998/1999	200	4.0	16.7	1998/1999–2002/2003	6.5	1.0	0.1
	2002/2003	213	5.1	16.8	1990/1991–2002/2003	18.7	1.5	3.6

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

^a Includes public spending on education, science, technology, culture, religion and recreation, depending on the availability of information from individual countries.

^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 government of Buenos Aires, and also the municipal governments.

^f Estimate of consolidated social spending, including federal, state and municipal expenditure.

^g Includes the spending of the Ecuadorian Social Security Institute, which is not part of the central government's budget.

^h The 2002/2003 figures relate to the budget for 2004.

ⁱ Relates to the budgetary law. In the case of the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, the modifications made yearly on 31 December are included.

Table 45

INDICATORS OF PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON HEALTH, ^a 1990/1991–2002/2003								
Country and coverage ^d	Period	Public social spending ^b			Period	Percentage variations in public social spending ^c		
		Per capita (2000 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending		Per capita (2000 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending
Argentina^e (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	265	4.3	13.9	1990/1991–1994/1995	36.8	0.6	1.4
	1994/1995	363	4.9	15.3	1994/1995–1998/1999	7.6	-0.1	-0.4
	1998/1999	390	4.9	14.9	1998/1999–2002/2003	-25.5	-0.5	0.0
	2002/2003	291	4.4	15.0	1990/1991–2002/2003	9.6	0.0	1.0
Bolivia (CG)	1990/1991	9	1.0	6.9	1990/1991–1994/1995	27.8	0.2	-2.0
	1994/1995	12	1.2	4.9	1994/1995–1998/1999	-17.4	-0.3	-1.8
	1998/1999	10	1.0	3.1	1998/1999–2002/2003	63.2	0.6	0.7
	2002/2003	16	1.6	3.8	1990/1991–2002/2003	72.2	0.6	-3.1
Brazil^f (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	112	3.6	9.6	1990/1991–1994/1995	0.0	-0.2	0.5
	1994/1995	112	3.3	10.1	1994/1995–1998/1999	-11.7	-0.5	-1.4
	1998/1999	99	2.9	8.7	1998/1999–2002/2003	3.0	0.0	0.2
	2002/2003	102	2.9	8.9	1990/1991–2002/2003	-9.0	-0.7	-0.7
Chile (CG)	1990/1991	63	2.0	9.4	1990/1991–1994/1995	56.0	0.4	2.8
	1994/1995	98	2.4	12.2	1994/1995–1998/1999	33.8	0.3	0.3
	1998/1999	131	2.7	12.5	1998/1999–2002/2003	18.4	0.3	1.2
	2002/2003	155	3.0	13.7	1990/1991–2002/2003	147.2	1.0	4.3
Colombia (NFPS)	1990/1991	18	1.0	4.2	1990/1991–1994/1995	240.0	1.9	5.9
	1994/1995	60	2.9	10.1	1994/1995–1998/1999	24.4	0.7	-1.3
	1998/1999	74	3.7	8.7	1998/1999–2002/2003	-3.4	-0.1	-0.2
	2002/2003	72	3.6	8.5	1990/1991–2002/2003	308.6	2.6	4.3
Costa Rica (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	154	4.9	...	1990/1991–1994/1995	9.1	-0.2	...
	1994/1995	168	4.7	...	1994/1995–1998/1999	12.5	0.1	...
	1998/1999	189	4.8	19.2	1998/1999–2002/2003	24.9	0.9	0.1
	2002/2003	236	5.7	19.3	1990/1991–2002/2003	53.4	0.8	...
Cuba	1990/1991	150	5.2	6.4	1990/1991–1994/1995	-28.1	0.1	1.3
	1994/1995	108	5.2	7.8	1994/1995–1998/1999	26.0	0.6	2.9
	1998/1999	136	5.8	10.7	1998/1999–2002/2003	23.6	0.5	0.4
	2002/2003	168	6.3	11.0	1990/1991–2002/2003	12.0	1.1	4.6
Dominican Republic (CG)	1990/1991	16	1.0	8.6	1990/1991–1994/1995	41.9	0.3	-0.2
	1994/1995	22	1.2	8.4	1994/1995–1998/1999	43.2	0.2	0.5
	1998/1999	32	1.5	8.9	1998/1999–2002/2003	22.2	0.1	-0.4
	2002/2003	39	1.6	8.5	1990/1991–2002/2003	148.4	0.6	-0.1
Ecuador^g (CG)	1990/1991	18	1.4	8.1	1990/1991–1994/1995	-38.9	-0.6	-3.7
	1994/1995	11	0.8	4.5	1994/1995–1998/1999	-9.1	-0.1	-1.2
	1998/1999	10	0.7	3.3	1998/1999–2002/2003	45.0	0.4	1.6
	2002/2003	15	1.1	4.9	1990/1991–2002/2003	-19.4	-0.3	-3.3
El Salvador (CG)	1990/1991	1990/1991–1994/1995
	1994/1995	1994/1995–1998/1999
	1998/1999	1998/1999–2002/2003
	2002/2003	34	1.6	8.1	1990/1991–2002/2003
Guatemala (CG)	1990/1991	14	0.9	8.1	1990/1991–1994/1995	3.7	0.0	0.7
	1994/1995	14	0.9	8.8	1994/1995–1998/1999	28.6	0.2	-0.8
	1998/1999	18	1.1	8.1	1998/1999–2002/2003	-8.3	-0.1	-0.2
	2002/2003	17	1.0	7.8	1990/1991–2002/2003	22.2	0.1	-0.2
Honduras^h (CG)	1990/1991	23	2.6	12.0	1990/1991–1994/1995	4.3	0.0	-1.1
	1994/1995	24	2.6	10.9	1994/1995–1998/1999	-12.5	-0.3	-1.2
	1998/1999	21	2.3	9.7	1998/1999–2002/2003	61.9	1.2	4.4
	2002/2003	34	3.5	14.0	1990/1991–2002/2003	47.8	0.9	2.1

Table 45 (concluded)

INDICATORS OF PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON HEALTH, ^a 1990/1991–2002/2003								
Country and coverage ^d	Period	Public social spending ^b			Period	Percentage variations in public social spending ^c		
		Per capita (2000 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending		Per capita (2000 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending
Jamaica (CG)	1990/1991	71	2.2	7.0	1990/1991–1994/1995	1.4	0.0	-1.6
	1994/1995	72	2.2	5.4	1994/1995–1998/1999
	1998/1999	1998/1999–2002/2003
	2002/2003	78	2.5	4.5	1990/1991–2002/2003	10.6	0.3	-2.5
Mexico (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	148	2.9	18.6	1990/1991–1994/1995	-19.7	-0.6	-4.7
	1994/1995	119	2.3	13.9	1994/1995–1998/1999	9.3	0.0	1.2
	1998/1999	130	2.3	15.1	1998/1999–2002/2003	4.6	0.0	-1.7
	2002/2003	136	2.4	13.4	1990/1991–2002/2003	-8.1	-0.6	-5.3
Nicaragua (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	21	2.8	14.5	1990/1991–1994/1995	-7.1	0.0	1.1
	1994/1995	20	2.8	15.6	1994/1995–1998/1999	5.1	-0.1	-2.4
	1998/1999	21	2.7	13.2	1998/1999–2002/2003	14.6	0.3	0.5
	2002/2003 ⁱ	24	3.0	13.7	1990/1991–2002/2003	11.9	0.2	-0.8
Panama (NFPS)	1990/1991	164	5.4	13.3	1990/1991–1994/1995	23.2	0.4	1.2
	1994/1995	202	5.8	14.4	1994/1995–1998/1999	10.7	0.0	1.3
	1998/1999	223	5.8	15.7	1998/1999–2002/2003	5.6	0.2	-0.2
	2002/2003	236	6.0	15.5	1990/1991–2002/2003	44.0	0.6	2.3
Paraguay (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	4	0.3	3.8	1990/1991–1994/1995	337.5	0.9	2.9
	1994/1995	18	1.2	6.7	1994/1995–1998/1999	11.4	0.2	0.1
	1998/1999	20	1.4	6.8	1998/1999–2002/2003	-17.9	-0.1	-1.0
	2002/2003 ⁱ	16	1.3	5.8	1990/1991–2002/2003	300.0	1.0	2.0
Peru (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	15	0.9	7.4	1990/1991–1994/1995	69.0	0.4	0.2
	1994/1995	25	1.3	7.6	1994/1995–1998/1999	24.5	0.3	0.9
	1998/1999	31	1.5	8.5	1998/1999–2002/2003
	2002/2003	1990/1991–2002/2003
Trinidad and Tobago	1990/1991	127	2.6	15.4	1990/1991–1994/1995	-14.2	-0.4	-1.0
	1994/1995	109	2.2	14.4	1994/1995–1998/1999
	1998/1999	1998/1999–2002/2003
	2002/2003	93	1.3	9.5	1990/1991–2002/2003	-27.2	-1.3	-6.0
Uruguay (CG)	1990/1991	142	2.9	10.8	1990/1991–1994/1995	38.2	0.5	1.3
	1994/1995	196	3.4	12.0	1994/1995–1998/1999	-14.1	-0.8	-3.6
	1998/1999	168	2.7	8.5	1998/1999–2002/2003	-25.6	-0.3	-1.4
	2002/2003	125	2.4	7.1	1990/1991–2002/2003	-11.7	-0.5	-3.7
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ⁱ (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	79	1.6	5.9	1990/1991–1994/1995	-28.5	-0.5	-0.9
	1994/1995	57	1.1	5.0	1994/1995–1998/1999	23.9	0.3	0.9
	1998/1999	70	1.4	5.9	1998/1999–2002/2003	-4.3	0.2	-0.6
	2002/2003	67	1.6	5.3	1990/1991–2002/2003	-15.2	0.0	-0.6

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

^a Includes public spending on health, food and nutrition, depending on the availability of information from individual countries. For Bolivia, includes social security spending and for El Salvador and Guatemala, social welfare spending.

^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 government of Buenos Aires, and also the municipal governments.

^f Estimate of consolidated social spending, including federal, state and municipal expenditure.

^g Includes the spending of the Ecuadorian Social Security Institute, which is not part of the central government's budget.

^h The 2002/2003 figures relate to the budget for 2004.

ⁱ Relates to the budgetary law. In the case of the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, the modifications made yearly on 31 December are included.

Table 46

INDICATORS OF PUBLIC SPENDING ON SOCIAL SECURITY AND WELFARE, ^a 1990/1991–2002/2003								
Country and coverage ^d	Period	Public social spending ^b			Period	Percentage variations in public social spending ^c		
		Per capita (2000 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending		Per capita (2000 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending
Argentina^e (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	593	9.7	31.2	1990/1991–1994/1995	28.0	0.6	0.9
	1994/1995	759	10.3	32.1	1994/1995–1998/1999	4.4	-0.4	-1.8
	1998/1999	793	9.9	30.3	1998/1999–2002/2003	-19.0	-0.2	2.7
	2002/2003	642	9.7	33.0	1990/1991–2002/2003	8.3	0.0	1.8
Bolivia (CG)	1990/1991	7	0.7	4.5	1990/1991–1994/1995	30.8	0.2	-1.1
	1994/1995	9	0.9	3.4	1994/1995–1998/1999	429.4	3.5	10.9
	1998/1999	45	4.5	14.3	1998/1999–2002/2003	12.2	0.6	-1.9
	2002/2003	51	5.1	12.4	1990/1991–2002/2003	676.9	4.4	7.9
Brazil^f (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	289	9.2	25.0	1990/1991–1994/1995	25.1	1.6	7.8
	1994/1995	361	10.8	32.8	1994/1995–1998/1999	14.7	1.2	3.8
	1998/1999	414	12.1	36.6	1998/1999–2002/2003	7.2	0.5	2.5
	2002/2003	444	12.6	39.1	1990/1991–2002/2003	53.9	3.3	14.1
Chile (CG)	1990/1991	259	8.1	39.3	1990/1991–1994/1995	15.4	-0.9	-1.8
	1994/1995	299	7.2	37.5	1994/1995–1998/1999	23.6	0.4	-2.1
	1998/1999	370	7.6	35.4	1998/1999–2002/2003	5.4	-0.1	-0.8
	2002/2003	390	7.6	34.6	1990/1991–2002/2003	50.4	-0.6	-4.7
Colombia (NFPS)	1990/1991	46	2.5	10.9	1990/1991–1994/1995	100.0	2.0	4.7
	1994/1995	92	4.5	15.6	1994/1995–1998/1999	-6.5	-0.2	-5.4
	1998/1999	86	4.3	10.2	1998/1999–2002/2003	0.6	0.1	0.2
	2002/2003	87	4.3	10.4	1990/1991–2002/2003	88.0	1.8	-0.6
Costa Rica (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	153	4.9	...	1990/1991–1994/1995	22.3	0.3	...
	1994/1995	187	5.2	...	1994/1995–1998/1999	20.9	0.5	...
	1998/1999	226	5.7	19.6	1998/1999–2002/2003	2.9	-0.1	2.5
	2002/2003	232	5.6	22.1	1990/1991–2002/2003	52.1	0.7	...
Cuba	1990/1991	207	7.2	8.9	1990/1991–1994/1995	-19.9	0.9	3.0
	1994/1995	166	8.1	11.9	1994/1995–1998/1999	6.9	-0.5	2.1
	1998/1999	177	7.6	14.0	1998/1999–2002/2003	17.8	0.2	-0.3
	2002/2003	209	7.8	13.7	1990/1991–2002/2003	1.0	0.6	4.8
Dominican Republic (CG)	1990/1991	6	0.4	3.4	1990/1991–1994/1995	25.0	0.0	-0.5
	1994/1995	8	0.4	2.8	1994/1995–1998/1999	120.0	0.4	1.9
	1998/1999	17	0.8	4.7	1998/1999–2002/2003	66.7	0.4	1.4
	2002/2003	28	1.1	6.1	1990/1991–2002/2003	358.3	0.8	2.8
Ecuador^g (CG)	1990/1991	41	3.2	18.5	1990/1991–1994/1995	-29.3	-1.1	-6.4
	1994/1995	29	2.2	12.1	1994/1995–1998/1999	-29.3	-0.6	-5.3
	1998/1999	21	1.5	6.9	1998/1999–2002/2003	12.2	0.2	0.8
	2002/2003	23	1.7	7.6	1990/1991–2002/2003	-43.9	-1.5	-10.9
El Salvador (CG)	1990/1991	1990/1991–1994/1995
	1994/1995	1994/1995–1998/1999
	1998/1999	1998/1999–2002/2003
	2002/2003	29	1.4	7.0	1990/1991–2002/2003
Guatemala (CG)	1990/1991	11	0.7	6.6	1990/1991–1994/1995	4.5	0.0	1.0
	1994/1995	12	0.7	7.6	1994/1995–1998/1999	26.1	0.1	-1.0
	1998/1999	15	0.9	6.6	1998/1999–2002/2003	37.9	0.3	2.5
	2002/2003	20	1.2	9.1	1990/1991–2002/2003	81.8	0.4	2.5
Honduras^h (CG)	1990/1991	1	0.1	0.5	1990/1991–1994/1995	50.0	0.1	0.3
	1994/1995	2	0.2	0.8	1994/1995–1998/1999	33.3	0.0	0.0
	1998/1999	2	0.2	0.8	1998/1999–2002/2003	150.0	0.3	1.2
	2002/2003	5	0.5	2.0	1990/1991–2002/2003	400.0	0.4	1.5

Table 46 (concluded)

INDICATORS OF PUBLIC SPENDING ON SOCIAL SECURITY AND WELFARE, ^a 1990/1991–2002/2003								
Country and coverage ^d	Period	Public social spending ^b			Period	Percentage variations in public social spending ^c		
		Per capita (2000 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending		Per capita (2000 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending
Jamaica (CG)	1990/1991	19	0.6	1.9	1990/1991–1994/1995	-34.2	-0.2	-0.9
	1994/1995	13	0.4	1.0	1994/1995–1998/1999
	1998/1999	1998/1999–2002/2003
	2002/2003	15	0.5	0.8	1990/1991–2002/2003	-23.7	-0.1	-1.1
Mexico (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	6	0.1	0.8	1990/1991–1994/1995	975.0	1.2	6.8
	1994/1995	65	1.3	7.6	1994/1995–1998/1999	63.6	0.6	4.6
	1998/1999	106	1.9	12.3	1998/1999–2002/2003	36.0	0.6	1.9
	2002/2003	144	2.5	14.2	1990/1991–2002/2003	2291.7	2.4	13.4
Nicaragua (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	1990/1991–1994/1995
	1994/1995	1994/1995–1998/1999
	1998/1999	1998/1999–2002/2003
	2002/2003 ^g	1990/1991–2002/2003
Panama (NFPS)	1990/1991	155	5.1	12.6	1990/1991–1994/1995	27.1	0.6	-0.1
	1994/1995	197	5.7	12.5	1994/1995–1998/1999	-10.4	-1.1	-0.1
	1998/1999	177	4.6	12.4	1998/1999–2002/2003	23.2	0.9	2.0
	2002/2003	218	5.5	14.4	1990/1991–2002/2003	40.3	0.4	1.8
Paraguay (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	17	1.2	14.6	1990/1991–1994/1995	105.9	1.2	-1.4
	1994/1995	35	2.4	13.3	1994/1995–1998/1999	21.4	0.7	1.7
	1998/1999	43	3.1	15.0	1998/1999–2002/2003	-11.8	-0.1	-1.2
	2002/2003 ^g	38	3.0	13.7	1990/1991–2002/2003	120.6	1.8	-0.9
Peru (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	23	1.3	11.4	1990/1991–1994/1995	111.1	1.1	3.5
	1994/1995	48	2.5	14.9	1994/1995–1998/1999	35.8	0.7	3.1
	1998/1999	65	3.2	18.0	1998/1999–2002/2003
	2002/2003	1990/1991–2002/2003
Trinidad and Tobago	1990/1991	4	0.1	0.4	1990/1991–1994/1995	0.0	0.0	0.1
	1994/1995	4	0.1	0.5	1994/1995–1998/1999
	1998/1999	1998/1999–2002/2003
	2002/2003	5	0.1	0.5	1990/1991–2002/2003	42.9	0.0	0.1
Uruguay (CG)	1990/1991	544	11.2	41.3	1990/1991–1994/1995	44.8	2.7	7.1
	1994/1995	787	13.9	48.4	1994/1995–1998/1999	24.1	1.7	0.8
	1998/1999	977	15.6	49.2	1998/1999–2002/2003	-22.8	-0.9	-6.6
	2002/2003	754	14.7	42.6	1990/1991–2002/2003	38.6	3.5	1.3
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ⁱ (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	102	2.0	7.5	1990/1991–1994/1995	13.7	0.3	2.8
	1994/1995	116	2.3	10.3	1994/1995–1998/1999	7.3	0.3	0.2
	1998/1999	125	2.5	10.5	1998/1999–2002/2003	36.1	1.5	3.0
	2002/2003	170	4.1	13.4	1990/1991–2002/2003	66.2	2.1	5.9

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

^a Includes public spending on social security and social protection, welfare, employment and training, depending on the availability of information from individual countries. In the case of Bolivia, includes only employment.

^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 government of Buenos Aires, and also the municipal governments.

^f Estimate of consolidated social spending, including federal, state and municipal expenditure.

^g Includes the spending of the Ecuadorian Social Security Institute, which is not part of the central government's budget.

^h The 2002/2003 figures relate to the budget for 2004.

ⁱ Relates to the budgetary law. In the case of the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, the modifications made yearly on 31 December are included.

Table 47

INDICATORS OF PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON HOUSING AND OTHERS, 1990/1991–2002/2003 ^a								
Country and coverage ^d	Period	Public social spending ^b			Period	Percentage variations in public social spending ^c		
		Per capita (2000 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending		Per capita (2000 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending
Argentina^e (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	102	1.7	5.4	1990/1991–1994/1995	15.7	-0.1	-0.4
	1994/1995	118	1.6	5.0	1994/1995–1998/1999	2.5	-0.1	-0.4
	1998/1999	121	1.5	4.6	1998/1999–2002/2003	-40.9	-0.4	-0.9
	2002/2003	72	1.1	3.7	1990/1991–2002/2003	-29.9	-0.6	-1.7
Bolivia (CG)	1990/1991	2	0.2	1.4	1990/1991–1994/1995	-25.0	-0.1	-0.9
	1994/1995	2	0.1	0.6	1994/1995–1998/1999	0.0	0.0	-0.1
	1998/1999	2	0.1	0.5	1998/1999–2002/2003	100.0	0.1	0.2
	2002/2003	3	0.3	0.7	1990/1991–2002/2003	50.0	0.1	-0.8
Brazil^f (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	48	1.5	4.4	1990/1991–1994/1995	-62.5	-1.0	-2.8
	1994/1995	18	0.6	1.6	1994/1995–1998/1999	-61.1	-0.4	-1.1
	1998/1999	7	0.2	0.6	1998/1999–2002/2003	-64.3	-0.1	-0.4
	2002/2003	3	0.1	0.2	1990/1991–2002/2003	-94.8	-1.5	-4.2
Chile (CG)	1990/1991	6	0.2	0.9	1990/1991–1994/1995	36.4	0.0	0.1
	1994/1995	8	0.2	1.0	1994/1995–1998/1999	73.3	0.1	0.3
	1998/1999	13	0.3	1.3	1998/1999–2002/2003	-23.1	-0.1	-0.4
	2002/2003	10	0.2	0.9	1990/1991–2002/2003	81.8	0.0	0.0
Colombia (NFPS)	1990/1991	9	0.5	2.2	1990/1991–1994/1995	72.2	0.2	0.4
	1994/1995	16	0.8	2.6	1994/1995–1998/1999	48.4	0.4	0.1
	1998/1999	23	1.1	2.7	1998/1999–2002/2003	39.1	0.4	1.1
	2002/2003	32	1.6	3.8	1990/1991–2002/2003	255.6	1.1	1.6
Costa Rica (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	58	2.0	...	1990/1991–1994/1995	5.2	-0.1	...
	1994/1995	61	1.9	...	1994/1995–1998/1999	-2.5	-0.2	...
	1998/1999	60	1.7	5.0	1998/1999–2002/2003	20.2	0.2	-1.9
	2002/2003	72	1.9	3.2	1990/1991–2002/2003	23.3	-0.2	...
Cuba	1990/1991	53	1.8	2.3	1990/1991–1994/1995	-32.1	-0.1	0.3
	1994/1995	36	1.7	2.6	1994/1995–1998/1999	62.5	0.8	2.0
	1998/1999	59	2.5	4.6	1998/1999–2002/2003	32.5	0.4	0.5
	2002/2003	78	2.9	5.1	1990/1991–2002/2003	46.2	1.1	2.8
Dominican Republic (CG)	1990/1991	28	1.8	15.9	1990/1991–1994/1995	44.6	0.5	-0.4
	1994/1995	41	2.3	15.6	1994/1995–1998/1999	-19.8	-0.8	-6.4
	1998/1999	33	1.5	9.2	1998/1999–2002/2003	29.2	0.2	0.1
	2002/2003	42	1.7	9.3	1990/1991–2002/2003	50.0	-0.1	-6.7
Ecuador^g (CG)	1990/1991	0	0.0	0.1	1990/1991–1994/1995	...	0.4	2.4
	1994/1995	6	0.4	2.5	1994/1995–1998/1999	-63.6	-0.3	-1.9
	1998/1999	2	0.1	0.6	1998/1999–2002/2003	50.0	0.1	0.3
	2002/2003	3	0.2	1.0	1990/1991–2002/2003	...	0.2	0.8
El Salvador (CG)	1990/1991	1990/1991–1994/1995
	1994/1995	1994/1995–1998/1999
	1998/1999	1998/1999–2002/2003
	2002/2003	19	0.9	4.6	1990/1991–2002/2003
Guatemala (CG)	1990/1991	2	0.1	0.9	1990/1991–1994/1995	666.7	0.6	6.5
	1994/1995	12	0.7	7.4	1994/1995–1998/1999	152.2	1.0	5.8
	1998/1999	29	1.7	13.2	1998/1999–2002/2003	0.0	0.0	0.2
	2002/2003	29	1.7	13.4	1990/1991–2002/2003	1833.3	1.6	12.5
Honduras^h (CG)	1990/1991	8	0.9	4.2	1990/1991–1994/1995	37.5	0.3	0.8
	1994/1995	11	1.2	5.0	1994/1995–1998/1999	-36.4	-0.4	-1.7
	1998/1999	7	0.8	3.3	1998/1999–2002/2003	142.9	1.1	4.0
	2002/2003	17	1.8	7.2	1990/1991–2002/2003	112.5	0.9	3.0

Table 47 (concluded)

INDICATORS OF PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON HOUSING AND OTHERS, 1990/1991–2002/2003 ^a								
Country and coverage ^d	Period	Public social spending ^b			Period	Percentage variations in public social spending ^c		
		Per capita (2000 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending		Per capita (2000 dollars)	As a percentage of GDP	As a percentage of total public spending
Jamaica (CG)	1990/1991	49	1.5	4.9	1990/1991–1994/1995	9.2	0.1	-0.8
	1994/1995	54	1.6	4.1	1994/1995–1998/1999
	1998/1999	1998/1999–2002/2003
	2002/2003	45	1.4	2.6	1990/1991–2002/2003	-9.2	-0.1	-2.3
Mexico (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	43	0.9	5.4	1990/1991–1994/1995	60.0	0.5	2.5
	1994/1995	68	1.3	8.0	1994/1995–1998/1999	-7.4	-0.2	-0.6
	1998/1999	63	1.1	7.3	1998/1999–2002/2003	40.5	0.4	1.4
	2002/2003	89	1.5	8.7	1990/1991–2002/2003	108.2	0.7	3.3
Nicaragua (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	9	1.2	6.6	1990/1991–1994/1995	16.7	0.3	2.0
	1994/1995	11	1.5	8.5	1994/1995–1998/1999	9.5	0.0	-1.4
	1998/1999	12	1.5	7.2	1998/1999–2002/2003	13.0	0.2	0.6
	2002/2003 ⁱ	13	1.7	7.8	1990/1991–2002/2003	44.4	0.5	1.2
Panama (NFPS)	1990/1991	53	1.7	4.0	1990/1991–1994/1995	-1.0	-0.2	-0.3
	1994/1995	52	1.5	3.8	1994/1995–1998/1999	-12.5	-0.3	-0.6
	1998/1999	46	1.2	3.1	1998/1999–2002/2003	0.0	0.0	-0.1
	2002/2003	46	1.2	3.0	1990/1991–2002/2003	-13.3	-0.5	-1.0
Paraguay (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	6	0.5	5.8	1990/1991–1994/1995	50.0	0.2	-2.4
	1994/1995	9	0.6	3.4	1994/1995–1998/1999	-66.7	-0.4	-2.2
	1998/1999	3	0.2	1.2	1998/1999–2002/2003	83.3	0.2	0.8
	2002/2003 ⁱ	6	0.4	2.0	1990/1991–2002/2003	-8.3	0.0	-3.8
Peru (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	1	0.1	0.4	1990/1991–1994/1995	200.0	0.1	0.5
	1994/1995	3	0.1	0.9	1994/1995–1998/1999	66.7	0.1	0.6
	1998/1999	5	0.3	1.5	1998/1999–2002/2003
	2002/2003	1990/1991–2002/2003
Trinidad and Tobago	1990/1991	51	1.0	6.1	1990/1991–1994/1995	27.7	0.3	2.4
	1994/1995	65	1.3	8.5	1994/1995–1998/1999
	1998/1999	1998/1999–2002/2003
	2002/2003	75	1.0	7.6	1990/1991–2002/2003	47.5	0.0	1.5
Uruguay (CG)	1990/1991	15	0.3	1.1	1990/1991–1994/1995	86.7	0.2	0.6
	1994/1995	28	0.5	1.7	1994/1995–1998/1999	10.7	0.0	-0.1
	1998/1999	31	0.5	1.6	1998/1999–2002/2003	-35.5	-0.1	-0.5
	2002/2003	20	0.4	1.1	1990/1991–2002/2003	33.3	0.1	0.0
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of) ⁱ (Budgetary CG)	1990/1991	86	1.7	6.2	1990/1991–1994/1995	-61.6	-1.0	-3.3
	1994/1995	33	0.6	2.9	1994/1995–1998/1999	31.8	0.2	0.7
	1998/1999	44	0.9	3.6	1998/1999–2002/2003	-10.3	0.1	-0.5
	2002/2003	39	0.9	3.1	1990/1991–2002/2003	-54.7	-0.7	-3.1

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

^a Includes public spending on housing and urban development, water, the sewerage system, community services and other non-classified services, depending on the availability of information from individual countries. In the case of Mexico and Trinidad, includes social welfare.

^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 government of Buenos Aires, and also the municipal governments.

^f Estimate of consolidated social spending, including federal, state and municipal expenditure.

^g Includes the spending of the Ecuadorian Social Security Institute, which is not part of the central government's budget.

^h The 2002/2003 figures relate to the budget for 2004.

ⁱ Relates to the budgetary law. In the case of the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, the modifications made yearly on 31 December are included.

Millennium Development Goals

Table 48

PROGRESS TOWARDS THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS ^a									
Country or territory	Goal 1 Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger								
	Target 1. Halve between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar a day					Target 2. Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger			
	Indicator 1 Population living in extreme poverty, measured by national poverty lines ^c		Indicator 2 Poverty gap ratio		Indicator 3 Share of poorest quintile in national consumption	Indicator 4 Prevalence of underweight children under five years of age		Indicator 5 Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption	
	1990	2005	1990	2005	2005	1981/1993	1995/2003	1990/1992	2001/2003
Latin America and the Caribbean	22.5	15.4	9.8	6.7	3.1	10.3	7.5	13	10
Latin America	22.5	15.4	9.8	6.7	3.1	10.4	7.5	13	10
Argentina ^b	8.2	9.1	1.6	3.4	3.5	1.9	5.4	2	2
Bolivia	39.5	34.7 ^c	9.7	15.0 ^c	1.5 ^c	13.2	7.5	28	23
Brazil	23.4	10.6	9.7	4.3	2.4	7.0	5.7	12	8
Chile	12.9	4.7 ^c	4.4	1.7 ^c	3.7 ^c	0.9	0.7	8	4
Colombia	26.1	20.2	9.8	8.3	2.9	10.1	6.7	17	14
Costa Rica	9.8	7.0	4.8	2.9	4.1	2.8	5.1	6	4
Cuba	4.1	8	2	2
Dominican Republic	...	24.6	...	10.4	2.6	10.4	5.3	27	27
Ecuador	26.2	21.2	9.2	7.9	3.4	16.5	11.6	8	5
El Salvador	27.7	19.0 ^c	9.1	8.1 ^c	3.4 ^c	16.1	10.3	12	11
Guatemala	41.8	30.9 ^c	18.5	10.7 ^c	3.7 ^c	33.2	22.7	16	23
Haiti	26.8	17.3	65	47
Honduras	60.6	53.9 ^c	31.5	26.3 ^c	2.4 ^c	20.6	16.6	23	22
Mexico	18.8	11.7	5.9	3.6	3.7	13.9	7.5	5	5
Nicaragua	51.4	42.3 ^c	24.3	19.0 ^c	2.5 ^c	11.9	9.6	30	27
Panama	22.9	15.7	7.3	6.9	2.5	7.0	6.8	21	25
Paraguay	35.0	32.1	3.6	13.1	3.2	3.7	4.6	18	15
Peru	25.0	18.6 ^c	...	9.2 ^c	3.8 ^c	10.7	7.1	42	12
Uruguay ^b	3.4	4.1	0.9	1.0	4.8	7.4	4.5	7	3
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	14.6	15.9	5.0	7.4	3.4	7.7	4.4	11	18
Caribbean	9.0	7.6	14	10
Anguilla
Antigua and Barbuda	9.5
Aruba
Bahamas	9	7
Barbados	5.9
Belize	6.2	...	7	5
British Virgin Islands
Cayman Islands
Dominica	5.0	4	8
French Guiana
Grenada	9	7
Guadeloupe
Guyana	18.3	13.6	21	9
Jamaica	7.2	3.6	14	10
Martinique
Montserrat
Netherlands Antilles	14	12
Puerto Rico
Saint Kitts and Nevis	13	11
Saint Lucia	13.8	...	8	5
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	19.5	22	12
Suriname	13.3	13	10
Trinidad and Tobago	6.7	5.9	13	11
Turks and Caicos Islands
United States Virgin Islands

Source: United Nations, *The Millennium Development Goals: A Latin American and Caribbean Perspective* (LC/G.2331-P), J.L. Machinea, A. Bárcena and A. León (coords.), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), June 2005; United Nations, Millennium Indicators Database [online], <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Default.aspx>; and Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), *Estadísticas de América Latina y el Caribe*, database [online] <http://websie.eclac.cl/sisgen/ConsultaIntegrada.asp>.

^a The indicators appear in the order in which they are listed officially; the absence of any indicator is due to the lack of any information. Figures are percentages unless otherwise indicated. For indicators recorded at two different times, the regional and subregional averages take into account only those countries for which information is available at both times.

^b The figures for indicators 1, 2 and 3 relate to urban areas.

^c Figure relating to the most recent year for which information was available as distinct from the year appearing in the heading of the column.

Table 49

PROGRESS TOWARDS THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS ^a						
Country or territory	Goal 2 Achieve universal primary education					
	Target 3. Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling					
	Indicator 6 Net enrolment ratio in primary education		Indicator 7 Pupils completing primary education according to ISCED 1997		Indicator 8 Literacy rate of 15–24 year olds	
	1990	2004	1992	2005	1990	2000/2004
Latin America and the Caribbean	86.2	91.5	83.6	90.9	92.7	94.8
Latin America	86.1	91.5	83.6	90.9	92.7	94.8
Argentina	93.8	98.8 ^b	97.1	97.1	98.2	98.6
Bolivia	90.8	95.2	67.1	88.7 ^b	92.6	97.3
Brazil	85.6	92.9 ^b	82.2	92.6	91.8	94.2
Chile	87.7	84.8 ^b	95.5	98.3 ^b	98.1	99.0
Colombia	68.1	83.2	85.6	91.1	94.9	97.2
Costa Rica	87.3	90.4 ^b	84.6	92.3	97.4	98.4
Cuba	91.7	96.2	99.3	99.8
Dominican Republic	58.2	86.0	76.3	86.1	87.5	91.7
Ecuador	97.8	97.7	89.8	92.8	95.5	96.4
El Salvador	72.8	92.3	69.0	76.1 ^b	83.8	88.9
Guatemala	64.0	93.0	52.2	58.3 ^b	73.4	80.1
Haiti	22.1	54.8	66.2
Honduras	89.9	90.6	61.7	70.6 ^b	79.7	88.9
Mexico	100.0	97.8	86.7	93.9	95.2	96.6
Nicaragua	72.2	87.9	60.2	64.5 ^b	68.2	86.2
Panama	91.5	98.2	89.3	95.0	95.3	97.0
Paraguay	92.8	89.3 ^b	78.3	89.5	95.6	96.3
Peru	87.8	97.1	85.4	91.6 ^b	94.5	96.6
Uruguay	91.9	90.4 ^b	96.2	96.4	98.7	99.1
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	88.1	92.0	88.3	91.5	96.0	98.2
Caribbean	91.5	92.4	95.1	96.6
Anguilla	...	88.3
Antigua and Barbuda
Aruba	...	96.6
Bahamas	89.6	83.7	96.5	...
Barbados	80.1	97.2	99.8	99.8
Belize	94.0	95.2	96.0	84.2
British Virgin Islands	...	94.7
Cayman Islands	...	87.2
Dominica	...	87.7
French Guiana
Grenada	...	83.9
Guadeloupe
Guyana	88.9	99.2 ^b	99.8	...
Jamaica	95.7	90.6	91.2	94.5
Martinique	99.8
Montserrat	...	94.3
Netherlands Antilles	...	88.4	97.5	98.3
Puerto Rico	96.1	97.7
Saint Kitts and Nevis	...	94.0
Saint Lucia	95.1	97.6
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	...	93.9
Suriname	78.4	92.4
Trinidad and Tobago	90.9	92.2 ^b	99.6	99.8
Turks and Caicos Islands	...	81.5
United States Virgin Islands

Source: United Nations, *The Millennium Development Goals: A Latin American and Caribbean Perspective* (LC/G.2331-P), J.L. Machinea, A. Bárcena and A. León (coords.), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), June 2005; United Nations, Millennium Indicators Database [online], <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Default.aspx>; and Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), Estadísticas de América Latina y el Caribe, database [online] <http://websie.eclac.cl/sisgen/ConsultaIntegrada.asp>.

^a The indicators appear in the order in which they are listed officially; the absence of any indicator is due to the lack of information. Figures are percentages unless otherwise indicated. For indicators recorded at two different times, the regional and subregional averages take into account only those countries for which information is available at both times.

^b Figure relating to the most recent year for which information was available as distinct from the year appearing in the heading of the column.

Table 50

PROGRESS TOWARDS THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS ^a														
Country or territory	Goal 3 Promote gender equality and empower women													
	Target 4. Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015													
	Indicator 9 Ratio of girls to boys in:						Indicator 9 Ratio of women to men completing primary education according to ISCED 1997		Indicator 10 Literacy gender parity index		Indicator 11 Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector		Indicator 12 Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament	
	Primary		Secondary		Tertiary									
	1990	2002	1990	2002	1990	2002	1992	2005	1990	2002/2004	1990	2004	1990	2005
Latin America and the Caribbean	0.98	0.98	1.08	1.07	0.97	1.20	1.01	1.02	1.06	1.01	37.7	42.7	8	16
Latin America	0.98	0.98	1.08	1.07	0.97	1.19	1.01	1.02	1.07	1.01	37.6	42.7	8	16
Argentina	1.04	1.00	...	1.06	...	1.49	1.01	1.01	0.81	1.00	37.3	45.5	6	34
Bolivia	0.91	1.00	0.85	0.98	...	0.55 ^b	0.89	0.96 ^b	2.88	0.98	35.2	36.5	9	19
Brazil	0.94	0.93 ^b	...	1.08	1.06	1.32	1.05	1.04	0.72	1.03	40.2	46.7	5	9
Chile	0.98	0.99 ^b	1.08	1.01 ^b	...	0.94 ^b	1.01	1.01 ^b	0.80	1.00	36.2	38.1	...	13
Colombia	1.15	0.99	1.13	1.10	1.07	1.09	1.03	1.05	0.78	1.01	39.9	48.3	5	12
Costa Rica	0.99	1.02	1.05	1.09	...	1.16	1.00	1.03	0.80	1.01	37.2	38.5	11	35
Cuba	0.97	0.99	1.14	1.00	1.41	1.34	1.09	1.00	37.1	37.7	34	36
Dominican Republic	1.02	0.95	...	1.34	...	1.67	1.09	1.08	0.90	1.02	35.5	38.2	8	17
Ecuador	0.99	1.01	...	1.03	0.99	1.02	1.28	1.00	37.3	42.7	5	16
El Salvador	1.01	1.00	1.06	1.02	0.71	1.21	0.96	1.05 ^b	1.17	0.98	32.3	34.8	12	11
Guatemala	0.88	0.97	...	0.95	...	0.78	0.72	0.82 ^b	1.73	0.86	36.8	38.8	7	8
Haiti	0.94	...	0.96	1.05	1.01	4
Honduras	1.05	1.02	0.77	1.31 ^b	1.06	1.11 ^b	0.89	1.05	48.1	46.8	10	6
Mexico	0.98	1.01	1.01	1.04	0.74	0.97	0.97	0.99	1.38	1.00	35.3	37.4	12	23
Nicaragua	1.06	1.00	1.37	1.18	1.06	1.10	1.09	1.21 ^b	0.97	1.06	15	21
Panama	0.96	0.99	1.07	1.11	...	1.69	1.01	1.00	1.21	0.99	44.3	43.5	8	17
Paraguay	0.97	1.00	1.04	1.06	0.88	1.39	0.96	1.06	1.17	1.00	40.5	43.9	6	10
Peru	0.97	1.00	...	0.97	...	1.07	0.90	0.97 ^b	2.53	0.98	28.9	34.6	6	18
Uruguay	0.99	1.00	...	1.10	...	1.95	1.01	1.02	0.53	1.01	41.9	46.8	6	12
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	1.03	1.01	1.38	1.16	...	1.08	1.05	1.05	0.74	1.01	35.2	41.5	10	10
Caribbean	0.99	1.00	1.08	1.09	0.81	2.17	0.56	1.03	45.3	42.5	12	17
Anguilla	...	1.02	...	0.98	46.9
Antigua and Barbuda	11
Aruba	...	0.99	...	1.09	...	1.42	44.4
Bahamas	1.03	1.03	...	1.04	0.54	...	49.2	49.5	4	20
Barbados	1.00	1.00	...	1.00	1.26	2.47 ^b	1.00	1.00	45.5	48.7	4	13
Belize	0.98	1.02	1.15	1.05	...	1.91	0.73	1.01	37.4	41.3	...	7
British Virgin Islands	...	0.98	...	1.17	...	2.34
Cayman Islands	50.6
Dominica	...	0.95	...	1.14	45.8	10	19
French Guiana	41.6
Grenada	...	0.90	42.7	...	27
Guadeloupe
Guyana	0.98	0.98	1.06	1.08	...	1.58	1.00	39.9	37	31
Jamaica	0.99	1.00	1.06	1.04	0.73	2.36	0.37	1.07	49.6	47.0	5	12
Martinique	0.55	1.00	...	48.1
Montserrat
Netherlands Antilles	...	1.05	...	1.12	...	1.48 ^b	0.85	1.00	43.1	48.8
Puerto Rico	0.65	1.01	46.5	39.3
Saint Kitts and Nevis	7	13
Saint Lucia	0.94	1.01	1.45	1.25	1.38	3.40	48.0	...	11
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	0.99	0.99	1.24	1.09	10	23
Suriname	1.00	1.02	1.15	1.38	...	1.69 ^b	39.1	33.1	8	20
Trinidad and Tobago	0.99	0.99	1.05	1.08	0.79	1.59	1.00	35.6	41.1	17	19
Turks and Caicos Islands	...	0.98	...	1.02	...	0.44
United States Virgin Islands

Source: United Nations, *The Millennium Development Goals: A Latin American and Caribbean Perspective* (LC/G.2331-P), J.L. Machinea, A. Bárcena and A. León (coords.), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), June 2005; United Nations, Millennium Indicators Database [online], <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Default.aspx>; and Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), Estadísticas de América Latina y el Caribe, database [online] <http://websie.eclac.cl/sisgen/ConsultaIntegrada.asp>.

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^b Figure relating to the most recent year for which information was available as distinct from the year appearing in the heading of the column.

Table 51

PROGRESS TOWARDS THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS ^a								
Country or territory	Goal 4 Reduce child mortality						Goal 5 Improve maternal health	
	Target 5. Reduce by two thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate						Target 6. Reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio	
	Indicator 13 Under-five mortality rate per 1.000 live births		Indicator 14 Infant mortality rate per 1.000 live births		Indicator 15 Children immunized against measles		Indicator 16 Maternal mortality ratio (per 100.000 live births)	Indicator 17 Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel
	1990	2003	1990	2003	1990	2003	2000	2000
Latin America and the Caribbean	55.7	33.2	42.9	25.6	76	93	87	85
Latin America	55.7	33.2	43.2	25.4	76	93	87	85
Argentina	30.0	17.3	25.8	14.8	93	97	35	99
Bolivia	113.0	70.3	82.6	54.6	53	64	230	65
Brazil	59.6	33.1	47.5	27.0	78	99	45	97 ^b
Chile	19.3	9.6	16.3	7.9	82	99	19	100
Colombia	52.3	32.7	38.3	25.2	82	92	105	86 ^b
Costa Rica	18.6	12.2	16.0	10.4	90	89	36	98
Cuba	19.0	7.6	15.6	6.0	94	99	34	100
Dominican Republic	70.7	47.6	50.4	34.1	96	79	77	99
Ecuador	65.3	29.4	49.9	24.5	60	99	90	69 ^b
El Salvador	64.1	34.4	47.1	25.9	98	99	...	69
Guatemala	85.0	47.6	61.0	38.1	68	75	153	41
Haiti	133.5	97.0	89.1	61.1	31	53	523	24 ^b
Honduras	66.8	44.1	48.3	31.6	90	95	...	56
Mexico	44.3	24.3	36.3	20.1	75	96	79	85 ^b
Nicaragua	75.8	39.9	56.5	29.7	82	93	100	67
Panama	35.8	26.5	28.3	20.4	73	83	61	90 ^b
Paraguay	55.8	44.8	45.0	36.7	69	91	152	86 ^b
Peru	85.7	55.2	61.8	32.9	64	95	185	59 ^b
Uruguay	25.0	15.3	21.4	13.0	97	95	11	100 ^b
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	30.3	21.0	25.0	17.3	61	82	60	94 ^b
Caribbean	...	21.8	22.4	16.2	75	84	113	94
Anguilla
Antigua and Barbuda	89	99	65	100 ^b
Aruba	99 ^b
Bahamas	...	15.8	21.5	13.6	86	90	...	99 ^b
Barbados	...	13.0	14.6	10.7	87	90	81	98 ^b
Belize	...	40.8	35.2	30.3	86	96	68	100 ^b
British Virgin Islands	95
Cayman Islands
Dominica	88	99	...	100 ^b
French Guiana	...	15.8	22.5	13.9
Grenada	85	99	...	100 ^b
Guadeloupe	...	9.9	15.6	7.2
Guyana	...	67.1	64.6	48.5	73	89	133	90 ^b
Jamaica	...	20.9	21.9	14.8	74	78	...	95 ^b
Martinique	...	8.9	9.8	7.1
Montserrat
Netherlands Antilles	...	14.8	16.7	13.1
Puerto Rico	...	11.9	12.7	9.8
Saint Kitts and Nevis	99	98	...	99 ^b
Saint Lucia	...	19.8	18.5	14.8	82	90	35	100 ^b
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	...	30.5	32.3	25.3	96	94	...	100 ^b
Suriname	...	30.6	34.9	25.3	65	74	153	91 ^b
Trinidad and Tobago	...	18.9	18.2	13.6	70	88	...	96 ^b
Turks and Caicos Islands	88 ^b
United States Virgin Islands	...	10.9	15.6	9.4

Source: United Nations, *The Millennium Development Goals: A Latin American and Caribbean Perspective* (LC/G.2331-P), J.L. Machinea, A. Bárcena and A. León (coords.), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), June 2005; United Nations, Millennium Indicators Database [online], <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Default.aspx>; and Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), Estadísticas de América Latina y el Caribe, database [online] <http://websie.eclac.cl/sisgen/ConsultaIntegrada.asp>.

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^b Figure relating to the most recent year for which information was available as distinct from the year appearing in the heading of the column.

Table 52

PROGRESS TOWARDS THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS ^a							
Country or territory	Goal 6 Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases						
	Target 7. Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS		Target 8. Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases				
	Indicator 18a HIV/AIDS prevalence among the population aged 15–49 years		Indicator 21a Prevalence of malaria per 100.000 population	Indicator 23a Tuberculosis prevalence per 100.000 population		Indicator 23b Tuberculosis death rate per 100.000 population	
	2001	2005	2000	1990	2004	1990	2004
Latin America and the Caribbean	0.63	0.57	222	156	83	14	9
Latin America	0.61	0.55	215	158	84	15	10
Argentina	0.7	0.6	1	113	53	10	6
Bolivia	0.1	0.1	378	454	290	42	32
Brazil	0.6	0.5	344	146	77	14	8
Chile	0.3	0.3	...	90	16	8	1
Colombia	0.5	0.6	250	90	75	8	8
Costa Rica	0.6	0.3	42	34	15	3	1
Cuba	0.1	0.1	...	49	12	5	1
Dominican Republic	1.8	1.1	6	214	118	20	15
Ecuador	0.3	0.3	728	315	196	29	26
El Salvador	0.6	0.9	11	155	74	14	9
Guatemala	1.1	0.9	386	154	107	14	13
Haiti	5.5	3.8	15	604	387	56	66
Honduras	1.6	1.5	541	181	97	17	12
Mexico	0.3	0.3	8	76	43	7	5
Nicaragua	0.2	0.2	402	241	80	22	9
Panama	0.7	0.9	36	110	45	10	3
Paraguay	0.4	0.4	124	118	107	11	13
Peru	0.4	0.6	258	618	216	57	21
Uruguay	0.3	0.5	...	54	33	5	3
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	0.6	0.7	94	68	52	6	6
Caribbean	1.73	2.02	1421	34	28	3	4
Anguilla	49	39	5	4
Antigua and Barbuda	13	10	1	1
Aruba
Bahamas	3.0	3.3	...	84	50	8	6
Barbados	1.5	1.5	...	27	12	3	1
Belize	2.1	2.5	657	64	59	6	8
British Virgin Islands	29	23	3	2
Cayman Islands	6	...	0
Dominica	30	23	3	2
French Guiana	2073
Grenada	10	8	1	1
Guadeloupe
Guyana	2.5	2.4	3074	61	185	6	25
Jamaica	0.8	1.5	...	13	9	1	1
Martinique
Montserrat	18	12	2	1
Netherlands Antilles	18	18	2	2
Puerto Rico	30	6	3	1
Saint Kitts and Nevis	21	15	2	2
Saint Lucia	32	21	3	2
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	56	39	5	4
Suriname	1.3	1.9	2954	152	98	14	13
Trinidad and Tobago	3.0	2.6	1	21	12	2	1
Turks and Caicos Islands	31	...	3
United States Virgin Islands	26	17	2	2

Source: United Nations, *The Millennium Development Goals: A Latin American and Caribbean Perspective* (LC/G.2331-P), J.L. Machinea, A. Bárcena and A. León (coords.), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), June 2005; United Nations, Millennium Indicators Database [online], <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Default.aspx>; and Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), *Estadísticas de América Latina y el Caribe*, database [online] <http://websie.eclac.cl/sisgen/ConsultaIntegrada.asp>.

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Table 53

PROGRESS TOWARDS THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS ^a												
Country or territory	Goal 7 Ensure environmental stability											
	Target 9. Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources											
	Indicator 25 Proportion of land area covered by forest		Indicator 26 Ratio of area protected to maintain biological diversity to surface area		Indicator 27 Energy use (kg oil equivalent) per US\$ 1 GDP		Indicator 28a Ozone-depleting CFCs, consumption in ODP metric tons		Indicator 28e Carbon dioxide (CO ₂) emissions, metric tons per 1.000 population		Indicator 29 Per capita consumption of biomass fuels (fuelwood + cane residues + other primary fuels)	
	1990	2000	1990	2005	1990	2002	1990	2000	1990	2003	1990	2001
Latin America and the Caribbean	49.7	47.4	10	14	0.18	0.17	16.2	20.3	2409	2404	0.07	0.06
Latin America	49.0	46.7	13	19	0.18	0.17	8.5	10.3	2350	2339	0.08	0.07
Argentina	13.7	12.7	5	6	0.17	0.15	3.4	3.7	3400	3400
Bolivia	50.4	48.9	9	20	0.22	0.21	0.8	1.3	800	900	0.09	0.02
Brazil	66.3	63.6	16	19	0.15	0.15	1.4	1.8	1400	1600	0.05	0.04
Chile	21.0	20.7	13	21	0.20	0.17	2.7	3.9	2700	3700	0.14	0.18
Colombia	49.6	47.8	32	32	0.14	0.10	1.6	1.4	1600	1300	0.10	0.04
Costa Rica	41.6	38.5	19	23	0.12	0.11	0.9	1.4	900	1500	0.16	0.01
Cuba	18.9	21.4	14	15	3.0	2.8	3000	2300
Dominican Republic	28.4	28.4	12	33	0.17	0.15	1.4	3.0	1400	2500	0.08	0.06
Ecuador	43.1	38.1	16	53	0.36	0.21	1.6	2.1	1600	1800	0.05	0.03
El Salvador	9.3	5.8	1	1	0.15	0.14	0.5	1.1	500	1000	0.17	0.16
Guatemala	31.2	26.3	26	31	0.16	0.16	0.6	0.9	600	900	0.30	0.27
Haiti	5.7	3.2	0.1	0.1	0.12	0.15	0.1	0.2	100	200	0.11	0.11
Honduras	53.4	48.1	15	20	0.23	0.20	0.5	0.7	500	900	0.25	0.16
Mexico	32.2	28.9	3	9	0.21	0.18	4.5	4.3	4500	4000	0.07	0.06
Nicaragua	36.7	27.0	8	18	0.29	0.18	0.7	0.7	700	700	0.22	0.22
Panama	45.6	38.6	19	25	0.15	0.17	1.3	2.1	1300	1900	0.13	0.13
Paraguay	61.9	58.8	3	6	0.17	0.16	0.5	0.7	500	700	0.27	0.18
Peru	53.0	50.9	5	13	0.13	0.09	1.0	1.1	1000	1000	0.11	0.07
Uruguay	4.5	7.4	0	0	0.11	0.10	1.3	1.6	1300	1300	0.10	0.09
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	58.6	56.1	40	63	0.42	0.41	6.0	6.5	6000	5600
Caribbean	45.9	42.1	5	9	0.55	0.59	47.3	60.3	4819	5281	0.09	0.10
Anguilla
Antigua and Barbuda	20.5	20.5	1	1	4.8	4.9	4800	5000
Aruba	27700	22300
Bahamas	84.1	84.1	0.4	1	7.6	5.9	7700	6000
Barbados	4.7	4.7	0.1	0.1	4.2	4.4	4200	4400
Belize	74.7	59.1	15	30	1.7	3.3	1700	3000
British Virgin Islands	3000	3600
Cayman Islands	9500	7100
Dominica	66.7	61.3	4	4	0.8	1.3	800	1800
French Guiana	6900	5600
Grenada	14.7	14.7	0.1	0.2	1.4	2.6	1200	2200	0.04	0.05
Guadeloupe	3300	3900
Guyana	80.8	78.5	1.6	2.2	1.5	2.1	1600	2200	0.28	0.29
Jamaica	35.0	30.0	4	14	0.36	0.39	3.4	4.2	3400	4100	0.03	0.04
Martinique	5700	3400
Montserrat	3200	16000
Netherlands Antilles	6300	22700
Puerto Rico	3300	500
Saint Kitts and Nevis	11.1	11.1	10	10	1.6	2.4	1600	3000
Saint Lucia	23.0	14.8	2	2	1.2	2.3	1200	2100
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	17.9	15.4	1	1	0.7	1.4	700	1600
Suriname	90.5	90.5	2	12	4.5	5.0	4500	5100	0.08	0.09
Trinidad and Tobago	54.8	50.5	2	2	0.73	0.77	13.9	20.5	13900	22100
Turks and Caicos Islands
United States Virgin Islands	81700	121300

Source: United Nations, *The Millennium Development Goals: A Latin American and Caribbean Perspective* (LC/G.2331-P), J.L. Machinea, A. Bárcena and A. León (coords.), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), June 2005; United Nations, Millennium Indicators Database [online], <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Default.aspx>; and Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), *Estadísticas de América Latina y el Caribe*, database [online] <http://websie.eclac.cl/sisgen/ConsultaIntegrada.asp>.

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Table 54

PROGRESS TOWARDS THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS ^a										
Country or territory	Goal 7 Ensure environmental sustainability									
	Target 10. Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation								Target 11. By 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers	
	Indicator 30 Sustainable access to improved water sources. Urban areas		Indicator 30 Sustainable access to improved water sources. Rural areas		Indicator 31 Access to improved sanitation. Urban areas		Indicator 31 Access to improved sanitation. Rural areas		Indicator 32 Slum dwellers in urban areas	
	1990	2004	1990	2004	1990	2004	1990	2004	1990	2001
Latin America and the Caribbean	93	97	58	72	82	86	35	47	35	32
Latin America	93	97	57	72	82	86	34	47	36	32
Argentina	97	98	73	80	...	92	...	83	31	33
Bolivia	91	95	48	68	49	60	13	22	70	61
Brazil	93	96	55	57	82	83	37	37	45	37
Chile	98	100	49	58	91	95	52	62	4	9
Colombia	98	99	78	71	95	96	52	54	26	22
Costa Rica	100	100	...	92	...	89	97	97	12	13
Cuba	95	95	...	78	99	99	95	95	2	2
Dominican Republic	97	97	72	91	60	81	33	73	56	38
Ecuador	81	97	54	89	73	94	36	82	28	26
El Salvador	88	94	47	70	70	77	33	39	45	35
Guatemala	88	99	69	92	71	90	35	82	66	62
Haiti	77	52	43	56	27	57	11	14	85	86
Honduras	89	95	78	81	77	87	31	54	24	18
Mexico	90	100	54	87	84	91	20	41	23	20
Nicaragua	92	90	42	63	64	56	27	34	81	81
Panama	99	99	...	79	...	89	...	51	31	31
Paraguay	80	99	46	68	71	94	46	61	37	25
Peru	88	89	42	65	68	74	15	32	60	68
Uruguay	98	100	...	100	95	100	...	99	7	7
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	...	85	...	70	...	71	...	48	41	41
Caribbean	96	96	89	90	93	96	77	80	13	14
Anguilla	...	60	99	99	...	99	41	41
Antigua and Barbuda	95	95	...	89	98	98	...	94	7	7
Aruba	...	100	...	100	2	2
Bahamas	98	98	...	86	100	100	100	100	2	2
Barbados	100	100	100	100	99	99	100	100	1	1
Belize	100	100	...	82	...	71	...	25	54	62
British Virgin Islands	...	98	...	98	...	100	...	100	3	3
Cayman Islands
Dominica	100	100	...	90	...	86	...	75	17	14
French Guiana	...	88	...	71	...	57	...	85
Grenada	97	97	...	93	96	96	97	97	7	7
Guadeloupe	...	98	...	93	...	61	...	64
Guyana	...	83	...	83	...	86	...	60	5	5
Jamaica	97	98	86	88	85	91	64	69	29	36
Martinique
Montserrat	...	100	...	100	...	96	...	96	11	9
Netherlands Antilles	1	1
Puerto Rico	2	2
Saint Kitts and Nevis	99	99	99	99	96	96	96	96	5	5
Saint Lucia	98	98	98	98	...	89	...	89	12	12
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	93	96	96	5	5
Suriname	98	98	...	73	99	99	...	76	7	7
Trinidad and Tobago	93	92	89	88	100	100	100	100	35	32
Turks and Caicos Islands	...	100	...	100	...	94	...	98
United States Virgin Islands	2	2

Source: United Nations, *The Millennium Development Goals: A Latin American and Caribbean Perspective* (LC/G.2331-P), J.L. Machinea, A. Bárcena and A. León (coords.), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), June 2005; United Nations, Millennium Indicators Database [online], <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Default.aspx>; and Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), Estadísticas de América Latina y el Caribe, database [online] <http://websie.eclac.cl/sisgen/ConsultaIntegrada.asp>.

^a The indicators appear in the order in which they are listed officially; the absence of any indicator is due to lack of information. Figures are percentages unless otherwise indicated. For indicators recorded at two different times, the regional and subregional averages take into account only those countries for which information is available at both times.

Table 55

PROGRESS TOWARDS THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS ^a													
Country or territory	Goal 8 Develop a global partnership for development												
	Target 16. In cooperation with developing countries, develop and implement strategies for decent and productive work for youth						Target 18. In cooperation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications						
	Indicator 45a Unemployment rate among young people aged 15–24 years, both sexes		Indicator 45b Unemployment rate among young people aged 15–24 years, Males		Indicator 45c Unemployment rate among young people aged 15–24 years, Females		Indicator 47b Telephone lines and cellular subscribers per 100 population		Indicator 48b Personal computers in use per 100 population		Indicator 48d Internet users per 100 population		
	1990	2001	1990	2003/2004	1990	2003/2004	1990	2004	1998	2004	1996	2004	
Latin America and the Caribbean	12.5	22.3	11.5	19.6	13.9	26.2	6.4	50.1	3.4	9.1	0.3	11.9	
Latin America	12.2	22.3	11.1	19.5	13.5	26.1	6.1	49.3	3.3	9.1	0.3	11.6	
Argentina	13.0	33.9	11.5	33.7	15.6	34.3	9.3	58.1	5.5	8.2 ^b	0.2	16.1	
Bolivia	4.5	8.5 ^b	3.1	7.0 ^b	8.7	10.4 ^b	2.8	27.0	0.8	2.3 ^b	0.2	3.9	
Brazil	6.7	17.9 ^b	6.7	14.6 ^b	6.8	22.4 ^b	6.5	59.8	3.0	10.7	0.5	12.2	
Chile	13.1	19.0	13.4	17.1	12.4	22.5	6.7	83.6	6.3	13.9	0.7	27.9	
Colombia	27.1	36.3 ^b	23.4	31.9	31.4	40.7 ^b	6.9	40.1	3.2	5.5	0.3	8.9	
Costa Rica	8.3	14.7	7.6	12.9	10.0	18.0	10.1	53.4	7.8	21.9	0.9	23.5	
Cuba	3.2	7.5	0.6	2.7	0.0	1.3	
Dominican Republic	...	23.1 ^b	34.3 ^b	4.8	39.5	0.1	9.1	
Ecuador	13.5	21.6	11.1	19.3	17.3	24.9	4.8	39.1	1.9	5.5	0.1	4.7	
El Salvador	...	11.4	...	13.5	...	7.7	2.4	41.1	...	4.5	0.1	8.9	
Guatemala	2.1	34.0	0.8	1.8	0.0	6.0	
Haiti	...	17.9 ^b	21.1 ^b	0.7	6.6	0.0	6.1	
Honduras	...	7.9	...	6.1	...	12.1	1.7	15.7	0.8	1.6	0.0	3.2	
Mexico	...	6.4	7.8	6.6	53.9	3.7	10.7	0.2	13.4	
Nicaragua	11.1	12.5	8.6	10.8	16.7	15.8	1.3	16.8	1.9	3.5	0.1	2.2	
Panama	...	29.2	38.3	9.3	38.8	2.7	4.1	0.2	9.5	
Paraguay	15.7	13.8 ^b	15.0	11.7 ^b	16.5	17.3 ^b	2.7	34.6 ^b	1.0	5.9	0.0	2.5	
Peru	15.8	19.2	12.6	...	19.7	20.7	2.6	22.1	3.0	9.7	0.3	11.6	
Uruguay	24.9	38.3	22.6	34.1	28.1	44.2	13.4	49.4	9.1	13.3	1.9	21.0	
Venezuela (Bol. Rep. of)	19.4	28.0	20.0	23.7	17.9	34.8	7.7	45.0	3.9	8.2	0.3	8.8	
Caribbean	32.9	24.0	32.0	22.2	34.5	30.3	18.2	87.8	6.3	9.5	0.4	24.6	
Anguilla	...	13.3 ^b	...	10.3 ^b	...	16.6 ^b	...	69.0 ^b	26.0	
Antigua and Barbuda	25.3	119.5	2.9	26.0	
Aruba	...	20.4 ^b	...	16.8 ^b	...	24.5 ^b	28.2	85.0 ^b	2.7	22.6 ^b	
Bahamas	...	23.3	...	20.0	...	26.9	28.1	102.8	1.8	29.3	
Barbados	30.7	23.4 ^b	21.8	21.3 ^b	40.5	26.0 ^b	28.1	123.9	7.5	12.6	0.4	55.4	
Belize	...	22.5 ^b	...	15.4 ^b	...	34.7 ^b	9.2	48.0	8.8	13.8 ^b	0.9	13.4	
British Virgin Islands	41.8	89.6 ^b	18.2	
Cayman Islands	...	9.5 ^b	47.0	122.9 ^b	
Dominica	...	40.6 ^b	...	36.4 ^b	...	46.3 ^b	16.4	88.1	...	18.2	1.1	28.8	
French Guiana	26.5	74.9 ^b	13.2	18.0	0.4	20.8	
Grenada	...	31.5 ^b	...	25.4 ^b	...	39.4 ^b	17.8	73.8	10.8	15.5	0.3	16.9 ^b	
Guadeloupe	29.5	...	21.1	...	40.4	...	30.6	116.6 ^b	19.1	20.3	0.0	17.8	
Guyana	...	20.0 ^b	...	17.5 ^b	...	24.4 ^b	2.0	27.0	2.4	3.5	0.1	18.9	
Jamaica	...	26.4	...	22.1	...	32.2	4.5	96.8	3.9	6.2	0.6	39.9	
Martinique	33.9	118.4 ^b	10.6	20.8	...	27.1	
Montserrat	32.7	
Netherlands Antilles	...	27.2 ^b	...	24.9 ^b	...	30.0 ^b	24.7	50.8 ^b	0.2	0.9	
Puerto Rico	31.3	23.8 ^b	33.3	23.8 ^b	27.6	24.7 ^b	28.5	97.4	0.3	22.1	
Saint Kitts and Nevis	23.8	70.0	11.3	22.0	2.0	21.4 ^b	
Saint Lucia	...	40.0	49.2	12.9	40.9 ^b	13.3	17.3	0.7	36.7
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	12.4	75.2	8.9	13.2	0.5	6.6	
Suriname	36.6	34.1 ^b	29.0	23.9 ^b	46.2	58.2 ^b	9.2	67.1	...	4.6 ^b	0.2	6.8	
Trinidad and Tobago	36.4	21.1 ^b	33.1	17.4 ^b	42.5	26.4 ^b	14.1	74.4	4.7	8.0 ^b	0.4	12.2	
Turks and Caicos Islands	
United States Virgin Islands	121.7	27.3 ^b	

Source: United Nations, *The Millennium Development Goals: A Latin American and Caribbean Perspective* (LC/G.2331-P), J.L. Machinea, A. Bárcena and A. León (coords.), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), June 2005; United Nations, Millennium Indicators Database [online], <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Default.aspx>; and Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), Estadísticas de América Latina y el Caribe, database [online] <http://websie.eclac.cl/sisgen/ConsultaIntegrada.asp>.

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^b Figure relating to the most recent year for which information was available as distinct from the year appearing in the heading of the column.